

## Chapter 1

# Recent developments in international migration movements and policies

*This chapter provides an overview of how international migration movements have evolved in OECD countries. After a quick glance at 2015 migration flow trends, it presents an analysis of the trends in permanent migration between 2007 and 2014, by country and by main category of migration – migration for work, family or humanitarian purposes, and migration within free movement areas. The next section covers temporary labour migration flows, paying particular attention to seasonal workers, posted workers and Working Holiday Makers. The chapter then takes up the dramatic rise in the number of asylum seekers in OECD countries and furnishes a brief overview of international student mobility, gender composition of flows by country of destination, size of foreign-born populations, and the acquisition of nationality in OECD countries. The chapter concludes with a policy section relating the main changes in countries' migration management frameworks, in particular in the European Union.*

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

In 2015, the overall growth rate of the gross domestic product (GDP) in the OECD area stood at 2%, a slight increase from 2014. Of 34 OECD member countries, 32 showed positive growth in 2015. Since the last quarter of 2013, the overall unemployment rate in the OECD area fell by over 1 percentage point to reach 6.6% by end-2015 – 6 million fewer unemployed in two years. This change applies to most countries, although its magnitude varies from one country to another. Seven countries have an unemployment rate that remains above 10%; this is also the case for the Eurozone as a whole. The macroeconomic environment and the improving employment situation constitute a relatively favourable context for labour migration.

This chapter first takes a look at these most recent trends, and then offers 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. Particular attention is paid to recent trends in asylum seekers, fuelled partly by the deteriorating security situation in Syria and Libya. The chapter then provides an overview of the size and composition of foreign-born populations, and acquisition of citizenship. The second part of this chapter is a policy section, which culls major recent policy developments 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 migrants, and revisions of asylum procedures and enforcement measures.

### **Main findings**

- Permanent migration flows to OECD countries amounted to 4.3 million entries in 2014 (+4% compared with 2013). According to preliminary data, they increased by around 10% in 2015.
- Humanitarian and free movement were the two migration categories on the rise in 2014 (+13% and +8%, respectively).
- Family migration and free movement migration each accounted for a third of the total in 2014.
- In 2014, international recruitment of seasonal workers increased in most countries outside the European Union, and in Poland.
- Poland has quickly become the leading destination in the OECD area for seasonal workers with 387 000 permits issued in 2014, which was more than twice the number of seasonal workers admitted to the United States that year.
- In 2014 intra-firm mobility and secondment of workers between countries of the European Union and EFTA rose by 17% and 38%, respectively.
- In 2014 Australia, the United States, New Zealand and Canada received over 440 000 young holiday workers (+4% compared to 2013), employed mainly in seasonal agricultural activities and in hotels and restaurants.

- In 2015 OECD countries recorded a number of asylum seekers unprecedented since World War II. Applications for asylum in the OECD area doubled that year, reaching 1.65 million.
- Syria is by far the main country of origin of asylum seekers, with 370 000 applications in 2015.
- Germany registered 440 000 asylum applications in 2015, accounting for one-quarter of all applications in the OECD area. Sweden received the highest number of applications in proportion to its population (1.6%).
- In 2013 there were almost 3 million international students enrolled in OECD countries, 23% of whom came from China.
- On average, international students make up 8% of total tertiary enrolment in OECD countries. This share rises to 13% at the master's level and to 22% at the doctoral level. Among international students, 55% of the doctoral graduates earned a degree in either science or engineering.
- In 2014, one in three new immigrants to the OECD was a citizen of another OECD country. Emigration of Romanian, Bulgarian, Italian and French citizens to OECD countries increased sharply in 2014.
- Eight OECD countries received more migrant women than migrant men in 2014.
- The total foreign-born population in OECD countries stood at 120 million persons in 2014.
- The increase in the foreign-born population accounted for approximately three-quarters of the total population increase in EU/EFTA countries over the period.
- In 2014, almost two million people acquired the nationality of an OECD country. This represents an average of 2.5% of foreign populations in OECD countries.

## Recent trends in international migration

### ***Migration trends in 2015 based on preliminary and partial data***

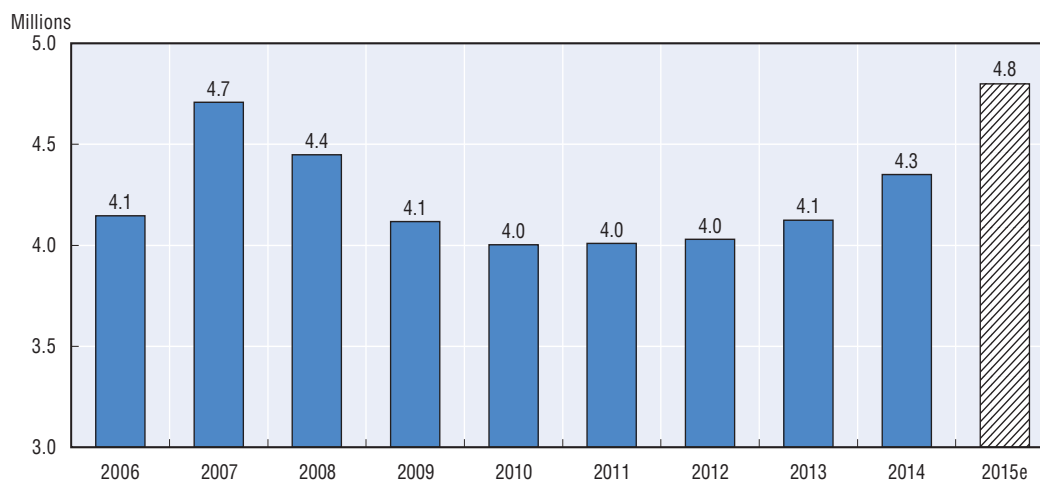
The conflict in Syria and the subsequent refugee crisis, which worsened dramatically in 2015, had an unprecedented impact on migration flows to some OECD countries. This makes it difficult to discuss global trends for the area as a whole. However, given the importance of these events, it is necessary to analyse preliminary and/or partial data that are available for a number of countries (Annex Table 1.A1.1).

Germany is more than ever at the centre of the picture, with 50% more new migrants in 2015 than in 2014 – which was already a peak year – according to estimations by the German national statistical office. In particular, 430 000 Syrians, 150 000 Afghans and 120 000 Iraqis appeared in the German asylum pre-registration system “EASY” in 2015. With recognition rates in 2015 close to 100% for Syrians and Iraqis, and 70% for Afghans, up to 650 000 people from these three countries who have entered Germany in 2015 have been, or will eventually be, granted refugee status. German national statistics for 2015 show that migration from within the EU also rose in 2015, by 4%. These statistics include temporary and permanent movements, but applying this increase to the permanent inflows registered in 2014, one can imagine between 450 000 and 500 000 new permanent entries from other EU countries. With at least 1 million new permanent entries in 2015 (although not all will be registered as such in 2015), Germany stood at comparable immigration levels as the United States, if not higher.

Besides Germany, half of the countries for which data are available received a sharply higher number of migrants in 2015 than in 2014 and among them, many EU countries such as Austria (+12%), Denmark (+16%), Ireland (+17%), Luxembourg (+8%), the Netherlands (+13%) and Sweden (+7%). Preliminary migration figures also show rising flows in Israel (+7%), New Zealand (+14%), Japan (+10%) and Korea (+7%). After several years of increase, inflows to France (flows coming from third-countries only), Switzerland and to the United Kingdom were stable in 2015, at high levels. The only countries recording lower flow levels in 2015 than in 2014 are Finland and Norway.

Preliminary data indicate that, overall, migration flows to the OECD area are at their highest level in 2015, with 4.8 million new permanent entries, a +10% increase compared to 2014 (Figure 1.1).


Figure 1.1. **Permanent migration flows to OECD countries, 2006-15**



Notes: Data for 2006 to 2014 is the sum of standardised figures for countries where they are available (accounting for 95% of the total), and unstandardised figures for other countries.

Source: OECD calculations based on national statistics.

e Data relating to 2015 are estimated based on growth rates published in official national statistics.

StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933395282>

### **Trends in migration flows by country of destination and by category in 2014**

Permanent migration to OECD countries increased by approximately 4% in 2014<sup>1</sup> (Table 1.1). This is the second consecutive rise, to 4.3 million new migrants – the highest level since 2008. However, this increase largely had to do with Germany, which contributed to about two-thirds of the growth. The United States remains the main OECD destination country in 2014, with one million new migrants (+3%), and Germany kept its second place with more than half a million new permanent migrants in 2014 (+23%). The evolution observed in Germany is partly due to the increase in migration from other EU/EFTA countries (+80 000, +23%) and only marginally to the increase in the number of refugees (+11 000, +36%). Permanent migration to the United Kingdom also increased – by 7% – but remained below the average annual flow observed since 2007, at 310 000 persons. After six years of decline, permanent migration to Spain rebounded above 200 000 in 2014.

Among the other major destination countries, in absolute terms inflows were stable at 260 000 in both Canada and France, and fell in Australia (-9%) and Italy (-19%). In Italy, which experienced a third year in a row of weak economic growth, humanitarian migration


Table 1.1. **Inflows of permanent immigrants into selected OECD countries, 2007-14**

	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	Variation (%)		
									2014/13	2013/12	2014/07
<b>Standardised statistics</b>											
United States	1 052 400	1 107 100	1 130 200	1 041 900	1 061 400	1 031 000	989 900	1 016 500	+3	-4	-3
Germany	232 900	228 300	201 500	222 500	290 800	399 900	468 800	574 500	+23	+17	+147
United Kingdom	343 300	317 300	359 200	394 800	320 100	283 600	290 600	311 500	+7	+2	-9
Canada	236 800	247 200	252 200	280 700	248 700	257 900	258 600	259 300	+0	+0	+10
France	206 200	214 100	213 200	224 300	231 200	251 200	259 400	258 900	-0	+3	+26
Australia	191 900	205 900	221 000	208 500	219 500	245 100	253 500	231 000	-9	+3	+20
Italy	571 900	490 400	390 300	355 700	317 300	258 400	251 400	204 100	-19	-3	-64
Spain	645 600	386 700	315 300	280 400	273 200	196 300	180 400	183 700	+2	-8	-72
Switzerland	122 200	139 100	114 800	115 000	124 300	125 600	136 200	134 600	-1	+8	+10
Netherlands	76 800	87 000	87 400	93 800	104 200	99 900	109 200	124 100	+14	+9	+62
Belgium	83 100	95 000	95 500	96 700	95 600	99 000	93 300	93 100	-0	-6	+12
Sweden	74 400	71 000	71 500	65 600	71 800	81 700	86 700	84 500	-3	+6	+14
Korea	44 200	39 000	36 700	51 100	56 900	55 600	66 700	75 700	+13	+20	+71
Austria	47 100	49 500	45 700	45 900	55 200	70 800	68 300	74 600	+9	-4	+58
Japan	108 500	97 700	65 500	55 700	59 100	66 800	63 600	63 500	-0	-5	-41
Denmark	30 300	45 600	38 400	42 400	41 300	43 800	52 400	55 500	+6	+20	+83
Norway	43 900	49 300	48 900	56 800	61 600	59 900	60 300	55 000	-9	+1	+25
New Zealand	51 700	51 200	47 500	48 500	44 500	42 700	44 400	49 500	+11	+4	-4
Mexico	6 800	15 100	23 900	26 400	21 700	21 000	54 400	43 500	-20	..	..
Czech Republic	100 600	76 200	38 200	28 000	20 700	28 600	27 800	38 500	+38	-3	-62
Portugal	42 800	71 000	57 300	43 800	36 900	30 700	27 000	35 900	+33	-12	-16
Ireland	120 400	56 700	30 000	26 800	25 600	26 800	28 300	32 800	+16	+6	-73
Finland	17 500	19 900	18 100	18 200	20 400	23 300	23 900	23 600	-1	+3	+35
Luxembourg	..	..	..	..	..	..	18 000	18 800	+4		
<b>Total number of persons</b>											
<b>All countries</b>	<b>4 451 300</b>	<b>4 160 300</b>	<b>3 902 300</b>	<b>3 823 500</b>	<b>3 802 000</b>	<b>3 799 600</b>	<b>3 913 100</b>	<b>4 042 700</b>	<b>+3</b>	<b>+3</b>	<b>-10</b>
Settlement countries	1 532 800	1 611 400	1 650 900	1 579 600	1 574 100	1 576 700	1 546 400	1 556 300	+1	-2	+2
EU included above	2 592 900	2 208 700	1 961 600	1 938 900	1 904 300	1 894 000	1 985 500	2 114 100	+6	+5	-18
Of which: free movements	1 215 700	900 000	734 900	739 300	831 700	926 200	1 002 936	1 114 244	+11	+8	-8
<b>Annual percent change</b>											
<b>All countries</b>		-7	-5	-2	-0	-0	+3	+3			
Settlement countries		+5	+2	-4	-0	+0	-2	+1			
EU included above		-15	-11	-1	-2	-1	+5	+6			
Of which: free movements		-26	-18	+1	+12	+11	+8	+11			
<b>National statistics (unstandardised)</b>											
Chile	79 400	68 400	57 100	63 900	76 300	105 100	132 100	138 000	+4	+26	+74
Poland	40 600	41 800	41 300	41 100	41 300	47 100	46 600	60 000	+29	-1	+48
Hungary	22 600	35 500	25 600	23 900	22 500	20 300	21 300	26 000	+22	+5	+15
Israel	18 100	13 700	14 600	16 600	16 900	16 600	16 900	24 100	+43	+2	+33
Greece	46 300	41 500	35 800	35 400	33 000	32 000	31 300	29 500	-6	-2	-36
Slovenia	30 500	43 800	24 100	11 200	18 000	17 300	15 700	18 400	+17	-9	-40
Iceland	9 300	7 500	3 400	3 000	2 800	2 800	3 900	4 300	+10	+39	-54
Slovak Republic	14 800	16 500	14 400	12 700	8 200	2 900	2 500	2 400	-4	-14	-84
Estonia	2 000	1 900	2 200	1 200	1 700	1 100	1 600	1 300	-19	+45	-35
Turkey	..	..	..	29 900	..	..	..	..			
<b>Total (except Turkey)</b>	<b>263 600</b>	<b>270 600</b>	<b>218 500</b>	<b>209 000</b>	<b>220 700</b>	<b>245 200</b>	<b>271 900</b>	<b>304 000</b>	<b>+12</b>	<b>+11</b>	<b>+15</b>
<b>Percent change</b>	<b>+23</b>	<b>+3</b>	<b>-19</b>	<b>-4</b>	<b>+6</b>	<b>+11</b>	<b>+11</b>	<b>+12</b>			

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, notably for Belgium and France.

.. Information not available.

Source: OECD International Migration Database.

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is the only category rising. Other notable evolutions in 2014 include sharp rises in Korea (+13%), Japan (+11%) and Austria (+9%), and a small drop in Switzerland following four years of increase. Immigration flows to Chile – for which standardised data are not available – have been growing since 2009 to reach 140 000 in 2014. According to national data, migration flows to Poland rose sharply to reach a record level (60 000), and Israel received more immigrants than in any of the past ten years due to sharp increases of migration flows from France and Ukraine (+4 000 each).

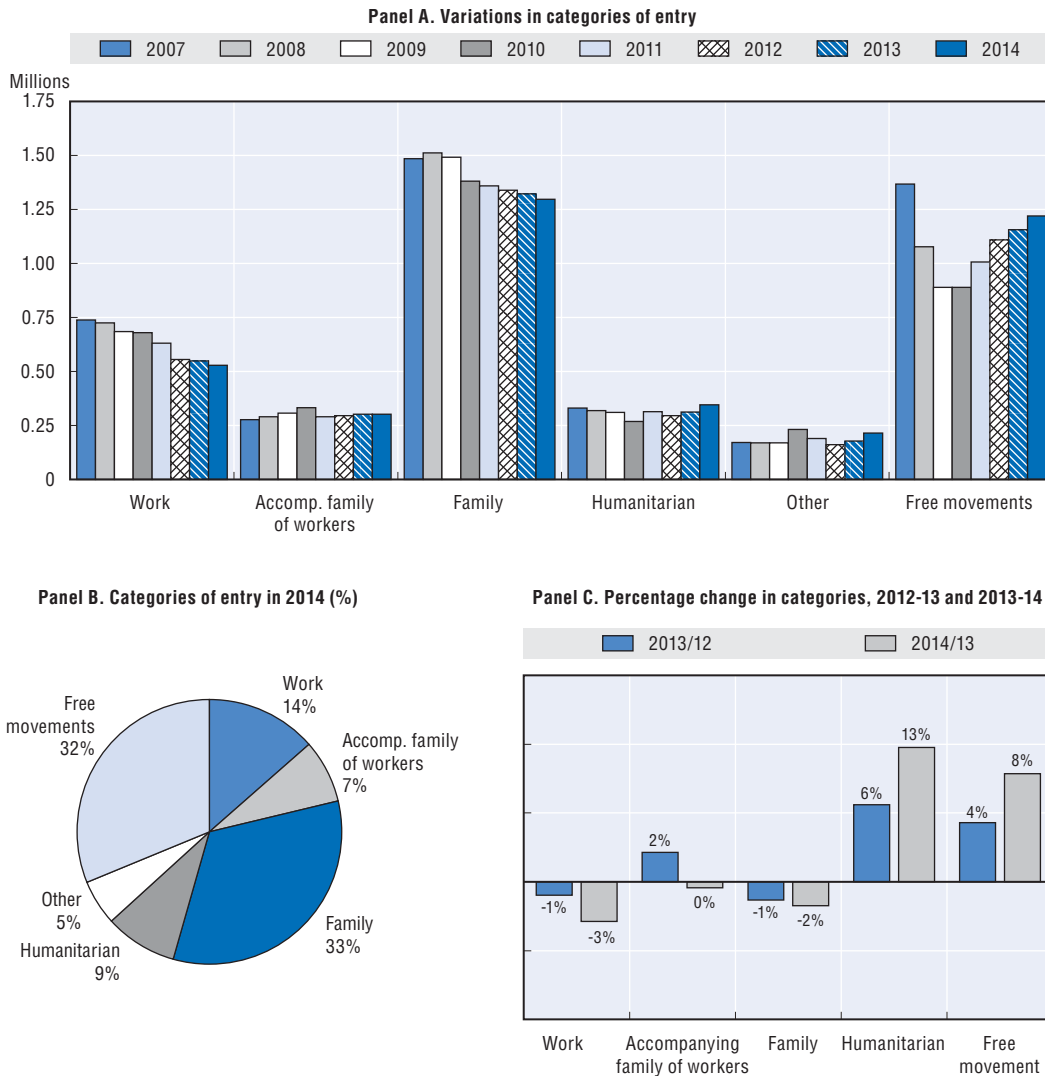
Overall, permanent labour migration to OECD countries declined again in 2014, by 3% (Figure 1.2, Panels A and C). However, this overall figure can be seen as the end effect of a 9% drop in the EU/EFTA countries and a 5% increase in the non-EU/EFTA OECD countries altogether. In particular, Italy (-33%) and, to a lesser extent, Spain (-20%) pulled the overall figure on permanent labour migration down. In the case of Italy, the sharp fall is explained partly by administrative factors.<sup>2</sup> Not taking Italy into account, labour migration flows to the remaining OECD countries would be up by +2% and those to the EU/EFTA would be stable. In 2014, two-thirds of OECD countries received more permanent migrant workers than in 2013, notably France (+25%) and Canada (+20%). Among other OECD countries, the United States and United Kingdom register a significant decline (-6%).

