

International Migration Outlook



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SOPEMI 2010



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Foreword

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

The report is divided into five parts plus a statistical annex. Part I contains two subsections. The first of these provides a broad overview of recent trends in international migration flows, both temporary and permanent and a look at population growth in countries undergoing demographic decline. Migration already accounts for about 60% of total population growth in the OECD as a whole, and more than 85% in the countries of southern Europe, Austria and the Czech Republic. Special attention is devoted to changes in labour migration flows associated with the economic crisis. The movement of international students – the number of foreign students in tertiary education more than doubled in the OECD between 2000 and 2007 – is examined, and the first attempt to calculate stay rates – changes of status for those who do not renew their student permits – is presented, showing that stay rates varied between 15 and 35% in 2007.

The second subsection of Part I highlights major changes in migration policy. It looks specifically at the expansion in demand-driven systems for recruitment of workers from abroad, as well as the increasing use of points-based systems to select immigrants likely to succeed on the labour market. Recent developments in integration, residence and citizenship policies are described.

Part II provides a close look at the impact of the economic crisis on the employment situation of immigrants, following up on the 2009 Special Edition of the International Migration Outlook focusing on the crisis. The disproportionate impact of the crisis on immigrants is examined, looking at factors such as concentration in specific sectors and gender differences.

Parts III and IV are devoted to special topics. Part III examines the determinants of public opinion regarding migration. It looks at recent opinion surveys, individual determinants and the role of major stakeholders such as social partners and the media. Part IV focuses on the determinants of acquisition of nationality and the impact of naturalisation on labour market outcomes.

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

This book has...



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Editorial:

**Ensuring that Migrants are Onboard
the Recovery Train**

The recent recession has slowed migration, especially that driven by labour demand. Yet, migration did not come to a halt – in part because family and humanitarian movements are less sensitive to changes in labour market conditions, but also because of structural needs and demographic trends. Concealed behind a slack labour market, the ageing of the population is starting to reduce the working-age population in many countries.

The crisis has also had the effect of throwing many immigrant workers out of work, at a higher rate than for native-born workers. Many were recent migrants, but not all. The road to steady employment for migrants in the past has often been a long one. With job loss, the return to such employment in the wake of the crisis could also be long. Add to this the fact that, even in good times, labour market integration for immigrants and their children in many OECD countries has not always met expectations.

The current situation for immigrants, particularly youth, is a particularly difficult one. The sharpest decline in employment is observed among immigrant youth, particularly in the countries hardest hit by the crisis. There is a real threat that this will have a long-term negative impact on their integration outcomes.

It is important to remember that migrants were contributors to the national economy when times were good; they should not be seen as a burden when times are bad. Those who are without work should be given equal opportunity with native-born unemployed to develop their skills and to re-integrate the ranks of the employed during the recovery. Jobs are the best insurance against social exclusion and marginalisation of migrants and their children. Employment contributes to their integration and to broader social cohesion. It also addresses the concerns of public opinion towards immigration.

There is no escaping the fact that more labour migration will be needed in the future in many OECD countries as the recovery progresses and the current labour market slack is absorbed. There are several reasons for this, which it is useful to recall.

More and more new jobs in OECD economies are highly skilled, but many countries are struggling to meet increasing demand for highly-skilled workers. Recruitment from abroad is one possible solution to which many countries will have recourse in the future as they did prior to the recent recession.

Many lesser-skilled jobs are not finding enough takers among young entrants to the workforce. Immigrants are the ones who often have been taking on these jobs in food processing, cleaning, hotels, restaurants and construction. Without immigrants, services in these areas would be harder to obtain and prices higher.

Personal care is another sector where there will be large labour needs, both to look after dependent older persons but also after children whose mothers wish to pursue their careers or enter the workforce. One likely source of workers in these occupations is the immigrant workforce.

Public pensions and health-care systems are largely financed by the contributions of persons who are working. The drop in the birth rate which occurred in the 1970s means that there will not be enough workers to pay for the pensions of persons retiring and their

additional health expenses. After raising the participation rate of the resident population, one way to reduce the need for higher taxes and pressure on public finances is to bring in immigrant workers, who contribute to pension and health-care regimes, but do not draw on them immediately.

But participation rates in many OECD countries are already high. Although mobilising domestic labour resources is the best way to address expected declines in the working-age population, it may not be sufficient. Further increases to participation rates will be harder and harder to come by, making a greater recourse to labour migration likely.

Under what circumstances is additional labour migration politically possible? There are two main requirements. The first is good outcomes for immigrants already here. The second is labour migration that corresponds to real labour market needs.

Good labour force outcomes for immigrants are not just desirable. They are an imperative which OECD economies cannot afford to ignore. Immigrants need to be actively engaged in the labour market and to be as self-sufficient as native-born persons of comparable education and skill. This means that as the recovery train pulls out of the station and employment grows again, immigrants have to be on board. Demography should provide a helping hand, because more and more baby-boomers will be retiring every year. But this does not ensure that everybody will get on the train – measures to address immigrant-specific obstacles to skill development, labour market entry and stable jobs need to be reinforced.

Better language proficiency needs to be encouraged and financed – good labour market-oriented training is costly, but a wise investment. Links to employers and to jobs, which immigrants have fewer of, must be fostered. Training for available jobs should be organised and adapted for immigrants as well as the native-born. In a world where labour is becoming scarcer, immigrants are a valuable resource and employers need to see this. Discrimination, whether based on prejudice or on inaccurate information, needs to be combated effectively. The recovery needs to be one for everyone, both immigrants and natives.

As for new labour migration, more than ever this must be in accordance with real labour market needs. Tackling slack in the labour market should have priority: where resident unemployed workers are available or can be easily trained to fill a job, this should be the first option before workers are recruited from abroad. But it is admittedly not always easy to determine if this is the case. Safeguards can be introduced, by means of a close and regular monitoring of the labour market, by lowering the costs of domestic hiring (for example, via wage subsidy or training programmes) or by raising the costs of recruitment from abroad, and by more effective border control and workplace enforcement.

Ensuring that both settled immigrants and newcomers to OECD countries from varied cultural and social backgrounds play a productive role requires good policies to ensure good outcomes. And immigrants' productive role needs to be recognised as such. The crisis has not made it easier to achieve good outcomes, but in the face of an ageing future, this has become more necessary than ever before.

John P. Martin



Director for Employment, Labour and Social Affairs

Introduction

*2010 edition of International Migration Outlook
shows a slight drop in migration flows
to the OECD...*

Permanent-type legal immigration of foreign nationals (about 4.4 million) fell 6% in 2008, the first decline after 5 years of averaging 11% growth. However, this decline was mostly due to decreases in just a few countries, and also reflected the particularly high flows in 2007. Nonetheless, the decline in flows continued in 2009, with migration declining in most OECD countries as a result of the economic crisis.

*... notably in free movement migration
and family migration...*

Migration within free movement areas accounted for about a quarter of all migration in the OECD in 2008, and 44% in Europe. In Norway, Switzerland, Austria and Denmark such migration accounts for well more than half of all migration. Among European countries, Portugal, Spain, the United Kingdom and Italy all appeared as important labour migration countries in 2008, with 20-30% of permanent-type immigrants arriving for work-related reasons. Elsewhere, except in Japan and Korea, family migration continues to dominate among the inflows of permanent-type immigrants. Family migration remains predominant in the United States (65%) and in France and Sweden.

*... temporary migration remains important,
although affected by the economic downturn...*

Temporary migration had been growing since the mid-2000s, but started to decline in 2008, although this decline was most apparent in the temporary labour migration programmes. In 2008, over 2.3 million temporary labour migrants arrived in OECD countries, a 4% decline after four years of steady growth, and all signs are of further decline in 2009. Seasonal work, working holiday programmes, and intra-company transfers all saw increases in 2008, while other categories – largely fixed-term labour migration – declined. Temporary labour migration was also one of the first migration channels to be affected by the economic downturn.

*... while the number of asylum seekers continues
to rise*

Asylum seeking in OECD countries has been rising again since 2006. In 2008, the United States was the largest receiving country at 39 400, with France, Canada, the United Kingdom and Italy all over 30 000. Norway, Sweden and Switzerland are the main receiving countries in per-capita terms. Iraq, Serbia and Afghanistan are the most important countries of origin.

The increasing flows of international students lead to some permanent stay

Overall the number of international students more than doubled between 2000 and 2007, to over 2 million; the United States and the United Kingdom, Germany, France and Australia are the main destination countries. The sharpest percentage increases have occurred in New Zealand, Korea, followed by the Netherlands, Greece, Spain, Italy and Ireland. International students are a potential source of highly skilled labour migrants for OECD countries, and the *International Migration Outlook* provides a first attempt to analyse stay rates – changes of status for those who do not renew their student permits. Using this method, the estimated stay rates vary between 15 and 35%, with an average of 21%.

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

The top twenty countries of origin in terms of inflows accounted for over half of all inflows in 2008, with China, Poland, India and Mexico at the top of the list. Compared to the flows seen in the late 1990s, the largest increases were from Colombia, China, Romania and Morocco. Since the year 2000, however, flows have been falling from the Philippines and the Russian Federation. Outflows of Poles to other European countries remained high in 2008.

Much of the population growth – and a substantial part of those entering the working-age population – in many OECD countries in recent years was due to international migration...

If migration rates stay largely at their current levels, the working-age population in OECD countries will rise by 1.9% between 2010 and 2020, compared to the 8.6% growth seen between 2000 and 2010. Between 2003 and 2007, 59% of population growth was accounted for by migration. Immigrants represent up to a third of new entries to the working-age population, although the arrival of children and older immigrants reduces this contribution. Only in France, the United States and New Zealand was natural increase the main driver of population growth. For a number of countries – in Southern Europe, Austria and the Czech Republic – about 90% of population growth was due to migration.

... Yet more of the growth in employment has come from increased employment rates of residents rather than international migration

Overall, 51% of employment growth has come from increases in the employment rate of residents, and 39% from international migration, with wide variations among OECD countries. Many of the countries which saw employment growth principally through greater mobilisation of the resident labour force were those with relatively high employment rates – above 75% – such as Denmark, Switzerland and Sweden. On the contrary, with the exception of the United Kingdom, those countries where employment growth came largely from external sources had employment rates below the OECD average.

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

The focus on high-skilled migrants, including the use of points-based systems (Denmark, United Kingdom, Netherlands) continued, as did the shift in supply-driven systems towards favouring applicants with job offers in permanent programmes (Australia, Canada). While one country (Sweden) opened to migration by migrants of all skill levels, elsewhere the only opening to less skilled migration was in modifications to some seasonal work programmes to favour recourse to this form of temporary migration (Australia, Poland).

... including integration and naturalisation policies

Changes in family reunification policies have tended to impose restrictive criteria, such as residency and income requirements. The use of language or civics tests as a precondition for family reunification and for naturalisation continues to expand.

Some changes can be specifically related to the crisis

In 2008-2009, a number of new migration policy initiatives aimed at dealing with the challenges posed by the economic downturn. Labour migration channels were examined closely, and criteria for admission refined, in a number of OECD countries. Provisions for unemployed migrants unable to renew temporary permits were adopted (Spain, Ireland), and assistance provided for their return (Spain, Japan, Czech Republic). Some quotas were cut (Italy, Korea, Spain, Australia).

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

The rise in unemployment between 2008 and 2009 was higher among the foreign-born than among the native-born in almost all OECD countries. Similarly, in most OECD countries, employment rates fell further for the foreign-born than for the native-born, although in several countries the impact was counteracted by rising participation rates among immigrants. While total native-born employment decreased in almost all OECD countries during the downturn, a number of countries saw significant increases in total employment of the foreign-born. Even so, the rise in employment did not keep pace with the increase in the size of the foreign-born labour force due to continuing inflows.

Young migrants are particularly affected...

In most OECD countries, foreign-born youth have seen steeper drops in employment than native-born youth. While the overall decrease in employment for youth (15-24) was 7% in

the year following the second quarter of 2008, the decline was as much as twice for immigrant youth. Unemployment was already high among immigrant youth, and in 2009 stood at 15% in the United States, 20% in Canada and 24% in the EU15. Because the rapid integration of youth and recently arrived immigrants into the labour market has been identified as one of the key determinants for their long-term integration, low employment rates are worrying. A recession carries the risk of “scarring effects”, as immigrants who have not managed to get employed quickly after arrival may be stigmatised in the labour market. Language, training, mentoring and apprenticeships appear particularly important policy responses to reinforce during a downturn.

... although immigrant women have been faring better than men

Foreign-born women have been less affected by the crisis than men, as the latter are concentrated in the sectors which suffered the most (construction, manufacturing, finance). In all countries but Belgium and Hungary, the unemployment rate of foreign-born women increased less than that of their male counterparts. In some countries, foreign-born women have increased their participation rate, as usually occurs to compensate for income loss by male members of their families.

The factors which make immigrants vulnerable to job loss also make it more difficult for active labour market policies to reach them

The report examines the determinants of the recent labour market outcomes of immigrants. They tend to be overrepresented in sectors sensitive to economic fluctuations, generally have less secure contractual arrangements and are more often in temporary jobs, have less tenure in the job, and may be subject to selective lay-offs. Immigrants may *de facto* be excluded from certain measures where eligibility is explicitly or implicitly linked to the duration of stay in the country or to administrative status, such as public-sector job schemes, or those requiring minimum tenure or permanent contracts. The report identifies some areas where policy can help reduce the negative long-term effects on the employment of immigrants.

Two special chapters deal with topical issues...

Two particularly salient issues are covered in special chapters. The first examines how public opinion regarding immigration is shaped. The second examines the determinants and labour market impact of naturalisation.

... the first special chapter addresses the issue of public opinion and migration

This chapter analyses a number of opinion surveys over the past decade and presents new empirical findings about the shaping of public opinion on immigration. The role of individual characteristics both in shaping opinions about the economic and cultural consequences of

immigration and in forming preferences over migration policies is assessed. One of the main points to emerge from the analysis is that beliefs about the economic and cultural impact of immigration significantly influence individual attitudes towards immigration. Public debate on the issues of immigration and migration policy is still broadly determined by the way these issues are covered by the media and by the effects of a certain number of collective beliefs. Certain parts of the population are likely to adopt different positions on immigration, not only because of its distributive effects, but also according to how they value cultural diversity, among other things. The point therefore is not so much to seek consensus in public opinion on immigration issues as to limit the effect of popular beliefs and misconceptions. In this context, reforms of migration policies need to enhance public knowledge and understanding of the economic, social and cultural impact of migration. Achieving this objective requires greater transparency over the scale of international immigration, better access to information and comparable international migration statistics. Regular and open discussion with interest groups should be based on relevant research findings. Public knowledge could also be improved through objective and broader coverage of the migration issue by the media.

*... and the second special chapter analyses
the impact of naturalisation on labour market
integration*

Take up of citizenship varies greatly among immigrants in OECD countries. In countries that have been settled by migration, virtually all regular migrants acquire nationality within ten years of arrival. In European OECD countries, the share of long-term resident immigrants who have naturalised has increased over the last decade. Naturalisation rates of migrants differ among migrant groups. In almost all countries, citizenship take-up tends to be higher among immigrants from lower-income countries than among immigrants from high-income OECD countries. Likewise, immigrant women are more likely to have the host-country nationality than men, as are immigrants with tertiary education. Immigrants who have naturalised tend to have better labour market outcomes. This is particularly true for migrants from lower-income countries and for immigrant women. Immigrants who naturalise already tend to have better labour market outcomes prior to naturalisation, but there is an additional improvement following naturalisation which suggests that it has, in itself, a positive impact on immigrants' labour market outcomes. This improvement of outcomes may be due to lower labour market barriers, increased mobility and reduced discrimination. Naturalisation seems to especially affect immigrants' access to better-paid jobs and to employment in the public sector. Among the lessons to be drawn from this chapter are that lowering barriers – such as limits on dual nationality and overly restrictive eligibility criteria – would help improve immigrants' labour market outcomes in the aggregate. Those who are already eligible should be encouraged to take up the nationality of the host country.

PART I

Recent Trends in International Migration

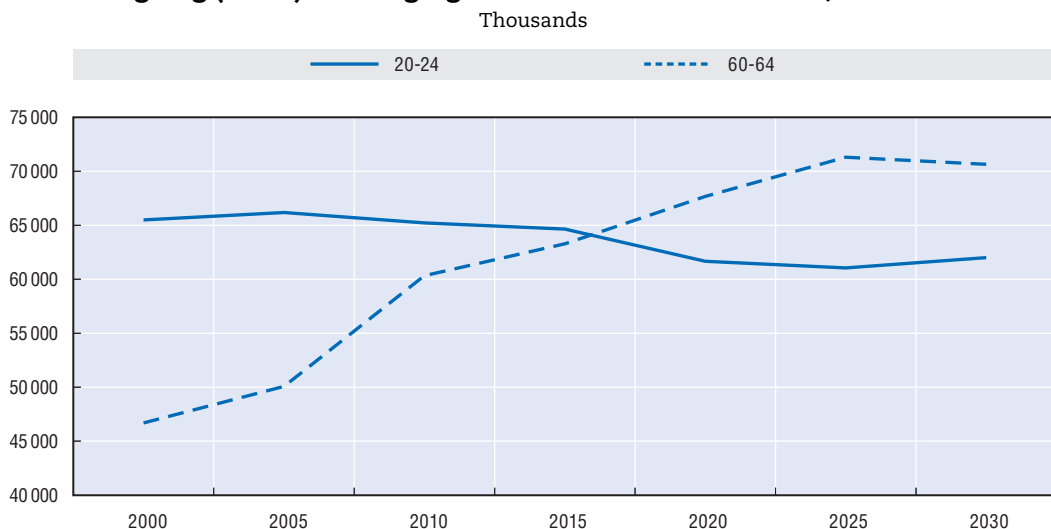
A. Recent Flows, Demographic Developments and Migration

1. Introduction

The period 2005-2015 is a transition period in OECD countries with respect to the demographic impact of the baby-boom on the working-age population and the labour force. Persons born after 1945 have been entering their sixties and will be retiring over the period, if they have not already done so before the age of sixty. These baby-boom cohorts are significantly larger than those that came before. While the incoming (20-24) working-age cohorts in OECD countries were some 32% larger on average¹ than the outgoing retiring (60-64) ones in 2005, the situation in 2015 will be substantially different, with the incoming labour force cohorts being scarcely 2% larger (see Figure I.1). By 2020 they will be some 9% smaller. For almost half of OECD countries, the outgoing cohorts will be larger than the incoming ones in 2015. The countries which are aging the most in this respect are Germany and Japan, the countries of southern Europe but also Hungary, the Czech Republic and Poland.


At a time when many OECD countries were thus poised for what seemed a tightening of the labour supply with a likely greater recourse to labour migration, the economic crisis arrived to put a brake on movements. An overview of migrants in OECD labour markets through the economic crisis appears later in Part II. Here we will focus on migration movements during 2008 and 2009, keeping in mind that it was only in the autumn of 2008 that the scale of the crisis became evident, as was the fact that it would be affecting all countries. However, in some countries, notably Ireland, GDP was already in decline in the

Figure I.1. **Observed and projected size of the incoming (20-24) and outgoing (60-64) working-age cohorts in OECD countries, 2000-2030**



Note: The statistics exclude Mexico and Turkey.

Source: World Population Prospects, the 2008 revision, UN Population Division.

StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/882382530058>

first quarter of 2008 and by the second quarter, GDP growth in the large economies of Europe and in Japan had fallen below the zero line. The rise in unemployment followed in most countries in the third quarter of 2008. In some countries, it is clear that the decline in labour migration began earlier and gathered momentum over the year. The total inflows for 2008 show some inertia, however, because some of the movements were already planned and were maintained despite the onset of the crisis.

2. International migration flows during 2008

Overall permanent international migration movements declined by about 6% from 2007 to 2008 to reach 4.4 million persons (Table I.1), the first time a decline has been

Table I.1. **International migration flows, 2003-2008**

	Permanent-type migration (standardised statistics)						Change 2007-2008	
	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008		
							%	
Spain	682 300	391 900	-290 400	-43
Czech Republic	57 100	49 700	55 900	63 000	98 800	71 800	-27 000	-27
Italy	120 100	153 100	193 500	171 300	571 500	424 700	-146 800	-26
Ireland	42 400	41 800	66 100	88 900	89 500	67 600	-21 900	-24
Japan	87 500	94 100	98 700	104 100	108 500	97 700	-10 800	-10
United Kingdom	260 200	322 900	369 400	354 200	364 400	347 400	-17 000	-5
Sweden	47 900	49 300	53 700	74 400	74 400	71 300	-3 100	-4
Germany	231 300	230 100	196 100	166 400	232 800	228 300	-4 500	-2
New Zealand	48 400	41 600	59 400	54 800	52 000	51 700	-300	-1
France	170 200	173 300	167 800	168 100	160 700	167 500	6 800	4
Canada	221 400	235 800	262 200	251 600	236 800	247 200	10 400	4
United States	703 500	957 900	1 122 400	1 266 300	1 052 400	1 107 100	54 700	5
Austria	32 900	50 200	52 900	2 700	5
Korea	82 200	88 900	153 600	189 400	184 200	194 700	10 500	6
Australia	125 900	150 000	167 300	179 800	191 900	205 900	14 000	7
Belgium	35 000	35 600	40 300	43 900	3 600	9
Finland	9 400	11 500	12 700	13 900	17 500	19 900	2 400	14
Switzerland	79 700	80 700	78 800	86 300	122 200	139 300	17 100	14
Norway	22 200	24 900	25 700	28 000	43 800	51 000	7 200	16
Netherlands	60 700	53 800	60 300	61 300	69 800	82 500	12 700	18
Denmark	16 800	15 400	16 900	20 200	26 400	37 500	11 100	42
Portugal	11 000	13 100	11 500	25 100	42 900	65 900	23 000	54
Mexico	4 800	8 500	9 200	6 900	6 800	15 100	8 300	122
Total					4 520 400	4 183 000	-337 400	-7
Total excluding Spain, Austria and Belgium	2 402 700	2 796 500	3 181 300	3 374 000	3 747 500	3 694 200	-53 300	-1
% change							-7	
% change excluding Spain, Austria and Belgium		16	14	6	11		-1	
	National statistics (not standardised)							
Turkey	147 200	148 000	169 700	191 000	174 900	175 000	100	0
Poland	30 300	36 900	38 500	34 200	40 600	41 800	1 200	3
Luxembourg	12 600	12 200	13 800	13 700	15 800	16 800	1 000	6
Slovak Republic	4 600	7 900	7 700	11 300	14 800	16 500	1 700	11
Hungary	19 400	22 200	25 600	19 400	22 600
Total excluding Hungary	194 700	205 000	229 700	250 200	246 100	250 100	4 000	2
% change excluding Hungary		5	12	9	-2	2		

n.a.: not available.

Sources and definitions: see Box I.1.

StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/884278054527>

observed since the OECD has been standardising statistics according to the “permanent migration” concept (see Box I.1).² By contrast, immigration had increased by an average of over 11% per year since 2003. The aggregate decline, however, reflects the result of falls in

Box I.1. **Standardised statistics on permanent immigrant inflows**

The statistics presented in Table I.1 are taken from an OECD-defined series which attempts to standardise the statistics on inflows on the basis of a common definition. The immigration flows covered in the statistics are those which can be considered to be permanent, viewed from the perspective of the destination country. In the case of regulated movements, this consists of persons who are granted a residence permit which is more or less indefinitely renewable, although the renewability is sometimes subject to conditions, such as the holding of a job. Excluded therefore are persons such as international students, trainees, persons on exchange programmes, seasonal or contract workers, service providers, installers, artists entering the country to perform or persons engaging in sporting events, etc.

In the case of free movement migration, permanent immigrants are often problematic to identify, because there are few, if any, restrictions placed on their movements or duration of stay. In some cases, they may not even be identified explicitly in the national statistics. In some cases, free movement migrants are granted a nominal permit of a specific duration, which is then used to assess whether the migration is likely to be “permanent” or not. In other cases, a one-year criterion is applied, that is, a permanent free-movement migrant is considered to be one who stays or intends to stay in the country of destination for at least one year. One exception concerns international students who are excluded from the ranks of “permanent immigrants”, in conformity with the practice when such students are from countries not participating in a free-movement regime.

The year of reference for these statistics is often the year when the residence permit was granted rather than the year of entry. In some cases these may differ. The data may also include persons who changed status, that is, persons who entered on a temporary status and then applied for and were granted permanent status, for example international students who become permanent labour migrants.

The term “permanent” here does not mean that the immigrants enter the country with the right of permanent residence. This generally occurs only in the principal migration regimes of the “settlement countries”, that is, the countries which were largely settled by immigrants within historical memory, namely Australia, Canada, New Zealand, and the United States, and in some special circumstances, if at all, in other countries. In these countries, immigrants generally receive a temporary permit upon arrival. The holding of temporary permits does not necessarily imply that immigrants with such permits are always viewed as temporary by the destination country. The temporary permits which some migrants receive can be renewed until a more stable permit is granted or the nationality of the destination country is acquired. This is not the case for temporary migrants, who also receive temporary permits, generally of shorter duration, and which are either not renewable or renewable only on a limited basis. In addition, the designation “permanent” does not imply that the migrants are in the country of residence for good, but rather that they are, in principle, on a migration “track” that is associated with or that can lead to permanent residence.

Every attempt is made to standardise national statistics according to this common definition, given data availability and limitations. The result is approximate but represents a considerable improvement on compilations of national statistics, whose coverage can vary by a factor of one to three.

Five new countries have been added to the series since the last time they were published in 2008, namely the Czech Republic, Ireland, Korea, Mexico and Spain.

some countries and increases in others, to some extent reflecting the timing of the onset of the crisis in different countries as well as the relative magnitude of labour and free movement migration, which have been more affected by labour market conditions than were family and humanitarian migration.

Spain, the Czech Republic, Italy and Ireland saw the largest declines (about 25% or more), while Denmark, Portugal and Mexico showed increases of over 40%. In some cases, the decline (or the increase) represents in part statistical anomalies rather than reflecting entirely actual changes in immigration patterns. In Italy, for example, the inflow figures for 2007 were artificially inflated by the entry of Romania and Bulgaria into the European Union in 2007. This resulted in large numbers of nationals from these countries who had arrived irregularly over a number of years formally entering the immigration statistics in that year, resulting in an apparent decline in flows in 2008. The decline might nonetheless have occurred, but would not have been so large.

Likewise, the large increase observed in Portugal from 2007 to 2008 is the consequence of a special programme allowing Brazilians who had been in the country for a number of years to regularise their situation and thus to enter the statistics.

The decline in inflows in 2008 manifested itself essentially in free movement and in discretionary labour migration,³ which fell by 21 and 7% respectively. The decline in labour migration accelerated in 2009, as is amply attested by national statistics. On the other hand, family migration – which includes family members accompanying labour migrants, family members joining an immigrant already present or persons entering for or as a result of marriage – increased slightly by over 3% and is the only category of migration which did not decline in 2008.

3. Immigration flows by category of entry

The increase in free movement migration within the European Economic Area (EEA) has been a new feature in the OECD international migration landscape since the initial EU enlargement in 2004 and again in 2007 with the addition of Bulgaria and Romania. This form of migration currently accounts for almost a quarter of all permanent migration in OECD countries and 44% of all migration in the European Economic Area, where it now significantly exceeds family migration of persons from outside the EEA (28% of the total), as well as labour migration from other countries (see Figure I.2).

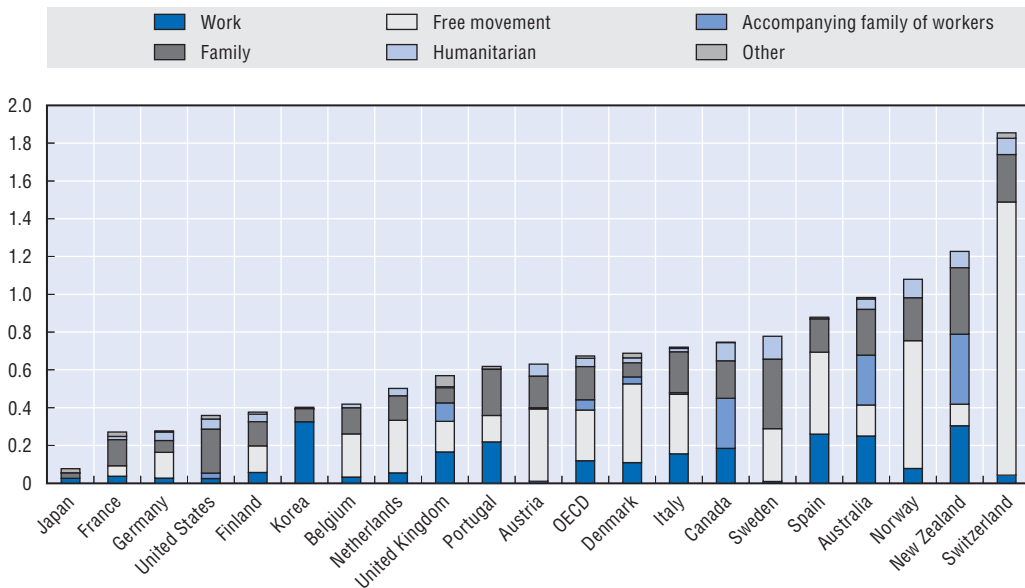
It is in Norway and Switzerland, neither of which are members of the European Union but which to all intents and purposes participate in the EU free-movement regime, that free movement migration has become the most frequent, accounting for almost 78% of all permanent migration in Switzerland and 63% in Norway. The high wage levels in these countries no doubt account in large part for these developments. Among EU countries, free movement migration was most common as a per cent of the total in Austria and Denmark, where it accounted for 61% of permanent migration in 2008.

Discretionary labour migration represented about 20% of all migration in both the OECD and the EEA (OECD) in 2008. It was common in the settlement countries except for the United States, but also in Southern Europe, the United Kingdom and Korea.


It is in the four most populous countries of the OECD (Mexico and Turkey excepted) that legal permanent migration movements were the lowest in proportion to the total population in 2008. The demographic situation in these countries, however, is far from uniform, with Germany and Japan having among the lowest fertility rates in the OECD

Figure I.2. **Permanent-type migration by category of entry, 2008**

Percentage of the total population



Sources and definitions: see Box I.1.

StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/882411434834>

and France and the United States with fertility rates just below replacement level (2.1). The United States would move to the right in Figure I.2 if irregular migration were to be included, with flows estimated to be at about 500 000 per year (Passel and Cohn, 2008), but the relative level of migration would still remain below the OECD average. In addition to its low level of permanent labour migration, the United States is also characterised by the highest share of family migration in total migration in the OECD, almost 65%. This form of migration in the United States includes not only the migration of immediate family (spouses and minor children), but also that of adult siblings or children as well as parents.

4. Temporary worker migration

The number of temporary workers entering OECD countries declined in 2008 relative to 2007, by approximately 4%, after registering gains in each of the previous four years of 7% on average (Table I.2). They numbered approximately 2.3 million in 2008, significantly higher than the number of permanent labour migrants, which stood at roughly 1.5 million.⁴ A significant proportion of this migration occurs between OECD countries.

Temporary worker migration concerns both high- and low-skilled migrants, from high-level intracorporate transfers in multinational corporations to seasonal low-skilled workers in agriculture. In settlement countries, they include workers recruited from abroad to meet cyclical as well as seasonal labour needs, but also situations where employers cannot afford the delays associated with permanent migration. The largest category, “other temporary workers” is extremely heterogeneous and groups together many different types of workers, including highly skilled computer specialists as well as short-order cooks and hotel workers.


The category of working holiday makers constituted almost 11% of temporary workers in 2008 and seasonal workers more than one fourth. Two countries accounted for close to

Table I.2. **Temporary worker migration in OECD countries, 2003-2008**

Thousands

	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2008/2007 change (%)
Trainees	85	97	105	121	138	136	-1
Working holiday makers	187	208	221	225	245	274	12
Intra-company transfers	85	86	85	98	116	118	2
Seasonal workers	537	594	615	605	619	642	4
Other temporary workers	985	1 147	1 136	1 313	1 303	1 148	-12
All categories	1 879	2 133	2 163	2 362	2 421	2 319	-4
Annual change (%)		13	1	9	3	-4	
Sweden	10	8	5	5	9	14	51
Canada	103	113	123	139	165	193	17
Australia	152	159	183	219	258	300	17
Belgium	2	2	5	16	30	34	14
Spain	56	106	97	167	164	183	12
Denmark	5	5	5	5	7	7	11
Austria	23	21	18	15	15	16	4
Finland	14	15	19	22	24	25	4
Portugal	3	13	8	7	5	5	0
New Zealand	63	68	78	87	99	99	0
Japan	217	230	202	164	165	161	-2
Germany	402	406	390	353	349	332	-5
United States	326	361	367	426	484	443	-8
Switzerland	142	116	104	117	109	99	-9
Korea	26	26	29	39	53	47	-12
Norway	41	61	51	73	86	74	-15
Mexico	45	42	46	40	28	23	-16
United Kingdom	117	239	275	266	225	184	-18
France	25	26	27	29	30	22	-25
Italy	69	70	85	98	66	40	-39
Netherlands	39	45	47	75	52	17	-67
All countries	1 879	2 133	2 163	2 362	2 421	2 319	-4

Source: OECD Database on International Migration.

StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/884308574662>

one half or more of each of these two categories, Germany in the case of seasonal workers and Australia for working holiday workers.

The number of working holiday makers increased by over 12% in 2008, showing increases in all countries for which there were data except the United Kingdom. This category of temporary work was the only one which registered a large increase in 2008. All others increased slightly (seasonal workers or intracorporate transfers) or declined (other temporary workers, by 12%).

The coverage of the statistics on temporary workers is incomplete, both with respect to countries and categories. In addition, in some countries, movements that appear in the table as temporary are classified as permanent because the migrants in question, for example intracorporate transfers, are granted a status that essentially places them on a permanent migration track. Some movements, for example those involving cross-border service providers, may not be explicitly identified. In still other cases, work assignments are short and the movements may escape recording entirely. Nonetheless, the statistics

shown here provide a reasonably complete view of temporary worker movements which are consistent over time and provide an indication of developments in this area.

5. International migration flows and the economic crisis

The impact of the crisis is increasingly perceptible in international migration flows. If declining employer demand does not translate immediately into lower flows, by late 2008 in most OECD countries the effects of lower demand were visible. Most countries saw declining flows in 2009.

In countries where labour migration is directly dependent on employer demand, significant declines were evident in many countries in 2009. One indication of lower demand is the number of applications by employers for authorisation to hire a worker from abroad. In the United States, the number of certified requests for temporary workers under the H-1B programme fell from a peak of 729 000 in FY 2007 to 694 000 in 2008 and to 479 000 in 2009. Certifications for the H-2B programme also fell sharply, from 254 000 in FY 2008 to 154 000 in 2009. These declines do not translate into a corresponding decline in flows, since the entries are capped at 85 000 (with some exemptions) for the H-1B programme and 66 000 for the H-2B programme.

In other countries, the drop in employer demand led to fewer entries. In Canada, confirmed labour market opinions for temporary workers fell 41% in 2009 compared to 2008. In Australia, employer requests for temporary skilled workers in 2009 were only 60% of the 2008 level. In Finland, demand was down 43%. Countries affected first by the crisis – notably, Spain and Ireland – saw some of the sharpest declines in demand-driven migration. In Spain, labour migration under the general regime fell from more than 200 000 in 2007, to 137 000 in 2008 and to less than 16 000 in 2009. The Spanish seasonal work programme fell even further: from 41 300 in 2008 to just 3 600 in 2009. In Ireland, new work permits for non-EEA nationals fell from 10 200 to 8 600 and 3 900 over the period 2007 to 2009. In Japan, recruitment of new industrial trainees fell by about 30%.

A number of countries have targets or caps for their permanent labour migration programmes. However, these programmes are supply-driven and are generally oversubscribed. As a result, with the target levels remaining unchanged in Canada, New Zealand and the United States, entries did not decline. Australia, on the other hand, lowered its target level in response to the economic downturn, and the number of labour migrants admitted consequently fell.

Free movement within the European Union – much of which is for employment – appeared to be particularly sensitive to economic changes. Migration from the countries which joined the EU in 2004, especially Poland, has slackened significantly. The number of new applicants to the United Kingdom's Worker Registration Scheme fell 26% in 2008 and 34% in 2009. In Ireland, the number of citizens of these countries registering for a social security number fell 42% in 2008 and 60% in 2009. In Norway and Switzerland, the decline in free-movement inflows was about 30% between 2008 and 2009.

Other forms of international migration are less closely correlated with economic changes, or may be affected in different ways by economic changes. Family reunification rose in some OECD countries, in part due to previous increases in migrants present without their families. In other countries, however, family reunification declined as income criteria for sponsorship as well as transportation costs became more difficult to meet as unemployment spread among immigrants.

While flows have tended to decrease noticeably in OECD countries, this has not generally meant a decline in stocks, since inflows continued and have generally exceeded outflows. Nevertheless, return migration has been notable in some OECD countries, especially those hardest hit by the crisis, namely Ireland and Iceland. These countries have also seen increasing outflows of nationals. In Ireland, after years of net returns by Irish living abroad, emigration rose 37% between April 2008 and April 2009, resulting in zero net migration. Iceland saw net migration change from a net inflow of more than 1.5% of the total population in 2007 to a migration-induced population decline of the same order (*i.e.*, net emigration of 1.5%) in 2009, with about half of the net emigration being attributable to Icelandic citizens.

Free movement migration has been more reactive to labour market conditions than discretionary labour migration, because the jobs taken up by migrants in free-movement regimes have tended to be lesser skilled and to be precisely in those occupations and sectors that were booming, such as construction and hospitality. By contrast, permanent discretionary labour migration in OECD countries is generally selective and concerns higher level occupations or skills that are structurally in shortage, that is, where the national educational system is not generating a sufficient supply from domestic sources. This form of labour migration has tended to be less affected by the economic crisis but has declined as well.

6. Continents, regions and countries of origin of immigrants

In 2008, around one half of migrants to an OECD country went to Europe, a third to North America, 10% to Japan and Korea and 8% to Australia and New Zealand. These percentages are calculated on the basis of unstandardised data,⁵ however, and are therefore to be treated with caution. Their aim is to give an order of magnitude of movements in the OECD zone.

Several factors explain the distribution by region of origin. Geographical proximity is especially important when there exist significant income differences between neighbouring origin and destination countries. In addition, historical links between countries as well as the presence of immigrants of the same origin already resident in the destination country explain the fact that the geographic origin of current migrants is not the same in Europe, North America, Asia and Oceania. Overall, one half of migrants who went to Europe in 2008 came from within Europe, while an equal proportion (around 14% each) were from Africa/Middle East and the Asia/Pacific region (Table 1.3). Migrants who went to North America were in large part from Latin America and the Caribbean (37%) and Asia (35%). Migration flows to Japan and Korea are less varied, with more than 75% of entries coming from Asia. Finally, almost one half of new migrants in Australia and New Zealand were from the Asia/Pacific region, 22% were from Europe and 15% were from another country in the Oceania/South Pacific region.

The various regions of the world are represented to a very unequal degree in migration flows. In particular, persons from the poorest countries show the lowest propensity to emigrate, given the often high cost of an international migration (Table I.4). In 2008, 8% of the total flows originated in low-income countries (gross national income less than or equal to USD 975 in 2008 according to the World Bank classification⁶), which represented 14% of world population. Note that the groupings in the table below are made on the basis of the average wealth of the country and not according to the individual situation of

Table 1.3. **Distribution of inflows of migrants, by region of origin and destination, 2008**

Region of origin	Destination region (OECD area)				Total	
	Japan/Korea	Europe	North America	Australia/ New Zealand	('000)	%
	Percentages					
Africa	0.9	5.0	7.8	8.7	294	5.4
Asia and Pacific	75.8	13.6	34.6	46.0	1 525	27.8
Europe ¹	8.3	49.0	11.7	22.3	1 842	33.6
Latin America and the Caribbean	3.2	10.0	37.2	1.4	857	15.6
Middle East and North Africa	0.5	8.9	5.2	3.0	366	6.7
North America	9.0	2.6	2.1	2.4	179	3.3
Oceania and South Pacific	1.1	0.9	0.5	14.9	80	1.5
Not stated	1.1	10.0	0.9	1.3	344	6.3
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	5 487	100.0

1. Including Republics of former USSR.

Source: OECD Database on International Migration.

StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/884312437300>

Table I.4. **Immigrant flows to the OECD area by income group and region of origin, 2008**

Income group	Region of origin	Inflows (% of total inflows)	Population stock in 2007 (% of the world population)	Inflows per 10 000 inhabitants in the region of origin in 2007
Low income	Europe ¹	1	1	8
	East Asia and the Pacific	2	3	7
	South Asia	1	3	4
	Middle East and North Africa	0	0	3
	Sub-Saharan Africa	3	7	3
	Latin America and the Caribbean	1	0	32
	Total	8	14	5
Lower middle income	Europe ¹	4	1	29
	East Asia and the Pacific	15	26	5
	South Asia	6	20	2
	Middle East and North Africa	6	4	12
	Sub-Saharan Africa	2	4	3
	Latin America and the Caribbean	3	1	27
	Total	35	56	5
Upper middle income	Europe ¹	14	5	23
	East Asia and the Pacific	1	0	11
	Middle East and North Africa	1	1	12
	Sub-Saharan Africa	1	1	7
	Latin America and the Caribbean	12	7	13
	Total	28	14	16
High income	Europe ¹	16	7	21
	Asia	3	3	7
	Africa	0	0	48
	North America	3	5	5
	Latin America and the Caribbean	0	0	14
	Oceania	1	0	27
	Total	24	16	12
	Not stated	Not stated	5	
Total	Total	100	100	8

Note: Income groups according to the World Bank classification (see Box I.2).

1. Including Republics of the former USSR.

Source: OECD Database on International Migration.

StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/884315370884>

Box I.2. **Classifying countries of origin by national income levels**

The World Bank produces every year a classification of national economies according to their level of Gross National Income (GNI), converted to USD. The methodology includes an adjustment to reduce the effects of fluctuations in currency exchange rates. In 2008, the national income per capita of the least developed economies (low-income) was USD 975 or less. The middle-income economies are divided into two groups: lower-middle-income countries, with GNP per capita between USD 975 and USD 3 855; and upper-middle-income economies, between USD 3 856 and USD 11 905. A fourth and final group consists of those economies with GNI per capita above the latter figure.

An economy can change category, depending on how its relative position among the economies of the world evolves. It can thus either improve or deteriorate. Thus China was among low-income economies until 1997 when it moved into the group of lower-middle-income economies. This is also the case for India (2007), Moldova (2005), Nicaragua (2005) and Ukraine (2002). The relative position of Brazil (which has been in the upper middle income group since 2006) fluctuated considerably during the 1990s and 2000s. Many other changes occurred, which it would be too long to mention here. According to the above classification, 14% of the world's population lived in one of the 43 low-income countries (7% in sub-Saharan Africa, 3% in South Asia and 3% in East Asia and the Pacific).

Analyses of immigration by origin generally classify countries according to geography, in particular by continent or regions. This tends to reflect cultural/linguistic/ethnic differences rather than economic ones, which tend to be the driving forces behind international migration movements. The statistics presented here are a first attempt to reflect economic considerations in the classification of countries of origin. They are used here to examine the relation between national income level and the propensity to emigrate and the under-/over-representation of migrants from particular national income groups in international movements.

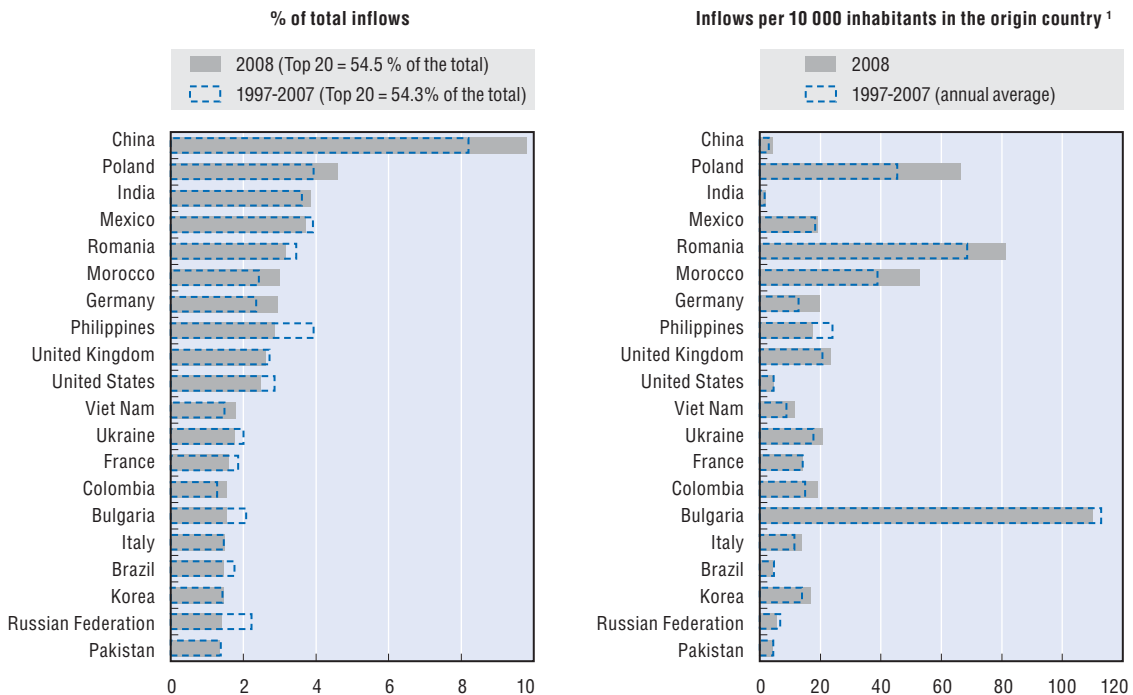
For more information, see <http://data.worldbank.org/about/country-classifications>.

immigrants. Those coming from a poor country, for example, can be relatively well-off compared to the average income level of their country of origin. Likewise, immigrants from rich countries may have varying income levels.

Among lower-middle-income countries figure China, India, Indonesia and most of the countries of Southeast Asia. This group is largely underrepresented in recent flows (35% of total flows in 2008), given its considerable demographic weight (56% of world population in 2007). Table above indicates that persons from countries in the upper-middle-income category have the highest propensity to emigrate. Significant migration countries make up this group, the main ones being Bulgaria, Colombia, Mexico, Poland, Romania, Russia and Turkey but also Brazil and Chile. In 2008, this group of countries was largely overrepresented in the total flow of migrants (28% of total flows to OECD countries but a demographic weight of 14% of world population). To a lesser extent, persons from high-income countries are also overrepresented (24% of the flows, but 16% of the population).

The top 20 countries of origin of recent migrants (Figure I.3 and Table I.5) represent a little more than one-half of entries into OECD countries, with persons of Chinese origin at the top (10% of flows in 2008), followed by Poles (about 5%) and Indians and Mexicans and (close to 4% for each of these two). The propensity to emigrate of persons from Eastern Europe remains very high. This is particularly the case for Bulgaria (the flow in 2008 represented more than 1% of the Bulgarian population) and to a lesser extent for Romania and Poland (8 and 6 per thousand in both cases).


Figure I.3. **Top 20 origin countries of immigrants to the OECD, 1997-2008**



Note: As inflow data are not available for Belgium, Denmark and Italy, they are assumed to be identical to 2007 levels.

1. The reference population for inflows per 10 000 inhabitants for the period 1997-2007 is the 1997 population.

Source: OECD Database on International Migration.

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While Mexicans tend to go to the United States and Poles to the other European OECD countries, more than one half of Chinese migrants went to Japan or Korea, 20% to Europe, 15% to the United States and 11% to Australia, Canada and New Zealand. Recent flows from India are very differently distributed throughout the OECD zone: 30% have the United States as their destination, 22% the United Kingdom (19% another European country) and 12% Canada. Among the top 20 countries, Colombians, Chinese, Moroccans and Romanians have seen the highest rate of increase in the flows since 1995 (Table I.5).


Compared to movements observed over the 1997-2007 period, the flows of Chinese citizens grew significantly in Japan and Korea and to a lesser extent in Australia, Finland, Hungary, New Zealand and the United Kingdom (Figure I.4). The flows of Indians have increased in particular towards Australia and the United Kingdom. Flows have also increased for Germans emigrating towards neighbouring countries, such as

Table I.5. **Change in inflows to OECD, 1995-2008**

	Annual average inflows (thousands)				% of total inflows				Ratio of 2008 level to 1995-199 inflow average
	1995-1999	2000-2004	2005-2007	2008	1995-1999	2000-2004	2005-2007	2008	
China	144	335	483	539	4.9	7.6	9.0	9.8	3.7
Poland	102	135	264	253	3.4	3.1	4.9	4.6	2.5
India	78	152	189	212	2.6	3.4	3.5	3.9	2.7
Mexico	139	186	174	205	4.7	4.2	3.2	3.7	1.5
Romania	44	137	239	174	1.5	3.1	4.4	3.2	4.0
Morocco	40	112	141	165	1.3	2.5	2.6	3.0	4.2
Germany	57	88	126	162	1.9	2.0	2.3	3.0	2.8
Philippines	112	193	172	157	3.8	4.4	3.2	2.9	1.4
United Kingdom	83	116	155	143	2.8	2.6	2.9	2.6	1.7
United States	93	115	120	136	3.1	2.6	2.2	2.5	1.5
Viet Nam	49	59	83	98	1.6	1.3	1.5	1.8	2.0
Ukraine	38	91	104	97	1.3	2.1	1.9	1.8	2.6
France	59	72	74	88	2.0	1.6	1.4	1.6	1.5
Colombia	18	61	79	84	0.6	1.4	1.5	1.5	4.7
Bulgaria	57	91	93	84	1.9	2.1	1.7	1.5	1.5
Italy	63	54	63	82	2.1	1.2	1.2	1.5	1.3
Brazil	35	76	104	80	1.2	1.7	1.9	1.5	2.3
Korea	45	63	69	80	1.5	1.4	1.3	1.5	1.8
Russian Federation	69	102	82	77	2.3	2.3	1.5	1.4	1.1
Pakistan	33	55	65	74	1.1	1.2	1.2	1.3	2.2
Total top 20	1 357	2 295	2 878	2 991					2.2
% of total inflows	45.8	51.9	53.4	54.5					
All inflows	2 963	4 420	5 394	5 487					

Note: Top 20 countries, ranked in descending order of 2008 figures.

Source: OECD Database on International Migration.

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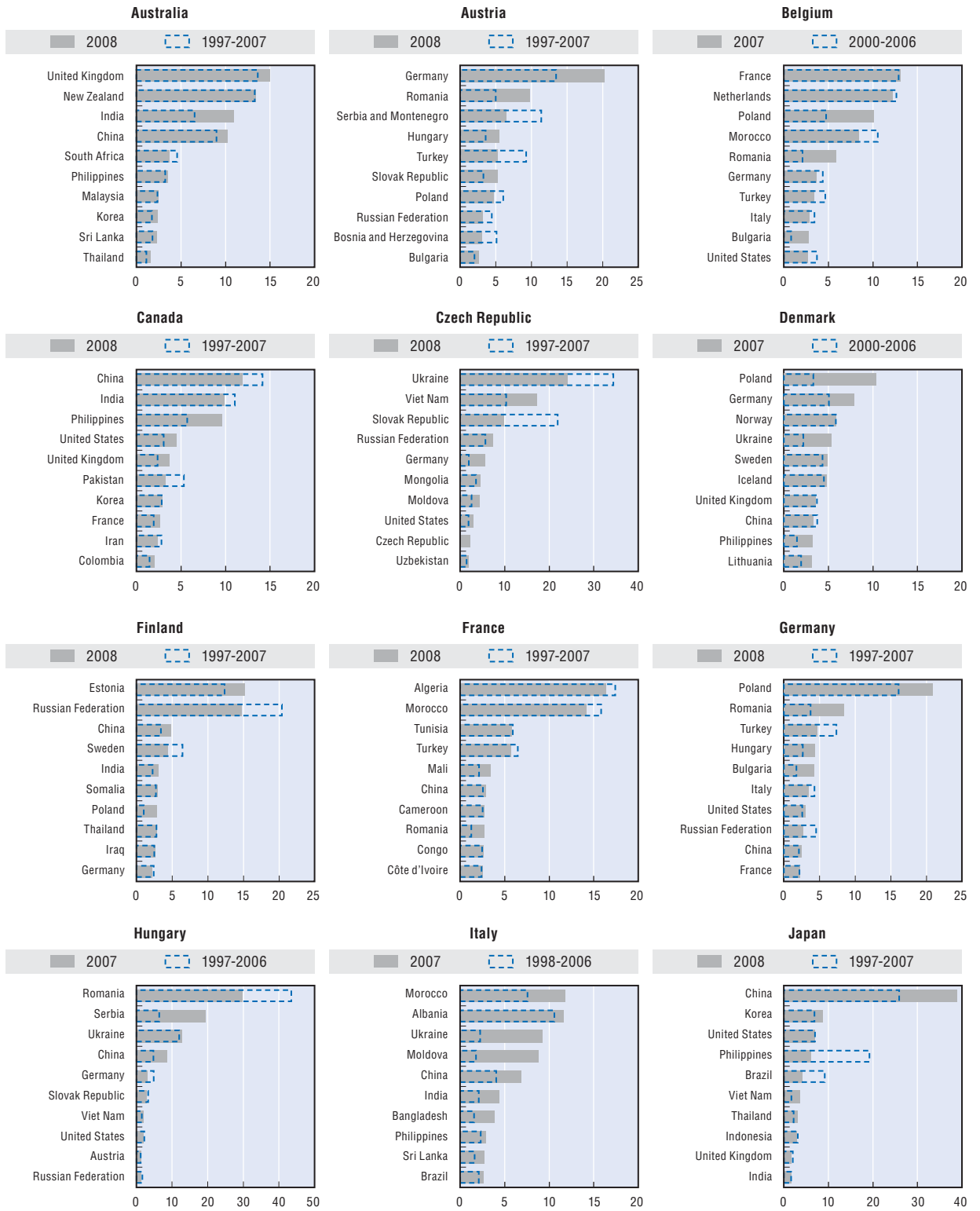
Austria, the Czech Republic, the Netherlands, Norway, Switzerland but also the United Kingdom.

The immigration of Poles has increased in a large number of European countries, especially in Belgium, Denmark, Ireland, the Netherlands, Norway, Sweden and the United Kingdom. Even if these flows quickly decreased in 2008 in response to the economic crisis, their volume in 2008 remained largely above the average level for the period 1997-2007.

The flows of Romanians going to Italy, Spain and Hungary decreased significantly in 2008.⁷ By contrast, the flows of this group increased considerably in Portugal but also in Austria, Belgium, Germany, the Slovak Republic and Sweden.

Figure I.4. **Change in inflows of migrants by country of origin, selected OECD countries, 1997-2007 and 2008**

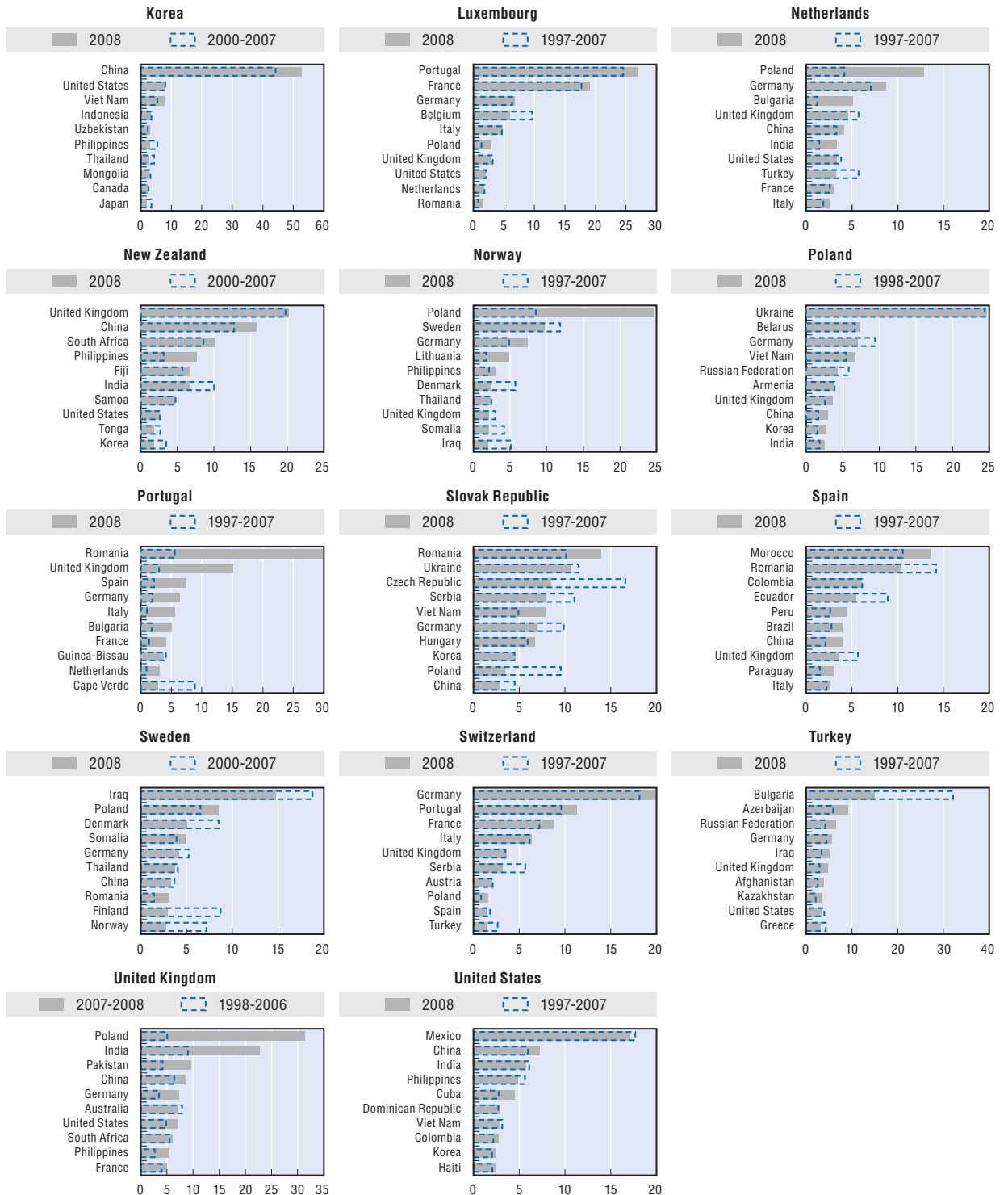
2008 top ten countries of origin as a percent of total inflows



Source: OECD Database on International Migration.

Figure I.4. **Change in inflows of migrants by country of origin, selected OECD countries, 1997-2007 and 2008 (cont.)**

2008 top ten countries of origin as a percent of total inflows



Source: OECD Database on International Migration.

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7. Asylum seekers

After bottoming out at 283 000 in 2006, the number of asylum seekers rose for the second consecutive year in 2008 to reach 355 000, an increase of about 14% relative to 2007 (Table I.6). Five countries received between 30 000 and 40 000 requests, namely Canada, France, Italy, the United Kingdom and the United States, although on a per capita basis, it is Norway followed by Sweden and Switzerland who receive the most requests for asylum, more than 2 000 per million population. The number of asylum seekers making their way to Korea, Japan and Portugal, on the other hand, remains extremely limited.

Asylum seeking in Europe has increased the most since 2000 in countries that are on the periphery, such as Greece, Italy, Poland and Turkey. For the first three countries, this may reflect in part the impact of the Dublin Convention, which requires that a request be processed in the first country entered. Despite this rule, requests remain high in a number of countries with no external borders, such as France, Germany and Sweden.

Table I.6. **Inflows of asylum seekers in OECD countries, levels, trends and main countries of origin, 2007-2008**

	2007	2008	2008		2008
	Index (2000 = 100)		Number	Per 1 000 000 population	Top 3 countries of origin
Australia	30	37	4 800	224	China, Sri Lanka, India
Austria	65	70	12 800	1 535	Russia, Afghanistan, Serbia
Belgium	26	29	12 300	1 158	Russia, Iraq, Serbia
Canada	83	102	34 800	1 045	Mexico, Haiti, Colombia
Czech Republic	21	19	1 700	163	Ukraine, Turkey, Mongolia
Denmark	15	19	2 400	437	Iraq, Afghanistan, Iran
Finland	45	127	4 000	753	Iraq, Somalia, Afghanistan
France	76	91	35 400	568	Russia, Serbia, Mali
Germany	24	28	22 100	269	Iraq, Serbia, Turkey
Greece	815	645	19 900	1 778	Pakistan, Afghanistan, Georgia
Hungary	44	40	3 100	308	Serbia, Pakistan, Somalia
Iceland	175	321	100	313	Serbia, Afghanistan, Nigeria
Ireland	36	35	3 900	882	Nigeria, Pakistan, Iraq
Italy	90	195	30 300	511	Nigeria, Somalia, Eritrea
Japan	378	740	1 600	13	Myanmar, Turkey, Sri Lanka
Korea	1 667	847	400	8	Sri Lanka, Pakistan, Myanmar
Luxembourg	69	75	500	1 033	Serbia, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Iraq
Netherlands	16	31	13 400	815	Iraq, Somalia, China
New Zealand	16	16	300	70	Iraq, Iran, Sri Lanka
Norway	60	133	14 400	3 020	Iraq, Eritrea, Afghanistan
Poland	157	157	7 200	189	Russia, Iraq, Viet Nam
Portugal	100	72	200	19	Sri Lanka, Colombia, Dem. Rep. of Congo
Slovak Republic	170	58	900	166	Georgia, Moldova, Pakistan
Spain	97	57	4 500	99	Nigeria, Colombia, Ivory Coast
Sweden	223	149	24 400	2 646	Iraq, Somalia, Serbia
Switzerland	59	94	16 600	2 171	Eritrea, Somalia, Iraq
Turkey	134	228	13 000	184	Iraq, Afghanistan, Iran
United Kingdom	29	32	31 300	510	Zimbabwe, Afghanistan, Iran
United States	99	96	39 400	130	China, El Salvador, Mexico
OECD	58	66	355 400	329	Iraq, Serbia, Afghanistan

Source: UNHCR.

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Iraqi nationals lodged some 45 000 requests in 2008, followed by nationals of Serbia, Afghanistan, Russia, Somalia and China, with close to half the total for Iraq for each country.

Preliminary figures for 2009 indicate that over the OECD area as a whole, the total number of asylum seekers remained virtually unchanged. Slight increases in the European OECD countries and, more markedly, in Australia and New Zealand, compensated for declining figures in North America. There was a rather marked increase in asylum seekers from Afghanistan, while asylum seeking of Iraqis declined strongly. As a result, according to the preliminary figures, Afghanistan seems to have replaced Iraq as the main origin country.

With more than 4 million permanent-type immigrants entering OECD countries every year and a minority of asylum seekers being recognised as refugees or granted temporary protection, this form of migration has become, if not a minor phenomenon, one that represents a relatively limited source of permanent legal immigration. It may, however, be a significant source of irregular migration if asylum seekers who are refused refugee status stay on.

8. International students

International students have become a significant group in international migration flows in OECD countries. They have gained importance as a result of broader policies to attract and retain highly-skilled migrants for the labour market. This is taking place largely in the context of so-called “two-step migration”, by which migrants are first attracted as international students and then retained as highly-skilled long-term workers in a second step. Many OECD countries have taken measures for both steps that go hand-in-hand. This section gives a more extended overview of international students and presents, for the first time, estimates of the number and per cent of students who stay on in the country where they have pursued their education.

Migration of international students

In an attempt to increase the enrolment of international students, many OECD countries and universities have introduced measures to make international study more attractive, for example by reducing tuition and other costs connected with the stay, offering English-language instruction, facilitating credit transfers and also allowing part-time work while studying. As a result of such measures (OECD, 2004) but also because of increasing international mobility in general, the number of international students has significantly increased in recent years.

The most recent numbers indicate that OECD countries receive between 2 to 2.5 million international students from around the world (Table I.7 and Box I.3), which corresponds to about 84% of all students studying abroad (OECD, 2009a). The general trend of increasing numbers of international students observed in the recent past continued in 2007. On average across countries, the number of international students has doubled from 2000 to 2007. Compared to 2000, all OECD countries have seen increases in the number of international students, with the largest increases being observed in Korea and New Zealand, where the increases were almost ten- and eightfold respectively within seven years (OECD, 2009a).

Box I.3. The definition of “international students”

Because of data limitations, the precise magnitude of international student migration is uncertain, although the orders of magnitude are well known. Data on *foreign students* have been collected for over a decade, but these numbers often include a considerable number of students who either migrated with their parents before taking up their studies or in some cases have even been resident in the host country since birth. The students who are of interest in the context of international migration, however, are those who have migrated for the purpose of taking up studies. Such *international students* are identified in national statistics, either as non-resident students or as students who obtained their prior education in a different country. In either case, the statistics on international students include a small group of non-resident nationals who have returned to their country of citizenship to study, but the error as a consequence of including these is far less important than that made by adopting the “foreign-student” definition. On average, international students account for about three quarters of the foreign-student population, with the exception of the Scandinavian countries, but also Canada and New Zealand, where the percentages are lower. In what follows, the concept of “international student” is the one retained for analysis, keeping in mind that for some countries or over some periods, the statistics referred to will actually be for foreign students.

Although the United States had the largest number of international students with close to 600 000 in 2007, the share of these students in total enrolment in the United States is only about half of the OECD average of 7.1%, as is approximately the case as well for Japan. By contrast, Switzerland and New Zealand have fewer numbers of international students, both around 30 000, but the international student share of both total student enrolment and of the population are in both cases about twice the OECD average.

For advanced research programmes, the international student share of enrolment in all countries is much higher in all countries, usually at least double the share of international students in tertiary education.

Along with the United States and Japan, Australia, Germany, France and the United Kingdom remain the main destination countries for international students in both tertiary education and in advanced research programmes. Together these six countries account for about 75% of all international students in the OECD. At the same time, these countries are also generally the main OECD source countries for international students, along with Korea, China and India (OECD, 2009a).

Retention of international graduates

As noted above, most countries have adapted their migration policies so as to retain international graduates in the country (OECD, 2008a) following the completion of their studies. The advantages of recruiting students educated in the host country include not only that of local degrees recognised by employers, knowledge of local work practices and regulations and better language proficiency. They also cover soft skills, such as an understanding of social and cultural norms. Through study in the host country, graduates also signal their ability to integrate both socially and economically into the host society as well as other attitudinal factors such as perseverance and self-management (OECD, 2009c).

Among the measures taken by OECD countries in recent years to facilitate international student migration (OECD, 2008a; ICMPPD, 2006; see also Part V in this

Table I.7. **Tertiary enrolment of international and foreign students (2007) and evolution since 2000**

International students in 2007			Foreign students					Number of students 2007		
In tertiary education		In advanced research programmes	In tertiary education		In advanced research programmes	Index of change in the number of foreign students, total tertiary		International students	Foreign students	
Percentage of enrolment	Per 1 000 population	Percentage of enrolment	Per 1 000 population	Percentage of enrolment	(2000 = 100) (2007/2006)					
OECD countries										
Australia ¹	19.5	10.1	20.8	22.5	11.6	31.5	200	113	211 500	244 300
Austria ¹	12.4	3.9	15.1	16.7	5.3	21.5	143	111	32 400	43 600
Belgium ^{1, 2}	7.5	2.4	20.5	12.2	3.9	29.9	107	102	25 200	41 400
Canada ^{1, 3, 4, 5}	7.7	2.1	21.2	14.8	4.0	39.0	140	89	68 500	132 200
Czech Republic ¹	5.6	2.0	7.2	6.8	2.4	8.9	448	115	20 200	24 500
Denmark ¹	5.5	2.3	6.6	9.0	3.8	21.5	162	109	12 700	20 900
Finland ⁶	4.1	2.4	7.8	3.3	1.9	8.0	181	113	12 700	10 100
France	11.3	3.9	37.9	180	100	..	246 600
Germany ⁶	..	2.5	..	11.3	3.1	..	138	99	206 900	258 500
Greece ³	3.5	1.9	..	246	128	..	21 200
Hungary ¹	3.0	1.3	6.7	3.5	1.5	7.5	153	104	12 900	15 100
Iceland ⁶	5.2	2.6	11.9	4.9	2.6	14.4	194	112	800	800
Ireland ⁶	8.8	4.0	226	..	16 800	..
Italy	2.8	1.0	5.9	230	117	..	57 300
Japan ¹	2.9	0.9	16.1	3.1	1.0	16.8	189	97	115 100	125 900
Korea	1.0	0.7	5.5	947	143	..	31 900
Luxembourg
Mexico
Netherlands ³	4.7	1.7	..	6.4	2.3	..	270	106	27 400	37 600
New Zealand ¹	13.6	7.8	26.6	26.8	15.4	45.7	791	96	33 000	65 000
Norway ¹	2.2	1.0	4.8	7.3	3.3	23.4	180	109	4 800	15 600
Poland	0.6	0.3	2.8	213	114	..	13 000
Portugal	4.9	1.7	9.6	169	105	..	18 000
Slovak Republic ¹	0.9	0.4	0.8	0.9	0.4	0.9	128	115	1 900	2 000
Spain ¹	1.8	0.7	9.9	3.4	1.3	21.9	235	117	32 300	59 800
Sweden ¹	5.4	2.4	5.9	10.3	4.7	21.7	167	103	22 100	42 800
Switzerland ^{3, 6}	14.0	4.0	45.0	19.3	5.5	45.0	158	104	29 800	41 100
Turkey	0.8	0.3	2.6	109	101	..	19 300
United Kingdom ¹	14.9	5.8	42.1	19.5	7.6	46.0	158	110	351 500	460 000
United States ¹	3.4	2.0	23.7	125	..	595 900	..
OECD average	7.1	3.0	16.3	8.7	3.5	20.4	235	105	1 834 500	2 048 200
Total for countries with both categories⁷							104		1 221 700	1 641 200

1. International students are defined on the basis of their country of residence.

2. Excludes data for social advancement education.

3. Percentage in total tertiary underestimated because of the exclusion of certain programmes.


4. Year of reference 2006 instead of 2007.

5. Excludes private institutions.

6. International students are defined on the basis of their country of prior education.

7. Only countries with data on both international students and foreign students are included.

Sources: Sources: Education at a Glance, OECD, 2009. www.oecd.org/edu/eag2009/; Education Database: www.oecd.org/education/database/; OECD. Stat: <http://stats.oecd.org/index.aspx>.

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publication) are support for the transition from student to worker status, for example, by providing courses in the language of the host country,⁸ such as in Finland with Finnish and Swedish language courses, or by mediating internships for international students, such as is done by the Public Employment Service in Japan. OECD countries have also facilitated visa procedures for international students and graduates in recent years, for example by allowing applications for permanent migration to be lodged in Australia, something which had not been previously permitted. Some countries, such as Finland and Norway, amended their naturalisation acts and now take the years of residence as students into account for the assessment of eligibility. The facilitation of and permission to work during studies in many countries, including Sweden, Norway, the Czech Republic and Australia, also have positive consequences for the retention of graduates. International students working part-time in companies may be kept on as regular employees after graduation and will have gained valuable country-specific working experience useful for employment in the host country.

Most OECD countries now allow international students the opportunity to search for work for a specified period following the completion of study. The time period varies from six months in France, New Zealand or Finland to up to one year in Germany or Norway, and has been extended in recent years in some countries, for example in the Netherlands, from three months to one year. In Canada, permanent residence has been also facilitated for international graduates.

The success of policies to retain international students as highly-skilled migrants in the domestic labour market can be assessed by means of *stay rates*, which measure the share of international students who stay in the host country for work or other reasons. In practice, this is tabulated as the percentage of students who change status, from student visa to other residence permit types, in particular work permit status. The estimates of stay rates need to be treated with some caution because of data limitations but also because they do not necessarily concern students who have finished their studies. Students may change status prior to graduation, for example, if they marry a national of the host country. Others may be allowed to stay for humanitarian or other reasons without graduating. In principle, one would like to know the number of graduates who stay on, but the data on students who change status do not identify whether or not the students concerned have completed their education. However, because work permit requirements for international students generally require a tertiary qualification as well as a job which corresponds to their field of study, it may well be the case that most international students who change permit status and become workers are international graduates.⁹ For reasons of consistency and international comparability, however, the stay rates in Table I.8 have been calculated using as the denominator the total number of students who have not renewed their student permits. Note that these rates exclude students in free-movement regimes who do not require a student visa or a work permit to remain in the country of study.

The number of status changes varies with the level of international student enrolment. It ranges from less than 300 in Austria and Belgium to between 10 000 to 18 000 in countries such as Germany, France and Canada (see Table I.8). Despite this broad range, in all countries appearing in the table except Germany, the majority of international students change status for work-related reasons (61% on average). A higher share of status changing for family formation is seen in Germany and temporarily for humanitarian reasons in Canada.

Table I.8. **Status changes of international students and stay rates in selected OECD countries, 2007**


Status changes	Number	Distribution			All status changes	Work status changes	Stay rate ¹
		Work	Family	Other	Relative to total permanent immigration	Relative to permanent labour migration	
		Per cent					
Austria	200	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	0.4	n.a.	18.0
Belgium	280	66	17	17	0.7	7.3	n.a.
Canada (temporary)	12 830	70	n.a.	30	n.a.	n.a.	18.8
Canada (permanent)	10 010	76	20	4	4.2	14.1	14.7
France	14 680	56	39	5	9.1	68.4	27.4
Germany	10 180	46	47	7	4.4	26.5	29.5
Japan ²	10 260	100	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	29.4	19.8
Netherlands	1 010	65	34	1	1.4	8.1	15.0
Norway	660	80	18	2	1.5	16.9	22.5

n.a.: not applicable.

1. The stay rate is the number of status changes as a percentage of the number of international students who do not renew their student permit. The latter is estimated as $[I - (S_t - S_{t-1})]$, where I is the number of new international students and $(S_t - S_{t-1})$ is the difference in the stock of international students in the current year and in the previous year (excluding free-circulation students in EEA countries).

2. Changes into other status types unknown.

Sources: Austria: Ministry of the Interior – Alien Information System (BMI-FIS); Belgium: SPF (Service public fédéral) – Office for foreigners; Canada: Citizenship and Immigration Canada; France: Ministry of Immigration, Integration, national Identity and Mutual Development; Germany: Federal Office for Migration and Refugees, AZR (Central Registry of Foreigners); Japan: Immigration Bureau, Ministry of Justice; Netherlands: Immigration and Naturalisation Service IND, Ministry of Justice; Norway: Norwegian Directorate of Immigration.

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The estimated stay rates for all reasons as a whole vary between 15 and 35%, with an average of around 21%.¹⁰ Since it is likely that a higher proportion of those who stay than those who leave actually graduate, the stay rates in this table can be considered to be lower bounds for rates based exclusively on students who have completed their studies.

Not all international students go abroad with the intention of staying on as labour migrants. For many, study abroad is part of a strategy to improve their employment chances in the domestic labour market in their home countries. For others who stay on, the stay may not be definitive. In some countries, international students have the opportunity to work after graduation, but face constraints in career advancement in the companies which have employed them (JILPT, 2009). Restrictions in employment for foreign nationals (see Part IV in this publication) may also contribute to their leaving after a few years.

9. Demographic developments in OECD countries and international migration

With the economic crisis having put a brake, albeit in some cases a limited one, on labour migration movements, the current time is opportune to look again at aging-related demographic developments in OECD countries and the extent to which international migration may affect these developments in the short-to-medium term. The focus here will be on impacts on the working-age population rather than on the total population, which will be affected later as mortality among baby-boomers rises. Nonetheless, as background we first look at the importance of international migration for population growth over the recent past.

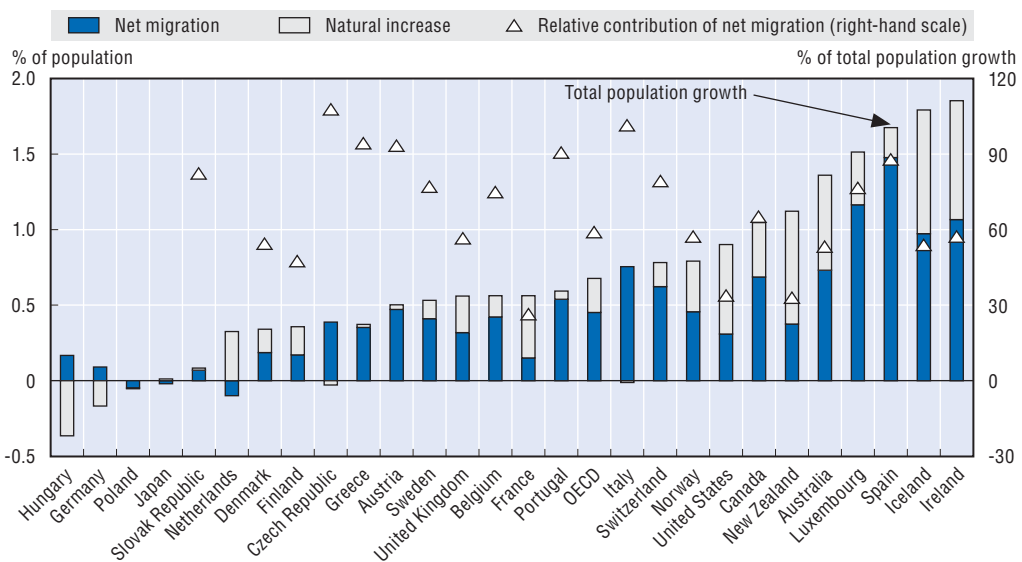
The contribution of net migration to population growth

Figure I.5 shows the contribution of net migration and natural increase (the excess of births over deaths) to population growth over the period 2003-2007. On average for OECD countries, 59% of population growth over the period was accounted for by migration. For a number of countries, in particular the countries of southern Europe, Austria and the Czech Republic, close to or more than 90% of population growth was attributable to migration. In Hungary, Germany, Poland and Japan, the population actually declined over the period. The Netherlands stands out as an exception as the only country whose population has continued to grow despite losing population as a result of migration. France, the United States and New Zealand are essentially the only countries where natural increase remains the main driver of population growth, with less than one-third of population growth coming from net migration.¹¹

International migration is thus already a strong contributor to population growth in many countries. This is expected to increase in the future, as the mortality of the ageing baby-boom generation increases and reduces the relative importance of natural increase.

Although this comparison of net migration and natural increase is accurate from the point of view of demographic accounting, it can be deceptive with regard to the contribution of migration to the workforce. More precisely, natural increase and net migration do not concern demographically similar populations. Migration tends to be highly concentrated in the population 15-39 (approximately 85% in some European countries),¹² while natural increase concerns largely the extremes of the age distribution. Ideally, one would like to have a better idea of the numerical importance of migration relative to a group of residents that is more comparable and that also contributes to the labour force.

Figure I.5. **Contribution of natural increase and of net migration to average annual population growth, 2002-2006**



Source: OECD Database on Population and Vital Statistics.

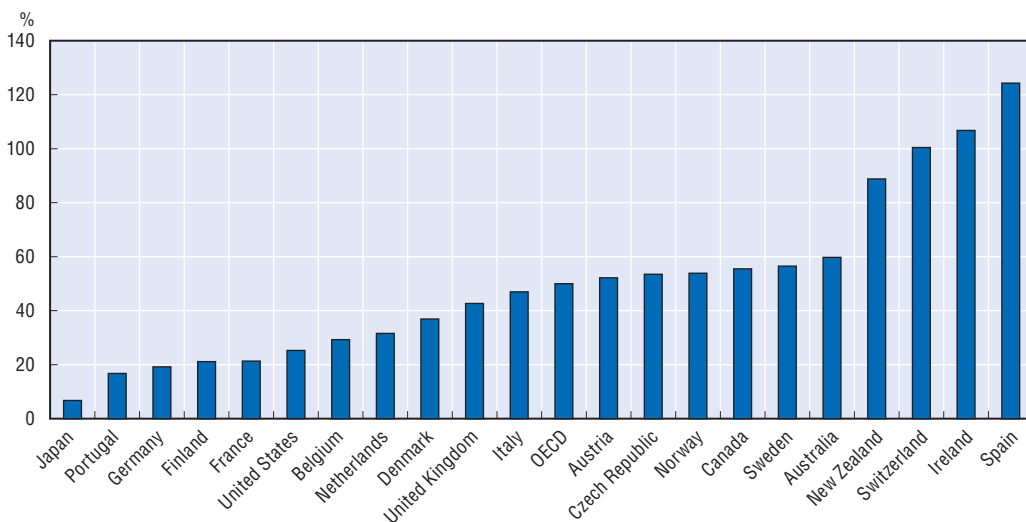
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The scale of international migration in relation to labour force entry cohorts

The focus here will thus be on the level of immigration, on the one hand, and on the size of resident working-age entry cohorts, on the other. In addition, the kind of migration which has a durable fiscal and institutional impact on the destination country is permanent migration and it is this form of migration that is examined here, keeping in mind that there are significant spontaneous returns of immigrants to their countries of origin even among those who have been granted long-term residence rights (OECD, 2008b).


The reference group to assess the relative scale of international migration is, as a first approximation, the average size of a single-year age cohort in the 20-to-24 year age group. There are a number of refinements that could be made to arrive at a more pertinent reference population, but the reference group of 20-24 year olds is sufficient for the purposes of this analysis (see Figure I.6).

Figure I.6. **Permanent-type immigration relative to the average size of a single-year cohort 20-24, 2004-2007**



Note: The average size of a single-year cohort is obtained by dividing the total cohort aged 20-24 by 5.

Source: OECD Database on International Migration and World Population Prospects, the 2008 revision, UN Population Division.

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The results indicate that permanent-type movements represented on average across OECD countries about 50% of a single-year young adult cohort over the 2004-2007 period. In other words, all things being equal, about one third of new entries into the working-age population and potentially, into the labour force, are of immigrant origin. This is substantial, but in practice there are a number of factors that tend to reduce this proportion.

First of all, not all arriving immigrants are in the working-age population. Some are retired and some are children, although the latter will eventually enter the population of working age. Also, some immigrants may not remain in the destination country, but return to their countries of origin or migrate elsewhere. Some native-born persons also emigrate, but not nearly to the same extent as immigrants. Finally, if one thinks in terms of contributions to the labour force, then the participation rate of many arriving immigrants,

and in particular of family and humanitarian migrants, tends to be low after arrival, although it does tend to increase over time and provides a significant addition to the labour force.¹³ In countries having high rates of labour migration, such as Spain, Ireland and Switzerland, additions to the working-age population as a result of migration have been larger than the average size of a youth cohort over the 2004-2007 period. For a majority of the countries shown, the number of arriving immigrants represents more than one half of a single-year youth cohort. This already reflects a strong reliance on migration in many countries to supplement domestic sources of labour.

The role of international migration in employment growth

In many countries, international migration has not been the only source of new additions to the labour supply and to the ranks of the employed. The mobilisation of persons already resident in the country is generally viewed as the best way to address domestic labour needs and this has been occurring significantly in many OECD countries, both as a result of increasing labour force participation, but also from a reduction in unemployment. Figure I.7 shows the contribution of population growth (both native-born and foreign-born) and of increases in the employment-to-population ratio of residents (both native- and foreign-born) to the growth of employment over the period 2005-2008.¹⁴

On average for the OECD, fully 51% of employment growth has come from increases in the employment rates of residents and 39% from increases in international migration between 2005 and 2008. A further 9% of employment growth is attributable to increases in the native-born population. These averages mask considerable diversity, however, about which it is difficult to generalise. All sources of labour supply have played a role in employment growth in at least some countries.

In Figure I.7, countries for which employment growth came largely from international migration appear on the left (Group A), whereas those for which employment growth was more dependent on domestic sources are on the right. The second group on the left (Group B) consists of countries for which employment growth came largely from growth in the working-age population, of both the native-born and the foreign-born. The right-hand group (Group C) includes countries in which the employment rates of residents were already quite high in 2005, exceeding 75% (Denmark, Switzerland and Sweden), and in which one might have expected further increases to be difficult to come by.


Contrary to what one might expect, several of the countries for which employment growth has come largely from external sources had relatively low employment rates (under 65%) by OECD standards in 2005. Only the United Kingdom at 71% was above the OECD average. For all of these, international migration has supplied more than two thirds of increases in employment, and for Spain and Luxembourg, over 90%. Higher employment rates among residents have accompanied employment growth in Italy and Portugal, but international migration was still the main source of additional labour supply.

In summary then, countries have resorted to different strategies to supply workers in response to employer demand, but it is far from obvious what is driving developments. Recent international migrants are the source of new workers only in a minority of countries. In a number of others where the native-born working-age population is declining (Denmark and Germany), increases in employment rates of those of working-age are more than offsetting this.

Figure I.7. **Distribution of the components of change in employment, selected OECD countries, 2005-2008**



Sources: European Labour Force Survey (Eurostat); United States: Current Population Survey (March supplements); Australia: Labour Force Survey.

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Currently, the economic crisis has introduced a lull in demographic pressures. There is considerable labour market slack in many countries that needs to be absorbed before a renewed recourse to international migration can be expected to provide an alternative source of labour supply.

The results shown here suggest that there continues to exist considerable potential for mobilising domestic sources of labour to satisfy demand in at least certain kinds of jobs. And this indeed is what has been happening in many countries. But not all jobs find takers in the domestic population, either because they are unappealing or because the educational system is not producing enough persons with the required skills. And as more and more baby-boomers retire, the additional increases in participation required to offset this will be harder and harder to achieve. This can be expected to be the case in countries with already high participation rates.

Evolution of the working-age population over the next ten years

What evolution can be expected over the next ten years, with regard to the size of the working-age population? The only significant unknown in this regard is the extent of international migration, since entrants to the working-age population are already living and mortality rates are unlikely to change very much in this age group. Table I.9 gives the projected results, on the basis of the assumed net migration levels specified in the first column,¹⁵ which reflect recent levels for the most part.

On average across OECD countries, the working-age population will grow by 1.9% over the 2010-2020 decade, compared to the 8.6% growth rate observed from 2000 to 2010. As is evident from the table, the situations vary considerably across countries, with Japan, Germany, Italy, Finland and the countries of Central Europe all seeing declines in the working-age

Table I.9. Observed (2000-2010) and projected (2010-2020) growth in the working-age population (20-64) at assumed migration levels

	Observed growth in working-age population (%)		Projected growth in working-age population at specified net migration levels (per cent relative to 2010 level)			Difference in decadal growth rates (“-” = decline) (B) – (A)
	2000-2010 (A)	Assumed annual net migration levels (000s) 2010-2020	2010-2015	2015-2020	2010-2020 (B)	
Japan	-4.2	54	-5.7	-3.8	-9.5	-5.3
Poland	8.1	-11	-1.3	-4.4	-5.7	-13.8
Czech Republic	4.9	21	-1.8	-3.8	-5.	-10.5
Hungary	-0.3	15	-1.3	-4.0	-5.3	-5.0
Finland	2.4	8	-2.1	-2.3	-4.5	-6.9
Germany	-2.2	110	-0.7	-2.8	-3.4	-1.2
Italy	2.9	185	-1.0	-1.5	-2.5	-5.4
Slovak Republic	9.3	4	0.7	-3.0	-2.3	-11.6
France	6.5	100	-1.1	-1.0	-2.1	-8.6
Portugal	6.3	23	-0.6	-1.4	-2.0	-8.3
Greece	3.8	30	-0.7	-1.2	-2.0	-5.8
Netherlands	2.8	20	-1.1	-0.7	-1.8	-4.5
Denmark	-1.7	6	-1.1	-0.2	-1.3	0.4
Belgium	5.4	20	0.0	-0.8	-0.8	-6.2
Sweden	4.6	25	0.9	-0.3	0.6	-3.9
Austria	5.1	20	1.2	-0.2	1.0	-4.1
Switzerland	5.9	20	0.9	0.3	1.2	-4.7
Korea	7.6	-6	2.8	0.3	3.1	-4.5
United Kingdom	6.3	178	1.6	1.6	3.1	-3.2
Spain	14.6	251	2.4	0.8	3.3	-11.4
Norway	9.2	18	2.8	2.5	5.2	-3.9
Canada	12.9	210	3.9	1.7	5.6	-7.3
United States	11.8	1 071	3.8	2.2	6.0	-5.8
Australia	13.4	100	3.6	2.8	6.4	-7.0
New Zealand	13.2	10	4.1	2.6	6.7	-6.5
Ireland	27.1	20	4.3	3.9	8.2	-18.9
Iceland	23.5	2	7.9	3.5	11.3	-12.2
Luxembourg	13.8	4	6.5	6.0	12.5	-1.3
Mexico	21.1	-371	8.8	6.8	15.5	-5.6
Turkey	24.3	2	8.8	7.7	16.5	-7.8
OECD average	8.6	..	1.5	0.4	1.9	-6.7

Source: World Population Prospects, the 2008 revision, UN Population Division.

StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/884330701446>

population, while in the traditional settlement countries, as well as Iceland, Ireland, Luxembourg, Mexico and Turkey, the size of the working-age population will continue to increase. However, in practically all countries, the growth rates will be significantly smaller than in the past, some 6.7% on average. All else being equal, this means that GDP/capita growth rates over the upcoming decade will be lower than those of the previous decade by this amount, although productivity increases as well as increases in the proportion of persons employed can make up for this.

To the extent that international migrants are workers (rather than inactive persons), an increase in their numbers can also provide a boost, but less than can be obtained by an increase in the participation of persons already resident. Immigrants are not only producers; they are also new consumers, so that any boost they provide to national income levels tends to

be diluted by their additional numbers. This is not the case for persons already resident, who contribute to national income without adding to the domestic population. However, if employed they tend to be net contributors to social protection systems. But immigrants age as well and like the native-born, eventually become net recipients. Ideally they would become so when dependency ratios have peaked and are declining.

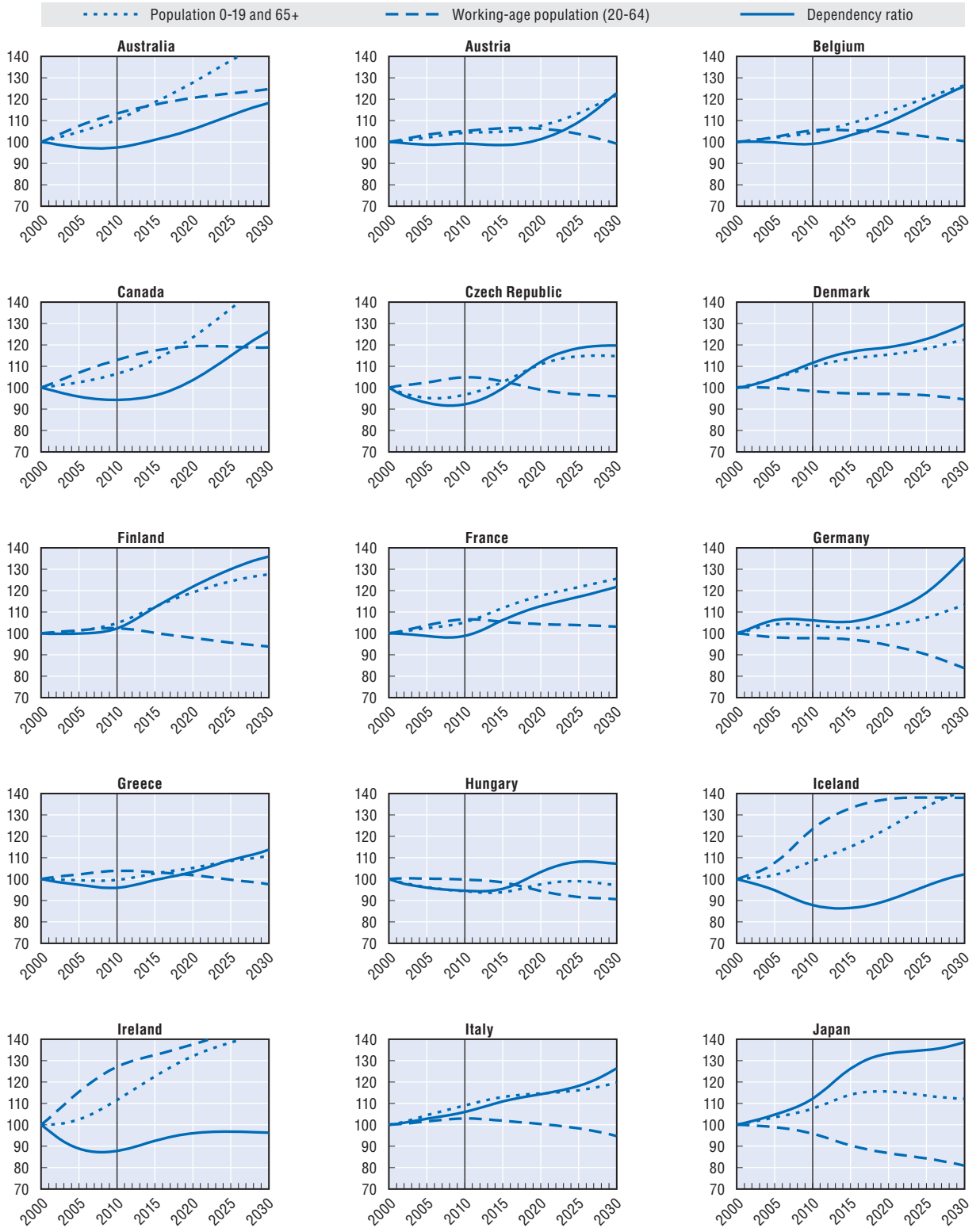
Dependency ratios over the next ten years

Because of retiring baby-boomers, the population not of working-age (0-19 and 65+)¹⁶ will be growing significantly over the next decade. The rate of growth is likely to exceed that of the working-age population at current projected migration levels (see Table I.9) in many countries. For many countries, the cross-over year occurs during the decade, after which dependency ratios¹⁷ begin to increase, in some cases quite sharply.

On average OECD countries saw a fall in dependency ratios over the 2000-2010 period of about 4%. In practical terms this kind of fall should translate into potentially smaller educational and social expenditures per person in the working-age population, all other things being equal. A number of countries saw already an increase in dependency ratios over the decade, namely Denmark and Japan (12% increase), Germany and Italy (6%), the Netherlands (4%) and to a lesser extent Finland and Sweden. For these countries, educational and social expenditures per working-age person were potentially greater at the end of the decade than at the beginning. Over the next ten years, the average dependency ratio is expected to increase by about 8% in OECD countries (Figure I.8), with increases of close to 20% in Japan, Finland and the Czech Republic. A number of other countries (Spain, Belgium, the Netherlands, Poland and France) are expected to see increases of between 10 and 15% in dependency ratios. Most other OECD countries will see increases in the dependency ratio of between 4% and 10%. Austria, Germany and Iceland are expected to see increases of less than 4%, whereas ratios in Luxembourg, Korea as well as Mexico and Turkey continue to decline. Because international migrants are generally of working age, international migration can contribute to alleviating such increases in the short term. But the next decade is only the beginning. The increases in dependency ratios will continue following 2020 and will begin to pose formidable challenges for public finances. The current situation of deficient demand and slack labour markets, however, evidently makes it problematic to propose increases in labour migration as a way of addressing this. But as the recovery picks up, the potential contribution of international migration to addressing the problems posed by ageing will once again return to the policy agenda.

Figure I.8. **Evolution of dependency ratios over the period 2000-2030, OECD countries**

2000 = 100

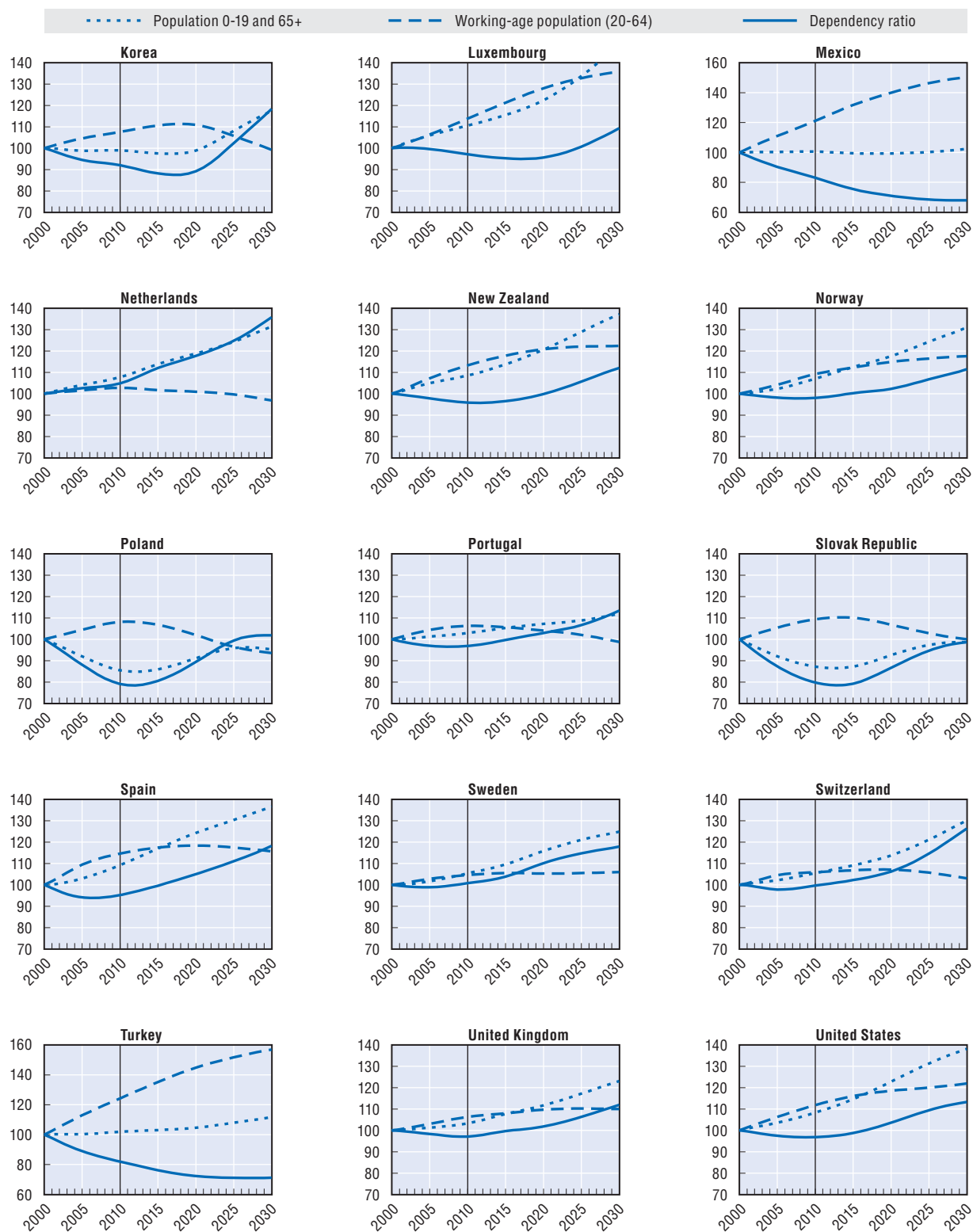


Source: World Population Prospects 2008, UN Population Division.


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Figure I.8. Evolution of dependency ratios over the period 2000-2030, OECD countries (cont.)

2000 = 100



Source: World Population Prospects 2008, UN Population Division.

StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/882515467408>

B. Migration Policy Development in OECD Countries¹⁸

1. Introduction

This section focuses on policy and legislative developments in OECD countries, as well as Bulgaria, Lithuania and Romania, during 2008 and 2009. In the absence of major waves of migration, the period was dominated politically by responses to the economic downturn. The downturn led to a number of migration policy developments – usually in the form of stricter labour migration policy – although much legislative or operational change that occurred was a continuation or completion of ongoing review and reform. Some governments undertook comprehensive reviews of existing policy frameworks; others made substantial innovations; elsewhere changes were limited to minor updating of existing systems or the introduction of selected new measures. In the OECD countries which are also members of the European Union and/or the EFTA, some policy developments were influenced by the implementation of the EU *acquis*.

The remainder of this section presents a systematic review on a topic-by-topic basis of the main areas addressed by new policy developments. Its objective is to identify those areas where policy has been most active and to indicate what the main directions have been. It deals first with general administrative procedures and structure. It then addresses labour migration policies, those for international students and for asylum seekers. Border control and enforcement and international agreements follow. Finally, it looks at integration policies. The conclusion summarises the main directions of policy developments, and indicates how far OECD countries are moving in similar directions, especially compared to the developments reported in 2008.

2. Labour migration policies

In the period under review, the main migration policy emphasis in OECD countries has been on the management of labour migration. High rates of migration in the period leading up to the economic downturn, and demand for labour, saw most OECD governments exploring new policies, and even as the downturn began to be felt – and often because of the downturn – many have changed or adopted new policies towards labour immigration. In light of international competition for the highly skilled, and the emergence of shortages in specific sectors or occupations, much of the focus has remained on measures aimed to attract or retain skilled workers and to deal with shortage occupations. On the other hand – and in reaction to significant international movements – several countries have also concerned themselves with emigration and/or return of labour migrants.

Labour migration framework

Labour migration policy shifts in response to the changing economic situation are particularly apparent in some countries. In general, policies opening to labour migration have been restricted, except for those meant to favour high-skilled migration, which continue.

For example, Korea imposed new restrictions in its labour migration policy in response to the downturn in 2009, dramatically reducing the quota for ethnic Koreans with foreign nationalities (ethnic Koreans who are 25 years old and older and live in China or the former Soviet Union). Korea also did not allocate a quota for the construction industry, where there is strong competition between domestic and ethnic Koreans. Quotas for labour

migration were not issued in Italy in 2009. Quotas for the Spanish anonymous recruitment system were almost completely eliminated for 2009 and 2010.

In the United Kingdom, the downturn delayed the full roll-out of the points based system, which began in 2008 and was due to be completed in 2010. Under the five-Tier system, each Tier is subject to a points test for the individuals involved. Tier 1 is demand based and allows highly qualified individuals to enter and find work; it also includes post-study students. Tier 2 is for highly skilled workers who have a job offer. Tier 3 is for low-skilled workers. Tier 4 is for international students and Tier 5 for various exchange programmes. The recession has affected the income thresholds, qualifications, occupation shortage lists and labour market tests inherent in the system and which determine the number of points an applicant requires. From April 2009 the resident labour market test for Tier 2 skilled jobs was strengthened so that employers must advertise jobs to resident workers through the national Job Centre Plus offices network of labour offices and throughout the EEA before they can bring in a worker from non-EEA Europe or the rest of the world. Tier 3 has been kept in abeyance, the jobs being filled by Bulgarians and Romanians.

In Bulgaria, where government policy in 2008 was still aimed at attracting migrants in order to strengthen the supply of labour and to cover labour market deficits, consultations to prepare bilateral labour treaties were launched with Armenia, FYR Macedonia, Moldova, and Ukraine. In 2009, however, the resident labour market test was made more stringent in an effort to encourage the employment of Bulgarian workers in large infrastructure projects. Employers were required to list jobs for 30 instead of 15 days, and confirm that there was no other EU worker registered in Bulgaria with the same qualifications.

However, not all countries have imposed restrictions for employment of immigrants who are perceived to be important. In fact, countries with very restrictive permit systems have opened new channels for workers for whom a demand is perceived. In the Czech Republic, a long-planned regime of “Green Cards” came into force in January 2009 and is run by three different ministries. The green cards, a new type of long-term residence permit for the purpose of employment, are issued to three categories of foreigners: qualified workers with university education and key staff (validity 3 years); workers in positions requiring a minimum level of an apprentice leaving exam (validity 2 years); and other workers (validity 2 years).

Poland liberalised access to its labour market for seasonal workers in February 2009, when a new one-step work permit system was introduced. Issuance fees were reduced and the maximum duration of seasonal employment for citizens of Belarus, Russia, Ukraine and Moldova extended to six months within a 12-months period without the need for a work permit, as long as the employer has documented its willingness to employ the person to the local labour office.

Finland has been developing an action programme on labour migration, in light of the projected decline in the working-age population, and adopted the programme in November 2009. Its implementation, to run until 2011, will be monitored by a group composed of government authorities and social partners. In addition, the labour market test will be waived, although a listing of the job in EURES (the European job mobility portal) will still be required.

The linking of work and residence permits, part of the Finnish reform, can be found in other policy reforms. Norway changed its regulations on 1 January 2010 to include work

status in its residence permit. The Netherlands is planning to integrate work and residence permits. The proposal also includes a common system of rights granted to all foreign nationals who work and reside legally in Europe, comparable to those of EU citizens. Luxembourg introduced new legislation in October 2008 which abolished the work permit system and repealed a 1972 law which concerned the entry and residence of foreigners. There is now a single document which takes the place of a residence and work permit.

Several countries have simplified their procedures. France has removed its ban on a foreigner working in France with a temporary work contract drawn up by a French temporary employment agency. In addition, medical checks can now take place after rather than before a person enters a work contract. Outside the OECD, Romania decentralised regionally the issuance of work authorizations to employers in September 2008, in order to manage the admission and regulation of the foreign citizens' right to stay for work purposes more efficiently.

Terms and conditions of work

A number of governments have been addressing issues relating to the terms and conditions of work for immigrants. For the most part these actions are to prevent immigrant labour undercutting local workers or to curb exploitation of foreign workers by employers.

In April 2009 the Australian Government announced a series of changes to the temporary long-stay business visa in response to concerns over the integrity of the visa, including exploitation of foreign workers and under-cutting of the terms and conditions of employment of Australian workers. The main measures announced were: a requirement that employers match the market pay rates of Australian workers in the same line of work, instead of minimum salary (effective September 2009); the removal of lower-skilled occupations; an increase in the minimum level of English proficiency; and a requirement that sponsoring employers demonstrate a commitment to training of their own workforce. The government announced that these changes, however, were not a response to the global economic crisis.

In the United States the emphasis has been on measures to tighten up on temporary labour immigration. The Employ American Workers Act (EAWA), part of the American Recovery and Reinvestment Act of 2009, was meant to prevent companies receiving stimulus funding from displacing US workers with temporary skilled foreign workers on H-1B visas. Stimulus-fund recipient employers are subject to stricter requirements when petitioning for an H-1B foreign worker. New regulations went into effect in November 2008 for the R-1 religious worker visa, making the application process lengthier and documentation requirements more stringent. Inclusion of religious workers within the immigrant preference category EB-4 expired in September 2009, while the H-1C program for registered nurses in healthcare shortage areas expired in December 2009. Finally, new regulations for the H-2A agricultural worker programme were introduced at the beginning of 2010, raising salary requirements.

The 2008 Irish Employment Compliance Bill contains measures to strengthen the ability of the State to secure improved compliance with employment legislation. Under the Bill, labour inspectors may request viewing of employment permits for immigrants. In May 2008, the Irish government announced a more flexible treatment of foreign nationals whose work permits had expired. In addition, it agreed to change published regulations on

the right of work permit holders to change employers, with certain limitations. After a minimum of one year with the same employer, work permit holders may now change employers provided that their new employment is either within the same economic sector in which they are currently employed or within another eligible sector, with no labour market test.

For foreigners who lost their jobs in the economic downturn, more time to find work has been granted in New Zealand and Japan. In order to protect its foreign workers during the downturn, a new legislative amendment in the Czech Republic established a 60 day job-search period within which foreigners who have become unemployed through no fault of their own can seek a new job. The Public Employment Security Offices support the employer by providing information on job offers and possible vocational training. New Zealand introduced a new visitor policy for holders of employer-specific work permits who had been dismissed from their job during a 90 day trial period. In Japan, every employer of foreign workers is obliged from October 2008 to make an effort to support foreign workers who are made redundant. Ireland also announced in 2008 that it would make provisions for the renewal of work permits by foreign nationals who had lost their jobs within the previous three months.

In order to prevent exploitation of foreign workers and to protect resident workers, in 2008 Norway adopted new initiatives to combat “social dumping”. They include more inspections, along with sanctions in the event of non-compliance, tightening of hiring practice rules and an obligation to ensure that legal pay and working conditions are followed among sub-contractors and the introduction of identity cards for workers in the building and construction sector. At the same time, an action plan to combat poverty among the disadvantaged by boosting the opportunities for participation in working life was expected to benefit many immigrants.

In Japan, the industrial trainee system has been changed to extend labour law coverage to trainees, who now receive regular wages.

Policies to attract the highly skilled

Policies to attract the highly skilled and entrepreneurs continued to develop, although the economic downturn increased pressure to accurately identify skilled labour shortages in some countries.

In the United Kingdom, reviews during 2009 of the October 2008 shortage occupation list led to some reduction in the number of jobs covered by the list. In Australia for example, the shortage occupation lists were not seen as sufficiently responsive to the downturn, and were changed. In fact, during 2009, the Australian government reduced its skill stream, introduced changes to its priority processing arrangements and revised its shortage occupation list. New priority processing gave precedence to applicants who had been sponsored by an employer for permanent residence, followed by those sponsored by a State or Territory Government. A Critical Skills List (CSL) was announced, comprising 58 occupations identified as remaining in shortage despite the economic downturn (subsequently reduced to 42 occupations in March 2009). Applicants for independent skilled migration whose nominated occupation was on the CSL were given third priority in processing, followed by those nominating an occupation on the Migration Occupations in Demand List (MODL), followed by all others, including persons applying for Skilled Independent migration. The CSL was established as an interim measure pending the

outcome of a review into the MODL, as the Government found MODL insufficiently responsive to changes in labour market conditions. In response to the downturn, New Zealand also reviewed its shortage lists, the Long Term Skill Shortage List (LTSSL) and the Immediate Skill Shortage List (ISSL). Eight occupations were removed from the LTSSL and 44 from the ISSL in July 2009.

Some countries have revised their programmes for entrepreneurs. New Zealand introduced a new business migration package in July 2009. It aims to boost economic performance by making the country more attractive for business and entrepreneurial migrants. Two new categories of Investor (Investor and Investor Plus) have replaced the three existing categories (Global, Professional, and General). A new category, Entrepreneur Plus, will augment the existing Entrepreneur category. The new policy introduces realistic investment expectations and English language requirements. Norway has also taken steps to encourage entrepreneurs among immigrants already in Norway. In 2008, two regional centres for ethnic entrepreneurship were given support to offer training, guidance and network building in order to provide immigrants with the knowledge and the necessary support to develop their business ideas. On the basis of experience with pilot projects, recommendations were made in 2009 for a possible permanent arrangement for facilitating a higher degree of entrepreneurship among immigrants during 2010.

Three European countries have introduced point-based system for managing labour immigration, the United Kingdom (October 2008), Denmark (July 2008) and the Netherlands (January 2009) (see Box I.4). In the United Kingdom, the points-based system operates under “Tier 2”, for highly skilled workers who are on a shortage occupation list, are recruited after a resident labour market test or are intra-company transferees. An independent Migration Advisory Committee (MAC) was created to identify skill shortages, but saw its mandate extended in 2009 to look into broader issues. Shortage occupation lists – an element of the points system – are revised every six months.

Elsewhere, countries are implementing new policies to attract highly-qualified people, or modifying existing policies. The pilot phase of a Czech project to bring in young, qualified people who are interested in permanent resettlement in the country has ended and the project is now open to nationals of most non-EU countries. Germany, too, has sought to attract more highly-qualified migrants in the context of international competition for skills and increasing shortages of skilled workers in some sectors, in the framework of an action programme. Measures in 2009 included exemption from the labour market test for all migrants from the new EU member countries holding a tertiary degree, as well as any others with a tertiary degree from a German institution. The latter, however, must have an employment offer commensurate with their qualification level. Graduates of German schools abroad with a tertiary education or further vocational education in Germany are also exempted from the labour market test, subject to the same employment qualification criteria. The threshold at which highly-skilled migrants receive an unlimited residence (“settlement”) permit was also lowered from EUR 86 400 to EUR 66 000.

Similarly, in August 2009 Lithuania simplified the immigration of family members of highly-qualified specialists, for scientists and researchers and for some other categories of employees; family members may now accompany the workers in these categories, rather than wait two years. It also simplified employment procedures for highly-qualified workers from non-EEA countries by removing the need for work permits in some occupations, while speeding up their processing for others.

Box I.4. Evolving point-based systems for skilled migration in OECD countries

Point-based systems and skilled occupation lists are recruitment tools increasingly used by OECD countries to select immigrants. Points-based systems were originally developed in traditional settlement countries (Australia, Canada and New Zealand) to select candidates from a broad pool of applicants for a limited number of visas available. These countries periodically review their points system to adapt them to changing demands and to ensure efficient recruitment. In the past few years, a number of European countries – the United Kingdom, Netherlands and Denmark – have introduced their own systems.

Existing points-based systems have a number of parameters in common, such as occupation, work experience, education, age and language skills. There may be a threshold or basic requirements for consideration. Several countries require self-support in the initial period. Emphasis is generally on occupation and qualification, and other categories are not sufficient by themselves to reach the threshold.

Preference is usually given to skilled workers of younger working ages. Work and/or education experiences in the host country are considered to contribute to adaptability and often awarded with further points, as are family-related characteristics, such as having family ties in the country or a highly educated accompanying partner. Financial aspects, such as the level of previous earnings or a job offer of a minimum salary level, also play a role in the assessment. Bonus points for jobs in shortage in remote areas are intended to balance the unequal geographic distribution of the labour force.

The recently-introduced points-based systems in Europe are modelled on established systems and introduced several new parameters. For example, the United Kingdom assesses earnings in the home country. Both Denmark and the Netherlands, in order to overcome the problem posed by assessment of qualifications obtained abroad, use international survey rankings to classify educational degrees. While most countries give points for prior work and/or study in the country, Denmark also gives points for experience elsewhere in the EEA and Switzerland. One specific feature is that the requirement of language ability is not restricted to the language of the country. Other European languages, such as English, German, or in Scandinavia, other Scandinavian languages, are also accepted.

Intra-company transfers

In many countries, substantial numbers of highly skilled workers enter temporarily as intra-company transferees. As companies become more global and competition for their location intensifies, host countries have increasingly adopted policies to facilitate the ensuing secondment of staff. Belgium has amended its work permit conditions to allow lower management the same benefits as executive personnel. Under Denmark's "Corporate Scheme" foreign nationals who are employed in a Danish company's foreign affiliate or department and are to work in the Danish company in connection with an innovative, developmental or educational purpose, can get a residence permit provided that salary and employment conditions correspond to Danish standards. Foreign nationals covered by this scheme are eligible for an initial residence permit for up to three years with a possibility of extension. In France, new legislation at the end of 2007 came into operation in 2008 and relaxes the conditions for granting a residence permit to intra-company transferees by reducing the period of secondment from 6 to 3 months.

Table I.10. **Points attributed under different recruitment systems in selected OECD countries, 2010**

Characteristic	UK Tier 1	UK Tier 2 <i>General</i>	Denmark	Netherlands	Australia <i>GSM</i>	Canada	New Zealand
Skilled occupation					Obligatory/40-60	Obligatory	50-60
Shortage occupation		50	10				
Job offer						10	50
Other occupational factors		30					
Work experience (in occupation)			10-15		5-10	15-21	10-30
Work experience (in general)			5		(10)	Obligatory	
Work experience (in country/region)	5		5-10	5	10	5	5-15
Academic qualification (in general)	30-45	0-15	30-80	25-30		5-25	
Academic qualification (in country/region)	5		5-10	Obligatory*/5	5-25	5	5-10
Academic qualification (at top-ranked university)			5-15	Obligatory*			
Language ability	Obligatory/10	Obligatory/10	5-30	5	Obligatory/15-25	0-24	Obligatory
Professional language skills			5		5		
Age	0-20		10-15	5	15-30	0-10	5-30
Sufficient funds for initial period	Obligatory/10	Obligatory/10	Obligatory			Obligatory	
Earnings (recent (Tier 1)/prospective (Tier 2))	0-75	0-25					
Academic qualification/skill of spouse/partner					5-10	3-5	20
Skilled job offer of spouse/partner							20
Family members in country/region						5	10
Sponsorship by family in designated area					25		
State/territory of settlement; government nomination					10		10-15
Pass mark	95	70	100	35	100	67	100

* alternative requirement.

"obligatory/x" means that criteria is a requirement, but is ranked by points and/or bonus points are awarded if criteria is met additionally.

Denmark: a maximum of 105 points can be given for academic qualification, language skills can be proven in either one Nordic language, German or English, 5 bonus points are given for Danish language skills, maximum of 15 points for country/region-specific work or educational experience are given; Canada: all country/region-specific criteria also applies to spouse/partner; all country/region-specific points and academic qualification of partner/spouse cannot exceed the total of 10 points.

StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/884330701446>

Germany no longer requires a resident labour market test in the case of intra-company transferees or their family members who are posted to Germany. Furthermore, consent from the Federal Employment Agency is no longer required for those coming for up to three months in-company training in the German branch of a company. Poland also introduced new work permits for highly skilled workers, including intra-company transferees, with stays of 3-5 years depending on seniority.

In contrast, the United Kingdom has tightened its policy on intra-company transfers. In 2009 it decided to increase the period an employee should have worked for the company before moving from six to twelve months. This was mainly as a response to a large inflow of information, communications and technology staff seconded to the United Kingdom while working for companies engaged in IT outsourcing. In 2010, it changed the rules further, to ease barriers to short-term transfer of less qualified staff and raise requirements for longer-term transfers. Sweden also eliminated the permanent permit previously granted to the most senior staff on arrival, and now issues a renewable temporary permit.

Seasonal employment

Both Australia and New Zealand have made changes to their seasonal labour policy to facilitate recruitment of agricultural workers. In August 2008 the Australian Government announced a three year Pacific Seasonal Labour Worker Pilot Scheme. The three year pilot provides for up to 2 500 seasonal workers from Kiribati, Papua New Guinea, Tonga and Vanuatu to work in low-skilled jobs in the horticultural industry in regional Australia for up to seven months in a 12 month period. Workers will have the opportunity to return to Australia in subsequent seasons for the duration of the pilot. The pilot scheme is demand driven and employers must be able to demonstrate that they have been unable to find seasonal labour in relevant Australian labour markets. The roll-out of the pilot scheme for Pacific seasonal workers coincided with the height of the global economic crisis in Australia, and first-year participation in the scheme was more modest than envisaged.

New Zealand's Recognised Seasonal Employment (RSE) policy was amended in 2009 to allow employers more flexibility to recruit outside the Pacific region if they have a pre-established relationship with workers from other countries. The rules around deductions from RSE workers' wages were brought into line with those for New Zealand workers. Employers are also required to arrange (but not necessarily pay for) workers' health insurance. In addition, a new seasonal employment policy for visitors already in New Zealand, called the Supplementary Seasonal Employment (SSE) policy, has been introduced. It allows horticulture and viticulture employers to "top up" their workforce during periods of significant seasonal peaks when New Zealanders are not available.

Return programmes for unemployed immigrants

Most destination countries have voluntary return programmes in place for certain categories of immigrants, especially refugees; some are in the process of amendment. From September 2009, foreign nationals in Norway from countries recognized by the OECD as developing countries and without legal residence may benefit from reintegration allowances if they opt to return voluntarily. Wider reintegration packages are offered to Afghan and Iraqi nationals. These packages include temporary shelter, counselling, vocational training and assistance to set up their own business upon arriving in their countries of origin.

The economic crisis has led several countries to introduce voluntary return programmes for unemployed immigrants. In 2008 Spain instituted a programme, expressly as a result of the increase in unemployment amongst immigrants due to the economic crisis. Applicants must be unemployed and entitled to receive benefits, and be a national of a country which has not signed a bilateral Social Security Convention with Spain (most Latin American countries from which Spain receives significant immigration flows have these conventions). The immigrant is paid 40% of a lump sum in Spain when the request is granted and the remaining 60% in the country of origin. The second payment is made when the applicants personally appears at the Spanish diplomatic or consular representation in the home country within 30 days of the first payment. Beneficiaries are subject to a 3-year re-entry ban, after which they have priority for return. Czech policy has also been to encourage return home for those who have lost their jobs. In September 2009 the second and uncapped phase of the Voluntary Returns of Migrants project started under which applicants receive an air ticket and EUR 400 from the Ministry of the Interior. Unemployed foreigners of Japanese descent are aided in returning to their countries if they wish to do so, although they may not return with the same visa type.

Attracting citizens back home from abroad

Several countries in Central and Eastern Europe have taken steps to encourage their citizens currently living abroad to return home. In June 2008 the Bulgarian government adopted a Migration and Integration Strategy (2008-2015). One of its goals is to promote the return of Bulgarian migrants abroad and those of Bulgarian origin. In order to bring this about, a number of measures have been implemented. Databases have been created of the Bulgarian diaspora by sex, age and education. The number of children of Bulgarian origin abroad has been estimated and an educational programme launched which includes the creation of Bulgarian schools abroad; so far 22 schools have been created in 12 countries. The network of migration offices in Bulgarian embassies has been enlarged and new offices created in Dublin and Nicosia in order to promote return migration and to improve services. The Ministry of Labour and Social Policy has developed an information campaign abroad to promote the return of skilled migrants. After studying the attitudes on possible return via a special poll among Bulgarians in Spain, the government organised a special recruitment session in the embassy in Madrid. Finally, the government created a minister responsible for Bulgarians living and working abroad in 2009.

