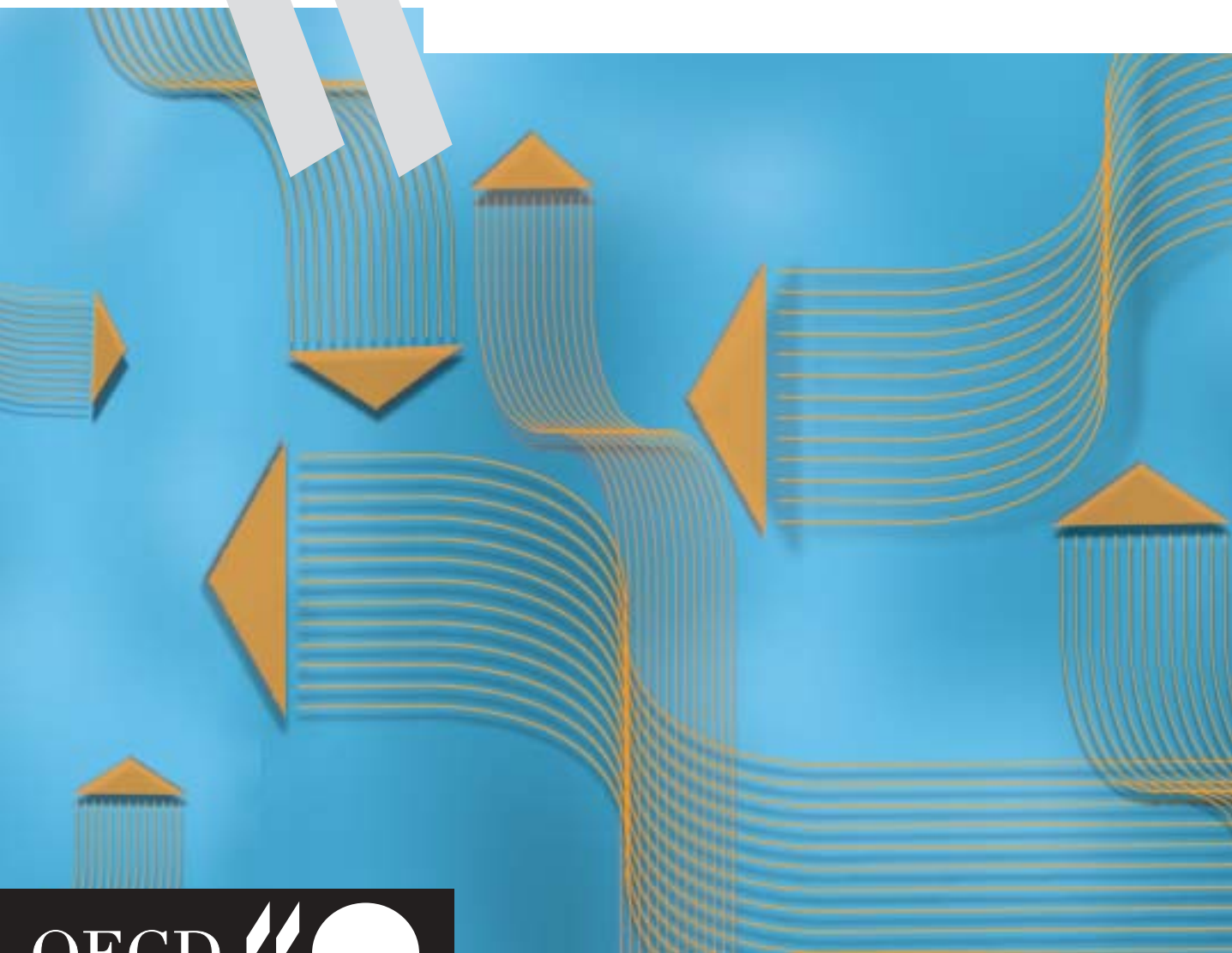




Trends in International Migration



OECD 

SOPEMI 2003

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Trends in International Migration

Annual Report
2003 Edition



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ORGANISATION FOR ECONOMIC CO-OPERATION AND DEVELOPMENT

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Foreword

This twenty-eighth annual report of the OECD Continuous Reporting System on Migration is based in large part on 32 written contributions from national correspondents (see the list at the end of this report) and on the summary of discussions at their last annual meeting (December 2002).

This 2003 Edition is divided into four parts and a statistical annex. Part I describes overall trends in international migration and focuses on the magnitude, nature and direction of flows as well as on foreign workers in the labour market and in different sectors of economic activity. This part also focuses on changes in the country of origin of immigrants. Special attention is accorded to labour-related migration flows and to the difficulty faced by specific groups of immigrants in integrating into the labour market. Part I is completed by an overview of migration policies, especially those aiming to manage migration flows, to counter irregular immigration and the illegal employment of foreigners, to assist immigrants to integrate into host countries and to reinforce international co-operation between sending and receiving countries.

Part II is devoted to an overview of the regional aspects of migration. It examines the regional distribution of migrants throughout a country as well as local concerns stemming from migration policy objectives established at the national or federal level. Based on the example of South African health professionals, Part III highlights the growing importance of the mobility of skilled professionals and students and the associated risk of brain drain. It also contains more general proposals regarding international co-operation that might help to ensure that mobility also benefits development in sending countries.

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

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

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General introduction

A renewed interest in labour-related migration is apparent...

There is a renewed interest in the recruitment of new immigrant workers in many OECD countries. The phenomenon of population ageing explains part of this trend. Although the management of flows remains a high priority, a number of OECD countries are seeking to attract skilled and highly skilled foreign workers and are making access to the labour market of foreign students after graduation easier. These changes are not limited to skilled labour. Some countries are also seeking out less skilled workers, especially in agriculture (the United States, Australia, Spain and Greece), construction, care giving for the elderly and other business and household services (Italy, Portugal, United Kingdom). Evidence of these flows is visible in the increasing share of temporary labour migration in total flows (where “temporary migration” includes short-term permits, seasonal jobs, temporary assignments within multinational corporations, internships and “working holidays”). OECD countries have adapted and, in some cases, modified existing legislation related to labour migration in order to meet the new needs of the labour market.

... nonetheless, family-related migration continues to dominate the flows.

Labour-related migration, however, represents only one part of the more general trend increase in migration flows, noticeable since the end of the 1990s, and continuing in 2001 and 2002 (Part I). In fact, family-related migration remains the largest entry category and the number of asylum seekers continues to increase as well in a number of countries.

Immigration is playing an increasingly important role in population growth in receiving countries.

Immigration plays a prominent role in the demography of several European OECD countries (Italy and Spain in particular) and, indeed, in offsetting what would otherwise be population decline (in Germany for example). A rise in naturalisations and the measures adopted to facilitate the acquisition of nationality explain the fact that an increasing number of immigrants and their family members are settling in their host countries. At the same time, in the settlement countries, such as Australia, Canada, the United States and New Zealand, intercensal comparisons reveal the growing share of the foreign-born in the total population.

Migration policies remain characterised by the will to better manage immigration flows...

Part I of this report presents as well an inventory of the principal recent measures taken in terms of migration policies. Among recent trends, OECD countries have reinforced controls both at their borders and internally, in part in response to security issues in the context of the global fight against terrorism following the September 11, 2001 terrorist attacks in the United States, but also to combat irregular migration and networks that deal in trafficking and exploitation of human beings. Several OECD countries have passed new laws regarding the entry, stay and employment of foreigners (*e.g.* Denmark, Germany, Portugal and Greece). Others have reinforced measures to accelerate the processing of asylum applications (Switzerland) or have adopted instruments to limit their admissibility (*e.g.* the United Kingdom, the Netherlands). Finally, within the European Union, several directives aim to harmonise migration policies across its members. These decisions are all the more important as they will apply to the ten new member countries in 2004, due to the principle of the *acquis communautaire* (Community patrimony).

... and to facilitate the labour market and societal integration of migrants.

The labour market integration of immigrants and measures to assist new arrivals are among priorities of most OECD countries. They have reinforced the provision for improving linguistic competences and vocational training of immigrants as well as combating discrimination. Several countries also have taken legislative measures to modify the rules regarding the acquisition of nationality. Countries have either eased the application process (for example in Luxembourg) or required that naturalisation candidates demonstrate a more thorough knowledge of the host-country language and society (notably in the Netherlands, Austria and Denmark).

One section of the report focuses on the regional dimension of migration...

Parts II and III of this report focus on special themes. The first theme describes the regional aspects of migration and highlights the main concerns in this area at the local level. “Regions” here may refer to regional economies dependent on seasonal employment, cross-border regional economies, international “city-regions” or transnational networks between sending and receiving regions. One example of the regionalisation of migration comes from Australia: during the past ten years, the government has decided to balance the distribution of recently admitted skilled foreign workers across the country so as to support economic development in the hinterland. It is undoubtedly in Canada, however, that the objective of finding a balance among regional, migration and population policies is most evident. Several European OECD countries, on the other hand, accord importance to regional quota systems for foreign workers (*e.g.* Italy, Switzerland). In other countries, such as Belgium and Germany, the federal government legislates but regional governments have certain powers in terms of migration policies.

... and links to settlement objectives fixed at national level.

Studies developed around this special theme find that the greater mobility of migrants (including the fact that they may decide to re-settle in another host country) can thwart the aims of national settlement policies and/or labour-related migration. The lack of statistical information and of related analyses, however, makes it difficult to fully grasp this regional dimension.

This year's special study on the international mobility of South African healthcare workers reveals "brain drain" risks...

The growing importance of the international mobility of skilled and highly skilled workers and the increasing number of students from developing countries who study in OECD countries have increased the risk of brain drain. The second special theme of this 2003 report (Part III) shows that these risks are real in the case of South African healthcare workers. This section briefly describes the possible forms of international co-operation that would enable this mobility to also benefit development in emigration countries.

... which some bilateral agreements attempt to limit.

In this regard, several OECD countries recently have signed bilateral agreements for the recruitment of foreign labour with developing countries. The agreements include clauses that underscore the wish to increase co-operation between sending and receiving countries, not only to better regulate migration flows but also with the objective of aiding the economic development of emigration countries.

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Part IV of this report includes country notes detailing recent developments in migration flows and policies.

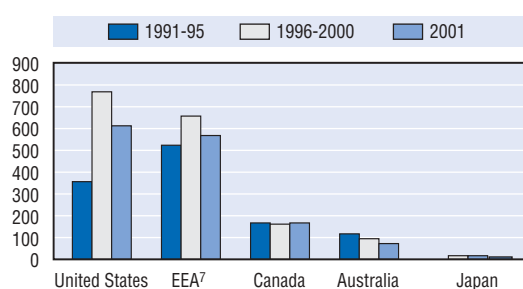
Overview of migration trends and foreign population in OECD countries

	Migration flows			Stock of foreign and foreign-born population		
	Annual average			Thousands	% of total population	
	1991-1995	1996-2000	2001	2001	1991	2001
Inflows of foreigners (thousands)						
United States						
Permanent immigration	1 046	773	1 064			
Temporary immigration ¹	1 451	2 221	2 948			
European economic area (EEA)²	1 584	1 342	1 553			
Australia						
Permanent immigration	93	88	89			
Temporary immigration	111	174	340			
Japan³	241	279	351			
Canada						
Permanent immigration	235	207	250			
Temporary workers ⁴	61	71	86			
Net migration (for 1 000 inhabitants)						
Canada ⁵	6.2	5.2	6.7			
Australia	4.0	5.0	5.7			
United States	3.5	3.3	3.1			
European Economic Area (EEA)	2.7	1.9	3.0			
Japan	-0.11	0.10	0.3			
Asylum seekers (thousands)						
European Economic Area	487	352	430			
United States	121	72	63			
Central and Eastern Europe	3	17	45			
Canada	27	28	42			
Australia	10	10	13			

Stock of foreign population			
EEA ⁶	20 744	4.8	5.7
Japan	1 778	1.0	1.4
Stock of foreign-born population			
United States (1990)	31 811	7.9	11.1
Canada	5 448	16.1	18.2
Australia	4 482	22.9	23.1

Acquisition of nationality

Thousands (annual average)



1. Excluding visitors, transit migrants, foreign government officials and students. Accompanying dependents are included.
2. Austria, Greece, Italy and Spain are not included. Inflows include significant numbers of short-term movements for some countries (Belgium, Luxembourg, Germany and Netherlands).
3. Includes short-term movements.
4. Inflows of foreign workers entering Canada to work temporarily (excluding seasonal workers) provided by initial entry. 2000 data instead of 2001.
5. Fiscal years (July to June of the given year) (Statistics Canada).
6. Excluding Greece. 1999 for France instead of 2001.
7. Excluding Greece and Ireland.

Sources: National Statistical Institutes; *Labour Force Statistics*, OECD, 2003; UNHCR.

PART I

Main trends in international migration

Summary

The first part of the annual report *Trends in International Migration* contains three sections that describe the most salient facts observed in 2001-2002. The first section looks at changes in migration movements and in the foreign population in OECD member countries. The second section focuses on the status of immigrants in the labour market and the third provides an overview of migration policies.

Despite the deterioration in the economic climate in some OECD countries, the upward trend in international migration observed since the middle of the 1990s continued in 2001. The data, partially available for 2002, show a slight slowdown in this trend which, however, does not signal a significant break. Labour-related migration, whether of a temporary or permanent nature, increased noticeably in several OECD countries. This stemmed in part from the migration of qualified workers in the areas of information and communication technologies but also in the health and education sectors. Family-related migration, however, still makes up the largest category of admission for several OECD countries. The latest available data for 2002 show that, after several years of high growth, admissions of asylum seekers are increasing less rapidly.

An analysis of the labour market situation of foreign workers shows that despite improved conditions in the labour market for foreigners during the past economic growth phase, certain sub-categories of foreign workers are still vulnerable (*e.g.* particularly women as well as younger and older workers). A general improvement of the employment situation is thus not sufficient to guarantee foreigners a lasting integration into the labour market.

Among recent trends, OECD countries have reinforced controls both at their borders and internally, in part in response to security issues in the context of the global fight against terrorism but also to counter irregular migration and networks that deal in the trafficking and exploitation of human beings. Several OECD countries have passed new laws regarding the entry, stay and employment of foreigners (*e.g.* Denmark, Germany, Portugal and Greece). Others have reinforced procedures aimed at accelerating the processing of asylum applications (Switzerland) or have adopted measures to limit their admissibility (*e.g.* the United Kingdom, the Netherlands). Within the European Union, several directives aim to harmonise migration policies across its members. Finally, the labour market integration of immigrants and measures to assist new arrivals are among the priorities of most OECD countries, which have reinforced provisions for improving the language competence and vocational training of immigrants as well as for combating discrimination.

The first part of the 2003 report on *Trends in International Migration* contains three sections that describe the most salient facts observed in 2001-2002. The first section looks at changes in migration movements and in the foreign population in OECD member countries (I.A). The second section focuses on the status of immigrants in the labour market (I.B) and the third provides an overview of migration policies (I.C).

A. Migration and population trends

After a period of strong growth, beginning in the early 1990s for most OECD countries, 2001 was marked by an economic downturn in the United States. A similar change became apparent in Europe as of the first quarter of 2002. In 2001, real GDP grew by only 0.7% for the OECD as a whole (+0.3% in the United States, -0.3% in Japan and 1.6% in the European Union). After seven consecutive years of declining unemployment, the average standardised unemployment rate increased slightly in 2001 to 6.5%, from 6.3% in the previous year. This deterioration in labour market conditions worsened in 2002 throughout the OECD area (the standardised unemployment rate grew to 6.9%) and more particularly in Europe and Japan (7.6% and 5.4% respectively).

Despite the deterioration in the economic climate, the upward trend in international migration, observed since the middle of the 1990s, continued in 2001. The data partially available for 2002 show, however, a slight slowdown in this trend, although not marking a significant break. In the long term, it is difficult to gauge the effects of the economic climate on migration movements: these are partly influenced by structural factors such as the ongoing need for qualified workers in OECD countries and by the proliferation of regional conflicts in some countries outside the OECD area.

Labour-related migration, either of a temporary or permanent nature, grew noticeably in 2001 in several OECD countries. This trend stemmed from, in part, the migration of qualified workers, particularly in the areas of new information and communication technologies, but also in health and education sectors. Family-related migration, however, still makes up the main category of admissions for several OECD countries. The latest available data for 2002 show that, after several years of spectacular growth, admissions of asylum seekers are growing less rapidly.

1. Trends in migration movements

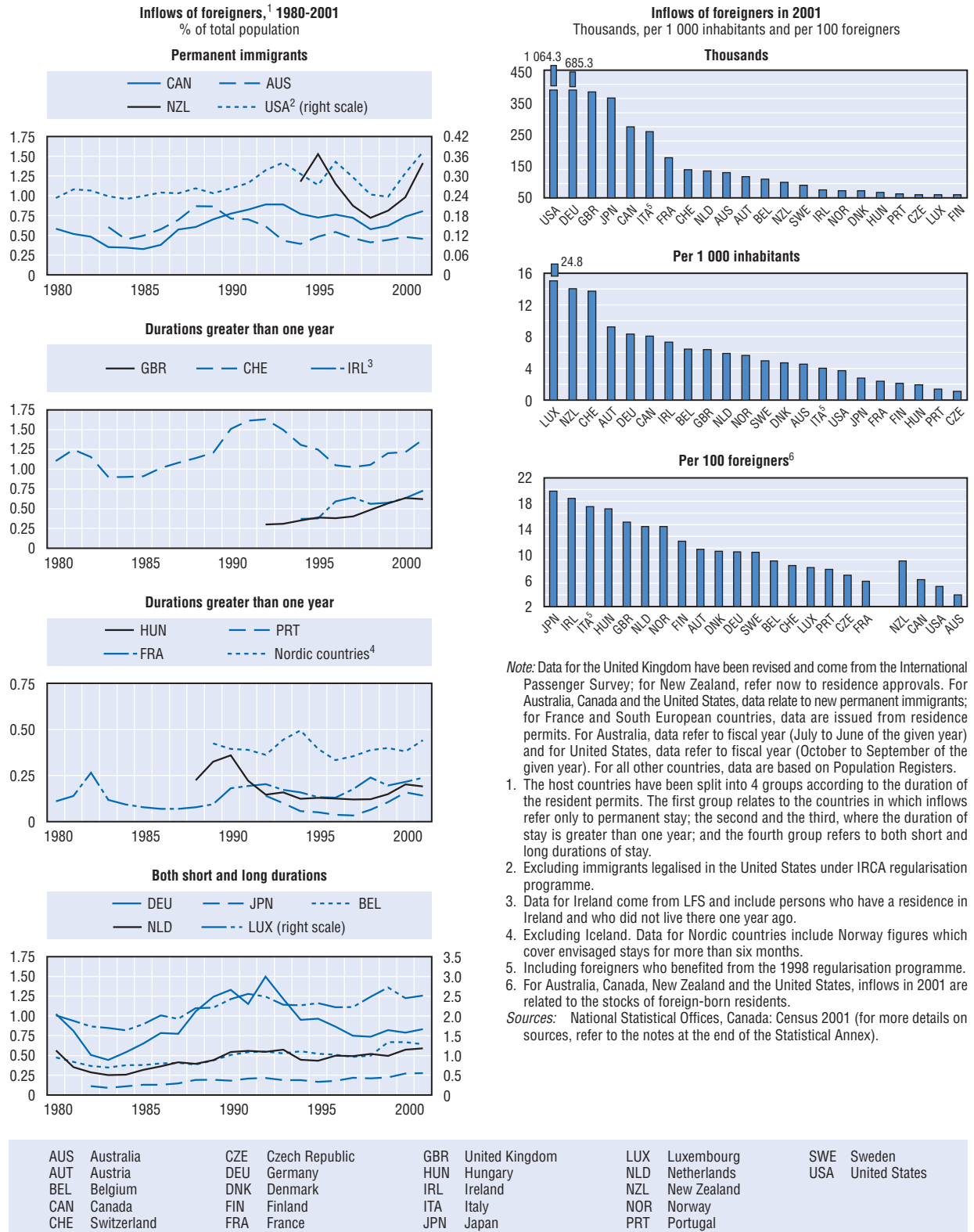
The increase in migration flows observed for several years in most OECD countries gained strength in 2001 and may continue to do so. This development is explained both by the continuing need for workers in several OECD countries and by the lack of migration's responsiveness to current economic conditions. Yet, countries such as the United Kingdom and Italy with a dramatic increase in inflows during the past years, have experienced relative inflow stability.

a) Record immigration in several OECD member countries in 2001

In 2001, three main groups of countries can be distinguished according to trends in their recent immigration levels as shown by i) a very strong increase, ii) a moderate increase or iii) constant flows. The first group of countries includes Austria, Canada, the Czech Republic, Finland, France, Ireland, New Zealand, Switzerland and the United States. In most of these countries, the growth of inflows has resulted in unprecedented immigration levels in the past 20 years (see the left-hand side of Chart I.1).

Chart I.1. **Inflows of foreigners in some OECD countries, 1980-2001**

Thousands, per 1 000 inhabitants and per 100 foreigners



More than 850 000 permanent immigrants were admitted to the United States in 2000, 31% more than in the previous year. In 2001, this figure grew by 25% with 1 064 300 recorded entries. In 2002, despite a less favourable economic climate and a significant tightening of controls on migration flows, a similar level of admissions was recorded (1 063 700). Canada and particularly New Zealand also saw a strong increase in permanent immigration (respectively 10.2% and 36.5% between 2000 and 2001, and 27.6% and 6.3% between 1995 and 2001) to historically high levels.

Of the traditional European immigration countries, France, Switzerland and Austria saw significant increases in inflows in 2001 (respectively with 18.2%, 13.8% and 13.4% over the previous year), respectively equivalent to 141 000, 99 500 and 74 800 admissions. In France, immigration in 2001 surpassed its 1998 peak and was equal to the 1982 level, which included the results of a unique regularisation programme. Other European countries where immigration is a relatively more recent and less sizeable phenomenon, such as the Czech Republic, Finland and Ireland, also saw a growth rate above 15% between 2000 and 2001. In Germany, growth in immigration during the same period was close to 6%. In 2001, however, the number of admissions (685 000) remained significantly below those recorded at the beginning of the 1990s, following the opening of eastern borders.

The second group of countries comprises Japan, the Netherlands, Sweden, Luxembourg and Denmark. In each of these countries, immigration grew moderately in 2001 (below or equal to 3.5%). In Japan, for example, about 351 000 admissions were recorded in 2001, a receding growth rate compared to the previous year (+1.6%) when 346 000 admissions were recorded (as against 282 000 in 1999). This was the third consecutive year, however, of a record number of entries despite unfavourable economic conditions and an unprecedented growth in the unemployment rate (5% in 2001). The Nordic countries in this group also saw a marked slowdown in the rate of immigration growth (with stagnation in the case of Denmark). In the Netherlands, however, a record level was reached with about 94 500 entries in 2001.

Finally, the third group of countries saw a very slight decrease in immigration in 2001. In most cases, this development can be interpreted as a stabilising trend after a period of very strong growth. Thus, admissions of foreigners more than doubled in the United Kingdom, Belgium and Norway between 1983-84 and 2000. They increased at least threefold in Portugal and Italy between 1997 and 2000. Yet, in all these countries, immigration decreased in 2001. With the exception of Norway where the decrease was more noticeable (-8.6%), the other countries mentioned are experiencing the stabilisation of an existing trend rather than a genuine break. Partially available data for 2002, particularly for the United Kingdom, supports this observation.

Australia could also be placed in this last group despite a drop in permanent immigration of nearly 3.7% in 2001 (with just under 89 000 entries). This decrease occurred after two consecutive years of strong growth (+8.9% between 1998 and 1999 and +9.7% between 1999 and 2000). Throughout the whole period under consideration (1980 to 2001), the average level has remained relatively stable. In the case of Australia, the constant number of permanent admissions has been balanced by a growth in temporary migration (see below).

While admissions of foreigners have grown in most OECD member countries, departures have not changed uniformly among countries (see the Statistical Annex, Table A.1.2). Taking into consideration the difficulty in obtaining comparable migration statistics (see Box I.1), net migration of the foreign and foreign-born populations have

Box I.1. Migration statistics

International migration statistics are patchy, of varying degrees of reliability, and subject to problems of comparability. These difficulties stem largely from the diversity of migration systems and legislation on naturalisation. For example, in settlement countries (Australia, Canada, New Zealand and the United States), migrants are identified by their place of birth (“foreign-born”), while other OECD member countries apply the nationality criterion (“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 (notably Northern European ones) keep population registers, while others base their statistics on records of residence and work permits issued to foreign nationals or, in the case of workers, on information provided by social security systems. There are also data from censuses, and from surveys on the various characteristics of the population. In some cases, other sources may be used, such as specific surveys on migrants, border-crossing records, disembarkation cards, studies of 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.

Note: For further details on migration statistics, see the Statistical Annex to this report.

experienced modest growth in several countries, particularly Japan and New Zealand. Conversely, in other countries such as Germany and Switzerland, departures decreased while admissions increased in 2001, making it appear as a marked increase in net immigration. In Belgium and the United Kingdom, foreign entries and departures both fell in 2001, confirming the picture described earlier of the stabilisation of migration movements in these countries.

Recent migration trends followed the general direction of those observed over the last five or six years and have brought little change to the ranking of the main immigration countries (see the right-hand side of Chart I.1). The United States, followed by Germany, the United Kingdom and Japan received the greatest number of immigrants in 2001. As a percentage of the total resident population, immigration is particularly important in Luxembourg, New Zealand and Switzerland (more than 1.2% of the total population). It is important to highlight that the Canadian authorities recently announced their intention to increase immigration progressively until inflows amount to 1% of the total population (it already reached 0.8% of the population in 2001).

In describing immigration relative to the foreign population in a country, countries are separated into two groups. First, several countries are characterised by immigration flows which are essentially temporary in nature and where migration inflows are an important addition to the working population, as in Japan for example. In the second group of countries, immigration is either a recent phenomenon or one with strong growth patterns.

Among OECD member countries, this is particularly true of Ireland, Italy, Portugal, Greece and, to a lesser extent, Norway, Finland and Denmark.

Migration movements are particularly difficult to predict, especially after an economic recession, as was the case in 2001-2002. In addition, political instability and recent conflicts in several parts of the world, notably in the Middle East, Asia and some countries in Africa, increased the risks of uncertainty in short and medium-term forecasts.

It is expected that the current growth in migration flows will continue to some extent in the European OECD member countries due to the enlargement of the European Union in 2004, on the one hand, and to the continuing demand for labour related to demographic developments, on the other. In the new immigration countries of Southern Europe, the settlement of recent migration waves may give rise to the arrival of new immigrants based on family reunification, thereby reinforcing their position among immigration countries.

In the settlement countries (Australia, Canada, the United States and New Zealand) and in the Asian OECD countries (Japan and Korea), one can expect growth, albeit modest, in permanent immigration. Both the importance of structural factors and the fact that these countries have yet to change significantly their entry conditions, especially those related to skilled workers, support future growth projections.

b) *The share of labour-related migration has grown despite the continuation of family-related migration and the admission of asylum seekers*

The year 2001 and the beginning of 2002 marked the peak of an economic cycle with very strong growth in most OECD countries. This period was characterised by a significant increase in labour-related migration, both temporary and permanent, which in most cases grew very rapidly across most employment categories (skilled workers, seasonal employees, trainees, working holiday makers, transfers of staff within multinational companies, cross-border workers). At the same time, other categories of admissions (family members and refugees) did not necessarily decrease and, in many cases, actually continued to grow.

Seeking highly qualified workers, seasonal workers and other types of workers!

At the end of the 1990s and in 2000, most OECD countries introduced specific measures to facilitate the recruitment of skilled foreign workers (see previous editions of *Trends in International Migration* for further details), but other types of foreign labour have also been widely solicited, especially for seasonal and household work.

In 2001, the effects of measures taken to attract skilled workers were visible in most OECD member countries. This was especially the case in the United States, Japan, Korea, the United Kingdom and Ireland (see Tables I.1 and A.2.1 of the Annex).

Once Korea removed limitations on the length of stay of highly skilled workers, labour-related immigration increased to a greater extent. In 2001, more than 28 200 skilled workers were recorded entering the country, amounting to nearly a 60% increase compared to the previous year (also marked by very strong growth, +41%). In Japan, 142 000 highly skilled workers received work permits in 2001 (+9.3% over 2000 and +39% over 1998). This figure approached that of the United States where approximately 164 000 new H-1B visas were granted in 2001, within the annual quota of 195 000 (+40% over 2000).

Table I.1. **Entries of temporary workers in certain OECD countries by principal categories, 1992, 1998-2001**

Thousands

	1992	1998	1999	2000	2001		1992	1998	1999	2000	2001
Australia						New Zealand⁴					
Skilled temporary resident programme (offshore and onshore) ¹	14.6	37.3	37.0	39.2	43.3	Business	..	0.9	0.8	1.5	2.7
Working Holiday Makers (offshore)	25.9	55.6	62.6	76.5	85.2	General work permit	..	12.2	14.4	17.4	21.1
Total	40.5	92.9	99.7	115.7	128.5	Trainees/Working Holiday Makers	..	9.8	9.9	13.9	18.2
	(40.3)	(26.0)	(28.0)	(32.3)	(35.7)	Special highly qualified (medical, teaching, research, specialist)	..	3.9	5.0	6.2	6.3
Canada²						Other	..	2.7	2.4	4.0	6.4
Total	70.4	79.5	85.4	93.7	93.1	Total	..	29.5	32.5	43.1	54.6
	(254.8)	(174.2)	(189.9)	(227.2)	(250.3)						
France						Sweden					
Employees on secondment	0.9	1.2	1.8	2.2	2.3	Grants of temporary permits (mainly seasonal workers)	15.0	19.4	12.7
Researchers	0.9	1.0	1.0	1.6	1.7		(0.2)	(0.4)	(0.3)	(0.4)	(0.4)
Other holders of an APT ³	2.8	2.2	3.1	3.8	5.6	Switzerland					
Seasonal workers	13.6	7.5	7.6	7.9	10.8	Seasonal workers	126.1	39.6	45.3	49.3	54.9
Total	18.1	11.8	13.4	15.4	20.4	Trainees	1.6	0.7	0.8	1.1	1.3
	(42.3)	(10.3)	(12.2)	(11.3)	(21.7)	Total	127.8	40.3	46.1	50.3	56.2
Germany							(39.7)	(26.8)	(31.5)	(34.0)	(41.9)
Workers employed under a contract for services	115.1	33.0	40.0	64.8	46.8	United Kingdom					
Seasonal workers	212.4	207.9	230.3	263.8	277.9	Long-term permit holders (one year and over)	9.9	20.2	25.0	36.2	50.3
Trainees	5.1	3.1	3.7	3.0	..	Short-term permit holders	22.9	28.0	28.4	30.7	30.8
Total	332.6	244.0	274.1	331.6	..	Working Holiday Makers	24.0	40.8	45.8	38.4	35.8
	(408.9)	(275.5)	(304.9)	(333.8)	(373.8)	Trainees ⁵	3.4
Italy						Seasonal agricultural workers ⁶	3.6	9.4	9.8	10.1	15.2
Seasonal workers	1.7	16.5	20.4	30.9	30.3	Total	63.8	98.4	109.0	115.4	132.0
Japan											
Highly skilled workers	108.1	101.9	108.0	129.9	142.0	United States⁷					
Trainees	..	49.8	48.0	54.0	59.1	Highly skilled workers					
Total	..	151.7	156.0	183.9	201.0	Specialists (visa H-1B)	110.2	240.9	302.3	355.6	384.2
Korea						Specialists (NAFTA, visa TN) ⁸	12.5	59.1	68.4	91.3	95.5
Highly skilled workers	3.4	11.1	12.6	17.7	28.2	Workers of distinguished abilities (visa O)	0.5	12.2	15.9	21.7	25.7
Trainees	4.9	64.2	98.4	104.8	100.3	Seasonal workers (visa H-2A)	16.4	27.3	32.4	33.3	27.7
Total	8.3	75.4	111.0	122.5	128.5	Industrial trainees (visa H-3)	3.4	3.2	3.5	3.2	3.2
						Total	143.0	342.7	422.5	505.1	536.3
							(116.2)	(77.5)	(56.8)	(107.0)	(179.2)

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

| Break in series.

- The data cover the fiscal year (from July to June of the indicated year) and include accompanying persons. From 1996/1997 on, 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. Figures have been revised from 1996 on.
- Beneficiaries of provisional work permits (APT).
- Data refer to permits and visas granted to persons who came to New Zealand to work. All that is humanitarian and familial is excluded. Other contains "arts, culture and sports", special work permits and the category "job search".
- The new data-recording system no longer allows trainees to be identified separately.
- Students in full-time education aged between 18 and 25.

Table I.1. **Entries of temporary workers in certain OECD countries by principal categories, 1992, 1998-2001** (cont.)

Thousands

7. The data cover the fiscal year (October to September of the indicated year). A person is counted as many times as he/she enters the country over the course of the same year. The data may well therefore be over-estimated.
8. The figures include family members.

Sources: Australia: Department of Immigration and Multicultural and Indigenous Affairs (DIEA); Canada: Citizenship and Immigration Canada; France: Office des migrations internationales, *Annuaire des migrations*; Germany: Bundesanstalt für Arbeit; Italy: Ministry of Labour; Japan: Ministry of Justice; Korea: Ministry of Justice; New Zealand: Immigration Service; Sweden: Ministry of Labour; Switzerland: Office fédéral des étrangers; United Kingdom: Department of Employment; United States: US Department of Justice, *Statistical Yearbooks of Immigration and Naturalization Service*.

In the United States, the annual quota of H-1B visas greatly expanded since 2001 (65 000 in 1999, 115 000 in 2000, 195 000 in 2001 to 2003). Furthermore, visas granted to higher education establishments, non-profit making organisations and government research bodies were not counted within this quota. More than 201 000 new H-1B visas were granted during the financial year 2001, in addition to 130 000 renewals (136 800 and 120 800 respectively in 2000). At the same time, the United States recorded more than 179 000 permanent admissions of workers, most of whom were highly skilled, representing a 67% growth on the previous year when 107 000 people entered under the same category.

The growth in temporary admissions of skilled workers under an H-1B visa, however, appears to have ended in 2002, due to the sudden deterioration of the economy affecting the information technology and telecommunications sectors.¹ Even though the quota was maintained at 195 000 for the 2002 financial year, only 103 600 new visas were granted, of which 79 000 were within the quota. This represented a significant fall of more than 50% on 2001. In 2003, statistics are likely to confirm this trend reversal and it is probable that the annual quota will return to 65 000 as of 2004. Several bills presented to Congress aimed to abolish this programme, indicating the importance of the current debates on this subject in the United States.

The United Kingdom and Ireland have noticeably relaxed the recruitment conditions for highly skilled foreign workers and have granted a growing number of work permits particularly in the new technologies sector, but also in other sectors such as health and education. In Ireland, 36 400 work permits were granted in 2001 (of which 6 500 were renewals) more than double the 2000 figure. In the United Kingdom, nearly 81 000 work permits were issued in 2001, in addition to family members (27 800), compared to 67 000 permits granted the previous year (53 400 in 1999). The upward trend continued in 2002 with 85 600 new work permits issued.² In the United Kingdom, all other categories of labour-related admissions also increased, including non-skilled workers (see below). Indications of a slowdown in the new technologies sector, however, compelled British authorities to remove information technology professionals from the *Shortage Occupation List* (which allows the accelerated recruitment of certain categories of workers). This measure reflects economic conditions in one particular sector of the labour market, but does not cast doubt on the overall trend largely determined by structural needs. This case is less apparent, however, in Ireland, where the number of new permits granted in 2003 should be limited.

In New Zealand, the number of permanent entries in the category “skilled workers and entrepreneurs” more than doubled between 2000 and 2002. Similarly, Switzerland had to increase the quota for skilled workers temporarily by nearly 30% in May 2001 to meet labour market requirements, even though it had remained unchanged for more than 10 years.

In the other OECD member countries, growth in labour-related migration and particularly that of highly skilled workers, is less dramatic but still visible. In Australia, for example, despite the fall in permanent migration (see above), there has been a significant rise in temporary immigration by foreign skilled workers. In 2001, approximately 43 000 work permits were issued to skilled temporary residents, representing an increase of more than 10% on 2000. Similarly, in Germany, foreign employment grew strongly in the health sector in 2001 and more than 13 000 foreign computer specialists obtained a “green card” under the programme established in August 2000. In France, the number of entries by workers, particularly computer specialists, teachers and health personnel increased, although the actual levels were low. In 2001, nearly 1 400 foreign engineers and computer managers received temporary work permits (+40% on 2000) and an additional 2 640 specialists received a work permit for more than one year (+63% on 2000).

The growth in labour-related migration, however, does not affect only highly skilled workers. Several OECD member countries have made considerable use of unskilled foreign labour, particularly in the agricultural sector.

In this context, the growth in the migration of seasonal workers is notable (see Table A.2.2 in the Annex). For example, the British programme targeting seasonal workers in the agricultural sector (SAWS) expanded from 10 000 in 2000 to 15 200 in 2001, 18 700 in 2002 and 25 000 in 2003. In Switzerland, nearly 55 000 seasonal workers obtained work permits in 2001 (+11.4% on 2000). In Germany, 278 000 seasonal workers were recruited, including 260 000 from Poland (95% in agriculture), the highest level since the German-Polish agreement was signed in 1990. Similarly, Italy granted more than 30 000 visas to seasonal workers in 2000 and 2001 (20 400 in 1999 and 7 500 in 1995).³ Austria admitted approximately 11 100 non-EU seasonal workers during the first six months of 2002 and France granted 10 800 similar permits in 2001 and 13 500 in 2002 (7 900 in 2000). In contrast, after a steep rise in the number of seasonal agricultural workers (H-2A visas) entering the United States at the end of the 1990s, the level fell in 2001: only 27 700 workers admitted compared with 33 300 in 2000. Temporary unskilled labour in the non-agricultural sector (H-2B visas), however, increased by 50% on 2000 and doubled since 1999 to reach 72 400 in 2001.

The increase in admissions of temporary workers in the service sector has also been noticeable in other OECD countries, particularly in household services and BTP. In some countries, a significant number are working illegally. In Italy, for example, during the last amnesty to regularise the status of illegal workers, more than 340 000 of the 700 000 applications made in 2002 were for domestic workers (see Part I.C below). Similarly, in Spain, more than 30% of the 350 000 regularisation requests made in 2001 as part of the “settlement” (*Araigo*) procedure represented domestic workers (compared to 20% in construction and 13% in agriculture). Given ageing populations, foreign workers are likely to play an increasing role in household services in numerous OECD countries in the future. Entry procedures for such workers, however, are often poorly adapted to methods of recruitment. This is done in the context of creating a relationship of trust between an employer and employee, rather than directly based on diplomas and qualifications.

Certain countries, such as Korea and Japan, also grant a significant number of temporary work visas to trainees employed in industry. In Japan, this entry category is increasing and reached 59 100 in 2001. In Korea, there were more than 100 000 trainees in 2001, almost equivalent to the record number in 2000.

Another entry category includes working holiday makers, which permits partial access to the labour market and generally does not require a minimum level of education. In 2001, about 85 200 young people entered Australia under this scheme, an increase of more than 11% over the previous year and about three and a half times the number recorded for 1992. The United Kingdom received 35 800 working holiday makers in 2001 (41 700 in 2002) and New Zealand 13 000 (17 000 in 2001/02). It is also worth noting that several OECD member countries which do not belong to the Commonwealth, recently signed bilateral agreements relating to this type of entry permit in order to share in the future growth of mobility among OECD member countries.

Another type of mobility that increased considerably is that of employees transferred by multinational companies (see Table I.2). In the United States, this entry category is the subject of lively debate, as its quantity is not limited. In 2001, more than 328 000 admissions of this type occurred, amounting to an increase of 11.5% and 230%, compared to 2000 and 1994. Similar trends exist in other OECD countries, especially in Central and Eastern Europe which attracts significant foreign direct investment from the European Union. In 2000, the Czech Republic received the second highest amount of foreign direct investment among OECD countries (as a percentage of GDP). It also accepted a significant number of foreign nationals from other OECD countries in 2000, notably from Germany (1 452 permits), the United States (1 356 permits) and the United Kingdom (1 112 permits). Other countries, such as Poland and Hungary, are also increasingly receiving highly skilled workers from the European Union.

Table I.2. **Intracompany transferees in selected OECD countries, 1996-2001**

	Thousands					
	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001
Austria ¹	0.2	1.0	1.2	1.9
Canada ²	..	2.1	2.8	2.5	3.0	3.3
France	0.8	1.0	1.1	1.8	2.2	2.3
Japan	2.8	3.4	3.5	3.8	3.9	3.5
Netherlands	1.6	2.3	2.7	2.5
United Kingdom	13.0	18.0	22.0	15.0	16.0	17.0
United States (visa L1)	140.5	..	203.3	234.4	294.7	328.5

1. Stock of non-EU intracompany transferees workers who hold a residence permit on 1 July of the given year.

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

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

Finally, cross-border workers are of growing importance, even though they originate from a limited number of countries (see Table I.3). In Switzerland, the number of cross-border permits grew by 7.8% between 2000 and 2001 to 168 000. Nearly 85 000 permits were granted to French nationals, 38 000 to Italians, 35 000 to Germans and 7 500 to Austrians. Luxembourg also had a large number of cross-border workers (98 800 in 2001, 90 700 in 2000, 59 600 in 1996) representing 38% of total employment in the country.

Table I.3. **Cross-border workers in selected OECD countries, 1996-2001**

	Thousands					
	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001
Austria ¹	2.1	4.0	5.2	5.4
Belgium	20.5	22.9	25.0	28.7
Germany ²	..	16.3	9.7	8.8	9.4	..
Luxembourg ³	59.6	64.4	72.9	80.6	90.7	98.8
Switzerland	147.0	142.2	142.5	144.8	156.0	168.1

| Break in series.

1. Stock of non-EU cross-border workers who hold a residence permit on 1 July of the given year.

2. Flow data (including renewals of permits).

3. Before 1998, data referred to annual average and, since 1998, data refer to the end of the year.

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

The share of family-related migration has fallen slightly

In 2001, due to increasingly widespread labour-related migration, the share comprised by family migration (accompanying family members and family reunification) in total entries by the foreign or foreign-born populations generally declined in many OECD member countries (see Chart I.2).

In the United Kingdom, for example, the share of family-related migration as a proportion of total immigration flows from third countries fell dramatically between 1999 and 2000 from 46% to 34%. A similar change occurred in several OECD countries: in Australia the share of family-related migration fell from 37% in 1999/2000 to 32% in 2000/2001, in Switzerland (46% in 1999 compared to 41% in 2001) and in New Zealand (28% in 1999/2000 compared to 22% in 2001/02).

Even countries with traditionally important family-related migration flows are registering a decrease in those flows. For example, France admitted a significant number of family members (83 200 in 2001), but the increase in labour-related entries was so great that it partially hid that related to family reunification. As a proportion of all inflows, family reunification fell from 79% in 2000 to 72% in 2001. Similarly, in the United States, family reunification made up only 70% of all admissions in 2001 compared to 83% in 1999. In Canada, though, family members maintained a constant share of total permanent admissions (about 60%), illustrating a migration policy seeking to stabilise the distribution of immigrants by category.

Some European OECD countries have recently introduced measures with the purpose of limiting entry by family members. This is the case, for example, in Italy, the Netherlands and Denmark. Although it is still too soon to judge the impact of such measures, data partially available for 2002 indicate a drop in this category of admissions in the relevant countries.

The family component was still dominant in several OECD countries in 2001, particularly in France, the United States and Canada. Some Nordic countries also admitted a significant number of refugees accompanied by their family (Sweden, Norway and Denmark). In each of these countries, the share of family migration is greater than 50%, while this share is much lower in Australia (32%) and the United Kingdom (34%).

Chart I.2. **Permanent and long-term immigration flows into selected OECD countries by main categories¹ in 2001**

Percentage of total inflows



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

1. For Australia, Canada, the United States, Norway and Sweden, data concern acceptances for settlement. For Denmark, France, Portugal and Switzerland, entries correspond to residence permits usually delivered for a period longer than one year. For the United Kingdom, data are based on entry control at ports of certain categories of migrants (excluding EEA citizens). For Australia, "Workers" includes accompanying dependents who are included in the category "family reunification" for all other countries.
2. Data refer to fiscal year (July 2000 to June 2001). Category "Workers" includes accompanying dependents. Excluding citizens from New Zealand who do not 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. Category "Workers" includes specialists and other permits that constitute grounds for permanent residence in Norway. Non-renewable permits are not included.
5. Entries of EU family members are estimated. Excluding visitors. Among those who benefited from the regularisation programme, only those who received a permit under the family reunification procedure are counted. The "family" category also includes spouses of French citizens and Scientists; parents of French children; and those with family relationships, who received the new permit "vie privée et familiale".
6. Data refer to fiscal year (October 2000 to September 2001). Excluding immigrants who obtained a permanent residence permit following the 1986 Immigration Reform and Control Act (IRCA).
7. Excluding Nordic and EEA citizens.

Sources: National Statistical Offices.

Controlling the growth of asylum requests

After reaching a peak at the beginning of the 1990s due to the crisis in the former Yugoslavia, flows of asylum seekers have gradually diminished in most OECD countries. Main host countries reacted by speeding up procedures for deciding asylum applications, by introducing restrictive measures such as extending the number of countries subject to visa requirements or by limiting the legal appeal channels. In 2000 and 2001, however, the increase in regional conflicts, especially in the Middle East, Asia Minor and sub-Saharan Africa, inflated the number of asylum seekers throughout the OECD area, particularly in the Nordic countries, the United Kingdom and Switzerland.

In 2002, two groups of countries emerged (see Table I.4). The first comprised those countries that, despite measures to control flows of asylum seekers, did not completely succeed in reversing their growth. The United Kingdom, for example, received around 110 700 asylum applications in 2002, accounting for just under one-fifth of all those made in the OECD area. Austria and Sweden were in a similar situation with twice as many applications in 2002 as in 2000. In France, the number of applications has grown continuously since 1996: around 51 000 applications were filed in 2002, with an additional 31 000 requests made in country (a growth of 125% over the previous year). Finland, Ireland, Norway, Poland, the Slovak Republic and Switzerland are in a comparable situation, although the relevant numbers are much smaller. The explanation for this situation partly lies in the attractiveness of these countries as well as in the technical

Table I.4. **Inflows of asylum seekers in 2002**
Thousands and percentages

	Thousands	Average 1990-2001	2001-2002 % change
United Kingdom	110.7	57.3	20.3
United States	81.1	91.7	28.3
Germany	71.1	170.5	-19.5
France	51.1	31.9	8.0
Austria	37.1	14.8	23.0
Canada	33.4	29.6	-19.6
Sweden	33.0	23.8	40.4
Switzerland	26.2	26.7	27.1
Belgium	18.8	20.6	-23.4
Netherlands	18.7	33.5	-42.7
Norway	17.5	6.7	18.2
Ireland	11.6	3.3	12.7
Slovak Republic	9.7	1.3	19.5
Czech Republic	8.5	4.3	-53.1
Italy	7.3	10.7	-45.7
Denmark	6.7	10.6	-35.5
Hungary	6.4	4.1	-32.9
Spain	6.2	8.4	-34.9
Australia	6.0	9.6	-54.2
Greece	5.7	2.6	2.6
Poland	5.2	2.5	14.2
Turkey	3.8	5.5	-26.7
Finland	3.4	1.9	108.5
Bulgaria	2.9	1.0	18.6
Romania	1.1	1.4	-54.4
Luxembourg	1.0	0.6	51.4
New Zealand	1.0	1.2	-36.1
Japan	0.3	0.2	-28.6
Portugal	0.2	0.4	26.9
EU	382.6	390.3	-1.9
Central and Eastern Europe¹	33.8	12.4	-25.2
North America	114.6	121.3	9.3
OECD¹	581.7	567.5	-1.5

1. Above countries only.

Sources: Refer to notes for Table A.1.3 at the end of the Statistical Annex; United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees.

difficulties countries face in making their asylum decision process more efficient, while guaranteeing the right to asylum under the Geneva Convention.

The second group of countries is distinguished by the recent reversal in the growth of asylum seekers, often beginning only in 2002. This occurred, for example, in Australia (-54.2% between 2001 and 2002), the Netherlands (-42.7%), Denmark (-35.5%), Belgium (-23.4%) and Germany (-19.6%). Some of these countries sent strong messages to asylum seekers in 2001 or 2002 by reinforcing their control and detention measures or by speeding up decision-making processes (see Part I.C below).

Given the influence of geopolitical events on asylum seeker flows, the impact of these measures can be evaluated only in the medium or long-term. The question of whether constant or receding flows in several OECD countries could cause a reallocation of asylum requests to other member countries should also be considered.

In 2002, the United Kingdom received the greatest number of asylum applications, followed by the United States, Germany, France and Canada (see Table I.4). The United Kingdom recorded 30 000 more asylum applications than the United States, where 81 000 requests were made in 2002. Germany received 71 000 asylum applications under the Geneva Convention, 40% more than in France (51 100) and double those in Austria (37 100).

Expressing the number of asylum applications relative to the total population, selected countries were ranked in the following decreasing order: Austria (4.6‰) was first, ahead of Norway (3.9‰), Sweden (3.7‰), Switzerland (3.7‰) and Ireland (3.1‰). The United Kingdom was in the eighth position (1.9‰) and the United States ranked 26th (0.3‰).

In 2002, in terms of nationalities, the largest group of asylum applications in OECD countries were made by Iraqis (around 51 000), closely followed by Afghan nationals with 25 700 applications, down 50% from the previous year. There were 33 000 applications from nationals of the former Yugoslavia, 29 600 applications from Turks and 26 300 from Chinese. The distribution of applications for asylum by nationality of origin, however, varies per host country (see the Statistical Annex, Table B.1.3). Germany, Denmark and the United Kingdom mainly receive applications from Iraqis and Afghans, while Austria, Switzerland, Norway and Sweden receive applications from nationals of the former Yugoslavia. Australia and the United States receive applications from Chinese. Moreover, the entrance of asylum applicants is influenced, like other components of migration flows, by geographical proximity and historical links between origin and host countries. Thus, most Zimbabweans apply for asylum in the United Kingdom, nationals of the Democratic Republic of Congo in Belgium, Algerians in France, Indonesians in Australia, Russians in Poland, Cubans in Spain, Mexicans and Colombians in the United States and Angolans in Portugal.

Only some asylum applicants, however, receive refugee status under the Geneva Convention or similar provisions (humanitarian refugees). The approval rate, based on the number of files examined for the first time in 2001, was usually lower than 30% and varied significantly by host country (for more details, see the previous edition of *Trends in International Migration*).

c) A continuing increase in international student mobility

One of the most striking features of the recent changes in international migration flows is the emergence of a “new” category of admissions: foreign students. They join the three main categories of migration described earlier (family reunification, refugees and asylum seekers and employment-related migration).

Indeed, an increasing number of students are seizing the opportunity offered to them to study or complete their curriculum abroad (see Table I.5). Language skills are increasingly essential for positions of responsibility and skilled jobs. Furthermore, employers frequently view cultural experience acquired abroad as an additional advantage. The possibility offered to students by OECD member states to enter their job markets is another factor of this increase. Host countries compete to develop trade in education and to attract foreign students who will constitute a potential reserve of highly skilled labour that is familiar with the labour market rules and practices prevailing in the host country.

In 2001, there were about 475 000 foreign students in the United States, the same as the previous year. This number is greater than the combined stocks registered in Germany and the United Kingdom (respectively, 226 000 and 199 000 in 2001). In Japan, the number of foreign students has been on the rise for several years. More than half are Chinese and 18.7% are Korean. Foreign student stocks have increased between 2000 and 2001 by 35% in New Zealand and 14.4% Australia (respectively, 11 000 and 121 000 in 2001), thus illustrating a large-scale strategy to create an international university environment in these countries. According to Citizenship Immigration Canada, 74 000 new foreign students registered in Canada in 2001 (about 10 000 more than in 2000), which brings the total stock to nearly 137 000 foreign students.

The trend of growing foreign student admissions has also been observed in Europe. France, for instance, hosted 40 000 new students from non-EU member states in 2001

Table I.5. Stock of foreign students in selected OECD countries, 2001

Thousands and percentages

	Thousands	<i>Of which: from an OECD country (%)</i>
United States	475.2	36.6
United Kingdom	225.7	58.9
Germany	199.1	52.0
France	147.4	28.1
Australia	121.0	22.4
Japan	63.6	33.4
Spain	39.9	64.6
Belgium	38.2	59.8
Austria	31.7	69.4
Italy	29.2	44.2
Switzerland	27.8	72.1
Sweden	26.3	60.1
Turkey	16.7	10.1
Netherlands	16.6	59.3
Denmark	12.5	42.6
Hungary	11.2	38.4
New Zealand	11.1	23.9
Norway	8.8	48.0
Ireland	8.2	75.8
Czech Republic	7.8	61.4
Poland	6.7	24.6
Finland	6.3	35.4
Korea	3.9	26.1
Mexico	1.9	37.2
Slovak Republic	1.7	39.1
Iceland	0.4	81.5

Source: Database on Education, OECD.

(compared to 25 000 in 1999) to reach a total stock of nearly 147 400 in 2001. Important growth rates have been registered in Sweden and Norway (+26% each between 2000 and 2001), the Czech Republic (+36%), Hungary (+14%), as well as Ireland (+11%) and Italy (+17.4%).

d) Changes in the geographic definition of migration inflows

For several years, *Trends in International Migration* has put emphasis on the combination of traditional migration flows with emerging new itineraries. This recent period confirms the dual trend, but also highlights how migration flows are increasingly polarised.

Chart I.3 presents a comparison of the structure and changes of inflows in selected OECD member countries for the principal countries of origin. The first distinctive trend is the predominance of a few origin countries in most of the countries considered. These flows include citizens from New Zealand in Australia, Chinese nationals in Canada and Japan, Iraqis in Denmark and Sweden, Russians in Finland, Poles in Germany, Moroccans and Algerians in France, Romanians in Hungary and Mexicans in the United States. In some countries, the concentration is even more noticeable, such as in Luxemburg, Japan and Hungary, where the five top nationalities account for more than 60% of total inflows. In the Netherlands and Germany, the ten top nationalities represent respectively only 36.3% and 46.8% of the inflows.

The predominance of a few countries of origin in migration flows can be attributed to different factors: geographical proximity; historical and cultural ties; or a large presence of refugees and asylum seekers. In most cases, these trends stem from relatively traditional migration movements. Instead of decreasing, these flows are actually getting stronger. For instance, in France, the share of nationals from West African countries in family immigration is significantly on the rise (by more than 60%). The same can be said for nationals from the Commonwealth countries (mainly India, South Africa and Pakistan) entering the United Kingdom, from other Scandinavian countries entering Sweden, from France or Belgium entering Luxemburg and of Brazilians in Japan.

Chart I.3 shows the dynamic nature of migration flows, by comparing the average inflows during the 1990s (dotted line) with those for 2001 (in blue). For a given host country, the area not coloured in blue indicates that the share attributed to this country of origin in overall flows is lower than the average for the 1990s. For example, even though Mexico continues to be the leading source of immigration to the United States, the proportion of Mexicans in overall flows has fallen from 27.6% on average in the 1990s to less than 19.5% in 2001. A similar trend is observable for Britons in Australia, Russians and Estonians in Finland, Moroccans and Turks in the Netherlands, Koreans in Japan and the Portuguese in Switzerland and Luxemburg. The trend is even more pronounced for nationals of countries of the former Yugoslavia moving to Sweden, Switzerland and Denmark (where they are no longer part of the top ten countries of origin in 2001).

New migration movements are emerging in parallel with the continuing traditional flows. The emergence of new countries of origin, as shown in Chart I.3 by the blue area significantly surpassing the dotted area, is visible in the case of Iraqis and Afghans in Denmark, Chinese nationals in Canada and even New Zealand nationals in Australia. For several years, arrivals of Asian nationals, especially Chinese and Filipinos, and the increase in inflows from Russia and Ukraine have been observed within these movements. The year 2001 confirms this changing trend, but does not accurately highlight new nationalities.

Chart I.3. **Change in inflows of migrants by country of origin to selected OECD countries, 1990-2000 and 2001**

2001 top ten countries of origin as a per cent of total inflows¹

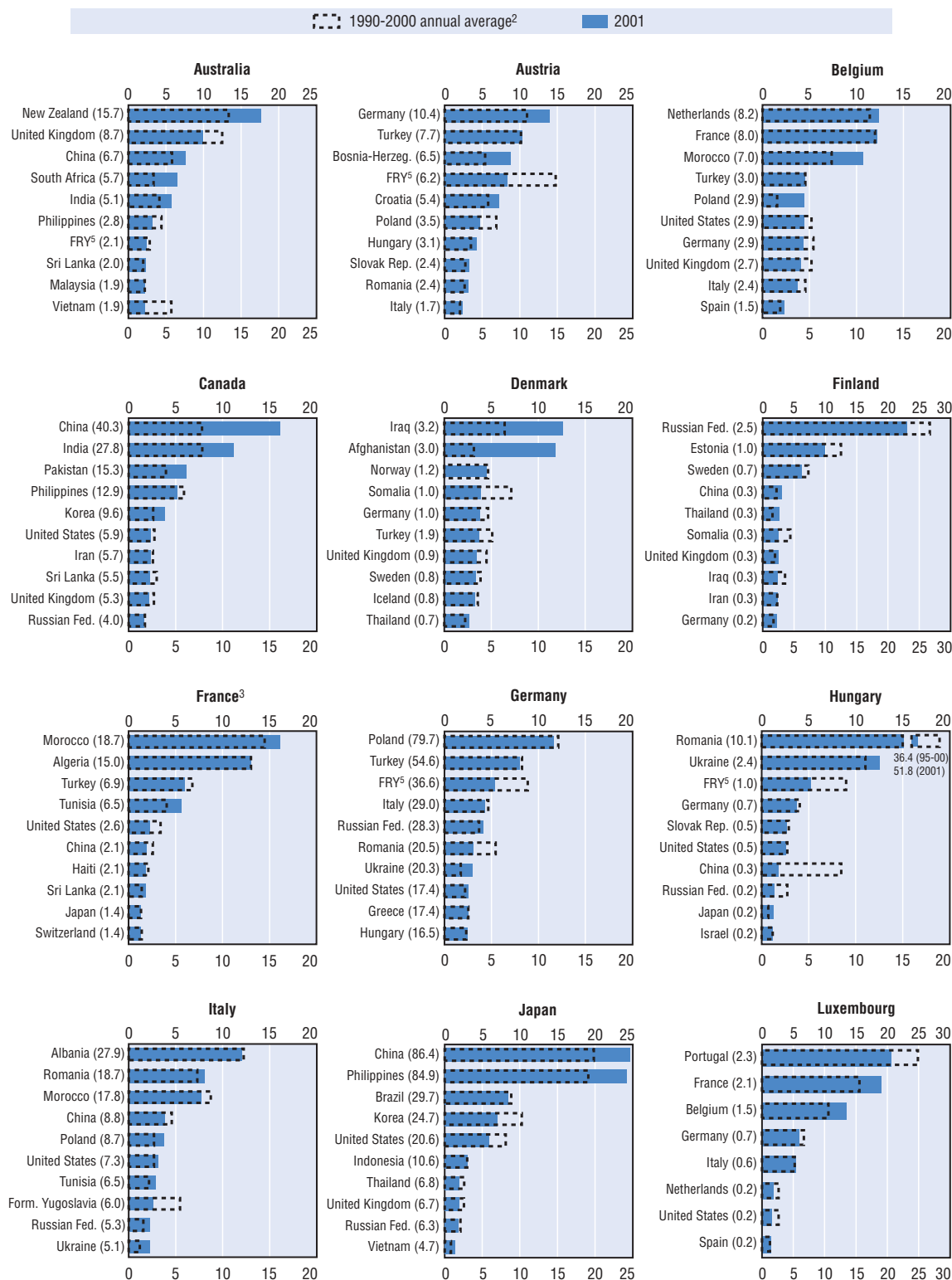
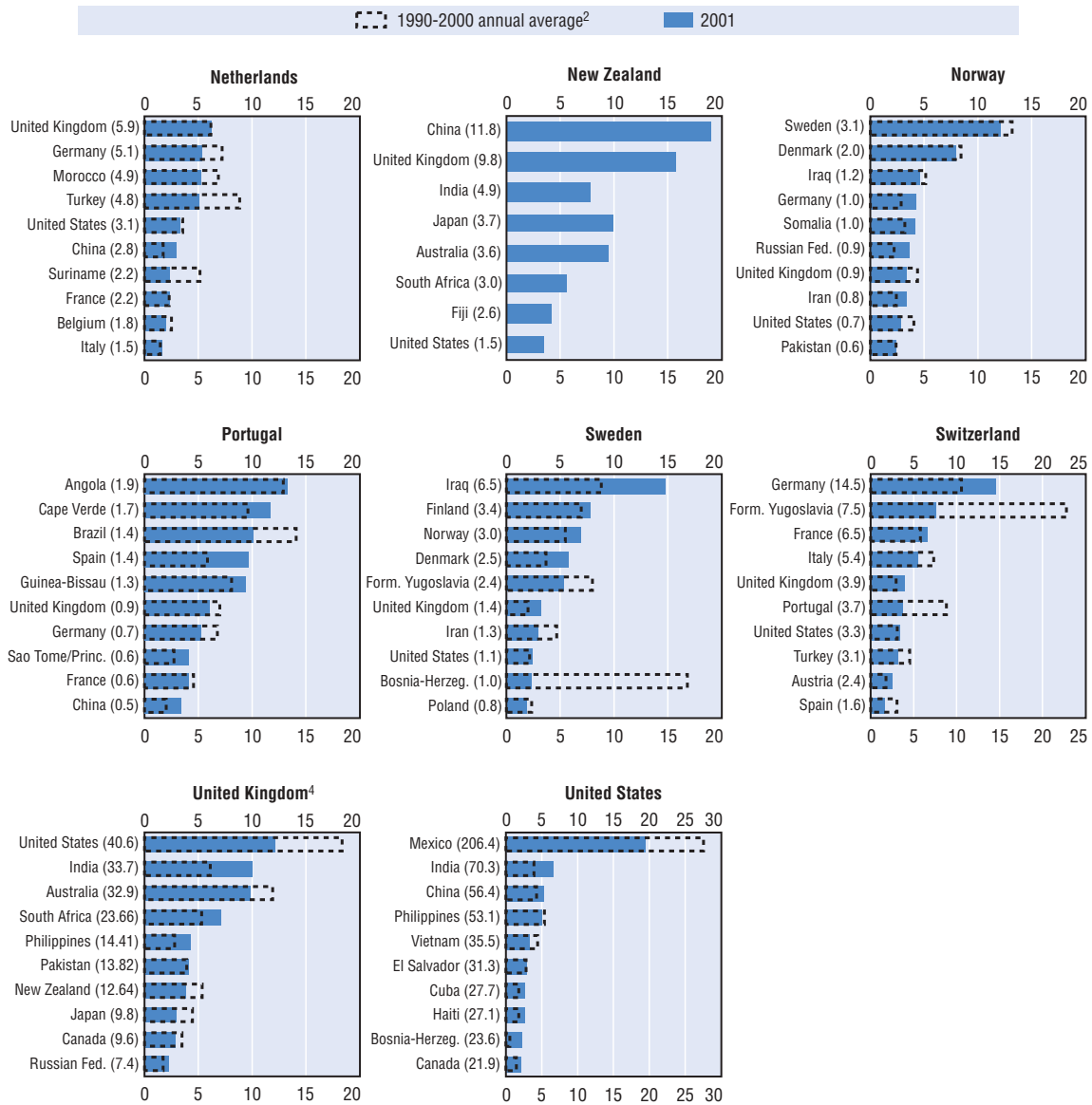


Chart I.3. **Change in inflows of migrants by country of origin to selected OECD countries, 1990-2000 and 2001 (cont.)**
2001 top ten countries of origin as a per cent of total inflows¹



Note: The top 10 source countries are presented by decreasing order. Data for Australia, Canada, New Zealand and the United States refer to inflows of permanent settlers by country of birth; for France, Italy and Portugal to the issue 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 2001. For Australia, New Zealand and the United States data refer to fiscal years.
2. Annual average flows for the period 1990-2000 except for Japan, Finland, United Kingdom and Portugal (1992-2000), Belgium (1991-2000), Hungary (1995-2000), Austria and Italy (1998-2000).
3. 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.
4. 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 after short stays abroad or who previously settled).
5. FRY: Federal Republic of Yugoslavia.

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

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 2001

Top 5 nationalities (according to the 2001 volume of inflows)	Inflows of foreigners in 2001 ¹	Stocks of foreigners in 2000 ²	(A)/(B)	Top 5 nationalities (according to the 2001 volume of inflows)	Inflows of foreigners in 2001 ¹	Stocks of foreigners in 2000 ²	(A)/(B)
	% of total inflows (A)	% of total stock of foreigners (B)			% of total inflows (A)	% of total stock of foreigners (B)	
Australia				Austria			
New Zealand	17.6	8.3	2.1	Germany	13.9
United Kingdom	9.8	26.9	0.4	Turkey	10.3	17.3	0.6
China	7.5	3.7	2.0	Bosnia-Herzegovina	8.7	45.1	0.5
South Africa	6.4	1.8	3.6	Federal Republic of Yugoslavia	8.3		
India	5.7	2.4	2.3	Croatia	7.2		
<i>Total (in thousands)</i>	<i>88.9</i>	<i>4 517.0</i>		<i>Total (in thousands)</i>	<i>74.8</i>	<i>775.9</i>	
Belgium				Canada			
Netherlands	12.4	10.3	1.2	China	16.1	6.1	2.6
France	12.2	12.7	1.0	India	11.1	5.8	1.9
Morocco	10.7	12.4	0.9	Pakistan	6.1	1.5	4.2
Turkey	4.5	6.5	0.7	Philippines	5.2	4.3	1.2
Poland	4.4	0.8	5.5	Korea	3.8	1.3	3.0
<i>Total (in thousands)</i>	<i>66.0</i>	<i>861.7</i>		<i>Total (in thousands)</i>	<i>250.3</i>	<i>5 448.5</i>	
Denmark				Finland			
Iraq	12.6	5.3	2.4	Russian Federation	23.0	22.6	1.0
Afghanistan	11.9	1.6	7.3	Estonia	9.9	11.9	0.8
Norway	4.7	5.0	0.9	Sweden	6.1	8.7	0.7
Somalia	3.8	5.6	0.7	China	3.0	1.8	1.6
Germany	3.8	4.9	0.8	Thailand	2.6	1.4	1.8
<i>Total (in thousands)</i>	<i>25.2</i>	<i>258.6</i>		<i>Total (in thousands)</i>	<i>11.0</i>	<i>91.1</i>	
France				Germany			
Morocco	16.1	15.4	1.0	Poland	11.6	4.1	2.8
Algeria	13.0	14.6	0.9	Turkey	8.0	27.4	0.3
Turkey	5.9	6.4	0.9	Federal Republic of Yugoslavia	5.3	14.9	0.4
Tunisia	5.6	4.7	1.2	Italy	4.2	8.5	0.5
United States	2.2	0.7	3.2	Russian Federation	4.1	1.6	2.6
<i>Total (in thousands)</i>	<i>128.1</i>	<i>3 263.2</i>		<i>Total (in thousands)</i>	<i>685.3</i>	<i>7 296.9</i>	
Hungary				Italy			
Romania	51.8	37.8	1.4	Albania	12.0	10.2	1.2
Ukraine	12.5	8.1	1.5	Romania	8.0	5.0	1.6
Former Yugoslavia	5.2	11.5	0.5	Morocco	7.7	11.5	0.7
Germany	3.7	6.8	0.5	China	3.8	4.3	0.9
Slovak Republic	2.6	1.4	1.8	Poland	3.8	2.3	1.7
<i>Total (in thousands)</i>	<i>19.5</i>	<i>110.0</i>		<i>Total (in thousands)</i>	<i>232.8</i>	<i>1 388.2</i>	
Japan				Luxembourg			
China	24.6	19.9	1.2	Portugal	20.6	35.5	0.6
Philippines	24.2	8.6	2.8	France	19.1	12.2	1.6
Brazil	8.5	15.1	0.6	Belgium	13.4	9.2	1.5
Korea	7.0	37.7	0.2	Germany	5.9	6.4	0.9
United States	5.9	2.7	2.2	Italy	5.4	12.3	0.4
<i>Total (in thousands)</i>	<i>351.2</i>	<i>1 686.4</i>		<i>Total (in thousands)</i>	<i>11.1</i>	<i>164.7</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 2001

Top 5 nationalities (according to the 2001 volume of inflows)	Inflows	Stocks	(A)/(B)	Top 5 nationalities (according to the 2001 volume of inflows)	Inflows	Stocks	(A)/(B)
	of foreigners	of foreigners			of foreigners	of foreigners	
	in 2001 ¹	in 2000 ²			in 2001 ¹	in 2000 ²	
	% of total	% of total		% of total	% of total		
	inflows	stock		inflows	stock		
	(A)	of foreigners		(A)	of foreigners		
	(B)	(B)		(B)	(B)		
Netherlands				New Zealand			
United Kingdom	6.2	6.2	1.0	China	19.1	5.6	3.4
Germany	5.4	8.2	0.7	United Kingdom	15.8	31.3	0.5
Morocco	5.2	16.7	0.3	India	7.8	3.0	2.6
Turkey	5.1	15.1	0.3	Japan	5.9	1.2	4.8
United States	3.3	2.2	1.5	Australia	5.9	8.1	0.7
<i>Total (in thousands)</i>	<i>94.5</i>	<i>667.8</i>		<i>Total (in thousands)</i>	<i>62.1</i>	<i>698.6</i>	
Norway				Portugal			
Sweden	12.1	13.7	0.9	Angola	13.3	9.8	1.4
Denmark	7.9	10.5	0.8	Cape Verde	11.7	22.6	0.5
Iraq	4.6	5.4	0.9	Brazil	10.1	10.7	0.9
Germany	4.3	3.8	1.1	Spain	9.7	5.9	1.6
Somalia	4.2	3.3	1.2	Guinea-Bissau	9.4	7.7	1.2
<i>Total (in thousands)</i>	<i>25.4</i>	<i>184.3</i>		<i>Total (in thousands)</i>	<i>14.2</i>	<i>208.0</i>	
Sweden				Switzerland			
Iraq	14.8	6.9	2.1	Germany	14.6	8.0	1.8
Finland	7.8	20.7	0.4	Former Yugoslavia	7.5	24.4	0.3
Norway	6.9	6.7	1.0	France	6.5	4.4	1.5
Denmark	5.7	5.4	1.1	Italy	5.4	23.2	0.2
Former Yugoslavia	5.4	4.2	1.3	United Kingdom	3.9	1.5	2.6
<i>Total (in thousands)</i>	<i>44.1</i>	<i>476.0</i>		<i>Total (in thousands)</i>	<i>99.5</i>	<i>1 384.4</i>	
United Kingdom				United States			
United States	12.1	4.9	2.5	Mexico	19.4	29.5	0.7
India	10.0	6.5	1.5	India	6.6	3.3	2.0
Australia	9.8	3.2	3.1	China	5.3	3.2	1.7
South Africa	7.0	2.3	3.1	Philippines	5.0	4.4	1.1
Philippines	4.3	0.9	5.0	Vietnam	3.3	3.2	1.0
<i>Total (in thousands)</i>	<i>373.3</i>	<i>2 342.0</i>		<i>Total (in thousands)</i>	<i>1 064.3</i>	<i>31 107.9</i>	

1. For Australia, New Zealand and United States, data relate to fiscal year.

2. Stock of foreign-born population for Australia, Canada (2001 Census), New Zealand (2001 census) and the United States. Stock of foreigners for France is from 1999 census, except for US citizens where data are from 1990 Census.

Sources: National Statistical Offices (see notes for Tables A.1.1., A.1.4 and A.1.5. at the end of the Statistical Annex).

Table I.6 illustrates the emergence of new migration flows for selected host countries by dividing the five main sending countries' share of total inflows by their share of the total of foreign or foreign-born populations. Thus, a value of 1 for a given sending country indicates that its share in inflows is the same as its share in the total foreign stock. This is the case for Russians in Finland or Vietnamese in the United States. If the value is greater than 1, this could reflect an emerging source country in inflows. In the case of Australia and the United Kingdom, for example, the ratio is especially high for South African nationals because their share of inflows is more than three times their share of the total number of foreigners. Chinese nationals in New Zealand, Pakistanis and Koreans in Canada and Poles in Belgium follow a similar pattern.

Recent measures taken to step up border controls especially at ports and airports – as the result of the international fight against terrorism and the will of OECD countries to fight illegal migration – may have reinforced the geographical factors relating to migration flows. For example, migration flows from the Maghreb concentrate on Southern European countries (Italy has officially hosted more Moroccans than France and Belgium combined in 2000, and as many as France in 2001). This notion is also illustrated by recent migration changes in Central and Eastern European countries candidates to the European Union and by the regional concentration of Asian migration (Chinese immigrants account for one quarter of admissions in Japan in 2001, i.e. twice that of 1990). Similarly, increasing numbers of nationals from Guatemala, Honduras and El Salvador are emigrating to Mexico, perhaps with the intention of ultimately reaching the United States.

The increasing mobility among OECD countries is another important trend in recent years, especially concerning highly skilled workers. The number of nationals from European Union countries in the United States has grown by 32% between 2000 and 2001 (18 400 Britons, 9 900 Germans and 4 600 French citizens in 2001), even though it had doubled between 1999 and 2001.⁴ Similarly, the number of Japanese and Koreans admitted in the United States increased respectively from 4 200 to 9 600 and 12 800 to 20 700. This trend, however, was reversed in 2002, given the change in the global economy and the difficulties in the sector of new technologies. At the same time, the United States is listed in 13 of the 19 host countries studied in Chart I.3 among the top ten countries of origin. American nationals are particularly numerous in the United Kingdom, Japan and Germany.

It is also necessary to highlight the increase in migration from Central and Eastern European countries candidates to the European Union for 2004, notably, nationals from Poland (at least 120 000 lived in all OECD countries in 2001, up by 12% on the previous year) and Hungary (about 22 000 in OECD countries in 2001, up by 11% on the previous year).

2. Change in the foreign population

a) The foreign and immigrant populations are increasing and diversifying...

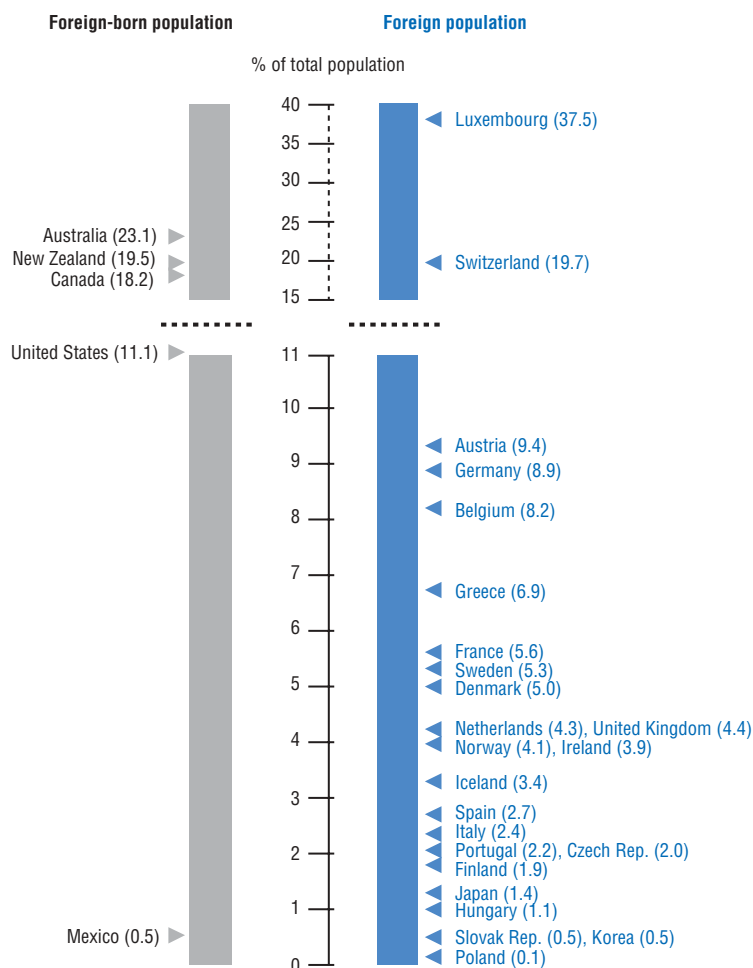
In the main settlement countries (Australia, New Zealand and Canada), immigrants accounted for a large share of the resident population in 2001: respectively 23.1%, 19.5% and more than 18.2% (see Chart I.4). In the United States, the number of foreign-born persons amounted to 31.8 million or 11.1% of the total population in 2001.

The foreign share of the total population varies widely across the European OECD countries. In 2001, it was very high in Luxembourg (37.3%) and Switzerland (19.7%). In other traditional immigration countries, the foreign share ranged from 4.4% in the United Kingdom to 9.4% in Austria. The proportion was close to 8.9% in Germany and 8.2% in Belgium, compared to 4.3% in the Netherlands and 5.6% in France in 1999.

In the Northern European countries, the proportion of foreigners in the total population ranges from 4.1% in Norway to 5.3% in Sweden. It is much lower in Finland at only 1.9%. In the new immigration countries of Southern Europe, the foreign share has grown appreciably in recent years, although still remains relatively small. In 2001, foreign presence was at more than 2% of the total population in Italy, Spain and Portugal and nearly 7% in Greece (according to the latest census). In Spain, recent regularisation programmes have increased the percentage of foreigners to at least 3% in 2002. Similarly, in Ireland, a country that has long registered negative net migration, foreigners now account for 3.9% of the total population.

Chart I.4. **Stocks of foreign and foreign-born populations in selected OECD countries, 2001**

Percentages of total population



Note: 1999 for France, 2000 for Mexico.

Sources: National Statistical Institutes. For more details on sources, refer to the notes for Tables A.1.4 and A.1.5 at the end of the Statistical Annex.

In the OECD countries of Central and Eastern Europe (except for the Czech Republic) and Asia, the proportion of foreigners is still relatively low. It is about 1.4% in Japan, 1.1% in Hungary and no more than 0.5% in the Slovak Republic, Korea and Poland.

The change in the stocks of immigrants and foreigners varies across countries and depends on migration inflows and outflows, the demographic dynamics of foreign populations and the number of naturalisations, which reduces the stock of foreigners commensurately. In most OECD countries, the number of foreigners and immigrants has increased significantly during the past five years (see Table I.7). From the mid-1990s to 2000, the foreign population has grown considerably in Southern Europe. Amongst the other European countries, the United Kingdom, Ireland and Finland stand out with an average annual growth of more than 5% between 1996 and 2001. Similarly, in the United States, the number of foreign-born persons

Table I.7. **Foreign or foreign-born population in selected OECD countries, 1996 and 2001**

Thousands and percentages

	Foreign population			
	Thousands		Annual growth over the period (%)	Data source
	1996	2001		
Austria	728	764	0.97	R
Belgium	912	847	-1.47	R
Czech Republic	199	211	1.20	R
Denmark	238	267	2.33	R
Finland	74	99	5.97	R
France (1990-99)	3 597	3 263	-0.97	C
Germany	7 314	7 319	0.01	R
Greece	..	762	..	C
Hungary	143	116	-3.96	R
Iceland	..	10	..	R
Ireland	118	151	5.11	LFS
Italy	1 096	1 363	4.46	P
Japan	1 415	1 779	4.68	R
Korea	149	230	9.08	R
Luxembourg	143	167	3.14	R
Netherlands	680	690	0.31	R
Norway	158	186	3.37	R
Portugal	173	224 ¹	5.28	P
Slovak Republic	24	29	4.02	R
Spain	539	1 109	15.52	P
Sweden	527	476	-2.00	R
Switzerland	1 338	1 419	1.19	R
United Kingdom	1 934	2 587	5.99	LFS

	Foreign-born population			
	Thousands		Annual growth over the period (%)	Data source
	1996	2001		
Australia	4 259	4 482	1.29	E
Canada	4 971	5 448	1.85	C
Mexico (2000)	..	406	..	C
New Zealand	..	699	..	C
United States	24 600	31 811	5.28	LFS

Note: For details on sources, refer to the notes for Tables A.1.4 and A.1.5 at the end of the Statistical Annex.

1. Data do not include people with permanent permits: 179 165 permanent permits were issued between January 2001 and March 2003 with the 2001 regularisation programme.

Sources: C: Census;

E: Estimates by the national Statistical Institute;

LFS: Labour force survey;

P: Residence permits;

R: Population register or register of foreigners.

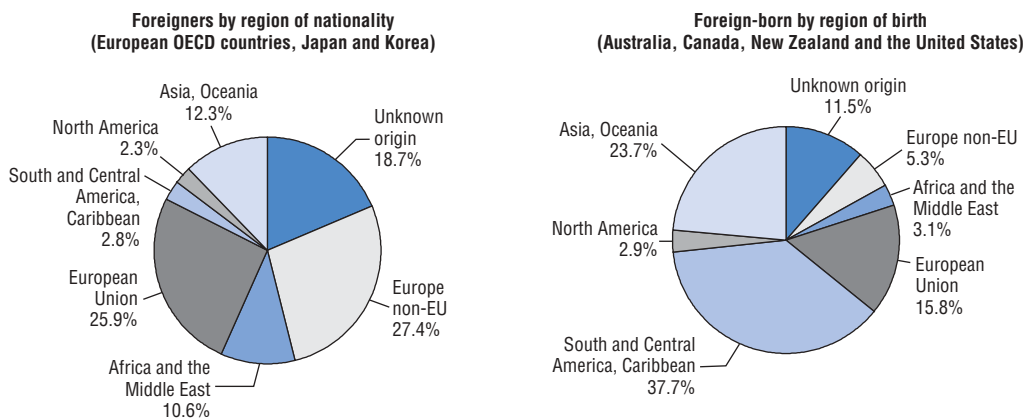
rose by more than 7 million during the same period. Korea and Japan also have experienced spectacular increases in the number of foreigners between 1996 and 2001 (respectively up 9% and 4.7% per year on average), even though Asian OECD countries host a relatively limited number of foreigners compared to their total populations.

With the exception of Belgium, stocks of foreigners and immigrants registered a positive growth between 2000 and 2001. The highest increases were observed in Ireland, Spain, Korea and the United Kingdom. For each of these countries, the aforementioned

long-term trends continued during 2001. Belgium, Sweden and France were notable exceptions, mainly because of the comparatively large number of naturalisations. In those three countries, even though inflows were on the rise, the total foreign population remained the same or even decreased slightly.

Chart I.5 shows the distribution of all foreigners and immigrants by region of origin. In the main countries of settlement (Australia, Canada, the United States and New Zealand), Latin America contributes to the largest share of the foreign-born (38%) mainly due to the important Mexican community residing in the United States. Persons of Asian origin are also well represented in the total foreign-born population (24%). Their distribution is much more evenly divided among countries than that of South Americans. With a mere 21% (of which 16% from European Union countries), Europe is much less represented than in the past.

Chart I.5. **Total stock of foreigners and foreign-born in OECD countries by region of origin, 2001**



Sources: National Statistical Institutes. For more details on sources, refer to the notes for Tables B.1.4 and B.1.5 at the end of the Statistical Annex.

In other OECD migration countries conducting censuses of foreigners, citizens from European Union countries account for 26% and nationals of other European countries represent 27%, for a total of 53% of all foreigners. Africa is also well-represented (11%), whereas South America and Asia are under-represented. Indeed, the Asian continent accounts for about 60% of the world population, but only 12% of foreigners in selected OECD countries. Generally, the size of the foreign population by nationality (see Statistical Annex, Tables B.1.4 and B.1.5) varies in each host country according to migration tradition, existing networks, employment opportunities and geographic proximity to the country of origin.

The foreign and foreign-born populations residing in OECD member countries include other member country nationals. Their number is relatively high, even though statistical analyses rarely single them out. In 2001, according to provisional available data, more than 47% of the foreigners and immigrants in OECD countries come from another member country. This percentage is especially high in Belgium and Luxemburg (75% and 86% respectively). In Switzerland, Germany, Australia and, to a lesser extent, New Zealand, the proportion is more than 50%. It is also high in the United States (47%) because of the Mexican presence, but much lower in Korea (19.5%), Austria (17.9%) and Italy (17.4%). The recent accession of six more

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 accentuated this trend.

b) ... and increasingly contribute to the total population growth in OECD countries

Migration plays a significant role in the annual population growth of many OECD countries in two ways. First, foreign or foreign-born populations contribute to the rate of natural increase (excess of births over deaths). The higher the fertility rate of foreign women relative to native women, the more significant the former's contribution. Second, when net migration is positive, the population of the host country grows by the same amount.

Chart I.6 shows the respective contributions of net migration (nationals and foreigners) and natural increase (excess of births over deaths) to total population growth in the European Union countries and other OECD member countries during the past three decades.

In the European Union and the European OECD countries (except for Ireland, France and Switzerland), migration has made a critical contribution to population growth for several years. The intensification of international migration flows mentioned earlier, along with a sluggish rate of natural increase, supports this phenomenon. For some years now, however, several European OECD countries would have seen their total population fall, were it not for an inflow of new immigrants. This has been the case in Germany since 1986, but also in Italy since 1993 and Sweden since 1997. This has not always been the case. In the early 1960s, natural increase was clearly a more important contributor, notably in the countries of Southern Europe but also in the Nordic countries. During the following two decades, natural increase and net migration followed opposite trends, as shown in Chart I.6 for the European Union.

Among the European Union countries, France and Ireland stand out as exceptions: their population growth rates are positive and have never fallen below 3‰ and 5‰ respectively. In France, the contribution of births (which has risen steadily since 1993) to total population growth remains higher than the impact of migration. This can be explained by the fact that the fertility rate in France and Ireland is higher than the European average.⁵ In the case of France, the relative importance of births by foreigners and those attributed to immigrants recently naturalised also contribute to this increase.

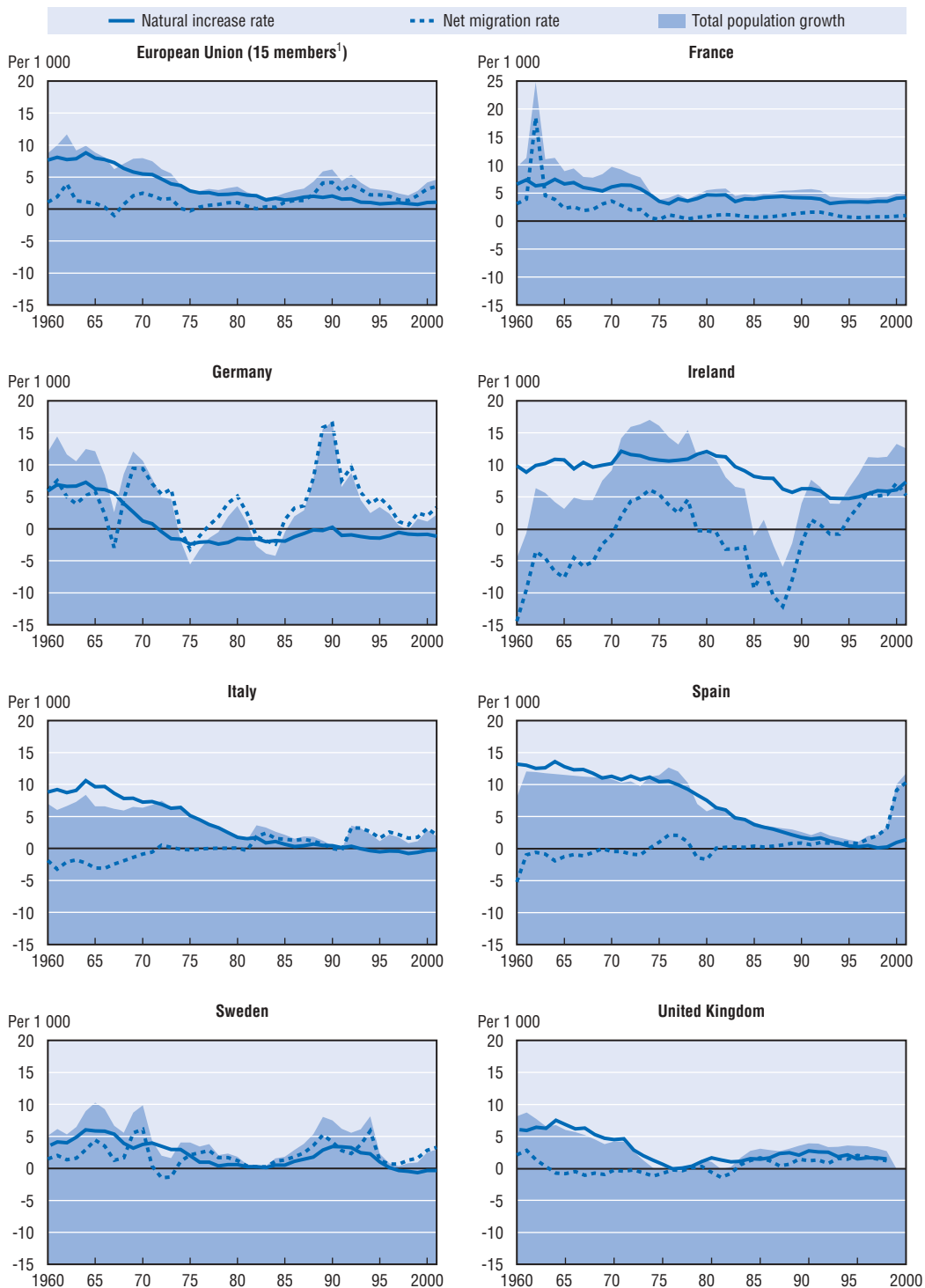
In other OECD countries, the natural rate of increase contributed to population growth. In several countries in 2001, however, the curve representing the natural increase rate converges with the net migration curve. This is the case in Australia, Canada, the United States, Japan and, to a lesser extent, New Zealand and continues to be true for Turkey and Mexico. In most of these countries, however, demographic growth remains high and is largely higher than the European average. Japan appears to be an exception with a low fertility rate combined with nearly nil net migration, thus implying a very low population growth rate.

In several European OECD countries, births to foreign and foreign-born nationals are a sizeable proportion of total births. Foreign births contribute to the natural population growth and thus can help slow down some effects of population ageing. Foreign births alone are not a perpetual solution, as the fertility rate of foreign women tends to converge with that of nationals over time. This demographic phenomenon is not inevitable, however, and depends essentially on continuous migration flows.

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

Chart I.6. **Components of total population growth in the European Union and selected OECD countries, 1960-2001**

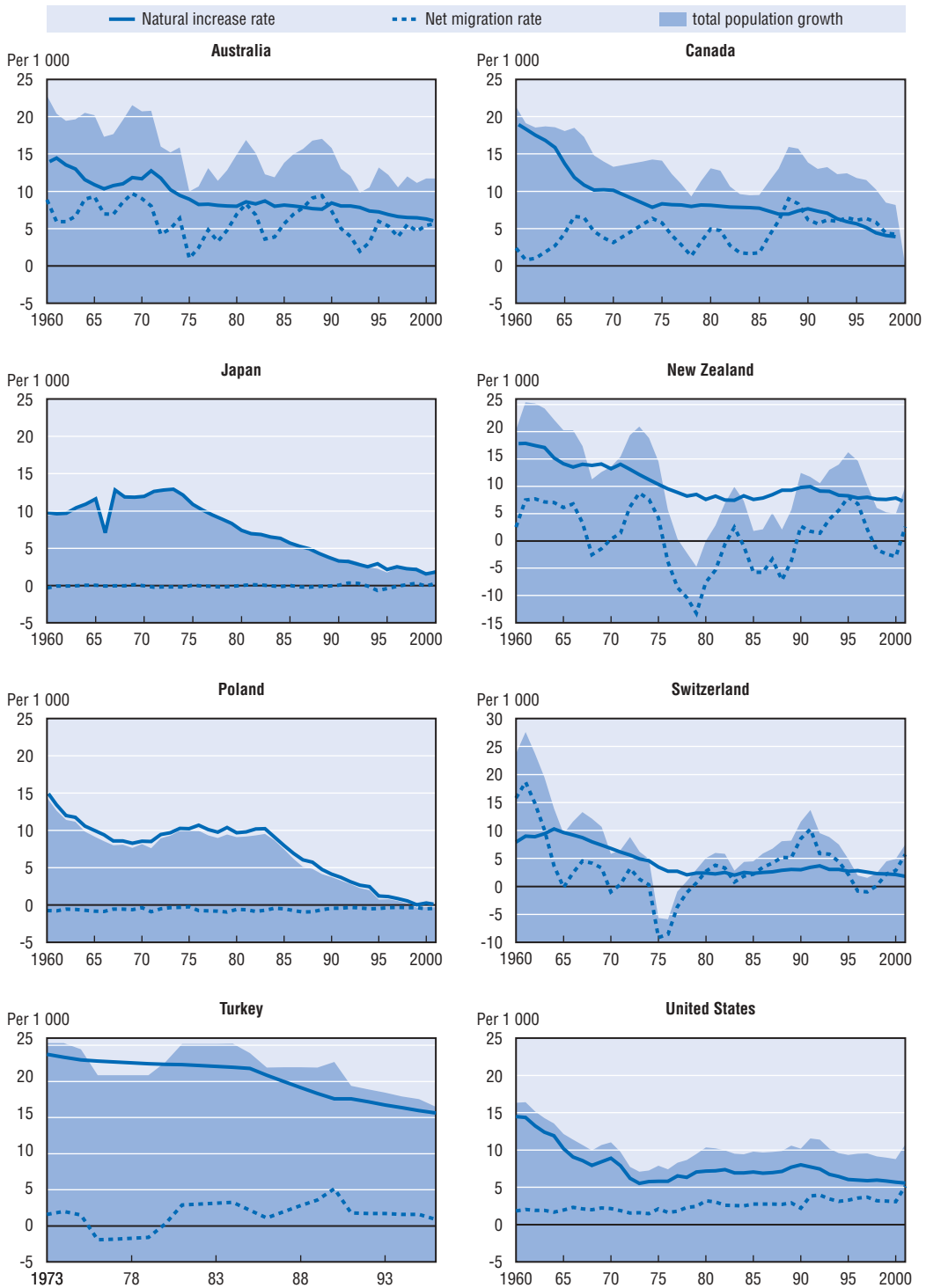
Per 1 000 inhabitants at the beginning of the year



1. Excluding Portugal and Greece for all years and the United Kingdom from 1999 on.

Source: Labour Force Statistics, OECD, 2002.

Chart I.6. Components of total population growth in the European Union and selected OECD countries, 1960-2001 (cont.)
Per 1 000 inhabitants at the beginning of the year



1. Excluding Portugal and Greece for all years and the United Kingdom from 1999 on.

Source: Labour Force Statistics, OECD, 2002.

according to whether the criterion adopted is the nationality of both parents, the mother or the father. Generally, since fertility is studied in relation to women, the nationality of reference chosen is that of the mother. In Germany, Belgium, Luxembourg, the Netherlands and Switzerland, foreign births are defined as children having foreign nationality. In France and Sweden, for example, foreign births are to female foreign nationals. In Japan, they are births to two parents of foreign nationality while in England and Wales, they are births to women born outside the United Kingdom.

The share of foreign births relative to all births is high in some OECD countries, notably in Europe. In 2000, this was the case in Luxemburg (49%) and in Switzerland (22.5%). In the United Kingdom (England and Wales only), Austria and Germany, however, foreign births accounted for more than 10% of total births. Italy, Finland, Japan and Hungary have significantly lower levels, largely due to the relatively small share of foreigners in the total population (for more details, see the previous edition of *Trends in International Migration*).

According to demographic projections by the United Nations, European Union and Japanese populations are expected to fall respectively by 10% and 14% between 2000 and 2050. The projections for the United States point to an increase in the total population accompanied by increases in the dependency ratio (i.e. the number of persons aged 65 and older as a percentage of the working age population, aged 20-64). OECD studies also show that it is not possible to use immigration to alleviate the effects of population ageing (see previous editions of *Trends in International Migration*). Leaving aside the unrealistic increases in inflows these arguments imply, experience shows that i) it is impossible to fully control the level of net migration and the age structure of inflows and outflows; ii) the higher fertility rates attributed to foreign women decline very rapidly with the length of stay to the level of native women's rates; and iii) the foreign population is also ageing.

B. Immigrants and the labour market

Given the increasing importance of labour-related migration and the economic and structural changes occurring in OECD countries (e.g. economic slowdown, ageing populations, persistent skilled labour shortages), it is particularly relevant to examine the status and role of foreign workers in the labour market.

This first part of this section is devoted to describing the status of foreigners and immigrants in the labour markets of OECD countries. The second part analyses the performance of foreigners in the labour market during this past decade, which was characterised by rapid economic expansion in most countries.

1. The status of foreigners in the labour markets of OECD countries in 2002

a) Foreigners and immigrants contributed significantly to the labour force...

In 2002, foreigners and immigrants comprised an important segment of the labour force in several OECD countries (see Table I.8). In settlement countries (Australia, Canada, New Zealand and the United States), foreigners and immigrants represented between 15% and 20% of the workforce. Foreigners were also well-represented in several European labour markets, such as in Luxembourg (43.2% of foreigners in the labour force), Switzerland (21.8%), and to a lesser extent, Austria (9.9%), Germany (8.9%), Belgium (8.2%) and France (6.2%).

Table I.8. **Foreign or foreign-born labour force in selected OECD countries, 1995 and 2002**

Thousands and percentages

	Foreign labour force				Source data
	Thousands		% of total labour force		
	1995	2002	1995	2002	
Austria	366	387	9.7	9.9	LFS
Belgium	327	357	7.9	8.2	LFS
Czech Republic	..	50	..	1.0	LFS
Denmark	84	104	3.0	3.7	R
Finland	18	38	0.8	1.4	LFS
France	1 566	1 612	6.3	6.2	LFS
Germany	3 505	3 511	9.1	8.9	LFS
Greece (2001) ¹	..	413	..	9.5	C
Hungary	21	23	0.5	0.6	WP
Ireland	42	101	3.0	5.6	LFS
Italy (2001) ²	332	801	1.6	3.3	WP
Japan (2001) ³	88	169	0.1	0.2	WP
Korea (2001) ⁴	52	129	0.3	0.6	WP
Luxembourg ⁵	65	83	39.1	43.2	LFS
Netherlands	281	295	3.9	3.6	LFS
Norway	59	80	2.7	3.4	LFS
Portugal	21	125	0.5	2.5	LFS
Spain	121	490	0.8	2.7	LFS
Sweden	186	205	4.2	4.6	LFS
Switzerland	729	864	18.6	21.8	WP
United Kingdom	1 011	1 406	3.6	4.8	LFS

	Foreign-born labour force				Source data
	Thousands		% of total labour force		
	1995	2002	1995	2002	
Australia	2 139	2 438	23.9	24.6	LFS
Canada (1996-2001)	2 839	3 151	19.2	19.9	C
New Zealand (1996-2001)	446	515	19.0	21.0	C
United States	14 083	21 291	10.8	15.3	LFS

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

1. Data refer to foreigners who entered Greece for employment purposes.
2. For 1995, data refer to foreign employment and to the % of total employment.
3. Foreign residents with permission of employment. Excluding permanent and long-term residents whose activity is not restricted. Overstayers (most of whom are believed to work illegally) are not included either.
4. Overstayers are included.
5. Resident workers (excluding cross-border workers).

Sources: C: Census;

LFS: Labour force survey;

R: Population register or register of foreigners;

WP: Work permits.

Between 1995 and 2002, the foreign and immigrant labour force grew in most OECD countries due to the rising inflows of foreign workers. The growth was particularly impressive in Southern Europe, Ireland and Finland, and was high in Japan and Korea. In all these countries, the foreign workforce at least doubled in a seven-year period (it increased fivefold in Portugal), but the stock remained relatively low given that the migration phenomenon was recent or of an essentially temporary nature. In the United States and the United Kingdom,

with their long history of immigration, the stock of foreign workers actually increased significantly during this period (respectively by +51% and +39%), underscoring the escalating importance of international labour-related migration in these countries.

Conversely, the stock of foreign workers either remained constant or fell in several European countries of the OECD, for example, in France, Germany and the Netherlands. Although these countries received a significant number of foreign workers, inflows were balanced with foreign outflows, naturalisations (see Annex A.I.6) and, in the case of France, a relatively vibrant and sustained demographic growth upheld by nationals (see above).

In most OECD member countries, with the exception of Scandinavia and the Netherlands, the proportion of foreigners and immigrants in the labour force is greater than or equal to their proportion in the total population. This holds true despite the fact that the labour force participation rates of foreigners are lower than those of nationals (see below). This scenario is explained mostly by the fact that the age structure of the foreign and immigrant population tends to be over-represented in the working-age categories (and under-represented in the over 65 and under 15 age categories⁶ – see last year's edition of *Trends in International Migration*).

b) ... even though their labour force participation rate usually remains lower than that of nationals

In 2002, foreigner and immigrants were likely to have lower labour force participation rates than nationals (see Table I.9). This observation, however, does not hold true for new

Table I.9. **Participation rate and unemployment rate of nationals and foreigners by sex in selected OECD countries, 2001-2002 average**

	Participation rate				Unemployment rate			
	Men		Women		Men		Women	
	Nationals	Foreigners	Nationals	Foreigners	Nationals	Foreigners	Nationals	Foreigners
Austria	78.7	84.6	63.2	63.1	4.0	9.3	4.0	8.2
Belgium	72.8	71.2	56.2	42.7	5.1	14.3	6.6	17.8
Czech Republic	78.5	84.1	62.8	61.6	6.3	9.1	9.1	13.2
France	75.2	76.1	63.4	48.4	6.7	16.6	9.6	21.0
Germany	78.9	77.6	65.2	51.5	7.7	13.7	7.7	12.1
Greece	75.8	89.4	49.1	57.8	6.6	6.9	15.2	16.1
Hungary (2001)	67.5	77.3	52.4	53.1	6.3	2.2	5.0	7.7
Ireland	78.8	77.3	56.7	56.4	4.3	4.9	3.6	5.5
Luxembourg	73.0	81.8	48.4	59.1	1.3	2.4	1.9	4.2
Netherlands	85.3	68.9	68.1	52.1	2.0	4.4	2.6	5.0
Spain	78.3	88.3	51.2	63.8	7.4	11.4	15.7	17.0
Sweden	80.5	71.0	76.9	60.4	4.9	12.1	4.3	9.3
Switzerland	88.8	89.6	74.1	71.2	1.7	4.6	2.6	6.2
United Kingdom	82.7	76.4	68.7	56.3	5.3	8.4	4.1	7.5
Australia (2001) ¹	81.7	77.8	67.6	59.3	7.8	8.6	6.2	8.1
Canada (2001) ¹	73.9	68.7	62.3	54.6	7.8	6.8	7.0	8.1
United States ¹	82.0	86.5	72.2	62.6	6.0	5.6	4.7	6.3

Note: Calculations are made on labour force aged 15 to 64 with the exception of Canada (15 and over) and the United States (16 to 64 years old).

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

Sources: Labour force surveys, figures supplied by Eurostat; 2001 Census, Australian Bureau of Statistics; 2001 Census, Statistics Canada; Current Population Survey March Supplement, US Census Bureau.

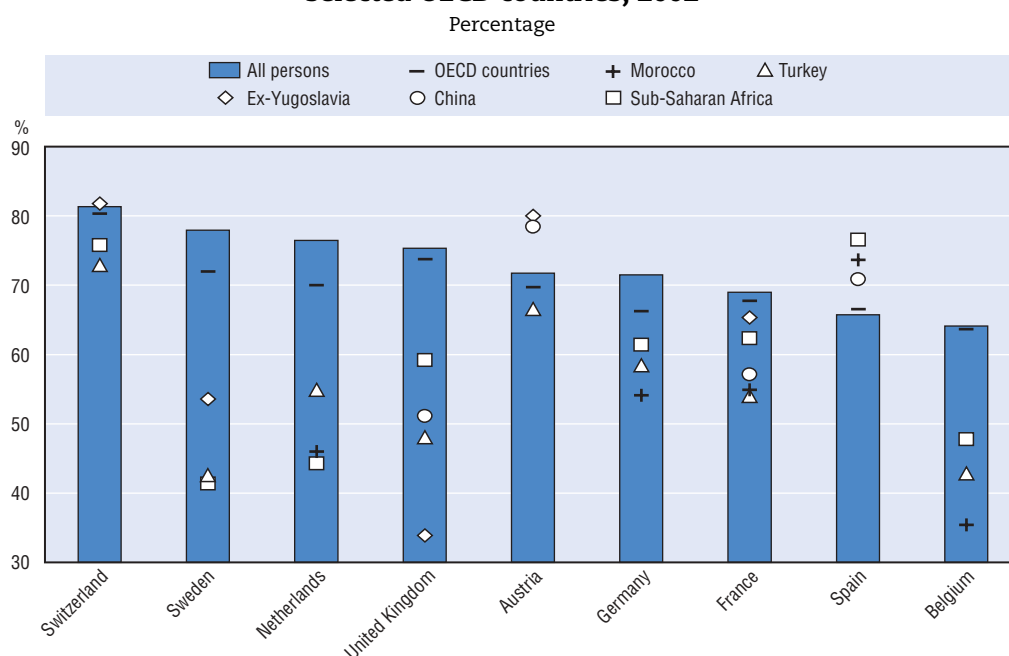
immigration countries, including Southern Europe, Luxembourg and, to a certain degree, Austria. Given the importance of labour-related migration in these countries, the participation rate of foreign men and women is greater than or equal to that of nationals.

In other OECD countries (including the settlement countries), though, foreigners and immigrants have a lower labour market presence than nationals. Foreign and immigrant women are even more likely to have a larger participation rate differential compared to nationals. In some cases, the gap is equal to or greater than 10 percentage points (e.g. France, Germany, the Netherlands, Sweden, Australia and the United States). The participation rate of foreign women in the United Kingdom is 12 percentage points less than the rate for nationals. This disparity can be explained by several factors related to the differences in family structures (e.g. marital status, number of young children) and education level (see *OECD Employment Outlook*, Chapter 5, 2001).

Labour force participation rates of foreigners can vary significantly according to nationality, often reflecting, among other factors, the economic situation prevailing in their origin country (see Chart I.7). As such, nationals from OECD countries have an average labour force participation rate similar to that in the receiving country (with the exception of Turks in Europe and Mexicans in North America). Significant differences exist notably for migrants from Morocco, former Yugoslavia or sub-Saharan Africa.

Foreigners of the same nationality can have different labour market participation rates depending on the receiving country. In fact, the participation rate of nationals from the former Yugoslavia in Austria is greater than that of nationals, but lower when residing in the United Kingdom or Sweden. Similarly, the participation rate of Moroccans is more than 73% in Spain, but only 35% in Belgium (14% for Moroccan women). These differences can be explained, in part, by the selectivity of the migration process and labour market

Chart I.7. **Participation rate of foreigners by country or region of nationality, selected OECD countries, 2002**



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

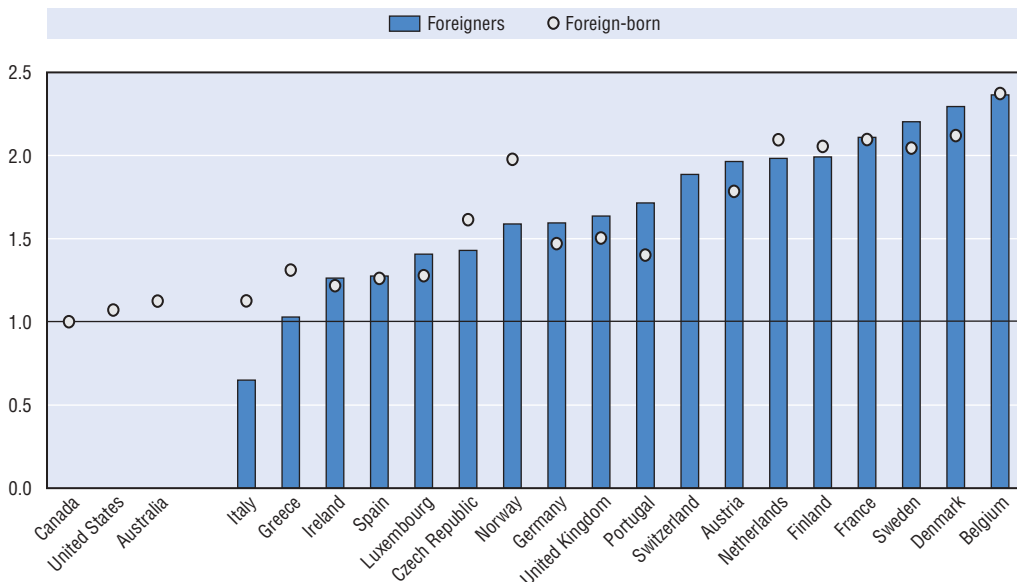
dynamics. In addition, cited differences can be attributed to the matching capacity between labour needs and the characteristics of foreign workers.

c) **Foreigners are more vulnerable to unemployment...**

In 2002, foreigners and immigrants in most OECD countries were more likely to be unemployed than nationals. Except for Canada, the United States and Ireland, this observation is true for both men and women. Women, however, tended to have higher rates of unemployment than their male counterparts (see Table I.9). The unemployment rate of foreign women reached 21% in France, 17.8% in Belgium and 17% in Spain. Yet, in certain countries such as Austria, Germany, Sweden, the United Kingdom, Australia and the United States, foreign or immigrant women were slightly less at risk of unemployment than male foreigners, but systematically more at risk than nationals.

Chart I.8 provides an overall picture of foreigners and immigrants' status regarding unemployment. In nearly every European OECD country, foreigners and immigrants constitute a greater share of the total unemployment ranks relative to their share in the total labour force. In 2001-2002, this ratio was the highest in Belgium, which was closely followed by Denmark, Sweden and France. In each of these countries, the share of unemployed foreigners to total unemployment was at least double the share of foreigners in the total labour force (or the foreign unemployment rate is at least double that of nationals). On the other hand, in certain OECD countries, primarily in the main settlement countries (Australia, Canada, the United States) but also in the new immigration countries

Chart I.8. **Proportion of foreigners or foreign-born in total unemployment, relative to their share of the labour force, 2001-2002 average**



Note: Calculations are based on the labour force ages 15 to 64, except for Canada, for which it is 15+. The calculation for foreigners in Italy is based on the rate of resident workers with work permits but without employment as a percentage of total work permits.

Sources: European countries: European Community Labour Force Survey (Data provided by Eurostat, second quarter 2001 and 2002); Australia: Labour Force Survey (2002); Denmark: Population register (2001), Italy: Ministry of Labour (data on foreigners) (2001); Canada: 2001 Census; United States: Current Population Survey (March 2001 and 2002).

