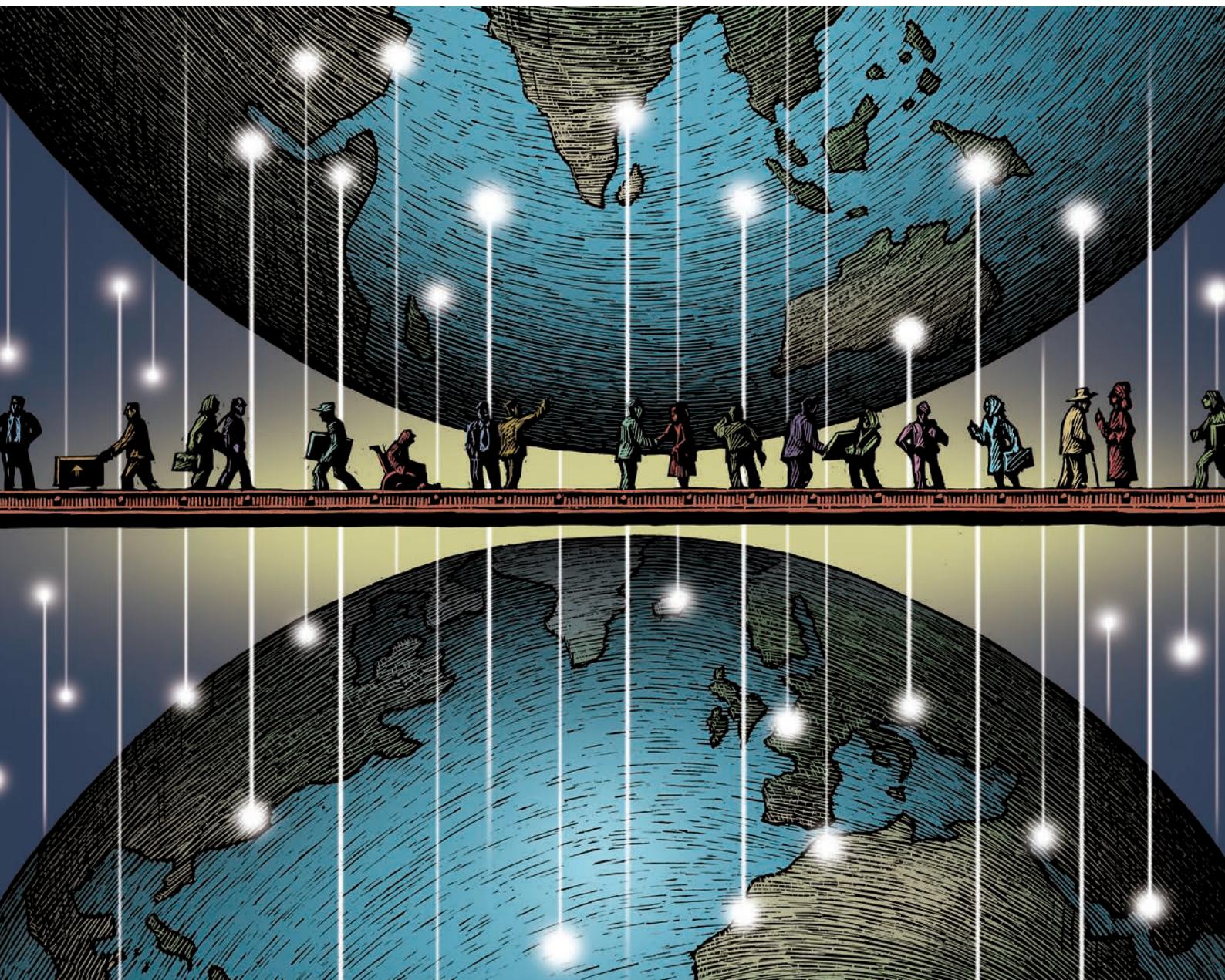


International Migration Outlook 2025

49th Edition



International Migration Outlook 2025

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Foreword

This publication constitutes the 49th report of the OECD's Continuous Reporting System on Migration. The report is divided into six chapters plus a statistical annex. Chapter 1 provides a broad overview of recent trends in international migration flows. It also analyses recent changes on the labour market inclusion of immigrants in OECD countries. Chapter 2 monitors recent changes in migration policies, while Chapter 3 looks at the recent changes in policies that support the integration of immigrants and their children.

Chapter 4 looks at the role of firms in immigrant integration. It sheds new light on the role of firms in shaping the immigrant earnings gap using linked employer-employee data for 15 OECD countries. The chapter starts by documenting the immigrant earnings gap at entry in the labour market and the extent to which it is driven by immigrants working disproportionately in lower-paying firms, industries and occupations. It then analyses how the earnings gap evolves as immigrants integrate into the labour market by moving to better-paying firms, industries and occupations. The implications for immigrant integration policy are discussed in the conclusion.

Chapter 5 is the result of a co-operation between the OECD and the WHO in the context of the "Working for Health" programme. It examines the evolution of international migration of health professionals, specifically doctors and nurses, to OECD countries since 2000/01, in the context of growing workforce shortages and increasing global competition for talent. The chapter considers the implications for countries of origin, including the risk of brain drain, and highlights the importance of ethical recruitment practices. Finally, it explores recent changes in migration policies affecting health professionals, as well as developments in the recognition of foreign qualifications and licensing across the OECD.

Chapter 6 presents succinct country-specific notes and statistics on developments in international migration movements and policies in OECD and selected non-OECD countries in recent years. Lastly, the statistical annex includes a broad selection of recent and historical statistics on immigrant flows, asylum requests, foreign and foreign-born populations, and naturalisation.

This year's edition of the OECD *International Migration Outlook* is the collective work of the staff of the International Migration Division in the Directorate for Employment, Labour and Social Affairs. Chapter 4 was drafted by César Barreto (OECD), Ana Damas de Matos (OECD) and Alexander Hijzen (OECD). Chapter 5 was drafted by Ave Lauren (OECD), José Ramalho (OECD), Jean-Christophe Dumont (OECD), Gaetan Lafourture (OECD), as well as Agya Mahat (WHO) and Tapas Nair (WHO). It benefited from comments notably from a number of WHO colleagues – Giorgio Cometto, Khassoum Diallo, Teena Kunjumen and Jim Campbell. Jean-Christophe Dumont edited the report. Statistical work was carried out by Philippe Hervé, Sebastián Higuera, Veronika Strain-Fajth and co-ordinated by Cécile Thoreau. Editorial assistance was provided by Dominika Andrzejczak and Jennifer O'Brien as well as Lucy Hulett.

Editorial

Employers play a key role in the integration of migrant workers and should be supported

Although economic growth has slowed, OECD labour markets remain tight, with persistent shortages of workers in critical sectors. These shortages are not just cyclical but reflect structural changes due to demographic ageing. While migration cannot solve the challenges posed by ageing populations to the OECD labour markets, it can play a role in mitigating its impact.

A perfect illustration of the role migration can play is that of the health sector, as shown in the special chapter on international migration of health professionals in this publication. Despite continuous efforts to increase domestic training, the share of migrant doctors increased over the last two decades by seven percentage points (p.p.) in the OECD, from 21% to 28%. It is not only in health and care that migrants are essential workers, but also in other sectors, such as agriculture, construction, accommodation, or information and communications technology.

Labour migration is contributing to addressing structural labour market needs. Both permanent and temporary labour migration, despite a slight decrease in 2024, were still well above pre-pandemic levels at 32% and 26% above 2019 levels respectively. While employers play a crucial role in attracting international talent, they are also key to making the most of the skills of immigrants already living in the host country.

Most immigrants in employment in the OECD did not migrate with pre-arranged employment. They migrated for family or humanitarian reasons. Nevertheless, their fate in the labour market largely depends on the willingness and ability of employers to hire, train and integrate them in their firm.

The special chapter on the role of firms in immigrant integration in this edition of the Outlook shows that, at entry in the host country labour market, immigrants earn 34% less than the native-born of the same age and sex, on average over the 15 countries covered in the analysis. Almost two-thirds (63%) of this gap is due to *where* immigrants work. Immigrants not only work in lower-paying sectors, but they also work for lower-paying employers, within sectors. This employer effect accounts for 27% of the gap, on top of the 36% that is due to the sector concentration.

The immigrant earnings gap reduces by one-third, from 34% to 21%, in the first five years in the host country labour market. Although immigrants move on average to better-paying firms over time, most wage progression takes place within firms.

In the past decade, since the Syrian refugee crisis, OECD countries have made tremendous efforts to adapt and upgrade their integration systems with a reinforcement of the offer of language training, more targeted support, a rebalancing of rights and obligations of recently arrived immigrants, as well as with increasing investment in migrant integration.

The role of employers has however been largely neglected or focussed solely on refugee integration in the context of corporate social responsibilities. This ignores that employers are central to the successful integration of all immigrants.

Policymakers should therefore engage in a constructive discussion with employers on integration. They need to support those firms contributing the most to migrant workforce inclusion with targeted policies and incentives and create a general ecosystem conducive to better integration outcomes and social inclusion. Integration is also a shared responsibility whose benefits accrue to all, the migrant workers, the employing companies and the economy as a whole.



Stefano Scarpetta,
Director for Employment, Labour and Social Affairs,
OECD

Table of contents

Foreword	3
Editorial	4
Executive summary	11
1 Recent developments in international migration movements and labour market inclusion of immigrants	15
In Brief	16
Recent trends in international migration	17
Recent trends in the labour market outcomes of immigrants	60
References	71
Annex 1.A. Supplementary tables and figures	72
Notes	91
2 Recent developments in migration policy	93
In Brief	94
Major policy trends in 2024-2025	94
Regularisations related to employment	103
References	107
Notes	107
3 Recent developments in migrant integration policy	109
In Brief	110
Main developments in integration policy	111
Developments in the recognition of skills and qualifications	116
Digitisation and the use of Artificial Intelligence for integration	118
References	121
4 Immigrant integration: The role of firms	123
In Brief	124
Introduction	125
The framework	126
The immigrant earnings gap at entry in the host country labour market and over time	130
The role of firms, sectors and occupations in the immigrant earnings gap	134
Differences in the immigrant earnings gap by region-of-origin and sex	142
Conclusion	147
References	148

Annex 4.A. Data and methodology	151
Annex 4.B. Additional tables and figures	153
Notes	159
5 International migration of health professionals to OECD countries	161
In Brief	162
Introduction	163
Recent trends in international migration of doctors and nurses in the OECD	164
Evolving migration policies for health professionals in OECD countries	195
Overview of the recognition of foreign qualifications and licensing in health occupations in OECD countries	202
References	221
Annex 5.A. Evolution of the stock of foreign-trained health professionals	225
Annex 5.B. Intra OECD movements of migrant doctors, circa 2020/21 left axis (country of origin); right axis (country of residence)	230
Annex 5.C. Stocks of migrant doctors and nurses to the OECD by country of origin and emigration rates	231
Notes	235
6 Country notes: Recent changes in migration movements and policies	237
Annex A. Statistical annex	323
List of the members of the OECD Expert Group on Migration	438
Composition of the OECD International Migration Division	439

FIGURES

Figure 1.1. Permanent migration to the OECD, 2017-2024	18
Figure 1.2. Permanent migration to OECD countries relative to total population, 2024	21
Figure 1.3. Permanent migration to the OECD, by category of entry, 2014-2024	22
Figure 1.4. OECD countries with the largest increases in the number of displaced Ukrainians, 2024-2025	25
Figure 1.5. Number of refugees from Ukraine recorded in OECD countries, absolute numbers and per thousand of total population, June 2025	26
Figure 1.6. Refugees admitted to OECD countries under resettlement programmes, 2013-2024	27
Figure 1.7. Total flows of new temporary foreign workers to OECD countries, 2019-2024	29
Figure 1.8. Total grants of work authorisations in Poland, 2019-2024	30
Figure 1.9. Inflows of temporary labour migrants to the OECD, main programmes and top receiving countries, 2019-2024	32
Figure 1.10. Posting of workers active in a single country under Article 12 in top receiving European OECD countries, 2010-23	35
Figure 1.11. International student flows to the OECD, 2014-2024	38
Figure 1.12. Family members of international tertiary-level students to selected OECD countries, 2024	40
Figure 1.13. Top 20 nationalities of international tertiary-level students enrolled in OECD countries, 2014 and 2023	42
Figure 1.14. New asylum applications since 1980 in the OECD	43
Figure 1.15. New asylum applications in top OECD receiving countries, 2024	44
Figure 1.16. Top 15 origin countries of asylum applicants in OECD countries, 2024	46
Figure 1.17. Two main origin countries of asylum seekers by country of asylum	47
Figure 1.18. Quarterly detections of illegal border crossings in the EU and in the United Kingdom	48
Figure 1.19. Overstayers in Japan and Korea	49
Figure 1.20. Third-country nationals returned from an EU country following an order to leave	51

Figure 1.21. Top 20 countries of origin of new immigrants to the OECD, 2022-2023	53
Figure 1.22. Share of women in migration flows to OECD countries, 2019, 2022 and 2023	54
Figure 1.23. Share of women in flows from top 20 countries of origin of new immigrants to the OECD, 2023	55
Figure 1.24. Distribution of the foreign-born population worldwide, 2024	56
Figure 1.25. Foreign-born population as a percentage of the total population in OECD countries, 2014 and 2024	57
Figure 1.26. Acquisitions of citizenships in OECD countries, 2000-2024	57
Figure 1.27. Acquisitions of citizenship as a percentage of foreign population, 2023-2024	58
Figure 1.28. Acquisitions of nationality in OECD countries: Top 20 countries of former nationality, 2023 and 2022	59
Figure 1.29. Changes in the employment rate by demographic group and country of birth in selected OECD countries, between 2023 and 2024	65
Figure 1.30. Share of young people not in education, employment or training (“NEET”), by place of birth, in selected OECD countries, 2019-2022	68
Figure 4.1. The region of origin of new immigrants in the labour market	129
Figure 4.2. The immigrant earnings gap decreases with time spent in the host country labour market	131
Figure 4.3. Hours worked explain part of the initial immigrant earnings gap and its decrease over time	132
Figure 4.4. Immigrants who remain employed in the host country after five years are positively selected	133
Figure 4.5. Working in lower-paying firms and sectors accounts for over half of the initial immigrant earnings gap	134
Figure 4.6. Immigrants work in lower quality firms at entry in the labour market	136
Figure 4.7. Working in lower paying occupations accounts for one-quarter of the immigrant initial earnings gap	137
Figure 4.8. Immigrants partially close the earnings gap by moving to better paying firms and sectors	139
Figure 4.9. Immigrants climb up the firm quality ladder towards larger, higher paying, more productive and less segregated firms	140
Figure 4.10. Immigrants do not close the earnings gap by moving to higher-paying occupations	141
Figure 4.11. The earnings gap by region of origin	143
Figure 4.12. The immigrant earnings gap by category of migration in Canada	144
Figure 4.13. The immigrant earnings gap is slightly larger among male immigrants at labour market entry	146
Figure 4.14. Work in lower-paying firms explains more of the immigrant earnings gap for male immigrants	147
Figure 5.1. The evolution of the density of doctors in OECD countries	165
Figure 5.2. The evolution of the density of nurses in OECD countries	165
Figure 5.3. Distribution of foreign-born doctors and nurses by country of residence	170
Figure 5.4. Percentage of foreign-born among doctors and among people with high level of education in different OECD countries, 2020/21	171
Figure 5.5. Percentage of foreign-born among nurses and among people with high level of education in different OECD countries, 2020/21	171
Figure 5.6. Evolution of medical undergraduate programme intake in Ireland and Romania	176
Figure 5.7. Share of annual inflow of doctors and nurses attributable to foreign-trained in 2023	178
Figure 5.8. Evolution of yearly inflows of foreign-trained doctors over 2000-2023 in selected OECD countries	178
Figure 5.9. Evolution of yearly inflows of foreign-trained nurses over 2000-2023 in selected OECD countries	179
Figure 5.10. Immigrant doctors in France, main countries of origin, 2021	181
Figure 5.11. Immigrant doctors in Switzerland, main countries of origin, 2021	181
Figure 5.12. Immigrant nurses in Australia, main countries of origin, 2021	182
Figure 5.13. Immigrant nurses in Canada, main countries of origin, 2021	182
Figure 5.14. Share of doctors and nurses born in EEA or OECD countries among all migrant doctors and nurses, circa 2020/21	185
Figure 5.15. Net migrant stocks over 500 between OECD countries for migrant doctors to and from the OECD, circa 2020/21	186
Figure 5.16. Share of migrant doctors by country of destination and main region of origin, circa 2020/21	187
Figure 5.17. Share of migrant nurses by country of destination and main region of origin, circa 2020/21	187
Figure 5.18. Share of migrant doctors and nurses originating from countries in the WHO SSL list	190
Figure 5.19. Trends in the share of foreign-born medical doctors, nurses, dentists and pharmacists in Saudi Arabia and the United Arab Emirates (2015-2023)	193
Figure 5.20. Evolution of emigration rate to the OECD for doctors (X axis) and nurses (Y axis) between 2000/01 and 2020/21, p.p. change	195
Figure 5.21. Spain inflows of foreign-trained doctors over 2003-2023 by country of training	206
Annex Figure 1.A.1. Inflows of international students by nationality to selected OECD countries	84

Annex Figure 1.A.2. Employment rates by place of birth, 2004-2024	85
Annex Figure 1.A.3. Evolution of the gap in employment rates between men and women, by place of birth, 2004-2024	86
Annex Figure 1.A.4. Change in the labour force participation rate between 2023 and 2024, by place of birth and sex, population aged 15 to 64	87
Annex Figure 4.B.1. Immigrant earnings gaps after ten years	153
Annex Figure 4.B.2. Educational attainment does not explain immigrants working in lower-paying sectors and firms	156
Annex Figure 4.B.3. Earnings gaps at entry in the labour market, by region of origin	157
Annex Figure 4.B.4. Immigrant earnings gaps and contribution of firms at entry in the host country labour market	157
Annex Figure 4.B.5. Immigrant earnings gaps in the first and fifth year in the host country labour market, by region of origin	158
Annex Figure 5.A.1. Share of total physician and nurse stock growth (decrease) over 2010-2023 explained by foreign-trained	225
Annex Figure 5.B.1. Intra OECD movements of migrant doctors, circa 2020/21 left axis (country of origin); right axis (country of residence)	230

INFOGRAPHICS

Infographic 1. Key facts and figures	14
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TABLES

Table 1.1. Permanent migration to OECD countries, 2015-2024	19
Table 1.2. Postings active in a single country under Article 12, by receiving countries, 2023	36
Table 1.3. Inflows of international tertiary-level students in OECD countries, 2013 and 2019-2024	39
Table 1.4. International tertiary-level students enrolled in OECD countries, 2023	41
Table 1.5. New asylum applications by country where the application is filed, 2019-2024	45
Table 1.6. Labour market situation of immigrants in OECD countries, 2024	61
Table 1.7. The evolution of employment rates (ER) of displaced Ukrainians in selected OECD countries	63
Table 1.8. Employment, unemployment and participation rates by region of origin in selected OECD countries in 2023 and 2024, percentages	70
Table 3.1. Summary of key findings from the Mid-Term Review of the 2021-2027 EU Action Plan on Integration and Inclusion	115
Table 4.1. Overqualification rates among recent immigrants	138
Table 5.1. Foreign-born doctors working in OECD countries, circa 2000/01, 2010/11 and 2020/21	168
Table 5.2. Foreign-born nurses working in OECD countries, circa 2000/01, 2010/11 and 2020/21	169
Table 5.3. Foreign-trained doctors working in OECD countries in 2000, 2010, and 2021-2023	173
Table 5.4. Foreign-trained nurses working in OECD countries in 2000, 2010, and 2021-2023	174
Table 5.5. Physicians and nurses working and not working in their trained occupation by place of birth and training, 2006, 2016 and 2021	183
Table 5.6. 25 main countries of origin for migrant doctors and nurses in the OECD, circa 2020/21	189
Table 5.7. Health workforce migration data availability status by occupation	191
Table 5.8. The 20 highest emigration rates for doctors and nurses, circa 2020/21	194
Table 5.9. Recognition and licensing of foreign-trained doctors (D) and nurses (N) in selected OECD countries	209

Annex Table 1.A.1. Permanent migration flows to OECD countries by category, 2023 and 2024	72
Annex Table 1.A.2. Inflows of temporary labour migrants (selected categories), 2019-2024	73
Annex Table 1.A.3. Permits considered in the statistics on temporary labour migration and their characteristics	76
Annex Table 1.A.4. Postings of workers active under Article 12 in selected European OECD countries, by destination country, 2010-2023	82
Annex Table 1.A.5. Top 50 countries of origin of new immigrants to the OECD, 2022-2023	83
Annex Table 1.A.6. Labour force participation in OECD countries in 2024	88
Annex Table 1.A.7. Employment rates of persons aged 15-64 by place of birth and education level, OECD countries, 2024	89

Annex Table 1.A.8. Employment of foreign-born persons by industry, 2024	90
Annex Table 4.A.1. Linked employer-employee datasets by country	151
Annex Table 4.B.1. Counts, age and share of women among new immigrants in the labour market	153
Annex Table 4.B.2. Immigrant earnings over time in the labour market	154
Annex Table 4.B.3. Educational attainment of recent immigrants	154
Annex Table 4.B.4. Distribution of foreign- and native-born across industries	155
Annex Table 5.A.1. Inflows of foreign-trained doctors and new medical graduates in OECD countries in 2010 and 2021-2023	227
Annex Table 5.A.2. Inflows of foreign-trained nurses and new nursing graduates in OECD countries in 2010 and 2021-2023	228
Annex Table 5.C.1. Stocks of migrant doctors and nurses to the OECD by country of origin and emigration rates	231

Executive summary

Migration flows remained high in 2024

Following three years of sharp post-pandemic increases, permanent migration to OECD countries declined by 4% in 2024. The total of 6.2 million new permanent immigrants remains nevertheless historically high – 15% above 2019 levels.

Family remained the leading reason for permanent migration to OECD countries. Labour migration declined (-21%), after a sustained increase since 2020. Humanitarian migration increased (+23%) due to the high number of asylum applications in preceding years and a record level of new resettled refugees (+19%).

Temporary labour migration to OECD countries stabilised in 2024 at a historically high-level. Approximately 2.3 million work permits and authorisations were granted in OECD countries (excluding Poland), a 26% increase relative to 2019.

In 2024, OECD countries welcomed over 1.8 million international tertiary-education students, 13% fewer than in 2023. This decline was primarily due to decreasing inflows to all top four receiving countries – United States (-12%); United Kingdom (-14%); Canada (-39%) and Australia (-22%).

The number of new asylum seekers in the OECD continued to increase (+13%) and was the highest on record, with 3 million new applications registered in 2024. The surge was driven by the United States, but increases were also recorded in Canada and the United Kingdom, while in the rest of the OECD the number of applications decreased.

Detections of irregular border crossings at EU borders decreased rapidly in 2024 (-37%), as did Border Patrol encounters in the United States (-48%), while detections of attempts to enter the United Kingdom irregularly increased by 19%. At the same time, returns from the EU, the United Kingdom and the United States increased steadily between 2021 and 2024.

Labour market outcomes of immigrants continue to be at record levels

Following a strong post-pandemic recovery in 2022-2023, labour market outcomes for immigrants saw more mixed trends in 2024 as the employment rate of immigrants improved further in only half of OECD countries. On average, almost 77% of immigrants were economically active, with almost 71% employed and less than 10% unemployed in 2024.

Overall, the evolution of both employment and labour participation rates was more favourable among migrant women than men. In a third of OECD countries, immigrant women's employment rates increased while men's decreased, leading to some of the lowest gaps between men and women in years.

Migration and integration policies are going through significant changes

In reaction to very high migration inflows, a number of OECD countries have set explicit objectives to reduce migration, either for overall migration or for specific categories. Labour migration policies are increasingly tailored to talent attraction and to meet specific labour market needs.

Asylum systems have become more restrictive in many countries, with faster procedures, reduced benefits, and new limits on family reunification. In many countries, international student policies are under review, with some countries tightening admission and post-study rights, while others are enhancing retention pathways to support labour market integration.

Regarding integration policies, while some OECD countries are expanding integration frameworks (Belgium, Canada, Germany), others have tightened access and increased obligations (Finland, the Netherlands). Integration is increasingly tied to labour market needs and new programmes have been developed to foster labour market integration.

Targeted support for migrant women is growing – recognition of skills is being streamlined, and the offer for bridging courses and micro-credential programmes is being scaled up.

Immigrants work disproportionately in lower-paying firms and sectors

New linked employer-employee panel data for 15 OECD countries between 2000 and 2019 show that immigrants at entry in the labour market earn 34% less than native-born workers of the same age and sex. Two-thirds of this gap is due to immigrants working in lower-paying sectors and firms.

The immigrant earnings gap decreases by about one-third in the first five years in the host country, and by about half in the first ten years. This is partly driven by immigrants moving to higher-paying sectors and firms.

Policies that target barriers to job mobility should feature more prominently in the integration policy toolkit. This includes providing information on job search, career counselling and the development of professional networks, but also improving local transportation and access to affordable housing, among others.

OECD health systems continue to rely heavily on migrant doctors and nurses

In 2020-2021 there were more than 830 000 foreign-born doctors and 1.75 million foreign-born nurses working in the OECD, representing respectively about one-quarter and one-sixth of the workforce in each occupation. Corresponding figures for foreign-trained doctors and nurses are 606 000 (18.4%) and 733 000 (8.3%) in 2021-2023.

About one in five foreign-born doctors and nurses originate from an EEA country. Asia is the main region of origin, accounting for approximately 40% of doctors and 37% of nurses. India, Germany and China are the main countries of origin for doctors, while the Philippines, India and Poland are the top three countries for nurses. About 89 000 doctors and 257 000 nurses come from countries on the WHO Health Workforce Support and Safeguards List, raising concerns about the possible impact of the international mobility of health workers on the fragile health systems of these countries.

Migration policies are evolving to facilitate international recruitment in the health sector, but recognition and licensing remain major barriers to labour market integration of migrant health professionals.

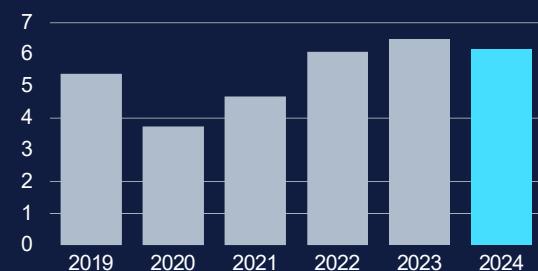
Key findings

- In 2024, more than 160 million people living in OECD countries were foreign-born. Since 2014, the share of foreign-born rose from 9.1% to 11.5%.
- In most OECD countries, permanent migration declined in 2024 compared to 2023, namely in EU countries. New Zealand and the United Kingdom also experienced sharp declines after record levels post-pandemic. In contrast, permanent migration to the United States continued to rise (+20%).
- The number of new seasonal migrants and working holidaymakers increased in 2024 (+8% and +4%). In contrast, the number of migrants participating in national temporary foreign worker programmes decreased (-7%), after strong growth post COVID-19 pandemic. Inflows of intra-company transferees continued to decline (-3%) in 2024.
- More than half of the 3 million asylum applications in the OECD were registered in the United States in 2024. Top origin countries of applicants included Venezuela, Colombia, Syria, Afghanistan and India.

Infographic 1. Key facts and figures

Permanent migration declined in 2024 but remained high

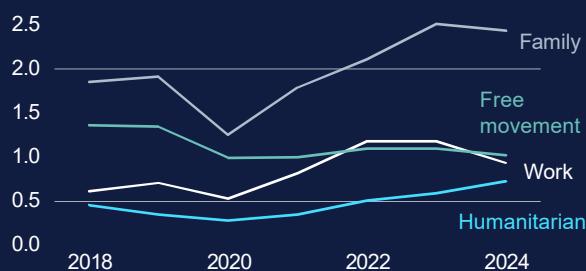
Permanent migration flows to the OECD, 2019-24, in millions



There were 6.2 million new permanent immigrants recorded in OECD countries, 4% less than in 2023, but 15% above 2019 levels.

Some decline in labour migration with humanitarian migration on the rise

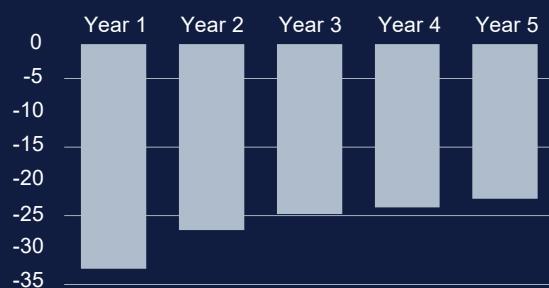
Permanent migration to the OECD by category of entry, in millions



Family migration represented 44% of total permanent flows in 2024, with labour migration at 17% and humanitarian at 13%.

Immigrants earn less than native-born, but the gap narrows over time

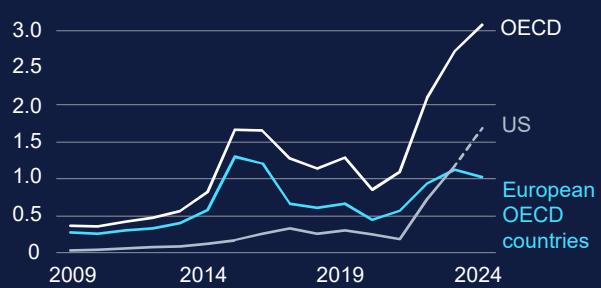
Pay gap in % between immigrants and native-born



Immigrants entering the labour market earn 34% less than native-born workers, mainly due to them working in lower paying sectors and firms.

Asylum applications at record high levels

New asylum applications in OECD countries, in millions



There were 3 million new asylum applications in OECD countries in 2024, 13% more applications than in 2023, and more than double the number in 2019.

Migrant employment has improved over last decade, but mixed outcomes in 2024

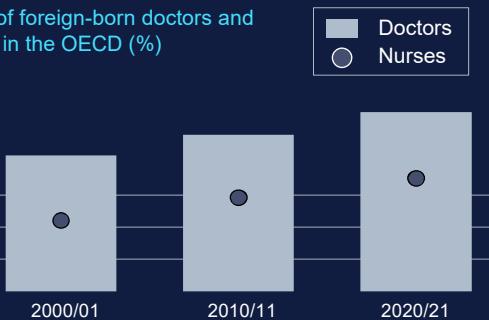
Average migrant employment rate across OECD countries



While migrant employment has generally risen over the past decade, it grew in only half of OECD countries between 2023 and 2024.

Rise in migrant doctors and nurses helps address labour shortages in health sector

Share of foreign-born doctors and nurses in the OECD (%)



Over the last 2 decades, the % of foreign-born doctors and nurses rose by 7 percentage points, highlighting the growing importance of migrant health professionals.

1

Recent developments in international migration movements and labour market inclusion of immigrants

This chapter provides an overview of recent developments in international migration movements and labour market inclusion of immigrants in OECD countries.

The first section analyses migration flows over the past decade, up to 2024, covering both permanent and temporary movements by migration category. It also explores patterns in international student mobility, as well as recent trends in asylum applications, irregular migration, and returns.

Additionally, it considers the demographic characteristics of migration flows and stocks – such as sex and country of origin – and highlights trends in the acquisition of nationality across OECD countries.

The second section of the chapter examines recent trends in the labour market outcomes of immigrants, with a detailed analysis by sociodemographic characteristics and region of origin.

In Brief

Key findings

Migration trends

- Permanent migration to OECD countries declined by 4% in 2024, following three years of sharp post-pandemic increases. Despite the drop, the total of 6.2 million new permanent immigrants remains historically high – 15% above 2019 levels.
- In most OECD countries, notably in the European Union (EU), permanent migration declined in 2024 compared to 2023. New Zealand and the United Kingdom also experienced sharp declines after record levels post-pandemic. In contrast, permanent migration to the United States continued to rise, increasing by 20% in 2024.
- Family reunification remained the leading reason for permanent migration to OECD countries, while labour migration declined sharply, and humanitarian migration rose significantly – driven by the increase in the United States.
- Long-term migration under free movement to OECD EU-EFTA countries is estimated to have fallen by 8% relative to 2023 – 25% below 2019 levels – while flows between Australia and New Zealand rose, with arrivals in Australia up 13%, the highest level in a decade.
- Approximately 2.3 million foreign workers were granted temporary authorisations or work permits in OECD countries (excluding Poland) in 2024. This figure is unchanged from 2023 but represents a 26% increase compared to 2019 and a 51% increase compared to 2015.
- Seasonal and working holiday migration rose across most OECD countries, with seasonal permits up 8% and WHM arrivals up 4%, while intra-company transfers continued to decline (- 3%). Trainee numbers remained stable, and other national temporary worker programmes decreased (-7%) with drops in key settlement countries like Australia, Canada and New Zealand.
- There were 3.2 million postings to European OECD countries in 2024, 17% more than in 2023 and a similar level to 2019.
- In 2024, OECD countries welcomed over 1.8 million new international tertiary-education students, 13% fewer than in 2023. This decline was primarily due to decreasing inflows to all top four receiving countries: United States (390 000 new international students, -12% compared to 2023); the United Kingdom (389 000, -14%); Canada (213 100, -39%) and Australia (182 000, -22%).
- Flows of international students to other OECD countries increased by 5%, with steepest increases in Denmark, Korea, New Zealand and Sweden (between +14 and +19%).
- In 2023, tertiary-educated students from China and India accounted for 17% and 14% of all enrolled international students in OECD countries, respectively. Viet Nam, Nigeria and France completed the top five countries of origin. Students from India and Bangladesh saw the sharpest year-over-year increases compared to 2022.
- The number of new asylum seekers to OECD countries continued to increase and was the highest on record, with 3.1 million new applications registered across OECD countries in 2024 (+13% relative to 2023). The surge was driven by the United States, which alone registered an estimated 1.7 million asylum applications. Applications to Canada and the United Kingdom also increased (+19% and +28%, respectively). In contrast, in EU countries, as well as Asia and

Latin America, the number of new asylum seekers decreased, remaining nevertheless at historically high levels. Top origin countries of applicants included Venezuela, Colombia, Syria, Afghanistan and India.

- Since 2000, OECD countries have hosted more than half of the world's international migrants. In 2024, more than 160 million people living in OECD countries were foreign-born. The United States alone hosted nearly a third of them. In the ten years leading up to 2024, the share of foreign-born in OECD countries rose from 9.1% to 11.5%.
- Acquisitions of citizenship in OECD countries were at historically high levels in 2024, approaching 3 million according to partial data. Germany granted citizenship to 290 000 foreign residents and the United Kingdom to 270 000, a record for both countries.
- In 2023, 225 000 Indian citizens – a record number – acquired the nationality of an OECD country. Syria is second with 150 000, also a record.
- The number of detections of irregular border crossings at EU borders decreased rapidly in 2024 (-37% to 240 000), as did Border Patrol encounters in the United States (-48% to 1.1 million), but detections of attempts to enter the United Kingdom irregularly increased by 19% to 44 000.
- In 2024, the estimated number of overstayers declined to 398 000 in Korea (-6%), and increased to 75 000 in Japan (+5%) and Australia (+8%).
- Returns from the EU, the United Kingdom and the United States increased regularly between 2021 and 2024. In 2024, EU countries registered 108 000 returns (+27%), the United Kingdom 33 000 (+24%) and the United States 685 000 (+47%).

Labour market integration

- Following a strong post-pandemic recovery in 2022-2023, labour market outcomes for immigrants saw more mixed trends in 2024: between 2023 and 2024, the employment rate of immigrants improved in one half of OECD countries and declined in the other, while immigrant unemployment rates increased in two out of three OECD countries.
- On average in 2024, almost 77% of immigrants were economically active, with almost 71% employed and less than 10% unemployed.
- Overall, the evolution of both employment rates and labour participation rates were more favourable among migrant women than among men. In one in three OECD countries, immigrant women's employment rates increased while men's decreased, leading to some of the lowest employment gaps between immigrant men and women in years.
- Immigrant women's employment rates increased in two-thirds of OECD countries, and their labour force participation increased in more than four in five OECD countries, reaching 63.5% and almost 70%, respectively.

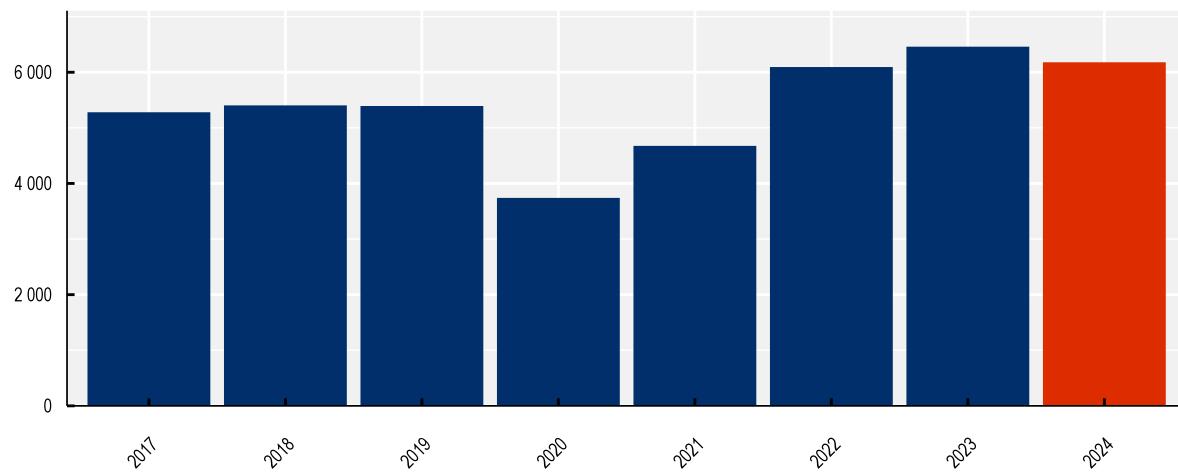
Recent trends in international migration

Permanent migration

Permanent migration to OECD countries declined in 2024, following three years of sharp increases after the COVID-19 pandemic (Figure 1.1). A total of 6.2 million new permanent immigrants were recorded – 4% fewer than in 2023, and roughly the same as in 2022. Despite this drop, the number remains historically high, 15% above 2019 levels (See Box 1.1 on concepts and definitions).

Figure 1.1. Permanent migration to the OECD, 2017-2024

Thousands



Note: Sum of standardised and unstandardised figures, including status changes and migration within free-circulation areas (data can be found in Table 1.1). Data exclude Türkiye for which partial data and metadata can be found in the Statistical Annex.

Source: OECD (2025), *Standardised inflows of permanent-type migrants* (dataset), <https://data-explorer.oecd.org/s/31n>.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/03bwks>

Box 1.1. OECD permanent and temporary migration statistics

The statistics on annual migration flows presented in this chapter distinguish between temporary and permanent movements. This classification is based not on how long migrants actually stay in the host country, but on their legal status – whether they have a clear legal pathway to remain indefinitely.

For example, seasonal workers, international students, and asylum seekers typically do not have the right to stay permanently in the host country unless their status changes. In contrast, recognised refugees, family migrants, and certain labour migrants either arrive with permanent status or can apply for it after a few years of residence.

Migration within free movement areas, such as the EU-EFTA or the Trans-Tasman Area, is treated separately. In these cases, migrants do not need a residence permit to live, work, or study in another country. Here, a migrant is considered permanent if they have lived – or intend to live – in the host country for at least one year, which is a common criterion for inclusion in the resident population.

It is important to note that the exceptionally high migration levels in 2022-2023 do not include Ukrainians fleeing Russia's war of aggression against Ukraine. These movements are covered separately in this chapter due to the temporary nature of the protection they received (see Box 1.2).

Typically, half of all permanent migration to the OECD is concentrated in the top five destination countries.¹ In 2024, the United States alone accounted for around a quarter of the total, with 1.4 million new permanent immigrants. Germany, Canada, the United Kingdom and Spain each contributed between 7% and 11%.

In most OECD countries, permanent migration declined in 2024 compared to 2023 (Table 1.1). This was especially true across EU-EFTA countries, where numbers fell by 8% (based on countries with harmonised data). Only Ireland (+10%) and Czechia (+8%) saw increases.

Table 1.1. Permanent migration to OECD countries, 2015-2024

	2015	2017	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	2024	2024/23 change	2024/19 change
	Thousands								%	
Standardised statistics										
United States	1 051.0	1 103.7	1 031.0	581.5	835.4	1 048.7	1 190.2	1 425.1	+19.7%	+38.2%
Germany	708.1	883.1	643.3	521.1	533.1	669.0	664.3	586.2	-11.8%	-8.9%
Canada	275.8	286.5	341.2	184.5	406.0	437.6	471.7	483.6	+2.5%	+41.7%
United Kingdom	366.5	317.7	356.1	199.9	369.2	488.0	743.1	435.7	-41.4%	+22.4%
Spain	269.6	213.5	244.6	178.6	261.4	323.2	374.9	368.0	-1.8%	+50.4%
France	268.1	265.8	284.5	228.0	276.6	305.9	306.2	298.1	-2.6%	+4.8%
Australia	227.9	220.5	195.6	158.9	170.4	170.9	238.7	239.3	+0.3%	+22.3%
Netherlands	128.0	149.8	165.7	134.2	172.4	205.9	195.9	183.4	-6.4%	+10.7%
Japan	83.5	100.9	137.6	83.6	56.8	144.5	163.1	177.1	+8.6%	+28.7%
Italy	218.6	215.4	167.1	112.0	204.4	235.4	201.6	168.9	-16.2%	+1.1%
Portugal	33.6	51.3	106.7	84.7	93.7	121.0	140.3	137.6	-1.9%	+29.0%
Switzerland	112.7	103.5	106.5	102.3	109.1	130.0	144.5	135.6	-6.2%	+27.3%
Belgium	103.5	93.8	95.0	78.8	95.0	102.9	106.1	106.2	+0.1%	+11.8%
Austria	105.6	102.0	84.4	65.6	76.5	93.3	105.4	102.6	-2.7%	+21.6%
Korea	65.6	71.1	72.5	53.0	48.2	57.8	87.1	75.6	-13.2%	+4.3%
Sweden	120.8	133.0	99.3	80.9	75.9	89.8	87.1	75.6	-13.2%	-23.9%
Mexico	34.4	32.6	40.5	58.4	67.7	75.6	69.9	72.5	+3.7%	+79.0%
Ireland	36.2	41.0	48.6	42.7	38.4	66.9	65.6	71.9	+9.6%	+47.9%
Denmark	60.7	49.6	45.8	37.8	48.9	62.9	57.4	54.4	-5.2%	+18.8%
New Zealand	54.3	46.9	38.1	35.7	35.4	154.3	119.4	53.0	-55.6%	+39.1%
Czechia	27.8	40.2	62.3	55.6	63.9	45.6	37.5	40.2	+7.2%	-35.5%
Israel	27.9	26.4	33.2	19.7	25.5	74.7	46.0	39.7	-13.7%	+19.6%
Norway	61.1	55.0	46.1	32.8	38.1	42.5	41.7	35.7	-14.4%	-22.6%
Finland	24.9	26.2	28.1	24.2	30.8	40.4	42.8	34.7	-18.9%	+23.5%
Luxembourg	20.8	23.0	24.5	20.1	24.3	27.2	27.4	26.4	-3.6%	+7.8%
Slovenia	12.2	20.9	35.9	22.9	30.0	33.2	31.3	26.4	-15.7%	-26.5%
Slovak Republic	9.3	13.2	26.8	17.1	26.8	24.3	24.3	20.9	-14.0%	-22.0%
Estonia	5.5	8.2	10.4	9.1	11.8	14.2	12.5	8.9	-28.8%	-14.4%
Lithuania	2.5	2.7	2.9	2.8	5.9	10.7	7.0	5.7	-18.6%	+96.6%
All countries	4 516.5	4 697.5	4 574.3	3 226.5	4 231.6	5 296.4	5 803.0	5 489.0	-5.4%	+20.0%
EU + EFTA countries	2 329.6	2 491.2	2 328.5	1 851.3	2 217.0	2 644.3	2 673.8	2 487.4	-7.0%	+6.8%
National statistics (unstandardised)										
Poland	86.1	128.0	163.2	163.5	224.2	335.3	374.1	373.3	-0.2%	+128.7%
Chile	101.9	207.2	254.1	154.6	76.5	198.4	70.5	112.2	+59.1%	-55.8%
Greece	34.0	80.5	95.4	63.4	28.7	64.1	71.7	64.7	-9.8%	-32.2%
Colombia	..	104.5	225.8	74.8	40.7	108.1	49.9	61.8	+23.8%	-72.6%
Hungary	25.8	36.5	55.3	43.8	49.1	55.5	61.3	49.3	-19.6%	-10.8%
Iceland	5.6	12.5	10.7	8.9	10.0	17.0	16.6	14.8	-10.8%	+38.3%
Costa Rica	15.7	8.6	7.8	..	9.1	11.2	10.2	11.6	+13.7%	+48.7%
Latvia	4.5	5.1	6.6	4.6	5.9	7.3	2.7	2.7	+0.0%	-59.1%
Total	273.6	582.9	818.9	513.6	444.2	796.9	657.0	690.4	+5.1%	-15.7%

Note: Includes only foreign nationals. Data refer to the fiscal year ending in the year of reference for Australia (Jul-Jun) and Ireland (Apr-Mar). 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, and migration within free circulation areas. Series for some countries have been significantly revised. EU-EFTA totals cover countries stated in the table, excluding the United Kingdom. Partial data and metadata for Türkiye can be found in the Statistical Annex.