The main goals of the economic migration regulation strategy approved by the Lithuanian government in 2007 are to satisfy the demands of the Lithuanian labour market and to encourage economic migrants to return to the motherland. To achieve this, an economic migration research plan is to be implemented during 2008-12. In order to prevent irregular working, it includes the dissemination of information about legal employment opportunities in foreign countries. In spring 2008, the government launched a project to encourage the return of citizens who had left Lithuania for economic reasons and integrate them into the labour market. To this end, in November 2008, four labour information fairs for Lithuanian expatriates were organised in Ireland and the United Kingdom. A further project is designed to encourage the return of highly qualified professionals engaged in scientific research abroad to Lithuania, through organised visits to Lithuanian educational and scientific institutions. In July 2008 the government approved a long-term strategy (2008-20) towards Lithuanians living abroad and formed a Commission to coordinate and oversee it. The main goal of this strategy is to assist Lithuanians living abroad to preserve national identity, ties with Lithuania, culture and language as well as to prepare children of Lithuanian descent, currently living abroad, to return to Lithuania in the future. A procedure was also approved for monitoring, analysing and forecasting the situation of Lithuanians living abroad.

Romania, too, has sought to encourage its citizens abroad to return. In 2008 the government organised employment fairs in Italy and Spain to attract migrants back home and in 2009 signed an agreement with the latter to allow Spain's public service employment offices to advertise vacant positions in Romania.

3. International students

In recent years there has been a growing awareness of the role played by the international migration of students in the global mobility system. In the most popular destination countries they may be seen as major sources of finance for educational institutions, reducing the need for state funding. Postgraduates especially are often viewed as new knowledge creators who could contribute to economic growth either directly or indirectly. There is evidence that increasing numbers of global firms are actively targeting

international students for recruitment. Overall, international student policy has now become a tool in the international competition for high level skills. Recently, some countries have become aware that the student entry route requires more careful management by the state and by educational institutions.

Selection and entry

Some countries with strict regimes for international students have made it easier for students to come and study and to work while doing so. Elsewhere, where international education has rapidly expanded, concerns about the quality of education have led to changes.

Australia is concerned about quality and is re-registering all international education providers to ensure they are providing quality education services and has instituted a review of the regulatory framework for international education. Some evidence of student visa fraud led the Australian government in August 2009 to strengthen student visa application procedures to prevent fraud and ensure that students are able to support themselves financially while in Australia. Among the measures introduced were: upgrading the interview programme in countries identified as high risk to assess the legitimacy of the applicant and to check financial capacity; removing or restricting internet application facilities to some student agents where evidence of fraud exists; and restricting access to internet lodgements for a particular caseload where increasing levels of fraud becomes evident. In the United Kingdom, Tier 4 of the new points based immigration management system relates to students. All educational institutions wishing to recruit international students must be on a list of sponsors approved by the UK Border Agency, a branch of the Home Office. Universities and other education providers are unable to recruit non-EEA students if they are not listed. The cost of a student visa fee has also been increased.

In Luxembourg the main concern has been the right of international students to work while studying. Legal changes in August 2008 defined the conditions of residence for students coming from third world countries to register with the University of Luxembourg. Whatever their nationality, students have the right to work under certain conditions but must obtain a student's residence permit. Students registered for a masters degree or doctorate may have paid employment to a maximum average of 10 hours per week over a period of one month outside the time allotted for their studies. Vacation work for students was limited to a maximum of two months per civil year.

In Sweden the government has assigned a number of universities and colleges to arrange supplementary courses for people with a foreign university degree. Lithuania has taken steps to facilitate entry. Students from third countries may come to Lithuania with the national D visa valid for one year and in this case do not need to apply for residence permit ("Rules on visa issuance").

Post-study work

Most OECD countries have measures to encourage international students to stay and enter their labour markets, in order to provide the domestic labour market with highly skilled migrants who have received education in the host country. The issues of recognition of qualifications and language knowledge which are often obstacles to high-skilled migration are largely avoided when students stay on after graduation.

The Canadian Experience Class, implemented in September 2008, facilitates permanent residence for international student graduates who have gained professional and skilled work experience in Canada. This is part of a wider policy to support the retention of individuals with valuable Canadian work experience and credentials who have a proven ability to integrate into Canadian society. Encouragement for international students to stay and work is also part of the new Green Card regime in the Czech Republic. From 2009, those who have completed secondary or higher education in the country no longer need a work permit. Similarly, those students awarded a masters degree or a PhD in Italy may request the conversion of their residence permit for study purposes to a work or job-seeking permit, valid for a period of 12 months.

Finland has introduced measures to encourage foreign nationals who have studied in the country or completed a higher education degree there to stay and work. A strategy for the internationalisation of Finnish higher education institutions was completed in January 2009. Its aim is to develop an internationally strong and attractive higher education and research community in Finland and increase the number of exchange students and foreign students pursuing a degree. As part of the strategy, the University Act, which came into force at the beginning of 2010, makes it possible to collect fees in individual selected Masters' programmes from students coming from outside the European Economic Area. The aim of this experiment is to encourage the globalisation of higher education institutions. Provisions on training programmes liable to charge are laid down by Ministry of Education decree. A further measure is an amendment to the Nationality Act so that half of the time spent in Finland studying will be taken into account in determining the period of time required for eligibility for citizenship.

Germany has also made it easier for international students and those trained in other countries to gain access to the labour market, mainly through removing the need for a resident labour market test. This is waived for graduates from German tertiary education institutions, provided they work in a job commensurate with their qualification level. Access to the labour market is being made easier for those undergoing vocational training. The labour market test is waived in the case of graduates from German schools abroad undertaking vocational training with the intention of taking employment in jobs corresponding to their qualification level. For certain skilled workers the labour market test and the check of working conditions for any form of vocational training is also waived. A law is being developed to allow recognition of qualifications acquired abroad if there are no major deviations from the German qualification profile. Like Germany, Poland has also removed the need for a resident labour market test for its international students.

In the United Kingdom, post-study students are part of Tier 1 of the new points based system. The category provides a bridge to highly skilled or skilled work. International graduates accepted under Tier 1 may stay in the United Kingdom and look for work without needing a sponsor. Those given permission to stay as post-study workers are expected to switch into another tier of the points-based system as soon as they can.

4. Humanitarian policies

Asylum flows are of much less policy concern to OECD countries than earlier in the decade, as overall flows were lower in the 2007-2008 period. Nonetheless, efforts to improve the efficiency of the asylum procedure, to reduce and prevent backlogs, continue. EU member countries also have been transposing directives into their legislation.

Change in asylum procedures

Changes to humanitarian policies in a number of countries have been driven by the EU. Major new asylum legislation, that incorporates the relevant Directives of the EU, came into force in Hungary at the beginning of 2008. The Asylum Act introduced the concept of subsidiary protection into Hungarian legislation and simplified the procedural rules of recognition as a beneficiary of temporary protection, so that status is determined in a single unified procedure. Those with subsidiary humanitarian protection are given the same rights and obligations as refugees, including the right to family reunion. The main legal change in the Czech Republic, in January 2008, was to integrate relevant EU Directives into its law on asylum. The main reason for Spain's 2009 Asylum Act is to adapt Spanish legislation to all of the new European Union legislative reforms on the issue. Meanwhile, Turkey is taking steps to bring its asylum legislation into line with the EU *acquis*.

Some countries have changed or are in the process of changing their procedures for certain groups of asylum seekers. Denmark ended its special measures for rejected asylum seekers from Iraq in 2008 and 2009 because the criteria for being included in the scheme were no longer fulfilled, since forced return of Iraqi citizens had become possible. Finland is implementing plans to decrease the number of unfounded asylum applications through forensic age determination, and by amending the provisions on family reunification and on the right to work for applicants for international protection. In France, the new legislation allows foreigners who are refused entry into France, having arrived at the French border, to launch an appeal which has a delaying effect on the decision to refuse entry.

The Irish government's 2008 draft Immigration, Residence and Protection Bill proposes to repeal several existing pieces of legislation and regulations. Proposed changes include a shift to a single protection determination procedure where all protection claims, including claims for both asylum and subsidiary protection, would be examined under a single procedure and at first instance. A Protection Review Tribunal is proposed under the Bill and would effectively replace the Refugee Appeals Tribunal. Austria has clarified its procedures by which residence may be granted to rejected asylum seekers on humanitarian grounds by amending its residence and asylum laws in 2009, so that residence status on humanitarian grounds is now regulated separately.

Proposals by the Dutch government aim to speed and improve the asylum procedure. The time available for preparing the case would be extended from two to eight days with the intention of accelerating the next part of the procedure and reducing the number of subsequent appeals. In Luxembourg in 2008 a convention was signed with the IOM concerning assistance for voluntary repatriation and reintegration in favour of rejected Kosovar asylum seekers resident in Luxembourg since January 2005. Support is given for lodging, cash, search for work and productive activity.

Entitlement and conditions

The 2008 Immigration Act in Norway introduced a series of measures relating to asylum. A broader definition of a refugee was adopted and the right to family reunification for those newly included was strengthened, eliminating income requirements for family reunification for those with subsidiary protection. In addition, new guidelines in October 2008 include gender as a criterion for refugee status when all the conditions in the Geneva Convention are fulfilled. In contrast, other measures, prompted by the sharp

increase in the number of asylum seekers with unfounded claims, tightened up the system in June 2008. These include stricter subsistence requirements for some categories of family immigrants, a fast track procedure for particular groups of asylum seekers, and stricter rules concerning family reunification for some groups. In July 2009 new measures were introduced to bring Norwegian practice in closer to that of other European countries.

A more restrictive policy is under consideration in Switzerland. The revision, begun in 2009, proposes to speed up procedures, make them more efficacious and prevent abuse. People who are the objects of prejudice, who are conscientious objectors or who have abandoned their country are not eligible for asylum, and it will no longer be possible to submit a request for asylum at a Swiss representation abroad.

In other countries asylum policy has become less restrictive. The Slovak Republic amended its Asylum Act to introduce supplementary protection for those subject to unjustified treatment in their country of origin. It also amended its labour legislation to allow a work permit to be granted to those asylum applicants still without a decision after 12 months. A new Asylum Bill in Spain raises the standard of international protection, putting the status of subsidiary protection on a par with refugee status (including protection against return, renewable residence and work permit, access to public employment services, education and healthcare); for the first time, gender and sexual orientation are expressly mentioned as grounds which could lead to the recognition of refugee status. While it will no longer be possible to apply for asylum at Spanish embassies or consular offices abroad, Spanish Ambassadors may facilitate transfer of asylum seekers to Spain in order that they can present their application. A new fast track procedure is introduced for asylum applications presented within Spain (after crossing the border). The new law also regulates resettlement of refugees and establishes that Ministers will annually agree the number of refugees that Spain will resettle within the framework of UNHCR programmes. Bulgaria introduced a refugee integration programme in 2008 to implement the requirements of the 1951 Convention, the 1967 Protocol and relevant EU Directives. Measures in the programme include language requirements, an appeals system, information provision, housing support and promotion of labour market participation and entrepreneurship. The programme envisages measures for improving access to special social services that are provided to Bulgarian citizens.

5. General administrative procedures and structure

A number of OECD countries have made procedural changes to more effectively manage permit systems, or in assigning responsibility for immigration issues among government bodies. An additional trend has been towards stricter criteria for family reunification.

Entry and residence procedures

Procedural changes have been made by Japan and the Czech Republic. In Japan, legislation there introducing a new system of residence management, including the issue of a residence card, was promulgated in mid-2009 and is to be fully implemented by mid-2012, although some elements will be implemented earlier. The new system combines the information collected via the Immigration Control Act and the Alien Registration Law and covers foreign nationals residing legally in Japan for a medium to long term. It extends the maximum permit duration before renewal from three to five years. In addition, a system “equivalent to the permit of re-entry”, which exempts from the need to file an application

for permission for re-entry when re-entering Japan within one year of departure, will be implemented. The Czech government amended its legislation relating to the residence of foreigners covering mandatory criminal checks, and transferred responsibility for residence permits from the police to the Ministry of the Interior. Pension entitlement issues were also addressed. Nationals of the EU may now apply for permanent residence after a two-year uninterrupted stay in the country.

In January 2008 the Irish government published its draft Bill to codify, integrate and update various pieces of previous legislative measures and sets forth a legislative framework for the management of inward migration to Ireland. The Bill is still going through the Parliamentary process. The Bill proposes the first statutory basis for the issuing and revoking of visa applications and a new system comprising different residence permits. It also creates a long-term residence permit, initially for five years, granting broadly the same rights of travel, work and medical care and social welfare services as Irish citizens. Fees for registration certificates for non-EEA nationals in Ireland were changed in August 2008. All legally resident non-EEA nationals who have entered the State with the intention of residing in Ireland for a period of more than three months must register with their local immigration registration officer, and non-EEA nationals must pay a fee for their immigration certificate of registration issued by the Garda National Immigration Bureau.

The trend towards stricter criteria for family reunification, previously observed in a number of OECD countries, continued. In Norway, the Immigration Act of May 2008 stipulates that close family members of Norwegian and Nordic nationals, and of foreign nationals who have been granted an unrestricted permit to reside in Norway, have the right to residence. The most important categories of close family members defined in the Immigration Regulations are: spouse, cohabitant, unmarried child under 18, specified groups of parents of an unmarried child under 18 years. In general, the sponsor in Norway must meet an income requirement which has been raised, particularly as a measure to combat forced marriages and ungrounded asylum claims. One of the restrictive measures introduced in 2008 imposes a requirement of four years of education or work experience in Norway when the sponsor has 1) asylum, 2) residence on humanitarian grounds, or 3) has residence on grounds of family ties. Furthermore, it only applies in cases of family establishment (*i.e.* family formation/intended family life), and not in cases of family reunification, although this is under consideration.

In the United Kingdom, the minimum age at which to apply for a marriage visa increased from 18 to 21 in 2008. Raising the age was meant to combat forced marriages and abuse of the marriage visa system.

In Spain, a November 2009 law tightens the conditions for family reunion of parents. They must be over 65 years old (previously, there was no age limit), and the sponsor must be a long-term resident (rather than a temporary resident with one renewal). On the other hand, the right to family reunion is extended to partners. The person who maintains with the foreign resident an emotional relationship analogous to that of a spouse (common law couples) is put on the same level as a spouse for the purposes of the right to family reunion.

Elsewhere, the route to permanent status has been smoothed. During 2009 a major change in Mexico was to make it easier for foreigners residing on a temporary basis to become full residents. Previously, the process consisted of three stages for full resident status, and now has been reduced to only two simpler and faster processes. In Greece,

changes to the residence rules were meant to improve the legalisation process and the social integration of repatriated Greek nationals (“Pontian” ethnic Greeks), immigrants and immigrant children born in Greece.

Finland has introduced an electronic case management system for immigration affairs. It is intended to improve steering and monitoring of cross-administrative processes, increase the transparency and quality of case management, increase customer satisfaction, improve operational efficiency, shorten processing times and reduce costs. Finland increased the staff of its Immigration Service by 30% in 2010 to deal with the growing caseload.

Canada has expanded its pre-migration outreach programme (Canadian Orientation Abroad) to four new countries – Colombia, Nepal, Sri Lanka, and Jordan. An Active Engagement and Integration pilot project was also launched in late 2008 in Chinese Taipei and South Korea to provide group orientation and topic specific workshops to all categories of immigrants, except refugees.

The main development in Australia relates to the policy, procedures and systems that support administering the health requirement. Initiatives which have been implemented in 2008-09 include: new documentation, measures to give greater uniformity and consistency in applicant health testing and strengthening the health undertaking process which includes follow-up and monitoring of certain groups.

Structural and administrative change

Governments deliver migration policy through a wide range of structures and institutions, which evolve in accordance with policy priorities and approaches. Some recent changes have been prompted by the pressure of economic conditions, by shifting responsibilities between government departments, or by the need to achieve greater administrative efficiency.

Following the general election in 2008, Spain changed its Ministry for Employment and Social Affairs into the Ministry for Employment and Immigration, to reflect a greater political importance given to immigration. In summer 2008, coordination of implementation of integration policy in the Czech Republic was moved to the Ministry of the Interior from the Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs. In order to strengthen forecasting of labour market demand, Bulgaria established a National Council on Labour Migration at the Ministry of Labour in 2008.

Norway, which had previously centralised all competence for immigration and integration under the Ministry of Labour and Social Inclusion, changed its organisation on 1 January 2010. The Department of Migration is now under the Ministry of Justice and Police; the Department of Integration and Diversity is now under the Ministry of Children, Equality and Social Inclusion; and the Department of Sami and Minority Affairs is under the Ministry of Government Administration, Reform and Church Affairs (FAD). Switzerland also reorganised its administration of immigration, to take effect in September 2010, regrouping the services for foreigners with those for asylum and eliminating the entry, stay and return service.

The implications of EU legislation and the expansion of the Schengen area

Unlike other OECD countries, EU member states have had to respond to directives and regulations from the European Commission and to decisions taken in the Council. This

usually involves incorporating measures from the supra-national body into their own legislations. This is normally a continuous process. The expansion of the Schengen visa area and the elimination of internal border control has also had implications for national legislation. Finally, members of the pre-2004 EU countries (the EU15) have also had to decide on the extent to which they open their labour markets to citizens of the newer EU members.

While most EU15 countries imposed transition periods before granting full access to their labour markets to citizens of the new member countries, all but Austria and Germany have now fully opened to citizens of those countries entering in 2004. Governments of the EFTA states, which are also signatories to freedom of movement conventions, have behaved likewise. Most countries, however – except Sweden and Finland – have imposed restrictions on labour market access for citizens of Bulgaria and Romania, which joined the EU in 2007. In some cases, however, such as in Italy and Spain, these restrictions are limited to administrative procedures. Elsewhere, access is more difficult. Switzerland has imposed a labour market test and a quota for these citizens. Since 2009, Bulgarians and Romanians can take up work in Hungary, except in low-skilled occupations where a labour market test is required; for seasonal jobs in agriculture the permit is issued automatically, without a labour market test.

Eastern European countries have been busy incorporating EU legislation into their own. Legislative changes particularly relate to long-term residence, humanitarian policy and free movement for EU nationals. Poland, Hungary, the Czech Republic, the Slovak Republic and Lithuania also joined Schengen at the end of 2007 and have been implementing its measures, abolishing controls at land, sea and air borders. In Hungary, the system of long-term visas and residence permits had to be amended to allow third country nationals to apply for a residence permit at a consulate abroad. The list of entry bans for these countries was transferred to the Schengen Information System.

Switzerland has also modified its visa regime, to come into force in 2010, as a result of an agreement with the European Commission. The new code lays down procedures and conditions for issuing travel visas or residence visas of three months maximum for use within the Schengen area.

Turkey is modernising its border crossing points to Schengen standards.

6. Enforcement and border control

Countries are continuing to introduce new measures to deter those who do not have a right to be on their territory, to improve compliance with immigration legislation, to provide regularisations in some cases, and to combat illegal migration and trafficking.

Border control

Several countries have taken steps to control their borders more rigorously. Italy has intensified controls of its coastlines and borders in order to discourage and repel the arrival of clandestine immigrants. In response to the growing trend in identity fraud throughout the world, the Australian government has supported the implementation of biometrics at the Australian border as a priority. The Department of Foreign Affairs and Trade introduced Australia's first Passport in 2005, which was upgraded in May 2009. Meanwhile, Japan has begun use of the Interpol database for lost and stolen travel documents in its examination of cases and in the work of its forgery and countermeasure office. For Canada, in

March 2009 Citizenship and Immigration Canada (CIC) received preliminary approval for the implementation of its biometrics project to begin in late 2011. The implementation of biometrics in the Temporary Resident Programme will allow overseas visa officers and border service officers to make better informed decisions based on accurate identity and immigration admissibility information and will permit border service officers to verify an applicant's identity at Canada's ports of entry.

In January 2008 Hungary made structural changes in its border control system. The Border Guards were integrated into the Police, enabling the numbers of both to be cut. Lithuania, in 2008 and 2009, held intensive technical consultations with the Republic of Belarus and the Russian Federation towards agreements on local traffic across the border.

Dealing with unauthorised migrants

While no broad regularisation has been held, some OECD countries have offered channels for undocumented foreigners to acquire residence permits. At the same, policy has also changed to increase sanctions for illegal employment of foreigners, cross-border crime and illegal migration.

During 2009, Belgium clarified regulations for case-by-case regularisation of undocumented immigrants. There are five main eligibility criteria. First, where the asylum procedure has been of long duration (three years for families with children of school age, four years for individuals and other families). Second, where families with children have been in Belgium for at least five years and the asylum process has lasted at least one year but has been terminated. Third, where the repatriation of an individual would violate fundamental human rights recognised by Belgium. Fourth, where people who have been resident in Belgium continuously for at least five years, have had legal status for a period of time and can demonstrate lasting local ties. Finally, where there are local ties with a work contract. The application period for the final group was September-December 2009; the other categories allow ongoing application. Since November 2007, France, too, has been regularising on a case by case basis. Those benefiting are foreigners in an irregular situation who find work in an occupation and geographical area where there are difficulties of recruitment, or exceptions on a discretionary basis. Poland is also considering introducing "earned regularisation" in a new Aliens Act due in 2010.

In 2008, there was a clarification of the situation for those amnestied in the Netherlands as a result of the "general pardon" of 2007. It was established that those eligible for a residence permit on the basis of the pardon scheme must have resided in the Netherlands uninterruptedly since April 2001. Undocumented foreigners committing criminal offences or "causing trouble" face expulsion; if repatriation is not possible, they are to be kept in detention.

During 2009, the Italian government acted on the question of illegal immigration with two contrasting measures: a sector regularisation and a tightening of controls on illegal entry. First, a new law allows regularisation of non-EU citizens employed as home helps and carers; 295 000 workers already living and working in Italy applied. Second, a new law on security, among other things, aims to combat illegal immigration by criminalising illegal entry and stay in the Italian State. This offence is punishable with a fine (from EUR 5-10 000) and immediate expulsion, and stiff penalties for those encouraging illegal migration. Other provisions make it compulsory for foreign citizens to produce a residence permit. In Spain, part of the new Immigration Bill introduced in 2009 involves sanctions against those

persons who have invited a foreigner to stay in Spain and who then remains in the country irregularly after his/her visa or authorisation has expired and who is still under the charge of the author of the invitation. However, the maximum re-entry ban for foreigners who have been deported from Spain has been reduced from 10 to 5 years.

New measures to tackle illegal employment in the United Kingdom, introduced by the 2006 Immigration Asylum and Nationality Act, came into effect in February 2008. Although employers are not required to conduct document checks on all prospective employees, the government recommends that, to establish a statutory excuse against liability to pay a civil penalty, they provide evidence of an open and transparent recruitment process and ensure that recruitment practices do not discriminate against individuals on racial grounds. A system of civil penalties for employers who recruit illegal migrant workers has been introduced, with fines of up to GBP 10 000 per illegal worker. A new criminal offence of knowingly employing an illegal migrant worker carries a maximum two year custodial sentence and/or an unlimited fine.

Security and criminality concerns lie behind the new Danish, Finnish, Mexican and US policies. An amendment to the Danish Aliens Act coming into force in July 2009 adopted new procedures for the expulsion of aliens deemed a danger to national security. The new situation gives a special right to a judicial review of the risk assessment and the expulsion order. In Finland, an action programme against illegal immigration is included in the internal security programme. It focuses on preventing illegal immigration and on measures to be taken together with third countries and authorities in neighbouring countries. In addition, cooperation and exchange of information between tax authorities and authorities in charge of immigration is to be intensified to curb financial crime and the grey economy, with the necessary legal amendments in force from the beginning of 2010.

Partly in response to a rise in kidnapping, the Mexican National Security Cabinet has agreed on a border security strategy designed to fight criminal organisations, including those involved in human trafficking, in the southern border regions. The strategy involves coordination among federal and local agencies to investigate, police and share intelligence information, directed to spot, detain and fight criminal organisations. The strategy includes a range of measures such as developing border infrastructure as well as tax incentives directed towards Guatemalan border communities whereby people are encouraged to register and use legal channels to import and export goods and services. Additionally, in recognition of the bi-national regional economy there, Mexican authorities created a migration permit to facilitate and sanction cross-border trade and also temporary work permits, directed to workers mainly in construction and personal services. In the US, the Department of Homeland Security has strengthened its attempts to remove criminal aliens. Working with local law enforcement, fingerprints are collected from foreign nationals who have been arrested for criminal activities to identify persons whose criminal history may warrant deportation.

Lithuania has formed a working group to amend its existing law on the legal status of aliens.

Combating smuggling and trafficking

Several countries have adopted plans of action against people trafficking. In June 2008, Finland adopted a revised National Plan of Action against Trafficking in Human Beings and the Ombudsman for Minorities was appointed the National Rapporteur on Trafficking in

Human Beings. Because identification of victims was hindered by victims not knowing their rights, the Rapporteur proposed in March 2009 to develop legal aid and legal counseling for victims of trafficking. In 2009 New Zealand adopted a cross-departmental action plan, more in anticipation of being targeted rather than as a response. Romania too has instituted a cross-departmental plan against illegal immigration and trafficking and developed a new information system to trace those living illegally in the country. Turkey ratified the Council of Europe Convention against trafficking in human beings in March 2009.

Major anti-trafficking legislation was enacted in Ireland in June 2008. The Criminal Law (Human Trafficking) Act creates separate offences of trafficking in children for the purpose of labour exploitation or the removal of their organs; trafficking in children for the purpose of their sexual exploitation; and trafficking in adults for the purposes of their sexual or labour exploitation or the removal of their organs. It also makes it an offence to sell or offer for sale or to purchase or offer to purchase any person for any purpose. As of August 2008, to protect victims, a suspected victim of human trafficking from outside the EEA may be granted a 45 day period of “recovery and reflection” in Ireland and may also, in certain circumstances, be granted one or more periods of temporary residence in the State. This 45 day period was subsequently extended to 60 days in November 2008.

Support for the victims of trafficking is contained in new measures introduced in Norway. In November 2008 the Ministry of Labour and Social Inclusion issued an instruction to the Directorate of Immigration to allow victims who testify in criminal cases relating to human trafficking to receive residence permits and the prospect of settlement. The purpose is to ensure that victims of human trafficking can testify without fear of retaliation in their country of origin, thus apprehending more traffickers. This was followed by the entering into force in January 2009 of a provision in the penal code which criminalizes the purchase of sexual acts.

Protection of children was the basis of a new project in the Netherlands, piloted in 2008 and concerned with the provision of protected reception facilities for unaccompanied minors aged 13-18 years who had been victim of human trafficking or ran the risk of becoming so. The pilot was due to be evaluated at the end of 2009.

7. International agreements

Several countries have made bilateral or multilateral agreements, though the reasons vary. In some cases the objective is better border control, in others labour market or regional links.

Better border control underlies the efforts of the multilateral Asia Pacific Electronic Card Business Mobility Group, which includes Australia, Canada and New Zealand, to provide information and guidelines to member states for the development of ePassports, including identity management. Under the auspices of the Five Country Conference of heads of immigration agencies, Australia entered into arrangements with Canada and the United Kingdom for fingerprint-based data exchange in August 2009 and the United States and New Zealand intend to join these arrangements in due course.

Other countries have made changes to their visa regimes to manage flows better. Foreigners with legal temporary or permanent residence status in the US, Canada, Japan, United Kingdom, and Schengen countries who require Mexican visas should receive authorisation to travel to Mexico in no more than 48 hours. Similar measures are intended

for nationals of Brazil, Russia, India and China travelling to Mexico. A bilateral agreement was also signed by Mexico and Cuba to ensure legal, ordered and safe migration flows between the two countries. Spain has entered into Framework Immigration Cooperation Agreements with Cape Verde, Mali and Niger. Switzerland signed agreements with Bosnia (2008) and Serbia (2009) concerning readmission and migration partnerships.

In the context of improving border control, Poland and Lithuania have been strengthening links with neighbouring states. One of the major aims of recent Polish migration policy was facilitation of contacts with its Eastern neighbours, mainly through local border traffic agreements. The agreement between Poland and Ukraine, ratified in March 2008 and in force since July 2009, grants citizens of both countries who live in borderlands (up to 30 kilometres from the state border) multiple-entry permits instead of visas. Lithuania has made a number of inter-departmental bilateral agreements with neighbouring countries to enhance border control abilities. Memorandums of Understanding were signed in 2008 with the Border Guard Services in Latvia and Estonia to expand the operation field of liaison officers in Belarus and Georgia. Lithuania continues to support illegal migration prevention efforts at the border with the Russian Federation (at Kaliningrad Oblast).

In 2008 Italy and Libya agreed to collaborate in order to combat terrorism, organised crime, drugs trafficking and illegal immigration. In February 2009, the two countries signed a protocol for the joint patrolling of Mediterranean waters in order to combat illegal immigration.

Labour underlies agreements between New Zealand and the Philippines and Viet Nam. They are designed to facilitate entry to the New Zealand labour market of a limited number of highly skilled professionals, if certain conditions are met. Those conditions include the provision of a *bona fide* job offer and the individual meeting specific qualifications and/or work experience requirements. The specific occupations include nurses, farm managers and engineering professionals for the Philippines, and Vietnamese chefs and engineering professionals for Viet Nam.

8. Integration policies

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

Citizenship and civic integration

Citizenship and the conditions under which it is granted has become a major political issue in a number of OECD countries. Debate is complicated by security concerns or a perceived need for immigrants to show commitment to the rights and privileges associated with the citizenship of their adopted country. Several countries have introduced measures to strengthen immigrants' links and loyalty to the host society. Some countries have moved towards making it more difficult for immigrants to naturalise; others are moving in the opposite direction. The importance of language ability and schooling in the naturalisation process is undiminished.

Some countries have broadened eligibility for citizenship. In 2008, the Australian government amended the Citizenship Act 2007 to allow recognition of same-sex couples and their children for migration and citizenship purposes, resulting in same-sex *de facto* partners having the same rights and responsibilities as opposite sex *de facto* partners. Other amendments were: to ensure that applicants for citizenship by conferral, who are aged under 18, are permanent residents at both the time of application and time of decision; and to provide two special residence requirements, which allow for reduced periods of time to be spent in Australia for certain groups whose work forces them to spend considerable amounts of time outside the country.

Countries where children of immigrants do not acquire citizenship through birth have proposed facilitations for growing numbers of native-born foreign nationals. In Italy, a Bill is going through Parliament that would allow citizenship to be granted to foreign minors born in Italy of foreign citizens, provided one of the two parents has resided in Italy for at least five years, and to minors who have completed their schooling in Italy. The same Bill also proposes a reduction, for adults, of the required period of residence in Italy and controls, for adults, on the quality of their presence and actual integration. In contrast, a new law in 2009 made a requirement for the granting of citizenship a period of legal residence of at least three years from the date the marriage takes place instead of the previous period of six months. Similarly, in Greece, the government presented a bill in 2010 to grant citizenship to the children of immigrants, contingent on 5 years of legal residence by both parents, and 6 years of schooling in Greece for those born abroad.

Sweden has simplified the application procedure for children growing up in the country. Parents who have custody of a child with foreign citizenship can submit notification of Swedish citizenship on behalf of the child if the child has a permanent residence permit and has been living in Sweden for the past five years, or three years if the child is stateless. The Migration Board must be notified before the child turns 18. Stateless children born in Sweden can become citizens if the parents notify the authorities directly after birth.

Discussions began in October 2008 to amend the Finnish Nationality Act. The aim of the changes is to enhance social belonging and integration of those residing permanently in Finland by making acquiring Finnish nationality more flexible. It is proposed that the period of residence required for the acquisition of citizenship will be shortened. At the same time, it will be made easier for the students who have stayed in Finland to acquire citizenship. The proposals are scheduled to be submitted to the Parliament in the spring of 2010.

In contrast, the United Kingdom has restricted citizenship access for foreign-born immigrants. The Borders, Citizenship and Immigration Act 2009 introduced a system of earned citizenship, to come into operation in 2011. It is based on the principle that British citizenship is a privilege that must be earned, and those who enter the United Kingdom with the intention of making it their home should be encouraged to complete the journey on to citizenship. This journey consists in a period of “probationary citizenship”, which can be accelerated through a demonstration of active citizenship, but can be slowed down or halted altogether by criminality. To achieve this, a new points-based test for earned citizenship to manage better the numbers allowed to settle permanently in the United Kingdom will be introduced.

Canada has also reviewed its provisions for conferring citizenship. A new law amending the Citizenship Act came into effect in April 2009. It gives Canadian citizenship to certain people who lost it and to others who are recognized as citizens for the first time. It also limits transmission of citizenship by descent to one generation for residents outside Canada.

Luxembourg has softened its approach to dual nationality. In January 2009, the principle of dual nationality was introduced into Luxembourg law, the aim being to reinforce the integration of foreigners resident in the Grand Duchy who wish to acquire Luxembourg citizenship while at the same time keeping their original nationality. There are a number of conditions: residence in Luxembourg for seven years and a sufficient degree of integration; proof of an adequate knowledge of the language, institutions and basic rights of the country. A child born in the Grand Duchy of non-Luxembourgish parents or where only one of those parents is Luxembourgish, may have Luxembourg nationality.

In Poland the issue has been who holds the right of conferring citizenship. In April 2009 a new Citizenship law was passed by the Polish Parliament. Regional Governors may now grant Polish citizenship; hitherto only the President could do so. This is currently suspended pending a decision by the Constitutional Tribunal. Decentralisation of decision making has also been an issue in Switzerland. In January 2009 a modification of the federal law concerning the acquisition or loss of Swiss nationality came into force. The new conditions control the abilities of the cantons in procedural matters and the right of appeal. They oblige the cantons to offer a right of appeal at canton level when the decision concerning naturalization is negative. They also oblige the cantons to monitor the procedures involved so that the rights of the individual are not violated. At the end of 2009, Switzerland began a major revision of nationality law to make the process more efficient, simpler and harmonised across cantons.

Bulgaria is currently considering two proposals which will expedite citizenship for two groups. In an effort to promote highly skilled immigration the Citizenship Council will be required to take its decisions within three months in the case of applicants with Bulgarian university education. The amendments will also grant citizenship to those who apply from the countries which were Bulgarian territories before 1947 and whose Bulgarian citizenship had been revoked without their consent.

The Lithuanian government has addressed the issue of dual citizenship. A restrictive approach adopted in 2006 accepts duality only in exceptional cases, but discussions have been reopened because of the large number of Lithuanians currently living abroad. In July 2008, a new temporary version of the Law on Citizenship was put in place. The main changes were made in the field of citizenship of a child, so that all children of Lithuanian parents, irrespective of whether they have citizenship of another country, become Lithuanian citizens as well. When reaching the age of 18, children with dual citizenship must choose between the two.

Citizenship testing and language provision

Several countries have been reviewing their language and citizenship provision and tests, usually to make them stricter. A review of the Australian citizenship test in 2008 recommended that the Australian Citizenship Pledge of Commitment should be the focus of citizenship testing so that democratic beliefs, responsibilities and privileges of

citizenship and the requirement to uphold and obey the laws of Australia are at the heart of the test. In the United States, a new naturalization test went into effect in October 2008, designed to ascertain whether applicants have a good understanding of US history and civic values, as well as English language skills. Hungary amended its Citizenship Act in 2008 to give authorisation to the government to establish requirements, procedures and regulations for the conduct of its citizenship examination.

Denmark has tightened its existing requirements with respect to knowledge of the Danish language, documented by a certificate issued by a language training centre or other educational establishment and knowledge of Danish society, culture and history, documented by a certificate of a special citizenship test and ability to self-support. The requirement that applicants must be able to support themselves has also been tightened. In the Netherlands, from March 2008, the requirements for passing the civic integration exam have become more stringent and the applicant will have to answer more questions correctly in order to pass. Furthermore, foreign nationals who are obliged to participate in civic integration programmes could be fined if they do not. In a related development, the Dutch Cabinet postponed the introduction of the civic integration examination, a condition for granting a permanent residence permit, from September 2008 to January 2010.

Other countries have taken steps to improve language provision. In 2008-2009, Canada made improvements to the quality of language training provided to newcomers. The Language Instruction for Newcomers to Canada (LINC) program was expanded to include training at higher levels of official language proficiency. In the Czech Republic, in 2009 knowledge of the Czech language became a necessary precondition for granting permanent residence. In Hungary the new Asylum Act extended the scope of free language courses and a free language exam to the beneficiaries of subsidiary and temporary protection beside refugees.

Social integration

Countries have introduced a variety of measures, mainly designed to increase social integration. A major new Bill began its progress through the Spanish parliamentary system in June 2009. The Bill extends to foreigners, including those without residence permits, the same rights of assembly, demonstration, association, unionisation and strike action which the current law limits to legal residents. In addition, the right to free justice is to be extended to all foreigners who will be able to enjoy it under the same conditions as the Spanish. A right to work is introduced for reunified relatives: both the spouse and children over 16 years old will be entitled to work from the moment that they acquire residence. The government has also been negotiating the right to vote in Spanish municipal elections for foreign citizens who have lived in Spain for five years and who are citizens of those countries with which the principle of reciprocity has been agreed.

In July 2009, Australia began a Community Assistance Support (CAS) programme aimed at eligible lawful non-citizens who are in the community while their immigration status is being resolved. It provides a package of individually assessed services, including health, welfare and income support to highly vulnerable persons with exceptional circumstances, in order to facilitate resolution of their status.

In Switzerland, from 2008 until 2011 the emphasis of integration policy is on language, professional training and supporting integration services at canton level as well as encouraging new pilot projects.

Decentralisation of responsibility for integration underlies new policy developments in Finland. In April 2009, the government decided to reform the Act on the Integration of Immigrants, to cover all persons whose residence in Finland is supposed to last at least a year, irrespective of the grounds for entering the country. In addition to the total revision of the Integration Act, the Ministry of the Interior is preparing a pilot to promote the integration of immigrants through intersectoral measures at local level. Municipalities may experiment with various models to meet local needs. In some municipalities the experiment will focus on measures to be developed for neighbourhoods where immigrants are concentrated, in others on the promotion of employment and training through initial induction and guidance. There is also a project for developing indicators to monitor and assess integration and ethnic relations and to study immigrants' opinions of integration. A total revision of the Integration Act started in autumn 2009. The aim is to assess whether the scope of the Act could be extended so that individual measures promoting integration could also be applied to people who come to Finland for employment. The aim is to submit the Bill to Parliament during spring 2010.

Like its Scandinavian neighbour, Sweden has also introduced a new strategy for integration, to run for the years 2008-2010. The strategy is based on an analysis of existing problems regarding integration and measures to tackle them. Important factors identified include the general level of supply and demand of labour, the language skills of the immigrants, the fields and level of education among the immigrants, the employer's ability to correctly assess educational and vocational merits acquired abroad, discrimination, overall performance of the educational system, the ability of the educational system to match up individual needs, access to vocational training for adults and access to complementary education for highly educated immigrants. In response, a seven-part strategic plan has been developed, covering: effective reception and introduction of new arrivals; employment and entrepreneurship; better educational performance and equality in schools; language and education for adults; discrimination; local development in urban districts with wide spread exclusion; and shared values.

In 2007 the Swedish government introduced its "Step-in" jobs scheme to subsidise payroll costs for unemployed newly arrived immigrants. The regulatory framework for the scheme was amended in June 2008 to enable more new immigrants to take part. The qualification time frame after receiving a residence permit in which a person may receive Step-in jobs was extended from two to three years and the length of subsidy was increased from 18 months to 24 months. The wage subsidy amounts to 75% of the gross salary. Immigrants are also eligible for help from the "New-start" scheme which subsidises employers' payroll costs for the long-term unemployed. Introduced in 2007, in January 2009 the government doubled the subsidy to enhance further the employability of long-term unemployed who have turned 26 years of age.

In several countries the emphasis has been on integration in the labour market or on measures to help counter the effects of recession. Following the National Integration Plan in Germany, which came into operation in 2007, cooperation between government and civil society actors – migrant organisations, in particular – has been institutionalised. A joint initiative to improve the labour market integration of migrants was launched by the Federal Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs, the Commissioner for Integration and the Federal Employment Agency. Working groups have been established to deal with occupation-related German language skills, entrepreneurship, counseling, skill levels and intercultural matters. Implementation of the first programme elements in selected places

began early in 2009. Elsewhere, Austria launched a national action plan on integration at the end of 2009, while in response to the economic downturn the government of Japan has strengthened support measures to unemployed foreign residents, including those of Japanese descent.

Failed relationships were the concern leading to new integration measures in New Zealand. In March 2009, the Department made enhancements to the criteria of the Victims of Domestic Violence immigration policy (first implemented in 2001). This policy now provides a safety net for people who migrated to New Zealand intending to seek residence based on their partnership with a New Zealand citizen or permanent resident, but where that relationship has dissolved due to domestic violence committed against them by the New Zealand partner.

In Poland, Luxembourg and Romania the emphasis has been on schooling. As from January 2010 all foreigners in Poland will have access to elementary and secondary education on the same conditions as Poles. In January 2009, three bills were passed by the Luxembourg government concerning basic education in the country, to take effect from the beginning of the academic year 2009/2010. They concern all children in the age range 3-12, irrespective of nationality. As a special measure to help children from poorer countries, from March 2009 the State and the Communes offer a benefit of at least three free hours of reception per week to all children under 13 irrespective of their parents' circumstances. Similarly, in Romania two new projects are in the process of being approved by the Ministry of Education, Research and Innovation. Both concern the organisation and delivery of Romanian language training and schooling to those with protection or residence rights or EEA citizens. The first is for the children of foreigners, and the second for adults.

Combating discrimination

Several countries, including all four in Scandinavia, have taken action to prevent discrimination and radicalisation. In April 2008 a new division in the Ministry of Integration Affairs in Denmark was established – the Division for Cohesion and Prevention of Radicalisation. The aim of the division is to strengthen democratic cohesion in society in order for all citizens to be aware of both their rights and duties as Danish citizens. It includes encouragement for young people to participate in the democratic process. An action plan was published in January 2009. At the same time, a new and stronger Complaints Board on Equal Treatment came into force. This is competent for all strands of the Danish anti-discrimination legislation (racial, social, national or ethnic origin, gender, colour of skin, religion or faith, political observation, sexual inclination, age or disability) and is able to award victims of discrimination compensation for non-pecuniary damages.

Sweden has gone further, with a new anti-discrimination Act in January 2009. It requires public authorities, private and public employers and social partners in working life to promote equality and prevent discrimination. It includes measures to ensure effective enforcement of legal protection against discrimination; increase public awareness of what discrimination is and how it can be combated; improve competence in the public sector in order to ensure equal public services and prevent discrimination; and prevent exclusive recruitment practices in working life, governing bodies and elected positions. In general, the measures will target areas where people from minority backgrounds are particularly vulnerable to discrimination. This applies especially to working life, but public administration is also an important priority area and one measure is active recruitment of immigrants to public administration and health authorities.

Finland is also in the process of reforming its equality and non-discrimination legislation. The process aims to unify legislation concerning different grounds of discrimination. In a review of its migration policy programme in February 2009, Finland decided to step up its efforts to combat racism and intensify investigation of racist crimes and regulation of illegal terms of employment and make a commitment to zero tolerance in these issues. In Italy, the objective has been to reduce discrimination in the labour market. In October 2009, a charter for equal opportunities and equality in the workplace was introduced by the government, with the broad approval of business enterprises and public institutions, imitating initiatives undertaken in France and Germany. The charter is a declaration of intent, voluntarily signed by enterprises of all sizes, to promote the spread of a corporate culture where discrimination and prejudice have no place.

9. Migration policy in OECD countries

With some notable exceptions, OECD countries seem to be converging with respect to overall migration policy. Those with restrictive policies have tended to liberalise them, while countries which had been more open have placed additional restrictions. Demand-driven policies, characterised by selection and with the rights and responsibilities of migrants more clearly laid out, continue to be developed. The raft of policy measures aimed at asylum flows and irregular migration have reduced the pressure to implement new policies in these areas, although changes continue to be made. Civic and social integration are becoming more formalised.

While the management of labour migration remains the principal area of policy development, the economic downturn has focused attention on identifying and meeting endemic skill shortages. Measures to attract highly skilled labour, often seen as key to global economic success, continue to attract support and evolve. Less highly skilled labour, however, in most cases, has been subject to more restrictions as countries worry about protecting their labour markets.

Labour migration policy developments display a number of themes. The response to the economic downturn has been, in many countries, to tighten access to labour migration channels, by cutting quotas (Italy, Korea, Spain), changing the labour market test (United Kingdom, Canada, Bulgaria), and redrawing shortage lists (Australia, New Zealand, United Kingdom).

Some countries have introduced changes across the spectrum of skills, including simplified procedures, response to the economic downturn and new strategic approaches (Bulgaria, Czech Republic, Finland, France, Korea, Luxembourg, Netherlands, Poland, Romania, Sweden, United Kingdom). Others have focused on terms and conditions of employment, including measures to protect indigenous workers while also helping unemployed foreigners (Australia, Czech Republic, Ireland, Japan, New Zealand, Norway, United States).

Most OECD countries have implemented new policies for the highest skilled during the past decade, and new and forceful policies are less in evidence than two years ago. A dichotomy of approach persists. Whereas the Czech Republic, Germany and Lithuania have lowered the bar, Australia, Denmark, Netherlands, New Zealand and the United Kingdom have lifted it. In acknowledgment of the continuing strength of corporate globalisation, the passage of intra-company transferees has been eased by Belgium, Denmark, France and Germany, but the United Kingdom, a major destination, imposed more restrictions. Only

Australia and New Zealand have introduced new regulations relating to seasonal workers in agriculture. A major theme in some Eastern European countries (Bulgaria, Lithuania, Romania) has been measures to encourage the return of their expatriates from abroad. Japan, Czech Republic and Spain have taken steps to promote voluntary return by unemployed immigrant workers.

As most OECD countries have by now established provisions for employment and post-graduation stay for international students, fewer new policies in this area have been introduced. While Australia and the United Kingdom, which had been relatively open, have imposed new limits, restrictive countries such as Lithuania have made their entry easier. The main area of policy interest is still that of post-study graduates, where encouragement to stay is strong (Canada, Czech Republic, Finland, Germany, Italy, Japan, United Kingdom).

Although no countries have reported the introduction of new citizenship ceremonies, several have been active in amending their conditions for conferring citizenship, including the promotion of some form of testing as a precursor to civic integration (Australia, Canada, Italy, Sweden, United Kingdom, Bulgaria). Both Luxembourg and Lithuania have adopted a more positive attitude towards the acceptance of dual nationality.

A wide range of measures relating to social integration have been introduced, although there are no dominant foci. They include procedural changes and clarifications (Australia, Czech Republic, Ireland, Japan, Norway), support for immigrants (Australia, Spain, Sweden), more attention to integrating immigrants into labour markets (Austria, Germany, Japan, Sweden), schooling for migrant children (Luxembourg, Poland, Romania) and measures against discrimination and radicalisation (Denmark, Finland, Sweden). Other measures have tackled marriage and personal issues (United Kingdom, New Zealand).

Although the humanitarian issues related to asylum still concern many countries, policy activity has been limited to procedural rather than framework policy changes. New measures in the Czech Republic and Hungary have been driven by EU membership. Entitlement to protection has converged, tightening in Norway and Switzerland but easing in Bulgaria, the Slovak Republic and Spain. The focus in Denmark, Finland and France is on specific groups of asylum seekers; Ireland and Spain have introduced changes to their determination procedures and Luxembourg to its policy on voluntary departure.

Border controls overall have become more rigorous, including the introduction of better information systems, policing and border infrastructure (Canada, Hungary, Italy, Japan, Lithuania). Regularisations have been held in several countries (Belgium, France, Italy, Netherlands, Poland), although no country has introduced a new general amnesty. Employer sanctions (Spain and the United Kingdom) and state security (Denmark, Finland and Mexico) have also been increased. Anti-trafficking measures have been adopted in Finland, Ireland, New Zealand and Romania, and victim support in the Netherlands and Norway.

Freedom of movement has been a concern to both old and new EU members. Belgium, Luxembourg, Netherlands and the United Kingdom have restricted entry into their labour markets of Bulgarians and Romanians while Austria, Germany and Switzerland have continued the transition period for A8 citizens as well. Eastern European countries have taken steps to incorporate the Schengen *acquis* into their legal systems (Hungary, Poland, the Slovak Republic, Lithuania). A small number of countries have engaged in various bilateral and multilateral agreements relating to travel, visas and regional networks (Australia, Canada, Italy, Mexico, New Zealand, Poland, Spain, Lithuania).

In sum, recent policy trends in OECD countries may be summarised as follows:

- Member states have introduced a wide range of policy and legislative developments although there have been few fundamental revisions, even during the economic downturn.
- There is still a general trend towards selection of immigrants, especially the highly skilled.
- Point-based selection systems are becoming more common in Europe.
- Labour migration policies are tending to become more restrictive, partly in response to the economic downturn, through tightening existing administrative mechanisms.
- Better civic and social integration is being actively promoted, including in access to permanent residence and citizenship.
- EU membership continues to drive legislative changes in Europe but the pace is now slower than in the early part of the decade and post-accession.
- Governments are still putting into place structures to manage immigration better, although in many cases this has already been done and the main focus is on procedures.

Notes

1. Excluding Mexico and Turkey.
2. It is assumed that 70% of inflows for countries for which standardised statistics could not be estimated were permanent in character. The 6% decline takes account of the flows from this group as well.
3. This is regulated migration, migration that is subject to policy change and which can be either restricted or liberalised. It is in contrast to free-movement labour migration, over which governments have little discretionary control, once the free-movement regimes have been established.
4. This estimate assumes that three quarters of free-movement migrants came for work-related reasons.
5. In some countries, short-term movements are included in the statistics, in others only those of a permanent character. Adding flows across countries thus means in practice that permanent flows from some countries are combined with flows of all durations from other countries. In practice, this may introduce some bias in the statistics.
6. Refer to the Box I.2 for details on the classification used.
7. The statistics presented in the charts below for Italy are based on residence permits delivered and no longer include citizens of the new EU member countries since 2007. The high presence of Romanians in that country is estimated from the change in the stock of Romanians, which was significantly lower in 2008 than in 2007.
8. In order to attract international students, English-language programmes have been introduced in many universities. Although they may be successful in achieving this aim, students in such programmes may complete their studies without the necessary command of the language of the host country needed to take on a high-skilled job.
9. This is not necessarily the case in Sweden, where international students are allowed to change to worker status before completing their studies.
10. Similar values were previously estimated with other methods (OECD, 2009; ICMPD, 2006). The Australian Department of Immigration and Citizenship estimates a stay rate of about 30%. Canadian estimates are slightly higher compared to earlier estimates, whereas Norwegian estimates are about the same.
11. It is uncertain to what extent unauthorised migration is taken into account in the net migration statistics or how strongly this affects the percentages shown here.

12. This estimate is based on statistics in the Eurostat online international migration database for the year 2004, for countries for which both immigration and emigration data by age group are available (Czech Republic, Denmark, Germany, Lithuania, Netherlands, Slovenia, Slovak Republic, Finland, Sweden, Norway and Switzerland).
13. In France, for example, it is estimated that only about 20% of immigrants entering the labour market over the 2004-2006 period did so directly, that is, had a job upon arrival (Léger, 2008). The rest entered the labour force some time after arrival. This reflects in part the low level of labour migration in France over this period, but total immigrant entries into the labour force nonetheless accounted for about 14% of all labour force entrants over this same period in France.
14. The decomposition comes from a standard shift-share analysis of employment growth over the period, where the contribution of increases in the employment rates of the native-born and the foreign-born have been aggregated. The “residual” factor represents the joint effect of changes in population size and of changes in employment rates. It is calculated separately for the native- and foreign-born and then summed. Because the residual terms involve the product of two differences, they tend to be small.
15. The assumed net migration levels are those underlying the medium variant of the United Nations population projections.
16. The age cut-offs adopted here do not take into account the fact that in some countries, many students work at least part-time as well as the fact that retirement ages are or will be effectively pushed back beyond 65 years of age.
17. The dependency ratio as defined here as the ratio of the population 0-19 and 65+ to the working-age population (20-64).
18. This Subsection B was drafted by the Secretariat with the help of John Salt of the University College London and national SOPEMI Correspondent for the United Kingdom. It benefited as well from a contribution by Philippe de Bruycker, Free University of Brussels, in particular on developments in European migration policy.

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PART II

Migrants in OECD Labour Markets through the Crisis

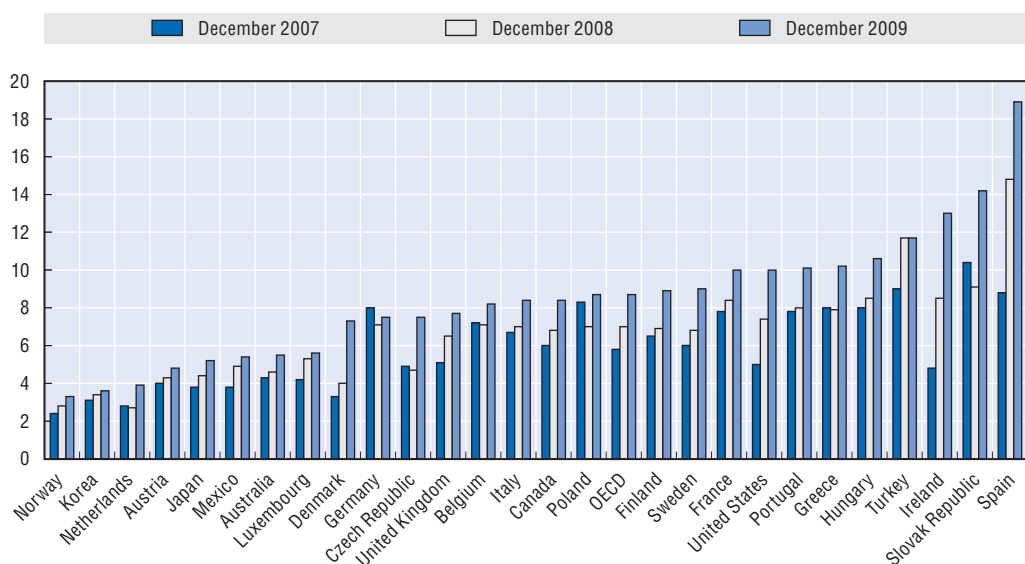
The financial crisis, which started at the end of 2007, rapidly led to a major recession and has resulted in severe labour market slack. Starting from a 28-year low of 5.8% in late 2007, the OECD unemployment rate rose to 8.8% in the fourth quarter of 2009, resulting in an 18 million increase in the number of persons unemployed (OECD, 2010a). Most recent evidence suggests that unemployment may have peaked at the end of 2009 in the United States and Japan and that initial projections, which predicted that the OECD unemployment rate would reach 10% at the end of 2010, may have been too pessimistic. Even so, the current economic crisis is comparable to the two deep recessions of the post-war period, in the 1970s and 1990s.

Assuming that employment in the OECD area would have increased since the start of the recession at the same pace as the working-age population, it is estimated that almost 20 million additional persons would have been employed by the fourth quarter of 2009 (OECD, 2010a). This represents an employment gap equal to 3.7% of total employment, a figure which compares to that observed during the second oil shock in the late 1970s. Even though macroeconomic prospects have improved recently, in most OECD countries, it is still unclear if the recovery will generate sufficient job creation to close the employment gap before the end of 2011.

One of the striking features of the current recession is that its impact on the labour market has been quite uneven between countries. The impact on unemployment varies with the size of the macroeconomic shock but also with the characteristics of the labour market and the nature of policy responses. Whereas the global unemployment rate has increased by 3 percentage points on average in the OECD between December 2007 and 2009, it has increased by less than one percentage point in Belgium, Korea, Norway or Poland and decreased by half a percentage point in Germany (see Figure II.1). In the meantime, unemployment has increased by more than 10 percentage points in Spain, and by 8.6 and 5 percentage points respectively in Ireland and the United States. Other countries which also experienced above-average changes in the unemployment rate included Denmark, the Czech Republic or Sweden. When considering hereafter the consequences of the economic crisis on migrant workers, these cross-country differences should be kept in mind.

The 2010 edition of the *OECD Employment Outlook* (OECD, 2010a) provides an in-depth analysis of the responsiveness of total labour input to the drop in GDP and shows that the choice between employment and adjustment of working hours is critical to understanding differences across countries. In general, Austria, Germany and Norway tend to rely more on the adjustment of working hours while in New Zealand, Spain and the United States changes in employment play a major role. During this recession changes in hours worked were also particularly important in Belgium, France, Japan and the Netherlands for example. As the recession progresses, however, the possibility to further reduce working time diminishes and the contribution of changes in employment to adjustments of labour inputs is expected to rise.

Figure II.1. **Harmonised unemployment rates, 2007-2009**
Percentage of the labour force



Source: OECD, Main Economic Indicators (www.oecd.org/std/mei).

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Taking into account the key role of migration in the dynamics of OECD labour markets in the decades before the 2007/2008 economic crisis, it seems important to better understand how migrant labour has adjusted through the crisis and what role it may play during the recovery phase. It is also necessary to monitor closely the labour market outcomes of immigrants in order to better understand if and why they are more vulnerable to the reduction in labour demand. This analysis should help in designing appropriate policy responses to avoid some of the long-lasting effects of the crisis on the integration of immigrants and their children which were observed during previous recessions, notably in Europe.

Building on the preliminary analysis of the impact of the crisis on migration, published in the 2009 edition of the *International Migration Outlook* (OECD, 2009a), and taking advantage of updated and more detailed labour market statistics by place of birth up to the fourth quarter of 2009, this section sheds new light on the consequences of the economic crisis on migrant workers as well as the role of migration in labour market adjustment through the crisis.

1. A brief analysis of the dynamics of foreign-born employment in OECD countries through the crisis

Foreign labour often plays a buffering role in the labour market both during expansion and contraction phases of the business cycle. Labour migration contributes to moderating increases in the cost of labour during periods of rapid economic growth and is expected to adjust downward more or less automatically during recessions. Table II.1 provides evidence of this phenomenon for selected OECD countries during the second oil shock. In Germany for example, between 1980 and 1984, the unemployment rate of foreigners increased twice as rapidly as for nationals. At the same time, the inflow of foreign workers was divided by three.

Historical data on labour market outcomes by place of birth or nationality are particularly difficult to compile and might not always be fully consistent over time.

Table II.1. **Unemployment rate and inflows of foreign workers in some European OECD countries at the time of the second oil crisis**

Percentages of the labour force and thousands

		Unemployment rate		Inflows of foreign workers ²
		Nationals ¹	Foreigners	
		% of the labour force		Thousands
Austria	1980	1.9	2.1	95.4
	1981	2.4	3.4	81.9
	1983	4.4	6.2	52.7
Germany	1980	5.0	3.8	82.6
	1982	7.5	11.9	25.9
	1984	9.6	14.7	24.0 ³
France	1976	3.8	5.4	18.4 ⁴
	1981	6.9	10.2	11.5 ⁵
	1984	8.8	14.7	18.5 ³
Netherlands	1979	5.1	7.9	72.2
	1980	5.9	9.2	79.8
	1981	9.0	13.3	50.4
Sweden	1980	2.0	4.0	34.4
	1982	3.1	5.8	25.1

1. Total population for Germany (1982), France, the Netherlands and Sweden (all years).

2. Netherlands and Sweden: total inflows of foreign population.

3. 1983.

4. 1978.

5. Excluding around 22 000 regularised workers.

Source: OECD SOPEMI reports 1981, 1982, 1983 and 1984.


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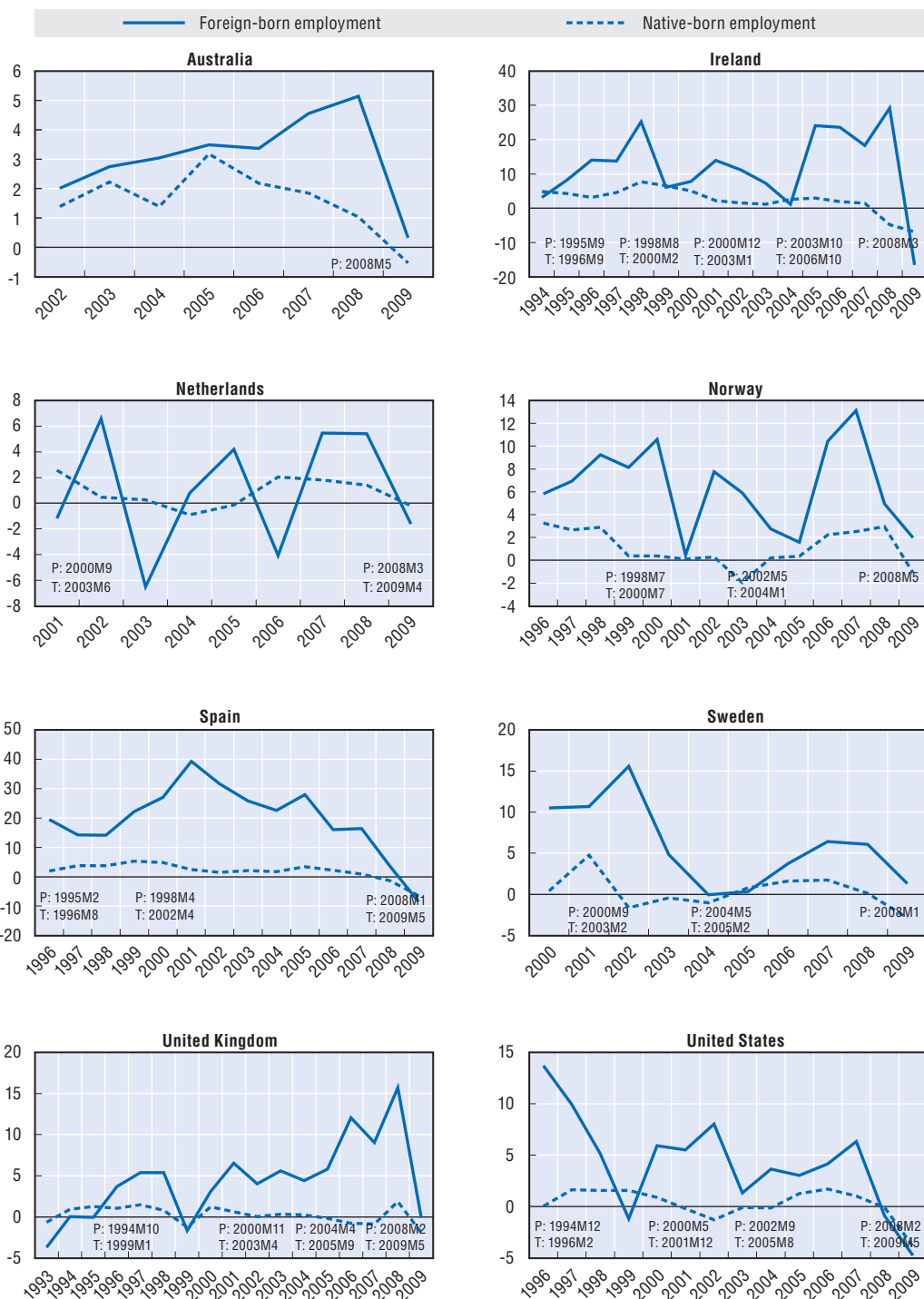
Figure II.2 (panel A) presents the evolution of both native-born and foreign-born employment, based on labour force survey data for eight OECD countries. The period covered encompasses the three most recent recessions in the mid 1990s, early 2000s as well as 2007/2008. It provides a broad-brush picture of how migrant employment has been affected by harsh economic conditions.

Several findings emerge from these graphs. Firstly, in most countries for which data are available we observe a relative synchronisation of the evolution of foreign-born and native-born employment, although the former sometimes responds with a lag, probably because of the inertia of migration flows. Processing times for authorisation of immigrant workers can be long in some countries. Consequently, there may be a delay between when the crisis hits the labour market and when inflows actually start to fall. In the meantime, even if labour inflows do not decline immediately, the unemployment of immigrants is expected to increase rapidly. After at most two quarters, the two effects combine and migrant employment begins to decrease.

This type of response appeared during the “dot.com crisis” at the turn of the century. It was also identifiable in a number of countries during the recent economic crisis. For instance, foreign-born employment was still increasing in 2008 in Spain, Ireland and Portugal and in 2009 in Norway, Sweden and Italy, while native-born employment was already on the decline. Such an observation is not valid, however, for all countries and notably not for the United States. Panel B of Figure II.2 illustrates the quarterly evolution (not seasonally adjusted) of employment by place of birth in eight OECD countries since the first quarter of 2007. It would appear that the series for native-born and foreign-born

Figure II.2. **Change in native- and foreign-born employment during recent economic downturns in selected OECD countries**

Panel A. Annual growth rate of native- and foreign-born employment (%)

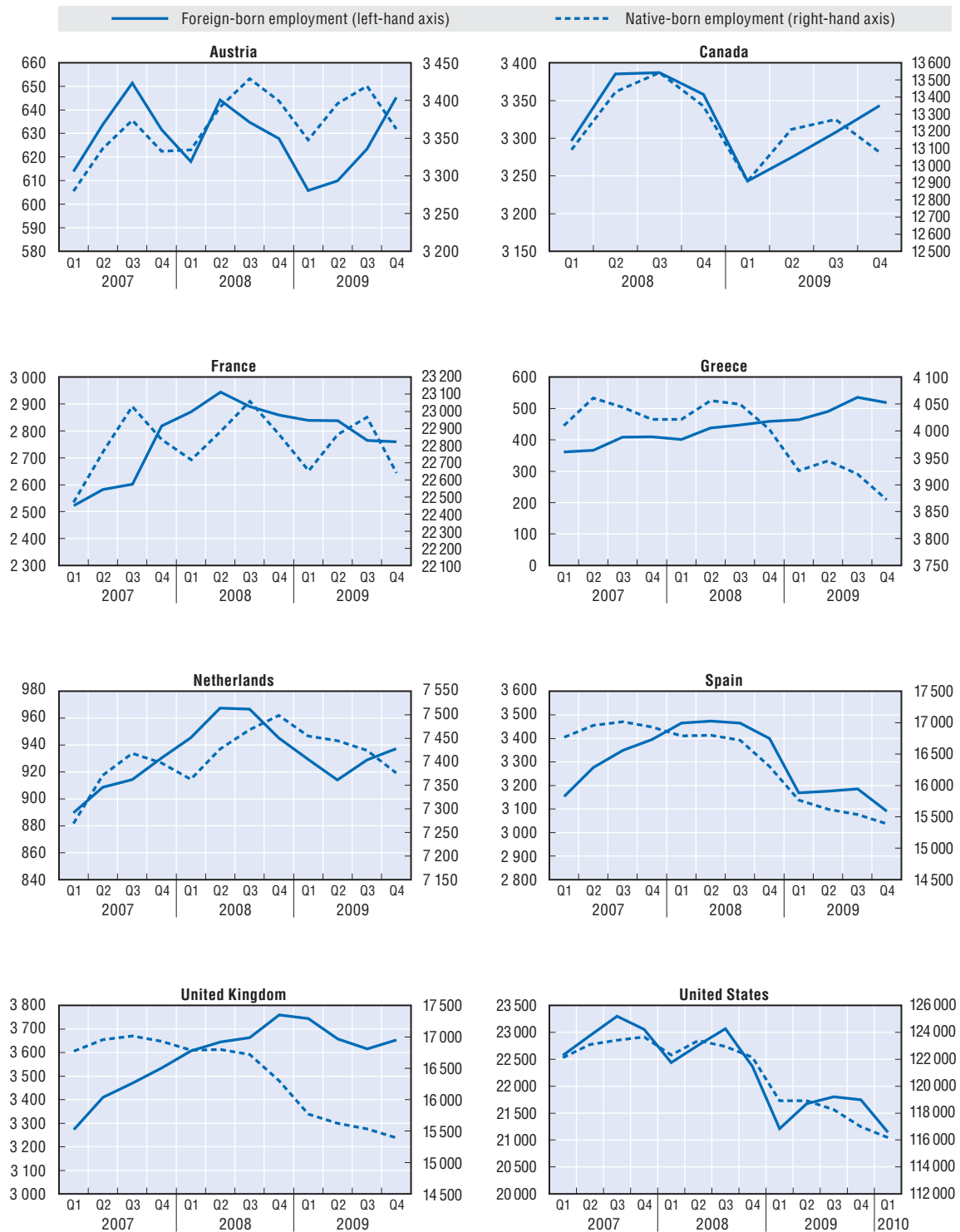


Sources: European Labour Force Surveys (Eurostat); United States: Current Population Surveys (March Supplement); Australia: Labour Force Surveys; OECD CLI component series and turning points (P for peaks and T for troughs).


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Figure II.2. **Change in native- and foreign-born employment during recent economic downturns in selected OECD countries (cont.)**

Panel B. Quarterly change in native- and foreign-born employment (not seasonally adjusted), Q1 2007 to Q4 2009 (thousands)



Sources: European Labour Force Surveys (Eurostat); United States: monthly Current Population Surveys; Canada: monthly Labour Force Surveys.

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coincided perfectly in the United States and Canada but that foreign-born employment responded with a lag of one to three quarters in Spain, France and the United Kingdom. Austria and the Netherlands present a third type of pattern as foreign-born employment declined before native-born employment. The explanation of the cross-country difference in the speed of adjustment of migrant employment during economic downturn needs to be further analysed but could be linked to the characteristics of foreign-born employment or to the degree of flexibility of the labour market in general.

In all cases, however, when foreign-born employment declines it does so very steeply. In Spain, the total number of migrants in employment decreased by about 8.5% between 2008 and 2009. Migrant employment went down by almost 17% in Ireland, by 4.7% in the United States (6.3% between 2007 and 2009), and by 3% in France.

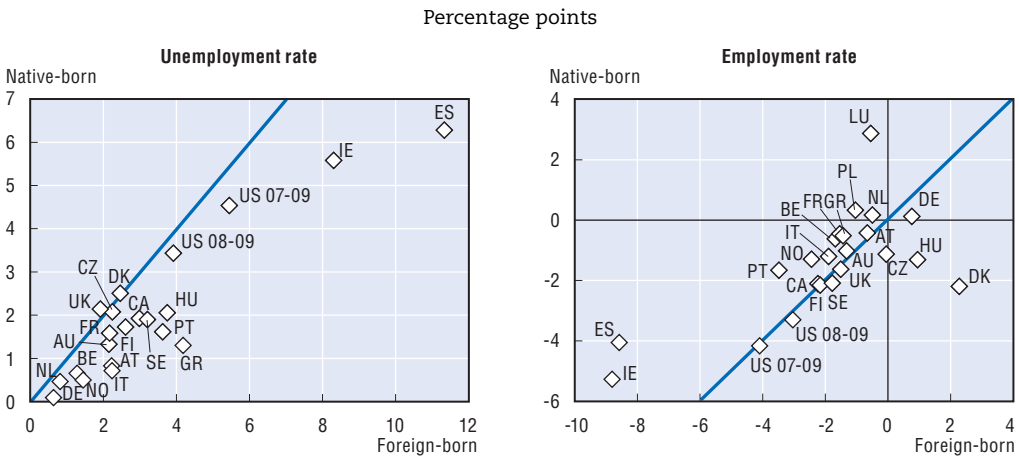
Secondly, on average over the last decade the contribution of immigrant labour to employment growth has been significant and generally largely exceeds its initial share in total employment (see Part I). In the EU15 in the 7 years to 2008, total employment has increased by 14.5 million, 58% of which corresponded to increases in foreign-born employment (+8.4 million). Corresponding figures for the United States and Australia were respectively 32% (+5 million employed foreign-born) and 19% (+590 000 employed foreign-born). The large drop in foreign-born employment observed in the 2007/2008 economic crisis should therefore be considered in this context.

Thirdly, changes in foreign-born employment appear to be larger than in native-born employment. In other terms, migrant employment tends to be more volatile. This is confirmed by the fact that, for EU15 countries, the standard deviation of foreign-born employment growth¹ is on average about five times higher than that of native-born growth between 2000 and 2009.² Further investigation would be needed to better understand if this result is mainly linked to the business cycle or to other factors, including specific demographic trends.

Changes in aggregate employment can be linked to changes in the size of the labour force and in unemployment, which may follow distinct trends for the native-born and the foreign-born population. To better understand the full impact during the crisis of the dynamics of native-born and foreign-born employment, it is therefore necessary to disentangle the contribution of changes in migrant and non-migrant working-age populations, participation rates and unemployment rates to changes in employment. Before proceeding to this analysis we present below the recent changes in unemployment and employment rates³ by place of birth (Figure II.3 and Annex II.A1).

Between the first three quarters of 2008 and 2009 the unemployment rate of the foreign-born increased markedly in all OECD countries. It increased by 11 percentage points in Spain and by about 8 percentage points in Ireland and Iceland. In the United States, the number of unemployed immigrants increased by 1.2 million (18% of the overall increase in unemployment) between 2007 and 2009, and the unemployment rate of immigrants more than doubled from 4.3% to 9.7%. Smaller increases were recorded in EU countries as well as in Australia and Canada, although in all cases, except in the United Kingdom, the immigrant unemployment rate has increased more rapidly than that of the native-born. On average in the EU15, between the first three quarters of 2008 and the corresponding quarters in 2009, the unemployment rate of migrants increased by 3.4 percentage points, twice the increase recorded for the native-born. The peculiar situation of the United Kingdom can be partly explained by selective out-migration and sustained employment growth in several sectors where migrants play a key role.

Figure II.3. **Change in unemployment and employment rates by place of birth between 2008 and 2009**



Note: Data for EU countries refer to changes between Q1-3 2008 and Q1-3 2009. Data for the United States refer to changes between 2007 and 2009 (US 07-09) and between 2008 and 2009 (US 08-09). Data for Australia and Canada refer to changes between 2008 and 2009.

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In the last quarter of 2009, the unemployment rate of the foreign-born reached 28.3% in Spain (compared with 16.7% for the native-born), and more than 15% in Belgium, Ireland, Finland, France and Sweden. In Austria, Belgium, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Norway and Sweden, the unemployment rate of the foreign-born was at least twice that of the native-born (see Annex II.A1).

The evolution of employment rates goes in the opposite direction, with significant decreases observed for both migrants and natives in almost all countries. In three OECD countries, however, the employment rate of the foreign-born is increasing not decreasing. This was the case in Denmark, Hungary and Germany where participation of immigrants in the labour market rose significantly.

In the fourth quarter of 2009, the employment rate of immigrants was at least 7 percentage points below that of the native-born in Austria, Belgium, Germany, Denmark, France, Hungary, the Netherlands, Norway or Sweden. It was as low as 53% in Belgium and 58% in France and Spain (see Annex II.A1).

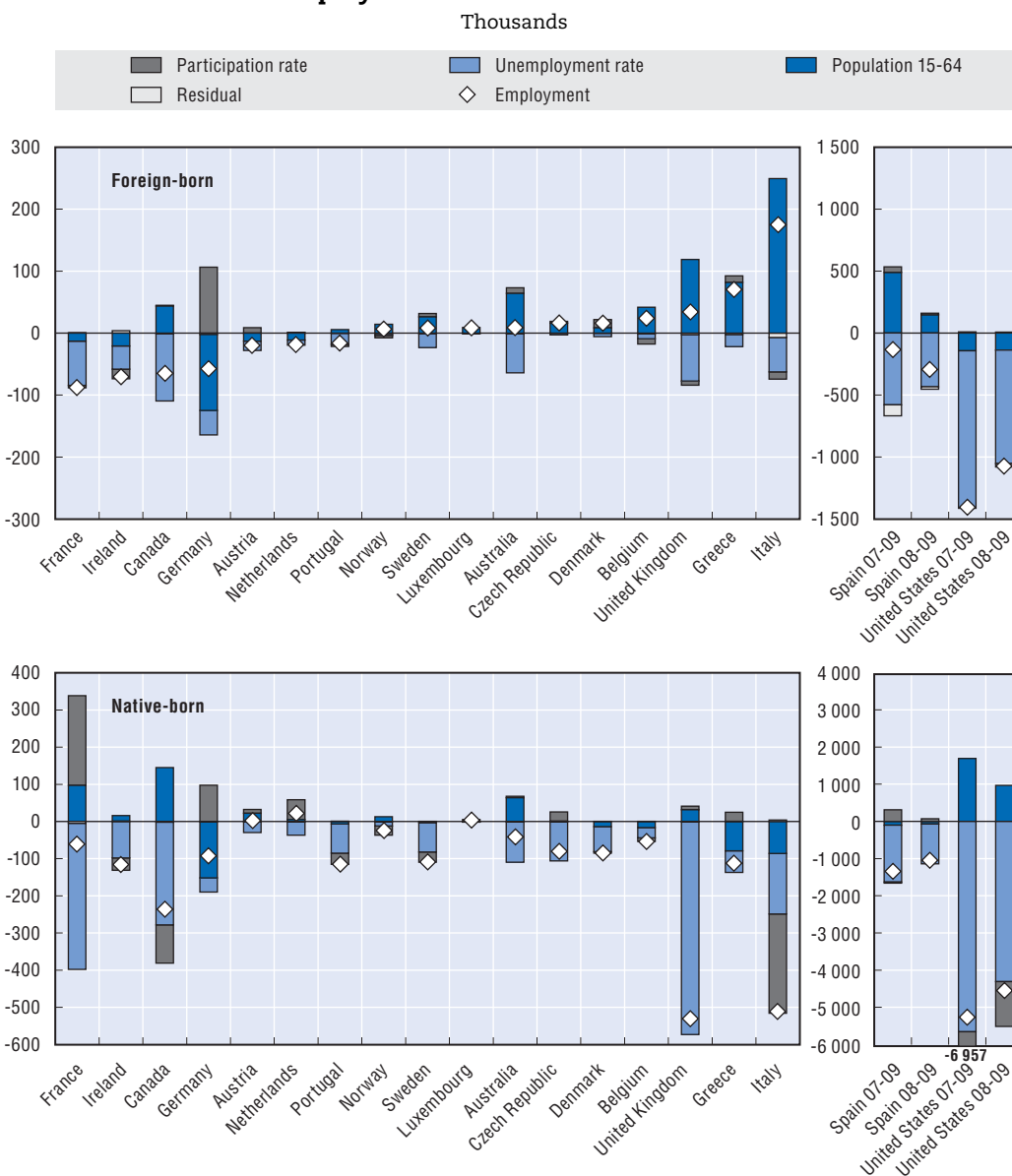
The relative importance of changes in the working-age population, participation rate and unemployment rate with regard to changes in total employment can be identified through a shift-share analysis defined as follows:

$$\Delta E = \underbrace{P(1-u)\Delta x}_{\text{Participation rate effect}} + \underbrace{x(1-u)\Delta P}_{\text{Population effect}} + \underbrace{Px\Delta(1-u)}_{\text{Unemployment rate effect}} + \underbrace{P\Delta x\Delta(1-u) + x\Delta P\Delta(1-u) + (1-u)\Delta P\Delta x + \Delta P\Delta x\Delta(1-u)}_{\text{Residual term}}$$


E = Employment
 P = Population 15-64
 x = Participation rate
 u = Unemployment rate

Figure II.4 presents the results of this decomposition for both native-born and foreign-born between 2008 and 2009, as well as between 2007 and 2009 in the cases of Spain and the United States, where the crisis started earlier. As mentioned, native-born employment decreased in almost all OECD countries, Poland and the Netherlands being notable exceptions.

Figure II.4. **Contribution of various factors to foreign- and native-born employment between 2008 and 2009**



Note: Data for EU countries refer to changes between Q1-3 2008 and Q1-3 2009. Data for the United States refer to changes between 2007 and 2009 (US 07-09) and between 2008 and 2009 (US 08-09). Data for Australia and Canada refer to changes between 2008 and 2009.

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This is not the case for foreign-born employment. In Italy, for example, migrant employment increased by 175 000 while it increased by 70 000 in Greece. Inversely, the most important decreases in migrant employment were recorded in the United States (-1.4 million between 2007 and 2009), followed by Spain (-295 000 between 2008 and 2009) and France (-88 000 between the first three quarter of 2008 and 2009).

Countries where increases in migrant employment are observed are also those where the stock of foreign-born aged 15 to 64 has increased the most between 2008 and 2009. According to labour force survey data, this is the case in Italy (+380 000) and to a lesser

extent in Spain (+265 000), the United Kingdom (+175 000) or Greece (+120 000).⁴ In this list, Spain is the only country where the rise in unemployment more than offset the increase in migrant stock. Several other OECD countries experienced a reduction in their working-age migrant population and negative net migration. This is the case for example of the United States, Germany, Ireland, France, Austria, and the Netherlands. In about half of the countries included in Figure II.4, the native-born population aged 15 to 64 declined as part of demographic ageing. In these countries, demographic trends exacerbate the decline in total employment.

Interestingly, it should be noted that in all countries, except for Australia, Canada, the United Kingdom and Germany, the native-born and foreign-born working-age populations follow opposite trends. This implies that differences in population dynamics are crucial to analysing changes in employment by place of birth.

Turning now to participation rates, it appears that migrants and non-migrants have responded differently to the worsening of labour market conditions in a number of countries. This is the case, for example, in France or in the United Kingdom, where the “*added-worker effect*”⁵ is observed, but only for the native-born. Inversely, a large increase in migrant participation in the labour market is observed in Denmark (+4.5% points) and to a smaller extent in Germany (+1.5% point) and Austria (+1% point). In addition, the so-called “*discouraged-worker effect*”⁶ is rarely identifiable for migrants except in Ireland where the participation rate decreased by 3 percentage points (that is, twice the decrease for the native-born).

In all countries, for both groups, unemployment is increasing and in most cases plays a leading role in explaining the decline in total employment. This is clear in Spain and Ireland where unemployment has increased the most, but similar findings also appear for France, Canada, Germany, Austria and the Netherlands.

To sum-up, the experience of previous crises has demonstrated that migrant employment usually plays an important buffering role during economic downturn. This is also the case in the current context, although significant differences are recorded across countries, which reflect both those observed more generally in the labour market impact of the crisis and differences in the resilience of labour migration flows.

2. How were different migrant groups affected by the worsening of labour market conditions?

Overall trends in labour market outcomes of immigrants hide important differences by immigrant group. Looking first at gender differences, it appears that women have been less affected by the crisis than men. As a result of the economic crisis employment losses were disproportionately large for men, notably because they are overrepresented in the sectors which have been affected the most (construction, manufacturing, finance). In previous crises the labour market impact was similar for men and women. Annex II.A1 presents quarterly figures for employment and unemployment rates disaggregated by gender for most OECD countries in 2008 and 2009. On the basis of these data, it appears that the unemployment rate of foreign-born women has increased in most countries except those where the crisis had little impact on overall unemployment (*e.g.* Germany and Norway). The increase was also fairly small in Austria, Denmark, Italy and Luxembourg. In other countries, the unemployment of migrant women increased, but generally at the same rate as that of native-born women.

It is in Spain that the unemployment rate of foreign-born women has risen the most (+7.7 percentage points between the first three quarter of 2008 and 2009), but even there, it was only about half the increase recorded for migrant men (+14.4 percentage points). In all countries but two (Belgium and Hungary), the unemployment rate of foreign-born women increased less than that of their male counterparts.

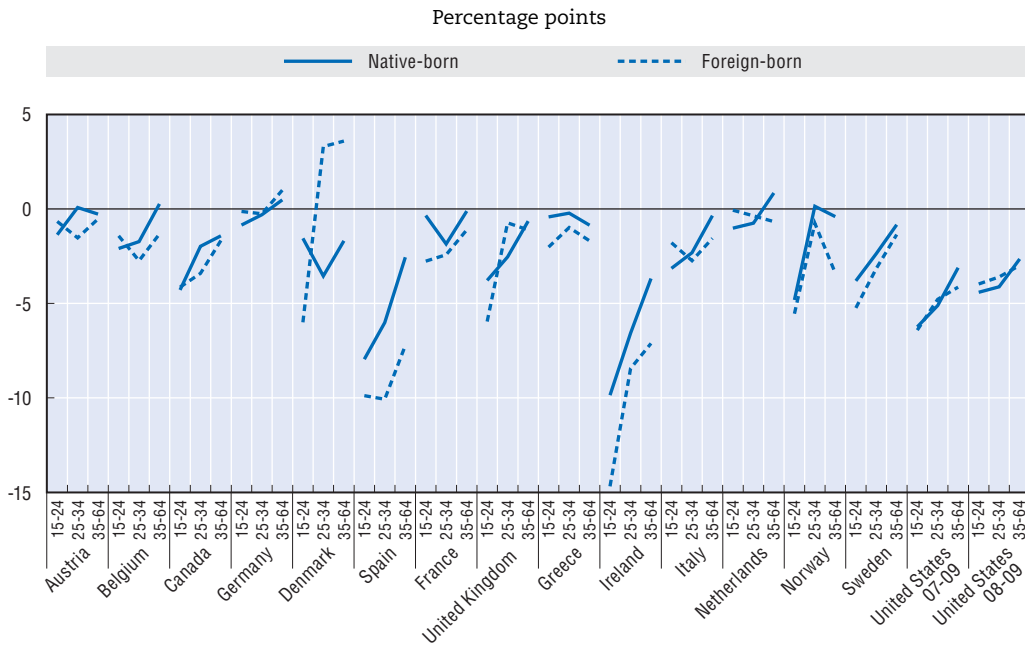
Although migrant women also experienced difficult conditions in the labour market it would appear that most of the increase in the gap between native-born and foreign-born unemployment is observed among foreign-born men. Factors explaining this situation can be found in the distribution of employment among migrant women by industry. As described below in more detail, sectors related to social and household services still experienced positive employment growth during the crisis in many countries. These are clearly the sectors where migrant women make up a high share of the workforce.

In addition, in several countries the participation rate of migrant women in the labour market has increased recently, probably to compensate for income losses of male members of their families. Between the first three quarter of 2008 and 2009 the participation rate of migrant women increased 0.8 percentage point on average in the EU15, 0.6 percentage point in the United States and 0.9 percentage point in Canada.⁷ These are small increases but in countries where unemployment did not rise significantly, it was sufficient to produce a positive effect on the employment rate of migrant women. This was the case for example in Austria, Denmark and Germany. Whether this effect will remain or not after the crisis is uncertain but it is nevertheless a noteworthy finding.


Youth are one of the most vulnerable groups during economic downturns. According to OECD (2010a), during past recessions, youth have shown cyclical sensitivities 80% greater than for total employment. On average in the OECD between the second quarter 2008 and 2009 the employment rate of people aged 15 to 24 fell by 7 percentage points. This is obviously a matter of major concern because in many countries the unemployment rate of youth was already high prior to the crisis but also because of the risk of a scarring effect. Numerous studies indeed suggest that young people may still face persisting difficulties in entering employment well beyond the crisis, notably as they compete with younger cohorts entering the labour market.

This risk also exists for young migrants. During the recovery, with an abundance of candidates for jobs, employers may increasingly use characteristics such as language proficiency or the country where the diploma was obtained to screen out candidates. Except in countries with particularly low initial levels of youth employment, such as Greece, Belgium and France, in all countries where the labour market has been seriously hit by the crisis, the employment rate of the native-born decreased with age (Figure II.5). Comparison with the foreign-born is striking. In Ireland for example, the employment rate of young immigrants aged 15 to 24 dropped by 15 percentage points, almost twice the figure for the native-born. The difference is smaller in other countries but young immigrants still face tougher conditions in the labour market than their native counterparts. This applies, for example, to Denmark, Spain or the United Kingdom. The situation is more balanced in the United States, Canada, Austria, Germany, the Netherlands and Norway.

As of 2009, the unemployment rate of the young foreign-born reached 15.3% in the United States, 20.2% in Canada and 24.1% on average in the EU15, with record highs in Spain and Sweden of 40.8% and 35.7% respectively.⁸ Addressing this problem, including

Figure II.5. **Change in employment rates by place of birth and by age in selected OECD countries, 2008-2009**

Sources: European Labour Force Surveys (Eurostat), Q1-Q3 2008 and Q1-Q3 2009; Canada: Labour Force Surveys; United States: Current Population Surveys.

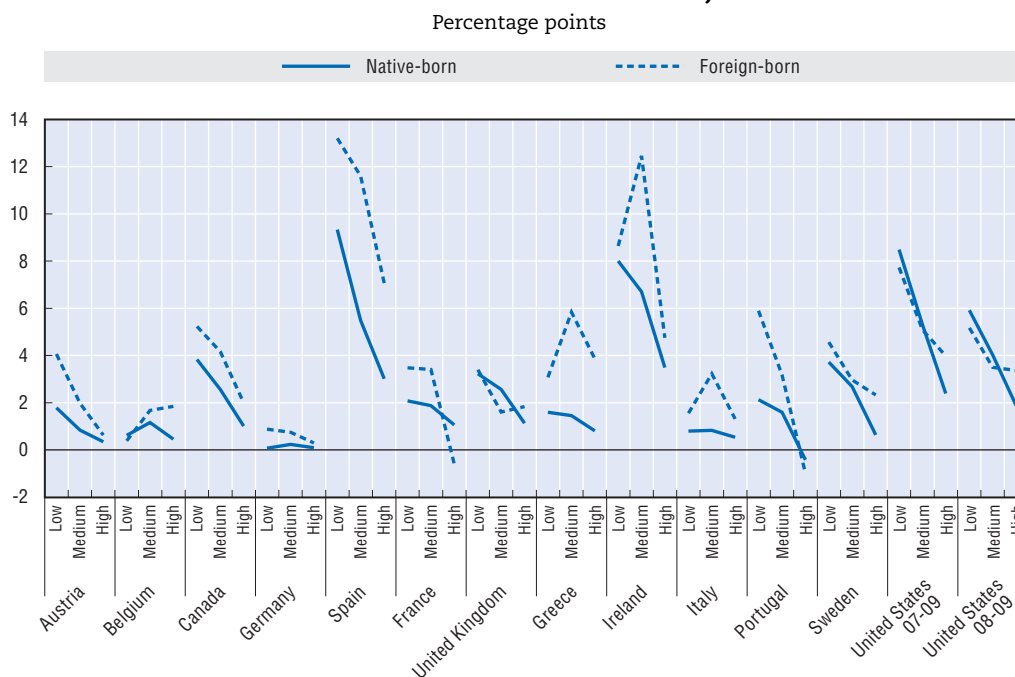
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through specific measures, should be a priority in order to avoid negative long-lasting impacts on the labour market integration of this cohort, which could lead to both stigmatisation and social unrest.


One of the reasons why young immigrants are relatively more exposed to unemployment is that they are less qualified than their native counterparts.⁹ During this recession, employment losses were particularly large in some specific sectors not only because of the collapse of the housing bubble but also because of the large impact of the decline in world trade. In this context, construction, manufacturing, as well as mining and quarrying were particularly hard hit. As a result, medium-skilled workers suffered unusually high job losses, at least compared with high-skilled workers. This phenomenon is illustrated by the “^” or “\” shape of the changes in unemployment rate of the native-born by education level observed in many countries, notably in Europe (see Figure II.6). This is not the case in Canada and the United States, nor in Spain and Austria.

The pattern observed for the foreign-born is similar to that for the native-born but in most cases is accentuated. In Spain for instance, the unemployment of low-skilled immigrants has increased by more than 13 percentage points. In Ireland, a similar rise is observed but for medium-skilled workers. Even in countries such as Austria or Italy, where overall migrant unemployment has not increased so markedly, we observe important variation by skill levels. Interestingly, in some countries and notably in the United States and the United Kingdom, high-skilled migrants seem to have been disproportionately affected compared with their native-born counterparts. A similar finding applies to Belgium and Luxembourg. This is probably the result of the specific impact of the crisis on the financial sector, where a significant number of high-skilled migrants in these countries was employed prior to the 2007/2008 crisis.

Figure II.6. **Change in unemployment rates by place of birth and by level of education in selected OECD countries, 2008-2009**



Sources: European Labour Force Surveys (Eurostat), Q1-Q3 2008 and Q1-Q3 2009; Canada: Labour Force Surveys; United States: Current Population Surveys.

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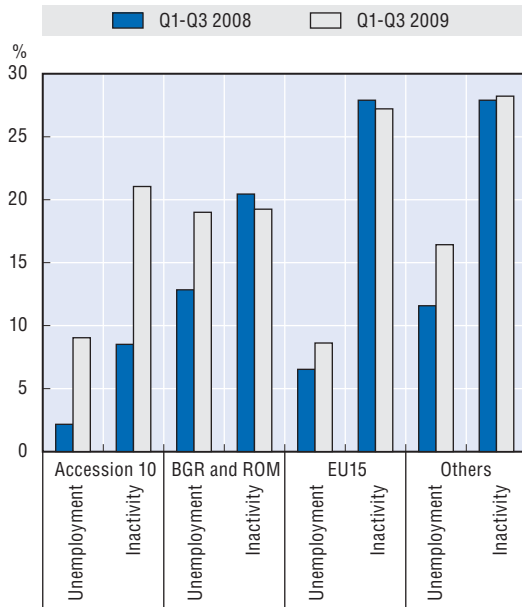
Different migrant groups may be affected differently by the crisis, for a number of reasons. These relate *inter alia* to the average duration of stay in the country, the concentration of employment in specific industries, difference in the scope and the selectivity of return migration, as well as the socio-demographic characteristics of the migrants.

Not surprisingly, migrant groups which have had more difficulties in integrating into the labour market are generally more exposed to the weakening of labour demand. This is the case for example of Mexican-born migrants in the United States, Bangladeshis and Pakistanis in the United Kingdom or North Africans in Spain, Belgium, France or the Netherlands. In the United Kingdom for example, the unemployment rate of people born in Pakistan went-up from 7.4% in the second quarter of 2007 to 17.3% in the third quarter of 2009, while the total foreign-born unemployment rate only increased from 7.7% to 9.8%. In the United States, the unemployment rate of the Mexican-born has almost tripled since the third quarter of 2007 to reach 11.7% at the end of 2009. Unemployment of Filipino workers in the United States, although significantly lower, also rose strongly from 2.5% to 7.7% over the same period. In the meantime the unemployment rate of migrants from other Latin American countries doubled, following the trend for the native-born.

Figure II.7 looks at the evolution of unemployment rates by main region of origin in the EU15 as well as in Spain, the United Kingdom and the United States. In the case of the EU (Figure II.7a) it appears clearly that the bulk of the adjustment fell on migrants from the first 10 accession countries with both a large increase in unemployment and a more than 10-percentage point decrease in the participation rate.

Figure II.7. **Change in unemployment rates in selected OECD countries by main region of origin, 2007-2009**

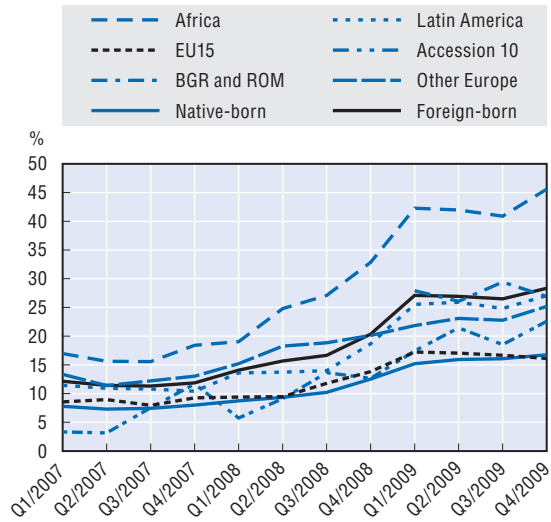
Figure II.7a. **Unemployment and inactivity rates of foreign-born in EU15 by main regions of origin, 2008-2009**



Source: European Labour Force Survey data (Eurostat), Q1-Q3 2008 and Q1-Q3 2009.

StatLink <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/882766480040>

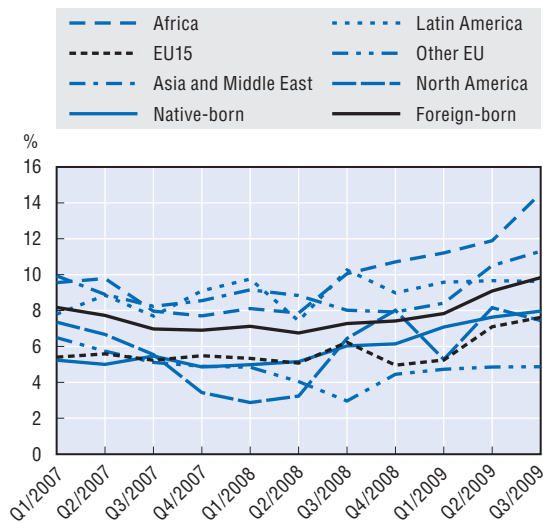
Figure II.7b. **Unemployment rates in Spain by region of origin, 2007-2009**



Source: Spanish Labour Force Surveys (EPA), National Institute of Statistics.

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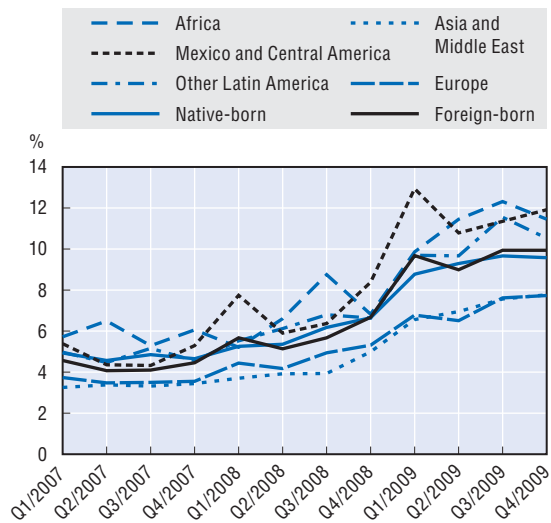
Figure II.7c. **Unemployment rates in the United Kingdom by region of origin, 2007-2009**



Source: Quarterly UK Labour Force Surveys, ONS.

StatLink <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/882788888045>

Figure II.7d. **Unemployment rates in the United States by region of origin, 2007-2009**



Source: Monthly Current Population Surveys (CPS) data.

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However, the number of migrants from A10 countries in EU15 countries not only did not decrease but actually increased between 2008 and 2009. So did the stock of migrants from the two new EU member countries, Bulgaria and Romania. Migrants from these countries also experienced a sharp rise in their unemployment rate, which reached 19.2% in the third quarter of 2009. In almost all EU15 countries, Bulgarians and Romanians have a higher unemployment rate than migrants from A10 countries.

Turning now to the United Kingdom specifically (Figure II.7c), the change in the unemployment rate of migrants from new EU member states looks as steep as in the EU15. One might think that this is due to selective out-migration, which probably did occur, but according to LFS data, the total stock of migrants originating from A10 countries did not decline and that of Bulgarians and Romanians increased by 25 000 between the first three quarters of 2008 and 2009. The unemployment rate of Asian-born migrants increased more rapidly. This was also the case for persons born in Africa.

As a general observation, African-born migrants seem to be amongst the most vulnerable group in the labour market during this recession. Their unemployment rates rose, for example, to 12% in the United States as high as 45% in Spain (Figures II.7b and II.7d).

3. What are the main determinants of the recent labour market outcomes of immigrants?

The main reasons why labour market outcomes of migrants might be more sensitive to changes in the business cycle than those of natives are the following (OECD, 2009a): i) they tend to be overrepresented in sectors which are more sensitive to economic fluctuations; ii) they have on average less secure contractual arrangements and are more often in temporary jobs which are the first to be cut during an economic downturn; iii) they have on average less tenure in the job; and iv) they may be subject to selective lay-offs. This section looks at these arguments in the light of updated and more detailed labour force data.

The current crisis has been characterised by a large negative impact on the construction and financial sectors. Manufacturing industries, particularly durable goods manufacturing, have also suffered many job losses as a result of the collapse in world trade. Other sectors such as wholesale and retail trade are typically hard hit during recessions, and this one was no exception in this regard.

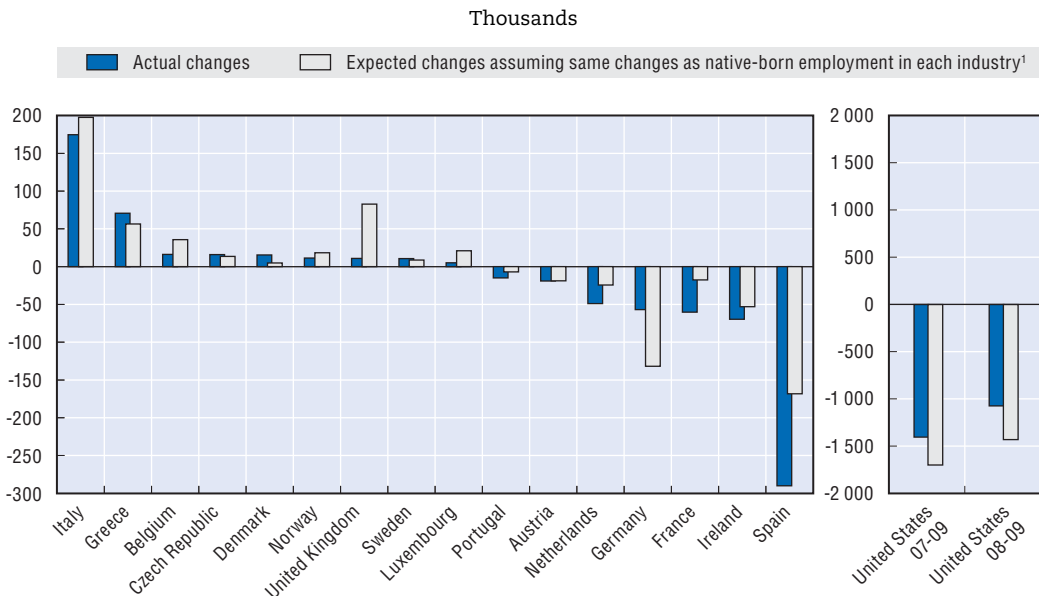
Annex II.2 identifies the 10 industries where native-born and foreign-born employment changed the most in Europe (2008-2009) and the United States (2007-2009). In both alike, the most severe job losses were recorded in the construction sector, with declines in employment of respectively 1.1 million and 2.2 million. Immigrants account for about a fourth of these in Europe and just over a third in the United States.¹⁰ The financial sector was also hard hit. In the United States, more than 370 000 jobs were lost in this sector between 2007 and 2009, including 144 000 among immigrants.¹¹ The figures for Europe are similar (363 000 job losses including 114 000 immigrants^{12, 13}), but mainly reflect what happened in the United Kingdom. Finally, it is important to mention the automobile industry which has been severely affected by this economic downturn despite government measures to encourage car purchases (Haugh et al., 2010). In total about 250 000 jobs were lost in the motor-vehicle industry in Europe, including 30 000 among immigrants, while in the United States, the transportation equipment manufacturing industry alone lost 386 000 jobs between 2008 and 2009, including 53 000 held by immigrants.¹⁴

Not all industries have reduced their activity in the last two years and employment indeed increased in many sectors. This is the case especially in social services. In the United States employment in *Education services* increased by 2% (+236 000) in the last two years, whereas it increased by 5% (320 000) in Europe between 2008 and 2009. The reverse is true for the health sector as employment growth reached 5% in the United States (700 000 additional jobs¹⁵) and 3% in Europe (+229 000). Immigrants represent a sizeable share of the workforce in these two sectors and benefitted from the positive dynamic of employment, particularly in education. In Europe, however, it is in *Residential care activities* that immigrant employment increased the most (+110 000 between 2008 and 2009). The highest increases were recorded in the United Kingdom, Germany and to a lesser extent Spain. Immigrant employment also increased markedly in *Domestic services* in Italy (+46 000) and in *Food and beverage services* in several European countries.

The relative vulnerability of migrant employment during economic downturns has been shown to be related to the concentration of migrant workers in sectors with more volatile employment (OECD, 2009a). The evidence presented compared the distribution of native and recent immigrant employment by the sensitivity of sectors to the business cycle in 2007. Here we estimate the share of the observed variation in foreign-born employment which can be related to the initial distribution of immigrant employment by industry.

The growth rate of employment by industry observed for the native-born between 2008 and 2009 is applied to immigrant employment by industry at the beginning of the period and the difference adjusted to take into account the difference in the growth rate of the working-age population between the two groups. The detailed results of the calculations are presented in Figure II.8.

Figure II.8. **Actual and expected changes in employment of immigrants in selected OECD countries between 2008 and 2009**



1. Applying the growth rate of native-born employment by industry to the employment of immigrants. This expected rate is adjusted to take into account the negative growth rate of the native-born working-age population and the positive growth rate of the immigrant working-age population.

Sources: European Labour Force Surveys (Eurostat), Q1-Q3 2008 and Q1-Q3 2009 for the European countries; United States: Current Population Surveys.

Three groups of countries can be identified. The first group, which includes Austria, Czech Republic and Sweden, is characterised by the fact that the change in migrant employment is fully explained by its initial distribution by industry.

The second group consists of two very different countries, namely Germany and the United States. For these countries, once growth in the native-born and foreign-born working-age populations is taken into account, one finds that migrant employment should have declined more rapidly than it actually did if it had followed the same evolution as observed for native-born workers in each sector. In the case of Germany, migrant employment increased more than expected in some specific sectors such as education and residential care activities in response to population and workforce ageing, and the overall impact of the crisis on employment remained limited. In the United States, the observed result is entirely due to the adjustment for the evolution of the native-born (increasing) and foreign-born (decreasing) working-age populations.¹⁶ It is also true, however, that the above-mentioned over-exposure of migrant workers in some sectors hard hit by the economic crisis has been partially offset by above-average employment growth in other sectors, such as food manufacturing, social services or public administration.

The last group of countries includes Spain, France, Belgium, the United Kingdom, the Netherlands and to a lesser extent Ireland. In all these countries, immigrant employment should have decreased significantly less (or should have increased more in Belgium and the United Kingdom) than it actually did, if it had followed the same trend as native-born employment in each sector. All else being equal, the initial distribution of foreign-born employment by sector explains about 60% of the drop in foreign-born employment in Spain, 75% in Ireland, 80% in Sweden, 50% in the Netherlands but only 30% in France.

For the countries included in the third group, other factors should be taken into account to explain the over-representation of immigrants in job losses. In countries where migration is relatively recent, or has increased recently, immigrants have on average a shorter tenure in the job. As of 2008, in Ireland and Spain between one fourth and one third of migrant workers had been recruited in the previous 12 months compared with less than 15% for the native-born (see Table II.2). Large differences in this regard are also recorded for Finland and to a lesser extent for Austria, Belgium, Portugal and the United Kingdom. In any case, for all countries for which data are available, immigrants tend to have a shorter tenure in jobs, which contributed to increase the likelihood of them being displaced during the economic downturn.

Another possible explanation is linked to the fact that immigrants are more likely than their native-born counterparts to be on temporary contracts. The difference in the risk of job loss between temporary and permanent workers is large, especially since employers often start to adjust their labour demand by not renewing temporary contracts during the initial phase of the recession. The opposite phenomenon can also be identified during the recovery phase. Based on data from past recessions, OECD (2010a) calculates that temporary workers show twice the cyclical sensitivity of total employment. Table II.2 shows that in most OECD countries immigrants are overrepresented in temporary jobs. This is notably the case in Belgium, the Czech Republic, Greece, Norway, Portugal, Spain and the United Kingdom, where prior to the crisis in 2008, the share of immigrants in temporary employment exceeded that of the native-born by at least 50%. In Spain in 2008, almost 48% of all migrant workers were on temporary contracts. Not surprisingly, migrant employment has adjusted very rapidly.

As mentioned in the first section, changes in working time are another way to adjust labour inputs to deal with less favourable economic conditions. Firms may indeed choose to keep workers but to reduce hours worked, to avoid recruitment costs during the recovery phase as well as the loss of specific human and social capital. There is numerous evidence that *labour hoarding* is occurring, notably for high-skilled workers, small firms and in high-tech sectors (OECD, 2010a). Generally, this type of adjustment essentially applies to permanent workers. The fact that immigrants are less likely to have permanent contracts therefore implies that, everything else being equal, they are also less likely to stay attached to the firm and keep their jobs through labour hoarding.

Table II.2. **Share of different types of employment in total employment by place of birth (15-64 years old), 2008**

Percentages

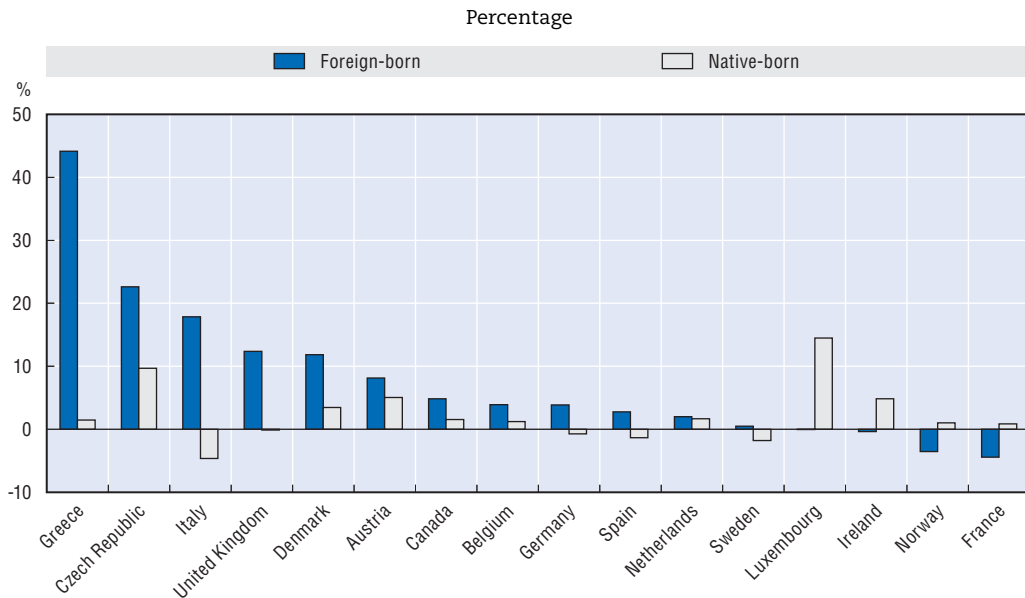
	Temporary employment		Recent employment (tenure < 12 months)	
	Native-born	Foreign-born	Native-born	Foreign-born
Austria	9.0	9.4	12.9	20.4
Belgium	7.6	13.5	11.0	17.2
Canada	12.4	10.8
Czech Republic	7.1	14.3	9.4	12.9
Germany	14.4	16.2	13.1	17.8
Denmark	8.2	10.3	22.3	28.6
Spain	25.7	47.7	15.4	34.1
Finland	15.3	19.7	17.6	28.4
France	14.1	15.7	11.7	14.1
United Kingdom	4.8	8.2	15.8	22.3
Greece	10.6	16.5	7.8	12.7
Hungary	7.7	9.1	12.2	12.8
Ireland	7.9	10.5	14.2	27.3
Italy	13.2	15.8	10.5	16.3
Luxembourg	7.1	5.5	7.8	9.7
Netherlands	16.9	25.2	9.0	11.7
Norway	8.8	13.2	17.7	22.2
Portugal	21.6	36.3	11.5	18.9
Sweden	15.5	21.2	16.2	19.4

Sources: European Labour Force Surveys, Q1-Q3 2008; Canada: Labour Force Surveys.


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Reductions in working time can also occur because more people who want to work full-time had to accept part-time jobs. Figure II.9 illustrates the change in part-time employment for the foreign-born and the total labour force between 2008 and 2009. It appears that in countries where immigrant employment has increased, notably Greece, Italy and the United Kingdom, part-time employment of migrants has increased markedly and more than for the native-born. In other countries, where immigrant employment has decreased, part-time employment of foreign-born workers may have nonetheless increased. This is the case, for instance, in Austria, Canada, Germany and Spain. In these countries, migrant workers have played a buffering role in the labour market, both through the reduction of total employment and through the rise of part-time employment.

Figure II.9. **Growth in part-time employment by place of birth in selected OECD countries, 2008-2009**



Sources: European Labour Force Surveys, Q1-Q3 2008 and Q1-Q3 2009; Canada: Labour Force Surveys.

StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/88288532815>

4. Helping immigrants through the crisis and beyond

Observed changes up to the fourth quarter of 2009 in migrant employment and unemployment, both in absolute terms and relative to the native-born, confirm that in many OECD countries, immigrants are among those at the forefront of the worsening of labour market conditions. The scope of the impact varies greatly, however, from one country to another partly because of differences in the overall impact of the economic crisis on the labour market but in all OECD countries, the number of unemployed immigrants increased. The integration period for immigrants is often long and the current downturn contributes to turning back the clock.

Averages also tend to hide important differences between migrant groups. The previous analysis reveals for instance that migrant men had to bear most of the increase in the gap between native-born and foreign-born unemployment. It also shows that young immigrants, like youth in general, are particularly hard hit by the current economic crisis. The latter calls for immediate action in order to avoid long-lasting integration problems with the economic and social consequences that might go with it.

While OECD countries have been very reactive to respond to the job crisis, applying a broad range of labour market policy instruments, few envisaged new programmes to help immigrants through the crisis. Japan is a noticeable exception as it has adopted specific measures to help to reintegrate unemployed foreigners back into employment (see Box II.1). At the same time, however, despite increasing constraints on public finance, few countries have reduced their funding on integration programmes.

Most countries have relied on existing measures to foster the labour market integration of immigrants and their children and/or on the general measures they have adopted in the context of the crisis. Unfortunately, very little information is currently available regarding the participation of migrants in specific or general job programmes.

Box II.1. Impact of the economic crisis on immigrant workers in Japan and policy responses

Foreign workers in Japan are especially vulnerable in times of economic downturn. Industry sectors such as manufacturing and construction, in which many foreign workers are employed, were hit hard. From November 2008 to January 2009, 9 300 new foreign job seekers at Hello Work offices in regions with a high density of foreign residents (about 11 times higher than the same period in the previous year). From January 2009 to March 2009 this number peaked at about 14 800. The most recent figure available, from October to December 2009, is close to 3 200.

Several measures were taken by the Ministry of Health, Labor and Welfare (MHLW) to reintegrate foreigners who had lost their jobs back into the labor market. The counselling and assistance capacity at Public Employment Security offices (“Hello Work”) were significantly reinforced, especially in areas with a high density of foreigners with Japanese ancestry. The number of Hello Work offices with interpreters was almost doubled, to 126, and 31 one-stop service centers in cooperation with regional municipalities were newly established. Full-time consultants at such offices were increased from 11 to 197 persons, and weekly hours of consultations sextupled from the fiscal year 2008 to the fiscal year 2009.

As the re-employment of foreign workers is exacerbated by insufficient language abilities and limited knowledge about the functioning of the Japanese labour market, vocational up-skilling and language training are offered to job-seeking foreigners with Japanese ancestry (with an annual target of 5 000 persons and a budget of JPY 1.08 billion). These courses are provided for about 3 months and include training in Japanese communication skills and basic knowledge on labour legislation, employment practices and the Japanese insurance system, and also give guidance on the job application procedure. After completion, job-seekers are transferred to advanced training and further support by employment promotion navigators until the realisation of secured employment. These jobseekers receive unemployment benefits (90 days) throughout the duration of the training.

One example comes from Norway, where between November 2008 and 2009 the total number of participants in ordinary labour market schemes went up from 13 000 to almost 22 000. Out of this total the share of immigrants declined slightly from 40.5% to 37.5%.

To what extent are current measures well-suited to reach immigrants, as these constitute one of the most vulnerable groups in the economic downturn. Immigrants may *de facto* be excluded from certain measures where eligibility is explicitly or implicitly linked to the duration of stay in the country or to administrative status. This may apply for example to public sector job schemes, to the extent that not all residents with a foreign nationality may be eligible. Similarly, training programmes which require a minimum tenure in the job might implicitly exclude immigrants who arrived only recently. Short-time work schemes have been among the main measures in several countries, but they usually do not apply to temporary workers, among whom immigrants tend to be over-represented. More generally, newly arrived immigrants share many characteristics with young people seeking to enter the labour market (most notably the fact that they lack employment experience specific to the receiving countries), but they might not be eligible for the specific programmes developed in the context of the current crisis for new labour market entrants, either because they are too old or because they are not yet eligible for these programmes. In contrast, however, immigrants tend to benefit disproportionately

from sector-based programmes, for example in construction. In general, there is a need for a better evaluation of the labour market programmes which are put in place to respond to the job crisis with respect to their capacity to reach immigrants.

In addition, countries could consider adapting existing integration programmes to cope with the specific challenges that arise in the context of the economic crisis. With the worsening of labour market conditions, networks tend to play a greater role in the job-seeking process. Immigrants are clearly at a disadvantage. Successful programmes that aim to compensate for the lack of social capital include mentoring programmes and enterprise-based training programmes. These programmes could be scaled-up and generalised in the current economic context.

Facilitating the rapid integration of recently arrived immigrants into the labour market has been identified as one of the key determinants for their long-term integration. This is even more important during a recession in order to avoid so-called “scarring effects”, that is, immigrants who have not managed to get employed quickly after arrival may be stigmatised in the labour market. Linking language acquisition with work experience or offering a gradual introduction into the labour market via training on-the-job, subsidised employment, and finally regular employment are among the most successful programmes. At a time when employment opportunities are scarce, putting more emphasis on professional training, language training and the assessment of foreign qualifications and work experience – all linked with bridging programmes – will enhance the employability of migrants during the upswing.

Last but not least it is important to underline the need for maintaining the monitoring of labour market outcomes of immigrants through the crisis and during the recovery. It is also important to reinforce prevention and sanctions against discrimination during the crisis and beyond, because the risk of ethnic stereotyping or exclusion tends to be greater in a downturn, with a potential negative impact on the long-term integration of immigrants.

Notes

1. The annual growth of employment by place of birth has been calculated using quarterly labour force survey data between 2000 and 2009 for EU15 countries, excluding Germany, Italy and Ireland.
2. For the United States, using annual employment data between 1995 and 2009, the standard deviation of foreign-born employment growth is twice that of the native-born.
3. The term “employment rate” is used to refer to the employment-to-population ratio.
4. The interpretation of changes in the foreign-born population should be considered with caution as they may be subject to non-sampling error. Over the period considered, the number of persons for whom the place of birth is unknown is relatively low and stable, except for Germany where it increased by about 100 000 (half of the observed decline in the foreign-born working-age population).
5. This is the tendency for workers to try to enter the labour market to attempt to compensate for the income losses of other family members.
6. This is the tendency for workers to withdraw from the Labour market as they do not believe they will find a job when unemployment is high.
7. During the same period the participation rate of immigrant men remained stable in the EU15, but decreased by almost one percentage point both in the United States and in Canada.
8. Figures for young men are 1 to 2 percentage points higher.

9. In the EU15 for example, 34.3% of young native-born aged 15 to 24 are low-skilled compared with 46.5% for the foreign-born.
10. Immigrants represented 14.4% of employment in the construction sector in Europe in 2008 and 24.7% in the United States in 2007.
11. This sector represented 38.6% of all job losses but only 14.1% of total employment in this sector in 2007.
12. For Europe, the losses are the sum of those in *Financial service activities (except insurance and pension funding)* and in *Legal and accounting activities*.
13. Immigrants accounted for 18% of all job losses between 2008 and 2009 but represented only 7% of total employment in this sector at the beginning of the period.
14. Immigrants accounted for 13.8% of all job losses in the United States in this sector between 2008 and 2009 but represented 13.3% of total employment in this sector at the beginning of the period. For Europe, the figures are also of the same order of magnitude around, 12 to 13%.
15. The health sector includes "Health care services, except hospitals" and "Hospitals".
16. OECD 2009a reached the opposite conclusion for the period between November 2007 and November 2008, but did not control for the differential evolution of the native-born and foreign-born working-age populations. In addition, it appears that the decline in foreign-born employment was particularly steep in the second half of 2008 while native-born employment declined more sharply in 2009.

