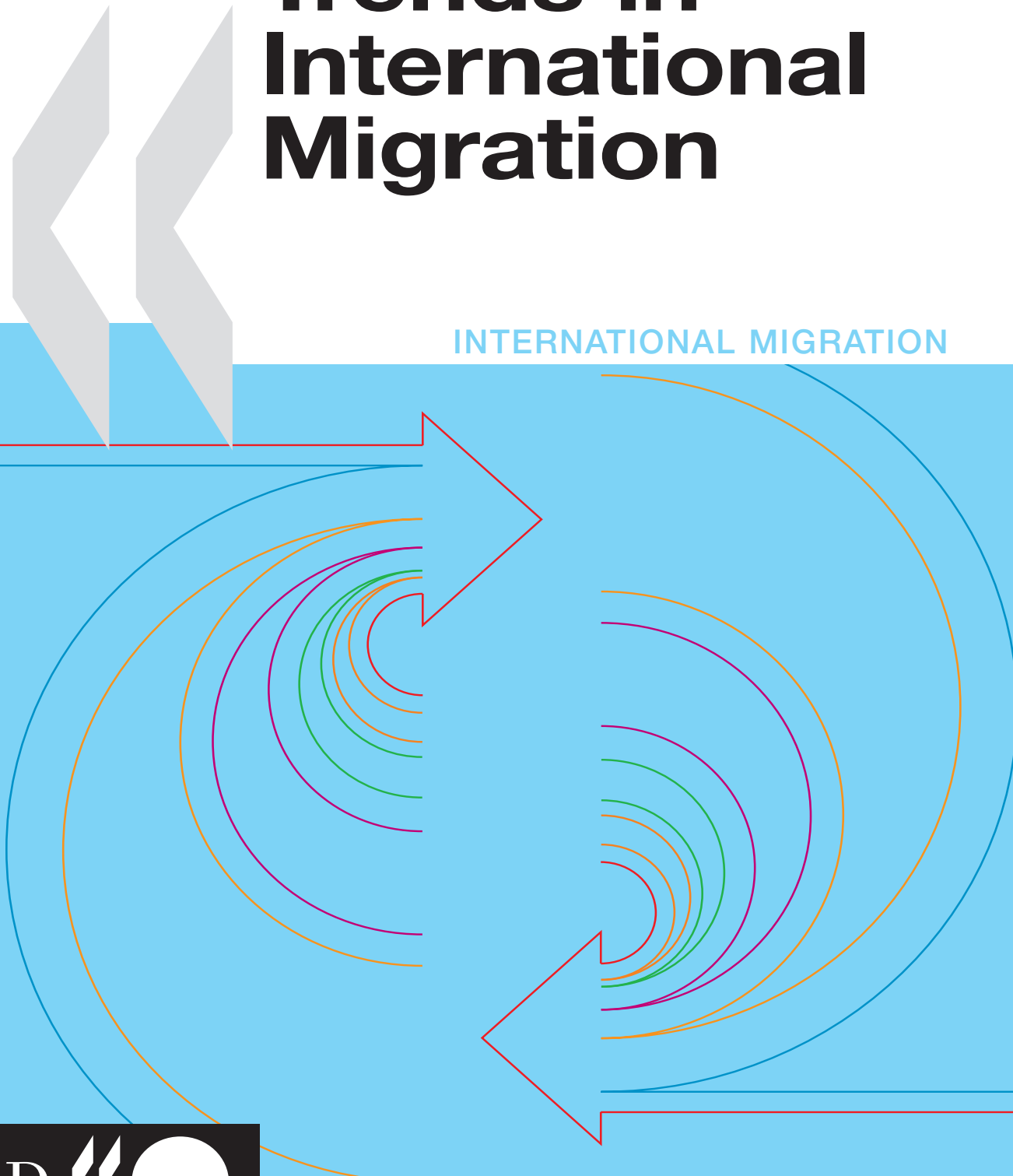


Trends in International Migration

INTERNATIONAL MIGRATION



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SOPEMI

Trends in International Migration

Continuous Reporting System on Migration

ANNUAL REPORT

2001 EDITION



ORGANISATION FOR ECONOMIC CO-OPERATION AND DEVELOPMENT

ORGANISATION FOR ECONOMIC CO-OPERATION AND DEVELOPMENT

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- To achieve the highest sustainable economic growth and employment and a rising standard of living in Member countries, while maintaining financial stability, and thus to contribute to the development of the world economy.
- To contribute to sound economic expansion in Member as well as non-member countries in the process of economic development. And
- To contribute to the expansion of world trade on a multilateral, non-discriminatory basis in accordance with international obligations.

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FOREWORD

This twenty-sixth annual report of the OECD Continuous Reporting System on Migration (known under its French acronym SOPEMI), published as *Trends in International Migration*, draws largely on 31 written contributions from national correspondents (see the list at the end of this report), and on the summary of their discussions at their last annual meeting (December 2000).

The 2001 Edition is divided into three parts and a Statistical Annex. Part I describes the overall trends in international migration. It focuses on the magnitude, the nature and the direction of flows, as well as the presence of foreign workers in the labour market and in the various sectors of economic activity. Special attention is also given to the role that immigration could play in moderating the effects of an ageing population. Two additional sections describe in detail migration from Asia towards OECD countries together with migration movements in Central and Eastern Europe. Part I is completed by an overview of migration policies, in particular those relating to the control of flows, the fight against irregular migration and illegal employment of foreigners, as well as the integration of immigrants in host countries and international co-operation.

Part II is devoted to a comparative analysis of student mobility between and towards OECD countries. This part shows that student mobility is constantly increasing and that it constitutes a potential flow of qualified workers in host countries. From the point of view of the sending countries, the potential gains relating to this mobility (development of human capital, strengthening of cultural and commercial ties, transfer of technology) may be limited as a result of the brain drain. Greater co-ordination and co-operation between students' countries of origin and destination would lead to fairer sharing of the advantages linked to international student mobility.

Part III is composed of country notes describing recent developments in migration flows and policies in twenty-nine OECD countries and non-member countries (The Baltic States, Bulgaria and Romania).

This volume is published under the responsibility of the Secretary-General of the OECD.

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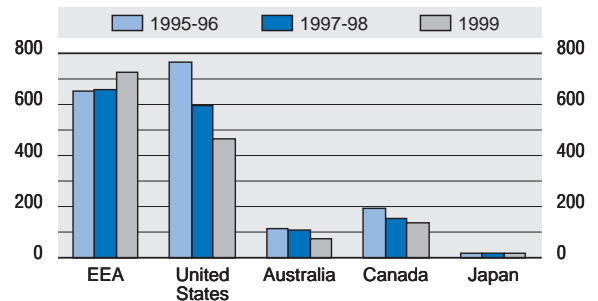
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Overview of migration trends and foreign population in OECD countries

	Migration flows (in thousands unless otherwise indicated)		Stock of foreign and foreign-born population	
	Annual average 1994-98	1999	Thousands	% of total population
Inflows of foreigners				
European economic area (EEA)¹	1 350	1 417 ²		
United States	2 293	2 788		
Permanent immigration	780	647		
Temporary immigration ³	1 513	2 141		
Australia	222	278		
Permanent immigration	84	84		
Temporary immigration	138	194		
Canada	287	272		
Permanent immigration	211	190		
Temporary immigration ⁴	76 ⁵	82		
Japan	243	282		
Stock of foreign population				
European economic area (1999)			20 015	5.3
Japan (1999)			1 556	1.2
Stock of foreign-born population				
United States (1999)			28 180	10.3
Canada (1996)			4 971	17.4
Australia (1999)			4 482	23.6
Net migration (for 1 000 inhabitants)				
Canada ⁶	5.8	4.2		
Australia	5.4	5.9		
United States	3.1	3.1		
European economic area ⁷	1.8	1.9		
Japan	-0.2	-0.1		
Asylum seekers				
European economic area	302	447		
United States	114	43		
Canada	24	29		
Australia	9	8		

Acquisition of nationality
Annual average in thousands

1. Austria, Greece, Italy and Spain are not included.

2. 1998 for Denmark.

3. Excluding visitors and transit migrants. Accompanying dependents are including. Data refer over the period 1994-1996 and on the year 1998 respectively.

4. Total of persons issued employment authorisations to work in Canada temporarily excluding persons issued employment authorisations on humanitarian grounds. Persons are shown in the year in which they received their first temporary permit.

5. 1997-1998 average.

6. Fiscal years (July to June of the given year).

7. Excluding Austria.

Sources: OECD Database on International Migration; Statistics Canada; Labour Force Statistics, OECD, 2000.

GENERAL INTRODUCTION

At the beginning of the new millennium, migration for employment and the reinforcement of international co-operation with a view to better control of migration flows remains an issue of utmost concern among the majority of OECD Member countries. Migration policies are increasingly incorporated in the context of a global approach to the monitoring of regular and irregular flows in partnership with the sending countries, not only with the intention of meeting the diverse and changing needs of the host countries, but also to take into account the interests of the country of origin and the migrants themselves. The diversity of immigrants' origins as well as the channels they take, together with the growing movement of temporary and qualified workers in overall flows, indicates that migration plays an active part in the process of the globalisation of economies. It remains to be defined in a more precise manner how to adapt policies in order to increase co-operation between sending and host countries in order to better manage migration flows and to develop human resources at both ends of the migration chain.

The upturn in the trend in immigration which began in 1997 has been confirmed in several OECD Member countries. If the increase in asylum seekers has contributed to swelling the flow of migration, the new entries of immigrant workers are of increasing importance, to the same extent as reuniting families. A second characteristic feature of recent trends is the greater diversity of the immigrants' country of origin. Over and above the traditional migration flows resulting from geographical proximity and historical links with the host country, destinations are increasingly diverse. For example, a growing number of immigrants from Asia to Europe; a greater number of nationals from the African continent, from some Central and Latin American countries as well as from Central and Eastern Europe decide to migrate towards the major countries of settlement (Australia, United States and Canada) and to European OECD countries in which their ethnic communities were, until quite recently, poorly represented.

Better employment prospects, easing of entry conditions for certain categories of workers had the effect of significantly increasing migration of qualified and highly qualified workers between 1999 and 2000. Recent recruitment policies have tended to converge in this direction seeking an increasing number of temporary foreign workers. Countries which were already relying on this source of temporary entry (*i.e.* the majority of European OECD countries) have granted temporary work permits valid for up to five years and generally renewable. This represents a reversal of past common practises which limited the period of validity of all initial work permits to one year (renewable). Settlement countries, whose migration policies were principally aimed at permanent immigrants, are now

Migration for employment and international co-operation with a view to better control of flows dominates current migration developments

The recovery of immigration flows which began in 1997 is apparent as well as the diversity of the source countries, notably those from Asia and Africa

Migration of skilled temporary workers is facilitated...

increasingly favouring temporary migrant labour, in offering residence and work permits of a duration which can, depending on the country, cover a period of three to six years.

... most notably in the sector of information and communication technology, health and education

This trend, common to several Member countries, results for the most part in a reversal of the situation, provoked by the development of new technologies. The effect, in the majority of OECD countries, has been to generate qualified labour shortages most notably in the information and communication sectors. Simultaneously, population ageing has structurally affected supply and demand of certain jobs such as home cleaning services, the health sector or that of education which has incited specific labour needs in certain countries. Simple and rapid selection procedures have enabled countries to fall back on qualified workers in order to cope with labour market needs. Certain European OECD countries have, for example, adapted their legislation to offer particularly attractive conditions to immigrants: prolongation of the duration of the initial work permit, possibility of non-wage benefits and access to the labour market of family members.

The control of flows remains a priority of migration policies...

The revival of migration for employment goes hand in hand with the mobilisation of OECD countries to better control migration flows and to effectively combat irregular migration and the illegal employment of foreigners. The reinforcement of border and in-country controls, tougher sanctions against illegal employment of foreigners, the harmonisation of admission procedures concerning asylum seekers and refugees illustrate that the management of flows remains the highest priority of migration policies as a whole. The terrorist attacks of 11th September 2001 in the United States will probably further induce OECD Member countries to implement new measures to combat terrorism. These already include a stricter surveillance of transborder movements and reinforcement of detection measures for false identity papers and residence permits. These controls, aimed at dismantling networks of smugglers and the exploitation of human beings, could by the same token contribute to the reduction of irregular migration.

... as well as the integration of immigrants in society and in the labour market, especially since the economic outlook for 2002 appears less favourable

The integration of immigrants and foreigners remains a subject of major concern in many OECD countries. This situation is of particular relevance with regard to the most vulnerable groups and especially young people, women and refugees. More generally, even if conditions of insertion of immigrants and foreigners into the labour market improved with the economic recovery in the OECD area at the end of the 1990s, conditions remain somewhat precarious in certain countries. The recent reversal of the economic situation and the threat of a recession predicted for 2002 may have a negative impact on the employment of foreigners. Most OECD countries have implemented measures to assist immigrants in attaining or improving their knowledge of the language of the host country as well as their professional qualifications. Particular attention has also been devoted to the renovation of distressed urban areas, as well as to the fight against racism and discrimination in access to housing and the labour market.

Part II of this report presents a comparative analysis of international student mobility. This mobility is constantly rising, although it varies from one OECD country to another, mainly due to the nature and range of educational provision and the characteristics of the demand and expectations of foreign students. Student migration is greater the higher the level of education, degree of technical content of the field and the need to master foreign languages. OECD countries whose native language is more widely used internationally attract a larger number of students. The directions of student migration are also governed by geographical, institutional (especially if they originate from one of the member countries of a regional economic group such as the European Union or NAFTA) and academic considerations (centres of excellence).

This year's special chapter of this report is devoted to student mobility

The growing internationalisation of education systems offers many advantages to host countries, for example, the potential reserve of qualified workers constituted by the presence of foreign students could alleviate labour shortages. A number of OECD Member countries have introduced important modifications concerning the possibility of changes in the status and access to the labour market for foreign students who have completed their studies. From the point of view of the countries of origin, the potential gains related to this mobility are important, notably the development of human capital and the transfer of technology, as well as the strengthening of cultural and commercial ties.

The foreign students may assist in alleviating labour shortages in host countries

Bearing in mind the many advantages offered by student migration, for them personally, for their countries of origin and the host countries, the report encourages this type of mobility which could be increased by more transparent procedures for equivalence of degrees or simplified conditions for obtaining student residence permits. A recommendation is also made to introduce safeguards to limit the risk of brain drain, for example, making available a greater number of student grants to promote mobility, conditional on return to the home country. Finally, greater co-operation between students' countries of origin and destination would lead to a more equitable sharing of the advantages linked to international student mobility.

It is highly recommended to encourage student mobility while simultaneously reinforcing the co-operation between sending and receiving countries to limit the risk of brain drain

Part III presents country-specific notes on the recent developments in migration movements and policies.

Part I

MAIN TRENDS IN INTERNATIONAL MIGRATION

The analysis of the main trends in international migration is presented in four sections. The first looks at changes in migration movements and in the foreign population of OECD Member countries. The second section considers the position of immigrants and foreigners in the labour market. The following section focuses on two regions, Asia and Central and Eastern Europe. Finally, an overview of migration policies is provided. It reviews policies to regulate and control flows and the whole range of measures to promote the integration of immigrants in host countries. It also describes recent moves to enhance co-operation between host countries and countries of origin in the spheres of migration and development.

A. MIGRATION AND POPULATION TRENDS

Since the mid-1990s, there has been a gradual upturn in migration flows in most OECD Member countries. Owing to regional conflicts, but also to the restrictions placed on other immigration channels, the number of asylum seekers and refugees has risen substantially, particularly in some European countries. Immigration for employment reasons, permanent but in particular temporary, also increased sharply in 1999-2000 in response to economic trends in Member countries and the resulting labour shortages in certain sectors. Nevertheless, immigration for family reasons continues to predominate, especially in the longer-standing countries of immigration. Lastly, the persistence of illegal migration, the volume of which is by definition impossible to determine, indicates clearly the difficulties that host and origin countries are encountering in their attempts to control migration flows.

Immigration plays a significant role in the annual population growth of certain OECD countries. They have a high proportion of foreign births in total births, and the foreign or foreign-born population is growing and diversifying. The importance of migration inflows is sometimes emphasised in connection

with the ageing of the population. Without denying their potential contribution to reducing demographic imbalances, their impact in this regard should not be overestimated.

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

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

Over the entire period 1980-99, there was also a diversification of migration movements and an increase in the range of nationalities involved, although the traditional flows and regional movements persisted. The volume of the foreign population shows a trend similar to that for flows. There is a trend increase in numbers, together with a wider range of countries of origin and greater heterogeneity in demographic terms.

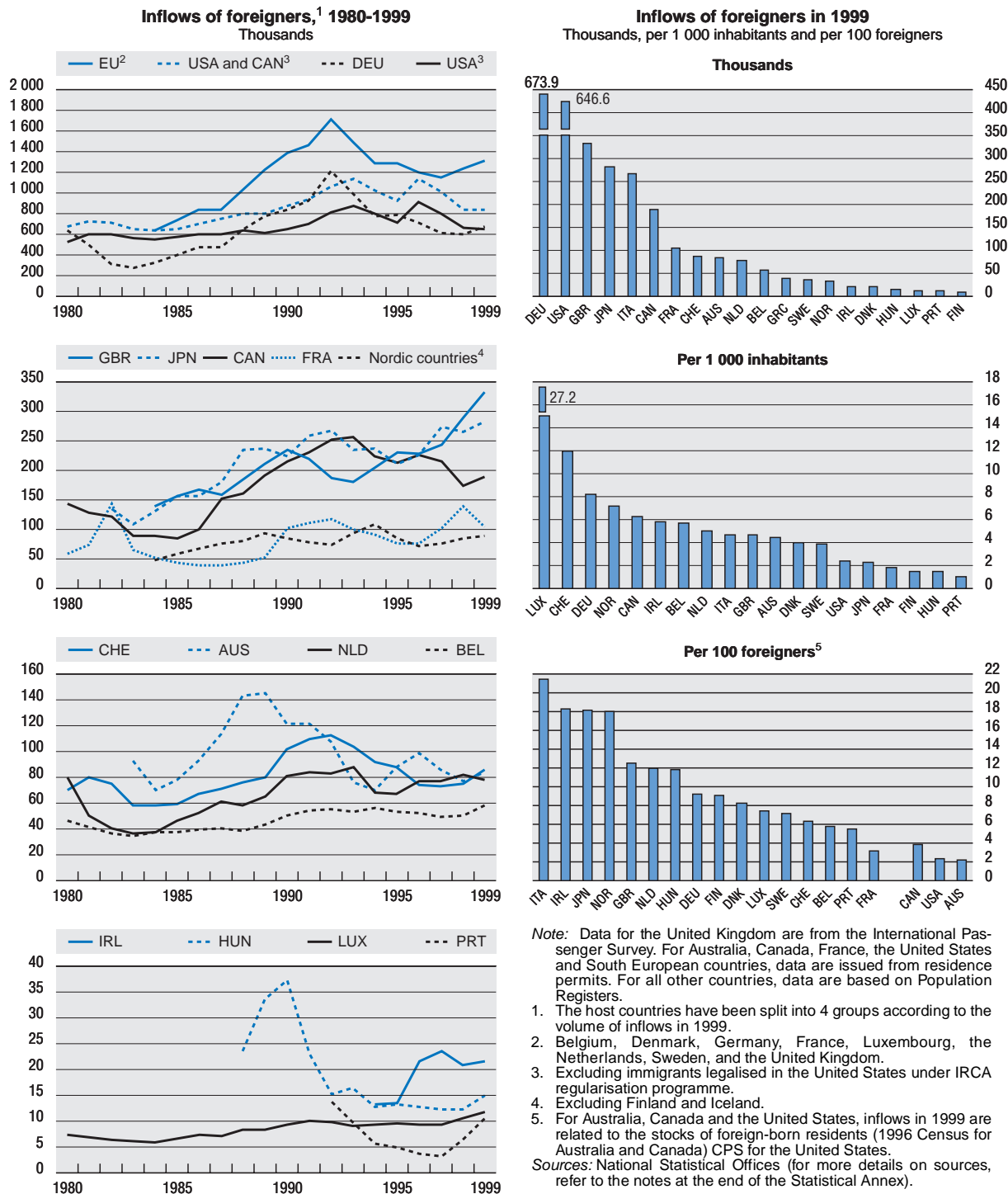
a) Upward but contrasting migration trends

During the 1980s and above all at the beginning of the 1990s, inflows increased in almost all OECD countries (see Chart I.1). This trend peaked in 1992-93 for the main immigration countries such as Canada, Germany, Japan and the United States, while in others, notably Australia and the United Kingdom, the peak had come earlier. Since then, as the result of restrictions, the flows of legal entries have fallen sharply. In 1999 they represented around three-quarters of the volume of entries reported for all European Union countries in 1992 and for North America in 1993.

The left-hand side of Chart I.1 presents the post-1980 time-series for foreign migrant inflows. The host countries are divided into four groups in

Chart I.1. Inflows of foreigners in some OECD countries, 1980-1999

Thousands, per 1 000 inhabitants and per 100 foreigners



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

decreasing order of the volume of their 1999 inflows. The right-hand side of this chart shows the volume of 1999 inflows in absolute terms, and as a proportion of the total population and the stock of foreigners in each country. The trend reversal mentioned in previous editions of *Trends in International Migration* continued in more marked fashion in 1999. In the European Union and Japan total inflows rose by over 6% between 1998 and 1999, whereas in North America the rise was more modest, around 0.3%. There are a number of exceptions, however, such as the United States or a few countries in Europe where immigration flows remained steady, or fell back slightly. Other countries report a very marked increase, well above the average trend.

OECD countries can be placed in three groups on the basis of their recent migration trends. First is a group of countries where inflows held steady or showed a modest fall between 1998 and 1999, notably the Netherlands, Finland and Sweden, all countries where immigration is relatively stable. France showed a marked decline in inflows, of around 24%, though this is accounted for by a technical adjustment following the documentation process in 1997-98. In the United States permanent immigration fell for the third consecutive year, though at a much

more modest rate. The decline can be partly attributed to the increase in the backlog of persons waiting to change their status from temporary “non-immigrant” (or illegal) to permanent (1998: 809 000; 1999: 951 000). The decline in permanent inflows is accompanied, however, by a marked increase in the number of temporary visas issued, in particular to skilled workers (see below).

The second group is made up of countries where immigration flows are moving upwards, in contrast to the trend over the preceding period. Australia, Canada, Germany and Japan come into this category. For the Asian countries, the change marks a return to the trends which had prevailed prior to the financial crisis of 1997. In Korea the increase has gone hand in hand with the resumption of growth and improving conditions in the labour market, while in Japan the trend seems largely attributable to entries of foreign students. In the cases of Canada and Germany, the trend reversal follows a steady fall in immigration since the beginning of the 1990s. Switzerland’s situation is a similar one.

The last group of countries display a spectacular and sustained rise in immigration. That is particularly so in the United Kingdom, where following a

Box I.1. Migration statistics: definitions and comparability*

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

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

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

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

rise of nearly 19% between 1997 and 1998 immigration flows rose by around 14% in 1999. It is also the case of Norway which, for the second consecutive year, showed a rise in inflows of over 20%. Yet the rise in immigration was most sustained in Portugal, and above all in Italy. The latter country stands out, with inflows growing by some 140% between 1998 and 1999. Although the figure needs to be treated with caution, given that it includes recently documented persons who in fact had been in the country for some time, it does reflect a spectacular rise in immigration there. It should be noted that Belgium and Luxembourg also report a substantial increase in entries of immigrants for the second consecutive year.

Recent migration trends have brought little change to the ranking of the main immigration countries, though some differences have widened slightly (see the right-hand part of Chart I.1). For example, in 1999 the United Kingdom received some 50 000 persons more than Japan, and 140 000 more than Canada (1998: 25 000 and 115 000 more, respectively). However, Germany (674 000) and the United States (647 000) continued to be the two main immigration countries. For France, the Netherlands, Australia and Switzerland, the number of entries ranged between 105 000 and 78 000. Italy is the only new entrant in this ranking, coming between Canada and Japan with 268 000 “new” entries in 1999.

If these legal entry flows are compared to the total foreign or foreign-born population at the beginning of the year, the ranking changes somewhat. Italy ranks first, ahead of Ireland, Japan and Norway with ratios of between 21 and 18%, followed by the United Kingdom, the Netherlands and Hungary (around 12%), and Germany (9%).

It is particularly hard to predict whether these trends will continue, given that since the beginning of 2001 economic activity has experienced cyclical shocks of varying scales. The data available for 2000, however, confirm the rise reported in 1999. In Southern Europe it can be expected that Italy, Spain and Portugal, on the basis of demographic trends and labour requirements, will experience steady migration pressure over coming years. In the medium term, settlement by recent waves of migrants may generate further inflows of immigrants for family reasons in all three countries, and probably in Greece too, thereby making them more significant immigration countries. At the same time the main immigration countries, such as Australia, Canada and Germany, are increasingly openly adopting policies

aimed at attracting new migrants in order to meet labour market needs and/or offset the effects of the ageing of their populations.

Nevertheless, controlling migration flows remains a priority common to all OECD countries. Special emphasis is placed on curbing illegal immigration and the growing number of asylum seekers. On the whole, the trends of migration flows, classified by the main categories, have been marked over the last two years by the continuing preponderance of family-linked immigration, greater numbers of asylum seekers and an increase in employment-related migration.

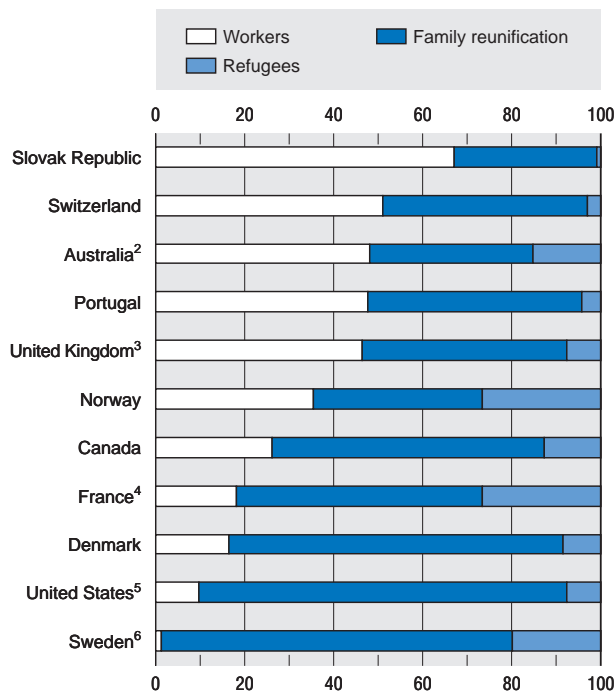
b) The continuing predominance of family-linked migration...

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

Although it varied considerably across countries, the family component predominated in many OECD countries in 1999, especially in Canada, France and the United States (see Chart I.2). The proportion taken by this category is continuing to rise in some countries where the other official channels of immigration still remain limited. In France, family-linked immigration represented 75% of inflows in 1999, the highest level ever and an increase of nearly 23% over 1995. In the Nordic countries this component of migration is also increasingly significant, partly due to the fall in refugee inflows.

During the same year, amongst the selected countries, work-related migration accounted for the highest percentage of total entries in the Slovak Republic, Switzerland, Australia and Portugal. This component is likely to have assumed greater importance in 2000, according to the initial data to hand. In addition, it should be said that family members who obtain permanent resident status are often granted the right to work.

Chart I.2. **Permanent or long-term immigration flows into selected OECD countries by main categories¹ in 1999**
Percentages of total inflows



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

1. For Australia, Canada, the United States, Norway and Sweden, data concern acceptances for settlement. For Denmark, France, Portugal, the Slovak Republic and Switzerland, entries correspond to residence permits usually delivered for a period longer than one year. For the United Kingdom, data are based on entry control at ports of certain categories of migrants (excluding EEA citizens). For Australia, "Workers" include accompanying dependents who are included in the category "family reunification" for all other countries.
2. Data refer to fiscal year (July 1998 to June 1999). Category "Workers" includes accompanying dependents. Excluding citizens from New Zealand who don't need a visa to enter the country.
3. Passengers, excluding EEA citizens, admitted to the United Kingdom. Data only include certain categories of migrants: work permit holders, spouses and refugees.
4. Entries of EU family members are estimated. Excluding visitors. Among those who benefitted from the regularisation programme, only those who received a permit under the family reunification procedure are counted. The "family" category also includes spouses of French citizens who received the new permit "vie privée et familiale".
5. Data refer to fiscal year (October 1998 to September 1999). Excluding immigrants who obtained a permanent residence permit following the 1986 Immigration Reform and Control Act (IRCA).
6. Excluding nordic and EEA citizens.

Sources: National Statistical Offices.

It was in Denmark and Norway that refugee flows accounted for the greatest proportion of total inflows (27%). Nevertheless, it must be pointed out that the data shown in Chart I.2 only concern asylum seekers who obtained refugee status in the given year; they do not include asylum seekers whose application is pending.

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

In many OECD countries refugees and asylum seekers do not arrive in quite the same way. Refugees generally arrive within the framework of government programmes negotiated either with specialised international organisations or with countries that are sheltering the refugees. Asylum seekers, on the other hand, most often apply for refugee status (which they do not necessarily obtain) either on arrival at the border or once they are inside the country. In addition, OECD countries authorise certain persons, for humanitarian reasons, to remain either temporarily or on a more permanent basis.

From the middle of the 1980s through to the beginning of the 1990s (see Statistical Annex, Table A.1.3), applications for asylum rose apprecia-

bly, sometimes spectacularly (this was the case in Austria, Canada, Germany, the Netherlands, Norway, Sweden, the United Kingdom and the United States). Faced with an increasing number of asylum seekers, OECD countries reacted by speeding up the processing of applications and by introducing restrictive measures, among them the extension of visa requirements to a larger number of countries (see Section I.D below on migration policy). Most OECD countries also decided to restrict asylum applications, except for special cases, to persons from countries that have not signed the United Nations Conventions on refugees and on human rights, provided they have not previously passed through a country that is a signatory.

In spite of these measures, after declining generally in the early 1990s, flows of new asylum seekers again started to rise, in most OECD countries, from 1997 onwards, due to the combined effect of numerous regional conflicts and continuing entry restrictions, in particular for employment-related immigration.

Between 1999 and 2000, the total number of asylum requests filed in OECD Member countries

remained relatively unchanged. In 2000, in descending order, the United Kingdom, Germany and the United States received the largest number of asylum requests (see Table I.1). The United Kingdom reported 97 900 asylum requests in 2000, or nearly 20 000 more than Germany (78 600) and just under twice the number for the United States (52 400). The Netherlands and Belgium follow, with 43 900 and 42 700 applications respectively in 2000.

For some countries, however, the rise in asylum requests between 1999 and 2000 is quite spectacular, even if the numbers concerned are still small. That is the case in particular for Greece (+101.5%, 3 100 requests in 2000) and to a lesser extent for Denmark (+55.7%), Sweden (+45%) and Ireland (+41.5%). Two countries are outstanding in reporting a significant fall in applications between 1999 and 2000 (largely from the former Yugoslavia): Luxembourg (-78.6%) and Switzerland (-61.8%).

These trends stem partly from the Kosovo crisis of 1999. Between March and June of that year, numerous OECD Member countries took in displaced people

from Kosovo – a total of over 200 000 – either with temporary refugee status or as asylum seekers. In July 1999 the Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR) published official recommendations on the return of Kosovars who had found refuge elsewhere than in the adjoining countries and regions: Albania, the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, Montenegro and Bosnia-Herzegovina. By early August 1999, around 22 000 people had voluntarily left Australia, Canada, the United States and countries in Western Europe. Returns subsequently continued and by the end of 2000 the great majority of Kosovars had returned home (see Box I.2 below).

Analysis of trends in asylum requests since the start of the 1990s (see Chart I.3) highlights significant differences among the fourteen main receiving countries. Some have experienced a steady increase in applications, which have become even more marked since 1995, while others report a falling number.

Germany and the United States, which were still among the leading receivers of asylum seekers in 2000, show a decline in applications, from 1992 and 1995

Table I.1. **Inflows of asylum seekers in 2000**

Thousands and percentages

	Thousands	Per 100 foreigners ¹ at the beginning of the year	1999-2000 % change
Australia	11.9	0.26	41.2
Austria	18.3	2.44	-9.2
Belgium	42.7	4.79	19.3
Bulgaria	1.8	..	30.1
Canada	34.3	0.69	16.5
Czech Republic	8.8	3.83	21.6
Denmark	10.1	3.89	55.7
Finland	3.2	3.62	2.1
France	38.6	1.18	24.8
Germany	78.6	1.07	-17.4
Greece	3.1	..	101.5
Hungary	7.8	6.14	-32.2
Ireland	10.9	9.27	41.5
Italy	18.0	1.44	-46.0
Luxembourg	0.6	0.39	-78.6
Netherlands	43.9	6.74	2.7
New Zealand	2.2	..	6.4
Norway	10.8	6.07	6.7
Poland	4.4	..	48.5
Portugal	0.2	0.11	-25.8
Romania	1.4	..	-18.2
Slovak Republic	1.5	5.25	78.7
Spain	7.2	0.90	-13.9
Sweden	16.3	3.34	45.0
Switzerland	17.6	1.29	-61.8
United Kingdom	97.9	4.43	7.3
United States	52.4	0.19	23.2

1. As a per cent of stocks of foreign-born citizens for Australia, Canada (1996) and the United States.

Source: Please refer to the notes for Table A.1.3. at the end of the Statistical Annex.

Box I.2. The Kosovar refugees

In 1999 the Kosovo crisis resulted in substantial population movements, chiefly to the adjoining countries and regions but also to some more distant OECD Member countries. These movements compounded the effects of earlier crises in the Balkans which had greatly contributed to the increase in asylum applications and inflows of refugees under the Geneva Convention or with temporary protection status, in particular into OECD countries in Europe.

Several hundred thousand people were received on this basis, chiefly in Austria, Germany, Italy, Switzerland, the Nordic countries, the United States, Canada and Australia. UNHCR estimated that in all 841 000 Kosovars had returned by June 2000, chiefly from the adjoining areas. While voluntary return from Western Europe was generally promoted by programmes of assistance for returnees, as from the first quarter of 2000 some countries adopted more coercive measures. Switzerland, which had taken around 50 000 Kosovar refugees with temporary status, promoted the voluntary return of around 38 000 through substantial financial support and logistical assistance. All persons whose last domicile had been in Kosovo (with the exception of people from the Rom ethnic minority, and Serbs) were required to leave the country by 31 May 2000, or face expulsion.

The Nordic countries were also very active during the Kosovo crisis. Denmark took in nearly 3 000 refugees and Norway 6 000 (along with Sweden – 4 000 and Finland – 1 000). By the end of 2000, around 2 800 Kosovars had left Denmark and 4 600 had left Norway. Of those who left the latter country, a little over 500 subsequently returned. In all, 95% of the 4 000 Kosovar refugees admitted to Australia returned home. For the United States and Canada, which had taken in 14 000 and 8 000 Kosovars respectively in 1999, the rates of return are markedly lower since it is estimated that around 75% of them remain in the host countries.

Germany took in over around 150 000 Kosovars and Austria and Italy between 5 000 and 10 000 each. In the absence of detailed information, the rate of return from these three countries cannot be determined at present.

onwards respectively. Other countries, including Italy, Norway, Finland, France and Switzerland, report two peaks over the period, with the second in 1999 corresponding to the Kosovo crisis. A third group, made up of Australia, Canada, Denmark and the Netherlands, is exceptional in that the peak in the early 1990s, after a sharp downwards adjustment, was followed by a trend upswing in flows. A final group consisting of Belgium, Ireland and the United Kingdom experienced a steady acceleration in asylum applications over the whole period.

Lastly, if inflows of asylum seekers are expressed as a proportion of the total foreign population (see Table I.1), Ireland, the Netherlands, Hungary and Norway rank high with over 6%, followed by the United Kingdom and Belgium where asylum applicants account for between 4 and 5% of the total foreign population. In the United States there were only 2 new asylum seekers per thousand of the foreign-born population in 2000.

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

One of the salient features of recent years has been the rise in migration for employment purposes, both permanent and more particularly temporary. Between 1999 and 2000 this trend continued

and was in some cases accentuated. But it may be reversed in 2001 if the prospects of an economic slowdown in the United States materialise and if such a slowdown spreads rapidly, as some fear, to the other OECD Member countries.

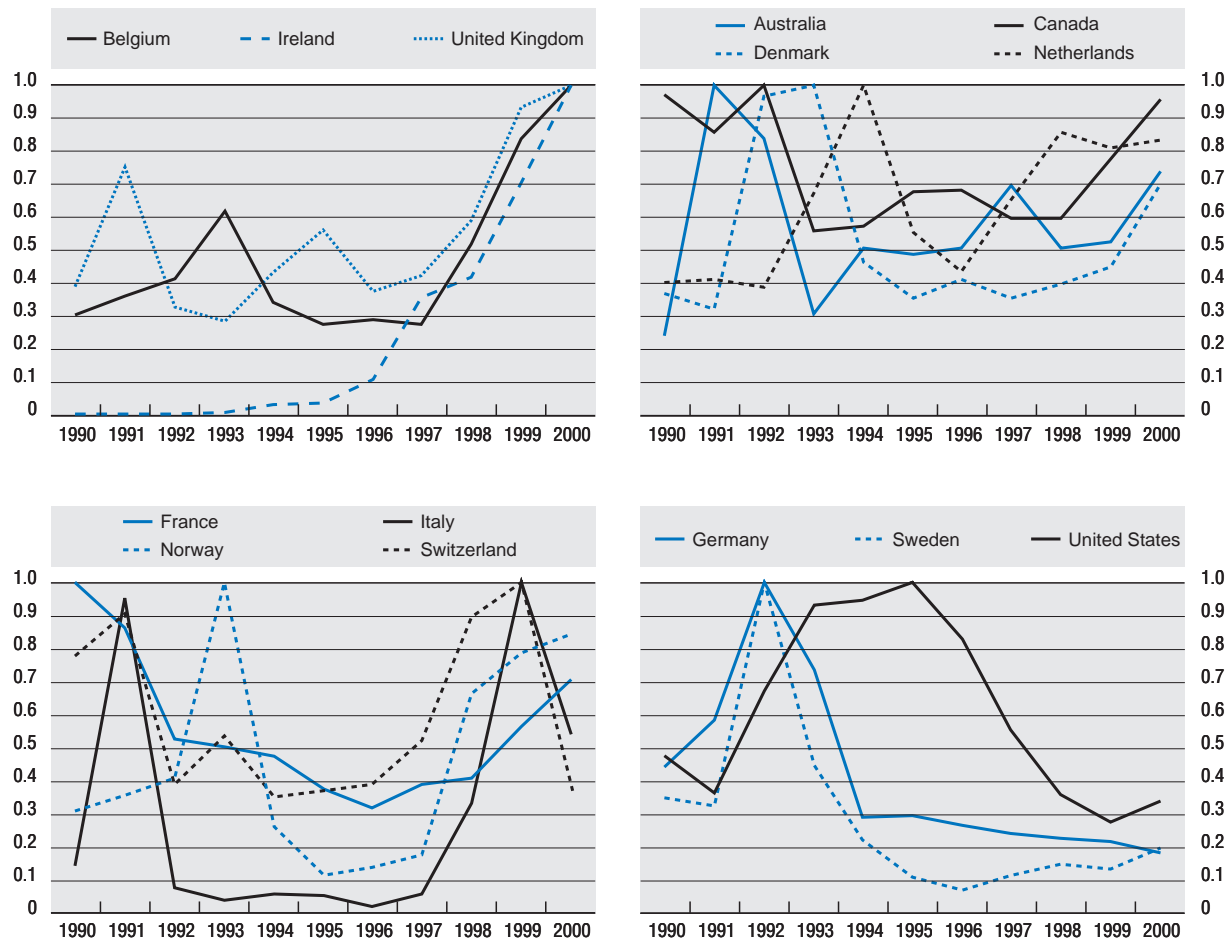
The observed increase in worker migration is the outcome of a combination of factors relating, on the one hand, to the strong period of expansion at the end of the 1990s and, on the other hand, to the development of the information technology sector where some countries have experienced shortages of skilled and highly skilled labour.

According to some estimates, there is a shortfall of some 850 000 IT technicians in the United States and nearly 2 million in Europe. Against this background, countries are competing more keenly to attract the human resources that they lack and to keep those likely to emigrate. Many countries have thus adjusted their rules in order to assist the admission of skilled foreign workers (see Appendix at the end of Part I). Although these measures particularly concern new technology specialists, they also apply to other categories of skilled workers, more specifically doctors, nurses and nursing assistants.

That is particularly the case in the United States where the quota for H1B visas, issued only to professionals and skilled workers, was increased by

Chart I.3. Trends in flows of asylum seekers from 1990 to 2000

Inflows of asylum seekers during the given year relative to the biggest annual inflows during the period



Source: Refer to the notes for Table A.1.3 at the end of the Statistical Annex.

over 70% in 2000, to cover the next three fiscal years, with the annual quota for these visas rising from 115 000 to 195 000. In Germany a special green card programme was instituted to assist the temporary recruitment of 20 000 computer and IT specialists. The German authorities had initially announced the intention of recruiting Indian nationals, but at the end of the first year it turned out that most applications were from nationals of central and eastern European countries. At that point, only 8 700 of the 20 000 visas potentially available had been issued.

Since 1998 France has been applying a simplified system for computer specialists, enabling regional labour authorities to issue work permits to this category of foreign labour without reference to

the employment situation. The United Kingdom has simplified and speeded up the work permit procedure for a number of occupations, and has extended the list of shortage occupations list. Australia has adjusted its points system for selection and placed greater emphasis in particular on new technology specialists. Canada is considering reforming its selection system, one purpose being to identify and rate the skills of immigration applicants more effectively.

There are some limitations, however, to this wider use of foreign skills. The remuneration of foreign workers must be the same as that of nationals with the same qualifications. Reference to the employment situation is waived in only a few cases.

There are minimum salary thresholds to be complied with, as in France and Germany for instance. Reforms to the education and training systems are also under discussion in a number of OECD countries affected by labour shortages in the new technology sectors. Measures being set in train are designed to increase the supply of resident labour with skills in this field over the medium term.

The rise in employment-related migration does not concern skilled workers alone and some OECD Member countries make extensive use of unskilled foreign labour, chiefly in agriculture, building and construction, and domestic services. That is the case in particular in Italy, Spain, Portugal, Greece and the United States. In certain countries, a substantial proportion of these foreign workers are illegals. Visas for seasonal workers are also common and on the increase in some Member countries, including Germany (223 400 seasonal workers hired in 1999), Switzerland and the United States (46 100 and 32 400 respectively). Lastly, Japan and Korea issue a large number of temporary work visas to trainees, generally employed in industry and Australia and the United Kingdom an increasing number of Working Holiday Makers permits.

In fact, all categories of temporary employment migration rose between 1998 and 1999 (see Table I.2). Overall, the United States, where permanent admissions continue to fall, shows the sharpest increase in temporary employment visas. The rises are also significant in Australia and the United Kingdom.

e) Migration: a multi-faceted panorama

Along with the traditional triptych of family immigration, refugees and asylum seekers and employment-related movements, whose main trends were presented above, some more specific forms of mobility are developing. Aside from tourist visits, which do not constitute migration in the proper sense, and the seasonal and cross-border movements mentioned earlier, reference may be made to transfers of staff within multinational firms, the temporary movements of skilled workers to provide services, and the mobility of students, and retired persons electing to live abroad.

Student mobility is discussed in the special section in this report (see Part II). It is tending to increase with the expansion of trade and is part of the globalisation process. Partly it is occurring because knowledge of languages is increasingly an essential for posts of responsibility and skilled jobs;

in addition, cultural experience acquired abroad is frequently viewed as an additional advantage by employers. What is more, higher education courses such as MBAs are more and more openly promoted on the world market and colleges and universities seek to attract a larger number of foreign students in order to bring in funds and raise their profile. Governments themselves sometimes foster the admission of foreign students, in particular via scholarships and grants. Apart from the direct financial benefit that enrolment fees bring to places of higher education, foreign students constitute a potential reserve of highly skilled labour that is familiar with the rules and practices prevailing in the host country. A number of countries, including Switzerland, Germany and Australia, have recently relaxed the rules for foreign students applying for different visas in order to enter the labour market at the end of their courses.

Numbers of foreign students are very high in some OECD Member countries. That is the case in the United States in particular, but in the United Kingdom and Germany too: they had 430 000, 210 000 and 171 000 foreign students respectively in 1998, tadjubg all courses and levels together (see Table I.4). France and Australia each had over 100 000 foreign students as well. The proportion of OECD nationals, however, varies substantially from one country to another (18% in Australia and 27% in France, as against 60% in the United Kingdom and 73% in Switzerland). These disparities are partly due to the geographical position of the host countries and their history of migration, but also to strategies to attract foreign students (grants and scholarships, possibility of entering the labour market, etc.) and some specialisation in particular sectors of education.

In North America the mobility of retired people has been a long-standing feature, and in regions such as Florida the elderly are heavily over-represented. This trend is much less advanced in Europe, though it is on the increase and the mobility of retired people is increasingly assuming an international dimension. For example it is estimated that, of the nearly 6 million European citizens resident in an EU country other than their own, around 900 000 are over age 60. A very high proportion of these are French (250 000), British (200 000), German (180 000) or Belgian (100 000). The majority of them settle in Spain, Portugal, Greece or, to a lesser degree, France. This development would be even more pronounced if we are able to include citizens returning to their home country, in particular for

Table I.2. Inflows of temporary workers in selected OECD countries by principal categories, 1992, 1996-1999

Thousands											
	1992	1996	1997	1998	1999		1992	1996	1997	1998	1999
Australia						Japan					
Skilled temporary resident programme (Offshore and onshore) ¹	14.6	15.4	31.7	37.3	37.0	Highly skilled workers	108.1	78.5	93.9	101.9	108.0
Working Holiday Makers (Offshore)	25.9	40.3	50.0	55.6	62.6	Trainees	..	45.5	49.6	49.8	48.0
Total	40.5	55.7	81.7	92.9	99.7	Total	..	124.1	143.5	151.7	156.0
	(40.3)	(20.0)	(19.7)	(26.0)	(28.0)	Korea					
Canada ²						Highly skilled workers	3.4	13.4	14.7	11.1	12.6
Total	74.3	78.0	82.0	Trainees ⁴	4.9	68.0	90.4	64.2	98.4
	(252.8)	(226.1)	(216.0)	(174.1)	(189.8)	Total	8.3	81.4	105.0	75.4	111.0
France						Switzerland					
Employees on secondment	0.9	0.8	1.0	1.2	1.8	Seasonal workers	126.1	62.7	46.7	39.6	45.3
Researchers	0.9	1.2	1.1	1.0	1.0	Trainees	1.6	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.8
Other holders of an APT ³	2.8	2.8	2.6	2.2	3.1	Total	127.8	63.4	47.4	40.3	46.1
Seasonal workers	13.6	8.8	8.2	7.5	7.6		(39.7)	(24.5)	(25.4)	(26.8)	(31.5)
Total	18.1	13.6	12.9	11.8	13.4	United Kingdom					
	(42.3)	(11.5)	(11.0)	(10.3)	(12.2)	Long-term permit holders (one year and over) ⁵	12.7	19.1	22.0	25.0	30.6
Germany						Short-term permit holders ⁵	14.0	17.0	20.4	23.5	21.8
Workers employed under a contract for services	115.1	45.8	38.5	33.0	40.0	Working Holiday Makers	24.0	33.0	33.3	40.8	45.8
Seasonal workers	212.4	220.9	226.0	201.6	223.4	Trainees ⁶	3.4	4.0	4.7
Trainees	5.1	4.3	3.2	3.1	3.7	Seasonal agricultural workers ⁷	3.6	5.5	9.3	9.4	9.8
Total	332.6	271.0	267.7	237.7	267.1	Total	57.6	78.7	89.7	98.8	107.9
	(408.9)	(262.5)	(285.4)	(275.5)	..	United States ⁸					
						Highly skilled workers					
						Specialists (visa H-1B)	110.2	144.5	..	240.9	302.3
						Specialists (NAFTA, visa TN) ⁹	12.5	27.0	..	59.1	68.4
						Workers of distinguished abilities (visa O)	0.5	7.2	..	12.2	15.9
						Seasonal workers (visa H-2A)	16.4	9.6	..	27.3	32.4
						Industrial trainees (visa H-3)	3.4	3.0	..	3.2	3.5
						Total	143.0	191.2	..	342.7	422.5
							(116.2)	(117.5)	(90.6)	(77.5)	(56.8)

Note: The categories of temporary workers differ from one country to another. Only the principal categories of temporary worker are presented in this table. The figures in brackets indicate the number of entries of permanent workers. The symbol "I" indicates a break in the series.

- The data cover the fiscal year (from July to June of the indicated year) and include accompanying persons. From 1996/1997 onwards, the data are on and offshore and include Long Stay Temporary Business Programme.
- Total of persons issued employment authorisations to work in Canada temporarily excluding persons issued employment authorisations on humanitarian grounds. Persons are shown in the year in which they received their first temporary permit.
- Beneficiaries of provisional work permits (APT).
- Refer to the note for Korea (Part III of this report) to explain the huge increase in figures.
- Both long-term and short-term permits are now dedicated to highly skilled workers or those where skills are in short supply. Most of short-term permit holders are entertainers and sports people. Data include changes of employment and extensions.
- The new data-recording system no longer allows identification of trainees.
- Students in full time education aged between 18 and 25.
- The data cover the fiscal year (October to September of the indicated year). A person is counted as many times as he/she enters the country over the course of the same year. The data may therefore be over-estimates.
- The figures include family members.

Sources: Australia: Department of Immigration and Ethnic Affairs (DIEA); Canada: Citizenship and Immigration Canada; France: Office des migrations internationales, Annuaire des migrations 99; Germany: Bundesanstalt für Arbeit; Japan: Ministry of Justice; Korea: Ministry of Justice; Switzerland: Office fédéral des étrangers; United Kingdom: Department of Employment; United States: United States Department of Justice, 1999 Statistical Yearbook of Immigration and Naturalization Service, forthcoming.

Box I.3. More women in all forms of migration

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

It appears that recently there has been a trend towards the feminisation of migration. This is particularly obvious from changes in the proportion of women in total immigration flows between 1990 and 1999 (see Table I.3). The trend is particularly marked in Portugal and, to a lesser degree, in the Netherlands, Finland and Switzerland, where the proportion of women in inflows has risen by over 1% a year since 1990. In 1999 the share of women in the overall immigration flow (nationals and foreigners) ranged between 41.3% for Germany and 56.8% for Greece. For most of the countries studied, however, the percentage was close to 50%. It was slightly higher than that for the United States, Canada, the United Kingdom, the Nordic countries and Belgium, and somewhat lower for Austria, the Netherlands, Denmark and Switzerland.

The trend towards feminisation in fact affects all components of migration flows. In recent years women have formed an increasing proportion of employment-related migration and refugee flows, whereas earlier female migration to OECD countries was largely via family reunion. But reunion still remains the chief vector of female immigration in most of the OECD countries (between 50 and 80% of the total for this category of flow).

Japan and Korea show the most significant volume of female migration related to employment. In some non-Asian OECD countries, foreign women are employed in increasing numbers, especially in the health sector and household services. These women are largely from the Philippines, Indonesia, Peru, some countries in Central and Eastern Europe, and to a lesser degree from Sri Lanka and Thailand. They are as yet only a small component in flows from countries in the Middle East and North Africa.

Refugee flows, on average, consist largely of equal numbers of men and women. But in countries which, like the United States, Canada and Australia, have adjusted their legislation to take account of persecution specifically directed at women, the proportion of women in refugee and asylum seeker flows may be more significant.

A trend of concern to OECD countries is the trafficking in women from developing and transition countries. Organised prostitution networks and illicit immigration rackets are at the root of a modern form of slavery, affecting women in particular. International measures of co-operation need to be stepped up to counter and prevent such exploitation.

Table I.3. Proportion of women in immigration flows in selected OECD countries, 1999
(unless otherwise indicated)

	Proportion of women in immigration flows, % of total	Average annual growth since 1990 ¹
Australia (1999-2000) ²	48.2	-0.4
Austria (1998)	46.5	..
Belgium	50.7	0.9
Canada	51.0	-0.5
Denmark (1998)	49.7	0.4
Finland	50.3	1.4
France ³	52.8	0.4
Germany	41.3	-0.1
Greece (1998) ⁴	56.8	0.3
Luxembourg	46.4	-1.1
Netherlands	49.1	1.7
Norway (1998)	50.1	0.1
Portugal ⁴	48.6	4.3
Spain (1998)	50.1	0.4
Sweden	51.6	0.9
Switzerland	49.8	1.2
United Kingdom	50.6	0.2
United States (1997-98) ⁵	53.5	0.4

Note: For Canada and the United States, data refer to the number of permanent resident permits delivered to immigrants; for Australia, to effective entries of permanent and long-term residents. For the European countries, data refer to people (excluding nationals for France, Greece and Portugal) who wish to settle permanently in the country.

1. 1992 for Portugal; 1993-94 for Australia; 1994 for Luxembourg; 1995 for Canada.

2. Data refer to fiscal year (July 1999 to June 2000).

3. Data relate only to entries of foreigners (excluding refugees and people who benefitted from the regularisation programme).

4. Data relate only to entries of foreigners (excluding returns of nationals).

5. Data refer to fiscal year (October 1997 to September 1998). Annual average growth is calculated without taking into account people who benefitted from the IRCA regularisation procedure.

Sources: Eurostat (New Cronos database); Australian Bureau of Statistics; Citizenship and Immigration Canada; Office des migrations internationales (France) and US Department of Justice.

Table I.4. **Stock of foreign students in some OECD countries, 1998**
Thousands and percentages

	Thousands	of which: from an OECD country (%)
Australia	109.4	18.4
Austria	28.4	65.6
Belgium	7.3	63.2
Canada	32.9	42.1
Czech Republic	4.1	27.6
Denmark	11.0	42.0
Finland	4.3	35.9
France	148.0	26.8
Germany	171.2	56.3
Hungary	6.7	35.8
Iceland	0.2	81.4
Ireland	6.9	72.3
Italy	23.2	64.5
Japan	55.8	38.2
Korea	2.5	31.2
Luxembourg	0.6	84.3
New Zealand	5.9	21.5
Norway	5.8	54.5
Poland	5.4	17.7
Spain	29.0	65.7
Sweden	12.6	63.1
Switzerland	24.4	72.7
Turkey	18.7	8.9
United Kingdom	209.6	59.8
United States	430.8	39.0
Total OECD	1 327.2	44.5

Source: Database on Education, OECD.

Portugal whose expatriate community is substantial and has generally retained strong ties with the homeland. Although to our knowledge there has been no research on the reasons for senior citizens' mobility, it is clear that climate and living conditions are probably one of the main factors at work. The introduction of the Euro, easier transfers of pensions, and above all the coming retirement of the

baby-boom generation (probably more mobile than previous ones), are likely to accentuate this trend, though today it is still marginal.

The other types of mobility mentioned above relate to workers, more specifically skilled workers. In particular, transfers of staff within multinational companies have increased appreciably over the recent period. That is so in the United States, where they almost doubled between 1995 and 1998 (see Table I.5). But over a longer period similar findings can be seen for virtually all OECD countries. This process is part of a more general one linked to the internationalisation of trade and business (either horizontal through takeovers or joint ventures, or vertical through relocation).

The international mobility of skilled workers within the framework of service provision, although not yet studied in depth, is another form of labour migration that is increasing sharply. The movements are usually for short periods, though they may extend for several months or recur at frequent intervals. The fall in transport costs, and technical specialisation, account for this trend. The General Agreement on Trade in Services (GATS), signed by more than 130 countries, provides for the introduction of simplified procedures to assist temporary mobility of professionals in various sectors. However the statistics generally combine these movements with the movements of business people (business trips), making them very hard to identify. Ultimately, the development of electronic communications may well curb this development, as it will be superseded by new forms of distance working.

f) *Traditional flows and new migration movements*

Chart I.4 presents a comparison for selected OECD countries of the structure and changes of

Table I.5. **Intracompany transferees in selected OECD countries, 1995-1999**

	Thousands				
	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999
Canada ¹	2.1	2.8	2.9
France	0.8	0.8	1.0	1.1	1.8
Japan	3.1	2.8	3.4	3.5	3.8
Netherlands	..	1.6	2.3	2.7	2.5
United Kingdom	14.0	13.0	18.0	22.0	15.0
United States (visa L1)	112.1	140.5	..	203.3	..

1. Including Mexican and American intracompany transferees who enter under the NAFTA agreement.

Sources: Canada : Citizenship and Immigration Canada; France: Office des migrations internationales (OMI); Japan : Ministry of Justice, Immigration Service; Netherlands: Employment Office; United Kingdom : Labour Force survey; United States : US Department of Justice.

Chart I.4. **Change in inflows of migrants by country of origin to selected OECD countries, 1990-1998 and 1999**
 1999 top ten countries of origin as a per cent of total inflows¹

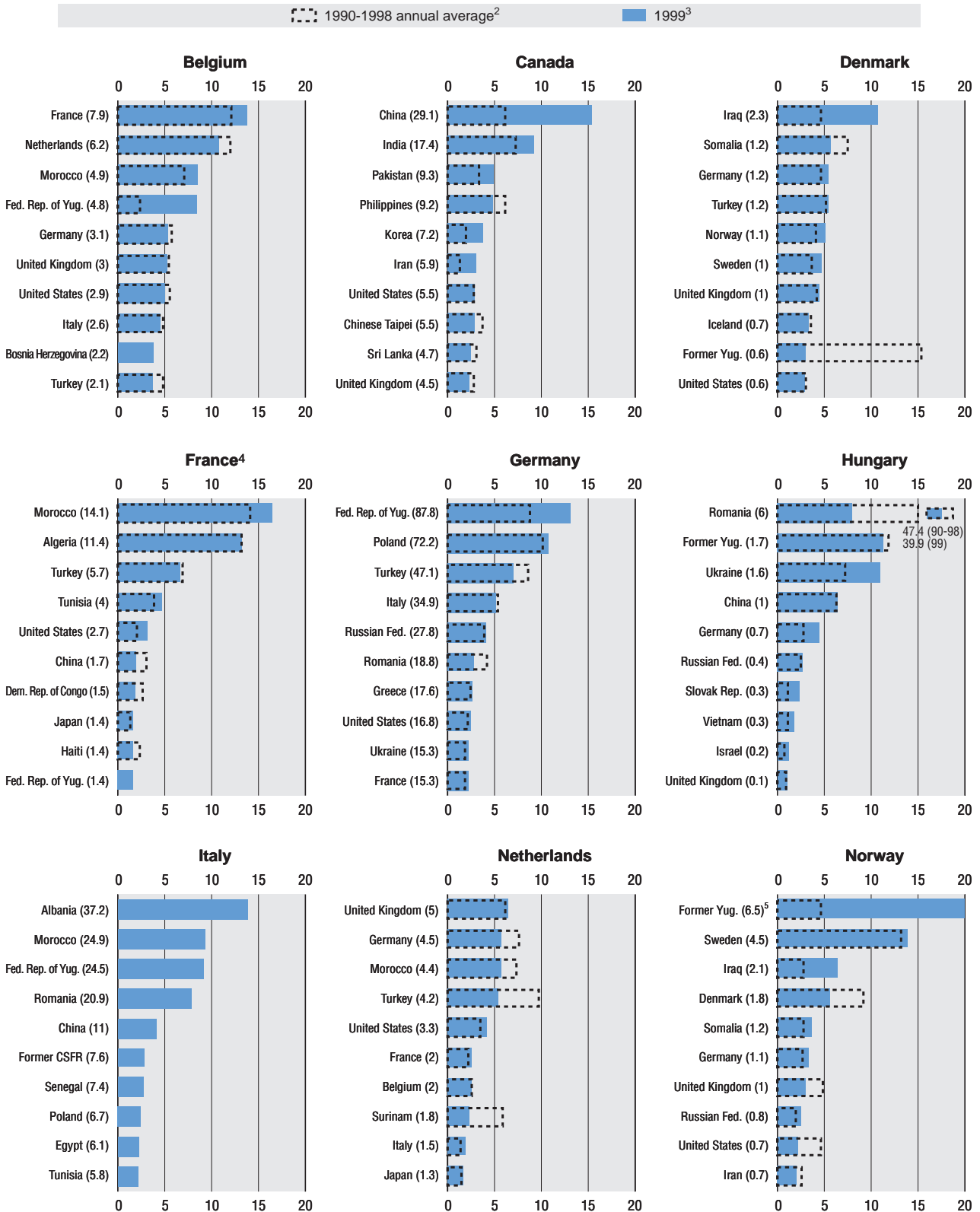
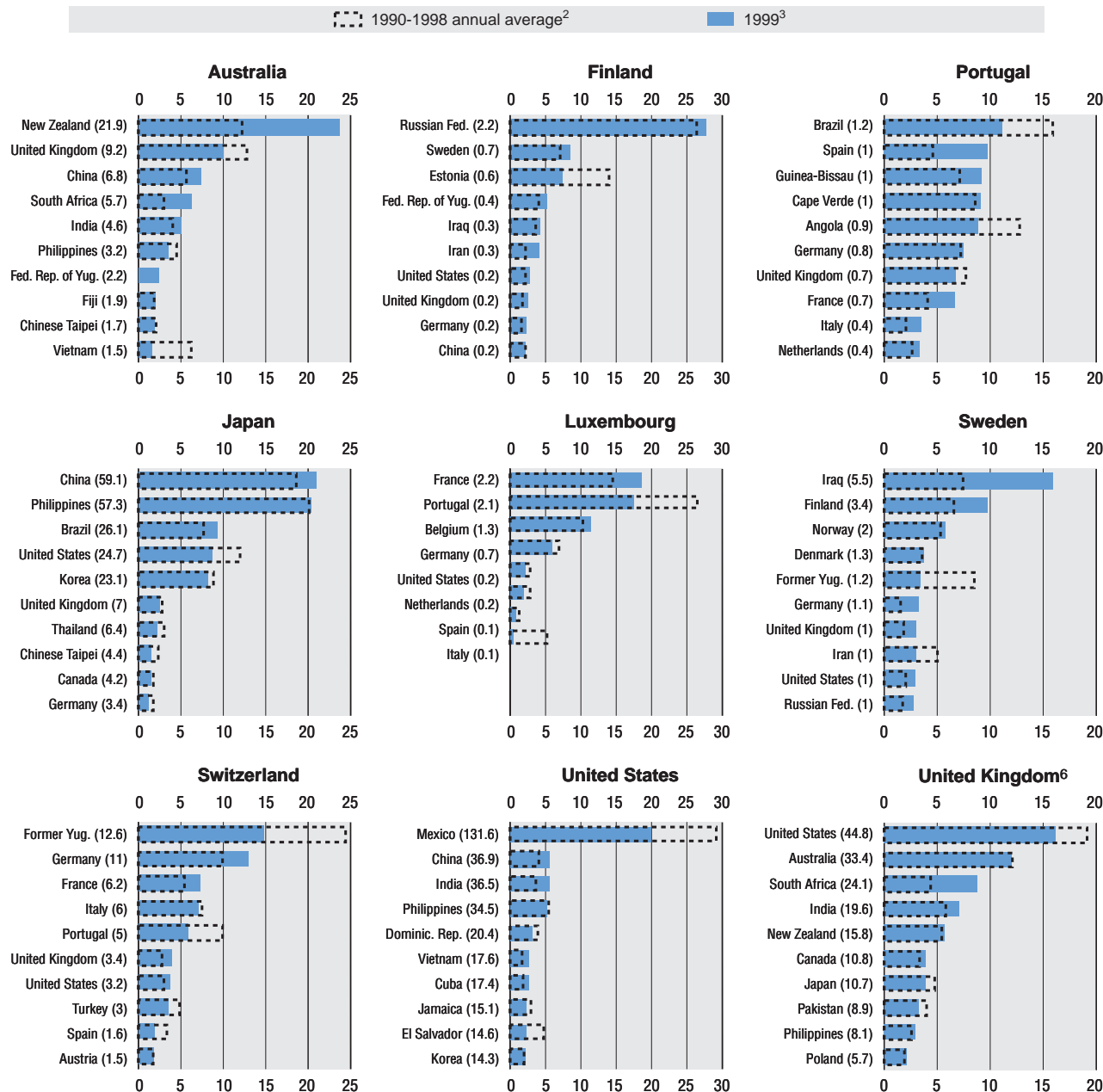


Chart I.4. **Change in inflows of migrants by country of origin to selected OECD countries, 1990-1998 and 1999** (cont.)
1999 top ten countries of origin as a per cent of total inflows¹



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

1. The figures in brackets are inflows in thousands in 1999.

2. Annual average flows for the period 1990-1998 except for Australia (1990-1999), Denmark and the United States (1990-1997), Finland, Portugal and the United Kingdom (1992-1998).

3. 1998 for Denmark and the United States; 2000 for Australia.

4. Data do not include EU citizens.

5. Excluding Bosnia Herzegovina from 1993 onwards.

6. Passengers, excluding European Economic Area nationals, admitted to the United Kingdom. Data only include certain categories of migrants: work permit holders, spouses and refugees (excluding residents returning on limiting leave or who previously settled).

Source: National Statistical Offices. For more details on sources, refer to the introduction to the Statistical Annex.

inflows from the principal countries of origin. Three distinctive trends can be observed in 1999. The first is the predominance of one or two origin countries. They are often neighbouring countries (New Zealand for Australia, France and the Netherlands for Belgium, Mexico for the United States, Russia for Finland, Romania for Hungary, Albania for Italy, China and the Philippines for Japan, and Sweden for Norway). They may also be countries from which large numbers of refugees have come (Iraq in the case of Sweden and Denmark, and the former Yugoslavia for Germany, Switzerland and Norway). In 1999, the five main sending countries accounted for more than 60% of all flows in Hungary and Japan, but less than one-third in Denmark and the Netherlands.

In the case of Germany, Finland, Italy and Hungary, and to a lesser extent Switzerland and Norway, East-West flows account for the greater part of the total flows, with nationals of the former Yugoslavia (including large numbers of Kosovars in 1999, see above) and Poland in Germany, Romanians in Hungary, Albanians in Italy and nationals of the former Soviet Union in Finland. Elsewhere, as in Australia, Canada, Japan and the United States, the long-standing predominance of migration flows from Asian countries is also worthy of note.

The second trend concerns the diversity of situations across OECD countries as regards the main origin countries of immigrants. French and Portuguese form by far the largest groups in Luxembourg, nationals of the Maghreb countries in France, Mexicans in the United States, nationals of the former Yugoslavia in Switzerland, those of the United States in the United Kingdom and New Zealanders in Australia. However, in the ranking of the top ten origin countries, some nationalities are present in a large number of the host countries considered, such as – in descending order – nationals of the United States (found in the classification of main entries by nationality in 13 of the 17 host countries), the United Kingdom (12), Germany (11), the former Yugoslavia (11) and China (8).

The third distinctive characteristic concerns the persistence of traditional flows and the continuing growth of recently emerging flows. Chart I.4 shows average inflows over the 1990s (dotted) together with those for the last available year (shaded), making it possible to compare these two trends. For a given host country, when an unshaded area is shown, this indicates that the share attributed to this origin countries in overall flows is lower for the last available year than it was on average during the

decade. For example, while Brazil continues to be the leading source of immigration to Portugal, the proportion of Brazilians in overall flows has fallen by nearly 30%. A similar trend is observed for Vietnamese and British nationals in Australia, Estonians in Finland, nationals of Surinam and Turks in the Netherlands, United States citizens in Japan and the United Kingdom, Portuguese in Switzerland and Mexicans in the United States.

Leaving aside nationals of the former Yugoslavia, the nationality breakdown of immigration has been relatively stable in Belgium, France, Finland, Japan and Luxembourg. But other countries, including Australia, Canada and Portugal, report substantial changes in the make-up of immigrants.

Table I.6 illustrates the emergence of new migration flows. A specific indicator has been constructed for this purpose. It is calculated by dividing, for each host country considered, the five main sending countries' share in total inflows of 1999 by their share of the total of foreigners or foreign-born. Thus, a value of 1 for a given sending country means that its share in inflows is the same as its share in the number of foreigners as a whole. This is the case for nationals of the Federal Republic of Yugoslavia in Germany and for nationals of Brazil in Portugal. If the value is greater than 1, this can be due either to immigrants from an emerging source country, or to previous waves of immigration which though persistent have had little impact on the total number of foreigners from this country. In the case of Australia and the United Kingdom, for example, the indicator is especially high for South African nationals since their share of inflows is over four times their share in the total number of foreigners. The presence of New Zealanders in Australia and Swedes in Norway is not the result of a recent wave of immigration but probably indicates sizeable new inflows accompanied by larger outflows, and thus the indicator in the range of 3 in these two cases corresponds to an old wave of migration that has a significant to-and-fro component or a high turnover. It seems that the same reasoning can be applied to the case of Poles in Germany, for whom the indicator is 2.8.

Four countries of origin stand out and illustrate the emergence of new migration routes into OECD countries. They are China, India, Iraq and the United States. In the flows of immigrants to the Nordic countries (chiefly Denmark, Norway and Sweden) Iraq systematically figures with an indicator of over 2, meaning that its nationals are represented at least twice as much in immigration flows as in the total of

Table I.6. Relative importance of the top 5 countries in the total immigration flows and stocks of foreigners in selected OECD countries

Main immigrants' countries of origin in 1999							
Top 5 nationalities (according to the 1999 volume of inflows)	Inflows of foreigners ¹ in 1999 ¹ % of total inflows (A)	Stocks of foreigners ² in 1998 % of total stock of foreigners (B)	(A)/(B)	Top 5 nationalities (according to the 1999 volume of inflows)	Inflows of foreigners ¹ in 1999 % of total inflows (A)	Stocks of foreigners ² in 1998 % of total stock of foreigners (B)	(A)/(B)
Australia				Japan			
New Zealand	23.7	7.5	3.2	China	21.0	18.0	1.2
United Kingdom	10.0	27.4	0.4	Philippines	20.3	7.0	2.9
China	7.4	2.8	2.6	Brazil	9.3	14.7	0.6
South Africa	6.2	1.4	4.3	United States	8.7	2.8	3.1
India	5.0	2.0	2.5	Korea	8.2	42.2	0.2
<i>Total (in thousands)</i>	<i>(92.3)</i>	<i>(3 908.3)</i>		<i>Total (in thousands)</i>	<i>(281.9)</i>	<i>(1 512.1)</i>	
Belgium				Luxembourg			
France	13.7	11.8	1.2	France	18.5	11.5	1.6
Netherlands	10.7	9.4	1.1	Portugal	17.5	36.5	0.5
Morocco	8.5	14.0	0.6	Belgium	11.4	9.0	1.3
Former Yugoslavia	8.8	0.7	12.6	Germany	5.9	6.7	0.9
Germany	5.3	3.8	1.4	United States	2.1
<i>Total (in thousands)</i>	<i>(57.8)</i>	<i>(892.0)</i>		<i>Total (in thousands)</i>	<i>(11.8)</i>	<i>(152.9)</i>	
Canada				Netherlands			
China	15.3	4.6	3.3	United Kingdom	6.4	5.9	1.1
India	9.2	4.7	1.9	Germany	5.7	8.2	0.7
Pakistan	4.9	Morocco	5.6	19.4	0.3
Philippines	4.8	3.7	1.3	Turkey	5.4	15.4	0.3
Korea	3.8	United States	4.3	2.0	2.1
<i>Total (in thousands)</i>	<i>(189.8)</i>	<i>(4 971.1)</i>		<i>Total (in thousands)</i>	<i>(78.4)</i>	<i>(662.4)</i>	
Denmark				Norway			
Iraq	10.7	3.8	2.8	Fed. Rep. of Yugoslavia	20.0
Somalia	5.7	4.8	1.2	Sweden	13.9	14.6	1.0
Germany	5.5	4.8	1.1	Iraq	6.4	2.5	2.5
Turkey	5.4	15.0	0.4	Denmark	5.5	11.6	0.5
Norway	5.1	4.8	1.1	Somalia	3.6	2.5	1.4
<i>Total (in thousands)</i>	<i>(21.3)</i>	<i>(249.6)</i>		<i>Total (in thousands)</i>	<i>(32.2)</i>	<i>(165.1)</i>	
Finland				Portugal			
Russian Federation	27.7	24.1	1.1	Brazil	11.2	11.2	1.0
Sweden	8.5	9.2	0.9	Spain	9.7	5.7	1.7
Estonia	7.4	12.2	0.6	Guinea-Bissau	9.2	7.3	1.3
Fed. Rep. of Yugoslavia	5.1	3.5	1.5	Cape Verde	9.1	22.6	0.4
Iraq	4.2	3.1	1.3	Angola	8.9	9.3	1.0
<i>Total (in thousands)</i>	<i>(7.9)</i>	<i>(85.1)</i>		<i>Total (in thousands)</i>	<i>(10.5)</i>	<i>(177.8)</i>	
France³				Sweden			
Morocco	16.4	15.4	1.1	Iraq	16.0	4.5	3.4
Algeria	13.2	14.6	0.9	Finland	9.8	18.4	0.5
Turkey	6.6	6.4	1.0	Norway	5.8	6.1	0.9
Tunisia	4.7	4.7	1.0	Denmark	3.7	5.6	0.8
United States	3.1	0.7	4.6	Former Yugoslavia	3.4	4.8	0.9
<i>Total (in thousands)</i>	<i>(86.3)</i>	<i>(3 263.2)</i>		<i>Total (in thousands)</i>	<i>(34.6)</i>	<i>(499.9)</i>	
Germany				Switzerland			
Fed. Rep. of Yugoslavia	13.0	9.8	1.3	Former Yugoslavia	14.7	23.8	0.6
Poland	10.7	3.9	2.8	Germany	12.9	7.3	1.8
Turkey	7.0	28.8	0.2	France	7.3	4.2	1.7
Italy	5.2	8.4	0.6	Italy	7.0	24.9	0.3
Russian Federation	4.1	1.1	3.7	Portugal	5.8	10.1	0.6
<i>Total (in thousands)</i>	<i>(673.9)</i>	<i>(7 319.6)</i>		<i>Total (in thousands)</i>	<i>(85.8)</i>	<i>(1 347.9)</i>	
Hungary				United Kingdom			
Romania	39.9	39.9	1.0	United States	16.2	5.4	3.0
Former Yugoslavia	11.3	11.1	1.0	Australia	12.0	2.3	5.3
Ukraine	11.0	8.5	1.3	South Africa	8.7	1.8	4.9
China	6.4	5.5	1.2	India	7.1	6.3	1.1
Germany	4.5	5.9	0.8	New Zealand	5.7	1.7	3.3
<i>Total (in thousands)</i>	<i>(15.0)</i>	<i>(143.8)</i>		<i>Total (in thousands)</i>	<i>(276.9)</i>	<i>(2 207)</i>	

Table I.6. Relative importance of the top 5 countries in the total immigration flows and stocks of foreigners in selected OECD countries (cont.)

Main immigrants' countries of origin in 1999

Top 5 nationalities (according to the 1999 volume of inflows)	Inflows of foreigners in 1999 ¹ % of total inflows (A)	Stocks of foreigners ² in 1998 % of total stock of foreigners (B)	(A)/(B)	Top 5 nationalities (according to the 1999 volume of inflows)	Inflows of foreigners ¹ in 1999 % of total inflows (A)	Stocks of foreigners ² in 1998 % of total stock of foreigners (B)	(A)/(B)
Italy				United States			
Albania	13.9	7.3	1.9	Mexico	19.9	21.7	0.9
Morocco	9.3	11.7	0.8	China	5.6	2.7	2.1
Former Yugoslavia	9.1	3.3	2.8	India	5.5	2.3	2.4
Romania	7.8	3.0	2.6	Philippines	5.2	4.6	1.1
China	4.1	3.0	1.3	Dominican Republic	3.1	1.8	1.8
Total (in thousands)	(268.1)	(1 250.2)		Total (in thousands)	(660.5)	(19 767.3)	

1. 1999 except for Australia (2000) and Denmark and the United States (1998).

2. Stocks of foreign-born population for Australia, Canada and the United States. 1996 for Australia and Canada; 1997 for Denmark, Hungary and the United States; 1999 for Australia and France (except for the stock of US citizens, 1990 Census).

3. Excluding estimates by the Ministry of the Interior of unregistered flows (mainly family members of EEA citizens).

Source: National Statistical Offices (see notes for Tables A.1.1. and A.1.5. at the end of the Statistical Annex).

Table I.7. Minimum number of countries of origin which represent a cumulative 25 and 50% of the total inflows of foreigners, 1990 and 1999

	1990		1999	
	25%	50%	25%	50%
Australia	2 (28.6)	6 (54.8)	2 (33.7)	5 (52.3)
Belgium	3 (29.7)	7 (51.6)	2 (34.4)	4 (50.6)
Canada	3 (27.2)	9 (53.3)	3 (29.4)	10 (51.8)
Denmark	5 (28.6)	11 (50.8)	4 (27.3)	10 (50.9)
Finland	1 (29.0)	5 (50.9)	1 (27.7)	5 (52.9)
France	2 (31.0)	6 (51.4)	2 (29.6)	9 (51.0)
Germany	2 (33.8)	5 (55.3)	3 (28.7)	9 (50.1)
Hungary	1 (79.5)	1 (79.5)	1 (39.9)	2 (51.2)
Italy	3 (32.3)	8 (52.3)
Japan	2 (35.6)	4 (59.2)	2 (41.3)	3 (50.6)
Luxembourg	1 (36.4)	3 (58.5)	2 (36.0)	4 (53.3)
Netherlands	2 (27.2)	6 (52.2)	5 (27.4)	+15 ..
Norway	4 (30.3)	9 (52.2)	2 (34.0)	6 (52.8)
Portugal	3 (30.1)	6 (55.6)
Sweden	3 (29.9)	8 (51.1)	2 (25.8)	9 (50.7)
Switzerland	2 (35.2)	4 (53.5)	2 (27.6)	6 (51.6)
United Kingdom	2 (33.8)	6 (52.7)	2 (28.2)	6 (53.6)
United States	1 (44.2)	2 (51.7)	2 (25.5)	10 (51.3)

Note: Numbers in brackets give the exact percentage of the number of countries indicated (cumulative flows as a percent of total flows).

Source: See the notes for Tables B.1.1. at the end of the Statistical Annex.

foreigners. China and India figure similarly in Australia, Canada and the United States, although their shares of total immigrant numbers there are already high, reflecting both the continuing nature of the flows and their acceleration. Lastly, and more surprisingly, inflows from the United States to four European countries (France, the Netherlands, the United Kingdom and Belgium – not reported) and Japan stand out with very high indicators (generally over 3), which appear to indicate a reversal of transoceanic migration.

It may be asked whether the emergence of new source countries in immigration flows points to diversification of nationalities of origin or more simply to a renewal of migration trends. Table I.7 seeks to answer this question by comparing the number of nationalities making up 25 to 50% of immigration flows, in 1990 and 1999.

Migration flows can be seen to be highly diversified in 1999 (the chief exceptions being Japan and Hungary) since for all the other countries selected more than five sources make up half the total flow. But this finding is nothing really new, except for Germany, the United States and the Netherlands. In the Netherlands, for example, while just six countries represented around half the inflow in 1990, more than fifteen had to be considered in 1999 to reach the same figure. In the United States, inflows from ten source countries had to be combined in 1999 to reach a similar figure to that attained in 1990 with just two sources. Other countries whose inflows are diversifying include France and Switzerland and, to a lesser degree, Canada and Luxembourg. These findings are all indicative of the diversification of migration movements that is accompanying economic globalisation.

Box I.4. Intra-European mobility

Since the Treaty of Rome (1957), the principle of free movement for nationals of EU member countries in the context of taking up employment has been recognised within the area formed by the signatory countries. More recently, various measures have been implemented with the aim of facilitating intra-European mobility: a Directive on the free movement of those outside the labour force, students and the retired, a series of Directives on the mutual recognition of qualifications and the opening up of certain public sector jobs which were previously reserved for nationals.

Nevertheless, intra-European mobility is not great, especially having regard to the differences between EU labour markets. Intra-European migration represents less than 0.2% of the total population of the Union, whereas movements between the nine major census areas in the United States affect 1.5% of those regions' total population (Eichengreen 1993). The low mobility within Europe seems to be related to fundamental structural problems in the labour markets of individual EU countries. In fact, though higher than inter-country migration, inter-regional mobility within EU countries is quite low as well, with 1.2% of people in work changing residence in 1999 (Gros and Hefeker, 1999, and European Commission, 2001).

The numbers of EU nationals in immigration inflows has risen slightly, however, in recent years. Table I.8 shows movements of EU nationals, by nationality, for fourteen EU countries. The penultimate line in the table shows the proportion of foreigners from other EU countries in the total population. The five countries with the highest proportions of EU nationals in their foreign population are Luxembourg (89%), Belgium (62.2%), Spain (42.7%) and France (36.6%).

Ranking countries by the proportion of EU nationals in overall inflows produces very similar findings, and indicates other destinations as well. In 1999 the proportion was around 70% for Luxembourg, 51% for Portugal, 48.5% for Belgium, 47.5% for the United Kingdom and 39% for Spain. The remaining EU countries have considerably lower proportions of other EU nationals in their inflows, ranging from around 28% in the case of Denmark to 6% for France. Over 40% of EU nationals living in another Member country were in Germany, as against 20% in the United Kingdom. Compared to the situation prevailing in 1997 (see the previous edition of *Trends in International Migration*, OECD, 2000), in 1998 the United Kingdom received far more immigrants from EU countries (up 15.5%), while Luxembourg, Portugal and Belgium received markedly fewer. The proportion of intra-European immigration also rose in Finland, Greece and Sweden; in Denmark and Austria it remained virtually unchanged.

The analysis of intra-European mobility by nationality shows great diversity, reflecting above all cultural and linguistic affinities (Germans in Austria, French and Dutch in Belgium, Finns in Sweden and Swedes in Finland). Historical ties also play a role in this mobility, as is the case of Portuguese and Italians in France, and of Italians in Austria.

European pensioners also frequently choose to settle in certain Southern European countries; this is notably the case of UK nationals in Spain and Portugal, and Germans in Greece.

Table I.8. **Intra-European mobility of EU citizens, latest available year**

Immigration flows by nationality in per cent of total inflows of EU citizens

	Receiving country														Total
	Luxembourg	Portugal	Belgium	United Kingdom	Spain	Denmark	Netherlands	Sweden	Greece	Austria	Germany	Finland	France	Italy	
EU foreigners by nationality	1999	1998	1999	1998	1998	1998	1998	1998	1998	1998	1999	1999	1998	1999	
Austria	0.5	1.2	0.9	0.1	1.5	2.1	1.8	1.1	3.6	–	8.8	1.8	1.0	4.6	4.2
Belgium	16.4	3.7	–	1.2	5.8	1.9	9.7	1.1	3.2	1.4	1.5	1.1	6.7	3.5	2.6
Germany	8.5	22.0	11.0	13.3	31.9	20.9	23.8	13.7	26.2	52.7	–	12.4	10.7	24.2	11.5
Denmark	2.0	0.9	1.4	3.8	1.4	–	2.0	13.4	3.6	1.7	1.8	4.5	1.4	2.1	2.4
Spain	1.3	18.7	4.2	9.8	–	6.4	5.8	3.4	0.9	2.4	6.1	3.1	9.2	10.6	6.2
Finland	1.0	1.0	1.5	2.4	3.3	5.0	2.5	35.9	4.1	2.6	2.1	–	1.1	2.0	3.1
France	26.6	15.7	28.3	22.0	12.1	9.6	10.3	7.2	14.7	5.1	11.3	7.0	–	19.6	15.0
Greece	1.0	0.4	2.2	18.3	0.2	1.5	3.4	2.4	–	4.0	13.0	2.0	1.4	7.3	9.9
Ireland	1.3	0.7	1.2	2.8	0.9	1.7	2.7	1.6	1.0	0.9	2.0	1.7	2.0	1.6	2.0
Italy	6.7	7.6	9.3	14.2	8.9	6.8	6.9	3.5	9.1	10.4	25.8	4.9	13.8	–	16.4
Luxembourg	–	0.3	0.7	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.3	0.5	0.0	0.3	0.1	0.3
Denmark	2.7	6.9	22.1	4.2	4.9	7.6	–	4.2	6.6	4.2	4.8	3.8	3.1	4.5	5.8
Portugal	25.1	–	4.7	3.6	6.4	1.2	3.7	0.8	0.3	3.2	10.9	0.3	31.9	3.6	7.7
Sweden	1.7	2.3	2.0	4.4	2.4	18.4	3.3	–	7.1	3.4	2.5	44.6	2.5	3.0	3.5
United Kingdom	5.2	18.7	10.8	–	20.4	16.8	23.8	11.8	19.5	7.6	8.9	12.9	15.1	13.3	9.5
Total EU citizens	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
% in row	2.5	0.9	8.4	20.5	6.7	2.4	6.0	2.5	0.9	3.6	40.6	0.5	1.8	2.8	100.0
<i>In per cent of total inflows of foreigners</i>	69.7	50.9	48.5	47.5	38.8	27.7	24.4	23.4	22.9	20.2	20.1	19.2	6.1	..	26.2
<i>Stocks (in 1998):</i>															
<i>EU foreigners (% of total foreigners)</i>	89.0	26.3	62.2	18.5	42.7	20.5	28.0	33.9	..	13.0	25.1	18.7	36.6	13.7	..
<i>EU foreigners (% of total population)</i>	31.0	0.5	5.5	0.7	0.7	1.0	1.2	2.0	..	1.2	2.3	0.3	2.0	0.3	..

Source: Eurostat, New Cronos database.

g) *The foreign or immigrant population is increasing and diversifying...*

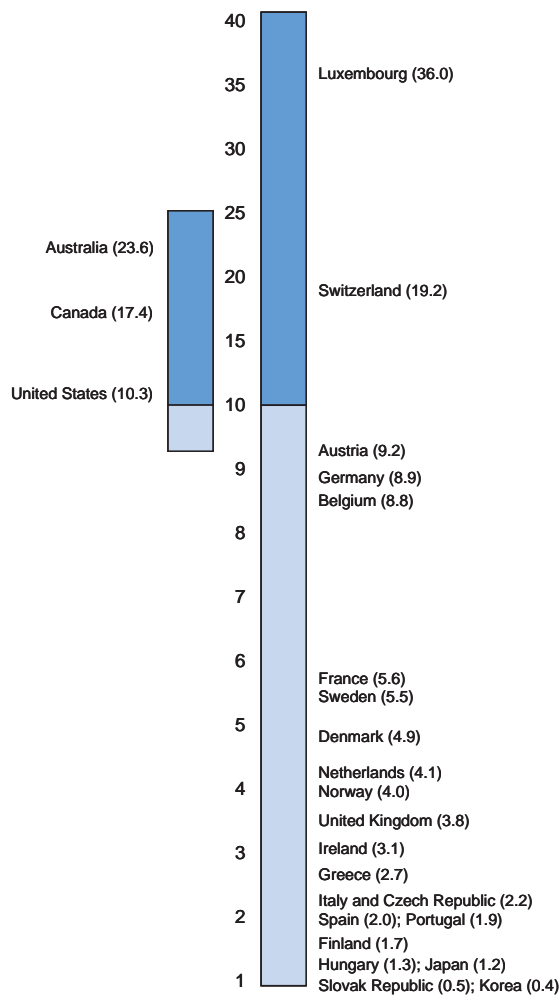
In Australia and Canada immigrants represent a particularly high proportion of the resident population: 23.6% in 1999 for Australia, and over 17% in 1996 for Canada (see Chart I.5). According to data from the 1999 CPS, the proportion in the United States is 10.3%. Between 1994 and 1999 the immigrant population there rose by nearly 6 million. In Canada, in the period between the last two censuses (1986-96), the immigrant population rose by a million, while in Australia between 1994 and 1999 immigration increased the population by 400 000.

The foreign presence in the total population varies widely across the European OECD countries.

It was relatively high in Luxembourg (36%) and Switzerland (19.2%) in 1999. In the other traditional immigration countries, the proportion of foreigners in the total population varied between 3.8% (the United Kingdom) and 9.2% (Austria). The percentage was close to 9% in Belgium and Germany, as against 5.6% in France and 4.1% in the Netherlands. In the new immigration countries such as Finland, Italy, Portugal and Spain the proportion of foreigners remains small (between 1.7 and 2.2%), the increase in entries over the last decade notwithstanding.

The changes in the numbers of immigrants or foreign-born persons vary across countries and depend on their migration policies, their inflows and outflows, the demographic dynamics of their foreign populations, and the number of naturalisations which correspondingly reduce the foreigner totals.

Chart I.5. **Stock of foreign population in selected OECD countries, 1999**
Percentages of total population



Note: Foreign-born population for Australia, Canada and the United States; 1996 for Canada.

Source: National Statistical Offices. For more details on sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Statistical Annex.

In most OECD countries, numbers of foreign or foreign-born people rose over the last five years (see Table I.9). Belgium, France and the Netherlands are exceptions here, partly because of the relatively large number of naturalisations there. In Sweden the number of foreign nationals also fell between 1994 and 1999, particularly due to Finns returning home. In the case of France, the trend is a long-term one which first appeared in the early 1980s.

During the 1990s the foreign populations increased considerably in Austria, Germany and

Switzerland, chiefly as the result of higher inflows from Central and Eastern Europe. Over the last five years, the countries of Southern Europe and the Czech and Slovak Republics have experienced the largest rises in foreign numbers. Much the same is true in the United States and, to a lesser degree, in Japan and the United Kingdom. The proportion of foreigners in Japan's total population remains low (1.2% in 1999). Similarly, although the number of foreigners resident in Korea more than tripled between 1988 and 1998, their share of the total population remains one of the lowest of the OECD Member countries.

Generally speaking, the relative proportions of foreigners or foreign-born people by nationality (see Statistical Annex, Tables B.1.4 and B.1.6) vary across host countries depending on migration traditions, networks built up by communities already there, employment prospects in the labour market and geographical proximity to the source country.

The changes that have occurred over the last ten years, and in particular the freer movement of people in Central and Eastern Europe, have broadened the geographical framework of international migration (see Section I.C). In particular, they have contributed to the emergence of new flows and to a diversification of source countries. They have also modified the composition by nationality of the foreign population within host countries and the dispersion of migrants of the same origin across different host countries.

In the countries of the European Union, despite the recent upturn in intra-European migration (see Box 4 above), the proportion of foreigners from non-EU countries has increased. As part of this trend, certain origin countries have emerged or gained in importance relative to others of longer standing in the region (see Table I.10). In Germany, for example, this observation applies to nationals of the countries of Central and Eastern Europe, in the Nordic countries to Middle East nationals, and in Italy and Spain to Moroccans and, to a lesser degree, Tunisians. These transformations reflect not only the changes in the origins of the flows but also the changes in their nature (for example, an increase in the number of asylum seekers and in employment-related movements).

Recently there has been an influx of Asian nationals, and more particularly Chinese and Vietnamese nationals, into European OECD countries. This trend is still too recent in some countries to be

Table I.9. Foreign or foreign-born population in selected OECD countries, 1994 and 1999

Thousands and percentages

	Foreign population			
	Thousands		Annual growth over the period (%)	Data source
	1994	1999		
Austria	714	748	0.95	R
Belgium	922	897	-0.55	R
Czech Republic	104	229	17.16	R
Denmark	197	259	5.69	R
Finland	62	88	7.18	R
France	3 597 ¹	3 263	-1.08	C
Germany	6 991	7 344	0.99	R
Greece ²	106	238	17.69	LFS
Hungary	138	127	-1.64	R
Ireland	91	118	5.28	LFS
Italy	923	1 252	6.29	P
Japan	1 354	1 556	2.82	R
Korea	85	189	17.39	R
Luxembourg	133	159	3.77	R
Netherlands	757	652	-2.96	R
Norway	164	179	1.73	R
Portugal	157	191	3.98	P
Slovak Republic	17	29	11.83	R
Spain	461	801	11.67	P
Sweden	537	487	-1.94	R
Switzerland	1 300	1 369	1.03	R
United Kingdom	2 032	2 208	1.68	LFS
	Foreign-born population			
	Thousands		Annual growth over the period (%)	Data source
	1994	1999		
Australia	4 094	4 482	1.83	E
Canada (1996)	4 971	C
United States	22 600	28 180	4.51	LFS

Note: For details on sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Statistical Annex.

1. 1990.

2. Population aged 15 and over.

Sources: C: Census;

E: Estimates by the national Statistical Institute;

LFS: Labour force survey;

P: Residence permits;

R: Population register or register of foreigners.

clearly reflected in the numbers of foreigners by nationality, because of the predominant share taken by other migration flows. Nevertheless, it can be expected that, given its volume, the importance of this category of immigrants will emerge rapidly, and its relative share in the total stock of foreign residents will grow steadily. This process is in fact already perceptible in the new immigration countries. For example, Chinese immigrants rank among the top ten nationalities settled in the Czech Republic, Hungary, Italy and Spain (and among the top fifteen in Portugal). Filipinos now constitute the third largest foreign community in Italy, and the thirteenth in Spain. Vietnamese rank third in the Czech Republic, and Indians eighth in Hungary.

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

Table I.10. **Maghrebian, Turkish, former Yugoslavian, Chinese, Vietnamese and Indian people residing in selected OECD countries, 1999**

Thousands and percentages

	Total foreign population	Algeria	% of total foreign population	Morocco	% of total foreign population	Tunisia	% of total foreign population	Turkey	% of total foreign population	Former Yug.	% of total foreign population	China	% of total foreign population	India	% of total foreign population	Vietnam	% of total foreign population
Australia ¹	4 482.1	32.0	0.7	208.4	4.6	156.8	3.5	100.7	2.2	175.2	3.9
Belgium	897.1	8.3	0.9	122.0	13.6	4.2	0.5	69.2	7.7	6.0 ²	0.7	3.5 ²	0.4	3.3	0.4
Canada (1996) ¹	4 971.1	122.0	2.5	231.1	4.6	235.9	4.7	139.3	2.8
Denmark	259.4	3.6	1.4	36.6	14.1	35.1	13.5	2.5	1.0	1.3	0.5	5.0	1.9
France	3 263.2	477.5	14.6	504.1	15.4	154.4	4.7	208.0	6.4	33.7	1.0
Germany	7 343.6	17.2	0.2	81.5	1.1	24.3	0.3	2 053.6	28.0	1 118.8 ³	15.2	42.9	0.6	34.3	0.5	85.4	1.2
Italy	1 252.0	149.5	11.9	44.0	3.5	99.6	8.0	47.1	3.8	25.6	2.0
Netherlands	651.5	0.9	0.1	119.7	18.4	1.3	0.2	100.7	15.5	15.6	2.4
Norway	178.7	1.4	0.8	3.5	1.9	22.4	12.6	1.3	0.7	2.2	1.2	2.5	1.4
Spain	801.3	161.9	20.2	24.7	3.1	8.5	1.1
Sweden	487.2	16.4	3.4	64.1	13.2	4.2	0.9	2.6	0.5
Switzerland	1 368.7	79.9	5.8	331.5	24.2	4.7	0.3
United Kingdom (2000)	2 342.0	38.0	1.6	22.0	0.9	153.0	6.5
United States (1990) ¹	19 767.3	141.5	0.7	529.8	2.7	450.4	2.3	543.3	2.7

Note: Data are from population registers except for France (1999 census), Italy and Spain (residence permits) and the United Kingdom (Labour Force Survey).

1. Foreign-born persons.

2. Figures are for 1998.

3. Serbia, Montenegro, Bosnia Herzegovina and Croatia.

Source: National Statistical Offices.

largest group is made up of European Union (France, Germany and Spain) and United States nationals.

Among the European countries of the OECD (see Box I.4 above, and Table I.8), the highest percentages of nationals of the fifteen-Member European Union were to be found in 1998 or 1999 – in decreasing order of importance – in Luxembourg, Belgium and Spain (statistics are not available for Ireland, though it too hosts a large number of EU nationals). At the opposite end of the scale, Austria was among the countries with the lowest proportion of foreign residents from other EU members in its total foreign population and in its foreign labour force.

In Australia, Canada and the United States the proportion of European residents has declined in favour of immigrants from the developing countries (see Statistical Annex, Table B.I.4). In the United States the stock of European residents has held steady while that of immigrants from Asia and from the American continent has increased. Between 1980 and 1990 the numbers of Mexican, Vietnamese and Chinese nationals almost doubled; those from India and the Dominican Republic more than doubled. Between 1990 and 2000 these trends continued, in fact at a faster pace. The 2000 census recorded nearly 9 million Mexicans and around 8.5 million Asian nationals, but only 4.8 million people born in Europe. Numbers from Africa, although smaller, are increasing among the immigrant population (800 000 in 2000). To some extent, these trends reflect demographics worldwide.

With the North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA), whose provisions enhance mobility for business people and skilled workers between the United States and Canada, inflows of Canadians to the United States are again rising and in 2000 returned to the levels found in 1980.

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

The foreigners and foreign-born persons resident in OECD countries include nationals of Member countries. Although analysis rarely singles them out, their number is relatively high. For example, 73% of the people from the ten main immigrant groups present in the United States in 1998 (and

66% of those in Canada in 1996) were from OECD Member countries. In 1999, in Germany and the United Kingdom, the figure was also very high, being 77% in the former and over 65% in the latter. The proportion of foreign nationals coming from OECD Member countries was close to 50% in France and in Japan, given the size of the communities coming from Southern Europe in the former and from Korea in the latter.

The recent accession of further countries to the OECD (the Slovak Republic in 2000, Hungary, Poland and Korea in 1996, the Czech Republic in 1995 and Mexico in 1994) has helped to accentuate this trend. In 1999, Turks topped the ranking by nationality of foreigners resident in European OECD countries. Italians and Portuguese were third and fourth respectively, after nationals of the former Yugoslavia. Mexicans and Koreans make up the leading foreign communities in the United States and Japan respectively.

Demographic characteristics of the foreign or foreign-born population

The demographic structure of the foreign or foreign-born population differs from that of nationals in its age and gender composition. But specific features vary considerably across countries and in fact depend on the nature of migration flows, in particular the size of the family component, and on the dates of migration waves and the features of the main groups of migrants themselves.

In some of the major immigration countries in Europe, such as France, but also Belgium and Switzerland, and to a lesser extent Sweden and the Netherlands, the age structure for foreigners is relatively close to that for nationals and the sole distinction is that foreigners are under-represented in the 65 and over age groups (see Chart I.6). Long-standing migration and the fact that immigrants have tended to settle permanently in these countries partly explain this finding. Under-representation in the higher age groups, moreover, may be due to the numbers of naturalisations.

In Austria and Germany the recent waves of migration, following the opening up of Eastern Europe (see Section I.C), have injected a younger element into the age structure of the foreign population, at a time when low fertility rates give the age pyramids for nationals there the typical aspect of an ageing population.

Chart I.6. Foreign and national populations¹ by age group and by sex, latest available year
 Percentage of total foreign or national population

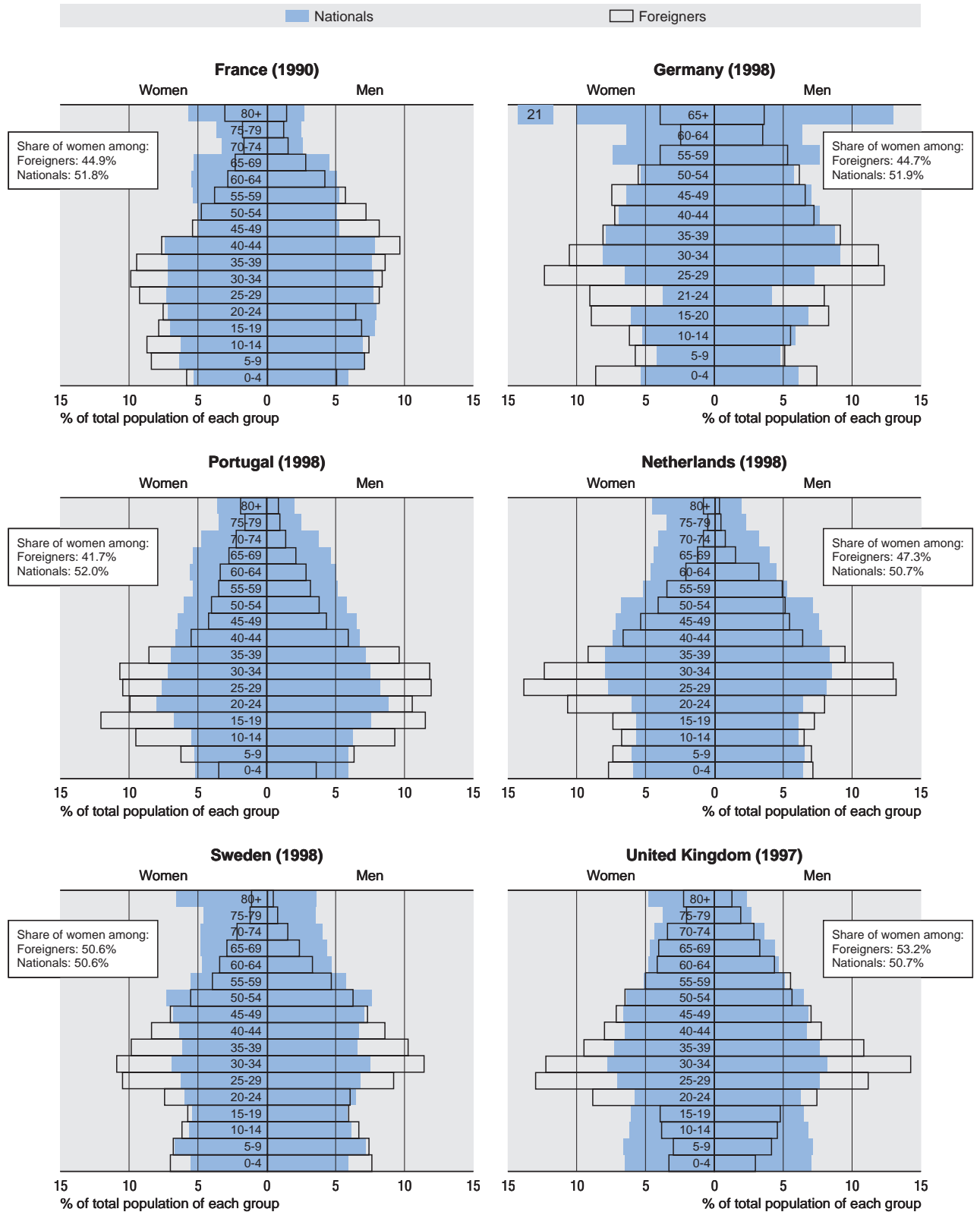
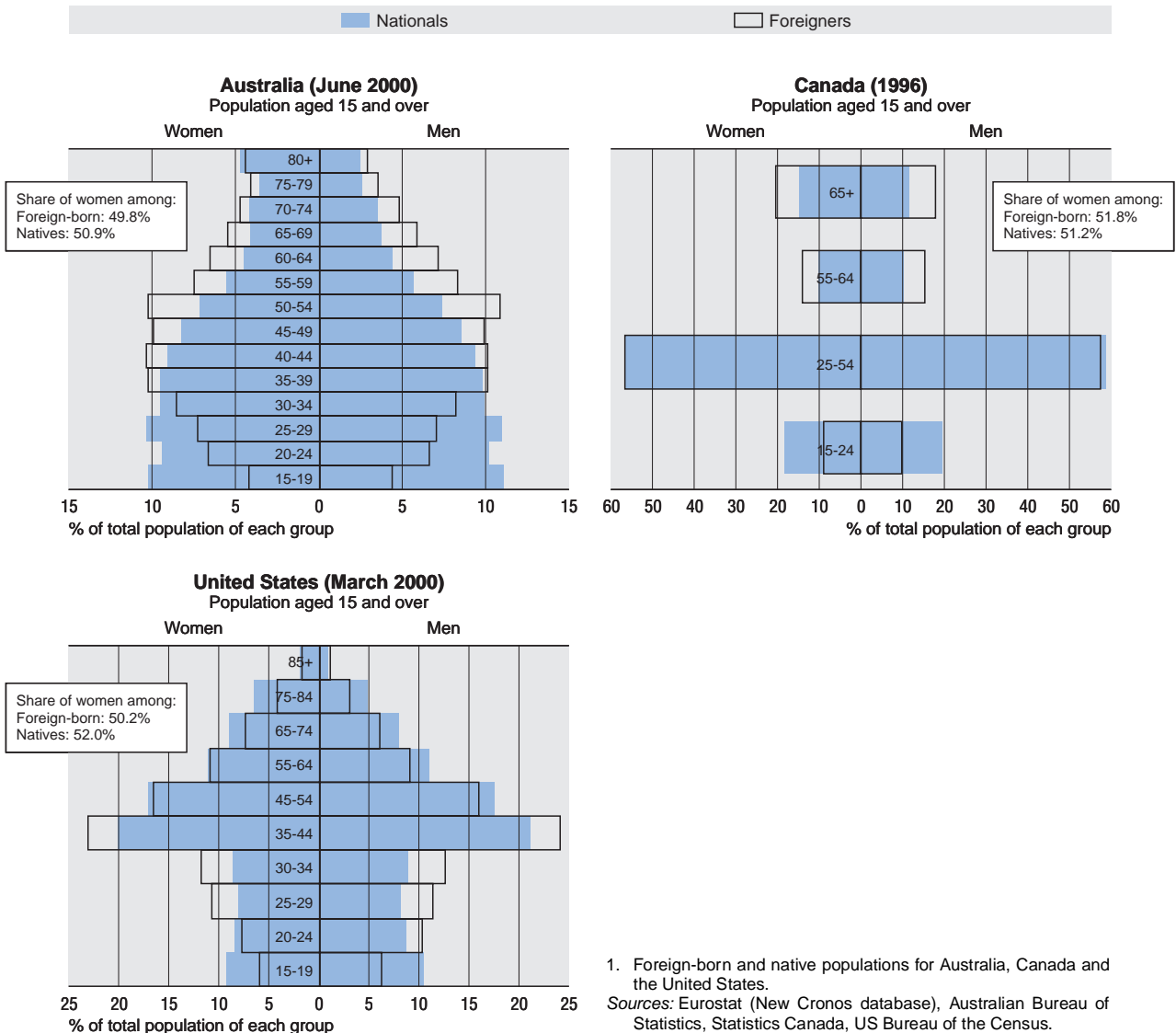


Chart I.6. Foreign and national populations¹ by age group and by sex, latest available year (cont.)

Percentage of total foreign or national population



1. Foreign-born and native populations for Australia, Canada and the United States.

Sources: Eurostat (New Cronos database), Australian Bureau of Statistics, Statistics Canada, US Bureau of the Census.

More recent countries of immigration, such as those in Southern Europe and some of the Nordic countries (Finland and Norway), present a distinctive age structure for their foreign population. There is a clear preponderance of groups of working age (25-34, 35-44 and to a lesser extent 15-24), and very marked under-representation of older groups. This pattern is also visible in the United Kingdom.

The findings are more mixed in the countries of settlement (Australia, Canada and the United States). The scale of family reunion helps to ensure

that the proportion of elderly people in the immigrant population is little different from that for nationals (in fact it is appreciably higher in Canada).

Apart from a few exceptions, women are under-represented in the foreign or foreign-born population (see Chart I.6). In Switzerland, Portugal and Germany, where employment-related immigration remains predominant, the disparity between foreigners and nationals is considerable (over 5%). But some other countries, the United Kingdom and Canada, stand out with a higher percentage of women in the foreign

population. A similar finding can be made for some Nordic countries, where refugees and asylum seekers make up a substantial proportion of total flows and where employment-related movements often involve women, especially in the health care sector.

Last, Table I.11 reflects differences in levels of education between nationals and foreigners or immigrants aged between 15 and 65, as observed in 1999-2000. In a number of OECD countries, over half the foreign population has not pursued education beyond the first cycle of secondary school. The proportion is as much as 66% in France. With the exception of Greece, Italy, Portugal and Spain, foreigners (or foreign-born people) seem on average to have lesser levels of education than nationals. But the gap is less significant in the main countries of settlement, which apply a selective policy on immigration (Canada, for example).

The duality of migration flows by level of education stands out sharply in the case of some Member countries where foreigners or foreign-born

persons are over-represented at both the highest and lowest levels of education. This is particularly the case in the United Kingdom and Canada, but also in Austria and the Nordic countries. The main immigration countries in Europe (Belgium, France, Germany, Switzerland) show signs of the older waves of migration in the 1960s and 1970s, largely made up of low-skilled labour employed in the manufacturing sector.

If recent immigration flows were to be broken down by skill level, however, a trend increase in migrants' levels of education in most of the OECD Member countries, including those chiefly taking in asylum seekers, would probably be observed.

h) ... but remain very concentrated around urban areas

There is a high concentration of foreigners in urban areas, and most particularly in the economic and/or administrative centres of each host country, as is shown by Maps I.1, I.2 and I.3. These maps

Table I.11. **Foreign and national adult populations classified by level of education in selected OECD countries¹**

1999-2000 average, percentages

	Lower secondary		Upper secondary		Third level	
	Foreigners	Nationals	Foreigners	Nationals	Foreigners	Nationals
Austria	43.1	22.6	43.7	64.9	13.3	12.5
Belgium	54.5	40.8	25.2	31.6	20.2	27.6
Czech Republic	24.0	13.9	52.6	74.9	23.4	11.2
Denmark	26.1	20.1	46.2	53.8	27.7	26.1
Finland	26.2	27.7	45.2	40.3	28.6	32.0
France	66.4	36.2	19.7	42.0	13.9	21.8
Germany	49.4	16.5	35.4	59.3	15.2	24.2
Greece	39.8	49.8	40.6	33.5	19.6	16.8
Hungary	16.7	29.0	55.2	57.1	28.1	13.9
Italy	49.8	55.8	37.2	34.6	13.0	9.5
Luxembourg	48.1	32.2	30.2	51.7	21.7	16.1
Netherlands	50.2	33.8	28.2	42.3	21.6	23.9
Norway	17.2	14.8	46.3	54.8	36.5	30.4
Portugal	64.8	78.8	20.9	11.5	14.3	9.7
Slovak Republic	25.2	17.1	59.4	72.9	15.4	10.0
Spain	48.6	64.2	22.6	14.8	28.8	21.0
Sweden	30.1	22.5	40.0	48.5	29.9	29.1
Switzerland	36.4	13.3	39.9	62.7	23.7	24.0
United Kingdom	30.3	19.4	30.5	53.3	39.3	27.3
United States ²	35.0	15.7	24.1	35.0	40.9	49.3
Canada ³	22.2	23.1	54.9	60.3	22.9	16.6

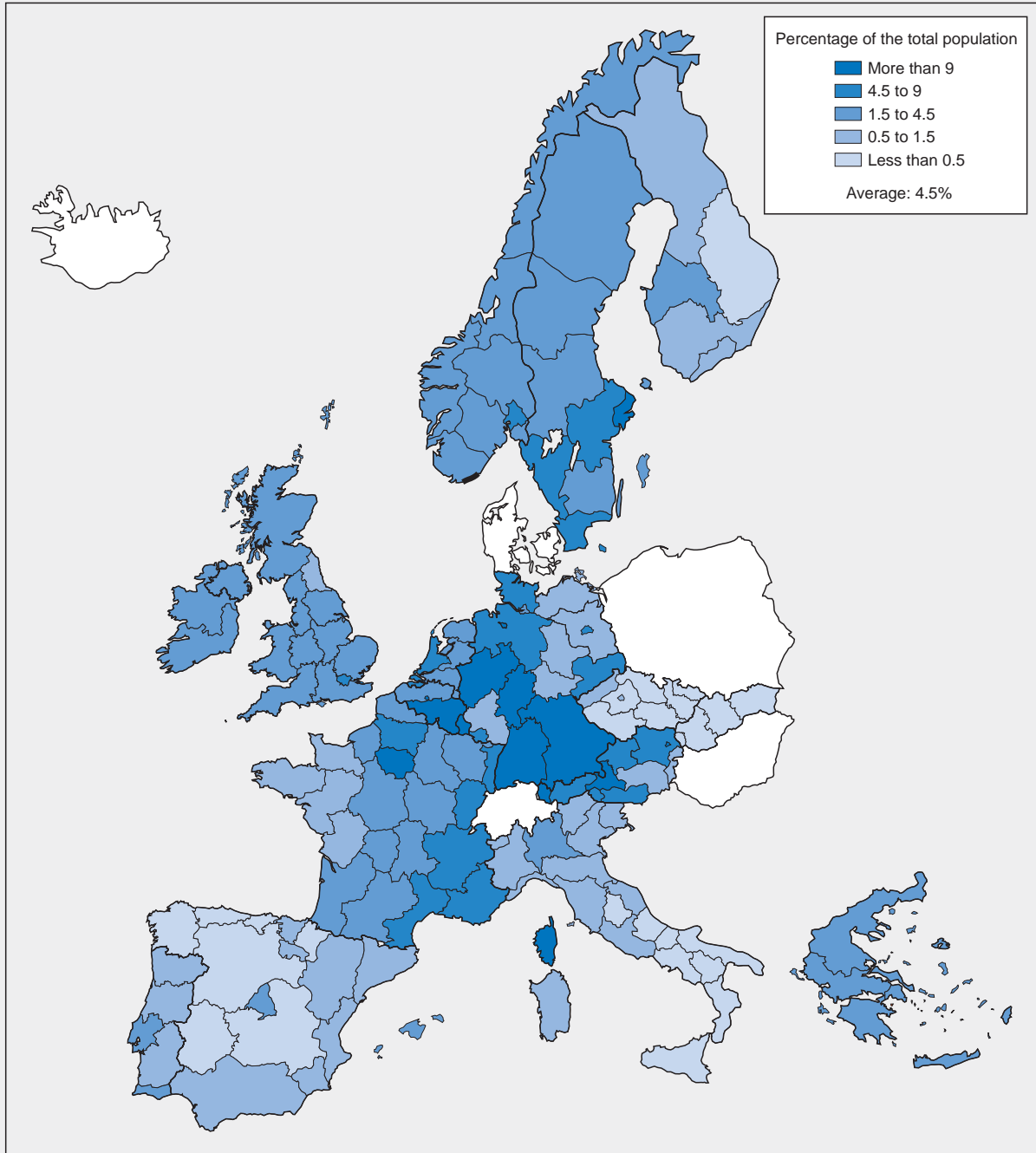
1. The educational attainment classification is defined as follows: lower secondary refers to pre-primary education or none, primary or lower secondary; upper secondary refers to upper secondary education or post-secondary non tertiary education; third level refers to tertiary education. Data refer to individuals aged 25 to 64.

2. Foreign-born and native populations aged 25 and over. Lower secondary refers to less than high school diploma, upper secondary refers to high school diploma and third level refers to some college or more.

3. Foreign-born and native populations aged 25 to 44. Lower secondary refers to below grade 9, upper secondary refers to grades 9 to 13 and third level refers to some post-secondary education plus university degrees.

Sources: Labour force survey, data provided by Eurostat; Statistics Canada; US Bureau of the Census.

Map I.1. Foreign population in the European regions, 2000

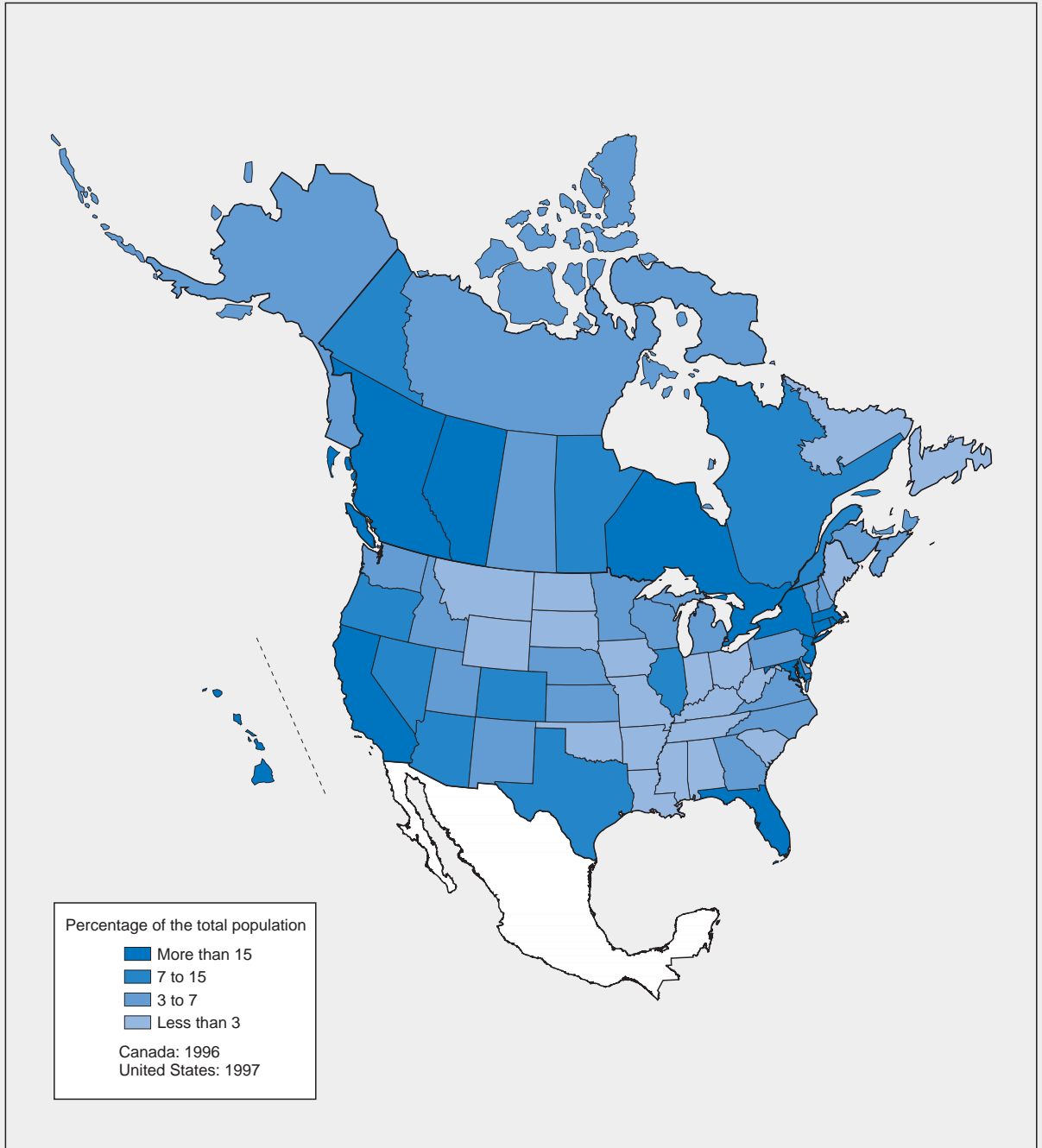


Note: Population aged 15 and over.

Data are not available for Denmark, Iceland, Hungary, Poland and Switzerland.

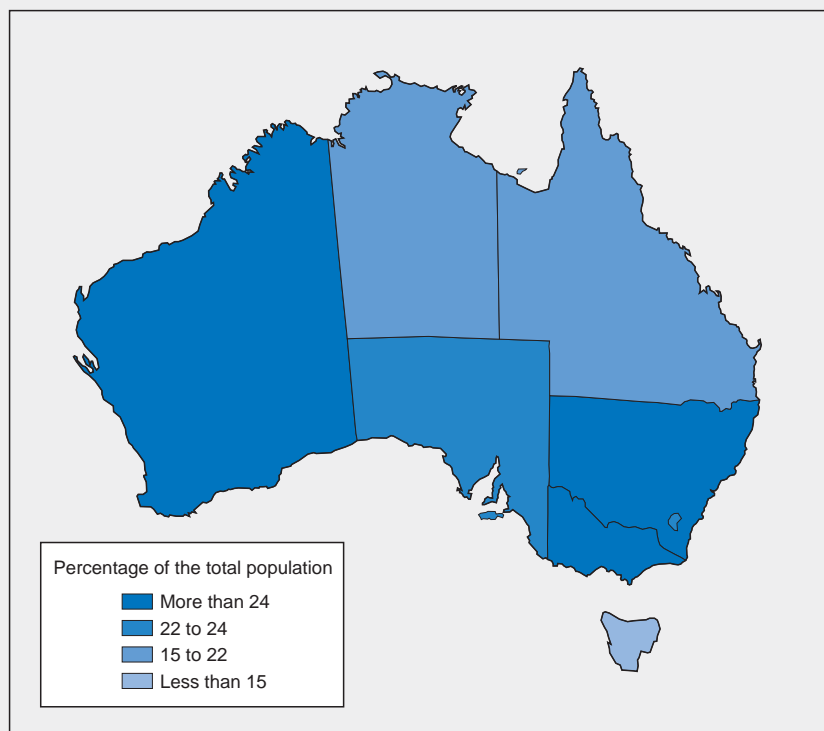
Source: Labour force survey, figures provided by Eurostat.

Map I.2. Foreign-born population in Canada and the United States by region, latest available year



Data for Mexico are not available.
Source: Statistics Canada; US Census Bureau.

Map I.3. Foreign-born population in Australia by region, 1996



Source: Australian Bureau of Statistics.

show the distribution of foreign populations by large regions in Europe, as well as in the United States, in Canada and in Australia.

In certain European member countries of the OECD (see Map I.1), the level of this concentration is relatively important. The percentage of foreigners in the total population reaches almost 27% in the Brussels area, 23% in that of London, 16% in the western area of Berlin and almost 16% in Vienna. Furthermore, this percentage is at least twice as high as the average in the total population of the country under review, 13% in the Paris region against 6% for France as a whole. This tendency can be observed for the city of Stockholm and her suburbs (9.6% against 4% for Sweden). Likewise, for Madrid and her suburbs (more than 2% against 1% for Spain) and for Lisbon (more than 3.3% against 1.8% for the whole of Portugal). In the case of North America (see Map I.2), one can observe the same nuance, alongside the influence of the particular attraction of

certain important economic areas, such as British Columbia to Canada or California and Florida to the United States. In other countries, such as Australia (see Map I.3) or Italy, the capital and her surrounding areas does not particularly illustrate a higher concentration of the foreign population, which is mainly concentrated in the vital economic centres.

Another feature of the characteristics revealed by these maps, concern the distribution of the population beyond the capital and its surrounding areas. One can in this regard identify two groups of countries. The first, comprising Ireland, Greece, Norway, The Netherlands, the Czech and Slovak Republics and the United Kingdom are all characterised by a relatively balanced regional distribution. The majority of the other OECD countries differ by a more unequal regional distribution of immigrants or foreigners. On the American continent, a slight density in the central part of the territory creates this disparity; in Germany, it reflects for the most part

the dichotomy between east and west, while in Italy it is entirely superposed in the principal geographical production areas.

Economic conditions and local manpower needs are certainly among the principal determinants in the choice of location of migrants. At the same time family and community links as well as the geographical proximity of the country of origin, could be considered significant influential factors. This would permit in part an explanation, in the case of the United States, the concentration of Asians from the Hawaiian archipelago, the Mexicans in California and Texas and the Cubans in Florida. The same applies to Canada, for the Asians in British Columbia and the French in Quebec, as it does for France, for the North Africans in Corsica and in the region of the South of France, or in the area of Andalusia in Spain.

The high concentration of immigrant population in certain areas poses particular difficulties in terms of the accessibility of public services, the availability of housing and more generally the social integration of new arrivals. In order to even out these problems, certain countries, having received numerous requests from political asylum seekers, have put in place measures with the intention of favouring, more or less compulsorily, the dispersal of the latter throughout the territory (*e.g.* Germany, the United Kingdom and Sweden). Nevertheless, policies such as these have a limited impact, essentially because they only concern a section of new arrivals and have no impact on the foreign population already installed.

In this perspective, the case of Canada deserves to be mentioned. The majority of provinces have negotiated with the Federal State the possibility of managing migrant flows which directly concerns them and even in certain cases to determine clear individual elements of migration policies (criteria of admission, or quota, if any, etc.). Once they are installed, migrants would be permitted to move about as they please on the territory. In the long term, including the case of Canada, only active policies of regional development could significantly influence the locating of foreigners or immigrants and, even more generally, the local population.

2. Immigration and population growth in OECD countries

Migration plays a significant role in the annual population growth of many OECD countries. First of all, the presence of a foreign or foreign-born popula-

tion contributes to the natural increase in the population (excess of births over deaths). The higher the fertility of foreign women relative to that of native women, the more significant this contribution is. Secondly, when net migration is positive, the population of the host country grows by the same amount.

In the following section the contribution of migration is examined from the perspective of its impact on total population growth in OECD countries. The demographic characteristics of the foreign or foreign-born population are then described. Particular attention is then given to births to foreigners and to persons of foreign origin and to the relationship between population ageing and migration.

a) Growth in the total and foreign populations

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

Chart I.7 covers the period 1960-99. It shows the relative contributions of net migration (nationals and foreigners) and of natural increase (excess of births over deaths) to the total population growth of the countries of the European Union and other Member countries of the OECD. This comparative analysis illustrates the general trend of a slowdown in demographic growth. However, this trend is more or less marked across countries. For example, Australia and the United States, which had a very high rate of natural increase in 1960, experienced marked declines thereafter before stabilising in the mid-1970s at a relatively high rate, and then settling at five per thousand at the end of the period. Japan, Poland and Spain, which also initially enjoyed rapid demographic growth, underwent a considerable adjustment in their birth rates, with their natural increase rate approaching nil in the second half of the 1990s. In Germany and Sweden the natural increase in the population was very low at the end of the period, but the transition was less sudden (for a detailed presentation of the situation of most of these countries, see the 1999 edition of Trends in International Migration).

