Chapter 1

Recent developments in international migration movements and policies

This chapter provides an overview of recent developments in international migration movements in OECD countries. It begins with a description of the uptick in migration flows in 2014, based on preliminary and partial data. This is followed by a more detailed analysis of the trends in permanent migration from the start of the financial crisis through 2013, by country and by main category of migration – migration for work, family or humanitarian purposes, and migration within free movement areas. Temporary migration is then covered, with brief highlights on seasonal workers and intra-company transferees, and a focus on posting of workers within the European Economic Area (EEA). Close attention is then devoted to the spike in the number of asylum seekers, before turning to the international mobility of students. The chapter continues with a brief description of the composition of migration flows by gender and by country of origin, then turns to the evolution of the foreign-born population, the changing trends in net migration and the acquisition of nationality across OECD countries. A detailed policy section follows, describing the major recent developments in policies that regulate the entry and stay of foreign nationals in OECD countries. Large-scale revisions in migration frameworks are reviewed. Policy changes for different categories of migrants are examined (skilled and less skilled workers; investors and entrepreneurs; international students; family migrants and humanitarian migrants). The developments in management systems for permits and for asylum procedures are discussed, followed by enforcement measures and those to encourage return.

The statistical data for Israel are supplied by and under the responsibility of the relevant Israeli authorities. The use of such data by the OECD is without prejudice to the status of the Golan Heights, East Jerusalem and Israeli settlements in the West Bank under the terms of international law.

Introduction

The overall GDP growth for the OECD area in 2014 is estimated at 1.8% against 1.4% in 2013 and 1.3% in 2012. Almost all OECD countries showed positive GDP growth rates in 2014, with very limited decline in the only three countries still reporting negative figures (Italy, down 0.4%, and Finland and Japan, both down 0.1%). The labour market situation did not improve in all OECD countries in 2014 but, at the end of the year, the overall harmonised unemployment rate in the OECD area had fallen to approximately 7%, its average level since data recording began in 1991.

This slightly improved economic climate, combined with factors such as demographic developments and geopolitical crises, created an environment conducive to resumption of international migration movements, as will be seen.

This chapter proposes a glance on these most recent trends, and then gives a global view of international migration flows and policies. It covers total permanent movements into OECD countries, entries by category, temporary labour migration, asylum movements, international students and movements by gender and country of origin. The chapter then gives an overview on foreign-born populations, net migration and acquisition of citizenship, from 2000 onwards. The second part of this chapter is a detailed policy section, which goes through major recent developments in policies that regulate the entry and stay of foreign nationals in OECD countries. Large-scale revisions in migration frameworks are reviewed, as well as specific policy changes affecting particular categories of migrant, and revisions of asylum procedures and enforcement measures.

Main findings

- Preliminary data suggest that permanent migration flows to the OECD increased sharply in 2014 for the first time since 2007 and is back to its pre-crisis level with 4.3 million permanent entries to the OECD.
- Germany consolidates its position as one of the main immigration countries, second only to the United States. Significant increases in inflows are recorded for example in the Czech Republic, Israel, Ireland and the United Kingdom. In contrast, the largest decreases are observed in Slovenia, Italy or Australia.
- In 2013, the European Union has received as many permanent migrants from outside the EU as the United States did from all countries, and for the first time Korea received more immigrants than Japan.
- Family reunification migration accounted for over one-third of all permanent migration to OECD countries in 2013 (-1% compared to 2012) and free movement for 30% (+4%).
- Inflows of temporary migrant workers are also increasing but with large variation across categories: intra-company transferees (+6% in 2013 compared to 2012), working holidaymakers (+12% for Australia, Canada, New Zealand, the United Kingdom and

the United States), seasonal workers in agriculture and hospitality (-0.4%, excluding intra-EU movements).

- In 2013, one in ten new immigrants to the OECD is Chinese and 4.4% are from India. Romania and Poland rank second and third with respectively 5.5% and 5.3% of overall inflows to OECD countries.
- In 2012, there were 3.4 million foreign students in the OECD, +3% compared with the previous year. They accounted for an average of 8% of the OECD tertiary-level student population. Most international students in higher education in the OECD originate from Asia – 22% from China, 6% from India, and 4% from Korea.
- Applications for asylum in the OECD area have increased steadily since 2010, reaching a 20-year peak in 2014 at over 800 000, the second highest year in the last 35 years. The number of asylum seekers across the OECD rose by 46% in 2014 over 2013, fuelled partly by the deteriorating security situation in Syria and Libya, notably.
- The total foreign-born population in OECD countries stood at 117 million people in 2013 which corresponds to 35 million and 40% more than in 2000.
- Since 2000, OECD countries have granted nationality to 25 million foreign nationals. In 2013, more than 2 million people acquired the citizenship of an OECD country, up 14% from 2012.
- During the last years, a number of countries have fundamentally revised their migration legislation in response to evolving patterns of migration and to the changing political environment: i) skilled workers are still wanted, but countries are picking them more selectively, ii) investors and entrepreneurs are sought after, but are increasingly scrutinised, iii) some family immigration procedures are being eased but the general trend is still towards restriction, iv) new measures have been adopted in response to the humanitarian crisis in the Mediterranean region and v) actions to strengthen border controls, encourage voluntary returns and fight against illegal employment of foreign workers have been implemented.

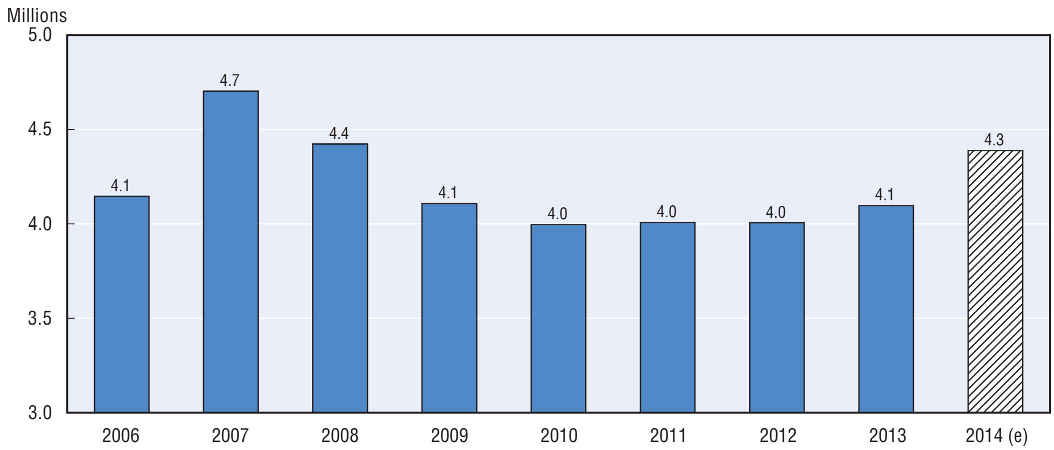
Recent trends in international migration

Preliminary trends 2014

With more favourable global economic conditions than in previous years, partial data for 2014 point to a sharp increase in permanent migration in the OECD area. Roughly 4.3 million people immigrated to OECD countries (Figure 1.1), compared with 4.1 million the year before – a 6% year-on-year rise. The level reached was in fact higher than in the years prior to the 2007/08 global economic crisis.

Preliminary figures, based on non-standardised statistics and partial counts, show not only that flows increased in most OECD countries in 2014, but that in more than half they outstripped their 2007 levels. The United States was the prime destination, accounting for one million new permanent residents, a 1% increase compared to 2013 (Table 1.A1.1). Germany, which confirms its second place with yet another double-digit increase, contributed to much of the overall increase in flows to the OECD in 2014. The United Kingdom, too, saw a rise in numbers of new migrants from EU and non-EU countries, and partial data for Spain suggest a robust resumption of immigration. There were also moderate increases in Canada, of 5%, and in France, where flows of third-country nationals climbed 3%.

Figure 1.1. **Permanent migration flows to OECD countries, 2006-14**



Note: Data for 2006 to 2013 is the sum of standardised figures for countries where they are available (accounting for 95% of the total of flows to OECD countries), and non-standardised figures for other countries. 2014 data are estimated based on growth rates published in official national statistics.
Source: OECD calculations based on national statistics.

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A number of relatively smaller countries also contributed noticeably to the overall rise in flows. Korea, for example, with the lowest unemployment rate in the OECD and the second strongest economic growth – both around 3% – saw inflows increase by more than 12%. Austria, Denmark, Ireland, Israel, New Zealand, and Sweden all received between significantly more arrivals in 2014 than in 2013. A double-digit increase is also observed in Iceland.

Only a few countries took in fewer migrants in 2014 than in 2013. Italy, where most migrants come for work purposes, experienced a 9% fall, partly due to its difficult labour market situation. Although inflows to the country have been declining steadily since 2007, Italy remains among the OECD's main destinations.

With a 6% drop, Australia was another major immigration destination that welcomed less new migrants in 2014 than in 2013. In Switzerland, too, there was a slight fall – of 2% – for the first time in ten years, while the make-up of inflows by country of origin changed significantly. Arrivals from EU15 countries, Romania, and Bulgaria dropped by 9% while those from other EU member countries and third countries altogether increased by 13%.

Trends in migration flows by country and by category

Comprehensive data for standardised permanent migration by country of destination and migration category are available for 2013. In 2013, the United States welcomed a little less than one million new permanent migrants (Table 1.1). Altogether, the OECD countries which are also EU members received a similar number of third-country nationals. Germany was the second main OECD destination country, with 468 000 arrivals of permanent migrants, a figure twice higher than the average level at the end of the 2000s. In Southern European countries like Spain, Italy, Portugal and Greece, new migrants are approximately twice fewer than in 2008, which is also the case in Ireland. All those countries had been particularly hard hit by the 2008 Great Recession. It can also be noted that, for the first time since these data exist, new permanent arrivals in Korea outnumbered those in Japan. Migration flows to Chile have also increased rapidly in 2012 and 2013, to reach 132 000.

Table 1.1. **Inflows of permanent immigrants into selected OECD countries, 2007-13**

	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	Variation (%)		
								2013/12	2012/11	2013/07
Standardised statistics										
United States	1 052 400	1 107 100	1 130 200	1 041 900	1 061 400	1 031 000	989 900	-4	-3	-6
Germany	232 900	228 300	201 500	222 500	290 800	400 200	468 800	17	38	101
United Kingdom	343 300	317 300	359 200	394 800	322 600	286 100	291 000	2	-11	-15
France	206 500	214 400	212 100	224 300	231 500	251 200	259 800	3	9	26
Canada	236 800	247 200	252 200	280 700	248 700	257 900	258 600	0	4	9
Australia	191 900	205 900	221 000	208 500	219 500	245 100	253 500	3	12	32
Italy	571 900	490 400	390 300	355 700	317 300	258 400	245 800	-5	-19	-57
Spain	691 900	409 600	334 100	300 000	291 000	209 800	195 300	-7	-28	-72
Switzerland	122 200	139 100	114 800	115 000	124 300	125 600	136 200	8	1	11
Netherlands	80 600	90 600	89 500	95 600	105 600 |	96 800	105 500	9	-8	31
Sweden	74 400	71 000	71 500	65 600	71 800	81 700	86 700	6	14	17
Korea	44 200	39 000	36 700	51 100	56 900	55 600	66 700	20	-2	51
Austria	47 100	49 500	45 700	45 900	58 400 |	67 100	65 000	-3	15	38
Norway	43 900	49 300	48 900	56 800	61 600	59 900	60 300	1	-3	37
Belgium	50 300	51 200	64 200	64 100	64 300	65 700	60 300	-8	2	20
Japan	108 500	97 700	65 500	55 700	59 100	66 400	57 300	-14	12	-47
Mexico	6 800	15 100	23 900	26 400	21 700	21 000 |	54 400	..	-3	..
Denmark	30 300	45 600	38 400	42 400	41 300	43 800	52 400	20	6	73
New Zealand	51 700	51 200	47 500	48 500	44 500	42 700	44 400	4	-4	-14
Ireland	120 400	89 700	50 700	23 900	33 700	32 100	40 200	25	-5	-67
Czech Republic	100 600	76 200	38 200	28 000	20 700	28 600	27 800	-3	38	-72
Portugal	42 800	71 000	57 300	43 800	36 900	30 700	27 000	-12	-17	-37
Finland	17 500	19 900	18 100	18 200	20 400	23 300	23 900	3	14	37
Total number of persons										
All countries	**4 468 900**	**4 176 300**	**3 911 500**	**3 809 400**	**3 804 000**	**3 773 900**	**3 864 100**	2	-1	-14
Settlement countries	1 532 800	1 611 400	1 650 900	1 579 600	1 574 100	1 576 700	1 546 400	-2	0	1
EU included above	2 610 500	2 224 700	1 970 800	1 924 800	1 906 300	1 875 500	1 949 500	4	-2	-25
Of which: free movements	1 215 700	900 000	734 900	739 300	831 700	926 200	968 400	5	11	-20
Annual percent change										
All countries		**-7**	**-6**	**-3**	**-0.1**	**-0.6**	**1.6**			
Settlement countries		5	2	-4	-0.3	0.2	-2			
EU included above		-15	-11	-2	-1	-2	4			
Of which: free movements		-26	-18	1	12	11	5			
National statistics (unstandardised)										
Chile	79 400	68 400	57 100	63 900	76 300	105 100	132 100	26	38	66
Poland	40 600	41 800	41 300	41 100	41 300	47 100	46 600	-1	14	15
Hungary	22 600	35 500	25 600	23 900	22 500	20 300	21 300	5	-10	-6
Luxembourg	15 800	16 800	14 600	15 800	19 100	19 400	19 800	2	2	25
Greece	46 300	42 900	46 500	33 400	23 200	17 700	..	..	-24	..
Slovenia	30 500	43 800	24 100	11 200	18 000	17 300	21 700	25	-4	-29
Israel	18 100	13 700	14 600	16 600	16 900	16 600	16 900	2	-2	-7
Slovak Republic	14 800	16 500	14 400	12 700	8 200 |	2 900	2 500	-14	..	..
Iceland	9 300	7 500	3 400	3 000	2 800	2 800	3 900	39	0	-58
Estonia	2 000	1 900	2 200	1 200	1 700	1 100	1 600	45	-35	-20
Turkey	..	..	..	29 900	..	..	..	..	..	..
Total (except Greece, Turkey)	**233 100**	**245 900**	**197 400**	**189 500**	**206 800**	**232 600**	**266 400**			
Percent change	**23**	**5**	**-20**	**-4**	**9**	**12**	**15**			

Notes: Includes only foreign nationals; the inflows include status changes, namely persons in the country on a temporary status who obtained the right to stay on a longer-term basis. Breaks in series are indicated with a "|". Series for some countries have been significantly revised compared with previous editions, notably for France.

Source: *OECD International Migration Database.*

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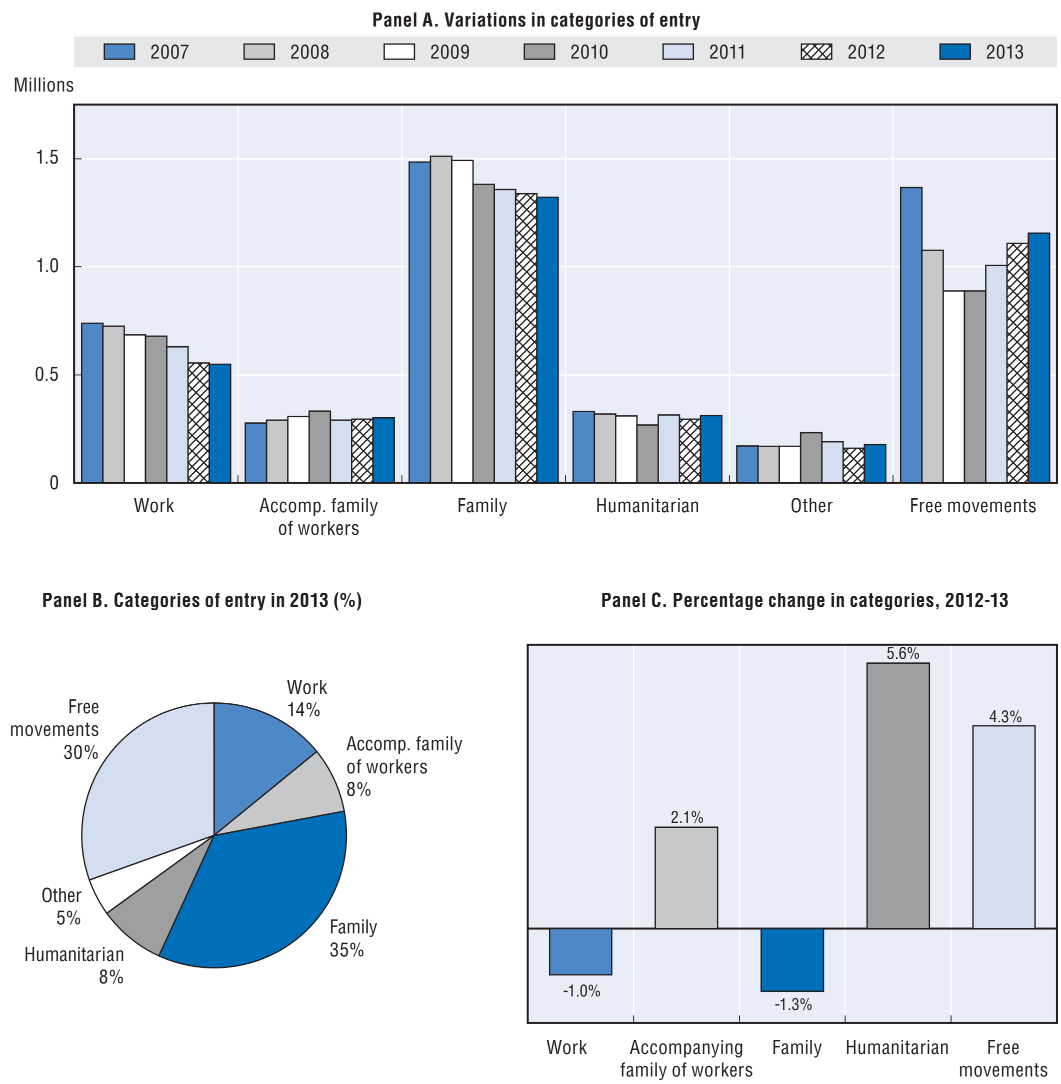
Permanent labour migration to OECD countries has been falling steadily since the 2008 crisis (Figure 1.2, Panel A), although the decline in 2013 was marginal (-1%). The fall in the United Kingdom (20% less) and Spain (16% less) represented a loss which was not counterbalanced by larger inflows of workers to other OECD countries. Italy contributed to somewhat offset the fall in labour migration observed in other countries when work permits, granted as part of the 2012 migrant regularisation programme, were eventually issued after a long delay. Other notable variations in labour migration flows include increases of 15% in the United States and 34% in Denmark, and a 5% fall in Canada. Outside the European Economic Area (EEA), and despite widely varying trends from one country to another, permanent labour migration has remained stable overall, as have numbers of family members accompanying migrant workers.