Family migration is another category that has been steadily declining since 2008. In 2014, the number of family migrants dropped by -1.7% from 2013. As a result, they now represent only 33% of total permanent migration to OECD countries (Figure 1.2, Panel B), whereas they had accounted for almost 40% in 2009. However, family migration increased in many countries in 2014, such as Germany (+13%) and Sweden (+7%). At the other end, Italy (-24%) and Canada (-16%) displayed sharp decreases. Despite a small decline in 2014, the United States remains by far the largest destination country for family migrants, with 650 000 (half the total), followed by France (100 000) and Canada (66 000).


In terms of migration, humanitarian issues drew most of the OECD countries' attention in 2015. However, already in 2014 humanitarian migration was the fastest growing category in the OECD area, with almost 13% more new refugees recognised than in 2013. In total, OECD countries welcomed 350 000 refugees – the highest level since 2006 – of whom 135 000 in the United States and 160 000 in the OECD EU countries. However, their share among all migrants remained relatively small (9%). Most OECD countries received more humanitarian migrants in 2014, with the highest increases (in absolute terms) observed in the United States (+14 000), Germany (+12 000), Sweden (+7 000) and Italy (+6 000). Australia, Austria, Canada, Norway and the United Kingdom were the only countries where humanitarian migration declined in 2014.

In 2014, one in three migration movements occurred within areas of free circulation, mainly the EU. This type of migration was as frequent as family migration. Migration movements within the EU/EFTA increased by 9%. Germany, which received more than 400 000 EU/EFTA citizens in 2014, accounts for most of the observed increase, which is limited to 3% for this category in the rest of the OECD area. The second favourite destination country for intra-EU/EFTA migrants is France, followed by Italy, Spain and the United Kingdom. While the last two attracted more citizens of other EU/EFTA countries in 2014 than in 2013, France and Italy have experienced a sharp decrease in migration from other EU/EFTA countries.

Other OECD countries are part of free circulation areas. In South America, Chile for example is an associate country of the Southern Common Market (Mercosur). The Mercosur Residence Agreement, signed by the six full member countries and six associate

Figure 1.2. **Permanent migration flows to OECD countries by category of entry, 2007-14**

Source: OECD International Migration Database.

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countries, covers all of South America but French Guyana. This “free establishment area” displays a number of similarities with the free movement of persons in the European Union (see Box 1.1). Chile is also one of the founding members of the Pacific Alliance in 2011 – together with Colombia, Mexico and Peru – which establishes among its priorities the facilitation of mobility. In 2012, Chile received 15 600 migrants under one of these international agreement titles (OAS/OECD, 2015). Immigrants holding this kind of title represent 16% of the total annual inflows. The countries of origin of the vast majority of immigrants to Chile are Peru, Bolivia, Colombia and Argentina, which are part of the Mercosur Residence Agreement.

On average, OECD countries received seven new migrants per thousand inhabitants in 2014 (Figure 1.3). The OECD country that stands out most when migration flows are expressed as a ratio to total population is Luxembourg, with the equivalent of almost 4% of

### Box 1.1. Free establishment in the European Union and in Mercosur

The right of free movement within the European Union is not unique to that region. A similar right has been established for the countries of South America in the context of the Mercosur trade agreement (Acosta Acarazo and Geddes, 2014).

Mercosur (from the Spanish *Mercado Común del Sur*) was established by the Treaty of Asunción (Paraguay) in 1991 with the objective of encouraging the free movement of goods, services and factors of production throughout its member states. The current membership consists of Argentina, Bolivia, Brazil, Paraguay, Uruguay and Venezuela, with Chile, Colombia, Ecuador, Guyana, Peru and Suriname as associate members. With the exception of the French overseas department of Guyana, the entire South American continent now has links with Mercosur. It is now, at least in principle, a full customs union and trading bloc. Associate members are not part of the customs union and do not have voting rights, but have preferential trade access. The trade and commercial aspects of Mercosur will not be considered further here; the focus will be on the provisions for migration between member and associate member states.

The Mercosur Residence Agreement was adopted in 2002 to address intra-regional migration, but was only implemented in 2009, because of national delays related to putting in place the formalities necessary to make it operational. The agreement covers all states of Mercosur, whether they are full or associate members. Under this agreement, a national of any signatory state can establish residence in any other state covered by the agreement, subject only to the absence of a criminal record over the previous five years. A document for this purpose is generally available from the police of the origin country. Persons in an irregular situation may also apply for temporary residence. The residence permit granted is for two years. Holders of the temporary permit must apply for permanent residence 90 days before its expiration, and be able to show legitimate means of livelihood for themselves and accompanying family members. Those not applying become subject to the immigration laws of the country of residence. Note that border controls are not eliminated by the agreement and that persons moving under its provisions are still required to obtain a residence permit. The mobility provisions are thus perhaps more accurately described as the right of “free establishment” rather than “free movement”.

By contrast, nationals of a member state of the European Union, in order to establish residence in another member state, must either have a job or sufficient resources and health insurance to ensure that they and their families do not become a burden on member states. No residence permit is required, although member states may require that persons moving under the provision register with the authorities. Migrants can be expelled on grounds of public security or public health, but the migrant is not required to demonstrate the absence of such grounds upon entry, nor indeed do previous criminal convictions constitute automatic grounds for expulsion. After five years of uninterrupted residence, European Union nationals are granted the right of permanent residence, subject to no conditions whatsoever. In addition, there are no border controls in those member states covered by the Schengen Agreement. The migration regime can thus be described as “free movement” within Schengen countries and free establishment outside of Schengen.

In summary then, Mercosur imposes essentially no conditions on a temporary stay but a means-of-livelihood requirement for a permanent stay, whereas in the European Union the reverse holds.



### Box 1.1. Free establishment in the European Union and in Mercosur (cont.)

A second significant difference between free establishment under Mercosur and the European Union concerns enforcement mechanisms. In the European Union, the right of free movement is a fundamental right guaranteed by European citizenship, which was established under the Maastricht Treaty of 1992. Enforcement proceedings can be launched by the European Commission and there is a court (the Court of Justice of the European Union) with jurisdiction in cases involving the right of free establishment.

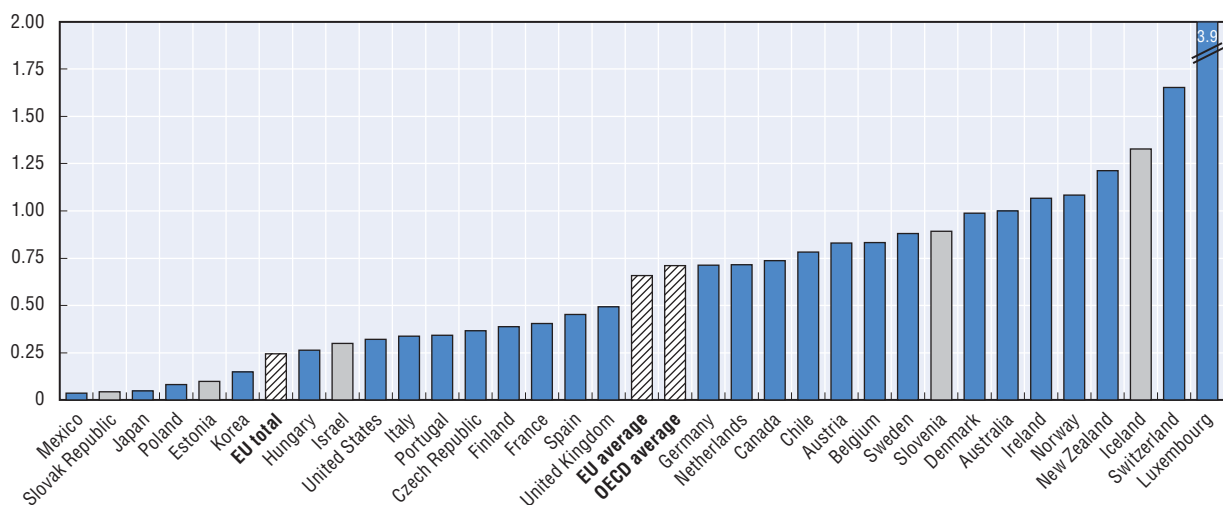
By contrast, there are no formal means for enforcement of the free establishment right for nationals of Mercosur signatory countries, and no sanctions for violations. The rights are “guaranteed” by the requirement of reciprocity among signatory countries; disagreements are addressed by discussions at the Mercosur Specialised Migration Forum, which is made up of senior migration officials from signatory countries and meets at least annually. As a result of the lack of formal enforcement mechanisms, implementation of the residence agreement is not entirely uniform across Mercosur countries. Some impose higher permit fees, some offer better conditions than the residence agreement, and others apply it only to nationals of a reduced group of countries. Recently, Colombia suspended Mercosur visas and permits for nationals of Venezuela, in retaliation for the fact that no such permits were being issued to Colombians by Venezuela.

Although implementation of the Mercosur Residence Agreement seems rather variable at the current time, establishment of a continental citizenship is planned for 2021. This will likely result in both harmonisation of the conditions of movement across countries, and firmer legal guarantees of the right of free establishment to nationals of South American countries.

Finally, both the Mercosur Residence Agreement and the free movement of persons in the European Union grant equal treatment with nationals of the destination country with respect to social, cultural and economic rights. They also both ensure access to the labour market and to social and tax advantages, subject to the conditions of the residence permit.

Figure 1.3. Permanent migration flows into selected OECD countries, 2014

Percentage of the total population



Notes: Data for countries in grey are not standardised. EU average is the average of EU countries presented in the chart. ‘EU total’ represents the entries of third-country nationals into EU countries for which standardised data are available, as a percentage of their total population.

Source: OECD International Migration Database.

StatLink <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933395301>

its population entering every year. Switzerland follows with 1.7%; these two countries have a very large share of migrants coming from other EU/EFTA countries. Most other countries with ratios above average are settlement countries like New Zealand, Australia and Canada, and northern European countries.

At the other end of the spectrum, ratios below one per thousand are found in large countries with little immigration such as Mexico and Japan, as well as some eastern European countries. This ratio is also very low for the United States (3.2 per thousand) and for the EU taken as whole – i.e. taking into account entries solely from outside the EU – with 2.5 per thousand.

### **Temporary labour migration**

Temporary labour migration concerns workers of all skill levels and across a very wide range of categories. In non-European OECD countries, temporary labour migration has returned to its level before the 2007/08 economic crisis, and in some cases exceeded it. The intra-European mobility of workers continues to rise and concerns various types of movement: postings, cross-border work, temporary work, etc.

### **Seasonal workers**

Seasonal labour migration, which is often linked to agricultural activities, can also cover non-farm activities with seasonal peaks, especially those linked to hospitality (e.g. hotels, catering, retail, and other tourist-related service businesses). Residence permits for seasonal work are issued only to workers in the agricultural sector in Canada (Seasonal Agricultural Worker Programme), Finland (berry picking), Sweden (also covering the forest sector) and New Zealand (Recognised Seasonal Employer Programme).

Changes in flows of foreign seasonal workers are closely linked to changes in economic activity. These workers are often from neighbouring countries, or countries which have signed a bilateral agreement with the host country. In non-European OECD countries, the decline in inflows after the global economic crisis in 2007 was followed by an upturn, with volumes in 2014 in some countries outstripping the pre-crisis level. In the United States, seasonal migration in the agricultural sector (H-2A visas) remained above its 2007 level and has even increased in recent years, to a record 89 000 workers in 2014. The number of visas issued to non-farm seasonal workers (H-2B visas) also rose to 68 000 in 2014, well below the historical peak of 2007 (130 000). Unlike H-2A permits, H-2B visas are issued on a quota basis. Most seasonal workers in the United States come from Mexico (85%), with the other main countries of origin being Jamaica (4%), Guatemala (3%) and South Africa (2%). The maximum authorised length of stay in the United States under such permits is three years.


Canada, which ranks second in terms of destination countries for seasonal workers, admitted 29 000 seasonal workers in 2014, a figure in constant progression and currently 28% higher than the pre-crisis level. In Australia, the Seasonal Worker Programme replaced, in 2012, the Pacific Seasonal Worker Pilot Scheme, originally launched in 2008 to meet objectives including the economic development of the Pacific island nations and Timor-Leste. It allows for the recruitment of low skilled workers in nine countries, mainly for the horticultural sector. Most seasonal labour requirements are in fact already satisfied by the large number of Working Holiday Makers (see Table 1.2) and inflows of seasonal workers into Australia are below the established ceiling, even if they are visibly increasing. Seasonal workers in New Zealand are also mainly from the Pacific Islands – including Fiji

Table 1.2. **Workers who obtained a seasonal work permit by main destination country, 2007-14**

		2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2014/2013	2014/2007	
		Thousands									Change (%)	
<b>Seasonal workers to main non-EU OECD countries</b>	United States (agricultural workers)	51	64	60	56	55	65	74	89	+20	+76	
	United States (non agricultural workers)	130	94	45	47	51	50	58	68	+18	-47	
	Canada	23	28	23	24	25	25	28	29	+5	+28	
	Mexico	28	23	31	29	28	23	15	15	+2	-45	
	New Zealand	7	10	8	8	8	8	8	9	+10	+41	
	Australia	-	0	0	0	1	1	2	3	+58	-	
	Norway	3	2	2	2	3	2	2	3	+1	-1	
	<b>Total</b>	<b>240</b>	<b>223</b>	<b>169</b>	<b>166</b>	<b>170</b>	<b>176</b>	<b>187</b>	<b>217</b>	<b>+16</b>	<b>-10</b>	
<b>Seasonal workers to EU countries (excluding EU workers)</b>	Poland	22	157	188	180	260	144	236	387	+64	+1677	
	Finland	14	12	13	12	12	14	14	14	+0	+0	
	Austria	42	44	40	41	21	16	15	7	-53	-83	
	France	19	12	7	6	6	6	6	7	+8	-66	
	Italy	65	42	35	28	15	10	8	5	-36	-93	
	Spain	16	42	6	9	5	4	3	3	-2	-80	
	Sweden	2	4	7	5	4	6	6	3	-51	+22	
	Belgium	17	20	10	6	6	10	11	0	-100	-100	
	United Kingdom	17	16	20	20	20	21	20	0	Programme discontinued		
	Germany	300	285	295	297	168	4	0	0	Programme discontinued		
<b>Total</b>	<b>513</b>	<b>633</b>	<b>621</b>	<b>602</b>	<b>516</b>	<b>234</b>	<b>318</b>	<b>426</b>	<b>+34</b>	<b>-17</b>		
<b>Total</b>	<b>753</b>	<b>856</b>	<b>790</b>	<b>769</b>	<b>686</b>	<b>410</b>	<b>505</b>	<b>643</b>	<b>+27</b>	<b>-15</b>		

Notes: With the exception of France where multi-year permits are given, data do not relate to the actual number of entries, but to the number of workers who were granted a permit. The data for France consider seasonal workers who change employer to be a "new worker". Free access to the labour market has been progressively given to new EU member countries and therefore these series do not cover the same set of origin countries since 2007. Figures may include foreigners already present in the country.

Source: OECD International Migration Database.

StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933396226>

since 2014 – and work in horticulture and vineyards. A labour market test has not prevented inflows from nearing the ceiling, which itself was raised from 8 000 to 9 000 in 2014. In Mexico, seasonal workers, from Guatemala and Belize, are issued a border work permit to carry out agricultural work, mainly in Chiapas. This permit was relatively successful, with around 70 000 issued at its peak in 2000, but the region's loss of competitiveness, the decline in coffee prices and a series of natural disasters caused the number of permits issued to fall to only 15 000 in 2014.

Unlike these countries, most European Union members saw a decrease in the number of permits issued to seasonal workers between 2013 and 2014, due mainly to the fact that Bulgarian and Romanian nationals no longer needed work permits as of 1 January 2014. With the exception of Croatian nationals, who are still subject to transitional restrictions in some countries, seasonal work permits are now only required for non-EU citizens. Poland is a notable exception to the trend, as inflows of seasonal workers are increasing rapidly (+64% between 2013 and 2014) and the country alone hosted 387 000 seasonal workers in 2014; i.e. 91% of the total European Union inflow of seasonal workers that year. Following its accession to the European Union in 2004, Poland enjoyed a period of strong economic growth which led to labour shortages in agriculture, construction and the manufacturing industry.

The Polish authorities responded to this by creating a fast-track procedure allowing employers to recruit non-EU citizens on a temporary basis. Since 2006, Ukrainian, Belarussian and Russian nationals can be employed as seasonal workers in Poland for a maximum of six months in any consecutive 12-month period. This procedure was extended to Moldovans and Georgians in 2009, and Armenians in 2014 but is still mainly used by Ukrainians (96%), 20% of whom are already in Poland under another type of visa at the time of their recruitment.

Most other European Union countries have seen a sharp decrease in the number of seasonal work permits issued. Between 2012 and 2014, Austria adjusted its ceilings on certain categories of seasonal workers three times as a result of the full opening of the labour market to the inhabitants of States which joined the European Union between 2004 and 2007. The fall in the number of permits issued is also due to the fact that Spain and Italy, whose agricultural and construction sectors employed a large number of workers from non-EU States, have not completely recovered from the 2007/08 crisis. Italy also capped seasonal inflows at the height of the crisis in 2012.

Inflows of seasonal workers into Belgium are virtually non-existent. Germany, which only accepted seasonal workers from other EU countries, stopped issuing permits after 2013, which was also the year in which the United Kingdom terminated its programme.

The main flows of seasonal workers originating from outside EU the are from the Russian Federation to Finland, from Ukraine and Kosovo to Austria, from Morocco and Tunisia to France, from India, Morocco and Albania to Italy, and from Morocco to Spain. In Sweden however, where incoming seasonal workers come almost entirely from Thailand for crop picking, the halving of the number of seasonal workers between 2013 and 2014 was for the most part due to tighter controls on employers, notably in terms of respecting salary payments. The number of seasonal workers in Norway has remained stable at around 2 500 a year, over one third of whom are from Viet Nam.

### ***Intra-company transfers***

Mobility of staff between business divisions is becoming increasingly important for employers. Corresponding residence permits allow a company's workers and managers to spend a limited period of time in foreign subsidiaries or at the headquarters. The highest demand for these permits comes from the services sector. Under international trade rules, States have to admit these temporary workers but the rules differ on how to obtain a work permit. The United Kingdom, for example, imposes a minimum wage requirement, and in Australia the issuance of a visa is conditional upon prior labour market testing, the only exception being for heads of companies. The main destination of intra-company transfers is the United States, followed by the United Kingdom and Canada (Table 1.3). Increases, sometimes substantial, in this type of movement have been observed in most countries for which data are available.