In the countries of the European Union, at the beginning of the 1960s, the relative share of natural increase in total population growth was larger than

Chart I.7. **Components of total population growth in selected OECD countries and in the European Union, 1960-1999**

Per 1 000 inhabitants at the beginning of the year

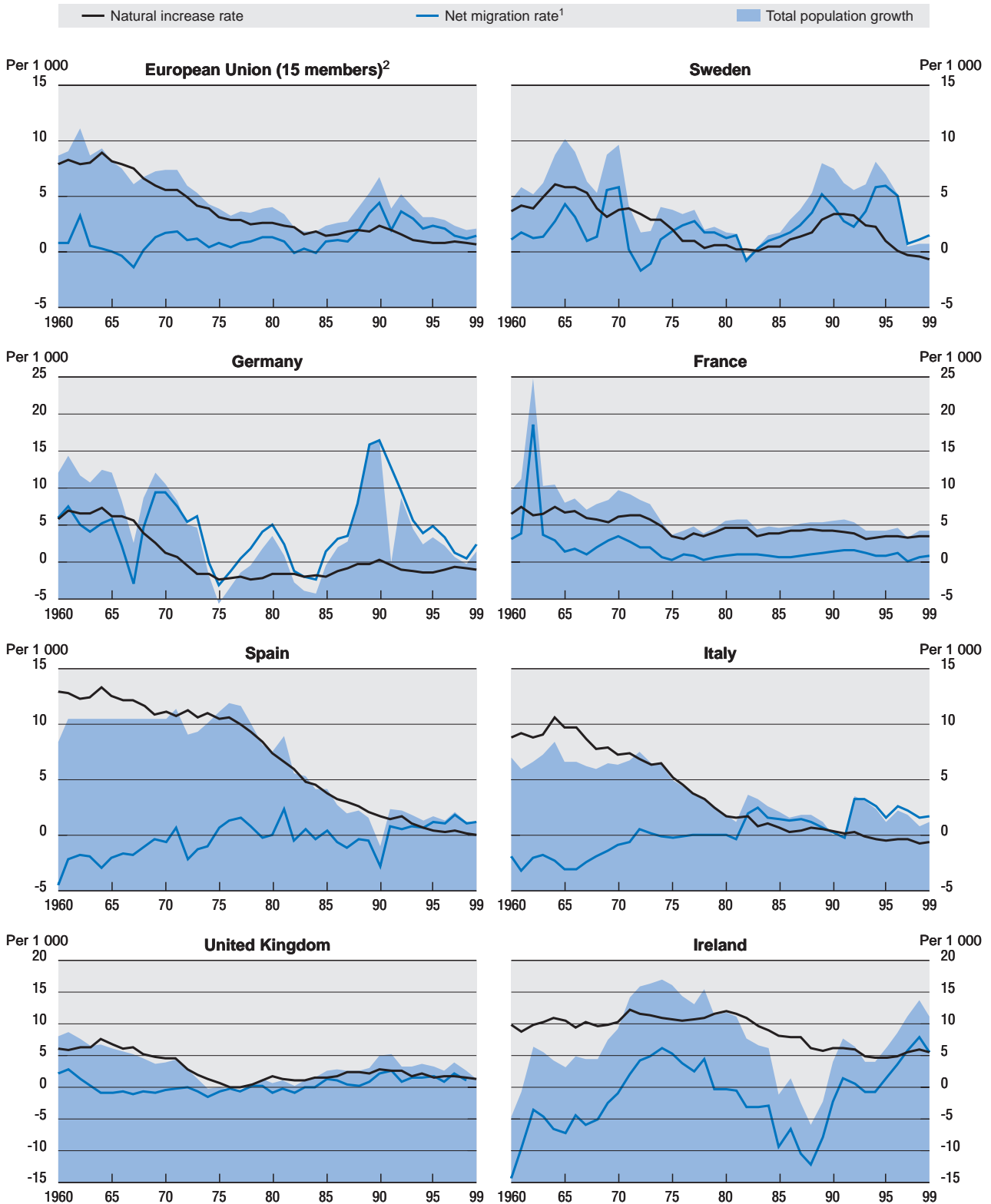
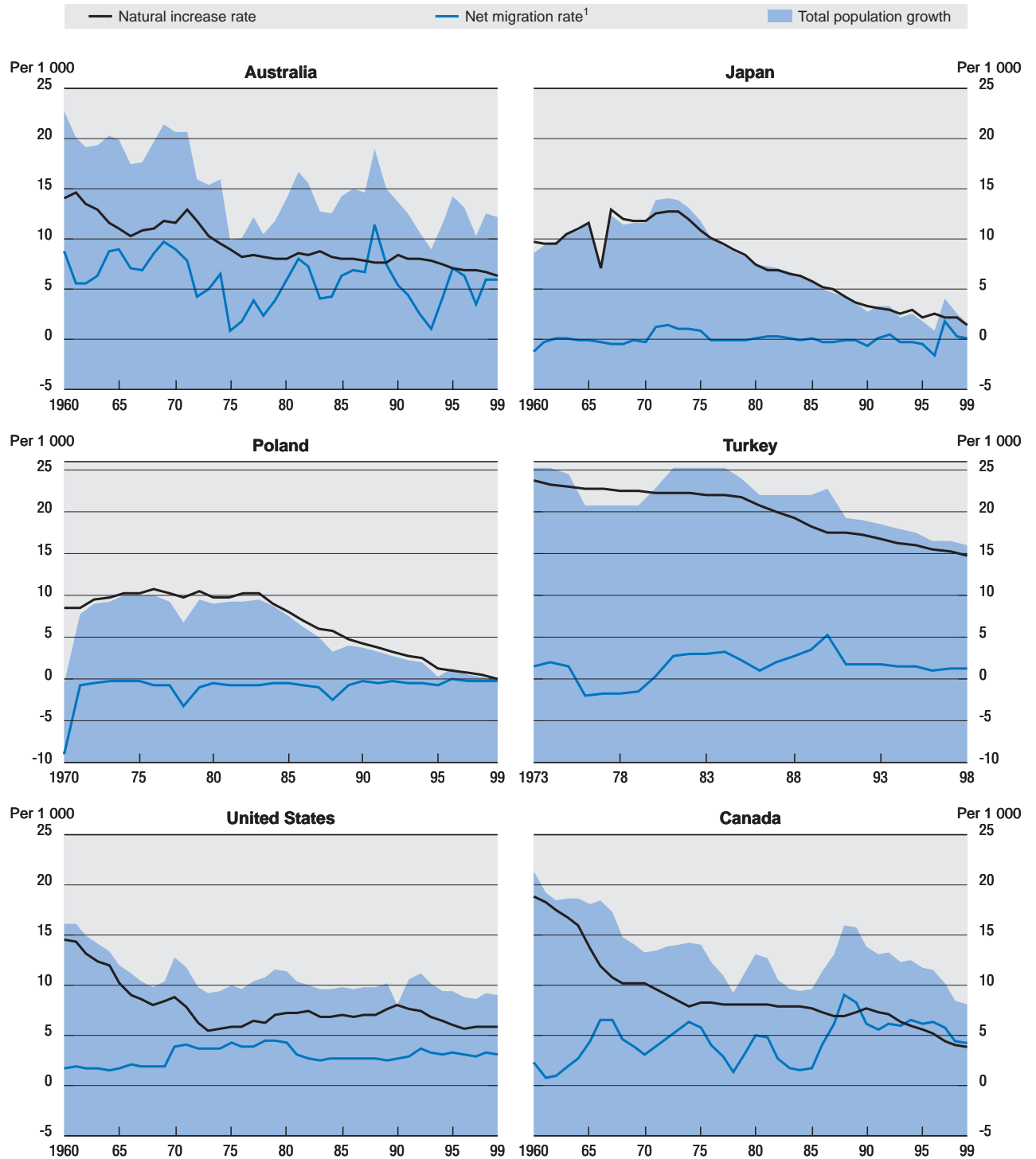


Chart I.7. Components of total population growth in selected OECD countries and in the European Union, 1960-1999 (cont.)

Per 1 000 inhabitants at the beginning of the year



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

2. Excluding Belgium, Portugal and the United Kingdom in 1999. Excluding Austria for all years.

Source: Labour Force Statistics, OECD, 2000.

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

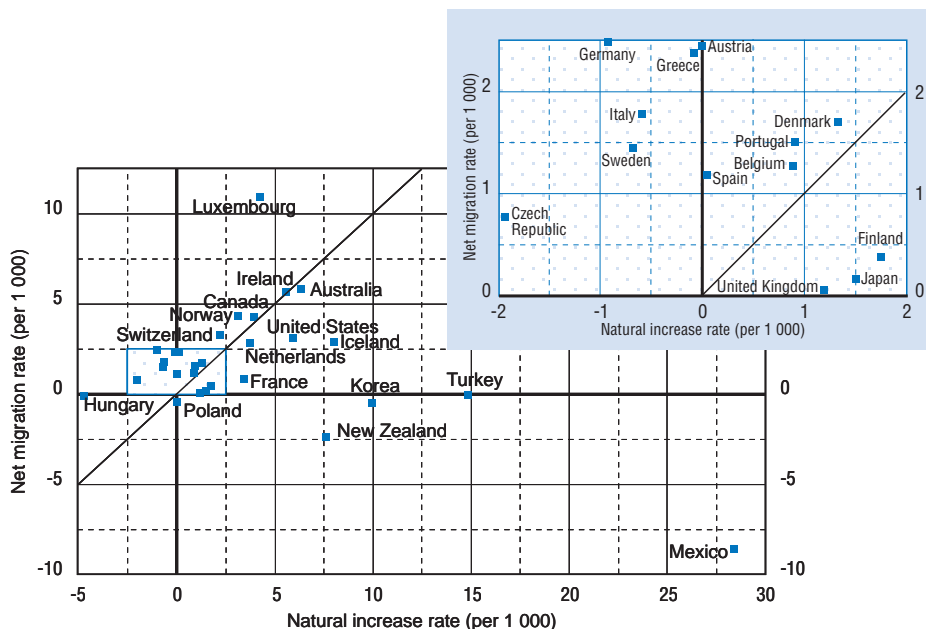
Following a very different pattern, Turkey is experiencing a relatively high natural rate of population growth, but one which is considerably lower than the 1970s figure. At the same time, net migration is slightly positive, indicating the return of former emigrants and an upward trend in foreign immigration.

A more detailed analysis for 1999 (see Chart I.8) reveals that Mexico, New Zealand and, to a lesser degree, Korea and Turkey, registered negative net migration, which was nevertheless broadly offset by natural increase. In the case of the Czech Republic,

Hungary and Poland, the rate of natural increase does not offset the negative migration balance, explaining the falls in the total populations of these countries.

Austria, Germany, Greece, Italy and Sweden have in common a negative rate of natural increase and positive net migration. It was due to the migration balance that their populations increased in 1999. In Belgium, Denmark, Luxembourg, Norway, Portugal, Spain and Switzerland demographic growth was also primarily due to immigration, although the natural increase remained positive. On the other hand, in France, Japan, Korea, the Netherlands, the United Kingdom and the United States natural increase remains the principal component of population growth. This component is largest in Mexico and Turkey (at 28.3 in 1990 and 14.8 per thousand in 1999, respectively). Last we have Australia, Canada and Ireland, where demographic growth is relatively sustained (12.2, 8 and 11.2 per thousand respectively) and evenly distributed between natural increase and net migration.

Chart I.8. **Natural increase and net migration rates in OECD countries, 1999¹**
Per 1 000 inhabitants at the beginning of the year



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

1. 1998 for Belgium, Korea, Portugal and Turkey; 1990 for Mexico.

Source: *Labour Force Statistics*, OECD, 2000.

This analysis points to the conclusion that over a long period (be it by region or by country, 1960-99) or by cross-section (by country, in 1999), natural increase is more important than net migration in total population growth in many OECD countries. The trend is all the more marked in those countries where fertility rates are low (Austria, Germany, Greece and Italy). In settlement countries, such as Australia, Canada and the United States, which continue to receive substantial numbers of new immigrants each year, the predominance of family-linked immigration in total inflows and the younger age structure of the new arrivals exert a marked effect, over the medium and long term, on the natural rate of increase in the population. At the same time, in some countries such as Mexico and Turkey where emigration is substantial, natural increase still plays a decisive role in population growth. The same is true in the United States and in a few countries where the birth rate has fallen less, France and the Netherlands for example. In both these countries the long-term settlement of immigrants and members of their families has helped, by means of foreign births, to enhance the contribution of natural increase.

b) Foreign births: a brake on demographic ageing

In a number of European OECD countries, births to foreign nationals and to persons of foreign origin account for a sizeable percentage of total births (see Box I.5 for the measurement of these births), often greater than the proportion of foreigners in the total population. Foreign births contribute

to the natural increase in the population and can therefore act as a brake on demographic ageing. This is not an inevitable result, however, and it depends essentially on a continuing succession of migration waves. A prolonged halt to new immigration could eventually lead to a marked reduction in these beneficial effects insofar as the fertility rate of foreign women tends to converge with that of nationals.

The share of foreign births is, in some OECD Member countries, high (see Chart I.9). This was the case, for example, in Luxembourg (48.5%) and Switzerland (22.9%) in 1999. However, in the United Kingdom (England and Wales only), Germany and France, foreign births accounted for between 10 and 13% of all births. Nevertheless, Italy, Finland and especially Japan and Hungary all have significantly lower levels, which can be explained, *inter alia*, by the relatively small share of foreigners in their total population.

It was in Portugal, the United Kingdom (England and Wales only), Italy and France that the proportion of foreign births in all births as compared with the proportion of foreigners in the total population was greatest in 1999 (over 1.5). It is particularly low (under 1), on the other hand, in Japan where immigration is above all temporary and in Belgium where Europeans represent a substantial proportion of non-naturalised immigrants.

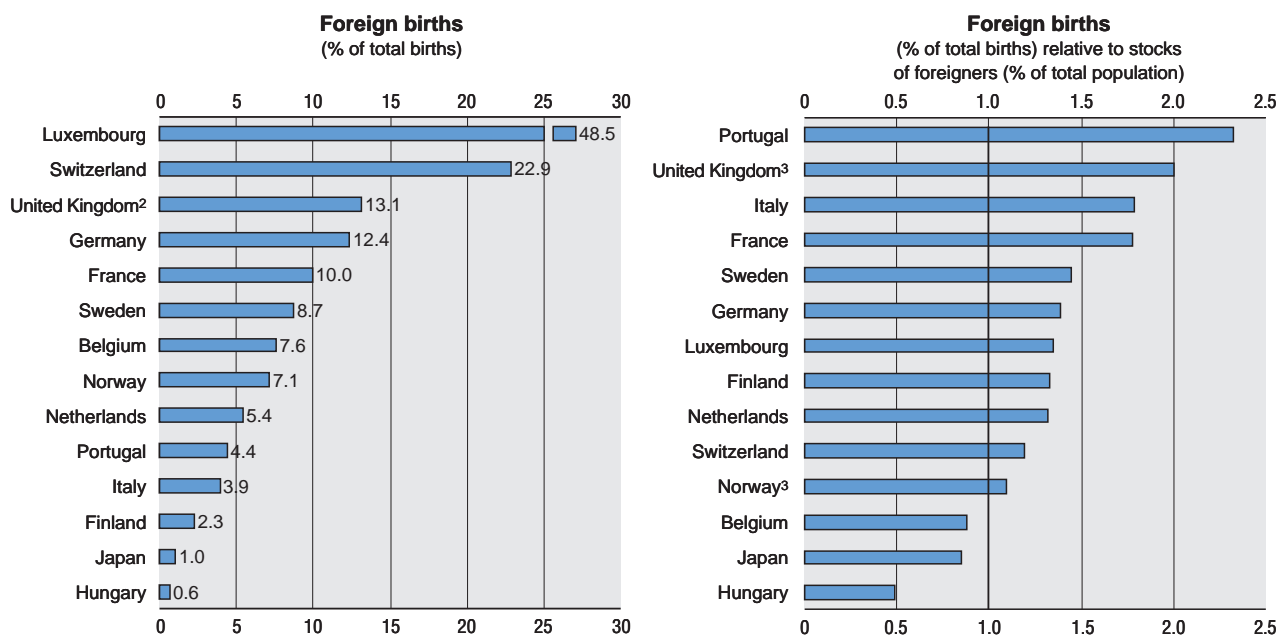
A number of explanations can be put forward to account for the variations observed over the past two decades, the relative importance of which depends on the country concerned: higher or lower

Box I.5. Measuring foreign births

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

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

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

Chart I.9. Foreign births in 1999¹

Note: For Finland, France and Sweden, foreign births are births to a foreign mother, for Japan, to foreign parents. For England and Wales and Norway, foreign births refer to those to mothers born outside the country. For Canada, foreign births refer to those to foreign-born mothers who have been granted immigrant status. For all other countries, foreign births are those of children of foreign nationality.

1. 1996 for Canada; 1997 for Sweden and the United Kingdom; 1998 for Belgium and France.

2. Data refer to England and Wales.

3. The share of foreign births is relative to the share of foreign-born persons in the total population.

Sources: Data on births are from civil registers; data on population are from population registers for all countries except for France (1999 Census), Canada (1996 Census), the United Kingdom (Labour Force Survey), Portugal and Italy (residence permits).

levels of net migration; differences in fertility rates between nationals and foreigners; differences in distribution by age and by sex of the foreign and national populations; and changes to laws concerning the acquisition of nationality.

c) Ageing populations and migration

The combination of the demographic effects of the baby boom that marked the immediate post-war period, the fall in fertility rates which began in OECD countries from the late 1960s, and longer life expectancy, has led to a striking acceleration in population ageing in virtually all OECD countries.

A detailed examination of the current demographic situation in OECD countries shows that the ageing of the population is much more marked in Europe and Japan than in North America, and that it is in these countries that global labour shortages will be strongest over the next 25 years, even if, during the transition period, improved productivity and the

use of surplus labour temporarily ease labour demand.

According to demographic projections by the United Nations, the populations of the European Union and Japan are expected, between 2000 and 2050, to fall by 10 and 14% respectively, representing in all some 55 million people (see Table I.12). For the United States the projections point to an increase in the total population, going together with an increase in the proportion of elderly persons and the dependency ratio (in other words, population aged 65 and over has a percentage of active age population – 20-64).

A number of research projects run by the OECD have considered the economic and fiscal impact of coming demographic trends (OECD 2001, 2000, 1998, Visco 2001). The research generally concludes that decisions are required over the medium and long term to tackle the population challenge and safeguard balance in the social

Table I.12. Change in total population in OECD countries, 1950, 2000 and 2050

		EU 15	United States	Japan	OECD countries ¹
		Thousands			
Total population	1950	296 400	157 800	83 600	683 300
	2000	377 200	283 200	127 000	1 125 300
	2050	340 300	397 000	109 200	1 275 300
		Percentages			
Dependency ratio ²	1950	15.5	13.3	8.1	13.1
	2000	27.9	15.6	20.3	21.0
	2050	55.7	26.8	43.1	40.8

1. The dependency ratio is calculated without taking into account figures for Greece, Iceland, Luxembourg, Mexico, Switzerland and Turkey.

2. Population aged 65 and over as a percentage of active age population (20-64).

Sources: Total population: *World Population prospects: the 2000 revision*, United Nations; dependency ratio: OECD.

protection systems which are linked to the determination of the length of working life, fertility trends, the level of contributions and benefits and also to productivity advances. One solution that is sometimes mentioned, but less frequently evaluated, could also be to turn to immigration in order to modify population structure and alleviate the effects of ageing.

Can immigration relieve the effects of population ageing?

Turning to immigration possesses the advantage of having an immediate and relatively strong impact on the economically active population because of the characteristics of new immigrants, who are younger and more mobile. In addition, fertility rates amongst immigrant women are often relatively high, which can help to boost population growth, albeit to a limited extent. There are, however, practical and political constraints that make it difficult to develop and implement migration policies aimed at changing the demographic structure. Just four points will be mentioned here:

- Most OECD countries have the same demographic patterns, so immigration could basically only come from countries outside the OECD area.
- This approach considers migration as a control variable, in other words it assumes that it will be possible to control the volume and age distribution of inflows and outflows. Migration policy might give greater importance to age-linked criteria, which already exist explicitly or implicitly, in admitting immigrants. However, there are

many factors that both limit and complicate the ability to control immigration: agreements on free movement of persons, humanitarian commitments and other obligations, such as that to grant admission for residence on the basis of family ties, as well as the persistence of illegal immigration. Furthermore, immigration policies focusing primarily on immigrants' age or fertility may be seen as a form of discrimination.

- Experience shows that migration policies can have an impact on the number and characteristics of immigrants, but that they can have virtually no effect on returns, hence the difficulty of controlling the volume and composition of net migration.
- The simulations produced by the United Nations Population Division in the report entitled *Replacement Migration: Is it a Solution to Declining and Ageing Populations?* (United Nations, 2000) demonstrate that immigration cannot on its own provide an answer to population ageing. The simulations most frequently cited, where the aim is to keep the dependency ratio steady until 2050, entail a considerable increase in migration. For instance, the migration balances for the United States and the European Union countries would have to be at least ten times the annual average of inflows calculated on the basis of data available for the 1990s. They also entail an extraordinary increase in the total population and in the proportion of immigrants in that population.

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

There can be no doubt that immigration can help to prevent a decrease in population for a limited time, although it can only be expected to have a marginal impact on the anticipated imbalance in the age structure. To achieve a more significant impact, migration policy would have to be adjusted significantly so as to contribute, *inter alia*, to the objective of labour market adjustment and a more balanced age structure.

Even if a desire for change clearly exists (as has been perceptible recently in Germany, and perhaps within the European Union as well), immigration policy is often politically sensitive. In many countries there is usually some flexibility within existing legislation that allows variations in the volume and composition of immigration intakes as well as choice in the distribution of resources across the range of activities related to migration policy (control of flows, selective recruitment and integration). Some countries already have a comprehensive and co-ordinated approach towards immigration (notably Australia and Canada) including age-related selection criteria for some categories of immigrant. Other countries do not use age-linked criteria explicitly, but their migration system and the way it is implemented affects the age distribution of inflows. This is the case with the preference system in the United States. It is also the case in Europe, in particular, via the regularisation programmes that primarily benefit only economically active immigrants. Lastly, other countries, if they decided to shift to a permanent immigration policy, may find that new immigration programmes and a change in approach to immigration policy would be required.

One of the questions still unresolved, however, is the scope for shaping a migration policy that will reconcile the long-term demographic objective and the need to safeguard labour market equilibrium over the short and medium term. While this raises relatively few problems against a backdrop of economic expansion, it is far more problematic in a period of recession. In addition, such migration policy should be openly based on convergent strategic interests between countries affected by demographic decline and those experiencing population growth. Such policies are available, but the motivation for putting them into practice is as yet insufficient.

B. IMMIGRANTS AND THE LABOUR MARKET

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

The upturn in economic activity in the OECD area has had a major impact on employment in Member countries in recent years, particularly in the EU countries and Korea. For example, between 1999 and 2000 the overall unemployment rate fell by four-tenths of a point (and by nine-tenths of a point for the European Union). Over the same period total employment rose by 1.3% in the United States and by 2% in the European Union, falling by 0.2% in Japan. According to OECD forecasts (OECD, 2001*a*), these trends should continue in 2001 and 2002, but at a more moderate pace.

1. Foreigners' contribution to the labour force is increasing

Over the last five years, the proportion of foreigners or the foreign-born in the total labour force has increased significantly in a number of OECD countries, notably in Southern Europe, Luxembourg and the United States (see Table I.13). By contrast, the proportion declined slightly in France, Germany and the Netherlands between 1994 and 1999.

Classified by the size of the foreign or foreign-born share of total employment, three groups of countries could be distinguished in 1999: a first group made up (in descending order) of Luxembourg, Australia, Canada and Switzerland, with shares of between 57 and 18%; a second group, made up of the United States, Austria, Germany, Belgium and France where the shares were at an intermediate level, between about 12 and 6%; and a third group made up of the United Kingdom, Ireland, the Netherlands and the Nordic and Southern European countries with the foreign shares of total employment at less than 5%.

Table I.13. Foreign or foreign-born labour force in selected OECD countries, 1994 and 1999

Thousands and percentages

	Foreign labour force				Source data
	Thousands		% of total labour force		
	1994 ¹	1999	1994	1999	
Austria	368	368	9.6	9.5	LFS
Belgium	335	382	8.1	8.7	LFS
Czech Republic	91	152	1.7	2.9	WP
Denmark	48	72	1.7	2.5	LFS
Finland	18	31	0.7	1.2	LFS
France	1 590	1 592	6.4	6.1	LFS
Germany	3 543	3 460	9.0	8.7	LFS
Greece	66	171	1.6	3.8	LFS
Hungary	20	28	0.5	0.7	WP
Ireland	41	58	2.9	3.4	LFS
Italy	307	748	1.5	3.6	WP
Japan ²	600	670	0.9	1.0	E
Korea	31	93	0.2	0.4	R
Luxembourg ³	106	146	51.0	57.3	WP
Netherlands	290	268	4.0	3.4	LFS
Norway	59	68	2.7	2.9	LFS
Portugal	78	92	1.6	1.8	WP
Slovak Republic	4	4	WP
Spain	122	173	0.8	1.0	WP
Sweden	186	181	4.1	4.1	LFS
Switzerland	740	701	18.9	18.1	R
United Kingdom	1 030	1 132	3.6	3.9	LFS

	Foreign-born labour force				Source data
	Thousands		% of total labour force		
	1994 ¹	1999	1994	1999	
Australia	2 164	2 310	24.8	24.6	LFS
Canada	2 839	..	19.2	..	C
United States	12 900	16 114	9.8	11.7	LFS

1. Data for Austria, Finland, Norway and Sweden refer to 1995; to 1996 for Canada.

2. Including overstayers; excluding permanent workers.

3. Data cover foreigners in employment, including apprentices, trainees and cross-border workers. The unemployed are not included.

Sources: C: Census;

E: Estimates by the National Statistical Institute;

LFS: Labour force survey;

R: Population register or register of foreigners;

WP: Work permits.

For Japan and Korea, less than 1% of the total labour force is of foreign origin.

On the whole, this classification mirrors foreigners' share in the total population, with some differences due to the relative importance of naturalisations and the family component in migration flows across countries.

Although the admission of permanent foreign workers is currently very limited, particularly into the European Member countries of the OECD, the use of temporary foreign labour seems to be expanding and countries are implementing policies to facilitate it (see Table I.2 above). The use of temporary foreign labour enhances host countries'

labour market flexibility and may help to alleviate sectoral labour shortages. This is particularly true in the new technology sectors, in which many countries are experiencing shortages of skilled and highly skilled workers. An increase in temporary labour migration may also encourage some employers, particularly those engaged in seasonal activities, to make less use of undocumented foreigners.

2. Participation rates of foreigners by gender and place of birth: persistent imbalances

In 1999-2000, as in previous years, the participation rates of foreigners varied markedly by gender (see Table I.14). The participation rate of

Table I.14. Participation rate and unemployment rate of nationals and foreigners by sex in selected OECD countries, 1999-2000 average

	Participation rate				Unemployment rate			
	Men		Women		Men		Women	
	Nationals	Foreigners	Nationals	Foreigners	Nationals	Foreigners	Nationals	Foreigners
Austria	80.5	86.1	63.1	63.4	4.3	8.3	4.2	9.2
Belgium	74.1	73.0	58.2	40.7	5.3	16.6	8.5	20.1
Czech Republic	80.4	88.6	64.4	61.6	7.2	8.2	10.3	10.1
Denmark	85.6	73.2	77.2	53.8	4.0	13.0	5.4	8.5
Finland	79.8	81.1	74.4	58.0	10.4	27.0	12.1	28.0
France	75.6	76.4	63.5	48.5	8.7	19.7	12.5	25.7
Germany	80.1	77.9	64.8	49.9	7.3	14.9	8.4	13.2
Greece	78.9	89.3	50.3	57.6	7.4	7.6	17.2	18.5
Ireland	81.1	76.1	55.7	54.4	5.0	6.3	4.7	7.7
Italy	74.8	89.0	46.3	52.1	8.6	5.3	15.5	16.9
Luxembourg	75.5	77.9	47.3	56.7	1.2	2.8	2.3	4.3
Netherlands	84.8	67.2	66.4	44.6	2.2	7.7	3.9	10.5
Norway	86.0	84.5	77.7	70.7	3.4	5.9	3.2	3.6
Portugal	83.7	81.3	66.7	68.5	3.5	9.6	4.9	11.2
Slovak Republic	76.6	79.5	62.6	63.9	17.7	24.4	17.3	8.5
Spain	77.2	83.8	49.8	57.3	10.3	13.2	21.7	17.7
Sweden	80.5	65.1	75.3	59.4	6.6	17.5	5.5	14.9
Switzerland	93.0	89.6	74.8	68.4	1.6	5.6	2.5	7.0
United Kingdom	84.9	76.2	69.2	56.0	6.3	10.9	4.9	8.3
Australia (August 2000) ¹	75.3	67.3	58.9	49.1	6.6	6.4	5.6	6.7
Canada (1996) ¹	73.8	68.4	60.2	52.9	10.3	9.9	9.5	11.6
Hungary ¹	67.9	73.0	52.5	53.2	7.4	5.5	6.0	5.6
United States (March 2000) ¹	73.4	79.6	61.6	53.7	4.4	4.5	4.2	5.5

1. The data refer to the native and foreign-born populations.

Sources: Labour force surveys, results supplied by Eurostat and by Australian Bureau of Statistics; 1996 Census, Statistics Canada; Current Population Survey, US Bureau of the Census.

foreign or foreign-born women was systematically lower than for men, and also generally lower than for nationals. The differences were particularly marked in Italy, Greece and Belgium, and in the Czech Republic. The position is similar for nationals, but the gap is often far smaller. In France, for example, the discrepancy between male and female participation rates is 12 points for nationals and 28 points for foreigners; the figures are 16 and 32% in Belgium, and 15 and 28% in Germany. The gap may be still greater for some communities where female participation rates are also low in the country of origin. That is the case, for example, with communities from Turkey, from North Africa and the Middle East, and from Afghanistan.

The discrepancy between participation rates for native and foreign females is greatest (over 20%) in Denmark and the Netherlands, probably on account of the comparatively large numbers of refugees. Conversely, in the Southern European countries (Greece, Italy, Portugal and Spain), which are new immigration countries, and in Luxembourg, where

employment-related immigration is predominant, the activity rate of foreign women was higher than for nationals.

For men, on the whole, the activity rate is also higher for nationals than for foreigners, but the differences are smaller. The gap is over 10 points in just two countries, Sweden and the Netherlands. In addition, in a number of OECD countries the activity rate of foreigners is higher than for nationals, notably in Austria, France, Finland and the Southern European countries. In the European OECD countries, the activity rate of foreign EU nationals is closer to that of nationals, and generally slightly higher.

It is important to bear in mind that a cross-section analysis does not take into account the fact that participation rates also depend on the length of stay. Indeed, the differences according to place of birth, nationality, and gender, generally tend to reduce considerably beyond a period of stay of ten years (see Box I.6).

Box I.6. Labour market integration of immigrants: some case studies

Research performed in Australia on the basis of longitudinal surveys of immigrants shows that their labour market integration improves as their stay becomes longer (Vandenheuvel and Wooden, 2000; Richardson, Robertson and Ilsley, 2001). The degree of employability within the various waves of migration reviewed rose very markedly. For instance, after three and a half years in Australia, around six immigrants in ten were in employment; and the initial unemployment rate fell sharply, halving after 18 months' stay.

There is very little similar research on European countries. In the United Kingdom, recent research (Home Office 2001, RDS Occasional Paper No. 67) confirms the same trend towards labour market integration, but although immigrant activity rates rose they were still lower than those for nationals. It also shows that the average earnings of immigrants aged 25-30 were lower than for natives in the same age group, but after ten years were higher than for natives, with the gap increasing thereafter. The paper concludes that in the short term immigrants face difficulties in entering the labour market, but over the long term migration has beneficial effects.

In Denmark, Husted and others (2000) show, using data from population registers (1984-95) and an employment-wage model to control selection bias, that the probability of obtaining a job rises sharply with length of stay, even for refugees. After five to ten years, other things being equal, refugees, immigrants and people born in Denmark have virtually the same probability of being in work. Significant differences remain, however, by nationality and in terms of earnings.

Research based on US data, mostly from the census, yields rather more ambiguous findings. This work, launched by Chiswick (1978), focuses on relative trends in immigrant earnings, but identifies several distinct indicators of assimilation. Borjas (1999) presents an overview which shows i) that earnings are positively dependent on length of stay (around +10% over 10 years and +18% over 20 years) and ii) that the earnings gap between nationals and immigrants declines by about six percentage points over the first ten years and by 9.9 points over the first twenty. Recent research, employing data from other sources, indicates however that the degree of assimilation is heavily over-estimated in the cross-section work and that the growth of immigrant earnings is not in fact more than 10-12% over the first twenty years (Johannsson and Weiler, 2001). In fact, Borjas (1996) also finds, from examining the earnings of Mexican immigrants between 1970 and 1990, that the process of assimilation does not enable Mexicans to reach levels of earnings comparable to US nationals, including those with minimal education.

3. Recent developments in the employment of foreigners and the increasing presence of foreign labour in the service sector

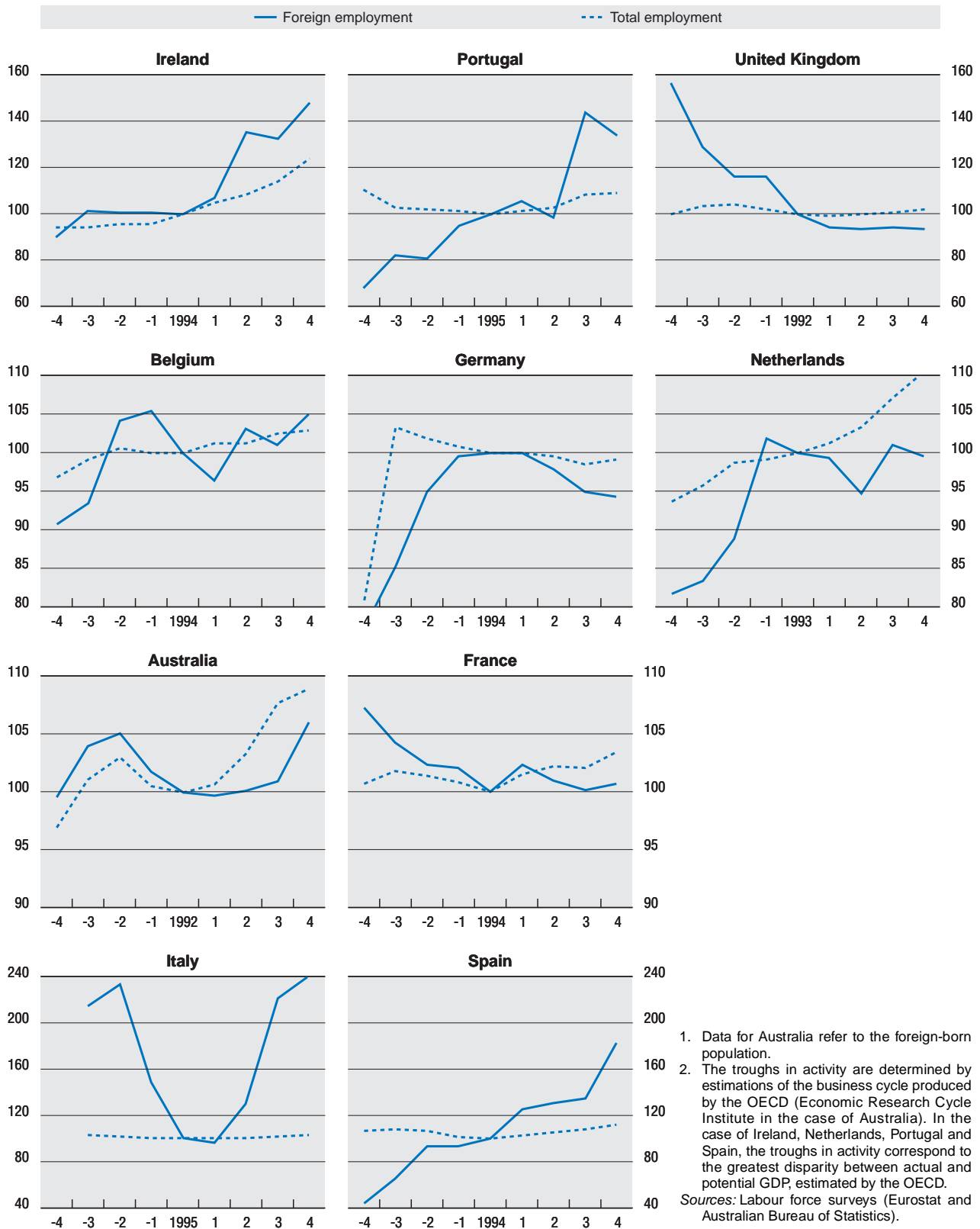
Chart I.10 makes it possible to compare developments in the employment of foreigners with those in total employment over a period of eight years, centred on the year marking the start of the economic upturn in the countries reviewed. Foreigners' employment fluctuates more markedly than total employment. Specifically, the upturns in Spain, Italy, Portugal and Ireland were accompanied by comparatively stronger growth in the employment of foreigners. Over the last decade the last two countries have experienced a reversal in migration flows and, in the second half of the period, steady growth in labour demand. In Belgium, France, Germany, the Netherlands and the United Kingdom the upturns in economic activity appear to have been less favourable to foreigners. In the case of France the number of foreign workers continued to decline throughout the period, with the exception of 1995. In Australia the trend in foreigners' employment has followed that of the economic cycle.

Table I.15 presents an overview of the sectoral distribution of foreign workers in 1999-2000. In particular foreigners are over-represented in some areas, in the sense that they account for a higher proportion in the sector than they do in the country's total labour force. Over-representation is found in mining and manufacturing in Austria, Germany, Italy, Norway, Sweden and Switzerland, and in Australia and Canada too. Foreigners are also over-represented in the construction sector – for example, in Austria, Belgium, France, Greece, Italy, Luxembourg and Portugal.

Foreign labour is concentrated in the service sector; its use there is widespread but most notable in commerce, catering, education, health care, services to households and "other services". The lowest proportion is usually found in public administration, since most posts in this sector are open only to nationals. In the specific case of illegal employment of foreign workers, the information obtained in the course of regularisation programmes indicates that on average undocumented migrants are younger than the rest of the labour force and are widely distributed across the economy (see Box I.7).

Chart I.10. Changes in foreign and total employment during economic recoveries

Index: trough = 100^{1,2}



1. Data for Australia refer to the foreign-born population.
 2. The troughs in activity are determined by estimations of the business cycle produced by the OECD (Economic Research Cycle Institute in the case of Australia). In the case of Ireland, Netherlands, Portugal and Spain, the troughs in activity correspond to the greatest disparity between actual and potential GDP, estimated by the OECD.
 Sources: Labour force surveys (Eurostat and Australian Bureau of Statistics).

Table I.15. **Employment of foreigners by sectors, 1999-2000 average**
 Percentages of total foreign employment

	Agriculture and fishing	Mining and manufacturing	Construction	Wholesale and retail trade	Hotels and restaurants	Education	Health and other community services	Households	Admin. and ETO	Other services
Austria	1.4	27.5	12.0	12.5	11.6	2.7	11.3	0.8	1.4	19.0
Belgium	1.7	23.6	8.0	15.3	6.9	3.3	12.4	0.8	9.2	18.9
Czech Republic	1.9	24.3	8.8	27.4	4.3	6.3	10.4	0.9	3.4	12.3
Denmark	3.1	19.5	2.4	12.8	7.1	5.4	26.8	...	3.8	19.2
Finland	4.3	16.8	3.6	14.3	10.2	10.0	19.0	0.5	0.6	20.8
France	3.0	19.6	17.3	11.9	6.9	3.1	8.7	7.1	2.6	19.7
Germany	1.5	33.7	9.0	12.5	10.6	2.7	12.3	0.6	2.1	15.0
Greece	3.4	18.4	27.2	10.9	8.6	2.0	4.2	19.6	0.8	5.0
Hungary	2.7	24.5	6.1	20.4	3.5	10.8	13.5	...	3.9	14.6
Ireland	2.5	18.8	7.6	8.8	12.3	7.3	15.2	1.4	1.7	24.4
Italy	5.4	30.3	9.4	11.0	8.5	3.2	6.7	10.9	2.5	12.0
Japan (June 1999)	0.3	59.8	2.2	8.0	¹	29.6
Luxembourg	0.8	10.3	15.6	13.1	8.0	2.5	9.3	4.0	11.2	25.2
Netherlands	2.4	24.4	4.3	13.9	6.1	5.9	12.4	0.2	4.1	26.3
Norway	1.8	18.2	4.8	13.3	7.1	7.7	25.4	0.5	2.9	18.3
Portugal	2.7	17.3	25.2	10.0	9.6	5.8	10.3	6.8	1.7	10.5
Slovak Republic	7.6	22.7	3.5	13.8	...	12.9	17.0	...	4.9	17.6
Spain	7.8	10.9	9.4	12.6	14.9	5.1	8.1	18.0	0.9	12.3
Sweden	1.8	21.4	1.9	12.7	8.5	9.5	23.1	...	2.1	19.1
Switzerland	1.4	23.1	9.8	16.5	5.5	4.6	17.1	1.6	3.3	17.2
United Kingdom	0.3	13.8	5.1	11.6	9.9	8.3	20.2	1.6	4.2	25.1
Australia (August 2000) ²	2.1	18.8	7.9	16.2	6.2	6.1	12.0	3.2	3.1	24.4
Canada (1996) ²	2.4	19.6	5.0	24.1	¹	³	24.6	..	3.8	20.4
United States (1998-99) ²	3.6	18.6	6.1	22.9	¹	³	2.2	2.0	20.8	23.7

Note: The numbers in bold indicate the sectors where foreigners are over-represented.

1. Included in the category "Wholesale and retail trade".

2. The data refer to the foreign-born population.

3. Included in the category "Health and other community services".

Sources: Labour force surveys, results supplied by Eurostat and by the Australian Bureau of Statistics; Ministry of Labour (Japan); 1996 Census, Statistics Canada; Current Population Survey, US Bureau of the Census.

Box I.7. Where do undocumented immigrants work?

While it is difficult to compile a precise list of all the different occupations practised by undocumented immigrants, information from regularisation programmes shows a far wider range of sectors than might be expected. A study of six OECD countries (see OECD, 2000) has identified the main sectors involved. These are agriculture, construction and civil engineering, small-scale industry, tourism, hotels and catering, and services to households and to business, including computer services.

Accompanying the declining share of agriculture and industry in gross domestic product in most of the industrialised countries, illegal immigrants have become very much involved in the services sector, where their presence has coincided with a rise in total employment. Seasonal tourism, retail trading and catering, where long hours have to be worked, are key sources of employment. The growth in services to businesses (such as equipment maintenance and servicing, caretaking) and services to households (such as child minding and other domestic services) also provides openings for undocumented workers, as does undeclared work in science and language teaching by skilled undocumented foreigners (the case notably in Italy and France).

The growth in outsourcing in most OECD countries may also favour the recruitment of undocumented immigrants. It has enabled firms in many sectors to evade their social security contributions as well as the constraints imposed by labour legislation. The textile/clothing and building/civil engineering industries often use outsourcing, as do services. This practice has led to what might be termed "false" dependent employment, whereby employees of an outsourcing firm are effectively self-employed free-lancers.

Illegal employment of foreigners reflects to a certain degree rigidities in the labour market, particularly in terms of the flexibility and adjustment of production structures. It also reflects the problems of dealing with the underground economy.

A sectoral analysis of the trend in total and foreign employment between 1994-95 and 1998-99 for selected European and other OECD Member countries supplements this overview (see Chart I.11). We find an initial group of countries, including the new immigration countries in Southern Europe (Greece, Italy, Portugal and Spain) and Ireland, where the employment of foreigners has risen across all sectors. The United Kingdom could also be placed in this group, though it shows more marked growth in foreign employment in services. A second group contains countries with a longer-standing tradition of migration such as Austria, Belgium, France, Germany and the Netherlands. Here foreign labour is being reallocated towards sectors where it had previously been less strongly represented. This is particularly so in agriculture in Belgium and the Netherlands and services to households and "other services" in Austria, France and Germany. The process is going hand in hand with a higher concentration of national labour in sales, the development of new technologies, and social services.

On the whole, the distribution of foreign and national employment is moving closer together. This trend means that the integration of foreigners into the labour market is tending to increase. In the European OECD countries, for example, with the

arrival of second-generation young people on the labour market, generally with higher levels of education and training than their parents, the jobs available to young foreigners are moving closer to "national-profile" jobs, different from those held by first-generation immigrants.

4. Foreigners are more vulnerable to unemployment than nationals

In general, foreigners are more vulnerable to unemployment than nationals. The sources of this greater vulnerability are multiple. In almost all of the European Member countries of the OECD (except in Italy, Hungary and the Slovak Republic) the extent of unemployment among the foreign-born population is greater than the proportion of the labour force for which they account. Chart I.12 shows that the discrepancy was greatest in the Netherlands in 1999-2000. It is also substantial in Sweden, Portugal, Finland, Belgium, Denmark and Switzerland. In each of these countries unemployment among foreigners is twice or more that among the total labour force.

The rate of unemployment among foreign women (see Table I.14) is, in general, higher than that of their male counterparts; the exceptions are

Chart I.11. Growth of foreign and total employment by economic activity between 1994-1995 and 1998-1999^{1, 2}

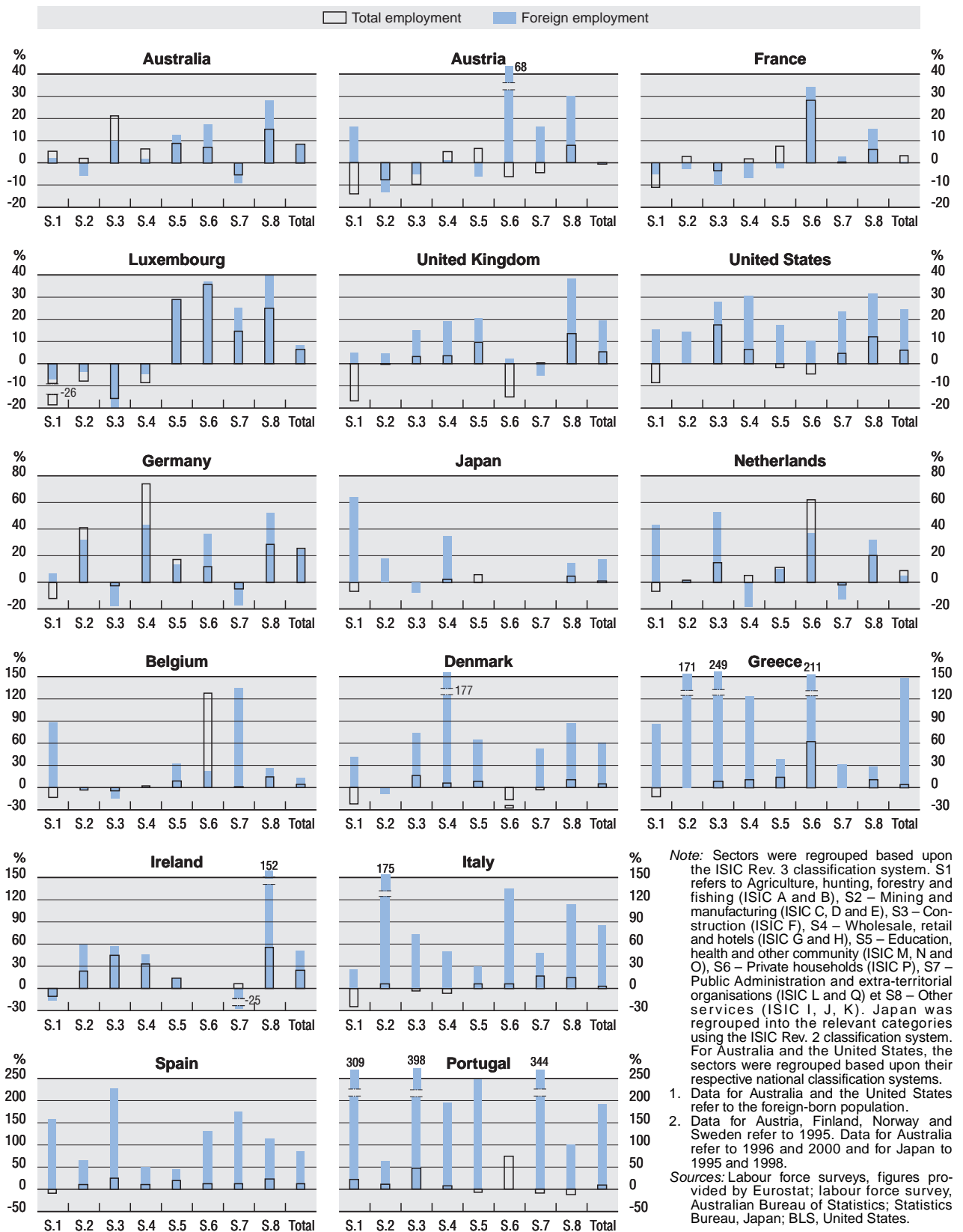
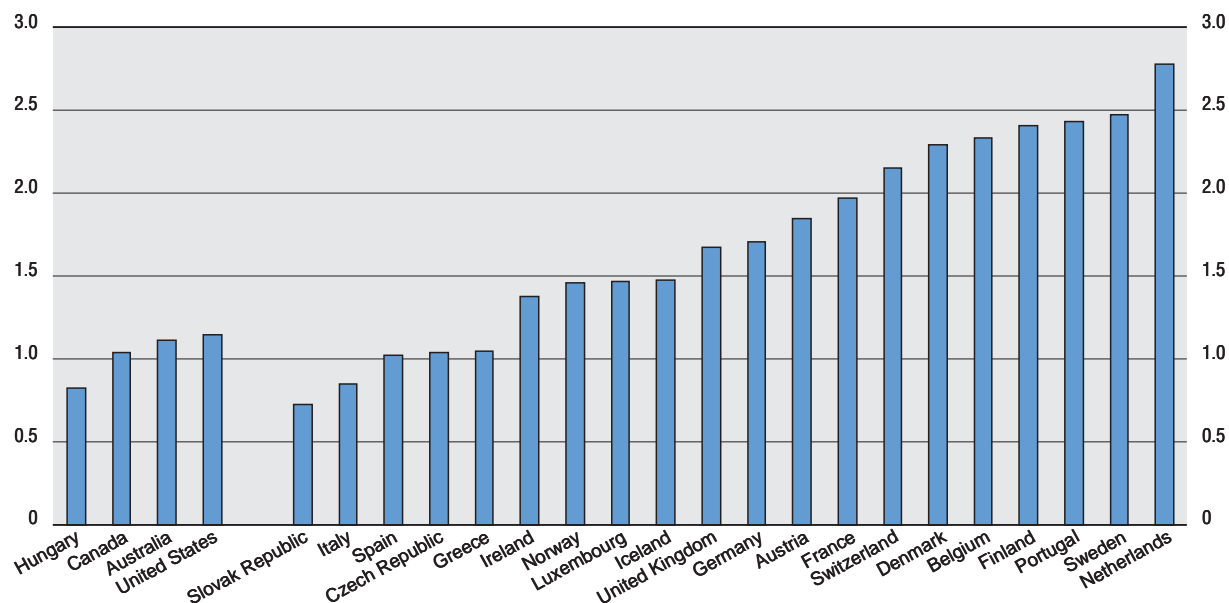


Chart I.12. Proportion of foreigners in total unemployment relative to their share in the labour force
1999-2000 average



Note: Foreign-born population for Australia, Canada, Hungary and the United States.

August 1999 for Australia; 1996 for Canada; March 1998 for the United States; 1999 for Hungary and 1998 for the Slovak Republic.

Sources: Labour force surveys (Eurostat and Australian Bureau of Statistics); 1996 Census (Statistics Canada); Current population survey (US Bureau of the Census).

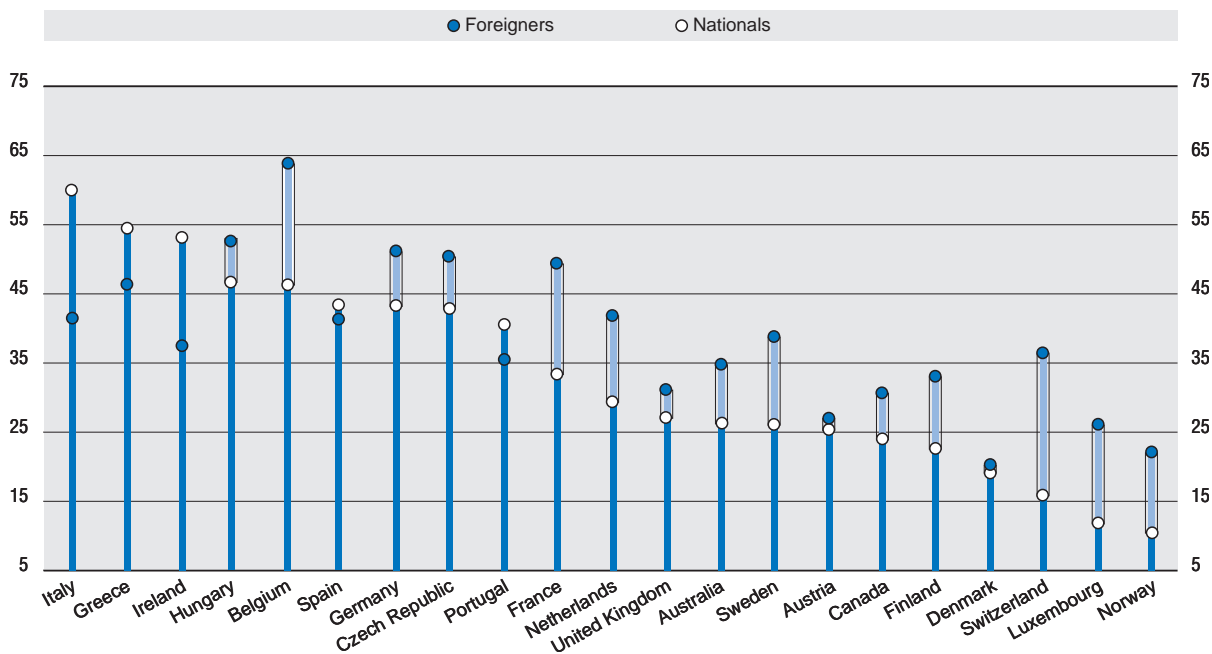
Denmark, Germany, Norway, the Slovak Republic, Sweden and the United Kingdom. On the other hand, the differential between the unemployment rates of foreign men and their native counterparts is greater than that between foreign and native women. In the settlement countries (Australia, Canada and the United States), the discrepancy between the unemployment rates of those born inside and those born outside the country is considerably lower than that observed between foreigners and nationals in Europe.

Foreigners are also heavily represented in long-term unemployment (see Chart I.13). In Belgium, for example, nearly 65% of unemployed foreigners have been without work for more than a year, as against 45% for nationals. The observation is also applicable, although to a lesser extent, to Australia and Canada. In the countries of recent immigration in Southern Europe (Greece, Italy, Portugal and Spain) where employment-related migration predominates, foreigners are less represented than nationals in long-term unemployment.

The differences between the unemployment rates of foreigners and nationals (see Table I.14), and the fact that foreigners are affected by unemployment in differing degrees according to their national origins, are due to a series of factors. They include, most notably, changes in economic performance and the nature of the posts occupied by foreigners. They also depend on the demographic structure of the foreign population and the order of the various waves of migration into the host country. The profile of the immigrants has an important bearing on their degree of employability: variables such as age, gender, nationality, level of education, training and experience, mastery of the host country's language and length of stay in the host country play a non unimportant role among the factors which explain the degree of vulnerability to unemployment.

The possibility for family members, under certain conditions, to enter host country labour markets means that some of them swell the numbers of new entries onto the labour market, and sometimes have difficulty in finding an initial job or re-entering the

Chart I.13. **Percentage of long-term unemployment according to nationality**
1999-2000 average^{1,2}



1. Data for Australia and Canada refer to foreign-born and native populations.

2. Population aged 15 and over with the exception of Australia (15-64).

Sources: Labour force surveys (Eurostat and the Australian Bureau of Statistics); 1996 Census, Statistics Canada.

labour market. Furthermore, those who have entered as refugees or as asylum seekers have, when they are permitted to work, considerable difficulties (notably linguistic) in some host countries in finding employment during the early years of their stay.

5. Foreign employment and labour market equilibrium

Foreign labour plays a special role in the equilibrium of labour markets in OECD countries. This role has been analysed more fully in the 2001 edition of the *OECD Employment Outlook*. It can be understood only by bearing in mind the characteristics of the migrants and the economic circumstances prevailing in the host country. Foreign employment also has a different role to play over the economic cycle.

During periods of marked labour market imbalances, as have occurred over the past two decades in some European countries, some people have at

times sought to establish a causal link between immigration and unemployment. Classifying OECD countries in terms of their unemployment rates and the relative sizes of their foreign population, shows in countries such as Finland, Italy and Spain, where unemployment rates are relatively high, that foreigners account for very low proportions of the total population. Conversely, countries such as Luxembourg, Switzerland and the United States, where the foreign population forms a relatively high percentage of the total population, have low unemployment rates. The chart presentation, though no proof in itself, does seem to be confirmed by the findings of more detailed empirical studies which indicate that no link between immigration and unemployment can be established (see OECD, 2001*b*).

There are several reasons for this. Firstly, new immigrants are also consumers and the satisfaction of their needs entails expanded employment. They accordingly raise the demand for goods and services (notably accommodation and food) whether or not

they subsequently raise the labour supply. Secondly, except in very special circumstances such as the repatriations from Algeria to France in 1962 and from Angola to Portugal in the early 1970s and the arrivals of Cubans in Miami in 1980, the inflows are extremely small compared to the labour force already in the country. Finally, most of the research which has made empirical estimates generally concludes that immigrant or foreign labour is complementary to, rather than a substitute for, that of nationals.

Most of the econometric studies undertaken in the United States, Australia and Europe have concluded that immigration does not lead to a decrease in the incomes of nationals. These conclusions are all the more robust for having been based on a wide variety of data sources and methodological approaches. Studies show that the impact of foreigners on the labour market is always positive for all categories of labour with the exception in the case of the United States of earlier migrant waves and in Europe of some low-skilled groups. Given that the labour market characteristics of those groups are similar, they are in direct competition. Nevertheless, though the impact can be negative it is very small. Accordingly, immigration cannot be held responsible for labour market disequilibria, although foreign workers in some OECD Member countries do seem relatively more vulnerable to cyclical downturns.

In periods of expansion, foreign labour seems to have a twofold impact on the equilibrium and dynamics of the labour market. It provides a response to greater demand for labour, in particular at periods when it is rising very strongly. Further, it assists the reassignment of nationals' employment to more dynamic and attractive sectors. The latter effect ties in with the theory of labour market segmentation, under which activities at the bottom of the social scale exert little attraction and display chronic labour shortages, which foreign workers are ready to fill. In countries where the geographical and sectoral mobility of the native population is limited, foreign workers may also introduce greater flexibility to the labour market and hence assist its development. There are, however difficulties in establishing a migration policy principally designed to respond to short-term labour market requirements.

The contribution of immigration to long-term growth is not confined to its quantitative impact on increases in the labour force; it is also reflected in its qualitative impact in terms of human capital accumulation. In the present context of growth in OECD Member countries, labour shortages are particularly

marked in information and communications technologies. Most OECD Member countries have in fact already amended their legislation in order to facilitate the admission of skilled and highly skilled workers (see Appendix at the end of Part I).

C. RECENT TRENDS IN INTERNATIONAL MIGRATION IN ASIA AND CENTRAL AND EASTERN EUROPE

The 2000 edition of *Trends in International Migration* focused mainly on migration flows in Asia. In the current report, particular attention is accorded to migration flows of Asian origin to OECD countries. Many OECD Member countries count among their population a significant number of immigrants from Central and Eastern Europe (CEEC) and other countries of the East. The pending membership of certain CEECs to the European Union is arousing concern over increasing flows from the CEECs and towards Member countries of the European Union. However, this apprehension seems unjustified as demonstrated by the majority of studies analysing the prospective migratory flows as a result of the enlargement of the European Union. Moreover, certain CEECs have become progressively migration countries. The present report will examine in detail these two themes.

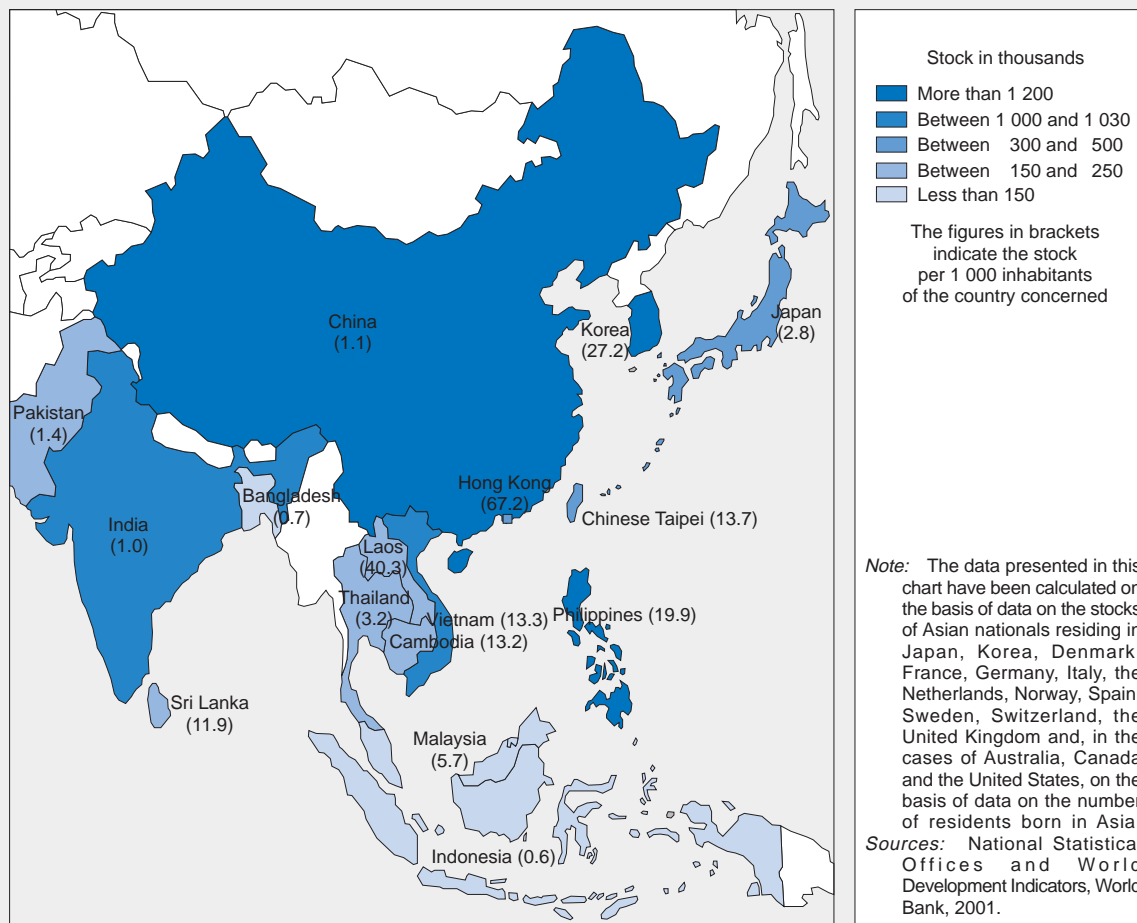
I. Recent developments in Asian migration to OECD countries¹

a) *Asian migration to OECD countries is following a rising trend and an increasing diversification in the categories of entries*

Asia has for some time been one of the chief sources of immigration towards the OECD area (see Map I.4). Recent migration movements from the region to OECD countries have been characterised by two clear trends: on the one hand, a strengthening of the traditional steady flows, and on the other, a widening of the range of destination countries, immigrant nationalities and the categories under which they enter.

Several OECD countries, in particular the United States, Canada, Australia, France and the United Kingdom, have for many years received flows of immigrants or refugees from Asia. In the case of the United Kingdom these are principally from the Indian sub-continent and are strongly linked to the country's colonial past. Similarly, the ex-French colonies supply large communities of immigrants from South-East Asian origin. Since the early 1960s, East and South-

Map I.4. Asia: main countries of origin of immigrants residing in OECD countries in 1999



East Asian migration flows to the United States, Canada and Australia has regularly increased, gradually supplanting the importance of those from Europe.

Immigration flows from Asia towards North America and Australia surpass those from Europe

From the early 1980s onwards, flows from Asia to the United States, Canada, Australia and several European countries began to intensify. In North America and in Australia, the increase in flows of Asian provenance has gone hand in hand with the reduction in the numbers of those coming from Europe. Emigration from Hong Kong (China) was an important initial source of this intensification: between 1984 and 1997, some 600 000 people left the province motivated largely by fear of Chinese rule. The majority took up residence in Canada, Australia and the United States.

In the years immediately prior to the handover in 1997, the figure fell reflecting that most of those who were worried about Hong Kong's political stability had already left; the smooth handover has had the effect of limiting further emigration.

In Australia, residents born in Asia accounted for less than 6% of the total foreign-born population in 1971; the corresponding figure for those born in Europe was 85%. Over the last fifteen years, the foreign population of Asian provenance (including the Middle East) has more than doubled, passing from close to 400 000 in 1981 to reach a figure of nearly one million in 1996. Although those of European origin continue to account for the majority of the foreign population (almost two thirds), those of Asian origin now account for just over a quarter of the total (see Table I.16). The increase in Asia's importance as

Table I.16. A. Stock of Asian nationals¹ in selected OECD countries in 1999

Thousands and percentages

	Japan ²		Denmark		France (1990)		Germany		Italy		Korea	
	Thousands	%	Thousands	%	Thousands	%	Thousands	%	Thousands	%	Thousands	%
Total foreigners	1 556.1	100.0	259.4	100.0	3 596.6	100.0	7 343.6	100.0	1 252.0	100.0	189.3	100.0
<i>of which:</i>												
Bangladesh	6.6	0.4	6.5	0.1	14.8	1.2	6.7	3.6
China	294.2	18.9	2.5	1.0	14.1	0.4	42.9	0.6	47.1	3.8	39.7	21.0
India	9.1	0.6	1.3	0.5	4.6	0.1	34.3	0.5	25.6	2.0
Indonesia	16.4	1.1	1.3	..	10.8	0.1	0.7	0.1	13.6	7.2
Malaysia	7.1	0.5	3.2	..	0.3
Korea	636.5	40.9	4.3	0.1	21.5	0.3	3.7	0.3
Pakistan	6.6	0.4	7.1	2.7	9.8	0.3	38.3	0.5	13.7	1.1	1.8	0.9
Philippines	115.7	7.4	2.1	0.8	1.9	0.1	24.7	0.3	61.0	4.9	10.8	5.7
Sri Lanka	4.9	1.9	10.3	0.3	55.1	0.8	29.9	2.4	2.2	1.2
Thailand	25.3	1.6	4.1	1.6	34.9	0.5	2.1	0.2	1.8	1.0
Vietnam	14.9	1.0	5.0	1.9	33.7	0.9	85.4	1.2	1.1	0.1	10.0	5.3
Total for the above 11 countries	1 132.3	72.8	27.0	8.8	80.0	2.2	357.6	4.9	199.9	16.0	86.8	45.8
	Netherlands		Norway		Spain		Sweden		Switzerland		United Kingdom	
	Thousands	%	Thousands	%	Thousands	%	Thousands	%	Thousands	%	Thousands	%
Total foreigners	651.5	100.0	178.7	100.0	801.3	100.0	487.2	100.0	1 368.7	100.0	2 342	100.0
<i>of which:</i>												
Bangladesh	0.3	0.1	1.1	0.2	0.5	..	55	2.3
China	8.2	1.3	1.3	0.7	24.7	3.1	4.2	0.9	5.9	0.4	22	0.9
India	3.2	0.5	2.2	1.2	8.5	1.1	1.6	0.3	5.4	0.4	153	6.5
Indonesia	8.7	1.3	0.4	0.1	1.1	0.1
Malaysia	1.1	0.2	0.7	0.1	0.9	0.1	22	0.9
Korea	1.1	0.2	0.5	0.1	1.1	0.1
Pakistan	2.9	0.4	7.4	4.1	0.8	0.2	1.7	0.1	94	4.0
Philippines	2.4	0.4	1.8	1.0	13.8	1.7	1.8	0.4	5.0	0.4	20	0.9
Sri Lanka	1.5	0.2	3.4	1.9	0.9	0.2	18.0	1.3	43	1.8
Thailand	2.5	0.4	5.5	1.1	5.1	0.4
Vietnam	1.5	0.2	2.5	1.4	2.6	0.5	4.8	0.4
Total for the above 11 countries	33.5	5.0	18.5	10.3	47.0	4.8	20.1	4.1	49.5	3.6	409	17.5

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

Thousands and percentages

	Australia (1999) ³		Canada (1996) ⁴		United States (1990) ⁴	
	Thousands	%	Thousands	%	Thousands	%
Total foreign-born	4 482.0	100.0	4 971.1	100.0	19 767.3	100.0
<i>of which:</i>						
China	156.8	3.5	231.1	4.6	529.8	2.7
Hong Kong (China)	62.0	1.4	241.1	4.8	147.1	0.7
India	100.7	2.2	235.9	4.7	450.4	2.3
Indonesia	65.8	1.5
Japan	290.1	1.5
Korea	40.2	0.9	568.4	2.9
Malaysia	94.8	2.1
Pakistan
Philippines	116.9	2.6	184.6	3.7	912.7	4.6
Sri Lanka	56.4	1.3
Chinese Taipei	49.3	1.0	244.1	1.2
Vietnam	175.2	3.9	139.3	2.8	543.3	2.7
Total for the above 12 countries	868.8	19.4	1 081.2	21.8	3 685.9	18.6

1. Data are from population registers (or registers of foreigners) except for France (census), Italy and Spain (residence permits) and the United Kingdom (Labour Force Survey).

2. Data for China include Chinese Taipei.

3. Estimates.

4. Census data.

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

a region of origin is brought into sharp relief by an examination of the composition of the inflows. Whereas in the 1982/83 fiscal year approximately 30% of the immigrants authorised to settle in Australia were Asian, by 1991/92 that figure had reached 50%. This upward trend was then moderated slightly by increased inflows from Central and Eastern Europe and the former Soviet Union; having fallen back to just over 32% in 1998/99, the proportion increased once more in 1999/00 to just under 34%.

Immigration from Asia has also increased in Canada: from 1993 to 1997, more than half of immigrant entries were from Asian countries; having dipped below that proportion in 1998 (a fall linked to the non-use of roughly 15 000 immigrant visas for investors) it rose above 50% once more in 1999. Between 1995 and 1998, the six most important source countries of new immigrants were Asian [China, Chinese Taipei, Hong Kong (China), India, Pakistan and the Philippines]; in 1999 they were joined by a seventh, Korea the inflows of whose nationals have more than doubled since 1996. The increasing importance of Asian countries, which has accompanied declines in the flows from Europe and the United States, has been such that whereas in 1981 the number of immigrants born in Asia (including the Middle East) stood at close to 540 000, *i.e.*, 14% of the total immigrant population, by the 1996 census they accounted for almost a third of the total; that proportion is certainly even higher now.

The same phenomenon – a decline in European migration and an increase in flows from Asia – is clearly in evidence in the United States. The immigrant population of Asian origin (including the Middle East) numbered approximately 7 million in March 2000, an increase of 40% on 1990 and almost three times the 1980 figure. Since 1992 Asia has consistently accounted for nearly one third of new immigrants. In 1998, five Asian countries (in decreasing order of importance, China, India, the Philippines, Vietnam and Korea) were among the top ten source countries for permanent immigrants.

The intensification of traditional flows from Asia is also apparent in the United Kingdom and, to a lesser degree, France. In the latter country, the proportion of Asian residents increased between the two censuses of 1982 and 1990 from 4 to 6% of the total foreign population. Cambodia, Vietnam and Laos are the principal sending countries. Over the same period, the number of Asians possessing French nationality doubled. As for the inflows by

nationality, in 1993 only Vietnam featured in the top ten countries of origin; though by 1995 Vietnam had diminished in importance but Japan was now also represented, as China has been since 1997. In the United Kingdom, despite the stabilisation of their inflows for settlement at historically modest levels (primarily under the category of family reunion), India and Pakistan are still the principal source countries of Asia followed by Sri Lanka. Indians continue to constitute the second largest foreign community after the Irish (see above Chart I.4). Noteworthy has been the steady rise in the inflow from mainland China; having been almost negligible in the mid-1980s the inflow places it at present just outside the top 15 source countries.

The diversification of Asian migration flows

Alongside the overall intensification of immigration flows from Asia, the trend of the origin countries' increasing diversification is confirming itself as is the enlargement in the range of receiving countries.

In the United States, since the late-1980s, immigration flows from Cambodia, Laos and Thailand have steadily declined. Flows from Chinese Taipei and Hong Kong (China) have experienced a similar trend since the early 1990s, while those from Burma, Indonesia and Malaysia have been stable at approximately 1 000 per year. Conversely, flows from Bangladesh, India and Pakistan have experienced strong variations on a rising trend. Through to 1993, the inflow from mainland China grew strongly to reach almost 66 000 persons. Since this time it has diminished somewhat though it remains the second most important source country after Mexico.

In Canada, accompanying the declining importance of flows from Hong Kong (China), the importance of China has been increasing steadily since the opening of an immigration office in Beijing in 1995. Moreover, Iran and, most recently, Korea have been gaining in importance; both countries were again in the top ten in 1999 (see above Chart I.4). In Australia, whilst in 1999/00 the numbers of new settlers of Vietnamese and of Hong Kong (China) origin were approximately one tenth of the numbers at the start of the decade, and those from the Philippines and from Chinese Taipei were about one half of the start-of-decade figure, that from China was almost twice as high making it the third most important source country after New Zealand and the United Kingdom. As for the stocks, the num-

ber of residents of Chinese origin more than doubled between 1990 and 1999 to reach over 155 000 (Table B.1.5 of the Statistical Annex), those of Filipino origin numbered 117 000 in 1999 (against 71 500 in 1990). Over the same period, the number of migrants from Vietnam showed a slower progression but remained in absolute value the most important, reaching nearly 176 000 in 1999. In the same year in Malaysia, immigrants of Indian origin, represented a figure approaching 100 000 while those originating from Indonesia, from Hong Kong (China) and from Macao were close to 60 000.

The evolution of recent Asian migration to OECD countries is also characterised by increased diversity in the means of entry. The desire on the part of Member countries to increase the number of qualified and highly qualified entrants, to reflect the policy of the United States, Canada and Australia to offer entry opportunities other than family reunion (such as employment-related permanent immigration as well as entry for temporary work or study) has contributed to this diversification. In the United States, according to the latest available data, Asians make up one-third of new immigrants, but they account for a much higher proportion of the skilled migrant entries. In the 1998 fiscal year they made up half of immigrants receiving employment-related visas, almost 80% of those admitted for investment purposes and nearly 70% of those who were admitted as workers with the required skills, holding at least a bachelor's degree. They dominate student admissions and are an important component of the temporary foreign worker inflow, especially that of HI-B visa professionals. Moreover, many of the students and temporary foreign workers are "immigrants in waiting" since many apply for immigrant status after a period in the United States. In Australia too, the main modes of intake of skilled employees are dominated by Asians: they currently comprise 41% of the skilled immigrant intake, 57 % of overseas student visas and 32 % of those admitted with temporary business visas.

At the other end of the labour market, in OECD Member countries a significant number of low skilled jobs have been created. Such jobs tend to be rejected by the native workforce, even by those who have limited skills. The context in Asia is such that it would be able to supply the demands created this end of the labour market too, if the formalities of entry into OECD Member countries were to be put in place. This explains in large part the increase in illegal immigration from Asia to OECD

countries; the rise in the illegal flows from mainland China being particularly perceptible. Most recently these flows appear to have been directed primarily (though by no means exclusively) towards Canada and the United States; there is strong evidence to suggest that a sizeable proportion of those illegally entering Canada are doing so with a view to crossing into the United States. The number of asylum applications lodged by Chinese citizens has been increasing across the OECD area and is a consequence of illegal immigration. Together with those from Afghanistan, Iraq and Sri Lanka, they account for a large proportion of the asylum requests currently being lodged in some OECD countries.

The diversification in migration flows of Asian provenance is also illustrated by the broadening of the range of destination countries. These now include a wider group of European countries. Intra-European migration, notably from Spain, Italy, Greece and Portugal, has declined since the 1970s, while flows from Asia have increased. Thus, Germany receives a large number of refugees from Indo-China (though lower than France and the United Kingdom). In 1999, of the 7.3 million foreigners residing in Germany, 85 400 were from Vietnam, 55 100 from Sri Lanka, 42 900 from China, 38 300 from Pakistan, 34 900 from Thailand and approximately the same number from India (see Table I.16). The 1980s saw an increase in the number of immigrants of Pakistani and Sri Lankan origin received by the Netherlands. In 1999, the Indonesians (despite the fact that most of them possess Dutch nationality) remained the largest Asian community, followed closely by the Chinese.

Asian migration to the Nordic countries, almost negligible until the 1970s, increased considerably during the second half of the 1980s, largely through requests for asylum. In Denmark, this immigration is primarily from Pakistan, Vietnam and Sri Lanka; in Finland, from Malaysia, India, Vietnam, China and Bangladesh. Immigration from Pakistan, Sri Lanka and Vietnam has also developed in Norway. In Sweden, immigration from Asia involves above all the Thai, the Vietnamese and the Chinese (see Table I.16).

In Southern Europe, Asian immigration is mainly from the Philippines and China. In Italy and Spain, these migration flows, essentially of females, are linked to the development of the domestic service and health-care sectors. In 1986, Italy had 65 000 foreign residents of Asian origin (including the Middle East). By 1999 this number had more than tripled and continues to increase. The most

numerous national groups of Asian origin, in decreasing order of size, were Filipinos (61 000), Chinese (47 100), Sri Lankans (29 900) and Indians (25 600). In Spain, the Chinese comprise the largest Asian community, followed by Filipinos and Indians.

Since the beginning of the 1980s, migration to Japan has increased significantly. Although non-Asian immigration has also grown in importance, migration movements to Japan are principally intra-regional. Indeed, an analysis of its 1999 immigration figures reveals that of the ten leading countries of origin, five were Asian (see above Chart I.4). Whereas in 1980, over three quarters of the foreigners settled in Japan were Korean, by the end of 1999 this proportion represented more than 40%. During the intervening period, the Chinese and Filipino communities in particular have developed; in all, Asians account for three quarters of the foreign population (a further 18% are South American, the overwhelming majority of whom of Japanese descent). Illegal immigration to Japan is also mostly from Asia (Korea, Thailand, China, the Philippines and Malaysia). In Korea, the number of registered foreign nationals has increased considerably since 1991, a development largely attributable to the normalisation of diplomatic relations with China. Notwithstanding, composed principally of Chinese, Taipei Chinese, Japanese, Filipino and Vietnamese nationals, the registered foreign population and the slightly smaller number of visa overstayers still accounted for less than 1% of the total population in 1999.

2. Trends in migration flows in Central and Eastern Europe²

Ten years after the political changes in Central and Eastern Europe, we can take stock of migration trends in the region. Analysing migration there is particularly relevant since a number of these countries will shortly be joining the European Union. They currently form a buffer zone on the margins of the EU, but will have a different role to play when EU borders shift eastwards. Analysis is complicated by the difficulty of collecting reliable data in countries undergoing far-reaching economic and administrative reforms, and also by the diversity of economic and social conditions in the region, including the countries of the former Yugoslavia and the NIS.

This diversity accounts to a considerable degree for the nature and scale of East-West move-

ments and those within and towards the region. The analysis brings out a number of trends with regard both to East-West movements and to the characteristics of flows within the zone. The political and economic changes in 1990 led to sizeable migration movements and to concerns over the possibility of large-scale population transfers. These concerns have not been realised. Although emigration flows continue, notably towards Western Europe, it would appear that the central and eastern European countries (CEECs) are becoming the theatre of much more complex movements than a straightforward westward flow towards the European Union and North America.

Initially, between 1990 and 1992 there were significant movements of ethnic minorities. The opening of the borders also gave rise to movements by asylum seekers, which peaked between 1992 and 1993. Lastly, temporary migration became more significant than permanent migration.

Within the region there is currently an increase in the transit flows of people coming from elsewhere and seeking to enter Western Europe, and an increase in the flows of temporary workers. Irregular flows are also substantial and represent a major challenge to countries in the region. Refugee movements, which had fallen back since the early 1990s, rose again with the Kosovo crisis. Finally, permanent immigration is increasing in most of the CEECs.

An overview of migration trends in Central and Eastern Europe will first illustrate the development of East-West migration flows since 1990. An attempt will then be made to analyse emigration and immigration flows, and the characteristics of intra-regional migration.

a) *Development of migration flows towards the European OECD countries, the United States, Canada and Australia since 1990*

Increase in East-West flows following the opening of the borders

Central and Eastern Europe has traditionally been an area of emigration. Border changes and successive economic crises have given rise, since the 19th century, to population movements towards Western Europe and North America. After the second world war, emigration movements persisted despite the very restrictive border controls.

The largest emigration flows during the 1980s were from Poland (with some 800 000 people leaving

the country, chiefly for Germany) and Romania (300 000 Romanians left, chiefly to Hungary and the United States). With the exception of inter-German migration, flows from other countries in the region were on a lesser scale. These movements largely concerned ethnic minorities: around 500 000 people of German ethnic origin (*Aussiedler*) and Hungarian minorities were involved here.

A number of countries in Western Europe and North America have been longstanding hosts for most of the communities of Central and Eastern Europe (see Table I.17). Links with established emigrant communities may accordingly explain the

direction, nature and size of the post-1989 East-West flows.

Shortly after the opening of the borders, East-West migration flows motivated by economic, political or ethnic reasons intensified (see Map I.5). Throughout the 1990s, flows of ethnic minorities into Western Europe largely went to Germany (around 620 000 *Aussiedler* from Poland, Russia and Romania), Turkey (over 100 000 Bulgarian nationals), Finland (around 20 000 persons of Finnish origin from Russia and Estonia since 1989) and Hungary (over 100 000 Hungarians from Romania, Slovakia, Ukraine and Voivodina since 1990).

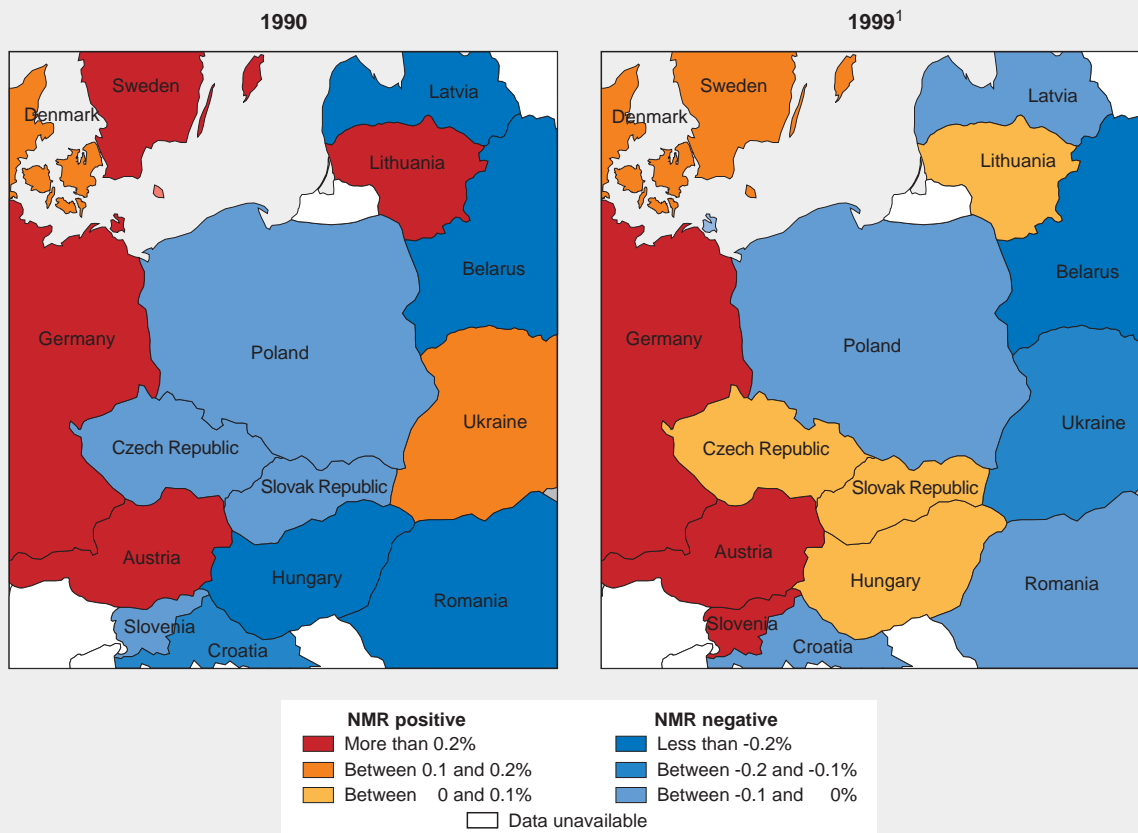
Table I.17. **Top five nationalities of citizens from Central and Eastern Europe in selected OECD countries, 1999**

Thousands

Foreign citizens from Central and Eastern Europe in some European OECD countries					
Austria (foreign workers)		Czech Republic		Germany	
Fed. Rep. of Yugoslavia	77.1	Ukraine	65.9	Fed. Rep. of Yugoslavia	737.2
Bosnia Herzegovina	34.2	Slovak Republic	40.4	Poland	291.7
Croatia	23.2	Poland	18.3	Croatia	214.0
Former Yug. Rep. of Macedonia	4.0	Russian Federation	16.9	Bosnia Herzegovina	167.7
		Bulgaria	5.0	Russian Federation	98.4
Total foreigners	239.1	Total foreigners	228.9	Total foreigners	7 343.6
<i>Above countries (% of total foreigners)</i>	57.9	<i>Above countries (% of total foreigners)</i>	64.0	<i>Above countries (% of total foreigners)</i>	20.5
Hungary		Italy		Netherlands	
Romania	48.6	Albania	115.8	Fed. Rep. of Yugoslavia	7.2
Russian Federation	3.8	Fed. Rep. of Yugoslavia	54.7	Bosnia Herzegovina	6.1
Poland	2.5	Romania	51.6	Poland	5.6
Ukraine	1.8	Poland	27.7	Russian Federation	3.3
Slovak Republic	1.3	Former Yug. Rep. of Macedonia	18.6	Croatia	1.6
Total foreigners	127.0	Total foreigners	1 252.0	Total foreigners	651.5
<i>Above countries (% of total foreigners)</i>	45.6	<i>Above countries (% of total foreigners)</i>	21.4	<i>Above countries (% of total foreigners)</i>	3.7
Sweden		Switzerland			
Bosnia Herzegovina	34.2	Fed. Rep. of Yugoslavia	193.7		
Fed. Rep. of Yugoslavia	22.7	Former Yug. Rep. of Macedonia	54.0		
Poland	16.3	Croatia	43.8		
Croatia	7.2	Bosnia Herzegovina	42.7		
Russian Federation	5.1	Russian Federation	5.4		
Total foreigners	487.2	Total foreigners	1 368.7		
<i>Above countries (% of total foreigners)</i>	17.5	<i>Above countries (% of total foreigners)</i>	24.8		
Immigrants born in Central and Eastern Europe in some OECD countries					
Australia		Canada (1996)		United States (1990)	
Former Yugoslavia	208.4	Poland	193.4	Former USSR	389.9
Poland	69.5	Former Yugoslavia	122.0	Poland	388.3
Former USSR	55.2	Former USSR	108.4	Former Yugoslavia	141.5
Hungary	26.6	Hungary	54.2	Hungary	110.3
		Former CSFR	41.2	Romania	91.1
Total foreign-born	4 482.1	Total foreign-born	4 971.1	Total foreign-born	19 767.3
<i>Above countries (% of total foreign-born)</i>	8.0	<i>Above countries (% of total foreign-born)</i>	10.4	<i>Above countries (% of total foreign-born)</i>	5.7

Sources: Austrian Labour Market Service; Census for Canada and the United States, residence permits for Italy and population registers for the other countries.

Map I.5. Net migration rate (NMR) in Central Europe and bordering countries, 1990 and 1999
Percentage of the total population



Note: The net migration rate is the volume of net migration as a proportion of the total population at the beginning of the year (%).

1. 1998 for Croatia and Ukraine.

Sources: *Recent demographic developments in Europe*, Council of Europe, and National Statistical Offices.

The flows of asylum seekers to all of Western Europe have not been insignificant, particularly to Germany, which since 1989 has recorded over 272 000 asylum applications from Romanians and 81 000 from Bulgarians. These flows were at the root of significant restrictions introduced into asylum law in most Western countries between 1993 and 1997 and led to the signature of readmission agreements between Western European countries and CEECs, with the latter accepting responsibility for readmitting their nationals apprehended attempting to cross Western borders.

Permanent employment of CEEC nationals in OECD Member countries did not increase significantly, except in Germany which takes in 3 000 contract workers and 40 000 temporary workers from

CEEC countries every year, under bilateral agreements. It should be noted that irregular immigration into EU countries has not declined, with a few nationalities being chiefly concerned (Romanians in Germany). Irregular immigration by nationals of Albania, the former Yugoslavia and the NIS is also substantial. In Portugal, for instance, significant numbers of Ukrainians and Moldavians were found to be working without papers in the construction sector.

Development of temporary labour emigration

As from 1993 onwards, permanent emigration by CEEC nationals fell back and temporary emigration came to the fore, chiefly on account of the restrictive policies applied in the main receiving countries.

Total entries of permanent immigrants from CEECs, as a percentage of total immigration flows, have fallen since 1991 in Denmark, France, the United Kingdom, the Netherlands and Sweden. The fall in emigration to OECD countries is very marked for Poles, Romanians and Bulgarians. The nature of emigration seems to be changing. Its chief feature is now short and frequent movements, with more frequent returns.

The number of refugees and asylum seekers originating from the CEECs has also declined, since the OECD Member countries now consider most of the CEECs to be "safe" countries, the citizens of which are not eligible, in principle, to lodge asylum requests. However, the number of migrants granted temporary resident status on humanitarian grounds increased across all Western countries on account of the conflict in the former Yugoslavia. In 1999 numerous refugees from the former Yugoslavia went to Germany, Switzerland, Austria, Norway and Canada. Many migrants from Kosovo returned home at the end of the conflict, to a greater degree than refugees from Bosnia Herzegovina after the Dayton Agreements of 1995, since the conflict was not so prolonged.

Whereas permanent emigration to OECD countries is declining, the temporary migration of workers is developing. Labour movements predominate, facilitated by the suspension of the requirement for a short-stay visa for nationals of some CEECs going to EU countries. In 1999 Poles were still the most numerous group working in Germany (nearly 200 000 seasonal workers). Many temporary jobs held by CEEC nationals are within the framework of intergovernmental agreements for seasonal work and subcontracted employment. In Italy, among seasonal workers, Czechs, Slovaks and Poles predominate; in Greece, Albanians and Bulgarians; in Finland, Russians and Estonians. As a rule, movements of temporary workers are fostered by regional proximity and regulated by bilateral agreements (principally between Germany and Poland, and between Austria on the one hand and Hungary and the Slovak and Czech Republics on the other).

Increasing presence of CEE nationals in OECD countries

Today, the majority of countries in Western Europe and North America, together with Australia, have in their population a significant number of immigrants from the CEECs and the countries to their South and East. Nationals of the former Yugoslavia, followed by Poles, are the most numer-

ous groups in Australia. In the United States, Poles are slightly outnumbered by nationals of the former Soviet Union, while in Canada the latter are only half as numerous as Poles (see Table I.17).

Among the European member countries of the OECD, Germany is the principal host country for nationals of the CEECs, the former Yugoslavia and the former Soviet Union. With a total of 1.8 million, they represented 25% of the resident foreign population in 1999. They are also very numerous in Austria (around 370 000, or nearly 70% of the resident foreign population), and to a lesser degree in Italy (over 295 000, or nearly 24% of the total). A very large number of nationals of the former Yugoslavia are resident in Western Europe (nearly 1.2 million in Germany, over 300 000 in Switzerland), as are the Poles (nearly 300 000 in Germany, over 50 000 in France).

Some CEECs are making estimates of the numbers of their nationals resident abroad, and are developing programmes to encourage the return of these groups, who may represent significant investment potential. Around 100 000 people of Hungarian nationality have been enumerated in the United States, 50 000 in Canada, and 30 000 in Australia.

The forthcoming accession of some CEECs to the European Union is raising concern over the future of westward migration flows

Five CEECs are currently candidates for the next stage of European Union enlargement in 2005: the Czech Republic, Estonia, Hungary, Poland and Slovenia. The other countries in the region will be included in subsequent waves of enlargement. Two points deserve attention in this respect.

First, as when Greece joined the European Community in 1981, and then Spain and Portugal in 1986, enlargement will have a marked effect on the stability and the economic growth of the candidate countries, which are already the most dynamic ones in the region. They are accordingly becoming very attractive to migration from adjoining countries to the South and East (see below) and need to align their policies to regulate flows with those in force in the European Union, and more particularly the Schengen area.

Second, recent discussions on enlargement among current EU members show that a number of them are apprehensive about inflows of CEEC workers after enlargement, under the principle of free movement. Accordingly, the accession treaties for the countries in the first wave are likely to include a

transitional clause meaning that workers from CEEC countries cannot freely enter the labour market throughout the Union. Some estimates, however, indicate that the countries joining the European Union may well experience return movements by their nationals resident in the West. Net East-West flows could accordingly be smaller, or indeed reverse, after the CEECs join the European Union (see Box I.8).

b) Main characteristics of inflows and outflows in the CEECs

Since 1990, migration trends in the region differ considerably. Some countries have chiefly experi-

enced outflows since 1989 (Poland, Romania, Bulgaria, the former Yugoslavia, the former Soviet Union, Albania). Elsewhere (the Czech Republic, Hungary, Lithuania), emigration has fallen back considerably and the predominant trend is for permanent immigration. But some trends do seem to apply across the area, particularly “transit” migration.

Emigration flows no longer concern the whole area

Permanent outflows are trending downwards. The main areas of departure are the former Soviet Union, Romania, Poland, the former Yugoslavia, Albania and Bulgaria. While flows from Poland have stabilised over the last few years at around 20 000 a

Box I.8. EU enlargement and research on its impact on flows of CEE workers

In 1993 the Copenhagen European Council agreed on the principles of enlarging the European Union, in particular to a number of central and eastern European countries (CEECs). In 1998 negotiations were launched with the five most economically advanced countries (Poland, the Czech Republic, Hungary, Estonia and Slovenia – the Luxembourg Group) and in February 2000 with a further five (Bulgaria, Lithuania, Latvia, Romania, the Slovak Republic – the Helsinki Group). An initial wave of accessions may accordingly take place in 2005, and a second as from 2007.

Enlargement raises some apprehension in EU Member countries such as Germany and Austria, which fear large-scale inflows of workers from the CEECs under the principle of free movement. In June 2001 the European Commission signed agreements with three candidate countries (Hungary, the Slovak Republic, Latvia) which precluded free access to the labour market of EU countries for a maximum period of seven years after accession. The negotiation of similar treaties is under way with the other countries, but they are reluctant to see their nationals being treated as “second-class citizens”. Recent research to assess the impact of EU enlargement on worker migration all concludes, however, that East-West flows will not have a major impact on the labour markets of the current fifteen EU countries, and that over the long term they could dwindle or possibly reverse.

The report for the European Commission, published by the European Integration Consortium,¹ employs variables such as income differentials and unemployment rates in host and departure countries, etc. The research is based on a number of assumptions, including per capita GDP convergence of 2% a year between East and West, and no change in unemployment rates in the EU and the CEECs. The findings suggest that the groups of CEEC nationals will increase substantially in most of the countries concerned, but the increase will be spread over a number of years. Were accession to take place today, around 335 000 additional people would settle in the fifteen-country EU, with the numbers falling in subsequent years. According to these estimates, in 30 years’ time the population of CEEC origin would represent no more than 3.5% of the population of the European Union. Another research paper estimates the flows at between 267 000 and 336 000 a year.² Assuming accession by Hungary, Poland and the Czech Republic in 2005, the Austrian research institute WIFO³ forecasts that the number of migrants from those three countries would be 144 000 in that year and then fall off.

The immigration of workers from the CEECs would have different effects on individual EU countries and for different categories of labour. According to the European Integration Consortium, immigration is expected to go chiefly to Germany (65%) and Austria (12%). In addition, the inflows would not raise competition for most workers apart from the unskilled, who could be affected both by lower remuneration and by higher unemployment.

1. Boeri, T., Brücker, H. and others: *The Impact of Eastern European Enlargement on Employment and Labour Markets in the EU Member States*, DIW, CEPR, FIEF, IGIER, HIS, Berlin and Milan, 2001.

2. Hille, H. and Straubhaar, T.: *The impact of EU enlargement on migration movements and economic integration: results of recent studies*, in Migration Policies and EU Enlargement, Paris: OECD, 2001.

3. Breuss, F.: *Macroeconomic Effects of EU Enlargement for Old and New Members*, WIFO Working Papers, No. 143, April 2001.

year, the total number of “permanent” emigrants from Romania has fallen steadily over recent years (with the exception of irregular movements). The figure in 1999 was 12 500, barely 15% of the 1990 level. This downward trend in emigration is also found in Estonia and Latvia, where the migration balance, still negative, is some 4% of the 1992 level. In 1999 Lithuania had a positive migration balance.

In other countries in the region, not covered in detail in this report, notably Albania and the countries of the former Yugoslavia and the former Soviet Union, emigration is still substantial. In 1999 37 000 arrivals of Albanian nationals were reported in Italy (over three times more than in 1998), and around 2 000 Russians in Finland. In the same year, the largest groups of immigrants to Germany were nationals of the former Yugoslavia (nearly 88 000) and Poland (around 72 000). Fresh destinations for employment-related migration are appearing, including Italy, Portugal and Ireland. The latter saw a ninefold increase in entries of CEEC workers between 1998 and 2000, although the numbers involved are still relatively small (2 400).

Trend towards longer-term immigration in the CEECs

A trend towards longer-term immigration can be observed in most countries in the region, but few of them as yet have a positive migration balance. Immigration to the CEECs comes largely from adjoining countries; at the same time, inflows from Western Europe and more distant areas are also developing.

A number of factors have assisted entries and residence by new migrants in the central and eastern European countries. As part of the reforms during the 1990s, they amended their nationality legislation, in particular allowing expatriates who had been stripped of nationality to recover it. A further stage was the introduction of short and long-term residence permits for foreigners, signature of the Geneva Convention on Refugees, and abolition of the requirement for short-stay entry visas for nationals of most OECD countries.

The scale of the immigration which is developing in most CEECs varies from one country to another. In Hungary, over 15 000 foreigners had settled on a lasting basis in 1999. In the Czech Republic and Poland permanent entries include returning nationals and in 1999 stood at 9 900 and 7 500 respectively. In Hungary and the Czech Republic the stocks of permanent and long-term residents stood

at 127 000 and 229 000 respectively in the last year for which data are available (see Table I.18). In Bulgaria a little over 63 600 people held long-term residence permits in 1999, and some 39 000 held permanent residence permits. The proportion of foreign residents in the CEECs is, however, generally less than 2% of the total population (0.1% for Poland, 2% for the Czech Republic).

In 1999, inflows into Central and Eastern Europe were largely from adjoining countries. In Hungary, for example, 6 000 Romanians, followed by 1 700 nationals of the former Yugoslavia, outstripped the 1 000 or so Chinese settled there permanently. Vietnamese and Chinese are found in a number of countries (24 900 Vietnamese residents, and 4 300 Chinese, in the Czech Republic), with the Vietnamese dating from before 1990 and the latter arriving more recently. Nationals of Western Europe (chiefly Germany, France, the United Kingdom and Italy) and the United States are also present, usually holding skilled or highly skilled jobs. The Czech Republic, for instance, in 1999 had 6 100 Germans and 3 800 Americans; in Romania, Italians (4 600) and Germans (2 700) were most strongly represented. The proportion of EU nationals is over 11% in Hungary, and close to 15% in Poland and 18% in Bulgaria. In the first two countries, CEEC nationals take a predominant share of permanent immigration.

Persistence of transit migration to Western Europe

For many migrants seeking to enter Western Europe or North America, the CEECs constitute a stage on their journey. Most of these migrants are documented, having entered as tourists or as businessmen or students. Due to their common border with Germany, the countries most affected by this are Poland and the Czech Republic. Hungary is also a transit country, on account of its borders with Austria. Bulgaria is a transit country for migrants seeking to enter Greece, as well as those seeking to reach other parts of Western Europe.

Transit migration encourages the development of illegal immigration and undocumented employment in a number of the CEECs. The migrants come from neighbouring countries such as Turkey, Albania or the former Yugoslavia, but also from Asia (Bangladesh, India, Afghanistan, Iran, Iraq). In 1999 Hungary reported some 11 000 attempts to leave the country illegally, chiefly in the direction of Austria and the Slovak Republic, and 4 000 attempts to enter illegally, demonstrating the difficulty of entering

Table I.18. **Foreigners residing in some central and eastern European countries, by major nationality, latest available year**

	Bulgaria (1999)			Czech Republic (1999)			Hungary (1999)	
	Thousands	%		Thousands	%		Thousands	%
CIS	35.2	34.4	Ukraine	65.9	28.8	Romania	48.6	38.2
EU	18.4	18.0	Slovak Republic	40.4	17.6	Former Yugoslavia	15.3	12.0
Europe (other)	10.7	10.5	Vietnam	24.8	10.8	Germany	8.5	6.7
Middle East	10.3	10.0	Poland	18.3	8.0	China	7.7	6.0
Asia	6.2	6.1	Russian Federation	16.9	7.4	Ukraine	7.6	6.0
Africa	6.0	5.9	Fed. Rep. of Yugoslavia	4.1	1.8	Russian Federation	3.8	3.0
America	3.4	3.4	Bulgaria	5.0	2.2	Poland	2.5	2.0
Central Europe	2.5	2.5	Germany	6.1	2.7	Vietnam	2.2	1.7
Australia	0.1	0.1	China	4.3	1.9	Slovak Republic	1.3	1.0
			United States	3.8	1.7	Greece	1.0	0.8
Others	9.4	9.2	Others	39.2	17.1	Others	34.5	27.1
Total	102.3	100.0	Total	228.9	100.0	Total	127.0	100.0
% of total population		1.2	% of total population		2.2	% of total population		1.3
	Poland (1999)			Romania (1999)			Slovak Republic (1997)	
	Thousands	%		Thousands	%		Thousands	%
Ukraine	7.0	16.4	Republic of Moldova	6.9	11.1	Czech Republic	5.8	23.3
Russian Federation	4.4	10.4	China	6.7	10.9	Ukraine	3.5	14.1
Vietnam	3.3	7.6	Turkey	5.2	8.4	Poland	2.8	11.3
Belarus	2.3	5.4	Greece	5.1	8.3	Former Yugoslavia	2.0	8.2
Germany	1.9	4.5	Italy	4.6	7.4			
Fed. Rep. of Yugoslavia	1.6	3.8	Syria	3.4	5.4			
United States	1.4	3.2						
Armenia	1.3	3.1						
Bulgaria	1.2	2.8						
France	0.8	2.0						
Others	17.5	40.9	Others	30.0	48.5	Others	10.7	43.1
Total	42.8	100.0	Total	61.9	100.0	Total	24.8	100.0
% of total population		0.1	% of total population		0.3	% of total population		0.5

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

Western Europe. Measures for bilateral co-operation with Western European countries have been taken to regulate movements more effectively.

c) Trends in intra-regional migration

One of the characteristics of migration movements in Eastern Europe is the persistence of significant intra-regional flows. Some trends stem from the liberalisation of trade in 1990 and border readjustments (movements of ethnic minorities), while others highlight the economic dimension of migration flows within the region (movements of labour, irregular flows).

Reduction in movements by ethnic minorities

As in the case of East-West migration flows, those within the CEECs, brought about by the open-

ing of the borders in 1990, were initially composed of persons with family links with the host country and movements of ethnic minorities, largely Hungarian (originating from Romania and the Slovak Republic), Polish (from Ukraine, Kazakhstan and Siberia), and Bulgarian (from the former Soviet Union). The readjustment of the borders in the region (in the former Yugoslavia, CSFR and Soviet Union) also led to population movements. The split of the Czech and Slovak Republics in 1993 led to substantial exchanges (around 20 000 people entered the Czech Republic from the new Slovak Republic between 1994 and 1999, and 8 000 moved in the other direction). Emigration of Russian nationals continues to be observed today in the Baltic countries.

Hungary reports an increase in flows of Hungarian ethnic minorities. The flows reached a high level

in 1999, particularly for people from Romania and the Ukraine. The increase may be explained by the apprehension that Hungary will shortly introduce the admission rules applied in the EU, which are highly restrictive for Romanian and Ukrainian nationals.

Gypsy minorities are present in most countries in the region, and flows both to Western Europe and within Central Europe were very substantial once borders opened; they have since fallen considerably overall. At the same time, countries such as Finland saw numbers of gypsy migrants rise in 1999 (1 500 from Slovakia and 300 from Poland). A number of countries (the Czech Republic, the Slovak Republic, Bulgaria, Hungary) are conducting active programmes to integrate Gypsies socially and economically, often with funding under programmes by the European Union (PHARE) and/or the Council of Europe, which may, over the long term, mean that they become sedentary. But Gypsies are frequently marginalised and their living conditions deplorable. They often live on the edges of larger towns (Romania, Hungary, Bulgaria, the Federal Republic of Yugoslavia, the Czech Republic) or in villages entirely inhabited by Gypsies (Bulgaria, Romania)³. In the majority of cases, Gypsies have a level of education much lower than the rest of the population and are more vulnerable to unemployment. A degree of rejection by the rest of the population renders the success of active policies targeted towards this group more difficult. As a result, these minorities are still much inclined to emigrate.

Temporary labour migration

- Trends in labour migration flows

The existence of free-trade areas has an important effect on emigration. The data available show a slight increase in labour migration due to the implementation in the member States of the Central European Free Trade Area (CEFTA),⁴ since economic co-operation between countries in transition favours such migration. The available information points to a significant increase in the temporary employment of foreign labour, particularly in the business categories. In those countries which have experienced the highest growth rates in recent years, the number of work permits issued to foreigners each year is substantial.

In Hungary, the number of newly issued work permits has continued to rise since 1996, to reach

nearly 30 000 in 1999. In Poland around 20 000 permits are issued each year. In the Czech Republic, after peaking in 1995-96, the temporary immigration of foreign workers has declined continually due to the deterioration in the labour market situation. Immigration by business people has tended to increase since 1996, however. Unlike these three countries, Romania and Bulgaria attract fewer foreign workers, but numbers are increasing there as well.

Combating illegal employment is a priority for governments. The CEECs are introducing increasingly strict arrangements. These include penalties for employers illegally recruiting foreigners (the Czech Republic, Poland, Hungary, Latvia) and inspections by the Labour and Interior Ministries (the Czech Republic, Poland). In some countries the informal sector accounts for approximately 30% of GDP (Hungary), and the participation of foreigners in this sector is understood to be important. In Poland, according to estimates by the country's Ministry of Labour, between 100 000 and 150 000 undocumented foreigners are thought to be working every year in the construction sector.

- Origins of foreign labour

The available statistics on the numbers of foreign workers show that in the CEECs immigrants from adjoining countries are most numerous, although the number of EU nationals and people from other countries is rising steadily. In the Czech Republic, in addition to the Slovak workers who are permitted free access to the labour market, there are sizeable numbers of Ukrainians and Poles (41 300 foreigners held work permits in 1999 and around 53 200 Slovaks had jobs). In Hungary work permits are generally granted for those sectors experiencing labour shortages or to persons with particular expertise or specific experience. Most foreign workers come from the NIS (2 300) and Romania (10 600).

A number of people from Asia and the Middle East have settled on a long-term basis in the region. Chinese and Vietnamese are prominent in catering and retailing in Poland and the Czech Republic. Numerous nationals of Turkey and Middle Eastern countries settled in 1999 in Romania (Turkey 5 200, Syria 3 300, Iran 2 000 and Iraq 2 000) and in Bulgaria (a total of over 10 000 permanent and long-term residents).

The numbers of EU nationals are not large, but are on the increase (nearly 15% of foreigners with

work permits in Hungary). A fairly large group of Western Europeans working in Hungary consist of senior managers in foreign firms who, under the current regulations, do not require work permits. In Poland, EU nationals mostly hold skilled jobs: while the British predominate in education, most nationalities are broadly represented among executives in foreign firms.

Conclusion

At the conclusion of this overview of migration flows in Central and Eastern Europe, a number of trends emerge. First of all, East-West migration flows persist but inflows into most CEECs have increased and diversified. Most of these countries are becoming a prime destination for migrants from the East and South (the NIS and the former Yugoslavia).

It is still too early to say that flows in the region have become globalised. Apart from the Czech Republic and Hungary, which stand out as new host countries for foreigners from more distant regions, immigration is usually from Western Europe and from adjoining countries. The migration balances in Albania, Bulgaria, Poland, Romania, the Baltic countries, the NIS and the former Yugoslavia are still negative, although the number of foreigners settling there is trending upwards.

More generally, we cannot limit the study to permanent and long-term movements because this group of countries is defined less as an area of settlement than as an area of transit, trade and economic activity. It would appear that very short-term, indeed "pendular", migration is quite common in a number of countries and that cultural and historical ties make short-term cross-border movements "natural". These factors demonstrate how important it is for governments in the region to clarify and harmonise the status of the resident foreign population and foreign migrant workers, which would make it easier to regulate flows. Such reforms are also required for their accession to the European Union.⁵

D. AN OVERVIEW OF MIGRATION POLICIES⁶

Migration policies of OECD Member countries can be divided into four sections. The first consists of measures adopted at national and international level to strengthen the control of flows, including those of asylum seekers. The second category concerns the fight against irregular migration and the illegal employment of foreign workers. The third category covers all measures that aim to ensure a bet-

ter integration of migrants in the host country. The last category concerns co-operation at international level in the area of migration.

I. Policies for regulating and controlling flows

a) *New laws concerning immigration*

Several OECD Member countries have recently modified their legislation and implemented new provisions governing the entry, residence and employment of foreigners. While some reforms have led to improvements in the status of foreigners already settled in the host country, most of them have been aimed essentially at tightening border controls, simplifying and speeding up the procedure for examining asylum applications, as well as amending the conditions for entry, residence and employment.

In November 2000, the Spanish Parliament passed Spain's new Immigration Act after the first reading of the Bill. In many areas, it is much more restrictive than the previous Act, which came into force in January 2000. The new Act provides for the immediate expulsion of foreigners resident in Spain illegally, while the previous legislation had simply introduced a system of fines. Permanent residence permits can now be obtained only after five years residing and working in Spain, instead of two under the previous legislation. There are now three criteria for entry into Spain: the possession of valid identity papers, proof of sufficient means of support for the duration of the stay and proof of the purpose and conditions of stay. Except in special circumstances, the government will no longer be required to explicitly state or justify the reasons for refusing to grant an entry visa. What is more, the text restricts to legal residents only, some of the constitutional rights that had formerly been granted to all foreigners under the January 2000 Act, such as the right to work, the right to strike and join unions and the right of association and demonstration. Lastly, foreigners have the right to vote in municipal elections in Spain only if Spanish nationals are accorded reciprocal rights in the foreigner's country of origin.

In Portugal, a new Immigration and Foreigners' Work Act was adopted by Parliament in July 2000. It alters the process for granting visas and creates categories of people who cannot be expelled (people born in Portugal and habitually residing there, people who have resided in Portugal since the age of ten, and the parents of minors). This Act also creates

a new residence permit, valid for one year and renewable for up to five years. It is linked to the performance of paid employment and may be granted to undocumented foreigners who can provide proof of a contract of employment. In practice, this measure facilitates the regularisation of a large number of foreign workers employed in the construction sector, where there is a heavy reliance on this workforce. A report published in August 2001 and prepared at the request of the Government by the Institute for Employment and Professional Training, forecasts that Portugal will probably require approximately 20 000 additional immigrant workers by the end of 2001, notably in the domain of agriculture, the construction sector and cleaning services as well as in hotel and catering. A similar report will be published annually which should allow an estimation of foreign labour requirements in order to assist the Government in distributing new residence and work permits to foreigners.

A new Act came into force in the Netherlands in the first half of 2001. It focuses mainly on asylum policy; in particular it provides for asylum application procedures to be simplified and shortened, and introduces new conditions for the granting of refugee status and related rights. The Act also establishes new rules relating to residence permits, as well as the control and expulsion of undocumented foreigners. However, it remits to secondary legislation the circumstances under which a foreigner may obtain an ordinary permit for the purposes of employment, study, occupation as an *au pair*, and for the reason of family reunion. After five years' residence in the Netherlands on a fixed-term permit, a foreigner may obtain an ordinary residence permit as long as, *inter alia*, he/she has sufficient means of subsistence. Lastly, the Act makes changes to the system whereby asylum seekers may enter the labour market. Three types of work permit are introduced for this category of foreigner: for a work period of indefinite length, for a fixed period, and a temporary permit. These permits grant the holders different rights.

In September 2000, the German Ministry of the Interior set up a Cross-party Committee with the task of formulating proposals regarding the legislative framework surrounding immigration and bringing it into line with the needs of the German economy. The project (the Süßmuth Report) was submitted in August 2001 and contains proposals that could give rise to a new law on immigration in 2002 and which have sparked off an intense debate in Germany. The

proposals concern, on one hand, the immigration of foreign workers, which would be facilitated in the case of skilled workers with good knowledge of German and whose skills match the needs of the German economy – as assessed by a future Federal Office. Such workers would be awarded a permanent residence permit. An annual immigration quota for employment is the subject of a debate in the framework of this same project. This quota of approximately 50 000 people would not affect solely highly qualified workers selected on the basis of the points system. Inversely, residence of asylum seekers could initially be limited to a duration of three months and the entry of children for family reunion would be reserved exclusively to children under 12 years, against 16 years at the present time (although this measure does not concern, on the one hand, children over 12 years possessing a good knowledge of German, and on the other hand, highly qualified workers and their families whose children could join them in Germany on the condition that they under 18 years old).

In Greece, the government approved a new bill on immigration in November 2000. The bill delegates to local Prefectures the Ministry of Public Order's authority to issue residence permits. Under the new bill, residence permits will be issued for a period of 12 months, and have to be renewed six times before they can be issued for two years. A foreigner will only be able to obtain a permanent residence permit after ten years' residence in Greece. The bill also states that, before applying for a work permit on behalf of a foreigner, all employers must check that no available person in the local resident workforce, whether Greek or of foreign origin, matches the vacancy. The new bill introduces stringent measures against anyone giving aid or assistance to undocumented foreigners or employing them. Further, a foreigner may only be naturalised after 10 years' legal residence during the 12 years prior to lodging the application, and must pay 1 470 EUR. Lastly, the bill compels the public health services to report any undocumented person except in a case of emergency or of deteriorating health; it also removes the right of children of undocumented foreigners to attend state schools. Family reunion for spouse and children is subject to relatively strict conditions and almost exclusively reserved to "green card" holders. Asylum seekers, who have obtained humanitarian or political refugee status, may benefit from family reunion. There are no restrictions on family reunion on immigrants of Greek origin.

In Switzerland, the seven bilateral free trade agreements signed with the European Community

and its Member States, including the agreement on freedom of movement, were approved by referendum in May 2000. The agreement on the freedom of movement largely mirrors the provisions as defined by the Treaty on the European Community. Transitional periods have been fixed with regard to non-discriminatory access to the labour market. Application of the agreement's provisions as they affect nationals of EFTA member states is being examined. The Government also agreed to remove, during the summer of 2000, visa requirements for any foreigner holding a Schengen visa or a permanent residence permit from a member State of the European Union, EFTA, Canada or the United States.

A new Foreigners' Act drawn up during 2000 has reached the consultation stage. It focuses on nationals of third countries and on national of countries of the European Union at a subsidiary level, in situations that are not covered by the bilateral agreement on the freedom of movement. The bill allows labour market access to skilled migrants, and on the basis of annual quotas. The Act also provides for improvements in the legal status of foreigners, particularly insofar as it reduces obstacles linked to changing profession, company or canton, and grants the right to family reunion to all those in possession of a residence permit.

The Australian Government has created a temporary protection visa for migrants in an irregular situation who may acquire refugee status. It has also attached particular attention to border controls and the fight against human trafficking, in establishing a series of measures which permit the inspection and blockage of vessels beyond its territorial waters should there be suspicion of human trafficking or which would prevent anyone seeking asylum if he/she is also the beneficiary of such a protection in another country. A new sponsored visitor visa class for family and business visitors, which leaves open to the decision maker the option of requesting a security bond in respect of the visitor, was introduced on 1 July 2000. Australia has decided to restrict the rights of New Zealand residents to social benefits, particularly by imposing on them stricter conditions for entry into the country: the right to reside in Australia is no longer automatic. New Zealand nationals must now meet the same conditions as all other migrants to qualify for social benefits.

In February 2001, the Minister of Citizenship and Immigration tabled new legislation in the House of Commons. The legislative changes proposed in the new Immigration and Refugee Protection Act

reintroduces severe penalties for people smugglers and traffickers, speeds up family reunification and maintains Canada's humanitarian tradition of providing safe haven to people in need of protection. Another Act recognising the rights and duties of cohabiting couples was enacted in 2000. It establishes the right of residence for a foreign national who is the partner of a Canadian national. The possibility of creating a system for selecting skilled workers, focusing on the ability of immigrants to work in an information economy is under review.

In Hungary, Poland, and the Czech and Slovak Republics, as well as in Bulgaria and Romania, legislation on residence and work of foreigners is the subject of an important revision intended to align existing measures with those presently applicable in the European Union. The modifications are principally concerned with entry and residence of foreigners (including asylum seekers and refugees), citizenship, the fight against illegal employment of foreigners and the signature of international agreements on readmission. In the Czech Republic, a new Foreigners' Residence Act came into force on 1 January 2000. It introduced new permanent and temporary residence permits, including permanent stay with no visa, with a short-term (maximum 90 days) visa, and with a long-term visa. A temporary protection system and a visa granting an exceptional leave to remain have also been created. Lastly, the Act states that visas are mandatory for nationals of several CIS Republics including Russia, Ukraine, Belarus, Kazakhstan, Kirgizstan, Turkmenistan and Moldavia, as well as for Cuban nationals. In Hungary, visa requirements for Moldavia, Belarus and Russia have been introduced in 2001. Similar measures have already been adopted for the countries of Central Asia and the Caucasus.

In the case of the Baltic States, Estonia introduced in September 2000 a mandatory visa scheme in respect of Russian nationals with a view to bringing its own legislation in line with that of member States of the European Union. This new scheme ends the simplified system previously available to Russian inhabitants of the bordering region. Lithuania, too, must adopt similar measures, particularly in respect of Belarussian, Russian and Bulgarian nationals.

b) Legislation aimed at dissuading false asylum seekers

Several OECD Member countries, including Ireland and the United Kingdom have, for over a

year, been experiencing a sharp rise in asylum applications; in 2000, the United Kingdom became the main destination European country for asylum seekers. In response to this the authorities have implemented a series of measures aimed at discouraging unfounded applications. In April 2000, a system of assistance in kind based on the distribution of vouchers was introduced, which replaced the previous regime of financial assistance. This system, which was designed to reduce fraud, is still very controversial, and is expected to be slackened. The government has also removed from asylum applicants the right to choose where they live; they are instead placed across the country.

The number of applications rejected in the first instance is rising sharply, mainly because of legal irregularities; the number of appeals against rejections is also rising as a result: almost 8 000 appeals were lodged in September 2000, that is to say eight times more than in January 2000. In November 2000, the government announced the introduction of a new strategy for integrating refugees. It will have a budget of GBP 1.5 m.

Ireland has also had to deal with a sharp increase in asylum applications. A new law on refugees came into force in November 2000. Most notably, this law introduces a control system involving the use of fingerprints, and accords additional authority to the police as part of the fight against the trafficking of asylum seekers.

In Finland, amendments to the Foreigners' Act designed to accelerate the examination of unfounded asylum applications came into force on 10 July 2000. This measure is mainly aimed at reducing the number of Gypsies entering the country: in 1999 they accounted for approximately one third of asylum applicants. In Norway, the Immigration Directorate is now responsible for interviewing asylum seekers; they had previously been conducted by police officers. From 1 January 2001 onwards, appeals against negative decisions will have to be addressed to a newly created Immigration Appeals Board.

In Poland, amendments to the 1997 Foreigners' Act, which are currently under review by Parliament, provide notably for the introduction of a system of temporary social protection, an accelerated procedure for examining manifestly fraudulent asylum applications, and a change in legal procedures for dealing with foreigners in custody. A new Refugees and Asylum Seekers' Act, providing in particular for

accelerated procedures, and dealing with matters relating to manifestly fraudulent applications and unaccompanied minors, came into force in Lithuania in September 2000. New laws are also in the process of being adopted in Estonia and Latvia.

2. Reinforcement of legislation concerning the fight against irregular migration and illegal employment of foreigners

a) Combating irregular migration

In May 2000, following the signature of a similar agreement with Belgium, the United Kingdom and France initialled an agreement providing for joint action to prevent illegal immigration to the United Kingdom via the Eurostar train service. Drivers of vehicles will be held personally responsible if discovered trying to pass illegal immigrants into the United Kingdom. The imposition on lorry drivers of a non-criminal penalty of GBP 2 000 was introduced for each illegal entrant to the United Kingdom discovered in their vehicle.

In Japan, several amendments to the Immigration Act came into force in February 2000. Re-entry refusal was extended from one year to five years for overstayers who had illegally entered the territory.

New sanctions aimed at the employers of undocumented foreigners (two years in prison or fines up to AUD 66 000) are to be introduced by the Australian government in 2001.

In 1999 Austria reinforced legislation on legal action against smugglers of human cargo and multiplied border controls. As a consequence, the number of illegal entrants rejected at Austrian borders has declined (8 600 in the first half of 2000 compared with 9 800 during the same period one year earlier).

Among the changes in legislation proposed in February 2001 in the revision of the law on immigration and the protection of refugees, Canada had reintroduced severe penalties for people smugglers and traffickers.

In order to fight against the passage of illegal immigrants through its territory towards countries of the European Union, Estonia had set up in September 2000, a unilateral visa system which requires delivery of all necessary identity papers in order to cross the Russian-Estonian border. This measure puts an end to the more simplified system from which those living close to this border had previously benefited. The Lithuanian Minister of the Interior, after having set up the Centre for Registra-

tion of Foreigners in Pabrade, where all foreigners found to be in an irregular situation are held, had voted in 1998 a law relating to the expulsion of foreigners in an irregular situation. Since this time, there has been a reorganisation of the border police and its personnel have been redeployed in order to reinforce controls at the border with Belarus. Finally, the penal code has been amended to enable a maximum term of 15 years imprisonment for the smuggling of immigrants.

Due to her large areas of land and coastal borders, the Greek Government views the fight against illegal entries as a high priority. In 1999, almost 20 000 foreigners had been expelled following an administrative decision (8 000 more than in 1998); the majority of which originated from the Balkan countries. Over the past five years, more than one million Albanians were also turned back at the border.

In Hungary, sanctions for employers employing illegal foreign labour have been recently reinforced but the severest penalties fall on the workers. If a foreigner is apprehended at his workplace without a valid work permit, he may be banished from Hungarian territory for a period of one to five years. The fine payable by the employer is five times the minimum wage. A work permit is necessary for the majority of jobs carried out by foreign workers. A work permit can only be delivered if there is no Hungarian available on the local labour market having the necessary qualifications demanded by the position. An employer must register a vacancy sixty days prior to the start of the contract (30 days in the case of seasonal or occasional employment). In Romania, the hiring of a foreigner without a work permit exposes the employer to a fine of 250 to 500 dollars.

Turkey is preparing new legal arrangements for work and residence permits. The aim of the intended legislation is combating illegal employment. Employers who hire illegal immigrant labour can be penalised (up to 2.5 billion Turkish Liras) as well as the illegal workers themselves (up to 500 million Turkish Liras).

Trafficking of migrants was also addressed in the last US Congress. The Victims of Trafficking and Violence Protection Act, signed into law in November 2000, created 5 000 new "T" non-immigrant visas annually for women and children who have been victims of "severe trafficking." An additional 10 000 new "U" non-immigrant visas were created for aliens who have suffered physical or mental abuse

as victims of crimes such as rape, domestic violence and involuntary servitude. In February 2001, US President George Bush and Mexican President Vicente Fox met and pledged to engage in high-level negotiations to constructively address migration and labour issues between our two countries.

Italy has reinforced repressive measures to combat illegal immigration and the human trafficking. Between 1998 and 1999, the number of expulsions (escorted to the border and expelled) have almost tripled, passing from 9 000 to 25 000. A bill drafted in August 2001 which provides for prison sentences for foreigners attempting to illegally enter on Italian soil as well as for those who have failed to leave the country after an expulsion order, is presently being discussed. The latter group also runs the risk of being banned from Italian territory for a period of 10 years.

Following an official enquiry carried out early in 2000 in the horticultural sector of the Netherlands, it has been decided to penalise more severely those employers hiring illegal foreign workers, who have previously been condemned for so doing.

b) Recent regularisation programmes and their results

In Spain, a regularisation operation has been incorporated into the transitional provisions of the new Rights and Freedoms of Foreigners Act of January 2000. It applies to all foreigners permanently on Spanish soil on 1 June 1999 and who either held a work permit and/or a residence permit between 1 February 1997 and 1 February 2000, or requested such a permit before 31 March 2000, or lodged an asylum application before 1 February 2000 as well as to family members of nationals of third countries, nationals of Member States of the European Union or of Spanish nationals. Almost 245 000 applications for regularisation had been lodged; of these, almost one third had been filed by Moroccan nationals wishing to obtain residence and employment permits, mainly for agriculture, domestic services and construction. By the end of October 2000, almost 124 000 out of slightly over 185 000 applications examined had been accepted. Furthermore, almost 20 000 nationals of Ecuador had obtained in the same year a residents permit for Spain on humanitarian grounds.

Following the regularisation operation that took place in Greece during 1998, almost 371 000 undocu-

mented people received a white card' entitling them to enter the labour market and enjoy equal employment rights. Of these, nearly 212 000 filed applications for a green card' in February 2000 entitling them to work for 1-3 years and, in certain circumstances, to renew their work permits. By September 2000, this green card had been issued to over 147 700 people; the process of examining applications continues. A new operation for regularisation took place between 5th June and 7th September 2001 and, from the first available reports, more than 350 000 requests were registered.

The regularisation operation in Italy that began in 1998 was continued into 2000. A Decree of October 1998 established a quota of 38 000 workers who could be regularised in 1998, of whom 3 000 were Albanian, 1 500 Moroccan, and 1 500 Tunisian. Of the 250 000 applications lodged in 1998, some 39% of them were still being examined at mid-January 2000. In June 2000, the government announced that during 40 000 residence permits would be issued to undocumented migrants during that year, and 53 000 files would have been examined by the end of July.

In Belgium, the regularisation programme implemented in January 2000 looked at 35 000 cases (concerning approximately 52 000 people of whom 17 per cent came from the Democratic Republic of Congo and more than 12 per cent from Morocco). Regularisation gives entitlement to unlimited stay and access to the labour market. The regularisation procedure would end by October 2001.

In March 2000, Switzerland carried out a programme to regularise certain categories of foreigners who had entered the country before 31 December 1992 and were now in serious personal need. This operation, known as Humanitarian Action 2000', concerned almost 13 000 people, most of whom were Sri Lankan nationals.

In December 2000, the United States Congress adopted the *Legal Immigration and Family Equity Act* (LIFEA). In particular, it enables almost 400 000 undocumented migrants to apply for regularisation as long as they can prove that they entered the United States before 1 January 1982. The law also introduced V visas: these are reserved for about 500 000 family members of documented migrants who have been waiting for their green card applications to be processed for over three years.

In Mexico, a regularisation programme was conducted from February to May 2000. Over

2 600 applications, most of them filed by nationals of Guatemala, Salvador and Honduras, were processed.

New Zealand has adopted provisional measures concerning foreigners whose visas had expired but who are well integrated in the country. An expulsion process concerning persons having an illegal status in New Zealand came into full effect on 1st October 1999. From that date, anyone residing illegally in New Zealand has 42 days to appeal, after which they are liable to immediate removal. However, those overstayers who had become well settled (those with a New Zealand resident or citizen partner, New Zealand born children, or who had been in New Zealand for five years or more by 30 March 2001), would be subject to this new provision, and are therefore being given the opportunity to apply to regularise their immigration status between 1 October 2000 and 30 March 2001. Successful applicants will be granted an open work permit, and will be permitted to apply for New Zealand residence after a two-year period.

In July 2000, the Portuguese Government obtained a legislative permit from Parliament to amend the Act of August 1998 dealing with the admission, residence and departure of foreigners. Most notably, the amendment that came into force in 2001 allows undocumented foreigners in possession of a firm offer of employment to reside in the country. As of July 2001, almost 76 500 residence permits have been delivered (one-third to Ukrainians and almost one-fifth to Brazilians). Approximately 30 000 cases are still being considered.

As the review procedure launched in France in June 1997 is nearly complete, a provisional assessment can now be made: 75 600 foreigners have been regularised under this procedure. Three-quarters of the people regularised came from Africa (some 55 000), including 30 000 from sub-Saharan Africa and rather less than 25 000 from the Maghreb. The remaining one-fourth were from Asia (20%) and Europe (5%). The breakdown by nationality was highly concentrated, four nationalities accounting for 45% of regularisations: 12 000 Algerians, 8 800 Moroccans, 7 500 Chinese and 5 900 nationals of the Democratic Republic of Congo.

3. Policies for the integration of immigrants

OECD Member countries are increasingly concerned about the issue of integrating foreigners already present as well as those who plan to reside in the host country for an extended period. In this

report, the emphasis will be on measures of integration recently taken by Member countries concerned with the successful integration of foreigners in society and in the labour market.

a) Defining the groups of people to be targeted by integration measures

In several OECD European Member countries, the desire to implement genuine integration policies has recently brought up the problem of how to define the groups of people to be targeted by such measures, or more general measures relating to immigration, and has accordingly raised the issue of obtaining pertinent data on these different categories of foreigner. This has been the case not only in the Netherlands and France, but also in Denmark and Norway.

In 1999, the Dutch Central Bureau of Statistics (CBS) introduced the term 'allochtonous', defined as those persons of whom at least one of the parents was born abroad. The CBS then draws a distinction between first- and second-generation 'allochtonous' people: a first-generation "allochtonous" person is one who was born abroad of one or two parents born abroad'; a second-generation "allochtonous" person is one who was born in the Netherlands of one or two parents born abroad'. It follows that the CBS believes that a person will be described as 'native' (*i.e.* Dutch) if both parents were born in the Netherlands.

In France, the National Institute of Statistics and Economic Studies (INSEE) has established several statistical distinctions since the population census of 1999. It first of all distinguished those who are French from birth', from those who are French by acquisition of nationality. It then identified the concepts of the 'foreign population' and an 'immigrant population': the foreign population being made up of people who declared citizenship other than French citizenship in the recent census, while the immigrant population includes people born abroad who declared themselves to be of foreign nationality or French by acquisition. According to the INSEE, the foreign and immigrant populations do not overlap (not all immigrants are necessarily foreigners, and *vice versa* : immigrants may be French by acquisition, and foreigners may be born in France). Both categories do, however, include individuals born abroad holding foreign citizenship.