Figure 1.2. **Permanent migration flows to OECD countries by category of entry, 2007-13**



Note: Sum of standardised figures for countries where they are available (accounting for 95% of the total of flows to OECD countries). Data include changes of status from a temporary to a permanent status.
Source: *OECD International migration Database.*

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As in previous years, international migration within the EU was at the same level as immigration from third countries. Flows in free movement areas across OECD countries[1] totalled 1.15 million people, up 4% compared to 2012. Germany alone drove that rise, while variations in flows to other countries cancelled each other out. The main drops were recorded in Italy (-26%) and Spain (-9%) and were counterbalanced by increases in the United Kingdom (+25%) and Switzerland (+9%).

Family migration accounted for over one-third of all permanent migration to OECD countries in 2013 (Figure 1.2, Panel B), even though it has been declining consistently for several years – it fell a further 1% in 2013 (Figure 1.2, Panel C). Nevertheless, it is still the largest single category of migration, although free-movement migration has been gradually closing in on it since 2009 and is now close to its 2007 level. The drop in family-related migration is due chiefly to falls in the United States and the United Kingdom. Only Canada, with 15 000 more arrivals, France with +7 000, and Denmark with +2 000 received significantly higher numbers of family migrants in 2013 than in 2012.

In 2013, OECD countries granted permanent residence rights to more than 300 000 humanitarian migrants – the migrant group which, at 6%, showed the highest overall increase. Many OECD countries accepted more humanitarian migrants in 2013 than in 2012. A number of them experienced 50% rises – Denmark, Germany, the Netherlands or Sweden. Humanitarian migration still accounts for more than 12% of total migration to the United States, although it declined by 20% in 2013. This decline (-30 000 persons) partly offset the increases recorded in many other countries. While the impact of the conflict in Syria and Iraq was felt in a number of countries, humanitarian migration still represents only 8.2% of total flows to the OECD, against 7.8% in 2012.

When migration flows are measured as a ratio of total populations, OECD countries received on average six permanent migrants for every thousand inhabitants in 2013 (Figure 1.3 and Annex 1.A1). The figure in some large countries – such as Mexico and Japan – remained low at less than 1 per 1 000. In many European and settlement countries,[2] though, it was above the 6 per 1 000 average. Switzerland, a major host country for free movement immigration, stood out with almost 17 entries per 1 000 inhabitants, followed by Norway with 12 per 1 000.

More than 75% of migrants to Switzerland, Austria, and Germany arrived from the EEA as free-movement migrants. Not counting those arrivals, EU-OECD countries received 2.4 permanent migrants per 1 000 inhabitants, down from 2.9 in 2011. At the same time, the ratio in the United States fell from 3.4 to 3.2 per 1 000.

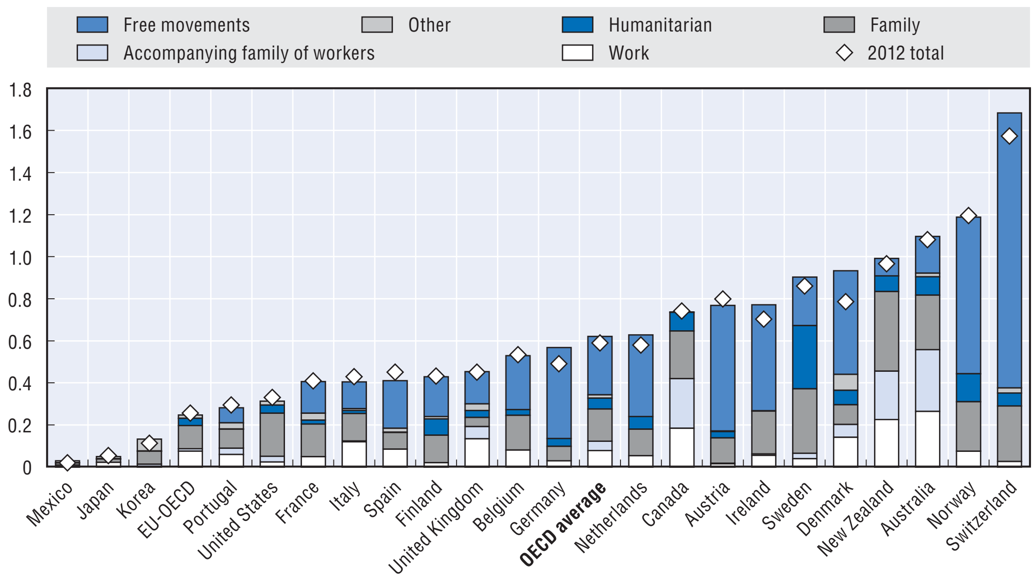
Temporary labour migration flows

Temporary labour migration comes in addition to permanent immigration and is also an important phenomenon. Not only are flows large, but temporary migrants bring with them some critical skills. It makes a valuable contribution because it ebbs and flows with fluctuations in the market and short-term demands for high and low skills, so allowing host country labour markets to adjust to shifting economic conditions. Although temporary migration is not – initially, at least – a stepping-stone to long-term residence, it is closely tied to permanent migration (considered in the previous section). And a sizeable share of temporary migrants do manage to change status and stay on as long-term residents.

Temporary migrant workers are a mixed group – both of categories and skills. They include, for example, highly skilled engineers and information technology consultants on

Figure 1.3. **Permanent migration flows by category of entry to selected OECD countries, 2013**

Percentage of the total population



Note: Data include changes of status from a temporary to a permanent status. Data for Mexico are estimated to take into account a backlog effect.

Source: OECD International migration Database.

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assignment, together with intra-company transferees (ICT), working holidaymakers, au pairs and seasonal workers in agriculture and hospitality.

Some host countries may regard less skilled migrants as temporary. Others may include them at least in part among permanent categories. Intra-company employees, for example, may be viewed both ways. It is, in fact, difficult to determine what constitutes temporary migrant flows at the international level and statistics still fall short. Cross-border service providers, for example, move from country to country but are not clearly identified as migrants. And then there are short-term assignments where migrants may slip under the radar.

This section looks at statistics that relate to four important groups of temporary migrants that exert an effect on the labour market: seasonal workers, posted workers, working holidaymakers and trainees.

Seasonal workers

Seasonal workers are generally employed as unskilled labourers in agriculture. Their numbers were stable overall in 2012 and 2013 in the 13 main OECD host countries despite large variations across host-countries (Table 1.2). For example, the numbers increase by roughly 3% in New Zealand and North America (peaking at 14% in the United States) and fall in the EU. However, European countries actually recruit seasonal workers in neighbouring countries, and since the free movement of labour has gradually widened to the new member countries, intra-EU seasonal migrants do not require work permits any longer (with the occasional exception, still, of Romanian, Bulgarian or Croatian nationals). The epitome of that intra-EU flow of labour is Germany, where the bulk of seasonal workers are from Poland and Romania.

Table 1.2. **Seasonal workers who require a work permit in the main OECD host countries, 2007-13**

	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2013/2012 Change (%)
	Thousands							
Seasonal workers to main non-EU OECD receiving countries								
United States	51	64	60	56	55	65	74	14
Canada	23	28	23	24	25	25	28	8
Mexico	28	23	31	29	28	23	15	-35
New Zealand	7	10	8	8	8	8	8	3
Total (4 countries)	**108**	**126**	**122**	**116**	**115**	**122**	**125**	**3**
Seasonal workers within the EU (excluding workers benefiting from free mobility)								
United Kingdom	17	16	20	20	20	21	21	0
Austria	12	12	12	10	18	13	15	14
Finland	14	12	13	12	12	14	14	0
Belgium	17	20	5	6	6	10	11	5
Italy	65	42	35	28	15	10	8	-22
France	19	12	7	6	6	6	6	-5
Sweden	2	4	7	5	4	6	6	4
Spain	16	42	6	9	5	4	3	-17
Germany	300	285	295	297	168	4	..	..
Total (9 countries)	**461**	**445**	**399**	**392**	**253**	**87**	**83**	**-5**
Total	**568**	**571**	**521**	**508**	**368**	**210**	**209**	**0**

Note: Data do not relate to the actual number of entries, but to the number of workers who require a work permit and were granted one. Permits are generally granted during the year for a duration of less than one year (usually six to nine months).

Free access to the labour market has been progressively given to citizens of new EU countries and therefore these series do not cover the same set of origin countries. For example, in the United Kingdom, the SAWS programme is restricted to Bulgarians and Romanians since 2008.

In Germany, most seasonal workers are recruited from Poland and therefore are not registered any more in the data since 2012.

Source: OECD International Migration Database.

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Posted workers and intra-company transferees

Service providers are employees or self-employed workers who cross borders to supply services for a set length of time to private individuals, firms, or governments. Unlike classic labour migrants, when they are employed, they are recruited by a company located in their origin country and not in the country where they provide their services. When self-employed, their company is generally not located in the country where services are provided. Employers and employees are generally affiliated to the social security system where the company is located. This category includes notably posted workers and intra-company transferees (ICT).

Although service providers' jobs are often temporary, intra-company transfers may be long-term postings to manage operations or take up administrative duties in the subsidiary of an international company. In such cases, the transferee usually becomes an employee of the subsidiary in the host country. So, although the company back in the country of origin is not, strictly speaking, supplying a service, work and residence permit systems do not always distinguish between posted employees and transferees. Both are granted the same kind of permit.

ICTs have increased by 25% since 2007 and grew 6% between 2012 and 2013 alone. That constant upward trend reflects the ongoing need for talented workers. The United States is the chief ICT destination in the OECD area, even though its share of transfers dropped from 62% in 2009 to 52% in 2013 (Table 1.3). The United Kingdom and Canada, by contrast, have seen their shares grow. In 2014, the EU adopted the Intra-Corporate Transfer Directive 2010/0209 to facilitate the temporary transfers of highly skilled third-country nationals from international companies to subsidiaries in the EU. Yet the United Kingdom, even though it is one of the main ICT destination countries, has not opted into the directive.

Table 1.3. **Temporary intra-company transfers (ICT) to the main ICT destination countries in the OECD, 2007-13**

	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2013/2012	2013/2009
	Thousands							Change (%)	
United States	85	84	65	75	71	62	67	7	3
United Kingdom	..	..	13	18	21	23	26	13	95
Canada	9	10	10	14	13	14	14	3	39
Australia	..	7	6	4	8	10	9	-12	48
Germany	5	6	4	6	7	7	8	8	76
Japan	7	7	5	6	5	6	6	2	19
Total (6 countries)	**106**	**114**	**104**	**122**	**126**	**122**	**129**	**6**	**25**

Note: Not including transfers within the European Economic Area (EEA) as they do not require a work permit.
Source: *OECD International Migration Database.*

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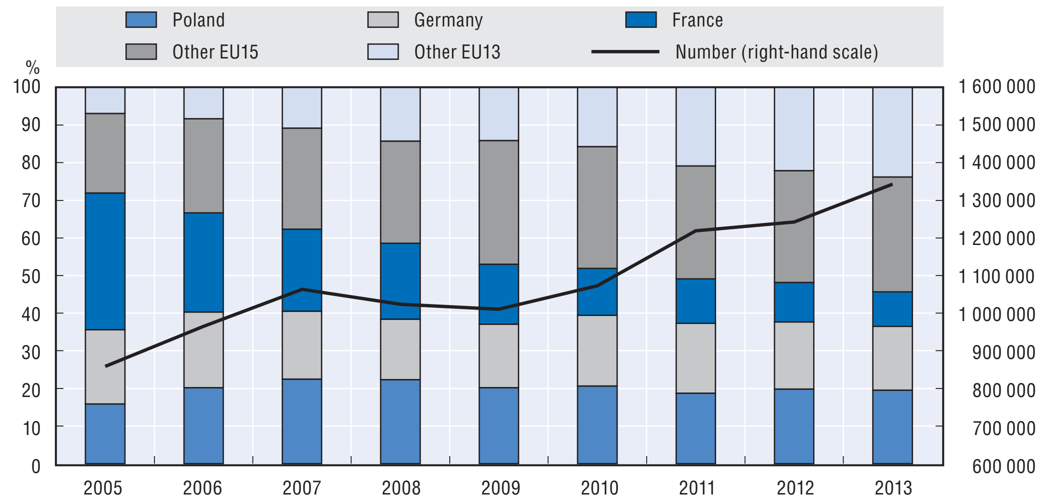
Within the European Economic Area (EEA) area, social security forms PD A1 (formerly E101) are the sole way of counting posted workers. They register the movements of European workers posted temporarily to other European countries and who remain employees of the company in their country of residence. The PD A1 certifies that people working abroad are paying social security contributions in their country of origin. Employers may request them as proof so that they do not end up paying contributions for their employees in the countries to which they have been posted (For further details on the limits of these data presented in Figure 1.4, see OECD [2011]).

The number of E101/PD A1 forms issued rose by 50% between 2005 and 2013. Following a slight dip between 2005 and 2007, the number picked up again and climbed steadily to some 1.35 million in 2013. It is worth noting that some of these forms do correspond to short stays in the receiving country. Over the same period, however, the main sending countries changed significantly with EU enlargement – i.e. new member countries issued a growing share of the certificates. Although the share of posted Polish workers has remained constant at around 20% of PD A1s since 2005, the proportion from the other new EU member countries climbed from less than 7% in 2005 to roughly 25% in 2013. The share of posted French workers, by contrast, dropped from one-third to less than 10%. Nevertheless, after Poland with 263 000 workers and Germany with 227 000, France remains the third largest sending country with 123 600 citizens on postings in Europe.

The net balance between posted workers sent and received is determined by where companies are located (Figure 1.5). Data suggest that the countries which receive more workers than they send belong to the EU15 – Germany followed by Belgium and the Netherlands. In 2013, France became a net receiving country. By contrast, the top five sending countries include four new EU member countries – Poland, Hungary, the Slovak Republic, and Romania. Portugal is the second largest net sender.

Figure 1.4. **E101/PD A1 certificates to posted workers issued by sending country or region, 2005-13**



Note: The trend line includes only countries for which data are available from 2005 on.
Source: European Commission.