### ***Workers on postings in the European Union***

In the European Union, under the Directive concerning the posting of workers (1996), companies are allowed to "post" workers to other countries. In this case, employees are subject to the labour law of the country of posting but social security contributions are paid to their resident country of origin. Between 2010 and 2014, there was a 38% increase in the number of posted workers (Figure 1.4) and a 44% increase in the number of postings.

Table 1.3. **Intra-company transfers to the main OECD destinations, 2007-14**

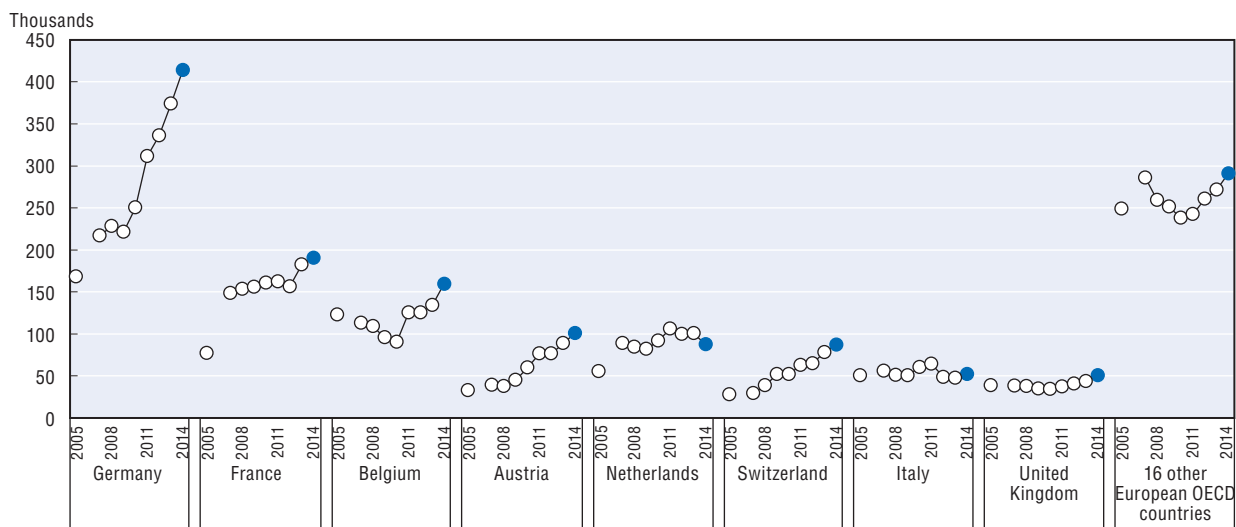
	Number of permits issued								2014/2013	2014/2007
	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014		
	Thousands								Change (%)	
United States	84.5	84.1	64.7	74.7	70.7	62.4	66.7	71.5	+7	-15
United Kingdom	..	..	13.2	17.5	21.0	22.8	25.8	28.0	+9	+112
Canada	9.2	10.5	10.1	13.6	13.5	13.6	14.0	15.6	+12	+69
Germany	5.4	5.7	4.4	5.9	7.1	7.2	7.8	9.4	+20	+73
Australia	6.9	6.0	6.0	8.2	10.1	8.9	..	7.8	..	+13
Japan	7.2	7.3	5.2	5.8	5.3	6.1	6.2	7.2	+15	+1
Ireland	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.6	+42	+50
Austria	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.2	..	0.2	0.2	+0	+47
Luxembourg	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	0.2	..	..
France	1.0	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	+41	-85
<b>Total</b>			<b>(104)</b>	<b>(126)</b>	<b>(128)</b>	<b>(122)</b>	<b>(121)</b>	<b>141</b>	<b>+17</b>	<b>+36</b>

Notes: Not including transfers within the European Economic Area (EEA) as they do not require a work permit. The 2014/07 evolution for the total and the United Kingdom corresponds to the 2014/2009 evolution. Some variations of the total for the period 2009-13 might be explained by gaps in the country series.

.. Information not available.

Source: OECD International Migration Database.

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Figure 1.4. **Evolution of the number of posted workers by receiving European OECD country, 2005-14**

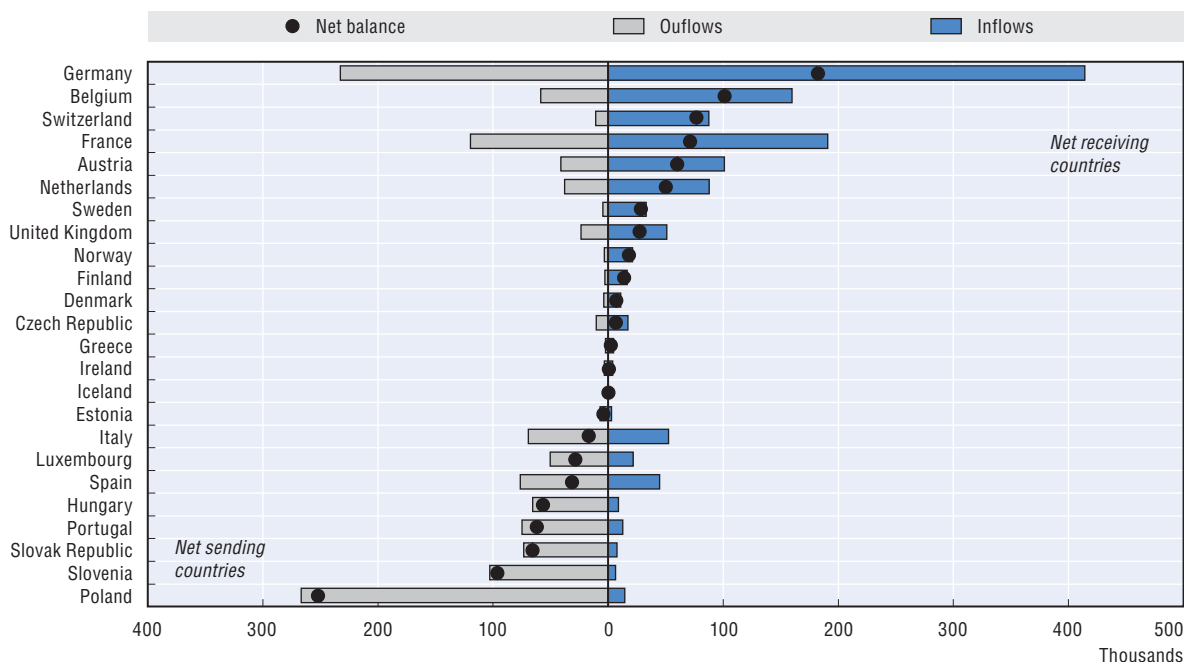
Note: Numbers are based on issuance of E101 forms and, from 1 May 2010, of A1 Portable documents.

Source: European Commission Statistics compiled by Pacolet and De Wispelaere (2015).

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Figure 1.5 presents the situation in the different European countries which received posted workers in 2014. Germany, which is the primary destination of posted workers, with significant inflows from Poland in particular, is also the second country of origin for this type of worker. France follows Germany in terms of receiving the most workers posted from EU countries, followed by Belgium and Austria. A proportion of these movements are between neighbouring countries but an increasing amount now involves flows between more distant countries, such as from Slovenia, Hungary and the Slovak Republic to

Figure 1.5. **Inflows, outflows and net balance of posted workers in UE/EFTA countries in 2014**



Notes: Numbers are based on the issuances of E101 forms and, from 1 May 2010, of A1 Portable documents. Non OECD countries that belong to the EU or the EFTA are not presented but included in the inflows and outflows.

Source: European Commission Statistics compiled by Pacolet and De Wispeleere (2015).

StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933395325>

Germany, and from Poland and Portugal to France. Relative to the size of its labour market, Luxembourg is the country which makes the most use of posted workers, and, also in relative terms, the main country of origin of posted workers.

The companies sending the most workers on postings in 2014 were in construction (44%) and the services sector (33%). In 2014, the average posting lasted four months, and the 1.45 million posted workers represented 0.4% of the total EU workforce.

In March 2016, the European Commission proposed a revision of the rules on posting of workers (European Commission, 2016), including the granting to posted workers of the same rules on remuneration that are applied generally to local workers, and not just the payment of the minimum wage. And this for a period that shall not exceed two years. Lastly, temporary work agencies shall be obliged to provide equal treatment for all workers established in the same country.

### **Trainees and Working Holiday Makers**


Table 1.4 illustrates how the number of permits issued to trainees and Working Holiday Makers fluctuates according to economic conditions. In 2014, Japan welcomed almost 100 000 paid trainees; i.e. over three quarters of the total number of trainees who migrated to an OECD country in the same year. Most of the trainees had a “Technical intern training” visa and therefore an employment contract for a position requiring a certain degree of technical expertise. This permit, with a duration of three months to a year, can be renewed once. Trainee inflows started to rise in 2014 after five years of stagnation. Only Korea, which is the second main destination for trainees, welcomed more trainees in 2014 than in 2008.

Table 1.4. **Entries of trainees and Working Holiday Makers in selected OECD countries, 2007-14**

Destination	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2014/2013	2014/2007	
	Thousands								Change (%)		
<b>Trainees</b>	Japan	102.0	101.9	80.5	77.7	82.3	85.9	83.9	98.7	+18	-3
	Korea	14.2	13.6	11.4	11.8	13.3	12.2	12.5	15.1	+21	+6
	Australia	5.4	5.3	3.7	3.5	3.8	3.6	3.5	4.4	+25	-19
	Germany	4.8	5.4	4.8	4.9	4.9	4.1	3.9	3.8	-3	-21
	United States	3.1	3.4	2.1	1.8	2.1	2.9	2.7	2.2	-17	-28
	Denmark	3.2	3.1	2.2	1.6	1.5	1.4	1.4	1.5	+8	-52
	Sweden	0.6	0.7	0.7	0.5	0.4	0.5	0.4	0.5	+13	-16
	Norway	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.1	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.3	+47	-30
	<b>Total</b>	<b>133.7</b>	<b>133.7</b>	<b>105.6</b>	<b>102.0</b>	<b>108.7</b>	<b>110.8</b>	<b>108.6</b>	<b>126.5</b>	<b>+17</b>	<b>-5</b>
<b>Working Holiday Makers</b>	Australia	154.1	187.7	175.7	185.5	223.7	259.4	226.8	239.6	+6	+55
	United States	147.6	152.7	116.4	118.2	97.6	79.8	86.4	90.3	+5	-39
	New Zealand	35.6	40.3	41.2	44.8	45.1	50.8	57.6	61.4	+7	+72
	Canada	32.5	41.1	45.3	50.0	54.9	59.1	54.0	51.9	-4	+60
	United Kingdom	39.4	34.5	5.1	21.3	20.7	19.6	20.9	23.5	+13	-40
	Japan	6.2	6.5	6.5	7.5	8.5	9.5	10.5	11.5	+10	+84
	Ireland	..	..	..	1.6	1.3	1.4	2.0	2.3	+13	+42
	Korea	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.5	0.8	1.0	1.2	1.3	+12	+367
	Denmark	..	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.6	+37	+62
	Italy	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.5	-5	+23
<b>Total</b>	<b>416.2</b>	<b>463.9</b>	<b>391.3</b>	<b>430.1</b>	<b>453.3</b>	<b>481.4</b>	<b>460.3</b>	<b>482.8</b>	<b>+5</b>	<b>+16</b>	

Note: Only countries with more than 100 trainees or Working Holiday Makers are included.

Source: OECD International Migration Database.

StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933396247>

Programmes for Working Holiday Makers allow young people to acquire experience abroad through bilateral reciprocal agreements. They are particularly developed in the traditional countries of settlement and, to a lesser extent, in the United Kingdom and Japan.

Australia, which has signed agreements with 36 countries, welcomes over 200 000 Working Holiday Makers, which allows it to partially meet demand for seasonal labour in the agricultural sector, mining and construction. Two thirds of young people entering Australia under one of these programmes are from the United Kingdom, China, Germany, Korea and France. 17 of the 36 bilateral agreements are “Work and holiday visas”, seven of which were signed by Australia in 2014 and 2015. They stipulate the maximum number of people allowed to enter from each country of origin and are non-renewable. 19 earlier “Working holiday visa” agreements have no limit on numbers and the permits can be renewed once.

In the United States, the “Summer Work Travel Program” is managed by the State Department and is aimed at students wishing to spend no longer than four months in the country. Participants in the programme may only enter temporary or seasonal employment. Since 2011, the programme has banned domestic employment and annual numbers are limited to 109 000. In 2012, employers were asked to allow participants to take part in cultural activities outside the workplace. The countries with the most participants in the programme are Bulgaria, Ireland, Turkey and the Russian Federation.

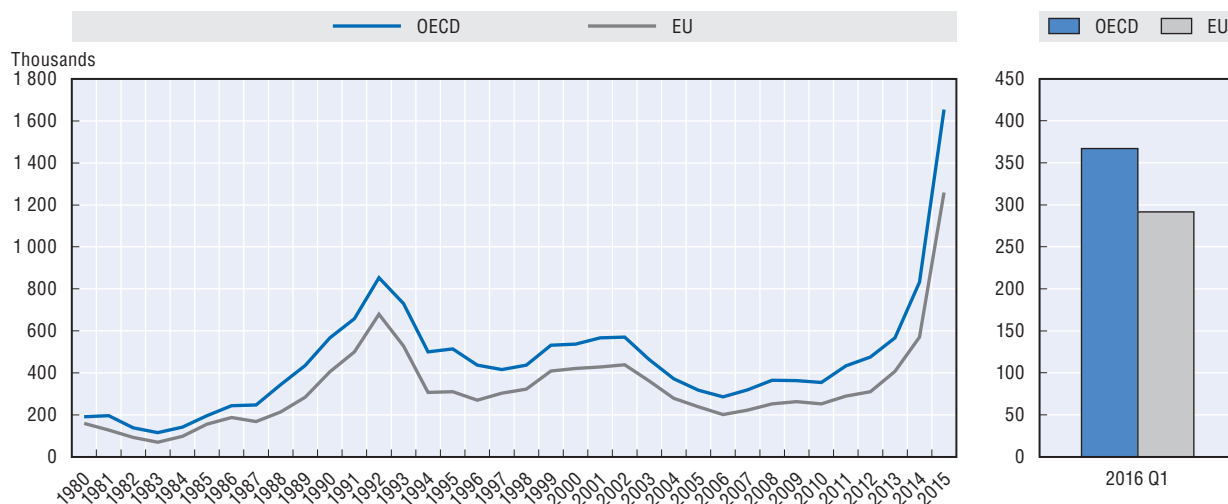
New Zealand is the third most popular destination for Working Holiday Makers, ahead of Canada. The programme is run by the Ministry of Business, Innovation and Employment. 42 countries have signed bilateral agreements with New Zealand, 28 of which contain provisions to cap the number of people entering. In 2014, half of total inflow came from Germany, the United Kingdom and France. The growth of the programme can be put down to the increase in numbers from Germany and France, and the signing of new agreements.

The International Experience Canada (IEC) programme facilitates movement to and from 32 countries. In 2013, responsibility for the programme was transferred from the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Trade and Development Canada to the Ministry of Immigration, Refugees and Citizenship Canada, which provided the opportunity to align it with other immigration programmes in order to better cater to labour force requirements. The Ministry also wants to improve the levels of reciprocity in exchanges, as there are far more young people coming to Canada than young Canadians going abroad.

### Asylum seekers


In 2015, OECD countries – especially in Europe – recorded asylum seeker numbers unprecedented since World War II. Applications for asylum in the OECD area have increased steadily since 2010, reaching a peak in 2015 of up to 1.65 million (Figure 1.6). More than three-quarters of asylum seekers in the OECD area lodged an application in an EU member state.

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



Note: Preliminary data for the first quarter of 2016.

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

StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933395334>

The discussion in this section uses data from the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR). It should be noted, however, that those asylum application statistics suffer from a number of limitations. First, there is a delay between the asylum seeker's arrival and the actual registration of the asylum application by the administration responsible. This time lag may become longer when the increase in the number of applications is unexpected. Such is currently the case (notably) in countries that have



received the majority of the inflow in 2015. In Germany for example, upon arrival asylum seekers are pre-registered in the EASY system, which enables the distribution of applicants throughout the country. The time spent between this pre-registration and the final registration of the asylum claim generates a sizeable gap between pre-registration and UNHCR data. It is likely that a significant portion of asylum applicants registered in 2016 in Germany arrived the year before.

Second, the UNHCR is aware that “the statistical picture of the number of people seeking international protection in Europe is partially distorted because of the reported instances of the same individual being registered as asylum seeker multiple times across the continent” (UNHCR, 2015). More than ever before, the data published during this refugee crisis include multiple counting.

Lastly, asylum applications do not include all types of temporary protection, such as that given by Turkey. From early 2011 to end-2015, more than 2.3 million Syrians arrived in Turkey, while only up to 9 000 asylum applications from Syrians in the country were registered from 2011 onwards. Turkey is by far the top OECD receiving country of asylum seekers over the past five years.

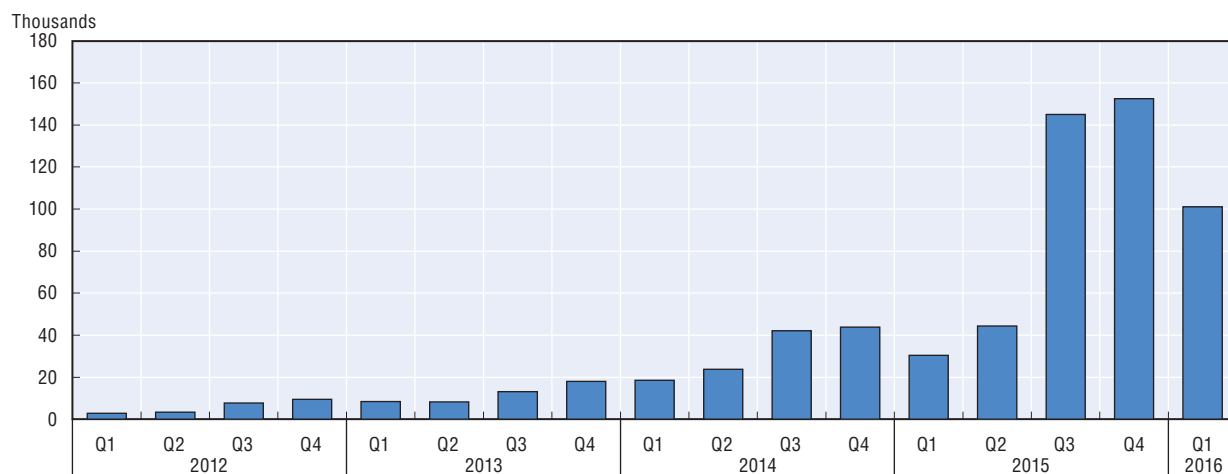
Knowing these limitations, and to avoid misuse of several datasets on asylum applications developed since the beginning of the crisis, only UNHCR data are used in this chapter. UNHCR is in fact the only source that takes into account all OECD countries.