In Denmark, immigrants are defined for statistical purposes as people born abroad of two parents born abroad or who are foreign citizens. Descendants of

immigrants are people born in Denmark whose parents are not Danish citizens born in Denmark. Immigrants who have obtained Danish citizenship are not included in the statistics on the foreign population. In Norway, immigrants are defined as people born abroad of parents with no Norwegian ancestors, or born in Norway of parents born abroad.

b) Recent measures aiming at better integrating immigrants

Several regulations relating to the integration of foreigners were adopted in France by the Directorate of Population and Migrations in 2000; these particularly concerned local contracts for reception and integration, the implementation of a sponsorship campaign to support young people having difficulty in entering employment, and the introduction of single education support measure (the Local Education Support Contract).

One of the aspects of the policy of integration recently endorsed by the German Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs aims to improve communications between administrations and immigrants. This can be achieved through a better understanding of social rights of foreigners, of professional training available to them and of their native language. Furthermore, another part of the integration programme is aimed at foreign women (German language classes, information on training possibilities, etc.).

Australia has recently adopted a new programme for a multicultural Australia. The programme rests on the principles of Australian society that guarantees liberty and equality to the population and enables the diverse components of the country's population to fully express itself in society. This programme also underlines a respect for cultures and religious beliefs while all at once emphasising social equality.

In Canada, the reception of migrants is managed at every level of administration. Agreements concerning the installation of immigrants have been reached between Citizenship and Immigration Canada and the different provinces of the country. Services offered abroad (advice for immigrants) has the double function of permitting future immigrants to find their way upon their arrival in Canada. Furthermore, there are a number of programmes aimed at facilitating the installation of immigrants, putting them on the right professional track and insertion in the labour market, and also assisting them in learning the official languages of Canada.

The new Integration of Foreigners Act that came into force in Denmark on 1 January 2000 transfers responsibility for integration policies to local municipal authorities. The Act establishes a Reception Programme for New Arrivals and Refugees over a three-year period: in particular, this includes an individual plan for each person, courses on the functioning of Danish society, and Danish lessons.

In Finland, since the adoption of a law in 1999, all immigrants resident in Finland can benefit from a programme to assist with integration into society and into the labour market. In the framework of this programme, an immigrant is given a subsistence allowance immediately on his installation in the area in which he resides. This indemnity, more often intended for asylum seekers or refugees, can be reduced by 20 per cent if the person refuses to participate in the integration programme and especially in professional training and Finnish language classes organised by the programme and in the case of persistent refusal, this penalty can be raised to 40 per cent.

In order to facilitate the integration and reintegration of children of migrants, the Greek Government has put in place three different schemes: reception classes, tutorials (doing supplementary hours in addition to regular hours in small classes of three to nine students) and multicultural classes. In 1999-2000, 500 reception classes and 700 groups of tutorials had been carried out at primary education level, essentially concentrated in the Athens region. Over the same period, almost 9 000 students were taught in the reception classes, that is to say approximately 13 per cent of the total number of migrant children of all categories and almost 5 000 students, *i.e.* 7.5 per cent of the total who had benefited from the tutorials. Twenty multicultural classes were opened in 1999-2000 in which almost 3 500 students, of all levels, were educated.

In 1999 Italy had recorded a total of almost 120 000 foreign children receiving schooling, a figure which reflects an increase of around 40 per cent in comparison to the previous year. This increase is an obvious indication of the stabilisation of the immigrant population in Italy. The majority of these children received elementary education, even if the figures for secondary education showed a strong increase (more than 54%) over those for 1998. Nevertheless, not all children who could be considered minors entered the school system, especially the thousands of non-accompanied minors.

Luxembourg also gives special attention to the integration of children of foreign origin into Luxembourg's schools. At present, one of the answers provided by the ministerial authorities has been the creation of a pilot early-education project made mandatory for communes as of this year.

A new policy on integration came into effect in 1998 and a new authority was established to implement it. Integration policies are particularly aimed at offering to immigrants the possibility to fulfil their own need and to integrate into society. The policies also aim to preserve fundamental democratic values and seek to ensure equal rights and opportunities for men and women as well as fighting against discrimination, xenophobia and racism.

c) *Combating racism and discrimination*

In Norway, the Immigration Directorate's first report on racism and discrimination and two other reports on the subject, one by the Centre for Combating Ethnic Discrimination, the other by the Anti-Racist Centre, were published during 2000. These reports establish that racism and discrimination exist in various sectors of Norwegian society, particularly in the labour market and the housing market.

A programme for combating racism and ethnic discrimination was drawn up by the Finnish Ministry of Labour during 2000, and was due for adoption by the government at the end of the year. In September 2000, the Irish Minister of Justice announced a re-examination of the 1989 law on racism with a view to making it more effective: since 1989 only one case of incitement to racial hatred had been brought before the courts. In France, the Group for Studying and Combating Discrimination, which was set up in 2000 following the Citizenship Conference (*Assises de la Citoyenneté*) was given, *inter alia*, responsibility for dealing with complaints received on the toll-free telephone number that had been put introduced as a means of combating racial discrimination. The introduction of follow-up measures to this call-centre was approved by the Directorate of Population and Migrations in summer 2000.

At the beginning of 2000, several initiatives have been taken in Denmark with a view to improving equal opportunities on the labour market, independently of the ethnic origin of the employed person. The guidelines concerning recruitment and personnel policies, established for the public sector, have been extended to the private sector in order

to have an impact on recruitment policies. Companies hiring foreign personnel benefit from financial assistance. In July 2001, a new law on citizenship was voted in Sweden that acknowledges double nationality. This law will facilitate the naturalisation of children born to unmarried parents (with a Swedish father), adopted children and stateless persons.

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

International co-operation in the area of migration principally concerns the regulation and control of the flows. Mechanisms for bilateral or multilateral co-operation are in place, whether on the question of visa or border control and agreements also exist principally for the recruitment of highly skilled workers in order to attract foreign investors or simply to encourage the return of emigrants. Moreover, OECD Member countries are becoming progressively aware of the advantages to be gained from a collective examination of the question of controlling migratory flows in relation to the development of sending countries and their economic integration in the globalisation process.

Mechanisms for multilateral international co-operation in the field of immigration and asylum are still relatively limited, and Member countries of the OECD have a preference for bilateral agreements to deal, for example, with re-admission, and sometimes to establish programmes for the recruitment of workers. Bilateral re-admission agreements with a view to combating unauthorised immigration are being reached increasingly often.

A programme designed to attract foreign investors (Immigration Programme for Investors) has been in place since 1999 in Canada and nine other centres for immigration of business men located overseas (Beijing, Berlin, Buffalo, Damascus, Hong Kong/China, London, Paris, Singapore and Seoul) have been operational since 1998.

In the framework of the Programme for Industrial and Technical Training (ITTP), Korea annually recruits trainees of which approximately one-third are taken from the network of affiliated Korean enterprises established overseas. Since 1997, a certain number of these trainees, of which the maximum period of stay could extend to three years, are permitted to legally engage in paid employment during the period of their training. Very often they carry out low-skilled jobs in the firms which brought them to Korea.

On 11 July 2001, the French and Algerian Governments signed an agreement on the status of

Algerians in France aimed at bringing it in line with the status of other foreigners. This agreement is a protocol to the 1968 Franco-Algerian Agreement defining the conditions for the movement, employment and residence of Algerian nationals and their families. This protocol is aimed at extending the benefits of ordinary law to Algerians, since, due to various changes in the legislation, particularly in the Act of 1998, Algerians were governed by an agreement that was on the whole less favourable than the ordinary law applying to other foreigners.

For returning and ethnic Greeks the programme launched in the early 1990s, leading to the establishment of a National Foundation for the Reception and Settlement of Repatriated Greeks to assist with housing and economic integration, was deemed inadequate given the numbers involved. Consequently a new Act was passed in 2000 to step up the scheme and provide more accommodation, vocational training and job opportunities, social and cultural integration and public-sector jobs. Subsidies have also been granted to host regions. There is also an active promotion of Greek culture abroad by setting up cultural schemes and cultural centres in other countries, signing employment agreements, setting up Greek chambers of commerce abroad to strengthen economic ties with Greece, and providing assistance for Greek citizens abroad.

In Hungary, changes in migration legislation which seek to bring them in line with those in force in the European Union, raise the important question with neighbouring countries or countries with historical links whose citizens run the risk of no longer benefiting from a visa free entry system into Hungary. This is already the case for Moldavia, Belarus and countries of Central Asia and Caucasus. A visa requirement for nationals of Romania, the Slovak Republic, the Federal Republic of Yugoslavia, Ukraine and Croatia would therefore have a negative impact on family and cultural contacts with those communities.

Since 1997, Italy has concluded 22 readmission agreements, particularly with France, Spain, Greece, Austria, Switzerland and the majority of central and eastern European countries, as well as with Morocco, Tunisia, Algeria, Georgia and Nigeria. Other agreements are being negotiated, mainly with Malta, Senegal, Egypt, the Ukraine, Pakistan, the Philippines and China. Confronted with the problem of illegal immigration from the Southern Mediterranean banks, Italy has concluded bilateral agreements with certain sending countries, such as Tunisia, including the possibility of increasing the quota of legal entries.

One section of Portuguese migration policy is aimed at the Portuguese population living overseas. Portugal has recently adopted measures aimed at setting up a system for social aid in favour of its citizens of 65 years and over living legally overseas. This system would favour those who do not receive sufficient social protection to meet their needs, often as a result of not having contributed to the pension system of the country of residence for a number of years. These measures would grant a monthly payment equivalent to half of the difference between the amount of the pension which would have been paid by the Portuguese authorities according to the recipient's professional status and the social benefits offered in the host country.

Ireland signed a bilateral re-admission agreement with Romania in May 2000, and is due to conclude a similar agreement with Poland in the near future. These agreements should enable the Irish authorities to repatriate numerous asylum seekers from Romania and Poland whose claims have been dismissed by the courts; these include several hundred Gypsies who declared that they had suffered persecution and discrimination in Poland.

After signing agreements of readmission with Finland and Ireland, respectively in 1999 and 2000, the only Member states of the European Union not to have concluded this type of agreement with Romania are the United Kingdom and Portugal. The British authorities are presently considering a draft agreement. Moreover, a readmission agreement between Romania and Bulgaria was signed on 23 July 2000. Discussions are taking place with the authorities of Afghanistan, Albania, Bangladesh, China, Estonia, Macedonia, Mexico and Sri Lanka. Agreements concerning seasonal workers, the exchange of qualified workers, trainees and training contracts have been concluded in July and August 2000, with Switzerland and Germany respectively.

For almost 40 years, the "Scandinavian passport" has guaranteed a total freedom of movement within the borders that constitute the five Scandinavian countries. Nevertheless, it follows that freedom of movement between these countries could not be continually assured if, irrespective of whether or not they are members of the European Union, they did not establish regulations compatible with the Schengen Agreement. Following ratification in May 1999 of the Treaty of Amsterdam, Norway and Iceland signed co-operation agreements with member States of the Schengen area. These agreements came into force in Norway on 25 March 2001.

In Switzerland, a bilateral agreement on the circulation of individuals concluded with the European

Union was accepted by referendum in May 2000, at the same time as the other bilateral agreements that had been negotiated, and which could come into force in 2001. Transitory periods have been fixed as far as access to the labour market is concerned.

Poland is pursuing with the institutions of the European Union and member States pre-membership negotiations relating to Polish people's access to the European labour market, and adaptation of its legislation to meet European standards. Romania has been receiving financial aid under the European Union PHARE Programme since autumn 2000; this will enable it to strengthen frontier controls and adopt a passport system that is compatible with the Schengen criteria.

In November 2000, the European Commission approved two reports relating to immigration and asylum policy. The Commission believes that a new approach needs to be put in place by the European Union, in particular to take account of Member States' economic and demographic needs. It has also suggested that the admission of economic migrants be institutionalised in order to respond quickly and effectively to national, regional and local market needs in respect of both highly skilled migrants and other categories of worker. In the Commission's view, responsibility for determining labour force needs ought to be devolved to each Member State given the difficulties in evaluating them and in fixing specific ceilings at European Union level. Several types of status might be drawn up, and the rights of migrants who have been admitted could be established on the basis of their length of stay. In parallel with this new policy on the admission of economic migrants, policies for combating illegal immigration and the trafficking of migrants, and policies for the integration of foreigners and the reception of asylum seekers could be pursued and contained in provisions applying across the whole of the European Union. Finally, a number of regulations are being prepared concerning the future status of workers from third countries residing in regular situation since several years in the European Union (see Box 9).

Mexico is implementing regional co-operation and consultation mechanisms, particularly as regards the re-admission of Mexican migrants, under both the *Puebla* Process and bilateral agreements with the United States. Proposals relating to authorised migration on a permanent basis and to the enlargement of programmes concerning temporary workers, border security and the regularisation of undocumented Mexicans in the United States are the subjects of current negotiations between the two countries.

Box I.9. Future status of workers from third countries in the European Union¹

The status of workers from third countries in the European Union (EU) was long a secondary issue for the Community's authorities. Unlike nationals of EU Member countries, who enjoy rights laid down in the 1957 Treaty of Rome, particularly the part dealing with citizenship (equal treatment with nationals in host countries, freedom of movement), nationals of third countries are placed on a variety of footings. But moves to harmonise their status and extend their rights have emerged over recent years, and particularly since the Tampere European Council on 15-16 October 1999.

The European Union currently has over 12 million residents who are nationals of third countries. A number of statutory arrangements apply concurrently. Some of these residents have a privileged status, while others are subject to the ordinary law of individual countries.

The first category enjoys some of the rights reserved for European citizens. Nationals of Iceland, Liechtenstein and Norway, countries which form part of the European Economic Area (EEA), are entitled to equal treatment with EU nationals and to freedom of movement within the European Union. Family members who are not EU nationals may settle in another country on family reunion grounds, following the working family member as he or she moves. The provisions which apply to citizens of countries with association or co-operation agreements with the EU afford varying degrees of protection. Turkish nationals, for example, have status as defined by the Agreement of 12 September 1963 with Turkey and under the jurisprudence of the Court of Justice of the European Communities (CJCE) they enjoy a number of the rights of Community nationals.² In particular, free movement applies to them. Under the association agreements with Tunisia and Morocco,³ workers from those two countries do not enjoy free movement but the conditions applying to their employment, remuneration, dismissal and social security arrangements are the same as for nationals. The agreements with the CEECs and the ACP countries do not provide for equality of treatment or free movement.

Non-EU nationals may also enjoy some Community provisions applying to EU nationals in the social sphere, notably those relating to gender equality, health and safety. They also come under the principle of equal treatment without distinction of race or ethnic origin, embodied in Directive 2000/43/EC of 29 June 2000. With regard to freedom of movement, they are entitled to move in the framework of intra-EU service provision, if they are in dependent employment. Apart from these specific cases, workers from non-EU countries are subject to the ordinary law of their host country.

At the same time, moves are being made to harmonise rules across the European Union and to extend the rights of non-EU nationals. There are humanitarian reasons for this, but legal ones as well (since the 1997 Amsterdam Treaty, Community law makes an explicit reference to fundamental human rights). From this standpoint, the Charter of Fundamental Rights signed in Nice in December 2000 devotes two clauses to non-EU nationals with long-stay residence or work permits and proposes eventually to accord them equal treatment with nationals and freedom of movement.

A number of regulations are being prepared, which will adjust rights in terms of length of residence. Under the Directive presented by the Commission on 1 December 1999, the right to family reunion would be aligned with the rules applying to EU citizens. Two proposed Directives concern freedom to provide services for non-EU nationals. The first, presented on 27 January 1999, concerns service provision by the self-employed. People in this category would receive an EC service provision card which exempts the holder from visa and permit requirements in other EU countries. Secondment of employees for service provision may also lead to a similar card being issued.

The most significant initiative without doubt concerns long-stay residents. They would have to meet two conditions, if they were not born in an EU country. They would need to show stable resources, and health insurance. Under the proposed Directive presented in early 2001, meeting those conditions would be sufficient for an EC long-stay residence permit, valid for ten years and renewable. Such status would ensure equal treatment with nationals of the host country, notably with regard to access to employment, conditions of employment, social protection, social and tax benefits, and recognition of qualifications. People holding such permits would be able to stay in other EU countries for a period of over three months, if they were carrying out economic activity as a dependent or self-employed worker or following training, or could show adequate resources. In the host country, these non-EU nationals would enjoy equal treatment as in the country of issue, except with regard to social assistance and student grants.

1. This box has been prepared by Frédéric Baron, Maître de conférences (Université de Paris-IX-Dauphine).

2. V.E. Tezcan: *Le droit du travail et de séjour des travailleurs turcs dans l'Union européenne à la lumière des arrêts récents de la Cour de Justice des Communautés européennes*, Rev. Marché commun, February 2001, p. 117 (French only).

3. The agreements concluded in 1976 between the European Community and Tunisia, Algeria and Morocco respectively were replaced by association agreements signed in 1995; they came into force in March 1998 (Tunisia) and March 2000 (Morocco).

NOTES

1. This subsection has been drafted with the co-operation of John Simpson, Consultant to the OECD Secretariat.
2. This subsection has been drafted with the co-operation of Marin Sirakov, Consultant to the OECD Secretariat.
3. Report by the Romeurope network, presented at the Symposium *Roms, Sintés, Kalés – Tsiganes en Europe: Promouvoir la santé et les droits d'une minorité en détresse*, 19-20 October 2000, Paris.
4. Founded in 1992 by the Visegrad countries, the Central European Free Trade Agreement comprised, at the middle of 1999, the founding Members (Hungary, Poland, the Czech Republic and the Slovak Republic) joined by Bulgaria, Romania and Slovenia.
5. For further information, see *Migration Policies and EU Enlargement. The case of Central and Eastern Europe*, Paris, OECD, 2001 (English only).
6. Section D has been drafted with the co-operation of Lucile Barros, Consultant to the OECD Secretariat.

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Eligibility criteria for recruitment and residence of skilled foreign workers in some OECD countries

Main categories of workers by country	General admission conditions and specific admissions	Availability of domestic workers as grounds for refusal	Quotas	Authorised length of stay and possibility for renewal	Possibility for family reunification
Australia					
1. Permanent immigration programme					
1.1. Skilled-Independent Sponsored	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Generally post secondary but in a small number substantial work experience may be acceptable. Minimum requirements on skill, age and English language ability. Points test. Applicants are awarded points according to age, skill, English language ability and experience. Additional points awarded for applicants whose skills are in short supply in Australia, eg information technology, accountancy and nursing and for spouse skills and where applicable for family links and language skills other than English. Sponsorship (only for the category "Skilled Australian Sponsored") by a relative who is an Australian citizen or permanent resident.¹ 	Sponsoring employers must demonstrate that job vacancies cannot be filled from the local labour market.	No. Planning levels adjusted subject to demand and economic and labour market needs.	Permanent.	Spouses including <i>de facto</i> partners and dependent children receive a visa at the same time as the skilled applicant as part of the family unit. Parents of the skilled applicant may be separately sponsored for permanent entry within capped numbers.
2. Temporary immigration programmes (Economic Stream)²					
Business entry visas and other temporary visas for skilled workers	Nominated by the employer.	Yes for non-key activities (except for skills that are in shortage). This is not required for key activities.	No.	Business entry visa: up to 4 years. Other temporary visas for skilled workers: up to 2 years. No restrictions on renewal.	Members of the family unit may be granted visas to join Temporary Residence visa holders in Australia. The application can be separate or combined with the main applicant.
Canada					
1. Permanent immigration programme					
1.1. Skilled workers	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Objective of post-secondary educational level as minimum. Selection test that awards points on the basis of criteria as level of education, linguistic knowledge, skills and experience. Family members of a person who has already settled in Canada receive supplementary points. 	No.	No but planning ranges are given annually for each immigration category.	Permanent.	Immediate family members may accompany the principal applicant or they may be sponsored at a later date.
1.2. Business immigrants (investors, entrepreneurs, self-employed)	Investors must make a minimum investment in a Canadian business, entrepreneurs and self-employed must be able to create jobs in Canada.	No.		Permanent.	Immediate family members can accompany the principal applicant or they may be sponsored at later date.

Appendix
Eligibility criteria for recruitment and residence of skilled foreign workers in some OECD countries (cont.)

Main categories of workers by country	General admission conditions and specific admissions	Availability of domestic workers as grounds for refusal	Quotas	Authorised length of stay and possibility for renewal	Possibility for family reunification
2. Temporary immigration programmes					
2.1. Highly skilled temporary workers	Established by employer to Canadian standards.	Yes, even if there are many exceptions.	No.	Three years maximum (renewable).	Yes. Applications may be made for employment authorization (no validation required).
2.2. Special pilot project for professionals in the field of software development	Post-secondary educational level.	No.	No.	Three years maximum (renewable).	Yes but not the right to work.
2.3. Temporary workers within NAFTA programme or the Canada-Chile Free Trade Agreement	Post-secondary educational level (list of occupations).	No.	No.	One year (renewable).	Yes but not the right to work.
France					
Simplified procedure for IT Specialists	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The firm must exist for more than 3 years and have more than 3 MFF of capital. • An monthly wage equal or higher than 25 000 FF. A degree in IT or an equivalent professional experience and an annual salary higher than 180 000 FF	No.	No.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • For long term contrat, one year (renewable) • For short term contrat, 9 months (renewable). Total of 5 years. 	Yes, application may be made for a one-year visa and a further application for family reunification.
Germany					
Special programme for IT workers ("Green card" programme)	University or polytechnic level of education or an annual salary higher than 100 000 DM.	Yes.	20 000 (evaluation of the programme after 10 000).	5 years maximum.	Yes.
Ireland					
Fast-track scheme for workers with special skills (IT specialists, Nurses, construction professionals...)		No.	No.	2 years (renewable).	Yes after working in Ireland for only 3 months. Family members can then work if they apply for a work permit.
Japan					
Engineers and specialists	College degree or at least 10 years work experience (3 years in some specific cases) Salary must be equivalent to that of a Japanese national worker in the same conditions.	No.	No.	1 year or 3 years (renewable).	Yes but family members are not allowed to work without authorisation.

Appendix

Eligibility criteria for recruitment and residence of skilled foreign workers in some OECD countries (cont.)

Main categories of workers by country	General admission conditions and specific admissions	Availability of domestic workers as grounds for refusal	Quotas	Authorised length of stay and possibility for renewal	Possibility for family reunification
Korea					
Professionals and technicians ³	At least 5 years work experience in IT or master's degree level with at least 2 years work experience in the related field.	No.	No.	Duration of stay is now permanent.	Yes.
Netherlands					
Fast-Track Application Process for IT specialists and Nurses		There is a national labour market test but they are exempt from a regional labour market test.	No.	3 years (renewable).	Yes but family members cannot work without a work permit.
Norway					
Work permit delivered to workers with special skills	Usually at least 2 years of tertiary educational level. Special skills obtained through work practice may be considered. Applicants must hold a job offer by the employer or a standardised contract of service. ⁴	Yes, the skill must be absolutely necessary to the activity.	No.	1 year (renewable). After 3 years, a permanent permit may be issued.	Yes.
Switzerland					
Skilled workers (outside EEE ⁵)	Skills do not refer to a minimum educational level but to skills that are needed and evaluated locally.	Yes.	Yes, locally.	Depends on the sector of activity.	No.
United Kingdom					
Simplified procedure for some highly skilled workers (<i>Shortage occupation list</i>), including some IT or communication specialists Pilot project that allows people of outstanding ability to apply for entry and thereafter to search for employment	UK degree level qualification or higher national diploma plus one year of experience or at least 3 years of work experience in the field for which the permit has been delivered.	Yes, not applicable in case of renewal ⁶	No.	The maximum period has been extended to 5 years. After 4 years, the worker has the right of settlement (indefinite leave to remain) if they are still in employment.	Yes.
United States					
I. Permanent immigration Employment-based immigration (Green card system for professionals with advanced degrees in sciences art or business, priority workers and other skilled workers)	NA.	Yes.	Generally limited to 140 000 annual entries (including family members).	Permanent.	Yes.

Appendix

Eligibility criteria for recruitment and residence of skilled foreign workers in some OECD countries (*cont.*)

Main categories of workers by country	General admission conditions and specific admissions	Availability of domestic workers as grounds for refusal	Quotas	Authorised length of stay and possibility for renewal	Possibility for family reunification
2. Temporary immigration					
2.1. H1B programme	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Bachelor degree or 4 years of study at the college level. 3 years of relevant experience can count as 1 year of college. Having an employment offer at the same conditions as nationals. 	No.	Yes, 195 000 for the next 3 years. Jobs in non-profit-making organisations and Universities are not included in this quota.	6 years. Residence allowed whilst immigrant application being considered.	Yes but family members are not allowed to work without authorisation.
2.2. Temporary skilled immigrants accepted within NAFTA programme	Bachelor degree or 4 years of study at the college level. 3 years of relevant experience can count as 1 year of college.	No.	No, except a quota for Mexican professionals (5 500) until January 1st 2004.	1 year renewable indefinitely.	Yes.

- Applicants who meet the minimum skill, age and English language requirements, but who may not meet the points test can be eligible in the Skilled-Regional Sponsored category if they are sponsored by relatives living in a designated area (Sydney, Newcastle, Wollongong, Perth, Brisbane, the Sunshine Coast and the Gold Coast are not designated areas).
- Other more limited programmes (Labour Agreements, Regional Headquarters Agreements) allow employers to negotiate with the Government the temporary entry (generally for 3 years) of skilled workers.
- Immigration and emigration laws have recently been revised to facilitate the entry of personnel from these categories. More deregulation should promote the entry of IT specialists.
- The application for a work permit must be lodged from the home country. The Public Employment Service provides assistance to employers who want to recruit staff members from European countries (excluding Nordic countries), especially for doctors, dentists, nurses and engineers. Nordic nationals don't need a permit to work in Norway. Other EU nationals only need an EU residence permit that may be issued while being in Norway.
- No minimum skill level is imposed for EEA workers. The free movement of persons between Switzerland and the European Union should enter into force in 2001.
- Fast track procedure (50% of applications are clear within a week and 90% in 4 weeks).

Part II

STUDENT MOBILITY BETWEEN AND TOWARDS OECD COUNTRIES: A COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS¹

Introduction

Against the current background of economic globalisation, international trade in goods, services and information is more important than ever. This global economic integration demands linguistic and cultural knowledge from future partners which could, in particular, be acquired as part of their education. At the same time, student mobility is made easier by developments in communications and faster information flows.

The result is a growing internationalisation of education systems, manifest in the content of programmes and the evolution of student populations, which are becoming increasingly cosmopolitan. The integration of world trade is encouraging student mobility, allowing them to absorb the cultural and social customs of their host country, and thus to act as ambassador both for their own country and their host country. The rising power of technology in the economic sphere, and the imperative need for countries to keep pace with technological developments, in particular in key economic sectors, currently accentuates the internationalisation of educational courses. It then becomes tempting for countries to encourage some of their students to go abroad for their education, with a view to benefiting on their return from technology acquired at minimal cost. For their part, host countries may take the opportunity to allow some of the foreign students access to the labour market in the form of part-time or seasonal work or else participate in research and development work (R&D) incorporated in educational programmes.

During the last few years, sustained economic growth in most OECD countries and the development of the information economy has led to a considerable increase in migration of human resources in science and technology (HRST). Some member countries have relaxed their immigration laws to attract qualified and highly-qualified foreigners

(including students) to sectors where there are labour shortages.

Student mobility is a potential flow of qualified workers, either in the course of their studies or through subsequent recruitment. Moreover, the internationalisation of students in higher education may allow economies of scale in education systems (for example, development of new branches) and bring in additional resources to finance them. Foreign students in significant proportions also have an impact on the life of the local economy (consumption, accommodation, etc.) From the point of view of the countries of origin, the potential gains related to this mobility (strengthening of cultural and commercial ties, transfer of technology) may be limited as a result of the brain drain, mainly at times of shortage of qualified labour in the foreign students' host countries.

Thus, a panorama of qualified labour flows cannot ignore international student mobility. Based on data standardised by the OECD, UNESCO and EUROSTAT, it is possible, first of all, to attempt an evaluation of the scale, directions, characteristics and determining factors of student flows. Prior to that, it will be recalled that student flows represent a form of migration of qualified labour and also a precursor of subsequent migrations, mainly of HRST. Secondly, the consequences of this mobility for the countries of origin and host countries will be examined.

A. STUDENT MIGRATIONS: FORM AND PREREQUISITES OF MIGRATIONS OF HRST

1. Student migrations: a form of migration of qualified labour...

Student migrations, individuals who becoming increasingly well qualified in the course of their studies, may amount to a kind of HRST migration

Box II.1. Statistical sources and methods

For the purposes of this study, the data used were those from the “Indicators for Education Systems (INES)” project, conducted jointly by UNESCO, OECD and EUROSTAT in the OECD countries, and certain emerging countries in Africa, Asia, Latin America and Central and Eastern Europe participating in the “World Education Indicators” and “PHARE” projects. This database contains enrolments in higher education for each country, and records the number of foreign students enrolled. It thus provides information on numbers of migrant students and not annual flows. Moreover, the number of students from each country enrolled abroad is measured from data available in OECD member countries. Thus students going to countries that do not provide OECD with this kind of data or going to non-member countries are not counted.

Foreign students are usually identified on the basis of citizenship, or in some cases, by an alternative (nationality, place of birth, former domicile...). The application of this criteria thus generates a bias, related to the differences between host countries’ policies on obtaining nationality. Indeed, children of non-naturalised migrants may have been living for a long time in the host country (some are born there), which does not, *a priori*, justify attaching them to their country of origin or that of their parents to measure the proportion of students going abroad for their education. This bias is accentuated by the fact that most of the countries considered cannot distinguish, among foreign students as a group, those who possess a permanent residence permit (who could be described as “pseudo” foreign students) and those holding a student residence permit. A similar bias may appear, for

example, in Norway, when the classification “foreigner” is defined on the basis of place of birth and not country of residence. Conversely, the number of foreign students may be under-estimated when identification is based on the residential address provided on enrolment (United Kingdom, Ireland), which effectively excludes children of resident immigrants, as well as foreign students who give the address of a resident relative or friend. The same applies when under bilateral agreements on free movement of people (Trans-Tasman agreements between Australia and New Zealand) or multilateral agreements (Nordic countries), enrolment procedures do not always consider as foreigners students who belong to the countries party to the agreements.

Despite these reservations, the fact remains that the data collected under the “Indicators for Education Systems (INES)” project are an analytical tool which can serve as an initial picture of student mobility between and towards the OECD countries.

The educational levels used in this document are defined according to the UNESCO International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED-97), developed to facilitate international comparisons. The ISCED 5 level corresponds to the first stages of tertiary education. It comprises programmes that do not lead to an advanced or research qualification, covered by ISCED level 6. ISCED 5 programmes can be decomposed between 5A types of programmes, mostly theoretical in content and directed towards further study at ISCED level 6, and 5B types of programmes whose content is more professional (see OECD 1999 for more details).

when they become part of the working population and participate in the host country’s production.

This combination of student and HRST migration arises in two cases:

- First of all, to validate their programme, students enrolled in research programmes are required to carry out application or research activities, in a professional context (private or academic) in the form of dissertations or theses. To the extent that such activities could be carried on by professional workers, and in most cases lead to the production of a scientific work (publications), they constitute participation in R and D activities in the host country (in particular at ISCED level 6, see Box II.1). This contribution is considered

significant, especially in Australia, Switzerland and the Netherlands (OECD, CERI, 1991).

- As well as this first form of participation in active life, internships are often required at the end of students’ studies to validate their theoretical learning by placing them in a position in a company, with functions suited to their level of qualification, which can then be considered as a kind of HRST migration.

Clearly, this is not the case for all student migrations. The actual scale of this combined form of student and HRST migration depends on the distribution of students by grade, field of study, activity and functions exercised during an internship.

2. ... and also a precursor of subsequent migrations, mainly HRST

While student migrations sometimes represent a form of HRST migration, they may also be a precursor. Studies of the economics of labour broadly agree education has a positive influence on the probability and speed of absorption in the labour market. OECD recently devoted a thematic study to the transition from initial education to working life in 14 OECD Member countries⁸ (OECD, 2000). It shows that in most of the countries studied, the possession of higher qualifications by young people entering the labour market gave them a clear advantage in 1996 in the process of transition to working life.

In particular, for young people aged 25 to 29 years in the countries studied, possession of a university degree (ISCED level 5 or 6) results, on average, in an unemployment rate about half of that of their compatriots with upper secondary education certificates (ISCED 3), and less than a quarter of their compatriots in lower secondary education (ISCED 2). A university qualification also increases their likelihood of having paid employment by 9% compared to those with upper secondary certificates and 41% for those with lower secondary. Lastly, higher education has a stimulating effect on levels of remuneration received, although the size of the differential varies from country to country. On average, 30-44 year-olds with university degrees received levels of remuneration some 60% higher than those of their ISCED 3 compatriots, and double that of their ISCED 2 compatriots. On this last point, a study by Statistics Canada, based on 1994 data (Green and Riddell, 2000) shows that in that country, each additional year of studies increased annual income by an average of over 8%.

At the same time, studies of the entry of immigrant populations to the labour market of their host country also underline that:

- Among the immigrant population, the most qualified are general more easily and quickly absorbed in their adoptive labour market (OECD, 2000), which does not mean that they do not encounter greater difficulty than qualified locals. Their easier absorption is due to the mastery of foreign languages associated with a higher level of education, the greater ability to adjust, to gather and process information, and the possibility of acquiring country-specific knowledge more rapidly.
- The better immigrants master the language of their host country, the better they integrate into its labour market (Dustmann, 1994). Australian studies show that linguistic mastery affects not only immigrants' employability (a five-fold increase, according to Vanden Heuvel and Wooden, 2000), but also their professional status *vis-à-vis* other workers (+9 to 17%) and their income (+2 to 33%, Wooden, 1994).
- Lastly, possession of a degree from the host country is an additional advantage to immigrants. This advantage is partly due to the signal given by a degree "known" to employers, but also to the linguistic mastery which is generally associated with it and the absence of problems of international transferability of human capital (recognition of qualification, institutional framework, lack of country-specific knowledge – functioning of the labour market, social relations). Immigrants educated in their host country are thus at an advantage compared with their peers educated in foreign education systems which are more difficult to evaluate, and the time spent job-seeking is less as a result of their country-specific knowledge. A Swedish study (Bevelander and Nielsen, 1999) thus shows that possession of a foreign degree reduces the probability of being employed for Iranian immigrants, but not for those from other Nordic countries (where their degrees are probably more familiar). A similar finding was made for Australia (Cobb-Clark, 2000). Taken together, these factors often confer an advantage on applicants for immigration trained locally in gaining entry to the labour market on arrival, and consequently in the process of granting visas.

Thus, it can easily be seen how student migrations can be a precursor to subsequent migrations of qualified workers. The factors detailed above, indeed, argue in favour of migratory flows which give preference to former foreign students from the host country's point of view, since their linguistic mastery and their familiarity with the local social manners make it easier to absorb them. From the applicants' point of view, familiarity with the host country's systems has the advantage of limiting the cost and time taken to enter the labour market.

The question then arises as to the proportion of student flows which subsequently lead to HRST immigration. In fact, it is fairly widely accepted that some students who study abroad subsequently settle there,

but there has still been little measurement of this at international level. It is often necessary to make do with incomplete data, particular due to the lack of information on change from the status of student to holder of a work permit or permanent immigrant.

A study carried out in the United States in February 2000 of a sample of 4 200 temporary immigrants holding an H1B visa⁹ shows that some 23% of them previously held a student visa (US Immigration and Naturalisation Service, 2000). This finding is hardly surprising given the presentation of known degrees and mastery of the host country's language. In the North American case, it is even sometimes suggested that for foreign students, the choice of the United States is part of an explicit strategy for subsequent immigration (US NRC, 2000). The American study also underlines the extreme concentration of H1B visa holders by country of origin. Roughly half come from India, and over 9% from China.

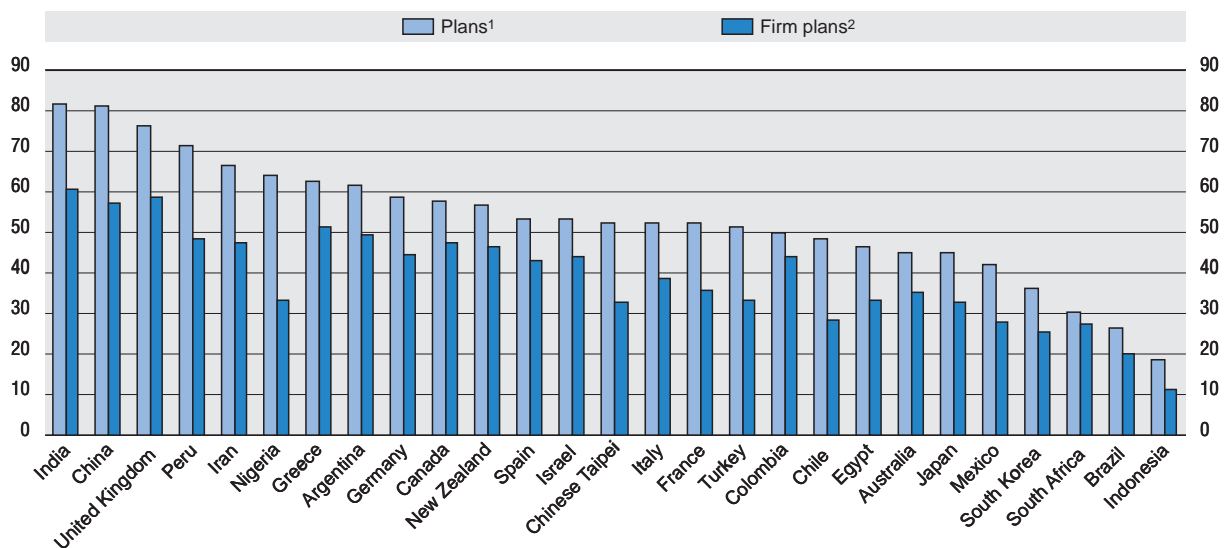
Apart from actual migrations, the intentions of foreign students can also provide an indication of potential HRST migrations generated by student migrations. In this respect, Chart II.1 presents data for the United States on the proportion of foreign doctoral students

(resident and non-resident) who intend to stay in the United States on completion of their studies. Students' intentions are classified on the basis of future plans (potential loss) and firm plans (post-doctoral contracts, offers of work from an American employer), thus reflecting real short-term losses based on the duration of the proposed visa. This data underlines a very large variability by country of origin in the propensity of students to settle in the United States. Losses seem particularly high for students from India, China, Argentina, Peru and Iran, as well as some OECD Member countries (United Kingdom, Greece, Canada, Germany and New Zealand) (see Chart II.1).

The scale of losses following a period of study residence could also be measured through applications for changes of student visas in order to settle and work full time in the country where they were educated. It would be necessary to take into account not only applications for conversion of visas into work visas (temporary or permanent), but also those for family reunion (student migrations most often occur at an age when families are forming) and refugees (Chinese students after the Tien An Men events, for example). The latter types of visa often benefit from simplified procedures (Australia, for

Chart II.1. Potential and effective loss for the country of origin of students who finished their PhD in the United States

Percentage of total students (all fields of study), by country of origin



1. Proportion of foreign doctoral students who intend to stay in the United States on completion of their studies.

2. Proportion of foreign doctoral students who received an offer of work from an American employer on completion of their study.

Source: Science and Engineering Indicators, 2000.

example). Statistics on applications for conversion of visas could result in a low estimate of losses to which should be added applications for visas from the country of origin by students who returned there temporarily before deciding to emigrate again.

At present, such data on applications for conversion of student visas is not available in OECD countries. However, by analysing the legislation on conversion of student visas, it is possible to get an idea of the phenomenon. Facilitating conversion procedures may, indeed, be a way of quickly solving specific shortages of qualified labour. Table II.1 shows the possibilities for students to change their status in certain OECD countries.

Australia, for example, recently adopted measures aimed at facilitating the entry of foreign students in information and communications technology (ICT). From July 2001, therefore, these foreign students will be able to apply for permanent resident visas on the basis of immigration of skills, without previous professional experience, and without necessarily being sponsored by an Australian employer, gaining additional points by virtue of their Australian degree, and without having to return to their country of origin to apply. In addition, the Australian Immigration Department is developing an online immigration application procedure to speed up the process (Australian Government, 2001).

Table II.1. Current regulations in OECD countries regarding possibilities for student visa holders to change residence status and access the labour market, 2001

	Possibility to change residence status
Australia	Students who have gained Australian qualifications are exempt from the skilled work experience requirement if they apply for a skilled visa within 6 months of completing their diploma. If eligible, students can apply for most permanent visas eg spouse visas and skill under points-tested skilled entry.
Austria	No in general, but students who graduated in IT can change their status and access the labour market. Free labour market access for students during their stay on the basis of an inter-university student exchange program or educational program of the EU. Seasonal work permits in tourism or in the agricultural sector possible for all foreigners including foreign students and graduates.
Canada	Students can work (with employment authorisation) for one year after completion of post-graduate degree (no validation required).
Finland	Stay of a foreign student is seen in Finland as temporary but a student can apply for a permit with new grounds through a Finnish representation abroad. A student does not need a work permit for a part time work (max. 20 h/week) during the academic year of his/her institution of education, neither during the holiday seasons of the institution of education.
France	Yes in general but students who graduated in IT in France (engineers) can change status with a simple demand.
Germany	Yes after they have successfully passed their examination (new legislation).
Ireland	Employers may seek to have work permits issued in respect of students where this is in their field of study and the students themselves, in certain skills areas, may apply for a work authorisation/working visa when they have an offer of employment.
Japan	Yes. Students may apply for residence.
Korea	Students who have gained Master degree or higher in the field of IT can apply for the work permit. Those who have obtained the work permit can change her/his visa status from student to employment status for a maximum period of 3 years.
Mexico	Yes but no special procedure.
New Zealand	Yes, students may apply for residence. The General Skills Category (GSC) awards additional points for qualifications gained in New Zealand. In addition, students with a New Zealand qualification are not required to have any work experience to qualify under the GSC. Students may also apply to remain in New Zealand as temporary visitors or under work permit policy.
Norway	Yes, for students who have not received financial benefits from Norwegian authorities. No, for students who have received such benefits.
Czech Republic	Yes but no special procedure.
Switzerland	Yes but no special procedure (new legislation).
United Kingdom	In-country changes into work permit status for students completing degrees in the UK are allowed in certain circumstances. As a general rule, in-country changes to work permit status are not allowed, except for trainees who can apply for a Training and Work Experience Scheme visa. Settling procedures are more flexible for Commonwealth, EEA and EU residents.
United States	Yes but no special procedure.

Source: OECD.

Thus, student migrations may be a precursor of HRST migrations. However, the scale of this phenomenon is extremely difficult to ascertain. By analysing the characteristics of foreign students, it is, however, possible to gain a better understanding of the profile of those that might settle in the host country on completion of their studies or decide to emigrate subsequently.

B. SCALE AND DYNAMICS OF THE STUDENT MIGRATION PHENOMENON

This section and the one following deal with the study of student flows: the scale and dynamics of the phenomenon, firstly, then the geographical trends that emerge from it.

Box II.2. Criteria for identification of foreign students in OECD countries

Australia	Since 1998 foreign nationality, thus including permanent residents
Austria	Foreign nationality, thus including permanent residents
Belgium (Flemish)	Foreign nationality, thus including permanent residents
Canada	Foreign nationality, excluding – former Canadian residents – students declaring themselves as immigrants Only concerns tertiary type A students (ISCED)
Czech Republic	Foreign citizenship, thus including permanent residents (a register of students should allow to distinguish residents in the future) Only concerns full-time students
Denmark	Foreign citizenship, thus including permanent residents
Finland	Foreign nationality, thus including permanent residents
France	Foreign citizenship, thus including permanent residents
Germany	Foreign citizenship, disaggregation between permanent residents and non-residents exists, but is incomplete (disaggregation by level of study only)
Hungary	Foreign citizenship, thus including permanent residents, but excluding members of neighbouring countries' Hungarian minorities (a specific questionnaire should allow to distinguish residents in the future)
Iceland	Foreign citizenship, thus including permanent residents
Ireland	Foreign domiciliary address, thus excluding permanent residents
Italy	Foreign nationality, thus including permanent residents
Japan	Foreign citizenship, disaggregation between permanent residents and non-residents exists, but is incomplete (64% coverage for ISCED 5-6)
Korea	Foreign nationality, thus including permanent residents
Luxembourg	Foreign citizenship, thus including permanent residents (who make up the majority of foreign students, 100% for ISCED levels 1 to 4)
New Zealand	Foreign nationality (excluding Australian students), thus including permanent residents
Norway	Foreign country of birth
Poland	Foreign citizenship, thus including permanent residents
Spain	Foreign nationality, thus including permanent residents
Sweden	Foreign citizenship, thus including permanent residents However, only students registered on the Swedish population register are considered foreign, which is not the case of all students originating from other Nordic countries
Switzerland	Foreign citizenship, disaggregation between permanent residents and non-residents exists, but is incomplete (70% coverage for ISCED 5-6)
Turkey	Foreigners entering Turkey on the sole purpose of study
United Kingdom	Foreign home address
United States	Foreign citizenship, excluding – permanent residents – refugees

I. Numbers of students

A starting point for this inventory of student mobility can be the measurement of departures from each country. The first observation concerns the variability of rates of student emigration by country (see Table II.2). From this aspect, several points should be noted.

- First of all, the size of the country's population seems to be a brake on mobility, as suggested by the low mobility of students from the United States, France and the United Kingdom. Conversely, students from smaller countries such as Austria, Canada, Greece, Ireland, Iceland, Luxembourg, Norway, New Zealand and Switzerland tend to be more mobile. The most plausible interpretation relates to the nature of the education system. A larger population allows greater diversity in the provision of educational services, thus covering all fields of study to the highest level. Another reason derives from the strong outward international tradition of small countries, motivated by economic demands, facilitated by the proximity of frontiers, which may have become permanently embedded in behaviour patterns.
- Apart from the effect of size, the institutional proximity¹⁰ of countries is a driving force in student migration, as shown by the high rates of mobility in the member countries of the European Union (some 169 per 1000 enrolled on average) compared, for example, with the Czech Republic or Poland, outside the EU¹¹). This high mobility in member countries of the European Union is facilitated by policies on freedom of movement, recognition of degrees, and the existence of exchange programmes and assistance for student mobility (Erasmus, for example).
- Lastly, geographical remoteness is also a brake on mobility. Australia, Japan and the United States thus have very low levels of emigration¹⁰ of their students, while European students can take advantage of education programmes in neighbouring countries.

Extending the analysis to non-member countries shows the driving role of institutional proximity (African countries, Slovak Republic¹² whose departures are concentrated on the Czech Republic) and the barriers created by distance (Latin America,¹³

Asia,¹⁴ Latvia and Lithuania in Central Europe), and the size of the country (see Table II.3).

It should not, however, be concluded from the data on non-member countries that there is a link between levels of economic prosperity and rates of student emigration. The truth is that two effects pull in the opposite direction. A lower level of economic development may limit resources allocated to education and diversity of educational provision, encouraging students to go abroad to obtain a specialist education. At the same time, however, it impairs mobility because of the cost, in particular if there is a lack of a system of education grants.

With respect to the reception of foreign students by OECD countries, the salient fact is the diversity of situations. The countries examined can be divided into several groups (see Table II.2).

- A first group of countries receives less than 24 foreign students per 1 000 enrolled (Korea, Poland, Japan, Italy, Turkey, Spain, Finland, Iceland and the Czech Republic). All these countries, with the exception of Spain, are characterised by a language that is not widely used internationally. A second group consisting of Hungary and the Nordic countries (Sweden, Norway and especially Denmark) have rates of intake ranging from 26 to 60 per 1 000, despite languages which are also not widely used internationally, albeit used a great deal at regional level.¹⁵
- Contrasting with these countries which are relatively closed to foreign students, one group stands out for very high intake rates, over 110 per 1000 enrolled. It consists of Australia (125), Switzerland (159), Austria (114), United Kingdom (108) and Luxembourg (304)¹⁶. For these countries, life on university sites and campuses and the definition of programme content are heavily influenced by the size of the foreign student contingent. The latter also help to finance the education system and may have a not insignificant impact on local demand.
- Finally, a last group of countries also takes in a high proportion of foreign students, although in more limited proportions: in descending order, these are Germany, France, Ireland, New Zealand, the United States and Canada.

While the effect of size and diversification of education provision can explain why the large

Table II.2. Foreign students in OECD countries, 1998

Per 1 000 students enrolled

	Proportion of foreign students (A) from:				Students from the studied country who are enrolled abroad (B) (in an OECD country ¹)		Net mobility (A-B) for:	
	All countries (per 1 000 students enrolled)	Of which: (% of total foreign students):			All OECD countries (Per 1 000 students enrolled) ¹	Of which: EU (%)	OECD countries	EU countries
		from an OECD country	from a non-OECD country	from an EU country				
Australia	125.9	18.4	81.6	7.7	5.3	37.6	17.9	7.7
Austria	114.9	65.6	34.4	50.4	43.9	82.9	31.5	21.5
Belgium (Fl.)	40.1	63.2	36.8	54.1	41.2	82.8	-15.9	-12.4
Canada ²	27.9	42.1	57.9	20.6	22.3	18.1	-10.5	1.7
Czech Republic	18.9	27.6	72.4	23.3	5.1	27.3	0.1	3.0
Denmark	60.1	42.0	58.0	17.8	31.8	65.8	-6.6	-10.2
Finland	17.3	35.9	64.1	22.3	32.9	83.8	-26.6	-23.7
France	73.0	26.8	73.2	18.7	18.3	67.6	1.3	1.3
Germany	81.6	56.3	43.7	27.0	22.3	64.0	23.6	7.8
Greece	146.9	88.8
Hungary	26.1	35.8	64.2	23.0	22.2	77.3	-12.9	-11.2
Iceland	24.0	81.4	18.6	52.6	285.8	68.0	-266.3	-181.7
Ireland	48.4	72.3	27.7	49.9	136.2	92.8	-101.2	-102.3
Italy	12.4	64.5	35.5	60.3	17.6	78.4	-9.6	-6.3
Japan	14.1	38.3	61.7	1.7	14.0	16.4	-8.7	-2.1
Japan ²	6.0
Korea	1.0	31.2	68.8	1.4	26.2	13.5	-25.9	-3.5
Luxembourg	304.6	84.3	15.7	84.1	1 928.5	92.1	-1 671.9	-1 520.4
Mexico	7.2	24.4
Netherlands	26.6	78.4
New Zealand ²	36.7	21.5	78.5	5.9	34.0	9.8	-26.1	-1.2
Norway	31.6	54.5	45.5	40.8	60.2	69.6	-43.0	-29.0
Poland	4.6	17.7	82.3	7.1	10.8	81.0	-10.0	-8.4
Portugal	27.0	86.4
Spain	16.6	65.7	34.3	57.9	12.8	74.2	-1.8	0.1
Sweden	44.8	63.1	36.9	41.3	43.3	53.6	-15.0	-4.7
Switzerland	159.5	72.7	27.3	65.7	44.7	69.5	71.1	73.7
Switzerland ²	63.0
Turkey	13.2	8.9	91.1	8.3	28.9	77.9	-27.7	-21.4
United Kingdom ²	108.1	59.8	40.2	45.1	13.5	44.7	51.2	42.7
United States	32.4	39.0	61.0	9.5	2.0	71.7	10.6	1.6
OECD – simple mean	60.3	47.5	52.5	31.9	107.3	62.0	-82.9	-71.1
OECD – weighted mean³	37.1	43.6	56.4	22.9	15.0	8.6	0.0	-0.7
UE – simple mean	76.8	58.3	41.7	44.1	169.5	75.8	-145.1	-133.9
UE – weighted mean³	59.5	51.9	48.1	35.2	25.5	18.9	2.4	-

1. The stock of students enrolled abroad is calculated on the basis of data for the following OECD countries: Australia, Austria, Canada, Czech Rep., Denmark, Finland, France, Germany, Hungary, Iceland, Ireland, Italy, Japan, Korea, New Zealand, Norway, Spain, Switzerland, Turkey, United Kingdom, United States. As a result, the net figures (A-B) may be overestimated.

2. Non resident foreign students only.

3. Weighted by the relative importance of each education system.

Source: OECD database on Education.

Table II.3. Students from non-OECD countries enrolled in an OECD country, 1998

	For 1 000 students enrolled ¹	Of which: enrolled in an EU country (%)
Argentina	3.4	47.0
Brazil	5.3	37.8
Chile	7.9	53.4
Paraguay	31.9	30.7
Peru	6.5	48.0
Uruguay	7.8	46.6
Latin America – simple mean	10.5	43.9
China	13.6	13.1
Indonesia	12.2	13.4
Malaysia	118.9	34.9
Thailand	11.4	15.8
Asia – simple mean	39.0	19.3
Tunisia	46.4	87.7
Israel	31.6	58.0
Zimbabwe	48.1	57.1
Africa, Middle East – simple mean	42.0	67.6
Bulgaria	28.6	59.7
Estonia	26.5	78.9
Latvia	12.0	60.2
Lithuania	17.2	45.2
Romania	21.5	55.5
Slovenia	22.9	82.9
Central and Eastern Europe – simple mean	21.4	63.7

Note: Simple means by region are calculated for the group of countries presented in the Table.

1. Calculations have been done on the basis of data for the following OECD countries: Australia, Austria, Canada, Czech Rep., Denmark, Finland, France, Germany, Hungary, Iceland, Ireland, Italy, Japan, Korea, New Zealand, Norway, Spain, Switzerland, Turkey, United Kingdom, United States.

Source: OECD database on Education.

industrialised countries are most often host countries to foreign students, the presence at the top of the list of host countries of smaller industrialised countries like Australia, Switzerland and Austria suggests that high levels of economic prosperity are reflected in per capita educational resources and high levels of technology which attract foreign students in certain areas of excellence.

In analysing international student flows, the net balance for each country is also of interest. The analysis in terms of balance confirms the predominance in the international reception of students of the large European Countries (United Kingdom, France, Germany), the United States, and Australia, Switzerland and Austria (Chart II.2).

Apart from the scale of student mobility as a proportion of those enrolled in each country, it may also be interesting to compare the relative level of this mobility, by adjusting orders of magnitude to the average for OECD countries, which makes it possible to refine the scale of mobility based on the size of the education systems concerned.¹⁷

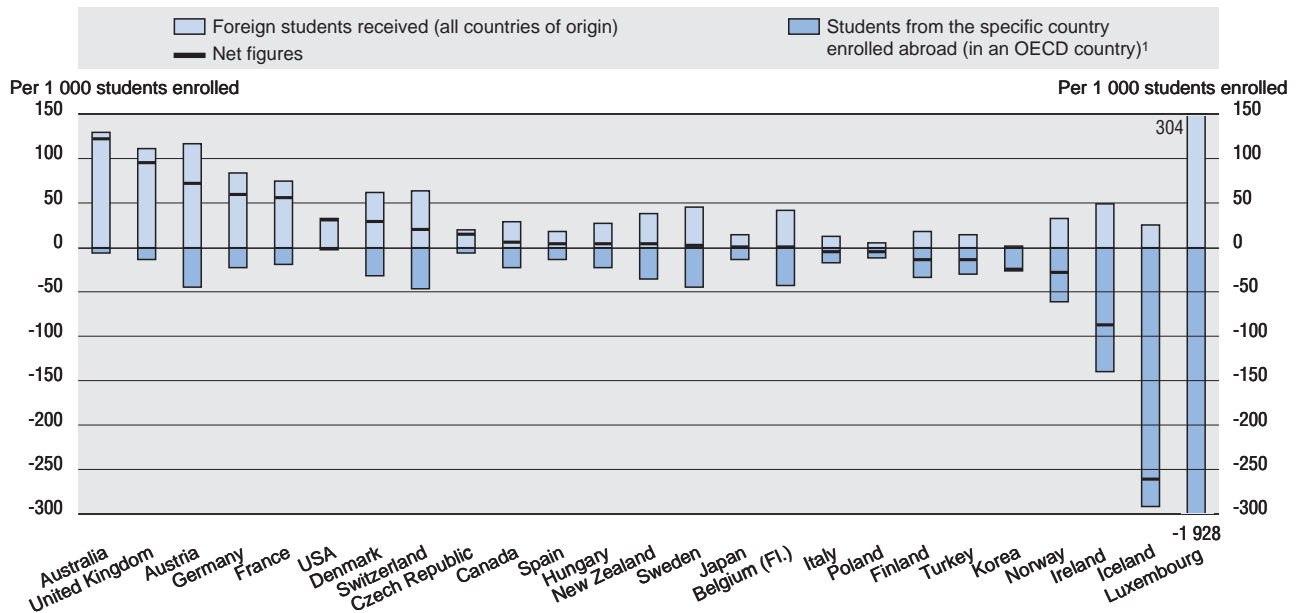
Table II.4 indicates that Switzerland, Australia, the United Kingdom, Austria, Denmark, France and Germany host very large numbers of foreign students relative to the size of these countries. With respect to sending students abroad, the most dynamic countries relative to their size are Iceland, Ireland, Greece, Belgium, Norway, Switzerland and Denmark.

This analysis based on relative size also makes it possible to distinguish between geographical areas with which they have the closest links (see Table II.4). It can thus be seen that in reception of students from non-member countries, Australia, France, the United Kingdom, Denmark and Switzerland are the leading OECD countries. For entry of students from OECD countries, Switzerland, the United Kingdom and Austria dominate. The same ranking applies to students from the European Union, with the addition of Belgium.

Analysis of the scale of student flows highlights the main variables which govern student mobility. They are the size of the country of origin and host country, geographical remoteness, languages used in the education system, institutional proximity, and

Chart II.2. Net student mobility in selected OECD countries, 1998

Per 1 000 students enrolled



Note: Non-resident foreign students for Canada, the United Kingdom, Switzerland, Japan and New Zealand.

1. The stock of students enrolled abroad is calculated on the basis of data for the following OECD countries: Australia, Austria, Canada, Czech Republic, Denmark, Finland, France, Germany, Hungary, Iceland, Ireland, Italy, Japan, Korea, New Zealand, Norway, Spain, Switzerland, Turkey, United Kingdom, United States. As a result, the net figures may be over-estimated.

Source: OECD database on Education.

considerations of an economic nature relating to tuition fees and living costs on university sites and campuses.

2. Dynamic trends

Concerning the dynamics of the student mobility phenomenon, a comparison at an interval of three years shows that the proportion of foreign students¹⁸ in the OECD countries¹⁹ rose by 4.6% between 1995 and 1998. This trend reflects a process of internationalisation of education which is growing in the OECD countries.

This overall rise, however, masks some significant divergences between countries: among the major student host countries, Australia comes top with almost a 40% rise over the period concerned, followed by Switzerland, the United Kingdom and Denmark and, a long way behind, Germany (+14%) and the United States (+2.5%).

C. GEOGRAPHICAL POLARISATION OF STUDENT MIGRATORY FLOWS

1. A phenomenon concentrated in a few large countries

An analysis of the geographical distribution of foreign student flows shows a very high geographical concentration of foreign students from all origins together, of whom 80% go to only 5 countries: the United States, the United Kingdom, Germany, France and Australia (see Chart II.3).

The breakdown for each country of arrivals by major region of origin also underlines the existence of favoured student flows to OECD countries. For the sake of clarity, this analysis is confined to countries receiving the most students in absolute terms (the United States, the United Kingdom, Germany, France and Australia), or relative to their size (Austria, Switzerland and Denmark), although data does exist for other countries (see Table II.4).

Table II.4. Relative intensity of student mobility, adjusted for the size of education systems,¹ 1998

Intensity of mobility (norm = 1) (ratio = mobility country x/ mobility reference zone) ¹	Origin of the foreign students enrolled:					Enrollment of students to:	
	All countries	OECD	non-OECD	EU	EU	OECD ²	EU ²
	OECD ² mean	OECD ² mean	OECD ² mean	OECD ² mean	EU ² mean (intra- EU mobility)	OECD mean	OECD mean
Australia	3.4	1.4	4.9	1.1	..	0.4	0.2
Austria	3.1	4.7	1.9	6.8	2.8	2.9	4.2
Belgium	1.1	1.6	0.0	2.6	1.0	2.7	4.0
Canada	0.8	0.7	0.8	0.7	..	1.5	0.5
Czech Rep.	0.5	0.3	0.7	0.5	..	0.3	0.2
Denmark	1.6	1.6	1.7	1.3	0.5	2.1	2.4
Finland	0.5	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.2	2.2	3.2
France	2.0	1.2	2.6	1.6	0.7	1.2	1.4
Germany	2.2	2.8	1.7	2.6	1.1	1.5	1.7
Greece	9.8	15.2
Hungary	0.7	0.6	0.8	0.7	..	1.5	2.0
Iceland	0.6	1.2	0.2	1.5	..	19.1	22.6
Ireland	1.3	2.2	0.6	2.8	1.2	9.1	14.7
Italy	0.3	0.5	0.2	0.9	0.4	1.2	1.6
Japan	0.4	0.3	0.4	0.0	..	0.9	0.3
Korea	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	..	1.7	0.4
Luxembourg	8.2	15.9	2.3	30.2	12.2	128.6	206.9
Mexico	0.5	0.2
Netherlands	1.8	2.4
New Zealand	1.0	0.5	1.4	0.3	..	2.3	0.4
Norway	0.9	1.1	0.7	1.5	..	4.0	4.9
Poland	0.1	0.0	0.2	0.0	..	0.7	1.0
Portugal	1.8	2.7
Spain	0.4	0.7	0.3	1.1	0.5	0.9	1.1
Sweden	1.2	1.7	0.8	2.2	0.9	2.9	2.7
Switzerland	4.3	7.2	2.1	12.3	..	3.0	3.6
Turkey	0.4	0.1	0.6	0.1	..	1.9	2.6
United Kingdom	2.9	4.0	2.1	5.7	2.3	0.9	0.7
United States	0.9	0.8	0.9	0.4	..	0.1	0.2
Total OECD						1.0	1.0
Total OECD ²	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0			
Total EU ²					1.0		

1. Please refer to note 11 for more details on the calculation of the indicator.

2. Greece, Mexico, the Netherlands and Portugal do not provide data on foreign students numbers. OECD and EU means are adjusted accordingly.

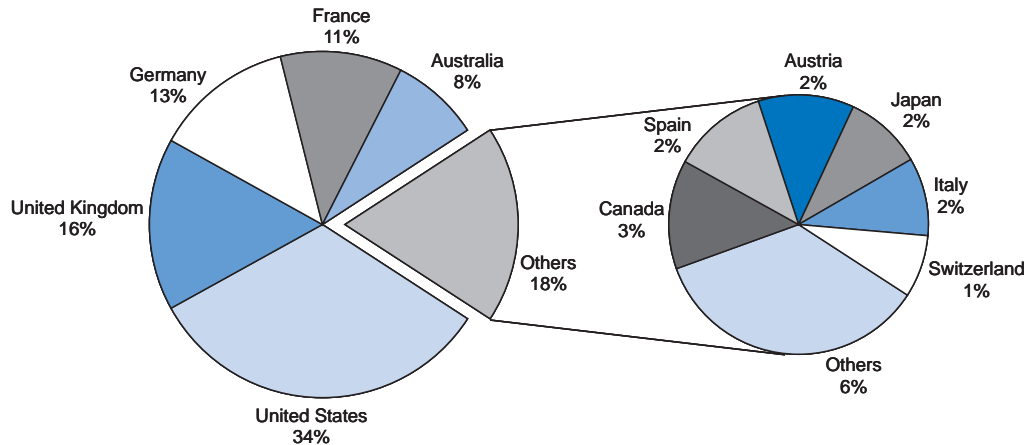
Source: OECD database on Education.

Table II.5 presents the distribution of foreign students by regions of origin. Especially striking are the differences between the main host countries by geographical origin of students admitted. The proportion of entries of students from OECD member countries varies between 20% for Australia and 70% for Switzerland. The countries which take in a majority of students from non-member countries are Australia, France, the United States and Denmark, while Switzerland, Austria, the United Kingdom and Germany are more concerned with entries from member countries.

A further breakdown by region of origin allows the predominant flows to be identified, in particular

in Australia, where some 3/4 of foreign students come from Asia or the Pacific.²⁰ There are major migratory flows between Africa and France (over 40% of entries), between Asia-Pacific on the one hand and the United States on the other (2/3 of entries) and between non-OECD European countries and Denmark (20% of entries). Among countries which mainly admit students from OECD countries, Switzerland and Austria take in mainly Europeans, while Germany and the United Kingdom take in students from Asia and the Pacific (1/3 of entries) besides a large contingent of European students. The United Kingdom's special relations with India and Malaysia probably explain the large number of

Chart II.3. **Main receiving countries of foreign students, 1998**
Percentages



Note: Only non-resident foreign students for the United States, Canada, Australia, the United Kingdom, Switzerland and Japan.
Source: OECD database on Education.

Table II.5. **Foreign students by region of origin, 1998**
Percentage of the stock of foreign students enrolled in the studied country

Host country	Region of origin ¹					
	OECD ²		Africa	Asia-Oceania	South America	Non-OECD European countries
		<i>of which: EU³</i>				
Australia	18.4	41.7	2.0	73.8	0.5	1.3
Austria	65.6	76.9	3.5	14.0	1.1	17.3
Belgium (Fl.)	62.8	85.7	15.4	18.1	2.4	1.9
Canada	42.1	48.8	15.5	39.4	3.1	2.7
Czech Rep.	27.6	84.5	6.2	13.9	1.3	34.0
Denmark	42.0	42.4	2.3	12.0	1.1	20.5
Finland	35.9	62.1	14.2	23.6	1.4	27.3
France	26.8	69.6	43.1	11.2	2.3	3.8
Germany	56.3	48.0	9.3	35.9	2.3	0.7
Hungary	35.8	64.2	3.2	16.3	0.3	49.0
Iceland	81.4	64.6	0.5	6.7	3.1	24.2
Ireland	72.3	68.9	4.4	23.1	0.1	2.5
Italy	64.5	93.5	10.4	14.2	3.3	7.0
Japan	38.3	4.5	1.0	92.3	1.3	0.9
Korea	31.2	4.4	1.3	80.3	1.3	3.2
Luxembourg	84.3	99.8	1.1	0.2	0.4	1.8
New Zealand	21.5	27.2	1.1	84.4	0.8	0.7
Norway	54.5	74.9	10.5	19.1	2.7	17.0
Poland	17.7	40.5	9.2	19.3	1.0	56.5
Spain	65.7	88.1	10.3	3.9	14.9	4.2
Sweden	63.1	65.5	3.4	18.7	3.0	23.0
Switzerland	72.7	90.4	5.8	6.9	3.0	5.8
Turkey	8.9	93.3	2.7	72.5	0.1	15.9
United Kingdom	59.8	75.4	7.1	34.2	1.2	3.3
United States	39.0	24.2	4.8	65.0	5.3	2.7

1. Total below 100% due to non-stated countries of origin.
2. Excluding the Slovak Republic.
3. As a percentage of the stock of students from an OECD country.

Source: OECD database on Education.

Table II.6. Main countries of origin of foreign students residing in selected OECD countries, 1998

Percentage of total stock of foreign students enrolled

Host country	Country of origin					
	1st rank	2nd rank	3rd rank	4th rank	5th rank	6th rank
Australia	Malaysia (14.7)	Singapore (13.4)	Hong Kong (China) (12.2)	Indonesia (7.2)	United King. (4.9)	
Austria	Italy (23.3)	Germany (19.1)	Turkey (4)	Bulgaria (3.7)	Iran (3.3)	
Canada	France (10.7)	United States (10)	Hong Kong (China) (8.2)	China (7.2)	Japan (4)	
Denmark	Norway (10.5)	Iceland (5.7)	Germany (5.3)	Sweden (3.9)	Iran (3.9)	
France	Morocco (11.8)	Algeria (10.9)	Germany (3.5)	Tunisia (3.4)		
Germany	Turkey (15.2)	Iran (5.2)	Greece (5)	Austria (4)	Italy (4)	Poland (4)
Italy	Greece (49.1)	Germany (4.4)				
Japan	China (45.6)	Korea (33)	Malaysia (3.7)			
New Zealand	Malaysia (32)	Japan (6.1)	Hong Kong (China) (4.9)	United States (4.9)	Thailand (4.8)	
Spain	France (13.4)	Germany (11)	Italy (10)	United King. (8.1)	Morocco (6.8)	
Switzerland	Germany (22.4)	Italy (15.6)	France (10.6)	Spain (6)		
United Kingdom	Greece (12.1)	Malaysia (8.2)	Ireland (7.8)	Germany (6.2)	France (6)	
United States	China (9.8)	Japan (9.8)	Korea (8.9)	India (7)	Canada (4.6)	

Note: Countries accounting for less than 3% of all foreign students are not reported in the table.

Source: OECD database on Education.

Asian students in that country. In the case of Germany, it may be the result of the importance of the Turkish community in the country's population.

Apart from identifying these favoured flows, differences can be observed in the degrees of geographical diversification in the countries studied: Austria, Germany, Denmark and France thus appear to be more eclectic in the regions from which they mostly recruit compared with Australia, Switzerland, the United States or the United Kingdom, for example.

If one considers countries, and especially bilateral flows, by country of origin (see Table II.6), students from China, India, Japan and Korea make up a significant proportion of the total number of foreign students in the United States. The same applies to those from Greece, Malaysia and Ireland to the United Kingdom, from France, Italy and Germany to Switzerland, from Italy and Germany to Austria, and finally from Morocco, Algeria and Tunisia to France. This Table also illustrates the importance of bordering (or neighbouring) countries, and the role of geographical proximity in the case of Australia, as well as for certain flows to Germany (Austria, Italy) and the United Kingdom (Ireland, Germany). The influence of historical, cultural and linguistic links is reflected in the flows to France (Maghreb) and the United Kingdom (Malaysia, Ireland).

This analysis by country of origin also illustrates, in the case of Germany and Japan, the skew caused by the fact that the majority of the foreign students are permanent residents.¹⁵ Indeed, Turkey

is the main country of origin of foreign students in Germany (15% of the total), and similarly Korea for Japan (33%). This large proportion is explained by the large number of foreign students born in Germany and Japan who are added to those who come to study (see Table II.6).

Taken overall, analysis of the geographical distribution of students by country and host region leads to the conclusion that the United States appears to have resolutely set its face towards the Asian continent and its neighbour, Canada, as has Australia *vis-à-vis* Asia and the United Kingdom. The incidence of European regional integration and the historical links with certain countries explain flows to France, Germany and the United Kingdom.

2. Distinction between mobility within/outside OECD countries

Looking beyond the general findings for all countries combined, it may be worth focussing the analysis on internal exchanges within the OECD area. Particularly noteworthy are the huge disparities between the proportions of entries from this region. In Turkey, for example, foreign students from one of the OECD countries account for only 9% of the total, compared with 84% in Luxembourg. A number of observations can be made:

- The countries of central Europe which have recently joined the Organisation show rather low intakes of students from the OECD, which

could be explained by a lesser institutional proximity and a level of economic development that is still lower than the average for OECD member countries. On the other hand, there is a strong institutional proximity between the other countries of Central and Eastern Europe and the former USSR.

- Similarly, Australia, New Zealand, Korea and Japan show relatively low levels of student intake from other OECD countries, which again illustrates the influence of the geographical factor, discouraging applicants from distant OECD countries (Europe and North America), while they would have a certain advantage for expatriate applicants from Asia. In the case of Japan and Korea, the language barrier is certainly an additional explanatory factor.
- As far as the other OECD countries are concerned, it is striking that countries which have extensive education systems (France, United States and, to a lesser degree, Canada, Germany and the United Kingdom) tend to receive a lower proportion of students from the OECD area, which might be explained by their greater attraction for non-OECD applicants due to the diversified educational provisions, and in the case of Britain and France, special relations with the former colonies.
- Finally, the European countries as a whole have very high proportions of students from

the OECD countries, which can be explained by geographical, cultural and, in some cases, linguistic proximity, doubled for those which are members of the European Union by institutional facilities which encourage mobility.

D. THE POPULATION CONCERNED: CHARACTERISTICS OF FOREIGN STUDENTS

After measuring the scale and directions of student flows by country of origin and host country, the following analysis examines the composition of these flows by discipline and level of studies, in order to identify the most internationalised fields.

1. Level of education

It may be worth seeing to what extent student flows to the OECD countries involve specific populations. In this respect, a breakdown by level of education shows the split between general higher education (ISCED category 5A) or professional (5B) and between general higher education (5A) and advanced research (ISCED 6). This type of breakdown is not, however, available for all OECD countries. For instance, in Germany and France, ISCED categories 5A and 6 are merged. It is thus not possible to distinguish doctoral students from others in higher education (see Table II.7).

Table II.7 presents the distribution of foreign students by level of education. It can be seen that from the host country's point of view, the bulk of for-

Table II.7. Foreign students by level of education in selected OECD countries, 1998

Percentages

	International Standard Classification on Education (ISCED – third level)				
	ISCED 5A	ISCED 5B	ISCED 6	ISCED 5A-6	ISCED 5-6
Australia	85.1	9.7	5.2	90.3	100.0
Austria	85.3	3.5	11.2	96.5	100.0
Denmark	59.0	34.6	6.4	65.4	100.0
France ¹	..	7.7	..	77.7	100.0
Germany ²	..	11.0	..	89.0	100.0
Switzerland ³	58.3	..	41.7	100.0	100.0
United Kingdom	73.2	15.5	11.3	84.5	100.0
United States ⁴	83.3	..	16.7	100.0	100.0

Note: Non-residents only for Germany, Switzerland and the United Kingdom.

1. The French data do not distinguish between ISCED 5A and ISCED 6 levels. Moreover data are not available by nationality and level of education for 14% of foreign students.

2. The German data do not register ISCED 6 level separately.

3. ISCED 5B data are not available separately for non-residents.

4. ISCED 5B data are not available.

Source: OECD database on Education.

Table II.8. Proportion of foreign students by level of education in selected OECD countries, 1998

Percentage of total students enrolled by level of education

	International Standard Classification on Education (ISCED – third level)				
	ISCED 5A	ISCED 5B	ISCED 6	ISCED 5A-6	ISCED 5-6
Australia	15.0	4.8	22.4	15.3	12.6
Austria	12.1	4.1	14.4	12.3	11.5
Denmark	6.5	4.8	16.6	7.0	6.0
France	..	2.4	..	7.4	7.3
Germany	..	4.1	..	5.8	5.6
Switzerland	5.4	..	32.7	8.3	6.3
United Kingdom	12.0	5.5	33.9	13.1	10.8
United States	3.5	..	24.7	4.1	3.2

Note: Data cover only non-residents for Germany, Switzerland and the United Kingdom. Please refer to the notes included in Table II.7.

Source: OECD database on Education.

eign students are enrolled in general disciplines (5A), except Denmark and to a lesser extent the United Kingdom. The low level of internationalisation of professional disciplines can be explained by programme content more specifically geared to national characteristics (legislation and other institutional aspects) or by the fact that certain professions (nurses, lawyers, doctors, dentists) require the award of national diplomas, which may discourage foreign students not intending to settle in the country where they study. Moreover, professional programmes are probably little publicised abroad (while university research ensures international promotion of their general programmes). Finally, the low level of internationalisation of traditionally short professional courses could also be a result of the lower mobility of students during the initial stages of higher education.

If one calculates the proportion of foreign students for each level of education (Table II.8), one can observe that in all the countries it is greater at doctorate level (ISCED 6) than at the first or “undergraduate” stage of tertiary education (ISCED 5A), which indicates that internationalisation increases the higher the level of education. This observation can be explained by a number of factors:

- First of all, the higher the level of education, the greater the specialisation of students on precise disciplines or techniques, for which the centres of excellence may be located abroad. Moreover, students may, with time, be tempted to discover other academic environments, a desire that is made easier by greater possibilities of financial support at doctoral level.

- It is also possible to envisage that the economic benefit of a period of study abroad (in terms of subsequent income) rises with the level of education. In this case, for virtually the same cost (tuition fees, living costs...), the investment is more attractive for the higher levels of education. This intuitive perception is supported by the observation of differences between the proportions of foreigners enrolled at levels ISCED 5 and 6, which are much greater for countries where studies are the most costly: Switzerland (six times the number for foreigners at doctoral level), United Kingdom (factor 3) and United States (factor 7).
- Lastly, a final explanation for this overrepresentation at the highest levels of study could be related to students' immigration strategies. Their mobility would then satisfy the dual objective of obtaining a recognised degree in the intended country of immigration and prospecting the local labour market for an employer who might sponsor them. Under this hypothesis, the opportune time to go and study abroad is thus at the end of one's studies.

2. Disciplines

An analysis of the distribution of foreign students by discipline can be used to identify the most internationalised disciplines.

Based on the data available for five countries (see Table II.9), it can be seen that the numbers of foreign students in science and engineering are

Table II.9. Foreign students by field of study¹ (all tertiary levels) in the main OECD host countries, 1998

Percentages

	Australia	Austria	Denmark	Germany	Switzerland	Simple mean for these 5 countries
Agriculture	1.0	1.8	2.2	1.5	1.1	1.5
Engineering, manufacturing and construction	12.7	15.6	7.6	18.5	16.0	14.1
Health and welfare	9.9	8.9	21.6	7.1	6.6	10.8
Humanities and Arts	9.0	27.9	20.5	23.2	16.5	19.4
Sciences	12.7	12.1	6.6	11.7	14.4	11.5
Services	2.8	0.4	0.6	1.6	8.9	2.8
Social sciences, business and law	46.5	33.2	25.8	24.9	31.1	32.3
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

1. Some data by nationality are not specified by field of study. That is why the sum of percentages is not exactly equal to 100%.

Source: OECD database on Education.

relatively low compared with those enrolled in the social sciences and humanities. This under-representation of science students should, however, be tempered to the extent that data for flows to the United States, the United Kingdom and France are not available. These countries, however, take in a large number of students in the scientific disciplines because of their tradition in this field and the more widespread use of English and French in foreign language courses.¹⁶

If one considers the proportion of foreign students for each discipline, it can be seen that the proportion of foreign students in science and engineering matches that of students in the social sciences and humanities. There is a slight bias for “humanities” in Austria and Germany, while science and engineering appear to be more internationalised in Australia, Denmark and Switzerland (see Table II.10).

3. The science and engineering fields

Bearing in mind the growing importance of science and technology in the contemporary, so-called “knowledge” society, and the links between the mobility of students specialising in these areas and HRST, it is worth analysing in more detail the characteristics of this student population. In particular, the breakdown of foreign students by discipline and level of education makes it possible to determine the potential pool of HRST in OECD countries.

From this point of view, differences in profile emerge between countries. Indeed, science and technology students as a whole represent a highly variable proportion of foreign students, from around 7% (Iceland) to 36% (Canada).¹⁷

The breakdown by level presented in Table II.11 shows that the proportion of foreign students enrolled in scientific and technological disciplines is sometimes much higher up to master's

Table II.10. Proportion of foreign students by field of study in selected OECD countries, 1998

Percentage of total students enrolled, by field of study

	Australia	Austria ¹	Denmark	Germany	Simple mean for these 4 countries
Agriculture	6.6	7.9	7.3	5.9	6.9
Engineering, manufacturing and construction	14.6	11.8	8.8	9.2	11.1
Health and welfare	9.2	11.3	5.6	3.6	7.4
Humanities and Arts	7.3	19.8	7.3	11.6	11.5
Sciences	14.1	10.8	5.2	7.8	9.5
Services	9.3	12.3	1.8	3.8	6.8
Social sciences, business and law	17.3	9.1	5.8	7.9	10.0
Total	12.6	9.5	6.0	8.2	9.1

1. Numbers of students by field of study measure enrolments (not head-counts). Students enrolled in several programmes are thus counted several times.

Source: OECD database on Education.

Table II.11. **Foreign students by field of study and by level of education, 1998**Percentage of foreign students at each level¹

	Engineering, manufacturing and construction			Sciences			Humanities and Arts			Social sciences, business and law			Others		
	ISCED 5	ISCED 6	ISCED 5-6	ISCED 5	ISCED 6	ISCED 5-6	ISCED 5	ISCED 6	ISCED 5-6	ISCED 5	ISCED 6	ISCED 5-6	ISCED 5	ISCED 6	ISCED 5-6
Australia	17.0	13.1	13.5	11.9	13.6	13.5	11.3	9.3	9.5	39.8	50.0	49.1	20.0	14.0	14.5
Austria	24.6	15.3	15.6	31.1	11.5	12.1	19.3	28.1	27.9	11.0	33.9	33.2	14.0	11.1	11.2
Canada	17.5	18.3	15.8	36.0	12.3
Czech Rep.	7.1	15.1	14.5	1.7	6.4	6.1	36.0	11.9	13.7	31.3	21.9	22.6	23.9	44.7	43.1
Denmark	19.5	3.4	9.0	5.8	8.9	7.8	5.9	33.8	24.2	16.7	37.6	30.4	52.1	16.3	28.6
Finland	13.2	25.0	23.8	2.8	12.2	11.2	8.3	27.1	25.2	51.2	20.6	23.8	24.5	15.0	16.0
Germany	20.9	13.2	26.2	28.1	11.6
Hungary	12.1	3.7	20.2	13.3	50.5
Iceland	–	2.5	2.2	–	5.0	4.4	95.2	67.1	70.3	–	15.5	13.7	4.8	9.9	9.3
Italy	13.2	6.9	17.6	23.6	38.7
Japan	33.1	20.3	17.7	–	3.3	2.6	37.9	24.6	21.4	23.7	39.0	32.5	5.4	12.9	25.8
Luxembourg	10.0	..	10.0	4.4	..	4.4	10.0	..	10.0	71.9	..	71.9	3.7	..	3.7
New Zealand	12.4	7.7	8.3	0.2	12.7	11.1	6.7	14.8	13.8	68.7	53.9	55.8	12.1	10.9	11.0
Norway	1.1	11.0	10.5	13.1	13.8	13.8	8.3	31.3	30.1	59.2	24.7	26.5	18.2	19.2	19.2
Poland	25.3	–	7.3	22.5	44.9
Switzerland	16.8	17.0	17.0	4.2	17.5	15.2	0.7	20.8	17.4	27.5	34.0	32.9	50.8	10.7	17.5

1. Foreign students whose field of study is specified.

Source: OECD database on Education.

degree or undergraduate level, for example, in Austria, Denmark, Japan and Luxembourg than at doctoral level, as is the case, for example, in Iceland, Finland, the Czech Republic, Norway, New Zealand and Switzerland.

E. DETERMINING FACTORS IN STUDENT MOBILITY

After examining the scale, characteristics and destinations of student flows within OECD countries, one can consider the factors determining student mobility, mainly the effect of centres of expertise, the role of language barriers and the influence of institutional factors.

I. Centres of expertise

One of the economic arguments aimed at encouraging the sending of students abroad during their studies is the opportunity for the countries concerned to educate young people in specialist disciplines for which domestic supply and demand of education provision are not enough to reach the critical mass needed to achieve a satisfactory quality of education.

This kind of arbitrage is well known in scientific and technical research, for which the use of certain experimental methods involves high costs both for equipment and remuneration of technical staff. It is then more rational to use specialist research centres abroad. In the same way, the massive investment required for certain types of specialist education is sometimes not justifiable because of the small number of recipients concerned. Sending individuals abroad for this type of education can then be much cheaper, and also have the advantage of being able to select educational institutions which offer the greatest expertise.

In the absence of detailed data on foreign students and their host institutions, it is impossible to quantify the influence of centres of expertise on student flows. Qualitative information is, however, available based on a comparative study by the European Commission on the mobility of doctoral students in the member countries of the European Union (Blume, 1995). This study, involving 200 European teachers and doctoral students, sheds light on their motivation and criteria in selecting host institutions. It finds greater incentive to mobility in the scientific disciplines, in line with the idea of critical mass and economies of scale. Furthermore, student perceptions of the prestige of institutions seem to

play a crucial role, as illustrated by the case of a young Danish doctoral candidate: *“He plans to stay abroad as a PhD student, either in the United States or Great Britain, because he thinks the best institutions are in these countries”* (Blume, 1995). This kind of argument partly explains the higher international mobility of students from small countries, of doctoral students, and in the scientific and technical disciplines. It does not, however, provide an explanation for the international mobility, also high, of students in the social sciences and commerce, which therefore suggests that other determining factors of a cultural and linguistic nature need to be considered.

2. The role of cultural and linguistic factors

Analysis of the geographical breakdown of student migratory flows suggested, in fact, that while language barriers seem to be an obstacle in attracting students for countries whose languages are little used internationally, countries where the teaching is in historically or economically important languages (English, French, German) are characterised, on the contrary, by a much greater propensity to host foreign students. The question then arises as to what extent language barriers inhibit mobility.

While in the case of migrations of workers, mastery of the language of the host country is an essential factor in entering the labour market (Dustmann, 1994), the main purpose of student migrations, on the other hand, is to acquire knowledge and professional expertise. Students thus have the opportunity of exploiting the language barrier to acquire or improve linguistic skills which later have an economic value. On that hypothesis:

- The proportion of students going to countries where the teaching is in a language other than their mother tongue should be particularly high in the English-, French- and German-speaking countries (see Table II.12).
- Conversely, emigration by Anglo-Saxon students to countries with another language should be lower, bearing in mind the predominance of English in international economic, scientific and technical exchanges.
- The mobility of students to countries with a different language should also be higher for countries which are very open to trade in goods and services. Similarly, it could be expected that international mobility of students would be higher in the commercial disciplines.

Analysis of the mobility of students from OECD member countries in the OECD area shows that the rates of mobility to countries with a different language vary considerably, from less than 4% (New Zealand) to 100% for countries like Hungary, Finland or Greece (see Table II.12).

Most mobility to countries with a different language is to the English-speaking countries. This propensity is particularly marked in the case of Japan (92%), the bulk of whose trade is with the English-speaking countries of North America and the Pacific, and for countries specialising in banking services (Luxembourg, Switzerland).

Students from the Anglo-Saxon countries do not favour destinations in non-English-speaking countries,

apart from students from the United Kingdom wishing to master a second European Union language. The propensity to go and study in a country with a different language is very high in the case of Mexican students (93%) and French, German and Dutch students, while it is relatively low in the case of Austria.

A breakdown of students by mother tongue, host country and discipline is not possible. However, it can be seen that in Australia, for example, the majority of foreign students come from the Asian countries which are the main trading partners and that these students are mostly enrolled in commercial disciplines.

In conclusion, the choice of students to go to countries with a language other than their mother

Table II.12. **Distribution of outgoing students by language of the destination country, 1998**

Country of origin	Different language	Language of the destination country (OECD)		
		Of which (%):		
		French-speaking	German-speaking	English-speaking
Australia	21.7	9.4	7.0	
Austria	31.3	10.4		62.4
Belgium	70.2		19.9	60.2
Canada	4.9		2.7	
Czech Rep.	100.0	22.6	7.9	73.0
Denmark	100.0	8.5	14.7	50.8
Finland	100.0	5.5	17.4	43.6
France	82.9		27.3	72.2
Germany	76.7	24.4		65.7
Greece	100.0	5.7	37.4	51.4
Hungary	100.0	9.3	56.2	29.9
Iceland	100.0	3.9	12.8	31.8
Ireland	9.1	3.6	3.8	
Italy	88.4	23.2	52.6	29.0
Japan	100.0	4.7	4.2	92.2
Korea	100.0	3.3	7.9	63.1
Luxembourg	18.1			93.1
Mexico	92.7	10.6	3.8	88.7
Netherlands	76.7	7.9	22.5	51.3
New Zealand	3.6	2.6	1.3	
Norway	100.0	5.6	12.1	58.2
Poland	100.0	14.2	60.5	19.6
Portugal	100.0	42.2	23.3	30.5
Spain	100.0	22.5	32.3	50.4
Sweden	100.0	10.3	13.2	63.2
Switzerland	52.0			91.1
Turkey	100.0	6.5	68.1	24.9
United Kingdom	43.1	18.2	13.5	
United States	40.8	21.9	18.4	

Note: Data for the following host countries are not taken into account in this Table: Mexico, the Netherlands and Portugal. For multilingual countries (Canada, Luxembourg, Switzerland, Belgium), we assumed that students from these countries were fluent in all official languages. Hence studying in a French or English-speaking country (Canada), German or French-speaking country (Switzerland and Luxembourg) did not involve adjusting to a different language environment. For these countries, mobility towards countries of different language may thus be under-estimated.

Source: OECD database on Education.

tongue is driven by motives of an economic nature, linked to exploiting language skills on the labour market. The attraction of the Anglo-Saxon countries confirms this hypothesis, and thus underlines the atypical nature of migrations of students for whom the language barrier can be turned into a professional advantage.

3. The role of institutional factors

Finally, institutional factors can also help to explain student migrations, Europe being a typical example. This area is very open to student migrations, as shown by the high proportion of students from the countries of the European Union. This mobility, institutionalised in agreements between universities or States, for example, offers a number of advantages to students. It reduces the time taken and thus the cost of gathering information. Moreover, the existence of former student networks through institutional channels reduces the uncertainty involved in mobility, and thus facilitates the decision to go abroad. Furthermore, the institutionalisation of mobility is generally accompanied by courses which require part of the studies to be done in another member country, as well as procedures for the equivalence of degrees and validation of qualifications obtained abroad. Finally, this type of mobility is quite often accompanied by material advantages (accommodation, grants...). The Blume study (1995) points out that the institutionalisation of student mobility for doctorates in science translates into higher financial benefits than a student could obtain through his own personal efforts.

Conclusion

In concluding this analysis, three findings are clear: student mobility is constantly growing, host countries benefit greatly while the effects for countries of origin are more varied. Finally, migration policies should encourage student mobility.

The rising level of student mobility

Analysis based on INES data from UNESCO, OECD and EUROSTAT underlines the rising volume of migrations of foreign students, with the proportion of the total number of students enrolled in OECD countries rising by an average of 5% between 1995 and 1998.

Situations vary, however, from one OECD country to another, mainly due to the nature and range of educational provision and the characteristics of the

demand and expectations of foreign students. It can be seen that mobility is relatively higher from the smaller non-Anglo-Saxon countries where the education systems are less varied and which are geographically close to other countries with more diversified education systems. Large countries whose language used is more widely used internationally attract a larger number of students, especially if they come from one of the member countries of a regional economic group (European Union, NAFTA). The directions of student migrations are governed by geographical, linguistic, cultural, historical, institutional and academic considerations, (the latter, centres of excellence). Finally, student migrations are greater the higher the level of education, degree of technical content of the field and the need for foreign students to master foreign languages (commercial disciplines, for example...).

Beneficial effects for the host countries...

The growing internationalisation of education systems encourages students to be more mobile while meeting their demands. By offering many benefits to host countries, internationalisation leads them to open up their education systems even further. Indeed, the integration of a foreign population into national education systems expands sources of financing these systems. This additional contribution may be direct (payment of tuition fees by foreign students), or indirect through the growth in the size of the education system and the possibility of achieving the critical mass required to engender economies of scale.

Certain OECD countries have, in fact, adopted a policy of charging enrolment fees of foreign students at actual cost, thus creating a source of additional revenue for highly internationalised higher education institutions, and powerful incentives to receive foreign students for others (Australia since 1988, the United Kingdom since 1980 and the Netherlands since 1993 for non European Union students).¹⁸ Charging in this way may, however, prove a double-edged sword. Indeed, in the increasingly integrated and competitive international educational environment, the imposition of such charges may push students to less costly destinations. The financial gains of the new charging system could then fail to offset the loss of other advantages deriving from the intake of foreign students. Indeed, charging at actual cost is not the only way of profiting from receiving foreign students. A certain number of advantages are independent of the method of charging tuition

fees, for example, the possibility of achieving economies of scale, which can be quite considerable at macro-economic level (for example, for small universities where the regional student population is limited) and this can alone justify hosting foreign students.

Other advantages of a qualitative order may also result from opening education systems and campuses to foreign students. Indeed, foreign students may help to increase the flexibility of the economy. Students encountering an international environment in the course of their studies, and growing up on campuses open to international competition and forced to receive an increasing number of foreign students may enhance their ability to adjust to the demands of the labour market. This may, in turn, have an impact on their productivity and their income, and thus future tax revenues in host countries.

In addition, foreign students contribute to domestic demand in the host country during their stay, by spending on accommodation, food and leisure... For the United States, this contribution was estimated at 12.3 billion dollars for the academic year 1999-2000 (Institute of International Education, 2001). But this kind of contribution may be much more important at local level, especially in highly cosmopolitan university towns of moderate size.

Attempts at benefit-cost analysis for hosting foreign students have been made in some countries. Thus, additional revenues attributable to the presence of foreign students were estimated at 9 000 to 10 000 dollars per student in Canada in the late 80s, for an additional cost of 5 000 to 6 000 dollars. In the United States, foreign students generated 11 000 dollars of additional income in their host region, or double their marginal cost (OECD/CERI, 1991). Along the same lines, Throsby (1996) and the Institute of International Education provide estimated costs and benefits of hosting foreign students up to master's degree or undergraduate level in the early 90s for the Netherlands, Sweden, the United States, the United Kingdom and Australia (see Table II.13).

Finally, student migrations may in some countries help to relieve stresses on the labour market, notably shortages of qualified labour. Young foreign graduates may be authorised to settle and work temporarily or permanently in the country where they were trained. Some OECD member countries recently changed their legislation on access of for-

eigners to the labour market, in order to allow in a larger number of foreign students who have completed their studies. These decisions have revived concerns by countries of origin of students.

... and more varied effects for countries of origin

These concerns should be refined. Sending young people abroad for their education can facilitate transfers of technology and individual education in highly advanced and specialist fields, where the country of origin does not have the critical mass of students or a sufficient level of technology to make such educational provision. The alternative of education abroad may then make it possible to profit from centres of excellence, giving the country highly qualified labour more cheaply. These transfers of technology may be particularly important in the case of doctorate students, whose research, although conducted abroad, can meet the needs of their country of origin.

Apart from transfers of technology, interaction of students with the local population during their studies can give them a better knowledge of the language, as well as the cultural and social customs in the country where they are educated. This knowledge may later make them ideal ambassadors for economic and commercial relations between the two countries. The policy in Australia of admitting students of Asian origin on a massive scale clearly illustrates this phenomenon.

The corollary of these benefits for countries of origin is obviously the risk that some of their students will be captured by the labour market in the host country and will not return to work in their country of origin. While this risk is certainly present, its degree depends on the family status of the migrating student, the existence of institutional safeguards,²⁵ the comparative employment opportunities in the two countries. Increased international co-operation between host countries and countries of origin of migrants could help to minimise this risk.

Implications for migration policy

Bearing in mind the many advantages offered by student migration, both for them personally and for their countries of origin and host countries, this type of mobility deserves encouragement, if possible in a framework of institutional agreements (see above).

Table II.13. Annual costs and gains of receiving undergraduate foreign students

US dollars per foreign student

Year of reference for estimate	Netherlands	Sweden	United States	United Kingdom	Australia
	1992	1994-95	1999-00	1992-93	1994
Cost of living (housing, daily expenses) borne by foreign students	+7 100	+11 700	+19 077	+8 000	+7 400
Average tuition fees (foreign students) borne by foreign students	+1 400	0	+11 669	+9 500	+7 000
Teaching costs (excluding research) borne by host institutions	..	-5 500	..	-6 600	-3 200
Administration cost specific to foreign students (international relations offices, international marketing, scholarships, foreign students support...) borne by host institutions	-4 700 Amsterdam Univ.	-5 000 Mälarden Univ.	.. Average US Colleges	..	-450 Monash Univ.
Net figures (cost or gain for the host country)	+3 800 over-estimated	+1 200	+30 746 over-estimated	+10 900 over-estimated	+10 750

Source: Author's estimate based on data by Throsby (1996) and Institute of International Education (2001) for the United States.

Mobility could be increased by more transparent procedures for equivalence of degrees or simplified conditions for obtaining student residence permits. The introduction of safeguards to limit the risk of brain drain and thus ensure an adequate rate of foreign students returning home would help to ease the concerns of countries of origin which might be tempted to put a brake on

the international mobility of their students. For example, making available a greater number of bursaries conditional on return would minimise the brain-drain risk. Finally, greater co-ordination and co-operation between students' countries of origin and destination would lead to a fairer sharing of the advantages linked to international student mobility.

NOTES

1. This part was written by Karine Tremblay, Consultant to the OECD.
2. Australia, Austria, Canada, the Czech Republic, Denmark, Finland, Hungary, Japan, Norway, Portugal, Sweden, Switzerland, the United Kingdom and the United States.
3. The study concerns H1B visas issued between May 1998 and July 1999. These temporary visas are issued for a maximum period of 6 years to highly qualified persons sponsored by an American employer who cannot find an equivalent applicant in the United States. They may replace a student visa, and they are often the first stage in a permanent immigration process.
4. Institutional proximity, in this study, means belonging to area of regional integration (European Union, NAFTA) or the existence of a common tradition of educational institutions and systems (French, German or English-speaking countries...).
5. In the case of these two countries, it is likely that considerations of an economic nature are also an obstacle to mobility (education fees, living costs).
6. The Slovak Republic joined the OECD in December 2000, and was thus not a member when the data on educational indicators was collected in 1998. It is thus placed outside the scope of the OECD for the purposes of this study.
7. It should be borne in mind that these can be misleading to the extent that flows within the area are excluded (OECD destinations only, excluding Mexico because it is impossible to obtain data for that country). A strong propensity to emigration can be seen in the case of Paraguay, where, once again, the small size of the country could explain this phenomenon.
8. Malaysia, with a very high emigration rate, is an exception in the region, probably linked to the advantages enjoyed by people of Malaysian origin in entering university, which sometimes forces young people of Chinese origin to pursue their studies abroad because of the quotas to which they are subject locally.
9. In the case of Hungary, the presence of Hungarian minorities in neighbouring countries plays a fundamental role.
10. Luxembourg, however, is a special case. This small State only provides a one-year general university

education. Because of this country's special educational features, it will be excluded from some of the analysis for the sake of comparability.

11. It means comparing the weight of a country in international student mobility, on emigration or arrival with its weight in a reference education system (EU, OECD), which amounts to comparing the country to the weighted average of the reference group. The ratio thus calculated is as follows:

$$\text{Ratio of country } i = \frac{\frac{\text{entries/exits country } i}{\text{enrolments country } i}}{\frac{\text{entries/exits reference group}}{\text{enrolments reference group}}} = \frac{\text{entries/exits country } i}{\text{enrolments country } i} \times \frac{\text{enrolments reference group}}{\text{entries/exits reference group}}$$

Thus, a ratio higher (lower) than one reflects higher (lower) mobility that the country's weight in the international system would suggest, or an over(under)-mobility compared with the reference mean.

12. As no distinction was made in Switzerland and Japan between resident and non-resident students for the two dates, the trend is calculated on the basis of the total number of foreign students.
13. Excluding Greece, Luxembourg, Mexico, the Netherlands, Poland, Portugal, Sweden and Belgium, for which this data is not available.
14. This finding is even more striking when it is considered that New Zealand students are not included in the Australian statistics on foreign students (see annex).
15. See the box 1 for an in-depth discussion of the problems of statistical measurement of foreign students.
16. Indeed, it is likely that the language barrier is a greater obstacle to science students because less emphasis is placed on learning foreign languages in that type of education.
17. Measuring the real size of these HRST pools, however, would involve comparing the number of students in science and technology with active populations with that type of qualification.
18. See Throsby, 1996.
19. Many countries thus offer foreign study bursaries to their brightest students, on condition that they come back to work in their country of origin for a certain number of years.

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Part III

RECENT CHANGES IN MIGRATION MOVEMENTS AND POLICIES

(COUNTRY NOTES)

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

1. Trends in migration movements.
2. Structure and changes in the foreign population.
3. Migration and the labour market.
4. Policy developments.

AUSTRALIA

Introduction

Australia's economic growth averaged over 4% during the second half of the 1990s. Although the rate of growth has been decelerating since 1998, with a pronounced slowdown taking place in the second half of 2000, unemployment has continued to decline; at the end of 2000 it was just over 6.5%. Against a background of continued structural improvement in productivity performance, employment growth is likely to remain robust.

The policy initiatives implemented in 1999-2000 have been motivated by four key aims: to improve the alignment between the needs of Australia's economy and the entry requirements imposed on immigrants; to ensure that the Australian public continues to have confidence in the way that border controls are managed; to maintain the integrity and effectiveness of the country's humanitarian programme; and, to develop socially and culturally appropriate settlement policies in such a way as to enhance the multicultural nature of Australian society.

1. Trends in migration movements

Inflows and outflows of foreign-born persons

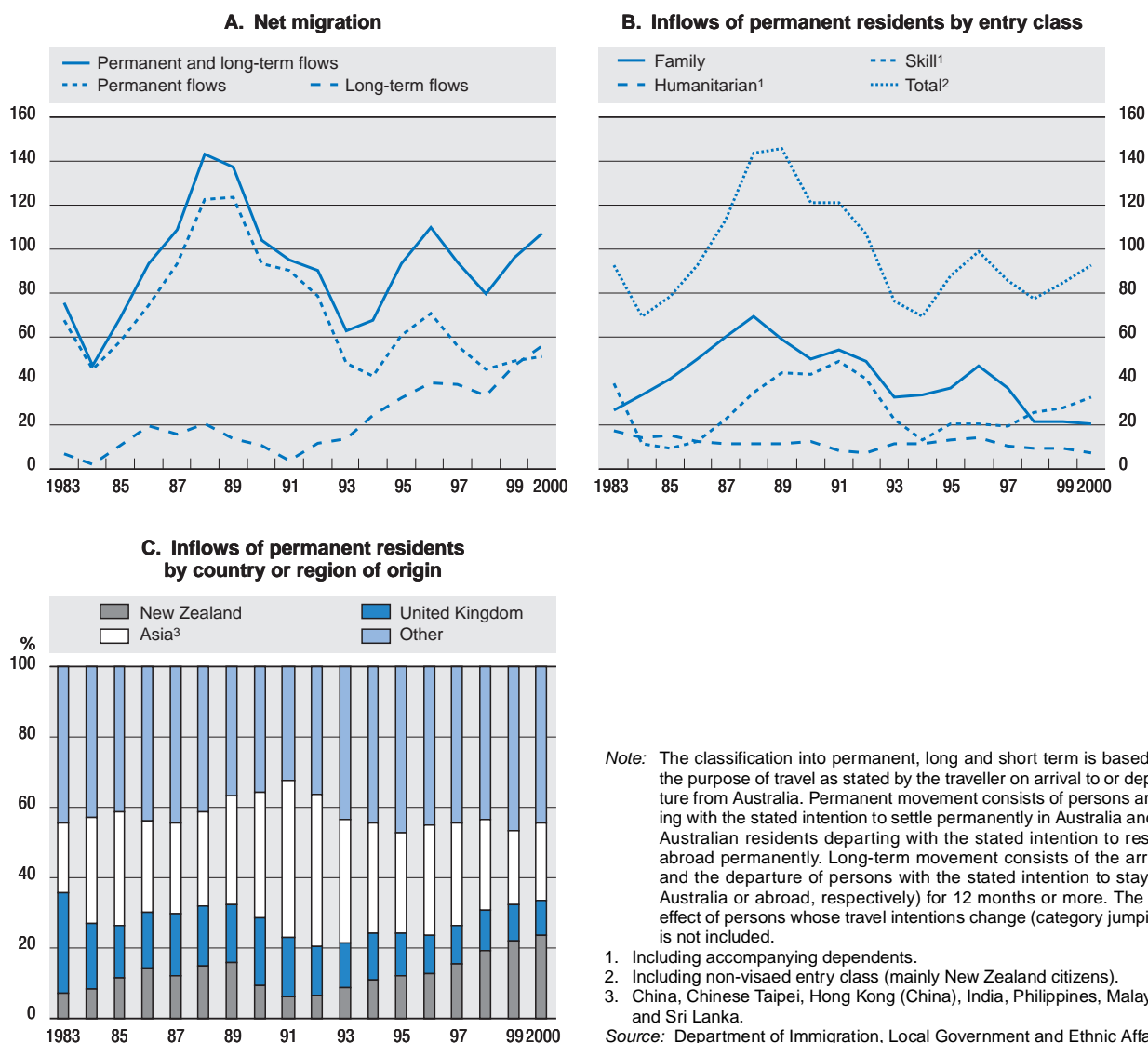
Permanent and long-term migration

Net migration during 1999/2000 was estimated at 107 300: both permanent entries and definitive departures rose by 10 and 17% respectively, to 92 300 and 41 100 respectively; the latter being the highest recorded in the series since 1973/1974. Long-term entries (12 months or more) rose by 13% to 212 900 and long-term departures rose by 12% to 156 800.

As in the previous year and reflecting the relative economic conditions in the two countries, the increase in the number of permanent entries was mainly due to the increase in the number of permanent entries from New Zealand; in 1999/2000 the rate of increase did decelerate however, from 27 to 17%. Permanent departures, though much lower than entries, have been following a rising trend; the proportion of Australian residents among these departures, having risen over the previous few years was unchanged at 51% in 1999/2000.

In 1999/2000, net long-term movements (12 months or more) totalled 56 100, a rise of 18% on the previous year (see Chart III.1). (A period of strong economic growth in Australia is generally accompanied by a rise in the number of long-term entries.) In 1999/2000 ten countries (the United Kingdom, the United States, New Zealand, Indonesia, Japan, Singapore, Malaysia, China, India and Korea) each accounted for between 3 and 18% of long-term entrants. For the fourth consecutive year, United Kingdom nationals formed the largest group, with nearly 23 400 entries.

Chart III.1. **Flows of permanent and long-term residents, Australia**
Fiscal years 1982/1983-1999/2000
Thousands



Under the Permanent Migration Programme, which systematically targets skilled migrants, just under 70 200 people obtained entry visas in 1999/2000, a rise of almost 3.5% on the previous year (see Table III.1).

Just under 6 300 Business Skills visas were granted under the Business Skills Migration Programme, the aim of which is to attract managers, entrepreneurs and investors and to provide assistance for business people who have started up companies in Australia. The criteria for issuing visas to business people were revised in 1998 and 1999 and management of the system was transferred to the Department of Immigration and Multicultural Affairs in November 1999. This has made it possible to envisage ways of adjusting policies to improve results.

Temporary migration

Under Australia's Temporary Resident Programme (which excludes students), the number of visas granted both offshore and on-shore rose from 136 200 in 1998/99 to 148 600 in 1999/2000, an increase of 9.1% (see Table III.1). Some 74 500 visas were issued under the Working Holiday Maker Programme in 1999/2000, a rise of 15% on the previous year and thus a continuation of the strong upward trend observed over recent years; a more moderate increase is expected in 2000/2001. Of these, 71 500 were issued off-shore. Germany joined the scheme in July 2000; this brought the number of countries with which Australia has arrangements to eight (the others are the United Kingdom, Japan, Canada, Ireland, Netherlands, Korea and Malta).

Table III.1. Permanent and temporary migration programme outcomes, 1997-2000¹ and planning levels for permanent settlers for 2001, by category, Australia

Thousands

	1997	1998	1999	2000	Planned
					2001
Migration Programme² (excluding the Humanitarian Programme)	73.9	67.1	67.9	70.2	76.0
Family	44.6	31.3	32.0	32.0	34.4
Preferential family	37.2	31.3	32.0	32.0	34.4
Concessional family	7.3	–	–	–	–
Skill	27.5	34.7	35.0	35.3	40.0
Employer nomination/labour agreements	5.6	6.0	5.6	5.4	5.8
Business skills	5.8	5.4	6.1	6.3	6.7
Special talents	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.2
Independents	15.0	13.3	13.6	15.6	21.4
Skilled Australian linked ³	..	9.5	9.3	7.9	6.0
Other	1.0	0.4	0.2	0.1	–
Special eligibility	1.7	1.1	0.9	2.9	1.6
Humanitarian Programme²	11.9	12.1	11.4	10.0	15.1
Refugees and special humanitarian	5.9	8.6	8.3	6.9	7.1
Special assistance	3.7	1.8	1.1	0.6	0.9
Other	2.3	1.6	2.0	2.5	7.1
Temporary Resident Programme⁴	118.9	125.7	136.2	148.6	..
Economic programme	31.7	37.3	37.0	39.2	..
Social/cultural programme	16.5	17.2	20.0	23.5	..
International relations programme	70.7	71.2	79.2	86.0	..
Of which: Working Holiday Maker (WHM) ⁵	50.0	55.6	62.6	71.5	..
Student Programme⁵	68.6	63.6	67.2	74.4	..

1. Data refers to fiscal years (July to June of the given year).

2. Figures include persons who change status (temporary to permanent).

3. Certain family members (brothers and sisters, nephews and nieces, children and parents of working age) can be sponsored by the Australian relatives or by permanent residents. In order to be eligible, they must meet certain conditions regarding age, professional qualifications and linguistic aptitudes.

4. Including Long Stay Temporary Business Programme.

5. Comprises only those applications made outside Australia.

Source: Department of Immigration, Local Government and Ethnic Affairs.

The Skilled Temporary Resident Programme covers entries of business people (holders of Temporary Business Entry Long-Stay visas), people in the medical profession and academics. Having fallen by 1% in 1998/1999, the number of Temporary Business Entry Long-Stay visas rose by 5% in 1999/2000 to slightly under 35 000 (including dependants). One quarter were IT workers. A total of 236 100 Business Visitor visas were issued in 1999/2000, an increase of 12% on the previous year; almost 55 000 of these were issued to United States citizens, 36 100 to Chinese nationals, over 19 000 to United Kingdom nationals and 17 300 to citizens of Japan.

The number of visas issued to students off-shore rose by almost 11% in 1999/2000 to just over 74 400. As in previous years, the principal source countries were, in descending order of importance, the United States, China, Malaysia, Indonesia, Hong Kong (China), Singapore, Japan, India, Thailand and Korea.

Visitors

Some 3.3 million visitor visas were granted in 1999/2000, 7% more than in 1998/99. The most significant above-general-trend increase was that of Koreans, the number of whom rose by some 68% to 131 300, having declined from 217 000 in 1996/97 to 78 200 in 1998/99 as a result, it can reasonably be assumed of the effects of the financial crisis. Although the number of short-term entrants from Japan continues to decline, in 1999/2000 it fell by over 5%, at 650 000 it remains the most important source of visitors to Australia, accounting for 20% of the total.

Illegal immigration

Because of the “universal” visa system and the fact that Australia has no land borders, it is assumed that very few people enter the country without proper documentation. There does exist a problem, however, of people who enter the country legally and then remain there beyond the visa’s expiry date (“overstayers”). Their number was estimated at over 58 750 on 30 June 2000 (*i.e.* 10.5% more than in June 1999). Four fifths of them had entered on visitor visas. Just under 30% of the total have overstayed their visa by less than one year; slightly more than 40% have done so by more than four years.

The number of people refused entry because they lacked proper documentation increased steadily during the period 1994/95-1998/99 reaching 2 100 before falling back to just under 1 700 in 1999/2000. The number of persons detected whilst attempting to illegally enter the country by boat has risen sharply over recent years: excepting 1994/95, the number did not exceed 600 between 1989/90 and 1997/98; in 1998/1999 just over 900 were detected and in 1999/2000 almost 4 200.

Refugees and asylum seekers

In 1999/2000, a notional 12 000 places were set aside for the Humanitarian Programme. Of these 12 000 places, a notional 10 000 were allocated to the offshore component of the programme and a notional 2 000 to the onshore component. The actual out-turn was a total of 9 960 of which 7 500 were granted offshore. Of these visas granted offshore, 45% were granted to Europeans, the overwhelming majority of whom were from the former Yugoslavia; nationals of Middle Eastern countries, predominantly Iran, Iraq and Afghanistan accounted for a further 30% and Africans almost 25%.

Over 12 700 asylum applications were lodged in 1999/2000, an increase of 54% on 1998/99. Marking a pronounced shift from 1998/99, when Indonesian, Chinese and Sri Lanka nationals together accounted for approximately 40% of applications, Iraq and Afghanistan together accounted for one third of the applications with China accounting for a further 8%. The most significant increases were from Iraq (from 420 to 2 390) and Afghanistan from 120 to 1 770; the majority of those from both these countries entered the country illegally by boat (see above and the section on “Policy Developments” below).

2. Structure and changes in the foreign-born population

Numerical trends

Of Australia’s total population of 19 million in December 1999, an estimated 23.6% had been born overseas. The 1996 census provided quite a detailed account of this overseas-born population (see Table III.2). With the exception of the United Kingdom, no single country of origin stood out from the rest. This is due to the fact that

Table III.2. Socio-demographic characteristics of the native and foreign-born population, Australia, 1996 Census

	Born in Australia		Foreign-born	
	Thousands	Per cent	Thousands	Per cent
Total	14 614.4	100.0	3 908.3	100.0
Country of birth				
United Kingdom			1 072.5	27.4
New Zealand			291.4	7.5
Italy			238.2	6.1
Former Yugoslavia			175.5	4.5
Vietnam			151.1	3.9
Age				
0-14	3 452.7	26.1	226.1	5.8
15-24	2 097.9	15.9	385.8	9.9
25-49	4 718.4	35.7	1 824.9	46.7
50-64	1 540.0	11.6	850.6	21.8
65+	1 418.9	10.7	620.9	15.9
Males per 100 females	97.4		99.7	
Nature of occupancy				
Owner/purchaser	9 107.0	72.0	2 579.9	69.5
Tenant	3 426.3	27.1	1 100.1	29.6
Other	113.9	0.9	31.1	0.8
Highest qualification				
Degree/Diploma	1 579.2	16.2	705.6	19.2
Skilled/Basic vocational	1 382.4	14.1	481.5	13.1
English proficiency				
Uses English only	12 309.5	94.1	2 027.1	52.5
Speaks English very well/well	638.7	5.2	1 401.2	36.3
Speaks English not well/at all	94.2	0.7	435.2	11.3
Main language spoken at home				
1. English		94.3		51.9
2. Italian		1.2		5.5
3. Greek		1.0		4.2
Labour force status				
Employed	5 691.0	91.4	1 870.4	89.3
Unemployed	535.7	8.6	225.1	10.7
Not in labour force	3 466.6	35.8	1 545.7	42.5
Occupation (skill level)				
Managers/Admin/Prof	1 507.0	27.2	499.7	27.5
Technician/Assoc Prof	639.0	11.5	215.5	11.9
High Skill-Trade Clerical	994.5	17.9	318.7	17.5
Intermediate Skill	1 408.1	25.4	456.3	25.1
Low Skill-Clerk Labourer	1 001.1	18.0	326.0	18.0
Individual income				
Less than \$300 per week	4 659.8	49.8	1 861.5	52.8
\$800 per week or more	1 020.8	10.9	379.8	10.8

Source: 1996 Census, Australian Bureau of Statistics.

since the post-war period there have been waves of immigration from a wide range of countries. The provisional figures for the composition of the resident population in 1999 suggest that since 1996 there have taken place significant above-general-trend increases in the number of persons originating from New Zealand, South-East Asia (Indonesians in particular) and mainland China (whereas the number of those from the Special Administrative Regions of Hong Kong and Macao are believed to have fallen by approximately one quarter).

Naturalisations

Having declined by almost one third in 1998/99, the number of people acquiring Australian citizenship fell by a further 7% in 1999/2000. Persons holding British passports (including that for British nationals overseas)

accounted for just over 20% of the total followed by Chinese nationals (11%) and New Zealanders (9%); no other country accounted for more than 5% of the total.

3. Migration and the labour market

Migration for employment and work permits

In August 2000, overseas-born workers accounted for slightly less than 20% of the total labour force. Of these, 57.5% came from non-English-speaking countries. The participation rate of those born overseas is 58% (54% for nationals of non-English-speaking countries and 64% for those of English-speaking countries) as compared with 67% for persons born in Australia.

For a wide variety of reasons, such as knowledge of English, age, skills, type of migration and length of residence in Australia, unemployment tends to be higher overall among foreigners than among Australian nationals, though lower for those born overseas in English-speaking countries. In August 2000, the average rate of unemployment was 6.2%: 6.1% for people born in Australia and 6.5% for those born overseas. Unemployment among nationals of English-speaking countries was 5.3% as compared with 7.4% among those from other countries.

Box III.1. Longitudinal survey of immigrants to Australia

The findings of the Survey of Immigrants to Australia, launched in March 1994 using information collected from 5 000 new settlers and their families 6, 18 or 42 months after their arrival in the country show that unemployment among foreigners varies substantially across visa classes (ranging from 84% in the “humanitarian” class after six months in the country to 26% in the “independent” class) but also that, on average, unemployment falls from 37% after six months in the country to 14% after 42 months. The average labour-market participation rate after the same periods of time rises from 58% to 69%.

A further survey, commissioned by the Department of Immigration and Multicultural Affairs (DIMA), will be conducted among some 3 000 migrants and their families who entered the country between 1 September 1999 and 31 August 2000. The main aim of the survey is to provide the Commonwealth and other institutions with reliable data to enhance immigration and settlement policies, but also to analyse policy changes made since 1996.

4. Policy developments

The policy initiatives implemented in 1999-2000 have been motivated by four key objectives: to improve the alignment between the needs of Australia's economy and the entry requirements imposed on immigrants; to ensure that the Australian public continues to have confidence in the way that border controls are managed; to maintain the integrity and effectiveness of the country's humanitarian programme; and, to develop socially and culturally appropriate settlement policies in such a way as to enhance the multicultural nature of Australian society.

Business skills migration

A review of the terms under which businesspeople may enter the country was undertaken by the Business Advisory Panel to the Minister for Immigration and Multicultural Affairs in November 1999. The review examined the scope for adjusting current policy settings to achieve better outcomes. All of the Panel's recommendations were accepted in principle by the Minister; the most important of those to have been implemented by October 2000 were the lowering of the net asset requirement and the removal of the employee

requirement in the applications points test. In addition, the Established Business in Australia and Regional Established Business in Australia categories are being reformed to achieve a better dispersal of migrants throughout Australia, greater integrity of the visa subclasses and a greater proportion of successful businesses. The remaining recommendations are undergoing further research and development.

Sponsored visitors

A new sponsored visitor visa class for family and business visitors which leaves open for the decision maker the option of requesting a security bond in respect of the visitor commenced on 1 July 2000. It is hoped that the introduction of this new class of visa will permit more visitors to enter the country (previously, marginal cases would have been rejected outright) whilst safeguarding the integrity of the immigration system. If a sponsored visitor does not abide by the conditions of their visa, their sponsor will be prevented from lodging further sponsorships under this class of visa for five years and will forfeit any bond that has been lodged.

Temporary protection visas

In response to this phenomenon of asylum seekers entering the country illegally by boat, the government introduced in October 1999 a new Temporary Protection Visa (TPV) to be granted to those unauthorised arrivals found to be owed protection obligations. The TPV provides protection for three years in the first instance and permits the holder to take up employment and grants them access to health care and basic social security benefits (though not to the more generous benefits accorded to refugees *i.e.*, English language training, settlement support services and access to full social security benefits nor does it provide access to family reunion or a right of re-entry to Australia after departure). After three years, TPV holders who are still owed protection obligations and meet other visa criteria are eligible to apply for grant of a permanent protection visa and if granted, to receive the associated benefits.

A new agenda for multicultural Australia

Australia's policy of multiculturalism had its origin in the early 1970s. This policy was restated, developed and refocused in December 1999 when *A New Agenda for Multicultural Australia* was published. It effectively became the government's policy statement on multiculturalism. The agenda "Emphasises that multicultural policies and programmes should be built on the foundation of Australia's democratic system, using the following core principles, to ensure that multicultural Australia continues to flourish for the good of all Australians: *civic duty*, which obliges all Australians to support those basic structures and principles of Australian society which guarantee us our freedom and equality and enable diversity in our society to flourish; *cultural respect*, which, subject to the law, gives all Australians the right to express their own culture and beliefs and obliges them to accept the right of others to do the same; *social equity*, which entitles all Australians to equality of treatment and opportunity so that they are able to contribute to the social, political and economic life of Australia, free from discrimination, including on the grounds of race, culture, religion, language, location, gender or place of birth; and *productive diversity*, which maximises for all Australians the significant cultural, social and economic dividends arising from the diversity of our population".

AUSTRIA

Introduction

Economic growth in Austria slowed down during 1999, as a result of the weak economic activity in Central and Eastern Europe and the economic crisis in Asia, but accelerated to 3.2% in 2000. However, a slowdown to 2.3%, mainly due to a sluggish US economy is expected for 2001. Unemployment, as a percentage of the dependent employment, has decreased for the first time during the economic upswing to 5.7% in 1998 and 5.3% in 1999. The unemployment rate decreased further to 4.6% in 2000 and stabilised at that level in the first

quarter of 2001. Foreign employment has increased in 1999 for the first time since 1996 and is expected to increase further in 2000. There is a clear trend of decreasing numbers of employed foreigners with temporary work permits; the number of workers with permanent permits has increased at the same time. This might indicate a growing preference for Austria as a settlement country.

Of the 8 092 300 people residing in Austria in 1999, 748 200 were foreigners (9%). Due to ageing, the working age population (15-59 year olds) is expected to shrink further in 2001 and the participation of older workers in the labour force will decrease. These developments are expected to lead to an increase in the employment of people from outside the EU.

I. Trends in migration movements

Emigration

Net migration of Austrians has been negative since the eighties (see Chart III.2). However, a tendency to increased net emigration of Austrians can be observed from the mid-nineties onwards (-9 600 in 1999, see Table III.3). The principal destinations are Switzerland and Germany. These countries provide reliable data on the stock of Austrian workers: the number of Austrians in Germany has shown a decline since 1993. In 1999, 70 179 Austrians were employed in Germany and 11 198 in Switzerland. In 2000, the figures for Switzerland had showed a slight increase. The Austrian Statistical Office cannot explain the continued decline of the number of Austrian wage and salary earners in Germany since Austrian data show significant net outflows to that country. An explanation could be a sharp increase in non-traditional employment in the high-technology sectors of the new economy that do not appear from the statistics on wage and salaried employment.

Chart III.2. Components of population change, 1983-1999, Austria
Thousands

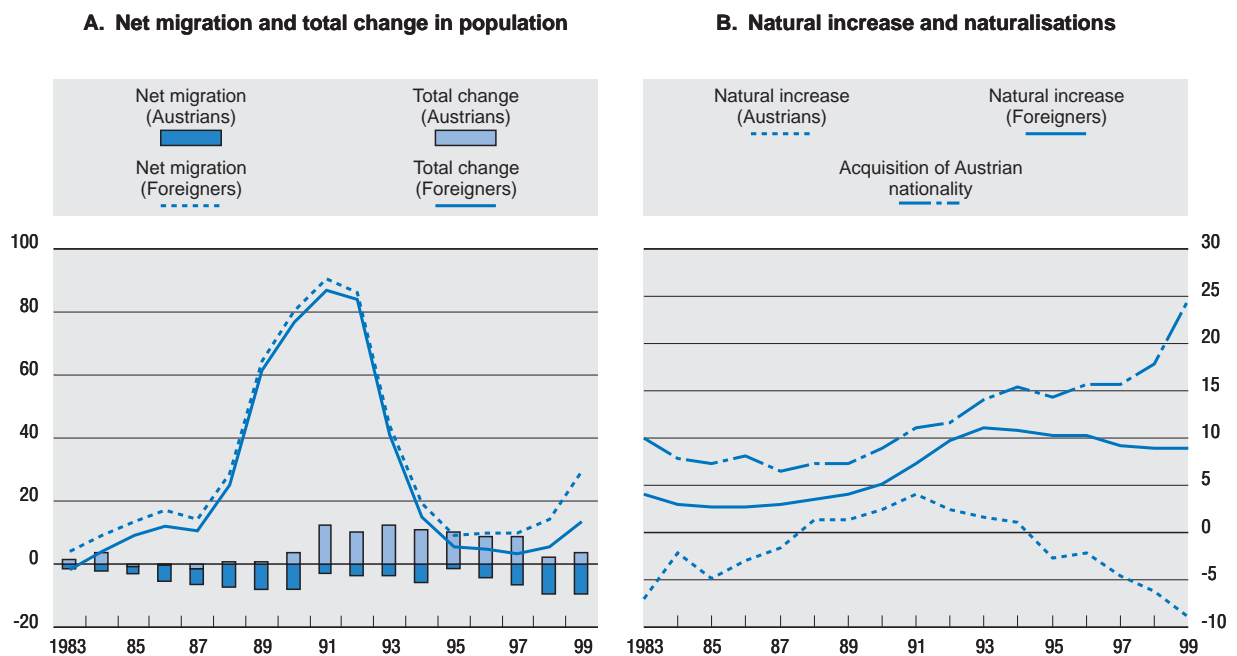


Table III.3. **Current figures on the components of total population change, on flows and stocks of foreign population and labour force in Austria**

All figures in thousands unless otherwise indicated

	1996	1997	1998	1999		1996	1997	1998	1999
Components of population change¹					Stocks of foreign workers, by nationality²	300.4	298.8	298.6	306.4
<i>Total population</i>					Former Yugoslavia (%)	49.3	49.3	49.7	49.5
Population (annual average)	8 059.4	8 072.2	8 078.4	8 092.3	Turkey (%)	17.8	17.7	18.2	18.2
Population increase	13.0	7.6	7.4	19.7	EU (%)	7.8	8.3	9.0	9.7
<i>of which:</i>					Other (%)	25.0	24.6	23.0	22.6
Natural increase	8.0	4.6	2.9	-0.1	Share of foreign employment in total employment (%)	9.9	9.8	9.7	9.9
Net migration	5.0	3.0	4.5	19.8					
<i>Austrians</i>					Total of employed workers, by category of permit³	257.2	247.3	240.5	239.1
Population (annual average)	7 331.2	7 339.5	7 341.2	7 344.1	Short-term work permits	43.7	36.6	28.9	23.3
Population increase	8.4	4.1	1.9	6.0	Work entitlements	92.3	67.3	45.5	29.5
<i>of which:</i>					Permanent permits	121.2	143.4	166.1	186.3
Natural increase	-2.2	-4.7	-6.1	-9.0	Work permits issued to foreigners, by category	127.5	119.5	110.3	98.5
Net migration	-5.0	-7.0	-9.8	-9.6	Initial permits issued	51.9	52.7	47.7	45.7
Naturalisations	15.6	15.8	17.8	24.7	Extensions issued	35.8	24.3	20.9	22.6
<i>Foreigners</i>					Permanent permits issued	39.8	42.5	41.7	30.2
Population (annual average)	728.2	732.7	737.3	748.2	Unemployment rate, total⁴	7.0	7.1	7.2	6.7
Population increase	4.6	3.5	5.5	13.7	Unemployment rate, foreigners	8.4	8.4	8.7	8.2
<i>of which:</i>					Employment of Austrians abroad⁵				
Natural increase	10.2	9.3	9.0	9.0	Austrian employees in Federal Republic of Germany	79.4	74.8	72.2	70.2
Net migration	10.0	10.0	14.3	29.4	Austrian employees in Switzerland	13.7	12.8	11.5	11.2
Naturalisations	-15.6	-15.8	-17.8	-24.7	Legal measures taken against foreigners				
Asylum seekers and refugees					Total rejections at border	134.0	80.7	25.5	24.7
Asylum seekers	7.0	6.7	13.8	20.1	Removals to home country	3.5	4.8	6.6	10.0
Outflows of refugees	1.3	1.3	1.7	5.0	Refusals of residence	12.9	13.3	12.0	10.2
					Expulsions from Austria	22.0	18.9	15.5	9.2
					Total	172.4	117.7	59.6	54.1

1. Calculations are based on the 1991 census. The naturalisations refer to persons residing in Austria.

2. Annual average. Employment of foreigners based on social security data records.

3. Data given as an annual average. The data exclude the unemployed and self-employed and citizens of the European Economic Area (EEA).

Several types of permits are issued:

- Short term permits: granted to an enterprise for a maximum duration of one year (renewable) and for a specific activity. Data include persons entering the labour market for the first time, seasonal workers, those who are changing jobs or taking up activity after a period of unemployment of at least six months and holders of provisional permits (when the application process takes more than four weeks). Extensions of permits are also included.
- Work entitlements: granted for a maximum duration of two years (renewable). May be obtained after one year of work in Austria.
- Permanent permits: granted after five years of work and valid for five years (renewable).

4. Data are based on the unemployment register.

5. Data as of June for Germany, August for Switzerland.

Sources: Central Alien Register; Central Statistical Office; Ministry of the Interior; Ministry of Labour, Health and Social Affairs; Social Security database on labour force.

Inflows and outflows of foreigners

The Austrian government registers inflows of foreigners in categories: foreign workers (45 690 in 1999); family members (approximately 6 100 in first half of 2000); students and refugees (20 100 in 1999). Inflows of foreign workers are further broken down by type of work permit, which is compulsory for all foreign citizens (except EEA nationals) entering the labour market for the first time (*Erstantrag*) or re-entering after at least six months unemployment or a change in the place of work (*Neuantrag*). The procedure begins with an initial permit issued to the employer. Regional labour market services may issue new employment permits to foreigners only if qualified unemployment beneficiaries cannot be found. (This requirement restricts the employment possibilities of foreigners). After one year, the permit is transferred to the foreign worker (work entitlements) who, five years later, is entitled to permanent status giving full labour-mobility anywhere in Austria.