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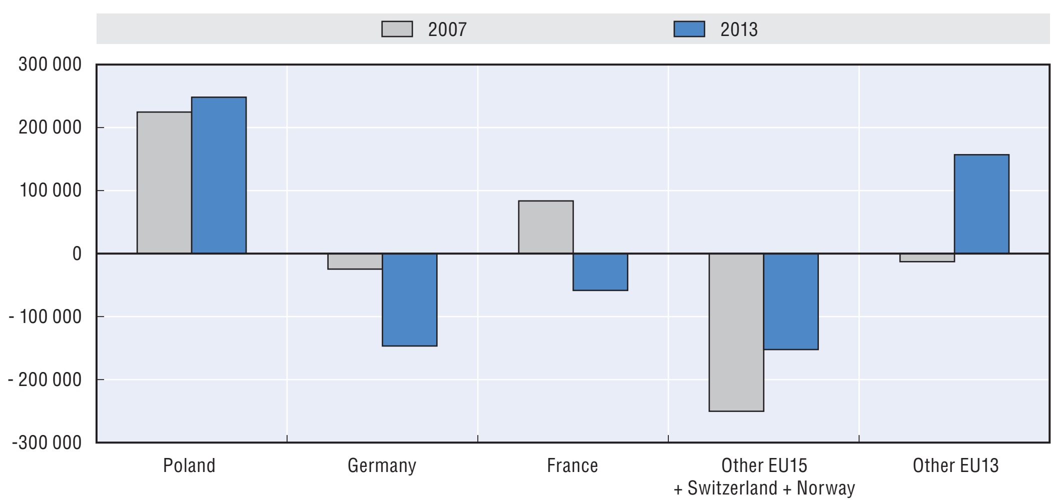
Figure 1.5. **Net balance between posted workers sent and received within the EU, 2007 and 2013**



Source: European Commission.

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Eighteen countries (or 54% of PD A1 certificates) supply data on posted workers by sector. In 2013, for example, roughly 45% of PD A1 certificates were issued for postings in the construction sector and 23% in other fields of industry. Just under one-third were for service sector assignments and less than 2% were in agriculture and fisheries. Some three-quarters of nationals from the new EU member countries are posted to construction and manufacturing industries, while about half of all posted workers from the EU15 countries are employed in the services – primarily banking and insurance, education, and healthcare.

Only eight countries supplied data on the average lengths of postings. Although scant, the data point to wide variations in durations – from less than 40 days per annum for workers posted in France and Belgium to over 150 in Germany, Ireland and Hungary, for example.

Trainees and working holidaymakers

The chief purpose of working holidays – which are widely developed in settlement countries – is to foster cultural exchange and international understanding between young people through temporary employment in a foreign country. In 2013, Australia, the United States, Canada and New Zealand were the destinations of choice for 93% of the 485 000 foreigners who migrated as working holidaymakers (Table 1.4). Australia alone accounted for half of the flow in the OECD area. Numbers of working holidaymakers have grown 13% in the last five years, with the increase as high as 62% in Australia and over 40% in Canada and New Zealand. The United States saw arrivals slump by half between 2008 and 2012,[3] before picking up slightly – by 8% – in 2013.

Table 1.4. **Migration flows of trainees and working holidaymakers, 2008-13**

	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2013/12	2013/08
	Thousands						Change (%)	
Trainees								
OECD (22 countries)	146	113	107	113	112	110	-2	-25
Japan	102	80	78	82	86	84	-2	-18
Korea	14	11	12	13	12	12	2	-8
Germany	5	5	5	5	4	4	-3	-27
Australia	5	5	4	3	4	4	-5	-33
United States	3	2	2	2	3	3	-7	-21
Working holidaymakers								
OECD (22 countries)	430	403	419	414	435	485	11	13
Australia	154	188	176	185	215	249	16	62
United States	153	116	118	98	80	86	8	-43
Canada	41	45	50	55	59	59	0	44
New Zealand	40	41	45	45	51	58	13	43
United Kingdom	34	5	21	21	20	21	6	-39

Note: The table includes all the countries for which standardised data are available (see Table 1.1) with the exception of the Czech Republic.
Source: OECD International Migration Database.

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In 2013, there were 110 000 foreign paid trainees admitted into OECD countries as part of a trend that has been stable since 2009. The highest figures are recorded in Japan and Korea. However, the total figure is underestimated, as a number of countries do not distinguish between paid trainees and students.

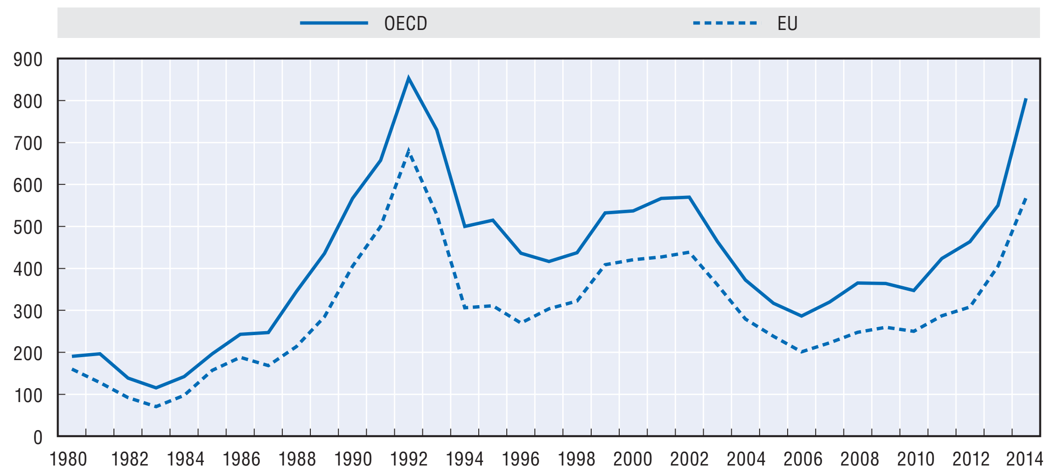
Asylum seekers

Applications for asylum in the OECD area have increased steadily since 2010, reaching a peak in 2014 at over 800 000 (Figure 1.6). In fact, 2014 was the second-highest year in the last 35 – behind 1992, when the conflict in the Former Yugoslavia saw asylum requests swell to extremely high levels.

The number of asylum seekers across the OECD rose by 46% in 2014 over 2013, fuelled partly by the deteriorating security situation in Syria and Libya, notably. Syrian asylum seekers accounted for one-third of the increase. In fact, Syria is by far the country of origin that accounts for the most asylum seekers (Figure 1.7). They submitted some 130 000 applications to OECD countries in 2014, three times as many as in 2013. The situation has deteriorated to such an extent that, in the last quarter of 2014 alone, the industrialised countries took in as many Syrian asylum seekers as in the whole of 2013. Iraq, with nearly

Figure 1.6. **New asylum applications since 1980 in the OECD**

Thousands

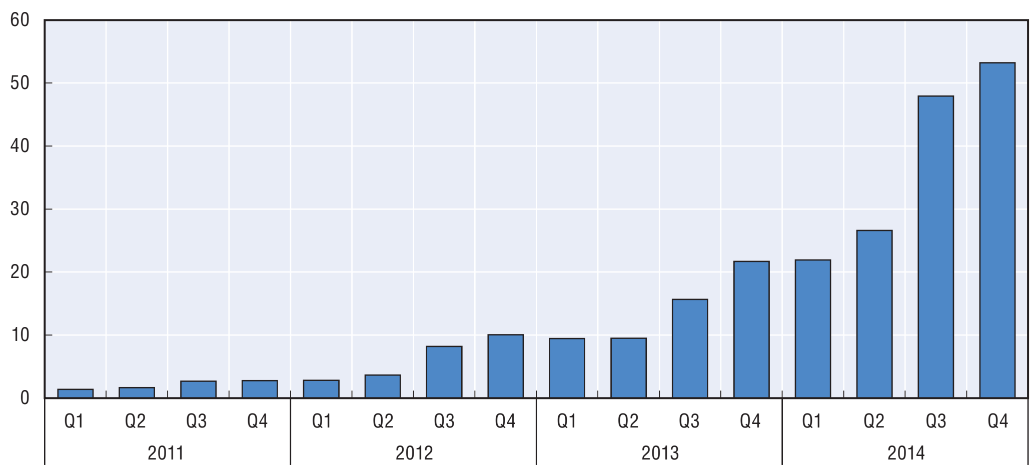


Source: UNHCR.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933260776

Figure 1.7. **New asylum applications from Syrians in 44 industrialised countries, Q1 2011 to Q4 2014**

Thousands



Note: The 44 countries are the 28 member countries of the EU, Albania, Bosnia-Herzegovina, Iceland, Liechtenstein, Montenegro, Norway, Serbia (and Kosovo), Switzerland, the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia (FYROM), Turkey, Australia, Canada, Japan, New Zealand, Korea, and the United States. In total, these countries received 865 000 asylum applications in 2014.
Source: UNHCR.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933260786

65 000 applications for asylum is the country that accounts for the second largest flow. In parallel to those two war-torn countries, the number of people seeking international protection increased throughout the world. In 2014, the number of asylum seekers from Serbia (and Kosovo), Afghanistan, and Eritrea exceeded 40 000 each while applications from Ukrainians jumped from less than 1 500 in 2013 to more than 15 000 in 2014. In contrast, the number of Russians petitioning for asylum fell steeply.

As in 2013, Germany was the country that saw the highest numbers of asylum applications in 2014 – and the greatest increase (up 63 000). It alone accounts for one-fifth of all applications in the OECD (Table 1.5). The number of Russians seeking asylum in

Table 1.5. **Asylum seeker applications by country of destination, 2010-14**

	2010-13 annual average	2013	2014	2013-14 absolute change	% change 2013-14	Asylum seekers per million population (2014)	New permanent humanitarian migrants per million population (2013)	Top three countries of origin of the asylum seekers (2013)
Germany	65 300	109 580	173 070	+63 490	+ 58	2 115	375	Syria, Serbia (and Kosovo), Eritrea
United States	59 480	68 240	97 910	+29 670	+ 43	313	382	Mexico, China, El Salvador
Turkey	24 130	44 810	87 820	+43 010	+ 96	1 180	..	Iraq, Afghanistan, Syria
Sweden	38 440	48 430	75 090	+26 660	+ 55	7 918	3 048	Syria, Eritrea, Stateless
Italy	21 810	25 720	63 660	+37 940	+ 148	1 067	148	Mali, Nigeria, Gambia
France	53 940	60 460	59 030	– 1 430	- 2	923	179	Democratic Republic of the Congo, Russian Federation, Syria
Hungary	6 130	18 570	41 370	+22 800	+ 123	4 188	..	Serbia (and Kosovo), Afghanistan, Syria
United Kingdom	26 430	29 190	31 260	+2 070	+ 7	500	331	Pakistan, Eritrea, Iran
Austria	15 090	17 500	28 060	+10 560	+ 60	3 323	297	Syria, Afghanistan, Serbia (and Kosovo)
Netherlands	12 250	14 400	23 850	+9 450	+ 66	1 421	594	Syria, Eritrea, Stateless
Switzerland	19 590	19 440	22 110	+2 670	+ 14	2 750	630	Eritrea, Syria, Sri Lanka
Denmark	5 630	7 540	14 820	+7 280	+ 97	2 656	697	Syria, Eritrea, Stateless
Belgium	19 700	12 500	13 870	+1 370	+ 11	1 238	267	Syria, Iraq, Eritrea
Canada	19 530	10 380	13 450	+3 070	+ 30	385	886	China, Pakistan, Colombia
Norway	10 090	11 460	12 640	+1 180	+ 10	2 474	1 316	Eritrea, Syria, Somalia
Greece	9 350	8 230	9 450	+1 220	+ 15	854	..	Afghanistan, Pakistan, Syria
Australia	11 820	11 740	8 960	– 2 780	- 24	391	873	China, India, Pakistan
Poland	8 690	13 980	6 810	– 7 170	- 51	177	..	Russian Federation, Ukraine, Georgia
Spain	3 310	4 500	5 900	+1 400	+ 31	126	10	Syria, Ukraine, Mali
Japan	2 220	3 250	5 000	+1 750	+ 54	39	1	Nepal, Turkey, Sri Lanka
Finland	3 260	3 020	3 520	+ 500	+ 17	646	768	Iraq, Somalia, Ukraine
Korea	1 040	1 570	2 900	+1 330	+ 85	58	1	Egypt, Pakistan, China
Ireland	1 350	940	1 440	+ 500	+ 53	313	40	Pakistan, Nigeria, Albania
Mexico	970	1 300	..	..	..		2	Honduras, El Salvador, Cuba
Luxembourg	1 450	990	970	- 20	- 2	1 806	..	Bosnia-Herzegovina, Serbia (and Kosovo), Montenegro
Czech Republic	750	500	920	+ 420	+ 84	87	..	Ukraine, Syria, Viet Nam
Portugal	310	510	440	- 70	- 14	42	5	Ukraine, Pakistan, Morocco
Slovenia	290	240	360	+ 120	+ 50	175	..	Syria, Afghanistan, Pakistan
New Zealand	320	290	290	0	0	64	751	Fidji, Sri Lanka, Pakistan
Chile	250	250	..	..	..	..	..	Colombia, Syria
Slovak Republic	510	280	230	- 50	- 18	42	..	Afghanistan, Syria, Viet Nam
Iceland	100	170	160	- 10	- 6	491		Ukraine, Russian Federation, Albania
Estonia	70	100	150	+ 50	+ 50	114	..	Ukraine, Sudan, Russian Federation
Israel	3 060	..	..	..	..	..	..	Côte d'Ivoire, South Sudan, Eritrea
OECD total	**446 660**	**550 080**	**805 510**	**+255 430**	**+ 46**	**648**	**301**	**Syria, Iraq, Serbia (and Kosovo)**
Selected non-OECD countries								
Bulgaria	2 530	6 980	10 790	+3 810	+ 55	1 481	..	Syria, Afghanistan, Iraq
Romania	1 740	1 500	1 550	+ 50	+ 3	77	..	Syria, Afghanistan, Iraq
Malta	1 570	2 200	1 280	- 920	- 42	3 038	..	Libya, Syria, Somalia
Lithuania	400	280	390	+ 110	+ 39	131	..	Georgia, Afghanistan, Ukraine
Latvia	240	190	360	+ 170	+ 89	178	..	Georgia, Ukraine, Syria

Note: Figures for the United States refer to "affirmative" claims submitted with the Department of Homeland Security (number of cases) and "defensive" claims submitted to the Executive Office for Immigration Review (number of people). The symbol ".." stands for "not available".

Source: UNHCR and *OECD International Migation Database.*

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Germany dropped sharply, with most applications coming from Syria, Serbia (and Kosovo), Eritrea. Behind Germany came the United States, Turkey, Sweden, and Italy. All received 40% more asylum requests than in 2013, while France, which ranked third in 2013, is now sixth and was the only top-ten country not to have experienced a rise in asylum applications. In Turkey, Italy and Hungary, by contrast, they doubled from 2013 to 2014, reaching an unprecedented high. Asylum seekers cover a very wide range of nationalities: in Turkey, they are Iraqi, Afghan, and Syrian; in Hungary, from Serbia (and Kosovo), Syria, and Afghanistan; and Italy from sub-Saharan African countries like Mali, Nigeria, and Gambia.

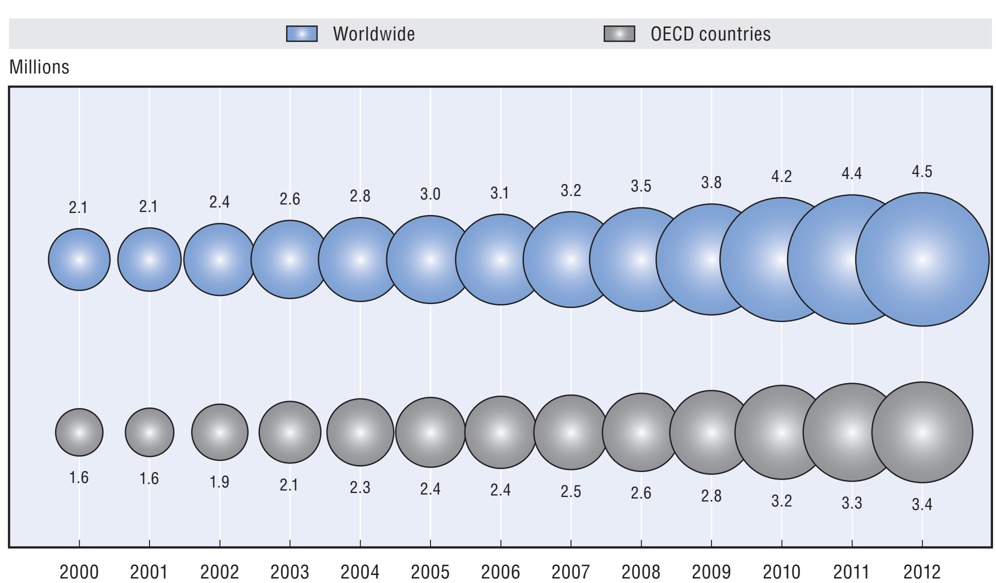
Comparisons of ratios of asylum-seeker entries to host country populations reveal that the OECD registered 650 new applications per million inhabitants in 2014. Sweden received the highest number of applications as a proportion of its population, with 7 900 requests per million people. Hungary and Austria also received over 3 000 asylum seekers for one million inhabitants. Although small countries generally have the highest rates of asylum seeker per capita, Germany was also among the top asylum receiving country with a ratio of 2 100 per million. In contrast, France and the United Kingdom receive less asylum seekers relative to their total population, with 900 and 500 applications per million of inhabitants, respectively.