Source: OECD (2025), *Standardised inflows of permanent-type migrants* (dataset), <https://data-explorer.oecd.org/s/31n>.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/zas02u>

There are nevertheless distinct medium-term trends in permanent migration across OECD EU-EFTA countries. In some, such as Spain, permanent migration remains at historically high levels despite the decline. In others, like Germany, numbers have returned to levels seen a decade ago.

The sharpest declines were observed in New Zealand (-56%) and the United Kingdom (-41%), both of which had experienced unusually high levels of permanent labour migration in 2022-2023. Despite the drop, migration in 2024 remained well above pre-pandemic levels – +39% in New Zealand and +22% in the United Kingdom. In fact, the UK's 2024 figures are the highest in the past 20 years, excluding the peak years of 2022-2023.

In contrast, permanent migration to the United States continued to rise, increasing by 20% compared to 2023. This growth was partly driven by humanitarian migration (see section below for details by migration category).

Permanent migration increased also, although more modestly, in Canada (+2%) and Mexico (+4%). National (non-standardised) data suggests that permanent migration also increased in 2024 to the other Latin American OECD countries (Colombia, Chile and Costa Rica).

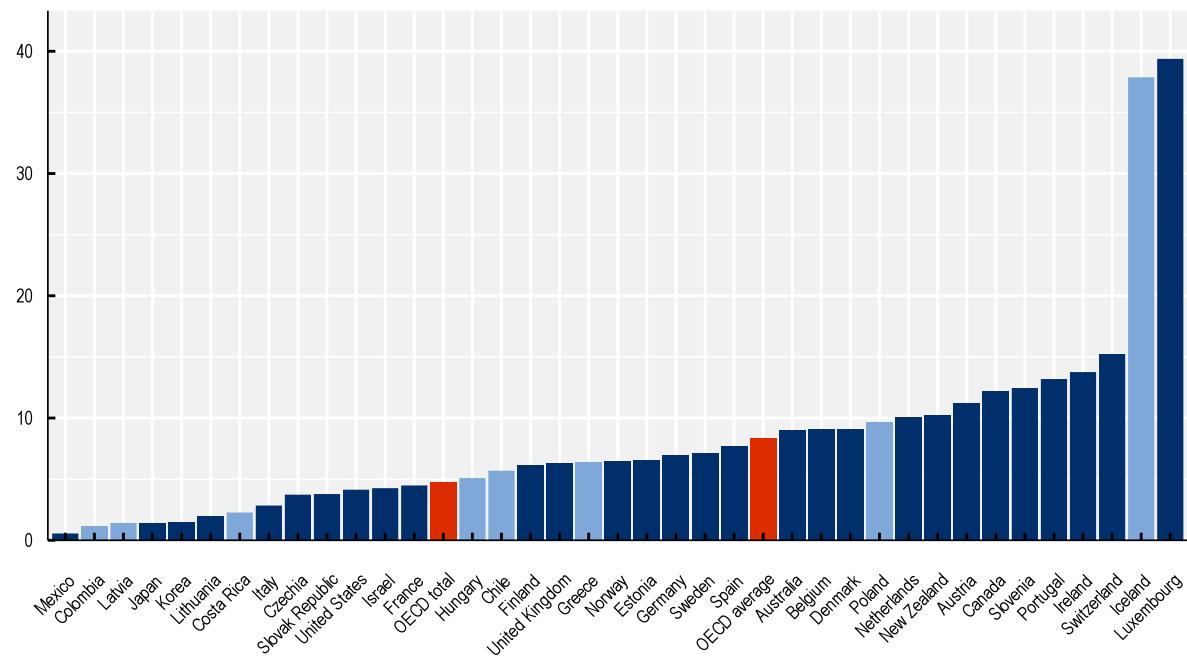
In 2024, OECD countries recorded an average of 9 new permanent migrants per 1 000 inhabitants, up from 8 per 1 000 in 2019 (Figure 1.2). However, there is significant variation across countries.

Luxembourg and Iceland stand out, with permanent migration inflows representing a much larger share of their populations – 39 and 34 new migrants per 1 000 inhabitants, respectively. In about half of OECD countries, the rate ranged between five and 10 per 1 000.

At the lower end of the scale are Mexico and Japan, two highly populated countries with relatively low levels of immigration. In 2024, they recorded just 0.6 and 1.4 new permanent migrants per 1 000 inhabitants, respectively. In some large OECD countries (United Kingdom, the United States) the inflows per population remain modest despite the recent increase in inflows in absolute terms.

Figure 1.2. Permanent migration to OECD countries relative to total population, 2024

Per thousand population



Note: Light blue columns are unstandardised data. “OECD average” refers to the unweighted (simple) average of the ratios (per thousand population) across all OECD countries shown in the graph.

Source: OECD (2025), *Standardised inflows of permanent-type migrants* (dataset), <https://data-explorer.oecd.org/s/31n>.

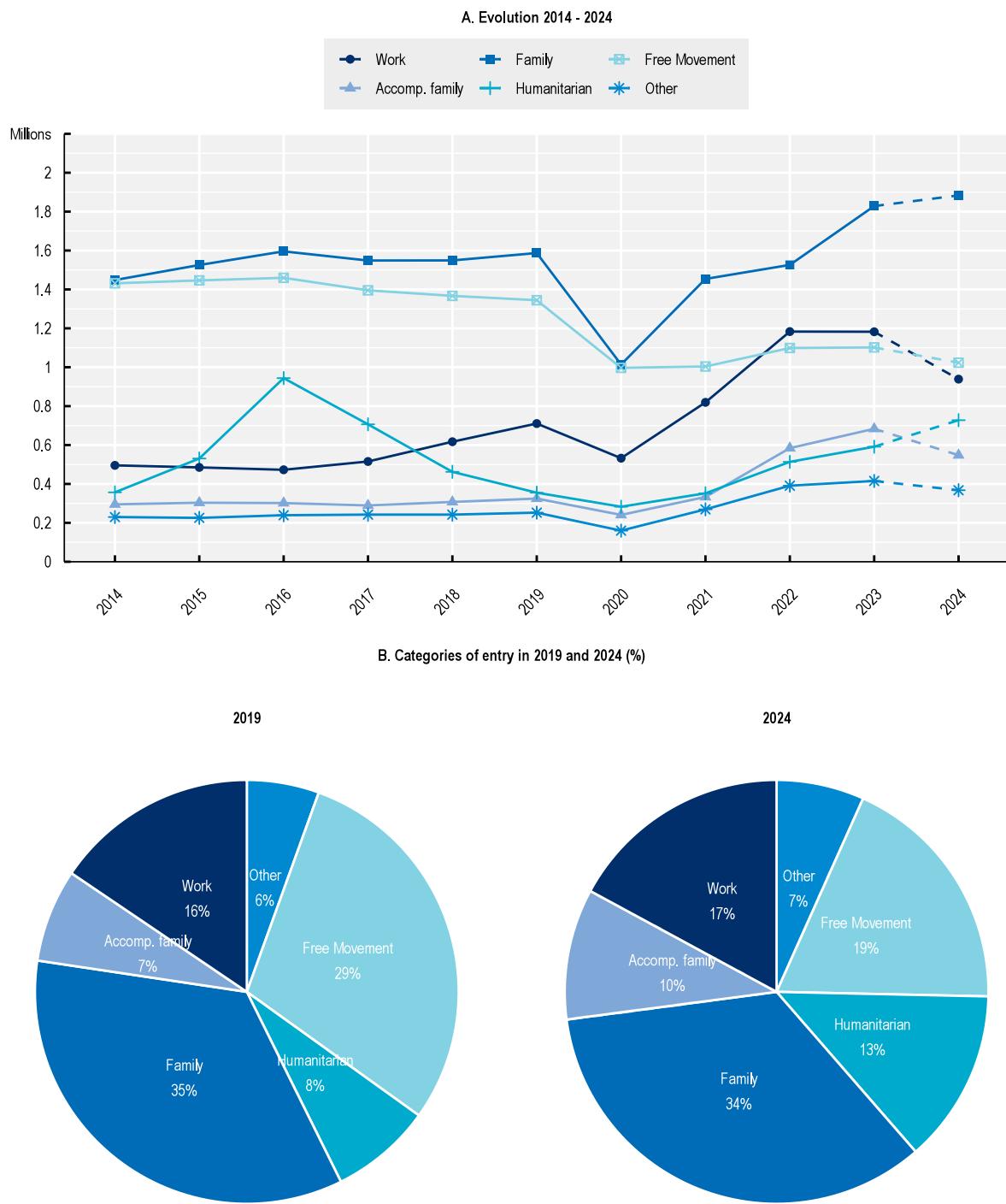
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Permanent migration by category of migration

This section presents permanent migration flows to OECD countries, broken down into five main categories of migration.² The categories include work, family, humanitarian, other, and free movement within areas such as the EU-EFTA and the Trans-Tasman Area, which is addressed separately at the end of this section.

In 2024, nearly half (44%) of new permanent migrants to the OECD moved for family-related reasons – either to reunite with family already in the host country (34%) or as accompanying family members of labour migrants (10%). Work-related migration accounted for 17%, while humanitarian migration made up 13%. An additional 19% were migrants moving within free movement areas, and 7% migrated for other reasons, such as for example, ancestry-based migration (Figure 1.3).

Figure 1.3. Permanent migration to the OECD, by category of entry, 2014-2024



Note: Includes only countries for which data on standardised permanent-type migration are available (refer to Table 1.1).
Source: OECD (2025), *Standardised inflows of permanent-type migrants* (dataset), <https://data-explorer.oecd.org/s/31n>.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/w1izfj>

The share of each migration category varies significantly across countries. In the United States, nearly three-quarters of new permanent immigrants arrived for family reasons, with 10% for humanitarian purposes and 7% for work. In EU countries, most permanent migrants come from within the free movement area. Meanwhile, Canada and Australia have a higher proportion of migrants arriving for work.

Family migration to the OECD remains historically high in 2024 despite slight decline

Family migration to OECD countries remained at historically high levels in 2024, with an estimated 2.4 million new arrivals. Although this figure represents a slight decline of 3% compared to 2023, it remains significantly above pre-pandemic levels, with a 27% increase relative to 2019.

Around one-quarter of these migrants were accompanying labour migrants, while the remaining three-quarters joined family members already residing in the host country, whether immigrant or native-born. The number of migrants joining family increased by 3% in 2024, whereas the number of accompanying family members declined by 20%, reflecting the broader decrease in labour migration.

Only a limited number of OECD countries experienced increases in family migration during 2024. The United States saw the largest rise, with an 11% increase, reaching 969 000 new permanent family migrants. This accounted for 40% of all family migration to the OECD and marked the highest level recorded in over a decade. Spain also registered a notable increase of 25%, largely driven by regularisations for family ties with migrants already in the country. In 2024, 88 000 individuals, representing 60% of Spain's total family migration, benefited from this pathway – a 45% increase compared to the previous year.

More modest increases were observed in Canada and in several European countries, including Belgium, Luxembourg and Norway. However, in these European countries, family migration of third-country nationals constitutes a relatively small portion of permanent migration inflows, which are predominantly shaped by free movement within the EU-EFTA area.

In contrast, most OECD countries experienced a decline in family migration in 2024. The most significant decreases occurred in the United Kingdom and New Zealand, with reductions of 31% and 52% respectively. These declines followed exceptionally high inflows in 2023. In New Zealand, family migration levels in 2022 and 2023 were twice as high as the average during the 2010s, largely due to permits granted to family members of migrants who benefited from the 2021 Residence Visa, an exceptional post-pandemic pathway to permanent residence.

The United Kingdom also recorded elevated family migration between 2021 and 2023, primarily due to the introduction of the Health and Care Worker visa. In 2023, more than half of family migrants to the United Kingdom – 203 000 individuals – entered under this scheme. However, policy changes introduced in 2024 rendered care workers ineligible to sponsor accompanying dependents, resulting in a sharp decline. Despite this, family migration to the United Kingdom remained high, with 263 000 arrivals in 2024, nearly double the level recorded in 2019.

Family migration also declined in Israel, with a 14% year-on-year decrease, and more modest reductions were observed across most European countries.

Labour migration decreased in most countries following the post-COVID-19 surge

After a sustained increase in labour migration to OECD countries since 2020, levels declined by 21% in 2024 compared to 2023, reaching 934 000 new permanent labour migrants. Despite this drop, the 2024 figure remains 32% higher than in 2019 and 93% above 2015 levels, indicating a longer-term upward trend.

In three-quarters of OECD countries, labour migration decreased in 2024. This includes major EU destinations such as Germany, France, the Netherlands and Spain, which had recorded historically high levels of permanent labour migration of third-country nationals in 2022-2023. The United Kingdom and New Zealand also experienced significant declines. In New Zealand, the drop followed the expiration of the 2021 Residence Visa, an exceptional post-pandemic pathway that had driven record numbers in 2022 and 2023. In the United Kingdom, the decline was linked to changes introduced in 2024 to the Health and Care Worker visa (stricter eligibility criteria for employers and no right to bring accompanying family), which led to a sharp fall in accepted applications – from 146 000 in 2023 to just 27 000 in 2024.

In several EU countries, 2024 labour migration levels fell below those of 2019. This was notably the case in Germany, the Netherlands, Sweden, Czechia, Norway, the Slovak Republic and Estonia – many of which were key destinations for Ukrainians fleeing conflict (see Box 1.2).

Conversely, a few countries continued to see growth in labour migration, with 2024 levels significantly exceeding pre-pandemic figures. These include United States (+13% relative to 2019), Japan (+36%), Korea (+175% vs. 2019, despite a year-on-year decline), Ireland (+116%), Denmark (+85%) and Austria (+186%).

Humanitarian migration to the OECD continued rising in 2024

Humanitarian migration to OECD countries increased significantly in 2024, with 728 000 individuals receiving recognised humanitarian status – an increase of 23% compared to 2023. This marks one of the highest annual totals on record, second only to the peak of 944 000 in 2016.

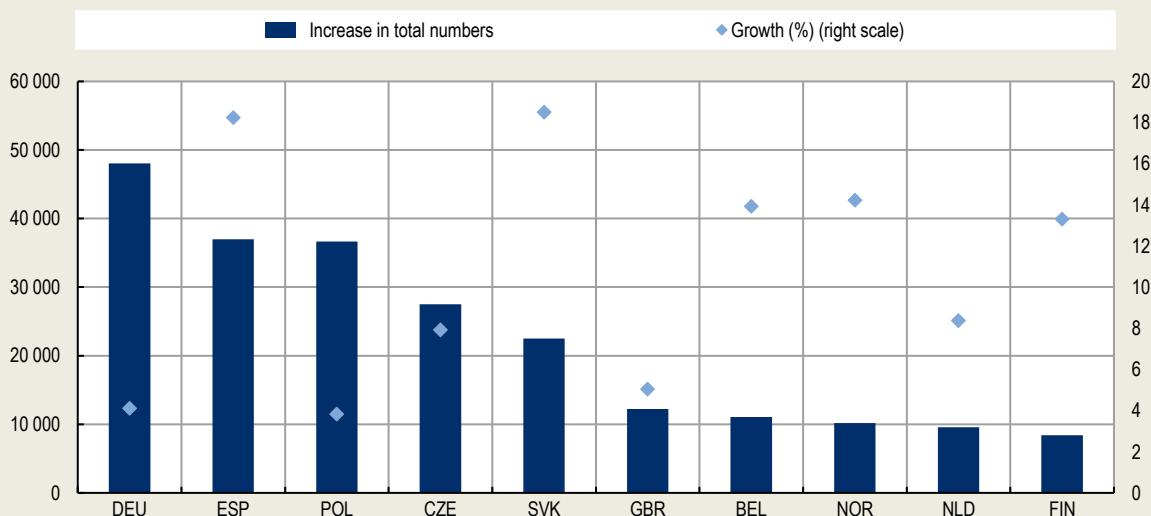
The figure includes both individuals granted international protection within OECD countries and refugees who were resettled after initially receiving status in a non-OECD country. However, it does not account for Ukrainians displaced by Russia's full-scale invasion of Ukraine who are covered under the EU's Temporary Protection Directive or similar schemes in other OECD member states (see Box 1.2).

Box 1.2. Displacement from Ukraine four years into the crisis

Now entering its fourth year, the displacement crisis triggered by Russia's full-scale invasion of Ukraine in 2022 remains one of the largest and most prolonged humanitarian situations in Europe since the Second World War. Although the vast majority of movements took place during the first half of 2022, the overall number of displaced Ukrainians in OECD countries continues to rise.

As of June 2025, an estimated 5.1 million displaced persons from Ukraine were residing in OECD countries, up from 5 million in mid-2024. The largest absolute increases over the past year were recorded in Germany (+48 050), Spain (+36 970) and Poland (+36 675). Slovak Republic and Spain experienced the fastest relative growth, each increasing their displaced Ukrainian populations by over 18% (see Figure 1.4). Some countries also saw declines in total numbers compared to 2024, including Israel, Latvia, Türkiye, Sweden and the United States. These decreases may, to some extent, reflect transitions to other legal statuses and reduced visibility in official statistics, rather than necessarily indicating returns or onward movements.

Figure 1.4. OECD countries with the largest increases in the number of displaced Ukrainians, 2024-2025



Note: The totals for EU countries reflect the estimated number of individuals who have fled Ukraine since 24 February 2022, have been granted temporary protection, international protection, or other forms of stay linked to their protection needs or situation in their country of origin, and who are currently present in each respective host country.

Source: Calculations by the OECD Secretariat.

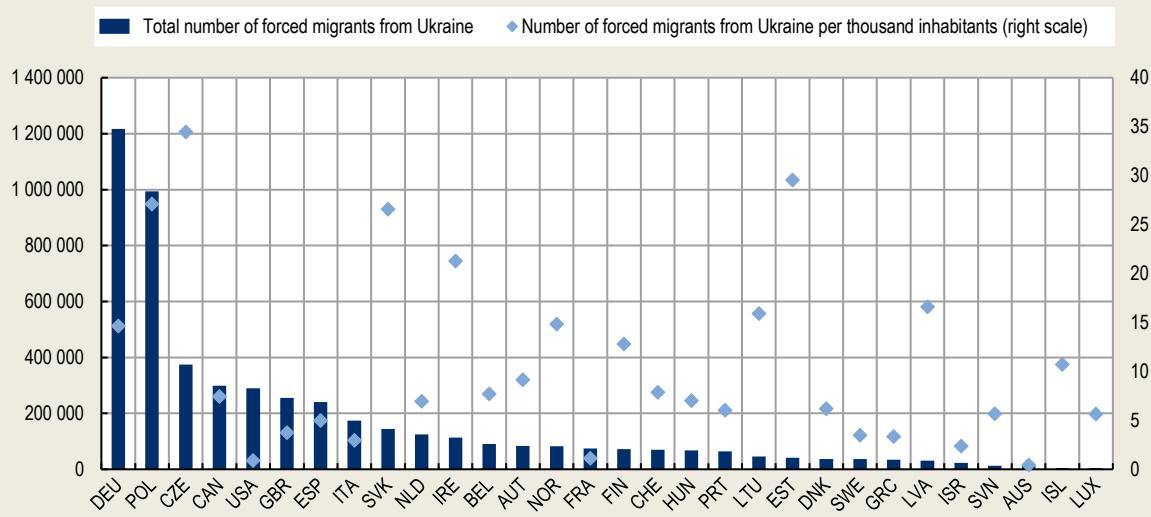
StatLink <https://stat.link/l34ck9>

Germany remains the largest host country, with 1.22 million displaced Ukrainians, followed by Poland, Czechia, Canada and the United States (Figure 1.5). Together, these five countries account for more than 60% of all displaced Ukrainians in the OECD.

When measured against population size, Czechia (34.5 displaced persons per 1 000 inhabitants) continues to host the highest share, followed by Estonia, Poland and the Slovak Republic. Ireland, Latvia and Lithuania also rank among the highest in per capita terms. These figures underscore the

continued significance of Central and Eastern European countries in hosting displaced Ukrainians, despite onward movements and returns.

Figure 1.5. Number of refugees from Ukraine recorded in OECD countries, absolute numbers and per thousand of total population, June 2025



Note: The totals for EU countries reflect the estimated number of individuals who have fled Ukraine since 24 February 2022, have been granted temporary protection, international protection, or other forms of stay linked to their protection needs or situation in their country of origin, and who are currently present in each respective host country. In the case of the United States, the figures include both Uniting for Ukraine (U4U) parolees and individuals granted Temporary Protected Status.

Source: UNHCR, Immigration, Refugees and Citizenship Canada, OECD Secretariat.

StatLink <https://stat.link/hv25pj>

In 2024, the United States registered the highest number of new humanitarian migrants among OECD countries, with 249 000 individuals – nearly double the figure from 2023 (+97%). This sharp increase was driven by a rise in international protection grants and a record number of refugee resettlements. In 2024, resettlements to the United States reached a 30-year high. In 2025, however, numbers are expected to fall sharply due to major policy changes affecting resettlement. Trends in resettlement across all OECD countries are presented in Box 1.3.

Humanitarian migration remained stable in Germany and Canada, which ranked second and third respectively in terms of total new humanitarian migrants. In Canada, the 2024 level was 30% higher than in any year over the past decade. In contrast, Germany's intake remained at one-third of its 2016 peak, when it granted protection to 435 000 individuals.

Most other OECD countries saw increases in humanitarian migration, with notable exceptions including the United Kingdom – though its 2024 level remained at a 20-year high, excluding 2023 – Czechia, Luxembourg, and several Nordic (Denmark, Finland, Norway, Sweden) and Baltic countries (Estonia, Lithuania).

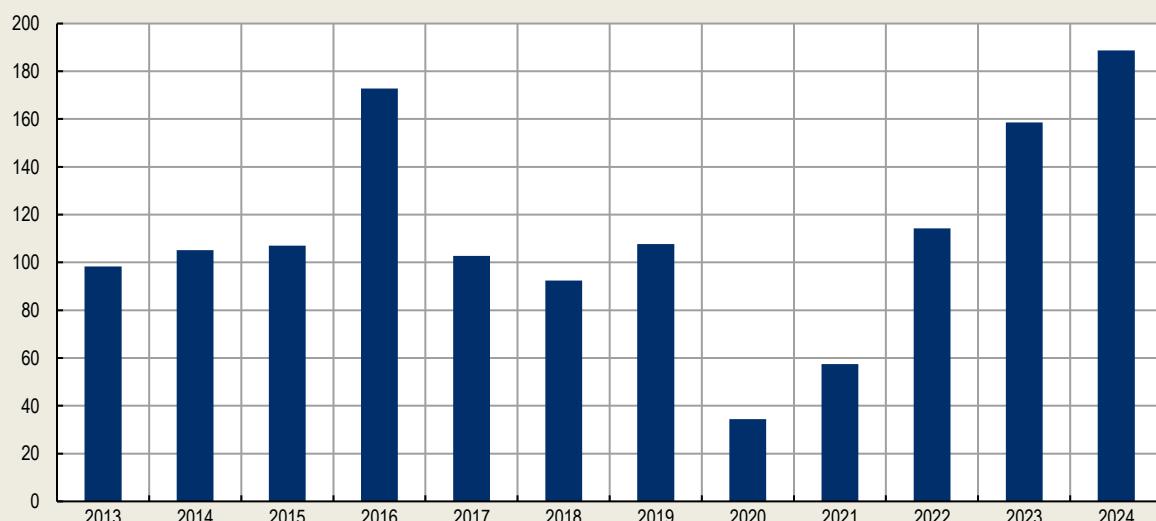
Box 1.3. Resettlement to the OECD continued increasing in 2024

Resettlement programmes for refugees aim to serve as a durable solution and a responsibility-sharing mechanism among the international community. They are designed to transfer the most vulnerable refugees from a country of first asylum to another country that grants them long-term protection.

OECD countries resettled 189 000 refugees in 2024.¹ This is 19% more than in 2023 and the highest number of resettlements to the OECD on record. This increase was almost exclusively due to the increase in the number of resettlements to the United States. Resettlement arrivals in 2024 were above the 2019 level (+75%) and above the 2016 level (+9%), the record up to 2024.

Figure 1.6. Refugees admitted to OECD countries under resettlement programmes, 2013-2024

Thousands



Note: Some data presented may differ from statistics published previously due to retroactive changes or the inclusion of previously unavailable data. More information about UNHCR's resettlement programme can be found at <https://www.unhcr.org/what-we-do/data-and-publications/unhcr-data>.

Source: UNHCR, Eurostat.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/haponw>

The OECD countries that resettled the most refugees in 2024 were the United States and Canada, followed by Australia and the largest European OECD countries (Germany, France and the United Kingdom). In per capita terms, Canada resettled the most refugees, followed by Australia, the United States, New Zealand and OECD Nordic countries (Norway, Finland, Sweden).

The United States resettled 105 000 refugees in 2024, 55% of all resettlements in OECD countries. This was the largest number of resettlements on record in the United States, following large yearly increases after the 2019 COVID-pandemic. There were 41% more resettlements in 2024 than in 2023, and more than double the number in 2022. In 2024, Canada resettled 49 000 refugees and Australia 17 000. These levels are similar to those in 2022 and 2023 and remain at a historical high level. Among European OECD countries, Germany resettled approximately 5 500 refugees in 2024, while France and the United Kingdom resettled 2 200 and 1 800 refugees.

Looking at resettlement arrivals in per capita terms, Canada was by far the top host in 2024, with 1 200 resettled individuals per million inhabitants, followed by Australia (600 per million) and the United States (300 per million). If every OECD country resettled as many individuals per capita as Canada, the OECD altogether would be resettling a total 1.7 million individuals in need of protection (9 times the observed figure for 2024). This would meet 69% of the global resettlement needs identified by UNHCR for 2024 (UNHCR, 2024^[1]).

1. The total includes all 38 OECD countries.

Free movement decreased to OECD EU-EFTA countries while it increased between Australia and New Zealand

In 2024, long-term migration under the free movement agreement to OECD EU-EFTA countries declined by 8%, reaching an estimated 991 000 individuals. This marks a continued downward trend since the COVID-19 pandemic, with flows remaining 25% below 2019 levels and 30% below those of 2015.

All OECD EU-EFTA countries experienced a decrease in long-term free movement in 2024, with the exceptions of Czechia, Estonia and Ireland. Germany, the leading destination within the Area, saw a 12% drop to 274 000 migrants – just 60% of its 2015 level. Other major destinations also recorded declines, though less pronounced: Spain (-2%), Switzerland (-8%), and the Netherlands (-8%).

Conversely, migration between Australia and New Zealand under the Trans-Tasman Travel Arrangement continued to rise post-pandemic. Arrivals in Australia from New Zealand increased by 13% to 29 000 – the highest level in a decade, comparable to 2014. Migration to New Zealand rose modestly by 2% in 2024, although volumes remain 20% below pre-pandemic levels (2019).

Temporary labour migration

In total, approximately 2.3 million foreign workers were granted temporary authorisations or work permits in OECD countries (excluding Poland) in 2024 (Figure 1.7). This figure is unchanged from 2023 but represents a 26% increase compared to 2019 and a 51% increase compared to 2015 (see Box 1.4 on methodology).

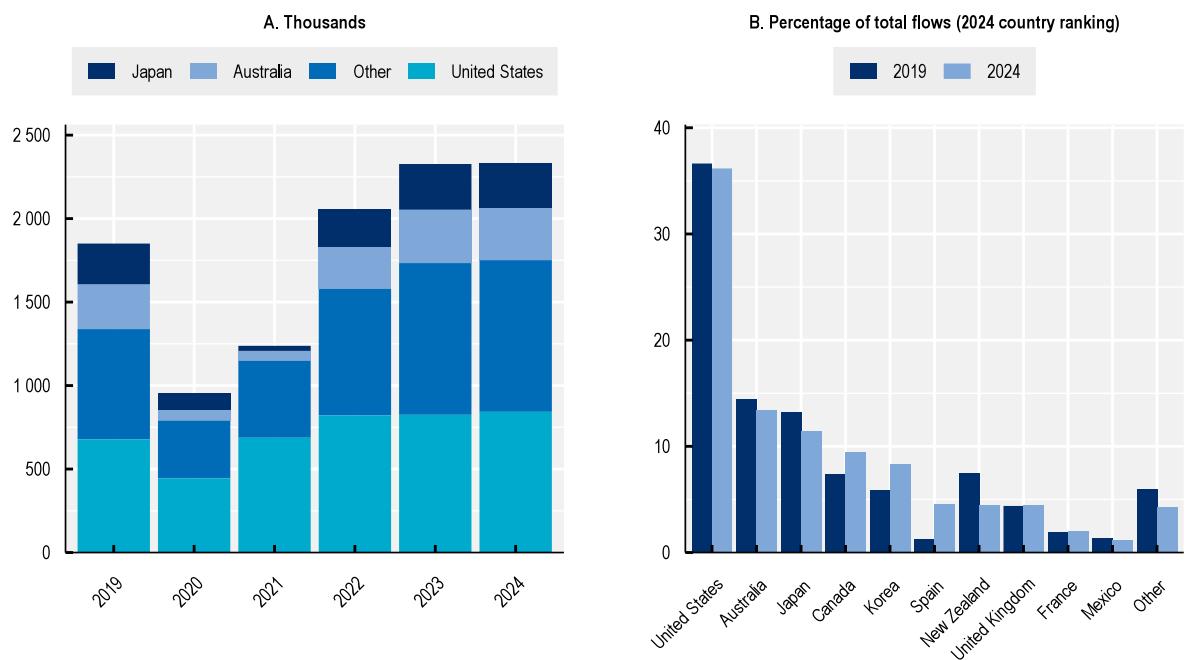
Box 1.4. OECD Temporary labour migration statistics

Temporary labour migration to OECD countries typically reflects short-term fluctuations in demand for labour and skills. Across the OECD, there is significant diversity in temporary migration channels and programmes, which target various types of workers and sectors, and offer differing durations of stay and entry conditions.

The statistics presented in this section aim to be as comprehensive as possible, within the limits of data availability. First, the section covers categories of temporary workers commonly found across OECD countries, including trainees, skilled workers (such as intra-company transferees), researchers, post-doctoral researchers, seasonal workers, and participants in youth exchange programmes (e.g. working holiday makers). Second, it examines the largest country-specific temporary foreign worker programmes.

These statistics exclude intra-EU and Trans-Tasmanian short-term labour mobility, which fall under free movement and are addressed in the previous section. However, the specific case of posted workers within the EU/EFTA free movement area is discussed at the end of this section.

Figure 1.7. Total flows of new temporary foreign workers to OECD countries, 2019-2024



Note: Excluding Poland.

Source: OECD (2025), *Standardised inflows of temporary migrants* (dataset), <http://data-explorer.oecd.org/s/2hv>.

StatLink <https://stat.link/meip1q>

Including Poland, the total estimated number of temporary workers to OECD countries in 2024 may be closer to 2.5 million. Poland is among the top OECD receiving countries of foreign temporary workers. However, the available data for Poland is not directly comparable to that of other OECD countries. The national statistics tend to overestimate migration flows by including a large number of work authorisations and permits that do not lead to actual arrivals, as well as new permits issued to workers who are already in Poland (Box 1.5).

Box 1.5. Trends in temporary labour migration to Poland 2019-2024

Channels for temporary labour migration in Poland

Third-country nationals are generally required to obtain a standard work permit in order to be legally employed in Poland. However, citizens of five countries – Armenia, Belarus, Georgia, Moldova and Ukraine – benefit from a simplified employment procedure (“declaration”) to work temporarily in Poland (these declarations do not cover seasonal work that requires a separate type of authorisation). Russian citizens became ineligible to this procedure in October 2022.

Furthermore, in response to the war of Russia against Ukraine, a new procedure – an “entrusting work notification” – was introduced in March 2022 for Ukrainian nationals. It facilitates access to the Polish labour market for Ukrainians fleeing the conflict, as well as for those already residing in Poland. This has since become the main route for Ukrainians seeking employment in Poland.

Data limitations

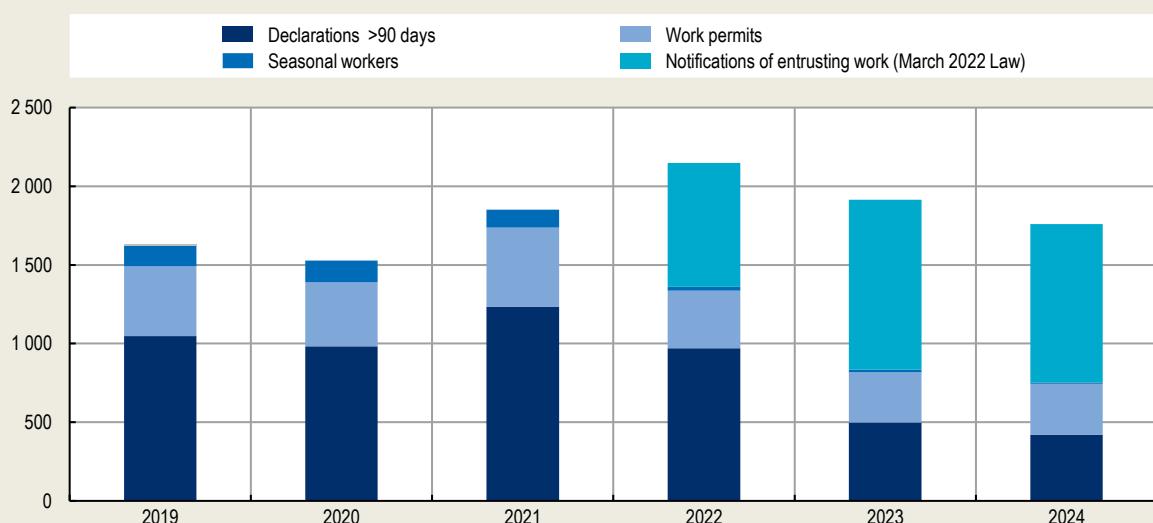
The statistics presented in this box should be interpreted with caution due to several important limitations. First, work permit statistics include not only new permits but also renewals, which are excluded from OECD harmonised statistics. Second, a significant proportion of newly issued work permits – approximately 25% in 2023 – are later repealed, mainly because the foreign worker does not take up the job within three months of the permit's start date. Third, each time a Ukrainian worker changes jobs, a new “entrusting work” notification is issued, leading to potential double counting. While 1.1 million such notifications had been registered in 2023, it was estimated that only 358 000 Ukrainians were actually newly employed in Poland under this procedure as of end of 2023.

Temporary labour migration to Poland decreased again in 2024

In 2024, the number of newly registered foreign workers in Poland declined by 8% to 1.8 million, marking the second consecutive annual decrease (following an 11% drop in 2023). Despite these drops, the number of newly registered foreign workers was still higher than in 2019 (1.5 million). While the issuance of work permits remained stable at 323 000, other categories saw significant declines. Over 1 million new “entrusting work” notifications were issued to Ukrainian nationals, reflecting a 7% year-on-year decrease. The number of declarations valid for at least 90 days fell by 15% to 421 000, and seasonal work registrations dropped by half, reaching just 8 200 (Figure 1.8).

Figure 1.8. Total grants of work authorisations in Poland, 2019-2024

Thousands



Note: Grants of work authorisations (including some renewals and work changes). Some of the workers have not yet entered Poland. The maximum duration of employment under a declaration was extended from 6 to 24 months in January 2022 which has contributed to a slowdown in the issuance of new declarations.

Source: Calculations from the OECD Secretariat based on published national data.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/val6yu>

In 2024, about 70% of temporary labour migrants to OECD countries went to just four destinations: the United States, Australia, Japan and Canada. The United States alone received over one-third (36%) of all temporary labour migrants, while Australia, Japan and Canada each accounted for between 9% and 13%.

EU/EFTA OECD countries welcomed slightly more than one in ten of all new temporary foreign workers, excluding those moving freely within the EU/EFTA area.

The number of temporary labour migrants in 2024 was similar to 2023 in most top destination countries (+2% in the United States, -2% in Australia and Japan), except Canada where it decreased (-8%). Levels were relatively stable in the United Kingdom (+3%) and Korea (+1%). The 2024 levels represent nevertheless large increases relative to 2019 in all these countries. In Canada and Korea, temporary migration inflows in 2024 were 61% and 79% larger than in 2019. In the United States and Australia, they were 24% and 17% larger.

In the EU/EFTA area, temporary labour migration rose by 27% compared to 2023 and by 50% compared to 2019. Spain saw the biggest increase, with numbers up 67% from 2023 and a remarkable 347% from 2019. France, Italy, and Germany also recorded significant growth compared to 2019.

In contrast, following a large increase post COVID-19 pandemic, temporary labour migration to New Zealand decreased by 28% relative to 2023 and by 24% relative to 2019.

Temporary labour migration by selected category

Seasonal migration programmes are a major channel of temporary labour migration in OECD countries. In 2024, the number of seasonal workers continued to grow, with 666 000 new permits issued (excluding Poland) – an 8% increase compared to 2023 and nearly three times more than in 2015.

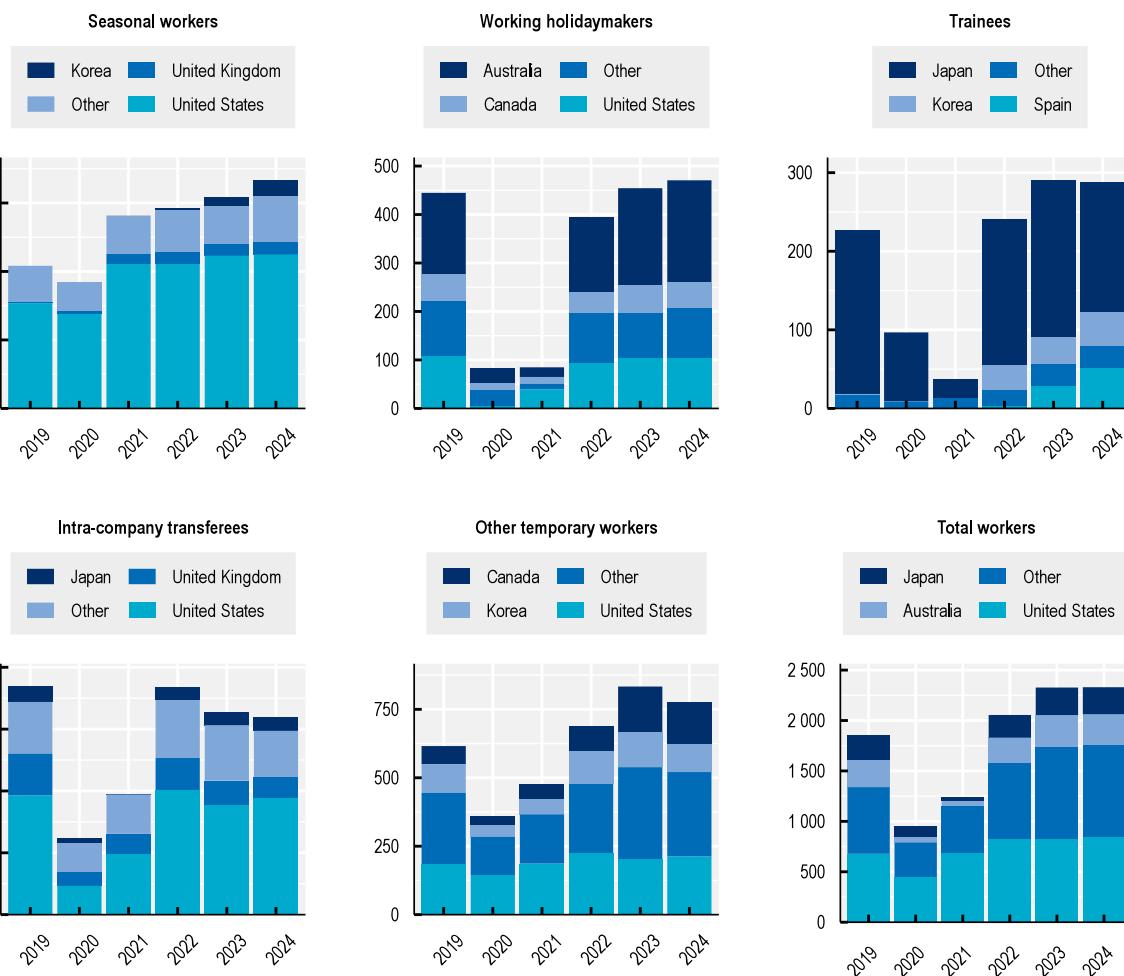
The United States received two-thirds of all seasonal foreign workers in OECD countries, granting 314 000 new H-2A visas in agriculture and 136 000 H-2B visas for non-agricultural seasonal and other temporary needs (such as one-time occurrence, peak-load or intermittent needs). The next top destinations for seasonal work were Korea and the United Kingdom (Figure 1.9).

Seasonal migration increased in most OECD countries in 2024. While the increase was modest in the United States (+1%), there were large year-on-year increases in Korea (+84%) and Italy (+103%). Korea launched its seasonal programme in 2021 to address labour shortages in agriculture and fishing. The programme is expanding rapidly: 47 000 seasonal visas granted in 2024 compared with 25 500 in 2023. In Italy, the permits issued in 2024 (17 000) represent a fourfold increase relative to 2019.

However, in some OECD countries, the number of new seasonal workers was lower in 2024 than in 2019. In Sweden, fewer berry pickers (mostly from Thailand) were approved in 2023 and 2024 due to stricter oversight of working conditions. In Czechia, Estonia and Finland, seasonal migration dropped after 2022, largely due to the war in Ukraine, which had been the main source of seasonal workers.

Figure 1.9. Inflows of temporary labour migrants to the OECD, main programmes and top receiving countries, 2019-2024

Thousands



Note: Exclude renewals except in Australia and France (seasonal). Data for Korea include re-entries. EU include Austria, Belgium, Czechia, Denmark, Finland, France, Germany, Italy, Lithuania, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, the Slovak Republic, Slovenia, Spain and Sweden.