Table I.10. Foreign and national adult (25-64) populations classified by level of education in selected OECD countries

2001-2002 average, percentages

	Less than upper secondary		Upper secondary		Tertiary level	
	Foreigners	Nationals	Foreigners	Nationals	Foreigners	Nationals
Austria	42.7	20.1	42.8	64.1	14.5	15.8
Belgium	53.1	38.9	24.7	32.6	22.2	28.5
Czech Republic	21.8	12.8	49.7	75.6	28.5	11.6
Denmark (2001) ¹	37.7	37.5	38.8	42.5	23.5	20.0
Finland	27.5	25.9	47.6	41.5	24.8	32.6
France	66.1	33.9	19.6	42.3	14.4	23.8
Germany	47.7	14.2	37.7	62.1	14.6	23.7
Greece	41.7	48.1	40.3	34.5	18.0	17.3
Hungary	21.7	29.3	49.6	56.7	28.7	14.0
Luxembourg	48.5	33.6	30.6	49.7	20.9	16.7
Netherlands	46.8	32.1	30.2	43.4	23.0	24.5
Norway	15.4	14.3	43.5	52.0	41.0	33.7
Portugal	62.2	80.1	25.1	10.7	12.7	9.2
Slovak Republic	7.6	14.6	74.1	74.7	18.3	10.7
Spain	42.4	59.8	27.5	16.7	30.1	23.8
Sweden	24.7	18.7	45.5	55.6	29.8	25.7
Switzerland	30.5	8.0	46.2	66.1	23.3	25.9
United Kingdom	30.8	18.1	27.3	53.3	41.9	28.5
Australia (2001) ²	43.3	56.0	29.1	23.6	27.5	20.4
Canada (2000-2001) ³	22.2	23.1	54.9	60.3	22.9	16.6
United States ⁴	30.1	9.1	36.0	52.4	33.9	38.5

1. Data are from the population register (persons 15+).

2. Foreign-born and native-born populations aged 25 to 64. Upper secondary refers to completed year 12.

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

4. Foreign-born and US-born populations.

Sources: European countries: European Community Labour Force Survey (Eurostat); Canada: Labour Force Survey; United States: Current Population Survey; Australia: Census 2001; Denmark: Population register.

in Europe (Ireland, Italy, Spain and Greece), the unemployment situation is not significantly different for foreigners and immigrants compared to nationals.

Whether the foreign or foreign-born populations residing in European OECD countries are examined, these earlier observations remain the same. The order in which the countries are ranked may differ slightly, but both foreigners and immigrants have similar proportions in total unemployment. This implies that either the two population subgroups are relatively identical (for example, if the naturalisation rate is low) or that naturalisation has little impact on the labour market situation.

The differences in foreign unemployment among countries could be linked to the education level of the foreign population. In fact, foreigners generally are over-represented in both the highest and lowest levels of education (see Table I.10) and the distribution of the foreign population by education level varies by receiving country. More than 40% of foreigners between ages 25 and 64 have no secondary education in several OECD countries. This level is 66% and 53% respectively in France and Belgium. Yet, the settlement countries, the United Kingdom, Norway and, to a lesser extent, Sweden select a portion of new immigrants based on their education level. In these countries, the proportion of foreigners with university degrees is relatively high.

To evaluate the effect of education levels on the unemployment of foreigners, unemployment can be recalculated by skill level, assuming that the distribution of qualifications for foreigners is similar to that of nationals in each receiving country. This computation shows that the unemployment rate of foreigners is slightly overestimated in Germany (by +1.6 percentage point), Austria (+1.1 percentage point), Belgium (+1 percentage point) and France (+0.9 percentage point). That is, the fact that foreigners are less skilled than German nationals only explains 1.6 percentage point difference between the unemployment rates of nationals (7.7% in 2001-2002) and foreigners (13.4% during the same period). Other factors explain most of the remaining disparity between nationals and foreigners' experience with unemployment: the quality of the initial training, professional experience, skill transferability, the ability to communicate in the receiving country's language, the status of foreign workers in the receiving country and problems relating to discrimination.

One way of assessing the scale of the effort needed to reduce the unemployment of foreigners is to calculate the number of jobs needed to bring foreign unemployment in line with the unemployment of nationals, assuming that the latter rate remains unchanged. This would have the effect of making all country ratios in Chart I.8 equal to 1. The results of this exercise based on 2002 data are presented in Table I.11. From a practical standpoint, the theoretical number of new jobs created is relatively small, even in countries where foreigners have high unemployment rates such as Belgium, France, Denmark and Sweden. In the Netherlands, where the disparity in unemployment between foreigners and nationals is high, only 7 800 jobs (equivalent to 0.1% of the total labour force) would need to be created to eliminate the over-representation of foreigners among the jobless. Even in France or Belgium where the situation appears initially problematic (needing respectively 162 500 and 38 300 new jobs), the job creation goal is attainable. In fact, looking back at the high level of job creation during the economic expansion between 1994 and 2002, France created more than 2.3 million net jobs and Belgium nearly 350 000.

Table I.11. **Additional jobs required to equalise national and foreign unemployment rates in selected OECD countries, 2002**

	Number (thousands)	Per cent of the total labour force
Austria	19.9	0.5
Belgium	38.3	0.9
Denmark	5.3	0.2
Germany	192.2	0.5
France	162.5	0.6
Netherlands	7.8	0.1
Sweden	14.0	0.3
Switzerland	30.3	0.8
United Kingdom	43.4	0.1
United States	119.1	0.1

Note: Secretariat calculations.

Sources: European countries: European Community Labour Force Survey (data provided by Eurostat); United States: Current Population Survey March Supplement; Denmark: Population register (2001).

d) ... and remain relatively concentrated in a few sectors

Table I.12 depicts the sectoral breakdown of foreign employment in 2001-2002 in the OECD countries. Foreigners are generally over-represented in construction, hospitality and

Table I.12. **Employment of foreigners by sectors, 2001-2002 average**

Percentage of total foreign employment

	Agriculture and fishing	Mining, manufacturing and energy	Construction	Wholesale and retail trade	Hotels and restaurants	Education	Health and other community services	Households	Admin. and ETO	Other services
Austria	1.1	24.5	13.5	15.2	11.3	2.1	6.3	0.6	1.2	24.2
Belgium	0.9	21.4	9.0	16.0	7.9	4.3	8.0	0.9	8.3	23.3
Czech Republic	3.5	31.5	11.0	19.5	7.2	3.1	4.9	..	–	18.2
Finland	–	15.3	7.8	14.5	11.0	10.8	11.5	–	–	27.2
France	3.2	17.2	17.5	11.3	7.3	3.2	5.1	6.7	2.7	25.8
Germany	1.2	32.6	8.1	12.9	11.3	2.7	7.0	0.6	2.3	21.4
Greece	3.2	17.9	27.6	11.2	10.2	1.6	1.6	17.2	–	9.2
Ireland	3.2	17.2	6.9	10.2	13.8	5.4	10.3	–	–	30.1
Japan ¹	0.4	61.5	2.0	9.3	1	26.8
Luxembourg	0.8	10.4	16.4	14.1	8.2	2.3	6.1	3.1	8.7	29.8
Netherlands	3.7	21.4	4.7	15.4	8.0	4.1	11.7	..	3.5	27.6
Norway	–	16.1	6.1	12.5	7.3	9.5	21.3	–	–	23.1
Spain	8.6	11.2	15.8	10.9	16.5	3.2	1.9	14.8	0.5	16.8
Sweden	–	19.3	3.3	10.7	5.9	8.2	19.2	–	2.8	29.6
Switzerland	0.8	22.9	10.2	17.9	6.9	5.0	11.6	1.2	2.5	21.0
United Kingdom	–	12.0	4.4	12.0	11.0	7.7	14.0	1.3	4.1	33.1
Australia ²	2.0	17.5	7.3	17.0	5.5	6.2	10.3	3.2	3.5	27.3
Canada (2001) ²	1.8	19.1	4.7	14.2	7.4	5.7	9.4	0.6	3.9	33.2
United States ²	3.2	17.2	8.2	20.1	10.3	5.7	10.6	1.5	2.2	20.9

Note: The numbers in bold indicate the sectors where foreigners are over-represented (i.e. the share of foreign employment in the sector is larger than the share of foreign employment in total employment). The sign “–” indicates that the estimate is not statistically significant.

1. Data refer to June 2001. The “Hotels and restaurants” sector is included in the “Wholesale and retail trade” sector.
2. Data refer to the foreign-born population 15+.

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

catering, as well as in household services; that is, the proportion of foreigners working in these sectors is higher than their share in total employment.

The sectoral distribution, however, varies significantly by country. More than 8.5% of foreigners work in Agriculture in Spain, 24.5% in Mining, Manufacturing and Energy in Austria, 30% in Construction in Portugal, 20 % in Wholesale and Retail Trade in the United States, nearly 16.5% in Hotels and Restaurants in Spain, 11% in Education in Finland, 21% in Health and Other Community Services in Norway and 17% in Household Services in Greece.

In the past, many foreign workers were employed in the secondary sector in most OECD countries. For example, in Germany, Japan and the Czech Republic, more than 40% of foreign jobs are in industry or construction. Similarly, in Austria, Belgium, Italy, the Netherlands and Switzerland, between 20% and 25% of foreign employment is in Mining, Manufacturing and Energy.

In the past few years, however, a gradual dispersal of foreign employment toward the tertiary sector can be observed. In 2001-2002, more than three-quarters of all foreign employment was in this sector in the United Kingdom (83%), Sweden (76%) and Finland (75%). More than 70% of foreigners also worked in the services sector in Australia, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Norway and the United States.

Foreign jobs have increased in the education sector and, to a greater extent, in the health sector as a response to labour shortages recently developing in those fields. The

health sector employs nearly 8% of all foreign workers in Belgium, 11.5% in Finland, 7% in Germany, 10% in Ireland, 12% in the Netherlands, 21% in Norway, 19% in Sweden, 14% in the United Kingdom and 11% in the United States. In each of these countries, the proportion of foreigners in the health sector increased between 2000-2001 and 2001-2002; the increase was most dramatic in Sweden (+4 percentage points). The same observation can be made for the care of the elderly and children (see Box I.2).

Box I.2. The growing importance of foreign workers in providing care for the elderly and children

The increase in female employment rates, changes in family structures and an ageing population have brought a strain to the provision of public and private services to care for the elderly and young children. These pressures are likely to increase in those OECD countries in which dependency ratios will rise significantly during the next 20 years (notably in the European OECD countries and Japan).

Within this framework, the need for household services is expected to increase. Given the fact that foreigners already hold an important position in this sector in various countries, reliance on this labour supply is likely to continue increasing. In Southern Europe, especially in Greece, Spain and Italy, more than 10% of foreign workers are employed in household services. In France, approximately 51 000 foreigners provide care for the elderly and children in their home. In the United States, this figure is 150 000.

According to a 2002 survey in Italy (IREF-ACLI collaborating with Eurisko), more than 950 000 Italian families hired foreign workers to tend to the needs of the elderly or children. Many families brought up the lack or inadequacy of existing services as a reason for justifying their hiring decision. A non-negligible number of these foreign workers are employed illegally. Nearly 350 000 foreign domestic helpers or caregivers applied for regularisation to legalise their stay during the exceptional amnesty in 2002. More than 136 000 foreigners had applied during the 2000 regularisation programme.

Entry procedures often remain ill-conceived for this labour supply group. Recruitment remains mostly based on a framework of trust between the employer and the employee, rather than solely according to diplomas or skills.

The dispersal of foreign workers in the services sector echoes the trend observed among nationals for the past few decades. That is, the service sector is illustrating the convergence occurring between the sectoral distribution of foreign and national employment (see *OECD Employment Outlook*, Chapter 5, 2001). This trend can be interpreted as foreign workers gradually adjusting to changes in the labour market demand of receiving countries.

Part of this trend, however, is due to new foreign worker arrivals. Foreigners who have migrated in the past five years are generally under-represented in Mining, Manufacturing and Energy as well as in Construction. Within these sectors in Austria, Belgium, France, Germany and Luxembourg, the employment distribution of new arrivals is significantly different than for the total foreign employment (the gap is equal to or greater than four percentage points). At the same time, foreigners who arrived in the past five years are over-represented in the Other Services in many countries. This is notably the case in the United Kingdom (37% of “new” foreign workers), Luxembourg (43%), Sweden (36%), Norway (33%),

Belgium (30%) and France (30 %). Nonetheless, a significant number of these jobs are defined as unskilled labour, usually in cleaning services or catering.

2. Foreign labour in the past decade

The latest OECD *Employment Outlook: Towards More and Better Jobs* (OECD, 2003), which provided the analytical framework for the meeting of employment and labour ministers of the OECD member countries (Paris, 29-30 November, 2003), reports on labour market changes in OECD countries since the beginning of the 1990s. It focuses on labour market policies implemented by member countries and highlights several measures aimed at improving the employment situation, especially for disadvantaged groups.

This section examines the contribution of foreign labour to these labour market changes. By applying lessons learned from the recent period of economic expansion, this section attempts to clarify several challenges that OECD member countries will have to face to improve the labour market integration of immigrants.

a) 1991-2001: A decade of mixed results in employment in several OECD member countries

The report's authors found that unemployment would increase by approximately 1 percentage point across the OECD area during 2000-2003 in response to the sluggish world economy, which lost approximately two-thirds of the gains obtained during the second half of the 1990s. The employment level resisted better compared to that of the early 1990s; the employment-population ratio increased on average by 1.1 percentage point between 1991 and 2001 in more than 60% of OECD member countries. The increase was particularly strong in Ireland and the Netherlands (+10 percentage points for employment rates). Part of this increase is due to structural changes; therefore, employment gains should be maintained.

Despite this environment, the improvement of labour market entry conditions was distributed unevenly and certain groups remained sidelined in the labour market. Although women and, to a certain extent, older workers had increased participation and employment rates in most OECD member countries, younger and less skilled workers benefited little from the enhanced employment conditions. Data limitations preclude reaching a conclusion (whether positive or negative) on how economic changes affected job quality, even though wage gaps and job insecurity seem to have increased in certain countries.

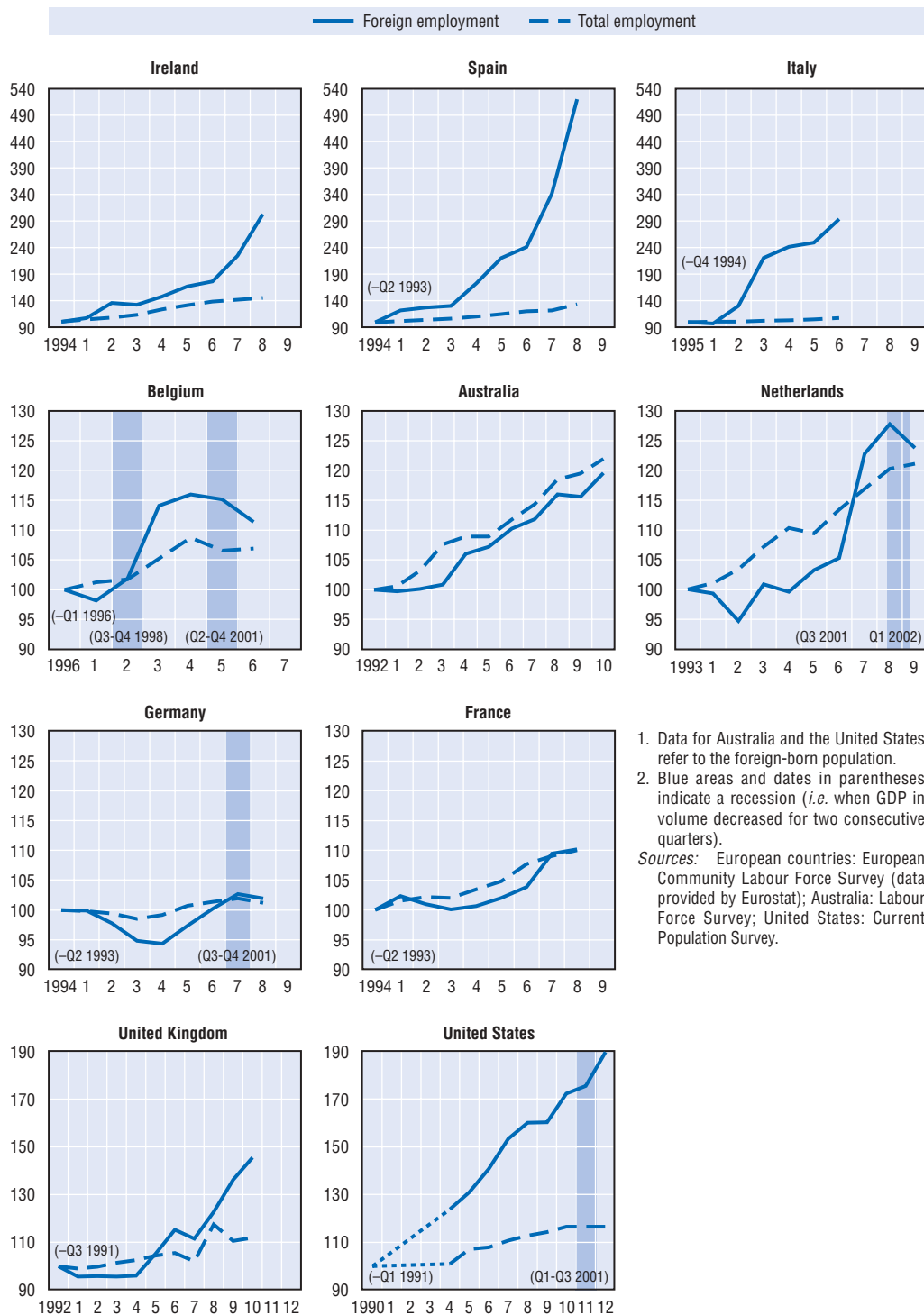
The report also underscores the importance of non-employment, which includes both unemployment and persons out of the labour force. Reducing non-employment appears critical, on the one hand, to prevent a serious slowdown in labour force growth and, on the other hand, to ensure the best use of human capital.

b) Foreigners contributed to employment growth...

During the 1990s and especially during the latter half of the decade for European countries, foreign and native employment grew strongly in most OECD countries (see Chart I.9). In the traditional European immigration countries, foreign employment increased less rapidly than native employment at the beginning of the recovery period, but picked up pace at the end of the decade when labour market strains began to appear. This pattern was observed especially in the United Kingdom. In Southern Europe, Ireland and the United States, the economic expansion of the 1990s went hand-in-hand with very large

Chart I.9. **Changes in foreign and total employment during economic recoveries**

Index: trough = 100^{1, 2}



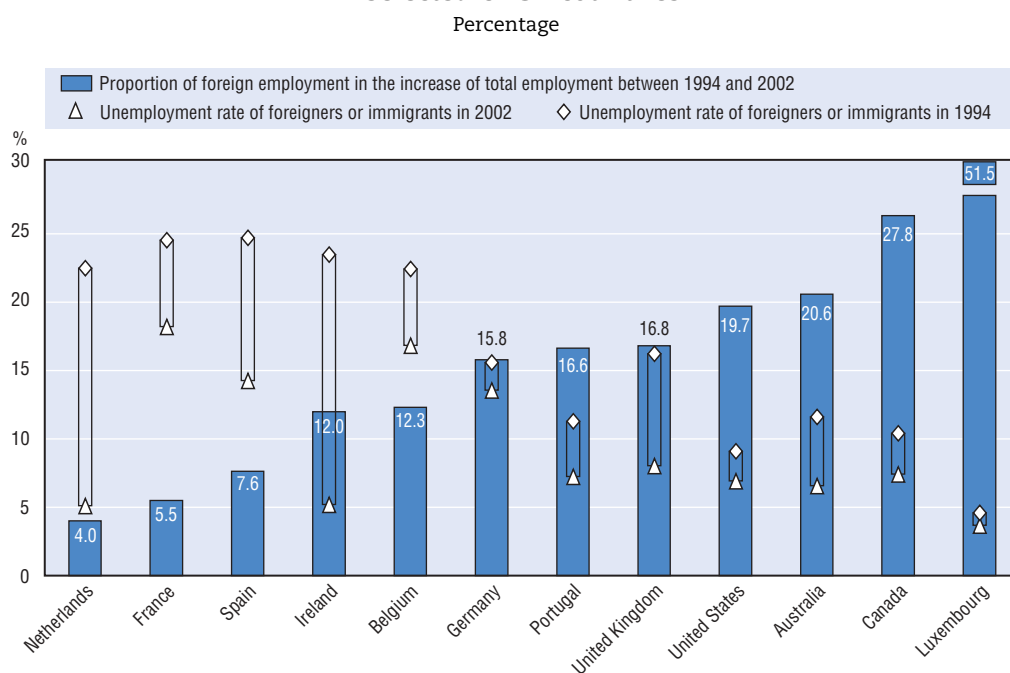
1. Data for Australia and the United States refer to the foreign-born population.
 2. Blue areas and dates in parentheses indicate a recession (i.e. when GDP in volume decreased for two consecutive quarters).
 Sources: European countries: European Community Labour Force Survey (data provided by Eurostat); Australia: Labour Force Survey; United States: Current Population Survey.

increases in foreign employment. Between 1994 and 2002, Spain's foreign employment increased fivefold, while Ireland's tripled.

The end of the recession, as of August 2000 for the OECD area and December 2000 for the Euro area (*Main Economic Indicators*, OCDE, 2003), did not affect total employment to the same extent as during the recovery of the late 1980s (see *OECD Employment Outlook*, 2003). Nonetheless, the recovery brought a sudden halt to the increase in foreign employment observed for some time in several OECD countries. The Netherlands, Belgium and, to a lesser degree, Germany and France all experienced this situation, where foreign employment remains vulnerable to economic cycles. Conversely, foreign employment grew rapidly in the United States and the United Kingdom between 2001 and 2002, even though national unemployment stagnated or regressed. The role of foreigners and immigrants during the recent economic upswing in these labour markets is clear.

Between 1994 and 2002, the growth of labour-related immigration flows, combined with a relatively low unemployment rate for foreigners and an increase in their participation rate, were responsible for the rise in total employment in OECD member countries and, more specifically, in settlement countries (see Chart I.10). For example, in Canada, foreign-born workers are responsible for nearly 28% of the job growth between 1996 and 2001, which is much higher than the proportion of immigrants in the total population. In the United States and Australia, immigrants were responsible for about 20% of total employment growth between 1994 and 2002. Foreigners in some of the European OECD countries (Southern Europe, Germany, the United Kingdom and, to a lesser extent, Belgium) also contributed significantly to the labour market dynamics during the latest economic expansion.

Chart I.10. **Unemployment of foreigners and contribution of foreign employment to the increase of total employment between 1994 and 2002 in selected OECD countries**



Note: For Australia, Canada (from 1996 to 2001) and the United States data refer to the foreign-born population.

Sources: European countries: European Community Labour Force Survey (data provided by Eurostat); Australia: Labour Force Survey; the United States: Current Population Survey; Canada: 1996 and 2001 Censuses.

Most likely, these labour market entries were a factor in the wage restraint observed between 1995 and 2001 (see *OECD Employment Outlook*, Chapter 1, 2003). In Ireland, the growth in real labour costs in excess of productivity growth fell by -2.7% (compared to -0.5% as an OECD average), while total employment increased by nearly 40%. Italy, Luxembourg, Belgium and Australia had similar experiences. In the United States, the growth of temporary skilled migration between 1995 and 2000 also contributed to wage restraint, especially in the emerging information technology and communication sectors.

The increase in foreign employment was followed by a gradual change in the skill level distribution among migrants. In fact, those who exited the labour market between 1994 and 2002 because of their age were usually less skilled than both native workers and the total foreign labour force in 1994 (see Table I.13). This observation was particularly

Table I.13. Distribution of education attainment between foreign entries and exits from the labour force between 1994 and 2002, compared to that of nationals and all foreigners in the labour force in 1994, selected OECD countries

Thousands and percentages

	Nationals aged 15 to 64 in 1994		Foreigners aged 15 to 64 in 1994		Foreigners aged 55 to 64 in 1994		Foreigners having arrived between 1994 and 2002	
	Total		Total		(Persons exiting the labour market)		(Persons entering the labour market)	
	Reference	%	Reference	%	Number	%	Number	%
Belgium								
Less than upper secondary	1 304.7	34.4	177.6	53.2	31.3	71.6	34.7	35.3
Upper secondary	1 387.8	36.6	97.2	29.1	7.2	16.6	24.0	24.3
Tertiary	1 100.7	29.0	59.3	17.8	5.2	11.8	39.8	40.4
Germany								
Less than upper secondary	4 244.0	13.2	1 285.4	41.9	155.7	52.0	231.3	36.7
Upper secondary	20 392.0	63.4	1 368.6	44.6	104.7	34.9	248.8	39.5
Tertiary	7 523.0	23.4	413.2	13.5	39.1	13.1	149.6	23.8
France								
Less than upper secondary	7 710.1	33.3	1 029.6	64.9	184.9	88.2	59.2	34.3
Upper secondary	10 830.0	46.8	359.4	22.7	13.9	6.6	55.6	32.2
Tertiary	4 603.0	19.9	196.6	12.4	10.8	5.1	57.6	33.4
Luxembourg								
Less than upper secondary	37.3	38.0	40.8	57.4	3.4	58.0	10.2	40.6
Upper secondary	35.4	36.0	13.2	18.5	1.1	17.8	6.8	27.0
Tertiary	25.6	26.0	17.1	24.1	1.4	24.2	8.2	32.5
Netherlands								
Less than upper secondary	1 178.2	17.2	105.2	36.9	13.3	63.7	34.5	35.3
Upper secondary	4 109.6	59.8	125.1	43.9	5.6	26.8	28.0	28.7
Tertiary	1 579.2	23.0	54.8	19.2	2.0	9.4	35.1	36.0
United Kingdom								
Less than upper secondary	11 836.0	44.0	633.8	62.5	105.6	74.1	62.3	17.1
Upper secondary	9 218.1	34.3	179.6	17.7	19.6	13.8	107.9	29.7
Tertiary	5 833.5	21.7	200.5	19.8	17.4	12.2	193.4	53.2
United States								
Less than upper secondary	13 334.3	12.0	4 358.7	30.5	393.8	33.5	2 224.9	34.8
Upper secondary	62 107.5	55.8	5 508.6	38.6	402.1	34.2	2 171.2	34.0
Tertiary	35 818.6	32.2	4 420.8	30.9	379.9	32.3	1 991.4	31.2

Note: Not all foreign additions to the labour force are included; in particular, foreigners already in the country and who entered the labour force between 1994 and 2002 as well as increases in participation among foreigners between 1994 and 2002 are not shown.

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

apparent in the Netherlands, France, the United Kingdom and Belgium, but was more tenuous in the United States and Germany. The latter hosted a large number of young migrants in the first half of the 1990s.

In the countries examined, “new migrants” (those who entered the labour market between 1994 and 2002 and still present in 2002) have a higher skill level. Nearly 56% of foreigners, who were settled in the United Kingdom in 2002 and had arrived during the previous eight years, held a university degree. This percentage is two and a half times greater than the proportion of university degrees among British nationals in 1994. This development underscores the selectivity of the labour-related immigration process responding to labour market needs, especially in sectors with a high demand for skilled labour (see above). This observation holds true, although to a lesser extent for the other countries. Furthermore, given the total stock in question, the United Kingdom had a net decrease in the stock of unskilled foreigners between 1994 and 2002. This was not the case in France and Germany.

The change in skill levels among foreigners partly explains the improvement in their labour conditions and the aforementioned differences in their sectoral distribution. In this context, the distribution of employment gains among foreign workers should be examined more closely. To what extent has the recent period of economic expansion improved the circumstances of labour market integration for the more vulnerable foreign or immigrant workers?

c) ... but labour market integration remains insecure for several categories of foreign workers

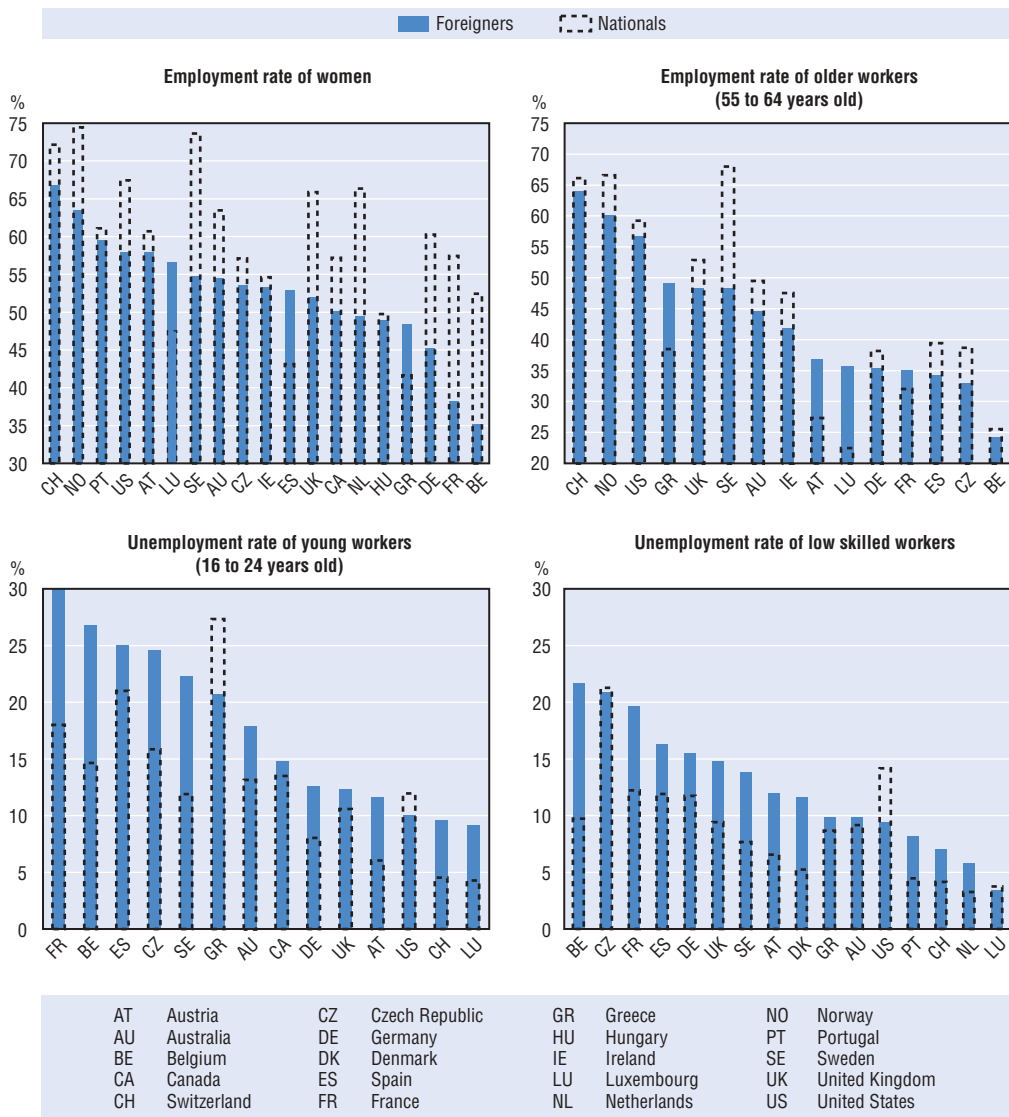
Foreigners form a heterogenous group, according to their individual characteristics and employability (see *OECD Employment Outlook*, Chapter 2, 2001). Despite the general improvement of labour market conditions, several sub-categories of foreign or immigrant workers are marginalised in the labour market. These categories include women (see above) as well as young adults, older workers and less skilled persons (see Chart I.11). Although national workers are also to a lesser degree in this situation, foreigners are over-represented in these groups and are usually disadvantaged compared to nationals.

For example, in 2001-2002, foreign women had a lower participation rate than native women. Furthermore, when comparing the difference in their status between the early 1990s and 2002, the results indicate that the general upturn of labour market conditions was in itself not sufficient to guarantee improved integration for foreign women.

During the past decade, the achievements of foreign women in terms of labour market integration were impressive in several OECD member countries. In the Netherlands, for example, the participation rate of foreign women between ages 25 and 54 increased by nearly 15 percentage points (from 39.6% to 54.8%) and their unemployment rate fell by more than 20 percentage points (from 25.1% to 5.1%). Significant progress was also achieved in Belgium (+12.6 percentage points for the participation rate and -6.9 percentage points for the unemployment rate of foreign women) and to a lesser extent in France. These countries, though, were characterised by a delay in the access of foreign women to employment during the beginning of the 1990s. In other countries, however, gains were weaker and the gap between nationals and foreigners increased. In the United Kingdom, for example, the participation rate of foreign women increased by less than one percentage point over a 12-year period, while that of nationals increased by four percentage points. Canada, the United States, Germany and Ireland had similar circumstances. Finally, foreign

Chart I.11. **Employment and unemployment rate for selected categories of workers according to nationality, 2001-2002 average**

Percentage



Note: For Australia, Canada and the United States, data refer to the foreign-born population. Low skilled level refers to less than upper secondary level.

Sources: European countries: European Community Labour Force Survey (data provided by Eurostat) except for Denmark: Population register; United States: Current Population Survey; Canada and Australia: 2001 Censuses.

women faced deteriorating labour market conditions in several countries during this last economic expansion period. In Sweden, the employment rate of foreign women aged 25 to 54 fell sharply between 1990 and 2002 (+5.6 percentage points for the unemployment rate and -8.9 percentage points for the participation rate). Similar results were witnessed in Denmark and, to a lesser extent, in Germany. This reversal shows the fragility of the registered achievements for foreign women in the labour market.

Older workers (between ages 55 and 64) are the focus of pension system reforms happening in most OECD countries because they usually have a lower participation rate

than the total labour force population. Older foreigners and immigrants face even more difficulties in obtaining work. In each country represented in Chart I.11, except for Canada, France and Spain, older foreign workers have a lower participation rate than their native counterparts. Even when older persons have a high rate of employment, the gap between nationals and foreigners can be greater than 10 percentage points (Denmark and Sweden). In Belgium, less than one-quarter of older foreign workers (between ages 55 and 64) were employed in 2001-2002.

In several OECD countries, young workers and unskilled workers are likely to face numerous, lasting problems to enter the labour market. With the exception of the United States and Luxembourg, less skilled foreign workers are systematically more likely to be unemployed than nationals at the same skill level. The gap in the respective unemployment rates can be rather wide, especially in Belgium and Finland and probably reveals problems linked to labour demand (*e.g.* discrimination, social capital).

Young foreigners face similar issues. The shortage of employed foreign youth is a cause for concern in the European OECD countries. In France, nearly 30% of foreign workers between the ages of 15 and 24 are jobless. In Belgium, Spain and Sweden, this rate is greater than 20%. In Australia, where the unemployment rate of all foreigners remains low, nearly 18% of young foreign-born workers are unemployed. Given that these problems still exist after a period of continued employment growth, specific policies need to be implemented rapidly to improve young workers' access to the labour market. Without corrective measures, young workers will continue to be disadvantaged with respect to future labour market opportunities.

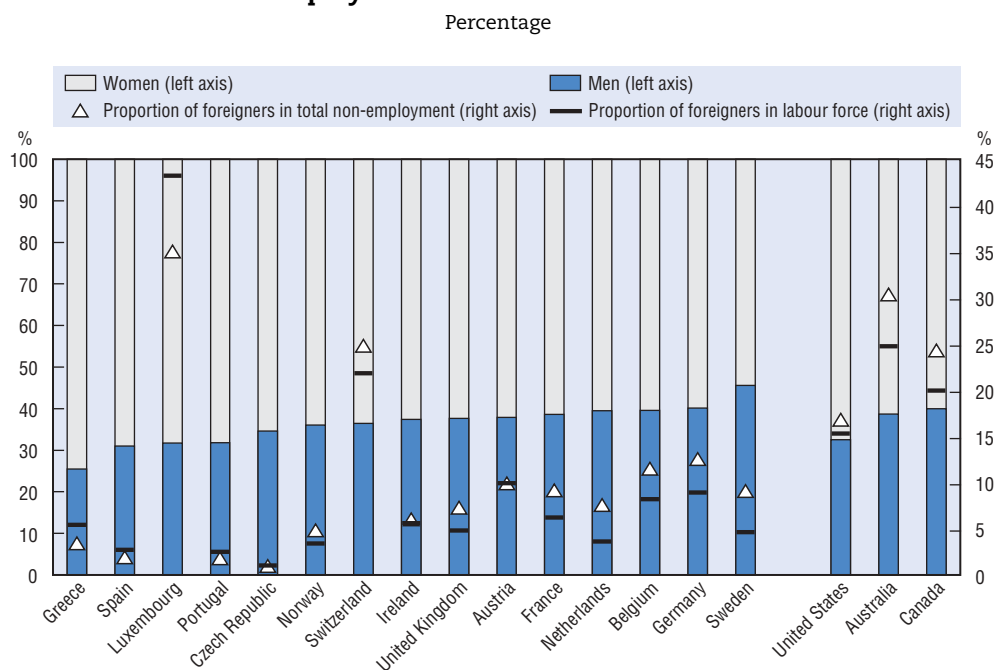
Finally, foreigners are not only over-represented in groups at risk of poor labour market integration, but some of them tend to accumulate unfavourable circumstances. For example, older foreign workers tend to be more unskilled than their native counterparts and over-represented in waning economic sectors. In several OECD countries, young foreigners often are not only less qualified but also concentrated in disadvantaged areas. The extent of language ability (see last year's edition of *Trends in International Migration*), the presence of protected jobs and the social capital deficiency contribute to additional barriers for foreign workers. Thus, certain groups of foreign workers face serious, lasting challenges for sustainable labour market integration.

The *OECD Employment Outlook* (OECD 2003) found that "if supply- and demand-side barriers to employment are not addressed, population ageing will imply a sharp deceleration of labour force growth during the next three decades". Most OECD countries will need to bring together all available human capital to fight the demographic, economic and technology-related challenges of the near future. It is in this perspective, as well as for questions of equity and social integration, that the potential supply of labour should be mobilised (see Chart I.12). The improvement of labour market conditions for all categories of foreign workers is critical to numerous countries.

d) Toward better quality jobs?

Has the employment growth of the past decade been accompanied by an improvement in the quality of jobs? The last edition of the *OECD Employment Outlook* did not reach a consensus on this issue. Yet, the narrowing gap in the distribution of foreign and native workers could indicate that foreigners are moving gradually towards "native type" jobs.

Chart I.12. **Composition of foreign non-employment by sex and proportion in total non-employment in 2002 in selected OECD countries**



Note: For Australia, Canada and the United States, data refer to the foreign-born population.

Sources: European countries: European Community Labour Force Survey (data provided by Eurostat); Australia and Canada: 2001 Censuses; United States: Current Population Survey.

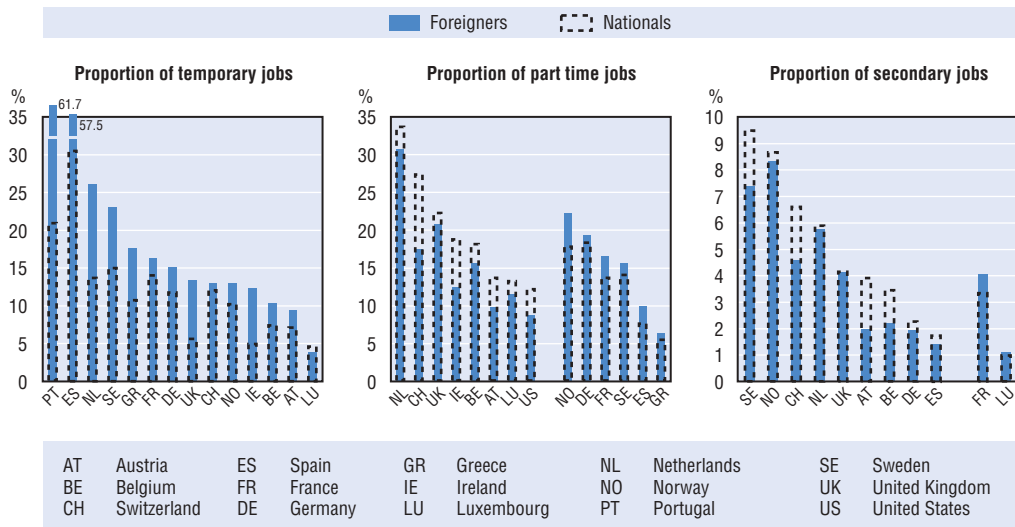
This optimistic thinking is mitigated when examining the job characteristics of jobs held by foreigners. Chart I.13, which describes the “atypical” employment by nationality for selected OECD countries, confirms the specificity of foreign employment. In nearly all these countries, the probability of holding a temporary position is significantly higher for foreigners than for nationals. This discrepancy increases as the availability of temporary employment is more widespread: Portugal, Spain and the Netherlands have the highest differences between foreigners and nationals. The number of temporary jobs in some countries is influenced by the number of internships available for young workers entering the labour market for the first time. This is often the case in Germany, Switzerland and, to a lesser extent, in the United Kingdom.

In contrast to the situation for temporary employment, part-time work does not appear to affect foreign workers more than native workers. Nonetheless, in most of the selected countries, part-time foreign workers are more likely than foreigners to state that they aspire to a full-time job.

Data on atypical employment and strenuous jobs not only highlight the quality of jobs but also the effect of individual choices between professional and household services. Nonetheless, data brings light to a familiar situation: foreign workers more often than nationals hold 3-D jobs: those that are “Dirty, Dangerous and Dull”.

What lessons can be learned from the performance of foreigners in the labour market during the period of economic expansion? How can these lessons shed light on the main challenges of the labour market integration of foreigners in OECD countries?

Chart I.13. **“Atypical” employment by nationality in selected European OECD countries and in the United States, 2002**
Percentage of total employment



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

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

The observations made earlier show that despite improved conditions in the labour market during the past economic growth phase, certain sub-categories of foreign workers are still vulnerable. Thus, the general improvement of the employment situation is not sufficient to guarantee foreigners with sustainable labour market integration.

General and specific policies are necessary to assist foreigners in labour market integration. These integration measures must meet the requirements of a dynamic labour market in which training (initial and life-long) is a critical factor (see conclusions from an OECD seminar on “The Integration of Young Immigrants into the Labour Market,” Brussels, June 2002; *Trends in International Migration*, OECD, 2002, Part I.B). The fact that immigrant workers benefit less from life-long professional training than nationals augments its importance (see *OECD Employment Outlook*, Chapter 5, 2003).

Recently, several countries implemented new programmes to improve the integration of new immigrants. The programmes mostly deal with the acquisition of the host country’s language and understanding labour market mechanisms (France, Finland, Norway, Portugal, Sweden, Switzerland – see Part I.C on migration policies for more detail).

Problems concerning labour market integration also affect settled immigrants (who usually are less skilled than the newer immigrants) and second-generation immigrants. Consequently, fighting discrimination and implementing specific active policies is necessary. These policies should prioritise the most vulnerable groups, especially women, older workers and young migrants.

Improving conditions to achieve the labour market integration of foreigners, even those already settled for several generations, is not only necessary for social equity, but countries should also consider the short and long-term economic efficiency arguments.

During a period of slow labour force growth, it is necessary to gather all available human capital, especially within the foreign population. It is also important to recognise the role of foreign labour in promoting the social and professional mobility of nationals, a key component of the labour market forces.

C. An overview of migration policies

In the past three editions of *Trends in International Migration*, the section immediately preceding the overview of migration policies within this first part of the report focused on recent trends in international migration in East and South East Asia and Central and Eastern Europe. This year's annual report does not have a section devoted to these regions. In its stead, the 2003 *Trends in International Migration* devotes a chapter of the report to the regional aspects of international migration (see Part II below) and considers the question of the international mobility of South African health care personnel (see Part III below).

This section on migration policies first provides an overview of the main measures to improve the management of flows and refers the reader to more detailed policy descriptions in the country notes (see Part IV below). It continues by summarising recent decisions regarding the easing of recruitment policies for skilled workers. It also highlights the conclusions of a 2003 seminar jointly organised by the OECD and the Swiss authorities on bilateral labour agreements and other forms of recruitment of foreign workers. The section also pays particular attention to the limits of appealing to new foreign workers, chosen through a selective process, to reduce labour shortages. This overview of migration policies also highlights the main measures applied for immigrant integration with a focus on its social dimension. The last section reviews European decisions related to the harmonisation of European migration policies. These decisions are especially important because they will apply to the ten new European Union member countries in 2004, due to the *acquis communautaire* principle. These countries are currently debating important legal reforms, including the entry, stay and labour market access of immigrants.

1. Policies for controlling flows and fighting irregular migration

The effects of the September 11, 2001 terrorist attacks in the United States on migration flows and policies (regarding the United States as well as other OECD countries) remained difficult to discern in early 2002 (see last year's edition of *Trends in International Migration*). This year, it can be seen that the terrorist attacks have led most OECD countries to strengthen their co-operation in the areas of border control and air transportation.

a) Reinforcing international co-operation for improved flow management...

Information trading among police and other intelligence services has taken on a more formal and regular function in the fight against organised crime, irregular migration networks, human trafficking and trading of false identification documents. Moreover, religious fundamentalists are the target of increased surveillance and, in some countries, the renewal of temporary stay permits for migrants from countries suspected of harbouring international terrorists have had their cases thoroughly examined. This is also the case for foreign students from the same countries who have requested a visa to pursue their studies abroad. At the end of the day, upon the examination of the first available data for 2002, the impact of these measures on migration flows remains very limited because of

the diversity of entry categories and, specifically, the importance of family-related migration. In most OECD countries, current entries are related to those entries from earlier periods or admission application backlogs.

OECD member countries are increasingly co-operating on border control activities. For example, the United States is working with both Canada and Mexico (see in Part IV, related country notes). The United States implemented a new entry procedure for visitors and businesspersons (*e.g.* machine readable passports, special visas, prolonged time for the delivery of visas). Europe has gradually implemented a fingerprint identification process for delinquent migrants, asylum seekers and illegal migrants under the auspices of the EURODAC system. The system can, for example, identify asylum seekers filing applications in several EU countries or those who re-apply within the European Union after a first rejection in another member country.

Border controls have also increased in the United Kingdom, especially after the closing of the Sangatte Red Cross Welcome Centre in November 2002 near Calais, France. The centre housed several thousand migrants, many of whom wished to enter the United Kingdom illegally. Germany and Austria have tightened border controls with neighbouring Central European countries. Moreover, France, Spain and Italy created joint maritime patrols in the Mediterranean Sea. The same trend applies to the future European Union member countries and those countries that define the eastern border of the future Schengen Area. For example, the Czech Republic and the Slovak Republic co-ordinated their border controls, which led to an improvement in combating illegal immigration in 2002. Poland now requires an entry visa for Russians and Ukrainians and signed readmission agreements with those countries. Bulgaria is reinforcing its borders with Turkey and Romania. Sweden has extended its assistance to the Baltic States, Ukraine and Belarus to help them develop migration policies in line with those of EU member countries.

The increase in international co-operation and the tightening of border and national controls also has led to a new measure regarding irregular migration. Countries have put in place bilateral or multilateral charter flights to return irregular migrants to their country of origin. For now, these joint flights only involve a limited number of European OECD countries and irregular migrants on their territory, but could expand rapidly to share and reduce the mounting costs linked with deportations.

During 2002 and the beginning of 2003, several countries made significant legislative changes regarding immigration (for more details, see Part IV). Some changes specified migrants' access to the labour market, as in Portugal and Greece. Other countries mandated the need for an entry visa from specific non-OECD member countries. For example, as of 1 June 2003, nationals from Ecuador require an entry visa for all Schengen Area countries. Denmark plans to impose a security deposit for short stay visas for visitors who plan to visit family members settled in Denmark. This measure aims to limit the number of people prolonging their stay without cause.

Countries have also signed bilateral readmission agreements for migrants in an irregular situation, as is the case between Germany and Albania (November 2002) and between Spain and Mauritania (July 2003). Nevertheless, the most significant legislative reforms have occurred either in the European Union accession countries (*e.g.* Czech Republic, Hungary) or in neighbouring countries, such as Romania and Bulgaria. These two countries have increased penalties for human traffickers and their respective nationals caught in an irregular situation in EU member countries (*e.g.* seizure of their passport for

five years, prison sentences for repeat offenders). In Northern Africa, Morocco, Algeria and Tunisia are increasingly faced with migrants in an irregular situation coming from sub-Saharan Africa to reach the European continent. Some of these migrants risk their lives to reach the Southern European countries, especially Spain and Italy. Nonetheless, according to readmission agreements signed between Morocco and Tunisia and some European Union member states, foreigners who transited through these countries and were caught in an illegal situation must be readmitted to Morocco or Tunisia. Readmission policies are difficult to implement and tougher border controls in transit countries appear to be the only solution to contain these flows. As a result in 2003, Morocco began to revise its laws regarding the entry and stay of foreigners.

b) ... and to discourage unfounded asylum applications

As OECD member countries continue to receive asylum seekers (see above Part I.A), many hope to discourage clearly unfounded applications. Yet, the lengthy process for examining applications and the backlog of cases have slowed down the installation of new systems that are capable of distinguishing between those individuals who need protection (who would obtain the full right to asylum) and those who do not. In Norway, for example, less than 30% of asylum seekers are granted authorisation to stay in the country, mostly for humanitarian reasons; very few obtain refugee status. Processing unfounded applications consumes important human and financial resources. These applications exert pressure at all levels of the asylum seeker review process: processing cases, welcome and removal measures, construction of new welcome centres, language classes to facilitate integration in the host country, social assistance, and so on.

Several OECD countries seek policies to prevent the entrance of persons who are likely to make unfounded asylum applications (e.g. Canada, Denmark, Ireland). The panoply of dissuasive measures includes implementing or increasing penalties regarding human traffickers, who assist asylum seekers' entry into the targeted country. Another tactic is to impose prison sentences for persons whose cases were dismissed and who refuse to leave the country. Some countries restrict asylum seekers' access to the labour market and rights to social benefits, as these two factors play a significant role in the choice among destination countries. A few countries, including Australia, expect that OECD countries will develop a common strategy to fight against unfounded asylum applications and to deport spurious applicants. In 2002, the United Kingdom adopted a new immigration and asylum law (Nationality, Immigration and Asylum Act), which underscores precise requirements for a complete application not only to speed up the application review process but also to reduce delays related to appeals. Moreover, the new law assumes that asylum seekers arriving from the ten European Union accession countries have unfounded cases. It also penalises applications that are not submitted upon arrival in the country. The United Kingdom also wants to place more emphasis on policies, such as conflict-prevention, that curb the number of asylum seekers at their source.

c) Efforts to combat illegal immigration and recent regularisation programmes

The 2002 edition of *Trends in International Migration* highlighted measures taken by OECD member countries to combat illegal migration and the employment of undocumented immigrants. The report also examined the diversity of regularisation programmes implemented during the past ten years and their application requirements, before summarising the benefits and shortcomings of such programmes. This report limits the

discussion to the results of recent regularisation programmes held in Southern Europe and examines their first impact.

In 2001 and 2002, Southern Europe was home to the main regularisation programmes, which were mostly targeting undocumented immigrant workers (see Table I.14). The qualitative and quantitative impact of these regularisations on the number and characteristics of new arrivals is not well known. In addition, how these programmes will increase future family-related migration to join regularised relatives remains unclear. Finally, little information is available on the employment situation of successful applicants. Did regularised migrants lose their jobs? Did they usually keep the same job or did new undocumented immigrants replace them? Did they have access to supplemental skills training?

The successive regularisation waves that took place in Italy, for instance, show that new immigration flows following an amnesty do not really depend on the regularisation itself, but rather on the way it was carried out. When countries delay the implementation of a regularisation programme this increases the risk that new “candidates” will enter the country. Furthermore, qualifying criteria that remain unrelated to the realities of the labour market and to the irregular status of migrants will increase the risk of programme exclusion for a large number of immigrants. This group is likely to swell the ranks of persons waiting for the next regularisation programme.

The two programmes recently carried out in Greece, for instance (1998/1999 and 2001) underscored concerns regarding the discrepancy between the long administrative waiting periods needed to process the requests and the insecure status ultimately offered to successful applicants. Most beneficiaries returned to illegal status. Successful candidates only obtained temporary permits (six months to a year) and were unable to renew them in time because of burdensome administrative procedures.

Furthermore, obliging employers of undocumented workers to pay part of their social security contributions is not an incentive to them to offer proper work contracts to regularised workers. Another consequence of the recent Southern European regularisation programmes is that new beneficiaries quickly seek employment with higher wages, depending on the economic situation. Therefore, employers sometimes find themselves in a situation that leads them to depend again on illegal hiring of migrant workers. This conundrum is exacerbated by the fact that quota systems aimed at the recruitment of foreign workers do not necessarily solve labour shortage problems (as in Italy and Spain). Conversely, an economic slowdown (*e.g.* in Portugal in 2003) increases the unemployment rate of all foreign workers, including those who just benefited from a regularisation programme.

In the past five years, Greece, Portugal and Spain have experienced a sharp acceleration in labour-related migration inflows, characterised by a large share of irregular migration. In the context of greater flexibility, these three countries first opted to run regularisation programmes. More recently, Portugal and Spain have put an end to these recurring regularisation programmes. Both countries signed bilateral labour agreements with emigration countries: for example, Portugal with Ukraine and Romania, and Spain with Ecuador and Columbia. Spain benefits from the diversity and flexibility of Latin American nationals because they are employed in both skilled (education, health, commerce) and less skilled (housekeeping, other businesses services) occupations. These nationals are not always registered as immigrants if they directly descend from Spanish

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

Thousands

Belgium		France				Greece			
(2000) ¹		(1981-1982) ²		(1997-1998)		(1997-1998) ³		(2001) ⁴	
Dem. Rep. of Congo	8.8	Tunisia	17.3	Algeria	12.5	Albania	239.9		
Morocco	6.2	Morocco	16.7	Morocco	9.2	Bulgaria	24.9		
		African countries	15.0	China	7.6	Romania	16.7		
		Portugal	12.7	Dem. Rep. of Congo	6.3	Pakistan	10.8		
		Algeria	11.7	Tunisia	4.1	Ukraine	9.8		
		Turkey	8.6			Poland	8.6		
Other	36.9	Other	39.1	Other	38.1	Other	60.3		
Total	52.0	Total	121.1	Total	77.8	Total	371.0	Total	351.0
Italy									
(1987-1988)		(1990)		(1996) ⁵		(1998) ⁵		(2002) ⁶	
Morocco	21.7	Morocco	49.9	Morocco	34.3	Albania	39.0		
Sri Lanka	10.7	Tunisia	25.5	Albania	29.7	Romania	24.1		
Philippines	10.7	Senegal	17.0	Philippines	21.4	Morocco	23.9		
Tunisia	10.0	Former Yugoslavia	11.3	China	14.4	China	16.8		
Senegal	8.4	Philippines	8.7	Peru	12.8	Senegal	10.7		
Former Yugoslavia	7.1	China	8.3	Romania	11.1	Egypt	9.5		
Other	50.1	Other	97.1	Other	120.8	Other	93.2		
Total	118.7	Total	217.7	Total	244.5	Total	217.1	Total	702.2
Portugal									
(1992-1993)		(1996)		(2001) ⁷					
Angola	12.5	Angola	6.9	Ukraine	63.5				
Guinea-Bissau	6.9	Cape Verde	5.0	Brazil	36.6				
Cape Verde	6.8	Guinea-Bissau	4.0	Moldova	12.3				
Brazil	5.3	Sao Tome and Principe	1.2	Romania	10.7				
Sao Tome and Principe	1.4	Brazil	2.0	Cape Verde	8.3				
Senegal	1.4			Angola	8.1				
Other	4.8	Other	3.7	Other	39.8				
Total	39.2	Total	21.8	Total	179.2				
Spain									
(1985-1986) ⁸		(1991)		(1996)		(2000) ⁹		(2001) ¹⁰	
Morocco	7.9	Morocco	49.2	Morocco	7.0	Morocco	45.2	Ecuador	52.3
Portugal	3.8	Argentina	7.5	Peru	1.9	Ecuador	20.2	Colombia	40.8
Senegal	3.6	Peru	5.7	China	1.4	Colombia	12.5	Morocco	31.7
Argentina	2.9	Dominican Rep.	5.5	Argentina	1.3	China	8.8	Romania	20.4
United Kingdom	2.6	China	4.2	Poland	1.1	Pakistan	7.3		
Philippines	1.9	Poland	3.3	Dominican Rep.	0.8	Romania	6.9		
Other	21.1	Other	34.7	Other	7.8	Other	63.1	Other	89.4
Total	43.8	Total	110.1	Total	21.3	Total	163.9	Total	234.6
Switzerland		United States							
(2000) ¹¹		(1986) ¹²		(1997-1998) ¹³		(2000) ¹⁴			
Sri Lanka	8.9	Mexico	2 008.6	El Salvador/Guatemala	300.0				
Fed. Rep. of Yugoslavia	4.9	El Salvador	152.3	Haiti	50.0				
Bosnia-Herzegovina	0.6	Caribbean	110.5	Nicaragua	40.0				
Turkey	0.3	Guatemala	64.0	Eastern Europe	10.0				
		Colombia	30.3	Cuba	5.0				
		Philippines	25.7						
Other	0.5	Other	293.5						
Total	15.2	Total	2 684.9	Total	405.0	Total	400.0		

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

Thousands

1. A regularisation programme started in January 2000. Asylum seekers who were residing in Belgium in October 1999 and who fill certain conditions could apply. Figures indicate the number of persons who applied (including dependents). A total of 35 000 dossiers have been received.
 2. Excluding seasonal workers (6 681 persons) and around 1 200 small traders not broken down by nationality.
 3. Persons who were granted a white card (first stage of the regularisation). Data by nationality are preliminary.
 4. Number of applications of work and residence permits according to the October 2001 law.
 5. Number of permits granted based on estimates by M. Carfagna, "I sommersi e i sanati. Le regolarizzazioni degli immigrati in Italia" in *Stranieri in Italia: Assimilati ed esclusi*, A. Colombo and G. Sciortino (eds.), Mulino, Bologna, 2002.
 6. Data refer to the number of applications.
 7. The new foreigners act (January 2001) allowed the regularisation of undocumented non-EU citizens in possession of registered work contracts.
 8. Number of applications received.
 9. Regularisation programme held from 23 March to 31 July 2000.
 10. "Arraigo" programme. Excluding 24 600 other applications which have not yet been examined.
 11. Programme called "Action humanitaire 2000". People accepted should have been in Switzerland since 31 December 1992 and have encountered serious difficulties.
 12. Data refer to all persons granted a permanent residence permit (excluding their dependents) during the period 1989-1996 following the 1986 Immigration and Reform Control Act. Data are broken down by country of birth.
 13. Includes some estimates of foreigners who are eligible for the Nicaraguan Adjustment and Central American Relief Act (November 1997) and for the Haitian Refugee Immigration Fairness Act (October 1998).
 14. Estimates of applications for legalisation under the Legal Immigration Family Equity (LIFE) Act.
- Sources: Switzerland: Office des étrangers; France: Office des migrations internationales; Greece: National Employment Observatory; Belgium, Italy, Portugal and Spain: Ministry of the Interior; United States: Immigration and Naturalization Service.

citizens (see section below on naturalisations). The challenge faced by the Spanish authorities lies in creating conditions for a legal and selective labour-related migration policy. Moreover, Spain must convince employers to use legal recruitment procedures to attract foreigners. On top of this, they must inform immigrants in an irregular situation that they have to return to their origin countries and only come back via legal channels, because Spain will no longer implement any regularisation programmes.

2. Renewed interest in selective labour-related migration policies

The recent phase of economic growth, compounded by the growing concern about ageing populations, has prompted many OECD member countries to consider stepping up immigration to alleviate labour shortages, in particular for skilled workers. Given the renewed interest in labour-related migration, the OECD and the Swiss Federal Office of Immigration, Integration and Emigration (IMES) organised a joint seminar, held in Montreux on 19 and 20 June 2003, to evaluate and examine the prospects of bilateral labour agreements and other forms of recruitment of foreign workers (see Box I.3). Appealing to immigration to reduce the impact of labour shortages, however, has its limits, especially considering that labour reserves exist. Although the nature and size of labour reserves vary per country, they could be mobilised relatively rapidly only if appropriate education and training policies were in place (see *OECD Employment Outlook*, 2003).

The special chapter in last year's *Trends in International Migration* reviewed recent studies on labour shortages and resorting to immigration. The research confirmed that there are tensions in the labour markets in several OECD member countries. The development of information technology and the growing role of human capital in economic growth helped to increase the demand for skilled labour significantly in most

Box I.3. **Bilateral labour agreements and other forms of recruitment of foreign workers: evaluation and prospects**

The OECD and the Swiss Federal Office of Immigration, Integration and Emigration (IMES) organised a joint seminar on bilateral labour agreements and other forms of recruitment of foreign workers, held in Montreux on 19 and 20 June 2003. The seminar brought to light the diversity of situations found in OECD member countries. Bilateral labour agreements are part of a long tradition in some member countries such as Germany and Switzerland. In others countries, they are more limited and cover only a small share of labour-related migration. Finally, some countries such as Canada, Australia and New Zealand have little experience with bilateral agreements, while others like the United States or the United Kingdom have opted to develop other labour-related migration programmes. The seminar debates were centred on three questions: What exactly are the objectives of bilateral labour agreements? Are such agreements effective in achieving those objectives? Are there other ways of achieving the objectives?

From the receiving country standpoint, the primary aim is to meet labour market needs by facilitating short-term or medium to long-term adjustment. In the short term, agreements concern temporary migrants (including seasonal workers) and demand for low-skilled labour in particular. In the medium to long term, however, the agreements focus more on skilled workers to tackle more structural labour shortages (*e.g.* in information and communication technology, healthcare). Host countries use bilateral agreements to manage migration by asking sending countries to sign in exchange readmission agreements for illegal migrants. This is the case of agreements signed between Italy and Romania, and by Spain with Morocco and Ecuador. Receiving countries may also wish to promote specific economic ties or wider regional economic integration. Examples include bilateral agreements that Germany has signed with some central and eastern European countries. One final objective is aimed more specifically at strengthening cultural ties between partner countries, as does Australia's "Working Holiday Maker" programme. The objectives of sending countries are to ensure better living conditions and increased earning capacity for migrant workers and to promote the acquisition or enhancement of their professional skills and qualifications. In addition to remittances, technology transfers and building human capital foster the development of sending countries. Finally, sending countries now place greater emphasis on the rights and welfare of their nationals working abroad.

Are bilateral agreements effective in achieving the above objectives? The effectiveness of these agreements is not easy to assess because of the multitude of objectives. To achieve short-term labour market objectives, the key to success lies in flexibility. Agreements that are too bureaucratic, complex and costly risk failure. It is important to take into account the salient features of the agreements and the countries concerned, for example those between Germany and Poland. Also of interest are the procedures introduced by the United Kingdom, and in particular those leading to the delivery of a work and residence permit within 24 hours. For longer-term adjustment, as in the case of workers in the information and communication technology or healthcare sectors, migration alone cannot alleviate labour shortages. For the most part, the solution rests on conducting structural reform in the host country, involving labour markets, education and training systems. Better human capital management is a precursor to the reforms and important in meeting the challenges of an ageing population. Regarding objectives such as combating illegal immigration or improving migration management, the efficacy of bilateral agreements is limited and depends on the type and content of the agreement. In Switzerland, for instance, agreements allowing seasonal workers to enter and exit Switzerland several times a year with stays of up to nine months recognised their limits: the status of foreign seasonal worker has recently been abolished.

Box I.3. **Bilateral labour agreements and other forms of recruitment of foreign workers: evaluation and prospects** (cont.)

Having multiple objectives makes it challenging to assess whether agreements are effective and inevitably creates trade-offs among goals. Some objectives may actually conflict. Thus, the effectiveness of agreements will depend on the weight assigned to each goal. For instance, if the aim is to promote rapid labour market adjustment, security problems may appear due to the lack of information on new arrivals. At the same time, attempts to tackle labour shortages may raise ethical concerns such as a “brain drain” and undermine the objective of promoting economic development in sending countries. Risks can be associated with these agreements. Thus, it is necessary to promote social dialogue by involving social partners in drafting and monitoring migration agreements to ensure that all stakeholders benefit from these agreements.

Are there other ways of achieving these objectives? Some countries have experimented with other schemes than bilateral agreements. To meet labour market needs, the United States and Canada, for example, have promoted transparency in the regimes governing migration, namely within temporary migration – with specific stay duration and precise rules on limited renewal – and permanent migration, also subject to precise criteria. These systems create an environment for improved migration-flow management and are, thus, effective in terms of that objective. They are probably effective also in meeting medium-term needs on the labour market. Yet, the systems require the introduction of new, lengthy procedures and prove less effective in meeting the short-term needs of the labour market. In the longer term and for skilled labour in particular, a comprehensive approach (based on selective policies as in Australia, Canada and New Zealand or special visas, as in the United States) is probably more effective than bilateral agreements.

OECD countries during the 1990s (see *International Mobility of the Highly Skilled*, OECD, 2002). New IT competencies and skills, however, are not the only ones in demand. Population ageing in most OECD countries and the related boom in healthcare are increasing the demand for medical personnel. Doctors, nurses, nursing auxiliaries and care assistants are particularly sought after in several member countries. The same applies to teachers, translators or human resources in science and technology (HRST) in the biomedical or agro-food sectors. Although the knowledge economy is taking on growing importance, several OECD countries also have identified recruitment problems in low-skill occupations. Australia’s Job Search agency, for instance, reports shortages in general unskilled labour, factory workers, plant operators, catering, tourism and hotel personnel, as well as sales assistants and warehouse operatives. The same applies to construction workers in France, Germany, Greece, Italy, Portugal and Spain, trades workers in the United Kingdom and more generally consumer service staff in Canada.

In the medium term in several OECD countries, retiring baby-boomers will generate relatively high demand for replacement labour in specific occupations. These jobs will include child caretakers in France as well as banking and insurance clerks in Germany. A significant number of civil servants will be retiring within the next five years in many OECD countries.

a) Migration policies in some OECD member countries tend to facilitate the recruitment of foreign workers, especially if skilled...

Competition is keen among OECD member countries to attract human resources they lack and to retain those who might emigrate. Many countries amended their legislation in

the late 1990s to facilitate the entry of skilled foreign workers and to allow foreign students to access their labour markets (under certain conditions and for specific occupations) upon graduation (see special chapter on the mobility of students between and to OECD countries in the 2001 edition of *Trends in International Migration*). Most countries merely introduced more flexibility into their existing migration policies, but some also launched more specific programmes (e.g. in the United States, the United Kingdom). The recent economic downturn did not affect this trend.

In France, Ireland, the Netherlands and the United Kingdom, foreign labour recruitment is based on decisions taken mostly at a national or regional level to meet labour market demand. The application of labour market testing criteria is a common practice, as is the requirement that foreign worker wages are comparable to native wages given similar skills and occupations. In these countries, recruitment procedures for those occupations reflecting current labour market demand, however, have been simplified to exclude labour market tests. These occupations include IT specialists, highly skilled workers and, in some cases, biotechnology, medicine, healthcare and education professionals, as observed in the United Kingdom's Shortage Occupation List.

Germany has developed a special programme to recruit IT specialists. Approximately 13 000 persons have been recruited since August 2000 and the same number could be hired by the end of 2003. In addition, the German authorities are debating new legislation that would extensively reform immigration laws to facilitate the entry of highly skilled workers with job offers exceeding an annual salary of EUR 75 000. A second entry channel plans to select skilled workers using a points system based on the Canadian model. This channel, unlike the first, will be subject to a quota, but pre-arranged employment will not be a prerequisite.

Considering that family preference is the cornerstone of permanent immigration policy in the United States, the country still admits a large number of highly skilled foreign professionals and workers on renewable three-year visas (H-1B visas). This temporary immigration is subject to an annual quota set to 195 000 until 2003. In other settlement countries, that is, Australia, Canada and New Zealand, permanent immigration is subject to a points system with the emphasis on the potential immigrant's profile (age, education, skills, work experience). These countries also have facilitated temporary immigration of skilled labour in recent years. In Japan and Korea, most foreign worker flows consist of migrants with short-stay work permits. Both countries share a determination to confine immigration to skilled workers. At the same time, schemes allow trainees, mainly in low-skilled jobs, under certain conditions to change their employment status as part of Japan's technical training programme within companies or Korea's industrial and technical training programme.

Although the majority of programmes target skilled workers, several OECD member countries have also appealed to unskilled foreign labour, especially in agriculture, construction and household services. Italy, Spain, Portugal and Greece are notable examples. It is also important to note that, during the past three years, southern European countries have signed bilateral agreements for the recruitment of foreign workers with Poland, Ukraine and Romania (see Box I.3 above). Finally, seasonal worker visas are increasingly used throughout the member countries, such as in Germany, Switzerland and the United States.

b) ... but there are limits to selective labour-related immigration policies

The programmes introduced to tackle labour market shortages through immigration differ according to the type of labour required. Although these programmes are generally very selective, they are not all identical (recruitment may be temporary or permanent, general or occupation-specific, aiming at certain jobs or targeting certain global regions). For all programme types, selective policies do have their limits in terms of i) identifying and selecting workers, and ii) policy effectiveness.

To identify and select among potential immigrants those who will best meet a country's migration policy objectives requires quantifiable criteria that detect the "right candidates" and assess information provided by the immigrants. This task can be difficult, particularly when the purpose of migration policies is to support the long-term development of the labour market. Furthermore, the selection process is often predicated on an active partnership between employers, government and trade union officials. Finally, the more detailed the selection criteria, the more costly the procedure in terms of human and financial resources and recruitment time.

When labour-related immigration policies are largely aimed at facilitating short-term labour market adjustment, their effectiveness is dependent on rapid selection procedures and needs-based criteria. Nonetheless, it takes time to validate qualifications and work experience and to assess language skills. It may be tempting, therefore, to reduce controls and relax the selection criteria. To tackle this issue, some countries delegate responsibility for part of the selection process to employers (generally skill validation), but retain control in defining the basic criteria. This has the dual advantage of, first, theoretically ensuring that recruitment is more closely geared to corporate needs and, second, significantly reducing processing time.

In addition to problems relating to candidate selection, other constraints weigh on the design and implementation of selective labour-related immigration policies. Experience shows that migration policies have a definite impact on the number and characteristics of inflows of immigrant workers, but little effect on outflows (including nationals). Thus, it is difficult to control the size or characteristics of the migration balance, as well as the gap between the expected and observed length of stay. Moreover, in some cases, a portion of skilled migrants who arrived relatively recently in one country decide to re-emigrate to another country, for example, from Canada to the United States or from France to the United Kingdom. Countries cannot keep in check internal mobility and how immigrants are likely to change their behaviour once settled in the host country. Thus, migration policy should not aim at meeting solely labour market objectives, but also multilateral (*e.g.* areas with free movement of labour, multinational staff mobility) and humanitarian commitments (including family reunion). These additional objectives tend to restrict the scope of selective labour-related immigration procedures because workers entering the country via these "alternative channels" account for a large share of overall migration flows and generally have access to the labour market. The persistence of undocumented entries and the illegal employment of foreigners prove how difficult it can be to maintain full control over migration flows.

Finally, most OECD countries share similar demographic and economic patterns thereby favouring the notion that net immigration would have to come from outside the OECD area. As developing countries have a relatively limited human capital resource base, large outflows of skilled workers might undermine their economic development potential

and increase the incentive for unskilled workers to emigrate. These possibilities raise the issue of consistency between development and migration policies. In fact, brain drain may affect long-term growth of developing countries and make it more difficult to control overall migration flows (see *Globalisation, Migration and Development*, OECD, 2000).

New inflows of foreign workers play only a limited role in alleviating labour shortages, even when selective labour-related policies are employed. Thus, immigration alone will not resolve labour market failure and problems related to ageing populations. Several OECD member countries have responded by instilling policies to tap existing labour reserves and to improve the way present and future generations are prepared and trained to meet the needs of the labour market.

3. Improving measures to facilitate the labour market and social integration of immigrants

Given the difficulties faced by immigrants in successful labour market integration, most OECD countries recently reinforced their integration systems, notably to improve the language skills of newcomers (France, Germany and Norway) and to fight against discrimination (Belgium and Sweden). Some countries insist more than others that immigrants participate in classes aimed at improving their integration prospects. In the Netherlands, for example, immigrants must follow assimilation and integration training as a condition to family reunification. If they do not participate, their social benefits are cut or eliminated.

Canada is now trying to overcome obstacles likely to get in the way of integration policies, most of which stem from the sharing of power between the provinces and the federal authorities. For instance, each province is in charge of the recognition of qualifications, thus making it difficult to co-ordinate among regions or to impose federal regulations. In sectors such as health services and engineering, it is necessary to complete basic competencies before adapting the immigrant's skills to the local environment. This development of individual competencies can be financed with low interest rate loans aimed at helping immigrants pay for their training. Moreover, observations show that performing an evaluation before training helps to provide advice in improving the newcomers' skills.

In the context of ageing populations and the renewed interest in labour-related migration, several OECD member countries have decided to pay more attention to the integration of new immigrants. The social dimension of integration has gained ground in the development of integration policies (see Box I.4). While settlement countries like Australia, Canada and New Zealand have been promoting integration for many years, OECD European countries now are recognising the importance of integration as more immigrants intend to settle. In the Netherlands, integration measures are particularly directed toward housing and the geographic distribution of immigrants, in order to reduce their concentration. The thorough two-year integration programme in Australia includes English language courses and more support to newcomers. Korea and Japan have both acknowledged the need for new measures to encourage immigrants to master the receiving country's language. In France, a new law voted in December 2002 recommends intensive French language classes for newcomers.

Receiving a country's nationality is a characteristic of the gradual economic and social integration of foreigners and can enable them to facilitate their integration. Available

Box I.4. **The economic and social aspects of migration**

The OECD and the European Commission jointly organised an international conference on the economic and social aspects of migration in Brussels on 21 and 22 January 2003.* This conference analysed the social and economic challenges of migration in relation to the demographic structure of OECD member countries, their economic situation, labour market needs as well as prospects for integration and equal opportunities for immigrants. The economic and social dimensions of migration and their implications on future migration policies were also discussed at the conference.

Four main lessons resulted from the conference proceedings. First, migration does not consist of only individual contracts between employers and foreign workers. It also has a social dimension, especially concerning the integration of foreigners into society. The issue of ensuring that migration policy remains consistent with development policy also needs to be considered due to the “brain drain” risks, which include effects on the sending country’s capacity for growth and continued development.

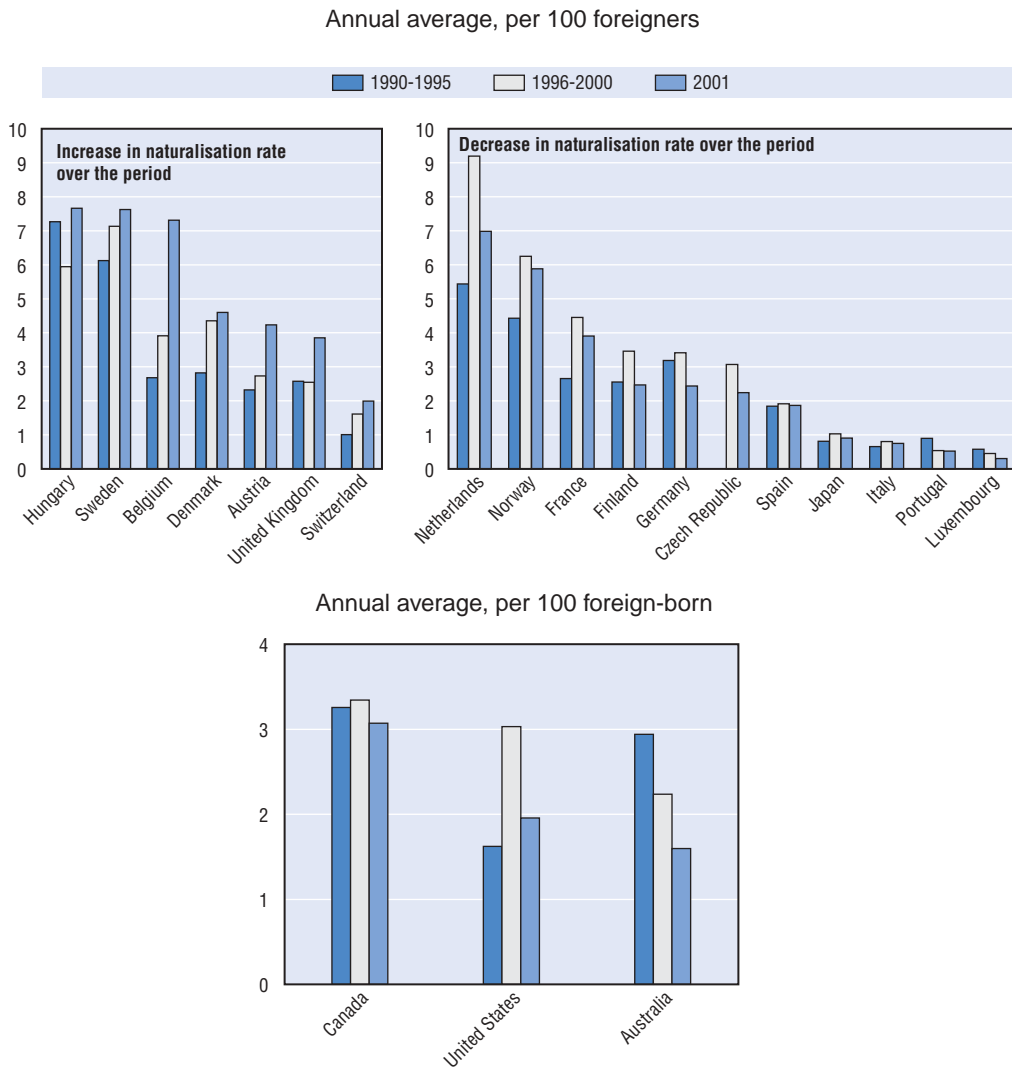
Second, successful integration policies engage a variety of fields. European countries could follow the examples of policies implemented in some settlement countries (such as in Canada) and, in particular, the comprehensive legislative framework established to combat racism and discrimination. Education and training are critical elements of integration, as is shown by the school performance differences of immigrant and second-generation immigrant children. Similarly, steps must be taken to insure the recognition of foreign diplomas and immigrants’ skills acquired abroad and to highlight the importance of related policies (e.g. housing, health). Yet, policies with the intention of promoting social cohesion must also maintain a general aspect to avoid the unnecessary exclusion of the targeted immigrant populations.

Third, if the European Union can provide a general framework and momentum for these policies, it remains that their precise definitions and implementation should be in the hands of the member states. Immigration and, therefore, integration processes are concepts closely linked to national identity issues. Each European country has its own immigration history and the situation of immigrants differs greatly from one country to another. It, thereby, seems difficult to develop a “one size fits all” policy that would meet the needs of each country, particularly at a time when the European Union is entering into an important phase of enlargement.

Finally, governments would stand to gain from placing greater importance on communication by informing public opinion of the results and analyses of serious research, the true costs and benefits of immigration and the reasons and rationalisation behind policies developed in this field. Only when this has happened, can the stereotypes and unfounded fears still too prevalent among populations be dispelled.

* www.oecd.org/document/1/0,2340,en_2649_37415_15582209_1_1_1_37415,00.html

data on the number of naturalised persons indicate that more than 600 000 foreigners residing in the European Economic Area (EAA) were naturalised in 2001. In North America (the United States and Canada), this number reached 775 000. Currently at record levels, naturalisations underscore immigrants’ desire to integrate into receiving countries. This data, however, should not hide the diversity of situations observed in each country. Indeed, naturalisation rates vary dramatically across countries (less than 1% in Japan, more than 7% in Hungary, Sweden and Belgium). The number of naturalisations has been on the rise for several years in some countries such as Austria, the United Kingdom, Belgium or Spain, but declining for at least the past three years in others, such as Australia and the Netherlands (see Chart I.14). In Germany, about 500 000 people were naturalised between

Chart I.14. **Naturalisation rate in selected OECD countries, 1990-2001**

Note: Number of naturalised persons as a percentage of the stock of foreigners (stock of foreign-born for Australia, Canada and the United States) at the beginning of the year.

Source: See the notes related to Table A.1.6 at the end of the Statistical Annex.

1 January 2000 and 31 December 2002. Even though the 2002 naturalisation figures show a decrease of about 13%, Germany has the highest number in absolute terms in Europe (nearly 155 000 in 2002, compared to 120 000 in the United Kingdom the same year).

Some OECD countries have recently adapted their laws regarding naturalisation with the idea of either making procedures easier (for example, by reducing the number of years of stay required to apply for naturalisation, as in Luxembourg) or requiring that candidates have a better knowledge of the country's language and culture, as in the Netherlands, Austria and Denmark. In 2002, Spain has implemented less bureaucratic and speedier procedures for direct descendants of former Spanish citizens (mostly from Latin America).

Switzerland has decided to facilitate the citizenship acquisition to children of second-generation immigrants.

4. The emergence of a European immigration policy⁷

The European Community has had some jurisdiction on immigration from third countries only since the entry into force of the Treaty of Amsterdam on 1 May 1999. This Treaty put forward a common immigration and asylum policy,⁸ despite three EU member states not participating in it fully.⁹ The latter policy rapidly came to be seen as one of the key components of the area of freedom, security and justice that the European Union undertook to put in place within five years (i.e. by 1 May 2004) and whose progress can be measured by the scoreboard published by the Commission every six months.¹⁰

The importance of this new European objective was marked by the organisation in Tampere in October 1999 of a European Council meeting chaired by the Finnish presidency and specifically devoted to justice and home affairs. Heads of state and governments used this meeting to spell out the European Union's four objectives regarding immigration and asylum: partnership with countries of origin, fair treatment of third country nationals, management of migration flows and the setting up of a common European asylum system. This involves an overall policy covering the separate but closely linked aspects related to immigration and asylum,¹¹ on which the June 2002 Seville European Council stressed: "Measures taken in the short and medium term for the joint management of migration flows must strike a fair balance between, on the one hand, a policy for the integration of lawfully resident immigrants and an asylum policy complying with international conventions, principally the 1951 Geneva Convention, and, on the other, resolute action to combat illegal immigration and trafficking in human beings."¹²

At the start of the process, the European Commission adopted a Communication on a "Community Immigration Policy,"¹³ the purpose of which was to state how it planned to propose to the Council that it implement objectives with respect to the admission of third country nationals. Starting from the premise that "zero" immigration policies were no longer suitable, the Commission defended the idea that a correctly regulated policy based, in line with item 20 of the Tampere conclusions ("on a shared assessment of the economic and demographic developments within the Union, as well as the situation in the countries of origin"), maximises the advantages for the European Union, immigrants and their countries of origin. This policy is comprised of two parts: a harmonised legislative framework, whose adoption process is the focus of most people's attention, and the co-ordination of EU member state actions which are equally essential if a common immigration policy is to acquire true substance. The co-ordination in question, which takes various forms, concerns measures to combat illegal immigration and the management of legal migration flows. In addition, immigration policy has become so important at the European level that the European Union has incorporated related concerns when dealing with third countries of origin and transit. It is therefore necessary to create a general framework which each country should respect, whilst adapting it according to their own labour market needs and their own capacities for integration.

a) The adoption of a harmonised legal framework

The legislative programme drawn up by the Commission is broken into four main proposed directives, which vary according to the purpose of the third country nationals'

stay: family reunification; immigration by workers; the admission of students, occupational trainees and volunteers; and the status of long-term residents. In addition, a specific proposal covers the victims of trafficking in human beings.

The debate prompted by the Council Directive of 22 September 2003 on the right to family reunification,¹⁴ which is the first text on legal immigration (adopted on 22 September 2003), is important to the entire legislative programme. The Commission's initial approach¹⁵ had to be amended because a number of EU member states were reluctant to allow increased flexibility regarding both the definition of family members and the conditions required to qualify for family reunification. A number of waivers, flanked by a standstill clause, were also introduced with the object of satisfying certain EU member states with respect to the following points: the possibility of enforcing integration conditions on children over age 12 who did not enter the country at the same time as their parents; the obligation to lodge the reunification request before the child is 15; and the extended waiting period before being entitled to family reunification.

The second text thus far to have been the subject of agreement at the 6 June 2003 Council of Ministers is the proposed directive on the status of third country nationals who are long-term residents.¹⁶ This proposal falls within the Tampere goal to grant fair treatment to third country nationals, stating that a more vigorous integration policy should aim at granting them rights and obligations comparable to those of EU citizens.¹⁷ [...] "The legal status of third country nationals should be approximated to that of EU member states' nationals. A person, who has resided legally in an EU member state for a period of time to be determined and who holds a long-term residence permit, should be granted in that EU member state a set of uniform rights which are as near as possible to those enjoyed by EU citizens; *e.g.* the right to reside, receive education and work as an employee or self-employed person, as well as the principle of non-discrimination *vis-à-vis* the citizens of the state of residence. The European Council endorses the objective that long-term resident third country nationals be offered the opportunity to obtain the nationality of the EU member state in which they are resident."¹⁸ This directive, which is in line with the thinking behind the civil citizenship concept proposed by the Commission in its November 2000 Communication on Community immigration policy, grants third country nationals the right to acquire long-term resident status after five years of legal and uninterrupted residence under certain conditions (*e.g.* income, health insurance, possibly integration), granting them equal treatment with nationals as regards access to employment, education, professional training, recognition of qualifications, social security, welfare and social protection, tax benefits, access to goods and services, including housing and union rights. The directive is particularly interesting in that it gives long-term residents a right of stay in other EU member states under certain conditions, thereby in a way extending to third country nationals the advantages of freedom of movement enjoyed by European citizens.

Negotiations on the proposal for a Council Directive on the conditions of entry and residence of third country nationals for the purpose of salaried employment and self-employment¹⁹ have ceased to move forward since they began in spring 2002. This proposal is intended to secure the adoption of a directive establishing common definitions, procedures and criteria for the admission of employees and the self-employed and, in particular, proposes that the residence permit and work permit be combined into a single document. The expected admission mechanism is based in principle on a case-by-case

review of each application, the main criterion being that persons legally residing in the domestic labour market could not fill the post.

To assist employers with a practical instrument to demonstrate the labour market shortage, this last condition is considered met when a specific job vacancy is published through the intermediary of the employment services of a number of EU member states or the European Employment Service (EURES) and remains without a positive response for a period of at least four weeks.²⁰ EU member states facing a labour shortage may apply other systems,²¹ the transparent method of co-ordinating immigration policy allowing them in principle to compare their experiences in these matters. Moreover, they would continue to be able to “adopt national provisions limiting the issuing of permits in accordance with this Directive to a set ceiling or suspending or halting the issuing of these permits for a defined period, taking into account the overall capacity to receive and to integrate third country nationals on their territory or in specific regions thereof. These national provisions shall state in detail which groups of persons are covered by, or exempted from, the measure.”²² The proposal plans to solidify the status of individuals already admitted to the labour market after three years, with the stipulation that the renewal of their residence permits will no longer depend on labour market requirements and should be considered in parallel with the directive enabling third country nationals to acquire long-term resident status after five years of uninterrupted legal residence. Rather than advocating temporary or permanent immigration, the Commission is defending a progressive viewpoint based on the idea that migrants’ rights should increase with their length of stay.

During the second half of 2003, the Italian Presidency placed the emphasis on the proposal for a Council Directive on issuing a short-term residence permit to victims of illegal immigration or of trafficking in human beings who co-operate with the competent authorities.²³ Negotiations will begin in autumn 2003 on the proposal for a Council Directive on the conditions of entry and residence of third country nationals for the purpose of studies, professional training or voluntary service,²⁴ which supports an extensive entry channel to the European Union to third country students.

A number of texts relating specifically to measures combating illegal immigration have also been adopted on the initiative of EU member states. These include: Council Directive 2001/51 on the criminal responsibility of carriers transporting foreign nationals;²⁵ Council Directive 2001/40 on the mutual recognition of decisions on the expulsion of third country nationals;²⁶ Council Directive 2002/90 of 28 November 2002 defining the facilitation of unauthorised entry, transit and residence,²⁷ coupled with the Council Framework Decision of 28 November on the strengthening of the penal framework to prevent the facilitation of unauthorised entry, transit and residence;²⁸ and, lastly, the Council Framework Decision of 19 July 2002 on combating trafficking in human beings.²⁹ A number of other initiatives on the part of EU member states are under consideration. These include a German initiative in favour of adopting a directive on assistance in the framework of expulsion by means of air transport; two Italian initiatives in favour of adopting a decision to organise shared flights to expulse third country nationals residing illegally in the territory of two or more EU member states and a directive on assisted transit through the territory of one or more EU member states in the context of expulsion measures taken by EU member states with respect to third country nationals; and a Spanish initiative aimed at obliging carriers to communicate all the details about the persons transported.

b) Co-operation between EU member states in combating illegal immigration

An immigration policy is never completely defined by its legal or regulatory standards, as these allow competent authorities to have varying levels of comprehension, often reflected in the adoption of circulars and, ultimately, a whole host of individual decisions. For a genuine common policy, the action taken by EU member states with regard to immigration therefore needs to be co-ordinated to some extent at European level. The Ministers responsible for Justice and Home Affairs have fully understood this prerequisite regarding measures to combat illegal immigration. Under the impetus of the European Councils of Laeken on 14 and 15 December 2001 and Seville on 21 and 22 June 2002, a minimum of three action plans were approved by the Council during the course of 2002: a comprehensive plan to combat illegal immigration and trafficking of human beings in the European Union, also called the Santiago Plan after the location of its approval on 28 February 2002;³⁰ a 13 June 2002 plan for the management of the external borders of the EU member states; and an action programme for a Community return policy on 28 November 2002. It is noted with interest that the Council adopted each of these plans based on a communication from the Commission.³¹

The comprehensive plan to combat illegal immigration and trafficking of human beings consists of a thorough set of diverse measures grouped under seven topical headings: visa policy;³² information exchange and analysis;³³ pre-frontier measures;³⁴ border management; readmission and return policy (the last two which were later the subject of a special plan); police co-operation via the strengthening of the role of Europol and, last, penalties for various offences linked to illegal immigration.³⁵ The plan clearly shows that combating illegal immigration requires a global approach involving both internal and external action by the European Union.

The plan for the management of EU member states' external borders is designed to ensure an adequate level of control over all external borders, in line with the thinking behind the Schengen common area, i.e. that one member state's surveillance of its own borders is carried out on behalf of all member states because of the abolition of checks at internal borders, and bearing in mind, of course, the enlargement of the European Union to include ten new member states, some of which will be responsible for checks at the European Union's eastern borders once they are fully integrated into the Schengen area when checks have been lifted at their internal borders with the present 15 EU member states. Border control management is based on five components and makes a distinction between the measures to be adopted in the short or medium term: a common operational co-ordination and co-operation mechanism based on the creation of a certain number of administrative bodies;³⁶ a network structure composed of specialised operational centres;³⁷ the development of pilot projects³⁸ and surveillance operations at maritime, land and air borders involving several EU member states; shared and integrated risk appraisal based on relevant indicators for need assessment;³⁹ inter-operational personnel and equipment; a common corpus of legislation; and sharing the financial burden between the European Union and its member states. While the Commission's proposal to create a European border guard⁴⁰ is not included in the management plan, the dynamic process that has been set in motion and will be implemented in successive stages in no way rules it out.

The return programme is articulated in four parts respectively devoted to the strengthening of operational co-operation between EU member states, minimum common

standards or guidelines for return procedures, programmes specific to the third countries concerned and the strengthening of co-operation with third countries. Operational co-operation between EU member states and with third countries is clearly given priority over the development of common standards. One of the planned measures⁴¹ involves organising common return operations, either by sharing existing capacity on organised flights or by scheduling shared charter flights. A first return programme for Afghanistan, to be implemented during the course of 2003, was approved at the Justice and Home Affairs Council meeting on 28 and 29 November 2002. Co-operation with third countries, which mainly relies on the signing of readmission agreements designed to facilitate the expulsion of the persons concerned, is proving more difficult than anticipated.

The progress made in this area was measured by the Commission in its Communication to the European Council of Thessaloniki covering the implementation of the three action plans⁴² and it will in future be the subject of an annual appraisal report.

c) Co-ordination in the management of legal migration flows

In contrast with their increased co-operation in combating illegal immigration, EU member states are making less progress in co-ordinating the management of legal migration flows. The Communication on “an open method of coordination for Community immigration policy”, adopted by the Commission on 11 July 2001⁴³ and inspired by the co-ordinated strategy for employment, has not yet drawn any explicit response from the European Council. Some progress has been made, however, regarding the exchange of information among EU member states in the context of the Immigration and Asylum Committee (IAC).⁴⁴ This progress was announced in the framework of a European Migration Network, comprised of national contact points designated by voluntarily participating EU member states. The Network will be responsible for analysing every aspect of the phenomenon of migration. In 2002, the Community established a budget line to finance the creation of the Network, which finally received the backing of heads of state and governments at the Thessaloniki European Council in June 2003. Efforts have also been made to improve the collection of data on migration,⁴⁵ which is essential to the construction of the new common policy and is scheduled to result in legislation by the Commission in 2004. Lastly, progress based on the exchange of best practices among EU member states is expected regarding the integration of third country nationals in the framework of the Group on National Points on Integration. This question has become increasingly sensitive and is attracting growing attention at European level.⁴⁶ In 2003, it was the subject of a budget line entitled INTI, the purpose of which is to finance pilot schemes relating to exchanges of good practices, information and dialogue, and improved knowledge of and support for innovative projects.

d) Integration of immigration and foreign relations policies

Co-ordination concerns not just different actors, such as EU member states and the European Community, but also different policies. The Tampere European Council set the European Union and its member states the objective of improving the “coherence of internal and external policies of the Union”,⁴⁷ which more specifically involves integrating immigration policy in the European Union’s relations with third countries. The focus on integrating migration policy in the European Union’s external relations had already been reflected, prior to the Treaty of Amsterdam, in the creation of a High Level Working Group on Asylum and Migration which drew up six action plans for Afghanistan, Morocco,

Somalia, Sri Lanka, Iraq as well as Albania and its adjacent region. This issue also dominated proceedings at the Seville Summit in June 2002, the conclusions to which state that “the European Council considers that combating illegal immigration requires a greater effort on the part of the European Union and a targeted approach to the problem, with the use of all appropriate instruments in the context of the European Union’s external relations”.

Notes

1. Between January 2001 and December 2002, more than 600 000 jobs were cut in the new technologies sector. In the first quarter of 2003, the unemployment rate for electronic engineers reached 7% compared to 5.8% for the population as a whole.
2. Moreover, since 2000, the number of long-stay permits (of more than 12 months) has overtaken short-stay permits (50 300 and 30 800 respectively in 2001).
3. The 2001 planned quota was 33 000 permits which was not completely filled. In 2002, the Italian authorities fixed the quota of permits for seasonal workers at 39 000.
4. The same can be said of Switzerland, albeit to a lesser extent.
5. The fertility rate for France was 1.88 children per woman against 1.47 in all European Union countries in 2001.
6. Nonetheless, in Germany, migration following the fall of the Iron Curtain has infused the foreign population with youth. Furthermore, the fact that children born in Germany and with foreign parents did not automatically receive German nationality until recently (see the note on Germany in Part IV) helped to increase the proportion of young foreigners in this country (the same situation is observed in Switzerland). Foreigners still remain largely under-represented in the 65+ age category. Conversely, in the main settlement countries, foreign-born people are slightly over-represented in the older age categories, but markedly under-represented in the younger (less than 15 years old) age categories.
7. This section was drafted by Philippe De Bruycker, Principal Administrator in the Immigration and Asylum Unit of the European Commission’s Directorate-General for Justice and Home Affairs. It briefly outlines the emergence of a European immigration policy and the way the latter had evolved up until September 2003. The author has expressed his own personal views which are not necessarily those of the institution to which he belongs.
8. See Articles 61 to 69 of the Treaty setting up the European Community. Article 62 concerns admission for a short stay (less than three months), which relates to external border controls and policy on visas for which should be taken into account the Schengen acquis integrated in the framework of the European Union by the Treaty of Amsterdam; Article 63 concerns entry for a long stay (more than three months) and measures to combat illegal immigration. This involves immigration policy in the strictest sense, to which this paper confines itself.
9. Although it comes within the framework Schengen area, Denmark does not participate in it at all. The United Kingdom and Ireland do not participate in principle, but are entitled to adhere to the instruments that are of interest to them. So far, they have not availed themselves of this possibility with respect to legislation on the admission of third country nationals, but on the other hand, they do participate in the co-ordination of measures adopted by the Council of Ministers between EU member countries, including illegal immigration.
10. Biannual update of the scoreboard to review progress on the creation of an area of “freedom, security and justice” in the European Union [COM(2003)291 of 22 May 2003].
11. Concerning asylum, see the second Commission report on the common asylum policy and the Agenda for protection [COM(2003)152 of 26 March 2003].
12. Item 28 of the conclusions.
13. COM(2000)757 of 22 November 2000.
14. Directive 2003/86 (*Official Journal* L 251 of 3 October 2003, p. 12).
15. *Official Journal* C 116 of 24 April 2000, p. 66.
16. See the Commission’s proposal COM(2001)127 of 13 March 2001.

17. Item 18 of the conclusions.
18. Item 21 of the conclusions.
19. COM(2001)386.
20. Commission Decision of 23 December 2002 implementing Council Regulation (EEC) No. 1612/68 as regards the clearance of vacancies and applications for employment (*Official Journal* L 005 of 10 January 2003, p. 16).
21. For example, a national “green card programme”, the setting of an income threshold or a money contribution by employers automatically authorising the recruitment of third country nationals.
22. See Article 26 of the proposal.
23. COM(2002)71 of 11 February 2002.
24. COM(2002)548 of 7 October 2002.
25. Directive supplementing the provisions of Article 26 of the Convention implementing the Schengen Agreement of 14 June 1985 (*Official Journal* L 187 of 10 July 2001, p. 45).
26. *Official Journal* L 149 of 2 June 2001, p. 34.
27. *Official Journal* L 328 of 5 December 2002, p. 17.
28. *Official Journal* L 328 of 5 December 2002, p. 1.
29. *Official Journal* L 203 of 1 August 2002, p. 1.
30. *Official Journal* L 142 of 14 June 2002, p. 23.
31. See the Communication on a common policy on illegal immigration [COM(2001)672 of 15 November 2001], the Communication on a Community return policy on illegal residents [COM(2002)564 of 14 October 2002] and the Communication entitled *Towards integrated management of the external borders of the member states of the European Union* [COM(2002)233 of 7 May 2002].
32. Increased visa security to combat fraud, the creation of joint consular offices responsible for issuing visas, the setting up of a European visa identification system.
33. Improved collating of statistics, improved information gathering and analysis, transformation of the early warning system for the transmission of information on illegal immigration into a secure internet site called Iconet.
34. Setting up of a network of liaison officers, financial and technical support for actions in third countries, awareness-raising campaigns amongst the populations concerned in third countries against the risks involved in illegal immigration and the trafficking of human beings.
35. Measures to combat the smuggling and trafficking of human beings, by using instruments of judicial co-operation in criminal matters, such as Eurojust; the study of EU member states’ legislation with respect to the illegal employment of illegally resident third country nationals; and the confiscation of all economic benefits flowing from illegal immigration.
36. A common unit for external borders practitioners at the European level; the designation of national contact points for border management within EU member states; and the creation of a network of EU member states’ immigration liaison officers.
37. Centres for terrestrial borders; centre of excellence for the development of new control and surveillance technologies.
38. Standardisation of security measures during return operations of aliens; the co-ordination of inquiries into transborder criminality in connection with illegal immigration in collaboration with Europol; and the standardisation of the way international airports are organised with a view to harmonising external border checks.
39. Where border crossing points are concerned, it is a matter of identifying the best control and surveillance practices and of setting up a technology watch guaranteeing the use of the best techniques, such as teledetection and biometry.
40. See the Communication “Towards integration management of the external borders of the member states of the European Union” of 7 May 2002 [COM(2002)233].
41. Operational co-operation will also be reflected in an agreement on the non-binding preliminary definitions of the legal concepts used, which are set out in Annex to the programme; improved exchanges of statistical data; the appointment, for each EU member state, of a contact point for return questions so as to be able to organise meetings and set up an information and co-ordination

network; information on best practices aimed at establishing the identities and nationalities of the people to be expelled and obtaining from the countries of origin the travel documents needed for the return; and the definition of a common training programme for member country officials responsible for implementing returns.

42. COM(2002)323.
43. COM(2001)387.
44. An *ad hoc* committee set up and chaired by the Commission and composed of representatives from EU member states.
45. See, in this connection, the Action Plan (2002-2004) for the collection and analysis of Community Statistics in the field of migration, adopted by the Commission on 15 April 2003 [COM(2003)179].
46. See the Communication on immigration, integration and employment [COM(2003)336] of 3 June 2003.
47. Item 11 of the conclusions.

PART II

Regional aspects of migration¹

Summary

This chapter analyses the regional aspects of international migration. It does not pretend to cover the whole set of issues related to the regional aspects of migration; the aim rather is to address the question “Where do migrants live?” The existence of international differences in the geographic distribution of immigrants raises question about the factors that affect where immigrants decide to live when they arrive in the host country. Among these factors are: i) the presence of family members or of persons of the same ethnic origin; ii) the point of entry into the country and the proximity of the country of destination to the country of origin; iii) the economic attractiveness of the destination region.

The first part of the study examines the role played by the personal characteristics of immigrants (country of origin, reason for entry, age at the time of migration, duration of stay) but also by the characteristics of the destination region. The analysis focuses on the economic determinants of the choice of the region of destination. Secondary migration movements (secondary internal migration or departure to another foreign country) and their impact on the geographic concentration of the immigrant population are also considered.

The second part presents some features of regional migration programmes in Australia and Canada. The analysis examines the measures implemented to seek to attract immigrants to regions with different levels of economic development, as well as to large and intermediate cities. The links between regional development policies and migration policies are emphasised.

Introduction

A renewed interest for the regional aspects of international migration is emerging in several OECD member countries. This interest is motivated by the following:

- The increased weight of regions in migration policies (for example, in Australia, Canada, Italy or Spain). Regions demand to play a larger role in the process of the selection of migrants, particularly of skilled workers.
- Some governments are seeking to set up policies to encourage new immigrants, especially highly skilled immigrants, to settle in regions other than large urban centres in order to stimulate local economic development.
- In some countries, the concentration of immigrants in large urban centres creates pressure on public infrastructures, which may result in negative externalities. Furthermore, when it results in excessive “ethnic” segregation, the concentration of foreigners may be seen as an obstacle to long-term integration into the society. The latter question is, however, a matter of current debate.

These issues do not arise in the same terms in all countries but vary with the political organisation and the attributions of second-tier governments (provinces, *Länder* or other

administrative regions); the economic dynamism of the regions; and the distribution of wealth across regions, as well as geographic characteristics.

With no pretence to cover the whole set of issues related to the regional aspects of migration, the aim of this study is to analyse the concentration of immigrants at the regional level² and to review the regional features of migration policies in some OECD member countries. The first part of the study will compare the degree of concentration of the foreign population in several OECD member countries³ and try to assess the main determinants of the choice of residence of foreigners. Despite the limited data availability, it is also important to study secondary migration (secondary internal migration or migration to another country). In the light of the results of the first part, the second part will examine some regional aspects of migration policy in two OECD member countries, Australia and Canada, where regional programmes for migration have been designed to strengthen the links between international migration and local economic development.

1. The choice of residence of immigrants: an overview of the main issues

In strongly urbanised economies like the majority of OECD member countries, large urban centres have a high degree of attractiveness for the whole population and even more so for immigrants. As a consequence of the significant increase in migration flows from the early nineties on (OECD, 2002), several OECD member countries are becoming increasingly concerned about the capacity of their large urban centres to cope with migration. The issue is widely debated because some authors have pointed out the negative economic effects that may result, under certain circumstances, from an excessive concentration of immigrants. Chiswick and Miller (2002) show that “ethnic” concentration tends to delay the acquisition of and the investment in qualifications specific to the host country (in particular, linguistic skills) and to decrease the level of nominal wages of immigrants.

More recently, policies have been introduced to attempt to bring new immigrants to less populated or less attractive regions, especially rural areas and secondary urban centres, to foster their economic development. This is true for highly skilled foreign workers but also for semi-skilled or even low-skilled workers. In order to attract new immigrants in these regions, specific migration programmes, information campaigns or active recruitments at the regional level have been put in place in some OECD member countries.

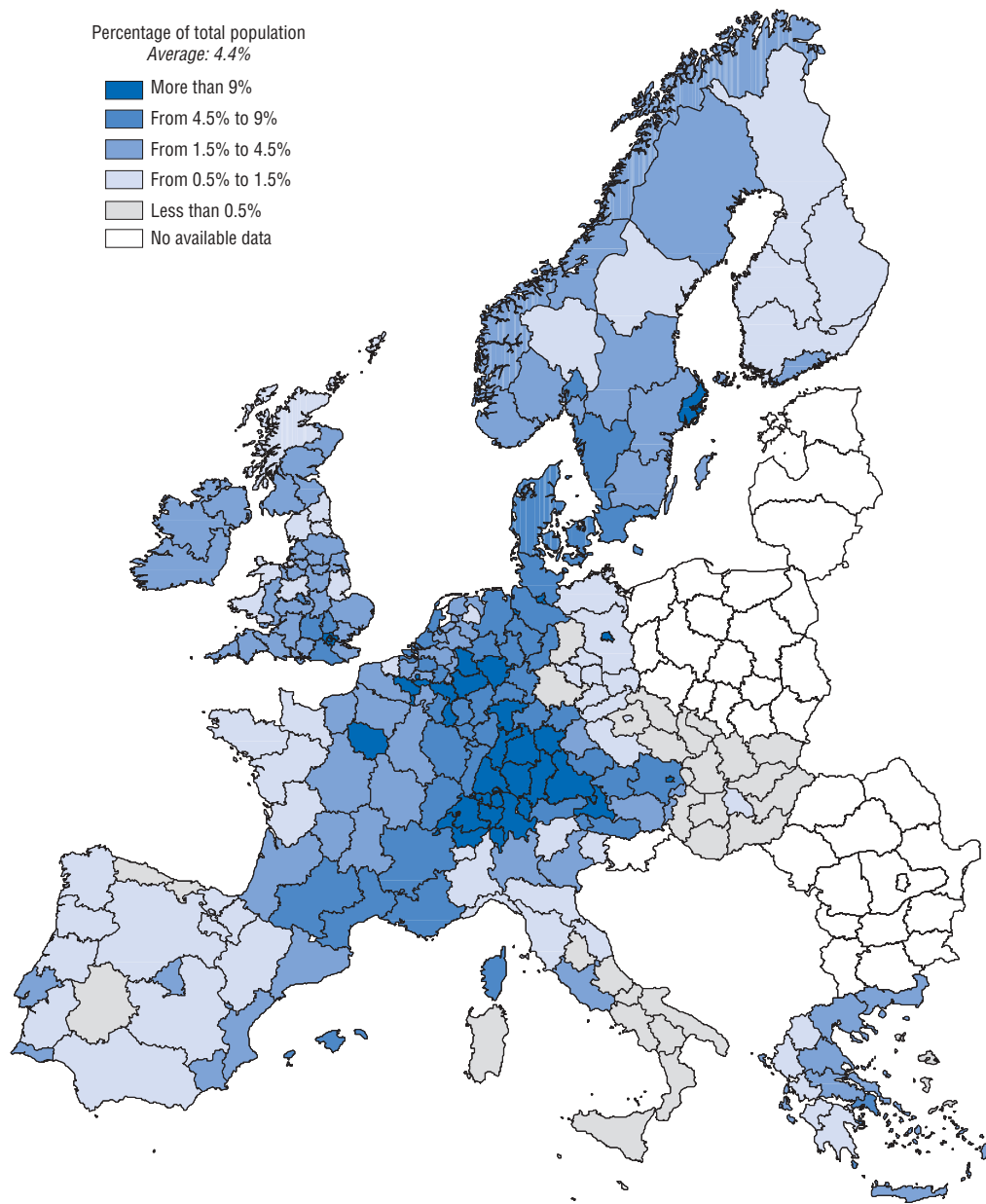
Traditionally, the geographic concentration of immigrants has been explained by one or more of the following factors: first, proximity to an entry point (“green” borders, a sea port in the past, an airport today); second, the presence of family members or members belonging to the same “community”; and last, but not least, the economic attractiveness of the place of destination in term of employment opportunities. While there is a widely held view that immigrants tend to settle where the demand for their skills is highest, some recent studies also have stressed the importance of the demographic and economic characteristics of migrants.

Where do migrants live?

The first issue to consider is whether migrants tend to settle in the same regions where the native population lives or to concentrate in a smaller number of regions (see Maps II.1-2-3-4). One synthetic indicator of the relative concentration of migrants is the Adjusted

Map II.1. Foreign population in the European regions, 2001

By NUTS 2 European region level

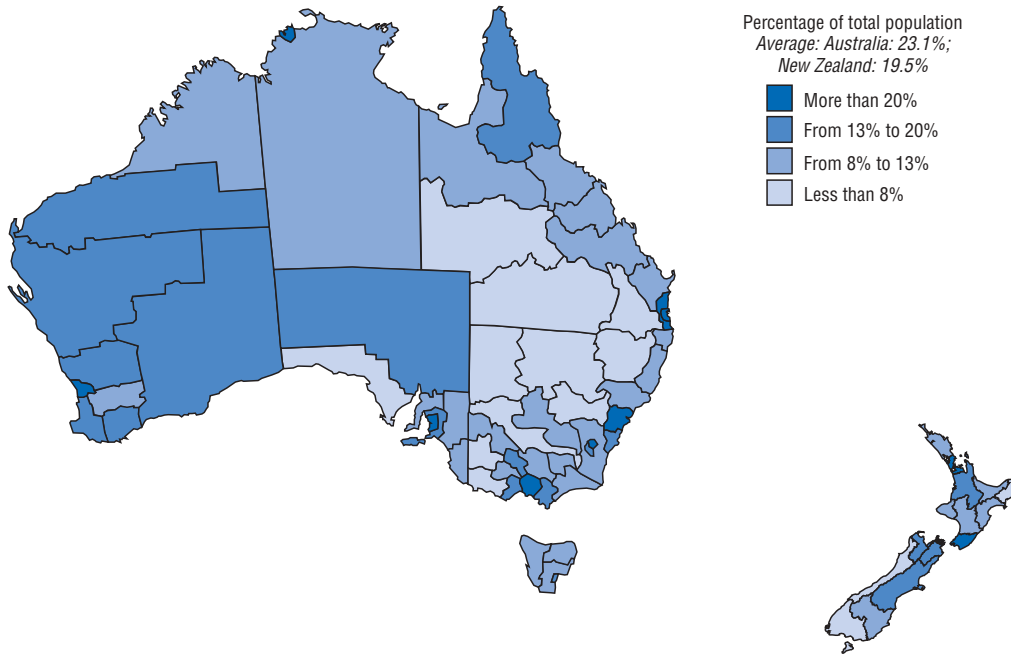


Note: Population aged 15 and over, except for Denmark, Luxembourg and Switzerland for which data cover the whole population. For those three countries data are not broken down by region. Data are not available for Iceland.

Sources: European Community Labour Force Survey (Eurostat); OECD Territorial Database.

Map II.2. Foreign-born population in the Australasian regions, 2001

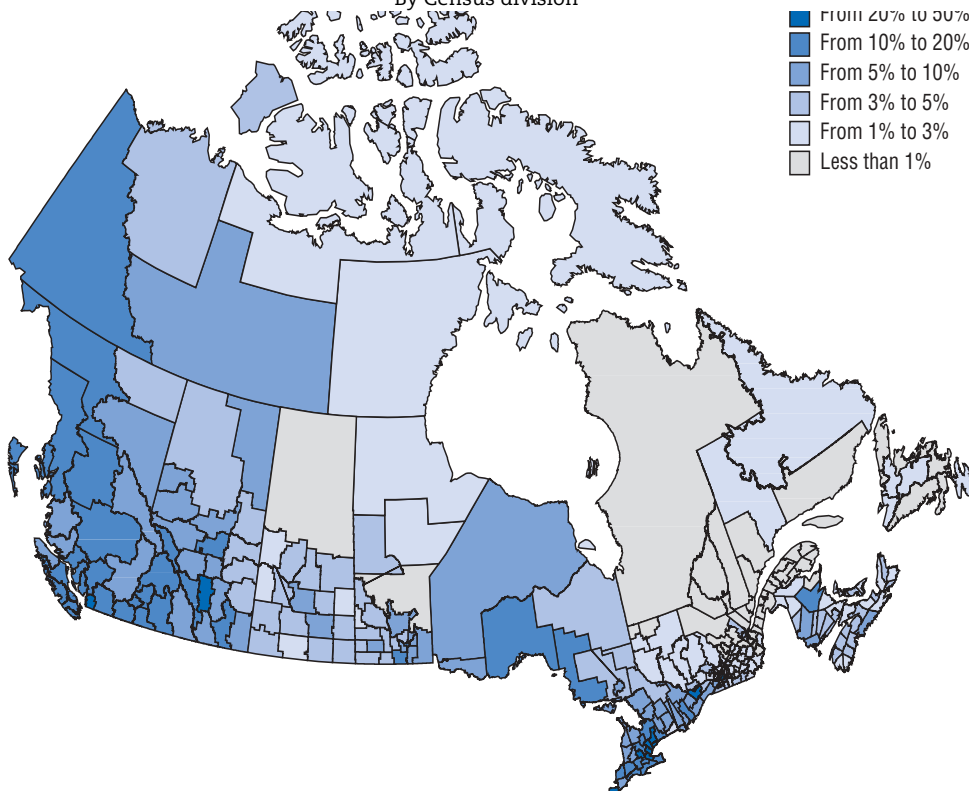
By statistical division (Australia) and regional council (New Zealand)



Sources: 2001 Population Census (Australian Bureau of Statistics, Statistics New Zealand); OECD Territorial Database.