The number of initial work permits has been declining since 1997 (from 52 739 to 45 690 in 1999). This only partly indicates the inflow from abroad, owing to foreign workers' family members who are also included in the statistic on initial work permits. Since 1994¹ the number of issued entry permits declined but has picked up again, if only slightly, in 1998. The number of extensions into work entitlements has declined continuously since 1994; they totalled 22 560 in 1999, less than half the 1994 value. Numbers started to increase again as temporary workers who did not qualify for a more permanent permit continued to be employed.

The proportion from Central and Eastern European countries in the total of issued short-term permits is increasing and amounted to 27% in 1999. Immigrants from former Yugoslavia form the biggest group.

Refugees and asylum seekers

From 1997 to 1998 the number of asylum applications more than doubled to 13 800 and took a further steep rise to 20 100 by the end of 1999. The largest groups came from Asia (43%) and from the former Yugoslavia (35%); less than 2% originated from Africa. In 2002, 18 300 asylum applications were registered.

Family reunion

In the first half of 2000, family reunion accounted for 83% of all settler inflows from third country origin (7 400). There are large and growing waiting lists for family reunion because the provincial quotas are small. The average waiting time is one year. The entry of family members in the labour market is being made easier as labour shortages emerge on the Austrian market. This also increased the number of extensions (see above).

2. Structure and changes in the foreign population

Numerical trends

The total foreign population was 748 200 in 1999, 1.5% more than a year before (see Table III.3). Seventy-nine per cent of Austria's population growth in 1999 is due to an increase in the number of foreigners. The net migration of foreigners was substantially higher than in the previous 4 years (29 400 versus a 4-year average of 11 000). The natural foreign population growth (the balance of foreign births and deaths) added a further 9 000 to the foreign population, but the increase in the number of naturalisations (24 700) put a break on the growth of the foreign population.

Mixed marriages

The number of marriages has remained stable over time. There has been a decline in the share of marriages between Austrian nationals (1999: 80.6% of the total) and a corresponding rise in marriages between foreigners (4.3%) and mixed marriages (15.1%).

Naturalisations

The naturalisation procedure varies in length depending on where the application is filed. In Vienna a work permit valid for 4 or 5 years was once sufficient to meet the requirements for naturalisation, whereas

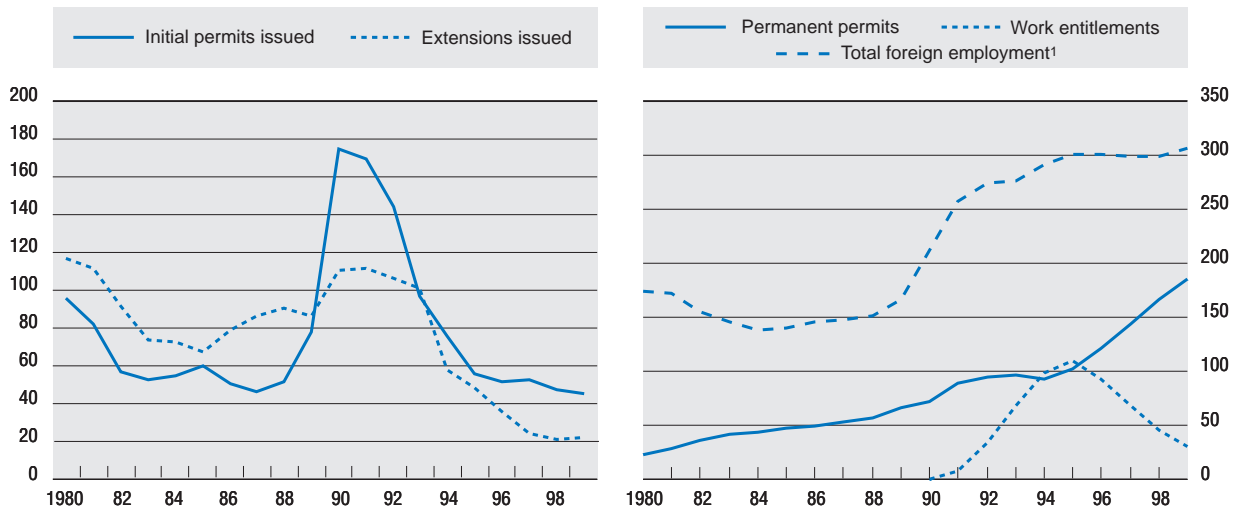
other parts of the country required almost 10 years' residence. Since 1993, Vienna has toughened its stance on citizenship. Yet the number of naturalisations is higher than in 1991, reflecting the growing difficulty for foreigners (particularly non-EEA nationals) to obtain work permits. Instead they prefer to apply for Austrian citizenship. More than 18 000 were accepted in 1998 and 25 000 in 1999. Turks and nationals of the former Yugoslavia head the list, followed by Romanians.

3. Migration and the labour market

Migration for employment and work permits

The number of initial work permits (*Erstantrag*, see Section 1) can indicate the number of entries of foreigners for work (see Chart III.3). The initial work permit is issued to the firm for a particular job and not to the person. It does not allow free access to the Austrian labour market. The share of foreign workers in total wage and salaried employment is subject to a national quota (9% ceiling in 1999 and 2000). But the ratio of foreign to national employment was 11.2% in 1999. Until 1990, the number of initial work permits indicated a high correlation with foreign employment. Work entitlements (see Section 1) and permanent permits that do allow access to the labour market anywhere in Austria, were introduced in the early nineties, as foreigners began applying for Austrian citizenship, reflect restrictions on the employment of foreign labour. The number of permanent licences increased from 166 052 in 1998 to 186 312 in 1999, an increase of 12.2% (see Table III.3).

Chart III.3. **Stocks of foreigners holding a work permit, 1980-1999, Austria**
Thousands



Note: Data on work permits are given as an annual average (except for short-term permits which relate to the number of permits issued in the given year).

Figures exclude the self-employed and from 1994 on, citizens of the European Economic Area.

1. Figures are given as an annual average and are based on Social Security records.

Sources: Ministry of Labour; Social Security Department; Labour Market Service.

Labour market integration

According to social security data, there were 306 400 foreign workers in employment in 1999, a 2.6% increase on 1998 (see Table III.3), showing a proportion of 9.9% of foreigners in total employment and includes about 30 000 EU/EEA citizens. A more significant increase is expected in 2000; two-thirds of the total rise in

employment up to mid 2000 was due to foreign workers. In the first half of 2000, foreign employment rose with 12 900 (a 4% increase on mid-year 1999) to 10.3% of total employment (332 400).

According to the work-permit statistics of the Ministry of Labour, which refers to citizens outside the EEA-area, foreign employment increased with about 2 300 (or 0.9% compared with July 1999). The discrepancy with social security data either reflects the rising share of EU/EEA citizens, the growing number of naturalisations or both. According to these data, less foreigners, *i.e.*, from outside the EEA-area, were employed in the public sector and in manufacturing whilst the tourist industry, agriculture/forestry and business services were the major employers of foreign workers. Including EU/EEA citizens, *i.e.*, according to social security data, the primary sector (26.3%), textiles-clothing-leather industries (25.4%) and restaurants and hotels (26%) have the highest density of foreign workers in the year 2000.

The structure of foreign workers by nationality is changing slowly. The share of EU citizens has increased to 9.7% in 1999 (mainly Germans). The share of people from the former Yugoslavia has declined further but remains the largest group of foreign workers (40.1%). Since Bosnians receive preferential treatment on humanitarian grounds when they apply for work permits, their share has increased considerably and now accounts for as high a share of total foreign employment as the Germans (6%). The share of Turkish workers, the second biggest group of foreign workers, after a decade of decline, rose to 18.2% as result of the association agreement of Turkey with the EU.

Foreign workers accounted for 12.3% of total unemployment. In 1999, the unemployment rate of foreign men amounted to 8.5% of dependent employment, and the one of women, to 7.5%. This compares with a 6.5% national average for men and 6.9% for women. Turkish workers have the highest unemployment rate of any foreign worker group although their unemployment rate dropped to an all-time low of 9.9% in 1999 (after 10.8% in 1998). Foreign unemployment is concentrated in agriculture and forestry (11.7%), construction (11.2%) and tourism (10.9%) and is higher than for Austrian nationals in agriculture, clothing, trade, and tourism (sectors with a large share of precarious jobs).

4. Policy developments

Admission and residence (including integration measures)

In August 1997, a new legislation came into effect to better regulate the residence and employment rights of immigrants from outside the EU. The prime objective is to facilitate the labour-market integration of family members of foreign workers who have resided in Austria for some time. The first notable effects were registered in 1999 and 2000 as a significant foreign inflow into employment could be observed. The number of employment permits to Turkish immigrants has increased since 1998, mainly as a result of the implementation of the association agreement of Turkey with the EU.

Naturalisation

Increasing numbers of foreigners apply for Austrian citizenship. This trend is not due to Austria's promoting naturalisation but rather to increasing difficulties for foreigners to access the Austrian labour market. Before a firm is granted a permit to employ a foreigner it has to have turned down at least four unemployed Austrians with suitable professional profiles (see Section 2).

Measures to combat the illegal employment of foreign workers

Since Austria's inclusion in the Schengen agreement took effect, the number of illegal entrants rejected at Austrian borders had halved in 1997 and declined further in 1998 (8 675 in the first half of 2000 compared with 9 754 during the same period one year earlier). The most common reasons for refusal of residence and/or expulsion from Austria were due to illegal residence, criminal cases and insufficient means of subsistence. Trafficking of humans has lost much of its magnitude during 1999, as concerted action to prosecute the smugglers has become effective.

THE BALTIC STATES

Introduction

The available migration statistics presented and analysed below are solely of reported long-term (or permanent) movements. Although both Estonia and Latvia conducted censuses in the spring of 2000 and Lithuania did so in April 2001, data from them are not yet available. Whilst the scale of recorded population movements in the Baltic States has been declining over recent years, it is understood that clandestine entries into these countries as well as unreported exits and the overstaying of visas by nationals of the Baltic States, in particular in European Union countries, are very high. Judicious estimates of their extent are, however, unavailable.

1. Trends in migration movements

Immigration flows, having begun to decline in the late 1980s fell sharply in the early 1990s since which time they have been broadly stable at a low level. In 1999, the numbers of new immigrants registering in Estonia and Lithuania were almost unchanged at just under 1 400 and almost 2 700 respectively (see Table III.4); in the case of Latvia the inflow figure, which had until 1999 been following a similar trend to the other two, declined by 40% to slightly over 1 800. Emigration flows peaked in 1992. The downward trend continues in Estonia and Lithuania: in the case of the former, having fallen by one quarter in 1998 the number declined markedly once more, by one fifth to just over 2 000; in the latter, the almost 15% fall recorded in 1998 was followed by a one third decline to 1 370 in 1999. The number leaving Latvia, having declined by two thirds in 1998, fell by a further 40% in 1999 to just under 3 700; this would indicate that the outflow is beginning to stabilise. Net migration, after more than 30 years of being positive, became negative for all three countries the first time in 1990 (see Chart III.4). It was increasingly so in Estonia and Lithuania until 1993 and in Latvia until 1994. Although net migration remains negative in Latvia (–1 850) and in Estonia (–600) the trend is clearly towards balance; Lithuania's net migration gain continues to increase; in 1999 it was slightly more than 1 300 which was over twice the figure recorded in 1998.

Emigration

The return migration of the so called “Russian speaking population” – Russians, Belarussians, Ukrainians – though diminishing, remains the dominant component of emigration flows from the Baltic States. In the case of Latvia, having declined from 80 to 70% during 1998 the proportion fell to 67% in 1999; in the case of Lithuania the corresponding figures were 60, 55 and 48%. Detailed data on the ethnic composition of Estonia's emigration flows were not made available in 1997 or in 1999; in 1998 those leaving for either Russia, Belarus or Ukraine accounted for approximately 60% of the total.

Of the officially recorded emigration flows, those to the West, although not increasing in absolute terms, are increasing as a proportion of the total. In 1990, they accounted for 11% of the total from Estonia, 14% from Latvia and 12% from Lithuania. The most recent available figures are 44% (1998), 42% (1999) and 44% (1999) respectively. With the exception of Poland, which used to be a major destination for emigrants from Lithuania but in 1999 attracted only 24 persons, the principal destination countries for those who officially register their residence remain unchanged: Finland, Germany and the United States for Estonia; the United States, Germany and Israel for Latvia and Lithuania. However, the overstaying of visas by nationals of the Baltic States is understood to be very high, particularly in the European Union, and hence the actual distribution could be very different. For example, whereas between 1991 and 1999 fewer than 30 Lithuanians were recorded as having settled their residence in the United Kingdom, during the first ten months of 2000 over 1 100 were deported.

Inflows and outflows of foreigners

Whereas the visa requirements for the temporary stay of nationals of countries other than the Commonwealth of Independent States have become less strict, all three countries retain restrictive policies with regard

Table III.4. Components of total population change in the Baltic States, 1996-1999

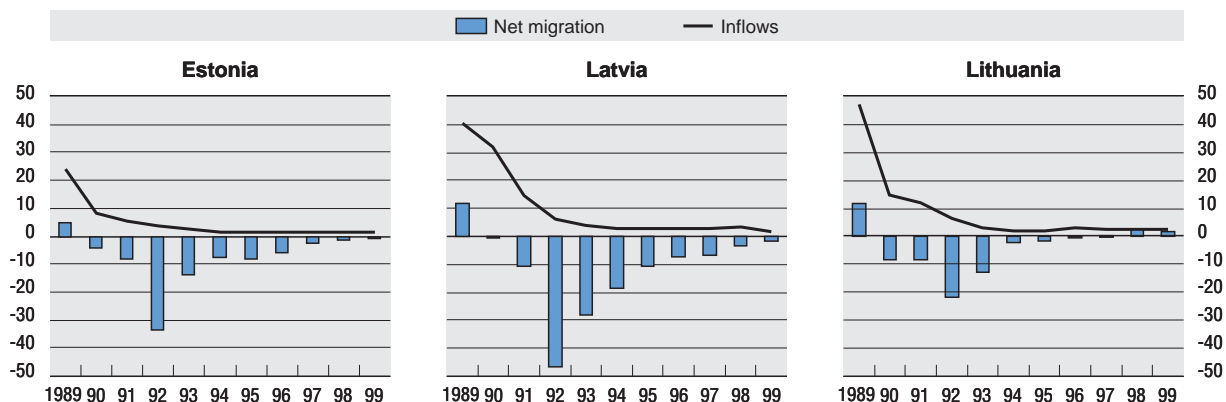
	1996	1997	1998	1999
Lithuania				
Population (annual average)	3 709.5	3 705.6	3 702.4	3 699.7
Population increase (per 1 000 inhabitants)	-1.2	-0.9	-0.9	-0.5
<i>of which:</i>				
Natural increase (per 1 000 inhabitants)	-1.0	-0.9	-1.0	-0.9
Net migration (per 1 000 inhabitants)	-0.2	-	0.1	0.4
Immigration (Thousands)	3.0	2.5	2.7	2.7
Russians	1.1	0.9	0.9	0.9
Lithuanians	1.0	0.9	0.9	0.8
Belarussians	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.1
Other	0.7	0.6	0.7	0.9
Emigration (Thousands)	3.9	2.5	2.1	1.4
Russians	1.8	1.1	0.8	0.5
Lithuanians	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.2
Belarussians	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.1
Other	1.5	0.9	0.8	0.6
Estonia				
Population (annual average)	1 469.2	1 458.0	1 449.7	1 442
Population increase (per 1 000 inhabitants)	-7.8	-5.9	-5.9	-4.5
<i>of which:</i>				
Natural increase (per 1 000 population)	-3.9	-4.0	-4.9	-4.1
Net migration (per 1 000 inhabitants)	-3.9	-1.9	-1.0	-0.4
Immigration (Thousands)	1.5	1.6	1.4	1.4
Russians	0.8
Estonians	0.4
Ukrainians	0.1
Other	0.2
Emigration (Thousands)	7.2	4.5	2.5	2.0
Russians	4.8
Estonians	0.6
Ukrainians	0.6
Belarussians	0.3
Other	0.9
Latvia				
Population (annual average)	2 490.8	2 469.1	2 448.9	2 431.8
Population increase (per 1 000 inhabitants)	-8.8	-8.7	-7.8	-6.3
<i>of which:</i>				
Natural increase (per 1 000 inhabitants)	-5.9	-6.0	-6.5	-5.5
Net migration (per 1 000 inhabitants)	-2.9	-2.7	-1.3	-0.8
Immigration (Thousands)	2.8	2.9	3.1	1.8
Russians	1.2	1.3	1.3	0.8
Latvians	0.9	0.8	0.9	0.3
Ukrainians	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2
Belarussians	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.1
Other	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.4
Emigration (Thousands)	10.0	9.7	6.3	3.7
Russians	6.3	5.6	3.4	1.9
Latvians	0.5	0.6	0.5	0.4
Ukrainians	0.9	1.1	0.5	0.3
Belarussians	0.7	0.9	0.5	0.2
Other	1.6	1.5	1.4	0.8

Source: Demographic Yearbooks.

to entry for permanent settlement. Such entry is essentially limited to three categories of person: returning nationals (*i.e.* those of Estonian, Latvian or Lithuanian ethnic affiliation), family reunion and business-linked migration (which is still not numerous). This policy, which to a considerable extent promotes or blocks the arrival of certain categories of migrants, has the effect of shaping the ethnic structure of migration flows. Hence, in the case of Latvia 19% of the immigration flow in 1999 was comprised of persons whose ethnic affiliation was to

Chart III.4. Migration flows¹ to the Baltic States, 1989-1999

Thousands



1. Data on immigration refer to the flows of migrants who hold a residence permit and who had been registered during the year. Emigrants are counted if they declare their departure to a country where they wish to settle.

Sources: Demographic Yearbooks of Estonia, Latvia and Lithuania, 1999.

that country and a further 60% were Russian, Belarussian or Ukrainian (the large majority of whom, it is believed, have relatives who have resided in the country since the Soviet period); the corresponding figures for Lithuania were 30 and 45% respectively. (Data on the ethnic origin of Estonia's immigrants have not been made available since 1996 when the corresponding figures were 24% and 59%.) It is noteworthy that whereas in the case of Lithuania the proportion of those with an ethnic affiliation to the country has remained broadly constant since 1994, fluctuating around 30%, the corresponding proportion in the inflow to Latvia has been declining steadily, having been 41% in 1994. Migrants from Western countries, the majority of whom come from Germany, the United States and, in the case of Estonia, Finland, are still few in number.

Illegal immigration

The emergence of illegal (transit) migration and migrant trafficking in the Baltic States and its gradual increase can be understood only in the context of its development in a broader area, mainly the former Soviet Union. During the Soviet period any kind of illegal foreign migration (immigration, emigration, transit migration) within the Baltic States as well as all over the former Soviet Union was practically impossible. With soldiers as border guards, and pursuing a closed door immigration/emigration policy, the Soviet Union (and the Baltic States as part of it) was neither an easily accessible nor attractive country for migrants. Such a migration policy had, of course, many negative consequences, but it also resulted in practically non-existent illegal migration. Following the collapse of the Soviet Union the situation changed.

The phenomenon of illegal migration and illegal transit migration in the Baltic States first manifested itself in Estonia. However, due in large part to the strong support from the Nordic countries this illegal flow was reduced to a very low level by the mid-1990s. Since this time the phenomenon has mainly concerned Lithuania which is the only one of the Baltic States sharing an overland border with the West (Germany via Poland). This country has in turn, with the support of the international community, improved its border controls and implemented additional measures to combat traffickers. That the number of illegal immigrants detected in Lithuania has fallen from 1 500 in 1997 to 550 in 1998 and to 350 in 1999 would indicate that the increased efforts are enjoying some success. Just over one third of those apprehended in 1999 were Afghans; the proportion from the Indian sub-continent, which had reached nearly 90% in 1994, was less than 20%. It is the view, however, of the border police of both Lithuania and Belarus (through which the majority of illegal migrants enter Lithuania) that the decrease in illegal migration through the Baltic States is due mainly to the

illegal migrants and traffickers having altered their routes; any diminution in the efforts made to combat these flows is likely to be met by an increase in the phenomenon.

Surveys of those apprehended in 1996 and in 2000 would suggest that Lithuania is increasingly becoming a country of final destination: one third of those asked stated that they had been seeking to stay in the country as compared to less than 3% in 1996.

Though they have signed readmission agreements with the countries of Western Europe they have, with the exception of that with Ukraine, been unable to secure agreements with the principal source countries. The reluctance of Belarus and Russia in this regard is a particular source of concern. Given that it has been estimated that there are about 200 000 illegal migrants in Belarus and approximately 500 000 in Russia, it is considered unlikely that such agreements will be concluded in the near future without Belarus and Russia first concluding similar agreements with their eastern and southern neighbours.

Refugees and asylum seekers

By the middle of 1997 all three Baltic States had passed special laws on refugees and asylum seekers and had ratified the relevant Geneva Convention and Protocol. Nevertheless, real implementation of these laws, *i.e.* consideration of claims for refugee status could start no earlier than the establishment of refugee reception centres and the introduction of a computerised system for data collection, processing and transmission. Therefore, until mid-1998 only that part of these laws which is related to the creation of the infrastructure for accepting refugees was in force. With very limited support from the governments of the three Baltic States, this work is mainly dependent on outside financial contributions (from the UNHCR, the IOM and the Nordic countries).

Applications remain few in number and are mostly made by Afghans, Iraqis, Pakistanis, Somalis and Vietnamese. These applications typically follow apprehension as an illegal immigrant: by applying for asylum the person can remain in the Baltic States under better conditions than those for illegal migrants. For all three countries combined, the total numbers of applications were 217 in 1998 and 182 in 1999, of which, mirroring its position as the country the most affected by illegal immigration, three quarters were made in Lithuania.

2. Structure and changes in the foreign population

During the Soviet period, the proportion of Russians, Belarussians and Ukrainians steadily increased in all three Baltic States; following the reversal in migration flows in early 1990s it has been diminishing.

Foreigners (including stateless persons) accounted for less than 19% of Lithuania's total adult population in 1997, the most recent year for which figures are available. By contrast, in 1999 almost 45% of Latvia's permanent residents did not possess that country's nationality; the corresponding figure for Estonia, in 1997, was 35%. This difference will in all likelihood persist in the future since, according to various sociological surveys, over 50% of Russian "non-citizens" do not intend to apply for local citizenship. Quantitative differences in the sizes of the foreign populations have led to certain qualitative differences in the manner in which their residence status has been resolved. Whilst Lithuania could afford to use traditional methods (*i.e.* the way those problems are solved in most European countries), Estonia and Latvia had to seek a new solution. Therefore, special laws specifically governing the rights, obligations and legal status of aliens (former USSR citizens) were adopted. These were outlined in the 1999 edition of this report.

3. Policy developments

In all three Baltic States, the general approach towards migration related policy was established in the early 1990s. The various changes in migration policy introduced since then have for the most part been made in conformity with the established approach or, as has been the case most recently, with the primary aim of bringing their laws and regulations into line with those prevailing in the European Union.

Combating illegal immigration

Aware that actions taken to combat irregular migration should be taken on the basis of national and international laws and should not violate international conventions providing for basic and fundamental human rights (which rules out a previous practice of detaining illegal immigrants on the sole basis of Ministerial instructions, for example), the Baltic States modified their relevant pieces of legislation in 1998 and 1999 in order to bring them into line with the requirements of the European Union.

In Estonia, the Obligation to Leave and Entry Ban Act passed in October 1998, which set out the legal basis and rules concerning the detention of illegal migrants and their return or deportation, came into force in April 1999 at the same time as the amendments passed in February 1999 to the Alien's Act which set out the sanctions which may be imposed on aliens staying in Estonia unlawfully. On the basis of this latter Act, persons who facilitate illegal immigration through providing employment or accommodation are also liable to punishment. In September 2000, in order to combat the passage of illegal immigrants towards the European Union, Estonia unilaterally introduced a full-visa regime at the Russian-Estonian border, ending the previous simplified regime for those living near the border.

The Lithuanian Ministry of Internal Affairs started implementing active measures against illegal migration in January 1997 with the establishment of the Foreigners' Registration Centre in Pabrade which accommodates all apprehended illegal foreign nationals. At the beginning of 1998, the Regulations for the Return of Foreigners were passed. At the same time, the administration of the Border Police was reorganised and the personnel redistributed in order to tighten the control of the border with Belarus. Moreover, in view of the extensive involvement of traffickers in the illegal migration process, the Criminal Code was amended to increase the maximum punishment for migrant traffickers to 15 years' imprisonment along with the forfeiture of their property (the most severe punishment for trafficking in Europe). This legislative change has been accompanied by increased efforts on the part of the police to apprehend them.

Refuges and asylum seekers

A new Refugee Act came into force in Lithuania in September 2000. This new act has been primarily designed to bring Lithuanian legislation on refugee matters into conformity with the European Union *acquis communautaire*. First of all, the new Refugee Law introduces completely new refugee status determination procedure with new asylum related concepts, such as safe third country, safe country of origin, manifestly unfounded applications and the right to family reunion. It also introduces a new procedure whereby an asylum seekers' admissibility into Lithuanian territory is determined at the Lithuanian border. Under this procedure, an asylum seeker may be refused entry at the border for reasons which include, most notably, having passed through a safe third country or submitting an application which is considered to be manifestly unfounded. Asylum seekers may appeal to the Court against such a refusal.

Amendments to the Estonian Refugees Act passed in February 1999 came into force in September of the same year. Responsibility for decisions on asylum applications was thereby transferred to the Citizenship and Migration Department, an initial reception centre closer to the capital was created and a state register for asylum seekers and refugees was established. An amendment to the Aliens Act passed in February 1999 and which came into force in October of the same year rendered persons who have been refused refugee status but who cannot be sent back to their countries of origin eligible to apply for a Estonian residence permit.

BELGIUM

Introduction

Economic activity in Belgium expanded in 1999 and 2000, fuelled by growth in GDP of 2.7% and 4% respectively. OECD forecasts predict lower rates of growth in 2001 and 2002, however, with average growth of 2.8%. The containment of wage costs coupled with the recovery in the economy have led to an increase in the volume of employment. In 2000, for example, the Federal Ministry of Employment and Labour estimates the net increase in employment to have amounted to 50 500 jobs, primarily in the private sector. The standardised employment rate has declined since 1998, falling from 9.5% to 8.8% in 1999 and 7% in 2000.

1. Trends in migration movements

Emigration and the return of nationals

Net migration of nationals was negative (-9 088, see Table III.5). In all, slightly fewer than 20 000 Belgians left the country, including immigrants returning to their country of origin and consisting primarily of French, Dutch and United States nationals.

Inflows and outflows of foreigners

The 1990s were characterised by substantial net migration gains, which averaged almost 20 000 between 1989 and 1999. The influx of foreign nationals was largely due to the arrival of EU nationals. The size of this flow reflects the central role played by Brussels as a host to European institutions. On the whole, French and Dutch nationals accounted for the largest share of total inflows, followed by Moroccans. The Turkish community also accounted for a significant share (10% of net migration flows).

Refugees and asylum seekers

The number of asylum applications in Belgium increased between 1988 and 1993, peaking at just over 26 400 at the end of this period. While the annual average over the next four years was significantly lower (12 500) applications, the number subsequently started to rise again with just over 22 000 applications in 1998, 35 778 in 1999 and over 38 000 in 2000. For refugees to be admitted, their application must first be ruled admissible by the Office for Foreign Nationals, after which their case is examined closely in accordance with the Geneva Convention. Since 1995, nationals of the Republics of the former Yugoslavia have constituted the largest group of applicants (11% in 2000). Nationals of the Russian Federation are the next largest (8%), followed by Albania and Iran. About 97% of applications were filed inside Belgium.

2. Structure and changes in the foreign population

Numerical trends

As of 31 December 1999, Belgium had a population of just over 10 million inhabitants, of which slightly under 900 000 foreigners, *i.e.* 8.8% of the total population, a figure that has remained stable since 1990 (see Table III.5). Between 1985 and 1999, twelve nationalities accounted for more than 85% of the foreign population resident in Belgium. Some 60% of that population consisted of EU nationals, primarily from Italy, France, the Netherlands and Germany. The largest non-EU communities consisted of Moroccans (122 000) and Turks (70 000).

In 1999, some 48% of the foreign resident population consisted of women, a figure four percentage points lower than the share of women in the Belgian population. The average rate of growth in the total population over the past ten years amounts to 0.2%. The foreign population contributes to growth in the total population both through the natural increase in foreigners, which accounts for 36% of the total natural increase, and through net positive migration.

Table III.5. **Current figures on the components of total population change, on flows and stocks of foreign population and labour force in Belgium**

All figures in thousands unless otherwise indicated

	1996	1997	1998	1999		1996	1997	1998	1999
Components of population change					Total work permits issued (Initial and renewed) by nationality¹				
<i>Total population</i>					United States	1.3	1.2	1.7	1.6
Population (on 31 December)	10 170.2	10 192.3	10 213.8	10 239.1	Dem. Rep. of Congo	0.5	0.4	0.7	1.1
Population increase from beginning to end of year	27.2	22.1	21.5	25.3	Japan	1.0	0.9	0.9	1.0
<i>of which:</i>					Former Yugoslavia	0.3	0.3	1.2	0.9
Natural increase	11.1	12.1	9.7	8.6	Morocco	0.7	0.7	0.8	0.9
Net migration	12.7	6.0	6.7	12.3	Other	4.9	5.4	6.6	7.6
Statistical adjustment	3.4	4.0	5.1	4.5	Total	8.7	9.0	11.8	13.2
					<i>of which:</i> Initial work permits	4.6	5.2	7.3	8.7
<i>Nationals</i>					Migration flows of cross-border workers by country of origin/destination				
Population (on 31 December)	9 258.3	9 289.1	9 321.8	9 342.1	Inflows by country of origin	17.6	18.6	20.5	..
Population increase from beginning to end of year	25.0	30.8	32.6	20.3	<i>of which:</i>				
<i>of which:</i>					France	12.0	12.7	14.1	..
Natural increase	7.2	8.1	6.4	5.4	Netherlands	4.8	5.2	5.5	..
Net migration	-6.7	-8.6	-7.7	-9.1	Outflows by country of destination	46.7	48.5	51.6	..
Acquisitions of nationality	24.6	31.6	33.9	24.1	<i>of which:</i>				
Statistical adjustment	-	-0.2	-0.3	-0.2	Luxembourg	18.3	19.4	21.0	..
<i>Foreigners</i>					Netherlands	13.5	14.2	15.1	..
Population (on 31 December)	911.9	903.1	892.0	897.0	France	5.9	5.8	5.9	..
Population increase from beginning to end of year	2.2	-8.8	-11.1	5.0	Labour force by group of nationality²				
<i>of which:</i>					Nationals				
Natural increase	3.9	4.0	3.3	3.1	Employed	3 433.5	3 453.1	3 498.8	..
Net migration	19.5	14.7	14.4	21.3	Unemployed	451.4	445.7	413.9	387.2
Acquisitions of nationality	-24.6	-31.6	-33.9	-24.1	Participation rate (%)	51.2	51.2	51.2	..
Statistical adjustment	3.4	4.1	5.3	4.7	Unemployment rate (%)	11.6	11.4	10.6	..
Inflows of foreigners by group of nationality	51.9	49.2	50.7	57.8	Foreigners				
EU	28.7	27.6	27.4	28.0	Employed	276.2	285.3	289.6	..
Other European countries	3.4	5.2	6.4	..	Unemployed	93.5	94.9	91.4	87.9
Africa	7.7	7.1	7.8	..	Participation rate (%)	48.8	49.9	50.4	..
America	4.9	5.0	4.7	..	Unemployment rate (%)	25.3	25.0	24.0	..
Asia	6.7	4.0	4.1	..	Total (nationals and foreigners)				
Oceania	0.2	0.3	0.2	..	Employed	3 709.7	3 738.4	3 788.5	..
Region not specified	0.3	0.1	0.1	..	Unemployed	544.9	540.6	505.3	475.1
Asylum seekers	12.4	11.8	22.1	35.8	Participation rate (%)	51.0	51.1	51.2	..
Mixed marriages	6.2	6.0	6.4	6.8	Unemployment rate (%)	12.8	12.6	11.8	..
% of total marriages	12.3	12.5	14.4	15.4					
Marriages with an EU citizen	3.3	3.0	3.1	2.9					

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

1. Work permits are issued either for unlimited periods (A permits) or for limited periods (B permits). EU citizens do not need a work permit.

2. Data refer to the population on the 30 June of the years indicated.

Sources: Institut national de la Statistique and Registre national de la population; ministère de l'Emploi et du Travail; Office national de l'Emploi, Commissariat général aux réfugiés et apatrides; Institut national d'assurances sociales pour travailleurs indépendants (INASTI).

Naturalisations

In 1999, ten nationalities accounted for almost three quarters of the total number of naturalisations. Of the foreigners naturalised since 1995, over a third were nationals of Morocco (38%), Turkey (18%) or Italy (5%). There has been significant growth in the number of successful applications from nationals of the Republics of the former Yugoslavia, which rose from 499 in 1998 to 756 in 1999.

Regularisations

Legislation to regularise the status of certain categories of illegal immigrants resident in Belgium entered into force on 10 January 2000. A total of 32 662 cases concerning 50 600 individuals, of whom 23 000 children, were submitted for review. The initial aim of the government was to process all cases and issue a final ruling by June 2001 at the latest. As of January 2001, only 2 226 cases have been examined and 2 032 positive rulings handed down.

3. Migration and the labour market

Migration for employment and work permits

Belgium issues two categories of work permit: A permits of unlimited duration and valid for all paid occupations; and B permits, which are valid for a maximum of 12 months and which are limited to a single employer. Over the past five years the proportion of B permits has been rising and currently accounts for over 80% of the total number of permits granted to foreign workers.

The number of new entrants to the labour market, measured in terms of the number of initial work permits issued, amounted to 8 670 in 1999 (see Table III.5). These permits were granted to nationals of the Democratic Republic of Congo (10%), the United States (9.6%) and the Republics of the former Yugoslavia (8.6%).

As of June 1999, the total labour force was estimated to amount to slightly under 4 300 000 workers of whom 381 000 were foreigners, *i.e.* 9% of the total. Between 1989 and 1998, the Belgian labour force increased by 3.5%, compared with a 28.9% increase in the foreign labour force. The overall participation rate in 1998 was approximately 50%. Over two thirds of foreign workers were EU nationals, the largest groups being Italian (27%) and French (15%). Among non-EU nationals, Moroccan workers were the largest group (12%). The disaggregation by nationality of those in salaried employment closely mirrored these proportions. In 1998, there were more than 2 800 000 Belgian wage-earners and 236 000 foreign wage-earners (62% of the foreign labour force). In contrast, the breakdown for self-employment was different: the Italians, Dutch and French were the main groups of self-employed workers. Moroccans, who were the largest non-EU community, ranked only seventh among non-EU self-employed workers.

Of the slightly more than 439 000 unemployed workers at 30 June 2000, almost 81% were Belgian nationals. The proportion of unemployed foreign workers has risen by two percentage points over the past ten years. The nationalities with the highest number of unemployed were Italian (20 196 unemployed in 2000), Moroccan (17 534) and Turkish (10 667).

4. Policy developments

An Act amending a number of the rules relating to Belgian nationality was passed on 1 March 2000. This Act simplifies and streamlines the procedures for acquiring Belgian nationality, notably by relaxing the age requirements and by abolishing verification of the applicant's "desire to integrate".

In January 2000, in response to a proposal by Mrs. Onkelinckx, the Employment Minister, the Belgian government approved draft regulations under which the beneficiaries of the legislation designed to regularise the status of certain categories of immigrants (Act of 22 December 1999) would be granted access to the labour market.

The beginning of the year also saw the opening of new asylum centres (Ekeren, Wommelgem, Jodoigne, Wingene) and the renovation and refurbishing of older existing centres. These centres can now accommodate up to around a 1 000 asylum seekers.

On 25 October 2000, the government announced new measures regarding benefits for asylum seekers. As soon as applications are judged to be admissible, social aid will now be provided in the asylum centres that have been set up. During this period, public benefit agencies will no longer be obliged to pay social benefits. This represents a shift from financial aid to material aid. This new procedure will require an increase of 10 000 in the number of asylum seekers who can be accommodated in centres. Efforts will be made to secure new partners in the private sector. The aim of this new system is to reduce the attractiveness of the financial aid previously granted to asylum seekers. This change in the legislation should also help combat the exploitation by immigrant smugglers of asylum seekers hoping to receive financial benefits as soon as their applications have been filed.

BULGARIA

Introduction

Due in large part to the macroeconomic stabilization achieved through the introduction of a currency board in 1997, the Bulgarian economy has entered a phase of moderately paced growth. As a result, however, of earlier economic mismanagement combined with external shocks, GDP is still below 70% of the level immediately following the collapse of the communist regime. Of the East European applicants for European Union membership, only Romania has a lower GDP *per capita*. In the face of continued economic restructuring and despite the fact that wage costs are relatively low in comparison to other countries in the region, registered unemployment reached almost 20% in 2000 before falling back slightly towards the end of the year.

Migration flows continue to be of only a small scale. The main focus of migration policy has been on bringing the existing legislation regarding foreigners into line with European Union norms, combating illegal immigration both to and through Bulgaria and creating an effective system for the administration of asylum applications and the integration of recognised refugees.

1. Trends in migration movements

Emigration

It is not possible to gauge even approximately the magnitude of permanent emigration flows. Bulgarians leaving the country must register their departure, no matter how long their absence from the country, and are requested to state the purpose of their visit, but the published data are highly aggregated: they are grouped under tourism, personal reasons, business and employment.

However, available data show a slight decrease of emigration flows. Registration of departures at the border point out that in 1999, about 42 500 people migrated officially abroad in order to work. The number of people concerned by bilateral agreements on work has gradually decreased to fewer than 1 500 in 1999, as compared with more than 2 700 in 1996. However, there are still many Bulgarian citizens concerned by migration to the United States through the Green Cards procedure who are mostly highly skilled.

Since the peak of 4 400 000 in 1994, the number of foreign trips by Bulgarian residents has steadily fallen to just under 2 400 000 in 1999. Taking into account that tourism is traditionally the most significant feature (nearly 60% of such travel in 1999), this is possibly due to the real decrease of incomes of population. Traditionally the main outflow of migration uses to be directed to Turkey and former Yugoslavia and Macedonia. Since 1995 the flow of passengers to Turkey decreases so that in 1999 it is about half the travels in 1994 and 10.5% less than in 1998. The decrease is even more significant in the case of former Yugoslavia and Macedonia because of the Kosovo crisis (1994: 1 745 500; 1999: 540 800).

While in 1998 there was substantial decrease of travels to Greece, in 1999 their number was restored to 254 117 but still below the record in 1995-97. Short-term migration to that country continues to grow. The trips

to Central Europe slightly increased compared with 1998. The travels to Poland reached 21 200, to Hungary 22 900 while the visits to Czech Republic decreased with 12%. Besides, the number of applications for asylum filled by Bulgarians abroad has dropped sharply, to fewer than 1 500 in 1998, as compared with the hundreds of thousands of people applying for asylum at the beginning of the decade.

There is a growing political concern about the number of Bulgarians living abroad. According to a nationwide survey conducted in June 1999, approximately 10% of the population receive financial support from relatives living abroad. The most recent estimate put the total annual inflow at USD 200 million (or 6.1% of the annual export). A very active policy for encouraging Bulgarians abroad to return, invest and support the reforms was promoted: each year at the "Bulgarian Easter" meeting, over 400 Bulgarian highly skilled workers, managers, and graduate students living abroad meet with leading politicians.

Illegal immigration

The number of foreigners living in Bulgaria illegally (which some estimates put at 10 000) is believed to be relatively low compared with the situation in other European countries. Most illegal immigrants overstay a visa, cross the border illegally, hold false papers or residence permits or attempt to stay in Bulgaria rather than board a connecting flight. It is the intention of most illegal immigrants to enter other central European or European union countries (Greece, Austria, Germany) from Bulgaria.

Refugees and asylum seekers

Despite political turbulence in the Balkans, and the recent Kosovo crisis, applications for asylum continue to rise slightly and concern 1 300 people in 1999. Citizens of the former Yugoslavia accounted for 30% of them, Afghans 19% and Iraqis 13%. Of the 624 decisions made in 1999, 28% were to grant Convention status and 40% humanitarian status (in 1998, this latter figure was 2%). Of the 1 750 decisions made between 1995 and 1999, just under 600 resulted in the granting of Convention status and 290 humanitarian status.

Bulgaria needs assistance and funds from donor organisations to provide refugees with adequate accommodation services. The Red Cross, the UNHCR and the German DAFI contribute to the medical insurance, financial support for students and food and sanitation programmes of those of the refugees who are the most vulnerable.

2. Structure and changes in the foreign population

Numerical trends

Apart from censuses (the latest data available being from 1992), the National Statistics Institute does not collect data on Bulgaria's foreign population. Immigration flows are therefore estimated on the basis of the number of residence and work permits issued, and the number of people obtaining refugee status or applying for asylum. In addition, the National Statistics Institute publishes data on visits to Bulgaria by foreign residents.

Since 1998, data have been made available on Bulgaria's foreign population broken down into two categories: those possessing permanent residence status and those holding a so-called "long-term residence permit". The first group refers to foreigners married to Bulgarian citizens (proportionately the most important), persons of Bulgarian ethnicity, the children or parents of Bulgarian citizens, foreigners who have legally stayed in the country for more than 5 years or who have legally invested over USD 250 000. The second residence permit, which is valid for one year and renewable, is generally granted for employment purposes though persons who have sufficient funds to stay in the country without imposing a financial burden on the State are also eligible.

Having increased continually since 1991 to 1998, the number of permanent residents declined by 6% to 38 700 in 1999. This decline is primarily attributable to a 9% fall in the number of persons originating from the Commonwealth of Independent States (CIS) who comprise over two thirds of those with this residence status. Indeed, excepting the very slight decline in the number of Central Europeans and Asians, all the other significant regional groups recorded increases (see Table III.6).

Table III.6. **Current figures on the stocks of foreign population, Bulgaria**

	Thousands			
	1996	1997	1998	1999
Stock of foreign citizens				
A. Permanent residents				
CIS	27.2	28.8	28.9	26.4
Central Europe	2.4	2.4	2.5	2.3
EU	1.6	1.8	1.9	2.2
Other European countries	1.8	1.9	2.0	2.1
Middle East	1.6	1.4	1.7	1.8
Africa	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.5
America	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.5
Asia	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.5
Stateless	1.9	1.9	1.8	1.7
Other	1.5	1.4	1.3	0.7
Total	38.8	40.6	41.1	38.7
B. Long-term residents				
EU	10.4	11.9	13.6	16.2
Central Europe	–	0.1	0.1	0.3
Other European countries	4.3	5.5	6.5	8.6
Middle East	8.3	8.8	6.4	8.5
CIS	3.3	4.7	6.2	8.8
Africa	4.8	5.0	5.1	5.5
Asia	3.0	3.4	4.1	5.7
America	2.3	2.4	2.6	3.0
Other	3.4	3.8	7.0	7.0
Total	40.0	45.4	51.7	63.5
Asylum seekers¹	0.3	0.4	0.8	1.0
Naturalisations	3.0	1.1	2.3	2.2

1. Number of applications. Some dependents accompanying the applicant are not counted.

Sources: National Employment Service, National Statistical Institute and UNHCR.

By contrast, the number of long-term permit holders (of whom there were 22 000 in 1991) rose by almost one quarter in 1999 to 63 600. All the significant regions recorded increases, most notably East and Southeast Europe and the CIS group. Whereas European Union nationals comprise less than 6% of the total stock of permanent residents they account for almost one fourth of long-term residents, a majority of whom are Greek. Citizens of CIS countries in this category are less than half as numerous.

Naturalisations

The introduction in 1999 of a new Nationality Act, more transparent though also more rigorous than that of 1968 which it replaced, did not lead to a significant change in the total number of naturalisations granted in that year (see Table III.6). The eligible applicants are mainly those who reside in the country for more than 5 years as well as spouses of foreign origin. Though the total number, at just under 2 200, was 5% fewer than the preceding year it should be borne in mind that that figure was more than twice that of 1997. One third of those granted citizenship in 1999 had previously held it; numbering just over 720, they were slightly outnumbered by persons cancelling their Bulgarian citizenship, for having acquired foreign citizenship abroad.

3. Migration and the labour market

Statistics on the employment of foreigners in Bulgaria cover only those in possession of a work permit which only those in salaried employment are obliged to obtain; the number of foreign self-employed persons and small-scale entrepreneurs, who constitute the largest group of people obtaining long-term residence permits, is not monitored. The latter are attracted to Bulgaria by the relative dynamism of the services and SME sector and the lack of complicated administrative formalities.

The majority of the work permits issued by the national employment authorities have been for managers working for multinational enterprises. In 1999, just over 100 new permits were issued and a similar number of extensions were granted; both figures were in line with those of the previous two years. Most of the workers come from European Union countries or the United States.

4. Policy developments

Combating illegal immigration

Motivated by the strong political will to join the EU, the main focus of migration policy has been on bringing the existing legislation regarding foreigners into conformity with the *acquis communautaire*, combating illegal immigration both to and through Bulgaria and creating an effective system for the administration of asylum applications and the integration of recognised refugees. In addition, with a view to promoting the country's economic and political development, an active policy to encourage dialogue with and the return of expatriate Bulgarians has recently been implemented.

Following the approval by parliament at the beginning of 1999 of the Law on Identification Documents (ID), the government introduced in April of the same year regulations concerning the change of ID, the main purpose of which was to provide for a change in the format of the country's passports and driving licenses, both of which were easily forged. The deadline for changing these documents was set for the end of 2000, which is very ambitious given the extent of the administrative burden and the financial cost, but generally, this measure has succeeded.

Admission and residence (including integration measures)

Regulations concerning the implementation of the Foreigners Act (in force since January 2000) were issued in May 2000. The regulations establish clear mechanisms for the implementation of the law with regard to entry, residence and exit of the country by foreigners. They also set out the responsibilities of the authorities in this regard. Foreigners residing in the country have to declare the purpose of their visit, provide an address and must complete an "information card", which is stored by the respective authorities until the foreigner leaves the country. Any change of address has to be reported within 7 days to the administration dealing with foreign residents. Services for administrative control of foreigners monitor the flow of foreigners according to the new regulatory frameworks. Prolongation of visas is subject to very strict criteria and procedures. Permission can only be granted by the head of the policy office of the respective region. The new regulations also limit further the possibility for the use of "engagement in entrepreneurial activities" as a valid justification for immigration: this had been abused under the previous legislation. In addition to registering the company as a commercial entity, foreigners are now also required to obtain approval from the tax authorities and the social security department; they must also register with the National Statistical Institute and provide evidence of satisfactory revenues.

Refugees and asylum

The former National Bureau for Territorial Asylum and Refugees (NBTA) has been upgraded to the status of an Agency. The Agency for Refugees has responsibility for all issues related to asylum seekers and refugees, including decisions, the issuance of ID, the provision of accommodation and the arrangement of language courses and vocational training, as well as programmes for the Bulgarian population to inform them on refugee issues. As a means increasing the financial resources devoted to refugees and asylum seekers, a fund has been established which collects contributions from both Bulgarian and foreign donors. In view of the importance of education for refugees' successful integration, a *Regulation for the free access of refugees to Bulgarian schools* has been introduced. The refugees are now being helped to select the most appropriate form of education by a special Commission comprised of representatives of local offices of the Ministry of Education and the Agency for Refugees.

Nationals abroad

One of the main elements of the Government's migration policy is to further develop the institutions that deal with expatriate Bulgarians and to draw on their experience in order to promote the country's economic and political development. The funding and organisation of the State Agency for Bulgarians Abroad have been improved. Its role is to collect information about Bulgarians abroad and to provide them with reliable information regarding the recent political, economic and cultural developments in Bulgaria as well as the investment opportunities there. In addition, it is hoped that the independent assessments of Bulgarians working in major financial institutions, banks and corporations abroad will be of benefit to the conduct of economic policy.

CANADA

Introduction

After two years of nearly 5% growth, the Canadian economy showed signs of slowing in the fourth quarter of 2000, influenced by cyclical trends in the US economy. The unemployment rate fell again in 2000, from 7.6% to 6.8%, but could reach 7.2% in 2001. The number of immigrants increased significantly in 1999 after the decline observed in 1998, but did not reach the target set in the Annual Immigration Plan. Nevertheless, Canada is expected to take in a growing number of immigrants in 2000 and 2001.

A new Immigration and Refugee Protection Act was introduced in Parliament in February, 2001. The proposed legislative changes reaffirm a commitment to strengthening enforcement practices to better manage access to Canada while reinforcing efforts to attract skilled workers and entrepreneurs, strengthening the integrity of the refugee determination system and expanding family class.

1. Trends in migration movements

Inflows and outflows of foreign-born persons

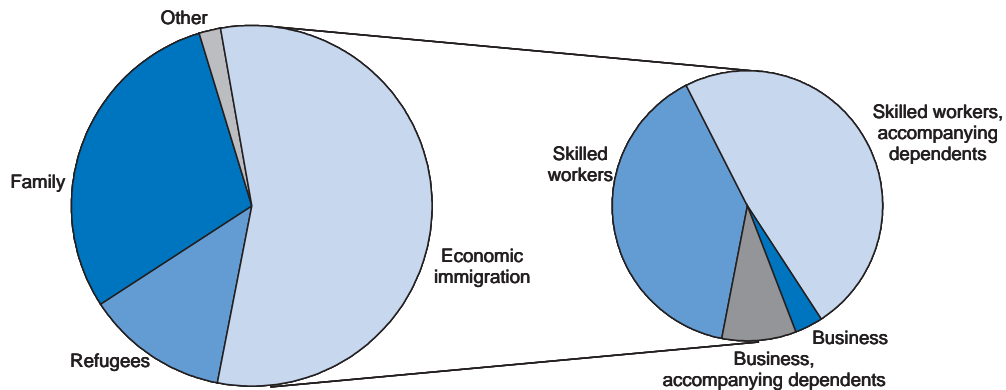
In 1999, approximately 189 800 permanent resident permits were issued. This figure, an increase of 9.1% on 1998, is nevertheless below the range anticipated by Citizenship and Immigration Canada (CIC), which had expected to attract between 200 000 and 225 000 immigrants. However, the upward trend continued in 2000 and on the basis of estimates for the first six months of 2001, it is expected that the figure could reach 225 000 by the end of 2001.

A little under a third of permanent immigrants entered on the basis of family reunion (55 200 people, compared with an anticipated 53 500 to 58 300). Approximately 56% of them were in the skilled worker and business classes (105 400 people, compared with the expected minimum of 117 900, *i.e.* a shortfall of 10.6%) and 13% in the refugee class (24 370 people, compared with an anticipated 22 100 to 29 300) (see Chart III.5 and Table III.7). The targets for 2000 are the same as for the previous year.

Between 1998 and 1999, immigration of skilled workers and business persons rose by approximately 11%, while immigration for family reunion grew by 8.5% and the number of refugees grew at a slightly lower rate, in the region of 7.3%.

Analysis of flows by sending country reveals the increasing concentration of sources of immigration (see Chart III.6). In 1999, some 50.8% of immigrants were from the Asia-Pacific area (48.3% in 1998) and 20.5% were from Europe (22.12% in 1998). It is mainly immigration from Hong Kong that has declined (1997: 22 200; 1998: 8 000; 1999: 3 700). It is now only the thirteenth largest source of immigration to Canada, after ranking first in 1996 and 1997. For the past two years the Chinese (29 000) and Indians (17 400) have been the two largest groups of immigrants (see Table III.8). The number of nationals from the People's Republic of China has risen by 47%, while the number of Indians has increased by 13%. Pakistanis (9 300) and Filipinos (9 200) constitute the third and fourth largest groups, which have been relatively stable for the past two years.

Chart III.5. Inflows of permanent settlers, by type, 1999, Canada



Source: Citizenship and Immigration Canada.

Table III.7. Immigrants¹ by type, 1996-1999, Canada

Thousands

	1996	1997	1998	1999
Family	68.3	60.0	50.9	55.2
Skilled workers ²	97.8	105.6	81.1	92.4
Principal applicants	42.1	44.9	35.9	41.5
Accompanying dependents	55.7	60.7	45.3	50.9
Business	22.5	19.9	13.8	13.0
Principal applicants	6.2	5.6	3.8	3.6
Accompanying dependents	16.3	14.3	10.0	9.4
Refugees	28.3	24.1	22.7	24.4
Government assisted ³	7.9	7.7	7.4	7.4
Privately sponsored ³	3.1	2.6	2.2	2.3
Recognised refugees ⁴	17.4	13.8	13.1	14.6
Live-in-Caregiver ⁵	4.8	2.7	2.9	3.3
Principal applicants	3.8	2.3	2.4	..
Accompanying dependents	0.9	0.5	0.4	..
Retirees	0.1	-	-	-
Other ⁶	4.0	3.4	2.6	1.5
Backlog	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.1
Immigrants, Total	226.1	216.0	174.2	189.8

1. An immigrant corresponds to a person obtaining the right of permanent residence, either within Canada or from abroad. Including accompanying dependents for economic and humanitarian categories.

2. Figures include the Independent class and the Assisted Relatives class. Selection criteria are only applied to the principal applicants.

3. Including persons in "designated classes", who do not strictly satisfy the United Nations convention on refugees criteria but are resettled for humanitarian reasons.

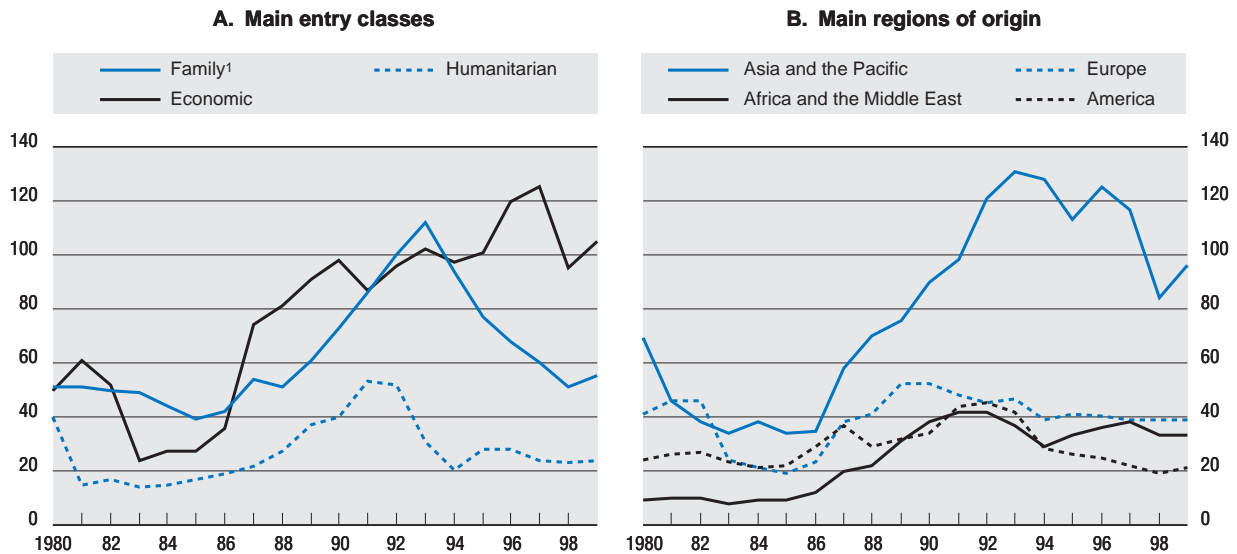
4. Asylum seekers who have been granted refugee status.

5. Programme for child care workers and assistants for elderly people in private households.

6. Mainly Deferred Removal Order Class.

Source: Citizenship and Immigration Canada.

Chart III.6. **Inflows of permanent settlers by entry class and region of origin, 1980-1999, Canada**
Thousands



Note: Except for the family class, counts include both principal applicants and their accompanying dependents, if any. Figures also include backlog clearance.
1. Immigrants sponsored by Canadian residents (spouses, dependent children, parents and persons in their charge).
Source: Citizenship and Immigration Canada.

With regard to immigration from OECD countries, there was a marked increase in immigration from Korea, which rose by 47% on 1998 (1999: 7 200), making it the fifth-ranking country. Immigration from Germany also rose sharply (+40%), while that from the United States (+16%) and the United Kingdom (+15%) increased at a lower rate and the number of French nationals levelled off after the sharp increase of the previous year (3 900 in 1999).

Immigrants also tend to be concentrated in certain Canadian regions and cities. As in the past, the majority of residence permits issued in 1999 were for the province of Ontario (54.8%), followed by British Columbia (19%) and then Quebec (15.4%). In these three provinces, respectively, the cities of Toronto (44%), Vancouver (14.6%) and Montreal (12%) attract the largest number of immigrants. Quebec's share continued to increase last year, albeit more slowly.

The demographic characteristics of immigration are relatively stable: 75% of those entering Canada were aged between 15 and 64, with 104 women per 100 men in 1999. Due to the selection criteria, immigrants have relatively high levels of education, with 57% having reached the post-secondary level.

Economic immigration

Immigration of skilled workers and business persons and their dependants increased in 1999 after falling in previous years (1995-97: +25%; 1997-98: -24.4%; 1998-99: +11%). The slowdown in 1997 could be attributed in part to the stricter eligibility criteria for foreign investors, while the trend reversal in 1998 could be due to the economic crisis in Asia.

With regard to immigration by skilled workers, the most significant change since 1997 is the 86% fall in immigration from Hong Kong (1999: 730). But with the exception of China (+40%) and India (+60%), immigration of skilled workers from Asia systematically and significantly declined: -51.5% for Chinese Taipei, -49.3% for the Philippines, -38% for Pakistan and -19.4% for Iran. Among the movements showing increases, the main feature was the inflow of workers from France (+55% since 1997). Quebec was the province to benefit most from this trend, since in 1999 it took in 14% of skilled foreign workers, as compared to just 8.8% in 1997.

Table III.8. Immigrants¹ by type and by country of birth, 1993 and 1999, Canada

Top ten countries of origin in 1999
Thousands

	Skilled workers Principal applicants				Business Principal applicants			
	1993		1999		1993		1999	
	Thousands	Rank	Thousands	Rank	Thousands	Rank	Thousands	Rank
Total	34.0		41.5		8.3		3.6	
China	0.8	10	10.1	1	0.6	3	0.7	1
India	1.0	7	3.4	2	1.8	2	0.5	2
Pakistan	2.2	3	0.1	15	0.5	3
France	2.2	4	2.1	4	3.5	1	0.3	4
Iran	1.3	5	0.1	16	0.2	5
Korea	1.2	6	0.1	5	0.2	6
United Kingdom	1.8	5	1.2	7	0.1	7
Romania	1.0	8	1.1	8	0.1	7	0.1	8
Chinese Taipei	0.2	29	1.1	9	0.1	9
Russian Federation	1.0	10	0.1	6	0.1	10
1999 Top 10 countries (% of total)	..		60.0		77.1		77.1	
	Family members				Total immigrants Principal applicants and dependents			
	1993		1999		1993		1999	
	Thousands	Rank	Thousands	Rank	Thousands	Rank	Thousands	Rank
Total	112.1		55.2		255.8		189.8	
India	17.3	1	9.5	1	9.5	5	29.1	1
China	7.2	4	5.6	2	20.5	2	17.4	2
Philippines	8.1	3	4.0	3	4.2	14	9.3	3
United States	4.8	8	2.9	4	19.8	3	9.2	4
Pakistan	2.6	5	7.2	5
Jamaica	5.0	6	1.8	6	5.9	6
Sri Lanka	4.4	9	1.5	7	8.0	8	5.5	7
United Kingdom	2.7	11	1.4	8	9.9	4	5.5	8
Vietnam	5.6	5	1.3	9	9.1	6	4.7	9
Guyana	1.1	10	7.2	3	4.5	10
1999 Top 10 countries (% of total)	49.2		57.7		34.4		51.8	

1. An immigrant is a person obtaining the right of permanent residence, either within Canada or from abroad.

Source: Citizenship and Immigration Canada.

The inflow of investors and entrepreneurs (business persons) continued to decline, though at a slower pace than in previous years. Immigration from Hong Kong dropped sharply (-57% between 1998 and 1999) but still ranked fourth in absolute terms. The immigration of investors and entrepreneurs from China followed a trend similar to that of the skilled worker class (+43.9%). Nearly 90% of entries in this class were concentrated in just three provinces: Ontario (31%), British Columbia (30%) and Quebec (26%).

Refugees and asylum seekers

Each year, in line with its humanitarian traditions and international commitments, Canada takes in between 20 000 and 30 000 refugees and displaced persons. In 1999, 24 370 refugees obtained permanent resident status. This reversed the downward trend in the number of refugees observed since 1996, no doubt due to the crisis in Kosovo. Despite the tighter conditions for family sponsorship which came into force in April 1997, all categories of refugees are increasing. A little over half of all refugees were selected overseas, while the remainder claimed asylum on arriving in Canada and had their claim accepted by the Immigration and Refugee Board.

Nationals of Bosnia Herzegovina still account for 11% of all refugees, but their share is declining. However, nationals of Sri Lanka (10.7%) and Afghanistan (7.4%) accounted for a growing share of flows in 1999. The number

of refugees from Somalia and Croatia remained stable (1 400 and 1 100 respectively) and it should be noted that the vast majority of Somalis, Sri Lankans, Algerians and Iranians obtained refugee status as asylum seekers.

In 1999, approximately 5 400 people who had not received refugee status had to leave Canada, accounting for 65% of all removals, 6% up on 1998.

In spring 1999, in close conjunction with the UNHCR, the IOM, the International Red Cross and European countries, Canada took in a substantial number of Kosovar refugees: a total of 8 000 people including special needs and family reunion cases. At the same time approximately 2 100 people returned voluntarily to Kosovo.

Family reunion

Immigration under family reunion arrangements is the second largest category. In 1999 an estimated 55 260 people obtained permanent residence permits via this channel (+8.5 on 1998), accounting for 29% of total entries.

While this component of immigration has been falling steadily since 1993, it rose in 1999, though less rapidly than total immigration flows. Accordingly, family reunion's share of total immigration levelled off between 1998 and 1999.

India continues to be the leading source of family reunion immigrants (17.3%, see Table III.8). In 1999, the only significant increases in flows were from Pakistan (+61%), the Philippines (+23.5%) and Sri Lanka (130%).

2. Structure and changes in the foreign-born population

The 1996 census put Canada's total population at 28.5 million. The number of immigrants (*i.e.* persons born abroad who have been granted permanent resident status) was 5 million, 17.4% of the total, and rose by 27% between the 1986 and 1996 censuses. Immigrants from Europe were still the largest group (2.3 million) in 1996, but for the first time this century they accounted for less than half of all immigrants. Although the numbers of immigrants from other parts of the world increased strongly over those ten years, only immigrants from Asia formed particularly significant groups in 1996 (Asia: 1 562 800; Africa: 229 300; Central and South America: 553 700).

In 1996 new immigrants, *i.e.* those who had arrived since 1991, had a higher level of education than the native-born population. Slightly more than 21% of new immigrants above the age of 15 held a university degree, compared with 12.2% of the Canadian-born. Within the total immigrant population, 77.7% spoke English only, against 64.8% of the non-immigrant population.

3. Migration and the labour market

Data from the 1996 census show that immigrants account for approximately 19% of Canada's labour force. In aggregate terms, their labour market participation, as illustrated by employment and unemployment rates, is very similar to that of native-born Canadians: the employment rate is slightly lower (60.7% against 66.9%), but unemployment rates are virtually the same (10.5% against 9.9% in 1996). But, probably as a result of the recession that Canada faced in the early 90's, the statistics for new immigrants are markedly less satisfactory. According to the 1996 census, the employment rate of new immigrants is 59.1% and 18.6% of them are seeking employment.

By law, no person other than a Canadian citizen or resident is permitted to be employed in Canada without a specific authorisation. The Canadian authorities do issue temporary work permits to asylum seekers whose applications have provisionally been determined to be acceptable, and to people with special skills lacking on the labour market, as well as to United States, Mexican and Chilean citizens eligible under free trade agreements (NAFTA, the North American Free Trade Agreement and the Canada-Chile Free Trade Agreement).

In 1999, over 71 800 people held temporary work permits (asylum seekers not included). Their number has been rising for several years (1997-98: +4.5%; 1998-1999: +7%) but the breakdown by country of origin has remained relatively stable. The bulk of temporary work permits are issued to nationals of OECD countries: United States 24 000, Mexico 8 000, United Kingdom 6 100, Japan 5 100, France 4 600, Australia 3 600, and Germany 2 200. In all these cases, temporary immigration is on a larger scale than the permanent inflows. The reverse is generally true for other countries.

4. Policy developments

Admission and residence (including integration measures)

The reforms being made in Canadian immigration policy legislation are part of an ongoing revision process initiated in December 1996. The Legislative Advisory Group responsible for preparing the revised legislation governing immigration and refugees submitted its findings to the Ministry on 31 December 1997 in the report entitled *Not Just Numbers: A Canadian Framework for Future Immigration*. The report covers all aspects of immigration in Canada and proposes substantial changes in virtually every area. The objectives of these reforms were discussed further in the government document *A Strong Foundation for the 21st Century* published in 1999, which addresses in particular the immigration of skilled workers.

Management of immigrant flows

In February 2001, the Minister of Citizenship and Immigration tabled new legislation in the House of Commons. The legislative changes proposed in the new Immigration and Refugee Protection Act reintroduces severe penalties for people smugglers and traffickers, speeds up family reunification and maintains Canada's humanitarian tradition of providing safe haven to people in need of protection.

Another act prepared by the CIC, the Department of Finance, Human Resources and Development Canada, the Department of Justice and Treasury Board of Canada Secretariat, recognising the rights and duties of cohabiting couples, was enacted in 2000. It establishes the right of residence for a foreign national who is the partner of a Canadian national.

The Department also studied the possibility of creating a system for selecting skilled workers, focusing on the ability of immigrants to work in an information economy. This system should be more flexible than the current one and would stress education, job experience and foreign language ability. A programme designed to attract investors (the Immigrant Investor Program) has existed since 1999, and nine business immigration centres located abroad have been operating since 1998 (in Beijing, Berlin, Buffalo, Damascus, Hong Kong (China), London, Paris, Singapore and Seoul).

The stay and integration of foreigners

Immigration policy is managed at all levels of the administration. The CIC manages immigration issues at the federal level, its role being to set standards for immigration programmes in Canada and define the broad guidelines for immigration policy. The CIC also concludes agreements on the settlement of immigrants with Canada's provinces. There are also services abroad (Canadian Orientation Abroad) to enable future immigrants to adjust when they arrive in Canada.

At the federal level, Citizenship and Immigration Canada has a number of programmes aimed at facilitating the integration of immigrants into Canadian society, such as the Immigrant Settlement and Adaptation Programme (ISAP), which funds orientation and counselling, translation and job search assistance for foreigners. The Host Programme matches Canadian volunteers with arriving immigrants to facilitate their integration and settlement. There is also a programme aimed at providing arriving immigrants with instruction in the official languages of Canada (Language Instruction for Newcomers in Canada, LINC).

Citizenship and Immigration Canada (CIC) has recently signed agreements with provincial governments regarding immigration. The agreements on nominees, for instance, enable the provinces to introduce active recruitment policies: agreements of this kind were concluded in February 1999 with New Brunswick and in September 1999 with Newfoundland and Labrador. Settlement Services Agreements, designed to simplify the administrative procedures relating to settlement, were concluded with Manitoba in June 1998 and with British Columbia in May of that year. Following an earlier special agreement, Quebec now has sole responsibility for the selection of independent immigrants and refugees from abroad and administers federally funded integration services.

The CIC is currently conducting a longitudinal study on immigrants in co-operation with Statistics Canada. This study is examining the economic and social aspects of integration, and in particular newcomers' needs in this regard and how public services are meeting them. Integration-net, the object of which is information exchange among agencies involved in settlement, including federal and provincial government, service providers and the immigrants themselves, has been operational since January 2000.

Refugees and asylum

Refugee status is granted to Geneva Convention refugees and to eligible persons who apply for it for humanitarian reasons.

In June 2000 Citizenship and Immigration Canada revised the list of countries for which asylum seeker status may be granted on humanitarian grounds. This list includes Bosnia Herzegovina, Colombia, Croatia, the

Box III.2. An overview of the structure and approach of Canada's immigration programme

There are two main mechanisms through which foreigners may legally enter Canada for periods longer than allowed under short-term tourist and business-travel arrangements: *i*) with permanent residence status through the permanent immigration programme, and *ii*) on a temporary basis as students, refugee claimants or for temporary employment. Because it is possible to transfer from temporary to permanent resident status, total issues of permanent residence (often referred to as "landed immigrants") include many who have been in the country for some length of time as temporary residents. About 15% of applications for permanent residence are processed in Canada; the remainder are processed overseas.

Permanent immigration

Acquisition of permanent residence status is possible under three main classes of entry: *i*) the "family class" who enter on the basis of having close relatives in Canada; *ii*) those entering for employment and business reasons, the "skilled worker and business classes"; *iii*) those entering as refugees. The system works through a highly developed set of rules for each class of entry. There are no numerical limits, or other mechanisms for capping the number of permanent immigrants, the source of control being solely through the rules of entry. As a result, there is no mechanism for effecting immediate and precise determination of the numbers granted permanent residence status (in contrast to the system used in Australia). By November 1st of each year, the Minister responsible for Citizenship and Immigration Canada issues a statement on the "planned" migration intake for the following year, which is based on an assessment of the numbers who are likely to enter under the existing set of regulations. Note that the Canadian authorities often refer to issues of permanent residence as immigrant landings.

Entry under the skilled worker class is based on a selection test consisting of criteria against which points are awarded to determine whether persons can become successfully established in Canada. The mix of specific selection criteria and their weighting pattern are designed to reflect what is needed to succeed in Canada's labour market. Only the principal applicant is assessed.

Entry under the family class is based on sponsorship by a Canadian citizen or permanent resident. There must be evidence of the sponsor having a *bone fide* relationship with the applicant. In addition, the sponsor must demonstrate an ability to provide financial support for those sponsored.

Entry under the business class is based on a requirement to make a minimum investment in a Canadian business (or business investment fund) or a requirement to establish, purchase or invest in a designated business that will create employment opportunities for others. The business class comprises investors, entrepreneurs and self-employed.

Refugee status is granted both to Geneva Convention refugees and those who do not quite satisfy the conventional refugee requirements but are nonetheless admitted for humanitarian reasons. There are three major sub-groups of refugees: government-assisted refugees selected abroad; privately sponsored refugees selected abroad; and asylum seekers who come to Canada and claim refugee status and who subsequently receive a positive determination on their claim. Asylum seekers are issued an employment authorisation for a period of nine months once certain requirements are met (such as a credible basis for their claim and a medical examination).

Temporary immigration

Temporary immigration to Canada is tracked through data on employment authorisations (by law, no persons other than a Canadian citizen or permanent resident is permitted to be employed in Canada without an employment authorisation). The motivation for issuing temporary employment authorisations is both humanitarian and economic. Some authorisations have to be "validated", *i.e.* Human Resources Development Canada ensures that there is no Canadian citizen or permanent resident available to fill the position. However, the majority of authorisations are exempt from validation. Those exempt include a wide variety of applicants such as persons awaiting results of an application for permanent residence from within Canada and applicants for refugee status.

The North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA) allows for temporary entry to Canada by citizens of the United States or Mexico under four categories of employment: "trader and investor", "business visitor", "professional" and "inter-company transferee". Most of the entries under NAFTA are in the "professional" category where entry is based on an agreed list of specific professions.

Democratic Republic of Congo, El Salvador, Guatemala and Sudan. The abolition of the tax levied on arrival in Canada was announced in February 2000.

CZECH REPUBLIC

Introduction

Economic growth in the Czech Republic has been accelerating modestly from an expected 1.5% in 1999 to 1.9% in 2000. Unemployment started to decrease in the beginning of 2000, when registered unemployment (as a percentage of the labour force) stood nearly at 9%, to stabilise in the first quarter of 2001 at 8.5%. There has been little change in legal migration flows compared with last year's figures but the number of asylum applications rose further. However, the abuse of asylum procedures by people wishing to cross the Western border (*i.e.*, German) continued to rise steeply. The number of illegal border crossings decreased at the same time, owing to the falling numbers of people who flee from Kosovo.

1. Trends in migration movements

Emigration

After a one-time peak in 1993 when the Czech borders opened, emigration has increased fairly steadily but the Czech Statistical Office recorded a slight decrease to 1 136 in 1999 from 1 241 one year earlier. However, inspection of the immigration statistics of neighbouring countries shows that only a very small portion of emigration is captured by the official statistics. Germany, for instance, recorded 8 448 immigrants from the Czech Republic in 1998 whilst the Czech authorities had counted only 345 emigrants for Germany. Immigration statistics are assumed to be much more reliable.

Inflows and outflows of foreigners

Inflows from the Slovak Republic increased from 2 900 in 1998 to 3 200 in 1999, the first increase in 6 years. However, the total influx of foreigners decreased to 9 900 in 1999 (see Table III.9) from 10 700 one year earlier, owing to a decrease in arrivals from other countries than the Slovak Republic. At the same time, as in many other countries, inflows from Asia have increased considerably. In 1998, over 18% of all immigrants came from Asia compared with 2% in 1990. Stark increases can also be seen in immigration from the former USSR (from 1% of all immigrants in 1990 to 26% in 1998), other non-European post-communist countries (1990: 1%; 1998:12%), European post-communist countries (1990:3.1%; 1998:6%) and the former Yugoslav region (1990:1%; 1998:6%). Immigrants from other origins accounted for less than 8% of immigration in 1998. The leading source countries in 1998 were the Slovak Republic (27%), Ukraine (15%) and Vietnam (11%).

Although the educational level of immigrants has dropped significantly, they are on average better educated than the native population. In 1998, one-fifth of all immigrants was in possession of a university degree, compared with one-fourth in 1997; 25% had completed secondary education as compared with 32% in 1997. There is a large variation among immigrants: more than 35% of all Russian and Yugoslav immigrants had a university degree in 1998, compared to only 5% of Vietnamese and 2% of Romanian immigrants. However, the data do not suggest that the fall in educational attainments of immigrants be related to the growing inflows from Asia.

Illegal immigration

For an increasing number of migrants, the Czech Republic is a country of transit. The number of people abusing refugee procedures skyrocketed over the last few years. By the end of 1997, 749 refugees wilfully left

Table III.9. **Current figures on flows and stocks of migrants, Czech Republic**

	Thousands					1996	1997	1998	1999
Total population¹	10 309	10 299	10 290	10 278	Registered foreign workers by nationality⁶				
Total population change from beginning to end of year	-10	-9	-10	-12	Ukraine	42.1	25.2	19.3	16.7
Natural increase	-22	-21	-19	-20	Poland	12.8	13.7	9.9	6.9
Net migration	12	12	9	9	Bulgaria	2.8	3.3	2.7	1.7
					Germany	1.5	1.5	1.6	1.5
Inflows²	10.9	12.9	10.7	9.9	Moldavia	..	2.0	2.0	1.4
Arrivals (excluding those from Slovak Republic)	7.4	9.8	7.8	6.7	United States	1.6	1.5	1.4	1.4
Arrivals from Slovak Republic	3.5	3.1	2.9	3.2	Belarus	0.9	2.5	2.0	1.3
					Other	9.3	11.3	11.0	9.4
Outflows	1.5	1.4	1.3	1.1	Total	71.0	61.0	49.9	40.3
Departures (excluding those to Slovak Republic) ³	0.5	0.5	0.9	0.8	Slovak workers⁷	72.2	69.7	61.3	53.1
Departures to Slovak Republic ⁴	1.0	0.9	0.4	0.3					
					Holders of a business authorisation by nationality				
Inflows of asylum seekers	2.2	2.1	4.1	7.2	Ukraine	2.7	8.7	9.9	19.5
					Vietnam	17.0	24.7	15.5	18.9
Stocks of foreign residents by type of permits and nationality					Slovak Republic	5.9	7.6	6.2	6.6
Holders of a permanent residence permit					Germany	1.2	1.5	0.9	0.9
Slovak Republic ⁵	9.9	12.7	14.1	13.0	Other	18.7	21.0	12.5	12.5
Poland	12.1	11.9	12.0	11.6	Total	45.5	63.5	45.0	58.4
Vietnam	2.5	5.1	6.8	8.0					
Ukraine	2.8	4.6	6.2	7.8	Czech workers employed in Germany				
Russian Federation	2.0	2.5	2.9	3.5	Contract workers	2.3	1.4	1.1	1.4
Bulgaria	1.8	2.4	2.3	2.3	Seasonal workers	3.4	2.3	1.8	1.9
Other	14.7	17.1	19.6	20.6					
Total	45.8	56.3	63.9	66.8	Illegal migrants caught at the border	23.7	29.3	44.7	32.3
Holders of a long-term residence permit									
Ukraine	43.5	38.8	46.4	58.1					
Slovak Republic	40.3	39.5	35.5	27.3					
Vietnam	15.1	15.8	16.1	16.9					
Russian Federation	4.7	6.5	7.2	13.4					
Poland	12.4	13.1	10.1	6.7					
China	4.7	4.4	4.1	4.2					
Bulgaria	2.5	4.2	3.6	2.7					
Other	29.6	31.2	32.8	32.8					
Total	152.8	153.5	155.8	162.1					

1. Population on the 31 December of the given year.

2. Permanent residents who had their change of address registered.

3. Czech and foreign citizens leaving the Czech Republic permanently are supposed to report their departure to the authorities. Figures represent the total number of registered departures.

4. The data are issued by the Slovak Statistical Office and refer to the registrations of permanent residence in the Slovak Republic.

5. Up to 1 January 1993, Czechoslovak permanent residents were registered in the National Population Register. Since the split of the Czech and Slovak Republics, Slovak citizens residing in the Czech Republic are subject to the same rules as any other foreign resident and they are therefore registered in the Central Register of Foreigners.

6. A foreigner can be employed only as the holder of a residence permit and work permit. A written offer by the employer is needed to apply for a work permit. These rules do not apply to Slovak citizens.

7. Under the Treaty on Mutual Employment of Citizens signed by the Czech Republic and the Slovak Republic in October 1992, nationals of the two Republics have free access to both labour markets. The estimates of the number of Slovak citizens are made by the local labour offices.

Sources: Statistical Yearbook of the Czech Republic (Czech Statistical Office); Ministry of the Interior; Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs.

the refugee camps before the end of their procedure; in 1998 there were 1 900 such cases and in 1999 7 786. Of these, in 1999, 3 204 persons were caught when they tried to cross the country-border illegally.

A total of 32 325 persons were caught in 1999, whilst they were trying to cross the Czech borders illegally; of these 30 377 were of foreign origin. This compares with 44 672 illegal border crossings in 1998. The steep decline on last year is mainly because of the calming of the situation in Kosovo.

Refugees and asylum seekers

The number of asylum seekers rose to unprecedented heights in 1999. With the 7 219 applicants in 1999, the total number of asylum seekers for the 1990-1999 period is 25 105. In 1999, applicants for refugee status originated from 65 countries; more than three-quarters came from Asia, 19% from within Europe and 4% from Africa. The leading countries were Afghanistan (2 312), Sri Lanka (900) and India (887), the former Federal Republic of Yugoslavia (622) and Iraq (346).

In 1999, refugee status had been granted to 80 cases; half of these were children and teenagers under 18 years of age. Most successful applicants came from Afghanistan and Belarus. The total number of legal refugees on Czech territory was 1 227 in December 1999.

2. Structure and changes in the foreign population

Numerical trends

In 1999, three categories of residence were distinguished in the Czech Republic. Short-term permits allowed foreigners free movement about the territory of the Czech Republic for up to 180 days for purposes of tourism and subject to visa regulations. Long-term residence permits were not to exceed one year but could be prolonged. They were granted for study, medical treatment and for professional and business purposes. Visa legislation has been changed since to harmonise with Schengen practices (see Section 4). Permanent residence permits were and still are granted for the purpose of family reunification to family members of holders of permanent residence permits or occasionally for humanitarian reasons. After ten years of uninterrupted stay the foreigner may be entitled to a permanent residence permit.

In the course of 1999, 92 836 residence permits were granted, of which 8 191 were for permanent residence. In 35% of the cases, residence permits were granted for business activities. The number of foreigners in the Czech Republic has increased continuously since the beginning of the nineties. The largest increases could be seen in the stock of foreigners with a long-term residence permit, mainly Ukrainians (1998: 46 444 ; 1999: 58 063) and Russians (1998: 7 155 ; 1999: 13 420, see Table III.9). The number of long-term residence permit holders from the Slovak Republic has decreased. Well over two-thirds of the stock of foreign residents (1999: 288 862) were foreigners with a long-term residence permit (162 108). The largest foreign populations in 1999 were from Ukraine (29%), Slovak (18%), Vietnam (11%), Poland (7%) and Russia (7%). These numbers are confirmed by the statistics for 2000.

A population census is planned in 2001; it will then be possible to give a more precise picture of the total size and composition of the foreign migration.

Naturalisations

A total of 1 031 applicants were granted Czech citizenship, most of these Ukrainians (mainly from the Tchernobyl region). A further 116 refugees, mostly Armenian, were naturalised. The foreign population amounts to 228 862, which implies a naturalisation rate of 0.5%.

3. Migration and the labour market

The Czech administration keeps a register on entries for business purposes in addition to a register on foreign workers. The total of foreigners on the Czech labour market increased until 1996 and has since then continuously decreased, owing to the economic crisis, to 152 000 in 1999. The decline can be explained by a drop in the group of foreign workers (1998: 111 247; 1999: 93 466). The strongest decline can be seen in the

most strongly represented groups: workers of Slovak, Ukrainian and Polish origin (see Table III.9). However, the statistics for 2000 indicate an increase (103 650 foreign workers and 61 350 holders of a business licence). However, these increases hide an overall decreasing number of workers and an increasing number of trade licences.

The number of business immigrants has increased with 30% in 1999 after a significant drop one year earlier. By the end of the year, there were 1.7 million of business immigrants, of which 58 400 or nearly 3.5% foreigners. Well over one-third of all business immigrants are registered in or around Prague. Of all business immigrants, about a third are Ukrainian; their number almost doubled to 19 500 (21 400 by the end 2000) in one year and for the first year outstripped the Vietnamese (19 300). The increase parallels the increase in the long-term residence permits that are granted to Ukrainians; whereas in previous years Ukrainians applied for work permits they have become more entrepreneurial; their business activities mainly concern construction, forestry and other industries on the basis of Trade Certificates (See Section 4).

The persistent high unemployment level has led the government to introduce measures that restrict the possibilities to employ foreigners (see Section 4).

4. Policy developments

Admission and residence (including integration measures)

The persistent high unemployment has led the government to adopt two new laws in an attempt to control migration flows. The National Employment Plan of May 1995 and the October 1999 amendment to the 1991 Employment Law make it tougher for employers to attract foreigners for vacant positions and relate the quota of labour migration to the labour market situation. Permission to work is further restricted to a specific region, job and employer and does not give access to the Czech labour market. The amendment imposes a maximum of three years to foreign employment; the immigrant can file a new visa application after a one-year interruption.

On July 7, 1999, the Czech government adopted Resolution 689, which creates a frame of reference for foreigners' human rights and equal rights. The resolution is linked to a draft strategy that aims to clarify the role of different ministries and institutions with respect to the integration of foreigners into the Czech society. Its overall objective is to improve the chances of integration of foreigners. The preparatory phase was planned for the period 1999-2000 and the strategy will be implemented during 2001. Assessment will take place in 2002.

In January 2000, a New Law on Stay of Foreigners came into force, as well as a Law on Asylum. These laws give new definitions of temporary and permanent residence. Temporary residence is possible for protection of foreigners in distress without a visa – an exceptional right to be granted by the government –, on a short term visa for non-professional visits under 90 days and on a long-term visa for any stay over 90 days. These replace the earlier concepts of long-term and short-term stay. To align with the Schengen countries, the Czech Republic has introduced the Airport visa, which entitles foreigners to the right of access to international airport areas within the Republic.

The Czech government aims to harmonise visa regulations with those prevailing in the European Union. To this end visa obligations were installed for visitors from the former Soviet Union and Cuba. In March 2000, an amendment to the Business Act came into force: an alien may be granted a business certificate only on the basis of previously obtained long-term visa for the purpose of business activity. The applicant must also demonstrate sufficient financial resources. The aim of this amendment is to restrict uncontrolled business activity of foreigners.

Measures to combat the illegal employment of foreign workers

The New Law on the Stay of Foreigners (January 2000) aims to combat illegal employment by regulating the amount of information foreign workers should provide to the Czech administration. Furthermore, the law tightens visa obligations for nationalities that dominate Czech immigration, in particular Ukrainians.

Introduction

The level of unemployment in Denmark has decreased to 4.7% of the total labour force in 2000 after having stabilised since 1998 at 5.2% as economic GDP continued at 2.9% in 2000. The good economic conditions favoured immigrants whose unemployment rates have fallen but still remain well above the national average (14% compared to a national average of 5%). The imbalance between labour market participation and unemployment rates between immigrants and native Danish citizens has among other motives brought forth the new Act on Immigration (1 January 1999) to facilitate immigrants' labour market integration.

I. Trends in migration movements

Total net migration was 11 407 in 1998. Immigrants will be registered as foreign residents only after one year of uninterrupted residence in Denmark, in line with UN recommendations. Hence the one-year time lag in Danish immigration statistics on long-term migration. Moreover, refugees and asylum seekers do not enter the migration statistics before they obtain a permanent residence permit.

Emigration

Emigration has increased, with 57% in the period between 1984 and 1998 and amounted to 21 964 in 1998 (see Table III.10). Distinct phases in emigration can be distinguished but the main drivers behind emigration are Danes going abroad for work and studies. They account for 14 256 or 65% of total emigration. Danish nationals account for 36% of total immigration and consist mainly of return migration, aside from a small percentage of Greenlanders and people from the Faeroe Islands (1998: 12 094); net migration of nationals has been negative since 1996.

Inflows and outflows of foreigners

Net migration of foreigners amounted to 13 569 in 1998. Immigration into Denmark has increased by 138% in the period between 1984 and 1998 (1998: 21 277 or 64% of total immigration). In the early eighties immigration consisted mainly of people who came to Denmark to work, but over the last 15 years refugees and their families have become the dominant factor in immigration. Since the beginning of the 1990s, net migration has remained between 10 000 and 14 000, not regarding the incidental peak of Yugoslav inflows in 1995-96.

The most important group of source countries in 1998 were Asian countries which accounted for 29% of total immigration, but by far the most important was Iraq (2 278). Other important source countries were Somalia (1 207), Turkey (1 154), Germany (1 163), Norway (1 086), Sweden (1 002) and the United Kingdom (957).

Emigration flows do not mimic immigration, which might suggest something about the immigration motives. People from Nordic and EU countries immigrate to Denmark mainly for work or education and leave after some time. People from Asia and outside Europe seek residence in Denmark for family reasons or as refugees and do so on a permanent basis.

Refugees and asylum seekers

Asylum seekers can apply for refugee status in Denmark or at the Danish country representation abroad. Asylum seekers who come to Denmark fill the vast majority of applications. Their number has risen to 6 467 in 1999, a 13% increase on 1998. The growing number of applicants from European countries, viz. the former Yugoslavia and the Slovak Republic, explains last year's increase in large part. Still, by far the largest group of asylum seekers comes from Iraq. The number of applicants from Somalia has declined further (See Table III.10).

Table III.10. Current figures on flows and stocks of foreign population and labour force, Denmark

Figures in thousands unless otherwise indicated

	1996	1997	1998	1999		1996	1997	1998	1999
Long-term immigration by group of nationality¹	37.1	32.6	33.4	..	Acquisition of Danish nationality, by region of origin	7.3	5.5	10.3	12.4
Denmark	12.4	12.2	12.1	..	Nordic countries ²	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.3
Other Nordic countries ²	3.3	3.2	3.0	..	Other European countries	0.3	0.3	2.8	4.7
Other European countries	11.7	8.4	8.2	..	Asia	3.1	2.0	4.5	4.8
Asia	4.5	4.6	6.1	..	Africa	0.5	0.3	0.7	0.9
Africa	3.6	2.8	2.3	..	America	2.1	1.7	0.2	0.2
Other	1.6	1.4	1.7	..	Other	1.0	0.9	1.6	1.5
Long-term emigration by group of nationality¹	19.8	20.7	22.0	..	Stock of foreigners	237.7	249.6	256.3	259.4
Denmark	13.8	14.0	14.3	..	Nordic countries ²	28.7	29.9	30.6	31.3
Other Nordic countries ²	1.6	1.9	2.2	..	Other European countries	118.8	123.9	127.2	146.0
Other European countries	2.4	2.9	3.3	..	Asia	50.5	53.2	54.8	56.1
Asia	0.9	0.8	0.8	..	Africa	19.2	22.1	23.9	25.4
Africa	0.4	0.4	0.7	..	America	9.3	9.6	9.8	10.2
Other	0.8	0.7	0.8	..	Oceania	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.2
Grants of residence permits, by category³	32.3	29.5	31.0	29.3	Other	10.2	9.9	8.7	7.7
Family reunification	8.7	7.7	9.7	9.5	Immigrants by region of origin⁴	265.8	276.8	287.7	296.9
EU provisions	5.9	5.9	6.1	5.7	Nordic countries ²	33.0	33.8	34.2	34.5
Refugee	8.7	5.9	4.8	4.5	Other European countries	125.1	129.3	133.0	127.6
Employment	2.8	3.1	3.3	3.1	Asia	72.0	75.3	80.1	84.5
Others	6.3	6.9	7.2	6.5	Africa	21.5	23.8	25.5	26.8
Asylum seekers by region of origin	5.9	5.1	5.7	6.5	America	11.9	12.2	12.6	13.0
Europe	1.3	1.3	1.4	2.5	Oceania	1.1	1.1	1.2	1.3
<i>of which:</i> Fed. Rep. of Yugoslavia	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.9	Other	1.1	1.1	1.2	9.3
Asia	1.9	1.8	3.0	3.0	Descendants by region of origin⁴	64.5	70.3	75.7	81.2
<i>of which:</i> Iraq	0.7	0.8	1.9	1.8	Nordic countries ²	4.6	4.6	4.7	4.7
Africa	1.7	1.5	0.9	0.7	Other European countries	29.4	31.5	33.5	35.3
<i>of which:</i> Somalia	1.4	1.2	0.6	0.5	Asia	23.0	25.4	27.8	30.2
Other regions	1.0	0.5	0.4	0.2	Africa	5.8	6.9	7.9	9.1
					America	1.2	1.5	1.5	1.5
					Oceania	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
					Other	0.5	0.2	0.2	0.3
					Labour force and unemployment rates among immigrants and their descendants				
					Immigrants				
					Participation rate	55	56
					Unemployment rate	17	14
					Descendants				
					Participation rate	68	69
					Unemployment rate	..	10	8	7

1. A long-term immigrant/emigrant is defined as a person who has lived in/out of the country for over one year.

2. Data include figures from Finland, Iceland, Norway and Sweden.

3. All foreigners (except Nordic countries citizens) who want to reside for more than 3 months in Denmark need a residence permit. The duration of the permit depends on the reasons for granting it but it generally does not exceed two years.

4. An immigrant is defined as a person born abroad by parents who have either foreign citizenship or are also born abroad. A descendant is a person born in Denmark with parents who are either immigrants or descendants of immigrants.

Source: Danmarks Statistik.

Asylum applications fluctuate from year to year, presumably as a consequence of rumours about the ease of access to Denmark. In 1999, there were 483 applications; most of these were refused. A total of 4 526 asylum seekers were granted refugee status in 1999 (a 5% decrease since 1998).

Family reunion

Family reunion accounts for the largest number of residence permits granted in Denmark each year, aside from temporary permits and residence granted to asylum seekers. Table III.10 gives an overview of composition and trends of residence permits in Denmark. There were 9 480 such permits granted in 1999, most to spouses or cohabitants of Danish or other Nordic nationals (4 469), or of refugees and other immigrants (2 266), or for the reunification of minors (2 546). The rest were granted for exceptional reasons. The strongest increase over the 1990-1999 period can be seen in the number of permits granted for the family reunification of refugees, an increase of 23% for reunification with spouses and cohabitants since 1990 and 32% for minors.

2. Structure and changes in the foreign population

Numerical trends

Denmark defines Immigrants as persons born abroad of foreign parents and descendants as people born in Denmark from immigrants. The number of immigrants and descendants thus include those who have obtained Danish citizenship. Immigrants who have obtained Danish citizenship are not included in the stock of foreigners, neither are asylum seekers and war refugees.

On the 1st of January 2000, the foreign-born population totalled 430 123, of whom 170 766 had obtained Danish nationality. The stock of foreigners according to Danish definition is thus 259 357 (see Table III.10).

The stock of foreigners in Denmark has increased, with 61% in the period from 1990 to 1999, and had accounted for 4.9% of the total population in 1999. The presence of foreigners originating from more developed countries is subject to a stronger growth than the presence of foreigners originating from less developed countries (70% compared with 53% for the 1990-99 period). The strongest represented are nationals from European countries outside the EU (105 080), from Asia (56 062) and from EU countries (53 822). The largest individual country groups are from Turkey and former Yugoslavia (36 569 and 35 062, respectively).

Naturalisations

To qualify for naturalisation, a foreigner must have resided in Denmark with a legal residence permit for at least 7 years, fulfil certain conditions of conduct and master the Danish language. The number of naturalisations has soared enormously over the past ten years; there has been an increase from 3 028 naturalisations in 1990 to 12 416 naturalisations in 1999 (See Table III.10). This may well be the consequence of a changing immigrant population (See Section 1) and of progressively more immigrants' being able to fulfil the qualifying conditions.

The absolute number of naturalisations in 1999 is highest for Europeans, especially Turks (3 154), and for Asians (4 765). But the number of naturalisations by nationality is not in proportion to the size of the respective foreign populations resident in Denmark. Relative to their contingents already present in the country, it is the stateless, the Lebanese and the Iranians who most often acquire Danish citizenship (17%, 16% and 15%, respectively).

3. Migration and the labour market

Labour market integration

The labour force in Denmark totalled 2.8 million people on 1 January 1999, of which around 145 000 (5.2%) were immigrants and their descendants. Immigrants and their descendants accounted for 7.1% of the total population aged between 16 and 66 years of age and are thus underrepresented in the total labour force. Of the total Danish working age population (16-66 year old) 78% is economically active, compared with 56% of the immigrants aged between 16 and 66 years. The unemployment rate of immigrants is 14% compared with 5% for the total population. The situation of their descendants is much more favourable with labour market participation and unemployment rates of 69% and 7% respectively.

There is a large variation in labour market participation and unemployment between gender and between groups. Immigrants from African and Asian countries have much lower participation rates (43.5% and 49.4% respectively) than people originating from EU-countries, North America and Oceania (66.9, 56.7 and 60.1, respectively). Especially people from Somalia, Iraq and Lebanon have very low participation rates (18.6%, 26.3% and 34%, respectively). The situation for descendants is less dramatic; participation rates for descendants of immigrants from developed countries² are 76.1% and 64.8% from less developed countries.

The unemployment patterns, too, vary greatly between groups and gender. In general, groups with low labour-force participation rates also have high unemployment rates. Somalia, Iraqi and Lebanese immigrants have the highest unemployment rates (43%, 31% and 32%, respectively).

A recent report by Statistics Denmark (*Education by immigrants*, Sept. 2000) found considerable variation in educational attainments of immigrants of different source countries. The report shows a positive correlation between educational attainment of immigrants and their labour force participation rate. The report also offers an explanation of the gender gap in unemployment and labour force participation rates: some immigrants come from cultures where women traditionally do not participate in the labour market. Male immigrants from Somalia, Iraq and Lebanon, for instance, have much higher participation rates than women. Their descendants however, enjoy higher participation rates and smaller gender differences.

4. Policy developments

Admission and residence (including integration measures)

A new Immigration Act came into force on 1 January 1999, to promote the integration of immigrants and refugees in society and in the labour market. It consists mainly in intensive language training, education

Box III.3. The educational attainment of immigrants

A study on the educational attainment of newly arriving immigrants carried out by Statistics Denmark in 2000 aims to shed some light on the immigrants' contribution to the Danish economy. The study reveals a general good educational level of immigrants. Of the group as a total, less than 7% has no education and 55.4% has at least vocational training, of which 7.3% possesses a Bachelor's degree or higher. Immigrants from EU countries, North America and Oceania are on average better educated than native Danes. Immigrants from Africa and Asia have much poorer educational attainments than those from EU-countries and North America.

An institution has been created to evaluate foreign educational qualifications with their Danish equivalence (see Table III.11).

Table III.11. **Immigrants by region of origin and educational attainment, 2000, Denmark**

Percentage with at least vocational education	
Region of origin	% with at least vocational education
Born in Denmark	60.6
All immigrants	55.4
EU countries	75.4
Other European countries	53.2
North America	80.1
Oceania	79
Africa	47.7
Asia	44.2

Note: Persons aged 18 to 59.

Source: Danmarks Statistic, 2000.

(including of Danish values) and specific help to access employment in a three-year programme. The Act also affects on the legislation concerning the housing of refugees so as to prevent geographic concentrations of foreigners. (22% of all foreigners are concentrated in Copenhagen.)

In addition, the action plan for Better Integration was agreed to in February 2000 to further improve education and integration of refugees and immigrants. Moreover, various initiatives aim at improving ethnic equality in the workplace, guidelines on recruitment and personnel policy for the government sector, and at influencing recruitment policies in the private sector. Companies receive a subsidy to hire personnel of foreign origin.

FINLAND

Introduction

Since 1993, Finland's economy has continued to grow at a very brisk pace, with GDP rising by some 3.5% in 1999 and over 5.75% in 2000 (the seventh consecutive year of strong growth). Employment has naturally benefited from the healthy economic conditions and unemployment has fallen by about 1 point per year since 1998, although it was still over 9.8% in 2000, *i.e.* comparable to the levels in Germany and France.

Trends in migration over the two-year period showed increases in both immigration and emigration. The latter rose as markedly in 1999 as in 1998 and the net migration gain fell slightly between 1998 (3 370) and 1999 (2 770). Since 1989, the foreign population in Finland has risen fourfold.

I. Trends in migration movements

Emigration and the return of nationals

Emigration had a significant impact on migration trends in 1999, with some 11 970 people leaving Finland, *i.e.* 10.8% more than the previous year (9 970 Finns and 2 000 foreigners).

Although the number of Finns returning increased (1998: 5 850; 1999: 6 800), there is still a net migration loss in this group (see Table III.12).

During the 1990s, Finns moved chiefly to Sweden (over 2 500 a year, or between 30 and 50% of departures). In 1999, over 3 000 emigrated to Sweden (+12% between 1998 and 1999), 1 320 to Norway (+3.4% between 1998 and 1999), 600 to Spain (1998: 660; 1997: 527) and 812 to the United Kingdom (+23% between 1998 and 1999). Other destinations include Germany, the United States, Denmark and Belgium. Over 75% of Finnish emigrants went to EU countries (50% to Nordic countries), but they are increasingly emigrating to non-European countries.

Emigration to Belgium may reflect the mobility of managers following Finland's EU accession, while movements to Spain appear largely to concern retired people. Movements to the United Kingdom may be due to that country's attractiveness to students.

Inflows and outflows of foreigners

The growth in inflows slowed between 1997 and 1998 and in 1999 immigration declined, with entries totaling 7 940, a drop of 4.8% between 1998 and 1999 (see Table III.12). Although outflows of foreigners have been relatively stable since the beginning of the 1990s (averaging around 1 500), they rose sharply in 1996 (3 010) and, to a lesser extent, in 1999 (2 000). Consequently, there was a migration gain for the foreign population (+5 940), but it was lower between 1998 and 1999 (-10.7%) than between 1997 and 1998, when it grew slightly (+1.2%).

As was the case in the previous four years, the largest inflows were from Russia (1999: 2 200), followed by Sweden and Estonia. These three groups alone represented 43.6% of total immigration (47.5% in 1998). Around 25% of foreigners who officially left Finland in 1998 were Swedes, reflecting the recent upturn in the Swedish economy. In 1999, outflows of Russian and Estonian nationals fell appreciably, while inflows of US and UK nationals rose.

Table III.12. Current figures on flows and stocks of total population, Finland

Figures in thousands unless otherwise indicated

	1996	1997	1998	1999
Inflows by main nationality	13.3	13.6	14.2	14.7
Nationals	5.8	5.4	5.9	6.8
Foreigners	7.5	8.1	8.3	7.9
<i>of which:</i>				
Former USSR ¹	2.0	2.4	2.5	2.2
Sweden	0.6	0.7	0.8	0.7
Estonia ¹	0.7	0.6	0.7	0.6
Net migration by main nationality	2.7	3.7	3.4	2.8
Nationals	-1.8	-2.9	-3.3	-3.2
Foreigners	4.5	6.6	6.7	5.9
<i>of which:</i>				
Former USSR ¹	1.6	2.3	2.4	2.1
Estonia ¹	0.3	0.5	0.5	0.4
Sweden	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.3
Asylum seekers	0.7	1.0	1.3	3.1
Foreign population by main nationality²	73.8	80.6	85.1	87.7
<i>of which:</i>				
Former USSR ¹	17.0	19.0	20.5	22.6
Estonia ¹	9.0	9.7	10.3	10.7
Sweden	7.3	7.5	7.8	7.9
Somalia	4.6	5.2	5.4	4.4
Acquisition of nationality by former nationality (number of persons)	981	1 439	4 000	4 730
Somalia	–	10	476	1 208
Former USSR	198	254	800	935
Estonia	17	62	143	379
Other countries	766	1 113	2 581	2 208
Mixed marriages	2.4	2.4	2.6	2.9

1. A large proportion of Russians and Estonians have Finnish origin.

2. Data are from population registers and refer to the population on 30 September of the years indicated.

Source: Statistics Finland.

Refugees and asylum seekers

The number of asylum applications in Finland has fluctuated substantially over the last ten years. Prior to 1990, there were at most a few dozen requests each year. Between 1990 and 1993, some 2 000 applications a year were filed, the number then falling back to under 1 000. In 1998, asylum applications rose again, to 1 270, and in 1999 grew further to 3 100. This sharp increase was mainly due to the influx of Slovak (1 520) and Polish (320) asylum seekers (mostly Romani). This trend continued in 2000, with 2 600 asylum seekers registered through September, half of whom were from Poland (1 200) and Slovakia (340).

Although in 1998 the largest number of applications were from nationals of the former Yugoslavia, followed by Somalis, applications from both these groups fell sharply in 1999. The number of asylum seekers from Turkey and Iraq was relatively stable at around 100 people.

The Ministry of the Interior issued rulings on 2 725 asylum applications – which was three times as many as in previous years –, of which 49% were rejected. The proportion of refusals thus rose by nearly 22% over the previous year.

Every year the Finnish Parliament establishes a quota for the attribution of refugee status. It was set at 650 in 1999 and 700 in 2000. However, only 132 people were admitted to Finland on these grounds in 1999 and 155 additional refugees were accepted on family reunion grounds. In all, 1 200 people obtained refugee status. These figures are in line with the average observed since 1994. In 1999, most refugees came from the Middle East, while the number of refugees from African countries was unusually low. The geographical breakdown shows that refugees are mainly from the Middle East (540), Africa (130) and Eastern Europe (440).

2. Structure and changes in the foreign population

Numerical trends

At 31 December 1999, some 87 700 foreigners were resident in Finland (see Table III.12), an increase of nearly 3%, or 2 600 people, over the previous year. The proportion of foreigners in the total population is still extremely small, however, at just 1.7%.

The main figures on changes in the foreign population between 1998 and 1999 are as follows: 7 940 new immigrants, 2 000 emigrants, 1 300 children born to parents of foreign origin, some 300 deaths and, lastly, 4 700 naturalisations.

The largest group of foreigners in 1999 was certainly the Russians (21 550), followed by the Estonian (10 650) and Swedish (7 809) communities. These three nationalities represent 46% of the total foreign population (almost the same as their proportion of total immigration in 1999). Many of these immigrants from Estonia and Russia are Ingrians, and are treated by the authorities as being of ethnic Finnish origin. The number of European Union nationals settling in Finland increased by 4% in 1999. After the Swedes, the largest groups are nationals of the United Kingdom (2 200), Germany (2 200) and France (825).

It should be pointed out that most foreigners are concentrated in Finland's major cities and in the South of the country, as there are major disparities between these areas and the rest of the country. Thus, 66% of foreigners live in the regions of Uusimaa, Varsinais-Suomi and Pirkanmaa, and 65.5% of foreigners live in one of the thirteen largest cities.

Naturalisations

In 1999, slightly more than 4 700 people obtained Finnish citizenship (up 17% on 1998, see Table III.12). Apparently, the upsurge in immigration observed at the beginning of the 1990s is starting to have an impact on the number of naturalisations. An important trend is the decreasing share of nationals of European countries in total naturalisations (1995: 50%; 1998: 31%). The number of nationals of the former Soviet Union obtaining Finnish nationality remains large (20%), but in 1999 there were significantly more Somalis (25.5%).

3. Migration and the labour market

Migration for employment and work permits

Foreigners migrate to Finland as refugees and asylum seekers rather than to find work. This explains to some extent the high rate of unemployment among foreigners from countries other than the United States, Canada or European Union members.

At the end of 1999, people of working age accounted for 74% of the foreign population, compared with 67% for nationals. The most recent data on labour force participation rates date back to 1998, when the participation rate for foreigners was 58%, compared with 71% for nationals. Given that the post-war baby-boom generation will soon be retiring, it is estimated that Finland will need to admit some 20 000 foreigners per year to meet the likely demand for labour.

In December 1999, 14 000 foreigners were seeking jobs, which represented a very high unemployment rate (37%), although this rate was falling (1997: 42.1%; 1998: 40%;). At the same time, around 9% of Finns were without work. The breakdown by nationality underscores the scale of the problem for some ethnic groups, such as Iraqis, Vietnamese, nationals of Bosnia Herzegovina, Somalis and Iranians.

Over 65% of the members of these communities were unemployed at the end of 1999. The situation has in fact worsened markedly since 1996 for Iraqis, who are virtually all unemployed (88%). But the largest numbers of unemployed are among Russians and Estonians, 5 000 and 1 530 respectively in 1999. The number of unemployed rose for Russians (+8.6%) and fell for Estonians (-9%).

The particularly stark picture just drawn of foreign employment in Finland needs to be qualified, however. There is a requirement for refugees to register as job-seekers in order to receive training and certain benefits. However, since they do not speak Finnish, they are generally not capable of holding down a job in Finland.

There are no reliable statistics on foreigners in temporary employment in Finland, with the exception of trainees. In practice there are few temporary workers, and most of them are employed by foreign firms established in Finland. Estonians and Russians are, however, employed to harvest the strawberry crop, on a seasonal basis. Unemployment in Finland is still too high, in any case, to warrant intensive recourse to outside labour and there are few industrial sectors in Finland that could employ temporary workers. Recent trends in the high-tech sector also reduce the need to recruit skilled labour on a short-term basis.

4. Policy developments

The Finnish Government approved a programme relating to its policy on immigration and refugees in October 1997. Immigration policy is based on the so-called “two-pillar” model, with the Ministry of the Interior responsible for immigration controls and security, and also issuing residence permits, while the Ministry of Labour, in co-operation with the Ministry of Education, has responsibility for preventing all forms of racism and ethnic discrimination.

Admission and residence (including integration movements)

New legislation on integration and asylum came into effect in May 1999. The aim is to assist the integration of immigrants and to promote equal opportunity and freedom of choice through the acquisition of knowledge and skills. The Act further guarantees minimum support and access to health care.

The asylum procedure has not been significantly amended, however. The most significant change concerns the regulatory procedure, which is now defined by law rather than by government order.

Development, monitoring and co-ordination of immigrant integration is now to be overseen by the Ministry of Labour. At regional level, the employment and economic development centres are responsible for integrating immigrants into society and the labour market. At local level, municipal authorities have to draw up individualised integration programmes in conjunction with the relevant government bodies. Immigrants are responsible for establishing an integration contract with the municipality and employment services, and are required to undergo occupational training and learn Finnish. All immigrants resident in Finland must be covered by an integration programme.

To qualify for an integration programme, immigrants must be looking for work or receiving benefit. Eligibility runs for three years from the start of residence in the area.

During the integration programme, immigrants receive a subsistence allowance, which may be cut by 20% if individuals refuse to take part in activities under the programme. In the event of persistent refusal, 40% of the allowance may be withheld.

A reform of the Aliens Act was implemented in July 2000, the objective being to make it possible to process patently unjustified asylum applications more rapidly. The main reason for this change seems to be the growing number of Romani immigrants from Poland and the Slovak Republic.

FRANCE

Introduction

Activity remained buoyant in France in 1999 and 2000, growing at a yearly rate of 3.2%, which was above the Euro area average. The unemployment rate fell to under 9%, its lowest level for ten years. This trend encouraged immigration, which continued to rise in 1999, although it could slow with the decline in activity forecast for 2001.

A fuller assessment of migration trends can now be made using the statistics that became available in 1999, in particular on the results of the 1997 regularisation programme and the latest census. Where flows and naturalisations are concerned, it is now possible to trace the effects over an entire year of the legislative

measures enacted in 1998, which changed the conditions governing the entry of foreigners into France and access to nationality. With regard to the foreign population, the exhaustive results of the 1999 population census provide a snapshot of the foreign and immigrant population in France and make inter-censal comparisons possible.

1. Trends in migration movements

Inflows and outflows of foreigners

Permanent immigration

In France, entry statistics include real entries, regularisations and temporary entries. All immigrants issued with residence permits for one year or longer are defined as permanent entries (except for students, who are considered as temporary residents even though they may stay for longer than a year).

In 1999, total permanent entries stood at 104 500, which was somewhat much less low than in 1998 due to the drop in the number of regularisations (see Table III.13). All told, total real entries (not including entries under the regularisation procedure) were therefore up in 1999 on 1998. Some 20% of permanent flows came from the 18 States of the European Economic Area (EEA) and approximately 80% from other countries. The increase in the share of EEA nationals in 1999 was simply due to the fact that the number of entries under the regularisation procedure fell sharply in comparison with 1998. The breakdown of the flows from non-EEA countries was as follows: 58% from Africa, 21% from Asia, 10% from Europe (non-EEA, including the former USSR) and 11% from the Americas.

The main reason for permanent immigration remains family reunion, which was cited in 64% of cases, while work was only given as the chief reason in 10.4% of cases. However, these statistics give an imperfect picture of the impact of immigration on the labour market, since residence permits obtained for family reasons entitle recipients to hold a job. Lastly, the share of women in permanent inflows of workers continues to drop, the proportion of women in 1999 being 29%, as compared to one-third in 1997.

Temporary immigration and seasonal immigration

Temporary immigration mainly consists of people who have been granted a temporary work permit, which now includes scientists, trainees, "artists and authors", students and asylum seekers. A total of 62 600 non-EEA foreigners entered France in 1999 under these different categories of temporary immigration, a 28% increase on 1998. More than two-thirds of them were students and asylum seekers (see Table III.13).

In 1999, some 5 800 temporary work permits were issued, up 35% on 1998. This increase could partly be attributed to the fact that scientists are now included and that more foreign managers and computer engineers were recruited in 1999.

Students accounted for more than a third of temporary inflows, with 25 100 entries in 1999 (40%). The upward trend in inflows of foreign students in recent years continued in 1999 (up 6.7% on 1998). The share of African students in the above total grew, rising from 35% in 1998 to 41% in 1999. Asian students accounted for just over a fourth of these inflows and 20% of students were from the Americas, which was lower than the previous year. Over 50% of students were women.

Seasonal immigration followed the reverse trend, falling from 13 600 entries in 1992 to 7 600 in 1999. Two nationalities alone accounted for nearly 90% of inflows: Moroccans (55%) and Poles (34%). Seasonal workers were mainly employed in agricultural activities (grape harvest, harvesting fruits and vegetables, etc.) and, increasingly, in tourism and catering.

Departures of foreigners and assisted departures

Spontaneous departures of foreigners are not recorded in the French statistical system and there are no data available that would make it possible to assess overall departures and make comparisons over time. Only departures prompted by administrative action are counted, *i.e.* forced departures and assisted

Table III.13. **Current figures on flows and stocks of foreign population and labour force, France**

All figures in thousands unless otherwise indicated

	1996	1997	1998	1999		1996	1997	1998	1999
Permanent immigration					Re-admissions³	..	3.7	12.5	..
Registered flows by category					Registered outflows of foreigners⁴				
Family reunification (broadly defined)	30.4	31.1	38.3	38.0	Expulsions	1.2	0.9	0.7	0.6
Family members of French nationals	15.6	14.4	15.6	15.3	Actual removals to the borders	11.6	9.2	7.2	7.4
Family members of foreigners	13.9	15.5	21.7	21.8	Assisted departures	1.6	1.0	1.7	1.0
Family members of refugees	0.9	1.1	1.0	0.9					
Workers	11.9	11.7	11.6	11.8	Foreigners involved in an assisted departure procedure				
Wage earners	11.5	11.0	10.3	10.9	(number of persons)	311	286	192	125
Self-employed	0.5	0.7	1.3	1.0	(Cumulated figures since 1984)				(73 718)
Visitors	8.9	15.1	16.9	8.5	of which: Workers ⁵	205	183	133	97
Refugees	4.3	4.1	4.3	4.7	(Cumulated figures since 1984)				(32 959)
Regularisation of foreigners in an irregular situation	–	18.9	45.8	3.3					
Residence permit holder: "private life and family"	19.6	Acquisition of French nationality				
Other	0.2	Legal procedures	58.1	60.5	58.1	67.6
Total	55.6	62.0	116.9	86.3	of which: Naturalisation	34.7	35.7	34.7	39.8
of which: EEA	7.2	6.4	6.2	6.5	Declarations	21.9	23.2	23.8	68.9
					of which: Decision following a wedding	19.1	20.8	22.1	24.1
Estimated flows by main category¹					Declaration of becoming French ⁶	29.8	32.5	25.5	–
Visitors	7.5	7.8	8.2	7.5	Other	–	–	14.8	9.0
Family members of foreigners	6.5	8.5	8.0	6.5	Total	109.8	116.2	122.3	145.4
Other	4.4	5.2	5.0	4.1					
Total	18.4	21.5	21.2	18.1	Mixed marriages	24.0	24.7	26.7	..
of which: EEA	15.4	17.9	18.4	16.1	% of total marriages	9.6	8.7	9.6	..
Total registered and estimated flows	74.0	83.5	138.1	104.4	Stocks of foreigners aged 15 and over according to work status⁷				
Temporary immigration by category					Total foreign population	2 836	2 818	2 875	2 843
Asylum seekers	17.4	21.4	22.4	30.9	Labour force	1 605	1 570	1 587	1 578
Students	16.0	19.2	23.5	25.1	of which: employment	1 217	1 205	1 211	1 249
Holders of a provisional work permit ²	4.8	4.7	4.3	5.8	Participation rate (%)	56.6	55.7	55.2	55.5
Trainees	0.5	0.6	0.5	0.7	Unemployment rate (%)	24.2	23.2	23.7	20.8
Total	38.7	45.8	50.7	62.5					

1. Estimates made by the Ministry of the Interior on the basis of residence permits issued.

2. Provisional work permits (APT) are granted for a 9 month period and are renewable.

3. Re-admissions undertaken within the framework of international agreements.

4. In the absence of a population register, the only available data on the departures of foreigners are those which are due to administrative decisions and judicial orders concerning expulsions, removals of illegal immigrants to the border and voluntary departures assisted by the State.

5. The others are accompanying dependents of workers involved in an assisted departure procedure.

6. People born in France to foreign parents who declared their intention to become French in accordance with the legislation of 22 July 1993.

7. In March of the year indicated.

Sources: Office des migrations internationales (OMI); Office français de protection des réfugiés et apatrides (OFPRA); Ministry of the Interior; Labour Force Survey.

departures. It can be estimated that there are some 22 000 forced departures, to which can be added some 1 000 assisted returns involving financial aid.

Three types of procedures are used in forced departures: expulsion, removal to the frontier and readmission into an EU country (Dublin Agreement). In 1999, the number of expulsions fell by 6% to some 600 people. The number of removals ordered by the courts also dropped by 10% between 1998 and 1999 (40 000 in 1999), but the number actually enforced rose (7 400 in 1999). In contrast, the number of readmission orders rose by 20% (15 000 in 1999), and nearly all of them were enforced.

Assisted departures concern foreigners who receive financial aid to help them resettle in their country of origin. Foreign workers and job-seekers and foreigners who have been instructed to leave the country who apply within one month after receiving the order to leave France may qualify for resettlement aid. Of the one thousand people who applied for aid in 1999, only one hundred were workers. Since 1991, some 8 400 requests for aid have been granted (out of 9 800 applications), 45% to Europeans, 23% to Africans and 20% to Asians.

Lastly, on an exceptional basis, Kosovars who entered France in 1999 also returned to their country. Some 2 540 persons returned permanently after the end of the conflict, and 813 went back temporarily to assess the situation, although nearly all of the latter in fact subsequently returned to France.

Refugees and asylum seekers

After falling sharply since the late 1980s (over 60 000 entries requesting asylum seeker status were recorded in 1989), the number of asylum seekers entering France has now been rising yearly since 1996. This upward trend continued in 1999 with 30 900 applications recorded, up 38% on 1998. This figure represents the number of adults who applied for asylum with OFPRA (*Office français de protection des réfugiés et apatrides*), but does not take into account other adults and minors accompanying the applicant, which means that real flows are underestimated. Since the Act of 11 May 1998 was passed, to asylum seekers must be added the holders of the "private and family life" card issued to immigrants granted "territorial" asylum status, who numbered 292 in 1999.

In 1999, the largest number of asylum applications were filed by Chinese nationals (17%), nationals of the Federal Republic of Yugoslavia (8%), the former Zaire (7.5%), Turkey and Sri Lanka. Applications by Romanians and Bulgarians fell, but rose for Kosovars and nationals of the former Soviet Union (Moldavia). For Asia, the rise was mainly due to Chinese applicants, but also Turks and Indians. With regard to Africa, the increase can be attributed to the rise in the number of applicants from Mali, Congo, the former Zaire and Algeria. In all, 43% of applications were filed by Asians, 34% by Africans and 20% by Europeans, whose share is steadily declining.

The "automatic" refusal rate after the initial examination was over 80%, virtually identical to 1998. However, the actual refusal rate is not this high, since there are appeal and review procedures, and some unsuccessful applicants were ultimately regularised in the regularisation programme launched in June 1997.

As for statutory refugees, who as such are included in the permanent entry statistics, the rise in numbers that began in 1998 continued in 1999, 4 659 people being granted refugee status, up 7% on 1998. Half of them were of Asian origin, with 14.5% from Cambodia, Laos and Vietnam, and 14% from Sri Lanka. More than a fourth are of European origin (approximately 13% from the Federal Republic of Yugoslavia and 8% from Turkey). Fewer than 7% of statutory refugees came from Africa (in particular from the former Zaire and Rwanda). In all, some 108 000 statutory refugees were resident in France at the end of 1999. Three-quarters of them were Asian, just under 14% Africans and 10% Europeans.

Family reunion

Family reunification comprises three types of inflow: family reunion in the strict sense, immigration of members of a French family and entry of family members of refugees and stateless persons. In all, there were some 38 000 entries in 1999. These flows consisted mainly of women (over 80%), except in the case of French family members (51% women). Immigrants in first two categories came mainly from Africa (especially the Maghreb) and in the third category from Asia.

There were 21 800 entries for the purpose of family reunion in the strict sense, which was roughly the same as the previous year, with 65% coming from Africa and 22% from Asia (up on 1998). Some 15 300 people were admitted as members of French families (including 12 500 spouses and 2 800 parents of French children). Some 68% came from Africa, in particular Algeria, and 15% from Asia. Lastly, some 1 100 people per year enter as family members of refugees and stateless persons.

In 1999, it was necessary to add to these numbers some 20 000 immigrants granted the “private and family life” card introduced by the Act of 11 May 1998. Holders of this one-year renewable card may apply for a residence card after five years’ uninterrupted residence in France. Some 54% of these card holders are spouses of French nationals, 17% are foreigners who have proved that they have personal and family ties with French nationals and 8% are parents of French minors residing in France. The rest are mostly foreigners who have resided in France for 10 years (12%) or foreign minors who have lived in France since the age of 10 (8%). More than half of the card holders are women (53%). The origin of the card holders is much the same as for the family reunion entrants mentioned above.

2. Structure and changes in the foreign population

Numerical trends

According to the 1999 census, there are 3.26 million foreign residents in France. This means that the foreign population has fallen since the previous census, mainly due to naturalisations (see Table III.14). This general decline affected all groups of nationalities, except for non-EU Europeans, and as a result the breakdown of foreigners by continent of origin is much the same as in 1990. In 1999, some 43.5% of foreigners residing in France were from Africa, 41.5% from Europe, 12.5% from Asia and 2.5% from the Americas. The breakdown for African nationals shifted somewhat, the share of sub-Saharan Africans rising (from 10% to 15%) while the share of Maghreb nationals fell, although the latter still constitute the largest African community in France. The largest group is the Portuguese community (17%), followed by Moroccans (15.5%) and Algerians (14.6%), and then Turks, Italians and the nationals of all the sub-Saharan African countries (roughly 6% respectively for each of these three groups).

The proportion of women in the foreign population in France continued to grow between the two censuses. In 1982, 42.9% of foreign residents were women, then 44.9% in 1990 and 46.9% in 1999. More women have obtained French nationality by acquisition than men (54%). But this over-representation of men among foreigners and of women who have obtained French nationality by acquisition is gradually diminishing because of the changing composition of inflows and the magnitude of family reunion over the past two decades.

Table III.14. **Total population by nationality and place of birth, France (mainland)**

1999 Census, thousands and percentages

Stock of the population	Nationality		Place of birth			% of persons born:	
			Born in France	Born abroad	Total	in France	abroad
			French citizens	51 342.5	1 559.7	52 902.2	97.1
		{ French at birth Naturalised French citizens	800.4	1 554.9	2 355.3	34.0	66.0
	Total		52 142.8	3 114.7	55 257.5	94.4	5.6
	Foreigners, total		509.6	2 753.6	3 263.2	15.6	84.4
	Immigrants, total ¹		–	4 308.5	4 308.5	–	100.0
Total			52 652.4	5 868.2	58 520.7	90.0	10.0

1. Sum of naturalised French citizens born abroad and foreigners born abroad.

Source: March 1999 Census, INSEE (National Institute of Statistics and Economic Studies).

Mixed marriages

In 1998, the total number of marriages increased in France, to 280 000, but the share of mixed marriages also grew, rising from 8.7% in 1997 to 9.6% in 1998 (see Table III.13). Marriages in which both the man and woman were foreign only accounted for just over 2% of mixed marriages. Of the remaining mixed marriages, some 45% were between a foreign woman and a French man and 55% between a French woman and a foreign man. The breakdown of mixed marriages by nationality reflects the trends of migration flows, the first-ranking nationality being Algerians, followed by Moroccans, Portuguese, Africans other than from North Africa, Tunisians and Spaniards.

Foreign births

In 1998, 768 600 births were recorded in France. Some 32 100 of these were to mixed couples and 42 800 to foreign parents, which means that for roughly 17% of legitimate births at least one parent was foreign. The contribution of foreigners to total births can be calculated by adding the number of births in which both parents were foreign to half of the births in which one parent was foreign. This shows that the foreign contribution to the legitimate birth rate was approximately 13%.

Naturalisations

The number of foreigners who acquire French nationality has been rising steadily since the beginning of the 1990s. There were some 600 000 during the inter-censal period between 1990 and 1999. If a comparison is made with the 1990 census, total annual acquisitions rose from 90 000 in 1990 to some 145 000 in 1999 (see Table III.13). These figures include naturalisations by decree, acquisitions by declaration (marriage to a French spouse, minors between the ages of 13 and 18 born in France of foreign parents) and acquisitions granted automatically to anyone born in France when they attain their majority, if they have resided there for at least 5 years since the age of 11.

In 1999, 136 400 acquisitions of French nationality were approved, 67 600 of which were by decree and 68 900 by declaration. Acquisitions granted automatically to French-born foreign children when they reach their majority are not recorded and are estimated at between 9 000 and 11 000. This means that total acquisitions were 20% up on 1998.

Slightly over 18% of acquisitions recorded (not including the estimated automatic acquisitions that are not recorded) were granted to Europeans, 19% to Asians and nearly 60% to Africans (49% from the Maghreb). The share of Europeans is declining and that of African nationals rising. Ultimately, five nationalities account for two-thirds of acquisitions of nationality by decree or declaration: Moroccans (28%), Algerians (11.5%), Tunisians (9%), Portuguese (10%) and Turks (8%).

Schooling of migrants' children

Enrolments of foreign children in primary and secondary schools have been falling since the early 1990s. At the beginning of the 1999-2000 academic year, 650 000 foreign children were enrolled, compared with 690 000 in 1998-99, accounting respectively for 5.5% and 5.8% of total primary and secondary enrolments in France. Some 60% of these foreign pupils are from North Africa and sub-Saharan Africa and 11% are Turkish. Slightly more than half of these foreign pupils were enrolled in primary school, and the rest in secondary school.

In nursery schools, the children of foreigners are over-represented in priority education zones (ZEPs), accounting on average for 7% of nursery school enrolments, but 21% of enrolments in schools that are classified as ZEPs and only 5% in schools that are not. This over-representation can be explained by a mechanical effect stemming from the fact that one of the criteria used to classify schools as ZEPs is the share of foreign children enrolled.

At the secondary level, foreign children are under-represented in general and technical education and over-represented in vocational education. However, this may be due to an effect of selection linked to the parents' social category. Sociological studies show that the academic performance of foreign children is no different from that of

French pupils from the same social background. Foreign pupils are also over-represented in special education (where they account for more than 10% of enrolments), but this share has been diminishing since the early 1990s.

3. Migration and the labour market

Migration for employment and work permits

The foreigners who enter the labour market each year do so both directly (immigrants who entered France with a work permit) and indirectly (*i.e.* immigrants who entered France with “economically inactive” status and later joined the labour force). The number of work permits issued only measures the first flow. However, the latter is obviously the larger of the two, and it is estimated that three-quarters of foreigners entering the labour market do so indirectly.

In 1999, some 5 600 foreigners from EEA countries entered France with a work permit. Some 30% of them were Portuguese, 15% Italian and 15% UK nationals. Two-thirds of these workers, who were generally skilled, worked in the tertiary sector, 20% in construction and public works and 10% in industry. In this respect, the Portuguese are atypical among EEA nationals as they account for 56% of unskilled workers, some 60% of domestic service workers and 80% of those working in construction and public works and agriculture.

The remaining work permits (10 900) were issued to nationals of other countries, including 4 660 people who had obtained refugee status. The other permits were granted to 5 330 wage-earners and 960 self-employed workers. Most of these people were employed in the tertiary sector (80%), only 16% in industry and 2% in construction and public works. The average level of qualifications of these workers is rising, in particular because of the recruitment of managers and computer engineers.

Labour market integration

Foreign labour force

According to the March 2000 Labour Force Survey (INSEE), out of 2.84 million foreigners above the age of 15, 1.58 million were economically active, which corresponds to an overall participation rate of 55% for foreigners (see Table III.13). Some 1.25 million of these economically active foreigners hold a job and 1.13 million are wage-earners. Thus, foreigners account for 6% of the labour force in France and 5.3% of the employed labour force. Some 330 000 foreigners are job-seekers, which corresponds to an unemployment rate of 21%. Nearly 90% of foreigners are wage-earners. The foreign labour force has benefited somewhat from the improved economic and labour market situation, and between March 1999 and March 2000, the number of foreign wage-earners rose by 22 000.

Breakdown of wage-earners by sector and industry

Analysis of the share of foreign wage-earners working in the major sectors of the economy shows that they are over-represented in some sectors, such as construction (15.1%) and agriculture (9.4%), compared to an average of 5.4%. On the other hand, foreign wage-earners are under-represented in the industrial and tertiary sectors. This pattern is changing very little, except for a slight drop in the share of foreigners in industry and a rise in the number employed in the tertiary sector. Some 712 000 foreigners are employed in the tertiary sector (63% of all foreign wage-earners).

The proportion of women among foreign wage-earners is 37%, but this average rate conceals strong disparities across industries. It is much lower in the automobile, energy and construction industries (under 10%), but higher (over 50%) in the consumer goods industries, real estate activities, education, health care, social work and administration.