Source: OECD (2025), *Standardised inflows of temporary migrants* (dataset), <http://data-explorer.oecd.org/s2hv>.

StatLink <https://stat.link/nu2mv3>

Working Holiday Maker (WHM) programmes are exchange programmes that allow young people to travel, work, and study in another country while experiencing its culture and lifestyle. In some OECD countries – especially Australia and New Zealand – WHMs play an important role in sectors like agriculture, hospitality, and retail.

In 2024, the number of WHMs arriving in OECD countries rose by 4%, reaching a total of 471 000. This was 6% higher than before the COVID-19 pandemic (2019). The increase was largely driven by Australia, who hosted almost half (45%) of the total WHMs in the OECD in 2024 (+5% relative to 2023 and +25% relative to 2019). The number of WHMs was also larger in 2024 than before the pandemic in the United Kingdom. However, in Canada and the United States, it decreased (-4%), and even more so in New Zealand (-18%).

Trainee programmes aim to facilitate short-term skills transfers and promote familiarity with specific processes or equipment. Their main goal is not to fill regular job positions, but to enhance the knowledge and capabilities of trainees. In most OECD countries, these programmes operate on a relatively small scale. Notable exceptions include Japan – by far the leading destination for foreign trainees – as well as Korea and, more recently, Spain.

In 2024, the total number of new foreign trainees across the OECD remained stable compared to 2023, with a slight decrease of 1%. Japan hosted more than half (57%) of all foreign trainees, nearly all through its Technical Intern Trainee Programme, which issued 148 000 permits in 2024 – down from 199 000 in 2023.

Spain launched a new trainee programme in 2022. However, rather than recruiting trainees from abroad, it allows irregular migrants who have lived in the country for at least two years to regularise their status by enrolling in education or training. In 2024, 51 000 individuals regularised their stay through this programme.

Intra-company transferee (ICT) programmes allow multinational companies to transfer key employees between offices in different countries. These transfers are typically reserved for staff who have been with the company for at least one year. Depending on the country, the permitted duration of stay varies: from one to three years under the EU Directive, up to seven years with the L-1 visa in the United States, and with no fixed limit in Japan and Korea.

In 2024, the number of new intra-company transferees in OECD countries continued to decline, following a ten-year downward trend. A total of 127 000 ICTs were registered – 3% fewer than in 2023, 14% fewer than in 2019, and 17% fewer than in 2015. This decline was consistent across the main destination countries, including the United Kingdom, Canada and Germany.

Other national temporary foreign worker programmes in OECD countries cover a wide range of skill levels and sectors.³ These include programmes for researchers, post-doctoral fellows, and au pairs, as well as initiatives targeting specific occupations or industries. While the structure and focus of these programmes vary by country, they all aim to meet particular labour market needs and support international mobility.

After strong growth in the years following the COVID-19 pandemic, the number of new migrants entering OECD countries through national temporary foreign worker programmes declined by 7% in 2024, compared to 2023. Despite this drop, the total of 778 000 new temporary foreign workers represents a record high – 26% more than in 2019 and 31% more than in 2015.

In Australia and New Zealand, numbers fell significantly after reaching record levels in 2023. Australia admitted 76 000 temporary foreign workers in 2024, a 21% decrease from 2023 and 8% below 2019 levels. New Zealand saw 36 000 arrivals, 55% fewer than in 2023, returning to levels similar to those in 2015-2016.

Korea also experienced a decline, with 100 900 temporary foreign workers in 2024 – below pre-pandemic levels. This drop was mainly due to fewer admissions under the visiting and employment visa for ethnic Koreans (-26%) and the E-9 visa (-20%) issued to workers employed under the Employment Permit System, in lower-skill occupations in selected sectors – primarily manufacturing, and mostly in small and medium-sized enterprises. In 2024, demand for E-9 workers declined as employers increasingly relied on other visa categories, notably for skilled and seasonal labour. Consequently, issuances of E-9 visa fell below the quota (set at 165 000 in 2024). For 2025, quotas have been adjusted to 130 000 to better align with labour demand, alongside an expansion of seasonal worker admissions and continued growth in skilled and student migration.

Canada, despite a year-on-year decrease (-6%), admitted 2.4 times as many temporary labour migrants as in 2019 through its two main programmes: the Temporary Foreign Worker Programme and the

International Mobility Programme. This rise was largely due to relaxed recruitment rules for high-skilled workers – especially in healthcare – and the increase in the agriculture stream of the TFWP.

In contrast, temporary labour migration continued to grow in other major destination countries. In Japan, the number of temporary foreign workers recruited outside the Technical Intern Trainee Programme rose sharply by 43%, driven by the expansion of the Specified Skilled Worker Programme (SSWP). Introduced in 2019, the SSWP aims to fill labour shortages in designated sectors. The United States, and the United Kingdom also saw increases in 2024, with modest growth rates of 4%, and 2% respectively.

In EU countries, the number of permits issued to other temporary foreign workers rose by 27% compared to 2023 and by 22% compared to 2019. The largest year-on-year increases were seen in Spain (+55%) and France (+37%).

Posted workers within the European OECD area

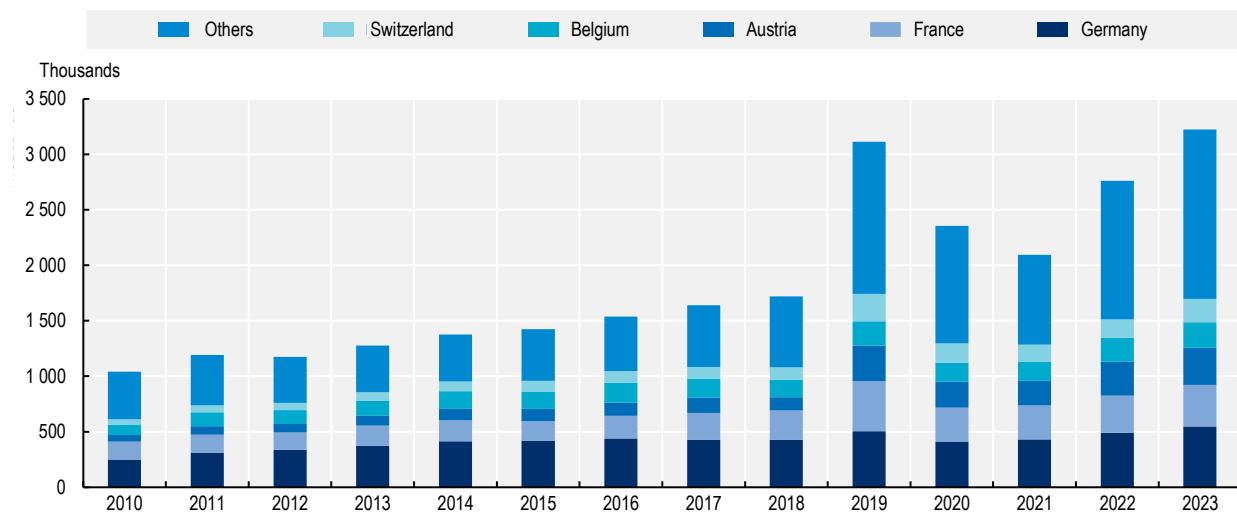
In European OECD countries, *posted workers* are employees or self-employed workers who carry out their activity in another member country while staying affiliated with the social security system of their country of residence. When workers are posted to a single country, the posting cannot exceed 24 months (EC No 987/2009 Article 12), whereas there is no time limit for workers posted to two or more countries (EC No 987/2009 Article 13), mostly used in transportation. Flows of posted workers to and from the United Kingdom continue to be registered post-Brexit, in accordance with the Trade and Co-operation Agreement (TCA) signed by the EU and the United Kingdom at the end of 2020. This section covers postings of workers in European OECD countries.

After a sharp decline in single-country postings (under Article 12) during the COVID-19 period, flows to European OECD countries increased by 32% in 2022 and continued rising in 2023 by an additional 17%, reaching over 3.2 million postings to a single country, a level similar to the 2019 peak. It corresponds to approximately 2 million workers, given that the same worker may be posted to another member country several times during the year.

An additional 1.6 million postings, covering around 1.1 million workers, were issued to those active in two or more countries (under Article 13) in 2023, 18% more than in 2022. The majority of these Art. 13 postings concern transportation and storage, information and communication, and road freight transport. The primary countries sending posted workers were Poland, Italy, Switzerland and Germany.

In 2023, as in previous years, the main receiving countries of posted workers to a single country remained Germany (548 600 postings in 2023), followed by France (375 200), Austria (333 100), Belgium (231 100), and Switzerland (209 700). Among top 10 destination countries for posted workers, the largest increases were recorded in Switzerland, Spain and Italy (+26% to 27%), only the United Kingdom registered a decline in inflows (-10%).

Figure 1.10. Posting of workers active in a single country under Article 12 in top receiving European OECD countries, 2010-23



Source: De Wispelaere, F., L. De Smedt and J. Pacolet (2024^[2]), "Posting of workers – report on A1 portable documents issued in 2023", *Facts and figures on intra-EU labour mobility and EU social security co-ordination*, <https://ec.europa.eu/social/main.jsp?catId=1154&langId=en>.

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In 2023, the average duration of postings was 65 days across the 20 countries with available data. The average full-year equivalent number of postings in these countries was 610 100 in 2023. This compares to 537 000 in 2022 (+15%).

Data on average duration of postings are available by sending country. These durations vary significantly across sending countries, from fewer than 40 days in Belgium, France, Germany and Luxembourg to more than 200 days in Croatia, Estonia, Iceland, Ireland and Poland. Half of postings to another country came from Germany, as in previous years.

When applying these durations by receiving country, assuming that postings from a given sending country have the same duration across all destination countries, Germany remained the leading receiving country, with around 182 400 full-year equivalent (FYE) postings (Table 1.2), followed by France (68 500), Austria (45 900) and Belgium (39 900). Top sending country is Germany in all European OECD receiving country, with the exception of Belgium, Latvia, Lithuania, the Netherlands, Sweden (where postings come primarily from Poland), France and Portugal.

Table 1.2. Postings active in a single country under Article 12, by receiving countries, 2023

Full-year equivalent (FYE) numbers of postings and top 3 sending countries

Receiving country	Postings in 2023 (thousands)	FYE Postings in 2023 (thousands)	Top 3 sending countries in 2023
Austria	333.1	45.9	Germany, Poland, Italy
Belgium	231.1	39.9	Poland, Germany, Portugal
Croatia	68.7	8.7	Germany, Italy, Slovenia
Czechia	79.0	12.5	Germany, Poland, Slovak Republic
Denmark	62.6	9.5	Germany, Poland, Italy
Estonia	9.0	1.6	Germany, Poland, Latvia
Finland	38.9	7.9	Germany, Poland, Estonia
France	375.2	68.5	Italy, Germany, Poland
Germany	547.6	182.4	Poland, Croatia, Slovak Republic
Greece	28.6	4.1	Germany, Italy, Spain
Hungary	53.8	8.3	Germany, Poland, Italy
Iceland	81.1	8.8	Germany, Poland, Lithuania
Ireland	62.3	7.4	Germany, Italy, Spain
Italy	168.9	23.9	Germany, Spain, Poland
Latvia	5.3	1.1	Poland, Germany, Lithuania
Lithuania	9.0	1.9	Poland, Germany, Latvia
Luxembourg	52.3	6	Germany, Belgium, Poland
Netherlands	192.9	37.4	Poland, Germany, Italy
Norway	68.7	9.2	Germany, Poland, Lithuania
Poland	105.1	13.1	Germany, Italy, Spain
Portugal	73.4	10.6	Spain, Germany, Italy
Slovak Republic	34.1	5.1	Germany, Poland, Czechia
Slovenia	35.0	6.8	Germany, Croatia, Italy
Spain	189.9	28	Germany, Italy, Portugal
Sweden	77.8	17.7	Poland, Germany, Italy
Switzerland	209.7	30.7	Germany, Italy, Poland
United Kingdom	99.6	14	Germany, Italy, Spain
Total Europe OECD	3 292.6	610.8	Germany, Poland, Italy
Bulgaria	14.7	1.9	Germany, Italy, Poland
Romania	46.8	6.6	Germany, Italy, Poland

Note: Data on the duration of postings is collected by the sending country and is available for only 20 European OECD countries. For all other OECD countries lacking this information, an average posting duration of 65 days per year is applied. To estimate full-year equivalent (FYE) postings by receiving country, it is assumed that postings from a given sending country have the same average duration across all destination countries.

Source: Calculation from the Secretariat based on De Wispelaere, F., L. De Smedt and J. Pacolet (2024[2]), "Posting of workers – report on A1 portable documents issued in 2023", *Facts and figures on intra-EU labour mobility and EU social security co-ordination*, <https://ec.europa.eu/social/main.jsp?catId=1154&langId=en>.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/vndmt3>

In 2023, more than one in two (53%) of single-country postings benefitted the industry, with 16% in construction alone. Around 46% were for services (19% in the financial and insurance sectors, and 15% in the education, health and social sectors). Agriculture accounted for less than 1% of Article 12 postings. In most Central and European OECD countries, construction account for at least 40% of all postings. Germany mainly provides postings in the manufacturing and service sector. By contrast, a majority of postings from Belgium, France and Luxembourg benefitted the service sectors, primarily the financial and insurance sectors, but also temporary employment agencies in Belgium; education and health sectors in Belgium and France.

A significant and increasing part of intra-EU/EFTA posted workers consists of third-country nationals. They usually hold a work and residence permit in an EU country before being posted to another EU/EFTA country. Among countries for which estimates are available, France, Austria and the Netherlands received the highest numbers of postings of third-country nationals.

In the Netherlands, more than a third of postings are by third-country nationals, mostly Ukrainians and Belarusians posted from Poland and Lithuania to work in the transportation, agriculture, and road freight transport. In Austria, Belgium and France, more than 20% of posted workers were also third-country nationals. Ukraine was among the top origin countries. Other represented nationalities were Bosnians and Herzegovinians posted from Slovenia to work in road freight transport and construction in Austria and Moroccans posted from Spain to France to work in agriculture (De Wispelaere, De Smedt and Pacolet, 2022^[3]).

International students

This section covers new tertiary-educated international students in OECD countries. Stocks of international students are also presented at the end of this section.

Flows of international students to OECD countries

In 2024, flows of tertiary-educated international students to OECD countries decreased for the first time after three years of consecutive rise post COVID-19 pandemic. OECD countries welcomed over 1.8 million new international students, 13% fewer than in 2023.

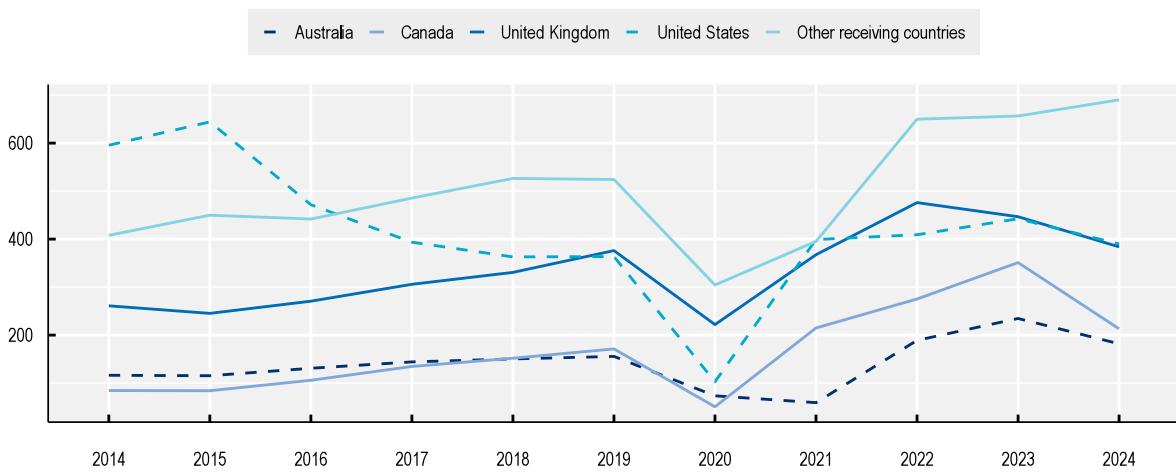
As in previous years, the United States and the United Kingdom remained the top destinations, issuing approximately 390 000 and 384 000 student permits respectively (Figure 1.11). They were followed by Canada (213 100) and Australia (182 000). Together, these four countries accounted for 65% of all international student inflows to the OECD in 2024.

Notably, all four of the top host countries saw year-on-year declines in 2024, the first such drop since the COVID-19 pandemic. Canada and Australia experienced the steepest decreases, with declines of 39% and 22%, respectively.

International student flows to the rest of the OECD countries grew by 5% compared to 2023. Japan welcomed about 167 000 new international students, a 20% increase from the previous year. Among other countries admitting more than 10 000 new international students, Denmark, Korea, New Zealand and Sweden saw the sharpest rise, each with increases between 14% and 19%.

Figure 1.11. International student flows to the OECD, 2014-2024

Thousands



Note: Data refer to international tertiary-level students, including students enrolled in language courses (excluding intra-EU/EFTA international students). The data do not include professional training courses. Estimates for BEL, CAN, CZE, ESP, GRC, HUN, ISL, ITA, KOR, LVA, PRT, SVN.

Source: OECD (2025), *Standardised inflows of temporary migrants* (dataset), <http://data-explorer.oecd.org/s/2hv>.

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European OECD countries (excluding the United Kingdom as well as intra-EU mobility) welcomed approximately 435 000 new international students in 2024 (-1% from 2023). France remained the leading European destination with about 104 000 international students, followed by Spain (70 000) and Germany (59 000).

Table 1.3. Inflows of international tertiary-level students in OECD countries, 2013 and 2019-2024

Number of first residence permits issued in thousands

	2013	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	2024	2024/23	2024/19
	Thousands							Change (%)	
Australia	94.6	155.6	73.5	59.2	189.0	234.6	181.9	-22	17
Austria	4.6	3.6	2.2	4.0	4.1	5.5	5.9	7	63
Belgium	5.5	8.0	5.5	9.0	9.0	9.1	9.8	8	22
Canada	77.1	171.2	50.7	214.9	275.2	351.1	213.1	-39	24
Czechia	3.6	4.1	6.1	5.0	7.4	5.9	5.0	-15	22
Denmark	7.0	7.5	4.5	4.7	8.9	10.1	11.5	14	53
Estonia	0.7	1.5	0.7	1.2	0.6	0.5	0.5	-6	-67
Finland	0.0	5.2	3.2	5.8	8.4	12.8	12.2	-5	132
France	61.0	86.4	70.9	86.6	98.3	104.0	103.5	0	20
Germany	36.9	49.2	12.4	53.6	64.6	57.0	59.3	4	21
Greece	1.0	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	3	5
Hungary	5.4	10.0	9.0	9.6	10.1	11.3	19.6	74	96
Iceland	0.3	0.4	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.6	10	57
Ireland	16.9	25.5	9.9	12.7	32.2	29.4	29.4	0	15
Italy	16.2	20.3	8.5	17.5	25.1	27.4	20.1	-27	-1
Japan	70.0	121.6	49.7	11.7	167.1	139.6	167.1	20	37
Korea	19.2	35.3	28.3	38.6	57.2	47.7	55.6	16	57
Latvia	0.8	2.4	1.2	1.3	1.8	3.2	2.9	-8	19
Lithuania	0.5	1.6	1.8	2.5	2.7	4.7	5.9	24	262
Luxembourg	0.0	0.4	0.2	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.5	9	30
Mexico	7.4	5.8	2.9	4.6	7.1	5.6	5.0	-11	-14
Netherlands	12.9	20.2	11.6	19.6	21.9	22.9	21.9	-5	8
New Zealand	18.3	23.5	5.6	0.8	10.3	20.6	24.5	19	4
Norway	3.4	4.0	2.2	3.7	4.2	2.9	3.0	2	-26
Poland	16.9	6.1	16.3	27.1	23.8	21.3	15.8	-26	159
Portugal	4.0	13.3	12.3	10.9	9.7	23.8	16.6	-30	25
Slovak Republic	0.0	2.9	2.3	2.7	3.4	4.2	2.8	-34	-4
Slovenia	0.3	2.6	2.0	1.7	2.7	3.0	3.2	6	22
Spain	25.9	44.9	22.2	44.2	51.9	65.4	69.6	6	55
Sweden	8.2	11.4	7.0	9.0	9.9	10.4	11.9	14	5
Switzerland	6.3	6.0	5.4	6.1	6.3	6.7	6.3	-6	6
United Kingdom	264.9	376.1	221.9	367.5	476.1	446.7	383.9	-14	2
United States	534.3	363.6	102.9	399.0	409.2	442.4	389.9	-12	7
Total OECD	1 323.9	1 590.7	753.3	1 435.9	1 999.3	2 130.0	1 856.0	-13	17
Total EU/EFTA	238.0	338.0	217.7	339.6	408.1	441.7	435.2	-1	29

Note: Data refer to international tertiary-level students, including students enrolled in language courses (excluding intra-EU/EFTA international students). The data do not include professional training courses. Estimates for BEL, CAN, CZE, ESP, GRC, HUN, ISL, ITA, KOR, LVA, PRT, SVN.

Source: OECD (2025), *Standardised inflows of temporary migrants* (dataset), <http://data-explorer.oecd.org/s/2hv>.

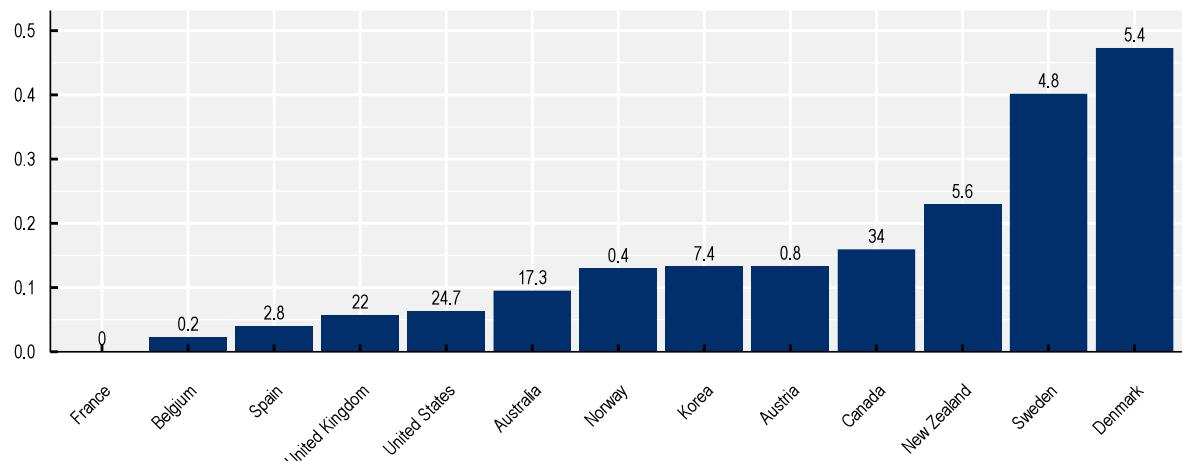
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In 2024, China was the top country of origin for international student inflows to the United States and the United Kingdom, making up about a quarter of all student inflows to each of these countries (see Annex Figure 1.A.1). India, the top country of origin in 2023, was the second country of origin in 2024 after a significant decrease from 2023 (-39% to the United States and -26% to the United Kingdom) and accounted for just under a quarter of international student inflows to the United Kingdom, and a fifth to the United States. The inflow of Nigerian students to the United Kingdom also declined by more than half relative to 2023, whereas the flow of Nepalese students to the United States and the United Kingdom continued to rise (+59% and +44%, respectively).

Partners of tertiary-level international students can accompany them, or join them later, via family reunification arrangements in some OECD countries. Among the OECD countries providing relevant data, Denmark and Sweden received the most family members per international student (Figure 1.12). In 2023, the United Kingdom had issued the most permits for family members of international students by far. In 2024, it issued only 15% of the 2023 total as international postgraduate students cannot anymore bring dependants unless their course is a research programme.

Figure 1.12. Family members of international tertiary-level students to selected OECD countries, 2024

Family members as a ratio to total inflows of international students



Note: Figures shown in the graph are absolute numbers of international students' family members (in thousands).

Source: OECD (2025), Standardised inflows of temporary migrants (dataset), <http://data-explorer.oecd.org/s/2hv>.

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International student stocks in OECD countries

In 2023, 5.1 million international students (including students who were admitted on grounds other than study, such as family reunification or humanitarian migration as well as foreign students benefitting from a free mobility agreement) were enrolled in OECD countries, 10% more than in the previous year. About half of them were studying in a European OECD country (Table 1.4). Almost one fifth of international students in the OECD were hosted by the United States. The United Kingdom hosted 14% of all international students, followed by Australia (9%) and Germany (8%).

Table 1.4. International tertiary-level students enrolled in OECD countries, 2023

	Thousands	International students (as a percentage of all students)		
		Total tertiary education	Master's level	Doctoral level
Australia	467	27	51	38
Austria	87	20	27	41
Belgium	57	10	17	25
Canada	389	21	23	38
Chile	20	1	4	23
Colombia	7	0	1	2
Czechia	56	17	19	27
Denmark	30	10	20	38
Estonia	5	11	16	33
Finland	30	9	12	28
France	276	10	14	37
Germany	423	13	20	23
Greece	26	3	1	2
Hungary	42	14	22	30
Iceland	2	10	15	45
Ireland	30	12	25	41
Israel	14	3	6	14
Italy	106	5	7	14
Japan	182	5	10	23
Korea	128	5	12	21
Latvia	10	13	32	8
Lithuania	11	11	17	11
Luxembourg	4	52	79	91
Mexico	73	1	6	12
Netherlands	164	17	27	0
New Zealand	36	15	34	45
Norway	14	5	7	24
Poland	90	7	6	4
Portugal	57	13	19	33
Slovak Republic	21	15	14	14
Slovenia	8	11	11	23
Spain	102	4	11	20
Sweden	35	7	13	36
Switzerland	66	20	32	58
Türkiye	302	4	9	7
United Kingdom	748	23	51	40
United States	957	5	10	37
Europe OECD total	2 503	13	21	29
OECD total	5 076	12	19	27

Note: Data for Canada, Colombia, Hungary, Korea, the Slovak Republic, Türkiye and the United States refer to foreign students instead of international students. Average shares (in percentage) of students in Europe OECD and all OECD countries by level of education are simple averages of individual country shares.

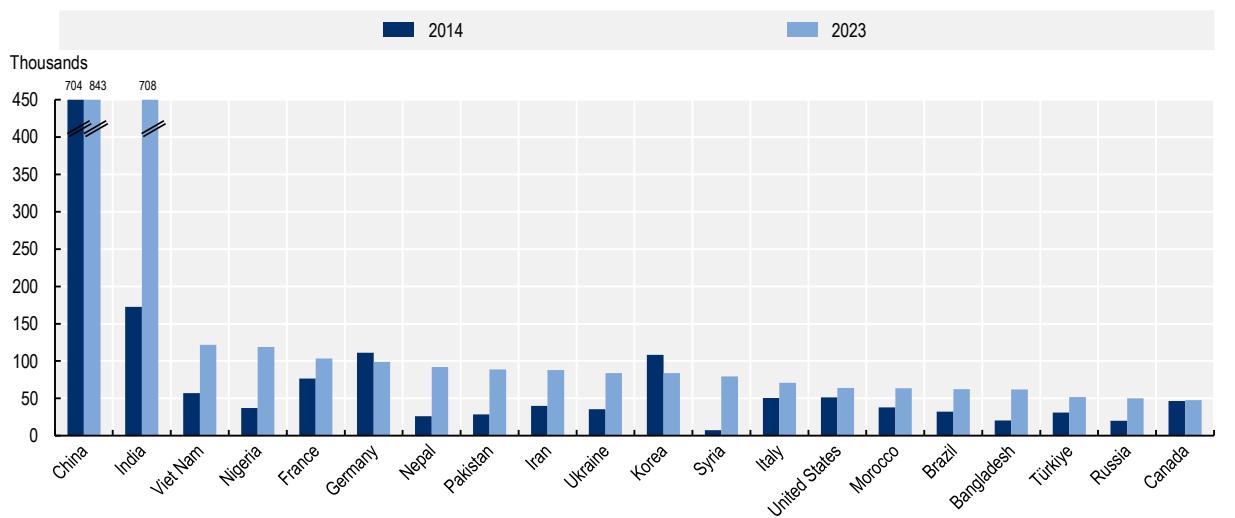
Source: OECD (2025), *Education at a Glance 2025: OECD Indicators*, OECD Publishing, Paris, <https://doi.org/10.1787/1c0d9c79-en>.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/1xpvqz>

On average, in 2023 in the OECD, 12% of tertiary students were international students (13% in European OECD countries). In Luxembourg, international students accounted for half of all tertiary-educated students. In Australia, Austria, Canada, Switzerland and the United Kingdom, they represented between 20% and 27% of all tertiary-educated students.

The share of international students increases with the level of study in most countries. International students account for at least 40% of doctoral-level students in Austria, Iceland, Ireland, Luxembourg, New Zealand, Switzerland and the United Kingdom, compared with 27% in the OECD as a whole (Table 1.4). In most OECD countries, there are at least twice as many international students at doctoral level than at tertiary level.

Figure 1.13. Top 20 nationalities of international tertiary-level students enrolled in OECD countries, 2014 and 2023



Note: Statistics refer to stocks of international students and exclude Erasmus students in European countries.

Source: OECD (2025), *Education at a Glance 2025: OECD Indicators*, OECD Publishing, Paris, <https://doi.org/10.1787/1c0d9c79-en>.

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With 17% and 14% of total enrolled international students, respectively, tertiary-educated students from China and India continued to account for a third of all international students in OECD countries (Figure 1.13). Viet Nam, Nigeria and France round off the top five countries of origin. Overall, numbers of international students in the OECD doubled since 2014 while numbers of students from Syria increased ten-fold, and those from Nepal and India three-fold. Largest increases in 2023 were registered for students from India (+35% compared to 2022) and Bangladesh (+29%).

Asylum seekers

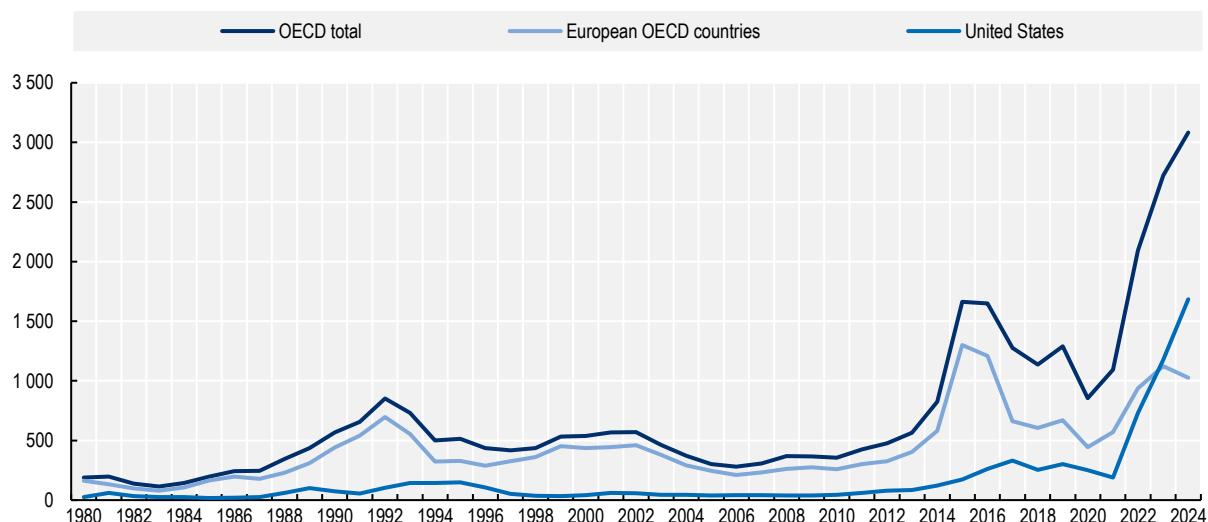
Asylum applications in the OECD continued at record high levels in 2024. There were 3.1 million new asylum applications in OECD countries, 13% more applications than in 2023, and more than double the number in 2019. This is the highest level recorded yet, surpassing previous records of 2.7 million in 2023 and 1.7 million in 2015/16 (Figure 1.14).

The United States alone received 1.7 million new asylum applications. This represents a 43% increase relative to 2023, and more than a fivefold increase relative to 2019. The United States has been the main OECD destination country for asylum seekers since 2017. In 2024, asylum applications in the United States accounted for 55% of all asylum applications in the OECD (up from 43% in 2022 and 23% in 2019).

In the rest of the OECD, the number of applications slightly decreased relative to 2023, despite staying at historically high levels. In European OECD countries, 1 million applications were lodged in 2024, 9% fewer than in 2023. This was nevertheless among the highest levels on record, after 2023 and 2015/16.

Figure 1.14. New asylum applications since 1980 in the OECD

Thousands



Note: Total applications to the United States in the second half of 2024 are estimated based on the number of affirmative applications for the whole year.

Source: OECD Secretariat calculations based on data from UNHCR and Eurostat.

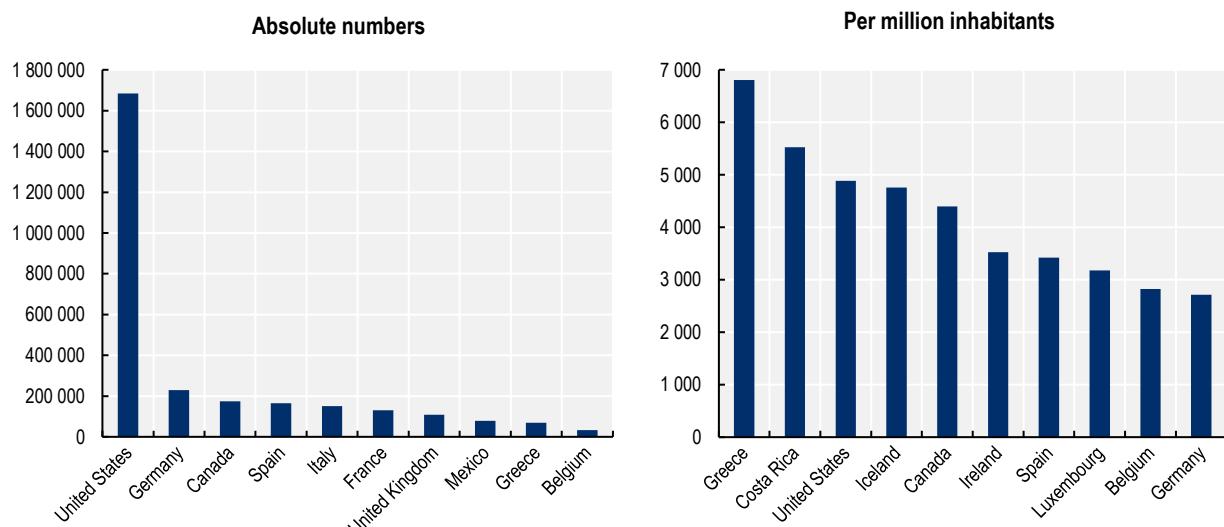
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After the United States, the top receiving countries, in absolute terms in 2024, were Canada and the largest European OECD countries (Germany, Spain, Italy, France and the United Kingdom) (Figure 1.15).

The trends in Canada and the United Kingdom are somewhat similar to that in the United States. Asylum applications soared in Canada for the third consecutive year. There were 174 000 applications in Canada in 2024, an all-time record. This represents an 18% increase relative to 2023 and almost triple the number in 2019. The United Kingdom received 108 000 new applications, 28% more than in the previous year and 2.4 times the number in 2019. The last year the United Kingdom had over 100 000 applications was in 2002, when the United Kingdom was the first asylum receiving country in the OECD.

Similarly in New Zealand, the number of applications increased sharply for the second year in a row (+39%). The number of applications in 2023 and 2024 are the highest recorded in New Zealand since 2001.

Figure 1.15. New asylum applications in top OECD receiving countries, 2024



Note: Data for the United States is estimated using the UNHCR overall figure for asylum applications in the United States during the first half of 2024 (729 000) and affirmative applications for the second half of 2024 (223 000), and assuming that defensive claims followed the same trend as affirmative applications between the first half and the second half of the year (+31%).

Source: OECD Secretariat calculations based on data from UNHCR and Eurostat.

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In EU OECD countries, the number of applications decreased markedly in Germany (-30% relative to 2023), decreased more modestly in France (-10%) and remained stable in Spain (+2%) (Table 1.5). Only in five EU OECD countries did the number of applications increase. These were Belgium (+13%), Greece (+19%), Italy (+16%), Ireland (+39%) and Poland (+87%).

In Mexico, applications dropped by 44% compared with 2023, when applications were at a record level. The number of applications remains as in many other OECD countries historically high, as only in 2021-2023 did Mexico receive more applications than in 2024. The number of asylum applications decreased also in Chile (-31%) and Costa Rica (-18%) but increased in Colombia (+22%) following two years of decrease.

In Japan and Korea, the number of applications stabilised at a historically high level in 2024, following large increases in 2022-2023.

The OECD area as a whole received about 1 730 new asylum requests per million population in 2024, a 14% increase compared to 2023 (Figure 1.15). Greece received the most asylum seekers relative to its population (6 800 per million), followed by Costa Rica, the United States, Iceland and Canada (all between 4 400 and 5 400 request per million inhabitants).

Table 1.5. New asylum applications by country where the application is filed, 2019-2024

	2019	2021	2022	2023	2024	% change:		Asylum seekers per million population (2024)	Top three origin countries of asylum seekers (2024)		
						2024 vs					
						2019	2023				
Australia	..	11 200	13 400	22 900	24 800	..	+ 8	1 225	CHN, IND, VNM		
Austria	11 010	37 830	109 800	56 160	21 835	+ 98	- 61	2 393	SYR, AFG, TUR		
Belgium	23 140	19 605	32 140	29 305	33 095	+ 43	+ 13	2 822	SYR, PSE, ERI		
Canada	58 340	23 365	94 375	146 740	173 930	+ 198	+ 19	4 399	IND, BGD, NGA		
Chile	770	2 500	5 055	3 625	2 495	+ 224	- 31	127	VEN, COL, CUB		
Colombia	10 620	15 940	5 530	5 790	7 050	- 34	+ 22	134	VEN, CUB, ECU		
Costa Rica	59 180	108 425	129 480	34 645	28 275	- 52	- 18	5 525	NIC, VEN, CUB		
Czechia	1 575	1 060	1 335	1 135	1 035	- 34	- 9	96	UKR, UZB, VNM		
Denmark	2 645	2 015	4 505	2 380	2 210	- 16	- 7	371	SYR, TUR, ERI		
Estonia	100	75	2 940	3 980	1 330	+1 230	- 67	973	UKR, RUS, BLR		
Finland	2 455	1 365	4 835	4 465	2 275	- 7	- 49	405	SOM, AFG, NGA		
France	138 290	103 810	137 605	145 160	130 950	- 5	- 10	1 969	UKR, AFG, COD		
Germany	142 510	148 235	217 775	329 120	229 750	+ 61	- 30	2 713	SYR, AFG, TUR		
Greece	74 915	22 660	29 135	57 900	68 995	- 8	+ 19	6 807	SYR, AFG, EGY		
Hungary	470	40	45	30	25	- 95	- 17	3	SYR		
Iceland	805	865	4 530	4 120	1 860	+ 131	- 55	4 760	UKR, VEN, PSE		
Ireland	4 740	2 615	13 645	13 220	18 435	+ 289	+ 39	3 527	NGA, JOR, PAK		
Israel	9 445	1 925	3 915	6 815	6 080	- 36	- 11	652			
Italy	35 005	45 200	77 200	130 565	151 120	+ 332	+ 16	2 543	BGD, PER, PAK		
Japan	10 375	2 415	3 770	13 825	13 645	+ 32	- 1	110	LKA, THA, TUR		
Korea	15 430	2 330	11 540	18 825	18 325	+ 19	- 3	354	RUS, CHN, IND		
Latvia	180	580	545	1 625	800	+ 344	- 51	426	TJK, AFG, IND		
Lithuania	625	3 905	905	510	295	- 53	- 42	103	BLR, RUS, UKR		
Luxembourg	2 200	1 370	2 405	2 615	2 125	- 3	- 19	3 175	ERI, SYR, DZA		
Mexico	70 365	131 420	118 735	140 980	78 900	+ 12	- 44	605	HND, CUB, HTI		
Netherlands	22 540	24 755	35 530	38 370	32 000	+ 42	- 17	1 762	SYR, IRQ, TUR		
New Zealand	540	415	335	1 720	2 385	+ 342	+ 39	459	IND, CHN, LKA		
Norway	2 205	1 615	4 650	5 135	4 800	+ 118	- 7	865	SYR, UKR, ERI		
Poland	2 765	6 240	7 700	7 720	14 445	+ 422	+ 87	373	UKR, BLR, ETH		
Portugal	1 735	1 350	1 980	2 600	2 675	+ 54	+ 3	256	SEN, GMB, COL		
Slovak Republic	215	330	505	375	140	- 35	- 63	25	UKR, AFG, BLR		
Slovenia	3 615	5 220	6 645	7 185	5 465	+ 51	- 24	2 579	MAR, DZA, AFG		
Spain	115 190	62 065	116 150	160 470	164 035	+ 42	+ 2	3 423	VEN, COL, MLI		
Sweden	20 805	9 055	13 210	8 960	6 780	- 67	- 24	641	SYR, UZB, AFG		
Switzerland	12 600	13 295	23 130	26 895	22 750	+ 81	- 15	2 557	AFG, TUR, DZA		
Türkiye	56 415	29 255	33 245	19 015	9 010	- 84	- 53	103	AFG, IRQ, IRN		
United Kingdom	44 465	56 465	89 395	84 415	108 135	+ 143	+ 28	1 569	PAK, AFG, IRN		
United States	301 070	188 860	730 400	1 176 050	1 683 933	+ 459	+ 43	4 888	..		
OECD total	1 286 755	1 089 670	2 088 020	2 715 345	3 076 144	+ 139	+ 13	1 729			
<i>Selected non-OECD countries</i>											
Argentina	3 172	2 215	915	2 010	1 694	- 47	- 16	37	RUS, VEN, SEN		
Brazil	82 464	7 755	50 330	58 615	68 150	- 17	+ 16	322	VEN, CUB, AGO		
Bulgaria	2 465	10 890	20 260	22 390	12 130	+ 392	- 46	1 790	SYR, AFG, MAR		
Croatia	675	2 480	2 660	1 635	1 000	+ 48	- 39	257	RUS, SYR, TUR		
Indonesia	1 000	10	20	25	85	- 92	+ 240	0	MMR, AFG, SOM		
Peru	192 485	1 515	1 430	10 455	32 855	- 83	+ 214	965	VEN, COL, CUB		
Romania	1 945	9 065	12 065	9 875	2 265	+ 16	- 77	119	SYR, IRQ, NPL		
Thailand	720	300	635	1 505	1 635	+ 127	+ 9	23	VNM, PAK, KHM		

Note: Data for 2024 for the United States is estimated using the UNHCR overall figure for asylum applications in the United States during the first half of 2024 (729 000) and affirmative applications for the second half of 2024 (223 000), and assuming that defensive claims followed the same trend as affirmative applications between the first half and the second half of the year (+31%). Australian data are Protection visa lodgements published by the Australian Department of Home Affairs. These figures differ from those in the Statistical Annex, which are published by UNHCR.