Map II.3. Foreign-born population in the Canadian regions, 2001

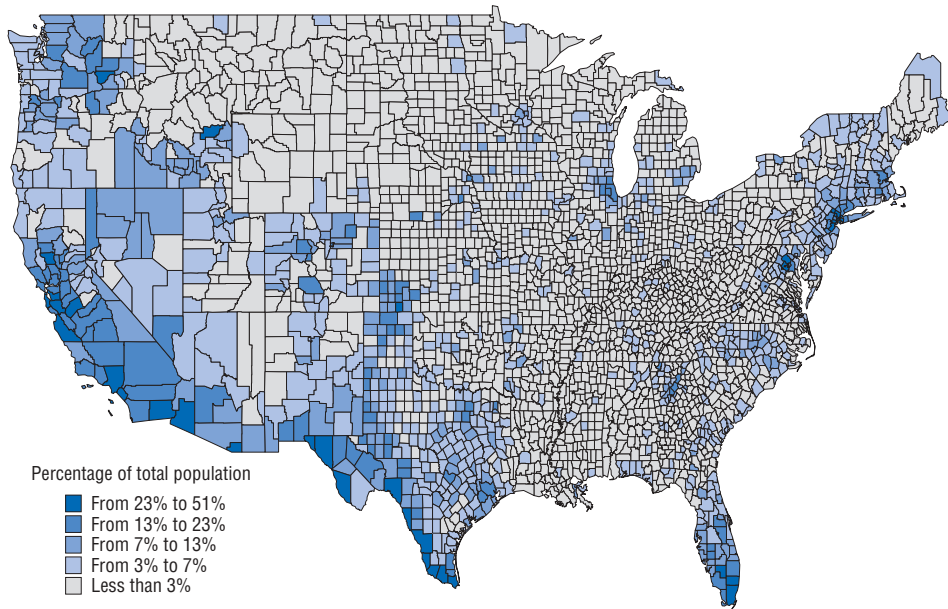
By Census division



Sources: 2001 Census (Statistics Canada); OECD Territorial Database.

Map II.4. Foreign-born population in the United States, 2000

By counties



Note: Not including Alaska and Hawaii.

Sources: United States Census 2000; OECD Territorial Database.

Geographic Concentration index (AGC), which measures the difference between the geographic distribution of the foreign population and the distribution of the native population (see Annex 1 for a more formal definition). The index ranges between 0 and 1: the higher its value, the more migrants are concentrated relative to the native population.

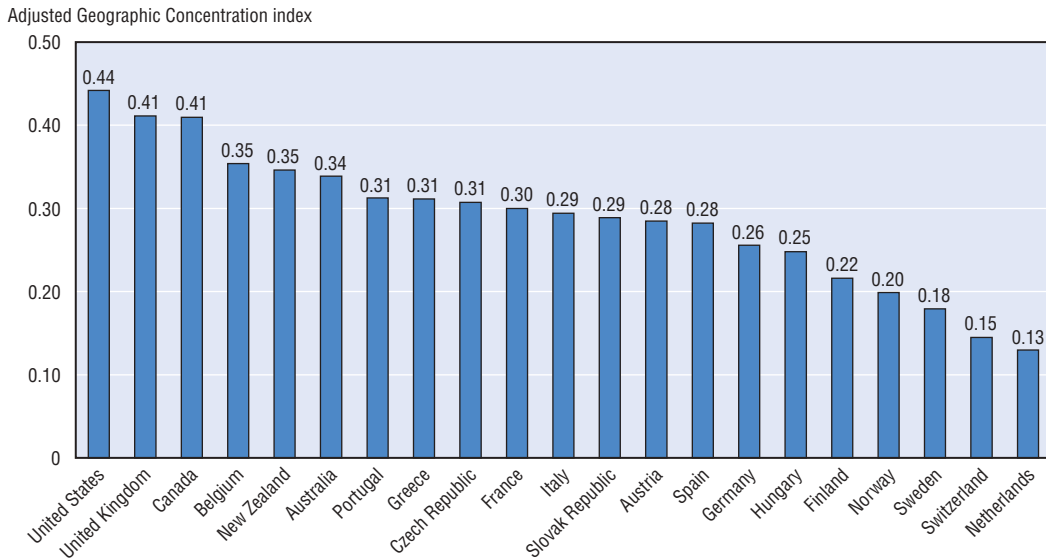
Chart II.1 reports the value of the AGC index in selected OECD member countries. For illustrative purposes, the last column of Table II.1 shows the ratio between the share of the foreign population in the region with the largest number of foreigners and the share of the foreign population in the entire country.

In general, the foreign population tends to be more concentrated in certain regions, with the degree of concentration differing significantly across countries. The United States, the United Kingdom, Canada and Belgium appear to be the countries where the concentration of foreigners is the highest, whereas the concentration is the lowest in the Netherlands, Switzerland and Sweden.

These international differences may be related to the size of the foreign population living in a country. In particular, one would expect that the geographic concentration of migrants would be lower in countries with a larger share of the foreign population. The reason is that a larger share of immigrants would be generally associated with a long-term accumulation of migration flows and duration of residence in the host country is an important determinant of access to information. As their duration of stay increases,

Chart II.1. **Geographic concentration of foreigners, 2001¹**

Adjusted Geographic Concentration index



Note: The Adjusted Geographic Concentration (AGC) index measures the difference between the geographic distribution of the foreign population and distribution of the native population. See Annex 1 for additional information on the AGC index.

1. Data from 2001, except for United States Census 2000.

Sources: For European countries, European Community Labour Force Survey (Eurostat); for Australia, Canada, New Zealand and the United States, Population Census.

immigrants become more aware of opportunities in other regions and may thus choose to move into a different region.

Chart II.2 illustrates the relationship between the relative size of the foreign-born or foreign population and its geographic distribution in selected OECD member countries. In general, the hypothesis that a larger share of foreign population is associated with a lower geographic concentration of immigrants does not seem to be supported. Some countries with a low share of foreigners (the Slovak Republic, Hungary, the Czech Republic, Italy, Finland, Spain, Portugal, Greece and Norway) also tend to show a low degree of concentration. Other countries (the United States, Canada, Belgium, New Zealand and Australia) have both a high share of foreigners and a high degree of concentration.

Furthermore, the geographic distribution of foreigners appears to be strongly affected by country-specific factors. For instance, foreigners seem to be much more concentrated in the United Kingdom than in Sweden, despite the fact that the percentage of the foreign population living in these two countries is almost the same. Similarly, the Netherlands and Switzerland show a similar degree of concentration, although the percentage of the population that is foreign in Switzerland is about six times higher than in the Netherlands.

Table II.1. **Geographic distribution of foreigners, 2001¹**

	Concentration of foreigners	Region with the largest number of foreigners	
		Name	Incidence of foreigners ²
Australia	0.34	Sydney	1.7
Austria	0.28	Wien	2.0
Belgium	0.35	Bruxelles	3.0
Canada	0.41	Metropolitan Toronto	2.7
Czech Republic	0.31	Praha	2.6
Finland	0.22	Uusimaa	1.8
France	0.30	Ile de France	2.3
Germany	0.26	Dusseldorf	1.4
Greece	0.31	Attikiti	1.8
Hungary	0.25	Central Hungary	1.8
Italy	0.29	Lombardia	1.7
Netherlands	0.13	Zuid-Holland	1.3
New Zealand	0.35	Auckland Region	2.0
Norway	0.20	Oslo o Akershus	1.8
Portugal	0.31	Lisboa e Vale do Tejo	1.9
Slovak Republic	0.29	Bratislavski	3.1
Spain	0.28	Madrid	2.0
Sweden	0.18	Stockholm	1.8
Switzerland	0.15	Zürich	1.1
United Kingdom	0.41	Inner London	5.6
United States	0.44	Los Angeles County	3.3

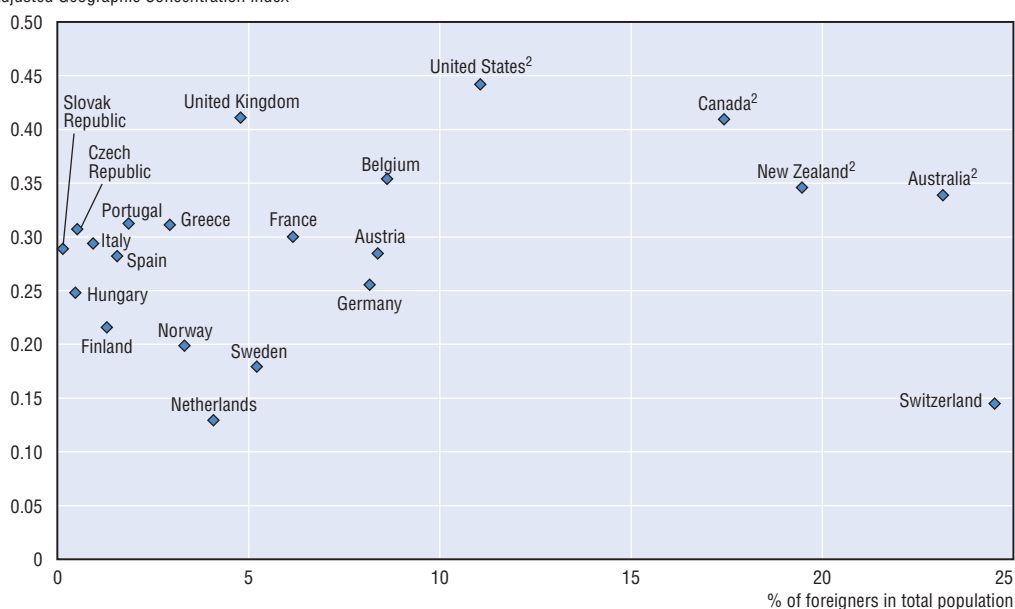
1. Data from 2001, except for United States Census 2000.

2. Incidence refers to the ratio between the number of foreigners living in the region (% of total population of this region) to the total number of foreigners living in the country (% of the total population). For example, foreigners represent 16.9% of the regional population of Vienna while total foreign population represents 8.4% of total population of Austria. In this case, the incidence of foreigners in Vienna equals 2.

Sources: For European countries, European Community Labour Force Survey (Eurostat); for Australia, Canada, New Zealand and the United States, Population Census.

Chart II.2. **Size and concentration of the foreign population, 2001¹**

Adjusted Geographic Concentration index



1. Data from 2001, except for United States Census 2000.

2. Data refer to the foreign-born population.

Sources: For European countries, European Community Labour Force Survey (Eurostat); for Australia, Canada, New Zealand and the United States, Population Census.

The concentration of foreigners depends on the attractiveness of regions...

Several factors may contribute to explain the observed concentration of foreigners in certain regions. A first factor is the attractiveness of the place of destination, where attractiveness refers to both the characteristics of the region (*e.g.*, quality of services, existence of amenities) and the economic opportunities available there. With regard to the first aspect, there appears to be a general trend towards the concentration of foreigners in major urban centres in OECD member countries. This trend is confirmed in Table 3, which reports the relative distribution of the foreign population in non-rural regions, classified according to the OECD Regional Typology (see Box II.1).

In most countries, the concentration of the foreign population in rural regions is less than half of the concentration in urban and intermediate regions combined. This difference is particularly pronounced in Australia, Canada, New Zealand and the Slovak Republic, where the concentration of foreigners in rural regions is four times lower than in the other regions.

With regard to economic attractiveness, Table 3 shows the relative distribution of the foreign population in “rich” regions, defined as those regions having a level of GDP per capita⁴ above the national average. In most countries, the concentration of foreign population in “rich” regions is much higher than in the other regions. This difference is

Table 3. Concentration of foreigners by type of regions, 2001¹

	Concentration in non-rural regions	Concentration in “rich” regions
Australia	4.2	3.7
Austria	2.2	2.8
Belgium	1.9	1.5
Canada	4.5	3.6
Czech Republic	2.2	3.4
Finland	2.5	2.5
France	3.0	3.0
Germany	2.1	2.1
Greece	2.7	2.5
Hungary	1.4	2.0
Italy	3.7	5.3
Netherlands	1.7	1.5
New Zealand	4.2	4.2
Norway	2.3	2.3
Portugal	1.8	1.8
Slovak Republic	4.2	4.2
Spain	1.4	1.9
Sweden	2.2	2.2
Switzerland	3.4	1.6
United Kingdom	2.6	2.0
United States ²	Note ³	2.6

Note: For example, in Australia, the number of foreigners living in non-rural regions (as a % of population in non-rural regions) is 4.2 times the number of foreigners living in rural regions (as a % of population in rural regions). Non-rural regions include predominately urban and intermediate regions. “Rich” regions are defined as having a level of GDP per capita above the national average. See Box II.1 for further detail on these definitions.

1. Data from 2001, except for United States Census 2000.
2. Excluding Puerto Rico.
3. In the United States, migration data are available for counties only, while the OECD Regional Typology is defined for Local Labour Market Areas.

Sources: For European countries, European Community Labour Force Survey (Eurostat); for Australia, Canada, New Zealand and the United States, Population Census.

Box II.1. The OECD Regional Typology

The OECD Regional Typology is based on two criteria. The first identifies rural communities according to their population density. A community is defined as rural if its population density is below 150 inhabitants per square kilometre (500 inhabitants for Japan because its national population density exceeds 300 inhabitants per square kilometre). The second classifies regions according to the percentage of population living in rural communities. Thus, a region is classified as:

Predominantly rural, if more than 50% of its population lives in rural communities.

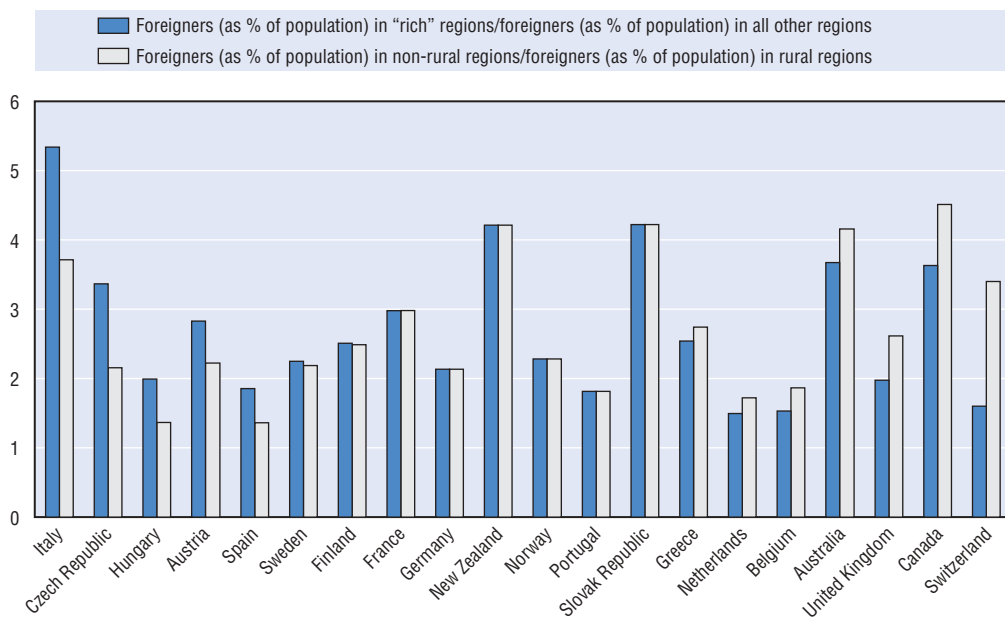
Predominantly urban, if less than 15% of the population lives in rural communities.

Intermediate, if the percentage of population living in rural communities is between 15 and 50%.

particularly pronounced in Italy, New Zealand and the Slovak Republic where the concentration of foreigners in “rich” regions is at least four times larger than in the rest of the country.

To a significant extent, these two aspects of attractiveness – regional type, on the one hand, and wealth, on the other – are, of course, overlapping. As urban regions tend to have a level of GDP per capita higher than average, one cannot easily disentangle the effects of one characteristic from the other. According to Chart II.3, this is the case of

Chart II.3. Regional attractiveness and concentration of foreigners, 2001



Note: “Rich” regions are defined as having a level of GDP per capita above the national average. “Non-rural” regions include predominately urban and intermediate regions; “rural” regions are predominately rural. See Box II.1 for further detail on these definitions.

Sources: For European countries, European Community Labour Force Survey 2001 (Eurostat); for Australia, Canada, New Zealand, Population Census 2001.

Finland, France, Germany, New Zealand, Norway, Portugal and the Slovak Republic, where the concentration of foreigners by regional type and level of GDP per capita are similar.

Nonetheless, a comparison of the degree of concentration in rural and “rich” regions shows that the smaller presence of foreigners in rural regions cannot be ascribed entirely to their lower economic attractiveness. In particular, in Belgium, Australia, the United Kingdom, Canada and Switzerland, the relative incidence of foreigners in non-rural regions is higher than in “rich” regions, suggesting that the lower attractiveness of rural regions is not simply explained by the lower level of wealth of these regions.

... and the regions’ proximity to the country of origin

Geographic proximity to the country of destination is a further factor affecting the choice of residence of migrants. In the European Union, for instance, despite low internal mobility in general (often explained by cultural and linguistic differences), cross-border movements, highly concentrated around some border regions, have a considerable impact on regions (see Box II.2).

Box II.2. Cross-border workers in the European Union

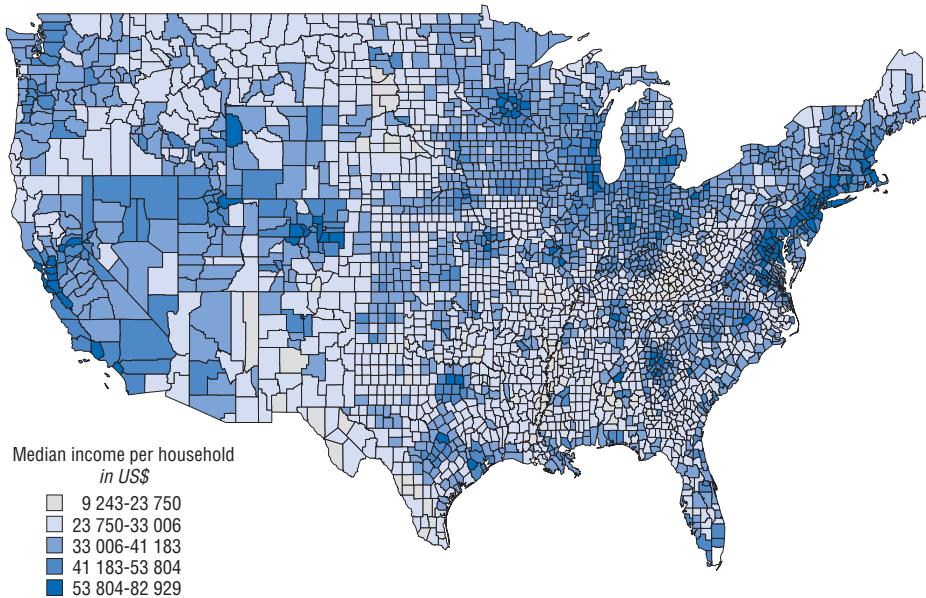
The importance of cross-border migration points out the central role of economic factors in explaining the size and the direction of international labour flows, particularly within the European economic area. According to a recent document by the European Commission (2001), 83% of cross-border movements of workers are concentrated in the border regions of France, Germany, Belgium and Italy. French cross-border workers alone represent about 50% of total cross-border movements. The polarisation of the countries of destination of these workers is even more pronounced: about 71% of workers’ movements are in the direction of Switzerland, Germany and Luxembourg. The border regions of the Benelux countries, Switzerland and the valley of Rhine are the regions where the concentration of cross-border workers is the highest.

Available data for Switzerland indicate that the industries that benefit most from cross-border workers are still agriculture and industry. Cross-border employment in services, however, is increasing. Over the period considered, cross-border workers with a university degree or above have shown the highest rate of growth. A recent study (Grossen, 2000) on Switzerland – where sixteen out of twenty-six cantons are border regions with strong cultural and linguistic links with the neighbouring countries – shows that cross-border workers are concentrated in the most dynamic regions. During the nineties, cross-border workers’ flows increased significantly, their level of qualification improved considerably and the share employed in services increased as well. More than three cross-border workers out of five were employed in an industry characterised as “structurally strong” and where the level of wages was relatively high. The only exception to this general trend is the region of Ticino where the large presence of cross-border workers is probably related to the relatively low level of wages.

In most countries considered in the present study, the excessive size of the geographic grids for which migration data are available does not permit a meaningful characterization of border regions. However, some indications on the importance of geographic proximity may be drawn from the case of the United States. Map II.4 depicts the distribution of the

Map II.5. **Income per household in the United States, 1999**

By counties



Note: Not including Alaska and Hawaii.

Sources: United States Census 2000; OECD Territorial Database.

foreign-born population as a percentage of total population. The foreign-born population appears mostly along the regions bordering with Mexico, in the south of Florida and around a few major metropolitan cities in the northeast. The choice of residence of foreigners, in fact, appears mainly driven by the geographic proximity to the country of origin or by the anchoring to a port of entry, rather than by the economic attractiveness of these regions (see Map II.5). The concentration of the foreign-born along the southern belt of California, Texas and Florida can be mainly ascribed to the geographic proximity of these regions to Mexico and Cuba, while the implantation of migrants around the metropolitan areas is related to the presence of major international airports.

Concentration also varies with the country of origin of immigrants...

A second possible explanation for the geographic concentration of migrants is related to the presence of family members or of persons with the same origin. For new migrants, the opportunity to benefit from the assistance of a family network is a major consideration in the choice of residence. In addition to this “network effect”, Bauer *et al.* (2002) have stressed the importance of “herd effects”: in a context of imperfect information, new migrants tend to imitate the behaviour of previous migrants from the same country and this contributes (at least in an initial period) to increasing “ethnic” concentration.

The relevance of these two effects can be appreciated by considering the geographic distribution of the immigrant population, obtained by considering the nationality or the country of birth of immigrants. In the United States, where about half of all immigrants settle in California (26%), the State of New York (13%) or Florida (12%), the choice of

residence of Mexican and Cuban immigrants is clearly affected by the geographic proximity of the country of origin. Three-quarters of the people of Cuban origin settle in Florida, while about 70% of Mexicans move to California (49%) or Texas (18%). Geographic proximity does not seem to have a major impact on the choice of residence of immigrants from Canada, who appear to be distributed more evenly across the continental United States (see Map II.6). In order, the states of Florida, California and Texas, and the cities of New York and Washington are the favourite destinations of Canadian immigrants. The strong geographic dispersion is undoubtedly related to the profiles of different migrants (pensioners tend to settle in the South, while qualified workers look for a job in large American urban centres), as well as by the age of the various migration waves.

Canada represents an interesting example of a country with a very high concentration of immigrants. In 2001 (and with little change relative to previous years), about 59% of new immigrants settled in the province of Ontario, 15% in British Columbia, and about the same percentage in Quebec. In the same year, the number of immigrants to Ontario grew by 11% (43% from 1999). According to a study carried out by Citizenship and Immigration Canada (2001), the pattern of settlement of immigrants varies with the country of birth. Immigrants born in Northern and Western Europe as well as in the United States tend to be more dispersed than immigrants of Asian origin (in particular, immigrants from China and Hong Kong). Therefore, the increasing concentration of the foreign population in Canada is mostly explained by the fact that “countries of birth whose immigrants to Canada show a strong tendency to settle in large centres account for an increasing share of new immigrants.”

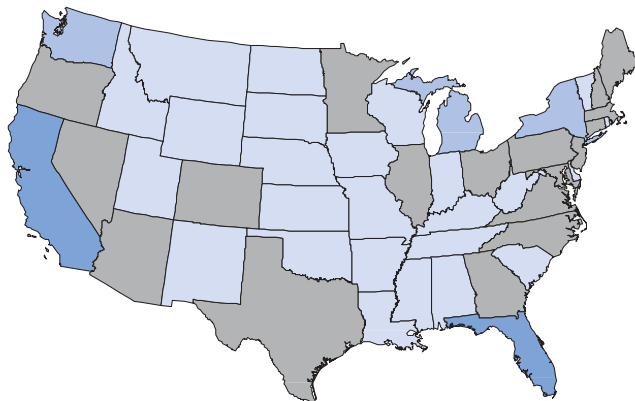
In Australia, the geographic distribution of immigrants presents some specific features, although the degree of concentration is lower than in Canada. According to 1996 Census results, the two most populous regions, both in terms of native- and foreign-born, are New South Wales and Victoria. Immigrants are slightly over-represented in New South Wales, in the regions of Victoria and in Western Australia. Nonetheless, patterns of settlement vary significantly with the country of origin. Immigrants from non-Anglophone countries are more concentrated in the two most populous regions. While the distribution of the population of German origin is very similar to that of nationals, Asian immigrants (in particular Vietnamese and Chinese) are much more concentrated. For instance, respectively 20% and 8% of the foreigners from Vietnam and Germany would have to be “redistributed” across regions for the geographic distribution of these two groups to equal that of the national population. These differences, however, may be more directly linked to the timing of migration waves than to linguistic ability.

Concerning European OECD member countries, the largest stocks of foreigners come from Turkey, Europe (Italy, Portugal and Germany) and North Africa (Morocco and Algeria). A brief examination of the regional distribution of these communities based on Eurostat data (Labour Force Survey, 2001) shows that the choice of destination of immigrants tends to vary significantly by country of origin. Algerian immigrants are mostly concentrated in the Paris region and, to a lesser extent, in the south of Spain and Italy; Turks are concentrated in Germany but also in the region of Vienna, in Rhône-Alpes (France) and in southern Netherlands; the Moroccan immigrant population is distributed along two broad corridors, one going from the southeast of Spain north to the Belgian coast, the second passing through the south of France and the north of Italy (see Map II.7). The pattern of residence of German immigrants is much more dispersed. German immigrants are present in the border regions of neighbouring countries but also in southern Austria, in the large

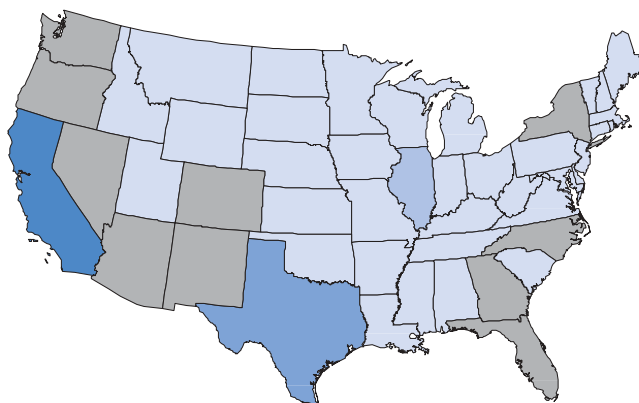
Map II.6. Distribution of the foreign-born population by state in the United States, 2000

Selected countries of birth

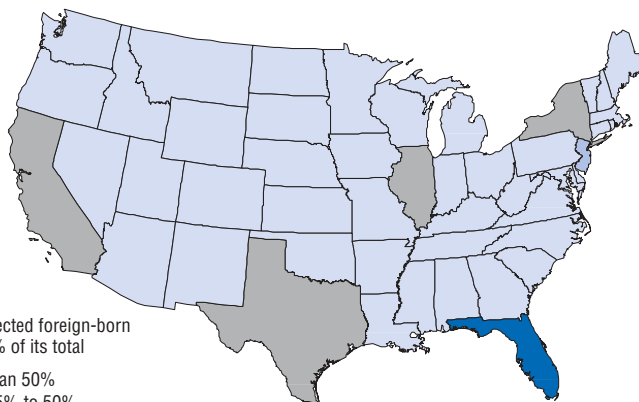
Canadians



Mexicans



Cubans



Percentage of the selected foreign-born population as % of its total

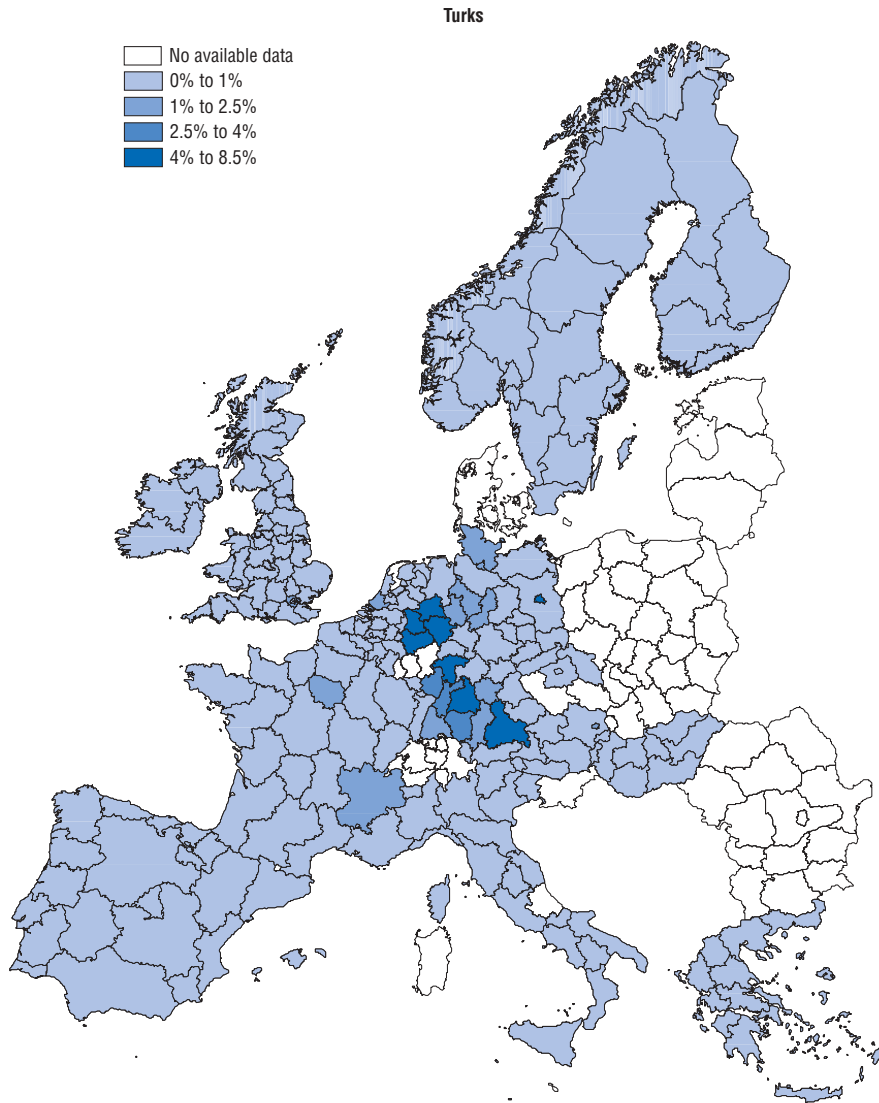
- More than 50%
- From 25% to 50%
- From 10% to 25%
- From 5% to 10%
- From 1% to 5%
- Less than 1%

Note: Not including Alaska and Hawaii.

Sources: United States Census 2000; OECD Territorial Database.

Map II.7. Distribution of the foreign population in the European regions, 2001

Selected nationalities
Percentage of the total foreign population by NUTS 2 European region level



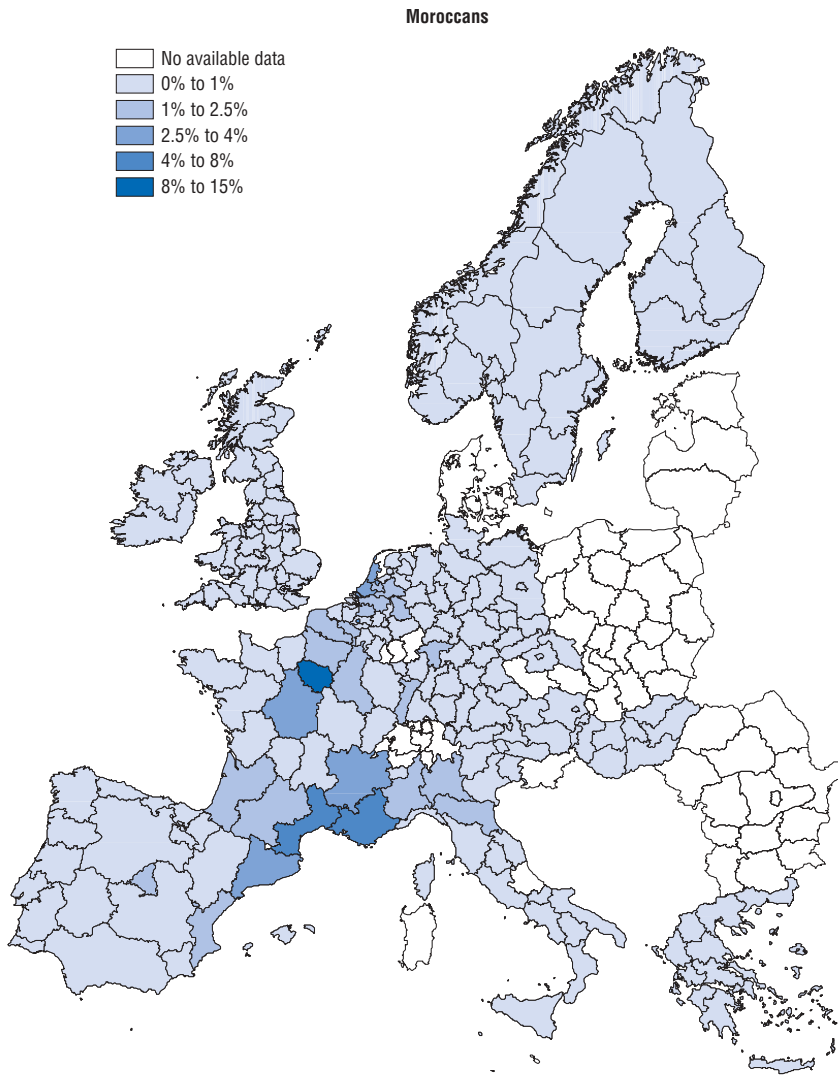
Sources: European Community Labour Force Survey (Eurostat); OECD Territorial Database.

European urban centres (Paris, London and Madrid), as well as in the south of the Scandinavian region.

A somewhat older study by Desplanques (1991) provides some interesting results for France. In particular, the study points out the effect of different waves in explaining the choice of residence of the foreign population. While “old” immigrants (Italians and Spanish) seem to have settled in regions that are close to their country of origin, the residence choice of “new” immigrants – such as immigrants from the Maghreb – is more affected by their proximity to industrial poles specialised in low-skilled activities (except in the case of Marseilles).

Map II.7. **Distribution of the foreign population in the European regions, 2001** (cont.)

Selected nationalities
 Percentage of the total foreign population by NUTS 2 European region level



Sources: European Community Labour Force Survey (Eurostat); OECD Territorial Database.

In Austria, for example, employment data show that foreigners are more concentrated in the region of Vienna. On average, 34% of migrant workers reside in the region of Vienna (in 2001), as compared to 25% of total employment. The foreign labour force represents about 15% of the total labour force of the region. Also in Austria, the regional distribution of immigrants differs by nationality: immigrants from the former Yugoslavia as well as from Central and Eastern Europe tend to be more concentrated than others. The opposite is true for Turks and Germans. The latter group is relatively more dispersed, being present particularly in the west and the south (Carinthia and Styria) as well as in the region of Salzburg, the Tyrol and Vorarlberg. In addition to Vienna, immigrants from the former Yugoslavia reside mostly in the south (Styria, Carinthia) and the west (Salzburg and Upper

Austria). Given their traditional specialisation in the industries of textile and clothing, Turks are mostly concentrated in Vorarlberg, Tyrol and Lower Austria.

... and depends on the reason for entry as well as other personal characteristics of immigrants

For the United States, an examination of data for both permanent (*immigrants*) and temporary (*non-immigrants*)⁵ migration flows permits a differentiation of the choice of destination of the foreign-born population according to the “reason for entry” and the country of birth of migrants. Unfortunately, the data published by the INS (Immigration and Naturalisation Service, United States Department of Justice) do not make it possible to cross these two variables. California, New York and Florida are the three principal states of destination for both immigrants and non-immigrants (except visitors). In general, however, non-immigrants are more dispersed than permanent immigrants: about 50% of total immigrants live in these three states as compared to only 39% of non-immigrants.

By examining the geographic distribution of *non-immigrants* (per 100 inhabitants), it appears that regional concentration exists for all reasons of entry, although it is higher for workers than for family members. The interpretation of this result, however, would require a finer breakdown of the category “temporary workers” to see whether geographic concentration is negatively correlated with the level of qualification. The comparison of the degree of concentration of *immigrants* from the same origin country, but with different reasons for entry, confirms the result mentioned above: the concentration of immigrants of Mexican origin is higher than that of Mexicans with a temporary visa (*non-immigrants*).

Along the same lines, Jaeger (2000) presents an interesting differentiation according to the reason for entry. His results indicate that those people who entered the country either with a work permit (*employment preferences*) or within the framework of the Lottery program are more sensitive to conditions prevailing in the labour market (in particular, the rate of unemployment and the level of wages) than family members, whose region of destination is mainly determined by the size of communities and the effects of networks.

This result also suggests that the choice of residence of immigrants is not independent of labour demand. Borjas (2001) considers recent immigration in the United States as an element of labour market flexibility. The study shows that a number of new immigrants, for whom the cost of moving within the United States is lower than for nationals, tend to choose those places where the level of wages is the highest.

In the case of Australia, Chiswick *et al.* (2002) have pointed out that geographic concentration is negatively correlated with the age at the time of migration, the duration of the stay in the host country and, finally, the proportion of English speakers in the group.

The effects of secondary migration

It is often the case that immigrants, who at the time of their entry may have had imperfect information on the host country or limited mobility because of administrative rules, can later modify their initial choice of destination and engage in a secondary migration. This event, more difficult to track statistically, tends to reinforce geographic concentration around gravitational poles, particularly in those countries where the conditions prevailing outside large urban centres are less favourable. A comparison of flow and stock data permits a preliminary evaluation of the effects of secondary migration.

In the United States, the geographic distribution of new immigrants (those who obtained their green card in the current year) is not very different from the distribution of foreign-born persons, independent of the year of entry. Both groups tend to be equally concentrated (about 50%) in the three states with the highest share of the foreign-born population. Yet, an examination of migration flows by country of origin makes it possible to qualify this result. The concentration is higher for immigrants from the main Asian countries (China, Philippines and Vietnam) than for new immigrants from the same countries. The State of California remains the main destination: about 38% of the foreign population with Chinese origin is resident there, as compared to 29% of new immigrants from China (see Annex 2). The same applies for Filipinos and Vietnamese immigrants. The opposite is true for Mexicans. California and Texas remain the main destinations, even though the cumulated percentage of Mexicans living in those states is slightly lower for new immigrants. This result clearly suggests that geographic proximity to the country of origin remains a determinant of destination region for Mexican immigrants, independently of the duration of their stay in the United States.

In the case of Canada, Citizenship and Immigration Canada (2000) explored some results from longitudinal data. Out of all immigrants who were resident in Canada at the time of the survey, about 13% had engaged in a second migration. Ontario and British Columbia are the only provinces that benefit from these interregional movements. As these two provinces host the majority of new immigrants, secondary migration has increased further the geographic concentration of foreigners in Canada.

These internal movements mainly concern people who entered the country for work reasons (25% of immigrants for “business reasons”) but also refugees (18.6%), skilled workers (15%) and, to a lesser extent, family members. On average, the level of wages of those who engage in a secondary migration is higher than for the other immigrants. In addition, a secondary migration seems to occur more frequently in the early period of residence in Canada, generally in the first three years. Finally, having examined the characteristics of immigrants who engage in secondary migration, men are more likely to move than are women, as are immigrants of working age in comparison to those of other age groups. Higher education and knowledge of both official languages also increases the likelihood of movement.

Main results from the analysis of the localisation of immigrants

The first part of this study has shown a significant degree of geographic concentration of the foreign population. Within the limits of the available data, the study has identified the following determinants of choice of residence among immigrants:

- The attractiveness of the place of destination, both in terms of the characteristics of the region (*e.g.* quality of services, existence of amenities) and its economic opportunities.
- The presence of family members or of people of the same origin.
- Anchoring to a point of entry and the geographic proximity of the host country to the country of origin.

2. Implementation of regional programmes for migration

OECD member countries have different views on the opportunity of implementing migration policies at the regional level. Switzerland, for instance, is interested in cross-border migration in view of the implementation of the free-movement agreement signed with the European Union. Canada is trying to encourage new immigrants to settle out of

the large urban centres to address depopulation in certain rural areas as well as to support and complement economic development in these regions. Australia seeks to improve the economic performance of its regions and to alleviate labour shortages by “selecting” new immigrants whose profile matches the needs of the local labour markets.

The experience of Australia

Since 1996 Australia has established an elaborate set of regional migration programmes. The objectives set by the federal government, in agreement with the states and territories, are to address labour shortages, to attract business people who establish new ventures and to encourage a better geographic distribution of skilled immigrants. The whole set of these initiatives is known as State Specific and Regional Migration (SSRM) Initiatives.

The programme presents two specific features: i) immigrants participating in the initiatives must have a sponsor. Potential sponsors include employers, relatives, or state and territory governments; ii) the definition of “regional” for SSRM Initiatives varies according to the initiative, as each has a different regional coverage. For example, the Skilled Designated Area Sponsored Category, under which the largest number of visas is granted currently, covers all Australian regions except Sydney, Newcastle, Wollongong, Perth and Brisbane.

The number of visas granted within this framework (about 25 000 since its creation in 1996-97) is steadily increasing. In 2002-03, the number rose by 92% (see Table II.3). Its importance in overall immigration, however, remains limited (about 108 000 visas were granted in 2002-03, excluding visas for humanitarian reasons). Nonetheless, the fact that about half of these “regional” visas are granted in only two states (Victoria and South Australia), as observed in Table II.4, makes the impact of this program considerable. Indeed, despite relatively small numbers, the contribution of these initiatives to regional economic, social and demographic development may be quite significant.

Table II.3. Visas delivered in the framework of the regional programmes, Australia, 1996-2003

State Specific and Regional Migration Initiatives

Sponsorship		1996-97	1997-98	1998-99	1999-00	2000-01	2001-02	2002-03
RSMS ¹	Employer	170	581	765	664	1 021	1 092	1 738
STNI/SMV ²	States and territories	..	16	169	9	85	257	794
SDAS ³	Relative	40	111	67	195	1 002	1 597	4 466
SAL ⁴	Relative	850	984	1 744	2 384	1 575	974	524
SSBS ⁵	States and territories	66	61	59	44	122	176	341
REBA ⁶	States and territories	..	0	0	13	41	40	78
Total		1 126	1 753	2 804	3 309	3 846	4 136	7 941

1. RSMS stands for Regional Sponsored Migration Scheme.
2. STNI stands for State/Territory Nominated Independent Scheme.
3. SDAS stands for Skilled Designated Area Sponsored Category.
4. SAL stands for Skilled Australian Linked Category. Refers to applicants under this category who obtained bonus points because their sponsor lived in a designated area.
5. SSBS stands for State/Territory Sponsored Business Skills Entry. Includes applications processed under offshore subclass 129 (State/Territory Sponsored Business Owner), offshore subclass 130 (State/Territory Sponsored Senior Executive), onshore subclass 842 (State/Territory Sponsored Business Owner) and onshore subclass 843 (State/Territory Sponsored Senior Executive).
6. REBA stands for Regional Established Business in Australia Category.

Source: Department of Immigration and Multicultural and Indigenous Affairs, Australia.

Table II.4. **Distribution of inflows and stocks of immigrants by states/territories, selected SSRM Initiatives, Australia, 2002-2003**

	RSMS	STNI/SMV	SDAS	SAL	SSBS	REBA	TOTAL	Inflows of immigrants	Stock of immigrants ¹	Total population ¹
New South Wales	14.2	0.0	7.0	5.1	7.0	10.3	7.8	39.0	36.0	34.0
South Australia	25.1	44.5	10.2	3.8	16.8	3.8	16.7	4.0	7.0	8.0
Victoria	15.6	55.0	66.6	78.8	11.1	17.9	52.2	25.0	27.0	25.0
Western Australia	10.8	0.0	5.0	6.9	38.2	10.3	7.3	13.0	12.0	10.0
Northern Territory	6.2	0.0	0.4	1.5	0.0	0.0	1.6	1.0	1.0	1.0
Queensland	13.3	0.0	7.7	2.9	7.0	42.3	8.2	17.0	15.0	19.0
Tasmania	5.6	0.5	0.7	0.0	15.8	10.3	2.5	1.0	1.0	2.0
Australian Capital Territory	9.2	0.0	2.4	1.1	4.1	5.1	3.7	1.0	2.0	2.0
Total (%)	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	Note ²	Note ²	Note ²
Total	6 031	1 330	7 478	9 035	869	172	24 915	93 909	5 342 665	18 972 350

Note: For more details on definitions, refer to the note at the Table II.3.

1. In these two columns, the totals refer to the 2001 Census and the distribution was provided by the source.

2. Percentages do not add up to one hundred due to rounding.

Sources: Department of Immigration and Multicultural and Indigenous Affairs; Australian Bureau of Statistics.

The experience of Canada

The conclusions of a recent meeting⁶ between the federal, provincial and territorial ministers illustrate well the current issues related to the regional aspects of migration in Canada. Ministers' discussions were focused on the means to extend the benefits from immigration to all regions of Canada, on effective regional strategies to reduce the geographic concentration of foreigners and on how to encourage new immigrants to settle in smaller centres.

The "regionalisation of immigration in Quebec" aims to attract new immigrants and encourage them to settle in cities other than Montreal. While the federal government is responsible for managing the flows of family members and asylum seekers, Quebec has control over the immigration of skilled workers, businessmen and a part of the refugees. The provincial authorities control more than 60% of immigration flows and have put in place policies to reduce the concentration of new immigrants (MRCI, 2002). The rationale for this regional program is both economic and social, *i.e.*, to reinforce cohesion between Montreal, where "ethnic" diversity is high, and the rest of the Province, which has few interactions with immigrants. To attain these objectives, the Ministry has decentralised its activities into five regional departments. The specific objectives can be different: to facilitate the socio-economic integration of immigrants or to attract businessmen. As part of the immigration procedure, destinations other than Montreal are proposed to applicants and considerable efforts are made to match the local demand for labour with the characteristics of immigrants.

A recent document by Citizenship and Immigration Canada (CIC, 2001) presents strategies and instruments to reduce the concentration of immigrants in Canada. The document questions the idea that immigration could reverse the trend to depopulation in rural regions.⁷ Indeed, it points out the difficulties in influencing the behaviour of immigrants and the fact that economic development is the only way for a region to attract foreigners. As economic growth is mainly concentrated in cities, the document's recommendation is to rely on the attractiveness of smaller cities as an incentive for immigrants to settle outside the three large urban centres.

The involvement of second-tier governments in the process of immigration is fairly recent. In Canada, as well as in Australia, the challenge is to attract new immigrants away from large cities and to targeted regions. Since 1996, the states and provinces play a role in the admission of skilled immigrants by adopting regional variations of the national immigration programmes.

Clearly, migration alone cannot reverse demographic trends in regions affected by the departure of young people (both nationals and foreigners). Economic conditions and dynamic infrastructures are essential to encourage immigrants to settle in all regions. In this respect, promoting the dynamism of regions is preliminary to any policy aimed at influencing the choice of destination of new immigrants.

Conclusion

This contribution to the analysis of the regional aspects of migration has tried to answer the question “Where do migrants live?” An examination of the different situations observed in host countries has raised questions about the main determinants of the choice of residence of foreigners. The analysis has focused on the economic determinants of the choice of destination (the effect of taxation, however, has not been considered) without looking at either the economic performances of migrants or the effects of foreign workers on the regional economy. In order to do so, complementary studies at a much lower level of aggregation would be needed.

The second part of the study has presented a comparative analysis of some migration programmes at the regional level, mainly in Australia and Canada. The analysis has considered the measures implemented to seek to attract immigrants to regions with different levels of economic development, as well as to large and intermediate cities. The links between regional development policies and migration policies have been briefly considered, though the issue would deserve a more comprehensive analysis, especially in OECD member countries where these links are not sufficiently regarded. Other directions for research could be explored, in particular partnerships between origin and destination regions on the recruitment of specific categories of workers.

Notes

1. This chapter has been prepared in co-operation with the Directorate of Public Governance and Territorial Development (GOV).
2. Some further analysis at a much lower level of aggregation would be necessary to identify and quantify the links between the local concentration of foreigners, their integration into the labour market and their economic role [see *Immigrants, Integration and Cities. Exploring the Links* (OECD 1998)].
3. Includes European countries for which data are available by regions (provided by EUROSTAT at the NUTS 2 level) as well as Australia, Canada, the United States and New Zealand. Note that data for European countries do not refer to immigrants per se, but rather to persons of foreign nationality. The concept of “foreigner” excludes naturalized immigrants and may include persons who were born in the host country and never migrated. The concentration of “foreigners” nonetheless does generally reflect that of “true” immigrants.
4. Since GDP estimates are not available at the territorial level employed in the current analysis, the classification of regions in Australia, Canada and the United States is based on median income.
5. Unfortunately, the Secretariat does not have sufficient data to extend this type of analysis to other OECD member countries.
6. Winnipeg, October 15-16, 2002.

7. In 1996, immigrants represented only 6% of the population in largely rural areas, as compared to 27% in urban regions. This trend is even more pronounced for immigrants who arrived after 1981. In 1996, they represented less than 2% of the population in rural areas, but more than 12% of the population in largely urban regions. According to this study, the challenge for rural communities, therefore, is not only how to attract immigrants but also how to keep them (Statistics Canada, 2002).

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ANNEX 1

The Adjusted Geographic Concentration index (AGC)

The low international comparability of sub-national data represents a major obstacle to the comparative analysis of the regional aspects of migration. The size of regions varies significantly both within and between countries so that the degree of geographic concentration of migrants depends on the very definition of a region.

In order to increase the international comparability of regional data, the OECD has developed an Adjusted Geographic Concentration index.* The index is based on the following measure of Geographic Concentration (GC):

$$GC = \sum_{i=1}^N |m_i - p_i|$$

where m_i and p_i are, respectively, the shares of total foreigners and of the total population of nationals in region i , and N stands for the number of regions in a country.

The main drawback of this index, however, is that it tends to underestimate the geographic concentration of foreigners when regions are large. In fact, the index reaches its maximum when all foreigners are concentrated in the region with the smallest population of nationals:

$$GC^{MAX} = \sum_{i \neq \min} p_i + 1 - p_{\min} = 1 + 1 - 2p_{\min} = 2(1 - p_{\min})$$

where p_{\min} is the population share of the region with the smallest number of inhabitants that are nationals.

A natural correction for this bias is provided by the Adjusted Geographic Concentration index (AGC), defined as:

$$AGC = GC/GC^{MAX}$$

As a result of this adjustment, the AGC index lies between 0 (no concentration) and 1 (maximum concentration) in all countries.

* "Geographic Concentration and Territorial Disparity in OECD Countries", OECD, Paris, 2003.

ANNEX 2

Immigrant and non-immigrant flows and stock of foreign-born persons: distribution of immigrants by state of intended residence, for various admission categories and places of birth, United States, 2000

Top five states where immigrants wish to settle (flows), where they reside (stock)

	Immigrants		Non-immigrants (excluding visitors)		Stock of foreign-born persons			
	Total	Cumulative %	Total	Cumulative %	Total	Cumulative %		
Total	844 036							
California	217 753	25.8	Florida	5 864 828	21.2	California	8 864 255	28.5
New York	106 061	38.4	California	4 709 415	38.3	New York	3 868 133	40.9
Florida	98 391	50.0	New York	4 250 362	53.7	Florida	2 899 642	50.3
Texas	63 840	57.6	Hawaii	1 989 970	60.9	Texas	2 670 828	58.8
New Jersey	40 013	62.3	Texas	1 900 839	67.7	Massachusetts	1 529 058	63.8
						Illinois		

<i>Non-immigrants by category</i>																	
	Temporary workers		Fiancees		Intracompany transferees		Students		Exchange visitors								
	Total	Cumulative %	Total	Cumulative %	Total	Cumulative %	Total	Cumulative %	Total	Cumulative %							
California	88 238	16.8	California	4 554	20.1	California	44 458	15.8	California	114 620	17.8	New York	42 820	14.5	California	18 307	17.5
New York	86 240	33.3	Texas	1 777	27.9	New York	39 608	29.9	New York	76 206	29.7	California	37 704	27.2	New York	8 966	26.1
Florida	46 262	42.1	New York	1 715	35.5	Florida	33 668	41.9	Massachusetts	50 244	37.5	Massachusetts	21 976	34.6	Michigan	8 567	34.4
Texas	37 209	49.2	Florida	1 426	41.8	Texas	30 333	52.7	Florida	46 345	44.7	Pennsylvania	13 339	39.1	Texas	8 471	42.5
New Jersey	31 246	55.2	Washington	914	45.8	New Jersey	16 140	58.4	Texas	35 174	50.1	Illinois	12 168	43.2	Massachusetts	6 016	48.2

<i>Non-immigrants by country of birth</i>											
	Japan		Mexico		United Kingdom		Canada		China		
	Total	Cumulative %	Total	Cumulative %	Total	Cumulative %	Total	Cumulative %	Total	Cumulative %	
Hawaii	1 651 685	44.6	Texas	1 079 241	35.2	Florida	1 439 513	32.6	California	315 322	41.8
California	671 013	62.7	California	582 836	54.2	New York	776 799	50.2	New York	79 750	52.4
New York	297 550	70.8	Florida	285 790	63.5	California	577 505	63.3	Texas	44 957	58.4
Nevada	294 024	78.7	Arizona	197 852	69.9	Massachusetts	176 477	67.3	Michigan	31 543	62.5
Florida	145 309	82.6	Nevada	162 998	75.3	Nevada	157 250	70.8	Florida	29 860	66.5

Immigrant and non-immigrant flows and stock of foreign-born persons: distribution of immigrants by state of intended residence, for various admission categories and places of birth, United States, 2000 (cont.)

Top five states where immigrants wish to settle (flows), where they reside (stock)

<i>Immigrants by country of birth</i>																	
Mexico			China			Philippines			India			Vietnam			Canada		
Cumulative %			Cumulative %			Cumulative %			Cumulative %			Cumulative %			Cumulative %		
Total			Total			Total			Total			Total			Total		
California	85 551	49.2	California	13 232	29.1	California	16 773	40.8	California	9 313	22.2	California	10 251	38.3	Florida	2 011	12.4
Texas	31 211	67.2	New York	8 930	48.7	Hawaii	3 053	48.3	New Jersey	4 364	32.6	Texas	2 275	46.9	California	1 999	24.8
Illinois	8 600	72.1	Texas	2 293	53.8	Illinois	2 738	54.9	New York	3 581	41.1	Washington	1 216	51.4	Texas	1 270	32.6
Arizona	6 301	75.7	Massachusetts	2 023	58.2	Texas	2 025	59.8	Texas	3 528	49.5	Florida	994	55.1	New York	1 153	39.7
Florida	4 597	78.4	New Jersey	1 862	62.3	New York	1 927	64.5	Illinois	3 239	57.2	Massachusetts	902	58.5	Washington	936	45.5
<i>Stock of foreign-born persons by country of birth (2000 Census)</i>																	
Stock, Mexico			Stock, China			Stock, Philippines			Stock, India			Stock, Vietnam			Stock, Canada		
Cumulative %			Cumulative %			Cumulative %			Cumulative %			Cumulative %			Cumulative %		
Total			Total			Total			Total			Total			Total		
California	3 928 701	42.8	California	570 487	37.6	California	664 935	48.6	California	198 201	19.4	California	418 249	42.3	California	141 181	17.2
Texas	1 879 369	63.3	New York	301 735	57.4	Hawaii	102 063	56.0	New Jersey	119 497	31.1	Texas	107 027	53.2	Florida	99 139	29.3
Illinois	617 828	70.0	Texas	69 654	62.0	New York	72 408	61.3	New York	117 238	42.5	Washington	40 879	57.3	New York	54 876	36.0
Arizona	436 022	74.8	New Jersey	66 424	66.4	New Jersey	69 773	66.4	Illinois	83 916	50.7	Virginia	30 730	60.4	Michigan	49 515	42.0
Georgia	190 621	76.8	Massachusetts	54 450	70.0	Illinois	67 072	71.3	Texas	78 388	58.4	Massachusetts	30 457	63.5	Washington	47 568	47.8

Sources: Immigration and Naturalization Service Yearbooks and 2000 Census.

PART III

The international mobility of health professionals: An evaluation and analysis based on the case of South Africa¹

Summary

The international mobility of highly skilled workers increased substantially in the 1990s. Most visible in professions connected with new information and communication technologies, it also became increasingly common among health professionals. In South Africa, in particular, where the migration balance has steadily deteriorated over the last fifteen years, the international mobility of health professionals has become an important issue.

The factors that determine the international mobility of health professionals broadly coincide with those that apply to highly skilled workers in general, and derive from a combination of push and pull factors. However, certain aspects that are more specific to health workers also need to be mentioned, such as relative pay in origin countries, and deteriorating working conditions in the health sector.

This study, based on the example of South Africa, shows that emigration is not always the main cause of the problems facing the health systems of developing countries, even though it remains an aggravating factor. The South African government recently introduced a series of measures intended to retain South African workers, and make it easier for skilled foreign workers to immigrate. This report looks at the main reforms that have taken place in the health sector, including: i) the introduction of compulsory community service, ii) training, iii) improved working conditions, including pay, and iv) greater international co-operation with the leading countries of destination for South African health professionals.

The detailed study of South Africa shows that, in countries facing an exodus of skilled labour, government policy, in the health sector and beyond, has a key role to play in promoting and improving human resource management. In the specific case of South Africa, and with reference to several other countries, this report shows how important it can be, both at national level in countries of origin and at international level, to strengthen policy coherence in the spheres of migration and development aid, so as to ensure that the benefits arising from the international mobility of health professionals are shared in a way that is both fair and sustainable.

Introduction

This chapter, based on the case of South Africa, looks at the international mobility of health professionals. Growing demand for healthcare, partly due to greying populations in most OECD member countries, has caused the international mobility of health professionals to accelerate, and will probably continue to do so. Several OECD member countries have already changed their immigration policies, so as to make it easier to recruit foreign doctors and nurses (OECD, 2002a). This development is a source of growing concern to countries of origin, faced with the departure of workers that are expensive to train and vital for their economic growth, raising fears of what, in the 1960s and 1970s, used to be

called the “brain drain”.² Such fears are all the more real, when countries of origin offer few prospects that might encourage skilled emigrants to return.

The example of South Africa and several other countries, which soon risk facing an increasingly rapid outflow of skilled workers (OECD, 2002b), therefore raises the issue of policy coherence in development and migration. It also points to the need for measures relating to human resource management, in countries of both destination and origin, and the benefits that arise from the international mobility of labour. These issues echo the questions raised in the context of the activities recently initiated by the OECD concerning policy coherence for development.

This study assesses the real scale of the international mobility of health professionals in South Africa, and reviews the situation in the healthcare sector. It goes on to describe the causes and consequences of the international mobility of health professionals, and the policies introduced by the South African authorities in response to the emigration of health workers. If the OECD member countries intend to continue to recruit health workers from developing countries, the South African experience shows that it will be essential to strengthen international co-operation in the development and management of health workers, and to seek greater coherence between development and migration policies.

The case of South Africa is exemplary in several respects. The country faces considerable healthcare problems, and has internationally renowned health professionals. In addition, international mobility, especially of skilled workers, is a long-standing feature, for both historical³ and geopolitical reasons.⁴ Last, South Africa, like other countries, such as Russia, finds itself in the interesting position of being both an attractive destination for skilled labour from less developed countries, and a source of skilled workers for the world labour market.

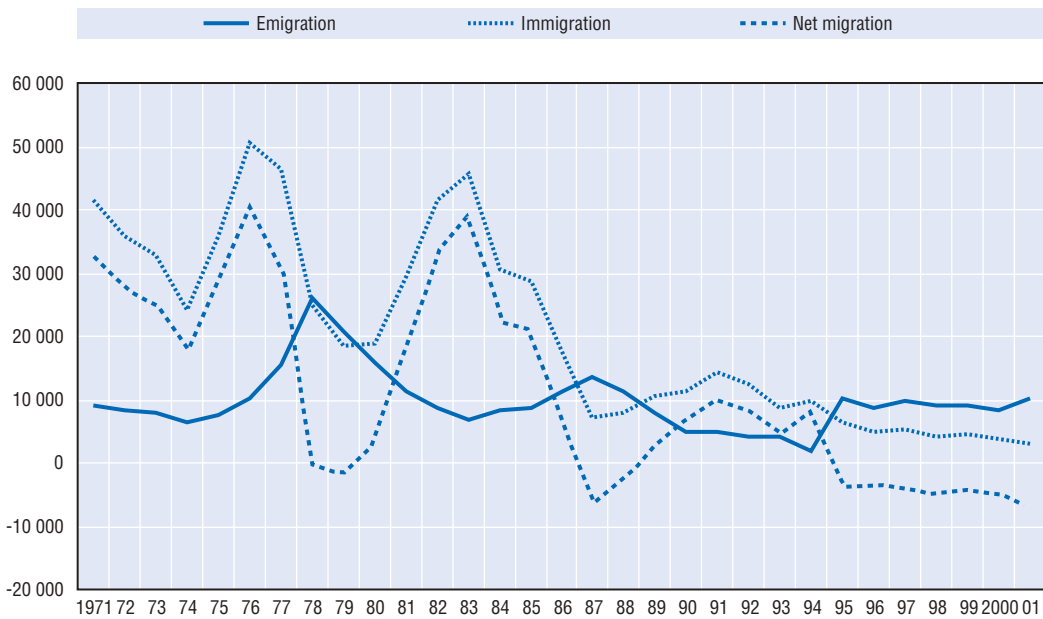
1. Movements of highly skilled workers to and from South Africa: a historical perspective

The international mobility of highly skilled workers has long been a very sensitive issue in South Africa (Bhorat, Meyer and Mlatsheni, 2001). Over the last two years, in the debate on the loss of skills, the question of the migration of health workers has superseded that of the mobility of IT staff, and human resources in science and technology, in general.

In a context of high birth rates, immigration has long been an important component of South African demographics. 300 000 new immigrants arrived from Europe between 1965 and 1975, plus over 70 000 whites from other African countries⁵ (Crush, 2002). Between 1975 and 1985, net immigration continued to account for almost 4% of annual population growth. In the last fifteen years, however, the migration balance has steadily deteriorated (see Chart III.1). According to official statistics, immigration has fallen sharply, while emigration has increased. The decline in immigration has taken place under the dual influence of tougher immigration laws (Mattes, Crush and Richmond, 2002), and a worsening employment situation. The rise in emigration is due to a range of factors linked to the prospects for the South African economy and national security, political changes, and rising world demand for skilled labour, especially in the new technology and healthcare sectors.

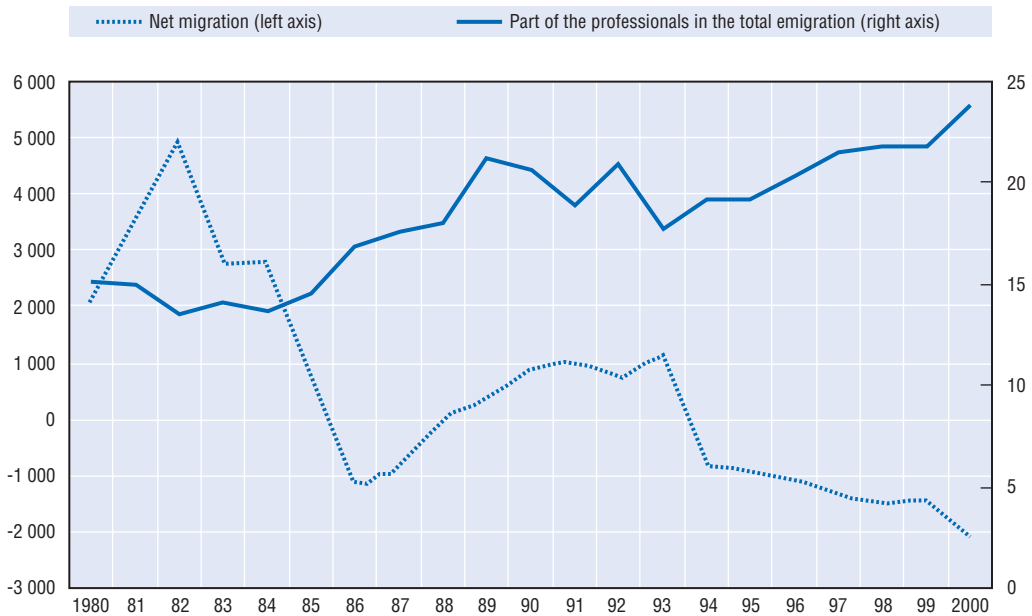
Official emigration statistics underestimate the scale of outflows (see Box III.1), though they do reflect the rising trend in the numbers of skilled workers leaving the country (see Chart III.2).

Chart III.1. **Migration flows in South Africa, 1971-2001 (official data)**



Source: Statistics South Africa Migration Reports.

Chart III.2. **Emigration of South African professionals, 1980-2000 (official data)**



Source: Statistics South Africa Migration Reports.

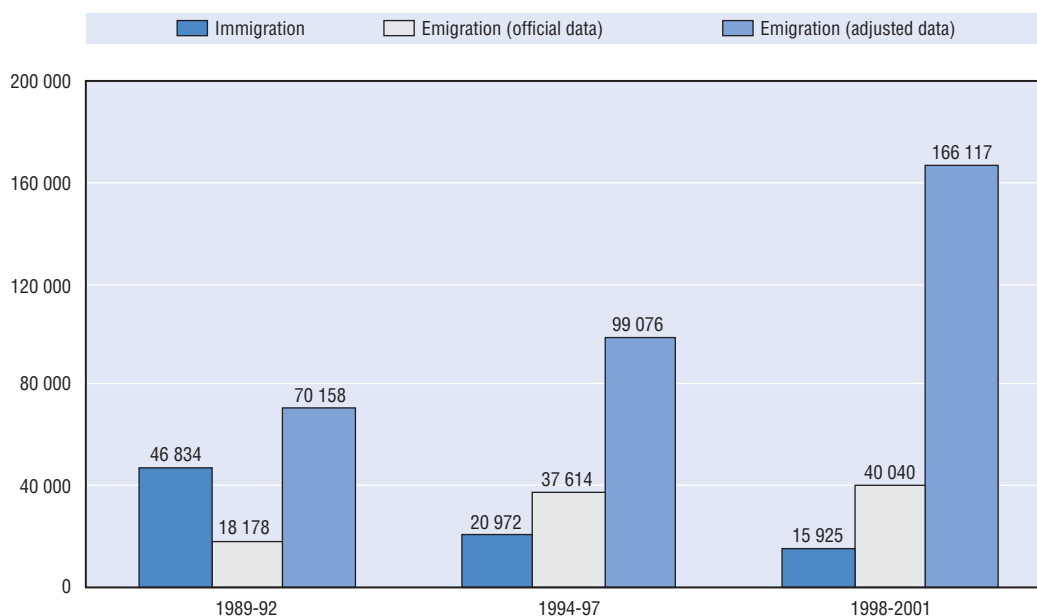
Table III.1, which shows the population aged 15 and over born in South Africa and residing in OECD member countries by level of education, illustrates the scale of emigration from South Africa. According to these figures, over 372 000 people of South

Box III.1. The reliability of migration statistics

Broadly speaking, statistical data in South Africa are both abundant and detailed. That is true of migration statistics, which are constantly available and updated in the publications of Statistics South Africa (SSA), a public body which gathers and processes statistical information. However, SSA's migration data include only those migrants who declare themselves as such, thus overlooking a substantial proportion of outflows. Many of those leaving the country do not wish to be recorded as emigrants, for a variety of reasons, such as the possibility of returning at a later date, tax, psychological or family reasons, etc. Unfortunately, migration statistics for highly skilled workers are no exception.

In order to remedy this shortcoming, several studies use statistics from the main countries of destination for South African expatriates (Fourie and Joubert, 1998; Meyer, Brown and Kaplan, 2000; HSRC, 2003), such as the United Kingdom, Australia, Canada, the United States and New Zealand. These figures indicate that emigration from South Africa could be underestimated by a factor of four between 1989 and 1992, by a factor of three between 1994 and 1997, and again by a factor of four between 1998 and 2001 (see Chart III.3). Extrapolating official totals on the basis of these estimates gives a more realistic idea of the true scale of emigration from South Africa.

Chart III.3. Evolution of migration flows in South Africa, 1989-2001
(official and adjusted data)



Source: Statistics South Africa Migration Reports, Meyer, Brown and Kaplan (2000), HSRC (2003).

African origin were residing in OECD member countries in 2000. Approximately 46% of them had a higher education diploma. An emigration rate for the same year can be calculated by comparing the expatriate South African population aged 15 to 64 with the

Table III.1. **Numbers and breakdown by educational level of persons aged 15 and over born in South Africa and residing in certain OECD member countries**

		Primary	Secondary	Higher	Number
Australia	2001	22.1%	34.9%	43.0%	67 441
Canada	2000	20.4%	17.6%	62.1%	54 501
United States	2001	17.2%	42.1%	40.8%	90 759
New Zealand	2001	3.5%	41.7%	54.7%	19 875
United Kingdom	2001	10.2%	42.8%	47.0%	115 426
European Union ¹	2001	12.1%	43.6%	44.3%	158 679

1. South Africans are resident in European OECD member countries, other than the United Kingdom, but the significance thresholds of the Eurostat employment survey mean that it is not possible to give a detailed breakdown by country of destination and skill level. The countries included in the EU total are Austria, Belgium, Spain, France, Portugal and the United Kingdom.

Sources: Eurostat employment survey for the European countries, *Current Population Survey* for the United States, *Survey of Longitudinal Income Dynamics* for Canada and census data for Australia and New Zealand.

same age group resident in South Africa. This calculation gives a total aggregate emigration rate of 1.4% for the entire population under consideration, and 7% for skilled workers. The result, which is comparable with world averages,⁶ sets alarmist references to a South African brain drain in perspective, especially as the figures include those who were born in South Africa, but educated abroad. However, the overall upwards trend in the emigration of skilled workers from South Africa remains a source of concern (see Box III.2).

Box III.2. Forecasting the emigration of highly skilled South Africans

Mattes and Richmond (2002) surveyed a representative sample of 725 skilled South Africans, who were asked about their migration plans. Approximately 70% of those interviewed said they had already thought of emigrating, and 7% said they intended to leave within the next six months (6% had applied for a work permit). The authors then constructed a composite indicator designed to represent the probability of carrying out a planned migration project of at least two years' duration in the next five years. They concluded that the probability of the skilled South Africans in the survey leaving the country was "very high" for 2% (giving an extrapolated total of 32 000 individuals), and "high" for 10% (192 000). The United States was the preferred destination for 24% of them, followed by Australia (22%), the United Kingdom (15%), New Zealand (12%) and Canada (11%). Although these figures should be treated with the utmost caution, they nevertheless illustrate the direction of the current trend.

Many skilled emigrant workers are senior managers, teachers and health professionals. Furthermore, according to data compiled by Bailey (2003), the education and health sectors accounted for a declining share of total skilled immigration between 1988-92 and 1994-2000, while their share of total skilled emigration rose steadily over the entire period.

2. A review of the human resources situation in the healthcare sector in South Africa: the role of international mobility

South Africa is facing a very difficult healthcare situation, despite the quality of its health training and research. In 2001, according to the World Health Organisation (WHO), life expectancy at birth was 49 years and life expectancy in good health was just 41 years.⁷ At the same time, infant and juvenile mortality rates remained high (55‰ and 70‰, respectively, in 2000). In view of South Africa's level of development,⁸ and the scale of its health spending,⁹ these figures may seem surprising.¹⁰ In fact, they are due partly to the number of deaths attributable to AIDS,¹¹ and partly to the persistence of considerable inequality in access to healthcare. In terms of the fairness of financial contributions to the health system, the WHO puts South Africa 142nd in the world, out of a total of 192 countries.¹² This situation is largely attributable to the health system inherited from the apartheid era, the effects of which are still widely felt today.

Universal and free access to the health system dates from 1994. The new policy resulted in a very rapid rise in demand for healthcare, especially in rural and deprived areas which suffered from chronic under-allocation of human resources and healthcare infrastructure. On the basis of the principles of the new health system set out in the *White Paper for the Transformation of the Health System in South Africa* (Department of Health, 1997), the South African government decided to operate a shift in public health services, traditionally directed towards the needs of the mainly white upper and middle classes, so that they would benefit the entire population, focusing on primary healthcare and the fight against AIDS. Considerable thought was given to the development of human resources (Pick *et al.*, 2001), including numbers, the social and geographical distribution, and the profile of physicians and nurses.¹³

The question of the international mobility of South African health professionals cannot be understood without taking into account the transformation of the health system, and the use of its human resources. The changes provide an explanation for some migration movements, and highlight their impact in view of the new public health guidelines, based on fairness and quality, adopted by the South African government.

Supply of and demand for health workers: continuing imbalances

Two recent studies review the human resources situation in the health sector in South Africa (Erasmus and Hall, 2003; Doherty and Joffe, 2003). They show that, despite the efforts made by the South African government, considerable imbalances remain between the supply of, and demand for, health workers. Four main findings emerge (see Table III.2).

- Overall, in comparison with other developing countries,¹⁴ the ratio of physicians to the population in South Africa is relatively satisfactory (7.1 per 10 000), though lower than in Latin America (12.7 in Brazil, for example). For nurses, the ratio of 4 is relatively high, comparable with ratios in certain Central and Eastern European countries (3.85 in Hungary and 4.1 in Romania in 1998). This finding has led some commentators to conclude that the problem is due not so much to the availability of human resources, as to their allocation (Pick *et al.* 2001).
- Numbers of generalists have increased recently, at the expense of specialists. This trend reflects the shift in emphasis in the health system since the end of apartheid, towards primary health care.

Table III.2. **Number of health professionals registered with their respective councils, 1996-2001**

	1996	2001	Average annual growth rate (%)	Number per 100 000 inh.
Physicians	24 696	30 740¹	4.5	71.5
Generalists	16 819	22 369	5.9	52.1
Specialists	7 877	8 371	1.2	19.5
Nurses	172 520	172 338	0.0	401.1
Professional	87 783	94 552	1.5	220.0
Enrolled	33 170	32 120	-0.6	74.8
Assistant	51 567	45 666	-2.4	106.3
Dentists	3 723	4 648	4.5	10.8
Pharmacists	9 700	10 742	2.1	25.0
Psychomotricians	1 732	2 599	8.5	6.1
Physiotherapists	3 328	4 487	6.2	10.4
Orthophonists	1 030	1 435	6.9	3.3
Radiologists	5 467	6 387	3.2	14.9
Psychologists	4 259	5 766	6.2	13.4

1. According to Erasmus and Hall (2003), 29 655 physicians were registered with the medical council and had paid their registration fee in 2002.

Source: Doherty and Joffe, 2003.

- Numbers of nurses, specialist physicians and, to a lesser extent, pharmacists, are growing more slowly than the total population. The situation for enrolled and assistant nurses is even more worrying, since the number of such nurses registered with their council has fallen over the last five years, even though they are supposed to be one of the pillars of the primary healthcare policy.¹⁵
- Human resources are very unevenly distributed between the public and private sectors, and between regions. Fewer than 38% of active physicians work for the public health sector (Erasmus and Hall, 2003), which caters for 80% of the population.¹⁶ For nurses, the public sector/private sector split is about 50%, but only 43% of professional nurses work in the public health system, compared with 64% and 62%, respectively, for enrolled and assistant nurses (Erasmus and Hall, 2003; Doherty and Joffe, 2003).¹⁷ The geographical imbalances are equally plain. The highly urbanised provinces of Western Cape and Gauteng have approximately 180 physicians per 100 000 inhabitants, two to three times more than the national average, whereas the more rural Northern Province and Eastern Cape have only 21 and 34 physicians per 100 000 inhabitants, respectively, three to four times less than the national average. Likewise, 81% of nurses work in urban areas which contain only 54.4% of the population.

Nevertheless, unsatisfied demand remains for medical personnel in the public sector. The Department of Health estimates that there are 4 222 unfilled vacancies for physicians, and 32 734 unfilled vacancies for nurses, representing a little over a quarter of the total annual number of vacancies for these two categories in the sector (Erasmus and Hall, 2003). To give just one example, the Chris Hani Baragwanath public hospital in Soweto employs 1 100 professional nurses and 176 enrolled nurses, but has credits that ought to enable it to take on a further 950 nurses (450 professional nurses and 500 enrolled nurses), currently unavailable on the labour market, under the working conditions and pay on offer. The hospital is also looking for 18 pharmacists, in addition to the 17 currently employed there.

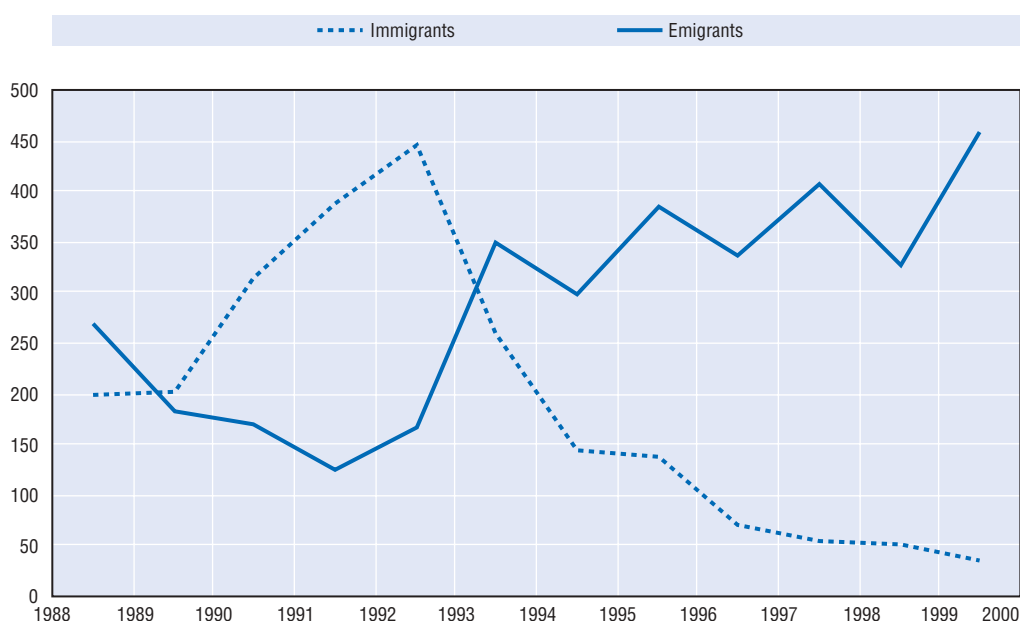
In contrast, there is a surplus of professional nurses in the private sector, especially in the Cape region. While professional nurses' pay has increased substantially in the private sector in recent years, rising by 14% in 2000 (Erasmus and Hall, 2003), specialists' pay has increased more slowly in the private sector than in the public sector, rising by 7.5% and 12%, respectively, in 2000.

A comparison of public sector needs with the capacities of South Africa's training system clearly shows that the imbalances are likely to persist. 1 420 physicians (including 226 specialists), 4 828 professional nurses (including 1 992 retrained enrolled nurses), 1 919 new enrolled nurses (fewer than the number of retrained nurses), and 1 520 assistant nurses, were trained in 2000. According to estimates of supply and demand for physicians and nurses up to 2011, made by Erasmus and Hall (2003), South Africa faces an acute shortage of health workers, even assuming that the net migration rate remains the same. In the short term, much needs to be done to alleviate labour shortages in the public sector; in the long term, the imbalances could affect the entire health system. Against this background, the role of international mobility is decisive.

The international mobility of South African health professionals

Annex 1 contains official statistics for health professionals from 1988 to 2000, by categories. From 1994, an almost continuously widening gap appears between emigration, which increases steadily, and immigration, which falls sharply over the entire period (see Chart III.4).

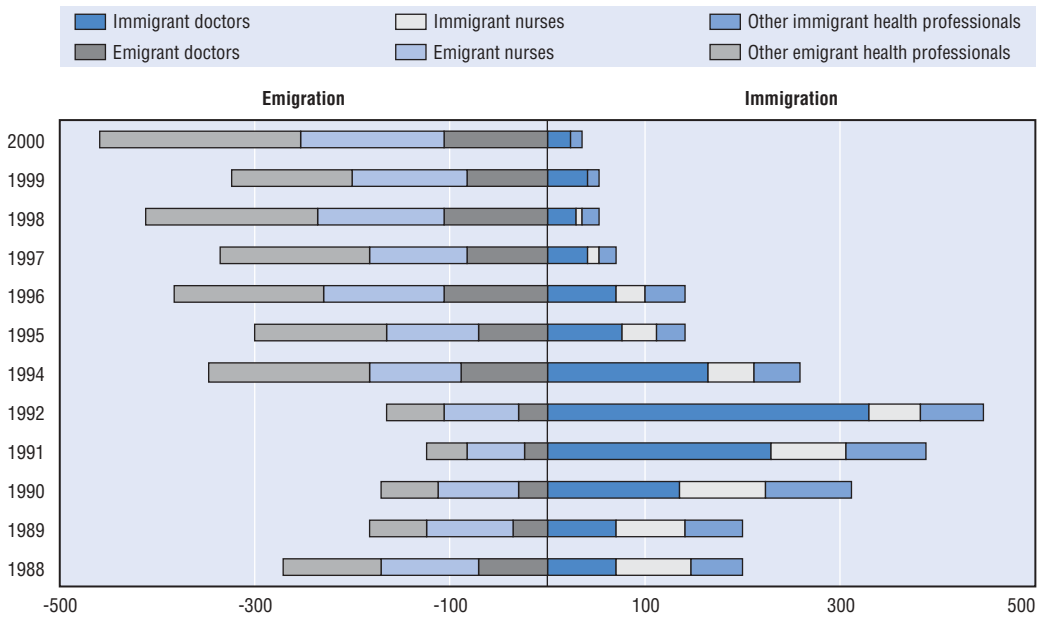
Chart III.4. **Migration flows of health professionals in South Africa, 1988-2000 (official data)**



Source: Doherty and Joffe, 2003.

A breakdown of migration movements by sub-category shows a very sharp drop in inflows of foreign physicians, and an increase in outflows of nurses and, above all, other health professionals (see Chart III.5).

Chart III.5. **Migration flows of health professionals in South Africa by categories, 1988-2000 (official data)**



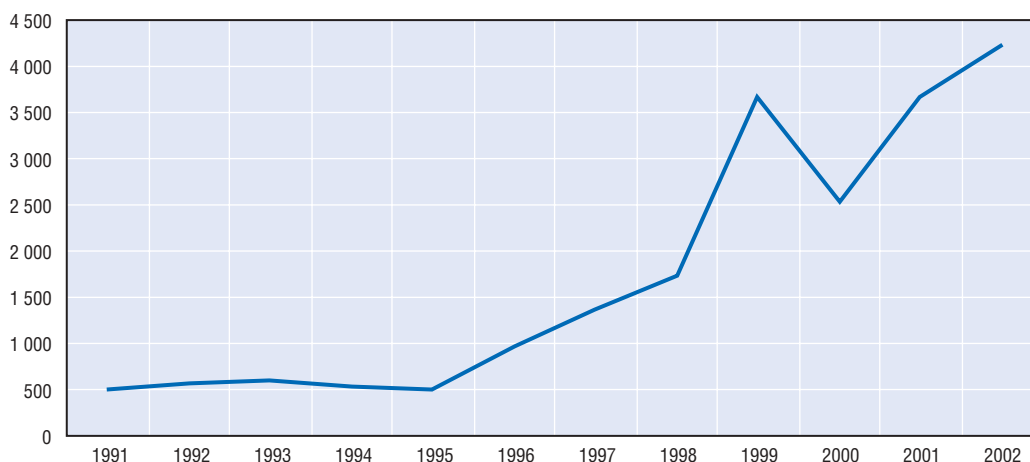
Source: Doherty and Joffe, 2003.

With additional data, the extent of the phenomenon and, more importantly, the direction of the trend, can be evaluated rather more precisely. For example, the Health Professions and Pharmacy Council records the address of medical practitioners, excluding nurses. Approximately 4% of those registered, representing 2 800 individuals, were officially residing in another country in 2001 (Doherty and Joffe, 2003). This figure is a minimum, since, among those who have left the country, some still maintain an official address in South Africa, and others do not keep up their registration.

For nurses, an approximation of the trend of migration flows can be obtained from the number of applications for skill certificates (see Chart III.6). Although most foreign employers insist on such certificates, they do not necessarily mean that a plan to migrate has been put into practice. However that may be, the number of applications rose very sharply from the mid-1990s, with especially big leaps in 1996 (+87%) and 1999 (+110%).

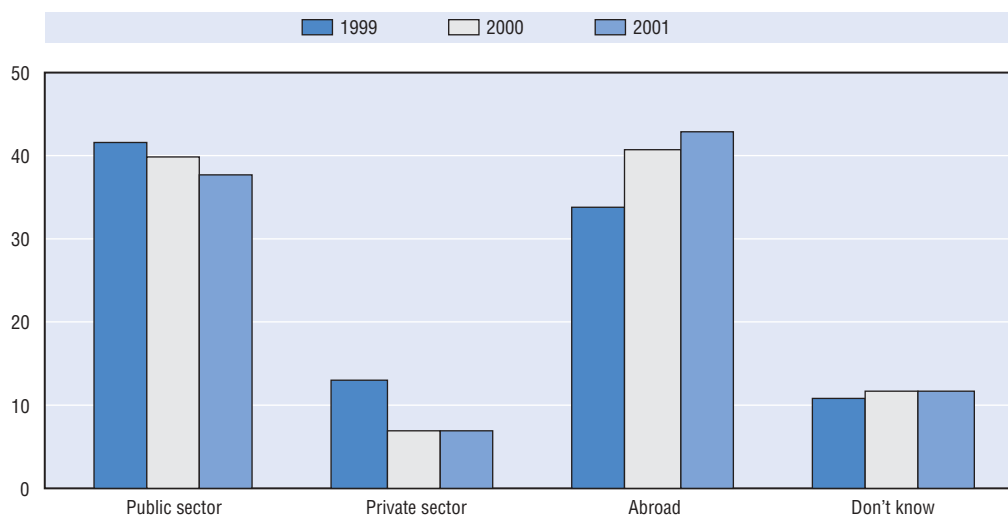
A survey of 1 200 young doctors completing their year of community service (see below) provides further information about intentions to emigrate (Reid, 2002). Asked “Where do you intend to work after your year of community service?”, a large and growing number said that they were considering working abroad (see Chart III.7), even if about three-quarters of them wanted subsequently to return to South Africa.¹⁸ The numbers of young, white doctors envisaging a move abroad are significantly higher.

Chart III.6. **Requests for certificates of qualification by South African nurses, 1991-2002**



Source: South African Nursing Council.

Chart III.7. **Intentions declared by young South African doctors for assignment at the end of community service, 1999-2001**



Source: Reid (2002).

The emigration of South African health professionals, as seen from countries of destination

Statistics from countries of destination (see Table III.3) show that over 23 400 health workers from South Africa currently practise a medical profession in Australia, Canada, the United States, New Zealand or the United Kingdom. This figure corresponds to approximately 9.8% of all health professionals registered in South Africa, suggesting that emigration rates are significantly higher for health workers than for skilled workers in general (see above).

Table III.3. **Number of South African-born workers practising a medical profession in certain OECD member countries in 2001**

	Practitioners ¹	Nurses and midwives	Other health professionals ²	Total
Australia	1 114	1 085	1 297	3 496
Canada	1 345	330	685	2 360
New Zealand	555	423	618	1 596
United Kingdom	3 625	2 923 ³	2 451	8 999
United States	2 282	2 083	2 591	6 956
Total	8 921	6 844	7 642	23 407

1. Doctors, dentists, veterinarians, pharmacists and other diagnostic practitioners.

2. Including assistants.

3. Possibly including some assistant nurses.

Sources: Eurostat employment survey for the European countries, *Current Population Survey* for the United States, *Survey of Longitudinal Income Dynamics* for Canada and census data for Australia and New Zealand. Provisional data for the United Kingdom and the United States.

Breaking down these statistics by category, practitioners (doctors, pharmacists, dentists, etc.) are the largest category of expatriates, with 8 921 individuals, representing almost 17% of the corresponding available labour force in South Africa. Emigration among nurses and midwives, though rising sharply, still remains relatively low, representing 5.4% of the available labour force in South Africa, even though it is possible that many emigrants are among the most highly skilled workers.

However, when considering these figures, it must be remembered that they include earlier waves of migration.¹⁹ Nevertheless, the countries for which the most detailed figures are available confirm the recent trend increase in the emigration of South African health workers, especially nurses.

The links between South Africa and the United Kingdom go back a long way. The mobility of health professionals is nothing new, and should be seen in the light of institutional relations between the two countries, especially between training institutions and the strength of family ties. While the mobility of South African physicians does not seem to have increased particularly in recent years, in contrast, more and more nurses are emigrating to the United Kingdom: their numbers increased fourfold between 1998 and 2002 (see Table III.4). Almost 2 100 South African nurses obtained a United Kingdom work permit in 2000-01, and 1 319 first-time applications for a work permit were received. This figure highlights the extent to which the official statistics presented earlier underestimate the scale of the phenomenon, since they showed only 147 official departures of nurses in 2000, all destination countries included. In addition, many of the emigrating nurses are intensive-care or theatre nurses.

However, South African health workers are not the only ones to emigrate to the United Kingdom, since the number of nurses recruited from the Philippines and India rose, respectively, from 52 to 7 235, and from 30 to 994, over the same period.²⁰ In fact, the figures reflect the needs of the United Kingdom labour market in the sector. It is estimated

Table III.4. **United Kingdom recruitment of South African nurses**

1998-99	1999-2000	2000-2001	2001-2002
599	1 460	1 086	2 114

Source: UKCC.

that, in all, over 30 000 nurses of foreign origin were working in the NHS in 2002. The NHS has set itself the target of recruiting at least 35 000 new nurses by 2008, while 50 000 retiring nurses will need to be replaced over the same period.²¹

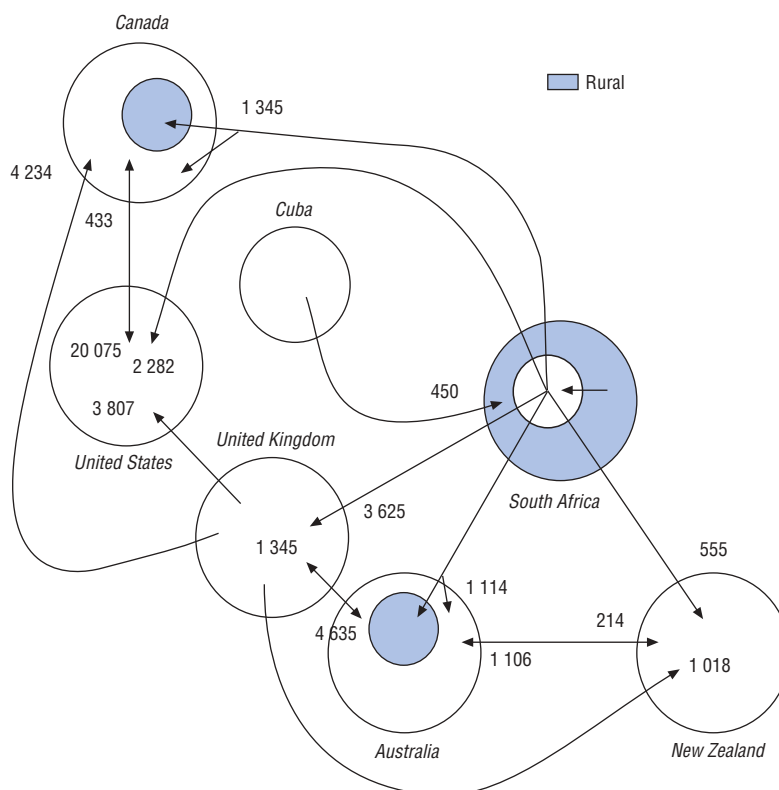
The shortage is less acute in Canada and Australia, even though both countries recruit substantial numbers of foreign nurses and physicians. Demand for health workers is mostly linked to regional imbalances,²² and the need to offset emigration by their own nationals.²³ South African health professionals are greatly appreciated for their professional and language skills. In Australia, foreign-trained physicians accounted for 21.3% of the available labour force in 1998. Between 1993/94 and 2001/02, the annual number of temporary work visas for foreign doctors increased by over 187%, rising from 670 to 1 929. 2 496 temporary work visas were issued in 2002-03, over 12% of them to South Africans. Immigrants from South Africa tend to stay longer than those from OECD member countries. 46.5% of South African physicians recently arrived in Australia said they wanted to stay for more than a year, while the comparable percentage is 30% for British doctors, 22% for New Zealanders and 16% for North Americans. The number of South African-trained physicians practising in Canada is also rising, from 270 in 1980, to 691 in 1990, and 1 290 in 1998 (Barer and Webber, 1999; 2000). There are currently over 1 500 South African-trained physicians practising in Canada, representing approximately 9.7% of foreign doctors. 17% of all medical practitioners in the province of Saskatchewan are from South Africa.

Foreign-trained physicians represent about a quarter of all medical practitioners in the United States.²⁴ Over 11 000 H-1B visas were issued to health professionals in 2001, including a very small proportion of South Africans. During the 1990s, the American authorities introduced a temporary immigration scheme enabling them to recruit 6 000 to 7 000 foreign nurses a year on H-1A visas. By 1995, when the scheme ended, some 13 000 nurses had been recruited, mostly from the Philippines. A new law passed in 1999 enables nurses to obtain an H-1C work visa, if they have a job offer in a so-called disadvantaged area, whether urban or rural. Only 500 visas per year are currently available under the scheme. However, the Department of Health considers that, in view of the number of training places, and the demographic profile of the population concerned, the shortfall of nurses will rise to 12% of the labour force by 2010, representing 275 000 vacancies to fill (HRSA, 2002).

South Africans are also emigrating in increasing numbers to the Gulf States, where the pay is particularly attractive. In this case, these movements seem to be mostly temporary. According to some sources, around 30 000 highly skilled South African workers have emigrated to the Gulf States, including many health professionals.

In reality, the international mobility of South African health professionals should be set in a much broader and more complex context than might be supposed from the description of a few bilateral relations (see Chart III.8). For example, Canadian doctors who go to work in the United States are replaced, especially in rural areas, by South African doctors, generally from urban backgrounds. This mobility creates opportunities in South Africa, which amplify regional imbalances, which the authorities partly seek to redress by recruiting Cuban physicians. Likewise, the United Kingdom, which loses health professionals to North America, is recruiting in Germany (and, more recently, Poland). At the same time, Germany is receiving growing numbers of physicians from Central and Eastern European countries, especially the Czech Republic. These movements contribute to the on-going globalisation of the market for skilled labour, the determinants of which are to be found in countries of both origin and destination.

Chart III.8. **Diagram of the principal axes of international mobility of health professionals between the old Commonwealth countries, the United States and Cuba (by country of birth)**



Note: The fact that the figures are based on the place of birth, and not the place of qualification, explains the size of the figure for Canadians resident in the United States (20 075). The reverse applies to Americans resident in Canada (433).

Sources: See Table III.3, except for British and American nationals in Canada (register data for 1998) and for British and Australian nationals in New Zealand (medical register data).

3. Causes and consequences of international mobility of health professionals

Emigration has many causes

The factors that determine the international mobility of health professionals broadly coincide with those that apply to highly skilled workers in general, and derive from a combination of push and pull factors. The available studies (Mattes and Richmond, 2002; Van der Vive and de Villas, 2000) advance the following reasons for emigration from South Africa:

- Insecurity and crime, which now affect a population that had previously enjoyed better protection.²⁵
- Affirmative action, which at equal skill levels, penalises young white male jobseekers, with the aim of rectifying the flagrant imbalances that are a legacy of the apartheid era.
- The deteriorating state of public education, which is an inevitable consequence, at least in the short term, of the democratisation of access to schooling.
- Uncertainties about the future, especially for children, in a tense social context inevitably affected by recent events in neighbouring Zimbabwe.

- The perceived fragility of the South African economy, especially due to the volatility and underlying depreciation of the rand.

But there are also many reasons linked to the attractiveness of the destination countries, such as:

- The transferability of South African qualifications in OECD member countries, especially the English-speaking ones, where South African diplomas and professional experience are generally highly regarded.
- Integration into a knowledge-based global economy, in which competition for skills increased very sharply during the 1990s (see OECD, 2002a).
- The activity of foreign recruitment agencies, sometimes with the backing of destination country governments, especially in the education and health sectors.

In addition to these general reasons, other factors related more specifically to health workers should be mentioned. For example, there may be differences between one country and another in the pay for an equivalent position. After several years in practice, a generalist earns 169 000 rand (approximately USD 21 000) in the public sector and 294 000 rand (approximately USD 37 000) in the private sector. The equivalent scales for a specialist are 286 000 rand (USD 36 000) in the public sector, and 381 000 rand (USD 48 000) in the private sector (Erasmus and Hall, 2003). Although rates of pay, which include social insurance and other charges, increased significantly in the 1990s, they remain much lower than those offered in OECD member countries. In the United States, for example, the average annual pay for doctors is USD 160 000 (USD 130 000 for a generalist, and USD 240 000 for a surgeon), three to five times higher than in South Africa.

A comparable problem seems to apply to nurses. A sister earns 88 000 rand a year (USD 11 000) in the public sector, and 96 000 rand (USD 12 000) in the private sector. The equivalent figures for a professional nurse are 72 000 and 83 000 rand (USD 9 000 and USD 10 000) (Erasmus and Hall, 2003). The salaries offered by international recruitment agencies for an enrolled nurse in Saudi Arabia can easily reach USD 30-35 000, plus benefits, such as air travel, accommodation, medical insurance, etc. A recently qualified nurse earns the equivalent of roughly USD 22 000 in the United Kingdom, and almost twice as much in the United States, but offers may be much higher according to the qualifications required.

However, when pay differentials are evaluated at purchasing power parity, especially including housing costs, the advantages may be much smaller than they appear at first sight. The South African press regularly reports on the plight of nurses facing the exorbitant cost of living in the London area, which unexpectedly amputates their income, and ultimately drives them back to South Africa.

Despite substantial financial incentives, many commentators, including some employee representatives (Denosa, 2001), emphasise that in many cases, pay is not the prime motive for leaving the country. Deteriorating working conditions in the public sector is one factor that is frequently mentioned. A significant increase in the workload, due to wider access to healthcare, and the uneven distribution of human resources between private and public sector, and urban and rural areas, leads health professionals to seek better working conditions. Exposure to AIDS, and other endemic infectious diseases, like tuberculosis, insecurity resulting from delinquency, the lack of suitable equipment, and social and racial factors, are also cited as difficulties that specifically affect the practice of medicine.

Last, the international mobility of health professionals is regarded as perfectly normal, linked with the opening up of the country, and globalisation. In such cases, mobility is seen as a temporary phenomenon which may take the form of replacing a specialist in a clinic in the United Kingdom, for example, or regularly joining a hospital department in Northern Europe during the summer, temporarily taking a highly-paid nursing job in the Middle East, enrolling in a specialist training course in an OECD member country,²⁶ etc. They are occasional absences, linked to international demand, often highly paid or professionally rewarding. The workers concerned are not long-term expatriates, nor do they intend to leave the country for good: they are merely taking advantage of favourable opportunities when they arise.

Most of the effects of emigration are indirect

Taking all these various factors into account, emigration cannot be held responsible for all actual or anticipated shortages of labour. For example, there are approximately 7 000 South African expatriate nurses in the main OECD member destination countries; at the same time, there are 32 000 vacancies in the public sector, and 35 000 registered nurses in South Africa are either inactive or unemployed.²⁷ Emigration is not the fundamental reason for the continuing imbalances in the allocation of human resources, though it is an aggravating factor.

This is the case, in particular, when adverse working conditions are attributable to an excessive workload linked to a lack of human resources. In such cases, there are powerful incentives for seeking better opportunities in the private sector or abroad, with the attendant risk of compounding the initial problem. The situation is particularly worrying in isolated rural areas, or in the most deprived areas. By leaving vacancies in urban areas, international migration directly or indirectly contributes to a brain drain from rural areas, which has tangible repercussions on the performance of the health sector, and undermines the South African government's efforts to alleviate regional imbalances in the allocation of health workers.

It is also the case when migration affects scarce and essential human resources, such as the departure of a gastro-enterologist, which entailed the closure of the department in which he was the only specialist. The emigration of pharmacists and radiologists, much in demand in the public sector, also causes very practical working difficulties in certain hospitals.

Because many of those who emigrate are among the most highly skilled, international mobility disproportionately involves those likely to contribute to the training system. While such mobility is not necessarily disastrous, because it remains limited, and may be offset by short-stay personnel from other countries, in the medium to long term, it nevertheless exerts pressure on the country's training capacity at a time when, if anything, it ought to be strengthened. As South African professors of medicine have professional skills that are acknowledged worldwide, this risk should certainly not be under-estimated.

Last, part of the loss attributed to the emigration of skilled workers lies in the share of the cost of their training, borne by the state. For health professionals in South Africa, the fact that almost all training institutions are public-funded, means that the potential loss of public investment is substantial. The Department of Health estimates that it costs around 780 000 rand (USD 97 000) to train a physician and 340 000 rand (USD 42 000) to train a nurse. Given the estimated number of health workers who have been trained in

South Africa, but practise in another country, the overall loss may be estimated at around USD one billion, equivalent to approximately one-third of the public development aid received by South Africa between 1994 and 2000 (OECD, 2002c). However, a significant proportion of current expatriates will probably return to South Africa with new individual skills acquired abroad. Fund transfers from emigrants also offset some of this financial loss. For that reason, the net tax loss attributable to the emigration of health professionals is particularly difficult to estimate, though it is likely to be unfavourable to a country of origin which, like South Africa, assumes most of the cost of training.

South African nurses and doctors do not emigrate only because destination countries seek to recruit them. The conditions under which they practise in South Africa are also a determining factor, implying that the policies of the South African government have a dominant role to play in limiting the scale and potentially adverse effects of emigration.

4. Some aspects of South African government policies to stem emigration by the highly skilled

The South African government seems to have realised both the scope of the international mobility of their highly skilled workers, especially in the health sector, and the issues at stake. It recently introduced a whole series of measures designed to encourage the immigration of skilled foreign workers, and retain South African personnel. The main reforms in the health sector concern: i) the introduction of compulsory community service, ii) training, iii) better pay and working conditions, and iv) greater international co-operation with the main countries of destination for South African health professionals. From this standpoint, the example of South Africa, with its successes and failures, contains instructive lessons for other developing and transition countries facing the emigration of their skilled workers.

A new Immigration Act to make it easier to recruit skilled foreign workers

After the strict controls on those entering and leaving the country imposed during the apartheid era, South Africa is now keen to guarantee the right of its nationals to travel freely. Consequently, there has never been any question of restricting the mobility of skilled workers. However, the advent of democratic government gave rise to massive immigration, some of it illegal,²⁸ which worries many South Africans. The government responded by drastically curtailing the possibilities for foreigners to settle in South Africa. The measures applied to all categories of entrants, including skilled workers. As seen earlier, inflows of skilled workers have dried up considerably over the last ten years, a situation which employers' representatives have regularly criticised.

But South Africa is not alone in taking such steps. In the sometimes chaotic context of national construction and the assertion of national identity, several developing countries have imposed highly restrictive conditions on immigration and citizenship. Such policies have had an indirect effect on their capacity to offset the emigration of their own human resources through inflows of foreigners, especially at regional level.

The new Immigration Act,²⁹ which was passed by the South African parliament in May 2002, but did not come into force until March 2003, is supposed to remedy these problems, by controlling the entry of undesirable migrants more effectively, and encouraging skilled workers, potentially useful to the country's economic development, to

come and settle. It marks the culmination of a long process of preparation, lasting over five years in all, which has given rise to numerous criticisms.

The Immigration Act introduces a quota system negotiated between the social partners and the Labour, Trade and Interior Ministries. Although the South African Chamber of Business (SACOB) has reacted favourably, emphasising the opportunity it represents for reversing the flow of skills, the Centre for Development and Enterprise, a business think tank, is much more cautious, pointing in particular to the potential difficulties, in a modern, fast-moving economy, of evaluating labour needs from the centre (CDE, 2002a, b).³⁰

Looking at the list of categories covered by the quotas, the system appears relatively unrestrictive, it is true, but also not particularly helpful. The categories are broadly defined, the numbers are high, and the system is organised as a cascade.³¹ In fact, a genuine quota system is probably not very realistic in the context of South Africa, since it requires a substantial administrative capacity, and mechanisms for continuous monitoring and negotiation. But the new act proves that the South African government is aware of the need to create conditions in which it can assert the country's advantages in an increasingly global market for skilled labour.

Will the Immigration Act enable South Africa to close the migration gap? If so, it will have to reverse the trend of the last 12 years, which has seen a 40-60% decline in inflows over each four-year period. In order to achieve a positive migration balance over the next four years, assuming that emigration does not continue to rise, at least 33 000 professionals will have to immigrate, representing an 1 800% rise in relation to the previous period.³² The Immigration Act quotas allow for such an inflow, but will there be enough candidates? Close monitoring will soon show whether or not that is the case, but it is highly likely that the revised entry conditions will not be sufficient to make the South African labour market instantly more attractive, thus underlining the importance of the other current or planned measures.

Reforming human resource management in the health sector, to remedy emigration by South African health professionals

The South African Department of Health attaches growing importance to human resources management, and the issue of migration. Several recent reforms have been introduced, with precisely that in mind. They concern, for example, the introduction of compulsory community service, and a review of the pay and working conditions of health professionals in the public sector. They also concern bilateral and multilateral co-operation initiatives.

Community service: a bit of "bad" for another good

Under the community service system introduced in 1999, when recently qualified doctors complete their training, they are assigned for a year to a disadvantaged part of the country, generally in a rural area. The system is one of the key measures taken by the government to remedy imbalances in the allocation of human resources. The requirement is justified as a counterpart to the public subsidy for training health professionals. As physicians have to complete their community service in order to register, the system retains most of those who would like to work outside South Africa, for one year at least. So far, only a very small minority has dropped out (8% of graduating classes), either by deferring their year of community service, or emigrating, or refusing to register (Reid, 2002).

After several years in operation, the programme seems to be relatively uncontroversial. Some commentators argue that the inexperience of young doctors makes them less effective, and hence limits the scope of the measure, while others point to their ability to adapt, the formative nature of the social conditions in which they are required to practice and, ultimately, their binding into South African society. The scheme, already in place for most practitioners (doctors, dentists, pharmacists, radiologists, orthophonists, physiotherapists, dieticians, psychologists, etc.), could be extended to other categories of health workers, including professional nurses in 2007. There has also been talk of extending the length of community service to two years, but this would doubtless not only provoke the ire of health professionals but also significantly increase the drop-out rate, thus producing the opposite effect to that intended.

What is the real scope of the measure? The number of practitioners concerned (approximately 1 200 interns in the first year of the system in 1999) is much smaller than the number of vacancies in the public sector (see above). To some extent, nevertheless, it is sufficient to meet the most urgent needs in the most deprived areas. The numbers are far from negligible, in comparison with the emigration statistics for health professionals. However, the scheme has limitations, insofar as mobilisation is temporary, and the stock of mobilisable practitioners is not inexhaustible. Migration, in contrast, is not only rising, but also more lasting. The scheme is therefore worthwhile in the short and medium term, but not necessarily sufficient in the long term. Paradoxically, its scope can be increased, only if more is done to train health workers.

Training health professionals and changing curricula

In a context of budget restrictions, and in view of the priorities set by the South African government, there is little scope for increased funding of the higher education of health workers.³³ Certain choices have been made, for example, to favour the training of nurses and generalists, but achieving the desired shift towards providers of primary health care is likely to take an extremely long time, unless more radical action is taken, or additional resources are made available. The need is all the more acute, bearing in mind forecasts of a trend rise in unsatisfied demand for human resources over the next ten years (Erasmus and Hall, 2003).

That is the background against which the South African government and those responsible for medical training (at nursing and medical council level, for example) are considering the options for revising curricula, and adjusting the length of studies. The aim is both to train providers of basic healthcare more quickly, and to ensure that the training is better matched to the needs of the population and the realities of medical practice in South Africa. Indirectly, some also hope to make the skills acquired by health professionals less easily transferable, and hence more difficult to export. By focusing the training of generalists on diseases specific to South Africa, such as malaria, children's diseases, sexually transmissible diseases (STD), etc., rather than on health problems that require resource-intensive hospital treatment, it may be supposed that South African practitioners will be of less interest to OECD member countries, in which functional and organic ailments are more prevalent.

However, this strategy is sharply criticised within the medical profession, which regards medicine as a universal science (Cohen, 2001), and does not wish to contemplate abandoning high-quality medical practices which, though certainly expensive, nonetheless also meet patients' needs. In other words, they argue that South African

medicine should continue to operate in areas in which it has a proven track record, even if those areas are not particularly representative of the needs of the majority.

Without calling the current system into question, one option under consideration is to fit nurses' training into three years, rather than four. Students would have to choose one specialisation rather than four, as is the case at present. Such measures are likely to preserve the national health system from over-exposure to international demand, without being excessively protectionist, and without undermining the professionalism of health workers. As regards physicians, Price (2001) has put forward an interesting proposal which consists in reorganising curricula around two blocks, corresponding respectively to: i) basic training defined according to international standards, and ii) medical practices specific to the typical conditions of exercise in each country.

However, such reflections about curricula should not be reduced to a mere matter of training, but should contribute to a broader redefinition of the organisation of work in the health sector, and the skills mix. This debate is well-advanced in some OECD member countries, but it is even more urgent in the context of South Africa.

Improving the working conditions of health professionals: necessary, but inevitably of limited scope

The authorities responsible for public services recently signalled their intention to improve pay and working conditions in the public sector, and to make jobs in rural areas more attractive through non-financial incentives, such as housing, social benefits, greater security, etc. From their point of view, even without pretending to rival northern countries, pay rises would significantly improve the situation.