Unemployment of foreigners

Since March 1997, the number of unemployed has fallen significantly in France (down 14% between 1999 and 2000). The employment situation has also improved for foreign workers, but unemployment has declined less rapidly, dropping by 10% for all foreigners and by 11% for non-EU foreigners. As a result, the

share of foreigners in total unemployment has risen, with foreigners accounting for 12.5% of the jobless (0.5 of a percentage point higher than in previous years). In other words, the overall unemployment rate of foreigners is falling, but the differential with the unemployment rate of nationals is widening (9.4% for nationals and 20.8% for foreigners in 2000).

Although foreigners from EEA countries have an unemployment rate close to that of nationals, the unemployment rate of foreigners from other countries is 27.7%. Women are over-represented among non-EU jobless, with an unemployment rate of 35.5%, compared to 23.6% for men. Similarly, although unemployment among young foreigners is down, it still remains very high.

4. Policy developments

A provisional assessment of the regularisation programme

As the review procedure launched in June 1997 is nearly complete, a provisional assessment can now be made. In all, since 1997, 75 600 foreigners have been regularised under this procedure: just under 20 000 in 1997, over 50 700 in 1998 and some 6 000 in 1999. Of the 5 900 applications approved in 1999, 2 550 were classified as entries on family reunion grounds and 3 300 were recorded separately.

Three-quarters of the people regularised came from Africa (some 55 000), including 30 000 from sub-Saharan Africa and rather less than 25 000 from the Maghreb. The remaining one-fourth were from Asia (20%) and Europe (5%). The breakdown by nationality was highly concentrated, four nationalities accounting for 45% of regularisations: 12 000 Algerians, 8 800 Moroccans, 7 500 Chinese and 5 900 nationals of the former Zaire.

In accordance with the criteria laid down in the regularisation procedure, greater importance is being given to family ties, 78% of cases involving family reunion. Nevertheless, of the total number of applications, 43 000 were classified in the "wage-earner" category.

Signature of a bilateral Franco-Algerian agreement on the status of Algerians in France

On 11 July 2001, the French and Algerian Governments signed an agreement on the status of Algerians in France aimed at bringing it in line with the status of other foreigners. This agreement is a protocol to the 1968 Franco-Algerian Agreement defining the conditions for the movement, employment and residence of Algerian nationals and their families. This protocol is aimed at extending the benefits of ordinary law to Algerians, since, due to various changes in the legislation, particularly in the Act of 1998, Algerians were governed by an agreement that was on the whole less favourable than the ordinary law applying to other foreigners. This agreement will only enter into force after it has been ratified by the parliaments of both countries.

This new agreement between France and Algeria should make it possible to consolidate from a legal and social standpoint the families of Algerians established in France, who constitute the third largest foreign community (471 000). The main changes concern family reunion, the status of retired persons, work by students and regularisation.

Under this agreement, the Algerian ascendants of French children will be eligible for the "private and family life" card entitling them to a ten-year residence card after one year. This will put an end to the paradoxical situation in which the parents of French children could neither be deported nor regularised. Spouses of French nationals will be able to obtain the right of residence even if they entered France with a short-stay visa; previously they were required to return to Algeria to obtain a long-stay visa before they could obtain the right of residence. In line with the legislation in force for other countries, polygamy will now be prohibited in family reunion cases, and family reunion will only be allowed after one year of residence (until now, there was no waiting period). The only specific family provision maintained for Algerians is that family reunion is still allowed for children adopted under the "*kefala*" regime, which is not authorised for other nationals of the Maghreb.

As regards pensioners, previously Algerians were not eligible for the residence permit provided for under the 1998 Réséda Act, which allows pensioners to return to their country and live there without losing the right to return to France. The new agreement entitles them to this pensioner's card. Lastly, Algerian students in France, who previously were able to work on a part-time basis without authorisation, must now apply to the administration as required under the general regime.

Box III.4. The 1999 census

The Decree of 29.12.1999 approved the results of the census of 8 March 1999 and authorised their initial use. In 1999, the population of France stood at 60.2 million, with 1.68 million in the four overseas *départements* and 58.52 million in metropolitan France. This represents a total increase of 2.1 million on the 1990 census. Analysis of the results by nationality and place of birth makes it possible to determine both the number of foreigners and the number of immigrants in metropolitan France, the definition of foreigner being based on the criterion of nationality and immigrant on the place of birth and migration. In the strict sense, immigrants are foreigners born outside France who have emigrated in order to settle in France.

At the time of the 1999 census, there were 3.26 million foreigners in France, or 5.6% of the metropolitan population. This shows that the decline in the foreign population that began in 1990 has continued (down by 9%). The number of immigrants (obtained by correlating place of birth and nationality) was greater than the number of foreigners: 4.31 million, which represented 7.3% of the metropolitan population. The difference between the number of "foreigners" and "immigrants" can be explained by the fact that many immigrants acquire French citizenship (at least 1.55 million became French nationals by acquisition) and are therefore no longer counted as foreigners, and by the fact that a number of foreigners are born in France (0.51 million) and are therefore not immigrants.

Lastly, the census shows that 10% of the metropolitan population was born outside France. Of this 10%, some 27% are French nationals born abroad, 26.5% are naturalised French citizens and 46.9% are foreigners. Two-thirds of those who had acquired French nationality were born outside France. Four-fifths of foreigners were born outside France.

GERMANY

Introduction

Migration flows into Germany have increased since the opening up of the frontiers in Eastern Europe, with several hundred thousand people coming into the country every year, despite unfavourable economic trends. Between 1998 and 2000, growth was once again buoyant (3% in 2000) and unemployment fell to 7.8%, as a result of which inflows of foreigners have again risen and Germany's migration balance is once again positive.

The German Government considers the integration of foreigners resident in Germany and measures to combat xenophobia to be priority issues. In 1999, the Nationality Act was amended with these objectives in view, the aim being to facilitate the naturalisation of foreigners resident in Germany for a long time. Lastly, Germany is currently considering amending the legislation on foreigners entering and staying in the country, so as to adapt immigration flows to the requirements of the German economy.

1. Trends in migration movements

Inflows and outflows of foreigners

In 1999, there were 674 000 recorded entries, which was 11% up on 1998 (see Table III.15) and marked the end of a decline in inflows that had been in progress since 1992 (over 1 million entries). In contrast, the number of departures from Germany fell by 13%, to 556 000, resulting in a positive migration balance. This followed negative balances in 1997 and 1998, when the number of departures exceeded that of inflows, whereas from the mid-1980s to 1992 the migration balance had risen uninterruptedly, reaching over 600 000 in 1992.

Of the inflows recorded in 1999, it was nationals of the former Federal Republic of Yugoslavia (particularly Kosovo) who formed the biggest immigrant group, followed by Poles. Some of the inflows were accounted for

Table III.15. Current figures on the components of total population change, on migration flows and stocks of foreign population and labour force, Germany

All figures in thousands unless otherwise indicated

	1996	1997	1998	1999
Components of population changes				
<i>Total population (Total change)</i>	195.4	45.4	-20.3	126.4
Natural increase	-86.8	-48.2	-67.3	-75.6
Net migration	282.2	93.7	47.1	202.0
<i>Germans (Total change)¹</i>	256.5	252.4	218.2	175.4
Natural increase	-179.7	-141.7	-153.6	-156.5
Net migration	133.3	115.4	80.6	83.7
Acquisition of German nationality	302.8	278.7	291.3	248.2
<i>Foreigners (Total change)</i>	-61.1	-207.0	-238.5	-49.1
Natural increase	92.8	93.5	86.3	80.9
Net migration	148.9	-21.8	-33.5	118.2
Acquisition of German nationality	-302.8	-278.7	-291.3	-248.2
Migration of foreigners²				
Inflows by nationality (Top 5 in 1999)	708.0	615.3	605.5	673.9
<i>of which:</i>				
Federal Rep. of Yugoslavia	42.9	31.2	59.9	87.8
Poland	77.4	71.2	66.1	72.2
Turkey	73.2	56.0	48.0	47.1
Italy	45.8	39.0	35.6	34.9
Russian Federation	31.9	24.8	21.3	27.8
Net migration by nationality (Top 5 in 1999)	148.9	-21.8	-33.5	118.2
<i>of which:</i>				
Federal Rep. of Yugoslavia	8.6	-13.3	14.8	39.5
Russian Federation	19.3	13.6	11.0	17.7
Poland	5.7	1.0	5.4	13.6
Turkey	29.7	10.0	2.8	6.2
Romania	0.4	-2.4	0.4	2.2
Inflows of ethnic Germans from:				
Central and Eastern Europe	177.8	134.4	103.1	104.9
<i>of which:</i>				
Former USSR	172.2	131.9	101.6	103.6
Romania	4.3	1.8	1.0	0.9
Poland	1.2	0.7	0.5	0.4
Inflows of asylum seekers	116.4	104.4	98.6	95.1
<i>of which:</i>				
Former Yugoslavia	18.1	14.8	35.0	33.7
Turkey	23.8	16.8	11.8	9.1
Iraq	10.8	14.1	7.4	8.7
Afghanistan	5.7	4.7	3.8	4.5
Stock of foreign population by duration of stay (31 December of the year indicated)²	7 314.0	7 365.8	7 319.6	7 343.6
Less than one year (%)	5.6	5.2	5.2	5.6
1 year to less than 4 years (%)	18.2	15.8	14.8	13.9
4 to less than 8 years (%)	22.0	22.9	21.0	19.5
8 to less than 10 years (%)	5.7	6.9	8.1	8.8
10 to less than 20 years (%)	..	19.2	19.9	20.2
20 years and more	..	30.0	31.1	31.9
Total (%)	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Issuance of work permits for a first employment³	440.0	451.0	402.6	433.7
<i>of which:</i>				
Asylum seekers	21.3	24.8
Contract workers	54.5	54.8
By duration of stay in Germany				
Newly entered	262.5	285.4	275.5	..
Of which: Polish workers	180.8	205.6
Not newly entered	177.5	165.6	127.0	..
By kind of permit ⁴				
General permit	346.3	352.4
Special permit	93.4	98.5

Table III.15. **Current figures on the components of total population change, on migration flows and stocks of foreign population and labour force, Germany (cont.)**

All figures in thousands unless otherwise indicated

	1996	1997	1998	1999
Stock of foreign workers (microcensuses) – Top 5 nationalities				
Turkey	..	1 039	..	1 008
Italy	..	375	..	386
Greece	..	214	..	219
Croatia	..	215	..	189
Austria	..	123	..	118
Others	..	1 609	..	1 625
Total	..	3 575	..	3 545
Contract workers (annual average)⁵	45.8	38.5	33.0	40.0
<i>of which :</i>				
Poland	24.4	21.1	16.9	18.2
Hungary	9.0	5.8	5.0	6.4
Romania	–	1.0	2.6	3.9
Croatia	4.4	3.6	2.8	3.9
Czech Republic	1.9	1.4	1.1	1.4
Seasonal workers by nationality⁶	220.9	226.0	201.6	223.4
<i>of which :</i>				
Poland	196.3	202.2	182.0	199.4
Slovak Republic	6.3	6.4	4.9	6.0
Croatia	5.7	5.8	3.9	3.4
Romania	5.0	5.0	5.6	7.1
Hungary	3.5	3.6	2.8	3.3
Unemployment (national definition)				
Total number of unemployed workers (Germany as a whole)	3 965.1	4 384.5	4 279.3	4 099.2
Total number of unemployed workers (western Germany)	2 796.2	3 020.9	2 904.3	2 755.5
<i>Unemployment rate (%) (western Germany)</i>	10.1	11.0	10.5	8.8
Total number of foreign unemployed workers (western Germany)	496.0	521.6	505.2	477.7
<i>Foreigners' unemployment rate (%) (western Germany)</i>	18.9	20.4	19.6	18.4

Note: The data cover Germany as a whole, unless otherwise indicated. Data for Former Yugoslavia cover Montenegro and Serbia.

1. Figures include ethnic Germans whose German origin has been recognised.

2. Data are from population registers.

3. Citizens of EU Member States are not included.

4. A general permit is only granted if no domestic worker is available. This is not the case for the issuance of a special permit. Activity of holders of a special work permit is not restrictive.

5. Contract workers are recruited under bilateral agreements. Quotas by country of origin are revised annually.

6. Seasonal workers are recruited under bilateral agreements and they are allowed to work 3 months per year.

Sources: Bundesanstalt für Arbeit; Statistisches Bundesamt.

by ethnic Germans (*Aussiedler*) from the Eastern European countries. Since 1997, however, the number of immigrants of German origin has fallen sharply from the levels of the early 1990s. In 1999, the figure for returning Germans was 105 000, mainly from the former Soviet Union.

Illegal immigration

There are no overall estimates for illegal entries. The only data available concern the number of foreigners arrested at the frontier, who, having been on the increase, seem to have fallen in 1999 (37 800) and 2000 (31 500). The bulk of them are Romanians, Afghans, nationals of the former Yugoslavia, Moldavians, Iraqis, Indians and Turks.

Refugees and asylum seekers

The change in the legislation concerning the right of asylum (amendment to the Basic Law, enacted 1 July 1993), making entry conditions more restrictive, resulted in a very sharp reduction in the number of foreigners coming into the country as asylum seekers since 1992. In the space of a few years, between 1992 and 1995, inflows fell from over 400 000 to 95 000 (see Table III.15). The rate of recognition of

refugee status remains very low, only 6 150 people being granted refugee status in 1999, *i.e.* 3% of all applicants (4% in 1998).

The share of applicants of European origin fell from 72% in 1993 to 40% in 1997, but has stabilised at a little over 50% since 1998. Some 37% of applicants come from Asia and 10% from Africa.

2. Structure and trends in the foreign population

Numerical trends

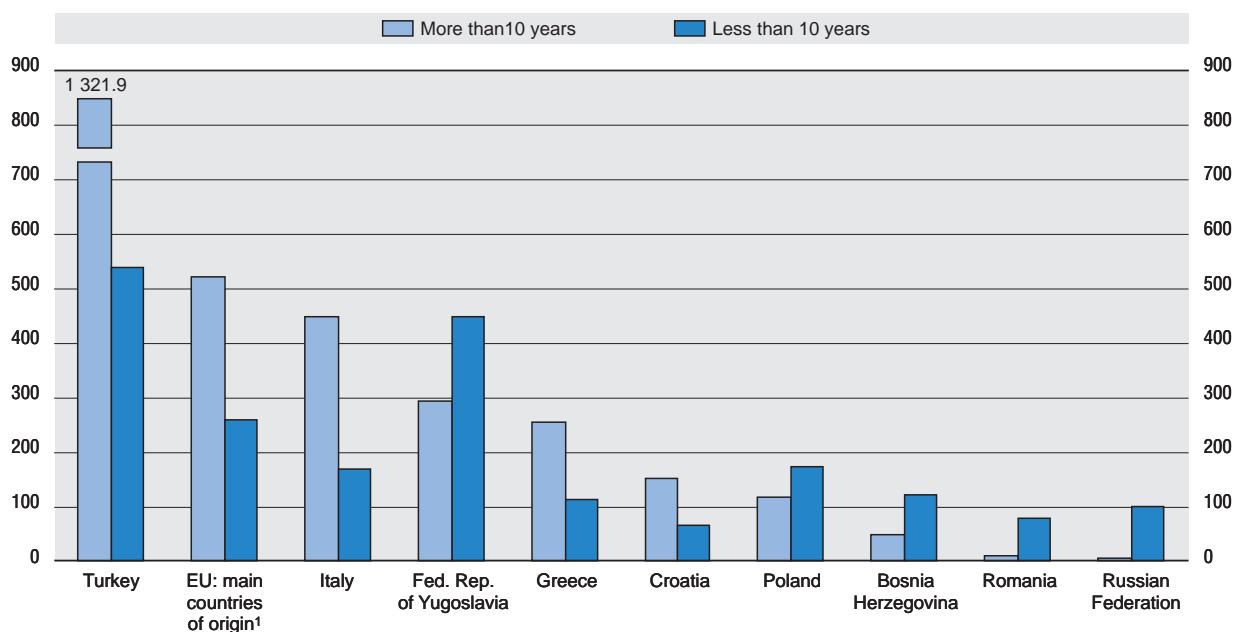
Like inflows, the stock of foreigners resident in Germany stabilised in the late 1990s. In 1999, 7 344 000 foreigners were resident in Germany (+0.3%) (see Table III.15), meaning that the number of foreigners has remained stable since 1997 after increasing very appreciably from the mid-1980s (when 4.5 million foreigners were resident in Germany). Foreigners accounted for 8.9% of the total population in 1999.

The biggest foreign community is made up of Turks (28%), followed by nationals of the former Yugoslavia (10%), Italians (8.4%), Greeks (5%) and Poles (4%). More than half of all foreigners are men. Compared to 1998, the share of ex-Yugoslavia nationals has decreased steeply with the departure of large numbers of nationals of Bosnia Herzegovina. All told, one-quarter of all foreigners are nationals of European Union countries.

Analysis of the length of stay in Germany shows that immigrants settle on a lasting basis and that naturalisation rules were very strict prior to the 1999 reform. In 1999, nearly one-third of foreigners had been resident in Germany for over 20 years and 20% had been there for between 10 and 20 years. Of the foreigners who had been in the country for more than 10 years, 40% were Turks, 12% Italians and 9% nationals of the former Yugoslavia (see Chart III.7).

Chart III.7. Foreigners in Germany by country of origin and length of stay, 1999

Thousands



1. France, United Kingdom, Austria, the Netherlands, Spain and Portugal.
Source: Federal Statistical Office.

German reunification has done little to change the regions where immigrants are resident. Only 3% of foreigners live in the new *Länder*. The average share of foreigners in the German population (9%) does not reflect their real presence, which varies appreciably from one *Land* to another: 19% of the inhabitants of the *Land* of Hamburg are foreigners, while in Hesse or Berlin, the figure is about 14%. In contrast, the foreign population is no more than 2% in the eastern *Länder*.

Of the total number of foreigners resident in Germany on 31 December 1999, 1.24 million were refugees and asylum seekers. From the various sources of information available, it is possible to determine that 185 000 of these people entered Germany as refugees and 130 000 as accompanying family members. Some 44 000 are people whose protection Germany guarantees because of the persecution they suffer on the grounds of race, religion or belonging to a minority in their country of origin. Approximately 9 500 are admitted as humanitarian refugees. In addition, 120 500 are Jews from the former Soviet Union and 13 500 are displaced persons. Lastly, 264 000 of them are asylum seekers waiting for the question of their status to be settled and 50 000 are refugees from Bosnia Herzegovina. The remaining third (423 000) are made up of *de facto* refugees who have not filed asylum applications or whose applications have been turned down but who, for humanitarian and political reasons, cannot envisage returning to their own countries. These numbers reflect the scale of the flows of refugees and asylum seekers who have entered Germany since the mid 1980s.

Foreign birth

In 1998, 430 700 marriages were celebrated in Germany, which was slightly more than in 1997 (+2%). Of these, some 14% were between German and foreign nationals.

Mixed marriages

Foreigners continue to contribute substantially to the birth rate in Germany. Of 770 800 births registered in 1999, 12.4% were to foreigners. That share, which is bigger than the share of foreigners in the total population, reflects the fact that the structure of the foreign population is younger and the birth rate higher, on average. Compared to 1998, the share is down two percentage points, after rising steadily since the mid-1980s. Almost 80% of foreign children born in 1999 were Turks or nationals of former Yugoslavia (40% in the case of each of the two communities). Italian children account for 6% of births, followed by Greek and Portuguese children (3.5 and 1.4% respectively).

Naturalisations

The amendment to the Nationality Code voted in July 1999 came into force on 1 January 2000. The aim is to make it easier for foreigners who have been resident in Germany for a long time, and also their families, to obtain German nationality by introducing a right based in part on *jus soli*. Since 1997, there has been a steady and appreciable increase in the number of naturalisations of people not of ethnic German origin, the rate of increase being some 30% per year. According to the estimates produced by the Federal Statistical Office, the number of naturalisations rose between 1997 and 2000 from 82 900 to over 186 000. Some 39% of naturalisation applications were based on the change to the minimum length of residence, which went to 8 years in 1999 (Article 85 of the Law on Foreigners), and 26% on the right to nationality (1999 Nationality Act) granted to children of foreigners born in Germany and aged under 10. Of these naturalisations in 2000, 44% were of Turkish origin, 7.7% were Iranian nationals and 5.2% were from the former Yugoslavia.

Schooling of migrant's children

In 1999, the share of foreign children in the total number of school children was some 10% and their school results appear to be improving over the years. In the 1980s, for example, approximately 30% of foreign children left education with no sort of diploma, whereas that percentage is down to just 17% nowadays (compared to only 9% for German children). Despite this difference in school performance between foreign and German children, which may be explained by socio-economic factors, the trend in the said indicator is an encouraging sign that integration is being achieved through schooling, even if more sophisticated analysis would be needed to confirm that finding.

3. Migration and the labour market

Migration for employment and work permits

Work permits granted

The number of work permits granted continued to fall in 1999, as has been the trend since 1995. In 1999, for example, 1 034 500 permits were granted, which was several thousand fewer than in 1998 (down 1.5%). Since the Act of 1 January 1998, however, several categories of foreigners have been exempted and are therefore no longer included in the relevant data. This is the case, for example, of nationals of the European Union countries and the European Economic Area, as it is for people with indefinite residence permits. All in all, 3.6 million foreigners are exempt from the obligation to have a work permit in order to enter the labour market. Of the permits granted in 1999, the majority were “ordinary permits” (86.5%) – *i.e.* subject to the rule of prior entitlement for German or foreign workers with comparable status – and are valid only for a specific activity. The remaining were “special permits”, which give unrestricted access to the labour market and are granted especially to Turkish nationals under agreements signed between Turkey and the European Union. More than 90% of permits issued in 1999 were for jobs located in the western *Länder*.

Contract workers, guest workers, seasonal workers and border workers

Along with other European countries, Germany ended the immigration of foreign workers in 1973. Despite this, co-operation agreements between countries allow a certain number of workers to enter the country for a limited period, either for seasonal work or for work within the framework of co-operation agreements designed to train foreign workers.

Thus, countries such as Poland, the Czech Republic, the Slovak Republic, Hungary, Bulgaria, Slovenia, Croatia, Bosnia Herzegovina, the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, Latvia and Turkey have signed agreements with Germany allowing German firms to take on contract labour (at the same time complying with collective agreements and German labour law). In 1999, 40 000 contract workers were hired in Germany.

Apart from the above type of agreement, there is also the possibility of obtaining “guest worker” status, whereby foreigners can obtain employment for 12 to 18 months with the object of upgrading their skills, learning German and, conceivably, setting up their own businesses in their country of origin. Such contracts are confined to people aged between 18 and 40, while the countries concerned are those of Central and Eastern Europe. In 1999, 3 700 young foreign workers took advantage of this type of employment.

Since 1991, seasonal work has also been authorised (for a maximum of three months per year) for certain nationals of Central and Eastern European countries with which agreements have been signed. After falling slightly in 1998, the number of seasonal workers moved back to the 1997 level, Germany registering 223 400 seasonal workers in 1999 (see Table III.15) The majority are Polish (89%), the remainder coming from Romania, the Slovak Republic, Hungary, Croatia and Bulgaria. Seasonal work permits for foreigners are only issued as long as working conditions and pay are the same as for German nationals (to avoid any dumping). The sectors concerned are those in which there are big seasonal fluctuations in demand for labour: hotels and catering, agriculture and forestry.

Lastly, seasonal work is authorised for Czechs and Poles under certain conditions, namely they must remain resident outside Germany and must return home at least five nights per week.

“Green card” holders

In 2000, to remedy the shortage of labour in certain sectors such as new information and communication technologies and data processing, the government introduced a new work permit – the “green card” – which is reserved for computer specialists not from European Union countries. To be accepted, candidates have to prove that they have very sound computer skills or that their starting salaries were very high (over DM 100 000 per year). The visa is issued very quickly (less than eight days after the application was filed), thanks to simplified administrative procedures. Annual quotas are laid down for every nationality.

As it transpires, the number of “green card” applicants and recipients is much smaller than was initially planned. Between August 2000 and February 2001, slightly over 5 000 “green cards” were issued, of the

20 000 initially planned. The biggest contingents come from India, the former Soviet Union and Romania. The majority are men (88%). Over half of the jobs occupied are in small and medium-sized firms (less than 100 employees). The “green card’s” limited success may be attributed to linguistic problems and the limited duration of the permit (5 years).

Labour market integration

The labour market situation improved in 1999 and 2000, employment rising by 1.1% and unemployment settling at 7.8% in 2000, though it still stands at 17.4% in the new *Länder*. There also appear to be sectoral labour shortages, and these cyclical shifts have had an impact on the employment of foreigners.

Characteristics of the employment of foreign labour

In 1999, the share of foreign labour stood at 8.9% of total labour in the western *Länder* and less than 1% in the eastern *Länder*. In all, 1 988 114 foreigners were affiliated to the Social Security, which was more than in 1998 (adjusted data). Although on the increase, the share of foreign women in foreign employment remains relatively small (34%).

The nationality breakdown of workers affiliated to the Social Security matches that of foreigners in the total population, approximately 29% being Turks, 16.4% nationals of the former Yugoslavia and 10% Italians. Some 32% were from European Union countries.

The biggest concentration of foreign workers is in agriculture (13.5%), construction (11.1%), manufacturing (10.6%) and “miscellaneous services” (10.1%). In other areas of activity, such as mining and energy, retailing, insurance and local government, non-profit organisations and domestic services, foreigners are under-represented.

Lastly, self-employment among foreigners is increasing, with some 263 000 people involved in 1999, to whom may be added 23 000 family workers – this according to an annual micro-census.

Unemployment of foreigners

The fall in unemployment also concerns foreigners, amongst whom the overall unemployment rate has declined, standing at 18.4% in 1999 against 20.4% in 1997 (see Table III.15). Between 1998 and 1999, the number of jobless foreigners fell by 4.6%, yet this appreciable decline must not be allowed to hide the fact that the steep rise in foreign unemployment that began in the early 1990s has by no means been halted. Thus, unemployment among the foreign population rose from 10.7% in 1991 to over 20% in 1997, unemployment among nationals increasing by less than 4 points over the same period. Taking the whole of the 1990s, the unemployment differential between foreigners and nationals therefore widened and foreigners became even more vulnerable than nationals to unemployment. That said, the average duration of unemployment is slightly shorter among foreigners than among nationals (13.5 and 14.7 months, respectively)

Unemployment varies according to nationality. While unemployment is above average among Turks, Greeks and Italians (23.3, 17.6 and 18.4%, respectively), it is well below average among nationals of the former Yugoslavia, the Spanish and the Portuguese (12.6, 12.2 and 13.6%, respectively).

There are a number of reasons for the unemployment differential between foreigners and nationals. Apart from any discrimination with regard to foreigners, which is hard to measure, there are structural factors relating to skills and demographic characteristics that can also intervene. The fact is that foreigners are, on average, less skilled than their German counterparts and are also younger.

4. Policy developments

Admission and residence (including integration measures)

Integration policy

The government attaches great importance to integration policy which attracts substantial budget funding. The prime targets of integration policy are foreign workers with permanent resident status and the members of their families. The integration policy conducted by the Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs is designed to improve communication between government departments with regard to foreigners’ welfare

entitlements, vocational training and the understanding of foreign languages. This prompted the introduction, for various countries, of a binational programme of courses for young foreigners living in Germany. Another part of the integration programme targets foreign women (German language courses, information about training facilities, etc.), and over 300 000 women have attended language courses since 1985. The final strand of integration policy concerns the measures taken to combat racism and xenophobia and improve everyday relations between foreigners and nationals.

Draft framework law on immigration

In September 2000, the Ministry of the Interior set up a cross-party committee with the task of making proposals regarding the legislative framework surrounding immigration and bringing it into line with the needs of the German economy. The project (the Süssmuth Report) was submitted in July 2001 and contains proposals which could give rise to a new law on immigration in 2002. The proposals concern, on one hand, immigration by foreign workers, which would be facilitated in the case of skilled workers with good knowledge of German (points system) and whose skills match the needs of the German economy – as assessed by a future Federal Office. Such workers would be awarded a permanent residence permit. In the case of asylum seekers, on the other hand, admission could be limited initially to three months and family reunion confined to children aged under 12. There is nothing definitive about these proposals for the time being, but they do give some idea of the new thrust of migration policy in Germany.

Combating illegal immigration

In addition to stepping up border controls, the measures being taken to combat illegal immigration are of two sorts. On the one hand, the authorities are particularly anxious to crack down on trafficking of human beings. On the other, they are seeking to sign readmission agreements with the countries most concerned by illegal immigration – agreements which would oblige them to readmit people who had entered Germany illegally, once their nationality had been established beyond doubt.

GREECE

Introduction

In 2001, Greece joined the Euro area. The economic adjustments under way for several years with a view to membership have reduced public debt and inflation, with the result that Greece's growth rate of 4.1% in 2000 was above the European Union average (3.3%). The situation on the labour market is still giving cause for concern, however, with an unemployment rate at 10.8%, one point above the EU average and particularly high for some categories of workers (women and young people). This makes integration precarious for many foreign immigrants or Greek "repatriates".

Greece is now confirming its status as an immigration country, whereas emigration had long been the predominant trend. The foreign population, including illegal immigrants, is thought to account for between 7.5% and 9.5% of the total population. However, the shortcomings of the reporting system, currently being overhauled, make estimates difficult.

1. Trends in migration movements

Emigration and returning nationals

The Greek statistical system ceased collecting data on emigration in 1977. Information has therefore to be obtained from the records of recipient countries. However, Greek emigration flows have declined sharply over the past two decades and only a few of the host countries traditionally preferred by Greek emigrants provide

significant statistics. Exceptionally, the 1999 data for the United States are unavailable, but the figures for 1987-97 show that Greek entry flows are clearly in decline (down 60%) and amount to only around one thousand people (down from 2 650 in 1987 to 1 050 in 1997). In 1999, 364 354 Greeks were living in Germany. Entry flows have levelled out at under 20 000 since the early 1990s and are slightly up on 1998 (9%). Net migration with Germany stands at around -1 820, meaning that more Greeks are leaving than entering Germany.

Arrival of Greek Pontians

Since the late 1980s, Greece has seen an influx of ethnic Greeks from the region of Pontos but resident in the Commonwealth of Independent States (Greek Pontians). In 1999, the number of Greeks "returning" from the former USSR fell again and the decline continued in 2000. In 1999 just over 4 400 ethnic Greeks returned to Greece, compared with 25 500 in 1993. Of these, it is hard to determine exactly how many were Greek Pontians.

The majority of immigrants since the mid-1980s have come from Georgia (52%), Kazakhstan (20%), Russia (15%) and Armenia (6%). Most have settled in the regions of Thrace and Macedonia.

Inflows and outflows of foreigners

As the statistical system is being overhauled, no data are available for 1999 on new residence permits. In 1998, some 74 600 permits were issued, for a foreign population of 309 400. However, the statistics were affected by the 1998 regularisation programme, which attracted 370 000 applications. In February 2000, 212 000 "white card" holders proceeded to the second stage of the programme and applied for a "green card" entitling them to work and apply for the renewal of their residence permits under certain conditions. By September 2000, 147 800 people had obtained a "green card" (compared with 57 400 by the end of September 1999).

Of those 147 800 "green card" holders, 43% were living in the Athens region, 17% in the Peloponnese, 15% in Macedonia, 11% in Thessaly and 8% in Crete (see Table III.16). The regularisation process is still under way, and 240 000 "white card" holders are awaiting decisions regarding their "green card" applications.

Refugees and asylum seekers

After a decline in the number of refugees and asylum seekers since 1997, entries in 2000 were 40% up on 1999. In spite of a marked decline in their number, Iraqis still headed the list of asylum seekers in 2000 (38%), followed by Turks (23%), Afghans (15%) and Pakistanis (5%).

The refusal rate is still very high. In 1999 and 2000, respectively 146 and 169 people were granted the status of political refugee, meaning that over 90% were turned down. A further 106 applicants were granted the

Table III.16. **Regularisation programme of immigrants in an irregular situation, 2000, Greece**

Issuances of "green cards" by region in thousands

	30 September 2000
Attica and Islands	63.1
Peloponnesos	25.6
Ipeiros	5.1
Macedonia	22.5
Thrace	3.1
Crete	12.3
Thessalia	16.1
Total	147.8

Note: The regularisation programme occurred in two stages: first, illegal immigrants had to ask for a temporary "white card" before the end of May 1998. When they had obtained this document, they could apply for a "green card" (valid for 3 years). Data are still provisional.

Source: Ministry of Labour and Social Insurance.

status of humanitarian refugee in 2000 (compared with 407 in 1999). Since 1980, Greece has awarded political-refugee status to a total of 6 460 asylum seekers, mainly Turks (36%), Poles (26%), Romanians (11%), Iraqis (7%) and Iranians (4%).

2. Structure and changes in the foreign population

Numerical trends

The foreign population officially present on Greek soil in 1998 was an estimated 309 400. This figure does not include those regularised under the 1998 procedure. Overall, it has been estimated that between 800 000 and one million foreigners are living in Greece, around one-third of them illegally.

Naturalisations

Greek citizenship can be obtained in various ways. Foreigners who are not ethnic Greeks may obtain citizenship either by marrying a Greek national (once the marriage has produced children and provided the couple reside in Greece), or by spending ten of the previous twelve years in Greece.

Another option is open to ethnic Greeks who live in the former Soviet Union or have entered Greece on a tourist visa. They must submit proof of their Greek origins to the Greek Consulate if they live abroad, or to the regional General Secretariat if they live in Greece. While their case is being reviewed, they are given "Special Identity Cards" authorising them and their spouse and children to live and work in Greece.

After an upsurge in the mid-1990s, the number of naturalisations has steadily declined since 1995 and the trend continued in 1999 and 2000. In 1999, some 2 000 people were granted Greek citizenship, 21% down on 1998. By October 2000, the figure was only 924.

3. Migration and the labour market

Migration for employment and work permits

In 1999, only 19 000 foreigners held work permits, including some 5 000 EU citizens and 3 000 ethnic Greek immigrants. The majority of them were males (69%). In addition to these official permit-holders, there are 150 000 "green card" holders on the labour market, largely in commerce and services. There are also some 6 000 official refugees and a few thousand asylum seekers who have been legally authorised to work since 1999. However, the available data underestimate the real number of foreign workers present on the Greek labour market.

Foreign permit-holders work in commerce, catering or the hotel industry (31%), "other services" (32%), transport (15%), construction (7%), industry (7%) and agriculture (5%). This last figure is definitely underestimated owing to the large number of illegal workers.

As for seasonal work, new bilateral agreements were signed in 1996 with Albania and in 1997 with Bulgaria, the aim being to give these workers legal status. In fact the agreements are seldom applied, one reason being the large illegal workforce available. In August 2000 some 3 000 seasonal permits were granted to Albanians and 800 to Bulgarians.

Every two years, a list is made of foreigners and Greeks working on ships of over 100 tons under Greek ownership and flying a Greek or foreign flag. From 1982 to 1998 there was a sharp fall in the total number of sailors working on Greek-owned ships (down 36%), but the general decline reflects two contrasting trends and indicates that foreigners are replacing Greek sailors. On one hand, the number of Greek sailors has fallen by half while, on the other, the number of foreigners has risen by 8%. This is particularly noticeable on ships under foreign flags, where the number of foreign sailors rose by 96% over the period. Foreign sailors on ships in Greece are mostly from the Philippines, India, Indonesia and Pakistan.

4. Policy developments

Admission and residence (including integration measures)

Framework Act on Immigration

The Greek Parliament is expected to pass a Framework Act drawn up in 2000. This should give rise to a comprehensive reform of the legislation on migration:

- Changing the legislative framework on non-EU immigration by redefining categories of migrants and entry requirements.
- Redefining the requirements for family reunion (residence, work by spouse or children) applicable to each category of migrant.
- Defining the rights and obligations of foreign residents.
- Laying down penalties for breaching the laws on immigration, residence and work on Greek soil.
- Redefining the procedure for naturalisation and access to Greek citizenship.
- Decentralising some of the authority regarding foreigners to prefectures and municipal authorities.

Review of the legislation on family reunion

To facilitate the integration of migrants wishing to settle permanently in Greece, the authorities are focusing increasingly on the question of family reunion. Greek legislation on the subject is complex and specific to each category of migrant:

- Family reunion is subject to relatively strict conditions regarding the spouse and children of “green card” or “white card” holders. The 1998 Act protects the children and spouse of a cardholder from expulsion while the card is valid, but family reunion is only possible for “green card” holders if they have held a residence permit for at least two of their previous five years in the country. Family reunion is then subject to further conditions, including conjugal life prior to departure, valid papers and a minimum income.
- For asylum seekers who have obtained the status of humanitarian or political refugee, family reunion is possible and the requirements are far less strict than for foreign workers (1999 Act). For humanitarian refugees, work and residence permits are granted for one year to applicants and family members.
- Finally, ethnic Greek immigrants are not subject to any restrictions on family reunion, particularly length of stay. Family reunion can be immediate for ethnic Greek immigrants (1993 Act). For those with only a tourist visa, applications must be submitted to the Regional Secretariat and depend on the parents giving proof that they are of Greek origin.

Integration programmes for returning Greeks and foreign immigrants

Integration policy covers returning Greeks, ethnic Greek immigrants and foreigners alike. For returning and ethnic Greeks the programme launched in the early 1990s, leading to the establishment of a National Foundation for the Reception and Settlement of Repatriated Greeks to assist with housing and economic integration, was deemed inadequate given the numbers involved. Consequently a new Act was passed in 2000 to step up the scheme and provide more accommodation, vocational training and job opportunities, social and cultural integration and public-sector jobs. Subsidies have also been granted to host regions. However, the scheme has benefited only a few, 5 650 families, or 22 000 individuals, having received this assistance since 1991.

Other initiatives for Greek emigrants seek to strengthen ties with host countries, particularly since return migration is on the decline. For instance, the government promotes Greek culture abroad by setting up cultural schemes and cultural centres in other countries, signing employment agreements, setting up Greek chambers of commerce abroad to strengthen economic ties with Greece, and providing assistance for Greek citizens abroad.

With regard to the integration of foreigners, the Greek Government has sought to improve information and communication for and with foreign immigrants by publishing regional and national guides, for instance, and launching initiatives to inform foreign women, in particular, about their rights. In addition, the Greek radio service, working closely with the BBC, broadcasts programmes in 12 languages for foreign residents in Greece.

Combating illegal immigration

As there is so much illegal immigration into Greece, particularly because of its extensive land and coastal borders, combating illegal entries is one of the leading aims of the Greek Government. In 1999 almost 20 000 foreigners were expelled following administrative decisions, 8 000 more than in 1998. Almost two-thirds were from the Balkans and most of them were men, except in the case of Russia, Ukraine, Kazakhstan and Moldavia, where women were the majority.

Over the past five years, more than one million Albanians have also been turned back at the border. After declining from 1997 to 1998, the number of people turned back at the border in 1999 rose again to 154 200.

Schooling of migrant's children

In 1999-2000, there were 65 500 pupils of foreign or ethnic Greek origin in primary education and 27 700 in secondary education. At primary level, 70% were foreigners and 30% children of ethnic Greeks. Of the foreign children, 83% were Albanian. At secondary level the percentages were similar.

To facilitate the integration and reintegration of migrants' children, the Greek Government has set up three types of structure: reception classes, tutoring (after school hours in small groups of 3 to 9 pupils) and intercultural classes. In 1999-2000, 500 reception classes and 700 tutor groups were operating in primary schools, primarily in the Athens region. Some 8 540 pupils were in reception classes, or 13% of all migrants' children, irrespective of category, and some 5 000 pupils, or 7.5% of the total, received tutoring. In 1999-2000, there were 20 intercultural classes throughout the country. These are classes where pupils learn and are taught in more than one language. In 1999-2000 there were 3 498 pupils in this type of class at various levels.

HUNGARY

Introduction

Between 1998 and 2000, Hungary's GDP grew at an average rate of just over 4.8%. Forecasts for 2001 indicate that growth will still remain very strong (4.7%). Job creation has increased, with unemployment falling to around 5.1% in 2000 (as compared with 8% in 1998 and 7.1% in 1999). Officially recorded migration has levelled off after rising sharply in the early 1990s, and the number of foreign residents has increased only very slightly. However, undocumented immigration has increased considerably.

In a regional context, Hungary plays a key role in the field of migration. Its geographical position, its strong economic growth and prospective membership of the European Union are increasing its importance as a transit country for immigration. The fact that neighbouring countries have Hungarian minorities that may immigrate to Hungary is also a key factor. Recent developments and the possible growth of immigration in the future will also have social consequences in a country that has experienced a demographic decline.

1. Trends in migration movements

Inflows and outflows of foreigners

In 1999, some 15 000 immigrants arrived in Hungary, compared to some 13 000 in 1998. This sharp rise was mainly the result of immigration from Romania, the former Yugoslavia and Ukraine (see Table III.17). Nationals of these three countries account for 62% of all immigrants. They are mostly members of the Hungarian minority

Table III.17. **Current figures on migration flows and stocks of foreign population, Hungary**

Figures in thousands unless otherwise indicated

	1996	1997	1998	1999 ¹		1996	1997	1998	1999 ¹
Registered long-term immigration by country of origin²					Acquisition of the Hungarian nationality	12.3	8.7	6.4	6.1
Romania	4.0	3.4	4.1	6.0	<i>of which, in per cent of total acquisitions:</i>				
Former USSR	1.8	1.7	2.0	2.2	Romania	69.7	60.4	59.7	57.1
<i>of which: Ukraine</i>	1.3	1.2	1.3	1.6	Former Yugoslavia	16.3	18.6	16.8	18.7
Russian Federation	0.5	0.4	0.5	0.4	Former USSR	10.0	9.1	11.1	14.4
Former Yugoslavia	1.0	1.0	0.8	1.7	Registered foreign workers, by country of origin⁴				
EU countries	1.5	1.7	1.5	1.5	Romania	8.5	9.5	10.6	..
Other countries	4.4	4.5	3.9	3.6	China	2.2	3.1	2.8	..
Total	12.8	12.2	12.3	15.0	Former USSR	1.0	1.1	1.0	..
<i>of which: Women</i>	5.6	5.4	6.3	7.3	Poland	1.0	1.0	1.0	..
Grants of residence permits by type of permit					Slovak Republic	0.4	0.4	1.1	..
Short-term permits (including renewals)	25.1	20.9	23.6	22.1	Other	7.1	6.7	6.0	..
Long-term permits (including renewals)	15.4	20.4	24.3	29.5	Total	18.8	20.4	22.4	..
Permanent permits ³	2.8	2.8	3.7	2.7	Number of expulsions	14.0	15.6	22.6	18.4
Inflows of asylum seekers and refugees	1.3	2.1	7.1	11.5	<i>of which:</i>				
Stocks of permanent residents	77.4	73.7	71.1	72.4	Romanians	7.9	9.8	10.2	11.3
<i>of which: Women</i>	41.8	40.1	38.9	39.4	Former Yugoslavs	2.3	2.6	7.1	2.6
Stocks of foreign residents (long-term and permanent residents), by country of origin					Number of deportations	9.8	11.9	16.6	12.9
Romania	61.6	57.4	..	48.6	<i>of which:</i>				
Former Yugoslavia	16.4	16.0	..	15.3	Romanians	5.3	7.3	6.9	7.4
Germany	8.3	8.4	..	8.5	Former Yugoslavs	2.0	2.3	6.1	2.0
China	6.7	7.9	..	7.7					
Ukraine	12.0	12.2	..	7.6					
Other	37.2	41.9	..	39.4					
Total	142.2	143.8	..	127.0					
<i>of which: Women</i>	66.1	66.7	..	63.8					

1. Preliminary data.

2. 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).

3. Number of applications for a permanent permit which have been approved.

4. Valid work permits at the end of the year.

Source: Ministry of the Interior ; Central Statistical Office.

in these countries, 50% of all immigrants being considered to be of ethnic Hungarian origin by the authorities. Their numbers increased considerably in 1999 (1998: 37%), no doubt due to the crisis in Kosovo and the fear that borders would soon be closed because of the prospect of Hungary acceding to the European Union. Other immigrants came from Asia (12%), mainly from China.

Illegal immigration

In 1999, the number of illegal immigrants stopped at the Hungarian border fell to 4 000, compared with 4 700 in 1998. The number of undocumented migrants intercepted when leaving Hungary was, in that same year, three times higher than the recorded number of illegal entries. This shows the growing importance of transit flows to western Europe through Hungary, although Hungary is also becoming a destination for immigration. The vast majority of the illegal migrants apprehended entered the country by means of the East and South-East borders, from Romania and the former Yugoslavia, whereas almost all of those stopped when trying to leave Hungary were intercepted at the borders with Slovenia, the Slovak Republic and Austria.

There is an organised traffic in illegal migration, as demonstrated by the statistics on the number of traffickers arrested over the last three years. Although the number of trafficker-assisted entries recorded averaged some 700 per year during most of the 1990s, it rose sharply in 1998 (2 000). Trafficking in women is one of the aspects of illegal migration most frequently discussed in Hungary, since these operations are run by a cross-border criminal network. In 1999, some 18 900 foreigners were expelled from Hungary compared to 22 500 in 1998.

Refugees and asylum seekers

Since March 1998, when the law on refugees was codified, Hungary has admitted refugees from outside Europe. As a result, foreigners who have travelled through Hungary to the countries of the European Union to apply for refugee status can be sent back to Hungary. In such cases, it is up to the Hungarian authorities to process the application. So far, this rule has only been applied on a large scale by Austria: during the second half of 1998, some 2 500 individuals apprehended in Austria were sent back to Hungary, the country through which they had transited.

The number of asylum seekers increased sharply in 1999 to 11 500, as compared with 7 100 in 1998. Nearly half came from the former Yugoslavia, and 52% from non-European countries. In 1999, only 313 applications for refugee status were granted, with a further 1 776 people being granted exceptional leave to remain, either on humanitarian grounds or because they could not safely be returned. In 1999, the crisis in Kosovo was the main cause of entries in this latter category. For many migrants, however, this status is not satisfactory as it is difficult for them to obtain permission to work and they are not eligible for social assistance.

2. Structure and changes in the foreign population

Numerical trends

At the end of 1999, some 72 400 foreigners were living legally in Hungary as permanent residents (see Table III.17), while 127 000 were registered as holding long-term permits. Since inflows and outflows of documented foreigners have not changed very much, the fall in the number of naturalisations recorded in 1998 probably explains the increase in the number of foreigners holding a permanent residence permit.

Naturalisations

Some 7 500 people were naturalised in 2000, which was a relatively sharp increase over 1999 (6 100), but was still lower than in 1996 (12 270) (see Table III.17). After averaging 13 000 in the early 1990s, the number of applications has stabilised at around 3 000 per year. As in previous years, 60% of those naturalised were Romanian, although this proportion has been falling steadily since 1992 (94%). Approximately 22% were from the former Yugoslavia and 12% from Ukraine.

Most applicants were of Hungarian origin or were themselves once Hungarian citizens. Re-naturalisation requests accounted for 17% of the total. A little over 70% of naturalisation applications were from descendants of Hungarian citizens, and some 10 were from persons married to a Hungarian.

3. Migration and the labour market

Migration for employment and work permits

After a fall in 1996, due to a change in the regulations, the number of newly issued work permits has continued to rise: 30 000 in 1999 as compared with 22 600 in 1998 and 19 700 in 1997. In addition, 10 700 residence permits were issued for practising gainful activities for which a work permit is not required.

Work permits are generally granted for professions in which there is a shortage of labour or for persons who bring special knowledge and expertise. Almost half of work-permit holders were Romanian citizens, over 15% were from European Union countries and North America, 14% from countries of the former Soviet Union (mainly Ukraine), and the rest from Poland, the former Yugoslavia and China. In fact, the proportion of foreigners from the developed countries is probably higher than is indicated by the official figures since a significant number of them are senior managers in foreign companies and as such do not require a work permit.

The number of settled immigrants and refugees entitled to work without further permission was 64 000 in 1999. The number of registered foreigners legally present on the Hungarian labour market can be estimated at 90 000 in all (including students and certain temporary workers who are allowed to work without holding a work permit).

Illegal employment of foreigners

The employment of undocumented foreign workers must be seen in the much broader context of the informal sector and the undeclared labour market in Hungary. According to certain estimates, the informal sector accounts for 30% of GDP and the participation of foreigners in this economy is understood to be wide-ranging. Given that it is possible to enter Hungary without a visa from practically all European countries, the majority of undocumented foreign workers enter as tourists and regularly or occasionally undertake a variety of jobs. Their residence is made "legal" by leaving the country once a month to have an exit stamp put in their passports because the visa regulations allow them to stay only on that condition.

Many of these "tourists" from neighbouring countries work in the construction sector (illegal foreign workers are widely employed in this sector) or have a seasonal job in agriculture or occasionally take jobs in domestic services or tourism. The participation of foreigners in retail activities of all kinds is tending to grow, though from a low base. Cross-border commercial activity rose at the time of the conflict in Kosovo and the embargo imposed on the Federal Republic of Yugoslavia.

The majority of undocumented labour migrants are from neighbouring countries, mainly Romania, but also Ukraine and the former Yugoslavia. After some days, weeks or months of work, they return home before returning to Hungary again. Most are ethnic Hungarians who speak the language and have relatives or other contacts in the country. Some of them use their annual leave to increase their income. These essentially temporary migrants do not wish to settle permanently, but working abroad is the only chance they have to improve their living conditions.

Another aspect of the situation regarding undocumented foreign workers is the growing number of foreign companies – European or American – which have set up in Hungary. These international companies are looking for skilled workers with good linguistic and computer skills, which leads many young foreigners from these countries to take up undocumented employment, for example in language teaching, the media or computer services.

4. Policy developments

Hungary is increasingly becoming an immigration country, which is why, during the last three years, it has amended its immigration legislation to bring it into line with policies in European Union countries. These amendments relate mainly to the entry and residence of foreigners (including asylum seekers and refugees),

the acquisition of Hungarian nationality, measures to combat the employment of undocumented foreigners and the signing of international readmission agreements.

However, these changes raise major problems with neighbouring countries, as their nationals may no longer be able to enter Hungary without a visa. It is planned to introduce visa requirements for Moldavia, Byelorussia and Russia in 2001. Similar measures have already been adopted for the countries of Central Asia and the Caucasus.

Admission and residence (including integration measures)

In 1993 and 1994, two fundamental Acts were adopted, the first concerning Hungarian citizenship, and the second the entry and residence of foreigners. To obtain a permanent residence permit, a foreigner must have lived and worked legally in Hungary for three years. A "Passport, Exit and Entry" Act entered into force in 1998.

One of the conditions for acquiring Hungarian nationality is a minimum residence requirement of at least eight years.

In 1998, the last pillar of the legal regulation of migration issues, the Act on Refugees, came into force. It contains, notably, a provision that only refugees from Europe may be granted asylum in Hungary.

Measures to combat the illegal employment of foreign workers

In 1996 and 1999, two restrictions on the legislation on the employment of foreign workers were adopted. Foreigners who travel to Hungary with the purpose of working there must obtain a work permit or an income-earning activity visa before entering Hungary, regardless of the anticipated length of their stay. A work permit is required for most jobs and may be issued only if there is no locally available Hungarian resident with the relevant qualifications to fill the post. High unemployment in the locality also constitutes an obstacle to employing new foreign workers. Employers are required to register their application for a permit 60 days before the beginning of the contract, or 30 days in the case of seasonal or occasional employment.

The penalties imposed on employers who recruit undocumented foreign workers have been made harsher in recent years. Nevertheless, it is the workers who face the greatest penalties: if a foreigner is caught working without a valid work permit, the employer must pay a fine equal to at least five times the minimum wage, while the worker can be banned from Hungary for between one and five years.

Adapting Hungarian legislation to European Union norms

Under the Association Agreement signed with the European Union, Hungary has to bring its legislation into line with that of the European Union. Essentially, this means promoting the free movement of persons within the European Union and strengthening border controls.

However, it also means introducing systems for regulating immigration and integrating foreigners comparable to those in Western Europe, which is why Hungary has set up an "Immigration and Naturalisation Office", a civil-law body under the supervision of the Interior Ministry.

Special provisions, with preferential treatment for EU citizens, are under preparation, and some were recently introduced.

As for strengthening border controls, the necessary measures have still to be introduced. This provision has raised concern among Hungarians living outside their country that they will no longer be able to cross the border freely. A visa requirement for nationals of Romania, the Slovak Republic, the Federal Republic of Yugoslavia, Ukraine and Croatia would therefore have a negative impact on family and cultural contacts with those communities.

Revision of the Readmission Agreement between Austria and Hungary

New provisions were introduced into the Readmission Agreement between Austria and Hungary in February 1997. The Hungarian authorities are now required to accept any person presumed to have entered Austria illegally via Hungary.

IRELAND

Introduction

The remarkably strong performance of the Irish economy continued in 2000 with real GDP growing by nearly 11%. Since 1993 real growth has averaged over 8% and has been accompanied by a net increase in employment estimated at 488 000, equivalent to an average annual growth rate of more than 5%. Even though the labour force participation rate continued to expand throughout this period, the unemployment rate had fallen to 4.2% by April 2000. This unprecedented employment growth has given rise to significant labour shortages across many areas of economic activity, both skilled and unskilled. One consequence of this has been a rapid increase in the influx of foreign workers. These have come not only from the European Union, the citizens of which enjoy freedom of movement under EU law, but also from a range of other countries under the terms of the existing work permit system. The overall composition of those entering on this basis has altered significantly over recent years. In earlier years, entrants from countries such as the United States, Japan, India and Pakistan formed a sizeable proportion of the total. This has now changed and when the position is viewed in association with the recent trends in the sectoral composition, the implication is that the inflow pattern is not only different in terms of nationalities, but also in terms of its skill structure, with relatively greater numbers in unskilled or semi-skilled categories.

While the favourable economic circumstances constitute the main reason attracting sizeable numbers of both former emigrants and non-nationals to come to work in Ireland, the numbers have been further augmented by a sharply increasing inflow of asylum seekers. In response to the rising inflow, the government has extended and modified existing legislation. It is also taking measures to improve the efficiency of the applications process and is accorded increasing attention to the promotion of integration.

1. Trends in migration movements

Emigration and the return of nationals

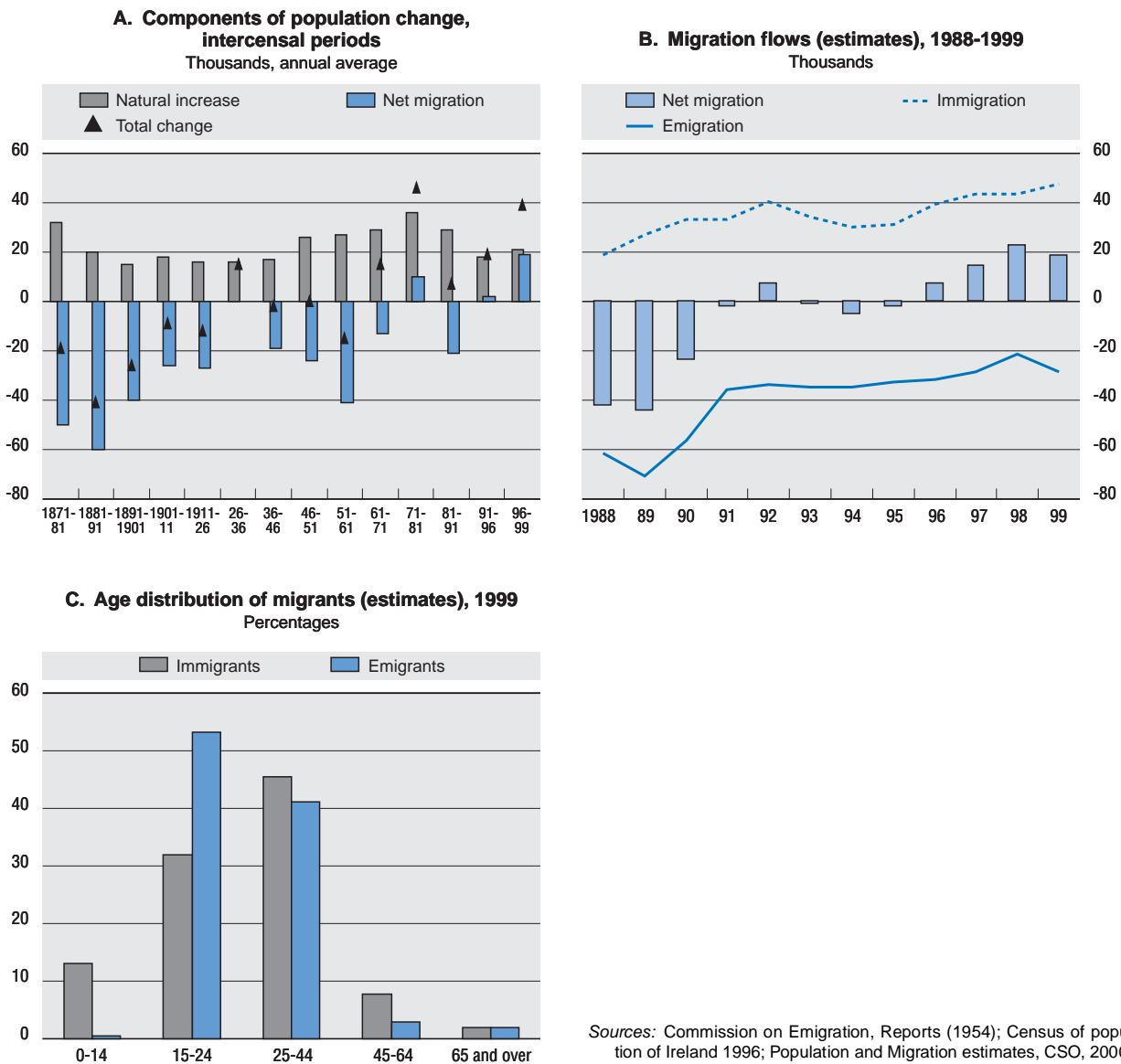
Having reached very high levels at the end of the 1980s (as high as 70 000 in 1989, a level similar to that experienced during earlier periods of large-scale emigration), emigration flows have steadily declined since that time. In the year to April 2000, the gross outflow was estimated at approximately 22 000.

Ten years ago, nearly 70% of those who emigrated went to the United Kingdom, some 12% to the United States, 6% to other European Union (EU) countries and about 14% to other destinations. By 1993 the United Kingdom was no longer, after six decades, the destination of the majority of Irish emigrants. This trend towards increasing diversity in destinations, though not sustained every year, has continued. In 2000, the proportion going to the United Kingdom was less than 30% while that for the rest of the EU was 19%; the United States accounted for 14% and all other countries taken in aggregate for just under 40%.

Irish emigration has predominantly been of young people, though when economic conditions in Ireland are severely depressed it also tends to extend to the immediately older age groups. The most recent estimates available show that some 55% of the gross outward movement in 1999/2000 related to persons aged between 15 and 24 years, with the great majority of the remainder (almost 40%) involving persons aged between 25 and 44 years; other sources indicate that most emigrants in this latter age class are between 25 and 34 years old (see Chart III.8).

With regard to gender differences, if Irish emigration flows are viewed over a long period, there is no material difference in the balance between males and females. However, this balance can vary substantially from time to time. The outflows in the 1980s, for example, involved a significant majority of males. However, this differential has decreased greatly in the 1990s: the gross outflow of males between 1990 and 2000 was 154 000, compared with 150 000 for women. The overall tendency towards lower female emigration in recent decades has occurred primarily because the employment prospects for women in the Irish labour market have been relatively more advantageous.

Chart III.8. Trends and characteristics of migration, Ireland



Irish emigrants, who were previously largely unskilled, or at best possessed rudimentary manual skills, are now broadly representative of the skill structure of Irish society. Indeed, there appears to be a tendency towards disproportionately higher emigration among those with third-level qualifications (advanced diplomas or degrees). Ireland's graduate labour force involves what might be described as an ongoing or even constant migratory element, which exists to a significant degree even when the economy is buoyant: published data relating to recently qualified graduates indicate that whilst unemployment in the immediate post graduation period declined markedly during the 1990s there has been, interestingly, little change in the proportion taking up employment abroad. However, the durations of residence abroad, even though sometimes quite long, tend not to be permanent, and thus the oft-voiced fears of a "brain drain" are not in fact well-founded.

Inflows and outflows of foreigners

Inward migration (of both returning emigrants and non-nationals) has become a much more important phenomenon in Ireland over recent years. The gross migration inflow increased from less than 30 000 in the late 1980s to around 45 000 in the late 1990s. The proportion of non-nationals in the inward flows has risen from approximately 35% in the late 1980s to over 50% in the year to April 2000. While the non-national group is comprised largely of persons coming to work, it also includes students coming to attend third-level institutions and, more recently, asylum seekers, as well as dependants of persons in these groups.

The age distribution of the gross inflow has tended to exhibit considerable stability (see Chart III.8). Those aged 25 years or over constitute some 55% of the total inflow, with a significant concentration in the 25 to 44 year age band. About 30% of the gross inflow relates to the youth category covering those aged 15 to 24 years. Some 12% of inward migrants are children aged less than 15 years, suggesting that a significant number of the incoming migrants enter as family groups. This proportion has, however, shown a tendency to fall in recent years, probably because the migrant inflow contains an increasing share of non-nationals who are more likely to come unattached, rather than with families.

Refugees and asylum seekers

The influx of asylum seekers or persons seeking refugee status has emerged as an important issue in Ireland over recent years. Until the early 1990s the numbers of refugees and asylum seekers were very small; since then they have risen sharply, from less than 40 in 1992 (not including the several hundred Bosnian programme refugees, displaced from the former Yugoslavia, whom the Irish Government agreed to accept in that year) to over 3 900 in 1997, 4 600 in 1998, almost 7 700 in 1999 and to 10 900 in 2000. Possible reasons for the recent increase include increasing numbers of asylum seekers entering European Union countries generally, and the fact that other countries are adopting more restrictive stances with regard to applications. A knowledge of the new application procedures in Ireland, of the welfare supports, and the fact that the employment situation is favourable may also be contributing factors.

Recent figures published by the Department of Justice, Equality and Law Reform indicate that over the period from 1992 to 1999, over 40% of asylum seekers were of Romanian origin, 34% were from Nigeria and nearly 12% were from Zaire/the Democratic Republic of the Congo. Among the remainder, significant numbers were from Algeria, Poland and Kosovo.

The number of persons who have been granted official refugee status is relatively small. Over the period from the beginning of 1992 until October 2000, of the 5 700 applications which had completed the determination process slightly more than 1 300 (23%) were accepted and the applicants granted official recognition as refugees. The former figure, it should be noted, excludes nearly 3 000 applicants awaiting the outcome of an appeal following refusal at the first stage of determination; the number of successful applications includes 637 persons who secured recognition on appeal. During this period there were also over 7 400 applications that were deemed as being withdrawn or abandoned. At the beginning of October 2000 there were some 13 200 applications awaiting determination, either at the first or the appeal stage.

2. Structure and changes in the foreign population

The total number of foreign residents in Ireland is relatively small when compared with other European Union countries. However, data from the Quarterly National Household Survey, which provides the only means of estimating the stock of non-nationals in Ireland, show that this component of the Irish population has increased substantially over recent years. Whereas in 1983 there were estimated to be only 83 000, in April 2000 the figure was put at 126 500 (see Table III.18). They now account for 3.3% of the total population.

The great majority of foreign residents, approximately 92 000, are EU passport holders. Of these, an estimated 67 000 are from the United Kingdom. Whereas this latter figure has altered little over the second half of the 1990s, the number of other EU citizens has almost doubled and the number of those from outside the EU has increased by almost the same amount, this notwithstanding the fact that the largest national group in this category, citizens of the United States, are less numerous now than they were in 1995.

Table III.18. Current figures on migration flows and stocks of total population and labour force, Ireland

Figures in thousands unless otherwise indicated

	1997	1998	1999	2000
Immigration by last country of residence¹	44.0	44.0	47.5	42.3
United Kingdom	20.0	21.1	21.6	16.4
Other EU countries	8.1	8.7	10.0	9.8
United States	6.6	4.9	5.7	4.6
Other countries	9.3	9.3	10.2	11.5
<i>% of return Irish citizens</i>	46.6	52.7	54.5	..
Emigration of both Irish and foreign people by country of destination¹	29.0	21.2	29.0	22.3
United Kingdom	12.9	8.5	10.2	6.3
Other EU countries	4.1	4.3	4.5	4.3
United States	4.1	4.3	5.4	3.2
Other countries	7.9	4.1	8.9	8.5
Net migration of both Irish nationals and foreigners¹	15.0	22.8	18.5	20.0
United Kingdom	7.1	12.6	11.4	10.1
Other EU countries	4.0	4.4	5.5	5.5
United States	2.5	0.6	0.3	1.4
Other countries	1.4	5.2	1.3	3.0
Stock of total population²	3 660.6	3 704.8	3 744.7	3 786.9
Irish nationals	3 546.2	3 593.8	3 626.7	3 660.4
Total foreign population	113.9	110.9	117.8	126.5
United Kingdom	64.4	66.2	68.8	66.9
Other EU countries	16.4	19.0	20.8	25.3
United States	11.3	10.0	9.9	8.0
Other countries	21.8	15.7	18.3	26.3
<i>% of foreign population in total population</i>	3.1	3.0	3.2	3.3
Asylum seekers	3.9	4.6	7.7	8.0
Labour market				
Work permits issued and renewed³	4.5	5.6	6.3	10.7
By nationality				
Central and Eastern Europe	..	0.3	1.3	4.1
United States and Canada	1.4	1.6	1.1	1.4
India and Pakistan	0.5	0.7	0.6	0.7
Other countries	2.6	3.0	3.3	4.4
By sector of activity				
Agriculture	0.1	0.1	0.4	1.7
Industry	0.6	0.7	0.4	0.7
Services	3.8	4.9	5.4	8.2
Employment by nationality²	1 338.4	1 494.5	..	1 670.6
Irish nationals	1 294.7	1 447.0	..	1 610.7
Foreigners in employment	43.7	47.5	..	59.9
United Kingdom	26.7	28.3	..	31.9
Other EU countries	7.6	10.3	..	15.6
United States	3.2	3.7	..	2.8
Other countries	6.2	5.2	..	9.6
Employment to total population ratio				
Irish nationals (%)	36.5	40.3	..	44.0
Foreigners (%)	38.4	42.8	..	47.4
United Kingdom (%)	41.5	42.7	..	47.7
Other EU countries (%)	46.3	54.2	..	61.7
United States (%)	28.3	37.0	..	35.0
Other countries (%)	28.4	33.1	..	36.5

Note: Figures for the EU refer to the 15 member countries of the Union.

1. CSO estimates made on the basis of 1996 Census results.

2. Estimated from the annual Labour Force Survey. Fluctuations from year to year may be due to sampling error.

3. January to September for the year 2000.

Sources: Central Statistical Office; Labour Force Survey.

3. Migration and the labour market

Migration for employment and work permits

Analysis of the data on the issue and renewal of work permits (which are required for all engagements for financial gain, irrespective of duration) provides some indication of the trends in the numbers of non-EU nationals entering the country in order to take up employment. The number of issues and renewals rose rapidly between 1989 and 1993, from 2 500 to just over 4 250. It did not vary greatly from this level until 1998 when the figure rose to almost 5 650. The figure for the first nine months of 2000 was over 10 700 (see Table III.18) and the increased pace of inflow suggests that the annual total could be as high as 18 000, three times that of 1999 (6 300). Most of the recruitments involved are on a short-term basis, usually for one year, as allowed by the work permit system. In this context an interesting feature of the recent trend is that, despite the large increase in the number of permits issued overall, the number of renewals has actually fallen.

While the recent influx of non-EU workers has involved an increasingly diverse range of nationalities, the increase in the inflows for some national groups has been particularly marked. The number entering from the Baltic States, for example, was only 17 in 1998 but had risen to almost 1 700 in the first nine months of 2000. Over the same short period, the inflows from other Eastern European countries increased from 285 to 2 400.

The permits issued are overwhelmingly for posts in the services area. Until recently many of the permits issued under the "services" heading related to the medical sphere, but these have declined in recent years due to the imposition of more restrictive registration conditions governing eligibility to work as a medical practitioner. Over recent years the most rapid relative increases have occurred in the agricultural sector, in manufacturing industry and in catering activities. The figures for agriculture are quite phenomenal, indicating that the inflow of permit holders increased from less than 50 in the mid-1990s to nearly 1 700 in the first nine months of 2000. Most of those involved are of Latvian nationality, working in the mushroom production industry.

Labour market integration

In 2000, according to the Quarterly National Household Survey, just under 3.7% of the total workforce were non-nationals, of whom approximately 60 000 were at work and just under 4 000 were unemployed. This latter figure, is 2 000 lower than in the preceding year and accompanied a fall in the unemployment rate of foreigners from nearly 12% to below 6%; this compares with an unemployment rate for the indigenous population of 4.2%. It should be borne in mind, however, that the number of non-Irish unemployed in the Irish labour force is small and, therefore, the related survey estimates would be subject to a significant degree of sampling error. The figures should, therefore, be interpreted with caution.

4. Policy developments

The basic legal framework covering foreign nationals in Ireland in regard to rights of entry, residence and employment is the 1935 Aliens Act and the subsequent ministerial orders appended to it. It should be noted, of course, that in so far as EU citizens are concerned, the 1935 Act was largely superseded by legislation introduced on entry to the European Union in 1973 which, with few restrictions, guaranteed right of entry and residence and access to employment for all EU citizens.

In 1996, in response to the rapid increase in the numbers of asylum seekers, the Refugee Act was introduced to parliament with the primary objective of codifying asylum procedures in law and rendering them more transparent. This act was amended in 1999 through the inclusion of relevant subsections in the Immigration Act passed in that year and by the same means during the passage through parliament of the 2000 Illegal Immigrants (Trafficking) Act.

Admission and residence (including integration measures)

Immigration Act 1999

The Immigration Act 1999 specifies the conditions and circumstances in which any immigrant (whether an asylum seeker or not) could be deported or excluded from the State. Under the original 1935 Aliens Act the

Minister for Justice, Equality and Law Reform had wide discretion in regard to sanctioning deportations. In recent years a number of deportation orders have been challenged in the Courts and overturned, mainly on humanitarian grounds or for reasons of natural justice. The purpose of the 1999 Immigration Act is to address these concerns by setting out in some detail the circumstances and the manner in which non-nationals can be legally deported, or excluded from the State. The new legislation imposes a number of constraints on the authorities. In determining whether or not to make a deportation order the Minister for Justice must have regard to relevant circumstances pertaining to the person; these include age, duration of residence in the State, family, employment and general humanitarian issues. A prospective deportee must be issued with a deportation order which allows him or her fifteen working days within which to representations to the Minister. In the case of non-nationals who have been resident in the State for at least five years, deportation, even if decided on and officially notified, cannot be implemented for at least three months.

Functioning of the work permit system

As was noted in the sections on the Structure and changes in the foreign population' and Migration and the labour market', there has been a sharp increase in the number of foreign workers entering the country. In addition to an influx of workers from the EU, there has been a huge rise in the number of non-EU nationals entering under the work permit system. This has arisen as a result of growing labour shortages, further facilitated by relaxation in the conditions associated in the Work Permit regime. There is pressure (in particular from employers) for a less restrictive system, especially in view of the impending fall in the numbers leaving the Irish educational system. However, other commentators, conscious of a possibility of an eventual slow-down in employment growth, are recommending a more cautious approach.

Refugees and asylum

The 1996 Refugee Act (as amended) created the post of Applications Commissioner, the occupant of which can independently assess applications for asylum and make recommendations to the Minister for Justice, Equality and Law Reform. There is also an Appeals Tribunal to which the applicant can have recourse if he or she is dissatisfied with the decision of the Applications Commissioner. The Act also provides for the setting up of a Refugee Advisory Council which is to comprise both representatives of Government ministries and those representing asylum seekers interests. The Board may review any aspect of asylum policy, including proposals to amend legislation. UNHCR representatives are entitled to be present at its meetings.

Apart from basic provisions such as those defining what constitutes a refugee (which conform closely to those set out in the 1951 UN Convention), other significant aspects contained in the Act are:

- Provisions which allow the Irish Government to ratify the Dublin Convention which determines the State responsible for examining applications for asylum lodged in one of the EU member states.
- The codification of procedures in relation to detention. This is to be decided by the courts on the basis of specified grounds and has to be reviewed at intervals of 10 days. Persons aged under 18 years cannot be detained, except in certain specified circumstances.
- Provisions which allow the Minister to grant permission for family members of the officially recognised refugee to enter and reside in the State
- The provision that the UNHCR at all important stages when an application for asylum is being processed.
- The possibility of taking the fingerprints of asylum applicants and their family members/refugees above the age of 14 years.

One of the grounds for detention, the destruction of identity or travel documents or the possession of false papers without reasonable cause, has attracted criticism. Refugee support groups contend that many refugees would be unable to leave their country of origin using their original passports. The fingerprinting provision has also been the subject of criticism. The stated reason for this is that it facilitates identification and prevents multiple applications under different names; opponents contend that it raises the spectre of the "criminalisation" of refugees.

Inevitably, the large influx of asylum seekers has placed a considerable strain in the administrative structures responsible for dealing with them. Even though the number of public service staff engaged in dealing with applications for asylum has been greatly increased (from less than 20 in mid-1997 to a current total of 240) the large number of applications currently outstanding indicates that there are ongoing administrative problems in coping with the rapidly increasing inflow. Steps are being taken to augment the staff numbers further, the objective being to raise the total complement to over 600 by mid-2001. In administrative terms, the ultimate aim is to attain a position where all applications for asylum are brought to complete finality (including the appeal process) within a period of six months.

In December 1999, the Report of the Interdepartmental Working Group on the Integration of Refugees in Ireland was presented to the Minister for Justice Equality and Law Reform. The Group reviewed the arrangements and made recommendations concerning the integration of persons granted refugee status, including the appropriate institutional structures for the delivery of these services. The Working Group concluded that the appropriate organisational structure for developing integration policy and co-ordinating the implementation of integration measures should be decided within the overall framework of structures for asylum and immigration. Although the rights of asylum seekers and those officially recognised as refugees are different, efficiencies can be achieved by adopting a co-ordinated approach to both the reception of asylum seekers and the integration of refugees, as has been done in other EU member states. The Working Group also took the view that a comprehensive strategy for implementing policy in Ireland should be developed in a flexible way in order to allow revisions as further developments emerged. In addition, the Group identified a number of clear needs which required immediate action. These included the introduction of further measures to promote a tolerant and inclusive society, the provision of referral and information services by existing service providers and the undertaking of research.

Following from the recommendations of the Working Group, the Government has set in train the institution of a Reception and Integration Agency. This body, which is being set up on a statutory basis, is to deal not only specifically with refugees, but also those whose applications for refugee status is pending, particularly in circumstances where the waiting period is prolonged.

Important issues associated with the refugee question that continue to be controversial include:

- *The right of asylum seekers to work.* On 27 July 1999, the government modified the previous policy whereby only those officially recognised as refugees were allowed to work. Asylum seekers who have been in the country for more than twelve months and who are still awaiting a determination of their application for refugee status were granted the right to obtain work permits. The new rules also apply to those who sought asylum prior to 26 July 1999, as soon as they cross the twelve-month threshold. However, the number of asylum seekers that have gained employment thus far as a result of this measure is extremely small (at the end of 1999 only 100 out of the more than 2 000 who were eligible). Steps have recently been taken in association with the State employment and training services to expedite the process.
- *Support systems for asylum seekers.* Until recently asylum seekers in Ireland received standard welfare payments and their accommodation (usually in the private sector) was paid for from public funds. However, as from April 1999 all new applicants for asylum have been covered by a new system of direct provision. Accommodation is now provided on a full-board basis (covering food and other necessary domestic requirements), supplemented by special reduced welfare payments (IRP 15 per week for each adult and IRP 7.50 for each child)
- *Problems of residential concentration.* Due to the very large increase in the number of persons seeking asylum in recent months, and in view of the non-availability of further accommodation in the Dublin area, it has been decided that arrangements should be made to disperse asylum seekers throughout the country. This process has proved slower than anticipated, mainly as a result of objections from local communities. These protests have arisen, not so much from racial or ethnic motives, but as a result of large numbers of asylum seekers being accommodated in some small rural communities.

Introduction

In 1999, the statistics again confirmed Italy's status as an immigration country, even though its unemployment rate was one of the highest among the EU countries. It became the second-ranking receiving country after Germany, with inflows rising by over 20% in 1999 (not including the regularisation programme discussed below).

1. Trends in migration movements

Inflows and outflows of foreigners

In 1999, some 268 000 people "entered" Italy, which was over twice as many as in 1998 (an increase of 142%). However, this sharp rise in the number of entries recorded must be qualified, since it includes fictitious entries, of a statistical nature, corresponding to people who benefited from the fourth regularisation programme launched in 1998. The 130 745 foreign nationals who "entered" under the regularisation programme not included, the total flow of actual entries amounted to approximately 137 260, or a real increase of 24% over the previous year. These flows comprise the initial residence permits issued, including short-term permits (for study purposes, asylum requests, tourism, etc.).

However, the regularisation programme did not significantly alter the breakdown of entries by nationality. If only nationals from countries having 1 000 or more entries are considered, inflows rose for all nationalities in 1999, except for Iraqis and Turks.

The main country of origin of new immigrants was Albania (37 180 people, or 14% of flows including regularisations), followed by Morocco and the former Yugoslavia (each accounting for 9% of inflows), Romania (6%) and China (4%). In other words, five sending countries accounted for nearly half of all inflows.

These numbers, which rose sharply over 1998, show that the immigrants who benefited from regularisation came from the same countries as those who entered the country legally. On the other hand, flows are increasing much more slowly in the case of nationals of developed countries (primarily the United States, Germany, the United Kingdom, Greece, Spain and Japan) and the Russian Federation, who were seldom concerned by the regularisation programme.

The two main reasons for immigration are employment (27% of flows) and family reunion (22.3% of flows).

Refugees and asylum seekers

Although it does not have as longstanding a tradition of asylum as some other European countries, Italy is increasingly becoming a receiving country for humanitarian and political refugees. In 1999, 33 360 asylum seekers entered Italy, which was three times as many as in 1998 (only 11 120). These wide fluctuations in flows are obviously connected with outside political events: in 1999, the war in Kosovo, which led to a major influx of asylum seekers and refugees into Italy, as had occurred in 1991 following the political crisis and changes in Albania. In 1999, 4 850 asylum applications were filed by nationals of the former Yugoslavia, which is by far the most frequent source of asylum seekers, followed by Iraq (1 840 applications), Turkey (520), the Islamic Republic of Iran (120) and Afghanistan (100). However, the end of the conflict in Bosnia Herzegovina has resulted in a sharp drop in inflows of asylum seekers from this region.

To these applications for asylum must be added inflows for humanitarian reasons (18 005 permits issued to nationals of the Kosovo region in 1999) and "special reasons" (1 015 Bosnians). The legislative framework for asylum requests is still relatively unclear and applications are often filed after illegal immigrants have been intercepted by the authorities.

2. Structure and changes in the foreign population

Numerical trends

The total foreign population in Italy has been increasing gradually over the past ten years. In 1999, the foreign resident population stood at 1 251 997, which was only a few thousand more than in 1998 (according to Interior Ministry data on residence permits issued, see Table III.19). On the whole, the share of foreigners in the total population has been rising yearly, but remains lower than the EU average and than the share of foreigners in the population of traditional immigration countries in Europe, such as Germany, France, etc.

By continent of origin of the foreigners residing legally in Italy, nationals of European countries account for the largest group, with slightly less than 40% of the total, followed by Africa (approximately 29%), Asia (19%) and the Americas (12%). However, the share of EU nationals among foreigners is tending to decline in relative terms (14% of the total in 1998 and only 12% in 1999) and also in absolute terms, the number of EU nationals in Italy having fallen by 15% between 1998 and 1999.

The largest foreign community in Italy for the past ten years has been the Moroccan community, which accounts for 12% of foreign residents, followed by the Albanian community, which has been growing continuously since the early 1990s (from 3% of the total in 1991 to 9% in 1999). However, the third largest community, the Filipinos, diminished between 1998 and 1999, falling from 67 574 to 61 004, as did the Tunisians (a 7% decline in numbers between 1998 and 1999). However, some communities grew in size, examples being those of the former Yugoslavia (up 33%), China (up 24%) and Romania (up 39%). This change in the structure of the foreign population by nationality clearly reflects the shift in flows and confirms Italy's status as an immigration country in which flows are diversifying and are not linked to just a few countries.

Other indicators on the structure of the foreign population in Italy show that it is becoming more stable and that immigration is becoming more long term. The proportion of women continues to rise slowly, and in 1999 46% of foreigners holding a residence permit were women. The average age of the foreign population is also falling, and the share of the foreign population under the age of 18 is growing, which is a sign that family immigration is on the increase. Foreigners are also staying for longer, with an increasing proportion of foreigners remaining in Italy for several years. In 1999, one-third of foreigners had resided in Italy for longer than five years and approximately one-quarter for longer than ten years. This indicator shows that Italy is not a transit country, but has become a permanent immigration country over the past ten years. Lastly, foreigners now immigrate throughout Italy, for although foreign residents are still largely concentrated in the regions of northern Italy (nearly half), the number of foreigners in southern Italy and the islands is rising steadily.

The relatively stable and lasting nature of immigration in Italy is also reflected in the steadily rising birth rate of the foreign population. In 1999, 21 175 children were born to foreign women, *i.e.* 4% of total births as compared to only 1.5% in 1992. This increase is the combined result of the downward trend in the birth rate of Italians, although it has slowed, and the sharp rise in births to foreigners (up 143% over the period as a whole).

Mixed marriages

The data available in Italy are insufficient to make a detailed analysis of long-term trends concerning mixed marriages (the initial data date from 1996). Marriages in which one or both persons were foreign accounted for 3.7% of marriages contracted in 1999, but the divorce rate for marriages involving foreigners was twice as high, which shows that these marriages are more fragile. All communities combined, the mixed marriage rate was very high, at 83% of marriages involving a foreign partner.

Naturalisations

The continual increase in the number of naturalisations since 1991 is a further sign that immigration in Italy is becoming more long term. Between 1991 and 1999, the number of naturalisations more than doubled. The increase accelerated in 1999, a 15% rise over 1998. However, it is true that the total share of foreign residents who became naturalised remained small (roughly 1%), since access to Italian nationality remains highly restrictive and the main means of obtaining it is to marry an Italian.

Table III.19. Current figures on foreign population, Italy

Figures in thousands unless otherwise indicated

	1996	1997	1998	1999		1996	1997	1998	1999
Foreigners who hold a residence permit¹	1 095.6	1 240.7	1 250.2	1 252.0	Characteristics of non-EU foreigners who newly obtained a work permit	129.2	166.5	182.0	219.0
			(1 033.2)		Level of education (%)				
By region of origin					No diploma	78.3	82.2	..	85.2
Europe	426.0	486.4	401.4	499.1	Primary level	18.2	14.9	..	11.1
Africa	314.9	351.0	297.6	356.8	Secondary level	2.9	2.4	..	2.7
Asia	195.5	225.5	195.6	239.8	University	0.5	0.4	..	1.0
America	154.8	172.8	135.6	153.0	Sector of activity (%)				
Others	4.4	5.0	3.1	3.3	Agriculture	21.9	22.6	23.5	5.8
By reason for presence					Manufacturing	44.2	43.5	41.0	15.5
Employment ²	685.4	782.3	588.7	747.6	Domestic work	5.4	5.3	5.3	6.4
Family reunification	204.4	243.4	251.9	308.2	Others	28.5	28.6	30.2	72.3
Study	45.7	57.3	29.9	30.7	Stocks of foreign employment⁴	..	532.7	614.6	..
Religion	54.9	59.2	54.5	54.3	Characteristics of registered foreign unemployed (excluding EU citizens)	146.9	177.9	206.0	204.6
Tourism (long-term)	30.0	44.5	9.5	10.3	Length of registration (%)				
Retirees	43.1	45.9	41.1	–	Less than 3 months	35.9	..	26.3	24.3
Asylum seekers/refugees ³	3.9	5.6	6.2	5.4	3 months to 1 year	35.4	..	36.2	35.8
Others and not specified	28.4	2.5	51.6	95.5	More than 1 year	28.8	..	37.3	39.9
By region of residence					Age groups (%)				
North	..	636.7	674.0	670.8	Less than 18	1.5	..	1.7	..
Central	..	378.4	367.7	368.6	19-24	15.0	..	13.5	..
South	..	225.6	208.5	143.9	25-29	24.6	..	22.4	..
Islands	..	–	–	68.7	30 and over	58.9	..	62.3	..
Acquisition of Italian nationality	7.0	9.2	9.8	11.3					

1. Data are from residence permits and refer to 31 December of the years indicated. From 1998 onwards, data have been corrected to exclude expired permits and to estimate the number of minors who are registered on their parents' residence permit. Figures by region of origin and by reason of presence in 1998 are not adjusted to include estimates of minors (total is indicated in brackets).

2. Including self-employed and unemployed.

3. It includes applications and not issued permits.

4. Number of non-EU foreigners who hold a work permit. Excluding unemployed with a residence permit who are registered in the local employment Offices.

Sources: Ministry of the Interior; ISTAT.

In addition to the naturalisation of Swiss nationals, naturalisations in Italy mainly involve nationals of the Central and Eastern European countries: firstly Romanians (slightly less than 10% of total naturalisations), followed by Albanians, Poles and nationals of the Russian Federation. Moroccans, Brazilians and nationals of the Dominican Republic are also among the main groups to have acquired Italian nationality.

3. Migration and the labour market

Migration for employment and work permits

In 1999, the number of foreigners in Italy for the purpose of employment increased sharply over 1998 to 747 635, to which must be added several thousand refugees who obtained work permits. Employment is thus the main reason for immigration.

If only residence permits issued to non-EU foreigners are considered, it transpires that the vast majority of immigrants are low-skilled workers: 85.2% of the new permits issued were granted to persons without diplomas and only 1% of immigrants held a higher education diploma. More than 90% of foreign workers are wage-earners, but a growing number are self-employed.

The 1999 data show a change in the structure of foreign employment by sector. While in previous years most permits were for agriculture and industry, in 1999 there was a sharp drop in these two sectors and a shift towards other sectors and domestic work, which rose slightly.

It appears therefore that, despite unemployment remaining high in Italy, some unskilled jobs are being shunned by Italians and provide job opportunities for foreigners. These are mainly jobs connected with tourism and seasonal activities, in agriculture and the construction sector and, lastly, family service jobs (childcare, household services, care of the elderly). In this regard, demand for low-paid labour should remain strong because of the ageing of the Italian population and the fact that home help is often used rather than public services.

Demand for foreign labour also varies from region to region. For example, in the Northeast, a traditionally industrial region, foreigners mainly work in the industrial sector and construction, while agricultural activity remains highly seasonal and demand for family services is limited. In the Northwest, foreigners are primarily employed in the mining industry and services (especially in Brescia and Milan). Lastly, in the regions of the Centre and the South, demand for labour is chiefly in the field of family services, except for a few industries in the Centre that also employ some foreign workers.

Seasonal work by migrant workers continued to increase in 1999 (up by 23.5% over 1998) and there were more than 20 000 such workers according to official figures. This means that the number of foreign seasonal workers has risen more than tenfold since 1992. This figure reflects improved registration and a better adapted legislative framework and shows that some illegal workers have been regularised by being issued with seasonal contracts. More generally, this increase in seasonal work is also part of a policy aimed at introducing greater labour market flexibility and developing part-time work.

Although seasonal workers are predominantly men (over two-thirds), the share of women has been rising for a number of years and doubled between 1996 and 1999.

Labour market integration

After rising continuously during the 1990s, the number of unemployed foreign workers seems to have levelled off and even fallen in 1999. The improved economic conditions and labour market situation have had a positive impact on unemployment among foreign workers.

The situation has improved considerably for young jobless under the age of 30, their share in the total number of unemployed foreign workers falling by several points between 1998 and 1999. However, the more favourable economic situation has not reduced the share of foreigners in long-term unemployment. In 1999, 40% of unemployed foreigners had been jobless for longer than one year, which was nearly two points higher than in 1998, while the share of the short-term unemployed (under three months) fell by two points over the same period.

Insufficient data are available to calculate an unemployment rate for foreigners that can be compared with the overall unemployment rate. Although 204 573 non-EU unemployed were registered in 1999

(see Table III.19), there is no reliable figure that can be used to evaluate accurately the number of non-EU foreigners in the labour force. However, as regards the total number of non-EU foreigners officially present in Italy, it can be deduced that, as in traditional immigration countries and perhaps even more so, foreign workers in Italy are more vulnerable to unemployment and job insecurity, even though an improvement in the economic situation, when it happens, does also have a positive impact in this regard.

4. Policy developments

The impact of the new Immigration Act (1999)

The new 1998 Immigration Act introduced three objectives with regard to regulating immigration flows and integrating foreigners: to regulate entries on the basis of annual quotas for countries set by the government; to step up the enforcement of measures to prevent illegal immigration and smuggling of immigrants; and to promote the integration of foreigners already in Italy.

Two years after this act was passed, only the second point has been fully achieved, stricter measures to combat illegal entry having been implemented. Between 1998 and 1999, the number of illegal immigrants deported (escorted to the border or sent back to their country of origin) nearly tripled. These figures, which were stable at fewer than 9 000 in 1998, rose to nearly 25 000 in 1999. The illegal immigrants escorted to the border were mainly European (roughly two-thirds) and African (just under one-third).

The problem of quotas has yet to be settled: the procedure for setting quotas remains unclear, even though the Ministry of the Interior has established quotas for some nationalities and sent instructions to the various regional authorities. As for the third point on integration, it remains partially suspended, as it has not been possible to implement all the measures contained in the Act. However, the integration of foreigners is not only an institutional matter but also a *de facto* process that is often only observed after the event.

Schooling of immigrant children

In the early stages of the immigration process, very few immigrant children were enrolled in school in Italy. For example, in 1985 there were only a few thousand foreign children in the school population (9 134). Since then, enrolments of foreign children have grown steadily and rapidly. In 1999, 119 679 foreign children were enrolled, which was a 40% increase on 1998 and accounted for 1.6% of the total school population. This increase shows, like the other indicators mentioned above, that immigration in Italy is becoming more long term. This is fundamental since school is the primary means by which immigrant children become integrated into the society of receiving countries.

Most of these children are in elementary school, with few in secondary school as yet, but secondary school enrolments did rise sharply compared to 1998 (up 54%).

However, not all minors are enrolled in school, in particular several thousand unaccompanied minors, which poses a serious problem of integration.

Remittances

In 1998, for the first time, net remittances were negative, *i.e.* foreigners residing in Italy transferred larger amounts of funds to their families abroad than did Italians living abroad. This trend reflects the growing importance of work-related immigration. Total remittances increased by 30% between 1998 and 1999. There was a particularly large increase in transfers to EU countries, but also to Central and Eastern Europe and the West African and Southern Asian countries, although the amount of remittances to the North African countries decreased.

In line with the distribution of foreigners in Italy, these remittances came mainly from Central and Northern Italy.

Illegal immigration and the regularisation procedure: initial assessment

Despite stricter enforcement, illegal immigration has not stopped in Italy and is still very difficult to estimate. Illegal immigrants mainly arrive along the southern and south-eastern coast (Salento, Bari, Brindisi,

Pantelleria, Lampedusa) and the Ionian coast of Calabria. However, in the absence of statistics, it can be assumed that the number of illegal immigrants in Italy in 1999 was sharply up on 1998 (between 230 000 and 290 000 for 1998).

A number of steps have been taken to deal with the problem of illegal entries: readmission agreements (which have reduced the number of illegal immigrants via the Mediterranean), bilateral agreements with the countries of origin, with the possibility of raising quotas for legal immigration.

Lastly, it is possible to make an initial assessment of the regularisation programme launched in 1998 (the fourth such programme in thirteen years). To be regularised, foreigners had to meet the three following criteria: to have been in Italy since 27 March 1998, to have a salaried employment contract or provide proof that they are engaged in a professional activity and to have suitable housing. Initially limited to 20 000, the number of workers to be regularised was ultimately raised to 38 000, with a minimum quota for Albanians (3 000), Moroccans (1 500) and Tunisians (1 500). In January 2000, just under 100 000 applications had been filed, but only 39 % of them had been processed, so the final results of this regularisation are not yet available.

JAPAN

Introduction

In spite of the continued recession, the Ministry of Labour estimates that the number of foreigners (not including permanent residents, but including estimates of illegal workers) working in Japan remained constant in 1999 at approximately 670 000; this despite a 7% decrease in the number of visa overstayers to just under 252 000, the overwhelming majority of whom are understood to be employed. Though the number of long-term residents in employment remained almost unchanged at 220 500, the total number of foreign nationals residing with restricted permission to work increased by almost 6% to 125 700. This was a continuation of the sustained upward trend observed since 1996. Half of the increase in this category was attributable to the increase in the stock of entertainers. Significant rises were also recorded in the number of intra-company transferees and in the estimated number of students engaged in part-time work. Although the inflow of engineers was one third lower in 1999, their stock rose by 3% to 15 670. The Ministry of Labour is undertaking research to gauge the extent of labour shortages in the IT sector and the labour market behaviour of foreign workers possessing IT skills. The authorities will decide on the basis of the results of this investigation whether or not it is necessary to introduce measures to further facilitate the entry of foreign IT workers and what form any such measures should take.

1. Trends in migration movements

Only those staying for more than 90 days (the registration of whom is obligatory under the Alien Registration Law) are considered here. These entrants are assigned a residence status according to their economic activity in Japan or their personal status as a foreigner eligible to enter and reside there.

Having increased by 10% in 1995, 45% in 1996 and by over two thirds in 1997, the number of persons entering as “long-term residents” (the overwhelming majority of whom are the grandchildren and later descendants of Japanese emigrants to South America) fell by almost 30% in 1998. This was attributed in large part to the extremely unfavourable labour market situation for foreigners not possessing sought-after skills. Although the labour market situation remains weak for this category of labour, their inflow rose by 9% in 1999 to slightly more than 50 500 (see Table III.20).

Entries of individuals with restricted permission to work totalled 108 000, an increase of 6% on the previous year. This overall increase was comprised, on the one hand, of an almost 12% rise in the inflow of entertainers who accounted for over three quarters of the total inflow and, on the other, of declines in other significant components of the inflow, most notably that of engineers the entries of whom declined by one third (see Table III.21).

Table III.20. Current figures on migration flows and stocks of foreign population and labour force, Japan

	Thousands			
	1996	1997	1998	1999
Inflows of foreign nationals¹	225.4	274.8	265.5	281.9
Stock of total population²	125 864.0	126 166.0	126 486.0	126 686.0
Stock of foreign nationals³	1 415.1	1 482.7	1 512.1	1 556.1
By country of origin				
Korea	657.2	645.4	638.8	636.5
China (including Chinese Taipei)	234.3	252.2	272.2	294.2
Brazil	201.8	233.3	222.2	224.3
Philippines	84.5	93.3	105.3	115.7
United States	44.2	43.7	42.8	42.8
Other country	193.1	214.8	230.8	242.6
By status of residence				
Permanent residents ⁴	626.0	625.5	626.8	635.7
Long-term residents	438.2	483.7	482.3	492.5
<i>of which:</i>				
Spouse or child of Japanese national	258.8	274.5	264.8	270.8
Spouse or child of permanent resident	6.5	6.3	6.2	6.4
Other	172.9	202.9	211.3	215.3
Foreign workers with permission of employment	98.3	107.3	119.0	125.7
Other (accompanying family, student, trainee etc.)	252.6	266.2	284.0	302.1
Naturalisations	14.5	15.1	14.8	16.1
<i>of which:</i>				
Korea	9.9	9.7	9.6	10.1
China	4.0	4.7	4.6	5.3
Foreign labour force (estimates)⁵	630	660	670	670
Foreign residents with permission of employment by status of residence⁶				
Specialist in humanities or international services	27.4	29.9	31.3	31.8
Entertainer	20.1	22.2	28.9	32.3
Engineer	11.1	12.9	15.2	15.7
Skilled labour	8.8	9.6	10.0	10.5
Instructor	7.5	7.8	7.9	8.1
Intra-company transferee	5.9	6.4	6.6	7.4
Professor	4.6	5.1	5.4	5.9
Investor and business manager	5.0	5.0	5.1	5.4
Religious activities	5.0	5.0	4.9	5.0
Researcher	2.0	2.5	2.8	2.9
Journalist	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.4
Artist	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.4
Medical services	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Legal and accounting services	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Total	98.3	107.3	119.0	125.7
Trainees and Working Holiday Makers	8.6	12.1	19.6	23.3
Estimates of students engaged in part time jobs	30.1	32.2	38.0	47.0
Estimates of Japanese descents engaged in gainful activities⁷	211.2	234.1	220.8	220.5
Illegal workers⁸	280	280	270	252
Number of foreign nationals deported	54.3	49.6	48.5	55.2

1. Excluding temporary visitors and re-entries.

2. Registered population as of 1 October of the years indicated.

3. Data are based on registered foreign nationals as of 31 December of the years indicated. The figures include foreigners staying in Japan for more than 90 days.

4. Essentially Korean nationals. A "special permanent residents" category was introduced in 1992. It includes Koreans and Taiwanese nationals who lost their Japanese nationality as a consequence of the Peace Treaty of 1952 but who had continued to reside permanently in Japan.

5. Estimates including illegal workers. Excluding permanent residents.

6. Permanent residents, spouses or children of Japanese nationals, spouses or children of permanent residents and long-term residents have no restriction imposed to the kind of activities they can engage in Japan and are excluded from these data.

7. Estimates made by the Ministry of Foreign Affairs.

8. Estimates made by the Ministry of Justice on the basis of the number of overstayers.

Sources: Ministry of Justice; Ministry of Foreign Affairs; Ministry of Labour.

Table III.21. Inflows of foreigners by status of residence, 1996-1999, Japan

	Thousands				% change 1998-1999
	1996	1997	1998	1999	
Total¹	225.4	274.8	265.5	281.9	6.2
Diplomat and official	19.0	18.4	16.5	18.1	9.9
Residents with restricted permission to work	78.5	94.0	101.9	108.0	6.0
<i>of which :</i>					
Entertainer	54.0	67.5	73.8	82.3	11.5
Specialist in humanities or international services	6.1	6.7	7.2	6.5	-9.6
Engineer	4.4	5.1	5.7	3.7	-35.1
Intra-company transferee	2.8	3.4	3.5	3.8	8.6
Instructor	2.9	3.1	3.3	3.2	-3.0
Skilled labour	3.3	2.8	3.0	3.4	13.3
Professor	1.3	1.5	1.4	1.5	8.1
Religious activities	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.2	2.4
Investor and business manager	1.1	1.1	1.2	1.0	-18.8
Researcher	1.1	1.3	1.2	1.1	-8.3
Journalist	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	-10.0
Artist	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	59.0
Cultural activities	3.9	4.1	3.7	3.7	-0.2
Student	21.2	24.2	28.0	33.9	21.0
Trainee	45.5	49.6	49.8	48.0	-3.6
Dependant	15.2	16.1	16.1	16.7	3.7
"Designated activities"	3.2	3.3	3.0	2.9	-2.2
Long-term residents	38.9	65.3	46.4	50.5	8.9
<i>of which:</i>					
Spouse and child of Japanese national	25.9	31.6	24.6	26.7	8.7
Spouse and child of permanent resident	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.3	-25.0
Other	12.8	33.4	21.5	23.5	9.1

1. Excluding temporary visitors and re-entries.

Source: Ministry of Justice.

Box III.5. Policy on the entry of trainees and the conversion of their status to technical interns

Accompanying the growth in the direct investment by Japanese companies in other Asian countries the employees of their overseas affiliates or joint ventures have been coming to Japan as trainees since the 1960s. The companies' three primary objectives have been to compensate for their foreign employees' lack of basic education and general training, to enhance their understanding of the companies' products and production processes and to encourage their long-term commitment.

Since 1990, small and medium sized enterprises without an overseas presence have been permitted to bring in overseas trainees. They typically do so through intermediary bodies such as Chambers of Commerce and employers associations; this exempts them from the 5% ceiling on the proportion of trainees to regular workers.

The Technical Internship Training Programme, an extension of the general trainee scheme, was introduced in 1993 under the supervision of the Japan International Training co-operation Organisation (JITCO). Within the framework of this programme, regular trainees, who pass certain skill tests after a period of training, can become technical intern trainees thereby changing their status of residence to come under the "designated activities" category and so becoming entitled to the same rights as their Japanese colleagues *vis-à-vis* the labour standard law, the minimum wage law and other labour-related laws. In addition to being operational, technical intern trainees play an important role in supervising and assisting the regular trainees. In 1997 their maximum period of stay was extended from two years to three. JITCO has concluded agreements as a record of discussions with the governments of China, India, Indonesia, Laos, Myanmar, Mongolia, Peru, the Philippines, Sri Lanka, Thailand, Uzbekistan and Vietnam regarding the exchange of information on trainees and on sending organisations.

Entries of trainees, which had risen at double-digit rates during the period 1995-1997 and then by only 1% in 1998 actually declined in 1999, by almost 4% to 48 000. As in previous years, nine out of ten were from Asia, of whom half were from mainland China; Indonesia, the Philippines and Thailand together accounted for a further 30%.

Inflows of students, which have over recent years displayed a marked upward trend, increased by a further 20% in 1999 to 33 900. The number of such these students engaged in part-time work has been estimated at 47 000.

Illegal immigration

In May 1997, in response to the sharp rise that was taking place in the number of people detected as having entered the country without proper documentation the authorities amended the Immigration Act in order to provide for the imposition of severe penalties on those found to have organised or abetted the smuggling of aliens. This was complemented by a further amendment in August 1999 which removed the statute of limitations on the crime of illegal entry, increased the penalties that could be imposed on illegal entrants and extended from one to five years the no re-entry period for those deported. The amendment came into force in February 2000.

Almost 9 350 illegal entrants were detected in 1999. This was 25% more than in 1998 and nearly twice the 1996 figure. Reflecting the increased use of Japan as a transit destination for North America, almost three quarters of the overall increase was due to the 28% rise in those detected at airports.

Almost 55 200 persons were deported in 1999. Although this was an increase of nearly 14% on 1998, the figure was in line with those prevailing in the mid-1990s. As in previous years, almost 85% had been working illegally and 80% of the overall total were visa overstayers.

Refugees and asylum seekers

Though Japan receives few applications for asylum their number has, however, been displaying an upward trend. Having received a total of fewer than 1 200 applications during the period 1982-95, 147 applications were recorded in 1996, 242 in 1997, 133 in 1998 and 260 in 1999; 159 applications were made during the first 8 months of 2000. Between 1982 and August 2000 a total of 250 applications had been accepted. The authorities have reported that the asylum application procedure is increasingly being abused, in particular by being used as a means of remaining in the country in order to take up employment during the period that the application is being considered.

2. Structure and changes in the foreign population

Numerical trends

The recorded stock of foreign nationals (those staying for more than 90 days and registered as required under the Alien Registration Law), stood at just over 1.5 million (1.2% of the total population) at the end of 1999, a 3% rise on 1998 (see Table III.20). Koreans are the most numerous, accounting for over 40% of the total; their numbers are steadily and slowly declining however. As was the case in 1998, above the general trend increases in the second largest group, the Chinese, and the fourth most important, the Filipinos, explain the major part of the overall increase.

Numbering 637 700, permanent residents account for 41% of the foreign population. It should be borne in mind that permanent residence is accorded only after a fairly extensive period of stay. Of these persons, just over 80% are special permanent residents, *i.e.* those Koreans who had lost Japanese nationality on the basis of the Treaty of Peace with Japan, and their descendants who, born of foreign parents, are not automatically entitled to Japanese nationality. Whereas the number of those with ordinary permanent residence status increased by 21% in 1999, the number with the special status declined by 2%.

The stock of long-term residents increased by 2% to 492 500. They account for just under one third of the total foreign population and have unrestricted permission to take up employment. Slightly over half of these are the spouses or children of Japanese nationals. The remainder are ethnic Japanese (the grandchildren and

later descendants of Japanese emigrants); an almost negligible number are the spouses or children of permanent residents (who themselves are essentially composed of Korean nationals).

Visa overstayers

Through the matching of embarkation and disembarkation cards the number of foreign nationals overstaying their legal period of stay has been estimated twice yearly since 1992. Due, on the one hand, to tightened visa control, improved co-operation between the agencies charged with tackling the problem and the implementation of a publicity campaign dissuading employers from hiring illegal workers their number has been declining steadily since 1993. These factors, along with the continued deterioration in the state of the labour market, explain why the total number of undocumented residents fell by 7% during 1999 bringing the end of year figure down to 251 700. Significant declines were recorded in all of the principal national groups.

Naturalisations

Having followed a steadily upward trend through to 1997, the number of naturalisations declined slightly in 1998. In 1999, the number rose once more, by 9% to just over 16 100. Koreans continue to comprise for the majority of those taking citizenship though the proportion is declining. In 1999 they accounted for almost two thirds, while the Chinese accounted for one third. The majority had previously possessed permanent resident status.

3. Migration and the labour market

In spite of the recession, the Ministry of Labour estimates that the number of foreigners (not including permanent residents) working in Japan remained constant in 1999 at approximately 670 000; this despite a 19 350 decrease in the number of visa overstayers, the overwhelming majority of whom are understood to be employed (see Table III.20). Though the number of long-term residents in employment remained almost unchanged at 220 500, the total number of foreign nationals residing with restricted permission to work increased by almost 6% to 125 700. This was a continuation of the sustained upward trend observed since 1996. Half of the increase in this category was attributable to the increase in the stock of entertainers. Significant rises were also recorded in the following categories: intra-company transferees (by 11% to 7 380); those classified under “designated activities” (by 19% to 23 300, this following 60% rise in their number in 1998) the overwhelming majority of whom are former general trainees who have been permitted to change their status of residence from trainee to technical intern; and, the estimated number of students engaged in part-time work (by 23% to 47 000). Although the inflow of engineers had declined substantially, their stock rose by 3% in 1999 to 15 670. It should be noted that whilst technical intern trainees are included in this estimate of foreign workers general trainees are not. Official stock data for their number are unavailable; the estimate of 115 000 quoted in the previous two editions of this report is likely to remain broadly valid.

4. Policy developments

In June 1999 the government approved a report entitled “Ideal Society and Policies for Economic Rebirth” and in August of the same year approved the “9th Basic Plan for Employment Measures”. These two documents set out, *inter alia*, the government’s overall policy direction *vis-à-vis* foreign workers through to 2010. In essence, the policy line adopted is one of facilitating the entry of foreigners possessing professional or technical skills whilst leaving open for further careful deliberation the issue of permitting the entry of unskilled workers.

The Ministry of Labour is undertaking research to gauge the extent of labour shortages in the IT sector and the labour market behaviour of foreign workers possessing IT skills. Based on the results of this investigation, the authorities will decide whether or not it is necessary to introduce measures to further facilitate the entry of foreign IT workers and what form any such measures should take.

Introduction

Due primarily to buoyant export demand, the Korean economy pulled out of recession in 1999 recording in that year GDP growth of just under 11% (in 1998 the economy contracted by nearly 7%). Growth was of the order of 9% in 2000; it is expected to decelerate to a more sustainable rate of around 5% in 2001. The rapid recovery has been accompanied by sharply increased labour demand. From 1.5 million at the height of the crisis in 1998 the number of unemployed has been falling steadily. Numbering 780 000 in May 2001 they accounted for slightly more than 3.5% of the total labour force.

At present, foreign workers account for just over 1% of the total workforce. The market for workers prepared to take up unskilled employment in the most demanding and low prestige jobs is very tight. For this reason, the authorities are faced with considerable difficulties in their attempts to combat the undocumented employment of foreign workers. Against this background, the Korean government put forward in 2000 a plan to permit openly the immigration of unskilled workers, replacing the present system whereby the entry of such workers is allowed only under the auspices of a quota-governed trainee scheme. The plan met with strong opposition from employers and has for this reason been withdrawn.

1. Structure and changes in the foreign population

The rate of growth in the number of foreign nationals, staying more than 90 days and registered as required under the Emigration and Immigration Act, having remained low through to 1991 increased rapidly following the 1992 normalisation of diplomatic relations with China. This normalisation led to substantial increases both in the inflows from China of Chinese and of ethnic Koreans and in the number of trainees entering from other neighbouring countries. These increases notwithstanding, at the end of 1997 they numbered only 177 000, less than half of 1% of the total population. Following an over 16% fall in 1998, their number increased by 28% in 1999 to just over 189 000. In line with the medium term trend of, on the one hand, the rising relative importance of the Chinese community and, on the other, the otherwise increasing diversification in the range of origin countries, just under one quarter of the increase in 1999 was due the re-continuation of the rise in the number of persons originating from China and a further two thirds was attributable increases in the numbers of those originating from countries other than the six most important, in particular Vietnam and Bangladesh.

2. Migration and the labour market

Migration for employment and work permits

There are three types of migrant worker in Korea: the legally employed; *de facto* employees accepted under the Industrial and Technical Training Programme (ITTP); and the illegally employed. All categories combined, they account for slightly more than 1% of the total workforce.

The total stock of foreign workers, having declined by 30% during 1998, increased by over one third in 1999. The rebound was most marked for trainees: an over 50% rise in 1999 brought their number up to over 98 000, almost 10% more than the pre-crisis figure (see Table III.22). The number of illegal workers rose by over one third during 1999 bringing their total to 135 000 at the end of the year, just over 90% of the pre-crisis figure. The 13% increase in the number of skilled workers present at the end of 1999 brought their number up to 12 600, equivalent to 85% of the pre-crisis figure. During 2000, the number of skilled workers rose by a further 40% to 17 700. One third of this rise was attributable to a 75% increase in the number of entertainers; a further 25% was due to a one quarter increase in the number of language teachers. The number of visa overstayers rose by over one quarter to 172 500; data on trainees have not yet been made available.

Legal employment of foreigners

The legal migrant workers, comprised essentially of professionals, teachers, technicians and entertainers, are all regarded by the authorities as being skilled (see Table III.22) for a numerical breakdown of these categories). Shortly before the onset of the crisis the government had revised the Immigration and Emigration Law

Table III.22. Foreign workers in Korea by category, 1996-1999

	Thousands			
	1996	1997	1998	1999
Skilled workers	13.4	14.7	11.1	12.6
Language teacher	7.5	7.6	4.9	5.0
Other teacher	0.8	0.9	0.8	0.8
Entertainer	1.0	1.4	1.1	2.3
Researcher	0.5	0.7	0.6	0.5
Technician	0.9	1.0	0.5	0.3
Other professional	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.4
Other	2.4	2.8	2.9	3.3
Trainees by recruiting agencies	68.0	90.4	64.2	98.4
Korean Federation of small businesses	46.5	61.9	43.3	67.0
Companies investing abroad	21.6	26.9	19.8	30.0
Others	–	1.6	1.1	1.4
Estimates of the number of overstayers¹	129.1	148.1	99.5	135.3
China	50.6	57.8	55.6	68.8
Bangladesh	9.6	9.0	7.5	10.9
Mongolia	3.5	7.6	5.6	10.6
Philippines	14.6	13.9	6.4	9.2
Vietnam	4.4	6.4	3.7	5.1
Pakistan	5.5	5.9	3.1	4.3
Sri Lanka	1.6	2.2	1.1	1.3
Others	39.3	45.2	16.6	25.1
Total (skilled workers, trainees and overstayers)	210.5	253.1	174.9	246.3

1. Most of the overstayers are believed to working illegally.

Source: Ministry of Justice.

to abolish the ceiling on the period of stay granted to foreign skilled workers. It also simplified the administrative procedures governing the issuing of their visas. Thus far, there has been little effect on the inflows of the types of workers that the authorities are particularly seeking to attract.

Trainees

The Korean government introduced the ITTP for foreign workers in 1991. Then, as now, under the Immigration and Emigration Law unskilled foreign workers were not permitted to work in Korea. Initially, only companies with overseas subsidiaries were able to take advantage of this programme and the maximum period of training was one year. The programme was subsequently extended to medium and small-size manufacturing companies and the construction and fishery industries, and the maximum period of training was prolonged to three years; in this way, the training programme has effectively become a labour immigration programme. The use of workers-cum-trainees is largely confined to areas of the manufacturing sector such as textiles, electronics, chemicals, toys and musical instruments.

Illegal employment of foreigners

As wages increased and labour shortages became more severe from the early 1990s onwards, the employment of illegal migrant workers rapidly increased. The figures presented in Table III.22 and discussed below are based on the assumption that all those and only those overstaying their visa are illegally employed; they do not include those who work in violation of their visa status, for example, private sector language teachers working on tourist visas. (In view of Korea's geopolitical situation and its uncommonly tight border control, very few will have entered the country clandestinely.)

Any foreigner who stays in Korea after his/her visa expires is subject to the fine of up to KRW one million; the precise amount varies according to the length of time the person has overstayed. They must also pay their own costs of repatriation. Korean employers who hire undocumented foreign workers can be imprisoned for up to three years or be given a fine of up to KRW 10 million. Should the undocumented foreign worker be unable to pay his or her own costs of repatriation, then the employer is obliged to bear the cost.

3. Policy developments

The rapid recovery of the Korean economy has brought the topic of foreign workers back to the forefront of political debate. In 2000, the Korean government put forward a plan to transform the current training system into an employment permit system and thereby bring to an end the official prohibition on the entry of unskilled foreign workers. Faced, however, with strong opposition from employers fearful of the impact that the abolition of the programme would have on their labour costs, the government has withdrawn its plan.

Box III.6. The Industrial and Technical Training Programme (ITTP)

The Industrial and Technical Training Programme (ITTP) was introduced in 1992 as a compromise between those in favour and those opposed to the immigration of unskilled foreign workers. Its initial stated purpose was to permit foreign workers employed by the overseas subsidiaries of Korean firms to come to Korea for up to one year in order to upgrade their skills. Then, as now, unskilled foreign workers were not permitted to work in Korea. Later, the programme was extended to medium and small size companies in the manufacturing sector suffering from labour shortages; *de facto*, their trainees are workers. In this way, the training programme has effectively become a programme of unskilled labour importation.

Approximately one third of the trainees admitted under the ITTP are recruited directly by the overseas subsidiaries of Korean firms. Almost all of the other two thirds enter under the auspices of the Korea Federation of Small Businesses (KFBSB). Almost negligible numbers are admitted through the National Federation of Fisheries Co-operatives (NFFC) which has been permitted to bring in trainees since 1997 and latterly the Korean Construction Association (KCA). Each of the three federations requires approval from its relevant Ministry for the firms it selects to receive trainees and the numbers allocated to them. Various ministries and government agencies also admit small numbers of trainees; the number of such admissions has risen rapidly over recent years.

Though the workers-cum-trainees are guaranteed a minimum wage (typically below that of the market, which explains why large numbers of them abscond from their initial employer to take up undocumented employment) and are covered by the industrial accident and sickness insurance schemes, some labour rights, such as the right to strike, are not at present granted to them. The maximum period of their stay has been extended twice, in 1993 and in 1996, to bring it up to three years. In 1997, the last occasion when the possibility of introducing a work permit system for unskilled workers was debated, a revision was made to the ITTP allowing trainees to be employed as legal workers upon completion of a certain period of training.

Many academics and policymakers have raised the question of whether there is not a better way of maximising the economic benefits from importing unskilled workers without discriminating against them economically and socially. The employment levy systems implemented in Singapore and Chinese Taipei as a means of managing the short-term immigration of unskilled workers have been cited as possible models.

LUXEMBOURG

Introduction

The growth rate of the Luxembourg economy is considerably higher than that of the other OECD countries. Real GDP growth stood at 7.5% in 1999, well above the long-term average of 5.5% since 1985. The service sector is the mainstay of economic activity, and foreign cross-border workers are the main beneficiaries of this growth. Luxembourg is also the country with the largest share of foreigners in the total population. This immigration is primarily of European, and in particular Portuguese origin, and it enables the country to maintain a relatively high population growth, with annual rates above 1%.

1. Trends in migration movements

Inflows and outflows of foreigners

The relatively high population growth of recent years is mainly due to a net immigration gain. Some 13 000 entries and 8 000 exits were recorded in 1999, giving a net gain of just over 4 700 (see Table III.23). Europe is the main source of the inflows, with 60% of new arrivals being of European origin. In 1999, for the first time, there were more French than Portuguese immigrants (2 200 and 2 100 respectively), followed by Belgians, Germans and Italians. The vast majority of new immigrants are aged between 20 and 34. Immigrants have a strong impact on the birth rate, for the foreign community (especially asylum seekers) has the highest birth rate and accounts for nearly 50% of births in Luxembourg.

Refugees and asylum seekers

Until 1987, most asylum seekers came under quotas accepted by the Luxembourg Government as part of international refugee resettlement programmes. Until 1995, there were between 200 and 400 applications yearly. In 1998 and 1999, with the events in the Federal Republic of Yugoslavia and other nearby countries, there was a sharp rise in the number of asylum seekers and applications to be processed. Between 1997 and 1998, applications rose by nearly 200%, followed by a further 80% increase in 1999.

2. Structure and changes in the foreign population

Numerical trends

The share of foreigners in the population continues to grow. At 1 January 2000, the foreign population was estimated at 159 400, or 36.6% of the total population of Luxembourg. Nearly 90% of them come from one of the 15 EU countries (see Table III.23).

A more detailed breakdown by nationality shows that the Portuguese community is still the largest group, accounting for more than a third of the foreign population. The Italian population has been stable for the past ten years at approximately 20 000. Some 44 000 foreigners come from bordering countries (France, Belgium and Germany).

Mixed marriages

After rising sharply until 1995, the number of mixed marriages has levelled off at around 500, although it has been rising slightly every year. Mixed marriages accounted for 26% of all marriages celebrated in 1999.

Naturalisations

To acquire Luxembourg nationality, applicants must be over 18 years of age and have resided in Luxembourg for at least ten years. The latter requirement may be reduced to five years for applicants born in Luxembourg, or if they have lost their citizenship, are widowed or divorced from a native-born Luxembourg national with whom they had more than one child and at least one of whom lives in Luxembourg, or if they are stateless or recognised by the authorities as refugees under the Geneva Convention.

Foreigners may also opt for Luxembourg nationality if they marry a Luxembourg national or if they are the adopted child of a Luxembourg national. Some 50 000 people meet these criteria, yet the number of naturalisations is low (averaging just over 600 per year). There are two explanations for this low figure: legal reasons, since applicants are required to give up their previous citizenship, and the nationality of immigrants, since most of them are European and therefore have little to gain from acquiring Luxembourg nationality.

3. Migration and the labour market

Labour market trends in recent years have been characterised by a continual decline in the share of nationals in salaried employment. Although this share was still well above 50% at the beginning of the 1990s (54% in 1990), it had fallen to some 40% in 1999 (see Table III.23) and, probably, 38% in 2000. The job market is

Table III.23. Current figures on the components of total population change, on flows and stocks of foreign population and labour force, Luxembourg

Figures in thousands unless otherwise indicated

	1996	1997	1998	1999		1996	1997	1998	1999
Components of total population change					Inflows of foreign workers³	18.3	18.6	22.0	24.2
Natural increase	1.8	1.6	1.5	1.8	<i>of which: Women</i>	6.7	6.4	6.8	8.2
<i>of which: Foreigners</i>	1.9	1.9	2.0	2.2	Inflows by region or country of origin				
Net migration	3.7	3.8	4.1	4.7	EU	17.2	17.7	21.0	23.1
<i>of which: Foreigners</i>	3.7	3.6	3.9	4.9	<i>of which:</i>				
Population (31 December)	418.3	423.7	429.2	435.7	France	8.1	8.6	10.2	11.1
<i>of which: Foreigners</i>	142.8	147.7	152.9	159.4	Belgium	2.9	3.0	3.4	4.0
					Germany	2.5	2.6	3.2	3.5
					Portugal	2.1	1.8	2.2	2.4
					Italy	0.6	0.6	0.8	0.7
					Other countries	1.1	0.9	1.0	1.1
Migration flows by nationality					Inflows by major industry division				
Inflows	10.0	10.4	11.6	12.8	Agriculture, forestry	0.2	0.1	0.1	..
France	1.5	1.7	2.0	2.2	Extractive and manufacturing industries	1.3	1.6	2.0	..
Portugal	2.0	1.9	2.0	2.1	Building	1.6	1.6	1.8	..
Belgium	1.1	1.2	1.2	1.3	Trade, banks, insurances	9.3	10.1	12.6	..
Germany	0.7	0.7	0.8	0.7	Transport, communications	1.4	1.4	1.9	..
Other countries	4.7	4.9	5.6	6.5	Hotels	1.8	1.7	1.8	..
Net migration	3.7	3.8	4.1	4.7	Personal services	0.1	0.2	0.2	..
France	0.6	0.8	0.9	1.1	Other services	2.5	2.5	1.6	..
Belgium	0.6	0.7	0.5	0.6					
Portugal	0.7	0.6	0.6	0.3	Stock of workers (excluding unemployed)				
Germany	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	Total foreign employment	117.8	124.8	134.6	145.7
Other countries	1.6	1.6	1.9	2.5	Breakdown by nationality (%) ⁴				
					Luxembourgers	44	41	40	40
Foreign population by main nationality¹	142.8	147.7	152.9	159.4	Resident and cross-border foreigners	56	59	60	60
Portugal	53.1	54.5	55.9	57.0					
Italy	19.8	19.9	20.0	20.1	Stock of cross-border workers by nationality⁵	59.6	64.4	70.8	78.4
France	15.7	16.5	17.5	18.8	France (% of total cross-borders)	51.7	52.3	52.7	52.9
Belgium	12.4	13.2	13.8	14.5	Belgium (% of total cross-borders)	30.0	29.5	28.9	28.2
Germany	9.9	10.0	10.3	10.5	Germany (% of total cross-borders)	18.3	18.2	18.4	18.9
Spain	2.8	2.9					
Other countries	29.1	30.7	35.4	38.5	Job-seekers (national definition)	5.7	6.4	5.5	5.4
					<i>of which: Foreigners (% of total job seekers)</i>	57.7	57.9	59.4	57.0
Acquisition of nationality by country of former nationality (units)²	779	749	631	549					
Italy	193	192	149	94					
France	85	79	53	43					
Germany	55	60	44	41					
Belgium	65	64	48	53					
Other countries	381	354	337	318					
Mixed marriages (units)	514	554	500	539					
% of total marriages	24.4	27.6	25.0	25.8					

1. Data are from population registers and refer to the population on 31 December of the years indicated.

2. Children acquiring nationality as a consequence of the naturalisation of their parents are excluded.

3. Data cover arrivals of foreign workers to Luxembourg and foreign residents entering the labour market for the first time.

4. Salaried workers as of 31 March of each year.

5. Annual average.

Sources: STATEC; Inspection générale de la sécurité sociale (IGSS); Administration de l'emploi.

highly regional, some foreign cross-border and other workers being attracted by higher salaries. Employment growth has mainly involved cross-border workers, whose share of total employment has risen from 16% in 1991 to 35% in 2000. Some 53% of cross-border workers come from France, 30% from Belgium and 20% from Germany.

Nearly 70% of non-EU immigrants hold blue-collar jobs, while over 50% of cross-border workers are white-collar workers. Foreign workers are employed in industry and construction (30% of total foreign employment) and in commerce, banking and insurance.

The vast majority of foreign workers are European nationals (90%), the bulk being Portuguese (45%), French (12%) and German (5%). The second-ranking group is the African community, with only 2% of foreign workers.

According to the latest census data (1991), the age of the domestic labour force is higher than that of the foreign labour force. This is mainly due to the predominance of the Portuguese community, since half of Portuguese workers are in the 25-39 age group.

4. Policy developments

Numerous regulations and laws aimed at promoting the integration of foreigners have been adopted. Among the measures enacted during the past three years, the following are worthy of mention:

- The Act of 19 July 1997 increasing the penalties applicable for the offence of slander or libel motivated by the victim's membership of an ethnic group, nation, race or particular religion. The penalties are even more severe if the offence is committed by a law-enforcement officer.
- A series of acts on labour market regulation, such as the Act of 12 February 1999 on the implementation of a national employment plan prepared in the light of work of the European Council, the Act of 29 April 1999 creating a right to a guaranteed minimum income, and the Act of 17 May 1999 on the access of EU nationals to the Luxembourg civil service.
- The Act of 18 March 2000 creating a system of temporary protection and a new procedure for reviewing asylum applications. Its objective is to speed up the asylum procedure.

Luxembourg also gives special attention to the integration of children of foreign origin into Luxembourg's schools. Since 1991, the Ministry of National Education has been developing a general approach aimed at promoting the integration of these children on the basis of their needs, whatever their origin, the characteristics of the school system and language constraints. This approach is based on the principles of common education, trilingualism and equal opportunity.

What means do schools have of providing the basis for sustainable economic, social and cultural development? To answer this question, the cultural, educational and economic aspects are being taken into account and an education project aimed at addressing all of these issues may be forthcoming. One of the goals is to familiarise foreign children with Luxembourg culture. At present, one of the answers provided by the ministerial authorities has been the creation of a pilot early-education project made mandatory for communes as of this year.

MEXICO

Introduction

Boosted by a thriving US economy, the Mexican economy has seen strong growth over the last three years. Although inflation was still high in 2000 (at 8.9%), it was well down on previous years. Investor confidence has undoubtedly been encouraged by a series of structural reforms, aimed chiefly at the public sector and the banking sector. Real GDP growth was 3.8% in 1999 and 6.9% in 2000. However, given the marked slow-down in the US economy, the outlook for 2001 is more subdued.

Despite steadily larger inflows of foreign immigrants, particularly asylum-seekers from Guatemala, Mexico is still primarily a country of emigration. The United States exerts a strong pull on Mexican workers who, once across the border, are employed – often illegally – in low-skilled jobs in agriculture and the service sector. Mexico is now negotiating with the United States at the highest level in an attempt to improve working conditions for migrant workers and gain better control over migration flows.

1. Trends in migration movements

Emigration and returns of nationals

The border zone with the United States is probably one of the busiest in the world (see Table III.24). According to the official statistics for 1999, over 1.7 million Mexicans left the country for the United States (the destination country for 99% of Mexican emigrants). This was an increase of approximately 9% on the previous year. However, the true figure is hard to evaluate as little information is available on the numbers of emigrants entering the United States illegally. In 2000, the US authorities escorted more than 1.3 million Mexicans back across the border (1.17 million in 1999).

The study conducted for the *Zapata Canyon* project reveals that a substantial percentage of those escorted back across the border attempt to cross it again within 24 hours of their return to Mexico, and 75% within the next few months. Half of them are caught within three days of entry. A typical Mexican wishing to leave the country for the United States is male (in 96% of cases) over 25 years of age, resident in an urban area and educated to no more than secondary-school level. Over 51% of Mexicans interviewed had already worked in the United States (see Table III.25).

For some years now, the Mexican authorities have been focussing on the legal (national sovereignty) and humanitarian (Human Rights) dimensions of immigration: issues that have loomed larger since “*Operation Gatekeeper*” and others. This is because potential immigrants are obliged to take greater risks at every attempt to enter the US, finding increasingly more remote and dangerous entry routes. The hunt for undocumented immigrants, undertaken in May 2000 by American ranchers near the border, has increased the need for constructive dialogue and closer co-operation between the two countries.

Table III.24. Mexican emigration to the United States, 1911-1999¹

Period	Thousands	
	Numbers	of which: Immigrants who had benefited from the 1986 Immigration Reform and Control Act (IRCA)
1911-20	219.0	
1921-30	459.3	
1931-40	22.3	
1941-50	60.6	
1951-60	299.8	
1961-70	453.9	
1971-80	640.3	
1981-90	1 655.8	962.7
1991-99	2 079.8	1 048.6
1989	405.7	339.2
1990	680.2	623.5
1991	947.9	894.9
1992	214.1	122.5
1993	126.6	17.5
1994	111.4	4.4
1995	90.0	3.0
1996	163.7	3.6
1997	146.9	2.0
1998	131.6	0.7
1999	147.6	..

1. Data refer to grants of permanent residence in the United States. Data refer to fiscal year (October to September of the given year).

Source: US Department of Justice, 1999 *Statistical Yearbook of the Immigration and Naturalization Service*, forthcoming.