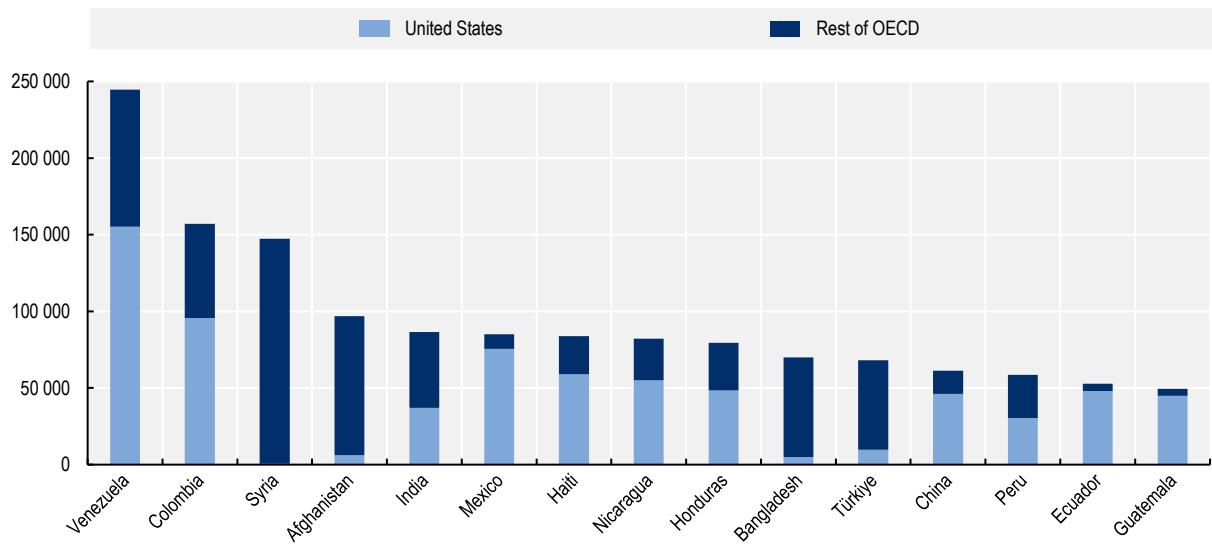
Source: OECD Secretariat calculations based on data from UNHCR, Eurostat, Australian Department of Home Affairs and the OECD International Migration Database, <https://doi.org/10.1787/data-00342-en>.

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The top origin countries for asylum applicants within the OECD in 2024 were Venezuela, Colombia, Syria and Afghanistan (Figure 1.16). They were followed by India, Mexico, Haiti, Nicaragua and Honduras.

The United States is the main destination country for many of the top countries of origin of asylum seekers in the OECD in 2024. This is unsurprising given that the United States accounts for over half of the asylum requests of the OECD. In particular, the United States receives most of the requests from asylum seekers from Latin American countries.

Figure 1.16. Top 15 origin countries of asylum applicants in OECD countries, 2024



Note: The data on asylum applications in 2024 in the United States is incomplete.

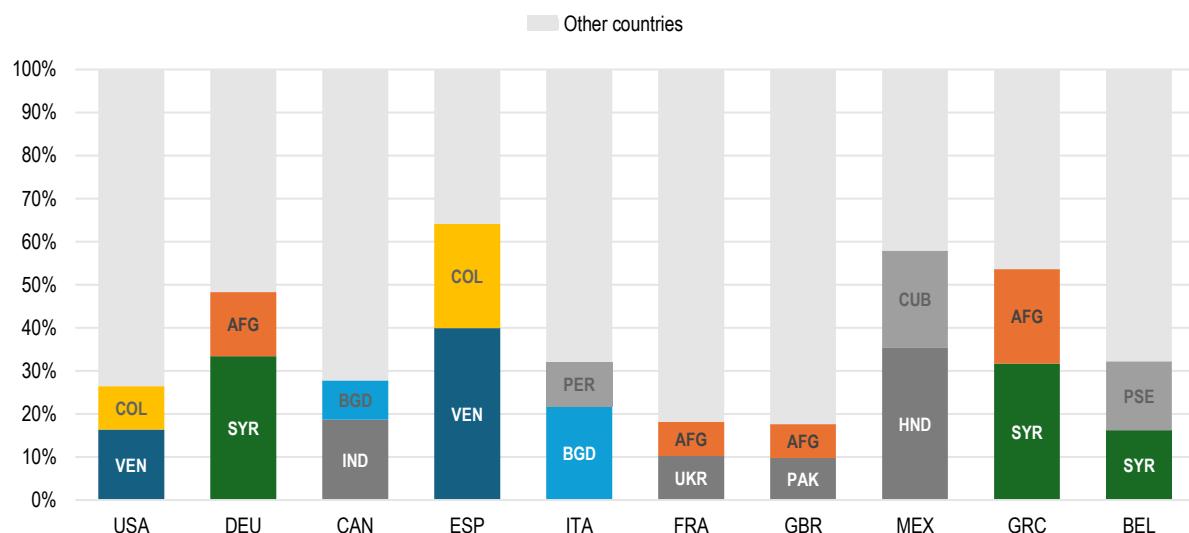
Source: OECD Secretariat calculations based on data from UNHCR and Eurostat.

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The composition of asylum seekers by country of origin differs across OECD countries (Figure 1.17). For example, Syrians and Afghans represent close to half of asylum seekers in 2024 in Germany and Greece, and over 60% of asylum seekers in Spain come from Venezuela and Colombia.

Figure 1.17. Two main origin countries of asylum seekers by country of asylum

2024, top 10 OECD countries of asylum



Note: The data on the applications in 2024 in the United States is incomplete.

Source: OECD Secretariat calculations based on data from UNHCR and Eurostat.

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Irregular migration and returns

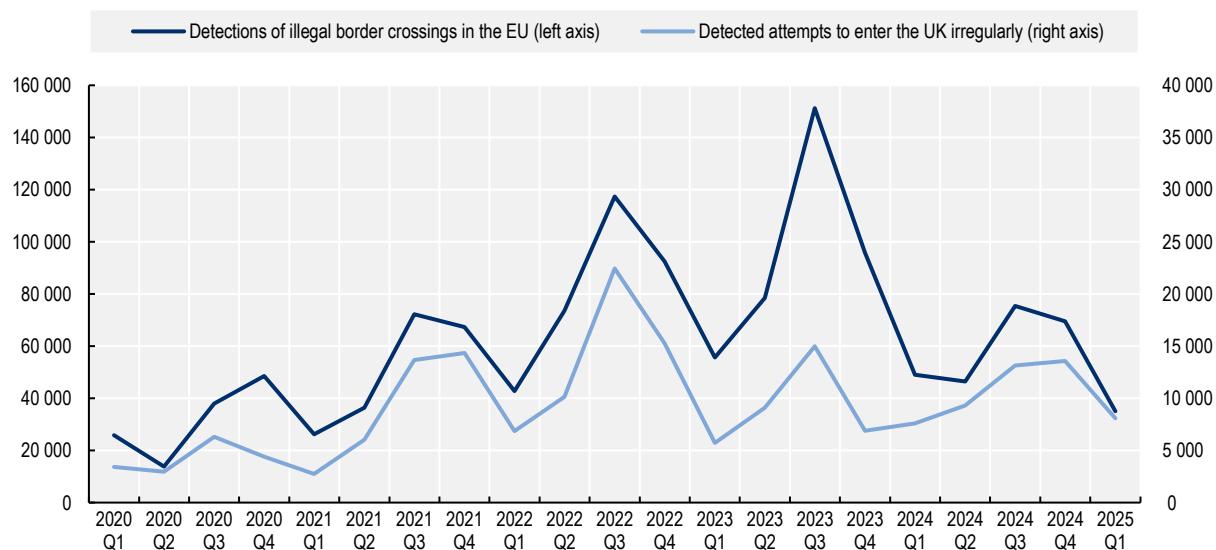
Irregular migration covers the situations where migrants enter irregularly in a country or stay longer than they were allowed to at entry. Monitoring irregular migration is important to try and address the difficulties it creates for both migrants and countries of residence. Irregular entries and overstays are closely monitored by all OECD countries. Data are usually available by migration route and/or by nationality. They show significant variation over time linked to changes in countries of origin and transit. Return statistics are also widely available for forced and voluntary assisted returns. This section covers both EU countries and selected other OECD countries.

Irregular border crossings

Despite the diversity in reporting practices, a comparative look at registered irregular border crossings (IBC) across OECD countries reveals a shared pattern: a general decline in irregular entries in 2024. The following analysis highlights these developments based on the latest available data (Box 1.6).

The number of irregular border crossings into the European Union amounted to 35 000 in the first quarter of 2025, according to Frontex data (Figure 1.18). This is lower than what was registered from 2022 to 2024. Detections of irregular border crossings peaked in 2023 (except for 2015/16) at 381 000 and declined very sharply in 2024 as the number of irregular border crossings detected fell by 37% to 240 000.

Figure 1.18. Quarterly detections of illegal border crossings in the EU and in the United Kingdom



Source: Frontex, the United Kingdom Home Office.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/nsdk30>

Frontex reports irregular border crossings disaggregated by main migratory routes (Box 1.6). The 2023 peak was led by the Central Mediterranean route (158 000) and the Western Balkan route (99 000). The decline in 2024 was due to two main routes. IBC on the Central Mediterranean route fell by 58% to 67 000, and those on Western Balkan route by 78% to 22 000. In contrast, the Eastern Mediterranean route became the most active corridor in 2024, with 70 000 detections – an increase of 15% compared to the previous year. Meanwhile, IBC on the Western African route increased by 18% and reached 47 000, the highest number on record.

Box 1.6. Available data sources and their key limitations

In the EU, Frontex provides harmonised and timely data across the EU's external borders, allowing for cross-country comparisons and trend analysis. Frontex focusses on four primary migratory routes into the EU: i) Western African Route, ii) Central Mediterranean Route, iii) Eastern Mediterranean Route, iv) Western Balkan Route.

While Frontex data is among the most systematic and publicly accessible sources available for the EU, it is important to emphasise certain limitations. The figures represent detection events, not unique individuals – meaning that a person who attempts to cross a border multiple times will be counted each time they are intercepted. This issue of double counting is particularly relevant for land routes like the Western Balkans, where repeated crossings are common. In addition, differences in how national authorities report incidents – for example, whether they record each individual separately or as part of a group – can affect the consistency and comparability of the data. Moreover, while surveillance is relatively robust at maritime borders, more irregular land crossings may go undetected, suggesting that some irregular movements remain underreported.

Non-EU OECD countries also maintain tracking systems. The United States and the United Kingdom regularly publish detailed enforcement data, and Türkiye and Mexico report on apprehensions.

In 2024, the United Kingdom reported 44 000 attempts to enter irregularly. This is 19% more than in 2023 but 20% less than in 2022. The vast majority are arrivals on small boats (vessels used by individuals who cross the English Channel). In the first quarter of 2025, there were 6 600 of them for a total of 8 100 detected attempts (82%). Small boats arrivals are monitored and published on a daily basis.

In Türkiye, the number of irregular migrants apprehended peaked in 2019 at 455 000 and fell sharply, as expected, during the COVID-19 period (122 000 in 2020 and 163 000 in 2021). Between 2022 and 2024, the number dropped from 285 000 to 226 000.

In Mexico, the number of events concerning persons in irregular situation increased by 76% between 2022 and 2023, to 779 000, and by 58% in 2024 to 1.2 million. The most recent trend shown by monthly data is a steady and sharp decline over the 12 months to April 2025.

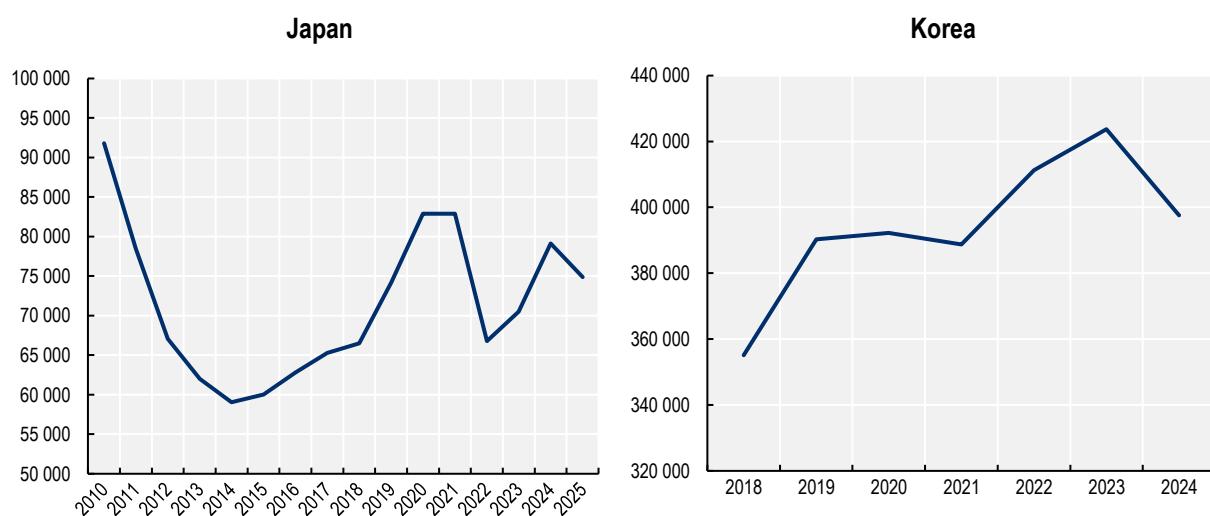
Since 2013, border crossings virtually disappeared in Israel, following the construction of the fence and increased co-operation with Egypt.

In the United States, the number of the United States Border Patrol (USBP) encounters was almost halved in 2024 and stood at 1.1 million. This was however as the average over the period 2014-2019. Virtually all encounters took place on the Southwest border (98%). Monthly data show that the level went down to around 60 000 per month in July 2024, fell below 50 000 in November 2024, and below 10 000 in February and March 2025.

Overstayers

An overstayer is a person who remains in a country after the end of the period authorised by their entry visa. Irregular migration in Japan, Korea, but also New Zealand and Australia, consist mainly in overstayers. In the mid-1990s, the number of estimated overstayers in Japan was almost at 300 000 (Figure 1.19). It then regularly declined every year until 2014 and 2015 where it reached about 60 000. Since then, their number has risen slightly, fluctuating between 65 000 and 85 000. In 2025, it stood at 75 000, 5.4% below the 2024 level. The number of overstayers in Korea rose from 355 000 in 2018 to 424 000 in 2023 but declined by 6% in 2024, to 398 000. By February 2025 it had gone down further to 392 000.

Figure 1.19. Overstayers in Japan and Korea



Source: Ministry of Justice of Japan and Ministry of Justice of Korea.

StatLink <https://stat.link/1xynwk>

Box 1.7. Data sources and limitations on overstayers in OECD countries

The data presented in this section are derived from national immigration authorities and official reports. In Japan, the Immigration Services Agency provides annual statistics on immigration violations. Korea's Ministry of Justice publishes figures on overstayers and conducts regular monitoring. Australia's Department of Home Affairs estimates the number of unlawful non-citizens, based on its Entry/Exit card system. In the United States, the DHS's Entry/Exit Overstay Reports focus on non-immigrant visitors admitted through air or seaports, which may not capture all instances of overstaying, particularly those entering via land borders or through visa waiver programmes. Additionally, variations in data collection methods, reporting standards, and definitions of "overstayer" across countries can affect the comparability of the statistics.

In Australia, migrants who remain in Australia after their visa has either expired or been cancelled, are referred to as unlawful non-citizens. As of June 2024, they were 75 000, of which 10 900 Chinese citizens, 7 100 Malaysian citizens, and 5 700 citizens of the United States. In Israel, at the beginning of 2024, it was estimated that 23 800 people were overstaying their tourist visa.

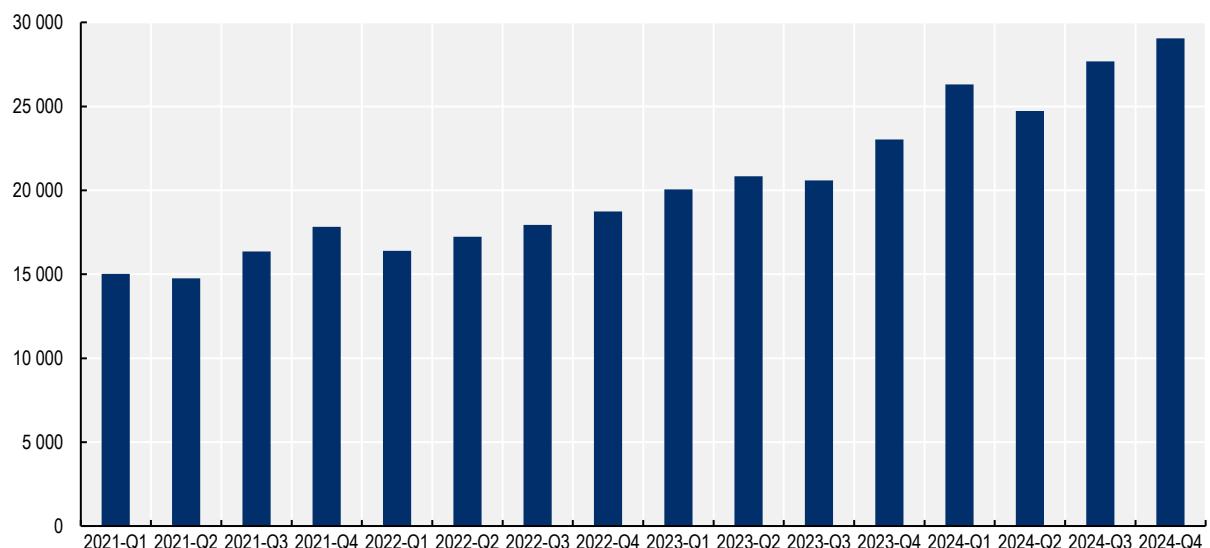
In 2023, the number of overstays in the United States reached 565 000, a third less than in 2022 and the lowest level recorded since 2016. The main country of origin was Colombia with more than 40 000 suspected overstays, followed by Haiti (28 000). The highest suspected overstay rates were recorded for Chad (49%) and Laos (34%) citizens.

Returns

In the context of irregular migration, return refers to the process by which a person who does not have a legal right to remain in a country is required or chooses to leave that country. This section looks at returns from EU countries, the United Kingdom, the United States and Australia.

The number of third country nationals returned following an order to leave⁴ has been regularly increasing over the past four years in the EU. It reached almost 30 000 in Q4 2024, twice the quarterly figure at the beginning of 2021. Annually, there were 108 000 returns registered in 2024, a sharp increase compared to 2023 (+27%).

Figure 1.20. Third-country nationals returned from an EU country following an order to leave



Source: Eurostat Enforcement of immigration legislation statistics.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/kl3g5m>

In 2024, Germany registered 15 200 returns following an order to leave, a very strong increase (+48% to 15 000). In France, returns also rose sharply (+38%) and reached 14 700. Sweden followed with 9 900, +12%. Large increases were observed in Spain (+39% to 8 700), Poland (+25% to 8 500) and Italy (+37% to 4 500).

Box 1.8. Types of returns and data sources

Returns of irregular migrants encompass a range of processes, broadly categorised into forced returns (also called removals), voluntary returns (assisted or unassisted), and independent returns. Forced returns occur when individuals are expelled from a country by order of the authorities, often following a legal or administrative procedure. Voluntary returns may be assisted – typically facilitated and financially supported by the receiving country – or unassisted, when individuals depart on their own initiative.

Data on returns are compiled by national immigration or border agencies, such as the U.S. Department of Homeland Security (DHS), or the UK Home Office, among others. These data typically distinguish between types of return and may also include information on nationality and mode of enforcement. However, comparability across countries remains limited due to differing legal frameworks, definitions, enforcement practices, and reporting methods. Some data sources focus on returns following official removal orders, while others also include informal or voluntary departures not systematically tracked.

The distribution of returns by type change quite significantly in 2024. Forced returns which made up more than half of the whole since 2021 represented only 46%, while the share of assisted voluntary returns, which decreased rose above 30%, after having declined in 2022 and 2023. Over the period, the proportion of unassisted voluntary returns varied between one fifth and one-quarter.

The distribution of returns by type varies from one EU country to the other and over time. From 2021 to 2023, the majority of the returns from France were assisted forced returns. In 2024, they accounted for 46% of the 14 200 returns. In Sweden, most returns were voluntary (assisted or not) over 2021, but they represented only 44% in 2024 against 38% in 2021. The share of voluntary returns from Spain was stable at 31% from 2021 to 2023 but rose to 54% in 2024, as the number of voluntary returns more than tripled to 4 500, while that of forced returns remained at 3 800. Among the main EU countries of departure, Poland had the lowest level (1 120) and share (14%) of forced returns in 2024.

In the United Kingdom, voluntary returns include assisted returns, controlled returns, and other verified returns, while enforced returns include enforced removals and other returns from detention. In the recent years, there were about three times more voluntary returns than enforced returns. In 2024, the number of voluntary returns reached 25 000, a 24% increase compared to 2023 while enforced returns amounted to 8 200, +28%.

In Israel, voluntary returns amounted to 3 780 in 2024, up from 3 500 in 2023. A large share of these were from Eritrea. Forced returns concerned 3 840 people.

The United States have been collecting statistics on removals (forced returns) for more than 130 years. The number of removals remained under 50 000 per year until the mid-1990s, then regularly increased and reached a maximum in 2013 just above 430 000. Since 2015, excepted during the COVID-19 period, it ranged between 200 000 and 350 000, standing at 330 000 in 2024, +86% compared to 2023. Enforcement returns levels in the United States (which include voluntary returns, voluntary departures, and all other returns not directly resulting from an administrative encounter) stood below 90 000 from 2015 to 2022 but increased to 289 000 in 2023 and 355 000 in 2024.

In Australia, 2 800 unlawful non-citizens were removed from the country during the fiscal year 2023-2024. 19% than in 2022-2023 and more than double the number for 2020-2021. There were also 5 200 returns (departures of people that were residing in the community) so the total number of departures in 2023-2024 amounted to 8 000, -7.5% compared to 2022-2023. The main nationalities were China (856 departures), India (805) and Malaysia (543).

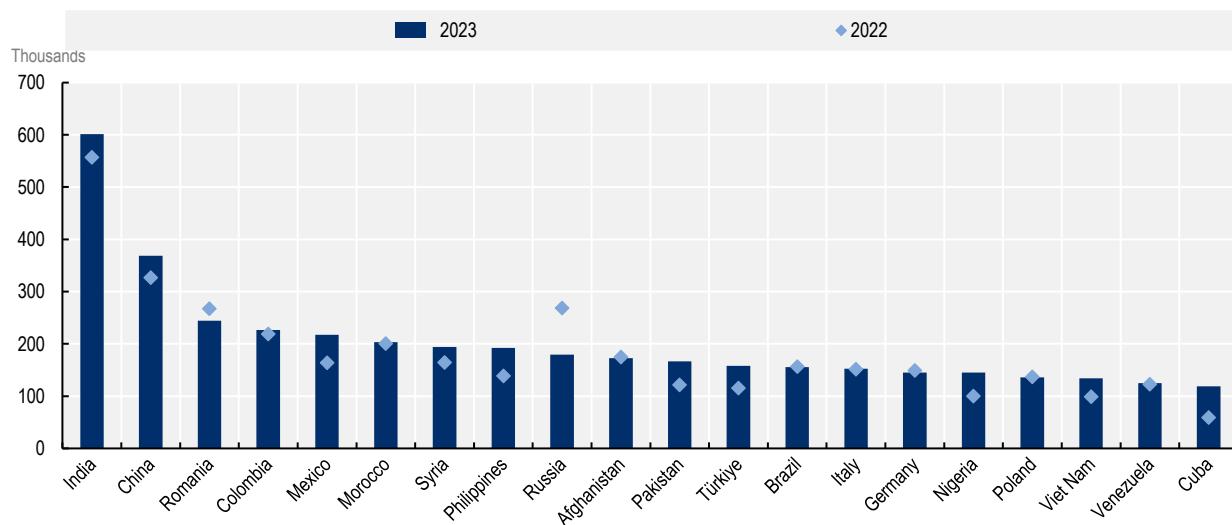
Demographics of migration flows and stocks

India consolidates its position as main country of origin for migration flows to the OECD

India and China have long been the main countries of origin of new migrants to the OECD area – outside humanitarian crisis. During the COVID-19 pandemic, India overtook China as the main country of origin and, in 2023, held a clear lead over all other origin countries.

Since 2020, India has been the main country of origin of migration flows to OECD countries, Ukraine aside.⁵ In 2023, about 600 000 Indian citizens immigrated into an OECD country, 8% more than in 2022 (Figure 1.21). Almost one in four chose the United Kingdom (144 000), +28% compared to 2022. Among them, 97 000 had a health and care worker visa (39 000 primary applicants and 57 000 dependents). Canada also received a larger number of new Indian migrants in 2023 (140 000, +18%), in contrast to the United States (68 000, -45%).

Figure 1.21. Top 20 countries of origin of new immigrants to the OECD, 2022-2023



Note: Migration flows to Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Greece and Ireland are not included. Migration flow series to Germany, Japan, Korea and Poland are adjusted to exclude short-term immigrants.

Source: OECD (2025), *International migration dataset*, <https://data-explorer.oecd.org/s/31z>.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/0br143>

Immigration from China to the OECD continued to rise in 2023, to 370 000 new migrants (+13%), with the United States (57 000), Korea (53 000) and Japan (35 000) as main destination countries, but is still far from its pre-pandemic level, both in relative and absolute terms. In 2023, Chinese immigration made up 5% of migration flows to OECD countries, down from 7% in 2019.

Despite a 9% decline, Romania remained third origin country, with 244 000 new entries to OECD countries. Germany was the main country of destination for new Romanian migrants, receiving 90 000 of them. Colombia followed with 227 000 (+3%), then Mexico with 216 000, which represents a 32% increase in one year. This is due to the very high level of lawful immigration of Mexican nationals into the United States (190 000), the highest since 2002. Morocco also saw more than 200 000 nationals emigrate to an OECD country in 2023, just 1% higher than in 2022.

Among other notable evolutions in 2023, outstanding increases were registered in inflows from the Philippines to New Zealand, from Pakistan to the United Kingdom and from Turkiye to Germany, contributing to strong overall increases from these three countries to the OECD. The number of new migrants from Cuba, Ghana and Zimbabwe almost doubled in 2023, to 119 000, 57 000 and 52 000, respectively.

Immigration from Russia, which had jumped to 270 000 new migrants in 2022, fell sharply in 2023 to 180 000 (-33%). This is still about twice the levels observed before COVID-19. Other significant decreases concerned Iraq (-20% to 41 000) and Bulgaria (-11% to 81 000).

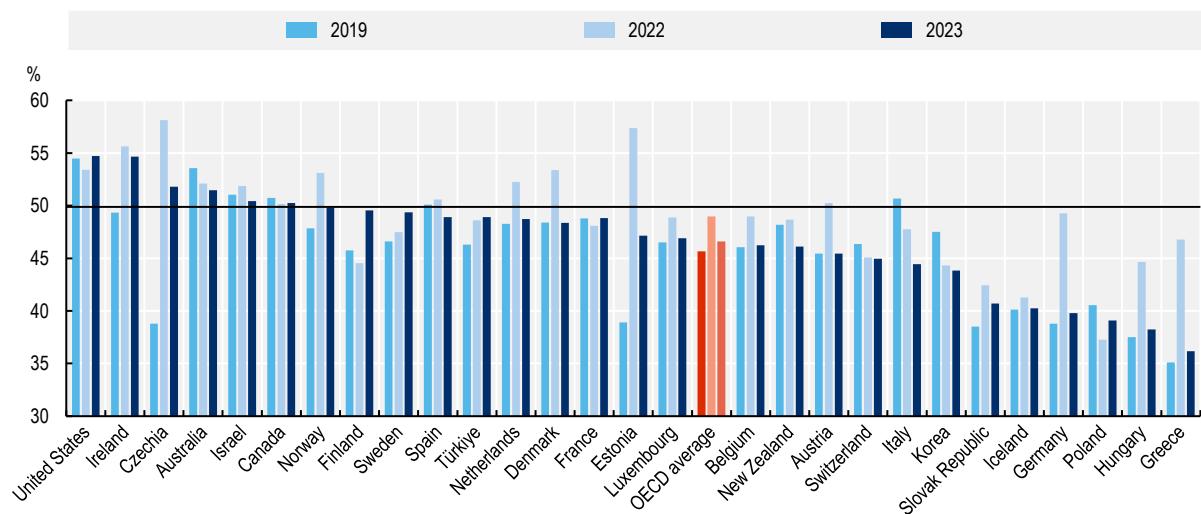
Albania showed the highest annual expatriation rate of nationals to OECD countries in 2023 (22 per 1 000 inhabitants). Romania (13), Bulgaria (12), Bosnia and Herzegovina (11) and Cuba (11) were the other countries with two-digit figures.

The average share of women among new migrants to OECD countries was 47% in 2023

Since data have been available, the average proportion of women in flows to OECD countries has always been under 50%. In 2023, it stood at 46.6% close to the 2019 figure, and generally consistent with the typical distribution in the pre-pandemic period (Figure 1.22). The United States received the largest share of women migrants (54.7%), as it did from 2015 to 2020. Ireland followed closely (54.6%), then Czechia, Australia, Israel and Canada, all with a small majority of women migrants. At the other end, four countries counted less than 40% of women migrants in 2023, Greece, Hungary, Poland and Germany, back to its traditionally low ratio.

Czechia, Estonia, Greece and Germany registered exceptional spikes in the proportion of women in 2022. The share of women increased in Finland (+5 percentage points (p.p.) to 49.5%) and in Sweden (+1.9 p.p. to 49.4%). France, Korea, Switzerland and Türkiye displayed no significant change between 2022 and 2023 in the share of women in their migration inflows. Canada, Israel and Spain showed consistently stable and balanced distribution of inflows, hovering around 50% of women in all three years.

Figure 1.22. Share of women in migration flows to OECD countries, 2019, 2022 and 2023



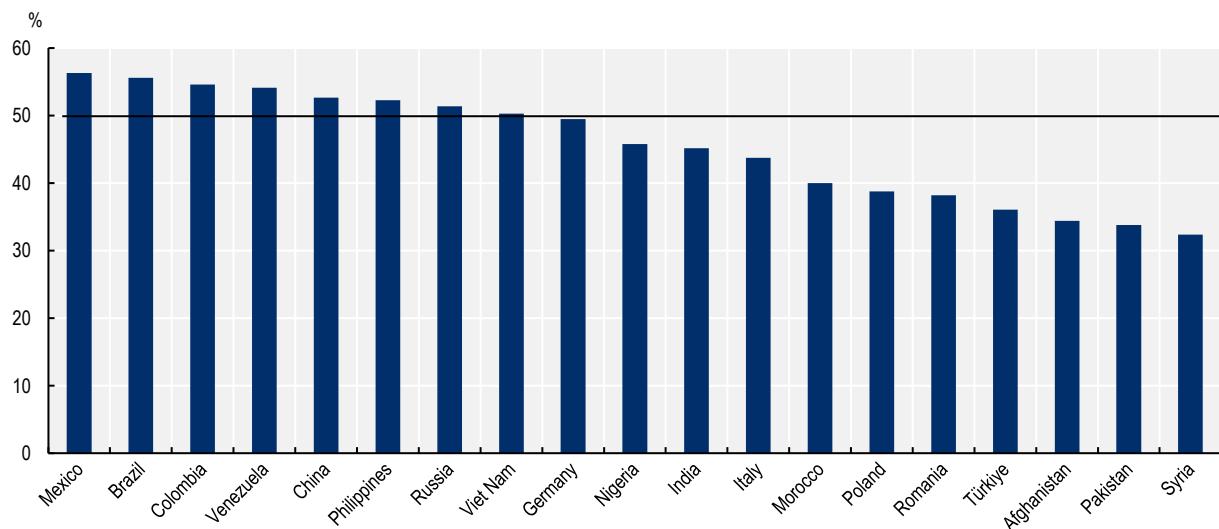
Note: The OECD average is the simple average of countries presented in the figure.

Source: OECD International migration Database, <https://doi.org/10.1787/data-00342-en>.

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In terms of countries of origin, Mexico and Brazil have the highest proportion of women among flows to OECD countries in 2023 (56%) (Figure 1.23). At the other end of the scale, women accounted for only a third of new migrants from Syria and from Pakistan.

Figure 1.23. Share of women in flows from top 20 countries of origin of new immigrants to the OECD, 2023



Note: Includes only OECD countries for which data by gender is available.

Source: OECD International Migration Database, <https://doi.org/10.1787/data-00342-en>.

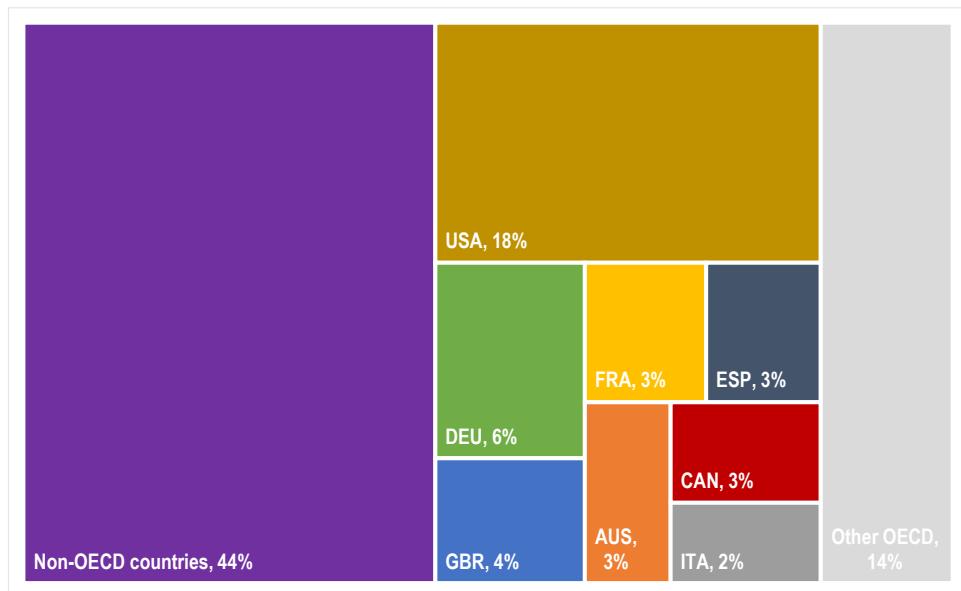
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Considering bilateral flows⁶ from individual countries of origin to OECD destination countries, the proportion of women was particularly high in flows from Colombia to the United States (63%) and from Honduras to Spain (62%). Conversely, only one in five migrants in flows from Afghanistan to Germany and from Bangladesh to Italy were women.

OECD countries hosted more than half of the world's immigrants in 2024

The number of migrants worldwide, as estimated by UNDESA, exceeded 300 million in 2024, with 56% of them living in an OECD country (Figure 1.24). The main destination country was the United States, where 18% of the world's migrants resided. Far behind, Germany was the second main OECD country with 6%, followed by the United Kingdom (4%). Other OECD countries hosting more than 2% of the global migrant population were France, Spain, Canada, Australia (3% each) and Italy (2%). Among non-OECD countries, the main destination countries were Saudi Arabia (5%) and the United Arab Emirates (2%).

Figure 1.24. Distribution of the foreign-born population worldwide, 2024



Source: UNDESA International Migrant Stock 2024 and OECD International Migration Database, <https://doi.org/10.1787/data-00342-en>.

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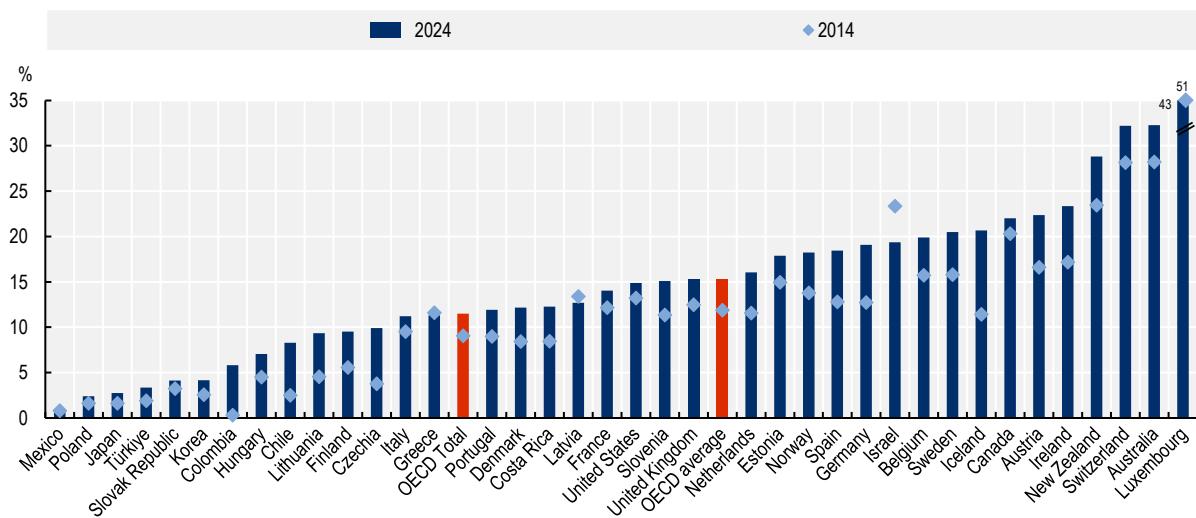
Overall, in OECD countries, the share of foreign-born population stood at 11.5% of the population in 2024, up from 9.1% in 2014 (Figure 1.25). Over the past decade, it increased in almost all OECD countries, the only exceptions being Latvia and Israel.

As in 2023, foreign-born accounted for more than half of Luxembourg's population in 2024 (51%). The OECD country with the second-highest share of foreign-born population was Australia (32%), followed by Switzerland (also 32%), New Zealand (29%) and Ireland (23%).

Only four OECD countries displayed ratios under 4% in 2024 against nine countries in 2014: Mexico, which was still the OECD country with the lowest proportion of foreign-born population in 2024 (1%), Poland (2%), Japan (3%) and Türkiye (3%).

The sharpest increases between 2014 and 2024 were registered in Iceland (+9 p.p.), Luxembourg (+8 p.p.). Germany and Ireland (both +6 p.p.). Austria, Czechia, New Zealand and Spain also saw increases of +5 p.p. or more.

Figure 1.25. Foreign-born population as a percentage of the total population in OECD countries, 2014 and 2024



Note: Data refer to 2014 or the closest available year, and to 2024 or the most recent available year. The OECD average is a simple average based on rates presented on the figure. For Japan and Korea, the data refer to the foreign population rather than the foreign-born population.

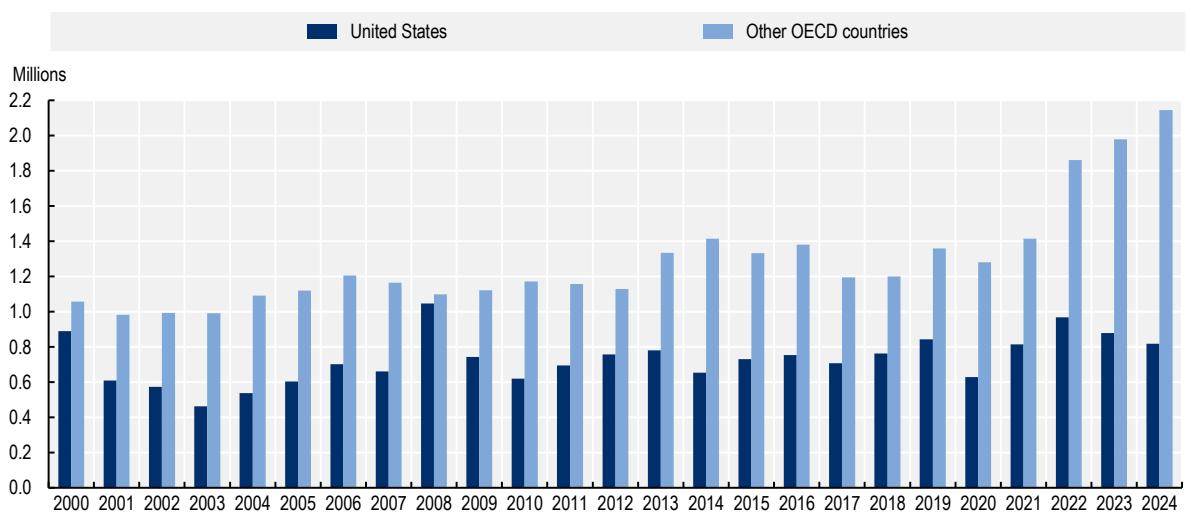
Source: OECD International Migration Database, <https://data-explorer.oecd.org/s/320>, Eurostat, UNDESA.

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Acquisitions of citizenship in OECD countries close to 3 million in 2024

More than 2.8 million people acquired the nationality of an OECD country in 2023 (Figure 1.26). This represents a 1% increase compared to 2022. Partial data for 2024 suggest the total should be above 2.8 million again and may even approach 3 million.

Figure 1.26. Acquisitions of citizenships in OECD countries, 2000-2024



Note: The estimation for 2024 is based on preliminary data for 22 OECD countries accounting for 95% of the 2023 total. Fiscal year for the United States.

Source: OECD International Migration Database, <https://doi.org/10.1787/data-00342-en>.

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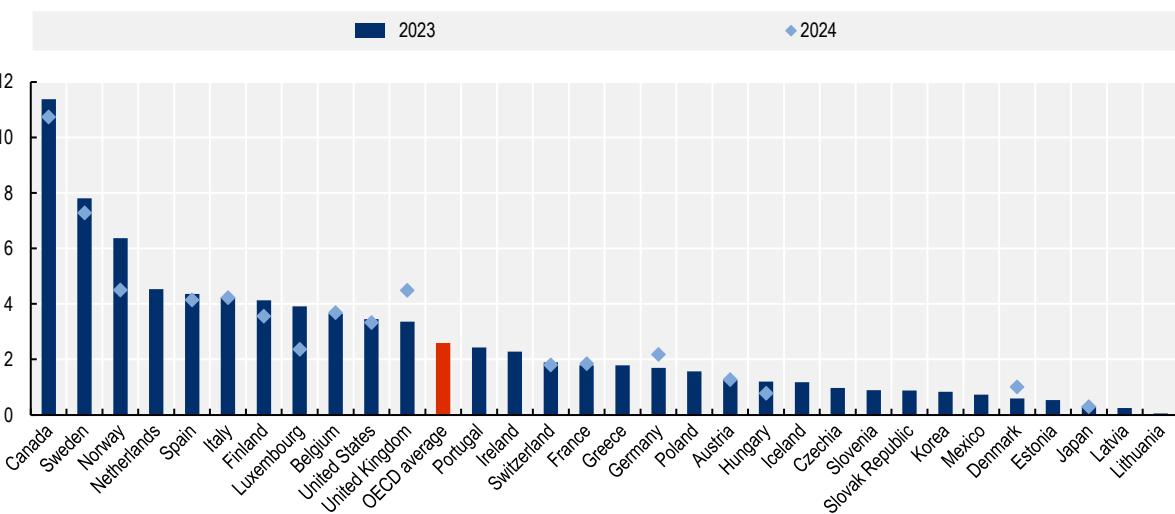
Several countries registered a record level in 2024, first and foremost Germany, which surpassed the record set the previous year by 46% with 290 000 grants. Between 2019 and 2024, Germany granted nationality to more than 1 million people.