The number of asylum seekers in the OECD area doubled in 2015 compared with 2014. This unprecedented increase was fuelled partly by the deterioration of the security situation in Syria, Iraq and Libya. But fuelling it as well was the development of new smuggling routes, such as the eastern Mediterranean and western Balkan routes. The latter was mainly used by asylum seekers from Syria, Iraq and Afghanistan, but also (and more frequently) used by citizens of Pakistan, by selected African migrant groups, and by people from Kosovo and Albania. Therefore, more than during previous crises, asylum seekers are very diverse in terms of country of origin and profile.

Syrian asylum seekers accounted for almost half of the increase. In fact, Syria is by far the main country of origin (Figure 1.7). Some 370 000 applications were submitted to OECD countries by Syrian citizens in 2015 (24% of the total), three times as many as in 2014 and six times as many as in 2013. The situation has deteriorated to such an extent that the OECD countries received even more Syrian asylum seekers in the third quarter of 2015 alone than in the whole of 2014 (Figure 1.8). Afghanistan, with 250 000 applications for asylum, is the second largest country of origin (16% of the total), with five times as many asylum seekers in 2015 as in 2014. Iraq, with nearly 180 000 applications, accounted for 12% of the total number of asylum seekers in OECD countries. Besides those three countries, accounting for half of all asylum applications in 2015, the number of people seeking international protection increased sharply throughout the world. In 2015, the number of asylum seekers from Albania was four times higher than in 2014 and the numbers of those from Pakistan and Iran were two times higher. Asylum seekers from Serbia (and Kosovo), Albania and Pakistan exceeded 50 000 each. No decrease between 2014 and 2015 has been observed among the top 20 countries of origin of asylum seekers.

As in 2013 and 2014, Germany registered the highest numbers of asylum applications in 2015, as well as the greatest increase (up 270 000, +155%). It alone accounts for one-quarter of all applications in the OECD area (Table 1.5). A third of all asylum applicants came from Syria (four times higher than in 2014), 12% from Albania (seven times higher),

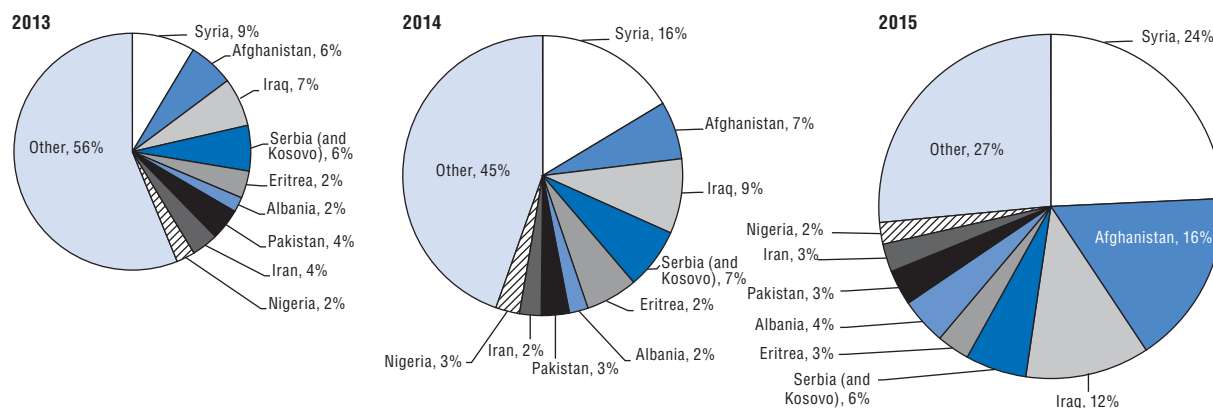
Figure 1.7. **New asylum applications in the OECD by Syrians, Q1 2012 to Q1 2016**



Note: Preliminary data for the first quarter 2016.  
Source: UNHCR.

StatLink <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933395342>

Figure 1.8. **Distribution of new asylum seekers by origin, 2013-15**



Source: UNHCR.

StatLink <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933395358>

11% from Serbia (and Kosovo), (two times higher), 7% from Afghanistan (three times higher) and 7% from Iraq (six times higher). By contrast, the number of Eritreans dropped by 18% in Germany compared to 2014.

The number of monthly applications in Germany rose progressively throughout the year 2015. Beginning at around 25 000 monthly applications in the first half of the year, the number peaked in October-November at almost 60 000 to eventually drop back down to 45 000 in December. In total, over 440 000 asylum applications have been filed in Germany in 2015, the highest number ever recorded. The number of people who have entered Germany in 2015 to seek protection is, however, underestimated. According to the EASY registration system (see above), almost 1.1 million asylum seekers have been allocated to a German reception facility in 2015. Even if they do not all eventually complete an asylum claim (for instance because they decide to move on to another country in the meantime), the number of asylum seekers in Germany is much larger than the UNHCR figure. Almost two-thirds of all EASY registrations were from Syria, Afghanistan and Iraq.

Behind Germany came Hungary, Sweden, the United States and Turkey, each of which received over 100 000 asylum requests in 2015. It should be noted however that most people filing an asylum request in Hungary were only transiting through the country (and have not transited anymore since October), thus leaving for elsewhere afterwards. The number of asylum applications in Hungary has indeed already dropped from 30 500 in September to less than 1 000 over the fourth quarter of 2015.

Compared to 2014, almost all OECD countries registered an increase in those seeking asylum (Tables 1.5). The growth was very large in several countries, such as in Finland (nine times higher than in 2014), Austria and Belgium (three times), and Norway and Sweden (more than twice as high). Compared to these countries, some other OECD countries such as the United Kingdom, France and Italy had lower growth rates and the origins of asylum applications in those countries are different from those of most European countries. In the United Kingdom, where the number of applications grew by 23%, Eritrea is the top origin country; in France (+26%), it is Sudan; and Italy (+31%) receives mainly requests from sub-Saharan African countries, such as Nigeria and Gambia. By contrast, the number of asylum seekers in the United States in 2015 increased by 38%, most of them coming from China and Latin America. China is also the top country of origin of asylum applicants in Canada (which saw a 19% increase in total) and, along with citizens from Malaysia, in Australia (+37%).

A particularly striking feature of the current refugee crisis is the large number of unaccompanied minors (UAMs) among asylum seekers. Eighty-five thousand UAMs applied for asylum in the EU and other OECD European countries in 2015, the highest number recorded in the past ten years. The number was more than three times higher than in 2014, and even five times higher in Sweden and Norway. Among all asylum applicants, the share of those who claimed to be UAMs increased from 4% in 2014 to 6% in 2015. The country of origin of most UAMs (54%) was Afghanistan.

Comparisons of ratios of asylum seeker entries to host country populations reveal that the OECD area received 1 300 applications per million inhabitants in 2015. Sweden received the highest number of applications as a proportion of its population, with 16 000 requests per million inhabitants. Austria follows with almost 10 000 asylum seekers for one million inhabitants, and the ratio is almost 6 per thousand in Norway and Finland. Although small countries generally have the highest rates of asylum seekers per capita, Germany was among the top asylum receiving country, with a ratio of 5 500 per million. This ratio is however underestimated and closer to 13 500 per million if one refers to EASY registrations (see above). In contrast, the United States and United Kingdom received only 400 and 600 asylum applications per million inhabitants, respectively.


This humanitarian migration crisis continued during the first months of 2016, but at a slower pace. After three consecutive months of decrease, the number of asylum applications in January 2016 (almost 110 000) in the OECD area was twice as low as in October 2015. In February new asylum applications increased again. However, most of this change has been triggered by Germany; EASY registrations have decreased drastically during the past months, from 200 000 registrations in November 2015 to 20 000 in March 2016. This suggests that the increase in asylum applications observed in February 2016 corresponds to the number of EASY registrations previously made in 2015, and not to a current increase in the number of asylum seeker flows. Given the fall in the number of EASY registrations in Germany during the first quarter of 2016, the number of asylum applications is likely to continue to decrease in the near future.

Table 1.5. **New asylum applications by country where application is filed, 2011-15**

	2011-13 annual average	2014	2015	2014-15 absolute change	% change 2014-15	Asylum seekers per million population (most recent year)	Top three origins of the asylum seekers (most recent year)
Germany	73 290	173 070	441 900	+268 830	+155	5 471	Syria, Albania, Serbia (and Kosovo)
Hungary	7 730	41 370	174 360	+132 990	+321	17 703	Syria, Afghanistan, Serbia (and Kosovo)
United States	77 610	121 160	172 740	+51 580	+43	552	China, Mexico, El Salvador
Sweden	42 590	75 090	156 460	+81 370	+108	16 052	Syria, Afghanistan, Iraq
Turkey	29 100	87 820	133 590	+45 770	+52	1 728	Afghanistan, Iraq, Iran
Austria	16 440	28 060	85 620	+57 560	+205	9 973	Syria, Afghanistan, Iraq
Italy	25 730	63 660	83 240	+19 580	+31	1 369	Nigeria, Pakistan, Gambia
France	55 820	59 030	74 300	+15 270	+26	1 157	Sudan, Serbia (and Kosovo), Syria
Netherlands	11 880	23 850	43 100	+19 250	+81	2 588	Syria, Eritrea, Iraq
Belgium	19 010	13 870	38 700	+24 830	+179	3 454	Syria, Iraq, Afghanistan
United Kingdom	27 760	31 260	38 570	+7 310	+23	606	Eritrea, Iran, Pakistan
Switzerland	21 610	22 110	38 120	+16 010	+72	4 683	Eritrea, Afghanistan, Syria
Finland	3 010	3 520	32 270	+28 750	+817	5 897	Iraq, Afghanistan, Somalia
Norway	10 100	12 640	30 520	+17 880	+141	5 908	Syria, Afghanistan, Eritrea
Denmark	5 850	14 820	21 160	+6 340	+43	3 792	Syria, Iran, Eritrea
Canada	18 520	13 450	16 070	+2 620	+19	460	China, Hungary, Pakistan
Spain	3 500	5 900	13 370	+7 470	+127	287	Syria, Ukraine, West Bank and Gaza Strip
Australia	13 010	8 960	12 350	+3 390	+38	530	Malaysia, China, Iraq
Greece	9 040	9 450	11 370	+1 920	+20	1 010	Syria, Afghanistan, Pakistan
Poland	9 340	6 810	10 250	+3 440	+51	266	Russian Federation, Ukraine, Tajikistan
Japan	2 560	5 000	7 580	+2 580	+52	59	Nepal, Turkey, Myanmar
Korea	1 240	2 900	5 710	+2 810	+97	113	Pakistan, Egypt, China
Mexico	950	2 140	3 420	+1 280	+60	28	Honduras, El Salvador, Guatemala
Ireland	1 160	1 440	3 280	+1 840	+128	712	Pakistan, Bangladesh, Albania
Luxembourg	1 690	970	2 300	+1 330	+137	4 187	Syria, Iraq, Serbia (and Kosovo)
Czech Republic	670	920	1 250	+330	+36	119	Ukraine, Syria, Cuba
Israel	2 420	490	..	..	..	61	Côte d'Ivoire, South Sudan, Eritrea
Portugal	360	440	900	+460	+105	86	Ukraine, Mali, China
Iceland	120	160	360	+200	+125	1 094	Albania, Iraq, Afghanistan
New Zealand	310	290	350	+60	+21	77	Fidji, Pakistan, South Africa
Slovak Republic	500	230	270	+40	+17	50	Iraq, Afghanistan
Slovenia	310	360	260	-100	-28	126	Iraq, Afghanistan, Pakistan
Chile	240	280	..	..	..	16	Colombia, Syria, West Bank and Gaza Strip
Estonia	80	150	230	+80	+53	175	Ukraine, Afghanistan, Iraq
<b>OECD total</b>	<b>493 550</b>	<b>831 670</b>	<b>1 653 970</b>	<b>+822 300</b>	<b>+99</b>	<b>1 314</b>	<b>Syria, Afghanistan, Iraq</b>
<b>Selected non-OECD countries</b>							
Bulgaria	3 034	10 790	20 160	+9 370	+87	2 799	Iraq, Afghanistan, Syria
Malta	2 043	1 280	1 700	+420	+33	3 960	Libya, Syria, Ukraine
Romania	2 024	1 550	1 270	-280	-18	64	Syria, Iraq, Afghanistan
Latvia	348	360	330	-30	-8	178	Iraq, Viet Nam, Ukraine
Lithuania	402	390	290	-100	-26	99	Ukraine, Georgia, Afghanistan

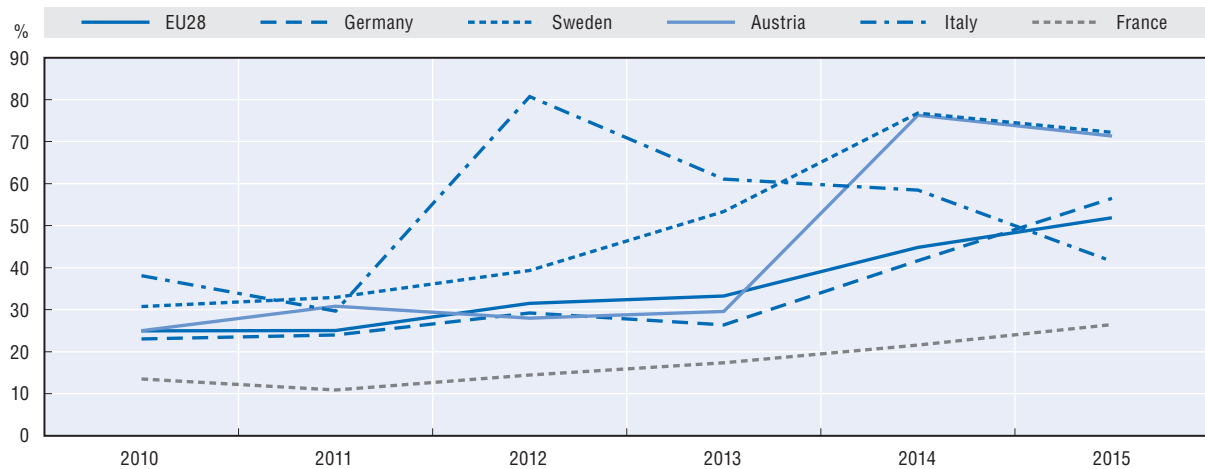
Notes: Figures for the United States refer to "affirmative" claims submitted with the Department of Homeland Security (number of cases) and "defensive" claims submitted to the Executive Office for Immigration Review (number of people). The symbol ".." stands for "not available".

Source: UNHCR.


StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933396258>

Since the main origin countries (Syria, Iraq and Afghanistan) face persistent security issues, **recognition** rates<sup>3</sup> are high (Figure 1.9). In 2015, the average recognition rate in the European Union was 52%, twice the rate of 2011. At just over 70%, the rate is highest in Sweden and Austria, where most asylum seekers came from those war-torn areas.

Figure 1.9. **Average recognition rates of applications for international protection in selected European countries, 2010-15**



Source: Eurostat.

StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933395366>

As a consequence of both higher flows and a higher recognition rate, the number of permanent migrants for humanitarian reasons in 2014 reached its highest point since 2007 (Table 1.6). In the OECD countries for which standardised data are available, up to 340 000 migrants (160 000 in Europe) received a permanent right of residency for humanitarian reasons in 2014. The growth was especially strong in European countries, such as Denmark (+57%), Italy (+43%) and Germany (+38%). The number of humanitarian permanent migrants also increased by 12% in the United States, while the number dropped in Canada (-11%) and in Australia (-31%). Given the rise in the number of decisions granting international protection status in the European Union in 2015 (according to Eurostat), it is plausible that the number of permanent migrants for humanitarian reasons in European OECD countries increased by two-thirds and reached more than 250 000 people in 2015.

### **International student mobility**

International student mobility is part of the broader phenomenon of the internationalisation of education, and an aspect that requires migration movement. As such, both education and migration policy makers pay close attention to these movements. Even though the latest figures for 2013 are not fully comparable with those of previous years, there is little doubt that the OECD area witnessed another increase in international student enrolments.

In 2013, there were almost 3 million international students enrolled in OECD countries, 48% of whom were women (Table 1.7). The main destination countries are the United States with almost 800 000 students, the United Kingdom (420 000) and Australia (260 000), followed by France and Germany. Slightly fewer than 1.4 million international students – two-thirds of which were coming from third countries – are enrolled in EU

Table 1.6. **Number of new beneficiaries of international protection in OECD countries, 2007-15**

	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2014-15 Change (%)
Australia	14 158	11 729	14 854	14 553	13 976	13 759	20 019	13 768	..
Austria	7 002	5 539	4 982	4 749	5 757	4 099	2 512	1 341	+41
Belgium	2 122	2 537	2 305	2 818	3 951	4 419	4 937	6 146	+28
Canada	39 160	32 484	33 374	33 432	36 091	31 990	30 952	27 637	..
Denmark	1 278	1 453	1 376	2 124	2 249	2 583	3 889	6 110	+77
Finland	2 083	2 153	3 011	3 168	2 241	2 854	3 055	2 899	+17
France	9 901	11 655	12 732	12 083	11 606	12 231	12 101	13 194	+26
Germany	50 944	37 491	11 107	11 828	11 036	18 092	30 667	42 393	+196
Ireland	579	588	366	153	132	112	182	224	+43
Italy	7 726	10 019	9 573	4 303	7 155	5 989	14 395	20 580	+44
Japan	129	417	531	402	269	130	130	157	..
Korea	13	32	74	47	38	60	36	633	..
Mexico	..	..	..	222	262	389	198	348	..
Netherlands	12 340	7 330	9 590	10 010	10 690	5 268	9 970	..	+29
New Zealand	3 769	3 678	3 109	2 807	2 741	3 032	3 385	3 551	..
Norway	5 930	4 757	6 189	5 328	5 389	5 721	6 725	5 690	+22
Portugal	122	82	52	57	65	100	135	110	+77
Spain	544	277	341	595	967	520	463	1 583	-36
Sweden	18 290	11 173	11 119	12 073	12 651	17 355	28 904	35 642	+4
Switzerland	5 425	6 348	5 370	6 655	5 755	4 212	5 061	6 355	-9
United Kingdom	14 190	2 825	3 110	4 931	13 003	11 434	21 266	17 191	+7
United States	136 125	166 392	177 368	136 291	168 460	150 614	119 630	134 242	..
<b>All countries</b>	<b>331 830</b>	<b>318 959</b>	<b>310 533</b>	<b>268 629</b>	<b>314 484</b>	<b>294 963</b>	<b>318 612</b>	<b>339 794</b>	<b>..</b>
All European countries	138 476	104 227	81 223	80 875	92 647	94 989	144 262	159 458	+67

.. Information not available.