Table III.25. **Socio-economic characteristics of undocumented Mexican immigrants to the United States, 1990, 1998-2000**

	Percentages							
	Men				Women			
	1990	1998	1999	2000	1990	1998	1999	2000
Sex	86.1	95.5	96.2	..	13.9	4.5	3.8	..
Age								
Less than 20	18.2	8.2	7.1	6.6	15.2	7.7	8.2	13.0
20 to 24	32.4	21.6	22.0	19.8	32.6	23.1	32.5	30.0
25 to 29	28.4	31.0	30.9	30.7	25.4	31.1	33.1	29.9
30 and more	21.0	39.2	40.0	42.9	26.7	38.1	26.2	27.0
Level of education								
Less than elementary	23.7	15.9	20.6	10.1	22.4	5.9	9.0	6.1
Elementary	34.5	43.9	40.1	36.0	34.2	49	45.9	38.1
Secondary	30.7	33.7	31.3	47.8	34.2	39.7	34	48.6
More than secondary	10.9	6.5	8.0	6.2	8.9	5.4	10.9	7.2
No answer	0.1	–	–	–	0.3	–	–	–
Last job in Mexico								
Farm work	32.6	38.3	37.4	36.0	0.9	13.5	5.6	6.5
Job in a city	56.0	58.5	57.4	56.3	41.6	59.7	51.1	51.3
Unemployed	10.9	3.2	5.0	7.6	55.7	26.5	43.3	42.1
No answer	0.4	0.1	0.2	0.1	1.7	0.2	–	0.1
Have you already had a job in the United States?								
Yes	44.7	46.8	58.4	51.8	40.9	30.1	25.6	22.7
No	54.9	53.1	41.6	48.2	58.7	69.9	74.4	77.3
No answer	0.4	–	–	–	0.4	–	–	–

Source: Project Zapata Canyon. Survey of flows of undocumented Mexican immigrants as they cross the border of the United States, El Colegio de la Frontera Norte.

Inflows and outflows of foreigners

Mexico issued some 1 700 new residence permits to foreign nationals in 1999 (1 200 in 1998 and 2 900 in 1997), most of them to US (316) and Spanish nationals (223). Entry flows to Mexico are of course much greater than the statistics suggest. For example, in 1999, 10 500 foreign students entered Mexico as well as 184 800 professionals under the North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA-FMN permits) and nearly 28 800 temporary residents and consultants (NAFTA-FMVC permits). Entries under this latter category, introduced in 1995, have risen substantially (1995, 1 700; 1996, 11 400; 1998, 22 700) and were primarily Japanese nationals (26.5%), followed by Brazilian (11.9%), French (10.5%), German (7.2%), British (6.9%) and Korean (6.7%) nationals. Of these, almost 70% were businessmen, technicians (20.5%), consultants (6%) and intra-corporate transferees (4.4%). Entries under NAFTA's professional mobility provisions have also increased substantially (+40% from 1995 to 1999), and concerned mainly US nationals (over 95%) and a small percentage of Canadians.

Illegal immigration

There are increasing numbers of illegal immigrants in Mexico. The regularisation programme implemented in 2000 does provide a certain amount of information concerning these migrants. Between 1 February and 31 May 2000, for example, 2 700 people applied to have their situation regularised, of which 600 were Guatemalans, 425 were from El Salvador and 397 from Honduras. For regularisation to be possible, applicants had to have been resident in Mexico for at least two years. Over the last six months of 2000, some 3 000 people did in fact have their situation regularised. In 1999, over 125 400 illegal immigrants were escorted back over the border (136 000 in 2000).

There are estimated to be between 150 000 and 200 000 undocumented Guatemalans in Mexico. An agreement was signed between Guatemala and Mexico in 1999 to legalise the status of a number of these immigrants. It supplements the 1996 amendments to the General Population Law granting "assimilated immigrant" status and allowing Guatemalans to settle and take up employment in the country.

2. Policy developments

At Mexico's initiative, the first Regional Conference on Migration was held in Puebla in 1996 (the Puebla Process). An advisory rather than decision-making forum, the Conference agreed to recognise that migration is beneficial to the area, and to promote the rights of immigrants, regardless of their status, as set out in the 1948 Universal Declaration of Human Rights. Recognised by the United Nations, the Conference's recommendations concern migration policy, linkages between migration and development, combating illegal immigration, technical co-operation, international co-operation on the integration of repatriated migrants, and discussions on respect for the rights of foreigners. The Conference holds an annual meeting, together with numerous seminars and working parties attended by the eleven countries of Central and North America, in co-operation with international institutions such as the UNHCR, the IOM and NGOs. The Puebla Process reflects a genuine determination to gain more insight into the many facets of migration, which countries view as beneficial because of its potential to correct asymmetries between them (particularly regarding the labour market and economic growth). In this respect, co-operation is a vital means of safeguarding not only national sovereignty in the international arena but immigrants' rights as well. The Fourth Regional Conference took place in January 1999 in El Salvador and confirmed the major contribution that migration has made to development.

NETHERLANDS

Introduction

Real GDP growth averaged a little over 3% from 1993 to 1999, with the exception of 1998 when real GDP growth accelerated to nearly 4%; in 2000 GDP growth was 4.4%. A slight slowdown is expected for 2001, but not below 4%. As employment grew faster than the labour force, the standardised unemployment rate has continued to fall and the tension on the labour market increased further. In June 2000, there were 171 000 unemployed people (2.5%) and 201 000 unfilled vacancies. Net migration decreased slightly but immigration of labour increased. The most important changes in migration in the last years are due to important increases in immigration from Dutch nationals (see Chart III.9).

1. Trends in migration movements

Net migration fell slightly in 1999 from 62 000 to 60 000, mainly as a result of a decrease in the immigration of foreigners (see Table III.26). But the total level of immigration is expected to be higher in 2000 than anytime in the last 20 years due to the arrival of Dutch nationals from the Antilles and Aruba who flee the poor economic conditions of the Caribbean. External migration has been stable for the last 10 years.

Emigration

For the fourth consecutive year, emigration had declined in 1999. The decline is strongest for outflows of foreigners. In terms of volumes, Dutch emigration decreased by 800 persons to 38 400 in 1999 and foreign emigration by 600 persons to 20 700.

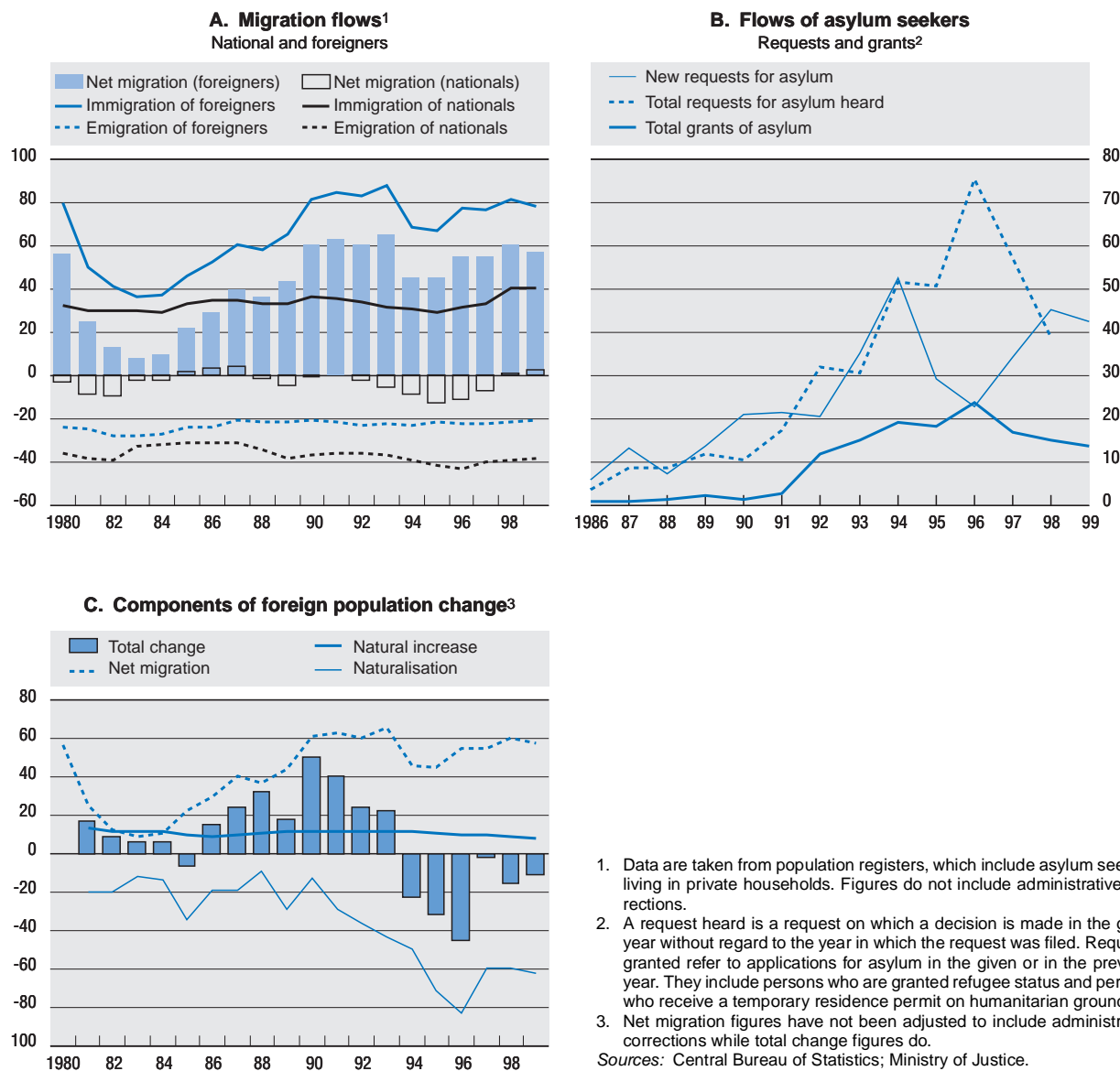
Statistics Netherlands (CBS) produces yearly estimates of the level of unreported emigration of foreigners. To the extent that these emigrants entered the Netherlands legally, their numbers reduce the official migration surplus. Unreported emigration was estimated around 20 000 persons; these numbers have remained stable since 1997.

Inflows and outflows of foreigners

The stable pattern of external migration during the last ten years (78 400 immigrants in 1999 and 20 700 emigrants, see Chart III.9) masks some important changes in composition.

Chart III.9. Migration flows and components of foreign population change, 1980-1999, Netherlands

Thousands



The evidence suggested an upturn in foreign immigration as of 1997 but actual numbers had declined in 1999 for the first time in five years. The net migration of non-Dutch immigrants from within the EU has stabilised around 10 800 for two consecutive years whilst immigrants from former Yugoslavia almost quadrupled between 1998 and 1999 (2 300). Net external migration from Turkey, Surinam and Morocco declined sharply.

In 1999, there were 3 800 Dutch national emigrants and 11 600 Dutch national immigrants from the Dutch Antilles and Aruba, contributing 7 800 to the migration surplus. Refugees and asylum seekers

Although the number of asylum-seekers entering the country has declined somewhat – from 45 200 in 1998 to 42 700 in 1999 – it has almost doubled since 1996 (see Table III.26). However, the increase in

Table III.26. **Current figures on flows and stocks of total population and labour force in the Netherlands**

Figures in thousands unless otherwise indicated

	1996	1997	1998	1999		1996	1997	1998	1999
Migration flows¹					Refugees and asylum seekers				
<i>Total population</i>					New requests for asylum	22.9	34.5	45.2	42.7
Inflows	108.7	109.9	122.4	119.2	Total requests for asylum heard	75.3	..	38.9	..
Outflows	65.3	62.2	60.4	59.0	Total grants of asylum	23.6	17.0	15.1	13.5
Net migration	43.4	47.6	62.0	60.1	Expulsions	51.5	62.0	55.7	69.2
Net administrative corrections ²	-22.0	-17.0	-19.0	-20.0	<i>of which: Asylum seekers</i>	16.5	18.9	14.3	18.3
Adjusted total net migration figures	21.0	31.0	43.0	40.0	Employment				
<i>Dutch nationals</i>					Total foreign employment ⁴	218	208	235	..
Inflows	31.6	33.1	40.7	40.8	Employment of Dutch nationals born abroad and foreigners	509	543	579	..
Outflows	42.9	40.3	39.2	38.4	Total "allochtonous" employment ⁵ (new definition)	853	910	972	1 032
Net migration	-11.3	-7.2	1.5	2.4	Labour force indicators according to the new definition of "Autochtonous" and "Allochtonous" populations				
<i>Foreigners</i>					Total				
Inflows	77.2	76.7	81.7	78.4	Total labour force (thousands)	6 681	6 838	6 957	7 097
Outflows	22.4	21.9	21.3	20.7	Activity rate (%)	63	65	66	67
Net migration	54.8	54.8	60.4	57.7	Unemployment rate (%)	7	6	5	4
Stock of population³					Autochtonous ⁶				
Total population	15 567.1	15 654.2	15 760.2	15 863.9	Total labour force (thousands)	5 660	5 767	5 852	5 943
Total foreign population	679.9	678.1	662.4	651.5	Activity rate (%)	65	66	67	68
<i>of which:</i>					Unemployment rate (%)	6	5	4	3
Morocco	138.7	135.7	128.6	119.7	Allochtonous ⁷				
Turkey	127.0	114.7	102.0	100.7	Total labour force (thousands)	1 006	1 055	1 086	1 130
Germany	53.5	53.9	54.1	54.3	Activity rate (%)	57	59	59	59
United Kingdom	39.3	39.2	38.8	39.5	Unemployment rate (%)	15	14	11	9
Belgium	24.0	24.4	24.8	25.4	Surinam ⁷				
Total foreign-born population	1 433.6	1 469.0	1 513.9	1 556.3	Total labour force (thousands)	120	122	135	135
<i>of which:</i>					Activity rate (%)	62	61	66	65
Surinam	181.6	182.2	184.2	185.0	Unemployment rate (%)	16	14	12	10
Turkey	169.3	172.7	175.5	178.0	Turkey ⁷				
Indonesia	174.8	172.1	170.3	168.0	Total labour force (thousands)	79	83	84	90
Morocco	142.7	145.8	149.6	152.7	Activity rate (%)	44	45	44	45
Germany	128.0	126.8	125.5	124.2	Unemployment rate (%)	25	22	17	13
Naturalisations	82.7	59.8	59.2	62.1	Morocco ⁷				
<i>of which:</i>					Total labour force (thousands)	59	65	71	74
Morocco	15.6	10.5	11.3	14.2	Activity rate (%)	42	44	45	45
Former Yugoslavia	1.8	2.9	6.7	8.0	Unemployment rate (%)	29	21	20	18
Turkey	30.7	21.2	13.5	5.2	Antilles/Aruba ⁷				
Surinam	4.4	3.0	3.0	3.2	Total labour force (thousands)	34	35	37	43
European Union	3.5	2.9	2.4	2.1	Activity rate (%)	58	57	57	61
Naturalisation rate (%)	11.4	8.8	8.7	9.4	Unemployment rate (%)	21	21

1. Data are taken from population registers, which include some asylum seekers.

2. The administrative corrections account for unreported entries and departures on the population register.

3. Data are from population registers and refer to the population on 31 December of the years indicated. Figures include administrative corrections.

4. Estimates are for 31 March and include cross-border workers, but exclude the self-employed and family workers.

5. "Allochtonous" refers to persons who have at least one parent who is born abroad.

6. "Autochtonous" refers to persons who have both parents who are born in the Netherlands.

7. Persons who have at least one parent who is born in the mentioned country.

Sources: Central Bureau of Statistics; Ministry of Justice; Labour Force Survey.

the number of applicants does not directly reflect on the migration surplus. In 1999, only 13 500 people were granted a humanitarian or refugee status compared with 24 200 in 1996. The available data for 2000 indicate a stabilisation around the 1999 level. The three most important sending countries are Serbia-Montenegro, Afghanistan and Iraq; together they account for about 30% of the total.

2. Structure and changes in the foreign-born and foreign population

Numerical trends

The foreign-born population has increased continuously from 1 407 100 in 1995 to 1 556 300 in 1999 but the natural growth of the foreign population has decreased from 10 900 in 1995 to 8 100 in 1999. Compared to previous years, mortality among foreigners has stabilised around 2 000 and fertility rates have shown a decrease. In 1999, 30% of the foreign population is EU national, 18% Moroccan and 15% Turkish.

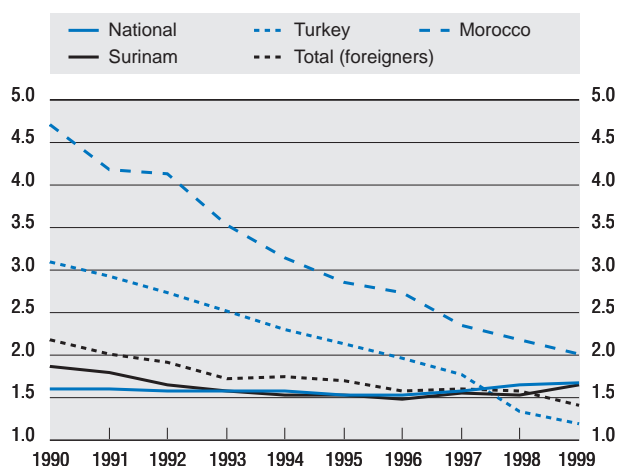
The foreign population has at the same time decreased continuously from 757 100 in 1995 to 651,500 in 1999 (see Table III.26). The decrease can be attributed to the high rate of naturalisations (62 100 in 1999) which has for the fourth consecutive year been high enough to offset the migration gain.

Fertility of the foreign population has been on average below the fertility rate of Dutch nationals since 1997. The decrease in fertility rate of the foreign population, which has been almost continuous over the last two decades, can in part be explained by convergence to the fertility rate in the host country (see Chart III.10), and in part by naturalisation.

Mixed marriages

There has been a slight increase in the number of mixed marriages between Dutch nationals and foreigners (from 12 300 in 1998 to 13 100 in 1999). The number of mixed marriages involving Turkish or Moroccan partners decreased slightly during that period. Dutch men marrying with foreign women account for 60% of the total number of mixed marriages. There may well be a large number of marriages between two persons of the same ethnic group that do not appear from the statistics because of the high rate of naturalisation of foreigners.

Chart III.10. Fertility rates according to the nationality of the mother, 1990-1999, Netherlands
Per 1 000 women



Source: Statistics Netherlands.

Naturalisations

After a record increase since 1992 (from 36 200 to 82 700 in 1997) the rate of naturalisations has been decreasing due to restrictions to the right to dual citizenship. The rate seems to have stabilised since 1998 (62 090 in 1999).

3. Migration and the labour market

Migration for employment and work permits

The number of applications for employment permits has increased from 19 800 in 1998 to 24 000 in 1999. This trend appears to be confirmed in the first two quarters of 2000 with 13 800 applications. The number of issued permits increased sharply from 15 200 in 1998 to 20 800 in 1999 but seems to have stabilised at that level (11 600 in the first two quarters of 2000). Employment permits that are granted to Iraqi, Russian, Polish and Afghani immigrants show very strong increases from 1998 to 1999; taken together they account for 5 129 employment permits (compared with 3 236 in 1998). The increase is partly a result of the employment of asylum seekers.

It should be noted that the number of Dutch nationals (mainly West Indians and Arubans) immigrating into the Netherlands has increased dramatically. As they possess Dutch passports, they do not need a work permit; their numbers do not consequently show in the above figures. The influx of EU-nationals has been stable over the past few years (see Section 1).

Labour market integration

There were 666 700 allochthonous workers in the labour force in 1999; this makes a proportion of 14% in total labour force.

Unemployment of allochthonous workers has decreased in parallel with the total unemployment rate, but not at the same pace. Allochthonous unemployment remains high, especially for those of non-western origin (13% compared with 2% for native Dutch). The Dutch government aims to reduce the wide employment/unemployment disparities between native and foreign workers by 50% between 1999 and 2002. Those hardest hit are of Turkish, Moroccan and West Indian/Aruban nationality (with unemployment rates of 18%, 15% and 12%, respectively).

4. Policy developments

A new Aliens Act will come into effect mid 2001 and aims to simplify and shorten procedures for asylum-seekers.

Admission and residence (including integration measures)

The new Act makes it impossible for foreigners to apply for a permit in the Netherlands; they can only do so at the Dutch embassy in their country of residence. To qualify for a residence permit, the new Act requires that the applicant prove that he (she) has sufficient means to provide not only for him/her (as under the old laws) but also for the person with whom he (she) will reside. In cases of family reunion the applicant has to provide sufficient means for all members of his (her) family; Dutch nationals are no longer exempted from this requirement.

Refugees and asylum

The Aliens Act has shortened the asylum procedure. As a consequence, it has become easier to expel unwanted foreigners. Asylum seekers may obtain a permanent residence permit after three years if they meet all conditions and other migrants may do so after five years.

Measures to combat the illegal employment of foreigners

An official investigation took place in the first six months of 2000 in the horticultural sector in the West of the Netherlands and revealed that 10% of all employees were illegally employed. Legal measures have now been implemented to make it more difficult for employers previously convicted of illegal employment of foreign workers to recommence. It is as yet too early to assess the effects of this new policy.

Box III.7. New definition for Allochtonous

In the summer of 1999 the Dutch Bureau of Statistics (CBS) introduced a new terminology in immigration statistics. Whereas in the past it used different concepts on immigration categories that were related to the country of birth of the person involved or of his/her parents, the new definitions are consistent.

An allochthonous is a person of whom at least one parent was born abroad. There are two groups of allochthonous people. The first-generation allochthonous are born abroad with at least one foreign-born parent. The second-generation allochthonous are born in the Netherlands but have one or both parents born abroad. People who are born in the Netherlands whose parents are both born in the Netherlands are referred to as autochthonous.

Future immigration statistics will be given using the 1999 definitions of allochthonous and autochthonous. Table III.27 gives for 1998 total labour force, participation rate and unemployment rate statistics by ethnic background for both the pre-1999 and the 1999 definitions of foreign born and allochthonous workers. Allochthonous comprises both first and second generation, that is, all people with at least one parent born abroad.

Table III.27. Total labour force, participation rate and unemployment rate of the “autochthonous” and “allochthonous” populations according to old and new definitions, 1998, Netherlands

	Old definition ¹	New definition ²
“Autochthonous”		
Total labour force (thousands)	6 294	5 852
Activity rate (%)	67	67
Unemployment rate (%)	3	4
“Allochthonous” – Total		
Total labour force (thousands)	663	1 086
Activity rate (%)	57	59
Unemployment rate (%)	12	11
“Allochthonous” from Turkey		
Total labour force (thousands)	61	84
Activity rate (%)	44	44
Unemployment rate (%)	28	17
“Allochthonous” from Morocco		
Total labour force (thousands)	54	71
Activity rate (%)	46	45
Unemployment rate (%)	20	20
“Allochthonous” from other Mediterranean countries ³		
Total labour force (thousands)	50	..
Activity rate (%)	58	62
Unemployment rate (%)	14	10
“Allochthonous” from Surinam		
Total labour force (thousands)	126	135
Activity rate (%)	70	66
Unemployment rate (%)	9	12
“Allochthonous” from Antilles/Aruba		
Total labour force (thousands)	25	37
Activity rate (%)	59	57
Unemployment rate (%)	17	..

1. According to the old CBS definition, “Allochthonous” are foreigners plus Dutch nationals born outside the Netherlands.

2. According to the 1999 CBS definition, “Allochthonous” are persons who have at least one parent who is born abroad.

3. Italy, Spain, Portugal, Greece, Former Yugoslavia, Tunisia and Algeria.

Source: Labour Force Survey, CBS.

NEW ZEALAND

I. Trends in migration movements

The number of permanent and long-term (PLT) departures³ from New Zealand has been steadily increasing throughout the 1990s. While high levels of immigration meant that net migration remained positive until recent years, a decline in immigration, coupled with steadily increasing emigration meant the 1998/99 financial year saw the first period of negative migration in the 1990s with net migration of -11 365. This continued in 1999/2000 (albeit with a slight reduction), with a net migration total of -9 760 (see Chart III.11 and Table III.28).

As illustrated in Table III.29, however, New Zealanders make up a significant proportion of the flow of permanent and long-term arrivals and departures.

Inflows and outflows of foreign-born

The annual immigration target for 1999/2000 was 38 000 residence approvals. There was a shortfall of around 7 000 in meeting the 1998/1999 target, also set at 38 000. However, residence approvals increased in 1999/2000 with over 36 000 people granted residence.⁴ Chart III.12 shows that 51% of approvals were made under New Zealand's skilled immigration policy (General Skills and Business Categories), 40% under Family Sponsored policy (Family and Humanitarian Categories) and 5% to refugees (UNHCR mandated refugees granted residence under the Refugee Quota Programme and persons found to have a genuine claim to refugee status).

As in the previous year, the United Kingdom (UK) remained the top source country for migrants to New Zealand, accounting for 13% of residence approvals in 1999/2000. The UK was followed by South Africa, India and the People's Republic of China accounting for 10% of the total migrant intake each. A significant proportion of all other migrants came from the Asia and Pacific regions. Residence flows from the Pacific are partially underpinned by the Samoan Quota, under which up to 1 100 Samoan citizens may be granted residence each year.

Chart III.11. **Flows of permanent and long-term residents, 1991/1992-1999/2000, New Zealand**

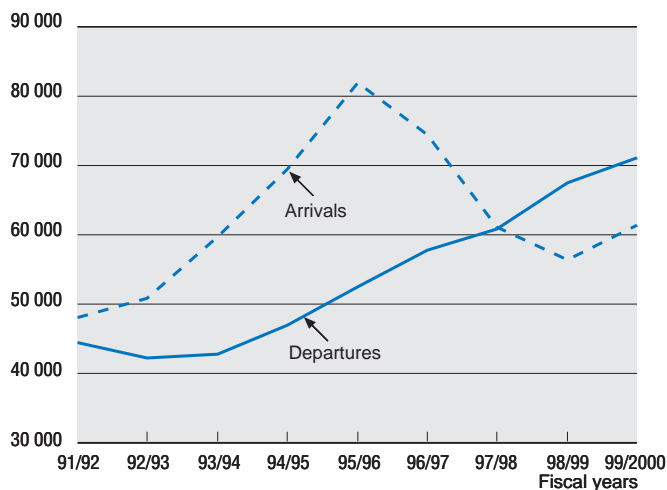


Table III.28. **Net migration, 1992/1993-1999/2000, New Zealand**

1992/1993	8 702
1993/1994	16 815
1994/1995	22 729
1995/1996	29 506
1996/1997	16 770
1997/1998	450
1998/1999	-11 365
1999/2000	-9 760

Source: Statistics New Zealand.

Table III.29. Permanent and long term arrivals and departures, 1999/2000, New Zealand

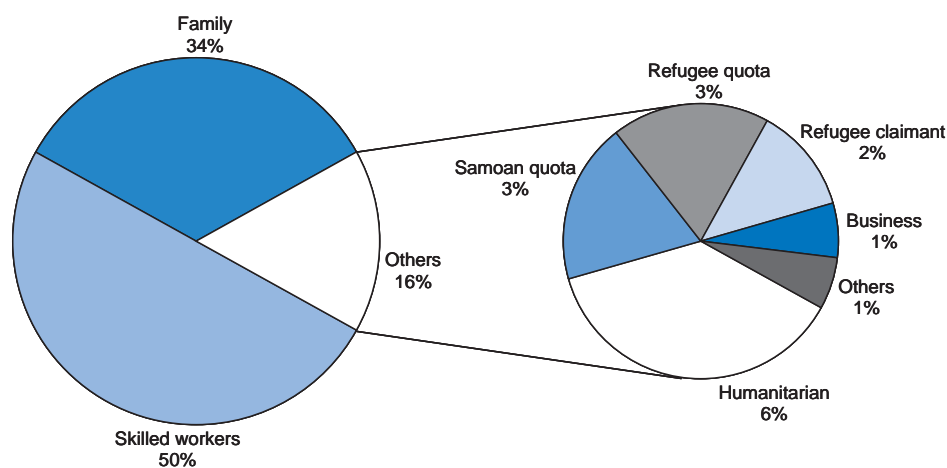
Top ten countries of birth

Arrivals		Departures	
New Zealand	22 509	New Zealand	55 444
United Kingdom	6 228	Australia	3 214
China	4 916	United Kingdom	3 122
Australia	3 704	Japan	1 470
Japan	3 631	United States	946
India	2 324	China	406
South Africa	2 107	Samoa	366
Fiji	1 421	Fiji	277
United States	1 160	India	231
Samoa	978	South Africa	217
Total Top 10	48 978	Total Top 10	65 693
Other countries	12 307	Other countries	5 352
Total – all arrivals	61 285	Total – all departures	71 045

Source: Statistics New Zealand.

Chart III.12. Persons accepted for residence, by category of immigration, 1999/2000, New Zealand

Percentages



Source: NZIS Statistics.

2. Policy developments

Key immigration policy developments in New Zealand during 1999/2000 include the following.

Migrant Settlement and Refugee Resettlement Policy

The development of an integrated migrant settlement and refugee resettlement strategy was a key priority during 1999/2000. The purpose of the strategy is to ensure that the settlement needs of refugees and migrants are met in a systematic and comprehensive way. As part of this process a number of pilot settlement

programmes were developed. These pilots will be provided by third parties and will build on successful existing programmes while being open to innovative approaches from the community. The pilots will be operational in 2001, and will be evaluated in 2002.

Working Holiday Schemes

The previous cap of 10 000 on the total number of working holiday makers able to enter New Zealand in any given year has been increased to 20 000. Similarly, the number of places available to working holiday makers under each individual scheme has been increased in most cases. New arrangements have also been concluded with Germany and Hong Kong. The introduction of further schemes with a range of other countries is expected to continue in 2000/2001.

Family Sponsored Immigration

A first principles review of family sponsored immigration policy (the Family and Humanitarian Categories) was started in 1999/2000. The review culminated in the preparation of reports on the possible establishment of a refugee sponsored programme; the future of the Humanitarian Category; the definition of family; managing the costs of family sponsored immigration; and provisions for (migrant) victims of domestic violence.

Immigration Programme Approvals Management

As part of the review of family sponsored immigration policy, developmental work commenced on an immigration programme approvals management system which (among other things) has discrete sub-streams for family sponsored and international/humanitarian. The new target management system is likely to become operational in 2001/2002.

Transitional Provisions for Well-Settled Overstayers

A streamlined removal process and appeal provision came into full effect on 1 October 1999. From that point, those who are in New Zealand illegally have 42 days to appeal, after which they are liable to immediate removal. Those overstayers who had become well settled⁵ would be subject to this new provision, and are therefore being given the opportunity to apply to regularise their immigration status between 1 October 2000 and 30 March 2001. People who successfully apply will be granted an open work permit, and will be permitted to apply for New Zealand residence after a two-year period.

NORWAY

Introduction

In early 1999, the period of strong economic growth enjoyed by the Norwegian economy since 1991 was interrupted, primarily due to the drop in world oil prices. Despite the recovery in the second quarter of 1999, Norway's GDP grew at a lower rate than in previous years (*i.e.* 0.8% in 1999 and 1.8% in 2000), while unemployment levelled off in 1999 and rose slightly in 2000 (3.4%).

Despite this unfavourable economic situation, immigration again increased in 1999, with a net migration gain of 19 540. The new government intends to continue the policy of relaxing immigration rules initiated by the preceding coalition.

I. Trends in migration movements

Emigration

In 1999, approximately 22 850 people, including 10 150 nationals, emigrated from Norway, a decrease of some 0.2% over the previous year. Given the overall population of some 4.5 million, the immigration rate was 0.5% in 1999, which was the same as in 1998 and is very high compared to the late 1980s (see Table III.30).

While approximately 28.5% of Norwegian emigrants moved to another Scandinavian country (+30% over 1998), nearly twice as many foreigners did so (53.3%). This reflects significantly greater mobility of foreigners within the Nordic area since 1998. Between 1990 and 1997, only one foreign emigrant in three moved elsewhere in the area.

Inflows and outflows of foreigners

Since 1996, immigration to Norway had mainly been stimulated by its economic performance, but in 1999 the increase in net migration was primarily due to the very large influx of asylum seekers from Kosovo.

A total of nearly 41 850 people (foreigners and Norwegians) entered Norway in 1999, an increase of 14% over 1998 and 39% over 1997. This gain was reflected in net migration. In 1999, 32 200 foreigners immigrated to Norway while 12 700 emigrated, giving a net migration for the foreign population of 19 550 (1998: 13 800; 1997: 10 700) (see Table III.30).

In 1999, nearly a quarter of immigrants were nationals of Nordic countries, in particular Sweden (4 500), Denmark (1 780) and Finland (fewer than 1 500). However, while only Swedish immigration made a significant contribution to net migration in 1998 (+3 300), in 1999 this figure fell to only 980 people. Some 3 300 immigrants were from another country of the European Economic Area.

Another significant development in 1999 was the increase in the number of nationals from the former Yugoslavia (1999: 6 450; 1998: 315). Similarly, the number of Iraqi nationals doubled to 2 050 in 1999, most of whom were members of the Kurdish minority.

Illegal immigration

In 1998, nearly 350 cases of illegal immigration were recorded by the national Bureau of Crime Investigation (530 in 1998), half of which involved trafficking in human beings (slightly over a quarter in 1998). Although the total number of illegal immigrants seems to be dropping, the number of cases of trafficking in human beings has more than tripled since 1996.

Refugees and asylum seekers

Asylum seekers form one of the main categories of immigrants, and made the largest contribution to changes in net migration in 1999, with a total of 10 160 cases recorded (as compared with 8 540 cases in 1998, an increase of 19%, see Table III.30). This large increase can be explained by an influx of asylum seekers from Iraq (4 070), the former Yugoslavia (1 170) and Somalia (1 340). In 1999, only 181 people obtained refugee status in the strict sense, while a further 3 032 were accepted on humanitarian grounds (1 810 more than in 1998).

Under a refugee resettlement programme, a further quota of 1 500 people may be accepted each year. In 1998, some 1 120 refugees were accepted under the programme, chiefly Iranians and Iraqis.

The Norwegian authorities, in conjunction with the UNHCR, have also established a system of collective protection for particular emergency cases. This has been applied on two occasions between 1993 and 1998, for Bosnians (13 000 people over this period) and in 1999 for Kosovars (nearly 8 000 people were admitted on this basis in one year).

It should also be mentioned that in 1999 approximately 1 540 people (915 in 1998) were accepted under the relaxed family reunion conditions for refugees introduced in June 1997.

Table III.30. **Current figures on flows and stocks of foreign population, Norway**

Figures in thousands unless otherwise indicated

	1996	1997	1998	1999		1996	1997	1998	1999
Total population¹	4 392.7	4 417.6	4 445.4	4 478.5	Asylum seekers by nationality	1.8	2.3	8.5	10.2
% of foreigners	3.6	3.6	3.7	4.0	Croatia	-	0.1	2.5	0.1
Migration flows by group of nationality					Former Yugoslavia ²	0.1	0.3	1.2	1.2
Inflows	26.4	32.0	36.7	41.8	Iraq	0.1	0.3	1.3	4.1
Nationals	9.2	9.9	10.0	9.6	Somalia	0.2	0.6	0.9	1.3
Foreigners	17.2	22.0	26.7	32.2	Other	1.4	1.0	2.7	3.5
of which:					Foreign population by region	157.5	158.0	165.1	178.7
Nordic countries	5.8	8.6	10.4	8.1	Europe	95.9	100.9	108.2	118.3
EU (15 members)	7.7	10.8	13.3	11.0	Asia	34.9	31.5	31.1	33.3
Outflows	20.6	21.3	22.9	22.8	Africa	10.0	9.7	10.1	11.6
Nationals	10.6	11.2	10.9	10.2	North America	10.6	10.4	10.5	10.3
Foreigners	10.0	10.0	12.0	12.7	South America	4.6	4.2	4.1	4.0
of which:					Other	1.6	1.2	1.1	1.2
Nordic countries	3.4	3.9	5.4	6.8	Acquisition of nationality by previous nationality (units)	12 237	12 037	9 244	7 988
EU (15 members)	5.1	5.5	6.9	8.1	of which:				
Net migration	5.8	10.7	13.8	19.0	Former Yugoslavia	554	520	560	1 176
Nationals	-1.3	-1.3	-0.9	-0.5	Vietnam	1 446	1 276	781	651
Foreigners	7.2	12.0	14.7	19.5	Chile	531	416	240	252
of which:					Mixed marriages (units)	3 194	2 959	4 100	3 975
Nordic countries	2.5	4.7	5.0	1.4	% of total marriages	13.8	12.4	17.5	16.0
EU (15 members)	2.6	5.4	6.4	2.9					

1. Data on 31 December of the years indicated, taken from population registers.

2. Excluding Bosnia Herzegovina and Croatia.

Sources: Statistics Norway; Directorate of Immigration.

2. Structure and changes in the foreign population

Numerical trends

The total population of Norway rose by 33 170 people in 1999 (0.6%) and totalled 4.47 million at the end of the year. Given the record immigration registered in 1999, the number of foreign residents rose appreciably faster, by approximately 8.2%. At the end of 1999, the resident foreign population totalled 1 78 700 (1998: 165 000), or 3.9% of the total population (see Table III.30).

European Union nationals account for a little under half the total (44%) and within this group nationals of Nordic countries account in turn for around 60%. As a result of the migration flows described above, the predominance of European immigrants in the broad sense has accentuated over recent years. Nationals of Asian and African countries account for only 18.6 and 6.4 respectively of all foreigners.

Swedish nationals constitute the largest group of foreign residents (1998: 24 000; 1999: 25 130), followed by nationals of Denmark (1998: 19 100; 1999: 19 200), Bosnia Herzegovina (1998: 11 800; 1999: 12 200), the United Kingdom (1998: 11 200; 1999: 11 360) and the former Yugoslavia (1998: 5 500; 1999: 10 250).

Mixed marriages

Around 16% of all marriages contracted in Norway in 1999 were mixed. The breakdown by nationality shows considerable differences: while over 90% of North American nationals marry a native-born Norwegian, the figure is only 69% for Asians and Africans.

Naturalisations

During the 1980s, the annual number of naturalisations ranged from 1 800 to 4 600. They averaged approximately 5 000 at the beginning of the 1990s. In 1999, some 8 000 foreigners acquired Norwegian nationality (see Table III.30).

Although the figure is relatively high, it represents a significant decline compared with previous years (1996: 12 200; 1997: 12 000; 1998: 9 400). In 1999, the number of naturalisations of nationals of Pakistan (106) and Turkey (170) fell sharply (1 090 and 705 respectively in 1998), while the number of nationals of the former Yugoslavia residing in Norway rose (1998: 560; 1999: 1 176). This shows the backlog that has built up in the administration responsible for naturalisations, no doubt due to the growing number of applications filed by Bosnian refugees who now meet the seven-year minimum residence requirement.

3. Migration and the labour market

Migration for employment and work permits

In 1999, Norway experienced an economic downturn that will inevitably have repercussions on the employment of foreigners, and the growth rate might continue to be under 2% in 2001 (1.8% in 2000). Nevertheless, unemployment still remains low (3.4% in 2000, compared with 3.2% in 1999), and there has not been a substantial deterioration of the situation of foreigners on the labour market. In 1999, there was still a significant need for foreign labour.

By 1996, the Norwegian authorities recognised that it could prove necessary to recruit foreign workers in some sectors, especially construction and health care. In 1999, 118 doctors were recruited, mainly from Germany, Austria and France. During the same period, 300 nurses were recruited from Finland.

Nationals of Nordic countries can settle and work freely in Norway and do not need a residence or work permit. Nationals of the European Union do not require a permit to work in Norway but must apply for a residence permit for a stay of longer than three months. In 1999, 4 850 residence permits were issued on this basis, including some to people not necessarily wanting to work.

Nationals of all other countries must obtain work permits. In 1999, some 19 300 work permits were issued. The permanent work permits were largely issued to immigrants on family reunion grounds.

Seasonal permits are available, in particular to meet temporary demand in the agricultural sector. The quota was set at 6 810 in 1997, and raised to 8 000 in 1998 and 8 188 in 1999. Over 90% of seasonal workers are from Central and Eastern Europe, in particular Poland.

Labour market integration

After declining until 1998, unemployment grew to 3.2% in 1999 and 3.4% in 2000. Unemployment among the immigrant population is considerably higher. However, between 1998 and 1999, contrary to the trend for Norwegian workers, immigrant unemployment fell from 7.1% in 1998 to 6.3% in 1999.

The extent of unemployment varies by region of origin. While unemployment among nationals of Nordic countries is the same as for Norwegians (2.6% in 2000), unemployment among immigrants from Western European countries is only slightly higher than for Norwegians (3.2%), while unemployment among African, Asian and Latin American immigrants is much higher (14.2%, 10.4% and 8.7% respectively). Some headway should be noted in this area, however, as with nationals of Central and Eastern European countries, for whom unemployment has fallen from 17.1% to 9.9% in only four years (up slightly over 1999).

4. Policy developments

Admission and residence (including integration measures)

Lowering unemployment among foreigners remains an important policy objective of the new government, which is focusing on measures aimed at increasing the employability of foreigners (skills, mastery of language) and combating discrimination against them.

The government has therefore created a legal working group to propose changes in the education and training system available new immigrants. A major problem for the labour market integration of foreigners is recognition of their diplomas. For this reason, the Education Ministry is studying reform proposals to improve the rules for recognising foreign qualifications. The government is also promoting the recruitment of qualified foreigners in the public sector so as to reflect the multicultural nature of Norwegian society.

The Ministry of Local Government and Regional Development has also commissioned a three-year study on foreigners and the labour market and on the problems and discrimination that they face. At the legislative level, an amendment of Section 55A of the Working Environment Act, which prohibits discrimination on the basis of race, colour or national or ethnic origin, was adopted in 1998. A number of measures aimed at ensuring better integration of new immigrants have been prepared in consultation with representatives of trade unions and management (financial incentives for businesses that employ immigrants, a system of sponsoring to promote the integration of immigrants in the workplace).

With regard to the issuing of work permits to foreigners, the government has proposed two reforms to Parliament, i) authorising seasonal permits throughout the year (they are currently limited to the period running from 15 May to 31 October); and ii) lowering the minimum education requirement for work permits (which is at present three years of higher education). Special measures have been taken to relax the regulations on work permits for nationals of Barents Sea countries, allowing Norwegian fishery firms to hire Russian workers. The nationals of Central and Eastern European countries should also benefit from this amendment.

Naturalisation

As a rule, foreigners may acquire Norwegian nationality after they have legally resided in the country for seven years. Individuals with a criminal record may be denied naturalisation. There are no language requirements or financial prerequisites. Despite the backlog that has built up in the administration responsible for naturalisation, no decision to relax the legislation has been made.

Refugees and asylum

Two significant amendments were made to the asylum rules in 1999. As from 1 July 2000, responsibility for questioning asylum-seekers will be transferred from the police to the immigration department. In addition,

the Norwegian Parliament approved the establishment of an independent panel to hear appeals against denials of refugee status. Appeals are currently handled by the Justice Ministry.

Combating illegal immigration

In order to combat illegal immigration, the Immigration Act was amended in 1997 and the prison sentence for organising the illegal entry of foreigners into Norway for financial gain was raised from a maximum of two to five years.

International agreements

For over 40 years the "Nordic Passport" has guaranteed complete freedom of movement among the five Nordic countries. Ultimately, however, free movement within the Nordic countries can now continue only if they introduce regulations compatible with the Schengen Agreement, whether or not they belong to the European Union.

Following ratification of the Amsterdam Treaty in May 1999, Norway and Iceland have to conclude co-operation agreements with the States party to the Schengen Agreements. For Norway, the process has been under way since 25 March 2001.

POLAND

Introduction

After a period of strong economic growth between 1994 and 1997 (averaging 6.5%), GDP growth slowed between 1998 and 1999, and was down to 4% in 2000. The unemployment rate has been rising again since 1998 and stood at 16% in 2000.

Poland remains an emigration country, although outflows have decreased sharply in recent years. It also remains a transit country for persons wishing to emigrate to European Union countries. As Poland is seeking to join the EU, changes in its migration legislation can be expected in the near future in order to bring it into line with norms in Member States.

1. Trends in migration movements

Emigration

In 1999, Poland experienced a net migration loss of 14 000 people (see Table III.31), while the natural population increase stood at 600, which means that its population is decreasing in size for the first time since the Second World War. Consequently, since 1999 emigration has been responsible for a decline in the total population.

The available figures on permanent emigration (settlement abroad for a period equal to or in excess of one year) considerably underestimate the true outward flows as large numbers of migrants do not notify the authorities of their departure. The extent of permanent emigration fluctuates considerably, with a marked decline sometimes being followed by a similarly sharp increase. However, the amplitude of the fluctuations has since 1990 been much less marked than during the two previous decades; since 1996, the flow has stabilised at between 20 000 and 22 000 permanent exits per year, with 21 500 in 1999. These figures are quite close to those observed between 1990 and 1992 and are much lower than those for 1987-89 (see Chart III.13).

In 1999, the flow towards Germany was slightly down, decreasing from 72.7% to 71.3% of the total emigration flow. Europe received over 82% of Polish emigrants in that year. These flows are largely comprised of

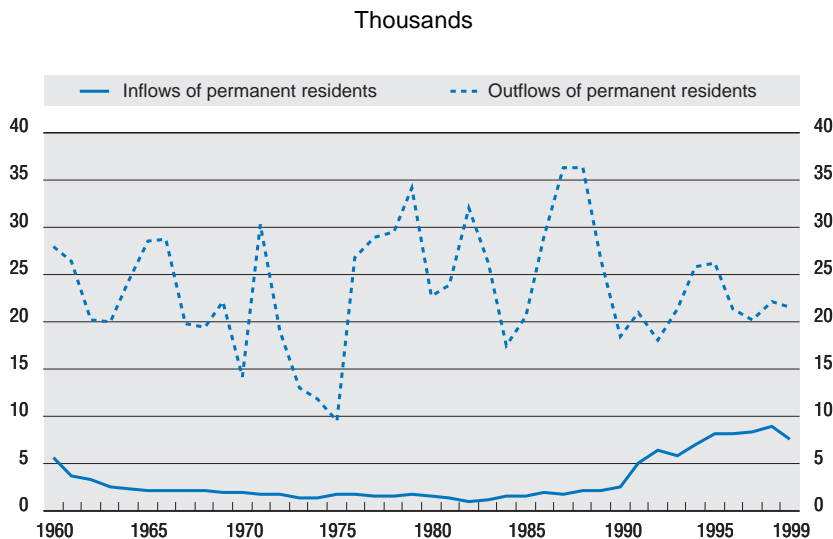
Table III.31. Current figures on migration flows and stocks of foreigners in Poland

Thousands								
	1996	1997	1998	1999	Total	Permanent residence	Fixed-time residence	
Migration flows¹					Stock of foreign citizens³ (31 December 1999)			
Inflows	8.2	8.4	8.9	7.5	Europe	24.7	14.9	9.8
Outflows	-21.3	-20.2	-22.2	-21.5	Germany	1.9	1.1	0.9
Net migration	-13.1	-11.8	-13.3	-14.0	Russian Federation	4.4	3.2	1.2
					Ukraine	7.0	4.1	2.9
					Other Eastern European countries	7.6	4.6	3.0
Permanent residence permits issued by nationality²					Other European countries	3.8	2.0	1.8
Ukraine	0.6	1.0	0.9	2.6	United States	1.4	0.5	0.8
Vietnam	0.3	0.3	0.7	1.5	Canada	0.3	0.1	0.1
Fed. Rep. of Yugoslavia	0.0	0.0	0.1	1.2	Vietnam	3.3	1.5	1.8
Russian Federation	0.3	0.3	0.4	1.1	Others	13.2	6.1	7.1
Germany	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.8	Total	42.8	23.1	19.7
Other countries	1.5	2.2	2.7	10.0				
Total	2.8	4.1	5.1	17.2				
<i>of which:</i>							1998	1999
Permission for settlement	0.3	0.5	Work permits granted by occupation			
Permission for fixed -time residence	4.8	16.7	Manager		3.5	4.2
					Owner		4.6	4.2
					Expert, consultant		2.4	2.5
					Teacher		1.6	1.9
					Skilled worker		1.8	1.5
					Unskilled worker		0.5	0.4
					Other		2.6	2.5
					Total		16.9	17.1

- Persons who entered Poland (including returning Polish emigrants) and registered in the Central Population Register (PESEL) after obtaining a permanent residence permit. Figures in the table may be underestimated since not all children accompanying immigrants are registered.
- Data on permanent residence permits issued are not linked with data from the Central Population Register and therefore are not comparable. There is a break in series in 1998: since 1 January 1998, two types of permits can be delivered: "permission to settlement" and "fixed-time residence permit".
- Estimates made by the Ministry of the Interior on the basis of the number of permanent residents who renewed their permit as it is stipulated by the 1997 Alien Law.

Sources: Central Statistical Office; Office for Migration and Refugee Affairs; Ministry of the Interior.

Chart III.13. Permanent migration flows in Poland, 1960-1999



Note: Persons who entered Poland (including returning Polish emigrants) and registered in the Central Population Register (PESEL) after obtaining a permanent residence permit. Some children accompanying immigrants are not counted. Outflows only cover departures of permanent residents registered in the Central Population Register.

Source: Central Statistical Office.

people with a low level of education (over 75% had gone no further than primary school). Nevertheless, the proportion of those with a good level of professional training is rising.

Silesia is still one of the main emigration regions, 62% of all Polish emigrants coming from three of its administrative units. It is a region from which the German-speaking minority was very prone to emigrate in the early 1990s.

Inflows and outflows of foreigners

As the Polish authorities have changed the rules governing the issuance of residence permits, it is difficult to compare the figures for immigration into Poland before 1998 with the current figures. Formerly, the “immigrant” category covered all new permanent residents arriving from abroad, whether they were Polish or not. However, a new Aliens Act came into force in 1997. It stipulates the conditions governing the stay of foreigners and sets out their rights and duties in Poland. It also brings the status of refugees and asylum seekers into line with the principles of the Geneva Convention. The new provisions adopted in 1998 have led to the establishment of two different kinds of residence status for foreigners, one entitling them to settle in the country (permanent residence) and the other granting a renewable two-year right of temporary residence. Between 1998 and 1999, the number of residence permits issued doubled, mainly because of the growth in the issuance of temporary residence permits (see Table III.31).

Three characteristics of inflow patterns stand out: *i*) the roughly equal numbers of men and women entering since 1993, with slightly more men; *ii*) the predominance of migrants from Europe (60% from Germany), the Americas (mainly from the United States, which accounts for 14% of entries) and Asia (although the number of Vietnamese is declining); and *iii*) the large proportion of young people among the new arrivals (approximately 60% are under the age of 40).

Refugees and asylum seekers

After increasing between 1996 and 1997 from 850 applications to some 3 550, the number of asylum seekers then began to decline (by 11.8%), mainly due to the drop in asylum seekers from the former Yugoslavia and Sri Lanka. The figures were also lower for other nationalities, such as nationals of Bangladesh, India, Iraq, Pakistan and Somalia, which suggests that the routes used to smuggle immigrants into Western Europe may be shifting and that fewer illegal immigrants may be transiting through Poland because of stricter border controls.

In 1999, some 870 Armenians requested asylum, which was slightly fewer than in previous years (1998: 1 000), followed by nationals of Afghanistan (560). However, there was an increase in applications by nationals of Bulgaria, Romania, Russia and Mongolia. In 1998, the Polish authorities decided to require Armenians wishing to come to Poland to obtain a visa because of the large number of asylum requests.

Illegal immigration

Poland remains one of the main transit countries for migrants heading towards Western Europe even though for the majority of nationals of Romania, Bulgaria and countries of the former Soviet Union, Poland is their final destination. Formerly intercepted at the Eastern borders, illegal immigrants now attempt to enter Poland via the borders with the Slovak and Czech Republics. Border controls have been improved and there has been a drop in the number of foreigners intercepted since 1995, which might indicate that the number of people attempting illegal immigration has fallen and that the measures for combating smuggling of immigrants are more effective.

The undocumented foreigners apprehended in Poland are chiefly Romanian, (15%) Ukrainian (32%) and Bulgarian (22%).

In all, more than 8 500 foreigners were expelled in 1999 (up 7%). Since 1999, the number of undocumented foreigners readmitted into Poland under readmission agreements has decreased. They mainly come from Germany, and are mostly nationals of the former Yugoslavia and Afghanistan.

2. Structure and changes in the foreign population

Numerical trends

According to the new register incorporating the reform of the 1997 Aliens Act, which establishes a distinction between temporary and permanent residence permits, 42 800 foreigners were legally resident in Poland at the end of 1999 (See Table III.31). Approximately 54% of them held a permanent residence permit and 46% a temporary permit. Nationals of the republics of the former Soviet Union (Ukraine, Russia, Belarus and Armenia), Germany, Vietnam and the former Yugoslavia constitute the largest national groups.

However, these data do contain some significant distortions, for some foreigners are not registered, and their numbers are undoubtedly larger than the figures above show. To be included, foreigners must have applied for a residence permit, but they are only required to do so if they have resided in Poland for at least three months. Many foreigners from neighbouring countries (such as Ukraine) do not declare Poland as their main residence, even though they actually live there, but make a return trip to their home country every three months.

Mixed marriages

The number of mixed marriages has fallen after rising sharply in 1998, but still remains higher than the average for the decade as a whole (3 600 in 1999, as against an average of roughly 3 000 per year since 1990). The number of marriages between Polish men and foreign women has increased since 1990, and stood at 1 300 in 1999, while the number of marriages between Polish women and foreign men has remained relatively stable, ranging from 2 000 to 2 400 throughout the decade.

Mixed marriages accounted for fewer than 2% of the total marriages contracted in 1999. In that year there were more marriages with Ukrainian nationals than with Germans, who had been the first-ranking nationality in 1998.

3. Migration and the labour market

Migration for employment and work permits

Recent estimates of the number of Polish workers employed abroad suggest that in 1999 some 350 000 Poles were working legally outside Poland, of whom 300 000 were in Germany. It is estimated that between 100 000 to 120 000 of them have one-year work permits. Poland has signed bilateral migration agreements with some countries covering a total of 240 000 people, including 220 000 Poles holding seasonal jobs each year in Germany.

The data on the employment of foreign workers are incomplete. What are available are only rough estimates based on the number of work permits issued by the Polish authorities, which show that one-third of permits were granted to workers in small firms (fewer than five employees). The number of permits issued is tending to level off (20 600 in 1999), after having risen sharply every year (up 19% in 1998, giving a total of 20 700 permits). They are granted mainly to Ukrainians, followed by Belarus and Vietnamese nationals. Germans rank only fifth, after workers from the United Kingdom, but ahead of Russians and French. Western workers are no doubt employees of foreign companies setting up in Poland, and between 1998 and 1999 the sharpest increase was in French nationals (up 19%).

Immigration of skilled workers

The vast majority of work permits are granted to skilled workers (entrepreneurs, consultants and teachers). The proportion of unskilled employment (5% in 1997) declined further, while the number of self-employed workers rose. One-quarter of the entrepreneurs are Vietnamese, over half of the teachers are from the United Kingdom and Ukraine (in equal proportions) and 36% of manual workers (both skilled and unskilled) are Ukrainian. Senior managers come mainly from four Western countries: France, Germany, the United Kingdom and the United States (accounting for 39% of the total), although the Vietnamese appear to

be moving into this kind of jobs. Foreign workers are more attracted to the private sector than the public sector and most frequently have jobs in commerce or the hotel and catering sector.

Employment of undocumented workers

The National Labour Bureau estimated in a 1999 report that over the course of each year some 200 000 foreigners worked in the informal sector, mainly in seasonal jobs. Undocumented workers are primarily Ukrainian and Vietnamese nationals, with a sharp rise in the latter. Some German, French and Dutch nationals would also appear to be working illegally in Poland in large-scale projects to establish commercial centres. Many Germans from *Länder* bordering on Poland are thought to be working in north-western Poland. Many other undocumented foreigners hold jobs in the construction, catering and automobile sectors.

In 1999, following the reform of the Polish administration, responsibility for monitoring the legality of employment was transferred from the local (district) level to the sub-regional level, which seems to have reduced its effectiveness. Over 67 000 inspections (compared with 80 000 in 1998) led to the detection of some 1 500 illegal workers (2 500 in 1998, mainly Ukrainians, Bulgarians, Armenians and Vietnamese).

4. Policy developments

The political authorities have a full agenda in a number of areas. First, the government has taken two legislative initiatives regarding the regulation of migration flows. One of them, the Polish Nationality Act, concerns the acquisition, recovery and loss of Polish nationality, as well as the question of dual nationality. This Act replaces provisions dating from the beginning of the communist regime. The other initiative proposes to amend the 1997 Aliens Act in order to take into account criticisms from EU institutions. Both of these acts have been adopted by the lower House of Parliament.

Poland has been a candidate for membership of the European Union since 1997, and has entered into negotiations with the European authorities to determine the date when Member countries' labour markets will be opened to Polish workers and how this measure will be implemented. Some EU countries intend asking for derogation from the principal of free mobility of persons after the Polish accession to the EU. The Polish Government does not share this view.

Steps are also being taken to adapt Polish legislation on labour and foreigners to European standards, to reinforce border controls and strengthen co-operation with Germany regarding the movement of foreigners.

PORTUGAL

Introduction

Between 1996 and 1998, the Portuguese GDP grew at an average rate of 3.8%. Although this rate decelerated to 3.5% in 1999, unemployment has continued to decline, from 7.3% in 1996 to 4.5% in 1999. This economic buoyancy together with sustained employment growth largely explains, together with family reunion, the increased inflow of foreigners (6 500 in 1998; 10 500 in 1999).

As of 31 December 1999, Portugal's total resident population was estimated to be 10 million, an increase of 0.2% on the preceding year; this increase was due more to net migration (+10 400) than to natural variation (+7 800). The authorities estimate the number of Portuguese living abroad at about 4.8 million. Portugal is one of the few OECD countries that has a long-standing policy of facilitating the integration of its citizens living abroad.

1. Trends in migration movements

Emigration and return of nationals

The emigration of Portuguese nationals began to decrease in the second half of the 1970s, a trend that became a great deal more pronounced during the 1980s. In 1980 approximately 18 000 long-term (for more than one year) departures were recorded; by 1988 the figure was only 9 500. Departure statistics after 1988 are not comparable, since the type of passport on which the earlier data were based was abolished at that time. The free movement of Portuguese nationals within the European Union (EU) as of 1992 does not seem to have produced any significant upturn in permanent emigration to Member countries. Since 1993 the National Statistical Institute has been conducting a sample survey to estimate outflows. According to this survey, approximately 28 000 Portuguese nationals left the country in 1999, an increase of 26% on the preceding year (see Table III.32). This outward flow was overwhelmingly composed of temporary migrants (85.5%). Almost three-quarters of these persons were male. The principal countries of destination were France (26%), Germany (24%) and Switzerland (23%).

The Portuguese community abroad (both nationals and persons of Portuguese descent) has been estimated at 4.8 million, of whom more 60% reside in Brazil, the United States and France and almost 15% reside in other European Union countries. Remittances from Portuguese emigrants rose by 4.2% in Euro terms at current prices in 1999. The sum was equivalent to nearly 3% of GDP.

Return migration to Portugal, which picked up during the 1980s, fell back slightly in 1999 to 15 200. Most came from European Economic Area countries, mainly France, Germany, Spain, Switzerland and the United Kingdom.

Inflows and outflows of foreigners

The number of foreigners in possession of a residence permit rose by over 7% in 1999 to slightly less than 191 000. During the preceding four years the average annual rate of increase had been below 2% (see Table III.32). According to a survey by the National Statistical Institute, 14 500 immigrants made their first application for a permanent residence permit in 1999, almost two and a half times as many as in 1998. Just over one quarter of these persons had been born in Portugal to foreign parents. Of the remainder, 11% were from Brazil, just over one quarter from Portuguese-speaking African countries (in particular Cape Verde, Angola and Guinea-Bissau), almost 10% from Spain, 7.5% from Germany and just less than 7% from both France and the United Kingdom. In 1999, information regarding the reason for migration was collected for the first time: long-term employment and family reunion were each declared as being the motivating factor behind almost 30% of the moves.

The data on emigration by foreigners published for 1999 is not comparable with that of previous years. At slightly more than 400, the recorded figure was just over one tenth of that of 1998. Those departing were mostly Brazilian, German, Spanish, United States and United Kingdom nationals.

Refugees and asylum seekers

Having experienced an exceptional increase in asylum applications in 1993 (to total almost 1 700), with Romanians accounting for nearly two-thirds and Angolans for 20%, applications then fell back sharply. Since 1995 the figure has fluctuated between 250 and 500; the figure for 1999 was at the bottom end of this range. Of the 270 applications, approximately 20% were made by citizens of Eastern European countries (in particular, the former Yugoslavia and Romania); politically unstable African countries accounted for much of the remainder: these included, most notably, Sierra Leone (31%), Angola (13%), Nigeria (6%) and Algeria (5%).

2. Structure and changes in the foreign population

Numerical trends

The almost 191 000 foreigners legally residing in Portugal in 1999 accounted for just under 2% of the total population. Males outnumbered women by a ratio of almost three to two. Approximately two thirds of the

Table III.32. Current figures on flows and stocks of total population and labour force, Portugal

Figures in thousands unless otherwise indicated

	1996	1997	1998	1999
Emigration¹	32.8	37.8	22.2	28.1
of which: Women	8.8	8.8	7.0	8.0
Returns of nationals (estimates)²	20.1	15.3	17.4	15.2
First requests for a permit of permanent residence				
by region or country of origin	3.6	3.3	6.5	14.5
EU	2.0	1.9	2.9	4.6
of which:				
Germany	0.5	0.4	0.6	0.8
United Kingdom	0.5	0.3	0.5	0.8
Portuguese-Speaking African Countries	0.5	0.4	1.5	6.5
Brazil	0.3	0.3	0.7	1.4
Other countries	0.8	0.7	1.4	2.0
Asylum seekers	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3
Foreign population³	172.9	175.3	177.8	190.9
By region of residence				
Region of Lisboa	95.3	96.8	98.1	105.4
Region of Setúbal	16.0	16.2	16.4	18.0
Region of Algarve (Faro)	21.7	22.4	23.1	24.9
Other regions	39.9	39.9	40.2	42.6
By region of origin				
Africa	81.2	81.7	82.5	89.5
Europe	47.3	49.7	51.9	56.7
South America	27.7	25.3	24.9	25.8
North America	10.8	10.6	10.3	10.2
Other regions	5.9	8.0	8.2	8.7
Acquisition of Portuguese nationality	1.2	1.4	0.5	0.9
Mixed marriages	1.2	1.3	1.4	1.6
% of total marriages	1.9	2.2	2.1	2.3
Foreign labour force by professional status⁴	86.8	87.9	88.6	91.6
Self-employed	16.7	17.0	17.1	17.9
Wage earners	69.7	70.6	71.2	73.7

1. Survey on Outflows (INE).

2. This estimate under-represents the returns of non-working population.

3. Figures include all foreigners who hold a valid residence permit (including those who benefited from the 1996 regularisation programme).

4. Workers who hold a valid residence permit (including the unemployed). Data include workers who benefited from the 1996 regularisation programme.

Sources: Survey on Outflows (INE); Labour Force Survey (INE); Ministry of the Interior.

foreign community reside in the areas (*distrito*) of Lisbon and Setúbal. The second most important region of location was the Algarve with 13%.

Most of the foreigners originate either from Portuguese-speaking African countries (45%) or the European Union (28%). Cape Verde (23% of the foreign residents), Brazil (11%), Angola (9.3%), Guinea-Bissau (7.4%), the United Kingdom (7%) and Spain (5.8%) are the top six countries of origin of documented immigrants. It should be noted that whilst Moldavians, Romanians, Russians and Ukrainians are largely absent from the official data they are clearly present in the country as undocumented immigrants and clandestine workers.

Between 1995 and 1999, the stock of foreigners with residence permits increased by more than 13%; over the same period the total population increased by just 0.8%. Nationals of European Union countries accounted for most of this increase. The much smaller numbers of legally resident foreigners from some Eastern European countries (*e.g.* Romania and Russia) also rose significantly over this period (by more than two thirds). It is understood, moreover, that the figures from registered Russians, Ukrainians, Romanians and Moldavians are dwarfed by those for persons of these nationalities lacking proper documentation.

Mixed marriages

Continuing the upwards trend observed since 1996, there were 1 600 mixed marriages in 1999. They accounted for just over 2.4% of all marriages. The most numerous concerned Brazilians. In contrast to previous years, the majority of these marriages in 1999 were between Portuguese men and foreign women.

Naturalisations

Following the introduction in 1981 of the possibility of possessing dual nationality, the annual number of naturalisations remained very low until 1998 when the figure increased fivefold to over 500. In 1999, the figure almost doubled to 950 (see Table III.32). The overwhelming majority of naturalisations concerned non-European nationals from major countries of Portuguese emigration: Canadians, Venezuelans and United States citizens accounted for 40% of the total, Brazilians for 20% and nationals of Portuguese-speaking African countries for a further 28%.

3. Migration and the labour market**Migration for employment and work permits**

Since May 1998 the new Employment of Foreigners Act has allowed legally resident foreigners to work in Portugal without being subject to any numerical restrictions (under the previous legislation, the total number of foreigners employed in firms with five or more employees could not exceed 10% of the total workforce, though this rule did not apply to nationals of European Economic Area countries, or to nationals of countries which have bilateral agreements with Portugal, notably Brazil and Cape Verde).

The foreign labour force was estimated at 91 600 in December 1999, an increase of 3% on the previous year (see Table III.25). Nationals of Portuguese-speaking African countries accounted for almost half the total, Brazilians for 11% and European Economic Area nationals for slightly less than 30%. Approximately 80% are wage-earners. Highly qualified occupations are largely performed by Europeans and the low-skilled or unskilled jobs by those from developing countries.

In line with the national trend, the overall unemployment rate for foreigners fell from 5.6% to 4.9% in 1999. This overall figure masks, however, considerable differences between national groups: whereas, for example, the unemployment rates of Spaniards and Germans were below the national average, those of Angolans and citizens of São Tomé and Príncipe both exceeded 11%. This difference should, however, be treated with some caution as these figures do not include undocumented immigrants, the percentage of whom from African countries is disproportionately high.

4. Policy developments

Migration policy in Portugal has two facets, one applicable to the Portuguese community residing abroad and the other applicable to immigrants in Portugal. The two facets of this policy reflect coherent goals and explain the focus on migrants' rights, their political and social integration in the host country and objective information concerning their contribution to development.

Portuguese community abroad

The two main legislative developments in this field in 1999 and 2000 were the introduction of social assistance for the needy elderly among the Portuguese overseas communities and the implementation of the "Train in Portugal" programme. The first entitles elderly (over 65 years of age) persons of Portuguese origin living legally abroad and who are experiencing socio-economic needs that the local systems of social security or public aid can not satisfy to a monthly social subsidy corresponding to half of the difference between the Portuguese state pension and the social benefits available in the foreign country. The "Train in Portugal" programme, overseen by the Ministries of Foreign Affairs and of Labour and Solidarity, is targeted at young Portuguese nationals (aged between 18 and 30 years old) or young people of Portuguese descent living abroad. The

programme offers 1 000 fellowships of nine months duration in order to enable them to complement and perfect their socio-professional skills through training and experience in the Portuguese labour market. It aims to enhance the professional skills of the target groups in a context that increases their knowledge of the Portuguese entrepreneurial fabric and strengthens their links with the effective or ancestral origin country.

Regularisation programme

In July 2000, the Government obtained a legislative permit from Parliament to amend the Act of 8 August 1998 dealing with the admission, residence and departure of foreigners. Most notably, the accepted amendment provides for “authorisations of permanence”: these allow undocumented foreigners in possession of a firm offer of employment to reside in the country temporarily (for an initial period of one year, with the possibility of the permission being renewed through to a maximum of five years). A promulgation of this amend is expected since January 2001 and will certainly start a period of special regularisation of the undocumented workers living in Portugal. As of July 2001, almost 76 500 residence permits have been delivered (33% to Ukrainians and almost 20 to Brazilians).

International agreements

Under the heading of co-operation policies, measures have been taken to assist the development processes of the Portuguese-speaking African countries. These measures include the improvement of governance systems, the development of education and vocational training structures as well as the promotion of joint-ventures between Portuguese and PALOP companies. In the 1990s there was a significant increase in the number of protocols signed between Portuguese and PALOP municipalities; this phenomenon reveals Portugal's increasing involvement in international co-operation at the local level.

Box III.8. Links with Portuguese communities abroad

Portuguese nationals residing abroad are represented by directly elected members of Parliament. Across the world there are a little over 2 000 associations created by migrants or their descendants. The aim of policy with regard to emigrants is to encourage political and social integration of the Portuguese in their host countries whilst respecting these emigrants' national identity, and to maintain links with emigrant communities. Measures are therefore designed to safeguard and disseminate the Portuguese language, facilitate links between the communities, and defend the interests and rights of Portuguese emigrants. To this end, numerous approaches have been developed. They include assistance for the teaching of Portuguese; grants to associations, missions and other organisations of Portuguese residing abroad; and, socio-cultural exchanges and vocational training programmes co-funded by the European Social Fund.

There are other forms of aid, such as financial assistance, legal, economic and social services, special bank accounts and preferential credit through an emigrant savings scheme which makes capital loans. Further measures were introduced in 1996, chiefly focusing on developing and modernising the services of Portuguese consulates and improving the dissemination of legal information to Portuguese communities abroad (using the Internet, for instance). In September 1996, Parliament unanimously passed a law setting up the Council of Portuguese Communities, a body to advise the government on policies concerning emigrant communities. This Council represents all Portuguese people living abroad who wish to be involved. It has one hundred elected members.

ROMANIA

Introduction

Between 1990 and 1992, substantial numbers of Romanian citizens, both of non-Romanian and Romanian origin, left to settle permanently abroad. Current estimates of the outflow by the Romanian authorities suggest that having fallen substantially to a relatively low level the flow continues to diminish. Although return migration declined in 1999, the figure was nevertheless almost twice that of 1995; readmissions were virtually unchanged. Previous reports have underlined Romania's increasing importance as a transit destination in the East-west emigration flow, a feature linked, *inter alia*, to its relaxed visa regime. As part of their efforts to secure membership of the European Union, the authorities are making greater efforts at combating this phenomenon. These efforts include, most notably, greater vigilance regarding the issuance of visas and increased attention to border control.

I. Trends in migration movements

Emigration

According to estimates made by the Ministry of the Interior on the basis of compulsory customs forms completed by those intending to leave the country on a permanent basis and data on those already abroad who apply for the renewal of their passport at a local embassy or consulate, the permanent emigration flow declined once again in 1999, by 28% to 12 600. This was less than half the 1995 figure which itself was approximately one quarter of that of 1990. Although the countries of destination are becoming more diffuse, over 90% settle in OECD Member countries; the European Union receives 50%. Accompanying the steadily declining relative importance of the emigration flow to Germany, that to the United States is gaining in importance: in 1999 the figures were virtually identical, each accounting for just under 19% of the total. Of the 2 450 persons who had tertiary-level education, slightly less than one third went to Canada, just under one quarter went to the United States and just over 10% went to Germany. The proportion of the total flow accounted for by members of ethnic minorities has been in steady decline: whereas in 1993 they accounted for just over half the total outflow, in 1999 the figure was less than 10% (see Chart III.14).

Excepting the relatively small volume arranged under the aegis of the Ministry of Labour and Social Welfare, temporary foreign employment is registered only in the general flow of those temporarily leaving the country. Data on individually arranged seasonal work remains sketchy.

Based on agreements between the Governments of Germany and Romania, 3 900 employment contracts of eighteen months duration and just over 7 100 seasonal contracts of three months duration in the fields of agriculture, forestry and hospitality were approved in 1999, an increase of 40% on 1998. The beneficiaries of the eighteen months contracts are young workers aged 18-35 years in possession of a high level of education and a solid understanding of the German language. Information on the similar bilateral arrangements with Hungary, Greece, Italy and Turkey is not available.

Previous editions of this report noted that the Israeli authorities had estimated the contingent of documented and undocumented Romanian workers employed in their country at between 60 000 and 100 000; a more recent estimate has not been made available.

Romanian citizens as asylum seekers

Although the UNCHR, having come to the view that basic standards of human rights were being observed in Romania, ceased at the end of 1997 to consider it as a generator of refugees, the number of new applications submitted in 1999 was, at slightly over 9 400, 4% more than in 1998. Whereas the proportion of these applications made in France declined sharply from just under one third to less than 5%, the proportion received by United Kingdom doubled to over 20% and that received by Ireland rose from 11% to 24%. The

Chart III.14. Demographic characteristics of permanent emigrants,¹ 1990-1999, Romania

Percentages



overall recognition rate is extremely low, indicating, it would be reasonable to suppose, that the motivating factor behind the claims was to render legitimate the applicants' residence status.

Inflows and outflows of foreigners

Having increased steadily through to the mid-1990s and then by 35% in both 1997 and 1998, the number of applications for repatriation declined by 7% in 1999 to 10 500. This overall decline was due to a fall in the number returning from countries other than Moldova. Such persons accounted for 30% of the total in 1998; due to the absolute decline in their numbers and the 3% rise in 1999 (following an almost five-fold rise over 1997 and 1998) in the number of persons returning from Moldova they accounted for only 20% of the total in 1999. Of these countries, the most important are Germany, Hungary and the United States – together they accounted for just under 10% of the total in 1998 and for 7% in 1999.

Since 1993, approximately 140 000 Romanian citizens (the majority of whom were found in illegal situations) have been expelled from third countries. Almost two thirds were expelled from Germany and slightly over one fifth from Hungary. There were 21 900 expulsions in 1999, almost exactly the same as the preceding year. Just over 90% of these expulsions were made by the 18 countries with which Romania has signed a readmission agreement. Whereas the numbers being returned from Germany are steadily declining (at 4 500, the figure in 1999 was just over half that of 1997), that from Hungary has been rising sharply since 1997: at almost 8 000, the 1999 figure was over twice that of the previous two years combined.

Refugees and asylum seekers

Romania received nearly 1 670 applications for refugee status in 1999, an increase of one third on the 1998 figure. Citizens of Bangladesh (460), the former Yugoslavia (390), Afghanistan (290), Iraq (150) and Pakistan (100) together accounted for over 80% of the total. Of the 1 750 decisions made in 1999 fewer than 600 were positive: applications by citizens of countries other than the former Yugoslavia (only 40 rejected of over 410 decisions made), Afghanistan (just under 150 accepted out of 270 decisions made) and Iraq (30 accepted out of nearly 190 decisions) were almost invariably rejected. Most notably, with the exception of the 22 acceptances out of the 68 decisions made concerning citizens of the Congo, Morocco, Rwanda, Sierra Leone, Somalia and Sudan, all decisions concerning persons from Africa and the Indian sub-continent were negative.

Illegal immigration

The number of people caught attempting to illegally cross Romania's borders by evading official border crossing points continues to rise. Having been broadly constant from 1994 to 1997, the number rose by over one third in 1998 and by 13% in 1999 to 1 900. By contrast, whereas in 1997 36 000 foreign citizens were found to be in illegal situation as consequence of controls carried out within the country (more than double the 1993 figure), in 1999 the figure was less than 7 300; of these, 1 170 were expelled.

2. Structure and changes in the foreign population

A clear trend has developed whereby due in part to return migration (particularly in the case of Greek citizens) and to the fact that since 1990 there has not existed an institution with the authority to grant this status, the stock of immigrants with permanent resident status continues to decline, standing at present at slightly less than 1 300 (see Table III.33). A proposal to have this institutional deficiency remedied in the context of a new law on foreign citizens' status is still awaiting approval by the Romanian Parliament.

In the absence of the possibility of acquiring permanent residence status, foreigners wishing to prolong their stay beyond 120 days are obliged to obtain a renewable temporary residence permit. The number of such persons rose by 12% in 1999 to 61 900. The most significant increases were of Chinese (30% to bring their number up to over 6 700), Italians (29% to 4 600), Turks (22% to 5 200) and Moldavians (14% to 6 900). Along with the Greeks, whose number declined slightly to 5 120, these national groups comprise almost 50% of the total. As in recent years, nearly half were classified as entrepreneurs. Over 95% of the Chinese were so classified as were over 80% of the Turks; the proportion of Moldavians in this category is negligible. Students and

Table III.33. Current migration figures in Romania

	Thousands			
	1996	1997	1998	1999
Stocks of foreigners				
Stock of persons with permanent residence status	1.6	1.4	1.4	1.3
Stock of persons with temporary residence visas¹	55.7	55.0	55.3	61.9
Republic of Moldova	7.1	6.9	6.0	6.9
Greece	6.2	5.7	5.3	5.1
China	4.4	5.4	5.2	6.7
Turkey	5.1	5.5	4.2	5.2
Italy	3.6	4.6
Syria	4.1	3.8	3.3	3.4
Other	28.8	27.7	27.7	30.0
<i>of which: Foreign citizens in education and training</i>	22.7	20.4	17.6	17.8
Republic of Moldova	5.9	6.7
Greece	5.8	4.9	4.7	4.2
Albania	0.6	0.7
Israel	1.2	1.0	0.6	0.5
Return migration	6.3	8.4	11.3	10.6
Asylum seekers and refugees				
Refugee claims submitted	0.6	1.4	1.2	1.7
Refugee status granted	0.1	0.1	0.3	0.6
Illegal immigration				
Number detected at border (including romanian citizens)	1.0	1.2	1.7	2.0
Number detected within borders	4.2	5.5	4.0	7.3
Estimated stock of illegal migrants ²	15.0	18.0	18.0	18.0
Expulsions				
Romanian citizens expelled from other countries	18.1	16.9	21.6	21.9
Foreigners expelled from Romania	1.2	1.4	1.6	1.2
Romanian citizens in Germany:				
A. Migration flows between Romania and Germany				
Ethnic Germans from Romania	4.3	1.8	1.0	0.9
Inflows of Romanian nationals	17.1	14.2	17.0	18.8
Outflows of Romanian nationals	16.6	13.6	13.5	14.7
Asylum seekers from Romania	1.4	0.8	0.3	0.2
B. Stock of people from Romania in Germany				
Stock of Romanian nationals	100.7	95.2	89.8	87.5
Acquisitions of German nationality by former Romanians	9.8	8.7	6.3	..

1. Residence permits valid for a period longer than 120 days.

2. Estimates based on the number of expulsions, the number of persons detected within Romania and at the border.

Sources: Romanian Ministry of the Interior; Statistisches Bundesamt (Germany).

trainees accounted for just under one third of the temporary residence permit holders. Their number, which was almost unchanged in 1999 at 17 800, is determined largely by the quantity of scholarships awarded by the Romanian government. The largest proportion, almost two fifths, are from Moldova; just under one quarter are Greek. Of particular note in 1999 was the almost 40% increase to 6 100 in the number of persons holding temporary residence permits with the object of providing technical assistance, usually in the context of foreign direct investment projects. Of these persons, 1 150 were Italian, nearly 700 German and just over 500 British.

Naturalisations

Though they remain few in number, the number of naturalisations has been increasing sharply. From 70 in 1997, the figure rose to 195 in 1998 and to almost 250 in 1999 (all of which were granted in the first half of the year). As previously, the majority (three quarters) of applications were approved upon completion of three years of marriage to a Romanian citizen. The remainder were company proprietors and a small number of employees with permanent contracts who had resided in Romania for over five years. In almost all cases naturalised foreign citizens have retained their original citizenship. In 1999, over one third of those naturalised were from Syria and almost one quarter were from Italy.

3. Policy developments

Co-operation with the European Union

An inter-departmental working group was established in February 2000. Its principal task is to draw up short and medium-term measures to bring national policies relating to the free movement of persons into line with those of the European Union and thereby accelerate the obtention of free movement for Romanian citizens in the European Union area. This working group includes representatives of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, the Ministry of Justice, the Ministry of Home Affairs, the Ministry of Finances, the Ministry of Public Function and Romanian Intelligence Office.

Since the third quarter of 2000, under the auspices of the Phare Programme, the Romanian authorities have been making increased efforts to secure the country's borders; passports complying with the criteria of the Schengen area were introduced at the beginning of 2001.

Readmission agreements

Following the signature of a readmission agreement with the Finnish Government on 5 November 1999 the only EU Member States with which Romania had not yet concluded such an agreement were the United Kingdom and Portugal: the Romanian Ministry of Foreign Affairs has recently submitted a draft agreement to United Kingdom authorities.

As a part of their efforts to harmonise their immigration legislation with the *acquis communautaire*, the Romanian authorities are particularly keen to conclude readmission agreements with countries known as having a high emigration potential. To this end, the Romanian authorities have drawn up draft agreements which are to be put forward, as initial negotiation positions, to the authorities of Afghanistan, Albania, Bangladesh, China, Estonia, Macedonia, Mexico and Sri Lanka. Proposals have already been made to the authorities of Egypt, Iran and Lebanon. A readmission agreement with Bulgaria was signed on 23 July 2000.

Labour migration agreements

In the first half of 2000, Romania signed labour migration agreements with the governments of Germany, Hungary and Switzerland.

The agreement with Hungary came into force in July 2000. Under this agreement, 7 000 seasonal workers can take up employment in Hungary for a maximum 6 months during the calendar year. The agreement also provides for 800 trainees to work in Hungary for one year, with the possibility of their stay being extended by six months. The trainees must be aged between 18 and 35 years and should have undertaken a skilled activity for at least two years. Others wishing to work in Hungary will be assisted by the specialised agencies of the Ministry of Labour and Social Protection. Although a work permit is required they are free of charge; this also applies to Hungarians wishing to work in Romania.

The agreement concluded with Switzerland also came into force in July 2000. Under this agreement, Switzerland will take 150 trainees each year. As with the agreement with Hungary, the trainees must be aged between 18 and 35 years and should have undertaken a skilled activity for at least two years. The training contracts are also valid for an initial 12 month period with the possibility of a six month extension.

The agreement concluded with Germany came into force in August 2000. It only applies to information technology graduates. The persons selected will be able to sign a three year employment contract, with the possibility of it being extended to five years.

Work permits

Work permits were introduced in December 1999. Valid for an initial six month period upon payment of a USD 200 fee with the possibility of further six month extensions at a cost of USD 100, they are issued by the Ministry of Labour and Social Protection. Though issued to the foreign employees, they are retained and managed by the employer (natural or legal person). Employing a foreigner without a permit renders the employer liable to a fine of USD 250 to 500.

The following categories of foreigner are exempt: Those who:

- Have settled their domicile in Romania in compliance with the law regulating this situation.
- Have been granted refugee status in Romania.
- Have been hired by natural or legal persons residing permanently abroad and are sent by them to carry out certain temporary activities in Romania.
- Are required by Ministries or by other central or local government bodies to carry out certain temporary (not exceeding 30 days) activities (teaching, scientific or artistic activities, etc.) on Romania's territory.
- Are in other situations set out by conventions or agreements to which Romania is a signatory.

Integration of refugees

In the absence of governmental programmes designed to promote the economic, social and cultural integration of refugees, the organisation "Romanian Forum for Refugees and Migrants" set up in January 2000 a programme to provide advice and assistance refugees seeking work. This programme is designed in particular to assist refugees who are no longer receiving the reimbursable financial allowance that is granted for a maximum period of nine months upon obtaining refugee status.

SLOVAK REPUBLIC

Introduction

After several years of strong economic performance, GDP growth plunged from 6.5% in 1997 to 1.9% in 1999. The unemployment rate had been stable around 12% in 1997 and 1998 but increased rapidly to 16.4% in 1999 and 18.6% in 2000.⁶ The government's decision that government consumption is not a structural means to promote economic growth and the consequent drastic cuts may explain much of the sharp rise in unemployment. Inflation shot up from 6.1% in 1997 and 6.7% in 1998 to 14.2% in 1999.

The natural population growth has slowed down dramatically from 4.2 births per thousand inhabitants in 1993 to 0.7 in 1999. Net migration accounted for 38% of the total population growth in 1999. The elderly support ratio has been stable around 3.5 since 1997.

1. Trends in migration movements

Immigration has decreased since 1996 whilst emigration has been increasing since 1994; net migration is negative and with some fluctuation has been growing in absolute terms from -1.1 in 1996 to -1.6 in 1999 (see Table III.34).

Emigration

Emigration has seen a rising trend since the first year of the existence of the Republic in 1993, and grew from 154 persons in 1994 to 618 persons in 1999. The lion's share in emigration is emigration to Europe, and in particular to the Czech Republic. These numbers are gross underestimates because departing residents are asked to report their departure, but without obligation. More reliable numbers can be obtained by using the numbers on Slovak immigrants as the Czech Statistical Office reports them.⁷ They show a stable pattern of around 3 000 on an annual basis.

Table III.34. **Current migration figures, Slovak Republic**

Figures in thousands unless otherwise indicated

	1996	1997	1998	1999
Inflows of permanent residents	2.5	2.3	2.1	2.1
Arrivals (excluding those from Czech Republic)	1.5	1.4	1.3	1.2
Arrivals from Czech Republic	1.0	0.9	0.8	0.9
Outflows of permanent residents	3.6	3.1	3.4	3.6
Departures (excluding those to Czech Republic) ¹	0.1	–	0.5	0.4
Departures to the Czech Republic ²	3.5	3.1	2.9	3.2
Net migration	–1.1	–0.8	–1.3	–1.6
Residence permits newly granted by category				
Long-term residence permits	3.5	4.1	4.7	4.4
Permanent residence permits	1.9	2.0	1.7	1.4
Family reunification	1.5	1.6	1.3	1.1
Other	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.3
Inflows of asylum seekers	0.4	0.6	0.5	1.3
Illegal migrants caught at the border	3.3	2.8	8.2	7.8
<i>of which:</i>				
Inflows	1.0	0.7	1.9	2.7
Outflows	2.4	2.1	6.3	5.1
Holders of permanent or long-term residence permit, by country of origin³				
Czech Republic	5.1	5.8
Ukraine	3.0	3.5
Poland	2.5	2.8
Former Yugoslavia	2.0	2.0
Other	11.6	10.7
Total	24.1	24.8	27.4	29.5
Work permit holders, by country of origin⁴				
Ukraine	0.6	0.7	0.7	0.4
Poland	0.5	0.6	0.7	0.2
United States	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.2
Other	1.8	2.2	2.0	1.3
Total	3.3	3.8	3.7	2.2
Estimates of Czech workers⁵	1.5	1.7	2.2	2.4
Slovak citizens abroad				
Slovak workers in the Czech Republic	72.2	69.7	61.3	53.2
% of total foreign workers in the Czech Republic	50.4	53.3	55.1	56.9
Slovak citizens in Hungary	3.7	3.7	1.6	1.7
% of total registered foreigners in Hungary	2.6	2.6	1.0	1.1
Slovak workers in Austria	3.7	4.0	4.0	4.0
% of total foreign workers in Austria	1.4	1.6	1.6	1.7

1. The outflow is under-reported because people leaving the country are requested but not required to report their departure.

2. Changes of permanent residence in the Czech Republic. The data are issued by the Czech Statistical Office.

3. Stocks as of 31 December of the years indicated.

4. The data refer to the stock of work permit holders as of 31 December of the years indicated.

5. Under a bilateral agreement signed by the Czech and Slovak Republics in 1992, nationals of each Republic have free access to both labour markets. Data on Czech workers are monitored by the National Labour Office of the Slovak Republic.

Sources: Ministry of Labour and the National Labour Office of the Slovak Republic; Czech Statistical Office.

Inflows and outflows of foreigners

Annual inflows of foreigners are modest and have shown a slightly decreasing trend. There were in total 2 072 immigrants in 1999 of which 846 were of Czech origin. The second largest group of immigrants comes from the Ukraine, but their numbers have rapidly decreased since 1997.

Illegal immigration

Compared to the registered migration movements, illegal border crossings are numerous. Their numbers fluctuate but show a strong increasing trend. Most people are caught trying to get into Slovak territory at the

Hungarian and Ukrainian borders while most illegal outflows appear to occur at the Czech, Austrian and Polish border. This may indicate transit flows from East to West and from South to North. Since the introduction of visa obligations for Ukrainian nationals, the number of illegal border crossings at the Ukrainian border has virtually exploded (from 99 in 1997 to 1 589 in 1999). In 2000, up to October, 4 920 people were caught attempting to cross the Slovak borders illegally.

Refugees and asylum seekers

The number of asylum applications has more than doubled in 1999 (1 320, from 506 one year earlier). This trend appears to continue in 2000 (1 550 applications). Of these, in 1999, only 27 were granted the refugee status and 2 could obtain Slovak nationality. Most applications come from Afghanistan refugees (57% in the first 9 months of 1999).

Family reunion

Around 72% of all permanent residence permits in 2000 (see Section 2) are granted for reasons of family reunification. (Between January and October 2000, 614 out of 852 permanent residence permits were granted for family reunification).

2. Structure and changes in the foreign population

Numerical trends

At the end of 1999, there were 29 498 resident foreigners in the Slovak Republic. Of these, there were 11 650 long-term residence permits and 17 848 permanent residence permits (see Table III.34). Foreigners from former socialist countries hold the largest share of residence permits, *i.e.*, the Czech republic, the Ukraine, Poland, Hungary, the Federal Republic of Yugoslavia and Vietnam. There is no track of visas for less than 180 days.

According to declared ethnic origin, the largest group of foreigners originate from Hungary (567 800 or 10.5% of the total population in 1999). Hungarians are concentrated in the South and the East of the country, near the Hungarian and Ukrainian borders. Romanians (1.7%) and Czechs (1.1%) are the second and third largest minority groups, respectively. Self-reporting in the population census may result in some nationalities' being underrepresented in the national population statistics (particularly Romanians).

The Romanian population has a much higher growth rate than the native Slovak population and their share in the total population has been continuously increasing from 1.5% in 1991. An explanation may be the age structure of the immigrant Romanian population, which is much younger than the native population's age structure. Immigrant populations of other nationalities are in general older than the native Slovak population.

3. Migration and the labour market

Migration for employment and work permits

The Act on Employment from 1996 and the Labour Code regulate the employment of foreigners: all foreigners need a work permit to undertake any professional activities in the Slovak Republic. Foreigners holding a permanent residence permit, Czech citizens; foreigners of Slovak origin and refugees are exempted. A work permit can only be granted on the basis of a residence permit. The initial work permits for foreign employees, to be requested by either the worker or the employer, are linked to the employer and do not give unrestricted access to the Slovak Labour market. Prior to granting the preliminary permit, the Labour Office must verify whether the job had been reported to the vacancy register and whether there are no suitable candidates among the registered unemployed.

In 1999, there were 2 003 such permits granted (of which 31 were temporary and 1 172 permanent permits). In addition, there were 1 571 temporary permits granted for entrepreneurs. A total of 1 753 work permits were granted in the first 9 months of 2000. It appears from the statistics on the first 9 months of 2000 that the

number of residence permits for employment or self-employment began to decrease, especially for self-employed workers.

The total stock of valid work permits has decreased quite considerably from 3 700 in 1998 to 2 200 in 1999 (see Table III.34). This decline reflects the dramatic increase in unemployment that has hit the country (see Introduction). Ukrainians hold most work permits (18%), followed by Polish (11%), American (10%) and German (10%) workers.

Labour market integration

The presence of workers from the Czech Republic has become stronger and amounted to 2 400 in 1999, up from 2 200 in 1998. Of these, 92 were unemployed; at a rate of 3.9% it is much lower than that of Slovak nationals. Czech immigrants need neither residence nor work permit.

4. Policy developments

International agreements

In 1998, the Slovak Republic concluded a bilateral agreement with Switzerland authorising free movement, and is about to sign a similar agreement with Austria. Other agreements concerning free movement to and from Indonesia, the Philippines and France are in course of preparation. Free movement agreements reserved exclusively to diplomats or the holders of special passports were signed in 1998 with Kazakhstan, the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, Algeria and Chile.

On the other hand, in the face of hundreds of applications for asylum from gypsies arriving from the Slovak Republic, the United Kingdom has unilaterally suspended its free movement agreement with that country, as did Ireland, shortly afterwards, and the Bahamas. In the summer of 1999, the same measures were adopted temporarily by Finland, while Norway adopted a preventive measure. Finland and Norway abandoned these measures in November 1999.

SPAIN

Introduction

Spain's economic growth accelerated again in 1999 to 4.1% which was almost 1 point more than the OECD average. This excellent performance, coupled with major labour market reforms, resulted in a more buoyant labour market. Between 1996 and 1999, 1.4 million jobs were created, bringing the unemployment rate down to a little under 16%. Immigration benefited from the improved economic situation, with more than 91 000 new work permits issued in 1999, an increase of 7% on 1998. The share of foreigners in Spain's total population is 2%, much lower than the average for the European Economic Area. That said, the number of foreigners is increasing and has been higher than the different government estimates for the last few years.

1. Trends in migration movements

Inflows and outflows of foreigners

Spain's migration policy is essentially quota-based. Its quota for foreign workers, set in 1993, had been the most stable in Spain's migration history. Over the period 1993 to 1999, the number of applications filed all but tripled – from 37 000 to 97 000 – a figure that far exceeded the maximum quota of 30 000 set by the government.

A breakdown by nationality shows that the vast majority of migrant workers in Spain are Moroccans (around 40%), followed by immigrants from Ecuador, Peru and China (8.4, 7.3 and 6.7%, respectively). With

immigration so strongly concentrated, it has been possible to reach agreements and implement measures to control and organise flows so as to facilitate the settlement of new arrivals.

Refugees and asylum seekers

In 1999, 8 400 asylum applications were filed, *i.e.* a 24% increase on the previous year. Around 96% were refused. The largest groups of applicants were Algerians (16%) and Romanians (12%). Over the past 10 years, flows of asylum seekers have been steady, with no single nationality predominant.

2. Structure and changes in the foreign population

Numerical trends

In December 1999, the residence permit register showed that over 800 000 foreigners were resident in Spain, *i.e.* 2% of the total population (see Table III.35). The new regularisation operation should bring that figure to 1 million or 2.5% of the total population by the end of 2000. Over the past three years, the foreign population has been increasing more rapidly, reaching an average of 14% per year. In the past five years, the foreign population has doubled from 500 000 in 1996, to 1 million in 2000.

Nearly half of Spain's foreign-born population is of European Community origin. It is expected that this figure will change as a result of the regularisation operation and show a larger percentage of non-EC

Table III.35. Current figures on flows and stocks of total population and labour force in Spain

		Thousands						Thousands			
		1996	1997	1998	1999			1996	1997	1998	1999
Stock of foreign residents¹		539.0	609.8	719.7	801.3	Total work permits granted³		126.4	86.8	85.5	91.6
						<i>of which: Women</i>		39.7	31.9	35.3	35.1
	By region of origin					By industry division					
	Europe	273.3	289.1	330.5	361.9	Agriculture		26.0	18.4	18.6	18.1
	Africa	98.8	142.8	179.5	211.6	Industry		8.6	5.8	4.6	6.5
	America	121.3	127.0	147.2	159.8	Building		12.2	7.2	5.1	8.7
	Asia	43.4	49.1	60.7	66.5	Services		72.7	53.5	55.5	55.7
	Oceania	0.9	0.9	1.0	1.0	Not specified		6.9	2.0	1.6	2.6
	Stateless	0.4	1.0	0.7	0.5	By region of origin					
	By region of residence					Africa		70.6	44.2	36.6	41.8
	Madrid	111.1	116.0	148.1	158.9	Central and South America		30.2	23.3	29.1	28.9
	Barcelona	84.5	90.7	104.3	129.2	Asia		15.8	12.5	12.3	12.0
	Malaga	37.1	41.9	47.1	53.1	Europe (except EU) ⁴		8.0	5.7	6.4	7.8
	Alicante	42.7	42.6	44.6	51.9	North America		1.6	1.1	1.0	0.9
	Other	263.5	318.7	375.6	408.3	Oceania and other		0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2
	By type of permit					By type of permit					
	Long-term work permits					Long-term work permits					
	Employees					Employees		29.6	27.3	17.3	24.3
	Self employed					Self employed		4.8	3.7	2.9	3.3
	One-year work permit					One-year work permit					
	Employees					Employees		81.1	51.1	61.7	60.4
	Self employed					Self employed		7.0	3.1	2.0	1.7
	Other ⁵					Other ⁵		3.9	1.7	1.6	1.9
Acquisition of Spanish nationality²		8.4	10.3	13.2	16.4	Stock of foreign workers⁶		166.5	178.7	197.1	172.8

1. Stock of foreigners who hold a residence permit. Permits of short duration (less than 6 months) as well as students are excluded. Data refer to the population on 31 December of the years indicated and include permits delivered following the 1996 regularisation programme.

2. Excluding persons recovering their Spanish nationality.

3. Total permits issued, including seasonal and cross-border workers and renewals of permits. Provisional figures for 1999.

4. Since 1 January 1992, the nationals of the European Union do not need a work permit.

5. Seasonal and cross-border workers.

6. Data are for 31 December of each year and are numbers of valid work permits. Workers from the EU are not included. Data include work permits delivered following the 1996 regularisation programme. Provisional data for 1999.

Sources: General Directorate on Migration; Ministry of Labour and Social Security; Ministry of Justice.

immigrants. The figure reflects both the high refusal rate for applications to extend stays in Spain – which has led to an increase in the number of illegal residents who want to remain in the country anyway – and an underestimation of the numbers of non-EC foreigners. The results of the 1996 regularisation operation, which was aimed solely at foreigners who had previously held a residence permit, clearly showed that a high percentage of illegal residents remained in the territory despite being banned.

Half of all foreign residents are aged between 25 and 44 and 20% are aged between 45 and 46. More retired residents are from EC countries than from elsewhere. The majority of South American and African immigrants are between 25 and 44 years of age. This said, the Moroccan community has a high proportion of young children and careful monitoring is required to facilitate their integration into the education system.

Naturalisations

The number of naturalisations rose for the fourth consecutive year. In 1999, more than 16 000 foreigners obtained Spanish nationality (see Table III.35). Despite this, the percentage of naturalisations is quite low (2.3%), although it is Spain's highest ever. Almost two-thirds of those naturalised were from South America, mainly from the Dominican Republic and Peru. One in five applicants was of African origin, mainly from Morocco. The biggest increase was in applications from nationals of Ecuador and Cuba.

3. Migration and the labour market

Migration for employment and work permits

In 1999, more than 90 000 work permits were issued, 6 000 more than in the previous year (see Table III.35). This figure is an underestimate, given the time lapse between the closing of the statistical register and the registration of new arrivals in certain provinces. The actual figure is more likely to be around 115 000 permits, reflecting the buoyancy of the labour market in 1999. Over 90% of permits were for salaried employment and the breakdown by sector shows that the majority were for the service sector (over 60%) and the primary sector (20%) rather than industry and construction (10% and 7%, respectively). This said, the construction sector showed the highest increase, along with the hotel and catering sector.

At the end of 1999, a total of 335 000 foreign workers were registered with the Social Security. Men accounted for 65% of that total and, of them, 80% were under 45 years old. Two out of three workers were employed in the service sector and seven out of ten were concentrated in nine provinces. Of these, 213 000 were of non-EC origin. The majority (77 000) were from Morocco, followed by Peru (14 500).

Regularisation in 2000

Spain conducted another regularisation operation in 2000, its third in 10 years, after similar operations in 1991 and 1996. Of a total of almost 245 000 applicants, 150 000 were granted legal status. Provisional results (with 40 000 applications still to be processed) indicate that most applications were filed by new immigrants, and only 7% by applicants who had previously held a permit which had not been renewed. Over 90% of applicants filed an application for a residence and work permit, 6% just for a residence permit and 2% for a European Community residence card. However, there is still some hope for those whose applications were turned down. The government has been trying to reach agreement with the opposition on a Bill on the status of foreigners, which provides for a review of applications that have been refused and eases the criteria for regularisation.

Around one-third of applicants are seeking employment in agriculture, 15% in domestic service and roughly the same percentage in the construction sector. The majority of applicants (around one-third) are of Moroccan origin, followed by nationals of Ecuador and Columbia (10%). The only new development has been the big increase in applications from the latter two countries. Until recently, Peru and the Dominican Republic had been the main Latin American countries of origin of immigrants to Spain.

4. Policy developments

In November 2000, the Spanish Parliament passed Spain's new Immigration Act after the first reading of the Bill. In many areas, it is much more restrictive than the previous Act, which came into force in February 2000. The new Act provides for the immediate expulsion of foreigners resident in Spain illegally, while the previous legislation had simply introduced a system of fines. Permanent residence permits can now be obtained only after five years residing and working in Spain, instead of two under the previous legislation. There are now three criteria for entry into Spain: the possession of valid identity papers, proof of sufficient means of support for the duration of the stay and proof of the purpose and conditions of stay. Except in special circumstances, the government will no longer be required to explicitly state or justify the reasons for refusing to grant an entry visa. What is more, the text restricts some of the constitutional rights that had been granted to all foreigners under the January 2000 Act concerning foreigners resident in Spain illegally, such as the right to work, the right to strike and join unions and the right of association and demonstration. Lastly, foreigners have the right to vote in municipal elections in Spain only if Spanish nationals are accorded reciprocal rights in the foreigner's country of origin.

Box III.9. 2000 regularisation campaign

The campaign applies to all foreigners continuously resident in Spain since 1 January 1999, provided that they are not the subject of an expulsion order, legal proceedings or an exclusion order, that they indicate on their application the sector and profession in which they wish to work and meet at least one of the following requirements: have been the holder of a valid work and residence permit during the period from 1 February 1997 to 1 February 2000, have applied for a work and residence permit before 31 March 2000, or have filed an application for asylum before 1 February 2000.

The campaign applies to three types of permit: the work and residence permit, residence permit and European Community residence card. There are no geographical or sectoral limitations. Applicants who had previously held one type of permit may upgrade it. Other applicants may be granted a one-year permit or, in the case of family members of a Spanish national, a five-year permit.

SWEDEN

Introduction

After a period of stagnation, Sweden's economy has recovered, with a growth of 3.6% in 1998 and of 4.1% in 1999. The recovery has actually had a highly positive impact on the labour market, with the unemployment rate falling to 6.4%, substantially below 8% for the first time since 1993.

In 1999, there were 981 633 foreign born people living in Sweden, out of a total population of 8.8 million. Over the last ten years, migration flows have fluctuated considerably. These changes are due both to economic trends and to the new thrust of Sweden's migration policy.

I. Trends in migration movements

Inflows and outflows of foreigners

Emigration flows of foreigners have been relatively stable for the past ten years but have slightly gone down the last three years. In 1999, 13 500 foreigners left Sweden. Scandinavian nationals used to be in major-

ity but their number is decreasing (5 200 in 1999, against 11 700 in 1990). Immigration peaked in 1994 with 75 000 permanent entries (people stating that they wish to remain in Sweden for more than a year, not including asylum seekers with applications pending). By 1997, the figure had fallen by over a half to 33 400. In 1999, the figure rose slightly, to 34 573; the migration gain totalled 20 991, which was around 600 more than in 1998 (see Table III.36).

Around 37 000 residence permits were issued in 1999, a decrease of 2 000 in comparison with 1998. Over half the permits were issued on family reunion grounds, 15% to refugees and 16% under European agreements. Immigration for employment purposes is negligible (343).

The main groups are of Scandinavian, Iraqi, Yugoslav, Iranian and Bosnian origin. Immigration from the fifteen European Union countries totalled 8 836, or 25% of the total immigration. Some 52% of immigrants are female.

Refugees and asylum seekers

Since the early 1990s, the number of asylum seekers has fluctuated significantly, peaking in 1992 during the war in the former Yugoslavia, with a total of 84 000 applications. Numbers have since fallen substantially, numbering 5 800 in 1996. There were 12 460 asylum applications in 1998; the figure for 1999 reached 11 200.

In 1999, almost half of the asylum applications (48%) were made by Iraqis and nationals of the former Yugoslavia, 7.6% by Iranians, while smaller groups sought asylum from Afghanistan, Turkey, Somalia, Syria and Lebanon.

The Swedish Government has taken further steps to encourage refugees to return home. The Government co-operates with the other Nordic countries in order to help elderly Bosnians to return. The project is not yet completed and it is too early to tell about its outcome. Earlier experiences, however, show that the outcome of these kinds of projects is patchy.

2. Structure and changes in the foreign population

In 1999, Sweden's total population stood at 8.86 million, of whom 5.5% (487 200) were foreign citizens. At this time, over 981 600 people had been born abroad (11.8% of the total population). Of these, 40% had been in the country for over twenty years and 581 500 held Swedish nationality. A further 796 200 people were born in Sweden but had links, via their parents, with at least one other country. In 1999, there were in total 1 777 800 people of foreign origin, accounting for 20% of the total population (see Table III.36).

After declining steadily since 1993, the number of naturalisations rose spectacularly in 1998. Naturalisations totalled 46 502, a level not seen for over ten years, and included 8 991 nationals of the former Yugoslavia, and approximately 1 700 Finns and Turks. In 1999 the naturalisations declined to 37 800 and included 4 000 nationals of the former Yugoslavia.

3. Migration and the labour market

During the 1950s and 1960s, Sweden made intensive use of immigrant labour to meet the needs of its rapidly expanding labour market. Over that period, unemployment among immigrants was similar to that of the whole population. The situation has deteriorated markedly since then and the number of immigrants receiving social benefits has risen fivefold.

In 1999, there were 222 000 foreign workers in Sweden, of whom 111 000 were women (see Table III.36). This figure, relatively stable over the past five years, represents around 5% of the total labour force. Those from the other Nordic countries and the former Yugoslavia predominate on the labour market. The largest group of foreigners are the Finns at around 52 000, followed by Yugoslavs (28 000) and Norwegians (19 000). Iranians, of whom there are approximately 8 000, form the largest non-European group.

The number of residence permits issued for employment purposes, chiefly to highly skilled workers and business persons, was marginal (343) as in previous years. However, EU and Norwegian nationals are not included in these statistics.

Table III.36. **Current figures on flows and stocks of foreign population and labour force, Sweden**

Figures in thousands unless otherwise indicated

	1996	1997	1998	1999		1996	1997	1998	1999
Total population¹	8 844.5	8 847.6	8 854.3	8 861.4	Number of residence permits				
% of foreign population	6.0	5.9	5.6	5.5	by category of admission³	31.7	36.6	39.4	37.4
Stock of foreign population¹	526.6	522.0	499.9	487.2	Family reunification	18.8	18.9	21.7	21.7
Nordic countries	160.8	162.2	159.7	155.2	Refugees	4.8	9.6	8.2	5.6
Finland	103.1	101.3	99.9	99.0	EEA-agreement	5.2	4.6	5.7	6.1
Norway	31.7	31.0	30.6	30.9	Foreign students	1.5	2.4	2.7	2.8
Denmark	26.0	25.4	25.0	25.0	Adopted children	1.1	0.7	0.8	0.9
Other countries	365.8	359.8	340.2	332.0	Employment	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.3
<i>of which:</i>					Asylum seekers	5.8	9.6	12.5	11.2
Iraq	22.8	24.8	26.6	30.2	<i>of which:</i>				
Former Yugoslavia	36.6	33.6	26.0	22.7	Iraq	1.6	3.1	3.8	3.6
Iran	27.2	26.2	19.8	16.1	Former Yugoslavia	1.0	3.0	4.9	2.4
Inflows of foreigners by nationality or region of origin²	29.3	33.4	35.7	34.6	Persons with foreign background⁴	1 656.6	1 683.7	1 746.9	1 777.8
Nordic countries	5.6	5.3	5.8	7.0	Foreign-born	943.8	954.2	968.7	981.6
Finland	2.6	2.8	3.0	3.4	Swedish citizens	510.6	579.2	558.2	581.5
Norway	1.5	1.5	1.6	2.0	Foreigners	433.2	375.0	410.5	400.1
Denmark	1.4	1.0	1.1	1.3	Born in Sweden	712.8	729.0	778.6	796.2
Other countries	23.8	28.1	29.6	27.6	Swedish citizens ⁵	632.3	646.0	695.5	716.9
<i>of which:</i>					Foreigners	80.5	83.0	83.0	79.3
Iraq	2.1	3.7	5.3	5.5	Stock of foreign labour⁶	218.0	220.0	219.0	222.0
Finland	2.6	2.8	3.0	3.4	Nordic nationals	90.0	87.0	85.0	86.0
Net migration of foreigners					Non-nordic nationals	128.0	133.0	134.0	136.0
by nationality²	14.9	18.1	21.8	21.0	Acquisition of nationality				
Nordic countries	-1.0	-1.1	-0.3	1.4	by country of former nationality	25.6	28.9	46.5	37.8
Finland	-0.2	-0.2	0.1	0.7	Former Yugoslavia	2.4	6.1	9.0	4.0
Norway	-0.5	-0.6	-0.1	0.5	Finland	2.0	1.9	1.7	1.6
Denmark	-0.2	-0.4	-0.1	0.3	Turkey	2.0	1.4	1.7	1.8
Other countries	15.8	19.3	22.1	19.6	Other countries	19.1	19.5	34.1	30.3
<i>of which:</i>					Mixed marriages	6.2	6.3	6.3	7.0
Former Yugoslavia	1.9	4.4	1.7	0.9	% of total marriages	17.2	18.0	18.2	18.1

1. Data are from population registers and refer to the population on 31 December of the years indicated.

2. Data are from population registers and refer to persons who declare their intention to stay in Sweden for longer than one year. Figures do not include asylum seekers who are waiting for decisions and temporary workers.

3. Residence permits are not required for Nordic citizens.

4. Foreign background, first or second generation immigrant only.

5. Persons with at least one parent born abroad. The increase between 1997 and 1998 is due to quality improvements in the population register.

6. Annual average from the Labour Force Survey.

Sources: Swedish Immigration Board ; Statistics Sweden.

Temporary work permits are not systematically recorded in Sweden, but are issued for example to scientists and artists or for seasonal work, especially fruit-picking. Temporary work permits totalled 8 400 in 1996.

4. Policy developments

Migration policy

Numerous changes have occurred in Sweden's migration policy in recent years. In particular, migration procedures as a whole are now managed by the Swedish Immigration Board, rather than by the police. The Board has recently taken over responsibility for all applications for residence permits. New offices have been opened in air and seaports and in some provincial towns. The Board also runs the detention centres and it is gradually taking over responsibility for handling applications lodged at Sweden's embassies throughout the world.

New integration policy and a new authority

A new policy on integration came into effect in 1998 and a new authority was established to implement it. In September 1997, the government submitted a bill to Parliament entitled "Sweden, the Future and the Plural Society – From Immigration Policy to Integration Policy". In this framework, recognition of cultural and ethnic diversity is considered a prerequisite for the shaping and enforcement of new legislation, in whatever sector or sphere of society. Policies directly addressing immigrants, as a group, should be confined to expenditure and measures necessary in the early years after arrival in Sweden.

Integration policy seeks particularly to:

- Provide opportunities to enable individuals to support themselves and to integrate in society.
- Preserve essential democratic values and work to guarantee equal rights and opportunities for men and women.
- Prevent and eradicate discrimination, xenophobia and racism.

The National Integration Office was set up in June 1998. It is responsible for implementing measures designed to attain the objectives of the integration policy and seeing that the new approach impacts on all sectors of society. The Office further monitors and assesses developments concerning ethnic and cultural plurality in the community as a whole.

New naturalisation measures

Since the start of 1999, people who are unable to prove their identity may obtain Swedish citizenship if they have resided in Sweden for at least eight years and can provide some evidence that their declared identity is correct.

In July 2001 a new Citizenship Law was enacted, which recognise dual nationality. The new law facilitates the acquisition of Swedish nationality for the children of unmarried Swedish fathers, adopted children and stateless persons.

Committee on Family Reunion

In 2000 the Government appointed a parliamentary committee to evaluate the effects of changes in rules for family reunion the Alien's Act. The committee is also to investigate and evaluate issues concerning marriages, smuggling and the responsibilities for transporteurs. The committee will report to the Government at the end of 2001.

A metropolitan policy

The economic and social differences in metropolitan regions increased during the 1990s. Many of the residents in the most disadvantaged neighbourhoods are immigrants or children of immigrants. The Government therefore decided it was necessary to formulate a metropolitan policy that would promote development in

these neighbourhoods. The policy was presented in a Bill and adopted by Parliament in December, 1998. The objectives of the policy are:

- To provide the foundations for sustainable growth in the metropolitan areas.
- To stop social, ethnic and discriminating segregation in the metropolitan regions, and to work for equal and comparable living conditions for people living in the cities.

Local development agreements have been concluded between seven municipalities and the Government. Since 1999, the National Integration Office has been engaged in co-ordinating the national evaluation of the local development agreements. So far the Office has presented three reports and further reports are being carried out. A final report on the effects of the policy will be presented to the Government in June 2002.

SWITZERLAND

Introduction

The economic upturn in Switzerland, which began in 1997, has continued over the past three years, with real GDP growth likely to exceed 3% in 2000 and reach between 2 and 2.5% in 2001. The labour market situation has again improved under the combined effect of a sharp rise in exports and intense activity in the construction industry, stimulated by substantial investment in housing and huge public utility projects. The sound economic situation has had the effect of reducing unemployment, which should fall from 2.7% in 1999 to under 2% in 2001. Demand for skilled foreign labour has increased in certain sectors and the quotas set every year were completely used up in 2000.

1. Trends in migration movements

Inflows and outflows of foreigners

The statistics show an appreciable increase (of 15%) in the number of new immigrants in 1999, more than 86 000 foreigners coming into Switzerland in 1999, compared to 75 000 the year before (see Table III.37). A little more than 76 000 of them obtained residence permits and nearly 10 000 were given settlement permits. The number of foreigners entering the country with the object of being gainfully employed was 31 500, of whom 2 350 came in on family reunion grounds. Nearly 54 000 non-active foreign nationals came into Switzerland under the heading of family reunion. Cantonal and federal one-year residence permits have enabled 19 000 foreigners to settle in Switzerland.

For three years now, Germans have formed the biggest immigrant group (12.9% of inflows), followed by nationals of the former Yugoslavia (8 400 people, or 9% of all immigrants). Next come the French, the Italians and the Portuguese, meaning that the bulk of immigrants are European.

The new arrivals work mainly in catering and the hotel industry, in education and in health. These three areas account for 35% of all workers, a figure which goes up to 55% of all new workers if the metal-working and distributive sectors are added.

A breakdown by age bracket shows that nearly three-quarters of new arrivals are aged between 20 and 64. Those over 65 make up 1% of all new arrivals.

Slightly more than 58 000 foreigners left Switzerland in 1999, of whom 40% had worked mainly in the hotel and catering sector, the distributive trades, banking and insurance. Italians formed the largest group to leave the country (15%), followed by Portuguese (14%), Germans (10%) and nationals of the former Yugoslavia (4%). Over half of those leaving were men aged between 20 and 39.

Table III.37. Current figures on the components of total population change, on migration flows and stocks of foreign population and labour force, Switzerland

Figures in thousands unless otherwise indicated

	1996	1997	1998	1999		1996	1997	1998	1999
Population on 31 December of the years indicated	7 081.3	7 096.5	7 123.5	7 164.4	Foreign population by main nationality¹	1 337.6	1 340.8	1 347.9	1 368.7
% of foreigners	18.9	19.0	19.0	19.2	Italy	350.3	342.3	335.4	327.7
Components of foreign population change¹	7.0	3.2	7.1	20.8	Former Yugoslavia ³	305.0	313.5	321.1	189.4
Net migration ¹	12.0	9.3	16.0	27.7	Portugal	137.1	136.3	135.8	135.0
Natural increase	14.1	13.4	12.7	13.4	Germany	92.7	94.7	97.9	102.7
Acquisitions of Swiss nationality	-19.4	-19.2	-21.3	-20.4	Spain	97.7	94.0	90.4	86.8
Other	0.2	-0.3	-0.3	-	France	54.3	55.0	56.1	58.0
Migration flows of foreigners²					Other countries	300.5	305.0	311.2	469.1
Inflows by main nationality²	74.3	72.8	74.9	85.8	Foreign workers⁴	869.7	847.4	842.3	856.0
Former Yugoslavia	14.1	12.8	11.5	12.6	of which: Women	313.6	309.4	309.6	316.4
Germany	8.7	8.5	9.3	11.0	Inflows by status of residence				
France	5.0	4.8	5.4	6.2	% of resident workers	81.5	81.7	82.1	81.9
Italy	5.4	5.0	5.3	6.0	% of cross-border workers	16.9	16.7	17.9	16.9
Portugal	5.5	4.0	5.1	5.0	Foreign resident workers				
Other countries	35.7	37.7	38.3	45.0	By main nationality¹	709.1	692.8	691.1	701.2
Outflows by main nationality	67.7	63.4	59.0	58.1	Italy	202.5	191.7	184.4	179.3
Italy	10.8	9.9	8.6	8.7	Former Yugoslavia	136.2	138.2	142.8	80.4
Portugal	7.9	8.7	7.8	8.0	Portugal	79.3	77.4	76.6	76.5
Germany	6.2	5.9	5.5	5.9	Germany	56.7	57.3	58.7	61.3
Spain	6.3	5.8	5.3	5.4	Spain	59.8	56.4	53.7	51.7
France	3.7	3.5	3.3	3.7	Others	174.6	171.7	174.9	252.0
Other countries	32.7	29.6	28.5	26.5	By major industry division				
Net migration by main nationality	6.6	9.3	16.0	27.7	Agriculture, forestry	14.5	15.5	13.6	13.5
Former Yugoslavia	5.1	5.6	5.3	10.4	Extractive and manufacturing industries	308.2	292.2	283.2	278.9
Germany	2.4	2.6	3.8	5.1	Building	87.4	80.5	76.2	72.5
France	1.3	1.3	2.1	2.6	Trade	90.6	89.5	90.0	90.7
Portugal	-2.3	-4.7	-2.7	-3.0	Hotel, restaurants	80.4	80.0	81.2	82.2
Italy	-5.4	-4.9	-3.2	-2.6	Other services	128.1	135.0	147.0	163.4
Spain	-4.3	-4.0	-3.6	-3.8	Cross-border workers by nationality	147.0	142.0	142.5	144.8
Other countries	9.9	13.4	14.3	19.1	France (% of the total)	49.5	50.2	50.3	51.0
Asylum seekers	18.0	24.0	41.3	46.1	Italy (% of the total)	23.4	23.0	22.7	22.0
Acquisition of nationality by country of former nationality	19.4	19.2	21.3	20.4	Germany (% of the total)	21.1	21.0	20.9	21.0
Italy	5.2	5.0	5.6	5.5	Others (% of the total)	6.0	5.8	6.1	6.0
Former Yugoslavia	2.8	3.0	3.3	2.4					
Turkey	1.4	1.8	2.1	2.3					
France	1.0	1.0	1.2	0.8					
Other countries	8.9	8.4	9.1	9.4					

1. Data cover only foreigners with annual or settlement permits and include conversions of seasonal work permits into annual or settlement permits.

2. Data include only foreigners who obtained an annual or settlement permit during the indicated year. Conversions of seasonal work permits into annual or settlement permits are not included.

3. Federal Republic of Yugoslavia in 1999.

4. Figures cover foreign workers with settlement, annual, cross-border and seasonal permits.

Source: Federal Foreign Office.

Refugees and asylum seekers

Some 46 000 people asked for asylum in 1999, which was 11.5% up on 1998. The attraction of Switzerland to refugees stems partly from its practice of recruiting seasonal workers, most of them from the former Yugoslavia. A community of between 135 000 and 150 000 Kosovar Albanians has been formed over the past two years, creating a network of relations between refugees. Under the Dublin Convention, asylum seekers whose applications are dismissed in a European Union country are obliged to turn to Switzerland. Since July 1999, however, when the Kosovo conflict came to an end, their numbers have been declining sharply, and the Federal Office for Refugees put the number of applicants in 2000 at 28 000. While a considerable number of asylum seekers come from Iraq (4%) and Sri Lanka (3%), they are far outnumbered by nationals of the former Federal Republic of Yugoslavia (63%).

Asylum has been granted to a little over 2 000 people, of which slightly less than 400 under the heading of family reunion, giving an acceptance rate of approximately 4.5%. The rate varies a lot according to the nationality of the applicant: 1.2% for nationals of the Federal Republic of Yugoslavia, 3.4% for Sri Lankans and 91.3% for Vietnamese.

All told, the migration balance has improved considerably since 1998 (+73%). The balance is positive in the case of nationals of the former Yugoslavia, Germany and France, strengthening the tendency for migration flows to shift towards northern Europe.

2. Structure and changes in the foreign population

Numerical trends

The foreign population increased by 20 800 in 1999, or 1.9% (see Table III.37). The gross increase is attributable to the number of entries, births and the conversion of seasonal permits into one-year permits and even, exceptionally, permits to settle.

All told, the resident foreign population at 1 January 2000 was 1 400 000, *i.e.* 19.2% of the total population. There are two categories of permit: one-year residence permits (held by 25% of the population) and settlement permits (75%). Over the past twenty years, the nationality mix of that population has changed. The most numerous are migrants from the European Union, who make up 60% of the foreign community, 40% of whom come from countries that share borders with Switzerland. The Italian community is the biggest, at 330 000, but that figure is constantly shrinking (down 40% since 1974). The second most numerous are migrants from the former Yugoslavia, who totalled 190 000 at end-1999, but if the nationals of all the ex-Yugoslav countries are taken into account, the total number comes to 330 000, *i.e.* 24% of the foreign population. The Portuguese community is in third place with 135 000 nationals, *i.e.* 10% of the foreign population.

The Germans and Spanish come in fourth and fifth place, respectively, but while the size of the German community (103 000 in 1999) is constantly increasing, that of the Spanish community (86 000) is moving in the opposite direction.

Almost two-thirds of foreign residents live in the German-speaking region and the other third in French-speaking Switzerland. Nearly 55% of them are male and three-quarters fall into the 20-64 age bracket, which is 8 percentage points higher than the figure for the native Swiss population. On the other hand, the number of Swiss likely to receive a retirement pension is three times higher than in the case of the foreign population.

Mixed marriages

Around 40% of the foreign population are unmarried. The number of married women is smaller, at a little over 300 000, than the number of married men (390 000). There have been some 73 000 mixed marriages, between foreigners and Swiss women.

The Swiss abroad

As at 30 June 1999, there were 573 000 Swiss living abroad – a relatively high figure which is attributable in part to the number of Swiss with dual nationality (70%). Rather less than two-thirds live in Europe, mainly in European Union countries, and 27% in America.

Naturalisations

The naturalisation rate is one of the lowest in Europe because of the high costs involved and administrative procedures that oblige the applicant to prove his/her integration in the country. The number of people who fulfil the criteria for obtaining Swiss nationality is put at 600 000, and the total number of people to acquire Swiss nationality in 1999 was slightly over 20 000. Federal legislation makes a distinction between the different ways of obtaining Swiss nationality, there being ordinary naturalisation, facilitated naturalisation, reintegration, recognition of Swiss citizenship under the new right of filiation, marriage to a Swiss citizen and, lastly, adoption. The ordinary procedure is by far the most commonly used, 67% of applicants having obtained Swiss nationality in this way. Next come those who became Swiss citizens through facilitated naturalisation (30%). Almost 77% of naturalisations were accounted for by Europeans, of which 40% were nationals of European Union countries.

3. Migration and the labour market

According to the Federal Statistical Office, the total labour force numbered a little under 3 900 000 people in the last quarter of 1999, of whom 701 000 were foreigners (see Table III.37). To these numbers must be added 10 000 seasonal workers and 145 000 cross-border workers. The majority of foreigners in the labour force are men, the main nationalities represented being the Italians (25%), the French (12%), the Germans (10%) and the Portuguese (9%). The majority work in the distributive trades, banking and insurance.

At end-1999, the foreign participation rate was nearly 52%, and varied considerably according to nationality (for example, 41% for Turkish nationals and 61% for Austrian nationals). Some 5.4% of foreigners were unemployed, as against 1.7% of Swiss, with the result that, in January 2000, approximately 91 000 jobless were registered with job centers.

According to unofficial estimates, moonlighting could account for 8.9% of Swiss GDP, *i.e.* the lowest rate among OECD countries. That said, the sums drawn off by this activity are considerable, being put at SF35 billion. There is not at present any talk of an amnesty for the various protagonists, given the poor results obtained by other European countries that have introduced such measures. However, there have been consultations between the different parties involved. The results of these talks could take the form of proposed legislation aimed at stepping up measures to combat illegal work: participation of representatives of the social partners, creation of tripartite committees, harsher penalties for employers, etc.

4. Policy developments

In May 2000, the seven bilateral agreements already signed with the European Community and its Member States, including that on the free movement of persons, were accepted by the Swiss people with a majority of 67.2% of votes cast. The latest agreement provides for a gradual shift towards unrestricted movement of persons, but it will not come into force until the European Union Member countries have ratified it – probably in 2001. The rules that will apply to nationals of third countries as soon as the agreement on free movement comes into force will be contained in a revised version of the Order limiting the number of foreigners (OLE). Despite the desire to move closer to the European Union on this question, an initiative designed to accelerate the procedure was rejected in March 2001 (with almost 77% of the votes against).

A comprehensive revision of the framework law on the residence and settlement of foreigners, dating from 1931, is currently being discussed by the main groups concerned. The new legislation will give increased legitimacy to Swiss policy on foreigners by spelling out their rights and obligations.

Access to the labour market depends on economic interests and on the long-term chances of integration – apart from humanitarian reasons justifying immigration, family reunion and training courses, which will also be governed by the new legislation. Access to the labour market will in principle be confined to skilled labour

and annual quotas will be set. The law is also designed to improve foreigners' legal status: the legal obstacles to changing profession, job or canton will be reduced and the right to family reunion will be extended to all residence permit holders.

Switzerland has also expressed the intention of liberalising its policy on visas. The government decided during the summer of 2000 to waive the visa obligation for foreigners with valid passports from their countries of origin and valid Schengen visas. This measure concerns nationals of Bahrein, Qatar, Kuwait, Oman, Saudi Arabia, Thailand and the United Arab Emirates.

Also, the authorities have implemented a programme designed to regularise the situation of certain categories of foreigner. In March 2000, they decided temporarily to admit different groups of people who could be given asylum, and also foreigners who entered Switzerland before 31 December 1992, on condition that they were in a situation of serious personal distress.

There were two reasons for this measure. First, the length of these persons' stay was not the result of unseemly behaviour and, second, they clearly wanted to integrate. Approximately 13 000 people were concerned by this regularisation operation, particularly Sri Lankan nationals.

Migration policy was also concerned by a referendum on a proposal designed to ensure that the proportion of foreigners in Switzerland did not exceed 18% (whereas the present figure is 19%). The proposal was rejected by a very large majority of the population (see box).

Box III.10. **The 18% initiative**

The said initiative, lodged on 28 August 1995, altered the way of calculating the proportion of foreigners, no longer counting scientists and skilled management staff, artists, pupils and students, but including asylum seekers, people admitted on a temporary basis and war refugees resident in Switzerland for more than one year. Once the 18% threshold was exceeded, after being put in place, a voluntary emigration policy would have been introduced and no new residence permits would have been issued as long as the number of births among the foreign population exceeded the number of voluntary departures. The measure also aimed to bring in tougher rules on asylum seekers, war refugees, foreigners admitted on a temporary basis and foreigners of no fixed abode. The intention was that such people would no longer receive financial assistance during their stay in the country. The possibility of imprisoning foreigners who had been served with an expulsion order was also envisaged.

The Federal Council asked the population to reject the proposal, which was not in conformity with international agreements and whose implementation would have posed too many difficulties – economic in particular. It was in fact thought that firms would no longer be able to go abroad to hire the labour needed for the proper functioning of numerous sectors of the economy, and that they would therefore have to turn to moonlighting and illegal immigration and possibly consider relocating.

The result of the vote was unequivocal, the proposal being rejected in September 2000 by a 64% majority.

Five principles underlie Switzerland's policy on asylum:

- Any person threatened or persecuted in their country of origin, according to criteria recognized by international law, will be given asylum in Switzerland.
- Switzerland participates actively in international campaigns aimed at supporting and protecting people in distress.
- Switzerland allows temporary right of entry to those living in war or disaster zones when it is unable to provide assistance to those regions.
- Rejected asylum seekers will systematically be sent back to their countries of origin.
- Strict measures will be taken against applicants who have committed offences.

The ban on asylum seekers and people admitted temporarily taking work was lifted in August 2000. It had lasted for one year and had been introduced in response to the exceptional situation as regards asylum caused by the Kosovo crisis. In addition, the authorities implemented a programme to assist refugees from the said region in returning home. So far, 38 000 people have been assisted in this way.

TURKEY

Introduction

The serious earthquakes in August and November 1999 made Turkey's recovery from a serious economic crisis and its transition from a state-led to an open economy even more difficult. GDP growth was negative at -4.7% in 1999 and the official unemployment rate rose from 6.7% in 1998 to 7.5% in 1999. But economic growth was positive again in 2000 (9.2% in the second quarter) and the unemployment rate fell to 6.4% in 2000. But Turkey's monetary situation remains alarming (gross debt was 57% of GDP in 2000) and interest rates were extraordinarily high. In the beginning of 2000, the Government, aiming to stabilise the economy, linked the Turkish Lira to a weighted average of the Euro and the Dollar. The subsequent decline of the fixed exchange rate when this did not prove to be a sustainable strategy has again destabilised the Turkish economy. There are still many more Turkish citizens abroad than there are foreigners in Turkey, but migration patterns have so changed that Turkey might have become a receiving country, mainly because of a swirl in illegal migration.

1. Trends in migration movements

Emigration

In 1999 total emigration of Turks approached 90 000. The dominant forms of emigration are family reunification with Turks living abroad and (undocumented) labour migration. Both are mainly directed towards Western Europe (see Table III.38). As there are no direct data sources on emigration, only estimates can be given. Based on data of the main receiving countries (in 1999), more than 75 000 Turks emigrate on an annual basis of which about half for family reunion.