Three other European countries reached an all-time high in 2024. The United Kingdom granted British citizenship to 270 000 people, 30% more than in 2023. Acquisitions of nationality in Spain and Italy increased only slightly in 2024, but enough to set new records, at 252 000 and 217 000, respectively. In Italy, the figure exceeded 200 000 for the third consecutive year. Levels in Canada and Australia were stable in 2024, at high levels, 375 000 and 192 000, respectively. Despite the overall record number at the OECD level, several countries registered declines in 2024, including the United States (-7%), which nevertheless remains the main country in terms of naturalisations with 820 000, representing more than a quarter of the OECD total. Other declines were observed in Sweden (-7% to 63 000 grants), Norway (-26% to 27 000), Finland (-6% to 11 500) and Luxembourg (-38% to 7 400).

Across OECD countries, the average percentage of the foreign population who acquired the nationality of the host country was 2.6% in 2023 (Figure 1.27), down 0.1 p.p. compared to 2022.

As in 2022, Canada (11.4%) and Sweden (7.8%) topped the ranking in 2023, and partial data indicate it was also the case in 2024 despite drops to 10.7% and 7.3%, respectively. They were followed by Norway (6.4%), Spain (4.5%), Italy (4.4%) and Finland (4.1%). Luxembourg, Belgium, the United States and the United Kingdom are also above the OECD average.

Figure 1.27. Acquisitions of citizenship as a percentage of foreign population, 2023-2024



Note: The OECD average is the average of the countries featured in the figure above.

Source: OECD International Migration Database, <https://doi.org/10.1787/data-00342-en>.

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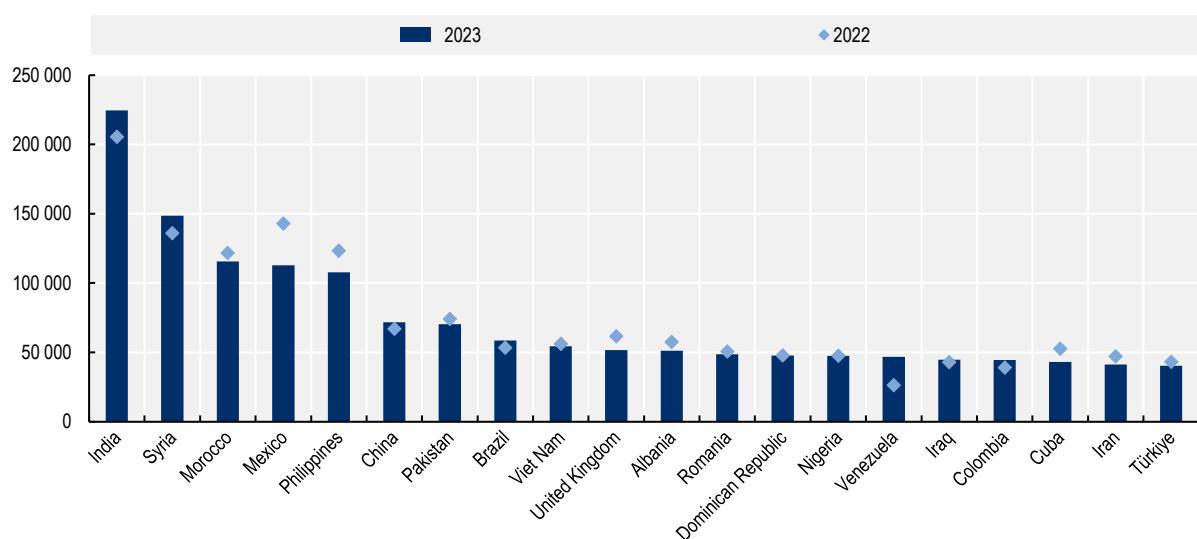
With Lithuania at 0.1%, Latvia at 0.2% and Estonia at 0.5%, the Baltic countries were among OECD countries with the lowest uptake ratios in 2023. Japan (0.3%) and Korea (0.8%) have long had ratios under 1%, and Denmark (0.6%) and Mexico (0.7%) were also host countries with a low share of their foreign population becoming a citizen in 2023.

Since 2019, India has been the main country of former nationality of naturalised immigrants in OECD countries and has consolidated this position over the past two years. Indeed, in 2023, 225 000 Indian citizens – a record number – acquired the nationality of an OECD country (Figure 1.28),

70% more than in 2021. More than a third of them acquired the Canadian citizenship, 23% the US citizenship, and 18% became Australian. In second place is Syria, with more than 150 000 nationals, also a record, that became citizens of an OECD country in 2023. Half of them were granted German citizenship, 13 000 Canadian citizenship, and 11 400 Dutch citizenship. Over the five years from 2019 to 2023, half a million Syrians citizens acquired the nationality of an OECD country. According to partial data, India and Syria remained the top countries in 2024, with even higher numbers in Canada and Germany, for example.

Mexico, Morocco and the Philippines followed, all with more than 100 000 naturalised citizens in 2023, and all registering a decrease compared to 2022. Among the top 20 countries of former nationality, Venezuela registered the sharpest increase (+78% to 47 000 acquisitions), driven by the 30 000 Venezuelans who became Spanish citizens.

Figure 1.28. Acquisitions of nationality in OECD countries: Top 20 countries of former nationality, 2023 and 2022



Source: OECD International Migration Database, <https://doi.org/10.1787/data-00342-en>.

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Recent trends in the labour market outcomes of immigrants

Following a strong post-pandemic recovery, migrants see mixed labour market outcomes in 2024

After a few years marked by a strong post-pandemic rebound – with record migrant employment rates in 2023 – trends in the labour market situation of immigrants in OECD countries were more mixed in 2024.

The average labour force participation of migrants improved in most OECD countries (22 out of 36), reaching an average rate of 76.9% in 2024 (a 0.2 p.p. increase compared to 2023). The most significant increases were recorded in Denmark (+4.6 p.p.), Poland and Costa Rica (+2.3 p.p. each). Overall, the highest participation rates among immigrants in 2024 were recorded in Iceland (90.1%), New Zealand (84.3%) and Estonia (84%), while the lowest were in Türkiye (49.7%), Mexico (56.4%) and Belgium (68.4%).

In the majority of OECD countries (21 out of 36), the labour force participation rate of immigrants exceeded those of the native-born population. On average across the OECD, the migrant advantage in activity rates was 0.8 p.p. in 2024 (76.9% vs. 76.1% among the native-born). The activity rates of immigrants were particularly high relative to the native-born in Chile (+14.1 p.p.), Luxembourg (+11.4 p.p.), and Costa Rica (+9.6 p.p.) (Annex Table 1.A.6). Meanwhile, migrants had significantly lower activity rates compared to the native-born in the Netherlands and Türkiye (-11.2 p.p. each), as well as Mexico (-9.4 p.p.) and Germany (-7.8 p.p.).

The average migrant employment rate in OECD countries was 70.9% in 2024, while the average unemployment rate was 7.9% (Table 1.6). At the EU level, the migrant employment rate was 67.9%, while the migrant unemployment rate was 9.6%. Across 36 OECD countries with data for 2024, migrant employment rates were highest in Iceland (84.7%) the New Zealand (80.6%), and Czechia (79%), and were lowest in Türkiye (44.6%), Mexico (53.6%) and Belgium (61.7%). Migrant unemployment rates were highest in Finland (16.7%), Sweden (16.2%), and Greece (15.4%), and lowest in Czechia (3.8%), Hungary (3.1%) and Poland (3.4%).

From 2023 to 2024, employment rates among the immigrant population increased in half of OECD countries while decreasing in the other, for a slight average decrease of 0.2 p.p. Meanwhile, unemployment rates rose in over two-thirds of OECD countries in 2024, for an average increase of 0.4 p.p. In 15 out of 35 OECD countries with available data, the labour market situation of migrants worsened both in terms of employment and unemployment rates, in diverse countries such as Canada, the United States, Australia, New Zealand, the United Kingdom, Sweden and Portugal. At the same time, 9 countries including Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, as well as Poland, Italy and Spain, saw improvements in both terms.

Overall, the largest year-on-year increases in migrant employment rates for 2024 were observed for Costa Rica (+3.4 p.p.), Poland (+3 p.p.), and Denmark (+2.7 p.p.). Migrant unemployment rates decreased most significantly in Costa Rica, (-1.7 p.p.), Italy (-1.3 p.p.) and Spain (-1.1 p.p.). Meanwhile, Estonia and Finland saw some of the least favourable developments in migrant labour market outcomes, as migrant employment rates decreased significantly (-2.5 p.p. and -3.7 p.p., respectively) while unemployment rates rose (+4.1 p.p. and +3 p.p., respectively).

Table 1.6. Labour market situation of immigrants in OECD countries, 2024

	2024		Change 2024-2023		Gap with the native-born in 2024	
	Percentages		p.p.		p.p.	
	Unemployment rate	Employment rate	Unemployment rate	Employment rate	Unemployment rate	Employment rate
Australia	4.0	77.3	+0.4	-0.2	-0.1	+0.1
Austria	9.2	69.8	-0.2	+0.3	+5.4	-5.9
Belgium	9.7	61.7	+0.7	+0.3	+5.1	-6.5
Canada	8.0	74.2	+1.7	-1.7	+2.3	-0.7
Chile	7.1	77.1	-0.2	+0.6	-1.8	+14.3
Colombia	5.2	66.9	-0.9	+0.7	-0.7	+4.2
Costa Rica	5.5	70.1	-1.7	+3.4	-2.9	+11.0
Czechia	3.8	79.0	+0.3	-0.5	+1.2	+3.8
Denmark	10.4	74.5	+1.8	+2.7	+4.7	-3.2
Estonia	12.7	73.3	+4.1	-2.5	+5.6	-2.8
Finland	16.7	64.1	+3.0	-3.7	+9.3	-9.8
France	11.0	63.0	+0.1	+0.6	+4.1	-6.9
Germany	6.3	69.6	+0.9	+0.3	+3.6	-10.3
Greece	15.4	62.2	+0.6	-0.3	+5.7	-1.2
Hungary	3.1	78.6	-0.3	+0.7	-1.5	+3.7
Iceland	6.0	84.7	+0.7	+0.5	+2.9	-0.8
Ireland	5.6	77.0	+0.6	-0.0	+1.7	+3.6
Israel ¹	4.6	77.9
Italy	8.9	64.7	-1.3	+0.8	+2.7	+3.0
Japan ²	5.0	77.3
Korea ³	5.4	68.0	+0.1	+0.6	+2.6	-2.3
Latvia	8.5	69.0	+0.8	-1.4	+1.4	-2.4
Lithuania	8.4	71.8	-0.2	+0.1	+1.0	-1.9
Luxembourg	7.1	73.6	+1.7	-1.3	+1.9	+9.3
Mexico	5.0	53.6	+0.0	+1.9	+2.2	-10.3
Netherlands	5.9	71.8	+0.1	+0.2	+2.6	-12.8
New Zealand	4.3	80.6	+1.0	-1.6	-0.9	+3.2
Norway	7.1	71.1	-0.1	-0.5	+3.9	-7.8
Poland	3.4	78.4	-1.1	+3.0	+0.4	+6.0
Portugal	9.1	76.0	+0.6	-0.5	+3.0	+3.7
Slovenia	4.6	73.9	+0.3	+1.3	+1.1	+0.8
Spain	15.4	65.7	-1.1	+0.6	+5.2	-0.6
Sweden	16.2	70.0	+1.0	-1.1	+10.4	-9.2
Switzerland	6.9	76.9	+0.5	-0.2	+3.7	-5.5
Türkiye	10.4	44.6	-0.2	-0.1	+1.5	-11.0
United Kingdom	6.0	75.6	+0.8	-0.4	+2.1	+1.0
United States	4.3	72.7	+0.7	-0.6	+0.2	+2.4
EU27	9.6	67.9	+0.1	+0.4	+4.2	-3.5
OECD average	7.9	70.9	+0.4	-0.2	+2.6	-1.2

Notes: Gap with the native-born refers to the difference between the corresponding rates of the foreign-born and native-born populations. The OECD average is calculated as a simple average of all countries with available data for both years. “..” indicates missing data or unreported estimates due to low reliability.

1. The data for Israel refer to 2021 instead of 2024 (excluded from OECD average).

2. The data for Japan refers to foreign nationals, for the year 2020 instead of 2024 (excluded from OECD average).

3. Rates for Korea are estimated for the population aged 15-59 and refer to foreigners and immigrants who have been naturalised in the past 5 years, compared to nationals.

Source: European countries and Türkiye: European Labour Force Survey (Eurostat); Australia, Canada, Israel, New Zealand, the United Kingdom: Labour Force Surveys; Japan: Population Census; Korea: Economically Active Population Survey and Survey on Immigrants' Living Conditions and Labour Force; Chile: Encuesta de Caracterización Socio-económica Nacional (CASEN); Colombia: Gran Encuesta Integrada de Hogares (GEIH); Costa Rica: Encuesta Nacional de Hogares (ENAHO); Mexico: Encuesta Nacional de Ocupación y Empleo (ENO); United States: Current Population Survey.

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Trends among the native-born population of OECD countries were generally more positive, reaching an average employment rate of 72.1% and an average unemployment rate of 5.3% in 2024. Across the OECD, migrants' employment rates reached or exceeded those of the native-born in 15 out of 36 countries in 2024. Unemployment rates, however, were higher among migrants than among the native-born in all but 6 OECD countries with available data. The OECD countries with the largest negative employment gap for migrants (compared to the native-born) in 2024 were the Netherlands (-12.8 p.p.), Türkiye (-11 p.p.), Mexico and Germany (-10.3 p.p. each). Meanwhile, migrants' employment rates were significantly higher than those of the native-born population in Chile (+14.3 p.p.), Costa Rica (+11 p.p.), and Luxembourg (+9.3 p.p.).

As migrants' outcomes developed less favourably than those of the native-born in most OECD countries from 2023 to 2024, the gap in average employment rate between migrants and native-born individuals widened from 0.8 p.p. to 1.2 p.p. In the EU, migrants' labour market gaps with the native-born population were more pronounced, with migrants at a disadvantage of 3.5 p.p. in the employment rate (with the gap widening slightly in 2024). Denmark, Costa Rica and Poland saw the most marked improvements in migrant employment rates relative to the native-born population, with the migrant employment gap narrowing significantly in Denmark (from -5.4 in 2023 to -3.2 in 2024), while the pre-existing migrant advantage in employment rate grew further in Poland and Costa Rica (to +6 p.p. and +11 p.p., respectively). Meanwhile, Estonia, Greece and Finland saw some of the most significant increase of immigrant disadvantage in employment and unemployment rates relative to natives (with respective gaps growing to -9.8 p.p. and +9.3 p.p. in Finland).

Among other migrant populations, several OECD countries continued to receive large numbers of Ukrainian refugees in 2024. While some of the top hosts of Ukrainian refugees experienced decreasing migrant employment rates in 2023, this association was no longer apparent in 2024 – likely due to improving labour market outcomes among Ukrainians, as outlined in Box 1.9.

In terms of sectors (Annex Table 1.A.8), migrants in OECD countries tend to be employed primarily in the mining, manufacturing and energy industries. This sector represents 17.4% of migrant workers in the EU, 11.6% in the United States and 15.9% in Canada. Meanwhile, the health industry represents the highest share of migrant workers in the United Kingdom (18.5%) and the United States (12.8%), and the second highest in Canada (14%). The wholesale and trade industry is also significant among migrant workers in most OECD countries (representing 13.4% of foreign workers in the EU and 13.5% in Canada), while the construction industry a major employer of migrant workers in the United States and several European countries.

Box 1.9. Labour market outcomes of displaced Ukrainians are steadily improving across the OECD

Employment outcomes for displaced Ukrainians have continued to improve across many OECD countries, with some reporting significant progress since 2022. The rise in employment rates reflects the impact of policies aimed at facilitating integration, including access to employment services, vocational training, alongside simplified work authorisations under temporary protection and similar schemes in non-EU countries. As the displacement situation has become protracted, it can be expected that more Ukrainians are also seeking permanent employment as a means of rebuilding their lives.

Between 2022 and 2024, employment rates more than doubled in Austria and Switzerland, highlighting the results of sustained investment in integration efforts. Between 2023 and 2024, the United States recorded the largest year-on-year increase, with a 21 p.p. rise in employment rates among recent Ukrainian arrivals.

Table 1.7. The evolution of employment rates (ER) of displaced Ukrainians in selected OECD countries

Country	ER 2022 (%)	ER 2023 (%)	ER 2024 (%)	Date	Source
Austria	15	21	41	Jul-24	Austrian Employment Service (AMS)
Czechia*	35	48	63	Mar-24	Public Opinion Research Centre of the Institute of Sociology of the Czech Academy of Sciences
Denmark	41	59	62	Sep-24	Integrationsbarometer
Estonia	42	54	59	Mar-25	Statistics Estonia
Finland	22	22	35	Aug-24	VATT Datahuone
France		32	42	Sep-24	Ministry of the Interior
Germany	19	25	31	Sep-24	Bundesagentur für Arbeit
Ireland	27	35	35	Sep-24	Central Statistics Office of Ireland (CSO)
Japan*		47	54	Dec-24	Nippon Foundation
Latvia	30	30	33	Dec-24	State Revenue Service of Latvia
Lithuania		66	72	Feb-25	Government of Lithuania
Netherlands	44	55	59	Nov-24	Statistics Netherlands
Norway			31	Dec-24	Statistics Norway
Poland*		71	78	Jul-24	National Bank of Poland
Spain	13	15	17	Sep-24	Ministry of Inclusion, Social Security, and Migration
Sweden*		56	66	May-24	International Organisation of Migration (IOM), Government of Sweden
Switzerland	13	20	28	Sep-24	State Secretariat for Migration SEM
United Kingdom*		52	69	Jul-24	Office for National Statistics (ONS)
United States*	33*	40	61	Dec-24	US Census Bureau, US Bureau of Labor Statistics

Note: For countries marked with an asterisk (*), survey data rather than administrative data have been used. Employment rates for 2022 and 2023 are in most cases from the September of respective years.

Source: Date and source refer to most recent figure, for 2022 and 2023 data the source is OECD (2024^[4]), except for Spain and the United States, where source refers to all years.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/yq6nm7>

Several countries now report high levels of labour market participation. In 2024, Poland (78%), Lithuania (72%) and the United Kingdom (69%) recorded the highest employment rates, while Czechia, Denmark, Estonia and the Netherlands also reported rates close to or exceeding 60%. Nevertheless, outcomes continue to vary considerably between countries. In Spain (17%), Latvia (33%) and Norway (31%), employment rates remain comparatively low. In Switzerland, despite a significant increase, fewer than one in three displaced Ukrainians were in employment in 2024.

These differences reflect a range of factors, including national labour market conditions, the demographic and skills profiles of those arriving, the presence of Ukrainian communities, and the nature and scale of support measures in place. Differences in data collection methods also play a role, with some countries reporting on all forms of employment, while others count only jobs subject to social security contributions.

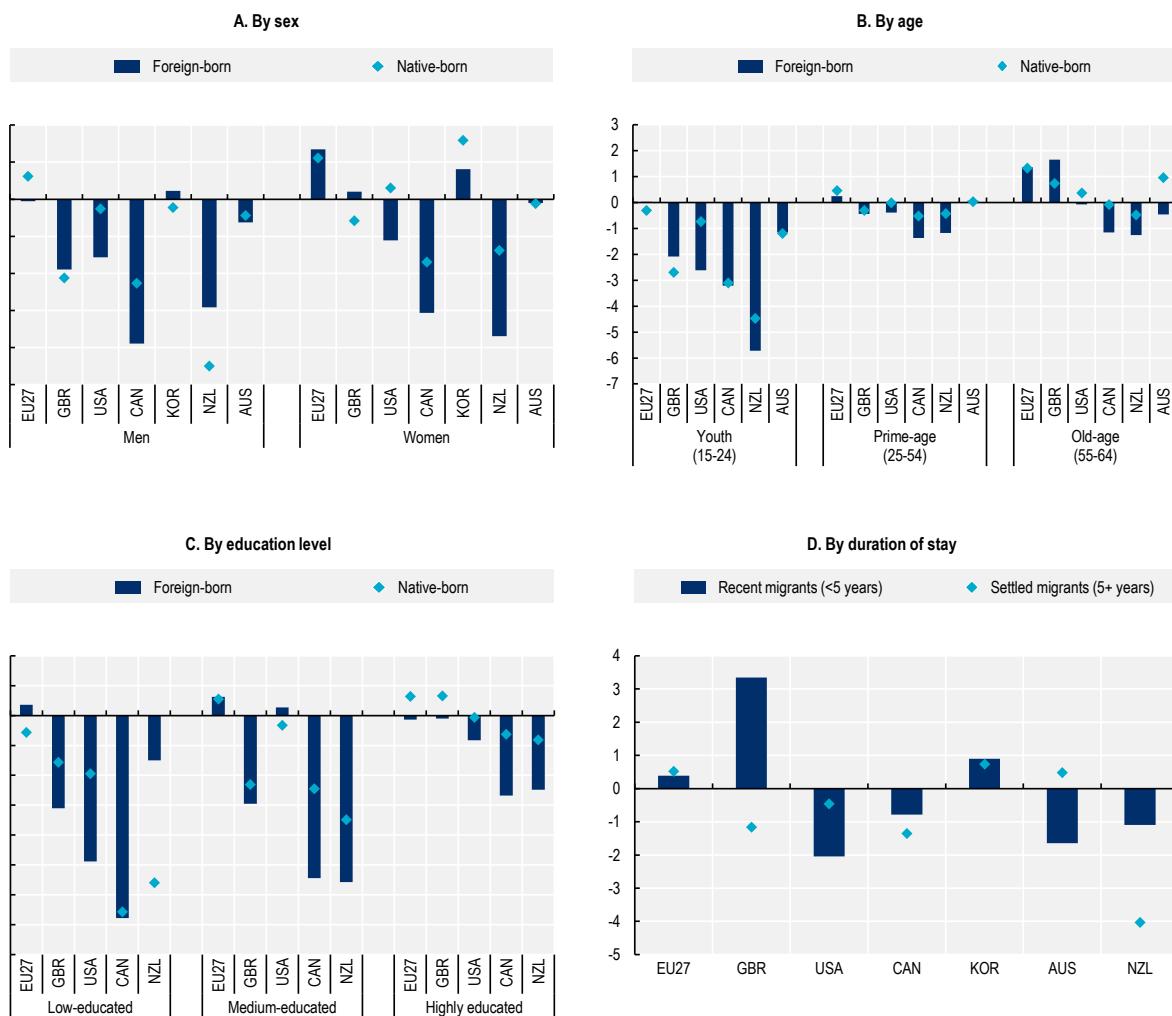
Long-term unemployment continues to disproportionately affect immigrants, despite improvements

From 2023 to 2024, the incidence of long-term unemployment among unemployed migrants – the share that has been unemployed for more than 12 months – declined in 12 out of 21 OECD countries with available data. Nevertheless, immigrants remain more at risk of long-term unemployment than their native-born counterparts, with migrants showing higher incidence in two-thirds of the 24 OECD countries with data for 2024. In 2024, an average 29% of unemployed migrants in the OECD had been unemployed for one year or longer. By comparison, this share was 25.4% among the native-born. The incidence of long-term unemployment among migrants – as among the native-born – was particularly high in Greece (60% of unemployed migrants) and Italy (47.8%), and particularly low in Canada (9.5%) and the United States (12.2%).

Trends in labour market outcomes of immigrants by demographic and other background characteristics

Figure 1.29 illustrates the changes in employment rates by sex, age, level of education, and duration of stay in the EU, Australia, Canada, New Zealand, Korea, the United Kingdom and the United States.

Figure 1.29. Changes in the employment rate by demographic group and country of birth in selected OECD countries, between 2023 and 2024



Note: The reference population is the working-age population (aged 15-64). Rates for Korea are estimated for the population aged 15-59 and refer to foreigners and immigrants who have been naturalised in the past 5 years, compared to nationals. "Low-educated" refers to individuals with less than upper secondary education, "Medium-educated" refers to those with upper secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary education, and "Highly educated" refers to individuals with tertiary education.

Source: European countries: European Labour Force Survey (Eurostat); Australia, Canada, New Zealand, the United Kingdom: Labour Force Surveys; Korea: Economically Active Population Survey and Survey on Immigrants' Living Conditions and Labour Force; United States: Current Population Survey.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/y26k7t>

Gaps between immigrant men and women narrow as immigrant women's labour market outcomes improve

Immigrant women often face a double disadvantage on the labour market, facing obstacles both as women and as immigrants. Indeed, immigrant women retained substantial gaps in labour market outcomes compared to immigrant men and, to a smaller extent, native-born women. The average employment rate of immigrant women was 63.5% in 2024 – 15.2 p.p. below than that of immigrant men (78.8%). Native-born women, by comparison, had an employment rate of 67.9% in 2024. The employment gap between

native-born men and women is considerably lower (8.4 p.p.). In the EU, the employment gap between immigrants men and women was 15.7 p.p., whereas the gap between native-born men and women was 7.9 p.p.

Nevertheless, migrant women's employment rates saw notable improvements in most countries in 2024 as men's employment rates largely declined.⁷ From 2023 to 2024, the employment rates of immigrant women increased in two-thirds of the 36 OECD countries with available data, with record rates in the EU and the United Kingdom. In 13 countries, immigrant women's employment rates increased while immigrant men's decreased. Considering these trends, much of the negative evolution in overall immigrant employment rates for 2024 seems primarily driven by male migrants.

As shown in Panel A of Figure 1.29, migrant women's employment rates did fall slightly in the United States (-0.6 p.p.) and Canada (-1.5 p.p.), as well as in Australia (-0.1 p.p.) and New Zealand (-1.8 p.p.) in 2024. Immigrant men's employment rates also declined in these countries, with the largest decrease in Canada (-1.9 p.p.), followed by New Zealand (-1.5 p.p.), the United States (-0.8 p.p.) and Australia (-0.3 p.p.). For immigrant men, employment rates also decreased in the United Kingdom (-0.9 p.p.) but stayed stable in the EU overall and increased slightly in Korea (+0.1 p.p.). Employment rates grew most significantly in Denmark (+3.6 p.p.) and Mexico (+3.1 p.p.) for immigrant men, and in Costa Rica (+7.2 p.p.) and Poland (+5.5 p.p.) for immigrant women.

Overall, the employment gap between immigrant men and women narrowed in 26 out of 36 countries, with Australia, the United States and the United Kingdom exhibiting the smallest gaps in over a decade (Annex Figure 1.A.3). On average, the gap in employment rates between immigrant women and men narrowed by 0.7 p.p. The countries with largest gaps between men and women in 2024 were Türkiye (27.4% for women vs. 67.1% for men, for a gap of -39.7 p.p.), Greece (49.1% vs. 77.2%, for a gap of -30.5 p.p.), and Costa Rica (56.5% vs. 85.5%, for a gap of -29 p.p.). Meanwhile, the employment gaps between immigrant men and women were the lowest in Nordic countries, namely Iceland (-3.1 p.p.), Norway (-6.2 p.p.), and Sweden (-7.5 p.p.), where immigrant women had employment rates of 83.1%, 68%, and 66.2%, respectively.

Some widening employment gaps for highly educated migrants

Looking across educational levels, the employment rates of lower-educated immigrants tend to be higher than those of their native-born counterparts, while the employment rates of medium- and, especially, higher-educated immigrants tend to be below those of their native-born counterparts. In 2024, the total employment rates of migrants and the native-born in the EU were, respectively, 56% versus 43.4% among the lower-educated, 71.2% versus 73.2% among those with secondary education, and 78% versus 88% among the highly educated. Patterns were similar, on average, across OECD countries with available data (Annex Table 1.A.7). Some of the largest gaps in employment rates of migrants compared to the native-born were observed in the United States (+30.4 p.p. for migrants) and Mexico (-15.4 p.p.) among the lower-educated, and in Chile (+11.8 p.p.) and Germany (-14.9 p.p.) among the highly educated.

Considering changes from 2023 to 2024 (Panel C of Figure 1.29) in the EU both lower- and secondary-educated migrants saw slight improvements in employment rates (up to 56% and 71.2%, respectively), showing a more favourable evolution than their native-born counterparts. Meanwhile, lower-educated migrants saw decreasing employment rates in New Zealand (-0.8 p.p.), the United Kingdom (-1.6 p.p.), the United States (-2.4 p.p.), and, especially, Canada (-3.4 p.p.). Among highly educated migrants, employment rates decreased in all five countries from 2023 to 2024, even if changes were relatively small. In fact, the employment rates of highly educated migrants decreased in two-thirds of OECD countries with available data (34), while mostly improving for their native-born counterparts (and for medium-educated immigrants). The most marked decreases in the employment rates of highly educated immigrants largely occurred in European OECD countries, including Greece (-5.4 p.p.) Denmark (-3.6 p.p.). The migrant gap

in the average employment rates of the highly educated increased to 6.1 p.p. in 2024 (from 5.5 p.p. in 2023).

Employment rates tend to improve with length of stay

Migrants who arrived recently (i.e. less than five years prior) tend to have lower employment rates than more settled migrants (i.e. those in the country for at least 5 years). In the EU, recent migrants had employment rates of 57.8%, compared to 70.4% among settled migrants in 2024, for a gap of 12.6 p.p. (similar to 2023). By comparison, this gap was 11.6 p.p. in the United States, 6.9 p.p. in the United Kingdom, and 5.6 p.p. in Canada, while in Australia, the gap favoured recent migrants by 2 p.p. Compared to 2023 (see Panel D of Figure 1.29), employment rates for recent migrants improved (by +3.3 p.p.) in the United Kingdom but declined in most other cases. Rates for settled migrants either stayed similar to 2023 levels (EU, Australia) or declined (especially in New Zealand, -4 p.p.).

Trends in the labour market situation of young migrants

In about half of OECD countries, the employment rates of young immigrants aged 15 to 24 were higher than those of their native-born peers in 2024. In the EU, the employment rate of immigrant youth was 38%, compared to 34.6% for native-born youth. Across the OECD, the average employment rate of young immigrants was 42.5%, exceeding their native-born peers by 1.5 p.p.⁸ Compared to native-born youth, young immigrants had an employment-rate advantage of over 10 p.p. in Czechia, Poland, Slovenia, Italy, Spain, Chile, Colombia and Costa Rica, and a disadvantage of over 10 p.p. in the Netherlands, Switzerland, Germany, the United Kingdom, Türkiye and Mexico.

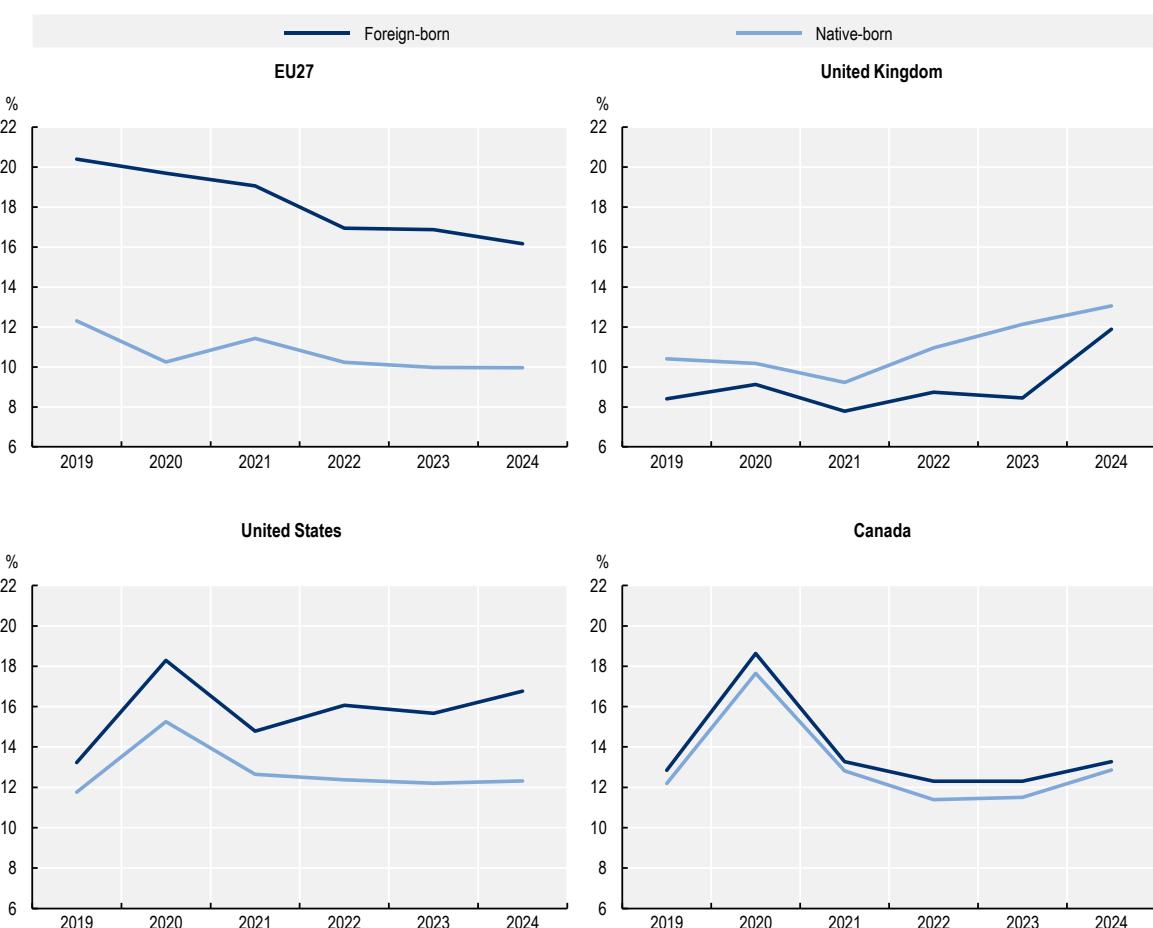
Changes in the employment rate of young immigrants were uneven across countries. Young immigrants' employment rates decreased in almost half of the 34 OECD countries with available data, including Canada (from 55.4% in 2023 to 52.2% in 2024), the United States (48.1% to 45.5%), Australia (60.2% to 59%), and New Zealand (57.2% to 51.5%) (see Panel B of Figure 1.29). At the same time, young immigrants' employment rates increased in several European and Latin American OECD countries. Compared to the young cohort, employment rates among the prime-age (25- to 54-year-old) and older (55- to 64-year-old) cohorts of immigrants were more likely to increase, or to decrease more slowly.

Given the large share of youth still in education and training, an important indicator is the share of young people not in education, employment, or training (NEET rate). In 2024, NEET rates of young immigrants exceeded those of native-born youth in all but 5 out of 28 OECD countries with available data (the exceptions being the United Kingdom, Hungary, Poland, Chile and Mexico). However, 2024 saw several of these gaps narrow; in 11 (out of 28) OECD countries, NEET rates decreased for immigrant youth while simultaneously increasing for native-born youth.

As illustrated in Figure 1.30, at the EU level, the NEET rate of native-born youth remained at around 10% in 2024, while the NEET rate of young immigrants decreased slightly, from 16.9% in 2023 to 16.2% in 2024. For both groups, rates have been decreasing steadily since 2021. In the United Kingdom, the NEET rate of young immigrants increased markedly in 2024 (from 8.5% to 11.9%), although it stayed below the rate of native-born youth and remains among the lowest in the OECD. In the United States, immigrant NEET rates grew to 16.8% as native-born NEET rates stayed steady in 2024, while in Canada, the already small gap in NEET rates narrowed further as rates increased slightly faster for native-born youth than for immigrant youth (with both around 13%). Overall, the countries with the highest immigrant NEET rates in 2024 were Türkiye (33.2%), Costa Rica (31.8%), Colombia (28.1%), and Spain (23.9%), although Spain and Costa Rica also saw significant decreases in 2024 (-2.5 p.p. and -3.7 p.p., respectively).

Figure 1.30. Share of young people not in education, employment or training (“NEET”), by place of birth, in selected OECD countries, 2019-2022

Population aged 15-24



Note: Compulsory military service is excluded from the calculation. NEET rates of the native-born and foreign-born populations in the EU27 countries in 2019 and 2020 have been subject to adjustments for a break in series caused by a change in the methodology of the European Labour Force Survey in 2021. Calculations were made by the Secretariat taking into account the adjusted series for the whole population provided by Eurostat.

Source: European countries: European Labour Force Survey (Eurostat); Canada and the United Kingdom: Labour Force Surveys; United States: Current Population Survey.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/t67hvc>

Disparities persist across regions of origin

Table 1.8 shows changes in employment, unemployment, and participation rates by immigrants' region of origin (based on their country of birth) for selected countries in 2023 and 2024.

Within the EU, migrant employment rates in 2024 ranged from 74.9% for EU-born migrants to 54.4% for North African migrants. On the higher end were also North American (69.4%), Central and South American (70.2%) and Asian (68.9%) migrants. North American migrants saw the largest decrease in employment rates (-2.5 p.p.) and largest increase in unemployment rates (+2.3 p.p.) in 2024. Migrants from the Middle East had relatively low employment rates (at 60.3% in 2024) but saw the largest increase (1.1 p.p.) among different origin groups in the EU.

The United Kingdom shares some of these patterns, as EU-born and North American migrants had the highest employment rates (80.6% each) in 2024, and North African migrants the lowest (54.3%). However, unlike in the EU, Sub-Saharan African migrants had notably high employment rates at 78.8%. North American migrants exhibited the largest increase in employment rates (+3.7 p.p.), while migrants from Middle East and Central Asia had relatively low employment rates but saw a significant increase (+1.6 p.p.) in 2024.

In the United States, Europeans had the highest employment rates (75.7%) in 2024, as they were the only group whose rates increased compared to 2023 (+1.8 p.p.). African migrants had the highest employment rates in 2023 (76.8%) but experienced a significant decrease of 3.9 p.p. in 2024, with a simultaneous increase of 1.3 p.p. in unemployment rates. South American and Caribbean migrants had the second-highest employment rate (74.2%) in 2024, but they also had one of the higher unemployment rates at 5.1% (following an increase in 2024).

In Canada, migrants from Oceania had the highest employment rates (83.3%) in 2024, following a 3.6 p.p. increase while most other groups' rates decreased over the year. Europe moved from first place in 2023 to second place in 2024 with an employment rate of 78%, following a 2.3 p.p. decrease. Next were migrants from Central and South America and the Caribbean (75.4%), and Asia (75.4%). Migrants from the Middle East remained the group with the lowest employment rate at 64.3% in 2024, following a decrease of 3.2 p.p.

In Australia, migrants from the Americas had the highest employment rate (82.4%) in 2024, followed closely by migrants from Sub-Saharan Africa (82.3%, following an increase of 2.5 p.p. in 2024). Migrants from North Africa and the Middle East had the lowest employment rate (60.9%) as well as the highest unemployment rate (7.1%), although both rates improved compared to 2023.

In conclusion, while some patterns by origin emerge, they are far from uniform across destinations. Migrants from Europe and Central and South America generally have favourable outcomes, and migrants from North America tend to fare well in European OECD destinations. Immigrants from the MENA region have less favourable labour market positions in European OECD destinations and Australia, but the pattern is more mixed in North American OECD destinations. Meanwhile, migrants from Sub-Saharan Africa face high unemployment in the EU and Canada but have favourable labour market outcomes in Australia and the United Kingdom.

Table 1.8. Employment, unemployment and participation rates by region of origin in selected OECD countries in 2023 and 2024, percentages

	Region of birth	Employment rate		Unemployment rate		Participation rate	
		2023	2024	2023	2024	2023	2024
EU countries	EU + EFTA	75.1	74.9	6.4	6.5	80.3	80.1
	Other European countries	65.3	66.1	8.1	8.5	71.1	72.3
	North Africa	54.4	54.4	16.3	15.9	65.0	64.7
	Sub-Saharan Africa	66.0	66.7	12.9	12.9	75.8	76.5
	Middle East	59.3	60.3	12.3	12.5	67.6	68.9
	North America	72.0	69.4	4.8	7.1	75.6	74.7
	Central and South America and Caribbean	69.5	70.2	13.3	12.5	80.1	80.2
	Asia	68.0	68.9	7.4	7.8	73.5	74.7
	Other regions	70.8	71.4	7.4	6.5	76.5	76.4
	Foreign-born (total)	67.5	67.9	9.5	9.6	74.6	75.1
United Kingdom	Native-born	70.9	71.4	5.5	5.4	75.1	75.4
	EU	82.1	80.6	3.0	4.3	84.6	84.2
	Other European countries	76.1	74.2	5.3	7.7	80.3	80.4
	North Africa	56.4	54.3	15.2	13.6	66.5	62.8
	Sub-Saharan Africa	78.0	78.8	5.5	6.8	82.5	84.6
	Middle East and Central Asia	56.8	58.4	12.1	11.1	64.5	65.6
	North America	76.9	80.6	3.4	3.3	79.6	83.4
	Central and South America and Caribbean	76.2	77.5	6.9	6.1	81.9	82.6
	Asia	71.1	71.3	6.6	6.6	76.1	76.3
	Other regions	86.1	81.5	2.0	3.0	87.8	84.1
United States	Foreign-born (total)	76.0	75.6	5.2	6.0	80.1	80.4
	Native-born	75.2	74.6	3.8	3.9	78.2	77.6
	Mexico	71.5	71.3	3.9	4.3	74.4	74.4
	Central America	72.5	71.6	4.7	5.5	76.1	75.8
	South America and Caribbean	74.8	74.2	3.9	5.1	77.8	78.2
	Canada	71.3	71.0	3.2	3.0	73.7	73.2
	Europe	73.9	75.7	3.7	3.9	76.7	78.8
	Africa	76.8	72.8	3.7	4.9	79.7	76.6
	Asia and Middle East	73.6	72.8	2.9	3.4	75.8	75.4
	Other regions	67.1	63.9	3.2	4.1	69.3	66.7
Canada	Foreign-born (total)	73.3	72.7	3.7	4.3	76.1	76.0
	Native-born	70.3	70.3	3.8	4.1	73.1	73.3
	Sub-Saharan Africa	73.7	71.6	8.4	11.9	80.6	81.3
	North Africa	71.9	72.4	8.7	10.1	78.7	80.6
	Middle East	67.4	64.3	9.0	11.6	74.1	72.7
	Asia	76.6	75.4	5.7	7.2	81.3	81.2
	Europe	80.2	78.0	4.8	5.7	84.3	82.7
	Oceania	79.7	83.3	4.7	4.0	83.6	86.7
	Other North America	70.4	69.0	6.6	7.6	75.3	74.6
	Central and South America and Caribbean	77.2	75.4	6.6	8.4	82.7	82.3
Australia	Foreign-born (total)	75.8	74.2	6.3	8.0	80.9	80.6
	Native-born	75.9	74.9	5.1	5.7	80.0	79.4
	Other Oceania	80.8	78.8	3.7	4.3	83.9	82.4
	Europe	80.7	80.4	2.6	3.1	82.8	83.0
	North Africa and the Middle East	59.2	60.9	7.8	7.1	64.2	65.5
	Sub-Saharan Africa	79.8	82.3	4.2	4.7	83.3	86.4
	Asia	76.9	76.7	3.6	4.0	79.8	79.9
Australia	Americas	83.1	82.4	3.4	3.8	86.0	85.6
	Foreign-born (total)	77.5	77.3	3.6	4.0	80.4	80.6
	Native-born	77.3	77.2	3.9	4.2	80.4	80.6

Note: The population refers to working-age population (15-64) for the employment and participation rates and to active population aged 15-64 for the unemployment rate. Rates for Korea are estimated for the population aged 15-59 and refer to foreigners and immigrants who have been naturalised in the past 5 years, compared to nationals. The regions of birth could not be made fully comparable across countries of residence because of the way aggregate data provided to the Secretariat are coded.