Source: 2007-14: OECD International Migration Database; 2014-15 change: Eurostat Database on International Migration and Asylum.

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OECD countries. International students on average make up 8% of total tertiary enrolment across OECD countries, but this share is much higher in Australia, Austria, New Zealand, Switzerland and the United Kingdom – where it is between 16% and 18% – and it even reaches 44% in Luxembourg. The share of international students also rises with the level of education. Indeed, at the master's level, international students represent on average 13% of the total, and this figure jumps to 22% at the doctoral level. The share of international students at the doctoral level is especially high in France, Luxembourg, New Zealand, Switzerland and the United Kingdom.

In OECD countries, the fields of social sciences, business and law gather the most tertiary students in general and international students in particular (36% on average). This percentage is particularly high in Luxembourg (62%), Estonia (55%) and Australia (52%). However, the fields of sciences and engineering, manufacturing and construction altogether (26% on average) attract more international students in a few countries, such as Finland, Germany, Norway, Sweden, Switzerland and the United States. Health and welfare is the main field for international students in Belgium, Hungary and the Slovak Republic, and in Iceland the 500 international students in humanities and arts make up 40% of the total.

Moreover, this distribution too varies with the level of education (OECD, 2015b). At the highest levels the fields of science and engineering dominate, so that among the international students, 55% of the doctoral graduates earned a degree in either science or engineering (against 44% of all students) (Figure 1.10).


Table 1.7. **International students enrolled in OECD countries, 2013**

	International tertiary students				Share of international students by level of education (%)			Distribution of foreign students by field of study (%)				
	Total (thousands)	Of which: From OECD countries (%)	Of which: From EU28 countries (%)	Of which: Women (%)	Total tertiary education	Master's or equivalent level	Doctoral or equivalent level	Social sciences, business and law	Sciences, engineering, manufacturing and construction	Humanities and arts	Health and welfare	Other
Australia	250	12	3	48	18	38	33	52	26	6	10	6
Austria	71	73	71	53	17	19	28	38	27	17	8	9
Belgium	45	56	56	57	10	16	38	23	18	14	34	12
Canada	135	21	10	44	9	13	26	41	33	6	5	14
Chile	3	5	2	49	0	2	3	32	18	6	7	37
Czech Republic	40	70	69	53	9	11	13	38	28	10	17	8
Denmark	29	65	63	54	10	18	30	41	31	10	11	7
Estonia	2	66	66	48	3	4	7	55	15	16	5	9
Finland	22	21	18	42	7	11	17	27	42	11	10	10
France	229	20	16	52	10	13	40	38	32	17	7	5
Germany	197	34	29	50	7	12	7	26	40	19	6	9
Hungary	21	54	51	50	6	14	7	21	13	11	40	15
Iceland	1	78	67	63	7	6	20	25	20	40	5	10
Ireland	13	52	34	..	6	10	25	..	..	..	..	..
Israel	10	42	17	57	..	4	5	..	..	..	..	..
Italy	82	19	23	59	4	4	12	31	27	21	15	6
Japan	136	17	2	49	4	8	19	38	18	21	2	20
Korea	56	7	1	52	2	6	8	45	22	22	4	7
Luxembourg	3	78	79	50	44	67	84	62	17	9	3	9
Mexico	8	0	0	..	0	1	3	..	..	..	..	..
Netherlands	69	60	61	55	10	17	38	43	18	12	13	14
New Zealand	41	24	5	45	16	20	43	39	27	9	7	18
Norway	9	36	33	51	4	7	21	26	26	17	10	21
Poland	28	30	22	52	1	2	2	42	14	11	22	12
Portugal	15	24	21	51	4	5	15	35	29	13	10	13
Slovak Republic	10	85	81	56	5	6	9	18	8	5	53	15
Slovenia	3	16	48	58	3	4	8	39	29	13	7	13
Spain	56	34	30	53	3	5	16	30	23	9	26	12
Sweden	25	36	31	46	6	9	32	25	47	11	11	5
Switzerland	47	71	67	..	17	27	52	33	35	16	7	9
Turkey	54	9	11	35	1	4	4	38	25	13	12	13
United Kingdom	417	33	30	50	17	36	41	45	29	13	8	6
United States	784	26	7	46	4	8	32	33	35	13	9	11
<b>EU</b>												
<b>OECD countries</b>	<b>1 376</b>	<b>46</b>	<b>45</b>	<b>52</b>	<b>9</b>	<b>14</b>	<b>23</b>	<b>36</b>	<b>26</b>	<b>13</b>	<b>16</b>	<b>10</b>
<b>OECD total</b>	<b>2 911</b>	<b>851</b>	<b>594</b>	<b>48</b>	<b>..</b>	<b>..</b>	<b>..</b>	<b>..</b>	<b>..</b>	<b>..</b>	<b>..</b>	<b>..</b>
<b>OECD average</b>	<b>..</b>	<b>39</b>	<b>34</b>	<b>51</b>	<b>8</b>	<b>13</b>	<b>22</b>	<b>36</b>	<b>26</b>	<b>14</b>	<b>13</b>	<b>12</b>

Notes: Data for the Czech Republic, Israel, Italy, Korea and Turkey refer to foreign students instead of international students. Data for Canada refer to 2012 instead of 2013.

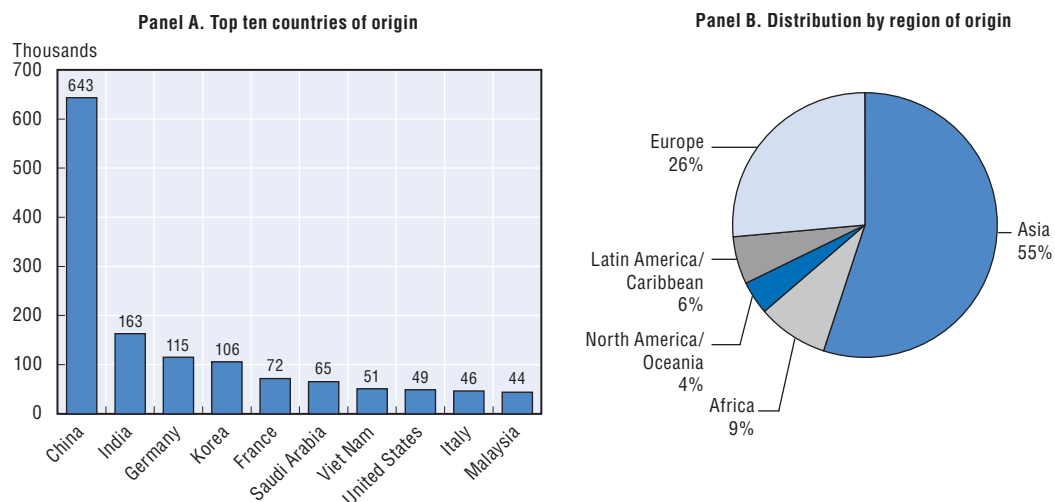
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Source: *Education at a Glance 2015: OECD Indicators*.

StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933396278>


In 2013 Asian students had a stronger presence in OECD educational institutions, as they accounted for 55% of all enrolments. In particular, almost one in four international students in OECD countries comes from China. India follows far behind, while Germany and Korea are the only other countries sending more than 100 000 of their students to another OECD country. Saudi Arabia appears just after France in the ranking, and the top ten is completed by two OECD countries, the United States and Italy, and two Asian countries, Viet Nam and Malaysia.

Figure 1.10. **International students enrolled in OECD countries by origin, 2013**



Note: Asia includes Western Asia.

Source: *Education at a Glance 2015: OECD Indicators*.

StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933395379>

### **International migrants' countries of origin**

The 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 1.8) 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.

Over the period 2004-14, there has been little change in the main countries of origin of new migrants to the OECD area, at least for the top four countries. In 2014, China remained number one although it represented a slightly lower share of all inflows (9%) than in 2013. Romania and Poland take the other places on the podium; Romania is second this year as a result of increased flows to Germany<sup>4</sup> and to the United Kingdom. India appears fourth again, displaying a 9% increase compared to 2013, as more Indians emigrated to the United States and to New Zealand.

The Philippines was the fifth main country of origin, in place of Mexico whose share had not been so low in decades. Increasing numbers of Italians moved to Germany in recent years, so that in 2014 the level of migration flows from Italy to OECD countries is almost twice as high as in the previous ten years and Italy ranks between the Philippines and Mexico. Other EU countries have witnessed significantly more departures to OECD countries in 2014 than in previous years. Bulgaria for example (+23% compared to 2013) recorded, like Romania, a greater number of departures to Germany and to the United Kingdom. The United Kingdom also received many more French nationals in 2014 than in 2013, as did Israel. France, which has a fairly small diaspora in relative terms, seems to be catching up, as French migration to OECD countries was 40% higher in 2014



Table 1.8. **Top 50 countries of origin of new immigrants to the OECD, 2004-14**

	Average 2004-13 (thousands)	2013 (thousands)	2014 (thousands)	% of total OECD inflows 2014	% change 2013-14	Difference in ranking vs 2013	Difference in ranking vs period 2004-13
China	489	547	555	9.3	+1.4	0	0
Romania	298	292	374	6.3	+28.0	1	0
<b>Poland</b>	<b>267</b>	<b>295</b>	<b>302</b>	<b>5.1</b>	<b>+2.4</b>	<b>-1</b>	<b>0</b>
India	227	241	263	4.4	+9.2	0	0
Philippines	171	152	158	2.6	+3.9	1	1
<b>Italy</b>	<b>76</b>	<b>126</b>	<b>155</b>	<b>2.6</b>	<b>+23.2</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>11</b>
<b>Mexico</b>	<b>174</b>	<b>153</b>	<b>155</b>	<b>2.6</b>	<b>+1.3</b>	<b>-2</b>	<b>-2</b>
<b>United States</b>	<b>127</b>	<b>145</b>	<b>146</b>	<b>2.5</b>	<b>+1.3</b>	<b>-1</b>	<b>0</b>
Viet Nam	87	102	125	2.1	+22.4	3	4
<b>France</b>	<b>86</b>	<b>105</b>	<b>123</b>	<b>2.1</b>	<b>+17.4</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>3</b>
Bulgaria	72	100	122	2.1	+22.9	1	7
<b>United Kingdom</b>	<b>134</b>	<b>113</b>	<b>115</b>	<b>1.9</b>	<b>+1.4</b>	<b>-4</b>	<b>-6</b>
<b>Germany</b>	<b>118</b>	<b>108</b>	<b>106</b>	<b>1.8</b>	<b>-1.5</b>	<b>-4</b>	<b>-4</b>
<b>Spain</b>	<b>41</b>	<b>95</b>	<b>98</b>	<b>1.7</b>	<b>+3.9</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>16</b>
<b>Hungary</b>	<b>51</b>	<b>97</b>	<b>96</b>	<b>1.6</b>	<b>-8</b>	<b>-2</b>	<b>9</b>
Thailand	50	61	87	1.5	+41.4	7	10
Morocco	126	83	80	1.3	-3.8	-1	-9
Pakistan	81	73	78	1.3	+7.3	0	-4
Russian Federation	77	90	78	1.3	-13.3	-4	-4
<b>Korea</b>	<b>72</b>	<b>75</b>	<b>70</b>	<b>1.2</b>	<b>-6.6</b>	<b>-3</b>	<b>-1</b>
Brazil	87	60	68	1.1	+13.6	3	-10
Ukraine	89	63	68	1.1	+7.4	0	-12
Colombia	71	72	68	1.1	-6.8	-4	-3
Peru	76	67	63	1.0	-6.7	-3	-7
<b>Portugal</b>	<b>50</b>	<b>67</b>	<b>61</b>	<b>1.0</b>	<b>-9.4</b>	<b>-5</b>	<b>0</b>
Dominican Republic	56	59	60	1.0	+2.2	0	-4
Cuba	49	46	59	1.0	+27.7	3	0
Croatia	19	35	59	1.0	+69.8	16	36
Serbia	26	45	58	1.0	+29.4	3	19
<b>Turkey</b>	<b>65</b>	<b>59</b>	<b>55</b>	<b>0.9</b>	<b>-6.5</b>	<b>-5</b>	<b>-9</b>
Iran	38	49	51	0.9	+5.2	-3	4
<b>Greece</b>	<b>25</b>	<b>50</b>	<b>47</b>	<b>0.8</b>	<b>-5.8</b>	<b>-5</b>	<b>19</b>
Bangladesh	42	43	47	0.8	+7.8	1	-5
<b>Canada</b>	<b>40</b>	<b>44</b>	<b>46</b>	<b>0.8</b>	<b>+5.7</b>	<b>-1</b>	<b>-1</b>
Afghanistan	21	34	45	0.8	+32.2	11	24
Iraq	36	34	43	0.7	+26.3	9	2
Nigeria	40	43	42	0.7	-2.7	-2	-5
Nepal	22	39	42	0.7	+7.4	1	20
Algeria	41	40	41	0.7	+9	-2	-8
<b>Netherlands</b>	<b>36</b>	<b>37</b>	<b>40</b>	<b>0.7</b>	<b>+7.6</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>-1</b>
<b>Slovak Republic</b>	<b>32</b>	<b>42</b>	<b>38</b>	<b>0.6</b>	<b>-8.5</b>	<b>-5</b>	<b>0</b>
Egypt	30	40	38	0.6	-5.6	-4	1
<b>New Zealand</b>	<b>42</b>	<b>49</b>	<b>38</b>	<b>0.6</b>	<b>-22.8</b>	<b>-14</b>	<b>-14</b>
<b>Australia</b>	<b>35</b>	<b>31</b>	<b>37</b>	<b>0.6</b>	<b>+19.1</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>-4</b>
Bosnia and Herzegovina	25	28	35	0.6	+24.9	7	4
Indonesia	29	36	35	0.6	-3.3	-4	-1
Lithuania	23	34	35	0.6	+2.2	0	7
Bolivia	37	35	34	0.6	-1.7	-5	-12
<b>Japan</b>	<b>36</b>	<b>37</b>	<b>34</b>	<b>0.6</b>	<b>-8.6</b>	<b>-9</b>	<b>-12</b>
<b>OECD</b>	<b>1 746</b>	<b>1 940</b>	<b>2 075</b>	<b>34.0</b>	<b>+6.9</b>		
Non-OECD	3 647	3 681	4 035	66.0	+9.6		
EU28	1 525	1 786	2 058	33.7	+15.2		
<b>Total</b>	<b>5 393</b>	<b>5 621</b>	<b>6 109</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>+8.7</b>		

Source: OECD International Migration Database.

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than in the previous ten years, and is for the first time larger than that of Germany and the United Kingdom. On the other hand, emigration from Greece and Portugal declined in 2014, and that from Spain was stable. Following its accession to the EU, Croatia showed the second largest increase in outflows to OECD countries in 2014.

The largest increase may have been the dramatic rise in the number of Syrians fleeing their country. However, Syria does not appear in the table due to the great uncertainty as to flow levels to a number of countries, including Turkey. Viet Nam and Thailand also displayed remarkable increases (+22% and +41%, respectively), with Japan as the preferred destination of Vietnamese citizens and Korea for Thailand citizens.

In 2014, Europe consolidated its position as the main region of origin of migrants to OECD countries, before Asia. Africa was the continent of origin of only one in twelve migrants to the OECD area. Just over one in three migrants came from within the OECD in 2014. This share has been stable since 2012, after having risen between 2010 and 2012.

### **Flows of migrant women**

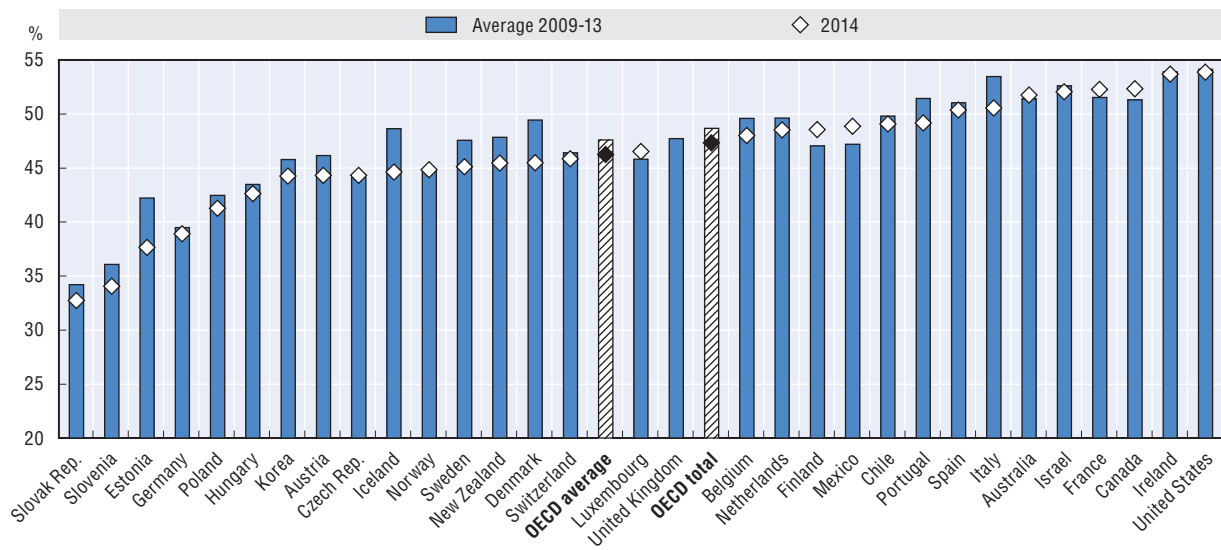
The share of women in migration flows to OECD countries peaked in 2009, when exactly one in two migrants was a woman. Since then this share has gradually declined so that overall, there were 47% of women among migrants to OECD countries in 2014 (Figure 1.11). This can be explained at least in part by the fact that migration for work reasons (within or outside free circulation areas) was at a low in 2009, and that humanitarian migration increased in the recent years – two categories where there are in general fewer women than men. This downward trend is very much a general one, as it is observed in three-quarters of the countries. In particular, the share of women among new migrants decreased sharply in 2014 compared to the preceding five-year period, in Estonia (-5 percentage points), Iceland and Denmark (-4 points each) and Italy (-3 points). Mexico (+2 points), Finland (+1.5), Canada and France (+1 each), are among the few countries that received relatively more women in 2014 than between 2009 and 2013.

In 2014, only eight OECD countries received more migrant women than migrant men. The United States and Ireland are at the top of the list, with 54%. They are followed by Canada, France, Israel and Australia, all at 52%. This can be at least partially explained by the composition of inflows by category. For example, family migration accounts for a large share of flows to the United States, Israel and France. Eastern European countries, as well as Germany, Korea and Austria, are at the lower end of the spectrum, with less than 45%. Looking at gender balance from the perspective of countries of origin, the most feminised outflows come from Asian and Latin American countries, as well as former Soviet republics. This also contributes to Australia, Canada and the United States having high inflows of women.