Project-tied, regular emigration occurs through labour contracts abroad, which Turks may obtain through the Turkish Employment Office. In 2000, the TEO sent 13 645 Turks abroad; the number of contracts via TEO has decreased steadily from 33 321 in 1997. Contracts are mainly with Turkish or foreign firms abroad for 3 to 24 month periods. The main countries concerned are those in the Commonwealth of Independent States (CIS) and in Arab countries. More than half of these (7 145 or 52%) went to CIS countries; Arab countries (18%), the European Union (17%, almost all to Germany) and Israel (10%) were other main receiving countries. The

Table III.38. Inflows of Turkish people to the Top 3 European host countries, 1999

	Total immigrants	Asylum seekers
Germany	47 097 ¹	9 065
France	5 734	2 219
Netherlands	4 215 ¹	1 490
Total	57 046	12 809

Note: Data for Germany and the Netherlands are from population registers. People who wish to stay more than 3 months in Germany and more than 6 months in the Netherlands have to be registered in the local Population Register. Data for France are issued from long-term residence permits.

1. Figures include substantial numbers of asylum seekers.

Sources: Office des migrations internationales (France); Statistisches Bundesamt (Germany); Central Bureau of Statistics (Netherlands).

Russian Federation, Germany, Turkmenistan, Saudi Arabia and Uzbekistan are the top five receiving countries for Turkish workers.

Inflows and outflows of foreigners

Thousands of migrants have passed through Turkey in the past two decades as temporary residents. They came from countries such as Iraq, Egypt, Morocco, Ghana and Afghanistan to find their way into the developed countries in North and Western Europe. But the restrictive immigration policies of the EU may cause an increasing share of migrants to wish to settle in Turkey. By the year 2000, a total of 168 000 residence permits were granted to 61 000 Bulgarian immigrants; 11 000 immigrants from Azerbaijan; 7 000 from Greece and 7 000 from the Russian Federation.

Illegal immigration

Undocumented immigration has more than doubled in the last four years, from 18 800 in 1996 to 47 700 in 2000. Most undocumented immigrants come from various parts of Asia and Africa and are passing through on their way to the higher developed regions of Europe.

Refugees and asylum seekers

Political unrest in Iran and Iraq resulted in a flow of asylum seekers into Turkey in the 1980s and this continues today. The total number of asylum seekers has remained rather stable over the past five years and amounted to 5 700 in 2000. Of these, 3 700 people came from Iran and 1 600 from Iraq. Other countries of origin are Afghanistan, Sri Lanka, Algeria and Nigeria.

2. Structure and changes in the foreign population

Naturalisations

Most applications for naturalisation in Turkey come from people from Turkish descent. In 2000 there were 7 159 new applications in addition to the 16 997 applications already being processed. There is no data available on the number of people who obtain Turkish citizenship in any year.

Host country legislation on the acquisition of nationality varies in its restrictiveness. Recently, Germany, the main receiving country, liberalised its legislation and, for the first time, the principle of *jus sanguinis* is no longer the only criterion used, since, under certain conditions, *jus solis* can now be recognised. Children born in Germany to foreign parents who have lived in the country for at least 8 years and who have had a permanent residence permit for at least 3 years will be eligible for German nationality. But these children will have to choose between German or Turkish nationality between the ages of 18 (age of majority) and 23. Thereafter, they lose the right to apply for German citizenship. It is important to bear in mind that since 1995, although Turkish law allows for dual nationality, renunciation of Turkish nationality no longer automatically results in the confiscation of property.

3. Migration and the labour market

In 2000, 3.6 million people or nearly 6% of the entire Turkish population was living abroad; an estimated 5 to 6% of the total Turkish labour force was employed in foreign countries. Of these, there were a near 3.2 million Turkish expatriates in Europe (just over 3 million in the EU), 120 000 Turkish workers in the Arab countries and 50 000 in the CIS states. 230 000 Turks were living and working elsewhere in the world, mainly in Australia, Canada and the United States.

Only 14% (24 198) of all residence permits were granted on the basis of work permits. Data on trends is not available.

4. Policy developments

Measures to combat the illegal employment of foreigners

Turkey recognises its changing status from an emigration to an immigration country and is preparing new legal arrangements for work and residence permits. The aim of the intended legislation is combating illegal employment. The Ministry of Labour and Social Security will become responsible for issuing work permits and workers who employ illegal immigrant labour can be penalised (up to 2.5 billion Turkish Liras) as well as the illegal workers themselves (up to 500 million Turkish Liras).

UNITED KINGDOM

Introduction

Although GDP grew by 2.2% in 1999 and expanded by 3% in 2000 as a whole, output growth slowed markedly during the second half of this latter year, falling well below potential in the final quarter. Notwithstanding, the outlook continues to be favourable. With the employment rate rising from 74.2 to 74.7% the labour market is becoming increasingly tight. Despite overall economic growth there is some evidence that the UK economy is becoming less homogeneous, the main dichotomies being between the manufacturing and service sectors and between the North and the South. In southern Britain, particularly the South-east, growth is much faster than in the rest of the country. Nevertheless, most regions report some skill shortages and this has caused the government to adopt a more positive approach to labour immigration.

Although economic performance was strong in 1999, the growth in migration inflows was not as substantial as in the recent past; net migration fell back by almost 20%. Furthermore, the traditional labour-force balance of these flows, one favouring those not in employment, reasserted itself. The number of illegal immigrants detected continues to increase substantially, the figure in 1999 being over 20 000. The number of asylum applications rose sharply once again in 1999, by over 50% to 71 200.

1. Trends in migration movements

Inflows and outflows of foreigners

Net flows of non-UK nationals have been positive throughout the 1980s and 1990s. The flow pattern has broadly reflected changes in economic conditions with a lag of some 12-18 months. The amplitude of fluctuation has been rather less than that of British citizens. A disaggregation of the flow data into European Union (excluding Ireland whose citizens share with those of the United Kingdom a Common Travel Area) and non-EU citizens reveals that the former, having fluctuated between -4 and +9 000 during the 1980s (with the exception of 1986), have increased substantially since 1994. Having remained broadly constant in 1997, the number rose once again in 1998, by almost 50% to 43 000 but fell back sharply in 1999 to 13 000 (see Table III.39). During the 1980s and through to 1992 the net flows of non-EU citizens fluctuated to a greater extent around a core value of approximately 40 000 since which time they have increased year on year to 65 000 in 1997, to 91 000 in 1998 and to 96 000 in 1999, the highest recorded in this data series.

The balance of immigration, traditionally very much in favour of those not in employment, having swung around in 1998 changed back in 1999. In 1997, 59% of the outflow but only 48% of the inflow was employed; in 1998 the figures were 60% and 58% respectively. In 1999, whilst the proportion of the employed in the inflow figure was virtually unchanged at 59%, the proportion of the employed in the outflow rose to 65%. This being the case, whereas in 1998 the United Kingdom enjoyed an overall net gain of 71 000 persons in employment compared with 60 000 not in employment, the 1999 figures were 41 400 and 67 500 respectively.

Table III.39. **Current figures on migration flows and stocks of total population and labour force, United Kingdom**

All figures in thousands unless otherwise indicated

	1996	1997	1998	1999		1996	1997	1998	1999
Migration flows¹					Total grants of citizenship in the United Kingdom by previous country or region of nationality	43.1	37.0	53.5	54.9
Total inflows	272	285	332	354	Indian Sub-continent	10.8	8.5	14.6	14.8
Inflows of non-British citizens	168	188	221	239	Africa	9.2	8.0	12.9	12.9
<i>of which:</i>					Asia	8.7	6.9	10.7	10.9
EU	54	61	68	60	Middle East	3.5	2.8	4.3	4.7
non-EU	114	127	153	179	Remainder of Asia	5.2	4.1	6.4	6.2
Inflows of British citizens	104	97	111	116	Europe	4.7	4.3	5.9	7.3
Total outflows	216	225	199	245	European Economic Area	1.7	1.5	1.3	1.7
Outflows of non-British citizens	77	94	88	131	Remainder of Europe	2.9	2.8	4.6	5.6
<i>of which:</i>					America	4.3	3.5	5.2	5.4
EU	24	32	26	47	Oceania	1.5	1.4	1.6	1.5
non-EU	53	62	62	84	Other	3.9	4.3	2.5	2.2
Outflows of British citizens	139	131	111	115	Asylum seekers (Total applications received)	29.6	32.5	46.0	71.2
Net migration	56	60	134	109	By region of origin				
Non-British citizens	91	94	133	108	Europe	6.5	9.1	17.8	28.3
<i>of which:</i>					Africa	11.3	9.5	12.4	18.4
EU	30	29	43	13	America	1.8	2.8	1.0	2.0
Non-EU	61	65	91	96	Asia	7.9	8.6	11.9	17.5
British citizens	-35	-34	-	1	Middle East	2.2	2.3	2.8	4.2
Acceptances for settlement	61.7	58.7	69.8	97.1	Other	4.0	0.1	0.1	0.8
By region of origin					According to the place where the application was received (%)				
Europe (excluding EU) ²	7.4	7.6	7.3	16.0	At port	41.9	51.1	50.9	59.0
America	8.5	7.8	10.8	8.5	In country	58.1	48.9	49.1	41.0
Africa	13.0	13.2	16.1	27.0	Illegal immigration statistics				
Indian Sub-continent	13.6	13.1	16.4	21.4	Persons against whom enforcement action taken	21.4	19.9	21.1	42.0
Middle East	4.8	4.2	4.2	5.6	Persons removed from country	5.4	6.5	7.3	29.0
Remainder of Asia	9.5	8.4	9.5	13.1	Available sources on inflows of foreign workers				
Oceania	3.5	3.1	3.7	4.1	Labour Force Survey	50.0	59.0	68.0	64.0
Other	1.5	1.4	1.8	1.4	International Passenger Survey	89.0	79.0	120.0	127.0
By category of acceptance					Department of Social Security	145.9	130.3
Accepted in own right	6.7	7.6	10.3	31.7	Work permits	37.7	42.4	49.7	55.5
Spouses and dependents	48.6	46.2	53.0	65.2	<i>of which</i>				
Other	6.5	4.9	6.4	0.2	Short-term	16.8	19.0	23.5	21.8
Stock of total population³					Long-term	16.9	18.7	25.0	30.6
Total population	57 624	57 870	58 106	58 298	Trainees	4.0	4.7
Total number of British citizens	55 680	55 796	55 895	56 079	Total stock of employment³				
Total number of foreign nationals	1 934	2 066	2 207	2 208	Total	25 962	26 446	26 736	27 025
					British citizens	25 095	25 497	25 696	26 018
					Foreign nationals	865	949	1 039	1 005

1. Data are from the International Passenger Survey. Movements between the Republic of Ireland and the United Kingdom are not recorded. Data for 1999 are provisional. Data do not include adjustments for asylum seekers and for persons admitted as short-term visitors who are subsequently granted an extension of stay for other reasons.

2. An acceptance of settlement is not required for EU citizens.

3. Data are from the national Labour Force Survey.

Sources: International Passenger Survey; Home Office Statistical Bulletin; Control of Immigration Statistics; National Labour Force Survey.

Illegal immigration

Some 21 200 “illegal” entrants – persons who entered the country by deception or clandestinely – were detected in 1999. This compares with 7 500 in 1994, 10 400 in 1995, 14 500 in 1996, 14 300 in 1997 and 16 500 in 1998 and thus maintains the strong upward trend of recent years. One reason for this is that increasingly effective detection procedures have reduced the possibilities for illegal entry. The number of persons removed as illegal entrants, including those who left voluntarily following the initiation of enforcement action, decreased by 350 to 5 200 in 1999. In the first six months of 2000, enforcement action was initiated against 15 900 illegal entrants detected, compared with 7 100 in the equivalent period of 1999.

Refugees and asylum seekers

The basis for granting refugee status continues to be the 1951 Geneva Convention and the 1967 Protocol. Applicants who do not fully meet the Convention criteria, but for whom it would be unreasonable to enforce their return to their home country, may be granted “exceptional leave to remain” (ELR) status, renewable annually. From time to time there are special refugee programmes, normally involving people already recognised as Convention refugees, in response to particular problems. These people (such as the 25 000 South-east Asian refugees, mainly Vietnamese, accepted for settlement since 1979) are not normally included in the statistics of asylum applications and decisions. Neither do the figures include certain people who were allowed to remain on an exceptional basis, without applying for asylum, because of the situation in the country of origin, for instance particularly vulnerable individuals from the former Yugoslavia and their dependants received in the United Kingdom under arrangements announced on 30 November 1992 and 6 August 1995.

Almost 71 200 asylum applications (excluding dependants) were received in 1999, 55% more than in 1998 and nearly 120% more than in 1997. The proportion of applications made in-country was 59%, up from 50% in 1998. Just under 40% of all applications in 1999 were from nationals of European states, 30% from Asia and 26% from Africa. The main nationalities of applicants were the Federal Republic of Yugoslavia (FRY) (17% – the majority Kosovars), Somalia (11%), Sri Lanka (7%), Afghanistan (6%) and Turkey (4%). There were particularly large rises, compared with the year before, for the first four of these. Conversely, there were noticeable falls in applications from Nigerians and Kenyans. Applications in the first ten months of 2000 totalled just under 63 000. If continued for the rest of 1999, this would result in a figure approaching 75 600 applications for the year, easily the highest total ever. In only two months has the number of applications fallen below 6 000 and the latest available figure, that for October, was nearly 7 000. In October, the largest number of applications was from Iraqis (1 175), followed by Sri Lankans, Iranians and Afghans (each 530-550).

There is no received view as to why asylum applications have increased so much in 1999 and 2000 in the face of three Asylum Acts in 1993, 1996 and 1999, each of which was designed to reduce the level of applications. Several hypotheses may be advanced. First, that asylum seekers are attracted to the UK by relatively generous social security benefits. While this may be true in comparison with some other countries, there is little evidence to suggest that the UK is way out of line in this regard generally. Second, the appeals procedure is cumbersome and slow, conducive to the build-up of a backlog that delays decisions and provides asylum seekers with the hope that they may be able to stay for long periods while their cases are dealt with. Third, that the country is targeted by traffickers who are able to perceive the administrative weaknesses of the system. Fourth, that many of the sending countries are former colonies where there is marked instability and persecution of minorities and whose citizens naturally look to the “mother country” for protection. Fifth, that the seeming inexorable build-up of a backlog of cases is spreading the idea that there will be some form of amnesty for those whose cases have not been dealt with. Being in the UK at that time would clearly be advantageous. Sixth, that the provisions of the Dublin Convention are not having the anticipated effect with the result that the UK’s geographical position does not form some kind of defensive barrier. Seventh, that the absence of identity documents and hence internal controls renders extremely difficult the removal of unsuccessful applicants.

The growing number of unaccompanied children (aged under 17), arriving in the UK and not known to be joining a close relative has become an increasing source of concern over the last few years. The numbers of such children rose from 245 in 1993 to 3 350 in 1999. The main countries of origin were FRY (45%), Afghanistan, Somalia and China (each 5-6%).

2. Structure and changes in the foreign population

Numerical trends

The Labour Force Survey is the only source of data permitting a breakdown by nationality of the stock of foreign population and workforce in the United Kingdom. The survey includes all United Kingdom and foreign citizens, but the relatively small size of the sample (one sample interviewee is weighted up to approximately 300 people) means that disaggregation by nationality and migrant characteristics cannot be detailed.

During the period 1992-97 stocks of foreign nationals in the United Kingdom fluctuated around the 2 million mark. Having increased by almost 7% in 1998 to just over 2.2 million (see Table III.39), the figure remained constant in 1999 before rising once more by 6% to 2.34 million. The preponderance of females among the foreign population observed during the 1990s continued (53.1%).

As in previous years, the Irish were easily the largest national group in 2000. However, they accounted for only 17%, as compared to 25% in 1992. Indians and United States citizens again occupied second and third places. There were substantial numbers also from Pakistan and Bangladesh. After the Irish, the next largest European group were the Italians, followed by the French, whose numbers have been increasing over recent years. African numbers continued their rise since 1997, reaching almost 300 000 in 2000, the largest number recorded from that source and an increase of 20% on 1999. The number from Africa having fallen in 1999 rose by 7% in 2000 to 558 000, while those from Asia fell slightly but still totalled over half a million. The number of Australians rose by over one third to 75 000 while the number of Canadians was almost unchanged at 31 000.

Settlement

“Settlement”, in the context of migration in the United Kingdom, refers to the acquisition of permanent residence status. Most of the individuals acquiring permanent residence status have already resided in the United Kingdom for a considerable period of time (typically four years continuously) in order to fulfil qualifying periods of residence. In 1999, a total of 97 120 persons were granted settlement. This was about 27 300 (39%) more than in the previous year (see Table III.39). The increase was mainly due to a significant rise in the number of recognised refugees and persons granted exceptional leave to remain, including acceptances under measures aimed at reducing the backlog of pre-1993 asylum applications. There were also increases within the categories of husbands, wives and children. The number was partly offset by small decreases in the number of persons of independent means, in business, parents and grandparents, other acceptances and other discretionary acceptances.

There were substantial increases in 1999 in acceptances from Europe (by 8 700 to 16 000 bringing the proportion up from 10% to 15%) and Africa (by 10 900 to 27 000, bringing this continent's share up from 23% to 28%). Though the number of those from the Indian sub-continent rose by 5 000, their share of the total declined by 2% to 22%). The number from Asia excluding the Indian sub-continent also rose by 5 000, bringing the number up to 18 600. The number of acceptances from the Americas fell by 2 300 to 8 500.

Naturalisations

Grants of citizenship in the UK have fluctuated over the last decade or so. From the late 1980s until the mid 1990s, the general trend in numbers appeared to be downward (There was an exception in 1989 in consequence of the 1981 British Nationality Act, which caused a last minute rush of applications in 1987 to beat the deadline before the transitional provisions of the Act ended.) Over the last two years the number has increased to a level approaching that of the early 1990s. Around 55 000 people were granted citizenship in 1999, a 2% rise on the previous year; 4 000 applications were refused (see Table III.39).

The most frequent basis for grant of citizenship continues to be a period of residence in the UK. Although in recent years residence has become less important than formerly, it still accounted for about 42% of all grants in 1999, just below the average of 45% for the 1990s. Grants on the basis of marriage, numbering 18 500 in 1998, rose to 18 900, 35% of the total and was the highest figure since 1991 and highest proportion for the whole of the 1980s and 1990s. Grants to minor children rose for the fourth year in succession to 12 300, around 22% of

the total. Most grants, over four-fifths, are now discretionary rather than by entitlement: The British Nationality Act 1981 reduced greatly the number of persons eligible for British citizenship by reason of entitlement.

Citizens of Indian sub-continent countries accounted for 27% of all grants in 1999, with the rest of Asia and Africa accounting for about 23 and 20% respectively. The remaining 30% was split between Europe (13%), the Americas (10%), and others including Oceania (7%). The proportion from Africa has increased from 15% in 1992 to 23% in 1999, with decreases over the period from EEA countries, the Middle East, and "Others".

3. Migration and the labour market

Migration for employment and work permits

The number of foreign nationals working in the United Kingdom fluctuated between 850 and 900 000 from 1993 to 1996. Having since risen strongly, to exceed one million for the first time in 1998 (3.9% of the total in employment, see Table III.39), the number fell back slightly to 1.005 million in 1999 before rising again in 2000 to their highest recorded figure of 1.107 million. Of these some 452 000 foreign workers were from other EU countries, virtually the same figure as in the two previous years and accounting for 41% of all foreign employment, well down on the 45% of the year before which was the highest proportion of recent years. This leaves 655 000 from non-EU countries, almost 100 000 up on 1999. Thus, a static foreign workforce from the EU is being supplemented by a considerable rise in that from non-EU countries.

The importance of the Republic of Ireland as a supplier of workers to the UK economy remains apparent. The Irish accounted for 45.6% of EU foreign workers and 18.6% of all foreign workers in the UK in 2000. However, the role of the Irish has been diminishing. In 1995 they accounted for 49% of EU foreign workers and 22.7% of all foreign workers. It appears that the strong economy of the Republic is either pulling large numbers of Irish back home or stopping new workers crossing the Irish Sea for employment in the UK. After the Irish, Italians, French and Germans continue to be the main groups of EU citizens working in the UK. There were 63 000 from the rest of Europe, an increase of 16 000 on the year before; this included 45 000 from Eastern Europe and the former Soviet Union, 20 000 more than in 1999. Other significant groups were 141 000 from the Indian sub-continent, 61 000 from the United States, 46 000 from Western African states and 54 000 from Australia, all well up on 1999.

Just over half (52.8%) of the foreign workforce was male, but not for those from the EU among whom females were in a slight preponderance (50.4%), a continuation of the pattern common during the 1990s but interrupted in 1997. Among Africans, Antipodeans, Americans and Asians, males were in a clear majority, continuing the pattern in recent years. Comparison of the sex balance of foreign workers with the total foreign population shows a continuing and significant difference: males are a majority of the former but a minority of the latter.

Overall, the trend suggests that during the 1990s the UK labour market has become more open, absolutely and relatively, to workers from other European states, a trend continuing in 2000. While this was less true for nationals from outside Europe until 1995, in the last few years the situation appears to have changed, with the UK labour market becoming more open to non-EU nationals. On this evidence it would seem that the UK continues to suck in increasing numbers of foreign workers, predominantly from beyond the EU.

Work permits

Applications for work permits are made by the employer on behalf of the non-EEA potential employee in order to fill a specific post. (Since 1994, EEA nationals have not required a work permit.) During 1998, new issues of work permits and first permissions for those engaged in training combined with work experience totalled 49 700, an increase of 17% on 1997. In 1999, the number fell back by 10% to 44 500. Whereas in 1995 United States citizens were granted 33% of all issues, in 1999 the proportion fell to 23% (9 700) from 27% the previous year. Another noteworthy change is the declining proportion of permits issued to Japanese citizens and the growth in the numbers to Indian, Australasian, South African and Canadian citizens. In 1995, 10% of all permits were issued to Japanese citizens; in 1999 the proportion had declined to 5.9% (2 500). Numbers of issues granted to Indian citizens almost tripled between 1995 and 1999 from 2 000 to 5 700 (13.5% of

the total). The increase of 50% between 1996 and 1997 was the largest annual rise. Similarly, numbers of work permits granted to Australasian citizens increased from 1 575 in 1995 to 3 790 in 1999 and for South Africans from 660 in 1995 to 3 300 in 1999.

An analysis of the occupations for which the permits have been accorded reveals that the work permit system is mainly operating to bring in, on a long-term basis, the highly skilled. The rise in the number of long-term work permits holders over last few years is consistent with an increased demand for skills as the UK economy emerged strongly from recession and went into a period of sustained growth.

The work permit system is characterised by a turnover of labour, though for a substantial minority it results in a grant of the right of settlement. Based on a comparison between the number of permit holders granted settlement and the number of long-term work permits issued four years previously since 1985, the propensity of work permit holders to settle permanently is approximately one quarter.

Seasonal workers

The United Kingdom has one seasonal worker scheme, in agriculture. The origins of the scheme go back to the period after the Second World War when Displaced Persons were employed as seasonal agricultural labourers. Systematic data on the present scheme have only been collected since 1992, however. All new recruits must be students in full time education abroad, and aged between 18 and 25. The period of work is of a maximum of 3 months and should not extend beyond 30 November. The total number recruited each year is governed by a quota, currently set at 10 000, though the actual number is normally below this level. The scheme is operated by a small number (currently seven) Scheme Operators, normally farming companies. The quota per Operator presently ranges from 120 to 4,133. Reflecting the growing importance of the scheme, with the number of workers admitted rising from less than 3 600 in 1992 to 9 760 in 1999, the quota will be raised to a new ceiling of 15 400 in 2001.

Around 97% of those admitted are the former Soviet Union and Central and Eastern Europe. The majority are male, though their proportion has been falling, from 67% in 1992 to 45% in the first half of 2000. Poland has been the main origin but its importance has slipped latterly, from 39 per cent of all admissions in 1998 to 28% in 2000. The former Soviet Union has become more important, up from 27% in 1998 to 44.5% in 2000. After a period in which the geographical pattern by origin changed little after the Scheme started, there now seems to be a marked shift eastwards.

Corporate transfers

One of the main features of labour immigration into the UK is the high proportion accounted for by corporate transfers. Survey evidence and data on work permit issues show that almost all of those transferred are professional, managerial or highly skilled technical staff.

Whereas in 1998/99 the average number of people working abroad a year before and at the time of the Labour Force Survey was 80 000, the same as in 1997/98 though much higher than the averages in 1996/97 and in 1995/96 (66 000 and 61 000 respectively), the number of people working abroad a year before and at the time of the survey in 2000 was 90 000. Of these 30.5% (as compared with 38% in 1999/98) worked for the same employer at both times and may therefore be assumed to be corporate transferees. The majority (16 000) of this group (27 500) were foreign nationals. Both of these numbers are lower than in the last two years (Table 4.10b). It is not clear how far these fluctuations are random statistical ones caused by the sampling, or represent real changes in corporate relocation practices.

Working Holidaymakers

Commonwealth citizens aged between 17 and 27 wishing to work in the United Kingdom for limited periods do not require a work permit. Their employment is allowed under the working holidaymakers scheme. The annual number employed under this scheme, having risen from 23 200 in 1990 to 33 300 in 1997, with a peak of 36 000 in 1995, rose by over 20% in 1998 and by one eighth in 1999 to nearly 45 800.

Source countries are dominated by the "Old Commonwealth", with Australians the largest group, accounting for 41% in 1999. The number of South Africans has grown rapidly following the introduction of black major-

ity rule: having shot up from three in 1993 to over 2 300 in 1994 they have since consistently accounted for over 20% of those employed under the scheme: the figure of 27% in 1999 made them the second most important group ahead of New Zealand (18%) and Canada (8%).

Though little is known about their characteristics, it would be reasonable to assume that they are generally well educated and adaptable. As these people are in the United Kingdom to both work and take a holiday one cannot know how many of them are working at any one time. Although data providing a regional breakdown of where they go to are not available, it may reasonably be expected that London and other major tourist centres would employ the bulk of them, where they account for a numerically significant and highly flexible element in the labour market.

4. Policy developments

Admission and residence (including integration measures)

Review of the work permit arrangements

Between November 1999 and March 2000 the Department for Education and Employment (DfEE) conducted the first stage of a fundamental review of the work permit arrangements. The report concluded that given there exists general support for regulatory access to the United Kingdom labour market, that the United Kingdom system compares favourably with others, notably the United States system whose quota systems were seen as inflexible and unresponsive to market need and that the employer-led approach should be retained as the fundamental basis of arrangements, then any radical options should be pilot-tested to ensure that they offer genuine advantages. In March 2000 Ministers endorsed a wide range of proposals for changes and further detailed reviews. These have been implemented over the past year. The main changes introduced were:

- A revision of the skill criteria: the requirement that graduates must have at least two years' post-qualification experience to be eligible for a permit has been removed as has the three year time limit on permits for people with intermediate level skills (formerly referred to as "Keyworkers").
- A simplification of the resident labour test requirement for intermediate level skill posts: it has been abolished for all extensions and changes of employment. Supplementary employment no longer needs approval by the DfEE.
- The introduction of a pilot scheme to allow multinational companies to self-certify employee transfers rather than apply to the DfEE for a permit.
- The establishment of a user panel and sector panels; further sector panels are planned.
- The introduction of a facility whereby work permit applications may be submitted electronically via e-mail. By Summer 2001 this will allow electronic applications to be input directly into the work permit computer system.
- The expansion of the shortage occupation list to include a wide range of IT posts thus providing a fast-track for these applications with no need for a resident labour test.

Scheme for innovators

This scheme was developed in association with the Department of Trade and Industry (DTI) and became operational on 4 September 2000. It is designed to attract entrepreneurs whose businesses are expected to create exceptional economic benefits for United Kingdom. The key features of this scheme are that no minimum amount of investment required and that third party finance is accepted. Applications, which are referred to the Business Case Unit, who upon receipt of case will aim to complete within 2 weeks, are assessed by means of compliance with minimum requirements and achieving pass mark on points-based system. Applicants may seek entry for their family (spouse/ children under 18).

The minimum requirements are that those entrepreneurs settled in United Kingdom must create at least 2 full time jobs (or equivalent), hold at least 5% of the equity capital of their business, be able to support

themselves and their family without having to take other work/use public funds and that they can provide proof that seed capital is in place for first six months.

The points-based system is broken into three sections. These are: personal characteristics; viability of business plan; and, economic benefit to the United Kingdom. The personal characteristics section considers their work/business experience, their capacity to prove their entrepreneurial ability, educational qualifications and personal references. The business plan viability section considers their financial viability (How will you finance your proposals?), commercial viability (Will anyone want it?), technical viability (Does the idea work?) and the establishment of a management team. The economic benefit to the United Kingdom section considers the numbers and types of jobs created, the introduction of new technology, processes or products to United Kingdom, the expenditure on Research and Development/ownership of patents and any innovation in e-commerce.

Changes under consideration

A proposal to enable graduates to transfer into the work permit category upon completion of their degree without first leaving the UK and a proposal to introduce an entry route for the highly skilled to come to the UK in the absence of a job offer are being considered.

UNITED STATES

Introduction

Although the US economy continued to enjoy healthy economic growth in the late 1990s with the real gross domestic product increasing by 5% between 1999 and 2000, permanent immigration levels did not increase. In fact, a downward trend in the number of annual immigrant admissions has continued since 1996. Employment-based immigration accounts for a relatively small share of annual flows. In the United States, admissions criteria and numerical limitations are modified only infrequently with the last major changes legislated in 1990. Finally, processing backlogs have kept immigrant admissions at lower than expected levels.

In contrast, temporary migration programs have been the subject of considerable legislative activity in the past year. Perhaps most notable is the expansion in the size of the H-1B program for specially workers for the second time in two years. Additional visa programs have been created to allow for the admission of spouses and children of US citizens and lawful permanent residents who are waiting for their permanent immigration applications to be processed. Legislation designed to provide assistance and protection to trafficking victims was also passed.

1. Trends in migration movements

Emigration

There do not exist reliable statistics on emigration flows. It is estimated, however, that emigration has been rising steadily since 1950, at an annual rate of more than 100 000 between 1970 and 1990, and more than 200 000 a year in the 1990s. The US Bureau of the Census estimates that the annual emigration flow (of both US citizens and foreigners) is currently 220 000 (*i.e.*, less than 0.1% of the total population).

Inflows and outflows of foreigners

Migrants into the United States can be divided into three main streams, that of: *i*) “immigrants” – persons granted permanent residence and who are eligible for eventual US citizenship; *ii*) “non-immigrants” – persons admitted temporarily for a specific purpose –; and, *iii*) illegal migrants.

In 1999, 646 600 persons were granted immigrant status, the lowest number since 1988. This level was in stark contrast with the peak immigration year of 1991 when over 1 827 000 received immigrant status, largely as a result of the legalization program in 1986 legislation. Immigration in 1999 was nearly 30% lower than 1996 – the peak year of the last five years – when nearly 916 000 immigrants were admitted, many of whom were family members of the previously admitted legalized immigrants.

However, this markedly lower level of immigrants in 1999 does not reflect a decline in the number of applications but rather is a reflection of increasing backlogs in the processing of applications. For example, in October 1995, there were 321 000 applications awaiting processing within the United States. By October 1999, the number of applications had grown to 951 000 and year later, the backlog surpassed one million. The Immigration and Naturalization Service (INS) has estimated that during the period 1995-98, the annual volume of immigration would, on average, have been 110 000 to 140 000 higher (*i.e.*, much the same as over the previous several years) had the length of the waiting list remained constant.

Much of the processing backlog is attributable to a 1995-97 program which shifted workload from US consulates overseas to the Immigration and Naturalization Service offices within the United States. The program known as “section 245(i)” (based on its location in the US Immigration and Nationality Act) enabled illegal residents who had filed an immigrant application to adjust to permanent immigrant status without having to leave the United States, if and when their application is approved. However, it does not convey protection to migrants during the time they are in the United States in illegal status. Nonetheless, the reason section 245(i) is important is that without it, illegal aliens are required to seek their immigrant visa in their home country, but, because of their illegal status in the United States for any period over 6 months, they would be barred from reentering the US for at least three years.

Permanent immigrant status is granted primarily on the grounds of family reunion (73.7% of the total in 1999). In that year, those entering under this category for reasons of employment (including accompanying family members – see section 3, Migration and the labour market) accounted for a further 8.8% of the total and those accepted on humanitarian grounds (*i.e.*, refugees and asylees) accounted for 6.6%. Immigrants admitted under the diversity program accounted for an additional 7.4%.

It must be stressed that the figures available on the number of new immigrants do not reflect the number of new entries into the United States. The possibilities for students, temporary workers or other temporary immigrants to transform their temporary status into permanent immigrant status are numerous. Thus, in 1999, approximately 38% of new immigrants had already been living in the United States.

Asia, Europe, the Caribbean, and Mexico provide the largest number of immigrants. Mexico continues to be the principal country of origin by far, accounting for nearly 23% of all immigration in 1999. In contrast, the next largest sending countries were People’s Republic of China and India, each accounting for slightly less than 5% of US immigration. In 1999, six States (California, New York State, Florida, Texas, New Jersey and Illinois) received over two-thirds (68%) of the new immigrants.

Illegal immigration

All those who have crossed the border illegally or who have failed to respect the terms of their temporary visa are classified as illegal immigrants. The Immigration and Naturalization Service estimates that visa overstayers accounted for nearly 41% of all illegal immigrants in 1996.

The release of April 2000 Census results – with higher overall population numbers than expected – has indicated that the resident illegal population may be greater than previously thought. Although the essential numbers on the foreign born enumerated in the Census have yet to be released, it has been speculated that the illegal population could easily be as high as 7-9 million in the year 2000. Previously, the INS had estimated a 1999 illegal immigrant population of almost 6 million (based upon estimates of 4.6-5.4 million for October 1996 and annual growth of 275 000). It had been estimated that Mexicans account for over half of all illegal immigrants, followed, a long way behind, by nationals of El Salvador (6.7%) and Guatemala (3.3%). The release of the 2000 Census results, by country of nativity, should shed further light on the number and composition of the illegal population in the United States.

Refugees and asylum seekers

Migrants entering as refugees and asylum-seekers are often the second largest group of immigrants into the United States, after family-based immigrants. The law defines and treats those persons fleeing persecution differently according to whether they have applied for asylum in the United States (asylum-seekers) or from outside (refugees). Both groups can eventually adjust to immigrant status: refugees are eligible after having been in the country for one year, but successful asylum seekers often take longer as the number of adjustments to immigrant status is limited to 10 000 per year.

Every year, Congress sets a ceiling on the number of refugees to be allowed into the country. It is not strictly a quota since it can be revised during the year (for example, the ceiling was adjusted upwards in August 1999 because of the Kosovo crisis), but nonetheless this figure and the actual number of refugees admitted are closely correlated. The ceiling contains a regional breakdown, though it is possible for transfers to be made from one region to another during the year if this is considered to be necessary. The ceiling for 2001 was set at 80 000 entries, whereas for each of the previous three years it was higher, ranging between 83 000 and 90 000.

For each of the past three years, the largest regional ceilings have been for Eastern Europe and the former Soviet Union, followed by Africa. In August 1999, in response to the Kosovo crisis, the total ceiling was raised from 78 000 to 91 000. Nearly 14 000 refugees arrived from Kosovo, of whom 3 400 have left the United States.

At the start of 1990s, the United States had to cope with the arrival of large numbers of Haitians and Cubans fleeing their respective countries. The exodus of the Haitians came to an end with the return to power of President Aristide in October 1994. That of the Cubans was checked by an agreement by the US and Cuban governments under which the United States would admit 20 000 Cubans immigrants each year, in return for which the Cuban government agreed to take the necessary steps to stem the outflow of its citizens.

Reforms to the asylum process and a doubling of the staffing of asylum officers since the mid 1990s have resulted in declines in the backlog of cases. Regulations put into place in January 1995 provide for *i)* an integrated processing system that would grant meritorious claims within 60 days and refer non-granted claims directly to immigration judges and *ii)* removal of the link between work authorisation and the asylum process by withholding work authorisation until asylum is granted or until a claim remains pending for 180 days, as a deterrent to the filing of frivolous or fraudulent claims. The “Illegal Immigration Reform and Immigrant Responsibility Act of 1996” (IIRIRA) incorporated these reforms into the legislation, as well as requiring that asylum seekers must now apply for asylum within one year of entering the United States. At present, only 15 000 of the requests filed before the reforms are still pending.

Family reunion

Family reunion, the principal component of the permanent immigration into the United States, accounted for nearly three-quarters of all immigrants in 1999. It is composed of two categories:

- Immediate family members of US citizens, *i.e.*, spouses, unmarried minor children (including adoptions), and parents. This category does not have a numerical limit and accounted for over 40% of all new permanent immigrants in 1999.
- Family-based preference immigrants comprising other family members, *i.e.*, the adult children, brothers and sisters of US citizens and the spouses and unmarried children of earlier arrived immigrants. There are four “preference” categories, each subject to a numerical limit. Family-based preference immigrants accounted for nearly 34% of all new permanent immigrants in 1999.

2. Structure and changes in the foreign-born population

Numerical trends

Immigrant data collection from the monthly population survey (Current Population Survey) was launched in January 1994. It provides the United States with a second source of data on the foreign-born population, the other being the ten-year census.

Between 1970 and 1999, the foreign-born population increased much more rapidly than the native population. It rose from 9.6 million to 26.4 million, and its proportion of the total population doubled, now accounting for nearly 10% of the total US population. The geographical origin of the foreign-born population in the United States has changed considerably since the 1970s. Whereas in 1970 the European-born immigrant population accounted for nearly 60% of the total foreign-born population, it accounted for only 16% in 1999. Many of the earlier-arriving European cohorts have entered old-age and have begun to experience high mortality rates, whereas recent flows from other regions have accelerated. Today, Central America and Asia account for the largest share of the foreign born, 34% and 27%, respectively.

Naturalisations

To acquire US nationality, it is necessary to meet a number of conditions regarding age, lawful entry and length of residence in the country, command of English and knowledge of the United States' history. The number of naturalisations quadrupled between 1992 and 1996 (from 240 000 to 1 045 000). Naturalisations increased for several reasons – the large number of immigrants who had been legalised under IRCA became eligible, social benefits were being curtailed for non-citizens, immigrants needed to apply for new identification cards anyway, and the Citizenship USA initiative streamlined the process. Additional quality control measures were imposed in the mid 1990s and the processing of applications slowed, reaching a low of 463 000 in 1998. Additional resources have recently been re-allocated and preliminary statistics for 1999 and 2000 show naturalisations numbering 872 000 and 898 000, respectively.

3. Migration and the labour market

Migration for employment and work permits

As of 1992, the year in which the 1990 Immigration Act (IMMACT 90) came into force, the numerical limit on the annual number of employment-based visas increased from 54 000 to a minimum of 140 000. In those years when the family-based cap had not been reached the previous year, the employment-based cap is further increased by an amount corresponding to that part of the family-based quota which had not been used. Thus in 1999, the numerical limit for employment-based immigration had been increased to 160 898. Backlogs in the processing prevented this cap from being reached and only 56 817 employment-based immigrants were admitted, accounting for less than 9% of all US immigrants. In fact, persons admitted as workers were less than 4% of all immigration in 1999 because their spouses and unmarried minor children accounted for more than half of the visas which were utilised in the employment-based preferences (see Table III.40). The employment-based preference system favours the entry of highly-skilled workers, with only 10 000 visas being reserved for unskilled workers and their families.

Immigration of highly-skilled personnel

The United States also takes in a large number of temporary workers categorised as “non-immigrants”, a large proportion of whom are highly-skilled workers. Analysing non-immigrant data can be very difficult, and even misleading, because the statistics include multiple entries by the same person at different times. Additionally, many of these temporary workers stay in the country for more than one year – for example, holders of the H-1B visa, created for the highly-skilled, can stay for six years and even beyond. The main categories of temporary workers are traders and investors entering on the basis of international agreements, H-1B professionals and intra-company transferees.

The flows in other categories such as professionals entering under the North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA), agricultural workers, and unskilled temporary workers have increased substantially in recent years. The number of Canadian professionals entering the United States to work under NAFTA has grown from 25 000 in 1994 to over 60 000 in 1999 (in this latter year there were also 16 000 family members). By contrast, the number of Mexican professionals entering under NAFTA remains low, *i.e.*, less than 1 500 per year. NAFTA facilitates the temporary entry of 4 groups of business persons: business visitors, investors, intra-company transferees and professionals. Whereas there is no numerical ceiling on entries from Canada, entries from

Table III.40. **Employment-based immigration, by preference, fiscal years 1996-1999, United States**

	Thousands			
	1996	1997	1998	1999
Total, employment 1st preference	27.5	21.8	21.4	14.9
Aliens with extraordinary ability	2.1	1.7	1.7	1.3
Outstanding professors or researchers	2.6	2.1	1.8	1.0
Multinational executives or managers	6.4	5.3	5.2	3.6
Spouses and children of 1st preference	16.5	12.7	12.7	9.1
Total, employment 2nd preference	18.5	17.1	14.4	8.6
Members of the professions holding advanced degrees or persons of exceptional ability	8.9	8.4	6.9	3.9
Spouses and children of 2nd preference	9.6	8.7	7.5	4.6
Total, employment 3rd preference	62.8	42.6	34.3	28.0
Skilled workers	16.0	10.6	8.5	7.3
Baccalaureate holders	5.5	4.0	3.9	2.5
Spouses and children of the above	29.0	19.2	15.6	13.2
Chinese Student Protection Act	0.4	0.1	–	–
Other workers (unskilled workers)	6.0	4.0	2.7	2.1
Spouses and children of unskilled workers	5.8	4.7	3.6	2.9
Total, employment 4th preference	7.8	7.8	6.6	5.1
Special immigrants	3.5	3.7	2.7	2.3
Spouses and children of 4th preference	4.4	4.1	3.9	2.8
Total, employment 5th preference	0.9	1.4	0.8	0.3
Employment creation, not targeted area	0.1	0.1	0.1	–
Spouses and children	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.1
Employment creation, targeted area	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.1
Spouses and children	0.3	0.7	0.4	0.1
Total, employment preferences, principals	51.6	40.3	33.8	24.1
Total, employment preferences, dependents	65.9	50.3	43.7	32.7
Total, employment preferences	117.5	90.6	77.5	56.8
% of total permanent settlers	12.8	11.3	11.7	8.8

Source: US Department of Justice, Immigration and Naturalization Service.

Mexico are capped at 5 500 per year until 1 January 2004 when all numerical limits and the requirement for US employers to pay the US prevailing wage are removed.

4. Migration policies

Many pieces of legislation were proposed in the Congress which ended its 2-year session in January 2001. Some failed to pass and will likely be re-introduced in the current Congressional session. In particular, proposals to split the INS into two separate entities and to create another agricultural guestworker program (in addition to the numerically unlimited H-2A program) are very likely to be debated again.

Significant legislation did become law in the last Congress. The American Competitiveness in the 21st Century Act, signed into law in October 2000, expanded the H-1B program for the second time in a two-year period. The annual numerical limit for H-1B non-immigrants was increased to 195,000 for three years, beginning with 2001. It exempts some H-1B workers from the cap, notably those employed at colleges and universities, their affiliated non-profit organisations, and non-profit and governmental research institutions. The law also made the H-1B visa more portable by allowing the worker to change jobs as soon as a new petition was filed, rather than having to wait for approval. The law also increased the length of stay beyond six years for workers who have labour certification or permanent immigrant applications pending for longer than one year. Now, stay under the H-1B visa has no definitive duration since workers can continue to reside and work in the United States until a final decision on their case is reached.

Trafficking of migrants was also addressed in the last US Congress. The Victims of Trafficking and Violence Protection Act, signed into law in November 2000, created 5 000 new "T" non-immigrant visas annually for

women and children who have been victims of “severe trafficking”. An additional 10 000 new “U” non-immigrant visas were created for aliens who have suffered physical or mental abuse as victims of crimes such as rape, domestic violence and involuntary servitude. After three years in either a “T” or “U” status, the non-immigrant becomes eligible to adjust to permanent resident status.

In December 2000, the Legal Immigration Family Equity (LIFE) Act became law. The law contained several major immigration provisions. First, it temporarily reinstated section 245(i) until April 30, 2001, once again authorising illegal residents who had filed an immigrant application to adjust to that status without having to depart from the United States. The LIFE Act also expanded the “K” visa ordinarily reserved for fiancés and fiancées of US citizens to cover those spouses and minor children of US citizens who are waiting outside the United States for approval of their immigrant visa. A “V” visa was created enabling the admission of those spouses and children of permanent residents whose immigrant applications had been pending for at least three years. Finally, the LIFE Act will allow people who would have been eligible for legalization under the 1986 IRCA program but were rejected or did not apply because of INS’ interpretation of IRCA to apply for immigrant status.

In February 2001, US President George Bush and Mexican President Vicente Fox met and pledged to engage in high-level negotiations “to constructively address migration and labor issues between our two countries”. Proposals concerning legal permanent migration, expansion of temporary worker programs, safety at the border, and regularization of the illegal population in the United States are expected to be negotiated. Many of the new initiatives will require legislation to be passed by the US Congress.

NOTES

1. Austria entered the EEA in 1994 which made entry-permits unnecessary for large groups of further workers. Hence, there is a structural break in the series.
2. Developed countries are defined as EU, Nordic countries and North America.
3. "Permanent Long Term" is defined as any person who states they are either leaving or entering New Zealand for a period of 12 months or more.
4. Data as at 30 June 2000.
5. Those with a New Zealand resident or citizen partner, New Zealand born children, or who had been in New Zealand for five years or more by 30 March 2001.
6. LFS unemployment rates as a percentage of the total labour force, national sources. The unemployment rate conceals considerable regional variations; the unemployment rate of the Bratislava region is less than half that any other region's.
7. The Czech Statistical Office has supplied the numbers that are given in the Table on Emigration to the Czech republic.

STATISTICAL ANNEX

INTRODUCTION

Data on the flows and stocks of migrants and related issues, such as their performance in the labour market, are derived from a wide variety of sources and the nature of these sources varies across countries. This makes the application of standardised definitions difficult and hence particular attention needs to be paid to the characteristics of the data, especially in the context of international comparisons. Section A of this annex describes the sources and methods used to generate migration statistics and is followed by presentation of data in Section B. These data are a selection from the OECDs' database of migration statistics.

Some preliminary remarks are required concerning the nature of the OECDs' migration data. Most of the data are taken from the individual contributions of correspondents appointed by the OECD Secretariat with the approval of national governments. In this regard it should be noted that:

- As discussed in the Foreword to this report, the Continuous Reporting System on Migration (SOPEMI) covers almost all of the Member countries of the OECD.
- The coverage of countries in the data and the ability to construct time-series is to a certain extent affected by the dates at which countries became members of the SOPEMI network. Recent participants to SOPEMI do not necessarily provide historical data in their reports and, in addition, further clarification is sometimes required before data can be published.
- SOPEMI has no authority to impose changes in data collection procedures. It has an observatory role which, by its very nature, has to use existing statistics. However, it does play an active role in suggesting what it considers to be essential improvements in data collection and makes every effort to present consistent and well documented statistics.

A. SOURCES AND COMPARABILITY OF MIGRATION STATISTICS

Compared to some other areas of statistics, such as labour force data, there exists little international standardisation of migration statistics. Consequently there are

varying degrees of comparability between countries. One reason for this is that relatively few sources have as their *raison d'être* the recording of migration. Population registers, a common source of migration statistics, are used for a number of other administrative and statistical purposes. As a result, tailoring registers such that migration data conform to an international standard is made more difficult. Comparability is also problematic if data are based on residence or work permits. The data reflect migration systems and the policies of national governments and so, once again, it can be difficult to generate harmonised data. Hence, although there has been some development and agreement in the definition and classification of migration for statistical purposes (see Box A.1), these standards have proved difficult to implement.

Aside from problems relating to international comparability, there are other difficulties with migration statistics, most notably the problem of measuring illegal immigration. Estimation is difficult and the figures that exist should be viewed, therefore, with some scepticism (see OECD, 1989). For this reason, explicit estimates of illegal immigrants have not been included in this annex. However, some stock and flow data partially incorporate illegal migration, therefore the phenomenon does not necessarily go completely unmeasured. For example, individuals may remain on population registers after their permits have expired, residing as illegal (or "undocumented") immigrants. Finally, it should be noted that those achieving legal status under "regularisation programmes" are sometimes included in inflow data and must be taken into account when analysing trends. In addition, regularisation programs may be followed by an additional wave of immigration depending on the extent to which the acquisition of legal status allows family reunification.

The following provides a brief review of the sources of migration statistics (1); this is followed by a discussion of the techniques used for measuring migration flows (2), and of data issues relating to stocks of migrants and the immigrant population (3).

1. Sources of migration statistics

The principle sources of migration statistics are population registers, residence or work permits, censuses and surveys. However, a wide variety of other data sources (*e.g.* special surveys, counts at border crossings, analysis

Box A.1. Definitions of migration flows and immigrant populations developed by the United Nations

New recommendations on statistics relating to international migration

The United Nations, in co-operation with other international organisations, has recently revised its 1976 recommendations on statistics relating to international migration in order to 1) propose a simplified and more pragmatic definition of “international migrant” which would take into account the emerging importance of temporary migration and 2) provide guidelines for the compilation of statistical information which would fit with the new definitions (United Nations, 1998).

According to the new United Nations recommendations, an international migrant is defined as “any person who changes his or her country of usual residence”. The “country of usual residence” refers to the country in which a person lives, that is to say, the country in which he or she has a place to live where he or she normally spends the daily period of rest. As a consequence, all movements which are not accompanied by a change of usual residence are not considered as migrations. For example, movements for the purpose of recreation, holiday, visits to friends and relatives, business, medical treatment or religious pilgrimage should not be considered as migrations.

In order to take into account the increase in short term international movements (except tourism), long term and short term migrations have been taking into account separately:

- A long-term migrant is a person who moves to a country other than that of his or her usual residence for a period of at least a year (12 months), so that the country of destination effectively becomes his or her new country of usual residence.
- A short-term migrant is a person who moves to a country other than that of his or her usual residence for a period of at least 3 months but less than a year (12 months) except in cases where the movement to that country is for purposes of recreation, holiday, visits to friends and relatives, business, medical treatment or religious pilgrimage.

Immigrant population

The immigrant population is usually measured either as the part of the resident population who are foreign nationals, or as the part of the foreign-born in the resident population. In the latter case there are situations where individuals are difficult to classify due to changes in national boundaries. The United Nations recommends that the “foreign-born” be defined as those born outside the country or area where the “country or area of birth” is based on current national boundaries (or, more precisely, those that existed at the time the data were collected) (UN, 1989, pp. 103).

of landing cards) may sometimes be used. Table 1 provides an overview of data sources and shows that population registers are commonly used as a source of flow and stock data on migration, especially in northern Europe. In other countries, data on residence permits and census data are the most common means of measuring flows and stocks of international migrants.

Population registers

Population registers are accounts of residents within a country. They are typically maintained via the legal requirement that both nationals and foreigners residing in the country must register with the local authorities. Aggregation of these local accounts results in a record of population and population movement at the national level. As a result, the registers can provide data on all migrant flows (inflows and outflows of both nationals and foreigners) as well as data on stocks of foreigners and nationals. For this reason they tend to be widely used. However there are

some drawbacks: individuals often fail to record their departures and therefore data on outflows can be less reliable. Also, there are differences in the type of migrants counted which must be taken into account in international comparisons.

Permit data

Residence and work permit data commonly form the basis of flow statistics for countries which do not have population registers. The data are necessarily more limited in scope as they do not capture all flows and it can be difficult to use them to generate stock and outflow data as these require careful accounting of the number of permits both issued and expired.

Census and household survey data

Census data enable comprehensive, albeit infrequent analysis of the stock of immigrants (censuses are

Table I. Summary table on the sources of migration statistics

	Foreign and foreign-born population						Foreign and foreign-born labour force			
	Inflows of foreigners	Outflows of foreigners	Asylum seekers	Stocks of foreign-born population	Stocks of foreign population	Naturalisation	Inflows of foreign workers	Seasonal workers	Stocks of foreign-born workers	Stocks of foreign workers
Australia	O	O	O	O		O	R	O	S	
Austria			O		F	O	R			R
Belgium	F	F	O		F	O	R			R
Bulgaria			O							
Canada	P		O	C		O	R	O	C	
Czech Republic			O		F					R
Denmark	F	F	O	F	F	O	R			F
Finland	F	F	O	F	F	O				R
France	R		O		C	O	R	O		S
Germany	F	F	O		F	O	R	R		S
Greece	R		O							
Hungary	F	F	O	F	F	O	R			R
Ireland	O		O		S		R			S
Italy	R		O		R	O	R	R		R
Japan	F	F			F	O				R
Korea					F	O				R
Luxembourg	F	F	O		F	O	R			R
Netherlands	F	F	O	F	F	O		O		O
New Zealand	O	O	O							
Norway	F	F	O	F	F	O		R		F
Poland			O							
Portugal	R		O		R	O	R			R
Romania			O							
Slovak Republic			O		F					R
Spain			O		R	O	R			R
Sweden	F	F	O	F	F	O				S
Switzerland	F	F	O		F	O	R	R		R
United Kingdom	O		O		S	O	R	O		S
United States	P		O	C, S		O	R	R	C, S	

F Population register or register of foreigners.

R Residence or work permits (renewable).

C Census.

P Acceptances for permanent settlement.

S Labour Force Survey.

O Other administrative sources.

generally conducted every 5 to 10 years). In addition, many labour force surveys now include questions about nationality and place of birth, thus providing a source of annual stock data. However, some care has to be taken with detailed breakdowns of the immigrant population from survey data as sample sizes can be very small. Inevitably, both census and survey data may under-represent migrants, especially where they tend not to be registered for census purposes, or where they do not live in private households (labour force surveys do not usually cover those living in institutions, such as reception centres and hostels for immigrants).

2. Measurement of migration flows

The inflows and outflows included in this annex are all based either on population registers or on permit data. The types of flow measured differ quite markedly

between these two sources and there are also differences to account for between different registers and the different types of permit used to generate the statistics.

Flows derived from population registers

Population registers can usually produce inflow and outflow data for both nationals and foreigners, however there are differences in the type of flows measured due to differences in the way migrants are defined in the registers. In this regard, a key condition used to define immigrants is intention to reside for more than a specified length of time. In addition, foreigners who register may have to indicate possession of an appropriate residence and/or work permit. Emigrants are usually identified by a stated intention to leave the country, however a period of (intended) absence is not typically specified.

Key features of migration data derived from population registers are as follows:

- Departures tend to be less well recorded than arrivals, often because registration results in certain rights and benefits to the individual, whereas there is less incentive to inform authorities of departure. In order to provide more accurate figures, some countries use additional information such as host-country estimates to generate emigration data.
- The rules governing entry into the register and who is defined as a migrant vary across countries. Notably, the minimum duration of stay for individuals to be defined as immigrants varies between three months and one year, implying that for some countries the data include short as well as longer term migration flows.
- Asylum seekers are included in some register data but excluded from others. Inclusion typically occurs when the asylum seekers live in private households (as opposed to reception centres and hotels). In the data presented in this annex, some asylum seekers are included in the data for Belgium, Germany, the Netherlands, and Norway.

Despite these qualifications, population registers are generally regarded as a good source of migration data and are used in preference to other sources, especially in the generation of annual estimates.

Flows derived from residence and work permits

Countries which do not have population registers use a variety of sources to generate flow data. Inflows for Australia, the United States, Canada, and France are based on residence and/or work permits. Data for the United Kingdom are based on information from landing cards. Note that permit data usually represent the number of permits issued in a given period and have the following general characteristics:

- The nature of the flows measured obviously depends on the type of permit(s) used to generate the statistic. Inflows for the so-called “settlement countries” (Australia, Canada and the United States) are calculated as the number of permanent residence permits (also known as “acceptances for settlement”) issued. In the case of France, a sum of various types of permit issued (all of limited duration) is used.
- Flows of nationals are not recorded in the data and some flows of foreigners may also not be recorded, depending on the type of permit used as a basis for the statistic and also on the nature of free-circulation agreements. In France, some inflows from other EU countries are included in the data as permanent work permits are still required for EU nationals (this is a formality rather than a means of restricting entry).
- Permit data do not necessarily reflect physical flows or actual lengths of stay since: i) permits may be

issued overseas but individuals may decide not to use them, or delay their arrival; ii) permits may be issued to persons who have in fact been resident in the country for some time, the permit indicating a change of status, or a renewal of the same permit. The data for Australia do not include those who have been accepted for permanent settlement whilst resident in Australia, whereas data for Canada and the United States include all issues of permanent settlement permits.

- Permit data may be influenced by the processing capacity of government agencies. In some instances a large backlog of applications may build up and therefore the true demand for permits may only emerge once backlogs are cleared.

Estimation of net migration

From the preceding discussion on flow data it is evident that some countries have readily available means to calculate net migration (*e.g.* through population registers) whilst others face greater difficulties and estimates must be made on the basis of a variety of sources. This annex does not contain data for the net migration of foreigners. Those data can be calculated on the basis of immigration and emigration figures. Note that for some countries, figures for total net migration (*i.e.* including the movement of both foreigners and nationals) are presented in the Country Notes. The OECD also publishes a series of total net migration figures in *Labour Force Statistics*. These are calculated as a residual from data on annual population change and natural increase.

Refugees and asylum seekers

Asylum seekers are usually allowed to remain in the country whilst their applications are processed. The time taken to process applications varies and it is therefore difficult to determine whether they should be counted as migrants or not. In practice, asylum seekers are not generally counted in migrant inflows unless they are subsequently granted asylum. However there are some countries where they are partially, or wholly included in the data. For example, asylum seekers often enter population registers because they have been resident for some time and live outside reception centres.

Statistics on asylum seekers and the numbers granted asylum are usually readily available from administrative sources, however there are some differences in the type of data made available. In a number of countries, asylum seekers are only counted when their application has been approved, in which case they appear in the statistics, not according to the date of arrival but according to the date of approval (note that approval of application simply means that the application will be considered by the authorities and allows the individual certain rights as an asylum seeker whilst their application is being processed). For some countries (*e.g.* Switzerland), the data

include the dependants of the principal applicant; for certain others (*e.g.* France), they do not, since dependants are admitted under other provisions

In addition to asylum seekers entering under the usual administrative channels there are some cases where individuals are allowed entry under exceptional circumstances and who are given other forms of status. For example, in the early 1990s, a number of European countries (*e.g.* Austria, and the Nordic countries) granted temporary residence to those fleeing conflict in the former Yugoslavia. Some of these individuals have been allowed to remain in these countries through renewal of permits and therefore effectively represent a group of *de facto* refugees.

3. Stocks of migrants and characteristics of the immigrant population

Time series of stocks are used in conjunction with flow data to examine trends in migration. In addition, data which include socio-economic variables can be used to examine differences between immigrants and native populations. In both cases, there are differences in how “immigrants” are defined.

Definition of the immigrant population

In data, the immigrant population is usually defined in one of two ways. Some countries have traditionally focused on producing data that represents foreign nationals (European countries, Japan and Korea) whilst others refer to the foreign-born (Australia, Canada, New Zealand and the United States). This difference in focus relates in part to the nature and the history of immigration systems and legislation on citizenship and naturalisation (see Box A.2).

The foreign-born population can be viewed as representing first-generation migrants, and may consist of both foreign and national citizens. The size and composition of the foreign-born population is influenced by the history of migration flows and mortality amongst the foreign-born. For example, where inflows have been declining over time, the stock of the foreign-born will tend to age and represent an increasingly established community.

The population of foreign nationals may represent second and higher generations as well as first-generations of migrants. The characteristics of the population of foreign nationals depend on a number of factors: the history of migration flows, natural increase in the foreign population and naturalisations. Higher generations of immigrants arise in situations where they retain their foreign citizenship even when native-born. The nature of legislation on citizenship and the incentives foreigners have to naturalise both play a role in determining the extent to which this occurs in practice.

A more comprehensive view of the immigrant population is possible when both nationality and birthplace are known. This type of data is becoming increasingly available for some OECD countries and allows four sub-populations

to be examined: the foreign-born who are foreign citizens; the foreign-born who are nationals; the native born who are foreign nationals and the native born who are nationals. The first three of these groups represent the “immigrant population”, as defined either by nationality or by place of birth. Note that in some countries, such as the United States, those who are native-born but who are foreign nationals are a non-existent or negligible group as legislation is such that birth within the country usually entitles individuals to citizenship.

Time series of stocks of the immigrant population

Time series of stocks are generally derived either from population registers or from labour force survey or census data. In this annex, the figures for Australia, Canada, France, Ireland, Portugal, Spain, the United Kingdom and the United States are based on survey, census or permit data, data for all other countries are from population registers (see Table 1).

Impact of naturalisation on the development of the immigrant population

Naturalisations must be taken into account in the analysis of the populations of foreigners and nationals. Also, differing approaches to naturalisation between countries must be considered when making international comparisons. In France and Belgium, for example, where foreigners can fairly readily acquire the nationality of the country, increases in the foreign population through immigration and births can eventually contribute to a significant rise in the native population. In Germany and Switzerland (see OECD, 1995), on the other hand, where naturalisation is more difficult, increases in immigration and births amongst foreigners manifest themselves almost exclusively as rises in the foreign population. In addition, changes in rules regarding naturalisation can have significant numerical effects, for example during the 1980s, a number of countries made naturalisation easier and this resulted in noticeable falls in the foreign population (and rises in the population of nationals).

However, host-country legislation is not the only factor affecting naturalisation. For example, where naturalisation involves forfeiting citizenship of the country of origin, there may be incentives to remain as a foreign citizen. Where the difference between remaining a foreign citizen or becoming a national is marginal, naturalisation may largely be influenced by the time and effort required to make the application for naturalisation and the symbolic and political value individuals attach to being citizens of one country or another.

Data on naturalisations are usually readily available from administrative sources. As with other administrative data, resource constraints in processing applications may result in a backlog of unprocessed applications which are not reflected in the figures.

Box A.2. Migration systems

Historically, migration systems developed alongside the evolution of nation-states and the concomitant desire to enumerate and sometimes influence the size and composition of the resident population. The need to implement immigration control is also linked to the increased numbers of individuals who are aware of attractive economic and social conditions elsewhere and able to afford the expense and risk associated with a long-term, or permanent move overseas. In some areas of the world, immigration control has also developed at an international as well as national level, creating zones of free movement, the most notable example being the European Union.

Whether operating at a national or an international level, most migration systems have the following features:

- The opportunity to enter the country and remain there for a limited length of time (often three months). Depending on the nationality of the entrant, a visa may or may not be required. Generally, the regulations are designed to encourage movements of individuals which provide economic benefits. Such movements include, *inter alia*, tourism and business travel. However, there are situations where entry may be strictly monitored. This type of movement is not regarded as migration as such and is commonly referred to as “short-term movement”.
- A mechanism for spouses and close relatives of citizens or permanent residents to enter the country on a permanent basis. They may arrive as “accompanying family” at the same time as the migrant, or at a later date under what is often called “family reunion”.
- A means for individuals who claim social and political persecution in their country of origin to apply for asylum. Such “asylum seekers” are usually treated on a case-by-case basis and may also have the right to remain in the country whilst their application is being processed.
- Mechanisms for individuals to enter largely for the purpose of employment and business. Policies governing this type of migration may reflect purely economic considerations such as perceived labour shortages or a desire to encourage international business links. However, policy may also be influenced by diplomatic considerations as well as policies and agreements in international trade.
- Means by which foreign citizens can acquire national citizenship (“naturalisation”). The ease with which this may be achieved and the incentives to do so vary across countries and may also depend on the implications of a change in legal status in the country of origin (see OECD, 1995, pp. 157-181).

Beyond these general features of immigration systems, it is common to distinguish between “temporary permit” systems and “permanent residence” systems (for a more detailed classification, see OECD, 1994). In temporary residence systems, characteristic of most OECD countries, initial entry to the country is typically made on the basis of a temporary residence permit and permanent status can only be granted after several years stay in the country. Only certain special groups (*e.g.* close relatives, refugees) are able to acquire permanent residence status on entry into the country. In permanent residence systems, typified by settlement countries (*e.g.* Australia, Canada and the United States), there are more channels available for individuals to enter with permanent resident status, beyond those catering for special groups. This reflects the historical, if not always current, use of migration policy as a means for populating the country. The additional channels available to immigrants take a variety of forms but are generally based on attracting individuals with certain characteristics, such as high levels of skill or experience in certain occupations.

There are differences between these systems in the type of migration statistics commonly used. “Permanent residence” type countries tend to focus on acceptances for permanent settlement as an indication of inflows and on the population of foreign-born as an indication of the stock of immigrants. “Temporary permit” type countries, coincidentally, tend to have population registers and use these to focus on inflows and stocks of foreign citizens (as distinct from the foreign-born). Two notable exceptions are France and the United Kingdom who do not have population registers and rely on other sources of data.

B. STATISTICAL SERIES

Introduction to the statistical Annex Tables

The Tables are divided into two series. The A series tables provide aggregate data on stock and flow statistics as well as administrative data on asylum seekers and naturalisations. The B series tables present data disaggregated

by country of origin (as defined either by country of birth or by nationality). As is evident from the preceding discussion on the sources and methods used to generate migration statistics, the presentation of the tables in a relatively standard format should not lead users to think that the data have been fully standardised and are comparable at an international level. In order to facilitate

understanding of the data, detailed notes on the sources and definitions are presented at the end of the Statistical Annex.

A number of general comments apply to the Tables:

- i) The Tables provide annual series for the ten most recent years (in general 1990-1999). However data relating to the stock of foreigners by nationality (Tables B.1.5 and B.2.2) are only given for certain years (in general 1985, 1990, 1995 and the most recent available year).
- j) Up to 1994 (inclusive), European Union (unless stated otherwise) refers to the following 12 countries: Belgium, Denmark, France, Germany, Greece, Ireland, Italy, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Portugal, Spain and the United Kingdom, members of the European Union at 31 December 1994. From 1995 onwards, European Union also includes the following three countries: Austria, Finland and Sweden.
- k) The A series Tables are presented in alphabetical order by the name of the country in English. In the other Tables, the nationalities or countries are ranked by decreasing order of the stocks for the last year available.
- l) In the Tables by country of origin (series B) only the main 15 countries are shown and only when this information is available. "Other countries" is a residual calculated as the difference between the total foreign population and the sum of the nationalities indicated in the table. For some nationalities, data are not available for all years and this is reflected in the residual entry of "Other countries". This must be borne in mind when interpreting changes in this category.
- m) The rounding of entries may cause totals to differ slightly from the sum of the component entries.
- n) The symbols used in the Tables are the following:
 - . . Data not available.
 - Nil, or negligible.

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TABLES OF THE STATISTICAL ANNEX

Table A.1.1. **Inflows of foreign population into selected OECD countries**
Thousands

	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999
<i>Inflow data based on population registers:</i>										
Belgium	50.5	54.1	55.1	53.0	56.0	53.1	51.9	49.2	50.7	57.8
Denmark	15.1	17.5	16.9	15.4	15.6	33.0	24.7	20.4	21.3	..
Finland	6.5	12.4	10.4	10.9	7.6	7.3	7.5	8.1	8.3	7.9
Germany	842.4	920.5	1 207.6	986.9	774.0	788.3	708.0	615.3	605.5	673.9
Hungary	37.2	23.0	15.1	16.4	12.8	13.2	12.8	12.2	12.3	15.0
Japan	223.8	258.4	267.0	234.5	237.5	209.9	225.4	274.8	265.5	281.9
Luxembourg	9.3	10.0	9.8	9.2	9.2	9.6	9.2	9.4	10.6	11.8
Netherlands	81.3	84.3	83.0	87.6	68.4	67.0	77.2	76.7	81.7	78.4
Norway	15.7	16.1	17.2	22.3	17.9	16.5	17.2	22.0	26.7	32.2
Sweden	53.2	43.9	39.5	54.8	74.7	36.1	29.3	33.4	35.7	34.6
Switzerland	101.4	109.8	112.1	104.0	91.7	87.9	74.3	72.8	74.9	85.8
<i>Inflow data based on residence permits or on other sources:</i>										
Australia	121.2	121.7	107.4	76.3	69.8	87.4	99.1	85.8	77.3	84.1
Canada	214.2	230.8	252.8	255.8	223.9	212.9	226.1	216.0	174.1	189.8
France	102.4	109.9	116.6	99.2	91.5	77.0	75.5	102.4	138.1	104.4
Greece	38.2	..
Ireland	13.3	13.6	21.5	23.5	20.8	21.6
Italy	111.0	268.0
New Zealand	27.4	27.2	25.5	28.9	36.5	46.7	58.6	52.0	38.7	36.2
Portugal	13.7	9.9	5.7	5.0	3.6	3.3	6.5	10.5
United Kingdom	203.9	190.3	193.6	206.3	216.4	236.9	258.0	276.9
United States	1 536.5	1 827.2	974.0	904.3	804.4	720.5	915.9	798.4	660.5	646.6

Note: Data from population registers are not fully comparable because the criteria governing who gets registered differ from country to country. Counts for the Netherlands, Norway and especially Germany include substantial numbers of asylum seekers. For more details on sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

Table A.1.2. **Outflows of foreign population from selected OECD countries**

Thousands

	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999
<i>Outflow data based on population registers:</i>										
Belgium	27.0	35.3	28.1	31.2	34.1	33.1	32.4	34.6	36.3	36.4
Denmark	4.6	5.2	4.8	4.9	5.0	5.3	6.0	6.7	7.7	..
Finland	0.9	1.1	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.5	3.0	1.6	1.7	2.0
Germany	466.0	497.5	614.7	710.2	621.5	561.1	559.1	637.1	639.0	555.6
Hungary	11.7	5.9	5.7	5.0	5.1	4.5	5.7	6.1	6.1	6.1
Japan	166.1	181.3	204.8	200.5	204.2	194.4	160.1	176.6	187.8	198.3
Luxembourg	5.5	5.9	5.6	5.0	5.3	4.9	5.6	5.8	6.7	6.9
Netherlands	20.6	21.3	22.7	22.2	22.7	21.7	22.4	21.9	21.3	20.7
Norway	9.8	8.4	8.1	10.5	9.6	9.0	10.0	10.0	12.0	12.7
Sweden	16.2	15.0	13.2	14.8	15.8	15.4	14.5	15.3	14.1	13.6
Switzerland	59.6	66.4	80.4	71.2	64.2	67.5	67.7	63.4	59.0	58.1
<i>Outflows of foreign-born citizens based on other sources:</i>										
Australia	48.7	44.7	43.4	44.3	45.4	46.7	49.5	47.4
New Zealand	11.6	12.1	13.6	11.6	10.6	10.8	12.6	14.7	16.2	15.9
United Kingdom	95.0	102.0	94.0	89.0	82.0	74.0	77.0	94.0	88.0	130.0

Note: For more details on sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

Table A.1.3. **Inflows of asylum seekers into selected OECD countries**
Thousands

	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000
Australia	16.0	13.4	4.9	8.1	7.8	8.1	11.1	8.1	8.4	11.9
Austria	27.3	16.2	4.7	5.1	5.9	7.0	6.7	13.8	20.1	18.3
Belgium	15.4	17.6	26.5	14.7	11.7	12.4	11.8	22.1	35.8	42.7
Bulgaria	1.3	1.8
Canada	32.3	37.7	20.3	22.0	26.1	26.1	22.6	23.8	29.4	34.3
Czech Republic	2.0	0.9	2.2	1.2	1.4	2.2	2.1	4.1	7.2	8.8
Denmark	4.6	13.9	14.3	6.7	5.1	5.9	5.1	5.7	6.5	10.1
Finland	2.1	3.6	2.0	0.8	0.8	0.7	1.0	1.3	3.1	3.2
France	47.4	28.9	27.6	26.0	20.4	17.4	21.4	22.4	30.9	38.6
Germany	256.1	438.2	322.6	127.2	127.9	116.4	104.4	98.6	95.1	78.6
Greece	2.7	2.0	0.8	1.3	1.4	1.6	4.4	2.6	1.5	3.1
Hungary	1.1	7.4	11.5	7.8
Ireland	-	-	0.1	0.4	0.4	1.2	3.9	4.6	7.7	10.9
Italy	26.5	6.0	1.6	1.8	1.7	0.7	1.9	11.1	33.4	18.0
Luxembourg	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.4	1.6	2.9	0.6
Netherlands	21.6	20.3	35.4	52.6	29.3	22.9	34.4	45.2	42.7	43.9
New Zealand	1.2	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.7	1.3	1.6	2.9	2.1	2.2
Norway	4.6	5.2	12.9	3.4	1.5	1.8	2.3	8.5	10.2	10.8
Poland	0.6	0.8	3.2	3.5	3.4	3.0	4.4
Portugal	0.2	0.5	1.7	0.6	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.2
Romania	1.7	1.4
Slovak Republic	0.9	1.5
Spain	8.1	11.7	12.6	12.0	5.7	4.7	5.0	6.8	8.4	7.2
Sweden	27.4	84.0	37.6	18.6	9.0	5.8	9.6	12.5	11.2	16.3
Switzerland	41.6	18.0	24.7	16.1	17.0	18.0	24.0	41.3	46.1	17.6
United Kingdom	73.4	32.3	28.0	42.2	55.0	37.0	41.5	58.0	91.2	97.9
United States	56.3	104.0	144.2	146.5	154.5	128.2	85.9	55.0	42.5	52.4

Note: For more details on sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

Table A.1.4. Stocks of foreign-born population in selected OECD countries
Thousands and percentages

	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999
Australia	3 885.5	3 965.3	4 028.4	4 053.9	4 093.8	4 164.1	4 258.7	4 311.7	4 366.4	4 482.1
% of total population	22.8	22.9	23.0	22.9	22.9	23.0	23.3	23.3	23.3	23.6
Canada	..	4 342.9	4 971.1
% of total population	..	16.1	17.4
Denmark	189.6	198.9	207.4	215.0	222.1	244.5	259.2	276.8	287.7	296.9
% of total population	3.7	3.9	4.0	4.1	4.3	4.7	4.9	5.2	5.4	5.6
Finland	106.3	111.1	118.1	125.1	131.0
% of total population	2.0	2.1	2.3	2.4	2.5
Hungary	283.7	283.9	284.2	286.2	289.3
% of total population	2.8	2.8	2.8	2.8	2.9
Netherlands	1 217.1	1 375.4	1 387.4	1 407.1	1 433.6	1 469.0	1 513.9	1 556.3
% of total population	8.1	9.0	9.0	9.1	9.2	9.4	9.6	9.8
Norway	..	195.7	..	216.2	233.4	240.3	246.9	257.7	273.3	292.4
% of total population	..	4.6	..	5.0	5.4	5.5	5.6	5.8	6.1	6.5
Sweden	834.5	869.1	922.1	936.0	943.8	954.2	968.7	981.6
% of total population	9.6	9.9	10.5	10.5	11.0	11.0	10.8	11.8
United States	19 767.3	22 600	23 000	24 600	25 800	26 300	28 180
% of total population	7.9	8.7	8.8	9.3	9.7	9.8	10.3

Note: Data are from censuses for Australia, Canada and the United States and from population registers for the other countries.

For more details on sources, see the notes at the end of the Annex.

Table A.1.5. Stocks of foreign population in selected OECD countries
Thousands and percentages

	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999
Austria	456.1	532.7	623.0	689.6	713.5	723.5	728.2	732.7	737.3	748.2
% of total population	5.9	6.8	7.9	8.6	8.9	9.0	9.0	9.1	9.1	9.2
Belgium	904.5	922.5	909.3	920.6	922.3	909.8	911.9	903.2	892.0	897.1
% of total population	9.1	9.2	9.0	9.1	9.1	9.0	9.0	8.9	8.7	8.8
Czech Republic	41.2	77.7	103.7	158.6	198.6	209.8	219.8	228.9
% of total population	0.4	0.8	1.0	1.5	1.9	2.0	2.1	2.2
Denmark	160.6	169.5	180.1	189.0	196.7	222.7	237.7	249.6	256.3	259.4
% of total population	3.1	3.3	3.5	3.6	3.8	4.2	4.7	4.7	4.8	4.9
Finland	26.3	37.6	46.3	55.6	62.0	68.6	73.8	80.6	85.1	87.7
% of total population	0.5	0.8	0.9	1.1	1.2	1.3	1.4	1.6	1.6	1.7
France	3 596.6	3 263.2
% of total population	6.3	5.6
Germany	5 342.5	5 882.3	6 495.8	6 878.1	6 990.5	7 173.9	7 314.0	7 365.8	7 319.5	7 343.6
% of total population	8.4	7.3	8.0	8.5	8.6	8.8	8.9	9.0	8.9	8.9
Hungary	137.9	139.9	142.2	143.8	..	127.0
% of total population	1.3	1.4	1.4	1.4	..	1.3
Ireland	80.0	87.7	94.9	89.9	91.1	96.1	118.0	114.4	111.0	117.8
% of total population	2.3	2.5	2.7	2.7	2.7	2.7	3.2	3.1	3.0	3.1
Italy	781.1	863.0	925.2	987.4	922.7	991.4	1 095.6	1 240.7	1 250.2	1 252.0
% of total population	1.4	1.5	1.6	1.7	1.6	1.7	2.0	2.1	2.1	2.2
Japan	1 075.3	1 218.9	1 281.6	1 320.7	1 354.0	1 362.4	1 415.1	1 482.7	1 512.1	1 556.1
% of total population	0.9	1.0	1.0	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.2	1.2	1.2
Korea	49.5	51.0	55.8	66.7	84.9	110.0	148.7	176.9	147.9	189.3
% of total population	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.4
Luxembourg	113.1	117.8	122.7	127.6	132.5	138.1	142.8	147.7	152.9	159.4
% of total population	29.4	30.2	31.0	31.8	32.6	33.4	34.1	34.9	35.6	36.0
Netherlands	692.4	732.9	757.4	779.8	757.1	725.4	679.9	678.1	662.4	651.5
% of total population	4.6	4.8	5.0	5.1	5.0	4.7	4.4	4.3	4.2	4.1
Norway	143.3	147.8	154.0	162.3	164.0	160.8	157.5	158.0	165.0	178.7
% of total population	3.4	3.5	3.6	3.8	3.8	3.7	3.6	3.6	3.7	4.0
Portugal	107.8	114.0	123.6	131.6	157.1	168.3	172.9	175.3	177.8	190.9
% of total population	1.1	1.2	1.3	1.3	1.6	1.7	1.7	1.8	1.8	1.9
Slovak Republic	11.0	16.9	21.9	24.1	24.8	27.4	29.5
% of total population	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5
Spain	278.7	360.7	393.1	430.4	461.4	499.8	539.0	609.8	719.6	801.3
% of total population	0.7	0.9	1.0	1.1	1.2	1.3	1.4	1.6	1.8	2.0
Sweden	483.7	493.8	499.1	507.5	537.4	531.8	526.6	522.0	499.9	487.2
% of total population	5.6	5.7	5.7	5.8	6.1	5.2	6.0	6.0	5.6	5.5
Switzerland	1 100.3	1 163.2	1 213.5	1 260.3	1 300.1	1 330.6	1 337.6	1 340.8	1 347.9	1 368.7
% of total population	16.3	17.1	17.6	18.1	18.6	18.9	18.9	19.0	19.0	19.2
United Kingdom	1 723	1 750	1 985	2 001	2 032	1 948	1 934	2 066	2 207	2 208
% of total population	3.2	3.1	3.5	3.5	3.6	3.4	3.4	3.6	3.8	3.8

Note : Data are from population registers or from register of foreigners except for France (Censuses), Portugal, Italy and Spain (residence permits), Ireland and the United Kingdom (Labour force survey) and refer to the population on the 31 December of the years indicated unless otherwise stated. For more details on sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

Table A.1.6. **Acquisition of nationality in selected OECD countries**
Thousands and percentages

	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999
Countries where national / foreigner distinction is prevalent										
Austria	9.2	11.4	11.9	14.4	16.3	15.3	16.2	16.3	18.3	25.0
% of foreign population	2.4	2.5	2.2	2.3	2.4	2.1	2.2	2.2	2.5	3.3
Belgium	..	8.5	46.4	16.4	25.8	26.1	24.6	31.7	34.0	..
% of foreign population	..	0.9	5.0	1.8	2.8	2.8	2.7	3.5	3.8	..
Denmark	3.0	5.5	5.1	5.0	5.7	5.3	7.3	5.5	10.3	12.4
% of foreign population	2.0	3.4	3.0	2.8	3.0	2.7	3.3	2.3	4.1	4.8
Finland	0.9	1.2	0.9	0.8	0.7	0.7	1.0	1.4	4.0	4.7
% of foreign population	4.2	4.7	2.3	1.8	1.2	1.1	1.4	2.0	5.0	5.6
France	88.5	95.5	95.3	95.5	126.3	92.4	109.8	116.2	122.3	145.4
% of foreign population	..	2.7	4.5
Germany	101.4	141.6	179.9	199.4	259.2	313.6	302.8	278.7	291.3	248.2
% of foreign population	2.1	2.7	3.1	3.1	3.8	4.5	4.2	3.8	4.0	3.4
Hungary	3.2	5.9	21.9	11.8	9.9	10.0	12.3	8.7	6.4	6.1
% of foreign population	7.3	8.8	6.1	4.5	..
Italy	..	4.5	4.4	6.5	6.6	7.4	7.0	9.2	9.8	11.3
% of foreign population	..	0.6	0.5	0.7	0.7	0.8	0.7	0.8	0.8	0.9
Japan	6.8	7.8	9.4	10.5	11.1	14.1	14.5	15.1	14.8	16.1
% of foreign population	0.7	0.7	0.8	0.8	0.8	1.0	1.1	1.1	1.0	1.1
Korea	0.6	0.5	0.6	0.7	1.0	1.0	1.4
% of foreign population	1.2	1.1	1.1	1.2	1.5	1.1	1.3
Luxembourg	0.7	0.6	0.6	0.7	0.7	0.8	0.8	0.7	0.6	..
% of foreign population	0.7	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.5	0.4	..
Netherlands	12.8	29.1	36.2	43.1	49.5	71.4	82.7	59.8	59.2	62.1
% of foreign population	2.0	4.2	4.9	5.7	6.3	9.4	11.4	8.8	8.7	9.4
Norway	4.8	5.1	5.1	5.5	8.8	11.8	12.2	12.0	9.2	8.0
% of foreign population	3.4	3.5	3.5	3.6	5.4	7.2	7.6	7.6	5.8	4.8
Portugal	1.4	1.2	1.4	0.5	0.9
% of foreign population	0.9	0.7	0.8	0.3	0.5
Spain	7.0	3.8	5.3	8.4	7.8	6.8	8.4	10.3	13.2	16.4
% of foreign population	2.8	1.3	1.5	2.1	1.8	1.5	1.7	1.9	2.2	2.3
Sweden	16.8	27.7	29.3	42.7	35.1	32.0	25.6	28.9	46.5	37.8
% of foreign population	3.7	5.7	5.9	8.5	6.9	6.0	4.8	5.5	8.9	7.6
Switzerland	8.7	8.8	11.2	12.9	13.8	16.8	19.4	19.2	21.3	20.4
% of foreign population	0.8	0.8	1.0	1.1	1.1	1.3	1.5	1.4	1.6	1.5
United Kingdom	57.3	58.6	42.2	45.8	44.0	40.5	43.1	37.0	53.9	54.9
% of foreign population	3.2	3.4	2.4	2.3	2.2	2.0	2.2	1.9	2.6	2.5
Countries where native-born / foreign-born distinction is prevalent										
Australia	127.9	118.5	125.2	122.1	112.2	114.8	111.6	108.3	112.3	76.5
Canada	104.3	118.6	116.2	150.6	217.3	227.7	155.6	154.6	134.5	158.8
United States	270.1	308.1	240.3	314.7	434.1	488.1	1 044.7	598.2	463.1	..

Note: Statistics cover all means of acquiring the nationality of a country, except where otherwise indicated. These include standard naturalisation procedures subject to age, residency, etc. criteria, as well as situations where nationality is acquired through a declaration or by option (following marriage, adoption, or other situations related to residency or descent), recovery of former nationality and other special means of acquiring the nationality of a country. For more details on sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex. The naturalisation rate ("% of foreign population") indicates the number of persons acquiring the nationality of the country as a percentage of the stock of the foreign population at the beginning of the year.

Table A.2.1. **Inflows of foreign workers into selected OECD countries**
Thousands

	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999
Australia										
Permanent settlers	42.8	48.4	40.3	22.1	12.8	20.2	20.0	19.7	26.0	27.9
Temporary workers	14.6	14.9	14.2	14.3	15.4	31.7	37.3	37.0
Austria	103.4	62.6	57.9	37.7	27.1	15.4	16.3	15.2	15.4	18.3
Belgium	..	5.1	4.4	4.3	4.1	2.8	2.2	2.5	7.3	8.7
Canada	229.5	233.8	230.4	185.6	172.9	74.3	78.0	82.0
Denmark	2.8	2.4	2.4	2.1	2.1	2.2	2.8	3.1	3.2	3.1
France										
Permanents	22.4	25.6	42.3	24.4	18.3	13.1	11.5	11.0	10.3	10.9
<i>APT</i>	3.8	4.1	3.9	4.0	4.1	4.5	4.8	4.7	4.3	5.8
Germany	138.6	241.9	408.9	325.6	221.2	270.8	262.5	285.4	275.5	..
Hungary	51.9	41.7	24.6	19.5	18.6	18.4	14.5	19.7	22.6	..
Ireland	1.4	3.8	3.6	4.3	4.3	4.3	3.8	4.5	5.7	6.3
Italy	..	125.5	123.7	85.0	99.8	111.3	129.2	166.3
Luxembourg	16.9	16.9	15.9	15.5	16.2	16.5	18.3	18.6	22.0	25.0
Portugal	2.2	1.5	1.3	2.6	4.2
Spain	16.0	81.6	48.2	7.5	15.6	29.6	31.0	30.1	53.7	56.1
Switzerland	46.7	46.3	39.7	31.5	28.6	27.1	24.5	25.4	26.4	31.5
United Kingdom										
Long term	16.1	12.9	12.7	12.5	13.4	17.1	19.1	22.0	25.0	30.6
Short term	13.8	12.6	14.0	13.3	12.9	15.9	17.0	20.4	23.5	21.8
Trainees	4.8	3.5	3.4	3.5	3.8	4.4	4.0	4.7
Total	34.6	29.0	30.1	29.3	30.1	37.3	40.1	47.1	48.6	52.3
United States										
Permanent settlers	58.2	59.5	116.2	147.0	123.3	85.3	117.5	90.6	77.5	56.8
Temporary workers	144.9	169.6	175.8	182.3	210.8	220.7	254.4	..	430.7	525.7

Note: For details on sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

| : break in series (refer to the notes at the end of the Annex).

Table A.2.2. Inflows of seasonal workers in selected OECD countries

Thousands

	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999
Australia	38.0	36.7	25.2	25.6	29.6	35.4	40.3	50.0	55.6	62.6
Canada	11.1	11.2	10.4	10.9
France	58.2	54.2	13.6	11.3	10.3	9.4	8.8	8.2	7.5	7.6
Germany	-	-	212.4	181.0	155.2	192.8	220.9	226.0	201.6	..
Italy	1.7	2.8	5.8	7.6	8.9	8.4
Netherlands	1.0	0.9	0.5	-	-	-
Norway	4.3	4.3	4.7	4.6	4.5	5.0	5.4	6.1	7.5	8.2
Switzerland	153.6	147.5	126.1	93.5	83.9	72.3	62.7	46.7	39.6	27.8
United Kingdom	3.6	4.2	4.4	4.7	5.5	9.3	9.4	9.8
United States	18.2	18.5	16.4	16.3	13.2	11.4	9.6	..	27.3	32.4

Note: For details on sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

Table A.2.3. **Stocks of foreign and foreign-born labour force in selected OECD countries**
Thousands and percentages

	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999
Stocks of foreign labour force										
Austria	229.5	277.2	295.9	304.6	316.5	325.2	328.0	326.3	327.1	333.6
% of total labour force	7.4	8.7	9.1	9.3	9.7	9.9	10.0	9.9	9.9	10.0
Belgium	288.9	302.5	321.6	335.9	351.2	357.6	363.7	374.2	375.4	..
% of total labour force	7.1	7.4	7.8	8.1	8.4	8.5	8.6	8.8	8.8	..
Czech Republic	51.6	90.7	148.9	188.7	194.3	156.2	151.9
% of total labour force	1.0	1.7	2.9	3.6	3.8	3.0	2.9
Denmark	68.8	71.2	74.0	77.7	80.3	83.8	88.0	93.9	98.3	125.4
% of total labour force	2.4	2.4	2.6	2.7	2.9	3.0	3.1	3.3	3.4	4.4
Finland	24.4	26.9	29.7	33.0	36.0	37.2
% of total labour force	1.0	1.1	1.2	1.3	1.4	1.5
France	1 549.5	1 506.0	1 517.8	1 541.5	1 593.9	1 573.3	1 604.7	1 569.8	1 586.7	1 593.8
% of total labour force	6.2	6.0	6.0	6.1	6.3	6.2	6.3	6.1	6.1	5.8
Germany	3 575	..	3 545
% of total labour force	8.9	..	8.8
Hungary	31.7	33.4	15.7	17.6	20.1	21.0	18.8	20.4	22.4	28.5
% of total labour force	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.7
Ireland	34.0	39.3	40.4	37.3	34.5	42.1	52.4	51.7	47.5	59.9
% of total labour force	2.6	2.9	3.0	2.7	2.5	2.9	3.5	3.4	3.2	3.4
Italy	..	285.3	296.8	304.8	307.1	332.2	580.6	539.8	614.0	747.6
% of total employment	..	1.3	1.4	1.5	1.5	1.7	2.6	2.4	2.7	3.6
Japan	85.5	95.4	105.6	88.0	98.3	107.3	119.0	125.7
% of total labour force	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2
Korea	30.5	52.2	82.9	106.8	76.8	93.0
% of total labour force	0.1	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.4	0.4
Luxembourg	84.7	92.6	98.2	101.0	106.3	111.8	117.8	124.8	134.6	145.7
% of total employment	45.2	47.5	49.2	49.7	51.0	52.4	53.8	55.1	57.7	57.3
Netherlands	197	214	229	219	216	221	218	208	235	..
% of total employment	3.1	3.3	3.5	3.3	3.3	3.2	3.1	2.9	3.4	..
Norway	46.3	46.3	46.6	47.9	50.3	52.6	54.8	59.9	66.9	..
% of total employment	2.3	2.3	2.3	2.4	2.5	2.5	2.6	2.8	3.0	..
Portugal	51.8	54.9	59.2	63.1	77.6	84.3	86.8	87.9	88.6	91.6
% of total labour force	1.0	1.1	1.3	1.4	1.6	1.8	1.8	1.8	1.8	1.8
Slovak Republic	..	1.2	5.0	5.5	3.9	3.9	4.8	5.5	5.9	4.5
% of total labour force	0.3	..
Spain	85.4	171.0	139.4	117.4	121.8	139.0	166.5	178.7	197.1	172.8
% of total labour force	0.6	1.1	0.9	0.8	0.8	0.9	1.0	1.1	1.2	1.0
Sweden	246	241	233	221	213	220	218	220	219	222
% of total labour force	5.4	5.3	5.3	5.1	5.0	5.1	5.1	5.2	5.1	5.1
Switzerland	669.8	702.5	716.7	725.8	740.3	728.7	709.1	692.8	691.1	701.2
% of total labour force	18.9	17.8	18.3	18.5	18.9	18.6	17.9	17.5	17.3	18.1
United Kingdom	882	828	902	862	864	862	865	949	1 039	1 005
% of total employment	3.3	3.0	3.6	3.4	3.4	3.4	3.3	3.6	3.9	3.7
Stocks of foreign-born labour force										
Australia	..	2 182.3	..	2 194.9	2 164.1	2 138.8	2 238.8	2 251.6	2 293.9	2 309.6
% of total labour force	..	25.7	..	25.3	24.8	23.9	24.6	24.8	24.8	24.6
Canada	..	2 681.0	2 839.1
% of total labour force	..	18.5	19.2
United States	11 564.6	12 900	12 900	14 400	15 400	16 100	16 114
% of total labour force	9.4	9.8	9.7	10.7	11.3	11.7	11.7

Note: For details on sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

Table B.1.1. AUSTRALIA, inflows of permanent settlers and temporary residents by country or region of birth

Thousands

	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000
A. Permanent settlers¹										
New Zealand	7,5	7,2	6,7	7,8	10,5	12,3	13,1	14,7	18,7	21,9
United Kingdom	20,7	14,5	9,5	9,0	10,7	11,3	9,7	9,2	8,8	9,2
China	3,3	3,4	3,0	2,7	3,7	11,2	7,8	4,3	6,1	6,8
South Africa	2,1	1,3	1,0	1,7	2,8	3,2	3,2	4,3	5,0	5,7
India	5,1	5,6	3,6	2,6	3,9	3,7	2,7	2,8	2,6	4,6
Philippines	6,4	5,9	3,7	4,2	4,1	3,2	2,8	2,8	3,3	3,2
Federal Rep. of Yugoslavia	2,9	2,2
Fiji	2,4	2,1	1,6	1,3	1,5	1,7	1,7	1,1	1,6	1,9
Chinese Taipei	3,5	3,2	1,4	0,8	0,8	1,6	2,2	1,5	1,6	1,7
Vietnam	13,2	9,6	5,7	5,4	5,1	3,6	3,0	2,3	2,1	1,5
Hong Kong (China)	13,5	12,9	6,5	3,3	4,1	4,4	3,9	3,2	1,9	1,5
Sri Lanka	3,3	2,8	1,6	1,4	2,0	2,0	1,4	1,3	0,9	1,3
Lebanon	2,9	1,6	1,0	1,1	1,2	1,3	1,0	1,1	0,9	1,2
United States	1,9	1,7	1,3	1,4	1,8	1,6	1,5	1,3	1,0	1,1
Croatia	0,7	0,7	1,0	1,1	1,0
Other countries	35,9	35,6	29,7	27,1	35,3	37,3	31,2	26,5	25,6	27,5
Total	121,7	107,4	76,3	69,8	87,4	99,1	85,8	77,3	84,1	92,3
B. Temporary residents										
Europe	66,4	52,0	42,1	54,9	62,0	63,3	70,8	86,0	97,1	118,6
United Kingdom and Ireland	47,0	34,9	26,5	35,7	42,1	42,8	49,1	60,7	70,0	85,7
Northern Europe	15,5	14,4	12,7	15,9	16,9	17,7	18,9	22,1	24,1	28,8
Southern Europe	3,9	2,7	2,9	3,3	3,0	2,8	2,7	3,2	3,1	4,1
Asia and Middle East	38,9	35,8	27,0	31,7	31,5	34,4	43,1	48,1	53,6	58,1
Asia (excluding Middle East)	38,0	34,9	26,1	30,6	30,4	33,1	41,6	46,8	52,1	56,1
Middle East	0,9	1,0	0,9	1,1	1,1	1,3	1,5	1,3	1,5	2,0
Americas	30,5	27,2	21,9	25,5	27,1	28,7	26,7	31,0	33,2	34,6
United States and Canada	29,5	26,1	20,8	24,1	26,1	27,9	25,3	29,7	31,2	32,0
South and other America	1,0	1,1	1,1	1,4	1,0	0,8	1,4	1,3	2,1	2,6
Africa	1,0	1,1	0,9	1,9	2,2	1,8	4,1	5,8	7,1	8,9
Oceania	1,7	1,2	1,2	1,1	1,4	1,8	1,8	1,6	2,3	2,9
Other and not stated	0,4	0,6	0,1	0,1	0,2	0,2	0,6	0,8	0,8	0,9
Total	139,0	117,8	93,2	115,2	124,4	130,2	147,1²	173,2²	194,1²	224,0

Note: Data refer to fiscal years (July to June of the given year). For details on definitions and sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

- Counts include both principal applicants and their accompanying dependents, if any.
- Includes 17 049, 51 998, 79 232 and 93 942 holders of a Temporary Business Entry (TBE) visa (Long stay) in 1996-97, 1997-98, 1998-99 and 1999-2000 respectively. This visa was introduced on 1 November 1995.

Table B.1.1. BELGIUM, inflows of foreign population by nationality

	Thousands									
	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999
France	..	5.8	5.9	6.0	6.2	6.2	6.6	7.0	7.4	7.9
Netherlands	..	6.2	6.6	6.7	4.3	6.5	7.8	6.3	6.2	6.2
Morocco	2.6	3.4	3.3	3.4	4.8	3.6	4.0	3.9	4.3	4.9
Former Yugoslavia ¹	1.6	1.0	1.5	0.8	0.7	2.5	2.5	0.1	0.3	4.8
Germany	..	2.7	2.8	3.0	3.1	3.1	3.2	3.1	3.2	3.1
United Kingdom	..	3.2	3.1	2.9	2.8	2.8	2.8	2.7	2.7	3.0
United States	..	2.9	3.1	2.7	2.9	3.0	3.0	3.1	2.8	2.9
Italy	2.6	2.6	2.6	2.8	1.9	2.6	2.7	2.8	2.5	2.6
Bosnia Herzegovina	2.2
Turkey	2.4	2.9	2.7	2.5	3.6	2.5	2.5	1.4	2.4	2.1
Portugal	1.7	1.9	3.2	2.1	1.2	1.7	1.8	1.6	1.4	1.3
Spain	0.8	0.8	1.1	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.2	1.1	1.2
Poland	..	0.5	0.6	0.7	0.8	0.8	0.9	1.1	1.1	1.2
Japan	..	0.7	0.7	1.0	1.1	0.9	0.8	0.8	0.9	1.0
Malawi	0.9
Other countries	38.7	19.5	17.9	17.5	21.8	15.9	12.2	14.2	14.2	12.5
Total	50.5	54.1	55.1	53.0	56.0	53.1	51.9	49.2	50.7	57.8
<i>Of which:</i> EU	24.6	24.8	27.1	26.4	27.0	26.6	28.7	27.6	27.4	23.6

Note: Data are from population registers. Asylum seekers awaiting a decision are excluded from 1995 on. For details on definitions and sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex. Data for 1999 are from New Cronos database (Eurostat).

1. Federal Republic of Yugoslavia in 1999.

Table B.1.1. CANADA, inflows of permanent settlers by region or country of origin

	Thousands									
	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999
Asia and the Pacific	89.6	97.6	120.9	130.8	128.2	112.9	124.8	117.1	84.1	96.4
China	8.0	13.9	10.4	9.5	12.5	13.3	17.5	18.5	19.8	29.1
India	10.6	12.8	12.7	20.5	17.2	16.3	21.3	19.6	15.4	17.4
Pakistan	3.7	4.0	7.8	11.2	8.1	9.3
Philippines	12.0	12.3	13.3	19.8	19.1	15.2	13.2	10.9	8.2	9.2
Korea	3.2	4.0	4.9	7.2
Iran	2.7	3.7	5.8	7.5	6.8	5.9
Chinese Taipei	3.7	4.5	7.5	9.9	7.4	7.7	13.2	13.3	7.2	5.5
Sri Lanka	3.1	6.8	12.6	9.1	6.7	8.9	6.2	5.1	3.3	4.7
Hong Kong	29.3	22.3	38.9	36.6	44.2	31.8	30.0	22.2	8.1	3.7
Vietnam	9.1	9.0	7.7	8.3	6.2	4.0	2.5	1.8	1.6	..
Other Asian countries	13.8	15.9	17.9	17.2	8.5	8.1	4.2	2.9	0.8	4.5
Europe	51.9	48.1	44.9	46.6	38.6	41.3	40.0	38.7	38.5	38.9
United Kingdom	8.2	7.5	7.1	7.2	6.0	6.2	5.6	4.7	3.9	4.5
Russian Federation	2.5	3.7	4.3	3.8
Bosnia Herzegovina	2.8	4.9	6.3	5.1	3.8	3.7	..
Poland	16.6	15.7	11.9	6.9	3.4	2.3	2.1	1.7	1.4	..
Other European countries	27.1	24.8	25.9	29.7	24.3	26.6	24.8	24.7	25.2	30.7
Africa and the Middle East	38.3	41.6	41.6	36.5	29.4	32.9	36.5	37.8	32.6	33.4
America	34.5	43.5	45.4	41.9	27.6	25.7	24.7	22.5	18.8	20.7
United States	6.1	6.6	7.5	8.0	6.2	5.2	5.9	5.0	4.8	5.5
El Salvador	4.3	7.0	5.6	2.9	1.2	0.7	0.7	0.6	0.5	..
Other American countries	24.1	29.9	32.3	31.0	20.3	19.7	18.2	16.8	13.6	15.2
Not stated	-	-	-	-	-	0.2	0.4
Total	214.2	230.8	252.8	255.8	223.9	212.9	226.1	216.0	174.2	189.8

Note: Counts include both principal applicants and their accompanying dependents, if any. Figures include backlog clearance.

For details on definitions and sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

Table B.1.1. DENMARK, inflows of foreign population by nationality

	Thousands									
	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	
Iraq	0.4	0.5	1.3	1.0	0.7	1.0	1.1	1.3	2.3	
Somalia	1.3	1.5	2.5	1.8	1.2	
Germany	0.6	0.7	0.7	0.9	1.1	1.0	1.2	1.1	1.2	
Turkey	1.1	1.8	1.1	0.7	0.6	0.8	1.2	1.0	1.2	
Norway	0.7	0.7	0.6	0.7	0.8	0.9	1.0	1.1	1.1	
Sweden	0.5	0.7	0.6	0.6	0.7	0.8	0.9	1.0	1.0	
United Kingdom	1.1	0.9	1.0	0.9	1.0	
Iceland	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.7	1.2	1.2	0.9	0.7	
Former Yugoslavia	0.6	0.7	0.5	0.3	0.2	16.6 ¹	..	1.4	0.6	
United States	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.7	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.5	0.6	
France	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.5	
Netherlands	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.4	0.5	
Thailand	0.4	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.5	
Iran	0.8	0.9	0.5	0.4	0.3	0.2	0.5	0.4	0.5	
Pakistan	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.4	0.3	0.4	
Other countries	8.6	9.6	9.6	8.8	6.1	5.8	11.9	7.4	8.1	
Total	15.1	17.5	16.9	15.4	15.6	33.0	24.7	20.4	21.3	
<i>Of which: EU</i> ²	2.3	2.6	2.7	3.0	3.7	4.4	3.9	4.9	5.1	

Note: Entries of foreigners staying in Denmark more than one year. Asylum seekers and refugees with a provisional residence status are not included. For details on definitions and sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

1. Including 16 077 former Yugoslavs who have been recognised as refugees after 3 years of legal residence in Denmark as war refugees (temporary status).
2. Excluding Finland and Sweden before 1995 and Austria before 1998.

Table B.1.1. FINLAND, inflows of foreign population by nationality

	Thousands							
	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999
Russian Federation	2.9	2.2	1.9	2.0	2.0	2.4	2.5	2.2
Sweden	0.6	0.4	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.7	0.8	0.7
Estonia	2.1	2.0	1.4	1.0	0.7	0.6	0.7	0.6
Federal Rep. of Yugoslavia	0.1	1.7	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.4
Iraq	0.2	0.4	0.1	0.2	0.5	0.5	0.3	0.3
Iran	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.3
United States	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2
United Kingdom	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2
Germany	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.2
China	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2
Thailand	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.1
Turkey	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.1
Somalia	0.3	0.9	0.5	0.3	0.3	0.5	0.4	0.1
Ukraine	..	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1
Bosnia Herzegovina	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.4	0.4	0.1	-	0.1
Other countries	2.5	2.0	1.8	1.7	1.6	1.8	2.3	2.1
Total	10.4	10.9	7.6	7.3	7.5	8.1	8.3	7.9

Note: Entries of foreigners intending to stay in Finland for longer than one year. For details on definitions and sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

Table B.1.1. FRANCE, inflows of foreign population by nationality

	Thousands									
	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999
Morocco	18.0	18.2	16.4	13.8	8.1	6.6	6.6	10.3	16.1	14.1
Algeria	13.8	12.9	12.3	13.1	9.7	8.4	7.8	12.2	16.7	11.4
Turkey	7.0	9.2	9.2	6.8	4.7	3.6	3.4	5.1	6.8	5.7
Tunisia	4.0	4.3	4.0	3.5	2.3	1.9	2.2	3.6	5.3	4.0
United States	2.4	2.4	2.7	2.7
China	1.3	0.9	0.7	2.8	5.7	1.7
Democratic Rep. of Congo	2.2	1.3	0.9	0.9	2.9	4.6	1.5
Japan	1.3	1.5	1.3	1.2	1.1	1.0	1.1	1.2	1.1	1.4
Haiti	3.2	1.9	1.4	0.8	1.9	1.9	1.4
Federal Rep. of Yugoslavia	1.4
Sri Lanka	0.8	0.9	1.2
Russian Federation	0.6	0.7	0.9	1.0
Romania	0.7	1.3	1.1	1.0	0.7	0.6	0.5	0.6	0.9	0.9
Poland	2.9	2.5	1.2	1.1	0.8	0.9	0.7	0.8	1.4	0.9
Brazil	0.9	0.7	0.6	0.7	0.8
Other countries	54.7	60.1	71.2	53.1	35.1	26.5	25.8	38.1	54.7	36.2
Total¹	102.4	109.9	116.6	99.2	69.3	56.7	55.6	80.9	116.9	86.3
<i>Of which: EU</i>	11.3	11.7	25.9	14.4	10.8	7.9	7.1	6.4	6.1	5.6
Total²	91.5	77.0	75.5	102.4	138.1	104.4

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

1. Immigration on a long term basis (mainly workers, refugees, family reunification and visitors). In 1998 and 1999, data include 45 800 and 3 300 persons respectively who benefited from the 1997 regularisation programme. In 1999, data also include holders of a "vie privée et familiale" residence permit.
2. Figures include estimates of some unregistered flows (inflows of family members of European Economic Area citizens for example).

Table B.1.1. GERMANY, inflows of foreign population by nationality

Thousands

	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999
Federal Rep. of Yugoslavia	141.6	63.2	54.1	42.9	31.2	59.9	87.8
Poland	200.9	128.4	131.7	75.2	78.6	87.2	77.4	71.2	66.1	72.2
Turkey	83.6	81.9	80.6	67.8	63.9	73.6	73.2	56.0	48.0	47.1
Italy	36.9	35.4	30.1	31.7	38.7	48.0	45.8	39.0	35.6	34.9
Russian Federation	24.6	29.4	33.4	33.0	31.9	24.8	21.3	27.8
Romania	78.2	61.4	109.8	81.6	31.4	24.8	17.1	14.2	17.0	18.8
Greece	26.5	28.3	23.6	18.3	18.9	20.3	18.8	16.4	16.1	17.6
United States	21.3	17.6	15.8	16.0	16.3	15.1	17.0	16.8
Ukraine	6.6	12.3	13.9	15.4	13.7	12.5	14.1	15.3
France	12.7	12.9	13.3	13.0	13.6	14.4	14.9	14.4	14.3	15.3
Hungary	15.9	24.9	27.9	24.2	19.3	18.8	16.6	11.2	13.3	14.9
Portugal	7.0	10.7	10.1	12.9	26.5	30.5	32.0	26.4	18.8	14.7
Croatia	26.0	16.7	14.9	12.3	10.0	10.1	12.6
Bosnia Herzegovina	107.0	68.3	55.2	11.1	6.9	8.4	10.3
Czech Republic	11.0	9.6	10.0	8.9	7.7	7.7	9.3
Other countries	380.8	536.6	727.9	317.2	262.1	272.2	275.0	258.2	237.8	258.5
Total	842.4	920.5	1207.6	986.9	774.0	788.3	708.0	615.3	605.5	673.9
<i>Of which:</i> EU ¹	139.6	147.4	140.8	136.7	155.8	177.2	172.5	151.5	136.0	..

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

1. European Union 15 for all years.

Table B.1.1. GREECE, inflows of foreign population by nationality

Thousands

	<i>Of which:</i>	
	1998	Women 1998
Russian Federation	4.8	3.1
Bulgaria	2.9	2.2
Albania	2.7	1.9
Egypt	2.2	0.3
Romania	2.1	1.6
Ukraine	1.7	1.2
Former Yugoslavia	1.4	0.9
United States	1.4	0.8
Poland	1.3	1.1
Germany	1.3	0.8
United Kingdom	1.2	0.7
Philippines	1.0	0.8
Turkey	0.8	0.3
Syria	0.7	0.2
Lebanon	0.7	0.2
Other countries	12.0	6.9
Total	38.2	23.1

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

Table B.1.1. HUNGARY, inflows of foreign population by nationality
Thousands

	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999 ¹
Romania	29.6	10.9	6.5	6.1	4.3	4.7	4.0	3.4	4.1	6.0
Former Yugoslavia ²	0.4	3.6	3.2	5.0	2.3	1.4	0.9	0.8	0.8	1.7
Ukraine	1.1	1.3	1.1	1.2	1.4	1.2	1.3	1.2	1.3	1.6
China	0.7	2.1	0.4	0.5	0.5	1.2	1.7	1.7	1.0	1.0
Germany	0.5	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.7
Russian Federation	0.4	0.6	0.4	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.4	0.5	0.4
Slovak Republic	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.1	0.2	0.3
Vietnam	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.3
Israel	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.2
United Kingdom	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.1
Norway	-	-	-	-	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Austria	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Croatia	-	0.4	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Greece	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.1
Poland	0.8	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.1
Other countries	2.9	2.5	2.0	1.8	2.1	2.2	2.3	2.6	2.6	2.2
Total	37.2	23.0	15.1	16.4	12.8	13.2	12.8	12.2	12.3	15.0
<i>Of which:</i> EU ³	1.3	1.4	1.0	1.0	1.3	1.3	1.5	1.7	1.5	1.5

Note: Data are from the Register of long-term residence permits. For details on definitions and sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

1. Preliminary data
2. Excluding Croatia.
3. European Union 15 for all years.

Table B.1.1. IRELAND, inflows of foreign population by nationality
Thousands

	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000
United Kingdom	6.3	5.8	8.3	8.2	8.3	7.9	7.1
United States	2.0	1.5	4	4.2	2.2	2.5	2.2
Other countries	5.0	6.3	9.2	11.1	10.3	11.2	14.8
Total	13.3	13.6	21.5	23.5	20.8	21.6	24.1
<i>Of which:</i> EU	9.6	9.0	13.3	13.7	14.1	14.7	..

Note: CSO estimates on the basis of 1996 Census results. For details on definitions and sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

Table B.1.1. ITALY, inflows of foreign population by nationality

	Thousands	
	1998	1999
Albania	11.2	37.2
Morocco	7.3	24.9
Federal Rep. of Yugoslavia	5.7	24.5
Romania	5.9	20.9
China	3.4	11.0
Former CSFR	1.8	7.6
Senegal	-	7.4
Poland	3.9	6.7
Egypt	1.1	6.1
Tunisia	1.5	5.8
Former Yug. Rep. of Macedonia	1.6	5.7
Philippines	2.6	5.7
United States	4.7	5.7
India	2.6	5.4
Peru	1.6	4.8
Other countries	56.2	88.8
Total	111.0	268.0

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

Table B.1.1. JAPAN, inflows of foreign population by nationality

	Thousands									
	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999
China	29.9	35.6	52.4	45.2	38.9	38.8	45.6	53.3	55.7	59.1
Philippines	48.8	63.8	57.5	48.2	58.8	30.3	30.3	43.2	47.6	57.3
Brazil	11.6	17.3	19.2	14.6	11.8	11.9	16.4	39.6	21.9	26.1
United States	30.8	29.8	29.3	27.4	27.6	27.0	27.9	27.7	27.7	24.7
Korea	23.1	26.6	26.0	21.3	21.3	18.8	17.1	17.9	17.1	23.1
United Kingdom	7.5	6.1	6.7	5.9	6.6	6.4	6.4	6.9	6.8	7.0
Thailand	7.0	8.3	7.7	6.5	6.8	6.5	6.6	6.4	7.5	6.4
Chinese Taipei	7.3	7.6	6.0	5.2	4.7	4.7	4.4	5.1	4.9	4.4
Canada	3.8	4.2	4.2	3.8	4.1	4.1	4.6	4.8	4.6	4.2
Germany	4.3	4.1	4.2	4.2	4.0	3.7	4.2	4.3	4.4	3.4
Peru	2.8	1.1	0.9	1.0	1.0	1.7	2.4	3.1	3.1	2.7
Other countries	46.9	53.9	52.9	51.3	51.9	55.9	59.6	62.6	64.1	63.7
Total	223.8	258.4	267.0	234.5	237.5	209.9	225.4	274.8	265.5	281.9

Note: New entry except temporary visitors. Re-entry are excluded. For details on definitions and sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

Table B.1.1. LUXEMBOURG, inflows of foreign population by nationality

	Thousands										
	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	
France	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.2	1.3	1.5	1.5	1.7	2.0	2.2	
Portugal	3.4	3.5	2.4	2.9	2.4	2.4	2.0	1.9	2.0	2.1	
Belgium	0.9	0.9	0.9	0.8	0.9	0.9	1.1	1.2	1.2	1.3	
Germany	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.7	0.8	0.6	0.7	0.7	0.8	0.7	
United States	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.2	
Netherlands	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.2	
Spain	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	
Italy	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.1	
Other countries	2.3	2.9	3.9	2.5	2.6	2.9	2.8	2.7	3.4	4.9	
Total	9.3	10.0	9.8	9.2	9.2	9.6	9.2	9.4	10.6	11.8	
<i>Of which: EU¹</i>	7.6	7.8	7.1	7.1	7.1	7.1	

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

1. European Union 15 for all years.

Table B.1.1. NETHERLANDS, inflows of foreign population by nationality

	Thousands										
	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	
United Kingdom	5.4	6.0	6.5	5.0	3.5	3.7	4.3	4.3	4.7	5.0	
Germany	5.6	6.8	7.1	7.4	6.1	4.7	5.7	5.7	4.7	4.5	
Morocco	9.4	8.9	7.2	5.9	3.2	3.1	4.3	4.5	5.3	4.4	
Turkey	12.6	12.4	9.1	7.8	4.3	4.8	6.4	6.5	5.1	4.2	
United States	2.5	2.6	2.9	2.6	2.2	2.2	3.1	3.1	3.3	3.3	
France	1.8	1.7	1.8	1.5	1.4	..	1.7	2.1	2.1	2.0	
Belgium	2.4	2.4	2.2	2.0	1.7	1.3	1.9	2.2	1.9	2.0	
Suriname	6.8	6.7	6.9	7.8	2.9	1.7	2.8	2.6	3.2	1.8	
Italy	1.1	1.0	1.0	1.0	0.9	..	1.2	1.2	1.4	1.5	
Japan	1.0	1.1	..	1.3	1.2	1.2	1.3	
China	1.1	1.0	..	1.3	1.6	1.4	1.3	
Spain	1.0	1.3	1.2	1.2	
Poland	1.3	1.4	1.4	1.3	0.8	..	1.4	1.4	1.5	0.9	
Former Yugoslavia	4.9	8.9	8.4	7.3	3.4	1.6	1.4	0.7	
Iran	1.6	0.3	0.3	
Other countries	32.3	34.4	32.0	34.2	30.8	38.2	37.4	35.8	43.0	43.8	
Total	81.3	84.3	83.0	87.6	68.4	67.0	77.2	76.7	81.7	78.4	
<i>Of which: EU¹</i>	18.6	20.8	22.3	19.7	16.0	14.8	19.2	20.3	19.9	20.4	

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

1. European Union 15 for all years.

Table B.1.1. NEW ZEALAND, inflows of permanent and long term migrants by country of birth

Thousands	
	1999
United Kingdom	5.5
Japan	3.8
Australia	3.4
China	3.1
South Africa	2.1
India	1.9
Chinese Taipei	1.5
United States	1.3
Fiji	1.2
Other countries	12.3
Total	36.2

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

Table B.1.1. NORWAY, inflows of foreign population by nationality

Thousands										
	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999
Former Yugoslavia ¹	0.8	1.0	2.5	1.8	0.8	0.6	0.2	0.2	0.3	6.5
Sweden	1.1	1.1	1.3	1.6	1.9	2.1	2.9	4.9	6.0	4.5
Iraq	0.6	0.5	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.7	1.1	2.1
Denmark	1.8	1.8	1.7	1.7	1.9	1.6	1.6	1.8	2.1	1.8
Somalia	0.3	0.7	0.5	0.6	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.5	1.1	1.2
Germany	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.6	0.8	1.1	1.1
United Kingdom	0.7	0.8	1.1	1.1	0.8	0.8	0.9	1.0	1.3	1.0
Russian Federation	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.8
United States	0.9	1.0	0.9	0.9	0.8	0.8	0.9	1.0	1.0	0.7
Iran	0.7	0.7	0.5	0.4	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.6	0.7	0.7
Pakistan	0.6	0.5	0.4	0.5	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.5
Bosnia Herzegovina	6.2	3.2	1.7	1.0	0.6	0.5	0.5
Turkey	0.5	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.5
Thailand	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.4
Sri Lanka	0.6	0.5	0.5	0.4	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4
Other countries	7.1	7.1	6.1	5.5	5.6	5.7	6.2	7.8	12.3	9.7
Total	15.7	16.1	17.2	22.3	17.9	16.5	17.2	22.0	26.7	32.2
<i>Of which:</i> EU ²	4.7	5.0	5.5	6.0	6.5	6.6	7.7	10.8	13.3	11.0

Note: Data are from population registers. For details on definitions and sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

1. Excluding Bosnia Herzegovina from 1993 on.
2. European Union 15 for all years.

Table B.1.1. PORTUGAL, inflows of foreign population by nationality

	Thousands							
	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999
Brazil	2.9	1.8	0.8	0.7	0.3	0.3	0.7	1.2
Spain	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.5	1.0
Guinea-Bissau	1.8	0.9	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	1.0
Cape Verde	1.1	1.1	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.8	1.0
Angola	3.1	1.9	0.4	0.3	0.1	0.0	0.4	0.9
Germany	0.3	0.4	0.6	0.6	0.5	0.4	0.6	0.8
United Kingdom	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.7	0.5	0.4	0.5	0.7
France	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.5	0.7
Italy	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.4
Netherlands	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.4
Sao Tome and Principe	0.5	0.4	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.3
Venezuela	0.3	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2
United States	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.2
China	0.1	0.1
Mozambique	0.3	0.1	-	-	-	-	0.1	0.1
Other countries	1.9	1.4	1.0	0.8	0.7	0.6	1.1	1.7
Total	13.7	9.9	5.7	5.0	3.6	3.3	6.5	10.5
<i>Of which:</i> EU	1.5	1.8	2.3	2.4	1.9	1.9	2.9	4.4

Note: Data are issued from residence permits. For details on definitions and sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

Table B.1.1. SWEDEN, inflows of foreign population by nationality

	Thousands									
	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999
Iraq	2.0	2.5	3.8	4.6	3.5	2.3	2.1	3.7	5.4	5.5
Finland	4.1	3.0	2.7	2.4	2.8	2.8	2.6	2.8	3.0	3.4
Norway	7.3	2.6	1.9	1.5	1.6	1.7	1.5	1.5	1.6	2.0
Denmark	3.1	1.7	1.3	1.2	1.8	1.8	1.4	1.0	1.1	1.3
Former Yugoslavia	2.2	2.0	1.8	3.3	15.8	2.5	0.8	3.9	1.9	1.2
Germany	0.6	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.6	0.8	1.0	0.9	1.1	1.1
United Kingdom	0.9	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.6	0.8	0.9	0.8	1.0	1.0
Iran	4.5	3.8	3.6	1.9	1.5	1.1	0.8	1.7	1.5	1.0
United States	0.9	0.9	0.9	0.7	0.8	1.1	1.1	0.9	1.0	1.0
Russian Federation	-	-	0.5	0.6	1.1	1.0	0.8	0.7	0.8	1.0
Bosnia Herzegovina ¹	20.7	25.7	4.6	1.2	1.8	1.3	1.0
China	0.6	0.6	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.7	0.8
Turkey	1.6	1.5	1.1	0.8	1.1	1.1	1.1	0.8	0.5	0.8
Thailand	0.5	0.6	0.7	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.7
Poland	2.0	1.6	1.5	1.0	1.0	0.9	0.7	0.6	0.6	0.7
Other countries	22.9	22.0	18.2	13.8	15.7	12.6	12.3	11.1	13.6	12.2
Total	53.2	43.9	39.5	54.8	74.8	36.1	29.3	33.4	35.7	34.6
<i>Of which:</i> EU ²	10.2	7.2	6.2	5.8	7.0	7.9	7.9	7.1	8.4	8.8

Note: Data are from population registers. For details on definitions and sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

1. Included in former Yugoslavia before 1993.

2. EU 15 for all years.

Table B.1.1. SWITZERLAND, inflows of foreign population by nationality

	Thousands									
	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1995	1997	1998	1999
Former Yugoslavia	21.9	27.0	33.6	34.2	25.3	22.3	14.1	12.8	11.5	12.6
Germany	9.8	9.9	9.6	8.6	8.7	8.6	8.7	8.5	9.3	11.0
France	5.4	4.9	5.1	4.5	5.0	5.0	5.0	4.8	5.4	6.2
Italy	8.8	8.3	8.3	7.3	6.9	6.7	5.4	5.0	5.3	6.0
Portugal	13.8	14.1	13.3	10.0	8.6	7.6	5.5	4.0	5.1	5.0
United Kingdom	2.5	2.5	2.5	2.5	2.4	2.6	2.4	2.4	2.7	3.4
United States	2.5	3.0	2.6	2.4	2.6	2.9	2.9	2.7	2.8	3.2
Turkey	6.0	6.7	5.3	4.8	3.8	3.8	3.4	3.4	2.6	3.0
Spain	5.6	4.6	3.9	3.1	2.3	2.7	2.0	1.8	1.7	1.6
Austria	2.1	2.1	2.0	1.6	1.5	1.3	1.3	1.3	1.3	1.5
Netherlands	1.9	1.7	1.8	1.4	1.5	1.5	1.4	1.1	1.0	1.2
Canada	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.6	0.7	0.9	0.8	0.8	0.9	1.1
Other countries	20.4	24.2	23.4	22.8	22.3	22.0	21.6	24.1	25.4	30.1
Total	101.4	109.8	112.1	104.0	91.7	87.9	74.3	72.8	74.9	85.8
<i>Of which: EU</i>	37.8	39.3	35.7	34.4	35.1	39.5

Note: Data are from the register of foreigners. For details on definitions and sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

Table B.1.1. UNITED KINGDOM, inflows of foreign population by nationality

	Thousands								
	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	
United States	43.9	37.3	38.2	39.4	43.2	42.5	44.2	44.8	
Australia	25.0	21.5	27.2	26.6	25.1	26.5	30.1	33.4	
South Africa	2.3	2.6	5.6	11.1	12.9	13.0	19.1	24.1	
India	9.2	8.9	9.9	11.6	13.0	16.1	18.4	19.6	
New Zealand	10.6	9.3	12.1	12.0	11.0	12.1	14.3	15.8	
Canada	6.4	5.8	6.7	6.7	7.4	8.3	9.6	10.8	
Japan	10.4	9.4	10.4	10.1	10.8	10.4	10.3	10.7	
Pakistan	8.3	7.5	6.6	7.2	7.8	9.6	13.2	8.9	
Philippines	2.6	3.3	5.2	6.5	6.8	7.5	7.3	8.1	
Poland	3.5	3.5	3.5	3.5	3.6	5.4	5.9	5.7	
Russian Federation	3.5	4.2	3.6	4.0	4.1	4.9	
China	1.8	2.3	2.7	3.2	3.2	2.5	3.1	3.4	
Bangladesh	3.2	3.2	3.2	2.8	3.3	4.0	3.9	3.4	
Korea		1.5	2.0	2.5	3.2	4.2	2.5	3.0	
Turkey	3.5	3.3	2.3	2.0	2.0	2.3	2.5	2.9	
Other countries	73.2	70.9	54.4	57.1	59.6	68.6	69.5	77.4	
Total	203.9	190.3	193.6	206.3	216.4	236.9	258.0	276.9	

Note: Passengers, excluding European Economic Area nationals, admitted to the United Kingdom. Data exclude visitors, passengers in transit or returning on limited leave or who previously settled. Students and au pair girls are excluded. For details on definitions and sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

Table B.1.1. UNITED STATES, inflows of permanent settlers by region or country of birth

	Thousands									
	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998
North and Central America	607.4	957.6	1 211.0	384.0	301.4	272.2	231.5	340.5	307.5	253.0
Mexico	405.2	679.1	946.2	213.8	126.6	111.4	89.9	163.6	146.9	131.6
Dominican Republic	26.7	42.2	41.4	42.0	45.4	51.2	38.5	39.6	27.1	20.4
Cuba	10.0	10.6	10.3	11.8	13.7	14.7	17.9	26.5	33.6	17.4
Jamaica	24.5	25.0	23.8	18.9	17.2	14.3	16.4	19.1	17.8	15.1
El Salvador	57.9	80.2	47.4	26.2	26.8	17.6	11.7	17.9	18.0	14.6
Haiti	13.7	20.3	47.5	11.0	10.1	13.3	14.0	18.4	15.1	13.4
Other North or Central American countries	69.4	100.1	94.4	60.4	61.6	49.6	43.0	55.5	49.1	40.4
Asia	312.1	338.6	358.5	357.0	358.0	292.6	267.9	307.8	265.8	219.7
China	32.3	31.8	33.0	38.9	65.6	54.0	35.5	41.7	41.1	36.9
India	31.2	30.7	45.1	36.8	40.1	34.9	34.7	44.9	38.1	36.5
Philippines	57.0	63.8	63.6	61.0	63.5	53.5	51.0	55.9	49.1	34.5
Vietnam	37.7	48.8	55.3	77.7	59.6	41.3	41.8	42.1	38.5	17.6
Korea	34.2	32.3	26.5	19.4	18.0	16.0	16.0	18.2	14.2	14.3
Pakistan	8.0	9.7	20.4	10.2	8.9	8.7	9.8	12.5	13.0	13.1
Other Asian countries	111.7	121.5	114.7	113.0	102.3	84.1	79.2	92.6	71.8	66.9
Europe	82.9	112.4	135.2	145.4	158.3	160.9	128.2	147.6	119.9	90.8
Former USSR ¹	11.1	25.5	57.0	20.4	28.2	27.2	22.5	22.0	16.7	..
Russian Federation	8.9	12.1	15.2	14.6	19.7	16.6	11.5
Ukraine	14.4	18.3	21.0	17.4	21.1	15.7	..
Other European countries	71.8	86.9	78.3	101.8	99.7	97.5	73.7	84.8	70.8	79.3
South America	58.9	85.8	79.9	55.3	53.9	47.4	45.7	61.8	52.9	45.4
Colombia	15.2	24.2	19.7	13.2	12.8	10.8	10.8	14.3	13.0	11.8
Other South American countries	43.7	61.6	60.2	42.1	41.1	36.5	34.8	47.5	39.9	33.6
Africa	25.2	35.9	36.2	27.1	27.8	26.7	42.5	52.9	47.8	40.7
Oceania	4.4	6.2	6.2	5.2	4.9	4.6	4.7	5.3	4.3	3.9
Total	1 090.9	1 536.5	1 827.2	974.0	904.3	804.4	720.5	915.9	798.4	660.5

Note: Data refer to fiscal years (October to September of the given year). Since 1989, approximately 2.9 millions of immigrants obtained a permanent residence permit following legalization under the 1986 Immigration Reform and Control Act. For details on definitions and sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

1. Excluding Russian Federation and Ukraine from 1992 on.

Table B.1.2. AUSTRALIA, outflows of foreign-born population by country of birth

	Thousands									
	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	
United Kingdom	12.0	10.4	9.9	9.4	9.8	10.0	10.7	10.1	10.5	
New Zealand	8.4	7.5	7.7	7.7	7.7	7.3	7.6	5.8	6.7	
Hong Kong (China)	3.1	2.6	2.9	3.8	3.8	4.2	4.2	4.2	4.3	
China	1.0	1.2	1.1	1.9	2.0	2.1	2.4	2.8	3.2	
Malaysia	1.8	1.8	1.7	1.6	1.7	1.8	1.8	1.7	1.9	
United States	1.6	1.5	1.3	1.2	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.4	
India	0.9	0.8	0.7	0.8	0.8	0.9	1.1	1.1	1.1	
Greece	1.4	1.3	1.3	1.2	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.0	1.0	
Vietnam	0.3	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.7	0.8	1.0	1.0	
Chinese Taipei	0.4	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.6	0.7	0.9	1.0	
South Africa	0.6	0.5	0.5	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.9	0.9	1.0	
Indonesia	0.5	0.6	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.7	0.8	
Ireland	1.0	0.8	0.7	0.7	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.7	0.8	
Singapore	0.6	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.7	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.8	
Germany	1.0	0.8	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.8	0.7	0.8	
Other countries	14.2	13.6	12.9	12.5	12.6	13.2	13.9	13.6	14.5	
Total	48.7	44.7	43.4	44.3	45.4	46.7	49.5	47.4	50.8	

Note: Data refer to foreign-born people indicating an intention to reside abroad permanently or departing for a temporary stay of more than twelve months. For details on definitions and sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

Table B.1.2. BELGIUM, outflows of foreign population by nationality

	Thousands									
	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999
France	..	4.4	3.3	3.4	4.0	4.2	4.3	4.5	5.3	5.3
Netherlands	..	3.4	3.4	3.5	3.6	3.9	4.1	4.4	4.2	4.4
United States	..	3.1	3.0	3.0	2.9	2.9	2.7	3.0	3.2	3.2
United Kingdom	..	2.4	2.3	2.4	2.7	2.7	2.6	2.8	2.9	2.8
Germany	..	2.2	2.1	2.2	2.3	2.3	2.3	2.4	2.6	2.7
Italy	2.5	3.6	2.0	2.0	0.7	2.1	1.9	2.2	2.7	2.3
Spain	1.2	2.0	1.0	1.0	1.2	1.5	1.1	1.4	1.6	1.6
Portugal	0.5	0.8	0.6	0.9	0.6	0.9	1.0	1.4	1.3	1.5
Greece	0.6	1.0	0.5	0.4	2.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.8	0.8
Japan	..	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.9	0.9	0.9	0.9	0.9	0.8
Morocco	0.7	0.9	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.9	0.8	0.7	0.8	0.8
Former Yugoslavia	0.1	0.3	0.8	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.0	0.1	0.2	0.7
Turkey	0.6	0.7	0.6	0.6	0.8	0.6	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.6
China	..	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.5
Canada	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4
Other countries	20.8	9.4	7.2	9.5	10.3	8.7	8.7	8.8	8.4	8.0
Total	27.0	35.3	28.1	31.2	34.1	33.1	32.4	34.6	36.3	36.4
<i>Of which: EU</i>	15.5	20.7	15.7	16.6	19.1	20.0	19.7	15.4	23.3	23.6

Note: Data are from population registers. For details on definitions and sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

Table B.1.2. DENMARK, outflows of foreign population by nationality

	Thousands								
	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998
Iceland	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.2	0.4	0.7	
United Kingdom	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	
Norway	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.7	
Germany	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.5	
Sweden	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	
Somalia	-	-	..	0.1	0.2	0.2	
United States	0.3	0.5	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	
France	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	
Netherlands	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	
Italy	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	
Finland	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	
Turkey	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.2	
Bosnia Herzegovina	
Poland	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	
Japan	0.2	
Other countries	2.1	2.3	2.2	2.2	1.7	1.8	2.1	2.1	
Total	4.6	5.2	4.8	4.9	5.0	5.3	6.0	6.7	
<i>Of which: EU¹</i>	1.4	1.6	1.4	1.4	1.7	2.2	1.8	2.5	

Note: Departures of foreigners for more than one year. Departures of asylum seekers and refugees with a provisional residence status are not included.