Source: European countries: European Labour Force Survey (Eurostat); Australia, Canada and the United Kingdom: Labour Force Surveys; Korea: Economically Active Population Survey and Survey on Immigrants' Living Conditions and Labour Force; Japan: Population Census 2020; United States: Current Population Survey.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/8q5p6x>

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Annex 1.A. Supplementary tables and figures

Annex Table 1.A.1. Permanent migration flows to OECD countries by category, 2023 and 2024

Thousands and percentage change

	Work			Accompanying family			Family			Humanitarian			Free movement			Total		
	2023	2024	%	2023	2024	%	2023	2024	%	2023	2024	%	2023	2024	%	2023	2024	%
Australia	68.9	66.2	-4%	73.4	70.9	-3%	52.5	52.7	0%	17.9	20	12%	25.9	29.3	13%	238.8	239.3	0%
Austria	5	6.3	26%	3.1	2.9	-6%	13	12.3	-5%	22.2	22.5	1%	61.7	58.2	-6%	105.4	102.6	-3%
Belgium	7.6	7	-8%	19.2	21.1	10%	13.3	15.8	19%	66	106.2	106.1	0%
Canada	149.5	146.4	-2%	123.1	135.2	10%	109.7	106	-3%	75	76.7	2%	471.6	483.6	3%
Czechia	14.6	17.3	18%	10.5	10	-5%	0.3	0.2	-33%	11.7	12.2	4%	37.6	40.2	7%
Denmark	10.7	11.5	7%	5.7	5.9	4%	6	5.4	-10%	1.3	0.9	-31%	33.4	30.5	-9%	57.4	54.5	-5%
Estonia	3.4	2.6	-24%	2.2	1.8	-18%	3.9	1.4	-64%	3	3.1	3%	12.5	8.9	-29%
Finland	12.2	7.8	-36%	21.2	18.9	-11%	2.9	2.1	-28%	6.1	5.5	-10%	42.7	34.7	-19%
France	65.3	58.5	-10%	5.6	5.1	-9%	98.8	96.7	-2%	35.8	42.2	18%	69.7	306.2	298.1	-3%
Germany	93.3	63	-32%	115.1	106.8	-7%	144.2	142.5	-1%	311.7	273.8	-12%	664.3	586.1	-12%
Ireland	27.4	31.4	15%	4.5	4.2	-7%	2.9	3.9	34%	30.9	32.4	5%	65.7	71.9	9%
Israel	7.8	6.8	-13%	0	0	46	39.8	-13%
Italy	23.4	17.2	-26%	126.9	103.5	-18%	6.6	8	21%	43.6	39.4	-10%	201.6	168.8	-16%
Japan	98.1	111.6	14%	39.6	42.7	8%	19.3	16.8	-13%	1.4	2.2	57%	163.1	177.1	9%
Korea	12.9	11.3	-12%	1	1.9	90%	16	15.5	-3%	0.2	0.2	0%	87.1	75.6	-13%
Lithuania	2	1.8	-10%	3.8	2.9	-24%	0.4	0.2	-50%	0.6	7	5.7	-19%
Luxembourg	3.8	3.2	-16%	5.2	5.9	13%	1.1	1	-9%	17.3	16.1	-7%	27.5	26.4	-4%
Mexico	8.2	4.7	-43%	33.6	33.3	-1%	16.3	25.9	59%	0	70	72.5	4%
Netherlands	29.5	23.4	-21%	45.3	42.2	-7%	27.1	31.1	15%	93.9	86.6	-8%	195.8	183.3	-6%
New Zealand	40.3	9.8	-76%	59	14.6	-75%	11.2	19.3	72%	5.7	6.1	7%	3.2	3.2	+2%	119.4	53	-56%
Norway	5.4	3.9	-28%	3.8	2.5	-34%	7.1	9.1	28%	4	2.8	-30%	21.3	17.4	-18%	41.6	35.7	-14%
Portugal	55.1	60.3	9%	35.1	19	-46%	0.3	0	..	38	140.3	137.7	-2%
Slovak Republic	19.5	16	-18%	3.4	3.4	0%	0	0.1	..	0.9	24.2	20.8	-14%
Slovenia	20.9	15.8	-24%	6	6.2	3%	0.1	0.2	100%	4.3	4.2	-2%	31.3	26.4	-16%
Spain	26.9	20.9	-22%	13.4	15.5	16%	101.7	128.9	27%	12.7	19	50%	118.9	116.7	-2%	374.9	368	-2%
Sweden	15.7	12.1	-23%	12.4	10	-19%	22.7	23.2	2%	5.5	3.5	-36%	30.8	26.7	-13%	87.1	75.5	-13%
Switzerland	2.8	2.2	-21%	21.6	20	-7%	10.5	12.9	23%	109.3	100.3	-8%	144.5	135.6	-6%
United Kingdom	281.3	117.5	-58%	259.6	145	-44%	123.2	118.1	-4%	53.5	37.4	-30%	743.2	435.7	-41%
United States	78.3	89.2	14%	83.9	95.5	14%	785.9	873.4	11%	126.3	249.2	97%	1190.1	1425.1	20%

Source: OECD (2025), *Standardised inflows of permanent-type migrants* (dataset), <https://data-explorer.oecd.org/s31n>.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/stpb62>

Annex Table 1.A.2. Inflows of temporary labour migrants (selected categories), 2019-2024

Destination	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	2024	2024/23	2024/19
								change
Seasonal workers								
Australia	14.5	4.5	14.6	24.3	20.2	23.1	15%	60%
Austria	9.4	8.7	10.4	14.1	14.9	15.8	6%	68%
Belgium	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.0	-46%	
Canada	3.8	2.1	2.0	3.9	3.3	3.0	-8%	-22%
Czechia	1.3	1.4	2.5	0.9	0.6	0.6	-11%	-58%
Estonia	4.6	3.2	4.7	2.5	1.1	0.9	-18%	-80%
Finland	11.5	13.3	15.9	6.6	3.7	3.8	1%	-67%
France	10.3	6.0	11.2	13.2	10.5	12.7	21%	24%
Germany	0.0	0.0	0.8	1.8	2.3	3.2	36%	
Italy	4.2	1.8	2.0	3.2	8.2	16.7	103%	298%
Korea	0.0	0.0	0.5	8.2	25.5	46.9	84%	
Mexico	10.0	3.7	3.7	4.4	6.6	7.2	8%	-28%
New Zealand	13.9	15.3	19.4	20.5	19.5	19.9	2%	43%
Norway	3.4	2.4	1.4	2.9	3.1	3.7	20%	10%
Slovak Republic	1.2	1.0	1.0	1.3	1.1	1.3	13%	6%
Slovenia	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	21%	30%
Spain	12.2	18.7	15.5	15.4	13.1	20.6	58%	70%
Sweden	6.2	3.5	5.5	6.5	5.2	1.4	-74%	-78%
United Kingdom	2.5	7.2	29.6	34.5	32.8	35.6	9%	1 326%
United States	307.6	275.8	421.8	421.8	446.1	449.7	1%	46%
Total	416.6	368.7	562.7	586.1	618.1	666.2	8%	60%
Working Holidaymakers (WHM)								
Australia	167.9	29.3	19.9	154.0	200.8	209.9	5%	25%
Belgium	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	-20%	-24%
Canada	55.5	15.8	14.2	43.9	58.3	53.4	-8%	-4%
Denmark	3.7	1.0	0.0	0.7	0.8	0.8	-5%	-79%
Finland	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.2	173%	
France	5.2	2.0	0.6	4.5	4.8	4.8	0%	-7%
Italy	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.1	-13%	-14%
Japan	18.0	3.3	0.2	4.1	14.2	20.3	43%	13%
Korea	2.7	0.9	0.3	2.0	3.2	3.2	-2%	18%
New Zealand	59.2	14.8	0.9	74.9	45.3	48.4	7%	-18%
Norway	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.5	0.0	0.0	-100%	-100%
United Kingdom	20.1	8.0	8.3	16.9	22.7	24.4	8%	22%
United States	108.8	5.0	39.6	92.6	103.8	104.8	1%	-4%
Total	444.7	81.9	84.8	394.4	454.3	470.6	4%	6%
Trainees								
Australia	2.2	0.5	0.5	1.5	2.1	1.9	-10%	-16%
Austria	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	25%	
Belgium	0.5	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.3	-9%	-35%
Denmark	2.4	1.6	2.0	2.0	2.1	2.5	16%	4%
Finland	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	-7%	-62%
France	4.2	2.5	3.5	5.7	6.7	7.1	5%	68%
Germany	5.1	3.1	5.3	9.3	13.7	13.4	-2%	161%
Ireland	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.0	-24%	27%
Italy	0.4	0.1	0.3	0.5	0.6	0.9	34%	145%
Japan	207.5	87.5	23.6	185.2	198.8	164.9	-17%	-21%
Korea	0.8	0.3	0.4	31.9	35.5	43.5	22%	5 261%

Destination	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	2024	2024/23	2024/19
							change	
Lithuania	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	150%	
Luxembourg	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.1	-4%	83%
New Zealand	1.0	0.2	0.0	0.1	0.5	0.5	5%	-51%
Norway	0.2	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.1	-16%	-76%
Slovak Republic	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	700%	33%
Slovenia	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	-100%	
Spain	0.0	0.0	0.0	2.5	28.0	50.9	82%	
Switzerland	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	-7%	31%
United Kingdom	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.2	0.5	0.5	4%	
United States	1.0	0.3	0.6	0.7	0.9	0.8	-10%	-22%
Total	225.8	96.7	37.0	240.4	290.3	287.5	-1%	27%
Intra-company transferees								
Australia	1.6	0.7	1.0	1.8	2.2	2.3	1%	38%
Austria	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	19%	0%
Canada	11.7	4.7	9.7	15.2	12.2	8.4	-31%	-28%
Czechia	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	39%	125%
Estonia	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	-50%	-94%
Finland	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	70%	159%
France	3.6	1.5	1.8	2.9	2.9	2.9	-2%	-21%
Germany	6.7	6.7	6.4	8.8	10.0	8.1	-19%	21%
Ireland	1.2	0.9	0.5	1.7	1.7	1.4	-16%	15%
Italy	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.4	51%	114%
Japan	10.0	3.2	0.5	7.8	8.4	8.4	0%	-15%
Korea	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.3	-9%	-18%
Lithuania	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	144%	-52%
Luxembourg	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.1	-35%	-48%
Netherlands	4.4	1.9	2.3	3.3	2.7	2.5	-8%	-42%
Norway	1.6	0.9	1.4	1.3	1.6	1.4	-15%	-12%
Slovak Republic	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	-57%	-73%
Slovenia	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	35%	73%
Spain	1.4	0.6	1.4	1.4	1.3	1.5	18%	12%
United Kingdom	27.1	8.8	12.9	20.7	15.5	13.8	-11%	-49%
United States	77.0	18.6	39.4	80.7	71.1	75.2	6%	-2%
Total	147.5	49.3	78.3	146.6	131.0	127.4	-3%	-14%

Destination	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	2024	2024/23	2024/19
							change	
Other temporary workers								
Australia	82.0	29.3	23.9	70.2	95.3	75.6	-21%	-8%
Austria	0.9	0.7	1.1	1.2	1.3	1.4	3%	53%
Belgium	1.1	0.8	1.0	1.2	0.8	0.9	8%	-16%
Canada	66.1	30.6	52.0	92.1	166.9	156.5	-6%	137%
Czechia	0.5	0.5	0.9	0.5	0.4	0.6	61%	21%
Denmark	3.8	3.2	4.4	5.3	4.6	4.4	-6%	14%
Estonia	23.3	15.9	23.7	17.9	5.1	3.8	-26%	-84%
Finland	1.1	0.8	1.0	1.2	1.2	1.3	6%	22%
France	12.8	7.5	10.7	13.6	15.0	20.6	37%	61%
Ireland	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.1	-2%	-45%
Israel	68.4	26.0	41.6	67.8	81.3
Italy	0.6	0.4	0.6	0.8	0.0	0.0	320%	-96%
Japan	8.6	6.8	5.9	27.3	51.4	73.3	43%	749%
Korea	104.7	42.9	57.5	117.9	127.6	100.9	-21%	-4%
Lithuania	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	-29%	-16%
Luxembourg	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.5	10%	43%
Mexico	14.5	10.3	19.0	19.8	22.7	21.2	-6%	46%
New Zealand	64.7	38.8	53.8	45.1	80.2	36.3	-55%	-44%
Norway	1.8	1.3	0.9	1.9	1.7	1.3	-21%	-26%
Slovak Republic	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	-4%	7%
Slovenia	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	-12%	..
Spain	9.4	6.1	8.3	12.6	21.7	33.7	55%	259%
Sweden	1.2	0.9	1.2	1.1	1.3	1.5	10%	19%
Switzerland	3.3	2.5	3.4	3.5	3.8	3.3	-13%	1%
United Kingdom	31.4	12.9	19.0	28.1	28.5	29.0	2%	-8%
United States	183.5	144.8	186.2	225.4	203.0	212.2	4%	16%
Total (excl. Israel)	615.8	357.4	475.1	687.3	833.3	778.3	-7%	26%

Source: OECD (2025), Standardised inflows of temporary migrants (dataset), <http://data-explorer.oecd.org/s/2hv>.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/seu2fd>

Annex Table 1.A.3. Permits considered in the statistics on temporary labour migration and their characteristics

Country	Name of the programme	Duration of stay / renewability of the contract	Existence of a quota
Australia (Temporary resident and seasonal worker programmes) Including renewals	Seasonal workers: Temporary resident (other employment); Seasonal Worker Programme (SWP); Pacific Labour Scheme; Pacific Australia Labour Mobility Scheme (PALM)		
	Working holidaymakers: subclasses 417 and 462	Up to 1 year	Subclass 417: uncapped Subclass 462: capped except for the United States
	Trainees: The Training visa (subclass 407) introduced in 2016.	Up to 2 years	
	Intra-company transferees: Temporary resident Skilled programme	Up to 4 years	
	Other workers: Temporary resident Skilled programme (except ICT); Temporary Resident (Other Employment) excluding “Australian Government Endorsed Events”, “Invited for Other Social and Cultural Activity”; Entertainment; Family (Temporary); Religious Work		
Austria	Seasonal workers: Number of work permits issued (quota and out of quota workers)	Up to 9 months	
	Trainees: Temporary residence permits (Aufenthaltsbewilligungen [AB]) issued for ICT trainees	Up to 12 months	Uncapped
	Intra-company transferees: AB permits issued to ICT Managers and Specialists	Up to 12 months (renewable)	Uncapped
	Other workers: AB permit for Self-employed. NB permit for Specific cases of gainful employment – special managers Job rotation Researchers: Settlement permits (Niederlassungsbewilligung [NB]) for Researchers (and AB permits for Researchers, if any) Au pair: AB permits for Special cases of dependent gainful occupation – Au Pair Excludes: Posted workers, Artists, Volunteers/social service workers	Up to 12 months (renewable)	Uncapped
Belgium	Working holidaymakers: top 10 countries of origin (estimation)		
	Trainees (estimation)		
	Other workers: Au pair; Researchers		
Canada (TFWP and IMP programmes – initial permits)	Seasonal workers: Seasonal Agricultural Workers Programme (TFWP): effective entries	Not renewable	
	Working holidaymakers: International Experience Canada Working Holiday and International Youth Program (IMP)	Not renewable	Uncapped
	Intra-company transferees: International Mobility Program (IMP) Work Permit Holders by year in which Initial Permit became effective (Trade – ICT; NAFTA – ICT; GATS professionals; significant benefits ICT)	Varies	
	Other workers: Temporary Foreign Workers with LMIA (excl. Seasonal Agricultural Workers Programme – TFWP); International Mobility Program Participants (excl. Working Holiday (IEC); ICT; Canada-Ukraine Authorization for Emergency Travel; Spouses of skilled workers; Spouses of students; PR Applicants in Canada; Humanitarian reason; Haiti special measures)	IMP: varies Live-in caregivers: unlimited other TFWP: not renewable	Uncapped

Country	Name of the programme	Duration of stay / renewability of the contract	Existence of a quota
Czechia	Seasonal workers: Long-term visa for Seasonal employment	Up to 9 months, renewable	
	Intra-company transferees		
	Researchers		
Denmark	Other workers: Special work visa (for citizens of Ukraine and other selected nationalities) working in agriculture, food industry, forestry	Up to 1 year, not renewable	
	Working holidaymakers: Residence permits in the area of education – Working Holiday	Up to 12 months	
	Trainees: Residence permits in the area of education – Interns	Up to 18 months	
	Other workers: Work permits – Agriculture, Wage work in Greenland or Faroe Islands. Researchers: Work permits – Researchers and teachers Au pair: Residence permits in the area of education – Au pair	Up to 2 years (4 years for researchers) (renewable)	
Estonia	Seasonal workers: Registration of short-term employment as a seasonal worker	Up to 270 days in a 365-day period	Uncapped
	Intra-company transferees: Temporary residence permit – ICT (includes trainees, managers, specialists)	Up to 3 years (1 year for ICT trainees)	
	Other workers: Other registration of short-term employment (Under general conditions, Equipment installer/craftsman, Other)	Up to 365 days in a 455-day period	Uncapped
	Researchers: Temporary residence permit – Researcher	Up to 5 years	
Finland (Decisions on first residence permits)	Seasonal workers: Seasonal work visas; Seasonal work requiring a LM test	Up to 9 months	
	Trainees: Internship		
	Intra-company transferees: ICT; ICT (mobile)		
	Other workers: Volunteering; National researcher; Scientific research	Up to 12 months	
France (first residence permits issued – work contract or permits shorter than 1 year)	Seasonal workers: number of medical check-up (source: OFII)	Up to 9 months per year (3-year authorisation)	
	Working holidaymakers: Programme vacances Travail	Up to 12 months.	
	Trainees: Stagiaires	Up to 1 year initially (extension up to 3 years in total)	
	Intra-company transferees: Residence permits – Salarié en mission / Salarié détaché ICT	Up to 3 years.	
	Other workers: Researchers, au-pair, other residence permits	Up to 12 months (renewable)	
Germany (grants of first residence permits)	Seasonal workers: § 15a Abs. 1 Nr. 1 BeschV (Saisonbeschäftigung – Arbeitserlaubnis bis 90 Tage)		
	Trainees: Berufsausbildung (§ 16a AufenthG)		
	Intra-company transferees: § 8 BeschV (Praktische Tätigkeiten als Voraussetzung für die Anerkennung ausländischer Berufsqualifikationen), § 10 BeschV (Internationaler Personalaustausch, Auslandsprojekte), § 10a BeschV (ICT-Karte / Mobiler-ICT-Karte)		
	Other workers: "Au pair (§19c Abs. 1 AufenthG in conjunction with § 12 BeschV)"; European Voluntary Service (§ 19e AufenthG)		
Ireland	Trainees: Internship employment permit		
	Intra-company transferees: ICT Employment permit		
	Other workers: Contract for Services Employment permit; Exchange Agreement		

Country	Name of the programme	Duration of stay / renewability of the contract	Existence of a quota
Israel (entries excl. Palestinian workers, and stock of Jordanian daily workers working in uncapped sectors)	Other workers:		
	Construction: Jordanian workers (daily workers in capped sectors); Tel Aviv city rail project; Sea ports projects; Jordan Valley irrigation project; Foreign Construction Workers (bilateral agreements with Bulgaria, China, Moldova, Romania, Türkiye, Ukraine)	Daily workers: unlimited; other workers: renewable up to 63 months	Capped
	Tourism: Jordanian daily workers in hotel industry and construction in Eilat	Unlimited	Capped
	Agriculture	Not renewable	Capped.
	Home care	Renewable up to 63 months (or up to 7 years if no employer change between 5 and 7 years of stay)	Uncapped
Italy (entry visa data)	Specialists and skilled (experts working visa)	Unlimited	Uncapped
	Seasonal workers: estimates from the Ministry of Interior	Up to 9 months	Capped
	Trainees: visa for study/training reasons – traineeship		Uncapped
	Working holidaymakers: "Vacanze lavoro" programme	12 months	Uncapped
	Intra-company transferees: estimates from the Ministry of Interior	Up to 3 years (1 year for ICT trainees)	Uncapped
Japan (New visas, excl. re-entry)	Other workers: estimates from the Ministry of Interior		Uncapped
	Working holidaymakers: Working holidaymaker visas		Capped for some nationalities
	Trainees: Trainees and Technical intern training		
	Intra company transferees		
Korea (Visas issued, incl. some re-entries)	Other workers: Professor; Researcher; Instructor; Specified Skilled Worker; Designated activities – Researcher and IT engineer; Designated activities – Housekeeper; Designated activities – EPA candidates	1 to 5 years, renewable	Uncapped
	Industrial trainees: Industrial trainees (D-3); general trainees (D-4)		
	Working holidaymakers: H-1		
	Intra-company transferees: D-7		
Lithuania (First issuances of temporary residence permits)	Other workers: Speciality Occupations (E-5); Unskilled Employment (E-9); Visiting & Employment (H-2); Foreign Language Instructor (E-2); Research – (E-3); Professors (E-1)		
	Trainees: intern at a scientific study institution		
	Intra-company transferees: Temporary residence permits – ICT		
	Other workers: Researchers Excluding "Workers in shortage occupations/whose work meets the needs of the labour market" (undetermined share of posted workers among this category)		
Luxembourg (first residence permit issuances)	Trainees: "Stagiaires"		
	Intra-company transferees: Transfert intragroupe – expert/cadre; employé-stagiaire; mobile expert cadre; Travailleur transféré; Mobilité à long terme du travailleur transféré – expert/cadre		
	Other workers: Posted workers; Researcher; Prestataire de service Communautaire; Volunteer; Au pair	Up to 12 months	

Country	Name of the programme	Duration of stay / renewability of the contract	Existence of a quota
Mexico	Seasonal workers: Cards of visiting border-worker (<i>Tarjetas de Visitante Trabajador Fronterizo</i>)	Up to 5 years	
	Other workers: Temporary residence permit (<i>Tarjetas de Residente Temporal</i>) for work		
Netherlands	Intra-company transferees: Single permit – Work/residence permit for ICT	Up to 3 years (up to 1 year for ICT trainees)	
New Zealand (excludes Australian citizens)	Seasonal workers: Recognised Seasonal Employer Limited Visa; Supplementary Seasonal Employment (extensions)	Up to 7 months (or 9 months for citizen-residents of Tuvalu and Kiribati); extensions possible up to 6 months	Capped
	Working holidaymakers: Working Holiday Scheme	Up to 12 months (or 23 months for citizens of the United Kingdom or Canada)	Capped for some countries
	Trainees: Work experience for student; Medical & dental trainee; NZ racing conference apprentice; Excluding religious trainees	Practical training for students not enrolled in New Zealand (or enrolled for 3 months maximum): up to 6 months; Apprentice jockeys: up to 4 years	Uncapped
	Other workers: <i>Skilled Migrant Programme;</i> <i>Skilled Work programme:</i> selected categories (ASEAN Special Work; Chef from Thailand; China Skilled Workers; China Special Work; Essential Skills; Essential Skills – Skill Level 1; Essential Skills – current employment; AEWV transitional; Accredited Employer); <i>Work to Residence Programme:</i> selected categories (Long Term Skill Shortage List Occupation; Talent (Accredited Employer)) <i>Exchange Work</i>		
Norway (Education and work permits)	Seasonal workers: Work permits – seasonal	Up to 6 months in a 12-month period. Not renewable	
	Working holidaymakers (from Canada, Australia, New Zealand, Japan or Argentina)	Up to 1 year. Renewable for some nationalities for up to 2 years	Some capped
	Trainees: Education permit – Interns or guestworkers (Praktikant eller gjestearbeider)	Up to 6 or 12 months. Not renewable	
	Post doc: Education permit – Post-doc		
	Intra-company transferees		
Poland	Other workers: Other granted work permits for third-country nationals		
	Declarations >90 days; Total work permits (A, B, C, D, E); Notifications of entrusting work (March 2022 Law)		

Country	Name of the programme	Duration of stay / renewability of the contract	Existence of a quota
Slovak Republic	Seasonal workers: Foreign workers – Agriculture (Residence permit for the purpose of seasonal employment)	180 days within 12 months, renewable once	
	Trainees: Temporary residence – ICT – intern; Special activity – Internship as part of studies outside the Slovak Republic		
	Intra-company transferees: ICT Specialists and Managers		
	Researchers: Temporary residence – Research & Development		
	Other temporary workers: Temporary residence – Special activity – Teaching activity		
Slovenia	Seasonal workers: first permits issued (Eurostat)	Up to 6 or 7 months in a calendar year	
	Trainees: Ministry of Interior		
	Intra-company transferees: Temporary residence permits – ICT	Up to 1 year, Renewable	
	Other temporary workers: Temporary residence permits – Research work	Up to 1 year, Renewable	
Spain (first residence permits)	Seasonal workers: Residence of limited duration: salaried and self-employed; agriculture and selected other sectors GECCO programme		
	Trainees: Residence of limited duration – Work-linked Training		
	Intra-company transferees: EU and national programmes		
	Other workers: Digital nomad; <i>Fixed-term residence:</i> Employment for others. Civil servants or military officials of foreign state administrations who come to Spain to carry out activities by virtue of co-operation agreements with the Spanish Administration;		
	<i>Researchers EU / national:</i> agreement with research organisations (EU and national); Research staff, scientific and technical staff, Professor;		
	<i>Temporary residence:</i> Employed, Self-employed, Exception to the work authorisation.		
Sweden (Temporary permits)	Seasonal workers: Berry pickers		
	Working holidaymakers: Working holiday visas (for citizens of Australia, Hong Kong (China), Canada, Japan, New Zealand, Korea)	Not renewable	
	Other workers: Researchers Excluding: Student looking for work; International exchange (Artist, Aupair, Intern, Youth exchange); Professional athlete/coach; Looking for work or starting a business		
Switzerland	Trainees: L permits (all durations)	Up to 18 months	Capped
	Other workers: Holders of L permit for Work (Third-country nationals) Researchers: Academic guests and sabbaticals – B and L permits (Third-country nationals) Postdoc: Doctorants et postdoctorants – B permits (estimated share of postdocs) (Third-country nationals)	Up to 12 months, renewable	Capped

Country	Name of the programme	Duration of stay / renewability of the contract	Existence of a quota
United Kingdom (Entry clearance visas granted)	Seasonal Seasonal worker (previously Tier 5)	Up to 6 months	Capped
	Trainees: Study – Trainee doctors and dentists; Work – Graduate Trainee (Global Business Mobility)	Up to 12 months	
	Working holidaymakers: Youth Mobility Scheme (previously Tier 5)	Up to 24 months (multi-entry visa)	
	Intra-company transferees:		
	Tier 2 – Intra Company Transfers Short Term (closed on 6 April 2 017)		
	Tier 2 – Intra Company Transfers Long Term	Maximum 5 years (9 years if salary > GBP 120 000 per year)	
	Senior or Specialist Worker (Global Business Mobility)	Up to 5 years	
	Other workers: ECAA Businessperson; International Graduates Scheme; Overseas Domestic Worker; Private Servants in Diplomatic Households; Government Authorised Exchange (previously Tier 5); International Agreement (previously Tier 5); Secondment Worker (Global Business Mobility); Service Supplier (Global Business Mobility); UK Expansion Worker (Global Business Mobility)		
	Seasonal workers: H-2A – Temporary worker performing agricultural services; H-2B – Temporary worker performing non-agricultural services	Up to 3 years	Capped as to H-2B
	Working holidaymakers: J-1 – Exchange visitor/summer Work Travel Programme	Up to 4 months	Capped
United States (non-immigrant visa statistics)	Trainees: H-3	Up to 2 years	
	Intra-company transferees: L-1 – Intra-company transferee (executive, managerial, and specialised personnel continuing employment with international firm or corporation)	Maximum initial stay of one year (3 years for L-1A employees). Extended until reaching the maximum limit of seven years (5 years for L-1B)	
	Other workers:		
	H-1B – Temporary worker of distinguished merit and ability performing services other than as a registered nurse (approvals)	Up to 3 years initially. Maximum limit of six years in total (with some exceptions)	Capped
	H-1B1 – Free Trade Agreement worker (Chile/Singapore)		
	O-1 – Person with extraordinary ability in the sciences, arts, education, business, or athletics	Up to 3 years (extension up to 1 year)	
	O-2 – Person accompanying and assisting in the artistic or athletic performance by O-1	Up to 3 years (extension up to 1 year)	
	TN – NAFTA professional	Up to 3 years	

Annex Table 1.A.4. Postings of workers active under Article 12 in selected European OECD countries, by destination country, 2010-2023

Destination	2010-14 annual average	2015-19 annual average	2020	2021	2022	2023	2023/10	2023/22
Thousands							Change in percentage	
European OECD countries								
Germany	337	444	411	430	489	548	119.0	11.9
France	170	267	308	308	337	375	133.7	11.5
Austria	80	162	232	221	305	333	458.5	9.0
Belgium	127	175	169	174	215	231	155.2	7.4
Switzerland	69	134	177	153	166	210	303.6	26.7
Netherlands	97	127	390	153	173	193	110.7	11.3
Spain	50	82	82	88	150	190	200.0	26.7
Italy	55	87	91	108	133	169	179.3	27.2
Poland	15	35	59	58	92	105	716.4	14.4
United Kingdom	41	73	62	38	111	100	190.2	-9.9
Iceland	0	1	1	1	19	81	-	-
Czechia	17	40	60	54	73	79	397.0	8.1
Sweden	26	52	61	58	71	78	299.9	10.0
Portugal	12	27	29	36	57	73	501.6	28.8
Norway	21	27	25	21	44	69	265.8	54.4
Denmark	11	22	35	31	43	63	551.3	44.7
Ireland	5	8	8	6	45	62	1 142.3	38.9
Hungary	9	21	29	38	42	54	536.2	28.0
Luxembourg	23	34	47	44	48	52	88.5	9.1
Finland	20	23	25	24	31	39	92.6	24.3
Slovenia	4	9	11	13	27	35	931.5	27.7
Slovak Republic	7	16	18	14	60	34	292.3	-43.3
Greece	7	10	11	13	22	29	168.8	32.9
Estonia	2	3	3	3	0	9	632.1	..
Lithuania	2	4	5	4	6	9	385.8	39.5
Latvia	2	2	3	2	3	5	186.1	62.0
Total	1 211	1 887	2 354	2 095	2 762	3 224	209.8	16.7
Selected non-OECD European countries								
Romania	10	17	18	18	33	47	395.4	41.2
Bulgaria	4	6	6	6	10	15	227.3	42.5
Croatia	3	12	12	13

Source: De Wispelaere, F., L. De Smedt and J. Pacolet (2024^[2]), "Posting of workers – report on A1 portable documents issued in 2023", *Facts and figures on intra-EU labour mobility and EU social security co-ordination*, <https://ec.europa.eu/social/main.jsp?catId=1154&langId=en>.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/mfcx2a>

Annex Table 1.A.5. Top 50 countries of origin of new immigrants to the OECD, 2022-2023

	Number	Number	Share in	2023/22 absolute	2023/22 change	Difference with 2022	Expatriation rate
	2022	2023	2023 (%)	change (thousands)	(%)	rank	(per '000 population) in 2023
India	557	602	7.5	44	8	0	0.4
China	327	368	4.6	42	13	0	0.3
Romania	268	244	3.0	-24	-9	1	12.7
Colombia	219	227	2.8	7	3	1	4.4
Mexico	164	217	2.7	53	32	4	1.7
Morocco	201	203	2.5	3	1	0	5.5
Syria	164	194	2.4	29	18	1	9.0
Philippines	139	192	2.4	53	38	5	1.7
Russia	269	179	2.2	-90	-33	-6	1.2
Afghanistan	175	173	2.2	-2	-1	-3	4.3
Pakistan	122	167	2.1	45	37	5	0.7
Türkiye	115	158	2.0	43	37	5	1.9
Brazil	156	155	1.9	-1	-1	-3	0.7
Italy	152	152	1.9	0	0	-3	2.6
Germany	150	145	1.8	-4	-3	-3	1.7
Nigeria	100	145	1.8	45	44	4	0.7
Poland	137	136	1.7	-2	-1	-3	3.6
Viet Nam	99	134	1.7	35	36	3	1.4
Venezuela	123	125	1.6	2	1	-4	4.4
Cuba	59	119	1.5	59	99	11	10.6
Bangladesh	69	108	1.4	39	57	6	0.6
United States	105	105	1.3	0	0	-3	0.3
France	109	104	1.3	-5	-5	-5	1.6
Peru	88	98	1.2	9	10	1	2.9
Iran	94	94	1.2	0	0	-3	1.1
United Kingdom	89	85	1.1	-4	-4	-2	1.3
Dominican Republic	55	85	1.1	29	53	6	7.6
Bulgaria	91	81	1.0	-10	-11	-5	11.9
Spain	78	80	1.0	2	3	-3	1.7
Argentina	63	67	0.8	5	7	0	1.5
Nepal	55	64	0.8	8	15	3	2.1
Albania	65	63	0.8	-2	-3	-3	22.1
Honduras	67	62	0.8	-5	-7	-5	6.0
Portugal	59	62	0.8	2	4	-2	6.0
Egypt	50	57	0.7	7	14	2	0.5
Ghana	29	57	0.7	28	96	20	1.7
Algeria	54	57	0.7	3	5	-2	1.3
Sri Lanka	33	54	0.7	22	66	15	2.5
Zimbabwe	28	52	0.7	24	84	19	3.2
Hungary	45	50	0.6	6	13	-1	5.2
Belarus	47	50	0.6	3	5	-3	5.2
Tunisia	43	46	0.6	2	6	-1	3.7
Korea	44	42	0.5	-2	-4	-3	0.8
Netherlands	43	42	0.5	-1	-3	-2	2.4
Iraq	51	41	0.5	-10	-20	-9	0.9
Canada	41	39	0.5	-1	-3	-3	1.0
Ecuador	34	39	0.5	5	13	3	2.2
El Salvador	39	38	0.5	-1	-3	-4	6.0
Cameroon	26	38	0.5	12	46	13	1.4
Bosnia and Herzegovina	37	37	0.5	0	0	-5	11.4

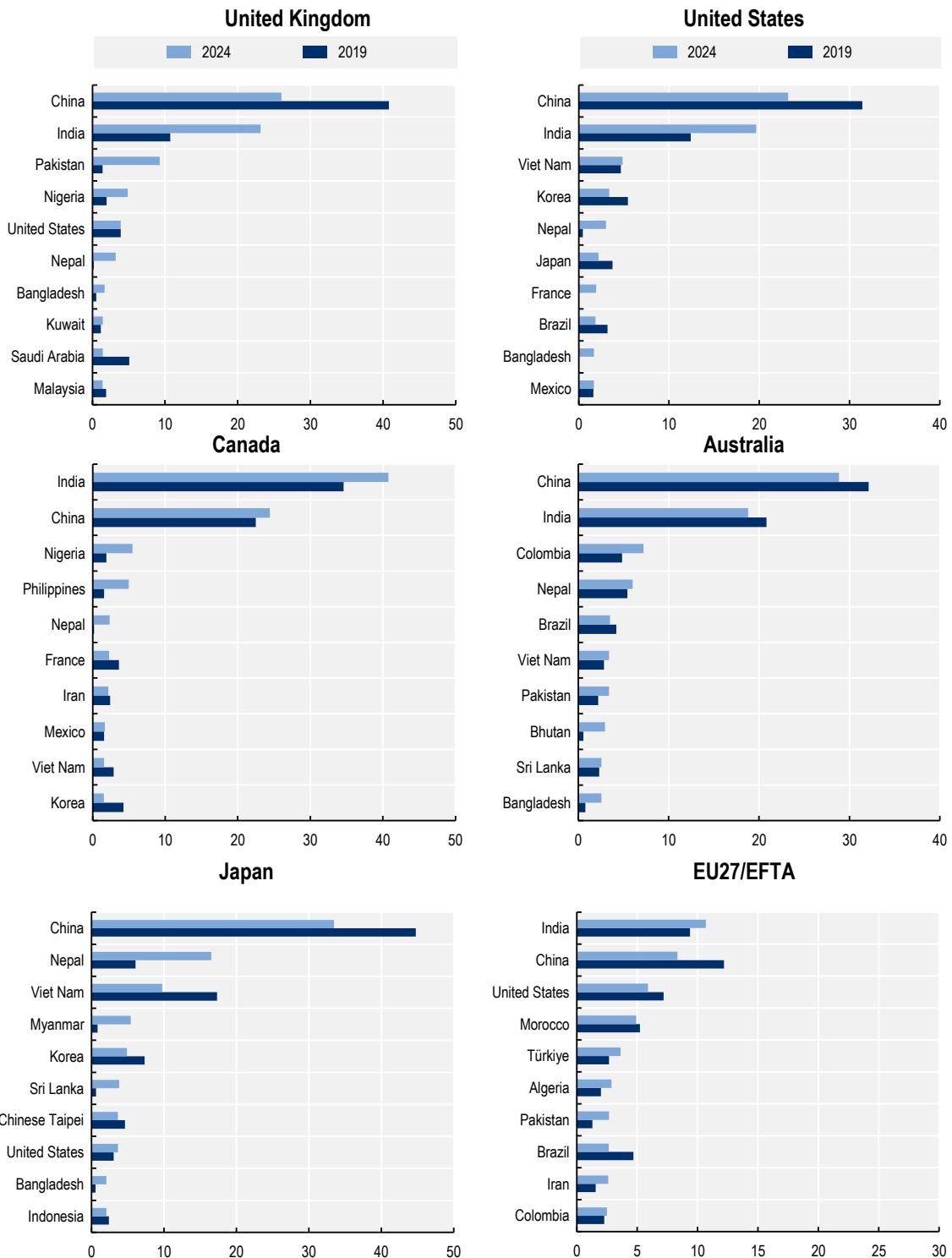
Note: Migration flows to Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Greece and Ireland are not included. Migration flow series to Germany, Japan, Korea and Poland are adjusted to exclude short-term immigrants.

Source: OECD International Migration Database, <https://doi.org/10.1787/00342-en>.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/4zexvy>

Annex Figure 1.A.1. Inflows of international students by nationality to selected OECD countries

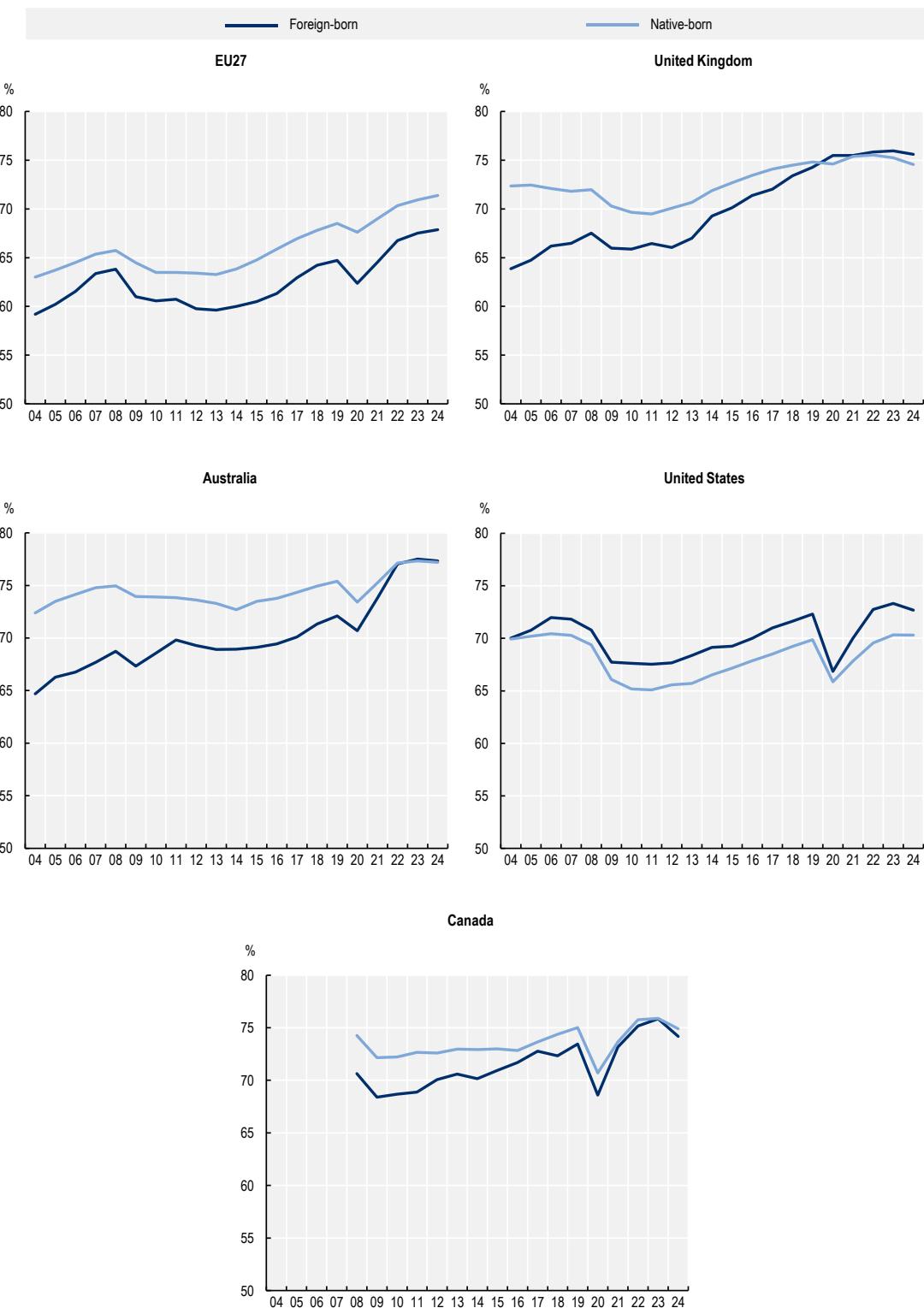
2024 top ten nationalities as a percentage of total inflows, 2019 and 2024



Note: China includes Chinese Taipei and Hong Kong. Australian, Canadian and Japanese data compares 2023 and 2019.

Source: OECD International Migration Database, <https://doi.org/10.1787/data-00342-en> and Eurostat.