Average pay in the public sector, including benefits, increased in 2000 by almost 5% for generalists, over 12% for specialists and 14% for professional nurses (Erasmus and Hall, 2003). In addition, in January 2003, the Treasury accepted the Department of Health's request to increase the allowances paid to physicians in priority rural areas, previously set at 20 000 rand (USD 2 500), and there are plans to extend this measure to other groups of health professionals. At the same time, work is being done to identify the main problems relating to the working conditions of health professionals. 61 million rand (approximately USD 6.5 million) could be allocated to increasing the security of the medical infrastructure. Thus, the South African authorities are trying to make the idea of work outside South Africa relatively less appealing, but it must be acknowledged that the government has very little financial room for manoeuvre in the short term.

Increasing international co-operation relating to the international mobility of health professionals

Since 1 October 2001, despite shortages of health workers, South Africa has promised not to recruit any physicians or nurses, except under the terms of specific agreements with the country of origin, so as not to deprive other countries of scarce human resources.³⁴ This praiseworthy attitude is nevertheless criticised by South Africans, who regard it as discriminating against them, underlining the sensitivity of such measures, and the underlying conflicts of interest between individuals and societies.

At the same time, South Africa has concluded agreements with several countries, such as Cuba and Germany, so that physicians, with the agreement of their national authorities, can practise in South Africa for a predefined period. The best-known of these programmes concerns Cuban doctors. It began in February 1996, and there are now 450 Cuban physicians

practising in South Africa.^{35, 36} In fact, this inflow makes up for only a fifth of the number of South African physicians who left the country during the same period.³⁷ Cuban doctors are assigned to the most disadvantaged parts of the country (isolated rural areas and townships), where their contribution is nevertheless appreciable. The different players in the health system are satisfied with the arrangement, but the press occasionally mentions language difficulties, or the fact that some Cuban doctors seek to settle in South Africa for good.³⁸

South Africa is also seeking to negotiate bilateral or multilateral agreements with the leading countries of destination for its health professionals (i.e. the Commonwealth countries that are also OECD member countries), with the aim of soliciting an undertaking from them not to actively recruit such workers. In 2001, the NHS brought out a code of practice for international recruitment, under which the British authorities undertake not to organise campaigns to recruit health professionals in South Africa³⁹ and 153 other countries (see Annex 2 and below). In contrast, attempts by the South African authorities to reach an agreement with Canada have so far been unsuccessful.⁴⁰ More recently, considerable progress is reported to have been made within the Commonwealth towards the definition of minimum ethical criteria for recruitment in the health sector. The South African government attaches vital importance to this aspect of international co-operation, even if it has shown its limitations to date (see below).

5. The lessons of the South African experience with regard to the international mobility of health professionals: greater international co-operation and policy coherence

The preceding analysis has shown that, although the emigration of health professionals is not the principal cause of the difficulties facing the South African health system today, it is nonetheless an aggravating factor, which could hamper the effectiveness of the government's efforts to remedy the imbalances inherited from the apartheid system, and meet the main public health challenges, especially those linked to poverty and HIV/AIDS. This conclusion certainly applies to other developing countries, like India and Argentina, but cases also exist where the international mobility of health professionals has much more direct and immediate implications. For example, almost two-thirds of nurses trained in Jamaica during the last twenty years have emigrated, mainly to the United States, and very few have returned (Thomas-Hope, 2002). In other countries, in contrast, when the education system trains more than enough doctors and nurses, especially through a private sector oriented towards the needs of the world market, the international mobility of health professionals may be regarded as a factor that favours economic development, if it translates into skill transfers or financial transfers to the country of origin. The case of Filipino nurses is generally seen in this light. Even in the Philippines, however, the emigration of other categories of health professionals, especially generalists and specialists, can also pose problems.⁴¹

Although all situations are not comparable, there are many lessons to be learnt from South Africa, because of the scope of the problem there, the range of solutions considered, and the country's specific geopolitical and economic position.

A comprehensive and concerted approach to the international mobility of health professionals

To simplify, it is possible to distinguish two types of effect resulting from the international mobility of health professionals. The first is due to the fact that governments traditionally play an important role in the health sector where, because of its social importance, they influence both labour supply⁴² and labour demand. The emigration of health professionals affects the capacity of governments to manage health sector human resources efficiently, i.e. their capacity to predict the number of people that would need to be trained in each specialisation, in order for the health system to work properly. Indirectly, this problem has repercussions, either on the availability of health professionals (if not enough are trained), or on the real cost of training (if more people than necessary are trained, in order to offset numbers leaving for other countries).⁴³ In addition, the international mobility of doctors and nurses helps to meet the needs of those countries that benefit from it, favours technology transfers, and may generate additional resources for the country of origin.

From this dual standpoint, countries of both origin and destination are concerned by the measures that need to be taken to ensure that the benefits of the international mobility of health professionals are shared fairly.

Three priorities may be identified from the South African experience:

Treating causes, not symptoms

Few governments now still exercise direct control over the mobility of their nationals. Consequently, when they are not in a position to offer their skilled workers working conditions that are competitive on the international market, some countries feel at a loss in knowing how to deal with the emigration of their workers. This feeling is probably even stronger where health professionals are concerned, since they make a vital contribution to a country's social welfare. Of course, mobility is partly determined by financial reasons, but the example of South Africa has also shown that they are not the only reasons, or even the most important. South African studies and numerous media reports highlight factors, such as respect for people and property, the future prospects for children, and working conditions. In addition, the question of motivation is often a key factor, for health professionals, in particular. In all these areas, home country authorities doubtless have much more scope for action than might initially appear.

For example, experience has shown that vocational training, the redefinition of the organisation of work and careers, and increased managerial capacities, are effective means of improving the service quality and motivation of health workers (Martineau and Martinez, 1997; Hicks and Adams, 2001). Likewise, practitioners are highly sensitive to the material conditions in which they have to work (security, medical equipment, support staff, etc.). If working conditions are too precarious or unsuitable, feelings of uselessness and loss of motivation may gain the upper hand. Even more generally, it is important to enhance the worth of healthcare professions among the population, and within the public service. In many African countries, exposure to HIV/AIDS places considerable pressure on health professionals; consequently, it is essential to address the practical difficulties they face through measures such as training, and the availability of tritherapy for doctors and nurses exposed to HIV/AIDS in their professional lives.

Another important motivating factor for health professionals is the quality of the medicine they practise, and of the senior ranks of the profession. From this standpoint, the presence of internationally recognised figures and highly qualified staff is an important advantage in keeping and developing human resources in the country of origin. It is therefore necessary to preserve research activities that are acknowledged to be of international standard. The creation of centres of excellence at supra-regional level within SADC, the South African Development Community, or NEPAD, the New Partnership for Africa's Development, in some cases partly funded by the private sector, should help to encourage competitive medical research that is also adapted to regional health issues. This type of infrastructure is also important in encouraging technology transfers and exchanges with skilled professionals who have left the country (Brown, 2003).

However, the possibilities for using non-pay incentives to retain more health professionals are limited. In many cases, it is therefore essential to increase the number of health professionals being trained, in order to offset departures due to emigration. Greater openness to private education, under the control of the public authorities (especially professional councils) could increase the number of graduates, without the state having to bear all the cost. The private sector would help to meet international demand, while the subsidised public sector would guarantee broader (universal) access to higher education. Private institutions play a decisive role in training the Indian computer scientists and Filipino nurses who steadily feed the world market. However, this sort of approach is insufficient where the provision of high-level medical training is concerned, since the costs are so high as to make the development of private, non-subsidised institutions unlikely.

Last, it is also important to identify and rectify policies that may dissuade expatriate health professionals from returning. In particular, it is important to guarantee the possibility of reintegration into public service, taking into account the seniority and skills acquired abroad. Steps should also be taken to facilitate financial transfers, and to help those choosing to return with administrative procedures for resettling in their country of origin, such as professional registration, enrolment of children in schools, etc.

Renewing the debate about pay, stepping up co-operation

During the 1970s, debate about the international mobility of skilled workers focused on the issue of pay. Bhagwati proposed levying a tax on highly skilled emigrants which would be collected by the country of destination for ten years, and paid into a United Nations fund to promote development in the country of origin (Bhagwati and Hamada, 1974). According to estimates at the time, the amount raised could have been as much as USD 750 million, at 1972 rates. Although the proposal was studied attentively in academic circles, it was never given serious consideration as a practical proposition. The difficulty of assessing the amount of the levy, uncertainty as to the use of the funds and, above all, the hostility of host countries and the migrants themselves, got the better of the efforts made to promote the idea. However, this has not prevented countries of origin from since seeking compensation for the loss of human resources whose training has been paid from the public purse. But the proposal has little chance of coming to fruition, and most observers agree that some other routes should be investigated.

In fact, developed countries can help to support the efforts made by countries of origin to develop their human resources in other ways than through direct monetary compensation. Development aid policies provide a framework for such transfers, through expert missions, specific training initiatives, the secondment of human resources, and

support for development projects. Their effectiveness is sometimes questioned (Naudet, 1999) and “new” forms of co-operation, bringing in non-governmental organisations and the private sector, can be encouraged in this area (see, for instance, the case of NEPAD).

Possible options could include enabling health professionals in host countries to take sabbaticals, so that they can take part in development initiatives in southern countries, supporting twinning projects between hospital departments in the north and south, offering scholarships to foreign students, so that they can continue their studies in their country of origin, and creating financial incentives, so that skilled expatriates can embark on projects in their particular area of competence. Many projects of this type exist already, but they are mostly highly fragmented, and their viability horizon does not extend beyond the short term.

In this context, host countries could give more formal undertakings to improve the qualitative and quantitative coherence between development aid policies and migration policies. Although such a move concerns most skilled activities, it is especially important in the health sector, which is often a priority, both for public development aid, and for the international recruitment of skilled labour.

Defining a code of practice for the international recruitment of health professionals

The United Kingdom authorities can be credited with an interesting attempt to regulate the international mobility of health professionals, without seeking to restrict it, in the form of a document for employers issued in 1999,⁴⁴ *Guidance on International Recruitment* (DoH, 1999), revised as the *Code of Practice for NHS Employers Involved in International Recruitment of Healthcare Professionals* (DoH, 2001).⁴⁵ The code of practice lays down the conditions for recruiting, receiving and employing health professionals from EU Member States and third countries. It defines the required language skills and the role of private recruitment agencies.⁴⁶ It also includes a list of countries in which the Department of Health undertakes not to organise recruitment campaigns (see Annex 2). The code states that NHS employers must not target developing countries, unless the government of the country concerned has given the Department of Health its official consent in the form of a Memorandum of Understanding, which encourages exchanges of health professionals and expertise between the two countries. In addition, the code asserts that international development co-operation authorities should undertake to provide assistance and training in the health sector in countries of origin.

Several other organisations are considering drawing up their own code of practice.⁴⁷ The Commonwealth recently produced a code of practice with a wider scope, the *Code of Practice for International Recruitment of Health Workers*. An initial version of the document was discussed at the Commonwealth council of health ministers in November 2001 and May 2002 but the member states were unable to reach agreement. However, the principles of the code were widely accepted at the meeting of health ministers in 2003.⁴⁸ The document is comparable in its broad outlines to the one produced by the United Kingdom, but stipulates, in addition, that Commonwealth member states will encourage non-member states to adopt the code, and will promote the code through international organisations, such as the ILO, WHO and ICN.

Although there is no question about the justification of this approach from the standpoint of fairness, its impact remains to be proved. Buchan (2002) points out that while the United Kingdom decision not to actively recruit South African nurses seems to have

had an effect on the number of nurses recruited in 2000, numbers began to rise again in 2001, to a level 45% higher than in 1999, and more than two and a half times as high as in 1998-99 (see Table III.4 above). However, South African nurses represented 24.4% of all incoming foreign nurses in 1999, but only 15.4% in 2001. It is probably too soon to evaluate precisely the impact of such a measure in practical terms, but several factors suggest that, in all events, it will be limited.

First, none of the codes are really binding. They constitute “soft law”, their scope being similar to that of a statement of intent. In other words, the codes make no provision for sanctions against employers who are in breach, or even any form of incentive for compliance.

Second, the agreements do not rule out the recruitment of personnel from countries identified as suffering from a shortage of health workers, but merely the organisation of recruitment campaigns. Nowadays, much information about job offers is available on the internet, which anyone can access. Consequently, a recruitment agency can still target potential emigrants from a particular country via the Web, without formally conducting a targeted recruitment campaign.

Third, as the undertaking concerns only a small number of destination countries for the time being, its global scope is inevitably limited. While the authorities in the United Kingdom were trying to restrict the recruitment of South African nurses, they emigrated in greater numbers to New Zealand, Australia and the United States. In a global marketplace where most countries have comparable needs, such measures must be global, if they are to be truly effective.

Last, it is possible that such means of regulation will become a victim of their own success. If the number of countries from which it is possible to organise recruitment campaigns remains very small, as will probably be the case if the developed countries do not support the development of human resources in the southern countries more actively, recruitment will focus on a small number of countries, and surpluses will very soon disappear as a result, thus drying up the pools from which it is currently possible to draw resources.

Various steps could be considered to improve these practices, such as:

- Rapidly honouring promises to increase the development aid earmarked for human resources in the health sector (see above).
- Promoting international agreements along those lines that would include all OECD member countries, and other countries that rely on immigrant health workers, like the Gulf States and certain newly industrialised countries.

Despite all the limitations mentioned above, it is important to emphasise that the first steps towards the definition of a code of practice for international recruitment of health workers represent a decisive move towards better regulation of the international market for health professionals. Such a move is all the more necessary, given the imperfections of the market in question, and the nature of health as a “global public good” (Chen, Evans and Cash, 1999).

Conclusion

South Africa is not an isolated instance. In the SADC sub-region, and even across the entire African continent, the problem of the international mobility of health professionals is becoming increasingly important. The South African example has shown that, while the

emigration of health workers is not always the primary cause of the problems facing the health systems of developing countries, it is nonetheless an aggravating factor. This mobility is only partly determined by financial factors: other factors are also at work, such as working and living conditions in general, job recognition, etc., and may sometimes be more important. Consequently, government policies in developing countries have a significant part to play in improving human resource management in the health sector.

As shortages of health workers are a global phenomenon, and as demand for healthcare in the OECD members countries is likely to continue to grow, the international mobility of health workers will also tend to increase, generating emigration flows which would considerably reduce the numbers of health workers in developing countries.

The detailed study of South Africa, and the references to several other countries, show the potential importance of strengthening policy coherence in the spheres of migration and development aid, both at national level in countries of origin and at international level, so as to ensure that the benefits arising from the international mobility of health professionals are shared in a way that is both fair and sustainable. It is right to reflect on how public development aid can be increased in the health sector, especially in training health workers.

In the medium term, the best way of limiting the potentially adverse effects of the international mobility of health workers is to increase training in developed countries where shortages exist, and to raise the status of the healthcare professions, so that they attract recruits in sufficient numbers to address the consequences of ageing populations.

Notes

1. This chapter has been prepared by J.C. Dumont (OECD) and J.B. Meyer (IRD, Institut de recherche pour le développement, Paris).
2. The term "brain drain" was used for the first time in a study for the British Royal Society, which voiced fears about the effects of the large-scale emigration of British scientists and doctors to the United States.
3. South Africa is a settled country in which immigration has played an important role. As a former member of the Commonwealth, it has retained special ties with several OECD member countries.
4. As a dominant economy in the sub-region and in the continent as a whole, South Africa attracts large numbers of immigrants. However, the apartheid era increased the exodus of mostly highly skilled South African workers (Mattes *et al.*, 2000).
5. Under apartheid, the South African government clearly demonstrated a preference for immigrants from Germany and the Netherlands. Protestants were also preferred to Catholics (see Peberdy, 1999).
6. The United Nations Population Division estimates that there were almost 175 million migrants in the world in 2000, representing approximately 2.9% of the world population. There is no overall estimate for skilled workers, but an emigration rate at least twice as high is very likely.
7. 23 countries worldwide had worse results, all of them African, with the exception of Afghanistan.
8. In 2000, South African GDP per capita reached 9 160 \$PPP, and was thus higher than for Turkey (7 030) or Mexico (8 790). The average GDP per capita for sub-Saharan Africa is 1 600 \$PPP.
9. Total spending on health represents approximately 8.8% of GDP, comparable with Norway and Belgium, and much higher than the average for Africa (3.2%), and the world as a whole (5.2%).
10. According to a WHO estimate (2000), South Africa is 182nd out of 192 countries in terms of the performance of its health system (*i.e.* the capacity to convert spending on health into life expectancy adjusted for incapacity).
11. According to a recent HSRC report, the overall prevalence rate is 11.4%, but 15.6% of those aged between 15 and 49 are HIV positive (Shisana and Simbayi, 2002).

12. Another indicator, for equality in infant survival, puts South Africa in 128th place.
13. Physicians are divided into two categories (generalists and specialists), and nurses into three categories (professional nurses, enrolled nurses and assistant nurses), according to the classification used in South Africa.
14. Over the period 1990-99, the WHO estimates that the ratios are 5.6 physicians per 10 000 inhabitants in South Africa, compared with 4.8 in India, 3 in Namibia, 2.4 in Thailand, 1.8 in Nigeria and 1.4 in Zimbabwe.
15. Furthermore, these results do not necessarily take account of losses attributable to emigration or change of professional status (inactivity, change of job), since these events are not systematically recorded in council registers.
16. Only 16% of South Africans have healthcare cover that gives them access to private medicine.
17. For nurses, the exodus from the public to the private sector seems to be neither as rapid nor on such a large scale as the media suggest. The percentage of nurses working in the private sector has increased by only five points over the last fifteen years. However, the situation is very different for generalists, since the proportion of those working in the public sector fell at an annual rate of 6.4% between 1997 and 2001.
18. Young pharmacists seem less inclined towards expatriation, since only 21% said they were considering working abroad.
19. In Australia, for example, 75% of South African-born nurses, and 70% of practitioners, have acquired Australian nationality.
20. The United Kingdom has concluded agreements with these countries, under the terms of which it may actively recruit nurses. In November 2000, the United Kingdom Health Minister also signed an agreement with his Spanish counterpart allowing the NHS to recruit up to 5 000 Spanish nurses. Some 375 Spanish nurses were recruited under this scheme in 2001-02 (Nursing and Midwifery Council, 2002).
21. In view of the number of training places for nurses in the United Kingdom (approximately 15 000 a year), and emigration to other OECD member countries (estimated at 6 250 in 2002), it is reckoned that all the new posts will have to be filled by recruitment from other countries.
22. Australia has introduced a special programme for immigrants who settle in rural areas, the Regional Sponsored Migration Scheme. In Canada, regional aspects of immigration are currently handled by provincial immigration schemes, generally directed towards local labour market requirements. For example, Saskatchewan runs a special scheme for health professionals, and British Columbia has a programme for nurses.
23. An estimated 550 Australian doctors emigrated in 1997-98, mainly to the United Kingdom (38%) and North America (20.5%) (AMWAC, 1999). The emigration of Canadian health workers to the United States has also been an issue for several years. There was a negative net migration balance for Canadian doctors, 50% of them specialists, in the late 1970s (-663 in 1978) and mid-1990s (-777 in 1994). The migration balance in 1999, though still negative, was much smaller (-200, compared with -500 in 1996) (Barer and Webber, 1999).
24. Almost 20% of foreign-trained doctors practising in the United States are American citizens, a third of them are permanent residents (green card holders), approximately 7% have H1-B-type visas and about 30% have non-renewable J1 visitor visas (Biviano and Makarehchi, 2002).
25. In a survey conducted by Mattes and Richmond (2002), over 80% of the skilled white workers interviewed expected security to deteriorate considerably in the next five years, compared with 54% for black workers. Furthermore, 86% of skilled white workers thought that security problems were much less significant in other countries, compared with 55% for black workers. All in all, 25% of those interviewed mentioned security as the main reason for planning to emigrate.
26. In a forthcoming study, Professor W. Pick has interviewed some 560 emigrant South African doctors about their motives. About one-third emphasised professional experience acquired in other countries.
27. For doctors, the number of expatriates is greater than the number of vacancies in the public sector. Nonetheless, the continuing surplus of doctors in urban areas proves that the existing imbalances are not necessarily attributable to emigration.
28. According to unofficial Interior Ministry estimates, some 500 000 foreigners are currently residing illegally in South Africa.

29. The Immigration Act replaces the former Alien Control Act, in force under the previous regime, and during the early years of transition.
30. Another controversial measure contained in the Immigration Act relates to the payment of a fee equivalent to 2% of the foreign worker's salary. The proceeds from this levy are earmarked for the National Training Fund, so as to contribute to the development of skills in South Africa. The tax replaces the need for labour market testing, since agreeing to pay an additional charge for employing a foreign worker attests to the existence of a recruitment problem. The tax may be suspended for certain professions, where the South African economy is painfully short of available workers.
31. For example, the first category, open to "job opportunities for which the employer can prove the need for a third-cycle diploma, and at least five years' professional experience", for which there is a quota of 90 000 applications, is followed by the second category, "job opportunities for which the employer can prove the need for a second-cycle diploma and at least five years' professional experience", for which there is a quota of 75 000, and the third category, "job opportunities for which the employer can prove the need for a second-cycle diploma, and at least two years' experience", with a quota of 70 000.
32. This figure is based on the assumption that official statistics underestimate South African emigration by a factor of about four.
33. Public expenditure is due to rise in real terms over the next three years, including an extra 7.8 billion rand earmarked for infrastructure spending, 16 billion rand for STD/AIDS, and 4 billion rand for improvements to the prison system. At the same time, the South African government is intending to cut 8.3 billion rand off taxes through income tax reform. It is also maintaining its objective of budget discipline, and relying on privatisation to reduce long-term government debt (OECD, 2002d). Education is another priority, accounting for 21.5% of the government budget in 2000. In view of existing disparities, however, the emphasis is on primary and secondary schooling.
34. The commitment concerns all G77 countries and the Commonwealth countries. A similar commitment has been in effect with the SADC countries since 1995.
35. Zimbabwe has also concluded an agreement with Cuba. There were 117 Cuban doctors practising in Zimbabwe in 2002.
36. In practice, these doctors are hired under the same conditions as local doctors, but 30% of their salary is paid directly to the Cuban government, 27% into a personal account in Cuba, where they also receive their normal salary, and the remaining 43% is paid directly in South Africa.
37. Official statistics record 544 South African generalists and specialists leaving the country between 1996 and 2000. Assuming that only one departure in four is officially recorded (see Box III.1), approximately 2 200 physicians are therefore estimated to have emigrated over the period.
38. According to the available figures, only ten such cases have been reported in the last six years.
39. In fact, the NHS stopped actively recruiting health professionals from South Africa in 1999, at the request of the South African government.
40. In September 2000, the South African ambassador to Canada sent all provincial and federal health ministers a letter asking them to cut back the recruitment of South African health professionals. However, the two countries have not reached any formal agreement to date.
41. In 1997, the ratio of nurses to the population in the Philippines was comparable to that of Spain (approximately 42 nurses per 10 000 inhabitants), but the corresponding ratio for doctors was three times lower (12 per 10 000, compared with 42 per 10 000 in Spain).
42. Governments generally play an important part in the training of doctors and nurses, since they help to define curricula, at least partially subsidise university training and, in some cases, set the numbers of those admitted into the profession.
43. In the specific case of the health sector, the argument that greater opportunities for expatriation could have a beneficial effect on the supply of graduates is difficult to accept (Stark and Wang, 2001; Stark, 2002; Mountford, 1997). The problem is definitely not one of finding people capable of and interested in training in medicine, but of finding the necessary resources to train them. In other words, in a system based on public education, the restriction is mainly on the side of education supply, and not really on the side of demand. That being so, the hope of higher pay linked to international mobility cannot affect the supply of graduates.
44. South Africa decided in 1996 not to recruit health professionals from other developing countries.

45. The documents can be consulted at www.doh.gov.uk/international-recruitment/
46. Private international recruitment agencies in the health sector work in three ways: i) they themselves recruit doctors and nurses whom they then sub-contract to employers on fixed-term contracts; ii) they organise recruitment drives in other countries for employers; and iii) they identify the countries of origin likely to provide the labour sought by employers, who then organise recruitment interviews themselves.
47. For example, a report prepared by Blouin, Foster and Labonte (2002) for the Commission on the Future of Health Care in Canada proposes the introduction of a similar code in Canada.
48. The document may be consulted at www.commedas.org/files/COP/COP.pdf. In addition, in February 2001, the Commonwealth steering committee for nurses and midwives drew up a document entitled *Guidance on Workforce Issues: the Global Crisis in the Recruitment and Retention of Nurses and Midwives*, which includes recommendations relating to international recruitment, and has been approved by the Commonwealth.

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ANNEX 1

Table III.A.1. Distribution of official migration flows by occupation, 1988-2000

	1988			1989			1990			1991		
	Immigration	Emigration	Net	Immigration	Emigration	Net	Immigration	Emigration	Net	Immigration	Emigration	Net
Grand total	10 400	7 767	2 633	11 270	4 911	6 359	14 499	4 722	9 777	12 379	4 256	8 123
Total economically active	5 010	3 496	1 514	5 093	2 372	2 721	6 727	2 377	4 350	6 040	2 008	4 032
Medical, dental and related health services	198	269	-71	202	184	18	314	171	143	387	125	262
Medical practitioner, physician	61	60	1	56	32	24	125	23	102	218	21	197
Medical specialist	7	13	-6	13	4	9	10	7	3	11	2	9
Medical professions NEC ¹	4	2	2	6	13	-7	10	6	4	5	2	3
Dental professions	12	13	-1	4	4	0	19	6	13	16	4	12
Veterinary sciences professions	2	2	0	9	1	8	7	0	7	7	2	5
Pharmaceutical professions	11	26	-15	16	10	6	8	11	-3	14	11	3
Supplementary medical professions	7	43	-36	13	24	-11	27	28	-1	17	16	1
Nursing professions	79	97	-18	72	85	-13	89	81	8	77	58	19
Technicians: Medical and related sciences	5	3	2	5	4	1	5	1	4	8	8	0
Health services professions NEC ¹	10	10	0	8	7	1	14	8	6	14	1	13
Engineer, engineering technician, architect and related	456	372	84	463	285	178	655	274	381	573	250	323
Educational and related	125	194	-69	108	153	-45	137	164	-27	207	141	66
Humanities and related	266	312	-46	308	226	82	341	172	169	285	139	146
Legislative, executive and managerial occupations	607	353	254	686	216	470	810	219	591	775	221	554

1. NEC stands for Not Elsewhere Classified.

Table III.A1. Distribution of official migration flows by occupation, 1988-2000 (cont.)

	1992			1993			1994			1995		
	Immigration	Emigration	Net	Immigration	Emigration	Net	Immigration	Emigration	Net	Immigration	Emigration	Net
Grand total	8 686	4 289	4 397	9 824	8 078	1 746	6 398	10 235	-3 837	5 064	8 725	-3 661
Total economically active	4 132	2 077	2 055	4 134	-	-	2 568	4 860	-2 292	1 762	4 526	-2 764
Medical, dental and related health services	445	166	279	368	-	-	260	349	-89	143	298	-155
Medical practitioner, physician	317	25	292	244	-	-	158	72	86	70	56	14
Medical specialist	10	6	4	4	-	-	5	21	-16	4	15	-11
Medical professions NEC ¹	3	6	-3	11	-	-	1	22	-21	2	17	-15
Dental professions	19	10	9	7	-	-	12	16	-4	3	14	-11
Veterinary sciences professions	4	3	1	4	-	-	4	8	-4	5	6	-1
Pharmaceutical professions	11	11	0	2	-	-	8	34	-26	4	31	-27
Supplementary medical professions	10	27	-17	27	-	-	15	53	-38	14	50	-36
Nursing professions	53	72	-19	57	-	-	51	91	-40	35	92	-57
Technicians: Medical and related sciences	6	3	3	5	-	-	3	6	-3	1	1	0
Health services professions NEC ¹	12	3	9	7	-	-	3	26	-23	5	16	-11
Engineer, engineering technician, architect and related	498	279	219	448	-	-	321	472	-151	208	373	-165
Educational and related	189	152	37	128	-	-	153	305	-152	127	314	-187
Humanities and related	189	126	63	196	-	-	187	463	-276	178	404	-226
Legislative, executive and managerial occupations	515	237	278	835	-	-	488	622	-134	372	653	-281

1. NEC stands for Not Elsewhere Classified.

Table III.A.1. Distribution of official migration flows by occupation, 1988-2000 (cont.)

	1996			1997			1998			1999		
	Immigration	Emigration	Net	Immigration	Emigration	Net	Immigration	Emigration	Net	Immigration	Emigration	Net
Grand total	5 407	9 708	-4 301	4 103	8 946	-4 843	4 371	9 031	-4 660	3 669	8 487	-4 818
Total economically active	1 995	5 163	-3 168	1 548	4 907	-3 359	1 198	5 105	-3 185	1 365	4 848	-3 483
Medical, dental and related health services	139	384	-245	71	336	-265	54	407	-353	51	326	-275
Medical practitioner, physician	64	92	-28	36	60	-24	3	86	-83	38	68	-30
Medical specialist	6	11	-5	4	22	-18	25	19	6	1	15	-14
Medical professions NEC ¹	3	12	-9	2	6	-4	8	18	-10	0	9	-9
Dental professions	4	33	-29	2	50	-48	0	13	-13	1	12	-11
Veterinary sciences professions	3	4	-1	3	8	-5	0	12	-12	0	4	-4
Pharmaceutical professions	9	23	-14	1	9	-8	1	42	-41	5	39	-34
Supplementary medical professions	17	52	-35	7	54	-47	2	55	-53	4	50	-46
Nursing professions	30	124	-94	10	101	-91	10	133	-123	1	117	-116
Technicians: Medical and related sciences	1	9	-8	2	7	-5	2	0	2	0	3	-3
Health services professions NEC ¹	2	24	-22	4	19	-15	3	29	-26	1	9	-8
Engineer, engineering technician, architect and related	246	409	-163	109	445	-336	89	425	-336	66	334	-268
Educational and related	133	351	-218	115	320	-205	79	272	-193	69	314	-245
Humanities and related	157	441	-284	136	442	-306	144	454	-310	107	494	-387
Legislative, executive and managerial occupations	464	723	-259	320	751	-431	424	772	-348	255	670	-415

1. NEC stands for Not Elsewhere Classified.

Table III.A1. **Distribution of official migration flows by occupation, 1988-2000**
(cont.)

	2000		
	<i>Immigration</i>	<i>Emigration</i>	<i>Net</i>
Grand total	2 400	10 262	-7 862
Total economically active	662	6 434	-5 772
Medical, dental and related health services	36	459	-423
Medical practitioner, physician	21	89	-68
Medical specialist	1	16	-15
Medical professions NEC ¹	2	21	-19
Dental professions	1	31	-30
Veterinary sciences professions	1	10	-9
Pharmaceutical professions	2	24	-22
Supplementary medical professions	0	71	-71
Nursing professions	4	147	-143
Technicians: Medical and related sciences	2	10	-8
Health services professions NEC ¹	2	40	-38
Engineer, engineering technician, architect and related	24	433	-409
Educational and related	106	357	-251
Humanities and related	114	616	-502
Legislative, executive and managerial occupations	241	879	-638

1. NEC stands for Not Elsewhere Classified.

Source: Statistics South Africa.

ANNEX 2

List of countries and regions for which NHS decided not to actively recruit health professionals

Afghanistan	Chad	Georgia
Albania	Chile	Ghana
Algeria	China	Grenada
Angola	Chinese Taipei	Guatemala
Anguilla	Columbia	Guinea
Antigua and Barbuda	Comoros	Guinea-Bissau
Armenia	Congo, Rep.	Guyana
Aruba	Cook Islands	Haiti
Azerbaijan	Costa Rica	Honduras
Bahamas	Cote d'Ivoire	India ¹
Bahrain	Croatia	Indonesia
Bangladesh	Cuba	Iran
Barbados	Democratic Republic of Congo	Iraq
Belize	Djibouti	Jamaica
Benin	Dominica	Jordan
Bermuda	Dominican Republic	Kazakhstan
Bhutan	East Timor	Kenya
Bolivia	Ecuador	Kiribati
Bosnia and Herzegovina	Egypt	Korea, Democratic Republic
Botswana	El Salvador	Kyrgyz Republic
Brazil	Equatorial Guinea	Laos
Burkina Faso	Eritrea	Lebanon
Burundi	Ethiopia	Lesotho
Cambodia	Fiji	Liberia
Cameron	Gabon	Macedonia
Cape Verde	Gambia	Madagascar
Central African Republic		Malaysia

Malawi	Palistinian Administered Territories	Syria
Maldives		Tajikistan
Mali	Panama	Tanzania
Marshall Islands	Papua New Guinea	Thailand
Mauritania	Paraguay	Togo
Mauritius	Peru	Tokelau
Mayotte	Philippines ²	Tonga
Mexico	Rwanda	Trinidad and Tobago
Micronesia	Samoa	Tunisia
Moldova	Sao Tome and Principe	Turkey
Mongolia	Saudi Arabia	Turkmenistan
Montserrat	Senegal	Turks and Caicos Islands
Morocco	Seychelles	Tuvalu
Mozambique	Sierra Leone	Uganda
Myanmar	Solomon Islands	Uruguay
Namibia	Somalia	Uzbekistan
Nauru	South Africa	Vanuatu
Nepal	Sri Lanka	Venezuela
Nicaragua	St Helena	Vietnam
Niger	St Kitts and Nevis	Virgin Islands
Nigeria	St Lucia	Wallis and Futuna
Niue	St Vincent and Grenadines	Yemen
Oman	Sudan	Yugoslavia
Pakistan	Suriname	Zambia
Palau Islands	Swaziland	Zimbabwe

Notes

1. The Department of Health recommends that recruitment only occurs via government agreement and therefore only from those states that do not receive DFID aid. The states that receive aid are Andhra Pradesh, Madhya Pradesh, Orissa and West Bengal.
2. There is an agreement between the United Kingdom and Philippine governments to enable the United Kingdom to recruit registered nurses.

Source: Department of health, United Kingdom (www.doh.gov.uk/international-recruitment/).

PART IV

**Recent changes in migration
movements and policies**

(COUNTRY NOTES)

Australia

Introduction

The Australian economy continued to perform strongly in 2002, with a GDP growth rate close to 3.5%, 0.7 percentage point higher than in 2001. According to OECD projections, the economic prospects are also particularly favourable for 2003 and 2004. The unemployment rate decreased to 6.3% in 2002 from 6.7% in 2001.

Australia's immigration policy has delivered economic benefits, in part because of its emphasis on skills and its successful approach to integration. Net overseas migration has stood at over 130 000 persons for two years in a row and should continue to increase further, with a greater focus on the Skill Stream.

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

Inflows and outflows of foreigners and of nationals

Net overseas migration for 2001/02 was 133 700, a slight decrease over the previous year's figure of 135 700, but still a confirmation of an increasing trend. Continuing its emphasis on Australia's economic and social requirements, the Migration Programme allowed 93 090 entry visas in 2001/2002, a 15.5% rise on the previous year. Most visas were granted under the family (38 080, up by close to 14% on 2001/02) and skill-based (53 520, up nearly 20%) categories (see Table IV.1). The programme's shift toward skilled migration, which began in 1996, continued in 2001/02: more than 57% of that year's visas came from the Skill Stream.

Under Australia's Temporary Resident Programme (which excludes students), the total number of visas granted in 2001/02 was close to 78 500, down about 7% over the previous year, due to the global downturn in the ICT industry. The Working Holiday Maker Programme however, continued to increase; 85 200 visas were granted in 2001/02 (76 600 in 2000/01). The total number of student visas granted offshore was 97 650, up 13% on the previous year (86 300 in 2000/01).

Illegal migration

The bulk of illegal immigrants in Australia entered the country legally and remained beyond the expiration of their visas. As of 30 June 2002, the estimated number of overstayers was 60 000, similar to previous years. The government has undertaken a wide range of measures to deter, detect and remove illegal immigrants. In 2001/02, 14 569 visas were cancelled (up over 60% on 2000/01), in cases where the visas were determined to have been obtained by fraudulent means or where holders failed to meet visa conditions. In addition, nearly 10 894 overstayers were removed.

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

All figures in thousands unless otherwise indicated

	1999	2000	2001	2002		1999	2000	2001	2002
Net overseas migration (excl. Australian residents)¹					Stock of foreign-born population by region of birth				
Permanent arrivals	84.1	92.3	107.4	88.9	United Kingdom	1 036.2	..
Permanent net migration	49.0	51.2	60.9	40.7	New Zealand	355.8	..
Long-term arrivals	187.8	212.8	241.2	264.5	Italy	218.7	..
Long-term net migration	47.5	56.1	74.8	93.0	Vietnam	154.8	..
Migration programme outcome²					China	142.8	..
Family	32.0	32.0	33.5	38.1	Greece	116.4	..
Skill ^{3, 4}	35.0	35.3	44.7	53.5	Germany	108.2	..
Employer nomination/labour agreements	5.6	5.4	5.8	9.6	Others	3 209.7	..
Business skills	6.1	6.3	7.3	7.6	Total	5 342.7	..
Special talents	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.2	Acquisition of nationality by former nationality				
Independents	13.6	15.6	19.8	19.9	New Zealand	6.3	6.7	11.0	17.3
Skilled Australian linked ³	9.3	7.9	7.2	6.3	United Kingdom	13.5	14.6	12.5	16.4
Other	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.02	China	10.9	7.7	6.9	6.4
Special eligibility	0.9	2.9	2.4	1.5	South Africa	1.6	2.3	3.0	3.9
Humanitarian Programme ²	11.4	10.0	13.8	12.3	Philippines	2.6	2.3	2.2	2.8
Refugees and special humanitarian	8.3	6.9	7.1	8.4	Other countries	41.5	37.3	36.5	39.4
Special assistance	1.1	0.6	0.9	0.0	Total	76.5	70.8	72.1	86.3
Other	2.0	2.5	5.7	3.9					
Temporary Resident Programme⁴	136.2	148.6	161.1	163.7					
Economic programme	37.0	39.2	45.7	43.3					
Social/cultural programme	20.0	23.5	23.0	20.8					
International relations programme	79.2	86.0	92.4	99.6					
<i>of which:</i>									
Working Holiday Maker (WHM) ⁵	62.6	71.5	76.6	85.2					
Student Programme⁵	67.2	74.4	86.3	97.7					
New applications of asylum seekers by country of citizenship (units)					Labour force by birthplace				
China, People's Republic of	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.1	August 2002				
Iraq	0.4	2.1	1.3	1.1	Employed		Unemployed		
Indonesia	1.9	0.7	1.0	0.8	Male	Female	Male	Female	
India	0.4	0.7	0.7	0.6	Australian-born				
Fiji	0.1	0.4	0.9	0.5	Overseas-born				
Afghanistan	0.1	1.3	2.2	0.4	Main English-speaking countries				
Other countries	4.4	5.6	6.0	4.0	Non-English-speaking countries				
Total	8.4	11.9	13.1	8.6	3 871.2	3 160.8	245.6	190.5	
					1 309.7	968.3	95.7	64.3	
					542.4	398.9	27.6	21.3	
					767.3	569.3	68.1	43.1	

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

1. Data on permanent movements include travellers who hold migrant visas, New Zealand citizens who indicate an intention to settle and those who are otherwise eligible to settle. Long-term movements include migrants who declared their intention to stay/leave for more than 12 months.
2. 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 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.

Sources: Department of Immigration and Multicultural and Indigenous Affairs – unpublished tabulations. Integrated Client Services Environment (ICSE); 2001 Census of Population and Housing; ABS Labour Force Australia, August 2002.

Refugees and asylum seekers

The permanent and temporary protection visas available to refugees, described in the previous edition of *Trends in International Migration*, have been restricted since 2001 to those who have resided less than seven days in a country where they could have obtained protection. Two new temporary refugee visas have been created for those who need protection and have moved on from countries where protection could have been obtained. The first concerns persons who have entered Australia unlawfully at a place outside Australia's migration zone and is valid for three years (a succession of temporary protection visas may be available if there is a continuing protection need). The second concerns persons who have left their country of first asylum where they had protection but have not entered Australia and are subject to persecution or substantial discrimination. A five-year visa may be available, followed by a visa of permanent protection, if appropriate. Such visa holders may work and gain access to certain government programmes.

In 2001/02, more than 12 300 visas were granted under the Humanitarian Programme, of which approximately 8 500 were granted offshore. About a third of offshore visas went to persons from each of the following: the former Yugoslavia, the Middle East and South West Asia, and Africa. Australia received 8 600 asylum applications in 2001/02, a large decrease on the year before (13 100) and similar to the levels of the late 1990s. Persons from the People's Republic of China (PRC) and Iraq together accounted for just over 25% of the applications. There were almost 9 800 determinations, of which nearly 29% were successful at the primary processing stage, with an overall success rate of nearly 40% after review.

Evolution of stocks of foreign-born

The 2001 Australian Census reveals that about 23% of the estimated population of 19.6 million were born overseas. It reveals that about 33% of the overseas born were born in North West Europe (mainly the United Kingdom and Ireland), about 19% in Southern and Eastern Europe and about 12% in South East Asia. The largest countries of birth were the United Kingdom (about 25%), New Zealand (around 9%) and Italy (around 5%) (see Table IV.1). In August 2001, the national unemployment rate was 6.8%; persons born overseas had an unemployment rate of 7% (7.7% for those from non-English-speaking countries).

Naturalisations

Approximately 86 300 persons acquired Australian citizenship in 2001/02, an increase of nearly 20% over the 2000/01 figure of 72 100. Nationals of New Zealand accounted for just over 20% of all naturalisations followed by those of the United Kingdom (19%) and China (over 7%).

2. Policy developments

Admission, stay and integration

The Migration Programme for the next four years will provide 100 000-110 000 places annually, with a substantial increase to 60 700 in the Skill Stream for 2002/03. New regional migration initiatives are to be implemented to support regional economic development, such as greater emphasis on regional sponsorship of business migrants. To respond to specific labour shortages, immigration of nurses has been also been facilitated.

Australia has various programmes to assist in the integration of migrants and refugees, including a National Integrated Settlement Strategy. In late 2002, the government conducted a review of the effectiveness and accessibility of settlement services for new settlers, especially humanitarian ones.

Citizenship law

Legislative amendments proposed last year (see *Trends in International Migration*, 2002) came into force in 2002. The government also continued its citizenship promotion campaign.

Asylum and rights of refugees

New laws were passed in September 2001 to combat the arrival of illegal migrants on Australian territory by boat. Unauthorised arrivals on certain Australian island territories cannot now normally apply for an Australian visa. They will be removed and detained in a declared safe country (currently Nauru or Papua New Guinea) where their claims to refugee status are considered. Those who qualify for protection will then be considered for resettlement in other countries, including Australia. Since December 2001, there have been no significant arrivals by boat on Australian territory.

Initiatives in 2001 to improve co-operation with countries in the Asian-Pacific region have been undertaken, and Australia has participated in meetings of multilateral fora on refugees, migration and people smugglers. Targeted aid continues to be provided in relation to this problem, such as supporting the return home of displaced persons, for example to Afghanistan.

Measures against the employment of undocumented immigrants

Administrative measures to combat the employment of illegal workers have been reinforced. The Immigration Department is also examining other ways to assist employers to check the work rights of potential employees.

Proposed measures to reduce immigration fraud and people smuggling also include strengthening existing powers in relation to identity fraud and introducing biometric testing.

International agreements

Various bilateral agreements regarding migration, irregular migration and voluntary returns were concluded during 2002 with South Africa, Thailand and Afghanistan.

Austria

Introduction

The Austrian economy is slowly recovering since the end of 2001. The GDP growth rate was limited to 0.7% in 2002 but is expected to pick up to 1.9% in 2003 and 2.6% in 2004 according to OECD projections. The unemployment rate in 2001 was close to 6% for the population as a whole and 8.5% for foreigners, with significant differences according to nationality and occupation.

The foreign population in Austria has stabilised, due in part to a strong increase in the number of naturalisations in 2001. Inflows of asylum seekers continue to grow, with 2001 showing a record 30 000.

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

Inflows and outflows of foreigners and of nationals

Net migration of foreigners to Austria was at its highest at the beginning of the 1990s, with a figure of over 90 000. It declined strongly thereafter, to less than 10 000 in 1995. In 2001, net migration of foreigners rose to 23 800. On the other hand, net migration of Austrian nationals was negative in 2001 (-6 500), scarcely changed from the previous year (-5 900 in 2000). Total net migration stood at 17 300 in 2001, at the same level as in 2000, but significantly higher relative to what had been observed on average in the second half of the 90s (see Table IV.2).

Illegal migration

The number of persons refused entry at the border has declined dramatically since Austria became a full-fledged Schengen country. In 1996, there were 134 000 such entry refusals, in 1997, 80 700; thereafter, their number continued to decline, reaching 17 600 in 2001. However, refusals following a computer search have increased substantially compared to 2000.

In 2001, slightly fewer people (6 300) were returned to their home country (largely after attempts to avoid border control) compared to 2000 which itself had shown a decline over 1999. In addition, the number of expulsions from Austria (due mostly to illegal residence) fell in 2001 to 6 200 from 9 600 in 2000.

The number of refusals of residence had been broadly stable over the last five years at between 12-13 000, but increased to 16 400 in 2001. Refusals on the basis of a deemed security threat have greatly increased. The other major reasons for refusal are the lack of financial means, and engaging in illegal employment.

Table IV.2. **Current figures on flows and stocks of foreign population and labour force, Austria**

All figures in thousands unless otherwise indicated

	1998	1999	2000	2001		1998	1999	2000	2001
Components of population change¹					Work permits issued to foreigners, by category	110.3	98.5	101.9	110.8
<i>Total population</i>					Initial permits issued	47.7	45.7	44.3	50.1
Population (annual average)	8 078.4	8 092.3	8 110.2	8 132.0	Extensions issued	20.9	22.6	34.1	40.4
Population increase	7.4	19.7	18.8	18.0	Permanent permits issued	41.7	30.2	23.5	20.3
<i>of which:</i>					Stock of the holders of a work permit (excluding EEA)²	240.5	239.1	242.2	240.1
Natural increase	2.9	-0.1	1.5	0.7	Short-term work permits	28.9	23.3	25.9	31.1
Net migration	4.5	19.8	17.3	17.3	Work entitlements	45.5	29.5	20.4	17.7
<i>Austrians</i>					Permanent permits	166.1	186.3	195.9	191.3
Population (annual average)	7 341.2	7 344.1	7 352.4	7 367.6	Stocks of foreign workers, by nationality³	298.6	306.4	319.9	329.3
Population increase	1.9	6.0	10.9	17.7	Former Yugoslavia (%)	49.8	49.8	49.6	49.1
<i>of which:</i>					Turkey (%)	18.2	18.2	17.9	17.3
Natural increase	-6.1	-9.0	-7.5	-7.5	EU (%)	9.0	9.7	10.1	10.8
Net migration	-9.8	-9.6	-5.9	-6.5	Other (%)	23.0	22.3	22.4	22.8
Naturalisations	18.3	25.0	24.6	32.1	Share of foreign employment in total employment (%)	9.7	9.9	10.2	10.5
<i>Foreigners</i>					Unemployment rate, total⁴	7.2	6.7	5.8	6.1
Population (annual average)	737.3	748.2	757.9	764.3	Unemployment rate, foreigners	8.7	8.2	7.5	8.5
Population increase	5.5	13.7	7.9	0.2	Employment of Austrians abroad⁵				
<i>of which:</i>					Austrian employees in Germany	72.2	70.2	62.6	62.6
Natural increase	9.0	9.0	9.0	8.2	Austrian employees in Switzerland	11.5	11.2	11.7	12.8
Net migration	14.3	29.4	23.2	23.8	Legal measures taken against foreigners				
Naturalisations	-18.3	-25.0	-24.6	-32.1	Total rejections at border	25.5	24.7	19.1	17.6
Asylum seekers and refugees					Removals to home country	6.6	10.0	8.4	6.3
<i>Asylum seekers</i>	13.8	20.1	18.3	30.1	Refusals of residence	12.0	12.6	12.7	16.4
<i>Outflows of refugees</i>	1.7	5.0	5.9	4.1	Expulsions from Austria	5.6	9.5	9.6	6.2

1. Estimates on the basis of census results. The naturalisations refer to persons residing in Austria.

2. Data given as an annual average. The data exclude the unemployed and self-employed and citizens of the European Economic Area (EEA).

Several types of permits are issued:

- Short-term permits: granted to an enterprise for a maximum duration of one year (renewable) and for a specific activity. Data include persons entering the labour market for the first time, seasonal workers, those who are changing jobs or taking up activity after a period of unemployment of at least six months and holders of provisional permits (when the application process takes more than four weeks). Extensions of permits are also included.

- Work entitlements: granted for a maximum duration of two years (renewable). May be obtained after one year of work in Austria.

- Permanent permits: granted after five years of work and valid for five years (renewable).

3. Annual average. Employment of foreigners based on social security data records.

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.

Refugees and asylum seekers

After fluctuating between 4 000 and 7 000 in the mid-1990s following the implementation of restrictive legislation in 1992, the number of asylum seekers resumed an upward trend in 1998. In 2001, there were 30 100 asylum seekers and during the first

half of 2002, 17 100, representing an annual increase of about 13% if this rate of increase were to continue to the end of the year. Comparing 2001 to the first half of 2002, the proportion of Afghan asylum seekers has declined from 44% to 19% while those from Turkey have increased from 6% to 10%, from Iraq from 7% to 10%, and from the former Yugoslavia from 6% to 9%. Other groups which became more prevalent were Armenians and Georgians, comprising 8% and 7% of asylum seekers respectively.

The average acceptance rate of asylum cases was about 22% in 2001 and 23% in the first half of 2002. During the latter period, acceptance of asylum claims was highest for Afghans (44%), followed by Iraqis and persons from the Russian Federation (35% in both cases). Acceptance was very low in the case of Africans and Indians. Outflow data for refugees show a decline to 4 100 in 2001, compared to the 5 900 who left in 2000.

Evolution of stocks of foreigners

At the end of 2001, there were 764 300 foreigners in Austria, an increase of 0.8% over the year before (see Table IV.2). They accounted for 9.4% of the population, scarcely changed from the 9.3% observed the year before. EU citizens made up 1.3% of the population. A rising share of the foreign population was born in Austria (about 20%). 2001 saw an increase in the proportion of marriages between an Austrian spouse and a foreign partner, to almost 21%. By mid-2002, 8 570 applications for family reunion were waiting to be processed, 26% less than in the same period of the previous year. A queue of family members waiting to enter Austria is building up in most provinces.

There were some 329 000 foreign workers in Austria in 2001. Their share of total employment grew to more than 10.5% in 2001. Almost 50% were from former Yugoslavia. Of these, Croatians and particularly Bosnians have been increasing in recent years. The latter accounted for 7.3% of foreign employment in 2001, more than German nationals at 7.1%. 17.3% of employed foreigners were Turkish nationals, a proportion which has been declining in a fluctuating trend since 1989, when they accounted for 23.4%. EU citizens made up 10.8% of foreign employment.

The annual average of persons with short-term work permits in 2001 was 31 000. Their recipients will not all have entered from abroad, but it is worth noting that about 32% of these were granted to CEE citizens, an increase of 34% over 2000. Bosnians and citizens from the rest of the former Yugoslavia accounted for about 17% and 16% respectively. By contrast, of the stock of 191 300 permanent work permit holders in 2001, only approximately 13% were held by CEE citizens while 15% were held by Bosnians and 33% by other citizens of the former Yugoslavia.

Naturalisations

After a slight dip in 2000, naturalisations continued the increase manifested in recent years. A total of 32 100 foreigners received Austrian citizenship in 2001, 30% more than during the previous year. Just under half of these were women. Citizenship can usually be obtained after four (EU/EEA nationals) or 10 years of residence. Most naturalisations were of former "guest workers", such as Turks (31%) and citizens of former Yugoslavia (34%), though the latter group included former refugees as well. The third largest cohort of new citizens was originally from Central and Eastern Europe (16%). The naturalisation rate (naturalisations as a percentage of the foreign population) was a little over 4% in 2001.

The increase in naturalisations is mirrored by a decline in the stock of permanent work permit holders, as an increasing number of foreigners who entered Austria in the early 1990s become eligible for citizenship. Immigrants from CEE countries have the highest rate of naturalisation. Of those who arrived between 1960 and 1973, 94% have been naturalised, compared with a rate of 52% for immigrants as a whole. Of CEE immigrants arriving between 1973 and 1988, 66% have become naturalised, compared to 42% for all immigrant groups.

2. Policy developments

Admission, stay and integration

An amendment in mid-2002 to the Alien Law regulating foreign workers allows temporary employment of non-EU citizens by non-seasonal industries with labour shortages for six months. This is renewable for another six months. The temporary worker is then expected to return home for at least two months before taking up a job in Austria again. There is no provision for family reunion. The purpose of this change is to give citizens of the EU accession states prior work experience in Austria; it is expected that this will assist the integration of those who later migrate with their families.

Since 1 January 2003, foreigners from outside the European Union have been required to know some German under a law called the Integration Agreement. Those deemed by immigration officials to speak insufficient German are sent to a class and required to pay at least half the fee.

Measures against the employment of undocumented foreigners

Another amendment to the Alien Law in mid-2002 enables students to take up part-time employment to help cover their living expenses. This change is intended to legalise the currently clandestine work undertaken by students.

The Baltic States

Introduction

Led by sustained export growth and moving away from the effects of the Russian crisis, the economies of the Baltic States grew substantially in 2000. Real GDP grew by 6.9% in Estonia, 6.6% in Latvia and 3.9% in Lithuania. Assuming that they successfully enter the European Union (EU) in 2004, the IMF predicts that the three countries will grow over 4% in 2002 and between 5.3% and 6% during the three following years. However, high unemployment persists (i.e. 13.7% in Estonia in 2000, 15.4% in Lithuania in 2000 and 7.8% in Latvia in December 2000), especially in rural areas.

Regarding the total migration flows, it should be noted that the three countries' statistical agencies are now revising most of their statistics for the past decade on the basis of new population censuses, conducted in Estonia and Latvia in 2000 and in Lithuania in 2001. In anticipation of these revisions, some general remarks are made here concerning net migration.

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

Inflows and outflows of foreigners and of nationals

Until recently, all migration data available for the Baltic States were designed to cover only the part of migration officially recorded as "permanent". This definition did not cover unreported moves, nor those regarded as "temporary" (less than a year). The full extent of unrecorded migration remains unknown, but the new census results indicate that net emigration from the Baltic States has been greatly under-estimated until now. Thus, following the publication of preliminary census results, total population estimates for 2000 were revised downwards by 69 000 (4.9%) in Estonia, 45 000 (1.9%) in Latvia and 200 000 (5.7%) in Lithuania. Several factors probably have contributed to the previous over-estimations of the total populations, but unrecorded emigration has emerged as the principal explanation.

If it is assumed for simplicity that the whole difference between the previous and revised population statistics resulted from unrecorded emigration, then total net emigration between 1990 and 2001 corresponded to 9% of the total population in Estonia and around 6% in Latvia and Lithuania (see Table IV.3). Emigration recorded as "permanent" – mostly in the early 1990s, largely to CIS countries – accounts for approximately five percentage points in Estonia and Latvia, and a little more than one percentage point in Lithuania. In other words, unrecorded net emigration may have reduced the populations by 4% in Estonia and Lithuania and by about 1% in Latvia. Little is known about the precise timing or destination of these unrecorded flows, but a significant part probably went to OECD member countries. Moreover, judging from revised total population data for different years in the 1990s – published in Latvia and Lithuania –

statisticians have assumed that substantial parts of the previously unrecorded net emigration occurred towards the end of the decade. If these assumptions are correct, total net emigration per year from Lithuania may be assessed – as a very preliminary estimate – at around six per thousand inhabitants in each of the four years of 1997 to 2000. The corresponding estimates for Estonia and Latvia are probably somewhat lower.

Table IV.3. **Components of population changes since 1990, Baltic States**

	Estonia	Latvia	Lithuania
Number of inhabitants at the end of 2001	1 361 000	2 351 400	3 482 300
Per cent decline since 1990	-12.9	-11.0	-5.6
<i>of which:</i>			
Natural change (births – deaths)	-3.4	-4.6	-
Net migration ¹	-9.4	-6.4	-5.7
<i>of which:</i> Net migration recorded as "permanent" ²	-5.2	-5.1	-1.3

1. The net migration figures are calculated residually using annual population estimates and data on births and deaths.
2. Based on registrations of immigrants who stated their intention to live permanently in the country and emigrants who decided to reside permanently abroad.

Sources: Statistical Offices of Estonia, Latvia and Lithuania.

Whereas the visa requirements for the temporary stay of nationals of countries other than the Commonwealth of Independent States (CIS) have become less strict, all three countries retain restrictive policies with regard to entry for permanent settlement. Such entry is essentially limited to three categories of person: returning nationals (*i.e.* those of Estonian, Latvian or Lithuanian ethnic affiliation), family reunion and business-linked migration (which is still not numerous). In addition, special programmes have targeted the repatriation of nationals deported during the Soviet period. If this subset of returning nationals settles in the Baltic States, they and their descendants could benefit from special integration programmes and language courses.

The settlement 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 ethnically affiliated to 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%.) Whereas in the case of Lithuania the proportion of the inflow with an ethnic affiliation to the country has remained broadly constant since 1994 (fluctuating around 30%), the corresponding proportion in Latvia has been declining steadily, down from 41% in 1994. The majority of migrants to the Baltic States come from Germany and the United States. In the case of Estonia, most migrants come from Finland; however they are relatively few in number.

Illegal migration

The emergence of illegal (transit) migration, 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 throughout the former Soviet Union, was practically impossible. Having 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, whilst having of course many negative consequences, 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 partly due to changes in the routes taken by illegal migrants and traffickers.

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.

Although re-admission agreements with the countries of Western Europe have been signed, they have, with the exception of that of the 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 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 the part of these laws which is related to the creation of the infrastructure for accepting refugees was in force. Until recently, with very limited support from the governments of the three Baltic States, this work was mainly dependent on outside financial contributions (from the UNHCR, the IOM and the Nordic countries).

Applications remain few in number and until 1999 were mostly made by Afghans, Iraqis, Pakistanis, Somalis and Vietnamese. In 2000 a new trend was observed – asylum seekers of Chechen nationality (Russian Federation) increasingly appeared, and already formed more than 50% of asylum applications in Lithuania. In addition, more and more applications are made on the state border – additional indication that Lithuania is

becoming a target rather than a transit country. However, for all three countries combined, the total number of applications remains rather low – 217 in 1998, 182 in 1999 and 308 in 2000, of which, mirroring its position as the country the most affected by illegal immigration, over 90% were made in Lithuania. With the introduction of the non-refoulement principle in mid-1999 in Lithuania, foreigners can apply for a residence permit on humanitarian grounds – in 2000, 104 out of 303 asylum applications were made on a humanitarian basis.

Evolution of stocks of foreigners

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 the early 1990s, it has been diminishing.

In 1999, almost 45% of Latvia's permanent residents were of other than Latvian ethnicity; the majority were Russians, Belarussians, Ukrainians; in 1997 the corresponding figure for Estonia was 35% and for Lithuania 17%. Quantitative differences in the size of the foreign population have led to certain qualitative differences in the manner in which their residence status has been resolved. Foreigners (non-citizens) form a much bigger proportion in Latvia and Estonia – correspondingly, 22.8% and 20% (the majority of whom are people whose citizenship is undetermined) as compared to Lithuania, where foreigners account for no more than 1% of permanent residents. That is why Estonia and Latvia adopted special laws specifically governing the rights, obligations and legal status of aliens (former USSR citizens).

2. Policy developments

Admission, stay and integration

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 line 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 EU. However, there are still some problematic areas, one being the abolition of a simplified visa regime for border residents of Belarus and the Russian Federation. By 2001, Latvia and Estonia had made progress in this area, whereas Lithuanian visa policy has still to be revised before accession to the EU. With the aim of preparing for the abolition of visa regime privileges for citizens of the Russian Federation and the Republic of Belarus, an action plan has been drafted for expansion and strengthening of consular institutions in the Republic of Belarus and the Kaliningrad Region of the Russian Federation by the end of 2003.

As of January 2003, Lithuania implemented a border control regime in line with the EU. An extremely politically-sensitive area for Lithuania will be the future arrangements for transit of persons between Kaliningrad and mainland Russia (Lithuania being the main country of transit not only of people and goods, but also an area of military transit). As of July 2003, residents of Kaliningrad no longer enjoy a visa-free regime for travelling to or through Lithuania. Running parallel with this is a full visa regime to be introduced for transit through Lithuania. Russia is strictly against such developments and claims that introduction of visas for residents of the Kaliningrad region, as well as transit visas, aims to tear Kaliningrad from the rest of Russia, that this is a violation of human

rights and a case of double standards on the part of the leaders of the EU. This is not a new problem – since 1995, Russian citizens travelling to the Kaliningrad region by car via Lithuania already required visas. On the other hand Russian suggestions of “Transit corridors” are not considered as viable options, given the EU’s safety and security concerns about the frontiers of an enlarged EU. In November 2003, the EU and Russia issued a Joint Statement which stated the creation of a Facilitated Transit Document to apply for the transit between Kaliningrad and other parts of the Russian Federation. The document would be obtained on application to a Lithuanian consulate, and would be inexpensive or free and allow for multiple entry/exits.

In June 2002, Estonia amended the 1999 Aliens Act regarding the immigration quota set at 0.005% of the total number of permanent residents. The quota does not apply to citizens from the EU, EFTA, the United States or Japan. With the new change, however, the quota no longer applies to spouses and children of Estonian citizens and permanent residents.

Measures against the employment of undocumented immigrants

Aware that action 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 previous practice of detaining illegal immigrants on the sole basis of ministerial instructions, for example), the Baltic States modified relevant legislation in order to bring them into line with EU requirements.

In Estonia, the Obligation to Leave and Entry Ban Act, passed in October 1998 and effective April 1999, set out the legal basis and rules concerning the detention of illegal migrants and their return or deportation. February 1999 amendments to the Aliens Act set out possible sanctions on aliens staying in Estonia unlawfully after April 1999. 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 EU, 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. 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 traffickers.

Asylum and rights of refugees

A new Refugee Act came into force in Lithuania in September 2000. This act has been primarily designed to bring Lithuanian legislation on refugee matters in line with the EU *acquis communautaire*. The 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 the admission of asylum seekers onto Lithuanian territory is determined at the Lithuanian border. Asylum seekers may appeal to the Court against such a refusal of entry. On the other hand, since July 1999, in accordance with Article 19 of the new Lithuanian law On Legal Status of Aliens, foreigners can apply and receive residence permits on humanitarian grounds, following the non-refoulement principle or due to illness.

In Latvia, the new Statute on Refugees is closely in line with the *acquis* and entered into force in March 1999. Even though the law refers to the Geneva Convention, the Appeal Council is permitted to grant refugee status on humanitarian grounds by, *inter alia*, applying the European Convention on Human Rights.

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 located 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, renders persons denied refugee status who also cannot be sent back to their country of origin, eligible to apply for an Estonian residence permit.

Belgium

Introduction

After the decline in the growth rate in 2001, the Belgian economy has begun a slow recovery that should continue in 2003. At the same time, total employment, which grew strongly in 2001, has tended to stagnate, causing the standardised unemployment rate to rise slightly to 7.3% in 2002 (as opposed to 6.7% the previous year). The main developments on the immigration front confirm that net migration remains positive and that the level of naturalisations continues to be high (63 000 in 2001) following the amendments to the Nationality Code in spring 2000. Asylum applications, which had declined sharply in 2001 (24 500 as against nearly 43 000 the previous year) fell again in 2002 (approximately 18 000).

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

Inflows and outflows of foreigners and of nationals

In 2001, net migration of Belgian nationals remained negative, but it was distinctly positive for foreigners (34 775). Total net migration (nationals and foreigners combined), which stood at around 25 000, was double the figure of the previous year. This increase was largely due to the regularisation of a number of undocumented immigrants (see below). EU nationals accounted for the majority outflows of foreigners (two-thirds of the total in 2001). However, there was a large decrease in outflows of Italian and Portuguese nationals and a significant increase in inflows from Poland (which more than doubled in 2001 in comparison with 2000). The rise in the inflows of Moroccans and Turks can be explained by entries for family reunification and the effects of the 2000-2001 regularisation.

Refugees and asylum seekers

Between 1998 and 2000, the number of asylum seekers increased steadily, rising from nearly 22 000 in 1998 to approximately 35 800 in 1999 and almost 42 700 in 2000. This trend was reversed in 2001 (when there were only some 24 550 new applications). The drop in asylum applications from nationals of the former Yugoslavia that began in 2000 was confirmed in 2001. There was also a decrease in applications from the former Soviet Union (5 378 in 2001 as opposed to 13 174 in 2000).

Evolution of stocks of foreigners

As of 31 December 2001, Belgium had a population of some 10.3 million, of which just under 847 000 were foreigners. The natural increase of Belgian nationals rose, while that of foreigners, although positive, fell slightly over the 1998-2001 period (see Table IV.4). The foreign population decreased significantly in comparison with the two previous years, mainly because of the large number of naturalisations. Due to the entry

Table IV.4. **Current figures on flows and stocks of foreign population and labour force, Belgium**

All figures in thousands unless otherwise indicated

	1998	1999	2000	2001		1998	1999	2000	2001
Components of population change					Acquisitions of nationality				
<i>Total population</i>					Morocco				
Population (on 31 December)	10 213.8	10 239.1	10 263.4	10 309.7	Turkey				
Population increase from					Italy				
beginning to end of year	21.5	25.3	24.3	46.3	Dem. Rep. of Congo				
<i>of which:</i>					Former Yugoslavia				
Natural increase	9.7	8.6	10.0	10.6	Others				
Net migration	6.7	12.3	12.1	24.9	Total				
Statistical adjustment	5.1	4.5	2.2	10.9	6.4 6.8 7.1 7.1				
<i>Nationals</i>					Mixed marriages				
Population (on 31 December)	9 321.8	9 342.0	9 401.7	9 463.0	<i>% of total marriages</i>				
Population increase from					14.4 15.4 15.7 16.8				
beginning to end of year	32.6	20.3	59.8	61.3	<i>of which: Marriages with an EU citizen</i>				
<i>of which:</i>					3.1 2.9 2.9 2.7				
Natural increase	6.4	5.4	7.3	8.3	Total work permits issued				
Net migration	-7.7	-9.1	-9.6	-9.9	(Initial and renewed) by nationality¹				
Acquisitions of nationality	34.0	24.3	62.1	63.0	United States				
Statistical adjustment	-0.3	-0.2	0.1	-0.1	1.7 1.6 1.5 1.6				
<i>Foreigners</i>					Japan				
Population (on 31 December)	892.0	897.0	861.7	846.7	0.9 1.0 1.0 1.0				
Population increase from					Morocco				
beginning to end of year	-11.1	5.0	-35.3	-15.0	0.8 0.9 0.9 0.9				
<i>of which:</i>					Former Yugoslavia				
Natural increase	3.3	3.1	2.7	2.3	1.2 0.9 0.7 0.5				
Net migration	14.4	21.3	21.7	34.8	Democratic Rep. of Congo				
Acquisitions of nationality	-34.0	-24.3	-62.1	-63.0	0.7 1.1 0.7 0.4				
Statistical adjustment	5.3	4.7	2.2	11.0	Other				
Inflows of foreigners by nationality					Total				
Netherlands	6.2	6.2	7.2	8.2	11.8 13.2 12.1 12.1				
France	7.4	7.9	8.1	8.0	<i>of which: Initial work permits</i>				
Morocco	4.3	4.9	5.7	7.1	7.3 8.7 7.5 7.0				
Turkey	2.4	2.2	2.8	3.0	Migration flows of cross-border workers				
Poland	1.1	1.2	1.1	2.9	by country of origin/destination				
Others	29.2	46.1	43.7	36.8	Inflows by country of origin				
Asylum seekers					20.5 22.9 25.0 28.7				
22.1 35.8 42.7 24.5	<i>of which:</i>								
	France								
	14.1 16.4 18.2 21.2								
	Netherlands								
	5.5 5.6 5.7 6.4								
	Outflows by country of destination								
	51.6 46.4 49.5 52.6								
	<i>of which:</i>								
	Luxembourg								
	21.0 20.0 22.8 25.0								
	Netherlands								
	15.1 15.8 16.4 17.2								
	France								
	5.9 5.8 5.4 5.4								

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.

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).

into force in May 2000 of new procedures facilitating the acquisition of nationality (see below), naturalisations were high in 2001 (63 000), as they had been the previous year (62 100). The main groups concerned were nationals of Morocco, Turkey, Italy and the former Yugoslavia.

Italians constitute the largest foreign community (nearly 191 000), followed by the French (just over 111 000), the Dutch (nearly 93 000), Moroccans (91 000) and Turks (almost 46 000).

2. Policy developments

Admission, stay and integration

The regularisation of undocumented immigrants

On 10 January 2000, the Act regularising the status of certain categories of foreigners resident on Belgian soil came into force. In all, some 50 600 people, including over 23 000 children, applied for regularisation. The government's initial aim was to complete the process by June 2001 at the latest, but it took longer than planned. Thus far, a total of 42 000 persons have been regularised under the programme, and some 6 400 applications remain to be processed.

Asylum and rights of refugees

In 2000, Belgium defined its new migration policy in the government statement of 18 July 1999 and the federal policy statement of 17 October 2000. In the field of asylum, the government proposed to modify the system of reception of asylum seekers and introduce a shorter, more efficient and simplified procedure for reviewing applications. Responsibility for asylum seekers during the application processing phase has been transferred to "open reception centres". From now on, the Public Social Assistance Centres (CPAS) will no longer be responsible for granting social benefits to asylum seekers and will only provide them with material assistance.

Measures against the employment of undocumented immigrants

The legislation governing the employment of foreigners was completely revised and reorganised by the Framework Act of 30 April 1999. This Act fundamentally changed the previous legislation and contains provisions better adapted to immigration trends, including taking into account persons from an immigrant background. The Act clarifies and simplifies the provisions on the employment of foreign workers, bringing them into line with other legislation in force in EU countries and ensuring better legal protection for employers.

In December 1999, a parliamentary report took stock of the situation and observed that there was a constant increase in the number of foreigners illegally employed throughout the country to do housework, including in diplomatic missions, and who were victims of economic exploitation. Recommendations were submitted to the government so that it could take steps to ensure better protection for these people.

Anti-discrimination policy

In March 2000, the government adopted an action plan to combat all forms of discrimination. This plan was intended to fight discrimination in all its forms and recommended broadening the responsibilities of the Centre for Equal Opportunities and Opposition to Racism. Two Acts have been adopted recently in this regard. The Act of 20 January 2003 amended the Act of 30 July 1981 punishing certain acts motivated by racism or xenophobia. The second, the Act of 25 February 2003, amended the Act of 15 February 1993 creating the Centre for Equal Opportunities and Opposition to Racism.

The purpose of these Acts was to bring Belgian domestic legislation into line with Article 13 of the Amsterdam Treaty and two European Directives aimed at combating discrimination.

In May 2002, Flanders adopted a decree encouraging the proportional labour market participation of non-natives (persons of foreign origin, refugees and nomads). In particular, this decree provides for the definition of multi-annual affirmative action plans in companies (rather than imposed quotas) to ensure better labour market integration of these groups. In the Brussels region, the policy for combating discrimination in hiring was defined within the Territorial Pact for Employment and consists of information and awareness-raising campaigns aimed at labour market actors. On 1 June 2001, after a lengthy debate, the Brussels Regional Council also adopted a draft recommendation on discrimination in the hiring of persons of foreign origin.

In Wallonia, the FOREM, (Labour Placement Office) has the main responsibility for combating discrimination and has developed initiatives to enable persons of foreign nationality or origin to find jobs, such as identifying job niches, creating methodological tools for labour market intermediaries and developing good practice.

Citizenship law

The Belgian government has confirmed its intention to facilitate the integration of foreigners through naturalisation. There have been two major amendments of the 1984 Nationality Code, the first in 1998, which simplified the procedure without changing the basic requirements. The second amendment dates from 2000, and constituted a genuine reform of the Nationality Code with a view to making it easier to obtain naturalisation by simplifying the procedure and relaxing basic requirements. For example, the “desire to be integrated”, which was highly contested as a criterion for nationalisation, has been eliminated, and the residence period required before requesting naturalisation has been reduced from five to three years (and two for refugees).

Right to vote

With the revision of Article 8 of the Constitution in 1998, European citizens were able for the first time to participate in municipal elections in October 2000. Although Article 8 provides for extending the right to vote to residents from non-EU countries after 1 January 2001, there is still not the necessary political consensus for such nationals to exercise this right. In 2002, the Walloon Parliament voted unanimously to grant the right to vote to all foreigners residing in its territory, but this was a position of principle, and any decision in this regard requires a vote by the Federal Parliament. A number of Bills were submitted to the Chamber in 2000 and 2001 but have been blocked by the Flemish Liberal Party (VLD), postponing the debate until the new 2003 legislature.

Bulgaria

Introduction

After negative growth in 1996 and 1997, Bulgaria has in recent years recorded growth rates well above the European Union average. In 2001, the GDP grew at 4% after a 5.8 percentage growth in 2000. However, the unemployment rate remains high, around 17.3% and according to World Bank figures, more than 1 million Bulgarians currently live in poverty (out of a total population of 7 932 000).

Bulgaria remains an emigration rather than an immigration country. The Bulgarian government followed an active migration policy directed towards full compliance with the *acquis communautaire*, but still devotes little attention to the integration of immigrants. In 2001, Bulgaria was excluded from the Schengen list of states with visa requirements.

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

Inflows and outflows of foreigners and of nationals

Bulgaria remained a country of emigration in 2001, with an estimated 22 000 citizens settling abroad per year. Only in the older age range from 60 to 74 does total immigration exceed emigration. From the census data, it is estimated that between 1992 and 2001, net migration was negative and totalled 204 000 persons, among whom a majority of women (108 000).

Between 1992 and 2001, a total of 19 000 Bulgarian migrants returned home permanently. Emigrants tend to move mainly to Turkey and Greece, followed by other European Union countries and the United States. More than 56% of these emigrants were aged between 20 and 39, and 52.9% of all emigrants were women. About 1 900 Bulgarians worked as project workers in Germany in 2001 (1 700 in 2000) and 1 266 as seasonal workers (837 in 2000).

Immigration to Bulgaria was still very limited in 2001, mainly due to the stagnant labour market situation and the lack of employment opportunities. Only 348 new work permits were granted to foreigners in 2001 (250 in 2000).

Illegal migration

In 2002, estimates show that at least 6 600 Bulgarians were readmitted from EU countries, the United States and Canada. Most of the migrants expelled were of Roma origin and were apprehended in the EU for illegal employment and residence.

Refugees and asylum seekers

During 2001, the number of asylum applications (2 400) in Bulgaria increased by 38.3% compared to the previous year, the highest flow since 1993. According to more recent data

the number of asylum seekers further increased in 2002 to 2 900. The majority of 2001 applicants were citizens from Afghanistan (44.5%), Iraq (29.7%), Armenia (6.6%) and Iran (5.7%). Provisional data from January to October 2002 has already recorded 2 666 asylum applications from the same four nationalities. Afghani and Iraqi applicants inversed top positions with 33% from Iraq and 30% from Afghanistan. Armenian applicants increased to 13% of the total.

Between 1993 and 2002 (October), 1 354 foreigners were granted refugee status, 2 089 applications were rejected and 2 596 foreigners were granted humanitarian status. In 2001, refugee status was granted to 385 foreigners compared to 267 in 2000. Humanitarian status was granted to 1 185 foreigners in 2001, a tenfold increase on 2000, when the status was extended for 164 foreigners.

In 2001, the majority of asylum applicants were men (67%), 14% were women and 19% were minors. Women tend to prevail in the groups coming from some former Soviet Republics (Ukraine, Moldova, Armenia, Uzbekistan), while most applicants from countries with a majority of Muslims are men.

Evolution of stocks of foreigners

Immigrants with permanent and long-term residence status (with one-year renewable residence permits) reached 99 252 persons, representing 1.2% of the total Bulgarian population (see Table IV.5). In 2001, 40 200 foreigners resided permanently in Bulgaria, nearly the same as in 2000. Two-thirds of immigrants were from the former Soviet Republics, and many of them immigrated to Bulgaria under former COMECON agreements.

The stock of long-term residents between 2000 and 2001 fell by 3.3% to 59 100 foreigners. The composition of long-term residents has been relatively stable for most regions since 1997. Citizens of the European Union member states represent the largest component of this group, with 15 400 residents (26% of all long-term residents). Former Soviet Republics are much less represented in this group of foreign residents, but since 1997, their proportion has increased from 10.3% to 14.3%. In 2001, the largest increase was observed among citizens of North American countries, with a 26.5% increase on 2000.

Naturalisations

In 2001, 1 900 foreigners acquired Bulgarian citizenship, an increase of 43% from 2000 (see Table IV.5). The annual number of naturalisations has grown tenfold since the beginning of reforms in 1989, with a total of almost 20 100 between 1989 and 2001. Applications for Bulgarian citizenship at the beginning of reforms were mainly from the former Soviet Republics, especially Ukraine and Moldova. This trend has recently shifted to citizens of the Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia (FYROM), as more than 1 300 have acquired citizenship overall since 1989.

2. Policy developments

Admission, stay and integration

In 2001, the newly appointed government developed a Plan of Action to reform migration policy in compliance with Schengen Protocol requirements, and related EU legislation. Among other goals, the Plan aims to adopt a new migration law, create a National Migration Office to consolidate former agencies and departments dealing with

Table IV.5. **Current figures on foreign flows and stocks, Bulgaria**

	Thousands			
	1998	1999	2000	2001
Stock of foreign citizens				
A. Permanent residents				
CIS	28.9	26.4	26.2	25.9
EU	1.9	2.2	3.3	3.8
Central Europe	2.5	2.3	2.4	2.3
Other European countries	2.0	2.1	2.2	2.2
Middle East	1.7	1.8	1.9	2.0
Asia	0.3	0.5	0.7	0.9
Africa	0.3	0.5	0.5	0.3
America	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.6
Stateless	1.8	1.7	1.8	1.3
Other	1.3	0.7	0.7	0.8
Total	41.1	38.7	40.2	40.2
B. Long-term residents				
EU	13.6	16.2	15.2	15.4
Central Europe	0.1	0.3	0.2	0.1
Other European countries	6.5	8.6	7.9	7.4
CIS	6.2	8.8	8.7	8.4
Middle East	6.4	8.5	8.3	8.2
Asia	4.1	5.7	5.6	5.5
Africa	5.1	5.5	5.4	4.8
America	2.6	3.0	1.5	3.0
Other	7.0	6.9	8.3	6.2
Total	51.7	63.5	61.1	59.0
Asylum seekers¹	0.8	1.3	1.8	2.4
Naturalisations	2.3	2.2	2.0	1.9

1. Number of applications. Some dependants accompanying the applicant are not counted.

Sources: National Employment Service; National Statistical Institut; UNHCR.

various aspects of migration, create a special registry for foreigners, adopt a new regulation for visa requirements and criminalise the trafficking of human beings.

In October 2001, Bulgaria introduced visas for visitors from the Russian Federation, Ukraine and Georgia, within the framework of the harmonisation process with the European Union. Bulgaria has a similar visa requirement list of third countries to that of the European Union, with the exception of FYROM, Serbia and Montenegro and Tunisia, for which Bulgaria does not require visas. Conversely, Bulgaria still maintains visa requirements for many countries exempted by the European Union.

In 2001, a new law was introduced to facilitate the entry of highly skilled labour into Bulgaria. Simplified procedures to obtain work permits exist for foreigners who meet one of the five following conditions: employed on the basis of bilateral labour agreements; internationally-recognised scientists and contributors to world culture; senior managers of foreign investment firms established in Bulgaria; skilled specialists employed by foreign companies installing equipment in Bulgaria, or quality control specialists sent to Bulgaria by a foreign company.

Citizenship law

Amendments introduced in 2001 created an improved framework for the acquisition of Bulgarian citizenship for several categories of individuals. Non-Bulgarian spouses, foreigners who entered Bulgaria without citizenship, status refugees and foreigners born in Bulgaria may receive Bulgarian citizenship after three years of permanent residence status. Foreigners can also be naturalised if they have made extraordinary contributions to Bulgaria in science, technology, sports, culture, or in the social and economic sectors.

Asylum and rights of refugees

In January 2001, in order to fully comply with the EU legal framework for the protection of refugees, an amendment process was initiated to bring the Bulgarian refugee law more fully in line with the 1951 Geneva Convention and the EU *acquis* on asylum policy.

Measures against the employment of undocumented immigrants

Bulgaria has established strict control measures on foreign employees. Government authorities have the right to visit the working places at any time, to request all necessary documents, and to interview the people concerned. In 2001, the government set up low-cost work permits to foster legal employment of foreigners in seasonal work or short-term jobs, lasting up to six months.

Measures against the employment of undocumented Bulgarians abroad

In October 2002, the Bulgarian government announced tighter measures to stop illegal migration of Bulgarian citizens to western countries. One of the instruments was the use of readmission agreements, several of which were signed in 2001 and 2002. The government also expanded the period (from one to two years) during which readmitted Bulgarians expelled from the EU would not be allowed to leave Bulgaria.

Bulgaria passed a new Law for Encouragement of Employment in 2001 which established regulations regarding Bulgarian labour emigration. The Law defines two forms of legal employment for Bulgarians abroad: a contract with a foreign employer signed with an intermediary (recruiting company) or employment by a Bulgarian employer who has a contractual project abroad. Bulgarian authorities are mandated by law to provide information to the worker about the host country's labour market regulations and conditions.

Following the September 11 terrorist attacks, the fight against terrorism became a government priority, and Bulgaria initiated a set of legal and institutional changes aimed at strengthening border control and managing the immigration of undocumented foreigners.

International agreements

Bulgaria has signed bilateral labour agreements with Germany (1991, 1992, 1999), Switzerland (1995), Greece (1995), the Czech Republic (1999) and Portugal (2002). Agreements are also under consideration with Belgium (for internships, pending negotiations since 1992), Lebanon (to be signed) and France (for internships, negotiations pending since 1996). Furthermore, Bulgaria signed bilateral (Romania, Turkey) and multilateral (Black Sea countries) agreements for the prevention of border incidents and co-operation in the area of border control. Bulgaria also signed a bilateral agreement with Ireland in 2001 to fight against trafficking, terrorism and other criminal activities, such as drug smuggling and money laundering.

Canada

Introduction

After its impressive performance in the late 1990s, the Canadian economy slowed down significantly in 2001. GDP growth rate was only 1.5% in 2001, after 4.5% in 2000. However, according to OECD projections, Canadian economic growth should be over 3% again in 2002 and following years. After 5 years in a row of declining unemployment, the percentage of job seekers increased to 7.2% in 2001.

The foreign-born share of the population reached 18.4% in 2001 (up from 14.7% 50 years earlier) and is higher than nearly all other OECD member countries (except Luxembourg, Australia and Switzerland). Annually, immigrants account for about 0.8% of the total population growth.

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

Inflows and outflows of foreigners and of nationals

Between 1999 and 2001, total immigration (including resettled refugees and successful asylum seekers) increased by 32%. In 2001, Canada admitted 250 300 permanent residents, exceeding significantly the planned range of between 200 000 and 225 000 (see Table IV.6). The group broke down into 61% (152 900) economic immigrants, 27% (66 600) in the family class and 11% (27 900) refugees (resettled and accepted). Economic migrants include 58 900 selected immigrants and their dependants (78 300), almost 14 700 business immigrants (including 10 500 dependants) and about 1 300 provincial and territorial nominees. The overall flow increased by 10% on 2000, with notable gains in family and economic categories.

The primary source areas were the Asia and Pacific region (53% in 2000 and 2001), followed by Africa and the Middle East (19% in 2001). Migration flows from the top five source countries have increased from 38% of the total flow in 1999 to 42% in 2001. China remained the top ranking source country with 16% of immigrant landings, followed by India (11%), Pakistan (6%), the Philippines (5%) and Korea (4%).

Out of the 250 000 new immigrants in 2001, more than 148 000 settled in Ontario (59.2%), 38 000 in British Columbia (15.3%) and 37 000 in Quebec (14.9%). About 50% of all new immigrants and refugees were 25 to 44 years old, 14% were 15 to 24 years old and 23% were under 15 years old. The share of all immigrants with at least a university education increased from 41% in 1999 to 46% in 2001.

The 2002 Immigration Plan planned a range of 210 000 to 235 000 immigrants; initial 2002 immigration data appeared to fall within this target. The planned range for 2003 is between 220 000 and 245 000 with targeted allocations of 60% economic, 26% family and

Table IV.6. **Current figures on flows and stocks of foreign-born population, Canada**

Thousands									
	1998	1999	2000	2001		1998	1999	2000	2001
Immigration by category¹					Temporary foreign workers by country of origin (annual flows)⁵				
Family	50.9	55.3	60.5	66.6	United states	25.1	24.9	27.6	23.8
Skilled workers ²	81.3	92.5	118.5	137.1	Mexico	7.0	8.1	10.0	11.1
Principal applicants	36.0	41.5	52.1	58.9	United Kingdom	5.3	6.3	6.9	7.0
Accompanying dependants	45.3	50.9	66.4	78.3	Jamaica	5.1	5.5	5.4	5.8
Business	13.8	13.0	13.7	14.6	France	4.3	4.7	5.4	5.0
Principal applicants	3.8	3.6	3.8	4.1	Australia	3.7	3.7	4.3	4.9
Accompanying dependants	10.0	9.4	9.8	10.5	Japan	4.5	5.0	4.2	4.4
Live-in-Caregiver ³	2.9	3.3	2.8	2.6	Philippines	2.2	2.2	2.2	4.0
Principal applicants	2.4	2.6	2.3	2.3	Germany	2.1	2.3	2.5	2.5
Accompanying dependants	0.4	0.6	0.5	0.3	India	1.4	1.5	2.3	1.9
Provincial/Territorial Nominees	..	0.5	1.3	1.3	Others	19.0	21.0	22.7	22.5
Refugees	22.8	24.4	30.1	27.9	Total	79.8	85.4	93.7	93.1
Other immigrants ⁴	2.5	1.0	0.5	0.2	<i>of which: Women</i>	21.0	22.6	24.6	24.9
Total	174.2	189.9	227.3	250.3					
Immigration by Source Area (principal applicants and dependants)					Acquisition of Canadian citizenship by nationality				
Asia and Pacific	84.2	96.4	120.5	132.7	China	14.1	18.0	24.3	18.6
Africa and the Middle East	32.6	33.5	40.8	48.1	India	8.8	11.4	19.4	14.8
Europe	38.5	38.9	42.9	43.2	Hong Kong (China)	13.1	15.1	17.9	11.2
South and Central America	14.0	15.2	16.9	20.1	Philippines	11.1	11.6	14.1	9.6
United States	4.8	5.5	5.8	5.9	Pakistan	2.4	3.2	8.5	8.9
Not stated	0.0	0.3	0.3	0.3	Other	85.0	99.5	130.4	104.3
Total	174.2	189.9	227.3	250.3	Total	134.5	158.8	214.6	167.4
% from OECD	17.0	18.4	16.0	15.9	<i>of which: Women</i>	71.8	83.5	111.8	86.0

1. An immigrant corresponds to a person obtaining the right of permanent residence, either within Canada or from abroad. Includes accompanying dependants.
 2. Figures include the Independent class and the Assisted Relatives class. Selection criteria are only applied to the principal applicants.
 3. Programme for child care workers and assistants for elderly people in private households.
 4. Includes Retirees, Deferred Removal Orders Class (DROC) and Post-Determination Refugee Claimants in Canada Class (PDRCC).
 5. Inflows of foreign workers entering Canada to work temporarily (including seasonal workers and re-entries).
- Source: Citizenship and Immigration Canada.

13% refugee migration, illustrating the willingness of the Canadian authorities to increase progressively the immigration with a strong emphasis on the economic class.

Removals

In 2001, 9 125 persons were removed from Canada for various reasons, a 4.6% increase on 2000. Removals included 5 888 denied refugee claimants and 1 804 criminals.

Resettled refugees and asylum seekers

In 2001, about 32 900 adults entering Canada made claims for refugee status, a 15% increase on 2000. Hungary was the top source country for adult refugee claimants (2 934), followed by China (2 444), Pakistan (2 310) and Sri Lanka (2 240). The number of adult claimants from Zimbabwe increased from 172 in 2000 to 2 201 in 2001 and the number from Turkey increased by 55%. As of 1 December 2001, the stock of adult refugee claimants (authorised to live in Canada, but without permanent residence) reached 91 029, which was 16% higher than in 2000 and 27% higher than in 1999.

Between 2000 and 2001, the number of refugees receiving permanent resident status decreased by 7% from 30 072 to 27 899. Almost a third of them were government assisted refugees, 43% were refugees landed in Canada and 13% were dependants of refugees landed in Canada (successful asylum seekers). Government assisted refugees decreased by 20% over the previous year, but landings in the private sponsored category increased by more than 20%.

In 2001, 35% of accepted refugees were from the Asia and Pacific region. Refugees from Africa and the Middle East dropped from first rank in the previous two years to second with 34% of all refugees in 2001. Over the three-year period from 1999 to 2001, the number of refugees from South and Central America increased by 90%, while those from the Asia and Pacific region, and Africa and the Middle East region increased respectively by 36% and 13%. Afghanistan was the top source country with 10% of accepted refugees, followed by Sri Lanka (9%), Pakistan (8%) and the Federal Republic of Yugoslavia (6%). In 2001, as in the previous year, 58% of all refugees originated from a top ten source country. Most (54%) were male, aged between 25 and 44 years of age (40%) and with some secondary education (40%).

Evolution of stocks of foreign-born

The 2001 census put Canada's total population at 29.6 million. The number of immigrants (i.e. persons born abroad who have been granted permanent resident status) was 5.45 million, 18.4% of the total, and rose by 9.6% between the 1996 and 2001 censuses. Immigrants from Europe were still the largest group in 2001 (2 287 000, including 606 000 people from the United Kingdom and 315 000 from Italy), but those coming from Asia now form an equivalent group with 1 989 000 persons (568 000 people from China and Hong Kong, China. 315 000 from India; 232 000 from the Philippines and 148 000 from Vietnam). The latter group has increased tremendously since the last census by 27.2% from 1 563 000. Furthermore, 238 000 people from the United States, 72 000 from Iran, 67 000 from Lebanon, 36 000 from Egypt and from South Africa, as well as 25 000 from Morocco and Chile, were registered.

One third of immigrants are between 25 and 44 years old and 48% are male. A fifth of the total immigrant population are recent immigrants, i.e. they had arrived since 1996.

Naturalisations

In 2001, approximately 167 400 persons were granted Canadian citizenship, a 22% decrease on 2000 (see Table IV.6). The top five countries of previous nationality included China (11%, a 24% decrease on 2000), followed by India (9%, a 24% decrease), Hong Kong, China (7%, a 33% decrease), the Philippines (6%, a 32% decrease) and Chinese Taipei (4%, a 25% decrease). The only origin country with a significant increase in 2001 was Portugal with 2 900 naturalisations, a 22% increase on 2000.

2. Policy developments

Admission, stay and integration

The Immigration and Refugee Protection Act was implemented in June 2002. It included a definition of permanent resident, reinforced the government's commitment to gender equality, provided for oral appeal hearings for people facing a loss of permanent resident status for failure to maintain residency, improved safeguards for people in need of protection, required a warrant to arrest refugees and permanent residents for any immigration

matter and instilled the principle that children will be detained only as a last resort. The new law also introduces significant changes in the selection process; putting more emphasis on education, job experience and language ability. Some of the changes also intend to ease family reunification. In particular, a new “conjugal partners” category has been added to the Family Class to accommodate common-law partners who do not meet the one-year cohabitation requirement. (For more details, see previous edition of *Trends in International Migration*.)

On 31 October 2002, a new Citizenship Act of Canada was proposed. Canada’s citizenship law has not been changed since 1977 and a previous attempt to revise this Act failed, when the House was dissolved in October 2000, prior to passage of the bill. The citizenship bill proposes that:

- A greater emphasis be placed on existing Canadian values by changing the oath of citizenship to include a direct expression of loyalty to Canada.
- A permanent resident be physically present in Canada for a total of three years out of the six years immediately prior to applying for Canadian citizenship.
- A fully judicial process be instituted under which a judge would decide if an individual’s citizenship should be revoked.
- New powers be granted to the minister to annul citizenship obtained through the use of a false identity.
- Children adopted abroad by Canadians become citizens without having to enter Canada as permanent residents and apply for citizenship.

Many elements of Canada’s current Citizenship Act work well and would remain part of the new law, including the following provisions: children born in Canada will automatically become Canadian citizens; Canadian citizens will still be able to be citizens of other countries; and applicants for Canadian citizenship must still demonstrate sufficient knowledge of Canada and of one of its two official languages before being granted citizenship.

Following the events of September 11, Canada is working to implement a system to receive passenger information before an international flight arrives in Canada (Advanced Passenger Information System). A new permanent resident card incorporating a laser engraved photograph and signature was introduced to confirm permanent resident status of the cardholder. It will be mandatory for permanent residents for travel purposes and re-entry into Canada from end of 2003.

Following a 1998 pilot project, Canada began providing employment authorisations to spouses of temporary foreign workers whose occupations are in management, professional or technical fields or in skilled trades, and do not limit spouses to filling posts for which no Canadian citizens could qualify. The Spousal Employment Authorisation Initiative became a permanent fixture of the Canadian immigration policy in early 2002.

Asylum and rights of refugees

A Blended Sponsorship Initiative Pilot was introduced in October 2000 under the Resettlement Assistance Program, for which only Convention refugees and Canada’s Humanitarian designees are eligible. The pilot program, which targeted only Sierra Leone refugees, focused on protection needs and assisted in family reunification. The purpose of the blended initiative was to support and augment the existing Private Sponsorship Program

(partnership between the government and NGOs) by offering sponsors the financial ability to provide limited income support to refugees. Results from the pilot will be evaluated to determine if it can be expanded into a program accessible by all communities and sponsors.

The Urgent Protection Pilot (UPP) project was designed to facilitate the immediate entry into Canada of persecuted people. UPP expedites the resettlement process for Convention refugees and Canada's Humanitarian designees in need of urgent protection because of immediate threats to life, liberty or physical well-being by agents of persecution. Guidelines have been issued which extend the program globally on an interim basis, pending the finalisation of the evaluation planned for the fall of 2001.

In addition, a new refugee resettlement model is under development to integrate operational processes, improve operational partnerships, clarify and simplify relevant policy issues, and improve specialised training, information and management support systems.

International agreements

The United States and Canada have initiated NEXUS, a joint pilot project, to improve flow management across the Canada/United States border. In the past, travellers needed applications to both Canada and the United States. Now, a traveller needs to fill out only one application form, to have only one card, thereby making the traveller subject to only one enrolment process and one set of eligibility criteria. Once approved, the individual traveller will have access to a dedicated commuter lane enabling expedited border crossings.

More recently, in August 2002, Canada and the United-States agreed on the text for a "Safe Third Country" Agreement. The Safe Third Country Agreement requires that refugees claim protection in the first safe country in which they arrive. It aims at preventing asylum shopping or filing of claims in both countries. The Agreement is part of the Smart Border Declaration's 30-Point Action Plan agreed on by Canada and the United States. However, it is not yet in force.

Czech Republic

Introduction

The Czech economy has achieved annual growth of around 3% over the past couple of years, together with price stability and falling unemployment due to sound microeconomic reforms and a massive fiscal stimulus. In 2001, the unemployment rate was at 8% and decreased to 7.3% in 2002 (7.1% in the first quarter of 2003).

In 2001, a change in the methodology of production of the statistics of international migration makes comparisons with previous years difficult. Nevertheless, it seems that after a long period of net migration gains, the Czech Republic experienced a net loss in 2001. The inflows of asylum seekers, after picking up in 2001, stabilised in 2002. Finally, the main changes in terms of migration policy concerned the asylum law, the reinforcement of the battle against illegal migration and a proposal to open a channel for highly skilled migration.

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

Inflows and outflows of foreigners and of nationals

In 2001, net migration was negative in the Czech Republic, with 12 900 immigrants and 21 500 emigrants* (see Table IV.7). Movements to and from the Slovak Republic represented a significant proportion of all migration flows – 23.6% of immigrants and 40.4% of emigrants – but their proportion has decreased significantly since the mid-1990s. In 2000 migration from the Slovak Republic accounted for only 37% of the total migration increase to the Czech Republic.

Most main source countries registered a decrease in immigrants to the Czech Republic, including Germany, Russia, the Slovak Republic and Ukraine in the previous years, with the noticeable exception of Vietnam. The proportion of immigrants from that country increased in the second half of the 90s to attain 19% of all immigrants to the Czech Republic in 2001. In recent years this immigration of people from Vietnam has diminished slightly, however. The other main source countries in 2000 were Ukraine (24.3% of total immigration), the Slovak Republic (21.2%) and Russia (6.3%).

The period between 1997 and 2000 was characterised by a decrease in immigration flows, coupled with a relatively stable flow of emigrants. Net migration fell from 11 500 in 1997 to 6 500 in 2000, partly due to more restrictive entry conditions for Eastern

* Data on 2001 migration flows cannot be compared with previous data due to new migrant definitions adopted by the Czech Republic. Immigrants now also include foreigners who are granted a long-term visa for more than 90 days (provided that their stay in the Czech Republic exceeded a year) and accepted asylum applicants. Emigrants now include foreign citizens whose long-term visa has elapsed.

Table IV.7. **Current figures on flows and stocks of foreigners, Czech Republic**

Thousands									
	1998	1999	2000	2001		1998	1999	2000	2001
Total population¹	10 290	10 278	10 267	10 241	Registered foreign workers by nationality⁷				
Total population change from					Ukraine	19.3	16.7	15.8	17.5
beginning to end of year	-10	-12	-11	-26	Poland	9.9	6.9	7.7	6.7
Natural increase	-19	-20	-18	-17	Bulgaria	2.7	1.7	1.5	1.9
Net migration	9	9	7	-9	Germany	1.6	1.5	1.5	1.2
					Moldavia	2.0	1.4	1.4	1.4
Inflows²	10.7	9.9	7.8	12.9	United States	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.3
Arrivals (excluding those					Belarus	2.0	1.3	1.1	1.0
from Slovak Republic)	7.8	6.7	5.0	9.9	Other	11.0	9.4	9.7	9.1
Arrivals from Slovak Republic	2.9	3.2	2.8	3.1	Total	49.9	40.3	40.1	40.1
Outflows	1.3	1.1	1.3	21.5	Slovak workers⁸	61.3	53.1	63.6	63.6
Departures (excluding those to					Holders of a business authorisation by nationality				
Slovak Republic) ³	0.9	0.8	0.9	12.8	Ukraine	9.9	19.5	21.4	21.6
Departures to Slovak Republic ⁴	0.4	0.3	0.4	8.7	Vietnam	15.5	18.9	19.3	20.4
Inflows of asylum seekers	4.1	7.2	8.8	18.1	Slovak Republic	6.2	6.6	6.7	7.1
					Germany	0.9	0.9	0.8	0.9
Stocks of foreign residents by type of permits and nationality					Other	12.5	12.5	13.1	14.0
Holders of a permanent residence permit					Total	45.0	58.4	61.3	64.0
Poland	12.0	11.6	11.8	11.6	Total foreign workers	156.2	151.8	165.0	167.7
Slovak Republic ⁵	14.1	13.0	11.1	10.9	Czech workers employed in Germany				
Ukraine	6.2	7.8	8.8	9.9	Contract workers	1.1	1.4	1.4	1.4
Vietnam	6.8	8.0	8.2	9.9	Seasonal workers	1.8	1.9	2.1	2.8
Russian Federation	2.9	3.5	3.8	4.1	Illegal migrants detected at the border				
Bulgaria	2.3	2.3	2.3	2.2	(Including Czech nationals)	44.7	32.3	32.7	23.8
Other	19.6	20.6	20.9	21.4					
Total	63.9	66.8	66.9	70.0					
Holders of a long-term permit⁶									
Slovak Republic	35.5	27.3	33.1	42.4					
Ukraine	46.4	58.1	41.4	41.9					
Vietnam	16.1	16.9	15.3	14.0					
Russian Federation	7.2	13.4	9.2	8.3					
Poland	10.1	6.7	5.3	4.9					
China	4.1	4.2	3.4	3.1					
Bulgaria	3.6	2.7	1.7	1.9					
Other	32.8	32.8	24.7	24.5					
Total	155.8	162.1	134.1	141.0					

1. Population on the 31 December of the given year.
2. Permanent residents who had their change of address registered (since 2001, a change in methodology appeared; for more details, refer to the notes at the end of the Statistical Annex).
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 (since 2001, a change in methodology appeared; for more details, refer to the notes at the end of the Statistical Annex).
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. In 2000, the figures relate to holders of visa for a period over 90 days (according to the new law on stay of foreigners).
7. 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.
8. Under the Treaty on Mutual Employment of Citizens signed by the Czech Republic and the Slovak Republic in October 1992, nationals of the two Republics have free access to both labour markets. Numbers of Slovak workers are registered by the labour offices.

Sources: Statistical Yearbook of the Czech Republic; State and Movements of the Population (Czech Statistical Office); Ministry of the Interior; Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs.

European citizens. In 2001, for the first time, net migration was negative and reinforced a natural population decrease.

Illegal migration

During 2001, a total of nearly 23 800 persons were held at the Czech Republic border for attempted illegal migration, down about 27% on 2000. Of these, almost 89% were foreign nationals. Despite the decreasing numbers of Romanian nationals among undocumented migrants at the Czech Republic borders, Romanians remained the most numerous group, with 3 911 persons detained in 2001. The next largest groups were Indians (2 706), Germans (1 764) and Moldavians (1 742). Compared to 2000, a significant rise in undocumented migrants was recorded for Armenians (1 573 in 2001) and Georgians (1 118) and a significant decrease for Ukrainians (758), Afghanis (695) and Moldavians.

In addition, almost 18 300 foreigners without a residence authorisation were registered by the police in 2001. The majority of these were Ukrainian nationals (12 376), followed by Moldavians (1 121), Belarussians (826), Indians (507) and Romanians (425).

Refugees and asylum seekers

The number of asylum applications filed in the Czech Republic more than doubled between 2000 and 2001, increasing from 8 800 to 18 100 applicants (see Table IV.7). This sharp increase was caused particularly by a new asylum law in 2000, which allowed asylum seekers to work legally in the Czech Republic. However, according to recent data the number of asylum applications has returned to its previous level in 2002 with 8 481 applications being registered.

In 2001, most asylum applicants came from Europe (59%), while 38% were from Asia and only 2% from Africa. The largest group of asylum seekers in 2001 included Ukrainians (4 418, up from 1 145 in 2000), Moldavians (2 459, up from 784), Romanians (1 848, up from 510) and Vietnamese nationals (1 525, up from 586). The largest proportional increase in asylum seekers came from Georgia where 1 290 applications were filed in 2001 compared to 103 in 2000. Approximately 280 unaccompanied minors applied for asylum, compared to 116 minors who were accompanied by a family member. In total, in 2001, 83 foreign citizens, mainly from Belarus (23), Iran (10), Afghanistan (9) and the former Yugoslavia (9), were granted asylum in the Czech Republic. This figure was down from 133 positive decisions in 2000.

Evolution of stocks of foreigners

The number of foreign residents has increased since the dissolution of the former Czechoslovakia (1993), with a slight decrease recorded in 2000. By the end of 2001, the stock of foreigners rose by 4.9% to 210 794. The largest national groups continued to originate from the Slovak Republic (53 300) and Ukraine (51 800), followed by Vietnam (23 900), Poland (16 500) and Russia (12 400). Slovak residents in the Czech Republic had a 20.4% increase, while the Bulgarians recorded a 51.8% decrease (from 4 000 to 1 900) on 2000.

During 2001, almost 141 000 foreigners had a long-term (more than 90 days) residence visa for the Czech Republic. The largest national groups holding these permits included Slovaks (42 444), Ukrainians (41 916), Vietnamese (14 023), Russians (8 326) and Poles (4 897). Nearly half (43%) of the long-term residence visas were granted for employment purposes. The number of permanent residence permit holders in 2001 was 69 816 foreign

citizens, 90% of which were for family reunion. The most represented nationalities in this stock were from Poland (11 592), the Slovak Republic (10 850), Vietnam (9 901) and Ukraine (9 900).

2. Policy developments

Admission, stay and integration

In preparation for the Czech Republic's entrance to the European Union, the Parliament approved changes to the Law on the stay of foreigners in March 2002. In particular, the amendments included differentiation between EU and non-EU foreign citizens, providing beneficial entry conditions for the former upon accession (scheduled for 1 May 2004). Provisions in accordance with the Schengen agreements were also added, including the introduction of a unified Schengen visa, the protection of borders and the creation of a Schengen information system.

During 2001 the Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs completed the proposal for a "Euro-amendment" to the Employment Law to meet accession directives. It proposed a new labour market definition for EU member state nationals and family members on the Czech labour market after accession to the European Union. The amendment also proposed changes to the extension of work permits and new legal instruments to combat illegal migration.

In 2003, the Czech Republic is expected to adapt a new active labour market migration policy to selectively admit foreign nationals according to their interest in settling in the Czech Republic. This Proposition of Active Selection of a Qualified Foreign Labour Force, approved by the government in September 2001, is a variant of the Quebec Certificate of Selection point system. Favoured candidates are young, educated and qualified in a given profession. Knowledge of the Czech language and previous stay in the Czech Republic will also be an advantage. A pilot project with three selected countries (Bulgaria, Croatia and Kazakhstan) was expected to start in 2003.

In October 2000, the Czech Republic annulled free-entry agreements with Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Moldavia, and Turkmenistan. As these citizens now need entry visas, the inflows from these countries declined and their importance in the rank of source countries has fallen.

Asylum and rights of refugees

In 2001, the Parliament amended asylum legislation (effective in February 2002) to meet European Union standards in view of accession and to deal with an increasing number of asylum applications. The amendment stated that asylum applicants were not allowed to work for a year after submitting their application. Visas were no longer granted to asylum applicants and applicants could only resubmit a new request at least two years after a negative decision. The definition of ungrounded applications was extended to include more categories.

Denmark

Introduction

Economic activity in Denmark continues to grow gradually as the international situation improves. In 2001, GDP growth stood at only 1%. It rose slightly to 1.5% in 2002 and should reach 2% in 2003 according to OECD forecasts. The unemployment rate remains relatively low (averaging 4.3% over the past two years), and labour shortages might reappear with the return of expansion. However, the unemployment rate for non-OECD foreigners is considerably higher (approximately 13%).

Today there are some 415 300 immigrants and descendants of immigrants living in Denmark, or 7.7% of the population (with approximately 5% of the population being foreign nationals). Immigration flows have risen gradually over the past twenty years, but are now tending to level off. The integration of foreigners both into the labour market and society as a whole remains a key concern. In spring 2002, the government introduced some major changes in its laws on immigration and the integration of immigrants. Newly arriving immigrants must now follow a “programme of initiation into Danish society” as well as language courses.

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

Inflows and outflows of foreigners and of nationals

In 2001, some 38 600 new residence permits were granted in all categories, or 10.6% more than the previous year and 32% more than in 1999. One-third of the permits were granted for reasons of family reunion. Some 15% of permits were also granted to EU nationals, 16% to refugees and 13.3% to workers (as compared to 10.4% in 2000).

In 2001, some 37 000 persons entered Denmark and resided there for over a year, i.e. more than double than in 1984 and 6.7% more than the previous year. Approximately two-thirds of these entrants were foreigners and half of them were from European countries. For a number of years the share of Asian nationals has been growing. On the other hand, 24 800 long-term residents (who had lived in Denmark for over a year) left the country in 2001, which was 2% more than the previous year. Two-thirds of them were Danish nationals.

Refugees and asylum seekers

Since 1996, there has been a significant increase in the number of asylum applications, which rose to 13 000 in 2000, with 10 350 of these applications being filed in Denmark. However, since then the number of applications filed has fallen continuously (10 300 applications in 2001, of which 8 400 were filed in Denmark, and 6 700 applications in 2002). This trend is partly explained by the recent decrease in the number of asylum applications from European countries and especially the former Yugoslavia. The number of

asylum seekers from Iraq also fell in 2001 (2 100 as against 12 600 the previous year). The number of people from Afghanistan, which was stable at approximately 3 750 in 2000 and 2001, dropped sharply in 2002 (1 700). These data do not take into account refugees from Kosovo (approximately 3 000) who had temporary residence permits and were later authorised to apply for permanent permits after two years of uninterrupted residence in Denmark.

Denmark makes a distinction between several categories of refugees: refugees who fulfil the conditions of international conventions (*de jure* refugees), refugees who have been granted “protection status”, i.e. who do not meet the conditions of international conventions but who need protection (they have replaced the former category of *de facto* refugees), refugees subject to quotas under an agreement with the UN High Commission for Refugees (UNHCR) (approximately 500 per year) and refugees with “humanitarian status”. In 2001, a total of 6 300 people obtained refugee status, of whom slightly over 5 700 were *de jure* refugees, which was a 21.5% increase over the previous year.

Evolution of stocks of foreigners

At 1 January 2002, there were 266 700 foreigners residing in Denmark, or 5% of the total population (3% more than the previous year). EU nationals accounted for 20.6% of the foreign population, and nationals of the former Yugoslavia 13%, Turkish nationals 12%, and Iraqi nationals 6.2%.

At the same date, there were 415 331 immigrants (including those who have been naturalised) and descendants of immigrants living in Denmark (7.7% of the total population). The number of immigrants from less developed countries has increased by 44% over the past eleven years, while the number of immigrants from more developed countries grew by nearly 73% between 1991 and 2002.

Naturalisations

Since 1991, the number of acquisitions of Danish nationality has more than doubled, rising from 5 500 in 1991 to 11 900 in 2001. However, there was a significant drop in the number of naturalisations between 2000 and 2001 (58%), which can be explained by the fact that many descendants of immigrants applied for Danish nationality before the entry into force of the new Act on Nationality, which sets more stringent criteria. In 2001, of the 11 900 persons who obtained Danish nationality, 27% were from Turkey, 9.5% from the former Yugoslavia and 9% from Somalia.

Family reunion

In 2001, residence permits granted for family reunion reasons accounted for 34% of all residence permits. Between 1990 and 2001, the total number of this type of permit rose from 7 872 to 13 187, an increase of nearly 55% (see Table IV.8). This increase can partly be explained by the fact that, since 2000, children born in Denmark of foreign parents must obtain individual residence permits. The Danish authorities estimate that some 2 550 children have obtained permits under this new legislative provision. One-third of those who entered for the purpose of family reunion in 2001 were spouses of Danish citizens or citizens of other Nordic countries.