International students

Unlike the fluctuating flows of temporary labour migrants, the number of students who pursue their tertiary education abroad rises year by year worldwide. In 2012, 4.5 million round the globe studied in countries of which they were not nationals – a number that had more than doubled since 2001 (Figure 1.8). Three-quarters, or 3.4 million, resided in OECD countries which, though still the most attractive to students, were less so than in the mid-2000s when they drew 80% of all foreign students. The rate of increase in

Figure 1.8. **Foreign students worldwide and in OECD countries, 2000-12**

Millions



Note: This figure refers to students of foreign nationality, which is not necessarily the same thing as international students. Students are considered "international" when they leave their country of origin for another country with the intention of studying there. Data on international students are not available until 2008 for most countries.

Source: OECD Education Database, *www.oecd.org/education/database.htm.*

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933260799

the number of foreign students in the OECD area fell from over 8% per annum between 2000 and 2005 to just over 3% between 2011 and 2012. Countries in the rest of the world boast stronger international student growth rates.

Among OECD countries, the United States and United Kingdom alone account for two-thirds of the world's international students. With 740 000 in 2012 – a year-on-year rise of 4% – the United States is by far the most popular country. The United Kingdom boasts 430 000 international students which, given its size, makes it one of the most globally attractive destinations. Next in line come France and Australia where around 250 000 international students were living in 2012 (Table 1.6).

Table 1.6. **Numbers of international tertiary-level students in OECD countries in 2012**

	International/Foreign students				Foreign students			
	Category	2012	Change from 2011 (%)	Share in total tertiary enrolment 2012 (%)	Worldwide Market share in 2012 (%)	Difference with 2000 (% points)	Share of students from OECD countries 2012 (%)	Difference with 2004 (% points)
Australia	International	249 588	-5.0	18.3	5.5	+0.45	12.6	-0.6
Austria	International	58 056	9.5	15.4	1.7	+0.24	72.5	+3.9
Belgium	International	42 926	13.4	9.0	1.2	-0.62	67.6	+7.8
Canada	International	120 960	13.8	8.2	4.9	+0.37	24.1	+0.3
Chile	International	3 461	17.8	0.3	0.3	+0.11	10.1	..
Czech Republic	Foreign	39 455	3.7	9.0	0.9	+0.61	73.1	+9.3
Denmark	International	22 363	10.4	8.1	0.7	+0.10	62.7	+2.1
Estonia	International	1 573	10.0	2.3	0.1	+0.02	37.6	..
Finland	International	15 636	10.7	5.1	0.4	+0.12	27.9	-12.3
France	Foreign	271 399	1.2	11.8	6.0	-0.57	23.3	-0.9
Germany	International	184 594	4.5	..	6.3	-2.61	47.5	+1.0
Greece	Foreign	29 012	-11.6	4.4	0.6	+0.23	6.2	+3.6
Hungary	International	17 520	6.4	4.6	0.4	-0.03	53.7	+5.7
Iceland	International	971	-11.6	5.1	0.0	+0.01	80.3	+10.6
Ireland	International	11 100	-12.6	5.8	0.6	+0.26	52.6	..
Israel	Foreign	4 506	14.2	1.2	0.1	..	86.0	..
Italy	Foreign	77 732	5.8	4.0	1.7	+0.52	20.5	-20.3
Japan	International	136 215	-1.7	3.5	3.3	+0.14	19.7	-3.6
Korea	Foreign	59 472	-5.1	1.8	1.3	+1.15	5.8	-9.9
Luxembourg	International	2 468	10.9	40.6	0.1	+0.04	80.3	..
Mexico	Foreign	..	..	..	0.0	-0.07	..	..
Netherlands	International	57 509	49.9	7.2	1.4	+0.71	71.6	+11.2
New Zealand	International	40 994	0.3	15.8	1.6	+1.22	31.4	+11.1
Norway	International	3 956	16.1	1.7	0.4	-0.01	49.1	-4.3
Poland	International	23 525	13.6	1.2	0.6	+0.28	36.0	+9.1
Portugal	International	18 525	38.7	4.7	0.6	+0.10	32.1	+12.3
Slovak Republic	International	9 059	3.6	4.1	0.2	+0.13	84.7	+30.8
Slovenia	International	2 357	19.3	2.3	0.1	+0.04	14.9	..
Spain	International	55 759	-11.0	2.8	2.2	+0.21	34.7	-2.8
Sweden	International	28 629	-21.6	6.3	0.9	-0.29	43.2	-30.3
Switzerland	International	44 468	6.4	16.5	1.4	+0.17	70.9	-2.8
Turkey	Foreign	38 590	24.0	0.9	0.9	+0.01	14.5	-0.8
United Kingdom	International	427 686	1.8	17.1	12.6	+1.88	37.3	-7.3
United States	International	740 475	4.4	3.5	16.4	-6.41	28.0	-8.3
OECD		**2 840 502**	**3.1**	**7.6**	**75.4**	**-1.52**	**33.6**	**-2.2**

Note: The "Foreign" category refers to students of foreign nationality, which is not necessarily the same thing as international students. Students are considered "international" when they leave their country of origin for another country with the intention of studying there.
Source: *OECD Education Database, www.oecd.org/education/database.htm.*

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933260919

The number of international students in tertiary education in the OECD climbed 3% between 2011 and 2012. The rise was particularly steep in the Netherlands, where the number doubled in 2012, and in Portugal, up 39% on 2011. Turkey, too, saw its inflow of international students increase by a quarter. Australia, Spain, and Sweden, by contrast, registered year-on-year falls in 2012. At 22%, the drop was particularly marked in Sweden.

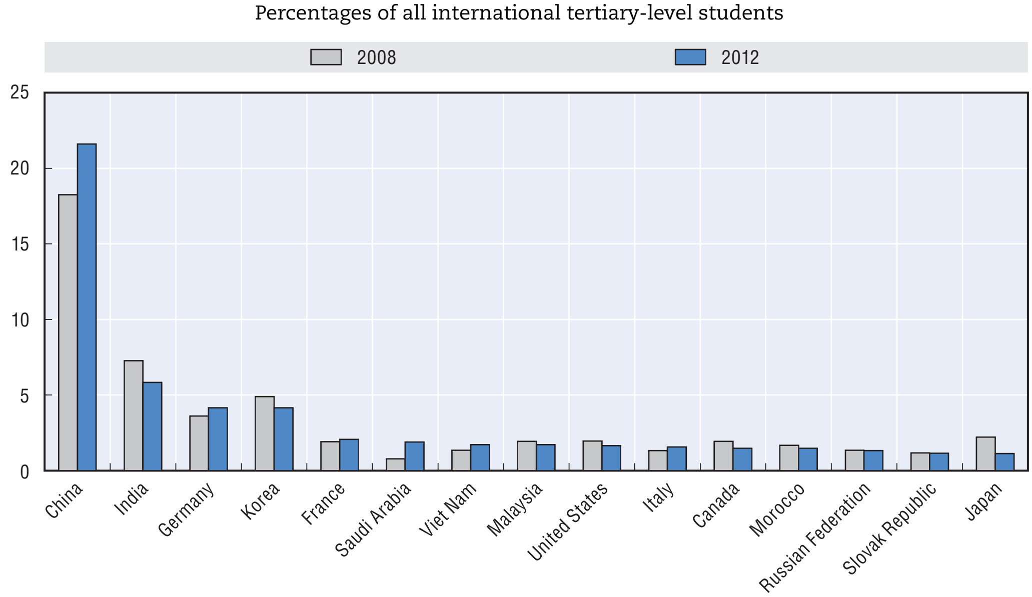
International students account for an average of 8% of the OECD tertiary-level student population. In some countries, the foreign presence is vital to the survival of the university system. In Luxembourg, for example, international students account for 40% of all students in higher education. In Australia, the United Kingdom, Switzerland, New Zealand and Austria, one student in six at university level is from abroad. In the United States, however, where they are more numerous than anywhere else, they constitute only a 3.5% share of university-level students.

As international students could well be the skilled foreign workers of the future, countries compete to lure them. And although the United States exerts by far the greatest appeal, its share of the world market for foreign students fell six percentage points between 2000 and 2012. It also fell by a half-point in major immigrant destination countries like Germany, Belgium, and France. The lure of the United Kingdom, by contrast, has grown constantly since 2000, and its share of the global market has grown more than that of any other OECD country over the period. Interestingly, two countries which boast relatively small shares of the foreign student market – Korea and New Zealand – saw those shares increase nine fold and fourfold, respectively.

Although on average one-third of all students in higher education in OECD countries hail from another OECD member country, the situation varies widely from country to country. The proportion of foreigners from an OECD country who move to Europe to study has mounted steadily since 2004 and currently stands at one in two. France, Italy, Greece and Slovenia buck the trend, however, as less than 25% of their student populations are

Figure 1.9. **Main countries of origin of tertiary-level students in OECD countries, 2008 and 2012**

Percentages of all international tertiary-level students



Source: OECD Education Database, *www.oecd.org/education/database.htm.*

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933260806

from the OECD area. In non-European OECD countries like Australia, Japan, Korea and Turkey, the vast majority of tertiary-level foreign students are from non-OECD countries. Generally speaking, in fact, non-European OECD countries attract less and less students from non-OECD countries. Italy, too, has lost its draw, with the share of OECD-national students falling by half between 2004 and 2012.

Most international students in higher education in the OECD originate from Asia – 22% from China, 6% from India, and 4% from Korea (Figure 1.9). German and French students – at 4% and 2% – account for the highest shares of those from Europe in OECD universities. Only one African country, Morocco, is in the top 15 international student sending countries. The share of Chinese students, who are already the most numerous in the OECD, has climbed continuously in recent years – by 3.4 points between 2008 and 2012. The same is true of students from Saudi Arabia, whose share doubled over the same period. The proportion of Indian and Japanese students at university in an OECD country, by contrast, slipped by over one percentage point.

International migrants' countries of origin

Discussion of permanent and temporary migration in previous sections has been based on standardised definitions designed to make the scale and composition of migration comparable across countries. With the exception of a handful of countries, however, no such standardised data are yet available by country or region of origin. And although information on migrants is generally available from national population registers, what constitutes a "migrant" varies widely from country to country. Adding up and deriving trends from register-based data (as in Table 1.7) is therefore not without caveats. Although the figures in the table should be treated with caution, they do offer an indication of the magnitude and make-up of flows by country of origin.

China is the country from which most new immigrants to OECD countries originate. It accounted for about one in ten migrants in 2013. It is hardly surprising to see China top the list of countries of origin given the size of its population. More remarkable is to see India appear in fourth position only, with 4.4% of the flows and an expatriation rate to OECD countries twice lower than China.

Freedom of movement within the EU result in Romania and Poland supplying the second- and third-largest contingents of immigrants in 2013 – at 5.5% and 5.3%, respectively. The figures are stable compared to 2012 or even 2011, but well below their level in the mid-2000s, especially for Romania. Among the top ten countries of origin, emigration from Mexico and the Philippines to OECD countries was down on 2012, but rose steeply in Italy with almost twice as many Italians emigrating to another OECD country in 2013 as in 2007. Outflows from several other OECD countries – such as Spain, France and the United States – also exhibited a rising trend over the period. Overall, intra-OECD immigration accounted for about one-third of the total in 2013.

Migration from Europe to OECD countries has increased since 2009, making Europe the region of origin that accounted for the highest share of flows, at over 39%, in 2013 (32% for the EU alone). Migration from Asia peaked in 2011, but Asian citizens still represent approximately one-third of migrants to OECD countries. The weight of other regions (Americas, Africa) in OECD immigration has been stable since 2011.

Table 1.7. **Top 50 countries of origin of new immigrants to the OECD, 2007, 2009, and 2011-13**

	Immigration into OECD countries (thousands)					% of total OECD inflows	% of total world population	Difference (percentage points)	Expatriation rate (per million population)
	2007	2009	2011	2012	2013	2013	2013	2013	2013
China	520	463	531	507	557	10.3	19.1	-8.8	410
Romania	557	274	310	294	300	5.5	0.3	5.3	15 045
Poland	**339**	**221**	**277**	**284**	**290**	**5.3**	**0.5**	**4.8**	**7 528**
India	213	229	243	228	240	4.4	17.6	-13.2	192
Mexico	**164**	**180**	**162**	**166**	**152**	**2.8**	**1.7**	**1.1**	**1 241**
Philippines	169	164	161	159	148	2.7	1.4	1.3	1 505
United States	**117**	**133**	**137**	**135**	**147**	**2.7**	**4.4**	**-1.7**	**464**
Italy	**66**	**73**	**85**	**99**	**127**	**2.3**	**0.8**	**1.5**	**2 130**
United Kingdom	**149**	**129**	**108**	**111**	**108**	**2.0**	**0.9**	**1.1**	**1 686**
Germany	**150**	**126**	**116**	**106**	**107**	**2.0**	**1.1**	**0.8**	**1 323**
France	**82**	**93**	**96**	**97**	**105**	**1.9**	**0.9**	**1.0**	**1 587**
Viet Nam	89	77	95	94	102	1.9	1.3	0.6	1 139
Hungary	**37**	**43**	**68**	**87**	**96**	**1.8**	**0.1**	**1.6**	**9 741**
Morocco	152	143	112	96	95	1.7	0.5	1.3	2 865
Bulgaria	87	67	98	101	93	1.7	0.1	1.6	12 829
Spain	**24**	**40**	**52**	**75**	**93**	**1.7**	**0.7**	**1.1**	**1 988**
Russian Federation	68	68	71	77	86	1.6	2.0	-0.4	597
Pakistan	75	77	106	86	75	1.4	2.6	-1.2	412
Colombia	89	72	68	65	73	1.3	0.7	0.7	1 513
Korea	**72**	**79**	**71**	**70**	**72**	**1.3**	**0.7**	**0.6**	**1 432**
Portugal	**60**	**43**	**50**	**60**	**68**	**1.2**	**0.1**	**1.1**	**6 461**
Peru	110	78	68	69	64	1.2	0.4	0.7	2 100
Ukraine	110	81	68	64	63	1.2	0.6	0.5	1 383
Brazil	108	84	69	66	58	1.1	2.8	-1.7	290
Dominican Republic	50	66	65	63	57	1.1	0.1	0.9	5 522
Thailand	48	47	53	59	57	1.1	0.9	0.1	850
Turkey	**60**	**64**	**63**	**60**	**54**	**1.0**	**1.1**	**-0.1**	**720**
Iran	28	44	45	45	46	0.9	1.1	-0.2	597
New Zealand	**42**	**43**	**44**	**54**	**46**	**0.8**	**0.1**	**0.8**	**10 263**
Greece	**14**	**15**	**39**	**52**	**46**	**0.8**	**0.2**	**0.7**	**4 150**
Cuba	45	53	51	46	45	0.8	0.2	0.7	3 967
Syria	8	9	14	23	44	0.8	0.3	0.5	1 939
Canada	**35**	**37**	**43**	**42**	**44**	**0.8**	**0.5**	**0.3**	**1 246**
Nigeria	38	46	39	44	43	0.8	2.4	-1.6	248
Serbia	27	27	33	39	43	0.8	0.1	0.7	5 938
Bangladesh	35	51	50	42	40	0.7	2.2	-1.5	259
Algeria	43	42	39	40	40	0.7	0.6	0.2	1 030
Egypt	25	28	32	35	39	0.7	1.2	-0.4	473
Nepal	17	23	30	33	38	0.7	0.4	0.3	1 351
Albania	66	71	39	37	37	0.7	0.0	0.6	13 319
Bolivia	63	19	20	24	36	0.7	0.1	0.5	3 377
Slovak Republic	**36**	**26**	**31**	**33**	**35**	**0.7**	**0.1**	**0.6**	**6 536**
Croatia	16	16	19	20	34	0.6	0.1	0.6	8 056
Lithuania	15	16	44	34	33	0.6	0.0	0.6	11 308
Iraq	33	49	48	43	33	0.6	0.5	0.1	995
Indonesia	27	22	29	30	33	0.6	3.5	-2.9	132
Netherlands	**40**	**33**	**33**	**34**	**33**	**0.6**	**0.2**	**0.4**	**1 942**
Japan	**32**	**36**	**34**	**36**	**32**	**0.6**	**1.8**	**-1.2**	**249**
Australia	**32**	**26**	**28**	**31**	**31**	**0.6**	**0.3**	**0.3**	**1 360**
Haiti	35	30	33	34	31	0.6	0.1	0.4	2 970
Unknown country	359	246	101	107	267	..	..	..	..
All origin countries	**5 908**	**5 293**	**5 401**	**5 422**	**5 707**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**..**	**801**
All OECD origin countries	**1 708**	**1 601**	**1 722**	**1 808**	**1 864**	**34.4**	**17.7**	**16.7**	**1 477**
All non-OECD origin countries	**3 841**	**3 446**	**3 577**	**3 507**	**3 577**	**65.6**	**82.3**	**-16.7**	**610**
All EU origin countries	**1 787**	**1 344**	**1 591**	**1 653**	**1 724**	**31.8**	**7.1**	**24.7**	**3 402**

Notes: Destination country data are not comparable across countries and may include more short-term movements for some countries than for others. Results should therefore be interpreted with caution. Countries in bold are OECD countries.