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ANNEX II.A1

Table II.A1.1. **Quarterly employment and unemployment rates (15-64) by place of birth in selected OECD countries, 2007-2009**

Percentages

MEN AND WOMEN																								
	AUS	AUT	BEL	CAN	CZE	DEU	DNK	ESP	FIN	FRA	GBR	GRC	HUN	IRL	ITA	LUX	NLD	NOR	PRT	SVK	SWE	USA		
<i>Employment rate</i>																								
Native-born	2007 Q1	74.2	71.7	63.2		65.6		78.4	64.3	68.6	64.6	71.9	60.4	56.8		57.4	58.9	76.8	76.4	67.1	60.1	74.7	71.6	
	2007 Q2	74.9	72.8	63.0		66.0		78.9	65.1	71.5	65.4	71.9	61.1	57.5		58.3	58.1	77.8	77.4	67.2	60.3	76.3	71.9	
	2007 Q3	75.0	73.8	63.7		66.2		78.8	65.2	71.9	66.1	72.3	61.2	57.5		58.4	59.6	78.2	77.8	67.6	60.7	77.8	71.8	
	2007 Q4	75.1	72.7	64.2		66.5		79.0	64.9	70.1	65.8	72.6	60.9	57.0		58.1	60.2	78.0	78.1	67.5	61.5	76.0	71.7	
	2007	74.8	72.7	63.5		66.1		78.8	64.9	70.5	65.5	72.2	60.9	57.2		58.0	59.2	77.7	77.4	67.3	60.7	76.2	71.8	
	2008 Q1	74.8	72.6	64.1	73.1	66.1	71.6	78.5	64.5	69.7	65.3	72.2	60.8	56.0	67.6	57.8	58.6	78.0	78.0	67.7	61.3	75.4	70.9	
	2008 Q2	75.1	73.5	63.2	75.1	66.6	71.9	79.5	64.5	72.6	65.7	72.2	61.7	56.3	67.3	58.7	58.9	78.7	78.9	68.1	61.6	76.8	71.4	
	2008 Q3	75.0	74.4	64.0	75.5	66.7	72.9	79.7	64.2	72.4	66.1	72.2	61.6	57.1	67.6	58.2	60.4	78.9	79.0	67.6	63.1	77.7	71.0	
	2008 Q4	74.8	73.7	63.7	74.0	66.8	73.0	79.4	62.7	70.6	65.5	71.9	61.1	56.5	65.1	57.7	59.7	79.1	77.9	67.3	62.9	75.2	70.1	
	2008	74.9	73.6	63.8	74.4	66.6	72.4	79.3	64.0	71.3	65.7	72.1	61.3	56.5	66.9	58.1	59.4	78.7	78.5	67.7	62.2	76.3	70.8	
	2009 Q1	73.8	72.4	63.2	71.4	65.5	72.0	77.1	60.7	68.6	64.9	71.0	60.5	54.9	62.8	56.8	60.2	78.8	77.4	66.6	61.0	73.8	68.0	
	2009 Q2	74.0	73.1	63.2	72.9	65.4	72.3	77.2	60.3	70.0	65.5	70.3	61.0	55.4	62.1	57.3	63.3	78.7	77.8	66.3	60.4	74.9	68.0	
	2009 Q3	..	73.8	63.1	73.1	65.2	72.5	76.8	60.1	69.5	65.4	70.4	61.0	55.3	61.9	56.9	62.9	78.6	76.8	65.4	60.1	74.9	67.5	
	2009 Q4	..	73.0	63.4	71.9	65.3	73.2	75.2	59.5	67.5	64.6	70.4	60.2	55.3	60.5	56.5	61.0	78.1	76.4	65.5	59.2	73.3	66.6	
	2009	..	73.1	63.2	72.3	65.4	72.5	76.6	60.1	68.9	65.1	70.5	60.7	55.2	61.8	56.9	61.9	78.6	77.1	66.0	60.2	74.2	67.5	
	Foreign-born	2007 Q1	67.0	63.7	51.8		63.0		61.7	69.4	60.5	57.6	65.9	65.2	64.6		63.9	70.7	63.0	68.5	70.8	66.5	61.6	71.2
		2007 Q2	67.4	65.3	51.1		67.0		63.7	69.8	64.8	58.5	66.6	65.9	63.9		66.1	71.7	64.0	69.6	72.3	66.8	63.2	71.8
2007 Q3		67.8	66.3	49.9		69.9		62.5	70.0	66.5	58.0	67.5	68.2	66.0		67.2	71.8	65.0	71.4	74.4	65.1	64.2	72.8	
2007 Q4		68.7	64.8	50.5		69.0		63.1	68.8	63.2	58.5	67.3	67.1	63.6		66.4	70.2	65.8	72.1	74.7	65.9	63.5	71.8	
2007		67.7	65.0	50.8		67.3		62.7	69.5	63.8	58.2	66.8	66.6	64.5		65.9	71.1	64.5	70.4	73.1	66.1	63.1	71.9	
2008 Q1		68.7	63.3	52.9	70.4	65.2	61.8	62.6	68.0	66.8	59.2	67.9	66.5	63.8	72.4	63.7	68.5	66.0	72.5	73.0	68.2	62.7	71.0	
2008 Q2		68.6	66.5	54.6	71.0	66.8	62.2	68.8	67.0	66.7	60.4	67.6	67.7	64.3	71.3	64.3	71.9	67.4	73.2	74.7	67.5	64.3	71.7	
2008 Q3		68.6	65.5	53.9	70.8	66.4	63.8	68.8	66.0	66.4	59.9	67.4	68.4	65.1	70.0	66.6	68.9	68.4	73.6	74.1	70.3	65.3	71.7	
2008 Q4		69.1	65.3	54.7	70.7	67.2	62.7	68.2	63.6	61.9	59.2	67.3	67.4	65.4	67.9	65.5	66.6	68.2	73.3	74.1	66.6	63.9	70.2	
2008		68.7	65.1	54.0	70.7	66.4	62.6	67.1	66.1	65.5	59.7	67.6	67.5	64.7	70.4	65.0	69.0	67.5	73.1	74.0	68.2	64.0	71.2	
2009 Q1		67.8	63.4	53.4	68.3	66.3	63.0	67.7	58.7	64.8	58.5	67.0	65.0	64.8	62.8	62.9	69.6	67.8	70.5	71.0	64.9	62.2	67.8	
2009 Q2		67.0	64.8	51.4	68.4	66.9	63.4	67.0	58.3	64.5	58.4	65.5	66.3	66.0	62.9	63.5	68.6	65.9	71.0	71.3	61.4	61.9	68.8	
2009 Q3		..	65.1	51.4	68.4	65.1	63.7	71.8	58.2	64.1	57.8	66.0	67.1	65.3	61.5	62.6	69.4	66.6	70.5	69.0	56.6	62.8	68.2	
2009 Q4		..	65.5	52.6	68.8	64.9	64.0	65.6	56.8	61.8	57.2	65.6	65.6	65.8	60.7	62.3	69.6	66.0	68.9	68.0	58.1	61.5	67.7	
2009		..	64.7	52.2	68.5	65.8	63.5	68.1	58.0	63.8	58.0	66.0	66.0	65.5	62.0	62.8	69.3	66.6	70.2	69.8	60.3	62.1	68.1	

Table II.A1.1. **Quarterly employment and unemployment rates (15-64) by place of birth in selected OECD countries, 2007-2009 (cont.)**

Percentages

MEN AND WOMEN																								
		AUS	AUT	BEL	CAN	CZE	DEU	DNK	ESP	FIN	FRA	GBR	GRC	HUN	IRL	ITA	LUX	NLD	NOR	PRT	SVK	SWE	USA	
<i>Unemployment rate</i>																								
Native-born	2007 Q1	4.9	3.6	6.8		6.0		4.0	7.8	7.3	7.9	5.2	9.1	7.6		6.2	4.2	3.2	2.4	8.7	11.7	6.0	4.9	
	2007 Q2	4.2	3.5	6.5		5.3		3.4	7.3	7.6	7.0	4.9	8.1	7.1		5.6	3.5	2.8	2.4	8.1	11.2	6.1	4.5	
	2007 Q3	4.0	3.8	6.3		5.1		3.6	7.4	5.9	7.1	5.4	8.1	7.3		5.6	3.8	2.5	2.2	8.3	11.4	4.6	4.8	
	2007 Q4	4.2	3.2	6.1		4.8		2.7	8.0	5.9	6.9	4.8	8.2	7.8		6.5	2.8	2.5	2.0	8.3	10.5	4.6	4.6	
	2007	4.3	3.5	6.5		5.3		3.4	7.6	6.7	7.2	5.1	8.4	7.5		6.0	3.6	2.8	2.2	8.4	11.2	5.3	4.7	
	2008 Q1	4.5	3.4	5.8	6.2	4.7	7.3	2.9	8.7	6.5	6.8	4.9	8.4	8.1	4.4	7.0	2.7	2.5	2.3	7.9	10.5	5.4	5.2	
	2008 Q2	4.3	2.9	5.3	5.9	4.2	7.0	2.8	9.3	7.1	6.4	5.1	7.4	7.7	5.0	6.6	4.7	2.3	2.6	7.6	10.1	6.0	5.3	
	2008 Q3	3.9	3.2	6.6	5.9	4.3	6.4	3.2	10.2	5.3	6.7	6.0	7.3	7.8	6.5	6.0	4.1	2.1	2.2	8.0	9.0	4.7	6.2	
	2008 Q4	4.2	3.2	5.8	5.9	4.4	6.1	3.3	12.5	5.8	7.4	6.1	8.0	8.1	7.2	6.9	3.4	2.2	2.2	8.1	8.7	5.2	6.6	
	2008	4.2	3.2	5.9	6.0	6.0	6.0	6.0	6.0	6.0	6.0	6.0	6.0	6.0	6.0	6.0	6.0	6.0	6.0	6.0	6.0	6.0	6.0	6.0
	2009 Q1	5.7	3.7	6.6	8.1	5.8	7.1	4.9	15.2	7.5	8.2	7.0	9.2	9.7	9.4	7.8	3.9	2.7	2.7	9.0	10.5	6.9	8.8	
	2009 Q2	5.4	3.9	6.3	8.0	6.3	6.9	5.6	16.0	9.4	8.1	7.5	8.7	9.7	11.4	7.0	3.2	2.8	3.0	9.3	11.3	8.0	9.3	
	2009 Q3	..	4.3	6.8	8.1	7.3	7.0	5.9	16.1	7.3	8.4	7.9	9.2	10.4	12.0	7.0	3.5	3.0	3.0	10.1	12.5	7.0	9.7	
	2009 Q4	..	3.8	6.8	7.4	7.3	6.4	6.4	16.7	8.0	9.1	7.5	10.1	10.6	11.9	8.2	2.7	3.3	2.5	10.4	13.9	7.1	9.6	
	2009	..	3.9	6.6	7.9	6.7	6.9	5.7	16.0	8.0	8.4	7.5	9.3	10.1	11.2	7.5	3.3	2.9	2.8	9.7	12.0	7.2	9.3	
	Foreign-born	2007 Q1	5.5	9.9	16.9		10.0		9.8	12.1	18.0	15.0	8.1	10.7	5.0		8.8	5.0	8.6	6.3	10.8	5.4	12.7	4.7
		2007 Q2	5.1	9.3	16.8		9.6		6.8	11.4	13.6	13.5	7.6	9.2	4.5		7.4	4.4	6.5	6.7	11.0	5.9	12.7	4.2
		2007 Q3	4.6	8.5	15.4		8.4		8.2	11.3	13.2	13.8	6.9	7.1	3.6		6.6	4.2	6.0	5.2	8.9	7.8	11.4	4.2
		2007 Q4	4.3	8.4	16.2		8.2		8.1	11.9	12.7	12.8	6.9	7.7	4.3		8.8	4.9	5.5	4.3	8.0	7.9	11.7	4.5
2007		4.9	9.0	16.3		9.1		8.2	11.7	14.4	13.8	7.4	8.7	4.3		7.9	4.6	6.7	5.6	9.7	6.7	12.1	4.4	
2008 Q1		4.6	8.5	15.6	7.1	8.1	13.4	9.3	14.1	12.7	12.5	7.1	8.3	5.2	5.8	9.0	6.2	6.9	5.0	9.5	7.9	12.1	5.7	
2008 Q2		4.6	6.6	13.8	7.1	6.8	12.3	6.5	15.7	13.2	11.2	6.7	7.2	6.0	6.8	8.8	5.4	6.4	4.7	8.6	6.9	12.8	5.2	
2008 Q3		4.7	7.0	15.6	7.5	6.7	11.5	5.4	16.7	12.4	11.6	7.1	6.8	5.6	8.4	7.3	7.2	4.3	5.7	9.8	5.8	11.5	5.7	
2008 Q4		4.6	8.1	13.4	7.1	6.4	12.1	7.4	20.3	13.3	12.1	7.4	8.8	7.4	9.2	8.9	7.7	5.7	5.8	9.9	6.8	12.3	6.7	
2008		4.6	7.5	14.6	7.2	7.0	12.3	7.1	16.7	12.9	11.8	7.1	7.8	6.0	7.6	8.5	6.6	5.8	5.3	9.5	6.9	12.2	5.8	
2009 Q1		6.5	10.0	16.1	9.7	8.5	13.2	9.1	27.1	14.0	14.0	7.9	12.0	9.2	14.2	10.6	7.7	6.3	6.9	12.6	8.4	14.3	9.8	
2009 Q2		7.0	9.2	15.4	10.6	9.5	13.0	10.1	26.9	17.2	13.8	9.0	11.4	8.9	15.2	10.7	7.3	7.2	7.1	12.4	13.6	16.7	9.1	
2009 Q3		..	9.5	17.4	10.8	10.3	13.0	8.8	26.5	14.9	14.0	9.7	11.4	10.1	16.6	10.4	5.4	6.7	5.9	13.9	17.3	15.0	10.0	
2009 Q4		..	9.5	16.0	9.7	10.0	12.2	11.5	28.3	15.6	15.1	9.0	13.2	8.2	15.8	12.3	8.1	7.3	7.3	13.6	14.1	15.5	10.1	
2009		..	9.5	16.2	10.2	9.6	12.8	9.9	27.2	15.4	14.2	8.9	12.0	9.1	15.4	11.0	7.1	6.8	6.8	13.1	13.3	15.4	9.7	

Note: Data are not adjusted for seasonal variations. Comparisons should therefore be made for the same quarters of 2007, 2008 and 2009, and not for successive quarters within a given year.

Source: Labour Force Survey (Eurostat) for European countries, Current Population Survey for the United States, Australian and Canadian Labour Force surveys (averages of monthly rates).


StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/884382511172>

Table II.A1.1. **Quarterly employment and unemployment rates (15-64) by place of birth in selected OECD countries, 2007-2009 (cont.)**

Percentages

MEN																								
	AUS	AUT	BEL	CAN	CZE	DEU	DNK	ESP	FIN	FRA	GBR	GRC	HUN	IRL	ITA	LUX	NLD	NOR	PRT	SVK	SWE	USA		
<i>Employment rate</i>																								
Native-born	2008 Q1	80.7	78.2	69.5	75.2	74.9	76.0	81.7	74.8	71.2	69.3	77.3	73.7	62.3	75.2	68.8	66.3	83.6	80.2	73.6	68.9	77.2	75.1	
	2008 Q2	80.7	79.3	68.7	77.6	75.2	76.4	83.1	74.4	74.8	69.9	77.3	74.4	63.0	74.6	70.0	68.5	84.3	81.4	73.7	69.2	78.4	75.9	
	2008 Q3	80.8	80.2	69.5	79.0	75.7	77.7	83.4	73.9	74.7	70.2	77.4	74.2	63.7	74.7	69.5	69.8	84.3	81.6	73.3	70.8	79.3	75.6	
	2008 Q4	80.5	79.0	69.1	76.3	75.8	77.2	82.3	71.3	72.2	69.6	76.8	73.6	62.4	71.4	68.7	68.3	84.4	80.2	73.1	70.8	76.8	73.8	
	2008	80.7	79.2	69.2	77.0	75.4	76.8	82.6	73.6	73.2	69.7	77.2	74.0	62.8	74.0	69.3	68.2	84.2	80.8	73.4	69.9	77.9	75.1	
	2009 Q1	78.9	76.5	68.4	72.3	74.2	76.0	79.5	68.7	69.2	68.8	75.5	72.6	60.5	67.4	67.6	67.3	83.8	79.0	71.7	68.6	75.1	71.0	
	2009 Q2	78.6	77.7	67.8	74.5	73.9	76.1	79.4	67.9	70.6	69.3	74.6	73.1	61.3	66.3	68.1	71.1	83.9	79.8	71.2	68.0	76.0	71.1	
	2009 Q3	..	78.6	67.9	75.8	73.7	76.6	79.1	67.5	70.6	69.2	74.6	73.1	61.0	66.0	67.9	70.0	83.6	78.7	70.2	67.4	76.3	71.2	
	2009 Q4	..	78.2	68.5	73.4	73.6	76.9	77.3	66.6	67.9	68.3	74.6	72.0	60.8	64.2	67.3	68.4	82.8	77.8	70.0	66.1	74.8	69.5	
	2009	..	77.7	68.1	74.0	73.8	76.4	78.8	67.7	69.6	68.9	74.8	72.7	60.9	66.0	67.7	69.2	83.5	78.8	70.8	67.5	75.6	70.7	
	Foreign-born	2008 Q1	77.6	71.0	63.2	77.1	77.4	70.8	70.2	76.6	71.3	67.7	78.2	84.3	73.8	80.5	80.2	76.9	75.2	76.2	80.2	74.5	67.9	82.5
		2008 Q2	77.0	77.2	65.4	77.9	79.6	71.5	76.3	74.6	73.1	68.8	77.8	85.7	71.9	79.5	79.5	78.6	76.4	78.0	81.2	74.0	70.1	83.7
		2008 Q3	76.5	75.9	62.2	78.4	77.3	72.9	77.1	72.3	73.1	69.4	77.1	86.1	72.6	78.3	82.8	76.2	77.6	77.1	81.0	77.0	71.8	84.4
2008 Q4		76.8	75.4	66.9	77.9	75.9	71.5	75.0	68.9	67.4	68.6	77.7	84.0	73.1	76.1	80.8	71.8	76.8	75.4	79.6	75.9	69.9	81.2	
2008		77.0	74.9	64.4	77.8	77.6	71.7	74.6	73.1	71.2	68.6	77.7	85.0	72.9	78.6	80.8	75.9	76.5	76.7	80.5	75.4	69.9	82.9	
2009 Q1		75.5	70.0	62.1	73.8	73.9	71.5	73.3	62.6	68.6	66.2	76.9	80.3	75.6	69.5	77.8	76.4	76.1	72.6	76.1	75.7	66.8	77.6	
2009 Q2		74.8	72.4	61.1	73.6	74.2	71.1	70.0	61.8	67.9	65.5	74.6	80.9	75.7	68.8	77.9	79.0	74.5	75.2	75.7	71.6	66.2	79.9	
2009 Q3		..	74.1	61.7	74.0	74.8	72.2	76.8	60.7	68.5	66.2	75.2	81.3	71.2	66.7	77.6	78.8	74.8	74.0	73.5	67.7	67.5	78.6	
2009 Q4		..	73.4	60.4	74.1	75.4	71.9	74.0	59.4	65.7	64.8	73.7	79.3	73.0	65.8	76.0	78.2	73.7	74.0	73.7	73.7	66.1	77.5	
2009		..	72.5	61.4	73.9	74.6	71.7	73.5	61.1	67.7	65.7	75.1	80.5	73.9	67.7	77.3	78.1	74.8	74.0	74.8	72.2	66.7	78.4	

Table II.A1.1. **Quarterly employment and unemployment rates (15-64) by place of birth in selected OECD countries, 2007-2009 (cont.)**

Percentages

MEN																								
	AUS	AUT	BEL	CAN	CZE	DEU	DNK	ESP	FIN	FRA	GBR	GRC	HUN	IRL	ITA	LUX	NLD	NOR	PRT	SVK	SWE	USA		
<i>Unemployment rate</i>																								
Native-born	2008 Q1	4.2	3.3	5.3	7.2	3.7	7.4	2.7	7.0	6.3	6.4	5.4	5.7	7.8	5.3	5.8	2.3	2.4	2.5	6.8	9.2	5.1	5.8	
	2008 Q2	4.1	2.6	4.9	6.6	3.5	6.9	2.4	7.9	6.9	5.8	5.6	4.8	7.5	6.2	5.4	3.9	2.1	2.7	6.6	9.1	5.8	5.6	
	2008 Q3	3.6	2.9	5.7	5.9	3.3	6.0	2.7	9.0	4.8	6.2	6.6	4.8	7.5	7.5	5.0	2.4	2.0	2.3	6.8	7.7	4.5	6.3	
	2008 Q4	4.1	2.8	5.1	6.7	3.4	6.1	3.2	11.3	5.7	6.8	6.9	5.3	8.1	9.1	6.1	1.3	2.0	2.2	7.1	7.7	5.1	7.4	
	2008	4.0	2.9	5.3	6.6	3.5	6.6	2.8	8.8	5.9	6.3	6.1	5.2	7.7	7.0	5.6	2.5	2.1	2.4	6.8	8.4	5.1	6.3	
	2009 Q1	5.8	3.8	6.3	10.1	5.0	7.5	5.7	14.3	8.3	8.0	8.0	6.5	10.1	12.3	6.7	4.3	2.7	3.0	8.3	9.7	7.1	10.4	
	2009 Q2	5.7	3.8	6.3	9.6	5.5	7.2	6.2	15.1	10.3	7.8	8.8	6.0	10.0	14.7	6.2	2.6	2.7	3.4	8.9	10.5	8.2	10.6	
	2009 Q3	..	4.2	6.2	8.6	6.4	7.3	6.5	15.3	7.5	7.9	9.1	6.3	10.6	15.1	6.2	2.7	2.9	3.1	9.2	11.9	7.3	10.4	
	2009 Q4	..	3.9	6.7	8.8	6.5	6.7	7.1	15.9	8.7	8.9	8.7	7.3	10.8	15.3	7.2	2.7	3.3	2.9	9.8	13.5	7.5	10.9	
	2009	..	3.9	6.4	9.3	5.9	7.2	6.4	15.1	8.7	8.2	8.7	6.5	10.4	14.4	6.6	3.1	2.9	3.1	9.0	11.4	7.5	10.5	
	Foreign-born	2008 Q1	4.1	8.8	15.9	6.8	5.7	13.7	7.8	12.5	13.1	12.5	6.7	5.0	4.3	6.3	6.1	2.6	6.2	4.7	6.9	6.4	11.7	5.8
		2008 Q2	4.1	6.1	13.8	7.1	4.0	12.0	4.6	14.8	14.4	11.1	6.6	4.3	7.7	7.1	6.0	4.7	5.9	5.6	7.5	5.1	11.9	4.8
		2008 Q3	4.3	6.5	16.7	7.0	3.4	11.2	5.5	17.2	9.5	10.6	6.8	4.3	5.6	8.9	5.0	8.0	3.8	6.1	7.7	4.1	10.6	5.2
2008 Q4		4.1	7.9	11.2	6.7	5.0	12.2	8.3	20.8	12.5	11.3	7.0	6.3	7.4	10.6	6.6	10.4	5.5	7.4	8.9	5.3	11.9	6.8	
2008		4.2	7.3	14.4	6.9	4.5	12.3	6.5	16.3	12.4	11.4	6.8	5.0	6.3	8.2	5.9	6.4	5.3	6.0	7.8	5.2	11.5	5.7	
2009 Q1		6.3	11.6	15.8	10.4	7.8	13.6	8.8	29.0	12.1	13.8	7.8	10.3	7.4	16.2	8.9	6.0	6.3	9.9	11.6	6.3	14.7	10.5	
2009 Q2		7.2	10.6	15.4	11.3	9.6	14.3	10.2	29.4	19.9	14.1	8.9	9.8	8.0	18.2	8.9	6.2	7.5	7.3	12.6	11.5	18.0	9.2	
2009 Q3		..	10.1	17.0	11.1	8.2	13.2	9.9	29.3	15.7	13.4	10.0	9.8	10.6	19.2	9.4	4.9	7.1	7.8	14.9	18.7	16.2	10.2	
2009 Q4		..	10.5	17.0	10.0	8.2	13.3	11.2	31.4	16.1	15.3	9.0	11.5	8.6	19.3	10.4	6.4	8.0	8.8	13.8	13.6	16.0	10.5	
2009		..	10.7	16.3	10.7	8.5	13.6	10.0	29.8	16.0	14.1	8.9	10.4	8.6	18.2	9.4	5.9	7.2	8.5	13.2	12.5	16.2	10.1	

Note: Data are not adjusted for seasonal variations. Comparisons should therefore be made for the same quarters of 2008 and 2009, and not for successive quarters within a given year.

Source: Labour Force Survey (Eurostat) for European countries, Current Population Survey for the United States, Australian and Canadian Labour Force surveys (averages of monthly rates).


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Table II.A1.1. **Quarterly employment and unemployment rates (15-64) by place of birth in selected OECD countries, 2007-2009 (cont.)**

Percentages

WOMEN																								
	AUS	AUT	BEL	CAN	CZE	DEU	DNK	ESP	FIN	FRA	GBR	GRC	HUN	IRL	ITA	LUX	NLD	NOR	PRT	SVK	SWE	USA		
<i>Employment rate</i>																								
Native-born	2008 Q1	68.8	67.0	58.6	71.0	57.3	67.2	75.3	53.9	68.0	61.5	67.1	47.9	50.0	59.8	46.7	50.9	72.3	75.8	61.8	53.7	73.6	66.9	
	2008 Q2	69.4	67.6	57.5	72.5	57.9	67.3	75.9	54.4	70.3	61.7	67.2	49.0	50.0	60.0	47.1	49.0	72.8	76.3	62.5	54.1	75.0	67.0	
	2008 Q3	69.2	68.5	58.4	71.9	57.7	68.0	75.8	54.2	70.0	62.1	67.0	49.0	50.8	60.5	46.6	50.9	73.4	76.3	61.9	55.4	76.0	66.5	
	2008 Q4	69.1	68.3	58.2	71.7	57.7	68.7	76.3	53.8	68.9	61.5	67.1	48.7	50.9	58.8	46.6	50.8	73.6	75.6	61.5	55.1	73.6	66.5	
	2008	69.1	67.9	58.2	71.8	57.6	67.8	75.8	54.1	69.3	61.7	67.1	48.6	50.4	59.8	46.8	50.4	73.0	76.0	62.0	54.6	74.5	66.7	
	2009 Q1	68.7	68.2	57.9	70.4	56.7	67.9	74.6	52.4	68.1	61.1	66.5	48.5	49.5	58.1	46.0	53.1	73.8	75.7	61.6	53.3	72.5	65.2	
	2009 Q2	69.3	68.5	58.5	71.4	56.7	68.4	74.9	52.4	69.3	61.8	66.0	49.0	49.7	57.8	46.4	55.3	73.5	75.7	61.3	52.8	73.6	65.0	
	2009 Q3	..	69.0	58.3	70.5	56.6	68.3	74.5	52.4	68.4	61.9	66.3	48.9	49.7	57.8	45.6	55.4	73.4	74.9	60.7	52.8	73.4	64.0	
	2009 Q4	..	67.7	58.2	70.5	56.7	69.4	73.0	52.2	67.1	61.0	66.3	48.3	50.0	56.9	45.6	53.5	73.3	74.9	61.1	52.3	71.7	63.7	
	2009	..	68.3	58.2	70.7	56.7	68.5	74.3	52.4	68.2	61.4	66.3	48.7	49.7	57.6	45.9	54.4	73.5	75.3	61.2	52.8	72.8	64.5	
	Foreign-born	2008 Q1	59.8	56.6	43.3	63.9	53.2	53.0	55.8	59.5	62.3	51.4	57.8	48.4	55.9	63.9	48.9	59.5	57.8	68.9	66.1	60.1	57.9	58.9
		2008 Q2	60.4	57.2	44.9	64.5	54.0	53.3	61.7	59.3	60.4	52.4	57.7	49.3	58.4	62.6	51.1	65.1	59.3	68.4	68.5	60.5	59.1	59.0
		2008 Q3	60.6	56.2	45.9	63.7	55.5	54.9	61.5	59.8	59.6	51.2	58.3	50.3	59.4	61.2	52.3	61.0	60.0	70.1	68.0	63.4	59.5	58.3
2008 Q4		61.3	56.2	42.4	64.0	58.4	54.4	62.1	58.2	56.4	50.5	57.4	50.1	59.5	59.5	52.0	61.3	60.3	71.1	69.2	57.6	58.4	58.3	
2008		60.5	56.6	44.2	64.0	55.3	53.9	60.2	59.2	59.7	51.4	57.8	49.5	58.3	61.8	51.1	61.7	59.3	69.6	68.0	60.4	58.7	58.6	
2009 Q1		60.1	57.3	44.8	63.2	58.5	54.9	62.5	54.9	60.5	51.2	57.6	49.2	56.9	55.8	49.6	62.3	60.3	68.5	66.6	54.7	58.0	57.4	
2009 Q2		59.4	57.7	42.1	63.5	59.4	56.0	64.3	54.8	60.8	51.6	56.9	51.4	58.8	57.0	51.1	58.2	58.1	66.8	67.4	53.4	57.9	57.0	
2009 Q3		..	56.8	41.5	63.3	55.5	55.4	67.4	55.7	59.9	50.3	57.3	52.3	60.9	56.1	49.9	60.1	59.2	67.0	65.2	47.7	58.7	57.2	
2009 Q4		..	58.3	45.2	63.8	53.9	56.5	58.6	54.2	58.4	50.1	57.7	51.5	60.6	55.5	50.2	60.6	59.2	63.8	63.1	45.1	57.2	57.4	
2009		..	57.5	43.4	63.4	56.8	55.7	63.2	54.9	59.9	50.8	57.4	51.1	59.3	56.1	50.2	60.3	59.2	66.5	65.6	50.2	57.9	57.2	

Table II.A1.1. **Quarterly employment and unemployment rates (15-64) by place of birth in selected OECD countries, 2007-2009 (cont.)**

Percentages

WOMEN		AUS	AUT	BEL	CAN	CZE	DEU	DNK	ESP	FIN	FRA	GBR	GRC	HUN	IRL	ITA	LUX	NLD	NOR	PRT	SVK	SWE	USA	
<i>Unemployment rate</i>																								
Native-born	2008 Q1	4.9	3.5	6.5	5.0	5.9	7.2	3.1	11.1	6.7	7.2	4.3	12.3	8.4	3.3	8.6	3.1	2.7	2.0	9.2	12.2	5.6	4.6	
	2008 Q2	4.4	3.1	5.7	5.0	5.1	7.1	3.2	11.3	7.4	7.0	4.4	11.0	8.0	3.4	8.3	5.9	2.7	2.4	8.8	11.3	6.2	5.1	
	2008 Q3	4.2	3.5	7.6	6.0	5.5	6.8	3.8	11.9	5.9	7.2	5.3	10.9	8.1	5.2	7.6	6.2	2.3	2.1	9.4	10.5	5.0	6.0	
	2008 Q4	4.2	3.7	6.6	4.9	5.7	6.1	3.3	14.1	5.9	8.0	5.1	11.7	8.0	4.8	8.2	6.2	2.4	2.2	9.3	10.0	5.3	5.9	
	2008	4.4	3.5	6.6	5.3	5.6	6.8	3.3	12.1	6.5	7.4	4.8	11.5	8.1	4.2	8.2	5.4	2.5	2.2	9.1	11.0	5.5	5.4	
	2009 Q1	5.6	3.6	7.1	5.9	6.8	6.7	4.1	16.4	6.6	8.5	5.8	12.9	9.4	5.7	9.2	3.3	2.7	2.3	9.9	11.4	6.6	7.0	
	2009 Q2	5.0	4.0	6.3	6.2	7.4	6.5	5.0	17.1	8.4	8.5	6.1	12.5	9.2	7.3	8.3	3.9	2.8	2.5	9.8	12.3	7.8	7.9	
	2009 Q3	..	4.5	7.5	7.5	8.5	6.6	5.2	17.0	7.2	8.8	6.4	13.1	10.1	8.1	8.2	4.5	3.1	2.8	11.1	13.3	6.6	8.9	
	2009 Q4	..	3.7	7.0	5.9	8.2	6.1	5.5	17.8	7.2	9.2	6.2	14.0	10.3	7.6	9.6	2.8	3.3	2.0	11.1	14.4	6.6	8.2	
	2009	..	3.9	7.0	6.4	7.7	6.5	5.0	17.1	7.3	8.7	6.1	13.2	9.8	7.2	8.8	3.6	3.0	2.4	10.5	12.8	6.9	8.0	
	Foreign-born	2008 Q1	5.3	8.1	15.1	7.4	11.4	13.1	11.0	16.0	12.2	12.4	7.6	13.7	6.2	5.1	13.1	10.7	7.8	5.3	12.4	10.3	12.5	5.7
		2008 Q2	5.2	7.3	13.9	7.2	10.6	12.7	8.5	16.7	11.8	11.3	6.8	11.9	4.4	6.5	12.2	6.3	6.9	3.7	9.9	9.3	13.7	5.7
2008 Q3		5.2	7.5	14.1	8.1	11.0	12.0	5.2	16.0	15.8	12.9	7.6	10.9	5.5	7.7	10.3	6.1	5.0	5.3	11.9	7.8	12.4	6.4	
2008 Q4		5.2	8.3	16.6	7.5	8.1	12.0	6.5	19.7	14.3	13.1	7.9	12.7	7.3	7.3	11.9	4.1	5.9	4.0	10.8	8.6	12.8	6.5	
2008		5.2	7.8	14.9	7.6	10.3	12.4	7.8	17.1	13.5	12.4	7.5	12.3	5.8	6.6	11.9	6.8	6.4	4.6	11.3	9.0	12.9	6.1	
2009 Q1		6.8	8.1	16.6	8.8	9.3	12.5	9.4	24.8	16.1	14.3	8.1	14.8	10.9	11.4	12.8	9.8	6.3	3.5	13.5	10.9	13.9	8.9	
2009 Q2		6.8	7.4	15.3	9.9	9.3	11.2	10.1	23.8	13.6	13.6	9.2	13.7	9.6	11.2	12.9	8.8	6.8	6.8	12.2	15.9	15.3	9.0	
2009 Q3		..	8.8	17.8	10.5	13.0	12.7	7.7	23.2	14.1	14.6	9.4	13.8	9.7	13.1	11.7	6.2	6.1	3.6	12.8	15.5	13.7	9.6	
2009 Q4		..	8.3	14.7	9.3	12.4	10.9	11.8	24.7	15.2	14.9	9.1	15.6	7.9	11.2	14.6	10.1	6.5	5.5	13.4	14.8	15.0	9.4	
2009		..	8.2	16.1	9.6	11.0	11.8	9.8	24.1	14.7	14.3	8.9	14.5	9.5	11.7	13.0	8.7	6.4	4.9	13.0	14.3	14.5	9.2	

Note: Data are not adjusted for seasonal variations. Comparisons should therefore be made for the same quarters of 2008 and 2009, and not for successive quarters within a given year.

Source: Labour Force Survey (Eurostat) for European countries, Current Population Survey for the United States, Australian and Canadian Labour Force surveys (averages of monthly rates).


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Table II.A1.2a. **Top 10 industries with the largest changes in foreign- and native-born employment between 2008 and 2009 in the European Union**

Change between Q1-Q3 2008 and Q1-Q3 2009

	Native-born		Foreign-born		
	Change (000)	%	Change (000)	%	
Civil engineering	366.8	32.4	109.8	23.8	Residential care activities
Education	249.1	1.9	71.9	6.9	Education
Residential care activities	211.3	6.2	59.5	7.1	Services to buildings and landscape activities
Human health activities	208.4	1.9	48.5	47.4	Activities of head offices
Activities of head offices	190.1	20.0	42.5	2.6	Food and beverage service activities
Other professional, scientific and technical activities	166.4	21.7	41.2	43.9	Other professional, scientific and technical activities
Services to buildings and landscape activities	163.5	6.8	40.5	9.5	Accommodation
Repair and installation of machinery and equipment	151.6	16.8	29.7	5.7	Land transport and transport via pipelines
Construction of buildings	128.5	3.1	26.2	2.4	Activities of households as employers of domestic personnel
Electricity, gas, steam and air conditioning supply	120.4	9.8	25.4	7.1	Crop and animal production, hunting and related service activities
Telecommunications	-150.3	-12.2	-22.4	-12.9	Postal and courier activities
Wholesale and retail trade and repair of motor vehicles and motorcycles	-154.2	-4.4	-25.2	-8.2	Financial service activities, except insurance and pension funding
Crop and animal production, hunting and related service activities	-185.2	-2.9	-30.3	-7.6	Manufacture of motor vehicles, trailers and semi
Warehousing and support activities for transportation	-185.5	-8.5	-32.7	-16.1	Employment activities
Other personal service activities	-196.7	-7.6	-36.8	-20.8	Office administrative, office support and other business support activities
Legal and accounting activities	-209.2	-6.7	-40.3	-17.3	Legal and accounting activities
Manufacture of motor vehicles, trailers and semi	-220.8	-8.5	-58.0	-14.8	Warehousing and support activities for transportation
Retail trade, except of motor vehicles and motorcycles	-287.8	-1.8	-78.2	-15.4	Manufacture of fabricated metal products, except machinery and equipment
Manufacture of fabricated metal products, except machinery and equipment	-379.6	-10.8	-107.0	-10.6	Construction of buildings
Specialized construction activities	-1 303.2	-14.1	-185.3	-14.4	Specialized construction activities

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

Source: European Labour Force Surveys (Eurostat), Q1-Q3 2008 and Q1-Q3 2009.

StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/884367766241>

Table II.A1.2b. **Top 10 industries with the largest changes in foreign- and native-born employment between 2007 and 2009 in the United States**

	Native-born		Foreign-born		
	Change (000)	%	Change (000)	%	
Health care services, except hospitals	391	5.5	69	16.2	Food manufacturing
Hospitals	224	4.5	67	18.2	Social assistance
Educational services	200	1.8	52	6.2	Hospitals
Food services and drinking places	156	2.6	40	9.0	Public administration
Arts, entertainment, and recreation	134	5.7	38	30.9	Membership associations and organisations
Personal and laundry services	49	3.1	36	3.2	Educational services
Motion picture and sound recording industries	41	11.9	33	2.7	Health care services, except hospitals
Utilities	29	2.6	16	8.1	Chemical manufacturing
Public administration	27	0.4	15	0.8	Food services and drinking places
Agriculture	18	1.4	8	32.6	Beverage and tobacco products
Finance	-229	-5.8	-41	-11.6	Computer and electronic products
Plastics and rubber products	-245	-40.2	-42	-4.1	Transportation and warehousing
Real estate	-260	-12.4	-47	-34.9	Furniture and fixtures manufacturing
Transportation equipment manufacturing	-277	-14.4	-69	-19.0	Real estate
Primary metals and fabricated metal products	-287	-18.2	-70	-24.6	Textile, apparel, and leather manufacturing
Administrative and support services	-361	-8.6	-71	-11.3	Wholesale trade
Transportation and warehousing	-452	-8.7	-114	-5.3	Retail trade
Wholesale trade	-489	-13.7	-121	-8.7	Administrative and support services
Retail trade	-538	-4.0	-144	-22.2	Finance
Construction	-1 401	-16.1	-783	-27.3	Construction

Note: Industries are derived from the Census 2002 Classification.

Source: Current Population Surveys (CPS).

StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/884373213247>

PART III

Public Opinions and Immigration: Individual Attitudes, Interest Groups and the Media¹

Summary

With the growth and diversification of migration flows to OECD countries over the past 15 years, migration policies have been changing with increasing frequency and now occupy a prime place on the political agenda of many OECD countries. The shaping of migration policies is the result of a complex process in which public opinion and the various participants in the public debate play a significant role.

In the current economic crisis, associated as it is with a deterioration in the employment situation in most OECD countries, it seems particularly important to examine the determinants of public opinion about immigration. It is therefore necessary first, to gain a better appreciation of why and how different groups might influence migration policy and second, to understand more clearly the mechanisms that shape public opinion on this matter, so that policy makers might be better equipped to deal with any resurgence of hostility toward immigrants and immigration and the tensions it might spark.

The purpose of this study is to review the literature on public opinion about immigration, identify its main findings and present new ones derived from empirical analysis. The paper first seeks to define the concept of public opinion and give a comparative assessment of the differences in opinions about immigration internationally. It goes on to analyse the main determinants of individual opinions about immigration on the basis of surveys and polls. It then looks at the role of certain organised groups (trade unions, employers' associations, political parties, etc.) and the media.

Introduction

Growing migration flows to OECD countries over the past 15 years have transformed several European countries of emigration into countries of immigration (Spain, Italy, Ireland, Portugal and Greece) and increased the number of countries of emigration. The changing situation has prompted more frequent shifts in migration policies. These policies, particularly where they concern labour migration and integration issues, are now at the top of the political agendas of many OECD countries.

The setting of migration policies is a complex process, in which public opinion and the different participants in the public debate (the media, trade unions, employers' associations, political parties, etc.) play a significant role. In the years preceding the economic crisis of 2008/2009, the steady improvement in the employment situation, indeed the emergence of shortages of manpower in some countries and sectors, had helped calm the debate on labour migration and reduce the weight of opinion opposed to increased immigration in many OECD countries. However, the current economic crisis threatens to revive opposition to immigration and foster anti-immigrant feelings. Concerns are again being expressed in some circles over what is seen as unfair competition from immigrants in the labour market. Managing these potential sources of social tension will present a serious challenge to governments of OECD countries, especially as prevailing

demographic trends will require many of them to reappraise the role of migration (particularly by job seekers) over the next few years.

It seems therefore adequate to first identify the factors that determine individual opinions about immigration in different sections of society. It will then be possible to help policy makers understand the mechanisms that drive public opinion on the subject and thus equip them to deal with any resurgence of hostile attitudes toward immigrants and the tensions such attitudes might spark.

The purpose of this chapter is to review the literature devoted to public opinion about immigration and present new empirical findings in this area. From an analysis of several opinion surveys taken between 2002 and 2008, it is possible for the first time to determine the role of individual characteristics both in shaping opinions about the economic and cultural consequences of immigration and in forming preferences over migration policy. In particular it reveals the importance of what people believe. This chapter also highlights the role played by various key players in the preparation of migration policies. In particular, it has become apparent that the way the media deal with migration issues has significantly changed over the past few decades, and that they now exert a major influence on public opinion. At the same time, the social partners have also modified their views on migration issues and now seek to play a more important role in reviewing and setting public policy in this area.

The study is organised as follows. Section 1 offers a definition of the concept of public opinion and considers how it might be measured (1.1). It goes on to give an overview of the differences in opinions on immigration in different countries, on the basis of which it identifies an initial set of stylised facts (1.2). Section 2 offers new empirical analyses of individual determinants of opinions about immigration. It focuses on the interaction between socio-economic factors and individual beliefs and seeks to assess the relative importance of the economic, cultural and political dimensions (2.1). The analysis also addresses the links between the social entitlements granted to immigrants and public preferences over migration policy (2.2). Section 3 looks at the role of organised interest groups, who lobby the general public as well as governments and politicians. Finally, Section 4 is devoted to the role of the media in shaping public opinion and conveying it to policymakers (4.1) and the role of beliefs about the economic and social consequences of immigration in the public debate (4.2).

1. Public opinion on immigration and migration systems

1.1. Public opinion about immigration: definitions and data sources

The study of public opinion cuts across several social science disciplines, particularly political science and sociology. It also touches more indirectly on economics. Given that each of these disciplines tends to focus on those aspects of public opinion that are closest to its field of interest, there is no single definition of public opinion as a concept.

Political science focuses on the role of public opinion in the political system and in the shaping of public policies. It therefore tends to regard public opinion as an *aggregation of individual opinions* on a particular matter of public interest, which are brought to light by surveys, among other things. In sociology, public opinion is seen more as *the product of a public debate*: public opinion manifests itself in the very process of interaction between participants in the debate but cannot be reduced to the individual positions expressed therein.

The notion of public opinion as the aggregation of individual opinions lends itself to the conclusion that public opinion emerges from rational choices made by individuals. On the other hand, the “sociological” approach insists on the role of public opinion as an instrument of social control, in the sense that its manifestation is seen as the outcome of a quest for national consensus.

In the framework of the rational choice model, it is common practice to rely on opinion polls or surveys to characterise and analyse public opinion on a broad range of social issues. Generally speaking, a set of questions are prepared in advance and put to a representative sample of individuals. Because the questions are based on *a priori* premises and the number of possible replies is limited, it is possible to gain an idea of the way opinions are distributed among the population. The most widely held opinions are then generally presented as a more or less accurate expression of majority opinion and, more generally, of the “popular will” (see Page and Shapiro, 1992).

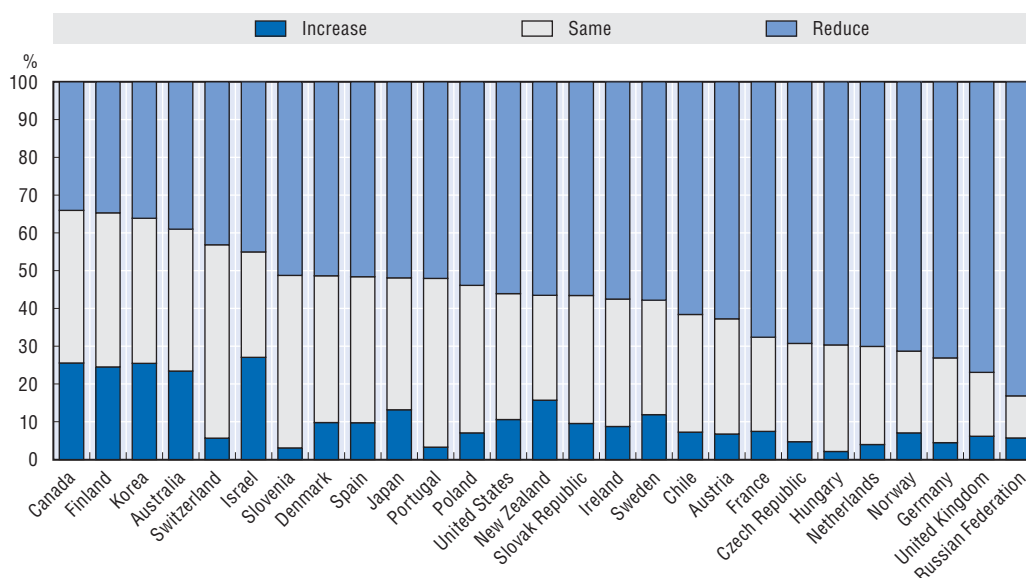
The value of opinion poll findings has been widely questioned, both from the technical standpoint (selection of samples, form of questionnaire) and in terms of the way responses are interpreted. Pierre Bourdieu (1973), for example, draws attention to three fundamental problems with interpreting survey results as a reflection of public opinion. First, he challenges the idea that every individual is in a position to form an opinion about every subject. It is assumed that they are and non-responses are therefore ignored, although their relative frequency among certain sections of the population strongly suggests that the capacity to form an opinion is indeed socially constructed. Second, Bourdieu questions whether all individual responses are equivalent. Different responses to questions are not necessarily based on commonly held criteria,² and it may therefore be inappropriate to regard an aggregation of individual opinions as representative of public opinion. Third, he argues that surveys are based on the assumption that there is an implicit consensus on social issues.

The abundant economic literature examining individual opinions about immigration and migration policies relies to a large extent on data from surveys of this type, and is therefore open to these criticisms. The empirical approach generally adopted in this literature consists in measuring the correlation between the degree of acceptance of immigration and selected individual characteristics (such as age, sex, or level of education) and thereby highlighting the role of certain economic or social-cultural determinants of opinion about migration (see Annex III.A1 for a detailed account of the different surveys). This literature, together with the findings of more recent surveys, will be presented in detail in Section 2. But first it seems useful to give a brief assessment of current opinion about immigration in the OECD countries.

1.2. Determinants of differences in opinions about immigration in different countries


International opinion surveys reveal that average individual positions on the desired degree of openness to immigration differ significantly from one country to another. In most OECD countries a large proportion of respondents (often close to the majority) tended to come out in favour of strictly controlled or reduced immigration. The International Social Survey Programme (ISSP) of 2003 showed that this proportion exceeded 70% in the United Kingdom, Germany, Norway and the Netherlands but was less than 40% in Canada, Finland, Korea and Australia (see Figure III.1). Exactly the same diversity of opinions was revealed by other international opinion surveys, such as the European Social Survey (ESS), which focused on Europe, and the World Value Survey (WVS).

Figure III.1. **Proportions of respondents in favour of increasing, maintaining or reducing current immigration flows to their countries, 2003**



Note: Percentages do not take account of non-responses. Weighted data.

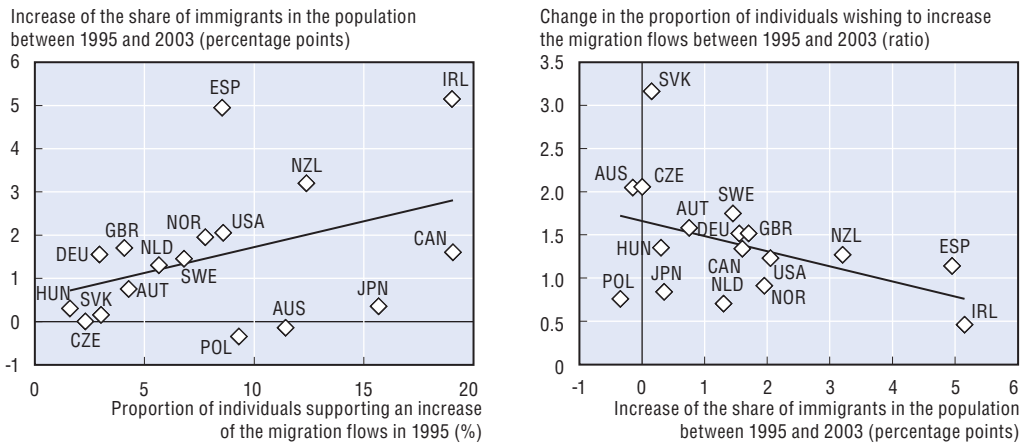
Source: International Social Survey Programme 2003.

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The differences in average opinion about immigration and migration policy can be attributed to many factors, which are not mutually exclusive. One of them has to do with the scale and dynamics of migration flows. If the immigrant population is perceived as being too large or if immigration has been rising during the period prior to the survey, for example, people may take a more negative view of immigration. Two interesting facts emerge from the findings of the 1995 and 2003 ISSP surveys, which cover a number of OECD countries. First, there is a fairly clear correlation between the proportion of individuals wishing to see an increase in migrant flows in 1995 and the rising proportion of immigrants in the population over the period 1995-2003. This relationship tends to suggest that there is a certain linkage between public aspirations and the growth in migration flows, although no causal relationship can be established. The rising migration over the period in question seems to have been accompanied by a fall in public support for increased migration flows. At least this is what can be inferred from the relationship between the changing proportion of immigrants in the population between 1995 and 2003 and the attitude of the population towards increased immigration, as shown in Figure III.2.

The features of the immigration system are another set of factors that may explain differences in average opinion about immigration from one country to another. They include the main channels of entry, the way immigrants are selected and the social and political entitlements granted to them. As to differences of opinion regarding different categories of immigrants, notably work seekers and refugees, two types of argument may prevail, one humanitarian and the other economic. As shown in studies by Mayda (2006) and O'Rourke and Sinnott (2006), public opinion is on average more favourable to refugees than to other immigrants (see Figure III.3). Bauer *et al.* (2000) nevertheless stressed that residents of countries that take in relatively more refugees and asylum-seekers may be more worried about the consequences of immigration than those of countries with a

Figure III.2. **Support for increased immigration in relation to the rising proportion of immigrants in the populations of certain OECD countries, 1995-2003**

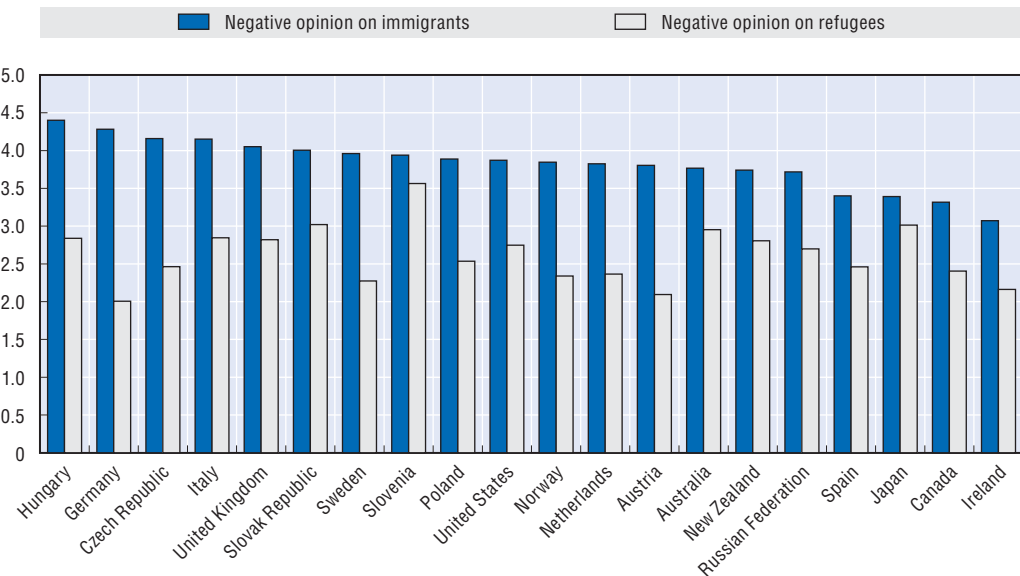


Note: Percentages do not take account of non-responses. Weighted data.

Sources: International Social Survey Programme, 1995 and 2003; United Nations, 2009, *International Migrant Stock: The 2008 Revision*.

StatLink <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/883061626674>

Figure III.3. **Average opinions on immigrants and refugees, 1995**



Note: This graph is based on data from the ISSP 1995 survey. Unfortunately, the ISSP 2003 supplementary questionnaire on national identity did not have a question on opinions about refugees. This graph was drawn up on the basis of two questions in the ISSP 1995 survey: “Should immigration be increased, kept at the same level or reduced?” and “Should refugees be authorised to stay in the country?” In both cases, a score above three indicated a desire for greater restrictions. Weighted data.

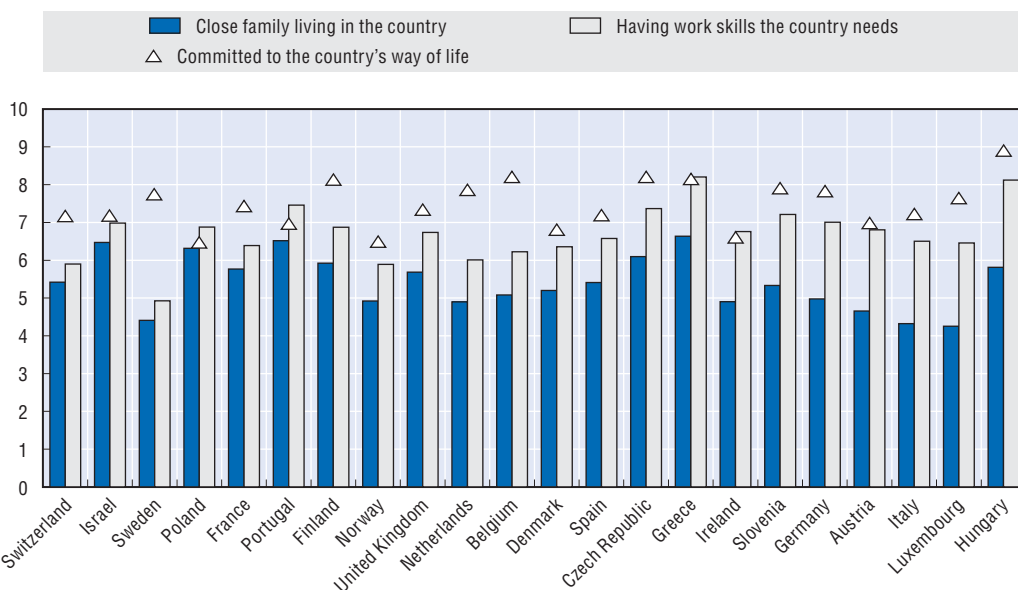
Source: International Social Survey Programme 1995.

StatLink <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/883117003250>

selective migration policy, perhaps because of the particular difficulties facing humanitarian migrants in terms of integration in the labour market and society of the host country.

Similarly, some opinion surveys have focused on the importance attributed by respondents to different criteria governing the admission of immigrants to national territory. One such survey was the ESS 2002. The possible criteria included having professional skills the country needed, having close family living in the country, and being committed to the country's way of life.³ As Figure III.4 shows, respondents in all countries surveyed regard economic usefulness as a more important selection criterion than prior presence of family members. Moreover, commitment to the country's way of life is almost universally regarded as more important than the other two criteria. While the findings do not imply that respondents reject the idea of family immigration, they clearly indicate that they believe migrants who can contribute economically should have priority over family members, whose main reason for migrating is not necessarily to find work.⁴ On this score Bauer *et al.* (2000) show that respondents are more favourable to immigration if immigrants are selected to meet the needs of the labour market. Generally speaking there is a fairly close correlation between the proportion of individuals, who feel that immigrants make a positive contribution to the economy and the balance of opinion in favour of immigration (see Figure III.5). But there are still quite significant differences from one country to another regarding the degree of importance to be ascribed to particular criteria. These are due largely to the historical background of immigration and the programmes designed to integrate immigrant workers and regulate migrant flows in accordance with the demands of the labour market (see Section 4.2 below).

Figure III.4. **Opinions on the importance of different selection criteria for immigration, 2002**

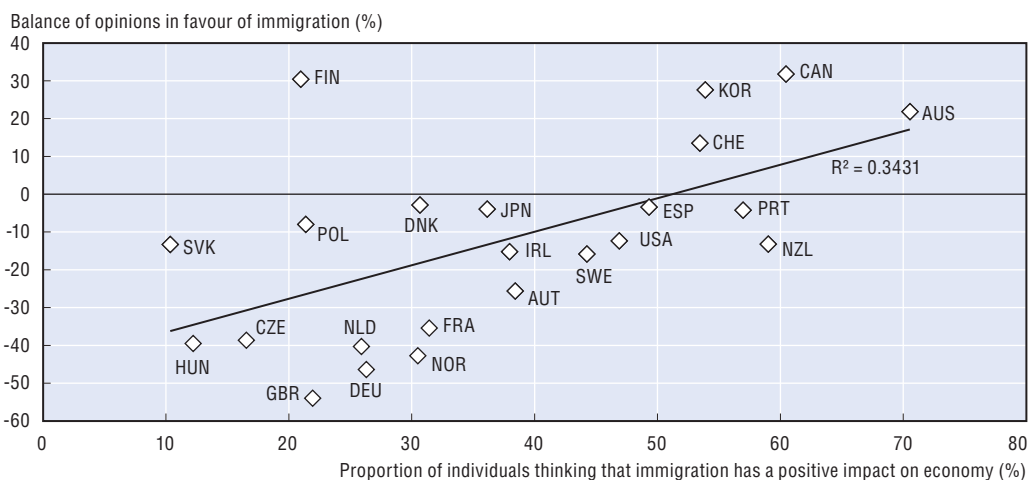


Note: A higher opinion score indicates that the criterion is deemed more important. Weighted data. Countries are ranked according to the difference between scores for criteria "Having work skills the country needs" and "Close family living in the country".

Source: European Social Survey 2002.

StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/883132468027>

Figure III.5. **Opinions about the impact of immigrants on the economy and balance of opinions in favour of immigration in certain OECD countries, 2003**



Note: The balance of opinion is the difference between the proportion of persons wishing to increase immigration or keep it steady and that of persons wishing to reduce it. Percentages do not take account of non-responses. Weighted data.

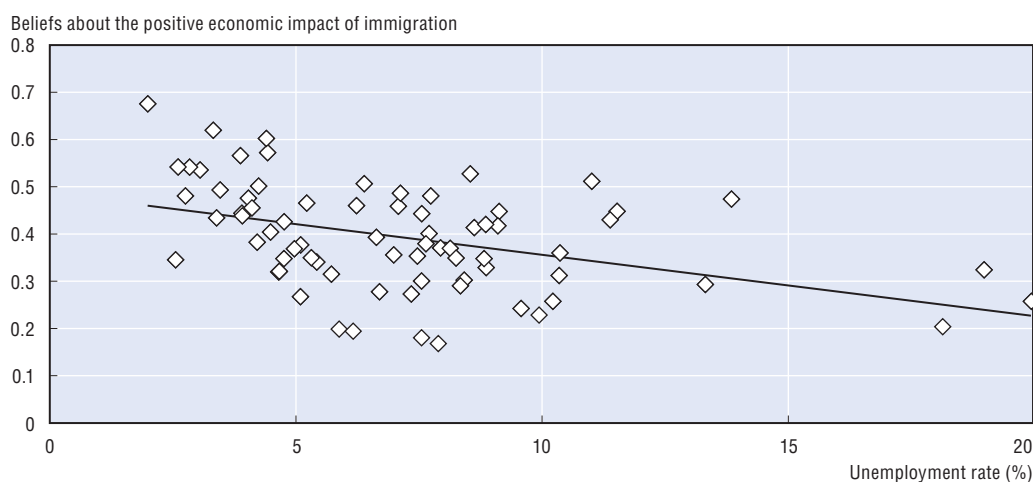
Source: International Social Survey Programme 2003.

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The countries of origin of most immigrants, or at least the perceptions of residents of the country of destination in this regard, can also influence public opinion on immigration. The ESS 2002 survey revealed that preferences over the origin of migrants were based on two criteria: whether or not the country of origin was a European one and its standard of living. In all countries involved in this European survey the balance of opinion was more favourable to immigration from other European countries than from non-European ones, and this preference was particularly marked in Denmark, France, Finland and Norway. However, the opposite view prevailed in the Southern European countries and in the Czech Republic. In most countries, individuals expressed a preference for migration from richer countries, with the notable exceptions of Sweden, Norway, Switzerland and the Netherlands.


The economic climate is another factor in shaping attitudes towards immigration. In a study covering the EU15 countries over the period 1993-2000, Kessler and Freeman (2005) find that as the economic situation (represented by GDP and unemployment levels) deteriorates, opinion turns against immigration. Opposition to immigration peaked in the mid-1990s before subsiding in 2000. Wilkes et al. (2008) find the same result for Canada over the period 1975-2000. It should be noted, however, that the results of the latter, obtained over a lengthy assessment period, seem much more statistically sound than those of Kessler and Freeman, which were derived from far fewer observations and should therefore be viewed with caution. More recently, in the context of the current economic crisis, the *Transatlantic Trends Survey* (German Marshall Fund, 2009) shows that the proportion of people who regard inward migration as a problem rather than a potential asset has increased by more than four percentage points in the United States and the United Kingdom and by nine percentage points in the Netherlands. Analyses of the four ESS survey waves between 2002 and 2008 confirm that a deterioration in the economic situation, measured in terms of increased unemployment, has a negative influence on the perception of the way immigration affects the economy. This is the direction of the

Figure III.6. **Relationship between unemployment rate and beliefs about the positive economic impact of immigration**



Note: The “beliefs” variable is derived from replies to the question “Do you think immigration is good or bad for the economy?”.

Sources: European Social Survey 2002, 2004, 2006, 2008; OECD 2010, Annual Labour Force Statistics.

StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/883167410060>

relationship between the unemployment rate in European countries and the perceived effect of immigration on the economy, as described in Figure III.6. It should be noted that the temporal dimension has significantly greater explanatory power than the variability of the unemployment rate from one country to another.

To sum up, the previous analysis reveals a number of significant stylised facts. First, average opinion varies widely from one country to another: some countries are clearly more pro-immigration than others. It is not possible to explain these differences merely by pointing to different levels of exposure to immigration, although public opinion does to a certain extent seem to be influenced by trends in migratory flows. Secondly, opinion proves to be strongly influenced by the economic benefits of immigration and the willingness of immigrants to embrace the way of life of the host country. Despite the importance it attaches to humanitarian considerations, opinion actually takes a more cautious view of humanitarian or family migration than of labour migration. Thus, the findings show that respondents’ preferences reflect many different ways of viewing the matter and that opinion on immigration cannot be attributed to economic factors alone. Lastly, public opinion in most countries favours immigration from comparatively developed countries, and Europeans prefer immigrants to be from neighbouring countries.

As we shall see in the following section, opinions about immigration are clearly not homogeneous within countries and depend on many individual determinants.

2. Determinants of preferences over immigration

The recent academic literature, especially in economics and political science, has largely focused on analysing the determinants of individual preferences in migration policy, paying particular attention to the role played by perceptions of the economic effects of immigration and by concerns about the impact of immigration on the ways of life of local populations. At the same time, the factors that influence individual perceptions of the effects of migration and individual views on allowing entry to immigrants are either the

same or at least very closely related. In order to isolate the effect of individual characteristics on each of these variables it is therefore necessary to take account of the endogenous nature of beliefs about the impact of immigration. The following section presents an analysis of these interactions using data from the most recent surveys.

2.1. Socio-economic factors and individual beliefs: comparative importance of economic, cultural and political dimensions

In dealing with the economic dimension, the literature has focused mainly on two issues: first, the impact of immigration on the national labour market; and second, the impact of new arrivals on public finances and social protection systems.

The arrival of immigrants on the domestic labour market may be seen by local workers as a source of new competition for available jobs. The actual threat of competition (which differs according to sector, level of education, etc.) has less influence on resident workers' opinions about immigration than the perceived threat.

Assuming imperfect substitutability between different types of labour, the structure of immigrants' qualifications is of crucial importance in understanding the impact of immigration on the labour market. Low-skilled native-born workers will face competition from low-skilled immigrant workers just as highly qualified native-born workers will have to compete with highly qualified immigrant workers.⁵ Resident workers' individual opinions about immigration will consequently depend on their qualifications, and also on the nature of migration policy.⁶

As to the supposed implications for public finances, immigration could have two contradictory effects:

- A positive effect: the influx of immigrants, preferably with moderate or high qualifications, could provide an adequate solution to the growing problem of funding pay-as-you-go pension schemes presented by the ageing of the population in the developed countries.⁷
- A negative effect: low-skilled immigrants accompanied by their families may become net beneficiaries of the social protection system if, for example, they draw sickness and unemployment benefits or receive family allowances. In that case, immigration will aggravate the problem of funding pay-as-you go systems instead of remedying it.

There is no consensus in the academic literature on either of these two effects, and studies tend to find that immigration has a minimal or negligible impact on public finances (Rowthorn, 2008). However, it is the subjective perception of the effects (and not an objective assessment) that could lead individuals to come out for or against immigration.

Some theoretical analyses seek to understand how the potential impact of immigration on pay-as-you go systems can affect people's preferences over immigration, and to that end they usually take the "median voter" model used in political economics. The idea is simple: median voters benefit from social security and are consequently in favour of a generous pay-as-you go system, but they are also taxpayers and as such may worry about the impact of immigration on the amount they will have to pay. From a theoretical standpoint, Facchini and Mayda (2009) suggest that income is a key variable in determining preferences over immigration, given the supposed impact of the latter on the social protection system. However, the underlying analytical process is ambivalent. On the one hand, the impact of low-skilled immigration on the funding of social protection will be felt more by high earners, who are most likely to be paying higher income taxes. On the

other hand, if the level of funding remains the same, low-skilled immigration is liable to result in reduced benefits for native-born workers with low incomes.

Furthermore, it seems quite likely that preferences about immigration are influenced not only by economic factors but also by political and cultural attitudes, which may reflect a certain conservatism, an attachment to a certain idea of national identity, or in extreme cases xenophobic feelings towards immigrants.

Most of the empirical work that sets out to deal separately with the different roles played by economic factors and by political/cultural factors is faced with the problem of accounting for the influence of education in each case. As Hainmueller and Hiscox (2007) show with reference to the ESS 2002 (survey of EU countries), educational level is a key determinant of individual opinion about immigration, not only because it influences attitudes toward competition from immigrant workers in the job market but also because it reflects differences in cultural values. The most educated individuals are significantly more amenable to cultural diversity than the others. They are also more inclined to believe in the economic benefits of immigration.

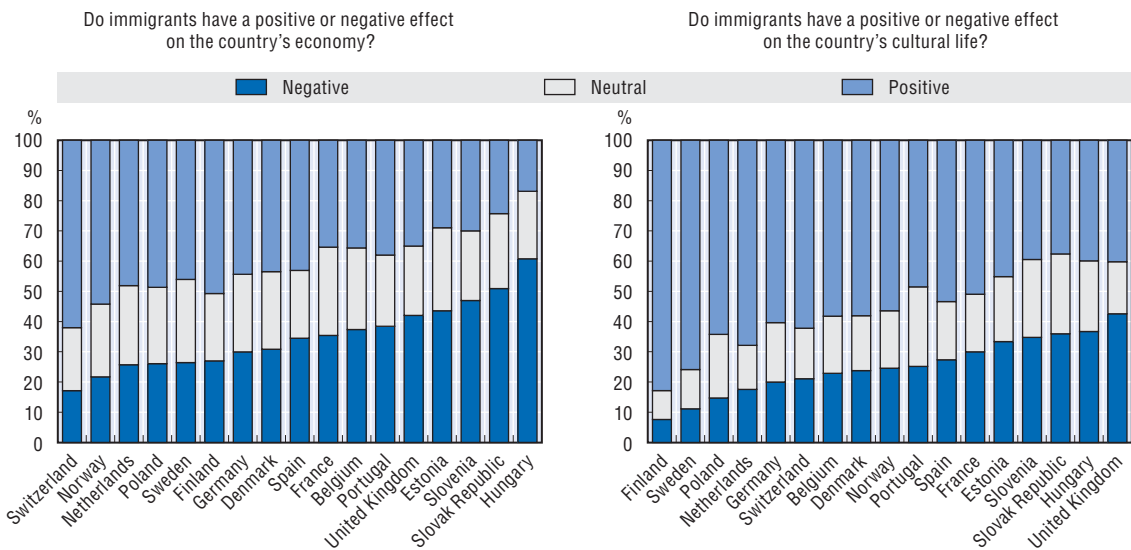
Moreover, given the normally very close correlation between education and income level, it is not always possible to give an accurate assessment of the specific effects of each one on the economic beliefs underlying preferences about immigration. Typically, if benefits are adjusted to balance the budget of the social protection system, those who are less educated and poorer are less favourable towards low-skilled immigration than others, for two reasons: because immigrants might replace them in the labour market, and because their presence might adversely affect the amount of benefit they receive. If, however, the balance is achieved by increasing taxes, rich, educated individuals will be ambiguous towards accepting low-skilled immigration: although they will benefit from the positive impact on the labour market, they will also face tax increases (see Facchini and Mayda, 2009). Empirical analysis is therefore faced with a twofold ambivalence. First, if taxation remains the same, expected impacts for a given educational and income level are identical, given that the correlation between the two variables makes it impossible to distinguish the specific effects of each one. Second, if social security payments remain the same, the effects of the “income” and the “level of education” variables are likely to cancel each other out. It is therefore empirically very difficult to maintain with any certainty that income or education exerts a clear influence in either case.

The two-stage empirical approach adopted in this chapter is intended to resolve a number of problems found in the literature to date. This approach first sets out to analyse the individual determinants of beliefs about the economic and cultural repercussions of immigration. It then goes on to analyse the influence of those beliefs on preferences over migration policy.

The **first-stage** estimate takes account of demographic variables (gender, age), political orientation, level of education (primary, secondary, higher), labour market (employed, inactive, unemployed), as well as variables that reflect the respondent's exposure or proximity to other types of people (rural or urban place of residence, national or foreign origin of respondent and his/her ancestors). The estimated specification also includes dummy variables by country and year to control for unobserved factors at national level (relating to migratory policies, social protection systems, standard of living, etc.) and at different times (economic shocks affecting all countries).

In the case of the ESS survey, which covers European countries only, the two dependent variables examined are the perceived consequences of immigration on the economy and its perceived consequences on the culture. They are graded from 0 (completely negative) to 10 (completely positive). Figure III.7 shows that average opinions tend to be more positive about the impact on the culture than about the impact on the economy. The estimate is based on a standard linear equation and includes three additional variables reflecting exposure to general information and political and social topics from various media (television, radio, the press, etc.). The role of these three instrumental variables in our two-stage procedure is to control the endogenous nature of beliefs underlying preferences over migration policy (see below).

Figure III.7. **Perceived impact of immigration on the economy and the cultural life, 2008**



Source: European Social Survey 2008.

StatLink <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/883173764572>

With the ISSP survey it is possible to extend the analysis to non-European OECD countries. In this survey, the two dependent variables addressed are opinions about the impact of immigration (favourable or unfavourable) on the economy and on cultural life. Because these are discrete variables, it is necessary to employ a non-linear Probit method of estimation. The explanatory variables are very similar to those used for ESS survey estimates.

The **second stage** of the empirical analysis focuses on the determinants of preferences about migration policy. The estimated equation takes account of all the explanatory variables from the first stage (with the exception of instrumental variables) as well as those representing beliefs about the impact of migrations. In the case of the ESS survey, the estimation takes account of the endogenous nature of these belief variables, replacing their observed values with predicted values derived from the first-stage estimates. This is not possible in the case of the ISSP survey, because of a lack of valid instruments for the first-stage estimation.

2.1.1. Overall analysis

Tables III.1 and III.2 present the results of estimates from the ESS and the ISSP survey, respectively. As far as possible, the variables used in the different surveys have been harmonised to facilitate comparison of the results (see Annex III.A1 for a breakdown of countries covered by each survey; see Annex III.A2 for similar results from the WVS survey). In order to highlight differences in the effects of explanatory variables from one country to another, Table III.3 presents the results of estimates for five European countries (France, Germany, Ireland, Spain and the United Kingdom), based on the four waves of the ESS survey, and for three non-European countries (Australia, Japan and the United States), based on the 2003 ISSP survey.

The **first stage** of the analysis reveals a close correlation between determinants of beliefs about the effect of migration, both in terms of its cultural as well as its economic impact (columns 1 and 4 of Table III.1 and columns 1 and 3 of Table III.2). In both cases, political convictions significantly influence the beliefs of respondents: the further they are to the right of the ideological spectrum, the more they see immigration as having a negative impact. It is interesting to note that this finding is significantly more marked with respect to the cultural impact. It should also be noted that the “political positioning” variable has no significant effect at all in Ireland or Japan, and no particular effect on perceptions of the economic impact in Australia or the United States. This is a remarkable finding, which probably reflects a certain consensus on the economic consequences of immigration among the different political parties of these countries. In France and Germany, on the other hand, political differences tend to polarise beliefs about immigration.

The effect of the gender variable differs, depending on the type of impact in question. It seems that women have a more negative perception than men of the impact of migration on the economy but not of its impact on culture.

The way in which age influences these beliefs also varies. The estimation based on the ESS survey shows that the oldest respondents have a more negative perception of the impact of immigration, both on the economy and on culture. As to the estimates from the ISSP survey, while they fail to show that age significantly affects beliefs about the impact of immigration on cultural life, they do indicate that its influence on beliefs about the impact on the economy is contrary to the findings of the ESS survey. These apparently contradictory results reflect the difficulties in the literature to offer a theoretically sound justification of the influence of age, although a certain number of empirical articles agree that older people have a negative perception of the impact of immigration.

The effect of the education variables is in line with expectations. Generally speaking, people with a higher level of education are more inclined to believe that immigration will benefit the economy and culture of their country (Tables III.1 and III.2). This finding seems very robust in all countries surveyed, with the exception of Japan (Table III.3). The individual’s employment situation also seems to be an important determinant. The unemployed have a far more negative perception of the impact of immigration than those in employment.⁸ Being inactive, on the other hand, has no influence one way or another.

Respondents living in rural areas are more likely to believe that immigration will have a negative impact, whereas those who have themselves been migrants are more inclined to expect economic and cultural benefits from it.

Table III.1. **Determinants of beliefs about the impact of immigration and preferences over migration policy, ESS survey, 2002-2008**

Variables	First stage	Second stage		First stage	Second stage	
	Positive impact of immigration on economy	Migration policy and economic benefits of immigration		Positive impact of immigration on cultural life	Migration policy and cultural benefits of immigration	
		Similar immigration	Dissimilar immigration		Similar immigration	Dissimilar immigration
	1	2	3	4	5	6
Positive impact of immigration on the country's economy		-0.136*** (0.009)	-0.168*** (0.008)			
Positive impact of immigration on the country's cultural life					-0.146*** (0.008)	-0.175*** (0.005)
Ideological orientation left-right	-0.098*** (0.023)	0.003 (0.003)	0.014*** (0.002)	-0.163*** (0.029)	-0.008*** (0.003)	-0.001 (0.003)
Women	-0.284*** (0.028)	-0.024*** (0.007)	-0.044*** (0.008)	0.042 (0.064)	0.018** (0.008)	0.011* (0.006)
Age 25-34	-0.257*** (0.047)	0.039*** (0.011)	0.021* (0.012)	-0.212*** (0.058)	0.040*** (0.013)	0.021* (0.012)
Age 35-44	-0.230*** (0.034)	0.041*** (0.013)	0.034** (0.014)	-0.173*** (0.056)	0.047*** (0.015)	0.037** (0.016)
Age 45-54	-0.202*** (0.048)	0.055*** (0.015)	0.071*** (0.016)	-0.317*** (0.078)	0.032** (0.016)	0.039** (0.018)
Age 55-64	-0.361*** (0.063)	0.053*** (0.017)	0.095*** (0.014)	-0.574*** (0.085)	0.011 (0.021)	0.038* (0.020)
Age 65-74	-0.523*** (0.098)	0.078*** (0.014)	0.126*** (0.012)	-0.826*** (0.096)	0.014 (0.016)	0.046*** (0.014)
Age 75+	-0.536*** (0.059)	0.104*** (0.017)	0.156*** (0.011)	-0.922*** (0.094)	0.026* (0.015)	0.059*** (0.015)
Secondary education	0.382*** (0.054)	-0.039*** (0.008)	-0.013** (0.007)	0.411*** (0.088)	-0.021** (0.010)	0.007 (0.008)
Tertiary education	1.335*** (0.118)	-0.064*** (0.015)	-0.033*** (0.013)	1.389*** (0.173)	-0.023 (0.023)	0.014 (0.021)
Inactive	0.054* (0.033)	-0.006 (0.005)	-0.009 (0.009)	0.038 (0.028)	-0.005 (0.005)	-0.009 (0.008)
Unemployed	-0.381*** (0.106)	0.005 (0.005)	-0.023*** (0.007)	-0.235** (0.092)	0.018 (0.011)	-0.005 (0.012)
Rural areas	-0.205*** (0.044)	0.004 (0.006)	0.016** (0.007)	-0.229*** (0.068)	-0.003 (0.006)	0.006 (0.005)
Native-born with foreign-born parents	0.383*** (0.087)	-0.010 (0.019)	-0.006 (0.013)	0.463*** (0.060)	0.010 (0.016)	0.017 (0.011)
Foreign-born with foreign-born parents	1.100*** (0.102)	0.037* (0.021)	0.068*** (0.016)	0.960*** (0.143)	0.041 (0.028)	0.067*** (0.014)
Foreign-born with native-born parents	0.379*** (0.130)	-0.017 (0.028)	-0.028 (0.035)	0.389*** (0.131)	-0.001 (0.028)	-0.013 (0.035)
Exposure to general information, political and social TV shows	0.009 (0.019)			0.013 (0.018)		
Exposure to general information, political and social topics on the radio	0.055*** (0.021)			0.049*** (0.019)		
Exposure to general information, political and social topics on newspapers	0.203*** (0.024)			0.165*** (0.018)		
Observations	120 340	120 340	120 256	120 646	120 646	120 551

Note: ***, **, * represent significance levels at 1, 5 and 10%, respectively. Robust standard deviations in brackets, corrected for heteroscedasticity clustered by country. Maximum likelihood test for the joint estimation of first and second-stage equations. The Amamiya-Lee-Newey overidentification test for instruments does not reject the chosen instruments. The Wald test rejects at the 1% level the null hypothesis that the attitude variable is exogenous. For the second stage, the marginal effects are reported at the mean for the continuous variables. All regressions include dummy variables for country and year. The reference categories are: male, age 15-24, primary education, employed, urban environment, native-born with native-born parents.

"Similar immigration": immigration of an ethnic origin that is similar to the majority of residents.

"Dissimilar immigration": immigration of an ethnic origin that is different from the majority of residents.

StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/884625737025>

Table III.2. **Determinants of beliefs about the impact of immigration and preferences over migration policy, ISSP survey, 2003**

Variables	Beliefs	Migration policy	Beliefs	Migration policy
	Positive impact of immigration on economy	Wishing a reduction of immigration	Positive impact of immigration on cultural life	Wishing a reduction of immigration
	1	2	3	4
Positive impact of immigration on the country's economy		-0.334*** (0.017)		
Positive impact of immigration on the country's cultural life				-0.343*** (0.016)
Ideological orientation left-right	-0.037*** (0.008)	0.066*** (0.012)	-0.061*** (0.011)	0.061*** (0.010)
Women	-0.056*** (0.008)	0.006 (0.009)	0.016 (0.011)	0.028*** (0.008)
Age 25-34	0.000 (0.018)	0.007 (0.016)	-0.036** (0.018)	-0.004 (0.015)
Age 35-44	0.040** (0.019)	0.046*** (0.016)	-0.019 (0.021)	0.035** (0.016)
Age 45-54	0.081*** (0.020)	0.058*** (0.018)	-0.003 (0.018)	0.043** (0.017)
Age 55-64	0.097*** (0.027)	0.092*** (0.017)	-0.026 (0.026)	0.064*** (0.017)
Age 65-74	0.106*** (0.025)	0.091*** (0.020)	-0.011 (0.029)	0.065*** (0.019)
Age 75+	0.100*** (0.031)	0.113*** (0.026)	-0.052 (0.038)	0.078*** (0.027)
Secondary education	0.068*** (0.020)	-0.080*** (0.015)	0.070*** (0.016)	-0.076*** (0.012)
Tertiary education	0.155*** (0.018)	-0.182*** (0.014)	0.178*** (0.017)	-0.169*** (0.013)
Inactive	-0.003 (0.011)	0.004 (0.010)	-0.019 (0.012)	-0.004 (0.009)
Unemployed	-0.065*** (0.015)	0.036 (0.023)	-0.045** (0.019)	0.042** (0.020)
Rural areas	-0.038*** (0.009)	0.024*** (0.009)	-0.049*** (0.012)	0.022** (0.009)
Native-born with foreign-born parents	0.162*** (0.017)	-0.100*** (0.016)	0.150*** (0.014)	-0.106*** (0.014)
Foreign-born with foreign-born parents	0.266*** (0.033)	-0.222*** (0.037)	0.185*** (0.037)	-0.251*** (0.044)
Foreign-born with native-born parents	0.157*** (0.038)	-0.139 (0.086)	0.029 (0.058)	-0.192*** (0.072)
Observations	24 923	23 034	25 302	23 292

Note: ***, **, * represent significance levels at 1, 5 and 10%, respectively. Robust standard deviations in brackets, corrected for heteroscedasticity clustered by country. Maximum Likelihood Estimation. Marginal effects are reported at the mean for the continuous variables. All regressions include dummy variables for country. The reference categories are: male, age 15-24, primary education, employed, urban environment, native-born with native-born parents.

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Table III.3. **Determinants of beliefs about the impact of immigration and preferences about immigration policy, analysis by country**

	Positive impact of immigration on economy	Positive impact of immigration on cultural life	Ideological orientation left-right	Secondary education	Tertiary education	Inactive	Unemployed	Observations
<i>European countries (ESS 2002, 2004, 2006 et 2008)</i>								
Germany								
Positive impact of immigration on economy			-0.172***	0.248	0.994***	-0.027	-0.703***	9 573
Wishing a reduction of immigration	-0.149***		0.020**	-0.026	-0.054	-0.017	-0.011	9 557
Positive impact of immigration on cultural life			-0.244***	0.294	1.053***	-0.011	-0.393***	9 732
Wishing a reduction of immigration		-0.180***	-0.007	0.018	0.035	-0.010	0.012	9 713
Spain								
Positive impact of immigration on economy			-0.124***	0.497***	1.194***	0.130	-0.341**	5 442
Wishing a reduction of immigration	-0.100**		0.029***	-0.026	-0.139**	-0.007	-0.045	5 429
Positive impact of immigration on cultural life			-0.176***	0.336***	0.863***	0.061	-0.090	5 405
Wishing a reduction of immigration		-0.126**	0.018	-0.021	-0.122*	-0.007	-0.021	5 390
France								
Positive impact of immigration on economy			-0.150***	0.577***	1.691***	0.150*	-0.086	5 872
Wishing a reduction of immigration	-0.204***		0.006	-0.006	0.022	0.011	-0.020	5 897
Positive impact of immigration on cultural life			-0.247***	0.632***	1.818***	0.124	0.162	5 886
Wishing a reduction of immigration		-0.185***	-0.011*	0.001	0.031	-0.001	0.027	5 911
Great-Britain								
Positive impact of immigration on economy			-0.076***	0.341	1.579***	0.200**	-0.083	5 343
Wishing a reduction of immigration	-0.178***		0.020***	-0.153	-0.173	0.024	-0.085**	5 347
Positive impact of immigration on cultural life			-0.120***	0.085	1.544***	0.161*	0.081	5 347
Wishing a reduction of immigration		-0.178***	0.007	-0.153	-0.102	0.015	-0.043	5 355
Ireland								
Positive impact of immigration on economy			0.017	0.510***	1.438***	-0.031	-0.419*	5 293
Wishing a reduction of immigration	-0.133***		0.009*	-0.019	-0.047	-0.015	0.056	5 276
Positive impact of immigration on cultural life			0.012	0.561***	1.613***	-0.005	-0.143	5 259
Wishing a reduction of immigration		-0.143***	0.008*	0.003	-0.004	-0.014	0.082*	5 237
<i>Non-European countries (ISSP 2003)</i>								
Australia								
Positive impact of immigration on economy			-0.012	0.069**	0.126***	-0.021	-0.194**	1 985
Wishing a reduction of immigration	-0.400***		0.053***	-0.085**	-0.137***	-0.009	0.022	1 864
Positive impact of immigration on cultural life			-0.046***	0.103***	0.127***	-0.036	-0.115	2 013
Wishing a reduction of immigration		-0.396***	0.041***	-0.067*	-0.132***	-0.010	0.065	1 889
United States								
Positive impact of immigration on economy			-0.019	0.115**	0.237***	-0.018	-0.100	1 177
Wishing a reduction of immigration	-0.328***		0.060***	-0.023	-0.094	-0.000	0.106	1 073
Positive impact of immigration on cultural life			-0.053***	0.012	0.220***	-0.069*	-0.107	1 183
Wishing a reduction of immigration		-0.363***	0.045**	-0.038	-0.072	-0.033	0.110	1 076
Japan								
Positive impact of immigration on economy			-0.044	-0.023	0.052	-0.110***	-0.209***	880
Wishing a reduction of immigration	-0.188***		0.058*	-0.077	-0.163***	0.027	0.142	744
Positive impact of immigration on cultural life			-0.019	-0.068*	-0.002	0.007	-0.143***	872
Wishing a reduction of immigration		-0.252***	0.056*	-0.089*	-0.137**	0.036	0.145	743

Note: ***, **, * represent significance levels at 1, 5 and 10%, respectively. The significance is evaluated at the mean of robust standard deviations (not reported). The estimation methods, the variables included in the estimations and the reference categories are the same as for Table III.1 (European countries, ESS survey) and III.2 (non-European countries, ISSP survey), respectively. For the European countries: simultaneous estimation of the two equations; for the non-European countries, the estimation was done separately without taking into account the endogeneity of the attitude variables. In order to make the presentation as clear as possible, we only report the coefficients of key variables for determining attitudes and immigration preferences, namely: the type of attitude regarding the impact of immigration (on the economy or culture), the political orientation, the level of education and employment status. The other variables (see Tables III.1 and III.2) have also been included in the estimation.

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Lastly, two or three instrumental variables used in the estimates from the ESS survey are influential in shaping beliefs about the consequences of immigration for the economy and cultural life. It seems that exposure to radio programmes and newspaper or magazine articles on current political and social issues encourages belief in the benefits of immigration. More surprisingly, time spent watching television programmes on the same subjects has no significant influence on these beliefs.

The **second-stage** estimates are concerned with the determinants of preferences over migration policy (see columns 2, 3, 5 and 6 of Table III.1, and columns 2 and 4 of Table III.2). They are used first of all to determine the extent to which beliefs shape preferences over migration policy and then (in the case of the ESS survey) to distinguish between the variables' direct influence on preferences and their indirect influence, i.e. the influence mediated through beliefs.

An initial general overview of the results shows that these beliefs exert considerable influence, whichever survey is considered (including the *World Value Survey*, see Annex III.A2). The belief that immigration has a positive impact leads to a desire for more open migration policies. The influence appears to be rather more marked where the beliefs have to do with the impact on cultural life. Mayda (2006) and Facchini and Mayda (2008) have also shown that people are more willing to welcome immigrants if they believe that immigration has a positive impact on the host country's economy and culture. Malchow-Møller *et al.* (2008) pursue this analysis further, showing that individuals who believe that natives compete with immigrants in the labour market are significantly more opposed to immigration. Moreover, according to their analysis opposition to immigration is greater when the respondent is unemployed or living below the poverty threshold.

The ESS survey provides a means of distinguishing between preferences over immigration according to the type of migration in question, i.e. whether the immigrants are "of the same ethnic or racial origin as most of the resident population" or rather "of a different ethnic or racial origin from that of most of the resident population". When the migration policy applies to immigrants of a different ethnic origin from that of the majority, it seems that the effect of beliefs, whether about economic or cultural consequences, is much greater. These results show – and as far as we know the point has never been highlighted in previous work on the subject – that respondents demand more in terms of economic or cultural benefits from immigrants of a different ethnic origin than from those of a similar one.

The country analysis presented in Table III.3 confirms the robustness of this result. In European countries the influence of beliefs is greater in France, the United Kingdom and Germany (in descending order) than in Ireland or Spain. All things being equal, this implies that French, British and German natives demand greater benefits from immigration to accept a more open migration policy. Outside Europe, the English-speaking countries (Australia and the United States) are quite distinct from Japan, where beliefs have less influence in shaping preferences over migration policy.

Part of the influence of individual characteristics on preferences is actually mediated through beliefs about the impact of immigration. By analysing the coefficients from the second-stage estimation of the ESS, it is possible, for a given belief, to gain a more precise appreciation of the effect of individual variables on preferences about immigration.

Ideological orientation still exerts some direct influence on preferences over migration policy, much as it did in the first-stage estimation. If expectations over the economic or

cultural effect of migrations are controlled for, it emerges that, all else being equal, right-wing voters are less inclined to support an open migration policy. These findings are similar to those of *inter alia* Kessler and Freeman (2005), Mayda (2006), Facchini and Mayda (2008), Miguet (2008) and Malchow-Møller *et al.* (2008).⁹

The effects of gender are found to be much less clear-cut. In the case of the ESS survey, where the belief variable relates to the impact of immigration on the economy, it seems that women are on average more in favour of an open migration system, particularly if it is bound to favour migrants whose ethnic origin is different from that of the majority. But where the belief variable relates to the impact of immigration on cultural life, it seems that women are on average less in favour of an open migration policy. The estimate with data from the ISSP survey confirms this finding. The ambiguity of these results finds an echo in the literature, which has difficulty providing a coherent analysis grid for the potential effects of gender on attitudes towards migration policy.

The findings of recent literature present the same ambiguity. Bauer *et al.* (2000), O'Rourke and Sinnott (2006), Facchini and Mayda (2008), for example, fail to provide any illustration of a specific gender-related effect on attitudes to migration, whereas Mayda (2006), Hatton (2007), Malchow-Møller *et al.* (2008) conclude that women are less open to immigration than their male counterparts. Explicit control of the endogenous nature of beliefs on the impact of migration evidently fails to shed light on this matter and further analyses appear to be needed before a conclusion can be reached.

Regarding the impact of age, it is impossible to draw any conclusions one way or the other from the first-stage estimates. The second-stage estimate, however, reveals that age has a systematically negative effect on attitudes towards opening up to immigrants. In other words, for a given belief about the economic and cultural effects of migration, older people will be in favour of more restrictive migration policies. This finding is particularly apparent when the immigrants concerned are of a different origin than that of the majority (columns 3 and 6 of Table III.1). Empirical literature also finds that in most cases, older people have a more negative view of immigration (see Kessler and Freeman, 2005, Mayda, 2006, O'Rourke and Sinnott, 2006, and Malchow-Møller *et al.*, 2008). Facchini and Mayda (2008) confirm these findings for the year 1995, but not for 2003. While theoretical attempts to link the effect of age on people's opinions to economic concerns about immigration are not conclusive, we cannot exclude the possibility that the observed effect of age on individual opinions captures non-economic factors that have to do with political or cultural preferences.

The effect of education on preferences about immigration appears to be one of the most robust results, whichever survey is considered. By and large, more educated people are more in favour of an open immigration policy. This finding emerges for any belief variable in the case of the ISSP survey (and also the WVS survey, see Annex III.A2). In the case of the ESS, this finding is all the more telling in that it emerged despite controls on the effect of education on the perception of the economic impact of immigration. It must, however, be put into perspective, given that the effect of education on preferences over migration policies partly disappears when the perception of the cultural impact of immigration is controlled for (columns 5 and 6 of Table III.1).

Likewise, Daniels and Von der Ruhr (2003) show that skills level is a robust determinant of immigration policy preferences and that the least skilled workers are most inclined to favour restrictive policies. For her part, Mayda (2006) shows that in countries

where native-born workers are higher skilled than immigrants, skilled workers are more in favour of immigration, while unskilled workers will be opposed to it. O'Rourke and Sinnott (2006) corroborate these conclusions, as well as the theoretical predictions of Bilal *et al.* (2003) that growing income inequalities aggravate hostility towards immigrants. Lastly, Ortega and Polavieja (2009) build upon these findings by studying the link between the level of competition between native-born workers and immigrants in the labour market and attitudes towards immigration. They show that individuals employed in sectors where such competition is less pronounced are more supportive of immigration than others. Moreover, their estimates suggest that the protection provided by a qualification specific to each job is clearly different from that provided by level of education. These findings highlight the need to make more of the distinction between level of school/university education and level of skill required for a particular job in future research into migration policy preferences.

As to employment status, nearly all our findings tend to show that its effect on attitudes towards migration policy is actually mediated through the belief variable. The coefficients for the "inactive" and "unemployed" variables are most often insignificant, whichever survey or belief variable is considered. Two exceptions should be noted. First, in the ESS survey, the unemployed were on average significantly less hostile to immigrants of a different ethnic origin from that of the majority (but not to the others), which may at first sight seem counter-intuitive. Second, according to the ISSP survey, if the belief variable relates to impact on cultural considerations, the unemployed tend on average to support a more restrictive migration policy. These findings are consistent with those given above with respect to education, and more generally with those of Hainmueller and Hiscox (2007). The latter show that, while educational level (closely related to employment status) is a key determinant of individual opinion about immigration, the relationship between the two not only involves fear of competition from immigrants in the labour market, but also reflects differences in cultural values.

Regarding the variable on the respondents' place of residence, the findings tend to show that those living in rural areas are, all else being equal, more in favour of a restrictive migration policy. The effect is, however, greatly reduced in the case of the ESS when controlling for the endogenous nature of beliefs about the impact of migrations.

More generally, although along the same lines, people who have lived or have family roots abroad may be more open to other cultures and therefore more supportive of immigration. The first-stage estimate showed that such people have a more positive perception of the economic and cultural impact of migrations. In the case of the ISSP, the findings show that individuals who have been migrants in the past are also more supportive of an open migration policy. In some cases these findings are in sharp contrast with those of the second-stage estimate derived from the ESS. This discrepancy arises because the latter takes account of the endogenous nature of beliefs about immigration in its estimates, unlike other empirical studies in this area.¹⁰ These findings thus give rise to two different interpretations. One is that former immigrants have an extremely positive view about the impact of immigration compared with other individuals exhibiting similar preferences over migration policy. The alternative interpretation is that former immigrants may on average be more hostile to immigration than other individuals with similar beliefs about the benefits of immigration. These results thus serve to qualify and refine those previously found in the literature (see Haubert and Fussel, 2006; Hatton, 2007, and Facchini and Mayda, 2008).¹¹

2.2. The question of immigrants' access to social and political rights

Public preferences extend beyond the question of migration policy itself to that of the social entitlements immigrants might enjoy. This very sensitive issue is particularly important, in that it is related to the economic and fiscal impact of migration and hence to preferences over migration policy.

The most recent ESS survey (2008) has a special module on social services and benefits with questions on preferences about immigrants' access to social services. Table III.4 shows that in most of the countries surveyed, more than a third of respondents feel that immigrants' eligibility for social entitlements should be conditional upon their becoming citizens of the country or even that they should never be granted such eligibility. This proportion is particularly high (around 50% or even higher) in the Central European countries (Hungary, Slovenia and Poland), the Netherlands and Finland but is much lower in Portugal, Switzerland, Spain and France (30% or less). The Nordic countries (Sweden, Denmark and Norway) have the highest proportion of respondents in favour of granting social benefits to immigrants without requiring them to have paid social security contributions first. (In other words, immigrants should be allowed benefits as soon as they arrive or after a year's residence, whether they have worked or not.)

Table III.4. **Different countries' public opinion on conditions governing immigrants' eligibility to the same social entitlements enjoyed by those already resident in the country, 2008**

Per cent

	Without condition of contribution to the social protection system	After a year of contribution to the social protection system	Access restricted to the citizens or native-born only
Portugal	21	61	18
Switzerland	25	56	19
Spain	20	54	27
France	23	46	31
Sweden	36	32	32
Belgium	17	48	35
Germany	21	43	36
Denmark	30	32	38
Norway	26	34	39
Slovak Republic	12	48	40
United Kingdom	11	48	40
Finland	18	37	45
Netherlands	17	36	47
Poland	13	39	48
Slovenia	9	33	58
Hungary	5	30	65

Note: Data are from the ESS 2008 survey. The first column groups the categories "Immediately on arrival" and "After living in the country for a year, whether or not they have worked". The third column groups the categories "Once they have become a citizen" and "Never".

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Preferences about immigrants' right to benefit from a social protection system can generally be put down to individual characteristics. Table III.5 first of all shows, quite logically, that people who think immigrants are net beneficiaries of the social protection system are more hostile to the idea of them receiving social benefits, whether as a matter of course or even after they have worked and paid taxes for a year.

In the case of the United States, Ilias *et al.* (2008) also show that the perception of the cost of immigration is the main determinant of people's preferences in this matter. It seems, nevertheless, that the trade-off between immigration and social protection is not an issue in certain countries.

Table III.5. **Individual determinants of opinions about immigrants' eligibility for social benefits, ESS Survey 2008**

	When should access to social benefits be given to immigrants				
	Upon their arrival	After a year of residence, whether they have worked or not	After having worked and paid taxes during a year	After becoming citizens	Never
Net contribution of immigrants to the social protection system	0.017*** (0.001)	0.014*** (0.001)	0.015*** (0.001)	-0.034*** (0.003)	-0.012*** (0.001)
Ideological orientation left-right	-0.007*** (0.001)	-0.005*** (0.001)	-0.006*** (0.001)	0.013*** (0.002)	0.005*** (0.001)
Women	0.004*** (0.001)	0.003*** (0.001)	0.003*** (0.001)	-0.008*** (0.003)	-0.003*** (0.001)
Age 25-34	-0.014*** (0.004)	-0.012*** (0.003)	-0.015*** (0.005)	0.030*** (0.008)	0.011*** (0.004)
Age 35-44	-0.006 (0.005)	-0.005 (0.004)	-0.005 (0.005)	0.012 (0.011)	0.004 (0.004)
Age 45-54	-0.013** (0.005)	-0.011** (0.005)	-0.014** (0.006)	0.028** (0.012)	0.010** (0.004)
Age 55-64	-0.010* (0.005)	-0.009* (0.005)	-0.010* (0.006)	0.022* (0.012)	0.008* (0.004)
Age 65-74	-0.017*** (0.006)	-0.015*** (0.005)	-0.019** (0.008)	0.037** (0.014)	0.014** (0.005)
Age 75+	-0.014*** (0.004)	-0.012*** (0.004)	-0.015*** (0.005)	0.031*** (0.010)	0.011*** (0.003)
Secondary education	0.016*** (0.003)	0.013*** (0.002)	0.015*** (0.003)	-0.032*** (0.005)	-0.011*** (0.003)
Tertiary education	0.040*** (0.005)	0.030*** (0.003)	0.026*** (0.003)	-0.073*** (0.008)	-0.023*** (0.004)
Inactive	-0.008 (0.005)	-0.006 (0.004)	-0.007* (0.004)	0.015 (0.009)	0.005 (0.003)
Unemployed	-0.013* (0.007)	-0.011* (0.006)	-0.014* (0.008)	0.028* (0.015)	0.010 (0.006)
Rural areas	-0.016*** (0.004)	-0.012*** (0.003)	-0.012*** (0.004)	0.030*** (0.008)	0.010*** (0.003)
Native-born with foreign-born parents	0.015*** (0.001)	0.012*** (0.001)	0.011*** (0.001)	-0.029*** (0.003)	-0.009*** (0.001)
Foreign-born with foreign-born parents	0.062*** (0.012)	0.042*** (0.008)	0.022*** (0.002)	-0.099*** (0.015)	-0.027*** (0.005)
Foreign-born with native-born parents	0.036** (0.016)	0.026** (0.011)	0.018*** (0.002)	-0.062*** (0.023)	-0.018*** (0.006)
Observations	27 661	27 661	27 661	27 661	27 661

Note: ***, **, * represent significance levels at 1, 5 and 10%, respectively. Robust standard deviations in brackets, corrected for heteroscedasticity clustered by country. Maximum Likelihood estimation. Marginal effects are reported at the mean for the continuous variables. All regressions include dummy variables for country. The reference categories are: male, age 15-24, primary education, employed, urban environment, born in the country of parents who were also born in the country.

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Generally speaking, the people likely to be most dependent on social benefits more often wish to restrict immigrants' access to such benefits, probably because they feel they are in competition with them for such benefits. This seems to be the case of the elderly, for example, and, to a lesser extent, of the unemployed. In the case of the European Union, this finding has also been highlighted by Malchow-Møller *et al.* (2008), among others. In contrast, more educated people, who are less likely to receive a significant part of their income from the social protection system, are much more amenable to the idea of making immigrants eligible for benefits as a matter of course. Right-wing political sympathies are associated with the view that immigrants' entitlement to social benefits should be more restricted. On the other hand, living in a town or being of foreign origin is associated with a more liberal attitude.

The nature of the social protection system may also influence preferences about migration policy. Opinion surveys generally indicate that opposition to immigration is strongest in countries where the social security system is most protective and where the labour market is most rigid. From their examination of votes on immigration issues in the American Congress between 1979 and 2006, Milner and Tingley (2008) discover an interesting ambiguity. On one hand, representatives of states where public spending is high tend to be more pro-immigration; on the other hand, representatives from the wealthier districts within those same states tend to be more reluctant to accept immigration. Betts (2002) finds the reverse for Australia. To explain the falling-off of anti-immigration feelings between 1996 and 2001-2002,¹² she highlights the role of declining unemployment and also that of the legislative reform disqualifying immigrants from drawing social benefits upon their arrival. She also emphasises that Australians' subjective perceptions exaggerate actual cutbacks in social spending.

Gorodzeisky and Semyonov (2009) adopt a more general approach, maintaining that opinions hostile to non-European immigrants actually have two distinct origins: first, the refusal to grant these minorities access to national territory, and second, the refusal to grant them similar rights to the ones enjoyed by nationals. Their findings, based on the ESS 2002 survey, tend to show that the rejection to grant them equal rights is less marked than the rejection to admit them onto national territory. Echoing the previous findings on opinions about migration policy, the authors highlight the clear distinction between attitudes towards foreigners in general and attitudes towards ethnic minorities. Those expressing a preference for a restrictive migration policy are also more inclined to deny immigrants the rights enjoyed by the native-born population. Moreover, the authors show that women, older people, unemployed, and people on the right of the political spectrum tend on average to be less open to migration and more inclined to restrict social benefits for immigrants. In contrast, those with a higher level of education or a higher income are more favourably disposed towards migrants, whether in terms of allowing them onto national territory or granting them rights. It is an interesting fact that the section of the population that originates from non-EU countries also seems to lean more towards restricting the right of migrants either to enter national territory or to receive social benefits.

Lastly, it must be pointed out that Gorodzeisky and Semyonov (2009) take the notion of "rights" to refer to a "system of rights and privileges". This construction encompasses the notion of social entitlements (in the sense access to the social protection system) but goes much further. More than social rights, the question it raises concerns the political rights granted to the immigrant when he or she is granted citizenship.

3. Interest groups and their influence on migration policy

The above has mainly highlighted the role of perceptions about the costs and benefits of immigration for residents of the host country. It is natural, then, that people transmit their voices heard through the various channels available to them, whether these are labour unions, political parties, or other pressure groups. On a theoretical level, Freeman (2002) shows, for example, that immigration policy can be interpreted as the outcome of the struggle between pro- and anti-immigration lobbies.

Immigration offers capital holders (or employers) easier access to the labour they need and perhaps also an opportunity to cut staff costs (3.1). On the other hand, foreign workers are likely to be in competition with native-born workers in the labour market. In this context, the attitude of labour unions toward the issue of immigration is still ambiguous despite the considerable progress made in recent years (3.2). Other groups, such as religious organisations or immigrants' associations, generally speak out in favour of immigrants (3.3). These different pressure groups produce cleavages within political parties, which often transcend the right/left split (3.4).

3.1. Employers' associations

"Immigration policy today is driven by businesses that need more workers – skilled and unskilled, legal and illegal." (Goldsborough, 2000)

Empirical studies of the impact which employers' associations may have on migration policies are relatively scarce (compared with those focusing on labour unions), and they relate mainly to the United States. Some of their findings are quite interesting. In a study that looked into the impact of lobbies on the shaping of immigration policies, Facchini *et al.* (2008) found that barriers to immigration are significantly weaker in sectors of activity where employers' associations are most influential. Their estimates suggest that a 10% hike in lobbying expenditure by groups of business leaders will spark an increase of 2.3% to 7.4% in the number of work visas issued for firms in the sector concerned. From the same perspective, Hanson and Spilimbergo (2001) show that controls at the Mexico-US border are less stringent when demand for workers rises in US border states. Indeed, as the economic situation improves for sectors that make substantial use of immigrant labour in the West of the United States, the intensity of controls at the Mexican border seems to relax significantly.

Comparing the situations in Germany, France and the United Kingdom, Menz (2007) notes that German and British employers are quicker to try to influence immigration policies in their favour. A consensus has emerged among German and British employers' associations that immigration is necessary to resolve labour shortages in certain sectors.

Employers' preference for labour immigration is also closely dependent on the structure of the economy in question. As the British economy has moved steadily into tertiary activities, employers have promoted policies that will favour the recruitment of foreign workers with the skills needed to meet shortages in engineering, information technology and finance. On the other hand, French businesses, less concerned with these labour market constraints, were until recently less inclined to weigh in on migration policies. German entrepreneurs, especially those in the metalworking sector, have given strong support to immigration of highly-skilled workers to reinforce their specialisation in high value-added products.

3.2. Labour unions

Labour union interest in migration policies is less clear-cut than that of employers' associations. A number of considerations might prompt unions either to welcome or to oppose immigrant workers. On the one hand, the unions may adopt a pro-immigration position to protect the weakest, reaffirm the international nature of the class struggle or, more pragmatically, increase their support base. On the other hand, the desire to protect local workers from downward pressure on wages caused by a rise in the number of job-seekers may make the unions hostile to immigration. This fundamental ambiguity explains the diversity and the occasional contradictions in the various studies on the subject, empirical and historical alike.

Of the studies that take a historical perspective, the majority focuses on the changing attitude of unions towards migrant workers over the course of time: broadly hostile to waves of immigration at first (Goldin, 1993), most of the big American and European unions ultimately opted to recruit immigrants as new members rather than keep trying to exclude them from the labour market (Haus, 1995; Watts, 2002). A few case studies shed light on the reasons for this shift.

Haus (1999) looks at the changing stance of unions in France from the interwar period to the end of the 20th century. Historically, French unions supported the restrictive immigration measures imposed in the 1930s, and then went on to oppose the *laissez-faire* policy introduced in the post-war period (the "glorious 30 years") to offset labour shortages in the construction and automotive industries, among others. On the other hand, since the 1980s and 1990s, the big labour confederations have consistently fought the immigration constraints imposed by successive French governments. Yet this does not mean that French unions have suddenly been seized with altruism. The Haus study in effect demonstrates that the unions are still very leery of open borders¹³ and that they would be quick to oppose any *laissez-faire* policy like that of the post-war era. What has changed is the unions' perception of the government's ability to control migration flows effectively. According to the figures presented by Haus, French unions are convinced that official control over immigration flows, weak at the best of times, has been further undermined by globalisation, technical progress, and the shifting nature of the flows. The unions have therefore modified their position on immigration policy in light of their own interests. They argue that the restrictive policies of recent decades have not only failed to achieve their declared objectives of slowing arrivals and boosting departures, but are making it increasingly difficult for immigrants to obtain legal status. That situation leads automatically to a hike in the number of undocumented immigrants, and a concomitant drop in union membership. On a secondary note, Haus also shows that human rights considerations and the fear of being associated with extreme-right parties may also influence the posture of some labour federations.

Looking at Australian experience over the long period from 1830 to 1988, Quinlan and Lever-Tracy (1990) find the same shift in union attitudes, but with quite different motivations. While the Australian unions strongly supported the "White Australia" policy prevailing at the beginning of the 20th century, which led to exclusion of Asian immigrants, they gradually abandoned their anti-Asian bias after the Second World War and officially adopted an antiracist stance in the name of class solidarity and the integration of minorities. The motives of the Australian unions therefore seem quite

different from those of their French counterparts. Quinlan and Lever-Tracy offer four specific factors to explain this shift:

- *Structural changes in the Australian economy after the Second World War.* Rapid economic growth, associated with technical progress, generated new and higher-skilled job opportunities for native-born Australian workers. These opportunities were not open to immigrant workers because of the language barriers, the types of skills they possessed and the fact that their qualifications were not recognised.
- *Australia's shifting position in world trade.* While Australia had previously had a privileged trading relationship with Europe, progressive economic integration into the Asia-Pacific region has made Australians more receptive to Asian immigration.
- *The growing rejection of racism among parties of the left, with which the unions identify.*
- *The integration of immigrant workers and the resulting boost to union power.* This motivation is similar to that observed in France.

Can we conclude, then, that unions today are routinely pro-immigration and that they will therefore support more liberal migration policies? The empirical evidence for answering this question is far from clear. In the case of the United States, for example, Haus (1995) maintains that what he calls the “transnationalisation” of the labour market in the early post-war decades made the union constituency more diverse and international. As he sees it, this explains why the migration policies instituted in the United States during recent economic recessions have been much less restrictive than those of the 1920s and 1930s: the unions no longer have the same immigration preferences, and are now more interested in organising foreign-born workers. Yet Facchini *et al.* (2008) show that a 1% increase in the unionisation rate¹⁴ leads to a cut of 2.6 to 10.4% in the number of visas issued in the sectors examined. With the current state of research in economics and sociology, ambiguity remains.

3.3. Non-governmental organisations

Non-economic interest groups are also concerned about migration policy. Throughout history, associations of recently-arrived immigrants or those from the same country of origin have been aligned against patriotic or “nativist” organisations (Fuchs, 1990). Today, groups hostile to immigration invoke countries’ limited capacities to absorb newcomers and the threat immigration poses to national identity. At the other end of the spectrum is a vast array of civil liberties organisations that support pro-immigration policies (Schuck, 1998). Generally speaking, analysis of electoral returns in parliamentary votes in the United States and Europe quite clearly shows the influence of non-economic interest groups on immigration policy (Kesler, 1999; Money, 1999).

3.4. Political parties

While the conventional right/left classification of political leanings seems to have little relevance to the question of immigration, we need to explain why immigration policies, although typified by some restrictions in recent years, have been relatively more flexible than might have been expected in light of historical precedent. This outcome is due primarily to the fact that the benefits of immigration are concentrated in the hands of a small number of powerfully organised stakeholders, while any costs of immigration are distributed over a much larger number of individuals, and its opponents are divided. For

this reason, Freeman (1995, 2001) sees immigration policy as the product of “client politics”, with policymakers being “captured” by pro-immigration groups.

Yet, some observers reject this interpretation of the discrepancy between public opinion as expressed in surveys (which show it to be largely hostile to immigration) and the policies actually pursued. In their study of British immigration policy, Stratham and Geddes (2006) find that pro-immigration groups are more visible than their anti-immigration counterparts.¹⁵ On the other hand, their analysis shows quite clearly that pro-immigration lobbies do not have the power Freeman credits them with to influence government policies on immigration. On the contrary, governments do not seem to be greatly influenced by such lobbying when drawing up immigration policies, which, in the case of the United Kingdom, betray a restrictive bias.¹⁶ Looking at the United Kingdom and Ireland, Smith (2008) notes that in recent years these two countries have taken in large numbers of migrant workers, primarily from new member countries of the European Union. Moreover, and in contrast to the majority of continental European countries, neither the United Kingdom nor Ireland has seen the emergence of powerful parties on the far right.¹⁷ It is the conventional centre-right and centre-left parties, then, that have set policies designed to control migration flows and to integrate immigrants. The analysis argues that the differences between the two parties are essentially rhetorical: although the Conservative Party has often adopted a tougher tone on immigration, the policies of successive governments over the past 40 years have not been significantly different (Favell, 1998). This tendency to consensus is even more marked in Ireland, where the two main parties (the centre-left Fianna Fail and the Christian Democratic Fine Gael) are ideologically very close on this matter.¹⁸ Smith (2008) suggests that the tendency to consensus in both countries is largely the result of two factors. First, the main governing parties all have a positive view of globalisation and its benefits. Second, at a time when extreme-right politics are marginalised, the political gains to be had from a more restrictive immigration policy are outweighed by the potential costs of alienating the centrist electorate. This study offers a striking contrast with France, for example, where the main party on the extreme right, the Front National, continued its steady electoral advances until 2002.

Breunig and Luedtke (2008) confirm the conclusion that immigration policy – or at least political parties’ immigration preferences – are largely independent of the left/right split. Their findings are particularly telling inasmuch as their analysis is based on a panel of 18 OECD countries¹⁹ over the period 1987-1999. They suggest that the gap between public opinion, which is majoritarian against immigration, and the positions actually adopted by political parties can be explained by the strength of institutional checks on majoritarian sentiment. These institutional factors determine the leeway given to anti-immigration politicians, enabling them to make their voices heard and influencing the preferences of political parties towards embracing greater restrictions on migration flows or imposing more rigorous conditions for obtaining citizenship.²⁰ In systems where there are many such checks, political parties will be influenced more by actors in favour of immigration. If, on the other hand, majoritarian sentiment is less constrained, the positions of the parties will be decidedly more restrictive. The institutional checks suggested by the authors include:

- *Electoral rules:* if a country uses the proportional representation system, or if a party need only gain a low share of the vote to win a seat in parliament, extremist parties will do better.

- *The composition of the legislative body:* The political clout of majoritarian sentiment grows with the number of parties represented (a large number of small parties can exploit the immigration issue to attract voters), the degree of polarisation (an extremist party has more opportunities to exploit anti-immigration sentiment), and the size of the majority.
- *Veto on executive power:* Many such vetoes are available to the judiciary. Judicial review for the constitutionality of laws comes naturally into mind, but the role of the lower courts is also important, as they are more inclined to defend the rights of minorities and provide a platform for pro-immigration groups.

The empirical analysis provided by Breunig and Luedtke (2008) lends strong support to these theoretical intuitions. The authors also note that the major political parties of countries built by immigration (Australia, Canada or the United States) are on average more pro-immigration than those of the other countries examined.

4. The role of the media and the weight of beliefs in shaping public opinion

Media influence on public opinion has been the subject of much research by political scientists and sociologists. A consensus has emerged that recognises the unifying impact of the media on public opinion and the consequent falling away of ethnic, geographic, and socio-economic differences. A number of studies have in fact shown that the media have served to weaken class sentiments (Butler and Stokes, 1974) and religious divisions (Mendelsohn and Nadeau, 1996), reduce commitment to political parties (Wattenberg, 1991), and more generally foster the emergence of a national public opinion (Shaw and Martin, 1992).

Associated issues relating to media coverage of immigration and migration policy have been addressed in numerous studies. Because of their wide-ranging social and political implications they also have been attracting constant media attention since the 1970s. A number of analytical studies have shown that growing commercialisation of the mass media networks has led them to adopt a routinely sensationalist approach to the issues, thereby reinforcing negative public perceptions (4.1). At the same time, the effect of beliefs (individual as well as collective) on the debate is by no means negligible, and consequently helps to shape individual opinions (4.2).

4.1. From private views to public opinion: the role of the media in shaping a “public opinion” about immigration

Empirical analysis of media coverage of immigration-related issues relies for the most part on stories in the daily and weekly press and televised newscasts (*content analysis*), and in recent years has devoted more and more attention to the new media, particularly the Internet. Some studies have also been based on surveys of journalists, politicians and academics who deal with immigration issues. These studies generally focus on periods of peak media interest, *i.e.* when circumstances make the debate over immigration particularly intense.

Benson (2002) looks at the trend in French media coverage of immigration over the period 1973-1991. That period was marked by a clear shift in feelings about immigration, with altruistic concerns over the social suffering of immigrant workers being replaced by the politics of fear – fear over security problems in suburbs with a large share of persons of North-African origin, fear of resurgent right-wing extremism, fear that French culture was threatened by the failure to integrate immigrants effectively, and so on. At a time when the

growing commercialism of the media was a source of mounting concern (Bourdieu, 1996), many critics focused on the role of the media in manipulating public opinion and, ultimately, in distorting immigration policies. The increasing weight of advertising revenue in media firms' earnings has increased competition for a larger audience. This means that preference is given to news with a high emotional content and, more generally, that the facts are sensationalised. Immigration is a particularly promising subject for this type of journalism. Benson presents a rigorous empirical analysis of the question, which is not simply descriptive. He analyses stories carried in three leading national newspapers (*Le Monde*, *Le Figaro* and *Libération*) and on the evening news broadcasts of the two main TV channels with a view to measuring the degree of change or continuity in media coverage of immigration. The timeframe covered (1973-1991) saw several major changes in the media business, in particular the growing importance of advertising revenues for the big national dailies and the privatisation of the leading television channel in 1987. Benson identifies three "peak media attention" years for each of the three decades: 1973, 1983 and 1991.²¹ He finds that the media attitude to immigration issues did indeed change over this time, with a narrowing of the ideological spectrum represented and increased sensationalism in the way information was dealt with. But the media's treatment of the issues was also marked by a degree of continuity. Benson explains that this relative stability is due to the role of the institutional constraints surrounding the media business, which Bourdieu (1996) calls the "journalistic field" and which can be summarised as the tacit "(ethical) rules of the game". This "field" generates powerful inertia effects on the treatment of news, and these effects, together with relative stability in state regulation of the media, have limited the repercussions of growing commercialism in the media and thus explain the relative continuity in media treatment of immigration over the period in question.

Benson and Saguy (2005) pursue and complete this study with a comparative analysis of media coverage in France and in the United States between 1973 and 1994. The media examined in the case of France are the same as those studied by Benson (2002). For the United States they are the *New York Times* and *Los Angeles Times* and the evening newscasts of the three main national networks. The analysis seeks to highlight the role of three factors in changing media coverage of immigration in the two countries:

- *Cultural contexts.* American and French news media coverage of immigration differs significantly, reflecting cultural differences. The French media are more likely than the American media to report on the social problems faced by immigrants and also on the cultural problems their differences pose for society. The US media will be more likely to report on fiscal problems created by immigration. The authors attribute these differences of the media approach to the different cultural contexts of the two countries, as there is no factual element relating to immigration that can explain them.
- *The legal and institutional environment.* Structural characteristics also go quite a long way towards explaining media attention to specific aspects of immigration. Thus, when the French government introduced policies to encourage cultural diversity in 1983, media coverage of immigration policy's impact on cultural diversity increased. In 1991, on the other hand, the political consensus was that integration of immigrants was preferable to multiculturalism. As a result, the number of stories stressing the positive aspects of cultural diversity fell to a quarter of what it had been eight years earlier, while more than a third of immigration stories addressed the problems caused by immigrants' cultural differences. Over the same period, the American media more often raised the issue of immigration within the context of the debate about discrimination: 18% of stories about

immigration adopted this perspective in the United States in 1986, compared with only 1% in France in 1983. A similar difference is observed in the 1990s, with 11% of stories taking this line in the United States in 1994, compared with 5% in France in 1991. The refusal to produce ethnic statistics in France, and the influence of affirmative action policies in the United States are two possible explanations for this difference in news treatment.

- *Journalism's relations with government and the market.* Perhaps because of the broad scope of French libel laws and restrictions on access to government documents, French media coverage of immigration is less likely than its American counterpart to go in for investigative reporting on the inner workings of government bureaucracies.

Other studies describe the impact on public opinion of the positions taken by the media on immigration issues. In the case of the United States, Akdenisili *et al.* (2008) analyse media coverage of immigration from 1980 onwards, but with a particular focus on the heated debates of 2006 and 2007 over the proposed reform of American immigration policy. The authors conclude that American public opinion about immigration reached an unprecedented degree of radicalism and assertiveness, which made it very difficult to find a political compromise in Congress. The study claims that this situation was the result of the increasing fragmentation of the media industry in the United States, which has seen the public moving away from the printed press and national evening TV newscasts towards cable channels, radio talk shows, and the Internet. This growing fragmentation of the industry has intensified competition for audience share. The old and new media alike are therefore more inclined to favour and highlight stories about the country's economic and social difficulties. They will focus on immigration if it can be linked to problems of crime, economic crisis, or violent political controversy. Politicians and immigrants themselves take centre stage, to the exclusion of other key players such as employers and workers. As these authors see it, the media's biased take on immigration fails to reflect the reality of a demographic phenomenon, which is not only massive but has been taking place for several decades, and for the most part legally.

From the same perspective, Tsoukala (2002) looks into the criminalisation of immigration in French, German, Italian and Greek news coverage during the 1990s. She observes that "far from reflecting reality, the media structures *one* reality, which ultimately helps to shape public opinion to varying degrees". While it is not directly determined by the media, public opinion "tends to be determined by the ideological frame of reference supplied by the media (Van Dijk, 1993)". The study itself is essentially a qualitative analysis of the content of the major national dailies, with occasional forays into the weekly press and television. According to Tsoukala, media coverage of immigration legitimises a general viewpoint that associates immigration with crime and urban violence. The author concludes that these media representations have led over time to a blurring of the distinction between illegal immigrants, legal immigrants, and second-generation immigrants, and also between foreigners and nationals of minority ethnic or religious origin.

Merolla and Pantoja (2008) study the matter from the standpoint of experimental economics, examining the influence of media perspectives²² on the shaping of public opinion about immigration. The experiment consisted in taking a sample of students, dividing them into six groups and exposing each group to a different media presentation focusing on popular beliefs about immigration and its impact: i) the negative economic

impact; ii) the positive economic impact; iii) the positive social impact; iv) the negative social impact; v) the national security impact; and vi) no particular impact (control group). The results of the experiment show that, to varying degrees, each of these presentations is capable of influencing general feelings toward legal and illegal immigration and specific beliefs about the economic and social consequences of immigration.