Table IV.8. **Current figures on flows and stocks of foreign population and labour force, Denmark**

Figures in thousands unless otherwise indicated

	1998	1999	2000	2001		1998	1999	2000	2001
Long-term immigration by group					Stock of foreigners	256.3	259.4	258.6	266.7
of nationality¹	33.4	32.1	34.7	37.0	Nordic countries ²	30.6	31.3	31.8	n.a.
Denmark	12.1	11.8	11.8	11.6	Other European countries	127.2	127.6	127.7	160.7
Other Nordic countries ²	3.0	3.2	3.1	3.0	Asia	54.8	56.1	56.5	63.0
Other European countries	8.2	7.5	7.9	8.3	Africa	23.9	25.4	25.5	26.0
Asia	6.1	5.8	8.1	10.0	America	9.8	10.2	10.3	10.6
Africa	2.3	2.0	2.0	2.1	Oceania	1.1	1.2	1.2	1.3
Other	1.7	1.8	1.7	1.9	Other	8.9	7.6	5.6	5.1
Long-term emigration by group					Immigrants by region of origin⁵	287.7	296.9	308.7	321.8
of nationality¹	22.0	22.7	24.3	24.8	Nordic countries ²	34.2	34.5	34.7	n.a.
Denmark	14.3	14.5	16.0	15.9	Other European countries	133.0	127.6	138.7	176.8
Other Nordic countries ²	2.2	2.4	2.5	2.6	Asia	80.1	84.5	90.9	98.9
Other European countries	3.3	3.5	3.6	3.7	Africa	25.5	26.8	28.2	29.3
Asia	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.9	America	12.6	13.0	13.3	13.6
Africa	0.7	0.7	0.5	0.8	Oceania	1.2	1.3	1.3	1.4
Other	0.8	0.8	0.9	0.8	Other	1.2	9.3	1.6	1.8
Grants of residence permits, by category³	31.0	29.2	34.9	38.6	Descendants by region of origin⁵	75.7	81.2	87.3	93.5
Family reunification	9.7	9.4	12.6	13.2	Nordic countries ²	4.7	4.7	4.7	n.a.
EU provisions	6.1	5.7	5.9	6.0	Other European countries	33.5	35.3	37.4	44.3
Refugee	4.8	4.4	5.2	6.3	Asia	27.8	30.2	32.9	35.6
Employment	3.3	3.1	3.6	5.1	Africa	7.9	9.1	10.3	11.4
Others	7.2	6.6	7.6	8.1	America	1.5	1.5	1.6	1.7
Applicants for asylum by citizenship⁴	6.1	7.1	13.0	10.3	Oceania	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Afghanistan	0.4	0.7	3.7	3.8	Other	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.4
Iraq	2.0	1.9	2.6	2.1	Participation and unemployment rates among immigrants and their descendants				
Bosnia-Herzegovina	0.3	0.2	0.7	1.0	Immigrants				
Former Yugoslavia	0.4	1.1	1.7	0.6	Participation rate (%)	55	56	56	56
Somalia	0.7	0.5	0.8	0.6	Unemployment rate (%)	17	14	11	9
Others	2.3	2.7	3.5	2.3	Descendants				
Acquisition of Danish nationality by region of origin	10.3	12.4	18.8	11.9	Participation rate (%)	68	69	70	71
Nordic countries ²	0.4	0.3	0.4	0.3	Unemployment rate (%)	8	7	5	6
Other European countries	2.8	4.7	5.5	5.4					
Asia	4.5	4.8	7.8	3.6					
Africa	0.7	0.9	2.4	1.8					
America	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.3					
Other	1.6	1.5	2.4	0.9					

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, except for the stock of foreigners, and immigrants and descendants by region of origin where data are included in "other European countries" for 2001.
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. Since 2000, figures include permits for children who are born in Denmark.
4. Data refer to asylum applications lodged in Denmark and abroad.
5. An immigrant is defined as a person born abroad to parents who have either foreign citizenship or are also born abroad. A descendant is a person born in Denmark with parents who are either immigrants or descendants of immigrants.

Source: Danmarks Statistik.

2. Policy developments

Admission, stay and integration

The Act on Integration entered into force on 1 January 1999. It transfers responsibility for the integration of foreigners to municipalities and lays down that newly-arrived immigrants and refugees must follow a three-year “initiation programme” set up by municipalities, which comprises courses to familiarise them with Danish society and Danish language courses. “Integration councils” have also been created in municipalities to assess the efforts being made by these municipalities to facilitate integration. They are composed of refugees and representatives of immigrants’ associations.

The Act on Integration was amended in 2002 through two measures: the first, “A new policy for foreigners”, was enacted in January 2002 and the second, “Towards a new integration policy”, in March 2002. The changes are aimed at reducing the time required by municipalities to grant housing to refugees and newly-arrived immigrants, enabling municipalities to implement accelerated integration programmes for highly skilled foreigners, and promoting the access of refugees’ children to Danish schools. The changes also involve a reduction in the amount of assistance granted to newly-arrived immigrants in order to encourage them to look for a job more rapidly.

Citizenship law

To obtain Danish nationality, it is necessary to have resided in Denmark for at least seven years, to take a Danish language test and to be in good standing with the authorities. The “new policy for foreigners” specifies that foreigners must already have had a residence permit for at least two years, except for refugees, spouses of Danish nationals and stateless persons, for whom this period is reduced to one year. The residence permit gives immigrants the same rights as those enjoyed by Danish citizens, except for the right to vote.

Asylum and rights of refugees

In 2002, the new government decided that only applications for asylum filed in Denmark would be considered. Asylum seekers must prove that they would be at risk of persecution in their own country. Files are processed using information provided by the asylum seekers and by the Danish immigration service. Refugees may be sent back to their country of origin if there is no longer a risk of their being persecuted.

Finland

Introduction

The recent deterioration of the international economic outlook may have the effect of stalling the recovery of the Finnish economy until the second semester of 2003. The GDP growth rate has been limited to 0.6% in 2002 and should be just over 1.5% in 2003. However, Finland should be able to return to a high-growth trajectory over the medium term, although unemployment (9% in 2002) will remain above the EU average.

In contrast to what has been observed in other Nordic countries immigration to Finland as well as net migration continue to rise rapidly, but asylum seeker inflows remain low (indeed they decreased between 2000 and 2001). In 2001, there were more than 100 000 foreign residents in Finland, representing 1.9% of the total population.

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

Inflows and outflows of foreigners and of nationals

Inflows into Finland in 2001 increased by over 12% relative to the previous year, continuing the trend of recent years. The growth in the immigration of foreign nationals alone was even greater, at over 21%. Nationals of the Russian Federation accounted for 23% of foreign inflows, with Estonian and Swedish nationals contributing about 10% and 6% respectively. A certain proportion of persons in the first two groups were of Finnish descent (Ingrians). Persons in this category have had a special returnee status since 1990. However, recent evidence tends to show that in the context of EU enlargement, flows from Estonia have been declining rapidly.

Outflows declined by over 8% between 2000 and 2001. While Finnish outflows increased as in previous years (again largely to Sweden and then Norway), outflows of foreign nationals declined by about 48%. This contributed to a growth in net migration to 5 800, more than double the previous year's figure and a reversal of the downward trend of net migration of the previous four years (see Table IV.9). The net emigration of Finnish nationals grew by about 28%.

Illegal migration

Illegal immigration does not appear to be a big problem in Finland. It mostly concerns persons who have overstayed after the expiry of their residence permits or visas. The actual number of illegal entrants is small. Finland is participating in an EU-financed project examining how to collect information about trafficking in human beings for sexual exploitation. It is also preparing new legislation to criminalise trafficking in women.

Table IV.9. **Current figures on flows and stocks of foreign population, Finland**

Figures in thousands unless otherwise indicated

	1998	1999	2000	2001
Inflows by main nationality	14.2	14.7	16.9	19.0
Nationals	5.9	6.8	7.8	7.9
Foreigners	8.3	7.9	9.1	11.0
<i>of which:</i>				
Former USSR (except Estonia) ¹	2.5	2.2	2.5	2.6
Estonia ¹	0.7	0.6	0.7	1.1
Sweden	0.8	0.7	0.7	0.7
Net migration by main nationality	3.4	2.8	2.6	5.8
Nationals	-3.3	-3.2	-2.4	-3.1
Foreigners	6.7	5.9	5.0	8.9
<i>of which:</i>				
Former USSR (except Estonia) ¹	2.4	2.1	2.0	2.4
Estonia ¹	0.5	0.4	0.3	1.0
Sweden	0.4	0.3	0.2	0.3
Asylum seekers	1.3	3.1	3.2	1.7
Foreign population by main nationality²	85.1	87.7	91.1	98.6
<i>of which:</i>				
Russian Federation ¹	16.9	18.6	20.6	22.7
Estonia ¹	10.3	10.7	10.8	11.7
Sweden	7.8	7.9	7.9	8.0
Somalia	5.4	4.4	4.2	4.4
Acquisition of nationality by former nationality (units)	4 000	4 730	2 977	2 249
Russian Federation	800	935	714	433
Somalia	476	1 208	346	220
Estonia	143	379	353	213
Other countries	2 581	2 208	1 564	1 383
Mixed marriages	2.6	2.9	2.8	1.5

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

Every year Finland establishes a quota for the number of refugees it will receive, based on recommendations by the UN High Commission for Refugees. In 2001, this figure was 750, of whom 286 arrived in that year. In addition to these, Finland accepts other types of refugees. These include for instance asylum seekers who have received a positive decision on their applications or persons for whom it has not been possible to return to their home countries due to circumstances there. In 2001, 1 857 refugees were accepted by Finland, the largest groups coming from the former Yugoslavia, Afghanistan, Somalia and Iran.

The total number of asylum seekers grew steadily between 1996 and 2000. Most of this growth can be explained by an increase in the number of applications from Eastern European countries. However, in 2001, the number of asylum seekers fell to just over 1 650, of which citizens of the former USSR and Iraqis were the largest national groups. By contrast, the first six months of 2002 saw almost 1 900 asylum applications. By far the largest proportion of these were Romanians (579). These were Romas, as were persons from other countries contributing large numbers of asylum seekers in 1999 (Slovak Republic, 1 500) and in 2000 (Poland, 1 200).

Evolution of stocks of foreigners

The stock of foreigners resident in Finland increased gradually over the 1980s to about 1 800 in 1990. It has since expanded rapidly to reach 98 600 in 2001 (102 100 by the end of August 2002), the peak rate of increase occurring after Ingrians were offered returnee status in 1990. The rate of increase has slowed since then but growth of over 8% in 2001 was a substantial rate of increase compared with previous years.

Foreign nationals accounted for 1.9% of the population at the end of 2001 and there were 161 nationalities living in Finland. Those from the Russian Federation accounted for 22 700 or 23% of the foreign population. Estonian nationals numbered 11 700, Swedish, 8 000 and Somalis, 4 350.

In 2001, 75% of foreign nationals were between the ages of 15 and 64 years, as against 67% for the population as a whole. Only 6% of foreigners were 65 or over compared to more than 15% of Finnish citizens.

Naturalisations

In 2001, almost 2 250 foreign nationals received Finnish citizenship, a lower number than that of the previous year (3 000), itself a decline on the year before. The largest number of applications came from citizens of the Russian Federation, Estonia, Somalia and Iraq.

2. Policy developments

Admission, stay and integration

In the context of the forthcoming EU enlargement the Finnish government has appointed a working group in 2001 to consider how to supervise the terms of contracts under which foreigners may be employed in Finland. Current proposals to revise the Aliens Act and the Nationality Act also include:

- Enabling foreign family members of Finnish nationals to enter Finland more easily.
- Altering the process for non-nationals seeking entry to Finland primarily to work.
- Providing for a more tolerant attitude towards the holding of multiple nationalities.

The Act for the Integration and Reception of Asylum Seekers requires municipalities in co-operation with other bodies to draw up integration programmes. From the beginning of March 2002, amendments to the Act require municipalities to include in their programmes provisions to improve ethnic equality and promote good inter-ethnic relations. The use of individual integration plans for immigrants, started in 1999, continues. Such plans help immigrants strengthen their language, vocational and working life skills. Over 11 300 integration plans were drawn up in 2001, 59% of which were for women.

In 2002, Finland signed memoranda of understanding with New Zealand and Australia to enable the young nationals of those countries to take working holidays in Finland.

Citizenship law

The problem of the lengthy processing time for naturalisation applications was tackled in June 2001 by the Clear Approvals project. This accelerated decision-making on citizenship applications, with the average time taken for notifying such decisions being reduced to one month.

Asylum and rights of refugees

From March 2001, the Directorate of Immigration started conducting the required interviews of asylum applicants, with the objective of gradually transferring all such interviews from the police to the Directorate by 2004. In 2001, the government also proposed some legislation changes concerning:

- The reception of persons needing temporary accommodation as a result of large numbers having left their countries due to violence or environmental disaster.
- The reimbursement of municipalities for the reception costs of asylum seekers who had been granted a residence permit.
- The creation of a special detention unit (to replace police custody) for foreigners held under the Aliens Act, to guarantee their fair treatment and their rights while in custody.

Asylum seekers who have been in Finland for at least 3 months may work. The previous requirement that they first receive approval on the basis that there was no-one else available to do the job in question was abolished in October 2002.

France

Introduction

The French economy underwent a major slowdown in 2002, with only 1% growth as compared to 1.8% in 2001 and 4.2% in 2000. According to OECD forecasts, GDP should grow by slightly under 2% in 2003 and by 3% in 2004. The labour market situation worsened again in 2002 and the unemployment rate rose to 8.8% (9.2% in the first quarter of 2003).

With regard to international migration, immigration flows continued to grow rapidly in 2001 for all categories of entry. A number of major legislative changes came into effect in 2002 and in the first half of 2003. The Red Cross refugee camp at Sangatte, which remained a sensitive issue in diplomatic relations with the United Kingdom, was closed in December 2002. This decision made it possible to step up co-operation between the two countries in the field of international migration.

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

In France, entry flows can be calculated on the basis of three sources of statistics. The *Office des migrations internationales* (OMI) counts foreigners coming in for employment purposes or applying for the “private and family life” residence permit, except in the case of nationals of European Economic Area (EEA) countries. The *Office français de protection des réfugiés et apatrides* (OFPRA) notes the number of asylum seekers and people who obtain refugee status. Additional data compiled by the Ministry of the Interior are used to obtain statistics on flows from the European Economic Area.

Inflows and outflows of foreigners and of nationals

Permanent immigration

In 2001, total permanent entries stood at over 128 100 and at 141 000 after making statistical adjustments to take into account notably all entries by EEA nationals (see Table IV.10). In all, according to the latest estimates available, some 33 500 EEA nationals came to settle in France in 2001. Entries of nationals from third countries stood at 107 500 in 2001, up 15.6% on the previous year. Some 60% of these new immigrants were from Africa (mostly North Africa), 20.3% from Asia, 10.5% from the Americas and 6.9% from non-EEA European countries.

Entries of family members (family reunification, family members of French nationals, family members of refugees, holders of the “private and family life” card and immigrants identified as family members following a re-examination of their case) accounted for 70% of inflows from third countries and 33% of inflows from EEA countries (for a total of 89 700 people in 2001). After a relative levelling off in 1999 and 2000, this category rose again by roughly 10% between 2000 and 2001.

Table IV.10. **Current figures on flows and stocks of foreign population and labour force, France**

All figures in thousands unless otherwise indicated

	1998	1999	2000	2001		1998	1999	2000	2001
Permanent immigration					Re-admissions⁴	12.5	15.0	10.5	10.0
Registered flows by category¹					Registered outflows of foreigners⁵				
Family reunification (broadly defined)	38.3	38.2	38.5	45.4	Expulsions	0.7	0.6	0.5	0.4
Family members of French					Actual removals to the borders	7.2	7.4	9.0	8.2
nationals	15.6	15.3	16.0	20.9	Assisted departures	1.7	1.0	0.7	0.7
Family members of foreigners	21.7	21.8	21.4	23.1					
Family members of refugees	1.0	1.1	1.1	1.4	Foreigners involved in an assisted departure procedure				
Workers	11.6	6.3	6.4	22.7	(number of persons)	192	125	67	12
Wage earners	10.3	5.3	6.0	21.7	(Cumulated figures since 1984)			(73 785)	(73 797)
Self-employed	1.3	1.0	0.4	1.0	of which: Workers ⁶	133	97	47	8
Visitors	16.9	8.5	8.4	18.0	(Cumulated figures since 1984)			(33 006)	(33 014)
Refugees	4.3	4.7	5.2	7.3					
Regularisation of foreigners					Acquisition of French nationality				
in an irregular situation	45.8	3.3	0.2	0.1	Legal procedures	58.1	67.6	77.5	64.6
Residence permit holder:					of which: Naturalisation	34.7	39.8	45.5	39.4
"private life and family"	..	19.6	31.1	34.4	Declarations	23.8	68.9	64.0	57.0
Other	..	5.7	0.4	0.4	of which: Decision following				
Total	116.9	86.3	95.2	128.1	a wedding	22.1	24.1	26.1	24.0
of which: EEA	6.2	5.6	5.4	24.6	Declaration of becoming French ⁷	25.5	–	–	–
					Other	14.8	9.0	8.6	5.9
Total registered and estimated flows¹	138.1	114.9	126.8	141.0	Total	122.3	145.4	150.0	127.6
Temporary immigration by category					Mixed marriages	26.0	30.0	34.6	39.8
Students	23.5	25.1	36.1	40.0	% of total marriages	9.6	10.5	11.6	13.8
Holders of a provisional work permit ²	4.3	5.8	7.5	9.6					
Trainees	0.5	0.7	0.9	0.9	Stocks of foreigners aged 15 and over according to work status⁸				
Total	28.3	31.6	44.5	50.5	Total foreign population	2 825.6	2 875.4	2 843.1	2 903.9
					Labour force	1 586.7	1 593.9	1 577.6	1 617.6
Inflows of asylum seekers					of which: employment	1 210.6	1 228.3	1 249.4	1 317.1
Conventional ³	22.4	30.9	38.7	47.3	Participation rate (%)	56.2	55.4	55.5	55.7
Territorial	1.4	8.2	13.8	31.2	Unemployment rate (%)	23.0	22.9	23.1	22.6

1. Estimates made by the Ministry of the Interior on the basis of residence permits issued. Registered and estimates flows by the Ministry of the Interior. Since 2000, flows of workers from the EEA are estimated by the Ministry of the Interior.

2. Provisional work permits (APT) are granted for a 9 month period and are renewable.

3. In 1998, figures are for six months only.

4. Re-admissions undertaken within the framework of international agreements.

5. In the absence of a population register, the only available data on the departures of foreigners are those which are due to administrative decisions and judicial orders concerning expulsions, removals of illegal immigrants to the border and voluntary departures assisted by the State.

6. The others are accompanying dependants of workers involved in an assisted departure procedure.

7. People born in France to foreign parents who declared their intention to become French in accordance with the legislation of 22 July 1993.

8. In March of the year indicated.

Sources: Office des migrations internationales (OMI); Office français de protection des réfugiés et apatrides (OFPRA); Ministry of the Interior; Labour Force Survey.

There were some 21 700 entries of wage-earners in 2001, 60% of whom were from EEA countries. Entries of non-EEA wage-earners rose by 47% between 2000 and 2001 although, according to the latest estimates, entries of wage-earners from EEA member countries do not seem to have increased between these dates.

Temporary and seasonal immigration

Temporary immigrants consist of people who have been granted a temporary work permit (APT), and include scientists, and also students, trainees, and “artists and authors”. In 2001, approximately 50 600 persons entered France under this heading, up 13% on the previous year.

The number of persons obtaining a temporary work permit rose by 28% between 2000 and 2001 and has more than doubled since 1998. In all, some 9 600 temporary permits were issued in 2001, of which 4 100 to persons from the Americas and 1 300 to non-EEA European nationals. This trend is explained by the upswing in entries of scientists and skilled workers in metropolitan France and by entries into the overseas territories, in particular of Brazilian gold washers in French Guyana. In any case, these immigrants were mostly skilled workers, chiefly in the tertiary sector.

Between 2000 and 2001, there was also an increase of nearly 11% in students (39 983), in particular from the Commonwealth of Independent States (CIS) (+18.4%) and Africa (+17.5%). African students accounted for 47% of all entries of foreign students into France in 2001. Lastly, 2001 was also marked by a very sharp increase in seasonal migration (10 800 seasonal workers entered France, as opposed to 8 000 the previous year). Two nationalities – Moroccans (5 400) and Poles (4 600) – accounted for nearly 90% of these entries. These workers are mainly employed in the agricultural sector.

Refugees and asylum seekers

A distinction is made in France between so-called “conventional” asylum applications (i.e. under the Geneva Convention) and “territorial” asylum applications (Act of 25 July 1952, as amended by the Act of 11 May 1998). In 2001, there were some 47 300 conventional asylum applications, up 22% on the previous year (see Table IV.10). Recent data confirm this increase, since 50 800 applications were filed in 2002 (+7.3% on 2001). In 2001, roughly 45% of asylum applications were filed by nationals of African countries (21 100 applications filed), mainly from Mali, the former Zaire, and Algeria. Asylum applications from the Russian Federation and Moldavia rose by over 70% between 2000 and 2001 (5 800 applications in 2001), while applications by Chinese nationals fell sharply (–40%). In 2001, of the 40 800 applications processed, approximately 33 500 were refused.

In addition to conventional asylum applications, France received in 2001 some 31 200 territorial asylum applications, an increase of over 125% on the previous year and a 20-fold increase between 1998 and 2001. Although it must be borne in mind that an indeterminate number of persons apply for both types of protection, a low estimate in this regard requires adding at least a further 25 000 applications to conventional applications. The vast majority of applications for territorial asylum are filed by Algerians (27 190 in 2001), but there were also some 1 800 applications filed by Romanians and roughly 500 by Turks.

Evolution of stocks of foreigners

The 1999 census put the number of foreign residents in France at 3.26 million, or 5.6% of the total population. Some 43.5% of foreigners residing in France were from Africa, nearly 41% from Europe, 13% from Asia and 2.5% from the Americas (see the 2002 edition of *Trends in International Migration* for further details).

According to statistics on French nationals registered as residing abroad, the French expatriate community stands at approximately one million persons, half of whom are living in Europe and 13% in North America. Between 2000 and 2002, the total number of expatriates seems to have decreased by over 13 000 persons.

Naturalisations

In 2001, approximately 127 600 persons acquired French nationality, which was slightly fewer than the previous year (150 000 in 2000). Of these naturalisations, 64 600 involved acquisition by decree and 57 000 acquisition by declaration of nationality. The latter category can be broken down into 24 000 acquisitions following a mixed marriage and 31 000 naturalisations of young people between the ages of 13 and 18 residing in France who were born in France of foreign parents. Lastly, it is estimated that there were just under 6 000 acquisitions involving no open formality in 2001. The share of nationals of Maghreb countries, and in particular Morocco (34 922 naturalisations in 2001), is continuing to grow and accounted for nearly 50% of total naturalisations in 2001. This brought the share of naturalisations of nationals of African countries to 61.6% (as compared to 18.5% for nationals of Asian countries).

2. Policy developments

Admission, stay and integration

In July 2003, the National Assembly adopted a Bill that significantly amends the legislation governing the immigration and residence of foreigners in France. This will also be discussed in the Senate before the end of 2003. The key features of this legislation are as follows:

- The provisions under which foreigners convicted of a crime may be deported after serving a prison sentence will no longer apply to certain categories of legal immigrants: it will no longer be legal to deport foreigners who were born in France and have lived there since childhood, or foreigners who have resided in France for over 20 years or for over 10 years if they have started a family.
- The following measures will be taken to combat illegal immigration: i) creation of a fingerprint file in conjunction with visa applications filed by non-EU nationals and border controls; ii) more severe penalties against people traffickers; iii) more thorough checks when issuing certificates of proof of lodging based on an invitation by a host; iv) extension of the period of administrative detention of foreigners in an irregular situation (32 days instead of 12).
- The conditions for obtaining a permanent residence permit will be made more stringent:
 - ❖ Residence permits will no longer be necessary for EU nationals, but nationals of third countries will now be granted the 10-year residence card after five years of residence rather than the previous three. Applicants must also show that they are “well integrated” into French society.
 - ❖ Foreigners entering for the purpose of family reunification will no longer be automatically entitled to a residence card, but will be given a temporary card. After five years, they must provide proof that they are sufficiently well integrated in order to obtain a permanent resident card. Lastly, the right of family reunification may now be refused to children born in France but who returned to their country of origin before the age of 12 without their parents.

- ❖ The duration of cohabitation required to grant a residence card to the spouse of a French national will be raised from 1 to 2 years.

In April 2003, the French government presented a programme for the integration of newly arrived immigrants consisting of 59 measures. This programme provides for the implementation of an integration contract that includes 200 to 300 hours of language training, as well as civic instruction. This contract will be implemented on a trial basis between July and December 2003 in a dozen *départements*. Initially optional, the integration contract is supposed to become compulsory as from 2004 inasmuch as it will be required in order to receive a residence card. A second facet of this programme is aimed at improving the social and career advancement of foreigners and young people from an immigrant background. The third and final facet consists of an initiative aimed at ensuring “equal treatment” and combating discrimination, in particular by stepping up prevention campaigns in schools.

In 2002, the *Fonds d'action sociale pour les travailleurs immigrés et leurs familles* (FASTIF) was renamed the *Fonds d'action et de soutien pour l'intégration et la lutte contre les discriminations* (FASILD) and the *Commissions régionales pour l'intégration des populations immigrées* (CRIPI) became the *Commissions régionales pour l'intégration et la lutte contre les discriminations* (CRILD).

Asylum and rights of refugees

The Bill reforming the right of asylum in France was adopted on 5 June 2003 by the National Assembly. This legislation will make the *Office français de protection des réfugiés et apatrides* (OFPRA) the “single window” for processing asylum applications as from 1 January 2004. The objective is to reduce the time required to process applications to an average of two months (as opposed to seven months previously), by streamlining asylum procedures. The *Commission de Recours des Réfugiés* (CRR) will become the sole appeals body.

There are currently two procedures: conventional asylum, governed by the Geneva Convention and managed by OFPRA, for those fleeing persecution by their country's authorities, and territorial asylum, managed by prefectures, for victims of non-government persecution. The Bill eliminates the latter category and establishes “alternative protection” for those who cannot claim refugee status under the Geneva Convention. The new legislation will also introduce the concept of “domestic asylum”, which should enable OFPRA to refuse applications by persons who could have found protection in an area inside their country of origin.

The Sangatte Red Cross refugee centre was permanently closed in December 2002. Of the 1 800 persons in this camp, the United Kingdom granted a two-year work visa to 1 200 Kurds. For its part, France made a commitment to grant work permits to refugees who decided to remain in France.

In 2003, France joined the European “Eurodac” system of collection and transmission of fingerprints of asylum seekers. The objective is to help determine which member state has responsibility, under the Dublin Convention, for an asylum application filed in one of these States (except for Denmark, but including Norway and Iceland).

Citizenship law

In December 2001, a circular on the acquisition of French nationality by decree and by declaration following marriage provided for the creation of a form for evaluating

applicants' language skills. This should allow for a better assessment of their ability to communicate in French and provide more accurate information for the section of their application file concerning their integration into French society.

International agreements

As from 1 January 2002, Romanian nationals are no longer required to have a visa for short stays in France.

Germany

Introduction

Output stagnated in 2002, with a GDP growth rate of only 0.2%. The OECD's prospects for Germany in 2003 are similar and the unemployment rate is expected to remain high. It reached 8.6% in 2002, an increase of 0.8 percentage points compared to the previous year, and increased again to 9.2% in the first quarter of 2003.

In 2002, Germany passed a new law on immigration which was expected to come into force in January 2003. However, the new legislation was invalidated in December 2002 by the Federal Constitutional Court for procedural reasons. The law intended to change dramatically the national approach to migration, reopening labour migration channels closed since 1973. The SPD-Green government re-introduced the law into parliament later in 2003.

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

Inflows and outflows of foreigners and nationals

Overall net migration in 2001 was 273 000, which represents a significant increase on the previous year (+63%) (see Table IV.11). On the one hand, net migration of German nationals was 84 000 in 2001 and has not varied greatly since 1998. On the other hand net migration of foreigners has more than doubled between 2000 and 2001 and reached 188 300. Migration flows of foreigners to Germany grew steadily in the years since the mid-1980s, reaching their peak in 1992. After two years with a negative migration balance in 1997 and 1998, net immigration figures for foreigners have become positive again since 1999. Net migration was highest for citizens of the Russian Federation and for Turkish and Polish nationals.

Illegal migration

Available data for illegal entrants relate only to those arrested at the border. This figure has decreased slightly by 9.1% to 28 600 in 2001 (31 500 in 2000). In 2001, the border police stopped 2 500 people smugglers (2000: 2 700). It appears that illegal migrants are increasingly using trafficking organisations.

Criminal proceedings or proceedings concerning administrative fines on account of illegal employment of foreigners were initiated in a total of 315 000 cases in 2001. This represents a significant increase compared to previous years (2000: 64 000, 1999: 27 000) and illustrates the efforts made by the German authorities to curb illegal employment of foreigners. Employers were fined EUR 127.5 million. In 2000, over 6 300 legal proceedings were instituted for suspected illegal provision of temporary workers.

Table IV.11. **Current figures on flows and stocks of foreign population and labour force, Germany**

All figures in thousands unless otherwise indicated

	1998	1999	2000	2001		1998	1999	2000	2001
Components of population changes					Naturalisations of foreign nationals	106.8	143.3	186.7	178.1
<i>Total population (Total change)</i>	-20.3	126.4	95.7	182.0	Issue of work permits	1 050.1	1 034.5	1 083.3	1 054.5
Natural increase	-67.3	-75.6	-71.7	-91.0	<i>of which:</i>				
Net migration	47.1	202.0	167.4	273.0	for a first employment ³	402.6	433.7	473.0	553.7
<i>Germans (Total change)¹</i>	163.1	175.4	160.6	159.0	Stock of foreign workers (microcensuses) – Top 5 nationalities				
Natural increase	-153.6	-156.5	-107.0	-103.1	Turkey	..	1 008	996	1 004
Net migration	80.6	83.7	81.0	84.0	Italy	..	386	395	403
Acquisition of German nationality	236.1	248.2	186.7	178.1	Greece	..	219	207	210
<i>Foreigners (Total change)</i>	-183.3	-49.1	-64.9	22.3	Croatia	..	189	195	193
Natural increase	86.3	80.9	35.3	12.1	Austria	..	118	110	115
Net migration	-33.5	118.2	86.5	188.3	Others	..	1 625	1 643	1 690
Acquisition of German nationality	-236.1	-248.2	-186.7	-178.1	Total	..	3 545	3 546	3 615
Migration of foreigners²					Contract workers (annual average)⁴	33.0	39.9	43.6	46.8
<i>Inflows by nationality</i>	605.5	673.9	648.8	685.3	<i>of which:</i>				
<i>of which:</i>					Poland	16.9	18.2	18.5	22.0
Poland	66.1	72.2	74.1	79.7	Hungary	5.0	6.4	6.7	7.3
Turkey	48.0	47.1	49.1	54.6	Croatia	2.8	3.9	5.1	5.2
Russian Federation	21.3	27.8	32.1	36.6	Romania	2.6	3.9	5.2	3.7
Italy	35.6	34.9	32.8	34.5	Czech Republic	1.1	1.4	1.4	1.4
Federal Republic of Yugoslavia	59.9	87.8	33.0	28.3	Seasonal workers by nationality⁵	201.6	223.4	219.0	277.9
Net migration by nationality	-33.5	118.2	86.5	188.3	<i>of which:</i>				
<i>of which:</i>					Poland	182.0	199.4	192.2	236.7
Russian Federation	11.0	17.7	20.7	24.5	Romania	5.6	7.1	8.7	16.6
Turkey	2.8	6.2	10.1	18.7	Slovak Republic	4.9	6.0	6.4	9.7
Poland	5.4	13.6	13.7	15.0	Croatia	3.9	3.4	4.9	6.0
Romania	0.4	2.2	7.4	1.8	Hungary	2.8	3.3	3.0	4.6
Federal Republic of Yugoslavia	14.8	39.5	-56.3	-7.6	Unemployment (national definition)				
Inflows of ethnic Germans from:					Total number of unemployed workers (Germany as a whole)	4 279.3	4 099.2	3 888.6	3 851.6
Central and Eastern Europe	103.1	104.9	95.6	98.5	Total number of unemployed workers (western Germany)	2 904.3	2 755.5	2 529.4	2 478.0
<i>of which:</i>					Unemployment rate (%) (western Germany)	10.5	8.8	8.7	8.7
Former USSR	101.6	103.6	94.6	97.4	Total number of foreign unemployed workers (western Germany)	505.2	477.7	436.8	436.8
Romania	1.0	0.9	0.5	0.4	Foreigners' unemployment rate (%) (western Germany)	19.6	18.4	16.4	16.4
Poland	0.5	0.4	0.5	0.6					
Inflows of asylum seekers	98.6	95.1	78.6	88.3					
<i>of which:</i>									
Iraq	7.4	8.7	11.6	17.2					
Turkey	11.8	9.1	9.0	10.9					
Former Yugoslavia	37.2	33.7	13.0	7.8					
Afghanistan	3.8	4.5	5.4	5.8					

Table IV.11. **Current figures on flows and stocks of foreign population and labour force**
(cont.)

All figures in thousands unless otherwise indicated

	1998	1999	2000	2001		1998	1999	2000	2001
Stock of foreign population by duration of stay									
(31 December of the year indicated)	7 319.6	7 343.6	7 296.8	7 318.6					
Less than one year (%)	5.2	5.6	5.0	5.3					
1 year to less than 4 years (%)	14.8	13.9	13.6	13.4					
4 to less than 8 years (%)	21.0	19.5	17.0	15.6					
8 to less than 10 years (%)	8.1	8.8	9.8	9.3					
10 to less than 20 years (%)	19.9	20.2	21.3	22.5					
20 years and more	31.1	31.9	33.4	33.9					
Total (%)	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0					

Note: The data cover Germany as a whole, unless otherwise indicated.

1. Figures include ethnic Germans whose German origin has been recognised, except for the acquisition of German nationality in 2000 and 2001.
2. Data are from population registers.
3. Citizens of EU member states are not included.
4. Contract workers are recruited under bilateral agreements. Quotas by country of origin are revised annually.
5. Seasonal workers are recruited under bilateral agreements and they are allowed to work 3 months per year.

Sources: Bundesanstalt für Arbeit; Statistisches Bundesamt.

Refugees and asylum seekers

The number of asylum seekers has decreased almost continuously since restrictions were imposed in 1993. Their number, however, rose in 2001 by over 12% compared to 2000, to 88 300. Iraqi (19%) and Turkish (12%) nationals were the largest groups. The rates of recognition are low. Nonetheless, in December 2001, about 1.1 million foreign nationals were resident in Germany on humanitarian grounds.

Evolution of stocks of foreigners

On 31 December 2001, just over 7.3 million foreigners resided in Germany. Slightly more than a quarter of all resident foreigners were European Union citizens (see Table IV.11). The most important national groups in the foreign population were from Turkey (26.3%), the former Yugoslavia (8.4%), Italy (8.4%), Greece (4.9%) and Poland (4.3%). The share of foreigners in the total population (8.9%) has remained almost constant since 1995. Nearly one-third of all foreigners had lived in Germany for more than 20 years. Those under 21 accounted for about 25% of the foreign population while only about 5% were 65 or older. In 1999, 13.6% of all marriages involved situations in which one spouse was German and the other a foreigner. The unemployment rate among foreigners was 17.4% compared with 10.3% for the population as a whole.

Naturalisations

In 2001, 178 100 foreigners obtained German citizenship, a decline of 4.6% compared with the previous year. Of these, 43% were Turkish nationals, even though they account for about 27% of the foreign population. As of 1 January 2000, adult foreigners may obtain German citizenship after 8 years of legal residence (previously 15 years). From the same date, children born in Germany of foreign-born parents can obtain German citizenship if one of their parents has legally resided in the country during the last 8 years.

Preliminary data for 2002 indicates 154 500 naturalisations. Between 2000 and 2002 the total number of naturalisations is thus close to 520 000, which represents a 56% increase over the past three years.

2. Policy developments

Admission, stay and integration

Legislative changes mentioned in the previous edition of *Trends in International Migration (2002)* were supposed to come into force in January 2003. The new law, voted by both legislative chambers, was however invalidated by the Federal Constitutional Court for procedural reasons. Central to this Act was the new definition of the rights of foreigners to remain and work in Germany. European Union citizens, it was intended, would be able to live and work in Germany without obtaining special permission. The number of residence permits would have been reduced from five to two. Non-EU foreigners would have been entitled to ask for work and residence permits under certain circumstances such as i) highly qualified persons with skills needed in Germany and holding a job offer or ii) highly skilled people selected through a points-based system. Temporary permits for work purposes would also have been available. On May 2003, the law was re-introduced to the German parliament which approved it once again, but the CDU/CSU opposition blocked the bill's approval in the upper house. Interior Minister Otto Schily regretted this "final outcome" emphasizing that the United States had achieved its pre-eminence in the past 50 years by winning the battle "for the best brains".

In August 2001, Germany launched a Green Card program that allowed up to 20 000 non-EU IT specialists to work in Germany for up to five years, provided that they have a university degree in the related IT field (85%) or were promised an annual salary of EUR 51 000 (15%). In January 2003, 60 000 applications had been recorded and about 13 600 green cards issued. The German government indicated that the green card programme will end on 31 July 2003.

Beginning in January 2003, foreign students in Germany may work 40 hours a week or 180 days a year without getting a work permit (previously 20 hours per week or 90 days). About 10% of the 1.8 million students in Germany are foreigners.

Citizenship law

On 1 February 2001, a general administrative order came into force to ensure uniformity in interpretation and in discretionary practice when the new nationality law is implemented by regional and municipal authorities.

In 2003, for the 40th anniversary of their bilateral co-operation, France and Germany unveiled plans for dual citizenship. However, legislators drew attention to the fact that it would take years before it could be concretely implemented.

Asylum and rights of refugees, international agreements

In situations where refugees can return to their country of origin, the Federal Government assists reintegration by providing (with partner governments) start-up assistance (e.g. low interest loans) and assistance in finding work. Bilateral agreements to facilitate this have been signed with several countries (Turkey, Chile, Vietnam, Slovenia, Croatia, the Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, Albania and the Palestinian Authority). One with Bosnia-Herzegovina has recently been concluded.

Greece

Introduction

After a brief slowdown in the Greek economy in 2002, growth might rebound to approximately 4% in 2003. In the medium term, if this trend continues, it should help lower the unemployment rate, which remained high in 2002 (over 10%).

With regard to international migration, the two vast regularisation procedures of 1998 and 2001 showed the growing size of the foreign population residing in Greece. According to estimates, foreigners accounted for 7% of the total population in 2001. The Greek authorities have considerably stepped up their efforts to combat illegal immigration, with the support of the European Union, but have been slow to implement the decisions recently made in the field of migration policy.

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

Inflows and outflows of foreigners and of nationals

According to available estimates, there are some 6 million persons of Greek origin living abroad, of whom at least 2 million are in the United States, 600 000 in the Balkan region and 500 000 in EU countries. Since 1977, over 150 000 foreigners of Greek origin have immigrated to Greece, mainly from Georgia (52%), Kazakhstan (20.3%), Russia (15.2%), Armenia (6%) and Ukraine (3%). Most of these migrants have settled in Northern Greece, i.e. in Macedonia (59%) and Thrace (15%).

Since the beginning of the 1990s, like the other South European countries, Greece has no longer been only an emigration country, but has been receiving a growing number of immigrants. Most of these come from the Balkan region, especially Albania, Bulgaria and Romania. A significant share of the recent immigration is illegal.

Analysis of the population trend shows that Greece's resident population grew by over 700 000 between 1991 and 2000. Nearly 90% of this increase can be attributed to the net immigration of foreigners, while return flows of nationals accounted for only 7.5% of this increase.

As there are no updated figures available on residence permits, the information derived from recent regularisation operations is very useful, particularly since it describes a considerable number of people who, by their very presence, are completely reshaping the profile of the foreign population residing in Greece.

Two vast regularisation operations took place in Greece in 1998 and 2001 for foreigners who had spent at least one year in the country. The first attracted over 371 000 applications, and the second some 351 000. However, it should be pointed out that a significant share of the applications processed in this second procedure may have concerned people who had already been regularised under the 1998 operation.

In 1998, over 90% of applications for regularisation were submitted by nationals of Albania (65%) and in lesser proportions, in descending order, by nationals of Bulgaria, Romania, Pakistan, Ukraine, Poland, Georgia, India, Egypt and the Philippines. Most applicants are men (72%), but the proportion varies widely depending on the nationality.

Analysis of regularisation applications in 2001 (filed between June and July 2002) reveals a decline in the share of Albanian nationals in comparison with the 1998 regularisation, and the emergence of immigrants from other countries, in particular Peru and China. The 2001 regularisation programme has also been marked by an increase in Ukrainian immigrants. By the end of 2001, over 50% of applicants under the second regularisation programme had obtained a residence permit. Furthermore, of those who obtained permits under the 1998 programme (white card), 213 000 have applied for renewal of their work and residence permits (green card). The green card is valid for one to three years and is renewable if the holder has worked for at least 150 days during the year.

Illegal migration

Over 300 000 illegal immigrants were detected in 2001. This figure is significantly higher than in previous years. To combat illegal immigration, Greece has taken measures to step up border controls in the North and East. Greece has requested greater co-operation from Europe in this field, in particular at the EU Summit in Seville in June 2002 and during the Greek presidency of the European Union in the first half of 2003, with a view to establishing a European border guard corps.

Refugees and asylum seekers

Between 1980 and 2001, according to the Greek Ministry of Public Order, a total of 42 800 asylum applications were filed and 6 660 were approved. In 2002, there were 5 660 new asylum applications, which was slightly more than in the previous year.

Evolution of stocks of foreigners

In 2001, it is estimated that there were 762 200 foreigners living legally in Greece (of whom 413 000 entered for employment reasons), amounting to around 7% of the total population, which stood at 10 900 000 according to the March 2001 census (see Table IV.12).

Table IV.12. **First results of the 2001 Population Census, Greece**

Stock of foreigners by nationality	Thousands	
	Total	<i>Of which:</i> entered Greece for employment purposes
Albania	438.0	240.7
Bulgaria	35.1	27.5
Georgia	22.9	11.1
Romania	22.0	17.3
United States	18.1	3.7
Russian Federation	17.5	7.8
Cyprus	17.4	5.0
Other	191.1	100.1
Total	762.2	413.2
<i>of which:</i> Women	346.6	168.6

Source: National Statistical Service of Greece, Population Census, 2001.

By comparison, according to the 1991 census figures, there were only 167 000 foreigners in Greece out of a total population of 10 260 000 (i.e. 1.6%).

Naturalisations

After an upsurge in the mid-1990s, the number of naturalisations has steadily declined since 1995 and this trend has continued. In 2000, only 924 people were granted Greek nationality, about 50% down on the previous year.

2. Policy developments

Admission, stay and integration

The new Act 2910/01 on “the admission and residence of foreigners in Greece and the acquisition of Greek nationality through naturalisation” entered into force on 2 June 2001. In an initial phase, this Act defines the conditions of implementation of the 2001 regularisation procedure. In a second phase, it lays down the new conditions governing the admission and residence of foreigners in Greece. At the end of 2002, this second phase had still not been implemented fully due to delays in the processing of the regularisation procedure.

Under the Act, responsibility for implementing migration policy has been transferred to the Ministry of the Interior, Public Administration and Decentralisation. Residence permits are issued by a regional Secretary-General following consultation with the newly created decentralised immigration committees. Under the terms of the Act, immigration into Greece is now linked to the labour market. The Greek Employment and Labour Organisation (OAED), which is under the supervision of the Ministry for Labour, is responsible for preparing a yearly report evaluating the needs of the labour market and the number of job vacancies by occupation and region in order to set a quota for work permits. The Act also lays down the conditions for family reunification as well as immigrants’ rights and social obligations (nine years of compulsory schooling for children; compulsory insurance to be taken out by employers; better access to the courts, social services and health care; labour market access for immigrants’ spouses). To combat the illegal employment of immigrants, employers now face heavier penalties, i.e. 3 to 6 months’ imprisonment and fines ranging from EUR 2 940 to EUR 14 700.

The Greek government is currently studying the possibility of creating a new type of residence permit, granted for an initial renewable one-year period, which will automatically be replaced by a permanent permit after five years. Immigrants would have to pay approximately EUR 150 per year to renew their permit during the first five years.

The government has recently introduced an action plan for “the social integration of migrants for the 2002-2005 period”, which provides for i) the creation of training and information centres for migrants and administrators, ii) initiatives aimed at promoting the labour market integration of immigrants, in particular through better access to training, iii) increased cultural exchanges between the different communities, iv) improvement of access to health care for migrants, and v) the creation of emergency centres to assist migrants in situations of distress.

The Immigration Policy Institute (IMEPO) was established by Presidential Decree and its nine board members were appointed in December 2002. This institute will be responsible for conducting surveys and studies in the field of immigration and for implementing various aspects of the integration programme described above. The institute

will have a budget of EUR 260 million, partly financed through Community funds, during its first four years of operation.

International agreements

A re-entry agreement was signed with Turkey in November 2001 (which entered into force on 10 February 2002), whereby illegal immigrants from Turkey are deported back to that country unless they have submitted asylum applications that are not openly groundless. Under this agreement, the Greek authorities deported some 6 000 illegal immigrants back to Turkey in 2002.

Greece ensured the EU presidency during the first six months of 2003. During this period, special attention was given to immigration-related issues, in particular the harmonisation of European policies and European co-operation in combating illegal immigration. Greece also submitted a proposal to the European Commission for the creation of a migration observatory in Athens and a network of 15 local observatories in member states to monitor and analyse migration trends in the European Union.

Hungary

Introduction

Economic growth in Hungary slowed throughout 2001, but considerably less than in the other OECD member countries, due in particular to a major budgetary effort to support the construction sector and help boost private consumption. GDP increased by 3.8% in 2001 and by 3.5% in 2002. At the same time, the unemployment rate was lower in 2001 (5.7%) than during the previous year and has remained at this level.

Migration policy has been greatly influenced in recent years by Hungary's prospective membership of the European Union, which will take effect in May 2004. With this in mind, major legislative changes were made in 2001 and 2002. The number of foreigners residing in Hungary is relatively small: some 116 400 persons hold long-term residence permits, namely 1.1% of the total population.

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

Inflows and outflows of foreigners and of nationals

In 2001, approximately 1 700 more Hungarians returned to Hungary. Since the beginning of the 1990s, net migration for nationals has been positive and has grown significantly over the past four years. More than three-quarters of Hungarians residing in other European countries live in Germany (approximately 53 200 in 2000). It is estimated that some 100 000 Hungarian citizens live in the United States, 54 000 in Canada and 27 000 in Australia.

In 2001, approximately 19 500 new entries of long-term foreign immigrants were counted, a slight reduction in numbers compared to the preceding year (20 200 in 2000) (see Table IV.13). Romanian nationals, many of whom are ethnic Hungarians, accounted for by far the largest share of these flows with 10 100 entries recorded in 2001 (51.7% of the entries), an increase of 13.5% on 2000 and 83.6% on 1999. Nevertheless, their share has decreased since 1990, when they accounted for nearly 80% of foreign immigrants, while other nationalities have been gaining ground, in particular Ukrainians (12.3% in 2001, as against 3% in 1990), EU nationals (9.2% as against 3.4%) and Chinese.

Most immigrants are of working age, since 81% were between the ages of 15 and 59. Although the majority of immigrants were males in 1999, there has been a reversal of this trend since 2000, and in 2002 they only accounted for 48% of immigrants. Lastly, the number of short-term residence permits has been rising for a number of years (29 200 temporary permits were granted in 2001, an increase of nearly 13% over the previous year).

Table IV.13. **Current figures on flows and stocks of foreign population, Hungary**

Figures in thousands unless otherwise indicated

	1998	1999	2000	2001		1998	1999	2000	2001
Registered long-term immigration by country of origin¹					Acquisition of Hungarian nationality	6.2	6.1	7.5	8.4
Romania	5.5	7.8	8.9	10.1	<i>of which, in percentage of total acquisitions:</i>				
Former USSR					Romania	59.7	57.1	56.1	61.0
<i>of which: Ukraine</i>	1.8	2.4	2.4	2.4	Former Yugoslavia	16.8	18.7	22.0	18.0
Russian Federation	0.5	0.4	0.3	0.3	Former USSR	11.1	14.4	13.5	13.4
Former Yugoslavia	1.5	2.5	1.8	1.0					
EU countries	1.6	1.9	1.8	1.8	Registered foreign workers, by country of origin³				
Other countries	5.1	5.1	4.9	3.9	Romania	10.6	14.1	17.2	22.0
Total	16.1	20.2	20.2	19.5	Former USSR	2.8	4.0	5.2	6.5
					Slovak Republic	0.5	1.0	2.9	1.8
Grants of residence permits by type of permit					Former Yugoslavia	1.0	1.2	1.4	1.3
Short-term permits (including renewals)	23.6	22.1	25.9	29.2	China	1.1	1.4	2.1	1.1
Long-term permits (including renewals)	24.5	29.5	30.9	34.0	Vietnam	0.3	0.4	0.7	0.4
Permanent permits ²	..	7.4	9.2	7.4	Other	6.2	6.3	5.5	5.5
					Total	22.4	28.5	35.0	38.6
Inflows of asylum seekers and refugees	7.1	11.5	7.8	9.6					
					Number of expulsions by nationality	22.6	18.4	19.6	14.0
Stocks of foreign residents (long-term and permanent residents)					<i>of which:</i>				
by country of origin					Romania	10.2	11.3	13.0	8.8
Romania	..	48.6	41.6	45.0	Federal Republic of Yugoslavia	7.1	2.6	1.0	0.9
Former Yugoslavia	..	15.3	12.7	12.0	Ukraine	0.8	0.7	1.2	0.8
Ukraine	..	7.6	8.9	9.8	China	0.5	0.5	0.9	0.3
Germany	..	8.5	7.5	7.7	Afghanistan	0.4	0.5	-	-
China	..	7.7	5.8	6.8					
Other	..	39.4	33.5	35.1	Number of deportations by nationality	16.6	12.9	12.9	9.0
Total	..	127.0	110.0	116.4	<i>of which:</i>				
<i>of which: Women</i>	..	63.8	56.5	59.6	Romania	6.9	7.4	8.3	5.4
					Federal Republic of Yugoslavia	6.1	2.0	0.8	0.6

1. Foreigners who have been residing in the country for at least a year and who currently hold a long-term permit. Data are presented by actual year of entry (whatever the type of permit when entering the country).

Data include ethnic Hungarians.

2. Number of applications for a permanent permit which have been approved.

3. Valid work permits at the end of the year.

Sources: Ministry of the Interior; Central Statistical Office.

Illegal migration

According to some estimates, during the period of high seasonal employment (*e.g.*, in the summer for agriculture and tourism) the number of illegal workers is twice as high as that of work permit holders. Most foreign workers enter on a tourist visa. Many of them are from neighbouring countries and go back and forth as work opportunities arise.

In 2001, some 14 000 persons were deported by the authorities (2 700 during the first half of 2002), which was down 28% on the previous year. Those deported were mainly Romanians (8 829), Moldavians (1 413), nationals of the former Yugoslavia (893), Ukrainians (846) and Turks (435). The data collected on the first half of 2002 show that once again most of those deported were Romanians.

Refugees and asylum seekers

In 2001, some 9 600 people applied for political asylum as against 7 800 the previous year (see Table IV.13). Since 2000, the majority of asylum seekers no longer come from the former Yugoslavia, but also from the Russian Federation, Bangladesh, Somalia and Sierra Leone. The vast majority of asylum seekers enter Hungary illegally. For example, between January and November 2002, out of 5 687 asylum seekers registered, 5 094 had entered illegally (the figures for 2001 being 9 554 and 8 119). For most asylum seekers, Hungary is only a country of transit to the European Union. However, asylum seekers from the former Yugoslavia are an exception since a large proportion of them settle in Hungary.

Evolution of stocks of foreigners

In 2001, there were some 116 400 foreign residents holding long-term permits. This population consisted mainly of persons from Romania (38.6%), the former Yugoslavia (10%) and Ukraine (8.4%), followed by German and Chinese nationals, whose numbers have been declining recently. Approximately 51% of foreign residents are women.

Naturalisations

In 2001, more than 8 400 persons were naturalised, which was as many as in 1997, but 12% more than in 2000. Approximately two-thirds of them were Romanians, followed by nationals of the former Yugoslavia (18%) and the Russian Federation (13.4%). However, it should be noted that 70% of those naturalised had Hungarian ascendants and 10% were married to a Hungarian.

2. Policy developments

Admission, stay and integration

In view of EU accession, in 2001 the Hungarian Parliament voted a new Act on the admission and residence of foreigners. This Act, which entered into force on 1 January 2002, introduces a new visa system in line with the legislation governing the Schengen area, and also provides for the creation of residence permits of indefinite duration to replace the current immigration permits. The Act also makes provision for the establishment within the Ministry of the Interior of an administrative body responsible for the police, border guards and the refugee office.

Citizenship law and ethnic Hungarians

The new Citizenship Act, which entered into force on 1 July 2001, is aimed at facilitating naturalisation for foreigners who were born, and have lived, in Hungary. Minors adopted by Hungarians may be naturalised. Foreigners who wish to acquire Hungarian nationality must take an examination in Hungarian on the country's institutions. However, persons over the age of 65, those who have obtained a higher education degree in Hungary or who cannot take the examination for medical reasons are now exempted from doing so. Lastly, persons who renounced Hungarian nationality in order to acquire another nationality but did not succeed in doing so may recover their nationality of origin through a simplified procedure in less than one year.

The Act on the Admission and Residence of Foreigners, which entered in force on 1 January 2002, contains a provision that enables ethnic Hungarians who do not have Hungarian nationality but who live in neighbouring countries and do not have a residence

permit in Hungary to benefit from social protection in Hungary. In all, these measures might concern some three million people.

Asylum and rights of refugees

Asylum seekers may benefit from a housing allowance, subsistence grants, education, family, travel and repatriation assistance, and reimbursement of medical expenses and of application fees. They are also able to take Hungarian language courses. This measure is supplemented by provisions that ensure that they have access to health services.

Measures against the employment of undocumented immigrants

In order to implement readmission agreements more effectively, the new Act on the Admission and Residence of Foreigners authorises border guards to place illegal immigrants in temporary detention before their expulsion. In order to combat migrant traffickers, the Act also allows residence permits to be granted to foreigners who help the Hungarian authorities to uncover networks. Moreover, the Ministers of the Interior, Financial Affairs and Social and Family Affairs have taken joint measures to help identify foreigners entering Hungary more accurately and to obtain more information about illegal activities.

International agreements

Hungary has signed readmission agreements with a number of European countries. In the 1990s, most such agreements were with its neighbouring countries (with the exception of the former Yugoslavia). Today, it has agreements with 21 countries. Hungary signed agreements with Albania, the Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, Latvia and the other countries of the former Yugoslavia in 2001 and with Estonia in 2002. Other agreements are currently being negotiated with Lithuania and the Benelux countries. Lastly, Hungary is seeking to affirm its role at the European level in combating illegal immigration. For example, the Budapest Process, which brings together 40 States for the purpose of pan-European action against illegal migration, has been revitalised since the Prague Ministerial Conference in 1997.

Ireland

Introduction

Ireland has now had more the 10 years of rapid growth, with the unemployment rate having been brought down from some 14% to less than 4%. Ireland experienced a spectacular GDP growth of more than 10% in 2000 and unexpected resilience in 2001 and 2002 with approximately 6%, well above EU and OECD averages.

Ireland has undoubtedly become an immigration country with an increasing positive net immigration for nationals and foreigners. Labour migration, including of unskilled and semi-skilled workers, plays a major role in these flows. Nonetheless, as a result of the relative economic slow down, the Irish authorities have recently decided to limit the number of work permits. They have also taken specific measures to better manage asylum migration.

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

Table IV.14 shows Irish annual migration flows, both gross and net, until 2002. After a period in the early 1990s when the net migration balance remained near to zero, in more recent years the trend has turned significantly positive. In the twelve-month period to April 2002 the gross outflow was less than 20 000, but the inflow was nearly 48 000, resulting in a net inward migration of 29 000. In the ten-year period in question aggregate net inward migration was over 130 000, accounting for close on 40% of the total population rise of 344 000 between 1992 and 2002.

Inflows and outflows of foreigners and of nationals

Inward migration has thus become a much more important phenomenon in Ireland in recent years.

In terms of age distribution, immigrants aged 25 years or over currently constitute nearly 60% of the total inflow, a proportion that has increased somewhat in recent years. Within this broad age group there is 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. Children aged less than 15 years accounted for about 10% of inward migrants in 2002.

The inward flows now involve increasing numbers of non-nationals. The proportion of non-nationals (as distinct from returning Irish) in these annual flows rose from about 35% in the early 1990s to over 60% in the year to April 2002. The estimates for the latter period indicate that some 10% of the total inflow were UK nationals, about 13% were from other EU states, less than 5 were citizens of the United States, while over a third were from other countries. It will be noted that the share for the last mentioned group has increased dramatically in recent years, from a level of less than 10% in the early 1990s.

Table IV.14. **Current figures on flows and stocks of foreign population and labour force, Ireland**

Figures in thousands unless otherwise indicated

	1999	2000	2001	2002
Immigration by last country of residence¹	47.5	42.3	46.2	47.5
United Kingdom	21.6	16.4	15.5	13.1
Other EU countries	10.0	9.8	8.7	8.5
United States	5.7	4.6	4.4	4.1
Other countries	10.2	11.5	17.5	21.8
<i>% of returning Irish citizens</i>	54.5	43.0	39.3	37.9
Emigration of both Irish and foreign people by country of destination¹	29.0	22.3	19.9	18.8
United Kingdom	10.2	6.3	5.3	5.1
Other EU countries	4.5	4.3	4.1	3.5
United States	5.4	3.2	2.3	3.5
Other countries	8.9	8.5	8.1	6.6
Net migration of both Irish nationals and foreigners¹	18.5	20.0	26.3	28.8
United Kingdom	11.4	10.1	10.2	8.0
Other EU countries	5.5	5.5	4.6	5.0
United States	0.3	1.4	2.1	0.6
Other countries	1.3	3.0	9.4	15.2
Stock of total population²	3 744.7	3 786.9	3 839.1	3 897.0
Irish nationals	3 626.7	3 660.4	3 687.7	3 715.2
Total foreign population	117.8	126.5	151.4	181.8
United Kingdom	68.8	66.9	74.0	74.1
Other EU countries	20.8	25.3	25.2	27.3
United States	9.9	8.0	10.2	10.2
Other countries	18.3	26.3	42	70.2
<i>% of foreign population in total population</i>	3.2	3.3	3.9	4.7
Asylum seekers	7.7	10.9	10.3	11.6
Work permits issued and renewed	6.3	18.0	36.4	40.3
By nationality				
Central and Eastern Europe	1.3	8.0	20.0	21.2
India and Pakistan	0.6	1.1	1.6	1.7
United States and Canada	1.1	1.9	1.5	1.1
Other countries	3.3	7.0	13.4	16.4
By sector of activity				
Agriculture	0.4	3.0	5.7	6.2
Industry	0.4	1.8	3.1	3.1
Services	5.4	13.3	27.6	31.0
Employment by nationality²	1 591.1	1 670.6	1 716.5	1 750.4
Irish nationals	1 537.9	1 610.7	1 638.2	1 655.0
Foreigners in employment	53.2	59.9	78.3	95.3
United Kingdom	31.5	31.9	35.7	37.1
Other EU countries	12.3	15.6	17.4	18.2
United States	3.3	2.8	3.3	..
Other countries	6.2	9.6	21.8	..
Employment to total population ratio				
Irish nationals (%)	42.4	44.0	44.4	44.5
Foreigners (%)	45.2	47.4	51.7	52.4
United Kingdom (%)	45.8	47.7	48.2	50.1
Other EU countries (%)	59.1	61.7	69.0	66.7
United States (%)	33.3	35.0	32.4	..
Other countries (%)	33.9	36.5	51.9	..

1. CSO estimates made on the basis of 1996 Census results.

2. Estimated from the annual Labour Force Survey. Fluctuations from year to year may be due to sampling error.

Sources: Central Statistical Office; Labour Force Survey.

Outward migration, even though still of significant proportions, has become a much less important feature of the socio-economic landscape in Ireland in recent years. Table IV.14 has already shown that the gross population outflow declined from about 35 000 in the early 1990s* to less than 20 000 in the year to April 2002.

Irish emigration has tended to apply predominantly to persons who are young, even though when economic conditions in Ireland are depressed, it can extend to the older age groups and also involve family groups. Most of the current emigrants possess skills and qualifications, and many tend to return at a later date. Recent figures suggest that emigrants now tend to travel to a much more diverse range of countries than in earlier years. In the year to April 2002 about 27% of emigrants went to the United Kingdom, some 20% to other EU states, a similar proportion to the United States, and 35% to other countries.

Inflows of work permit holders

One of the principal causes underlying the recent large immigrant flows relates to non-EEA citizens entering under the Irish Work Permit system. Such permits apply to all engagements for financial gain, including those of short duration. The system is employer based and the initiative must be taken by the employer in the first instance to obtain the permit prior to the entry of the employee into the State. The Permits, which are issued for one year with the possibility of renewal, are intended to relate to posts that cannot be filled by Irish or other EEA nationals.

Until recently the number of workers entering the country with such permits was small and did not change very much over the years. However, as a consequence of the booming labour market, the number of permits issued and renewed escalated in the late 1990s. The number rose from just under 6 000 in 1998 to over 40 000 in 2002.

The recent influx of non-EEA workers has involved a diverse range of nationalities, with more than one half of the total inflow coming from the broad Eastern European region (including the countries of the former Soviet Union). There have also been very large increases in the case of citizens of South Africa and the Philippines.

The great majority of those now entering under the Work Permit system engage in mainly unskilled or semi-skilled work. This is in contrast to earlier periods when such immigrants tended to fill mainly skilled positions. In order to shed more light on this aspect steps have recently been taken to classify the jobs associated with Work Permit Programme by occupation. While the information available thus far is limited, it does tend to confirm that the occupational profile of these jobs is weighted heavily towards the less skilled end of the labour market. Work Permit data compiled for the period from September to December 2002 indicate that more than 70% of the posts in question relate to unskilled or semi-skilled activities, while only some 15% involved managerial or professional functions.

As from early 2002 certain restrictions were applied to the Work Permit system. New applications are not now accepted unless accompanied by a confirmation from the National Training and Employment Authority (FÁS) stating that all reasonable efforts had been made by the employer to find an Irish or other EEA national to fill the vacancy on offer. The fees associated with obtaining permits were also increased. This caused the number of new applications to fall, but renewals (to which the new restrictions did not

* The outflow was between 60 000 and 70 000 in the late 1980s.

apply) rose substantially resulting, as indicated, a total of more than 40 000 applications issued and renewed in 2002.

Refugees and asylum seekers

The inflow into Ireland of asylum seekers or persons seeking refugee status continues to remain at a high level, representing a further factor underpinning the increased immigration flows. The annual numbers were of negligible proportions at the beginning of the 1990s but had risen to 11 500 in 2002. Over the eight years from the beginning of 1994 to end-December 2002 the total number of applicants exceeded 50 000. Official figures indicate that in this period some 40% of asylum seekers were of Romanian origin, about a third were from Nigeria and 10% from the Democratic Republic of the Congo. The remainder of the inflows involved a diverse range of nationalities.

The number of persons who have been granted official refugee status is relatively small. When viewed in a cumulative fashion over an extended time-span in order that all aspects of the process of determination for establishing refugee status (including Appeals) can be taken account of, the calculated recognition rate is just under 9%.

Evolution of stocks of foreigners

The migration trends as described have obviously had an impact on the Irish population when viewed in terms of nationalities. The number of foreign residents has increased substantially. The data given in the main SOPEMI report show that in April 2002, out of a total population of 3 897 000, it was estimated that 182 000 (or 4.7%) were foreign nationals. In 1998 the estimated foreign population was 111 000, or 3% of the total.

While the majority of foreign residents in Ireland are EU passport holders (just over 100 000 in 2002) the number of non-EU nationals has been growing rapidly. In the period from 2001 to 2002 alone the latter number rose from 52 000 to over 80 000, or by over 50% in a single year. These figures compare with an estimated 26 000 non-EU nationals in 1998.

2. Policy developments

Admission, stay and integration

Even though the 1935 Aliens Act has been amplified from time to time through the introduction of Ministerial Orders made under that Act, it remains the basis of legislation relating to right of entry and residence for non-nationals. However, the rapid increase in the immigration of non-nationals in recent years and the large influx of asylum seekers created an entirely new situation. This led to the introduction of the 1996 Refugee Act (and subsequent amendments) and the 1999 Immigration Act, the main purpose of which was to set out in law the circumstances in which a person could be deported. More recently, proposals for a new comprehensive Immigration Act to replace the 1935 legislation have been circulated. The Department of Justice, Equality and Law Reform, in co-operation with a number of other government departments and bodies, has been involved in the development of the new immigration legislation that will allow adequate responses to immigration policy requirements as they continue to evolve. It is expected that this measure will be enacted in mid-2003.

Asylum and rights of refugees

Deportations. As in other countries, this has proved to be a difficult and controversial issue, involving legal challenges and controversy in relation to individual cases. There were 365 deportations carried out on the basis of statutory Deportation Orders in 2001. In order to facilitate the process the Irish government has concluded, or is in the process of concluding, Readmission Agreements with Romania, Nigeria, Poland and Bulgaria. The arrangements with Nigeria have encountered particular criticism arising from some of the sentences imposed on women by Islamic courts in that country.

Births to Female Asylum Seekers. Another controversial factor relates to claims that a large proportion of women asylum seekers are pregnant when they enter the country. The fact that the Irish Constitution guarantees (without qualification) that any person born in Ireland is an Irish citizen is considered to be a relevant influence. Moves to deport unsuccessful asylum seeker applicants who are also parents in these circumstances have been challenged in the High Court, but the government's decision to proceed with the deportations was upheld. These judgements were subsequently upheld on appeal to the Irish Supreme Court.

Accelerated Procedures for Asylum Determination. There has also been controversy surrounding this issue which relates primarily to expediting procedures for determining whether applications for asylum are deemed to be "manifestly unfounded". There has been a large increase in the number of such cases, giving rise to concern that some applications for asylum were not being adequately considered. However, a recent High Court judgement upheld the established procedures, noting in particular that the absence of provision for an oral hearing on appeal did not infringe the applicant's right to natural and constitutional justice.

Italy

Introduction

Despite continuing low growth (0.4% in 2002 and probably no more than 1 per cent in 2003) and an unchanging unemployment rate of about 10% the Italian economy continues to draw incoming migrants. Despite a negative natural increase, the Italian population remained constant at about 57.7 million in 2001 because of substantial inward migration. While there was an increase in stocks of foreign population measured at the local level, a change in the statistical system showed national figures for permit-holders remaining largely stable.

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

Inflows and outflows of foreigners and of nationals

In 2001, almost 232 900 new permits were issued to foreigners arriving from outside Italy (see Table IV.15). This is a sharp increase over the previous year, when only 155 300 foreigners received permits, although 116 200 other persons were granted permits in that year under the 1998 regularisation. The main groups of incomers still in Italy at year's end were Albanians (27 900), Romanians (18 700) and Moroccans (17 800). All other nationalities were under 10 000.

The 1998 framework law introduced a quota system for foreign labour, which is divided up by region, type of labour, job category and nationality. The total entry quota was set to 89 400 in 2001. This includes, 39 400 seasonal workers, 15 000 sponsored entry for job seekers, 12 000 dependent workers, 3 000 nurses and high tech workers and 11 000 favoured nationalities (6 000 for Albania, 3 000 for Tunisia, 1 500 for Morocco and 500 for Somalia).

Seasonal work remains important in Italy – especially in tourism and agriculture – and most of the quotas have been for seasonal workers. Approximately 30 300 seasonal workers were authorised to enter Italy in 2001, less than the total quota of 39 400 allocated.

According to the national disability insurance institute INAIL, 9.9% of all job-starters in 2001 were non-EU citizens, a figure which rose to 11.3% (680 200) in 2002, of which 83 000 were self-employed (10% of the foreign labour force).

Illegal migration

Italy has a long coastline which is difficult to patrol. Traffickers have shifted their entry routes from the Adriatic to the southern Mediterranean. Most interceptions of boats with undocumented immigrants now take place off the coast of Sicily. The number of foreigners expelled or ordered to leave the country was 130 800 in 2000 and 133 600 in 2001. The percentage of persons physically expelled rose 11% to just over 56%.

Table IV.15. **Current figures on foreign population, Italy**

Figures in thousands unless otherwise indicated

	1998	1999	2000	2001		1998	1999	2000	2001
New residence permits issued¹					Foreigners who hold a residence permit³	1 250.2	1 252.0	1 388.2	1 362.6
by nationality						(1 033.2)			
Albania	11.2	37.2	31.2	27.9	By region of origin				
Romania	5.9	20.9	20.7	18.7	Europe	401.4	499.1	556.6	563.9
Morocco	7.3	24.9	24.7	17.8	Africa	297.6	356.8	385.6	366.6
China	3.4	11.0	15.4	8.8	Asia	195.6	239.8	277.6	259.8
Poland	3.9	6.7	7.1	8.7	America	135.6	153.0	165.0	158.2
Other	79.3	167.4	172.5	150.7	Others	3.1	3.3	3.3	14.2
Total	111.0	268.0	271.5	232.8	By reason for presence				
New work permits	182.0	219.0	145.3	92.4	Employment ⁴	588.7	747.6	850.7	803.2
Inflows of seasonal workers²					Family reunification	251.9	308.2	354.9	393.9
by region of nationality					Study	29.9	30.7	35.7	30.8
Europe	..	19.6	29.4	27.9	Religion	54.5	54.3	55.1	48.9
Africa	..	0.4	0.9	1.5	Tourism (long-term)	9.5	10.3	8.5	..
Other	..	0.4	0.7	1.0	Retirees	41.1	-	45.3	44.6
Total	16.5	20.4	30.9	30.3	Asylum seekers/refugees ⁵	6.2	5.4	6.3	15.3
Inflows of asylum seekers	11.1	33.4	24.5	13.3	Others and not specified	51.6	95.5	31.7	26.0
Acquisition of Italian nationality	9.8	11.3	9.6	10.4	By region of residence				
					North	674.0	670.8	761.3	773.4
					Central	367.7	368.6	422.5	396.8
					South	208.5	143.9	143.1	133.3
					Islands	-	68.7	61.3	59.2
					Stocks of foreign employment⁶	614.6	747.6	850.7	800.7
					Registered foreign unemployed⁷	206.0	204.6	91.0	59.1

1. New entries were 130 745 in 1999 and 155 264 in 2000. The other permits issued in these years were first-time permits issued to foreigners who had applied for amnesty in 1998.

2. Figures refer to new arrivals of non-EU foreigners with agricultural work contracts based on authorisations to hire "foreign" labor conceded annually until 1997. For 2000 they are for all seasonal workers in agriculture, industry and services.

3. Data are from residence permits and refer to 31 December of the years indicated. In 1998 data were 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).

4. Including self-employed and unemployed.

5. Includes applications and not issued permits.

6. Number of non-EU foreigners who hold a work permit. Excluding unemployed with a residence permit who are registered in the local employment offices.

7. Excluding EU citizens. Since 2000, data refer to foreigners who are officially job seekers. These figures reflect only those foreigners who hold permits for job seeking, and do not capture those who have lost their job and have not yet renewed their permit.

Sources: Ministry of the Interior; ISTAT.

Law 189/02 also provided for a regularisation for two categories of workers: domestic helpers and wage-earners. More than 700 000 applications were filed between 11 September and 11 November 2002 (341 100 domestic workers and 361 000 wage-earners). Regularisation required payment of 3 months' pension contribution and proof of continued employment. Many applicants were undocumented migrants working in the informal sector; others were those whose previous permit had expired, students or even asylum seekers and failed asylum seekers.

Refugees and asylum seekers

In 2001, 13 250 asylum applications were made in Italy. The acceptance rate for these applications has been low – below 10% – for the past decade, although many applicants have received temporary residence permits for humanitarian reasons. All told, 5 150 foreigners had refugee status permits in 2001, and 4 650 had “humanitarian” permits.

Evolution of stocks of foreigners

According to the Ministry of the Interior there were more than 1 362 000 foreigners with a valid residence permit in Italy in 2001, but Caritas estimates the figure to be 21% higher (see Table IV.15). Most of them were European (563 900), but the main nationalities of foreigners remained Moroccans (158 100), Albanians (144 100), Romanians (75 400), Filipinos (64 200) and Chinese (56 600). Ukraine is an increasingly important sending country. Most foreigners with a residence permit in Italy came for employment reasons (803 100) and live in the northern regions of the country (773 400).

With the Italian birth rate far below replacement rate, *births to foreigners* have become more significant in relative terms. Their number reached 25 900 in 2000, a 22.3% increase over the previous year and accounting for 4.8% of all births. In many regions of the country – especially the cities and the north – the percentage of foreign births is well over 10%.

Naturalisations

Naturalisation remains limited in Italy and concerns mostly those who marry an Italian citizen. Rejection rates for naturalisation run at about 66%, and eligibility requirements are very strict. Within Italy, only 10 381 foreigners were naturalised in 2001, an 8.2% increase over 2000. Six out of seven naturalisations took place following marriage to an Italian.

2. Policy developments

Admission, stay and integration

A new immigration law was passed in 2002 – the so-called Bossi-Fini Law or Law 189 – which modified the 1998 Framework Law 286. The law introduces changes in the procedures for admission of workers and eliminates the “sponsor” system for job-seekers. Long-term residence cards are issued after 6 years instead of 5 years, and unemployed foreigners have 6 months to find a job – rather than 1 year – before they must leave the country. The expulsion system is reinforced through the creation of new holding centres and an increase in expulsion measures.

Asylum and rights of refugees

Law 189/02 makes changes in the asylum application procedure first outlined in the 1990 Martelli law, although these changes have not yet been fully applied since no application regulation has yet been passed. The new law creates local commissions to rapidly evaluate applications, and institutes holding centres for asylum seekers. Rejected applicants may appeal but the appeal does not suspend expulsion.

Measures against the employment of undocumented immigrants

Law 189/02 stiffens the penalties for employers of undocumented foreigners; it also led to the 2002 “emersion” or regularisation scheme under which 700 000 applications were filed.

International agreements

Law 189/02 ties foreign aid programmes to co-operation in the fight against undocumented migration. Italy has signed numerous readmission agreements. In 2001 it also ratified a working holiday scheme with New Zealand, although few have come to Italy under the programme. Italy also has bilateral agreements to favour seasonal work with Albania and Tunisia.

Japan

Introduction

The Japanese economy continues to face a serious deflationary situation, although it experienced a cyclical recovery phase in mid-2002 underpinned by inventory correction and a sharp pickup in exports. According to OECD estimates, activity might grow by just under 1% per year in 2003 and 2004. The unemployment rate, which is usually very low in Japan, is on the rise (5% in 2001 and 5.4% in 2002).

With regard to international migration, inflows rose in 2001, but considerably less than during the previous year. In all, the number of foreigners registered in Japan reached a new peak of 1 780 000 in 2001, or 1.4% of the total population. It is also estimated that over 224 000 foreigners are in an irregular situation. In 2001, the Japanese government implemented a variety of measures aimed at facilitating the immigration of highly skilled workers, especially in the sector of new information and communication technologies. More recently, it has undertaken a reform of the law on asylum.

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

Inflows and outflows of foreigners and of nationals

Persons who stay in Japan for more than 90 days are considered to be immigrants and must be officially registered as such. Their numbers grew by 5.5% between 2000 and 2001, or an additional 92 000 persons (as compared with 130 000 additional registrations between 1999 and 2000). Nearly 60% of new immigrants come from Asia (40% of whom from Korea and 39% from Chinese Taipei), 18% from North America (83% of whom from the United States and approximately 15% from Canada) and 17% from Europe (just under 24% of whom from the United Kingdom and 11% from Germany).

Foreigners who immigrate to Japan obtain residence status for a period that varies according to their occupation in Japan or their personal status as a foreigner eligible to enter and reside there. They may apply for an extension of this period if their circumstances remain the same, except in the case of entertainers.

Over the past two years, the number of foreigners who have obtained residence status for employment reasons has risen considerably (over 30% since 1999). This is chiefly due to the increase in entries of entertainers, which constitute the largest group of foreigners holding work permits (117 800 in 2001). All other categories are well under 10 000 permits per year (see Table IV.16). In 2001, there was even a decline in the number of residence permits granted to highly skilled workers (2 100 permits as against 3 500 in 2000).

In 2001, entries of trainees (59 000) also rose by over 9%. Approximately 90% of the total are from other Asian countries. The “student” category also rose sharply in 2001, totalling 23 400 entries. The number of residence permits granted for reasons other than

Table IV.16. **Inflows of foreigners by status of residence, 1998-2001, Japan**

Thousands

	1998	1999	2000	2001	% change 2000-2001
Total¹	265.5	281.9	345.8	351.2	1.6
Diplomat and official	16.5	18.1	21.2	20.9	-1.2
Residents with restricted permission to work	101.9	108.0	129.9	141.9	9.3
<i>of which:</i>					
Entertainer	73.8	82.3	103.3	117.8	14.1
Specialist in humanities or international services	7.2	6.5	7.0	6.9	-1.3
Engineer	5.7	3.7	3.4	3.3	-2.6
Intra-company transferee	3.5	3.8	3.9	3.5	-10.7
Instructor	3.3	3.2	3.3	3.3	-0.8
Skilled labour	3.0	3.4	3.5	2.1	-40.0
Professor	1.4	1.5	1.9	2.0	5.7
Religious activities	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.1	-7.8
Investor and business manager	1.2	1.0	0.9	0.7	-21.1
Researcher	1.2	1.1	1.0	0.8	-23.5
Journalist	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	-28.1
Artist	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	26.3
Cultural activities	3.7	3.7	3.2	3.1	-2.2
Student	28.0	33.9	41.9	47.3	13.0
Trainee	49.8	48.0	54.0	59.1	9.3
Dependant	16.1	16.7	17.6	16.4	-7.1
"Designated activities"	3.0	2.9	4.4	4.7	8.2
Long-term residents	46.4	50.5	73.6	57.7	-21.6
<i>of which:</i>					
Spouse and child of Japanese national	24.6	26.7	33.2	27.5	-17.2
Spouse and child of permanent resident	0.4	0.3	0.4	0.5	27.0
Other	21.5	23.5	40.0	29.7	-25.7

1. Excluding temporary visitors and re-entries: including renewals of permits.

Source: Ministry of Justice.

employment, on the other hand, fell by nearly 22% in comparison with the previous year. Most of the 57 700 people in this category in 2001 entered either as long-term residents or as spouses or children of Japanese nationals. The vast majority of long-term residents are descendants of Japanese who emigrated to Latin America (primarily to Brazil and Peru).

Illegal migration

The number of those who overstayed their visa was 224 067 in 2001, which was 3.5% fewer than the previous year and 25% fewer than in 1993, when there was a record number of nearly 300 000 illegal immigrants. Nearly a quarter of illegal immigrants are Korean nationals, 13% are Chinese, 12% Filipino and 7.5% Thai.

There are two main explanations for this decrease in the number of illegal immigrants: the economic downturn in Japan and the measures taken by the Japanese authorities to combat illegal immigration. These measures have resulted in tightened visa control, better co-operation at the national and international level and information campaigns to dissuade employers from hiring illegal workers.

In 2001, some 40 800 persons were deported, which was 20.8% fewer than in the previous year. Of these, just under 9 000 had tried to enter Japan illegally and 30 100 had

overstayed their visa. In addition, 33 500 people working illegally in Japan were identified (44 200 in 2000). Approximately 25% of these were Korean and 21% were Chinese.

Refugees and asylum seekers

Since 1996, the number of applications for asylum has been rising steadily but remains very low in comparison with the situation in other OECD member countries. Between 1982 and 2001, approximately 2 500 foreign nationals applied for refugee status and 291 were accepted (11% acceptance rate). However, applicants denied refugee status may be allowed to stay in Japan for humanitarian reasons. In 2001, special permission of this type was granted to 67 persons. Japan has also accepted refugees from the Indo-Chinese peninsula since 1975. Between 1975 and 2001, some 10 800 refugees from this region have been allowed into Japan.

Evolution of stocks of foreigners

In 2001, there were approximately 1 778 000 foreigners legally residing in Japan, accounting for 1.4% of the total population. The provisional data for 2002 show a figure of 1 851 758. Koreans constitute the largest groups of foreigners (35.5%), although this percentage is falling as the proportion of Chinese, Brazilians and Filipinos continues to grow (see Table IV.17). More than half of foreigners are aged between 20 and 40.

Nearly 40% of foreigners hold permanent residence permits (684 900 in 2001), the majority of whom are Koreans and nationals of Chinese Taipei. There also were 531 900 long-term residents in 2001. Long-term residents are mainly the spouses or children of Japanese citizens, and they are authorised to work without restriction just like permanent residents.

Naturalisations

In 2001, some 15 300 foreigners obtained Japanese nationality. This figure is 3% lower than in the previous year. In all, since 1952 over 348 000 persons have been naturalised in Japan. Most of those naturalised were from Korea (67.3% of cases) and China (28.6% of cases).

Mixed marriages

Since the end of the 1980s, the share of mixed marriages in the total number of marriages has more than doubled, rising from 2.4% in 1988 to 5% in 2001, when there were 39 700 mixed marriages (+8.5% over 2000). In 80% of cases, such marriages are between Japanese men and foreign women. The vast majority of these women (90%) are from Asia. 18% of Japanese women who marry a foreign man marry a US citizen.

2. Policy developments

Admission, stay and integration

In 1999, the Japanese government defined the general direction of its migration policy by issuing the report “Ideal Society and Policies for Economic Rebirth” and approving the “9th Basic Plan for Employment Measures”. Under these measures, it was decided to promote the immigration of skilled workers to Japan while maintaining a cautious policy regarding unskilled workers and reinforcing efforts to combat illegal immigration. The measures recently implemented reflect these policies.

For example, since December 2001, as part of its “e-Japan strategy”, the Japanese government has been implementing a plan aimed at attracting some 30 000 new information

Table IV.17. **Current figures on flows and stocks of foreign population and labour force, Japan**

Thousands

	1998	1999	2000	2001
Inflows of foreign nationals¹	265.5	281.9	345.8	351.2
Stock of foreign nationals²	1 512.1	1 556.1	1 686.4	1 778.5
<i>% of total population³</i>	1.2	1.2	1.3	1.4
By country of origin				
Korea	638.8	636.5	635.3	632.4
China (including Chinese Taipei)	272.2	294.2	335.6	381.2
Brazil	222.2	224.3	254.4	266.0
Philippines	105.3	115.7	144.9	156.7
Peru	41.3	42.8	46.2	50.1
Other country	232.3	242.6	270.2	292.2
By status of residence				
Permanent residents ⁴	626.8	635.7	657.6	684.9
Long-term residents	482.3	492.5	523.9	531.9
<i>of which:</i>				
Spouse or child of Japanese national	264.8	270.8	279.6	280.4
Spouse or child of permanent resident	6.2	6.4	6.7	7.0
Other	211.3	215.3	237.6	244.5
Foreign workers with permission of employment	119.0	125.7	154.7	168.8
Other (accompanying family, student, trainee, etc.)	284.0	302.1	350.2	392.9
Naturalisations	14.8	16.1	15.8	15.3
<i>of which:</i>				
Korea	9.6	10.1	9.8	10.3
China	4.6	5.3	5.2	4.4
Foreign labour force (estimates)⁵	670	670	710	740
Foreign residents with permission of employment by status of residence⁶				
Specialist in humanities or international services	31.3	31.8	34.7	40.9
Entertainer	28.9	32.3	53.8	55.5
Engineer	15.2	15.7	16.5	19.4
Skilled labour	10.0	10.5	11.3	11.9
Instructor	7.9	8.1	8.4	9.1
Intra-company transferee	6.6	7.4	8.7	9.9
Professor	5.4	5.9	6.7	7.2
Investor and business manager	5.1	5.4	5.7	5.9
Religious activities	4.9	5.0	5.0	4.9
Researcher	2.8	2.9	2.9	3.1
Journalist	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.3
Artist	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.4
Medical services	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Legal and accounting services	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Total	119.0	125.7	154.7	168.8
Trainees and Working Holiday Makers	19.6	23.3	29.7	37.8
Estimates of students engaged in part-time jobs	38.0	47.0	59.4	65.5
Estimates of Japanese descents engaged in gainful activities⁷	220.8	220.5	233.2	239.7
Illegal workers⁸	271.0	251.7	232.1	224.1
Number of foreign nationals deported	48.5	55.2

1. Excluding temporary visitors and re-entries.

2. Data are based on registered foreign nationals as of 31 December of the years indicated. The figures include foreigners staying in Japan for more than 90 days.

3. As a percentage of registered population as of 1 October of the years indicated.

4. Essentially Korean nationals. A "special permanent residents" category was introduced in 1992. It includes Koreans and Chinese Taipei nationals who lost their Japanese nationality as a consequence of the Peace Treaty of 1952 but who had continued to reside permanently in Japan.

5. Estimates including illegal workers. Excluding permanent residents.

6. Permanent residents, spouses or children of Japanese nationals, spouses or children of permanent residents and long-term residents have no restriction imposed to the kind of activities in which they can engage in Japan and are excluded from these data.

7. Estimates made by the Ministry of Foreign Affairs.

8. Estimates made by the Ministry of Justice on the basis of the number of overstayers.

Sources: Ministry of Justice; Ministry of Foreign Affairs; Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare.

technology professionals to Japan by 2005. To this end, the government has revised the criteria for granting residence permits to this category of workers in order to facilitate their recruitment (persons who do not have a graduate-level university degree or who cannot prove that they have the requisite professional experience can still come to work in Japan provided that they pass an examination showing that they are competent in their specific field).

In addition, the Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare has decided to promote the hiring of foreign students after they have obtained their diploma in Japan. As a result, service centres for the employment of foreigners have been set up in Tokyo and Osaka. Seminars are organised to inform foreign students about recruitment practices in Japan.

The Japanese government also authorises the descendants of Japanese citizens to reside in Japan and to work there without restriction. In 1991, service centres for the employment of descendants of Japanese were set up and programmes in Spanish and Portuguese for foreign workers were introduced. All legal foreign residents qualify for health care benefits. Other measures are aimed at promoting the schooling of foreign children in Japanese schools.

Asylum and rights of refugees

Following the incident in May 2002 in which North Korean citizens tried to enter the Japanese consulate in Shenyang (China) in order to apply for asylum, the Japanese authorities decided to review the asylum system. The Ministry of Justice set up a special committee to study the issues involved in recognising refugee status and created a council responsible for co-ordinating the action of the various ministries and agencies responsible for refugee-related issues.

In 2003, the Japanese government approved a Bill aimed at the in-depth reform of the right to asylum. This Bill changes the so-called 60-day clause (the maximum time allowed to apply for asylum after entering Japan) by raising the time limit to 6 months. It also introduces the concept of “safe transit country”, one of the effects of which would be to deny asylum to North Koreans who enter Japan via China.

Measures against the employment of undocumented immigrants

In November 2001, the Immigration Control Act was amended to facilitate the deportation of persons who have engaged in criminal activity or who have aided in the illegal entry or residence of foreigners.

Korea

Introduction

After undergoing a sharp decline in economic growth in 2001 (3% as opposed to 9.3% the previous year), Korea experienced a recovery in 2002, driven mainly by domestic demand and an upswing in exports. A growth rate of 6% in 2002 was accompanied by a downward trend in the unemployment rate, which dropped below 3% for the first time since the financial crisis of 1997.

The main international migration issues currently being debated are whether unskilled foreign workers should be authorised to work in Korea and whether a new system of temporary work permits should be introduced, despite the fact that the quota for foreign trainees widely employed by Korean small and medium-sized enterprises has been raised and extended to more sectors, such as agriculture (see Table IV.8).

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

Inflows and outflows of foreigners and of nationals

In 2001, some 5 028 000 persons from all categories (including tourists) entered Korea. The number of Chinese nationals rose (+23% over the previous year) while entries of Japanese and US nationals fell (-4.6% and -9.4% respectively), although these two nationalities still account for 70% of entries. At the same time, the number of outflows of Korean nationals, mainly for reasons of tourism-related travel, stood at 5 700 000. The main destination continued to be Japan (21%), followed by China (10.4%) and the United States (11.7%).

Illegal migration

The number of immigrants who overstayed their visa (mainly undocumented workers) was estimated at 129 100 in 1996 and rose to 148 100 in 1997. Because of the aftermath of the financial crisis, this category of illegal migrants decreased in 1998 by one-third or so, and then resumed its rapid growth (an average of 37%) over the 1999-2002 period.

In March 2002, it was estimated that out of a total of nearly 337 000 foreign workers, over 255 000 were illegal. Most of these workers are employed in manufacturing, construction and restaurants. The majority of them are from China, Bangladesh, the Philippines and Mongolia. Chinese nationals account for the bulk of the recent increases. Most of these workers are trainees who enter Korea legally and leave their first job for one that is better paid and then remain in the country after their visa has expired.

Evolution of stocks of foreigners

Foreign nationals who stay for more than 90 days are required to register under the Emigration and Immigration Law. Their number started to increase rapidly after the

Table IV.18. **Foreign workers by category, 1998-2001, Korea**

	Thousands			
	1998	1999	2000	2001
Skilled workers	11.1	12.6	17.7	28.2
Language teacher	4.9	5.0	6.4	8.4
Other teacher	0.8	0.8	0.7	0.7
Entertainer	1.1	2.3	3.9	5.1
Researcher	0.6	0.5	0.8	0.9
Technician	0.5	0.3	0.3	0.2
Other professional	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.4
Others	2.9	3.3	5.2	12.5
Trainees by recruiting agencies	64.2	98.4	104.8	100.3
Korean Federation of small businesses	43.3	67.0	77.2	72.1
Companies investing abroad	19.8	30.0	26.1	25.8
Others	1.1	1.4	1.6	2.5
Estimates of the number of overstayers¹	99.5	135.3	189.0	255.2
China	55.6	68.8	95.6	130.3
Philippines	6.4	9.2	12.9	16.8
Bangladesh	7.5	10.9	14.5	15.5
Mongolia	5.6	10.6	13.1	15.3
Vietnam	3.7	5.1	7.8	12.6
Pakistan	3.1	4.3	6.1	6.7
Sri Lanka	1.1	1.3	1.7	2.2
Others	16.6	25.1	37.3	55.8
Total (skilled workers, trainees and overstayers)	174.9	246.3	311.5	383.7

1. Most of the overstayers are believed to working illegally.

Source: Ministry of Justice.

diplomatic normalisation with China in 1992. The stock of the foreign population (excluding illegal immigrants) grew by more than 20% each year during the 1992-97 period, rising from 55 800 to 176 000. Because of the financial crisis, the foreign population decreased by 17% in 1998, but already in 1999 it began to rise again rapidly. However, the overall proportion of foreigners remains small, as they account for only 0.5% of the total population.

Until 1994, nationals of Chinese Taipei constituted the largest group of foreigners, and they had accounted for more than half of foreigners until 1989. This proportion has fallen rapidly since then (even though their numbers have remained constant) and stood at around 10% of the total foreign population in 2000. The share of Chinese immigrants of Korean descent has risen over the past two years.

Until the early 1990s, three major national groups (Chinese Taipei, the United States and Japan) accounted for approximately 90% of the total foreign residents. In 2000, the three main foreign groups (Chinese, including of Korean descent, nationals of Chinese Taipei and the United States) barely accounted for 50% of the total number of foreigners. Between 2000 and 2001, the number of Chinese nationals grew considerably, rising from 29 000 to 74 000. The same is true of US nationals, whose numbers rose to 43 000 in 2001 as against 32 000 the previous year. However, it should be pointed out that these figures do not take into account undocumented immigrants and visa overstayers.

2. Policy developments

Measures against the employment of undocumented immigrants

In March 2002, the Korean government introduced a programme for regularising illegal foreign immigrants. The immediate objective was to enable those who came forward to the authorities to leave Korea without being penalised, but the authorities also planned to deport all undocumented workers by 2003. In fact, in November 2002, at the request of Korean small and medium-sized enterprises, the government allowed illegal foreign immigrants who had come forward to remain in Korea until November 2003.

Temporary employment of foreign workers

Aware of the magnitude of the growing number of illegal foreign immigrants, the Korean authorities have modified somewhat their position on the employment of foreign unskilled labour. For now, this more flexible policy concerns only workers of Korean ethnic origin, who may request a temporary work permit, but only in the service sector. A debate is currently under way on the possibility of setting up a system of temporary work permits in which priority would be given to skilled workers, but which might also compete with the system of trainees, most of whom are employed in low-skilled work.

A recent survey of some 700 small and medium-sized enterprises in the manufacturing sector conducted by the Korean Labour Institute showed that nearly 40% of the employers concerned employed foreign workers and that one out of five companies used illegal foreign workers. This survey also focused attention on foreign workers' wages and living conditions, which has led the Korean government to reinforce measures to protect immigrants, whatever their status.

Luxembourg

Introduction

Because of persistent difficulties in the financial sector, Luxembourg's economy stagnated in 2002, with a growth rate of approximately 0.5%. The outlook for 2003 gives cause for even greater concern as GDP might only grow by 0.3%, which would mean that Luxembourg would perform below the average for EU countries for the third consecutive year. However, the unemployment rate remains very low, standing at under 3% in 2001 and 2002, although the labour market situation of foreigners, and especially non-EU nationals, is much more vulnerable.

Migration flows into Luxembourg are mainly of European origin and are strongly influenced by cross-border flows. With a foreign population that accounted for 37% of the total population in 2001, Luxembourg is the OECD member country with the largest proportion of foreigners. In 2001, the Luxembourg authorities implemented a regularisation procedure that was relatively limited in scope. They are also giving increasing attention to immigrant children's access to the school system, and to their academic success, as factors that will promote their integration.

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

Inflows and outflows of foreigners and of nationals

In 2001, Luxembourg had a net migration gain of 3 300, over 53% of whom were women (see Table IV.19). This continued the downward trend that began two years ago. Nevertheless, total entries rose in 2001, with 12 100 new arrivals (as against 11 765 in 2000). Most migrants come from other EU countries, especially France, Portugal, Belgium and Germany.

Illegal migration

In March 2001, the Luxembourg government implemented a procedure for the regularisation of certain categories of foreigners residing illegally within the country. Between 15 May and 31 July 2001, applications for regularisation could be filed with the specially created joint department of the Ministry of Labour and Employment, the Ministry of Justice and the Ministry of the Family. This procedure was aimed at two categories of immigrants, i.e. undocumented immigrants and asylum seekers. For undocumented immigrants, the procedure was open to persons who had resided without interruption since 1 January 2000 and had stable employment or could plead special social circumstances. The asylum seekers eligible were those who had filed their application before 1 July 1998 or had been in the country since 1 January 2000 and belonged to an ethnic minority of Kosovo.

Table IV.19. **Current figures on flows and stocks of foreign population and labour force, Luxembourg**

Figures in thousands unless otherwise indicated

	1998	1999	2000	2001		1998	1999	2000	2001
Components of total population change					Inflows of foreign workers⁴				
Natural increase	1.5	1.8	2.0	1.7	<i>of which: Women</i>	22.0	24.2	26.5	25.8
<i>of which: Foreigners</i>	2.0	2.2	2.3	2.2	Inflows by region or country of origin	6.8	8.2	9.1	8.4
Net migration	4.1	4.7	3.6	3.3	EU	21.0	23.1	25.1	24.3
<i>of which: Foreigners</i>	3.9	4.9	3.7	3.3	<i>of which:</i>				
Population (31 December) ¹	429.2	435.7	441.3	444.1	France	10.2	11.1	11.9	11.1
<i>of which: Foreigners</i>	152.9	159.4	164.7	166.7	Belgium	3.4	4.0	4.3	4.2
					Germany	3.2	3.5	4.0	4.1
					Portugal	2.2	2.4	2.6	2.5
					Italy	0.8	0.7	0.8	0.8
					Other countries	1.0	1.1	1.3	1.5
Migration flows by nationality					Inflows by major industry division				
Inflows	10.6	11.8	10.8	11.1	Agriculture, forestry	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Portugal	2.0	2.1	2.2	2.3	Extractive and manufacturing				
France	2.0	2.2	2.3	2.1	industries	2.0	2.0	2.1	1.9
Belgium	1.2	1.3	1.3	1.5	Building	1.8	2.0	2.2	2.4
Germany	0.8	0.7	0.6	0.7	Trade, banks, insurances	12.6	13.7	15.2	14.3
Other countries	6.6	7.5	4.4	4.6	Transport, communications	1.9	2.3	3.1	3.1
Net migration	3.9	4.9	3.7	3.3	Hotels	1.8	2.0	2.0	2.0
France	0.9	1.1	1.2	0.8	Personal services	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2
Belgium	0.5	0.6	0.4	0.6	Other services	1.6	1.8	1.4	1.9
Portugal	0.6	0.3	0.6	0.5	Inflows by status				
Germany	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.1	First employment	6.4	7.0	7.5	7.4
Other countries	1.7	2.7	1.4	1.3	Cross-border workers	15.7	17.3	18.9	18.4
Foreign population by main nationality²					Total foreign employment⁵				
Portugal	55.9	57.0	58.4	59.8	% of total employment	134.6	145.7	152.7	170.7
France	17.5	18.8	20.1	20.9		60	60	60	61
Italy	20.0	20.1	20.3	19.1					
Belgium	13.8	14.5	15.1	15.4	Stock of cross-border workers				
Germany	10.3	10.5	10.6	10.1	by nationality⁶	70.8	78.4	88.7	101.3
Other countries	35.4	38.5	40.2	41.4	France (% of total cross-borders)	52.7	52.9	54.0	52.9
					Belgium (% of total cross-borders)	28.9	28.2	26.7	27.5
					Germany (% of total cross-borders)	18.4	18.9	19.3	19.6
Acquisition of nationality by country of former nationality (units)³					Job-seekers (national definition)				
Italy	149	94	157	105	<i>of which: Foreigners (% of total job seekers)</i>	5.5	5.4	5.0	4.9
Germany	44	41	50	45		59.4	57.0	58.1	60.6
Belgium	48	53	72	39					
France	53	43	52	33	Inflows of asylum seekers				
Other countries	337	318	303	274		1.6	2.9	0.6	0.7
Mixed marriages (units)									
% of total marriages	500	539	581	549					
	25.0	25.8	27.0	27.7					

1. The figure related to 2001 is based on the results of the population census on the 15 February 2001.

2. Data are from population registers and refer to the population on 31 December of the years indicated.

3. Children acquiring nationality as a consequence of the naturalisation of their parents are excluded.

4. Data cover arrivals of foreign workers to Luxembourg and foreign residents entering the labour market for the first time, including cross-border workers.

5. Includes cross-border workers.

6. Data refer to the 31 of March of the year indicated.

Sources: STATEC; Inspection générale de la Sécurité sociale (IGSS); Administration de l'emploi.

The innovative aspect of the procedure lay in the fact that it was implemented in close co-operation with the Craftsmen's Federation, the Chamber of Agriculture and Horesca (the federation of hotel, restaurant and café owners), which represented the sectors most affected by labour shortages. These professional federations sought to place the persons

regularised in vacancies in their respective sectors. At the same time, the government announced that it would not take measures against firms employing illegal immigrants if they declared them and paid any unpaid social contributions.

In all, 1 554 applications for regularisation were filed between 15 May and 31 July 2001. These applications concerned a total of 2 850 persons, three-quarters of whom came from the former Yugoslavia. According to the still provisional figures of 3 July 2002, out of more than 1 500 applications, a temporary residence permit has been granted in 56% of cases, and 197 applications have been refused. Approximately 25% of the applications had not yet been processed in July 2002. Of the 306 work permits granted under this procedure, most were valid for only one year and were mainly in the sectors of construction, hotels and restaurants, and business services.

Refugees and asylum seekers

In 2002, there were approximately one thousand asylum applications, up nearly 52% over the previous year. The number of asylum seekers tends to be rising rapidly, even though the figures remain much lower than in 1998 and 1999 (1 600 and 2 900 respectively) in the aftermath of the wars in the former Yugoslavia. Today the vast majority of asylum seekers still come from the Balkans region and in particular from the former Yugoslavia. There are also a number of asylum seekers from the Russian Federation, the Republic of Congo, Somalia and Algeria.

Evolution of stocks of foreigners

The relatively high population growth of recent years continued in 2001, with natural growth rates higher than 1%, which places Luxembourg in the group of high birth-rate countries in Europe. Nevertheless, this trend is entirely due to immigration, since the fertility index is 1.9 for the foreign population, as compared to 1.7 for the Luxembourg population, which also includes many immigrants who have acquired Luxembourg nationality. The foreign female population is also younger (57% of foreign women are between the ages of 15 and 49, as compared to 44% for natives). In 2001, the foreign population stood at 166 720, or 37% of the total population (see Table IV.19).

The Portuguese community accounts for more than one-third of the foreign population and 13.4% of the total population. This predominance has been maintained by the resumption of Portuguese immigration at the beginning of the 1990s. The Italian community, which accounted for 37% of the foreign population in 1971, has fallen to only 12.2% thirty years later, although this share has been tending to level off over the past few years. Foreigners from bordering countries (France, Belgium, Germany) now account for roughly 10% of the total population. Overall, nearly 78% of the foreigners residing in Luxembourg are EU nationals.

Cross-border migration

Cross-border migration is an original feature of migration flows in Luxembourg. The number of cross-border workers has been growing steadily since 1997, rising to 101 300 in March 2002, up 14.2% over the previous year and 57% over 1997. In March 2002, the share of cross-border workers in total wage-earning employment (38%) was far larger than that of foreigners residing in Luxembourg (27%) and even than that of Luxembourg nationals (35%).

Until 1987, Belgian cross-border workers were the largest group, but in 2002, nearly 53% of cross-border workers came from France, as against only 27.5% from Belgium. Workers from Germany, who account for 19.6% of cross-border employment, are mainly employed in the construction sector.

Naturalisations

To acquire Luxembourg nationality, applicants must be at least 18 years of age and have resided in Luxembourg for five consecutive years immediately prior to applying. This residence requirement is reduced to three years for persons who have cohabited for at least three years with a person who meets the above conditions. Luxembourg nationality may also be acquired by children born in Luxembourg, children born abroad but with one parent who is a Luxembourg national, foreigners who marry a Luxembourg national or whose spouse has acquired Luxembourg nationality, children born abroad of foreign parents but who have completed all of their basic education in Luxembourg, children adopted by a Luxembourg national and, lastly, by foreigners who have reached the age of 18 and have one parent who has acquired Luxembourg nationality.

It is estimated that some 50 000 people meet these criteria, yet the number of naturalisations has thus far remained low (in all, there were 7 298 naturalisations between 1991 and 2001). This is in part because Luxembourg does not recognise dual nationality, but is primarily due to the fact that the vast majority of foreign residents are EU nationals.

Mixed marriages

Mixed marriages (581 in 2001) account for an increasingly large share of the total marriages in Luxembourg. In the same year, they accounted for 27.7% of total marriages. In 62% of cases, these marriages involve a male Luxembourg national and a woman of foreign origin.

2. Policy developments

Admission, stay and integration

In its interim report (December 2000), the Special Commission for Immigration of the Chamber of Deputies stressed the need to “make teachers more aware of the importance and means of achieving integration through education”, thereby reaffirming the role that education must play in the integration of foreign populations. Common education and trilingualism are the key tools of this integration.

In primary education, more than one-third of pupils are foreign (36.5%). This percentage is as high as 60% in some communes. The attainment of foreign pupils is slightly lower than that of their Luxembourg counterparts. In secondary education, 13.7% of pupils are foreign, with the largest groups being Portuguese (34%) and Italian (13%). However, the percentage of pupils from the former Yugoslavia rose from 0.4% in 1999 to 0.7% in 2000.

Citizenship law

The Act of 24 July 2001, which entered into force on 1 January 2002, stipulates that to obtain Luxembourg nationality applicants must be at least 18 years of age and have resided in Luxembourg for five consecutive years (instead of 10 years as was formerly the case).

Asylum and rights of refugees

The Act of 18 March 2001, which was aimed at accelerating the asylum procedure and introducing a system of temporary protection, was supplemented by the Grand Ducal Regulation of 4 July 2002, which provides for an extension of social assistance and redefines the eligibility criteria. In addition, the Luxembourg government has launched a voluntary return scheme (March 2000), which includes degressive financial assistance provided in three phases. To encourage foreigners to return to their country of origin, on 16 May 2001 the government decided to facilitate the granting of the first phase of assistance. However, there were only 151 voluntary returns in 2002, i.e. three times fewer than in 2000, although there were also forced returns (44). All of these returns involved persons from the Balkans region.

Mexico

Introduction

After a period of strong growth (6.6% in 2000), the Mexican economy was hard hit by the slowdown in economic activity in North America. GDP fell by 0.3% in 2001 and grew by only 0.9% in 2002. However, the pace of recovery should pick up in 2003.

Despite increasing inflows of foreign immigrants, Mexico is still primarily a country of emigration. Some eight million Mexican-born persons live in the United States, where there are over 21 million Hispanics of Mexican origin. Every year, some 300 000 nationals of Mexico or people of Mexican origin migrate to the United States (see Table IV.20). This mass emigration has a beneficial impact on the Mexican economy by reducing labour market imbalances and improving the balance-of-payments position through the significant remittances sent home by members of Mexican expatriate communities. Total remittances amounted to nearly USD 10 billion in 2002 (up USD one billion on the previous year).

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

Inflows and outflows of foreigners and of nationals

The total number of permanent residence permits given out by the National Institute for Migration (INAM) was 1 315 in 2001, which was up significantly on the previous year, when 1 035 permits were issued. Most permanent permits were granted to nationals of the United States (15.1%), Spain (7.2%), Colombia (5.5%), Germany (5.2%) and Argentina (4.6%). In addition, between January and August 2002, over 186 300 US nationals and nearly 14 000 Canadians entered Mexico with a temporary work visa under the North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA), including over 155 000 businessmen, 36 500 professionals, 5 800 investors and 2 000 people transferred within a multinational corporation.

The border zone separating Mexico and the United States is probably one of the busiest in the world, given the importance of relations between the two countries, but also because Mexico is a transit country to the United States for many nationals of South and Central American countries. In 2002, the US authorities apprehended some 930 000 illegal immigrants at the Mexican border (roughly one-quarter fewer than the previous year).

Illegal immigration

Illegal migration to Mexico or transiting through Mexico is on the rise. This trend has been reflected for some years now by the growing number of foreigners apprehended and deported. In 2002, however, 97 000 illegal foreigners were apprehended, which was 29 000 fewer than the previous year. Some 75 000 undocumented immigrants were also returned to their country of origin, which was 41 500 fewer than in 2001. Nearly half of those apprehended were from Guatemala, over 31% from Honduras and 15% from El Salvador. The Mexican authorities also apprehended 96 943 migrant traffickers in the

Table IV.20. **Current figures on flows and stocks of foreign population, Mexico**

Thousands

Foreign-born population living in Mexico in 2000, by region of origin ¹				Mexican emigration to the United States, 1911-2001 ²		
	Foreign-born population in 2000	Of which: Entered after 1995	Entered before 1995	Period	Mexican emigrants to the United States	Of which: Persons who had benefited from the US 1986 Immigration Reform and Control Act (IRCA)
Total	405.9	104.8	301.2	1911-20	219.0	
By region of origin (%)				1921-30	459.3	
North America	63.2	65.5	62.4	1931-40	22.3	
Caribbean	2.4	3.4	2.1	1941-50	60.6	
Central America	11.2	7.3	12.6	1951-60	299.8	
South America	7.3	9.3	6.6	1961-70	453.9	
Africa	0.2	0.3	0.2	1971-80	640.3	
Asia	2.9	4.1	2.5	1981-90	1 655.8	962.7
Oceania	0.1	0.1	0.1	1991-2000	2 253.7	1 048.6
Europe	11.9	9.3	12.8	1989	405.7	339.2
Other	0.7	0.7	0.7	1990	680.2	623.5
				1991	947.9	894.9
				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	–
				2000	173.9	0.3
				2001	206.4	0.1

1. Foreign-born population aged 5 and over.

2. Data refers to grants of permanent residence in the United States. Data refers to fiscal year (October to September of the given year).

Sources: 2000 Census, CONAPO (National Council of Population of Mexico); US Department of Justice, 2001 Statistical Yearbook of the Immigration and Naturalisation Service.

first half of 2002, which was 50 000 fewer than the previous year. Most of these traffickers were from Guatemala. It would appear that the measures taken by the United States to step up border controls after the September 11 attacks have dissuaded large numbers of prospective emigrants from trying to enter the country, in particular via Mexico.

Refugees and asylum seekers

In 2002, 2 233 visas were granted to Guatemalan refugees (as compared with 4 471 in 2001 and 4 301 in 2000). Some 150 000 Guatemalans resided in Mexico in 2001.

Evolution of stocks of foreigners

The most recent data on the foreign-born population are from the 2000 Census. According to these data, some 406 000 immigrants (or 0.5% of the total population) reside in Mexico. In comparison to the previous census (1990), the proportion of immigrants from Latin American countries has fallen from 27% in 1990 to 21% in 2000, mainly as a consequence of the voluntary return of refugees from Guatemala. The proportion of

foreign-born from Europe, Asia and Australasia has also been declining. They accounted for one-third of the total stock of immigrants in 1970, one quarter in 1980, 16% in 1990 and slightly more than 15% in 2000. The proportion of immigrants from the United States, the primary country of origin of immigrants, increased slightly in 2000, rising to 63.2% of the stock of foreigners.

Almost half of Mexico's foreign-born population falls within the 5 to 19 age group. There is some variation according to country of origin, however. Immigrants from Central and South America are significantly younger than immigrants from other countries. Three-quarters of the immigrant population are concentrated in only ten of the states located nearest to the northern border (Mexico has 32 states). The Federal District of Mexico City, which is in the south of the country, has 13.5% of all migrants. Because of the relative importance of immigrants from the United States, the foreign-born population in Mexico tends to be highly educated (37% have a college degree), and to work in the tertiary sector.

Naturalisations

The number of naturalisations granted by the Secretariat for Foreign Affairs has grown from 510 in 1995 and 1 061 in 1997, to 3 136 in 2002.

2. Policy developments

Admission, stay and integration

Since 1996, Mexico has been engaged in the Puebla process, which brings together North and Central American immigration countries (United States, Canada and Costa Rica) and emigration countries (Mexico, El Salvador, Honduras, Guatemala and Nicaragua) with a view to protecting legal and illegal migrants, strengthening co-operation with NGOs, developing intergovernmental co-operation, combating trafficking in people and improving monitoring of extra-regional migration.

In March 2001, Mexico signed a readmission agreement with the United States aimed at facilitating the repatriation of Mexican nationals apprehended as illegal migrants. The United States authorities escorted some 421 000 people to the Mexican border between January and August 2002, which was 38% fewer than during the same period in 2001.

Citizenship law

In 1996, Mexico decided to strengthen its ties with its citizens living in the United States by amending its constitution so as to allow dual nationality. Now, Mexicans who take another nationality no longer lose their Mexican passport and those who have already adopted another nationality may recover their Mexican one (this Act entered into force in March 1998). However, Mexico makes a distinction between nationality and citizenship, for to be a Mexican citizen one must not only have Mexican nationality but also reside in Mexico, and only Mexican citizens have the right to vote in Mexico.

Since 2002, Mexican consulates in the United States have been authorised to issue "consular cards" (*Matricula consular*), thus enabling Mexican residents in an irregular situation to have valid identity documents and benefit from certain social services. They can also open bank accounts and even apply for a driving licence.

Measures against the employment of undocumented immigrants

The Mexican government has decided to combat illegal trafficking in migrants, and it established a border control programme in 2000. Ten brigades known as *Grupos BETA* have been deployed, seven along the border with the United States and three along the Guatemalan border.

Netherlands

Introduction

Real GDP growth in the Netherlands remained low at 1.3% in 2001, marking the continued recession faced in the euro area and world economy. By the end of 2002, the economy had not yet recovered and output growth was virtually nil and expected to grow slowly to 0.7% in 2003. Unemployment stood at 2.8% for 2002, slightly higher than in 2001 (2.4%), with a projected increase to 5% by 2004.

Political and economic changes in 2002 included a slowing economy and the murder of far-right politician Pim Fortuyn, who had called for a halt to immigration. Public opinion has grown increasingly sensitive to foreigners, despite the fact that the Netherlands is generally recognised for its tolerance. The new centre-right political coalition formed in 2003 has pledged to continue strict immigration guidelines implemented by its predecessor, including rapid deportation of illegal immigrants and rejected asylum seekers as well as a possible amnesty for long-term asylum seekers. The new government has also prioritised integration of foreigners into Dutch society.