Source: OECD International Migration Database.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933260926

Flows of migrant women

In 2013, just under 2 million women migrated to an OECD country. The number translates into 47.4% of all flows into the OECD area (Figure 1.10), the lowest share of female migrants since the beginning of the century. Even since 2000, women had never represented less than 48% of total migration to the OECD area. This fall can be attributed to the drop in the numbers of women migrating to the United States (down 50 000 on 2012) which had the highest share in 2012 at 54.9%.

Figure 1.10. **Share of women in overall migration flows to OECD countries, 2000-13**

Note: Non-standardised official national statistics.
Source: *OECD International Migration Database.*

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933260814

In most OECD countries, the share of women in total inflows falls within a narrow range of between 53% in Ireland and 42% in Poland. However, it is lower than 40% in Germany (39%), the Slovak Republic (32%) and Slovenia (27%). The gender balance by country of origin is distributed across a wider range – from 24% for migrants from Mali to 65% for Paraguayans – among countries sending at least 5 000 migrants to OECD countries in 2013.

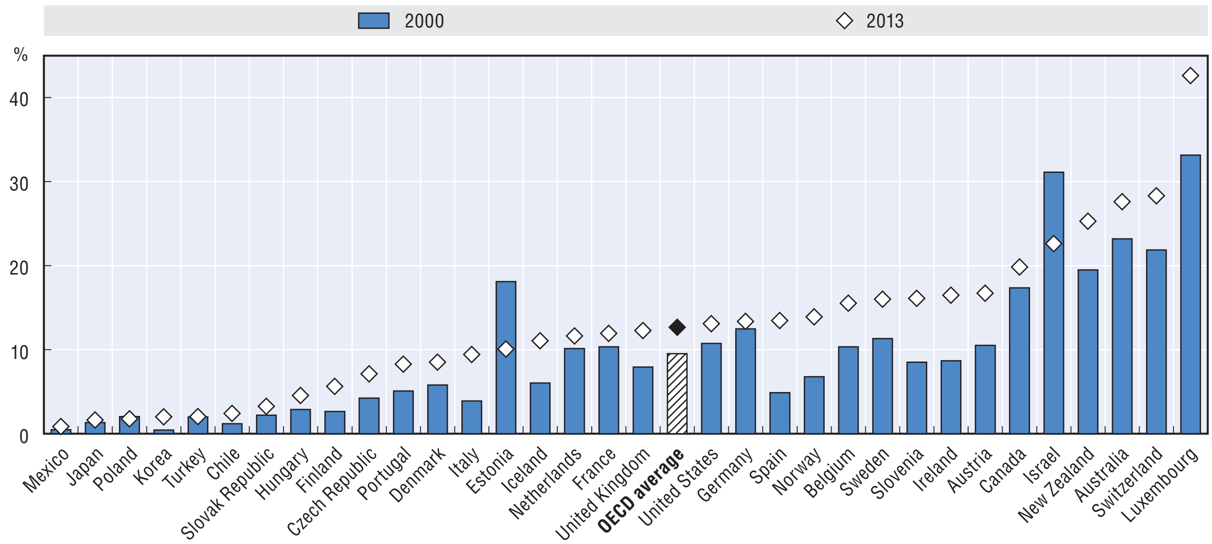
Variations in the number of female migrants tend not to be as wide as among men – partly because there are fewer women in the most fluctuating categories of migration, particularly labour migration.

Foreign-born population

The total foreign-born population in OECD countries stood at 117 million people in 2013 which corresponds to 35 million and 40% more than in 2000.

On average, immigrants accounted for a little less than 13% of the population in OECD countries in 2013, 3 percentage points more than in 2000 (Figure 1.11). Only Estonia, Israel and Poland saw shares decline between 2000 and 2013. While most other countries registered only moderate increases in the proportion of foreign-born in their populations, there was a rise of around 10 percentage points in Luxembourg, lifting the share of the foreign-born in the population to 43%. Immigrants also make up 28% of the population in both Australia and Switzerland, while the proportion of foreign-born in the population more than doubled in Norway, Italy, Finland and Chile, almost tripled in Spain, and, though still less than 2%, quadrupled in Korea.

Figure 1.11. **The foreign-born as a percentage of the total population, 2000 and 2013**



Note: Data refer to 2000 or to the closest year with available data and to 2013 or most recent available year.
Source: *OECD International Migration Database.*

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933260821

The increase in the foreign-born population accounted for one-third of the total population increase in the OECD area over the period 2000-13. Immigrants' demographic contribution is even more substantial if their children born in the host-country are included. In settlement countries – such as Australia, Canada, and New Zealand – and in France and Belgium, children with at least one foreign-born parent account for a sizeable share of the population with a migrant background.

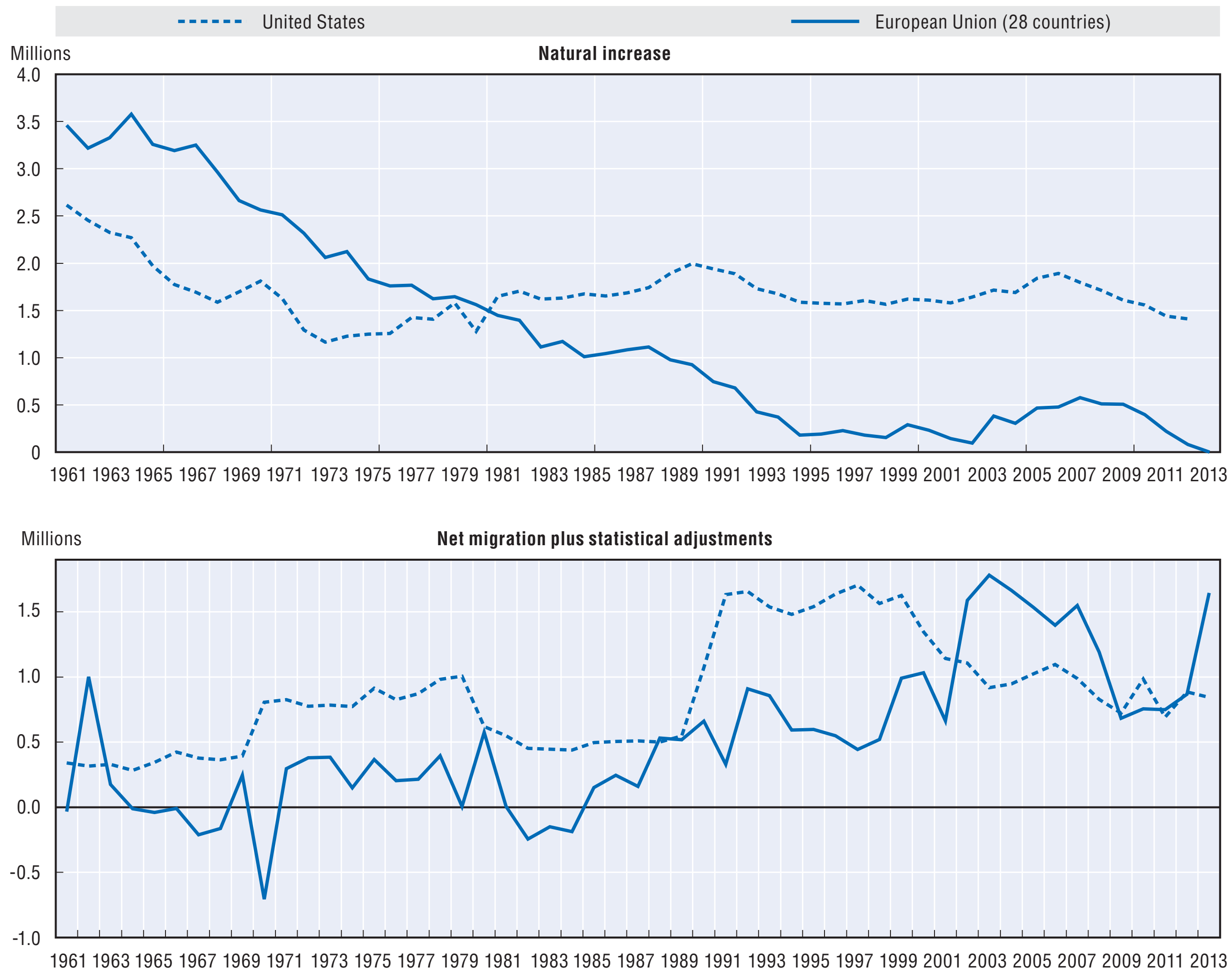
Net migration and natural increase

The overall population of OECD countries continues to grow and reached 1.25 billion in 2013. Between 2000 and 2010, the annual growth rate was approximately 7 per 1 000 but has gradually waned to 5.5 per 1 000 since then. Net migration has been, and continues to be, the main engine of population growth in many OECD countries as international flows have expanded and natural increase rates fallen. The situation varies across countries, however.

While natural increase still accounts for two-thirds of the population growth in the United States, it is negative in many European countries. Overall, natural increase in the EU has never been so low (Figure 1.12). It stood at +80 000 persons in 2013 and is likely to be negative by 2015, if it does not recover as it did in 2003, when increases in the United Kingdom, Spain and France drove the overall figure up.

Examination of long-term trends reveals that, until the mid-80s, net migration in the European Union did not contribute significantly to population growth – only around +100 000 persons per year. It then gradually increased from 600 000 between 1985 and 2000 to above 1 million per annum thereafter. Migration has been the biggest engine of demographic growth in the EU as whole since the mid-90s. It is about to become the only one.

Figure 1.12. **Long-term trends in natural population increase and net migration in the United States and the EU, 1961-2013**



Source: United States: *OECD population and vital statistics Database*; EU: *Eurostat Database*.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933260833

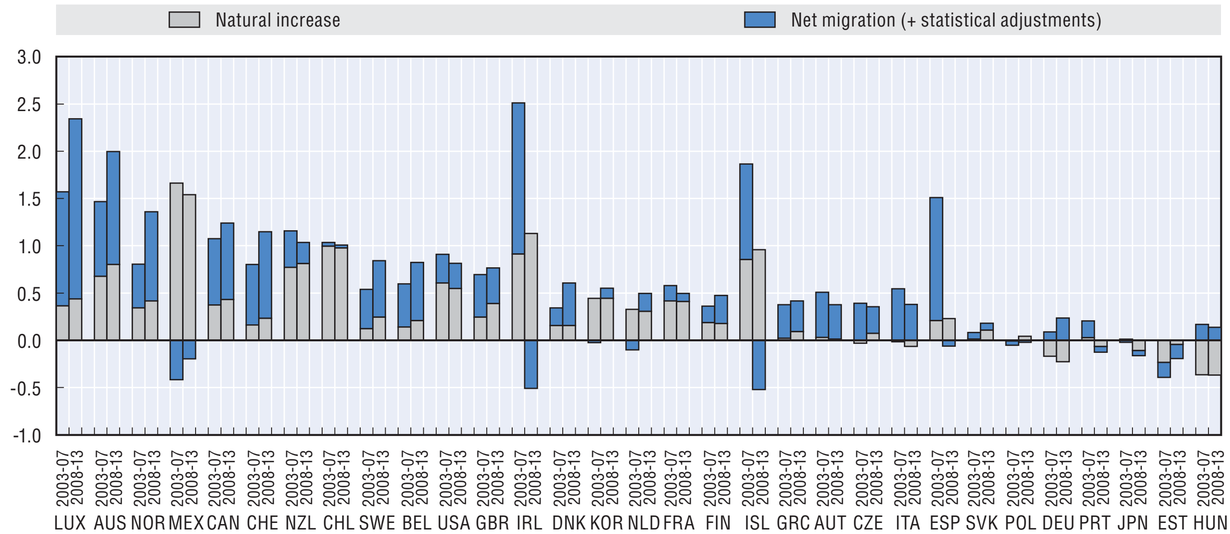
Despite the slow-down in migrant flows in the late 2000s, net migration still contributed more to population growth than natural increase in over half of all OECD countries between 2008 and 2013 (Figure 1.13). With the exception of Mexico, OECD countries where the population grew most between 2008 and 2013 did so chiefly through migration. In Luxembourg, Australia, Norway, Canada and Switzerland, the contribution of net migration to population growth was at least 60% – higher than in the previous five years.

At the other end of the scale, the slightly positive net migration to Hungary does not compensate for a negative natural increase rate. Estonia, Japan, and Portugal actually have negative rates of both net migration and natural population increase, while extreme patterns are also observed in Spain, Ireland and Iceland, where net migration was particularly high prior to 2007 before dropping to negative levels between 2008 and 2013.

Acquisition of citizenship

In 2013, more than 2 million people acquired the citizenship of an OECD country, up 14% from 2012 (Figure 1.14). Of those, just over 53% were women, 22% citizens of another OECD country, 37% Asian nationals, 23% came from Latin America and the Caribbean, and

Figure 1.13. **Natural population increase and net migration as a percentage of the population, 2003-07 and 2008-13**

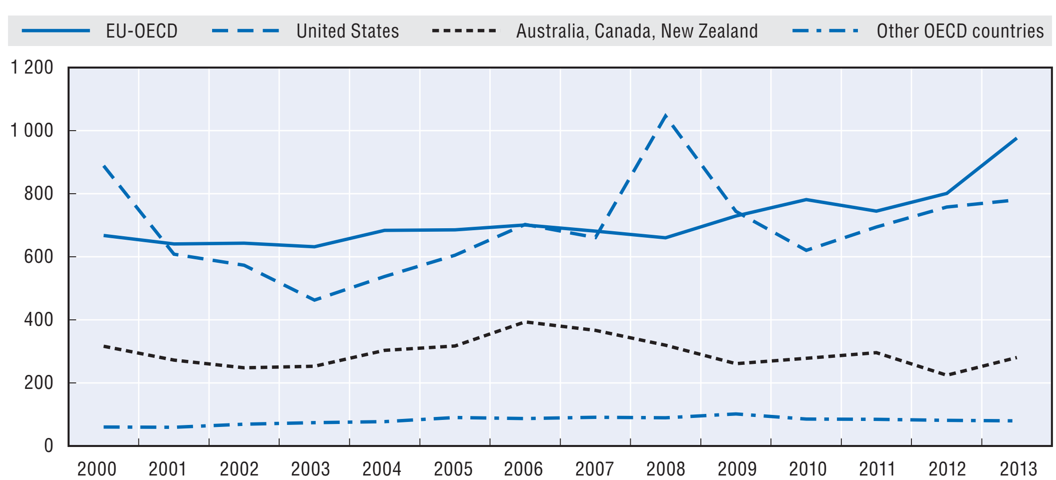


Note: 2013 or most recent available year. Countries are ranked in descending order of the population growth over the period 2008-13.
Source: OECD population and vital statistics Database; Eurostat Database.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933260845

16% from Africa. Only 11% were citizens of an EU country since, as EU citizens, they already enjoy most of the benefits of being nationals of another EU member country. The general upward trend in naturalisation in 2013 was driven mostly by the large increase observed in Spain, where naturalisations have been multiplied by two following the implementation of the "Intensive File Processing Plan" by the Ministry of Justice. It was also due to substantial increases in Australia (+40 000), Italy (+35 000) and, to a lesser extent, the United States (+23 000), Canada (+16 000) and the United Kingdom (+14 000).

Figure 1.14. **Number of foreigners who acquired the citizenship of an OECD country between 2000 and 2013**



Source: OECD International Migration Database.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933260855

Since 2000, OECD countries granted citizenship to 25 million foreign nationals. Ten million of them acquired the citizenship of a country which is also a member of the EU, and another ten million became US citizens.

General policy developments

Major policy revisions are losing momentum but some countries are still engaged

During the last decade or so, a number of countries have fundamentally revised their migration legislation in response to evolving patterns of migration and to the changing political environment. That process seems to have slowed. Most countries already have policies in place to deal with migration flows, so new legislation tends to be fine tuning rather than fundamental innovation or reversal of direction. Still, in 2011-12, several governments adopted comprehensive migration policy frameworks in the form of national migration strategies, examples including Poland, the Slovak Republic, Mexico, Bulgaria and Lithuania. Even outside these countries, new strategic approaches continue to emerge, laying down the general framework within which individual policy initiatives are put into operation.

Turkey, Mexico, Finland, Hungary, France and Switzerland have each set out their priorities. In response to its change from a transit to a destination country, the Turkish migration system underwent a major legal reform with the new Law on Foreigners and International Protection in April 2013, combining migration and asylum issues. The law regulates the visa and permit conditions of non-migrant travellers, students, temporary and seasonal workers, researchers and others. It also provides a legal framework for stateless persons, irregular migrants, asylum seekers and refugees, as well as dealing with deportations and human smuggling and trafficking. A new Directorate General for Migration Management within the Ministry of Interior was given prime responsibility and authorised to ensure cooperation with public institutions and agencies, universities, local governments, non-governmental organisations and private and international organisations in relation to its duties.