4.2. The role of beliefs in framing debate and shaping public opinion

Many of the studies described above have stressed the importance of the media in shaping public opinion, in particular through their power to legitimise more general views on immigration. It seems useful, then, to look beyond the form and origin of these beliefs in order to gain a better understanding of the way they shape the political landscape and public opinion about immigration.

According to a number of studies, the strongly-held belief that relations between the native-born and immigrants are a “zero-sum game”²³ explains much of the hostility towards immigration and any form of solidarity with immigrants. Insofar as immigrants are perceived as potential competitors in the drive to acquire rare resources, helping them or letting their numbers increase can only serve to enhance their “market power” (see Esses *et al.*, 1998, 1999; Jackson and Esses, 2000). Esses *et al.* (2001) confirm and develop this finding in experimental studies in two Canadian universities. In another series of studies, conducted in Canada and the United States, the same authors re-examine the role of group competition for scarce resources and also consider the role of ethnic prejudice. The latter is broader than that of competition over resources, in that it has social and cultural dimensions. The analysis concludes that ethnic prejudice plays a fairly minor role in determining immigration attitudes, and that group competition for scarce resources in a zero-sum game provides the frame of reference in which public opinions are shaped.

Esses *et al.* (2001) go on to show that it is possible to modify people’s opinion of immigration by overturning the belief that inter-group relations are a zero-sum game with, for example, arguments and policies that promote a common sense of identity. This seems to highlight the need to shape or educate public opinion, and brings one back to the problem of the form and content of public discourse and its impact. According to Boswell (2009 a&b), the way migration policy issues are addressed and debated in the public arena is itself an essential issue within the wider context of immigration policy analysis.

As to the substance of the matter, Boswell (2009a) focuses on political parties’ use of expert knowledge as a way of legitimising their claims. To illustrate the point, she analyses the immigration debate in the United Kingdom between 2002 and 2004. Over this period, immigration policy issues were the subject of nine debates, three of which involved discussion of research findings (on the real level of immigration, the economic impact of immigration in the United Kingdom, and the impact of European Union enlargement on immigration from Central and Eastern Europe). The analysis of media coverage of these three events shows a clear tendency on the part of the media to exploit research in order to create an atmosphere of scandal around the government, which was described as incompetent when making political decisions in areas of risk. Boswell also shows that, while politicians are quick to invoke scientific research to legitimise their decisions, they generally doubt the ability of science to predict the outcomes of policies. This is what Boswell calls “a paradoxical disconnect between the ritualistic acceptance of technocratic modes of settlement and the limited authority of knowledge in settling disputes”.

Building upon her previous research, Boswell (2009b) examines the opposition between “technocratic” and “democratic” modes of resolving the immigration debate. “Technocratic” arguments, based on scientific research, focus the debate on the needs of the labour market rather than on cultural considerations. The outcome is often an approach that is more liberal and open to immigration. However, rival political parties and the mass media may resist this type of approach – which they regard as “elitist” and serving the needs of employers, or as being out of touch with people’s real concerns about immigration – and seek instead to move the debate to a less technocratic ground by emphasising the clash of interests or values. The author focuses primarily on two examples of debates about immigrants in search of work: one held in Germany between 2000 and 2003, and one in the United Kingdom between 2002 and 2004. During these periods, both countries were governed by centre-left parties inclined to introduce more liberal labour migration policies. Yet, the role of scientific research and the outcome of the debates diverged considerably. In the United Kingdom, the debate over immigration policies was based on technocratic considerations, and the three main political parties were in agreement in recognising the benefits of this kind of immigration for the British economy. In Germany, on the other hand, the government quickly foundered in its attempts to defend its immigration policy with economic arguments, while the opposition prevailed by invoking cultural issues. Boswell identifies two main factors behind this divergence: ideological differences and the collective memory of the results of previous migration policies. The author notes that Germans considered the temporary “guest worker” programmes of the 1960s to have been a failure, as many of those immigrants ended up settling in Germany permanently. The United Kingdom, however, had no memory of such a “failure”, and the bulk of immigration to Britain had come from Commonwealth countries. Generally speaking, countries where immigration policies are deemed to have “failed” (Germany, Denmark, France, Italy or the Netherlands) will be more likely to take a democratic approach to the debate. In contrast, countries with no such memory of “failed” immigration policy (Spain, Ireland, United Kingdom or Sweden) will consider the issue from a more technocratic standpoint.

Conclusion

Generally speaking, and despite some notable exceptions in countries that were historically built on immigration and have selective immigration policies, opinion surveys in most OECD countries show that people tend to take a negative view of the economic and cultural impact of migrations and of policies designed to increase migratory flows. Opinions vary considerably from one country to another for reasons relating to the dynamics of these flows, the features of the immigration systems and the past experiences of countries in this area. Individual opinions also differ within the same country for a variety of reasons: economic, demographic, cultural or political. Although there is an empirical consensus on the impact of some of these factors, such as level of education or ideological orientation, the role of others is more uncertain and depends on the context. Moreover, interaction between these groups of explanatory variables also plays a role, which means that simple theoretical approaches will not necessarily account for the complexity of the determinants of individual opinions on immigration.

One of the main points to emerge from the preceding analysis is that beliefs about the economic and cultural impact of immigration significantly influence individual attitudes towards opening the borders to migrants. Public debate on the issues of immigration and

migration policy is still broadly determined by the way these issues are covered by the media and by the effects of a certain number of collective beliefs. Some media, in response to pressure from competitors, may convey a simplistic impression and only concern themselves with the more sensational aspects of the immigration issue. In this way they may help to reinforce prejudices, which are partly enhanced by the less favourable outcomes of past migration and integration policies.

Certain parts of the population are likely to adopt different positions on immigration, not only because of its distributive effects, but also because these groups are distinguished by the way they value cultural diversity, among other things. The point therefore is not so much to seek consensus in public opinion on immigration issues as to limit the effect of popular beliefs and misconceptions. In this context, the planned reforms of migration policies need to involve a radical effort to enhance public knowledge and understanding of migration, notably regarding its economic, social and cultural impacts.

If this objective is to be reached, it will be necessary to promote greater transparency over the scale of international immigration, facilitate access to the most up-to-date information, and improve procedures for comparing international migration statistics. There will also be a need for regular and open discussion with interest groups, which should be based on relevant research findings. Lastly, there will be a need for objective, in-depth coverage of the migration issue and a determination to resist the temptation to exploit this issue for political ends.

Moreover, this section only addresses the national dimension of the political economics of international migration. The possibility of reforming migration policies will also be greatly influenced or limited by international factors relating to commitments entered into by states, bilateral relations with the countries of origin (with which the host countries have strong historical and geographical ties), and multilateral negotiations. A more complete analysis of the relationship between these factors and the shaping of migration policies would be needed to gain a better understanding of the extent to which OECD countries are free to adapt their migration policies to meet the major demographic and economic challenges of the next decades.

Notes

1. This document was drafted by Jérôme Héricourt (Maître de Conférences at the University of Lille 1) and Gilles Spielvogel (Maître de Conférences at the University of Paris 1), consultants to the OECD.
2. While some individuals will call upon their knowledge of political facts and form a judgment based on “rational” evaluation criteria, others will react in accordance with their “class ethos”, a system of implicit values transmitted by the individual’s social environment.
3. The other criteria were: having good educational qualifications; being able to speak the language of the country; coming from a Christian background; being white; and being wealthy.
4. This subject has also been addressed by some national opinion surveys. For example, the Australian Election Study (AES) of 2001 showed that the balance of opinion in favour of larger flows of skilled immigrants (41%) was much higher than that in favour of immigration of persons with relatives in the country (19%), revealing a clear preference for labour migration in Australia, as in European countries (Betts, 2002).
5. Empirical studies are divided on the subject. Whereas Borjas (2003) finds that immigration of low-qualified workers has a negative effect on salaries of workers already resident in the country, Card (2005) and Ottaviano and Peri (2008) find that the effects are minor and insignificant.
6. Using a similar theoretical approach, Bilal *et al.* (2003) study the impact of changes in the distribution of income on the attitude of households towards immigration of low-qualified

workers. They show that increased inequality of income is likely to lead to a radicalisation of attitudes towards this type of immigration.

7. It could of course be argued that the effect would only be temporary insofar as the immigrants, having come to the end of their working lives, would also receive pensions. But at the present time there is no reason to suppose that migration flows will dry up in years to come, and it is therefore quite conceivable that further generations of immigrant workers will come to the country and help fund pensions.
8. According to the country estimates, however, this is not the case in France, the United Kingdom and the United States (Table III.3).
9. It should be noted, however, that some studies highlight the importance of certain national peculiarities in this area. Ilias *et al.* (2008) show for example that, in the United States, mere membership of a political party may determine preferences over immigration, whereas identification with the right or left of the political spectrum has no impact.
10. In order to test this intuition, we drew up estimates for the ESS survey that were similar to those submitted for the ISSP survey. They clearly show that if the endogenous nature of beliefs is not taken into account, individuals who have themselves immigrated are in favour of an open migration policy.
11. However, the findings of O'Rourke and Sinnott (2006) with respect to countries covered by the ISSP survey are more nuanced. While they confirm that individuals who have never lived abroad tend on average to view immigration less favourably, their statistical findings regarding the role played by the "openness" variables (being born abroad, having foreign parents, etc.) are nevertheless ambiguous.
12. In 2001 and 2002, between 35 and 41% of Australians stated that immigration flows were too high, compared with 70% in the early 1990s.
13. The more recent furore sparked by the European services Directive (the "Bolkestein" Directive) offers a patent illustration of this restrictive bias. That directive sought to promote free movement of workers within the European Union by allowing them to be hired under the labour rules of their home country. The ensuing union-inspired uproar (which was particularly pronounced in France) put that directive on ice.
14. This variable is used, for want of a satisfactory alternative, as an approximation of union lobbying budgets.
15. Although it should be noted that this finding is not confirmed by the experience of other European countries where, on the contrary, anti-immigration groups seem more involved in the public debate.
16. At least until the Labour Party returned to power in 1997 and adopted a more liberal immigration policy than that of its Conservative predecessor.
17. Nevertheless, in the United Kingdom the right-wing British National Party managed to obtain two seats in the elections to the European Parliament in 2009 with a campaign largely focused on immigration issues.
18. Initially an emigration country because of its chronic state of underdevelopment, Ireland became an immigration country thanks to the rapid growth of its economy from the mid-1980s onward. Given the historical circumstances, the population has probably developed a favourable bias towards labour immigration. It is not excluded that the severity of the current recession will change attitudes.
19. Australia, Austria, Belgium, Canada, Denmark, Finland, France, Germany, Ireland, Japan, Luxembourg, Netherlands, Norway, Portugal, Sweden, Switzerland, United Kingdom, United States.
20. Immigration and citizenship policies have become progressively stricter in several European countries of the OECD in recent years (see OECD 2007 and 2008a), in parallel with the rising clout of anti-immigration sentiment in the political sphere and in public opinion (see Penninx, 2005 regarding the Netherlands).
21. These peak years are the ones in which the greatest number of immigration-related stories were found.
22. Subsequently referred to as "media treatment".
23. If immigrants obtain more, the native-born population is bound to have less. In this context, any policy that helps immigrants integrate and succeed economically will be seen as depriving the native-born.

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ANNEX III.A1

Presentation of Surveys

The surveys used for the empirical analyses in Sections 1 and 2 are the four waves of the European Social Survey (see Table III.A1.1), all of the World Value Surveys taken after 1994 (see Table III.A1.2) and the 2003 International Social Survey Programme, which includes a special module on national identity (see Table III.A1.3).

Table III.A1.1. European countries covered by the analyses based on the European Social Surveys

	2002	2004	2006	2008
Austria	Yes	Yes	Yes	<i>No</i>
Belgium	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Czech Republic	Yes	Yes	<i>No</i>	<i>No</i>
Denmark	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Estonia	<i>No</i>	Yes	Yes	Yes
Finland	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
France	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Germany	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Greece	Yes	Yes	<i>No</i>	<i>No</i>
Hungary	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Ireland	Yes	Yes	Yes	<i>No</i>
Italy	Yes	Yes	<i>No</i>	<i>No</i>
Luxembourg	Yes	Yes	<i>No</i>	<i>No</i>
Netherlands	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Norway	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Poland	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Portugal	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Slovak Republic	<i>No</i>	Yes	Yes	Yes
Slovenia	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Spain	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Sweden	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Switzerland	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
United Kingdom	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes

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Table III.A1.2. **Countries covered by the analyses based on the World Value Survey**

	Years		Years
Australia	1995; 2005	New Zealand	1998; 2004
Canada	2000; 2006	Norway	1996; 2008
Czech Republic	1998	Poland	1997; 2005
Finland	1996; 2005	Slovak Republic	1998
France	2006	Slovenia	1995; 2005
Germany	1997; 2006	Spain	1995; 2000; 2007
Hungary	1998	Sweden	1996; 1999; 2006
Italy	2005	Switzerland	1996; 2007
Japan	2000; 2005	Turkey	1996; 2001; 2007
Korea	1996; 2001; 2005	United Kingdom	1998; 2006
Netherlands	2006	United States	1995; 1999; 2006

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Table III.A1.3. **Countries covered by the analyses based on the International Social Survey, 2003**

Countries covered by the analyses based on the International Social Survey Programme (2003)		
Australia		Netherlands
Austria		New Zealand
Canada		Norway
Czech Republic		Poland
Denmark		Portugal
Finland		Slovak Republic
France		Slovenia
Germany		Spain
Hungary		Sweden
Ireland		Switzerland
Japan		United Kingdom
Korea		United States

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Questions about individual opinions on immigration are differently formulated in different surveys. In the ESS, for example, the main question is worded as follows, and accompanied by the responses indicated:

To what extent should [country] allow people from [countries of origin] to come and live here?

- Allow many to come and live.
- Allow some.
- Allow a few.
- Allow none.
- Don't know.

In the ISSP 2003, the question most comparable to the ESS question on opinions about migration policy was:

Do you think the number of immigrants to [country] nowadays should be:

- Increased a lot.
- Increased a little.
- Remain the same as it is.

- Reduced a little.
- Reduced a lot.
- Do not know.
- Do not wish to answer.

The wording of the permitted responses might cast some doubt on how the answers to these questions should be interpreted. To what extent will individuals respond in the abstract or with reference to current policies in their own country? In the ESS, for example, we cannot tell whether people answering “none” are aware that a particular course of action is in practice impossible. Indeed, international conventions governing humanitarian migrations, or the fundamental right of family reunification recognised by all OECD countries, limit the discretionary aspects of migration policies for all categories except labour migration. The aforementioned surveys do not break down their questions into categories of immigration (in particular, discretionary *versus* non-discretionary).

These two examples also show, first, that the comparison or aggregation of individual responses relies heavily on the assumption that all persons interviewed will interpret the response alternatives in the same way and, second, that an inter-country comparison of responses to this question demands a degree of uniformity in the perception of these categories. Given the differences in migration systems and in the historical and cultural context surrounding immigration issues, it seems unlikely that this comparability hypothesis can be fully verified. Moreover, because international opinion survey questionnaires are harmonised, the questions they ask about immigration are not very specific and do not allow us to appreciate individual perceptions of particular migration policies in the countries surveyed.

Beyond these questions about the desired numbers of immigrants, some surveys also address individual perceptions of the economic, social and cultural impact of immigration.* These questions can be used to refine the analysis of the determinants of opinions about immigration, for they can reveal those dimensions of public life about which individuals are most sensitive when discussing the subject.

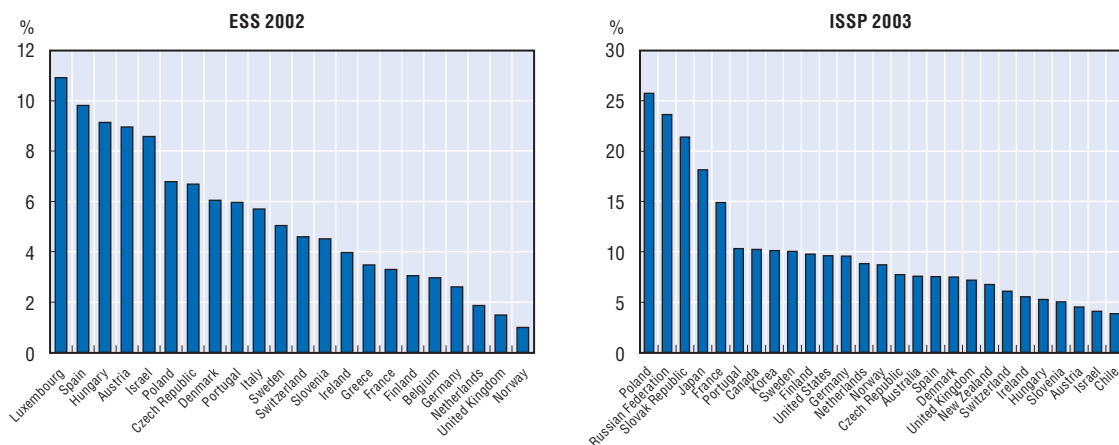
Because immigration, and more generally the question of accepting others, is such a sensitive issue, we may also wonder about the sincerity of the responses to these questions. Some individuals may not want to seem too hostile to immigration and will choose a neutral response or non-response, while others will be very forthright in stating extreme opinions which they cannot express in the voting booth. These biases may cancel each other out and reveal a trend that is close to “real opinion”, but will not necessarily do so, especially if they depend on individual characteristics that are not evenly shared among the population.

The non-response rate for these questions suggests people’s reluctance to express their opinion on the subject (see Figure III.A1.1). With the ESS 2002, the non-response rate was around 10% for Luxembourg and Spain, while it was below 2% for Norway and the United Kingdom. In the ISSP survey 2003, the non-response rate was much higher for

* For example, the ESS 2002 asked the following questions: “Would you say it is generally bad or good for [country]’s economy that people come to live here from other countries?” “Would you say that [country]’s cultural life is generally undermined or enriched by people coming to live here from other countries?” “Are [country]’s crime problems made worse or better by people coming to live here from other countries?” Similar questions were posed in the ISSP survey 2003.


some countries, notably Poland, the Russian Federation and the Slovak Republic (around 20% or even higher). Depending on whether we interpret non-responses as “neutral” responses, reflecting indifference to the question or ignorance of the subject, the picture of public opinion emerging from the surveys will be quite different.

Figure III.A1.1. **Proportion of non-responses to questions about preferred trends in immigration flows**



Note: Weighted data.

Sources: European Social Survey 2002, International Social Survey Programme 2003.

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ANNEX III.A2


*Determinants of Beliefs about the Impact of Immigration
and Preferences about Migration Policy Based
on the World Value Survey (WVS)*

In the case of the WVS, the two dependent variables considered are the desire for preferential treatment for native-born workers in the labour market (raising the idea of competition between locals and immigrants) and the acceptance of immigrants as neighbours (reflecting the cultural dimension). Here the binary nature of dependent variables leads us to favour an estimate employing the Probit model. In this survey, however, the available explanatory variables are limited to demographic, political orientation, education and work situation variables.

Table III.A2.1. **Determinants of beliefs about the impact of immigration and preferences about migration policy, WVS surveys, 1995-2008**

Variables	Beliefs	Migration policy	Beliefs	Migration policy
	Not in favour of national preference with respect to employment	In favour of strict limits or banning of work immigration	No aversion to having immigrants as neighbours	In favour of strict limits or banning of work immigration
	1	2	3	4
Not in favour of national preference with respect to employment		-0.208*** (0.034)		
No aversion to having immigrants as neighbours				-0.154*** (0.032)
Ideological orientation left-right	-0.021*** (0.004)	0.017*** (0.002)	-0.011*** (0.002)	0.018*** (0.002)
Women	0.011 (0.007)	0.009 (0.007)	0.011** (0.005)	0.009 (0.006)
Age 25-34	-0.027* (0.015)	0.020 (0.016)	-0.007 (0.006)	0.021 (0.017)
Age 35-44	-0.045*** (0.017)	0.029* (0.016)	-0.001 (0.005)	0.037** (0.016)
Age 45-54	-0.062*** (0.020)	0.031 (0.022)	-0.007 (0.006)	0.035* (0.021)
Age 55-64	-0.085*** (0.019)	0.045** (0.020)	-0.006 (0.008)	0.052*** (0.020)
Age 65-74	-0.112*** (0.018)	0.042*** (0.016)	-0.022 (0.017)	0.051*** (0.016)
Age 75+	-0.153*** (0.018)	0.051*** (0.018)	-0.052** (0.022)	0.069*** (0.020)
Secondary education	0.065*** (0.011)	-0.045*** (0.009)	0.042*** (0.014)	-0.049*** (0.012)
Tertiary education	0.199*** (0.020)	-0.155*** (0.012)	0.080*** (0.012)	-0.173*** (0.019)
Inactive	-0.005 (0.008)	-0.017* (0.009)	-0.004 (0.009)	-0.016* (0.009)
Unemployed	-0.034 (0.021)	0.026 (0.016)	-0.005 (0.009)	0.031 (0.020)
Observations	43 342	39 683	42 181	38 484

Note: ***, **, * represent significance levels at 1, 5 and 10%, respectively. Robust standard deviations in brackets, corrected for heteroscedasticity clustered by country. Maximum Likelihood Estimation. Marginal effects are reported at the mean for the continuous variables. All regressions include dummy variables for country and year. The reference categories are: male, age 15-24, primary education, employed.

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PART IV

Naturalisation and the Labour Market Integration of Immigrants¹

Key findings

This chapter takes stock of the available evidence on immigrants' take-up of the host-country nationality and its link to labour market outcomes. Among the key findings are the following:

- Take-up of citizenship varies greatly among immigrants in OECD countries. In countries that have been settled by migration, virtually all (regular) immigrants naturalise within ten years after arrival. Among European OECD countries, citizenship take-up is highest in Sweden and the Netherlands, and lowest in Luxembourg and Switzerland.
- The share of long-term resident immigrants who have taken up the nationality of the host countries appears to have increased in European OECD countries over the past decade. This is particularly evident in Belgium and Sweden, where there have been large increases for immigrants from non-OECD countries, following a liberalisation of access to citizenship.
- Naturalisation rates of migrants differ among migrant groups. In almost all countries, immigrants from lower-income countries are more likely to naturalise than immigrants from high-income OECD countries. Citizenship take-up tends to be highest among immigrants from African countries.
- Immigrant women are more likely to have the host-country nationality than men. Likewise, immigrants with a tertiary degree are more likely to have the host-country nationality than immigrants of lower attainment levels.
- Immigrants who have naturalised tend to have better labour market outcomes, particularly when they come from lower-income countries. On average for the OECD countries for which data are available, employment rates of naturalised immigrant men from low-income countries are 12 percentage points higher than for those who have not naturalised. For women, the difference is even greater (14 percentage points). In both cases, the differences are calculated for immigrants with at least ten years of residence.
- While immigrants who naturalise already tend to have better labour market outcomes prior to naturalisation, there is an additional improvement following naturalisation which suggests that it has, by itself, an impact on immigrants' labour market outcomes. Naturalisation notably seems to promote immigrants' access to better-paid jobs.
- Naturalisation appears to improve immigrants' labour market outcomes through various channels, including a reduction of labour market barriers, increased mobility and reduced discrimination.
- One sector where naturalisation improves immigrants' chances to be employed is the public sector. Nevertheless, in most countries even naturalised immigrants remain largely underrepresented in the public sector.

Introduction

Access to the host-country nationality is an important element of integration policy. It provides immigrants with the full range of rights and duties that host-country nationals enjoy. By legally entitling immigrants to full participation and membership in the host-country society, the acquisition of nationality is generally seen as a manifestation of “belonging” to the host country.

In recent years, there has been a renewed interest in the impact of this process on the broader issue of immigrants’ socio-economic integration, for a number of reasons. First, in many OECD countries immigrant populations have grown significantly over the past decade, with a number of countries having emerged as new destinations for immigration. The fact that a large proportion of recent immigrants have settled for good in destination countries almost inevitably raises the question of their access to the citizenship of the host country.² The issue is also of importance in the context of the role that labour migration is expected to play in helping to fill, in conjunction with other policies, the shortfall in labour supply in many countries as a result of the retiring of baby-boomers and of the fact that fewer young people are entering the labour markets. Access to citizenship can be expected to play a role in the capacity of host countries to attract and retain immigrants.

Gaining access to the host-country nationality is also seen by many as promoting immigrants’ identification with the host country. In line with this view, many OECD countries have recently strengthened the role of access to citizenship in the overall integration policy mix, for example by providing host-country nationality in the framework of formal citizenship ceremonies.

The OECD countries that have been settled by immigration (Australia, Canada, New Zealand and the United States) have traditionally favoured a relatively quick access to citizenship for new arrivals, by providing permanent residence status for all new, non-temporary migrants upon arrival and by combining this with short required residence periods until naturalisation is possible. This approach to citizenship is generally considered part of the national heritage. Australia, for example, has since 1949 held large-scale citizenship ceremonies on Australia’s National Day (26 January), and actively encourages migrants to take-up Australian citizenship (see OECD, 2007).

Likewise, some European OECD countries, such as Belgium, have liberalised their citizenship policy in recent years with the objective of promoting immigrants’ integration into the labour market and society as a whole.³ Indeed, a key observation from the OECD reviews on the labour market integration of immigrants (OECD 2008b, 2007) has been that immigrants with the host-country nationality often tend to have better labour market outcomes than foreign-born foreigners.⁴ However, little is known about the driving factors behind the observed link between host-country nationality and immigrants’ integration.

The perhaps most controversial question in the political discussion about host-country citizenship is whether it should be an instrument for enhancing integration or rather a certification of a successful integration process. A simple look at the citizenship laws across countries demonstrates that the answer is not straightforward. On the one hand, immigrants have to fulfil a number of requirements *ex ante* which are related to the issue of integration before immigrants are allowed to take-up host-country nationality. On the other hand, as will be seen below, citizenship take-up can accelerate the integration process *ex post*.

This chapter takes stock of the available evidence on immigrant take-up of the host-country nationality and its links with labour market outcomes. It seeks to shed some light on the following key questions: First, how do naturalised immigrants fare in the labour market compared with their counterparts who have not taken up the nationality of their host countries? Second, for those migrants for whom better outcomes are observed, is it because they were already better integrated prior to naturalisation or do the improvements materialise after naturalisation? Third, if outcomes improve after naturalisation, why is this the case?

The definition of “naturalisation”

The acquisition of nationality may occur automatic (mainly at birth) or upon application. Naturalisation is generally understood as the non-automatic acquisition of citizenship by an individual who was not a citizen of that country when he or she was born. It requires an application by the immigrant and an act of granting by the host country.⁵ In a more narrow sense, naturalisation does not refer to cases in which an individual receives another citizenship by declaration or automatic acquisition (*e.g.* through marriage, birth, or upon becoming an adult).⁶ Whereas citizenship acquisition at birth or upon adulthood generally refers only to native-born children of immigrants, citizenship acquisition through marriage is an important and frequently used way by which foreign-born persons obtain the nationality of the host country. For example, in 2008 in Germany, 21% of all citizenship acquisitions were attributable to marriage or an extension to relatives.⁷ Similar relations are found in Switzerland, where almost 18% of all citizenship acquisitions took place via so-called simplified naturalisation procedures, which apply in the case of marriage and for children of Swiss citizens (Steinhardt *et al.*, 2009). Likewise, in the United Kingdom, 22% of all citizenships were granted on the basis of marriage (Home Office, 2009).

Ideally, one would like to distinguish between “naturalisation” as defined above and other forms of citizenship take-up which are automatic. This would allow one to better capture the different ways by which having the host-country nationality affects immigrants’ integration. In practice, it is generally not possible to identify the way by which immigrants have obtained host-country nationality. In administrative data sets the identification of immigrants who have acquired the host-country nationality often tends to be difficult, because such data sources normally do not include any information on acquisition of citizenship. Labour Force Survey data, on the other hand, contain information on the respondents’ citizenship and country of birth, but generally not how nationality was acquired. Indeed, even in longitudinal studies which follow immigrants over time, it is generally only possible to identify immigrants’ citizenship take-up, but not to distinguish between the different ways of obtaining citizenship.⁸ Because of these obstacles, empirical studies are generally based on a broader definition of naturalisation – including all foreigners who have obtained the citizenship of the host country.

Where one has to rely on labour force survey data, such as in the internationally comparative empirical analysis below, “naturalised” immigrants are defined as foreign-born persons who have the citizenship of the host country. This group includes foreign-born persons who already had the host-country nationality prior to entry into the host country, such as notably the foreign-born children of expatriates. In most countries included in the empirical analysis below, this group tends to be small, with the exception of France which had large-scale return migration of former emigrants and their children

following the independence of its former colonies. The French Labour Force Survey has a question on the nationality at birth. For France, foreign-born persons who had French nationality at birth have therefore been excluded from the analysis.

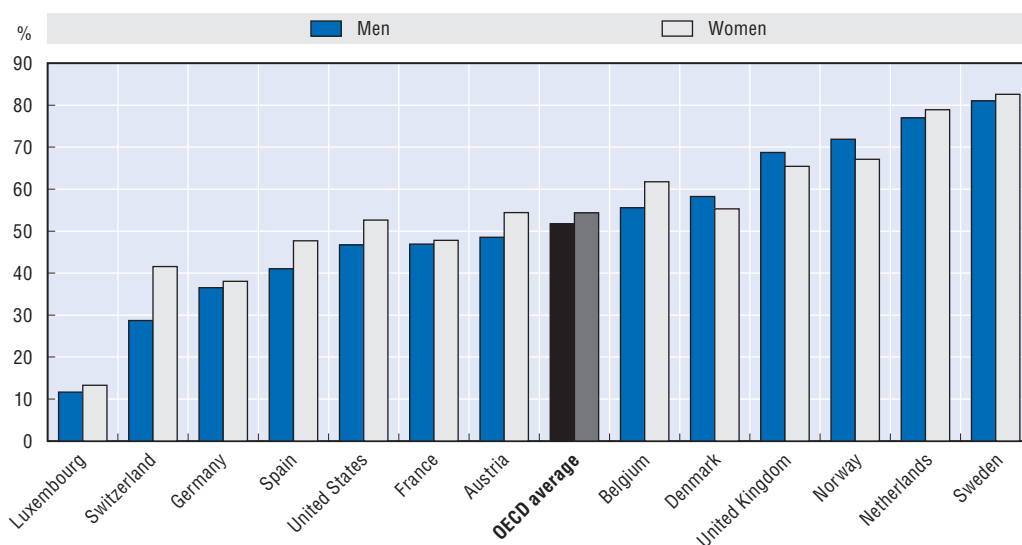
1. Citizenship take-up among immigrants: An overview across selected OECD countries

This section provides an overview of immigrants' citizenship take-up across the OECD and the socio-demographic characteristics of naturalised vs. non-naturalised immigrants. It is important to keep in mind that immigrants generally need to have been resident in the host country for a number of years before they can naturalise. In most OECD countries, citizenship take-up is possible after about five to eight years. Since the objective is to compare naturalised immigrants with non-naturalised immigrants who are also eligible for acquiring citizenship, the empirical analysis below is limited to immigrants with ten or more years of residence.⁹ There are no data available for Australia, Canada and New Zealand, three countries which have been settled by immigration and where the vast majority of immigrants take-up host-country nationality in the first five to ten years after arrival. In addition, only OECD countries in which the share of immigrants was 5% or above at the time of the 2000 census are included. Portugal and Greece have been excluded from this group because the available data does not allow one to identify foreign-born children of expatriates. This group is sizeable in both countries and tends to resemble, in their labour market outcomes, more closely the native-born populations than other immigrants (see OECD, 2008b). Since the focus of interest is on the link between naturalisation and labour force characteristics, the analysis below is furthermore limited to immigrants aged 15 to 64 who are not attending an educational institution.

As Figure IV.1 shows, there is wide variation across the OECD in the percentage of immigrants who have naturalised. The largest share of naturalised immigrants can be found in Sweden, where 81% of immigrant men and 83% of immigrant women are naturalised. At the other end of the spectrum is Luxembourg, where only about 12% of immigrant men and 13% of immigrant women have obtained the nationality of the host country.

On average across the OECD, a little more than half of all immigrant men are naturalised. Among women, the percentage is higher in all countries with the exception of Denmark, Norway and the United Kingdom. The fact that women are generally more often naturalised could be partly linked with the fact that they are overrepresented among those who migrated because of marriage to a citizen. As mentioned above, a facilitated naturalisation procedure generally applies for this group.

There are fewer labour market restrictions for immigrants from high-income OECD countries (notably within areas of free movement such as the European Union). Insofar as it reduces barriers in the labour market, naturalisation tends to be more beneficial for immigrants from lower-income countries (see Bevelander and DeVoretz, 2008). In addition, immigrants from high-income countries are more prone to return migration (OECD, 2008a), which may prevent them from taking the host-country nationality if they have to give up their original nationality. Indeed, the loss of the original nationality tends to be associated with higher costs (in terms of forgone opportunities) for migrants from high-income countries than for immigrants from lower-income countries. One would thus expect that immigrants from lower-income countries are more likely to take-up host-country citizenship. Table IV.1 shows that the observed naturalisation rates – that is, the share of

Figure IV.1. **Share of foreign-born who have the host-country nationality, selected OECD countries, by gender, around 2007**

Note: Data are limited to immigrants aged 15 to 64 who are not in education and who have been resident in the host country for ten years or more. The OECD average is the unweighted average of all countries included in the chart.

Source: See Methodological Annex.

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Table IV.1. **Naturalisation rates (%) by origin, around 2007**

Country	Total	High-income OECD countries	Non-EU/EFTA European countries	Central and South America and Caribbean	East and South-East Asia	North Africa and Near Middle East	Other African countries
Austria	52	56	45	(58)	72	86	73
Belgium	59	37	78	74	79	77	83
Switzerland	35	35	27	63	44	64	46
Germany	37	35	29	40	37	48	..
Denmark	57	49	41	..	64	65	..
Spain	44	46	25	60	32	26	29
France	47	36	40	59	87	50	55
Luxembourg	12	11	(35)	..	(33)
Netherlands	78	55	74	96	90	75	82
Norway	70	47	84	77	90	99	96
Sweden	82	65	94	87	91	97	96
United Kingdom	67	44	59	73	79	75	81
United States	50	47	78	40	65	80	60
OECD average	56	46	57	66	70	71	70

Note: The data refer to immigrants aged 15-64, not in education and with at least ten years of residence. “..”: value does not exceed the reliability limit for publication. Values in parentheses are of limited reliability. OECD average: unweighted average of the countries in the table, except Denmark and Luxembourg because of insignificant values in some categories. Figures in bold indicate that the naturalisation rate of this group is higher than the naturalisation rate of all other migrants, figures in italics indicate that the naturalisation rate of this group is lower than the naturalisation rate of all other migrants. In all other cases, the differences with other migrant groups are not significant at the 5% level.

Source: See Methodological Annex.

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immigrants who have naturalised – generally follow the expected pattern. Immigrants from high-income OECD countries are less often naturalised than the average immigrant. While on average for the OECD as a whole 56% of immigrants are naturalised, the share of naturalised immigrants from high-income OECD countries is only 46%. The only country in which the share of naturalised is higher among immigrants from high-income OECD countries is Austria.


Immigrants from Africa and Asia tend to have the highest naturalisation rates. On average, the naturalisation rates for these groups are about 14 percentage points higher than for immigrants as a whole. This seems to be due to the fact that migrants from these countries are often refugees and their families, for whom return migration is not an option. While this is less the case for migrants from Northern Africa, these are nevertheless one of the most disfavoured groups in the labour market. Spain is an exception to the observed pattern. The only group in Spain which has significantly higher naturalisation rates are migrants from Central and South America. Because of their historical, cultural and linguistic ties with Spain, this group has often benefited from facilitated access to Spanish citizenship. The low naturalisation rates of immigrants from Africa in Spain seems to be attributable to the fact that immigrants from these countries were often labour migrants who initially arrived through irregular channels, and often may not have had acquired a sufficient number years of legal residence to get naturalised.

There is some evidence that citizenship take-up has increased recently, notably for immigrants from lower-income countries. Table IV.2 compares the percentages of long-term resident immigrants (more than ten years of residence) who have the host-country nationality, for the limited number of countries for which this information is available, currently and about ten years ago. In Belgium and Sweden, there have been large increases for immigrants from non-EU countries, following the introduction of measures to liberalise access to citizenship and/or facilitations for dual nationality (see Box IV.1). Small increases are also observed in the Netherlands, Norway and the United Kingdom. The reverse is true for Denmark, which has recently tightened access to Danish citizenship.

Table IV.2. Percentage of foreign-born who have the nationality of the host country, 1999/2000 and 2007/2008, by region of origin, selected European OECD countries

Country	All immigrants 1999/2000	All immigrants 2007/2008	Immigrants from EU countries 1999/2000	Immigrants from EU countries 2007/2008	Immigrants from non-EU countries 1999/2000	Immigrants from non-EU countries 2007/2008
Austria	52	52	66	56	48	49
Belgium	40	59	33	37	48	78
Denmark	64	57	65	46	64	61
Luxembourg	13	12	11	11	29	25
Netherlands	75	78	51	53	81	84
Norway	68	70	47	46	80	85
Sweden	71	82	61	65	79	93
United Kingdom	65	67	40	42	74	76
OECD average	56	59	47	45	63	69

Note: Because of data limitations, for 1999/2000 “EU” refers to the EU15, whereas the data for 2007/2008 refer to the EU27 and the EFTA. Results refer to immigrants aged 15-64, not in education and with ten or more years of residence. Source: European Community Labour Force Survey.

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Box IV.1. Dual citizenship

A special aspect of naturalisation is dual citizenship. When migrants naturalise, they are either obliged to renounce or allowed to retain their former citizenship, which leads to either a single or dual citizenship in the host country. Dual citizenship may also arise due to *ius sanguinis*, as a child born to parents of non-identical citizenships, or by the combination of *ius sanguinis* and *ius solis*, where the person receives both the parents' citizenship and that of the country of birth. Less frequent are the application of *ius matrimonii*, under which persons automatically receive the citizenship of their spouse upon marriage and the reacquisition of citizenship by ethnic minorities migrating to the country of their ancestors, a special case of *ius sanguinis*.

Dual citizenship generally implies reciprocal recognition. Both the destination and the origin country must allow dual citizenship. Where dual citizenship is not permitted, anyone applying for citizenship in another country automatically loses the original citizenship (e.g. in Japan), at least in principle, or the renunciation of the former citizenship is a requirement to obtain the passport in the host country (e.g. in Germany; renunciation can also be requested in Italy). If, however, the person has involuntarily acquired dual citizenship, such as in the case of *ius solis*, or as a child of parents with two different citizenships, dual citizenship is generally allowed until the age of majority. Within the European Union, citizens of one EU member state are generally allowed to hold the citizenship of another member state; this, however, does not necessarily apply to citizenship of third countries.

In recent years, an increasing number of countries have eased their regulations on dual citizenship, albeit there remains substantial cross-country variation. Differences can be seen with respect to both the acquisition of a second citizenship by a national of the host country and acquisition of host-country citizenship by immigrants.

Many OECD countries allow both immigrants and emigrants who naturalise abroad to keep the citizenship of the origin country, especially countries with a long history of immigration, such as the United States, Canada, the United Kingdom and France. Other countries have also recently liberalised their citizenship laws to allow multiple citizenship. Examples are Sweden (2001), Australia (2002), Finland (2003) and Belgium (2008). Other countries maintain restrictions on dual citizenship but increasingly admit some flexibility, such as Austria and Germany. Exceptions in the regulation of non-tolerating countries have been growing e.g. in cases when release from the former citizenship is refused or is coupled with prohibitive conditions, or when the applicant can argue that he or she would incur a loss of property, etc. The Netherlands made access to dual nationality more restrictive in 1997, but in practice the majority of immigrants still keep their original nationality (van Oers *et al.*, 2006). More generally, the *de facto* tolerance of dual citizenship may often differ from the *de iure* situation. People may keep both passports even when required to renounce one, particularly where there is no bilateral administrative verification, which is generally the case.

The debate over whether or not to permit dual citizenship when naturalising is extensive and multidisciplinary. Legal concerns are primarily potential administrative conflicts caused by dual citizenship, especially concerning military conscription and, in some cases, tax liability. Multi- and bilateral agreements may address these concerns. Socio-political and cultural discussions relate to issues such as multiple voting rights or the impact on "loyalty" and migrant networks, whereas the main economic concern is whether integration is fostered or hampered by the acquisition of a second citizenship. In spite of this ongoing debate, as seen above, the overall trend is in practice towards tolerating multiple citizenships (see e.g. Brøndsted Sejersen, 2008; Blatter *et al.*, 2009).

Box IV.1. Dual citizenship (cont.)

One would *a priori* expect that social and economic integration would tend to be favoured, as the right to hold dual citizenship tends to lower the cost of naturalisation. Nevertheless, for those migrants who would have naturalised anyway (*i.e.* without the option of dual nationality) it is also possible that dual citizenship rights could increase return migration, and the option might in turn affect their human capital investment. On the other hand, dual citizenship may be perceived as a way for the host countries to attract and retain migrants, particularly those who are highly-skilled. The extent to which this is the case is not known.

Data on dual citizenship status are scarce and empirical evidence on the effects of dual citizenship is thus rare. The scarce empirical studies deal with the political integration of dual citizens (Staton *et al.*, 2007) or other social aspects (Bloemraad 2004). The results provide a rather mixed picture. In the latter study, dual citizenship was negatively correlated with ties to the host country (Canada), but at the same time a strong positive correlation between dual citizenship and the level of education was observed. Staton *et al.* (2007) observed a lack of “political connectedness” of Latino dual citizens to the United States, as measured by self-identification as “Americans” and electoral participation, among others. This has to be weighed against the fact that facilitated access to dual nationality tends to increase naturalisation. Increased naturalisation rates when dual citizenship was introduced were observed in the US for immigrants from Latin America and in the Netherlands (Mazzolari, 2009; Bevelander and Veenman, 2008; OECD, 2008b).

In summary, to the degree that it enhances the propensity to naturalise which in turn is associated with better outcomes, the overall balance of dual citizenship appears to be positive, at least in economic terms.

Access to host-country citizenship tends to be selective, not only because migrants have to decide whether or not they apply for it, but also because host countries often impose some criteria, such as mastery of the host-country language or self-sufficiency. Table IV.3 shows that this selection is strongly biased towards more qualified immigrants, in particular for those who were not born in a high-income OECD country. In the United States, the difference in the prevalence of tertiary attainment among these two groups is especially large. 20% of non-naturalised immigrants from lower-income countries have a tertiary degree, compared with 44% of naturalised immigrants. This may in part be due to the high level of irregular migration, which tends to be low-educated. In all countries, immigrants from lower-income countries who have taken up the host-country nationality have a higher educational attainment on average than their non-naturalised peers.¹⁰ On average, 26% of naturalised immigrants from lower-income countries are highly-educated, almost twice the share observed for their non-naturalised counterparts.

At the bottom end of the qualification spectrum, the differences are particularly large in Germany. While 54% of non-naturalised immigrants are low-educated, this is only the case for 26% of naturalised immigrants.

There are a number of empirical case studies based on microdata which confirm these findings for individual OECD countries (see the overview in Bevelander and DeVoretz, 2008). The selectivity concerns not only education, but also other dimensions such as age and previous work experience (*e.g.* DeVoretz and Pivnenko, 2008). In sum, there is ample evidence that immigrants from lower-income countries who have naturalised tend to be higher educated than their peers who have not done so.¹¹

Table IV.3. **Share of low- and high-educated immigrants by citizenship status and origin, around 2007**

	Percentage of low-educated individuals among immigrants						Percentage of high-educated individuals among immigrants					
	Total		High-income OECD countries		Other countries		Total		High-income OECD countries		Other countries	
	Non-naturalised	<i>Difference between naturalised and non-naturalised</i>	Non-naturalised	<i>Difference between naturalised and non-naturalised</i>	Non-naturalised	<i>Difference between naturalised and non-naturalised</i>	Non-naturalised	<i>Difference between naturalised and non-naturalised</i>	Non-naturalised	<i>Difference between naturalised and non-naturalised</i>	Non-naturalised	<i>Difference between naturalised and non-naturalised</i>
Austria	41	-7	11	(3)	53	-9	13	3	30	(-5)	6	5
Belgium	50	(-4)	46	(-4)	60	-13	24	(1)	26	(-1)	18	6
Switzerland	42	-21	39	-23	46	-19	17	15	22	14	10	15
Germany	54	-28	42	-23	63	-26	12	8	19	4	8	9
Denmark	33	(-3)	(11)	9	48	-14	26	(3)	41	(-1)	16	9
Spain	48	-10	29	13	60	-25	23	10	40	(-6)	12	20
France	68	-24	65	-17	71	-27	11	12	13	3	10	16
Luxembourg	44	-15	45	-17	32	(-2)	23	(0)	23	(-1)	27	(1)
Netherlands	42	-5	21	(2)	59	-19	23	(0)	37	(-4)	11	10
Norway	19	12	13	(4)	45	(-7)	53	-19	59	-15
Sweden	26	(-3)	23	(-3)	35	-11	27	(-1)	30	(-3)
United States	38	-22	8	(0)	43	-26	24	22	47	(3)	20	24
OECD average	46	-14	32	-6	53	-18	20	7	30	1	14	12

Note: The share of non-naturalised immigrants is reported in percent. “..” means that the underlying value is not statistically significant. Values in parentheses are of limited reliability. The difference between naturalised and non-naturalised is reported in percentage points. Differences which are not significant (probability > = 10%) are reported in parentheses. The OECD average is the unweighted average of the countries in the table; because of lack of publishable data in some columns, the OECD average does not include Norway and Sweden. Low-educated refers to ISCED levels 0, 1 and 2; high-educated refers to ISCED levels 5 and 6. Results refer to immigrants aged 15-64, not in education and with ten or more years of residence.

Source: See Methodological Annex.

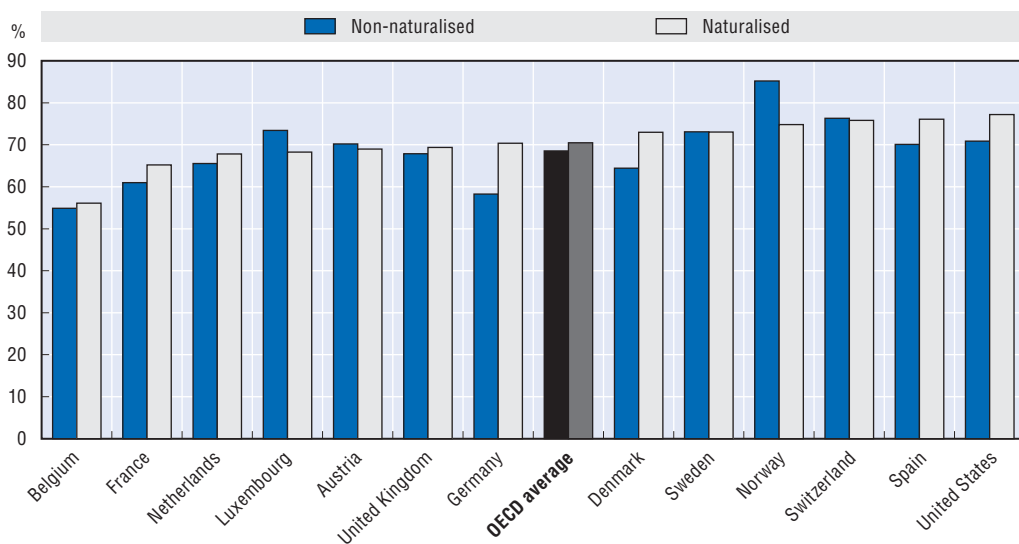
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2. The labour market outcomes of naturalised and non-naturalised immigrants

This section provides an overview of the labour market outcomes of immigrants who have naturalised compared with their non-naturalised counterparts for three labour force characteristics – employment, occupational level, and wages. Because of its importance in the context of naturalisation, the issue of access to the public sector is also addressed.


Employment

Figure IV.2 provides an overview of employment rates for naturalised and non-naturalised immigrants across OECD countries.¹² This aggregate picture shows a tendency towards higher employment rates for naturalised immigrants, although the differences are not large – with the exception of Germany and Denmark, where they are on the order of 10 percentage points. By contrast, in Austria, Luxembourg and Switzerland, naturalised immigrants have slightly lower employment rates than their non-naturalised peers; in Norway the difference is even about 10 percentage points. On average, for the OECD countries included in this overview, naturalised immigrants have employment rates that are about three percentage points higher than those of non-naturalised immigrants. Given the rather large differences in educational attainment, these small differences are surprising.

Figure IV.2. **Employment rates for immigrants by citizenship status, around 2007**

Note: Results refer to immigrants aged 15-64, not in education and with ten or more years of residence. The OECD average is the unweighted average of the countries included in the graph.

Source: See Methodological Annex.

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As has been seen in the previous section, citizenship take-up varies significantly by both host and origin country, as well as by gender. Women and immigrants from lower-income countries are more likely to find themselves among those who have obtained the host-country nationality. Since these two groups tend to have lower employment rates in most countries, one would *a priori* expect differences between naturalised and non-naturalised immigrants to be larger if one looks separately by gender and by region of origin. Table IV.A1.1 and IV.A1.2 in the Annex show the results. Among men, the discrepancies between naturalised and non-naturalised immigrants from high-income OECD countries tend to be small and not statistically significant. Large and in most cases statistically significant differences in turn are observed for immigrants who were not born in a high-income OECD country. 78% of the naturalised immigrants from those countries are employed, in contrast to 70% of immigrants who are not naturalised. The differences are particularly large for Sweden, Germany, Belgium, France and Denmark where they exceed 12 percentage points. Disaggregating immigrant men from other-than-high-income OECD countries by region, one observes large differences for immigrants from African countries, in particular North Africa. However, in many cases the differences are based on small samples and are often not statistically significant.

The picture is similar for women, although the differences in labour market outcomes between naturalised and non-naturalised women from lower-income countries are somewhat higher than for men. The differences are particularly large in the Netherlands, Denmark and Germany where they are 18 percentage points or more. They are also large in Belgium (16 percentage points) and the United States (14 percentage points).

The analysis can be refined further by accounting for other observable characteristics of migrants such as age and education. For this, linear probability models were estimated by country and gender. This method allows one to estimate the percentage-point difference in the probability of being in employment for naturalised and non-naturalised,

while holding constant the educational level, the origin group and age. As mentioned above, immigrants from high-income OECD countries tend to have little to gain from acquiring the host-country nationality, and the descriptive statistics bear this out. There does not appear to be a measurable link between naturalisation and employment for migrants from these countries.¹³ These immigrants are therefore excluded in the following regression analysis. The naturalisation coefficients of the linear probability model (with employment as the dependent variable) are shown in Table IV.4. A positive and statistically significant coefficient on the naturalisation variable means that naturalisation is positively correlated with the probability of being in employment, controlling for differences in education, age and country of origin. In most cases, the coefficients are significant and have the expected signs. The correlation is particularly strong in Belgium, Denmark and Germany for both genders, and for men in Sweden. The exception from this pattern are immigrant men in Austria.

Table IV.4. Estimated higher probability to be in employment associated with naturalisation (in percentage points), around 2007

	Men	Women
Austria	-4***	6***
Belgium	14***	10***
Switzerland	6**	(4)
Germany	12***	11***
Denmark	12**	14***
Spain	(3)	(2)
France	5***	5***
Luxembourg	(3)	(7)
Netherlands	(1)	10**
Norway	(1)	(-9)
Sweden	20***	(-4)
United States	(1)	8***

Note: */**/***: values significant at the 10%/5%/1% level, respectively. Data have been restricted to immigrants from lower-income countries, aged 15-64, not in education and with ten or more years of residence. Dependent variable: employment; control variables are host-country nationality (yes/no), origin (origin groups as in the Methodological Annex), age (ten-year age groups) and education (three levels).

Source: See Methodological Annex.

StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/885118505186>

In order to analyse whether higher employment rates are observed for all migrant groups, an additional model with interaction variables was estimated.¹⁴ For men, migrants from North Africa and the Middle East show the largest difference in employment rates between those who are naturalised and those who are not, followed by immigrants from the other African countries. For immigrant women, it is the latter origin group which shows the largest difference. More generally, for migrant groups which have particularly low employment rates, the observed increase in the employment probability which is associated with naturalisation is higher.¹⁵

Occupational level

How do the types of jobs which immigrants occupy differ between naturalised and non-naturalised immigrants? Table IV.5 shows the share of naturalised and non-naturalised immigrants in low- and high-skilled occupations by gender. For men, on average over the OECD countries for which data are available, the share of employed in low-

Table IV.5. **Distribution of employed immigrants by occupational level, by gender and citizenship status (%), around 2007**

	Men				Women			
	Low		High		Low		High	
	Non-naturalised	Difference between naturalised and non-naturalised immigrants	Non-naturalised	Difference between naturalised and non-naturalised immigrants	Non-naturalised	Difference between naturalised and non-naturalised immigrants	Non-naturalised	Difference between naturalised and non-naturalised immigrants
Austria	21	(-4)	21	9	44	-13	22	(3)
Belgium	10	(3)	43	(-4)	18	(-1)	40	(-1)
Switzerland	8	-4	27	20	22	-11	26	20
Germany	13	(-1)	24	(2)	28	(-7)	25	(8)
Denmark	21	-8	35	12	24	-14	33	8
Spain	15	-5	29	12	33	-13	31	(5)
France	13	-2	19	15	48	-23	15	12
Luxembourg	10	..	40	(5)	34	-22	38	(8)
Netherlands	16	-4	37	(2)	22	(-5)	45	(-5)
Norway	57	-16	66	-22
Sweden	39	(-5)	40	(-3)
United Kingdom	13	(-2)	50	(3)	11	(-3)	48	(-3)
OECD average	14	-2	32	8	28	-10	32	5

Note: Shares of non-naturalised immigrants are shown in percent. “..” indicates that the value is not statistically significant. Differences between naturalised and non-naturalised are reported in percentage points. Differences which are not significant (probability > = 10%) are reported in parentheses. The OECD average refers to the unweighted average of the countries in the table; because of insignificant values in some categories, the OECD average does not include Luxembourg, Norway and Sweden. “Low” occupational level refers to elementary occupations (ISCO 9), “high” includes legislators, senior officials and managers, professionals, technicians and associated professionals (ISCO 1-3). Results refer to immigrants aged 15-64, not in education and with ten or more years of residence.

Source: See Methodological Annex.

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skilled occupations is two percentage points lower among naturalised migrants than among non-naturalised. For high-skilled occupations, the differences between the two groups are even more pronounced, with naturalised being more likely to find themselves among the highly-skilled. In most countries, naturalised immigrants are more often found in high-skilled occupations.¹⁶ For women the pattern is similar, with larger differences at the bottom end of the occupation spectrum.

These results could in part be driven by the fact that immigrants who have naturalised tend to be higher educated on average, and by origin-country effects. To isolate these effects, a linear probability model has been run, with “employed in a high-skilled occupation” as the dependent variable. The results are shown in Table IV.6.

Indeed, all of the significant correlations in the estimation results for men have the expected sign. For example, the probability of being employed in a high-skilled occupation is 7 percentage points higher for naturalised immigrant men in France than for their non-naturalised counterparts. For women, the results are also as expected, with the exception of Norway.


Other empirical studies have obtained similar results. Fougère and Safi (2008) find that immigrants who are naturalised are more likely to be employed as managers, in intermediate professions and as office workers in France. Akbari (2008) shows that among migrants from developing countries in the United States, the share of naturalised immigrants working in professional or managerial occupations is higher than among

Table IV.6. Estimated higher probability of employment in a high-skilled occupation associated with naturalisation (in percentage points), around 2007

	Men	Women
Austria	5***	4**
Belgium	(1)	8**
Switzerland	9***	(6)
Germany	3***	6***
Denmark	10*	12***
Spain	11***	(4)
France	7***	5***
Luxembourg	(7)	(1)
Netherlands	5**	(1)
Norway	16*	-19**
Sweden	11***	(-1)
United States	2*	5***

Note: The sample is restricted to employed individuals aged 15-64 and with ten or more years of residence. The table shows the naturalisation coefficients. The dependent variable is the dichotomous variable “employed in a high-skilled occupation”. The variable “highly skilled occupation” is differently defined in the data for the United States (see Methodological Annex). It includes management, business and financial occupations as well as professional and related occupations, in contrast to European data, which cover legislators, senior officials and managers (excluding managers of small enterprises), professionals as well as technicians and associate professionals. The regression includes control variables for origin country, age and education. */**/***: values significant at the 10%/5%/1% level, respectively.

Source: See Tables IV.4 and IV.5 and the Methodological Annex.

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non-naturalised. For migrants from developed countries, he finds no difference in the occupational level by naturalisation status.

Wages

Wages are probably the labour market outcome that has been the most extensively studied in the context of naturalisation. In his seminal study, Chiswick (1978), using cross-sectional data from the US census for the year 1970, investigated the economic assimilation of immigrants by comparing the earnings of native- and foreign-born men. He found a positive association between naturalisation and earnings which, however, became insignificant after controlling for years of residence. Chiswick therefore concluded that there was no earnings premium for naturalised immigrants after accounting for their longer period of residence.

Bevelander and Veenman (2008) analysed the relation between naturalisation and wages with cross-sectional data for the Netherlands, for seven migrant groups from lower-income countries. They also find that naturalised immigrants generally earn more than non-naturalised immigrants, with the exception of men from Turkey and women from Afghanistan. The largest wage gap observed was for naturalised men from Somalia, who earn 23% more than non-naturalised migrants. However, they also find that the naturalisation coefficient generally becomes insignificant after accounting for differences in demographic and labour market characteristics between naturalised and non-naturalised immigrants. Nevertheless, they find slightly higher wages for immigrants from the former Yugoslavia, Iran and Iraq who have naturalised (Bevelander and Veenman, 2008).

The wage gap between naturalised and non-naturalised migrants seems to be to a large extent driven by differences in educational attainment. This can be tested by a Blinder-Oaxaca decomposition (Oaxaca, 1973; Blinder, 1973). By this method, the wage differential of groups (in this case, between naturalised and non-naturalised immigrants)

is decomposed into a part explained by human capital endowment (such as education and experience) and an unexplained part due to unobserved factors. This decomposition analysis has been used by DeVoretz and Pivnenko (2008), among others, to explain wage differences between non-citizens and naturalised immigrants in Canada. They calculate, on the basis of Canadian census data from 2001, that the overall wage gap between immigrants with and without Canadian citizenship is about 29% for migrants from non-OECD countries, and 10% for migrants from OECD countries. About half of the wage differential for immigrants from non-OECD countries can be explained by a higher human capital endowment of immigrants who acquire citizenship status. For immigrants from OECD countries, the wage difference becomes negligible after accounting for this.

The Blinder-Oaxaca decomposition has also been applied by Akbari (2008) who finds, based on data from the United States 2000 Census, a substantial wage premium for naturalisation for immigrants from developing countries. Within this group the relative gap in annual earnings between immigrants with and without citizenship is about 11% for men and 9% for women, after controlling for other factors such as duration of residence, age, education and occupation.¹⁷ In general, after controlling, he finds no evidence that the wages of immigrants from OECD countries differ by citizenship status. However, for professional occupations, there seem to be significant differences between naturalised and non-naturalised immigrants from OECD countries. Interestingly, in parallel, the differences between naturalised and non-naturalised immigrants from non-OECD countries are smaller in these occupations than for lesser-skilled jobs.

Calculations for Germany (Steinhardt, 2008) indicate that naturalised employees have on average 5% higher wages than employees with foreign citizenship. Nevertheless, the wages of naturalised employees are on average still lower than those of native German employees. Using the same method as DeVoretz and Pivnenko (2008), almost 40% of the wage gap between naturalised and foreign employees is explained by differences in educational attainment. Likewise, in Switzerland there is a wage gap between naturalised and non-naturalised employed men of about 7% (Steinhardt et al., 2009). Again, the wages of naturalised employees are on average lower than those of employees who are native-born citizens. As much as 80% of the wage differential between naturalised and foreign employees can be explained by differences in endowments.¹⁸

In all of the studies above, an important part of the wage differences between naturalised and non-naturalised immigrants remains unexplained. None of the studies above control for possible differences in the origin of the qualification. It may be that the higher returns to education which are observed for naturalised migrants could be attributable in part to the fact that they are more likely to have acquired their qualifications in the host country, which provides higher returns (see OECD, 2008b), but there are no firm data on this.

From the national labour force surveys of Germany and France, information on naturalisation, wages and the origin of the highest educational degree is available.¹⁹ Before controlling for differences in socio-economic characteristics, in France one observes about 12% higher wages for immigrants from lower-income countries who have naturalised, and about 6% for immigrants from these countries in Germany (4% for men and 8% for women) (see Table IV.7). After controls for education, age, duration of residence, marital status and origin groups, there remains a higher wage of about 5% for immigrant men in both countries. Controlling in addition for occupational level reduces the differential further – a

significant difference remains only in Germany. Including an additional control variable for the origin of the highest educational attainment does not alter the picture.²⁰ This also suggests that possible differences in the origin of the qualification cannot explain the higher wages enjoyed by immigrants who have naturalised.

Table IV.7. **Estimated higher wage associated with naturalisation, by origin, France and Germany, around 2006**

		Model (1)		Model (2)		Model (3)		Model (4)	
		High-income OECD countries	Other countries	High-income OECD countries	Other countries	High-income OECD countries	Other countries	High-income OECD countries	Other countries
Men	DE	(2)	4***	(2)	6***	(3)	6***	(3)	6***
	FR	(3)	12***	(-3)	4**	(-3)	(3)	(-3)	(3)
Women	DE	(3)	8***	(1)	(3)	(0)	(2)	(0)	(2)
	FR	12***	13***	(2)	(3)	(-3)	(1)	(-2)	(1)

Note: The figures show the differences in log earnings between naturalised and non-naturalised immigrants, with a positive result indicating higher wages for naturalised immigrants. Because of data limitations, wages refer to hourly earnings in Germany and to monthly earnings in France. The sample is restricted to full-time employed persons aged 15-64 with at least ten years of residence. Model (1) shows the overall difference between naturalised and non-naturalised immigrants. Model (2) includes control variables for education, age, duration of residence, marital status and origin groups (the French model also includes a variable for hours worked); Model (3) additionally includes a control variable for occupational level; Model (4) adds a control variable for the origin of the highest educational attainment to Model (3). */**/***: values significant at the 10%/5%/1% level, respectively.

Source: See Methodological Annex.

StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/885155634658>

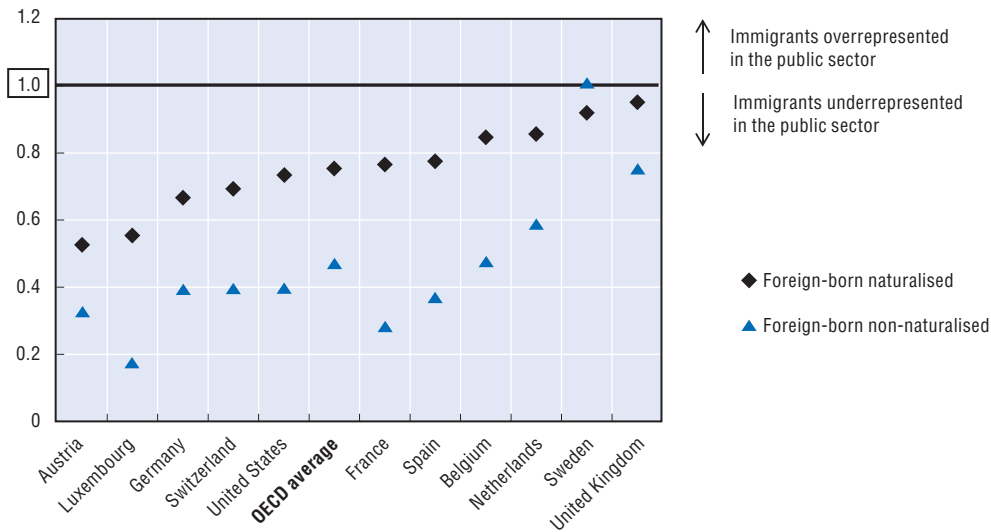
Public sector employment

One sector where access to employment tends to be linked with citizenship is the public sector. All OECD countries restrict certain positions in the public sector to nationals, although the degree to which this is the case varies considerably. Many non-statutory positions tend to be open to non-nationals, but the rules on this are unclear since information on restrictions of access to public sector jobs is difficult for immigrants to obtain. Facilitated access tends to exist for nationals of countries participating in free-movement agreements such as the European Union. Even though nationals of a member country of the European Union are in general allowed to work in the public sector of other EU member countries, each country has the right to “restrict public sector posts to their nationals if they involve the exercise of public authority and the responsibility for safeguarding the general interest of the State”²¹. Whether a certain job fulfils these criteria is evaluated on a case-by-case basis.

Figure IV.3 shows the share of public sector employment in total employment of foreign-born naturalised and non-naturalised relative to the native-born. In all countries with the exception of Sweden, immigrants with a foreign nationality are underrepresented in the public sector. Again with the exception of Sweden, naturalised immigrants have a higher share of public sector employment in total employment than immigrants with a foreign nationality. Yet, in all countries naturalised immigrants remain underrepresented in the public sector. The differences are particularly large in Austria, Luxembourg, Germany and Switzerland.


The regression results summarised in Table IV.8 show that these results also broadly hold after controlling for different observable characteristics (age, gender and education).

Figure IV.3. **Public sector share of total employment, naturalised and non-naturalised immigrants, as a proportion of the public sector share for native-born persons, around 2007**



Note: The public sector covers the following: public administration and defence, compulsory social security, and education. The data is restricted to people aged 15 to 64 who are not in education. Only immigrants who have lived for at least ten years in the host country are considered.

Source: See Methodological Annex.

StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/883256228350>

In all countries with the exception of Sweden and the United States, naturalised immigrants are more likely to be employed in the public sector than immigrants who have not naturalised.

However, in most countries even naturalised immigrants have a lower probability to be in public sector than the native-born. This is particularly the case for immigrants from lower-income countries. Sweden and the Netherlands are the two exceptions. This undoubtedly reflects the impact of longstanding policies to promote immigrants' employment in the public sector.

In order to look at whether a higher probability to be employed in the public sector for those who are naturalised is also observed for immigrants within free movement areas, regressions were run separately for immigrants from the EU/EFTA, for the European OECD countries. Even for this group, the probability to be employed in the public sector is significantly higher for those who are naturalised, and this difference is just as high (if not higher) as for migrants from outside of the EU/EFTA.

Even though access restrictions may explain the low share of non-naturalised migrant employees in the public sector in many countries, the reason for the difference between the share of native-born and naturalised immigrants is *a priori* puzzling. There are in principle no institutional barriers and no uncertainty that would prevent naturalised migrants from applying for a job in the public sector because they are generally eligible for the same jobs as citizens. However, a number of factors could help to explain the persistent underrepresentation of immigrants who have naturalised that is observed in several countries.

Firstly, public sector jobs are rarely first jobs for newly arrived immigrants (even when they are eligible). Since immigrants are eligible to naturalise only after having spent a certain time

Table IV.8. **Estimated higher probability to be employed in the public sector associated with naturalisation (in percentage points), around 2007**

	Native-born vs. naturalised immigrants						Naturalised immigrants vs. non-naturalised immigrants					
	Model 1a			Model 2a			Model 1b			Model 2b		
	Total	High-income OECD countries	Other countries	Total	High-income OECD countries	Other countries	Total	EU/EFTA	Non-EU/EFTA	Total	EU/EFTA	Non-EU/EFTA
Austria	-6***	(-2)	-8***	-6***	-5*	-7***	3***	5**	2**	3**	4**	2**
Belgium	(-3)	(3)	-6**	(-3)	(2)	-5**	7***	13***	3*	8***	12***	(2)
Switzerland	-4*	(0)	-7***	-4*	(-2)	-6***	6***	9***	4***	4***	6***	2**
Germany	-7***	-4***	-9***	-5***	-3***	-6***	6***	9***	4***	4***	8***	3***
Spain	(-3)	(-3)	(-3)	-4**	(-3)	-6**	5***	(1)	8***	4***	(2)	4***
France	-6***	-5***	-6***	-6***	-8***	-5***	12***	12***	11***	10***	12***	10***
Luxembourg	-14***	-14***	-14***	-16***	-15***	-17***	12***	12***	13***	12***	12***	12***
Netherlands	(-2)	(-1)	(-2)	(-1)	(-3)	(0)	4***	(3)	5***	2*	(4)	(2)
Sweden	(-1)	(0)	(-1)	(-1)	(-2)	(0)	(-1)	(-1)	(1)	(0)	(-1)	(1)
United Kingdom	(-1)	(4)	(-2)	(-3)	(3)	-4*	3**	6**	4**	5***	7**	4**
United States	-3**	-5**	-3***	(0)

Note: The figures show the naturalisation coefficient in a Linear Probability Model. The sample is restricted to employed individuals aged 15-64 who are not in education. Model 1a and 2a include immigrants and native-born individuals, Model 1b and 2b only immigrants. The immigrant sample is restricted to immigrants with ten years of residence or more. Dependent variable: Public sector employment. Models 1a and 1b show the percentage points differences without any control variables. Model 2a controls for age (10 year age-groups), gender and education (three levels). Model 2b includes controls for age (10 year age-groups), gender and education (three levels) and dummy variables for origin country groups for non-EU/EFTA countries. */**/***: values significant at the 10%/5%/1% level, respectively.

Source: See Methodological Annex.

StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/885156561708>

in the host country, most of them will have already chosen a career path at the time of naturalisation, and this can influence their choices even when they change jobs. To the degree that entry into the public sector is generally at the beginning of the career, the underrepresentation could partly be due to the fact that many immigrants have entered private-sector employment upon arrival, and there may be a lock-in effect for this kind of employment. In addition, even though host-country nationality is often not required in entry positions, the more limited career perspectives for non-citizens may be an incentive to look elsewhere.

Another reason could be the existence of requirements for certain public sector jobs, which immigrants find it harder to meet. Degrees in a very country-specific field of study (for example administrative or public law) could be such a requirement. In such a case, the transferability of human capital might be more limited than in other high-skilled jobs (for example IT specialists). In any case, the fact that even native-born children of immigrants remain underrepresented in the public sector in a number of countries (Liebig and Widmaier, 2009) suggests that there are other issues involved than the origin of qualifications.

Different preferences for public-sector employment between natives and naturalised immigrants are another possible reason for the discrepancies in the shares of public sector employees. Other potential explanations for the underrepresentation even of naturalised immigrants are that the public sector attaches a higher value to education in the host country or to other characteristics which are more often found among the native-born (such as mastery of the host-country language), and/or that access to the public sector

requires more often networks and tacit knowledge than jobs in the private sector. Further studies would be needed to test these hypotheses.

3. The impact of naturalisation on immigrants' labour market outcomes

All of the evidence presented above has been based on cross-sectional data, that is, immigrants who have the host-country nationality are compared with immigrants who do not have it. It is conceivable that naturalised and non-naturalised immigrants differ along a range of other factors that are not captured by observable cross-sectional characteristics such as education and age for which it is possible to control. Of particular policy relevance is to know whether the more favourable labour market outcomes for immigrants who have naturalised are merely a result of the different selection processes involved in gaining access to host-country nationality, or whether there is a measurable direct impact of naturalisation itself.

Possible channels by which naturalisation can have an impact on immigrants' labour market outcomes

In which ways could host-country nationality boost immigrants' labour market outcomes?²² First, naturalisation might reduce labour market barriers. For example, some jobs tend to require citizenship status, such as certain jobs in the public sector or in certain regulated professions such as, for example, notaries.²³ As a result, immigrants who naturalise are able to enter jobs which were unavailable to them without citizenship.

Second, having the host-country nationality can decrease administrative costs to employers associated with employing foreigners, such as the verification of work rights. Naturalisation also enhances migrants' cross-border employability (*e.g.* for international assignments or business travel) which is required in some high-skilled occupations. However, this is likely to be a relatively minor phenomenon.

Third, and linked with the second point, the act of naturalisation might work as a signalling device for employers. The fact that a job applicant has naturalised may convey a signal such as possession of appropriate language skills or a certain minimum duration of stay, or other (unobserved) capacities associated with obtaining host-country citizenship (*e.g.* more ambition). This means that naturalisation may be used by employers as some sign of "integration" in terms of acquisition of host-country human capital. Likewise, naturalisation may decrease uncertainty about the immigrant's expected length of stay in the host country and/or return intentions. The information transmitted through the host-country nationality thereby reduces uncertainty about the productivity of the job applicant. Since such uncertainty is one of the main causes of statistical discrimination, having the host-country nationality could also have the effect of limiting the latter.²⁴

Fourth, individuals may increase their investment in human capital when they decide to naturalise or following naturalisation, for example because of a stronger attachment with the host country or because they expect that the return on investment in higher education is greater for persons who have naturalised – for example because of reduced discrimination in hiring, as seen above. Employers might also be more likely to invest in an employee's human capital after naturalisation if the take-up of host-country citizenship is interpreted as a long-term residential decision. Having the host-country nationality can also facilitate access to host-country higher educational institutions. In Switzerland, for example, some universities have introduced upper limits on the share of foreigners that they accept. Access to scholarships is also often linked with nationality.

Empirical evidence

To properly study the impact of naturalisation on the labour market integration of immigrants one needs to have data that compare immigrants' labour market outcomes before and after naturalisation. This is the advantage of longitudinal data. Cross-sectional surveys can also have longitudinal information in them, for example those which collect data on work history and the time of naturalisation. Either of these is needed to investigate whether having the host-country nationality really improves the labour market outcomes of immigrants, or whether the persons who have naturalised already enjoyed more favourable outcomes prior to naturalisation with no additional impulse given by the host-country nationality. Empirical studies on the impact of naturalisation on immigrants' labour market outcomes which make use of such data have thus far been scarce (see the overview in Table IV.A1.3 in the Annex).

Bratsberg *et al.* (2002) were the first to use longitudinal data to estimate the effect of naturalisation on wage growth of foreign-born men who are in employment. With data from the National Longitudinal Survey of Youth (NLSY), they demonstrate that wage growth for young male immigrants in the United States is accelerated after the acquisition of citizenship. They estimate an impact of naturalisation on wages in the order of 6 percentage points. Most of this is due to higher returns for each year of experience after naturalisation – they observe an increase of almost 3 percentage points after controlling for a whole range of factors including education, occupation, sector and prior experience. In addition, there is a movement into better jobs after naturalisation, namely into the public sector and into white collar occupations.²⁵ For example, after 5 years of citizenship, an immigrant is about 3 percentage points more likely to be in the public sector than his or her counterpart who has not naturalised. This indicates that the enhancement of upward job mobility and employment in the public sector are important mechanisms through which naturalisation can affect the labour market integration of immigrants.

A similar methodological approach is used by Steinhardt (2008). His estimates of administrative panel data on employed individuals in Germany confirm that the acquisition of citizenship has a virtually immediate positive effect on the wages of employees and that wage growth is accelerated in the years after the naturalisation event. The wages increase immediately after naturalisation by 1%, and the wage growth in the years following naturalisation is about 0.3 percentage points higher per year for those who eventually naturalise.²⁶ It also seems that the immigrants with the lowest earnings benefit most from the wage increase associated with naturalisation. Hayfron (2008), in his analysis of the impact of naturalisation on wages in Norway, also finds higher returns to experience after naturalisation.

Ohlson (2009), using longitudinal data on earnings for Sweden, finds evidence for what he calls a “motivation effect” of naturalisation already in the years preceding the acquisition of Swedish citizenship. Earnings of both employed women and men start to increase on average by about 3.5% in the period four years before the acquisition of citizenship and thereafter. He thus argues that immigrants who intend to naturalise do invest more in human capital that is specific to the host country, and therefore enjoy higher earnings already prior to naturalisation. Scott (2008), also using longitudinal data on employed individuals in Sweden, estimated the changes in wages after naturalisation. Overall, he finds a positive impact for men, but the impact does not appear to be very large.²⁷

Only two studies have compared immigrants' employment prior to and after naturalisation. Fougère and Safi (2006) use the *Echantillon Démographique Permanent* (EDP), a dataset that makes it possible to track individuals using the information gathered during the 1968, 1975, 1982, 1990 and 1999 French censuses. They compare persons with the same labour market status, education and age prior to naturalisation and look at the differences at subsequent census waves between those who have naturalised and those who have not. Their estimates of the premium that is associated with getting French nationality are very large, about 23 percentage points for both men and women. They also find that naturalisation appears to have a very high impact on the employment of the most disadvantaged immigrants, that is, those with the lowest employment probability. The large increases could in part be due to the fact that immigrants who naturalise behave differently from those who do not acquire citizenship despite having a comparable labour market status at the beginning of the observation period.

To circumvent this problem, Scott (2008) analyses only migrants who at some point take up Swedish citizenship and uses the variation in the naturalisation date to measure the impact of having Swedish citizenship.²⁸ Indeed, he finds for Sweden lower values for the impact of naturalisation on immigrants' employment. The largest premium is observed for immigrant women from Iran, who enjoy a higher employment rate of nine percentage points. For most other lower-income countries, the average impact is estimated at around five percentage points, for both genders. In contrast, there is generally no premium following naturalisation for immigrants from high-income OECD countries.

Some evidence that having the host-country nationality reduces discrimination has been provided by so-called "testing" experiments in which otherwise "equivalent" CVs in which the candidates only differ by nationality and name (to indicate the immigrant origin) are being sent to employers offering jobs. The studies generally show that having the host-country nationality reduces discrimination, but the impact differs among occupations. Duguet *et al.* (2007), for example, show for France that having French nationality reduces the number of applications necessary to obtain an invitation to a job interview by a factor of about five for an accounting position but only by about a quarter for a job as a waiter.²⁹ This indicates that the signalling related with naturalisation tends to be more important in the higher-skilled regulated professions.³⁰

Conclusions

This chapter has attempted to shed light on three key questions related with naturalisation and immigrants' labour market integration. The questions raised and the answers arrived at from a look at the available data and literature are the following:

How do naturalised immigrants fare in the labour market of countries compare with their counterparts who have not taken up the nationality of their host countries?

The analysis above has shown that having the host-country nationality is generally associated with better labour market outcomes for immigrants. Naturalised immigrants enjoy substantially better labour market outcomes across a whole range of indicators such as a higher employment probability, better occupational status and access to the public sector, and higher wages. In general, the differences between naturalised and non-naturalised are larger for immigrants from lower-income countries. Such immigrants seem to gain most from having the nationality of the host country, because labour market

barriers tend to be larger for them. Immigrants from these countries are also more likely to take-up the citizenship of the host country.

The observed better outcomes are partly driven by the fact that there is some positive selection of migrants into citizenship – for example, immigrants who take up the host-country nationality tend to be higher educated and to have better labour market outcomes already prior to naturalisation. This, in turn, is partly due to self-selection of “successful” immigrants and partly due to the requirements set for naturalisation by host countries. These tend to favour immigrants who have acquired some knowledge about the host country and its language, and who have better employment outcomes already prior to naturalisation. This “selectivity” is most pronounced for immigrants from lower-income countries. At the same time, at least in the European OECD countries for which comparable data are available, there has been an increase in citizenship take-up among immigrants from lower-income countries.

Are the better outcomes for those who have naturalised merely due to the fact that immigrants who eventually naturalise were already better integrated prior to naturalisation, or are there improvements in outcomes after naturalisation?

On the basis of the limited data and the scarce longitudinal studies available, there are a number of results which demonstrate that having the host-country nationality has, by itself, a beneficial effect on immigrants’ labour market outcomes. It not only enhances the general likelihood to find employment, but also its quality and the associated wages. It also contributes to a better representation of immigrants in the public sector which is often seen as crucial for integration, as it promotes the visibility of immigrants in daily life and can contribute to enhancing the understanding of immigrants’ needs by public institutions. These effects are observed virtually immediately after naturalisation which suggests that naturalisation has immediate pay-offs. In addition, the effects appear to be strongest for the most disadvantaged immigrants in the labour market.

Why do the outcomes of immigrants improve after naturalisation?

The improvement in the outcomes seems to be attributable to a mix of factors involving immigrants themselves, the removal of labour market barriers, and employer behaviour. Immigrants move into the public sector after naturalisation, which suggests that the removal of labour market barriers is one channel by which labour market outcomes improve. Likewise, having the host-country nationality reduces discrimination, as employers appear to interpret host-country nationality as a signal for higher productivity and, more generally, better integration. This seems to be particularly important in higher-skilled occupations and indeed, a large part of the improvement in labour market outcomes appears to be attributable to the fact that these jobs become more accessible after naturalisation. One study has provided evidence that the improvements linked with naturalisation start materialising already somewhat prior to the naturalisation act, which suggests that the prospect of a forthcoming naturalisation also may have a motivation effect for immigrants, for example by inciting them to invest more in human capital that is specific to the host country.

However, little is known about the relative contribution of these factors to the observed improvement. Further longitudinal studies are clearly needed to better analyse these contributions and to measure their impact.

Policy lessons

Whatever the ultimate driving factors, the combined impact of naturalisation on the different labour market outcomes seems to be large in many countries, in particular for those migrants who tend to be most disfavoured in the labour market. Naturalisation thus appears to be an effective integration tool. On the basis of the evidence that is available to date there seems to be a rather strong case for encouraging citizenship pick-up by migrants and/or for making access less restrictive, where this is an issue. It enhances immigrants' access to employment, contributes to a better utilisation of migrants' human capital, and seems also to be beneficial for the public purse. These effects appear to be strongest for those immigrants who are most disfavoured in the labour market. At least on the basis of economic considerations, OECD countries would thus seem to achieve considerable gains from facilitating access to the host-country nationality. Some OECD countries such as Australia, Canada and New Zealand have for many years pursued an active policy to encourage naturalisation among recently arrived immigrants, as a means to rapidly integrate immigrants into the society as a whole. Some of these countries have also branded rapid access to citizenship as a means of attracting and retaining highly-skilled immigrants. In Australia, Canada and New Zealand, the vast majority of immigrants have naturalised within five to ten years after arrival.³¹

In contrast, in the European OECD countries included in this overview, only a little over half of all migrants with more than ten years of residence have taken the nationality of their host countries. It is possible that this is at least partly due to the fact that both the host-country society and the immigrants themselves are not aware of the economic benefits involved with immigrants taking the host-country nationality. These clearly merit to be made more widely known, both to policy-makers and to migrants themselves.

In some of these countries, where access to host-country nationality is particularly difficult, the barriers may be too high – lowering such barriers would help improve immigrants' labour market outcomes in the aggregate. Likewise, for some migrants the cost associated with giving up the nationality of the origin country may be a major obstacle, and facilitating dual nationality would help to overcome this barrier. It appears that OECD countries have more to gain than to lose from such a strategy and indeed, the number of OECD countries which allow dual nationality has been on the rise. These possibilities should be made more transparent for migrants.

Finally, the findings imply that statistics that measure integration outcomes on the basis of the foreign population are becoming less and less representative for the immigrant population as a whole. Any progress that will be made in integrating immigrants will thus tend to be underestimated by “monitoring” only the foreign population. Indeed, it is even possible that – given the observed selectivity and the trend increase in citizenship take-up which are both particularly pronounced for the most disfavoured immigrants – outcomes for “foreigners” from lower-income countries appear to decline over time, despite real improvements if one looks at the same people over time. This demonstrates that progress in “integration” needs to take into account all of the foreign-born population and not only those who retain the nationality of their countries of origin.

Notes

1. This chapter has been prepared by Thomas Liebig (OECD), Max Steinhardt (Hamburg Institute of International Economics, HWWI) and Friederike Von Haaren (University of Hannover). Friederike Von Haaren thanks the Agence Nationale de la Recherche (ANR) and Deutsche Forschungsgemeinschaft (DFG) that supported part of her contribution under the joint ANR-DFG project “Integration of First and Second Generation Immigrants in France and Germany”.
2. In some countries such as the United Kingdom and the United States, a legal distinction is made between nationality and citizenship, with nationality being broader concept. In the settlement countries, it is “citizenship” that is the preferred term, which suggests that one is undergoing a legal process; in European OECD countries the preferred term tends to be nationality, which has ethnic/cultural as well as legal connotations. In this chapter, the terms “nationality” and “citizenship” will be used interchangeably.
3. In 2010, however, legislative changes were introduced making naturalisation more restrictive in Belgium.
4. The terms “immigrants” and “foreign-born” are used synonymously in this chapter.
5. This comprises both cases in which an applicant foreigner may be legally entitled to citizenship and cases in which there is a discretionary decision by the host country authorities.
6. A comprehensive glossary on definitions related to citizenship and naturalisation in Europe is provided by the European Union Democracy Observatory on Citizenship (<http://eudo-citizenship.eu/citizenship-glossary/89>).
7. The latter refers to a case where the spouse and/or the children of an applicant acquire citizenship simultaneously with the person who naturalises (Federal Statistical Office Germany, 2009).
8. The only exception is Fougère and Safi (2008).
9. Among the countries included in the analysis, only Switzerland has a longer required period of residence (12 years) for the ordinary naturalisation procedure.
10. The term “lower-income countries” is used in this chapter synonymously with “other than high-income OECD countries”.
11. Note that it is also conceivable that naturalised immigrants are more likely to invest in higher education after naturalisation (e.g. because they may have better access to scholarships). However, this is unlikely to explain much of the observed differences in educational attainment between naturalised and non-naturalised immigrants.
12. The term “employment rate” is used in this chapter synonymously with the employment/population ratio.
13. The results of a separate regression analysis (not shown) for these countries confirm that naturalisation almost never shows a statistically significant link with the employment probability of immigrants from high-income OECD countries.
14. The results are not included in Table IV.4 but are available upon request.
15. It is also possible that the naturalisation coefficient differs between high- and low-educated immigrants. Further analysis shows, however, that there is, for most countries, no measurable difference for persons with different education levels. Again, the results are not included in Table IV.4 but are available upon request.
16. The notable exception to this pattern is Norway.
17. The relative wage gap is measured as the wage difference between immigrants with and without citizenship as a percentage of the wage of immigrants without citizenship.
18. The authors include a number of additional individual and sector-specific characteristics which might explain the high share of endowments. These include characteristics such as labour market experience, occupation, duration of residence, and industry.
19. This latter information is not directly available but can be approximated from other information.
20. This observation is rather robust – it also holds in alternative specifications.
21. http://ec.europa.eu/youreurope/nav/de/citizens/working/public-employment/index_en.html (14.10.2009).
22. It is *a priori* also possible that naturalisation can have a negative impact on labour market outcomes, for example if access to certain out-of-work benefits that could reduce work incentives is conditional on host country nationality. This could be one reason for the observed lack of

“naturalisation premium” for some groups in some countries (e.g. for immigrants from some OECD countries in Sweden, see below and Scott, 2008). Nevertheless, as will be seen in more detail below, this effect is not visible in the aggregate result where one observes a substantial improvement in labour market outcomes attributable to naturalisation, in particular for immigrants from lower-income countries.

23. In Germany, medical doctors with a non-EU nationality may also face certain restrictions (Yamamura, 2009).
24. Statistical discrimination occurs in the presence of information asymmetries, that is, when the employer judges an applicant not on the basis of his/her expected individual (marginal) productivity, but rather on preconceptions about the average productivity of the group to which the person belongs.
25. Bratsberg *et al.* (2002) also observe higher unionisation rates following naturalisation.
26. Note that such modest increases in wage growth on a per-year basis result in substantial differences over the horizon of the entire working-life. Already 10 years after naturalisation, a naturalised immigrant earns on average a higher wage of 3.2% compared with an immigrant who does not naturalise.
27. In addition, the impact seems to differ significantly between immigrant groups – for immigrants from some countries (Greece, Chile, Norway and Italy) the estimated impact is even negative.
28. Scott (2008) also runs an alternative longitudinal specification with all migrants (both those who take-up citizenship at some stage and those who do not) and indeed finds a much larger “naturalisation premium”. He therefore argues that in standard longitudinal analyses the naturalisation premium tends to be overestimated since other factors than citizenship are at play. This is partly circumvented by looking only at immigrants who naturalise at some stage.
29. In both cases, naturalised immigrants had to write more applications than the native-born.
30. Note that these tests control for educational level and the origin of education; they generally concern immigrants who arrived in the country quite young and were fully educated in the country. The impact may be different for persons who arrived as adults and have acquired at least part of their qualifications abroad.
31. The United States is a special case here because much immigration has been irregular. Many long-term resident immigrants are thus not entitled to US citizenship.

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Methodological Annex

The estimates in this chapter are based on pooled data from the European Labour Force Survey (LFS) of 2006 and 2007 and restricted to persons aged 15-64, not in education and to foreign-born with more than ten years of residence. Microdata were used for Germany (Microcensus, 2005), France (Enquête Emploi, 2007) and the United States (Current Population Survey, March Supplement 2008). For the regression analyses, microdata were also used for Austria (Microcensus, 2008) and Switzerland (Labour Force Survey, 2008). For Germany, ethnic Germans (*Aussiedler* and *Spätaussiedler*) are excluded from the analysis. Immigrants for France include only foreign-born persons with a foreign nationality at birth.

Immigrants are grouped by their country of birth. North America (excluding Mexico) and Oceania are grouped with EU and EFTA member countries in the group of “high-income OECD countries”. Due to data limitations it was not possible to include Japan and Korea in this group. They are included in the group of immigrants from East and South East Asia.

Origin countries in the French and German microdata differ slightly from those used for the remaining countries. In the German data, Iceland, Liechtenstein and Norway are not included in the category of “high-income OECD countries”. Furthermore, no distinction between migrants from different African countries was possible for Germany, therefore the group “other African countries” does not exist here. All migrants from Africa are included in the group “Near Middle East and North Africa” in Germany.

In France, immigrants from Algeria, Tunisia and Morocco form the group “Near Middle East and North Africa”. The group “East and South-East Asia” only includes immigrants from Laos, Cambodia and Viet Nam.

Immigrants from countries other than “high-income OECD countries” are referred to as “other countries”, “remaining countries” or “lower-income countries”.

In the data for the United States, “high-skilled occupations” relate to management, business and financial occupations, as well as professional and related occupations; “low-skilled occupations” include cleaning and helping occupations.

Table IV.A1.1. **Employment rates of immigrant men by citizenship status and origin, around 2007**

Total			High-income OECD countries		Other countries											
					Total		Regions									
							Non-EU/EFTA European countries		Central and South America and Caribbean		East and South East Asia		North Africa and near middle East		Other African countries	
Non-naturalised	<i>Difference between naturalised and non-naturalised immigrants</i>	Non-naturalised	<i>Difference between naturalised and non-naturalised immigrants</i>	Non-naturalised	<i>Difference between naturalised and non-naturalised immigrants</i>	Non-naturalised	<i>Difference between naturalised and non-naturalised immigrants</i>	Non-naturalised	<i>Difference between naturalised and non-naturalised immigrants</i>	Non-naturalised	<i>Difference between naturalised and non-naturalised immigrants</i>	Non-naturalised	<i>Difference between naturalised and non-naturalised immigrants</i>			
Austria	79	(-2)	88	-15	76	(3)	76	(3)	(92)	-11
Belgium	65	(2)	69	(-3)	53	14	53	(11)	46	16	(59)	18
Switzerland	83	(1)	86	(-2)	79	5	77	7	(81)	(2)	91	(-3)	75	(6)	83	(-2)
Germany	68	11	77	4	62	16	62	17	77	(10)	73	(2)	55	19	-	-
Denmark	71	7	86	(2)	62	12	62	(12)	(53)	16
Spain	77	8	77	11	77	(5)	71	(9)	78	(6)	92	(-8)	72	(7)	90	(-19)
France	69	6	75	-6	64	12	60	(1)	(85)	-15	(77)	(10)	58	17	77	(3)
Luxembourg	81	(-5)	81	(-5)	80	(0)	85	(72)	..
Netherlands	76	(1)	81	(-1)	72	(4)	79	(-6)	(81)	(-1)	84	(-2)	60	(4)	70	(13)
Norway	87	-10	90	(-8)
Sweden	72	(5)	77	(3)	59	18
United Kingdom	80	(1)	81	(5)	78	(2)	(66)	(9)	(70)	(2)	80	(-1)	(67)	(11)	82	(2)
United States	83	2	85	(-5)	82	3	71	(10)	85	(0)	82	5	81	(6)	77	13
OECD average	75	3	80	-1	70	8										

Note: Shares of non-naturalised employed immigrant men are shown in percent. “..” indicates that the value is not statistically significant. Differences between naturalised and non-naturalised are reported in percentage points. Differences which are not significant at the 10% level are reported in parentheses. The OECD average refers to the unweighted average of the countries in the table; because of non-significant values in some categories, the OECD average is not calculated for the different origin groups of non-high-income OECD countries and does not include Norway. The sample is restricted to immigrants aged 15-64, not in education, and with at least ten years of residence.

Source: See Methodological Annex.

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Table IV.A1.2. **Employment rates of immigrant women by citizenship status and origin, around 2007**

	Total		High-income OECD countries		Other countries											
					Total		Regions									
							Non-EU/EFTA European countries		Central and South America and Caribbean		East and South East Asia		North Africa and near middle East		Other African countries	
Non-naturalised	<i>Difference between naturalised and non-naturalised immigrants</i>	Non-naturalised	<i>Difference between naturalised and non-naturalised immigrants</i>	Non-naturalised	<i>Difference between naturalised and non-naturalised immigrants</i>	Non-naturalised	<i>Difference between naturalised and non-naturalised immigrants</i>	Non-naturalised	<i>Difference between naturalised and non-naturalised immigrants</i>	Non-naturalised	<i>Difference between naturalised and non-naturalised immigrants</i>	Non-naturalised	<i>Difference between naturalised and non-naturalised immigrants</i>			
Austria	61	(1)	71	(-12)	56	(8)	56	(8)	(55)	21
Belgium	44	(3)	50	(3)	29	16	(25)	(8)
Switzerland	68	(2)	72	(-2)	63	(7)	61	(9)	70	(-2)	76	(-7)	(61)	(9)	75	(1)
Germany	48	14	60	7	40	18	40	16	50	14	52	(3)	29	20	..	(0)
Denmark	58	9	76	(-1)	47	18	51	17	.	.	(52)	(11)	-	-
Spain	62	(7)	60	(4)	64	(8)	53	.	76	(0)	72	(11)	46	(1)	72	(2)
France	54	3	69	-8	43	11	34	15	81	(-10)	35	14	60	9
Luxembourg	65	(-5)	66	(-7)	58	(8)	(52)	(74)	..
Netherlands	55	(5)	73	(-8)	39	20	38	(11)	(49)	18	56	(6)	27	19	(49)	(18)
Norway	83	-11	86	(-6)
Sweden	74	(-5)	75	(-2)	69	(-2)
United Kingdom	58	(0)	67	(2)	47	9	(32)	21	69	(1)	39	(8)	(49)	(-1)	56	13
United States	58	13	66	(3)	56	14	42	22	53	17	68	5	52	(13)	76	(0)
OECD average	59	4	67	-2	51	11

Note: Shares of non-naturalised employed immigrant women are shown in percent. “..” indicates that the value is not statistically significant. Differences between naturalised and non-naturalised are reported in percentage points. Differences which are not significant (probability $\geq 10\%$) are reported in parentheses. The OECD average refers to the unweighted average of the countries in the table; because of insignificant values in some categories, the OECD average is not calculated for the different origin groups of non-high-income OECD countries and does not include Norway. The sample is restricted to immigrants aged 15-64, not in education, and with at least ten years of residence.

Source: See Methodological Annex.


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Table IV.A1.3. **Longitudinal studies on the impact of naturalisation on the labour market outcomes of immigrants**

Study	Country	Data, period, data type	N*	Methodology	Effects on	Results	Magnitude of impact
Bratsberg <i>et al.</i> (2002)	US	National Longitudinal Survey of Youth (NLSY), 1979-1991, survey data	2 514	Individual fixed effects	Wages	Positive impact on wage growth, no evidence for accelerated wage growth prior to naturalisation.	Returns per year of experience are 2.5 percentage points higher after naturalisation.
Bratsberg <i>et al.</i> (2002)	US	National Longitudinal Survey of Youth (NLSY), 1979-1991, survey data	2 514	Dynamic probit regressions	Employment	Positive impact on employment in public-sector and white-collar jobs.	After 5 years of citizenship, evaluated at the sample mean, the likelihood of employment in the public sector is 3.3 percentage points higher than prior to naturalisation.
Steinhardt (2008)	Germany	IAB employment sample, 1975-2001, register data	507 325	Individual fixed effects	Wages	Positive impact on wage growth after naturalisation, immediate positive effect of naturalisation.	Wage growth following naturalisation is 0.3 percentage points higher per year than for non-naturalised immigrants. Furthermore, naturalisation is associated with an immediate wage increase of about 1%.
Fougère and Safi (2009)	France	Echantillon Démographique Permanent (EDP), 1968-1999, census data	17 386	Bivariate probit model	Employment	Positive relationship between employment probability and naturalisation. Magnitude varies across different immigrant groups.	Naturalization is associated with an employment premium of 23 percentage points for both men and women.
Scott (2008)	Sweden	Swedish Longitudinal Immigrant database (SLI), 1980-2001, register data	No info	Probit regressions	Employment	Mixed results. Association between employment probability and naturalisation varies strongly across immigrant groups.	Naturalised immigrants from Ethiopia have a 7-percentage-point higher probability of being full-time employed than their non-naturalised counterparts. On the other hand, the employment probability of naturalised immigrants in the US is 16 percentage points lower than that of their non-naturalised counterparts.
Scott (2008)	Sweden	Swedish Longitudinal Immigrant database (SLI), 1980-2001, register data	No info	Random effects GLS	Wages	Mixed results. Association between wages and naturalisation varies strongly across immigrant groups.	Naturalised immigrants from the Czech Republic earn 6% more than their non-naturalised counterparts. The wages of Greek immigrants who naturalise are 4% lower than their counterparts.
Ohlson (2008)	Sweden	LISA, 1990-2006, register data	497 293	Individual fixed effects	Wages	No indication for a positive impact on wage growth after naturalisation, evidence for accelerated wage growth prior to naturalisation.	Earnings start to increase on average by about 3.5 per cent in the period four years before the acquisition of citizenship and thereafter.
Hayfron (2008)	Norway	FD-Tygd Panel, 1992-2000, register data	2 382	Random effects	Wages	Positive association between wage growth and naturalisation.	Extending the post-naturalisation period by one year increases a naturalised citizen's wage by about 10 per cent, evaluated at the sample mean.

* All observations refer exclusively to non-naturalised and naturalised immigrants.

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PART V

Recent Changes in Migration Movements and Policies

(COUNTRY NOTES)

Australia



Permanent immigration to Australia increased again in 2008 by almost a third compared to the previous year. The migrant inflow consisted of 502 800 long-stay or permanent migrants, whereas 224 600

persons emigrated, yielding record net migration of 278 200. The main reason for this record high in net migration intake was a large number of incoming temporary migrants, whose number is uncapped, while new arrivals of permanent migrants represented only one in five of all arrivals. A large number (over a third) of permanent migration visas in 2008-2009 were issued to temporary migrants already in Australia, in particular to international students and skilled temporary migrants.

Nevertheless, the permanent skilled migration program, which due to the global financial crisis was already cut in January 2009 for 2008-2009 by 14%, to 115 000 places, was further reduced in 2009-2010 to 108 100 places. The new demand driven scheme introduced on 1 January 2009 gave priority to applicants sponsored by employers and those with experience in shortage occupations on a Critical Skills List (CSL) with 58 occupations, in particular in healthcare and engineering sectors. The CSL was cut to 42 occupations in March 2009. Subsequent priority was given to applicants in an occupation on the Migration Occupations in Demand List (MODL). In total 29 000 skilled migrant visas were granted to applicants with an occupation on the CSL. Since the introduction of the CSL, the number of nurses, general practitioners, mechanical engineers and secondary school teachers increased by 50% compared to the previous year, whereas the number of accountants, cooks and hairdressers were cut. Starting in 2010, the MODL was eliminated and the CSL will be phased out, to be replaced with a more targeted Skilled Occupation List (SOL) developed by Skills Australia and reviewed annually. The new SOL will aim at high value professions and trades, in order to have a more strategic tool in addressing Australia's medium and long term skill requirements.

The top five migrant source countries remained unvaried in 2007-2009. In 2008-2009, the composition was United Kingdom (18%), India (15%), China (13%), South Africa (9%) and the Philippines (5%). 31.1% of arrivals are from other OECD countries.

International students represent a primary resource for skilled migration. In 2008-2009, 227 900 offshore student visas were issued, up to 15% from the previous year. In the education and training sector the growth rate was 71%.

The temporary long-stay business visa (subclass 457), a demand-driven migration pathway enabling employers to meet immediate skill needs through sponsoring overseas workers, rose steadily over the last five years. Monthly applications for this visa peaked in June 2008, and then fell over the course of the year to be 45% lower in June 2009, which is in line with the decrease of the total number of job advertisements due to the economic downturn.

In April 2009, several changes were announced with regard to the temporary long-stay business visa to avoid both exploitation of foreign workers and undermining of work conditions for Australian employees. Employers are now required to match the market pay rates of Australian workers in the same occupation, rather than a minimum wage level; lower-skilled occupations were removed from the visa; the minimum level of English proficiency was raised; and sponsoring employers must demonstrate a commitment to train their own workforce.

In 2008-2009, there were 13 500 visas granted under the Humanitarian Program. Of these, 82% were granted to applicants under the offshore resettlement component and 18% under the onshore protection/asylum component. The main source countries remain Iraq, Burma, Afghanistan, and Sudan. In addition to these, there were 200 visas issued to Locally Engaged Employees and their families, employed by the Australian Defence Force (ADF) in Iraq as translators and interpreters and therefore at risk in Iraq.

On 17 August 2008 the Australian Government announced a three-year pilot scheme for Pacific seasonal workers. This pilot scheme allows up to 2 500 seasonal workers from Kiribati, Papua New Guinea, Tonga and Vanuatu to work in low-skilled jobs in the horticultural industry in regional Australia for up to seven months in a 12 month period. Due to the economic downturn, only 56 workers have participated in the pilot to date. Greater demand by farmers for seasonal workers in the 2010 harvest season is expected.

For further information:

www.immi.gov.au

Recent trends in migrants' flows and stocks

AUSTRALIA

Migration flows (foreigners) National definition	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average		Level ('000)																																	
					1997-2002	2003-2008	2008																																	
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>																																								
Inflows	4.8	5.6	9.0	9.5	5.7	8.1	203.9																																	
Outflows	0.9	0.6	0.8	0.8	0.6	0.7	16.8																																	
Migration inflows (foreigners) by type Permit based statistics (standardised)	Thousands		% distribution		Inflows of top 10 nationalities as a % of total inflows of foreigners																																			
	2007	2008	2007	2008	<table border="1"> <caption>Inflows of top 10 nationalities as a % of total inflows of foreigners</caption> <thead> <tr> <th>Nationality</th> <th>1997-2007 annual average</th> <th>2008</th> </tr> </thead> <tbody> <tr> <td>United Kingdom</td> <td>~14.5</td> <td>~15.5</td> </tr> <tr> <td>New Zealand</td> <td>~11.5</td> <td>~12.5</td> </tr> <tr> <td>India</td> <td>~8.5</td> <td>~9.5</td> </tr> <tr> <td>China</td> <td>~7.5</td> <td>~8.5</td> </tr> <tr> <td>South Africa</td> <td>~4.5</td> <td>~5.5</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Philippines</td> <td>~3.5</td> <td>~4.5</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Malaysia</td> <td>~2.5</td> <td>~3.5</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Korea</td> <td>~2.5</td> <td>~3.5</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Sri Lanka</td> <td>~2.5</td> <td>~3.5</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Thailand</td> <td>~2.5</td> <td>~3.5</td> </tr> </tbody> </table>			Nationality	1997-2007 annual average	2008	United Kingdom	~14.5	~15.5	New Zealand	~11.5	~12.5	India	~8.5	~9.5	China	~7.5	~8.5	South Africa	~4.5	~5.5	Philippines	~3.5	~4.5	Malaysia	~2.5	~3.5	Korea	~2.5	~3.5	Sri Lanka	~2.5	~3.5	Thailand	~2.5	~3.5
Nationality	1997-2007 annual average	2008																																						
United Kingdom	~14.5	~15.5																																						
New Zealand	~11.5	~12.5																																						
India	~8.5	~9.5																																						
China	~7.5	~8.5																																						
South Africa	~4.5	~5.5																																						
Philippines	~3.5	~4.5																																						
Malaysia	~2.5	~3.5																																						
Korea	~2.5	~3.5																																						
Sri Lanka	~2.5	~3.5																																						
Thailand	~2.5	~3.5																																						
Work	49.6	52.3	25.9	25.4																																				
Family (incl. accompanying family)	98.0	99.9	51.1	51.4																																				
Humanitarian	14.2	11.7	7.4	5.7																																				
Free movements	28.3	34.5	14.8	16.7																																				
Others	1.8	1.6	0.9	0.8																																				
Total	191.9	205.9	100.0	100.0																																				
Temporary migration	2000	2007	2008	Average 2003-2008																																				
<i>Thousands</i>																																								
International students	74.4	167.1	198.4	139.4																																				
Trainees	7.1	6.4	5.4	6.5																																				
Working holiday makers	71.5	134.6	154.1	114.9																																				
Seasonal workers																																				
Intra-company transfers																																				
Other temporary workers	54.5	116.6	140.6	90.4																																				
Inflows of asylum seekers	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average 1997-2002	Average 2003-2008	Level 2008																																	
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>																																								
	0.4	0.7	0.2	0.2	0.5	0.2	4 771																																	
Components of population growth	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average		Level ('000)																																	
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>																																								
Total	13.5	12.3	17.3	..	11.8																																	
Natural increase	7.2	6.3	7.0	..	6.3																																	
Net migration	5.9	5.8	10.3	..	5.4																																	
Stocks of immigrants	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average		Level ('000)																																	
<i>Percentage of the total population</i>																																								
Foreign-born population	23.0	23.0	25.0	25.3	23.2	24.5	5 426																																	
Foreign population																																	
Naturalisations	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average		Level 2008																																	
<i>Percentage of the foreign population</i>																																								
	121 221																																	
Labour market outcomes	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average																																			
<i>Employment/population ratio</i>																																								
Native-born men	80.8	80.7	..	79.9																																		
Foreign-born men	76.3	77.0	..	74.8																																		
Native-born women	68.8	69.1	..	67.4																																		
Foreign-born women	59.2	60.5	..	57.9																																		
<i>Unemployment rate</i>																																								
Native-born men	4.0	4.0	..	4.8																																		
Foreign-born men	4.3	4.2	..	5.0																																		
Native-born women	4.6	4.4	..	5.1																																		
Foreign-born women	5.5	5.2	..	5.6																																		
Macroeconomic indicators	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average		Level 2008																																	
<i>Annual growth in %</i>																																								
Real GDP	4.1	1.9	3.7	2.3	3.8	3.2																																		
GDP/capita (level in US dollars)	2.7	0.7	2.1	0.6	2.6	1.7	31 561																																	
Employment (level in thousands)	4.3	2.7	2.9	2.0	1.7	2.5	10 792																																	
<i>Percentage of the labour force</i>																																								
Unemployment	8.2	6.3	4.4	4.2	7.0	5.0																																		

Notes and sources are at the end of the chapter.

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Austria



According to national statistics, migration of foreign nationals increased slightly in 2008, to about 95 000. Emigration also increased, and net migration therefore remained at the

2007 level, somewhat over 39 000. Germany has been the main origin country of new immigration to Austria in recent years, doubling over the past five years, both in absolute terms and relative to the total inflows, to comprise more than 20% of total inflows of foreigners in 2008. Since Romania's accession to the European Union, inflows of Romanians have also risen sharply, replacing Serbia and Montenegro as the second most important origin country after Germany. More than 9 000 Romanians entered Austria in 2009.

Looking at the composition of migration flows, permanent-type humanitarian migration fell slightly, more than compensated by increases in family migration and free movement. The number of permanent-type labour migrants from outside of the European Union entering under the "key worker" scheme increased from 700 in 2007 to about 830 in 2008; nevertheless, this remains a small part of overall migration flows.

There has been a sharp increase in the flows of international students in recent years. In 2008, there were about 8 500 new international students, almost three times the 2005 level of 3 200.

Over the past decade, Austria has been one of the major destination countries for asylum seekers. After several years of declining numbers, asylum seeking increased in 2008, and this trend accelerated in 2009. More than 15 800 persons sought asylum in Austria in 2009, an increase of 23% over 2008.

Following a more restrictive policy, the numbers of naturalisations have fallen in recent years. Fewer than 8 000 persons were naturalised in 2009, the lowest figure in two decades. By comparison, in 2003, prior to the new legislation,

almost 45 000 foreigners obtained Austrian citizenship.

Austria decided to prolong the transitional arrangements for the implementation of free movement with the Central and Eastern European EU member countries, which joined the European Union in 2004 (EU8). Germany is the only other EU15 country which has not yet fully opened up its labour markets to labour migration from the EU8. Nonetheless, immigration from EU8 countries as well as Romania and Bulgaria accounts for about 30% of total immigration to Austria, in part due to geographical proximity and historical ties.

An amendment to the Aliens Employment Act, effective since January 2008, further opened the Austrian labour market to foreign researchers, facilitating scientific work in research and teaching, including in the arts. The regulation applies equally to employment in public and private institutions and enterprises. Accompanying spouses and children of researchers are now generally granted full access to the labour market.

A national integration plan was established in 2009. The plan combines, for the first time, all national, regional and local integration-related measures by different actors. It contains a number of measures to strengthen German language knowledge among immigrants and their children, including a requirement for low-educated family migrants to acquire some basic knowledge of the German language prior to arrival. Improved labour market access for family migrants and foreign students, both during and after studies, is also under discussion.

For further information:

www.bmi.gv.at

www.statistik.at/web_en/statistics/population/index.html

www.integrationsfonds.at

Recent trends in migrants' flows and stocks

AUSTRIA

Migration flows (foreigners) National definition	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average		Level ('000)			
					1997-2002	2003-2008	2008			
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>										
Inflows	..	8.1	11.0	11.4	8.6	11.4	94.6			
Outflows	..	5.5	6.3	6.6	5.8	6.3	55.3			
Migration inflows (foreigners) by type Permit based statistics (standardised)	Thousands		% distribution		Inflows of top 10 nationalities as a % of total inflows of foreigners					
	2007	2008	2007	2008						
Work	0.7	0.8	1.5	1.6						
Family (incl. accompanying family)	15.1	14.3	30.0	27.3						
Humanitarian	6.9	5.4	13.8	10.3						
Free movements	27.5	32.2	54.8	60.8						
Others	0.1	0.1	0.3	0.3						
Total	50.2	52.9	100.0	100.0						
Temporary migration	2000	2007	2008	Average 2003-2008						
<i>Thousands</i>										
International students	3.2	5.3	8.5	5.4						
Trainees	0.9						
Working holiday makers						
Seasonal workers	6.2	11.5	12.1	11.1						
Intra-company transfers	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.2						
Other temporary workers	6.0	3.4	3.4	6.2						
Inflows of asylum seekers	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average		Level			
					1997-2002	2003-2008	2008			
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>										
	0.7	2.3	1.4	1.5	2.6	2.4	12 841			
Components of population growth	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average		Level ('000)			
					1997-2002	2003-2008	2008			
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>										
Total	1.2	2.5	4.3	4.4	2.8	5.2	37			
Natural increase	0.9	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.3	3			
Net migration	0.3	2.2	4.2	4.1	2.4	4.6	34			
Stocks of immigrants	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average		Level ('000)			
					1997-2002	2003-2008	2008			
<i>Percentage of the total population</i>										
Foreign-born population	..	10.4	15.0	15.3	..	14.6	1 277			
Foreign population	8.4	8.7	10.0	10.4	8.7	9.8	868			
Naturalisations	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average		Level			
					1997-2002	2003-2008	2008			
<i>Percentage of the foreign population</i>										
	2.1	3.5	1.7	1.2	3.5	3.6	10 268			
Labour market outcomes	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average					
					1997-2002	2003-2008				
<i>Employment/population ratio</i>										
Native-born men	77.5	76.2	79.1	79.2	76.0	76.8				
Foreign-born men	78.5	76.1	75.0	74.9	75.6	73.2				
Native-born women	59.4	59.9	66.3	67.9	60.0	64.3				
Foreign-born women	57.5	58.3	56.1	56.6	56.7	56.0				
<i>Unemployment rate</i>										
Native-born men	3.6	4.3	3.1	2.9	4.2	3.6				
Foreign-born men	6.6	8.7	8.4	7.3	9.2	9.5				
Native-born women	4.6	4.2	4.1	3.5	4.4	4.1				
Foreign-born women	7.3	7.2	9.7	7.8	8.0	9.2				
Macroeconomic indicators	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average		Level			
					1997-2002	2003-2008	2008			
<i>Annual growth in %</i>										
Real GDP	2.5	3.7	3.5	2.0	2.5	2.5				
GDP/capita (level in US dollars)	2.4	3.4	3.1	1.6	2.2	1.9	32 713			
Employment (level in thousands)	0.2	1.4	1.6	2.2	0.9	1.0	4 196			
<i>Percentage of the labour force</i>										
Unemployment	5.5	4.8	5.2	4.9	5.5	5.6				

Notes and sources are at the end of the chapter.

StatLink <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/883335846401>

Belgium



Like many other OECD countries, the Belgian economy went into decline in the third quarter of 2008, with unemployment rising by one percentage point from the second quarter

of 2008 to the first quarter of 2009.

Belgium nonetheless saw an 8% increase in labour migration work permits in 2008, reaching a level of almost 25 000, about double the 2006 level, which in turn was almost double the level of 2005. Almost half of work permits in 2008 went to Polish nationals, another 5 500 to citizens of Bulgaria and Romania and almost 2000 to Indian nationals, followed by the United States (about 700), Japan (500) and China (350). Most of the increase thus comes from members of the new EU member states, many working in lesser skilled jobs. As a result, the proportion of highly qualified workers among those entering for work reasons fell from about one third in 2006 to less than one sixth in 2008.

The number of work permits granted to persons who entered for reasons other than work also stood at about 25 000 in 2008, down slightly – by about 1 100 – from the previous year. Permits do not necessarily translate into the number of workers, because they are granted automatically to certain groups (*e.g.*, international students, asylum seekers who applied more than six months earlier) who may or may not decide to work depending on circumstances.

Net migration remains below the OECD average. It has nevertheless accounted for over 70% of population growth in recent years.

Persons born in other European Union countries made up over 45% of all migrants in 2008. Overall, this group had an unemployment rate (close to 9%) closer to that of persons born in Belgium (5.9%) than to those born outside the European Union (20.7%).

Some 12 250 asylum applications involving about 15 600 persons were made in Belgium in 2008, an increase of about 10% compared to 2007. This remains low compared to the average of 18 800 observed over the 1990-2007 period. There were a little over 2 100 positive decisions on refugee status in 2008.

In 2009, Belgium arrived at an agreement providing for the regularisation of certain irregular migrants. The agreement clarified the criteria for regularisation procedures already allowed under Belgian law. Persons eligible include those awaiting decisions on asylum applications for long periods, persons in urgent humanitarian situations, families with children resident for more than 5 years and whose asylum request was made before 1 June 2007. Beneficiaries generally receive a permanent permit. An additional category – for which applications must be filed between 15 September and 15 December 2009 – is open to persons having “durable local ties” established over at least five years of residence, and persons in Belgium since 31 March 2007 and who can present a work contract. If accepted, these applicants receive a 1-year renewable type B work permit. It is estimated that some 25 000 persons are eligible according to all these criteria.

Transitory provisions concerning the eight new member countries of the European Union were lifted on 1 May 2009, and citizens of these countries acquired the right to free circulation and employment in Belgium. On the other hand, transitory provisions for Bulgarians and Romanians remain in place until 1 January 2012.

Finally, the exemption from work permits allowed under specific circumstances for executives has been extended to other management professionals.

For further information:

www.employment.belgium.be

www.ibz.be

www.dofi.fgov.be

Recent trends in migrants' flows and stocks

BELGIUM

Migration flows (foreigners)	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average		Level ('000)
					1997-2002	2003-2008	2008
<i>National definition</i>							
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>							
Inflows	5.2	5.6	8.8	..	5.7
Outflows	3.3	3.5	3.6	..	3.3
Migration inflows (foreigners) by type	Thousands		% distribution		Inflows of top 10 nationalities as a % of total inflows of foreigners		
<i>Permit based statistics (standardised)</i>	2007	2008	2007	2008			
Work	2.5	3.4	6.3	7.8			
Family (incl. accompanying family)	12.3	14.3	30.5	32.7			
Humanitarian	1.8	2.1	4.6	4.9			
Free movements	23.7	24.0	58.7	54.6			
Others			
Total	40.3	43.9	100.0	100.0			
Temporary migration	2000	2007	2008	Average			
<i>Thousands</i>				2003-2008			
International students			
Trainees			
Working holiday makers			
Seasonal workers	..	16.5	19.9	8.1			
Intra-company transfers			
Other temporary workers	..	13.5	14.3	6.7			
Inflows of asylum seekers	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average	Level	
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>	1.1	4.2	1.0	1.1	1997-2002	2003-2008	2008
					2.5	1.3	12 252
Components of population growth	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average	Level ('000)	
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>					1997-2002	2003-2008	2008
Total	3.6	3.4	3.0
Natural increase	1.0	1.0	1.9	..	0.9
Net migration	2.7	2.5	2.8
Stocks of immigrants	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average	Level ('000)	
<i>Percentage of the total population</i>					1997-2002	2003-2008	2008
Foreign-born population	..	10.3	13.0	12.1	..
Foreign population	9.0	8.4	9.1	..	8.5	8.6	..
Naturalisations	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average	Level	
<i>Percentage of the foreign population</i>	2.9	7.2	3.7	..	1997-2002	2003-2008	2008
					5.0	..	45 204
Labour market outcomes	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average		
					1997-2002	2003-2008	
Employment/population ratio							
Native-born men	67.8	70.8	69.7	69.1	68.9	69.1	
Foreign-born men	59.0	62.2	60.9	63.5	60.8	60.6	
Native-born women	46.9	53.8	57.2	57.8	51.5	55.9	
Foreign-born women	31.8	37.3	41.5	43.0	36.1	40.4	
Unemployment rate							
Native-born men	6.3	4.2	5.6	5.5	5.5	5.9	
Foreign-born men	16.8	14.7	15.8	15.3	15.6	15.9	
Native-born women	11.2	7.4	7.5	6.8	8.5	7.5	
Foreign-born women	23.9	17.5	17.2	15.7	18.2	17.2	
Macroeconomic indicators	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average	Level	
<i>Annual growth in %</i>					1997-2002	2003-2008	2008
Real GDP	2.4	3.7	2.9	1.0	2.5	2.1	
GDP/capita (level in US dollars)	2.2	3.4	2.2	0.2	2.2	1.5	30 567
Employment (level in thousands)	0.7	2.0	1.6	1.9	1.2	1.2	4 538
<i>Percentage of the labour force</i>							
Unemployment	9.7	6.9	7.5	7.0	8.0	8.0	

Notes and sources are at the end of the chapter.

StatLink <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/883338362374>

Bulgaria



2008 marked a record high in Bulgarian economic growth. After five years of growth of over 5%, GDP growth reached 6% in 2008, boosting labour demand. Unemployment fell to 6.3%, a 16-year low, while average nominal wages increased by 10.7%. At the same time, the main receiving countries for Bulgarian migrants were already suffering from the economic crisis, and total emigration from Bulgaria decreased in 2008 compared to the previous year. The Bulgarian Ministry of Labour and Social Policy estimates that about 10 000 Bulgarians emigrated in 2008. This figure seems to be an underestimate, since widespread short-term migration is not captured in statistics. Data from receiving countries, however, confirm the decreasing trend. Flows to Spain, which remains the most important destination country for Bulgarian migrants, dropped from about 31 330 in 2007 to about 13 100 in 2008. Outflows to Germany, the second destination country, remained stable. Greece remained the third place destination country for Bulgarians. The USA also represents a traditional destination, and flows were again about 3 500, largely through the Diversity Visa ("Green Card lottery").

In 2008, 7 854 Bulgarian workers were sent abroad within the framework of bilateral employment treaties. This high number is mainly a result of the programme with Spain, which provides for seasonal employment and employment for up to one year. Despite the crisis, this programme grew in 2008 to 5 906.

Migration inflows in 2008 were still influenced by positive Bulgarian macroeconomic trends. EU membership also continued to play a role in attracting ethnic Bulgarians from neighbouring countries. Those factors explain the sizeable increase in long term residence permits (allowing indefinite stay). Nevertheless, for the first time in a decade, fewer permits (valid for at least one year) were granted. Fewer EU citizens, who had been attracted by real estate and financial opportunities, arrived as the crisis spread. The total number of permit-holders (renewable and long-term) decreased slightly in 2008 compared to 2007 (from 25 488 to 25 456); while issuance of long-term residence permits rose from 3 588 to 4 601, that of renewable permits fell from 21 900 to 20 855. The traditional sending countries (FYR of Macedonia, Russian Federation, Serbia and Ukraine) accounted for the largest share of the inflows.

For the first time in Bulgarian immigration history, in 2008, foreign students were the largest group of new permit recipients (5 751). Although decreasing in number, EU citizens granted status on the grounds of free movement were still the second largest group (4 651); they were followed by foreigners who received their permits for family reasons (3 971). Work permits are not a major channel for immigration in Bulgaria, accounting only for 4.1% of the total inflow (1 871). As in 2007, the largest number of work permits was granted to Turkish citizens working mainly in the energy sector.