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

Inflows and outflows of foreigners and of nationals

The Netherlands saw a record high level of immigration in 2001 (133 404) (see Table IV.21). Dutch nationals represented 38 897 inflows in 2001, a 6% decrease on 2000. Foreigners represented 94 507 immigrants, only a 3% increase on 2000, but a 21% increase on 1999. Immigration in 2002 was expected to decrease, as the first six months had lower immigration (60 000) than during the same period in 2001 (65 000).

Over the years, the number of nationalities represented in the non-Dutch immigration flows has increased. Although 2001 figures reveal a slight increase for immigration from traditional countries such as Turkey, Morocco and Suriname, their relative contribution to total immigration (respectively 13%, 12% and 5%) has not increased significantly since 1999. Net migration of several nationalities has exhibited a greater increase. In particular, during the 1999-2001 period, immigration has increased for foreign citizens from Iran (up 93% to 2 061), Poland (up 94% to 2 011), Russia (up 100% to 5 928), China (up 104% to 3 560), Angola (up 196% to 1 822) and Sierra Leone (up 269% to 1 514). The purposes of foreign immigration in 2001 were asylum (29%), family formation with intention of marrying or cohabiting (22%), employment (20%), family reunification (15%) and study (9%).

Total emigration in 2001 was 63 318, excluding administrative corrections for under-reporting of emigration by foreigners. Emigration by Dutch nationals had been increasing slightly since the beginning of the 1990s until 1996. It increased again between 2000

Table IV.21. **Current figures on flows and stocks of foreign population and labour force, Netherlands**

Figures in thousands unless otherwise indicated

	1998	1999	2000	2001		1998	1999	2000	2001
Migration flows¹					Refugees and asylum seekers				
<i>Total population</i>					New requests for asylum	45.2	42.7	43.9	32.6
Inflows	122.4	119.2	132.9	133.4	Total requests for asylum heard	38.9
Outflows (incl. adm. corrections)	79.3	78.8	79.0	82.6	Total grants of asylum	15.1	13.5	9.7	8.2
Net migration	62.0	60.1	71.6	70.1	Expulsions	55.7	69.2	49.1	40.9
Adjusted total net migration ²	43.1	40.4	53.9	50.8	<i>of which: Asylum seekers</i>	14.3	18.3	16.6	16.0
<i>Persons born in the Netherlands</i>					Labour force indicators according to the new definition of "Autochthonous" and "Allochthonous" populations				
Inflows	26.0	25.0	23.8	23.2	Total				
Outflows (incl. adm. corrections)	35.8	35.8	37.4	39.4	Total labour force (thousands)	6 957	7 097	7 187	7 311
Adjusted total net migration	-9.8	-10.8	-13.6	-16.2	Activity rate	66	67	67	67
<i>Foreign born</i>					Unemployment rate	5	4	4	3
Inflows	96.4	94.2	109.0	110.3	Autochthonous ⁴				
Outflows (incl. adm. corrections)	43.5	43.0	41.6	43.2	Total labour force (thousands)	5 852	5 943	6 013	6 079
Adjusted total net migration	52.9	51.2	67.5	67.1	Activity rate	67	68	69	69
Stock of population³					Unemployment rate	4	3	3	3
Total population	15 760.2	15 863.9	15 987.1	16 105.3	Allochthonous ⁵				
Total foreign population	662.4	651.5	667.8	690.4	Total labour force (thousands)	1 086	1 130	1 173	1 232
<i>of which:</i>					Activity rate	59	59	60	61
Morocco	128.6	119.7	111.4	104.3	Unemployment rate	11	9	8	6
Turkey	102.0	100.7	100.8	100.3	Surinam ⁶				
Germany	54.1	54.3	54.8	55.6	Total labour force (thousands)	135	135	148	147
United Kingdom	38.8	39.5	41.4	43.6	Activity rate	66	65	69	67
Belgium	24.8	25.4	25.9	26.1	Unemployment rate	12	10	9	6
Total foreign-born population	1 513.9	1 556.3	1 615.4	1 674.6	Turkey ⁶				
<i>of which:</i>					Total labour force (thousands)	84	90	101	112
Suriname	184.2	185.0	186.5	188.0	Activity rate	44	45	49	52
Turkey	175.5	178.0	181.9	186.2	Unemployment rate	17	13	9	8
Indonesia	170.3	168.0	165.8	163.9	Morocco ⁶				
Morocco	149.6	152.7	155.8	159.8	Total labour force (thousands)	71	74	67	83
Germany	125.5	124.2	123.1	122.1	Activity rate	45	45	40	47
Naturalisations	59.2	62.1	50.0	46.7	Unemployment rate	20	18	13	10
<i>of which:</i>					Antilles/Aruba ⁶				
Morocco	11.3	14.2	13.5	12.7	Total labour force (thousands)	37	43	46	49
Turkey	13.5	5.2	4.7	5.5	Activity rate	57	61	60	59
Iraq	2.7	3.8	2.4	2.3	Unemployment rate	8	8
Suriname	3.0	3.2	2.0	2.0					
Bosnia-Herzegovina	3.9	5.4	2.6	0.9					
Naturalisation rate (%)	8.7	9.4	7.7	..					

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. Autochthonous refers to persons who have both parents who are born in the Netherlands.
5. "Allochthonous" refers to persons who have at least one parent who is born abroad.
6. Persons who have at least one parent who is born in the country indicated.

Sources: Central Bureau of Statistics; Ministry of Justice; Labour Force Survey.

and 2001, from 40 474 to 42 921, back to the 1996 figure (42 921). The reported emigration of non-Dutch nationals has declined steadily by less than 3% per year since 1996, reaching 20 397 in 2001.

Illegal migration

Between 1997 and 2000, the Dutch police apprehended a total of 47 000 illegal immigrants. In 2000, the number of illegal immigrants (11 330) rose by 3% on 1999, but was still 16% lower than in 1997.

Refugees and asylum seekers

After a period of strongly fluctuating figures for asylum requests in the first half of the 1990s, the number of asylum requests from 1998 to 2000 stabilised at a level of more than 40 000. In 2001, asylum requests decreased by 26%, to 32 580. The year 2002 appeared to follow the same trend, with 6 000 less requests in the first half of the year compared to the same period in 2001.

The recent decrease was mostly observed among the top source countries in the 1990s. Between 2000 and 2001, a strong decrease was observed for asylum seekers from the former Yugoslavia (from 5 700 to 2 210), Somalia (2 110 to 1 100), Iraq (2 780 to 1 330), Afghanistan (5 050 to 3 630) and the former Soviet Union (4 200 to 3 200). Significant increases per source country were noted in 2001 for citizens from Angola (2 200 to 4 100), Sierra Leone (2 030 to 2 410), Nigeria (290 to 410), Burundi (330 to 430) and India (70 to 110).

The number of approvals has decreased since 1997 from 16 900 to 8 240 in 2001. Approvals were distributed mostly among citizens from Afghanistan (30% of total approvals), Sierra Leone (17%), Iraq (8%) and the former Yugoslavia (7%). In 2001, 16 020 declined asylum seekers received removal orders.

Evolution of stocks of foreigners

The foreign population stock in the Netherlands has increased slightly in the past two years after several years of decline. In 2000, the stock of foreigners increased by 2% to 667 802 and in 2001 to 690 093 inhabitants (see Table IV.21). In 2001, 30% of foreigners were from the European Union, of whom, respectively, 8% and 6% were from Germany and the United Kingdom. Turkish and Moroccan citizens each represented 15% of the foreign population, down from 21% each in 1996.

In 2001, the total allochthonous population (defined as having at least one parent born abroad) amounted to 2 964 949 inhabitants, of whom 47% were born in Western industrialised nations (Europe, except Turkey, North America, Oceania, Japan and Indonesia) and the remainder in non-Western countries (Turkey, Africa, Latin America and Asia). The allochthonous population can be further divided into the first (person born abroad) and second (person born in the Netherlands) generation. Citizens from Western countries composed 37% of the first generation and 59% of the second generation in 2001.

The allochthonous population has increased by nearly 19% since 1996. Allochthonous populations have more than doubled since 1996 for citizens from Afghanistan, Iraq and the former Soviet Union. Residents from Africa have been the source of the largest increase (37%) during this period.

Naturalisations

In 2001, 46 667 foreigners obtained Dutch nationality, representing a 7% decrease on 2000. Of the 2001 naturalisations, 27% were former citizens of Morocco and 12% of Turkey; 17% were stateless.

2. Policy developments

Admission, stay and integration

The government has instilled stricter conditions regarding family formation (also known as import marriages) and reunification. To marry a non-EU national within the Netherlands, Dutch nationals or residence permit holders must prove that they have a minimum of 120% of the national family level income and at the minimum a one-year work contract. In the case of family reunification with a non-Dutch spouse or partner, requests must include proof of 70% of the same level as well as a one-year work contract. In addition, young Dutch residents (aged 18 to 23) seeking family reunification must work at least 32 hours per week.

Citizenship law

The Netherlands Nationality Act was amended on 1 April 2003. A number of rules concerning the submission and assessment of applications for Dutch nationality were changed at that time. In particular, the Netherlands now require a demonstration of integration with the Dutch society. Naturalisation applicants must pass an exam showing proficiency in the Dutch language and understanding of the Netherlands, and Dutch institutions and culture.

Asylum and rights of refugees

The new Aliens Act, which became effective in April 2001, introduced new benefits and procedures for asylum seekers within the framework of the Geneva Convention. The Act simplified the previous system by removing the three existing categories of asylum status and their associated benefits. In its place, only one asylum status is possible, granting the same temporary (“fixed-term”) residence permit and entitlements to all refugees.

The holders of a fixed-term permit are allowed to work and are eligible for student financing and subsidised accommodation. The Act has tightened the conditions for family reunification for fixed-term permit holders: they must have an independent income equal to 100% of the supplementary benefit level, up from 70% under the previous legislation. After three years under the status, asylum seekers are eligible for a residence permit of an indefinite term.

The Act abolished the objection procedure, which allowed asylum seekers with refused applications to request a review of their case. Now, asylum seekers can make an appeal only to the Council of State, which is required to make a decision within six months. Finally, the Act introduced a more comprehensive system for rejected asylum applications. Asylum seekers are under the obligation to leave the Netherlands within a given period of time and the continued use of reception facilities is forbidden. Rejected applicants can no longer take legal action against a housing eviction or an expulsion order, as in the past.

Subsequent changes to the Aliens Act included the creation of a new Ministry of Immigration and Integration, shared with the Ministry of Justice. Government officials have also vowed to process and reject asylum applications within 48 hours, when possible.

In response to an increasing number of unaccompanied minors requesting asylum, the Netherlands introduced a new policy in 2001. The policy outlined a plan for unaccompanied minors with rejected asylum applications to return to their country of

origin. If the return is not immediately possible, the minors, also known as *Alleenstaande Minderjarige Asielzoekers (AMA)*, can receive a one-year fixed residence permit, renewable twice. During this period, the government will continue to seek a repatriation option. A controversial aspect of the AMA policy is the government's use of special X-ray tests to determine the minor's age (via examination of the clavicle). Separate reception facilities have been created for repatriation and integration of AMAs.

The government announced that it would double its deportation effort. They at first used charter flights and, as of February 2003, began the use of Dutch Air Force flights. In June 2003, the Netherlands opened the first of two deportation centres, where illegal immigrants and rejected asylum seekers will be detained pending expulsion. These two centres house up to 300 persons and will be expanded to hold 600. Detainees will be unable to leave the facilities, but will have access to outdoor recreation, telephones, visitors and legal assistance. At the same time, the Netherlands has closed some reception facilities.

The government has agreed, in principle, to grant in the near future an amnesty for approximately 2 300 long-term asylum seekers and provide them with permanent residency permits. These persons are defined as having lived in the Netherlands for more than five years, awaiting a decision on their cases. Additional conditions, such as a language requirement, are being debated.

New Zealand

Introduction

New Zealand's economic activity during the second semester of 2002 has been particularly vigorous. In 2002, the GDP growth rate has reached 3.8%, which represents one of the highest levels among all OECD member countries. At the same time, the unemployment rate declined to 5.1% from 6% in 2000.

Immigration to New Zealand is also increasing rapidly, and the year 2002 marked a new historical record in terms of net migration. New Zealand continues to develop actively its skilled/business stream of the immigration programme, while devoting increasing resources to immigration-related security initiatives.

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

Inflows and outflows of foreigners and of nationals

In 2002, net migration continued to show a positive growth with a total gain of 38 200, nearly tripling the previous year's figure (9 700) (see Table IV.22). Net migration contributed to three-fifths of the country's overall population growth (1.6%) in 2002.

Permanent and long-term arrivals (indicating movement to New Zealand for at least 12 months) in 2001/2002 increased by 33% on the previous year to 92 700 (95 950 in calendar year for 2002). This is one of the highest levels ever recorded. Similar departures decreased by 24% for the first time since 1992/93 to 59 850.

Residence approvals continued to grow at a rate of 20% to nearly 52 900 in 2001/2002, continuing the positive trend observed in the past three years. The General Skills (highly skilled migrants accepted with point system) and Business (mostly investors) categories accounted for the majority of the growth, with a nearly 40% increase on 2000/2001. During 2001/2002, residence approvals granted under the General Skills and Business categories were respectively close to 31 400 and 4 500. The top nationalities accepted under the General Skills category were India (24%), Great Britain (14%), South Africa (12%) and China (11%). Family category migrants accepted for residency remained constant, with almost 11 800 approvals in 2001/2002.

Nearly 87% of all residence approvals were granted to persons under age 45. Between 2000/2001 and 2001/2002, residence approvals increased significantly for nationals from Asia (35%, mostly India and China), the former Soviet Republics (21%) and Europe (16%).

Illegal migration

Illegal migration in New Zealand is defined mostly as overstayers who enter New Zealand without a permit or who overstay their permit. As of October 2002, the number of

Table IV.22. **Current figures on flows and stocks of foreign-born population, New Zealand**

Thousands

	1999	2000	2001	2002		1999	2000	2001	2002
Permanent and long-term movements by citizenship¹					Net Permanent and long-term migration				
Total					by occupation				
Arrivals	59.7	63.0	81.1	96.0	Managers, Administrators and				
Departures	68.8	74.3	71.4	57.8	Legislators	-0.9	-1.6	-0.9	0.7
Net migration	-9.0	-11.3	9.7	38.2	Professionals	-0.7	-1.5	-0.6	1.5
New Zealand					Technicians	-1.2	-1.9	-0.7	0.3
Arrivals	22.6	20.8	23.5	25.4	Clerks	-0.5	-0.7	0.1	1.0
Departures	53.2	58.7	56.0	42.1	Service and sales workers	-1.3	-2.2	-1.3	-0.1
Net migration	-30.7	-37.9	-32.6	-16.7	Agriculture and fishery workers	-0.4	-0.3	-0.1	-0.1
Foreigners					Trades workers	-1.5	-1.5	-0.6	0.2
Arrivals	37.2	42.2	57.6	70.5	Plant and machine operators	-0.8	-0.9	-0.5	-0.1
Departures	15.6	15.6	15.3	15.6	Elementary occupations ³	-0.6	-0.6	-0.3	-0.2
Net migration	21.6	26.6	42.3	54.9	Occupation unidentifiable or illegible	-0.4	-1.1	0.0	4.4
Residence approvals²					Family members and students	-0.1	0.3	11.2	25.3
By region of origin					Not stated	-0.7	0.5	3.6	5.3
Asia	10.7	14.4	20.9	28.2	Total	-9.0	-11.3	9.7	38.2
Western Europe	5.4	6.3	6.9	8.0	Grants of New Zealand citizenship				
Africa	4.4	4.8	5.5	5.8	by country of origin⁴				
Australia and the Pacific	4.5	5.0	6.3	5.7	United Kingdom	4.2	3.7	3.0	..
Middle East	0.7	1.4	1.5	1.9	China	4.7	3.8	2.6	..
North America	1.2	1.1	1.2	1.3	South Africa	1.6	2.0	2.0	..
Central and Eastern Europe	0.7	0.9	0.7	1.0	Taiwan	3.2	2.0	1.6	..
Former USSR	0.3	0.5	0.6	0.7	Samoa	1.6	1.7	1.6	..
Central and Latin America	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	Other	19.1	16.5	12.7	..
Other	0.4	0.4	0.0	0.1	Total	34.5	29.6	23.5	..
By category of admission					Inflows of asylum seekers				
Family sponsored stream	12.2	14.3	14.6	14.3		1.5	1.4	1.6	1.0
Business/skilled stream	13.4	17.1	25.7	35.9					
International/humanitarian stream	2.9	3.5	3.3	2.7					
Other	0.0	0.0	0.2	0.0					
Total	28.5	34.9	43.9	52.9					

1. Permanent and long-term arrivals include overseas migrants who arrive in New Zealand intending to stay for a period of 12 months or more (or permanently), plus New Zealand residents returning after an absence of 12 months or more. Permanent and long-term departures include New Zealand residents departing for an intended period of 12 months or more (or permanently), plus overseas visitors departing from New Zealand after a stay of 12 months or more.

2. Data refer to fiscal year (1 July to 30 June).

3. Includes labourers and related elementary service workers.

4. The country of origin of persons granted New Zealand citizenship is the country of birth if birth documentation is available. If not, the country of origin is the country of citizenship as shown on the person's passport.

Sources: New Zealand Statistics; Department of Internal Affairs.

overstayers was estimated to be between 16 500 and 19 800, a slight decrease from the June 2001 estimates. By nationality, China, Fiji and Great Britain were estimated to have the highest numbers of overstayers in New Zealand. In 2001/2002, 372 overstayers were removed from New Zealand, 884 overstayers left voluntarily and 186 people were turned away at the New Zealand border.

Evolution of stocks of foreign-born

New Zealand's estimated resident population in September 2002 was 3 955 600. Almost 20% of the total population in New Zealand is foreign born (21.8% of the working age population). In 2001, immigrants from United Kingdom and Ireland represent 6.1% of the 15-64 years old and people born in Asia 9.4%.

Refugees and asylum seekers

In 2001/2002, 760 refugee cases were accepted for resettlement under the Refugee Quota Programme. The largest source countries refugees resettled in New Zealand were Somalia (28%), Afghanistan (22%) and Iraq (21%). The largest source countries during the previous year were Myanmar, Somalia and Ethiopia.

In 2001/2002, 1 453 applications were filed by asylum seekers. During the same period 650 asylum seekers were granted protection. This figure is more than double that of the previous year (312); the 2001/2002 figure expanded due to 131 "Tampa" refugees rescued from a sinking boat in New Zealand waters.

2. Policy developments

Admission, stay and integration

The New Zealand Immigration Programme sets a quota for approving 45 000 residence applications (+/-5 000 places) in 2002/2003. The quota was allocated among the three streams of immigration as follows: Skilled/Business (27 000), Family Sponsored (13 500) and International/Humanitarian (4 500).

The Skilled/Business category now offers applicants extra points for having a job offer related to the applicant's skills and qualifications. The General Skills Category passmark, which determines the level of points required to obtain residence, was raised from 25 to 30 points in October 2002 in response to high market demand. The government also introduced two new residence policies the Talent Visa and the Priority Occupations List which respectively allow employers to recruit talented individuals in art, sport or culture or skilled individuals that meet occupations in "absolute shortage". Migrants accepted under these policies may qualify for residence in three years, as long as they have an ongoing employment offer. This scheme was reviewed in 2002 to improve the selection of skilled migrants who contribute positively to social and economic conditions in New Zealand.

A 2001 review of the Family Sponsored stream broadened the range of allowable applicants to include closely interdependent family members of New Zealanders. Dependent children now include those who are financially dependant up to age 25. Grandparents and legal guardians can function as parents in cases where natural parents are deceased. Siblings and adult children and their dependents are eligible for sponsorship as long as they have an offer of employment in New Zealand. Sponsors now are required to sign a statutory declaration that they will provide accommodation and financial support for their relatives for their first two years of New Zealand residency. As of July 2002, the Family Quota was created within this stream to replace portions of the Humanitarian Category (which closed in October 2001). The Family Quota provides an avenue for 250 family members of New Zealanders who do not qualify for residence under any other category.

The International/Humanitarian stream created three new categories during 2001/2002. The Domestic Violence Policy, established in October 2001, benefits foreign women who are

ex-partners of New Zealanders and cannot return to their home country for social or cultural reasons. The Refugee Family Quota, established in July 2002, allows 300 family members of New Zealand residents who are former refugees unable to gain entry through any other category. The Pacific Access Category provides an additional avenue for migration for 375 people from Tonga, Tuvalu, and Kiribati who do not have close family links to New Zealanders.

New Zealand studied pilots of employment-related migrant settlement projects until mid-2002. In light of the positive evaluations, the 2002 budget allocated NZD 0.27 million per year over four years for successful projects, such as a website matching employers with skilled migrants.

Measures against the employment of undocumented immigrants

The government passed the Transnational Organised Crime Act 2002 to align New Zealand with the United Nations Convention against Transnational Organised Crime and its related Protocols. The new legislation includes prison sentences of up to 20 years and fines up to NZD 500 000 for those involved in people smuggling. The Act also amended the Immigration Act to increase employers' responsibility in hiring migrants by setting fines as high as NZD 50 000 for knowingly hiring an illegal worker.

The 2002 Budget allocated NZD 9.6 million in additional immigration-related security initiatives over the next four years. This funding is dedicated primarily to the new Advance Passenger Processing system to better monitor the flow of people across New Zealand's borders.

Box IV.1. Working Holiday Makers

Working Holiday Schemes allow young people aged between 18 and 30 from 15 countries to undertake incidental employment while on holiday in New Zealand. In June 2000, the government agreed to increase the cap on the number of Working Holiday Makers able to enter New Zealand in any given year from 10 000 to 20 000. In 2001/2002, 17 000 people came to New Zealand on working holidays. The majority of these people were from the United Kingdom (50%) and Japan (23%).

New Zealand has continued to expand its Holiday Maker programme to permit the entry of foreign nationals for a temporary stay. In 2001, Chile, Denmark, Hong Kong (China), Italy and Sweden entered into bilateral agreements with New Zealand thereby raising the number of places for foreign nationals by 1 150. Not including Japan, which does not have a cap for the number of nationals allowed to enter New Zealand, nearly 16 000 foreign nationals are allowed to enter New Zealand under this scheme. A set of countries Germany, Japan, the Netherlands, Sweden and the United Kingdom do not apply caps to the number of New Zealanders entering their country under the scheme.

Norway

Introduction

With a 2% GDP growth rate in 2002, and an unemployment rate under 4%, the Norwegian economy has been performing well despite a depressed world economical environment. The capacity utilisation rate is still high and labour shortages continue to be a feature in the health sector, in construction and in some industrial branches.

Foreigners represent a small but increasing share of the total population (4.1% in 2001). Net migration (as well as total immigration) has been decreasing significantly over the past 3 years but asylum seekers have been increasing dramatically from less than 2 000 in 1996 to almost 15 000 in 2001.

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

Inflows and outflows of foreigners and of nationals

In 2001, the total inflow to Norway was 34 300, of whom 17 400 were women (see Table IV.23). For most nationalities, the immigrants were relatively evenly divided between the sexes. The inflow of foreign nationals, which accounted for 25 400 persons (persons stating that they wanted to remain in Norway for more than 6 months) is at its lowest level for the past 4 years, but remains at a relatively high level historically.

Immigration from industrialised countries, which include central and eastern European countries, is decreasing, as 14 900 immigrated in 2001, which is 7 400 entries less than 1999. The decrease is mainly due to the reduction of refugees coming from the former Yugoslavia. Immigration from developing countries increased significantly in 2000 with 12 600 entries, the highest number ever, but in 2001, the figure was down to 10 500 (of whom 5 500 were women). The inflow of Swedish nationals increased in the mid-nineties due to better employment opportunities in the Norwegian health and tourist sector. Net migration of Norwegian nationals remains negative.

The total migrant outflow in 2001 reached 26 300 persons, of whom 15 200 were foreign nationals. The majority (60.4%) of emigrants left for an EU member country. The net migration of foreign nationals in 2001 was 10 200, which is a decrease of more than 2 500 compared to the previous year. Net migration from certain refugee-producing countries was 1 002 for Iraq, 844 for Somalia and 759 for Iran.

Illegal migration

There has been a dramatic increase in the number of asylum seekers in Norway since the implementation of the Schengen Convention in March 2001 and there are indications that 80% of these have been assisted by human smugglers or other criminal networks. There has been a significant increase in the number of human smuggling investigations.

Table IV.23. **Current figures on flows and stocks of foreign population, Norway**

Figures in thousands unless otherwise indicated

	1998	1999	2000	2001		1998	1999	2000	2001
Total population¹	4 445.4	4 478.5	4 503.4	4 525.1	Asylum seekers by nationality	8.5	10.2	10.8	14.8
% of foreigners	3.7	4.0	4.1	4.1	Former Yugoslavia	3.9	1.4	4.5	3.2
					Iraq	1.3	4.1	0.8	1.1
Migration flows by group of nationality					Somalia	0.9	1.3	0.9	1.1
Inflows	36.7	41.8	36.5	34.3	Other	2.4	3.4	4.7	9.4
Nationals	10.0	9.6	8.8	8.9	Foreign population by region	165.1	178.7	184.3	185.9
Foreigners	26.7	32.2	27.8	25.4	Europe	104.9	114.8	114.8	112.4
of which:					Asia	34.3	36.8	40.5	43.3
Nordic countries	10.4	8.1	7.3	6.8	Africa	10.1	11.6	13.6	14.7
EU (15 members)	13.3	11.0	9.8	9.6	North America	10.5	10.3	10.2	10.1
Outflows	22.9	22.8	26.9	26.3	South America	4.1	4.0	4.1	4.2
Nationals	10.9	10.2	11.9	11.1	Other	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.3
Foreigners	12.0	12.7	14.9	15.2	Acquisition of nationality by previous				
of which:					nationality (units)	9 244	7 988	9 517	10 838
Nordic countries	5.4	6.8	7.0	6.6	of which:				
EU (15 members)	6.9	8.1	9.1	8.7	Europe	1 737	2 434	3 586	5 419
Net migration	13.8	19.0	9.7	8.0	Asia	5 210	3 801	4 697	3 757
Nationals	-0.9	-0.5	-3.2	-2.2	Africa	1 540	1 077	704	1 232
Foreigners	14.7	19.5	12.9	10.2	America	622	589	469	363
of which:					Other	135	87	61	67
Nordic countries	5.0	1.4	0.3	0.3	Mixed marriages (units)	4 100	3 975	5 405	5 735
EU (15 members)	6.4	2.9	0.7	0.9	% of total marriages	17.5	16.0	20.2	23.3

1. Data on 31 December of the years indicated, taken from population registers.

Sources: Statistics Norway; Directorate of Immigration.

There are also indications that Norway has become a transit country for asylum seekers attempting to enter British or American territory.

Refugees and asylum seekers

During the four-year period 1998-2001 the number of persons applying for asylum in Norway increased considerably. Almost 15 000 applicants arrived in 2001 with a marked increase following the Norwegian implementation of the Schengen Convention in March 2001. In 2002, asylum seekers continued to arrive in increasing numbers and by October 2002, a total of 13 200 had applied for asylum, which was approximately 3 100 more than in October the previous year.

The increase is partly due to the large number of asylum seekers coming from countries in Eastern Europe, particularly from the former Soviet Union. Around 50% of the asylum seekers come from Europe, 20% from Africa and 30% from Asia. There are clear indications that travel agencies in Croatia, Bulgaria and Russia specialising in "asylum tours" have lured asylum seekers to go to Norway in the hope of a better life. Iraqi and Somali nationals stand out among asylum seekers coming from developing countries. In 2001, Iraqis numbered 1 200, which is down 74% from the previous year, and Somalis accounted for 1 100. Most of these asylum seekers have been given leave to remain in Norway, although for many Iraqis, only on a temporary basis. Around 40% of the asylum seekers in 2002 were from the former Yugoslavia, Russia, Somalia and Iraq.

In 2001, 296 asylum seekers were granted Convention refugee status in Norway, whereas 4 300 asylum seekers were granted protection on humanitarian grounds, which is an increase of more than 34% over the previous year. In 2001 around 32% of the applicants were granted protection. Under a refugee resettlement programme, an additional quota of 1 500 persons may be accepted each year.

Evolution of stocks of foreigners

The total population of Norway grew by 20 600 persons throughout 2001, a growth rate of 0.5%. In 2002, about 6.9% of the total population, or 310 700 persons, were immigrants. Immigrants here are defined as persons born in a foreign country of parents with no Norwegian background and persons born in Norway whose parents were not born in Norway. This is an increase of around 13 000 people compared to the total number on 1 January 2001.

By 1 January 2002 the total number of foreign nationals was 185 900 and constituted 4.1% of the total Norwegian population (see Table IV.23). The number of European nationals has decreased slightly since 2000, but still constitutes about 60% of all foreign nationals in Norway. In descending size order, the largest groups of foreign nationals in Norway are from Sweden (25 200), Denmark (19 400), Bosnia-Herzegovina (11 600), the United Kingdom (11 100), Iraq (9 900), the United States, Germany, Pakistan, Somalia and the former Yugoslavia. Around 8% of foreign nationals in Norway are African, which is an increase of 1% since 2001.

Naturalisations

In 2000, more than 10 800 naturalisations have been recorded, which represents a significant increase over the previous year (9 500). European and African nationals make up the bulk of the observed increase.

2. Policy developments

Admission, stay and integration

In 2001 about 61% of Norwegian citizens between 16 and 74 were gainfully employed, compared to 51% of first-generation immigrants. This is the highest percentage since 1986. In 2001 the average unemployment among immigrants was 7.3%.

An amendment to the Immigration Act came into force in January 2002 with the intention to facilitate the recruitment of non-EEA highly skilled labour. A three-month visa may now be issued to skilled workers or persons with special qualifications to look for a job in Norway. Furthermore, an annual quota for specialist work permits has been introduced in order to facilitate the hiring of non-EEA citizens and was set at 5 000 persons in 2002. There is no necessity to verify that domestic labour is not available until the quota has been filled, at which time stricter conditions are applied. Finally, more liberal procedures for the issuing of work permits have been introduced. Police may issue temporary work permits that may permit a foreign national to work whilst the application for a permanent work permit is handled. A number of Norwegian diplomatic or consular missions may now also issue work permits when the requirements for such permits are clearly fulfilled. A regulation will shortly come into operation that gives employers the right to apply for work permits on behalf of overseas employees.

In 1997 a government bill was submitted to the *Storting* (Parliament) which still constitutes the principal integration policy document in Norway. Special measures for immigrants were considered necessary to ensure that immigrants obtain equal opportunities. Strengthened language and job training are considered to be of utmost importance in this respect as well as efforts to combat racism and discrimination. Through such efforts the government hopes to avoid the development of increased social and economic differentiation between persons with immigrant background and the rest of the population. To further counter the negative situation that former asylum seekers in particular are facing, the government in December 2000 proposed new models for the integration of immigrants, such as an improved introduction programme for qualifying newly arrived immigrants for the labour market.

Several special measures have been introduced to improve the integration of immigrants in Norway, focusing mainly on the labour market. An improved introduction programme for newly arrived immigrants in need of basic qualification is being developed. It is envisaged that participants in such programmes, which combine language instruction, vocational training, and the development of individual action plans, should be granted an introduction benefit, instead of being dependent on social welfare. This model has been implemented on a local level and an evaluation report was presented in 2001. The government has proposed further funding to expand the project in 2003.

In order to reduce discrimination in employment, an amendment in the Working Environment Act was enacted in 2001 to allow shared burden of proof in discrimination disputes. In 2002 the government presented a new plan of action to combat racism and discrimination for the period 2002-2006. The plan contains measures focused on the labour market and on state recruitment policy.

Citizenship law

Foreign nationals may acquire Norwegian citizenship after seven years of legal residence in Norway. No requirements are made as to language proficiency or subsistence and the present nationality act is based on the principle of single citizenship. A new act on citizenship is presently being drafted. According to the time schedule, the act will be forwarded to the parliament by the end of 2003.

Asylum and rights of refugees

The large number of asylum applications in 2001 led to long processing times for a large number of asylum seekers. In the autumn of 2001 a reform of asylum case processing was planned and in part implemented. The system now allows for different procedures for applicants from different countries, where the process for applicants with apparently groundless applications will be carried out in an accelerated process. In 2002 further measures were taken to reduce the number of unfounded applications. Two new types of reception centres have been proposed in order that persons waiting to exit the country after rejection of an asylum application can be separated from asylum seekers who are waiting to be interviewed. Other asylum seekers will be transferred to regular reception centres after they have been interviewed.

Measures taken in 2002 also aim at increasing the focus on voluntary return of rejected asylum seekers in co-operation with the International Organisation of Migration. Other measures are the withdrawal of pocket money if rejected asylum seekers remain in

reception centres beyond the set deadline for departure and the provision of information about Norwegian immigration policy through Norwegian embassies and councils.

International agreements

Norway became part of the Schengen area on 25 March 2001. In practice this means that Norway, despite not being an EU member country, has removed checks at common borders with EU countries. The implementation of the Schengen Convention allows Norway to co-operate with the EU member states in all Schengen-related matters, notably illegal immigration and human trafficking.

Poland

Introduction

In 2001 and 2002, the Polish economy continued to stagnate, following the trend initiated in 1999, after six years of economic boom. In addition, the forecast for 2003 does not suggest a radical change. In 2001 and 2002, the rate of economic growth was close to 1%. The unemployment rate rose sharply at the beginning of economic transition, but seemed to stabilise around 13% in the middle of the 1990s. In 2002, the unemployment rate rose to 19.9% (18.5% in 2001).

In these circumstances, government policies were mainly preoccupied with strictly economic and welfare matters. Some important changes in the field of migration, however, are worth noting, including the amendment of the Aliens Law which set up the Office for Repatriation and Foreigners, and introduced significant changes for asylum seekers and refugees. A bilateral agreement on seasonal labour was signed between Poland and Spain on 21 May 2002.

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

Inflows and outflows of foreigners and of nationals

Polish statistics capture data on international mobility of people based on either international passenger movements or changes in permanent residence status. The following statistics on migration flows draw from the Central Population Register, which tracks the latter group.

In 2001, total net migration was negative (-16 700), but 14.9% lower than in 2000 (see Table IV.24). After a slight increase in past years, emigration in 2001 fell by 13.4% compared to 2000. As in previous years, the majority of emigrants in 2001 (87.4%) settled in Germany, the United States and Canada. Germany and Canada registered significant decreases over 2000, respectively, of 21.1% (from 20 500 to 16 900) and 16.3% (from 1 200 to 1 000). An increasing number of emigrants were between the ages of 15 and 24 (28.9% in 2001 compared to 26.2% in 2000).

Immigration fell by 9.6% to 6 600, continuing the downward trend observed since 1998. This decline underscores the effects of changes in migration laws and residence permits in the 1997 Alien Act. Immigrants arrived mostly from Germany (32.9% of the total) and the United States (15.2%). All other countries registered less than 10% of immigrants, with the enlarged European Union combining 67.9% of all immigrants. Certain countries of the former Soviet Republics gained in immigration statistics in recent years, including Ukraine, Belarus, Kazakhstan and Lithuania. Immigrants in 2001 tended to have high education levels, with 60.7% of immigrants over age 15 having completed secondary or post-secondary education.

Table IV.24. **Current figures on flows and stocks of foreigners, Poland**

Thousands

	1998	1999	2000	2001		1998	1999	2000	2001
Migration flows¹					Inflow of asylum seekers by country				
Inflows	8.9	7.5	7.3	6.6	of origin	3.4	3.1	4.6	4.5
Outflows	22.2	21.5	27.0	23.4	Russian Federation	0.1	0.1	1.2	1.5
Net migration	-13.3	-14.0	-19.7	-16.7	Armenia	1.0	0.9	0.8	0.6
					Afghanistan	0.3	0.6	0.3	0.4
Permanent residence permits issued by nationality²					Republic of Moldova	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.3
Ukraine	1.3	2.6	3.4	4.7	Romania	0.0	0.2	0.9	0.3
Russian Federation	0.5	1.1	1.1	1.6	Other countries	2.0	1.2	1.4	1.4
Belarus	0.4	0.7	0.7	1.3					
Vietnam	0.9	1.5	1.2	1.1	Mixed marriages				
Germany	0.2	0.8	0.7	1.1	Foreign husband	2.4	2.3	2.2	2.1
France	0.1	0.6	0.9	1.0	Foreign wife	1.5	1.3	1.4	1.4
United Kingdom	0.1	0.5	0.4	0.8	Total	4.0	3.6	3.5	3.5
United States	0.2	0.7	0.5	0.7					
Other countries	2.9	8.8	6.9	8.9	Work permits granted by occupation or qualification				
Total	6.5	17.4	15.9	21.2	Manager	3.5	4.2	3.6	2.1
<i>of which:</i>					Owner	4.6	4.2	4.3	2.2
Permission for settlement ³	1.6	0.5	0.9	0.7	Expert, consultant	2.4	2.5	4.3	5.9
Permission for fixed-time residence	4.9	16.8	15.0	20.5	Other non-manual workers ⁴	1.6	1.9	2.1	1.7
					Skilled worker	1.8	1.5	2.4	2.0
					Unskilled worker	0.5	0.4	0.7	2.5
					Other	2.6	2.5	0.5	0.6
					Total	16.9	17.1	17.8	17.0

1. Persons who entered Poland (including returning Polish emigrants) and registered in the Central Population Register (PESEL) after obtaining a permanent residence permit. Figures in the table may be underestimated since not all children accompanying immigrants are registered.
2. Data on permanent residence permits issued are not linked with data from the Central Population Register and therefore are not comparable. There is a break in series in 1998: since 1 January 1998, two types of permits can be delivered: "permission for settlement" and "fixed-time residence permit".
3. In 1998, data include 1 338 permits granted to those who applied for "permanent residence" (in accordance with the "old" Alien Law).
4. In 1998 and 1999 data relate only to teachers.

Sources: Central Statistical Office; Office for Repatriation and Foreigners, Ministry of the Interior; National Labour Office.

Most of the emigration from Poland is related to temporary employment abroad. The number of Polish contract workers who were referred to foreign jobs through licensed Polish intermediaries first radically increased in 1997 – from 11 000 to 15 400 in 1998. The peak of this kind of foreign employment was noted in 2000, when 30 700 workers were contracted to foreign employment. In 2001, the number of contracts procured by intermediaries fell a little, to approximately 29 000, but in the first half of 2002 reached the absolute half-year maximum. The year 2001 also witnessed a considerable increase in the number of seasonal employees in Germany. The number of job offers was in excess of 261 000, almost 10% more than in 2000, and by far the highest level ever achieved since the conclusion of the relevant German-Polish agreement in 1990. Around 95% of these seasonal workers were employed in agriculture.

Illegal migration

In 2001, 55 300 foreigners were refused entry into Poland, with the majority of refusals (75%) applied to the eastern section of the border. The major nationalities refused entry included citizens of Ukraine (30%), Belarus (24%) and Russia (16%).

In 2001, the Polish Border Guards apprehended a total of 6 200 persons (Poles and foreigners) attempting to enter or exit Poland illegally. This represented both an increase in foreigners trying to enter Poland illegally, and a decrease in foreigners attempting to cross into other countries from Poland. According to the Border Guards, organised crime appears to have increased. In 2001, 281 criminal groups of migrants were apprehended, totalling 2 500 migrants, up from 1 850 in 2000. The number of trafficking agents caught increased from 121 in 2000 to 151 in 2001. Overall, the nationalities that mainly contributed to illegal movements in Poland were citizens of Afghanistan, Bulgaria, Iraq, Romania, the former Soviet Republics and from Vietnam.

The number of people deported to Poland on the basis of readmission agreements has dropped since 1997 (4 733), reaching 2 224 in 2001. Of those, 95% were foreigners readmitted from Germany. In 2001, almost 9 500 foreigners were given an expulsion decision, but only 5 954 persons were actually expelled from Poland.

Refugees and asylum seekers

In 2001, approximately 4 500 asylum seekers applied for refugee status in Poland, compared to 4 600 in 2000 and 3 050 in 1999 (see Table IV.24). More recent data indicate that over 5 100 asylum applications were recorded in 2002. As in 2000, the largest number of applicants were from Russia (especially from Chechnya), totalling 1 500 in 2001 (up 33.1% on 2000). Other large source countries included Armenia (14.1%), Afghanistan (9.2%) and Moldova (6.0%). The top ten countries accounted for 87.5% of all applications. A few countries from Asia have gained in importance in the past three years, including Vietnam (from 26 in 1999 to 197 in 2001) and China (from 4 in 1999 to 28 in 2001). In 2001, 293 people were granted refugee status, most of them Russians citizens of Chechen origin (from 26 in 2000 to 207 in 2001).

Evolution of stocks of foreigners

The stock of foreigners includes those granted permission to stay in Poland for more than six months (fixed-time residence), and to settle after more than five years of residence (permanent residents). In 2001, almost 21 200 foreigners were granted residence permits, up 33.4% on 2000. Of these, 20 500 foreigners were granted permission for fixed-time residence, up 36.5% on 2000.

The main source countries were Ukraine (22.3%), Russia (7.5%), Belarus (6.0%), Germany (5.1%) and Vietnam (5.0%). Compared to 2000, significant increases (more than 50%) were observed in 2001 from thirteen countries: Japan, United Kingdom, Moldova, Romania, Belarus, Belgium, Denmark, former Yugoslavia, Italy, Kazakhstan, Lithuania, Germany and Turkey. In 2001, 21.7% of foreigners with fixed-time residence were from the European Union, compared to 43.3% from the former Soviet Republics.

In addition, 674 foreign nationals were granted resident status, primarily to citizens of the former Soviet Republics, including the Ukraine (23%), Russia (9.8%), Belarus (5.9%) and Armenia (5.8%), and from Vietnam (12.6%).

The previous statistics were not stock data, but flows. In 1999, the Ministry of Interior set up a register which later proved to be impossible to maintain. According to this source, there were 25 858 permanent residents in Poland in December 1999. Adding the new permanent permits granted since then put the estimated figure at 27 380 permanent residents in 2001 in Poland.

2. Policy developments

Admission, stay and integration

After the creation of the Office for Repatriation and Foreigners in July 2001, the new government (elected in September 2001) decided to shut down the Office. This decision was postponed for a year and the Office continues to function in an impaired fashion. The wide scope of the Office's activities includes asylum, migration policy, citizenship, repatriation and European integration measures.

Asylum and rights of refugees

The Alien Law, amended by the Polish Parliament in April 2001, accorded a humanitarian status to legalise persons who were denied refugee status and could not be deported from Poland. It also instituted a temporary protection status so that Poland could receive large refugee groups for a limited period during grave humanitarian crises in foreign countries; extended UNHCR monitoring of Polish refugee procedures; cancelled the third country safe list, and created an "evidently groundless" asylum application category.

International agreements

Poland concluded a bilateral agreement with Spain in May 2002, for mutual employment of seasonal workers for less than nine months per calendar year. The number of migrant workers from each country may depend on each country's labour market needs. Employment under this agreement is managed between employers in the receiving country and government agencies in the sending country.

Poland and Germany signed a joint declaration in January 2002, expressing a need for increased collaboration with respect to Polish workers' access to the German labour market, in view of Poland's accession to the European Union. Germany agreed to increase the annual quota of Polish guest workers (from 1 000 to 2 000); to introduce regulations allowing the employment of Polish caretakers in German households, and to extend preferential access to the German labour market to countries awaiting EU accession.

Portugal

Introduction

The growth rate, which averaged 3.4% in 1999 and 2000, began to drop significantly in 2001 (falling to 1.6%) due to the unfavourable external environment. This trend continued in 2002 with a growth rate of 0.4%. The unemployment rate fell to 4.1% in 2001 (5.1% in 2002). Unemployment particularly affected young people looking for their first job. Nevertheless, Portugal has one of the lowest unemployment rates among EU countries. With regard to foreigners, the data available for 2001 show that the unemployment rate rose for workers from Portuguese-speaking Africa, particularly among those who came in the “older” waves of immigration from Angola and Guinea-Bissau (a rate nearly twice as high as the national average).

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

Inflows and outflows of foreigners and of nationals

Net migration has been positive since 1993. The number of Portuguese emigrants fell slightly in 2001, standing at approximately 20 600, the lowest figure of the past twenty years. Two-thirds of this emigration consisted of men and the vast majority of emigrants were temporary workers (72%) in one of the EU countries or Switzerland. The number of Portuguese emigrating to Germany to work in public works projects (which was growing rapidly towards the end of the 1990s) fell sharply at the beginning of 2000 and in 2001. It is estimated that some 14 000 nationals returned to Portugal in 2000, mostly from European countries.

According to data from the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, the population of Portuguese and their descendants who were living abroad in 2000 was estimated at 4.8 million. Most of these (some 60%) live in the United States, Brazil and France. Canada, Venezuela and South Africa are also popular destinations. If only the criteria of nationality are considered, France is probably the country with the largest number of Portuguese residents that hold Portuguese nationality.

In 2001, 14 220 foreigners applied for a residence permit. Applications were by nationals of Portuguese-speaking African countries (35%, principally Angola, Cape Verde and Guinea-Bissau), EU countries (27.5%, in particular Spain, the United Kingdom, Germany and France) and Brazil (10%). Nearly half of these new applications were filed for reasons related to employment (25%) and family reunification (25%).

The government has introduced an amnesty programme for undocumented foreigners with employment contracts. Between 10 January 2001 and 31 March 2003, 179 165 one-year resident permits were issued. Most of those regularised were East Europeans (in particular from Ukraine, Moldova and Romania), Russians and people from the Portuguese-speaking African countries (see Table IV.25). Some 57% of those regularised

Table IV.25. Current figures on flows and stocks of foreign population and labour force, Portugal

Figures in thousands unless otherwise indicated

	1998	1999	2000	2001
Emigration¹	22.2	28.1	21.3	20.6
<i>of which: Women</i>	7.0	8.0	4.3	4.8
Returns of nationals (estimates)²	17.4	15.2	12.6	14.1
Inflows of foreign population³	6.5	10.5	15.9	14.2
EU	2.9	4.4	4.6	4.7
<i>of which:</i>				
Spain	0.5	1.0	1.1	1.4
United Kingdom	0.5	0.7	0.8	0.9
Germany	0.6	0.8	0.8	0.7
PALOP ⁴	1.5	3.2	7.0	5.6
Brazil	0.7	1.2	1.7	1.4
Other	1.4	1.8	2.7	2.5
Asylum seekers	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.2
Foreign population⁵	177.8	190.9	207.6	350.5
<i>By region of residence</i>				
Region of Lisboa	98.1	105.4	113.8	159.2
Region of Setubal	16.4	18.0	20.2	34.4
Region of Algarve (Faro)	23.1	24.9	27.1	47.2
Other regions	40.2	42.6	46.5	109.7
<i>By group of nationality</i>				
Africa	82.5	89.5	98.8	127.1
Europe	51.9	56.7	61.7	138.9
South America	24.9	25.8	27.4	53.4
North America	10.3	10.2	10.2	10.3
Other regions	8.2	8.7	9.5	20.8
Acquisition of Portuguese nationality through naturalisation	0.5	0.9	0.7	1.1
Mixed marriages	1.4	1.6	1.7	1.9
<i>% of total marriages</i>	2.1	2.3	2.7	3.2
Foreign labour force⁶	88.6	91.6	99.8	231.6
Permanent permits issued by the 2001 Regularisation between 10 January 2001 and 31 March 2003 by nationality				
Ukraine				63.5
Brazil				36.6
Moldova				12.3
Romania				10.7
Cape Verde				8.3
Angola				8.1
Other				39.8
Total				179.2

1. Results of a special survey (INE).

2. This estimate under-represents the returns of non-working population.

3. This figure excludes children born in Portugal from foreign parents, that were registered as foreign citizens and foreigners that obtained permanent permits in 2001.

4. PALOP stands for Portuguese-Speaking African Country.

5. Figures include all foreigners who hold a valid residence permit (including those who benefited from the 1992-1993 and 1996 regularisation programmes). In 2001 includes both foreigners with residence permits and permanent permits.

6. Workers who hold a valid residence or permanence permit (including the unemployed). Data include workers who benefited from the 1992-1993 and 1996 regularisation programmes, as well as all workers who obtained permanence permits in 2001.

Sources: Survey on outflows (INE); Labour Force Survey (INE); Ministry of the Interior.

were men. When the results of these programmes are taken into account, the share of various source countries in the total immigration flow can be seen in 2001 to have shifted and, for the first time, the majority of immigrants do not come from Portuguese-speaking countries.

Refugees and asylum seekers

Unlike other EU countries, Portugal receives few asylum applications (between 200 and 250 applications per year over the 1997-2002 period). Most applicants are men (87%) and are young (70% belong to the 19-34 year age group). The majority of applications are filed by nationals of West African countries (Sierra Leone), Angola, Gambia and the Democratic Republic of Congo.

Evolution of stocks of foreigners

The results of the March 2001 census show that the population has grown by 4.8% (some 500 000 people) since the previous census. These data confirm the increasing size of immigration flows into Portugal, as is shown by net migration's contribution to total population growth. Foreigners (405 000 at the end of 2002) account for approximately 3.4% of the resident population and over 4.5% of the labour force.

If the holders of residence permits and permanent permits are considered, the stock of foreigners stood at roughly 350 000 people at the end of 2001. There was a slight growth in the proportion of women in the total foreign population (nearly 44% in 2001, as compared to 41.5% in 1995), with a better balance between the sexes for nationals of Brazil and European countries. When the results of the 2001 regularisation are taken into account, it can be seen not only that the relative share of nationals of East European countries and Russia is growing, but also that the regional distribution of the foreign population has shifted, with newly arrived migrants more widely scattered across all regions, even though two-thirds of foreigners holding a residence permit live in the districts of Lisbon and Setúbal.

Naturalisations

Legal foreign residents may obtain Portuguese nationality in three main ways: through marriage with a Portuguese national, through adoption by a Portuguese parent or through the traditional procedure of naturalisation after 10 years' residence (only 6 years of legal residence is required for nationals of Portuguese-speaking African countries). In 2001, the total number of naturalisations rose to 1 082, as against 721 in 2000 and 946 in 1999. The majority of naturalisations involved nationals from outside the EU, from Portuguese-speaking African countries (36%, mainly from Cape Verde), Brazil (26%), Venezuela (15%) and the United States (8.3%).

2. Policy developments

In 2001 and 2002, the Portuguese authorities took steps in order better to regulate flows on the basis of labour market needs and to facilitate the integration of immigrants. Bilateral labour agreements were signed with certain East European countries.

Admission, stay and integration

The possibility of obtaining a permanent permit that had been granted to immigrants illegally employed in Portugal was suspended on 30 November 2001. However, immigrants

who had begun working before this date were able to regularise their situation even after this deadline.

In response to the arrival of new waves of migration from Eastern Europe and Russia and of a sizeable number of nationals of Bangladesh, China and Pakistan, the Ministry of Labour and Solidarity (through the Institute for Employment and Vocational Training, IEFP) set up a reception programme (*Portugal Acolhe*). This programme makes Portuguese language courses available to new immigrants and provides them with information on Portuguese society and citizenship. In order to encourage immigrants, certain benefits are provided in case of need, such as food assistance and transport grants. An effort has been made to ensure that courses are scheduled outside migrants' working hours.

Information centres and telephone call-in lines for immigrants have also been established to enable them to become more familiar with their rights in Portugal and to obtain information on various services (such as Social Security, education, health care, etc.). In 2002, 10 centres were opened and 20 more are being opened in 2003. Migrants can also receive assistance from a mediator. A special programme intended for 120 foreign doctors already residing in Portugal has been introduced to facilitate their professional integration as well as recognition of their degrees obtained abroad. The programme also provides for a one-year probationary period in Portuguese hospitals before these immigrants can practice as doctors.

With a view to ensuring that migration is better adapted to the needs of the labour market, the second report on employment opportunities for foreigners in Portugal was published at the beginning of 2002. It estimated needs at approximately 27 000 new foreign workers (as against 40 000 for the previous year). In November 2002, a social pact was signed in order to clarify the rights and duties of immigrants, to involve all Portuguese institutions in combating all forms of exploitation and discrimination against immigrants, and to promote the development of poor countries so as to reduce the incentive to emigrate.

In order to strengthen the capacity to produce studies and analysis of immigration, an immigration observatory has been created to carry out studies that will assist the government in preparing new migration policies. Among the work in progress, mention can be made of a study on the views of the native Portuguese regarding immigration, an analysis of the impact of migration on the State budget and a study on how immigrants are presented in the media. A new Bill on immigration is also being examined in Parliament.

In 2001 and 2002, Portugal signed agreements with Romania, Bulgaria, Ukraine and Russia. These agreements concern the mutual employment of temporary and seasonal workers. Discussions are under way with Moldova and the Slovak Republic.

Romania

Introduction

Between 1997 and 2000, Romania went through a deep recession with GDP declining by over 12% while inflation continued to be high. In 2001, macroeconomic performance improved with 5.3% GDP growth and inflation showing a declining trend. The unemployment rate, however, remained high at above 9%.

Romanian authorities have intensified their collaboration with European Union member states to fight illegal migration. New legislation has been adopted in this area, including a law on preventing and fighting against human trafficking, a law which sets the minimum requirements to be met by Romanian citizens travelling abroad and several ordinances on the organisation and functioning of the border police. Many readmission agreements have been signed in 2001.

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

Inflows and outflows of foreigners and of nationals

According to Romanian Statistics, the number of Romanian emigrants declined in 2001 to approximately 9 900 (14 750 in 2000), continuing the downward trend observed during the 1990s. In 2001, Romanian citizens settled mostly in Canada, the United States and Italy. Compared to 2000, the number of emigrants to Germany and France decreased respectively by 60% and nearly 40%. The majority of emigrants tend to be in the 26-to-39 age group (40.5%) and male (50.5%). Romanians with higher education comprise 27.1% of all emigrants; this skilled group tends to emigrate more to non-EU OECD member states (16%) than to the European Union (11%). These 2001 figures continue the trend observed for the past seven years, where the number of all emigrants to OECD member countries (in particular to Canada and the United States) has increased while those to the European Union have decreased.

During 2001, 10 950 Romanians or ex-Romanian citizens with their residence abroad moved back to Romania. Half of the repatriates were between the ages of 18 and 40. A large number of repatriates were from Moldova (9 150).

Illegal migration

In 2001, surveillance and control at Romania's borders resulted in the identification of almost 3 400 foreign citizens and 2 300 Romanian citizens in violation of Romanian border regulations. In Romania, 1 819 foreign citizens were caught illegally entering (767) and leaving (1 052) the "natural" green border. Another 1 282 were illegally passing through border checkpoints. Similarly, 1 010 Romanian citizens were caught illegally entering (269) and leaving (741) the country across the green border and 1 019 at checkpoints. Border police authorities from neighbouring countries returned 274 foreign citizens and

262 Romanian citizens who had managed to cross Romanian green borders and entered illegally into their checkpoints.

In addition, during 2001, more than 18 300 Romanian citizens were returned from countries where they were identified to be in illegal situations. These included Hungary (7 058), Germany (2 818), Italy (1 375), France (1 149), Greece (788), the former Yugoslavia (691), Austria (680) and Belgium (618). The number of returned citizens from countries with readmission agreements was 16 659, down 15% on the last two years.

Romanian authorities identified approximately 4 100 foreign citizens in an irregular situation within Romania during 2001. Among these were foreign citizens from Turkey (832), China (494), Syria (209), Iran (175), Iraq (168), Lebanon (121), Israel (103) and India (99). 3 388 citizens with expired visas received prolonged visas and 686 foreign citizens were the object of a decision requiring a return to their home country.

During a 10-day mission in September 2002 to identify and dissolve a network of human traffickers, the Romanian government identified 43 traffickers, 33 guides and 19 procurers. As a result 1 222 persons were subject to inquiries and fines levied amounted to ROL 14.6 billion.

Refugees and asylum seekers

During 2001, Romanian authorities received more than 2 400 applications for refugee status, which represents a 78% increase on the previous year (1 366). However, in 2002 the number of asylum applications dropped drastically to 1 100. A significant number of applications were registered from Afghani (787) and Iraqi (680) citizens. During the same calendar year, Romanian authorities made decisions on more than 2 400 applications, of which 121 received a positive response (83 based on the Geneva Convention and 38 for humanitarian reasons and other types of protection). Refugee status was granted to citizens from Iraq (35), Afghanistan (17) and Iran (16).

Evolution of stocks of foreigners

By the end of 2001, approximately 66 400 foreign citizens had temporary residence (minimum 120 days) in Romania, down 4.3% from the previous year (see Table IV.26). In addition, almost 1 100 foreign citizens had a permanent residence status. Most foreign citizens with temporary residence status were from Moldova (7 552), China (7 472) and Turkey (5 335). Countries which recorded significant increases between 2000 and 2001 included Turkey (to 6 963 or 30.5% increase), the United States (3 172 or 17.8%), Germany (2 603 or 15.4%) and Italy (5 258 or 12%). Foreign citizens declared their main purpose of settling temporarily in Romania as business (51.2%), training (24.9%) and technical assistance, humanitarian reasons or other reasons (23.9%).

Naturalisations

During 2001, 363 persons (330 with foreign citizenship and 33 stateless persons) were granted Romanian citizenship. The countries with the largest contingencies receiving Romanian citizenship were Iran (67), Syria (55), Jordan (29), Lebanon (27), and Iraq (14).

Table IV.26. **Current migration figures, Romania**

	Thousands			
	1998	1999	2000	2001
Stocks of foreigners				
Stock of persons with permanent residence status	1.4	1.3	1.2	1.1
Stock of persons with temporary residence visas¹	55.3	61.9	69.4	66.4
Moldova	6.0	6.9	8.2	7.6
China	5.2	6.7	7.1	7.5
Turkey	4.2	5.2	7.0	5.3
Italy	3.6	4.6	5.3	4.7
Greece	5.3	5.1	5.0	4.5
Syria	3.3	3.4	3.3	3.7
Other	27.7	30.0	33.6	33.2
<i>of which:</i> Foreign citizens in education and training	17.6	17.8	19.8	16.6
Moldova	5.9	6.7	8.0	7.1
Greece	4.7	4.2	4.1	3.1
Ukraine	0.8	1.1	1.4	1.1
Israel	0.6	0.5	0.7	0.5
Return migration	11.3	10.5	12.4	11.0
Asylum seekers and refugees				
Refugee claims submitted	1.2	1.7	1.4	2.4
Refugee status granted	0.3	0.6	0.2	0.1
Illegal immigration				
Number detected at border (including Romanian citizens)	1.7	2.0	15.3	5.7
Number detected within borders	4.0	7.3	7.9	4.1
Estimated stock of illegal migrants ²	18.0	18.0	20.0	15.0
Expulsions				
Romanian citizens expelled from other countries	21.6	21.9	21.9	18.2
Foreigners expelled from Romania	1.6	1.2	0.7	0.7
Romanian citizens in Germany				
A. Migration flows between Romania and Germany				
Ethnic Germans from Romania	1.0	0.9	0.5	0.4
Inflows of Romanian nationals	17.0	18.8	24.2	20.3
Outflows of Romanian nationals	13.5	14.7	16.8	18.6
Seasonal workers from Romania	5.6	7.1	8.7	16.6
B. Stock of people from Romania in Germany				
Stock of Romanian nationals	89.8	87.5	90.1	88.1
Acquisitions of German nationality by former Romanians ³	6.3	0.5	2.0	2.0

1. Residence permits valid for a period longer than 120 days.

2. Estimates based on the number of expulsions, the number of persons detected within Romania and at the border.

3. Excluding ethnic Germans from 1999 on.

Sources: Romanian Ministry of the Interior; Statistisches Bundesamt (Germany).

2. Policy developments

Citizenship law

The Romanian government adopted an Urgency Ordinance in December 2001 to suspend a 1991 article on Romanian citizenship. This article stipulated that persons who had lost their Romanian citizenship before December 1989 for reasons beyond their control could benefit from a separate procedure in order to reacquire it. This new ordinance was adopted to deal with the increasing number of requests from citizens of Moldova who wanted to use the quick procedure to acquire Romanian citizenship. These citizens will now conform to the standard procedure by applying for citizenship through the Ministry of Justice and no longer through the Ministry of the Interior.

Measures against the employment of undocumented immigrants

In June 2001, Romania created a National Information System to monitor on a national level the movement of persons and goods across its borders. The system registers processes and accounts for information related to trans-border criminality and border-related infringements. The related legislation assigned prison sentences from three months to seven years depending on the nature of the illegal border crossing.

At the end of 2001, the National Office for Labour Force Migration was created. Its mission established five priorities: to manage bilateral labour agreements; to facilitate labour force recruitment and placement abroad; to grant work permits for employed foreigner workers in Romania; to co-operate with specialised institutions from Romania, from the European Union member states and other countries; and to run the Information and Documentation Centre for Migrant Workers.

International agreements

The European Union Council stipulated three primary conditions that Romanians must meet to be allowed to travel to the Schengen area without a visa. Romanian citizens must limit their stay abroad to a maximum of 90 days during a 6-month period; they have to prove financial independence to support themselves while abroad and to ensure the return to Romania; and they must purchase medical insurance prior to departure. Romanian labour migrants to the Schengen area will still require a work permit. In response, Romania adopted in April 2002 Law 177 which imposes similar requirements to its nationals travelling to the European Union or to other countries for which an entry visa is not required. Between January and September 2001, 247 300 Romanian citizens were stopped at Romanian borders and 6 875 Romanian citizens stopped at the borders of Austria, Finland, Germany, Greece, Netherlands and Spain for not meeting all requirements.

During 2001, Romania signed several readmission agreements covering persons who illegally entered and/or stayed in a foreign country. The countries include Austria, Bulgaria, Croatia, Hungary, Ireland, Slovenia and Sweden. Romania and France also signed agreements to fight against organised crime related to illegal migration and human trafficking.

Slovak Republic

Introduction

Because of vigorous domestic demand, the Slovak Republic has been able to maintain strong economic growth despite a slack world economic environment. After showing a 3.3% GDP growth rate in 2001, the economy registered 4.3% growth in 2002 and should be above 3.5% in 2003. The employment situation, on the other hand, is problematic, with an unemployment rate of 19.4% in 2001 and 18.6% in 2002.

There is considerable activity taking place in the field of migration (a new act on asylum and on the stay of foreigners) in order to adapt Slovak legislation to EU standards. Slovak authorities are also devoting increasing efforts to fighting illegal migration, which shows up clearly in the statistics. Legal migration to the Slovak republic remained low, with fewer than 30 000 foreigners with a permanent or long-term visa in 2001.

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

Inflows and outflows of foreigners and of nationals

Net immigration was just above 1 000 in 2001, a substantial decline of 30% on the previous year's figure (1 500) and the lowest in recent years (see Table IV.27). Inflows of permanent residents (Slovaks and foreigners) have fluctuated since the 1997 figure of 2 300 in a declining trend to just above 2 000 in 2001. The vast majority of immigrants were from Europe, with Czech nationals accounting for nearly half the total. Outflows have been rising in a fluctuating trend over the past five years and were close to 1 000 in 2001, of whom about 400 went to the Czech Republic. The other principal emigration countries were Austria (168) Germany (150) and Canada (71). The stock of Slovak workers in the Czech Republic was 63 600 in 2000, with smaller numbers in Germany, Austria and Hungary.

According to the register of residence permits, annual grants of permanent residence permits have declined steadily since 1998, but showed a slight increase to 880 in 2001. Long-term residence permits also reversed a downward trend by increasing to just over 30% in 2001.

Illegal migration

In 2001, 14 600 illegal migrants were detected at the border, moving into and out of the Slovak Republic, a huge increase of 240% over the previous year. The number of persons illegally present attempting to emigrate is greater than that of illegal immigrants and this was particularly so in 2001 when outflows were over two and a half times the inflows. Inflows largely occurred at the Hungarian and Ukrainian borders, with a particularly large increase at the former. The largest number of outflows of persons illegally present occurred

Table IV.27. **Current migration figures, Slovak Republic**

Figures in thousands unless otherwise indicated

	1998	1999	2000	2001
Inflows of permanent residents	2.1	2.1	2.3	2.0
Arrivals (excluding those from Czech Republic)	1.3	1.2	1.0	1.0
Arrivals from Czech Republic	0.8	0.9	1.3	1.0
Outflows of permanent residents	0.7	0.6	0.8	1.0
Departures (excluding those to Czech Republic) ¹	0.5	0.4	0.5	0.6
Departures to the Czech Republic ²	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.4
Net migration	1.3	1.5	1.5	1.0
Residence permits newly granted by category				
Long-term residence permits	4.7	4.4	2.9	3.8
Permanent residence permits	1.7	1.4	0.9	0.9
Family reunification	1.3	1.1	0.6	0.8
Other	0.4	0.3	0.2	0.1
Inflows of asylum seekers	0.5	1.3	1.6	8.2
Illegal migrants caught at the border	8.2	8.0	6.1	14.6
<i>of which:</i>				
Inflows	1.9	2.9	2.2	3.9
Outflows	6.3	5.1	3.8	10.7
Holders of permanent or long-term residence permit³	27.4	29.5	28.3	29.4
Work permit holders, by country of origin⁴				
Germany	..	0.2	0.3	0.3
Ukraine	0.7	0.4	0.4	0.3
United States	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.2
Poland	0.7	0.2	0.2	0.2
Other	2.0	1.5	1.7	1.4
Total	3.7	2.6	2.5	2.5
Estimates of Czech workers⁵	2.2	2.4	2.3	1.9
Slovak citizens abroad				
Slovak workers in the Czech Republic	61.3	53.2	63.6	63.6
% of total foreign workers in the Czech Republic	55.1	56.9	61.3	61.3
Slovak citizens in Germany	9.8	12.1	14.7	17.0
% of total foreign citizens in Germany	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2
Slovak workers in Austria	4.0	4.0	4.3	4.8
% of total foreign workers in Austria	1.6	1.7	1.8	2.0
Slovak workers in Hungary	0.5	1.0	2.9	1.8
% of total foreign workers in Hungary	2.1	3.4	8.2	4.6

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.

at the Austrian border (traditionally these had occurred at the Czech one) followed by the Czech and, to a much lesser degree, Polish borders. Illegal migrants come primarily from the former Yugoslavia, Afghanistan and Romania.

Refugees and asylum seekers

A dramatic increase in asylum applicants to 8 151 occurred in 2001, compared with 1 556 in 2000. About half of these were made up of Afghan nationals. Citizens from the Indian sub-continent and Iraq were also numerous. The rate of refugee status approval has declined recently and only 18 grants of refugee status were accorded in 2001. Many applications are “administratively terminated” (more than 5 000 in 2001) rather than refused.

Evolution of stocks of foreigners

The population of the Slovak Republic in 2001 was approximately 5 402 550. There were 29 400 foreign residents, a slight increase on the figure for the previous year. Of these, 12 100 were long-term residents (with the largest group being entrepreneurs, followed by foreigners of Slovak descent, and those with residence for employment, study, and maintaining family relationships). 17 300 were permanent residents (mostly as a result of family reunion). Of residence permits granted in 2001, permanent ones continued to be granted overwhelmingly for purposes of family reunion, whereas long-term permits are given most frequently for reasons of employment and entrepreneurship. In 2001, foreigners from former socialist countries held the largest share of residence permits, with those from the Czech Republic, the Ukraine and Poland being the largest national groups. Among Western countries, Germany has the strongest presence in the Slovak Republic.

The 2001 population census indicates that the largest ethnic minority is from Hungary (9.7% of the population). The Romanian population (1.7%) and the Czech population (0.8%) are the next largest minority groups. However, the self-reporting methodology that was used resulted, it is believed, in the Romanian population being seriously under-represented.

Naturalisations

About 1 760 foreign nationals were granted Slovak nationality in the first ten months of 2001. The countries whose citizens were the most numerous to be naturalised were the Czech Republic, the Ukraine and the United States. Almost 3 000 residence permits were granted to Slovaks of foreign descent (a process which can eventually lead to the acquisition of Slovak nationality) during the same period.

2. Policy developments

Admission, stay and integration

New legislation on foreign migration came into force in 2002, partly to harmonise with EU law. The legislation creates a more elaborate legal and institutional framework for dealing with migration issues. Three types of stay of foreigners are defined. Firstly, temporary residence, which may be granted for one year (renewable up to 3 years) in connection with business, employment, study, activities under special programmes and family reunion. A successful entrepreneur or a permanent job holder may under certain conditions receive an unlimited temporary permit. Special provisions apply to European Union citizens coming to the Slovak Republic for business, employment or advisory purposes.

Secondly, tolerated residence for a maximum of 180 days will be granted to a foreigner if he or she has been granted temporary asylum in the Slovak Republic (and in certain other limited situations). Finally, a permanent residence permit is initially granted for three years

(and then for an unlimited period) to a foreigner with over three years of previous uninterrupted temporary residence for business or employment purposes, or for defined family reunion purposes.

Government action to improve the social and economic position of the Roma was described in the 2002 edition of *Trends in International Migration*. Other policies, including regarding minority languages, have been developed by the government to improve the position of minority ethnic groups.

Asylum and rights of refugees

A new Act on asylum was implemented in 2002, in order to harmonise the Slovak Republic's legislation with European Union law and to improve compliance with international treaty obligations, in preparation for accession. Accession is also likely to mean that an increasing number of applicants will choose the Slovak Republic as their genuine asylum country, requiring a greater institutional capacity to deal with this. The new Act stipulates a broader set of reasons for granting asylum and temporary asylum and a broader group of persons who can be granted asylum for the purposes of family reunion. There are new legal definitions of a safe third country and a safe country of origin. Other significant changes include the introduction of judicial decision-making in the case of asylum appeals and changes to the administrative rule under which the procedure for granting asylum can be terminated.

International agreements

Readmission agreements with several countries are under preparation or being revised.

Spain

Introduction

In 2001 and especially in 2002, the Spanish economy was marked by a decline in the growth rate (GDP only grew by 2.7% and 1.8% respectively, as compared to the average rate of 4.2% during the 1997-2000 period). Nevertheless, this decline remained lower than the average for euro area countries and had no direct impact on immigration flows, which rose sharply in 2001 and 2002. The unemployment rate for residents of all nationalities remained high (10.6% in 2001 and 11.3% in 2002), even though these figures were lower than in previous years. Although unemployment is higher among foreigners than among nationals, it is far from reaching the high levels that characterise recent trends in the older immigration countries of Europe.

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

Inflows and outflows of foreigners and of nationals

The pattern of foreign immigration into Spain has changed over these past two years due to a very large influx of non-EU migrants. Between 2000 and 2001, the stock of legal foreign residents increased by over 213 000 persons (see Table IV.28). In 2002, there were an additional 141 000 persons. Furthermore, according to Border Police statistics, many immigrants who obtained entry visas into Spain in 2002 did not return to their country after these visas expired. These figures mainly concern nationals of countries of Latin and Central America (Ecuador, Colombia, Dominican Republic and Argentina) and Africa (Morocco, Senegal, South Africa, Tunisia, Equatorial Guinea and Egypt).

Immigration in Spain being recent, it follows that the bulk of migration flows are employment-related. However, there has been a particularly large increase in the number of foreign students (30 000 in 2001, which was three times more than in 1996).

Illegal migration

In 2000 and 2001, Spain implemented two exceptional regularisation programmes. In all, by the end of June 2002, more than 405 000 persons had been regularised under these programmes.

The “exceptional” regularisation that took place between March and July 2000 concerned all foreigners resident in Spain on a continuous basis since 1 January 1999, subject to certain conditions.* Of the nearly 247 600 applications filed, 188 200 people were regularised, 36 000 of them after a re-examination of their files. Most of these regularisations concerned newly arrived immigrants. Among those regularised, Moroccan immigrants constituted the largest group (28%), followed by nationals of Ecuador (13%), Colombia (8%), China and Pakistan. By sector of activity, on the basis of some 120 500 work

Table IV.28. **Current figures on flows and stocks of foreign population and labour force, Spain**

Thousands

	1998	1999	2000	2001		1998	1999	2000	2001
Net migration of Spanish citizens					Total work permits granted³	85.5	118.5	113.5	118.7
By continent of origin/destination					of which: Women	35.3	42.1	43.9	42.2
Europe	17.0	19.6	20.0	20.1	By industry division				
America	9.8	12.3	20.9	24.5	Agriculture	18.6	28.1	18.3	26.0
Africa	1.2	1.3	1.5	1.2	Industry	4.6	8.6	7.6	10.2
Asia	0.8	1.0	0.9	0.9	Building	5.1	11.0	16.2	19.1
Oceania	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.3	Services	55.5	67.2	67.8	60.0
Total	29.2	34.6	43.7	47.0	Not specified	1.6	3.6	3.6	3.3
Stock of foreign residents¹	719.7	801.3	895.7	1 109.1	By region of origin				
By region of origin					Africa	36.6	59.6	45.2	37.6
Europe	330.5	361.9	361.4	412.5	Central and South America	29.1	33.4	44.1	54.7
Africa	179.5	211.6	261.4	304.1	Asia	12.3	15.3	11.9	8.4
America	147.2	159.8	200.0	298.8	Europe (except EU) ⁴	6.4	8.9	11.1	17.4
Asia	60.7	66.5	71.0	91.6	North America	1.0	1.1	0.9	0.5
Oceania	1.0	1.0	0.9	0.9	Oceania and other	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.1
Stateless	0.7	0.5	1.0	1.1	By type of permit ⁵				
By region of residence					Long-term work permits				
Cataluna	148.8	183.7	215.0	280.2	Employees	17.3	37.1	62.4	34.4
Madrid	148.1	158.9	163.0	231.3	Self employed	2.9	4.8	4.8	1.8
Andalucia	96.0	109.1	132.4	157.2	One-year work permit				
C. Valenciana	70.0	80.6	87.0	101.4	Employees	61.7	72.2	43.0	35.6
Canarias	68.8	68.3	77.6	87.5	Self employed	2.0	2.2	1.2	0.7
Others	188.0	200.6	220.7	251.6	Other ⁶	1.6	2.2	2.0	2.0
Total	719.6	801.3	895.7	1 109.1	Stock of foreign workers (work permits)⁷	197.1	199.8
Acquisition of Spanish nationality²	13.2	16.4	12.0	16.7	Stock of foreign workers registered in social security system⁸	..	335.0	402.7	557.1

1. Stock of foreigners who hold a residence permit on 31 December of the given year. Permits of short duration (less than 6 months) as well as students are excluded. Data include permits delivered following the 1996 regularisation programme but only 25 500 out of 164 000 persons regularised under the 2000 programme.

2. Excluding persons recovering their Spanish nationality.

3. Data for 2001 are for January to October. Total permits issued, including seasonal and cross-border workers and renewals of permits.

4. Since 1 January 1992, the nationals of the European Union do not need a work permit.

5. Data for 2001 are for January to June 2001. One-year work permits include renewed permits.

6. Seasonal and cross-border workers.

7. Data refer to numbers of valid work permits. Workers from the EU are not included. Data include work permits delivered following the 1996 regularisation programme.

8. From 1999 on, data relate to number of foreigners who are registered in Social Security system. Workers from the EU are included. A worker may be registered several times if he has several activities. Regularised workers are included in 2000 and 2001.

Sources: General Directorate on Migration; Ministry of Labour and Social Security; Ministry of Justice.

permits granted, agriculture accounted for 28% of total permits, household services for nearly 18%, construction 15%, hotels and catering 12% and retailing 5%.

* That is, on condition that they were not subject to an expulsion order, legal proceedings or a ban on entry, that they indicated on their application the sector and profession in which they wished to work and met 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 procedure was subsequently extended until July 2000.

Following the Lorca tragedy in January 2001, when a dozen Ecuadorians who were illegal residents were killed in a road accident, the Spanish authorities introduced a process of regularisation for humanitarian reasons, and this enabled over 24 000 Ecuadorians to regularise their situation.

In June and July 2001, a new regularisation procedure was launched for “settlement” reasons (*Arraigo*). It concerned immigrants who could prove that they were in Spain before 23 January 2001, that they were integrated in the labour market or had family ties in Spain and that they had not been the subject of an expulsion order. All told, some 350 000 applications are thought to have been filed and by 15 April 2002 almost 217 000 people had been regularised (there are still 26 400 files to be processed).

The 2001 regularisation programme more often concerned immigrants working in household services (30%) and construction (20%), followed by agriculture (13%), hotels and catering (9%) and retailing (4%). In comparison with the previous regularisation, fewer of those granted work permits were working in agriculture and the relative share of Central and Latin American nationals and those of Eastern Europe was greater, as the main groups benefiting from this programme were nationals of Ecuador (22%), Colombia (17%), Morocco (14%) and Romania (9%).

In addition, it is estimated that in 2001 an expulsion order was issued against some 40 000 undocumented immigrants apprehended and that nearly a quarter of them left Spain. The vast majority of them were from Morocco, Ecuador, Romania, Nigeria, Colombia, Algeria and Ukraine.

Refugees and asylum seekers

The number of asylum seekers grew between 1996 and 2001, rising from 4 000 in 1996 to nearly 9 500 in 2001. They mainly came from Latin America and Cuba, but also from Russia and Romania (although they were mostly from Nigeria, Sierra Leone and Algeria the previous year). The initial data available for 2002 show a decrease both in the number of asylum seekers (roughly 6 200) and in the number of people who obtained refugee status that year (238 against 500 the previous year).

Evolution of stocks of foreigners

At the end of 2001, there were some 1 110 000 foreigners residing in Spain (see Table IV.28). Moroccans were the largest group (235 000), followed by Ecuadorians (approximately 85 000), then British (80 000) and Germans (63 000). Over half of these foreigners were between 25 and 44 years of age. Europe is still the main region of origin, followed by the Americas (slightly over 300 000 in all) and Africa (nearly 300 000). The statistics on foreign workers registered with Social Security also show that two-thirds of foreign workers legally resident in Spain are males. However, the proportion of men is lower for nationals of Colombia, Peru, the Dominican Republic and the Philippines.

The initial data available for 2002 on the basis of residence permits show that the number of foreigners legally residing in Spain exceeds 1 250 000, or 3.2% of the total population. The sharp increase in the foreign population in 2001 (24%) fell in 2002, but still remained high (18%).

Naturalisations

Some 16 800 people obtained Spanish nationality in 2001, an increase of nearly 29% over the previous year. Over the past four years, the largest groups of immigrants naturalised came from Peru, the Dominican Republic, Cuba, Argentina and Columbia. In terms of growth, the largest increase was in nationals of Ecuador, followed by Moroccans. The predominance of Central and Latin American nationals is probably due to the fact that they are subject to less strict requirements for naturalisation (two years of continuous legal residence as opposed to five for refugees and ten for other foreigners).

2. Policy developments

Admission, stay and integration

The decision to carry out mass regularisation operations in 2000 and 2001 clearly shows that Spain is attracting a growing number of immigrants, but also that the authorities wish to persuade employers to employ legal foreign residents on a systematic basis and to embark upon a policy for integrating migrants into the labour market and into Spanish society. This approach also coincides with the wishes of many companies that would like to stabilise a portion of their workforce in order to alleviate shortages and lower their high staff turnover rate. A process has been launched in which the recruitment of foreign workers through legal channels and a new quota system will make it possible to select this workforce more effectively on the basis of skills and economic needs.

Box IV.2. The new quota system

A process for consulting the social partners, with large-scale employer involvement, was introduced with effect from 2002 with the object of establishing quotas by sector, province and type of job, on the basis of the “real” needs of the labour market and taking account of both the local and national situations. Quotas are established as follows: i) the employers’ organisations submit, at provincial level, their affiliated members’ labour demand which the latter believe cannot be met in their own labour market area during the coming year; ii) joint provincial committees reassess the request made in light of employment conditions at local level; iii) an executive committee of the Ministry for Employment and Solidarity rules on labour requirements at national level and has the Council of ministers approve the quotas; iv) the said quotas are then distributed to the employers’ organisations which are responsible for sharing them between their members; v) candidates are then selected in countries of origin via the relevant embassies.

In 2003, the Spanish government set the total quota at 10 575 “stable” work permits, to which 23 582 temporary work permit authorisations must be added (the figures for 2002 were 10 884 and 21 195 respectively).

Citizenship law

The Act of 8 October 2002, which entered into force on 9 January 2003, makes it possible for all persons who had Spanish nationality at birth or who were children of Spanish parents at the time of their birth to be granted or to recover Spanish nationality. This option made available to children is not subject to any age limit or time limit.

Measures against the employment of undocumented immigrants

Over the past three years, the Labour Inspectorate has reinforced its monitoring of Spanish companies, especially in agriculture and in the construction and service sectors. Offences recorded in 2001 were 60% up on the previous year.

International agreements

Spain has recently signed bilateral labour agreements combined with readmission agreements with five countries: Colombia, Ecuador, the Dominican Republic, Poland and Romania. Negotiations are currently under way with Bulgaria. The philosophy of these agreements is based on the idea that legal flows should replace illegal migration and that any admission of new workers is subject to the signatory country's agreement to readmit any of its nationals apprehended as illegal migrants in Spain. In this regard Morocco, which has had an agreement of this kind with Spain since 1992, is currently refusing to enforce the readmission principle systematically both for its own nationals and for persons who transited through Morocco before coming to Spain. Negotiations are under way to facilitate the enforcement of this agreement.

With regard to seasonal workers, Spanish legislation requires them to report to the Spanish Consulate in their country of origin after their work contract expires in order to prove that they have left Spain. This enables them to obtain the right to return to Spain for a new seasonal work contract the following year.

Sweden

Introduction

Despite a relatively brief but sharp slowdown in 2001, Sweden's economic performance has remained robust in 2002 with a GDP growth rate of almost 2%. At 4% the unemployment rate is significantly lower than the OECD average.

In 2001, over one million of Sweden's population was born outside Sweden, of which fewer than half were foreign citizens (5.3% of total population). Inflows of foreigners have been fluctuating significantly during the last decade but seem to be on the rise again. Family reunification and humanitarian channels make up the bulk of immigrant inflows from non-EU countries to Sweden.

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

Inflows and outflows of foreigners and of nationals

In the beginning of the 1990s Sweden saw a large increase in immigration, partly due to the conflict in former Yugoslavia. In 1994 permanent entries (people stating that they wish to remain in Sweden for more than a year, not including asylum seekers with applications pending or temporary workers) were 75 000. During the latter part of the 1990s the figures were considerably lower but started to mount (see Table IV.29).

In 2001 the main groups of immigrants were, in descending order of frequency, from Scandinavia (21%), Iraq (15%), former Yugoslavia, Germany, the United Kingdom and Iran. Immigrants from Asia totalled almost 15 000. Immigration from the fifteen European Union countries accounted for 27% of total immigration to Sweden (or 11 900 persons, of whom 3 445 were Finnish citizens). This was an increase from 10 800 EU nationals the previous year.

The number of residence permits granted in 2001 was 44 500, an increase from 1999 when 37 400 residence permits were granted. Over half of the permits were issued on family reunion grounds, a growing trend since 1995. Approximately 18% of the immigrants granted permits were refugees (of which 42% were women) and approximately 16% were granted residence permits in accordance with the EEA free movement agreement. The number of foreign students increased from 1 500 in 1995 to 4 000 in 2001 and about 400 residence permits were granted for employment purposes to third country nationals.

Emigration flows of foreigners have decreased, in a fluctuating trend, over the past ten years. 12 700 foreigners emigrated in 2001, a slight increase from the previous year but still a decrease compared to 1997 when 15 300 foreigners emigrated from Sweden.

Table IV.29. **Current figures on flows and stocks of foreign population and labour force, Sweden**

Figures in thousands unless otherwise indicated

	1998	1999	2000	2001		1998	1999	2000	2001
Inflows of foreigners by nationality or region of origin¹	35.7	34.6	42.6	44.1	Total population³	8 854.3	8 861.4	8 882.8	8 909.1
Nordic countries	5.8	7.0	8.8	9.4	% of foreign population	5.6	5.5	5.4	5.3
Finland	3.0	3.4	3.6	3.4	Stock of foreign population³	499.9	487.2	477.3	476.0
Norway	1.6	2.0	2.9	3.0	Nordic countries	159.7	159.0	160.2	161.5
Denmark	1.1	1.3	1.9	2.5	Finland	99.9	99.0	98.6	97.5
Other countries	29.6	27.6	33.8	34.7	Norway	30.6	30.9	32.0	33.3
of which:					Denmark	25.0	25.0	25.6	26.6
Iraq	5.3	5.5	6.6	6.5	Other countries	340.2	332.0	317.1	314.5
Former Yugoslavia	1.9	1.2	2.9	2.4	of which:				
Net migration of foreigners by nationality¹	21.8	21.0	30.0	31.4	Iraq	26.6	30.2	33.1	36.2
Nordic countries	-0.3	1.4	3.1	3.4	Former Yugoslavia	26.0	22.7	20.2	20.7
Norway	-0.1	0.5	1.3	1.5	Iran	19.8	16.1	14.3	13.5
Denmark	-0.1	0.3	0.9	1.4	Persons with foreign background⁴	1 746.9	1 777.8	1 821.1	1 865.5
Finland	0.1	0.7	0.9	0.4	Foreign-born	968.7	981.6	1 003.8	1 028.0
Other countries	22.1	19.6	26.9	28.0	Swedish citizens	558.2	581.5	609.2	631.1
of which:					Foreigners	410.5	400.1	394.6	396.9
Former Yugoslavia	1.7	0.9	2.7	2.2	Born in Sweden ⁵	778.6	796.2	817.3	837.5
Number of residence permits by category of admission²	39.5	37.4	45.1	44.5	Swedish citizens	695.5	716.9	734.6	758.4
Family reunification	21.7	21.7	22.8	24.5	Foreigners	83.0	79.3	82.7	79.1
Refugees	8.2	5.6	10.5	7.9	Stock of foreign labour⁶	219.0	222.0	222.0	222.0
EEA-agreement	5.7	6.1	7.4	6.9	Nordic nationals	85.0	86.0	80.0	83.0
Foreign students	2.7	2.8	3.1	4.0	Non-nordic nationals	134.0	136.0	142.0	139.0
Adopted children	0.8	0.9	0.9	0.8	Acquisition of nationality by country of former nationality	46.5	37.8	43.4	36.4
Employment	0.4	0.3	0.4	0.4	Former Yugoslavia	9.0	4.0	5.1	7.3
Asylum seekers	12.8	11.2	16.3	23.5	Turkey	1.7	1.8	1.4	2.8
of which:					Finland	1.7	1.6	1.4	1.5
Former Yugoslavia	4.9	2.4	6.4	6.7	Other countries	34.1	30.3	35.5	24.8
Iraq	3.8	3.6	3.5	6.2	Mixed marriages	6.3	7.0	7.8	7.0
					% of total marriages	18.2	18.1	18.0	19.5

1. 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.

2. Residence permits are not required for Nordic citizens.

3. Data are from population registers and refer to the population on 31 December of the years indicated.

4. Foreign background, first or second generation immigrant only.

5. Persons with at least one parent born abroad.

6. Annual average from the Labour Force Survey.

Sources: Swedish Immigration Board; Statistics Sweden.

Illegal migration

Illegal entries to Sweden constitute an increasing share of the total number of asylum seekers as about 65% of asylum applicants have been illegally staying in the country. During 2001 a total of 15 300 aliens were apprehended in accordance with the provision in the Aliens Act (absence of necessary permits, visa overstayers etc.) compared to a total of

8 400 during 2000. The persons apprehended come mainly from Iran, Iraq, the former Yugoslavia, Bosnia-Herzegovina and Russia.

Refugees and asylum seekers

23 500 asylum seekers came to Sweden in 2001, an increase of about 7 000 compared to the previous year. The figure is twice that of 1999 when 11 200 persons applied for asylum. In 2001 about 36% of the asylum seekers were women. Applicants coming from the former Yugoslavia continued on a relatively high level of 6 700 but the number of Iraqis rose from 3 500 the previous year to 6 200 in 2001, which accounted for 26% of all asylum applications. An increasing number of asylum seekers also came from the Russian Federation, Iran, Afghanistan, Somalia, Bulgaria, Turkey and Syria. The growth in the number of asylum seekers continued in 2002 as 33 000 applied for asylum in that year.

Evolution of stocks of foreigners

In 2001 the Swedish population increased to 8 909 100 of whom 5.3% were foreign nationals (see Table IV.29). The foreign born population is steadily increasing and stood at 1 028 000 in 2001 or 11.5%, an increase from 1 003 798 the previous year. In the same year an additional 837 500 persons born in Sweden had parents at least one of whom was born abroad. Altogether the population of foreign origin accounted for 21% (1 865 500) of the total population in 2001.

Naturalisations

The number of naturalisations has fluctuated considerably in recent years. 36 400 persons were naturalised in 2001, about 10 000 less than in 1998. The 2001 figure includes 7 300 nationals from the former Yugoslavia, a decrease from the previous year. An increasing number of Turkish, Polish and Hungarian nationals have become Swedish citizens.

2. Policy developments

Admission, stay and integration

The government aims at a general labour market policy with the ethnic and cultural diversity in society as a point of departure and with the objective of answering to the needs of all persons in the labour force. The aim is to attain an employment level of 80% for the working age population by 2004. However, since the average employment rate in 2002 among the foreign born was about 60% compared to almost 77% for the native population, general labour market programmes are complemented by special efforts in order to enhance the participation of immigrants in the labour market.

One general labour market policy is an activity guarantee that has been introduced for those who risk long-term unemployment. The programme is expected to affect the situation of disadvantaged groups on the labour market. Recruitment subsidies constitute another general labour market initiative aimed to facilitate labour market participation for immigrants and those with particular problems. Generally, unemployed immigrants participate proportionally more in labour market programmes than the other unemployed.

Measures taken to improve the employment rate among immigrants are, for example, a national fund of EUR 16.5 million, to be provided starting in 2002 on a regular basis, in part to reinforce staff numbers at employment offices. An additional EUR 10 million has

been allocated each year from 2001 to 2003 to finance complementary courses for immigrants with a foreign university diploma, for language training, for the improvement of introductory programmes and to promote ethnic diversity in the private and public sector. For 2003, funds have been earmarked to finance further complementary courses for immigrants with a foreign university diploma in various professions where there are labour shortages.

In February 2001, the government presented a national action plan against racism, xenophobia, homophobia and discrimination to the *Reichstag* (Swedish Parliament). As a result a committee has been appointed to study the possibilities for general legislation against discrimination to complement the existing 1999 legislation against racial discrimination at work.

To set a good example, government agencies are commissioned to actively stimulate integration and to promote ethnic diversity among their employees. Hence government agencies are assigned to develop action plans to fulfil this task. The object is to eliminate factors that have contributed to the low representation of the foreign-born population in the public sector. In a government appointed investigation, changes have been suggested concerning the current requirement of Swedish citizenship and related legal issues that bar foreign nationals from certain governmental positions.

Amendments to the Aliens Act adopted in July 2000 provide for the granting of a permanent residence permit to women if the relationship ends before the close of the required two-year period, in cases where the applicant or the applicant's children have been subjected to any kind of serious abuse.

Citizenship law

In July 2001 a new Citizenship Law was enacted which recognises dual nationality. The new law facilitates the acquisition of Swedish nationality for children of Swedish fathers, adopted children and stateless children. Dual nationality is only possible if it is legally accepted by both states concerned. An applicant for citizenship must have a permanent residence permit. However, this requirement does not apply if the applicant is a citizen of a Nordic country. When the applicant is an EEA citizen, a temporary residence permit for at least five years is the equivalent of a permanent residence permit. An applicant must have been living in Sweden for five years (four years if the applicant is stateless or a refugee and two years for Nordic citizens).

Asylum and rights of refugees

In 1997 amendments to the Aliens Act were introduced which included extensive changes affecting asylum seekers in several areas. One amendment concerns what groups have the right to receive protection in Sweden. In 2002 the government put forward a proposal to reform the regime for appeals and procedures in asylum cases as well as in alien and citizenship cases. Central to the proposal for asylum cases is the introduction of a two-part process with enhanced possibilities for oral hearings. The current system has been criticised for not being transparent.

Measures against the employment of undocumented immigrants

Provisions in the Aliens Act and the Swedish Penal Code on smuggling and trafficking in human beings are currently subject to revision. It is proposed that the prison sentence

for the organising of illegal entry of aliens to Sweden for financial gain should be raised from a maximum of two years imprisonment to no more than six years. Under the Swedish law, a person employing an alien coming from a non-EEA country and lacking the requisite work permit, may be subject to a fine or, in aggravating circumstances, sentenced to no more than one year's imprisonment.

International agreements

Sweden is providing development co-operation within the area of migration to several countries such as Estonia, Lithuania and Latvia as well as to Russia, Belarus, Ukraine and most of the accession countries in Central and Eastern Europe. This co-operation aims at helping to develop a migration policy that conforms to international standards.

Switzerland

Introduction

The slowdown in economic activity worldwide, and especially in Europe, has adversely affected the Swiss economy, which stagnated in 2002. GDP grew by only 0.1% in 2002 and, according to OECD forecasts, will increase by 0.6% in 2003. Under these circumstances, even though the labour market situation is still satisfactory, the unemployment rate has grown significantly, rising from 1.9% in 2001 to 2.8% in 2002, and is likely to be over 3.5% in 2003.

In 2001, immigration rose while emigration fell. Quotas for residence permits were increased temporarily and nearly all categories of entries rose, especially asylum seekers (+17% over 2000) and seasonal and cross-border workers (+11% and 7.8% respectively). In 2001, the permanent foreign resident population accounted for 19.3% of the total population. The Agreement on the Free Movement of Persons concluded between Switzerland and the European Union entered into force on 1 June 2002.

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

Inflows and outflows of foreigners and of nationals

Net migration increased sharply in 2001 on the previous year (+53%), rising from 31 678 to 48 640 (see Table IV.30). This trend is explained by an upswing in immigration coupled with a fall in emigration. In 2001, there were a total of 101 353 new permanent immigrants (as compared to 87 448 in 2000), together with an additional 1 819 cases in which seasonal permits were converted into permanent permits.

German nationals were again the largest group of immigrants into Switzerland, with 14.4% of total entries in 2001, or some 14 600 persons. Nationals of the former Yugoslavia came next with more than 7 500 immigrants, followed by nationals of Sri Lanka (7 043). In 2001, only one immigrant in eight came from Italy, Spain or Portugal (as compared with nearly one in four in 1991). The number of foreigners emigrating fell slightly between 2000 and 2001 (-6%), but still consisted primarily of nationals of EU member states (Italians, Portuguese, Germans, Spaniards and French), half of whom were workers. Net migration was positive for nationals of Germany (8 175), the former Yugoslavia (5 400) and France (2 580), but was negative for nationals of Portugal (-654), Italy (-1 177) and Spain (-2 220).

Lastly, at 30 June 2001, there were some 591 700 Swiss nationals living in foreign countries and registered with Swiss diplomatic and consular missions abroad, or 11 300 more than the previous year. Nearly 60% of the Swiss living abroad reside in EU countries, especially France and Germany, while the other main Swiss communities are located chiefly in the United States (68 800), Canada (35 200) and Australia (19 500).

Table IV.30. **Current figures on flows and stocks of foreign population and labour force, Switzerland**

Figures in thousands unless otherwise indicated

	1998	1999	2000	2001		1998	1999	2000	2001
Population on 31 December of the years indicated	7 123.5	7 164.4	7 204.1	7 222.5	Foreign population by main nationality¹	1 347.9	1 368.7	1 384.4	1 419.1
% of foreigners	19.0	19.2	19.3	19.7	Italy	335.4	327.7	319.6	314.0
Components of foreign population change¹	7.1	20.8	15.7	34.7	Former Yugoslavia ³	321.1	189.4	190.7	194.7
Net migration ¹	16.0	27.7	31.7	48.6	Portugal	135.8	135.0	134.7	135.5
Natural increase	12.7	13.4	12.7	13.7	Germany	97.9	102.7	108.8	116.6
Acquisitions of Swiss nationality	-21.3	-20.4	-28.7	-27.6	Spain	90.4	86.8	83.4	81.0
Other	-0.3	-	-	-	France	56.1	58.0	59.8	61.5
Migration flows of foreigners²					Other countries	311.2	469.1	487.3	515.7
Inflows by main nationality²	74.9	85.8	87.4	101.4	Foreign workers	842.3	856.0	885.8	921.6
Germany	9.3	11.0	12.5	14.6	of which: Women	309.6	316.4	329.7	344.5
Former Yugoslavia ³	11.5	12.6	6.7	7.5	Workers by status of residence (as a % of total)				
Sri Lanka	2.4	7.0	Resident workers	82.1	81.9	81.0	80.2
France	5.4	6.2	6.6	6.6	Cross-border workers	16.8	16.9	17.6	18.2
Italy	5.3	6.0	5.4	5.6	Seasonal workers	1.0	1.2	1.4	1.6
Portugal	5.1	5.0	4.9	4.9	Foreign resident workers				
Other countries	38.3	45.0	51.3	55.0	By main nationality¹	691.1	701.2	717.3	738.8
Outflows by main nationality	59.0	58.1	55.8	52.7	Italy	184.4	179.3	175.4	172.3
Italy	8.6	8.7	8.0	6.8	Former Yugoslavia	142.8	80.4	82.8	85.7
Germany	5.5	5.9	5.9	6.5	Portugal	76.6	76.5	80.0	77.9
Portugal	7.8	8.0	6.8	5.6	Germany	58.7	61.3	65.4	70.9
France	3.3	3.7	3.8	4.0	Spain	53.7	51.7	50.1	48.8
Spain	5.3	5.4	4.7	4.0	Others	174.9	252.0	263.6	283.2
Other countries	28.5	26.5	26.5	25.9	By major industry division				
Net migration by main nationality	16.0	27.7	31.7	48.6	Extractive and manufacturing industries	283.2	278.9	281.8	286.1
Germany	3.8	5.1	6.6	8.2	Trade	90.0	90.7	94.6	97.3
Former Yugoslavia	5.3	10.4	3.9	5.4	Hotels, restaurants	81.2	82.2	81.9	83.8
France	2.1	2.6	2.8	2.6	Building	76.2	72.5	71.9	72.0
Portugal	-2.7	-3.0	-1.9	-0.7	Agriculture	13.6	13.5	12.9	12.3
Italy	-3.2	-2.6	-2.5	-1.2	Other services	147.0	163.4	174.3	187.3
Spain	-3.6	-3.8	-3.1	-2.2	Cross-border workers by nationality				
Other countries	14.3	19.1	25.8	36.5	(% of the total)	142.5	144.8	156.0	168.1
Asylum seekers	41.3	46.1	17.6	20.6	France	50.3	51.0	50.7	50.6
Acquisition of nationality	21.3	20.4	28.7	27.6	Italy	22.7	22.0	22.6	22.6
By country of former nationality					Germany	20.9	21.0	20.8	21.0
Italy	5.6	5.5	6.7	5.4	Others	6.1	6.0	5.9	5.8
Former Yugoslavia	3.3	2.4	3.3	3.7					
Turkey	2.1	2.3	3.1	3.1					
France	1.2	0.8	1.4	1.3					
Other countries	9.1	9.4	14.3	14.1					

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 included.

3. Federal Republic of Yugoslavia from 1999 on.

Source: Federal Office of Immigration, Integration and Emigration (IMES).

Illegal migration

In 2001, some 8 800 persons were refused entry into Switzerland (10 050 in 2000), including 1 850 illegal workers. These bans have mostly affected nationals of the former Yugoslavia (819), France (531), Brazil (403), the Slovak Republic (364) and Turkey (315). The illegal workers identified were mainly working in the sectors of banking, insurance, real estate and other services (33%), hotels (20.5%), construction (11%) and agriculture (10%).

Refugees and asylum seekers

After a particularly sharp rise in the number of asylum applications in 1998 and 1999 because of the wars in the former Yugoslavia, there was a relative levelling off in the number of applications in 2000 and 2001, with figures similar to those of the mid-1990s. In 2001, over 20 600 asylum applications were filed, as compared with 17 600 in 2000. However, provisional data for 2002 seem to confirm that the number of asylum seekers has begun to rise again, since 26 200 applications were registered. Of the asylum seekers who entered in 2001, 16.6% were from the former Yugoslavia, 9.5% from Turkey, 6% from Bosnia-Herzegovina and 5.8% from Iraq.

In 2001, out of 21 963 applications processed, 2 253 were approved, an average approval rate of 11.7%. However, this rate varies considerably according to the country of origin, ranging from 5.2% for the former Yugoslavia to 33% for Turkey.

Evolution of stocks of foreigners

The foreign population increased by 34 700 in 2001, rising to approximately 1 419 100 (see Table IV.30). Foreigners account for 19.7% of the total population. This total does not include persons with short-term permits, seasonal workers, asylum seekers or officials of international organisations and foreign governments or their family members. If all of these categories are taken into account, the proportion of foreigners rises to 21%.

Of the foreigners living in Switzerland, 36.9% come from Italy, Germany, France, Austria and Liechtenstein. Italians still constitute the largest group of foreign residents (22%), but their numbers have been falling continuously since 1974. The next largest foreign community comes from the former Yugoslavia (13.7% of total foreign residents). If the nationals of all the countries of the former Yugoslavia are taken into account, the total figure would be 345 459, or nearly 25% of the foreign resident population. The number of Portuguese nationals grew significantly between 1980 and 2001, rising from 10 700 to 135 500 (roughly 9.5% of the total foreign population). At the end of 2001, nationals of non-European countries accounted for 11.3% of foreigners residing in Switzerland. The growth in the number of Sri Lankan nationals settled in Switzerland has been particularly notable, the total having risen from 786 in 1989 to nearly 24 600 in 2001.

Naturalisations

After rising sharply between 1999 and 2000 (+41%), the number of naturalisations fell by 3% between 2000 and 2001 (some 27 600 in all). The increase observed between 1999 and 2000 was due to a simplification of application procedures and a reduction in the number of outstanding applications.

There are a number of ways of acquiring Swiss nationality: ordinary naturalisation (nearly 70% of naturalisations), facilitated naturalisation (approximately 28%), reintegration, recognition of Swiss citizenship under the new right of descent or through

marriage to a Swiss citizen, and adoption. The naturalisation rate is relatively low, however, since only 1.9% of foreigners residing in Switzerland on a permanent basis have obtained Swiss nationality. A breakdown of naturalisations by nationality of origin shows that 19.5% of naturalised persons in 2001 were of Italian origin, 13.4% were from the former Yugoslavia, 11.3% from Turkey and 4.7% from France. In 35.3% of cases, naturalisations concerned nationals of the European Economic Area (EEA).

2. Policy developments

Admission, stay and integration

To cover labour shortages, the Swiss government decided to raise temporarily in 2001 the quotas for short-term and one-year residence permits.

In March 2002, the Federal Council adopted a draft revision of the 1931 Act on the residence and settlement of foreigners. The draft legislation comprises three main elements:

- The admission and residence of nationals of non-EEA member states who are not asylum seekers. This measure would only apply to skilled workers.
- Improvement of foreigners' legal status by streamlining the formalities concerning geographical and occupational mobility and by extending the right of family reunion to all residence permit holders.
- New measures to ensure law and order and more effectively combat people smugglers and illegal immigration.

Furthermore, a circular of December 2001 lays down the conditions in which extremely serious personal cases can be taken into consideration in granting residence permits. The main criteria for possible regularisation are related to the length of the stay, integration into Swiss society and the individual's family or medical situation.

The Order on the Integration of Foreigners (September 2000) provides for a series of measures aimed at facilitating the integration of foreigners. The purpose of this Order is, *inter alia*, to develop language and integration courses, encourage foreigners' participation in social life, improve regional programmes and support specific projects. This three-year programme received CHF 12.5 million in funding in 2002.

Citizenship law

A draft reform of the legislation on the acquisition of Swiss nationality is currently under way and is aimed more specifically at facilitating the naturalisation of second-generation immigrants who have grown up in Switzerland. In particular, it would give third-generation foreigners born in Switzerland the right to acquire Swiss nationality at birth.

Measures against the employment of undocumented immigrants

The government has signed the UN Convention against Transnational Organised Crime and two additional protocols, one against the smuggling of migrants by land, sea and air and the other to prevent, suppress and punish trafficking in persons.

International agreements

The Agreement on the Free Movement of Persons concluded between Switzerland and the European Union entered into force on 1 June 2002, together with the six other sectoral agreements. The treaty will progressively lead to complete freedom of movement between Switzerland and the EU. However, access to the labour market will remain limited during a transitional five-year period, but Swiss nationals will be able to work and settle freely in EU member countries as from June 2004.

With the Berne Initiative, Switzerland launched in 2001 a global consultation process aimed at improving co-operation between States in the field of migration.

Turkey

Introduction

In 2001, Turkey faced the worst economic recession (-7.4%) in several decades. The economy recovered in 2002 with a growth rate around 4%, which was expected to continue in 2003. The economic and financial crisis, coupled with runaway inflation, had a particularly serious bearing on unemployment. In 2001, there were more than 1 900 000 unemployed persons, up 500 000 on the previous year.

In this environment, international migration in Turkey was mainly influenced, on the one hand, by the challenges stemming from the European Union enlargement and, on the other hand, by the recent growth in Turkish immigration.

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

Inflows and outflows of foreigners and of nationals

Immigration into Turkey has increased in the past decade. In addition to the legal entry of foreigners, Turkey has recorded the inflows of ethnic Turkish migrants who are most often included in the asylum seeker and refugee categories, so-called transit migrants and foreign workers. This last group entered Turkey illegally and the workers are, for the most part, illegally employed. In 2001, approximately 300 000 people entered Turkey, more than a third of them illegally.

Emigration flows fall in the context of family networks with Turks already established abroad. In addition, family reunification outflows increasingly include marriages of Turkish nationals or ethnic Turks living abroad with their spouse from Turkey. Overall, family reunification flows have continuously decreased since 1996 (90 000) and reached approximately 60 000 in 2001, according to official Turkish estimates. Emigration also stems from asylum seekers (25 000 in 2001), mostly from Afghanistan, Iran and Iraq, who have transited via Turkey to reach in most cases Germany, France, Switzerland or the Netherlands.

Turkish workers have also joined emigration flows by signing contracts to work abroad for 3 to 24 months with Turkish or foreign companies operating mostly in the Commonwealth of Independent States (CIS), the Gulf states, the European Union and Israel. In 2001, more than 20 000 Turkish nationals joined in contract-based work abroad. In addition, an estimated 1 000 highly skilled and skilled workers as well as university graduates, mostly in information technology, finance and management, emigrate every year.

Illegal migration

Illegal migration flows to Turkey can be broken down into three main migrant categories. The first category includes workers from Moldavia, Romania, Ukraine and the Russian Federation who are illegally employed in agriculture, construction or domestic

services (employing mostly Moldavian women). Most of these migrants entered Turkey legally but have overstayed their visa or failed to get their visas renewed. The second category of undocumented migrants consists of transit migrants who come to Turkey mostly from Iran and Iraq, but also from Pakistan, Bangladesh, Sri Lanka, North Africa, Nigeria, Somalia and the Democratic Republic of Congo. Many of these migrants not only entered Turkey illegally, but also will leave under the same circumstances. The third category is composed of migrants whose asylum application was rejected, but have continued to stay illegally in the country. According to border patrol checks, nearly 100 000 persons were apprehended with an irregular status in 2001.

Refugees and asylum seekers

Since the early 1980s, Turkey has become a country of immigration and transit for asylum seekers, averaging approximately 6 000 applications per year in the past five years. Most asylum seekers are from Iran, Iraq, Afghanistan and selected countries of the Middle East, Africa and Asia (see Table IV.31). The number of applications from Afghani nationals rose significantly in 2000 and 2001, as did those from Iraqis in 2003.

Table IV.31. **Current figures on flows and stocks of foreign population, Turkey**

Thousands				
	1998	1999	2000	2001
Residence Permit	168.1	198.5
<i>of which: Work</i>	24.2	36.0
<i>of which: Study</i>	24.6	31.0
<i>of which: Other</i>	119.3	136.5
Asylum applications in Turkey				
by Country of Origin				
Iran	2.0	3.8	3.9	3.5
Iraq	4.7	2.5	1.7	1.0
Other	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.7
Total	6.8	6.6	5.8	5.2
Asylum applications of Turkish nationals in European countries¹	..	16.7	23.7	25.7
Distribution of Turkish Nationals Abroad by Host Countries				
Europe Total	3 191	3 125
<i>of which: EU</i>	3 086	3 015
<i>of which: Germany</i>	2 110	1 999
USA	130	220
Australia	51	54
CIS	52	42
Canada	35	40
Other	144	138
Total	3 603	3 619
Number of workers sent abroad by the Turkish Employment Office by Host Country				
CIS	13.2	7.1	7.1	8.0
Middle East (except Israël) and Maghreb	7.9	5.9	2.5	5.2
Israël	1.8	1.5	1.3	3.9
European Union countries	1.8	2.4	2.3	2.7
Other European countries	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.3
Australia, Canada, USA	0.4	0.4	0.1	0.1
Other	0.9	0.1	0.3	0.0
Total	25.9	17.5	13.6	20.2
Undocumented migrants by country of origin				
Iraq	14.2	11.5	17.3	23.4
Afghanistan	0.9	3.0	8.5	9.5
Iran	1.1	5.3	6.8	8.5
Moldavia	0.0	3.1	8.3	8.0
Pakistan	1.8	2.7	5.0	5.6
Other	11.3	21.9	48.6	37.3
Total	29.4	47.5	94.5	92.4

1. European countries: Austria, Belgium, Bulgaria, Czech Republic, Denmark, Finland, France, Germany, Greece, Hungary, Ireland, Italy, Liechtenstein, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Norway, Poland, Portugal, Romania, Slovak Republic, Slovenia, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland and United Kingdom.

Sources: UNHCR (2001); Annual Reports of the General Directorate of Services for the Workers Abroad, Attached to the Ministry of Labour and Social Security BFBA (2001a).

Evolution of stocks of foreigners

Turkey has not recently collected data which can reliably describe the structure of its foreign population. According to the 1990 census, nearly 1 150 000 persons in Turkey were foreign-born, representing 2% of the 1990 population. Data on new residence permits delivered in 2000 and 2001 show an increase in the number of persons settling in Turkey for family reunification or work purposes (170 000 in 2000 and 198 000 in 2001). Most of the growth can be accounted for by nationals from Bulgaria, Azerbaijan, the Russian Federation and the United States.

Naturalisations

In 2000, slightly more than 7 000 foreign nationals applied for Turkish citizenship. Approximately 17 000 pending applications made in preceding years can be added to this figure. The number of applications submitted in 2001 reached nearly 5 400. Most of these applicants are of Turkish origin. Data on the number of naturalisations does not exist.

2. Policy developments

Admission, stay and integration

During the 8th Five-Year Plan (2001-2005), Turkey has recognised that it is not only a country of emigration but also of immigration. Accordingly, Turkish authorities drafted a bill related to the deliverance of work permits to foreigners. The law, which became effective in 2001, authorises the Ministry of Labour and Social Security to issue work permits and introduces a system of fines for both employers and migrant workers who are in an irregular employment situation. Moreover, the government decided to broaden the co-operation between various government agencies involved with migration issues. The State Institute of Statistics, the State Planning Organisation and the Turkish Labour Ministry have also made independent attempts to improve the collection and compilation of data on international migration.

International agreements

Most Turkish nationals emigrating to the European Union are employed in Germany within the framework of a bilateral agreement signed in November 1991. In 2001, approximately 2 000 Turkish workers were employed by Turkish companies in Germany under this agreement.

Turkey and the European Union are currently negotiating a pre-accession programme to prepare Turkey for membership to the European Union. These negotiations include necessary reforms across various fields, including the free movement of persons and migration policies (e.g. control of migration flows, integration of foreigners). By the end of 2004, a report will establish Turkey's progress on phasing in the implementation of the *acquis communautaire*.