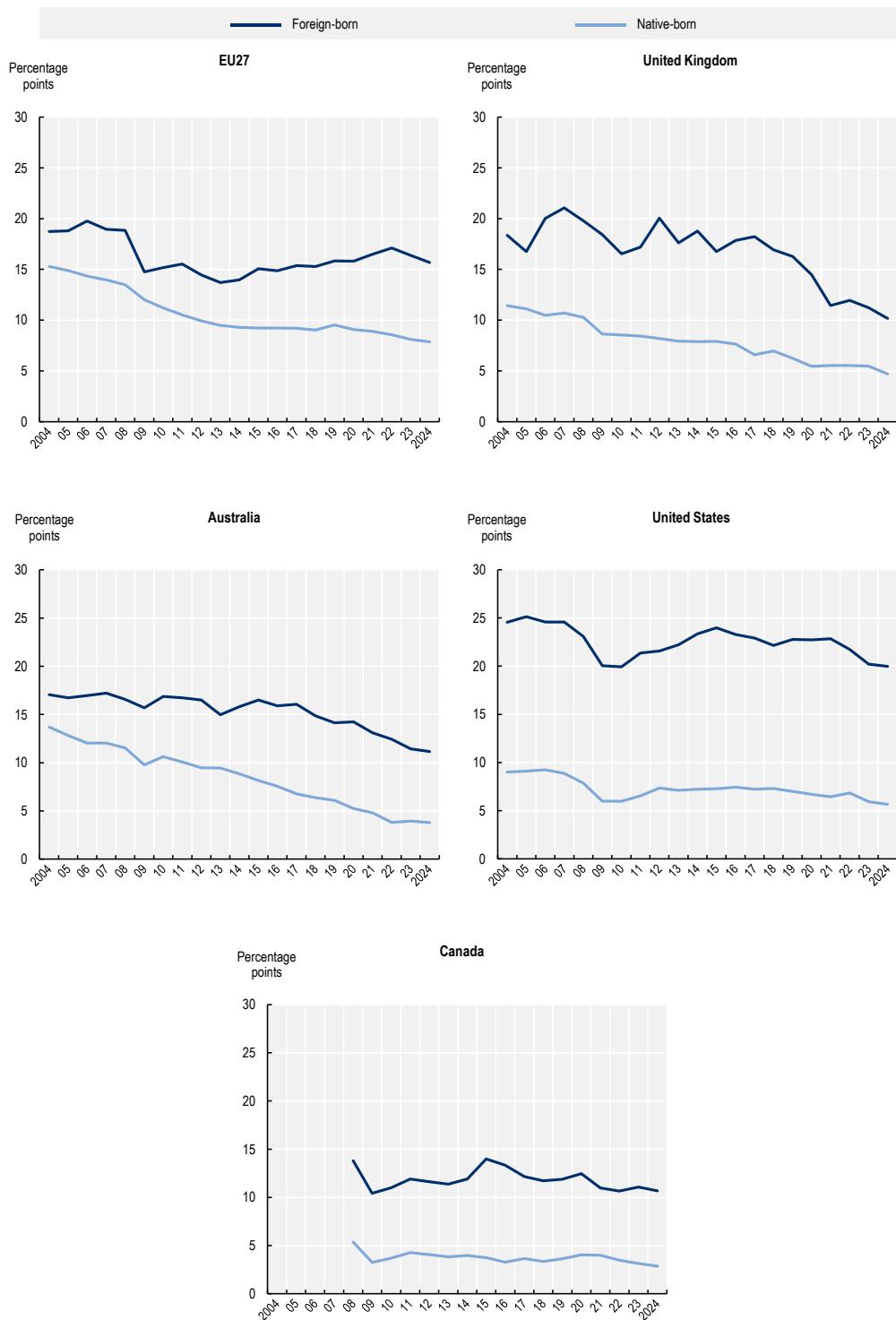
Annex Figure 1.A.2. Employment rates by place of birth, 2004-2024



Source: European countries: European Labour Force Survey (Eurostat); Australia, Canada, the United Kingdom: Labour Force Surveys; United States: Current Population Survey.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/wij69p>

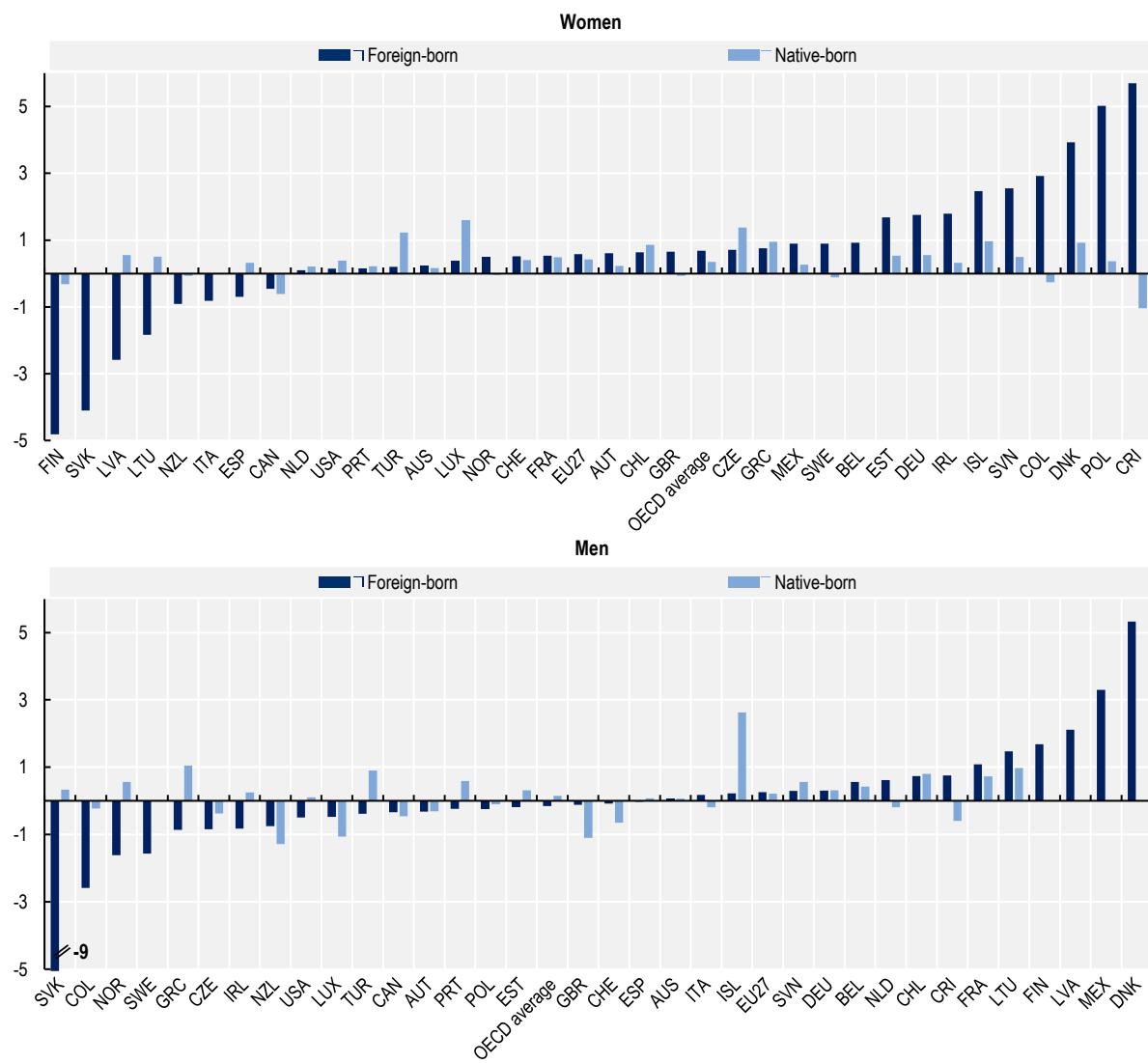
Annex Figure 1.A.3. Evolution of the gap in employment rates between men and women, by place of birth, 2004-2024



Source: European countries: European Labour Force Survey (Eurostat); Australia, Canada, the United Kingdom: Labour Force Surveys; United States: Current Population Survey.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/hymp6u>

Annex Figure 1.A.4. Change in the labour force participation rate between 2023 and 2024, by place of birth and sex, population aged 15 to 64



Note: Gap with the native-born refers to the difference between the corresponding rates of the foreign-born and native-born populations. The OECD average is calculated as a simple average and can be different from the previous year's average due to the different country coverage. Rates for Korea are estimated for the population aged 15-59 and refer to foreigners and immigrants who have been naturalised in the past 5 years, compared to nationals.

Source: European countries: European Labour Force Survey (Eurostat); Australia, Canada, New Zealand, the United Kingdom: Labour Force Surveys; Korea: Economically Active Population Survey and Survey on Immigrants' Living Conditions and Labour Force; United States: Current Population Survey.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/dm2cbz>

Annex Table 1.A.6. Labour force participation in OECD countries in 2024

	Labour force participation rate		
	Percentages		p.p.
	Foreign-born	Native-born	
Australia	80.6	80.6	0.0
Austria	76.9	78.6	-1.8
Belgium	68.4	71.6	-3.2
Canada	80.6	79.4	+1.2
Chile	83.0	68.9	+14.1
Colombia	70.6	66.6	+4.0
Costa Rica	74.1	64.5	+9.6
Czechia	82.1	77.2	+4.9
Denmark	83.1	82.3	+0.8
Estonia	84.0	81.9	+2.1
Finland	76.9	79.7	-2.8
France	70.9	75.2	-4.3
Germany	74.3	82.1	-7.8
Greece	73.6	70.2	+3.3
Hungary	81.1	78.6	+2.6
Iceland	90.1	88.3	+1.9
Ireland	81.6	76.4	+5.2
Israel ¹
Italy	71.1	65.8	+5.2
Japan ²	81.4	79.8	..
Korea ³	71.8	72.3	-0.4
Latvia	75.4	76.9	-1.4
Lithuania	78.4	79.5	-1.2
Luxembourg	79.2	67.8	+11.4
Mexico	56.4	65.8	-9.4
Netherlands	76.3	87.5	-11.2
New Zealand	84.3	81.8	+2.5
Norway	76.6	81.6	-5.0
Poland	81.1	74.6	+6.5
Portugal	83.6	77.0	+6.6
Slovak Republic	75.5	76.6	-1.1
Slovenia	77.4	75.7	+1.8
Spain	77.6	73.7	+3.8
Sweden	83.5	84.0	-0.5
Switzerland	82.5	85.0	-2.5
Türkiye	49.7	60.9	-11.2
United Kingdom	80.4	77.6	+2.8
United States	76.0	73.3	+2.6
EU27	75.1	75.4	-0.3
OECD average	76.9	76.1	+0.8

Note: Gap with the native-born refers to the difference between the corresponding rates of the foreign-born and native-born populations. The OECD average is calculated as a simple average of all countries with available data for both years. “..” indicates missing data or unreported estimates due to low reliability.

1. The data for Israel refer to 2021 instead of 2024 (excluded from OECD average).

2. The data for Japan refers to foreign nationals, for the year 2020 instead of 2024 (excluded from OECD average).

3. Rates for Korea are estimated for the population aged 15-59 and refer to foreigners and immigrants who have been naturalised in the past 5 years, compared to nationals.

Source: European countries and Türkiye: European Labour Force Survey (Eurostat); Australia, Canada, Israel, New Zealand, the United Kingdom: Labour Force Surveys; Japan: Population Census; Korea: Economically Active Population Survey and Survey on Immigrants' Living Conditions and Labour Force; Chile: Encuesta de Caracterización Socioeconómica Nacional (CASEN); Colombia: Gran Encuesta Integrada de Hogares (GEIH); Costa Rica: Encuesta Nacional de Hogares (ENAHO); Mexico: Encuesta Nacional de Ocupación y Empleo (ENO); United States: Current Population Survey.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/1fschr>

Annex Table 1.A.7. Employment rates of persons aged 15-64 by place of birth and education level, OECD countries, 2024

	Foreign-born			Native-born		
	Low	Medium	High	Low	Medium	High
Australia
Austria	54.5	73.0	77.9	46.1	76.4	87.7
Belgium	41.0	61.4	79.4	32.7	66.9	87.8
Canada	41.9	66.6	80.5	44.3	72.6	84.1
Chile	71.6	81.2	83.5	54.1	69.1	71.7
Colombia	65.3	74.3	80.7	63.0	67.4	79.0
Costa Rica	68.4	69.2	78.9	52.2	59.1	71.7
Czechia	49.2	84.0	84.2	24.1	81.6	87.3
Denmark	60.5	74.4	81.5	55.6	80.7	89.4
Estonia	31.6	74.8	78.3	42.7	79.2	91.6
Finland	44.3	67.7	79.4	37.5	75.3	88.9
France	48.3	62.6	76.7	35.7	69.4	87.1
Germany	58.5	77.2	76.4	52.1	82.5	91.3
Greece	61.8	60.7	67.3	38.7	62.6	80.9
Hungary	59.4	75.7	87.6	38.1	79.1	91.2
Iceland	76.1	84.0	91.6	73.5	86.7	92.5
Ireland	41.3	72.9	84.4	37.1	74.5	89.3
Israel
Italy	59.3	68.2	70.9	41.8	67.0	83.6
Japan
Korea
Latvia	29.6	69.1	75.0	32.3	73.0	89.1
Lithuania	28.7	67.5	84.7	24.9	71.3	90.4
Luxembourg	51.1	64.9	84.9	33.7	65.7	84.2
Mexico	45.4	47.0	74.5	60.8	59.8	80.2
Netherlands	60.4	73.4	82.3	71.6	84.8	91.4
New Zealand	56.8	79.0	87.9	58.3	79.3	90.7
Norway	53.1	72.9	80.8	56.6	80.4	89.8
Poland	24.0	80.6	86.9	21.2	71.8	91.0
Portugal	65.7	76.8	83.9	60.3	73.9	88.1
Slovak Republic	..	66.4	85.9	16.4	77.6	88.0
Slovenia	51.7	81.0	83.1	32.3	74.0	89.9
Spain	58.2	67.0	76.0	50.1	60.5	83.6
Sweden	47.5	76.1	82.3	40.8	81.6	90.7
Switzerland	65.2	78.3	83.8	55.9	82.4	91.6
Türkiye	38.9	41.4	56.8	46.4	57.7	74.1
United Kingdom	64.3	63.2	83.9	48.1	70.3	87.3
United States	60.2	71.7	79.8	29.8	68.2	83.6
EU27	56.0	71.2	78.0	43.4	73.2	88.0
OECD average	52.5	70.7	80.3	44.4	73.0	86.4

Source: European countries and Türkiye: European Labour Force Survey (Eurostat); Australia, Canada, New Zealand, the United Kingdom: Labour Force Surveys; Korea: Economically Active Population Survey and Survey on Immigrants' Living Conditions and Labour Force; Chile: Encuesta de Caracterización Socio-económica Nacional (CASEN); Colombia: Gran Encuesta Integrada de Hogares (GEIH); Costa Rica: Encuesta Nacional de Hogares (ENAHO); Mexico: Encuesta Nacional de Ocupación y Empleo (ENO); United States: Current Population Survey.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/251qg3>

Annex Table 1.A.8. Employment of foreign-born persons by industry, 2024

	Agriculture and fishing	Mining, manufacturing and energy	Construction	Wholesale and retail trade	Hotels and restaurants	Education	Health	Activities of households as employers	Admin. and ETO	Other services	Total	Total FB employed (thousands)	Total percentage of FB employed (%)
	(%)	(%)	(%)	(%)	(%)	(%)	(%)	(%)	(%)	(%)	(%)	(%)	(%)
Austria	0.7	18.1	10.1	14.8	10.9	7.4	4.9	..	11.2	21.6	100	1 125	69.8
Belgium	0.7	12.6	9.0	11.8	7.2	6.8	8.2	0.2	21.8	21.8	100	1 034	61.7
Canada	0.6	15.9	5.5	13.5	7.4	5.6	14.0	..	3.7	33.9	100	25 877	74.2
Czechia	1.4	36.1	14.8	11.4	5.7	5.0	1.7	0.6	6.3	17.0	100	324	79.0
Denmark	2.0	11.9	3.2	19.2	9.9	9.6	14.6	..	9.2	20.5	100	362	74.5
Estonia	..	25.5	10.5	11.9	7.5	7.7	6.0	27.3	100	87	73.3
Finland	..	14.4	7.2	9.8	10.7	9.0	13.3	..	13.5	20.8	100	279	64.1
France	1.3	9.8	11.9	12.0	9.4	7.3	7.9	2.6	14.1	23.7	100	3 732	63.0
Germany	0.5	23.4	7.9	14.4	8.7	5.3	7.4	0.5	11.5	20.5	100	9 042	69.6
Greece	9.0	12.4	17.3	15.0	18.8	4.2	1.5	4.5	7.9	9.3	100	309	62.2
Hungary	3.2	24.7	12.1	12.0	6.1	9.5	2.9	..	7.5	21.9	100	157	78.6
Iceland	1.7	17.3	9.0	11.9	12.7	11.5	8.3	..	8.8	18.8	100	41	84.7
Ireland	..	14.9	7.9	16.4	16.0	8.7	9.5	..	8.7	18.0	100	788	77.0
Italy	5.8	22.0	10.8	10.7	10.8	2.3	3.1	11.7	7.2	15.6	100	3 659	64.7
Latvia	3.3	17.2	8.5	17.8	6.7	7.6	3.4	..	7.6	27.8	100	69	69.0
Lithuania	5.5	27.8	6.5	8.9	5.0	7.9	9.3	26.5	100	31	71.8
Luxembourg	..	3.7	6.3	10.6	4.4	4.0	5.1	2.0	23.5	40.2	100	199	73.6
Netherlands	1.4	13.2	4.7	17.1	7.6	6.9	9.0	0.3	14.7	25.1	100	1 453	71.8
Norway	1.5	10.4	11.7	11.0	8.7	8.1	13.8	..	12.8	21.8	100	613	71.1
Poland	..	30.0	10.9	11.4	6.5	5.3	7.0	26.3	100	405	78.4
Portugal	1.7	5.4	11.1	19.0	14.2	9.1	5.3	4.3	11.7	18.2	100	724	76.0
Slovenia	..	28.6	18.2	10.6	7.8	4.1	3.5	..	10.0	16.6	100	131	73.9
Spain	4.9	11.3	10.4	14.8	17.8	3.0	3.9	8.7	8.6	16.6	100	4 844	65.7
Sweden	0.5	11.7	5.4	10.2	6.7	13.3	13.0	..	14.1	25.1	100	1 240	70.0
Switzerland	0.8	17.4	8.9	13.2	7.7	6.5	6.7	2.1	9.0	27.7	100	1 645	76.9
Türkiye	3.7	29.7	7.6	18.1	6.0	5.3	1.1	2.9	9.4	16.2	100	847	44.6
United Kingdom	0.2	9.4	5.0	9.9	6.5	8.3	18.5	0.2	10.1	31.9	100	6 785	75.6
United States	1.7	11.6	12.5	11.8	9.0	5.7	12.8	1.0	9.4	24.6	100	29 128	72.7
EU27	2.3	17.4	9.3	13.4	10.7	5.4	6.2	3.7	11.1	20.4	100	30 530	67.9
	Agriculture, Forestry and Fishing (%)	Mining & manufacturing (%)	Construction (%)	Wholesale & retail trade, hotels & restaurants (%)	Electricity, transport, communication & finance (%)	Business, personal, public service & others (%)					Total (%)	Total FB employed (thousands)	FB in total employment (%)
Korea	8.7	48.5	9.7	18.4	2.4	12.3					100	949	68.0

Note: “..” indicates that the estimate is not reliable enough for publication. ETO stands for extra-territorial organisations. The population refers to the employed foreign-born population aged 15 to 64.

Source: European countries and Türkiye: European Labour Force Survey (Eurostat); Canada, the United Kingdom: Labour Force Surveys; United States: Current Population Survey.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/5194f6>

Notes

¹ All numbers in the rest of this section refer only to the 29 countries for which data on permanent migration may be harmonised.

² It covers the 29 OECD countries for which migration flow data is currently harmonised.

³ Temporary authorisations delivered pending grant of a permanent permit, authorisations pending change of employment status (job seeker) or legal status (asylum seekers) are not included in these statistics. Programmes for Ukrainians fleeing the war of Russia against Ukraine are also not included.

⁴ Third country nationals who have in fact left the territory of the Member State, following an administrative or judicial decision or act stating that their stay is illegal and imposing an obligation to leave the territory (see Art. 7.1 (b) of the Council Regulation (EC) no 862/2007).

⁵ For the purpose of this comparison by country of origin in 2022 and 2023, Ukraine is not considered as comparability of data on inflows of Ukrainian migrants between countries of destination is not guaranteed.

⁶ Among bilateral flows above 25 000 new migrants in 2023.

⁷ The differences between men and women are even more pronounced in labour force participation rates, as the labour market participation rate of immigrant women increased in more than 4 in 5 OECD countries with available data for 2023-2024 (28 out of 36) (Annex Figure 1.A.4).

⁸ By contrast, among the prime-age population, immigrants' employment rates were below those of the native-born in all but four OECD countries, with the immigrant gap in prime-age employment rates widening from 5.3 p.p. to 6.1 p.p. in 2024.

2

Recent developments in migration policy

This chapter provides an overview of the changes in the immigration policies of OECD countries during the period 2024-2025, with a particular focus on policy changes linked with regularisation programmes related to employment.

In Brief

Key findings

- In reaction to very high migration inflows, a number of OECD countries have set explicit objectives to reduce migration, sometimes on overall migration or on specific categories.
- Labour migration policies are increasingly tailored to talent attraction and to meet specific labour market needs. This has been done by adjusting skills thresholds, usually upwards, by modifying quotas for labour migrants, often to increase them, and to more broadly revise eligibility criteria. New pathways for seasonal and skilled workers are being created.
- Shortage occupation lists for labour migration have mostly expanded, and labour market tests in countries which use them have mostly been streamlined.
- Asylum systems have become more restrictive in many countries, with faster procedures, reduced benefits, and new limits on family reunification, although some countries have introduced measures to improve access.
- International student policies are under review, with a number of countries tightening admission and post-study rights, while others are enhancing retention pathways to support labour market integration.
- Digitalisation of migration systems continues to advance, improving application processes, data management, and service delivery across multiple OECD countries.
- Regional and bilateral co-operation on migration has intensified, with new agreements facilitating labour mobility, return, and protection, including responses to climate-related displacement.
- Regularisation mechanisms have been used to address labour shortages in several OECD countries, often tied to employment in specific sectors, though implementation challenges remain.
- By institutionalising rolling or sector-specific regularisation schemes, often linked to shortage occupations and integration criteria, some countries are integrating them into broader migration management strategies.

Major policy trends in 2024-2025

Political shifts, often following elections, and responses to several years of growing migration, drove many of the policy changes in 2024-2025 in OECD countries. Record migration inflows and increasing asylum applications in 2022 and 2023 met with policy responses aiming to regulate migration more closely, if not setting policy objectives to reduce overall migration. For example, the United Kingdom Government announced its objective to reduce net migration in its White Paper of May 2025, while Belgium's 2025 Federal Coalition Agreement aims to reduce migration in asylum and family reunification. The Netherlands had already set reducing migration as a goal in its 2024 coalition agreement. Canada also set, for the first time, a threshold for overall temporary residents, including international students (as a proportion of its population), and has decided to reduce immigration targets.

Talent attraction remains however a common goal, with some competition and benchmarking among countries is apparent in this category. The levers of labour migration policy are being pulled to try to achieve

greater accuracy in meeting labour needs. For other migration categories, the trend is largely towards restrictions and more efforts are devoted to increasing forced and voluntary returns.

Labour migration is subject to more detailed and often stricter eligibility criteria, but not necessarily lower overall numbers

There is a clear trend, already apparent in 2023, of OECD countries structuring their labour migration channels to link them more closely to specific labour market needs. This has in many cases meant placing new restrictions on labour migration, whether in terms of numbers or in terms of the characteristics of labour migrants admitted.

One of the most visible signs of policies to limit migration can be seen in programme quotas or targets. For example, Canada is making an effort to reduce their share of temporary residents to 5% by the end of 2026. There were 673 650 temporary residents for 2025, falling to notional levels of 516 600 in 2026 and 543 600 in 2027. Student targets were 305 900 for each year, and 82 000 temporary foreign workers each year, with the category of International Mobility Program accounting for the remainder and comprising the planned decline. Meanwhile, the target for permanent residence admissions to Canada have been curtailed from prior three-year levels plans, to 395 000 in 2025 (previously 480 000) and 380 000 in 2026 (previously 500 000), with declines in the different economic class categories.

Countries where large labour migration programmes are driven by quotas have also seen changes. In some cases, these were reduced, as in Korea, which reduced its non-professional worker quotas, from the record high of 165 000 in 2024 to 130 000 in 2025. Other quota categories in Korea, however, such as seasonal workers and skilled workers, increased. Quotas have been expanded for seasonal workers in Austria. Germany doubled its quota for workers from the Western Balkans to 50 000. In Greece, the maximum number of positions to be filled by third-country nationals in 2025 was set at 89 920, a substantial increase from the previous years, although the seasonal quota within this – 45 620 – is a reduction from the previous 2023-2024 planning levels. Ireland doubled the quota for care workers and carers in the home under General Employment Permits to 2 000. Italy set quotas for work permits at 151 000 for 2024, up from 136 000 in 2023, with more than half for seasonal workers. The Italian Government announced its 2025 quota at 165 000 and three-year quota forecast for 2026-2028 with 164 850 for 2026, slightly increasing in the following years – more than half for seasonal work. The Japanese Government announced, in April 2025, targets for the Specified Skilled Worker programme for 2024-2029 of 820 000, twice the target for the first five years of this programme. Israel lifted its quotas for foreign workers, and for the first time in 2024 a general ceiling was set on the stock of foreign workers at 3.3% of the total resident population.

In other cases, the quotas remained mostly unchanged. Czechia maintained its quotas for its Qualified Worker programme, although it added some additional spots in 2025. Romania kept its quota for work permits at 100 000 in 2025, the same as in previous years, although from 2024 renewals will no longer be counted against the quota. Switzerland maintained its quotas for third-country nationals at the same level in 2024 and 2025, 8 500 plus 3 500 for UK nationals.

Conversely some countries reduced their numerical limits for employment-based migration or adapted their approach. Hungary revised its temporary work programme in March 2024, creating a “Guest Worker Permit” valid for specific roles with specific employers and for a maximum of three years; only certain nationals are eligible (Armenia, Georgia and the Philippines). The quota for the “Guest Worker Permit” was reduced from 65 000 in 2024 to 35 000 in 2025. In Austria, the annual quota (Settlement Ordinance) was lower in 2024 than 2023, although this applies only to certain categories of migrant. Lithuania replaced its previous sector-based quota decisions with a general population-based quota, set at 1.4% of the resident population (or 24 830 in 2025), for third-country nationals entering for employment; a higher wage threshold applies once the quota is reached – although highly qualified specialists are exempt.

In countries applying firm-level quotas, adjustments were also made in line with overall policy directions. In Canada, the ceiling was lowered for low-wage temporary foreign workers to 10% of the workforce in 2024, down from 20%, although some sectors are exempt. In Türkiye, which generally applies a 1:5 foreign worker-to-national requirement, large firms with high turnover are now exempt from the quotas for the first five employees and in certain sectors.

Some new labour migration programmes have been introduced. Hungary, in addition to introducing the “Guest Worker Permit” in 2024, also introduced a “National Permit”, in effect from 2025. While initially limited to certain occupations, in mid-2025 it was opened up to all occupations and the list of eligible nationalities expanded from six to eight. In 2024, Japan enacted legislation to replace the long-standing Technical Intern Training Program with a new labour migration channel, “Employment for Skill Development”, to start in April 2027. Ireland introduced a seasonal employment permit in 2025, with its first pilot application in the horticultural sector. New Zealand also added new seasonal pathways in 2025.

Elsewhere, labour channels have seen facilitations. New Zealand introduced changes in 2024 to make it easier to qualify for the Accredited Employer Work Visa, removing the median wage threshold and reducing work experience requirements. Spain, in 2024, adopted changes to its seasonal work programme with authorisations valid for up to four years, allowing up to nine months work annually in Spain contingent on their returning home between seasons.

Germany, implementing the 2023 Skilled Workers Immigration Act, introduced a temporary fast-track procedure for temporary work visas and permits, for foreigners offered jobs in shortage sectors including healthcare, IT, engineering, skilled trades, and transport. The accelerated procedures apply to the first 25 000 applicants.

Skills thresholds have moved up in some countries. The United Kingdom raised the education threshold for its main work permit scheme, in line with policy directions in the “Restoring Control over the Immigration System” White Paper published in May 2025. The qualification requirement for new Skilled Worker visa applicants has been raised from RQF Level 3 (A-levels) to RQF Level 6 (degree level). This meant that many occupations previously eligible were excluded, although lower-RQF jobs on the new Interim Temporary Shortage List or Immigration Salary List are still eligible.

For skilled migrants who have not completed their recognition process yet, some countries have introduced provisions to admit them while the process is underway. Denmark’s “Authorisation Scheme” for foreign healthcare professionals upskilling to achieve certification for regulated health professions was modified in 2024, to allow work for adaptation or training, and expanded beyond doctors and nurses to other healthcare professionals. The scheme now allows a six-month job-search period upon completion of the training. Germany, as part of its ongoing implementation of the November 2023 Skilled Workers Immigration Act, introduced provisions to allow entry for workers in regulated professions even if full recognition is pending, provided the migrant has a job offer and partial recognition.

Shortage occupation lists and sectors for labour migration are mostly expanding

Another indicator of the trend in labour migration policy is the extent of shortage occupation lists or shortage sector determinations, and the stringency of labour market tests. Along with a tight labour market, shortage lists have expanded in many countries. Denmark expanded its Positive List for shortage highly qualified and skilled occupations, to 162 and 49 occupations, respectively; social and healthcare workers were added, although with a limit of 1 000. Ireland’s Critical Skills list expanded from 52 in 2023 to more than 80 by the end of 2024. Some lists grew only slightly; Austria’s 2025 list has 81 occupations, up from 78 in 2024, as well as supplementary regional occupation lists. Japan expanded the number of sectors and occupations eligible under its Specified Skilled Worker system. Korea’s non-professional temporary work visa also expanded in 2024 to cover additional occupations in restaurants, forestry and mining. France introduced, in 2024, a four-year residence permit for medical and pharmacy professionals. It also included

agricultural professions in the shortage occupation list for all regions of metropolitan France. In 2025, France reviewed the shortage occupation list that can now also be used for targeted regularisation related to employment (see below).

Not all shortage lists expanded: Luxembourg, which introduced its first list in 2023, reduced the number of occupations on the list in 2024. Flanders cut its bottleneck list in 2025, excluding all low-skilled occupations, bringing the list from 241 to 29 occupations.

The United Kingdom, when raising the education threshold for its Skilled Worker route, introduced a new interim 18-month Temporary Shortage List (TSL) of over 60 occupations below the education threshold in July 2025 and charged the Migration Advisory Committee with assessing it. Australia replaced its Temporary Skills Shortage visa with a Skills in Demand stream, comprising Specialist Skills, Core Skills and a Labour Agreement stream. The Core Skills Occupation list has 456 occupations; it replaced the previous system under which three separate shortage lists had more than 200 occupations each. The visa leads to permanent residence. Direct Entry into Australia's permanent Employer Nomination Scheme, for those who were not previously temporary residents, requires occupations on the Core Skills Occupation list, as well as meeting salary thresholds.

The labour market test has been eased in a number of countries. Italy reduced the duration of its labour market test to eight days. The Slovak Republic reduced the mandatory vacancy listing from 30 to 20 working days, and the Labour Office must then decide within 15 working days instead of 30. Following its October 2024 Migration Strategy, Poland adopted, in April 2025, a reform eliminating the labour market test and replacing it with a "protected professions" list, to include occupations where local workers are available and hiring a non-national is subject to restrictions. Poland also introduced, in 2025, fast-track processing for employers crucial to the Polish economy or hiring in shortage occupations. In Czechia, in 2024, provided a labour market test exemption for persons with certain nationalities (mostly non-EU/EFTA OECD countries, as well as Singapore and, from 2025, Chinese Taipei).

Other countries moved in a different direction. In Belgium, Flanders lengthened the labour market test to nine weeks along with the shortened occupational shortage list, and the obligation to justify failure to hire locally. Similarly, Latvia imposed a labour market test with the requirement to justify vacancies to the Public Employment Service, assess candidates and justify refusals to hire them.

Highly qualified workers are being facilitated

For the highly qualified, the general approach in OECD countries has been to facilitate labour migration routes. In the EU, the overall framework for the highly qualified is heavily influenced by the EU Blue Card Directive. Many countries subject to the Directive transposed its recast in 2023-2024, leading to changes in the conditions for admission of highly-qualified workers. This includes Croatia, Czechia, Estonia, Finland, Latvia, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Romania, the Slovak Republic, Sweden and others. Most adjustments were in setting lower salary thresholds for specific groups and allowing recognition of prior experience of IT professionals – in lieu of educational qualifications.

Skilled workers have been facilitated in other ways. Türkiye introduced a work-permit exemption, valid up to three years, for skilled workers in certain sectors facing labour shortages, and for skilled workers holding temporary protection and humanitarian residence permits. Türkiye also lowered the salary threshold – relative to its minimum wage – for skilled workers.

Specific programmes to attract talent continue to be introduced. Germany introduced a new job-seeker visa in 2024, the "Opportunity Card". Korea introduced a "Top-Tier Talent Visa". On the talent attraction and retention side, Canada launched Rural and Francophone Community Integration Pilots in 2025, meant to anchor new arrivals in their local communities.

New Digital Nomad visas continue to be introduced, although these remain small-volume programmes (OECD, 2022^[1]). Italy rolled one out in April 2024 and Türkiye in September 2024, followed by Bulgaria in 2025. Hungary and Czechia adapted their existing digital nomad schemes, Czechia to expand it to additional nationalities and occupations in 2025, and Hungary to raise income requirements. Türkiye, like Czechia, limits its visa to certain nationalities (in its case, Canada, the United States, and 34 European countries). Croatia extended the stay in 2025 under its Digital Nomad scheme from 9 to 18 months.

Start-up visas also expand, to address gaps in the investor and entrepreneur framework and to compete with other countries. Greece introduced a start-up investor visa in December 2024. Korea introduced a Special Visa for foreign entrepreneurial talent. Türkiye introduced a Tech Visa in 2024, offering a work permit exemption and, once the firm is established, a three-year permit and favourable fiscal, benefit and family reunification conditions.

Golden Visa schemes, on the other hand, are being phased out and made more restrictive, in response to concern over their impact on housing for locals and the limited evidence of their overall positive impact. Greece doubled the real estate threshold for its Golden Visa scheme in 2024, to EUR 800 000 in high-demand areas, with a ban on short-term rental of property acquired. Spain formally closed its Golden Visa programme in April 2025, due to concern over rising housing costs and low return of the scheme.

Other countries however continue to introduce new investor visas. Hungary, for example, introduced a ten-year “guest investor” permit. New Zealand introduced two new active investor categories in 2025, for capital amounts of NZD 5 and 10 million; the latter includes not only businesses but also bond and property investments. The Netherlands, however, abolished its foreign investor scheme in April 2024, due to limited take-up and added value. The US President Donald Trump announced an intention to introduce a Gold Card in February 2025, for investors of more than USD 5 million, to replace the current EB-5 investor visa. However, aside from a government website to express interest in a “TrumpCard”, no official statement or further details have been given and no steps taken in legislation or regulation,

Compliance measures focussed on labour migrants continue to be introduced

A number of policy shifts have occurred to address concerns over abuse, fraud and exploitation of foreign workers. Australia introduced new criminal offences for coercive work practices, and the ability to ban non-compliant employers from hiring migrant workers. The possibility for victims of exploitation to remain have been expanded. Australia is piloting, from mid-2024, a six-to-12 months visa for such workers to remain. Chain subcontracting and posting continue to be a concern for authorities. This may be true even in higher-skilled schemes: the Netherlands proposed new rules for the Employer of Record arrangements for highly skilled workers placed into other firms, to require the actual firm of employment to also be a recognised sponsor, and limiting maximum placement to two years.

Contract transparency can also help combat abuse. Poland, from 2025, requires employers to submit contracts to authorities prior to start of work. Another measure is to ensure that salaries are not undercut; Latvia in 2025 set required financial means for work permit holders at the average wage within the sector of employment, or the collective agreement wage, whichever is higher.

To ensure that proper admission procedures are used, to prevent skirting entry requirements and unauthorised job-seeking, Finland prohibited in-country first-residence permit applications for visa-exempt nationals and Schengen visa holders. Some schemes were judged too problematic: Norway eliminated its au pair scheme in 2024 following concern over misuse as low-wage labour.

In Croatia, the rapid increase in labour migration in 2023-2024 drove some reforms in 2025. Work permit holders may now stay for up to three years, change jobs and work for more than one employer. However, additional requirements were imposed on firms sponsoring foreign workers, including proof of continuing activity and at least one Croatian or EU/EFTA national employee in the previous year. To combat fraudulent

sponsorship of foreign workers by recruitment agencies and employers, sponsors now are fined if the worker fails to start work or their contract is terminated within three months.

International students are sought after, but some destinations impose tighter conditions

While most OECD countries continue to have policies to attract international students, the conditions for stay have become more restricted in some countries. In the United Kingdom, in 2024 the right to bring dependents was curtailed for students except for full-time postgraduate students, those on government scholarships, and those studying at doctoral or postgraduate level courses lasting at least 9 months. The White Paper published in May 2025 identified changes in the post-graduation visa for students, reducing it from 24 to 18 months.

Australia increased its English proficiency score requirement for student visas, financial capacity and visa application charges. Canada imposed caps on student admissions. Denmark, in 2025, withdrew work rights, the job-search extension and accompanying family rights from students in non-state approved higher education programmes. Poland increased its verification of prior education and language proficiency, imposing in 2025 a B2-level proficiency in the language of study and a requirement that universities must report non-attendance, and face a 50% cap on international students. The Slovak Republic introduced rules to forbid holders of study permits from changing residence permit to another status without finishing their studies. Sweden reviewed its policy settings for students and researchers, and proposed measures with stricter academic progression requirements and tighter work restrictions, from 2026, while facilitating the post-graduation stay of doctoral students and international researchers.

Other OECD countries focussed on accelerating and facilitating procedures to make their countries more attractive for international students. Costa Rica introduced, in 2025, higher education institution accreditation with the immigration authorities, to accelerate processing for student and faculty immigration procedures for accredited institutions. Japan introduced a one-year post-graduation job-search opportunity for tertiary-educated graduates of Japanese language institutes in National Strategic Special Zones. New Zealand extended post-study work visas – valid for up to three years, depending on the qualification obtained, of at least Bachelor level and following a minimum of one year study in New Zealand. Spain increased the maximum weekly working hours for students to 30 hours per week, in 2025.

OECD countries are imposing more stringent asylum policies

A number of countries have curtailed refugee resettlement. The United States suspended its refugee resettlement programme in 2025. Finland also halved its refugee resettlement cap in 2024, to 500. Germany announced its intention to end voluntary admission programmes to the extent possible. Australia, however, maintained its level, while Canada's Levels Plan saw slight declines from 2024 to 2025 for targets for government-assisted and privately sponsored refugees in the Refugees and Protected Persons.

Other forms of protection have also seen stricter conditions. In the United States, the incoming administration in 2025 ended a categorical parole programme for citizens of Cuba, Haiti, Nicaragua and Venezuela, and announced the withdrawal of temporary protected status for citizens of Nicaragua and Honduras, following the announced end of temporary protected status (TPS) for those from Haiti, Venezuela, Nepal, Cameroon and Afghanistan. Protection for persons who fled Ukraine following the full-scale Russian invasion in 2022 largely continues across the OECD (See Box 2.1).

In the European Union, the EU Pact on Migration and Asylum, adopted by the European Council in 2024, is behind legislative initiatives to adapt national legislation on border management and asylum, before the deadline of May 2026.

A number of countries are attempting to reduce asylum requests. To achieve this, eligibility, procedures and reception are often reviewed. Belgium's new coalition government in 2025 published a federal coalition agreement with migration objectives through to 2029, which include reduction of asylum requests. Legislative proposals focus on reducing reception, raising the income requirement, and ending public welfare payments to asylum seekers. In December 2024, the Netherlands restricted access to shelter and financial support for asylum seekers with a low likelihood of receiving protection. In Ireland, social welfare payments to beneficiaries of temporary protection in state-provided accommodation were reduced.

In February 2024, Chile introduced stricter criteria for determining status, excluding "manifestly unfounded applications", and disqualifying applicants who spent more than 60 days in a third country prior to entry. Ireland published a bill, to take effect in June 2026, setting a 90-day limit for processing applications from countries where the EU-wide recognition rate is below 20%. In France, the maximum litigation period for asylum claims was reduced from 12 to three months. Finland tightened asylum application conditions in July 2024, allowing the government to limit asylum applications at certain borders. Further, asylum applicants may no longer switch to other permit grounds within Finland. Sweden also closed its track for rejected asylum seekers to transition to work permits in 2025. In the Netherlands, under the proposed Asylum Emergency Measures Act, permanent asylum residency would be replaced by three-year fixed-term permits subject to review for renewal.

One type of restriction in asylum is limiting family reunification for beneficiaries of protection. Austria suspended this for individuals with protected status, including those granted subsidiary protection or refugee status, in March 2025. Belgium proposes to increase the waiting period for family reunification. Germany also introduced a bill in June 2025 to suspend family reunification for individuals with subsidiary protection status for two years. In December 2024, the Netherlands approved limits to family reunification.

The changing circumstances in Syria also led to specific changes. Many countries paused or suspended the processing of asylum applications. A number of countries have begun offering voluntary return assistance for returns to Syria, including Austria and Sweden. Some countries also suspended asylum application processing for Syrian applicants.

In July 2025, the Greek Parliament approved a measure to suspend, for three months, receipt of asylum applications for persons arriving by boat. In March 2025, the Polish Parliament passed legislation allowing a 60-day suspension of receipt of asylum applications for individuals entering the country irregularly, particularly from Belarus.

In other OECD countries, access to asylum and conditions for asylum seekers were eased. Costa Rica reformed its asylum regulations in June 2024 to eliminate the deadline for making asylum claims, to extend the same conditions to asylum seekers as to refugees, and to grant work permits to asylum seekers while their application is being processed. In 2024, Germany reduced the waiting period for asylum seekers and tolerated persons in reception centres to access the labour market, from nine to six months. Luxembourg lifted the labour market test requirement for asylum seekers with work rights. Canada introduced family-based humanitarian pathways for foreign nationals who have family in Canada, for situations in Ukraine, the Americas, Sudan and Gaza.

A number of European countries imposed temporary border checks within the Schengen area, in response to concern over movement within the area by irregular border crossers, often intending to seek protection. Austria maintained these in 2024 and 2025. Germany introduced them in September 2024. At the time of writing this report, nine European countries had reported operating internal border checks within the Schengen area.

Box 2.1. Extension of temporary protection statuses for persons fleeing Ukraine

Ukrainians continue to benefit from temporary protection status across the OECD, with some changes. The European Council decision of June 2024 to extend the protection regime for displaced Ukrainians led to EU countries extending protection until 4 March 2026. Countries which apply the Temporary Protection Directive followed suit. Denmark extended special residence permits to 17 March 2027, Switzerland until March 2026, and Iceland until 2 March 2026.

The United States extended Temporary Protected Status for Ukraine until 19 October 2026, with automatic extension of employment authorisation through 19 April 2026. Canada ended applications for its Canada-Ukraine Authorization for Emergency Travel (CUAET) on 31 December 2024, but Ukrainians who arrived before April 2024 still benefit from extended permits.

Conditions have changed in a number of countries. When extending temporary protection, Finland excluded third-country nationals who held temporary permits in Ukraine prior to the conflict. Norway's collective protection scheme now excludes dual nationals of Ukraine and another safe country, and individuals from regions of Ukraine deemed safe are excluded. Beneficiaries now risk losing protection if they return to Ukraine without a valid reason. Switzerland likewise revised its policy in December 2024 to specify that only Ukrainians fleeing areas occupied or under active attack by Russian forces are eligible for S status.

From 2025, Czechia will offer a new type of long-term permit to Ukrainians with temporary protection, allowing a five-year stay. In Austria, from October 2024, Ukrainians with temporary protection are eligible to acquire a Red-White-Red Card Plus for settlement and unrestricted labour market access, if they have worked for at least one year full-time in the preceding two years. Latvia, from December 2024, issues temporary residence permits for three years instead of two.