In 2008, the Bulgarian Government undertook broadly advertised measures to attract foreign workers due to growing labour demand, with, however, little impact on labour migration inflows, which rose marginally from 1 739 to 1 871. The onset of the crisis affected employer interest in international recruitment; the Bulgarian economy was already slowing down in the last quarter of 2008, and GDP fell 5.1% in 2009, the first contraction since 1997. The dramatic reversal in macroeconomic conditions over the one-year period led the new Government to introduce some changes in the implementation of the New Migration and Integration Strategy (2008-2015). The Regulation for the Issuance, Rejection and Cancellation of Work Permits adopted in mid-2009 imposed stricter conditions for the admission of foreign workers.

A broad range of measures to encourage the return of Bulgarian workers abroad were implemented in 2008. The new Government formed in mid-2009 also created a Minister responsible for Bulgarians abroad.

Applications for naturalisation fell 44% from 2007 to 2008. Nevertheless, the number of those who received Bulgarian citizenship reached a record high of 7 113, of which 97% were of Bulgarian origin.

In 2008, Bulgaria received 746 asylum applications, a 24% decrease compared to 2007. 267 persons were granted humanitarian status and 21 refugee status. 361 applications were rejected, the highest rejection rate (48.3%) since 1998. The main origin countries for asylum seekers were Afghanistan, Iraq, Armenia, FYR of Macedonia and Iran.

For further information:

www.nsi.bg/Index_e.htm

www.aref.government.bg

www.government.bg/cgi-bin/e-cms/vis/vis.pl?s=001&p=0136&g

Recent trends in migrants' flows and stocks

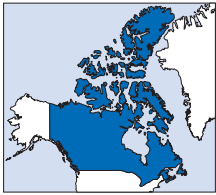
BULGARIA

Migration flows (foreigners) National definition	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average		Level ('000)																														
					1997-2002	2003-2008	2008																														
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>																																					
Inflows	0.3	0.5	3.3	3.5	0.4	2.6	26.5																														
Outflows																														
Migration inflows (foreigners) by type Permit based statistics (standardised)	Thousands		% distribution		Inflows of top 10 nationalities as a % of total inflows of foreigners																																
	2007	2008	2007	2008	<p>Legend: 1997-2002 annual average (dotted line), 2008 (solid blue bar)</p> <table border="1"> <thead> <tr> <th>Nationality</th> <th>1997-2002 average (%)</th> <th>2008 (%)</th> </tr> </thead> <tbody> <tr><td>Turkey (FYROM)</td><td>~18</td><td>~22</td></tr> <tr><td>Russia</td><td>~15</td><td>~18</td></tr> <tr><td>United Kingdom</td><td>~10</td><td>~12</td></tr> <tr><td>Ukraine</td><td>~8</td><td>~8</td></tr> <tr><td>Serbia</td><td>~5</td><td>~5</td></tr> <tr><td>United States</td><td>~4</td><td>~4</td></tr> <tr><td>Germany</td><td>~3</td><td>~3</td></tr> <tr><td>Moldova</td><td>~2</td><td>~2</td></tr> <tr><td>Greece</td><td>~1</td><td>~1</td></tr> </tbody> </table>			Nationality	1997-2002 average (%)	2008 (%)	Turkey (FYROM)	~18	~22	Russia	~15	~18	United Kingdom	~10	~12	Ukraine	~8	~8	Serbia	~5	~5	United States	~4	~4	Germany	~3	~3	Moldova	~2	~2	Greece	~1	~1
Nationality	1997-2002 average (%)	2008 (%)																																			
Turkey (FYROM)	~18	~22																																			
Russia	~15	~18																																			
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Ukraine	~8	~8																																			
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Temporary migration	2000	2007	2008	Average 2003-2008																																	
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Intra-company transfers																																	
Other temporary workers	0.3	1.1																																	
Inflows of asylum seekers	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average 1997-2002	Average 2003-2008	Level 2008																														
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>																																					
	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	750																														
Components of population growth	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average 1997-2002	Average 2003-2008	Level ('000) 2008																														
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>																																					
Total	-5.1	-4.4	..	-5.1	-34																														
Natural increase	-5.1	-5.1	-4.9	-4.3	-5.8	-5.1	-33																														
Net migration	-0.2	-0.1	..	-0.2	-1																														
Stocks of immigrants	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average 1997-2002	Average 2003-2008	Level ('000) 2008																														
<i>Percentage of the total population</i>																																					
Foreign-born population																														
Foreign population	2.3	2.6	..	5.0	79																														
Naturalisations	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average 1997-2002	Average 2003-2008	Level 2008																														
<i>Percentage of the foreign population</i>																																					
	7.9	9.2	..	8.4	7 113																														
Labour market outcomes	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average 1997-2002	Average 2003-2008																															
<i>Employment/population ratio</i>																																					
Native-born men																															
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Real GDP	..	5.4	6.2	6.0	..	5.8																															
GDP/capita (level in US dollars)																															
Employment (level in thousands)	4.5	3.0	..	3.4	3 306																														
<i>Percentage of the labour force</i>																																					
Unemployment	..	16.4	6.9	5.7	16.4	10.8																															

Notes and sources are at the end of the chapter.

StatLink <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/883376541206>

Canada



In 2008, Canada received about 247 200 permanent migrants, an increase of 4% compared to the previous year and above the average for the past decade (235 215). The three top sending countries remained China (12%), India (10%) and the Philippines (10%). While the share of permanent migrants from the Philippines increased by 24%, and those from China by 9%, the proportion of those coming from India fell for the third consecutive year, by 6%.

One in four permanent migrants came to Canada through the employment channel, and 1 in 8 on the basis of humanitarian residence permits. Family migration accounted for 62% of total permanent migration in 2008. The educational level of migrants has been increasing since 1990. 54% of permanent residents between 25 and 64 years of age in 2008 had at least a bachelor-level degree. English was the leading mother tongue of new permanent residents in 2008 (12%), followed by Mandarin (11%) and Arabic (9%).

Canada admitted 400 000 temporary immigrants in 2008. 79 500 foreign students came to Canada in 2008, accounting for 20% of temporary migrants. 48% came as temporary foreign workers, a 17% increase over the previous year. The United States remained the leading source country of all foreigners entering for employment in 2008. In October 2009, the Government proposed changing the temporary foreign worker programme, to limit stay to four years and impose a six-year re-entry ban, although temporary foreign workers can apply for permanent residence during their stay in Canada, and Canadian experience is a factor in considering their applications.

Canada has three sector-based temporary foreign worker programs: a seasonal agricultural workers program (SAWP) for agricultural workers from Mexico and the Caribbean to enter Canada in order to assist in harvesting; a Live-in Caregiver Program (LCP); and a working holiday maker program. The working holiday programme, which allows for up to 24 months stay, comprised 21% of temporary residents entering Canada in 2008. Migrants who come under the LCP – 12 900 were admitted in 2008 – may apply for a permanent residence permit after being employed as a live-in caregiver for two years.

In 2008, the unemployment rate among foreign-born was 7.1%, 1.2 percentage points higher than among Canadian born. However, longer-term migrants had better outcomes: only 5.6% of migrants with at least ten years of residence in Canada did not have a job. Between October 2008 and October 2009, the unemployment rate rose from 6.3% to 8.6%. The economic downturn especially affected immigrants of prime working age who entered Canada in the previous five years. Their employment declined by 13% – five times more than among the Canadian-born. Longer established migrants, however, experienced smaller losses than native-born and immigrants with more than ten years of residence even experienced modest employment gains.

176 500 foreigners acquired Canadian citizenship in 2008. On 17 April 2009, a 2008 amendment to the Canadian Citizenship Act passed, granting citizenship to people who were not previously eligible. Children born outside of Canada to Canadian citizens will automatically acquire citizenship. However, *jus sanguinis* is now limited to the first generation: only if the Canadian parent was born in Canada or naturalised will the child automatically become a Canadian citizen.

Despite the economic crisis, Canada has maintained its overall target for immigration in 2010 on the level of the previous years (240 000 to 265 000). Targets for acceptance of those who lodge asylum applications in Canada have been substantially cut for 2010, to 9 000 to 12 000 including dependents, less than half of the target of 2006.

Canada has increased efforts to retain foreign students. In 2008, the Off-Campus Work Permit (OCWP) Program was expanded, to extend off-campus employment access, previously limited to students at public institutions, to students of some private degree-granting schools. The Post-Graduation Work Permit Program was extended, enabling foreign students to obtain an open three year work permit after graduation.

In 2008, Canadian Orientation Abroad was expanded to four new countries: Colombia, Nepal, Sri Lanka and Jordan. Other initiatives were taken to ensure that immigrants are better prepared to enter the Canadian labour market. Language training for newcomers was improved and expanded.

For further information:

www.cic.gc.ca

Recent trends in migrants' flows and stocks

CANADA

Migration flows (foreigners) National definition	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average		Level ('000)																																	
					1997-2002	2003-2008	2008																																	
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>																																								
Inflows	7.3	7.4	7.2	7.4	7.0	7.5	247.2																																	
Outflows																																	
Migration inflows (foreigners) by type Permit based statistics (standardised)	Thousands		% distribution		Inflows of top 10 nationalities as a % of total inflows of foreigners																																			
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Nationality	1997-2007 annual average	2008																																						
China	15.0	15.0																																						
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Korea	3.0	3.0																																						
France	2.0	2.0																																						
Iran	1.0	1.0																																						
Colombia	1.0	1.0																																						
Work	53.8	61.3	22.7	24.8																																				
Family (incl. accompanying family)	143.7	143.0	60.7	62.0																																				
Humanitarian	39.2	32.5	16.5	13.1																																				
Free movements																																				
Others	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.0																																				
Total	236.8	247.2	100.0	100.0																																				
Temporary migration	2000	2007	2008	Average	<p>Legend: 1997-2007 annual average (dashed blue), 2008 (solid blue)</p> <table border="1"> <caption>Data for Inflows of top 10 nationalities (as a % of total inflows)</caption> <thead> <tr> <th>Nationality</th> <th>1997-2007 annual average</th> <th>2008</th> </tr> </thead> <tbody> <tr><td>China</td><td>15.0</td><td>15.0</td></tr> <tr><td>India</td><td>10.0</td><td>10.0</td></tr> <tr><td>Philippines</td><td>8.0</td><td>8.0</td></tr> <tr><td>United States</td><td>6.0</td><td>6.0</td></tr> <tr><td>United Kingdom</td><td>5.0</td><td>5.0</td></tr> <tr><td>Pakistan</td><td>4.0</td><td>4.0</td></tr> <tr><td>Korea</td><td>3.0</td><td>3.0</td></tr> <tr><td>France</td><td>2.0</td><td>2.0</td></tr> <tr><td>Iran</td><td>1.0</td><td>1.0</td></tr> <tr><td>Colombia</td><td>1.0</td><td>1.0</td></tr> </tbody> </table>			Nationality	1997-2007 annual average	2008	China	15.0	15.0	India	10.0	10.0	Philippines	8.0	8.0	United States	6.0	6.0	United Kingdom	5.0	5.0	Pakistan	4.0	4.0	Korea	3.0	3.0	France	2.0	2.0	Iran	1.0	1.0	Colombia	1.0	1.0
Nationality	1997-2007 annual average	2008																																						
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France	2.0	2.0																																						
Iran	1.0	1.0																																						
Colombia	1.0	1.0																																						
	Thousands			2003-2008																																				
International students	59.6	64.6	59.7	59.2																																				
Trainees																																				
Working holiday makers	..	31.1	39.6	29.2																																				
Seasonal workers	18.0	28.5	28.0	23.6																																				
Intra-company transfers	3.9	8.2	10.2	7.1																																				
Other temporary workers	98.6	97.1	114.8	79.3																																				
Inflows of asylum seekers	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average	Level																																		
					1997-2002	2003-2008	2008																																	
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>	0.9	1.1	0.8	1.0	1.1	0.8	34 800																																	
Components of population growth	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average		Level ('000)																																	
					1997-2002	2003-2008	2008																																	
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>																																								
Total	10.4	9.7	11.1	..	9.4																																	
Natural increase	5.7	3.6	3.8	..	3.8																																	
Net migration	5.5	6.5	7.3	..	6.0																																	
Stocks of immigrants	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average		Level ('000)																																	
					1997-2002	2003-2008	2008																																	
<i>Percentage of the total population</i>																																								
Foreign-born population																																	
Foreign population																																	
Naturalisations	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average		Level																																	
					1997-2002	2003-2008	2008																																	
<i>Percentage of the foreign population</i>	176 467																																	
Labour market outcomes	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average																																			
					1997-2002	2003-2008																																		
Employment/population ratio																																								
Native-born men	75.9	77.4	..	77.0	76.6	..																																		
Foreign-born men	75.6	77.0	..	77.8	75.6	..																																		
Native-born women	62.0	66.0	..	71.8	65.0	..																																		
Foreign-born women	55.0	59.6	..	64.0	58.0	..																																		
Unemployment rate																																								
Native-born men	8.6	5.7	..	6.6	6.7	..																																		
Foreign-born men	10.4	6.1	..	6.9	7.6	..																																		
Native-born women	9.8	6.2	..	5.3	7.1	..																																		
Foreign-born women	13.3	8.7	..	7.6	9.1	..																																		
Macroeconomic indicators	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average		Level																																	
					1997-2002	2003-2008	2008																																	
<i>Annual growth in %</i>																																								
Real GDP	2.8	5.2	2.5	0.4	4.0	2.3																																		
GDP/capita (level in US dollars)	1.8	4.3	1.4	-0.8	3.0	1.3	31 490																																	
Employment (level in thousands)	1.8	2.5	2.3	1.5	2.2	1.9	17 123																																	
<i>Percentage of the labour force</i>																																								
Unemployment	9.5	6.8	6.0	6.1	7.8	6.7																																		

Notes and sources are at the end of the chapter.

StatLink <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/883385737064>

Czech Republic



The Czech economy had the proverbial “double-dip” in economic activity in the economic crisis, with a decline in economic activity beginning in the fourth quarter of 2008, followed by positive growth and then a decline again in the fourth quarter of 2009. The fall in GDP towards the end of 2008 was modest, however, and the unemployment rate was only beginning to show signs of increasing towards the very end of the year.

Despite the apparent small impact of the economic crisis visible in 2008, immigration inflows into the Czech Republic declined by some 25% in that year, with the decline showing up largely among Ukrainians and Slovaks. Since 2004, Ukraine has replaced the Slovak Republic as the main origin country of immigrants. In contrast to Ukrainians and Slovaks, immigration of Germans more than doubled in 2008, while remaining at modest levels (4 300); that of Vietnamese also increased.

The foreign population increased by almost 12% in 2008 to reach 438 000, or about 4.2% of the total population. Most of the increase occurred among dependent workers (+43 000) and persons receiving business authorisations (+8 000). Fully 60% of dependent foreign workers are employed in manufacturing and construction. The foreign labour force as a whole represents 6.9% of the total labour force.

The Czech Republic is among the OECD countries for which migration accounts for almost all of population growth. Net migration over 2007-2008 reached 0.8% of the total population, which ranks it among the highest in the OECD. Net migration at this rate would ensure a small positive growth of the working-age population over the next ten years.

The number of asylum seekers continued to decline in the Czech Republic in 2008 and at close to 1 700, stands far below the 2001 peak of 18 100. Less than 10% of asylum seekers are accorded refugee status.

As of 2009, Czech language knowledge is required in order to obtain permanent residence.

The “green card” regime for labour migration was also introduced in 2009. The green card is a dual document including both a work permit and a permit for long-term residence. It is issued to three categories of foreigners: a) qualified workers with university education and key staff; b) workers for jobs requiring the minimum level recognised by an apprentice-leaving exam; c) other workers. The validity of the green card is three years for category A and two years for the other two. The green cards are for third-country nationals. As a result of the economic crisis, however, few green cards have been issued.

Due to the crisis, a “protection period” has been introduced, granting foreign workers who lose their jobs through no fault of their own 60 days to look for a new job.

The categories of foreigners who do not need a work permit to take on employment has been enlarged. It now includes persons who are systematically preparing for a future job or complete secondary or university education in the Czech Republic. Work permit requirements have also been lifted for foreigners who have a long-term work permit and live with a foreigner who has the status of long-term resident of the European Union.

Priorities have been established in 2008 to promote the integration of foreigners, particularly with regard to knowledge of the Czech language, economic self-sufficiency, orientation in society and relationships with members of the broader society.

Finally, a return programme was introduced in 2009, for immigrants who lost their jobs as a result of the economic crisis and were unable to cover the cost of travel back home. About 2 200 foreigners have taken advantage of this programme.

For further information:

www.mvcr.cz

www.czso.cz

Recent trends in migrants' flows and stocks

CZECH REPUBLIC

Migration flows (foreigners) National definition	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average		Level ('000)			
					1997-2002	2003-2008	2008			
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>										
Inflows	0.6	0.4	9.9	7.5	1.4	6.7	77.8			
Outflows	0.0	0.0	1.8	0.4	0.9	2.3	3.8			
Migration inflows (foreigners) by type Permit based statistics (standardised)	Thousands		% distribution		Inflows of top 10 nationalities as a % of total inflows of foreigners					
	2007	2008	2007	2008						
Work						
Family (incl. accompanying family)						
Humanitarian						
Free movements						
Others						
Total	98.8	71.8						
Temporary migration	2000	2007	2008	Average 2003-2008						
<i>Thousands</i>										
International students	..	5.7	6.0	4.6						
Trainees						
Working holiday makers						
Seasonal workers						
Intra-company transfers						
Other temporary workers						
Inflows of asylum seekers	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average		Level			
					1997-2002	2003-2008	2008			
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>										
	0.1	0.9	0.2	0.2	0.8	0.4	1 711			
Components of population growth	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average		Level ('000)			
					1997-2002	2003-2008	2008			
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>										
Total	-1.2	-1.1	9.1	8.3	-1.7	4.2	86			
Natural increase	-2.1	-1.8	1.0	1.4	-1.8	0.0	15			
Net migration	1.0	0.6	8.1	6.9	0.7	4.4	72			
Stocks of immigrants	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average		Level ('000)			
					1997-2002	2003-2008	2008			
<i>Percentage of the total population</i>										
Foreign-born population			
Foreign population	1.5	2.0	3.8	4.2	2.1	3.1	438			
Naturalisations	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average		Level			
					1997-2002	2003-2008	2008			
<i>Percentage of the foreign population</i>										
	..	4.1	0.5	0.4	..	1.0	1 837			
Labour market outcomes	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average					
					1997-2002	2003-2008				
<i>Employment/population ratio</i>										
Native-born men	74.8	75.4	..	73.8				
Foreign-born men	76.6	77.5	..	71.3				
Native-born women	57.3	57.6	..	56.9				
Foreign-born women	57.7	55.4	..	52.6				
<i>Unemployment rate</i>										
Native-born men	4.2	3.5	..	5.5				
Foreign-born men	7.6	4.5	..	8.6				
Native-born women	6.7	5.6	..	8.3				
Foreign-born women	10.8	10.2	..	13.6				
Macroeconomic indicators	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average		Level			
					1997-2002	2003-2008	2008			
<i>Annual growth in %</i>										
Real GDP	5.9	3.6	6.1	2.5	1.3	5.0				
GDP/capita (level in US dollars)	6.0	3.8	5.6	1.4	1.5	4.6	20 609			
Employment (level in thousands)	0.9	-0.7	2.0	1.6	-0.6	0.9	4 987			
<i>Percentage of the labour force</i>										
Unemployment	4.1	8.9	5.3	4.4	7.4	6.8				

Notes and sources are at the end of the chapter.

StatLink <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/883445113453>

Denmark



In 2008, 37 500 permanent residence permits were granted in Denmark, an increase of 42% compared to 2007. 60% of permanent permits were granted on the basis of free movement, 16% for family reasons and another 16% for economic reasons. These figures are based on *ex post* analysis of persons who entered in a given year and stayed for at least 12 months.

The number of international students increased by 23% to 7 400. Compared to 2000 this is a raise of 76%.

The total number of residence permits granted, which had increased by 25% in 2007, rose another 18% in 2008 from 58 600 to 69 300. The entire rise was accounted for by an increase in permits to EU and EEA nationals, which more than doubled to 30 400. The number of residence permits issued for employment fell almost by half, to 10 300, while family reunification fell slightly.

Foreign-born men are less frequently employed than native-born men, by a 9 percentage point gap. The discrepancy is even larger among women: while 76% of native-born women are employed, only 59% of foreign-born women are. Unemployment rates are about 4 percentage higher among foreign-born compared to native-born.

The number of naturalisations in 2008, 5 772, increased compared to the previous year (3 648) but are still below the average for the preceding decade. 22 September 2008 a new political agreement was made on rules for Danish naturalisation. Among others it was agreed to tighten existing requirements with respect to knowledge of the Danish language, society, culture and history which should be documented by a certificate of a special citizenship test.

In 2008, the “Division for Cohesion and Prevention of Radicalisation” was established within the Ministry of Integration Affairs. The overall aim of this division is the prevention of radicalisation. Concrete measures to achieve this aim are described in an action plan “A common and safe future”, published in January 2009; a new action plan against discrimination was scheduled for the end of 2009.

The cross-ministerial working group, comprising experts on integration, was created in the context of the Government Platform “Society of Opportunities” (2007).

It published a discussion paper and a report on marginalized ethnic minority children and youngsters in 2008/2009. In 2010, the group will work on citizenship. The task force organises seminars on integration related issues and problems.

Moreover, Denmark aims at linking integration policies with active labour market policies. Existing language courses have been extended to labour migrants, who receive shorter and more work-focused language training. To support the integration of spouses and families of newcomers, a “family package” has been introduced for labour migrants, encompassing an information package, an introductory course, host (mentorship) programs and further parent-specific information.

As incentives for active integration measures for local authorities, who are responsible for the integration of migrants, so-called “result subsidies” are given for each successfully integrated newcomer, i.e. those who have passed the Danish language competency test. The EUR 4 300 to 5 000 for each integrated newcomer can be spent in the local municipality without restrictions of usage. In November 2009, the Ministry of Refugee, Immigration and Integration Affairs also concluded partnership agreements with six municipalities to improve the local effort to prevent marginalization of ethnic minority children and youngsters.

On 1 January 2009, the new Complaints Board on Equal Treatment came into force. This new Complaints Board handles concrete complaints about discriminatory treatment of any kind and is able to award discrimination victims for non-pecuniary damages.

According to the Danish Repatriation Act, immigrants who choose to return to their home country are eligible for a “repatriation” grant. In November 2009, a new bill was presented to the parliament, which aims at increasing the incentives for immigrants to return if they cannot or will not integrate in the Danish society. The repatriation grant for each adult would increase from DKK 28 256 (EUR 3 800) in 2009 to DKK 116 954 (EUR 15 716) in 2010.

For further information:

www.newtodenmark.dk

www.workindenmark.dk

Recent trends in migrants' flows and stocks

DENMARK

Migration flows (foreigners) National definition	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average		Level ('000)			
					1997-2002	2003-2008	2008			
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>										
Inflows	6.3	4.3	4.3	..	4.1			
Outflows	1.0	2.6	3.3	..	2.6			
Migration inflows (foreigners) by type Permit based statistics (standardised)	Thousands		% distribution		Inflows of top 10 nationalities as a % of total inflows of foreigners					
	2007	2008	2007	2008						
Work	5.6	6.0	21.3	15.9						
Family (incl. accompanying family)	6.7	5.9	25.2	16.1						
Humanitarian	1.3	1.5	4.8	3.9						
Free movements	11.5	22.7	43.6	60.6						
Others	1.4	1.3	5.1	3.5						
Total	26.4	37.5	100.0	100.0						
Temporary migration	2000	2007	2008	Average 2003-2008						
<i>Thousands</i>										
International students	4.2	6.0	7.4	6.3						
Trainees	1.4	3.2	3.1	2.3						
Working holiday makers						
Seasonal workers						
Intra-company transfers						
Other temporary workers	1.4	3.4	4.2	3.3						
Inflows of asylum seekers	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average		Level			
					1997-2002	2003-2008	2008			
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>										
	1.9	2.4	0.3	0.4	1.5	0.5	2 360			
Components of population growth	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average		Level ('000)			
					1997-2002	2003-2008	2008			
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>										
Total	6.7	3.6	5.3	6.5	3.4	3.9	36			
Natural increase	1.3	1.7	1.6	1.9	1.4	1.6	10			
Net migration	5.5	1.7	4.2	5.3	1.9	2.4	29			
Stocks of immigrants	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average		Level ('000)			
					1997-2002	2003-2008	2008			
<i>Percentage of the total population</i>										
Foreign-born population	4.8	5.8	6.9	7.3	5.7	6.7	402			
Foreign population	4.3	4.8	5.5	5.8	4.9	5.2	320			
Naturalisations	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average		Level			
					1997-2002	2003-2008	2008			
<i>Percentage of the foreign population</i>										
	2.4	7.3	1.2	1.8	4.9	2.9	5 772			
Labour market outcomes	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average					
					1997-2002	2003-2008				
<i>Employment/population ratio</i>										
Native-born men	81.2	81.5	82.2	82.6	81.5	81.5				
Foreign-born men	69.5	67.0	69.1	73.8	66.1	69.0				
Native-born women	67.8	73.3	75.2	75.8	72.4	74.1				
Foreign-born women	47.0	53.3	57.1	59.3	53.7	55.8				
<i>Unemployment rate</i>										
Native-born men	5.4	3.7	3.0	2.8	3.8	3.7				
Foreign-born men	13.2	10.7	8.6	6.6	10.4	10.1				
Native-born women	8.4	4.9	3.8	3.3	5.3	4.5				
Foreign-born women	16.7	6.6	7.9	7.5	10.0	9.2				
Macroeconomic indicators	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average		Level			
					1997-2002	2003-2008	2008			
<i>Annual growth in %</i>										
Real GDP	3.1	3.5	1.7	-0.9	2.1	1.6				
GDP/capita (level in US dollars)	2.6	3.2	1.3	-1.4	1.7	1.2	31 082			
Employment (level in thousands)	0.7	0.5	2.7	0.9	0.9	0.8	2 923			
<i>Percentage of the labour force</i>										
Unemployment	6.7	4.3	3.6	3.3	4.7	4.4				

Notes and sources are at the end of the chapter.

StatLink <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/883461227245>

Finland



In 2008, a total of 29 100 persons migrated to Finland, a 12% rise over 2007 (which had seen a 16% increase in inflows). Out of these immigrants, the share of foreign nationals was 19 900 (in 2007 about 17 500).

The net immigration of foreign nationals was 15 400, which increased 7% from the previous year. The biggest immigrating groups came from Estonia, Russia, China, Sweden, India, Somalia, Poland, Thailand and Iraq. At the end of 2008 a total of 143 300 foreign nationals lived permanently in Finland, representing 2.7% of the entire population. It was estimated that 70 000 of foreign citizens represented labour force. At the end of 2008, the estimated unemployment rate of foreigners was 21% and the employment rate 50%.

Immigration to Finland has increased in 2007 and in 2008. The year 2008 was a top year for migration in Finland with the largest net immigration figures since the country attained independence. In 2009, the numbers dropped noticeably as a result of the recession, first felt in Finland in autumn 2008. After the peak years of 2007 and 2008, immigration has declined to levels of the first years of the past decade. Preliminary figures from Statistics Finland indicate that 16 950 persons moved to Finland from abroad from 1 January to 31 August 2009 (21 555 in 2008). The number of residence permit applications from countries outside the EU/EEA has also decreased: in 2009, a total of 18 200 applications were lodged (22 200 in 2008). Applications for residence permits for employment decreased the most, by about one-third, while the number of applications on other grounds (family ties, studies) remained largely at 2008 levels.

In 2008, the number of asylum applicants increased against the previous year. In 2008, 4 035 people sought asylum in Finland. The number of applicants nearly trebled compared with 1 505 applicants in 2007. The rise has continued during 2009, to 5 988 (although this was partly due to an influx of Bulgarian asylum seekers, all of whose claims were rejected). The majority (87%) of the asylum seekers were Iraqis and Somalis. Other big groups came from Afghanistan, Russia and Serbia. Approximately every fourth applicant was female. The number of unaccompanied minors increased even

more rapidly: in 2008 their number totalled 706, whereas in 2007 their number was 98. About 80% of unaccompanied minors were boys, and the largest groups came from Somalia, Iraq and Afghanistan. Finland will implement plans to decrease the number of groundless applications for asylum it receives with ongoing legislative changes. Waiting times, costs and the number of unfounded asylum claims have been on the increase.

The resettlement quota of refugees for 2008 was 750. The refugee quota is verified in the State budget for each year. Finnish authorities interviewed most of the refugees in the first countries of asylum before granting them residence permits. The largest groups came from Iraq, the Democratic Republic of Congo and Myanmar.

In 2008, authorities made 4 917 decisions on residence permit applications filed by students, whereas the number of decisions was 4 051 in 2007. The increase in decisions was about 21% compared with 2007. The increase in the number of African applicants in particular can be expected to continue. The prognosis claiming that the number of applications will increase is supported by the fact that the Ministry of Education has set as one of the primary objectives of its globalisation strategy to considerably increase the mobility of foreign students from the present level.

An Action Plan on Labour Migration was adopted as a Government Resolution in November 2009. The Action Plan was prepared by the Ministry of Interior through an interministerial steering committee including consultation with social partners and civil society, and expands on the policies created in the government's immigration policy programme. It describes the situation of labour migration, Finland's strategic policies in this respect, and the necessary measures and resources. Most measures proposed aim at preparation for the particular challenges brought by labour migration. Funding is expected to be through existing programmes rather than new expenditures.

For further information:

www.migri.fi/netcomm/?language=EN

www.intermin.fi

Recent trends in migrants' flows and stocks

FINLAND

Migration flows (foreigners) National definition	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average		Level ('000)			
					1997-2002	2003-2008	2008			
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>										
Inflows	1.4	1.8	3.3	3.7	1.8	2.7	19.9			
Outflows	0.3	0.8	0.6	0.8	0.5	0.6	4.5			
Migration inflows (foreigners) by type Permit based statistics (standardised)	Thousands		% distribution		Inflows of top 10 nationalities as a % of total inflows of foreigners					
	2007	2008	2007	2008						
Work	2.3	3.0	13.4	15.1						
Family (incl. accompanying family)	5.8	6.7	33.0	33.7						
Humanitarian	2.1	2.2	11.9	10.8						
Free movements	6.8	7.5	38.9	37.5						
Others	0.5	0.6	2.9	2.8						
Total	17.5	19.9	100.0	100.0						
Temporary migration	2000	2007	2008	Average 2003-2008						
<i>Thousands</i>										
International students	..	3.8	4.9	4.0						
Trainees						
Working holiday makers						
Seasonal workers	8.8	14.0	12.0	12.4						
Intra-company transfers						
Other temporary workers	1.6	10.0	13.0	7.4						
Inflows of asylum seekers	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average		Level			
					1997-2002	2003-2008	2008			
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>										
	0.2	0.6	0.3	0.8	0.4	0.6	4 016			
Components of population growth	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average		Level ('000)			
					1997-2002	2003-2008	2008			
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>										
Total	3.5	1.9	4.3	4.7	2.4	3.8	26			
Natural increase	2.7	1.5	1.9	2.1	1.6	1.9	11			
Net migration	0.6	0.4	2.5	2.6	0.7	1.9	14			
Stocks of immigrants	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average		Level ('000)			
					1997-2002	2003-2008	2008			
<i>Percentage of the total population</i>										
Foreign-born population	2.1	2.6	3.8	4.1	2.6	3.5	219			
Foreign population	1.3	1.8	2.5	2.7	1.8	2.3	143			
Naturalisations	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average		Level			
					1997-2002	2003-2008	2008			
<i>Percentage of the foreign population</i>										
	1.0	3.3	3.6	4.7	3.5	4.6	6 682			
Labour market outcomes	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average					
					1997-2002	2003-2008				
<i>Employment/population ratio</i>										
Native-born men	61.8	71.2	72.2	73.0	69.2	71.5				
Foreign-born men	..	49.9	69.8	73.0	59.9	67.1				
Native-born women	58.4	65.3	68.7	69.3	64.2	68.2				
Foreign-born women	39.9	39.0	57.0	58.2	46.6	53.0				
<i>Unemployment rate</i>										
Native-born men	17.7	10.3	6.5	6.0	11.5	8.5				
Foreign-born men	..	36.6	12.0	11.0	24.3	16.8				
Native-born women	16.1	12.0	6.9	6.3	12.2	8.6				
Foreign-born women	30.3	21.3	17.4	19.1	22.9	20.8				
Macroeconomic indicators	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average		Level			
					1997-2002	2003-2008	2008			
<i>Annual growth in %</i>										
Real GDP	3.9	5.1	4.2	1.0	4.1	3.1				
GDP/capita (level in US dollars)	3.5	4.8	3.8	0.6	3.9	2.7	31 271			
Employment (level in thousands)	2.2	1.7	2.0	1.6	2.1	1.1	2 523			
<i>Percentage of the labour force</i>										
Unemployment	16.7	9.8	6.9	6.4	10.4	7.9				

Notes and sources are at the end of the chapter.

StatLink <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/883553641732>

France



Standardised statistics on permanent-type migration indicate a 4.3% increase in France in 2008, as 167 500 new entries were recorded compared to 160 700 a year before. Labour migration

accounts for the bulk of this increase with about 6 000 additional long-term work permits granted to non-EU citizens in 2008 compared to the previous year, some of which were granted under a limited regularisation programme for irregular migrants employed in selected occupations. Migration from new EU member countries is also rising, in part due to introduction of shortage occupation lists. Family reunification still comprises more than 50% of total permanent-type migration flows to France in 2008, free movement being estimated at around 20%, while work related migration from third countries and humanitarian migration account respectively for 14% and 7%. Nevertheless, the total number of new permits issued for family reunification decreased slightly in 2008, from 88 100 to 86 900. This trend has continued and accelerated in 2009, partly because of the implementation of measures introduced by the law on immigration, integration and asylum which came into force on 20 November 2007, aimed at creating a new balance between labour migration and family migration.

Most permanent immigrants from non-EU countries come from Africa (64%), including North Africa (38%). Overall, one in three new immigrants arrives from Algeria or Morocco. Asian is the second main region of origin (19%) followed by Europe (7.5%).

Temporary migration is more or less stable with 15 500 new work permits granted to third country nationals in 2008, including 7 000 seasonal work permits. In addition, more than two thirds of new temporary work permits are granted to migrants already in the country in non-work related migration categories, notably students. Favourable policies for foreign students helped more than triple the number of students arriving from outside the EU between 1995 and 2004. This increasing trend was interrupted in 2005, and the inflow of foreign students declined to about 43 100 in 2007. 2008 marked a new reversal, with the annual inflow of foreign students rising again to

about 49 750. Main origin countries were China, Morocco, Algeria, Tunisia and the United States. The number of Chinese foreign students in France has increased at an average annual rate of 30.2% during the last thirteen years.

Asylum applications fell between 2005 and 2006 by about 38%, and again in 2007 by 9.4%, but rose sharply from 29 400 in 2007 to 42 600 in 2008. 36% of applicants were granted refugee status in 2008 (30% in 2007). The number of persons who received subsidiary protection also increased, from 700 in 2007 to almost 1 800 in 2008. The number of refugees and unaccompanied minors also rose from 8 057 and 4 166 respectively in 2007, to 9 648 and 5 338 in 2008.

The number of people receiving French citizenship had been falling between 2004 and 2007 from 168 800 to 132 000 but the trend was reversed in 2008, mainly because of a reduction in the backlog of applications from previous years. In 2008, almost 137 500 naturalisations were recorded.

In the context of the implementation of the 2007 law on immigration, integration and asylum, on 30 October 2008 France passed a decree on the preparation for integration in France of non-EU nationals who want to settle in the country. It contains a new procedure for family reunification. Following the new rule, to be admitted, family members of an immigrant who fulfils all the requirements to apply for family reunification, have to pass a test of their knowledge of the French language and culture when still in their origin country. Those who do not pass the test must attend language training for up to two months before they can obtain a long-term visa. A *contrat d'accueil et d'intégration pour la famille (CAIF)* to be signed by the third country nationals who have been granted family reunification, should they have children in France, was also introduced. An assessment of professional skills for immigrants who have signed the *contrat d'accueil et d'intégration (CAI)* was also put in place with the aim of encouraging those immigrants to enter the labour market.

For further information:

www.immigration.gouv.fr

www.anaem.fr

www.ofpra.fr

Recent trends in migrants' flows and stocks

FRANCE

Migration flows (foreigners) National definition	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average		Level ('000)			
					1997-2002	2003-2008	2008			
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>										
Inflows	0.8	1.6	2.1	2.2	1.7	2.2	136.0			
Outflows			
Migration inflows (foreigners) by type Permit based statistics (standardised)	Thousands		% distribution		Inflows of top 10 nationalities as a % of total inflows of foreigners					
	2007	2008	2007	2008						
Work	12.0	23.1	7.4	13.8						
Family (incl. accompanying family)	88.1	86.9	54.8	51.9						
Humanitarian	8.8	11.4	5.5	6.8						
Free movements	38.9	33.8	24.2	20.2						
Others	14.4	13.8	8.9	8.3						
Total	160.7	167.5	100.0	100.0						
Temporary migration	2000	2007	2008	Average 2003-2008						
<i>Thousands</i>										
International students	36.1	43.1	49.7	48.9						
Trainees	0.6	0.7	0.6	0.7						
Working holiday makers						
Seasonal workers	7.9	19.1	11.6	15.7						
Intra-company transfers	2.2	1.1	1.0	1.3						
Other temporary workers	5.3	8.8	8.8	8.9						
Inflows of asylum seekers	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average		Level			
					1997-2002	2003-2008	2008			
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>										
	0.3	0.7	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.7	35 404			
Components of population growth	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average		Level ('000)			
					1997-2002	2003-2008	2008			
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>										
Total	3.2	6.9	5.4	5.5	5.6	6.4	343			
Natural increase	3.4	4.1	4.3	4.3	3.7	4.2	268			
Net migration	0.7	1.2	1.1	1.2	1.1	1.5	75			
Stocks of immigrants	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average		Level ('000)			
					1997-2002	2003-2008	2008			
<i>Percentage of the total population</i>										
Foreign-born population			
Foreign population			
Naturalisations	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average		Level			
					1997-2002	2003-2008	2008			
<i>Percentage of the foreign population</i>										
	137 452			
Labour market outcomes	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average		Level			
					1997-2002	2003-2008	2008			
<i>Employment/population ratio</i>										
Native-born men	68.3	69.8	69.2	70.5	69.3	69.6				
Foreign-born men	65.9	66.7	67.7	68.8	65.9	66.9				
Native-born women	53.6	56.6	61.3	62.1	56.0	60.3				
Foreign-born women	44.2	45.6	50.1	52.3	45.2	49.6				
<i>Unemployment rate</i>										
Native-born men	9.1	7.7	7.2	6.4	8.3	7.3				
Foreign-born men	16.6	14.5	11.9	11.5	15.5	12.9				
Native-born women	13.5	11.3	7.6	7.8	11.8	8.7				
Foreign-born women	19.0	19.7	15.1	12.8	19.0	15.6				
Macroeconomic indicators	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average		Level			
					1997-2002	2003-2008	2008			
<i>Annual growth in %</i>										
Real GDP	2.1	3.9	2.3	0.4	2.6	1.7				
GDP/capita (level in US dollars)	1.8	3.2	1.7	-0.1	2.1	1.1	27 309			
Employment (level in thousands)	1.2	2.7	1.7	1.4	1.2	0.7	25 915			
<i>Percentage of the labour force</i>										
Unemployment	10.1	8.6	8.0	7.4	9.2	8.4				

Notes and sources are at the end of the chapter.

StatLink <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/883603858060>

Germany



Overall long-term immigration to Germany remained modest in 2008. Family migration continued to decline. The Central Foreigners Register recorded only about 51 000 new immigrants under this title, the lowest number in more than a decade. The immigration of ethnic Germans (*Spätaussiedler*) from Eastern Europe and Central Asia also continued to decline. Only 4 300 ethnic Germans entered in 2008, compared to more than 35 000 in 2005 and annual averages of between 100 000 and 230 000 throughout the 1990s. This component of immigration flows seems to be gradually disappearing, as is the resettlement of Jews from countries once in the former Soviet Union (about 1 400 in 2008 compared with 15 400 in 2003).

Information on permanent-type labour migration from non-EU countries remains difficult to obtain, but data from the Federal Employment Services on permissions to work suggest that this continued to increase in 2008, albeit at a modest level. The increase was particularly strong for international graduates from tertiary institutions in Germany. In 2008, almost 6 000 international graduates obtained a work permit, more than twice the 2006 figure of 2 700.

There were 27 650 new asylum requests in 2009, an increase of 25% over 2008 and about 40% more than in 2007, but still only a fraction of the levels seen in the 1990s. Entries in the main categories of temporary labour migration – seasonal workers and contract workers – continued their decline in 2008. 285 000 seasonal workers came to Germany in 2008 – the lowest level since the year 2000. The number of contract workers stood at about 16 600, the lowest level since the fall of the Iron Curtain. Both programmes were essentially for nationals from the new EU member countries, in particular Poland.

About 94 500 persons were naturalised in 2008, a 16% decline over 2007 and the lowest level since the late 1990s. In particular, the take-up of German citizenship among immigrants from Turkey and their children has continuously declined in recent years.

Prior to the crisis, in light of the favourable economic development and the demographic changes which were beginning to have an impact on the labour market, Germany had gradually opened up its labour

market for permanent-type labour migration, although this opening was essentially only for the highly-skilled. It decided to maintain this policy of gradual opening in spite of the crisis and on 1 January 2009, a number of measures were implemented to promote skilled and highly-skilled migration to Germany. In particular, the labour market test has been abandoned for all migrants from the new EU member countries holding a tertiary degree, as well as for international students with a tertiary degree from a German educational institution. The latter, however, must have an employment offer commensurate with their qualification level. This condition also applies to graduates of German schools abroad who have either a tertiary degree or obtained a further vocational education in Germany, who are also exempted from the labour market test.

In parallel, the income threshold for highly-skilled migrants to get an unlimited residence permit (“settlement permit”) immediately upon arrival has been lowered from EUR 86 400 to EUR 66 000. However, few highly-skilled migrants seem to have taken advantage of this; most highly-skilled labour migration still takes place via the regular scheme of residence permits for employment.

In addition, so-called “tolerated” persons (foreigners without residence permits whose deportation has been suspended and who have been resident in Germany for many years) can now obtain a residence permit for employment under certain conditions.

The coalition agreement of the new government which took office in late 2009 contained a number of measures aimed at strengthening integration policy. Among other measures, the national integration plan will be transformed into an action plan with measurable objectives, and both new arrivals and established immigrants will sign so-called “integration contracts”. In addition, all immigrants with foreign qualifications will have the right to have their qualifications assessed, and the assessment procedure will be linked with bridging offers for foreign degrees not granted full equivalence.

For further information:

www.bmas.bund.de

www.bmi.bund.de

www.bamf.de

www.integrationsbeauftragte.de

www.destatis.de

Recent trends in migrants' flows and stocks

GERMANY

Migration flows (foreigners) National definition	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average		Level ('000)			
					1997-2002	2003-2008	2008			
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>										
Inflows	9.7	7.9	7.0	7.0	7.9	7.1	573.8			
Outflows	6.9	6.8	5.8	6.9	6.9	6.2	563.1			
Migration inflows (foreigners) by type Permit based statistics (standardised)	Thousands		% distribution		Inflows of top 10 nationalities as a % of total inflows of foreigners					
	2007	2008	2007	2008						
Work	17.7	21.9	7.6	9.6						
Family (incl. accompanying family)	55.2	51.2	23.7	22.4						
Humanitarian	50.9	37.5	21.9	16.4						
Free movements	103.3	113.3	44.4	49.6						
Others	5.7	4.3	2.4	1.9						
Total	232.8	228.3	100.0	100.0						
Temporary migration	2000	2007	2008	Average 2003-2008						
<i>Thousands</i>										
International students	45.7	53.8	58.4	56.6						
Trainees	3.6	4.8	5.4	3.6						
Working holiday makers						
Seasonal workers	255.5	291.4	277.6	302.9						
Intra-company transfers	1.3	5.4	5.7	4.0						
Other temporary workers	99.8	47.7	43.8	61.7						
Inflows of asylum seekers	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average	Level ('000)				
					1997-2002	2003-2008	2008			
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>										
	2.0	1.0	0.2	0.3	1.2	0.4	22			
Components of population growth	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average	Level ('000)				
					1997-2002	2003-2008	2008			
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>										
Total	3.4	1.2	-1.2	..	1.1			
Natural increase	-1.5	-0.9	-1.7	..	-1.0			
Net migration	4.9	2.0	0.5	..	2.0			
Stocks of immigrants	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average	Level ('000)				
					1997-2002	2003-2008	2008			
<i>Percentage of the total population</i>										
Foreign-born population	11.5			
Foreign population	8.8	8.9	8.2	8.2	8.9	8.3	6 728			
Naturalisations	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average	Level				
					1997-2002	2003-2008	2008			
<i>Percentage of the foreign population</i>										
	1.0	2.6	1.7	1.4	1.9	1.7	94 500			
Labour market outcomes	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average					
					1997-2002	2003-2008				
<i>Employment/population ratio</i>										
Native-born men	..	73.8	75.4	76.5	..	73.6				
Foreign-born men	..	66.3	69.4	72.5	..	66.9				
Native-born women	..	59.6	66.3	67.6	..	63.8				
Foreign-born women	..	46.6	53.1	53.7	..	50.0				
<i>Unemployment rate</i>										
Native-born men	..	6.9	7.7	6.8	..	9.0				
Foreign-born men	..	12.9	14.9	11.8	..	16.2				
Native-born women	..	8.0	8.0	6.8	..	8.7				
Foreign-born women	..	12.1	13.5	13.1	..	14.8				
Macroeconomic indicators	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average	Level				
					1997-2002	2003-2008	2008			
<i>Annual growth in %</i>										
Real GDP	1.9	3.2	2.5	1.3	1.7	1.4				
GDP/capita (level in US dollars)	1.6	3.1	2.6	1.4	1.6	1.5	28 639			
Employment (level in thousands)	0.2	1.9	1.7	1.4	0.7	0.5	40 278			
<i>Percentage of the labour force</i>										
Unemployment	7.9	7.4	8.3	7.2	8.3	9.1				

Notes and sources are at the end of the chapter.

StatLink <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/883450888255>

Greece



Administrative data on immigration in Greece are not consistently available. Stock permit data are released on an irregular basis, and annual flow data are not available. Two sources may be cited for 2008: the

Labour Force Survey (LFS) and administrative data on the stock of permits. According to the mid-2008 LFS, there were 680 564 foreigners living in Greece, a 17% increase over LFS estimates one year earlier. According to the Ministry of Interior, the stock of permit holders fell between October 2007 and April 2008, from 481 000 to 432 000. Some of this decline was accounted for by the acquisition of EU permits by some Romanians and Bulgarians; there were 534 000 EU permit holders in April 2008. Most permit holders (56.5%) were Albanians; about 60% of permits for non-EU citizens were issued for employment.

Immigration in Greece contributes considerably to total population growth. In 2005-2007, more than 17% of children born in Greece had foreign nationality. The Greek birthrate has been declining and there is negative net growth in the Greek population. The LFS indicates that the share of migrants of the population is highest in the 0-14 age range, where foreigners comprise 8.8% of the population.

Immigrants are also an increasing component of the labour force. The LFS estimated a working-age (15-64) foreign population of 530 000 in mid-2008, an increase of 18% over the previous year; non-Greeks comprised 7.3% of the working-age population and 8% of employment. The participation rates (15-64) for foreigners are higher than for Greeks (74.5% compared to 66.6%). 90% of foreign men are in the labour force, compared to only 60% for women. In 2008, 34% of all employed foreign men over 14 worked in construction, where they represented 31.2% of employment. Foreigners, especially women, hold 72% of the jobs in private household employment, which employs 14.4% of foreigners. The unemployment rate for foreign-born men was lower than that of native-born men (3.6% vs. 4.8%). In contrast, 10.9% of native-born women were unemployed, compared to 11.4% of foreign-born women. An estimated 50% of migrants – both legal and undocumented – are illegally employed.

A special survey conducted in the 2nd quarter of 2008, together with the LFS, focused on the labour market integration of the foreign born and the children of foreign-born. The participation rate was higher among the foreign-born than among Greeks with at least one parent born in Greece (72.6% compared to 58.6%), and the unemployment

rate was also lower (6.3% compared to 7.2%). The group with the worst outcome were Greek citizens with both parents born abroad, largely comprised by ethnic Greeks from the former Soviet Union; their participation rate was 56% and their unemployment rate 14.2%.

The economic crisis struck Greece relatively late in 2008. Total employment of Greeks fell, while that of foreigners continued to rise in absolute terms. The most recent data, from the 3rd quarter of 2009, show that the number of unemployed Greeks rose about 30% over the previous year, while the number of unemployed foreigners doubled. Foreigners comprised 9.8% of employment and 10.5% of unemployment.

Estimates of the number of undocumented foreigners in Greece vary, but 200 000 is an indicative figure for 2008. According to the Interior Ministry, Greece detained more than 146 000 illegal immigrants in 2008. This is an increase of 30% over 2007 and 54% over 2006, and primarily due to an increase in attempted crossings on the Greek-Turkish border. The first trimester of 2009 saw no decline. In 2009, the government expanded the detention-center system, and extended the maximum duration of detention to 12 months. The number of asylum seekers in Greece continued to grow in 2008, to 33 000. Few (1%) received refugee status.

In 2008, a reform was passed to grant long-term residence to the children of migrants. However, strict prerequisites and a EUR 900 fee led to only three applicants (out of more than 80 000 potential beneficiaries). Reform of the citizenship law was proposed in late 2009. In the face of strong opposition, it was amended to grant citizenship to Greek-born children of foreigners if both parents have been legally resident in Greece for at least five years. Foreign-born children may also apply if they have been educated for at least 6 years in Greek schools and both parents meet the legal residence requirements. Few Greek-born foreign children have parents who both meet the criteria.

The Greek government has not implemented specific initiatives for the integration of immigrants. Even prior to the 2010 financial crisis, the Greek government had difficulty allocating the necessary co-financing to fully utilise EU funding for social integration of migrants from third countries, and the current budgetary climate makes such investment even more difficult.

For further information:

www.imepo.gr

www.statistics.gr

Recent trends in migrants' flows and stocks

GREECE

Migration flows (foreigners) <i>National definition</i>	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average		Level ('000)
					1997-2002	2003-2008	2008
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>							
Inflows
Outflows
Migration inflows (foreigners) by type <i>Permit based statistics (standardised)</i>	Thousands		% distribution				
	2007	2008	2007	2008			
Work			
Family (incl. accompanying family)			
Humanitarian			
Free movements			
Others			
Total			
Temporary migration	2000	2007	2008	Average 2003-2008			
<i>Thousands</i>							
International students			
Trainees			
Working holiday makers			
Seasonal workers			
Intra-company transfers			
Other temporary workers			
Inflows of asylum seekers	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average		Level
					1997-2002	2003-2008	2008
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>	..	0.3	2.2	1.8	0.4	1.2	19 884
Components of population growth	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average		Level ('000)
					1997-2002	2003-2008	2008
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>							
Total	7.5	2.5	3.8	..	4.0
Natural increase	0.1	-0.2	0.2	..	-0.1
Net migration	7.3	2.7	3.6	..	4.1
Stocks of immigrants	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average		Level ('000)
					1997-2002	2003-2008	2008
<i>Percentage of the total population</i>							
Foreign-born population
Foreign population	..	2.8	5.7	6.5	..	5.3	734
Naturalisations	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average		Level
					1997-2002	2003-2008	2008
<i>Percentage of the foreign population</i>							

Labour market outcomes	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average		
					1997-2002	2003-2008	
<i>Employment/population ratio</i>							
Native-born men	72.3	71.3	74.1	74.0	71.5	73.6	
Foreign-born men	70.4	78.1	84.5	85.0	78.1	83.6	
Native-born women	37.8	41.6	47.7	48.6	40.9	46.5	
Foreign-born women	42.5	45.0	49.2	49.5	45.9	49.3	
<i>Employment rate</i>							
Native-born men	6.1	7.5	5.3	5.2	6.9	5.8	
Foreign-born men	14.0	9.5	4.9	5.0	10.1	5.8	
Native-born women	13.7	17.0	12.8	11.5	16.2	13.9	
Foreign-born women	20.8	21.4	14.3	12.3	21.5	15.4	
Macroeconomic indicators	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average		Level
					1997-2002	2003-2008	2008
<i>Annual growth in %</i>							
Real GDP	2.1	4.5	4.5	2.0	3.8	4.0	
GDP/capita (level in US dollars)	1.8	4.1	4.1	1.6	3.3	3.6	24 340
Employment (level in thousands)	0.9	1.4	1.3	1.1	1.3	1.5	4 559
<i>Percentage of the labour force</i>							
Unemployment	10.4	11.4	8.3	7.7	11.1	9.1	

Notes and sources are at the end of the chapter.

StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/883677602403>

Hungary



Hungary has the highest negative population growth rate among OECD countries, although international migration movements, both inward and outward, play a limited role compared to other

OECD countries. Immigrants accounted for around 1.8% of the country's total population as of 1 January 2008. Net positive immigration since the 1990s has gradually incremented the stock of foreign citizens, although its impact is low.

On 31 December 2008, 185 000 third-country nationals held a permit valid for at least a three-month stay, an 11% increase over the previous year. The increase is presumably due to easier verification of the conditions of stay under the 2008 law.

Free movement rose, with 34 700 persons (18.5% more than in 2007) applying for a document verifying the right of free movement and stay. 27 400 registration certificates were issued, as well as 3 600 residence cards and 4 700 permanent residence cards. Most of the registration certificates were requested by Romanian (16 500), German (3 900), and Slovak (1 600) citizens.

The number of work permits and reports in 2008 fell 27% compared to 2007. The number of the licenses issued to EU employees (24 400) fell 35% from 2007, but increased for non-European citizens by 13%, to 7 000.

Hungary, the only A8 country to have maintained the reciprocity principle, fully granted access to its labour market for all EEA and Swiss nationals as of January 2009 and annulled complex access regulations. Romanian and Bulgarian workers, who had been subject to regulation even after accession to the EU, are now given full access. The share of EU nationals working in Hungary in the first quarter of 2009 was about 60%, 24% from other European countries and 16% from third countries, whereas the numbers of licenses issued to employees from EU nationals decreased by 20% (13 000) compared to the first quarter in 2008, and by 35% to 24 000 from 2007 to 2008, while that of third country nationals has increased. Between 2008 and 2009, there was a sharp decrease in the number of Slovakian and Romanian employees in Hungary, thought to be caused by the economic crisis.

Applications for asylum had been rising since 2004, but decreased by 8% in 2008, to 3 100. The

proportion of Europeans has significantly grown from 34% in 2007 to 57%. The main nationalities of applicants, which changes annually, were Kosovan, Serbian and Pakistani. Due to the new Asylum Act effective since 2008, transposing EU regulations and preventive measures against the misuse of asylum, the number of repeat asylum seekers decreased by 79%. The number of those granted refugee status remained constant at 160 in 2008, and a further 88 persons were given subsidiary protection status. Administrative agreements with Romania, the Slovak Republic and Bulgaria followed those with other EU member states in previous years to accelerate the process on determining responsibility for asylum applications.

In January 2009 an amendment of the Act on Hungarian Citizenship came into force, which gave the government the authority to establish requirements and procedures for examination and verification of entitlement. Also, since July 2008, citizenship applications have been processed by the State Secretary for EU Law instead of Public Law. The number of naturalised and those who reacquired Hungarian citizenship in 2008 only slightly decreased from the previous year to 8 000. As in the past, about 90% of all granted Hungarian citizenship were from neighbouring countries: Romania (61%), Serbia-Montenegro (12%) and Ukraine (15%). Most were ethnic Hungarians.

The integration measures, which currently exclusively address refugees, are planned to be extended to stateless persons, permanent residents, but also ethnic Hungarians as well as EU nationals. How to take needs of different groups into account, especially ethnic Hungarians from adjacent countries, is still under consideration. There has been no decision on whether to make the integration program compulsory or voluntary; the extent of involvement of the local municipalities for the implementation and the financing are also still to be decided. A further aspect on the table is the involvement of migrants and migrant organisations during the planning process.

For further information:

www.mfa.gov.hu/kum/en/bal

www.magyarorszag.hu/english

Recent trends in migrants' flows and stocks

HUNGARY

Migration flows (foreigners) National definition	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average		Level ('000)			
					1997-2002	2003-2008	2008			
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>										
Inflows	1.4	2.0	2.2	3.7	1.8	2.5	37.5			
Outflows	0.2	0.2	0.4	0.4	0.2	0.4	4.2			
Migration inflows (foreigners) by type Permit based statistics (standardised)	Thousands		% distribution		Inflows of top 10 nationalities as a % of total inflows of foreigners					
	2007	2008	2007	2008						
Work						
Family (incl. accompanying family)						
Humanitarian						
Free movements						
Others						
Total						
Temporary migration	2000	2007	2008	Average 2003-2008						
<i>Thousands</i>										
International students						
Trainees						
Working holiday makers						
Seasonal workers						
Intra-company transfers						
Other temporary workers						
Inflows of asylum seekers	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average		Level			
					1997-2002	2003-2008	2008			
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>										
	0.1	0.8	0.3	0.3	0.7	0.2	3 118			
Components of population growth	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average		Level ('000)			
					1997-2002	2003-2008	2008			
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>										
Total	-1.5	-2.2	-2.1	..	-2.6			
Natural increase	-3.2	-3.7	-3.5	..	-3.9			
Net migration	1.7	1.7	1.4	..	1.4			
Stocks of immigrants	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average		Level ('000)			
					1997-2002	2003-2008	2008			
<i>Percentage of the total population</i>										
Foreign-born population	2.7	2.9	3.8	..	2.9			
Foreign population	1.4	1.1	1.7	1.8	1.3	1.6	184			
Naturalisations	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average		Level			
					1997-2002	2003-2008	2008			
<i>Percentage of the foreign population</i>										
	7.2	6.9	4.8	4.4	5.2	4.5	8 060			
Labour market outcomes	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average					
					1997-2002	2003-2008				
<i>Employment/population ratio</i>										
Native-born men	..	62.6	63.9	62.8	61.7	63.3				
Foreign-born men	..	69.4	74.3	72.9	..	73.4				
Native-born women	..	49.4	50.8	50.4	48.2	50.8				
Foreign-born women	..	49.8	56.6	58.3	..	54.1				
<i>Unemployment rate</i>										
Native-born men	..	7.3	7.2	7.7	7.8	6.9				
Foreign-born men	..	3.5	2.6	6.3	..	3.4				
Native-born women	..	5.8	7.7	8.1	6.3	7.1				
Foreign-born women	..	4.8	6.1	5.9	..	6.6				
Macroeconomic indicators	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average		Level			
					1997-2002	2003-2008	2008			
<i>Annual growth in %</i>										
Real GDP	1.5	4.9	1.0	0.6	4.5	3.0				
GDP/capita (level in US dollars)	0.8	5.2	1.1	0.8	4.8	3.2	16 022			
Employment (level in thousands)	-1.8	1.6	0.1	-1.2	1.2	0.1	3 845			
<i>Percentage of the labour force</i>										
Unemployment	10.4	6.5	7.4	7.9	7.0	7.0				

Notes and sources are at the end of the chapter.

StatLink <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/883700662224>

Ireland



The past decade in Ireland was characterised by a sharp increase in migration inflows, from 27 800 in 2000 to 89 500 in 2007. The upward trend already started to taper off in 2006 and 2007, and in 2008

decreased to 67 600. At the same time, outflow rose, to 31 900 in 2008. According to Labour Force Survey data, in 2009 Ireland saw its first negative net migration since the mid-1990s. This reflects the effects of the economic crisis, which had begun in the first half of 2008.

As part of the impact of the economic crisis, the percentage of nationals from new EU member states, who tend to be represented in lower skilled occupations, considerably decreased in 2009. Whereas more than half of the incoming migrants were from the 12 most recent EU member states in 2007, their share in 2009 was 35%. The largest share of emigrants from Ireland in 2008 were nationals of the new EU member states (30%), whose unemployment rate of 19% in the second quarter of 2009 compared to 11% for Irish nationals. Ireland, which received major inflows from the EU8 countries from 2004 onwards, announced in December 2008 that it will continue to restrict labour market access for citizens of the 2007 EU-accession countries, Romania and Bulgaria.

The share of non-EEA-nationals within the inflow to Ireland has been steadily decreasing since the accession of the new EU member states (about 32% in 2009), which reflects Ireland's policy of intra-EU oriented labour migration. The number of employment permits issued to non-EEA nationals peaked in 2007 with 10 100 newly issued and 13 500 renewed permits, but sharply declined to 13 600 total permits in 2008, and far fewer permit renewals (5 100). The number of "Green Cards" for skilled migrants dropped by about 1 000 to 2 200 in 2008; a sharper decrease was seen with intra-company transfers from 17 600 in 2007 to 7 300 in 2008 – numbers reflecting both the economic crisis and the EU-oriented migration policy in Ireland.

As a reaction to the economic crisis, the government imposed restrictions for non-EEA workers in June 2009. Measures encompass a longer

period of advertisement of the position for EEA workers, limitation of permit issuances for low-paid jobs or removal of diverse occupations from the Green Card skills list. At the same time, three months later, the Minister of Justice announced the change of the permit scheme for non-EEA nationals who have become redundant. Those who had been working and residing legally less than 5 years in Ireland are given 6 instead of 4 months to search for new placement, whereas those with more than 5 years will not be required to apply for a new employment permit, but will be given an immigration permission to reside and work.

In September 2009, the Ministry of Justice introduced a temporary residence permit for non-EEA migrant workers who have lost legal status for reasons beyond their control, such as the non-renewal of their working permits or deception by their employers. This "bridging visa" gave undocumented immigrants, who were estimated to be around 30 000, four months to regularise. The application period ended on 31 December 2009.

Also in September 2009, the Ministry proposed to review the immigration regime for full time non-EEA students. The aim is to reduce abuse of student status for employment purposes by capping the duration of studies and imposing stricter inspection regimes. At the same time, measures to retain graduates as part of highly skilled migration are also considered.

In 2008, there were 3 900 applicants for asylum (600 were recognised), the lowest number since 1997. The decline follows countermeasures taken after a sharp increase of asylum seekers and refugees in the decade up to 2002 (from only 39 in 1992 to 11 600 a decade later). The change in Irish citizenship law in 2005, which restricted access to citizenship for Irish-born children, is also associated with the decline. By nationality, Nigeria remains the largest source country with 1 000 applicants, or 25%, followed by Pakistan and Iraq.

For further information:

www.inis.gov.ie

www.entemp.ie/labour/workpermits

www.ria.gov.ie

Recent trends in migrants' flows and stocks

IRELAND

Migration flows (foreigners) <i>National definition</i>	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average		Level ('000)
					1997-2002	2003-2008	2008
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>							
Inflows	3.8	7.3	20.6	15.3	7.4	15.6	67.6
Outflows	6.7	7.2	31.9
Migration inflows (foreigners) by type <i>Permit based statistics (standardised)</i>	Thousands		% distribution				
	2007	2008	2007	2008			
Work			
Family (incl. accompanying family)			
Humanitarian			
Free movements			
Others			
Total			
Temporary migration	2000	2007	2008	Average			
				2003-2008			
<i>Thousands</i>							
International students			
Trainees			
Working holiday makers			
Seasonal workers			
Intra-company transfers			
Other temporary workers			
Inflows of asylum seekers	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average		Level
					1997-2002	2003-2008	2008
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>							
	0.1	2.9	0.9	0.9	2.2	1.2	3 866
Components of population growth	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average		Level ('000)
					1997-2002	2003-2008	2008
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>							
Total	6.1	14.5	13.5
Natural increase	4.7	6.1	6.4
Net migration	1.6	8.4	7.1
Stocks of immigrants	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average		Level ('000)
					1997-2002	2003-2008	2008
<i>Percentage of the total population</i>							
Foreign-born population
Foreign population
Naturalisations	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average		Level
					1997-2002	2003-2008	2008
<i>Percentage of the foreign population</i>							

Labour market outcomes	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average		
					1997-2002	2003-2008	
<i>Employment/population ratio</i>							
Native-born men	66.9	75.8	76.3	74.6	73.3	75.6	
Foreign-born men	63.9	75.2	82.0	79.5	73.0	78.0	
Native-born women	41.3	53.1	59.9	60.0	50.9	58.0	
Foreign-born women	41.9	54.9	63.1	62.5	52.8	58.5	
<i>Unemployment rate</i>							
Native-born men	12.0	4.4	4.7	6.2	6.2	4.9	
Foreign-born men	16.8	5.4	6.0	7.1	7.9	6.4	
Native-born women	11.9	4.1	4.1	3.4	5.7	3.7	
Foreign-born women	15.4	6.1	5.7	6.5	7.7	5.9	
Macroeconomic indicators	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average		Level
					1997-2002	2003-2008	2008
<i>Annual growth in %</i>							
Real GDP	9.6	9.4	6.0	-3.0	8.7	3.9	
GDP/capita (level in US dollars)	9.2	8.0	3.5	-4.9	7.3	1.8	34 677
Employment (level in thousands)	4.9	4.8	3.6	-0.5	4.5	2.8	2 101
<i>Percentage of the labour force</i>							
Unemployment	12.4	4.3	4.6	6.0	6.1	4.8	

Notes and sources are at the end of the chapter.

StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/883701738738>

Italy



Permanent immigration to Italy continues to be significant, although in 2008 it was mostly accounted for by family reunification and free movement inflows. Between 2007 and 2008, the number of

visas issued for family reunification rose 39% from 89 000 to 123 000, while entries for employment fell sharply. An annual quota for labour immigration applies to employer requests; no occupational restrictions are placed and entries are largely for less skilled work. After several years of quotas at 170 000, the 2008 quota was limited to 150 000 home care workers (from those who applied under the 2007 quota), and no quota was opened for 2009. Lower quotas led to a reduction in inflows for employment in 2008, from 220 000 to 135 000, although these are visa issuance figures and include seasonal workers. The number of entries for employment fell further in 2009.

Only non-EU citizens are required to hold residence permits; the exclusion of EU citizens led to a fall in the number of permit holders from 2.4 to less than 2.1 million in 2008, of which about 1.24 million held work permits and 680 000 held family permits. The total registered foreign population increased by more than 12% in 2008, to reach 3.9 million. This was largely due to an 27% increase in the resident population of Romanian citizens, to 800 000. The registered population increased a further 10% in 2009, to reach 4.28 million; again, the increase was largely (39%) due to an increase in the number of Romanians.

The number of non-Italian students in the school system rose by 10% in 2008/2009, reaching 7% of the total student population. In January 2010 the Ministry of Education set a 30% ceiling on the enrolment of foreign-born non-Italian students in a single classroom.

Illegal migration by sea rose in 2008 to about 37 000 unauthorised migrants intercepted along the southern Italian coast. Italy sought closer cooperation from the authorities in Libya, from which many boats depart, and changed its policy on interceptions in international waters, leading to a 90% reduction in landings in 2009.

The number of asylum seekers more than doubled to 31 000 in 2008, largely due to the increase in arrivals along the coast. About 22 000 cases were reviewed: of

these, 7.7% received refugee status and 41.8% received a stay permit for humanitarian reasons or subsidiary status. The refugee reception system provided services to about 8 400 people. The number of asylum applications fell sharply in 2009 along with the number of sea landings.

A regularisation for domestic and care workers was conducted in September 2009, for anyone employed since April 2009. Employers had to demonstrate adequate income or justify their disability to do so, as well as pay a EUR 500 fine. The government received about 295 000 applications, fewer than originally predicted. 180 000 were for domestic workers (maids and nannies) and the remainder for care workers. By mid-March 2010 about 85 000 permits had been issued; the rejection rate was about 6.3%.

A number of legislative changes were made in 2008-2009. In 2008, stiffer penalties were applied for illegal migration, and family reunification requirements were also made stricter. In July 2009, a "Security Law" included reform of immigration law, further raising penalties for illegal immigration, placing restrictions on access to public services for those with permits, and increasing the maximum detention period for undocumented foreigners from 60 to 180 days. Fees were raised, renewal of residence permits is to be conditional on integration, and a language test will be required to obtain the long-term residence permit. On the other hand, foreigners graduating from an Italian university now have 12 months to find a job and stay, and employers of high-skilled foreign workers can receive pre-exemption from the labour market test.

Applications for naturalisation, which had started to rise in 2007, rose a further 19% in 2008 to reach 57 000. A proposed reform of the citizenship law was introduced in Parliament in December 2009. The law would impose additional requirements beyond the current 10-year residence limit, including a long-term residence permit, completion of a mandatory civic education course, and proof of income and tax payments.

For further information:

www.interno.it

www.istat.it

www.lavoro.gov.it/lavoro

Recent trends in migrants' flows and stocks

ITALY

Migration flows (foreigners) National definition	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average		Level ('000)			
					1997-2002	2003-2008	2008			
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>										
Inflows	1.2	4.7	4.3			
Outflows			
Migration inflows (foreigners) by type Permit based statistics (standardised)	Thousands		% distribution		Inflows of top 10 nationalities as a % of total inflows of foreigners					
	2007	2008	2007	2008						
Work	150.1	91.6	26.3	21.6						
Family (incl. accompanying family)	96.5	131.8	16.9	31.2						
Humanitarian	11.8	10.8	2.1	2.6						
Free movements	308.7	185.6	54.0	43.7						
Others	4.4	4.2	0.8	1.0						
Total	571.5	424.7	100.0	100.0						
Temporary migration	2000	2007	2008	Average 2003-2008						
<i>Thousands</i>										
International students	..	34.9	37.2	33.3						
Trainees						
Working holiday makers	..	0.4	0.4	0.3						
Seasonal workers	..	65.6	40.1	71.0						
Intra-company transfers						
Other temporary workers						
Inflows of asylum seekers	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average		Level			
					1997-2002	2003-2008	2008			
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>										
	0.0	0.3	0.2	0.5	0.3	0.2	30 324			
Components of population growth	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average		Level ('000)			
					1997-2002	2003-2008	2008			
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>										
Total	1.1	2.8	-0.4			
Natural increase	-0.5	-0.3	-0.4			
Net migration	1.6	3.1	2.8			
Stocks of immigrants	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average		Level ('000)			
					1997-2002	2003-2008	2008			
<i>Percentage of the total population</i>										
Foreign-born population			
Foreign population	1.3	2.4	5.8	6.6	2.3	4.9	3 891			
Naturalisations	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average		Level			
					1997-2002	2003-2008	2008			
<i>Percentage of the foreign population</i>										
	1.0	0.7	1.1	1.0	0.8	0.9	39 484			
Labour market outcomes	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average					
					1997-2002	2003-2008				
<i>Employment/population ratio</i>										
Native-born men	66.4	67.4	69.7	69.3	67.3	69.5				
Foreign-born men	80.5	82.4	82.4	80.9	82.9	82.4				
Native-born women	35.5	39.3	46.2	46.8	38.9	45.3				
Foreign-born women	40.1	40.5	51.0	51.1	43.7	50.0				
<i>Unemployment rate</i>										
Native-born men	9.2	8.4	4.9	5.6	8.5	6.0				
Foreign-born men	7.0	6.5	5.3	5.9	6.2	5.5				
Native-born women	16.1	14.9	7.6	8.2	15.0	9.4				
Foreign-born women	24.5	21.2	11.4	11.8	17.7	12.7				
Macroeconomic indicators	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average		Level			
					1997-2002	2003-2008	2008			
<i>Annual growth in %</i>										
Real GDP	2.8	3.7	1.6	-1.0	1.8	0.8				
GDP/capita (level in US dollars)	2.8	3.6	0.8	-1.9	1.7	0.0	26 085			
Employment (level in thousands)	-0.6	1.9	1.0	0.8	1.3	1.2	23 160			
<i>Percentage of the labour force</i>										
Unemployment	11.3	10.2	6.2	6.8	10.4	7.4				

Notes and sources are at the end of the chapter.

StatLink <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/883703335242>

Japan



Inflows of foreign nationals to Japan in 2008 increased to 345 000 (excluding temporary visitors). The flows are about evenly split between labour, family and ancestry-based migrants (persons of Japanese ancestry from Latin America). The inflow of foreign nationals for employment – excluding trainees – fell by 7.4% in 2008 to 72 000. The largest category of entry for employment was “entertainers” (35 000). While the number of foreign students granted a change of status for employment after graduation increased by 7% to 11 000, entry from abroad into the main employment categories declined.

The high number (7.4 million) of international visitors in 2007 was not reached in 2008, as international tourism to Japan fell in the second half of 2008. Other major groups among temporary migrants include students (58 000, up from 47 900 in 2007), about 90% of whom come from Asia, especially China (60%) and Korea (15%), and trainees. Trainees are invited to Japan by businesses with labour shortages, and the economic downturn has had a negative effect on the programme. The number of incoming trainees, which had been increasing steadily, peaked in 2007-2008 at 102 000 annually before falling by 30% in 2009.

The number of registered foreigners increased 3% in 2008 to 2.2 million, about 1.7% of the population. The largest origin groups are Chinese (29.6%), Koreans (26.6%) and Brazilians (14.1%). The number of Brazilians in Japan fell slightly in 2008 for the first time, as reduced employment opportunities led some to return to Brazil.

Since 2007, employers must report hiring foreign workers (except “special permanent residents”). According to these reports, there were 480 000 foreign workers employed in Japan at the end of October 2008, almost half of whom were of Japanese descent (so-called *nikkeijin*). Technical interns accounted for 95 000 employees, and students authorised to work for another 80 000 employees.

The number of overstayers in Japan has been falling in recent years, and fell further to 113 000 in 2008, and to 92 000 in 2009. The government attributes part of this decline to greater enforcement and new fingerprinting techniques introduced at border control in 2007.

In a major policy change, the Immigration Control and Refugee Recognition Act of July 2009 replaced the Alien Registration Act. The Immigration Bureau in the Ministry of Justice, instead of municipalities, will now conduct central

registration of foreign residents and issue residence cards. Foreigners must now register in the resident registry network linking municipalities. A 3-year visa limit has been raised to 5 years, and re-entry permits eliminated for exit and return within a year. To reduce the number of undocumented foreign residents, punishments will become stricter and include cancellation of resident status. Applications for spouse visas will be more closely scrutinised to prevent fake marriages.

Although there is no regularisation in Japan, undocumented foreigners may obtain special permission to stay on a case-by-case basis. The Minister of Justice issued about 8 500 special permits in 2008. The new bill requires the Ministry to clarify the decision criteria leading to permission or deportation.

In response to the economic downturn, the Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare launched a voluntary return program in April 2009, providing financial incentives to return to their home countries to unemployed foreign workers of Japanese ancestry and their dependents (JPY 300 000 per worker and 200 000 per dependent). Beneficiaries are barred from returning to Japan with the same visa type. About 17 000 people participated in this programme in the first 9 months.

In January and April 2009, also in response to the economic crisis and rising unemployment among foreigners of Japanese descent, the Japanese Cabinet Office launched its broadest integration policy so far. Integration programs including establishment of service centres in areas with high foreign population and language courses for unemployed foreigners, especially those with Japanese ancestry, have also been strengthened to support the reemployment of unemployed foreign workers and to support social integration. Educational measures for their children were also launched.

An amendment to the Nationality Act, effective January 1st 2009, allows Japanese parents to extend nationality to their children even if they are not married to the child's other parent; previously, marriage was required. Those affected by this restriction before the amendment can apply for nationality until the end of 2011.

For further information:

www.immi-moj.go.jp/english

www.mhlw.go.jp/english/index.html

www8.cao.go.jp/teiju-portal/eng/index.html

Recent trends in migrants' flows and stocks

JAPAN

Migration flows (foreigners) National definition	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average		Level ('000)			
					1997-2002	2003-2008	2008			
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>										
Inflows	1.7	2.7	2.6	2.7	2.4	2.8	344.5			
Outflows	1.6	1.7	1.7	1.8	1.7	2.0	234.2			
Migration inflows (foreigners) by type Permit based statistics (standardised)	Thousands		% distribution		Inflows of top 10 nationalities as a % of total inflows of foreigners					
	2007	2008	2007	2008						
Work	34.9	33.7	32.1	34.4						
Family (incl. accompanying family)	38.9	35.4	35.9	36.3						
Humanitarian	0.1	0.4	0.1	0.4						
Free movements	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0						
Others	34.6	28.2	31.9	28.9						
Total	108.5	97.7	100.0	100.0						
Temporary migration	2000	2007	2008	Average 2003-2008						
<i>Thousands</i>										
International students	41.9	47.9	58.1	47.2						
Trainees	54.0	102.0	101.9	86.7						
Working holiday makers	3.4	6.2	6.5	5.5						
Seasonal workers						
Intra-company transfers	3.9	7.2	7.3	5.2						
Other temporary workers	114.4	49.5	45.6	92.5						
Inflows of asylum seekers	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average	Level				
					1997-2002	2003-2008	2008			
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>										
	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	1 599			
Components of population growth	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average		Level ('000)			
					1997-2002	2003-2008	2008			
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>										
Total	1.9	0.5	1.8			
Natural increase	2.1	1.8	-0.3	..	1.7			
Net migration	-0.4	0.3	-0.4	..	0.1			
Stocks of immigrants	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average		Level ('000)			
					1997-2002	2003-2008	2008			
<i>Percentage of the total population</i>										
Foreign-born population			
Foreign population	1.1	1.3	1.7	1.7	1.3	1.6	2 216			
Naturalisations	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average		Level			
					1997-2002	2003-2008	2008			
<i>Percentage of the foreign population</i>										
	1.0	0.9	0.7	0.6	0.9	0.7	13 218			
Labour market outcomes	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average					
					1997-2002	2003-2008				
<i>Employment/population ratio</i>										
Native-born men				
Foreign-born men				
Native-born women				
Foreign-born women				
<i>Unemployment rate</i>										
Native-born men				
Foreign-born men				
Native-born women				
Foreign-born women				
Macroeconomic indicators	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average		Level			
					1997-2002	2003-2008	2008			
<i>Annual growth in %</i>										
Real GDP	2.0	2.9	2.4	-0.7	0.4	1.6				
GDP/capita (level in US dollars)	1.7	2.7	2.4	-0.6	0.2	1.6	28 174			
Employment (level in thousands)	0.1	-0.2	0.5	-0.4	-0.4	0.1	63 852			
<i>Percentage of the labour force</i>										
Unemployment	3.1	4.7	3.9	4.0	4.6	4.4				

Notes and sources are at the end of the chapter.

StatLink <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/883711660771>

Korea



In contrast to most other OECD countries Korea had only one quarter of negative GDP growth in the current economic crisis, but the decline in the fourth quarter of 2008 was substantial (-5.1%). Unemployment increased in the following quarter (to 3.8% from 3.1%), but has been declining each quarter since then.

The decline in economic activity appears to have had little to no effect on permanent-type labour migration flows in 2008, which increased by about 10% to reach almost 160 000. Almost all of these are in lesser skilled jobs. Workers arriving for such jobs are considered “temporary migrants” in Korea, but since it is sufficient for “temporary” migrants to return to the origin country for one month after five years in order to re-enter and be rehired and most do so, the “temporary migrants” appear to all intents and purposes long-term. The numbers presented here reflect a standardisation of Korean migration statistics to make them comparable to those of other countries for “permanent-type” immigrants.

Family migration inflows remain limited in Korea, accounting for only 17% of permanent-type inflows in 2008.

Temporary labour migration to Korea stood at about 33 000 in 2008, a decline of about 5 000 compared to the level of the previous year.

The foreign population reached 2.3% of the total population in 2008, with over 40% of this total consisting of workers in low-skilled jobs, 300 000 of these being persons of Korean ancestry from China and Russia. Citizens of China represent more than half of the foreign population, followed by citizens of the United States (118 000) and Viet Nam (85 000). Professionals accounted for scarcely 3% of the total.

The number of overstaying foreign nationals in Korea stood at about 200 000 in 2008, or about 17% of the total foreign population. The number has fluctuated about this total over the past decade, but has declined significantly as a percentage of the total

foreign population. The percentage of overstaying low-skilled foreign workers in particular has declined with the introduction of the Employment Permit System and the opportunities it provides for employers to recruit low-skilled workers from abroad at normal wages and working conditions. Prior to 2006, workers often arrived on traineeships and quickly deserted these for more lucrative but irregular employment.

More than 10% of all marriages in Korea involve a Korean national and a foreigner. In practice, this means that all things being equal, despite the fact that only a little more than 2% of the Korean population is of foreign nationality, in the future the number of children with mixed parentage will be typical of a country with a much larger immigrant population. Mixed marriages are perceived by some as an indicator of integration among immigrants. In Korea, however, the marriages coincide with entry of the spouse-to-be into the country, with integration problems often occurring as a result and presenting the same kind of special challenges for educational systems and for society as a whole as for children of immigrant parents.

With a fertility rate of 1.26 and the prospect of growing labour shortages, Korean migration policy is strongly focused on attracting and retaining workers to satisfy employment needs at all skill levels. The challenge, as officially announced by the government, is to “strengthen competitiveness by opening borders to all people with talent and to create a mature multicultural society that respects the human rights of foreigners”. The first Basic Plan for Immigration Policy (2008-2012) was released by the Ministry of Justice in December 2008 with the objective of laying the foundation for implementing a long-term and consistent migration policy.

For further information:

www.immigration.go.kr

www.eps.go.kr

www.kostat.go.kr

www.moj.go.kr

Recent trends in migrants' flows and stocks

KOREA

Migration flows (foreigners) National definition	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average		Level ('000)																																	
					1997-2002	2003-2008	2008																																	
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>																																								
Inflows	..	3.9	6.6	6.4	..	5.4	311.7																																	
Outflows	..	1.9	3.4	4.4	..	3.9	215.7																																	
Migration inflows (foreigners) by type Permit based statistics (standardised)	Thousands		% distribution		Inflows of top 10 nationalities as a % of total inflows of foreigners																																			
	2007	2008	2007	2008	<p>Legend: 2000-2007 annual average (dashed blue), 2008 (solid blue)</p> <table border="1"> <thead> <tr> <th>Nationality</th> <th>2000-2007 annual average (%)</th> <th>2008 (%)</th> </tr> </thead> <tbody> <tr><td>China</td><td>~50</td><td>~50</td></tr> <tr><td>United States</td><td>~10</td><td>~10</td></tr> <tr><td>Viet Nam</td><td>~5</td><td>~5</td></tr> <tr><td>Indonesia</td><td>~3</td><td>~3</td></tr> <tr><td>Uzbekistan</td><td>~2</td><td>~2</td></tr> <tr><td>Philippines</td><td>~1</td><td>~1</td></tr> <tr><td>Thailand</td><td>~1</td><td>~1</td></tr> <tr><td>Mongolia</td><td>~1</td><td>~1</td></tr> <tr><td>Canada</td><td>~1</td><td>~1</td></tr> <tr><td>Japan</td><td>~1</td><td>~1</td></tr> </tbody> </table>			Nationality	2000-2007 annual average (%)	2008 (%)	China	~50	~50	United States	~10	~10	Viet Nam	~5	~5	Indonesia	~3	~3	Uzbekistan	~2	~2	Philippines	~1	~1	Thailand	~1	~1	Mongolia	~1	~1	Canada	~1	~1	Japan	~1	~1
Nationality	2000-2007 annual average (%)	2008 (%)																																						
China	~50	~50																																						
United States	~10	~10																																						
Viet Nam	~5	~5																																						
Indonesia	~3	~3																																						
Uzbekistan	~2	~2																																						
Philippines	~1	~1																																						
Thailand	~1	~1																																						
Mongolia	~1	~1																																						
Canada	~1	~1																																						
Japan	~1	~1																																						
Work	142.3	157.6	77.2	81.0																																				
Family (incl. accompanying family)	38.6	32.8	20.9	16.9																																				
Humanitarian	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0																																				
Free movements																																				
Others	3.3	4.2	1.8	2.2																																				
Total	184.2	194.7	100.0	100.0																																				
Temporary migration	Thousands		Average 2003-2008																																					
	2000	2007	2008	2008																																				
<i>Thousands</i>																																								
International students	1.8	15.3	15.1	10.6																																				
Trainees	1.3	14.2	13.6	7.7																																				
Working holiday makers	0.1	0.3	0.3	0.3																																				
Seasonal workers																																				
Intra-company transfers	10.0	8.7																																				
Other temporary workers	30.6	38.4	32.6	28.7																																				
Inflows of asylum seekers	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average		Level																																	
	..	0.0	0.0	0.0	1997-2002	2003-2008	2008																																	
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>																																								
	..	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	364																																	
Components of population growth	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average		Level ('000)																																	
	1997-2002	2003-2008	2008																																	
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>																																								
Total																																	
Natural increase																																	
Net migration																																	
Stocks of immigrants	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average		Level ('000)																																	
	1997-2002	2003-2008	2008																																	
<i>Percentage of the total population</i>																																								
Foreign-born population																																	
Foreign population	0.2	0.4	1.7	1.8	0.4	1.3	895																																	
Naturalisations	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average		Level																																	
	1.3	1.7	1997-2002	2003-2008	2008																																	
<i>Percentage of the foreign population</i>																																								
	1.3	1.7	..	1.9	15 258																																	
Labour market outcomes	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average																																			
	1997-2002	2003-2008																																		
<i>Employment/population ratio</i>																																								
Native-born men																																		
Foreign-born men																																		
Native-born women																																		
Foreign-born women																																		
<i>Unemployment rate</i>																																								
Native-born men																																		
Foreign-born men																																		
Native-born women																																		
Foreign-born women																																		
Macroeconomic indicators	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average		Level																																	
	1997-2002	2003-2008	2008																																	
<i>Annual growth in %</i>																																								
Real GDP	9.2	8.5	5.1	2.2	4.5	4.0																																		
GDP/capita (level in US dollars)	8.1	7.6	4.8	1.9	3.7	3.6	23 441																																	
Employment (level in thousands)	2.9	4.3	1.2	0.6	1.1	1.0	23 577																																	
<i>Percentage of the labour force</i>																																								
Unemployment	2.1	4.4	3.2	3.2	4.6	3.5																																		

Notes and sources are at the end of the chapter.

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Lithuania



Deteriorating labour market conditions in Lithuania – unemployment reached 8% in December 2008 – resulted in an increase of recorded emigration from the country in the second half of 2008, reversing a four-year

trend of shrinking negative net migration. According to Eurostat, in 2008 Lithuania had the highest net negative migration in the EU, and in 2009, net negative migration from Lithuania was three times the 2007 level. National Department of Statistics figures only reflect emigrants who leave the country for a period longer than six months and report their departure. 17 000 Lithuanian citizens reported emigration in 2008, 3 100 more than the previous year. The 2009 Labour Force Survey found that about a third of the total outflow from Lithuania was undeclared, less than previous years. Total estimated emigration for 2008 was around 24 000. In 2009, undeclared emigration was estimated to have risen again, contributing to an estimated 71 500 total departures, against 56 000 arrivals.

Since 2003, most emigration flows are directed to the EU, which accounted for 63% of the total in 2008, led by the United Kingdom, Ireland, Germany and Spain. Labour emigration flows seem to be now shifting to Scandinavian countries. Outside the EU, significant outflows are traditionally directed towards the United States, Russia and Belarus.

Recorded immigration in 2008 was around 9 300, similar to 2007 levels and twice the 2003 (pre-accession) level. Post-accession immigration to Lithuania has increased due to inflows from EU countries, which now form half of the total. Recent immigration to Lithuania has been largely return migration by Lithuanian citizens who had previously moved to an EU country. 68% of immigrants in 2008 were Lithuanian nationals returning from abroad, mostly from the United Kingdom and Ireland. Worsening economic conditions in Lithuania has led to less return migration. However, official statistics underestimate return migration, since many Lithuanian migrants declared neither their departure nor their subsequent return.

Foreign nationals (32% of inflow in 2008 compared to 29% in 2007) came mainly from Belarus, Ukraine and the Russian Federation. Immigration of Belarusians has increased by almost five times since 2004. To a certain degree, this trend is related to the increase in number of Belarusian students, who now account for 50% of all foreign students in Lithuania.

Labour shortages and rising wages, as well as the simplification of the procedures for recruiting foreign workers, had been contributing to an increase in labour immigration to Lithuania, until mid-2008. 7 819 work permits were issued in 2008. Taken together, nationals from Belarus and Ukraine accounted for 54% of all work permits. The number of work permits issued started to decrease in the second half of 2008. In the third quarter of 2009 their number made up just 40% of that of the corresponding period in 2008.

Accession to the Schengen Area on 30 March 2008 did not result in massive inflow of irregular migrants as had been feared. Only 850 irregular migrants were apprehended in 2008.

Lithuania is not a major destination for asylum seekers. In 2008, their share in the total inflows was 1.1%. Nevertheless, the number of applications in 2008 increased by 13% over 2007, to 540, and first applications almost doubled to 210. This trend, related to Lithuanian accession to the Schengen Area, is likely to continue in the future. The Russian Federation remained the main origin country for asylum applicants (mainly of Chechen ethnicity).

The number of persons naturalised has been decreasing since 2005. In 2008, only 240 persons were granted Lithuanian citizenship.

In 2008-2009, several amendments to the *Law of the legal status of aliens* were adopted, simplifying procedures. Since August 2009, highly qualified third-country nationals (including those paid triple the average national monthly salary, researchers and *stagiaires*) can bring their family members immediately, instead of waiting two years. Students from third countries may now receive a 1-year visa and are exempt from requiring a residence permit. Requirements for residence permits for enterprise creation were tightened on 22 July 2009.

The Economic Migration Regulation Strategy contains measures to address domestic labour force shortages by encouraging the return of Lithuanian workers from abroad, as well as expand the opportunity for immigration of foreign workers. Most measures were suspended or revised due to the economic downturn. The list of shortage occupations, which was growing until 2008, when it reached 60 occupations, was reduced to only 9 by the second half of 2009.

For further information:

www.migracija.lt/index.php?-484440258

www.socmin.lt/index.php?-846611483

www.ldb.lt/LDB_Site/index.htm

Recent trends in migrants' flows and stocks

LITHUANIA

Migration flows (foreigners) National definition	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average		Level ('000)			
					1997-2002	2003-2008	2008			
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>										
Inflows	0.7	0.8	..	0.7	2.6			
Outflows	0.7	1.1	..	0.8	3.6			
Migration inflows (foreigners) by type Permit based statistics (standardised)	Thousands		% distribution		Inflows of top 10 nationalities as a % of total inflows of foreigners					
	2007	2008	2007	2008						
Work						
Family (incl. accompanying family)						
Humanitarian						
Free movements						
Others						
Total						
Temporary migration	2000	2007	2008	Average 2003-2008						
<i>Thousands</i>										
International students						
Trainees						
Working holiday makers						
Seasonal workers						
Intra-company transfers						
Other temporary workers						
Inflows of asylum seekers	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average		Level			
					1997-2002	2003-2008	2008			
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>										
	..	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.1	220			
Components of population growth	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average		Level ('000)			
					1997-2002	2003-2008	2008			
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>										
Total	-7.7	-7.1	-5.5	-4.9	-6.0	-5.5	-16			
Natural increase	-1.1	-1.3	-3.9	-2.6	-1.7	-3.4	-9			
Net migration	-6.6	-5.8	-1.6	-2.3	-4.3	-2.1	-8			
Stocks of immigrants	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average		Level ('000)			
					1997-2002	2003-2008	2008			
<i>Percentage of the total population</i>										
Foreign-born population			
Foreign population	..	0.9	1.0	1.0	..	1.0	33			
Naturalisations	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average		Level			
					1997-2002	2003-2008	2008			
<i>Percentage of the foreign population</i>										
	1.0	0.7	..	1.3	240			
Labour market outcomes	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average					
					1997-2002	2003-2008				
<i>Employment/population ratio</i>										
Native-born men				
Foreign-born men				
Native-born women				
Foreign-born women				
<i>Unemployment rate</i>										
Native-born men				
Foreign-born men				
Native-born women				
Foreign-born women				
Macroeconomic indicators	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average		Level			
					1997-2002	2003-2008	2008			
<i>Annual growth in %</i>										
Real GDP	..	3.3	9.8	2.8	..	7.6				
GDP/capita (level in US dollars)			
Employment (level in thousands)	..	-4.8	2.0	-1.0	..	1.3	1 490			
<i>Percentage of the labour force</i>										
Unemployment	..	16.4	4.3	5.9	14.7	8.0				

Notes and sources are at the end of the chapter.

StatLink <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/883723764317>

Luxembourg



Out of all OECD countries, Luxembourg has the highest percentage of foreigners in relation to its total population, and this percentage is rising steadily. In January 2009, foreigners accounted for 44 % of a total population of 493 500, as compared with 43 % in 2008 and 41 % in 2005. In 2008, net migration (7 700 persons) accounted for nearly 80 % of population growth, and only foreigners made a positive contribution to the natural balance. The totality of Luxembourg's demographic growth is therefore due to foreigners.

Inflows of foreigners rose for the second consecutive year, rising from 15 800 to 16 800 in 2008. Portugal and France remained the main sending countries, accounting for 27 % and 19 % of inflows respectively. After rising for two consecutive years, outflows of foreigners fell between 2007 and 2008, primarily because of lower outflows of French and Belgian nationals.

For the first time since the procedures for acquiring nationality were relaxed in 2002, the number of naturalisations fell very slightly from the previous year. 1 215 persons obtained Luxembourg nationality in 2008, as against 1 236 in 2007. The naturalisation rate is also falling as a proportion of the foreign population and therefore remains much lower than in neighbouring countries.

The new law on nationality that entered into force on 1 January 2009 introduced the principle of dual nationality into Luxembourg law, and is aimed at facilitating the integration of foreigners who reside in the Grand Duchy and wish to obtain Luxembourg nationality while keeping their nationality of origin.

Foreign residents play a key role in Luxembourg's labour force, but not as great as their proportion of the total population would suggest. This is partly due to the large number of cross-border workers (146 000 in 2007). These workers accounted for 43.8 % of total employment in 2008 (as

against 20 % in 1990). The French are the largest group (47 %), followed by Belgians (23 %) and Germans (23 %).

Although the financial crisis had a strong impact on Luxembourg's economy at the end of 2008, the unemployment rate has levelled off in recent years at around 4.5 % of the labour force. However, behind this overall figure, situations differ by gender and country of birth. Between 2007 and 2008, the unemployment rate for men born in Luxembourg fell from 3 % to 2.5 %, while that of men born abroad rose from 4.4 % to 6.4 %. The unemployment rate for women is rising, particularly for women born abroad, which reached 6.8 % in 2008.

The number of asylum seekers in 2008 (463) was higher than in 2007, but remained at a relatively low level. Nearly 60 % of these applications came from nationals of the former Yugoslavia, with the vast majority from Kosovo. Kosovo was also the main destination of voluntary returns in 2008 (43 %).

During the 2007/2008 academic year, the school reception centre for newly arriving pupils (*Cellule d'accueil scolaire pour élèves nouveaux arrivants*, CASNA) received nearly 500 pupils arriving in Luxembourg for the first time. This centre, established in 2005, enables all young people between 12 and 18 years of age arriving in Luxembourg with their parents to be informed about school in Luxembourg, to have their math and language skills assessed and to be steered to a school that matches their profile. Since nearly two-thirds of the new arrivals were Portuguese-speakers, reception in Portuguese is provided two days per week.

For further information:

www.mae.lu

www.statistiques.public.lu

www.cge.etat.lu

www.men.public.lu

Recent trends in migrants' flows and stocks

LUXEMBOURG

Migration flows (foreigners) National definition	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average		Level ('000)																																	
					1997-2002	2003-2008	2008																																	
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>																																								
Inflows	23.2	24.7	33.1	34.7	24.8	30.3	16.8																																	
Outflows	12.0	16.1	18.1	16.4	16.2	16.4	8.0																																	
Migration inflows (foreigners) by type Permit based statistics (standardised)	Thousands		% distribution		Inflows of top 10 nationalities as a % of total inflows of foreigners																																			
	2007	2008	2007	2008	<p>Legend: 1997-2007 annual average (dashed line), 2008 (solid bar)</p> <table border="1"> <thead> <tr> <th>Nationality</th> <th>1997-2007 annual average (%)</th> <th>2008 (%)</th> </tr> </thead> <tbody> <tr><td>Portugal</td><td>25</td><td>25</td></tr> <tr><td>France</td><td>18</td><td>18</td></tr> <tr><td>Germany</td><td>10</td><td>10</td></tr> <tr><td>Belgium</td><td>10</td><td>10</td></tr> <tr><td>Italy</td><td>5</td><td>5</td></tr> <tr><td>Poland</td><td>5</td><td>5</td></tr> <tr><td>United Kingdom</td><td>5</td><td>5</td></tr> <tr><td>United States</td><td>5</td><td>5</td></tr> <tr><td>Netherlands</td><td>5</td><td>5</td></tr> <tr><td>Romania</td><td>5</td><td>5</td></tr> </tbody> </table>			Nationality	1997-2007 annual average (%)	2008 (%)	Portugal	25	25	France	18	18	Germany	10	10	Belgium	10	10	Italy	5	5	Poland	5	5	United Kingdom	5	5	United States	5	5	Netherlands	5	5	Romania	5	5
Nationality	1997-2007 annual average (%)	2008 (%)																																						
Portugal	25	25																																						
France	18	18																																						
Germany	10	10																																						
Belgium	10	10																																						
Italy	5	5																																						
Poland	5	5																																						
United Kingdom	5	5																																						
United States	5	5																																						
Netherlands	5	5																																						
Romania	5	5																																						
Work																																				
Family (incl. accompanying family)																																				
Humanitarian																																				
Free movements																																				
Others																																				
Total																																				
Temporary migration	2000	2007	2008	Average 2003-2008																																				
<i>Thousands</i>																																								
International students																																				
Trainees																																				
Working holiday makers																																				
Seasonal workers																																				
Intra-company transfers																																				
Other temporary workers																																				
Inflows of asylum seekers	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average		Level																																	
					1997-2002	2003-2008	2008																																	
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>																																								
	1.0	1.4	0.9	1.0	2.8	1.9	463																																	
Components of population growth	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average		Level ('000)																																	
					1997-2002	2003-2008	2008																																	
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>																																								
Total	15.1	12.8	15.8	19.9	11.6	16.0	10																																	
Natural increase	3.9	4.3	3.3	4.1	3.9	3.6	2																																	
Net migration	11.2	8.2	12.5	15.8	7.7	12.4	8																																	
Stocks of immigrants	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average		Level ('000)																																	
					1997-2002	2003-2008	2008																																	
<i>Percentage of the total population</i>																																								
Foreign-born population																																	
Foreign population	33.4	37.7	43.2	44.5	36.9	41.3	216																																	
Naturalisations	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average		Level																																	
					1997-2002	2003-2008	2008																																	
<i>Percentage of the foreign population</i>																																								
	0.6	0.4	0.6	0.6	0.4	0.5	1 215																																	
Labour market outcomes	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average																																			
					1997-2002	2003-2008																																		
<i>Employment/population ratio</i>																																								
Native-born men	70.7	73.2	67.3	68.2	71.7	68.4																																		
Foreign-born men	81.3	78.1	79.3	75.9	80.0	78.8																																		
Native-born women	38.8	46.5	51.3	50.4	45.3	50.1																																		
Foreign-born women	48.9	55.3	62.9	61.8	54.4	58.9																																		
<i>Unemployment rate</i>																																								
Native-born men	2.1	1.4	3.0	2.5	1.5	2.7																																		
Foreign-born men	2.1	2.5	4.3	6.4	2.3	4.8																																		
Native-born women	3.7	3.0	4.4	5.4	2.6	4.4																																		
Foreign-born women	5.5	3.3	5.1	6.8	4.4	7.4																																		
Macroeconomic indicators	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average		Level																																	
					1997-2002	2003-2008	2008																																	
<i>Annual growth in %</i>																																								
Real GDP	1.4	8.4	6.5	0.0	6.0	3.9																																		
GDP/capita (level in US dollars)	0.0	6.9	4.8	-1.7	4.7	2.3	64 262																																	
Employment (level in thousands)	0.9	4.2	2.3	3.2	2.4	1.9	217																																	
<i>Percentage of the labour force</i>																																								
Unemployment	3.0	2.6	4.4	4.4	2.9	4.3																																		

Notes and sources are at the end of the chapter.

StatLink <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/883742626232>

Mexico



Migration issues in Mexico continue to be dominated by the outflow of Mexican migrants and Central and South American transit migrants to the United States. Undocumented migration,

combined with human trafficking and other criminal activities, is a significant feature of these cross-border migration issues, and although it cannot be exactly quantified, Mexican estimates are of about 315 000 persons crossing to the United States and 2 million into Mexico annually.

Due to the economic crisis, migration flows from and through Mexico to the United States have dramatically fallen in 2009. Stricter enforcement by the United States also contributed to this decrease. The number of unauthorised foreigners detained along the US-Mexico border fell from over 1.6 million in 2000 to less than half that in 2008. The detention of unauthorised foreigners at Mexico's Southern border also decreased from 113 000 in 2007 to 89 000 in 2008. The sharp rise in temporary employment permits to the United States since 2005 also ended in 2008. The economic crisis affected Mexican migrants in the United States more than the native population there, with higher unemployment rates for Hispanic citizens and even worse impact on irregular migrants. Remittances to Mexico fell by 15%. Nonetheless, no large-scale return migration of Mexicans from the United States occurred.

Regarding the documented immigration to Mexico, the number of permanent migrants (FM2 visa) more than doubled from 2007 to 2008, reaching 15 000. The majority (60%) of permanent migrants comes from Central America, such as neighbouring Guatemala and Honduras, but also from South America (Columbia, Argentina and Venezuela), and from Cuba and the Caribbean. An increasing share, and so far the only large group from Asia, are Chinese, with 2 000 out of 23 400 FM2 visas issued in 2009. The number of migrants benefiting from the Regularisation Program, which came into effect in November 2008 and offers an FM2 visa to those who migrated irregularly before 2007, slightly increased by 500 to 2 600 in 2008 and further to 2 880 in 2009. Most are from Central America, especially Guatemala and Honduras.

The number of seasonal temporary workers decreased from 27 800 in 2007 to 23 300 in 2008, about half of the inflow in 2005. Two new permits were introduced to regulate movements at the Southern border and reduce irregular movements and associated risks of human rights violations. The Border Workers Permit (FMTF), valid for one year, replaced the 1997 Agricultural Visitor Migration Permit. The FMTF is for Guatemalan and Belizean temporary cross-border labour migrants with employment in the border states. In 2009, 30 000 permits were issued to Guatemalans working in the states of Chiapas and Tabasco; no Belizean applied for this permit until December. The Local Visitor Permit (FMVL), valid for five years, also allows Guatemalans and Belizeans legal entry into border towns for access to school, merchandise purchases, bank deposits and non-profit activities. In total, 135 000 permits were issued in 2009, 96% were for Guatemalans and the rest for Belizeans. In October 2009 President Calderon announced to expand the FMVL to persons living not only in the border area but for any Guatemalan, and to introduce biometric controls at the border.

To better monitor migration flows and crime along the Southern border, Mexico developed a comprehensive strategy including the development of border infrastructure, better coordination of federal and local investigations and tax incentives for border communities to use legal trade channels. Readmission agreements have been signed with Guatemala, El Salvador, Honduras and Nicaragua, and, in 2008, Mexico signed a Memorandum of Understanding with Cuba to address the increasing numbers of Cubans seeking to enter the United States through Mexico.

Another recent development in migration is the increase of emigration of skilled Mexicans to the United States. Due to the educational development promoting higher education, but insufficient domestic opportunities of employment, an increasing number of professionals are leaving Mexico. Although they constitute only a small percentage of the labour force in the United States, these emigrants comprise 8% of professionals in Mexico. By 2025, Mexico is projected to feel the effects of this "brain drain".

For further information:

www.inm.gob.mx/EN/index.php


Recent trends in migrants' flows and stocks

MEXICO

Migration flows (foreigners) <i>National definition</i>	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average		Level ('000)
					1997-2002	2003-2008	2008
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>							
Inflows	..	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	15.1
Outflows
Migration inflows (foreigners) by type <i>Permit based statistics (standardised)</i>	Thousands		% distribution				
	2007	2008	2007	2008			
Work			
Family (incl. accompanying family)			
Humanitarian			
Free movements			
Others			
Total	6.8	15.1			
Temporary migration	2000	2007	2008	Average			
				2003-2008			
<i>Thousands</i>							
International students	6.3	7.1	..	5.8			
Trainees			
Working holiday makers			
Seasonal workers	69.0	27.8	23.3	37.3			
Intra-company transfers			
Other temporary workers			
Inflows of asylum seekers	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average		Level
					1997-2002	2003-2008	2008
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>							

Components of population growth	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average		Level ('000)
					1997-2002	2003-2008	2008
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>							
Total
Natural increase
Net migration
Stocks of immigrants	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average		Level ('000)
					1997-2002	2003-2008	2008
<i>Percentage of the total population</i>							
Foreign-born population	0.4	0.5
Foreign population
Naturalisations	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average		Level
					1997-2002	2003-2008	2008
<i>Percentage of the foreign population</i>							
	4 471
Labour market outcomes	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average		
					1997-2002	2003-2008	
<i>Employment/population ratio</i>							
Native-born men	
Foreign-born men	
Native-born women	
Foreign-born women	
<i>Unemployment rate</i>							
Native-born men	
Foreign-born men	
Native-born women	
Foreign-born women	
Macroeconomic indicators	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average		Level
					1997-2002	2003-2008	2008
<i>Annual growth in %</i>							
Real GDP	-6.2	6.6	3.4	1.3	3.8	3.1	
GDP/capita (level in US dollars)	-8.0	4.7	2.5	0.5	2.3	2.1	11 191
Employment (level in thousands)	-0.9	2.2	1.7	2.3	2.4	2.0	43 527
<i>Percentage of the labour force</i>							
Unemployment	6.9	2.6	3.4	3.5	3.0	3.4	

Notes and sources are at the end of the chapter.

StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/883745773576>

Netherlands



Migration flows to the Netherlands continued to increase in 2008, to reach 143 000. Of those, 103 000 were foreign immigrants, up from 80 000 in 2007.

Emigration flows (90 000) decreased for the first time after several years, albeit only slightly. The emigration flows of foreign nationals reached 30 000. After including administrative corrections for unreported emigration, the migration surplus (25 737) was positive for the first time since 2003.

Most of the immigration flows came from Western countries. Around 28% of the immigrants were Dutch nationals returning to the Netherlands (including 6 200 Antilleans and Arubans). Almost 40% of the immigrants were from EU countries, mostly from Germany (8 924), United Kingdom (4 815) and the new EU countries Poland (13 683), Bulgaria (5 098) and Romania (2 298). Around 8% came from other non-EU western countries. Finally, the remaining 24% of immigrants were from non-Western countries, mostly from China (4 509), India (3 236) and Turkey (3 361).

The number of foreign workers coming to the Netherlands with a temporary work permit (TWV) decreased further in 2008 to only 15 000, from 50 000 in 2007. This sharp decrease is due to the exemption, since May 2007, of CEE nationals from the requirement to hold work permit to be employed in the Netherlands. Transitional measures for nationals from Bulgaria and Romania still apply, however, and over 4 000 temporary work permits were issued in 2008 for nationals from these countries.

The number of asylum requests continue to increase, from 13 000 in 2008 to almost 15 000 in 2009. The largest group were Somalis (5 890), under protection policy for special categories until May 2009, followed by Iraqis (1 990). In addition, a “General Amnesty Scheme” was opened in 2008 for asylum seekers who applied for asylum before

April 2001 and were still in the Netherlands. By July 2009, the total number of individuals granted a permanent residence permit under the Scheme was 27 700.

The main labour migration policy changes were the proposal of a new model for the admission and residence of foreign nationals in June 2008 and the introduction of an Admission Scheme for Highly Educated Migrants in January 2009.

The proposal of a new model for the admission and residence of foreign nationals was submitted to the Parliament in June 2008. The “Blueprint for Modern Migration Policy” aims to simplify admission procedures (combining whenever possible residence permits and work permits, and shortening admission procedures), to introduce a sponsor system, and to improve supervision using risk assessment. It is expected to be implemented on a phased basis in 2011.

The shift towards selective migration policies started five years ago with the Highly Skilled Migrant Scheme. In January 2009, it continued with the Admission Scheme for Highly Educated Migrants. This new admission scheme is a points-based system that gives a one-year permit in order to look for a job or start an innovative firm, to those individuals with at least a Master’s degree from an internationally recognized university. The number of first residence permits granted to highly-skilled migrants increased to more than 6 500 in 2009.

For further information:

www.ind.nl/EN

www.cbs.nl/en-GB/menu/home/default.htm?Languageswitch=on

Recent trends in migrants' flows and stocks

NETHERLANDS

Migration flows (foreigners) National definition	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average		Level ('000)			
					1997-2002	2003-2008	2008			
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>										
Inflows	4.3	5.7	4.9	6.3	5.3	4.6	103.4			
Outflows	1.4	1.3	1.8	1.9	1.3	1.6	30.7			
Migration inflows (foreigners) by type Permit based statistics (standardised)	Thousands		% distribution		Inflows of top 10 nationalities as a % of total inflows of foreigners					
	2007	2008	2007	2008						
Work	8.1	9.0	11.6	10.9						
Family (incl. accompanying family)	16.1	21.1	23.0	25.6						
Humanitarian	12.3	6.6	17.7	8.0						
Free movements	33.3	45.8	47.7	55.5						
Others						
Total	69.8	82.5	100.0	100.0						
Temporary migration	2000	2007	2008	Average 2003-2008						
<i>Thousands</i>										
International students	6.5	11.5	13.5	11.2						
Trainees	4.8	1.7	1.5	1.3						
Working holiday makers						
Seasonal workers						
Intra-company transfers						
Other temporary workers	27.7	50.0	15.6	44.7						
Inflows of asylum seekers	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average 1997-2002	Average 2003-2008	Level 2008			
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>										
	1.9	2.8	0.4	0.8	2.3	0.7	13 399			
Components of population growth	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average 1997-2002	Average 2003-2008	Level ('000) 2008			
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>										
Total	4.5	7.7	2.9	4.9	6.6	3.0	80			
Natural increase	3.5	4.2	2.9	3.0	3.8	3.2	49			
Net migration	0.9	3.4	-0.4	1.6	2.5	-0.6	27			
Stocks of immigrants	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average 1997-2002	Average 2003-2008	Level ('000) 2008			
<i>Percentage of the total population</i>										
Foreign-born population	9.1	10.1	10.7	10.9	10.0	10.7	1 794			
Foreign population	4.7	4.2	4.2	4.4	4.3	4.3	719			
Naturalisations	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average 1997-2002	Average 2003-2008	Level 2008			
<i>Percentage of the foreign population</i>										
	9.8	7.5	4.4	3.9	8.0	4.1	28 229			
Labour market outcomes	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average 1997-2002	Average 2003-2008				
<i>Employment/population ratio</i>										
Native-born men	77.0	84.0	82.9	83.8	82.6	82.6				
Foreign-born men	56.2	69.9	71.0	74.9	67.6	70.1				
Native-born women	54.9	65.6	71.0	72.6	63.6	69.6				
Foreign-born women	38.4	48.8	54.6	57.3	49.2	52.8				
<i>Unemployment rate</i>										
Native-born men	4.9	1.8	2.7	2.4	2.3	3.1				
Foreign-born men	19.5	5.4	7.5	6.4	8.0	9.1				
Native-born women	7.7	3.0	3.6	2.7	4.1	3.8				
Foreign-born women	19.9	7.6	7.7	6.7	8.0	9.1				
Macroeconomic indicators	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average 1997-2002	Average 2003-2008	Level 2008			
<i>Annual growth in %</i>										
Real GDP	3.1	3.9	3.6	2.0	3.1	2.3				
GDP/capita (level in US dollars)	2.6	3.2	3.4	1.6	2.5	2.0	33 231			
Employment (level in thousands)	2.3	2.2	2.6	1.4	2.1	0.8	8 717			
<i>Percentage of the labour force</i>										
Unemployment	7.2	2.8	3.3	2.9	3.7	4.0				

Notes and sources are at the end of the chapter.

StatLink <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/883808331533>

New Zealand



The recent rise in net permanent and long-term migration (from 4 700 to 12 500 in 2008/2009) show the impact of the global economic slowdown. While net migration of foreigners remains stable at 40 200, more New Zealanders are returning home and fewer are leaving.

Around 46 000 people have been approved for residence each year since 2006/07. The largest source countries remained the United Kingdom (which decreased to 18.7% of the total), China (14.7%), South Africa (11.6%), the Philippines and India (7% each). According to the most recent data (July 2009 to January 2010), residence approvals decreased by 10.9% over the previous period. China and the United Kingdom saw significant declines in approvals (34% and 28% respectively).

Overall, 136 800 work permits were approved in the fiscal year 2008-2009, down 7%; these figures exclude Working Holiday Workers (WHW) and Recognised Seasonal Employer (RSE) programmes. Most work permits are granted for family-related work policy and skilled work. Skilled work approvals fell by 10%, due to both fewer applications and a lower approval rate. Demand started to fall in October 2008, and 33% fewer applications for labour market-tested occupations were received between July 2009-January 2010 compared to the same period a year before.

Non-labour market-tested categories, in contrast, rose in 2008/09: by 13.2% for WHW, as three new schemes were introduced and caps lifted on other schemes; and by 150% in the RSE programme, now capped at 8000 annually. 7 157 workers came during 2008/09 RSE season (71% from Tonga, Samoa and Vanuatu).

In 2008/09, 73 926 international students were approved to study in New Zealand, a 6% increase from 2007/08. A decline in the number of Chinese students was offset by other countries such as India.

Initiatives have been implemented to ensure that temporary work policy responded to the increase in unemployed New Zealanders, including one year limits on permit duration of lower skilled temporary work applications to ensure more regular labour market testing. The Essential Skills in Demand Lists, comprising the Long Term Skill Shortage List (LTSSL) and the Immediate Skill Shortage List (ISSL) are reviewed

biannually. In July 2009, 8 occupations were removed from the LTSSL and 44 occupations from the ISSL.

The November 2009 Immigration Act is expected to come into force in late 2010. A new universal visa system will unite the categories of “visa”, “permit” and “exemption”. “Visa” will refer to the authority to travel to, enter and stay in New Zealand, and all foreign nationals will thus require a visa to be in New Zealand.

In November 2009, the Minister of Immigration announced two new “Silver Fern” policies, the Job Search policy and the Practical Experience policy. These policies are designed to bring young skilled people into New Zealand, and came into effect in April 2010. The Job Search policy will allow young people with a recognized qualification to enter New Zealand for nine months to search for skilled employment. There will be a limit of 300 places per year. Holders of Silver Fern Job Search Visas who successfully find skilled employment in New Zealand may apply for a Practical Experience Visa/Permit, and work in that employment for up to two years.

Since 2005, business migration investment has declined due to high investment and English language requirements. A new policy package, introduced in July 2009, lowers requirements for capital, language skills and time spent in New Zealand annually, and offers more flexibility in terms of investment vehicles. A selection of expression of interest took place in March 2010. A new Entrepreneur Plus category offers a faster path to residence for applicants who create at least 3 fulltime jobs and invest NZD 500 000 in their business.

On 21 April 2010, residency requirements for naturalisation were raised from 3 years to 5 years.

New Zealand has made agreements with the Philippines and Viet Nam to facilitate entry to the New Zealand labour market for a limited number of highly skilled professionals. Conditions include a *bona fide* job offer, and specific qualifications and/or work experience requirements. Eligible occupations include farm managers, engineering professionals, nurses (Philippines), and Vietnamese chefs.

For further information:

www.immigration.govt.nz

www.dol.govt.nz/actreview

www.chinafta.govt.nz/1-The-agreement/1-Key-outcomes/2-Services/4-Temporary-entry-and-employment/index.php

www.asean.fta.govt.nz/the-agreement

Recent trends in migrants' flows and stocks

NEW ZEALAND

Migration flows (foreigners) National definition	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average		Level ('000)			
					1997-2002	2003-2008	2008			
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>										
Inflows	15.2	9.8	11.1	11.0	10.0	11.1	46.9			
Outflows	2.9	4.0	5.1	5.4	4.9	6.0	23.0			
Migration inflows (foreigners) by type Permit based statistics (standardised)	Thousands		% distribution		Inflows of top 10 nationalities as a % of total inflows of foreigners					
	2007	2008	2007	2008						
Work	12.4	12.8	23.8	24.7						
Family (incl. accompanying family)	30.7	30.7	59.1	58.8						
Humanitarian	3.8	3.7	7.2	7.1						
Free movements	5.2	4.8	9.9	9.4						
Others	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0						
Total	52.0	51.7	100.0	100.0						
Temporary migration	2000	2007	2008	Average 2003-2008						
<i>Thousands</i>										
International students	45.8	69.6	73.9	74.1						
Trainees	0.8	1.2	1.1	1.6						
Working holiday makers	13.0	34.9	40.3	29.8						
Seasonal workers	..	6.6	10.4	6.4						
Intra-company transfers						
Other temporary workers	24.1	56.5	47.3	46.6						
Inflows of asylum seekers	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average		Level			
					1997-2002	2003-2008	2008			
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>										
	0.2	0.4	0.1	0.1	0.4	0.1	254			
Components of population growth	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average		Level ('000)			
					1997-2002	2003-2008	2008			
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>										
Total	15.9	5.6	9.7	9.1	9.8	12.2	39			
Natural increase	8.1	7.7	8.3	8.2	7.4	7.6	35			
Net migration	7.7	-2.9	1.4	0.9	1.2	3.3	4			
Stocks of immigrants	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average		Level ('000)			
					1997-2002	2003-2008	2008			
<i>Percentage of the total population</i>										
Foreign-born population			
Foreign population			
Naturalisations	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average		Level			
					1997-2002	2003-2008	2008			
<i>Percentage of the foreign population</i>										
	23 772			
Labour market outcomes	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average		Level			
					1997-2002	2003-2008	2008			
<i>Employment/population ratio</i>										
Native-born men			
Foreign-born men			
Native-born women			
Foreign-born women			
<i>Unemployment rate</i>										
Native-born men			
Foreign-born men			
Native-born women			
Foreign-born women			
Macroeconomic indicators	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average		Level			
					1997-2002	2003-2008	2008			
<i>Annual growth in %</i>										
Real GDP	4.2	2.4	3.1	-1.1	3.1	2.5	..			
GDP/capita (level in US dollars)	2.5	1.8	2.1	-2.0	2.0	1.3	23 457			
Employment (level in thousands)	4.7	1.9	1.9	0.6	1.5	2.3	2 188			
<i>Percentage of the labour force</i>										
Unemployment	6.4	6.1	3.7	4.2	6.4	4.0	..			

Notes and sources are at the end of the chapter.

StatLink <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/883824882142>

Norway



In 2008, immigration to Norway continued at record-high levels. According to national statistics, the overall immigrant inflow to Norway peaked that year at 66 900. Net immigration of foreign nationals was 43 600, 4 000 more than in the previous record year of 2007, adding almost 1% to the overall population.

Two thirds of immigration was from EU countries. Poland remained the main origin country with a net immigration of 13 000, somewhat lower than in 2007, followed by Germany, Lithuania and Sweden – all of which recorded increases. Most immigration to Norway in 2008 was labour migration, representing 48% of the total from non-Nordic countries.

During the autumn of 2008 and spring 2009 the demand for labour fell, which led to a reduction in new (first-time) work permits for citizens from EEA countries. The number of work permits issued to skilled third country nationals has also declined. However, there is still a relatively high level of labour migration to Norway, in particular from EEA countries. In May 2009, Norway lifted the transitional arrangements for the eight Central and Eastern European countries which had joined the European Union in 2004. The main origin country for skilled labour immigrants from countries outside of the EEA is India, followed by Russia, China, USA and the Philippines.

The number of applicants for asylum increased sharply and reached almost 14 500 in 2008; preliminary data for 2009 show a further increase to more than 17 200, in spite of a large decline of asylum seeking from Iraq. The major countries of origin in 2009 were Afghanistan, Eritrea and Somalia. In July 2009, the Government introduced new measures to ensure that Norwegian asylum procedures differ as little as possible from other European countries. The aim has been to limit the number of asylum seekers who are not in need of protection, and to prevent

Norway from receiving a disproportionate number of the asylum seekers arriving in Europe.

A new Immigration Act entered into force on 1 January 2010. Among the main changes with respect to the previous legislation has been the replacement of the previously separate work and residence permit by a single residence permit, which generally also entitles work permission. Furthermore, all asylum applicants who are entitled to protection will be given refugee status. Pursuant to the Act, persons who were previously granted asylum in accordance with the Geneva Convention and persons who are protected from deportation (*refoulement*) according to other conventions will be given the same status as refugees, entitling the former to the same rights as the latter.

The new Act has also introduced new criteria for family-based immigration. These include stricter requirements for assured subsistence (financial support) and a requirement of four years of work experience and/or education in Norway in order to be granted family immigration permits. However, there are a number of exceptions to the experience requirement, notably for family members of EEA citizens and for labour migrants. In family immigration cases, the main rule is that the person living in Norway must be able to document a sufficient income the year before sponsoring family, and must also be able to prove the prospect of sufficient income for the following year. In addition, a new requirement has been introduced stating that the sponsor in Norway, as a main rule, must not have received social assistance in the past year.