For details on definitions and sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

1. Including Finland and Sweden from 1995 on.

Table B.1.2. FINLAND, outflows of foreign population by nationality

	Thousands							
	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999
Sweden	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4
Estonia	-	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.1	0.2	0.2
Former USSR	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.5	0.1	0.1	0.1
United States	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1
United Kingdom	0.1	0.1	-	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1
Germany	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Somalia	-	-	-	0.1	0.1	0.1	-	0.1
China	-	-	-	-	0.1	-	-	0.1
Other countries	0.7	0.6	0.6	0.6	1.2	0.6	0.7	0.8
Total	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.5	3.0	1.6	1.7	2.0

Note: Data are from population registers. For details on definitions and sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

Table B.1.2. GERMANY, outflows of foreign population by nationality

	Thousands									
	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999
Poland	157.7	115.3	109.5	101.8	65.8	70.7	71.7	70.2	60.7	58.6
Federal Rep. of Yugoslavia	73.5	62.1	40.4	34.3	44.5	45.1	48.3
Turkey	35.1	36.1	40.3	46.3	45.4	43.2	43.5	46.0	45.1	40.9
Italy	34.1	36.4	32.7	31.0	32.1	33.5	36.8	37.9	37.9	37.2
Bosnia Herzegovina	10.3	62.1	15.7	27.2	83.9	97.5	33.3
Greece	14.3	15.4	16.2	17.5	19.2	19.3	20.1	21.8	20.3	20.0
Portugal	2.9	4.1	4.9	6.3	14.3	20.5	25.4	26.5	22.1	16.4
United States	16.2	16.9	17.2	16.0	16.0	14.7	15.7	15.5
Romania	15.8	30.2	51.9	101.9	44.0	25.2	16.6	13.6	13.5	14.7
Hungary	8.7	14.9	21.2	25.1	22.0	18.8	17.0	15.1	12.2	12.6
Croatia	28.5	25.0	28.5	22.0	17.3	18.9	16.7	12.3
Russian Federation	6.2	7.8	12.3	13.5	12.6	11.2	10.3	10.1
Spain	6.1	6.2	6.5	7.2	7.6	7.2	8.2	9.2	8.4	9.5
Bulgaria	10.8	34.9	17.8	10.3	7.0	6.3	4.9	5.5
Morocco	1.5	2.0	2.3	2.8	3.3	2.7	2.5	2.4	2.8	2.7
Other countries	189.8	236.9	267.5	202.0	167.8	202.1	203.1	214.8	225.9	217.9
Total	466.0	497.5	614.7	710.2	621.5	561.1	559.1	637.1	639.0	555.6
<i>Of which:</i> EU ¹	100.9	114.6	111.8	116.4	133.4	139.6	153.9	159.3	146.7	141.2

Note: Data are from population registers. For details on definitions and sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

1. European Union 15 for all years.

Table B.1.2. HUNGARY, outflows of foreign population by nationality

	Thousands									
	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999 ¹
Romania	6.2	2.5	1.1	1.5	1.0	1.0	1.5	1.6	1.4	1.7
China	0.2	0.1	1.1	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.6	0.6	0.7
Former USSR ²	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.4	0.6	0.6	0.7	0.7
Former Yugoslavia	0.4	0.2	0.1	0.3	0.7	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.5	0.4
Germany	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.3
United States	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3
Poland	1.1	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.3	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.2
Greece	-	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2
Mongolia	0.1	-	-	-	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Vietnam	0.2	0.4	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
United Kingdom	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Israel	-	-	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Russian Federation	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.1
France	-	-	0.1	-	0.1	-	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Libya	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	-	-	-	0.1	0.1	0.1
Other countries	2.2	1.3	1.5	1.1	0.9	0.9	1.0	0.9	1.1	1.0
Total	11.7	5.9	5.7	5.0	5.1	4.5	5.7	6.1	6.1	6.1
<i>Of which:</i> EU ³	0.7	0.7	0.9	0.9	1.0	0.8	1.0	0.9	1.1	0.9

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

1. Preliminary data.

2. Excluding the Russian Federation.

3. European Union 15 for all years.

Table B.1.2. JAPAN, outflows of foreign population by nationality

	Thousands									
	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999
Philippines	40.3	50.7	57.2	43.2	50.7	44.2	16.3	31.4	34.9	43.3
United States	26.5	25.0	26.0	25.7	25.6	24.9	24.8	24.3	24.8	22.5
China	14.5	12.7	17.0	23.0	20.9	21.7	21.8	23.6	24.2	25.9
Brazil	3.7	6.9	13.8	20.7	19.7	16.8	14.0	14.1	20.0	19.4
Korea	16.1	18.2	18.9	16.6	16.5	14.5	12.4	12.4	10.4	12.9
United Kingdom	6.7	4.9	5.8	5.1	5.9	5.5	5.0	5.4	5.5	5.5
Thailand	5.9	6.7	6.8	6.1	5.4	5.5	5.3	4.7	5.2	5.4
Germany	4.1	3.8	4.1	4.1	3.8	3.6	3.9	3.9	4.2	3.1
Canada	2.7	3.1	3.3	3.2	3.2	3.3	3.3	3.5	3.6	3.3
Chinese Taipei	6.1	5.9	5.2	4.4	4.2	4.0	3.2	3.5	3.3	3.0
Peru	0.8	0.8	2.1	1.8	1.4	0.9	0.8	0.6	0.7	0.9
Other countries	38.7	42.6	44.6	46.6	46.9	49.5	49.3	49.2	51.1	53.0
Total	166.1	181.3	204.8	200.5	204.2	194.4	160.1	176.6	187.8	198.3

Note: Data are from the register of foreigners. For details on definitions and sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

Table B.1.2. LUXEMBOURG, outflows of foreign population by nationality

	Thousands									
	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998
Portugal	1.0	1.2	1.3	1.4	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.3	1.3	1.5
France	1.0	0.9	1.0	0.9	0.8	0.9	0.8	0.9	1.0	1.1
Belgium	0.5	0.6	0.7	0.6	0.6	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.7
Germany	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.5
Italy	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.3	0.4	0.3	0.4
United States	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.3
Netherlands	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.2
Spain	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Other countries	1.4	1.4	1.3	1.3	1.2	1.2	1.0	1.3	1.4	1.8
Total	5.5	5.5	5.9	5.6	5.0	5.3	4.9	5.6	5.8	6.7

Note: Data are from the Central Population Register. For details on definitions and sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

Table B.1.2. NETHERLANDS, outflows of foreign population by nationality

	Thousands									
	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999
Germany	2.3	2.7	2.9	3.0	3.2	2.9	3.5	3.1	3.0	3.0
United Kingdom	2.4	2.4	2.4	2.6	2.8	2.9	2.5	2.3	2.6	2.5
United States	1.7	1.7	1.9	1.9	1.8	1.5	1.9	2.2	1.8	1.8
Japan	0.9	0.9	..	1.1	1.1	1.0	1.1
Belgium	1.2	1.3	1.3	1.1	1.3	0.9	1.2	1.1	1.0	1.0
France	0.8	0.9	0.8	0.7	0.8	..	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.8
Turkey	2.3	1.7	1.8	1.7	1.6	1.6	1.5	1.1	0.9	0.7
Italy	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.4	0.5	..	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.6
Morocco	1.0	1.1	1.0	1.1	1.2	1.1	1.0	0.8	0.6	0.5
Poland	1.2	0.2	..	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.3
China	0.1	0.2	..	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2
Surinam	0.5	0.6	0.7	0.6	0.5	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.2
Former Yugoslavia	0.3	0.3	0.3	..	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.1
Other countries	7.9	8.4	9.1	6.5	7.4	10.4	7.2	7.6	7.7	7.8
Total	20.6	21.3	22.7	22.2	22.7	21.7	22.4	21.9	21.3	20.7
<i>Of which: EU¹</i>	8.9	9.6	10.0	10.5	10.4	10.0	10.7	10.0	10.3	10.1

Note: Data are from population registers. For details on definitions and sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

1. European Union 15 for all years.

Table B.1.2. NEW ZEALAND, outflows of permanent and long term migrants by country of birth

Thousands	
	1999
United Kingdom	3.5
Australia	3.2
Japan	1.4
United States	1.0
Korea	0.8
Malaysia	0.5
Canada	0.4
India	0.4
Samoa	0.4
Other countries	4.3
Total	15.9

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

Table B.1.2. NORWAY, outflows of foreign population by nationality

	Thousands										
	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	
Sweden	1.1	0.7	0.7	0.7	1.0	1.0	1.1	1.7	2.7	3.5	
Denmark	2.0	1.7	1.4	1.4	1.6	1.7	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.7	
United States	0.8	0.9	0.7	1.0	0.8	0.9	0.9	0.9	0.9	0.8	
United Kingdom	1.5	1.1	0.9	1.1	0.9	0.9	1.0	0.8	0.8	0.8	
Former Yugoslavia	0.5	0.4	0.6	1.1	0.6	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.7	
Germany	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.4	
Bosnia Herzegovina ¹	-	-	0.2	0.3	0.9	0.6	0.4	0.2	
Russian Federation	-	-	-	-	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	
China	-	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.1	
Pakistan	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.4	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.1	
Sri Lanka	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.1	
Turkey	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	
Poland	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	
Philippines	-	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.1	
Chile	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	
Other countries	2.7	2.6	2.6	3.4	3.2	2.8	3.2	3.4	4.3	4.0	
Total	9.8	8.4	8.1	10.5	9.6	9.0	10.0	10.0	12.0	12.7	
<i>Of which: EU²</i>	4.5	3.6	3.0	3.5	3.3	5.0	5.1	5.5	6.9	8.1	

Note: Data are from population registers. For details on definitions and sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

1. Included in former Yugoslavia before 1992.

2. European Union 15 from 1995 on.

Table B.1.2. SWEDEN, outflows of foreign population by nationality

Thousands

	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999
Finland	5.4	4.5	3.1	2.8	2.6	2.7	2.9	3.0	2.9	2.7
Norway	3.9	4.1	3.4	2.9	2.4	2.2	2.0	2.0	1.8	1.5
Denmark	2.4	2.2	1.8	1.6	1.6	1.6	1.6	1.4	1.2	1.0
United States	0.4	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.8
United Kingdom	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.4	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.7
Germany	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.3	0.4	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.6
Iceland	0.7	0.8	0.7	0.6	0.5	0.5	0.7	0.6	0.5	0.4
Iran	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.5	0.7	0.2	0.2	0.4	0.4	0.3
France	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3
Greece	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.2
Japan	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.2
China	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.2
Former Yugoslavia	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.6	0.7	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.2
Bosnia Herzegovina	-	-	-	-	-	0.1	0.4	0.9	0.5	0.2
Chile	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.5	0.6	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.0	0.2
Stateless	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Other countries	1.7	1.5	2.0	3.2	3.8	4.8	3.7	3.5	3.8	3.7
Total	16.2	15.0	13.2	14.8	15.8	15.4	14.5	15.3	14.1	13.6
<i>Of which: EU¹</i>	9.2	7.9	6.2	6.0	6.1	6.8	6.5	6.5	6.3	6.4

Note: Data are from population registers. For details on definitions and sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

1. European Union 15 for all years.

Table B.1.2. SWITZERLAND, outflows of foreign population by nationality

Thousands

	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999
Italy	11.7	11.5	15.3	11.7	9.9	10.3	10.8	9.9	8.6	8.7
Portugal	4.7	6.3	10.1	8.7	7.5	7.4	7.9	8.7	7.8	8.0
Germany	6.2	7.2	7.1	7.3	6.2	6.6	6.2	5.9	5.5	5.9
Spain	7.2	7.9	11.6	8.1	6.1	6.1	6.3	5.8	5.3	5.4
France	3.8	3.9	4.0	3.8	3.5	3.8	3.7	3.5	3.3	3.7
Former Yugoslavia	5.9	6.4	7.5	7.0	8.0	8.7	9.0	7.2	6.2	2.2
Turkey	2.6	2.7	2.9	3.0	3.0	2.7	2.5	2.3	2.3	1.5
Austria	1.5	1.7	1.8	1.6	1.3	1.4	1.2	1.2	1.0	1.0
Other countries	16.0	18.9	20.2	20.0	18.9	20.5	20.1	19.0	19.0	21.7
Total	59.6	66.4	80.4	71.2	64.2	67.5	67.7	63.4	59.0	58.1
<i>Of which: EU</i>	42.3	42.6	41.7

Note: Data are from registers of foreigners. For details on definitions and sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

Table B.1.3. AUSTRIA, inflows of asylum seekers by nationality

	Thousands					
	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000
Afghanistan	0.1	0.8	0.7	0.5	2.2	4.2
Iran	0.5	0.7	0.5	1.0	3.3	2.6
India	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.5	0.9	2.4
Iraq	0.7	1.6	1.5	2.0	2.0	2.4
Federal Rep. of Yugoslavia	1.4	1.0	1.1	6.6	6.8	1.5
Pakistan	0.1	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.6
Turkey	0.5	0.5	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.6
Nigeria	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.4
Bangladesh	-	0.1	0.1	-	0.3	0.3
Russian Federation	0.1	0.1	-	0.1	0.1	0.3
Sierra Leone	-	-	0.1	-	0.3	0.2
Somalia	-	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2
Sri Lanka	-	-	-	0.2	0.2	0.2
Armenia	-	-	-	-	0.2	0.2
Syria	-	0.2	0.1	-	0.2	0.2
Stateless and other	2.1	1.3	1.5	2.4	2.4	2.1
Total	5.9	7.0	6.7	13.8	20.1	18.3

Note: For more details on sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

Table B.1.3. BELGIUM, inflows of asylum seekers by nationality

	Thousands									
	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000 ¹
Federal Rep. of Yugoslavia	0.7	0.7	0.9	1.2	1.5	1.8	1.3	6.1	13.1	4.3
Russian Federation	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.2	1.4	3.1
Iran	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	2.7
Albania	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.4	1.0	1.1	1.0	2.5
Kazakhstan	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.1	0.1	0.6	1.8
Bulgaria	0.4	0.5	1.4	0.6	0.4	0.6	0.2	0.5	0.9	1.7
Slovak Republic	-	-	-	-	-	0.2	0.3	1.0	1.2	1.3
Ukraine	-	-	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.3	1.3	1.3
Dem. Rep. of Congo	2.0	3.8	4.1	2.0	1.0	0.8	1.2	1.8	1.4	1.2
Armenia	-	-	0.1	0.2	0.5	0.9	0.6	0.7	1.5	1.2
Other countries	11.7	12.1	19.2	9.9	7.6	7.1	6.7	10.4	13.3	17.0
Total	15.4	17.5	26.4	14.6	11.6	12.4	11.8	22.1	35.8	38.1

Note: For more details on sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

1. Provisional data from January to November 2000.

Table B.1.3. CANADA, inflows of asylum seekers by nationality

	Thousands					
	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999
Sri Lanka	2.5	2.3	2.8	2.6	2.6	2.9
China	0.5	0.8	0.9	1.2	1.4	2.4
Pakistan	0.7	1.1	1.0	1.2	1.6	2.3
Hungary	-	0.0	0.1	0.4	1.0	1.6
India	1.2	1.3	1.4	1.3	1.2	1.4
Mexico	0.2	0.6	0.9	1.0	1.2	1.2
Dem. Rep. of Congo	0.4	0.6	1.1	0.9	0.7	0.9
Russian Federation	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.6	0.7	0.9
Iran	1.5	1.9	1.7	1.2	0.9	0.8
Nigeria	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.6	0.6
Somalia	2.0	1.6	0.9	0.7	0.7	0.5
Afghanistan	0.6	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.5
Albania	0.1	0.5
Argentina	0.1	0.4
Ukraine	0.3	0.4
Other countries	11.7	14.7	13.8	10.6	10.4	12.1
Total	22.0	26.1	26.1	22.6	23.8	29.4

Note: For more details on sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

Table B.1.3. FRANCE, inflows of asylum seekers by nationality

	Thousands									
	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999
China	0.8	2.4	2.1	0.4	1.3	1.6	1.4	1.7	2.1	5.2
Former Yugoslavia	0.4	0.9	2.4	2.5	1.9	1.4	0.9	1.0	1.7	2.9
<i>of which: Fed. Rep. of Yugoslavia</i>	2.5
Former USSR	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.2	0.1	0.4	0.6	1.0	1.0	2.5
Dem. Rep. of Congo	5.8	4.3	3.1	2.2	1.2	1.2	1.1	1.2	1.8	2.3
Turkey	11.8	9.7	1.8	1.3	1.3	1.7	1.2	1.4	1.6	2.2
Sri Lanka	2.5	3.4	4.0	2.8	1.7	1.1	1.2	1.6	1.8	2.0
Mali	0.8	0.5	0.5	0.2	0.4	1.7
Algeria	0.1	0.2	0.6	1.1	2.4	1.8	0.6	0.9	0.9	1.3
India	0.7	0.6	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.8
Mauritania	0.6	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.5	0.8
South East Asia	1.4	2.0	2.0	1.1	1.0	0.8
Pakistan	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.7	0.8	0.8
Romania	3.3	2.4	2.2	2.7	4.0	4.0	4.0	5.1	3.0	0.7
Angola	0.6	0.4	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.5
Other countries	29.8	23.8	12.4	14.4	7.4	2.8	2.3	4.5	5.0	6.5
Total	54.8	47.4	28.9	27.6	26.0	20.4	17.4	21.4	22.4	30.9

Note: For more details on sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

Table B.1.3. GERMANY, inflows of asylum seekers by nationality

	Thousands									
	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999
Former Yugoslavia	22.1	74.9	122.7	95.6	39.3	32.7	20.9	17.7	35.0	33.7
Turkey	22.1	23.9	28.3	19.1	19.1	25.5	23.8	16.8	11.8	9.1
Iraq	1.2	2.1	6.9	10.8	14.1	7.4	8.7
Afghanistan	7.3	7.3	6.4	5.5	5.6	7.5	5.7	4.7	3.8	4.5
Iran	7.3	8.6	3.8	2.7	3.4	3.9	4.8	3.8	3.0	3.4
Vietnam	9.4	8.1	12.3	11.0	3.4	2.6	1.1	1.5	3.0	2.4
Armenia	2.1	3.4	3.5	2.5	1.7	2.4
Pakistan	2.0	3.1	2.6	2.3	1.5	1.7
India	2.7	2.8	1.9	1.5	1.5
Sri Lanka	4.4	5.6	..	3.3	4.8	6.0	5.0	4.0	2.0	1.3
Togo	2.9	3.5	..	1.0	1.1	0.7	0.9
Lebanon	16.2	..	5.6	1.1	1.0	0.6	0.6
Nigeria	5.4	8.4	1.7	1.1	0.7	0.3
Romania	35.3	40.5	103.8	73.7	9.6	3.5	1.4	0.8	0.3	0.2
Bulgaria	8.3	12.1	31.5	22.5	3.4	1.2	0.9	0.8	0.2	0.1
Other countries	55.1	66.7	123.8	85.1	28.8	28.9	29.2	30.3	25.6	24.5
Total	193.1	256.1	438.2	322.6	127.2	127.9	116.4	104.4	98.6	95.1

Note: For more details on sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

Table B.1.3. ITALY, inflows of asylum seekers by nationality

	Thousands				
	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999
Former Yugoslavia	0.1	-	-	2.6	4.9
Iraq	0.2	0.2	0.3	2.3	1.8
Turkey	0.1	-	0.1	1.3	0.5
Iran	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.1
Afghanistan	-	-	-	0.1	0.1
Sri Lanka	-	-	-	-	0.1
Albania	-	-	0.9	0.1	0.1
Pakistan	0.1	-	-	0.1	-
Dem. Rep. of Congo	-	0.1	0.1	0.1	-
Romania	0.4	-	-	0.1	-
Other countries	0.8	0.4	0.4	4.5	25.8
Total (excluding dependents)	1.7	0.7	1.9	11.1	33.4

Note: For more details on sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

Table B.1.3. **NETHERLANDS, inflows of asylum seekers by nationality**

Thousands

	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999
Former Yugoslavia	0.6	2.7	5.6	10.2	13.4	6.1	2.0	3.8	8.3	7.1
Afghanistan	0.6	0.3	0.4	1.5	2.5	1.9	3.0	5.9	7.1	4.4
Iraq	0.4	0.7	0.8	3.2	2.9	2.4	4.4	9.6	8.3	3.7
Somalia	1.7	1.7	4.2	4.3	5.4	4.0	1.5	1.3	2.8	2.7
Sudan	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.6	0.7	0.7	1.9	1.7
Iran	1.7	1.7	1.3	2.6	6.1	2.7	1.5	1.3	1.7	1.5
Turkey	0.8	0.9	0.7	0.6	0.6	0.7	0.7	1.1	1.2	1.5
China	0.9	0.9	0.5	0.5	1.2	0.9	1.2
Former USSR	0.2	1.0	0.6	1.6	4.5	1.9	1.7	2.0	2.7	1.0
Sri Lanka	3.0	1.8	1.0	1.9	1.8	1.3	1.5	1.5	1.0	0.9
Algeria	0.3	1.4	0.7	0.4	0.5	0.8	0.6
Liberia	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.7	0.4	0.3	0.6	0.5	0.2	0.2
Romania	2.2	1.7	1.0	1.1	2.8	0.4	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Dem. Rep. of Congo	1.3	2.2	0.8	0.4	0.6	0.4	..
Other countries	9.8	8.7	4.3	4.9	7.5	5.0	3.9	4.5	7.8	16.1
Total	21.2	21.6	20.3	35.4	52.6	29.3	22.9	34.4	45.2	42.7

Note: For more details on sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

Table B.1.3. **SWITZERLAND, inflows of asylum seekers by nationality**

Thousands

	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000
Federal Rep. of Yugoslavia	7.5	5.5	6.2	6.9	20.4	28.9	3.6
Turkey	1.1	1.3	1.3	1.4	1.6	1.5	1.4
Bosnia Herzegovina	..	3.5	1.3	2.0	1.9	1.5	1.3
Iraq	..	0.3	0.4	0.5	2.0	1.7	0.9
Sri Lanka	1.5	1.0	2.0	2.1	1.9	1.5	0.9
Iran	..	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.7
Sierra Leone	..	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.8	0.5
Algeria	..	0.4	0.4	0.6	0.5	0.5	0.5
Somalia	0.7	0.9	0.6	0.5	0.5
Afghanistan	..	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.4	0.4
Angola	1.1	0.5	0.5	0.3	0.4	0.6	0.4
Armenia	..	-	0.1	-	0.5	0.4	0.4
Albania	..	-	0.3	3.1	3.8	1.4	0.3
Russian Federation	..	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.3
Dem. Rep of Congo	..	0.3	0.7	0.5	0.5	0.5	..
Other countries	5.1	3.7	3.6	5.0	6.5	5.6	5.4
Total	16.1	17.0	18.0	24.0	41.3	46.1	17.6

Note: For more details on sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

Table B.1.3. UNITED KINGDOM, inflows of asylum seekers by nationality

	Thousands									
	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999
Former Yugoslavia	-	0.3	5.6	1.8	1.4	1.6	1.0	2.3	8.0	14.2
Somalia	2.3	2.0	1.6	1.5	1.8	3.5	1.8	2.7	4.7	7.5
Sri Lanka	3.3	3.8	2.1	2.0	2.4	2.1	1.3	1.8	3.5	5.1
Afghanistan	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.6	0.7	1.1	2.4	4.0
Turkey	1.6	2.1	1.9	1.5	2.0	1.8	1.5	1.4	2.0	2.9
Former USSR ¹	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.6	0.8	1.0	1.3	2.3	2.6
China	..	0.5	0.3	0.2	0.4	0.8	0.8	1.9	1.9	2.6
Pakistan	1.5	3.2	1.7	1.1	1.8	2.9	1.9	1.6	2.0	2.6
Romania	0.3	0.6	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.8	0.5	0.6	1.1	2.0
Poland	0.1	0.2	0.4	1.2	0.9	0.6	1.6	1.9
Iraq	1.0	0.9	0.7	0.5	0.6	0.9	1.0	1.1	1.3	1.8
Czech Republic	-	-	-	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.2	0.5	1.8
Algeria	-	-	0.2	0.3	1.0	1.9	0.7	0.7	1.3	1.4
India	1.5	2.1	1.5	1.3	2.0	3.3	2.2	1.3	1.0	1.4
Iran	0.5	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.7	1.3
Other countries	14.2	28.6	7.8	10.7	17.2	21.3	13.7	13.2	11.7	18.2
Total (excluding dependents)	26.2	44.8	24.6	22.4	32.8	44.0	29.6	32.5	46.0	71.2
Total (including dependents)	38.2	73.4	32.3	28.0	42.2	55.0	37.0	41.5	58.0	91.2

Note: For more details on sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

1. Except Russian Federation and Ukraine from 1996 on.

Table B.1.3. UNITED STATES, inflows of asylum seekers by nationality

	Thousands						
	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998
Mexico	0.6	6.4	9.3	9.7	9.7	18.8	6.7
El Salvador	6.8	14.6	18.6	75.9	65.6	8.2	6.3
Guatemala	43.9	34.2	34.4	23.2	13.9	9.8	5.9
China	3.5	14.5	10.9	5.0	3.5	5.7	5.8
Haiti	5.4	10.9	9.5	2.6	4.4	5.4	3.4
Former USSR	4.5	0.4	0.1	2.4	2.4	2.7	2.7
India	3.2	5.7	4.5	3.4	4.7	4.9	2.7
Somalia	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.2	1.2	1.9	2.4
Pakistan	3.3	4.5	3.3	2.5	1.4	1.4	1.0
Bangladesh	1.0	3.8	3.7	1.9	1.0	1.2	0.9
Iran	0.6	1.0	0.9
Mauritania	1.3	1.4	0.8
Nicaragua	2.1	3.2	4.7	1.9	2.0	1.7	0.8
Honduras	1.1	2.8	4.4	3.2	1.8	1.9	0.8
Ethiopia	1.0	1.2	0.9	0.9	1.1	1.1	0.8
Other countries	27.3	41.8	42.1	21.8	13.5	18.9	13.6
Total	104.0	144.2	146.5	154.5	128.2	85.9	55.4

Note: Data refer to fiscal years (October to September of the given year). For more details on sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

Table B.1.4. AUSTRALIA, stock of immigrant population by country of birth

	Thousands		
	1990	1995	1999
Europe	2 426.5	2 407.0	2 423.5
United Kingdom and Ireland	1 238.6	1 220.9	1 227.2
Italy	271.7	261.6	244.6
Former Yugoslavia	167.3	186.1	208.4
Greece	147.9	142.3	140.2
Germany	121.2	120.1	123.5
Netherlands	100.4	96.1	92.7
Others	379.4	379.9	386.9
Asia	655.9	879.9	1 049.1
Vietnam	114.3	157.8	175.2
China	76.1	107.2	156.8
Philippines	71.5	98.3	116.9
India	61.5	80.0	100.7
Malaysia	75.7	82.8	94.8
Others	256.8	353.8	404.7
Oceania	365.5	395.5	460.9
New Zealand	287.2	304.2	361.6
Others	47.9	26.3	32.0
Middle East and North Africa	186.0	206.8	224.1
Lebanon	75.3	77.1	78.0
Others	43.7	60.4	76.8
Americas	149.3	161.1	184.9
United States	48.8	51.9	69.8
Others	49.2	56.0	56.9
Africa (excl. North Africa)	102.3	113.8	139.6
South Africa	53.5	58.8	75.7
Others	48.8	54.9	63.9
Total	3 885.5	4 164.1	4 482.1

Note: Estimated resident population, 30 June. For details on sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

Table B.1.4. CANADA, stock of immigrant population by country of birth, census results of 1986, 1991 and 1996

	Thousands			<i>Of which : women</i>
	1986	1991	1996	1996
United Kingdom	793.1	717.8	655.5	352.2
Italy	366.8	351.6	332.1	158.0
United States	282.0	249.1	244.7	139.8
Hong Kong (China)	77.4	152.5	241.1	124.3
India	130.1	173.7	235.9	117.0
China	119.2	157.4	231.1	122.2
Poland	156.8	184.7	193.4	100.1
Philippines	82.2	123.3	184.6	111.7
Germany	189.6	180.5	181.7	95.2
Portugal	139.6	161.2	158.8	79.3
Vietnam	82.8	113.6	139.3	69.7
Netherlands	134.2	129.6	124.5	60.9
Former Yugoslavia	87.8	88.8	122.0	59.3
Jamaica	87.6	102.4	115.8	67.3
Former USSR	109.4	99.4	108.4	57.1
Other and not stated	1 069.6	1 357.4	1 702.2	851.4
Total	3 908.2	4 342.9	4 971.1	2 565.7

Note: For details on sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

Table B.1.4. DENMARK, stock of foreign-born population by country of birth

	Thousands		
	1990	1995	1999
Turkey	21.6	25.3	29.0
Germany	20.9	21.9	22.9
Bosnia Herzegovina	..	15.2	18.0
Norway	11.7	13.0	13.1
Sweden	11.9	11.9	12.6
Iraq	2.7	6.3	12.5
Federal Rep. of Yugoslavia	8.4	10.3	12.5
Lebanon	8.4	11.0	11.7
Somalia	0.7	5.7	11.3
Iran	8.7	10.0	11.1
United Kingdom	8.2	9.9	10.5
Poland	8.8	9.7	10.3
Pakistan	7.9	8.9	9.9
Vietnam	5.6	7.5	8.2
Sri Lanka	4.7	5.8	6.7
Other countries	59.6	72.2	96.4
Total	189.6	244.5	296.9
<i>Of which: EU</i>	56.0	61.2	66.3

Note: For details on sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

Table B.1.4. **FINLAND, stock of foreign-born population by country of birth**
Thousands

	1995	1999
Former USSR	24.8	33.5
Sweden	26.6	27.9
Estonia	5.6	7.4
Former Yugoslavia	3.1	5.9
Somalia	3.2	4.2
Germany	2.9	3.5
Iraq	1.4	3.0
United States	2.7	3.0
Vietnam	2.4	2.8
United Kingdom	2.1	2.6
Turkey	1.5	2.0
China	1.5	2.0
Iran	1.3	1.9
Thailand	1.0	1.6
Poland	1.2	1.2
Other countries	25.1	28.5
Total	106.3	131.1

Note: For details on sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

Table B.1.4. **HUNGARY, stock of foreign-born population by country of birth**
Thousands

	1995	1999
Romania	141.2	142.3
Czech and Slovak Republics	43.3	37.5
Former Yugoslavia	33.9	34.4
Former USSR	27.1	30.2
Germany	13.2	14.1
Austria	3.8	3.8
China	0.5	2.6
Poland	2.7	2.7
United States	2.2	2.2
Bulgaria	1.4	1.4
France	1.3	1.4
Greece	1.2	1.1
Vietnam	0.4	1.0
Other countries	11.6	14.6
Total	283.7	289.3
<i>Of which:</i> EU	22.0	23.8

Note: For details on sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

Table B.1.4. NETHERLANDS, stock of foreign-born population by country of birth

	Thousands		
	1990	1995	1999
Surinam	162.9	181.0	185.0
Turkey	149.5	167.5	178.0
Indonesia	186.1	177.7	168.0
Morocco	122.9	140.7	152.7
Germany	128.7	130.1	124.2
Former Yugoslavia	15.2	43.8	50.5
Belgium	42.2	43.3	45.3
United Kingdom	38.3	42.3	43.6
Iraq	1.5	10.2	29.9
Somalia	3.6	17.2	21.4
China	11.8	16.1	20.6
United States	14.7	17.4	20.3
Iran	6.3	14.9	20.1
Afghanistan	19.8
Spain	17.3	17.4	18.0
Other countries	316.2	387.6	458.6
Total	1 217.1	1 407.1	1 556.3

Note: For details on sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

Table B.1.4. NORWAY, stock of foreign-born population by country of birth

	Thousands		
	1993	1995	1999
Sweden	20.0	24.3	33.4
Denmark	20.5	20.9	21.7
United States	14.7	15.2	15.0
United Kingdom	13.4	13.6	14.3
Pakistan	11.4	11.8	13.3
Federal Rep. of Yugoslavia	7.7	7.9	13.3
Bosnia Herzegovina	5.1	10.8	11.6
Germany	8.4	9.5	11.4
Vietnam	10.4	10.8	11.2
Iran	6.9	7.1	8.9
Turkey	5.9	6.1	7.3
Sri Lanka	6.0	6.3	7.3
Korea	5.1	5.5	6.0
Poland	5.0	5.3	5.7
Philippines	4.4	4.8	5.7
Other countries	71.3	80.3	106.4
Total	216.2	240.3	292.4

Note: For details on sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

Table B.1.4. SWEDEN, stock of foreign-born population by country of birth

Thousands			
	1993	1995	1999
Finland	209.5	205.7	197.0
Former Yugoslavia	70.5	119.5	70.4
Bosnia Herzegovina ¹	50.7
Iran	48.1	49.0	50.5
Iraq	20.2	26.4	43.1
Norway	47.1	53.9	41.8
Poland	38.5	39.4	39.9
Denmark	41.1	40.5	37.9
Germany	36.6	36.5	37.4
Turkey	28.5	29.8	31.4
Chile	27.7	27.0	26.6
Lebanon	21.2	..	20.0
Hungary	15.0	14.7	14.3
United States	13.8	13.8	14.1
United Kingdom	12.5	12.7	14.0
Other countries	238.8	267.2	292.4
Total	869.1	936.0	981.6

Note: For details on sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

1. Included in former Yugoslavia until 1995.

Table B.1.4. UNITED STATES, stock of foreign-born population by place of birth, census results of 1970, 1980 and 1990

Thousands			
	1970	1980	1990
Mexico	759.7	2 199.2	4 298.0
Philippines	184.8	501.4	912.7
Canada	812.4	842.9	744.8
Cuba	439.0	607.8	737.0
Germany	833.0	849.4	711.9
United Kingdom	708.2	669.1	640.1
Italy	1 008.7	831.9	580.6
Korea	88.7	289.9	568.4
Vietnam	..	231.1	543.3
China	172.2	286.1	529.8
India	51.0	206.1	450.4
Former USSR	463.5	406.0	398.9
Poland	548.1	418.1	388.3
Dominican Republic	..	169.1	347.9
Jamaica	..	196.8	334.1
Other and not stated	3 550.0	5 375.0	7 581.1
Total	9 619.3	14 079.9	19 767.3

Note: For details on sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

Table B.1.5. **BELGIUM, stock of foreign population by nationality**
Thousands

	1985	1990	1995	1999	<i>of which:</i>
					Women
					1999
Italy	252.9	241.2	210.7	200.3	90.1
Morocco	123.6	141.7	140.3	122.0	57.0
France	92.3	94.3	100.1	107.2	55.4
Netherlands	59.6	65.3	77.2	85.8	38.4
Turkey	74.2	84.9	81.7	69.2	34.9
Spain	51.2	52.2	48.3	45.9	22.3
Germany	24.3	27.8	31.8	34.3	16.8
United Kingdom	20.8	23.3	26.0	26.2	11.9
Portugal	9.5	16.5	23.9	25.6	12.7
Greece	19.3	20.9	19.9	18.4	8.6
Zaire	8.9	12.0	12.2	12.5	..
United States	11.0	11.7	12.0	12.2	6.2
Former Yugoslavia	4.7	5.9	8.1	10.5	..
Algeria	10.0	10.7	9.5	8.3	3.8
Poland	..	4.9	5.4	6.7	4.4
Other countries ¹	84.2	91.0	102.8	112.1	68.7
Total	846.5	904.5	909.8	897.1	431.2
<i>Of which:</i> EU	538.1	551.2	554.5	563.6	266.6
Total women	386.5	417.5	428.0	431.2	

Note: Data are from population registers and refer to the population on 31 December of the years indicated. For details on definitions and sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

1. Including refugees whose stock is not broken down by nationality.

Table B.1.5. CZECH REPUBLIC, stock of foreign population by nationality

	Thousands		
	1992	1995	1999
Ukraine	..	28.2	65.9
Slovak Republic ¹	..	39.7	40.4
Vietnam	2.6	14.2	24.8
Poland	12.7	23.1	18.3
Russian Federation	..	4.4	16.9
Germany	1.5	5.6	6.1
Bulgaria	2.9	4.3	5.0
China	4.3
Federal Rep. of Yugoslavia	..	4.8	4.1
United States	1.5	4.4	3.8
Belarus	..	0.4	3.6
Moldavia	..	0.2	2.9
Romania	0.2	1.6	2.6
Austria	..	2.2	2.3
Croatia	..	1.5	2.2
Other countries	19.8	24.0	25.6
Total	41.2	158.6	228.9

Note: Data are from registers of foreigners and refer to the population on 31 December of the years indicated. For details on definitions and sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

- Up to 1 January 1993, Slovak permanent residents were registered in the National Population Register. Since the split of the Czech and Slovak Republics, Slovak citizens residing in the Czech Republic are subject to the same rules as any other foreign resident and they are registered in the Central Register of Foreigners.

Table B.1.5. DENMARK, stock of foreign population by nationality
Thousands

	1985	1990	1995	1999	of which: Women
					1999
Turkey	20.4	29.7	35.7	36.6	18.0
Former Yugoslavia	7.9	10.0	28.1	35.1	17.8
Somalia	..	0.6	6.9	14.3	6.8
United Kingdom	9.7	10.2	12.1	12.7	4.5
Iraq	0.7	2.8	7.1	12.7	5.7
Germany	8.2	8.4	10.6	12.7	5.9
Norway	9.8	10.2	11.1	12.6	7.3
Sweden	8.1	8.2	9.1	10.8	6.1
Pakistan	6.6	6.2	6.6	7.1	3.8
Lebanon	0.2	3.2	4.4	7.1	2.0
Iceland	3.3	3.0	4.8	5.8	2.8
Iran	4.7	9.0	7.4	5.7	2.7
Poland	2.2	4.7	5.3	5.6	3.9
United States	4.3	4.5	5.1	5.3	2.5
Other countries	30.7	49.8	68.5	75.4	40.9
Total	117.0	160.6	222.7	259.4	130.6
<i>Of which: EU¹</i>	37.3	38.2	46.5	52.8	23.9
Total women	54.0	75.2	109.2	130.6	

Note: Data are from population registers and refer to the population on 31 December of the years indicated
For details on definitions and sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

1. European Union 15 for all years.

Table B.1.5. FINLAND, stock of foreign population by nationality

Thousands

	1985	1990	1995	1999	of which: Women
					1999
Russian Federation ¹	1.6	4.2	15.9	21.5	13.1
Estonia ¹	8.4	10.7	6.4
Sweden	4.9	6.1	7.0	7.8	3.5
Somalia	4.0	4.4	2.2
Former Yugoslavia	2.4	3.4	1.5
Iraq	1.3	3.0	1.3
United Kingdom	1.1	1.3	1.9	2.2	0.6
Germany	1.6	1.6	1.7	2.2	0.8
United States	1.3	1.5	1.8	2.1	0.9
Iran	..	0.1	1.3	1.9	0.8
Vietnam	2.1	1.8	1.0
Turkey	..	0.2	1.3	1.7	0.4
China	1.4	1.7	0.9
Bosnia Herzegovina ²	0.9	1.6	0.8
Other countries	6.6	11.5	17.1	21.8	9.6
Total	17.0	26.3	68.6	87.7	43.5
<i>Of which: EU</i>	13.7	16.3	..
Total women	..	11.5	32.8	43.5	

Note: Data are from population registers and refer to the population on the 31 December of the years indicated

For details on definitions and sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

1. Figures include Ingrians (ethnic Finns).

2. Included in former Yugoslavia until 1991.

Table B.1.5. FRANCE, stock of foreign population by nationality

Thousands

	1982	1990	1999
Portugal	767.3	649.7	553.7
Morocco	441.3	572.7	504.1
Algeria	805.1	614.2	477.5
Turkey	122.3	197.7	208.0
Italy	340.3	252.8	201.7
Spain	327.2	216.0	161.8
Tunisia	190.8	206.3	154.4
Former Yugoslavia	62.5	52.5	..
Cambodia	37.9	47.4	..
Poland	64.8	47.1	..
Senegal	32.3	43.7	..
Vietnam	33.8	33.7	..
Laos	32.5	31.8	..
Other countries	456.1	631.0	1 002.1
Total	3 714.2	3 596.6	3 263.2
<i>Of which: EU</i>	1 594.8	1 311.9	1 195.5
Total women	1 594.6	1 614.3	1 531.0

Note: Data are from the population censuses. For details on definitions and sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

Table B.1.5. GERMANY, stock of foreign population by nationality

	Thousands				<i>of which: Women</i> ⁴
	1985	1990	1995	1999	1999
Turkey	1 401.9	1 694.6	2 014.3	2 053.6	939.9
Former Yugoslavia ¹	591.0	662.7	797.7	737.2	322.9
Italy	531.3	552.4	586.1	615.9	248.5
Greece	280.6	320.2	359.5	364.4	164.1
Poland	104.8	242.0	276.7	291.7	140.3
Croatia ²	185.1	214.0	104.0
Austria	172.5	183.2	184.5	186.1	84.0
Bosnia Herzegovina ²	316.0	167.7	81.2
Portugal	77.0	85.5	125.1	132.6	56.5
Spain	152.8	135.5	132.3	129.9	61.6
Iran	51.3	92.2	107.0	116.4	47.3
United States	85.7	92.7	108.4	112.0	47.8
United Kingdom	88.1	96.5	112.5	110.8	45.7
Netherlands	108.4	111.7	113.1	110.5	50.8
France	74.8	85.1	99.1	107.2	57.6
Other countries	658.7	988.3	1 656.5	1 893.7	879.5
Total	4 378.9	5 342.5	7 173.9	7 343.6	3 331.7
<i>Of which: EU</i> ³	1 539.0	1 632.6	1 811.7	1 856.0	822.5
Total women	1 867.4	2 330.7	2 459.8 ⁴	3 331.7 ⁴	

Note: Data are from population registers and refer to the population on 31 December of the given year.

For details on definitions and sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

1. From 1993 on, Serbia and Montenegro.
2. Included in former Yugoslavia until 1992.
3. European Union 15 for all years (except Swedish citizens before 1991).
4. Women aged 16 years and over.

Table B.1.5. HUNGARY, stock of foreign population by nationality

Thousands

	1994	1995	1999 ¹	<i>of which: Women</i>
				1999 ¹
Romania	68.3	65.7	48.6	24.8
Former Yugoslavia	14.5	15.5	15.3	9.3
Germany	7.4	7.8	8.5	5.3
China	3.5	4.3	7.7	3.2
Ukraine	11.1	11.5	7.6	5.8
Russian Federation	3.7	3.7	3.8	2.2
Poland	4.6	4.5	2.5	1.5
Vietnam	1.3	1.3	2.2	0.9
Slovak Republic	3.4	3.5	1.3	2.6
Bulgaria	1.7	1.6	1.3	0.6
Mongolia	0.5	0.6	1.0	0.7
Greece	1.4	1.6	1.0	0.4
United Kingdom	0.6	0.8	0.9	0.3
Austria	0.6	0.7	0.8	0.3
France	0.4	0.4	0.8	0.3
Other countries	14.9	16.3	23.8	5.5
Total	137.9	139.9	127.0	63.8
<i>Of which: EU</i>	11.8	13.0	14.2	7.4
Total women	65.0	65.6	63.8	

Note: Data are from registers of foreigners and refer to the population on 31 December of the years indicated.

For details on definitions and sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

1. Preliminary figures.

Table B.1.5. **ITALY, stock of foreign population by nationality**
Thousands

	1985	1990	1995	1999
Morocco	2.6	78.0	94.2	149.5
Albania	34.7	115.8
Philippines	7.6	34.3	43.4	61.0
Federal Rep. of Yugoslavia	13.9	29.8	56.1	54.7
Romania	..	7.5	24.5	51.6
United States	51.1	58.1	60.6	47.6
China	1.6	18.7	21.5	47.1
Tunisia	4.4	41.2	40.5	44.0
Senegal	0.3	25.1	24.0	37.4
Germany	37.2	41.6	39.4	35.4
Sri Lanka	2.5	11.5	20.3	29.9
Egypt	7.0	19.8	21.9	28.3
Poland	..	17.0	22.0	27.7
Peru		5.4	10.0	26.5
India	5.3	11.3	14.6	25.6
Other countries	289.5	381.9	463.7	470.0
Total	423.0	781.1	991.4	1 252.0
<i>Of which:</i> EU	..	148.6	164.0	145.8

Note: Data are from population registers and refer to the population on the 31 December of the years indicated.

For details on definitions and sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

Table B.1.5. **JAPAN, stock of foreign population by nationality**
Thousands

	1985	1990	1995	1999
Korea	683.3	687.9	666.4	636.5
China ¹	74.9	150.3	223.0	294.2
Brazil	2.0	56.4	176.4	224.3
Philippines	12.3	49.1	74.3	115.7
United States	29.0	38.4	43.2	42.8
Peru	0.5	10.3	36.3	42.8
Thailand	2.6	6.7	16.0	25.3
Indonesia	1.7	3.6	7.0	16.4
United Kingdom	6.8	10.2	12.5	15.4
Vietnam	4.1	6.2	9.1	14.9
Canada	2.4	4.9	7.2	9.2
India	5.5	9.1
Australia	1.8	4.0	6.0	8.2
Malaysia	1.8	4.7	5.4	7.1
Iran	8.6	6.7
Other countries	-	42.6	65.5	87.7
Total	823.2	1 075.3	1 362.4	1 556.1

Note: Data are based on registered foreign nationals which include foreigners staying in Japan for more than 90 days and refer to the population on the 31 December of the years indicated. For details on definitions and sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

1. Including Chinese Taipei.

Table B.1.5. KOREA, stock of foreign population by nationality

	Thousands				Of which: women
	1986	1990	1995	1999	1999
China	-	0.1	19.2	39.7	19.7
<i>Of which: Chinese with Korean descents</i>	-	-	7.4	20.3	9.3
United States	8.4	14.0	22.2	25.8	12.0
Chinese Taipei	24.8	23.6	23.3	23.0	10.5
Indonesia	-	0.1	3.4	13.6	2.9
Japan	3.0	5.3	9.4	13.2	9.2
Philippines	0.2	0.6	9.0	10.8	4.5
Vietnam	-	-	5.7	10.0	3.5
Bangladesh	-	-	2.7	6.7	0.0
Canada	0.4	0.6	3.0	3.0	1.2
Uzbekistan	-	-	0.8	2.3	0.4
Sri Lanka	-	0.1	1.7	2.2	0.7
Thailand	-	0.1	0.5	1.8	0.5
Pakistan	-	-	0.8	1.8	0.0
Russian Federation	-	-	0.5	1.5	1.1
France	0.9	0.6	0.7	1.3	0.5
Other countries	4.0	4.4	7.3	32.3	4.3
Total	41.6	49.5	110.0	189.3	71.0
Total women	..	22.6	47.0	71.0	

Note: Data are from population registers and refer to the population on the 31 December of the years indicated. For details on definitions and sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

Table B.1.5. LUXEMBOURG, stock of foreign population by nationality

	Thousands			
	1985	1990	1995	1999
Portugal	29.0	39.1	51.5	57.0
Italy	20.7	19.5	19.8	20.1
France	12.6	13.0	15.0	18.8
Belgium	8.5	10.1	11.8	14.5
Germany	8.9	8.8	9.7	10.5
Spain	2.2	2.5	2.8	..
Other countries	16.0	20.1	27.5	38.5
Total	97.9	113.1	138.1	159.4

Note: Data are from population registers and refer to the population on the 31 December of the years indicated. For details on definitions and sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

Table B.1.5. **NETHERLANDS, stock of foreign population by nationality**
Thousands

	1985	1990	1995	1999	<i>Of which:</i>
					women
					1999
Morocco	116.4	156.9	149.8	119.7	56.6
Turkey	156.4	203.5	154.3	100.7	50.4
Germany	41.0	44.3	53.9	54.3	27.4
United Kingdom ¹	38.5	39.0	41.1	39.5	15.9
Belgium	22.8	23.6	24.1	25.4	13.3
Italy	17.8	16.9	17.4	17.9	6.1
Spain	19.0	17.2	16.7	16.9	8.0
Former Yugoslavia	11.7	13.5	33.5	15.6	7.5
Portugal	7.5	8.3	9.1	9.2	4.2
Greece	3.8	4.9	5.4	5.5	1.9
Tunisia	2.6	2.6	1.9	1.3	0.5
United States	10.5	11.4	12.8
Other countries	104.5	150.3	205.4	245.5	122.1
Total	552.5	692.4	725.4	651.5	313.9
<i>Of which:</i> EU ²	166.4	173.9	191.1	195.9	91.2
Total women	239.8	311.1	335.4	313.9	

Note: Data are from population registers and refer to the population on the 31 December of the years indicated.

For details on definitions and sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

1. Including Hong Kong (China).
2. European Union 15 for all years.

Table B.1.5. NORWAY, stock of foreign population by nationality

	Thousands				<i>Of which:</i>
	1985	1990	1995	1999	women
					1998
Sweden	10.0	11.7	15.4	25.1	12.5
Denmark	15.7	17.2	17.9	19.2	9.4
Bosnia Herzegovina ¹	11.2	12.2	6.0
United Kingdom	12.5	11.8	11.1	11.4	4.4
Former Yugoslavia	1.7	4.2	6.4	10.2	2.5
United States	10.0	9.5	9.0	8.3	4.5
Pakistan	8.4	11.4	9.7	7.4	3.7
Germany	3.7	4.3	4.8	6.7	3.1
Iraq	..	0.9	2.6	5.8	1.8
Finland	..	3.1	3.7	5.7	3.0
Somalia	..	1.7	3.7	4.8	2.0
Iceland	..	2.2	2.9	4.0	2.0
Iran	0.3	5.9	4.7	3.7	1.6
Netherlands	2.4	2.6	3.0	3.5	1.6
Turkey	3.4	5.5	4.4	3.5	1.5
Other countries	33.4	51.3	50.3	47.1	24.6
Total	101.5	143.3	160.8	178.7	84.3
<i>Of which:</i> EU ²	52.9	55.9	61.6	78.5	36.8
Total women	48.1	66.5	80.3

Note: Data are from population registers and refer to the population on the 31 December of the years indicated. For details on definitions and sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

1. Included in former Yugoslavia until 1992.

2. European Union 15 for all years.

Table B.1.5. PORTUGAL, stock of foreign population by nationality

	Thousands				<i>Of which: women</i>
	1988	1990	1995	1999	1999
Cape Verde	27.1	28.8	38.7	43.8	18.0
Brazil	9.3	11.4	19.9	20.9	9.7
Angola	4.4	5.3	15.8	17.7	7.2
Guinea-Bissau	3.1	4.0	12.3	14.1	3.8
United Kingdom	7.1	8.5	11.5	13.3	6.2
Spain	7.1	7.5	8.9	11.2	5.4
United States	6.1	6.9	8.5	9.6	3.4
Germany	4.1	4.8	7.4	8.0	4.2
France	2.8	3.2	4.7	6.5	3.1
Sao Tome and Principe	1.7	2.0	4.1	4.8	2.4
Mozambique	2.8	3.2	4.4	4.5	2.0
Netherlands	1.5	1.8	2.7	3.7	1.6
Venezuela	4.8	5.1	4.5	3.4	1.2
China	1.0	1.2	2.2	2.7	1.0
Canada	2.1	2.1	2.4	2.7	0.8
Other countries	9.5	11.9	20.3	24.0	11.0
Total	94.7	107.8	168.3	190.9	80.9
<i>Of which: EU</i>	25.3	28.8	41.5	52.4	24.1
Total women	69.5	80.9	

Note: Figures include all foreigners who hold a valid residence permit. For details on definitions and sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

Table B.1.5. SPAIN, stock of foreign population by nationality
Thousands

	1985	1990	1995	1999
Morocco	5.8	11.4	74.9	161.9
United Kingdom	39.1	55.5	62.3	76.4
Germany	28.5	31.2	41.9	60.8
Portugal	23.3	22.8	37.0	44.0
France	17.8	19.7	30.8	43.3
Italy	10.3	10.8	19.8	29.9
Peru	1.7	2.6	15.1	27.3
Dominican Republic	1.2	1.5	14.5	26.9
China	1.6	2.8	9.2	24.7
Netherlands	10.9	11.7	13.0	17.2
United States	12.2	11.0	14.9	16.6
Cuba	5.0	3.5	..	16.6
Philippines	6.2	5.1	9.7	13.8
Colombia	2.7	3.1	7.0	13.6
Belgium	7.4	8.2	8.9	13.1
Other countries	68.1	77.9	141.0	215.4
Total	242.0	278.8	499.8	801.3
<i>Of which: EU</i>	143.5	164.6	235.6	312.2

Note: Numbers of foreigners with a residence permit. Data refer to the population on the 31 December of the years indicated. For details on definitions and sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

Table B.1.5. **SWEDEN, stock of foreign population by nationality**
Thousands

	1985	1990	1995	1999	<i>Of which: women</i>
					1999
Finland	138.6	119.7	104.9	99.0	55.4
Bosnia Herzegovina	53.9	34.2	17.3
Norway	26.4	38.2	32.3	30.9	16.1
Iraq	3.5	7.7	21.3	30.2	13.9
Denmark	25.1	28.6	26.5	25.0	10.7
Former Yugoslavia ¹	38.4	41.1	38.4	22.7	10.7
Turkey	21.5	25.5	20.3	16.4	8.2
Poland	15.5	15.7	16.0	16.3	11.1
Iran	8.3	39.0	29.3	16.1	8.3
Germany	12.0	13.0	13.4	15.5	7.3
Somalia	..	1.4	11.3	13.5	6.5
United Kingdom	8.9	10.1	11.2	12.4	4.2
Chile	9.2	19.9	13.0	10.8	5.0
United States	6.4	8.0	9.2	9.6	4.3
Croatia	3.8	7.2	3.6
Other countries	74.8	115.8	127.0	127.2	65.1
Total	388.6	483.7	531.8	487.2	247.8
Total women	192.7	237.5	256.5	247.8	

Note: Data are from population registers and refer to the population on the 31 December of the years indicated. For details on definitions and sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

1. Excluding Bosnia Herzegovina and Croatia from 1995 on.

Table B.1.5. **SWITZERLAND, stock of foreign population by nationality**
Thousands

	1985	1990	1995	1999	<i>Of which:</i>
					women
					1999
Former Yugoslavia	69.5	140.7	294.2	331.5	157.1
Italy	392.5	378.7	358.9	327.7	140.5
Portugal	30.9	85.6	134.8	135.0	66.5
Germany	81.0	83.4	90.9	102.7	47.8
Spain	108.4	116.1	101.4	86.2	39.5
Turkey	50.9	64.2	78.6	79.9	37.1
France	47.1	50.0	53.6	58.0	28.1
Austria	29.2	28.8	28.1	28.2	12.9
United Kingdom	15.4	16.7	18.4	19.6	8.3
Netherlands	10.8	11.9	13.6	13.9	6.7
United States	9.1	9.7	11.4	12.2	5.8
Belgium	4.8	5.6	6.3	7.1	3.5
Greece	8.7	8.3	7.1	6.2	2.7
Sweden	3.8	4.6	5.1	5.1	2.7
Former CSFR	7.1	5.7	5.0	5.0	2.8
Other countries	70.5	90.2	123.0	150.3	79.7
Total	939.7	1 100.3	1 330.6	1 368.7	641.7
<i>Of which:</i> EU	702.7	760.2	824.9	800.3	364.4
Total women	419.1	483.7	608.7	641.7	

Note: Data are from population registers and refer to the population on the 31 December of the years indicated. For details on definitions and sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

Table B.1.5. UNITED KINGDOM, stock of foreign population by country or region of nationality
Thousands

	1985	1990	1995	2000	<i>Of which: women</i>
					2000
Ireland	569	478	443	404	227
India	138	156	114	153	87
Central and Eastern Europe ¹	68	58	75	120	67
United States	86	102	110	114	61
Italy	83	75	80	95	45
Pakistan	49	56	81	94	47
Western Africa	43	37	87	85	46
France	27	38	60	85	47
Australia	28	44	47	75	36
Germany	36	41	51	64	36
Eastern Africa	28	39	40	57	33
Bangladesh	41	38	53	55	26
Spain	28	25	31	47	26
Jamaica	46	47	24
Sri Lanka	20	43	19
Other countries	507	536	610	804	417
Total	1 731	1 723	1 948	2 342	1 244
<i>Of which: EU</i>	796	731	902	846	458
Total women	..	910	1 036	1 244	

Note: Estimated from the annual Labour Force Survey. Fluctuations from year to year may be due to sampling error.
For details on definitions and sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

1. Including former USSR.

Table B.1.6. AUSTRALIA, acquisition of nationality by country of former nationality

	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000
United Kingdom	36 488	41 963	39 876	36 401	36 134	35 431	27 294	23 080	13 529	14 592
China	1 743	5 018	4 872	5 242	5 971	4 250	16 173	21 053	10 947	7 664
New Zealand	6 562	8 502	9 772	7 786	9 033	11 724	9 982	8 764	6 320	6 676
Vietnam	6 723	9 697	12 406	10 713	7 772	7 741	5 083	4 685	3 083	3 441
India	1 960	2 130	2 645	2 836	3 107	2 638	2 563	3 358	2 695	2 381
Philippines	9 275	6 763	6 633	6 600	5 408	4 021	3 815	3 688	2 606	2 349
South Africa	2 569	2 006	1 781	1 595	1 324	1 262	1 578	1 880	1 606	2 253
Iraq	1 591	2 877	1 698	1 853
Sri Lanka	2 576	2 003	2 104	1 691	1 730	1 644	1 620	2 049	1 707	1 832
Bosnia Herzegovina	1 637	2 728	1 841	1 531
Fiji	2 018	2 204	1 815	1 721	1 934	1 665	1 379
Malaysia	1 913	1 313	982	764	719	1 002	1 154
United States	1 634	1 912	2 272	1 701	1 565	1 083	989
Lebanon	3 405	2 585	2 976	2 122	1 392	1 105	1 076	1 364	1 091	859
Turkey	1 910	2 500	2 252	1 728	1 468	1 307	1 064	1 029	951	766
Other countries	43 386	40 678	35 786	31 820	37 302	36 427	30 604	31 570	24 650	21 117
Total	118 510	125 158	122 085	112 186	114 757	111 637	108 266	112 343	76 474	70 836

Note: For details on sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

Table B.1.6. AUSTRIA, acquisition of nationality by country or region of former nationality

	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999
Turkey	1 106	1 809	1 994	2 688	3 379	3 209	7 499	5 068	5 683	10 350
Former Yugoslavia	2 641	3 221	4 337	5 791	5 623	4 538	3 133	3 671	4 151	6 745
Central and Eastern Europe	2 118	2 413	1 839	1 858	2 672	2 588	2 083	2 898	3 850	3 515
Germany	517	455	410	406	328	202	140	164	157	91
Other countries	2 817	3 496	3 340	3 659	4 268	4 772	3 388	4 473	4 480	4 331
Total	9 199	11 394	11 920	14 402	16 270	15 309	16 243	16 274	18 321	25 032

Note: Figures include naturalisations granted to persons living abroad. For details on sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

Table B.1.6. BELGIUM, acquisition of nationality by country of former nationality

	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999
Morocco	2 091	6 862	5 500	8 638	9 146	7 912	11 076	13 484	9 133
Turkey	879	3 886	3 305	6 273	6 572	6 609	6 884	6 177	4 402
Italy	762	22 362	1 431	2 326	2 096	1 940	1 726	1 536	1 187
Former Yugoslavia	211	386	353	417	416	..	438	499	756
Algeria	191	932	543	714	780	556	608	672	520
Zaire	185	454	410	474	452	442	756	1 202	367
France	514	2 179	532	618	608	539	530	491	363
Tunisia	96	486	416	573	537	406	566	585	301
Romania	273	69	94	118	85	115	358	387	267
Poland	151	237	174	239	176	175	220	277	253
Netherlands	217	1 179	222	335	336	259	292	249	234
Philippines	118	147	124	115	147	162	190
India	179	165	119	159	148	158	186	162	172
Greece	104	940	170	312	294	253	238	175	168
China	64	113	101	181	170	166	199	225	154
Other countries	2 540	6 118	2 888	4 263	4 189	4 936	7 463	7 751	5 806
Total	8 457	46 368	16 376	25 787	26 129	24 581	31 687	34 034	24 273

Note: Data cover all means of acquiring the nationality. From 1992 on, following a change in nationality law a significant number of foreigners where granted Belgian nationality. For details on sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

Table B.1.6. CANADA, acquisition of nationality by country of former nationality

	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999
China	4 574	4 982	4 706	7 777	14 228	12 878	10 563	11 535	14 110	17 991
Hong Kong (China)	5 556	9 845	13 347	11 717	17 109	14 978	15 110	9 751	13 096	15 050
Philippines	3 932	5 988	6 776	9 388	11 508	12 953	9 771	12 703	11 069	11 565
India	3 893	4 297	4 946	6 306	8 953	11 677	10 756	10 766	8 804	11 446
Sri Lanka	2 645	2 609	2 164	2 848	5 768	10 154	6 288	4 925	6 114	6 302
Chinese Taipei	1 121	1 538	2 036	2 738	3 774	4 751	4 351	4 818
United Kingdom	8 908	11 257	9 131	10 012	12 620	11 173	8 944	11 484	6 177	4 741
Former Yugoslavia	931	1 035	1 226	1 704	2 114	1 920	2 926	4 037	2 861	4 557
Vietnam	8 527	3 744	2 623	3 833	5 223	6 426	4 579	5 528	4 150	3 967
Romania	1 521	1 814	2 288	2 489	2 294	3 297	2 856	3 824
Iran	2 462	2 214	2 329	3 229	5 124	6 457	3 226	2 602	2 631	3 645
Pakistan	887	1 469	2 597	3 341	2 598	2 867	2 394	3 226
Poland	5 853	6 270	7 155	11 528	16 384	14 011	7 879	4 866	3 052	3 186
Guyana	3 803	3 249	2 654	2 726	3 177	3 354	2 037	1 528	1 725	2 447
United States	1 729	3 521	3 266	4 334	5 244	4 812	3 120	2 760	2 143	2 429
Stateless and others	51 454	59 619	52 349	70 347	102 947	108 359	61 780	61 224	48 952	59 559
Total	104 267	118 630	116 201	150 570	217 320	227 720	155 645	154 624	134 485	158 753

Note: For details on sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

Table B.1.6. DENMARK, acquisition of nationality by country of former nationality

	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999
Turkey	107	376	502	560	915	797	917	1 036	1 243	3 154
Iraq	20	181	236	241	166	177	339	244	718	918
Iran	73	989	1 083	710	491	531	829	553	969	914
Former Yugoslavia	130	128	78	138	806	413	629	291	695	709
Lebanon	16	44	109	234	237	216	314	160	811	601
Sri Lanka	19	84	179	370	515	635	765	376	613	523
Pakistan	433	551	265	192	203	145	220	149	284	463
Vietnam	501	568	209	169	125	137	200	126	365	439
Morocco	114	202	167	168	136	122	201	110	248	322
Somalia	2	6	4	5	7	12	32	17	159	215
Germany	167	231	158	134	140	118	126	138	173	197
Poland	152	317	278	219	151	175	237	130	241	173
China	25	27	26	17	7	18	42	32	117	169
Philippines	72	97	65	68	60	91	78	58	142	146
Thailand	29	81	23	32	27	56	65	44	85	137
Other countries	1 168	1 602	1 722	1 780	310	1 617	2 289	2 018	3 399	3 336
Total	3 028	5 484	5 104	5 037	4 296	5 260	7 283	5 482	10 262	12 416

Note: For details on sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

Table B.1.6. FINLAND, acquisition of nationality by country or region of former nationality

	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999
Europe	539	736	506	450	342	335	365	509	1 245	1 612
<i>Of which:</i>										
Former USSR	85	142	232	158	48	149	198	254	804	935
Nordic countries	240	306	162	114	94	104	111	106	148	94
Asia	130	200	140	214	152	144	328	489	1 299	696
Africa	70	101	104	67	56	81	120	180	788	1 365
North America	46	57	7	5	11	1	5	6	7	7
South America	41	45	48	39	32	27	30	46	70	34
Oceania	4	10	4	1	-	2	1	2	6	4
Stateless and unknown	69	87	66	63	58	78	132	207	602	1 012
Total	899	1 236	875	839	651	668	981	1 439	4 017	4 730

Note: For details on sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

Table B.1.6. FRANCE, acquisition of nationality by country of former nationality

	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994 ¹	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999
Morocco	7 741	10 289	12 292	13 131	22 676	12 249	15 452	16 365	16 345	21 245
Algeria	5 355	6 631	7 410	7 909	10 868	9 499	13 218	13 488	13 377	15 468
Turkey	914	1 124	1 296	1 515	3 197	2 143	3 447	3 977	4 530	6 018
Tunisia	3 076	4 375	4 991	5 370	9 248	4 182	5 109	5 420	5 699	5 914
Portugal	6 876	7 126	5 575	5 233	6 908	3 775	4 644	4 997	4 505	4 517
Cambodia	1 827	1 729	1 701	1 847	3 319	2 445	2 950	2 896	2 404	2 297
Vietnam	2 326	2 139	1 888	1 775	2 660	1 950	2 773	2 432	2 186	1 940
Former Yugoslavia	1 405	1 367	1 400	1 652	2 278	1 499	1 722	1 549	1 536	1 828
Laos	1 468	1 343	1 305	1 187	1 991	1 496	1 647	1 539	1 361	1 507
Lebanon	1 287	1 390	1 508	1 568	2 445	1 689	2 390	2 104	1 783	1 495
Senegal	560	935	1 054	1 091	1 408
Sri Lanka	546	837	1 046	980	1 408
Dem. Rep. of Congo	557	650	739	795	1 505	161	1 057	1 171	1 269	1 312
Haiti	626	714	678	744	1 351	962	1 202	1 174	1 145	1 274
Madagascar	599	884	1 023	1 099	1 216
Other countries	20 908	20 778	18 463	17 281	24 636	18 129	21 711	23 441	22 602	67 588
Total²	54 366	59 655	59 246	60 007	93 082	61 884	79 978	83 676	81 912	136 435
Total (estimates)³	88 500	95 500	95 300	95 500	126 337	92 410	109 823	116 194	122 261	145 435

Note: For details on sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

1. From 1994 onwards, data broken down by nationality include children acquiring French nationality as a consequence of the parent's naturalisation.
2. Data exclude people automatically acquiring French nationality upon reaching legal majority (this procedure was in effect until 1993) as well as people born in France to foreign parents who declared their intention to become French in accordance with the legislation of 22 July 1993.
3. Data include estimates of people acquiring French nationality upon reaching legal majority until 1993 as well as the number of people born in France to foreign parents who declared their intention to become French in accordance with the legislation of 22 July 1993.

Table B.1.6. GERMANY, acquisition of nationality by country of former nationality

	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998
Kazakhstan ¹	101 000	94 961	88 583	83 478
Russian Federation ¹	60 000	60 662	62 641	65 868
Turkey	2 034	3 529	7 377	12 915	19 590	31 578	46 294	40 396	56 994
Romania	14 410	29 011	37 574	28 346	17 968	12 028	9 777	8 668	6 318
Poland	32 340	27 646	20 248	15 435	11 943	10 174	7 872	5 763	4 968
Former USSR	33 339	55 620	84 660	105 801	43 086	35 477	21 457	8 966	3 925
Former Yugoslavia	2 082	2 832	2 326	5 241	4 374	3 623	2 967	2 244	2 721
Italy	437	679	1 218	1 154	1 417	1 281	1 297	1 176	1 144
Austria	537	793	959	810	772	493	605	582	533
Other countries	16 198	21 520	25 542	29 741	160 020	57 952	56 938	59 643	65 382
Total naturalisations	101 377	141 630	179 904	199 443	259 170	313 606	302 830	278 662	291 331
<i>Of which: naturalisations by discretionary decision</i>	20 237	27 295	37 042	44 950	26 295	31 888	37 604	37 534	..

Note: Data include naturalisations on the basis of a claim, which concern essentially ethnic Germans. For details on sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

1. Including in former USSR until 1994.

Table B.1.6. HUNGARY, acquisition of nationality by country of former nationality

	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999
Romania	5 274	20 480	10 589	6 943	7 055	8 549	5 229	3 842	3 463
Former Yugoslavia	12	153	272	852	1 132	1 999	1 610	1 082	1 135
Former USSR	271	788	567	1 585	1 182	1 227	788	713	874
Other countries	336	459	378	525	651	491	1 030	799	594
Total	5 893	21 880	11 805	9 905	10 021	12 266	8 658	6 435	6 066

Note: For details on sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

Table B.1.6. ITALY, acquisition of nationality by country of former nationality

	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999
Romania	112	194	446	521	577	639	811	222	928
Switzerland	335	385	472	423	638	514	768	26	828
Albania	-	-	-	-	-	198	72	123	746
Morocco	126	141	235	295	333	323	586	97	641
Poland	228	211	262	211	313	302	96	76	497
Brazil	128	123	175	225	191	215	131	110	459
Former USSR ¹	112	179	325	260	435	282	106	105	448
Dominican Republic	89	133	245	375	390	468	544	151	420
Egypt	222	152	246	169	223	228	28	32	272
Argentina	278	432	570	392	286	260	73	68	255
Iran	113	64	95	73	131	168	39	53	-
Philippines	164	169	222	139	177	162	32	45	-
Vietnam	80	154	115	88	243	162	23	21	-
Other countries	2 555	2 071	3 077	3 442	3 505	3 040	5 928	8 714	5 797
Total	4 542	4 408	6 485	6 613	7 442	6 961	9 237	9 843	11 291

Note: For details on sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

1. Russian Federation from 1996 on.

Table B.1.6. JAPAN, acquisition of nationality by country of former nationality

	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999
Korea	5 216	5 665	7 244	7 697	8 244	10 327	9 898	9 678	9 561	10 059
China	1 349	1 818	1 794	2 244	2 478	3 184	3 976	4 729	4 637	5 335
Other countries	229	305	325	511	424	593	621	654	581	726
Total	6 794	7 788	9 363	10 452	11 146	14 104	14 495	15 061	14 779	16 120

Note: For details on sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

Table B.1.6. LUXEMBOURG, acquisition of nationality by country of former nationality

	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998
Italy	113	191	123	147	151	169	209	193	192	149
France	98	106	75	75	89	71	78	85	79	53
Belgium	78	79	76	86	63	75	67	65	64	48
Germany	84	97	54	68	78	64	70	55	60	44
Netherlands	31	30	11	13	18	16	15	20	17	15
Other countries	200	245	243	220	279	344	363	361	337	322
Total	604	748	582	609	678	739	802	779	749	631

Note: Minor children acquiring nationality as a consequence of the naturalisation of their parents are excluded.

For details on sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

Table B.1.6. NETHERLANDS, acquisition of nationality by country of former nationality

	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999
Morocco	3 030	7 300	7 990	7 750	8 110	13 480	15 600	10 480	11 250	14 220
Former Yugoslavia	240	520	1 060	2 090	1 880	1 700	2 240	2 830	6 670	7 990
Turkey	1 950	6 110	11 520	18 000	23 870	33 060	30 700	21 190	13 480	5 210
Suriname	1 640	4 010	5 120	4 990	5 390	3 990	4 450	3 020	2 990	3 190
Germany	190	380	380	330	310	500	780	560	560	580
Egypt	20	30	30	350	540	810	1 080	550	390	500
United Kingdom	620	900	670	490	460	820	1 170	690	580	450
Italy	50	90	90	100	140	200	280	330	300	210
Belgium	100	140	160	120	110	170	290	180	200	190
Portugal	120	140	110	130	140	190	300	300	230	180
France	30	50	70	60	70	110	160	120	180	170
Greece	40	60	80	90	80	150	250	230	170	130
Spain	40	60	60	50	90	120	160	140	120	110
Stateless	270	360	210	180	170	610	820	680	120	4 620
Other countries	4 450	8 960	8 690	8 340	8 090	15 530	24 420	18 530	21 930	24 340
Total	12 790	29 110	36 240	43 070	49 450	71 440	82 700	59 830	59 170	62 090

Note: For details on sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

Table B.1.6. **NORWAY, acquisition of nationality by country of former nationality**

	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999
Former Yugoslavia	111	140	201	274	659	754	554	520	560	1 176
Vietnam	1 039	1 082	931	746	710	727	1 446	1 276	781	651
Chile	106	82	81	117	310	923	531	416	240	252
Sweden	72	103	108	153	150	130	112	167	154	241
India	149	166	220	242	251	346	313	274	157	232
Poland	264	234	215	265	275	374	267	282	192	209
Philippines	294	235	298	213	243	343	315	360	155	199
Turkey	304	474	238	393	752	793	836	837	705	170
Denmark	156	108	108	119	187	102	91	143	149	158
Korea	138	95	107	105	135	121	122	109	146	144
Colombia	199	270	221	217	204	143	144	130	111	110
Pakistan	899	778	1 054	664	616	997	1 530	1 583	1 097	106
United Kingdom	96	93	107	106	136	110	162	142	129	94
Morocco	128	280	299	275	257	248	318	294	154	90
Germany	41	40	46	56	59	45	41	63	55	73
Other countries	761	875	898	1 593	3 834	5 622	5 455	5 441	4 459	4 083
Total	4 757	5 055	5 132	5 538	8 778	11 778	12 237	12 037	9 244	7 988

Note: For details on sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

Table B.1.6. **PORTUGAL, acquisition of nationality by country of former nationality**

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999
Venezuela	431	411	431	..	219
Brazil	235	241	296	46	186
Cape Verde	169	80	93	159	117
United States	164	120	203	7	91
Canada	76	69	92	4	70
Angola	76	57	56	56	62
Guinea-Bissau	43	27	16	67	37
Mozambique	30	19	26	56	37
United Kingdom	16	14	9	-	17
Sao Tome and Principe	18	10	12	28	15
China				43	12
France	14	11	18	3	8
India	6	4
Spain	9	12	9	3	3
Germany	1	2	2	1	2
Other countries	131	81	101	39	66
Total	1 413	1 154	1 364	519	946
<i>Of which: EU</i>	45	44	47	13	32

Note: For details on sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

Table B.1.6. SPAIN, acquisition of nationality by country of former nationality

	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999
Dominican Republic	156	105	146	298	393	499	833	1 257	1 860	2 652
Peru	242	136	212	246	468	658	1 150	1 159	1 863	2 374
Morocco	1 675	427	597	986	897	785	687	1 056	1 542	2 053
Cuba	163	119	146	..	172	169	250	442	773	1 109
Argentina	1 096	639	944	1 532	1 690	1 314	1 387	1 368	1 126	1 027
Colombia	260	174	247	433	383	364	457	478	624	818
Portugal	496	234	447	424	503	372	452	524	677	683
Philippines	318	188	283	380	340	281	455	583	499	551
Chile	440	249	344	725	335	317	425	428	473	432
Uruguay	266	147	187	268	246	217	260	279	310	309
Brazil	128	217	299	308
China	106	74	109	180	238	302
Venezuela	237	139	183	373	211	130	133	153	203	290
Equatorial Guinea	140	200	278
India	129	111	128	172	206	270
Other countries	1 684	1 195	1 544	2 747	1 929	1 465	1 579	1 875	2 284	2 938
Total	7 033	3 752	5 280	8 412	7 802	6 756	8 433	10 311	13 177	16 394

Note: Persons recovering their former (Spanish) nationality are not included. For details on sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

Table B.1.6. SWEDEN, acquisition of nationality by country of former nationality

	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999
Bosnia Herzegovina	-	12	27	98	2 550	10 860	11 348
Iran	1 172	3 530	4 783	5 119	4 365	3 867	2 696	2 423	7 480	4 476
Former Yugoslavia	1 152	2 832	3 969	10 940	6 352	3 550	2 416	6 052	8 991	4 000
Iraq	702	1 182	958	1 436	1 167	1 466	1 851	2 328	3 719	2 328
Turkey	832	1 358	1 569	4 201	2 742	2 836	2 030	1 402	1 694	1 833
Finland	3 532	4 208	3 805	3 070	2 974	2 125	2 009	1 882	1 668	1 632
Somalia	17	72	93	173	209	610	491	491	737	739
Vietnam	334	548	560	985	757	421	595	601	716	719
Chile	663	1 323	1 305	1 762	1 446	946	707	545	426	693
Thailand	125	226	203	297	288	301	264	343	336	492
Syria	247	639	587	1 032	867	1 330	616	567	653	438
Peru	58	79	78	157	182	144	190	244	227	409
Philippines	164	281	172	365	222	237	252	233	230	384
Stateless	881	1 485	1 441	1 810	1 807	1 398	933	830	942	776
Other countries	6 891	9 900	9 803	11 312	11 694	12 735	10 404	8 376	7 823	7 510
Total	16 770	27 663	29 326	42 659	35 084	31 993	25 552	28 867	46 502	37 777

Note: For details on sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

Table B.1.6. SWITZERLAND, acquisition of nationality by country of former nationality

	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999
Italy	1 995	1 802	1 930	2 778	3 258	4 376	5 167	4 982	5 613	5 510
Former Yugoslavia	552	607	936	1 454	1 821	2 491	2 783	2 956	3 311	2 365
Turkey	211	333	614	820	966	1 205	1 432	1 814	2 093	2 260
France	684	677	809	862	935	871	1 045	985	1 152	848
Spain	401	408	353	319	305	432	453	481	619	507
Portugal	170	146	101	89	119	175	262	291	421	481
Germany	1 144	971	1 099	890	657	706	675	644	605	461
United Kingdom	141	135	307	347	263	278	299	269	285	228
Former CSFR	352	362	338	415	370	385	465	272	231	184
Hungary	202	186	223	207	243	297	278	206	187	153
Austria	431	478	465	413	256	261	248	223	186	140
Netherlands	153	111	90	76	57	52	55	71	76	45
Other countries	2 222	2 541	3 943	4 258	4 507	5 266	6 213	5 976	6 501	7 181
Total	8 658	8 757	11 208	12 928	13 757	16 795	19 375	19 170	21 280	20 363

Note: For details on sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

Table B.1.6. UNITED KINGDOM, acquisition of nationality by country or region of former nationality

	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999
European Economic Area	2 257	2 177	2 058	1 755	1 722	1 546	1 291	1 710
Remainder of Europe	2 996	3 298	3 107	2 860	2 928	2 784	4 647	5 575
America	4 562	4 828	4 531	4 096	4 266	3 544	5 224	5 415
Africa	6 304	7 452	7 877	7 940	9 162	8 018	12 941	12 863
Indian sub-continent	10 528	12 246	11 263	9 879	10 792	8 465	14 619	14 786
Middle East	3 821	4 330	4 322	3 543	3 535	2 833	4 288	4 713
Remainder of Asia	5 176	5 690	5 144	4 817	5 207	4 102	6 395	6 154
Oceania	1 462	1 452	1 539	1 666	1 542	1 443	1 645	1 524
Other countries	5 137	4 318	4 192	3 960	3 915	4 275	2 475	2 162
Total	42 243	45 791	44 033	40 516	43 069	37 010	53 525	54 902
Acquisitions of nationality in Hong Kong	..	41 800	5 900	25 700	5 500	3 406	3 400	..

Note: For details on sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

Table B.1.6. UNITED STATES, acquisition of nationality by country or region of former nationality

	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998
Mexico	18 520	17 564	22 066	12 880	23 630	39 310	67 238	217 418	134 494	109 065
Vietnam	19 357	22 027	29 603	18 357	22 427	26 833	28 074	47 625	33 349	29 125
Former USSR	3 020	2 847	2 822	1 648	2 763	6 708	16 172	36 265	25 965	25 101
Philippines	24 802	25 936	33 714	28 579	33 864	37 304	33 634	45 210	28 075	23 809
India	9 833	11 499	12 961	13 413	16 506	20 454	17 880	28 932	18 812	16 003
Cuba	9 514	10 291	9 554	7 763	15 109	15 896	16 994	62 168	12 860	15 114
China	11 664	13 563	16 783	13 488	16 851	20 828	20 009	30 656	17 552	14 737
Jamaica	6 455	6 762	6 838	6 765	7 976	12 173	10 949	24 270	18 746	14 468
El Salvador	2 001	2 410	3 653	2 056	3 057	4 998	11 505	33 240	17 818	12 160
Dominican Republic	6 454	5 984	6 368	8 464	12 274	11 399	9 892	27 293	19 450	11 324
Haiti	3 692	5 009	4 436	3 993	5 202	7 982	7 855	24 556	15 667	10 168
Iran	4 485	5 973	10 411	6 778	7 029	8 746	10 407	17 326	10 553	9 936
Korea	11 301	10 500	12 266	8 297	9 611	11 389	14 170	24 693	13 996	9 866
United Kingdom	7 865	8 286	9 935	7 800	10 158	15 003	14 143	20 052	11 418	9 351
Laos	3 463	3 329	3 594	3 052	3 945	5 643	3 796	7 845	8 092	7 218
Other countries	91 351	118 121	123 054	96 919	124 279	162 732	163 135	397 140	211 378	145 615
Total	233 777	270 101	308 058	240 252	314 681	407 398	445 853	1 044 689	598 225	463 060

Note: For details on sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

Table B.2.1. AUSTRALIA, immigrant labour force by place of birth, selected years
Thousands

	1986	1991	1996	1999	Of which:
					women
					1999
Europe	1 319.2	1 342.4	1 220.8	1 179.3	463.9
United Kingdom and Ireland	670.2	703.6	660.1	656.2	262.7
Former Yugoslavia	106.6	109.7	110.2	96.2	35.7
Italy	153.0	139.5	95.5	93.8	31.2
Germany	69.9	70.4	59.8	61.3	26.0
Greece	86.4	81.2	59.7	56.8	21.8
Netherlands	62.9	55.8	45.0	42.6	16.1
Poland	28.9
Malta	28.1
Others	113.2	182.2	190.5	172.4	70.4
Asia	267.5	342.7	428.2	516.7	228.1
Vietnam	..	60.6	82.9	76.4	28.1
China ¹	..	59.3	55.5	69.8	27.2
Philippines	..	44.2	55.9	64.6	39.0
India	..	40.0	48.8	57.4	23.3
Malaysia	..	43.4	50.8	44.2	22.2
Others	267.5	95.2	134.3	204.3	88.3
New Zealand	138.1	187.8	208.6	247.3	107.6
America	55.4	76.1	96.7	115.4	53.1
North Africa and the Middle East ²	93.6	94.4	103.7	101.0	30.4
Lebanon	23.6	37.0	35.3	33.4	7.8
Others	70.0	57.4	68.4	67.6	22.6
Other and not stated	26.7	138.9	180.8	149.9	65.2
Total	1 900.5	2 182.3	2 238.8	2 309.6	948.3

Note: For details on sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

1. Excluding Chinese Taipei.

2. Africa (excluding North Africa) in 1986.

Table B.2.1. CANADA, immigrant labour force by place of birth, 1991 and 1996 census results

	Thousands	
	1991	1996
United Kingdom	422.0	372.5
Italy	214.0	166.2
India	127.0	158.3
United States	144.0	142.0
Hong Kong (China)	96.0	129.4
Philippines	..	126.7
China	90.0	113.8
Portugal	111.0	101.0
Germany	115.0	100.7
Poland	89.0	98.0
Vietnam	..	85.8
Jamaica	..	79.5
Netherlands	82.0	70.5
Other countries	1 191.0	1 094.7
Total	2 681.0	2 839.1

Note: For details on sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

Table B.2.1. UNITED STATES, immigrant labour force by place of birth, census results of 1990

	Thousands
Mexico	2 630.9
Philippines	629.0
Cuba	459.2
Germany	378.3
Canada	371.8
United Kingdom	349.4
Korea	328.7
China	313.6
El Salvador	308.8
India	308.6
Vietnam	303.7
Italy	266.0
Jamaica	232.3
Dominican Republic	195.4
Colombia	192.5
Other countries	4 296.4
Total	11 564.6

Note: For details on sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

Table B.2.2. AUSTRIA, stock of foreign labour by nationality
Thousands

	1988	1990 ¹	1995	1999	Of which:
					women
					1999
Former Yugoslavia	83.1	110.5	108.0	77.1	32.9
Turkey	34.2	50.6	55.7	47.7	12.7
Bosnia Herzegovina ²	22.8	34.2	12.9
Croatia ²	16.0	23.2	8.6
Hungary	9.6	9.0	1.8
Poland	10.8	8.7	2.3
Romania	9.3	7.5	2.5
Slovenia	5.8	6.0	1.6
Slovak Republic	2.9	4.0	1.2
Former Yug. Rep. of Macedonia ²	1.9	4.0	0.7
Czech Republic	3.6	3.9	1.2
China ³	2.0	1.5	0.5
Bulgaria	1.5	1.1	0.4
Philippines	2.1	1.1	0.7
India	1.8	1.0	0.3
Other countries	33.6	56.5	15.9	9.0	2.3
Total	150.9	217.6	269.7	239.1	82.6
Total women	57.9	76.4	89.5	82.6	
Total including foreign unemployed⁴	160.9	236.0	325.2	333.6	

Note: Annual average. Data by nationality are from valid work permits. Figures may be over-estimated as a result of persons holding more than one permit. The self-employed are excluded. For more details on sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

1. Data not corrected (data for Table A.2.3. have been corrected).
2. Included in Former Yugoslavia until 1990.
3. Including Chinese Taipei.
4. From 1994 on, data on employed foreigners are stock of workers registered with Social Security offices (including EEA nationals).

Table B.2.2. **BELGIUM, stock of foreign labour by nationality**

	Thousands		
	1990	1995	1998
Italy	95.6	101.8	103.8
France	43.7	51.6	60.3
Morocco	..	44.5	46.0
Netherlands	23.0	30.4	33.8
Turkey	..	30.1	30.7
Spain	21.8	22.8	23.5
Portugal	5.6	10.6	12.1
Germany	7.0	8.4	9.2
United Kingdom	6.6	8.3	8.7
Greece	6.3	6.9	7.1
Dem. Rep. of Congo	..	3.6	4.6
Algeria	..	3.4	3.4
Tunisia	..	2.3	2.2
Luxembourg	1.5	1.5	1.5
Sweden	..	0.8	1.1
Other countries	79.3	35.1	42.7
Total	290.3	362.1	390.7

Note: Calculations on the basis of MET, INASTI, ONEm figures.

For more details on sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

Table B.2.2. **CZECH REPUBLIC, stock of foreign workers by nationality**

	Thousands		
	1993	1995	1999
Slovak Republic	23.3	59.3	53.2
Ukraine	7.7	26.7	16.6
Poland	10.6	12.1	6.9
Bulgaria	0.7	0.8	1.7
Germany	0.7	1.5	1.5
Moldavia	1.4
United States	1.2	1.7	1.4
Belarus	..	0.3	1.3
Russian Federation	1.3	0.7	1.2
United Kingdom	0.9	1.2	1.1
Romania	0.5	0.8	0.7
Mongolia	0.3	0.3	0.6
France	0.2	0.4	0.6
Former Yug. Rep. of Macedonia	..	0.5	0.5
Austria	0.3	0.4	0.4
Other countries	4.0	5.1	4.4
Total	51.6	111.9	93.5

Note: For more details on sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

Table B.2.2. DENMARK, stock of foreign labour by nationality

	Thousands				Of which:
	1985	1990	1995	1998	women 1998
Turkey	10.1	12.8	13.5	14.1	5.4
Former Yugoslavia	4.2	4.9	6.3	11.3	4.5
United Kingdom	5.9	6.2	7.2	7.6	2.2
Germany	4.8	5.1	5.9	6.8	2.8
Norway	5.7	5.8	6.0	6.3	3.6
Sweden	4.7	4.6	5.0	5.7	3.2
Iceland	1.4	1.3	2.3	2.8	1.3
Pakistan	2.5	2.2	2.4	2.4	0.8
Finland	1.1	1.0	1.0	1.0	0.8
Other countries	16.1	25.0	34.2	40.1	17.3
Total	56.5	68.8	83.8	98.3	41.9
<i>Of which:</i> EU	14.8	16.7	26.5	29.8	11.8
Total women	23.6	28.3	35.2	41.9	

Note: Data are from population registers and give the count as of the end of the given year (end of November until 1991, end of December from 1992). For more details on sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

Table B.2.2. FINLAND, stock of foreign workers by nationality

	Thousands	
	1995	1999 ¹
Former USSR	6.6	9.3
Estonia	3.3	4.7
Sweden	2.7	3.2
United Kingdom	1.0	1.3
Former Yugoslavia	0.9	1.2
Germany	0.9	1.2
Somalia	0.9	1.0
Turkey	0.7	1.0
Iraq	0.3	0.8
United States	0.6	0.8
Vietnam	0.7	0.7
China	0.5	0.6
Bosnia Herzegovina	0.2	0.6
Iran	0.4	0.6
Thailand	0.3	0.5
Other countries	7.1	9.8
Total	26.9	37.2

Note: For more details on sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.
1. Estimates.

Table B.2.2. FRANCE, stock of foreign labour by nationality

Thousands

	1985	1990	1995	2000	Of which: women
					2000
Portugal	456.8	428.5	375.0	353.1	148.3
Algeria	279.0	248.5	245.6	215.0	74.9
Morocco	186.4	168.1	197.5	204.3	60.3
Turkey	41.6	53.9	66.4	81.5	20.5
Tunisia	75.1	74.7	81.0	77.5	20.7
Italy	125.9	96.9	76.6	73.8	23.9
Spain	117.8	108.5	82.1	65.8	27.1
Former Yugoslavia	44.1	29.6	32.3	29.6	12.1
Poland	14.2	15.1	7.1	13.5	6.4
Other countries	308.3	325.6	409.6	463.5	194.7
Total	1 649.2	1 549.5	1 573.3	1 577.6	589.0
<i>Of which: EU¹</i>	771.6	716.2	629.1	601.4	247.5
Total women	495.8	484.7	553.6	589.0	

Note: Data are derived from the Labour force survey and refer to the month of March. For more details on sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

1. European Union 12 for all years.

Table B.2.2. GERMANY, stock of foreign labour by nationality

Thousands

	1997	1999
Turkey	1 039	1 008
Italy	375	386
Greece	214	219
Croatia	215	189
Austria	123	118
Bosnia Herzegovina	169	103
Poland	94	100
Portugal	65	77
Spain	75	69
United Kingdom	76	65
Netherlands	63	63
France	58	56
United States	53	54
Other countries	956	1 038
Total	3 575	3 545

Note: Data are issued from the Microcensus. For more details on sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

Table B.2.2. HUNGARY, stock of foreign labour by nationality

Thousands

	1990	1995	1998
Romania	26.2	9.8	10.6
China	..	2.6	2.8
Slovak Republic	..	0.9	1.1
Former USSR	3.0	1.4	1.0
Poland	..	1.4	1.0
Former Yugoslavia	..	0.7	0.5
Vietnam	..	0.2	0.3
Other countries	2.5	4.0	5.2
Total	31.7	21.0	22.4

Note: For more details on sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

Table B.2.2. JAPAN, stock of foreign labour by nationality

Thousands

	1995	1999
China ¹	23.3	33.4
Philippines	13.7	28.6
United States	17.5	16.8
Korea	6.4	9.3
United Kingdom	5.6	7.4
Canada	4.1	5.3
Australia	2.4	3.9
India	1.7	3.1
France	1.4	1.7
Germany	1.3	1.5
Other countries	10.6	14.8
Total	88.0	125.7

Note: Foreigners whose activity is restricted according to the Immigration Act (revised in 1990). For more details on sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

1. Including Chinese Taipei.

Table B.2.2. **KOREA, stock of foreign labour by nationality**

	Thousands			<i>Of which: women</i>
	1994	1995	1999	1999
China	10.6	18.0	32.6	13.9
<i>Of which: Chinese with Korean ancestor</i>	4.4	6.7	15.5	5.2
Philippines	5.3	8.5	9.2	3.1
United States	2.7	4.2	4.1	1.0
Uzbekistan	-	0.8	2.2	0.3
Canada	0.4	1.1	2.0	0.7
Japan	1.3	1.5	1.3	0.5
Russian Federation	0.2	0.2	1.0	0.7
United Kingdom	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.1
Australia	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.1
India	0.1	0.1	0.2	-
France	0.1	0.1	0.2	-
Germany	0.1	0.2	0.2	-
New Zealand	-	-	0.1	-
South Africa	-	-	0.1	-
Other countries	9.3	17.0	39.1	8.1
Total	30.5	52.2	93.0	28.5
Total women	9.3	18.0	28.5	

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

Table B.2.2. **LUXEMBOURG, stock of foreign labour by nationality**

Thousands

	1985	1990	1995	1999
France	11.2	21.2	33.2	49.0
Portugal	15.7	22.8	27.3	30.5
Belgium	8.9	14.6	19.6	26.6
Germany	5.5	9.1	12.7	17.8
Italy	8.5	8.5	7.7	8.2
Former Yugoslavia	0.7	1.2	1.7	1.6
United Kingdom	..	0.9	1.3	1.6
Spain	0.9	1.0	1.0	1.1
Other countries	4.5	5.4	7.3	9.3
Total	55.0	84.7	111.8	145.7
<i>Of which: EU</i>	52.3	79.8	105.4	138.2
Total women	18.4	29.4	39.9	51.7

Note: Data are for 1 October of each year and cover foreigners in employment, including apprentices, trainees and cross-border workers. The unemployed are not included. For more details on sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

Table B.2.2. NETHERLANDS, stock of foreign labour by nationality
Thousands

	1985	1990	1995	1998	Of which: women
					1998
Germany	16	18	15	34	13
Morocco	25	27	32	27	7
United Kingdom	15	18	22	25	7
Turkey	35	41	39	24	6
Belgium	21	24	22	18	10
Spain	8	8	7	9	..
Other countries	45	61	84	98	42
Total	166	197	221	235	85
<i>Of which:</i> EU	65	88	98	116	..
Total women	40	53	69	85	

Note: Estimates are for 31 March and include cross-border workers, but exclude the self-employed, family workers and the unemployed. From 1990 onwards, foreigners legally residing in the Netherlands but working abroad are excluded. For more details on sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

Table B.2.2. NORWAY, stock of foreign labour by nationality
Thousands

	1988	1990	1995	1998
Sweden	6.2	5.5	7.8	12.9
Denmark	9.2	8.6	9.0	9.9
United Kingdom	5.1	4.6	5.2	5.9
United States	3.1	2.8	3.1	3.4
Germany	1.9	1.9	2.2	3.0
Finland	1.8	1.5	1.9	2.8
Netherlands	1.2	1.2	1.4	1.7
Pakistan	2.6	2.2	1.9	1.7
Sri Lanka	1.5	1.9	2.0	1.5
Chile	1.0	1.3	1.3	1.3
Turkey	1.6	1.4	1.0	1.0
India	1.2	1.2	1.0	0.9
Poland	0.9	0.8	0.6	0.7
Other countries	12.1	11.4	14.2	20.2
Total	49.5	46.3	52.6	66.9

Note: Data are for the 2nd quarter (except for 1995 and 1996: 4th quarter). The unemployed and the self-employed are not included. For more details on sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

Table B.2.2. PORTUGAL, stock of foreign labour by nationality

	Thousands		
	1991	1995	1999 ¹
Cape Verde	16.9	21.8	22.0
Brazil	5.4	9.6	9.9
Angola	1.7	8.0	8.4
Guinea-Bissau	2.3	7.0	7.8
United Kingdom	4.2	5.4	6.3
Spain	3.9	4.7	6.1
Germany	3.0	4.1	5.0
France	2.1	2.9	3.8
United States	2.7	3.0	3.2
Sao Tome and Principe	0.8	1.9	2.0
Mozambique	1.6	1.9	1.9
Netherlands	1.0	1.3	1.7
Italy	0.8	1.3	1.7
China	0.8	..	1.5
Venezuela	1.0	0.8	..
Other countries	6.7	10.5	10.4
Total	54.9	84.3	91.6
<i>Of which:</i> EU	16.0	21.1	..

Note: For more details on sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

1. Estimates.

Table B.2.2. **SPAIN, stock of foreign labour by nationality**
Thousands

	1988	1990	1995	1999	<i>Of which:</i>
					women
					1999
Morocco	5.0	8.8	51.6	65.2	12.2
Peru	0.6	0.9	11.4	13.4	8.7
China	1.3	1.7	6.2	10.7	3.9
Dominican Republic	0.5	0.7	9.7	10.2	8.5
Ecuador	1.4	8.7	5.8
Philippines	3.3	4.1	7.1	7.0	4.6
Senegal	3.4	4.4	..
Colombia	0.8	1.2	3.1	4.4	3.0
Argentina	3.5	6.3	7.5	3.6	1.4
Algeria	..	0.2	2.7	3.4	..
Poland	2.6	3.1	1.1
Cuba	1.4	3.1	1.2
Gambia	..	0.9	2.7	3.0	..
Romania	0.9	2.9	1.1
Chile	1.3	1.7	2.5	..	0.8
Other countries	42.1	58.9	24.7	29.8	..
Total	58.2	85.4	139.0	172.8	62.5
<i>Of which:</i> EU	31.4	34.8	92.9	110.4	..
Total women	21.5	29.8	46.1	62.5	

Note: Data are for 31 December of each year and are counts of valid work permits.

From 1992 onwards, workers from the EU are not included. For more details on sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

Table B.2.2. **SWEDEN, stock of foreign labour by nationality**
Thousands

	1985	1990	1995	1999	<i>Of which:</i>
					women
					1999
Finland	85	72	56	52	31
Former Yugoslavia	22	21	15	28	12
Norway	14	20	19	19	11
Denmark	15	17	13	13	5
Iran	15	8	3
Poland	..	8	9	8	6
Turkey	..	11	7	4	3
Other countries	79	97	86	90	40
Total	216	246	220	222	111
Total women	100	114	98	111	

Note: Annual average. Estimates are from the annual Labour Force Survey. For more details on sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

Table B.2.2. **SWITZERLAND, stock of foreign labour by nationality**
Thousands

	1985	1990	1995	1999	<i>Of which:</i>
					women
					1999
A. Resident workers¹					
Italy	228.7	234.3	214.3	179.3	59.6
Former Yugoslavia	47.2	84.4	134.6	80.4	28.5
Portugal	20.9	55.2	80.5	76.5	32.7
Germany	46.8	53.6	56.3	61.3	22.6
Spain	68.7	75.1	63.5	51.7	20.3
Turkey	26.0	33.2	35.6	33.3	11.8
France	27.2	31.5	32.3	31.8	12.5
Austria	19.7	20.9	19.4	17.6	6.4
United Kingdom	7.6	9.2	9.9	10.6	3.0
Netherlands	5.6	7.0	8.1	7.9	3.1
United States	3.8	4.8	5.4	5.8	2.0
Other countries	47.1	60.5	68.7	145.1	59.6
Total	549.3	669.8	728.7	701.2	262.3
<i>Of which: EU</i>	..	476.1	499.2	450.1	166.0
Total women	185.1	228.7	261.3	262.3	
B. Seasonal workers²					
Portugal	26.2	40.5	23.8	16.0	4.2
Italy	17.8	13.5	6.1	3.7	0.5
Germany	1.9	2.4	2.3	2.2	1.1
Spain	21.9	14.6	4.1	1.9	0.3
France	2.0	2.5	2.0	1.8	0.7
Austria	1.9	2.5	1.6	1.2	0.7
Turkey	0.2	-	-	-	-
Other countries	30.9	45.8	13.9	1.0	0.5
Total	102.8	121.7	53.7	27.8	8.0
Total women	17.4	20.3	12.7	8.0	

Note: For more details on sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

1. Data as of 31 December of each year and are counts of the number of foreigners with an annual residence permit or a settlement permit (permanent permit), who engage in gainful activity. Cross-border workers and seasonal workers are excluded.
2. Data as of 31 August of each year, when seasonal work is at its peak.

Table B.2.2. UNITED KINGDOM, stock of foreign labour by country or region of nationality
Thousands

	1985	1990	1995	2000	<i>Of which:</i>
					women
					2000
Ireland	269	268	216	206	109
Africa	51	59	83	140	66
India	66	84	60	61	35
United States	37	50	49	61	27
Italy	56	48	43	55	25
Australia ¹	23	39	34	54	23
France	17	24	34	48	25
Central and Eastern Europe ²	25	20	23	45	30
Germany	18	22	27	33	18
Pakistan ³	27	27	20	31	-
Caribbean and Guyana	77	48	38	31	17
Spain	14	16	17	30	15
New Zealand	19	25	13
Portugal	-	11	18	15	-
Bangladesh	-	14	-
Other countries	128	166	181	258	120
Total	808	882	862	1 107	523
<i>Of which:</i> EU	382	419	441	452	228
Total women	..	393	421	523	

Note: Estimates are from the labour force survey. The unemployed are not included. The symbol "-" indicates that figures are less than 10 000. For more details on sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

1. Including New Zealand until 1991.
2. Including former USSR.
3. Including Bangladesh until 1991.

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

Flow data based on Population Registers

	Types of migrant recorded in the data	Other comments	Source
Belgium	<i>Criteria for registering foreigners:</i> holding a residence permit and wishing to stay in the country for at least 3 months. Outflows include administrative corrections.	Until 1994, some asylum seekers were included in the population register. Since 1995 then they have been recorded in a separate register.	Population Register, National Statistical Office.
Denmark	<i>Criteria for registering foreigners:</i> holding a residence permit and wishing to stay in the country for at least 3 months. However, the data only count immigrants once they have lived in the country for 1 year. Outflows include administrative corrections.	Excluded from inflows are asylum seekers, and all those with temporary residence permits (this includes some war refugees).	Central population register, Danmarks Statistik.
Finland	<i>Criteria for registering foreigners:</i> holding a residence permit and wishing to stay in the country for at least 1 year.	Inflows of those of Finnish origin are included.	Central population register, Finnish Central Statistical Office.
Germany	<i>Criteria for registering foreigners:</i> holding a residence permit and wishing to stay in the country for at least 3 months.	Includes asylum seekers living in private households. Excludes inflows of ethnic Germans. The figures represent Germany as a whole from 1991 on.	Population register, Statistisches Bundesamt.
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). Data for 1999 are preliminary. Outflow data include people whose permit's validity expired.	Register of long-term residence permits, Ministry of the Interior.
Japan	<i>Criteria for registering foreigners:</i> remaining in the country for more than 90 days.	Excluding temporary visitors and re-entries.	Register of foreigners, Ministry of Justice, Immigration Office.
Luxembourg	<i>Criteria for registering foreigners:</i> holding a residence permit and wishing to stay in the country for at least 3 months.		Central population register, Service central de la statistique et des études économiques.
Netherlands	<i>Criteria for registering foreigners:</i> holding a residence permit and wishing to stay in the country for at least 6 months. Outflows include administrative corrections.	Inflows include some asylum seekers (except those staying in reception centres).	Population registers, Central Bureau of Statistics.
Norway	<i>Criteria for registering foreigners:</i> holding a residence permit and wishing to stay in the country for at least 6 months.	From 1987 on, includes asylum seekers waiting decisions on their application for refugee status. In 1999, inflow data include refugees from Kosovo who received a temporary protection in Norway.	Central population register, Statistics Norway.
Sweden	<i>Criteria for registering foreigners:</i> holding a residence permit and wishing to stay in the country for at least 1 year.	Asylum seekers and temporary workers are not included in inflows.	Population register, Statistics Sweden.
Switzerland	<i>Criteria for registering foreigners:</i> holding a permanent or an annual residence permit.	Inflows do not include conversions from seasonal permits to non-seasonal permits.	Register of foreigners, Federal Foreign Office.

Notes related to Tables A.1.1, A.1.2, B.1.1 and B.1.2.
Migration flows in selected OECD countries (cont.)

Flow data based on residence permits or other sources

	Types of migrant recorded in the data	Other comments	Source
Australia	A. Permanent migrants: Permanent arrivals comprise travellers who hold migrant visas, New Zealand citizens who indicate an intention to settle and those who are otherwise eligible to settle. Permanent departures comprise movements of persons who on departure state that they do not intend to return to Australia. B. Temporary residents: entries of temporary residents (<i>i.e.</i> excluding students). Including arrivals under Temporary Business Entry (long stay). Long-term departures include departing for a temporary stay of more than twelve months.	Data refer to the fiscal year (July to June of the year indicated) from 1992 on. Inflow data do not include those persons granted permanent residence whilst already temporary residents in Australia.	Department of Immigration and Population Research
Canada	Issues of permanent residence permits.	Data include those already present in Canada, and also those granted residence in a programme eliminating a backlog of applications.	Statistics Canada
France	Data consist of those entering as permanent workers, those entering under family reunification. Those entering as self employed and additional permits relating to family reunification have been added to the figures. In 1998 and 1999, data include 45 800 and 3 300 persons respectively who benefited from the 1997 regularisation programme. In 1999, data also include holders of a "vie privée et familiale" residence permit.	Entries from the EU are not counted, except permanent workers (including entries from the EEA since 1994) who are included through declarations made by employers to the authorities. From 1994 on, figures include estimates of some unregistered flows (inflows of family members of EEA citizens for example).	Office des migrations internationales
Greece	Issues of residence permits	Excluding ethnic Greeks.	Ministry of Public Order
Ireland	Estimates on the basis of 1996 Census results.	Data from 1997 on are preliminary.	Central Statistics Office
Italy	Issues of residence permits (excluding renewals).	Data for 1999 include those who benefited from the 1998 regularisation programme.	Ministry of the Interior
New Zealand	Permanent and long-term arrivals/departures.	Data refer to the fiscal year (July to June of the year indicated).	Statistics New Zealand
Portugal	Data based on residence permits.		SEF and INE, Estatísticas Demográficas and unpublished data.
United Kingdom	<i>Inflows</i> : Passengers, excluding EEA nationals, admitted to the United Kingdom. <i>Outflows</i> : Non-British citizens admitted on the territory.	Data exclude visitors, passengers in transit or returning on limited leave or who previously settled. Students and au pair girls are excluded. Data by nationality are not reliable.	Control of Immigration, Home Office <i>International Passenger Survey</i> , Office for National Statistics.
United States	Issues of permanent residence permits.	The figures include those persons already present in the United States: those who changed status and those benefiting from the 1986 legalisation program. Data cover the fiscal year (October to September of the year indicated).	US Department of Justice

Notes related to Tables A.1.3. and B.1.3.

Inflows of asylum seekers

	Comments	Source
Australia	Fiscal years (July to June of the given year. Including accompanying dependents.	Department of Immigration and Multicultural Affairs.
Austria	Excluding <i>de facto</i> refugees from Bosnia Herzegovina.	Österreichisches Statistisches Zentralamt.
Belgium	Applications registered by the General Commissioner for refugees and stateless (Commissariat général aux réfugiés et aux apatrides). In 1999 and 2000, applications registered by the Office des étrangers.	National Statistical Office, Office des étrangers, Commissaire général aux réfugiés et aux apatrides.
Bulgaria		United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees.
Canada		United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees.
Czech Republic		Ministry of the Interior.
Denmark		Danmarks Statistik.
Finland		Ministry of the Interior.
France	Excluding accompanying dependents.	Office français de protection des réfugiés et des apatrides.
Germany		Bundesministerium des Innern.
Greece		Ministry of the Interior.
Hungary		United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees.
Ireland		Department of Justice.
Italy	Excluding accompanying dependents.	United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees.
Luxembourg		Ministry of Foreign Affairs and Ministry of Justice.
Netherlands		Ministry of Justice.
New Zealand		United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees.
Norway		Immigration Directorate.
Poland		Department for Migration and Refugee Affairs, Ministry of the Interior.
Portugal		Ministry of the Interior.
Romania		United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees.
Slovak Republic		United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees.
Spain	Excluding accompanying dependents.	Oficina de Asilo y Refugio.
Sweden		Swedish Immigration Board.
Switzerland		Office fédéral des réfugiés.
United Kingdom	Breakdown by country excludes accompanying dependents.	Home Office.
United States	Excluding accompanying dependents. Fiscal years (October to September of the years indicated). From 1993 on, figures include applications reopened during year.	US Department of Justice.

Notes related to Tables A.1.4. and B.1.4.

Foreign-born population

	Comments	Source
Australia	Estimated resident population <i>Reference date:</i> 30 June.	Australian Bureau of Statistics.
Canada		Quinquennial censuses, Statistics Canada.
Denmark		Danmarks Statistik.
Finland	Stock of foreign-born citizens recorded in population register. Includes those who are of Finnish origin.	Central population register, Finnish Central Statistical Office.
Hungary	Holders of a permanent or a long-term residence permit. <i>Reference date:</i> 31 December.	Register of foreigners, Ministry of the Interior.
Netherlands	<i>Reference date:</i> 31 December.	Central Bureau of Statistics (CBS).
Norway	<i>Reference date:</i> 31 December.	Statistics Norway.
Sweden	<i>Reference date:</i> 31 December.	Statistics Sweden.
United States	Persons born overseas whose parents are US citizens are not included in census figures (1970, 1980 and 1990). Note that estimates by country of birth are not sufficiently accurate in the Current Population Survey and therefore are not shown in Table B.1.4. Only total stock of foreign-born persons is mentioned in Table A.1.4.	Decennial censuses (1970, 1980 and 1990), US Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census and Current Population Survey (from 1994 on), US Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census.

Notes related to Tables A.1.5. and B.1.5.
Foreign population

	Comments	Source
Austria	Coverage: Stock of foreign citizens recorded in population register. Reference date: Annual average Other comments: The data were revised following the 1991 census. A breakdown by nationality is not available.	Population Register, Österreichisches Statistisches Zentralamt.
Belgium	Coverage: Stock of foreign citizens recorded in population register. Until 1994, asylum seekers were included in the population register. Since 1995 they have been recorded in a separate register. Reference date: 31 December. Other comments: There are two breaks in the series between 1984-1985 and 1991-1992, due to important changes in the law on nationality in June 1984 and September 1991.	Population register, National Statistical Office.
Czech Republic	Coverage: Holders of a permanent residence permit (mainly for family reasons) or a long-term residence permit (1-year permit, renewable). Reference date: 31 December. Other comments: 1992 data cover former Czech and Slovak Federal Republic.	Register of foreigners, Ministry of the Interior.
Denmark	Coverage: Stock of foreign citizens recorded in population register. Excludes asylum seekers and all those with temporary residence permits (this includes some war refugees). Reference date: 31 December.	Central population register, Danmarks Statistik.
Finland	Coverage: Stock of foreign citizens recorded in population register. Includes inflows of those who are of Finnish origin. Reference date: 30 September.	Central population register, Finnish Central Statistical Office.
France	Coverage: Foreigners with permanent residence in France. Comprises of permanent workers, trainees, students and their dependent families. Seasonal and frontier workers are not included. Reference dates: 4 March 1982, 6 March 1990, 8 March 1999.	Census (25 per cent sample), Institut national de la statistique et des études économiques.
Germany	Coverage: Stock of foreign citizens recorded in population register. Includes asylum seekers living in private households. Excludes foreign citizens of German origin (ethnic Germans). Reference date: 31 December. Other comments: Since 1992, disaggregation by sex and nationality covers only those aged 16 and over. Figures represent Germany as a whole from 1991. 1987-1989 figures are adjusted to take into account results of the 1987 census.	Central population register, Statistisches Bundesamt.
Hungary	Coverage: Holders of a permanent or a long-term residence permit. Reference date: 31 December.	Register of foreigners, Ministry of the Interior.
Ireland	The only significant distinction between nationalities is between EU/non-EU and the United States (not published in this Annex).	Labour Force Survey, Central Statistical Office (CSO).
Italy	Coverage: Holders of residence permits on population register. From 1998 onwards, data have been corrected to exclude expired permits and to estimate the number of minors who are registered on their parents' residence permit. Figures include permits delivered following the 1987-88, 1990, 1995-96 and 1998 regularisation programmes. Reference date: 31 December. Other comments: The falls in stocks in 1989 and 1994 are the result of a clean-up of the register of foreigners.	Ministry of the Interior.

Notes related to Tables A.1.5. and B.1.5.

Foreign population (cont.)

	Comments	Source
Japan	Coverage: Foreigners staying in Japan more than 90 days and registered in population registers as stated by the law. Reference date: 31 December.	Register of foreigners, Ministry of Justice, Office of Immigration.
Korea	Coverage: Foreigners staying in Korea more than 90 days and registered in population registers as stated by the law.	Ministry of Justice.
Luxembourg	Coverage: Stock of foreign citizens recorded in population register. Does not include visitors (less than three months) or frontier workers. Reference date: 31 December. Other comments: Figures have been revised from 1987 on to take into account the effects of the change in the legislation on naturalisation which took place at the end of 1986.	Population register, Service central de la statistique et des études économiques.
Netherlands	Coverage: Stock of foreign citizens recorded in population register. Figures include administrative corrections and asylum seekers (except those staying in reception centres). Reference date: 31 December. Other comments: The fall in stocks between 1994 and 1995 is due to revision of estimates. Figures for 1999 are provisional.	Population register, Central Bureau of Statistics (CBS).
Norway	Coverage: Stock of foreign citizens recorded in population register. From 1987 on, data include asylum seekers waiting decisions on their application for refugee status. Reference date: 31 December.	CPR, Statistics Norway.
Portugal	Coverage: Holders of a valid residence permit. Data take into account the 1992-93 and 1996 regularisation programmes.	Ministry of the Interior.
Slovak Republic	Coverage: Holders of a long-term or a permanent residence permit.	Register of foreigners, Ministry of the Interior.
Spain	Coverage: Holders of residence permits. Does not include those with temporary permits (less than six months duration) and students. The figures for 1992 include 108 372 permits issued following a regularisation program held in 1991. Reference date: 31 December. Other comments: The fall in figures between 1988 and 1989 is due to a clean-up of the population register.	Ministry of the Interior.
Sweden	Coverage: Stock of foreign citizens recorded in population register. Reference date: 31 December.	Population register, Statistics Sweden.
Switzerland	Coverage: Stock of all those with annual or settlement permits. Does not include seasonal or frontier workers. Reference date: 31 December	Register of Foreigners, Federal Foreign Office.
United Kingdom	Coverage: Foreign residents. Those with unknown nationality from the New Commonwealth are not included (around 10 to 15 000 persons). Reference date: 31 December. Other comments: Figures are rounded and not published if less than 10 000.	Labour force survey, Home Office.

Notes related to Tables A.16. and B.1.6.

Acquisition of nationality

	Comments	Source
Australia		Department of Immigration and Ethnic Affairs.
Austria		Österreichisches Statistisches Zentralamt.
Belgium	Significant numbers of foreigners were naturalised as a result of changes to the law on nationality in June 1984 and September 1991.	National Statistical Office and Ministry of Justice.
Canada		Statistics Canada.
Denmark		Danmarks Statistik.
Finland	Includes naturalisations of those of Finnish origin.	Central Statistical Office.
France	Excludes minors who were automatically naturalised on reaching adulthood under legislation existing prior to 1 January 1994 and those under new legislation (July 1993) requiring minors to state their intention to become French citizens.	Ministère de l'Emploi et de la Solidarité.
Germany	Includes naturalisations of those of German origin.	Statistisches Bundesamt.
Hungary	Including ethnic Hungarians mainly from former Yugoslavia and Ukraine.	Ministry of the Interior.
Italy		Ministry of the Interior.
Japan		Ministry of Justice, Civil Affairs Bureau.
Korea		Ministry of Justice
Luxembourg	Excludes children acquiring nationality as a consequence of the naturalisation of their parents.	Ministry of Justice.
Netherlands		Central Bureau of Statistics (CBS).
Norway		Statistics Norway.
Portugal		National Statistical Office.
Spain	Excludes individuals recovering their former (Spanish) nationality.	Ministry of Justice and Ministry of the Interior.
Sweden		Statistics Sweden.
Switzerland		Office fédéral des étrangers.
United Kingdom		Home Office.
United States	Data refer to fiscal years (October to September of the year indicated).	US Department of Justice.

Notes related to Table A.2.1.
Inflows of foreign workers

	Types of workers recorded in the data	Source
Australia	<p>A. Permanent settlers 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>B. Temporary workers 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, Local Government and Ethnic affairs.
Austria	Data for all years cover initial work permits for both direct inflows from abroad and for first participation in the Austrian labour market of foreigners already present in the country. Seasonal workers are included. From 1994 on, only non-EU citizens need a work permit which explains the reduction in the numbers.	Ministry of Labour, Health and Social Affairs.
Belgium	Work permits issued to first-time immigrants in wage and salary employment. Citizens of European Union (EU) Member states are not included, except for those of Greece until 1987, and of Spain and Portugal until 1992.	Ministère de l'Emploi et du Travail.
Canada	Persons issued employment authorisations to work in Canada (excluding people granted a permit on humanitarian grounds, foreign students and their spouses). From 1997 on, persons are shown in the year in which they received their first temporary permit except for seasonal workers who are counted each time they enter the country. Figures prior to 1994 are not comparable because of multiple entries by the same person.	Citizenship and Immigration Canada.
Denmark	Residence permits issued for employment. Nordic and EU citizens are not included.	Danmarks Statistik.
France	<p>1. Permanent workers "Permanents" are foreign workers subject to control by the Office des Migrations Internationales (OMI). Certain citizens of EU Member states employed for short durations may not be included. Resident family members of workers who enter the labour market for the first time are not included.</p> <p>2. Provisional work permits (APT) Provisional work permits (APT) cannot exceed six months, are renewable and apply to trainees, students and other holders of non-permanent jobs.</p>	Office des migrations internationales.
Germany	<p>New work permits issued. Data include essentially newly entered foreign workers, contract workers and seasonal workers. Citizens of EU Member states are not included, except those of Greece until 1987, and of Spain and Portugal until 1992. Data refer to western Germany up to 1990, to Germany as a whole from 1991 on.</p>	Bundesanstalt für Arbeit.
Hungary	Grants of work permits (including renewals).	Ministry of Labour.

Notes related to Table A.2.1.
Inflows of foreign workers (*cont.*)

	Types of workers recorded in the data	Source
Ireland	Work permits issued (including renewals). EU citizens do not need a work permit.	Ministry of Labour.
Italy	New work permits issued to non-EU foreigners.	Ministry of Labour and ISTAT.
Luxembourg	Data cover both arrivals of foreign workers and residents admitted for the first time to the labour market.	Inspection générale de la sécurité sociale.
Portugal	Grants of work permits.	National Statistical Office.
Spain	Data include both initial "B" work permits, delivered for 1 year maximum (renewable) for a specific salaried activity and "D" work permits (same type of permit for self employed). From 1997 on, data also include permanent permits. Since 1992, EU citizens do not need a work permit.	Ministry of Labour and Social Security.
Switzerland	Data cover foreigners who enter Switzerland to work and who obtain an annual residence permit, whether the permit is renewable or not (<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.	Office fédéral des étrangers.
United Kingdom	Grants of work permits. Both long-term and short-term permits are now mostly delivered to highly qualified workers. Most short duration permits are for entertainers and sports people. The new data-recording system no longer allows identification of trainees. Citizens of EU Member states are excluded. "First permissions" (issued to foreigners already residents and now entering the labour market), extensions and changes of employment are included. The implementation of a new data-recording system allowed to revise series from 1995 on.	Department of Employment.
United States	A. Permanent settlers Prior to fiscal year 1992, data include members of the professions or persons of exceptional ability in the sciences and arts, skilled and unskilled workers in short supply, and special immigrant visas. Data include immigrants issued employment-based preference visas from fiscal year 1992 on. <i>Period of reference</i> : fiscal years (October to September of the given year). B. Temporary residence permits Including trainees, excluding intra-company transferees and treaty traders/investors. <i>Period of reference</i> : Fiscal years (October to September of the given year). Figures may be overestimated because of multiple entries by the same person.	US Department of Justice.

Notes related to Table A.2.2.

Inflows of seasonal workers

	Comments	Source
Australia	WHM programme (Working Holiday Makers) for young persons aged 18 to 25. The duration of stay is restricted to 1 year (not renewable). <i>Period of reference:</i> fiscal year (July to June of the given year).	Department of Immigration and Ethnic Affairs.
Canada	Caribbean and Mexican Seasonal Agricultural Workers Programme.	Citizenship and Immigration Canada.
France	Number of contracts with the Office des migrations internationales (OMI). European Union nationals are not subject to OMI control.	Office des migrations internationales.
Germany	Workers recruited under bilateral agreements. From 1991 on, data cover Germany as a whole.	Bundesanstalt für Arbeit.
Italy	Agricultural seasonal workers entered in Italy with a work authorisation.	Ministry of Labour.
Netherlands		CBS.
Norway	Not renewable work permits granted. Issued for 3 months mostly to Polish nationals.	Statistics Norway.
Switzerland		Officé fédéral des étrangers.
United Kingdom	Seasonal workers under the special Agricultural Workers Scheme. Including readmissions.	Department of Employment.
United States	Agricultural workers with a H-2A visa (non-immigrants).	US Department of Justice.

Notes related to Tables A.2.3., B.2.1. and B.2.2.
Foreign and foreign-born labour

Foreign labour

	Comments	Source
Austria	<p>Annual average. The unemployed are included and the self-employed are excluded.</p> <p>Data on employment by nationality are from valid work permits. Figures may be overestimated as a result of persons holding more than one permit. In Table A.2.3., data for 1990 and 1991 have been adjusted to correct for a temporary over-issue of work permits relative to the number of jobs held by foreigners, between August 1990 and June 1991.</p> <p>From 1994 on, data on employment are from Social Security records and include EEA nationals.</p>	<p>Ministry of Labour, Health and Social Affairs.</p>
Belgium	<p>Data are estimates on the basis of MET (for salaried workers), INASTI (for unemployed) and ONEM data (for self employed). The breakdown of self employed by nationality is estimated on the basis of the breakdown of total persons working on their own and family workers by nationality.</p> <p>Reference date: 30 June.</p>	<p>Ministère de l'Emploi et du Travail (MET), Office national de l'Emploi (ONEM), Institut national d'Assurances sociales pour les Travailleurs indépendants (INASTI).</p>
Czech Republic	<p>Holders of a work permit and registered Slovak workers. Excluding holders of a trade licence.</p> <p>Reference date: 31 December.</p>	<p>Research Institute for Labour and Social Affairs.</p>
Denmark	<p>Data are from population registers</p> <p>Reference date: 30 November until 1991; 31 December from 1992 on.</p>	<p>Danmarks Statistik.</p>
Finland	<p>All foreigners working in Finland (holders of a work permit and workers exempted from a permit after two years legally residing in the country). Data for 1999 are estimates.</p> <p>Reference date: 31 December.</p>	<p>Statistics Finland.</p>
France	<p>Labour Force Survey.</p> <p>Reference date: March of each year.</p>	<p>Institut national de la statistique et des études économiques.</p>
Germany	<p>Microcensus. Data include unemployed and self-employed.</p> <p>Reference date: April.</p>	<p>Federal Statistical Office.</p>
Hungary	<p>Number of valid work permits.</p> <p>Reference date: 31 December.</p>	<p>Ministry of Labour.</p>
Ireland	<p>Estimates are from the Labour Force Survey.</p>	<p>Central Statistical Office.</p>
Italy	<p>Figures refer to number of foreigners with a valid work permit (including self-employed). Data exclude unemployed. EU citizens do not need a work permit.</p>	<p>ISTAT.</p>
Japan	<p>Foreigners whose activity is restricted according to the Immigration Act (revised in 1990). Permanent resident, spouse or child of Japanese national, spouse or child of permanent resident and long-term resident have no restriction imposed to the kind of activities they can engage in Japan and are excluded from these data.</p>	<p>Ministry of Justice, Service of Immigration.</p>
Korea	<p>Data are based on registered foreign workers which exclude short-term (under the 90 days) workers. Including trainees.</p>	<p>Ministry of Justice.</p>
Luxembourg	<p>Number of work permits. Data cover foreigners in employment, including apprentices, trainees and cross-border workers. The unemployed are not included.</p> <p>Reference date: 1 October.</p>	<p>Inspection générale de la sécurité sociale.</p>

Notes related to Tables A.2.3., B.2.1. and B.2.2.
Foreign and foreign-born labour (*cont.*)

Foreign labour

	Comments	Source
Netherlands	Estimates include cross-border workers, but exclude the self-employed, family workers and the unemployed. From 1990 onwards, foreigners legally residing in the Netherlands but working abroad are excluded. Reference date: 31 March.	Central Bureau of Statistics.
Norway	Data are from population registers. Excluding unemployed and self-employed. Reference date: second quarter of each year (except in 1995 and 1996: 4th quarter).	Statistics Norway.
Portugal	Workers who hold a valid residence permit (including the unemployed). Including foreign workers who benefited from the 1992-1993 and 1996 regularisation programmes. Reference date: 31 December.	Ministry of the Interior.
Slovak Republic	Foreigners who hold a valid work permit. Czech workers don't need a work permit but they are registered through the labour Offices.	National Labour Office.
Spain	Number of valid work permits. From 1992 on, EU workers are not included. From 1991 to 1993, the data include work permits delivered following the 1991 regularisation programme. The data for 1999 are provisional. Reference date: 31 December.	Ministry of Labour and Social Security.
Sweden	Annual average from the Labour Force Survey.	Statistics Sweden.
Switzerland	Data are counts of the number of foreigners with an annual residence permit or a settlement permit (permanent permit), who engage in gainful activity. Reference date: 31 December (resident workers); 31 August (seasonal workers).	Office fédéral des étrangers.
United Kingdom	Estimates are from the Labour Force Survey. The unemployed are not included.	Employment Department.

Foreign-born labour

	Comments	Source
Australia	Labour force aged 15 and over. Reference date: August.	Labour Force Survey (ABS).
Canada	Labour force aged 15 and over.	1991 and 1996 Censuses.
United States	Coverage: Labour force aged 15 and over. Foreign-born citizens with American parents are not included in census figures (1990). Note that estimates by country of birth are not sufficiently accurate in the Current Population Survey and therefore are not shown in Table B.2.1. Only total stock of foreign-born labour force is mentioned in Table A.2.3.	1990 Census (US Department of Commerce) and Current Population Survey (from 1994 on), US Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census.

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