### **Foreign-born population**

The total foreign-born population living in OECD countries rose to 120 million people in 2014 (Figure 1.12). On average, this represents approximately an additional three million per year since 2000. However, the growth pace decreased over the period 2010-14. Between 2000 and 2010, the foreign-born population gained a little over 3 million people every year, but since then it grew only by 2 million per year. Of these 120 million foreign-born, 46% live in an EU/EFTA country and 35% in the United States. This corresponds to an increase of the foreign-born population in the United States and in the EU/EFTA of 40% and 50%, respectively. The increase in the foreign-born population accounted for 80% of the total population increase in EU/EFTA countries over the period 2000-14.

Figure 1.11. Share of women in migration flows to OECD countries, 2009-14

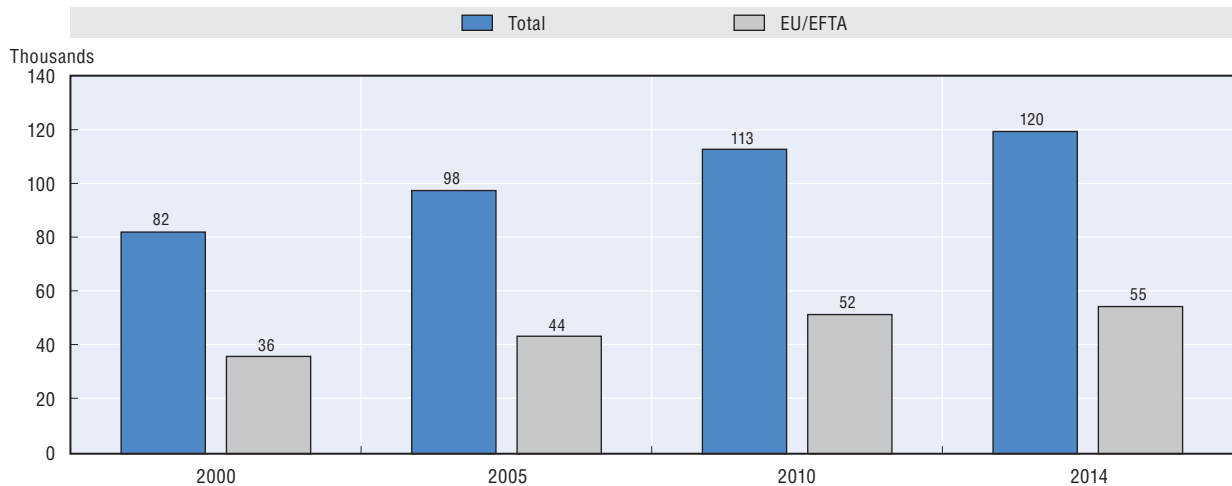


Notes: OECD total refers to the total number of female migrants as a proportion of all migrants to OECD countries. OECD average is the simple average of countries in the chart.

Source: OECD International Migration Database.

StatLink <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933395388>

Figure 1.12. Number of foreign-born in the OECD area, 2000-14

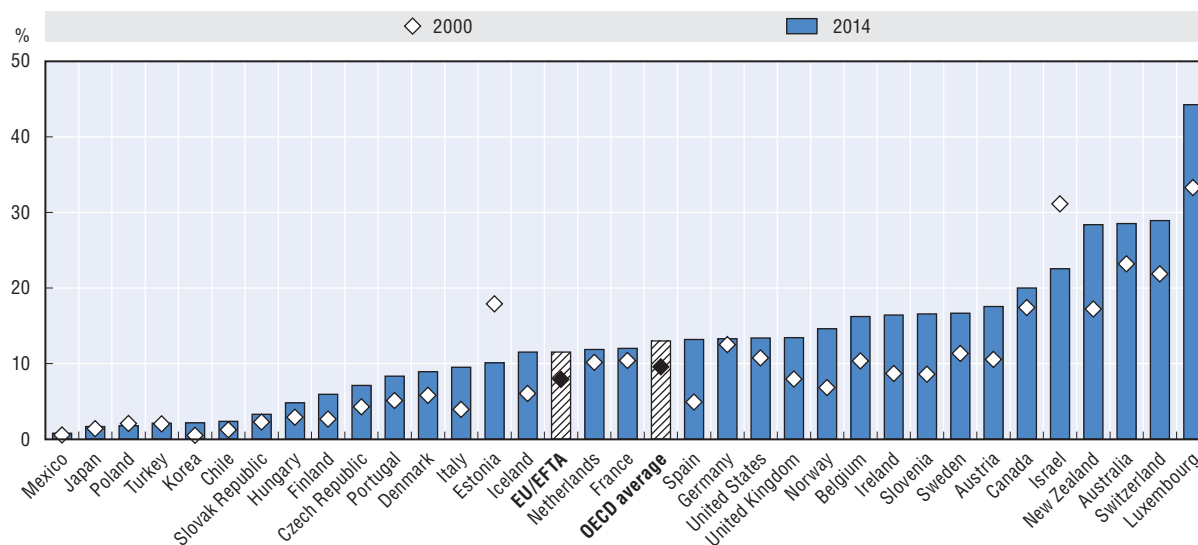


Source: OECD International Migration Database.

StatLink <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933395399>

The average proportion of foreign-born persons in OECD countries rose from 9.5% in 2000 to 13% in 2014 (Figure 1.13). With the exception of Estonia, Israel and Poland, all countries contributed to this growth, and half of them saw the share of their foreign-born population rise by more than five percentage points over the period. Among them Luxembourg stands out, with 44% of its population born abroad – an 11-point leap from 2000. Switzerland, Australia and New Zealand follow at 29%. The foreign-born population of Spain is three times larger in 2014 than in 2000, and still represents 13% of

Figure 1.13. **The foreign-born as a percentage of the total population in OECD countries, 2000 and 2014**



Notes: Data refer to 2000 or to the closest year with available data and to 2014 or most recent available year. OECD average refers to the average of countries presented. The value for EU/EFTA is the percentage of foreign-born population living in all EU/EFTA countries presented among the total population of these countries. Data refers to foreign instead of foreign-born population for Japan and Korea. Source: OECD International Migration Database.

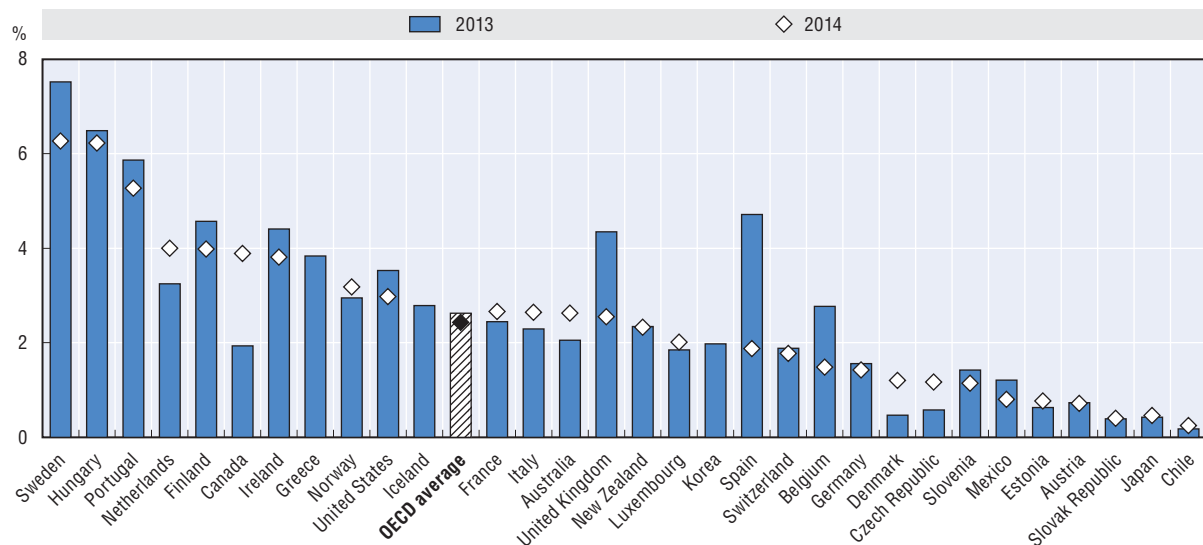
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the total population despite a declining trend since 2011. Overall, 11.5% of the population living in EU/EFTA countries was foreign-born. On the other hand, Finland, Chile and Korea are still quite below average but have experienced a very strong growth of their foreign-born population, in particular over the recent years.

### Acquisition of nationality


In 2014, almost two million people acquired the nationality of an OECD country. This is 6% under the figure for 2013 – which had been boosted by the “Intensive File Processing Plan” in Spain – and 3% higher than the 2009-13 average. Aside from Spain, the number of acquisitions of nationality in other EU/EFTA countries was stable at 740 000. US nationality was granted to fewer people in 2014 than any year since 2005 (650 000), and British nationality to fewer than any year since 2002 (125 000). Approximately 130 000 Indian citizens acquired the nationality of an OECD country. The other main countries of former nationality are Mexico, China, the Philippines and Morocco.

Over 6% of foreign citizens living in Sweden obtained Swedish nationality in 2014 (Figure 1.14). Although this is one percentage point less than in 2013, Sweden remains ahead of OECD countries in terms of acquisitions of citizenship as a percentage of foreign population. Hungary and Portugal follow, but with much lower absolute numbers and foreign populations. The Netherlands, Finland, Canada and Ireland all saw 4% of their foreign population become nationals. In New Zealand, Luxembourg and Switzerland, where foreign citizens make up a large proportion of the total population, only 2% of them acquired the nationality of their host country in 2014, slightly below the OECD average (2.5%).

Figure 1.14. **Acquisitions of citizenship as a percentage of foreign population, 2013 and 2014**

Notes: Data refer to foreign-born instead of foreign population for Australia, Canada, Chile and New Zealand. OECD average refers to the average of countries presented on the figure.

Source: OECD International Migration Database.

StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933395418>

## General policy developments

### **Major revisions in the managed migration framework have not taken place**

2015-16 has not seen major framework migration policies introduced in OECD countries. Several countries have established policy guidance documents for upcoming years, but have not announced an overhaul of their entire framework. Japan approved its Fifth Basic Plan for Immigration Control in 2015. The Plan lays out policy priorities in attracting foreign talent, reforming the Technical Intern Training system, and measures against irregular migration and illegal employment of foreigners. Portugal's "Strategic Plan for Migration 2015-20", approved in March 2015, makes a number of proposals in the area of immigration and emigration, including a talent scheme and more orientation for seasonal workers, as well as initiatives to attract international students. Romania's 2014 National Strategy on Immigration also targets highly qualified professionals and students, as well as covering irregular migration and asylum.

### **Economic migration**

The lack of an overall change in systems does not mean that policy has stood still, and labour migration schemes have been revised in a number of OECD countries, generally to favour skilled workers. Denmark and France revised their labour migration systems. In Denmark, a reform of the rules regarding residence permits for the purpose of work and studies entered into force on 1 January 2015. Certain existing schemes and rules were abolished and new schemes and rules were introduced. For instance, the applications under the so-called corporate scheme were no longer accepted from 1 April 2015 as a fast-track scheme was introduced as a replacement. The Danish Green Card scheme was revised to make it more restrictive and to match employer demand more closely. In France, changes to

the Aliens Law, first proposed in 2014, were approved and published in 2016. These include changes to the Integration Contract, longer renewal periods, and the creation of a four-year “Talents Passport” for highly-qualified foreigners and their family members.

Procedures have also been changed. Canada introduced Express Entry in January 2015, as the application management system for certain economic immigration programs including the Federal Skilled Worker Program, Federal Skilled Trades Program, Canadian Experience Class and a portion of the Provincial Nominee program. Express Entry is based on a pool of candidates from which applications are drawn and invited to apply. It was meant to make selection and application management more flexible, to respond to labour market and regional needs, and accelerate processing. Points are attributed for age, education, official language proficiency and work experience, and those with a job offer have scored high enough to be picked quickly. There have been adjustments to the system during the first year of operation.

Procedural simplification for labour migration has also occurred in a number of OECD countries. The United States introduced a pilot programme in 2016, “Known Employer”, which allows employers to pre-request eligibility to sponsor individuals under certain employment-based immigrant and non-immigrant visa classifications. Up to nine employers will be invited to file applications requesting that US Citizenship and Immigration Services predetermine that they meet certain requirements that relate to the employer itself (e.g. corporate structure, operations and financial health). Spain adjusted its 2013 Entrepreneurs Act in 2015 to facilitate family reunification for investors, entrepreneurs, highly qualified professionals, researchers and intra-corporate transferees. It also transposed the EU ICT Directive, introducing an “ultrafast track” for handling intra-corporate transferees in companies in strategic sectors, or those satisfying certain volume and performance requirements. These companies register with the “Large Companies – Strategic Sectors Unit” and are exempted from providing evidence of certain requirements for transferring their executives, specialists and trainees. In New Zealand, the list of English language tests accepted for immigration purposes will be expanded in late 2016 from one (IELTS) to include four additional tests, to provide flexibility for immigrants and accelerate procedures.

Measures to smooth permit transitions have been introduced, to give more flexibility to migrants who face difficulty in changing status under current regulations. Estonia introduced a 90 day extension for temporary residents whose permit is expiring to stay on and look for work (double this length for students, researchers and teachers). Foreign workers are now allowed to work for multiple employers as well as temporary work agencies. On 31 December 2015, the United States proposed a number of regulations which would allow job changes for foreign workers whose employment-based Green Card application has been accepted but who have not yet received their Green Card. These measures would smooth the transition from temporary (non-immigrant) to permanent status for those who change jobs after filing applications or who do not manage to receive a Green Card under annual caps. In some countries, flexibility is added to make a category more attractive. Denmark created facilitations for researchers allowing them to work and stay outside Denmark without forfeiting their permit.

Efforts to better target programmes to the skills sought by OECD countries led to modification in criteria. Ireland made changes to its labour migration system in 2014-15, renaming its permits and modifying criteria and associated benefits. The Irish “Green

Card” became the “Critical Skills Employment Permit” and the work permit became the “General Employment Permit”. Lower salary thresholds were created for a number of categories, including graduates on a highly skilled occupation list. Japan made adjustments to its point-based programme for highly qualified foreigners, reducing some of the eligibility criteria and granting indefinite stay to certain highly skilled professionals. Similarly, Korea significantly lowered the salary threshold required for foreign high-tech professionals to obtain a permanent visa. It is now equal to the average national salary, rather than three times as high. Other professional workers now have more opportunities to obtain a temporary visa in Korea through the points system for foreign professionals (F-2-7 visa), which allows faster access to permanent residency.

Labour market tests and safeguards for local workers have increased in some countries. Sweden modified its procedures for work permit applicants, who must now submit their employment offer letter to a local Swedish labour union for comment, instead of waiting for the Swedish Migration Agency to submit it to the labour union. Following an Integrity Review in 2014, Australia has adopted a range of measures to reinforce the integrity of its Temporary Work (Skilled) subclass 457 programme. This includes more stringent requirements in terms of English language knowledge and changes to the labour market test coverage. Australia also made it unlawful for a person to give or receive a benefit in return for a migration outcome in relation to certain skilled work visa programmes.

The United States, Canada and the United Kingdom also took steps to reinforce employer incentives to rely less on foreign workers by raising the cost and complexity of recruitment. In the United States, the H-1B fee increased by USD 4 000 for applicants that employ 50 or more employees in the United States if more than 50% of the applicant’s employees are H-1B or L-1. In Canada, labour market test procedures have been made more strict and a compliance fee added. In the United Kingdom, salary thresholds under the Tier 2 general scheme for skilled migrants will be increased to GBP 30 000 by 2017 from a minimum of 21 000 currently, with some exceptions. Intra-corporate transfers will be subject to a higher salary threshold. Fees will also be increased.

### ***Less skilled workers***

While no new large-scale labour migration programmes have been opened for less skilled workers, changes have been made in existing provisions.

In a number of countries, these have aimed at improving access. Chile introduced a simplified employment permit in March 2015, allowing workers to receive a work permit by presenting a valid employment contract. Renewal requires proof of payment of social contributions. Employers are no longer responsible for paying travel or return costs.

Canada reformed its Live-In Caregivers Programme, to lift the requirement to live with care recipients, and divided it into two pathways to permanent residence, depending on the person cared for in the home (a child or those with high medical needs).

Other changes have gone in the direction of making less skilled migration within temporary worker programmes more restrictive. In New Zealand, the labour market test, mandatory for low-skilled workers, has been changed from April 2016. Employers must engage with the authority, Work and Income, before submitting a work visa application. Work and Income provides guidance, reduces uncertainty for employers and streamlines the process of deciding the visa application. Canada introduced a cap on the share of

employees who can be Temporary Foreign Workers, to reduce employer reliance on the programme. Slovenia, in transposing the EU Single Permit Directive in 2015, also restricted labour migration to those working on a full time basis. Several exceptions are made, including for those with a higher education degree.

Opportunities for migration for less skilled occupations have opened up, with specific targets, in Japan and Germany. Japan is making a gradual introduction of its programme authorising foreign domestic workers in certain areas. In two regions of Japan, families may now hire foreign domestic workers through agency schemes and subject to prevailing wage requirements. While Japan's trainee programme is under review, past trainees in the construction and ship-building sector are authorized to return for employment until the 2020 Olympics. Germany activated a channel for labour migration – not subject to skill or education requirements – for citizens of Western Balkan countries. From January 2016, those with a valid contract respecting wage conditions can obtain a work permit, subject to a labour market test. The channel will run until the end of 2018. Those who received benefits as asylum seekers in Germany in the preceding two years, however, are ineligible.

Increased demand for temporary workers in non-professional occupations has led to higher caps. Caps have been raised in New Zealand's RSE seasonal work programme, from 9 000 to 9 500 in 2015. In the United States, the 2016 Budget contained a provision to exempt H-2B temporary workers identified as "returning workers" from the FY2016 cap of 66 000. This allows H-2B workers who were counted against the cap in FY2013-15 to obtain or renew their visa without counting against the cap.

Korea adjusted its management system for non-professional foreign workers to allow for changes in the quota distribution among firms and sectors. The labour market test requirement was also shortened from two weeks to one week for certain sectors.

Switzerland is examining how to adapt its migration regulations for EU citizens following a referendum in 2014 which imposes numerical limits to be implemented by February 2017. On 4 March 2016, the Federal Council submitted to Parliament several pieces of draft legislation to implement the constitutional provisions on immigration. Since the Federal Council has not yet been able to reach an agreement with the EU – whose nationals would also be subject to ceilings – it is proposing a unilateral safeguard clause to control immigration that will allow it to fix annual limits if immigration exceeds a certain level. In the meanwhile, Switzerland kept its annual quotas for non-EEA labour migrants for 2016 on the same level as in 2015 (2 500 residence permits and 4 000 short residence permits).

In Israel, issues in implementation of bilateral agreements have led to a decline in the inflow of foreign workers in the construction sector, and concerns over the negative effect of foreign workers on local employment persist. A different model is being introduced from 2016. The government will accept expressions of interest from foreign construction companies, which once approved will be able to bring up to 1 000 foreign workers to work on contracted projects.