In 2009, Norway has also created joint service centres by the relevant authorities (labour inspection, police, tax administration, and the Directorate for Immigration) to serve both employers and labour migrants and their families with respect to information and the fast-track handling of applications.

For further information:

www.ssb.no/innvandring_en
www.udi.no

Recent trends in migrants' flows and stocks

NORWAY

Migration flows (foreigners) National definition	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average		Level ('000)			
					1997-2002	2003-2008	2008			
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>										
Inflows	3.8	6.2	11.4	12.3	6.1	8.4	58.8			
Outflows	2.1	3.3	2.8	3.2	2.9	2.9	15.2			
Migration inflows (foreigners) by type Permit based statistics (standardised)	Thousands		% distribution		Inflows of top 10 nationalities as a % of total inflows of foreigners					
	2007	2008	2007	2008						
Work	3.1	3.7	7.2	7.2						
Family (incl. accompanying family)	10.6	10.7	24.3	20.9						
Humanitarian	5.9	4.7	13.5	9.2						
Free movements	24.1	32.0	55.1	62.7						
Others	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0						
Total	43.8	51.0	100.0	100.0						
Temporary migration	2000	2007	2008	Average 2003-2008						
<i>Thousands</i>										
International students	2.3	5.2	5.9	4.6						
Trainees	..	0.4	0.3	0.4						
Working holiday makers	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.1						
Seasonal workers	9.9	39.4	33.5	29.1						
Intra-company transfers	0.2	0.6	0.0	0.2						
Other temporary workers	12.4	45.8	39.7	34.4						
Inflows of asylum seekers	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average	Level				
					1997-2002	2003-2008	2008			
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>										
	0.3	2.4	1.4	3.0	2.4	2.0	14 431			
Components of population growth	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average		Level ('000)			
					1997-2002	2003-2008	2008			
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>										
Total	5.0	5.6	11.9	13.0	5.9	8.8	62			
Natural increase	3.4	3.3	3.4	3.8	3.1	3.4	18			
Net migration	1.4	2.0	8.5	9.0	2.9	5.3	43			
Stocks of immigrants	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average		Level ('000)			
					1997-2002	2003-2008	2008			
<i>Percentage of the total population</i>										
Foreign-born population	5.5	6.8	9.5	10.3	6.6	8.7	489			
Foreign population	3.7	4.1	5.7	6.4	4.0	5.2	303			
Naturalisations	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average		Level			
					1997-2002	2003-2008	2008			
<i>Percentage of the foreign population</i>										
	7.3	5.2	5.6	3.4	5.5	4.6	10 312			
Labour market outcomes	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average					
					1997-2002	2003-2008				
<i>Employment/population ratio</i>										
Native-born men	76.7	82.3	79.8	80.5	81.9	79.3				
Foreign-born men	64.4	74.6	73.4	77.3	74.6	72.2				
Native-born women	68.4	74.6	74.5	75.8	74.2	73.9				
Foreign-born women	54.6	63.5	66.7	70.6	63.5	63.6				
<i>Unemployment rate</i>										
Native-born men	6.1	3.4	2.3	2.4	3.6	3.3				
Foreign-born men	11.3	6.8	6.1	6.6	7.4	9.0				
Native-born women	6.1	3.2	2.3	2.2	3.7	3.2				
Foreign-born women	12.0	5.3	4.0	4.3	7.0	6.4				
Macroeconomic indicators	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average		Level			
					1997-2002	2003-2008	2008			
<i>Annual growth in %</i>										
Real GDP	4.2	3.3	3.1	2.1	2.8	2.5				
GDP/capita (level in US dollars)	3.7	2.6	2.1	0.8	2.2	1.7	40 912			
Employment (level in thousands)	2.2	0.4	3.4	3.3	1.2	1.7	2 524			
<i>Percentage of the labour force</i>										
Unemployment	4.9	3.4	2.5	2.6	3.5	3.7				

Notes and sources are at the end of the chapter.

StatLink <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/883810307400>

Poland



Migration inflow to Poland increased slightly in 2008 compared to the previous year, to 41 800, while outflow decreased by 5 000 in 2008. Net migration remained constant, at 1.1 per 1 000 inhabitants.

Immigration to Poland remains low with a share of foreigners in the total population in 2008 at 0.2%.

The slowdown of emigration from Poland observed in the second half of 2007 has continued. According to the Central Population Register, registered permanent emigration decreased by 24% from 2006 to 2007 and by further 15% in 2008. Short-term migration which rose sharply in the early post-accession phase, dropped by 48% in 2009 from its peak in 2007. The major destination countries for the outflow continue to be within the EU, especially Germany, United Kingdom and Ireland, but other EU15 countries gained importance since granting full access to the labour markets, *e.g.* the Netherlands and Italy. The most important non-EU destination continues to be the United States. More than half of both female and male emigrants are under 30 years old; the share of children under 15 years is also increasing (from 9% in 2006 to 11% in 2008).

The main origin countries of foreigners arriving in Poland were bordering countries, particularly Ukraine and Slovak Republic, but also the EU15, especially Germany. 32 000 residence permits were issued in 2008, an increase of 6 000 compared to 2007. The increase in immigration observed in the Central Population Registry also hints at a growing return migration of Polish citizens as part of the increasing inflow. According to the Labour Force Survey, between the 2nd quarter of 2008 and the 2nd quarter of 2009, the stock of Polish migrants staying abroad decreased by 108 000 (over 21%).

With regard to the labour market, the number of work permits granted has been increasing since 2007, from 12 000 in 2007 to 18 000 in 2008 (increase of 48%) for foreign individuals, and for subcontracting foreign companies from 1 300 in 2006 to 3 700 in 2008. Along with the Amendment to the Act on Aliens, labour market access has been liberalised by a new work permit issuance system with five different types of work permits, lower issuance fees and a one-step

procedure. For the first time, students have been granted a privileged category for obtaining work permits. Since 2004 Poland has been among the OECD countries showing the largest increases in inflows of foreign students (to 13 700, a 20% increase from 2006 to 2007).

A February 2009 directive by the Minister of Labour and Social Policy simplified procedures for the seasonal employment of migrants from co-operating bordering countries. Migrants from Belarus, Russia, Ukraine and also Moldova are exempt from work permits, although employers must declare their employment at the local labour office and they may not work more than 6 months. This resulted in a large inflow: 20 000 visas were issued in 2007, in 2008 over 95 000. Most of the declared employment was in agriculture, and migrants from Ukraine constituted 96%.

Following Poland's entry into the Schengen Area, a bilateral Labour Border Traffic Agreement with Ukraine came into force on 1st July 2009. Residents of the border area may regularly cross the border and stay in the area for a maximum of 60 days; the permits are valid for two years and can be extended to five years. 3 500 permits were issued in July 2009 alone; annual numbers are estimated to be around 50 000.

In April 2009 a new Citizenship Law was passed by the Parliament. The major innovation is broader regional governors' competencies concerning naturalization procedures. A working group on migration strategy, an inter-ministerial team, is currently preparing an overall long-term migration policy for Poland and is expected to present a New Act on Aliens in mid-2010. Aspects that are under consideration are a clear regularisation path as well as a common integration policy, but also a migration policy subordinated to labour market needs with a broader set of privileged categories.

For further information:

www.udsc.gov.pl

www.stat.gov.pl

www.mpips.gov.pl

Recent trends in migrants' flows and stocks

POLAND

Migration flows (foreigners) National definition	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average		Level ('000)			
					1997-2002	2003-2008	2008			
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>										
Inflows	..	0.4	1.1	1.1	..	1.0	41.8			
Outflows			
Migration inflows (foreigners) by type Permit based statistics (standardised)	Thousands		% distribution		Inflows of top 10 nationalities as a % of total inflows of foreigners					
	2007	2008	2007	2008						
Work						
Family (incl. accompanying family)						
Humanitarian						
Free movements						
Others						
Total						
Temporary migration	2000	2007	2008	Average 2003-2008						
<i>Thousands</i>										
International students						
Trainees						
Working holiday makers						
Seasonal workers						
Intra-company transfers						
Other temporary workers						
Inflows of asylum seekers	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average		Level ('000)			
					1997-2002	2003-2008	2008			
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>										
	0.0	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.2	7			
Components of population growth	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average		Level ('000)			
					1997-2002	2003-2008	2008			
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>										
Total	0.5	-0.2	-0.2	0.5	-0.3	-0.4	20			
Natural increase	1.2	0.3	0.3	0.9	0.3	0.1	35			
Net migration	-0.5	-0.5	-0.5	-0.4	-0.4	-0.5	-15			
Stocks of immigrants	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average		Level ('000)			
					1997-2002	2003-2008	2008			
<i>Percentage of the total population</i>										
Foreign-born population			
Foreign population	0.2	0.2	60			
Naturalisations	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average		Level			
					1997-2002	2003-2008	2008			
<i>Percentage of the foreign population</i>										
	2.7	1.7	1 054			
Labour market outcomes	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average		Level			
					1997-2002	2003-2008	2008			
<i>Employment/population ratio</i>										
Native-born men	63.7	66.4			
Foreign-born men	47.7	51.4			
Native-born women	50.7	52.4			
Foreign-born women	26.8	35.7			
<i>Unemployment rate</i>										
Native-born men	9.1	6.5			
Foreign-born men	9.5	2.6			
Native-born women	10.4	8.0			
Foreign-born women	9.2	8.5			
Macroeconomic indicators	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average		Level			
					1997-2002	2003-2008	2008			
<i>Annual growth in %</i>										
Real GDP	7.0	4.3	6.8	5.0	3.9	5.1	..			
GDP/capita (level in US dollars)	6.9	4.3	6.8	5.0	3.9	5.2	14 706			
Employment (level in thousands)	0.9	-1.5	4.4	3.7	-1.3	2.3	15 800			
<i>Percentage of the labour force</i>										
Unemployment	13.3	16.1	9.6	7.1	15.0	14.5	..			

Notes and sources are at the end of the chapter.

StatLink <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/883872610347>

Portugal



Migration inflows in Portugal in 2008 were 32 300, the same as in 2007. Inflows were increasingly from within Europe. EU26 citizens represented 44% of the total. Romania has become the main source country (5 300, or

16%), 8 times greater than its average share in the previous 3 years. African lusophone (PALOP) countries comprised 21% of inflows, led by Cape Verde (3 500, or 11%). Inflows of Brazilians fell 30%, to 3 500.

The total stock of foreign population, after rising from 430 000 in 2005 to 446 000 in 2007, slightly declined (by 0.7%) in 2008 to 443 000. The decline is the result of opposite national trends. From 2007 to 2008, EU25 foreigners registered a reduction of 44.7% and PALOP citizens a decline of 13.8%. In the same period, increases were seen in the number of Ukrainians (31%), Moldovans (42.9%), Romanians (41.4%) and Brazilians (53.7%). The latter increased their dominance as the largest foreign group (24% of the total), followed by Cape Verdeans (despite the 25% fall in the stock, they still have a share of 14.7%) and Ukrainians (11.8%, up 2.8 percentage points from 2007).

Permanent inflows, which include changes of status among temporary immigrants, rose 21.1% between 2007 and 2008, from 60 100 to 72 800.

The total number of long term visas issued to non-EU citizens declined in 2008, falling from 21 082 (2007) to 17 548. PALOP nationals received a significant share of these visas (41.5%), particularly citizens from Cape Verde (20%) and Guinea-Bissau (around 9%). Brazilians registered a share of 20%, Moldovans of 12% and Chinese, a growing group, of 4.1%.

According to Labour Force Survey data, employment rates were 6% higher for foreign-born than native-born, for both sexes. 79.5% of foreign-born men and 67.1% of foreign-born females were employed in 2007. The unemployment rate was 7.0% for native-born and 7.3% for foreign-born men. The difference was larger for women (9.9% vs. 12.1%).

After the promising 10% decline observed in 2007, the registered unemployment of foreigners has followed the general trend in 2008, and rose significantly (24%), reaching a decade high (24 200 unemployed foreigners at the end of 2008). Foreign men saw a much higher rise in unemployment (38%) than foreign women (13.1%).

The reform of the Portuguese nationality law, which took effect at the end of 2006, led to an increase in the number of applications. From 7 227 in 2006, applications rose to 29 853 in 2007 and to 36 640 in 2008. The 2006 reform reduces the residence requirement for foreigners coming from non-Portuguese speaking countries from 10 to 6 years of continuous formal residence, and allows naturalisation due to attendance of basic schooling in Portugal. In 2008, 22 408 foreigners obtained Portuguese nationality. Almost $\frac{2}{3}$ of these were PALOP nationals, particularly from Cape Verde (27% of the total share); most of the others were Brazilian (18%) and Moldovan (10%).

Portugal changed its immigration law in 2007, eliminating sector-specific quotas for labour migration. It now establishes an "orientative" target for labour migration, set at 8 500 in 2008. In May 2009 Portugal halved this orientative target to 3 800 for 2009. However, only 3 300 foreign workers were requested by employers.

The 2007 law also expanded eligibility for case-by-case regularisation. About 30% of the long term visas attributed in 2007 were already under the new legal framework. Approximately 12 000 people used the new dispositions to regularise their situation between July 2007 and July 2008, contributing to the increase observed in the stocks of some nationalities.

Concerning asylum seekers, levels continued to be very low, and even declined from 2007 (224 applications) to 2008 (only 161 applications). However, the status recognition rate increased substantially in 2008, to 50.9%. 70 people obtained humanitarian protection and 12 full refugee status.

In June 2008, Portugal passed a new asylum law (Law No. 27/2008) that adopted relevant EU Directives, harmonizes procedures with the 2007 Immigration Act in matter of rights, reinforces the protection regime of particularly vulnerable people (*e.g.*, unaccompanied minors) and strengthens the non-refoulement principle. Also as a consequence of the dispositions of this new law, Portugal has started a resettlement programme for refugees initially arriving in other EU countries. In 2008, this programme involved 23 people from Eritrea, Iraq and the Democratic Republic of Congo.

For further information:

www.imigrante.pt

www.sef.pt

www.acidi.gov.pt

Recent trends in migrants' flows and stocks

PORTUGAL

Migration flows (foreigners) National definition	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average		Level ('000)			
					1997-2002	2003-2008	2008			
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>										
Inflows	0.5	1.6	3.1	3.0	4.2	2.9	32.3			
Outflows	0.1	0.0			
Migration inflows (foreigners) by type Permit based statistics (standardised)	Thousands		% distribution		Inflows of top 10 nationalities as a % of total inflows of foreigners					
	2007	2008	2007	2008						
Work	18.5	23.4	43.1	35.5						
Family (incl. accompanying family)	13.7	26.1	31.9	39.6						
Humanitarian	0.1	0.1	0.3	0.1						
Free movements	8.0	14.8	18.7	22.5						
Others	2.6	1.5	6.0	2.3						
Total	42.9	65.9	100.0	100.0						
Temporary migration	2000	2007	2008	Average 2003-2008						
<i>Thousands</i>										
International students	3.9	4.8	5.0	4.2						
Trainees						
Working holiday makers						
Seasonal workers						
Intra-company transfers						
Other temporary workers	3.4	5.4	5.4	6.8						
Inflows of asylum seekers	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average		Level			
					1997-2002	2003-2008	2008			
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>										
	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	161			
Components of population growth	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average		Level ('000)			
					1997-2002	2003-2008	2008			
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>										
Total	2.7	5.9	5.5			
Natural increase	0.4	1.5	0.9			
Net migration	2.2	4.6	4.6			
Stocks of immigrants	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average		Level ('000)			
					1997-2002	2003-2008	2008			
<i>Percentage of the total population</i>										
Foreign-born population			
Foreign population	1.7	2.0	4.2	4.2	2.5	4.2	443			
Naturalisations	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average		Level			
					1997-2002	2003-2008	2008			
<i>Percentage of the foreign population</i>										
	0.8	0.3	1.3	5.1	0.4	1.4	22 408			
Labour market outcomes	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average					
					1997-2002	2003-2008				
<i>Employment/population ratio</i>										
Native-born men	71.5	76.2	73.4	73.4	76.9	73.8				
Foreign-born men	65.4	75.5	79.5	80.5	74.7	78.5				
Native-born women	54.5	60.2	61.4	62.0	60.7	61.5				
Foreign-born women	49.9	65.1	67.1	68.0	61.8	66.8				
<i>Unemployment rate</i>										
Native-born men	6.6	3.1	7.0	6.8	3.4	6.5				
Foreign-born men	10.5	6.0	7.3	7.8	6.3	8.2				
Native-born women	7.8	4.9	9.9	9.1	4.9	8.7				
Foreign-born women	14.0	6.9	12.1	11.2	9.1	10.9				
Macroeconomic indicators	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average		Level			
					1997-2002	2003-2008	2008			
<i>Annual growth in %</i>										
Real GDP	4.3	3.9	1.9	0.0	3.3	0.8				
GDP/capita (level in US dollars)	3.9	3.4	1.6	-0.2	2.7	0.4	17 737			
Employment (level in thousands)	-0.6	2.3	0.1	0.6	1.7	0.2	5 167			
<i>Percentage of the labour force</i>										
Unemployment	7.2	4.0	8.0	7.6	4.9	7.3				

Notes and sources are at the end of the chapter.

StatLink <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/883878867338>

Romania



Romania's accession to the European Union on 1 January 2007 was accompanied by a significant increase in migration movements, which continue to be strongly dominated by outflows.

According to the statistics available, the number of Romanian citizens in EU member states is estimated to be between 2.5 and 2.7 million.

According to the National Employment Agency and the Labour Inspectorate, about 61 400 persons emigrated from Romania in 2008 under mediated temporary employment contracts. This represents an 11% increase over the previous year. Of these contracts, only 9 000 were concluded through private employment agencies, half as many as in 2007. Most workers with mediated contracts went to Germany (47 000) and Spain (5 400). Romania joined the EURES European job search system as soon as it acceded to the EU, and about 10 000 job seekers contacted an advisor in 2008. However, official figures from Romania sharply underestimate actual emigration since most emigrants do not use official channels (mediated contracts) and do not report their departure to the authorities.

According to immigration statistics from the main destination countries (Italy and Spain), the number of migrants from Romania rose again in 2008. The number of Romanians residing in Italy stood at 796 000 persons, double the 2006 figures. This makes them the largest foreign resident community. In Spain too, the numbers of Romanian nationals holding permits continued to increase in 2007. As of January 2009, 797 000 Romanians were registered in Spanish municipal registers, a 9% increase over the previous year, and a 50% increase since January 2007. However, in both Spain and Italy, some people who registered as immigrants in 2008 were already in the country prior to January 2008.

According to the World Bank, remittances to Romania sent by emigrant workers rose until 2008, when they totalled USD 9.4 billion, but then fell sharply during 2009.

Inflows to Romania remain modest. According to official figures, the number of immigrants to Romania rose slightly in 2008 (+5%, to 10 000). The number of foreign nationals holding valid permits stood at a total of 76 700, up 30% over 2007. Of these, nearly one in three is from an EU country (24% from Italy and 18% from Germany). However, the main country of origin remains Moldova. The number of persons with a permanent permit increased slightly, by 2%, between 2007 and 2008 (to 6 900).

Official figures record 15 000 work permits issued to non-EU nationals in 2008. They mainly consisted of Turkish (32%), Chinese (32%) and Moldovan workers (8%). About 66% of work permits granted in 2008 were issued to permanent workers, and 30 % to seconded workers.

After several years at a relatively low level, the number of asylum seekers nearly doubled in 2008, rising to 1 170. This trend reflects greater interest in Romania on the part of asylum seekers, as a result of its entry into the European Union.

For further information:

www.insse.ro/cms/rw/pages/index.ro.do

www.mai.gov.ro/engleza/english.htm

<http://ori.mai.gov.ro>

Recent trends in migrants' flows and stocks

ROMANIA

Migration flows (foreigners) National definition	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average		Level ('000)			
					1997-2002	2003-2008	2008			
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>										
Inflows	0.2	0.5	0.4	0.5	0.4	0.3	10.0			
Outflows	1.1	0.7	0.4	0.4	0.6	0.5	8.7			
Migration inflows (foreigners) by type Permit based statistics (standardised)	Thousands		% distribution		Inflows of top 10 nationalities as a % of total inflows of foreigners					
	2007	2008	2007	2008						
Work						
Family (incl. accompanying family)						
Humanitarian						
Free movements						
Others						
Total						
Temporary migration	2000	2007	2008	Annual average 2003-2008						
<i>Thousands</i>										
International students	..	14.6	7.8	..						
Trainees						
Working holiday makers						
Seasonal workers						
Intra-company transfers						
Other temporary workers						
Inflows of asylum seekers	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average	Level				
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.0	1 172			
Components of population growth	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average	Level ('000)				
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>										
Total	..	-1.1	-1.7	-1.4	-1.8	-2.1	-30			
Natural increase	-1.6	-0.9	-1.7	-1.5	-1.7	-1.9	-31			
Net migration	..	-0.2	0.0	0.1	-0.1	-0.2	1			
Stocks of immigrants	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average	Level ('000)				
<i>(Annual growth %)</i>										
Foreign-born population			
Foreign population	..	0.3	0.3	0.4	..	0.3	77			
Naturalisations	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average	Level				
<i>Percentage of the foreign population</i>	..	0.6	0.1	..	0.6	..	31			
Labour market outcomes	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average	Level				
<i>Employment/population ratio</i>										
Native-born men			
Foreign-born men			
Native-born women			
Foreign-born women			
<i>Unemployment rate</i>										
Native-born men			
Foreign-born men			
Native-born women			
Foreign-born women			
Macroeconomic indicators	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average	Level				
<i>Annual growth in %</i>										
Real GDP	..	2.4	6.3	7.3			
GDP/capita (level in US dollars)			
Employment (level in thousands)	..	-0.8	0.7	0.2	..	0.4	9 369			
<i>Percentage of the labour force</i>										
Unemployment	..	7.3	6.4	5.8	7.5	7.3	..			

Notes and sources are at the end of the chapter.

StatLink <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/884136847675>

Slovak Republic



Improving labour market conditions in the Slovak Republic as well as the rise in foreign investment since accession to the EU (2004) contributed to change international migration patterns, with higher inflows and lower recorded outflows. This transformation from an emigration to a transit and immigration country culminated in 2007-2008 but was interrupted by the spreading economic crisis in 2009. The unemployment rate hit a low of 9.6% in 2008 before climbing to 12.9% in January 2010. Employer demand for foreign workers fell, and the number of immigrants registered as foreign entrepreneurs decreased. While the proportion of immigrants in the population remains quite low (1% in 2009), forecast declining demographic trends from 2015 on suggest rising migration flows in the future.

According to national statistics, positive net migration continued rising in 2008, mainly due to increased inflows (from 14 800 in the previous year to 16 500). Outflows also increased (from 2 000 to 3 300), although these figures are only a small fraction of actual outflows from the Slovak Republic, based on reporting by residents about their place of permanent residence. Labour Force Survey data on Slovaks working abroad show a decline since 2007. While during the last quarter of 2007 there were about 186 000 Slovaks working abroad, the number was down to 125 000 as of the second quarter of 2009. The top two destination countries, United Kingdom and the Czech Republic, both experienced a decline in the number of Slovak workers between 4Q 2007 and 2Q 2009, respectively from 30 000 to 14 000 and from 73 000 to 49 000.

Inflows have been traditionally dominated by nationals from neighbouring countries. In 2007, following the accession of Romania to the EU, a sharp increase in the inflows from this country was observed. In 2008, Romania led the list (2 133 persons) followed by Ukraine, Viet Nam, Serbia, the Czech Republic, Hungary, Germany, Korea and China. Third country nationals were 19 482 in 2008 and 21 492 in 2009. The total stock of registered immigrants was 41 124 at the end of 2007, 52 706 in 2008 and 58 322 in 2009. These data include the categories of temporary, tolerated and permanent stays; the latter accounts for more than 75% of the total. The total stock of registered foreign workers was 13 300 at the end of 2008, of which over 10 000 were from EU/EEA (mainly Romania, the Czech Republic, Poland, France and Hungary) and 3 300 from third countries (twice the 2007 level).

Illegal migration to the Slovak Republic, as well as asylum seeking, continue to decline. Asylum seekers fell from 2 600 in 2007 to 900 in 2008. Few (22) received refugee status. In 2008, the largest groups of applicants came from Georgia, Moldova, Russia, Pakistan and India.

A national program to combat human trafficking implemented in 2010 increased the period of tolerated stay for the victims of human trafficking from 40 to 90 days and grants access to public care.

An amendment to the Aliens Act came into force on 1st January 2010 to address problems in the application of the Act and to transpose EU legislation. Intra-corporate transferees and investors can now start working immediately and have up to 90 days to apply for a residence permit. Foreign students admitted for more than 90 days are now allowed to start their studies immediately. They may work during their studies, stay and look for a work after completion of their studies, and obtain a work permit without having to leave and re-enter the country.

To reduce the overstaying of foreigners who lose their jobs due to the economic crisis, Slovak employers must inform the Police of the expiration of foreign employees' job contracts within three days of expiration.

The amendment also introduced changes in the visa policy and border control, in order to comply with the Community Code on Visas and the Schengen Border Code. The Law on Administrative Fees, the Police Force Act, and the Act on employment services were also modified accordingly to the EU requirements.

On May 2009 the Slovak Government approved a document which presents legislative and organisational measures designed to support the integration of foreigners in the areas of employment, education, access to accommodation, health care, social services and public awareness. It also defines the institutional framework at various administrative levels.

A reform of the institutional provision of the migration policy was also proposed and should be confirmed by the end of 2010. It creates a new Immigration and Naturalization Office of the Slovak Republic as the only institution responsible for migration issues, currently dealt with by different bodies (the Ministry of Interior, the Bureau of the Border and Aliens Police, the Ministry of Labour Social affairs and Family, and other state administrative bodies and local authorities)

For further information:

www.minv.sk

www.employment.gov.sk

Recent trends in migrants' flows and stocks

SLOVAK REPUBLIC

Migration flows (foreigners) National definition	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average		Level ('000)			
					1997-2002	2003-2008	2008			
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>										
Inflows	1.3	0.9	2.8	3.0	1.0	1.9	16.5			
Outflows	0.4	0.6	..	0.5	3.3			
Migration inflows (foreigners) by type Permit based statistics (standardised)	Thousands		% distribution		Inflows of top 10 nationalities as a % of total inflows of foreigners					
	2007	2008	2007	2008						
Work						
Family (incl. accompanying family)						
Humanitarian						
Free movements						
Others						
Total						
Temporary migration	2000	2007	2008	Average 2003-2008						
<i>Thousands</i>										
International students						
Trainees						
Working holiday makers						
Seasonal workers						
Intra-company transfers						
Other temporary workers						
Inflows of asylum seekers	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average	Level				
					1997-2002	2003-2008	2008			
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>										
	0.1	0.3	0.5	0.2	0.7	1.0	910			
Components of population growth	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average		Level ('000)			
					1997-2002	2003-2008	2008			
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>										
Total	2.2	0.7	1.5	2.2	0.0	1.1	11			
Natural increase	1.6	0.4	0.2	0.9	0.5	0.3	5			
Net migration	0.5	0.3	1.3	1.3	0.2	0.8	7			
Stocks of immigrants	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average		Level ('000)			
					1997-2002	2003-2008	2008			
<i>Percentage of the total population</i>										
Foreign-born population			
Foreign population	0.4	0.5	0.8	1.0	0.5	0.6	53			
Naturalisations	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average		Level			
					1997-2002	2003-2008	2008			
<i>Percentage of the foreign population</i>										
	3.6	1.3	..	7.3	680			
Labour market outcomes	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average		Level			
					1997-2002	2003-2008	2008			
<i>Employment/population ratio</i>										
Native-born men	68.4	69.9	..	66.0				
Foreign-born men	74.0	75.4	..	69.3				
Native-born women	53.0	54.6	..	52.3				
Foreign-born women	58.6	60.3	..	48.3				
<i>Unemployment rate</i>										
Native-born men	9.9	8.4	..	13.5				
Foreign-born men	7.7	5.2	..	13.6				
Native-born women	12.7	11.0	..	15.4				
Foreign-born women	5.9	8.9	..	19.2				
Macroeconomic indicators	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average		Level			
					1997-2002	2003-2008	2008			
<i>Annual growth in %</i>										
Real GDP	5.8	1.4	10.6	6.2	3.0	7.0				
GDP/capita (level in US dollars)	5.5	1.3	10.5	6.0	3.0	6.9	17 742			
Employment (level in thousands)	1.7	-1.4	2.4	3.2	-0.7	2.3	2 434			
<i>Percentage of the labour force</i>										
Unemployment	13.1	18.8	11.0	9.6	16.3	14.3				

Notes and sources are at the end of the chapter.

StatLink <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/884152736810>

Spain



Economic growth had dropped to zero in Spain by the 2nd quarter of 2008, and became negative, falling 1%, in the 4th quarter. The unemployment rate had already risen above the 2007 level in the 1st quarter of 2008 and was more

than 5 percentage points higher in the 4th quarter year-over-year. The deterioration in economic conditions led, as expected, to a drop in labour migration in 2008.

Indeed all forms of migration fell, from 180 000 to 116 000 for work-related discretionary migration, but by almost 200 000 in free-movement migration, especially from Bulgaria and Romania. While workers from the latter countries did not have fully unrestricted access to the labour market until January 2009, they faced limited barriers and enjoyed preferential treatment in hiring.

Overall permanent-type immigration (standardised statistics) dropped by almost 300 000 from 2007 to 2008, a decline of almost 50%. Departures also increased in 2008, by about 15%, with immigrants from the European Union showing the largest increase, more than 50%.

Despite the economic crisis, temporary labour migration actually increased somewhat, by about 12% to reach almost 92 000 workers. Although the anonymous *contingente* regime saw a decline from 65 000 in 2007 to about 41 000, this was more than offset by a tripling of direct recruitment of seasonal workers by employers under the general regime, from about 16 000 to over 46 000. The quota for recruitment of non-seasonal workers under the *contingente* was sharply curtailed, from 16 000 in 2008, to 901 in 2009 and only 168 in 2010.

The employment situation of immigrants in Spain worsened significantly as the recession deepened. New job starts by non-Spanish halved from 240 000 in 2009 to 120 000 in 2008, and figures for 2009 appear far worse. The number of non-Spanish workers employed and paying social contributions peaked in mid-2008 at 2.1 million but by January 2010 had fallen to 1.8 million, even as the stock of immigrants rose significantly. The unemployment and inactivity rate for foreigners climbed, with 4th quarter unemployment for foreigners reaching 21.3% in 2008 and 29.7% in 2009.

Spain continues to have few asylum seekers relative to its population compared to other OECD countries. The number of applications fell by almost 40%, to 4 517, in 2008 with Colombia, Nigeria and the Ivory Coast being the countries of origin with the most applicants. Few applicants are recognised as legitimate refugees.

The foreign-born population in Spain in 2008 accounted for 14.1% of the total population, compared to 4.9% in the year 2000. This is the highest rate of growth of the foreign-born population over a short period observed in any OECD country since the Second World War. In Europe, only Germany has more immigrants.

A special return programme for unemployed immigrants was introduced in 2008 with the onset of the economic crisis. Immigrants from eligible countries may collect their unemployment benefits in two lump sums, one prior to departure and a second after returning home, but are banned from re-entry for three years. The programme has not been widely used: of 136 000 persons identified as eligible in June 2009, only 10 000 had participated by November 2009.

Some flexibility for one-year permit holders who lost their jobs as a result of the crisis was introduced in 2009. Permit holders may now change both occupations and regions, subject to certain conditions. In addition, any immigrant who has worked for 9 out of the past 12 months may renew their permits even without a valid employment contract. Finally, work permit holders who lose their job may adjust status to family reunification, if their spouse is employed in Spain, without having to return home.

The Spanish integration fund of EUR 200 million was cut 30% early in 2009, but was fully re-instated two months later, in response to criticism that this was not the right place to make budget cutbacks.

Reform of the Immigration Act passed in autumn 2009, incorporating a number of provisions, including the extension of spousal family reunification to common-law spouses, the introduction of sanctions to persons harbouring foreigners who overstay their visa and the extension of the rights of assembly, demonstration, unionisation and strike to all residents, whether legal or not.

For further information:

<http://extranjeros.mtas.es>

www.mtin.es/estadisticas

www.ine.es/inebmenu/mnu_migrac.htm

Recent trends in migrants' flows and stocks

SPAIN

Migration flows (foreigners) National definition	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average		Level ('000)			
					1997-2002	2003-2008	2008			
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>										
Inflows	0.5	8.2	20.5	15.2	5.6	15.8	692.2			
Outflows	4.4	5.1	..	2.4	232.0			
Migration inflows (foreigners) by type Permit based statistics (standardised)	Thousands		% distribution		Inflows of top 10 nationalities as a % of total inflows of foreigners					
	2007	2008	2007	2008						
Work	180.7	116.0	26.5	29.6						
Family (incl. accompanying family)	108.2	78.1	15.9	19.9						
Humanitarian	0.5	0.3	0.1	0.1						
Free movements	389.2	193.3	57.0	49.3						
Others	3.6	4.3	0.5	1.1						
Total	682.3	391.9	100.0	100.0						
Temporary migration	2000	2007	2008	Average 2003-2008						
<i>Thousands</i>										
International students	28.8	40.1	41.9	35.3						
Trainees						
Working holiday makers						
Seasonal workers	..	15.7	46.2	15.6						
Intra-company transfers	..	1.4	1.3	1.1						
Other temporary workers	0.5	64.8	44.0	47.7						
Inflows of asylum seekers	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average 1997-2002	Average 2003-2008	Level 2008			
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>										
	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.1	4 517			
Components of population growth	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average 1997-2002	Average 2003-2008	Level ('000) 2008			
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>										
Total	2.2	10.6	18.0	..	8.8			
Natural increase	0.4	0.9	2.4	..	0.7			
Net migration	0.9	8.9	16.0	..	7.4			
Stocks of immigrants	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average 1997-2002	Average 2003-2008	Level ('000) 2008			
<i>Percentage of the total population</i>										
Foreign-born population	..	4.9	13.5	14.1	4.8	11.6	6 418			
Foreign population	..	3.4	11.7	12.3	3.4	5.2	5 599			
Naturalisations	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average 1997-2002	Average 2003-2008	Level 2008			
<i>Percentage of the foreign population</i>										
	..	0.9	1.4	..	1.3			
Labour market outcomes	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average 1997-2002	Average 2003-2008	Level 2008			
<i>Employment/population ratio</i>										
Native-born men	62.0	70.8	75.3	73.3	69.1	74.1				
Foreign-born men	61.2	75.4	80.8	73.3	74.3	78.8				
Native-born women	31.6	41.0	53.1	53.9	39.1	50.3				
Foreign-born women	36.7	45.7	60.6	58.5	46.0	57.3				
<i>Unemployment rate</i>										
Native-born men	17.8	9.4	6.0	8.9	10.8	7.3				
Foreign-born men	24.1	11.8	8.3	16.0	12.7	10.7				
Native-born women	30.8	20.4	10.5	12.2	21.6	12.7				
Foreign-born women	30.4	20.0	12.6	16.8	22.1	15.6				
Macroeconomic indicators	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average 1997-2002	Average 2003-2008	Level 2008			
<i>Annual growth in %</i>										
Real GDP	4.1	1.9	3.7	2.3	3.8	3.2				
GDP/capita (level in US dollars)	2.7	0.7	2.1	0.6	2.6	1.7	31 561			
Employment (level in thousands)	4.3	2.7	2.9	2.0	1.7	2.5	10 792			
<i>Percentage of the labour force</i>										
Unemployment	8.2	6.3	4.4	4.2	7.0	5.0				

Notes and sources are at the end of the chapter.

StatLink <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/883510012845>

Sweden



The increase in migration inflows to Sweden continued in 2008 and broke the record high of 2007 by reaching 101 200. Total net immigration, with 45 300 emigrants from Sweden, amounted to 55 900.

The largest components of inflow were Swedish return migrants (17.6%), followed by Iraqis (12%) and Poles (7%). In 2008, 13.8% of the Swedish population was foreign-born, an increase by 4.2% from 2007, and 562 100 (6.1%) were foreign citizens.

According to national statistics, of the 90 000 granted residence permits in 2008, family migration continued to be the most prevalent migration type (37% or 33 200 permits) and further increased to 34 100 in 2009. 22% of permits were granted to EU/EEA free movement migrants, 16% to labour migrants, and about 12% each for student and humanitarian migrants. Since 1997, entries by international students (from non-EEA countries) have increased at an annual rate of 14%. Compared to the increase by 22% in 2007 to 8 900 students, the numbers reached 13 500 in 2009.

The number of applicants for asylum decreased in 2008, by 33% from the previous year to 24 400. The number of asylum seekers fell between 2002 and 2005 and rose between 2006 and 2007. Although Iraq remained the main origin country, with Somalia, the number of Iraqi applicants sharply decreased. Compared to 2007, asylum seekers from Russia, Iran and Afghanistan increased. More unaccompanied minors also sought asylum. In 2008, 24% of the 6 200 asylum seekers under 18 were unaccompanied minors, and this proportion was even higher in the first half of 2009 (33% out of 2 700). The Alien Act was amended and came into force in January 2010 to transpose the EU Qualification Directive and the Asylum Procedure. "Persons in need of protection" are now divided into those granted international status based on EU directives and those on Swedish provisions with status valid only in Sweden. Those granted residence permits as refugees are now automatically granted refugee status without a separate decision.

At the end of 2008, the Swedish migration policy was changed to a demand-driven system. The new regulation generally does not exclude any occupations from the scheme and greatly facilitates recruitment from abroad. The only requirement is that the position be listed with the EURES system for 10 days, and provide the same working conditions and salary as for Swedes. Without any conditions on education and skills, migrants are allowed to be accompanied by family immediately, and have full access to the labour market. The initial permit is valid for up to 2 years, but can be converted into a permanent permit after 4 years. The authorisation of the overall process has shifted from the Public Employment Service to the Swedish Migration Board.

Under the new regulations – and despite the economic recession – applications for work permits increased by 30% in 2009 compared to 2008, with 16 500 applicants, of whom 85% were granted permits. The largest population groups were Asians, especially from India, China and Thailand. The largest share of permits is due to seasonal summer employment in the agricultural sector. Most of the permanent migrants are employed in computer, telecommunications and electronics jobs.

A cohesive integration strategy for 2008-2010, presented by the government in September 2008, encompasses interventions in seven areas: reception and introduction of new arrivals, employment and entrepreneurship, educational performance and equality in schools, language and education for adults, discrimination, local development in urban districts with wide-spread exclusion and shared values. Sweden is investing SEK 92.4 million annually from 2009 to 2011 in measures enhancing qualified skills. Also, a pilot project with a performance-based bonus system for newly arrived immigrants was introduced in October 2009 to support language acquisition. A new comprehensive and single Anti-Discrimination Act entered into force in January 2009, introducing penalties to both compensate for violation and to function as deterrence against discrimination.

For further information:

www.migrationsverket.se/info/start_en.html

Recent trends in migrants' flows and stocks

SWEDEN

Migration flows (foreigners) National definition	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average		Level ('000)			
					1997-2002	2003-2008	2008			
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>										
Inflows	4.1	4.8	9.0	8.9	4.5	7.1	82.0			
Outflows	1.7	1.4	2.2	2.1	1.5	2.0	19.2			
Migration inflows (foreigners) by type Permit based statistics (standardised)	Thousands		% distribution		Inflows of top 10 nationalities as a % of total inflows of foreigners					
	2007	2008	2007	2008						
Work	0.5	0.8	0.7	1.1						
Family (incl. accompanying family)	29.5	33.7	39.7	47.3						
Humanitarian	18.3	11.2	24.6	15.7						
Free movements	26.1	25.6	35.0	36.0						
Others	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0						
Total	74.4	71.3	100.0	100.0						
Temporary migration	2000	2007	2008	Average 2003-2008						
<i>Thousands</i>										
International students	5.2	11.7	14.1	11.0						
Trainees						
Working holiday makers						
Seasonal workers						
Intra-company transfers						
Other temporary workers	..	9.1	13.6	8.4						
Inflows of asylum seekers	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average		Level			
					1997-2002	2003-2008	2008			
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>										
	1.0	1.8	4.0	2.6	2.0	2.9	24 353			
Components of population growth	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average		Level ('000)			
					1997-2002	2003-2008	2008			
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>										
Total	2.4	2.5	7.5	8.0	1.8	5.8	73			
Natural increase	1.0	-0.3	1.6	2.0	-0.3	1.3	18			
Net migration	1.2	2.8	5.9	6.1	2.2	4.4	56			
Stocks of immigrants	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average		Level ('000)			
					1997-2002	2003-2008	2008			
<i>Percentage of the total population</i>										
Foreign-born population	10.6	11.3	13.4	13.9	11.2	12.8	1 282			
Foreign population	6.0	5.3	5.7	6.0	5.5	5.5	555			
Naturalisations	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average		Level			
					1997-2002	2003-2008	2008			
<i>Percentage of the foreign population</i>										
	6.0	9.0	6.3	5.3	7.9	7.0	29 330			
Labour market outcomes	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average					
					1997-2002	2003-2008				
<i>Employment/population ratio</i>										
Native-born men	73.2	75.8	78.0	77.9	75.1	76.9				
Foreign-born men	51.7	59.6	68.1	69.9	60.1	65.9				
Native-born women	71.7	73.2	74.3	74.5	72.4	73.6				
Foreign-born women	50.0	54.7	58.6	58.7	53.1	58.8				
<i>Unemployment rate</i>										
Native-born men	8.8	5.1	5.1	5.1	6.7	5.8				
Foreign-born men	28.1	13.5	11.7	11.5	17.0	13.1				
Native-born women	7.0	4.3	5.5	5.5	5.6	5.6				
Foreign-born women	19.9	11.2	12.6	12.9	14.5	12.4				
Macroeconomic indicators	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average		Level			
					1997-2002	2003-2008	2008			
<i>Annual growth in %</i>										
Real GDP	4.1	1.9	3.7	2.3	3.8	3.2				
GDP/capita (level in US dollars)	2.7	0.7	2.1	0.6	2.6	1.7	31 561			
Employment (level in thousands)	4.3	2.7	2.9	2.0	1.7	2.5	10 792			
<i>Percentage of the labour force</i>										
Unemployment	8.2	6.3	4.4	4.2	7.0	5.0				

Notes and sources are at the end of the chapter.

StatLink <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/884153002322>

Switzerland



Immigration flows peaked in 2008 prior to the economic downturn, with national statistics recording inflows of more than 157 000 – a further increase of about 18 000 compared with 2007, and more than 60% above the 2005 level. Net migration added almost 1.3% to the Swiss population in 2008.

The vast majority of recent immigration (more than 113 000, or 72% of all long-term immigrants in 2008) were from the EU/EEA, who benefited from the freedom of movement arrangements; since June 2007, the Swiss Labour Market has been open to nationals from the EU15. Germany remained the main origin country, accounting for almost 30% of new immigration, followed by Portugal and France.

Preliminary data for 2009 show a rather significant decline of immigration, in particular of immigrants from the enlarged European Union. Between January and September 2009, long-term immigration from the EU/EEA declined by about 23% compared with the corresponding period in 2008. Overall, net immigration during this period has been at its lowest level since the introduction of free movement in 2002.

In a popular referendum on 2 February 2009, the Swiss voters approved the unlimited prolongation of the treaty on the freedom of movement with the European Union and its member states. In the same referendum, the voters also accepted a gradual extension of the treaty to Bulgaria and Romania. The extension has been in force since 1 June 2009. However, for seven years, immigration from these two countries will remain subject to numerical limits and a labour market test. Wages and working conditions are also being controlled. In case of large inflows, Switzerland can prolong the numerical limits for an additional three years, i.e. until 2019. In May 2009, Switzerland decided to maintain its restrictions with respect to the immigration of workers and service provider from those Central and Eastern European countries which joined the EU in 2004.

In February 2010, the Federal Council approved a number of measures aimed at limiting potential abuses in the framework of the freedom of movement. The measures include restrictions of access to the welfare system of persons from the EU/EEA. Likewise, requirements for family reunification have been strengthened; in particular, adequate housing is required. In addition, controls against wage and social dumping and against so-called “pseudo self-employment” have been reinforced.

Following a strong increase in asylum seeking in 2008 (an increase of more than 50% compared with 2007), preliminary data for 2009 show a slight decline. Nigeria replaced Eritrea as the main origin country in 2009.

In December 2008, preparations for a reform of the law on asylum started. The legislation process is still on-going. The main objective of the reform is to accelerate the asylum procedure and to enhance its efficiency.

A modification of the law on foreigners is currently being discussed. The modification envisages that a settlement permit can only be granted in the case of successful integration. Likewise, it is discussed to introduce a possibility to revoke permits in the case of severe crimes.

A comprehensive revision of the law on citizenship is in preparation. The objectives are: i) to improve consistency with the law on foreigners with respect to integration and language knowledge; ii) to strengthen procedures to ensure that only foreigners who are well integrated can naturalise; iii) to harmonise cantonal and local requirements with respect to the length of residency requirements; and iv) to simplify the administrative procedures and to reduce the fees which applicants are charged.

For further information:

www.bfm.admin.ch

www.bfs.admin.ch/bfs/portal/en/index/themen/01/07.html

(French version: www.bfs.admin.ch/bfs/portal/fr/index/themen/01/07.html)

Recent trends in migrants' flows and stocks

SWITZERLAND

Migration flows (foreigners) National definition	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average		Level ('000)			
					1997-2002	2003-2008	2008			
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>										
Inflows	12.5	12.2	18.5	20.6	12.2	15.2	157.3			
Outflows	9.6	7.8	7.4	7.1	7.9	6.8	54.1			
Migration inflows (foreigners) by type Permit based statistics (standardised)	Thousands		% distribution		Inflows of top 10 nationalities as a % of total inflows of foreigners					
	2007	2008	2007	2008						
Work	2.0	3.2	1.6	2.3						
Family (incl. accompanying family)	18.9	18.9	15.4	13.5						
Humanitarian	5.4	6.5	4.4	4.7						
Free movements	93.8	108.6	76.8	78.0						
Others	2.1	2.1	1.7	1.5						
Total	122.2	139.3	100.0	100.0						
Temporary migration	2000	2007	2008	Annual average 2003-2008						
<i>Thousands</i>										
International students	..	10.3	11.0	9.5						
Trainees	..	0.1	0.1	0.2						
Working holiday makers						
Seasonal workers	49.3						
Intra-company transfers	..	6.2	7.3	6.9						
Other temporary workers	..	102.8	91.6	107.4						
Inflows of asylum seekers	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average		Level ('000)			
					1997-2002	2003-2008	2008			
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>										
	2.4	2.5	1.4	2.2	4.1	1.8	17			
Components of population growth	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average		Level ('000)			
					1997-2002	2003-2008	2008			
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>										
Total	6.2	5.5	11.1	14.2	5.5	8.6	108			
Natural increase	2.7	2.2	1.7	2.0	2.0	1.7	15			
Net migration	2.1	2.8	9.9	12.8	2.8	7.3	98			
Stocks of immigrants	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average		Level ('000)			
					1997-2002	2003-2008	2008			
<i>Percentage of the total population</i>										
Foreign-born population	..	21.9			
Foreign population	18.9	19.3	20.8	21.4	19.3	20.5	1 639			
Naturalisations	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average		Level			
					1997-2002	2003-2008	2008			
<i>Percentage of the foreign population</i>										
	1.3	2.1	2.8	2.7	1.8	2.7	44 365			
Labour market outcomes	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average		Level			
					1997-2002	2003-2008	2008			
<i>Employment/population ratio</i>										
Native-born men	86.4	86.1	..	85.9				
Foreign-born men	83.2	83.6	..	82.0				
Native-born women	74.2	75.8	..	73.8				
Foreign-born women	64.3	67.5	..	64.4				
<i>Unemployment rate</i>										
Native-born men	2.0	2.1	..	2.5				
Foreign-born men	5.8	5.0	..	6.7				
Native-born women	3.2	2.7	..	3.2				
Foreign-born women	8.8	7.7	..	9.0				
Macroeconomic indicators	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average		Level			
					1997-2002	2003-2008	2008			
<i>Annual growth in %</i>										
Real GDP	0.4	3.6	3.6	1.8	1.9	2.3				
GDP/capita (level in US dollars)	-0.3	3.0	2.8	0.6	1.3	1.5	34 479			
Employment (level in thousands)	0.1	0.9	2.3	1.7	0.9	1.1	4 283			
<i>Percentage of the labour force</i>										
Unemployment	3.5	2.6	3.6	3.5	3.2	4.0				

Notes and sources are at the end of the chapter.

StatLink <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/883427374154>

Turkey



Information on migration statistics in Turkey is scarce. There is no direct and reliable data source on flows in and out of the country.

Information on labour emigration flows through official State channels is provided by the Ministry for Labour and Social Security (MLSS). The number of contract-dependent temporary workers sent abroad by the Turkish Employment Office in 2008 decreased to 57 000, from around 75-80 000 in the previous two years. The two main receiving regions were the Middle East (25 000) and the Commonwealth of Independent States (19 500). These labour emigration flows do not include outflows due to other reasons (mainly family reunification, marriage migration and asylum-seeking).

In 2008, the number of immigrants in Turkey who held residence permits was almost 175 000, a 5% decline from the stock of the previous year. A significant proportion of immigrants came from Turkish-speaking populations from neighbouring countries. In addition, there were significant irregular migration flows of clandestine workers, transit migrants and rejected asylum seekers. Transit migrants came to Turkey mainly from the Middle East (Iran, Iraq and Afghanistan) and from Asia and Africa. Almost 66 000 irregular migrants were apprehended in 2008.

The number of asylum seekers from Turkey to Europe continued to increase in 2008. Even if the number of Turkish asylum seekers to Europe was similar to that of previous year (under 7 000), the number of applications from third country nationals (mostly from Iraq, Iran and Afghanistan) increased. In addition, the number of asylum seekers in Turkey reached 12 891 applicants. There was a considerable increase in the number of asylum applicants from Iraq (comprising more than half of the asylum seekers), but also from Afghanistan (2 642) and Somalia (647).

Remittances again increased by around 10% in 2008, reaching USD 1.32 billion. In addition, “luggage trade” made by migrants to Turkey remained an important inflow of foreign currency at USD 6.2 billion.

In the policy domain, a Development and Implementation Office on Asylum and Migration Legislation and Administrative Capacity was established in October 2008 under the Ministry of Interior. Although it has limited resources, it is meant to make progress on the new Law on Asylum and Law on Aliens in the context of Turkey’s integration to the EU-based international migratory and asylum regimes.

For further information:

www.iskur.gov.tr

www.tuik.gov.tr

www.nvi.gov.tr/English,En_Html.html

Recent trends in migrants' flows and stocks

TURKEY

Migration flows (foreigners) National definition	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average		Level ('000)			
					1997-2002	2003-2008	2008			
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>										
Inflows	1.3	2.4	2.4	2.3	2.2	2.3	175.0			
Outflows			
Migration inflows (foreigners) by type Permit based statistics (standardised)	Thousands		% distribution		Inflows of top 10 nationalities as a % of total inflows of foreigners					
	2007	2008	2007	2008						
Work						
Family (incl. accompanying family)						
Humanitarian						
Free movements						
Others						
Total						
Temporary migration	2000	2007	2008	Average 2003-2008						
<i>Thousands</i>										
International students						
Trainees						
Working holiday makers						
Seasonal workers						
Intra-company transfers						
Other temporary workers						
Inflows of asylum seekers	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average		Level			
					1997-2002	2003-2008	2008			
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>										
	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.1	12 981			
Components of population growth	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average		Level ('000)			
					1997-2002	2003-2008	2008			
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>										
Total	18.4	14.1	15.4			
Natural increase	16.9	14.1	14.9			
Net migration	1.6	0.0	0.8			
Stocks of immigrants	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average		Level ('000)			
					1997-2002	2003-2008	2008			
<i>Percentage of the total population</i>										
Foreign-born population	..	1.9			
Foreign population	..	0.4			
Naturalisations	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average		Level			
					1997-2002	2003-2008	2008			
<i>Percentage of the foreign population</i>										
			
Labour market outcomes	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average					
					1997-2002	2003-2008				
<i>Employment/population ratio</i>										
Native-born men	68.0	67.7			
Foreign-born men	66.3	68.0			
Native-born women	23.7	24.1			
Foreign-born women	30.2	31.5			
<i>Unemployment rate</i>										
Native-born men	8.7	9.6			
Foreign-born men	8.4	8.4			
Native-born women	8.7	9.6			
Foreign-born women	8.1	8.9			
Macroeconomic indicators	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average		Level			
					1997-2002	2003-2008	2008			
<i>Annual growth in %</i>										
Real GDP	7.2	6.8	4.7	0.9	2.4	5.9	..			
GDP/capita (level in US dollars)	5.5	5.3	3.4	-0.3	1.0	4.6	11 693			
Employment (level in thousands)	2.8	-2.1	1.5	2.1	0.2	1.4	21 694			
<i>Percentage of the labour force</i>										
Unemployment	8.0	6.9	10.1	10.7	8.2	10.4	..			

Notes and sources are at the end of the chapter.

StatLink <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/884156612204>

United Kingdom



Gross inflows into the United Kingdom continued to rise in 2008, to 538 000, 11 000 more than in 2007, although they seem to be stabilising. The total inflow of foreign nationals reached 456 000 in 2008, mostly due to the increased inflow of EU15, A-8 and non-EU, non-Commonwealth citizens. Inflows from Commonwealth countries decreased slightly. The main change in flows was the record high outflow of people leaving the country in 2008 (409 000). Between 2004 and 2007, in fact, outflows had been declining, but have now resumed their upward trend. Most of the rise was due to the outflow of non-British people (243 000), mostly nationals from EU25/27 countries. Total net inflow into the United Kingdom fell to 129 000 in 2008 from 209 000 in 2007.

The total number of foreign citizens in the United Kingdom in 2009 reached 4.4 million (around 7.2% of the population). Almost half of all foreigners were European, of which 827 000 came from the ten most recent Eastern European accession countries. Around a quarter were Asians, mostly from India (293 000) and Pakistan (178 000). The number of African citizens rose to 609 000.

The number of asylum applications received fell from 25 670 in 2008 to 24 250 in 2009, in particular due to a decrease in the number of applications in the second half of the year.

In the policy domain, the United Kingdom continues to tighten its migration policies. The main policy changes introduced were the extension of the Identity Card scheme for foreign nationals, increased restrictions for Tier 1, Tier 2 and Tier 4 of the Points Based System (PBS) and the publication of a full draft Immigration Bill.

The compulsory ID scheme for foreign nationals introduced in 2008 has been extended progressively to cover more categories of foreign nationals in 2009. Since January 2010 it includes skilled workers and their dependents. By 2015 it is

expected that 90% of nationals outside the EEA or Switzerland will require an ID card.

Following the stricter labour market tests for Tier 2 of the PBS approved in September 2009, a new shortage occupation list for Tier 2 was approved in November 2009, following the recommendations from the Migration Advisory Committee (MAC). Tougher requirements for student applications under Tier 4 started to come into place in March 2010. The income threshold for Tier 1 was raised in September 2009. In addition, further changes to Tier 1 and Tier 2 were accepted in March 2010, including new points criteria for both tiers and new rules for inter-corporate transfers by multinational companies, lowering requirements for short-term transfers, but imposing higher requirements for long-term transfers.

A full draft Immigration Bill was published in November 2009. It proposes a simplification of the legal framework: substitution of the five application categories available to migrants to one single category; a time-limited “permission” to be in the United Kingdom; separate procedures for deportation and administrative removal will be united in a single expulsion procedure; and introduction of a simplified immigration appeals system. A new streamlined asylum support system was also proposed, to make the asylum system clearer and ensure the return of those whose applications for asylum are ruled unfounded.

For further information:

www.ukba.homeoffice.gov.uk

www.statistics.gov.uk

Recent trends in migrants' flows and stocks

UNITED KINGDOM

Migration flows (foreigners)	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average		Level ('000)
					1997-2002	2003-2008	2008
National definition							
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>							
Inflows	2.6	4.4	7.5	7.4	4.1	7.0	456.0
Outflows	1.3	2.3	2.6	4.0	2.0	2.7	243.0
Migration inflows (foreigners) by type	Thousands		% distribution		Inflows of top 10 nationalities as a % of total inflows of foreigners		
Permit based statistics (standardised)	2007	2008	2007	2008			
Work	92.0	101.1	25.3	29.1			
Family (incl. accompanying family)	108.9	103.2	29.9	31.1			
Humanitarian	14.2	3.7	3.9	1.1			
Free movements	119.1	99.0	32.7	28.5			
Others	30.1	35.6	8.3	10.3			
Total	364.4	347.4	100.0	100.0			
Temporary migration	2000	2007	2008	Average			
<i>Thousands</i>				2003-2008			
International students	76.0	130.0	166.0	132.7			
Trainees			
Working holiday makers	38.4	37.8	32.7	46.6			
Seasonal workers	10.1	17.0	16.6	17.0			
Intra-company transfers			
Other temporary workers	58.0	169.7	134.3	156.6			
Inflows of asylum seekers	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average	Level	
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>	0.8	1.4	0.5	0.5	1.1	0.6	31 315
Components of population growth	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average	Level ('000)	
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>							
Total
Natural increase
Net migration
Stocks of immigrants	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average	Level ('000)	
<i>Percentage of the total population</i>							
Foreign-born population	10.2	10.8	..	9.5	6 647
Foreign population	3.4	4.0	6.3	6.8	4.0	5.7	4 196
Naturalisations	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average	Level	
<i>Percentage of the foreign population</i>	2.1	3.5	4.3	3.1	3.1	4.5	129 310
Labour market outcomes	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average		
					1997-2002	2003-2008	
Employment/population ratio							
Native-born men	75.4	78.3	77.1	77.1	77.8	77.6	
Foreign-born men	67.3	71.1	76.9	78.0	71.2	74.7	
Native-born women	62.3	65.7	66.5	66.9	65.2	66.8	
Foreign-born women	51.3	53.1	56.3	58.6	53.6	56.2	
Unemployment rate							
Native-born men	9.9	5.9	5.3	6.1	6.2	5.3	
Foreign-born men	14.2	9.6	7.0	6.8	9.4	7.4	
Native-born women	6.7	4.6	4.4	4.9	4.7	4.2	
Foreign-born women	11.0	7.8	8.4	6.6	7.8	7.3	
Macroeconomic indicators	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average	Level	
					1997-2002	2003-2008	2008
<i>Annual growth in %</i>							
Real GDP	3.1	3.9	2.6	0.5	3.1	2.3	
GDP/capita (level in US dollars)	2.8	3.6	1.9	-0.1	2.8	1.7	30 029
Employment (level in thousands)	1.2	1.2	0.7	0.8	1.2	0.9	29 443
<i>Percentage of the labour force</i>							
Unemployment	8.6	5.5	5.4	5.7	5.8	5.2	

Notes and sources are at the end of the chapter.

StatLink <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/883627715010>

United States



Permanent immigration to the United States rose 5.2% in the US Fiscal Year 2008 (1 October 2007 through 30 September 2008), with 1 107 000 people receiving lawful permanent residency status. The previous year had seen a sharp drop due to fewer humanitarian

migrants and less family reunification, as well as the end of additional entries for employment under a “visa recapture” scheme whereby unused visas from previous years’ caps were granted. Admissions under the employment-based preferences category, on the other hand, were largely steady at 167 000 (2008). More than half of the employment-based visas went to family members of the principal applicant. In the three main employment-based visa categories, 96% were issued to principal applicants already in the United States.

Humanitarian migration returned to its 2006 levels in 2008. The number of refugees admitted rose to 60 100, primarily from Burma, Iraq, Bhutan, Iran and Cuba; this was below the quota level, which has been set at 80 000 for each year between 2008 and 2010.

The US Department of Labour certifies employer applications for both permanent and temporary foreign workers. Certification procedures vary according to the type of visa requested, but generally require that the employer advertise the job or intent to hire, and meet certain wage conditions to prevent adverse effects on American workers. Certification is required for application for a visa. The number of certifications for employment-based permanent visas fell from 85 000 in FY2007 to 49 000 in FY2008 and to just 30 000 in FY2009, suggesting a sharp decline in employer demand.

Temporary H-1B visas for employment are the usual pathway from a temporary visa category to permanent residence. The number of H-1B visa holders rose to 462 000 in 2007, before falling to 410 000 in 2008. Prior to the economic downturn, demand was much higher than availability, and employers requested far more certifications than the number of H-1B visas available: 727 000 employer requests were certified in FY2007, and 692 000 in FY2008. These numbers fell significantly in 2009, to 477 000. While H-1B visas are usually taken the first day they are opened, in 2009, it took five weeks for the FY2010 cap to be reached, and the number of applications for H-1B cap-exempt visas also fell sharply. Another effect of the crisis was that many employers whose visa applications were approved did not bring a worker in, suggesting that the demand had disappeared in the meanwhile.

Temporary migration schemes for lower-skilled workers increased. The seasonal agricultural worker programme (H-2A) is not subject to a cap. The number of employer requests rose 5% on an annual basis in both 2008 and 2009, to reach 100 000. 95% of H-2A workers were Mexican nationals. The labour market test for H-2A

employers was strengthened in March 2010, and stricter wage requirements were put in place.

Temporary workers for other sectors (H-2B) are capped at 66 000; an exemption for returning workers, which had seen numbers rise to 155 000, expired in 2008. Certifications reached more than 250 000 in FY2007-2009 before falling to 154 000 in FY2009. The programme, traditionally oversubscribed, actually fell short of its cap in FY2009, as visas were not used even for approved applications.

The official estimate of undocumented immigrants fell to 10.8 million in 2009, from prior estimates of 11.8 million in 2007. Increased border and workplace enforcement, along with reduced employment opportunities during the downturn, contributed to reduce inflows. Border interceptions fell 30% between 2006 and 2008, and were down 26% comparing the first three quarters of FY2009 with the same period in FY2008. The number of removals rose – both forcible removals, which rose 13% to 300 000, and voluntary departures, which fell 15% to 90 000.

The severe employment crisis in the United States in 2008 was a setback for the foreign-born in the labour market, who had enjoyed lower unemployment than the native-born throughout 2007. While the first quarter unemployment rate among the native-born rose sharply from 4.9% in 2007 to 5.3% in 2008 and 8.6% in 2009, for the foreign-born the rise was more marked, from 4.7% to 5.7% and 9.7%. By the 3rd quarter of 2009, the rate was 9.5% for native-born and 9.9% for the foreign born.

The United States monitors active foreign students and exchange visitors through the Student and Exchange Visitor Information System (SEVIS). The number of active students (on F and M visas) increased steadily from 2007 through 2009, reaching 742 000. The rise was largely due to a 64% increase in the number of Chinese nationals in the programme, to 118 000. Most (70%) are in higher education.

The first draft of comprehensive immigration reform was introduced as a bill to the House of Representatives in December 2009. The bill covers the same domains as those in a failed 2007 proposal: conditional regularisation for undocumented immigrants; changes to the temporary worker programmes; and family reunification backlog resolution. The initial House bill would suspend the current temporary labour channels and create an independent commission for assessing labour demand. As an intermediate measure, it would grant a fixed number of job-search visas for immigrants. Opposition to the bill is strong among employers and among opponents of regularisation, and the President has a number of higher policy priorities in 2010.

For further information:

www.dhs.gov/ximgtn

www.foreignlaborcert.doleta.gov

www.dol.gov/compliance/laws/comp-ina.htm

Recent trends in migrants' flows and stocks

UNITED STATES

Migration flows (foreigners)	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average		Level ('000)
					1997-2002	2003-2008	2008
<i>National definition</i>							
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>							
Inflows	2.7	3.0	3.5	3.6	3.0	3.5	1 107.1
Outflows
Migration inflows (foreigners) by type	Thousands		% distribution		Inflows of top 10 nationalities as a % of total inflows of foreigners		
<i>Permit based statistics (standardised)</i>	2007	2008	2007	2008			
Work	73.1	75.9	6.9	6.9			
Family (incl. accompanying family)	778.9	805.3	74.0	72.9			
Humanitarian	136.1	166.4	12.9	15.0			
Free movements			
Others	64.3	58.0	6.1	5.2			
Total	1 052.4	1 107.1	100.0	100.0			
Temporary migration	2000	2007	2008	Average			
<i>Thousands</i>				2003-2008			
International students	284.1	298.4	340.7	264.2			
Trainees	1.5	3.1	3.4	2.2			
Working holiday makers			
Seasonal workers	30.2	50.8	64.4	41.0			
Intra-company transfers	55.0	84.5	84.1	71.1			
Other temporary workers	229.5	345.2	291.2	286.7			
Inflows of asylum seekers	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average	Level	
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>	0.6	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.1	39 362
Components of population growth	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average	Level ('000)	
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>							
Total	11.7	10.5	9.5	9.0	10.7	9.2	2 743
Natural increase	6.0	5.7	6.3	6.1	5.7	6.0	1 861
Net migration	4.4	4.6	2.9	2.9	4.2	3.1	883
Stocks of immigrants	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average	Level ('000)	
<i>Percentage of the total population</i>							
Foreign-born population	8.8	10.5	12.9	13.0	10.6	13.1	39 624
Foreign population
Naturalisations	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average	Level	
<i>Percentage of the foreign population</i>	1 046 539
Labour market outcomes	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average		
					1997-2002	2003-2008	
Employment/population ratio							
Native-born men	76.0	76.7	73.8	72.9	75.9	73.4	
Foreign-born men	76.9	81.6	82.7	80.9	80.6	81.3	
Native-born women	65.2	67.8	66.0	65.6	67.1	65.6	
Foreign-born women	53.3	57.3	59.1	59.1	57.3	57.6	
Unemployment rate							
Native-born men	6.2	4.5	5.4	6.0	5.5	6.2	
Foreign-born men	7.9	4.5	4.8	6.0	5.4	5.5	
Native-born women	5.3	4.2	4.3	4.8	4.6	5.0	
Foreign-born women	8.2	5.5	4.0	5.7	6.1	5.8	
Macroeconomic indicators	1995	2000	2007	2008	Average	Level	
					1997-2002	2003-2008	2008
<i>Annual growth in %</i>							
Real GDP	2.5	4.2	2.1	0.4	3.5	2.4	
GDP/capita (level in US dollars)	1.3	3.0	1.1	-0.5	2.3	1.5	38 559
Employment (level in thousands)	1.5	2.5	1.1	-0.5	1.3	1.1	145 368
<i>Percentage of the labour force</i>							
Unemployment	5.6	4.0	4.6	5.8	4.7	5.3	

Notes and sources are at the end of the chapter.

StatLink <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/884267570683>

SOURCES AND NOTES OF THE COUNTRY TABLES OF PART V

Migration flows of foreigners

OECD countries: Sources and notes are available in the Statistical Annex (metadata related to Tables A.1.1 and B.1.1).

Bulgaria: Number of new permanent and long-term residence permits granted (*Source*: Ministry of the Interior); Lithuania: Arrivals and departures of residents (*Source*: Department of Statistics of the Government of the Republic of Lithuania); Romania: *Source*: Permanent residence changes (*Source*: *Romanian Statistical Yearbook*).

Long-term migration inflows of foreigners by type (standardised inflows)

The statistics are based largely on residence and work permit data and have been standardised, to the extent possible (cf. www.oecd.org/els/migration/imo).

Temporary migration

Based on residence or work permit data. Data on temporary workers generally do not cover workers who benefit from a free circulation agreement.

Inflows of asylum seekers

United Nations High Commission for Refugees (www.unhcr.org/statistics/).

Components of population growth

OECD countries: *Labour Force Statistics*, OECD, 2010; Bulgaria, Lithuania and Romania: Eurostat.

Stocks of immigrants

Foreign-born population

Sources and notes are provided in the Statistical Annex (see metadata for Tables A.1.4 and B.1.4).

Foreign population

Exact sources and notes for the OECD countries are given in the Statistical Annex (metadata related to Tables A.1.5 and B.1.5).

Bulgaria: Permanent and long-term residence permit holders (Ministry of the Interior); Lithuania: Residents' Register Service (Ministry of the Interior); Romania: Ministry of the Interior.

Naturalisations

Exact sources and notes for the OECD countries are given in the Statistical Annex (metadata related to Tables A.1.6 and B.1.6). Bulgaria, Lithuania and Romania: Ministry of the Interior.

Labour market outcomes

European countries: Labour Force Surveys (Eurostat); Australia, Canada: Labour Force Surveys (annual averages); United States: Current Population Survey, March supplement.

Macroeconomic indicators

Real GDP and GDP per capita

Annual National Accounts – Comparative tables at the price levels and PPPs of 2000 (OECD).

Employment and unemployment

OECD Employment Outlook, OECD, 2010.

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 is an observatory which, by its very nature, has to use existing statistics. However, it does play an active role in suggesting what it considers to be essential improvements in data collection and makes every effort to present consistent and well-documented statistics.

The purpose of this annex is to describe the “immigrant” population (generally the foreign-born population). The information gathered concerns the flows and stocks of the total immigrant population as well as the acquisition of nationality (series 1.1 to 1.6) and flows and stocks of the immigrant labour force (series 2.1 to 2.3). These data have not been standardised and are therefore not fully comparable at an international level. Because of the great variety of sources used, different populations may be measured. In particular, the criteria for registering population and the conditions for granting residence permits, for example, vary across countries, which means that measurements may differ greatly even if a theoretically unique source is being used.

In addition to the problem of the comparability of statistics, there is the difficulty of the very partial coverage of illegal migrants. Part of this population can be counted through censuses. Regularisation programmes, when they exist, make it possible to account for a far from negligible fraction of illegal immigrants after the fact. In terms of measurement, this makes it possible to better evaluate the volume of the foreign population at a given time, although it is not always possible to classify these immigrants according to the year they entered the country.

Each series is preceded by an explanatory note aimed at making it easier to understand and use the data presented. A summary table then follows (series A, giving the total for each host country), and finally the tables by nationality or country of birth, as the case may be (series B). At the end of each series, a table provides the sources and notes of the data presented in the tables for each country.

Summary of the series published in the Statistical Annex (1999-2008)

SERIES	Total by destination country	Details by origin country (nationality or country of birth)
Total immigrant population		
1.1. Inflows of foreign population	Table A.1.1.	Tables B.1.1.
1.2. Outflows of foreign population	Table A.1.2.	No data by nationality ¹
1.3. Inflows of asylum seekers	Table A.1.3.	Tables B.1.3.
1.4. Stocks of foreign-born population	Table A.1.4.	Tables B.1.4.
1.5. Stocks of foreign population	Table A.1.5.	Tables B.1.5.
1.6. Acquisition of nationality	Table A.1.6.	Tables B.1.6.
Immigrant workers		
2.1. Inflows of foreign workers	Table A.2.1.	No data by nationality ¹
2.2. Stocks of foreign-born labour	Table A.2.2.	No data by country of birth ¹
2.3. Stocks of foreign labour	Table A.2.3.	No data by nationality ¹

1. Detailed data by nationality/country of birth are available online (www.oecd.org/els/migration/imo)

General comments on tables

- a) The tables provide annual series covering the period 1999-2008 (2009 preliminary data on asylum applications are included in Table A.1.3).
- b) The series A tables are presented in alphabetical order by the name of the country using the 3-letter ISO code (www.iso.org). In the other tables, nationalities or countries of birth are ranked by decreasing order of the stocks for the last year available.
- c) In the tables by country of origin (series B) only the 15 main countries are shown. "Other countries" is a residual calculated as the difference between the total and the sum of the nationalities/countries of birth indicated in the table. For some nationalities/countries of birth, data are not available for all years and this is reflected in the residual entry of "Other countries". This must be borne in mind when interpreting changes in this category.
- d) The data on outflows of the foreign population (series 1.2), inflows and stocks of workers (series 2.1, 2.2 and 2.3.) are not broken down by nationality/ country of birth but may be viewed online (www.oecd.org/els/migration/imo). Only totals are presented, in Tables A.1.2 and A.2.1, A.2.2. and A.2.3, respectively.
- e) The rounding of entries may cause totals to differ slightly from the sum of the component entries.
- f) "..." Data not available.

Inflows and outflows of foreign population

OECD countries seldom have tools specifically designed to measure the inflows and outflows of the foreign population, and national estimates are generally based either on population registers or residence permit data. This note is aimed at describing more systematically what is measured by each of the sources used.

Flows derived from population registers

Population registers can usually produce inflow and outflow data for both nationals and foreigners. To register, foreigners may have to indicate possession of an appropriate residence and/or work permit valid for at least as long as the minimum registration period. Emigrants are usually identified by a stated intention to leave the country, although the period of (intended) absence is not always specified.

When population registers are used, departures tend to be less well recorded than arrivals. Indeed, the emigrant who plans to return to the host country in the future may be reluctant to inform about his departure to avoid losing rights related to the presence on the register. Registration criteria vary considerably across countries (as the minimum duration of stay for individuals to be defined as immigrants ranges from three months to one year), which poses major problems of international comparison. For example, in some countries, register data cover a portion of temporary migrants, in some cases including asylum seekers when they live in private households (as opposed to reception centres or hostels for immigrants) and international students.

Flows derived from residence and/or work permits

Statistics on permits are generally based on the number of permits issued during a given period and depend on the types of permits used. The so-called “settlement countries” (Australia, Canada, New Zealand and the United States) consider as immigrants persons who have been granted the right of permanent residence. Statistics on temporary immigrants are also published in this annex for these countries since the legal duration of their residence is often similar to long-term migration (over a year). In the case of France, the permits covered are those valid for at least one year (excluding students). Data for Italy and Portugal include temporary migrants.

Another characteristic of permit data is that flows of nationals are not recorded. Some flows of foreigners may also not be recorded, either because the type of permit they hold is not tabulated in the statistics or because they are not required to have a permit (freedom of movement agreements). In addition, permit data do not necessarily reflect physical flows or actual lengths of stay since: i) permits may be issued overseas but individuals may decide not to use them, or delay their arrival; ii) permits may be issued to persons who have in fact been resident in the country for some time, the permit indicating a change of status, or a renewal of the same permit.

Permit data may be influenced by the processing capacity of government agencies. In some instances a large backlog of applications may build up and therefore the true demand for permits may only emerge once backlogs are cleared.

Flows estimated from specific surveys

Ireland provides estimates based on the results of Quarterly National Household Surveys and other sources such as permit data and asylum applications. These estimates are revised periodically on the basis of census data. Data for the United Kingdom are based on a survey of passengers entering or exiting the country by plane, train or boat (International Passenger Survey). One of the aims of this survey is to estimate the number and characteristics of migrants. The survey is based on a random sample of approximately one out of every 500 passengers. The figures were revised significantly following the latest census in each of these two countries, which seems to indicate that these estimates do not constitute an “ideal” source either. Australia and New Zealand also conduct passenger surveys which enable them to establish the length of stay on the basis of migrants’ stated intentions when they enter or exit the country.

Table A.1.1. **Inflows of foreign population into OECD countries**

Thousands

		1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
<i>Inflow data based on population registers:</i>											
AUT	Austria	72.4	66.0	74.8	86.1	93.2	104.1	97.9	82.8	91.6	94.6
BEL	Belgium	57.8	57.3	66.0	70.2	68.8	72.4	77.4	83.4	93.4	..
CHE	Switzerland	85.8	87.4	101.4	101.9	94.0	96.3	94.4	102.7	139.7	157.3
CZE	Czech Republic	6.8	4.2	11.3	43.6	57.4	50.8	58.6	66.1	102.5	77.8
DEU	Germany	673.9	648.8	685.3	658.3	601.8	602.2	579.3	558.5	574.8	573.8
DNK	Denmark	20.3	22.8	24.6	21.5	18.4	18.7	20.1	24.0	23.5	..
ESP	Spain	99.1	330.9	394.0	443.1	429.5	645.8	682.7	803.0	920.5	692.2
FIN	Finland	7.9	9.1	11.0	10.0	9.4	11.5	12.7	13.9	17.5	19.9
HUN	Hungary	20.2	20.2	20.3	18.0	19.4	22.2	25.6	23.6	22.6	37.5
JPN	Japan	281.9	345.8	351.2	343.8	373.9	372.0	372.3	325.6	336.6	344.5
LUX	Luxembourg	11.8	10.8	11.1	11.0	12.6	12.2	13.8	13.7	15.8	16.8
NLD	Netherlands	78.4	91.4	94.5	86.6	73.6	65.1	63.4	67.7	80.3	103.4
NOR	Norway	32.2	27.8	25.4	30.8	26.8	27.9	31.4	37.4	53.5	58.8
SVK	Slovak Republic	5.9	4.6	4.7	4.8	4.6	7.9	7.7	11.3	14.8	16.5
SWE	Sweden	34.6	42.2	43.8	47.3	47.1	46.7	50.6	78.9	82.6	82.0
<i>Inflow data based on residence permits or on other sources:</i>											
AUS	Australia										
	Permanent inflows	98.3	107.1	127.9	119.1	123.4	146.4	161.7	176.2	189.5	203.9
	Temporary inflows	194.1	224.0	245.1	240.5	244.7	261.6	289.4	321.6	368.5	420.0
CAN	Canada										
	Permanent inflows	190.0	227.5	250.6	229.1	221.4	235.8	262.2	251.6	236.8	247.2
	Temporary inflows	223.0	254.2	268.5	247.9	228.3	228.2	229.6	250.1	279.9	313.8
FRA	France	82.8	91.9	106.9	124.2	136.4	141.6	135.9	135.1	128.9	136.0
GBR	United Kingdom	239.5	260.4	262.2	288.8	327.4	434.3	405.1	451.7	455.0	456.0
IRL	Ireland	22.2	27.8	32.7	39.9	42.4	41.8	66.1	88.9	89.5	67.6
ITA	Italy	268.0	271.5	232.8	388.1	..	319.3	206.8	181.5	252.4	..
KOR	Korea	..	185.4	172.5	170.9	178.3	188.8	266.3	314.7	317.6	311.7
MEX	Mexico	5.4	6.4	8.1	5.8	4.8	8.5	9.2	6.9	6.8	15.1
NZL	New Zealand	31.0	37.6	54.4	47.5	43.0	36.2	54.1	49.8	46.8	46.9
POL	Poland	17.3	15.9	21.5	30.2	30.3	36.9	38.5	34.2	40.6	41.8
PRT	Portugal	10.5	15.9	151.4	72.0	31.8	34.1	28.1	22.5	32.6	32.3
TUR	Turkey	154.3	162.3	154.9	151.8	147.2	148.0	169.7	191.0	174.9	175.0
USA	United States										
	Permanent inflows	644.8	841.0	1 058.9	1 059.4	703.5	957.9	1 122.4	1 266.3	1 052.4	1 107.1
	Temporary inflows	1 106.6	1 249.4	1 375.1	1 282.6	1 233.4	1 299.3	1 323.5	1 457.9	1 606.9	1 617.6
EU25 (among above countries)											
+ Norway and Switzerland		1 847.3	2 107.0	2 375.8	2 576.4	2 124.8	2 791.8	2 696.0	2 880.7	3 232.1	2 664.3
North America (permanent)		834.7	1 068.5	1 309.5	1 288.4	924.9	1 193.7	1 384.6	1 517.9	1 289.2	1 354.4

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the Tables B.1.1.


StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/885301511372>

Table A.1.2. **Outflows of foreign population from OECD countries**

Thousands

	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
Outflow data based on population registers:										
AUT Austria	47.3	44.4	51.0	44.4	48.8	49.9	49.7	55.0	52.5	55.3
BEL Belgium	36.4	35.6	31.4	31.0	33.9	37.7	38.5	39.4	38.5	..
CHE Switzerland	58.1	55.8	52.7	49.7	46.3	47.9	49.7	53.0	56.2	54.1
CZE Czech Republic	0.1	0.2	20.6	31.1	33.2	33.8	21.8	31.4	18.4	3.8
DEU Germany	555.6	562.8	497.0	505.6	499.1	547.0	483.6	483.8	475.8	563.1
DNK Denmark	14.1	14.0	14.8	14.9	15.8	15.8	16.3	17.3	17.9	..
ESP Spain	6.9	10.0	41.9	48.7	120.3	199.0	232.0
FIN Finland	2.0	4.1	2.2	2.8	2.3	4.2	2.6	2.7	3.1	4.5
HUN Hungary	2.5	2.2	1.9	2.4	2.6	3.5	3.3	3.2	4.1	..
JPN Japan	199.7	210.9	232.8	248.4	259.4	278.5	292.0	218.8	214.9	234.2
LUX Luxembourg	6.9	7.0	7.6	8.3	6.9	7.5	7.2	7.7	8.6	8.0
NLD Netherlands	20.7	20.7	20.4	21.2	21.9	23.5	24.0	26.5	29.0	30.7
NOR Norway	12.7	14.9	15.2	12.3	14.3	13.9	12.6	12.5	13.3	15.2
SVK Slovak Republic	3.6	5.0	1.1	1.5	2.0	3.3
SWE Sweden	13.6	12.5	12.7	14.1	15.1	16.0	15.8	20.0	20.4	19.2
Outflow data based on residence permits or on other sources:										
AUS Australia										
Permanent departures	20.8	23.4	24.1	24.9	29.9	31.6	33.6	35.2	35.2	37.8
Long-term departures	30.0	42.2	31.9	29.5	29.6	31.8	34.4	36.1	36.1	..
GBR United Kingdom	130.0	137.0	117.0	141.0	144.0	126.0	154.0	173.0	158.0	243.0
KOR Korea	..	89.1	107.2	114.0	152.3	148.8	266.7	183.0	163.6	215.7
MEX Mexico	22.6	25.7	26.8	24.4	24.1	30.3	31.7	40.2	40.2	..
NZL New Zealand	15.9	15.6	28.6	22.4	25.4	29.0	30.6	20.5	21.4	23.0

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the Tables B.1.1.


StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/885324374281>


Table B.1.1. **Inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

AUSTRALIA

	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
New Zealand	24.7	31.6	42.3	21.6	16.4	18.7	22.4	23.8	28.3	34.5
United Kingdom	12.9	11.8	13.2	14.6	18.6	25.7	26.2	30.9	30.7	31.7
India	2.8	4.6	5.8	7.6	8.2	11.3	12.8	15.2	19.8	22.7
China	6.3	8.1	8.3	9.1	9.4	12.5	15.2	17.3	21.1	20.7
Philippines	3.8	3.6	3.4	3.4	3.6	4.4	4.8	5.4	6.1	7.1
South Africa	5.7	6.2	6.8	7.2	5.9	7.1	5.7	4.8	5.4	6.9
Malaysia	1.5	2.0	2.5	2.6	3.9	5.1	4.7	4.8	4.8	5.1
Korea	1.0	0.8	1.5	2.0	2.3	2.8	3.5	4.0	4.2	5.0
Sri Lanka	1.2	1.5	1.8	2.4	2.3	2.1	3.0	3.3	3.8	4.8
Indonesia	3.1	3.4	4.5	5.8	4.7	4.4	3.8	3.3	3.2	3.2
Viet Nam	2.2	1.7	1.9	2.5	3.0	2.5	2.5	2.9	3.4	3.0
United States	1.8	1.8	2.3	2.6	2.5	3.0	3.0	2.9	2.8	3.0
Thailand	0.7	0.8	0.9	1.8	1.6	1.7	1.7	2.0	2.5	2.7
Myanmar	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.5	0.8	1.8	2.6
Iraq	1.8	2.0	1.3	1.3	2.9	1.8	3.3	5.1	2.5	2.6
Other countries	30.5	30.2	32.8	35.2	39.1	45.4	52.9	52.0	50.1	48.9
Total	100.0	110.3	129.7	120.0	124.6	148.7	166.0	178.5	190.3	204.5

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/885610023064>Table B.1.1. **Inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

AUSTRIA

	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
Germany	7.2	7.5	10.2	9.2	10.9	13.2	14.7	15.9	17.9	19.2
Romania	1.9	1.9	2.4	4.8	5.7	5.5	5.1	4.5	9.3	9.3
Serbia and Montenegro	13.9	6.5	6.3	9.9	10.5	11.6	11.7	7.4	6.4	6.1
Hungary	2.2	2.4	3.0	2.6	2.8	3.2	3.4	3.6	4.5	5.2
Turkey	7.3	7.1	7.8	11.3	10.4	8.2	7.7	4.9	5.2	5.0
Slovak Republic	1.8	1.9	2.5	2.5	2.6	3.5	3.6	3.5	3.6	4.9
Poland	5.0	3.4	3.5	3.0	3.4	7.0	6.8	5.7	5.3	4.4
Russian Federation	1.8	4.0	6.8	4.0	2.5	2.2	3.0
Bosnia and Herzegovina	3.6	3.9	6.0	4.9	5.4	5.4	4.6	3.2	3.0	2.9
Bulgaria	1.5	1.7	1.7	1.4	1.2	2.2	2.5
Croatia	4.3	4.8	6.1	3.8	3.4	3.3	2.8	2.5	2.3	2.0
Italy	1.4	1.3	1.7	1.4	1.5	1.4	1.4	1.5	1.7	1.8
United States	1.0	1.2	1.0	1.0	2.2	2.0	1.7
Iran	1.0	1.2	1.0	1.0	2.2	2.0	1.7
Czech Republic	1.4	1.3	1.4	1.2	1.2	1.4	1.3	1.2	1.2	1.3
Other countries	22.4	23.9	24.0	26.3	27.4	29.7	27.3	21.0	22.7	23.7
Total	72.4	66.0	74.8	86.1	93.2	104.1	97.9	82.8	91.6	94.6

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.


StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/885610023064>


Table B.1.1. **Inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

BELGIUM

	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
France	7.9	8.1	8.0	8.1	8.2	9.5	10.4	11.6	12.3	..
Netherlands	6.2	7.2	8.2	8.4	8.5	8.8	10.1	11.5	11.4	..
Poland	1.2	1.1	2.9	2.4	2.1	3.5	4.8	6.7	9.4	..
Morocco	4.9	5.7	7.1	8.5	8.4	8.0	7.1	7.5	7.8	..
Romania	0.6	0.7	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.4	2.3	3.1	5.5	..
Germany	3.1	3.0	2.9	3.0	2.9	3.3	3.3	3.3	3.4	..
Turkey	2.2	2.8	3.0	3.9	3.8	3.2	3.4	3.0	3.2	..
Italy	2.6	2.6	2.4	2.3	2.3	2.3	2.5	2.6	2.7	..
Bulgaria	..	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.7	0.9	0.8	2.6	..
United States	2.9	2.8	2.9	2.7	2.5	2.6	2.4	2.6	2.5	..
Portugal	1.3	1.3	1.3	1.6	1.8	1.9	1.9	2.0	2.3	..
United Kingdom	3.0	3.2	2.7	2.5	2.5	2.4	2.2	2.0	2.0	..
Spain	1.2	1.4	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.6	1.8	1.8	1.9	..
India	0.6	0.7	0.9	1.0	1.1	1.2	1.3	1.5	1.6	..
Democratic Republic of Congo	0.8	0.8	1.4	1.3	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.2	..
Other countries	19.3	15.7	19.4	21.6	20.4	20.8	21.9	22.4	23.6	..
Total	57.8	57.3	66.0	70.2	68.8	72.4	77.4	83.4	93.4	..

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/885610023064>Table B.1.1. **Inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

CANADA

	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
China	29.1	36.8	40.4	33.3	36.3	36.4	42.3	33.1	27.0	29.3
India	17.5	26.1	27.9	28.8	24.6	25.6	33.1	30.8	26.1	24.5
Philippines	9.2	10.1	12.9	11.0	12.0	13.3	17.5	17.7	19.1	23.7
United States	5.5	5.8	5.9	5.3	6.0	7.5	9.3	10.9	10.5	11.2
United Kingdom	4.5	4.6	5.4	4.7	5.2	6.1	5.9	6.5	8.1	9.2
Pakistan	9.3	14.2	15.4	14.2	12.4	12.8	13.6	12.3	9.5	8.1
Korea	7.2	7.6	9.6	7.3	7.1	5.3	5.8	6.2	5.9	7.2
France	3.9	4.3	4.4	4.0	4.1	5.0	5.4	4.9	5.5	6.4
Iran	5.9	5.6	5.7	7.9	5.7	6.1	5.5	7.1	6.7	6.0
Colombia	1.3	2.2	3.0	3.2	4.3	4.4	6.0	5.8	4.8	5.0
United Arab Emirates	1.8	3.1	4.5	4.4	3.3	4.4	4.1	4.1	3.4	4.7
Sri Lanka	4.7	5.8	5.5	5.0	4.4	4.1	4.7	4.5	3.9	4.5
Germany	2.9	2.4	1.8	1.6	2.1	2.4	2.6	3.0	2.6	4.1
Morocco	1.8	2.6	4.0	4.1	3.2	3.5	2.7	3.1	3.8	3.9
Algeria	2.0	2.5	3.0	3.0	2.8	3.2	3.1	4.5	3.2	3.2
Other countries	83.3	93.6	101.2	91.2	87.9	95.7	100.6	97.1	96.8	96.1
Total	190.0	227.5	250.6	229.1	221.4	235.8	262.2	251.6	236.8	247.2

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.


StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/885610023064>


Table B.1.1. **Inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

SWITZERLAND

	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
Germany	11.0	12.5	14.6	15.5	14.9	18.1	20.4	24.8	41.1	46.4
Portugal	5.0	4.9	4.9	9.3	12.3	13.6	12.2	12.5	15.5	17.8
France	6.2	6.6	6.6	6.8	6.6	6.7	6.9	7.6	11.5	13.7
Italy	6.0	5.4	5.6	6.1	5.6	5.7	5.4	5.5	8.4	9.9
United Kingdom	3.4	3.7	3.9	3.1	2.8	2.9	3.0	3.4	5.1	5.6
Serbia	5.4	4.9
Austria	1.5	2.0	2.5	2.6	2.0	2.3	1.9	2.0	2.8	3.2
Poland	0.5	0.6	0.7	0.7	0.6	0.7	0.8	1.3	2.1	2.4
Spain	1.6	1.7	1.7	1.9	1.7	1.7	1.5	1.6	2.1	2.4
Turkey	3.0	2.8	3.1	3.2	2.7	2.4	2.1	2.0	0.9	2.1
Netherlands	1.2	1.3	1.3	1.2	1.0	1.1	1.2	1.2	1.8	2.0
Belgium	0.7	0.9	0.9	0.8	0.7	0.8	0.8	0.8	1.1	1.2
Slovak Republic	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	1.2
Sweden	0.9	1.0	0.9	0.8	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.8	1.1	1.1
Hungary	0.5	0.4	0.6	0.6	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.5	0.7	1.1
Other countries	44.2	43.5	53.7	49.2	41.7	39.2	36.8	38.6	40.0	42.2
Total	85.8	87.4	101.4	101.9	94.0	96.3	94.4	102.7	139.7	157.3

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/885610023064>Table B.1.1. **Inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

CZECH REPUBLIC

	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
Ukraine	1.6	1.1	2.8	10.7	15.5	16.3	23.9	30.2	39.6	18.7
Viet Nam	0.8	0.3	2.2	5.7	3.6	4.5	4.9	6.4	12.3	13.4
Slovak Republic	1.7	1.0	2.4	13.0	23.7	15.0	10.1	6.8	13.9	7.6
Russian Federation	0.6	0.4	0.7	2.4	1.8	2.0	3.3	4.7	6.7	5.8
Germany	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.8	0.8	1.3	1.4	0.8	1.9	4.3
Mongolia	0.5	0.6	0.9	1.5	3.3	3.5
Moldova	0.1	0.0	0.2	0.8	1.2	1.0	1.7	2.4	3.4	3.3
United States	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.7	0.9	0.7	1.4	1.8	1.7	2.2
Czech Republic	1.7
Uzbekistan	0.8	0.8	0.2	0.3	0.8	1.5
Poland	0.1	0.1	0.4	1.7	1.6	1.8	1.3	0.9	2.3	1.2
Bulgaria	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.7	0.6	0.7	0.8	0.8	1.1	1.0
China	0.5	0.5	0.8	1.4	1.0	0.9
Korea	0.7	0.4	0.1	0.2	0.5	0.7
United Kingdom	0.4	0.6	0.4	0.3	0.7	0.7
Other countries	1.5	1.0	2.1	7.1	4.8	4.9	7.3	7.6	13.2	11.3
Total	6.8	4.2	11.3	43.6	57.4	50.8	58.6	66.1	102.5	77.8

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.


StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/885610023064>

Table B.1.1. **Inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

GERMANY

	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
Poland	72.4	74.3	79.0	81.6	88.2	125.0	147.7	151.7	140.0	119.9
Romania	18.8	24.2	20.1	24.0	23.8	23.5	23.3	23.4	42.9	48.2
Turkey	48.1	50.0	54.7	58.1	49.8	42.6	36.0	29.6	26.7	26.7
Hungary	14.9	16.1	17.0	16.5	14.3	17.4	18.6	18.6	22.2	25.2
Bulgaria	8.1	10.4	13.2	13.2	13.4	11.6	9.1	7.5	20.5	24.1
Italy	34.9	33.2	28.8	25.0	21.6	19.6	18.3	17.7	18.2	20.1
United States	16.8	16.5	16.0	15.5	14.7	15.3	15.2	16.3	17.5	17.5
Russian Federation	32.8	32.7	35.9	36.5	31.8	28.5	23.1	16.4	15.0	15.1
China	10.1	14.7	19.1	18.5	16.1	13.1	12.0	12.9	13.6	14.3
France	15.3	15.3	13.5	12.7	12.3	12.5	12.3	13.6	13.8	13.0
India	5.1	6.5	8.9	9.4	9.2	9.1	8.4	8.9	9.4	11.4
Netherlands	6.5	7.0	8.4	9.9	9.1	9.1	10.1	11.0	11.1	11.2
Austria	11.9	11.9	11.6	10.2	9.2	9.0	8.6	9.8	10.6	9.5
Iraq	9.5	12.6	17.7	13.0	6.5	3.3	3.3	3.4	5.0	8.9
Slovak Republic	9.1	10.8	11.4	11.6	10.6	11.6	11.8	11.3	9.4	8.7
Other countries	359.6	312.7	329.9	302.7	271.3	250.9	221.5	206.2	199.1	200.1
Total	673.9	648.8	685.3	658.3	601.8	602.2	579.3	558.5	574.8	573.8

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.


StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/885610023064>

Table B.1.1. **Inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

DENMARK

	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
Poland	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.7	1.3	2.5	2.4	..
Germany	0.9	0.8	0.9	0.8	0.8	1.0	1.3	1.9	1.8	..
Norway	1.2	1.3	1.2	1.3	1.3	1.2	1.2	1.4	1.4	..
Ukraine	0.1	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.6	0.9	1.3	1.3	..
Sweden	1.0	0.9	0.8	0.7	0.8	0.8	0.9	1.2	1.1	..
Iceland	0.8	0.8	0.8	1.1	1.0	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.1	..
United Kingdom	0.7	0.8	0.8	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.9	0.8	..
China	0.5	0.5	0.7	1.0	1.4	1.2	1.0	0.8	0.8	..
Lithuania	0.2	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.5	0.6	0.8	0.7	..
Philippines	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.4	0.5	0.8	0.7	..
United States	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.7	0.7	..
France	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.6	0.6	..
India	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.5	..
Thailand	0.6	0.6	0.7	0.5	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	..
Netherlands	0.4	0.5	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.5	0.4	..
Other countries	12.1	14.5	16.0	12.6	9.0	8.2	8.1	8.7	8.5	..
Total	20.3	22.8	24.6	21.5	18.4	18.7	20.1	24.0	23.5	..

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.


StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/885610023064>


Table B.1.1. **Inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

SPAIN

	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
Morocco	14.9	38.3	39.5	40.2	41.2	73.4	82.5	78.5	85.0	93.6
Romania	1.8	17.5	23.3	48.3	55.0	103.6	108.3	131.5	197.6	71.5
Colombia	7.5	46.1	71.2	34.2	11.1	21.5	24.9	35.6	41.7	42.2
Ecuador	9.0	91.1	82.6	89.0	72.8	17.2	15.2	21.4	30.2	37.8
Peru	2.9	6.0	7.1	8.0	13.5	17.7	19.9	21.7	27.4	31.1
Brazil	1.6	4.1	4.3	4.7	7.4	16.5	24.6	32.6	36.1	27.3
China	1.6	4.8	5.2	5.7	7.5	20.3	18.4	16.9	20.4	27.2
United Kingdom	7.9	10.9	16.0	25.3	31.8	48.4	44.7	42.5	38.2	25.0
Paraguay	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.7	2.4	10.4	12.6	21.6	24.0	20.6
Italy	2.6	3.9	6.2	10.4	10.0	15.0	16.5	18.6	21.2	18.0
Dominican Republic	2.8	5.5	5.4	5.5	6.6	10.3	12.2	14.7	18.1	17.8
Argentina	1.9	6.7	16.0	35.4	21.4	25.6	24.7	24.2	21.5	17.1
Portugal	2.1	3.0	3.1	3.5	4.8	9.9	13.3	20.7	27.2	16.9
Bolivia	0.5	3.3	4.9	10.6	18.2	44.0	45.0	77.8	51.8	14.1
Pakistan	0.4	1.7	1.8	1.8	1.7	9.4	12.4	8.2	10.6	13.4
Other countries	41.5	87.9	107.1	119.8	124.0	202.7	207.4	236.6	269.5	218.7
Total	99.1	330.9	394.0	443.1	429.5	645.8	682.7	803.0	920.5	692.2

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/885610023064>Table B.1.1. **Inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

FINLAND

	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
Estonia	0.6	0.7	1.1	1.2	1.1	1.7	1.9	2.5	2.9	3.0
Russian Federation	2.2	2.5	2.5	2.0	1.7	1.9	2.1	2.1	2.5	3.0
China	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.6	0.5	0.7	1.0
Sweden	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.6	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.9
India	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.6
Somalia	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.4	0.3	0.6	0.6
Thailand	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.6	0.6
Poland	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.4	0.6
Iraq	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.1	0.3	0.1	0.1	0.4	0.5
Germany	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.4
Turkey	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.3	0.4
United Kingdom	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.3
Hungary	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.3
Viet Nam	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.3
United States	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3
Other countries	2.7	3.2	4.1	3.4	3.5	4.2	4.6	4.9	6.2	7.0
Total	7.9	9.1	11.0	10.0	9.4	11.5	12.7	13.9	17.5	19.9

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.


StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/885610023064>

Table B.1.1. **Inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

FRANCE

	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
Algeria	11.4	12.4	15.0	23.4	28.5	27.9	24.8	25.4	23.1	22.3
Morocco	14.3	17.4	19.1	21.8	22.6	22.2	20.0	19.2	17.9	19.2
Tunisia	4.0	5.6	6.6	7.8	9.4	8.9	8.0	8.2	7.8	7.9
Turkey	5.8	6.6	6.9	8.5	8.6	9.1	8.9	8.3	7.6	7.7
Mali	2.5	1.5	1.7	2.0	2.6	2.6	2.5	2.9	2.8	4.6
China	1.8	1.8	2.3	1.9	2.4	2.9	2.8	4.3	3.7	4.0
Cameroon	1.4	1.8	2.4	2.9	3.4	4.1	4.3	4.4	3.9	3.7
Romania	0.9	1.2	1.5	1.5	1.6	1.8	1.7	1.9	2.4	3.7
Congo	1.6	1.8	2.3	3.3	3.8	4.1	4.1	4.0	3.4	3.6
Côte d'Ivoire	1.4	1.8	2.2	2.8	3.4	4.0	3.8	3.6	3.4	3.4
Senegal	1.9	2.0	2.3	2.5	2.6	2.5	2.5	2.7	2.6	3.1
Russian Federation	1.0	1.2	1.4	1.9	2.4	2.9	3.0	2.5	2.3	3.0
Sri Lanka	1.2	1.3	2.1	1.7	1.4	1.6	1.8	1.1	1.9	2.4
Democratic Republic of the Congo	1.6	1.1	1.4	1.8	1.7	1.8	2.4	1.8	2.0	2.4
United States	2.7	2.6	2.6	2.4	2.3	2.6	2.4	2.3	2.0	2.3
Other countries	29.2	31.9	36.9	38.2	39.6	42.5	43.1	42.6	42.0	42.7
Total	82.8	91.9	106.9	124.2	136.4	141.6	135.9	135.1	128.9	136.0

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.


StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/885610023064>

Table B.1.1. **Inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

UNITED KINGDOM

	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
Poland	0.0	0.5	1.9	19.0	..	109.0	..	55.0
India	10.3	17.2	16.0	37.0	..	81.0	..	103.0	..	48.0
Pakistan	6.6	9.5	9.6	17.0	..	31.0	..	47.0	..	17.0
Australia	26.4	23.8	33.5	51.0	..	48.0	..	46.0	..	14.0
China	15.1	18.6	18.5	43.0	..	63.0	..	45.0	..	18.0
South Africa	12.0	14.2	13.1	35.0	..	50.0	..	41.0	..	14.0
United States	16.9	14.0	13.1	30.0	..	30.0	..	31.0	..	17.0
Germany	9.2	11.4	16.1	28.0	..	18.0	..	26.0	..	18.0
New Zealand	13.4	12.4	11.6	21.0	..	17.0	..	24.0	..	8.0
Philippines	5.4	6.1	11.6	33.0	..	23.0	..	22.0	..	13.0
Bangladesh	3.2	3.1	4.5	8.0	..	10.0	..	19.0	..	6.0
Nigeria	1.3	5.6	2.0	4.0	..	14.0	..	18.0	..	11.0
Spain	1.9	3.9	2.7	11.0	..	12.0	..	15.0
Slovak Republic	6.1	0.8	0.3	15.0
Japan	7.9	7.3	4.8	13.0	..	12.0	..	14.0
Other countries	103.6	112.4	103.1	na	..	na	..	na
Total	239.5	260.4	262.2	288.8	327.4	434.3	405.1	451.7	455.0	456.0

Note: 2002, 2004 and 2006 data by nationality are respectively 2001-2002, 2003-2004 and 2005-2006 combined inflows. For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

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Standard errors for 2001-2002, 2003-2004 and 2005-2006 combined flows

	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
<i>Poland</i>				..		26		12		
<i>India</i>				9		8		6		
<i>Pakistan</i>				19		13		12		
<i>Australia</i>				9		10		8		
<i>China</i>				9		14		10		
<i>South Africa</i>				11		9		11		
<i>United States</i>				15		13		11		
<i>Germany</i>				24		26		20		
<i>New Zealand</i>				12		14		17		
<i>Philippines</i>				14		15		19		
<i>Bangladesh</i>				15		14		8		
<i>Nigeria</i>				17		12		12		
<i>Spain</i>				30		26		30		
<i>Slovak Republic</i>					27		
<i>Japan</i>				20		14		20		

Note: Data are not published when standard errors are higher than 30%.

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Table B.1.1. **Inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

HUNGARY

	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
Romania	7.8	8.9	10.6	10.3	9.6	12.1	8.9	7.9	6.7	10.0
Serbia and Montenegro	2.5	1.8	1.0	0.4	0.7	1.6	1.1	2.4	4.4	4.1
Ukraine	2.4	2.4	2.5	2.1	2.6	3.6	2.1	3.7	2.9	4.1
Germany	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.3	0.4	0.1	3.9	0.7	0.7	3.2
China	1.2	1.1	0.4	0.1	0.7	0.8	0.5	1.4	1.9	1.5
Slovak Republic	0.6	1.0	0.5	0.5	0.4	0.1	1.6	0.6	0.7	1.3
United States	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.4	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.6	0.4	1.2
Turkey	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.3	0.3	0.7
Austria	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.8	0.4	0.3	0.7
Japan	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.3	0.5
Iran	0.2	0.4	0.2	0.5
United Kingdom	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.1	0.7	0.1	0.1	0.4
Croatia	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.4
Israel	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.6	0.2	0.4
France	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.0	0.7	0.1	0.0	0.4
Other countries	3.2	2.7	2.8	2.6	3.0	2.7	4.1	3.8	3.3	8.1
Total	20.2	20.2	20.3	18.0	19.4	22.2	25.6	23.6	22.6	37.5

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.1. **Inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

IRELAND

	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
United Kingdom	8.2	8.4	9.0	7.4	9.1	7.4	8.9	9.9	5.9	7.0
United States	2.5	2.5	3.7	2.7	2.1	2.3	2.1	1.7	2.8	2.0
Other countries	11.5	16.9	20.0	29.8	31.2	32.1	55.1	77.3	80.8	58.6
Total	22.2	27.8	32.7	39.9	42.4	41.8	66.1	88.9	89.5	67.6

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.1. **Inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

ITALY

	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
Morocco	24.9	24.7	17.8	26.1	..	24.6	11.5	12.7	29.8	..
Albania	37.2	31.2	27.9	39.1	..	29.6	17.1	16.1	29.3	..
Ukraine	2.6	4.1	5.1	8.1	..	11.2	6.8	5.4	23.2	..
Moldova	..	1.9	5.1	5.2	5.4	22.2	..
China	11.0	15.4	8.8	15.4	..	10.6	9.3	6.0	17.4	..
India	5.4	7.0	4.8	7.2	..	5.7	4.2	4.8	11.0	..
Bangladesh	3.2	6.6	..	4.7	..	3.5	2.5	2.9	9.8	..
Philippines	5.7	12.2	4.6	10.4	..	5.2	3.0	2.2	7.4	..
Sri Lanka	3.9	6.0	4.3	7.6	..	3.0	2.4	2.3	6.8	..
Brazil	3.5	3.7	4.3	6.9	..	8.0	7.1	5.8	6.5	..
Peru	4.8	4.7	..	7.7	..	4.4	2.7	2.8	6.1	..
Tunisia	5.8	6.8	6.5	8.0	..	6.0	4.3	3.3	5.9	..
Serbia and Montenegro	24.5	5.3	6.0	8.2	..	6.3	3.4	3.9	5.7	..
Macedonia	5.7	3.9	4.7	5.2	..	4.3	3.4	3.6	5.3	..
Ecuador	4.3	3.0	..	5.3	..	5.0	1.8	1.9	4.2	..
Other countries	125.7	135.0	137.7	228.2	..	187.0	122.3	102.5	61.8	..
Total	268.0	271.5	232.8	388.1	..	319.3	206.8	181.5	252.4	..

Note: Romanian citizens are not included from 2007 on. For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/885610023064>

Table B.1.1. **Inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

JAPAN

	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
China	59.1	75.3	86.4	88.6	92.2	90.3	105.8	112.5	125.3	134.2
Korea	23.1	24.3	24.7	22.9	21.9	22.8	22.7	24.7	28.1	30.0
United States	24.7	24.0	20.6	21.5	21.5	21.3	22.1	22.2	22.8	24.0
Philippines	57.3	74.2	84.9	87.2	93.4	96.2	63.5	28.3	25.3	21.0
Brazil	26.1	45.5	29.7	22.7	33.4	32.2	33.9	27.0	22.9	14.4
Viet Nam	3.2	3.8	4.7	5.3	6.6	6.5	7.7	8.5	9.9	12.5
Thailand	6.4	6.6	6.8	5.9	6.6	7.1	9.0	8.7	9.0	10.5
Indonesia	8.8	9.9	10.6	9.7	11.1	10.7	12.9	11.4	10.1	10.1
United Kingdom	7.0	7.0	6.7	6.6	6.6	6.3	6.3	6.6	5.8	6.0
India	4.9	5.8	5.7
Chinese Taipei	4.5	4.9	5.5
Germany	4.7	4.9	4.8
France	3.8	4.2	4.5
Russian Federation	4.3	6.4	6.3	6.6	7.7	7.1	6.2	5.0	4.2	4.5
Canada	3.6	3.3	3.6
Other countries	62.0	68.7	69.7	66.9	73.1	71.4	82.2	49.3	50.2	53.0
Total	281.9	345.8	351.2	343.8	373.9	372.0	372.3	325.6	336.6	344.5

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.


StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/885610023064>


Table B.1.1. **Inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

KOREA

	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
China	..	66.6	70.6	60.0	57.7	72.6	119.3	163.4	183.8	164.3
United States	..	14.7	16.2	19.0	17.1	17.7	18.8	19.4	21.1	24.8
Viet Nam	..	7.6	..	3.2	6.8	8.0	18.2	20.2	21.3	23.8
Indonesia	..	7.9	7.2	10.0	9.3	5.2	10.3	6.9	5.2	9.7
Uzbekistan	..	5.5	3.8	3.9	7.0	4.9	9.3
Philippines	..	13.4	7.8	8.1	10.2	10.2	16.7	17.9	12.3	9.2
Thailand	..	8.0	6.7	6.8	7.2	9.7	13.7	15.8	10.6	8.6
Mongolia	..	4.8	4.9	5.1	8.3	9.8	8.8	8.2
Canada	4.2	5.3	5.3	5.6	5.8	5.9	6.4	6.6
Japan	..	7.2	8.0	8.5	7.3	7.7	8.6	7.8	7.7	6.6
Sri Lanka	2.5	4.8
Cambodia	1.9	3.4
Nepal	0.8	2.4
India	2.8	2.4
Bangladesh	1.0	2.2
Other countries	..	49.6	43.2	45.9	50.4	47.0	46.7	47.6	26.3	25.2
Total	..	185.4	172.5	170.9	178.3	188.8	266.3	314.7	317.6	311.7

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/885610023064>Table B.1.1. **Inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

LUXEMBOURG

	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
Portugal	2.1	2.2	2.3	2.8	3.9	3.5	3.8	3.8	4.4	4.5
France	2.2	2.3	2.1	1.9	1.9	2.0	2.2	2.5	2.8	3.2
Germany	0.7	0.6	0.7	0.6	0.7	0.8	0.8	0.9	1.0	1.1
Belgium	1.3	1.3	1.5	1.3	1.1	1.0	1.0	0.9	0.9	1.0
Italy	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.8
United Kingdom	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.5
Poland	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.5
United States	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.1	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3
Netherlands	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.3
Romania	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.3	0.3
Spain	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2
Serbia and Montenegro	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.2
Brazil	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2
Cape Verde	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.2
Sweden	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2
Other countries	3.5	2.2	2.5	2.5	3.1	2.8	3.1	2.7	3.3	3.2
Total	11.8	10.8	11.1	11.0	12.6	12.2	13.8	13.7	15.8	16.8

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.


StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/885610023064>


Table B.1.1. **Inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

MEXICO

	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
United States	1.4	2.2
China	0.6	1.3
Colombia	0.3	1.1
Guatemala	0.1	1.0
Cuba	0.3	1.0
Argentina	0.5	0.9
Honduras	0.0	0.8
Venezuela	0.3	0.7
Spain	0.3	0.6
El Salvador	0.1	0.5
Peru	0.2	0.4
Canada	0.2	0.4
Korea	0.3	0.4
France	0.2	0.4
Italy	0.2	0.3
Other countries	1.9	3.3
Total	5.4	6.4	8.1	5.8	4.8	8.5	9.2	6.9	6.8	15.1

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/885610023064>Table B.1.1. **Inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

NETHERLANDS

	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
Poland	0.9	1.3	1.4	1.6	1.5	4.5	5.7	6.8	9.2	13.3
Germany	4.5	4.9	5.1	5.1	4.8	5.3	5.9	7.2	7.5	9.0
Bulgaria	..	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.5	4.9	5.2
United Kingdom	5.0	5.9	5.9	4.8	4.1	3.6	3.2	3.6	4.0	4.7
China	1.3	1.8	2.8	3.4	3.8	3.0	3.0	2.9	3.4	4.2
India	..	0.7	0.7	0.6	0.6	0.6	1.2	2.0	2.5	3.5
United States	3.3	3.4	3.1	3.0	2.5	2.3	2.5	3.1	3.2	3.4
Turkey	4.2	4.5	4.8	5.4	6.2	4.1	3.1	2.8	2.4	3.3
France	2.0	2.2	2.2	2.0	1.9	1.8	1.8	2.0	2.2	3.0
Italy	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.4	1.3	1.2	1.4	1.6	1.9	2.6
Romania	..	0.6	0.7	0.6	0.7	0.6	0.5	0.7	2.3	2.4
Portugal	..	1.2	1.4	1.5	1.4	1.2	1.0	1.4	1.8	2.4
Spain	1.2	1.3	1.4	1.4	1.3	1.3	1.3	1.4	1.5	2.3
Belgium	2.0	2.0	1.8	1.8	1.7	1.5	1.4	1.7	1.8	2.1
Hungary	..	0.5	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.6	0.6	0.6	1.0	1.7
Other countries	52.4	59.6	60.9	53.0	40.9	33.3	30.4	29.6	30.6	40.2
Total	78.4	91.4	94.5	86.6	73.6	65.1	63.4	67.7	80.3	103.4

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.


StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/885610023064>


Table B.1.1. **Inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

NORWAY

	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
Poland	0.3	0.2	0.4	0.7	0.6	1.6	3.3	7.4	14.2	14.4
Sweden	4.5	3.5	3.1	2.9	2.7	2.4	2.7	3.4	4.4	5.7
Germany	1.1	1.0	1.1	1.2	1.2	1.4	1.7	2.3	3.8	4.3
Lithuania	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.5	0.8	1.3	2.4	2.9
Philippines	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.8	1.1	1.6	1.8
Denmark	1.8	1.9	2.0	2.1	1.7	1.6	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.3
Thailand	0.4	0.5	0.6	0.9	0.9	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.2	1.3
United Kingdom	1.0	0.8	0.9	0.8	0.6	0.9	0.8	1.0	1.1	1.2
Somalia	1.2	1.5	1.1	2.2	1.7	1.2	1.1	1.2	1.6	1.2
Iraq	2.1	4.5	1.2	2.7	1.1	1.0	1.4	0.9	1.0	1.2
Russian Federation	0.8	0.9	0.9	1.4	1.8	1.7	1.4	1.1	1.5	1.2
Romania	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.6	1.1
India	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.6	1.0	1.1
United States	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.6	0.6	0.7	0.7	0.8	0.9
Netherlands	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.5	0.6	0.8	0.9	0.9
Other countries	17.4	11.0	11.9	13.5	12.3	12.3	12.7	12.9	16.0	18.3
Total	32.2	27.8	25.4	30.8	26.8	27.9	31.4	37.4	53.5	58.8

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/885610023064>Table B.1.1. **Inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

NEW ZEALAND

	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
United Kingdom	4.4	5.0	6.8	6.6	8.2	8.7	17.1	13.0	11.3	9.5
China	3.1	4.3	7.9	7.6	5.9	4.0	5.6	6.8	5.6	7.4
South Africa	3.5	3.5	4.8	3.3	2.4	2.4	4.5	3.6	4.0	4.7
Philippines	0.8	1.0	1.3	1.6	0.9	0.8	1.1	1.7	3.7	3.6
Fiji	1.8	2.2	3.6	2.3	2.5	2.3	2.6	2.7	2.8	3.2
India	2.7	4.3	7.4	8.2	4.8	3.1	3.5	3.7	3.9	3.2
Samoa	1.8	2.5	2.0	1.2	2.2	1.6	2.6	2.1	1.9	2.2
United States	0.8	0.8	1.0	1.0	1.1	1.0	2.1	1.6	1.3	1.2
Tonga	1.0	0.9	0.8	0.7	2.4	1.2	1.1	1.2	0.9	0.9
Korea	0.7	1.1	2.4	2.4	1.6	1.5	2.1	2.1	1.0	0.8
Malaysia	0.6	1.0	2.1	1.2	1.0	0.5	0.6	0.7	0.6	0.7
Germany	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.8	0.7	0.8	0.7
Sri Lanka	0.7	0.7	0.9	0.7	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.6
Zimbabwe	0.9	0.8	0.5
Cambodia	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.1	0.3	0.4
Other countries	8.2	9.4	12.3	10.0	9.0	8.1	9.9	8.5	7.5	7.4
Total	31.0	37.6	54.4	47.5	43.0	36.2	54.1	49.8	46.8	46.9

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.


StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/885610023064>


Table B.1.1. **Inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

POLAND

	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
Ukraine	2.6	3.4	4.8	6.9	8.4	10.2	9.8	9.6	9.4	10.3
Belarus	0.7	0.8	1.3	2.7	2.5	2.4	2.4	2.3	2.6	3.1
Germany	0.8	0.7	1.1	1.6	1.5	2.2	6.1	4.6	6.7	2.9
Viet Nam	1.5	1.2	1.1	1.2	1.3	2.2	1.9	1.7	1.8	2.8
Russian Federation	1.1	1.1	1.6	2.0	2.1	2.1	1.9	1.8	1.6	1.8
Armenia	0.6	0.7	0.6	0.7	1.0	2.0	1.5	1.3	1.4	1.6
United Kingdom	0.5	0.4	0.8	1.2	0.9	1.0	0.9	0.4	0.8	1.5
China	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.4	0.5	0.6	0.4	0.7	1.2
Korea	0.6	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.9	1.1
India	0.4	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.6	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	1.0
United States	0.8	0.5	0.7	1.2	1.0	1.0	0.8	0.9	0.9	1.0
Thailand	0.0	..	0.1	0.9
Turkey	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.6	0.6	0.5	0.6	0.7	0.7	0.9
Japan	0.2	0.1	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.8
Nigeria	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.6	0.6
Other countries	6.9	5.6	7.6	10.6	9.3	11.3	10.2	8.4	11.2	10.2
Total	17.3	15.9	21.5	30.2	30.3	36.9	38.5	34.2	40.6	41.8

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/885610023064>Table B.1.1. **Inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

PORTUGAL

	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
Romania	7.8	3.2	0.9	0.8	0.8	0.6	0.2	5.3
Cape Verde	1.0	2.1	9.1	5.9	3.4	3.1	3.5	3.3	4.1	3.5
Brazil	1.2	1.7	26.6	14.7	6.7	14.4	9.5	6.1	5.0	3.5
United Kingdom	0.7	0.8	0.9	1.0	0.9	1.2	1.0	0.8	3.9	2.7
Moldova	10.1	4.0	1.4	1.7	1.8	2.1	2.0	1.7
Guinea-Bissau	1.0	1.6	5.1	2.6	1.3	1.0	1.1	1.3	1.6	1.6
China	0.1	0.4	3.9	1.0	0.6	0.8	0.3	0.5	1.0	1.3
Spain	1.0	1.1	1.4	0.9	0.7	0.6	0.6	0.3	1.4	1.3
Ukraine	45.5	17.5	4.1	1.9	1.6	1.5	2.0	1.3
Germany	0.8	0.8	0.7	0.7	0.6	0.6	0.5	0.3	1.6	1.1
Italy	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.1	1.0	1.0
Bulgaria	1.8	1.3	0.6	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.1	0.9
Sao Tome and Principe	0.3	0.6	2.6	1.6	0.8	0.9	0.7	0.6	0.8	0.7
France	0.7	0.7	0.6	0.6	0.5	0.5	0.4	0.2	0.8	0.7
Angola	0.9	2.5	7.6	4.7	2.1	1.1	1.2	0.4	0.4	0.6
Other countries	2.5	3.3	27.4	11.8	6.7	4.9	4.7	4.0	6.7	5.2
Total	10.5	15.9	151.4	72.0	31.8	34.1	28.1	22.5	32.6	32.3

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/885610023064>


Table B.1.1. **Inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

SLOVAK REPUBLIC

	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
Romania	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.4	3.0	2.3
Ukraine	0.7	0.7	0.6	1.0	1.2	1.8
Czech Republic	0.6	1.6	1.1	1.3	1.2	1.4
Serbia	0.8	1.3
Viet Nam	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.5	0.6	1.3
Germany	0.3	0.6	0.9	0.9	0.9	1.1
Hungary	0.1	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.8	1.1
Korea	0.0	0.1	0.3	0.5	0.6	0.8
Poland	0.1	0.9	0.5	1.1	0.7	0.6
China	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.6	0.5	0.5
Bulgaria	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.8	0.5
United States	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3
Russian Federation	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.3
Austria	0.1	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.3
United Kingdom	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.3
Other countries	1.4	2.1	2.1	3.0	2.7	2.7
Total	5.9	4.6	4.7	4.8	4.6	7.9	7.7	11.3	14.8	16.5

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/885610023064>Table B.1.1. **Inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

SWEDEN

	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
Iraq	5.5	6.6	6.5	7.4	5.4	2.8	2.9	10.9	15.2	12.1
Poland	0.7	0.6	0.8	1.1	1.0	2.5	3.4	6.3	7.5	7.0
Denmark	1.3	2.0	2.5	3.2	3.6	3.8	4.0	5.1	5.1	4.1
Somalia	0.4	0.6	0.7	0.9	1.3	1.1	1.3	3.0	3.8	4.1
Germany	1.1	1.5	1.6	1.7	1.8	1.8	2.0	2.9	3.6	3.4
Thailand	0.7	0.8	0.9	1.2	2.0	2.1	2.1	2.3	2.5	3.1
China	0.8	0.9	1.0	1.2	1.4	1.5	1.7	2.0	2.4	2.7
Romania	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.3	2.6	2.5
Finland	3.4	3.6	3.4	3.3	3.2	2.8	2.9	2.6	2.6	2.4
Norway	2.0	2.9	3.0	3.5	3.2	2.6	2.4	2.5	2.4	2.3
Serbia	..	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.2	1.9	1.8
Iran	1.0	1.1	1.3	1.4	1.0	1.5	1.1	2.0	1.4	1.8
United Kingdom	1.0	1.3	1.4	1.4	1.2	1.2	1.1	1.5	1.5	1.7
India	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.6	0.8	0.8	1.1	1.0	1.1	1.5
Pakistan	..	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.5	0.7	0.9	1.2	1.5
Other countries	16.1	19.4	19.6	20.1	20.7	21.5	23.6	35.2	27.7	30.0
Total	34.6	42.2	43.8	47.3	47.1	46.7	50.6	78.9	82.6	82.0

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.


StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/885610023064>


Table B.1.1. **Inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

TURKEY

	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
Bulgaria	61.4	61.7	58.7	54.9	48.2	44.9	53.7	51.7	16.5	26.2
Azerbaijan	8.0	10.6	10.0	9.9	9.5	10.5	10.5	12.3	9.6	15.9
Russian Federation	5.2	6.9	6.2	6.5	6.1	6.3	6.4	7.8	10.9	11.4
Germany	5.1	5.3	5.4	5.9	6.3	7.1	8.4	9.8	9.9	9.9
Iraq	5.4	5.5	5.5	4.3	4.5	4.6	6.1	7.0	8.5	8.9
United Kingdom	3.2	3.3	3.2	2.9	3.8	4.8	6.4	7.8	8.3	8.3
Afghanistan	3.6	3.5	3.4	3.4	3.9	4.0	3.6	5.7	6.6	6.6
Kazakhstan	2.6	3.7	3.5	3.2	3.4	3.8	3.9	4.2	3.4	6.2
United States	6.2	6.4	5.5	5.8	5.8	5.6	6.1	6.6	6.0	6.0
Greece	7.7	7.3	6.6	6.5	6.6	6.6	5.9	6.3	5.2	5.4
Iran	6.0	6.1	6.6	5.7	5.3	5.7	6.0	6.1	5.4	5.4
Ukraine	2.1	2.3	2.3	2.2	2.3	2.6	3.4	4.3	4.4	4.4
China	1.0	1.1	1.1	1.3	1.5	1.9	2.1	2.7	3.6	3.8
Turkmenistan	2.4	2.5	2.2	1.8	1.6	1.8	2.1	2.6	3.4	3.6
Moldova	0.9	0.9	0.9	0.9	1.1	1.6	3.1	5.5	3.4	3.4
Other countries	33.7	35.2	33.7	36.5	37.4	36.1	41.9	50.6	69.7	49.5
Total	154.3	162.3	154.9	151.8	147.2	148.0	169.7	191.0	174.9	175.0

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.


StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/885610023064>Table B.1.1. **Inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

UNITED STATES

	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
Mexico	147.4	173.5	205.6	218.8	115.6	175.4	161.4	173.8	148.6	190.0
China	32.2	45.6	56.3	61.1	40.6	55.5	70.0	87.3	76.7	80.3
India	30.2	41.9	70.0	70.8	50.2	70.2	84.7	61.4	65.4	63.4
Philippines	30.9	42.3	52.9	51.0	45.3	57.8	60.7	74.6	72.6	54.0
Cuba	14.0	19.0	27.5	28.2	9.3	20.5	36.3	45.6	29.1	49.5
Dominican Republic	17.8	17.5	21.2	22.5	26.2	30.5	27.5	38.1	28.0	31.9
Viet Nam	20.3	26.6	35.4	33.6	22.1	31.5	32.8	30.7	28.7	31.5
Colombia	9.9	14.4	16.6	18.8	14.7	18.8	25.6	43.2	33.2	30.2
Korea	12.8	15.7	20.5	20.7	12.4	19.8	26.6	24.4	22.4	26.7
Haiti	16.5	22.3	27.0	20.2	12.3	14.2	14.5	22.2	30.4	26.0
Pakistan	13.5	14.5	16.4	13.7	9.4	12.1	14.9	17.4	13.5	19.7
El Salvador	14.6	22.5	31.1	31.1	28.2	29.8	21.4	31.8	21.1	19.7
Jamaica	14.7	15.9	15.3	14.8	13.3	14.4	18.3	25.0	19.4	18.5
Guatemala	7.3	9.9	13.5	16.2	14.4	18.9	16.8	24.1	17.9	16.2
Peru	8.4	9.6	11.1	11.9	9.4	11.8	15.7	21.7	17.7	15.2
Other countries	254.3	349.7	438.5	425.9	280.2	376.6	495.2	545.0	427.8	434.5
Total	644.8	841.0	1 058.9	1 059.4	703.5	957.9	1 122.4	1 266.3	1 052.4	1 107.1

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/885610023064>

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	
AUT	Austria	<i>Criteria for registering foreigners:</i> holding a residence permit and actually staying in the country for at least 3 months.	Until 2001, data are from local population registers. Starting in 2002, they are from the central population register.	Statistics Austria.
BEL	Belgium	<i>Criteria for registering foreigners:</i> holding a residence permit and intending to stay in the country for at least 3 months.	Asylum seekers were regrouped under a fictive category "Refugees". From 1 January 2008 on, they are classified as any other migrant. This may explain some artificial increase for some nationalities.	Population Register, Directorate for Statistics and Economic Information.
CHE	Switzerland	<i>Criteria for registering foreigners:</i> holding a permanent or an annual residence permit. Holders of an L-permit (short duration) are also included if their stay in the country is longer than 12 months. Data for 2006 refers to Serbia and not to Serbia and Montenegro.		Register of foreigners, Federal Office of Migration.
CZE	Czech Republic	<i>Criteria for registering migrants:</i> foreigners with a permanent or a long-term residence permit or asylum granted in the given year. Since the beginning of 2008 the Czech Statistical Office (Department of Demography) has used the Population Information System of the Ministry of the Interior, as a source of migration data.	Until 2000, data include only holders of a permanent residence permit. From 2001 on, data also include refugees and long-term residence permit holders whose stay exceeds a year.	Czech Statistical Office.
DEU	Germany	<i>Criteria for registering foreigners:</i> 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. In 2008 and 2009, local authorities cleaned up their registers and, therefore, reported higher emigration figures for these two years	Central Population register, Federal Statistical Office.
DNK	Denmark	<i>Criteria for registering foreigners:</i> holding a residence permit and intending to stay in the country for at least 3 months. However, the data presented in the tables count immigrants who live legally in Denmark, are registered in the Central population register, and have been living in the country for at least one year. From 2006 Statistics Denmark started using a new calculation on the underlying demographic data. The data from 2006 are therefore not comparable with earlier years.	Asylum seekers and all those with temporary residence permits are excluded from the data.	Central population register, Statistics Denmark.
ESP	Spain	<i>Criteria for registering foreigners:</i> Residing in the municipality. Data refer to country of origin and not to country of birth.	Statistics on changes of residence (EVR).	Local register (Padron municipal de habitantes), National Statistical Institute (INE).
FIN	Finland	<i>Criteria for registering foreigners:</i> holding a residence permit, intending to stay in the country for at least 1 year.	Foreign persons of Finnish origin are included.	Central population register, Statistics Finland.
HUN	Hungary	<i>Criteria for registering foreigners:</i> holding a long-term residence permit (valid for up to 1 year).	Data include foreigners who have been residing in the country for at least a year and who currently hold a long-term permit. Data are presented by actual year of entry (whatever the type of permit when entering the country). Outflow data do not include people whose permit has expired.	Register of long-term residence permits, Ministry of the Interior and Central Statistical Office.
JPN	Japan	<i>Criteria for registering foreigners:</i> holding a valid visa and intending to remain in the country for more than 90 days.	Excluding temporary visitors and re-entries.	Register of foreigners, Ministry of Justice, Immigration Bureau.

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 Population Registers				
	Country	Types of migrant recorded in the data	Other comments	Source
LUX	Luxembourg	<i>Criteria for registering foreigners:</i> 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).
NLD	Netherlands	<i>Criteria for registering foreigners:</i> holding a residence permit and intending to stay in the country for at least 4 of the next 6 months. Outflows exclude administrative corrections.	Inflows include some asylum seekers (except those staying in reception centres).	Population register, Central Bureau of Statistics.
NOR	Norway	<i>Criteria for registering foreigners:</i> holding a residence or work permit and intending to stay in the country for at least 6 months.	Asylum seekers are registered as immigrants only after having settled in a Norwegian municipality following a positive outcome of their application. An asylum seeker whose application has been rejected will not be registered as an "immigrant", even if the application process has taken a long time and the return to the home country is delayed for a significant period. In 1999, inflow data include refugees from Kosovo who received temporary protection in Norway.	Central population register, Statistics Norway.
SVK	Slovak Republic	Data from 1993 to 2002 refer to newly granted long term and permanent residence permits. In accordance with the 2002 law, data include permanent residence, temporary residence, and tolerated residence.		Register of foreigners, Statistical Office of the Slovak Republic.
SWE	Sweden	<i>Criteria for registering foreigners:</i> 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.

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	
AUS	Australia	<p>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.</p> <p>Permanent departures are persons who on departure state that they do not intend to return to Australia.</p> <p>B. Temporary residents: entries of temporary residents (<i>i.e.</i> excluding students). Includes short and long-term temporary entrants, <i>e.g.</i>, top managers, executives, specialist and technical workers, diplomats and other personnel of foreign governments, temporary business entry, working holiday makers and entertainers.</p> <p>Long-term departures include persons departing for a temporary stay of more than twelve months.</p>	<p>Data refer to the fiscal year (July to June of the year indicated) from 1992 on. From 1996 on, inflow data include those persons granted permanent residence while already temporary residents in Australia.</p> <p>Data refer to the fiscal year (July to June of the year indicated).</p>	Department of Immigration and Citizenship
CAN	Canada	<p><i>Permanent:</i> Inflows of persons who have acquired permanent resident status.</p> <p><i>Temporary:</i> Inflows (first entries) of people who are lawfully in Canada on a temporary basis under the authority of a temporary resident permit. Temporary residents include foreign workers (including seasonal workers), foreign students, refugee claimants, people allowed to remain temporarily in Canada on humanitarian grounds and other individuals entering Canada on a temporary basis who are not under the authority of a work or a student permit and who are not seeking protection.</p>	<p>All data on inflows of permanent residents includes people who were granted permanent residence from abroad and also those who have acquired this status while already present in Canada on a temporary basis. Table B.1.1 presents the inflow of persons who have acquired permanent resident status only. Country of origin refers to country of last permanent residence.</p>	<p>Citizenship and Immigration Canada</p> <p>Facts and figures: Immigration overview (Permanent and temporary residents), Citizenship and Immigration Canada</p>
FRA	France	<p>The "permanent" entries are indeed the first statistical registration as a permanent migrant of people coming from abroad, regularised or who changed status from temporary migrant. Data include permanent workers (salaried or self-employed), family members, refugees and some other cases.</p>		French Office for Immigration and Integration, Ministry of Immigration, Integration, National Identity and Mutual Development, OFPRA.
GBR	United Kingdom	<p><i>Inflows:</i> Non-British citizens admitted to the United Kingdom. Data in Table A.1.1 are adjusted to include short term migrants (including asylum seekers) who actually stayed longer than one year and have recently been revised to take into account changes in weightings. Data by nationality (Table B.1.1.) on inflows are not adjusted. 2002, 2004 and 2006 data by nationality are 2001-2002, 2003-2004 and 2005-2006 combined inflows, respectively. Figures are shown when standard errors are lower than 30%. For this reason, data by nationality are ranked on 2006-2007 values and not on 2008.</p> <p><i>Outflows:</i> Non-British citizens leaving the territory of the United Kingdom.</p>		<i>International Passenger Survey</i> , Office for National Statistics. Data by nationality are provided by Eurostat.

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	
GRC	Greece	Issues of residence permits.	Excluding ethnic Greeks.	Ministry of Public Order.
IRL	Ireland	Figures are derived from the CSO series of Annual Labour Force Surveys over the period from 1987 to 1996 and the QNHS series from 1997 on. The estimates relate to those persons resident in the country at the time of the survey and who were living abroad at a point in time twelve months earlier. Data for EU refer to EU25. Major revision applied to inflows data since 2003.		Central Statistical Office.
ITA	Italy	Issues of residence permits, including short-term ones (excluding renewals) which are still valid at the end of the year. Excluding seasonal workers and EU nationals.	New entries were 130 745 in 1999 and 155 264 in 2000. Other permits are first-time permits issued to foreigners who had applied for regularisation in 1998.	Ministry of the Interior.
KOR	Korea	Data refer to long-term inflows/outflows (more than 90 days).		Ministry of Justice.
MEX	Mexico	<i>Inflows</i> : Number of foreigners who are issued an immigrant permit for the first time. <i>Outflows</i> : Data refer to <i>immigrantes</i> .	Data by country of origin became available in 2007. 2008 figures are estimated.	National Statistical Office (INM).
NZL	New Zealand	<i>Inflows</i> : Residence approvals. <i>Outflows</i> : 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.
POL	Poland	Number of permanent and "fixed-time" residence permits issued. Since 26 August 2006, nationals of European Union member states and their family members are no longer issued residence permits in Poland. However, they still need to register their stay in Poland, provided that they are planning to stay in Poland for more than three months.	For 2007, data include registrations of nationals of European Union member states for the period August 2006 to December 2007.	Office for repatriation and Aliens.
PRT	Portugal	Databased on residence permits. 2001 to 2004 figures include foreigners that entered the country with Long Term Visas (Temporary Stay, Study and Work) issued in each year and also foreigners with Stay Permits which were yearly delivered under the 2001 programme of regularisation (126 901 in 2001, 47 657 in 2002, 9 097 in 2003 and 178 in 2004). In 2005, inflows include residence permits and long term visas issued over the year. Since 2006 figures include long term visas for non-EU 25 citizens and new residence titles attributed to EU 25 citizens (who do not need a visa).		SEF, National Statistical Office (INE) and Ministry of Foreign Affairs.
TUR	Turkey	Residence permits issued for a duration of residence longer than one month.		General Directorate of Security, Ministry of Interior.
USA	United States	<i>Permanent inflows</i> : Issues of permanent residence permits. <i>Temporary inflows</i> : Data refer to non-immigrant visas issued, excluding visitors and transit passengers (B and C visas) and crewmembers (D visas). Includes family members.	The figures include those persons already present in the United States, that is, those who changed status and those benefiting from the 1986 legalisation program. Data cover the fiscal year (October to September of the year indicated).	US Department of Homeland Security. United States Department of State. Bureau of Consular Affairs.

Inflows of asylum seekers

The statistics on asylum seekers published in this annex are based on data provided by the United Nations High Commission for Refugees. Since 1950, the UNHCR, which has a mission of conducting and co-ordinating international initiatives on behalf of refugees, has regularly produced complete statistics on refugees and asylum seekers in OECD countries and other countries of the world (www.unhcr.org/statistics).

These statistics are most often derived from administrative sources, but there are differences depending on the nature of the data provided. In some countries, asylum seekers are enumerated when the application is accepted. Consequently, they are shown in the statistics at that time rather than at the date when they arrived in the country. Acceptance of the application means that the administrative authorities will review the applicants' claims and grant them certain rights during this review procedure. In other countries, the data do not include the applicants' family members, who are admitted under different provisions (France), while other countries count the entire family (Switzerland).

The figures presented in the summary table (Table A.1.3) generally concern initial applications (primary processing stage) and sometimes differ significantly from the totals presented in Tables B.1.3, which give data by country of origin. This is because the data received by the UNHCR by country of origin combine both initial applications and appeals, and it is sometimes difficult to separate these two categories retrospectively. The reference for total asylum applications remains the figures shown in summary table A.1.3.

Table A.1.3. **Inflows of asylum seekers into OECD countries***

	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009**
AUS Australia	9 495	13 064	12 366	5 859	4 295	3 201	3 204	3 515	3 980	4 771	6 170
AUT Austria	20 097	18 285	30 127	39 358	32 359	24 634	22 461	13 349	11 921	12 841	15 830
BEL Belgium	35 778	42 691	24 549	18 805	16 940	15 357	15 957	11 587	11 114	12 252	17 190
BGR Bulgaria	1 331	1 755	2 428	2 888	1 549	1 127	822	639	975	750	850
CAN Canada	29 392	34 252	44 038	39 498	31 937	25 750	20 786	22 868	27 865	34 800	33 250
CHE Switzerland	46 068	17 611	20 633	26 125	20 806	14 248	10 061	10 537	10 387	16 606	14 490
CZE Czech Republic	7 220	8 788	18 094	8 483	11 396	5 459	4 160	3 016	1 879	1 711	1 260
DEU Germany	95 113	78 564	88 287	71 127	50 563	35 613	28 914	21 029	19 164	22 085	27 650
DNK Denmark	7 092	13 005	10 269	6 068	4 593	3 235	2 260	1 918	1 852	2 360	3 750
ESP Spain	8 405	7 926	9 489	6 309	5 918	5 535	5 254	5 297	7 662	4 517	3 000
EST Estonia	21	3	12	9	14	14	11	7	14	10	40
FIN Finland	3 106	3 170	1 651	3 443	3 221	3 861	3 574	2 324	1 505	4 016	5 910
FRA France	30 907	39 775	47 291	51 087	59 768	58 545	49 733	30 748	29 387	35 404	41 980
GBR United Kingdom	71 105	80 300	71 010	103 110	60 040	40 620	30 815	28 335	27 880	31 315	29 840
GRC Greece	1 528	3 083	5 499	5 664	8 178	4 469	9 050	12 267	25 113	19 884	15 930
HUN Hungary	11 499	7 801	9 554	6 412	2 401	1 600	1 609	2 117	3 424	3 118	4 670
IRL Ireland	7 724	10 938	10 323	11 631	7 900	4 765	4 325	4 315	3 985	3 866	2 690
ISL Iceland	17	24	52	117	80	76	88	39	42	80	40
ITA Italy	33 364	15 564	9 620	16 015	13 455	9 722	9 548	10 348	14 057	30 324	17 600
JPN Japan	223	216	353	250	336	426	384	954	816	1 599	1 380
KOR Korea	4	43	39	37	86	145	412	278	717	364	..
LTU Lithuania	133	199	256	294	183	167	118	139	125	220	210
LUX Luxembourg	2 912	628	686	1 043	1 550	1 578	802	523	426	463	510
LVA Latvia	19	4	14	30	5	7	20	8	34	50	50
NLD Netherlands	42 733	43 895	32 579	18 667	13 402	9 782	12 347	14 465	7 102	13 399	14 910
NOR Norway	10 160	10 842	14 782	17 480	15 959	7 945	5 402	5 320	6 528	14 431	17 230
NZL New Zealand	1 528	1 551	1 601	997	841	579	348	276	245	254	340
POL Poland	2 955	4 589	4 506	5 153	6 921	8 080	6 860	4 430	7 205	7 203	10 590
PRT Portugal	307	223	232	245	88	113	114	128	224	161	140
ROU Romania	1 670	1 366	2 431	1 151	1 077	662	594	460	659	1 170	830
SVK Slovak Republic	1 320	1 556	8 151	9 700	10 358	11 391	3 549	2 871	2 643	910	820
SWE Sweden	11 231	16 303	23 515	33 016	31 348	23 161	17 530	24 322	36 373	24 353	24 190
TUR Turkey	6 606	5 685	5 041	3 795	3 952	3 908	3 921	4 553	7 646	12 981	7 830
USA United States	32 711	40 867	59 432	58 404	43 338	44 972	39 240	41 101	40 449	39 362	38 968
EU25, Norway and Switzerland	450 797	425 743	441 129	459 274	377 366	289 901	244 474	209 400	230 004	261 499	270 480
North America	62 103	75 119	103 470	97 902	75 275	70 722	60 026	63 969	68 314	74 162	72 218
OECD	530 600	521 239	563 769	567 898	462 029	368 770	312 708	282 830	311 591	355 430	358 158

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the Tables B.1.3.

* OECD countries covered by the UNHCR plus Bulgaria, Romania and the Baltic States.

** Preliminary data.

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Table B.1.3. Inflows of asylum seekers by nationality
AUSTRALIA

	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
China	958	1 215	1 176	1 083	800	822	966	1 033	1 207	1 232
Sri Lanka	424	451	397	219	166	125	317	324	445	422
India	449	770	650	549	604	242	173	316	349	373
Indonesia	1 239	831	897	619	230	164	166	296	183	238
Malaysia	370	264	261	232	184	210	170	109	145	238
Pakistan	131	207	132	86	63	61	103	90	145	220
Zimbabwe	0	32	36	44	37	27	22	43	94	215
Iraq	919	2 165	1 784	148	142	66	80	188	216	199
Iran	211	589	559	57	75	71	101	77	84	161
Korea	281	172	256	337	221	109	78	94	79	136
Bangladesh	207	226	261	144	124	130	61	57	66	131
Myanmar	108	114	73	28	16	22	29	29	53	98
Egypt	42	99	59	50	61	72	65	48	41	96
Lebanon	72	168	191	108	90	57	56	65	75	91
Fiji	155	658	799	369	165	84	52	34	70	81
Other countries	3 929	5 103	4 835	1 786	1 317	939	765	712	728	840
Total	9 495	13 064	12 366	5 859	4 295	3 201	3 204	3 515	3 980	4 771

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.


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Table B.1.3. Inflows of asylum seekers by nationality
AUSTRIA

	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
Russian Federation	120	291	366	2 221	6 709	6 172	4 355	2 441	2 676	3 435
Afghanistan	2 206	4 205	12 955	6 651	2 357	757	923	699	761	1 382
Serbia	6 834	1 486	1 637	4 723	2 526	2 835	4 403	2 515	1 760	810
Nigeria	270	390	1 047	1 432	1 849	1 828	880	421	394	535
Georgia	33	34	597	1 921	1 525	1 731	954	564	400	511
Iraq	2 001	2 361	2 118	4 466	1 446	232	221	380	472	490
Turkey	335	592	1 868	3 561	2 854	1 114	1 064	668	659	417
Somalia	121	187	326	221	191	45	89	183	467	411
Armenia	180	165	1 235	2 038	1 098	414	516	350	405	360
India	874	2 441	1 802	3 366	2 822	1 839	1 530	479	385	355
Iran	3 343	2 559	734	760	979	343	306	274	248	250
Moldova	43	106	166	819	1 178	1 346	1 210	902	545	225
China	64	91	154	779	661	663	492	212	223	223
FYR of Macedonia	51	21	947	786	415	323	452	193	157	205
Mongolia	2	23	43	143	140	511	640	541	297	175
Other countries	3 620	3 333	4 132	5 471	5 609	4 481	4 426	2 527	2 072	3 057
Total	20 097	18 285	30 127	39 358	32 359	24 634	22 461	13 349	11 921	12 841

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.


StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/885634188107>

Table B.1.3. **Inflows of asylum seekers by nationality**
BELGIUM

	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
Russian Federation	1 376	3 604	2 424	1 156	1 680	1 361	1 438	1 582	1 436	1 620
Iraq	293	569	368	461	282	388	903	695	825	1 070
Serbia	13 067	4 921	1 932	1 523	1 280	1 294	1 203	778	1 219	1 050
Afghanistan	401	861	504	326	329	287	253	365	696	879
Guinea	342	488	494	515	354	565	643	413	526	661
Iran	165	3 183	1 164	743	1 153	512	497	631	411	614
Democratic Republic of the Congo	1 402	1 421	1 371	1 789	1 778	1 471	1 272	843	716	579
Armenia	1 472	1 331	571	340	316	477	706	381	339	461
Cameroon	267	417	324	435	625	506	530	335	279	367
Turkey	518	838	900	970	618	561	453	380	250	284
Syria	114	292	230	199	210	182	228	167	199	281
Rwanda	1 007	866	617	487	450	427	565	370	321	273
Slovak Republic	1 175	1 392	898	635	390	730	773	126	364	239
Georgia	887	1 227	481	313	302	211	256	232	156	222
Algeria	351	807	1 709	936	400	357	245	180	176	206
Other countries	12 941	20 474	10 562	7 977	6 773	6 028	5 992	4 109	3 201	3 446
Total	35 778	42 691	24 549	18 805	16 940	15 357	15 957	11 587	11 114	12 252

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.


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Table B.1.3. **Inflows of asylum seekers by nationality**
CANADA

	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
Mexico	1 172	1 310	1 669	2 397	2 560	2 918	3 541	4 948	7 028	8 069
Haiti	295	354	237	256	195	175	378	759	3 741	4 936
Colombia	622	1 063	1 831	2 718	2 131	3 664	1 487	1 361	2 632	3 132
China	2 443	1 855	2 413	2 862	1 848	1 982	1 821	1 645	1 456	1 711
Sri Lanka	2 915	2 822	3 001	1 801	1 270	1 141	934	907	808	1 008
United States	45	98	92	213	317	240	228	389	949	969
Czech Republic	92	62	47	30	20	17	11	0	79	859
Nigeria	583	800	790	828	637	589	591	685	759	766
El Salvador	300	269	561	305	190	194	180	244	289	587
India	1 346	1 360	1 300	1 313	1 125	1 083	844	764	554	561
Somalia	531	753	799	388	348	408	285	206	231	505
Saint Vincent and the Grenadines	63	96	178	459	402	322	418	375	355	498
Afghanistan	511	488	463	204	151	152	264	268	308	488
Honduras	339	180	213	274	204	268	195	176	203	473
Democratic Republic of the Congo	880	985	1 245	649	435	394	330	417	356	425
Other countries	17 255	21 757	29 199	24 801	20 104	12 203	9 279	9 724	8 117	9 813
Total	29 392	34 252	44 038	39 498	31 937	25 750	20 786	22 868	27 865	34 800

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/885634188107>

Table B.1.3. **Inflows of asylum seekers by nationality**
SWITZERLAND

	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
Eritrea	137	82	68	203	235	180	159	1 201	1 662	2 849
Somalia	517	470	369	387	471	592	485	273	395	2 014
Iraq	1 658	908	1 201	1 182	1 444	631	468	816	935	1 440
Serbia	953	1 301
Sri Lanka	1 487	898	684	459	340	251	233	328	618	1 262
Nigeria	116	226	289	1 062	480	418	219	209	310	988
Turkey	1 453	1 431	1 960	1 940	1 652	1 154	723	693	621	519
Georgia	323	179	273	687	756	731	397	287	199	481
Afghanistan	363	433	530	237	218	207	238	233	307	405
Iran	206	728	336	286	262	200	291	302	232	393
Syria	167	156	148	221	175	127	116	161	290	388
China	123	64	161	394	228	70	87	475	251	272
Democratic Republic of Congo	523	540	602	746	521	345	262	160	157	246
Guinea	388	455	679	751	652	412	211	74	102	239
Algeria	491	477	828	1 020	836	480	186	161	132	236
Other countries	38 116	10 564	12 505	16 550	12 536	8 450	5 986	5 164	3 223	3 573
Total	46 068	17 611	20 633	26 125	20 806	14 248	10 061	10 537	10 387	16 606

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.


StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/885634188107>

Table B.1.3. **Inflows of asylum seekers by nationality**
CZECH REPUBLIC

	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
Ukraine	94	1 145	4 419	1 676	2 044	1 600	1 020	571	293	323
Turkey	109	90	58	31	11	31	33	66	213	253
Mongolia	5	67	134	79	81	123	119	95	160	193
Viet Nam	34	586	1 525	891	566	385	217	124	100	109
Russian Federation	245	623	642	629	4 853	1 498	278	171	99	85
Belarus	44	193	438	312	281	226	244	174	130	81
Kazakhstan	23	103	133	66	47	44	34	236	30	80
Georgia	10	103	1 290	678	319	201	54	43	45	39
Nigeria	68	28	40	34	37	50	83	96	69	39
Afghanistan	2 312	1 121	356	27	50	15	7	1	20	36
Syria	102	21	25	13	6	4	22	20	31	36
Kyrgyzstan	6	52	50	59	80	138	35	85	63	36
China	203	259	317	511	854	324	288	114	38	34
Armenia	34	274	1 019	452	49	75	56	51	37	33
Serbia	622	165	111	36	20	3	4	0	49	31
Other countries	3 309	3 958	7 537	2 989	2 098	742	1 666	1 169	502	303
Total	7 220	8 788	18 094	8 483	11 396	5 459	4 160	3 016	1 879	1 711

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.


StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/885634188107>

Table B.1.3. **Inflows of asylum seekers by nationality**
DENMARK

	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
Iraq	1 902	2 605	2 099	1 045	442	217	264	507	695	543
Afghanistan	534	3 732	3 749	1 186	664	285	173	122	138	418
Iran	184	389	263	178	158	140	123	89	106	196
Russian Federation	74	245	123	198	269	163	119	61	114	183
Serbia	90	118
Syria	38	55	62	31	56	56	46	55	71	105
Palestinian administrative areas	..	266	184	167	153	148	..	68	53	91
Somalia	498	747	566	391	370	154	80	57	35	58
Sri Lanka	102	93	67	38	21	18	22	31	42	53
Turkey	34	68	67	111	108	84	47	39	23	39
Algeria	18	22	19	97	62	50	45	15	16	38
India	93	100	67	96	52	39	72	83	56	37
Nigeria	22	19	25	62	61	89	55	52	22	29
Bosnia and Herzegovina	165	731	1 003	186	231	102	50	39	41	26
Georgia	48	149	34	44	29	32	10	16	6	25
Other countries	3 380	3 784	1 941	2 238	1 917	1 658	1 154	684	344	401
Total	7 092	13 005	10 269	6 068	4 593	3 235	2 260	1 918	1 852	2 360

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.


StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/885634188107>

Table B.1.3. **Inflows of asylum seekers by nationality**
GERMANY

	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
Iraq	8 662	11 601	17 167	10 242	3 850	1 293	1 983	2 117	4 327	6 836
Serbia	1 996	1 608
Turkey	9 065	8 968	10 869	9 575	6 301	4 148	2 958	1 949	1 437	1 408
Viet Nam	2 425	2 332	3 721	2 340	2 096	1 668	1 222	990	987	1 042
Iran	3 407	4 878	3 455	2 642	2 049	1 369	929	611	631	815
Russian Federation	2 094	2 763	4 523	4 058	3 383	2 757	1 719	1 040	772	792
Syria	2 156	2 641	2 232	1 829	1 192	768	933	609	634	775
Afghanistan	4 458	5 380	5 837	2 772	1 473	918	711	531	338	657
Nigeria	305	420	526	987	1 051	1 130	608	481	503	561
Lebanon	598	757	671	779	637	344	588	601	592	525
India	1 499	1 826	2 651	2 246	1 736	1 118	557	512	413	485
Sri Lanka	1 254	1 170	622	434	278	217	220	170	375	468
Algeria	1 473	1 379	1 986	1 743	1 139	746	433	369	380	449
Azerbaijan	2 628	1 418	1 645	1 689	1 291	1 363	848	483	274	360
Pakistan	1 727	1 506	1 180	1 084	1 122	1 062	551	464	301	320
Other countries	53 362	31 525	31 202	28 707	22 965	16 712	14 654	10 102	5 204	4 984
Total	95 113	78 564	88 287	71 127	50 563	35 613	28 914	21 029	19 164	22 085

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/885634188107>

Table B.1.3. **Inflows of asylum seekers by nationality**
SPAIN

	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
Nigeria	187	843	1 350	1 440	1 688	1 029	726	632	680	808
Colombia	601	1 361	2 532	1 105	577	760	1 655	2 239	2 497	752
Côte d'Ivoire	8	13	11	45	241	110	162	236	335	500
Somalia	28	78	38	41	128	13	24	10	154	195
Algeria	1 342	326	231	350	682	991	406	230	247	152
Sudan	49	22	31	39	21	36	83	94	90	123
Morocco	246	36	23	41	30	20	55	281	263	121
Cuba	280	801	2 371	1 179	125	79	78	59	83	119
Democratic Republic of the Congo	161	90	118	175	274	203	170	102	141	105
Guinea	12	23	30	46	171	228	173	23	91	98
Syria	30	29	18	9	7	39	35	15	31	97
Cameroon	14	16	10	24	178	72	99	83	57	71
Russian Federation	335	394	350	172	153	84	138	110	88	66
Iran	73	79	30	18	21	34	23	20	27	64
Sri Lanka	8	8	39	11	7	14	8	8	32	62
Other countries	5 031	3 807	2 307	1 614	1 615	1 823	1 419	1 155	2 846	1 184
Total	8 405	7 926	9 489	6 309	5 918	5 535	5 254	5 297	7 662	4 517

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.


StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/885634188107>

Table B.1.3. **Inflows of asylum seekers by nationality**
FINLAND

	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
Iraq	97	62	103	115	150	123	289	225	327	1 253
Somalia	73	28	18	54	91	253	321	92	82	1 176
Afghanistan	24	31	25	27	51	166	237	97	96	249
Russian Federation	189	289	289	272	288	215	233	176	172	208
Serbia	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	68	139	170
Iran	50	50	56	41	47	99	79	91	79	143
Bulgaria	3	13	0	287	287	238	570	463	13	82
Nigeria	4	12	8	28	77	92	73	64	41	76
Belarus	10	37	55	39	46	58	57	97	48	68
Turkey	115	76	94	197	185	140	97	41	73	65
Sri Lanka	24	22	28	9	14	11	15	32	18	36
Democratic Republic of the Congo	5	27	23	53	38	48	37	38	36	31
Algeria	15	18	38	38	38	31	33	25	24	27
Ghana	4	8	2	5	15	3	11	6	9	27
Syria	19	8	8	6	39	15	11	17	8	24
Other countries	2 474	2 489	904	2 272	1 855	2 369	1 511	792	340	381
Total	3 106	3 170	1 651	3 443	3 221	3 861	3 574	2 324	1 505	4 016

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/885634188107>

Table B.1.3. **Inflows of asylum seekers by nationality**
FRANCE

	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
Russian Federation	469	787	1 783	1 741	3 347	3 331	3 080	2 313	3 265	3 595
Serbia	2 480	2 053	1 591	1 629	2 704	3 812	3 997	3 047	3 068	3 140
Mali	1 661	2 945	2 940	2 413	1 241	859	568	153	607	2 670
Democratic Republic of the Congo	2 272	2 950	3 781	5 260	5 093	3 848	3 022	2 283	2 154	2 543
Sri Lanka	2 001	2 117	2 000	1 992	2 129	2 246	2 071	2 145	2 159	2 322
Turkey	2 219	3 735	5 347	6 582	7 192	4 741	3 867	2 758	2 234	2 198
Armenia	272	405	544	963	1 106	1 292	1 642	1 684	1 929	2 075
Guinea	313	544	745	753	808	1 020	1 147	859	981	1 270
Bangladesh	879	1 054	825	668	956	959	860	607	960	1 249
Comoros	16	16	445	60	44	53	193	62	63	1 105
Algeria	1 306	1 818	2 933	2 865	2 794	4 209	2 018	1 127	967	978
Haiti	503	1 886	2 713	1 904	1 488	3 133	5 060	1 844	677	930
China	5 174	4 968	2 948	2 869	5 330	4 196	2 590	1 214	1 286	821
Congo	1 158	1 592	1 943	2 266	1 952	1 489	1 172	827	901	804
Mauritania	786	1 385	2 332	2 998	2 380	1 540	1 067	548	432	719
Other countries	9 398	11 520	14 421	16 124	21 204	21 817	17 379	9 277	7 704	8 985
Total	30 907	39 775	47 291	51 087	59 768	58 545	49 733	30 748	29 387	35 404

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.


StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/885634188107>

Table B.1.3. **Inflows of asylum seekers by nationality**
UNITED KINGDOM

	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
Zimbabwe	230	1 010	2 140	8 695	4 020	2 520	1 390	2 145	2 300	4 475
Afghanistan	3 975	5 555	8 920	8 065	2 590	1 605	1 775	2 660	2 815	3 725
Iran	1 320	5 610	3 420	3 370	3 495	3 990	3 505	2 685	2 510	2 595
Eritrea	565	505	620	1 315	1 070	1 265	1 900	2 735	1 905	2 335
Pakistan	2 615	3 165	2 860	3 780	3 145	3 030	2 290	1 850	1 765	2 075
Iraq	1 800	7 475	6 680	15 635	4 290	1 880	1 595	1 315	2 075	2 040
Sri Lanka	5 130	6 395	5 510	3 485	810	400	480	620	1 250	1 865
China	2 640	4 015	2 400	3 725	3 495	2 410	1 775	2 030	2 185	1 615
Somalia	7 495	5 020	6 420	9 425	7 195	3 295	2 105	2 175	1 960	1 575
Nigeria	945	835	810	1 220	1 110	1 210	1 230	990	905	1 070
India	1 365	2 120	1 850	1 975	2 410	1 485	1 000	715	600	775
Bangladesh	530	795	510	825	820	550	465	495	590	510
Democratic Republic of Congo	1 240	1 030	1 370	2 750	1 920	1 825	1 390	710	440	400
Algeria	1 385	1 635	1 140	1 300	730	610	310	260	295	385
Palestinian administrative areas	280	350	375	455	475	540	445	340	0	315
Other countries	39 590	34 785	25 985	37 090	22 465	14 005	9 160	6 610	6 285	5 560
Total	71 105	80 300	71 010	103 110	60 040	40 620	30 815	28 335	27 880	31 315

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.


StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/885634188107>

Table B.1.3. Inflows of asylum seekers by nationality
GREECE

	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
Pakistan	21	141	252	250	681	247	1 154	2 378	9 144	6 914
Afghanistan	116	446	1 459	1 238	561	382	458	1 087	1 556	2 287
Georgia	0	1	0	8	48	323	1 897	428	1 559	2 241
Bangladesh	28	49	33	34	233	208	550	3 750	2 965	1 778
Iraq	906	1 334	1 972	2 567	2 831	936	971	1 415	5 474	1 760
Syria	8	7	15	13	19	44	57	143	1 311	808
Nigeria	11	14	33	184	444	325	406	391	390	746
Senegal	0	0	0	5	3	1	7	66	219	386
Iran	74	135	212	411	608	228	203	528	354	312
India	2	27	41	84	105	42	166	162	261	227
Albania	8	1	10	9	12	23	21	20	51	202
Somalia	2	5	14	69	389	119	110	150	174	149
Guinea	0	0	0	0	0	1	8	29	48	136
Sudan	17	41	45	58	222	90	121	183	105	126
Russian Federation	0	12	21	36	47	138	353	68	50	125
Other countries	335	870	1 392	698	1 975	1 362	2 568	1 469	1 452	1 687
Total	1 528	3 083	5 499	5 664	8 178	4 469	9 050	12 267	25 113	19 884

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.


StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/885634188107>

Table B.1.3. Inflows of asylum seekers by nationality
HUNGARY

	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
Serbia	4 783	692	214	97	112	180	243	384	723	1 593
Pakistan	322	220	157	40	53	54	40	18	15	246
Somalia	65	152	298	213	113	18	7	42	99	185
Georgia	0	27	29	91	205	288	114	175	131	165
Iraq	543	889	1 014	2 008	348	36	18	68	136	125
Afghanistan	2 238	2 185	4 311	2 348	469	38	22	13	35	116
Turkey	91	116	116	124	125	125	65	43	56	70
Nigeria	130	94	111	125	74	73	89	109	86	56
China	120	198	124	83	67	64	165	276	417	55
Egypt	26	20	24	4	22	3	13	20	41	50
FYR of Macedonia	0	7	118	19	5	8	16	17	32	44
Viet Nam	19	65	53	182	49	105	319	406	862	42
Palestinian administrative areas	42	29	104	29	35	63	24	37	52	41
Bangladesh	1 314	1 656	1 514	352	31	29	90	15	10	35
Moldova	12	30	25	12	15	54	20	42	45	23
Other countries	1 794	1 421	1 342	685	678	462	364	452	684	272
Total	11 499	7 801	9 554	6 412	2 401	1 600	1 609	2 117	3 424	3 118

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.


StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/885634188107>

Table B.1.3. **Inflows of asylum seekers by nationality**
IRELAND

	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
Nigeria	1 895	3 405	3 461	4 050	3 110	1 776	1 278	1 038	1 028	1 009
Pakistan	60	46	127	120	62	55	68	167	185	237
Iraq	101	89	48	148	129	38	55	215	285	203
Georgia	47	55	97	103	133	130	151	171	174	181
China	7	16	25	85	168	152	96	139	259	180
Democratic Republic of Congo	272	358	281	270	256	140	138	109	149	173
Moldova	275	387	549	536	244	100	100	110	133	141
Somalia	123	138	70	77	183	198	367	161	144	141
Sudan	38	39	26	50	70	145	203	308	157	126
Zimbabwe	4	25	102	357	88	69	51	77	87	114
Ghana	25	106	148	293	180	64	67	88	82	104
Afghanistan	13	7	27	7	24	106	142	88	78	79
Eritrea	11	2	1	5	21	29	39	45	113	78
South Africa	44	143	203	183	114	45	33	38	39	75
Cameroon	27	76	144	187	125	62	57	78	44	67
Other countries	4 782	6 046	5 014	5 160	2 993	1 656	1 480	1 483	1 028	958
Total	7 724	10 938	10 323	11 631	7 900	4 765	4 325	4 315	3 985	3 866

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.


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Table B.1.3. **Inflows of asylum seekers by nationality**
ITALY

	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
Nigeria	15	57	388	594	722	930	536	830	1 336	5 673
Somalia	11	69	145	601	1 743	186	117	99	757	4 864
Eritrea	13	33	276	927	1 230	831	1 313	2 151	2 260	2 934
Ghana	0	8	15	33	505	62	407	530	673	1 815
Afghanistan	99	524	299	137	70	84	76	177	663	1 732
Bangladesh	15	88	174	374	297	342	407	283	315	1 684
Côte d'Ivoire	0	6	14	93	348	183	586	508	982	1 653
Pakistan	15	92	113	1 256	787	267	411	203	176	1 143
Iraq	1 838	6 082	1 985	1 944	493	166	118	87	189	758
Burkina Faso	0	0	1	0	0	3	15	32	192	646
Togo	3	21	64	182	107	114	421	584	355	576
Turkey	517	4 062	1 690	730	466	323	168	175	394	501
Sudan	10	40	97	867	641	486	637	308	383	493
Guinea	0	3	5	0	0	5	20	70	217	465
Algeria	13	24	22	0	0	14	6	19	69	463
Other countries	30 815	4 455	4 332	8 277	6 046	5 726	4 310	4 292	5 096	4 924
Total	33 364	15 564	9 620	16 015	13 455	9 722	9 548	10 348	14 057	30 324

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.


StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/885634188107>

Table B.1.3. **Inflows of asylum seekers by nationality**
JAPAN

	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
Myanmar	37	23	23	38	111	138	212	626	500	979
Turkey	0	40	123	52	77	131	40	149	76	156
Sri Lanka	3	6	3	9	4	9	7	27	43	90
Ethiopia	13	6	1	2	2	2	3	14	29	51
Iran	22	17	20	19	25	18	16	27	19	38
Pakistan	55	74	47	26	12	12	10	12	27	37
Bangladesh	0	3	10	12	6	33	29	15	14	33
Cameroon	0	0	0	15	8	11	1	5	12	29
Nepal	0	0	0	0	1	3	5	11	4	20
China	10	3	10	22	22	16	16	13	17	18
India	0	0	9	9	12	7	0	2	2	17
Uganda	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	2	4	16
Democratic Republic of the Congo	0	0	0	0	5	0	0	4	10	14
Nigeria	0	0	0	12	2	2	2	10	6	10
Colombia	0	0	0	0	3	3	1	2	0	7
Other countries	83	44	107	34	45	40	41	35	53	84
Total	223	216	353	250	336	426	384	954	816	1 599

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.


StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/885634188107>

Table B.1.3. **Inflows of asylum seekers by nationality**
KOREA

	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
Sri Lanka	1	0	0	0	0	0	8	27	67	71
Pakistan	..	1	6	2	9	0	1	5	4	47
Myanmar	..	21	21	46	50	12	23	33
China	1	..	3	11	10	64	145	28	29	30
Bangladesh	1	11	6	1	9	8	23	30
Ghana	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	4	68	29
Nigeria	0	0	0	0	0	0	26	16	100	27
Uganda	1	9	46	20	50	21
Liberia	..	1	1	2	4	8	11	6	15	15
Nepal	1	2	8	78	275	12
Democratic Republic of the Congo	..	16	6	1	2	5	15	14	10	11
Iran	..	1	4	..	9	1	8	5	3	7
Ethiopia	..	2	2	5	13	1	7	21	4	6
Côte d'Ivoire	1	..	2	1	45	11	8	6
Cameroon	1	..	3	1	0	0	4	2	2	5
Other countries	1	1	12	4	8	7	27	21	36	14
Total	4	43	39	37	86	145	412	278	717	364

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.


StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/885634188107>

Table B.1.3. **Inflows of asylum seekers by nationality**
LUXEMBOURG

	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
Serbia	2 606	269	206	495	541	361	219	193	225	219
Bosnia and Herzegovina	54	52	87	77	59	35	36	17	24	31
Iraq	6	3	8	34	14	9	8	16	14	29
Iran	2	12	0	13	31	59	41	31	16	18
Montenegro	14	15	14
Albania	80	79	34	54	66	48	33	20	16	14
Russian Federation	28	25	66	68	60	66	54	43	13	13
Eritrea	0	0	0	0	0	1	2	6	0	11
Somalia	0	0	10	4	10	18	27	7	1	10
Cameroon	0	2	0	7	16	24	0	3	7	8
FYR of Macedonia	33	11	68	44	23	13	0	3	5	7
Democratic Republic of the Congo	2	9	18	26	21	22	19	20	1	6
Israel	0	0	0	0	0	0	10	0	2	6
Belarus	1	6	0	8	55	40	16	5	8	6
Nigeria	0	1	0	6	1	3	45	14	7	5
Other countries	100	159	189	207	653	879	292	131	72	66
Total	2 912	628	686	1 043	1 550	1 578	802	523	426	463

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.


StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/885634188107>

Table B.1.3. **Inflows of asylum seekers by nationality**
NETHERLANDS

	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
Iraq	3 703	2 773	1 329	1 020	3 473	1 043	1 620	2 766	2 004	5 027
Somalia	2 731	2 110	1 098	533	451	792	1 315	1 462	1 874	3 842
China	1 246	1 406	706	534	298	285	356	318	243	563
Afghanistan	4 400	5 055	3 614	1 067	492	688	902	932	143	395
Iran	1 527	2 543	1 519	663	555	450	557	921	187	322
Eritrea	268	260	213	152	123	148	204	175	153	236
Sri Lanka	856	975	676	294	95	76	93	147	104	216
Armenia	1 248	812	529	417	203	247	197	280	97	208
Guinea	526	1 394	1 467	475	199	116	105	116	102	154
Sierra Leone	1 280	2 023	2 405	1 615	314	138	189	203	130	129
Mongolia	228	267	254	239	127	66	118	110	96	103
Nepal	22	89	12	37	59	156	152	58	38	100
Nigeria	240	282	401	550	414	223	155	243	179	97
Russian Federation	960	1 021	918	426	245	206	285	254	81	95
Congo	650	575	492	339	198	130	154	118	58	84
Other countries	22 848	22 310	16 946	10 306	6 156	5 018	5 945	6 362	1 613	1 828
Total	42 733	43 895	32 579	18 667	13 402	9 782	12 347	14 465	7 102	13 399

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.


StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/885634188107>

Table B.1.3. **Inflows of asylum seekers by nationality**
NORWAY

	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
Iraq	4 073	766	1 056	1 624	971	412	671	1 002	1 227	3 137
Eritrea	61	51	132	269	201	110	177	316	789	1 799
Afghanistan	172	326	603	786	2 050	1 059	466	224	234	1 363
Somalia	1 340	910	1 080	1 534	1 623	958	667	632	187	1 293
Russian Federation	318	471	1 318	1 719	1 923	937	545	548	863	1 078
Iran	350	327	412	450	621	394	279	218	222	720
Serbia	1 152	4 188	928	2 460	2 216	859	468	369	585	675
Nigeria	5	14	27	139	241	205	94	54	108	436
Ethiopia	126	96	173	325	293	148	100	143	241	354
Sri Lanka	112	165	164	87	65	58	58	106	238	342
Uzbekistan	3	4	105	206	95	51	42	52	38	148
Nepal	7	26	97	64	47	91	104	60	46	144
Sudan	59	31	47	94	67	33	45	36	37	118
Syria	95	60	57	80	97	71	79	49	49	115
Democratic Republic of the Congo	5	8	3	15	75	49	71	83	54	107
Other countries	2 282	3 399	8 580	7 628	5 374	2 510	1 536	1 428	1 610	2 602
Total	10 160	10 842	14 782	17 480	15 959	7 945	5 402	5 320	6 528	14 431

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.


StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/885634188107>

Table B.1.3. **Inflows of asylum seekers by nationality**
NEW ZEALAND

	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
Iraq	69	31	39	12	22	35	30	33
Iran	129	101	135	88	47	29	27	28
Sri Lanka	97	52	23	29	6	30	25	25
China	68	25	56	49	19	30	26	24
India	80	75	77	81	17	18	7	14
Czech Republic	39	2	10	29	28	12	4	10
Bangladesh	32	19	29	22	23	16	18	9
Zimbabwe	98	85	73	20	8	5	8	8
Malaysia	29	20	41	13	8	0	7	8
Fiji	44	22	19	2	12	10	10	7
Nepal	17	3	3	7	19	5	1	6
Poland	0	0	2	0	1	0	6	5
Somalia	17	19	13	13	10	11	6	4
Egypt	3	1	2	2	6	0	2	4
Myanmar	7	4	6	10	8	4	1	4
Other countries	872	538	313	202	114	71	67	65
Total	1 528	1 551	1 601	997	841	579	348	276	245	254

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.


StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/885634188107>

Table B.1.3. **Inflows of asylum seekers by nationality**
POLAND

	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
Russian Federation	109	1 153	1 490	3 048	5 581	7 182	6 244	4 018	6 668	6 647
Iraq	47	30	108	137	75	6	15	16	22	66
Viet Nam	26	161	197	48	25	16	23	27	40	57
Georgia	37	71	92	39	30	47	47	31	12	54
Armenia	868	823	635	223	104	18	27	15	22	33
Belarus	43	61	74	67	58	53	82	55	62	33
Ukraine	29	69	144	102	85	72	84	43	26	25
Uzbekistan	4	12	7	8	7	3	4	3	6	22
China	4	26	28	35	15	19	9	1	18	20
Nigeria	7	9	26	7	15	10	10	11	18	19
Moldova	18	9	272	169	21	0	19	8	7	18
Kazakhstan	9	30	16	8	6	30	24	18	5	17
Sri Lanka	88	44	23	36	32	4	6	2	55	17
Turkey	19	9	9	6	22	29	11	10	10	17
Pakistan	52	30	31	55	151	211	69	46	25	15
Other countries	1 595	2 052	1 354	1 165	694	380	186	126	209	143
Total	2 955	4 589	4 506	5 153	6 921	8 080	6 860	4 430	7 205	7 203

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.


StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/885634188107>

Table B.1.3. **Inflows of asylum seekers by nationality**
PORTUGAL

	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
Sri Lanka	0	6	6	8	0	1	0	0	6	26
Colombia	1	2	6	3	5	8	27	6	86	26
Democratic Republic of the Congo	9	12	10	6	3	2	7	16	11	20
Bosnia and Herzegovina	28	0	0	0	0	7	0	0	16	10
Guinea	3	8	4	2	1	0	1	6	14	8
Nigeria	15	16	3	3	2	1	1	6	2	8
Senegal	1	1	2	1	1	2	2	1	1	7
Eritrea	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	4	0	5
Iraq	2	1	0	3	1	1	0	2	3	4
Guinea-Bissau	13	3	1	4	1	5	6	5	1	4
Georgia	1	1	0	2	6	2	5	1	0	4
Somalia	9	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	16	3
Serbia	13	0	0	2	5	1	1	1	0	3
Angola	39	13	45	46	10	8	9	6	5	3
Belarus	2	1	1	6	3	6	0	5	3	2
Other countries	171	159	153	159	50	69	54	69	60	28
Total	307	223	232	245	88	113	114	128	224	161

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.


StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/885634188107>

Table B.1.3. **Inflows of asylum seekers by nationality**
SLOVAK REPUBLIC

	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
Georgia	0	0	27	58	582	989	258	209	134	119
Moldova	0	1	16	266	587	826	309	385	208	113
Pakistan	86	161	176	168	307	799	196	182	648	109
Russian Federation	0	14	84	618	2 653	2 413	1 037	463	307	100
India	155	380	1 111	1 611	1 653	2 969	561	727	619	88
Afghanistan	654	624	4 315	1 669	627	393	109	41	67	72
China	0	0	33	1 764	1 080	1 271	280	164	96	44
Iraq	140	115	990	1 245	475	116	35	206	131	42
Viet Nam	0	0	38	220	61	155	100	63	58	41
Bangladesh	41	46	429	1 032	558	544	277	183	108	36
Ukraine	0	5	8	47	73	64	45	32	36	32
Armenia	17	15	29	102	758	144	17	14	28	22
Serbia	7	15
Sri Lanka	83	87	98	96	49	58	8	10	20	13
Cuba	0	0	0	0	5	5	5	4	7	8
Other countries	144	108	797	804	890	645	312	188	169	56
Total	1 320	1 556	8 151	9 700	10 358	11 391	3 549	2 871	2 643	910

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.


StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/885634188107>

Table B.1.3. **Inflows of asylum seekers by nationality**
SWEDEN

	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
Iraq	3 576	3 499	6 206	5 446	2 700	1 456	2 330	8 951	18 559	6 083
Somalia	289	260	525	1 107	3 069	905	422	1 066	3 349	3 361
Serbia	2 500	1 989
Russian Federation	449	590	841	1 496	1 361	1 288	1 057	755	788	933
Eritrea	73	127	151	266	641	395	425	608	878	857
Iran	854	739	780	762	787	660	582	494	485	799
Mongolia	3	38	259	376	342	346	326	461	519	791
Afghanistan	351	374	593	527	811	903	435	594	609	784
Uzbekistan	24	36	344	640	403	258	349	446	416	741
Libya	15	26	114	456	435	419	451	318	420	646
Syria	307	335	441	541	666	411	392	433	440	551
Azerbaijan	46	60	158	778	1 032	1 041	431	247	230	390
Belarus	84	231	327	722	901	519	372	432	365	361
Lebanon	176	124	196	299	398	354	228	679	523	302
Kazakhstan	175	92	150	176	247	212	127	57	100	282
Other countries	4 809	9 772	12 430	19 424	17 555	13 994	9 603	8 781	6 192	5 483
Total	11 231	16 303	23 515	33 016	31 348	23 161	17 530	24 322	36 373	24 353

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.


StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/885634188107>

Table B.1.3. **Inflows of asylum seekers by nationality**
TURKEY

	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
Iraq	2 472	1 641	982	974	342	964	1 047	722	3 470	6 904
Afghanistan	133	81	431	47	77	341	364	261	705	2 642
Iran	3 843	3 860	3 385	2 505	3 092	2 029	1 716	2 297	1 685	2 116
Somalia	5	11	25	23	183	308	473	680	1 125	647
Sudan	6	7	7	2	64	28	76	113	76	156
Eritrea	17	0	3	11	20	18	18	57	45	76
Democratic Republic of the Congo	2	0	4	24	7	10	12	28	76	71
Sri Lanka	1	1	23	30	6	4	10	61	50	42
Uzbekistan	23	13	24	38	24	28	24	24	42	35
China	18	11	47	41	19	57	30	31	16	27
Myanmar	1	1	0	1	1	3	0	0	2	20
Syria	3	3	10	14	7	16	10	7	21	20
Cameroon	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	5	18
Ethiopia	25	12	7	5	48	18	32	58	54	17
Mauritania	0	0	1	1	2	4	14	43	10	16
Other countries	57	44	91	79	60	80	95	170	264	174
Total	6 606	5 685	5 041	3 795	3 952	3 908	3 921	4 553	7 646	12 981

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.


StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/885634188107>

Table B.1.3. **Inflows of asylum seekers by nationality**
UNITED STATES

	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
China	4 210	5 541	8 008	10 237	4 906	5 627	7 623	9 362	8 781	9 825
El Salvador	2 008	1 736	1 264	640	376	1 423	1 755	2 393	3 455	2 789
Mexico	2 251	3 669	8 747	8 775	3 955	1 763	1 581	1 673	2 551	2 713
Haiti	2 492	4 257	4 938	3 643	3 316	5 107	5 299	5 135	3 079	2 078
Guatemala	1 107	890	1 131	1 193	2 236	1 569	1 411	1 515	2 388	1 853
Ethiopia	1 101	1 445	1 467	1 287	890	1 118	807	1 168	1 124	1 168
Colombia	334	2 631	7 144	7 950	4 661	3 215	2 064	1 810	1 399	910
Indonesia	2 330	867	1 671	1 577	2 833	1 822	766	960	1 063	894
Honduras	67	43	58	59	50	603	781	986	1 096	893
Iraq	148	330	584	534	298	268	360	511	748	809
India	1 180	1 289	1 894	1 708	1 241	866	620	602	576	734
Venezuela	18	0	96	259	899	1 509	1 226	954	754	709
Nepal	51	28	53	172	314	321	415	494	532	680
Russian Federation	770	856	844	837	761	783	669	638	615	677
Cameroon	349	528	560	1 307	1 626	1 293	710	610	555	619
Other countries	14 295	16 757	20 973	18 226	14 976	17 685	13 153	12 290	11 733	12 011
Total	32 711	40 867	59 432	58 404	43 338	44 972	39 240	41 101	40 449	39 362

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/885634188107>

Metadata related to tables A.1.3. and B.1.3. **Inflows of asylum seekers**

Sources for all countries: Governments, compiled by UNHCR, Population Data Unit.

www.unhcr.org/statistics

General comments:

All data are based on annual submissions.

Prior to 2003 data for the United Kingdom refer to number of cases, and not persons. All figures are rounded to the nearest multiple of 5.

Data for the United States for 2004-2008 is a combination of INS affirmative applications and EOIR defensive applications (INS=number of cases; EOIR=number of persons).

From 2003 on, data for France include unaccompanied minors.

Data for Serbia might include asylum seekers from Serbia, Montenegro, Serbia and Montenegro, and/or FR Yugoslavia.

Data in Table A.1.3. generally refer to first instance/new applications only and exclude repeat/review/appeal applications while data by origin (Tables B.1.3) may include some repeat/review/appeal applications. This explains why totals in Tables A.1.3. and B.1.3. may be slightly different for some countries.

Stocks of foreign and foreign-born population

Two questions must be asked before examining stocks of immigrants in OECD countries: 1) Who is considered an “immigrant” in OECD countries, and 2) What are the problems related to international comparability?

Who is an immigrant?

There are major differences in how immigrants are defined. Some countries have traditionally focused on producing data on foreign residents (European countries, Japan and Korea) whilst others refer to the foreign-born (settlement countries, *i.e.* Australia, Canada, New Zealand and the United States). This difference in focus relates in part to the nature and history of immigration systems and legislation on citizenship and naturalisation.

The foreign-born population can be viewed as representing first-generation migrants, and may consist of both foreign and national citizens. The size and composition of the foreign-born population is influenced by the history of migration flows and mortality amongst the foreign-born. For example, where inflows have been declining over time, the stock of the foreign-born will tend to age and represent an increasingly established community.

The concept of foreign population may include persons born abroad who retained the nationality of their country of origin but also second and third generations born in the host country. The characteristics of the population of foreign nationals depend on a number of factors: the history of migration flows, natural increase in the foreign population and naturalisations. The nature of legislation on citizenship and the incentives foreigners have to naturalise both play a role in determining the extent to which native-born persons may or may not be foreign nationals.

Sources for and problems in measuring the immigrant population

Four types of sources are used: population registers, residence permits, labour force surveys and censuses. In countries that have a population register and in those that use residence permit data, stocks and flows of immigrants are most often calculated using the same source. There are exceptions, however, as some countries instead use census or labour force survey data to estimate the stock of the immigrant population. In studying stocks and flows, the same problems are encountered whether population register or permit data are used (in particular, the risk of underestimation when minors are registered on the permit of one of the parents or if the migrants are not required to have permits because of a free movement agreement). To this must be added the difficulty of purging the files regularly to eliminate permits that have expired.

Census data enable comprehensive, albeit infrequent analysis of the stock of immigrants (censuses are generally conducted every five to ten years). In addition, many labour force surveys now include questions about nationality and place of birth, thus providing a source of annual stock data. The OECD conducts annual estimates (for more details on the methods used, see the online document: www.oecd.org/dataoecd/18/41/37835877.pdf). However, some care has to be taken with detailed breakdowns of the immigrant population from survey data as sample sizes can be small. Inevitably, both census and survey data may underestimate the number of immigrants, especially where they tend not to be registered for census purposes, or where they do not live in private households (labour force surveys generally do not cover those living in institutions such as reception centres and hostels for immigrants). Both these sources may detect a portion of the illegal population, which is by definition excluded from population registers and residence permit systems.

Table A.1.4. **Stocks of foreign-born population in OECD countries**

Thousands

	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
AUS Australia	4 369.3	4 412.0	4 482.1	4 585.7	4 695.7	4 798.8	4 929.9	5 093.4	5 292.6	5 449.2
% of total population	23.1	23.0	23.1	23.3	23.6	23.8	24.2	24.6	25.1	25.4
AUT Austria	872.0	843.0	1 112.0	1 137.3	1 141.2	1 154.7	1 195.1	1 215.6	1 246.2	1 277.0
% of total population	10.8	10.4	13.8	14.1	14.1	14.1	14.5	14.7	15.0	15.3
BEL Belgium	1 042.3	1 058.8	1 112.2	1 151.8	1 185.5	1 220.1	1 268.9	1 319.3	1 380.3	..
% of total population	10.2	10.3	10.8	11.1	11.4	11.7	12.1	12.5	13.0	..
CAN Canada	5 233.8	5 327.0	5 448.5	5 600.7	5 735.9	5 872.3	6 026.9	6 187.0	6 331.7	6 471.9
% of total population	18.0	18.1	18.4	18.7	19.0	19.2	19.5	20.0	20.2	20.2
CHE Switzerland	1 544.8	1 570.8	1 613.8	1 658.7	1 697.8	1 737.7	1 772.8	1 811.2	1 882.6	1 974.2
% of total population	21.6	21.9	22.3	22.8	23.1	23.5	23.8	24.2	24.9	25.8
CZE Czech Republic	455.5	434.0	448.5	471.9	482.2	499.0	523.4	566.3	636.1	680.2
% of total population	4.4	4.2	4.4	4.6	4.7	4.9	5.1	5.5	6.2	6.5
DEU Germany	10 172.7	10 256.1	10 404.9	10 527.7	10 620.8
% of total population	12.4	12.5	12.6	12.8	12.9
DNK Denmark	296.9	308.7	321.8	331.5	337.8	343.4	350.4	360.9	378.7	401.8
% of total population	5.6	5.8	6.0	6.2	6.3	6.4	6.5	6.6	6.9	7.3
ESP Spain	1 472.5	1 969.3	2 594.1	3 302.4	3 693.8	4 391.5	4 837.6	5 250.0	6 044.5	6 418.1
% of total population	3.7	4.9	6.4	8.0	8.8	10.3	11.1	11.9	13.5	14.1
FIN Finland	131.1	136.2	145.1	152.1	158.9	166.4	176.6	187.9	202.5	218.6
% of total population	2.5	2.6	2.8	2.9	3.0	3.2	3.4	3.6	3.8	4.1
FRA France	4 306.1	4 379.6	4 467.7	4 572.8	4 689.7	4 811.2	4 926.4	5 040.4	5 147.8	5 261.7
% of total population	7.3	7.4	7.5	7.6	7.8	7.9	8.1	8.2	8.3	8.4
GBR United Kingdom	4 486.9	4 666.9	4 865.6	5 000.7	5 143.2	5 338.4	5 557.3	5 757.0	6 192.0	6 647.0
% of total population	7.6	7.9	8.2	8.4	8.6	8.9	9.2	9.5	10.2	10.8
GRC Greece	1 122.9
% of total population	10.3
HUN Hungary	289.3	294.6	300.1	302.8	307.8	319.0	331.5	344.6	381.8	..
% of total population	2.8	2.9	2.9	3.0	3.0	3.2	3.3	3.4	3.8	..
IRL Ireland	305.9	328.7	356.0	390.0	426.5	461.8	520.8	601.7	682.0	739.2
% of total population	8.2	8.7	9.3	10.0	10.7	11.4	12.6	14.4	15.7	16.7
ITA Italy	1 446.7
% of total population	2.5
LUX Luxembourg	141.9	145.0	144.8	147.0	152.0	155.9	161.6	166.6	172.6	180.3
% of total population	32.8	33.2	32.8	32.9	33.8	34.3	35.0	35.5	36.2	37.3
MEX Mexico	..	492.6
% of total population	..	0.5
NLD Netherlands	1 556.3	1 615.4	1 674.6	1 714.2	1 731.8	1 736.1	1 734.7	1 732.4	1 751.0	1 793.7
% of total population	9.8	10.1	10.4	10.6	10.7	10.7	10.6	10.6	10.7	10.9
NOR Norway	292.4	305.0	315.1	333.9	347.3	361.1	380.4	405.1	445.4	488.8
% of total population	6.6	6.8	7.0	7.4	7.6	7.9	8.2	8.7	9.5	10.3
NZL New Zealand	643.6	663.0	698.6	737.1	770.5	796.7	840.6	879.5	915.0	950.0
% of total population	16.8	17.2	18.0	18.7	19.1	19.5	20.3	21.0	21.6	22.3
POL Poland	776.2
% of total population	2.0
PRT Portugal	518.8	522.6	651.5	699.1	705.0	714.0	661.0	651.6	648.0	648.3
% of total population	5.1	5.1	6.3	6.7	6.7	6.8	6.3	6.2	6.1	6.1
SVK Slovak Republic	119.1	143.4	171.5	207.6	249.4	301.6	366.0	442.6
% of total population	2.2	2.7	3.2	3.9	4.6	5.6	6.8	8.2
SWE Sweden	981.6	1 003.8	1 028.0	1 053.5	1 078.1	1 100.3	1 125.8	1 175.2	1 227.8	1 281.6
% of total population	11.1	11.3	11.6	11.8	12.0	12.2	12.5	12.9	13.4	13.9
TUR Turkey	..	1 278.7
% of total population	..	1.9
USA United States	29 592.4	31 107.9	32 341.2	35 312.0	36 520.9	37 591.8	38 343.0	39 054.9	41 099.6	41 799.5
% of total population	10.6	11.0	11.3	12.3	12.6	12.8	13.0	13.1	13.6	13.7

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata.

For details on estimation methods, please refer to www.oecd.org/els/migration/foreignborn.StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/885342748216>

Table B.1.4. **Stock of foreign-born population by country of birth**

Thousands

AUSTRALIA

	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	Of which: Women		
											2006	2007	2008
United Kingdom	1 139.9	1 132.6	1 126.9	1 120.0	1 118.5	1 120.8	1 125.7	1 141.0	1 157.9	1 166.5	562.9	570.5	574.2
New Zealand	349.3	369.0	394.1	407.4	414.9	419.9	430.0	445.1	469.0	494.6	217.3	228.4	241.1
China	141.3	148.0	157.0	174.2	192.2	210.6	233.8	259.2	285.8	313.6	140.2	154.9	169.8
India	91.1	95.7	103.6	114.5	126.4	140.6	157.9	180.1	216.1	239.3	79.7	92.0	100.8
Italy	247.0	242.7	238.5	236.5	234.2	231.9	229.7	227.3	224.2	221.7	109.0	107.8	106.7
Viet Nam	169.6	169.6	169.5	172.4	176.3	178.8	181.5	185.5	190.3	193.3	96.6	99.9	101.6
Philippines	108.1	110.1	112.2	116.3	121.3	126.6	132.6	140.0	148.9	155.1	89.3	94.5	97.5
South Africa	74.8	80.7	86.9	95.4	101.8	108.9	114.7	120.3	127.9	136.2	60.5	64.2	68.2
Greece	136.6	134.5	132.5	132.7	133.0	133.1	133.3	133.4	131.9	130.5	66.8	66.2	65.7
Germany	118.9	118.1	117.5	118.7	120.0	121.3	122.6	124.4	125.6	126.5	64.4	65.1	65.5
Malaysia	84.5	85.3	87.2	90.0	94.0	98.7	102.6	107.1	112.9	120.1	57.6	60.7	64.5
Netherlands	92.9	92.0	91.2	91.2	91.2	91.1	91.2	91.5	91.0	90.3	44.4	44.2	43.9
Lebanon	78.7	79.1	80.0	81.1	83.0	84.0	85.3	86.5	88.1	89.1	41.1	41.8	42.2
Hong Kong (China)	78.2	76.7	75.2	76.8	78.8	79.9	81.5	83.2	84.1	87.5	42.5	43.1	44.8
United States	57.1	57.9	59.0	61.1	63.6	65.8	68.8	72.9	76.9	81.1	35.9	37.5	39.5
Other countries	1 401.3	1 420.0	1 450.8	1 497.3	1 546.6	1 586.9	1 638.7	1 695.9	1 761.9	1 803.9	858.4	895.3	917.2
Total	4 369.3	4 412.0	4 482.1	4 585.7	4 695.7	4 798.8	4 929.9	5 093.4	5 292.6	5 449.2	2 566.4	2 666.2	2 743.2

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/885713310126>Table B.1.4. **Stock of foreign-born population by country of birth**

Thousands

AUSTRIA

	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	Of which: Women		
											2006	2007	2008
Serbia and Montenegro	165.7	170.0	175.2	181.5	187.7	188.5	188.2	188.3	95.9	96.2	96.4
Germany	122.2	126.0	140.1	142.7	148.1	155.5	163.0	169.8	178.4	187.0	95.4	99.1	102.9
Turkey	124.5	110.1	126.8	135.2	142.7	147.9	152.5	154.1	155.9	157.8	70.8	72.1	73.4
Bosnia and Herzegovina	125.1	115.4	119.8	122.7	125.8	128.8	131.2	132.1	132.9	133.6	64.7	65.3	65.9
Romania	34.0	31.2	39.1	42.0	44.7	46.6	47.8	48.2	53.4	57.6	27.2	29.9	32.2
Poland	41.0	42.3	41.3	42.0	43.1	47.8	51.8	54.2	56.0	56.9	28.9	30.0	30.7
Czech Republic	56.7	55.4	54.6	54.2	52.9	51.5	50.2	48.9	31.8	31.1	30.4
Hungary	22.3	18.0	30.7	31.2	31.6	32.5	33.2	33.9	35.3	36.9	18.7	19.3	20.2
Croatia	50.5	54.7	33.2	34.0	34.5	35.0	35.2	35.1	35.0	34.8	18.4	18.4	18.4
Russian Federation	7.8	9.1	12.1	18.0	21.2	22.8	24.2	26.0	12.6	13.5	14.6
Italy	18.8	23.2	25.9	25.6	25.8	25.9	25.7	25.5	25.5	25.6	12.9	12.9	12.8
Slovak Republic	12.8	13.9	14.9	16.8	18.3	19.3	20.5	22.5	12.0	12.8	14.6
FYR of Macedonia	13.0	14.3	15.4	16.4	17.3	17.6	18.1	18.6	7.9	8.1	8.4
Slovenia	17.9	15.9	16.8	16.6	16.4	16.4	16.2	16.0	15.8	15.7	9.0	9.0	8.9
Other countries	315.7	306.2	282.0	282.7	256.4	231.4	241.0	247.0	256.9	267.0	125.1	130.8	136.3
Total	872.0	843.0	1 112.0	1 137.3	1 141.2	1 154.7	1 195.1	1 215.6	1 246.2	1 277.0	631.5	648.6	666.1

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/885713310126>


Table B.1.4. **Stock of foreign-born population by country of birth**

Thousands

BELGIUM

	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	Of which: Women		
											2006	2007	2008
France	..	150.3	151.9	152.5	153.0	154.2	156.2	159.3	164.6	..	89.6	92.2	..
Morocco	..	107.3	118.8	126.5	134.2	141.3	147.9	155.1	162.6	..	72.6	76.7	..
Italy	..	135.2	132.2	130.5	128.7	126.7	125.1	123.6	122.2	..	60.0	59.3	..
Netherlands	..	92.3	97.8	101.3	104.4	107.7	111.6	115.8	120.4	..	58.6	60.8	..
Turkey	..	66.5	71.6	78.6	78.6	81.0	83.8	86.4	89.0	..	41.9	43.2	..
Germany	..	83.7	83.4	80.1	83.3	83.5	83.6	83.6	83.8	..	46.5	46.4	..
Democratic Republic of the Congo	..	46.8	50.8	52.7	53.8	66.8	68.5	70.5	72.4	..	37.0	38.2	..
Poland	..	18.4	20.4	21.9	23.0	25.2	29.0	33.7	40.5	..	19.8	22.6	..
Spain	..	37.3	37.0	36.6	36.2	35.7	35.5	35.4	35.5	..	19.3	19.4	..
Serbia and Montenegro	..	21.5	20.9	23.2	25.8	27.6	29.8	31.8	34.2	..	15.5	16.8	..
Russian Federation	14.6	17.6	25.1	29.8	30.8	..	18.0	18.9	..
Portugal	..	21.2	21.3	21.7	22.3	22.8	23.3	24.0	25.0	..	12.1	12.4	..
United Kingdom	..	26.1	26.1	25.9	25.6	25.3	24.9	24.2	24.1	..	11.8	11.7	..
Romania	..	6.2	7.7	8.7	9.5	10.6	12.6	15.3	20.4	..	8.4	10.6	..
Algeria	..	14.0	15.1	16.0	17.0	17.7	18.5	19.4	20.3	..	8.6	9.0	..
Other countries	..	232.0	257.2	275.6	275.3	276.2	293.6	311.4	334.7	..	163.9	175.3	..
Total	..	1 058.8	1 112.2	1 151.8	1 185.5	1 220.1	1 268.9	1 319.3	1 380.3	..	683.8	713.6	..

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/885713310126>Table B.1.4. **Stock of foreign-born population by country of birth**

Thousands

CANADA

	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	Of which: Women		
											2006	2007	2008
United Kingdom	606.0	579.6	305.8
China	332.8	466.9	253.0
India	314.7	443.7	222.5
Philippines	232.7	303.2	178.5
Italy	315.5	296.9	144.4
United States	237.9	250.5	142.2
Hong Kong (China)	235.6	215.4	112.2
Former USSR	142.0	174.2	94.4
Germany	174.1	171.4	89.7
Poland	180.4	170.5	91.6
Viet Nam	148.4	160.2	83.7
Portugal	153.5	150.4	76.2
Former Yugoslavia	145.4	148.6	74.2
Jamaica	120.2	123.4	71.4
Netherlands	117.7	112.0	54.7
Other countries	1 991.6	2 420.1	1 228.4
Total	5 448.5	6 187.0	3 222.8


Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/885713310126>

Table B.1.4. **Stock of foreign-born population by country of birth**Thousands
SWITZERLAND

	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	Of which: Women		
											2000	2007	2008
Italy	..	234.6	106.7
Germany	..	182.0	107.1
Serbia and Montenegro	..	158.1	74.5
Portugal	..	101.0	47.9
France	..	98.4	56.8
Spain	..	61.7	30.4
Turkey	..	58.5	27.0
Austria	..	54.6	36.0
Bosnia and Herzegovina	..	46.4	23.4
FYR of Macedonia	..	41.5	19.0
United Kingdom	..	25.4	13.0
Croatia	..	24.1	13.0
Sri Lanka	..	22.4	9.5
United States	..	21.8	11.4
Netherlands	..	16.8	9.7
Other countries	..	423.5	230.6
Total	..	1 570.8	815.9

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/885713310126>Table B.1.4. **Stock of foreign-born population by country of birth**Thousands
DENMARK

	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	Of which: Women		
											2006	2007	2008
Turkey	29.0	29.7	30.4	30.8	30.9	30.9	31.0	31.1	31.4	31.8	14.7	14.9	15.2
Germany	22.9	22.7	22.6	22.5	22.5	22.6	23.0	23.9	25.8	27.8	12.6	13.4	14.3
Poland	10.3	10.4	10.6	10.7	10.9	11.3	12.4	14.7	18.5	24.4	8.4	9.6	11.8
Iraq	12.5	15.1	18.0	19.7	20.7	20.8	20.7	20.7	21.2	21.3	9.3	9.5	9.5
Bosnia and Herzegovina	18.0	18.0	18.1	18.1	18.2	17.9	17.7	17.6	18.0	18.0	8.7	9.0	9.0
Norway	13.1	13.4	13.4	13.6	13.9	14.0	14.1	14.2	14.3	14.5	9.1	9.2	9.4
Sweden	12.6	12.6	12.5	12.3	12.2	12.3	12.5	12.7	12.9	13.2	8.0	8.0	8.2
Lebanon	11.7	11.9	12.0	12.1	12.1	12.1	12.0	12.0	12.0	12.0	5.5	5.5	5.5
Iran	11.1	11.3	11.4	11.6	11.7	11.7	11.7	11.8	11.9	11.9	4.9	4.9	4.9
United Kingdom	10.5	10.5	10.6	10.6	10.7	10.7	10.8	11.1	11.4	11.8	3.9	4.0	4.1
Former Yugoslavia	12.5	12.5	12.5	12.4	12.3	11.9	11.7	11.5	11.5	11.2	5.7	5.7	5.6
Pakistan	9.9	10.3	10.5	10.6	10.7	10.6	10.6	10.5	10.6	10.8	4.9	4.9	5.0
Somalia	11.3	11.8	12.2	12.3	11.8	11.2	10.7	10.4	10.4	10.2	4.9	4.9	4.8
Afghanistan	2.9	4.3	7.2	8.4	9.0	9.4	9.5	9.6	9.6	9.7	4.5	4.5	4.5
Viet Nam	8.2	8.3	8.5	8.6	8.6	8.7	8.7	8.7	8.8	8.9	4.5	4.6	4.6
Other countries	100.3	105.7	111.4	117.1	121.8	127.3	133.4	140.5	150.4	164.1	75.2	80.3	87.2
Total	296.9	308.7	321.8	331.5	337.8	343.4	350.4	360.9	378.7	401.8	184.6	192.7	203.7

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/885713310126>


Table B.1.4. **Stock of foreign-born population by country of birth**

Thousands

SPAIN

	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	Of which: Women		
											2006	2007	2008
											Romania	7.5	33.0
Morocco	236.5	299.9	370.7	438.2	474.5	557.2	606.0	621.3	683.1	732.0	226.3	253.5	277.9
Ecuador	21.7	140.6	259.8	387.6	470.1	487.2	456.6	434.7	458.4	471.4	224.7	235.7	242.0
United Kingdom	105.7	120.0	140.6	173.6	187.5	238.2	283.7	322.0	358.3	378.2	160.0	177.7	187.5
Colombia	35.7	99.9	205.3	259.4	264.5	288.2	287.0	291.7	330.4	354.9	166.3	186.6	200.0
Argentina	70.5	84.9	118.9	191.7	226.5	260.4	271.4	273.0	290.3	293.2	131.7	139.9	141.5
Germany	142.6	158.0	173.0	189.4	176.9	193.1	208.9	222.1	237.9	246.1	111.3	119.3	123.5
France	155.2	162.5	170.6	180.2	178.1	188.7	199.4	208.8	220.2	226.5	108.0	113.5	116.4
Bolivia	3.7	8.4	15.5	30.6	54.4	99.5	140.7	200.7	240.9	226.0	113.3	135.0	127.8
Peru	37.5	47.3	59.0	72.9	88.8	108.0	123.5	137.0	162.4	186.1	73.4	85.8	97.4
Bulgaria	3.3	12.4	30.2	53.4	70.4	93.0	100.8	120.2	150.7	159.7	54.9	68.2	73.0
Brazil	25.0	31.9	39.5	48.0	55.0	73.1	93.4	113.4	142.1	152.2	67.2	83.4	90.2
Venezuela	54.7	62.3	71.6	83.5	100.3	116.2	124.9	130.6	144.6	151.0	69.5	76.9	80.5
Portugal	58.4	62.6	67.3	71.8	71.1	80.8	93.8	111.6	136.2	147.7	46.2	53.3	57.8
China	19.0	27.6	37.5	51.1	62.3	87.0	104.8	108.3	127.0	144.6	52.9	62.3	71.5
Other countries	495.5	617.6	765.9	933.2	1 007.1	1 208.9	1 345.6	1 443.8	1 655.7	1 787.8	675.3	775.2	837.6
Total	1 472.5	1 969.3	2 594.1	3 302.4	3 693.8	4 391.5	4 837.6	5 250.0	6 044.5	6 418.1	2 522.1	2 892.4	3 078.9

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/885713310126>Table B.1.4. **Stock of foreign-born population by country of birth**

Thousands

FINLAND

	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	Of which: Women		
											2006	2007	2008
											Former USSR	31.4	32.9
Sweden	27.9	28.0	28.3	28.6	28.9	29.2	29.5	29.8	30.2	30.6	14.4	14.6	14.8
Estonia	7.4	7.8	8.7	9.5	10.3	11.2	12.6	14.5	16.7	19.2	7.8	8.9	10.0
Russian Federation	2.0	2.6	3.1	3.5	3.9	4.3	4.7	5.3	5.9	6.7	3.0	3.3	3.8
Somalia	4.2	4.1	4.3	4.6	4.7	4.8	5.1	5.3	5.8	6.4	2.5	2.7	3.0
China	2.0	2.1	2.4	2.7	3.1	3.5	4.1	4.6	5.3	6.0	2.7	3.1	3.5
Former Yugoslavia	4.0	4.2	4.5	4.6	4.7	4.9	5.0	5.2	5.5	5.8	2.4	2.4	2.6
Germany	3.5	3.6	3.8	3.9	4.1	4.3	4.6	4.9	5.3	5.6	2.0	2.2	2.3
Thailand	1.6	1.8	2.1	2.4	2.8	3.1	3.6	4.1	4.8	5.4	3.2	3.7	4.2
Iraq	3.0	3.2	3.5	3.8	4.0	4.3	4.4	4.4	4.8	5.3	2.0	2.1	2.2
Turkey	2.0	2.2	2.4	2.6	2.9	3.1	3.4	3.7	4.1	4.5	0.9	1.0	1.1
United Kingdom	2.6	2.7	2.9	3.1	3.2	3.4	3.5	3.7	4.0	4.2	1.0	1.1	1.2
Viet Nam	2.8	2.9	2.9	3.0	3.0	3.1	3.3	3.4	3.7	4.0	1.8	2.0	2.1
Iran	1.9	2.1	2.3	2.5	2.7	3.0	3.2	3.4	3.6	3.8	1.5	1.5	1.6
United States	3.0	2.9	3.0	3.1	3.1	3.1	3.2	3.5	3.7	3.8	1.6	1.6	1.7
Other countries	31.5	33.1	36.1	37.9	40.3	42.7	46.3	50.1	55.5	61.7	21.4	23.5	25.7
Total	131.1	136.2	145.1	152.1	158.9	166.4	176.6	187.9	202.5	218.6	94.8	101.6	108.7

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.


StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/885713310126>

Table B.1.4. **Stock of foreign-born population by country of birth**

Thousands

FRANCE

	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	Of which: Women		
											2006	2007	2008
Algeria	574.0	691.4	320.6
Morocco	523.0	633.7	297.3
Portugal	572.0	569.3	279.1
Italy	379.0	329.5	168.1
Spain	316.0	269.3	150.3
Turkey	174.0	228.5	105.8
Tunisia	202.0	226.7	93.9
United Kingdom	75.0	133.5	67.5
Germany	123.0	128.4	78.0
Belgium	94.0	102.5	57.8
Poland	99.0	90.3	58.1
Viet Nam	72.0	73.2	40.1
Senegal	54.0	70.9	31.6
China	31.0	68.8	38.7
Serbia	65.5	32.5
Other countries	1 018.1	1 358.8	725.0
Total	4 306.1	5 040.4	2 544.5

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.


 StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/885713310126>

 Table B.1.4. **Stock of foreign-born population by country of birth**

Thousands

UNITED KINGDOM

	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	Of which: Women		
											2006	2007	2008
India	570.0	553.0	601.0	280.0	269.0	294.0
Poland	229.0	423.0	497.0	109.0	189.0	228.0
Pakistan	274.0	357.0	422.0	139.0	174.0	210.0
Ireland	417.0	410.0	421.0	236.0	225.0	243.0
Germany	269.0	253.0	273.0	155.0	143.0	151.0
South Africa	198.0	194.0	205.0	104.0	100.0	109.0
Bangladesh	221.0	202.0	193.0	101.0	100.0	92.0
United States	169.0	162.0	174.0	90.0	81.0	98.0
Jamaica	135.0	173.0	142.0	70.0	100.0	81.0
Kenya	138.0	135.0	140.0	71.0	69.0	64.0
Australia	116.0	123.0	139.0	60.0	61.0	71.0
Nigeria	117.0	147.0	137.0	60.0	74.0	72.0
France	111.0	134.0	130.0	64.0	79.0	73.0
China	80.0	104.0	120.0	46.0	57.0	68.0
Ghana	106.0	87.0	106.0	53.0	43.0	51.0
Other countries	2 607.0	2 735.0	2 947.0	1 346.0	1 440.0	1 520.0
Total	5 757.0	6 192.0	6 647.0	2 984.0	3 204.0	3 425.0

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.


 StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/885713310126>


Table B.1.4. **Stock of foreign-born population by country of birth**

Thousands

GREECE

	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	Of which: Women		
											2001	2007	2008
Albania	403.9	166.6
Germany	101.4	54.5
Turkey	76.6	45.1
Russian Federation	72.7	42.1
Georgia	71.7	38.6
Bulgaria	38.9	23.8
Egypt	32.7	15.6
Romania	26.5	12.7
Kazakhstan	24.4	12.9
United States	23.1	12.9
Cyprus	22.5	13.0
Australia	20.4	11.0
Ukraine	16.7	12.5
Poland	15.5	8.7
United Kingdom	13.3	8.5
Other countries	162.7	78.9
Total	1 122.9	557.4

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/885713310126>Table B.1.4. **Stock of foreign-born population by country of birth**

Thousands

HUNGARY

	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	Of which: Women		
											2006	2007	2008
Romania	142.3	144.2	145.2	146.5	148.5	152.7	155.4	170.4	196.1	..	92.5	102.6	..
Former Czechoslovakia	37.5	36.0	34.6	33.3	33.4	31.4	32.6	30.4	29.6	..	19.2	18.7	..
Former USSR	30.2	31.5	30.4	31.0	31.4	32.2	31.9	27.4	28.5	..	18.0	18.8	..
Former Yugoslavia	34.4	35.1	33.4	30.3	30.7	29.9	29.6	28.6	28.5	..	14.6	14.5	..
Germany	14.1	14.4	15.3	15.9	16.3	18.8	21.9	24.5	27.4	..	13.3	14.5	..
Austria	3.8	3.9	4.0	4.2	4.3	4.7	5.4	6.2	6.9	..	3.0	3.2	..
China	2.6	3.5	3.6	3.8	3.9	4.2	4.5	4.7	5.0	..	2.3	2.4	..
Ukraine	4.9	4.9	..	3.0	3.0	..
United States	2.2	2.3	2.1	2.4	2.7	3.0	3.4	4.0	4.3	..	2.0	2.1	..
United Kingdom	3.2	3.8	..	1.2	1.5	..
Poland	2.7	2.7	2.7	2.7	2.7	2.9	3.2	3.4	3.7	..	2.3	2.4	..
France	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.5	1.6	2.2	2.7	3.1	3.6	..	1.5	1.7	..
Slovak Republic	2.1	3.0	..	1.2	1.7	..
Italy	2.6	3.0	..	1.0	1.1	..
Netherlands	1.6	1.9	..	0.6	0.8	..
Other countries	18.1	19.8	27.4	31.2	32.4	37.0	40.9	27.4	31.5	..	12.0	13.8	..
Total	289.3	294.6	300.1	302.8	307.8	319.0	331.5	344.6	381.8	..	187.6	202.7	..

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/885713310126>


Table B.1.4. **Stock of foreign-born population by country of birth**

Thousands

IRELAND

	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	Of which: Women		
											2006	2007	2008
United Kingdom	242.2	266.1	134.9
Poland	2.1	62.5	22.8
United States	21.0	24.6	13.3
Lithuania	2.1	24.6	10.8
Nigeria	8.9	16.3	8.9
Latvia	2.2	13.9	6.4
Germany	8.5	11.5	6.3
China	5.6	11.0	5.2
Philippines	3.9	9.4	5.6
India	3.3	9.2	4.4
France	6.7	9.1	4.6
Romania	5.8	8.5	3.9
Slovak Republic	8.1	2.9
South Africa	6.1	7.6	3.8
Australia	5.9	6.5	3.3
Other countries	65.7	112.7	52.3
Total	390.0	601.7	289.2

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/885713310126>Table B.1.4. **Stock of foreign-born population by country of birth**

Thousands

LUXEMBOURG

	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	Of which: Women		
											2001	2007	2008
Portugal	41.7	20.0
France	18.8	9.9
Belgium	14.8	7.2
Germany	12.8	7.6
Italy	12.3	5.4
Serbia and Montenegro	6.5	3.0
Netherlands	3.3	1.6
United Kingdom	3.2	1.4
Cape Verde	2.4	1.3
Spain	2.1	1.1
Bosnia and Herzegovina	1.7	0.8
Denmark	1.5	0.8
United States	1.1	0.5
China	1.0	0.5
Poland	1.0	0.6
Other countries	20.6	11.3
Total	144.8	73.1

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/885713310126>


Table B.1.4. **Stock of foreign-born population by country of birth**

Thousands

MEXICO

	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	Of which: Women		
											2000	2007	2008
United States	..	343.6	170.0
Guatemala	..	24.0	12.5
Spain	..	21.0	9.7
Cuba	..	6.6	3.5
Argentina	..	6.5	3.2
Colombia	..	6.2	3.4
Canada	..	5.8	2.9
France	..	5.7	2.8
Germany	..	5.6	2.5
El Salvador	..	5.5	2.9
Italy	..	3.9	1.4
Chile	..	3.8	2.0
Peru	..	3.7	1.8
Honduras	..	3.7	2.2
Japan	..	2.9	1.4
Other countries	..	43.9	21.3
Total	..	492.6	243.3

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/885713310126>Table B.1.4. **Stock of foreign-born population by country of birth**

Thousands

NETHERLANDS

	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	Of which: Women		
											2006	2007	2008
Turkey	178.0	181.9	186.2	190.5	194.6	195.9	196.0	195.4	194.8	195.7	94.3	94.3	94.6
Suriname	185.0	186.5	188.0	189.0	189.7	190.1	189.2	187.8	187.0	186.7	102.6	102.5	102.5
Morocco	152.7	155.8	159.8	163.4	166.6	168.5	168.6	168.0	167.2	166.9	78.7	78.6	78.8
Indonesia	168.0	165.8	163.9	161.4	158.8	156.0	152.8	149.7	146.7	143.7	82.7	81.2	79.7
Germany	124.2	123.1	122.1	120.6	119.0	117.7	116.9	116.4	117.0	119.2	68.7	69.0	70.1
Former Yugoslavia	50.5	53.9	55.9	56.2	55.5	54.5	53.7	53.0	52.8	52.7	27.1	27.0	27.0
Poland	16.3	17.4	18.6	20.1	21.2	25.0	30.0	35.3	42.1	51.1	21.9	24.9	29.3
Belgium	45.3	46.0	46.5	46.8	47.1	47.1	47.1	47.4	47.9	48.6	26.8	27.1	27.3
United Kingdom	43.6	45.7	47.9	48.5	48.3	47.5	46.6	45.8	45.8	46.7	20.5	20.4	20.8
China	20.6	22.7	25.8	28.7	31.5	33.5	34.8	35.5	37.1	40.0	21.0	21.8	23.1
Former USSR	16.1	21.6	27.1	30.8	32.8	34.5	35.3	36.0	37.4	39.4	22.9	23.9	25.2
Iraq	29.9	33.7	36.0	35.8	36.0	35.9	35.3	34.8	35.7	38.7	14.4	14.8	15.6
Afghanistan	19.8	24.3	28.5	31.0	32.1	32.4	32.0	31.3	31.0	30.7	14.2	14.2	14.1
Iran	20.1	21.5	23.2	24.2	24.2	24.1	23.8	23.8	24.2	24.8	10.6	10.8	11.1
United States	20.3	21.4	22.1	22.5	22.6	22.6	22.8	23.0	23.3	24.0	11.7	11.8	12.2
Other countries	465.6	494.3	523.2	544.7	551.9	550.9	549.9	549.3	561.2	584.8	135.9	138.2	144.3
Total	1 556.3	1 615.4	1 674.6	1 714.2	1 731.8	1 736.1	1 734.7	1 732.4	1 751.0	1 793.7	754.2	760.5	775.5

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/885713310126>


Table B.1.4. **Stock of foreign-born population by country of birth**

Thousands

NORWAY

	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	Of which: Women		
											2006	2007	2008
Poland	5.7	5.9	6.2	6.7	7.0	8.3	11.2	18.0	30.8	42.7	7.0	9.9	13.6
Sweden	33.4	33.3	33.0	33.0	33.1	33.1	33.9	35.0	36.8	39.4	18.0	18.7	19.8
Germany	11.4	11.8	12.2	12.9	13.5	14.1	15.2	16.7	19.7	23.0	8.2	9.3	10.7
Denmark	21.7	22.0	22.1	22.3	22.3	22.2	22.3	22.3	22.5	22.6	11.1	11.1	11.1
Iraq	6.9	11.3	12.3	14.7	14.9	15.4	16.7	17.4	18.2	19.4	7.2	7.7	8.2
Somalia	6.4	7.8	8.6	10.7	12.1	12.8	13.5	14.5	16.0	16.9	6.7	7.4	7.9
Pakistan	13.3	13.6	14.1	14.6	14.9	15.2	15.6	15.9	16.2	16.7	7.6	7.8	8.1
United Kingdom	14.3	14.2	14.1	14.3	14.3	14.6	14.7	15.1	15.6	16.2	6.4	6.5	6.7
United States	15.0	14.7	14.6	14.6	14.6	14.5	14.6	14.8	15.2	15.7	7.7	7.9	8.1
Russian Federation	3.1	3.9	4.7	6.0	7.5	8.9	10.1	10.9	12.2	13.1	7.3	8.0	8.5
Bosnia and Herzegovina	11.6	11.7	11.8	13.5	13.2	12.6	12.6	13.2	13.0	12.9	6.6	6.6	6.6
Viet Nam	11.2	11.3	11.5	11.7	11.9	12.1	12.3	12.5	12.6	12.9	6.5	6.6	6.8
Iran	8.9	9.3	10.1	10.7	11.3	11.6	11.8	12.0	12.3	12.6	5.3	5.5	5.6
Philippines	5.7	6.0	6.4	7.0	7.5	8.0	8.7	9.6	10.9	12.3	7.2	8.3	9.5
Thailand	3.6	4.1	4.6	5.5	6.3	7.3	8.3	9.3	10.5	11.8	7.6	8.5	9.6
Other countries	120.2	124.2	128.9	135.8	143.0	150.3	158.9	168.0	182.8	200.6	84.1	91.1	99.0
Total	292.4	305.0	315.1	333.9	347.3	361.1	380.4	405.1	445.4	488.8	204.5	220.9	239.7

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/885713310126>Table B.1.4. **Stock of foreign-born population by country of birth**

Thousands

NEW ZEALAND

	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	Of which: Women		
											2006	2007	2008
United Kingdom	218.4	245.1	125.3
China	38.9	78.1	40.8
Australia	56.3	62.7	33.4
Samoa	47.1	50.6	26.4
India	20.9	43.3	20.7
South Africa	26.1	41.7	21.2
Fiji	25.7	37.7	19.5
Korea	17.9	28.8	15.3
Netherlands	22.2	22.1	10.4
Tonga	18.1	20.5	10.3
United States	13.3	18.3	9.1
Philippines	10.1	15.3	9.7
Cook Islands	15.2	14.7	7.7
Malaysia	11.5	14.5	7.7
Chinese Taipei	12.5	10.8	5.8
Other countries	144.3	175.2	89.3
Total	698.6	879.5	452.6

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.


StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/885713310126>


Table B.1.4. **Stock of foreign-born population by country of birth**

Thousands

POLAND

	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	Of which: Women		
											2002	2007	2008
Ukraine	312.3	191.0
Belarus	105.2	63.2
Germany	98.2	56.8
Lithuania	79.8	48.6
Russian Federation	55.2	35.7
France	33.9	18.9
United States	8.4	5.0
Czech Republic	6.3	3.7
Austria	3.9	2.0
Kazakhstan	3.8	2.1
Serbia and Montenegro	3.6	1.9
Romania	3.4	2.0
Italy	3.3	1.5
Bosnia and Herzegovina	3.3	1.9
United Kingdom	2.8	1.1
Other countries	52.8	25.0
Total	776.2	460.3

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/885713310126>Table B.1.4. **Stock of foreign-born population by country of birth**

Thousands

PORTUGAL

	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	Of which: Women		
											2001	2007	2008
Angola	174.2	91.7
France	95.3	50.7
Mozambique	76.0	40.1
Brazil	49.9	25.4
Cape Verde	45.0	22.0
Germany	24.3	12.4
Venezuela	22.4	11.7
Guinea-Bissau	21.4	8.6
Spain	14.0	8.3
Switzerland	12.9	6.4
Sao Tome and Principe	12.5	6.7
South Africa	11.2	5.9
United Kingdom	10.1	5.1
Canada	7.3	3.8
United States	7.3	3.7
Other countries	67.8	28.0
Total	651.5	330.5

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.



StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/885713310126>

Table B.1.4. **Stock of foreign-born population by country of birth**Thousands
SLOVAK REPUBLIC

	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	Of which: Women		
											2004	2007	2008
Czech Republic	71.5	107.7	56.0
Hungary	17.2	22.5	13.4
Ukraine	7.1	13.3	7.2
Poland	3.4	7.2	3.7
Russian Federation	1.6	5.8	3.5
Germany	0.6	4.7	1.7
FYR of Macedonia	0.1	4.6	1.6
Romania	3.0	4.4	2.2
Austria	0.7	3.9	1.6
United States	0.7	3.5	1.8
France	1.3	3.4	1.7
Viet Nam	0.6	2.4	0.8
United Kingdom	1.8	0.7
Bulgaria	1.0	1.7	0.7
China	1.6	0.7
Other countries	10.0	19.2	6.6
Total	119.1	207.6	103.9

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/885713310126>Table B.1.4. **Stock of foreign-born population by country of birth**Thousands
SWEDEN

	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	Of which: Women		
											2006	2007	2008
Finland	197.0	195.4	193.5	191.5	189.3	186.6	183.7	180.9	178.2	175.1	106.8	105.3	103.8
Iraq	43.1	49.4	55.7	62.8	67.6	70.1	72.6	82.8	97.5	109.4	36.9	42.7	48.9
Former Yugoslavia	70.4	72.0	73.3	74.4	75.1	74.6	74.0	73.7	72.9	72.3	36.2	35.8	35.5
Poland	39.9	40.1	40.5	41.1	41.6	43.5	46.2	51.7	58.2	63.8	32.0	34.7	37.2
Iran	50.5	51.1	51.8	52.7	53.2	54.0	54.5	55.7	56.5	57.7	26.2	26.6	27.2
Bosnia and Herzegovina	50.7	51.5	52.2	52.9	53.9	54.5	54.8	55.5	55.7	56.0	28.1	28.2	28.4
Germany	37.4	38.2	38.9	39.4	40.2	40.8	41.6	43.0	45.0	46.9	23.2	24.1	25.0
Denmark	37.9	38.2	38.9	39.9	40.9	41.7	42.6	44.4	45.9	46.2	20.7	21.4	21.4
Norway	41.8	42.5	43.4	44.5	45.1	45.0	44.8	44.7	44.6	44.3	25.4	25.2	24.9
Turkey	31.4	31.9	32.5	33.1	34.1	35.0	35.9	37.1	38.2	39.2	17.4	17.7	18.1
Chile	26.6	26.8	27.2	27.3	27.5	27.7	27.8	28.0	28.0	28.1	13.9	14.0	14.0
Thailand	9.6	10.4	11.2	12.4	14.3	16.3	18.3	20.5	22.9	25.9	15.8	17.8	20.2
Somalia	..	13.1	13.5	14.0	14.8	15.3	16.0	18.3	21.6	25.2	8.8	10.6	12.5
Lebanon	20.0	20.0	20.2	20.5	20.8	21.1	21.4	22.7	23.0	23.3	10.2	10.3	10.4
United Kingdom	14.0	14.6	15.5	16.1	16.4	16.8	17.2	17.8	18.5	19.5	6.1	6.3	6.6
Other countries	311.2	308.6	319.9	330.8	343.0	357.4	374.5	398.2	421.0	448.8	203.1	214.1	227.4
Total	981.6	1 003.8	1 028.0	1 053.5	1 078.1	1 100.3	1 125.8	1 175.2	1 227.8	1 281.6	610.8	634.7	661.5

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.


StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/885713310126>


Table B.1.4. **Stock of foreign-born population by country of birth**

Thousands

TURKEY

	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	Of which: Women		
											2000	2007	2008
Bulgaria	..	480.8	252.5
Germany	..	273.5	140.6
Greece	..	59.2	32.3
Netherlands	..	21.8	11.1
Russian Federation	..	19.9	12.1
United Kingdom	..	18.9	10.1
France	..	16.8	8.2
Austria	..	14.3	7.2
United States	..	13.6	6.1
Iran	..	13.0	4.9
Cyprus	..	10.4	5.6
Switzerland	..	10.4	5.4
Other countries	..	326.1	167.6
Total	..	1 278.7	663.6

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/885713310126>Table B.1.4. **Stock of foreign-born population by country of birth**

Thousands

UNITED STATES

	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	Of which: Women		
											2006	2007	2008
Mexico	7 429.1	8 072.3	8 494.0	9 900.4	10 237.2	10 739.7	11 053.0	11 132.1	11 811.7	11 845.3	4 984.3	5 201.4	5 273.4
Philippines	1 549.4	1 313.8	1 333.1	1 488.1	1 457.5	1 449.0	1 621.3	1 677.7	1 737.5	1 830.5	971.9	1 023.1	1 090.3
India	849.2	1 010.1	1 028.8	1 322.4	1 183.6	1 296.7	1 438.3	1 478.5	1 730.0	1 631.9	697.4	813.5	787.5
China	890.6	898.0	968.2	986.9	1 167.6	1 463.0	1 398.0	1 460.3	1 634.2	1 605.6	809.0	909.1	850.3
Viet Nam	988.1	872.7	768.2	831.5	946.7	985.7	1 037.7	942.6	1 062.9	1 059.2	479.3	522.1	559.7
Cuba	960.9	957.3	859.6	935.7	1 005.2	1 075.0	965.9	994.8	992.8	997.0	519.6	496.7	504.9
Germany	986.9	1 147.4	1 128.2	1 161.8	1 091.5	1 093.0	1 036.1	1 088.1	1 010.1	984.5	649.7	582.9	528.7
El Salvador	811.3	787.7	840.9	882.8	1 025.3	958.4	1 130.1	1 095.6	999.0	956.6	521.1	495.5	458.3
Korea	660.7	801.8	889.2	811.2	916.2	854.1	770.6	1 002.6	959.7	955.2	546.1	532.0	559.4
Dominican Republic	692.1	699.2	640.1	668.6	725.9	641.4	713.5	827.2	871.8	875.8	476.4	484.8	490.3
Canada	825.1	879.3	957.4	921.2	852.6	831.9	833.2	840.4	854.9	849.7	468.9	517.4	473.7
Guatemala	407.2	328.7	315.6	408.1	448.5	526.7	556.6	567.3	695.0	724.0	203.1	250.1	279.3
United Kingdom	796.2	758.2	715.3	745.1	700.7	730.9	724.6	665.7	719.5	704.1	355.4	396.6	373.3
Jamaica	405.2	422.5	488.4	537.8	671.1	660.0	615.3	588.8	554.0	639.5	331.4	338.8	349.1
Colombia	495.6	440.1	528.5	552.2	491.7	453.9	499.7	641.5	685.1	598.5	358.0	378.6	340.1
Other countries	9 304.7	10 099.9	10 702.5	11 320.6	11 698.9	11 876.2	11 953.7	12 019.3	12 642.5	13 366.9	6 027.7	6 457.4	6 850.6
Total	28 052.4	29 489.0	30 658.1	33 474.4	34 620.3	35 635.5	36 347.6	37 022.5	38 960.8	39 624.2	18 399.2	19 399.9	19 768.9

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/885713310126>

Metadata related to tables A.1.4 and B.1.4. **Foreign-born population**

Legend:

Ⓢ Observed figures.

ε Estimates with the component method (CM) or with the parametric method (PM).

Data in *italic* in Table A.1.4. are estimated. No estimate is made by country of birth (Tables B.1.4).

For more details on the method of estimation, please refer to www.oecd.org/els/migration/foreignborn.

Country	Comments	Source
AUS 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. <i>Reference date:</i> 30 June.	Australian Bureau of Statistics (ABS).
AUT Austria	Ⓢ Stock of foreign-born residents recorded in the population register. Break in time series in 2002. <i>Reference date:</i> 31 December. Prior to 2002: annual average.	Population register, Statistics Austria. Prior to 2002: Labour Force Survey, Statistics Austria.
BEL Belgium	Ⓢ Stock of foreign-born citizens recorded in the population register. Asylum seekers are recorded in a separate register.	Population register, National Statistical Office.
CAN Canada	Ⓢ for 2001 and 2006: Total immigrants (excluding non-permanent residents). "Other countries" include "not stated". Immigrants are persons who are, or have ever been, landed immigrants in Canada. A landed immigrant is a person who has been granted the right to live in Canada permanently by immigration authorities. Some immigrants have resided in Canada for a number of years, while others are recent arrivals. Most immigrants were born outside Canada. ε PM for other years.	Censuses of Population, Statistics Canada.
CHE Switzerland	Ⓢ for 2000 Census data. ε CM for other years.	Population Census, Federal Statistical Office.
CZE Czech Republic	Ⓢ for 2001 Census data. ε CM for other years.	Czech Statistical Office.
DEU Germany	Ⓢ 2000. ε CM for other years.	Database on immigrants in OECD countries (DIOC).
DNK Denmark	Ⓢ Immigrants are defined as persons born abroad by parents that are both foreign citizens or born abroad. When no information is available on the country of birth, the person is classified as an immigrant.	Statistics Denmark.
ESP Spain	Ⓢ Stock of foreign-born citizens recorded in the population register.	National Statistical Institute (INE)
FIN Finland	Ⓢ Stock of foreign-born citizens recorded in population register. Includes foreign-born persons of Finnish origin.	Central population register, Statistics Finland.
FRA France	Ⓢ 1999 and 2006 Censuses. Data cover persons born abroad as foreigners. ε PM for other years.	National Institute for Statistics and Economic Studies (INSEE).
GBR United Kingdom	Ⓢ for 2001, 2006-2008 (Table A.1.4.). ε PM for other years. Table B.1.4. Foreign-born residents (2006-2008 Labour Force Survey data). Figures are rounded and not published if less than 10 000.	2001 Census, 2006-2008 Labour Force Surveys, Office for National Statistics.
GRC Greece	Ⓢ Usual resident population recorded in the census.	National Statistical Service of Greece.
HUN Hungary	Ⓢ Holders of a permanent or a long-term residence permit. <i>Reference date:</i> 31 December.	Register of foreigners, Ministry of the Interior.
IRL Ireland	Ⓢ for 1996, 2002 and 2006: Persons usually resident and present in their usual residence on census night. ε PM for other years.	Census, Central Statistics Office.
ITA Italy	Ⓢ <i>Reference date:</i> 2001.	Census, ISTAT.
LUX Luxembourg	Ⓢ for 2001. ε CM for other years.	Census 2001, Central Office of Statistics and Economic Studies (Statec).
MEX Mexico	Ⓢ Population aged 5 and over from the 2000 Census.	National Migration Institute (INM) and National Institute of Statistics and Geography (INEGI).
NLD Netherlands	Ⓢ <i>Reference date:</i> Presented data is count on 1 January of the next year. Thus population 2006 is the population on 1 January 2007.	Register of Population, Central Bureau of Statistics (CBS).
NOR Norway	Ⓢ <i>Reference date:</i> 31 December.	Central Population Register, Statistics Norway.
NZL New Zealand	Ⓢ for 1996, 2001 and 2006. ε PM for other years.	Census of population, Statistics New Zealand.

Metadata related to tables A.1.4 and B.1.4. **Foreign-born population** (cont.)

Legend:

⊗ Observed figures.

ε Estimates with the component method (CM) or with the parametric method (PM).

Data in *italic* in Table A.1.4. are estimated. No estimate is made by country of birth (Tables B.1.4).

For more details on the method of estimation, please refer to www.oecd.org/els/migration/foreignborn.

Country	Comments	Source
POL Poland	⊗ Excluding foreign temporary residents who at the time of the census had been staying at a given address in Poland for less than 12 months. Country of birth in accordance with political (administrative) boundaries at the time of the census.	Census, Central Statistical Office.
PRT Portugal	⊗ 2001 Census data. ε CM for other years.	Census of population, National Statistical Office (INE)
SVK Slovak Republic	⊗ Census of population who had permanent residence at the date of the Census, 2001 and 2004. ε PM for other years.	Ministry of the Interior.
SWE Sweden	⊗ Reference date: 31 December.	Population register, Statistics Sweden.
TUR Turkey		Census of Population, State Institute of Statistics (SIS).
USA United States	In Table A.1.4, the statistic for the year 2000 is from the population census. Starting with this level the series is estimated using the trend in foreign-born levels from the CPS. On the other hand, the statistics by country of birth (table B.1.4) are taken directly from CPS estimates (population aged 15 and over).	Current Population Survey March Supplement and Census, US Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census.

Table A.1.5. **Stocks of foreign population in OECD countries**

Thousands

		1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
AUT	Austria	694.0	701.8	728.8	745.2	752.7	772.9	795.2	802.7	832.3	867.8
	% of total population	8.6	8.7	9.1	9.2	9.3	9.5	9.7	9.7	10.0	10.4
BEL	Belgium	897.1	861.7	846.7	850.1	860.3	870.9	900.5	932.2	971.4	..
	% of total population	8.8	8.4	8.2	8.2	8.3	8.4	8.6	8.8	9.1	..
CHE	Switzerland	1 368.7	1 384.4	1 419.1	1 447.3	1 471.0	1 495.0	1 511.9	1 523.6	1 571.0	1 638.9
	% of total population	19.2	19.3	19.7	19.9	20.0	20.2	20.3	20.3	20.8	21.4
CZE	Czech Republic	228.9	201.0	210.8	231.6	240.4	254.3	278.3	321.5	392.3	437.6
	% of total population	2.2	2.0	2.1	2.3	2.4	2.5	2.7	3.1	3.8	4.2
DEU	Germany	7 343.6	7 296.8	7 318.6	7 335.6	7 334.8	6 738.7	6 755.8	6 755.8	6 744.9	6 727.6
	% of total population	9.0	8.9	8.9	8.9	8.9	8.2	8.2	8.2	8.2	8.2
DNK	Denmark	259.4	258.6	266.7	265.4	271.2	267.6	270.1	278.1	298.5	320.2
	% of total population	4.9	4.8	5.0	4.9	5.0	5.0	5.0	5.1	5.5	5.8
ESP	Spain	923.9	1 370.7	1 977.9	2 664.2	3 034.3	3 730.6	4 144.2	4 519.6	5 268.8	5 598.7
	% of total population	2.3	3.4	4.9	6.4	7.2	8.7	9.5	10.3	11.7	12.3
FIN	Finland	87.7	91.1	98.6	103.7	107.0	108.3	113.9	121.7	132.7	143.3
	% of total population	1.7	1.8	1.9	2.0	2.1	2.1	2.2	2.3	2.5	2.7
FRA	France	3 258.5	3 541.8
	% of total population	5.6	5.8
GBR	United Kingdom	2 208.0	2 342.0	2 587.0	2 584.0	2 742.0	2 857.0	3 035.0	3 392.0	3 824.0	4 196.0
	% of total population	3.8	4.0	4.4	4.5	4.7	4.9	5.2	5.8	6.5	6.8
GRC	Greece	273.9	304.6	355.8	436.8	472.8	533.4	553.1	570.6	643.1	733.6
	% of total population	2.5	2.8	3.2	4.0	4.3	4.8	5.0	5.1	5.7	6.6
HUN	Hungary	153.1	110.0	116.4	115.9	130.1	142.2	154.4	166.0	174.7	184.4
	% of total population	1.5	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.3	1.4	1.5	1.6	1.7	1.8
IRL	Ireland	117.8	126.3	155.0	187.7	222.2	222.8	259.4
	% of total population	3.1	3.3	4.0	4.8	5.6	5.5	6.3
ITA	Italy	1 340.7	1 379.7	1 448.4	1 549.4	1 990.2	2 402.2	2 670.5	2 938.9	3 432.7	3 891.3
	% of total population	2.2	2.4	2.5	2.7	3.5	4.2	4.6	5.0	5.8	6.6
JPN	Japan	1 556.1	1 686.4	1 778.5	1 851.8	1 915.0	1 973.7	2 011.6	2 083.2	2 151.4	2 215.9
	% of total population	1.2	1.3	1.4	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.6	1.6	1.7	1.7
KOR	Korea	169.0	210.2	229.6	271.7	460.3	491.4	510.5	660.6	800.3	895.5
	% of total population	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.6	1.0	1.0	1.1	1.4	1.7	1.8
LUX	Luxembourg	159.4	164.7	166.7	170.7	177.8	183.7	191.3	198.3	205.9	215.5
	% of total population	36.0	37.3	37.5	38.1	38.6	39.3	40.4	41.6	43.2	44.5
NLD	Netherlands	651.5	667.8	690.4	700.0	702.2	699.4	691.4	681.9	688.4	719.5
	% of total population	4.1	4.2	4.3	4.3	4.3	4.3	4.2	4.2	4.2	4.4
NOR	Norway	178.7	184.3	185.9	197.7	204.7	213.3	222.3	238.3	266.3	303.0
	% of total population	4.0	4.1	4.1	4.4	4.5	4.6	4.8	5.1	5.7	6.4
POL	Poland	49.2	54.9	57.5	60.4
	% of total population	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2
PRT	Portugal	190.9	207.6	360.8	423.8	444.6	469.1	432.0	437.1	446.3	443.1
	% of total population	1.9	2.1	3.5	4.1	4.3	4.5	4.1	4.1	4.2	4.2
SVK	Slovak Republic	29.5	28.8	29.4	29.5	29.2	22.3	25.6	32.1	40.9	52.5
	% of total population	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.4	0.5	0.6	0.8	1.0
SWE	Sweden	487.2	477.3	476.0	474.1	476.1	481.1	479.9	492.0	524.5	562.1
	% of total population	5.5	5.4	5.3	5.3	5.3	5.3	5.3	5.4	5.7	6.1
TUR	Turkey	..	271.3
	% of total population	..	0.4

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of Tables B.1.5.

StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/885366245352>


Table B.1.5. **Stock of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

AUSTRIA

	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	Of which: Women		
											2006	2007	2008
											Serbia and Montenegro
Germany	75.3	78.2	83.6	91.2	100.4	109.2	119.8	130.7	55.3	60.3	65.5
Turkey	129.6	127.3	127.1	127.2	123.0	116.5	113.1	108.2	109.2	110.7	50.6	51.5	52.6
Bosnia and Herzegovina	95.5	96.1	94.2	90.9	88.3	86.2	85.0	84.6	39.3	38.7	38.5
Croatia	57.3	58.5	58.5	58.6	58.1	56.8	56.4	56.3	26.6	26.5	26.5
Poland	21.4	21.8	22.2	26.6	30.6	33.3	35.5	36.9	15.5	16.8	17.9
Romania	17.8	19.5	20.5	21.3	21.9	21.9	27.6	32.3	12.7	15.7	18.2
Russian Federation	3.7	4.9	8.0	14.2	17.2	18.8	20.0	21.8	9.9	10.7	11.8
Hungary	13.1	13.7	14.2	15.1	16.3	17.4	19.3	21.5	9.1	10.0	11.1
Slovak Republic	7.5	8.5	9.5	11.3	13.0	14.2	15.7	18.1	8.6	9.6	11.6
FYR of Macedonia	13.2	14.4	15.3	16.0	16.3	16.3	16.5	17.0	7.2	7.4	7.7
Italy	10.7	10.9	11.3	11.7	12.2	12.7	13.4	14.3	5.2	5.6	6.0
China	5.1	6.5	7.6	8.3	8.8	8.9	9.3	9.7	4.8	5.0	5.2
Czech Republic	6.2	6.6	6.9	7.4	7.7	8.0	8.3	9.1	5.0	5.2	5.6
Bulgaria	4.7	5.3	5.9	6.3	6.5	6.4	7.6	9.0	3.7	4.4	5.1
Other countries	564.3	574.5	129.3	131.3	134.4	140.6	147.0	148.6	156.1	161.0	72.6	76.9	79.8
Total	694.0	701.8	728.8	745.2	752.7	772.9	795.2	802.7	832.3	867.8	390.2	406.8	426.8

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/885716405763>Table B.1.5. **Stock of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

BELGIUM

	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	Of which: Women		
											2006	2007	2008
											Italy	200.3	195.6
France	107.2	109.3	111.1	113.0	114.9	117.3	120.6	125.1	130.6	..	65.1	67.8	..
Netherlands	85.8	88.8	92.6	96.6	100.7	105.0	110.5	117.0	123.5	..	53.8	57.0	..
Morocco	122.0	106.8	90.6	83.6	81.8	81.3	80.6	80.6	79.9	..	39.3	39.5	..
Spain	45.9	43.4	45.0	44.5	43.8	43.2	42.9	42.8	42.7	..	21.4	21.4	..
Turkey	69.2	56.2	45.9	42.6	41.3	39.9	39.7	39.4	39.5	..	19.9	19.9	..
Germany	34.3	34.6	34.7	35.1	35.5	36.3	37.0	37.6	38.4	..	18.9	19.2	..
Poland	6.7	6.9	8.9	10.4	11.6	14.0	18.0	23.2	30.4	..	11.9	14.9	..
Portugal	25.6	25.6	25.8	26.0	26.8	27.4	28.0	28.7	29.8	..	14.1	14.5	..
United Kingdom	26.2	26.6	26.4	26.2	26.2	26.0	25.7	25.1	25.1	..	11.3	11.2	..
Romania	2.3	2.4	3.3	4.0	4.6	5.6	7.5	10.2	15.3	..	5.5	7.6	..
Greece	18.4	18.0	17.6	17.3	17.1	16.6	16.3	15.7	15.2	..	7.7	7.4	..
Democratic Republic of the Congo	12.5	11.3	13.0	13.6	13.8	13.2	13.5	14.2	15.0	..	7.2	7.7	..
United States	12.2	11.9	11.8	11.7	11.6	11.5	11.2	11.1	11.2	..	5.6	5.6	..
Algeria	8.3	7.7	7.2	7.2	7.3	7.4	7.5	7.8	8.1	..	3.3	3.4	..
Other countries	120.2	116.7	122.2	131.2	140.2	147.3	166.0	181.7	197.8	..	94.3	102.2	..
Total	897.1	861.7	846.7	850.1	860.3	870.9	900.5	932.2	971.4	..	457.7	476.6	..

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.


StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/885716405763>


Table B.1.5. **Stock of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

SWITZERLAND

	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	Of which: Women		
											2006	2007	2008
Italy	327.7	321.6	314.0	308.3	303.8	300.2	296.4	291.7	289.6	290.0	123.2	122.3	122.2
Germany	102.7	110.7	116.6	125.0	133.6	144.9	157.6	172.6	201.9	233.4	77.7	89.4	102.5
Portugal	135.0	140.2	135.5	141.1	149.8	159.7	167.3	173.5	182.3	196.2	79.7	83.1	89.0
Serbia	190.8	187.4	180.0	91.2	89.8	86.5
France	58.0	61.1	61.5	63.2	65.0	67.0	69.0	71.5	77.4	85.6	33.4	35.8	39.3
Turkey	79.9	79.5	79.5	78.8	77.7	76.6	75.4	73.9	72.6	71.7	34.1	33.5	33.1
Spain	86.8	83.8	81.0	78.9	76.8	74.3	71.4	68.2	65.1	64.4	30.9	29.4	29.1
FYR of Macedonia	53.9	55.9	58.4	59.8	60.5	60.8	60.7	60.1	60.0	59.7	28.6	28.6	28.5
Bosnia and Herzegovina	41.8	44.3	45.7	46.0	45.4	44.8	43.2	41.3	39.3	37.5	20.2	19.1	18.2
Croatia	43.5	43.6	43.9	43.4	42.7	41.8	40.6	39.1	37.8	36.1	19.7	19.0	18.1
Austria	28.2	29.6	29.9	31.1	31.6	32.5	32.8	32.9	34.0	35.5	15.0	15.5	16.2
United Kingdom	19.6	20.8	22.2	22.8	23.4	24.1	24.9	26.0	28.7	31.9	11.1	12.1	13.4
Netherlands	13.9	14.4	14.6	15.0	15.2	15.4	15.8	16.1	17.0	18.1	7.4	7.8	8.2
United States	12.2	16.9	13.4	18.1	13.2	13.2	13.7	13.9	14.9	14.6	6.7	7.2	7.1
Belgium	7.1	7.5	7.9	8.0	8.2	8.5	8.8	9.0	9.5	10.0	4.3	4.5	4.7
Other countries	358.2	354.4	395.0	407.9	424.0	431.2	434.4	243.0	253.6	274.3	134.2	139.9	150.9
Total	1 368.7	1 384.4	1 419.1	1 447.3	1 471.0	1 495.0	1 511.9	1 523.6	1 571.0	1 638.9	717.5	737.0	766.9

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/885716405763>Table B.1.5. **Stock of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

CZECH REPUBLIC

	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	Of which: Women		
											2006	2007	2008
Ukraine	65.9	50.2	51.8	59.1	62.3	78.3	87.8	102.6	126.7	131.9	..	50.4	53.9
Slovak Republic	40.4	44.3	53.2	61.1	64.9	47.4	49.4	58.4	67.9	76.0	..	27.6	31.3
Viet Nam	24.8	23.6	23.9	27.1	29.0	34.2	36.8	40.8	51.1	60.3	..	21.1	23.7
Russian Federation	16.9	13.0	12.4	12.8	12.6	14.7	16.3	18.6	23.3	27.1	..	12.3	14.5
Poland	18.3	17.1	16.5	16.0	15.8	16.3	17.8	18.9	20.6	21.7	..	9.4	9.8
Germany	6.1	5.0	4.9	5.2	5.2	5.8	7.2	10.1	15.7	17.5	..	3.0	3.4
Moldova	2.9	2.1	2.5	2.8	3.3	4.1	4.7	6.2	8.0	10.6	..	2.8	3.7
Mongolia	6.0	8.6	..	3.6	4.9
Bulgaria	5.0	4.0	4.1	4.2	4.0	4.4	4.6	4.6	5.0	5.9	..	1.8	2.1
United States	3.8	3.2	3.2	3.4	3.3	3.8	4.0	4.2	4.5	5.3	..	1.7	2.0
China	4.3	3.6	3.3	3.2	4.0	3.4	3.6	4.2	5.0	5.2	..	2.2	2.3
United Kingdom	1.7	1.5	1.6	1.8	1.7	1.8	2.2	3.5	3.8	4.5	..	0.8	1.0
Belarus	3.6	2.6	2.5	2.7	2.7	2.9	3.0	3.2	3.7	3.9	..	2.1	2.2
Romania	2.6	2.4	2.3	2.3	2.3	2.6	2.7	2.9	3.2	3.6	..	1.2	1.3
Austria	2.3	1.9	1.9	1.9	1.9	2.1	2.4	3.4	3.4	3.6	..	0.6	0.7
Other countries	30.2	26.6	26.6	27.9	27.5	32.6	35.9	39.9	44.5	51.9	..	14.6	16.7
Total	228.9	201.0	210.8	231.6	240.4	254.3	278.3	321.5	392.3	437.6	..	155.3	173.6

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.


StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/885716405763>


Table B.1.5. **Stock of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

GERMANY

	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	Of which: Women		
											2006	2007	2008
											Turkey	2 053.6	1 998.5
Italy	615.9	619.1	616.3	609.8	601.3	548.2	540.8	534.7	528.3	523.2	219.2	217.1	215.0
Poland	291.7	301.4	310.4	317.6	326.9	292.1	326.6	361.7	384.8	393.8	186.4	197.2	203.9
Greece	364.4	365.4	362.7	359.4	354.6	316.0	309.8	303.8	294.9	287.2	138.6	134.6	131.2
Croatia	214.0	216.8	223.8	231.0	236.6	229.2	228.9	227.5	225.3	223.1	115.7	114.9	114.3
Serbia and Montenegro	737.2	662.5	627.5	591.5	568.2	125.8	297.0	282.1	236.5	209.5	134.4	113.2	100.7
Russian Federation	98.4	115.9	136.1	155.6	173.5	178.6	185.9	187.5	187.8	188.3	112.2	113.4	114.5
Austria	186.1	187.7	189.0	189.3	189.5	174.0	174.8	175.7	175.9	175.4	82.5	82.8	82.9
Bosnia and Herzegovina	167.7	156.3	159.0	163.8	167.1	156.0	156.9	157.1	158.2	156.8	75.9	76.5	76.0
Netherlands	110.5	110.8	112.4	115.2	118.7	114.1	118.6	123.5	128.2	133.0	55.8	57.9	59.8
Ukraine	76.8	89.3	103.5	116.0	126.0	128.1	130.7	129.0	127.0	126.2	78.4	77.6	77.4
Portugal	132.6	133.7	132.6	131.4	130.6	116.7	115.6	115.0	114.6	114.5	52.4	52.2	52.2
France	107.2	110.2	111.3	112.4	113.0	100.5	102.2	104.1	106.5	108.1	56.0	57.1	57.6
Spain	129.9	129.4	128.7	127.5	126.0	108.3	107.8	106.8	106.3	105.5	53.5	53.3	52.9
United States	112.0	113.6	113.5	112.9	112.9	96.6	97.9	99.3	99.9	100.0	42.6	43.0	43.0
Other countries	1 945.8	1 986.1	2 043.8	2 090.0	2 112.2	2 290.2	2 098.3	2 109.4	2 157.2	2 194.7	1 049.0	1 082.9	1 100.1
Total	7 343.6	7 296.8	7 318.6	7 335.6	7 334.8	6 738.7	6 755.8	6 755.8	6 744.9	6 727.6	3 270.5	3 282.4	3 280.8

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/885716405763>Table B.1.5. **Stock of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

DENMARK

	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	Of which: Women		
											2006	2007	2008
											Turkey	36.6	35.2
Germany	12.7	12.7	12.9	13.0	13.3	13.6	14.2	15.4	18.0	20.4	7.2	8.4	9.6
Poland	5.6	5.5	5.7	5.7	5.9	6.2	7.4	9.7	13.8	19.9	5.2	6.4	8.8
Iraq	12.7	13.8	16.5	18.0	19.4	19.2	18.7	18.1	18.3	17.6	8.5	8.6	8.3
Norway	12.6	13.0	13.2	13.4	13.8	13.9	13.9	14.2	14.4	14.8	8.4	8.5	8.8
United Kingdom	12.7	12.6	12.8	12.7	12.8	12.8	12.9	13.2	13.7	14.2	4.6	4.7	4.9
Sweden	10.8	10.8	10.8	10.7	10.8	10.9	11.2	11.6	12.1	12.7	6.7	7.0	7.4
Bosnia and Herzegovina	17.8	17.2	14.0	12.7	12.2	12.1	11.8	5.9	5.8	5.7
Afghanistan	2.9	4.2	7.1	8.2	9.1	9.3	9.4	9.4	9.5	9.4	4.5	4.5	4.5
Iceland	5.8	5.9	6.0	6.6	7.1	7.4	7.7	8.0	8.3	8.5	4.1	4.2	4.4
Somalia	14.3	14.4	14.6	13.3	13.1	11.3	9.8	9.0	8.8	8.5	4.4	4.3	4.1
Former Yugoslavia	35.1	35.0	34.8	10.8	10.7	9.8	9.4	8.7	8.6	8.1	4.3	4.2	4.0
Thailand	4.1	4.4	4.9	5.2	5.4	5.6	5.9	6.2	6.7	7.3	5.2	5.6	6.0
China	2.5	2.7	3.2	3.9	5.2	5.9	6.2	6.1	6.6	7.2	3.3	3.5	3.9
Pakistan	7.1	7.1	7.2	6.9	7.0	6.9	6.7	6.6	6.7	6.9	3.5	3.5	3.6
Other countries	84.1	81.2	83.7	87.2	90.2	90.9	94.6	100.8	112.1	124.1	51.7	57.1	62.7
Total	259.4	258.6	266.7	265.4	271.2	267.6	270.1	278.1	298.5	320.2	141.5	150.7	160.9

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.


StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/885716405763>


Table B.1.5. **Stock of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

SPAIN

	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	Of which: Women		
											2006	2007	2008
Romania	6.4	31.6	67.3	137.3	208.0	317.4	407.2	527.0	731.8	796.6	249.1	338.4	371.4
Morocco	173.2	233.4	307.5	379.0	420.6	511.3	563.0	582.9	652.7	710.4	207.6	239.5	268.3
Ecuador	20.5	139.0	259.5	390.3	475.7	497.8	461.3	427.1	427.7	413.7	219.1	217.4	209.1
United Kingdom	99.0	107.3	128.1	161.5	174.8	227.2	274.7	315.0	353.0	374.6	154.9	173.5	184.1
Colombia	25.2	87.2	191.0	244.7	248.9	271.2	265.1	261.5	284.6	293.0	147.6	158.1	161.6
Bolivia	2.1	6.6	13.5	28.4	52.3	97.9	139.8	200.5	242.5	227.1	113.0	135.7	128.1
Germany	88.7	99.2	113.8	130.2	117.3	133.6	150.5	164.4	181.2	190.6	81.2	89.6	94.5
Italy	27.9	34.7	46.2	65.4	77.1	95.4	115.8	135.1	157.8	174.9	55.3	64.8	72.2
Bulgaria	3.0	12.0	29.7	52.8	69.9	93.0	101.6	122.1	154.0	164.4	55.8	69.8	75.2
China	19.2	27.6	37.7	51.2	62.5	87.7	104.7	106.7	125.9	145.4	47.4	56.4	66.1
Argentina	23.4	32.4	56.7	109.4	130.9	153.0	150.3	141.2	147.4	140.4	70.3	73.4	70.2
Portugal	43.3	47.1	52.1	56.7	55.8	66.2	80.6	100.6	127.2	140.4	38.5	46.3	51.5
Peru	27.4	35.0	44.8	55.9	68.6	85.0	95.9	103.7	121.9	137.2	53.5	61.7	68.6
Brazil	11.1	17.1	23.7	31.3	37.4	54.1	72.4	90.2	116.5	124.7	54.6	69.6	75.2
France	46.4	51.6	59.8	69.9	66.9	77.8	90.0	100.4	112.6	120.2	50.2	55.9	59.7
Other countries	307.1	408.8	546.6	700.0	767.8	961.9	1 071.2	1 141.3	1 332.0	1 445.0	525.8	615.9	669.1
Total	923.9	1 370.7	1 977.9	2 664.2	3 034.3	3 730.6	4 144.2	4 519.6	5 268.8	5 598.7	2 123.9	2 466.1	2 625.0

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/885716405763>Table B.1.5. **Stock of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

FINLAND

	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	Of which: Women		
											2006	2007	2008
Russian Federation	18.6	20.6	22.7	24.3	25.0	24.6	24.6	25.3	26.2	26.9	15.4	15.7	15.9
Estonia	10.7	10.8	11.7	12.4	13.4	14.0	15.5	17.6	20.0	22.6	9.7	10.8	12.0
Sweden	7.8	7.9	8.0	8.0	8.1	8.2	8.2	8.3	8.3	8.4	3.5	3.6	3.6
Somalia	4.4	4.2	4.4	4.5	4.6	4.7	4.7	4.6	4.9	4.9	2.3	2.3	2.4
China	1.7	1.7	1.9	2.1	2.4	2.6	3.0	3.4	4.0	4.6	1.8	2.1	2.4
Thailand	1.2	1.3	1.5	1.8	2.1	2.3	2.6	3.0	3.5	3.9	2.5	3.0	3.4
Germany	2.2	2.2	2.3	2.5	2.6	2.6	2.8	3.0	3.3	3.5	1.1	1.3	1.4
Turkey	1.7	1.8	2.0	2.1	2.3	2.4	2.6	2.9	3.2	3.4	0.8	0.9	1.0
Iraq	3.0	3.1	3.2	3.4	3.5	3.4	3.3	3.0	3.0	3.2	1.3	1.3	1.3
United Kingdom	2.2	2.2	2.4	2.5	2.7	2.7	2.8	2.9	3.1	3.2	0.6	0.6	0.6
India	0.6	0.8	0.9	1.0	1.2	1.3	1.6	2.0	2.3	2.7	0.7	0.9	1.0
Serbia and Montenegro	0.9	1.2	1.9	2.2	2.8	3.3	3.3	3.3	3.0	2.6	1.6	1.4	1.2
Iran	1.9	1.9	2.2	2.4	2.5	2.6	2.6	2.6	2.6	2.5	1.2	1.1	1.1
United States	2.1	2.0	2.1	2.1	2.1	2.0	2.1	2.2	2.3	2.3	0.9	0.9	0.9
Viet Nam	1.8	1.8	1.8	1.7	1.7	1.5	1.7	1.8	2.0	2.3	0.9	1.0	1.2
Other countries	27.0	27.6	29.6	30.5	30.1	30.1	32.6	35.8	40.9	46.0	15.3	17.2	19.0
Total	87.7	91.1	98.6	103.7	107.0	108.3	113.9	121.7	132.7	143.3	59.5	64.2	68.2

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.


StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/885716405763>


Table B.1.5. **Stock of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

FRANCE

	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	Of which: Women		
											2006	2007	2008
Portugal	555.0	490.6	229.0
Algeria	475.0	481.0	215.4
Morocco	506.0	460.4	213.3
Turkey	205.0	223.6	104.6
Italy	201.0	177.4	78.4
Tunisia	153.0	145.9	58.6
United Kingdom	75.0	136.5	66.9
Spain	160.0	133.8	68.3
Germany	77.0	92.4	49.8
Belgium	67.0	81.3	42.1
China	28.0	66.2	35.5
Mali	35.0	56.7	21.8
Senegal	39.0	49.5	21.5
Congo	36.0	44.3	22.5
Serbia	42.2	20.8
Other countries	646.5	860.0	460.2
Total	3 258.5	3 541.8	1 708.7

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/885716405763>Table B.1.5. **Stock of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

UNITED KINGDOM

	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	Of which: Women		
											2006	2007	2008
Poland	34.0	24.0	34.0	48.0	110.0	209.0	406.0	500.0	96.0	181.0	234.0
Ireland	442.0	404.0	436.0	403.0	367.0	368.0	369.0	335.0	341.0	359.0	189.0	183.0	202.0
India	149.0	153.0	132.0	145.0	154.0	171.0	190.0	258.0	258.0	295.0	130.0	120.0	139.0
Pakistan	73.0	94.0	82.0	97.0	83.0	86.0	95.0	78.0	133.0	178.0	37.0	64.0	89.0
France	68.0	85.0	82.0	92.0	102.0	95.0	100.0	110.0	122.0	124.0	59.0	69.0	68.0
United States	123.0	114.0	148.0	100.0	120.0	133.0	106.0	132.0	109.0	118.0	70.0	57.0	69.0
China	25.0	22.0	24.0	73.0	89.0	109.0	39.0	48.0	59.0
Australia	55.0	75.0	67.0	75.0	73.0	80.0	79.0	88.0	100.0	101.0	44.0	47.0	49.0
Italy	80.0	95.0	102.0	98.0	91.0	121.0	88.0	76.0	95.0	97.0	32.0	46.0	39.0
Portugal	44.0	29.0	58.0	85.0	88.0	83.0	85.0	81.0	87.0	96.0	43.0	46.0	51.0
South Africa	50.0	..	68.0	64.0	95.0	92.0	100.0	105.0	90.0	94.0	53.0	47.0	45.0
Germany	85.0	64.0	59.0	68.0	70.0	96.0	100.0	91.0	88.0	91.0	53.0	52.0	58.0
Nigeria	45.0	42.0	33.0	43.0	62.0	61.0	89.0	82.0	27.0	39.0	43.0
Spain	45.0	47.0	48.0	44.0	51.0	40.0	61.0	45.0	58.0	74.0	20.0	28.0	38.0
Lithuania	47.0	54.0	73.0	20.0	30.0	37.0
Other countries	969.0	1 160.0	1 202.0	1 247.0	1 381.0	1 401.0	1 490.0	1 603.0	1 705.0	1 805.0	826.0	884.0	934.0
Total	2 208.0	2 342.0	2 587.0	2 584.0	2 742.0	2 857.0	3 035.0	3 392.0	3 824.0	4 196.0	1 738.0	1 941.0	2 154.0

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.


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Table B.1.5. **Stock of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

GREECE

	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	Of which: Women		
											2006	2007	2008
Albania	153.3	185.7	209.5	262.1	294.7	325.6	341.0	347.4	384.6	413.9	159.1	172.1	190.1
Bulgaria	7.0	8.1	12.6	18.6	17.3	25.3	27.9	29.5	30.7	40.2	19.2	20.2	25.5
Georgia	6.3	4.4	10.2	12.0	9.5	14.1	16.9	15.1	23.8	33.6	9.1	14.1	20.2
Romania	6.0	5.2	7.2	13.8	14.6	16.2	18.9	18.9	25.7	29.5	9.7	13.0	16.2
Poland	10.4	11.2	13.5	14.1	15.9	17.0	16.1	16.6	21.4	18.9	10.7	11.5	9.2
Pakistan	2.1	3.7	2.9	4.8	6.2	4.2	5.5	6.7	13.9	18.0	0.1	1.2	1.3
Russian Federation	10.5	15.6	19.9	22.0	17.8	16.8	17.6	18.9	21.6	16.7	12.6	14.9	12.2
Cyprus	9.5	6.8	5.2	7.7	8.1	12.2	11.0	10.6	11.2	14.2	6.0	5.2	7.4
Bangladesh	2.2	0.8	0.9	1.5	1.0	1.8	3.2	2.1	2.6	14.1	0.0	0.0	1.4
Egypt	4.3	2.7	4.3	6.1	11.2	6.3	2.6	3.6	5.2	12.6	1.2	1.2	3.2
Ukraine	6.1	2.5	6.4	11.3	10.2	13.1	12.2	12.2	14.1	11.9	8.7	9.6	8.2
Syria	2.9	2.1	3.9	5.2	6.2	3.8	4.2	3.6	6.0	9.2	0.2	0.5	1.7
Armenia	3.5	2.9	5.1	4.0	4.7	7.3	6.1	7.1	5.0	9.1	3.6	2.3	4.1
Germany	3.9	4.8	3.5	2.3	4.3	3.8	5.6	6.7	7.1	8.1	4.1	4.8	5.0
United Kingdom	5.2	4.0	5.3	3.6	6.2	7.1	7.7	7.6	8.0	7.5	4.1	5.3	4.7
Other countries	40.6	44.0	45.5	47.6	45.0	58.6	56.3	64.0	62.0	76.0	37.1	34.3	39.4
Total	273.9	304.6	355.8	436.8	472.8	533.4	553.1	570.6	643.1	733.6	285.5	310.3	349.8

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/885716405763>Table B.1.5. **Stock of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

HUNGARY

	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	Of which: Women		
											2006	2007	2008
Romania	57.3	41.6	45.0	47.3	55.7	67.5	66.2	67.0	65.8	66.4	33.6	32.6	32.6
Ukraine	11.0	8.9	9.8	9.9	13.1	13.9	15.3	15.9	17.3	17.6	8.3	8.7	8.8
Germany	9.6	7.5	7.7	7.1	7.4	6.9	10.5	15.0	14.4	16.7	7.9	7.4	8.4
China	8.9	5.8	6.8	6.4	6.8	6.9	8.6	9.0	10.2	10.7	4.0	4.6	4.8
Serbia and Montenegro	10.9	8.6	8.4	7.9	8.3	13.6	8.4	8.5	7.3	6.7	3.9	3.5	3.2
Slovak Republic	1.7	1.6	2.2	1.5	2.5	1.2	3.6	4.3	4.9	6.1	2.5	2.9	3.5
Former Yugoslavia	4.1	..	3.7	4.2	3.5	3.3	1.8	1.5	1.4
Viet Nam	2.4	1.9	2.2	2.1	2.4	2.5	3.1	3.1	3.0	3.3	1.5	1.4	1.6
Austria	1.1	0.7	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.5	1.5	2.2	2.6	3.0	0.8	0.9	1.0
Russian Federation	3.0	1.9	2.0	1.8	2.2	2.6	2.8	2.8	2.8	2.9	1.7	1.7	1.8
Poland	4.1	2.3	2.2	1.9	2.2	2.2	2.4	2.7	2.6	2.8	1.7	1.6	1.7
Former USSR	6.3	5.6	5.1	5.7	4.0	5.1	3.0	3.1	2.7	2.6	2.2	1.9	1.8
United Kingdom	1.4	0.6	0.7	0.9	1.0	0.4	1.5	1.9	2.1	2.4	0.6	0.7	0.8
United States	1.9	2.3	2.4	0.8	1.0	1.1
France	1.0	0.5	0.6	0.7	0.8	0.3	1.3	1.5	1.5	2.2	0.6	0.6	0.9
Other countries	34.2	22.5	22.8	21.9	19.0	18.3	22.5	23.0	31.5	35.2	10.1	13.7	15.2
Total	153.1	110.0	116.4	115.9	130.1	142.2	154.4	166.0	174.7	184.4	82.0	84.8	88.5

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/885716405763>


Table B.1.5. **Stock of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

IRELAND

	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	Of which: Women			
											2006	2007	2008	
United Kingdom	101.3	110.6	55.5
Poland	2.1	62.7	22.8
Lithuania	2.1	24.4	10.8
Nigeria	8.7	16.0	8.8
Latvia	1.8	13.2	6.1
United States	11.1	12.3	6.8
China	5.8	11.0	5.0
Germany	7.0	10.1	5.5
Philippines	3.7	9.3	5.5
France	6.2	8.9	4.5
India	2.5	8.3	4.0
Slovak Republic	8.0	2.8
Romania	4.9	7.6	3.5
Italy	3.7	6.1	2.6
Spain	4.3	6.0	3.6
Other countries	54.1	98.8	45.4
Total	219.3	413.2	193.1

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/885716405763>Table B.1.5. **Stock of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

ITALY

	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	Of which: Women		
											2006	2007	2008
Romania	61.2	70.0	83.0	95.0	177.8	248.8	297.6	342.2	625.3	796.5	180.0	331.1	423.2
Albania	133.0	146.3	159.3	216.6	270.4	316.7	348.8	375.9	401.9	441.4	166.7	179.8	199.6
Morocco	155.9	162.3	167.9	215.4	253.4	294.9	319.5	343.2	365.9	403.6	137.4	149.4	169.9
China	56.7	60.1	62.1	69.6	86.7	111.7	127.8	144.9	156.5	170.3	68.1	74.1	81.4
Ukraine	6.5	9.1	12.6	12.7	58.0	93.4	107.1	120.1	132.7	154.0	97.0	106.8	123.0
Philippines	67.4	65.1	67.7	64.9	72.4	82.6	89.7	101.3	105.7	113.7	59.7	61.8	66.1
Tunisia	46.8	46.0	53.4	59.5	68.6	78.2	83.6	88.9	93.6	100.1	30.6	32.8	35.9
Poland	29.5	30.4	32.9	30.0	40.3	50.8	60.8	72.5	90.2	99.4	51.9	63.4	69.6
India	27.6	30.0	32.5	35.5	44.8	54.3	61.8	69.5	77.4	91.9	27.2	31.1	37.5
Moldova	1.9	3.3	5.7	7.0	24.6	38.0	47.6	55.8	68.6	89.4	36.3	45.6	59.4
FYR of Macedonia	19.8	22.5	24.7	34.0	51.2	58.5	63.2	74.2	78.1	89.1	31.2	33.1	38.3
Ecuador	10.5	11.2	12.3	15.3	33.5	53.2	62.0	68.9	73.2	80.1	41.9	44.1	47.5
Peru	29.1	30.1	31.7	34.2	43.0	53.4	59.3	66.5	70.8	77.6	40.6	42.9	46.7
Egypt	34.0	32.4	31.8	33.7	40.6	52.9	58.9	65.7	69.6	74.6	18.9	20.5	22.6
Sri Lanka	32.0	33.8	38.8	34.2	39.2	45.6	50.5	56.7	61.1	68.7	25.1	27.0	30.6
Other countries	628.8	627.2	631.9	591.6	685.6	769.1	832.2	892.6	962.0	1 041.0	453.0	487.5	526.3
Total	1 340.7	1 379.7	1 448.4	1 549.4	1 990.2	2 402.2	2 670.5	2 938.9	3 432.7	3 891.3	1 465.8	1 730.8	1 977.7

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.


StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/885716405763>


Table B.1.5. **Stock of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

JAPAN

	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	Of which: Women		
											2006	2007	2008
China	294.2	335.6	381.2	424.3	462.4	487.6	519.6	560.7	606.9	655.4	327.5	351.1	377.7
Korea	636.5	635.3	632.4	625.4	613.8	607.4	598.7	598.2	593.5	589.2	322.0	320.5	319.0
Brazil	224.3	254.4	266.0	268.3	274.7	286.6	302.1	313.0	317.0	312.6	141.5	143.8	142.4
Philippines	115.7	144.9	156.7	169.4	185.2	199.4	187.3	193.5	202.6	210.6	152.3	158.1	163.3
Peru	42.8	46.2	50.1	51.8	53.6	55.8	57.7	58.7	59.7	59.7	27.4	28.0	28.1
United States	42.8	44.9	46.2	48.0	47.8	48.8	49.4	51.3	51.9	52.7	17.9	17.9	18.0
Thailand	25.3	29.3	31.7	33.7	34.8	36.3	37.7	39.6	41.4	42.6	29.2	30.2	31.0
Viet Nam	14.9	16.9	19.1	21.1	23.9	26.0	28.9	32.5	36.9	41.1	15.2	16.5	17.9
Indonesia	16.4	19.3	20.8	21.7	22.9	23.9	25.1	24.9	25.6	27.3	7.7	7.8	8.1
India	9.1	10.1	11.7	13.3	14.2	15.5	17.0	18.9	20.6	22.3	5.5	6.1	6.7
United Kingdom	15.4	16.5	17.5	18.5	18.2	18.1	17.5	17.8	17.3	17.0	5.3	5.0	4.8
Nepal	7.8	9.4	12.3	2.3	2.7	3.5
Bangladesh	6.6	7.2	7.9	8.7	9.7	10.7	11.0	11.3	11.3	11.4	2.4	2.5	2.7
Canada	9.2	10.1	11.0	11.9	12.0	12.1	12.0	11.9	11.5	11.0	4.0	3.7	3.4
Australia	8.2	9.2	10.6	11.4	11.6	11.7	11.3	11.4	11.0	10.7	4.0	3.7	3.5
Other countries	94.9	106.7	115.6	124.3	130.1	133.9	136.3	131.6	135.0	139.9	51.4	52.6	54.7
Total	1 556.1	1 686.4	1 778.5	1 851.8	1 915.0	1 973.7	2 011.6	2 083.2	2 151.4	2 215.9	1 115.6	1 150.1	1 184.9

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/885716405763>Table B.1.5. **Stock of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

KOREA

	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	Of which: Women		
											2006	2007	2008
China	39.7	59.0	73.6	84.5	185.5	208.8	217.0	311.8	421.5	487.1	161.0	213.5	247.4
Viet Nam	10.0	15.6	16.0	16.9	23.3	26.1	35.5	52.2	67.2	79.8	20.4	28.1	34.8
United States	25.8	22.8	22.0	37.6	40.0	39.0	41.8	46.0	51.1	56.2	21.0	23.3	11.5
Philippines	10.8	16.0	16.4	17.3	27.6	27.9	30.7	40.3	42.9	39.4	13.4	14.2	15.0
Thailand	1.8	3.2	3.6	4.8	20.0	21.9	21.4	30.2	31.7	30.1	6.3	6.4	6.5
Indonesia	13.6	16.7	15.6	17.1	28.3	26.1	22.6	23.7	23.7	27.4	2.9	2.7	2.7
Chinese Taipei	23.0	23.0	22.8	22.7	22.6	22.3	22.2	22.1	22.1	27.0	10.3	10.3	10.1
Mongolia	1.4	9.2	11.0	13.7	19.2	20.5	21.2	6.0	7.0	7.7
Japan	13.2	14.0	14.7	15.4	16.2	16.6	17.5	18.0	18.4	18.6	12.2	12.6	12.7
Uzbekistan	2.3	3.7	4.0	4.1	10.7	11.5	10.8	11.6	10.9	15.0	2.1	2.4	3.5
Sri Lanka	2.2	2.5	2.5	2.7	4.9	5.5	8.5	11.1	12.1	14.3	0.7	0.7	0.6
Canada	3.0	3.3	4.0	7.0	8.0	8.8	10.0	11.3	13.0	14.2	4.9	5.8	2.9
Pakistan	1.8	3.2	3.3	3.7	7.1	9.2	8.7	8.9	8.0	7.9	0.2	0.3	0.4
Bangladesh	6.7	7.9	9.1	9.0	13.6	13.1	9.1	8.6	7.8	7.7	0.3	0.3	0.3
Cambodia	0.0	0.7	1.3	2.0	3.3	4.6	7.0	0.8	2.3	3.3
Other countries	14.9	19.2	22.1	27.4	42.6	42.4	39.2	42.4	44.6	42.7	13.5	15.0	14.3
Total	169.0	210.2	229.6	271.7	460.3	491.4	510.5	660.6	800.3	895.5	276.0	344.9	373.9

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.



StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/885716405763>

Table B.1.5. **Stock of foreign population by nationality**Thousands
LUXEMBOURG

	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	Of which: Women		
											2006	2007	2008
Portugal	57.0	58.5	59.8	61.4	64.9	67.8	70.8	73.7	76.6	80.0
France	18.8	20.1	20.9	21.6	22.2	23.1	24.1	25.2	26.6	28.5
Italy	20.1	20.3	19.1	19.0	19.0	19.0	19.1	19.1	19.1	19.4
Belgium	14.5	15.1	15.4	15.9	16.2	16.3	16.5	16.5	16.5	16.7
Germany	10.5	10.6	10.1	10.2	10.5	10.8	10.9	11.3	11.6	12.0
United Kingdom	4.6	4.9	4.5	4.7	4.7	4.7	4.8	4.9	5.0	5.3
Netherlands	3.8	3.9	3.6	3.6	3.6	3.7	3.7	3.8	3.8	3.9
Spain	3.0	3.0	2.8	2.9	2.9	3.0	3.1	3.2	3.2	3.3
Poland	0.7	0.8	1.0	1.3	1.6	1.8	2.2
Denmark	2.0	2.2	2.0	2.0	2.0	2.0	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.2
Sweden	1.1	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.3	1.4	1.5	1.7	1.8
Greece	1.3	1.4	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.3	1.4	1.4	1.5
Ireland	1.0	1.1	1.0	1.0	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.2	1.2	1.3
Finland	0.7	0.7	0.8	0.8	0.9	0.9	1.0	1.0	1.1	1.1
Romania	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.6	0.9	1.1
Other countries	21.0	21.9	24.1	24.1	26.2	27.6	29.4	31.1	33.3	35.2
Total	159.4	164.7	166.7	170.7	177.8	183.7	191.3	198.3	205.9	215.5

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/885716405763>Table B.1.5. **Stock of foreign population by nationality**Thousands
NETHERLANDS

	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	Of which: Women		
											2006	2007	2008
Turkey	100.7	100.8	100.3	100.3	101.8	100.6	98.9	96.8	93.7	92.7	49.5	47.8	47.1
Morocco	119.7	111.4	104.3	97.8	94.4	91.6	86.2	80.5	74.9	70.8	40.0	37.1	35.2
Germany	54.3	54.8	55.6	56.1	56.5	57.1	58.5	60.2	62.4	65.9	31.7	33.2	35.4
United Kingdom	39.5	41.4	43.6	44.1	43.7	42.5	41.5	40.3	40.2	41.1	16.2	16.1	16.5
Poland	5.6	5.9	6.3	6.9	7.4	11.0	15.2	19.6	26.2	35.5	11.1	13.8	18.2
Belgium	25.4	25.9	26.1	26.3	26.2	26.1	26.0	26.0	26.2	26.6	14.1	14.2	14.4
Italy	17.9	18.2	18.6	18.7	18.5	18.4	18.5	18.6	19.0	20.3	6.7	6.9	7.4
China	7.5	8.0	9.4	11.2	13.3	14.7	15.0	15.3	16.2	18.1	8.5	8.8	9.6
Spain	16.9	17.2	17.4	17.5	17.4	17.1	16.9	16.5	16.5	17.3	8.3	8.4	8.8
France	12.5	13.3	14.1	14.5	14.5	14.5	14.7	14.7	15.1	16.4	7.5	7.7	8.3
United States	14.1	14.8	15.2	15.4	15.1	14.8	14.6	14.6	14.5	14.9	7.3	7.3	7.5
Portugal	9.2	9.8	10.6	11.3	11.8	12.0	12.1	12.2	12.9	14.2	5.6	5.9	6.4
Indonesia	8.7	9.3	10.1	10.8	11.2	11.4	11.5	11.4	11.4	11.6	7.7	7.7	7.8
Bulgaria	0.7	0.9	1.1	1.4	1.7	1.9	2.1	2.2	6.4	10.2	1.5	3.5	5.2
India	3.2	3.4	3.4	3.4	3.6	3.7	4.3	5.4	6.4	8.0	2.1	2.4	3.0
Other countries	215.5	232.8	254.3	264.3	265.0	261.8	255.3	247.6	246.2	255.9	128.1	127.9	132.1
Total	651.5	667.8	690.4	700.0	702.2	699.4	691.4	681.9	688.4	719.5	345.9	348.8	362.8

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.


StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/885716405763>


Table B.1.5. **Stock of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

NORWAY

	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	Of which: Women		
											2006	2007	2008
Poland	2.0	2.0	2.2	2.6	2.7	3.9	6.8	13.6	26.8	39.2	4.0	7.1	11.1
Sweden	25.1	25.2	25.1	25.2	25.4	25.8	26.6	27.9	29.9	32.8	13.8	14.6	15.9
Denmark	19.2	19.4	19.7	20.0	20.0	20.1	20.2	20.3	20.5	20.6	9.5	9.6	9.6
Germany	6.7	7.1	7.5	8.2	8.8	9.6	10.6	12.2	15.3	18.9	5.6	6.9	8.4
United Kingdom	11.4	11.1	11.0	11.2	11.0	11.2	11.2	11.6	12.0	12.6	4.4	4.5	4.6
Iraq	5.8	9.9	10.8	13.0	13.4	13.7	13.1	12.1	10.7	11.0	5.3	4.6	4.6
Somalia	4.8	6.2	6.6	8.4	9.9	10.5	10.6	10.8	10.6	10.9	5.1	4.8	5.1
Russian Federation	2.7	3.3	3.9	4.8	6.2	7.4	8.2	8.8	9.7	10.4	5.6	6.1	6.4
United States	8.3	8.0	7.9	8.0	7.7	7.6	7.6	7.7	7.9	8.3	4.0	4.1	4.3
Thailand	2.4	2.7	3.0	3.6	4.2	5.0	5.7	6.4	6.9	7.9	5.4	5.9	6.7
Lithuania	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.8	0.9	1.3	1.9	3.0	5.1	7.6	1.5	2.2	3.1
Afghanistan	0.4	1.0	1.8	3.0	4.3	5.1	5.9	6.5	6.5	6.6	2.8	2.8	2.7
Netherlands	3.5	3.6	3.7	3.8	4.0	4.2	4.6	5.1	5.8	6.4	2.3	2.6	2.9
Finland	5.7	6.0	6.1	6.4	6.3	6.0	5.8	5.8	6.0	6.1	3.4	3.4	3.6
Philippines	1.8	2.0	2.1	2.4	2.6	2.9	3.3	3.9	4.8	6.1	3.2	4.0	5.0
Other countries	78.4	76.7	73.9	76.3	77.2	79.1	80.1	82.6	87.7	97.8	42.7	44.5	48.8
Total	178.7	184.3	185.9	197.7	204.7	213.3	222.3	238.3	266.3	303.0	118.7	127.6	142.6

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/885716405763>Table B.1.5. **Stock of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

POLAND

	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	Of which: Women		
											2006	2007	2008
Germany	3.7	11.4	11.8	12.2	5.9	6.1	6.3
Ukraine	9.9	5.2	6.1	7.2	3.5	4.2	4.9
Russian Federation	4.3	3.3	3.4	3.5	2.3	2.4	2.4
Austria	0.3	2.6	2.7	2.8	1.5	1.6	1.6
Sweden	0.5	2.6	2.8	2.8	1.5	1.7	1.7
Belarus	2.9	1.5	1.8	2.2	1.1	1.3	1.5
Viet Nam	2.1	1.9	2.0	2.2	0.7	0.8	0.8
Greece	0.5	1.2	1.2	1.2	0.4	0.4	0.4
Former USSR	1.3	1.3	1.2	0.9	0.9	0.8
United States	1.3	1.0	1.0	1.1	0.4	0.4	0.5
Bulgaria	1.1	1.0	1.0	1.1	0.3	0.3	0.3
Armenia	1.6	0.8	0.8	0.9	0.3	0.3	0.4
Czech Republic	0.8	0.6	0.6	0.7	0.4	0.4	0.4
United Kingdom	1.0	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.2	0.2	0.2
France	1.0	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.2	0.2	0.2
Other countries	18.2	19.4	19.6	20.1	9.5	9.6	9.8
Total	49.2	54.9	57.5	60.4	29.2	30.7	32.3

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.


StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/885716405763>


Table B.1.5. **Stock of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

PORTUGAL

	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	Of which: Women		
											2006	2007	2008
Brazil	20.9	22.2	48.7	61.6	66.3	78.6	70.4	74.0	69.8	107.3	37.4	34.5	57.5
Ukraine	45.7	63.0	66.4	67.0	44.9	42.8	40.1	52.6	16.3	15.2	22.4
Cape Verde	43.8	47.1	57.3	62.1	63.6	65.6	69.6	68.2	65.0	51.8	30.9	28.9	26.7
Angola	17.7	20.4	28.4	32.7	34.4	35.4	34.6	33.7	32.9	27.8	15.6	15.1	13.9
Romania	0.2	0.4	8.4	11.3	12.0	12.5	11.1	12.0	19.4	27.4	5.0	8.1	11.6
Guinea-Bissau	14.1	15.9	21.3	23.8	24.8	25.6	25.2	24.6	24.5	25.1	8.4	8.2	9.5
Moldova	10.1	13.1	13.7	14.8	15.5	16.0	15.0	21.4	6.0	5.4	9.0
United Kingdom	13.3	14.1	15.0	15.9	16.9	18.0	19.0	19.8	23.6	15.4	9.3	11.1	7.5
China	2.7	3.3	7.3	8.5	9.1	9.7	9.4	10.6	10.8	13.4	4.6	4.6	6.2
Sao Tome and Principe	4.8	5.4	8.3	9.6	10.1	10.9	11.9	11.4	11.0	12.0	5.9	5.6	6.4
Germany	8.0	10.4	11.1	11.9	12.5	13.1	13.6	13.9	15.5	8.2	6.4	7.2	4.0
Spain	11.2	12.2	13.6	14.6	15.3	15.9	16.4	16.6	18.0	7.2	8.4	9.1	3.5
Bulgaria	0.3	0.4	2.2	3.5	4.0	3.9	3.3	3.6	5.1	6.5	1.5	2.2	2.8
Russian Federation	0.4	0.5	6.5	8.0	7.8	8.2	5.4	5.7	5.4	6.3	3.1	2.7	3.5
India	1.2	1.3	4.3	5.0	5.2	5.3	4.0	4.2	4.4	5.6	1.3	1.2	1.3
Other countries	52.2	54.0	72.6	79.1	82.4	84.7	78.1	80.3	85.9	55.3	35.3	36.6	23.9
Total	190.9	207.6	360.8	423.8	444.6	469.1	432.0	437.1	446.3	443.1	195.3	195.6	209.7

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/885716405763>Table B.1.5. **Stock of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

SLOVAK REPUBLIC

	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	Of which: Women		
											2006	2007	2008
Czech Republic	7.0	6.3	5.9	5.4	4.9	3.6	4.4	5.1	6.0	6.9	2.1	2.4	2.9
Romania	0.4	0.7	3.0	5.0	0.3	0.8	1.3
Ukraine	3.9	4.3	4.6	4.7	4.9	4.0	3.7	3.9	3.7	4.7	2.2	2.0	2.3
Poland	2.6	2.4	2.4	2.4	2.4	2.5	2.8	3.6	4.0	4.4	1.9	2.0	2.1
Germany	1.6	2.3	2.9	3.8	0.5	0.6	0.8
Hungary	1.8	2.1	2.7	3.6	0.8	0.9	1.1
Serbia	1.4	2.9	..	0.6	1.1
Viet Nam	0.8	1.1	1.4	2.5	0.4	0.6	0.8
Austria	0.9	1.2	1.5	1.7	0.2	0.3	0.4
Korea	0.4	0.8	1.1	1.5	0.3	0.4	0.6
Russian Federation	1.2	1.3	1.4	1.5	0.8	0.8	0.9
China	0.5	0.9	1.2	1.5	0.4	0.6	0.7
Bulgaria	0.6	0.5	1.0	1.4	0.2	0.3	0.3
France	0.6	0.9	1.1	1.3	0.3	0.3	0.4
United Kingdom	0.5	0.7	1.0	1.2	0.2	0.3	0.3
Other countries	16.0	15.8	16.5	17.0	17.0	12.1	5.3	6.9	7.5	8.7	2.1	2.2	2.6
Total	29.5	28.8	29.4	29.5	29.2	22.3	25.6	32.1	40.9	52.5	12.8	15.2	18.5

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.


StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/885716405763>


Table B.1.5. **Stock of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

SWEDEN

	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	Of which: Women		
											2006	2007	2008
Finland	99.0	98.6	97.5	96.3	93.5	90.3	87.1	83.5	80.4	77.1	47.8	46.1	44.4
Iraq	30.2	33.1	36.2	40.1	41.5	39.8	31.9	30.3	40.0	48.6	13.6	17.0	21.3
Denmark	25.0	25.6	26.6	28.1	29.7	31.2	32.9	35.8	38.4	39.7	14.9	16.1	16.5
Norway	30.9	32.0	33.3	34.7	35.5	35.6	35.4	35.5	35.6	35.5	18.0	18.0	18.0
Poland	16.3	16.7	15.5	13.9	13.4	14.7	17.2	22.4	28.9	34.7	12.5	15.2	17.7
Germany	15.5	16.4	17.3	18.1	19.1	19.9	21.0	22.5	24.7	26.6	10.6	11.7	12.6
Somalia	13.5	11.5	9.6	8.7	8.8	9.0	9.6	11.6	14.7	18.3	5.6	7.2	9.1
United Kingdom	12.4	13.1	13.8	14.2	14.4	14.6	14.7	15.1	15.7	16.5	4.6	4.8	4.9
Thailand	5.5	5.8	6.3	6.8	8.3	9.8	11.2	12.5	13.9	15.5	10.1	11.2	12.6
Iran	16.1	14.3	13.5	12.9	12.5	12.4	11.5	10.5	10.2	10.6	5.2	5.0	5.1
Turkey	16.4	15.8	13.9	12.6	12.4	12.3	11.7	10.2	10.0	10.2	4.6	4.4	4.4
China	4.2	4.4	4.9	5.2	5.7	6.2	6.7	6.9	7.7	9.4	3.7	4.1	5.1
Bosnia and Herzegovina	34.2	22.8	19.7	17.0	15.5	14.8	13.7	12.1	10.5	9.1	6.1	5.2	4.5
United States	9.6	10.0	10.0	9.6	9.4	9.3	9.2	8.4	8.3	8.5	3.7	3.6	3.8
Afghanistan	3.2	3.8	4.6	5.3	6.1	6.8	6.9	7.7	7.9	8.2	3.4	3.5	3.6
Other countries	155.0	153.5	153.3	150.6	150.5	154.7	159.3	167.0	177.6	193.5	79.5	83.5	90.0
Total	487.2	477.3	476.0	474.1	476.1	481.1	479.9	492.0	524.5	562.1	244.0	256.7	273.7

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.


StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/885716405763>Table B.1.5. **Stock of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

TURKEY

	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	Of which: Women		
											2000	2007	2008
Germany	..	86.4	43.4
Bulgaria	..	36.7	18.6
Russian Federation	..	13.8	7.9
United Kingdom	..	11.4	5.8
Azerbaijan	..	9.0	3.4
Netherlands	..	9.0	4.3
Iran	..	8.2	3.2
United States	..	7.6	3.1
Austria	..	6.1	2.9
Greece	..	6.0	2.9
Iraq	..	5.5	2.2
France	..	4.3	2.1
Sweden	..	3.8	2.0
Uzbekistan	..	3.7	1.8
Afghanistan	..	3.4	1.2
Other countries	..	56.3	26.6
Total	..	271.3	131.5

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/885716405763>

Metadata related to tables A.1.5. and B.1.5. **Foreign population**

Country	Comments	Source
AUT Austria	Stock of foreign citizens recorded in the population register. Break in time series in 2002. <i>Reference date:</i> 31 December. Prior to 2002: annual average.	Population register, Statistics Austria. Prior to 2002: Labour Force Survey, Statistics Austria.
BEL Belgium	Stock of foreign citizens recorded in the population register. Asylum seekers were regrouped under a fictive category "Refugees". From 1st January 2008 on, they are classified as any other migrant. This may explain some artificial increase for some nationalities. <i>Reference date:</i> 31 December.	Population Register, Directorate for Statistics and Economic Information.
CHE Switzerland	Stock of all those with residence or settlement permits (permits B and C respectively). Holders of an L-permit (short duration) are also included if their stay in the country is longer than 12 months. Does not include seasonal or cross-border workers. Data for 2006 refer to Serbia instead of Serbia and Montenegro. <i>Reference date:</i> 31 December	Register of foreigners, Federal Office of Migration.
CZE Czech Republic	Holders of a permanent residence permit (mainly for family reasons), long-term visas (over 90 days), a long-term residence permit (1-year permit, renewable) or a temporary residence permit (EU citizens). <i>Reference date:</i> 31 December.	Register of foreigners, Ministry of the Interior.
DEU Germany	Stock of foreign citizens recorded in the population register. Includes asylum seekers living in private households. Excludes foreign-born persons of German origin (<i>Aussiedler</i>). Decrease in 2004 is due to cross checking of residence register and central alien register. <i>Reference date:</i> 31 December.	Central population register, Federal Office of Statistics.
DNK Denmark	Stock of foreign citizens recorded in the population register. Excludes asylum seekers and all persons with temporary residence permits. <i>Reference date:</i> 31 December.	Central population register, Statistics Denmark.
ESP Spain	Stock of foreign citizens recorded in the population register.	National Statistical Institute (INE)
FIN Finland	Stock of foreign citizens recorded in population register. Includes foreign persons of Finnish origin. <i>Reference date:</i> 30 September.	Central population register, Statistics Finland.
FRA France	Foreigners with permanent residence in France. Including trainees, students and illegal migrants who accept to be interviewed. Excluding seasonal and cross-border workers.	Censuses, National Institute for Statistics and Economic Studies (INSEE).
GBR United Kingdom	Foreign residents. Those with unknown nationality from the New Commonwealth are not included (around 10 000 to 15 000 persons). There is a break in the series as 2004 data are calculated using a new weighting system. <i>Reference date:</i> 31 December. <i>Other comments:</i> Figures are rounded and not published if less than 10 000.	Labour Force Survey, Home Office.
GRC Greece	Labour Force Survey.	National Statistical Service of Greece.
HUN Hungary	Holders of a permanent or a long-term residence permit. From 2000 on, registers have been purged of expired permits. <i>Reference date:</i> 31 December.	Register of foreigners, Ministry of the Interior.
IRL Ireland	Estimates in Table A.1.5. are from the Labour Force Survey. Data by nationality (Table B.1.5.) are from the 2002 and 2006 Censuses and refer to persons aged 15 years and over. <i>Reference date:</i> 28 April 2002 (2002 Census), 2006 Census and 2nd quarter of each year (Labour Force survey).	Central Statistics Office (CSO).
ITA Italy	Until 2003, data refer to holders of residence permits Children under 18 who are registered on their parents' permit are not counted. Data include foreigners who were regularised following the 1987-1988, 1990, 1995-1996, 1998 and 2002 programmes. In 1999 and 2000, figures include 139 601 and 116 253 regularised persons respectively. Data for "Former Yugoslavia" refer to persons entering with a Yugoslav passport (with no other specification). Since 2004, data refer to resident foreigners (those who are registered with municipal registry offices). <i>Reference date:</i> 31 December.	Ministry of the Interior. ISTAT

Metadata related to tables A.1.5. and B.1.5. **Foreign population**

Country	Comments	Source
JPN Japan	Foreigners staying in Japan more than 90 days and registered in population registers. <i>Reference date:</i> 31 December.	Register of foreigners, Ministry of Justice, Immigration Bureau.
KOR Korea	Foreigners staying in Korea more than 90 days and registered in population registers. Data have been revised since 2002 in order to include foreign nationals with Korean ancestors (called as overseas Koreans) who enter with F-4 visa and are also registered in population registers. The large increase in 2003 is mainly due to a regularisation program introduced this year.	Ministry of Justice.
LUX Luxembourg	Stock of foreign citizens recorded in population register. Does not include visitors (less than three months) and cross-border workers. <i>Reference date:</i> 31 December.	Population register, Central Office of Statistics and Economic Studies (Statec).
NLD Netherlands	Stock of foreign citizens recorded in the population register. Figures include administrative corrections and asylum seekers (except those staying in reception centres). <i>Reference date:</i> Presented data is count on 1 January of the next year. Thus population in 2006 is the population on 1 January 2007.	Population register, Central Bureau of Statistics (CBS).
NOR Norway	Stock of foreign citizens recorded in population register. Excluding visitors (less than six months) and cross-border workers. <i>Reference date:</i> 31 December.	CPR, Statistics Norway.
POL Poland	The data refer to the stock of foreign nationals who are permanent residents of Poland. Excluding foreign permanent residents who had been staying abroad for more than 12 months and foreign temporary residents who had been staying in Poland for less than 12 months. Data for 2006 are from the Central Population Register, <i>Reference date:</i> May 2002.	Census, Central Statistical Office.
PRT Portugal	Holders of a valid residence permit. Data for 1996 include 21 800 permits delivered following the regularisation programmes. Data for 2001, 2002, 2003 and 2004 include Stay Permits delivered following the 2001 regularisation programme as well as the foreigners who received Long Term Permits (Temporary Stay, Study and Work) issued in each year. Data for 2005 and 2006 comprehend holders of valid Residence Permits, holders of valid Stay Permits (foreigners who renovated their Stay Permits in each year) and holders of Long Term Visas (both issued and renewed every year). Work Visas issued after 2004 comprehend a certain number of foreigners that benefited from the regularisation scheme and also from the specific dispositions applying to Brazilian workers that resulted from a bilateral agreement signed between Portugal and Brazil. Data for women do not include the holders of long-term visas issued in 2005 or 2007.	Ministry of the Interior; National Statistical Office (INE) and Ministry of Foreign Affairs.
SVK Slovak Republic		Register of foreigners, Ministry of the Interior.
SWE Sweden	Stock of foreign citizens recorded in the population register. In 2006, Serbia and Montenegro became two separate countries and people who were previously citizens of Serbia and Montenegro and who have not registered a new country of citizenship with the Swedish Migration Board are reported as having an unknown country of citizenship. This explains the large increase in people with an unknown country of citizenship. <i>Reference date:</i> 31 December.	Population register, Statistics Sweden.
TUR Turkey		General Population Census

Acquisition of nationality

Nationality law can have a significant impact on the measurement of the national and foreign populations. In France and Belgium, for example, where foreigners can fairly easily acquire the nationality of the host country, increases in the foreign population through immigration and births can eventually contribute to a significant rise in the population of nationals. On the other hand, in countries where naturalisation is more difficult, increases in immigration and births amongst foreigners manifest themselves almost exclusively as rises in the foreign population. In addition, changes in rules regarding naturalisation can have significant numerical effects. For example, during the 1980s, a number of OECD countries made naturalisation easier and this resulted in noticeable falls in the foreign population (and rises in the population of nationals).

However, host-country legislation is not the only factor affecting naturalisation. For example, where naturalisation involves forfeiting citizenship of the country of origin, there may be incentives to remain a foreign citizen. Where the difference between remaining a foreign citizen or becoming a national is marginal, naturalisation may largely be influenced by the time and effort required to make the application, and the symbolic and political value individuals attach to being citizens of one country or another.

Data on naturalisations are usually readily available from administrative sources. As with other administrative data, resource constraints in processing applications may result in a backlog of unprocessed applications which are not reflected in the figures. The statistics generally cover all means of acquiring the nationality of a country. These include standard naturalisation procedures subject to criteria such as age or residency, etc. as well as situations where nationality is acquired through a declaration or by option (following marriage, adoption or other situations related to residency or descent), recovery of former nationality and other special means of acquiring the nationality of the country).

Table A.1.6. **Acquisition of nationality in OECD countries**
Numbers and percentages

		1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
Countries where the national/foreigner distinction is prevalent											
AUT	Austria	24 678	24 320	31 731	36 011	44 694	41 645	34 876	25 746	14 010	10 268
	% of foreign population	3.6	3.5	4.5	5.0	6.0	5.5	4.5	3.2	1.7	1.2
BEL	Belgium	24 273	62 082	62 982	46 417	33 709	34 754	31 512	31 860	36 063	45 204
	% of foreign population	2.7	6.9	7.3	5.5	4.0	4.0	3.6	3.5	3.9	3.9
CHE	Switzerland	20 363	28 700	27 586	36 515	35 424	35 685	38 437	46 711	43 889	44 365
	% of foreign population	1.5	2.1	2.0	2.6	2.4	2.4	2.6	3.1	2.9	2.8
CZE	Czech Republic	8 107	8 335	6 321	4 532	3 410	5 020	2 626	2 346	1 877	1 837
	% of foreign population	3.7	3.6	3.1	2.1	1.5	2.1	1.0	0.8	0.6	0.5
DEU	Germany	142 670	186 688	178 098	154 547	140 731	127 153	117 241	124 832	113 030	94 500
	% of foreign population	1.9	2.5	2.4	2.1	1.9	1.7	1.7	1.8	1.7	1.4
DNK	Denmark	12 416	18 811	11 902	17 300	6 583	14 976	10 197	7 961	3 648	5 772
	% of foreign population	4.8	7.3	4.6	6.5	2.5	5.5	3.8	2.9	1.3	1.8
ESP	Spain	16 394	11 999	16 743	21 810	26 556	38 335	42 829	62 339	71 810	..
	% of foreign population	2.2	1.3	1.2	1.1	1.0	1.3	1.1	1.5	1.6	..
FIN	Finland	4 730	2 977	2 720	3 049	4 526	6 880	5 683	4 433	4 824	6 682
	% of foreign population	5.6	3.4	3.0	3.1	4.4	6.4	5.2	3.9	4.0	5.0
FRA	France	147 522	150 026	127 548	128 092	144 640	168 826	154 827	147 868	131 738	137 452
	% of foreign population	..	4.6	4.2
GBR	United Kingdom	54 902	82 210	90 295	120 125	130 535	148 275	161 700	154 020	164 635	129 310
	% of foreign population	2.5	3.7	3.9	4.6	5.1	5.4	5.7	5.1	4.9	3.4
HUN	Hungary	6 066	7 538	8 590	3 369	5 261	5 432	9 870	6 172	8 505	8 060
	% of foreign population	4.0	4.9	7.8	2.9	4.5	4.2	6.9	4.0	5.1	4.4
IRL	Ireland	1 433	1 143	2 443	2 817	3 993	3 784	4 079	5 763	6 656	..
	% of foreign population	1.3	1.0	1.9	1.8	2.1	1.7	1.8	2.2
ITA	Italy	11 335	9 563	10 382	10 685	13 406	11 934	19 266	35 766	38 466	39 484
	% of foreign population	1.0	0.7	0.8	0.7	0.9	0.5	0.8	1.3	1.3	1.0
JPN	Japan	16 120	15 812	15 291	14 339	17 633	16 336	15 251	14 108	14 680	13 218
	% of foreign population	1.1	1.0	0.9	0.8	1.0	0.9	0.8	0.7	0.7	0.6
KOR	Korea	1 680	3 883	7 734	9 262	16 974	8 125	10 139	15 258
	% of foreign population	0.8	1.7	2.8	2.0	3.5	1.6	1.5	1.7
LUX	Luxembourg	549	684	496	754	785	841	954	1 128	1 236	1 215
	% of foreign population	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.6
NLD	Netherlands	62 090	49 968	46 667	45 321	28 799	26 173	28 488	29 089	30 563	28 229
	% of foreign population	9.4	7.7	7.0	6.6	4.1	3.7	4.1	4.2	4.5	3.9
NOR	Norway	7 988	9 517	10 838	9 041	7 867	8 154	12 655	11 955	14 877	10 312
	% of foreign population	4.8	5.3	5.9	4.9	4.0	4.0	5.9	5.4	6.2	3.9
POL	Poland	1 000	975	766	1 186	1 634	1 937	2 866	989	1 528	1 054
	% of foreign population	3.3	2.7	1.7
PRT	Portugal	946	721	1 082	1 369	1 747	1 346	939	3 627	6 020	22 408
	% of foreign population	0.5	0.4	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.2	0.8	1.4	5.0
SVK	Slovak Republic	3 492	4 016	1 393	1 125	1 478	680
	% of foreign population	11.8	13.8	6.3	4.4	4.6	1.3
SWE	Sweden	37 777	42 495	35 458	36 978	32 351	26 130	35 531	46 995	32 473	29 330
	% of foreign population	7.6	8.9	7.6	7.9	7.0	5.9	8.2	10.7	6.8	5.3
TUR	Turkey	23 725	21 086	8 238	6 901	5 072
	% of foreign population
Countries where native-born/foreign-born distinction is prevalent											
AUS	Australia	76 474	70 836	72 070	86 289	79 164	87 049	93 095	103 350	136 256	121 221
CAN	Canada	158 753	214 568	167 353	141 588	155 117	193 159	198 473	260 743	199 831	176 467
MEX	Mexico	569	3 944	3 090	4 737	4 317	6 429	5 610	4 175	5 470	4 471
NZL	New Zealand	34 470	29 609	23 535	19 469	18 296	22 142	24 341	29 017	29 867	23 772
USA	United States	839 944	888 788	608 205	573 708	463 204	537 151	604 280	702 589	660 477	1 046 539
EU25, Norway and Switzerland		585 239	698 752	672 648	679 918	670 143	711 296	715 969	750 725	727 326	616 162
North America		998 697	1 103 356	775 558	715 296	618 321	730 310	802 753	963 332	860 308	1 223 006

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of Tables B.1.6.

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Table B.1.6. Acquisition of nationality by country of former nationality
AUSTRALIA

	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
United Kingdom	13 529	14 592	12 474	16 411	14 854	17 201	20 127	22 143	25 948	27 369
India	2 695	2 381	2 335	2 510	3 051	3 638	5 027	7 439	12 896	9 053
China	10 947	7 664	6 890	6 416	7 126	7 072	7 798	7 317	11 251	8 402
New Zealand	6 320	6 676	11 007	17 334	13 994	13 052	9 363	7 636	7 379	6 806
South Africa	1 606	2 253	2 992	3 922	3 998	4 908	5 085	5 036	6 489	5 490
Iraq	1 698	1 853	1 862	2 182	1 502	1 271	2 115	2 173	1 924	4 216
Philippines	2 606	2 349	2 211	2 849	2 885	3 019	3 653	3 725	5 129	3 827
Afghanistan	798	978	419	515	726	1 181	2 712	3 174
Sudan	414	517	598	834	1 429	2 793	4 573	3 017
Sri Lanka	1 707	1 832	1 672	1 362	1 328	1 582	1 711	1 958	3 571	2 921
Malaysia	1 002	1 154	1 057	1 504	1 619	1 846	1 798	2 000	2 794	2 717
Korea	966	821	643	943	1 124	1 758	2 497	2 388
Viet Nam	3 083	3 441	1 953	2 090	1 676	2 215	2 056	2 114	2 603	2 185
Indonesia	659	765	830	897	1 052	1 397	2 213	2 007
United States	1 083	989	1 004	1 318	1 194	1 409	1 554	1 828	2 107	2 003
Other countries	30 198	25 652	23 776	25 310	23 447	26 647	28 477	32 852	42 170	35 646
Total	76 474	70 836	72 070	86 289	79 164	87 049	93 095	103 350	136 256	121 221

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.


StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/885744678858>

Table B.1.6. Acquisition of nationality by country of former nationality
AUSTRIA

	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
Serbia	534	4 213	2 582
Bosnia and Herzegovina	1 536	2 761	3 856	5 913	8 268	8 657	7 026	4 596	3 329	2 207
Turkey	10 324	6 720	10 046	12 623	13 665	13 004	9 545	7 542	2 076	1 664
Croatia	1 008	1 642	1 986	2 537	2 588	2 212	2 276	2 494	1 349	824
Romania	1 635	2 682	2 813	1 774	2 096	1 373	1 128	981	455	382
FYR of Macedonia	257	241	471	574	786	803	991	716	414	377
Poland	531	545	606	930	768	768	443	236	172	129
Russian Federation	137	168	166	161	83	194	235	228	128	127
India	297	486	638	656	525	562	421	159	137	122
Egypt	572	657	807	599	615	616	506	382	100	121
Afghanistan	56	70	44	69	135	322	454	261	43	106
Iran	498	481	451	328	272	411	432	253	88	99
Ukraine	38	49	71	104	146	230	182	145	81	70
Germany	89	102	106	85	106	135	135	122	113	67
China	379	530	695	687	569	519	298	167	54	64
Other countries	7 321	7 186	8 975	8 971	14 072	11 839	10 804	6 930	1 258	1 327
Total	24 678	24 320	31 731	36 011	44 694	41 645	34 876	25 746	14 010	10 268

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.


StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/885744678858>

Table B.1.6. **Acquisition of nationality by country of former nationality**
BELGIUM

	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
Morocco	9 133	21 917	24 018	15 832	10 565	8 704	7 977	7 753	8 722	8 362
Turkey	4 402	17 282	14 401	7 805	5 186	4 467	3 602	3 204	3 039	3 055
Russian Federation	265	301	237	339	297	496	1 533	2 567
Italy	1 187	3 650	3 451	2 341	2 646	2 271	2 086	2 360	2 017	1 729
Democratic Republic of the Congo	1 890	2 993	2 991	2 809	1 796	2 585	1 876	1 569	1 793	1 502
France	363	948	1 025	856	698	780	772	820	836	816
Serbia and Montenegro	..	145	239	403	317	756	769	768	22	749
Algeria	520	1 071	1 281	926	826	830	739	658	687	713
Netherlands	234	492	601	646	522	665	672	692	668	667
Rwanda	794	1 012	557	571	700	635	924	..
Pakistan	131	75	474	404	270	298	306	348	666	..
Poland	253	551	677	630	460	465	470	550	586	..
Romania	267	403	321	294	277	314	332	429	554	..
Greece	168	319	317	284	279	265	226	310	434	..
Tunisia	301	859	729	521	383	406	297	388	414	..
Other countries	5 424	11 377	11 398	11 353	8 690	11 038	10 391	10 880	13 168	25 044
Total	24 273	62 082	62 982	46 417	33 709	34 754	31 512	31 860	36 063	45 204

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.


StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/885744678858>

Table B.1.6. **Acquisition of nationality by country of former nationality**
CANADA

	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
China	16 946	22 775	17 406	16 321	20 021	25 085	25 725	34 473	24 343	21 025
India	10 963	18 681	14 029	12 623	13 934	21 791	22 008	33 964	25 778	20 824
Philippines	11 486	14 024	9 485	7 622	8 225	9 001	11 029	15 566	12 193	11 654
Pakistan	3 147	8 073	8 610	7 292	6 494	10 634	12 414	17 120	11 622	9 429
Korea	2 135	3 721	3 106	3 464	4 350	5 887	5 424	7 560	5 861	5 248
Iran	3 580	6 495	6 322	5 712	5 135	4 607	4 982	8 089	5 332	4 986
Colombia	318	451	554	724	953	1 508	2 084	3 136	3 781	4 670
Romania	3 792	4 546	3 376	2 672	3 105	3 286	4 467	5 884	4 681	4 373
United States	2 683	3 784	2 943	2 812	3 862	5 267	5 053	5 117	4 267	4 123
Sri Lanka	6 211	6 603	4 376	3 500	3 261	5 150	4 569	5 650	4 703	3 691
Russian Federation	1 729	3 113	3 417	3 379	3 438	3 781	4 073	4 621	3 677	3 320
Afghanistan	943	1 655	1 641	1 456	1 806	2 379	2 874	4 217	3 244	2 557
Ukraine	1 594	2 699	2 130	2 014	2 180	2 811	2 927	4 077	2 839	2 514
Jamaica	2 384	2 941	2 665	2 206	2 932	4 513	3 959	4 856	3 382	2 433
Morocco	796	996	924	922	1 347	1 175	2 337	3 871	2 728	2 225
Other countries	90 046	114 011	86 369	68 869	74 074	86 284	84 548	102 542	81 400	73 395
Total	158 753	214 568	167 353	141 588	155 117	193 159	198 473	260 743	199 831	176 467

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.


StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/885744678858>

Table B.1.6. Acquisition of nationality by country of former nationality
SWITZERLAND

	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
Serbia	11 721	10 441	10 252
Italy	5 510	6 652	5 386	6 633	5 085	4 196	4 032	4 502	4 629	4 921
Germany	461	646	586	817	670	639	773	1 144	1 361	3 022
Turkey	2 260	3 127	3 116	4 128	4 216	3 565	3 467	3 457	3 044	2 866
Bosnia and Herzegovina	409	999	1 128	1 865	2 268	2 371	2 790	3 149	3 008	2 855
FYR of Macedonia	410	857	1 022	1 639	1 802	1 981	2 171	2 596	2 210	2 287
Croatia	671	970	1 045	1 638	1 565	1 616	1 681	1 837	1 660	2 046
Portugal	481	765	779	920	1 165	1 199	1 505	2 383	2 201	1 761
France	848	1 360	1 307	1 367	1 215	1 181	1 021	1 260	1 218	1 110
Spain	507	851	699	691	800	823	975	1 283	1 246	1 096
United Kingdom	228	339	310	350	306	289	287	323	353	319
Austria	140	240	233	227	194	150	167	174	166	193
Netherlands	45	74	90	90	155	254	178	210	234	189
Belgium	40	83	53	118	91	71	63	65	113	153
Poland	226	304	159	200	160	177	163	185	195	152
Other countries	8 127	11 433	11 673	15 832	15 732	17 173	19 164	12 422	11 810	11 143
Total	20 363	28 700	27 586	36 515	35 424	35 685	38 437	46 711	43 889	44 365

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.


StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/885744678858>

Table B.1.6. Acquisition of nationality by country of former nationality
CZECH REPUBLIC

	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
Slovak Republic	6 278	5 377	3 593	2 109	989	1 741	1 259	786	625	521
Ukraine	263	373	173	251	419	446	239	425	424	398
Former Czechoslovakia	798	1 899	1 607	1 273	1 154	1 784	190	205	225	229
Kazakhstan	3	17	25	43	156	89	43	129	18	121
Russian Federation	100	71	87	65	7	86	134	107	102	84
Romania	38	58	140	109	116	101	143	131	36	83
Poland	23	8	163	304	170	298	167	86	50	53
Viet Nam	87	101	76	29	46	47	62	43	40	42
Belarus	7	13	19	13	14	21	35	27	39	27
Serbia and Montenegro	50	12	35	16	14	42	26	31	28	25
Moldova	2	4	4	1	11	9	33	21
Armenia	11	8	11	8	18	23	32	61	28	19
Afghanistan	3	0	4	7	6	1	1	6	5	16
Syria	22	7	7	13	11	10	5	4	5	12
Greece	45	26	38	19	26	16	7	25	31	12
Other countries	379	365	341	269	260	314	272	271	188	174
Total	8 107	8 335	6 321	4 532	3 410	5 020	2 626	2 346	1 877	1 837

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.


StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/885744678858>

Table B.1.6. Acquisition of nationality by country of former nationality
GERMANY

	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
Turkey	103 900	82 861	76 573	64 631	56 244	44 465	32 661	33 388	28 861	24 449
Serbia	6 267
Poland	7 499	6 896	6 907	5 479	4 245
Iraq	3 564	4 136	3 693	4 102	4 229
Morocco	4 312	5 008	4 425	3 800	4 118	3 820	3 684	3 546	3 489	3 130
Iran	1 529	14 410	12 020	13 026	9 440	6 362	4 482	3 662	3 121	2 734
Afghanistan	1 355	4 773	5 111	4 750	4 948	4 077	3 133	3 063	2 831	2 512
Russian Federation	4 381	5 055	4 679	4 069	2 439
Romania	1 309	1 789	1 379	3 502	2 137
Israel	3 164	2 871	4 313	2 405	1 971
Ukraine	3 844	3 363	4 536	4 454	1 953
Bosnia and Herzegovina	3 745	4 002	3 791	2 357	1 770	2 103	1 907	1 862	1 797	1 878
Greece	1 779
Lebanon	2 491	5 673	4 486	3 300	2 651	2 265	1 969	2 030	1 754	1 675
Kazakhstan	1 443	2 975	3 207	218	1 602
Other countries	25 338	69 961	71 692	62 683	61 560	38 857	42 320	48 567	46 948	31 500
Total	142 670	186 688	178 098	154 547	140 731	127 153	117 241	124 832	113 030	94 500

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.


StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/885744678858>

Table B.1.6. Acquisition of nationality by country of former nationality
DENMARK

	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
Iraq	918	2 210	871	1 161	153	1 015	961	1 113	515	1 166
Turkey	3 154	2 787	3 130	2 418	2 158	732	878	1 125	527	581
Somalia	215	1 189	1 074	2 263	324	2 022	1 709	923	317	527
Afghanistan	98	276	215	301	40	367	282	260	178	359
Bosnia and Herzegovina	519	224	270
Iran	914	1 105	437	519	120	505	317	203	89	207
Former Yugoslavia	652	917	355	784	239	835	324	594	165	196
Pakistan	463	545	297	573	94	332	305	172	93	191
China	169	228	195	289	203	339	382	281	162	181
Sri Lanka	523	819	365	594	119	678	332	148	73	127
Morocco	322	485	213	313	69	244	147	114	40	119
Thailand	137	214	124	172	62	180	114	95	61	79
Viet Nam	439	647	318	508	280	318	232	213	129	78
Lebanon	601	1 099	309	376	69	219	140	80	27	73
Norway	134	93	73
Other countries	3 811	6 290	3 999	7 029	2 653	7 190	4 074	1 987	955	1 545
Total	12 416	18 811	11 902	17 300	6 583	14 976	10 197	7 961	3 648	5 772

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.


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Table B.1.6. Acquisition of nationality by country of former nationality
SPAIN

	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
Ecuador	376	292	510	1 173	1 951	6 370	10 031	19 477	21 371	..
Colombia	818	302	848	1 267	1 802	4 194	7 334	12 720	13 852	..
Morocco	2 053	1 921	2 822	3 111	6 827	8 036	5 556	5 690	7 864	..
Peru	2 374	1 488	2 322	3 117	2 932	3 958	3 645	4 713	6 490	..
Argentina	1 027	661	791	997	1 015	1 746	2 293	3 536	4 810	..
Dominican Republic	2 652	1 755	2 126	2 876	2 639	2 834	2 322	2 805	2 800	..
Cuba	1 109	893	1 191	2 088	1 601	1 889	2 506	2 703	2 466	..
Venezuela	290	197	326	439	529	703	752	908	1 324	..
Philippines	551	365	554	831	670	800	680	762	872	..
Uruguay	309	177	239	219	234	327	409	624	839	..
Chile	432	594	359	353	349	484	621	844	838	..
Brazil	308	273	411	477	500	683	695	782	779	..
Bolivia	97	66	89	104	129	218	289	648	709	..
Mexico	198	567	593	..
Gambia	311	442	..
Other countries	3 800	3 015	4 155	4 758	5 378	6 093	5 696	5 249	5 761	..
Total	16 394	11 999	16 743	21 810	26 556	38 335	42 829	62 339	71 810	..

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.


StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/885744678858>

Table B.1.6. Acquisition of nationality by country of former nationality
FINLAND

	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
Russian Federation	800	666	533	418	1 682	2 313	2 094	1 399	1 665	2 211
Somalia	1 208	346	222	204	209	165	414	445	464	595
Iraq	140	185	224	217	165	447	346	405	443	379
Iran	53	102	58	68	124	225	233	213	218	329
Serbia and Montenegro	..	4	14	41	32	338	346	248	232	324
Afghanistan	..	2	..	23	3	14	48	101	102	279
Sweden	84	44	57	61	94	149	198	178	163	274
Estonia	379	353	295	319	468	690	291	176	182	262
Turkey	115	85	82	112	141	171	128	110	102	195
China	123	92	106	136	126	95	60	57	68	84
Bosnia and Herzegovina	1	4	8	34	58	129	129	81	82	84
United States	4	12	9	1	32	90	81	36	42	82
Viet Nam	71	155	164	205	133	209	82	64	79	78
Former Yugoslavia	26	67	72	232	152	111	92	72	46	69
Ukraine	10	32	8	28	66	130	65	46	45	62
Other countries	1 716	828	868	950	1 041	1 604	1 076	802	891	1 375
Total	4 730	2 977	2 720	3 049	4 526	6 880	5 683	4 433	4 824	6 682

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.


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Table B.1.6. Acquisition of nationality by country of former nationality
FRANCE

	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
Morocco	38 298	37 795	34 922	33 967	36 875	..	37 848	28 699
Algeria	15 743	17 627	15 498	15 711	20 245	..	25 435	20 256
Turkey	11 380	12 137	10 755	10 468	10 492	..	13 618	10 202
Tunisia	12 467	12 763	10 251	9 956	11 412	..	12 012	9 471
Portugal	13 151	11 201	9 182	8 844	9 576	..	8 888	7 778
Russian Federation	638	779	730	831	951	..	1 132	3 530
Serbia and Montenegro	2 249	2 358	1 880	1 902	2 129	..	2 737	3 375
Senegal	1 530	1 595	1 463	1 858	2 185	..	2 345	3 038
Congo	932	1 083	1 100	1 475	1 769	..	2 390	2 933
Haiti	1 711	1 920	1 571	2 082	2 734	..	2 744	2 922
Democratic Republic of the Congo	1 495	1 765	1 401	1 572	2 012	..	2 631	2 402
Mali	490	631	581	774	947	..	1 365	2 237
Côte d'Ivoire	1 113	1 409	1 194	1 495	1 869	..	1 987	2 197
Cameroon	1 400	1 556	1 381	1 770	2 196	..	2 081	2 014
Sri Lanka	1 439	1 819	1 345	1 377	1 748	..	2 011	1 544
Other countries	43 486	43 588	34 294	34 010	37 500	..	35 603	34 854
Total	147 522	150 026	127 548	128 092	144 640	168 826	154 827	147 868	131 738	137 452

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.


StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/885744678858>

Table B.1.6. Acquisition of nationality by country of former nationality
HUNGARY

	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
Romania	3 463	4 231	5 644	2 238	3 415	3 605	6 890	4 303	6 227	5 500
Ukraine	828	541	777	855
Serbia and Montenegro	949	357	759	757
Belarus	194	99	74	167
Russian Federation	162	111	60	155
Slovak Republic	161	206	116	105
Viet Nam	53	40	53	95
Czech Republic	142	14	63	73
Estonia	148	118	58	40
Croatia	50	148	26	34
Germany	25	22	28	32
China	16	15	31	29
Syria	13	13	25	17
Afghanistan	5	4	25	15
Poland	26	10	9	14
Other countries	2 603	3 307	2 946	1 131	1 846	1 827	208	171	174	172
Total	6 066	7 538	8 590	3 369	5 261	5 432	9 870	6 172	8 505	8 060

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.


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Table B.1.6. **Acquisition of nationality by country of former nationality**
IRELAND

	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
United States	890	1 518	1 841	..
Australia	223	389	299	..
Canada	138	176	246	..
South Africa	257	363	219	..
Pakistan	213	239	189	..
New Zealand	187	227	161	..
Nigeria	155	189	142	..
United Kingdom	233	406	141	..
India	144	126	119	..
Russian Federation	81	109	86	..
Congo	49	72	54	..
Romania	92	81	46	..
Zimbabwe	55	67	46	..
China	57	85	45	..
Serbia	70	102	43	..
Other countries	1 235	1 614	2 979	..
Total	1 433	1 143	2 443	2 817	3 993	3 784	4 079	5 763	6 656	..

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.


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Table B.1.6. **Acquisition of nationality by country of former nationality**
ITALY

	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
Morocco	638	573	579	624	1 132	1 046	..	3 295	3 850	..
Romania	936	665	855	968	977	847	..	2 775	3 509	..
Albania	748	521	687	703	830	882	..	2 330	2 605	..
Argentina	255	240	316	411	541	515	..	2 569	2 410	..
Brazil	461	512	619	604	726	579	..	1 751	1 928	..
Ukraine	122	111	129	167	224	209	1 389	..
Cuba	379	377	512	542	646	539	..	1 535	1 355	..
Russian Federation	452	347	384	439	463	436	..	1 181	1 279	..
Poland	502	448	475	519	677	619	..	1 320	1 255	..
Venezuela	113	121	121	215	252	255	1 011	..
Dominican Republic	423	377	354	393	409	317	939	..
Tunisia	237	208	215	175	271	258	..	371	920	..
Switzerland	836	724	533	514	546	506	911	..
Peru	252	228	263	305	383	253	883	..
Ecuador	60	51	83	88	132	144	757	..
Other countries	4 921	4 060	4 257	4 018	5 197	4 529	..	18 639	13 465	..
Total	11 335	9 563	10 382	10 685	13 406	11 934	19 266	35 766	38 466	39 484

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.


StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/885744678858>

Table B.1.6. **Acquisition of nationality by country of former nationality**
JAPAN

	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
Korea	10 059	9 842	10 295	9 188	11 778	11 031	9 689	8 531	8 546	7 412
China	5 335	5 245	4 377	4 442	4 722	4 122	4 427	4 347	4 740	4 322
Other countries	726	725	619	709	1 133	1 183	1 135	1 230	1 394	1 484
Total	16 120	15 812	15 291	14 339	17 633	16 336	15 251	14 108	14 680	13 218

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.


StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/885744678858>

Table B.1.6. **Acquisition of nationality by country of former nationality**
KOREA

	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
China	1 391	3 344	6 146	7 443	14 881	7 156	8 178	12 545
Viet Nam	8	30	81	147	362	243	461	1 147
Philippines	21	112	928	1 074	786	317	335	579
Mongolia	1	10	43	36	109	32	82	134
Uzbekistan	5	6	21	34	79	38	60	80
Thailand	7	12	41	53	69	39	57	73
Pakistan	9	13	63	58	66	18	34	27
Other countries	238	356	411	417	622	282	1 112	673
Total	1 680	3 883	7 734	9 262	16 974	8 125	10 319	15 258

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.


StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/885744678858>

Table B.1.6. Acquisition of nationality by country of former nationality
LUXEMBOURG

	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
Portugal	113	150	106	147	158	188	252	338	352	293
Italy	94	157	105	119	120	111	97	161	138	109
Serbia and Montenegro	..	1	2	55	67	105
Belgium	53	72	39	87	73	83	101	87	97	77
France	43	52	33	65	57	44	51	74	75	76
Bosnia and Herzegovina	1	1	5	6	8	22	29	46	72	76
Germany	41	50	45	47	50	62	79	74	95	76
Cape Verde	32	27	20	48	50	41	33	45	46	49
China	10	12	11	17	19	21	16	19	37	42
Albania	1	3	9	10	15	21	24
Netherlands	11	14	13	11	17	6	7	20	10	20
Morocco	4	12	6	13	13	9	14	9	20	19
Cameroon	1	..	4	2	2	1	2	5	9	16
Iran	18	9	9	14	14	23	21	13	11	14
Romania	8	2	3	10	16	11	12	9	8	12
Other countries	120	125	97	167	185	210	228	158	178	207
Total	549	684	496	754	785	841	954	1 128	1 236	1 215

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.6. Acquisition of nationality by country of former nationality
NETHERLANDS

	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
Morocco	14 220	13 471	12 721	12 033	7 126	5 873	7 086	6 896	6 409	5 034
Turkey	5 210	4 708	5 513	5 391	3 726	4 026	3 493	3 407	4 073	3 147
Suriname	3 190	2 008	2 025	1 957	1 242	1 421	2 031	1 636	1 285	1 006
Iraq	3 834	2 403	2 315	2 367	832	489	333	331	501	866
Afghanistan	1 847	945	803	1 118	982	801	550	562	662	584
China	977	1 002	1 111	908	722	739	1 291	799	638	539
Russian Federation	489	422	335	347	207	242	521	466	413	436
Germany	580	508	573	608	445	297	349	447	461	353
Ghana	432	348	360	357	157	74	199	296	314	283
Iran	2 560	1 375	754	336	180	122	184	225	221	273
Indonesia	514	456	416	380	291	203	293	248	302	262
Ukraine	286	203	197	168	140	134	334	257	279	262
Egypt	500	443	528	437	190	97	238	245	304	255
Poland	688	587	597	530	318	212	347	238	268	237
Nigeria	153	143	196	214	96	69	139	189	214	220
Other countries	26 610	20 946	18 223	18 170	12 145	11 374	11 100	12 847	14 219	14 472
Total	62 090	49 968	46 667	45 321	28 799	26 173	28 488	29 089	30 563	28 229

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.6. **Acquisition of nationality by country of former nationality**
NORWAY

	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
Somalia	591	332	676	546	392	526	1 250	1 281	2 196	1 315
Iraq	567	524	331	497	403	619	2 141	2 142	2 577	1 072
Afghanistan	31	19	36	17	21	23	75	194	674	877
Pakistan	106	1 077	409	829	497	568	694	590	544	773
Russian Federation	102	222	192	308	280	365	548	458	436	515
Iran	526	481	361	324	228	508	832	535	740	495
Ethiopia	108	59	79	63	55	83	116	140	313	341
Viet Nam	651	738	594	292	210	222	216	216	178	248
Thailand	91	142	302	257	193	234	299	263	427	247
Sri Lanka	650	454	477	461	281	235	264	242	362	246
Serbia and Montenegro	1 176	1 322	1 199	614	310	303	852	1 107	1 130	244
Philippines	199	157	261	299	265	249	322	246	421	233
Bosnia and Herzegovina	36	875	2 999	1 229	1 965	827	707	519	355	219
Sweden	241	246	249	216	211	221	276	376	241	211
Turkey	170	523	356	412	398	393	385	355	445	209
Other countries	2 743	2 346	2 317	2 677	2 158	2 778	3 678	3 291	3 838	3 067
Total	7 988	9 517	10 838	9 041	7 867	8 154	12 655	11 955	14 877	10 312

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.


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Table B.1.6. **Acquisition of nationality by country of former nationality**
NEW ZEALAND

	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
United Kingdom	4 212	3 670	3 019	2 187	2 266	2 377	2 423	2 890	3 638	3 562
India	1 779	1 847	1 376	1 350	1 255	2 127	2 905	4 330	5 177	3 429
South Africa	1 645	2 010	2 028	1 973	1 992	2 407	2 425	2 799	3 131	2 458
Fiji	1 104	1 253	1 273	1 139	1 047	1 452	1 543	1 689	1 722	1 931
China	4 687	3 752	2 579	1 896	2 032	2 849	3 323	3 888	3 077	1 909
Samoa	1 649	1 702	1 590	1 307	1 189	1 065	1 153	1 363	1 445	1 433
Korea	2 314	1 982	1 053	685	642	1 099	1 523	1 638	1 448	884
Philippines	1 007	949	829	652	555	702	844	1 123	1 166	718
Zimbabwe	812	907	672
Afghanistan	368	254	470
Malaysia	329	451	422
United States	427	363	281	335	348	335	268	346	424	413
Sri Lanka	836	774	738	568	472	511	436	435	480	393
Chinese Taipei	3 213	1 970	1 619	1 069	546	355	414	428	373	330
Tonga	374	365	408	271	207	198	167	191	259	278
Other countries	11 223	8 972	6 742	6 037	5 745	6 665	6 917	6 388	5 915	4 470
Total	34 470	29 609	23 535	19 469	18 296	22 142	24 341	29 017	29 867	23 772

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.


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Table B.1.6. **Acquisition of nationality by country of former nationality**
POLAND

	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
Ukraine	15	46	62	214	431	538	759	417	662	369
Belarus	15	25	31	54	108	129	316	101	126	152
Russian Federation	24	23	14	22	52	145	257	129	114	64
Sweden	8	10	13	30	107	81	90	8	26	48
Germany	85	101	47	49	60	62	156	1	39	37
Israel	138	112	84	91	101	162	113	2	8	33
United States	30	26	11	9	32	41	59	8	23	27
Canada	74	44	23	22	46	36	73	7	17	24
Moldova	0	0	0	19	8	23	24
Kazakhstan	49	54	43	53	68	38	62	10	10	18
Armenia	8	11	6	13	8	6	18	27	30	16
Serbia and Montenegro	25	18	25	19	11	12	37	8	14	15
Viet Nam	14	7	13	17	11	11	36	29	47	12
Czech Republic	21	3	5	37	20	24	19	0	3	11
Lithuania	52	95	64	93	126	85	36	11	11	9
Other countries	442	400	325	463	453	567	816	223	375	195
Total	1 000	975	766	1 186	1 634	1 937	2 866	989	1 528	1 054

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.


StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/885744678858>

Table B.1.6. **Acquisition of nationality by country of former nationality**
PORTUGAL

	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
Cape Verde	117	69	228	271	370	274	132	1 047	2 189	6 013
Brazil	186	175	283	345	345	307	162	491	415	4 080
Guinea-Bissau	37	27	55	73	38	95	36	873	1 602	2 754
Moldova	2	3	6	..	2 230
Angola	62	42	65	82	144	63	38	336	738	2 075
Sao Tome and Principe	15	7	20	34	58	22	7	134	448	1 391
Ukraine	2	2	12	..	484
Guinea	450
India	4	10	6	9	11	3	6	25	32	417
Bangladesh	31	316
Mozambique	37	10	24	27	56	17	4	57	155	262
Russian Federation	9	6	21	31	259
Romania	4	5	20	..	209
Morocco	203
Venezuela	219	186	162	221	311	301	314	212	..	111
Other countries	269	195	239	307	414	247	224	393	379	1 154
Total	946	721	1 082	1 369	1 747	1 346	939	3 627	6 020	22 408

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.


StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/885744678858>

Table B.1.6. Acquisition of nationality by country of former nationality
SLOVAK REPUBLIC

	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
Ukraine	251	549	450	377	704	203
United States	97	136	64	113	110	93
Czech Republic	597	775	167	121	158	93
Serbia and Montenegro	438	506	183	42	112	53
Viet Nam	405	619	40	40	62	37
Romania	450	442	220	147	100	31
Russian Federation	65	96	37	35	42	31
Germany	19	30	10	13	16	16
Hungary	5	9	7	9	6	15
Canada	6	25	7	8	8	12
Belarus	5	14	5	5	8	9
Poland	43	26	14	20	18	7
Bulgaria	66	42	24	35	19	7
China	484	200	6	5	4	6
Croatia	35	50	22	16	18	5
Other countries	526	497	137	139	93	62
Total	3 492	4 016	1 393	1 125	1 478	680

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.


StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/885744678858>

Table B.1.6. Acquisition of nationality by country of former nationality
SWEDEN

	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
Iraq	2 328	4 181	4 043	4 160	4 678	5 298	11 544	12 895	5 950	4 224
Finland	1 632	1 389	1 512	1 561	2 816	2 703	2 588	2 975	2 757	2 535
Bosnia and Herzegovina	11 348	12 591	4 241	4 064	3 090	1 469	1 788	2 627	2 081	1 764
Thailand	492	525	454	606	443	500	585	876	1 007	1 261
Turkey	1 833	1 398	2 796	2 127	1 375	1 269	1 702	2 921	1 456	1 125
Iran	4 476	2 798	2 031	1 737	1 350	1 296	1 889	2 796	1 459	1 113
Afghanistan	..	395	329	285	278	361	623	1 062	777	812
Somalia	739	2 843	2 802	1 789	1 121	840	688	931	655	787
Russian Federation	..	410	621	626	642	535	886	1 510	919	759
Poland	159	264	1 906	2 604	1 325	990	793	1 000	762	686
Germany	180	154	198	243	209	244	294	457	386	606
Chile	693	687	727	689	548	464	543	754	687	593
China	300	434	460	563	675	654	920	1 141	742	515
Syria	438	693	588	1 063	1 218	1 117	1 208	1 314	596	512
Denmark	276	310	271	316	310	335	329	431	388	404
Other countries	12 883	13 423	12 479	14 545	12 273	8 055	9 151	13 305	11 851	11 634
Total	37 777	42 495	35 458	36 978	32 351	26 130	35 531	46 995	32 473	29 330

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.


StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/885744678858>

Table B.1.6. **Acquisition of nationality by country of former nationality**
TURKEY

	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
Bulgaria	13 178	12 423	3 528	3 299	1 769
Azerbaijan	2 667	1 908	1 541	780	563
Russian Federation	1 264	1 033	700	346	287
Afghanistan	27	56	233	312	245
Kazakhstan	379	450	398	272	195
Syria	212	201	135	124	175
Iraq	136	103	153	146	143
Iran	121	112	178	156	137
Greece	48	37	119	104	107
United Kingdom	19	12	26	61	93
Kyrgyzstan	147	146	140	129	88
Uzbekistan	175	150	109	76	87
Ukraine	618	598	87	58	85
FYR of Macedonia	85	84	72	82	80
Romania	886	455	52	84	76
Other countries	3 763	3 318	767	872	942
Total	23 725	21 086	8 238	6 901	5 072

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.



StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/885744678858>

Table B.1.6. **Acquisition of nationality by country of former nationality**
UNITED STATES

	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
Mexico	207 750	189 705	103 234	76 531	56 093	63 840	77 089	83 979	122 258	231 815
India	30 710	42 198	34 311	33 774	29 790	37 975	35 962	47 542	46 871	65 971
Philippines	38 944	46 563	35 431	30 487	29 081	31 448	36 673	40 500	38 830	58 792
China	38 409	54 534	34 423	32 018	24 014	27 309	31 708	35 387	33 134	40 017
Cuba	25 467	15 661	11 393	10 889	7 727	11 236	11 227	21 481	15 394	39 871
Viet Nam	53 316	55 934	41 596	36 835	25 995	27 480	32 926	29 917	27 921	39 584
El Salvador	22 991	24 073	13 663	10 716	8 738	9 602	12 174	13 430	17 157	35 796
Dominican Republic	23 089	25 176	15 010	15 591	12 627	15 464	20 831	22 165	20 645	35 251
Colombia	13 168	14 018	10 872	10 634	7 962	9 819	11 396	15 698	12 089	22 926
Korea	17 738	23 858	18 053	17 307	15 968	17 184	19 223	17 668	17 628	22 759
Jamaica	28 604	22 567	13 978	13 973	11 232	12 271	13 674	18 953	12 314	21 324
Haiti	19 550	14 428	10 408	9 280	7 263	8 215	9 740	15 979	11 552	21 229
Nicaragua	6 636	5 413	3 549	3 788	3 044	3 444	5 080	9 283	8 164	17 954
Guatemala	10 995	11 444	6 257	5 442	4 551	5 080	6 250	6 551	8 181	17 087
Peru	8 292	8 927	6 659	7 375	6 130	6 980	7 904	10 063	7 965	15 016
Other countries	294 285	334 289	249 368	259 068	212 989	249 804	272 423	313 993	260 374	361 147
Total	839 944	888 788	608 205	573 708	463 204	537 151	604 280	702 589	660 477	1 046 539

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/885744678858>

Metadata related to tables A.1.6. and B.1.6. **Acquisition of nationality**

	Country	Comments	Source
AUS	Australia		Department of Immigration and Citizenship.
AUT	Austria		Central Office of Statistics and BMI (Ministry of the Interior).
BEL	Belgium		Directorate for Statistics and Economic Information and Ministry of Justice.
CAN	Canada	Data refer to country of birth, not to country of previous nationality. Persons who acquire Canadian citizenship may also hold other citizenships at the same time depending on the laws of the countries concerned.	Citizenship and Immigration Canada.
CHE	Switzerland	Data for 2006 refers to Serbia instead of Serbia/Montenegro.	Federal Office of Migration.
CZE	Czech Republic	Acquisition of nationality by declaration or by naturalisation.	Ministry of the Interior.
DEU	Germany	Figures do not include ethnic Germans.	Federal Office of Statistics.
DNK	Denmark		Statistics Denmark.
ESP	Spain	Excludes individuals recovering their former (Spanish) nationality.	Ministry of Justice and Ministry of the Interior.
FIN	Finland	Includes naturalisations of persons of Finnish origin.	Statistics Finland.
FRA	France	Data by former nationality for naturalisations by "anticipated delaration" have been estimated.	Ministry of Immigration, Integration, National Identity and Mutual Development and Ministry of Justice
GBR	United Kingdom		Home Office.
HUN	Hungary	Including grants of nationality to ethnic Hungarians mainly from former Yugoslavia and Ukraine.	Ministry of the Interior.
IRL	Ireland		International Migration and Asylum, Eurostat
ITA	Italy		Ministry of the Interior.
JPN	Japan		Ministry of Justice, Civil Affairs Bureau.
KOR	Korea		Ministry of Justice.
LUX	Luxembourg	Excludes children acquiring nationality as a consequence of the naturalisation of their parents.	Ministry of Justice.
MEX	Mexico		Ministry of Foreign Affairs (SER).
NLD	Netherlands		Central Bureau of Statistics (CBS).
NOR	Norway		Statistics Norway.
NZL	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.
POL	Poland	Until 2001, data include naturalisations in conferment procedure. Starting in 2002, they include conferment procedure, acknowledgment procedure and marriage procedure.	Office for Repatriation and Aliens.
PRT	Portugal		National Statistical Office (INE) and SEF data.
SVK	Slovak Republic		Ministry of the Interior.
SWE	Sweden		Statistics Sweden.
TUR	Turkey		Ministry of Interior, General Directorate of Population and Citizenship Affairs
USA	United States	Data refer to fiscal years (October to September of the year indicated).	US Department of Justice.

Inflows of foreign workers

Inflows of foreign workers


Most of the statistics published here are based on the number of work permits issued during the year. As was the case for overall immigration flows, the settlement countries (Australia, Canada, New Zealand and the United States) consider as immigrant workers, persons who have received a permanent immigration permit for employment purposes. In each of these four countries, it is also possible to work on a temporary basis under various programmes (these data are also available in this annex). Data by country of origin are not published for the series.

The data on European countries are based on initial work permits granted, which sometimes include temporary and seasonal workers. Some significant flows of workers may not be covered, either because the type of permit that they hold is not covered in these statistics, or because they do not need permits in order to work (free circulation agreements, beneficiaries of family reunification, refugees). Data for some countries may include renewals of permits. The administrative backlog in the processing of work permit applications is sometimes large (as in the United States, for example), so that the numbers recorded may bear little relation to the demand. The data may also cover initial entries into the labour market and include young foreigners born in the country who are entering the labour market.

Table A.2.1. **Inflows of foreign workers into OECD countries**
Thousands

	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
AUS Australia										
Permanent workers	27.9	32.4	35.7	36.0	38.5	51.5	53.1	59.5	60.8	65.4
Temporary workers	37.0	39.2	36.9	33.5	36.8	39.5	48.6	71.2	87.3	110.6
AUT Austria	18.3	25.4	27.0	24.6	24.1	24.5	23.2	22.6	29.6	35.2
BEL Belgium	8.7	7.5	7.0	6.7	4.6	4.3	6.3	12.5	23.0	25.0
CAN Canada	107.1	116.6	119.7	110.9	103.2	112.6	122.7	139.1	164.9	192.5
CHE Switzerland	31.5	34.0	41.9	40.1	35.4	40.0	40.3	46.4	74.3	76.7
DEU Germany	304.9	333.8	373.8	374.0	372.2	380.3
DNK Denmark	3.1	3.6	5.1	4.8	2.3	4.3	7.4	13.6	17.2	7.6
ESP Spain	49.7	172.6	154.9	97.6	73.1	155.0	643.3	101.8	102.5	..
FIN Finland	..	10.4	14.1	13.3	13.8	15.2	18.7	21.0	23.0	25.0
FRA France										
Permanent workers	6.3	6.0	8.8	7.5	6.5	6.7	8.6	10.0	16.8	22.7
Temporary workers	5.8	7.5	9.6	9.8	10.1	10.0	10.4	10.7	9.9	9.9
GBR United Kingdom	42.0	64.6	85.1	88.6	85.8	89.5	86.2	96.7	88.0	77.7
HUN Hungary	29.6	40.2	47.3	49.8	57.4	79.2	72.6	71.1	55.2	42.5
IRL Ireland	6.3	18.0	36.4	40.3	47.6	34.1	27.1	24.9	23.6	13.6
ITA Italy	21.4	58.0	92.4	139.1	75.3	69.0	150.1	..
JPN Japan	108.0	129.9	142.0	145.1	155.8	158.9	125.4	81.4	77.9	72.1
LUX Luxembourg	24.2	26.5	25.8	22.4	22.6	22.9	24.8	28.0	31.0	31.1
NLD Netherlands	20.8	27.7	30.2	34.6	38.0	44.1	46.1	74.1	50.0	15.6
NOR Norway	14.0	14.8	17.8	23.5	25.2	33.0	28.3	40.5	54.8	52.5
NZL New Zealand										
Permanent workers	5.6	7.8	13.3	13.4	9.2	7.7	14.5	12.9	12.4	12.6
Temporary workers	32.1	35.2	48.3	59.6	64.5	77.2	88.1	106.0	121.5	136.6
POL Poland	17.1	17.8	17.0	22.8	18.8	12.4	10.3	10.8	12.2	18.0
PRT Portugal	4.2	7.8	136.0	55.3	16.4	19.3	13.1	13.8
SVK Slovak Republic	3.3	4.7	4.2	..	15.2
SWE Sweden	2.4	15.6	12.6	10.0	10.2	8.5	5.8	11.5	9.6	11.0
USA United States										
Permanent workers	56.7	106.6	178.7	173.8	81.7	155.3	246.9	159.1	162.2	227.8
Temporary workers	303.7	355.1	413.6	357.9	352.1	396.7	388.3	444.4	503.9	449.9

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata.

StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/885486030704>

Metadata related to table A.2.1. **Inflows of foreign workers**

Country	Types of workers covered in the data	Source
AUS Australia	<p><i>Permanent settlers</i> Skilled workers including the following categories of visas: Employer nominations, Business skills, <i>Occupational Shares System</i>, special talents, Independent. Including accompanying dependents. <i>Period of reference:</i> Fiscal years (July to June of the given year).</p> <p><i>Temporary workers</i> Skilled temporary resident programme (including accompanying dependents). Including Long Stay Temporary Business Programme from 1996/1997 on. <i>Period of reference:</i> Fiscal years (July to June of the given year).</p>	Department of Immigration and Citizenship.
AUT Austria	Data for all years cover initial work permits for both direct inflows from abroad and for first participation in the Austrian labour market of foreigners already present in the country. Seasonal workers are included. EU citizens are excluded.	Ministry of Labour, Social Affairs and Consumer Protection.
BEL 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.
CAN Canada	Data from 1996 have been revised based on a new "yearly status" methodology. Temporary residents are persons who entered Canada mainly to work and have been issued a work permit (with or without other types of permits). Data refer to the number of individuals entering Canada on a temporary basis for each year of observation (reference year) as initial entries or re-entries, not the number of documents issued. Initial entry represents the number of temporary residents identified as entering Canada for the first time. Re-entry represents the number of temporary residents who have a new permit issued abroad or at a port of entry during the observed calendar year. Foreign workers exclude temporary residents who have been issued a work permit but who entered Canada mainly for reasons other than work. Country of origin refers to country of last permanent residence.	Citizenship and Immigration Canada.
CHE Switzerland	Data cover foreigners who enter Switzerland to work and who obtain an annual residence permit, whether the permit is renewable or not (<i>e.g.</i> 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 Migration.
DEU 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.
DNK Denmark	Residence permits issued for employment. Nordic and EU citizens are not included. From 2003 on, data only cover the categories Wage earners, Work permits to persons from the new EU member states and Specialists included by the jobcard scheme. Persons granted a residence permit on basis of employment who previously obtained an educational residence permit are no longer included.	Statistics Denmark.
ESP Spain	Data include both initial "B" work permits, delivered for 1 year maximum (renewable) for a specific salaried activity and "D" work permits (same type of permit for the self-employed). From 1997 on, data also include permanent permits. Since 1992, EU citizens do not need a work permit. The large increase in 2000 is due to the regularisation programme which affected statistics for 2000 and 2001. The results for 2002 and 2003 are from Social Security statistics ("Anuario de Estadísticas Laborales y de Asuntos Sociales").	Ministry of Labour and Social Security.
FIN Finland	Work and residence permits for foreign workers entering Finland are granted from abroad through Finnish Embassies and Consulates. The number of EU citizens is an estimate based on registrations of EU citizens. These are approximate, because not all EU citizens register themselves or give the reason for their stay. Nordic citizens are excluded.	Directorate of Immigration, Ministry of Foreign Affairs. The Finnish Immigration Service

Metadata related to table A.2.1. **Inflows of foreign workers** (cont.)

Country	Types of workers covered in the data	Source	
FRA	France	<p><i>Permanent workers</i></p> <p>"Permanents" are foreign workers subject to control by the OFII. Data only include third country nationals and citizens from the new EU member states (still in the transition period).</p> <p>Resident family members of workers who enter the labour market for the first time and the self-employed are not included.</p> <p><i>Provisional work permits (APT)</i></p> <p>Provisional work permits (APT) cannot exceed 9 months, are renewable and apply to trainees, students and other holders of non-permanent jobs.</p>	OFII (French Office for Immigration and Integration).
GBR	United Kingdom	Grants of work permits and first permissions. Data exclude dependents and EEA nationals .	Overseas Labour Service.
HUN	Hungary	Grants of work permits (including renewals).	Ministry of Labour.
IRL	Ireland	Work permits issued (including renewals). EU citizens do not need a work permit.	Ministry of Labour, Department of Enterprise, Trade and Employment
ITA	Italy	New work permits issued to non-EU foreigners (excl. self-employed).	Ministry of Labour and National Institute of Statistics (ISTAT).
JPN	Japan	Residents with restricted permission to work. Excluding temporary visitors and re-entries. Including renewals of permits.	Ministry of Justice.
LUX	Luxembourg	Foreign workers affiliated for the first time with the Social Security for employment reasons.	Social Security Inspection Bureau.
NLD	Netherlands	Holders of a temporary work permit only (regulated since 1995 under the Dutch Foreign nationals labour act, WAV). From 2008 on, data for the Former Czechoslovakia, Hungary, Poland are not available.	Center for work and income.
NOR	Norway	Data include work permits granted on the grounds of an offer of employment. This includes permanent, long-term and short-term work permits. Data have been revised.	Directorate of Immigration
NZL	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
POL	Poland	Data refer to work permits granted.	Ministry of Economy, Labour, and Social Policy.
PRT	Portugal	Persons who obtained a residence permit for the first time and who declared that they have a job or are seeking a job. Data for 2001, 2002, 2003 and 2004 also include Stay permits delivered following the 2001 regularisation programme and Work Visas issued yearly. Data for 2005 and 2006 comprehend foreigners who obtained a residence permit for the first time and who declared they have a job or are seeking for a job as well as foreigners that received Work Visas.	National Statistical Office (INE), Aliens and Borders Office (SEF) and Ministry of Foreign Affairs.
SVK	Slovak Republic	Work permits issued (including renewals). EEA workers do not need a work permit but they are registered through the Labour Offices.	Ministry of Labour, Social Affairs and Family.
SWE	Sweden	Data include seasonal workers and other temporary workers (fitters, specialists, artists and athletes).	Population register (Statistics Sweden) and Migration Board.
USA	United States	<p><i>Permanent workers</i></p> <p>Data include immigrants issued employment-based preference visas. <i>Period of reference:</i> fiscal years (October to September of the given year).</p> <p><i>Temporary workers</i></p> <p>Data refer to non-immigrant visas issued, (categories H, O, P, Q, R, NATO, and NAFTA). Family members are included. <i>Period of reference:</i> Fiscal years (October to September of the given year).</p>	US Department of Justice. United States Department of State, Bureau of Consular Affairs.

Stocks of foreign and foreign-born labour

The international comparison of “immigrant” workers faces the difficulties already mentioned earlier regarding the measurement of the overall stock of immigrants as well as to the use of different concepts of employment and unemployment.

For the European countries, the main difficulty consists in covering EU nationals, who have free labour market access in EU member states. They are sometimes issued work permits, but this information is not always as readily available as for third-country nationals. Switzerland revised the sampling of its labour-force survey in order to compensate for the information that was no longer available on EU workers in registers of foreign nationals following the signature of free movement agreements with the European Union. These bilateral agreements enable employees who are holders of “EU/EFTA” permits to change their job or profession (professional mobility), and this change is not registered in the Central Register for Foreign Nationals, the usual source for statistics on the stock of foreign workers.

A simple enumeration of work permits granted may result in persons being counted more than once if the person has successively been granted two permits during the same reference period. On the other hand, holders of “permanent” residence permits allowing access to the labour market are not systematically covered, since the proportion of those who are actually working is not always known.

Another difficulty concerns the inclusion of the unemployed, the self-employed and cross-border workers. In the statistics of workers, the unemployed are generally included, except when the source is work permit records and when permits are granted subject to a definite job offer. The self-employed and cross-border workers are much less well covered by the statistics. Data reference periods also vary, as they are generally the end of December for register data, and the end of the first quarter of the reference year for employment survey data.


Population registers (when the population in the labour force can be identified) and work permit files may show breaks in series when expired work permits are eliminated, when this is not done automatically, or when regularisation programmes are implemented. When these breaks occur, the analysis of the growth of the stock of foreign workers is significantly biased.

Table A.2.2. **Stocks of foreign-born labour force in OECD countries**

Thousands and percentages

	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
AUS Australia	2 360.2	2 397.1	2 450.6	2 502.0	2 584.0	2 663.1	2 778.9	2 914.9
% of total labour force	24.5	24.6	24.7	24.9	25.0	25.2	25.8	26.5
AUT Austria	470.1	474.2	514.9	507.3	557.3	584.6	624.6	662.0	695.4	682.8
% of total labour force	12.3	12.4	13.5	13.3	14.3	15.3	15.6	16.2	16.8	16.3
BEL Belgium	450.5	454.6	456.7	489.1	499.3	512.1	535.9	569.8	498.6	473.8
% of total labour force	10.4	10.4	10.7	11.3	11.4	11.5	11.7	12.3	10.6	10.0
CAN Canada	3 150.8	3 634.8
% of total labour force	19.9	21.2
CHE Switzerland	..	1 007.4
% of total labour force	..	26.3
DNK Denmark	154.4	161.0	167.1	175.3	188.1	202.7
% of total labour force	5.4	5.9	6.1	6.4	6.6	6.8
ESP Spain	645.1	804.4	1 085.5	1 448.4	1 832.6	2 240.7	2 782.0	3 229.6	3 719.8	4 132.6
% of total labour force	3.8	4.5	6.1	7.8	9.5	11.2	13.4	15.1	16.9	18.2
FIN Finland	81.3	87.6	96.0	102.1	112.8	124.2
% of total labour force	3.1	3.4	3.6	3.9	4.2	4.6
FRA France	2 855.8	3 052.9	3 025.6	3 146.6	3 308.6	3 332.8
% of total labour force	10.7	11.3	11.1	11.4	11.9	11.8
GBR United Kingdom	3 081.0	3 340.0	3 678.0
% of total labour force	11.0	11.8	12.6
GRC Greece	286.7	266.6	290.3	338.2	349.4	402.7	421.7	400.2	426.6	477.7
% of total labour force	6.4	5.9	6.5	7.4	7.5	8.5	8.9	8.3	8.8	9.8
HUN Hungary	68.7	66.8	55.2	54.8	77.0	85.2	78.9	73.8	73.7	89.8
% of total labour force	1.7	1.7	1.4	1.3	1.9	2.1	1.9	1.7	1.8	2.1
IRL Ireland	128.8	135.8	153.3	170.8	185.9	187.6	232.4	287.3	339.6	443.2
% of total labour force	7.8	7.9	8.7	9.5	10.1	9.9	11.8	13.9	15.8	20.3
ITA Italy	1 907.2	2 094.6	2 245.0	2 546.5
% of total labour force	7.9	8.6	9.2	10.3
LUX Luxembourg	72.6	75.5	79.0	79.8	84.1	89.1	89.8	91.3	98.3	98.7
% of total labour force	40.4	41.0	42.0	41.4	43.5	45.0	44.4	44.6	46.6	46.4
MEX Mexico	..	118.8
% of total labour force	..	0.4
NLD Netherlands	684.2	895.3	867.9	932.0	906.0	929.1	968.1	931.4	949.4	989.4
% of total labour force	8.7	11.2	10.7	11.3	10.9	11.2	11.6	11.0	11.1	11.4
NOR Norway	124.2	138.1	139.9	153.3	163.2	166.4	173.5	186.9	817.0	215.3
% of total labour force	5.4	6.0	6.0	6.5	7.0	7.1	7.4	7.8	8.4	8.5
NZL New Zealand	372.3	498.8
% of total labour force	19.9	23.8
POL Poland	58.8	55.9	50.9	43.2	51.7
% of total labour force	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3
PRT Portugal	232.7	276.9	302.2	321.3	349.2	379.3	405.5	417.1	444.0	497.5
% of total labour force	4.8	5.6	6.1	6.3	6.8	7.4	7.8	7.9	8.4	9.4
SWE Sweden	428.3	445.5	448.7	442.5	452.8	461.4	497.8	521.6
% of total labour force	9.8	10.1	10.0	9.9	10.1	10.3	10.8	11.2
USA United States	17 054.7	18 028.5	18 994.1	20 917.6	21 563.6	21 985.2	22 421.6	23 342.9	24 777.8	25 085.5
% of total labour force	12.3	12.9	13.4	14.6	14.8	15.1	15.2	15.6	16.3	16.5

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata.

StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/885522055650>

Metadata related to table A.2.2. **Foreign-born labour force**


Country	Comments	Source
AUS Australia	Labour force aged 15 to 64. <i>Reference date:</i> Annual average.	Labour Force Survey (ABS).
AUT Austria	Eurostat Labour Force Survey (population aged 15 to 64).	Eurostat.
BEL Belgium	Eurostat Labour Force Survey (population aged 15 to 64).	Eurostat.
CAN Canada	Labour force aged 15 and over.	Censuses of Population, Statistics Canada.
CHE Switzerland	Census 2000.	Database on Immigrants in OECD Countries (DIOC)
DNK Denmark		Ministry of Refugee, Immigration and Integration Affairs.
ESP Spain	Eurostat Labour Force Survey (population aged 15 to 64).	Eurostat.
FIN Finland		Statistics Finland.
FRA France	Eurostat Labour Force Survey (population aged 15 to 64).	Eurostat.
GBR United Kingdom	Estimates are from the Labour Force Survey. The unemployed are not included. Figures are rounded and not published if less than 10 000.	Labour Force Survey, Office for National Statistics.
GRC Greece	Eurostat Labour Force Survey (population aged 15 to 64).	Eurostat.
HUN Hungary	Eurostat Labour Force Survey (population aged 15 to 64).	Eurostat.
IRL Ireland	Eurostat Labour Force Survey (population aged 15 to 64).	Eurostat.
ITA Italy	Eurostat Labour Force Survey (population aged 15 to 64).	Eurostat.
LUX Luxembourg	Eurostat Labour Force Survey (population aged 15 to 64).	Eurostat.
MEX Mexico	Foreign-born labour force population aged 16 and over from the 2000 Census.	National Migration Institute (INM) and National Institute of Statistics and Geography (INEGI).
NLD Netherlands	Eurostat Labour Force Survey (population aged 15 to 64).	Eurostat.
NOR Norway	Eurostat Labour Force Survey (population aged 15 to 64).	Eurostat.
NZL New Zealand	Labour force aged 15 and over.	2001 and 2006 Censuses, Statistics New Zealand.
POL Poland	Eurostat Labour Force Survey (population aged 15 to 64).	Eurostat.
PRT Portugal	Eurostat Labour Force Survey (population aged 15 to 64).	Eurostat.
SWE Sweden	Data are from the labour force survey til 2004. Since 2005 the figures are based on registered data (RAMS) as the statistics figures with break down by country of birth are not any more available in the official labour force survey (LFS). Data are therefore not fully comparable with those of the previous years.	Statistics Sweden.
USA United States	Labour force aged 15 and over (including those born abroad with US citizenship at birth). Data by nationality are not statistically relevant. <i>Reference date:</i> March.	Current Population Survey, March Supplement, US Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census.

Table A.2.3. **Stocks of foreign labour force in OECD countries**

Thousands and percentages

	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
AUT Austria	333.6	345.6	359.9	370.6	388.6	402.7	418.5	432.9	452.1	472.4
% of total labour force	10.0	10.6	11.0	11.2	11.8	12.2	12.4	12.7	13.1	13.4
BEL Belgium	382.7	387.9	392.5	393.9	396.0	427.8	439.7	449.8	448.6	..
% of total labour force	8.5	8.6	8.6	8.6	8.5	9.1	9.2	9.2	9.5	..
CHE Switzerland	701.2	717.3	738.8	829.4	814.5	817.4	830.1	849.9	876.0	927.2
% of total labour force	20.1	20.1	21.1	20.9	20.6	20.6	20.9	21.0	21.3	21.8
CZE Czech Republic	93.5	103.6	103.7	101.2	105.7	108.0	151.7	185.1	240.2	284.6
% of total labour force	1.8	2.0	2.0	1.9	2.1	2.1	2.9	3.6	4.6	5.4
DEU Germany	3 545.0	3 546.0	3 616.0	3 634.0	3 703.0	3 701.0	3 823.0	3 528.0	3 874.0	3 893.0
% of total labour force	8.8	8.8	9.1	9.2	9.4	9.1	9.3	8.5	9.4	9.4
DNK Denmark	96.3	96.8	100.6	101.9	101.5	106.9	109.3	115.0	126.6	141.0
% of total labour force	3.4	3.4	3.5	3.6	3.6	3.9	4.0	4.2	4.4	4.8
ESP Spain	199.8	454.6	607.1	831.7	982.4	1 076.7	1 688.6	1 824.0	1 981.1	1 882.2
% of total labour force	1.1	2.5	3.4	4.5	5.1	5.4	8.1	8.5	9.0	8.2
FIN Finland	..	41.4	45.4	46.3	47.6	50.0	55.0	58.4	64.8	72.3
% of total labour force	..	1.6	1.7	1.8	1.8	1.9	2.1	2.2	2.4	2.7
FRA France	1 593.9	1 577.6	1 617.6	1 623.8	1 526.8	1 467.0	1 391.5	1 407.3	1 485.5	1 560.5
% of total labour force	5.8	6.0	6.2	6.1	5.7	5.5	5.2	5.2	5.4	5.6
GBR United Kingdom	1 005.0	1 107.0	1 229.0	1 251.0	1 322.0	1 445.0	1 504.0	1 773.0	2 035.0	2 283.0
% of total labour force	3.7	4.0	4.4	4.6	4.8	5.2	5.4	6.3	7.2	7.8
GRC Greece	157.3	169.1	204.8	258.9	274.5	309.6	324.6	328.8	369.4	426.2
% of total labour force	3.4	3.7	4.5	5.5	5.8	6.4	6.7	6.7	7.5	7.9
HUN Hungary	28.5	35.0	38.6	42.7	48.7	66.1	62.9	64.6	59.5	56.4
% of total labour force	0.7	0.8	0.9	1.0	1.2	1.6	1.5	1.5	1.4	1.3
IRL Ireland	57.5	63.9	84.2	101.7
% of total labour force	3.4	3.7	4.7	5.5
ITA Italy	827.6	837.9	841.0	829.8	1 479.4	1 412.7	1 301.6	1 475.7	1 638.3	..
% of total labour force	4.0	3.9	3.9	3.8	6.1	5.8	5.3	6.0	6.6	..
JPN Japan	125.7	154.7	168.8	179.6	185.6	192.1	180.5	178.8	193.8	211.5
% of total labour force	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3
KOR Korea	93.0	122.5	128.5	137.3	415.0	297.8	198.5	317.1	499.2	538.0
% of total labour force	0.4	0.6	0.6	0.6	1.8	1.3	0.8	1.3	2.1	2.2
LUX Luxembourg	145.7	152.7	169.3	175.1	180.4	187.5	196.2	207.1	221.5	232.8
% of total labour force	57.3	58.0	60.9	61.2	61.9	62.9	64.0	64.9	66.6	66.7
NLD Netherlands	267.5	300.1	302.6	295.9	317.2	299.4	287.5	283.8	314.4	335.7
% of total labour force	3.5	3.9	3.8	3.7	3.9	3.8	3.4	3.3	3.6	3.9
NOR Norway	104.6	111.2	133.7	138.4	140.7	149.0	159.3	180.4	213.1	241.0
% of total labour force	4.7	4.9	5.7	5.8	6.3	6.6	6.9	7.4	8.6	9.6
PRT Portugal	91.6	99.8	236.6	288.3	300.8	315.8	271.4
% of total labour force	1.8	2.0	4.4	5.3	5.5	5.5	4.9
SVK Slovak Republic	4.5	4.7	4.4	4.7	5.0	5.1	5.2	6.5	..	14.9
% of total labour force	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	..	0.6
SWE Sweden	222.0	222.0	227.0	218.0	221.0	216.0	176.6	177.0
% of total labour force	5.1	5.0	5.1	4.9	4.9	4.8	4.2	4.3

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata.

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Metadata related to table A.2.3. **Foreign labour force**

Country	Comments	Source
AUT Austria	Annual average. Salaried employment only (from social security data) until 2005. Including unemployed people from 2006 on.	Ministry of Labour, Social Affairs and Consumer Protection.
BEL Belgium	Including unemployed and self employed.	National Institute of self employed's social insurances, National Office for Employment, National Bank of Belgium and National Institute of Statistics.
CHE Switzerland	Until 2001, data are counts of the number of foreigners with an annual residence permit or a settlement permit (permanent permit), who engage in gainful activity. Cross-border workers and seasonal workers are excluded. Since the bilateral agreements signed with the European Union have come into force (1 June 2002), movements of EU workers can no longer be followed through the central register of foreigners. Data until 2001 are from the Central Register of Foreigners. Starting in 2002, data are from the Swiss Labour Force Survey. <i>Reference date:</i> 31 December.	Federal Office of Migration.
CZE Czech Republic	Holders of a work permit and registered Slovak workers until 2003. Since 2004 foreigners registered at labour offices (<i>i.e.</i> employees from the third countries, EU, EEA and Switzerland). Excluding holders of a trade licence. <i>Reference date:</i> 31 December.	Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs.
DEU Germany	Microcensus. Data include the unemployed and the self-employed. <i>Reference date:</i> April.	Federal Office of Statistics.
DNK Denmark	Data are from population registers. <i>Reference date:</i> 31 December.	Statistics Denmark.
ESP Spain	Number of valid work permits. EU workers are not included. In 1996, the data include work permits delivered following the 1996 regularisation programme. From 2000 on, data relate to the number of foreigners who are registered in the Social Security system (EU workers are included). A worker may be registered several times if he/she has several activities. Regularised workers are included in 2000 and 2001 data. <i>Reference date:</i> 31 December (data for 2003 are stocks on 14 January 2004).	Ministry of Labour and Social Security.
FIN Finland	Foreign labour force recorded in the population register. Includes persons of Finnish origin. <i>Reference date:</i> 31 December.	Statistics Finland.
FRA France	Labour Force Survey. The survey has become continuous from 2003 on. Data are therefore not fully comparable with those of previous years. <i>Reference date:</i> Annual average (March of each year until 2002).	National Institute for Statistics and Economic Studies (INSEE).
GBR United Kingdom	Estimates are from the Labour Force Survey. The unemployed are not included. There is a break in the serie as 2004 data are calculated using a new weighting system. Data are therefore not fully comparable with those of the previous years.	Home Office.
GRC Greece	Labour Force Survey. Data refer to the employed and the unemployed.	National Statistical Service of Greece.
HUN Hungary	Number of valid work permits <i>Reference date:</i> 31 December.	Ministry of Labour.
IRL Ireland	Estimates are from the Labour Force Survey.	Central Statistics Office.
ITA Italy	Figures refer to the number of foreigners with a valid work permit (including the self-employed, the unemployed, sponsored workers and persons granted a permit for humanitarian reasons). EU citizens do not need a work permit. Since 2005, the data in Table A.2.3 are from the labour force survey. Data are therefore not fully comparable with those of previous years.	National Institute of Statistics (ISTAT).
JPN 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.

Metadata related to table A.2.3. **Foreign labour force (cont.)**

Country	Comments	Source
KOR Korea	Data are based on registered foreign workers, which excludes short-term (under 90 days) workers. Trainees are included. The huge increase is mainly due to a number of undocumented workers who were given a legal worker status following a regularisation program in mid 2003.	Ministry of Justice.
LUX Luxembourg	Number of work permits. Data cover foreigners in employment, including apprentices, trainees and cross-border workers. The unemployed are not included. <i>Reference date:</i> 1 October.	Social Security Inspection Bureau.
NLD Netherlands	Data are from the European Labour Force Survey and refer to the Labour force aged 15 and over. <i>Reference date:</i> March.	European Labour Force Survey (Eurostat).
NOR Norway	Data are from population registers. Excluding the unemployed and self-employed until 2000. <i>Reference date:</i> second quarter of each year (except in 1995, 1996, 1999 and 2000: 4th quarter).	Statistics Norway.
PRT Portugal	Workers who hold a valid residence permit (including the unemployed) – after 1998, this figure is estimated. Data comprehends foreign workers who benefited from the 1992-1993 and 1996 regularisation programmes. From 2001 to 2005, data also comprehend Stay Permit and Work Visa Holders. Statistical information on the stock of workers holding residence permits is missing for 2006 and 2007. <i>Reference date:</i> 31 December.	Ministry of the Interior, National Statistical Office (INE) and Ministry of Foreign Affairs.
SVK Slovak Republic	Foreigners who hold a valid work permit. EEA workers do not need a work permit but they are registered through the Labour Offices.	Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs, National Labour Office.
SWE Sweden	Annual average data are from the labour force survey til 2004. Since 2005 the figures are based on registered data (RAMS) as the statistics figures with break down by nationality are not any more available in the official labour force survey (LFS). Data are therefore not fully comparable with those of the previous years.	Statistics Sweden.

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