United Kingdom

Introduction

The United Kingdom's macroeconomic performance has been robust. The economy has weathered the 2001 downturn relatively well and the recovery should compare favourably with that of other European countries. The GDP growth rate has reached 1.5% in 2001 and could be close to 2.2% in 2002. Unemployment has declined further to 5% in 2001 (5.1% in 2002).

Since 1998, the United Kingdom government has been actively reviewing its policies towards labour migration, principally to deal with shortages of skills and labour in the labour market. In 1999, the overall number of persons entering under the various types of work permits was 183 500. In light of the increase in work permits granted, the introduction of the Highly Skilled Migrant Programme (HSMP) and the Sector-Based Scheme (SBS), and the increase in the Seasonal Agricultural Workers Scheme (SAWS) quota, the figures for 2003 are likely to be in excess of 300 000. The increased routes of entry for the high and low skilled as well as the increased use of quotas mark a significant change from previous practice.

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

Inflows and outflows of foreigners and of nationals

The International Passenger Survey (the IPS), a sample of passengers' stay intentions from which estimates are made and subsequently adjusted to take account of changed intentions, is the source for the official United Kingdom migration flow data.

Net migration for 2001 increased by just over 5.5% to 171 800 compared to 2000 (162 800) (see Table IV.32). Net emigration of British citizens in 2001, at 53 000, was slightly less (with inflows slightly up and outflows down) than the previous year's figure (57 000) which had shown a substantial increase of 150% over 1999 (22 800).

Flows of non-British citizens fell, but with outflows declining more than inflows, net migration by non-British nationals increased by 2.3% compared with 2000, continuing the trend of increasing net migration evident since 1998. In particular, net migration by EU citizens increased in 2001 by about 84% (even though inflows and outflows both decreased) to 11 200.

In total, 115 800 work permits were approved in 2001 (including renewals). This represents a large increase of more than 35% compared to 2000, when 85 600 permits were allocated. The most common countries of origin were India (16 900) and the United States (11 100). An upward trend is evident in most industries, with a particular emphasis on health and medical services (over 24% of all work permits and first permissions).

Table IV.32. **Current figures on flows and stocks of foreign population and labour force, United Kingdom**

All figures in thousands unless otherwise indicated

	1998	1999	2000	2001		1998	1999	2000	2001
Migration flows (adjusted figures)¹					Total grants of citizenship in the United Kingdom				
Total inflows	390.3	453.8	483.4	479.6	by previous country or region of nationality²	53.5	54.9	82.2	90.3
Inflows of non-British citizens	287.3	337.4	379.3	373.3	Indian sub-continent	14.6	14.8	22.1	23.7
<i>of which:</i>					Africa	12.9	12.9	21.9	29.8
EU	81.8	66.6	63.1	60.4	Asia	10.7	10.9	15.8	14.0
Non-EU	205.5	270.8	316.2	312.9	Middle East	4.3	4.7	6.6	5.3
Inflows of British citizens	103.1	116.4	104.1	106.3	Remainder of Asia	6.4	6.2	9.2	8.6
Total outflows	241.5	290.8	320.7	307.7	Europe	5.9	7.3	11.4	11.1
Outflows of non-British citizens	125.7	151.6	159.6	148.5	European Economic Area	1.3	1.7	2.1	1.7
<i>of which:</i>					Remainder of Europe	4.6	5.6	9.4	9.4
EU	48.9	58.6	57.0	49.1	America	5.2	5.4	7.0	7.2
Non-EU	76.8	93.0	102.6	99.4	Oceania	1.6	1.5	1.7	1.5
Outflows of British citizens	125.8	139.2	161.1	159.2	Other	2.5	2.2	2.3	2.6
Net migration	138.8	163.0	162.8	171.8	Asylum seekers (Total applications received)²	46.0	71.2	80.3	71.4
Non-British citizens	161.6	185.8	219.7	224.8	By region of origin				
<i>of which:</i>					Europe	17.8	28.3	22.9	14.3
EU	33.0	8.0	6.1	11.2	Africa	12.4	18.4	17.9	20.7
Non-EU	128.6	177.8	213.6	213.6	America	1.0	2.0	1.4	1.3
British citizens	-22.7	-22.8	-57.0	-53.0	Asia	11.9	17.5	23.2	23.6
Acceptances for settlement²	69.8	97.1	125.1	106.8	Middle East	2.8	4.2	14.4	11.2
By region of origin					Other	0.1	0.8	0.4	0.3
Europe (excluding EU) ³	7.3	16.0	15.1	13.8	According to the place where the application was received (%)				
America	10.8	8.5	11.5	11.9	At port	50.9	59.0	32.3	35.3
Africa	16.1	27.0	44.5	31.4	In country	49.1	41.0	67.7	64.7
Indian Sub-Continent	16.4	21.4	22.7	22.9	Illegal immigration statistics				
Middle East ⁴	4.2	5.6	7.1	..	Persons against whom enforcement				
Remainder of Asia	9.5	13.1	17.7	20.5	action taken	21.1	23.0	50.6	76.1
Oceania	3.7	4.1	4.9	5.5	<i>of which:</i> Illegal entry action ⁶	16.5	21.2	47.3	69.9
Other	1.8	1.4	1.6	0.9	Total persons removed from the UK ⁷	34.9	37.8	46.7	49.1
By category of acceptance					Total work permit applications approved				
Accepted in own right	10.3	31.7	39.9	..	Total (including trainees)⁸	48.2	53.4	66.9	81.1
Spouses and dependants	53.0	65.2	84.9	76.7	<i>of which:</i>				
Other	6.4	0.2	0.3	..	Short-term	28.0	28.4	30.7	30.8
Stock of total population by nationality					Long-term	20.2	25.0	36.2	50.3
(Labour Force Survey)					Total work permits and first permissions	37.5	42.0	64.6	85.1
Total population ⁵	58 106	58 298	58 425	58 866	India	5.7	5.7	12.3	16.9
British citizens	55 895	56 079	56 065	56 272	United States	10.2	9.7	12.7	11.1
Foreign nationals	2 207	2 208	2 342	2 587	Philippines	0.3	2.3	6.8	8.5
					Australia and New Zealand	3.4	3.8	5.7	7.9
					Other countries	18.0	20.5	27.2	40.7
					Total stock of employment⁹				
					Total	26 736	27 025	27 568	28 029
					British citizens	25 696	26 018	26 460	26 799
					Foreign nationals	1 039	1 005	1 107	1 229

Table IV.32. **Current figures on flows and stocks of foreign population and labour force, United Kingdom (cont.)**

All figures in thousands unless otherwise indicated

1. Data are from the International Passenger Survey and have been revised since 1992. Figures for all years show the EU as it has been constituted since 1 January 1995. Movements between the Republic of Ireland and the United Kingdom are not recorded. Data include adjustments for asylum seekers and for persons admitted as short-term visitors who are subsequently granted an extension of stay for other reasons (except in 2001).
2. Provisional figures for 2001.
3. An acceptance of settlement is not required for EU citizens.
4. Figures in 2001 for Middle East are included in remainder of Asia.
5. Including not stated nationality.
6. Illegal entrants detected and persons issued with a notice of intention to deport or recommended for deportation by a court.
7. Including "voluntary" departures after enforcement action was initiated.
8. Including extensions and changes of employment.
9. Data are from the National Labour Force Survey.

Sources: International Passenger Survey; Home Office Statistical Bulletin; Control of Immigration Statistics; National Labour Force Survey.

The quota for the Seasonal Agricultural Workers Scheme has been significantly increased from 10 000 for previous years to 15 200 in 2001 (18 700 in 2002 and 25 000 in 2003). In 2001 the total number of SAWS participants reporting for work in the United Kingdom was 14 870. Participating countries with the highest number of workers were Poland (4 440), Lithuania (1 708), Bulgaria (1 779) and Ukraine (2 980).

Illegal migration

In 2001, the total number of persons against whom enforcement action was initiated increased by 50% to more than 76 100. Of this number, 69 900 illegal entrants (entering by deception or illegally) were served with papers. Those removed from the United Kingdom numbered approximately 49 100 (up about 5% over 2000) of whom 77% were removed after having been refused entry at a port. Some 9 300 of those removed had sought asylum at some stage.

Refugees and asylum seekers

Asylum seekers may be granted refugee status or "exceptional leave to remain" (ELR) where it would be unreasonable to enforce return to the home country. Principal asylum applications in 2001 numbered 71 400 (92 000 including dependants), 11% lower than the year before, the first annual decline for 5 years (see Table IV.32). Compared with 2000, applications from Zimbabwean, Afghan and Somali nationals increased significantly (by about 110%, 60% and 30% respectively). The main nationalities applying were Afghan (13%) and Iraqi and Somali (both accounting for 9% of the total). It is estimated that approximately 42% of applications in 2001 were accepted. At the end of 2001, some 38 800 asylum applications were awaiting an initial decision, a 56% decrease on the number waiting at the end of 2000.

In 2002, the number of applications for asylum rose rapidly again with 110 000 asylum seekers recorded (including dependents), which represents an increase of 20% on 2001.

The Sangatte Red Cross Centre at the French end of the Channel Tunnel was definitively closed down in December 2002. In the context of this shutdown, the United Kingdom agreed to accept 1 200 Kurds, who will be granted a four-year work visa.

Evolution of stocks of foreigners

The number of people accepted for settlement in the United Kingdom in 2001 (106 800) showed a decline of 15% from the historic high of 125 000 in 2000 (which had occurred due to rule changes regarding asylum-related settlement). According to LFS data the stock of foreign nationals in the United Kingdom stood at 2.681 million in 2002, an increase of 3.6% over the previous year. Foreign citizens now account for 4.5% of the United Kingdom population. The Irish remained the largest national group but declined as a proportion of the foreign population to 15.3% from 16.8%. Europe was the largest source of foreign residents at 45.9% of the total, a slight increase due to the growth in numbers of Central and Eastern European citizens. African nationals declined to 14% but Asians as a proportion grew to 21% whilst Indian citizens accounted for 5.5%.

Naturalisations

In 2001, approximately 90 300 persons were granted citizenship, 10% more than in 2000, on the basis of residency duration (nearly 45%) and marriage (30%) and to minor children (nearly 25%). Former African nationals constituted almost 33% of the grants (up from 27% in 2000), with the Indian sub-continent accounting for over 25%. Countries with the largest number of grants were Pakistan (10%), India (9%), Nigeria (7%) and Somalia (6%).

2. Policy developments

Admission, stay and integration

The Nationality, Immigration and Asylum Act 2002 introduced a range of measures to target further illegal migration including people-trafficking and trafficking for control over prostitution. New technologies and extra security to combat illegal entry are being put in place including at various pre-entry points within France.

Measures to continue to improve routes for legal economic migration have been implemented in 2002 and further ones are under consideration.

The Highly Skilled Migrant Programme was introduced in January 2001 on a trial basis to allow those with exceptional skills to come to the United Kingdom to seek work. The Scheme is based on a point-scoring basis, covering educational qualifications, work experience, past earnings and achievements in their chosen field. Qualified medical General Practitioners receive priority under the scheme. In its first year the scheme received approximately 2 500 applications, of which 53% were approved. Of the 47% refused, 30% were approved following reconsideration. The Innovators' Scheme was extended indefinitely in order to attract entrepreneurs whose business is expected to lead to exceptional economic benefits. More recently, in April 2003, the requirement for graduate students to show an intention to leave the United Kingdom when coming to study was removed from the immigration rules.

Changes to the Working Holidaymakers Scheme are being considered so as to build on its ability to fill recruitment gaps. The SAWS has been reviewed and further expanded. The Work Permits programme announced that it would be introducing a new low-skilled work permit scheme on 30 May 2003. The Sectors Based Scheme (SBS), as it is called, was established to deal with shortages in the food manufacturing and hospitality sectors, to address problems with recruitment in fish, meat and mushroom processing, and hotels and catering. An initial quota of 10 000 work permits per sector will be introduced starting in 30 May 2003.

Citizenship law

The Nationality, Immigration and Asylum Act, among other things, introduces citizenship ceremonies and requires all new citizens to speak English (or Welsh or Scottish Gaelic) and have a knowledge and understanding of United Kingdom society.

Asylum and rights of refugees

The “exceptions leave to remain” (ELR) category is to be abolished and replaced by a “humanitarian protection” status, available only to claimants who prove they cannot safely return home. The right of asylum seekers to work if they had not received an initial decision within six months is to be ended but they are to be encouraged to use their time purposefully in other ways. A new Induction Centre opened in 2002, to screen new asylum applicants while accommodating them for two to ten days. The Act provides for the establishment of open access accommodation centres to which asylum seekers can then move while their claims are being processed. Other changes restricting access to asylum status have also been implemented. With other organisations, the government funds a programme to help rejected asylum seekers return home voluntarily.

Measures against the employment of undocumented immigrants

The Nationality, Immigration and Asylum Act has increased the powers of the Immigration Service to combat illegal working and the government has established a top-level working group to tackle this issue.

International agreements

On 2 February 2001, the Japan Youth Exchange Scheme was launched to enable Japanese nationals aged 18-25 (with a discretionary upper age limit of 30 years) to enter the United Kingdom for one year for a holiday, of which employment is an incidental part. A quota of 400 participants in each direction has been agreed to.

Finally, the United Kingdom government has decided not to apply the transitional periods on free movement of workers for the new European Union accession countries, as part of its overall strategy in managed migration.

United States

Introduction

During 2001, the United States was faced with a weak economy despite a modest turnaround at the end of the year. By the middle of 2002, the economy slowed down again but ended the year up at 2.4% real GDP growth, compared to 0.3% in 2001. Slow growth reflected a stagnant labour market with negative job growth. Unemployment reached a nine-year high of 6.1% in May 2003, up from 4.0% in 2000, 4.8% in 2001 and 5.8% in 2002.

New legislation passed in the United States reflected growing concerns about homeland security after the September 11 terrorist attacks. Although these concerns have already had, and will continue to have, a significant impact on the operations of the US immigration system, the debate has focused largely on security and not on immigration restrictions.

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

Inflows and outflows of foreigners and of nationals

Migration into the United States falls into three distinct categories: permanent immigrants (aliens lawfully entering the United States for permanent residence), non-immigrants (aliens admitted to the United States for a variety of specific temporary purposes such as attending university, employment, or even as a family member associated with such a person) and illegal migrants (aliens entering without inspection or overstaying/violating their temporary non-immigrant visas).

The number of persons given immigrant status in the United States rose by nearly two thirds between 1999 and 2001, from 646 568 to 1 064 318 (see Table IV.33). This increase, however, did not result from major changes in admissions criteria or numerical limitations. Rather, the increase was due to successful efforts to reduce the backlog of permanent immigrant applications, primarily from persons already in the United States on either temporary visas or in an illegal status. A processing backlog developed in 1994 and grew throughout the remainder of the decade, thus keeping recorded permanent immigration levels to the United States artificially low.

Permanent immigrant status in 2001 was granted primarily on the grounds of family reunion (675 178 or 63% of all immigration). In the same year, immigration based on employment preference (including accompanying family members) accounted for a further 17% (179 195), while those accepted on humanitarian grounds (i.e. with recognised refugee or asylum status) accounted for 108 506, or just above 10%. Since 2000, these three categories increased respectively by 16%, 67% and 65%. The remaining immigrants were admitted under the diversity programme and other immigration provisions. The employment-based preference system favours the entry of highly skilled workers, with only 10 000 permanent residence visas reserved each year for unskilled workers and their families.

Table IV.33. **Current figures on flows and stocks of foreign-born population, United States**

Figures in thousands unless otherwise indicated

	1998	1999	2000	2001		1998	1999	2000	2001
Inflows of permanent settlers					Foreign-born population by world region of birth				
By entry class					Total				
Immediate relatives of US citizens	283.4	258.6	347.9	443.0		26 281	26 448	29 985	31 811
Relative preferences	191.5	216.9	235.3	232.1	% Naturalised	36.9	37.0
Worker preferences	77.5	56.8	107.0	179.2	Latin and Central America	13 352	13 397	15 323	15 987
IRCA legalisation	1.0	0.0	0.4	0.3	Asia	7 015	7 161	7 916	8 509
Refugees	52.2	42.9	65.9	108.5	Europe	4 343	4 247	4 382	4 476
Diversity Programme	45.5	47.6	50.9	42.0	Other	1 571	1 642	2 364	2 839
Legalisation dependants	–	..	0.1	–	Stock of foreign-born labour force				
NACARA entrants	..	11.3	23.6	18.9	Total	24 213	24 616	27 604	29 331
Others	3.4	12.6	18.6	40.2	<i>of which:</i> Women	12 154	12 481	13 740	14 569
By region of birth					Civilian labour force				
Asia	219.7	199.4	265.4	349.8	Total	16 201	16 114	18 530	20 014
Central, South America and Caribbean	156.6	156.5	210.7	248.3	Employed	15 260	15 237	17 616	18 979
Mexico	131.6	147.6	173.9	206.4	Unemployed	940	877	914	1 035
Europe	90.8	92.7	132.5	175.4	Not in civilian labour force				
Africa	40.7	36.7	44.7	53.9	Total	8 012	8 502	9 074	9 317
Canada	10.2	8.9	16.2	21.9	Unemployment rate	5.8	5.4	4.9	5.2
Other	4.9	4.9	6.4	8.5	Participation rate	66.9	65.5	67.1	68.2
Total	654.5	646.6	849.8	1 064.3	Persons naturalised by region of birth				
Non immigrants admitted by class of admission¹					Total				
Total	2 305.0	2 230.4	2 603.1	2 817.0	Asia	154.0	273.9	331.1	247.2
Students	564.7	567.1	659.1	698.6	North America and Central America	208.2	385.6	347.2	200.9
Academic students (F1)	553.9	557.7	648.8	689.0	<i>of which:</i> Mexico	112.4	207.8	189.7	103.2
Vocational students (M1)	10.8	9.5	10.3	9.6	Europe	58.8	101.3	121.3	89.4
Representatives (and families)					South America	27.6	54.4	58.0	42.3
to international organisations (G)	86.1	91.8	97.6	94.1	Africa	12.5	20.4	25.9	24.3
Temporary workers and trainees	778.5	911.5	1 098.1	1 195.5	Oceania	1.6	2.4	2.7	2.6
Specialty occupations (H1B)	240.9	302.3	355.6	384.2	Unknown and stateless	0.5	0.3	0.3	0.2
Agricultural workers (H2A)	27.3	32.4	33.3	27.7					
Professional workers: NAFTA (TN)	59.1	68.4	91.3	95.5					
Intracompany transferees (L1)	203.3	234.4	294.7	328.5					
Treaty traders and investors									
and families (E)	144.6	151.4	168.2	178.5					
Others	103.4	122.6	155.1	181.1					
Family members often above classes									
and others	863.3	646.9	733.5	814.8					
Others	12.4	13.0	14.8	14.0					

1. Excludes foreign government officials, visitors and transit foreigners. Figures may be overestimated because of multiple entries by the same person.

Sources: Immigration and Naturalisation Service; US Census Bureau; Current Population Survey, March 2002.

Mexico continues to be the principal country of origin, currently accounting for more than 19% of all legal permanent immigration. The remainder relates to a diverse range of nationalities.

The United States also admits a large number of persons on a temporary basis who are categorised as “non-immigrants”, a significant proportion of whom are highly skilled

workers. In 2001, 2 948 000 temporary migrants were admitted (excluding short-term business or pleasure visitors and transit aliens). Temporary workers and foreign students account for respectively 41% and 24% of this total. Even allowing for the data qualifications (see below), the number of non-immigrants entering the United States has increased substantially throughout the 1990s: it more than doubled between 1994 and 2001 and, most recently, rose by 26% between 1999 and 2001.

Several data qualifications are noteworthy. Data for new permanent immigrants in a given year do not accurately reflect the total number of new entries into the United States that year. In 2001, more than 60% of those awarded immigrant status were already living in the United States. There are numerous possibilities available to transform a temporary status into a permanent immigrant status for students, temporary workers and other temporary migrants. In terms of non-immigrant data, it may reflect multiple entries by the same person over time. Temporary workers who are authorised to stay in the country for extended periods (*e.g.* H-1B visa holders) are likely to conduct short-term trips abroad.

Illegal migration

There has been considerable reassessment of the size of the illegal population in the United States. US Census Bureau officials were surprised to find that the enumerated United States population in 2000 was 6 million higher than anticipated, the principal cause of this disparity being identified as unauthorised migration. The US Census Bureau now estimates that the illegal population more than doubled between 1990 and 2000 and that, in April 2000, there were about 8.5 million unauthorised residents. Mexicans nationals are estimated to account for more than half of all illegal migrants. The INS estimated that visa overstayers accounted for nearly 41% of all illegal migrants in 1996.

Refugees and asylum seekers

While the application requirements according to the 1967 Protocol on Refugees are standard, the US legal and administrative systems distinguish between two groups, depending on the applicant's location: either outside the country or inside the country, including at a port of entry. Successful applicants from outside the country (who are subsequently allowed to enter the United States) are termed "refugees", while those awarded asylum status from inside the country or at a port of entry applications are called "asylees".

Each year, the President in consultation with Congress sets a ceiling on the number of refugees admitted into the United States. The ceilings have decreased recently, from 90 000 in 2000, to 80 000 in 2001 and 70 000 in 2002, the lowest level since 1987. Refugee arrivals into the United States have dropped by 19% since 1999 to 68 925 in 2001. The terrorist attacks of September 11, 2001 precipitated a 61% decrease in 2002 arrival levels, which reached 26 839. Refugee application approvals also fell significantly between 2001 and 2002 from 66 198 to 18 652.

Asylum applications for new cases received in 2001 totalled 59 305, with a slight decrease observed in 2002 to 58 439. In 2002, 18 998 cases were approved, covering 25 919 individuals who were then granted asylum.

Both groups can eventually adjust their status to permanent resident: refugees are eligible after one year in the country. Asylees must often wait longer, as the annual number

of adjustments to immigrant status is limited to 10 000 persons. In 2001, 108 506 refugees and asylees were granted permanent residence, compared to 126 084 in 2002.

Evolution of stocks of foreign-born

Recently available data from the 2000 Census indicate that between 1970 and 2000, the foreign-born population in the United States increased much more rapidly than the native population. The foreign-born population rose from 9.6 million to 31.1 million and its proportion of the total population more than doubled, accounting for 11.1% of the total US population in 2000. It has been estimated that the foreign-born population has continued to grow to an estimated 32.5 million in 2002.

The geographical origin of the foreign-born population in the United States has changed considerably since the 1970s. While European-born immigrants accounted for nearly 60% of the total foreign-born population in 1970, they accounted for only 16% in 2000. The earlier-arriving European cohorts have aged and are now experiencing high mortality rates, whereas recent migration flows from other regions have accelerated. Today, Latin America and Asia continue to account for the largest share of the foreign born with respectively 52% and 26%.

Naturalisations

Between 2000 and 2001, the number of aliens who naturalised in court ceremonies or administrative hearings decreased from 888 788 to 608 205 (see Table IV.33). Preliminary figures for 2002 show a continued decline to 590 000. Naturalisation rates, which refer to the proportion of immigrants who have gained citizenship through naturalisation, are highest for younger populations and persons originally from Africa or Asia.

2. Policy developments

Admission, stay and integration

On 25 November 2002, President Bush signed legislation combining the Federal security functions of 22 separate government bodies into one agency, the Department of Homeland Security. Nearly 40 000 employees of the former Immigration and Naturalisation Service and 22 000 Customs Service employees have joined this new agency overseeing 170 000 employees.

Measures against the employment of undocumented migrants

On 26 October 2001, President Bush signed the Uniting and Strengthening America by Providing Appropriate Tools Required to Intercept and Obstruct Terrorism (USA PATRIOT) Act of 2001. This legislation authorised the allocation of substantial additional staff and other resources to border control and inspection activities, technological improvements and the sharing of relevant databases between government agencies. It also requires the implementation of a foreign student monitoring system. This legislation was further reinforced by the introduction of the Enhanced Border Security and Visa Entry Reform Act, signed into law on 14 May 2002. This includes a requirement that by October 2004, countries in the Visa Waiver Program issue tamper-proof biometric passports.

International agreements

More generally, new immigration legislation taking effect in 2002 has allowed multinational companies to transfer employees to sites in the United States after just

six months of continuous employment, reducing the former requirement of one year. For the first time, work authorisation was extended to the spouses of intra-company transferees as well as spouses of traders and investors admitted through bilateral treaties.

By granting Trade Promotion Authority to the Executive Branch of the US government, Congress has enabled the Administration to pursue Free Trade Agreements (FTAs) with other countries. The recently completed FTAs with Chile and Singapore contain provisions covering the temporary entry of business persons.

In November 2000, the Victims of Trafficking and Violence Protection Act was signed into law to create 15 000 non-immigrant visas for women and children victims of trafficking and of physical or mental abuse. After three years, these non-immigrants are eligible for adjustment to permanent residence status.

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 the presentation of data in Section B. These data are a selection from the OECD's database of migration statistics.

Some preliminary remarks are required concerning the nature of the OECD's 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 are to a certain extent affected by the dates at which countries became members of the SOPEMI network. Recent participants to SOPEMI do not necessarily provide historical data in their reports and, in addition, further clarification is sometimes required before data can be published.
- SOPEMI has no authority to impose changes in data collection procedures. It has an observatory role which, by its very nature, has to use existing statistics. However, it does play an active role in suggesting what it considers to be essential improvements in data collection and makes every effort to present consistent and well documented statistics.

A. Sources and comparability of migration statistics

Compared to some other areas of statistics, such as labour force data, there exists little international standardisation of migration statistics. Consequently there are varying degrees of comparability between countries. One reason for this is that relatively few sources have as their *raison d'être* the recording of migration. Population registers, a common source of migration statistics, are used for a number of other administrative and statistical purposes. As a result, tailoring registers such that migration data conform to an international standard is made more difficult. Comparability is also problematic if data are based on residence or work permits. The data reflect migration systems and the policies of

national governments and so, once again, it can be difficult to generate harmonised data. Hence, although there has been some development and agreement in the definition and classification of migration for statistical purposes (see Box 1), these standards have proved difficult to implement.

Aside from problems relating to international comparability, there are other difficulties with migration statistics, most notably the problem of measuring illegal immigration. Estimation is difficult and the figures that exist should be viewed, therefore, with some scepticism (see OECD, 1989). For this reason, explicit estimates of illegal immigrants have not been included in this annex. However, some stock and flow data partially incorporate illegal migration, therefore the phenomenon does not necessarily go

Box 1. Definitions of migration flows and immigrant populations developed by the United Nations

Recommendations on statistics relating to international migration

The United Nations, in co-operation with other international organisations, has 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 taken 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).

completely unmeasured. For example, individuals may remain on population registers after their permits have expired, residing as illegal (or “undocumented”) immigrants. Finally, it should be noted that those achieving legal status under “regularisation programmes” are sometimes included in inflow data and must be taken into account when analysing trends. In addition, regularisation programs may be followed by an additional wave of immigration depending on the extent to which the acquisition of legal status allows family reunification.

The following provides a brief review of the sources of migration statistics (1); this is followed by a discussion of the techniques used for measuring migration flows (2) and of data issues relating to stocks of migrants and the immigrant population (3).

1. Sources of migration statistics

The principle sources of migration statistics are population registers, residence or work permits, censuses and surveys. However, a wide variety of other data sources (e.g. special surveys, counts at border crossings, analysis of landing cards) may sometimes be used. Table 1 provides an overview of data sources and shows that population registers are commonly used as a source of flow and stock data on migration, especially in northern Europe. In other countries, data on residence permits and census data are the most common means of measuring flows and stocks of international migrants.

Population registers

Population registers are accounts of residents within a country. They are typically maintained via the legal requirement that both nationals and foreigners residing in the country must register with the local authorities. Aggregation of these local accounts results in a record of population and population movement at the national level. As a result, the registers can provide data on all migrant flows (inflows and outflows of both nationals and foreigners) as well as data on stocks of foreigners and nationals. For this reason they tend to be widely used. However there are some drawbacks: individuals often fail to record their departures and therefore data on outflows can be less reliable. Also, there are differences in the type of migrants counted which must be taken into account in international comparisons.

Permit data

Residence and work permit data commonly form the basis of flow statistics for countries which do not have population registers. The data are necessarily more limited in scope as they do not capture all flows and it can be difficult to use them to generate stock and outflow data as these require careful accounting of the number of permits both issued and expired.

Census and household survey data

Census data enable comprehensive, albeit infrequent analysis of the stock of immigrants (censuses are generally conducted every 5 to 10 years). In addition, many labour force surveys now include questions about nationality and place of birth, thus providing a source of annual stock data. However, some care has to be taken with detailed breakdowns of the immigrant population from survey data as sample sizes can be very small. Inevitably, both census and survey data may under-represent migrants, especially

Table 1. **Summary table on the sources of migration statistics**

	Foreign and foreign-born population						Foreign and foreign-born labour force			
	Inflows of foreigners	Outflows of foreigners	Asylum seekers	Stocks of foreign-born population	Stocks of foreign population	Naturalisation	Inflows of foreign workers	Seasonal workers	Stocks of foreign-born workers	Stocks of foreign workers
Australia	O	O	O	E, C		O	R	O	S	
Austria	F		O	F	F, C	O	R			R
Belgium	F	F	O		F	O	R			R
Bulgaria			O							
Canada	P		O	C		O	R	O	C	
Czech Republic	F		O		F	O				R
Denmark	F	F	O	F	F	O	R			F
Finland	F	F	O	F	F	O	R			F
France	R		O	C	C	O	R	O		S
Germany	F	F	O		F	O	R	R		S
Greece	R		O		C					
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	O		F	O	R			R
Korea					F	O				R
Luxembourg	F	F	O	C	F	O	R			R
Mexico				C						
Netherlands	F	F	O	F	F	O				O
New Zealand	O	O	O	C			R			
Norway	F	F	O	F	F	O		R		F
Poland			O		E					
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
Turkey			O							
United Kingdom	O	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)

P: Acceptances for permanent settlement

C: Census

S: Labour Force Survey

E: Estimates

O: Other sources

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. There are also differences to account for among 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 from three months to 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.
- 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 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, labour force surveys 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

Box 2. Migration systems

Historically, migration systems developed alongside the evolution of nation-states and the concomitant desire to enumerate and sometimes influence the size and composition of the resident population. The need to implement immigration control is also linked to the increased numbers of individuals who are aware of attractive economic and social conditions elsewhere and able to afford the expense and risk associated with a long-term, or permanent move overseas. In some areas of the world, immigration control has also developed at an international as well as national level, creating zones of free movement, the most notable example being the European Union.

Whether operating at a national or an international level, most migration systems have the following features:

- The opportunity to enter the country and remain there for a limited length of time (often three months). Depending on the nationality of the entrant, a visa may or may not be required. Generally, the regulations are designed to encourage movements of individuals which provide economic benefits. Such movements include, *inter alia*, tourism and business travel. However, there are situations where entry may be strictly monitored. This type of movement is not regarded as migration as such and is commonly referred to as “short-term movement”.
- A mechanism for spouses and close relatives of citizens or permanent residents to enter the country on a permanent basis. They may arrive as “accompanying family” at the same time as the migrant, or at a later date under what is often called “family reunion”.
- A means for individuals who claim social and political persecution in their country of origin to apply for asylum. Such “asylum seekers” are usually treated on a case-by-case basis and may also have the right to remain in the country whilst their application is being processed.
- Mechanisms for individuals to enter largely for the purpose of employment and business. Policies governing this type of migration may reflect purely economic considerations such as perceived labour shortages or a desire to encourage international business links. However, policy may also be influenced by diplomatic considerations as well as policies and agreements in international trade.
- Means by which foreign citizens can acquire national citizenship (“naturalisation”). The ease with which this may be achieved and the incentives to do so vary across countries and may also depend on the implications of a change in legal status in the country of origin (see OECD, 1995, pp. 157-181).

Beyond these general features of immigration systems, it is common to distinguish between “temporary permit” 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 of 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.

Box 2. **Migration systems** (cont.)

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.

contribute to a significant rise in the native population. In 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 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.

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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:

- a) The tables provide annual series for the ten most recent years (in general 1992-2001). However data relating to the stock of the foreign-born population by country of birth (Tables B.1.4 and B.2.1) and of foreigners by nationality (Tables B.1.5 and B.2.2) are only given for certain years (in general 1986, 1991, 1996 and the most recent available year).
- b) Up to 1994 (inclusive), European Union (unless stated otherwise) refers to the following 12 countries: Belgium, Denmark, France, Germany, Greece, Ireland, Italy, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Portugal, Spain and the United Kingdom, members of the European Union on 31 December 1994. From 1995 onwards, European Union also includes the following three countries: Austria, Finland and Sweden.
- c) The A series tables are presented in alphabetical order by the name of the country in English. In the other tables, the nationalities or countries are ranked by decreasing order of the stocks for the last year available.
- d) In the tables by country of origin (series B) only the main 15 countries are shown and only when this information is available. "Other countries" is a residual calculated as the difference between the total foreign population and the sum of the nationalities indicated in the table. For some nationalities, data are not available for all years and this is reflected in the residual entry of "Other countries". This must be borne in mind when interpreting changes in this category.
- e) Tables on inflows of asylum seekers by nationality (Tables B.1.3) are presented for the top ten host countries in 2002.
- f) The rounding of entries may cause totals to differ slightly from the sum of the component entries.
- g) The symbols used in the tables are the following:
 - . . Data not available.
 - Nil, or negligible.

Tables of the Statistical Annex

Table A.1.1. **Inflows of foreign population in selected OECD countries**

Thousands

	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001
<i>Inflow data based on population registers:</i>										
Austria	59.2	72.4	66.0	74.8
Belgium	55.1	53.0	56.0	53.1	51.9	49.2	50.7	68.5	68.6	66.0
Czech Republic	5.9	7.4	9.9	7.9	6.8	4.2	11.3
Denmark	16.9	15.4	15.6	33.0	24.7	20.4	21.3	20.3	22.9	25.2
Finland	10.4	10.9	7.6	7.3	7.5	8.1	8.3	7.9	9.1	11.0
Germany	1 207.6	986.9	774.0	788.3	708.0	615.3	605.5	673.9	648.8	685.3
Hungary	15.1	16.4	12.8	14.0	13.7	13.3	16.1	20.2	20.2	19.5
Japan	267.0	234.5	237.5	209.9	225.4	274.8	265.5	281.9	345.8	351.2
Luxembourg	9.8	9.2	9.2	9.6	9.2	9.4	10.6	11.8	10.8	11.1
Netherlands	83.0	87.6	68.4	67.0	77.2	76.7	81.7	78.4	91.4	94.5
Norway	17.2	22.3	17.9	16.5	17.2	22.0	26.7	32.2	27.8	25.4
Sweden	39.5	54.8	74.7	36.1	29.3	33.4	35.7	34.6	42.6	44.1
Switzerland	112.1	104.0	91.7	87.9	74.3	70.1	72.4	83.9	85.6	99.5
<i>Inflow data based on residence permits or on other sources:</i>										
Australia ¹										
Permanent inflows	107.4	76.3	69.8	87.4	99.1	85.8	77.3	84.1	92.3	88.9
Temporary inflows	..	93.2	115.2	124.4	130.2	147.1	173.2	194.1	224.0	340.2
Canada										
Permanent inflows	252.8	255.8	223.9	212.9	226.1	216.0	174.1	189.9	227.3	250.3
Temporary inflows	60.5	57.0	58.9	60.4	60.9	63.7	68.1	75.5	86.2	..
France	116.6	99.2	91.5	77.0	75.5	102.4	139.5	114.9	126.8	141.0
Greece	38.2
Ireland	13.3	13.6	21.5	23.5	20.8	21.6	24.1	28.0
Italy	111.0	268.0	271.5	232.8
New Zealand	25.5	28.9	36.5	46.7	58.6	52.0	38.7	36.2	38.8	62.1
Portugal	13.7	9.9	5.7	5.0	3.6	3.3	6.5	10.5	15.9	14.2
United Kingdom	175.0	179.2	206.2	228.0	224.2	237.2	287.3	337.4	379.3	373.3
United States										
Permanent inflows	974.0	904.3	804.4	720.5	915.9	798.4	654.5	646.6	849.8	1 064.3
Temporary inflows	1 468.8	1 433.3	1 636.7	..	2 141.4	2 363.4	2 741.3	2 948.3
EU²	1 727.6	1 506.0	1 308.8	1 304.5	1 211.2	1 155.6	1 247.1	1 358.1	1 416.3	1 465.7
EEA²	1 856.9	1 632.2	1 418.4	1 408.8	1 302.7	1 247.7	1 346.2	1 474.2	1 529.7	1 590.7
North America (permanent)	1 226.8	1 160.1	1 028.3	933.3	1 142.0	1 014.4	828.6	836.5	1 077.1	1 314.7

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.

1. For 2001, data refer to the period from July 2001 to June 2002.

2. Above countries only (excluding Austria, Greece, Ireland and Italy).

Table A.1.2. **Outflows of foreign population from selected OECD countries**
Thousands

	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001
Belgium	28.1	31.2	34.1	33.1	32.4	34.6	36.3	36.4	35.6	24.5
Denmark	4.8	4.9	5.0	5.3	6.0	6.7	7.7	8.2	8.3	8.9
Finland	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.5	3.0	1.6	1.7	2.0	4.1	2.2
Germany	614.7	710.2	621.5	561.1	559.1	637.1	639.0	555.6	562.4	497.0
Hungary	4.6	2.9	2.4	2.4	2.8	1.9	2.3	2.5	2.2	1.9
Japan	205.9	201.4	204.9	195.2	161.1	177.8	188.1	199.7	210.9	232.8
Luxembourg	5.6	5.0	5.3	4.9	5.6	5.8	6.7	6.9	7.0	7.8
Netherlands	22.7	22.2	22.7	21.7	22.4	21.9	21.3	20.7	20.7	20.4
Norway	8.1	10.5	9.6	9.0	10.0	10.0	12.0	12.7	14.9	15.2
Sweden	13.2	14.8	15.8	15.4	14.5	15.3	14.1	13.6	12.6	12.7
Switzerland	80.4	71.2	64.2	67.5	67.7	63.4	59.0	58.1	55.8	52.7

Note: Data are from population or registers of foreigners. 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

	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002
Australia	4.9	8.1	7.8	8.1	11.1	8.1	8.4	11.9	13.1	6.0
Austria	4.7	5.1	5.9	7.0	6.7	13.8	20.1	18.3	30.1	37.1
Belgium	26.4	14.6	11.6	12.4	11.8	22.1	35.8	42.7	24.5	18.8
Bulgaria	–	–	0.5	0.3	0.4	0.8	1.3	1.8	2.4	2.9
Canada	21.1	20.7	25.0	25.0	23.9	24.6	30.0	36.1	41.6	33.4
Czech Republic	2.2	1.2	1.4	2.2	2.1	4.1	7.2	8.8	18.1	8.5
Denmark	16.5	8.0	10.1	7.4	5.6	6.1	7.1	13.0	10.3	6.7
Finland	2.0	0.8	0.8	0.7	1.0	1.3	3.1	3.2	1.7	3.4
France	27.6	26.0	20.4	17.4	21.4	22.4	30.9	38.7	47.3	51.1
Germany	322.6	127.2	127.9	116.4	104.4	98.6	95.1	78.6	88.4	71.1
Greece	0.8	1.3	1.4	1.6	4.4	2.6	1.5	3.1	5.5	5.7
Hungary	0.7	0.4	0.6	0.7	1.1	7.4	11.5	7.8	9.6	6.4
Ireland	0.1	0.4	0.4	1.2	3.9	4.6	7.7	10.9	10.3	11.6
Italy	1.3	1.8	1.7	0.7	1.9	11.1	33.4	24.5	13.3	7.3
Japan	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.4	0.3
Luxembourg	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.4	1.6	2.9	0.6	0.7	1.0
Netherlands	35.4	52.6	29.3	22.9	34.4	45.2	42.7	43.9	32.6	18.7
New Zealand	0.4	0.4	0.7	1.3	1.5	2.0	1.5	1.4	1.6	1.0
Norway	12.9	3.4	1.5	1.8	2.3	8.5	10.2	10.8	14.8	17.5
Poland	0.8	0.6	0.8	3.2	3.5	3.4	3.1	4.6	4.5	5.2
Portugal	1.7	0.6	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.2
Romania	–	–	–	0.6	1.4	1.2	1.7	1.4	2.4	1.1
Slovak Republic	0.1	0.1	0.4	0.4	0.7	0.5	1.3	1.5	8.2	9.7
Spain	12.6	12.0	5.7	4.7	5.0	6.8	8.4	7.9	9.5	6.2
Sweden	37.6	18.6	9.0	5.8	9.6	12.5	11.2	16.3	23.5	33.0
Switzerland	24.7	16.1	17.0	18.0	24.0	41.3	46.1	17.6	20.6	26.2
Turkey	5.8	5.2	3.8
United Kingdom	28.0	42.2	55.0	37.0	41.5	58.5	91.2	98.9	92.0	110.7
United States	144.2	146.5	154.5	128.2	85.9	55.4	42.2	46.8	63.2	63.4
EU	517.5	311.3	279.8	235.6	252.3	307.6	391.5	400.8	389.9	382.6
EEA¹	555.1	330.8	298.3	255.3	278.5	357.4	447.7	429.3	425.3	426.3
Central and Eastern Europe¹	3.8	2.4	3.7	7.4	9.3	17.5	26.1	25.9	45.2	33.8
North America	165.2	167.2	179.5	153.2	109.8	80.0	72.2	82.9	104.8	96.9
OECD¹	729.5	509.0	489.6	424.6	408.5	463.0	553.1	554.2	590.7	564.0

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

1. Above countries only.

Table A.1.4. **Stocks of foreign-born population in selected OECD countries**

Thousands

	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001
Australia	4 028.4	4 053.9	4 093.6	4 164.1	4 258.7	4 311.7	4 366.3	4 419.0	4 517.3	4 482.1
% of total population	23.0	22.9	22.9	23.0	23.3	23.3	23.3	23.3	23.6	23.1
Austria	895.7	872.0	843.0	892.6
% of total population	11.1	10.7	10.4	11.0
Canada	4 971.1	5 448.5
% of total population	17.4	18.2
Denmark	207.4	215.0	222.1	244.5	259.2	276.8	287.7	296.9	308.7	321.8
% of total population	4.0	4.1	4.3	4.7	4.9	5.2	5.4	5.6	5.7	6.0
Finland	106.3	111.1	118.1	125.1	131.0	136.2	145.1
% of total population	2.0	2.1	2.3	2.4	2.5	2.6	2.8
France	5 868.2
% of total population	10.0
Hungary	283.7	283.9	284.2	286.2	289.3	294.6	300.1
% of total population	2.8	2.8	2.8	2.8	2.9	2.9	3.0
Luxembourg	144.8
% of total population	33.0
Mexico	406.0	..
% of total population	0.5	..
Netherlands	..	1 375.4	1 387.4	1 407.1	1 433.6	1 469.0	1 513.9	1 556.3	1 615.4	1 674.6
% of total population	..	9.0	9.0	9.1	9.2	9.4	9.6	9.8	10.1	10.4
New Zealand	698.6
% of total population	19.5
Norway	..	216.2	233.4	240.3	246.9	257.7	273.3	292.4	305.0	315.2
% of total population	..	5.0	5.4	5.5	5.6	5.8	6.1	6.5	6.8	6.9
Sweden	834.5	869.1	922.1	936.0	943.8	954.2	968.7	981.6	1 003.8	1 028.0
% of total population	9.6	9.9	10.5	10.5	11.0	11.0	10.8	11.8	11.3	11.5
United States	22 600	23 000	24 600	25 800	26 281	26 448	31 107	31 811
% of total population	8.7	8.8	9.3	9.7	9.8	10.3	11.1	11.1

Note: Data are from censuses for Canada, France, Luxembourg, Mexico and New Zealand and from population registers for other countries except Australia and the United States. For these countries data are in part census data and in part inter- and post-censal estimates of the foreign-born population. 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

	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001
Austria	623.0	689.6	713.5	723.5	728.2	732.7	737.3	748.2	757.9	764.3
% of total population	7.9	8.6	8.9	9.0	9.0	9.1	9.1	9.2	9.3	9.4
Belgium	909.3	920.6	922.3	909.8	911.9	903.2	892.0	897.1	861.7	846.7
% of total population	9.0	9.1	9.1	9.0	9.0	8.9	8.7	8.8	8.4	8.2
Czech Republic	41.2	77.7	103.7	158.6	198.6	209.8	219.8	228.9	201.0	210.8
% of total population	0.4	0.8	1.0	1.5	1.9	2.0	2.1	2.2	1.9	2.0
Denmark	180.1	189.0	196.7	222.7	237.7	249.6	256.3	259.4	258.6	266.7
% of total population	3.5	3.6	3.8	4.2	4.7	4.7	4.8	4.9	4.8	5.0
Finland	46.3	55.6	62.0	68.6	73.8	80.6	85.1	87.7	91.1	98.6
% of total population	0.9	1.1	1.2	1.3	1.4	1.6	1.6	1.7	1.8	1.9
France	3 263.2
% of total population	5.6
Germany	6 495.8	6 878.1	6 990.5	7 173.9	7 314.0	7 365.8	7 319.5	7 343.6	7 296.8	7 318.6
% of total population	8.0	8.5	8.6	8.8	8.9	9.0	8.9	8.9	8.9	8.9
Greece	762.2
% of total population	7.0
Hungary	137.9	139.9	142.5	143.8	..	127.0	110.0	116.4
% of total population	1.3	1.4	1.4	1.4	..	1.2	1.1	1.1
Ireland	94.9	89.9	91.1	96.1	118.0	114.4	111.0	117.8	126.5	151.4
% of total population	2.7	2.7	2.7	2.7	3.2	3.1	3.0	3.2	3.3	3.9
Italy	925.2	987.4	922.7	991.4	1 095.6	1 240.7	1 250.2	1 252.0	1 388.2	1 362.6
% of total population	1.6	1.7	1.6	1.7	2.0	2.1	2.1	2.2	2.4	2.4
Japan	1 281.6	1 320.7	1 354.0	1 362.4	1 415.1	1 482.7	1 512.1	1 556.1	1 686.4	1 778.5
% of total population	1.0	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.3	1.4
Korea	55.8	66.7	84.9	110.0	148.7	176.9	147.9	169.0	210.2	229.6
% of total population	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.5
Luxembourg	122.7	127.6	132.5	138.1	142.8	147.7	152.9	159.4	164.7	166.7
% of total population	31.0	31.8	32.6	33.4	34.1	34.9	35.6	36.0	37.3	37.5
Netherlands	757.4	779.8	757.1	725.4	679.9	678.1	662.4	651.5	667.8	690.4
% of total population	5.0	5.1	5.0	4.7	4.4	4.3	4.2	4.1	4.2	4.3
Norway	154.0	162.3	164.0	160.8	157.5	158.0	165.0	178.7	184.3	185.9
% of total population	3.6	3.8	3.8	3.7	3.6	3.6	3.7	4.0	4.1	4.1
Poland	42.8
% of total population	0.1
Portugal	123.6	131.6	157.1	168.3	172.9	175.3	177.8	190.9	208.0	223.6
% of total population	1.3	1.3	1.6	1.7	1.7	1.8	1.8	1.9	2.1	2.2
Slovak Republic	..	11.0	16.9	21.9	24.1	24.8	27.4	29.5	28.3	29.4
% of total population	..	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5
Spain	393.1	430.4	461.4	499.8	539.0	609.8	719.6	801.3	895.7	1 109.1
% of total population	1.0	1.1	1.2	1.3	1.4	1.6	1.8	2.0	2.2	2.7
Sweden	499.1	507.5	537.4	531.8	526.6	522.0	499.9	487.2	477.3	476.0
% of total population	5.7	5.8	6.1	5.2	6.0	6.0	5.6	5.5	5.4	5.3
Switzerland	1 213.5	1 260.3	1 300.1	1 330.6	1 337.6	1 340.8	1 347.9	1 368.7	1 384.4	1 419.1
% of total population	17.6	18.1	18.6	18.9	18.9	19.0	19.0	19.2	19.3	19.7
United Kingdom	1 985.0	2 001.0	2 032.0	1 948.0	1 934.0	2 066.0	2 207.0	2 208.0	2 342.0	2 587.0
% of total population	3.5	3.5	3.6	3.4	3.4	3.6	3.8	3.8	4.0	4.4

Note: Data are from population registers or from registers of foreigners except for France and Greece (Census), Italy, Portugal and Spain (residence permits) Poland (estimates), Ireland and the United Kingdom (Labour Force Survey). The data refer to the population on 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

	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001
Countries where the national/foreign distinction is prevalent										
Austria	11.9	14.4	16.3	15.3	16.2	16.3	18.3	25.0	24.6	32.1
% of foreign population	2.2	2.3	2.4	2.1	2.2	2.2	2.5	3.4	3.3	4.2
Belgium	46.4	16.4	25.8	26.1	24.6	31.7	34.0	24.3	62.1	63.0
% of foreign population	5.0	1.8	2.8	2.8	2.7	3.5	3.8	2.7	6.9	7.3
Czech Republic	7.3	6.4	4.5
% of foreign population	3.3	2.8	2.2
Denmark	5.1	5.0	5.7	5.3	7.3	5.5	10.3	12.4	18.8	11.9
% of foreign population	3.0	2.8	3.0	2.7	3.3	2.3	4.1	4.8	7.3	4.6
Finland	0.9	0.8	0.7	0.7	1.0	1.4	4.0	4.7	3.0	2.2
% of foreign population	2.3	1.8	1.2	1.1	1.4	2.0	5.0	5.6	3.4	2.5
France	95.3	95.5	126.3	92.4	109.8	116.2	122.3	145.4	150.0	127.6
% of foreign population	4.5
Germany	179.9	199.4	259.2	313.6	302.8	271.8	236.1	248.2	186.7	178.1
% of foreign population	3.1	3.1	3.8	4.5	4.2	3.7	3.2	3.4	2.5	2.4
Hungary	21.9	11.8	9.9	10.0	12.3	8.7	6.4	6.1	7.5	8.4
% of foreign population	7.3	8.8	6.1	4.5	4.5	5.9	7.7
Italy	4.4	6.5	6.6	7.4	7.0	9.2	9.8	11.3	9.6	10.4
% of foreign population	0.5	0.7	0.7	0.8	0.7	0.8	0.8	0.9	0.8	0.7
Japan	9.4	10.5	11.1	14.1	14.5	15.1	14.8	16.1	15.8	15.3
% of foreign population	0.8	0.8	0.8	1.0	1.1	1.1	1.0	1.1	1.0	0.9
Korea	0.6	0.7	1.0	1.0	1.4
% of foreign population	1.1	1.2	1.5	1.1	1.3
Luxembourg	0.6	0.7	0.7	0.8	0.8	0.7	0.6	0.5	0.6	0.5
% of foreign population	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.3
Netherlands	36.2	43.1	49.5	71.4	82.7	59.8	59.2	62.1	50.0	46.7
% of foreign population	4.9	5.7	6.3	9.4	11.4	8.8	8.7	9.4	7.7	7.0
Norway	5.1	5.5	8.8	11.8	12.2	12.0	9.2	8.0	9.5	10.8
% of foreign population	3.5	3.6	5.4	7.2	7.6	7.6	5.8	4.8	5.3	5.9
Portugal	1.4	1.2	1.4	0.5	0.9	0.7	1.1
% of foreign population	0.9	0.7	0.8	0.3	0.5	0.4	0.5
Spain	5.3	8.4	7.8	6.8	8.4	10.3	13.2	16.4	12.0	16.7
% of foreign population	1.5	2.1	1.8	1.5	1.7	1.9	2.2	2.3	1.5	1.9
Sweden	29.3	42.7	35.1	32.0	25.6	28.9	46.5	37.8	43.5	36.4
% of foreign population	5.9	8.5	6.9	6.0	4.8	5.5	8.9	7.6	8.9	7.6
Switzerland	11.2	12.9	13.8	16.8	19.4	19.2	21.3	20.4	28.7	27.6
% of foreign population	1.0	1.1	1.1	1.3	1.5	1.4	1.6	1.5	2.1	2.0
United Kingdom	42.2	45.8	44.0	40.5	43.1	37.0	53.9	54.9	82.2	90.3
% of foreign population	2.4	2.3	2.2	2.0	2.2	1.9	2.4	2.5	3.7	3.9
Countries where the native-born/foreign-born distinction is prevalent										
Australia	125.2	122.1	112.2	114.8	111.6	108.3	112.3	76.5	70.8	72.1
Canada	116.2	150.6	217.3	227.7	155.6	154.6	134.5	158.8	214.6	167.4
United States	240.3	314.7	434.1	488.1	1 044.7	598.2	463.1	839.9	888.8	608.2
EU¹	457.5	478.7	577.6	612.3	629.3	588.9	608.2	643.1	643.1	615.8
EEA¹	473.9	497.2	600.2	640.9	660.9	620.1	638.7	671.4	681.3	654.3
North America	356.5	465.3	651.4	715.8	1 200.3	752.8	597.5	998.7	1 103.4	775.6

Note: Statistics cover all means of acquiring the nationality of a country, except where otherwise indicated. These include standard naturalisation procedures subject to criteria such as age, residency, etc., as well as situations where nationality is acquired through a declaration or by option (following marriage, adoption, or other situations related to residency or descent), recovery of former nationality and other special means of acquiring the nationality of a country. For more details on sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex. The naturalisation rate ("% of foreign population") gives the number of persons acquiring the nationality of the country as a percentage of the stock of the foreign population at the beginning of the year.

1. Above countries only excluding Portugal.

Table A.2.1. **Inflows of foreign workers in selected OECD countries**
Thousands

	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001
Australia										
Permanent settlers	40.3	22.1	12.8	20.2	20.0	19.7	26.0	27.9	32.4	35.7
Temporary workers	14.6	14.9	14.2	14.3	15.4	31.7	37.3	37.0	39.2	45.7
Austria	57.9	37.7	27.1	15.4	16.3	15.2	15.4	18.3	25.4	27.0
Belgium	4.4	4.3	4.1	2.8	2.2	2.5	7.3	8.7	7.5	7.0
Canada	70.5	65.5	67.7	69.7	71.5	75.4	79.5	85.4	93.7	93.1
Denmark	2.4	2.1	2.1	2.2	2.8	3.1	3.2	3.1	3.6	5.1
Finland	10.4	14.1
France										
Permanents	42.3	24.4	18.3	13.1	11.5	11.0	10.3	17.1	18.4	22.2
APT	3.9	4.0	4.1	4.5	4.8	4.7	4.3	5.8	7.5	9.6
Germany	408.9	325.6	221.2	270.8	262.5	285.4	275.5	304.9	333.8	373.8
Hungary	24.6	19.5	18.6	18.4	14.5	19.7	22.6	29.6	40.2	47.3
Ireland	3.6	4.3	4.3	4.3	3.8	4.5	5.7	6.3	18.0	36.4
Italy	166.5	182.0	219.0	145.3	92.4
Japan	108.1	97.1	111.7	81.5	78.5	93.9	101.9	108.0	129.9	142.0
Luxembourg	15.9	15.5	16.2	16.5	18.3	18.6	22.0	24.2	26.5	..
New Zealand										
Permanent settlers	4.8	5.1	6.7	9.8	13.8
Temporary workers	25.4	29.5	32.5	43.1	54.6
Portugal	2.2	1.5	1.3	2.6	4.2	7.8	6.1
Spain	48.2	7.5	15.6	29.6	31.0	30.1	53.7	56.1	74.1	41.6
Switzerland	39.7	31.5	28.6	27.1	24.5	25.4	26.4	31.5	34.0	41.9
United Kingdom										
Long term	9.9	9.4	10.2	11.7	11.4	16.3	20.2	25.0	36.2	50.3
Short term	26.3	24.5	23.0	26.1	29.4	27.4	28.0	28.4	30.7	30.8
Total	36.3	33.9	33.2	37.8	40.8	43.7	48.2	53.4	66.9	81.1
United States										
Permanent settlers	116.2	147.0	123.3	85.3	117.5	90.6	77.5	56.8	107.0	179.2
Temporary workers	175.8	182.3	210.8	220.7	254.4	..	430.7	525.7	635.2	688.5
EU¹	623.8	459.2	346.2	397.1	393.8	418.7	445.7	497.9	581.7	603.9
EEA¹	663.4	490.7	374.8	424.2	418.3	444.0	472.1	529.4	615.7	645.7
North America (permanent)	186.7	212.5	191.0	155.0	189.0	166.0	157.0	142.2	200.7	272.3

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

1. Above countries only (excluding Finland, Italy and Portugal).

Table A.2.2. **Inflows of seasonal workers in selected OECD countries**
Thousands

	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001
Australia	25.2	25.6	29.6	35.4	40.3	50.0	55.6	62.6	71.5	76.6
Canada	11.1	11.2	10.4	10.9
France	13.6	11.3	10.3	9.4	8.8	8.2	7.5	7.6	7.9	10.8
Germany	212.4	181.7	155.8	192.8	220.9	226.0	201.6	223.4	219.0	277.9
Italy	1.7	2.8	5.8	7.6	8.9	8.4	16.5	20.4	30.9	30.3
Norway	4.7	4.6	4.5	5.0	5.4	6.1	7.5	8.6	9.9	11.9
Switzerland	126.1	93.5	83.9	72.3	62.7	46.7	39.6	45.3	49.3	54.9
United Kingdom	3.6	4.2	4.4	4.7	5.5	9.3	9.4	9.8	10.1	15.2
United States	16.4	16.3	13.2	11.4	9.6	..	27.3	32.4	33.3	27.7

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

	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001
Stocks of foreign labour force										
Austria	295.9	304.6	316.5	325.2	328.0	326.3	327.1	333.6	345.6	359.9
% of total labour force	9.1	9.3	9.7	9.9	10.0	9.9	137.5	10.0	10.5	11.0
Belgium	325.6	342.1	354.9	362.1	368.0	377.4	390.7	386.2
% of total labour force	7.8	8.1	8.4	8.5	8.6	8.8	8.8	8.9
Czech Republic	..	51.6	72.1	111.9	143.2	130.8	111.2	93.5	103.6	103.7
% of total labour force	..	1.0	1.4	2.2	2.8	2.5	2.1	1.8	2.0	2.0
Denmark	74.0	77.7	80.3	83.8	88.0	93.9	98.3	96.3	96.8	100.6
% of total labour force	2.6	2.7	2.9	3.0	3.1	3.3	3.4	3.4	3.4	3.5
Finland	41.4	45.4
% of total labour force	1.6	1.7
France	1 517.8	1 541.5	1 593.9	1 573.3	1 604.7	1 569.8	1 586.7	1 593.8	1 577.6	1 617.6
% of total labour force	6.0	6.1	6.3	6.2	6.3	6.1	6.1	5.8	6.0	6.2
Germany	3 575.0	..	3 545.0	3 546.0	3 616.0
% of total labour force	8.9	..	8.8	8.8	9.1
Hungary	15.7	17.6	20.1	21.0	18.8	20.4	22.4	28.5	35.0	38.6
% of total labour force	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.7	0.9	0.9
Ireland	40.4	37.3	34.5	42.1	52.4	51.7	53.3	57.7	63.9	82.1
% of total labour force	3.0	2.7	2.5	2.9	3.5	3.4	3.3	3.4	3.7	4.6
Italy	296.8	304.8	307.1	332.2	580.6	539.6	614.6	747.6	850.7	800.7
% of total labour force	1.4	1.5	1.5	1.7	2.6	2.4	2.7	3.6	4.1	3.8
Japan	85.5	95.4	105.6	88.0	98.3	107.3	119.0	125.7	154.7	168.8
% of total labour force	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2
Korea	30.5	52.2	82.9	106.8	76.8	93.0	122.5	128.5
% of total labour force	0.1	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.6	0.6
Luxembourg	98.2	101.0	106.3	111.8	117.8	124.8	134.6	145.7	152.7	170.7
% of total labour force	49.2	49.7	51.0	52.4	53.8	55.1	57.7	57.3	57.3	61.7
Netherlands	229	219	216	221	218	208	235
% of total labour force	3.5	3.3	3.3	3.2	3.1	2.9	3.2
Norway	46.6	47.9	50.3	52.6	54.8	59.9	66.9	104.6	111.2	..
% of total labour force	2.3	2.4	2.5	2.5	2.6	2.8	3.0	4.7	4.9	..
Portugal	59.2	63.1	77.6	84.3	86.8	87.9	88.6	91.6	99.8	104.7
% of total labour force	1.3	1.4	1.6	1.8	1.8	1.8	1.8	1.8	2.0	2.0
Slovak Republic	5.0	5.5	3.9	3.9	4.8	5.5	5.9	4.5	4.7	4.4
% of total labour force	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2
Spain	139.4	117.4	121.8	139.0	166.5	178.7	197.1	199.8	454.6	607.1
% of total labour force	0.9	0.8	0.8	0.9	1.0	1.1	1.2	1.2	2.7	3.4
Sweden	233	221	213	220	218	220	219	222	222	227
% of total labour force	5.3	5.1	5.0	5.1	5.1	5.2	5.1	5.1	5.0	5.1
Switzerland	716.7	725.8	740.3	728.7	709.1	692.8	691.1	701.2	717.3	738.8
% of total labour force	18.3	18.5	18.9	18.6	17.9	17.5	17.4	17.6	17.8	18.1
United Kingdom	902	862	864	862	865	949	1 039	1 005	1 107	1 229
% of total labour force	3.6	3.4	3.4	3.4	3.3	3.6	3.9	3.7	4.0	4.4
Stocks of foreign-born labour force										
Australia	..	2 194.9	2 164.1	2 138.8	2 238.8	2 251.6	2 293.9	2 309.6	2 364.5	2 367.3
% of total labour force	..	25.3	24.8	23.9	24.6	24.8	24.8	24.6	24.5	24.2
Canada	2 839.1	3 150.8
% of total labour force	19.2	19.9
United States	12 900	12 900	14 400	15 400	16 100	16 114	18 530	20 014
% of total labour force	9.8	9.7	10.7	11.3	11.7	11.7	13.0	13.9

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

Data include the unemployed, except in Italy, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Norway and the United Kingdom. Cross-border workers and seasonal workers are excluded unless otherwise stated.

Table B.1.1. **AUSTRALIA, inflows of permanent settlers and temporary residents by country or region of birth**

Thousands

	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002
A. Permanent settlers¹											
New Zealand	7.2	6.7	7.8	10.5	12.3	13.1	14.7	18.7	21.9	..	15.7
United Kingdom	14.5	9.5	9.0	10.7	11.3	9.7	9.2	8.8	9.2	..	8.7
China	3.4	3.0	2.7	3.7	11.2	7.8	4.3	6.1	6.8	..	6.7
South Africa	1.3	1.0	1.7	2.8	3.2	3.2	4.3	5.0	5.7	..	5.7
India	5.6	3.6	2.6	3.9	3.7	2.7	2.8	2.6	4.6	..	5.1
Philippines	5.9	3.7	4.2	4.1	3.2	2.8	2.8	3.3	3.2	..	2.8
Fed. Rep. of Yugoslavia	2.9	2.2	..	2.1
Sri Lanka	2.8	1.6	1.4	2.0	2.0	1.4	1.3	0.9	1.3	..	2.0
Vietnam	9.6	5.7	5.4	5.1	3.6	3.0	2.3	2.1	1.5	..	1.9
Chinese Taipei	3.2	1.4	0.8	0.8	1.6	2.2	1.5	1.6	1.7	..	1.7
Fiji	2.1	1.6	1.3	1.5	1.7	1.7	1.1	1.6	1.9	..	1.6
Former USSR	2.0	3.2	2.0	2.3	1.7	1.8	1.0	0.9	1.0	..	1.2
United States	1.7	1.3	1.4	1.8	1.6	1.5	1.3	1.0	1.1	..	1.1
Lebanon	1.6	1.0	1.1	1.2	1.3	1.0	1.1	0.9	1.2	..	1.1
Hong Kong (China)	12.9	6.5	3.3	4.1	4.4	3.9	3.2	1.9	1.5	..	0.9
Other countries	33.5	26.5	25.1	32.9	36.4	30.1	26.5	25.8	27.6	..	30.5
Total	107.4	76.3	69.8	87.4	99.1	85.8	77.3	84.1	92.3	..	88.9
B. Temporary residents										..	
Europe	52.0	42.1	54.9	62.0	63.3	70.8	86.0	97.1	118.6	..	123.0
United Kingdom and Ireland	34.9	26.5	35.7	42.1	42.8	49.1	60.7	70.0	85.7	..	109.0
Northern Europe	14.4	12.7	15.9	16.9	17.7	18.9	22.1	24.1	28.8	..	10.0
Southern Europe	2.7	2.9	3.3	3.0	2.8	2.7	3.2	3.1	4.1	..	4.1
Asia and Middle East	35.8	27.0	31.7	31.5	34.4	43.1	48.1	53.6	58.1	..	98.9
Asia (excluding Middle East)	34.9	26.1	30.6	30.4	33.1	41.6	46.8	52.1	56.1	..	95.9
Middle East	1.0	0.9	1.1	1.1	1.3	1.5	1.3	1.5	2.0	..	2.9
America	27.2	21.9	25.5	27.1	28.7	26.7	31.0	33.2	34.6	..	60.1
United States and Canada	26.1	20.8	24.1	26.1	27.9	25.3	29.7	31.2	32.0	..	57.5
South and other America	1.1	1.1	1.4	1.0	0.8	1.4	1.3	2.1	2.6	..	2.6
Africa	1.1	0.9	1.9	2.2	1.8	4.1	5.8	7.1	8.9	..	10.3
Oceania	1.2	1.2	1.1	1.4	1.8	1.8	1.6	2.3	2.9	..	4.0
Other and not stated	0.6	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.6	0.8	0.8	0.9	..	43.9
Total	117.8	93.2	115.2	124.4	130.2	147.1²	173.2²	194.1²	224.0²	..	340.2

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. **AUSTRIA, inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

	1998	1999	2000	2001
Europe	49.1	59.4	51.7	61.4
<i>of which:</i>				
Former Yugoslavia	16.7	22.8	16.3	20.1
<i>of which:</i>				
Bosnia-Herzegovina	2.6	3.9	4.1	6.5
Fed. Rep. of Yugoslavia	9.4	13.5	6.4	6.2
Croatia	3.3	3.8	4.4	5.4
Former Yug. Rep. of Macedonia	0.8	1.0	0.9	1.4
Slovenia	0.6	0.6	0.5	0.7
Germany	6.6	7.5	7.7	10.4
Turkey	5.9	7.2	7.0	7.7
Poland	5.0	5.1	3.5	3.5
Hungary	2.1	2.3	2.5	3.1
Slovak Republic	1.7	1.8	1.9	2.4
Romania	1.5	1.8	1.9	2.4
Italy	1.2	1.4	1.4	1.7
Czech Republic	1.4	1.5	1.4	1.5
Africa	2.5	2.8	2.8	2.9
America	2.3	2.3	2.3	2.4
Asia	5.0	7.5	8.6	7.7
Other countries	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.4
Total	59.2	72.4	66.0	74.8
<i>of which: EU</i>	12.1	13.5	13.6	16.7

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

Table B.1.1. **BELGIUM, inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001
Netherlands	6.6	6.7	4.3	6.5	7.8	6.3	6.2	6.2	7.2	8.2
France	5.9	6.0	6.2	6.2	6.6	7.0	7.4	7.9	8.1	8.0
Morocco	3.3	3.4	4.8	3.6	4.0	3.9	4.3	4.9	5.7	7.1
Turkey	2.7	2.5	3.6	2.5	2.5	1.4	2.4	2.2	2.8	3.0
Poland	0.6	0.7	0.8	0.8	0.9	1.1	1.1	1.2	1.1	2.9
United States	3.1	2.7	2.9	3.0	3.0	3.1	2.8	2.9	2.8	2.9
Germany	2.8	3.0	3.1	3.1	3.2	3.1	3.2	3.1	3.0	2.9
United Kingdom	3.1	2.9	2.8	2.8	2.8	2.7	2.7	3.0	3.2	2.7
Italy	2.6	2.8	1.9	2.6	2.7	2.8	2.5	2.6	2.6	2.4
Spain	1.1	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.2	1.1	1.2	1.4	1.5
Dem. Rep. of Congo	2.7	2.3	2.2	1.0	0.8	0.6	0.7	0.8	0.8	1.4
Portugal	3.2	2.1	1.2	1.7	1.8	1.6	1.4	1.3	1.3	1.3
China	0.6	0.6	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.7	0.7	0.8	1.3
Japan	0.7	1.0	1.1	0.9	0.8	0.8	0.9	1.0	0.9	0.8
Other countries	16.1	15.4	19.8	16.8	13.3	13.0	13.2	29.5	26.8	19.5
Total	55.1	53.0	56.0	53.1	51.9	49.2	50.7	68.5	68.6	66.0
<i>of which: EU</i>	27.1	26.4	27.0	26.6	28.7	27.6	27.4	28.0	29.6	29.7

Note: Data are from population registers. Asylum seekers awaiting a decision are excluded from 1995 on. For details on definitions and sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

Table B.1.1. **CANADA, inflows of permanent settlers by region or country of birth**

Thousands

	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001
Asia and the Pacific	120.9	130.8	128.2	112.9	124.8	117.1	84.2	96.4	120.5	132.7
China	10.4	9.5	12.5	13.3	17.5	18.5	19.8	29.1	36.7	40.3
India	12.7	20.5	17.2	16.3	21.3	19.6	15.4	17.4	26.1	27.8
Pakistan	3.7	4.0	7.8	11.2	8.1	9.3	14.2	15.3
Philippines	13.3	19.8	19.1	15.2	13.2	10.9	8.2	9.2	10.1	12.9
Korea	3.2	4.0	4.9	7.2	7.6	9.6
Sri Lanka	12.6	9.1	6.7	8.9	6.2	5.1	3.3	4.7	5.8	5.5
Chinese Taipei	7.5	9.9	7.4	7.7	13.2	13.3	7.2	5.5	3.5	3.1
Hong Kong (China)	38.9	36.6	44.2	31.8	30.0	22.3	8.1	3.7	2.9	2.0
Vietnam	7.7	8.3	6.2	4.0	2.5	1.8	1.6	1.4	1.8	2.1
Other Asian countries	17.9	17.2	11.2	11.8	10.1	10.4	7.6	9.0	11.8	14.1
Europe	44.9	46.6	38.6	41.3	40.0	38.7	38.5	38.9	42.9	43.2
United Kingdom	7.1	7.2	6.0	6.2	5.6	4.7	3.9	4.5	4.6	5.3
Russian Federation	2.5	3.7	4.3	3.8	3.5	4.1
Poland	11.9	6.9	3.4	2.3	2.1	1.7	1.4	1.3	1.3	1.2
Bosnia-Herzegovina	..	2.8	4.9	6.3	5.1	3.8	3.7	2.8	1.0	0.9
Other European countries	25.9	29.7	24.3	26.6	24.8	24.7	25.2	26.6	32.4	31.8
Africa and the Middle East	41.6	36.5	29.4	32.9	36.5	37.8	32.6	33.5	40.8	48.1
Iran	2.7	3.7	5.8	7.5	6.8	5.9	5.6	5.7
Other African and Middle Eastern countries	41.6	36.5	26.7	29.2	30.7	30.3	25.8	27.6	35.2	42.3
America	45.4	41.9	27.6	25.7	24.7	22.5	18.8	20.7	22.8	26.0
United States	7.5	8.0	6.2	5.2	5.8	5.0	4.8	5.5	5.8	5.9
Other American countries	37.9	33.9	21.4	20.5	18.9	17.4	14.0	15.2	16.9	20.1
Not Stated	-	-	-	-	0.3	0.3	0.3
Total	252.8	255.8	223.9	212.9	226.0	216.0	174.2	189.9	227.3	250.3

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. **CZECH REPUBLIC, inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001
Ukraine	0.7	1.1	1.4	1.5	1.6	1.1	2.8
Slovak Republic	2.6	2.6	2.4	2.0	1.7	1.0	2.4
Vietnam	0.4	0.7	1.7	1.2	0.8	0.3	2.2
Russian Federation	0.3	0.4	0.7	0.5	0.6	0.4	0.7
Poland	0.2	0.2	0.4
Belarus	0.1	0.3
Germany	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.1	0.2
Romania	0.1	0.2	0.2
Bulgaria	0.2	..	0.1	0.2
Kazakhstan	0.3	0.2	..	0.1
United States	0.2	0.2	0.2	..	0.1	..	0.1
Fed. Rep. of Yugoslavia	0.4	0.2	0.1	..	0.1
Bosnia-Herzegovina	0.5	0.1
Other countries	1.2	1.7	2.9	1.3	1.4	1.1	1.5
Total	5.9	7.4	9.9	7.9	6.8	4.2	11.3

Note: In 2001, a change of the methodology used in the statistical measurement of international migration occurred. This change makes a comparison of the contemporary migration situation in the Czech Republic with that in previous years problematical. For more details on methodology, definitions and sources, refer to the note at the end of the Annex.

Table B.1.1. **DENMARK, inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001
Iraq	1.3	1.0	0.7	1.0	1.1	1.3	2.3	1.9	2.9	3.2
Afghanistan	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.6	1.5	3.0
Norway	0.6	0.7	0.8	0.9	1.0	1.1	1.1	1.2	1.3	1.2
Somalia	1.3	1.5	2.5	1.8	1.2	1.0	0.9	1.0
Germany	0.7	0.9	1.1	1.0	1.2	1.1	1.2	1.0	0.9	1.0
Turkey	1.1	0.7	0.6	0.8	1.2	1.0	1.2	1.1	0.9	0.9
United Kingdom	1.1	0.9	1.0	0.9	1.0	0.7	0.8	0.9
Sweden	0.6	0.6	0.7	0.8	0.9	1.0	1.0	1.0	0.9	0.8
Iceland	0.4	0.5	0.7	1.2	1.2	0.9	0.7	0.8	0.8	0.8
Thailand	0.4	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.7
United States	0.6	0.7	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.5	0.6
Poland	0.5	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.4
Netherlands	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.4	0.5	0.4	0.5	0.4
Iran	0.5	0.4	0.3	0.2	0.5	0.4	0.5	0.3	0.4	0.4
Pakistan	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.4	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.4
Other countries	9.9	9.0	6.4	22.5	11.6	8.7	8.4	8.5	9.3	9.7
Total	16.9	15.4	15.6	33.0	24.7	20.4	21.3	20.3	22.9	25.2
<i>of which: EU¹</i>	2.7	3.0	3.7	4.4	3.9	4.9	5.1	4.5	4.4	4.5

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 Finland and Sweden from 1995 on and also Austria from 1998 on.

Table B.1.1. **FINLAND, inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001
Russian Federation	2.9	2.2	1.9	2.0	2.0	2.4	2.5	2.2	2.5	2.5
Estonia	2.1	2.0	1.4	1.0	0.7	0.6	0.7	0.6	0.7	1.1
Sweden	0.6	0.4	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.7	0.8	0.7	0.7	0.7
China	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3
Thailand	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.3
Somalia	0.3	0.9	0.5	0.3	0.3	0.5	0.4	0.1	0.2	0.3
United Kingdom	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3
Iraq	0.2	0.4	0.1	0.2	0.5	0.5	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.3
Iran	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.3
Germany	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2
Turkey	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2
United States	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2
Ukraine	..	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2
Vietnam	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.0	0.1	0.1
Bosnia-Herzegovina	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.4	0.4	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.0
Other countries	2.5	3.5	1.7	1.8	1.7	1.9	2.2	2.5	3.2	4.0
Total	10.4	10.9	7.6	7.3	7.5	8.1	8.3	7.9	9.1	11.0

Note: Entries of foreigners intending to stay for longer than one year and who obtain a dwelling in Finland. 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

	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001
Morocco	16.4	13.8	8.1	6.6	6.6	10.3	16.1	14.1	16.9	18.7
Algeria	12.3	13.1	9.7	8.4	7.8	12.2	16.7	11.4	12.4	15.1
Turkey	9.2	6.8	4.7	3.6	3.4	5.1	6.8	5.7	6.6	6.9
Tunisia	4.0	3.5	2.3	1.9	2.2	3.6	5.3	4.0	5.6	6.5
United States	2.4	2.4	2.7	2.7	2.6	2.6
China	1.3	0.9	0.7	2.8	5.7	1.7	1.8	2.1
Haiti	..	3.2	1.9	1.4	0.8	1.9	1.9	1.4	1.8	2.1
Sri Lanka	0.8	0.9	1.2	1.3	2.1
Japan	1.3	1.2	1.1	1.0	1.1	1.2	1.1	1.4	1.2	1.4
Switzerland	1.4	1.4
Fed. Rep. of Yugoslavia	1.4	1.2	1.4
Romania	1.1	1.0	0.7	0.6	0.5	0.6	0.9	0.9	1.1	1.4
Russian Federation	0.6	0.7	0.9	1.0	1.1	1.4
Dem. Rep. of Congo	..	2.2	1.3	0.9	0.9	2.9	4.6	1.5	1.0	1.3
Brazil	0.9	0.7	0.6	0.7	0.8	1.0	1.2
Other countries	72.4	54.3	35.9	27.4	26.6	38.9	56.1	37.0	38.1	62.6
Total¹	116.6	99.2	69.3	56.7	55.6	80.9	116.9	86.3	95.2	128.1
<i>of which: EU</i>	25.9	14.4	10.8	7.9	7.1	6.4	6.1	28.7	31.6	12.8
Total²	91.5	77.0	75.5	102.4	139.5	114.9	126.8	141.0

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 1997, 1998, 1999, 2000 and 2001 data include 18 900, 45 800, 3 300, 170 and 70 persons respectively who benefited from the 1997 regularisation programme.
2. Figures include estimates of some unregistered flows (inflows of family members of European Economic Area citizens, for example). From 1999 on, the estimates provided by OMI have been replaced by more accurate figures from the Ministry of the Interior (AGDREF). As a result, totals from 1999 on are not fully comparable with data for previous years.

Table B.1.1. **GERMANY, inflows of foreign population by nationality**

	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001
Poland	131.7	75.2	78.6	87.2	77.4	71.2	66.1	72.2	74.1	79.7
Turkey	80.6	67.8	63.9	73.6	73.2	56.0	48.0	47.1	49.1	54.6
Russian Federation	24.6	29.4	33.4	33.0	31.9	24.8	21.3	27.8	32.1	36.6
Italy	30.1	31.7	38.7	48.0	45.8	39.0	35.6	34.9	32.8	29.0
Fed. Rep. of Yugoslavia	..	141.6	63.2	54.1	42.9	31.2	59.9	87.8	33.0	28.3
Ukraine	6.6	12.3	13.9	15.4	13.7	12.5	14.1	15.3	18.2	20.5
Romania	109.8	81.6	31.4	24.8	17.1	14.2	17.0	18.8	24.2	20.3
United States	21.3	17.6	15.8	16.0	16.3	15.1	17.0	16.8	17.5	17.4
Hungary	27.9	24.2	19.3	18.8	16.6	11.2	13.3	14.9	16.0	17.4
Greece	23.6	18.3	18.9	20.3	18.8	16.4	16.1	17.6	17.4	16.5
France	13.3	13.0	13.6	14.4	14.9	14.4	14.3	15.3	15.9	14.5
Croatia	..	26.0	16.7	14.9	12.3	10.0	10.1	12.6	14.1	13.9
Bosnia-Herzegovina	..	107.0	68.3	55.2	11.1	6.9	8.4	10.3	10.4	12.8
Czech Republic	..	11.0	9.6	10.0	8.9	7.7	7.7	9.3	11.3	11.3
Spain	5.4	5.8	6.0	7.2	7.8	7.8	7.5	8.3	9.1	9.4
Other countries	732.6	324.3	282.6	295.5	299.1	276.8	249.1	264.9	273.6	303.0
Total	1 207.6	986.9	774.0	788.3	708.0	615.3	605.5	673.9	648.8	685.3
<i>of which: EU¹</i>	140.8	136.7	155.8	177.2	172.5	151.5	136.0	137.3	132.7	125.3

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

	1998	<i>Of which: Women</i>
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

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001
Romania	5.1	4.2	4.0	5.5	7.8	8.9	10.1
Ukraine	1.3	1.4	1.4	1.8	2.4	2.4	2.4
Former Yugoslavia	1.3	0.9	0.8	1.5	2.5	1.8	1.0
Germany	0.4	0.6	0.6	0.7	0.8	0.8	0.7
Slovak Republic	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.6	1.0	0.5
United States	0.5	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.5
China	1.2	1.8	1.7	1.3	1.2	1.1	0.3
Russian Federation	0.5	0.5	0.4	0.5	0.4	0.3	0.3
Japan	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2
Israel	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2
France	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2
Norway	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2
United Kingdom	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.2
Mongolia	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.1	0.1
Austria	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.1
Other countries	2.5	2.5	2.5	2.7	2.6	2.4	2.2
Total	14.0	13.7	13.3	16.1	20.2	20.2	19.5
<i>of which: EU</i>	1.4	1.7	1.7	1.6	1.9	1.8	1.8

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

Table B.1.1. **IRELAND, inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002
United Kingdom	6.3	5.8	8.3	8.2	8.3	7.9	7.1	7.0	5.1
United States	2.0	1.5	4.0	4.2	2.2	2.5	2.2	2.8	1.9
Other countries	5.0	6.3	9.2	11.1	10.3	11.2	14.8	18.1	22.5
Total	13.3	13.6	21.5	23.5	20.8	21.6	24.1	28.0	29.5
<i>of which: EU</i>	9.6	9.0	13.3	13.7	14.1	14.7	14.2	12.8	11.2

Note: Central Statistical Office 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	2000	2001
Albania	11.2	37.2	31.2	27.9
Romania	5.9	20.9	20.7	18.7
Morocco	7.3	24.9	24.7	17.8
China	3.4	11.0	15.4	8.8
Poland	3.9	6.7	7.1	8.7
United States	4.7	5.7	7.2	7.3
Tunisia	1.5	5.8	6.8	6.5
Former Yugoslavia	5.7	24.5	5.3	6.0
Russian Federation	3.2	3.8	3.3	5.3
Ukraine	1.0	2.6	4.1	5.1
India	2.6	5.4	7.0	4.8
Former Yug. Rep. of Macedonia	1.6	5.7	3.9	4.7
Philippines	2.6	5.7	12.2	4.6
Sri Lanka	2.7	3.9	6.0	4.3
Brazil	2.4	3.5	3.7	4.3
Other countries	51.3	101.0	112.9	97.6
Total	111.0	268.0	271.5	232.8

Note: Including 137 262 (in 1999) and 116 253 (in 2000) permits issued to foreigners who applied for amnesty in 1998. 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

	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001
China	52.4	45.2	38.9	38.8	45.6	53.3	55.7	59.1	75.3	86.4
Philippines	57.5	48.2	58.8	30.3	30.3	43.2	47.6	57.3	74.2	84.9
Brazil	19.2	14.6	11.8	11.9	16.4	39.6	21.9	26.1	45.5	29.7
Korea	26.0	27.4	27.6	27.0	27.9	27.7	27.7	24.7	24.0	24.7
United States	29.3	21.3	21.3	18.8	17.1	17.9	17.1	23.1	24.3	20.6
Indonesia	5.9	5.5	5.5	7.2	8.3	10.2	8.6	8.8	9.9	10.6
Thailand	7.7	6.5	6.8	6.5	6.6	6.4	7.5	6.4	6.6	6.8
United Kingdom	6.7	5.9	6.6	6.4	6.4	6.9	6.8	7.0	7.0	6.7
Russian Federation	3.8	5.8	6.5	6.4	6.0	5.1	4.6	4.3	6.4	6.3
Vietnam	0.7	1.1	1.0	1.7	2.1	2.7	3.0	3.2	3.8	4.7
Other countries	57.9	53.1	52.6	54.7	58.8	61.8	65.0	62.0	68.7	69.7
Total	266.9	234.5	237.5	209.9	225.4	274.8	265.5	281.9	345.8	351.2

Note: Excluding temporary visitors and entrants with re-entry permit. 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

	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001
France	1.1	1.2	1.3	1.5	1.5	1.7	2.0	2.2	2.3	2.1
Portugal	2.4	2.9	2.4	2.4	2.0	1.9	2.0	2.1	2.2	2.3
Belgium	0.9	0.8	0.9	0.9	1.1	1.2	1.2	1.3	1.3	1.5
Germany	0.6	0.7	0.8	0.6	0.7	0.7	0.8	0.7	0.6	0.7
Italy	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6
United States	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.2
Netherlands	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2
Spain	..	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2
Other countries	3.9	2.5	2.6	2.9	2.8	2.7	3.4	4.4	3.1	3.5
Total	9.8	9.2	9.2	9.6	9.2	9.4	10.6	11.8	10.8	11.1
<i>of which: EU¹</i>	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

	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000
United Kingdom	6.5	5.0	3.5	3.7	4.3	4.3	4.7	5.0	5.9
Germany	7.1	7.4	6.1	4.7	5.7	5.7	4.7	4.5	4.9
Morocco	7.2	5.9	3.2	3.1	4.3	4.5	5.3	4.4	4.2
Turkey	9.1	7.8	4.3	4.8	6.4	6.5	5.1	4.2	4.5
United States	2.9	2.6	2.2	2.2	3.1	3.1	3.3	3.3	3.4
China	..	1.1	1.0	..	1.3	1.6	1.4	1.3	1.8
Suriname	6.9	7.8	2.9	1.7	2.8	2.6	3.2	1.8	2.1
France	1.8	1.5	1.4	..	1.7	2.1	2.1	2.0	2.2
Belgium	2.2	2.0	1.7	1.3	1.9	2.2	1.9	2.0	2.0
Italy	1.0	1.0	0.9	..	1.2	1.2	1.4	1.5	1.5
Poland	1.4	1.3	0.8	..	1.4	1.4	1.5	0.9	1.3
Spain	1.0	1.3	1.2	1.2	1.3
Japan	..	1.0	1.1	..	1.3	1.2	1.2	1.3	1.3
Somalia	1.4	0.3	0.2	0.1
Other countries	36.9	43.1	39.3	45.6	40.8	37.6	44.4	44.7	55.1
Total	83.0	87.6	68.4	67.0	77.2	76.7	81.7	78.4	91.4
<i>of which: EU¹</i>	22.3	19.7	16.0	14.8	19.2	20.3	19.9	20.4	22.1

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. **NEW ZEALAND, inflows of permanent and long-term arrivals by country of birth**

Thousands

	1999	2000	2001
China	3.1	4.9	11.8
United Kingdom	5.5	6.2	9.8
India	1.9	2.3	4.9
Japan	3.8	3.6	3.7
Australia	3.4	3.7	3.6
South Africa	2.1	2.1	3.0
Fiji	..	1.4	2.6
United States	1.3	..	1.5
Samoa	..	1.0	..
Chinese Taipei	1.5
Other countries	13.5	13.5	21.2
Total	36.2	38.8	62.1

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

	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001
Sweden	1.3	1.6	1.9	2.1	2.9	4.9	6.0	4.5	3.5	3.1
Denmark	1.7	1.7	1.9	1.6	1.6	1.8	2.1	1.8	1.9	2.0
Iraq	0.6	0.5	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.7	1.1	2.1	4.5	1.2
Germany	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.6	0.8	1.1	1.1	1.0	1.1
Somalia	0.5	0.6	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.5	1.1	1.2	1.5	1.1
Russian Federation	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.8	0.9	0.9
United Kingdom	1.1	1.1	0.8	0.8	0.9	1.0	1.3	1.0	0.8	0.9
Iran	0.5	0.4	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.6	0.7	0.7	0.6	0.8
United States	0.9	0.9	0.8	0.8	0.9	1.0	1.0	0.7	0.7	0.7
Pakistan	0.4	0.5	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.5	0.5	0.6
Thailand	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.6
Fed. Rep. of Yugoslavia ¹	2.5	1.8	0.8	0.6	0.2	0.2	0.3	6.5	0.7	0.6
Philippines	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.3	0.4	0.5
Poland	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.4
Turkey	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.4	0.4
Other countries	6.0	11.6	8.6	7.3	7.1	8.2	12.7	10.0	9.7	10.5
Total	17.2	22.3	17.9	16.5	17.2	22.0	29.9	32.2	27.8	25.4
<i>of which: EU²</i>	5.5	6.0	6.5	6.6	7.7	10.8	13.3	11.0	9.8	9.6

Note: Data are from population registers. For details on definitions and sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

1. Former Yugoslavia until 1992.

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	2000	2001
Angola	3.1	1.9	0.4	0.3	0.1	–	0.4	0.9	2.5	1.9
Cape Verde	1.1	1.1	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.8	1.0	2.1	1.7
Brazil	2.9	1.8	0.8	0.7	0.3	0.3	0.7	1.2	1.7	1.4
Spain	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.5	1.0	1.1	1.4
Guinea-Bissau	1.8	0.9	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	1.0	1.6	1.3
United Kingdom	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.7	0.5	0.4	0.5	0.7	0.8	0.9
Germany	0.3	0.4	0.6	0.6	0.5	0.4	0.6	0.8	0.8	0.7
Sao Tome and Principe	0.5	0.4	0.1	0.1	–	–	0.1	0.3	0.6	0.6
France	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.5	0.7	0.7	0.6
China	0.1	0.1	0.4	0.5
Netherlands	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.4	0.4	0.4
Italy	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.4	0.3	0.3
Venezuela	0.3	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.2
United States	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.1
Mozambique	0.3	0.1	–	–	–	–	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Other countries	1.9	1.4	1.1	0.9	0.7	0.7	1.1	1.7	2.2	2.1
Total	13.7	9.9	5.7	5.0	3.6	3.3	6.5	10.5	15.9	14.2
<i>of which: EU</i>	1.5	1.8	2.3	2.4	1.9	1.9	2.9	4.4	4.6	4.7

Note: 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

	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001
Iraq	3.8	4.6	3.5	2.3	2.1	3.7	5.4	5.5	6.6	6.5
Finland	2.7	2.4	2.8	2.8	2.6	2.8	3.0	3.4	3.6	3.4
Norway	1.9	1.5	1.6	1.7	1.5	1.5	1.6	2.0	2.9	3.0
Denmark	1.3	1.2	1.8	1.8	1.4	1.0	1.1	1.3	2.0	2.5
Former Yugoslavia	1.8	3.3	15.8	2.5	0.8	3.9	1.9	1.2	2.9	2.4
United Kingdom	0.7	0.7	0.6	0.8	0.9	0.8	1.0	1.0	1.3	1.4
Iran	3.6	1.9	1.5	1.1	0.8	1.7	1.5	1.0	1.1	1.3
United States	0.9	0.7	0.8	1.1	1.1	0.9	1.0	1.0	1.1	1.1
Bosnia-Herzegovina ¹	..	20.7	25.7	4.6	1.2	1.8	1.3	1.0	1.2	1.0
Poland	1.5	1.0	1.0	0.9	0.7	0.6	0.6	0.7	0.6	0.8
Turkey	1.1	0.8	1.1	1.1	1.1	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.7	0.7
Somalia	2.8	0.5	0.4	1.1	0.8	0.4	0.6	0.7
India	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.4
Chile	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.4
Greece	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.3
Other countries	19.3	15.2	14.9	14.1	13.8	12.0	14.9	14.4	16.9	18.0
Total	39.5	54.8	74.8	36.1	29.3	33.4	35.7	34.6	42.6	44.1
<i>of which: EU²</i>	6.1	5.8	7.0	7.9	7.9	7.1	8.4	8.8	10.8	11.9

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

	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001
Germany	9.6	8.6	8.7	8.6	8.7	8.5	9.2	10.9	12.4	14.5
Fed. Rep. of Yugoslavia	8.0	7.5	8.3	6.7	7.5
France	5.1	4.5	5.0	5.0	5.0	4.8	5.2	6.1	6.5	6.5
Italy	8.3	7.3	6.9	6.7	5.4	5.0	5.0	5.8	5.2	5.4
Former Yugoslavia ¹	33.6	34.2	25.3	22.3	14.1	4.8	4.0	4.3	4.2	5.1
United Kingdom	2.5	2.5	2.4	2.6	2.4	2.4	2.7	3.3	3.7	3.9
Portugal	13.3	10.0	8.6	7.6	5.5	4.0	3.5	3.5	3.6	3.7
United States	2.6	2.4	2.6	2.9	2.9	2.7	2.8	3.2	3.3	3.3
Turkey	5.3	4.8	3.8	3.8	3.4	2.9	2.6	3.0	2.8	3.1
Austria	2.0	1.6	1.5	1.3	1.3	1.3	1.2	1.4	2.0	2.4
Spain	3.9	3.1	2.3	2.7	2.0	1.6	1.5	1.5	1.6	1.6
Canada	0.7	0.6	0.7	0.9	0.8	0.8	0.9	1.1	1.3	1.3
Netherlands	1.8	1.4	1.5	1.5	1.4	1.1	1.0	1.1	1.2	1.3
Other countries	23.4	22.8	22.3	22.0	21.6	22.2	25.3	29.9	31.2	39.7
Total	112.1	104.0	91.7	87.9	74.3	70.1	72.4	83.4	85.6	99.5
<i>of which: EU²</i>	..	42.7	40.7	39.3	34.6	31.4	32.1	36.9	39.7	43.0

Note: Data are from the register of foreigners. For details on definitions and sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

1. Excluding the Federal Republic of Yugoslavia from 1997 on.

2. EU 15 for all years.

Table B.1.1. **UNITED KINGDOM, inflows of foreign population**

Thousands

	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001
Total	175.0	179.2	206.2	228.0	224.2	237.2	287.3	337.4	379.3	373.3
<i>of which: EU¹</i>	43.6	44.2	50.4	61.2	72.5	71.5	81.8	66.6	63.1	60.4

Note: Data are from the International Passenger Survey.

1. Figures for all years show the European Union as it has been constituted since 1 January 1995. 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

	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001
North and Central America	384.0	301.4	272.2	231.5	340.5	307.5	253.0	271.4	344.8	483.8
Mexico	213.8	126.6	111.4	89.9	163.6	146.9	131.6	147.6	173.9	206.4
El Salvador	26.2	26.8	17.6	11.7	17.9	18.0	14.6	14.6	22.6	31.3
Cuba	11.8	13.7	14.7	17.9	26.5	33.6	17.4	14.1	20.8	27.7
Haiti	11.0	10.1	13.3	14.0	18.4	15.1	13.4	16.5	22.4	27.1
Canada	15.2	17.2	16.1	12.9	15.8	11.6	10.2	8.9	16.2	21.9
Dominican Republic	42.0	45.4	51.2	38.5	39.6	27.1	20.4	17.9	17.5	21.3
Other North or Central American countries	64.1	61.7	47.9	46.4	58.8	55.3	45.4	51.8	71.4	148.0
Asia	357.0	358.0	292.6	267.9	307.8	265.8	219.7	199.4	265.4	349.8
India	36.8	40.1	34.9	34.7	44.9	38.1	36.5	30.2	42.0	70.3
China	38.9	65.6	54.0	35.5	41.7	41.1	36.9	32.2	45.7	56.4
Philippines	61.0	63.5	53.5	51.0	55.9	49.1	34.5	31.0	42.5	53.2
Vietnam	77.7	59.6	41.3	41.8	42.1	38.5	17.6	20.4	26.7	35.5
Korea	19.4	18.0	16.0	16.0	18.2	14.2	14.3	12.8	15.8	20.7
Pakistan	10.2	8.9	8.7	9.8	12.5	13.0	13.1	13.5	14.5	16.4
Other Asian countries	113.0	102.3	84.1	79.2	92.6	71.8	66.9	59.2	78.1	97.2
Europe	145.4	158.3	160.9	128.2	147.6	119.9	90.8	92.7	132.5	175.4
Bosnia-Herzegovina	–	0.2	0.5	4.1	6.5	6.4	4.2	5.4	11.8	23.6
Ukraine	14.4	18.3	21.0	17.4	21.1	15.7	7.4	10.1	15.8	21.0
Other European countries	131.0	139.8	139.4	106.7	120.0	97.8	79.1	77.1	104.8	130.8
South America	55.3	53.9	47.4	45.7	61.8	52.9	45.4	41.6	56.1	68.9
Colombia	13.2	12.8	10.8	10.8	14.3	13.0	11.8	10.0	14.5	16.7
Other South American countries	42.1	41.1	36.5	34.8	47.5	39.9	33.6	31.6	41.6	52.2
Africa	27.1	27.8	26.7	42.5	52.9	47.8	40.7	36.7	44.7	53.9
Oceania	5.2	4.9	4.6	4.7	5.3	4.3	3.9	3.7	5.1	6.1
Total	974.0	904.3	804.4	720.5	915.9	798.4	654.5	646.6	849.8	1 064.3

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.

Table B.1.2. **AUSTRALIA, outflows of foreign-born population by selected country of birth**

Thousands

	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002
United Kingdom	12.0	10.4	9.9	9.4	9.8	10.0	10.7	10.1	10.5	..	10.5
New Zealand	8.4	7.5	7.7	7.7	7.7	7.3	7.6	5.8	6.7	..	8.3
Hong Kong (China)	3.1	2.6	2.9	3.8	3.8	4.2	4.2	4.2	4.3	..	4.3
China	1.0	1.2	1.1	1.9	2.0	2.1	2.4	2.8	3.2	..	4.2
Malaysia	1.8	1.8	1.7	1.6	1.7	1.8	1.8	1.7	1.9	..	1.9
United States	1.6	1.5	1.3	1.2	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.4	..	1.5
Vietnam	0.3	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.7	0.8	1.0	1.0	..	1.5
Indonesia	0.5	0.6	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.7	0.8	..	1.3
Chinese Taipei	0.4	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.6	0.7	0.9	1.0	..	1.2
India	0.9	0.8	0.7	0.8	0.8	0.9	1.1	1.1	1.1	..	1.2
Singapore	0.6	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.7	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.8	..	1.2
South Africa	0.6	0.5	0.5	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.9	0.9	1.0	..	1.2
Philippines	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.6	0.7	..	0.9
Germany	1.0	0.8	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.8	0.7	0.8	..	0.8
Ireland	1.0	0.8	0.7	0.7	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.7	0.8	..	0.8
Other countries	15.0	14.3	13.6	13.0	13.1	13.5	14.2	14.0	14.8	..	15.3
Total	48.7	44.7	43.4	44.3	45.4	46.7	49.5	47.4	50.8	..	56.0

Note: Data refer to persons 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. **AUSTRIA, outflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

	1998	1999	2000	2001
Europe	38.0	40.1	35.7	42.3
<i>of which:</i>				
Former Yugoslavia	13.7	16.1	13.5	15.2
<i>of which:</i>				
Fed. Rep. of Yugoslavia	5.4	7.9	5.8	5.0
Bosnia-Herzegovina	3.6	3.5	3.4	4.7
Croatia	3.4	3.5	3.4	4.4
Slovenia	0.9	0.8	0.6	0.7
Former Yug. Rep. of Macedonia	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4
Germany	4.1	3.9	4.1	5.5
Turkey	3.8	3.7	3.6	3.5
Poland	4.7	4.8	3.0	3.2
Hungary	1.8	1.8	1.9	2.6
Slovak Republic	1.4	1.3	1.3	1.8
Romania	1.1	1.2	1.0	1.5
Czech Republic	1.3	1.2	1.0	1.4
Italy	0.9	0.9	0.9	1.2
Africa	1.6	1.5	1.6	1.5
America	2.1	2.2	2.9	2.6
Asia	2.7	3.1	3.8	4.3
Other countries	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.4
Total	44.9	47.3	44.4	51.0
<i>of which: EU</i>	8.2	8.0	8.4	10.6

Note: 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

	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001
Netherlands	3.4	3.5	3.6	3.9	4.1	4.4	4.2	4.4	3.7	3.4
France	3.3	3.4	4.0	4.2	4.3	4.5	5.3	5.3	5.3	3.4
United States	3.0	3.0	2.9	2.9	2.7	3.0	3.2	3.2	3.3	2.6
Germany	2.1	2.2	2.3	2.3	2.3	2.4	2.6	2.7	2.6	2.2
United Kingdom	2.3	2.4	2.7	2.7	2.6	2.8	2.9	2.8	2.8	2.1
Italy	2.0	2.0	0.7	2.1	1.9	2.2	2.7	2.3	2.2	1.6
Spain	1.0	1.0	1.2	1.5	1.1	1.4	1.6	1.6	1.5	1.0
Japan	0.8	0.8	0.9	0.9	0.9	0.9	0.9	0.8	0.9	0.8
Portugal	0.6	0.9	0.6	0.9	1.0	1.4	1.3	1.5	1.3	0.7
Canada	..	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.3
Greece	0.5	0.4	2.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.8	0.8	0.6	0.3
Turkey	0.6	0.6	0.8	0.6	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.4	0.3
Poland	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.5	0.5	0.4	0.5	0.2
China	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.4	0.2
Morocco	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.9	0.8	0.7	0.8	0.8	0.6	0.2
Other countries	7.8	9.4	10.4	8.6	8.4	8.3	8.1	8.3	9.1	4.9
Total	28.1	31.2	34.1	33.1	32.4	34.6	36.3	36.4	35.6	24.5
<i>of which: EU</i>	15.7	16.6	19.1	20.0	19.7	15.4	23.3	23.6	21.8	16.4

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

	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001
Norway	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.8	0.9
Sweden	0.4	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.6	0.7	0.8
Iceland	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.2	0.4	0.7	0.8	0.9	0.8	0.7
United Kingdom	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.8	0.8	0.7	0.7
Germany	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.6	0.5	0.6	0.6
Somalia	-	-	..	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.5	0.4	0.3	0.6
United States	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.4
France	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.4	0.3	0.4
Netherlands	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2
Finland	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2
Turkey	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2
Lithuania	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2
Italy	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2
Spain	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2
Poland	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.1
Other countries	2.2	2.3	1.7	1.8	2.1	2.1	2.2	2.3	2.4	2.6
Total	4.8	4.9	5.0	5.3	6.0	6.7	7.7	8.2	8.3	8.9
<i>of which: EU¹</i>	1.4	1.4	1.7	2.2	1.8	2.5	2.9	3.3	3.3	3.4

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 and also Austria from 1998 on.