Mexico continues to develop its first Special Migration Programme, published in 2013, to plan and budget for the country's diverse migration phenomena. The programme seeks to address four major problems: i) a lack of coordination amongst the numerous regulations, programmes, and initiatives; ii) discrimination and weak legal rights; iii) poor conditions faced by foreign migrants in Mexico, as well as poor services available to assist them; iv) a lack of attention to Mexicans living abroad, as well as to the needs of Mexicans repatriated from the United States and their US-born children.

The Finnish government approved a broad action plan in 2014. It has several key objectives, including managing the labour market; ensuring equal rights for all employees; improving employment opportunities for people of immigrant background; and pursuing a more successful integration policy. Hungary's comprehensive seven-year migration strategy, presented in 2013, deals with visa policy, intra-EU migration and third-country migration, illegal migration, international protection and integration issues, although it does not address emigration. It also clarified intra-ministerial responsibilities and established goals and measures relating to movement and integration.

Some administrative reorganisation took place in France in August 2013. A new directorate, DGEF (*Direction générale des étrangers en France*), will deal with all aspects of migration with a view to improving public accountability, including preparing and managing the budget. Its remit includes the regularisation of visas, rules governing entry, residence and professional activity of immigrants, illegal immigration and illegal labour, document fraud, asylum, reception of immigrants and the acquisition of French nationality. Policy for fighting illegal migration in Switzerland is guided by the strategy of the Integrated Border Management (IBM), set up in 2012, which has four strands: screening abroad; cooperation within the Schengen area; frontier controls; and policy for the interior. The strategy guarantees much closer cooperation between the Confederation and the cantons and in July 2014 it was approved and put into action by the Swiss federal government.

Economic migration

Permit systems have been simplified but the trend is still towards tightened conditions

A new Migration Code in Greece, coming into law in April 2014, simplifies the different types of stay permits into seven categories for: work or professional reasons; temporary stay; humanitarian or exceptional reasons; study, training or voluntary work; victims of trafficking or human smuggling; family reunification; and long duration. Once an application for a stay permit has been made, the person may stay for up to 12 months. The Code also streamlines the management of permits, work and insurance issues for seasonal migrants working in agriculture or the fisheries.

During 2014, the Swiss government started a consultative process for legislative changes regulating access to social benefits for foreign job seekers under free circulation, to make these rules uniform and to reflect jurisprudence. Already excluded from benefits, those requesting a short-term authorisation to seek employment would be required to demonstrate sufficient means to support themselves.

A new law, implemented in Poland in May 2014, liberalised and simplified conditions of legalisation of work and residence for foreigners. It incorporated into Polish law the EU single permit Directive allowing work and residence on one permit, subject to the employer carrying out a resident labour market test. A significant novelty is that in the situation of the loss of job, the foreigner has one month to find new employment. Hungary's new migration strategy, adopted in October 2013, introduces a preferential visa application process for labour migrants who would contribute to the country's economic growth. In January 2014 a new one stop shop permit was introduced for foreign workers working for more than 90 days in the country. It includes employment and immigration procedures for those coming for employment purposes and with other primary purposes of stay, who have the right to be employed.

Some countries have introduced more specific controls. In order to tighten up its work permit system and prevent unauthorised stay, Korea has introduced two changes to its temporary non-professional work programme. From early 2014 severance pay may be collected only after departure at the end of a contract and a second spell of employment in Korea is only possible, for workers who have finished five years employment, after a six month interim departure. In 2013, Norway repealed its scheme allowing foreign skilled workers to apply for a one-year permit to learn Norwegian. In the Netherlands more stringent checks on the availability of local (and EU) labour supply came into force in January 2014, together with the introduction of quotas for specific sectors of the economy. In addition, the period that a worker from outside the EU must have had a work permit before he or she can work without a permit was increased from three to five years. Sector controls also operate in Israel. Since the end of 2013 the Israeli Government has increased foreign worker quotas in construction and agriculture. It has also tightened the regulations on the employment of care workers to make it more difficult to transfer from one employer to another.

The transposition of EU Directives and the admission of Croatia to the EU had some impact on national legislation on labour migration

Following transposition of the EU Directives into their own legislation, several Central European countries have simplified application procedures for the highly skilled. In the Slovak Republic, from January 2014 the Blue Card scheme has been introduced granting three year permits for those with either a university education or five years professional experience, on condition that the salary is 1.5 times the Slovak average and a resident labour market test has been carried out. In addition, a new two-year research and development permit covers research workers and staff in R&D institutions while a special purpose permit is designed for non-profit activities such as teaching, lecturing, voluntary work and journalism. Along with transposition of the EU Directive on a single application procedure, a new employee card for non-EEA foreign workers came into force in the Czech Republic in June 2014, substituting the previous "green card" system. The card is for an initial two years with the option of extension. It relates to a specific job which must have been advertised on the central register of job vacancies that can be filled by holders of employee cards. An employee card is linked to the specific job for which it was issued or, if applicable, to a job for which the Department for Asylum and Migration Policy of the Ministry of the Interior granted its consent in connection with changing employer or job. It must pay not lower than the basic monthly minimum wage and the worker must submit documents proving their qualifications for performance of the job.

The admission of Croatia to the European Union in July 2013 meant that other EU countries had to decide whether or not to apply transitional restrictions to the labour market access of Croatians. Most countries – but not all – imposed some kind of restrictions, at least for the first year or two. For example, in May 2013 Ireland announced that it would not restrict access to Ireland's labour market for nationals of Croatia. This decision follows an assessment that it was 'highly unlikely that significant numbers of Croatians wish to migrate to Ireland'. Other countries, mainly from Eastern Europe, which have announced no restrictions on Croatians entering their labour markets are the Czech Republic, Denmark, Estonia, Finland, Hungary, Latvia, Lithuania, Norway, Poland, Portugal, Romania, the Slovak Republic, Slovenia, and Sweden. Several countries which imposed restrictions did so for the first two years initially. Others exempted highly educated Croatians: for example those going to Luxembourg will be granted a work permit for a period of only two years initially, with exceptions mainly for the highly skilled and international graduates.

Skilled workers are still wanted

An enduring feature of economic immigration has been the focus on the highly skilled. Most member countries have sought to attract them because of the perceived benefits they bring to national economies. In 2012, only Germany, Slovak Republic and Hungary took measures to widen access by foreign skilled workers to their labour markets. In the following two years, several other countries have also made efforts to attract new skilled labour.

A new policy approach in Germany from July 2013 involves opening up the labour market, particularly to skilled foreign workers. All foreign family members of foreign workers are now entitled to engage in any form of gainful employment which includes unrestricted access to the labour market. For many occupations, a labour market test is dispensed with the only provision being an examination of whether prevailing working conditions are satisfied. Skilled workers holding a university degree can now stay in Germany for another six months to search for a new job after a previous employment in Germany has been terminated. Those who have completed their vocational training abroad can take up employment in Germany provided that the occupation matches their vocational qualifications, although these must be recognized by a body responsible for the recognition of foreign professional qualifications as being equivalent to qualified training in Germany. Currently, the list contains occupations in the following areas: healthcare and nursing; engineering; transport and logistics. From 2014, further, persons who reside in Germany as asylum seekers or others with permission to reside or as tolerated persons may take up employment after a waiting period of only three months (instead of nine months or one year, respectively).

The French Government is also seeking to attract more skilled immigrants and plan to create a new passport of expertise (*passeport talent*), issued to skilled workers and his/her family for four years, expected to replace a number of existing permits for skilled workers by the end of 2015. Luxembourg is putting in place a fast track procedure for certain categories of high-salary workers and has announced measures to speed up and improve the processing of requests for residence permits, granting priority to researchers.

In some other countries, a consistent theme has been better administrative organisation and simplified processes. In September 2013, Estonia amended its Aliens Act to facilitate labour market access for “top specialists”, researchers and students. The new process speeds up their entry into the labour market. Highly skilled workers with appropriate professional training who arrive in Estonia to study or work and hold short-term or long-term visas may apply for a residence permit within the country when already studying or working. Short-term employment of persons who come under these categories can be registered within a day. Remuneration must be at least twice the annual average gross monthly salary in Estonia. The employer does not have to have carried out a resident labour market test. Family members may join them at the same time and apply for a temporary residence permit under the same conditions. For other occupations, a test is necessary unless the occupation is on the shortage list.

In an effort to attract more skilled workers to Austria, in January 2014 the permit system was simplified and waiting periods and costs to the potential migrant reduced so that vacancies can be filled more quickly. In order to attract highly qualified workers to Lithuania, entry and residence for them was simplified and streamlined in June 2014. Applications must be examined within one month and a temporary residence permit given for up to three years. For those with salaries three times the monthly average, a resident labour market test is not required. In addition, more favourable terms for family reunion were given during 2014 for executive and professional intra-company transferees (ICTs). However, at the same time Lithuania has strengthened its resident labour market test. From 2013 an employer wishing to recruit more than five foreign workers must advertise locally at least three months in advance.

As Ireland emerged from recession, the need for skills grew. A number of changes were made to the country's employment permits regime in 2013 to facilitate access for highly qualified workers. These included the opening of Green Card occupations to all sectors; an increase in the level of information and declaration rather than provision of documents to simplify the application process; a reduction in advertising requirements prior to offering employment to third country nationals; permitting Intra-Corporate Transfer Employment Permit and Contract Service Provider Employment Permit holders to apply for other employment permits; and the removal of various restrictions to applicants from within Ireland if they have a valid legal status and Garda National Immigration Bureau number and are applying for an eligible occupation. An Atypical Working Scheme was also announced on a pilot basis in April 2013, effective from September 2013. It provides for certain categories of short-term workers not covered by the Employment Permits Acts. The Scheme applies in cases where a skill shortage has been identified; to provide a specialised or high skill to an industry, business or academic institution; or to facilitate trial employment in respect of an occupation on the Highly Skilled Occupations List.

The importance of attracting and keeping key skills is acknowledged by measures adopted in Spain, Japan and Romania. Spain's 2013 Entrepreneurial Support and Internationalisation Act includes measures to facilitate the entry of ICTs and other highly skilled professionals. Following the introduction of a points-based system for labour immigration to Japan in 2012, the criteria for highly skilled professionals were subsequently amended to allow them residence for an indefinite period from April 2015. Recruiting highly skilled foreign workers is a key element in Romania's new National Immigration Strategy. Its Government undertakes yearly evaluations to identify the economic sectors that are characterized by labour shortages that should be addressed through labour immigration.

Some countries are however becoming more selective in attracting the highly skilled

Despite a persistent willingness to attract highly skilled workers, including during the economic crisis, recent years have seen the exercise of greater selectivity and targeting, particularly where labour shortages have been identified. This general trend continues but several countries have introduced more specific targeting measures, designed to address their labour market needs more closely.

Australia, Canada and the Netherlands have given employers more responsibility in immigration management, while the United Kingdom has put greater emphasis on ensuring that reported qualifications are genuine. The substantial growth in use of the temporary skilled 457 visa programme in Australia led to concern that the system was becoming separated from the actual skill shortages. As a result, in July 2013 the government passed a new Temporary Sponsored Visas Act to encourage employers to make genuine efforts to seek domestic workers before bringing in temporary foreign skilled labour. Measures included more training provision for Australians, labour market testing requirements, and controls on salaries. Following a review in September 2014, a number of further changes were recommended, including better monitoring of sponsors, increasing the length of sponsorship and fast tracking low-risk applications while imposing greater scrutiny of those posing a higher risk.

Canada, too, has sought to link labour needs more closely with its immigration programme and, as in Australia, has sought to enhance employer engagement. In order to address the concerns of employers regarding a shortage of skilled tradespersons in some regions and sectors, the government introduced in 2013 a Federal Skilled Trades Program. In 2015 a new Express Entry system is being introduced with higher allocation of points for job offers, an active matching service for vacancies and skills, and faster processing times. In addition, improvements to the Canadian Experience Class Program were introduced to allow applicants to apply with 12 months of Canadian work experience (rather than the previous requirement of 24 months) in the preceding 36 months. This liberalisation is tempered with concern about foreign qualifications which led in May 2013 to Canada adjusting the immigrant selection-points grid in its Federal Skilled Worker Program in order to improve the integrity of points allocation for foreign educational credentials. A pre-application third-party educational credential assessment is now required when foreign credentials are submitted.

Payment of salaries is the management vehicle being used in the Netherlands and the United Kingdom. In order to prevent possible misuse of the Highly Skilled Migrants Scheme by employers who pay lower actual salaries to foreign workers than the threshold salary approved in the initial application, the Dutch government in January 2014 instituted measures to monitor of the payment of salaries. Payment may now only be done through a personal bank account of the highly skilled migrant and the employer must be able to demonstrate proof of payment. The United Kingdom has brought in genuineness tests to prevent false earnings claims by those entering through the exceptional talent category in Tier 1. A similar test was also introduced for all Tier 5 (temporary worker) routes.

Few countries have engaged in new schemes for less skilled workers

A feature of the last couple of years has been the lack of new policy activity in relation to less skilled workers. An exception is working holiday makers (WHMs), where three countries have forged new schemes. Hungary agreed one with Korea in 2013 and in 2014 successful negotiations were concluded with Taipei, China. New Zealand signed a new agreement with the Philippines in 2014. Australia has signed new agreements with Israel and Spain.

Where numerical limits on the entry of less skilled workers are imposed, these have been kept largely constant. A number of countries have kept them at or close to zero. Italy allows only certain categories, largely residents changing status from one category to another, and its quotas for seasonal workers have fallen from 98 000 in 2010 to 18 000 in 2013. Korea adjusted its entry quotas, from 34 000 in 2010 to 62 000 in 2013. Introducing a new system for managing labour migration flows, Greece in effect kept these at zero in the near future. In recent years Israel has maintained its quota of foreign construction workers (excluding Palestinians) at around 8 000. In order to respond appropriately to the construction needs of the Tokyo 2020 Olympic and Paralympic Games, the Japanese government has decided to accept foreign construction workers who are industry-ready. However, this acceptance is a temporary measure valid until 2020 and does not mean that there has been a change in the government's existing basic policy on foreign workers.

Bilateral agreements continue to be signed. Poland and Armenia have an agreement in force from January 2014. It gives Armenian citizens the right to work in Poland for limited periods without the need for a work permit. Similar agreements by Poland with Moldova and Ukraine allow the mutual transfer of long term benefits such as pensions. In June 2014 Romania signed a new one year agreement with Israel which facilitates sending temporary construction workers. It also aims to stop illegal recruiting and employment practices.

Investors and entrepreneurs continue to be attractive but are increasingly scrutinised

A common policy among OECD countries has been to use of the immigration system to attract investors and entrepreneurs. In the recent past Australia, Canada, Germany, Ireland, Netherlands, Norway, New Zealand, the United Kingdom and Romania have sought to encourage these 'high value' immigrants to settle, invest and create jobs. The trend continues. Some countries open new doors, others modify existing conditions.

Six countries have introduced measures to make it easier to attract investors and entrepreneurs, either by reducing the scale of initial commitment or by granting more favourable residence permit conditions. In two cases, Estonia and Ireland, a particularly comprehensive approach has been adopted to encourage entrepreneurship and the creation of start-up companies.

In Estonia the requirement to invest EUR 65 000 in business activity in order to apply for a residence permit for business is no longer necessary if the company has been registered in Estonia for less than 12 months and commences operation with the support of the state or private investments. Start-up companies can also employ short-term workers and hire top specialists without meeting the financial requirement. In addition, a new subcategory of large investor, leading to permanent residence, is to be introduced. It has also become easier for business people to engage with the country's digital environment. In April 2014, the Estonian government approved the concept of issuing digital IDs to both non-resident foreigners and Estonians living abroad. This allows them to identify themselves in the Estonian e-environment and run things in Estonia irrespective of their physical location. The target audience for e-identity is foreign investors, foreign employees and foreigners who perform directing or supervisory functions in companies, as well as representatives of other countries and international organisations and their family members. It is hoped that as a result of the implementation of e-identity more entrepreneurs, investors and specialists will be engaged in the Estonian economy, research, education and other fields, and in doing so enhance the international competitiveness of the country.

Changes to the Immigrant Investor Programme in Ireland came into effect in July 2013. The investment threshold was halved to EUR 1m and the financial requirement for an enterprise investment was also halved to EUR 500 000. A new category of investment was created in a managed fund to invest in Irish businesses and projects requiring an investment of EUR 500 000. Other changes related to the mix of investments and tuition fees payable to Irish tertiary educational establishments for the children of investors. Changes to the Start-Up Entrepreneur Programme (STEP) announced in March 2014 saw a general reduction in the required minimum investment from EUR 75 000 to EUR 50 000. A 12-month immigration permission is to be made available for two categories of persons: foreign national entrepreneurs attending 'incubators or innovation boot camps' in Ireland and non-EEA students who graduate with advanced STEM (Science, Technology, Engineering, and Mathematics) degrees in Ireland and who wish to work on preparing an application to the Programme.