Labour law is another area where countries have tried to prevent exploitation of foreign workers. New Zealand changed Employment Standards legislation with effect in April 2016. The minimum employment code (which includes minimum wage and paid holidays requirements) covers all workers in New Zealand, whether domestic or foreign, and regardless of visa status (i.e. including people working unlawfully).



### *Investors/entrepreneurs*

Investor schemes have been an area of constant policy activity in OECD countries as models are evaluated and adjusted to provide the maximum return and remain attractive for entrepreneurs. The Netherlands simplified its investor scheme to attract more applicants, with changes to enter into force in July 2016. While the minimum threshold remains the same (EUR 1.25 million), there will be less emphasis on the “innovative” character of the investment. Verification of the origin of capital will be eased and the permit will be extended from one to three years. However, real estate investment will now be excluded.

Australia implemented changes in July 2015 to its investor streams. The Significant Investor (SIV) stream was changed to direct investments away from real estate and government bonds and into venture capital funds and emerging companies, as well as other securities. A Premium Investors programme (PIV) was also created, under which Australia invites a small number of entrepreneurs and talents, nominated by Austrade, to apply. Initially, it will target those in the United States.

Pilot schemes, including “Start Up” visas for entrepreneurs with less capital but with compelling business ideas or talent, have become more common. Denmark introduced a pilot programme for entrepreneurs, capped at 50 annually, to run for three years. In order to qualify for a residence permit under the scheme, the applicant must submit a business plan to a board in the Ministry of Business and Growth, which will assess the potential of the idea. New Zealand launched a “Global Impact Visa” category to enable government to partner with the private sector to attract and support high-impact entrepreneurs, investors and start-ups who do not meet existing requirements. Visas will be capped at 400 over a four-year pilot period. Ireland reduced the investment threshold for its “Start-up Entrepreneur Programme”, from EUR 75 000 to 50 000. The Netherlands introduced a “start up visa” in 2015, for applicants with a sponsor. Recipients receive a one year permit to develop their product or service. Lithuania approved a “start up visa” in 2016, but has not yet implemented it.

Bulgaria in 2014 introduced a simplified procedure for obtaining permanent residence and naturalisation for foreign high net-worth individuals investing in Bulgarian companies, stocks or funds. Investments of over EUR 500 000 grant permanent residence and simplified procedures for naturalisation, while for higher level investments (over EUR 1 million), investors are fast-tracked for naturalisation. Latvia revised its investor visa programme in 2014 to raise minimum investment levels and increase the fees on visa applications.

### *International students*

OECD countries continue to rework their framework for attracting and retaining international students, trying to balance the important role of students in contributing to the higher education system and labour migration channels with the need to ensure compliance with conditions of admission. The Australian Government announced the intended implementation of a simplified student visa framework (SSVF) from 1 July 2016. Key changes include a reduction in the number of Student visa subclasses from eight to two, the introduction of a new single immigration risk framework and the expansion of online visa lodgement facilities. Canada increased compliance measures by limiting international students to designated learning facilities, but also lifted the work-permit requirement for employment during studies. Korea increased the number of hours of employment allowed during study, from 20 to 25.

Other countries have taken measures to ensure that international study is not a burden on local taxpayers. Portugal, from 2014, created an “International Student Status” for third-country nationals who apply from outside Portugal or who have been resident for less than two years, except for those in mobility programmes supported by the Portuguese government or the EU. The highest prevailing tuition is applicable to these students, although tuition fees in Portugal are low in international comparison. In October 2015 the Finnish government introduced tuition fees for higher education students from outside of the EU/EFTA, set by universities with a minimum of EUR 1 500 and binding from August 2017. However, scholarships will be provided, and fees apply only to those studying in a language other than Swedish or Finnish.

Regarding their possibility to remain after graduation, the clear trend in OECD countries has been to make this simpler. In Australia, postgraduates of Australian institutions with a Masters (Research) or PhD in a science, technology, engineering and mathematics (STEM) and information and communications technology (ICT) field will be awarded extra points under the points-tested skilled migration programme, which provides permanent residency. In Norway, from May 2016, facilitations for graduates and researchers have been improved. Work permits for job search will last for 12 months rather than six months, and researchers may receive one at expiration of a prior work permit. Finland extended its post-graduation job-search extension from six to 12 months in 2014.

The Netherlands created a single permit valid for job-search by qualified foreigners (“Orientation Year”). Since 1 March 2016, the one-year permit is available for foreign graduates of a Dutch university or one of a large number of approved foreign universities, and foreign scientific researchers who have carried out their research in the Netherlands.

In the United States, Optional Practical Training is offered as a possibility for post-graduate work. A Science, Technology, Engineering, and Mathematics (STEM) OPT rule was published on 11 March 2016, extending the duration of OPT for STEM graduates by an additional seven months, to 36 months total. For the first time, however, employers of STEM OPT holders are subject to a series of measures (for example, wage and contract conditions must be commensurate with those of similarly situated US workers) and must establish a training programme for the participant.

Lithuania, from 2015, allows international graduates to take up employment in their field of study without having to demonstrate experience. They – as well as some categories of temporary worker – are also allowed to apply for work permits for highly qualified occupations without returning to their home country.

### ***Family and residence***

Canada has taken the clear policy position of facilitating family migration. Following the election of a new government on October 19, 2015, the Government of Canada established family reunification as a top priority for the immigration program. It raised the admission target by 17.6%, going from 68 000 in 2015 to 80 000 in 2016, an all-time high. This includes 20 000 parents and grandparents and 60 000 spouses, partners and children. Additional funds were allocated to deal with backlogs. Backlogs for parents and grandparents will be reduced by doubling future parents and grandparents application intake to a maximum of 10 000 applications annually.

Elsewhere, conditions for family reunification have not been eased. In countries with language requirements for family migrants, there has been no tendency to reduce them. The United Kingdom is increasing the English language requirements for non-EEA partners and parents, both for initial admission, permit issuance and after 30 months residence. The requirement will be implemented after October 2016. Fees have also been increased in Denmark. On 1 March 2016 a fee for applying for a family reunification residence permit was re-introduced. At present, the fee is approximately EUR 800.

### ***Free Trade and Bilateral Agreements***

Countries have expanded the network of bilateral agreements in which migration plays a role. Some are Free Trade Agreements (FTAs). For example, New Zealand signed an FTA with Korea in 2015, which included three new or amended temporary work policies that offered better access to New Zealand for citizens of Korea. The agreement increases the number of places in the working holiday scheme, allows up to 50 Koreans to receive training and experience in the primary sector in New Zealand, and exempts up to 200 Koreans from labour market tests in applying for work permits in specified occupations. On 20 December 2015, the China Australia Free Trade Agreement (ChAFTA) entered into force, eliminating Australian labour market testing requirements on employers sponsoring certain categories of workers from China.

Working holiday maker agreements are also signed bilaterally. Among the recent agreements are one between Chile and Hungary in 2016, and those between Israel and Australia, Korea and Germany in 2014. Israel also signed a bilateral pilot agreement with Nepal in 2015 for the recruitment of care workers.

### ***Recent development in European migration and asylum policies***

While the political guidelines of the President of the European Commission elected in 2014 envisaged to focus the legislative programme of the Commission on the European legal labour migration framework (notably, the reform of the 2009 EU Blue Card Directive on the entry and residence of highly qualified workers), policy changes have been driven so far by the EU response to the unfolding refugee crisis and by the revision of the European asylum system. The year 2015 was marked by the adoption and the implementation of the “European Agenda for Migration” presented by the Commission on 13 May 2015.<sup>5</sup> To complement a set of immediate actions aiming at saving lives at sea, targeting smuggler networks, relocating asylum seekers within the EU and resettling Syrian refugees from countries of first asylum, the Commission proposed a set of initiatives based on four pillars: reducing the incentives for irregular migration, strengthening border management, building a strong common asylum policy and establishing a new policy on legal migration.

### ***Building up a European response to the refugee crisis***

The so-called Dublin Regulation determines responsibility for the examination of asylum applications, based on the principle that countries of first entry in the European Union would legally be responsible. The considerable inflow that was recorded in 2015, notably in Greece, put this principle under great strain. The Commission proposed to derogate temporarily to the Dublin System and to relocate asylum seekers from Greece as well as Italy to other member states. Moreover, EU member states decided to create “hot spots” in Greece and Italy to support the relocation scheme and facilitate an early identification of people who might not be entitled to protection in the EU.

The EU adopted on 14 and 22 September 2015 two decisions aiming at relocating respectively 20 000 and 140 000 asylum seekers towards the other EU member states, with the financial support of the EU to member states up to EUR 6 000 per relocated person. Those decisions have been extremely difficult to implement. On 18 May 2016, only 1 500 persons had been relocated from Greece and Italy since September 2015.<sup>6</sup> After having been outvoted by the qualified majority of member states in favour of the relocation decisions, two member states (the Slovak Republic and Hungary) decided to introduce an appeal to the Court of Justice.

Regarding resettlement of refugees from third countries, the EU Council of Ministers adopted on 20 July 2015<sup>7</sup> conclusions aimed at resettling 20 000 persons from North Africa, the Middle East and the Horn of Africa in clear need of international protection. By 18 May 2016, the member states had pledged to resettle 22 504 persons and 6 321 had already been effectively resettled.<sup>8</sup>

The flow of asylum seekers and migrants entering the EU through Greece and finding their way through the Balkans to other member states generated strong tensions in the European Union. While Germany continued to welcome asylum seekers without sending them back to the country of entry, several other member states reinforced their border controls and some even re-established checks at their internal borders within the Schengen Area. The Council activated on 12 May 2016 an exceptional circumstances clause in the Schengen treaty to allow member states to maintain internal borders controls for a period of six months (renewable three times up to a maximum of two years). This was motivated by the fact that the overall functioning of the Schengen area was put at risk as a result of persistent serious deficiencies in control of the Greek part of the external borders.<sup>9</sup>

The European Union concluded on 18 March 2016 an agreement with Turkey on the management of the refugee crisis that led to a very significant reduction in April and May of the number of people arriving in Greece.<sup>10</sup>

The Commission, recognising that the crisis had revealed weaknesses in the Common Asylum Policy, proposed reforms on 6 April 2016. Key elements to the proposal are major legislative changes to increase convergence of the rules defining who is eligible for protection and on how asylum procedures are organised. The proposal would enhance the role of the European Agency in charge of asylum (EASO) and revise the Dublin Regulation. While the Commission proposal<sup>11</sup> preserves the system of allocation of responsibility, it includes a corrective allocation mechanism in order to ensure a fair sharing of responsibility between member states in line with the Treaty of Lisbon.

Once a member state has been considered responsible for 150% of its fair share, the corrective allocation mechanism is automatically triggered and the asylum seekers relocated among the member states below that threshold. The fair share of each member state is calculated based on the size of each member state's population (50% weighting) and the GDP (50% weighting) relative to that of the entire EU. The proposal also allows member states not to take part in that mechanism by compensating the member state that has taken responsibility, at a cost of EUR 250 000 per asylum seeker. This proposal will be examined by the EU institutions under the co-decision procedure and is likely to be subject to intense political debate over the balance between solidarity and responsibility among member states in the Common Asylum Policy.

In addition, the Commission proposed on 7 June 2015 to frame the EU policy on resettlement on the basis of the 2014 Union Resettlement Programme,<sup>12</sup> which created the Asylum, Migration and Integration Fund (AMIF). The Fund provides member states with financial support of EUR 6 000 to 10 000 per resettled person.

### ***Reform of European Agencies in the areas of borders and asylum***

The European Commission has tabled on 15 December 2016 a proposal aiming at reinforcing Frontex by transforming it into a “European Border and Coast Guard Agency”.<sup>13</sup> Frontex, the European Agency for the Management of Operational Cooperation at the External Borders of the EU member states, was built to support national agencies. The proposal would transform Frontex into an agency responsible for integrated border management of the EU’s external borders. The goal is to remedy the insufficient power of Frontex that needs the co-operation of member states to act efficiently, in particular by creating a permanent reserve pool of a minimum of 1 500 border guards from the member states that the Agency would be able to mobilise immediately. The most far reaching envisaged provision would give the Agency the power to intervene directly in a member state which does not take action to control its borders or in case of a “disproportionate migratory pressure at the external border risking to jeopardise the Schengen Area”.

However, even if the proposal from the Commission envisages transforming the implementation of EU legislation in the field of external borders into a shared responsibility, member states would retain the primary responsibility for the management of their section of the external borders in their interest and in the interest of all member states. The idea to reinforce the power of the European Agency for Asylum came up in parallel to the proposal related to the Border Agency. The Commission tabled on 4 May 2016 a proposal aiming at transforming the existing “European Asylum Support Office” (EASO) into an EU Agency for Asylum.<sup>14</sup>

### ***EU Funding of migration and asylum policies***

While the funding of migration and asylum policies is the responsibility of member states in charge of the implementation of European policies, the increasing regulation of these policies at the EU level has corresponded to an increase in the level of EU financial support to the member states. Two funds have been created for the financial period 2014-20: the Asylum, Migration and Integration Fund (AMIF) of up to EUR 3.1 billion, and the Internal Security Fund (ISF) under which border and visa policies are funded up to EUR 3.8 billion. These EUR 6.9 billion are part of the long-term funding foreseen in the projected budget for the 2014-20 six-year period.

EU funding has increased to address the combined effects of the asylum and financial crises at national level. The EU increased the budget in 2015 for the asylum crisis with EUR 801 million by reallocating money budgeted initially for other purposes. Moreover, emergency funding foreseen under the AMIF and ISF has more than doubled for 2016 (from EUR 189 to EUR 464 million). Such a reallocation is testimony to the solidarity from the EU towards member states particularly affected by the crisis, Greece foremost of all. The funds are on top of the budget allocated to each member state under the criteria established by the funding regulations and do not require co-financing from the recipient member states.

Finally, the EU has also adopted a Regulation (2016/369) on 15 March 2016 in order to be able to provide humanitarian assistance to member states in need due to the asylum crisis. The rules on humanitarian aid allow the EU to spend money for humanitarian aid only outside its territory (i.e. in third countries). EUR 700 million has been budgeted for 2016-18.

### **Relations with third countries**

Relations of the EU with neighbouring third countries, in particular with Turkey, have been understandably dominated by attempts to address the asylum crisis.<sup>15</sup>

A high level-conference on the Eastern Mediterranean-Western Balkans Route was convened on 25 October 2015, with representatives of 11 States (Albania, Austria, Bulgaria, Croatia, the Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, Germany, Greece, Hungary, Romania, Serbia and Slovenia). The final declaration of this conference emphasises that facing the asylum crisis is a “collective responsibility”. A 17-point Action Plan was agreed, covering the following items: permanent exchange of information, limiting secondary movements, supporting refugees and providing shelter and rest, co-operation in management of migration flows, border management, tackling smuggling and trafficking, information on rights and obligations of refugees and migrants, and monitoring of these commitments. The declaration called for the creation of 50 000 additional reception places for asylum seekers in Greece as well as an additional 50 000 other places along the Western Balkans route.

A summit was organised on 11-12 November 2015 in Valletta in the framework of the co-operation between the EU and Africa about migration. An action plan was agreed around five priority domains: improving the development benefits of migration and addressing root causes of irregular migration and forced displacement; legal migration and mobility; protection and asylum; prevention of and fight against irregular migration, migrant smuggling and trafficking in human beings; and return, readmission and reintegration. The action plan identifies initiatives, including some to be implemented by the end of 2016 at the latest. Initiatives include the operationalization of the African Institute on Remittances; the enhancement of civil status registration as a tool necessary for the identification of persons for the purpose of readmission of irregular migrants in their country of origin; pilot projects to pool offers for legal migration by EU member states to selected African countries; the implementation of Regional Development and Protection Programmes in the Horn of Africa and North Africa; the creation of a multi-purpose centre in Agadez (Niger) to assist, inform, register migrants; as well as providing opportunities for voluntary return and reintegration in cooperation with countries of origin.

A Trust Fund for Africa was also created with the aim to address root causes of forced displacement and irregular migration by promoting economic opportunities, security and development, including migration management. The targets are the Sahel Region and Lake Chad Area, the Horn of Africa and the Northern Africa. The budget amounts at the end of 2015 to EUR 1.9 billion.

The European Union and Turkey managed to conclude an “agreement” on 18 March 2016 in the form of a common statement. The complex package deal includes the following elements:

- Turkey will take the necessary measures to prevent irregular crossings to Greece and all new persons arriving in Greece as from 20 March will be returned to Turkey. Regarding

asylum seekers, this is based on the assumption that Turkey can be considered as a “safe third country” on the basis of article 38 of EU Directive 2013/32 on asylum procedures.

- For every Syrian refugee returned from Greece to Turkey, another Syrian will be resettled from Turkey to the EU (the 1 to 1 principle) within the limits of 72 000 persons (this figure is the sum of 18 000 foreseen resettlement unfilled by mid-March 2016, and the 54 000 places for reallocation from Hungary proposed in September 2015 but declined by Hungary).
- Turkey will benefit from EUR 3 billion funding projects for the integration of refugees, with a provision for as much as EUR 3 billion more available before the end of 2018 once the initial budget has been spent.
- The visa liberalisation for Turkish nationals will be accelerated.
- The enlargement process will be re-energised with the opening of new chapters.

### *Legal migration*

Considering in its communication of 6 April 2016<sup>16</sup> that it has “failed to reach its potential as the EU-wide scheme for attracting talented and highly skilled third-country nationals it was meant to be”, the Commission proposed on 7 June 2016 a new EU Blue Card Directive. The Commission also announced a REFIT (regulatory fitness) evaluation that could lead to the codification of the existing instruments in the area of legal migration, and potentially proposals in the area of investors and entrepreneurs.

In the meantime, the Council of Ministers and the European Parliament approved in May 2016 a compromise about the Commission proposal on the conditions of entry and residence of third-country nationals for the purposes of research, studies, pupil exchange, remunerated and unremunerated training voluntary service and au pairing. This new legislation will replace the Students directive 2004/114 and the Researchers directive 2005/71. This legislative reform is part of the efforts of the European Union to attract highly skilled migrants in the global race for talents.

The most important change concerns a right for researchers and students to stay in the member state where they completed their research or studies for a period of at least nine months in order to seek employment or to set up a business. The aim is to retain highly skilled migrants, in particular in the case of those who are supposed to have been well trained in a European university and well integrated due to their studies in one member state. The right for students to work during their studies will be increased to a minimum of 15 hours a week instead of 10 hours under the current Directive 2004/114. The new Directive also contains provisions on the mobility of students who are covered by a EU or multilateral programme or by an agreement between two or more higher education institutions as well as on the mobility of researchers.