Table B.1.2. **FINLAND, outflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001
Sweden	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.4
Russian Federation	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.5	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.1
United States	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.3	0.1
Estonia	–	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.1
United Kingdom	0.1	0.1	–	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.1
Germany	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.1
China	–	–	–	–	0.1	–	–	0.1	0.2	–
Somalia	–	–	–	0.1	0.1	0.1	–	0.1	0.2	–
Other countries	0.6	0.6	0.5	0.5	1.2	0.6	0.6	0.8	2.0	1.0
Total	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.5	3.0	1.6	1.7	2.0	4.1	2.2

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

	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001
Poland	109.5	101.8	65.8	70.7	71.7	70.2	60.7	58.6	60.4	64.6
Fed. Rep. of Yugoslavia	99.4	73.5	62.1	40.4	34.3	44.5	58.5	56.2	89.3	36.0
Turkey	40.3	45.5	46.4	43.2	43.5	46.0	45.1	40.9	39.0	35.9
Italy	32.7	31.0	32.1	33.5	36.8	37.9	37.9	37.2	33.6	33.1
Greece	16.2	17.5	19.2	19.3	20.1	21.8	20.3	20.0	18.4	18.7
Romania	51.9	101.9	44.0	25.2	16.6	13.6	13.5	14.7	16.8	18.6
United States	16.2	16.9	17.2	16.0	16.0	14.7	15.7	15.5	22.0	17.7
Hungary	21.2	25.1	22.0	18.8	17.0	15.1	12.2	12.6	14.2	15.0
Croatia	28.5	25.0	28.5	22.0	17.3	18.9	16.7	12.3	13.0	14.0
Russian Federation	6.2	7.8	12.3	13.5	12.6	11.2	10.3	10.1	11.4	12.0
Portugal	4.9	6.3	14.3	20.5	25.4	26.5	22.1	16.4	12.4	10.8
Bosnia-Herzegovina	..	10.3	16.5	15.7	27.2	83.9	97.5	33.3	17.3	10.5
Spain	6.5	7.2	7.6	7.2	8.2	9.2	8.4	9.5	9.4	9.6
Former Yug. Rep. of Macedonia	5.2	5.5	3.8	3.0	2.4	2.3	2.6	2.7
Morocco	2.3	2.8	3.3	2.7	2.5	2.4	2.8	2.7	2.8	2.6
Other countries	178.9	237.7	225.0	206.9	206.2	218.1	215.0	213.2	199.8	195.2
Total	614.7	710.2	621.5	561.1	559.1	637.1	639.0	555.6	562.4	497.0
<i>of which: EU¹</i>	111.8	116.4	133.4	139.6	153.9	159.3	146.7	141.2	125.3	122.1

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. **HUNGARY, outflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000
Romania	0.4	0.7	0.6	0.4	0.5	0.6
United States	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2
Former Yugoslavia	0.1	0.1	–	0.2	0.2	0.2
Poland	0.4	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.1
Germany	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.1
Slovak Republic	–	–	–	–	0.1	0.1
Ukraine	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1
Greece	0.1	0.1	–	0.1	0.1	0.1
Other countries	1.0	1.2	0.7	1.1	0.9	0.7
Total	2.4	2.8	1.9	2.3	2.5	2.2
<i>of which: EU</i>	0.5	0.5	0.2	0.5	0.5	0.5

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

Table B.1.2. **JAPAN, outflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001
Philippines	57.3	43.3	50.8	44.2	16.4	31.5	35.0	43.4	55.5	68.7
China	17.1	23.1	20.9	21.7	21.9	23.7	24.2	26.0	28.1	31.7
United States	26.2	25.9	25.8	25.0	25.0	24.5	25.0	22.7	21.4	19.2
Korea	19.1	16.8	16.6	14.6	12.6	12.6	10.5	13.1	16.2	16.3
Brazil	14.0	20.8	19.8	16.9	14.2	14.3	20.1	19.4	12.0	15.0
Indonesia	5.4	5.2	5.0	6.4	6.2	7.1	6.0	7.3	8.0	9.2
Russian Federation	3.3	5.2	5.5	5.7	5.2	4.7	4.2	4.0	5.1	5.7
United Kingdom	5.9	5.1	5.9	5.6	5.1	5.4	5.6	5.6	5.7	5.7
Thailand	6.8	6.1	5.4	5.6	5.3	4.7	5.3	5.6	4.5	5.2
Romania	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.6	0.7	0.5	1.1	1.9	2.5	3.4
Other countries	50.7	49.7	48.8	48.8	48.7	48.8	51.2	50.8	52.0	52.6
Total	205.9	201.4	204.9	195.2	161.1	177.8	188.1	199.7	210.9	232.8

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

	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001
Portugal	1.4	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.3	1.3	1.5	1.8	1.6	1.8
France	0.9	0.8	0.9	0.8	0.9	1.0	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.3
Belgium	0.6	0.6	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.7	0.7	0.9	0.9
Germany	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5
Italy	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.3	0.4	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.5
United States	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.4
Netherlands	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3
Spain	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Other countries	1.3	1.2	1.2	1.0	1.3	1.4	1.8	1.7	2.0	2.0
Total	5.6	5.0	5.3	4.9	5.6	5.8	6.7	6.9	7.1	7.8

Note: Data are from the Central Population Register. For details on definitions and sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

Table B.1.2. **NETHERLANDS, outflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001
Germany	2.9	3.0	3.2	2.9	3.5	3.1	3.0	3.0	3.2	3.0
United Kingdom	2.4	2.6	2.8	2.9	2.5	2.3	2.6	2.5	2.4	2.1
United States	1.9	1.9	1.8	1.5	1.9	2.2	1.8	1.8	1.7	1.7
Japan	..	0.9	0.9	..	1.1	1.1	1.0	1.1	1.1	1.1
Belgium	1.3	1.1	1.3	0.9	1.2	1.1	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0
France	0.8	0.7	0.8	..	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.8	1.0	0.9
Italy	0.5	0.4	0.5	..	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6
Turkey	1.8	1.7	1.6	1.6	1.5	1.1	0.9	0.7	0.6	0.5
Morocco	1.0	1.1	1.2	1.1	1.0	0.8	0.6	0.5	0.4	0.4
Poland	..	1.2	0.2	..	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.4
Former Yugoslavia	0.3	0.3	0.3	..	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.1	0.4	0.3
China	..	0.1	0.2	..	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2
Suriname	0.7	0.6	0.5	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.1
Other countries	9.1	6.5	7.4	10.4	7.2	7.6	7.7	7.8	7.7	8.2
Total	22.7	22.2	22.7	21.7	22.4	21.9	21.3	20.7	20.7	20.4
<i>of which: EU¹</i>	10.0	10.5	10.4	10.0	10.7	10.0	10.3	10.1	10.8	10.2

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. **NEW ZEALAND, outflows of foreign-born population by country of birth**

Thousands

	2001
United Kingdom	4.5
Australia	3.0
China	2.0
Korea	1.1
Japan	1.1
India	1.1
Samoa	1.0
United States	0.9
South Africa	0.9
Other countries	12.9
Total	28.6

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

	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001
Sweden	0.7	0.7	1.0	1.0	1.1	1.7	2.7	3.5	3.6	3.2
Former Yugoslavia	0.6	1.1	0.6	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.7	1.3	1.9
Denmark	1.4	1.4	1.6	1.7	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.7	1.7	1.7
United Kingdom	0.9	1.1	0.9	0.9	1.0	0.8	0.8	0.8	1.0	0.9
United States	0.7	1.0	0.8	0.9	0.9	0.9	0.9	0.8	0.9	0.7
Germany	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.6	0.6
Somalia	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	–	–	0.1	–	0.1	0.2
Russian Federation	–	–	–	–	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2
Iraq	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	0.2
Pakistan	0.2	0.4	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.2
China	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.1
Poland	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Bosnia-Herzegovina ¹	0.2	0.3	0.9	0.6	0.4	0.2	0.2	0.1
Sri Lanka	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1
Iran	0.2	0.2	0.1	–	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Other countries	2.8	3.7	3.4	3.1	3.4	3.5	4.4	4.1	4.8	4.9
Total	8.1	10.5	9.6	9.0	10.0	10.0	12.0	12.7	14.9	15.2
<i>of which: EU²</i>	3.0	3.5	3.3	5.0	5.1	5.5	6.9	8.1	9.1	8.7

Note: Data are from population registers. For details on definitions and sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

1. Included in Former Yugoslavia before 1993.

2. European Union 15 from 1995 on.

Table B.1.2. **SWEDEN, outflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001
Finland	3.1	2.8	2.6	2.7	2.9	3.0	2.9	2.7	2.7	3.0
Norway	3.4	2.9	2.4	2.2	2.0	2.0	1.8	1.5	1.6	1.5
Denmark	1.8	1.6	1.6	1.6	1.6	1.4	1.2	1.0	1.1	1.2
United States	0.4	0.5	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.7	0.7
United Kingdom	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.4	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.7	0.7	0.5
Germany	0.3	0.4	0.3	0.4	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.6	0.5	0.5
France	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.4
Japan	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3
Iceland	0.7	0.6	0.5	0.5	0.7	0.6	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.3
Netherlands	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2
China	0.0	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2
Former Yugoslavia	0.2	0.6	0.7	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2
Australia	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2
Iran	0.2	0.5	0.7	0.2	0.2	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.2	0.2
Spain	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2
Other countries	2.1	3.7	4.5	5.2	4.3	4.6	4.2	3.9	3.2	3.1
Total	13.2	14.8	15.8	15.4	14.5	15.3	14.1	13.6	12.6	12.7
<i>of which: EU¹</i>	6.2	6.0	6.1	6.8	6.5	6.5	6.3	6.4	6.2	6.5

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

	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001
Italy	15.3	11.7	9.9	10.3	10.8	9.9	8.6	8.7	8.0	6.8
Germany	7.1	7.3	6.2	6.6	6.2	5.9	5.5	5.9	5.9	6.5
Former Yugoslavia	7.5	7.0	8.0	8.7	9.0	7.2	6.2
Portugal	10.1	8.7	7.5	7.4	7.9	8.7	7.8	8.0	6.8	5.6
France	4.0	3.8	3.5	3.8	3.7	3.5	3.3	3.7	3.8	4.0
Spain	11.6	8.1	6.1	6.1	6.3	5.8	5.3	5.4	4.7	4.0
Fed. Rep. of Yugoslavia	2.2	2.8	2.1
Austria	1.8	1.6	1.3	1.4	1.2	1.2	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.1
Turkey	2.9	3.0	3.0	2.7	2.5	2.3	2.3	1.5	1.3	1.1
Other countries	20.2	20.0	18.9	20.5	20.1	19.0	19.0	21.7	21.5	21.5
Total	80.4	71.2	64.2	67.5	67.7	63.4	59.0	58.1	55.8	52.7
<i>of which: EU</i>	57.1	48.6	41.1	42.8	43.2	41.7	37.8	38.7	36.2	34.0

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.1.3. **AUSTRIA, inflows of asylum seekers by nationality**

Thousands

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002
Fed. Rep. of Yugoslavia	1.4	1.0	1.1	6.6	6.8	1.5	1.7	4.7
Iraq	0.7	1.6	1.5	2.0	2.0	2.4	2.1	4.6
Afghanistan	0.1	0.8	0.7	0.5	2.2	4.2	13.0	4.3
Turkey	0.5	0.5	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.6	1.9	3.5
India	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.5	0.9	2.4	1.8	3.4
Russian Federation	0.1	0.1	–	0.1	0.1	0.3	0.4	2.2
Armenia	–	–	–	–	0.2	0.2	1.3	2.0
Georgia	–	–	0.6	1.9
Nigeria	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.4	1.0	1.4
Bangladesh	–	0.1	0.1	–	0.3	0.3	0.9	1.1
Moldova	–	–	–	–	–	0.1	0.2	0.8
China	–	–	–	–	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.8
Iran	0.5	0.7	0.5	1.0	3.3	2.6	0.7	0.7
Ukraine	–	–	–	–	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.4
Pakistan	0.1	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.6	0.5	0.4
Stateless and other	2.2	1.6	1.8	2.6	3.1	2.6	3.8	4.7
Total	5.9	7.0	6.7	13.8	20.1	18.3	30.1	37.1

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

	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002
Dem. Rep. of Congo	3.8	4.1	2.0	1.0	0.8	1.2	1.8	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.8
Fed. Rep. of Yugoslavia	0.7	0.9	1.2	1.5	1.8	1.3	6.1	13.1	4.9	1.9	1.5
Russian Federation	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.2	1.4	3.6	2.4	1.2
Turkey	0.5	0.8	0.9	1.0
Algeria	0.4	0.8	1.7	0.9
Iran	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	3.2	1.2	0.7
Romania	1.7	0.9	0.7	0.6
Albania	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.4	1.0	1.1	1.0	2.7	0.8	0.5
Armenia	–	0.1	0.2	0.5	0.9	0.6	0.7	1.5	1.3	0.6	0.3
Afghanistan	0.4	0.9	0.5	0.3
Georgia	0.9	1.2	0.5	0.3
Bosnia-Herzegovina	0.2	0.8	0.6	0.2
Ukraine	–	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.3	1.3	1.6	0.6	0.2
Pakistan	0.6	0.7	0.2	0.2
Sierra Leone	0.4	0.6	0.6	0.2
Other countries	12.6	20.6	10.5	8.0	7.9	7.3	11.9	10.9	17.3	10.0	8.8
Total	17.5	26.4	14.6	11.6	12.4	11.8	22.1	35.8	42.7	24.5	18.8

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

Table B.1.3. **CANADA, inflows of asylum seekers by nationality**
Thousands

	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002
Pakistan	0.7	1.0	1.1	1.2	1.8	2.5	3.2	3.1	3.5
Mexico	0.2	0.6	0.9	1.0	1.2	1.1	1.3	1.6	2.1
China	0.5	0.8	0.9	1.2	2.1	2.8	2.2	2.6	2.0
Sri Lanka	2.5	2.3	2.8	2.5	2.5	2.7	2.9	2.7	1.6
Costa Rica	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.5	0.3	0.7	1.5
India	1.2	1.3	1.4	1.3	1.2	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.1
Turkey	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.5	1.0	1.6	1.0
Peru	0.4	0.3	0.2	0.4	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.7	1.0
Nigeria	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.7	0.6	0.9	0.7	0.7
Dem. Rep. Of Congo	–	–	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.6
Albania	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.7	0.8	0.5
Somalia	2.0	1.6	0.9	0.7	0.6	0.5	0.8	0.7	0.3
Bangladesh	0.8	0.9	0.8	0.5	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.3
Iran	1.5	1.9	1.7	1.2	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.7	0.3
Ukraine	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.6	0.3	0.3
Other countries	10.3	13.5	13.2	12.2	11.8	14.8	19.1	23.6	16.6
Total	20.8	25.0	25.0	23.9	24.5	30.0	36.1	41.6	33.4

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

	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002
Turkey	1.3	1.3	1.7	1.2	1.4	1.6	2.2	3.6	5.3	6.5
Dem. Rep. of Congo	2.2	1.2	1.2	1.1	1.2	1.8	2.3	2.9	3.8	5.2
Mauritania	..	0.6	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.5	0.8	1.3	2.3	3.0
Algeria	1.1	2.4	1.8	0.6	0.9	0.9	1.3	1.8	2.9	2.8
China	0.4	1.3	1.6	1.4	1.7	2.1	5.2	5.0	3.0	2.7
Mali	..	0.8	0.5	0.5	0.2	0.4	1.7	2.9	2.9	2.4
Congo	1.2	1.6	1.9	2.3
Sri Lanka	2.8	1.7	1.1	1.2	1.6	1.8	2.0	1.9	2.0	2.0
Haiti	0.3	0.4	0.1	0.1	..	0.4	0.5	1.9	2.7	1.9
Russian Federation	0.5	0.8	1.8	1.7
Fed. Rep. of Yugoslavia	2.5	2.0	1.6	1.6
Angola	..	0.6	0.4	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.5	0.6	1.0	1.6
Georgia	0.2	0.4	1.1	1.5
Moldova	0.9	1.0	0.8	0.9
Ukraine	0.3	0.5	0.9	0.7
Other countries	19.5	15.7	11.5	10.7	13.9	12.6	9.0	10.7	13.3	14.1
Total	27.6	26.0	20.4	17.4	21.4	22.4	30.9	38.7	47.3	51.1

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

	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002
Iraq	1.2	2.1	6.9	10.8	14.1	7.4	8.7	11.6	17.4	10.4
Turkey	19.1	19.1	25.5	23.8	16.8	11.8	9.1	9.0	10.9	9.6
Fed. Rep. of Yugoslavia	95.6	39.3	32.7	20.9	17.7	35.0	33.7	11.1	7.8	6.7
Russian Federation	2.1	2.8	4.5	4.1
Afghanistan	5.5	5.6	7.5	5.7	4.7	3.8	4.5	5.4	5.9	2.8
Iran	2.7	3.4	3.9	4.8	3.8	3.0	3.4	4.9	3.5	2.6
Vietnam	11.0	3.4	2.6	1.1	1.5	3.0	2.4	2.3	3.7	2.3
India	2.7	2.8	1.9	1.5	1.5	1.8	2.6	2.2
Syria	2.2	2.7	2.3	1.8
Algeria	1.5	1.4	2.0	1.7
Georgia	1.1	0.8	1.2	1.5
Pakistan	..	2.0	3.1	2.6	2.3	1.5	1.7	1.5	1.2	1.1
Dem. Rep. of Congo	0.8	0.7	0.9	1.0
Bosnia-Herzegovina	21.2	7.3	4.9	3.5	1.7	1.5	1.8	1.6	2.1	1.0
Nigeria	1.7	1.1	0.7	0.3	0.9
Other countries	166.3	44.9	38.1	38.6	38.7	29.6	20.5	21.0	22.4	21.3
Total	322.6	127.2	127.9	116.4	104.4	98.6	95.1	78.6	88.4	71.1

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

	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002
Angola	0.5	1.4	0.7	0.4	0.4	0.6	1.6	2.2	4.1	1.9
Sierra Leone	0.1	0.1	0.4	0.3	0.4	0.5	1.3	2.0	2.4	1.6
Afghanistan	1.5	2.5	1.9	3.0	5.9	7.1	4.4	5.1	3.6	1.1
Iraq	3.2	2.9	2.4	4.4	9.6	8.3	3.7	2.8	1.3	1.0
Iran	2.6	6.1	2.7	1.5	1.3	1.7	1.5	2.6	1.5	0.7
Turkey	0.6	0.6	0.7	0.7	1.1	1.2	1.5	2.3	1.4	0.6
China	0.9	0.9	0.5	0.5	1.2	0.9	1.2	1.4	0.7	0.5
Somalia	4.3	5.4	4.0	1.5	1.3	2.8	2.7	2.1	1.1	0.5
Dem. Rep. of Congo	1.3	2.2	0.8	0.4	0.6	0.4	0.3	0.5	0.5	0.5
Fed. Rep. of Yugoslavia	4.7	4.1	1.6	0.8	1.7	4.3	7.1	3.9	0.9	0.5
Sudan	0.2	0.3	0.6	0.7	0.7	1.9	1.7	1.4	0.9	0.5
Guinea	..	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.3	0.5	1.4	1.5	0.5
Armenia	0.4	1.1	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.7	1.3	0.8	0.5	0.4
Russian Federation	0.6	1.1	0.6	0.6	0.5	0.5	1.0	1.0	0.9	0.4
Azerbaijan	–	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.3	1.3	2.5	1.2	0.6	0.3
Other countries	14.4	23.8	11.8	7.6	9.0	12.7	10.5	13.3	10.5	7.5
Total	35.4	52.6	29.3	22.9	34.4	45.2	42.7	43.9	32.6	18.7

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

Table B.1.3. **SWEDEN, inflows of asylum seekers by nationality**

Thousands

	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002
Iraq	2.3	1.7	1.8	1.6	3.1	3.8	3.6	3.5	6.2	5.4
Russian Federation	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.4	0.6	0.8	1.5
Somalia	0.7	0.9	0.9	0.4	0.4	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.5	1.1
Iran	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.6	0.9	0.7	0.8	0.8
Turkey	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.5	0.7
Syria	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.5
Romania	0.3	0.3	0.1	0.1	–	–	–	–	0.1	0.5
Afghanistan	0.1	0.3	0.3	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.6	0.5
Lebanon	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.3
Peru	0.5	0.3	0.4	0.1	–	–	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Ethiopia	0.1	–	–	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Other countries	32.5	14.2	4.6	2.7	5.0	6.5	4.9	10.0	13.2	21.4
Total	37.6	18.6	9.0	5.8	9.6	12.5	11.2	16.3	23.5	33.0

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	2001	2002
Fed. Rep. of Yugoslavia	29.3	3.6	3.4	3.8
Turkey	1.1	1.3	1.3	1.4	1.6	1.5	1.4	2.0	1.9
Bosnia-Herzegovina	..	3.5	1.3	2.0	1.9	1.5	1.3	1.2	1.5
Iraq	..	0.3	0.4	0.5	2.0	1.7	0.9	1.2	1.2
Former Yug. Rep. of Macedonia	0.1	0.1	0.9	1.1
Algeria	..	0.4	0.4	0.6	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.8	1.0
Angola	1.1	0.5	0.5	0.3	0.4	0.6	0.4	0.6	0.8
Dem. Rep. of Congo	..	0.3	0.7	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.7
Georgia	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.7
Sierra Leone	..	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.8	0.5	0.6	0.6
Russian Federation	..	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.5	0.5
Sri Lanka	1.5	1.0	2.0	2.1	1.9	1.5	0.9	0.7	0.5
Armenia	..	–	0.1	–	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.5
Somalia	0.7	0.9	0.6	0.5	0.5	0.4	0.4
Bangladesh	0.3	0.3
Other countries	12.5	9.4	10.5	15.4	30.9	6.7	6.2	6.9	10.7
Total	16.1	17.0	18.0	24.0	41.3	46.1	17.7	20.6	26.2

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

	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002
Iraq	0.5	0.6	0.9	1.0	1.1	1.3	1.8	7.5	6.7	14.6
Afghanistan	0.3	0.3	0.6	0.7	1.1	2.4	4.0	5.6	8.9	7.2
Somalia	1.5	1.8	3.5	1.8	2.7	4.7	7.5	5.0	6.4	6.5
China	0.2	0.4	0.8	0.8	1.9	1.9	2.6	4.0	2.4	3.7
Sri Lanka	2.0	2.4	2.1	1.3	1.8	3.5	5.1	6.4	5.5	3.1
Turkey	1.5	2.0	1.8	1.5	1.4	2.0	2.9	4.0	3.7	2.8
Iran	0.4	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.7	1.3	5.6	3.4	2.6
Pakistan	1.1	1.8	2.9	1.9	1.6	2.0	2.6	3.2	2.7	2.4
Former Yugoslavia	1.8	1.4	1.6	1.0	2.3	8.0	14.2	6.1	3.2	2.3
Dem. Rep. of Congo	0.6	0.8	0.9	0.7	0.7	0.7	1.2	1.0	1.4	2.2
India	1.3	2.0	3.3	2.2	1.3	1.0	1.4	2.1	1.9	1.9
Angola	0.3	0.6	0.6	0.4	0.2	0.2	0.5	0.8	1.0	1.4
Czech Republic	–	–	–	0.1	0.2	0.5	1.8	1.2	0.8	1.4
Romania	0.4	0.4	0.8	0.5	0.6	1.1	2.0	2.2	1.4	1.2
Sierra Leone	1.1	1.8	0.9	0.4	0.8	0.6	1.1	1.3	1.9	1.2
Other countries	9.5	16.0	22.8	14.8	14.1	15.5	21.1	24.4	20.0	29.6
Total (excluding dependents)	22.4	32.8	44.0	29.6	32.5	46.0	71.2	80.3	71.4	84.1
Total (including dependents)	28.0	42.2	55.0	37.0	41.5	58.5	91.2	98.9	92.0	110.7

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

Table B.1.3. **UNITED STATES, inflows of asylum seekers by nationality**
Thousands

	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002
China	14.5	10.9	5.0	3.5	5.7	5.8	5.2	6.4	8.6	11.1
Mexico	6.4	9.3	9.7	9.7	18.8	6.7	2.3	3.9	9.2	9.3
Haiti	10.9	9.5	2.6	4.4	5.4	3.4	3.0	4.7	5.1	3.9
India	5.7	4.5	3.4	4.7	4.9	2.7	1.6	1.5	2.0	2.0
Indonesia	2.4	0.9	1.7	1.6
Guatemala	34.2	34.4	23.2	13.9	9.8	5.9	2.8	1.8	1.7	1.6
Armenia	0.8	1.9	2.3	1.4
Ethiopia	1.2	0.9	0.9	1.1	1.1	0.8	1.2	1.5	1.5	1.3
Albania	0.8	1.0	1.4	1.3
Mauritania	1.3	1.4	0.8	0.8	0.9	1.1	1.1
Iran	0.6	1.0	0.9	0.9	0.9	1.0	0.9
El Salvador	14.6	18.6	75.9	65.6	8.2	6.3	3.1	1.9	1.5	0.9
Pakistan	4.5	3.3	2.5	1.4	1.4	1.0	0.6	0.5	0.5	0.7
Somalia	0.1	0.1	0.2	1.2	1.9	2.4	3.2	2.4	1.8	0.6
Bangladesh	3.8	3.7	1.9	1.0	1.2	0.9	0.4	0.3	0.2	0.5
Other countries	48.2	51.2	29.3	19.8	25.1	17.9	13.1	16.3	23.6	25.3
Total	144.2	146.5	154.5	128.2	85.9	55.4	42.2	46.8	63.2	63.4

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 foreign-born population by country of birth**

Thousands

	1991	1996	2001
United Kingdom	1 122.4	1 072.5	1 036.2
New Zealand	276.1	291.4	355.8
Italy	254.8	238.2	218.7
Vietnam	122.3	151.1	154.8
China ¹	78.8	111.0	142.8
Greece	136.3	126.5	116.4
Germany	114.9	110.3	108.2
Philippines	73.7	92.9	103.9
India	61.6	77.5	95.5
Netherlands	95.8	87.9	83.3
South Africa	49.4	55.7	79.4
Malaysia	72.6	76.2	78.9
Lebanon	69.0	70.2	71.3
Hong Kong (China)	59.0	68.4	67.1
Poland	68.9	65.1	58.1
Other and not stated	1 097.7	1 213.3	2 353.4
Total	3 753.3	3 908.3	4 087.8
% of total population	22.3	21.1	21.5

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

1. Excluding Chinese Taipei.

Table B.1.4. **AUSTRIA, stock of foreign-born population by country of birth**

Thousands

	1999	2001	<i>of which: Women</i>
			2001
Bosnia-Herzegovina	125.1	131.5	65.3
Turkey	124.5	128.0	54.0
Germany	122.2	125.2	74.8
Former Yugoslavia (Others)	123.8	114.0	58.3
Croatia	50.5	53.9	27.2
Poland	41.0	43.2	23.8
Former CSFR	47.4	41.3	25.6
Romania	34.0	37.2	19.8
Hungary	22.3	23.8	13.8
Italy	18.8	19.3	8.2
Slovenia	17.9	17.0	11.0
Other countries	144.5	158.2	81.8
Total	872.0	892.6	463.6
% of total population	10.7	11.0	

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

Table B.1.4. **CANADA, stock of foreign-born population by country of birth**
Thousands

	1991	1996	2001
United Kingdom	717.8	655.5	606.0
China	157.4	231.1	332.8
Italy	351.6	332.1	315.5
India	173.7	235.9	314.7
United States	249.1	244.7	237.9
Hong Kong (China)	152.5	241.1	235.6
Philippines	123.3	184.6	232.7
Poland	184.7	193.4	180.4
Germany	180.5	181.7	174.1
Portugal	161.2	158.8	153.5
Vietnam	113.6	139.3	148.4
Former Yugoslavia	88.8	122.0	145.4
Former USSR	99.4	108.4	133.2
Jamaica	102.4	115.8	120.2
Netherlands	129.6	124.5	117.7
Other and not stated	1 357.4	1 702.2	2 000.4
Total	4 342.9	4 971.1	5 448.5
% of total population	16.1	17.4	18.2

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

	1991	1996	2001
Turkey	23.1	26.3	30.4
Germany	21.6	22.3	22.6
Bosnia-Herzegovina	..	16.9	18.1
Iraq	3.1	7.2	18.0
Norway	11.8	12.3	13.4
Fed. Rep. of Yugoslavia	9.0	12.3	12.5
Sweden	11.8	12.9	12.5
Somalia	1.3	7.9	12.2
Lebanon	9.5	11.2	12.0
Iran	9.4	10.3	11.4
United Kingdom	8.8	10.2	10.6
Poland	9.1	9.8	10.6
Pakistan	8.1	9.1	10.5
Vietnam	6.2	7.6	8.5
Afghanistan	0.6	1.5	7.2
Other countries	65.6	81.4	111.4
Total	198.9	259.2	321.8
<i>of which: EU</i>	57.5	63.6	66.6
% of total population	..	4.9	6.0

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

	1996	2001
Former USSR	26.4	34.4
Sweden	27.0	28.3
Estonia	6.0	8.7
Former Yugoslavia	3.6	4.5
Somalia	3.5	4.3
Germany	3.0	3.8
Iraq	1.8	3.5
United States	2.7	3.0
Vietnam	2.5	2.9
United Kingdom	2.2	2.9
China	1.5	2.4
Turkey	1.6	2.4
Iran	1.4	2.3
Thailand	1.2	2.1
India	0.8	1.3
Other countries	26.0	38.3
Total	111.1	145.1
% of total population	2.1	2.8

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	2001
Romania	141.2	145.2
Former CSFR	43.3	34.6
Former Yugoslavia	33.9	33.4
Former USSR	27.1	30.4
Germany	13.2	15.3
Austria	3.8	4.0
China	0.5	3.6
Poland	2.7	2.7
United States	2.2	2.1
Greece	1.2	1.5
Vietnam	0.4	1.5
Bulgaria	1.4	1.4
France	1.3	1.4
Other countries	11.6	23.0
Total	283.7	300.1
<i>of which:</i> EU	22.0	26.4
% of total population	2.8	3.0

Note: For details on definitions and 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	1996	2001
Suriname	162.9	181.6	188.0
Turkey	149.5	169.3	186.2
Indonesia	186.1	174.8	163.9
Morocco	122.9	142.7	159.8
Germany	128.7	128.0	122.1
Former Yugoslavia	15.2	46.1	55.9
United Kingdom	38.3	41.7	47.9
Belgium	42.2	43.3	46.5
Iraq	1.5	14.4	36.0
Afghanistan	..	7.2	28.5
Former USSR	2.9	10.1	27.1
China	11.8	16.9	25.8
Iran	6.3	17.3	23.2
United States	14.7	17.9	22.1
Somalia	3.6	19.8	21.1
Other countries	330.6	402.4	520.7
Total	1 217.1	1 433.6	1 674.6
% of total population	8.1	9.2	10.4

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

Table B.1.4. **NEW ZEALAND, stock of foreign-born population by country of birth**

	Thousands	
	2001	<i>Of which: Women</i>
United Kingdom	218.4	109.7
Australia	56.3	30.1
Samoa	47.1	24.7
China	38.9	20.5
South Africa	26.1	13.4
Fiji	25.7	13.5
Netherlands	22.2	10.2
India	20.9	10.2
Tonga	18.1	9.1
Korea	17.9	9.4
Cook Islands	15.2	7.9
United States	13.3	6.8
Chinese Taipei	12.5	6.8
Malaysia	11.5	6.0
Hong Kong (China)	11.3	6.0
Other countries	143.2	75.6
Total	698.6	359.7
% of total population	19.5	10.0

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

	1989	1996	2001
Sweden	18.1	26.0	33.0
Denmark	20.5	20.9	22.1
United States	15.0	15.0	14.6
United Kingdom	14.3	13.5	14.1
Pakistan	10.5	12.1	14.1
Germany	8.1	9.7	12.2
Bosnia-Herzegovina	..	11.1	11.8
Fed. Rep. of Yugoslavia	4.2	7.3	11.7
Vietnam	7.5	10.8	11.5
Iran	5.2	7.3	10.1
Turkey	5.0	6.3	7.9
Sri Lanka	4.7	6.5	7.7
Philippines	3.4	5.0	6.4
Korea	4.7	5.6	6.2
Poland	4.3	5.4	6.2
Other countries	57.6	84.3	103.9
Total	183.3	246.9	315.2
% of total population	4.3	5.6	6.9

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	1996	2001
Finland	209.5	203.4	193.5
Former Yugoslavia	70.5	72.8	73.3
Iraq	20.2	29.0	55.7
Bosnia Herzegovina ¹	..	46.8	52.2
Iran	48.1	49.2	51.8
Norway	47.1	43.8	43.4
Poland	38.5	39.5	40.5
Denmark	41.1	39.8	38.9
Germany	36.6	36.5	38.9
Turkey	28.5	30.2	32.5
Chile	27.7	26.9	27.2
Lebanon	21.2	21.6	20.2
United Kingdom	12.5	13.1	15.5
United States	13.8	13.8	14.7
Syria	8.6	..	14.6
Other countries	245.3	277.4	315.2
Total	869.1	943.8	1 028.0
% of total population	9.9	10.7	11.5

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**
Thousands

	1980	1990	2000
Mexico	2 199.2	4 298.0	9 177.5
Philippines	501.4	912.7	1 369.1
India	206.1	450.4	1 022.6
China	286.1	529.8	988.9
Vietnam	231.1	543.3	988.2
Cuba	607.8	737.0	872.7
Korea	289.9	568.4	864.1
Canada	842.9	744.8	820.8
El Salvador	817.3
Germany	849.4	711.9	706.7
Dominican Republic	169.1	347.9	687.7
United Kingdom	669.1	640.1	677.8
Jamaica	196.8	334.1	553.8
Colombia	143.5	286.1	509.9
Guatemala	480.7
Other and not stated	6 887.5	8 662.7	10 570.3
Total	14 079.9	19 767.3	31 107.9
% of total population	6.2	7.9	11.1

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

Table B.1.5. **AUSTRIA, stock of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

	2001
Former Yugoslavia	322.3
Turkey	127.2
Other countries	261.4
Total	710.9
<i>of which: EU</i>	106.2

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

	1986	1991	1996	2001
Italy	251.8	240.0	208.2	190.8
France	92.7	94.9	101.7	111.1
Netherlands	60.2	67.7	80.6	92.6
Morocco	126.0	145.6	138.3	90.6
Turkey	76.1	88.4	78.5	45.9
Spain	50.7	51.1	47.9	45.0
Germany	24.4	28.5	32.7	34.7
United Kingdom	20.9	24.2	26.2	26.4
Portugal	9.9	17.8	24.9	25.8
Greece	19.2	20.6	19.5	17.6
Dem. Rep. of Congo	9.0	12.8	12.0	13.0
United States	11.0	11.7	12.3	11.8
Former Yugoslavia	4.6	6.5	..	10.3
Poland	..	4.8	5.7	8.9
Algeria	10.1	11.0	9.2	7.2
Other countries ¹	86.6	97.0	114.1	115.2
Total	853.2	922.5	911.9	846.7
<i>of which: EU</i>	538.1	554.6	559.6	564.2
Total women	391.1	425.9	431.9	408.6

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. Including refugees whose stock is not broken down by nationality.

Table B.1.5. **CZECH REPUBLIC, stock of foreign population by nationality**
Thousands

	1993	1996	2001
Slovak Republic ¹	..	50.3	53.3
Ukraine	6.0	46.3	51.8
Vietnam	7.8	17.6	23.9
Poland	21.2	24.5	16.5
Russian Federation	1.2	6.7	12.4
Germany	2.9	5.9	4.9
Bulgaria	4.0	4.3	4.1
China	2.6	4.8	3.3
Fed. Rep. of Yugoslavia	..	5.0	3.3
United States	2.6	4.1	3.2
Belarus	..	1.1	2.5
Moldova	..	0.3	2.5
Romania	1.0	1.8	2.3
Austria	1.6	2.2	1.9
Croatia	..	2.0	1.8
Other countries	26.6	21.7	23.1
Total	77.7	198.6	210.8

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.

- 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

	1986	1991	1996	2001	Of which: Women
					2001
Former Yugoslavia	8.3	10.7	32.2	34.8	17.0
Turkey	22.3	32.0	36.8	33.4	16.3
Iraq	1.0	3.2	8.1	16.5	7.5
Somalia	0.1	1.2	9.7	14.6	7.2
Norway	9.9	10.3	11.5	13.2	7.6
Germany	8.3	8.6	11.4	12.9	6.1
United Kingdom	10.0	10.5	12.5	12.8	4.5
Sweden	8.3	8.3	9.4	10.8	6.2
Pakistan	6.6	6.1	6.7	7.2	3.8
Afghanistan	..	0.5	1.6	7.1	3.2
Iceland	3.4	3.0	5.6	6.0	2.9
Poland	2.7	4.9	5.3	5.7	4.0
United States	4.4	4.4	5.1	5.3	2.3
Thailand	0.7	1.6	3.0	4.9	4.1
Sri Lanka	2.9	5.3	5.4	4.9	2.3
Other countries	39.2	58.8	73.2	76.5	40.4
Total	128.3	169.5	237.7	266.7	135.4
<i>of which: EU¹</i>	37.3	39.0	48.9	55.1	24.7
Total women	58.1	80.6	117.3	135.4	

Note: Data are from population registers and refer to the population on 31 December of the years indicated. For details on definitions and sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

- European Union 15 for all years.

Table B.1.5. **FINLAND, stock of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

	1986	1991	1996	2001	Of which: Women
					2001
Russian Federation ¹	11.8	22.7	14.0
Estonia ¹	..	0.7	9.0	11.7	6.9
Sweden	5.1	6.3	7.3	8.0	3.5
Somalia	..	1.5	4.6	4.4	2.2
Iraq	..	0.2	1.9	3.2	1.5
United Kingdom	1.1	1.5	1.8	2.4	0.5
Germany	1.5	1.6	1.8	2.3	0.8
Former Yugoslavia	..	0.2	2.6	2.3	1.0
Iran	..	0.6	1.4	2.2	1.0
United States	1.2	1.6	1.8	2.1	0.9
Turkey	..	0.6	1.5	2.0	0.5
China	..	0.6	1.5	1.9	1.0
Vietnam	..	0.4	2.1	1.8	0.9
Bosnia-Herzegovina ²	1.3	1.7	0.8
Thailand	0.9	1.5	1.3
Other countries	8.4	21.7	22.4	28.5	12.5
Total	17.3	37.6	73.8	98.6	49.3
<i>of which: EU</i>	14.1	17.4	6.2
Total women	..	16.7	35.8	49.3	

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. 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

	1986	1991	1996	2002	Of which: Women ⁴
					2002
Turkey	1 434.3	1 779.6	2 049.1	1 912.2	879.5
Italy	537.1	560.1	599.4	609.8	247.7
Former Yugoslavia ¹	591.2	775.1	754.3	591.5	267.3
Greece	278.5	336.9	362.5	359.4	162.8
Poland	116.9	271.2	283.4	317.6	162.0
Croatia ²	201.9	231.0	113.8
Austria	174.6	186.9	184.9	189.3	86.6
Bosnia-Herzegovina ²	340.5	163.8	78.6
Russian Federation	155.6	89.7
Portugal	78.2	93.0	130.8	131.4	58.0
Spain	150.5	135.2	132.5	127.5	61.4
Netherlands	109.0	113.3	113.3	115.2	52.3
United States	88.3	99.7	109.6	112.9	48.0
France	76.7	88.9	101.8	112.4	60.2
United Kingdom	90.0	103.2	113.4	112.4	45.0
Other countries	2 221.7	3 118.8	3 885.7	4 005.8	994.6
Total	4 512.7	5 882.3	7 314.0	7 335.6	3 407.4
of which: EU ³	1 549.5	1 698.7	1 839.9
Total women	1 919.6	2 541.4	2 533.0	3 407.4	

Note: Data are from population registers and refer to the population on 31 December of the given year. For details on definitions and sources, refer to the 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

	1995	1996	1999	2001	Of which: Women
					2001
Romania	65.7	61.6	48.6	45.0	23.1
Former Yugoslavia	15.5	14.9	15.3	12.0 ¹	5.5
Ukraine	11.5	12.0	7.6	9.8	5.4
Germany	7.8	8.3	8.5	7.7	4.7
China	4.3	6.7	7.7	6.8	3.0
Vietnam	1.3	1.6	2.2	2.2	1.0
Poland	4.5	4.3	2.5	2.2	1.4
Slovak Republic	3.5	3.7	4.1	2.2	1.5
Russian Federation	3.7	4.1	3.8	2.0	1.2
Bulgaria	1.6	1.5	1.3	1.1	0.6
Mongolia	0.6	0.7	1.0	0.9	0.6
Israel	0.6	0.9	0.8	0.8	0.3
Austria	0.7	0.9	0.8	0.8	0.3
United Kingdom	0.8	1.0	0.9	0.7	0.2
Norway	0.2	0.3	0.5	0.6	0.4
Other countries	17.5	20.1	21.4	33.4	10.4
Total	139.9	142.5	127.0	116.4	59.6
of which: EU	13.0	14.7	14.2	12.2	6.3
Total women	65.6	66.1	63.8	59.6	

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. Federal Republic of Yugoslavia.

Table B.1.5. **IRELAND, stock of foreign population by nationality**
Thousands

	1996	2002
United Kingdom	71.3	74.1
Other EU citizens	15.4	27.3
United States	12.7	10.2
Other non-EU citizens	18.1	70.2
Total	117.5	181.8

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.

Table B.1.5. **ITALY, stock of foreign population by nationality**
Thousands

	1986	1991	1996 ¹	2001
Morocco	2.9	89.0	119.5	158.1
Albania	..	26.4	64.0	144.1
Romania	..	13.5	31.7	75.4
Philippines	8.1	40.7	57.1	64.2
China	1.8	20.6	29.1	56.6
Tunisia	4.9	46.4	44.8	46.5
United States	54.0	59.7	54.7	43.7
Former Yugoslavia ²	14.5	33.9	48.3	36.6
Germany	40.2	39.0	36.5	35.9
Senegal	0.4	27.1	31.9	34.8
Sri Lanka	2.4	13.4	24.9	34.5
Poland	10.3	19.1	27.4	30.7
India	5.7	12.1	19.4	29.9
Peru	..	6.4	21.7	29.6
Egypt	7.2	22.4	23.8	26.2
Other countries	297.9	393.1	461.0	516.0
Total	450.2	863.0	1 095.6	1 362.6
<i>of which: EU</i>	..	144.8	152.1	147.5

Note: Data are from residence permits and refer to the population on the 31 December of the years indicated. For details on definitions and sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

1. Data include permits delivered following the 1995-1996 regularisation programme.
2. Excluding the data for Croatia, Former Yug. Rep. of Macedonia and Bosnia-Herzegovina.

Table B.1.5. **JAPAN, stock of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

	1986	1991	1996	2001
Korea	678.0	693.1	657.2	632.4
China ¹	84.4	171.1	234.3	381.2
Brazil	2.1	119.3	201.8	266.0
Philippines	18.9	61.8	84.5	156.7
Peru	0.6	26.3	37.1	50.1
United States	30.7	42.5	44.2	46.2
Thailand	3.0	8.9	18.2	31.7
Indonesia	1.8	4.6	8.7	20.8
Vietnam	4.4	6.4	10.2	19.1
United Kingdom	7.4	11.8	13.3	17.5
India	6.3	11.7
Canada	2.7	5.9	8.0	11.0
Australia	2.1	5.4	6.3	10.6
Malaysia	2.2	5.6	5.5	9.2
Pakistan	1.2	3.7	5.1	7.9
Other countries	27.7	52.5	74.3	106.4
Total	867.2	1 218.9	1 415.1	1 778.5

Note: Data are based on registered foreign nationals and refer to foreigners intending to stay in Japan for more than 90 days.

The population figures shown above are those for 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

	1987	1991	1996	2001	Of which: Women
					2001
China	–	0.2	26.7	73.6	38.4
<i>of which: Chinese with Korean descents</i>	–	0.1	9.3	42.8	22.4
Chinese Taipei	24.5	23.5	23.3	22.8	10.2
United States	9.4	14.9	26.4	22.0	9.8
Philippines	0.3	0.6	10.8	16.4	8.0
Vietnam	–	–	10.3	16.0	5.6
Indonesia	–	0.1	9.6	15.6	3.1
Japan	3.5	5.7	12.4	14.7	10.1
Bangladesh	–	–	6.3	9.1	0.1
Canada	0.4	0.7	3.7	4.0	1.6
Uzbekistan	–	–	1.0	4.0	1.2
Thailand	–	0.1	1.2	3.6	1.2
Pakistan	–	0.1	1.1	3.3	0.1
Russian Federation	..	0.1	0.8	3.3	2.6
Sri Lanka	–	–	2.9	2.5	0.5
Nepal	–	–	1.0	2.1	0.3
Other countries	4.6	5.1	11.3	16.7	6.5
Total	42.8	51.0	148.7	229.6	99.3
<i>of which: EU</i>	2.9	2.9	4.4	5.3	1.8
Total women	..	23.6	59.7	99.3	

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.

Table B.1.5. **LUXEMBOURG, stock of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

	1986	1991	1996	2001
Portugal	29.0	42.1	53.1	59.8
France	12.6	13.1	15.7	20.9
Italy	20.7	19.5	19.8	19.1
Belgium	8.5	10.3	12.5	15.4
Germany	8.9	8.9	9.9	10.1
United Kingdom	4.4	4.5
Other countries	17.6	24.0	27.6	36.8
Total	97.3	117.8	142.9	166.7

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. **NETHERLANDS, stock of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

	1986	1991	1996	2001	Of which: Women
					2001
Morocco	122.7	163.7	138.7	104.3	50.2
Turkey	160.6	214.8	127.0	100.3	50.8
Germany	40.4	46.9	53.5	55.6	28.1
United Kingdom ¹	38.0	41.8	39.3	43.6	17.2
Belgium	23.0	23.9	24.0	26.1	13.8
Italy	17.0	17.2	17.3	18.6	6.5
Spain	18.2	16.9	16.6	17.4	8.4
United States	10.4	12.1	12.6	15.2	7.5
France	10.6	14.1	7.2
Former Yugoslavia	11.6	15.1	32.8	12.1	6.0
Portugal	7.5	8.7	8.8	10.6	4.7
Indonesia	7.9	10.1	6.6
Tunisia	2.6	2.6	1.9	1.3	0.5
Other countries	116.0	169.1	188.9	261.1	126.7
Total	568.0	732.9	679.9	690.4	334.2
<i>of which: EU</i> ²	164.6	181.9	188.3	207.9	96.6
Total women	249.2	329.6	318.8	334.2	

Note: Data are from population registers and refer to the population on the 31 December of the years indicated. For details on definitions and sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

1. Including Hong Kong.
2. European Union 15 for all years.

Table B.1.5. **NORWAY, stock of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

	1986	1991	1996	2001	Of which: Women
					2001
Sweden	10.9	12.0	17.3	25.1	12.7
Denmark	16.8	17.4	18.1	19.7	9.5
United Kingdom	12.5	11.5	10.9	11.0	4.2
Iraq	..	1.2	2.8	10.8	3.6
Bosnia-Herzegovina ¹	11.5	8.8	4.4
United States	10.0	9.6	8.7	7.9	4.1
Germany	3.9	4.3	5.1	7.5	3.7
Pakistan	9.3	11.3	8.6	6.9	3.6
Somalia	..	2.3	3.6	6.6	3.1
Former Yugoslavia	1.8	4.8	6.0	6.5	3.1
Finland	..	3.1	3.9	6.1	3.5
Iran	0.7	6.6	3.8	4.2	2.0
Iceland	..	2.2	3.2	4.0	2.0
Netherlands	2.5	2.6	3.1	3.7	1.7
Turkey	3.7	5.5	3.9	3.3	1.4
Other countries	37.2	53.3	47.0	53.7	30.8
Total	109.3	147.8	157.5	185.9	93.5
<i>of which: EU</i>	55.5	56.2	64.1	80.1	38.4
Total women	51.8	69.0	79.9	93.5	

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. Included in Former Yugoslavia until 1992.

Table B.1.5. **PORTUGAL, stock of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

	1989	1991	1996	2001	Of which: Women
					2001
Cape Verde	28.0	29.7	39.6	49.9	21.3
Brazil	10.5	12.7	20.0	23.5	11.4
Angola	4.8	5.7	16.3	22.6	9.8
Guinea Bissau	3.4	4.8	12.6	17.6	5.2
United Kingdom	7.8	8.9	12.0	15.0	6.9
Spain	7.3	7.6	9.3	13.6	6.8
Germany	4.5	5.1	7.9	11.1	5.0
United States	6.4	7.2	8.5	8.1	3.5
France	3.0	3.4	5.1	7.8	3.7
Sao Tome and Principe	1.9	2.2	4.2	6.2	3.2
Mozambique	3.0	3.4	4.4	4.7	2.2
Netherlands	1.7	1.9	2.9	4.5	2.0
China	1.1	1.4	2.4	3.9	1.5
Venezuela	4.9	5.1	4.2	3.5	1.3
Italy	1.1	1.2	2.0	3.4	1.3
Other countries	11.6	13.7	21.5	28.2	12.6
Total	101.0	114.0	172.9	223.6	97.7
<i>of which: EU</i>	27.0	30.0	43.7	61.6	28.7
Total women	71.9	97.7	

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

	1986	1991	1996	2001
Morocco	8.6	49.5	77.2	234.9
Ecuador	2.9	84.7
United Kingdom	46.9	50.1	68.4	80.2
Germany	34.1	28.7	45.9	62.5
Colombia	3.4	5.3	7.9	48.7
France	21.2	20.0	33.1	44.8
Portugal	28.7	25.4	38.3	42.6
China	2.5	6.5	10.8	36.1
Italy	12.2	11.7	21.4	35.6
Peru	2.2	6.5	18.0	33.8
Dominican Republic	1.7	6.6	17.8	29.3
Romania	1.4	24.9
Cuba	5.5	2.7	7.8	21.5
Argentina	12.2	20.0	18.2	20.4
Netherlands	12.1	9.7	13.9	17.5
Other countries	102.0	118.0	155.9	291.5
Total	293.2	360.7	539.0	1 109.1
<i>of which: EU</i>	171.0	158.1	251.9	..

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

	1986	1991	1996	2001	<i>Of which: Women</i>
					2001
Finland	134.2	115.0	103.1	97.5	55.0
Iraq	3.9	9.3	22.8	36.2	16.7
Norway	26.7	36.7	31.7	33.3	17.2
Denmark	24.8	27.9	26.0	26.6	11.3
Bosnia-Herzegovina	55.4	19.7	10.0
Germany	11.9	12.9	13.9	17.3	8.2
Poland	15.6	16.1	15.9	15.5	10.5
Turkey	21.9	26.4	18.9	13.9	6.9
United Kingdom	8.8	10.5	11.5	13.8	4.5
Iran	13.3	40.0	27.2	13.5	7.0
United States	6.5	8.5	9.4	10.0	4.5
Chile	10.2	19.1	12.4	9.9	4.5
Somalia	12.2	9.6	4.9
Croatia	4.3	6.9	3.4
Syria	3.2	6.0	3.0
Other countries	113.0	171.4	158.8	146.2	74.1
Total	390.8	493.8	526.6	476.0	241.7
Total women	193.8	243.7	266.1	241.7	

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. **SWITZERLAND, stock of foreign population by nationality**
Thousands

	1986	1991	1996	2001	Of which: Women
					2001
Italy	388.4	377.4	350.3	314.0	133.8
Fed. Rep. of Yugoslavia	194.7	91.7
Portugal	39.2	101.2	137.1	135.5	64.9
Germany	80.3	85.1	92.7	116.6	53.5
Spain	110.4	115.3	97.7	81.0	36.7
Turkey	52.8	69.5	79.4	79.5	37.0
France	47.2	50.7	54.2	61.5	29.0
Former Yug. Rep. of Macedonia	58.4	27.0
Bosnia-Herzegovina	45.7	22.5
Croatia	43.9	21.9
Austria	28.7	28.9	28.1	29.9	13.4
United Kingdom	15.5	17.1	18.3	22.2	9.4
Netherlands	10.8	12.2	13.9	14.6	6.8
United States	9.2	10.4	11.6	13.4	6.4
Belgium	4.9	5.7	6.5	7.9	3.8
Other countries	168.6	289.8	447.8	200.2	106.6
Total	956.0	1 163.2	1 337.6	1 419.1	664.4
<i>of which: EU</i>	708.4	777.2	817.2	802.8	364.0
Total women	425.2	510.2	615.6	664.4	

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. **UNITED KINGDOM, stock of foreign population by nationality**
Thousands

	1986	1991	1996	2002	Of which: Women
					2002
Ireland	564	469	441	411	227
India	162	136	128	148	78
United States	123	87	105	109	65
Pakistan	71	84	78	99	51
Italy	65	86	85	98	45
France	24	38	53	96	53
Portugal	16	20	28	90	47
Australia	32	33	50	77	38
Germany	43	41	53	71	44
Somalia	66	31
South Africa	22	65	33
Bangladesh	45	42	43	59	32
Sri Lanka	23	52	18
Former Yugoslavia	52	24
Jamaica	50	50	25
Other countries	675	714	775	1 138	558
Total	1 820	1 750	1 934	2 681	1 369
<i>of which: EU</i>	791	740	792	949	..
Total women	..	926	1 027	1 369	

Note: Estimated from the annual Labour Force Survey. Fluctuations from year to year may be due to sampling error. The symbol “..” indicates that figures are less than 10 000. For details on definitions and sources, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

Table B.1.6. **AUSTRALIA, acquisition of nationality by country of former nationality**

	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002
New Zealand	9 772	7 786	9 033	11 724	9 982	8 764	6 320	6 676	11 007	17 334
United Kingdom	39 876	36 401	36 134	35 431	27 294	23 080	13 529	14 592	12 474	16 411
South Africa	1 781	1 595	1 324	1 262	1 578	1 880	1 606	2 253	2 992	3 922
Philippines	6 633	6 600	5 408	4 021	3 815	3 688	2 606	2 349	2 211	2 849
India	2 645	2 836	3 107	2 638	2 563	3 358	2 695	2 381	2 335	2 510
Bosnia-Herzegovina	1 637	2 728	1 841	1 531	2 661	2 194
Iraq	1 591	2 877	1 698	1 853	1 862	2 182
Vietnam	12 406	10 713	7 772	7 741	5 083	4 685	3 083	3 441	1 953	2 090
Fiji	..	2 018	2 204	1 815	1 721	1 934	1 665	1 379	1 398	1 567
Malaysia	982	764	719	1 002	1 154	1 057	1 504
Sri Lanka	2 104	1 691	1 730	1 644	1 620	2 049	1 707	1 832	1 672	1 362
Iran	..	887	895	870	891	1 143	876	755	827	864
Ireland	1 980	1 805	1 882	1 688	1 278	1 167	724	698	682	852
Other countries	43 906	39 854	45 268	42 803	48 449	54 271	37 122	29 942	28 939	30 648
Total	122 085	112 186	114 757	111 637	108 266	112 343	76 474	70 836	72 070	86 289

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**

	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001
Former Yugoslavia	4 337	5 791	5 623	4 538	3 133	3 671	4 151	6 745	7 576	10 760
Turkey	1 994	2 688	3 379	3 209	7 499	5 068	5 683	10 350	6 732	10 068
Central and Eastern Europe	1 839	1 858	2 672	2 588	2 083	2 898	3 850	3 515	4 758	5 155
Germany	410	406	328	202	140	164	157	91	102	108
Other countries	3 340	3 659	4 268	4 772	3 388	4 473	4 480	4 331	5 477	5 989
Total	11 920	14 402	16 270	15 309	16 243	16 274	18 321	25 032	24 645	32 080

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**

	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001
Morocco	6 862	5 500	8 638	9 146	7 912	11 076	13 484	9 133	21 917	24 014
Turkey	3 886	3 305	6 273	6 572	6 609	6 884	6 177	4 402	17 282	14 401
Italy	22 362	1 431	2 326	2 096	1 940	1 726	1 536	1 187	3 650	3 451
Dem. Rep. of Congo	454	410	474	452	442	756	1 202	1 890	2 993	2 445
Former Yugoslavia	386	353	417	416	..	438	499	756	2 187	1 760
Algeria	932	543	714	780	556	608	672	520	1 071	1 222
France	2 179	532	618	608	539	530	491	363	948	1 025
Tunisia	486	416	573	537	406	566	585	301	859	728
Poland	237	174	239	176	175	220	277	253	551	628
Netherlands	1 179	222	335	336	259	292	249	234	492	601
India	165	119	159	148	158	186	162	172	345	551
Pakistan	129	106	161	116	91	133	155	131	75	425
China	113	101	181	170	166	199	225	154	280	352
Philippines	..	118	147	124	115	147	162	190	315	323
Spain	1 795	196	281	246	261	221	180	137	281	321
Other countries	5 203	2 850	4 251	4 206	4 952	7 705	7 978	4 450	8 836	10 735
Total	46 368	16 376	25 787	26 129	24 581	31 687	34 034	24 273	62 082	62 982

Note: Data cover all means of acquiring the 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**

	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001
China	4 706	7 777	14 228	12 878	10 563	11 535	14 110	17 991	24 310	18 555
India	4 946	6 306	8 953	11 677	10 756	10 766	8 804	11 446	19 402	14 788
Hong Kong (China)	13 347	11 717	17 109	14 978	15 110	9 751	13 096	15 050	17 886	11 200
Philippines	6 776	9 388	11 508	12 953	9 771	12 703	11 069	11 565	14 134	9 560
Pakistan	887	1 469	2 597	3 341	2 598	2 867	2 394	3 226	8 478	8 904
Chinese Taipei	1 121	1 538	2 036	2 738	3 774	4 751	4 351	4 818	8 945	6 750
Iran	2 329	3 229	5 124	6 457	3 226	2 602	2 631	3 645	6 637	6 449
Sri Lanka	2 164	2 848	5 768	10 154	6 288	4 925	6 114	6 302	6 692	4 448
United Kingdom	9 131	10 012	12 620	11 173	8 944	11 484	6 177	4 741	5 279	3 587
Former Yugoslavia	1 226	1 704	2 114	1 920	2 926	4 037	2 861	4 557	5 460	3 526
Romania	1 521	1 814	2 288	2 489	2 294	3 297	2 856	3 824	4 571	3 404
Korea	817	967	966	1 426	1 679	1 205	1 395	2 129	3 724	3 129
Portugal	1 416	2 394	2 920
Vietnam	2 623	3 833	5 223	6 426	4 579	5 528	4 150	3 967	4 128	2 750
Jamaica	3 122	3 341	4 159	5 258	3 039	2 245	2 010	2 390	2 944	2 678
Stateless and others	61 485	84 627	122 627	123 852	70 098	66 928	52 467	61 686	79 584	64 705
Total	116 201	150 570	217 320	227 720	155 645	154 624	134 485	158 753	214 568	167 353

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

Table B.1.6. **CZECH REPUBLIC, acquisition of nationality by country of former nationality**

	1999	2000	2001
Slovak Republic	6 278	5 377	3 378
Ukraine	273	376	173
Poland	23	8	163
Romania	47	68	142
Bulgaria	85	105	133
Russian Federation	104	74	87
Vietnam	111	112	80
Greece	45	26	38
Fed. Rep. of Yugoslavia	50	12	35
Former Yug. Rep. of Macedonia	16	18	28
Kazakhstan	3	17	25
Belarus	7	13	23
Cuba	29	30	23
Armenia	40	36	20
Bosnia-Herzegovina	10	22	18
Other countries	188	142	133
Total	7 309	6 436	4 499

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**

	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001
Turkey	502	560	915	797	917	1 036	1 243	3 154	2 787	3 130
Former Yugoslavia	78	138	806	413	629	291	695	709	1 523	1 134
Somalia	4	5	7	12	32	17	159	215	1 189	1 074
Iraq	236	241	166	177	339	244	718	918	2 210	871
Iran	1 083	710	491	531	829	553	969	914	1 105	437
Sri Lanka	179	370	515	635	765	376	613	523	819	365
Vietnam	209	169	125	137	200	126	365	439	647	318
Lebanon	109	234	237	216	314	160	811	601	1 099	309
Pakistan	265	192	203	145	220	149	284	463	545	297
Afghanistan	14	27	20	24	29	15	101	98	276	215
Morocco	167	168	136	122	201	110	248	322	485	213
China	26	17	7	18	42	32	117	169	228	195
Germany	158	134	140	118	126	138	173	197	240	129
Poland	278	219	151	175	237	130	241	173	201	126
Thailand	23	32	27	56	65	44	85	137	214	124
Other countries	1 773	1 821	350	1 684	2 338	2 061	3 440	3 384	5 243	2 965
Total	5 104	5 037	4 296	5 260	7 283	5 482	10 262	12 416	18 811	11 902

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**

	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001
Europe	506	450	342	335	365	509	1 245	1 612	1 472	534
<i>of which:</i>										
Former USSR	232	158	48	149	198	254	804	935	714	480
Nordic countries	162	114	94	104	111	106	148	94	55	5
Asia	140	214	152	144	328	489	1 299	696	715	598
Africa	104	67	56	81	120	180	788	1 365	522	387
North America	7	5	11	1	5	6	7	7	13	4
South America	48	39	32	27	30	46	70	34	68	32
Oceania	4	1	–	2	1	2	6	4	1	–
Stateless and unknown	66	63	58	78	132	207	602	1 012	186	694
Total	875	839	651	668	981	1 439	4 017	4 730	2 977	2 249

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**

	1992	1993	1994 ¹	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001
Morocco	12 292	13 131	22 676	12 249	15 452	16 365	16 345	21 245	23 856	22 794
Algeria	7 410	7 909	10 868	9 499	13 218	13 488	13 377	15 468	17 302	15 136
Turkey	1 296	1 515	3 197	2 143	3 447	3 977	4 530	6 018	7 209	6 586
Tunisia	4 991	5 370	9 248	4 182	5 109	5 420	5 699	5 914	7 330	5 886
Portugal	5 575	5 233	6 908	3 775	4 644	4 997	4 505	4 517	3 815	2 819
Former Yugoslavia	1 400	1 652	2 278	1 499	1 722	1 549	1 536	1 828	2 513	1 918
Cambodia	1 701	1 847	3 319	2 445	2 950	2 896	2 404	2 297	2 268	1 560
Vietnam	1 888	1 775	2 660	1 950	2 773	2 432	2 186	1 940	1 986	1 432
Senegal	560	935	1 054	1 091	1 408	1 508	1 404
Sri Lanka	546	837	1 046	980	1 408	1 778	1 311
Haiti	678	744	1 351	962	1 202	1 174	1 145	1 274	1 470	1 234
Dem. Rep. of Congo	739	795	1 505	161	1 057	1 171	1 269	1 312	1 611	1 226
Lebanon	1 508	1 568	2 445	1 689	2 390	2 104	1 783	1 495	1 681	1 093
Laos	1 305	1 187	1 991	1 496	1 647	1 539	1 361	1 507	1 707	1 067
Italy	1 117	936	1 370	1 022	1 255	1 353	1 261	1 114	1 522	722
Other countries	17 346	16 345	23 266	17 706	21 340	23 111	20 764	22 912	25 978	22 401
Total²	59 246	60 007	93 082	61 884	79 978	83 676	80 236	91 657	103 534	88 589
Total (estimates)³	95 300	95 500	126 337	92 410	109 823	116 194	122 261	145 435	150 025	127 551

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**

	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000 ²	2001 ²
Turkey	7 377	12 915	19 590	31 578	46 294	40 396	56 994	31 694	82 861	76 573
Former Yugoslavia	2 326	5 241	4 374	3 623	2 967	2 244	2 721	536	9 776	12 000
Russian Federation ¹	60 000	60 662	62 641	65 868	9 451	4 583	4 972
Romania	37 574	28 346	17 968	12 028	9 777	8 668	6 318	544	2 008	2 026
Poland	20 248	15 435	11 943	10 174	7 872	5 763	4 968	477	1 604	1 774
Italy	1 218	1 154	1 417	1 281	1 297	1 176	1 144	116	1 036	1 048
Austria	959	810	772	493	605	582	533	27	522	394
Kazakhstan ¹	101 000	94 961	88 583	83 478
Former USSR	84 660	105 801	43 086	35 477	21 457	8 966	3 925	141
Other countries	25 542	29 741	160 020	57 952	56 938	52 754	10 198	205 220	84 298	79 311
Total naturalisations	179 904	199 443	259 170	313 606	302 830	271 773	236 147	248 206	186 688	178 098
<i>of which: naturalisations by discretionary decision</i>	37 042	44 950	26 295	31 888	37 604	39 162	49 909	64 302

Note: Data include naturalisations on the basis of a claim until 1999, 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.
2. Excluding ethnic Germans.

Table B.1.6. **HUNGARY, acquisition of nationality by country of former nationality**

	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001
Romania	20 480	10 589	6 943	7 055	8 549	5 229	3 842	3 463	4 231	5 139
Former Yugoslavia	153	272	852	1 132	1 999	1 610	1 082	1 135	1 655	1 514
Former USSR	788	567	1 585	1 182	1 227	788	713	874	1 015	1 133
Other countries	459	378	525	651	491	1 030	799	594	637	644
Total	21 880	11 805	9 905	10 021	12 266	8 658	6 435	6 066	7 538	8 430

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**

	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001
Korea	7 244	7 697	8 244	10 327	9 898	9 678	9 561	10 059	9 842	10 295
China	1 794	2 244	2 478	3 184	3 976	4 729	4 637	5 335	5 245	4 377
Other countries	325	511	424	593	621	654	581	726	725	619
Total	9 363	10 452	11 146	14 104	14 495	15 061	14 779	16 120	15 812	15 291

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**

	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001
Italy	147	151	169	209	193	192	149	94	157	105
Belgium	86	63	75	67	65	64	48	53	72	39
France	75	89	71	78	85	79	53	43	52	33
Germany	68	78	64	70	55	60	44	41	50	45
Netherlands	13	18	16	15	20	17	15	11	14	13
Other countries	220	279	344	363	361	337	322	307	303	261
Total	609	678	739	802	779	749	631	549	648	496

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**

	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001
Morocco	7 990	7 750	8 110	13 480	15 600	10 480	11 250	14 220	13 471	12 721
Turkey	11 520	18 000	23 870	33 060	30 700	21 190	13 480	5 210	4 708	5 513
Iraq	854	798	2 721	3 834	2 403	2 315
Suriname	5 120	4 990	5 390	3 990	4 450	3 020	2 990	3 190	2 008	2 025
Former Yugoslavia	1 060	2 090	1 880	1 700	2 240	2 830	6 670	7 990	3 809	1 647
China	1 394	975	800	977	1 002	1 111
Bosnia-Herzegovina	127	2 056	3 873	5 416	2 646	883
Somalia	3 002	2 141	4 918	3 487	1 634	873
Afghanistan	360	217	905	1 847	945	803
Iran	2 299	1 285	1 806	2 560	1 375	754
Poland	1 129	827	677	688	587	597
Germany	380	330	310	500	780	560	560	580	508	573
Egypt	30	350	540	810	1 080	550	390	500	443	528
United Kingdom	670	490	460	820	1 170	690	580	450	374	356
Russian Federation	302	288	289	489	422	335
Stateless	210	180	170	610	820	680	120	4 620	7 400	7 800
Other countries	9 260	8 890	8 720	16 470	16 393	11 243	7 141	6 032	6 233	7 833
Total	36 240	43 070	49 450	71 440	82 700	59 830	59 170	62 090	49 968	46 667

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**

	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001
Former Yugoslavia	201	274	659	754	554	520	560	1 176	1 322	1 199
Vietnam	931	746	710	727	1 446	1 276	781	651	738	594
Pakistan	1 054	664	616	997	1 530	1 583	1 097	106	1 077	409
Turkey	238	393	752	793	836	837	705	170	523	356
Philippines	298	213	243	343	315	360	155	199	157	261
Sweden	108	153	150	130	112	167	154	241	246	249
India	220	242	251	346	313	274	157	232	188	235
Chile	81	117	310	923	531	416	240	252	156	172
Denmark	108	119	187	102	91	143	149	158	170	162
Poland	215	265	275	374	267	282	192	209	196	159
Morocco	299	275	257	248	318	294	154	90	131	154
Korea	107	105	135	121	122	109	146	144	113	143
China	95	149	148	235	383	348	279	315	156	113
Germany	46	56	59	45	41	63	55	73	74	68
United Kingdom	107	106	136	110	162	142	129	94	104	57
Other countries	1 024	1 661	3 890	5 530	5 216	5 223	4 291	3 878	4 166	6 507
Total	5 132	5 538	8 778	11 778	12 237	12 037	9 244	7 988	9 517	10 838

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	2000	2001
Brazil	235	241	296	46	186	175	283
Cape Verde	169	80	93	159	117	69	228
Venezuela	431	411	431	1	219	186	162
United States	164	120	203	7	91	64	90
Angola	76	57	56	56	62	42	65
Guinea Bissau	43	27	16	67	37	27	55
Canada	76	69	92	4	70	55	54
Mozambique	30	19	26	56	37	10	24
Sao Tome and Principe	18	10	12	28	15	7	20
France	14	11	18	3	8	6	8
Netherlands	–	1	3	–	–	1	6
India	6	4	10	6
United Kingdom	16	14	9	–	17	8	5
Spain	9	12	9	3	3	4	4
Germany	1	2	2	1	2	3	2
Other countries	131	80	98	82	78	54	70
Total	1 413	1 154	1 364	519	946	721	1 082
<i>of which: EU</i>	45	44	47	13	32	25	27

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**

	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001
Morocco	597	986	897	785	687	1 056	1 542	2 053	1 921	2 822
Peru	212	246	468	658	1 150	1 159	1 863	2 374	1 488	2 322
Dominican Republic	146	298	393	499	833	1 257	1 860	2 652	1 755	2 126
Cuba	146	..	172	169	250	442	773	1 109	893	1 191
Colombia	247	433	383	364	457	478	624	818	302	848
Argentina	944	1 532	1 690	1 314	1 387	1 368	1 126	1 027	661	791
Portugal	447	424	503	372	452	524	677	683	452	568
Philippines	283	380	340	281	455	583	499	551	365	554
Brazil	128	217	299	308	273	411
Chile	344	725	335	317	425	428	473	432	594	359
Venezuela	183	373	211	130	133	153	203	290	197	326
Ecuatorial Guinea	140	200	278	206	321
India	129	111	128	172	206	270	232	287
China	106	74	109	180	238	302	240	263
Uruguay	187	268	246	217	260	279	310	309	177	239
Other countries	1 544	2 747	1 929	1 465	1 579	1 875	2 284	2 938	2 243	3 315
Total	5 280	8 412	7 802	6 756	8 433	10 311	13 177	16 394	11 999	16 743

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**

	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001
Former Yugoslavia	3 969	10 940	6 352	3 550	2 416	6 052	8 991	4 000	5 134	7 281
Bosnia-Herzegovina	..	–	12	27	98	2 550	10 860	11 348	12 591	4 241
Iraq	958	1 436	1 167	1 466	1 851	2 328	3 719	2 328	4 181	4 043
Somalia	93	173	209	610	491	491	737	739	2 843	2 802
Turkey	1 569	4 201	2 742	2 836	2 030	1 402	1 694	1 833	1 398	2 796
Iran	4 783	5 119	4 365	3 867	2 696	2 423	7 480	4 476	2 798	2 031
Poland	1 294	1 164	998	895	636	523	454	159	264	1 906
Finland	3 805	3 070	2 974	2 125	2 009	1 882	1 668	1 632	1 389	1 512
Chile	1 305	1 762	1 446	946	707	545	426	693	687	727
Lebanon	700	1 113	1 883	2 728	820	33	146	235	366	720
Romania	545	838	398	674	531	747	361	258	266	701
Syria	587	1 032	867	1 330	616	567	653	438	693	588
Vietnam	560	985	757	421	595	601	716	719	580	573
China	114	234	222	333	363	302	334	300	434	460
Thailand	203	297	288	301	264	343	336	492	525	454
Stateless	1 441	1 810	1 807	1 398	933	830	942	776	979	941
Other countries	13 624	17 963	17 819	17 945	13 043	14 549	29 044	23 175	8 346	4 621
Total	29 326	42 659	35 084	31 993	25 552	28 867	46 502	37 777	43 474	36 397

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**

	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001
Italy	1 930	2 778	3 258	4 376	5 167	4 982	5 613	5 510	6 652	5 386
Former Yugoslavia	936	1 454	1 821	2 491	2 783	2 956	3 311	2 365	3 285	3 686
Turkey	614	820	966	1 205	1 432	1 814	2 093	2 260	3 127	3 116
France	809	862	935	871	1 045	985	1 152	848	1 360	1 307
Portugal	101	89	119	175	262	291	421	481	765	779
Spain	353	319	305	432	453	481	619	507	851	699
Germany	1 099	890	657	706	675	644	605	461	646	586
Austria	465	413	256	261	248	223	186	140	240	233
United Kingdom	307	347	263	278	299	269	285	228	339	195
Former CSFR	338	415	370	385	465	272	231	184	132	130
Hungary	223	207	243	297	278	206	187	153	167	127
Netherlands	90	76	57	52	55	71	76	45	74	90
Other countries	3 943	4 258	4 507	5 266	6 213	5 976	6 501	7 181	11 062	11 252
Total	11 208	12 928	13 757	16 795	19 375	19 170	21 280	20 363	28 700	27 586

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**

	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002
Africa	7 452	7 877	7 940	9 162	8 018	12 941	12 863	21 925	29 790	37 535
Indian sub-continent	12 246	11 263	9 879	10 792	8 465	14 619	14 786	22 145	23 745	26 690
Middle East	4 330	4 322	3 543	3 535	2 833	4 288	4 713	6 620	5 330	9 445
Rest of Asia	5 690	5 144	4 817	5 207	4 102	6 395	6 154	9 150	8 630	15 525
European Economic Area	2 177	2 058	1 755	1 722	1 546	1 291	1 710	2 075	1 680	1 585
Rest of Europe	3 298	3 107	2 860	2 928	2 784	4 647	5 575	9 370	9 405	17 760
America	4 828	4 531	4 096	4 266	3 544	5 224	5 415	6 965	7 245	8 040
Oceania	1 452	1 539	1 666	1 542	1 443	1 645	1 524	1 670	1 515	1 735
Other countries	4 318	4 192	3 960	3 915	4 275	2 475	2 162	2 290	2 955	1 830
Total	45 791	44 033	40 516	43 069	37 010	53 525	54 902	82 210	90 295	120 145
Acquisitions of nationality to residents of Hong Kong (China)	41 800	5 900	25 700	5 500	3 285	2 780	725	350	365	165

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

Table B.1.6. **UNITED STATES, acquisition of nationality by country of former nationality**

	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001
Mexico	12 873	23 615	46 169	81 655	254 988	142 569	112 442	207 750	189 705	103 234
Vietnam	18 422	22 520	29 555	31 728	51 910	36 178	30 185	53 316	55 934	41 596
Philippines	28 587	33 925	40 777	37 870	51 346	30 898	24 872	38 944	46 563	35 431
China	13 616	16 943	22 331	21 564	34 320	20 947	16 145	38 409	54 534	34 423
India	13 452	16 527	20 940	18 558	33 113	21 206	17 060	30 710	42 198	34 311
Korea	8 330	9 681	12 367	15 709	27 969	16 056	10 305	17 738	23 858	18 053
Dominican Republic	8 494	12 303	11 390	9 999	29 459	21 092	11 916	23 089	25 176	15 010
Jamaica	6 710	7 911	12 252	11 156	25 458	20 253	15 040	28 604	22 567	13 978
Iran	6 787	7 033	10 041	11 761	19 278	11 434	10 739	18 268	19 251	13 881
El Salvador	2 061	3 038	5 643	13 702	35 478	18 273	12 267	22 991	24 073	13 663
Ukraine	9	141	583	2 715	6 959	5 971	6 952	12 190	16 849	11 828
Poland	4 699	5 592	7 062	8 092	14 047	8 037	5 911	13 127	16 405	11 661
Cuba	7 750	15 064	16 380	17 511	63 234	13 155	15 331	25 467	15 661	11 393
Colombia	6 451	9 985	12 309	12 823	27 483	11 645	7 024	13 168	14 018	10 872
Haiti	3 988	5 190	7 989	7 884	25 012	16 477	10 416	19 550	14 428	10 408
Other countries	98 023	125 213	178 319	185 361	344 635	204 034	156 455	276 623	307 568	228 463
Total	240 252	314 681	434 107	488 088	1 044 689	598 225	463 060	839 944	888 788	608 205

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

Table B.2.1. **AUSTRALIA, immigrant labour force by region or country of birth**

Thousands

	1986	1991	1996	2001	Of which: Women
					2001
Europe	1 343.4	1 332.1	1 224.1	1 142.1	450.4
United Kingdom and Ireland	677.2	697.6	661.3	630.0	255.9
Former Yugoslavia	106.8	109.3	110.8	92.9	36.9
Italy	154.1	138.6	95.8	86.2	25.0
Germany	70.2	70.2	59.8	62.3	24.1
Greece	86.6	80.3	60.1	45.3	16.1
Netherlands	63.4	55.6	45.0	40.7	15.6
Poland	29.0	26.6	31.2	32.7	14.2
Malta	28.2	28.8	30.1	20.3	7.6
Others	127.8	125.1	130.1	131.6	55.1
Asia	227.9	378.0	479.5	582.1	262.6
Vietnam	49.7	60.8	83.6	90.8	38.7
China ¹	16.3	59.5	56.3	80.0	35.0
Philippines	16.3	44.3	56.4	64.8	41.1
India	33.7	39.6	49.0	75.0	27.7
Malaysia	24.6	43.1	51.1	47.1	23.9
Others	87.3	130.7	183.2	224.4	96.3
New Zealand	139.8	187.3	208.7	251.1	115.0
North Africa and the Middle East	71.2	94.4	104.9	119.6	39.7
Lebanon	23.8	37.0	35.8	39.3	11.4
Others	47.5	57.4	69.1	80.3	28.3
America	55.8	75.6	97.3	99.9	47.5
Other and not stated	77.9	101.6	134.7	172.5	78.9
Total	1 916.0	2 169.0	2 249.3	2 367.3	994.1
% of total labour force	25.5	25.7	24.8	24.2	23.1

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

1. Excluding Hong Kong (China) and Chinese Taipei.

Table B.2.1. **CANADA, immigrant labour force by country of birth**

Thousands

	1991	1996
United Kingdom	422.0	372.5
Italy	214.0	166.2
India	127.0	158.3
United States	144.0	142.0
Hong Kong (China)	96.0	129.4
Philippines	..	126.7
China	90.0	113.8
Portugal	111.0	101.0
Germany	115.0	100.7
Poland	89.0	98.0
Vietnam	..	85.8
Jamaica	..	79.5
Netherlands	82.0	70.5
Other countries	1 191.0	1 094.7
Total	2 681.0	2 839.1
% of total labour force	18.5	19.2

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

Table B.2.1. **UNITED STATES, immigrant labour force
by country of birth**

Thousands

	1990
Mexico	2 630.9
Philippines	629.0
Cuba	459.2
Germany	378.3
Canada	371.8
United Kingdom	349.4
Korea	328.7
China	313.6
El Salvador	308.8
India	308.6
Vietnam	303.7
Italy	266.0
Jamaica	232.3
Dominican Republic	195.4
Colombia	192.5
Other countries	4 296.4
Total	11 564.6
% of total labour force	9.4

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

Table B.2.2. **AUSTRIA, stock of foreign labour by nationality**

Thousands

	1993	1996	2001	Of which: Women
				2001
Former Yugoslavia	126.6	94.2	70.8	31.3
Turkey	54.5	52.2	43.7	11.9
Bosnia-Herzegovina ¹	..	28.1	41.0	17.0
Croatia	6.4	19.2	25.9	10.3
Hungary	10.0	9.2	10.4	2.2
Poland	11.0	10.1	8.8	2.3
Romania	9.3	8.7	6.4	2.4
Slovenia	4.3	6.0	6.0	1.6
Slovak Republic	0.5	3.7	4.8	1.5
Former Yug. Rep. of Macedonia ¹	..	2.9	4.3	0.9
Czech Republic	1.0	4.0	4.2	1.2
China ²	1.8	1.9	1.4	0.5
Bulgaria	1.5	1.4	1.1	0.4
Philippines	2.4	1.8	1.1	0.7
India	1.8	1.6	1.0	0.3
Other countries	46.6	12.4	9.2	2.5
Total	277.5	257.2	240.1	87.1
Total women	93.4	85.7	87.1	
Total including foreign unemployed³	304.6	328.0	359.9	137.8

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

1. Included in Former Yugoslavia in 1993.

2. Including Chinese Taipei.

3. 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	1999
Italy	95.6	101.8	98.8
France	43.7	51.6	63.9
Morocco	..	44.5	43.4
Netherlands	23.0	30.4	35.1
Turkey	..	30.1	26.6
Spain	21.8	22.8	23.1
Portugal	5.6	10.6	12.3
Germany	7.0	8.4	9.4
United Kingdom	6.6	8.3	9.0
Greece	6.3	6.9	7.1
Dem. Rep. of Congo	..	3.6	4.8
Algeria	..	3.4	3.4
Luxembourg	1.5	1.5	1.5
Sweden	..	0.8	1.1
Other countries	79.3	37.5	46.7
Total	290.3	362.1	386.2

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 labour by nationality**
Thousands

	1994	1996	2001
Slovak Republic	39.2	72.2	63.6
Ukraine	12.7	42.1	17.5
Poland	8.7	12.8	6.7
Bulgaria	0.7	1.4	1.9
Moldova	1.4
United States	1.5	1.6	1.3
Germany	1.1	1.5	1.2
Belarus	..	0.9	1.0
United Kingdom	1.1	1.2	1.0
Mongolia	0.2	0.6	1.0
Russian Federation	0.6	0.9	0.9
Romania	0.7	0.9	0.8
France	0.3	0.5	0.6
Former Yug. Rep. of Macedonia	..	1.1	0.4
Austria	0.4	0.4	0.4
Other countries	4.8	5.1	4.1
Total	72.1	143.2	103.7

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

Table B.2.2. **DENMARK, stock of foreign labour by nationality**
Thousands

	1986	1991	1996	2001	Of which: Women
					2001
Turkey	10.9	13.4	13.6	13.0	5.0
Former Yugoslavia	4.4	5.1	7.3	12.7	5.2
United Kingdom	6.3	6.5	7.5	7.7	2.2
Germany	5.1	5.3	6.2	7.1	2.9
Norway	5.8	5.9	6.2	6.7	3.9
Sweden	4.8	4.7	5.2	5.9	3.3
Iceland	1.5	1.3	2.7	2.8	1.3
Pakistan	2.5	2.1	2.4	2.3	0.8
Finland	1.1	1.0	1.0	1.1	0.8
Other countries	17.8	25.9	35.9	41.4	18.8
Total	60.1	71.2	88.0	100.6	44.3
<i>of which: EU</i>	15.8	17.3	21.5	30.9	12.3
Total women	24.9	29.5	37.0	44.3	

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 labour by nationality**

Thousands

	2000	2001
Russian Federation	9.1	10.1
Estonia	5.3	5.9
Sweden	3.5	3.6
Fed. Rep. of Yugoslavia	..	1.5
United Kingdom	1.4	1.5
Germany	1.3	1.4
Former USSR	1.3	1.2
Somalia	1.1	1.2
Turkey	1.0	1.1
Iraq	0.9	1.0
United States	0.8	0.9
China	0.7	0.8
Vietnam	0.8	0.8
Bosnia-Herzegovina	0.7	0.8
Thailand	0.6	0.7
Other countries	12.9	12.9
Total	41.4	45.4

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

Table B.2.2. **FRANCE, stock of foreign labour by nationality**

Thousands

	1987	1992	1997	2002	Of which: Women
					2002
Portugal	393.2	426.5	342.5	376.8	159.6
Morocco	176.0	176.6	205.0	199.6	60.8
Algeria	249.3	243.7	246.1	198.4	60.7
Turkey	56.5	56.8	65.8	92.6	24.9
Tunisia	71.5	75.5	85.0	84.4	23.0
Italy	113.6	87.5	65.5	71.2	25.5
Spain	119.3	81.6	90.7	52.0	21.2
Former Yugoslavia	39.8	19.5	23.2	25.2	12.6
Poland	12.2	12.3	13.8	15.6	7.8
Other countries	293.5	337.9	432.2	508.0	224.7
Total	1 524.9	1 517.8	1 569.8	1 623.8	620.9
<i>of which: EU¹</i>	693.5	674.1	594.8	615.8	263.9
Total women	474.1	502.4	560.2	620.9	

Note: Data are derived from the Labour Force Survey and refer to the month of March for each year. 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	2001
Turkey	1 039	1 008	1 004
Italy	375	386	403
Greece	214	219	210
Croatia	215	189	193
Austria	123	118	116
Poland	94	100	113
Bosnia-Herzegovina	169	103	96
Portugal	65	77	84
Spain	75	69	74
United Kingdom	76	65	74
France	58	56	62
Netherlands	63	63	61
United States	53	54	58
Other countries	956	1 038	1 068
Total	3 575	3 545	3 616

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

	1991	1996	2001
Romania	22.9	8.5	22.0
Former USSR	1.8	2.2	6.5
Slovak Republic	0.7	0.4	1.8
Former Yugoslavia	0.6	1.0	1.3
China	1.0	0.5	1.1
Vietnam	0.5	0.1	0.4
Poland	2.8	1.0	0.3
Other countries	3.1	5.0	5.2
Total	33.4	18.8	38.6

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

Table B.2.2. **ITALY, stock of foreign labour by nationality**

Thousands

	1991	1995	2000
Morocco	46.4	47.9	115.1
Albania	14.8	18.2	89.3
Philippines	24.6	27.7	53.4
Romania	46.8
China	9.0	10.0	44.1
Senegal	12.3	13.6	36.5
Tunisia	21.3	19.5	34.2
Egypt	10.1	9.7	25.6
Former Yugoslavia	12.5	17.7	23.6
Sri Lanka	7.4	11.5	23.5
Peru	22.7
Poland	3.7	5.2	17.8
Bangladesh	16.9
India	3.0	4.1	16.2
Nigeria	2.2	2.4	15.8
Other countries	118.1	144.6	269.3
Total	285.3	332.2	850.7
Total women	83.6	111.2	258.8

Note: 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. 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

	1993	1996	2001
Philippines	26.2	18.1	46.9
China ¹	20.0	26.6	38.9
United States	18.1	17.7	18.8
Korea	6.0	6.7	12.3
United Kingdom	5.4	6.1	9.1
Canada	3.6	4.5	6.6
Australia	2.2	2.6	5.7
India	1.4	2.1	4.5
France	1.3	1.5	2.2
Germany	1.3	1.4	1.6
Other countries	9.8	11.0	22.2
Total	95.4	98.3	168.8

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

	1995	1996	2001	Of which: Women
				2001
China	18.0	33.2	46.1	18.2
<i>of which: Chinese with Korean ancestor</i>	6.7	8.3	21.4	6.8
Philippines	8.5	10.1	12.2	4.1
Uzbekistan	0.8	1.0	3.6	1.1
United States	4.2	6.1	3.5	1.0
Canada	1.1	2.7	3.2	1.2
Russian Federation	0.2	0.4	2.3	2.0
Japan	1.5	1.7	1.1	0.3
United Kingdom	0.3	0.5	0.7	0.2
New Zealand	–	0.1	0.7	0.3
Australia	0.2	0.2	0.6	0.2
India	0.1	0.3	0.5	–
South Africa	–	0.1	0.3	0.1
France	0.1	0.2	0.2	–
Germany	0.2	0.2	0.2	–
Other countries	17.0	26.1	53.3	10.2
Total	52.2	82.9	128.5	38.9
Total women	18.0	25.1	38.9	

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

	1986	1991	1996	2001
France	12.3	24.1	36.0	60.0
Portugal	16.3	24.7	27.8	32.8
Belgium	9.8	16.0	20.9	31.7
Germany	6.0	9.9	13.6	21.7
Italy	8.5	8.5	7.6	8.6
United Kingdom	..	1.0	1.4	1.9
Former Yugoslavia	0.7	1.4	1.5	1.8
Spain	0.9	1.0	1.0	1.2
Other countries	4.2	6.0	8.0	11.0
Total	58.7	92.6	117.8	170.7
<i>of which: EU</i>	55.7	87.0	111.2	161.9
Total women	19.7	32.1	42.2	61.1

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
Morocco	25	27	32	27	7
Turkey	35	41	39	26	7
Belgium	21	24	22	24	12
United Kingdom	15	18	22	22	6
Germany	16	18	15	21	9
Spain	8	8	7	11	4
Other countries	45	61	84	104	34
Total	166	197	221	235	79
<i>of which: EU</i>	65	88	98	116	41
Total women	40	53	69	79	

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	2000
Sweden	6.2	5.5	7.8	13.6
Denmark	9.2	8.6	9.0	9.0
United Kingdom	5.1	4.6	5.2	5.4
Pakistan	2.6	2.2	1.9	4.9
Germany	1.9	1.9	2.2	4.4
Sri Lanka	1.5	1.9	2.0	4.2
Finland	1.8	1.5	1.9	3.7
Turkey	1.6	1.4	1.0	3.1
Chile	1.0	1.3	1.3	2.9
Poland	0.9	0.8	0.6	2.8
United States	3.1	2.8	3.1	2.4
India	1.2	1.2	1.0	2.3
Netherlands	1.2	1.2	1.4	1.9
Other countries	12.1	11.4	14.2	50.6
Total	49.5	46.3	52.6	111.2

Note: Data are for the 2nd quarter (except for 1995 and 2000: 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

	1992	1996	2001
Cape Verde	17.7	22.2	23.6
Brazil	6.3	9.7	10.8
Angola	1.9	8.2	10.4
Guinea Bissau	3.1	7.2	9.4
Spain	4.0	4.9	7.7
United Kingdom	4.5	5.6	6.8
Germany	3.1	4.4	5.5
France	2.3	3.1	4.4
United States	2.8	3.1	3.2
Sao Tome and Principe	1.0	1.9	2.5
China	0.9	1.3	2.0
Italy	0.9	1.3	2.0
Mozambique	1.7	1.9	1.9
Netherlands	1.1	1.4	1.9
Venezuela	0.9	0.7	..
Other countries	7.1	9.8	13.0
Total	59.2	86.8	104.7
<i>of which: EU</i>	16.9	22.2	..

Note: For more details on source, refer to the notes at the end of the Annex.

Table B.2.2. **SPAIN, stock of foreign labour by nationality**

Thousands

	1989	1991	1996	2001	<i>Of which: Women</i>
					2001
Morocco	6.7	41.1	61.6	124.2	18.5
Ecuador	2.3	67.9	29.1
Colombia	1.0	2.7	3.6	26.8	14.6
Peru	0.7	4.8	14.3	22.7	12.8
China	1.4	4.6	8.2	20.7	7.1
Romania	1.1	18.2	5.4
Dominican Republic	0.5	5.1	12.4	13.2	9.7
Cuba	2.0	10.9	4.9
Argentina	4.3	12.0	7.8	9.9	3.7
Philippines	3.4	6.7	8.3	9.9	3.8
Algeria	..	1.9	3.3	8.8	0.7
Poland	3.2	7.4	2.9
Senegal	3.9	7.0	0.7
Brazil	..	1.6	..	4.6	3.1
United States	2.8	4.6	..	4.3	1.9
Other countries	48.3	85.9	34.3	250.6	89.6
Total	69.1	171.0	166.5	607.1	208.4
<i>of which: EU</i>	34.7	46.5	109.0
Total women	25.2	57.6	57.5	208.4	

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. Data for 2001 are not comparable with data for previous years. 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

	1986	1991	1996	2001	Of which: Women
					2001
Finland	83	69	57	53	31
Former Yugoslavia	21	21	23	23	9
Norway	14	21	19	16	9
Denmark	15	16	13	14	5
Poland	..	8	7	10	7
Turkey	..	10	7	7	3
Iran	..	16	10	4	2
Other countries	81	80	82	100	41
Total	215	241	218	227	107
Total women	99	112	100	107	

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

	1986	1991	1996	2001	Of which: Women
					2001
A. Resident workers¹					
Italy	229.8	234.7	202.5	172.3	57.2
Former Yugoslavia	51.8	98.1	136.2	85.7	31.3
Portugal	26.6	63.8	79.3	77.9	33.3
Germany	47.8	55.0	56.7	73.3	28.2
Spain	70.5	74.4	59.8	48.8	19.2
France	27.8	32.1	31.3	34.2	13.4
Turkey	27.0	35.8	34.3	34.1	12.2
Austria	19.8	21.0	18.8	18.5	6.8
United Kingdom	7.9	9.5	9.8	12.3	3.7
Netherlands	5.8	7.3	8.1	8.2	3.1
United States	3.9	5.1	5.5	6.3	2.2
Other countries	48.2	65.6	66.8	167.3	70.8
Total	566.9	702.5	709.1	738.8	281.4
of which: EU	..	487.4	479.8	457.8	169.6
Total women	191.7	238.8	257.9	281.4	
B. Seasonal workers²					
Portugal	29.8	39.4	20.2	21.3	5.0
Italy	17.9	11.3	4.9	5.0	0.7
Germany	2.2	2.7	2.0	3.1	1.5
France	2.3	2.3	1.8	2.0	0.7
Spain	21.8	10.6	3.2	1.6	0.3
Austria	2.1	2.6	1.3	1.4	0.7
Turkey	0.1	–	–	–	–
Former Yugoslavia	32.1	45.6	10.1	–	–
Other countries	1.5	1.5	1.7	1.4	0.5
Total	109.8	115.9	45.3	35.8	9.4
Total women	18.7	20.5	10.9	9.4	

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

	1987	1992	1997	2002	Of which: Women
					2002
Ireland	258	256	216	184	89
Central and Eastern Europe ¹	21	21	27	73	36
India	73	72	56	72	25
France	18	30	33	62	33
Australia ²	21	24	35	59	29
Italy	50	50	42	58	22
United States	41	49	53	57	29
Portugal	12	12	14	50	21
New Zealand	..	21	21	38	14
Germany	26	14	32	34	18
Spain	17	20	24	33	17
Pakistan ³	25	16	20	33	–
Bangladesh	..	11	18	14	–
Caribbean and Guyana	72	49	37
Other countries	181	257	321	536	240
Total	815	902	949	1 303	573
<i>of which: EU</i>	401	415	416
Total women	..	429	430	573	

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 former USSR.
2. Including New Zealand until 1991.
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

Country	Types of migrant recorded in the data	Other comments	Source
Austria	<i>Criteria for registering foreigners:</i> holding a residence permit and intending to stay in the country for at least 6 weeks.		Central Office of Statistics.
Belgium	<i>Criteria for registering foreigners:</i> holding a residence permit and intending to stay in the country for at least 3 months. Outflows include administrative corrections.	Until 1994, some asylum seekers were included in the population register. Since 1995 then they have been recorded in a separate register.	Population Register, National Statistical Office.
Czech Republic	<i>Criteria for registering foreigners:</i> holding a permanent or a long-term residence permit.	Until 2000, data include only holders of a permanent residence permit. From 2001 on, data also include refugees and long-term residence permit holders (valid for 90 days or more) whose stay exceeded a year.	Czech Statistical Office.
Denmark	<i>Criteria for registering foreigners:</i> holding a residence permit and intending to stay in the country for at least 3 months. However, the data on immigrants only count those who have lived in the country for at least one year. Outflows include administrative corrections.	Excluded from inflows are asylum seekers, and all those with temporary residence permits (this includes some war refugees).	Central population register, Statistics Denmark.
Finland	<i>Criteria for registering foreigners:</i> holding a residence permit and intending to stay in the country for at least 1 year.	Persons of Finnish origin are included.	Central population register, Statistics Finland.
Germany	<i>Criteria for registering foreigners:</i> holding a residence permit and intending to stay in the country for at least 1 week.	Includes asylum seekers living in private households. Excludes inflows of ethnic Germans. The figures represent Germany as a whole from 1991 on.	Population register, Federal Statistical Office.
Hungary	<i>Criteria for registering foreigners:</i> holding a long-term residence permit (valid for up to 1 year).	Data include foreigners who have been residing in the country for at least a year and who currently hold a long-term permit. Data are presented by actual year of entry (whatever the type of permit when entering the country). Outflow data do not include people whose permit validity has expired.	Register of long-term residence permits, Ministry of the Interior. Hungarian Central Statistical Office.
Japan	<i>Criteria for registering foreigners:</i> intention to remain in the country for more than 90 days.	Excluding temporary visitors and re-entries.	Register of foreigners, Ministry of Justice, Immigration Bureau.
Luxembourg	<i>Criteria for registering foreigners:</i> holding a residence permit and intending to stay in the country for at least 3 months.		Central population register, Central Office of Statistics and Economic Studies (Statec).
Netherlands	<i>Criteria for registering foreigners:</i> holding a residence permit and intending to stay in the country for at least 4 of the next 6 months. Outflows include administrative corrections.	Inflows include some asylum seekers (except those staying in reception centres).	Population register, Central Bureau of Statistics.
Norway	<i>Criteria for registering foreigners:</i> holding a residence permit and intending to stay in the country for at least 6 months.	From 1987 on, includes asylum seekers awaiting decisions on their application for refugee status. In 1999, inflow data include refugees from Kosovo who received temporary protection in Norway.	Central population register, Statistics Norway.
Sweden	<i>Criteria for registering foreigners:</i> holding a residence permit and intending to stay in the country for at least 1 year.	Asylum seekers and temporary workers are not included in inflows.	Population register, Statistics Sweden.
Switzerland	<i>Criteria for registering foreigners:</i> holding a permanent or an annual residence permit.	Inflows do not include conversions from seasonal to non-seasonal permits.	Register of foreigners, Federal Office of Immigration, Integration and Emigration.

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

Country	Types of migrant recorded in the data	Other comments	Source
Australia	<p>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.</p> <p>Permanent departures comprise movements of persons who on departure state that they do not intend to return to Australia.</p> <p>B. Temporary residents: entries of temporary residents (<i>i.e.</i> excluding students). Includes short and long-term temporary entrants, eg., top managers, executives, specialist and technical workers, diplomats and other personnel of foreign governments, temporary business entry, working holiday makers and entertainers.</p> <p>Long-term departures include persons departing for a temporary stay of more than twelve months.</p>	Data refer to the fiscal year (July to June of the year indicated) from 1992 on. Inflow data do not include those persons granted permanent residence while already temporary residents in Australia.	Department of Immigration and Multicultural and Indigenous Affairs, Population Research.
Canada	<p><i>Permanent</i>: Issues of permanent residence permits.</p> <p><i>Temporary</i>: Inflows of foreign workers entering Canada to work temporarily (excluding seasonal workers) provided by reason for initial entry.</p>	Data include those already present in Canada, and also those granted residence in a programme eliminating a backlog of applications.	<p>Statistics Canada</p> <p>Statistics Canada</p>
France	<p>Data consist of those entering as permanent workers plus those entering under family reunification. Persons entering as self-employed and persons entering under additional permits relating to family reunification are also included.</p> <p>In 1997, 1998, 1999 and 2000, data include 18 900, 45 800, 3 300 and 170 persons respectively who benefited from the 1997 regularisation programme.</p>	<p>Up to 1998, 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 1999 on, the estimates provided by OMI have been replaced by more accurate figures from the Ministry of the Interior (AGDREF). As a result, totals from 1999 on are not fully comparable with data for previous years.</p> <p>From 1994 on, figures include estimates of some unregistered flows (inflows of family members of EEA citizens for example).</p>	Office des migrations internationales and Ministry of the Interior (AGDREF).
Greece	Issues of residence permits	Excluding ethnic Greeks.	Ministry of Public Order.
Ireland	Estimates on the basis of 1996 Census results.	Data from 1997 on are preliminary.	Central Statistical Office.
Italy	Inflows: Issues of residence permits (excluding renewals).	In 1999 and 2000, data include 137 262 and 116 253 permits issued to foreigners who applied for amnesty in 1998.	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) except for departures (January to December).	Statistics New Zealand.
Portugal	Data based on residence permits.		SEF and National Statistical Office (INE) and unpublished data.
United Kingdom	<p><i>Inflows</i>: Non-British citizens admitted to the United Kingdom. <i>IPS</i> data from 1992 on have been revised.</p> <p><i>Outflows</i>: Non-British citizens leaving the territory of the United Kingdom. <i>IPS</i> data from 1992 on have been revised.</p>	Data by nationality are not reliable.	<i>International Passenger Survey</i> , Office for National Statistics.
United States	<p><i>Permanent inflows</i>: Issues of permanent residence permits.</p> <p><i>Temporary inflows</i>: Inflows of non-immigrants excluding visitors and transit passengers.</p>	The figures include those persons already present in the United States, that is, those who changed status and those benefiting from the 1986 legalisation program. Data cover the fiscal year (October to September of the year indicated).	<p>US Department of Justice.</p> <p>US Department of Justice.</p>

Notes related to tables A.1.3. and B.1.3. **Inflows of asylum seekers**

Country	Comments	Source
Australia	Fiscal years (July to June of the given year) except for 2001 and 2002 (data provided by the UNHCR). Including accompanying dependents.	Department of Immigration and Multicultural and Indigenous Affairs and United Nations High Commission for Refugees.
Austria	Excluding <i>de facto</i> refugees from Bosnia Herzegovina.	Central Office of Statistics. United Nations High Commission for Refugees (2002).
Belgium	Applications registered by the General Commission for refugees and stateless persons (Commissariat général aux réfugiés et aux apatrides). In 1999, 2000 and 2001, applications registered by the Office des étrangers.	National Statistical Office, Department of Federal Immigration, General Commission on Refugees and Stateless Persons. United Nations High Commission for Refugees (2002).
Bulgaria		United Nations High Commission for Refugees.
Canada	Excluding accompanying dependents. Table B.1.3 is broken down by country of alleged persecution.	Citizenship and Immigration Canada.
Czech Republic		Ministry of the Interior.
Denmark	Data refer to asylum applications lodged in Denmark and abroad.	Statistics Denmark.
Finland		Ministry of the Interior.
France	Excluding accompanying dependents.	French Office for the Protection of Refugees and Stateless Persons, United Nations High Commission for Refugees (2002).
Germany		Federal Ministry of the Interior. United Nations High Commission for Refugees (2002).
Greece		Ministry of the Interior.
Hungary		United Nations High Commission for Refugees.
Ireland		Department of Justice.
Italy	Excluding accompanying dependents.	United Nations High Commission for Refugees.
Japan		United Nations High Commission for Refugees.
Luxembourg		Ministry of Foreign Affairs and Ministry of Justice.
Netherlands		Ministry of Justice. United Nations High Commission for Refugees (2002).
New Zealand		United Nations High Commission for Refugees.
Norway		Directorate of Immigration.
Poland		Department for Migration and Refugee Affairs, Ministry of the Interior.
Portugal		Ministry of the Interior.
Romania		United Nations High Commission for Refugees.
Slovak Republic		United Nations High Commission for Refugees.
Spain	Excluding accompanying dependents.	Bureau of Asylum and Refugee Affairs.
Sweden		Swedish Immigration Board.
Switzerland		Federal Office of Refugees (2001). United Nations High Commission for Refugees.
Turkey		United Nations High Commission for Refugees.
United Kingdom	Breakdown by country excludes accompanying dependents.	Home Office.
United States	Excluding accompanying dependents. From 1993 on, figures include applications reopened during the year. Fiscal years (October to September of the years indicated).	Office of Immigration Statistics.

Notes related to tables A.1.4. and B.1.4. **Foreign-born population**

Country	Comments	Source
Australia	Estimated resident population in Table A.1.4. <i>Reference date:</i> 30 June. Data by country of birth in Table B.1.4. refer to the 1991, 1996 and 2001 censuses.	Australian Bureau of Statistics. Census of Population and Housing. Australian Bureau of Statistics.
Austria		Population Register, Central Office of Statistics.
Canada	Total immigrants (excluding non-permanent residents).	Quinquennial censuses, Statistics Canada.
Denmark		Statistics Denmark.
Finland	<i>Coverage:</i> Stock of foreign-born citizens recorded in population register. Includes foreign-born persons of Finnish origin.	Central population register, Statistics Finland.
France	<i>Coverage:</i> Mainland only. <i>Reference date:</i> 8 March 1999.	Census, National Institute for Statistics and Economic Studies (INSEE).
Hungary	<i>Coverage:</i> Holders of a permanent or a long-term residence permit. <i>Reference date:</i> 31 December.	Register of foreigners, Ministry of the Interior.
Luxembourg	<i>Reference date:</i> 15 February 2001.	Census 2001, Central Office of Statistics and Economic Studies (Statec).
Mexico	Population aged 5 and over.	2000 Census, National Council on Population (CONAPO)
Netherlands	<i>Reference date:</i> 31 December.	Central Bureau of Statistics (CBS).
New Zealand	Census results. <i>Reference date:</i> March 2001.	Statistics New Zealand.
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 the foreign-born population census figures (1970, 1980, 1990 and 2000, see Table B.1.4). Note that estimates by country of birth from the Current Population Survey are not sufficiently reliable for all countries and are therefore not shown in Table B.1.4. However the total stock of foreign-born persons from the CPS from 1994 on is given in Table A.1.4.	Decennial censuses (1970, 1980, 1990 and 2000), 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**

Country	Comments	Source
Austria	<p><i>Coverage:</i> Stock of foreign citizens recorded in the population register.</p> <p><i>Reference date:</i> Annual average.</p> <p><i>Other comments:</i> The data were revised following the 1991 census. Data by nationality in Table B.1.5 refer to the 2001 census.</p>	Population Register, Central Office of Statistics.
Belgium	<p><i>Coverage:</i> Stock of foreign citizens recorded in the population register. Until 1994, asylum seekers were included in the population register. Since 1995 they have been recorded in a separate register.</p> <p><i>Reference date:</i> 31 December.</p> <p><i>Other comments:</i> 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.</p>	Population register, National Statistical Office.
Czech Republic	<p><i>Coverage:</i> Holders of a permanent residence permit (mainly for family reasons) or a long-term residence permit (1-year permit, renewable).</p> <p><i>Reference date:</i> 31 December.</p> <p><i>Other comments:</i> 1992 data cover the former Czech and Slovak Federal Republics.</p>	Register of foreigners, Ministry of the Interior.
Denmark	<p><i>Coverage:</i> Stock of foreign citizens recorded in the population register. Excludes asylum seekers and all persons with temporary residence permits (this includes some war refugees).</p> <p><i>Reference date:</i> 31 December.</p>	Central population register, Statistics Denmark.
Finland	<p><i>Coverage:</i> Stock of foreign citizens recorded in population register. Includes foreign persons of Finnish origin.</p> <p><i>Reference date:</i> 30 September.</p>	Central population register, Statistics Finland.
France	<p><i>Coverage:</i> Foreigners with permanent residence in France. Includes permanent workers, trainees, students and their dependent families. Seasonal and cross-border workers are not included.</p> <p><i>Reference dates:</i> 4 March 1982, 6 March 1990, 8 March 1999.</p>	Census (25 per cent sample), National Institute for Statistics and Economic Studies (INSEE).
Germany	<p><i>Coverage:</i> Stock of foreign citizens recorded in the population register. Includes asylum seekers living in private households. Excludes foreign-born persons of German origin (ethnic Germans).</p> <p><i>Reference date:</i> 31 December.</p> <p><i>Other comments:</i> Since 1992, disaggregation by sex and nationality covers only those aged 16 and over. Figures represent Germany as a whole from 1991.</p>	Central population register, Federal Office of Statistics.
Greece	<p><i>Coverage:</i> Stock of foreign citizens recorded in the census.</p>	National Statistical Service of Greece.
Hungary	<p><i>Coverage:</i> Holders of a permanent or a long-term residence permit.</p> <p><i>Reference date:</i> 31 December.</p>	Register of foreigners, Ministry of the Interior.
Ireland	<p>The only distinctions made with regard to nationalities are EU, non-EU and United States citizens.</p>	Labour Force Survey, Central Statistical Office (CSO).
Italy	<p><i>Coverage:</i> Holders of a residence permit.</p> <p>Children under 18 who are registered on their parents' permit are not counted. Data include foreigners who were regularised following the 1987-1988, 1990, 1995-1996 and 1998 programmes. In 1999 and 2000, figures include 139 601 and 116 253 regularised persons respectively.</p> <p>The fall in stocks in both 1989 and 1994 is the result of a clean-up of the register of foreigners.</p> <p><i>Reference date:</i> 31 December.</p>	Ministry of the Interior.

Notes related to tables A.1.5. and B.1.5. **Foreign population** (cont.)

Country	Comments	Source
Japan	<i>Coverage:</i> Foreigners staying in Japan more than 90 days and registered in population registers as required by law. <i>Reference date:</i> 31 December.	Register of foreigners, Ministry of Justice, Immigration Bureau.
Korea	<i>Coverage:</i> Foreigners staying in Korea more than 90 days and registered in population registers as required by law.	Ministry of Justice.
Luxembourg	<i>Coverage:</i> Stock of foreign citizens recorded in population register. Does not include visitors (less than three months) and cross-border workers. <i>Reference date:</i> 31 December. <i>Other comments:</i> 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, Central Office of Statistics and Economic Studies (Statec).
Netherlands	<i>Coverage:</i> Stock of foreign citizens recorded in the population register. Figures include administrative corrections and asylum seekers (except those staying in reception centres). <i>Reference date:</i> 31 December. <i>Other comments:</i> The fall in stocks between 1994 and 1995 is due to a revision of estimates.	Population register, Central Bureau of Statistics (CBS).
Norway	<i>Coverage:</i> Stock of foreign citizens recorded in population register. From 1987 on, data include asylum seekers waiting decisions on their application for refugee status. <i>Reference date:</i> 31 December.	CPR, Statistics Norway.
Poland	Estimates made on the basis of the number of permanent residents who renewed their permit as stipulated by the 1997 Alien law. <i>Reference date:</i> 31 December.	Ministry of the Interior.
Portugal	<i>Coverage:</i> Holders of a valid residence permit. Data take into account the 1992-93 and 1996 regularisation programmes. In 1996, data include 21 800 permits delivered following the 1996 regularisation programme. Data for 2001 are preliminary and do not include 126 901 permanent permits delivered following the 2001 regularisation programme.	Ministry of the Interior. National Statistical Office (INE).
Slovak Republic	<i>Coverage:</i> Holders of a long-term or a permanent residence permit.	Register of foreigners, Ministry of the Interior.
Spain	<i>Coverage:</i> Holders of residence permits. Does not include those with temporary permits (less than six months duration) and students. In 1991, 1996, and 2001, data include 108 400, 21 300 and 234 600 permits respectively delivered following the 1991, 1996 and 2001 regularisation programme. <i>Reference date:</i> 31 December. <i>Other comments:</i> The fall in figures between 1988 and 1989 is due to a clean-up of the population register.	Ministry of the Interior.
Sweden	<i>Coverage:</i> Stock of foreign citizens recorded in the population register. <i>Reference date:</i> 31 December.	Population register, Statistics Sweden.
Switzerland	<i>Coverage:</i> Stock of all those with annual or settlement permits. Does not include seasonal or cross-border workers. <i>Reference date:</i> 31 December	Register of foreigners, Federal Office of Immigration, Integration and Emigration.
United Kingdom	<i>Coverage:</i> Foreign residents. Those with unknown nationality from the New Commonwealth are not included (around 10 000 to 15 000 persons). <i>Reference date:</i> 31 December. <i>Other comments:</i> Figures are rounded and not published if less than 10 000.	Labour Force Survey, Home Office.

Notes related to tables A.1.6. and B.1.6. **Acquisition of nationality**

Country	Comments	Source
Australia		Department of Immigration and Multicultural and Indigenous Affairs.
Austria		Central Office of Statistics.
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.
Czech Republic		Ministry of the Interior.
Denmark		Statistics Denmark.
Finland	Includes naturalisations of persons of Finnish origin.	Statistics Finland.
France	Data by nationality exclude minors who were automatically naturalised on reaching adulthood under legislation existing prior to 1 January 1994 and minors acquiring French nationality under new legislation (July 1993) requiring minors to state their intention to become French citizens.	Ministry of Social Affairs, Labour and Solidarity.
Germany	Includes naturalisations of persons of German origin until 1999.	Federal Office of Statistics.
Hungary	Including ethnic Hungarians mainly from former Yugoslavia and Ukraine. Data for 2001 are preliminary.	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	Data do not include the acquisition of nationality through marriage and adoption.	National Statistical Office (INE).
Spain	Excludes individuals recovering their former (Spanish) nationality.	Ministry of Justice and Ministry of the Interior.
Sweden		Statistics Sweden.
Switzerland		Federal Office of Immigration, Integration and Emigration.
United Kingdom	Data for 2002 are preliminary.	Home Office.
United States	Data refer to fiscal years (October to September of the year indicated).	US Department of Justice.

Notes related to table A.2.1. **Inflows of foreign workers**

Country	Types of workers covered in the data	Source
Australia	<p>A. Permanent settlers</p> <p>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</p> <p>Skilled temporary resident programme (including accompanying dependents). Including Long Stay Temporary Business Programme from 1996/1997 on. <i>Period of reference:</i> Fiscal years (July to June of the given year).</p>	Department of Immigration and Multicultural and Indigenous Affairs.
Austria	Data for all years cover initial work permits for both direct inflows from abroad and for first participation in the Austrian labour market of foreigners already present in the country. Seasonal workers are included. From 1994 on, only non-EU citizens need a work permit; this accounts for the drop in the estimate.	Ministry of Labour, Health and Social Affairs.
Belgium	Work permits issued to first-time immigrants in wage and salary employment. Citizens of European Union (EU) Member states are not included, except for those of Greece until 1987, and of Spain and Portugal until 1992.	Ministry of Employment and Labour.
Canada	Persons issued employment authorisations to work temporarily in Canada (excluding people granted a permit on humanitarian grounds, foreign students and their spouses). From 1997 on, persons are shown in the year in which they received their first temporary permit except for seasonal workers who are counted each time they enter the country. Figures prior to 1994 are not comparable because of multiple entries by the same person.	Citizenship and Immigration Canada.
Denmark	Residence permits issued for employment. Nordic and EU citizens are not included.	Statistics Denmark.
Finland	Work and residence permits for foreign workers entering Finland are granted from abroad through Finnish Embassies and Consulates.	Ministry of Foreign Affairs.
France	<p>1. Permanent workers</p> <p>"Permanents" are foreign workers subject to control by the Office des migrations internationales (OMI). Until 1998, EEA citizens were included in the OMI figures through the "déclarations d'employeurs". Some of them employed for short durations may not be included. From 1999 on, estimates of EEA workers are made by the Ministry of the Interior (ADGREF data) by means of residence permits.</p> <p>Resident family members of workers who enter the labour market for the first time and the self-employed are not included.</p> <p>2. Provisional work permits (APT)</p> <p>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 (OMI) and Ministry of the Interior (ADGREF).
Germany	<p>New work permits issued. Data include essentially newly entered foreign workers, contract workers and seasonal workers.</p> <p>Citizens of EU Member states are not included, except those of Greece until 1987, and of Spain and Portugal until 1992.</p> <p>Data refer to western Germany up to 1990, to Germany as a whole from 1991 on.</p>	Federal Labour Office.
Hungary	Grants of work permits (including renewals).	Ministry of Labour.

Notes related to table A.2.1. **Inflows of foreign workers** (cont.)

Country	Types of workers covered 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 National Institute of Statistics (ISTAT).
Japan	Residents with restricted permission to work. Excluding temporary visitors and re-entries. Including renewals of permits.	Ministry of Justice.
Luxembourg	Data cover both arrivals of foreign workers and residents admitted for the first time to the labour market.	Social Security Inspection Bureau.
New Zealand	Permanent settlers refer to principal applicants 16 and over in the business and skill streams. Temporary workers refer to work applications approved for persons entering New Zealand for the purpose of employment.	Statistics New Zealand
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 the self-employed). From 1997 on, data also include permanent permits. Since 1992, EU citizens do not need a work permit. For 2001, data refer to January to June.	Ministry of Labour and Social Security.
Switzerland	Data cover foreigners who enter Switzerland to work and who obtain an annual residence permit, whether the permit is renewable or not (<i>e.g.</i> trainees). The data also include holders of a settlement permit returning to Switzerland after a short stay abroad. Issues of an annual permit to persons holding a seasonal one are not included.	Federal Office of Immigration, Integration and Emigration.
United Kingdom	Grants of work permits. The new data-recording system no longer allows identification of trainees. The new series consists of work permit applications approved. Long-term is 12 months or more and short-term is less than 12 months. Data exclude EU nationals up to 1993, and EEA nationals since 1994. Including extensions and changes of employment.	Home Office. Office for National Statistics.
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**

Country	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 Multicultural and Indigenous 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 (OMI).
Germany	Workers recruited under bilateral agreements. From 1991 on, data cover Germany as a whole.	Federal Labour Office.
Italy	Agricultural seasonal workers entering Italy with a work authorisation.	Ministry of Labour.
Norway	Non-renewable work permits granted. Issued for 3 months, mostly to Polish nationals.	Statistics Norway.
Switzerland		Federal Office of Immigration, Integration and Emigration.
United Kingdom	Seasonal workers under the special Seasonal Agricultural Workers Scheme. Including readmissions.	Home Office.
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**

Country	Comments	Source
Foreign labour		
Austria	Annual average. The unemployed are included and the self-employed are excluded. Data on employment by nationality are from valid work permits. Figures may be overestimated as a result of persons holding more than one permit. From 1994 on, data on employment are from Social Security records and include EEA nationals.	Ministry of Labour, Health and Social Affairs.
Belgium	Data are estimates on the basis of MET (for salaried workers), INASTI (for the unemployed) and ONEM data (for the self-employed). The breakdown of the self-employed by nationality is estimated on the basis of the breakdown of total persons working on their own and of family workers by nationality. <i>Reference date:</i> 30 June.	Ministry of Employment and Labour (MET), National Office of Employment (ONEM), National Institute for the Social Security of the Self-employed (INASTI).
Czech Republic	Holders of a work permit and registered Slovak workers. Excluding holders of a trade licence. <i>Reference date:</i> 31 December.	Research Institute for Labour and Social Affairs.
Denmark	Data are from population registers. <i>Reference date:</i> 30 November until 1991; 31 December from 1992 on.	Statistics Denmark.
Finland	Foreign labour force recorded in the population register. Includes foreign persons of Finnish origin. <i>Reference date:</i> 31 December.	Statistics Finland.
France	Labour Force Survey. <i>Reference date:</i> March of each year.	National Institute for Statistics and Economic Studies (INSEE).
Germany	Microcensus. Data include the unemployed and the self-employed. <i>Reference date:</i> April.	Federal Office of Statistics.
Hungary	Number of valid work permits. <i>Reference date:</i> 31 December.	Ministry of Labour.
Ireland	Estimates are from the Labour Force Survey.	Central Statistical Office.
Italy	Figures refer to the number of foreigners with a valid work permit (including the self-employed). Data exclude the unemployed. EU citizens do not need a work permit.	National Institute of Statistics (ISTAT).
Japan	Foreigners whose activity is restricted according to the Immigration Act (revised in 1990). Permanent residents, spouses or children of Japanese national, spouses or children of permanent residents and long-term residents have no restrictions imposed on the kind of activities they can engage in while in Japan and are excluded from the data.	Ministry of Justice, Immigration Bureau.
Korea	Data are based on registered foreign workers, which excludes short-term (under 90 days) workers. Trainees are included.	Ministry of Justice.

Notes related to tables A.2.3., B.2.1. and B.2.2. **Foreign and foreign-born labour** (cont.)

Country	Comments	Source
Foreign labour		
Luxembourg	Number of work permits. Data cover foreigners in employment, including apprentices, trainees and cross-border workers. The unemployed are not included. <i>Reference date:</i> 1 October.	Social Security Inspection Bureau.
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. <i>Reference date:</i> 31 March.	Central Bureau of Statistics.
Norway	Data are from population registers. Excluding the unemployed and the self-employed. <i>Reference date:</i> second quarter of each year (except in 1995, 1996, 1999 and 2000: 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. Data for 1999, 2000 and 2001 are estimates. Data for 2001 do not include people with permanence permits. <i>Reference date:</i> 31 December.	Ministry of the Interior and National Statistical Office.
Slovak Rep.	Foreigners who hold a valid work permit. Czech workers do not need a work permit but they are registered through the Labour Offices.	National Labour Office.
Spain	Number of valid work permits. From 1992 on, EU workers are not included. From 1991 to 1993, the data include work permits delivered following the 1991 regularisation programme. In 1996, the data include work permits delivered following the 1996 regularisation programme. <i>Reference date:</i> 31 December. From 2000 on, data relate to the number of foreigners who are registered in the Social Security system. A worker may be registered several times if he/she has several activities. Regularised workers are included in 2000 and 2001. Data are therefore not comparable with data for previous years.	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. <i>Reference date:</i> 31 December (resident workers); 31 August (seasonal workers).	Federal Office of Immigration, Integration and Emigration.
United Kingdom	Estimates are from the Labour Force Survey. The unemployed are not included.	Home Office.
Foreign-born labour		
Australia	Labour force aged 15 and over. <i>Reference date:</i> August.	Labour Force Survey (ABS).
Canada	Labour force aged 15 and over.	1991 and 1996 Censuses.
United States	<i>Coverage:</i> 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 from the Current Population Survey are not sufficiently reliable for all countries and are therefore not shown in Table B.2.1. Only the total stock of the 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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