Four countries have recently introduced measures to induce investors to locate there. New legislation in Slovak Republic, implemented in January 2014, is designed to attract entrepreneurs. Applicants must have a business plan and pay salaries well above the national average and are granted a residence permit for a maximum of three years. Spain's Entrepreneurial Support and Internationalisation Act in 2013 introduced a new international mobility scheme designed to facilitate the entry and residence of international investors and entrepreneurs, as well as other highly skilled people. From 2014, third country nationals may obtain a residence permit in Latvia if they buy a property worth at least EUR 150 000 and also pay a fee of EUR 25 000 into the state budget. There is an annual limit of 700 permits. Lithuania has made it easier to settle for those foreigners who have invested at least LTL 900 000 and have created at least five full-time jobs in their enterprise. Their temporary residence permits have also been extended to three years and the time taken to issue residence permits to their family members has been reduced.

In some cases, existing schemes are undergoing scrutiny and change. Australia, Canada and New Zealand are reviewing and modifying their investor and entrepreneur streams in order to improve economic outcomes. In general, the changes institute tighter conditions. Following a rise in the points score necessary for investor visas in 2013 and the introduction of a new points test, in March 2014 Australia embarked on a review of its Significant Investor stream. The aim is to analyse ways of streamlining processing, examine ways of improving flexibility and consider the possibility of introducing a new investor stream. Canada has closed its Federal Immigrant Investor and its Entrepreneur Program because they were found to provide limited economic benefit. Instead, a new five-year pilot program, the Start-Up Visa Program, was launched in April 2013. It is designed to attract immigrant entrepreneurs to build innovative companies who have the support of Canadian private sector organizations. New Zealand has also introduced major changes to its business stream. From March 2014 the new Entrepreneur Work Visa category is based on a points system, with applicants required to exceed a minimum number of points before their application can be assessed and decided. Points are awarded on the basis of business experience, potential benefit to New Zealand, export potential, the level of capital investment and the age of the applicant. Applicants must make a minimum capital investment of NZD 100 000 and also submit a detailed business plan and be able to show that they have a viable business idea and sufficient relevant experience to be likely to succeed. A new Entrepreneur Residence Category allows conditional residence after only six months, provided that at least NZD 500 000 is invested and three new full-time jobs are created for New Zealanders.

Finally, Start-Up Chile, which grants capital and a residence permit based on business plans, has expanded with a one-year follow-up grant and permit extension to successful start-ups, on the condition they remain an additional year in Chile.

International students

International students are still wanted but countries are aware of abuses

One of the main drivers of migration to and from OECD countries is the internationalisation of higher education and particularly the movement of international students to study in another country. New programmes and policies for attracting international students have been widely adopted in recent years, examples including Australia, Finland, Ireland, Lithuania, the Slovak Republic, Spain, Sweden and the United Kingdom. The trend continues, with some new countries added to the list while others which already have policies in place to attract them have introduced new measures. While international students continue to be generally welcomed, there is concern in some countries that some are taking advantage of international study opportunities to pursue other objectives (for example, work) and that there is cause to tighten up on entry visas and stay permits.

The pressures of recession on the domestic workforce have also led to some reassessment of post-study entry into the labour market by overseas graduates, although for the most part countries are still in favour of post-study stay. In addition, new higher education models are being developed, among them online degrees, franchising and overseas campuses, which lessen the need for students to take up higher education in foreign countries. New developments have focused on two areas: recruitment of students often under more stringent entry conditions; and post-study employment.

Three countries have sought to develop specific links with sending countries. A new government scholarship programme in Hungary, implemented from 2013, is designed to promote the participation of international students through a series of bilateral agreements, mainly from outside Europe. Overall, the new international students strategy aims at tripling their number at Hungarian universities over the next decade. Poland has introduced a new scholarship programme for Ukrainians. The Spanish government presented a strategy in September 2014 to promote university cooperation with several countries in Latin America, Africa and Asia. The aim is to foster mobility among top students, teachers, researchers and administrative and services staff, and promote the potential of Spanish as a language of higher education while stimulating technological activity.

A further three countries, while continuing to encourage the inflow of international students, have also tightened up on monitoring their progress in order to prevent abuse. The United Kingdom and Australia have also introduced measures to reduce the risk of abuse. In October 2013 the United Kingdom introduced a genuineness test for international students applying for leave to remain in order to enable the consideration of how the circumstances of any dependant may affect the ability or motivation of the applicant to study. In May 2014 the Australian government announced the extension of its streamlined visas system to low immigration risk education providers offering advanced diploma level courses. Lithuania introduced measures in 2014 to attract students and researchers by giving them more favourable entry conditions. University students are now allowed to take up employment while studying without requiring a work permit. Upon graduation they may stay in Lithuania for another six months, if they intend to continue studying there, instead of having to leave the country upon completion of their studies. However, in June 2014 measures were introduced to impose a fine on educational institutions which failed to report on cases where the international student had not completed the course.

International graduates are still valued for their skills

A major policy dilemma in recent years has been whether or not to allow international graduates to stay on and enter the labour market. For the most part, measures have favoured encouragement to do so. International graduates are usually seen as important sources of high level skills, often speak several languages and have demonstrated an ability to live and work in different cultures.

Seven countries have taken steps in the last couple of years to incorporate international students and graduates into the mainstream labour market, four of them in central and eastern Europe. In September 2013, Estonia amended its Aliens Act to facilitate labour market access for international students. They no longer require a work permit if they wish to work while studying providing they are adhering to a full time curriculum. In order to enable them to look for a job in Estonia after graduation, the residence permit may be extended for up to six months and they are exempt from both the labour market test and remuneration requirement. Poland is implementing a new strategy from 2014 to attract international graduates into the labour market as part of a broader programme to internationalise the country's university education. Measures enable people preparing for study in the Polish language to obtain a temporary residence permit, a longer first permit while studying and a one-year residence permit for international graduates to seek a job. Romania is putting into place a legal framework to allow non-EU international graduates to seek and take up work, particularly in technology occupations. From the beginning of 2014, international full-time students at Russian universities may receive annual work permits, renewable for the duration of the course. Prior to this they were permitted to work without a permit during holidays or non-study time only.

Two western European countries have introduced measures to support the post-study work route. As part of a broader initiative to attract international students, in June 2013 educational institutions in the Netherlands were given more responsibility for recruitment of students and post-graduation retention. The admissions process has been accelerated by removing administrative obstacles, residence permits need to be extended less frequently and more information is provided in English. The aim is to recruit more students who will enter the Dutch labour market after graduation by promoting study and career together and with more internships available. More provision of career events and business days is designed to ease the transition from education to the Dutch labour market. In Germany, to allow international students to search for a job that matches their qualifications after graduation, they may remain in the country for up to 18 months to look for employment. During that time they can take up any kind of job to cover their subsistence. Moreover, they are allowed to work 120 full days or 240 half days during their studies.

Family and residence

Some family immigration procedures are being eased but the general trend is still towards restriction

In the last few years there has been a trend for policies to restrict family migration or to discourage persons who wish to migrate with their families, by raising the income criteria for family reunification and by introducing language and other tests for family members. Such measures restricting family migration create some tension: on the one hand, there is pressure to respect human rights commitments signed by many countries; on the other hand, there are concerns raised with respect to the ability of migrants to integrate, settle and speak the host country's language(s). While some countries continue to relax their rules of entry and settlement, others have become more restrictive, especially with respect to measures to combat (sham) marriages of convenience. Canadians, for example, are not allowed to sponsor a new spouse until five years have elapsed from the prior sponsorship.

Six countries have eased family entrance and settlement, usually through simplification of procedures and increased access to the labour market. In order to facilitate further the family reunification of non-EU family members of Hungarian or other EU nationals residing in Hungary, the new migration strategy is intended to improve communication and information availability and ease administrative burdens. Procedures for the issue of residence permits are being streamlined with all applications to be decided within 21 days. Family members of non-EU immigrants are able to take employment.

Germany, too, is improving family access to the labour market. As of September 2013, all foreigners in Germany holding a residence permit as family members are allowed to work without the approval of the Federal Employment Agency. Meanwhile, the US Department of Homeland Security will allow dependent spouses of certain non-immigrants in specialty occupations (H-4 visa holders), not previously listed as eligible to work in the United States, to accept employment. From May 2015, employment authorization may be requested by certain H-4 dependent spouses of H-1B non-immigrants who have already taken steps to become lawful permanent residents.

Poland and Lithuania have simplified their residence permit application procedure. The first now allows renewal applications to be submitted right up to the expiration date, rather than 45 days beforehand. In October 2013 Lithuania reduced the time limit for examining applications for a residence permit from six to four months as well as laying down more favourable conditions for issuing a permit to a foreigner of Lithuanian descent. From June 2013, a new procedure for sponsors and foreign nationals wanting family reunification in the Netherlands came into operation. Sponsors no longer have to submit two separate applications for a regular provisional residence permit and a residence permit.

Greater restrictions on family immigration have been put in place in Norway, Canada, Ireland, Korea and the Netherlands. Particular emphasis is placed on preventing marriages of convenience. The Norwegian Government has increased the income requirement for family reunion. It is also proposed that the non-resident spouse be at least 24 years old. In Canada, the rules on bringing in dependent children have been changed to prevent entry of those aged 19 or more. Having temporarily closed it in 2013, in January 2014 Canada reopened the Parents and Grandparents Program for new applications but with new and stricter criteria for their sponsors. The permanent resident or Canadian citizen must undertake to provide for the basic needs of their sponsored relative for a longer period while the minimum necessary income for a sponsorship has been increased. However, to alleviate some of the difficulties for divided families, in 2014 a new 'super visa' for parents and grandparents was introduced. It is multiple entry and allows them to visit relatives in Canada more freely.

New policy guidelines regarding family reunification applications in the immigration system in Ireland were published in December 2013 with the stated aim of providing greater transparency in the immigration decision making process. The overall need for a balance of interests is noted throughout, primarily on the basis of public order, public health and financial costs to the state. In February 2013, Ireland undertook a series of measures to deter marriages of convenience. Registrars have a right to investigate such a suspected marriage, to refuse to issue a marriage registration form and to notify immigration authorities.

Concern about marriages of convenience, prompted by the high divorce rate of international marriages, has resulted in stricter regulation in Korea. New criteria include: whether the Korean inviter has married another immigrant within the last five years; the inviter's income and financial status, health status, and criminal record; and the invitee's Korean language proficiency.

Only nuclear family members may be brought into the Netherlands, with those aged over 21 and over 65 excluded, and the fee has been increased. The Dutch government has also developed an action plan against forced marriages based on a sequential approach, including prevention, detection, damage reduction, and sanctioning. Prominent measures include the introduction of an early warning system, setting up a single hotline for all relevant matters, the development of a national hub for professionals, and initiatives aimed at effective detection abroad.

Humanitarian migration

At the beginning of the millennium, discussions on migration were often dominated by debate on asylum seekers and the unfounded claims related to these. Then for some years asylum slipped down the list of topical subjects for OECD countries, especially as the recession brought new challenges. This situation seems to be changing, mainly because of warfare and instability in the Middle East and Africa, with countries in the Mediterranean area under particular pressure. It is also causing countries to review the ways in which their humanitarian programmes and procedures are working.

New humanitarian measures in response to the humanitarian crisis in the Mediterranean region

In response to the political crises in the eastern Mediterranean region and the ensuing flows of asylum seekers, several countries have introduced new humanitarian measures. Turkey has implemented a "temporary protection regime" for Syrian refugees, consisting of three main principles: an open border policy; the principle of non-refoulement; and registration with the Turkish authorities and support inside the precincts of the camps. Greece's new autonomous and decentralised asylum agency began work in June 2013. First Reception Centres are being constructed in selected places and where there is a notable inflow of immigrants mobile units are deployed. The centres receive irregular migrants upon their arrival and refer asylum seekers to the regional asylum office within the local reception centre. The regional asylum offices are responsible for receiving and processing the applications, conducting interviews, and issuing decisions at the first instance, within a time limit of 30 days.

In February 2014, Hungary allowed temporary protection to a foreigner who belongs to a group of displaced persons arriving in the territory of Hungary *en masse* and which was recognised by the Government as eligible for temporary protection. Protection exists until the reasons for such mass movements are deemed to have passed. In June 2013 the Slovak government agreed with the UNHCR and IOM to allow the humanitarian transfer of refugees, mainly mothers with children fleeing from conflict zones and who need immediate evacuation through the Slovak Republic. It allows them to stay in government hostels for up to six months before they are re-settled in their final destination country. Meanwhile, the Swedish Migration Board decided in September 2013 that residence permits granted on the basis of the general situation of violence in Syria should be permanent. In a separate development in July 2014 the Russian Federation introduced a fast-track procedure for Ukrainian citizens. The procedure for dealing with applications for temporary asylum to Ukrainian nationals was reduced from three months to three days from the date of application submission. They were also allowed to settle and work in Russia and acquire Russian citizenship.

Three countries have introduced measures to deal with humanitarian or subsidiary protection. In order to address issues related to undecided applications, from 2013 subsidiary protection applications in Ireland are now dealt with in a similar manner to the determination of refugee applications: applicants for subsidiary protection now have permission to remain in the State for the duration of their application. Similarly, the Czech government amended its legislation in May 2013 to allow long term resident status to those granted humanitarian protection. Changes to the Asylum Act in the Slovak Republic, coming into force in January 2014, increased the number of application centres and clarified the reasons for discrimination; specified additional conditions for granting protection; widened the circle of persons to whom asylum or supplementary protection can be granted for the purposes of family reunification; and lengthened the period of supplementary protection from one to two years. Persons granted supplementary protection in the Slovak Republic are exempted from the work permit requirement, making their overall legal position closer to that of the persons who were granted asylum.

Measures to reinforce the existing asylum system and prevent abuses

France and Switzerland have both adopted measures to streamline their asylum systems while maintaining fairness. A new Bill in France, published in 2014, contains three new elements. It will deal with suspensive appeals, allowing an asylum seeker the right to counsel and take more account of the vulnerability of the asylum seeker; speed up procedures without prejudicing the rights of the asylum seeker and aim to reduce the time span from the present two years plus to nine months by 2017; and provide managed accommodation more evenly located geographically to relieve pressure on any particular area and ensure the accommodation and the social milieu are of a good standard.

Switzerland, in response to revisions to the Dublin agreement and to Eurodac, has amended the law concerning foreigners and asylum seekers. In September 2014 the Swiss federal government adopted a bill aimed at speeding up asylum procedures without prejudicing a fair decision.

Concern about abuse of the asylum system led to new measures in Australia, Finland, Estonia, Hungary and Lithuania. In response to spontaneous arrivals by sea, in March 2014 the Australian government announced that it had capped the number of places available to onshore applicants under its refugee and humanitarian programme in order to enable the government to increase the number of resettlement places available for family members through the planned Special Humanitarian Programme (SHP). A new Community Proposal Pilot programme allows approved organisations to propose someone in a humanitarian situation outside Australia for a Refugee and Humanitarian visa. The Finnish government submitted new proposals to the Parliament in September 2014, designed to promote the return to their home country or other country of permanent residence of third-country nationals whose asylum applications have been rejected or cancelled. In addition, the need for legislative changes relating to temporary residence permits granted for the purpose of removal from the country is being examined. From October 2013 Estonia introduced detention for up to two days (two months in certain circumstances) as a means of surveillance during the application procedure.

A more comprehensive set of measures was introduced in Hungary in July 2013 in response to an increased number of asylum seekers. They not only reflect the legislative instruments of the second phase of the common European asylum system but are intended to improve the national asylum and reception system while addressing issues of possible abuse. While access to the labour market for asylum seekers has been improved, a new stricter detention regime is designed to discourage asylum-shopping. In parallel, a new refugee integration system, instituted in January 2014, provides a package of benefits, including language training and housing assistance.

In October 2013 Lithuania amended its asylum law to stipulate that an asylum seeker who has illegally entered the country or is illegally present in it may be detained for the purposes of establishing if there is a genuine case for consideration, or where the asylum seeker has not been granted temporary territorial asylum and there are grounds to believe that he/she may abscond in order to avoid return to a foreign country or expulsion from Lithuania.

Measures focused on young asylum seekers and unaccompanied minors

In the Netherlands, Spain, Norway and Austria the emphasis was on younger asylum seekers. In June 2013 the new Dutch policy regarding unaccompanied minors came into force, clarifying the conditions by which they are allowed to stay in the Netherlands. Spain has also taken steps (July 2014) to look after unaccompanied minors. A new protocol coordinates the intervention of all institutions and administrations involved at every stage of the process, in order to improve treatment and actions with respect to unaccompanied minors in the best interests of the child. It includes specific provisions on child asylum seekers and trafficking prevention measures. In June 2014 a change in Norway's immigration regulations gave children and their families, who previously had applied for asylum and who had stayed in the country without a resident permit for at least three years, the chance to gain residency if they fulfil certain requirements. Austria increased the age limit from 18 to 25 years for young asylum seekers to work (plus education and training) as an apprentice on May 2013.