The Commission adopted on 24 June 2015 a regulation on the procedure for the issuance of the European Professional Card. The EPC is actually not a card but a proof generated by an on-line tool that the professional qualifications have been recognised. It is for the moment only applicable to five professions (general nurses, pharmacists, physiotherapists, mountain guides and real estate agents) characterised by a high degree of mobility between member states, but it could be extended in the future to other professions like doctors and engineers. The Card is meant to support mobility, and both EU nationals and third-country nationals legally resident in the EU may apply for it.

The Commission presented on 8 March 2016 a proposal<sup>17</sup> amending Directive 96/71 of 16 December 1996 concerning the posting of workers in the framework of the provision of services. The proposal is based on the principle that “the same work at the same place should be remunerated in the same manner”. While Directive 96/71 only obliges undertakings to apply the law of the working place to “the minimum rates of pay”, the proposal extends this rule to remuneration (including overtime rates) defined as “all the elements of remuneration rendered mandatory by national law, regulation or administrative provision, collective agreements or arbitration awards which have been declared universally applicable”. Moreover, when posting exceeds 24 months, all the provisions of the law of the working place would apply, except for those which can be derogated from by contract.

Nine member states from Eastern and Central Europe reacted by arguing that the proposal is incompatible with the single market, as pay rate differences constitute a legitimate element of competitive advantage for service providers. Several Western European member states support the position of the Commission. On 10 May 2016, 11 national parliaments of Central and Eastern Europe plus Denmark opposed the Commission proposal on the basis of protocol No. 2 to the Treaties by considering that it does not respect the principles of subsidiarity and proportionality. This so-called “Yellow Card” procedure obliges the Commission to review its proposal. It may decide to maintain, amend or withdraw the proposal but it must give reasons for its decision. The position of the Commission is expected, but no deadline is foreseen for this. It is only the third time since the entry into force of the Lisbon Treaty that this “Yellow Card” procedure has been used.

## Notes

1. Asylum seekers are not included in permanent migration until they have been granted protection status. Therefore, 2014 data include only 2013 and early 2014 asylum requests – that is, before the start of the rise.
2. In 2013, work permits in Italy granted as part of the 2012 migrant regularisation programme were eventually issued after a long delay. Therefore, the 2013 figure for labour migration was artificially inflated, and in turn the decline in 2014 appears to be much sharper than it actually is (OECD, 2015a).
3. Recognition rate is defined as the share of positive decisions in the total number of asylum decisions.
4. The magnitude of the variations of inflows to Germany is one of the abovementioned caveats, as German national data have a broader definition of migrant than most other countries. However, this does not impact the trend.
5. COM(2015)240.
6. COM(2016)360.
7. Document 11130/15.
8. COM(2016)360, Annex 3.
9. This decision authorises Austria, Germany, Denmark, Sweden and Norway to continue controls at certain internal borders for a period of six months.
10. COM(2016)360.
11. COM(2016)270.



12. Regulation 516/2014.
13. COM(2015)671.
14. COM(2016)271.
15. See the Joint Communication of the High Representative of the Union for Foreign Affairs and Security Policy of 9 September 2015 entitled "Addressing the Refugee crisis in Europe: the role of EU external actions" (JOIN[2015]40).
16. COM(2016)197.
17. COM(2016)128.

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ANNEX 1.A1

Supplementary tables and figures

Figure 1.A1.1. Changes in inflows of migrants by country of origin, selected OECD countries, 2004-13 and 2014

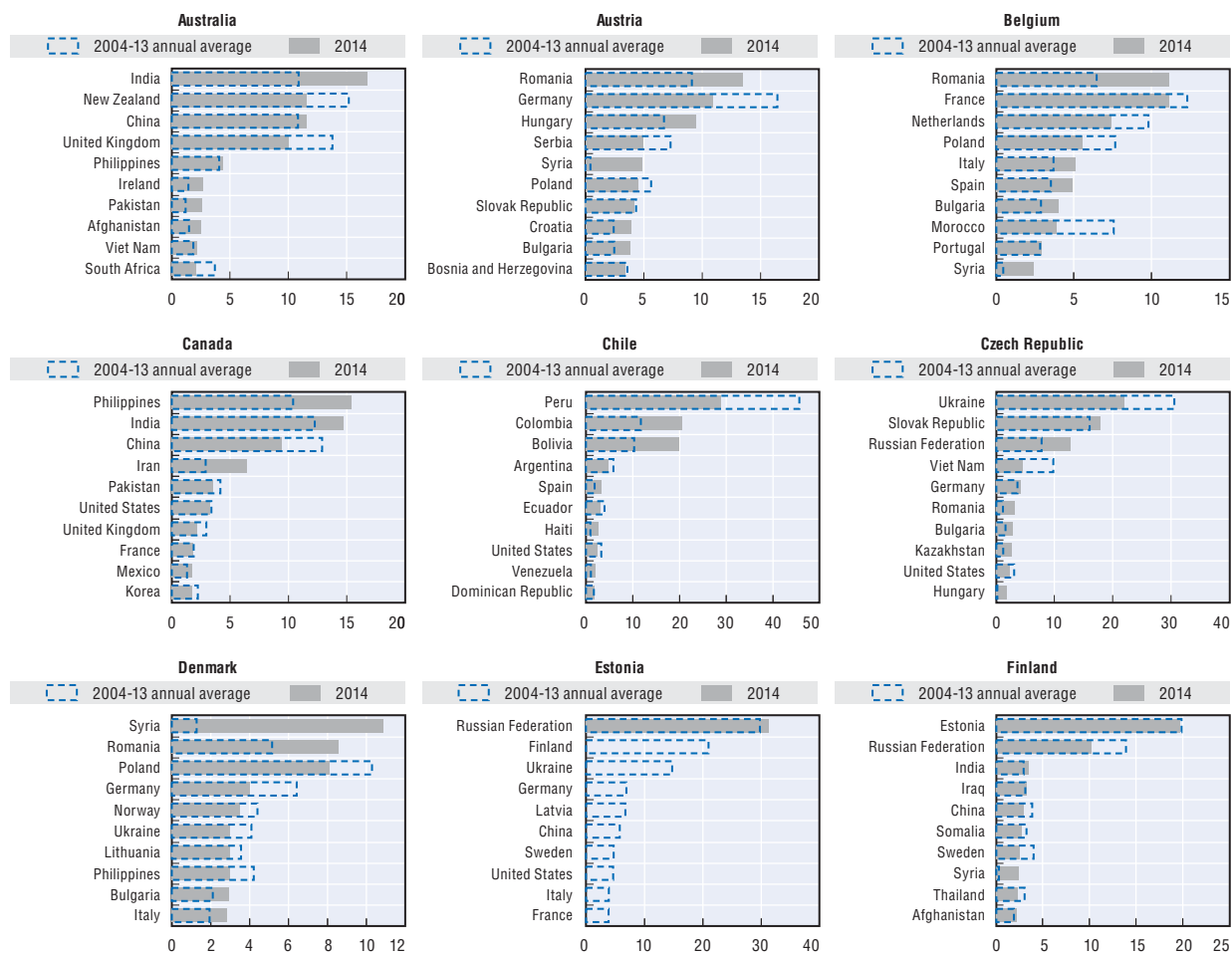


Figure 1.A1.1. Changes in inflows of migrants by country of origin, selected OECD countries, 2004-13 and 2014 (cont.)

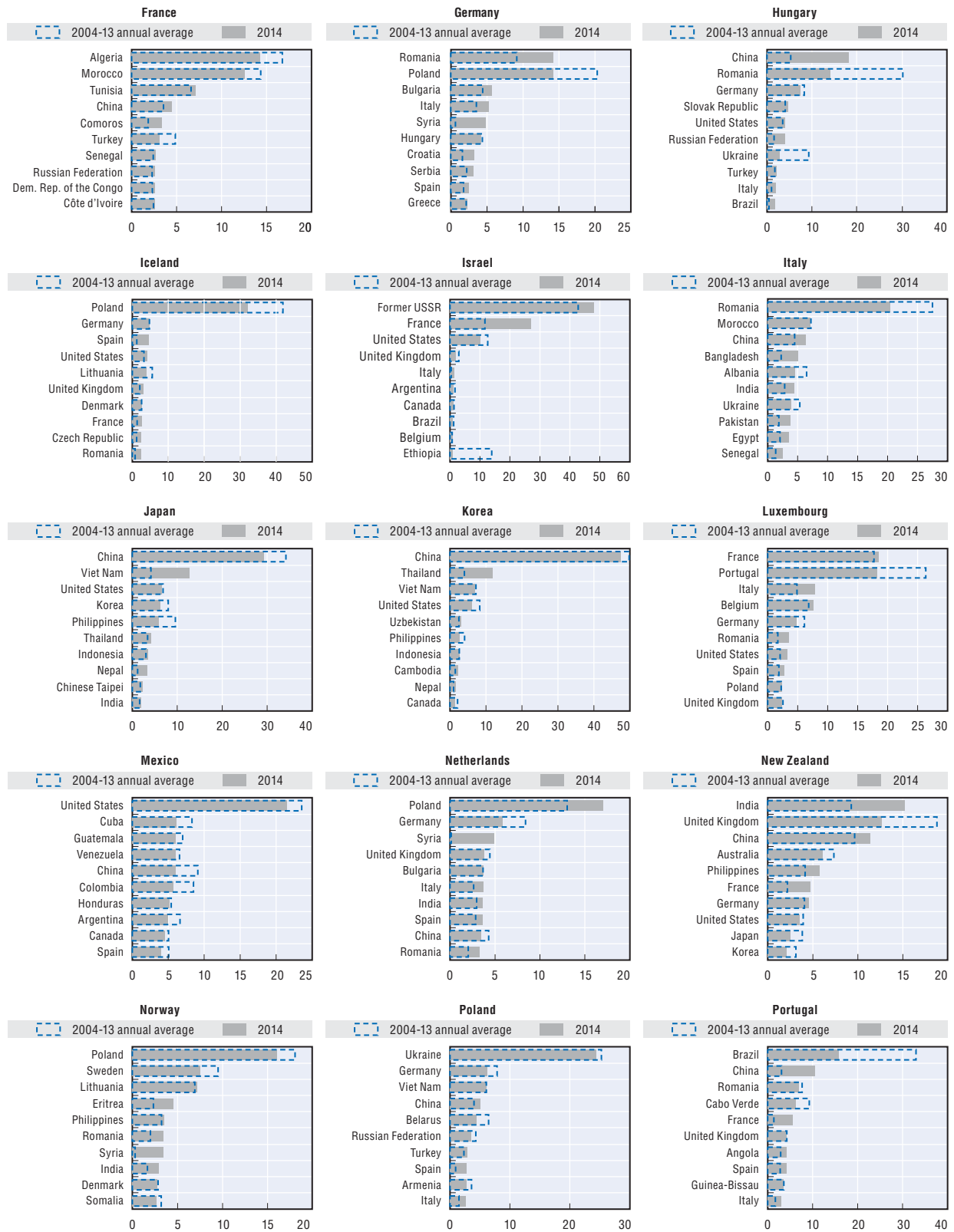
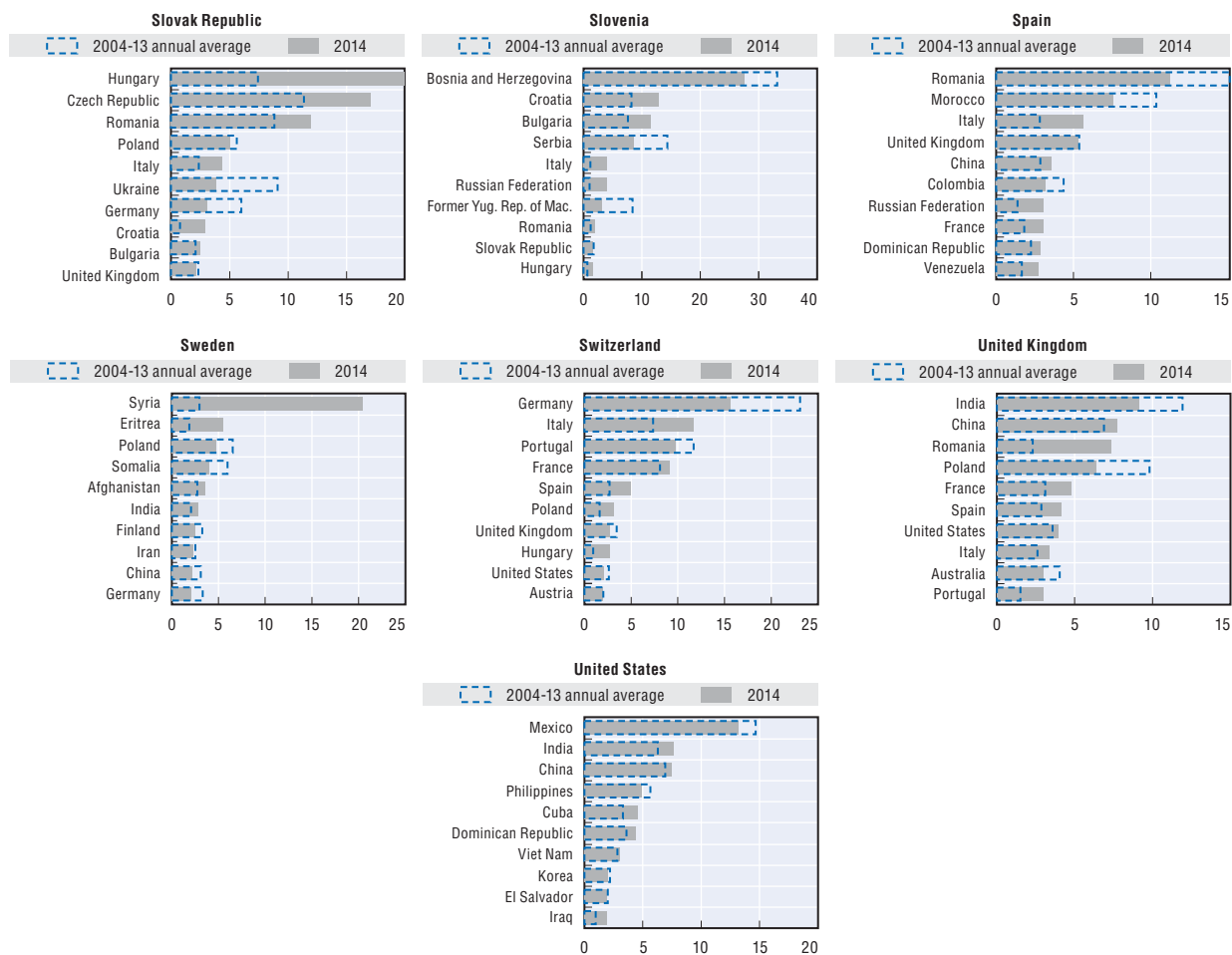


Figure 1.A1.1. **Changes in inflows of migrants by country of origin, selected OECD countries, 2004-13 and 2014 (cont.)**



Source: International Migration Database.


StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933395425>

Table 1.A1.1. **Preliminary trends in migration flows, 2015**

	2014	2015	% change	Period covered	Number of months
Australia	236 559	226 570	-4	July-June	12
Austria	127 451	142 159	12	January-October	9
Belgium					
Canada	260 265	271 662	4	January-December	12
Chile					
Czech Republic	38 490	31 589	-18	January-December	12
Denmark	64 874	75 558	16	January-December	12
Estonia					
Finland	23 647	21 414	-9	January-December	12
France	145 944	145 845	0	January-December	12
Germany	1 342 529	2 016 000	50	January-December	12
Greece					
Hungary					
Iceland	4 348	4 963	14	January-December	12
Ireland	49 000	57 200	17	May-April	12
Israel	24 120	27 208	13	January-December	12
Italy	248 360	250 026	1	January-December	12
Japan	65 352	71 894	10	January-December	12
Korea	75 103	80 722	7	January-December	11
Luxembourg	21 024	22 608	8	January-December	12
Mexico					
Netherlands	154 193	174 303	13	January-December	12
New Zealand	80 289	91 767	14	January-December	12
Norway	61 429	59 068	-4	January-December	12
Poland					
Portugal					
Slovak Republic					
Slovenia	11 311	12 665	12	January-December	12
Spain	264 485	291 387	10	January-December	12
Sweden	106 100	113 868	7	January-December	12
Switzerland	152 106	150 459	-1	January-December	12
Turkey					
United Kingdom	551 000	547 000	-1	January-December	12
United States	1 016 518	1 050 000	3	October-September	12

Note: Data for France refer to non-EU countries only.

Source: International Migration Database and national data sources.



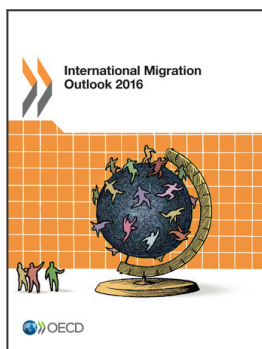
StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933396296>

Table 1.A1.2. **Permanent flows to OECD countries by category, 2014**

	Work		Accompanying family of workers		Family		Humanitarian		Other		Free movements	
		% change 2013-14		% change 2013-14		% change 2013-14		% change 2013-14		% change 2013-14		% change 2013-14
Australia	61 580	-2	66 970	2	61 110	2	13 770	-31	340	-92	27 270	-34
Austria	4 900	5	930	20	9 670	1	1 340	-47	300	2	57 520	14
Belgium	4 770	10			23 110	4	6 150	24			59 060	-4
Canada	78 040	21	86 900	4	66 660	-16	27 640	-11	30	-39		
Denmark	7 930	0	4 190	19	5 790	12	6 110	57	4 820	14	26 710	13
Finland	1 300	5			9 500	8	2 900	-5	280	-34	9 490	-7
France	31 270	25			103 880	-1	13 190	9	22 990	7	87 610	-9
Germany	27 850	15			63 680	14	42 390	36	5 650	133	434 890	23
Ireland	3 730	55	170	-47	2 530	24	220	23			26 180	12
Italy	48 490	-34	1 660	-34	59 740	-24	20 580	43	5 240	6	68 390	-12
Japan	29 260	17			21 380	4	160	0	12 750	11		
Korea	1 180	-26	5 170	2	27 950	-11	630	1658	40 800	43		
Mexico	10 300				21 040		350		11 780			
Luxembourg	690	-39			1 310	22	240	43	140	-16	16 460	6
Netherlands	11 950	-8			20 420	-3	19 430	95			72 310	11
New Zealand	11 700	15	12 200	19	17 650	5	3 550	5			4 420	19
Norway	3 740	-3			11 040	-8	5 690	-15			34 570	-9
Portugal	6 410	0			10 880	13	110	-19	6 100	88	12 380	19
Spain	31 620	-15			39 100	-5	1 580	200	9 330	7	102 100	10
Sweden	3 710	-4	1 490	-37	31 400	7	35 640	23			12 200	-45
Switzerland	1 870	-18			19 510	-6	6 360	26	3 070	53	103 780	-2
United Kingdom	79 250	-8	37 050	-1	27 370	4	17 190	-19	22 390	1	128 210	30
United States	71 400	-6	80 200	-6	645 560	-1	134 240	12	85 120	41		

Source: OECD International migration Database.

StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933396309>



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