Unaccompanied minors are a significant concern in Mexico where a special commission is proposed to take responsibility for them in response to a growing number attempting to transit through Mexico to the United States. Mexico is also developing an information system to track individual unaccompanied minors and house them in special centres.

Irregular migration

Measures to improve border control

Seven countries have introduced new border control measures. In December 2013 Australia tightened its regulations to prevent those arriving illegally by boat from gaining protection visas. A further development is the creation of a new Australian Border Force which comes into full operation in July 2015. Its main task is to counter the transnational criminal threat posed by drugs, guns and other illicit imports and facilitate the movement in and out of Australia of legitimate goods, services and people. It will include additional patrol vessels for coastal operations as well as new IT technology. New technology is also being deployed by Canada. Biometric information from certain visitors, students and temporary workers, along with measures for the faster removal of foreign criminals will help safeguard the country's border integrity. Meanwhile, in Switzerland a plan of action against human trafficking has been formulated through cooperation between the relevant government departments, cantons and NGOs. It comprises twenty-three measures which include increased awareness, punitive measures, protecting victims and prevention.

More physical control measures have been instituted by Turkey, Bulgaria, and Russia. In response to a much larger flow, in 2013 Turkey introduced stricter border control measures, as well as institutionalising ties with the EU's Frontex control procedures. In response to a wave of asylum seekers from Syria during 2013 turning up at the Bulgarian border, extra police were drafted to staff border control. A wall 30 km long at the border with Turkey was constructed aiming at limiting the illegal border crossings. Additional equipment for monitoring the border was installed. Seven new acceptance centres were constructed and the existing ones upgraded creating an extra 5 000 places. In 2013 Russia began to tighten up on the re-entry of foreigners who had previously violated either the criminal or administrative law, imposing a permanent re-entry ban.

Measures to encourage the return of migrants without entitlement to stay

Greece, the United Kingdom, Norway and the Netherlands have put more emphasis on requiring irregular migrants to return home. In an effort to persuade them to go, since February 2014 the Greek government has been able to detain them beyond 18 months – the previous maximum time – and prolong their detention indefinitely until they consent to return to their own countries. A new Act in the United Kingdom, coming into force in July 2014, gave the government more powers to remove those in the country unlawfully and limiting right to appeal. A novelty was that onus was put on landlords, banks and other agencies to undertake immigration status checks on clients. There were also new powers to curb marriages and civil partnerships of convenience. In 2014 Norway increased the penalty limit from six months in prison to a year for violating the re-entry ban on expelled foreigners. At the same time, more funds were allocated to increase the number of forced returns. New draft proposals in the Netherlands will introduce penalties for irregular migrants such as fines, eventual detention and a five-year entry ban for repeated detection.

Sanctions against illegal working

In seven countries illegal employment has been the focus of policy developments. In Luxembourg, in the context of transposition of the EU Directive against the employment of illegally staying non-EU nationals, an initiative was taken in 2013 to give regular status to irregular employed migrants who could prove they had been in the country for at least nine months prior to launching the request. Employers were thus given an opportunity to regularise irregular employees by a certain deadline without heavy sanctions. Direct action against employers who facilitate illegal working has also been taken by the Czech government. Guilty employers are no longer able to use the central vacancy system.

In April 2013 Spain adopted new measures to combat illegal employment and social security fraud, including improved operational action and information exchange between ministries. A new regulation of March 2014 clarifies the legal and human rights position for those placed in detention facilities, including the provision of health care, legal aid and interpreters. Sweden introduced additional control measures aiming to curb abuse of the labour immigration system and to prevent exploitation of migrant workers in August 2014. In 2013 Ireland amended its criminal legislation to cover trafficking for the purposes of forced begging. New legislation in Luxembourg in April 2014 reinforced the rights of victims of human trafficking with modifications to the penal code and previous laws concerning the protection of victims of trafficking.

More liberal measures have been announced in Poland, the United States and France. The new law on foreigners in Poland, implemented in 2014, introduced more liberal and simplified residence for several categories of foreigners, including some undocumented immigrants who had the right to apply for a temporary residence permit due to the need to respect the right to family life. It also modified the regulations on expulsion to encourage migrants to return voluntarily and to allow non-governmental organisations to have more participation in the process. Finally, the employer rather than the migrants now has the primary responsibility in cases of illegal employment. In November 2013, the U.S. Department of Homeland Security (DHS) announced a policy to allow "parole in place" for immediate family members of active-duty members of the Armed Forces and veterans. The policy allows unlawfully present spouses, children, and parents of military personnel and veterans to remain lawfully in the United States. New proposals regarding regularisation in France taking full effect in 2013 insist on the need to pay special attention to minors and those already vulnerable through domestic violence.

From November 2014 in Lithuania, entitlement to residence permits is dependent on being able to demonstrate lawful employment and accommodation.

Emigration and return

Return policies are still in vogue

Governments, mainly in central Europe, continue to support their diaspora communities and encourage their return. In its new legislation in 2013, foreigners of Polish origin who intend to settle down in Poland permanently were given the rights to apply directly for a permanent residence permit without fulfilling the conditions of prior residence in Poland. In March 2014 Israel announced a new programme to help returning residents and increased the budget to encourage their immigration. Migration policy guidelines from the Lithuanian government in January 2014 focus on measures to counter the factors promoting emigration and ways of utilising the skills and potential of Lithuanians living abroad. Romania's new National Strategy on Relationship with Romanians Abroad 2013-16 is intended to preserve, promote and develop the ethnic, linguistic, cultural and religious identity of diaspora communities through a series of targeted actions. Latvia introduced amendments to its repatriation law in 2013 to grant financial support for those in the diaspora willing to repatriate after living abroad for at least ten years.

Notes

1. This includes free movements between countries which are also EU members, as well as migration of EU nationals to Norway and Switzerland, and free movements between Australia and New Zealand in the framework of the Trans-Tasman Travel Arrangement.
2. The countries referred to as "settlement countries" are Australia, Canada, New Zealand and the United States.
3. This decrease in the United States is associated with the implementation of reforms aiming at reinforcing procedures in views to ensuring the integrity of the programmes, at controlling their impact on domestic workers as well as at protecting participants.

ANNEX 1.A1

Supplementary tables and figures

Table 1.A1.1. **Preliminary trends in international migration flows to OECD countries in 2014**

	2013	2014	Difference	% change	Period covered	Number of months
Australia	251 900	236 600	-15 300	-6	Jul-Jun	12
Austria	135 200	154 300	19 000	14	Jan-Dec	12
Belgium						
Canada	259 000	260 300	1 300	1	Jan-Dec	12
Chile	132 100	138 000	5 800	4	Jan-Dec	12
Czech Republic	27 800	38 500	10 600	38	Jan-Dec	12
Denmark	55 200	63 800	8 600	16	Jan-Dec	12
Estonia	1 600	1 300	-300	-18	Jan-Dec	12
Finland	17 500	18 000	500	3	Jan-Dec	12
France	172 100	177 300	5 200	3	Jan-Dec	12
Germany	1 045 900	1 251 200	205 200	20	Jan-Nov	11
Greece	16 800	14 000	-2 800	-17	Jan-Dec	12
Hungary	14 900	14 800	-200	-1	Jan-Dec	12
Iceland	3 900	4 300	400	11	Jan-Dec	12
Ireland	40 200	49 000	8 800	22	May-Apr	12
Israel	19 600	26 600	7 100	36	Jan-Dec	12
Italy	279 000	255 000	-24 000	-9	Jan-Dec	12
Japan	57 300	63 400	6 100	11	Jan-Dec	12
Korea	66 700	75 100	8 400	13	Jan-Dec	12
Luxembourg	19 800	21 000	1 200	6	Jan-Dec	12
Mexico						
Netherlands	137 200	153 500	16 400	12	Jan-Dec	12
New Zealand	39 000	44 000	5 000	13	Jul-Jun	12
Norway	66 900	61 400	-5 500	-8	Jan-Dec	12
Poland						
Portugal						
Slovak Republic						
Slovenia	23 900	20 300	-3 600	-15	Jan-Dec	12
Spain	248 400	265 800	17 400	7	Jan-Dec	12
Sweden	86 000	91 300	5 300	6	Jan-Dec	12
Switzerland	155 400	152 100	-3 300	-2	Jan-Dec	12
Turkey						
United Kingdom	450 000	558 000	108 000	24	Jan-Dec	12
United States	989 900	1 000 000	10 100	1	Oct-Sep	12

Notes: Data for France include only flows from non-EU countries.
Sources: *OECD International Migration Database* and national data sources.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933260936

Table 1.A1.2. **Permanent flows to OECD countries by category, 2013**

	Work	Accompanying family of workers	Family	Humanitarian	Other	Free movements
Australia	61 260	67 710	60 190	20 020	4 000	40 310
Austria	1 320	250	10 150	2 510	290	50 500
Belgium	7 790	..	22 270	2 990	..	27 260
Canada	64 720	83 320	79 590	30 950	40	..
Denmark	7 900	3 520	5 180	3 890	4 240	27 660
Finland	1 230	..	8 930	3 050	500	10 160
France	26 780	..	104 610	11 660	20 930	95 860
Germany	24 290	..	56 050	30 670	2 430	354 770
Ireland	2 680	330	13 910	180	..	23 100
Italy	73 140	2 510	78 550	8 830	4 920	77 880
Japan	25 050	..	20 640	160	11 470	..
Korea	1 580	5 090	31 410	40	28 570	..
Mexico	16 600	..	19 220	200	18 420	..
Netherlands	9 190	..	21 150	9 970	..	65 160
New Zealand	10 130	10 260	16 890	3 390	..	3 700
Norway	3 850	..	11 940	6 730	..	37 810
Portugal	6 390	3 240	9 610	140	3 240	10 650
Spain	39 760	..	41 250	460	8 760	105 060
Sweden	3 880	2 380	29 460	28 900	..	22 040
Switzerland	2 190	..	21 260	5 060	1 960	105 760
United Kingdom	86 440	37 580	27 140	20 720	20 740	98 340
United States	75 880	85 230	649 760	119 630	59 410	..

Source: OECD International Migration Database.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933260949

Figure 1.A1.1. **Changes in inflows of migrants by country of origin, selected OECD countries, 2003-2012 and 2013**

2013 top ten countries of origin as a percent of total inflows

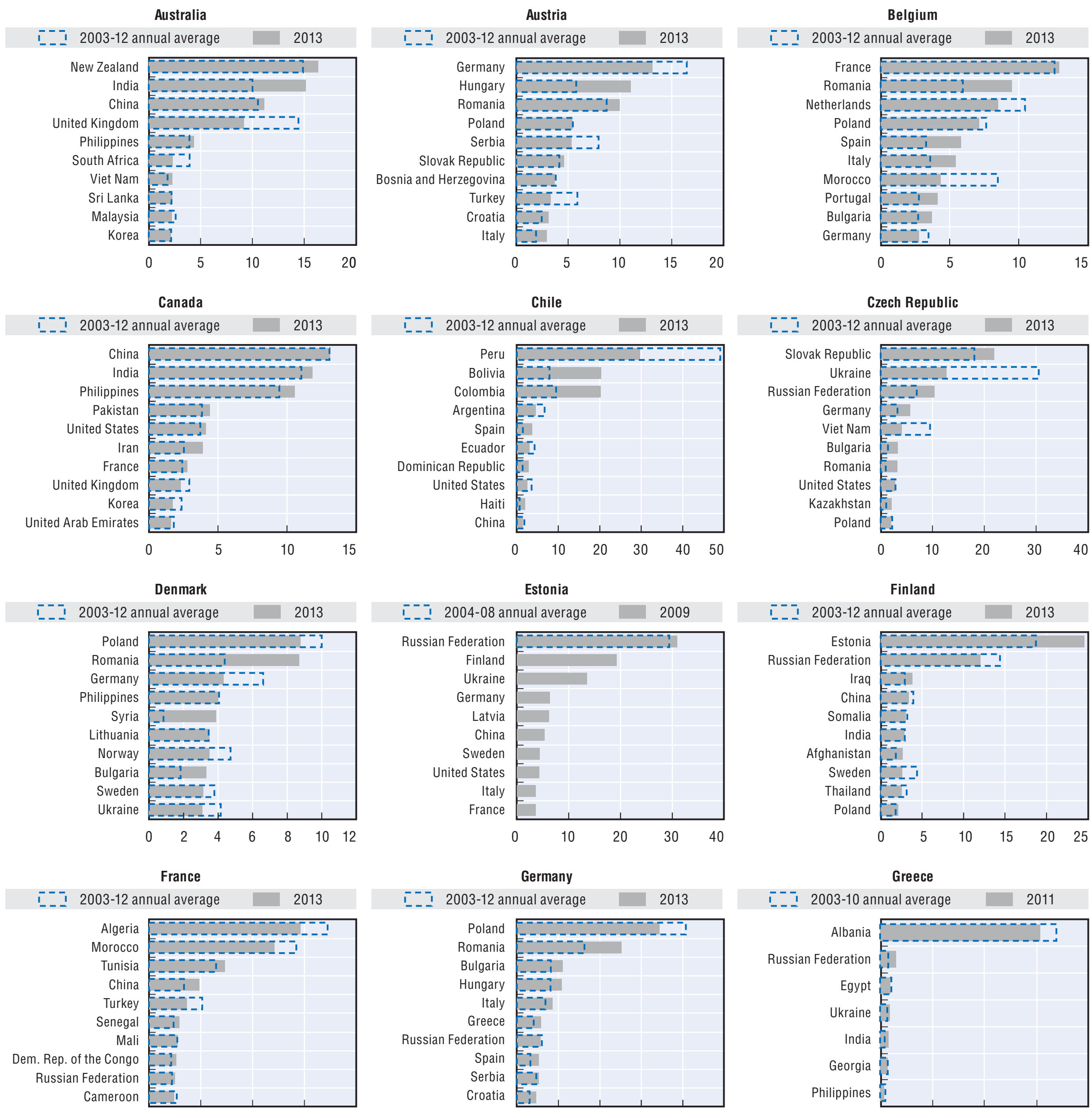
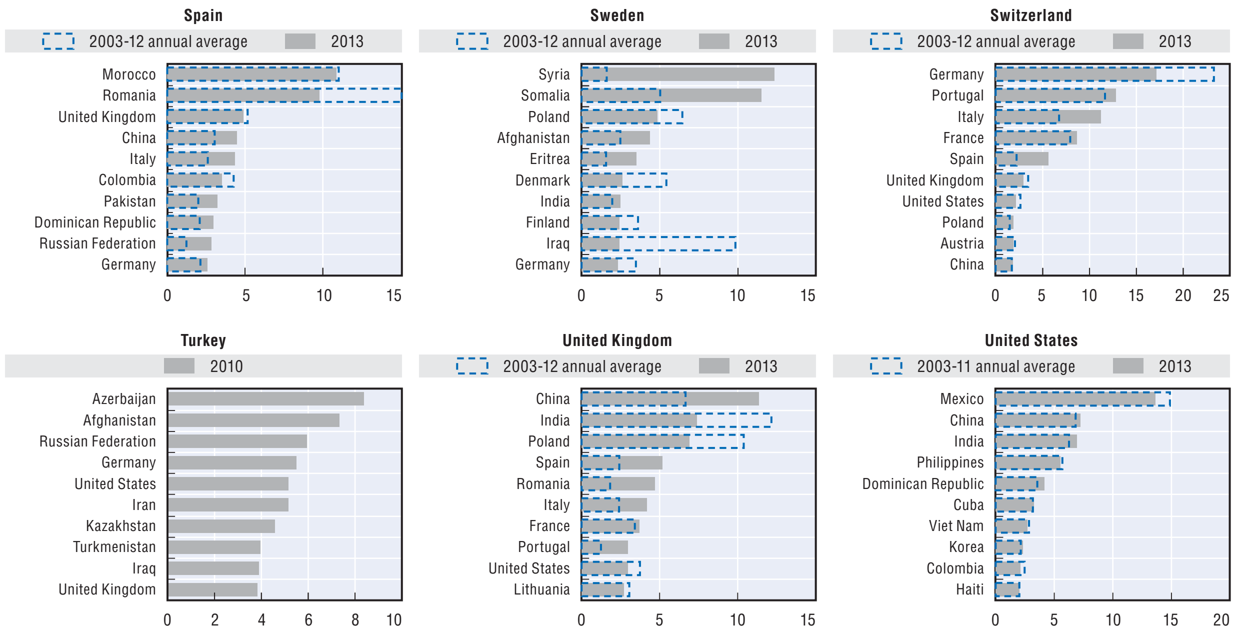


Figure 1.A1.1. **Changes in inflows of migrants by country of origin, selected OECD countries, 2003-2012 and 2013** *(cont.)*

2013 top ten countries of origin as a percent of total inflows

Figure 1.A1.1. **Changes in inflows of migrants by country of origin, selected OECD countries, 2003-2012 and 2013** *(cont.)*

2013 top ten countries of origin as a percent of total inflows



Source: *OECD International Migration Database.*

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