Return is high priority for many OECD countries

Many OECD countries are increasing the policy priority of achieving returns. Germany's coalition agreement in April 2025 points at expanding the list of safe countries and increasing the number of returns. In the Netherlands, measures submitted in 2024 are meant to accelerate procedures for nationals of designated "safe countries of origin" and increase the return of rejected asylum seekers. Norway's Return Strategy 2025 – 2030 aims to streamline both voluntary and forced returns, strengthen reintegration support and engage with origin countries. In January 2025, the Swedish Government adopted a bill that extends the validity period for refusal of entry or expulsion decisions from four to five years. Additionally, the Swedish Migration Agency was granted the authority to issue longer re-entry bans for individuals who have not left Sweden following an expulsion decision. Switzerland in April 2025 deemed return reasonable for specific categories of Afghan asylum claimants, such as healthy, single adult men, if circumstances are favourable. Frontex, the agency which supports EU countries in returns, implemented organisational changes in 2024 to offer more flexible solutions for return operations. Frontex is also shifting efforts towards handling more voluntary returns.

On the receiving side, Mexico took steps to prepare for possible mass deportations from the United States, by readying temporary shelters in northern border cities and implementing a repatriation strategy for returning Mexicans.

In March 2025, the United States introduced a mobile app ("CBP Home") to allow persons unlawfully present to voluntarily notify the government of their intent to leave the country, and receive departure and port-of-exit instructions. In January 2025, to assist Mexican nationals at risk of deportation, the government

launched a mobile app with a “panic button” for Mexicans in the United States detained by authorities to notify consulates and family members.

Regional and bilateral co-operation continues

In Latin America and the Caribbean, the Cartagena +40 Process in 2024-2025 included recognition of climate change and environmental disasters as significant drivers of human mobility, prompting states to expand their protection frameworks to include those displaced by such factors. The Chile Declaration and its accompanying 10-year Plan of Action (2024-2034) includes a roadmap for integrating disaster displacement into national asylum and migration systems, promoting complementary pathways such as humanitarian visas and temporary protection mechanisms.

Bilateral agreements continue to shape labour migration pathways across the OECD. For example, Costa Rica and Guatemala signed a joint protocol in May 2025 to regulate labour migration flows and promote fair recruitment practices. Mexico, as part of its Comprehensive Human Mobility Strategy launched in 2024, expanded its social programmes “Youth Building the Future” and “Sowing Life” to countries in the region. The Mexican Government pledged to expand regular labour migration pathways.

Germany signed bilateral migration agreements with Kenya in 2024, and concluded one with Uzbekistan. These agreements cover migration of skilled workers and facilitation of return of irregular migrants. Japan signed a Memorandum of Co-operation with Tajikistan for its SSW programme in 2024. Austria signed an MOU with Indonesia in 2024, and signed another with Ghana, the latter covering co-operation in preventing irregular migration, return and readmission, and legal mobility. In a reversal of the trend towards bilateral co-operation, Israel temporarily suspended its requirements for foreign workers to be recruited exclusively through bilateral agreements, in a number of industries, including construction and agriculture, although recruitment outside of BLAs is subject to a quota. Many OECD countries are implementing BLAs and MOUs previously signed. Italy signed a protocol with Tunisia in 2024 for the entry of 12 000 workers over three years, while Greece took steps to implement its agreement with Egypt, and Austria saw the Philippines Migrant Centre open in Vienna.

Family reunification requirements are subject to adjustment

From 2024, Denmark's integration requirement for family reunification now allows applicants to demonstrate five years employment with significant Danish-language interaction instead of passing a language test, and the financial requirement was halved, to DKK 57 000 (EUR 7 600). Spain extended family reunification rights to de facto couples and expanded family ties, in 2025. Transposition of the EU Blue Card Directive in European countries in some cases led to more favourable conditions for family of Blue Card holders and lower statutory processing times. This has been the general trend for highly qualified migrants;

In December 2024, Italy increased the general residence requirement to be able to apply for family reunification to two continuous years. Norway increased the income threshold for family reunification. Slovenia introduced, in November 2024, a Slovenian language proficiency requirement for renewals of temporary residence permits for family reunification, at A1 (basic) level.

Attracting back nationals is still a policy goal in some countries

Greece saw the signature of a Memorandum of Co-operation between the Ministry of Foreign Affairs and the Public Employment Service to engage with the Greek diaspora, informing them about job opportunities in Greece and to create incentives for productive return. Croatia instituted incentives for foreigners of Croatian descent, and their families, to come to Croatia, in 2025. They may now receive a two-year permit with unrestricted labour market access, and the possibility to start a naturalisation application immediately.

Spain adopted new regulations in 2025 to encourage return, including talent attraction targeted at Spanish scientific, technical and research professionals. It also includes a Return Office offering integration services to returning Spaniards.

Digitalisation of migration procedures continues

The ongoing trend in OECD countries is to move procedures to digital platforms (OECD, 2024^[2]). This continues at pace in different domains. For example, France implemented new procedures in its ANEF remote service to implement the digitalisation of applications for residence permits, with enhanced support for users. The 2024 reform to Czech legislation digitalises the Foreigners Residence Registry; communication regarding changes of employment of work-permit holders must now be done online. In Estonia, with the extension of Temporary Protected Status for Ukrainians, renewal is required through the self-service portal of the Police and Border Guards. Iceland introduced an online portal for residence permit applications in March 2025. Italy introduced digitalisation of the contract of stay and integration agreement in 2024. Korea introduced a Mobile Residence Card for registered foreign residents, with the same legal validity as the physical card. Some new policies rely on existing e-Government platforms; for example, Türkiye's work-permit exemption system was introduced with an online portal for applicants to file applications.

Regularisations related to employment

As many OECD countries step up their efforts to return migrants with an irregular status, the question of how to treat those migrants who lack status but are in employment emerges. Labour migration is, as noted, increasingly focussed on shortage and skilled occupations, but there may be jobs for which no labour migration routes are provided and where employers are hiring migrants with an irregular status, or resorting to such hiring due to inefficiencies in the regular channels. An alternative to deportation of these workers – which may be impractical, costly or politically challenging – is to establish a regularisation mechanism. Regularisation programmes grant status to foreign nationals present in the country without a document allowing stay; these may be asylum seekers whose claim has been rejected, those whose right to stay has elapsed, former students, or those who entered irregularly. There are regularisations for humanitarian reasons, such as those to grant status to undocumented children, or other vulnerable categories. Regularisation programmes are the principal means by which migrants without a regular status acquire one (Hendow and Qaisrani, 2024^[3]). Most regularisations are done in relation to the labour market and employment. This section reviews a number of recent and ongoing regularisation mechanisms, starting with one-off regularisations, then continuous regularisation mechanisms, followed by regularisations not for employment. Past experience shows how one-off regularisations may work in transition periods and as part of broader reform of labour migration channels and the fight against illegal employment of foreigners, while continuous regularisations may be more effective in addressing gaps in the legal labour migration framework in its coverage of certain occupations in demand.

One-off employment-based regularisations

The first type of regularisation is a one-off regularisation requiring a job offer or prior experience, limited to specific sectors. Italy, which has had a number of regularisations since the 1990s, held a regularisation during the COVID-19 pandemic. This two-track regularisation programme started in May 2020. In the first track, for workers in the agricultural and domestic sectors, employers could apply to conclude an employment contract with a foreign national living on the territory or declare an existing irregular employment relationship. Employers were meant to pay a fee of EUR 500 although some employers made the undocumented worker pay the fee. Applicants were thus dependent on their employers' willingness to issue a formal contract so that they would be able to apply. In the second track, undocumented people

who had recently worked in one of these sectors could themselves apply for a six-month residence permit to look for new work.

The regularisation measure only concerned agri-food and domestic workers, including domestic care workers. The agri-food sector was suffering from restrictions to international travel linked to the pandemic preventing the arrival of seasonal workers from abroad. Other sectors with a high rate of undeclared employment by undocumented foreigners (e.g. restaurants, tourism, cleaning, and construction), were not eligible; workers needed to prove that they worked in one of the two sectors covered by the regularisation.

An applicant needed to have an employment contract to apply, and the duration of the residence permit issued to successful applicants depended on the length of the job contract. Workers who were issued a permit based on an existing employment relationship (track one) received a residence and work permit linked to the duration of the work contract. They could be issued a residence permit valid for up to a year to look for another job, in any sector if they lost that job. Under track two of the programme, people whose residence permit had recently expired and had work experience in one of the targeted economic sectors could apply for a six-month residence permit to look for work.

Data for the first year of the scheme show 230 000 applications were made, but far fewer processed, and of those, about one-fourth of them were refused. In total, about 38 000 residence permits were issued. Most were for track 1. Of the 10 088 temporary job-seeking permits issued under track 2, 6 593 were converted into work permits, indicating a difficulty to find work in the period provided.

In Greece, reform of the Immigration Code in 2023 (Law 5078/2023 – art. 193) introduced an employment-based regularisation scheme. The eligible group had to be residing in Greece prior to 30 November 2023 and have a job offer in agriculture, construction, or tourism. The application was filed by the employer on behalf of the worker, and the application period ran from 9 February to 31 December 2024. The filing fee was EUR 300. The Ministry of Migration and Asylum reported 46 550 applications. By May 2025, 55% of them had been processed; of these, about three in five were approved. Beneficiaries receive a three-year residence permit allowing employment. The government had previously estimated the undocumented population at about 300 000, although this was not expected to be the pool of persons eligible for the focussed employment-based regularisation.

Canada introduced an Out-Of-Status Construction Workers pilot program. First introduced as a pilot in 2019 and extended from 2020 to 31 December 2024, the programme was designed to facilitate access to permanent resident status for construction workers in the Greater Toronto Area who had fallen out of status and been working without authorisation. The limit was set to 1 000 workers. The scheme allowed workers to apply for permanent residency if they had entered Canada as a temporary resident but currently had no status, lived in Canada for at least 5 years worked a minimum of 4 680 hours in these 5 years (1 full-time job OR 1 or more part-time jobs OR a combination of full-time and part-time work) in the construction sector, had family in Canada. Applicants required a referral letter signed by the Canadian Labour Congress attesting that they appear to meet the conditions for the policy. The fees involved are about CAD 1 200. This sector-based approach, with involvement of the social partners, is unusual.

Rolling regularisations for employment

Another type of regularisation is the continuous employment-based regularisation. There is an example in France, where the continuous regularisation mechanism dates from November 2012 “Valls circular” which enabled the discretionary regularisation of undocumented workers based on their employment. Applicants must have resided continuously in France for at least five years and worked: either eight months over the preceding two years, or 30 months over the preceding five years. In exceptional cases, regularisation was also possible for undocumented people who have lived continuously in France for three years and who had worked for 24 months during that time (continuously or not), including eight months in the prior year. The employer had to complete and sign the request. The decision making process was at the discretion of

the prefecture, so undocumented workers who met all requirements could still be refused regularisation. The fee was EUR 425. Waiting times for an appointment at the local prefecture to submit a regularisation application were long – up to two years – and as much as a further year to receive a response.

In January 2024, a reform of French Migration and Asylum law introduced a new approach, and in 2025 the “Retailleu circular” abolished the previous mechanism. The new regularisation regime, currently only valid until December 2026, is focussed on undocumented workers in shortage occupations, again at the discretion of the prefecture. The new regime allows issuance of a Temporary Residence Permit to an undocumented worker who: has resided in France continuously for at least the last three years; has worked in France for at least a year over the past 2 years in a shortage occupation for the geographical area; is currently employed in a shortage occupation for the geographical area, and is “integrated” into French society and does not have a criminal record. In May 2025, the government released an updated list of 80 shortage occupations (*métiers en tension*). As in the past, and until the end of 2026, occupations on the list for all of France include “agricultural employees”, “nurses”, “housekeepers”, “cooks”, “domestic employees”, “market gardeners/horticulturists”, as well as hotel and construction industry employees, among other jobs. Since the application is received by, and processed by, prefectures, the outcome of the regularisation mechanism depends on the prefectoral staff and resources devoted to handling these applications.

Another example of ongoing regularisation is Spain’s “rootedness for employment” mechanism. Spain has had a mechanism for regularisation for social or employment reasons since 2005, with later additions of regularisation for family, and later education. Employment regularisation (*arraigo laboral*) now requires at least six months of employment, demonstrated through different means. In *arraigo social*, although employment is an eligibility criterion, a residence permit can be issued to applicants who are not in employment, if they can prove social integration, which is determined by the local authority. The number of migrants holding regularisation permits for work or social reasons has declined since 2022.

In May 2025 the Spanish government introduced a new regularisation programme. Described as “transitional, exceptional and time-limited”, it was expected to grant residence and work permits to some 300 000 migrants who had arrived in Spain before 31 December 2024. The new regulations set out five types of settlement that migrants can use to apply for regularisation: social, socio-occupational, family, socio-training and “second chance” – a route aimed at people who have held a residence permit in the last two years but, for some reason, have not renewed it. The regulations also reduce the length of time required to stay in Spain in order to qualify for “arraigo” (setting down roots in a given location) from three to two years, make the requirements that must be met more flexible, and allow both employed and self-employed work to be counted from the outset.

Portugal had an “expression of interest” (EOI) mechanism from 2018 to 2024, which allowed migrants in an irregular situation in Portugal to obtain work or self-employment permits. More than half of all new immigrants during the EOI period entered and regularised their status through this mechanism, especially nationals from CPLP countries (Community of Portuguese Language Countries), such as Brazil, Angola, and Guinea-Bissau. Portugal’s 2024 Action Plan for Migration repealed this EOI. Abolishing this was done in conjunction with efforts to improve the process for hiring from abroad. The Portuguese Government signed an agreement with employer confederations and business associations, specifying contractual obligations and the requirement to provide training, language learning and accommodation; the government set a 20-day processing time for visas.

Germany offers, since 2015, a rolling regularisation for persons in tolerated status to acquire a residence permit which allows them to remain legally in Germany. Employment is one part of this, but not the only part. Temporary suspension of deportation (“Duldung”) covers individuals who cannot return or be deported. It is not a residence permit, but a temporary status which registers presence in Germany, and grants access to benefits at the same conditions as asylum seekers. It does not grant automatic access to

work, but tolerated persons may apply for a permit to work, and schemes for vocational training or work offer protection from deportation.

They may be granted a residence permit if they have “become permanently integrated”: i.e. a) financially self-sufficient through work or can be expected to become self-sufficient through work, b) know German (A2 level), c) are committed to the “free democratic order” and have a basic knowledge of the legal and social order and living conditions in Germany, and d) have lived in Germany with a suspension of deportation for six years, or four years if they live with a minor, unmarried child.¹ Persons under 27 years of age must have at least three years presence in Germany with Duldung.

To make it easier to qualify for this option, in 2022 Germany introduced an “Opportunity Right of Residency”, available from November 2022. Those with “Duldung” who have been in Germany for at least five years before 31 October 2022 may be issued an 18 month residence permit, granting labour market access. This helps them meet the self-sufficiency, language and proof of identity criteria necessary for regularisation.

One-off regularisations not based exclusively on employment

Another recent example is the 2022 Irish Regularisation of Long-Term Undocumented Migrants. This time-limited one-off (“once in a generation” officially) programme was open between 31 January and 31 July 2022. This scheme was designed to give long-term undocumented people without a current permission to remain in Ireland the chance to regularise their status, access the labour market and begin their path to Irish citizenship. The scheme was only open to those who did not have a current permission to reside. Being in employment was not an eligibility criterion; it was based instead on residence, good character and conduct. A lower residence threshold applied for families with underage children, requiring three years instead of four years of irregular stay. The permitted length of absence from the State was 60 days and the principal applicant needed to be over 18 in order to apply. Undocumented children needed to have a parent or guardian in Ireland who could apply on their behalf. The application fee for undocumented migrants was EUR 700 for a family; EUR 550 for an individual; no fee was required for international protection applicants.

The government was aware that there would be some vulnerable people who would meet the criteria for the scheme but would not be in employment or unable to submit evidence to prove that they had been in employment in Ireland. Even so, employers played an important role in providing proof of residence. Dependence on employers for proof was problematic when employers were reluctant to support applicants, for fear that they would be pursued (prosecuted) for breaching employment laws.

Overall, 6 548 applications on behalf of 8 311 people were received for the scheme. The acceptance rate was about 70%. The lack of an accurate estimate of the undocumented population makes it difficult to establish the take-up rate, but one estimate, by the Migrant Rights Centre of Ireland, suggests that about half the undocumented population in Ireland applied. The MRCI further noted that 12% of the undocumented migrants who had come forward to enquire about the scheme were ineligible. While not requiring employment, 55% of working age applicants, were in employment and 11% were self-employed. Half were employed in one of three sectors: “hospitality/tourism”, “food and drink” and “cleaning/maintenance”.

Colombia’s 2021 regularisation programme for Venezuelan nationals is an example of a scheme designed to cope with the consequences of a particular sudden inflow, with significant employment impact. It was launched, partly because the government saw that earlier schemes issuing two-year permits were not working. More than half of the Venezuelans in the country remained undocumented (56% at the end of 2020). The 2021 programme was offered to those in Colombia prior to 31 January 2021 or entering legally from that date to 28 May 2023. The online registration in a central register allowed Venezuelans to receive

a temporary residence permit valid for ten years, during which time they can apply for Colombia's indefinite residence permit – which requires five years of residence. There was no fee for this.

In September 2024, a new decree authorised issuance of special stay permits to Venezuelans who are guardians of minors residing in Colombia; about 540 000 Venezuelans responsible for 270 000 Venezuelan minors with temporary protection are estimated to be eligible. Further, in December 2024, Colombia's Ministry of Foreign Affairs created a Special Visitor Visa for eligible Venezuelan nationals – those present in Colombia as of 4 December 2024 – to allow them to regularise their status in Colombia and have access to employment, education and healthcare. Colombia also decided to recognise expired Venezuelan passports for the purposes of entry, exit and stay.

Costa Rica offered a regularisation in 2022 aimed primarily at Venezuelans, Nicaraguans and Cubans. The application period was from September to December 2022, for migrants present irregularly prior to March 2022. The regularisation did not require proof of employment. The cost of the application was about USD 100. In addition, in 2024, Costa Rica authorised overstayers to pay a fine and resubmit applications for legal stay.

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Notes

¹ These requirements were reduced from eight and six respectively, in 2022.

3

Recent developments in migrant integration policy

In a context of increasing fiscal pressure in the field of integration and the widespread policy goal of maximising the productive potential of migrants, this chapter offers an overview of the notable trends in integration policy in OECD countries over the past year, with a focus on reforms in the field of recognition of the skills and qualifications of migrants, as well as innovative uses of digitisation and artificial intelligence in the integration field.

In Brief

Key findings

- While some OECD countries are expanding integration and inclusion frameworks (e.g. Belgium, Canada, Germany), others have tightened access and increased obligations (e.g. Finland, the Netherlands).
- Integration is increasingly tied to labour market needs: Countries like Belgium, Canada, Germany, Luxembourg and Spain are linking integration more closely to labour shortages, especially in care, IT and skilled trades.
- New programmes promote rapid labour market integration: Germany's Job-Turbo and Belgium's Turboplan combine language learning with fast employment placement and employer engagement to boost early integration.
- Protecting migrants from abuse and discrimination is a growing focus: Countries such as Italy and Finland are tackling labour exploitation, while Denmark, Finland, Spain and Sweden are advancing anti-racism strategies.
- Decentralisation of integration continues: Belgium, Finland, Switzerland, Ireland and Luxembourg are shifting integration responsibilities to local or regional authorities to improve responsiveness and co-ordination.
- Monitoring and evaluation are being strengthened: Germany and Sweden have developed new integration dashboards and barometers to better track outcomes across socio-economic and cultural dimensions.
- Targeted support for migrant women is growing: Finland, Germany, Ireland, Korea, Luxembourg and Mexico have introduced specific measures to support labour market integration for women migrants.
- Citizenship rules are tightening in several countries: Finland, Hungary and the Netherlands have introduced longer residence requirements, cultural or language tests and conditions that may restrict access to citizenship.
- Recognition of skills is being streamlined: Belgium, Canada, Czechia, Germany, Norway and others are reducing processing times and creating priority pathways for migrants in shortage occupations.
- Bridging and micro-credential programmes are scaling up: Countries like Austria, Canada, France and Germany are developing flexible pathways for migrants to fill skill gaps without full requalification.
- Digitisation is improving service access and co-ordination: Countries like Denmark, Luxembourg and the Netherlands use centralised digital platforms to provide migrants with streamlined access to healthcare, housing and education.
- AI enhances language learning, job matching and planning: Tools in Austria, Germany and Switzerland personalise learning, predict settlement needs and better align migrant skills with labour market demands.
- Digital integration brings new risks: While AI increases efficiency, countries must address risks of exclusion, data privacy breaches, and bias to ensure equitable access for all migrants.

Main developments in integration policy

Over the past year, the orientation of integration policy in OECD countries has evolved to reflect the changes seen in many member countries – both in the economic and political climate. While some governments have strengthened integration frameworks and taken steps toward inclusion – recognising the long-term social and economic dividends of early integration – others, have tightened access to services, introduced restrictive measures, or framed integration conditions as a migrant obligation. These developments underscore a complex and evolving landscape where labour market demands, humanitarian obligations, and political considerations intersect.

Greater alignment with broader economic and demographic goals

Across OECD countries, in the context of ageing populations and widespread labour shortages integration of foreign residents – notably those who have arrived recently – is increasingly viewed as a strategic lever to address broader economic and demographic challenges.

In Germany, for example, skilled migration reforms and integration pathways are explicitly linked to efforts to mitigate labour shortages. The new Job-Turbo Action Plan, launched in late 2023, is designed to rapidly integrate refugees into the labour market by combining early employment with continued language learning and skills development. The three-phase approach begins with orientation and basic language courses, aiming to bring participants to A2/B1 German levels, with accelerated placement for those with in-demand qualifications. Once basic language skills are achieved, job centres intensify placement efforts, offering tailored support to connect refugees with employers, alongside workplace-based language training and on-the-job learning. A final phase focusses on career advancement, including further qualifications, vocational training and coaching to enable progression into skilled roles. The plan includes stronger employer engagement, simplified job-matching initiatives such as Job Turbo Action Days, and increased case management at job centres, with binding integration plans and conditional benefits. It also prioritises the recognition of foreign qualifications and targets sectors with acute labour shortages, notably care, trades and IT. By fast-tracking labour market access, the Job-Turbo aims to reduce long-term unemployment among refugees, alleviate skills shortages and support social and economic integration. Early results indicate strong participation, with around 200 000 refugees already finding employment through the scheme.

In Belgium, the Flemish Government has approved a concept note for a Turboplan for better civic integration and faster employment. This plan introduces ten actions to strengthen labour integration policies, demanding more participation from newcomers while offering guidance towards sustainable employment. The plan prioritises training for low-skilled individuals while concurrently seeking to support highly skilled individuals in finding employment that matches their competence level. Alongside this, it supports employers in making workplaces more accessible to non-native speakers.

Canada's immigration strategy similarly emphasises the role of newcomers in sustaining long-term economic growth, particularly in the face of demographic ageing. This alignment has encouraged a more proactive approach to migrant integration, wherein access to employment, training and qualification recognition is fast-tracked for those in high-demand occupations. Meanwhile, Luxembourg has adopted legislative updates to facilitate faster access to the labour market for qualified migrants, including direct access to employment for family migrants. In Spain, where birthrates are among the lowest in the EU, and migration has been promoted as a means of growing the economy and sustaining the welfare state, a new immigration reform seeks to focus integration efforts on three key areas: work, education and family. The reform aims to address the country's ageing population, meeting the needs of the domestic labour market and the migrants themselves.

Avoiding exploitation and combatting racism

Alongside initiatives to help migrants address labour shortages, several OECD countries have stepped up efforts to combat the exploitation of migrant workers. In Italy, a new commissioner has been appointed to support the integration of migrant workers living in informal settlements, following a 2022 report estimating that at least 10 000 foreign agricultural workers reside in such settlements, often facing labour exploitation and degrading living conditions. In parallel, eight Italian municipalities have adopted local action plans for the period 2023-2026 to address labour exploitation in agriculture. These measures form part of the first phase of Italy's extended National Three-Year Plan to combat labour exploitation and *caporalato* – the organised recruitment and employment of large numbers of workers, often irregularly, for low wages and in poor conditions. The municipal-level, multisectoral plans aim to ensure concrete implementation of national commitments. Similarly, in February 2024, the Finnish Government introduced a comprehensive set of measures to prevent labour exploitation more effectively. The programme focusses on strengthening co-operation and information-sharing between authorities, tackling the informal economy, improving the detection and reporting of exploitation and trafficking, and increasing sanctions. Additional efforts will be made to ensure that workers are well-informed about their rights, obligations and the functioning of the Finnish labour market.

The Swedish government adopted a new action plan to combat racism and hate crime. The action plan, which is built around data on the prevalence of racism in Sweden, focusses particularly on anti-Muslim racism, antisemitism, anti-Black racism, antigypsyism and racism against the Sami. It has four “focus areas”: schools, judiciary, welfare and working life. A monitoring system is being developed to report to the government annually on efforts undertaken. Meanwhile the Danish Government presented a new action plan comprising 36 new initiatives – conceived in co-operation with civil society organisations and designed to reduce incidents of racism and strengthen civil society efforts in this field. In Finland, the new action plan, *Not Only Words*, launched in August 2024, aims to foster a more inclusive, equitable society through tangible measures to address structural racism. Measures include internal discussions and training, improving knowledge, increasing equality and accessibility in communication, and expanding the use of anonymous recruitment. However, some groups have expressed concerns that government decisions on migrant-related issues are not in line with the goals of the campaign. In Spain, where an increase in hate content coinciding with major sporting events has been documented, the Ministry of Inclusion, Social Security and Migration, have signed a collaborative agreement with LALIGA to target racism and xenophobia, preventing violent incidents and addressing them effectively where they occur. The agreement between the ministry and LALIGA will extend to communication and awareness campaigns, as well as training modules on racism in grassroots football.

Decentralisation and local engagement

Local governments are often well placed to co-ordinate key integration services such as housing, schooling and employment services, making their involvement critical to responsive and inclusive integration systems. In several countries, responsibility for delivering integration services has increasingly shifted from central governments to local authorities. This decentralisation is often accompanied by frameworks that empower municipalities to tailor support to local labour markets and community needs. Switzerland's *Agenda Intégration Suisse*, for example, delegates substantial integration responsibilities to the cantonal level, supported by federal funding and performance indicators. Switzerland's Cantons have now played a key role in integration for over a decade, supporting mainstream structures – such as schools, vocational training institutions and businesses – through the Cantonal Integration Programs (CIP). The third phase of the CIP is currently underway (2024-2027) and marks a strategic shift from pilot projects to lasting structural integration along with an emphasis on anti-discrimination and investment in early childhood. Each canton, in its CIP 2024-2027, has specified how it intends to achieve the strategic objectives of the third phase,

including bolstering quality and innovation, introducing robust digital management and monitoring systems, and building a more cohesive and sustainable integration framework.

A comprehensive reform of the Finnish national Integration Act which entered into force in early 2025 gives municipalities a greater role in the provision of integration services including skills development, and employment promotion. By increasing the role of municipalities and local communities it is hoped that the act will promote positive interactions between migrants and the Finnish population as well as enhanced co-operation between integration actors. Austria has also made efforts to strengthen regional implementation partnerships, while Belgium operates civic integration programmes through its regional governments, allowing for linguistic and contextual adaptation. Since January 2024, the three former French-speaking reception offices have adopted bi-communitarian status and have begun implementing a bilingual civic integration programme. Meanwhile, Ireland has established Local Authority Integration Teams in each local authority to provide tailored support to migrants. These teams are embedded in permanent Community Integration Forums, ensuring collaboration between mainstream services, NGOs and migrant groups at the local level.

Luxembourg has replaced the traditional integration framework with a model of “intercultural living together,” establishing communal pacts and commissions to foster inclusive community-level initiatives. In Australia, a new business model for the Australian Migrant English Programme (AMEP) that will come into force from early 2026 will provide an increased focus on delivery in community and work settings. At the same time, the National Community Hubs Program (NCHP) has received additional funding to continue tailored, in-community support to migrants and humanitarian entrants, with a focus on helping migrant women and their families. Meanwhile, in Latvia alongside efforts to reinforce subnational “delivery” of integration policy through newly created regional branches of the Integration and Inclusion Agency, Latvia has engaged local governments and newcomer organisations to “co-design” integration measures.

In Portugal, the network of migrant integration centres continued to expand as part of the country’s 2024 Migration Action Plan. The centres promote migrant integration by offering support with Portuguese language learning, employment, education and access to healthcare services. Meanwhile, the new Government of Poland, established a new Department of Social Integration in 2024 to focus on the integration of migrants, while Bulgaria and Hungary have created online integration platforms to strengthen employment among their foreign-born populations.

Efforts to enhance monitoring of integration indicators

The Swedish government announced the development, by Statistics Sweden, of an “integration barometer” to focus on integration measures that are difficult to measure using data available on the population register – such as democratic, social and cultural integration. According to the government, improved knowledge of differences in needs, values and conditions among the foreign- and native-born populations will facilitate progress on integration objectives while supporting policy design. Statistics Sweden has separately been tasked with analysing how to monitor listening and reading comprehension, and oral ability in the Swedish language among adults born abroad.

The Federal Statistical Office of Germany (Destatis) has launched the Integration Dashboard, a new interactive online tool bringing together over 60 indicators to provide a visual and interactive data-driven overview of key areas related to integration, and participation in Germany. The data sources include official statistics as well as information from other institutions such as the Federal Employment Agency, the Federal Criminal Police Office and the German Pension Insurance, and academic sources such as the Socio-Economic Panel. The system is built using the technical infrastructure of Dashboard Germany, which has provided high-frequency economic data since late 2024.

Focus on encouraging migrant women into work

Female migrants often encounter additional barriers to integration. These may arise from constraints on their time, due to caregiving responsibilities, that undermine their ability to participate in integration measures or they may result from their migration status, as many are accompanying family members, with little immediate links to the host country. As a result, migrant women often experience higher rates of unemployment and overqualification, and segregation into low-paid and precarious jobs, particularly in care and domestic work. In light of this, many OECD countries have introduced measures to target these additional barriers.

Both Ireland and Korea have expanded access to the labour market for accompanying family migrants – a group among whom women are over-represented. In 2024, Ireland enabled spouses and partners of General Employment Permit and Intra-Corporate Transferee holders to work without needing a separate permit. Meanwhile, Korea changed its immigration policy to allow spouses of professional and skilled workers to engage in non-professional employment, including domestic work and caregiving, if they meet certain criteria (e.g. language skills). In Germany, the MYTURN project – funded until 2027 – has been created to ensure a life-situation-oriented, approach to support women in gaining labour-market relevant vocational training qualifications to support sustainable labour market entry. Elsewhere, reforms such as the Luxembourgish 2023/24 Intercultural Living Together Act, or the Mexican anti-discrimination and worker rights information campaigns, specifically target, or allocate additional support, to women as a vulnerable group. The Finnish Integration Act, discussed above, highlights as a specific goal the improved employment of migrant women.

Some countries are still taking early steps towards an integration infrastructure, while strengthening requirements and obligations

Elsewhere in the OECD, countries are taking early steps towards the creation of an integration system. In Croatia, 2025 saw the countries first information centre for foreigners opening in the city of Zagreb. The centre will enable foreign workers and displaced persons to obtain information about their rights and obligations, as well as local services, all in one place and in a language they understand – in particular, information will cover health and social protection, enrolment in kindergartens, primary and secondary schools, legal information, and information on regulating civil. The country is also preparing a system for the implementation and funding of Croatian language courses and other integration activities.

Similarly, the Government of Slovenia is creating a new space to offer information and advice to promote faster integration of immigrants into Slovenian society. The centre will raise awareness of the rights and duties of immigrants, while supporting the creation of an open and tolerant society through a space to exchange experience, knowledge and skills between the local population and foreigners.

Box 3.1. Mid-term review of the Commission Action Plan on Integration and Inclusion 2021-2027

The Mid-Term Review of the EU Action Plan on Integration and Inclusion 2021-2027, published in June 2025, provides a state of play on the implementation of the Pact on Migration and Asylum through a structured assessment of the progress that has been made in fostering the inclusion of migrants and EU citizens with a migrant background. The report focusses on progress across six key policy areas, including (i) education, (ii) employment, (iii) health, (iv) housing (v) horizontal measures and (vi) EU funds and governance. The report identifies achievements, highlights persistent gaps and provides guidance for Member States and stakeholders in strengthening the implementation of the Action Plan during its remaining period. The review serves as a basis to enhance policy coherence, ensure efficient use of EU funds, and reinforce measures that support equal opportunities and social cohesion. The mid-term review (June 2025) recognises meaningful progress in implementing the Action Plan accompanying the Pact on Migration and Asylum. However, structural gaps and ongoing challenges suggest that intensified, co-ordinated and better monitored measures are required to fully achieve the Plan's 2027 goals.

Table 3.1. Summary of key findings from the Mid-Term Review of the 2021-2027 EU Action Plan on Integration and Inclusion

Dimension	Main Progress Achieved	Ongoing Challenges	Recommended Next Steps
Education & Training	Enhanced access to language training, preschool inclusion and school support for migrants.	Disparities persist – particularly lower achievement and higher dropout rates among students with migration background.	Expand early-language support, strengthen teacher training on diversity, and promote intercultural schooling environments.
Employment & Skills	Increased labour-force participation among migrants; rollout of skills validation and recognition initiatives initiated by Member States.	Disparities persist – particularly lower achievement and higher dropout rates among students with migration background.	Mutual learning on recognition procedures, targeted PES services, gender-sensitive training schemes, and tailored youth employment programmes.
Health	Deployment of intercultural mediation in healthcare; steps taken to reduce barriers to access.	Ongoing issues with informational, legal, and practical barriers, including insufficient cultural competence among providers.	Implement inclusive health literacy campaigns; train practitioners in cultural awareness; collect migrant-disaggregated health data.
Housing	Launch of EU-funded social-housing projects with integration-oriented design; some Member States have piloted inclusive housing policies.	Immigrants face high risk of segregation, overcrowding, and insecure rental situations.	Integrate inclusion in urban planning, apply anti-segregation policies, ensure affordability, and involve migrant communities in housing design.
Horizontal Measures	Progress in mainstreaming anti-discrimination and diversity awareness across sectors; strengthened co-operation among stakeholders.	Weak enforcement of the European legal framework against discrimination; online and institutional prejudice continues largely unaddressed.	Enhance awareness-raising, fully implement legal safeguards, bolster community-led initiatives, and support civil-society integration actions.
EU Funds & Governance	Effective use of ESF+, AMIF, ERDF, and FEAD in financing integration and inclusion measures; structural fund programming increasingly aligned with integration goals.	Uneven national co-ordination in fund allocation; lack of systematic evaluation of fund impacts on integration outcomes.	Promote co-ordinated multi-level governance, establish common output indicators, improve data collection, and conduct systematic post-funding evaluations.

Source: EUR-Lex, *Mid-term review of the Commission Action Plan on Integration and Inclusion 2021-2027*, <https://eur-lex.europa.eu/legal-content/EN/TXT/?uri=CELEX%3A52025SC0162>.

Tightening citizenship policy

Alongside efforts to integrate migrants and protect against exploitation, a number of countries are introducing stricter conditions to confer citizenship rights. In Finland, for example, proposed reforms to the Citizenship Act recommend tightening naturalisation measures. In the first place, since October 2024, the required period of residence for Finnish citizenship has been lengthened from five to eight years. In addition, residence granted under international protection no longer counts toward the residence requirements. In the second place, the definition of sufficient financial resources is to be tightened. And finally, Finland is planning to introduce a citizenship test, with the government proposal to be submitted to parliament during the 2025.

Meanwhile, since January 2025, migrants applying for a Hungarian Residence Card must pass a Hungarian cultural knowledge exam covering six key topics including: Hungary's national symbols and holidays; significant events in Hungarian history; fundamental institutions and citizen rights and obligations. The assessment, which costs HUF 20 000 (approx. EUR 50), will be conducted via a written test in Hungarian with applicants allowed up to a maximum of three attempts.

The government of the Netherlands also outlined proposals to tighten rules governing naturalisation in 2024. These include raising the language requirement to level B1 and extending the residence period from five to ten years. Additionally, the government plans to require new citizens, where possible, to renounce their original nationality. Meanwhile, since mid-2024, it has begun to phase-out living allowances for people displaced from Ukraine with sufficient income from employment.

Developments in the recognition of skills and qualifications

Recognition of the skills and qualifications that migrants hold is key to strengthening their role in assuaging labour shortages. Many OECD countries have updated qualification recognition policies to enhance their speed and flexibility.

Reducing processing times and creating sector-based pathways

The sooner immigrants have their foreign qualifications assessed and recognised, the sooner they can access parts of the labour market where their skills are in demand. When recognition processes are slow, migrants may face prolonged periods of unemployment or end up working in roles for which they are overqualified. This can lead to long-term negative effects, including skill depreciation and scarring. To address this, several OECD countries have taken steps to accelerate recognition procedures. In the past, such efforts had focussed on introducing legally mandated processing times for the assessment of foreign qualifications or allowing prospective migrants to begin the recognition process before arriving in the country – see OECD (2017^[1]). In 2024, however, efforts have instead focussed on simplifying processes and removing certain requirements.

In Germany, for example, the Skilled Immigration Act was revised in 2024 to simplify the recognition of foreign professional qualifications and reduce processing times. In Belgium, a new digital application process was launched to cut processing times from several months to a few weeks. Norway has introduced a fast-track service to assess foreign qualifications within five working days and has extended the automatic recognition system to additional countries, including Ukraine, providing downloadable statements on how specific degrees are typically assessed.

Streamlining the recognition of foreign credentials is particularly critical in sectors experiencing acute labour shortages, such as healthcare, construction and information technology. Indeed, many OECD countries are creating priority pathways in shortage sectors, including Australia (healthcare, construction), Belgium (medicine, law, and education) and Germany (healthcare, engineering, IT). In

Denmark, universities have fast-tracked the recognition of foreign degrees in STEM fields, while Czechia has created an accelerated recognition process for Ukrainian refugees in critical sectors including healthcare, IT, and engineering. In Switzerland in 2024, new laws were introduced to ensure faster qualification equivalency processes for migrants in critical industries.

Canada has invested heavily in speeding up foreign credential recognition, especially in healthcare and skilled trades. There has been a focus on streamlining assessment processes and funding bridging programmes. Meanwhile, some provinces, including Ontario and British Columbia, have passed legislation to remove Canadian work experience requirements for many professions.

Micro-credentials and bridging programmes are gaining traction to close skill gaps more efficiently

Micro-credentials and bridging programmes are gaining traction as flexible, targeted solutions to address specific skill gaps among foreign-born workers, enabling faster labour market integration without the need for full requalification. Critical to creating effective micro-credentials and enabling bridging is the recognition of existing competences. France's *VAE* system enables individuals – regardless of country of birth – to obtain full or partial diplomas or professional certifications based on their professional experience and/or volunteer activity, by submitting a detailed portfolio to an evaluation jury. Specific initiatives, in particular the *VAE sans frontières* and pilot schemes such as *Parcours VAE migrants* have extended this pathway to refugees and migrants, enabling them to convert relevant work and life experience into recognised French qualifications. In 2023, the Ministry of Labour began a pilot of the *VAE inversée*. While not directly targeted at migrants, it is hoped that this will strengthen engagement among migrants and refugees, reducing barriers by actively engaging them rather than relying on them to initiate the process. The centralised platform, *France VAE*, introduced in July 2023, further enhances accessibility through an intuitive digital space, with support for non-native speakers. Similarly, Canada is piloting alternative credential recognition projects that allow migrants to prove their skills through competency-based assessments rather than traditional credential validation, while in Austria, vocational training equivalence programmes now allow migrants without formal degrees to demonstrate skills through practical assessments. Phase 3, of Germany's Job Turbo action plan, outlined above, focusses on stabilising and enhancing employment with the aim that, over time, participants obtain further qualifications and become skilled workers.

Building on competence recognition and micro-credentials, bridging courses offer targeted training modules that focus on specific skills or competencies required in the host country. These allow migrants to update or adapt their existing qualifications without undergoing lengthy and costly requalification processes. In some countries, micro-credentials are stackable and can serve as pathways into formal qualifications, while bridging programmes may also include language training, cultural orientation and practical work placements to facilitate smoother transitions into the workforce. Such approaches are particularly valuable for migrants whose foreign qualifications are only partially recognised, or whose career continuity has been disrupted by migration or displacement. Canada has been at the forefront of such programmes for many years, developing bridging programmes for internationally trained professionals (e.g. doctors, nurses, engineers) to help them meet Canadian certification requirements while gaining work experience.

Employers are playing a growing role in recognition with increasing value placed on work experience

Employers have been playing a growing role in recognition, reflecting a shift from purely government-led credential recognition to more demand-driven, flexible systems that value practical skills and work experience and can fill labour shortages quickly. In Germany, for example, "recognition partnerships" have been introduced as part of the amendments to the Skilled Immigration Act. These partnerships, which

came into force in March 2024 have put employers at the core of the recognition process, enabling them to fill skill gaps more nimbly. Under these agreements, qualified migrants can start work immediately in appropriate roles. In exchange, the skilled worker commits to apply for the recognition procedure after entering Germany, while the employer agrees to (i) provide support during the recognition procedure and (ii) allow the worker time to acquire the qualifications needed for full recognition. Concrete measures necessary to achieve full recognition – such as undertaking internships – are identified through an individual assessment. Alongside this, companies and trade unions are involved at all levels of the Job Turbo Initiative (outlined above) and have signed a declaration in support of the initiative.

Digitisation and the use of Artificial Intelligence for integration

Digitisation is the process of converting information, services and administrative procedures from paper-based or manual formats into digital ones. The opportunities offered by AI are particularly valuable in the field of integration, where migration patterns can shift rapidly due to conflict, climate change, or changes in international policy. They are also valuable at a time when public resources – and particularly those dedicated to migrant integration – are increasingly under pressure. When used responsibly and with attention to ethical considerations – like data privacy, equity, and inclusivity – AI can support a more cost-efficient, effective and personalised approach to integration.

Settlement, early integration and access to public services

Across the OECD, many countries have developed comprehensive integration plans or one-stop-shops to bring together the multiple services migrants must access to support their integration. Digitisation has increased ability of OECD countries to provide these services in a holistic and accessible format to migrants soon after arrival. In the Netherlands, for example, access to healthcare, education and social housing is managed through the digitised municipal population registry, ensuring migrants are immediately entered into public service systems. Each migrant receives a digital integration plan developed with their local municipality, including assigned language learning tracks that can be monitored through digital case files. Denmark, in a similar vein, offers a centralised digital platform, where immigrants can use a single login to access all government services, including banking, housing, and ID. Launched in 2023, Luxembourg's multilingual portal for asylum seekers, *Portail DPI*, now offers guidance on legal rights and support services in 13 languages with audio options. The Romanian platform enables migrants to schedule appointments and track case progress through a secure portal, increasing access to rights and reducing delays. In Mexico, Centers for Migrant Integration (CIM) use digital registration and case tracking to deliver housing, health, and legal support for returned migrants and asylum seekers. At the same time, helping build community ties in key border areas.

Beyond this, a number of countries are experimenting with increasingly digitised data and services to capitalise on the potential of recent developments in AI. Where Norway and Canada use data modelling to anticipate settlement needs – like housing and employment services – in specific regions, other countries are experimenting with AI to help identify which interventions – such as language training or mentorship – are most likely to be effective for integration outcomes. The Swiss State Secretariat for Migration has, since 2020, piloted *GeoMatch* to guide refugee assignments across cantons. *GeoMatch* is an AI-powered tool developed by the Immigration Policy Lab at Stanford University and ETH Zurich. It uses historical data to assist governments and resettlement agencies in identifying optimal locations for refugees based on their backgrounds and predicted integration success. Meanwhile, the Netherlands, in co-operation with the University of Amsterdam's Athena Institute, is exploring the potential of AI chatbots to deliver customised healthcare information to historically marginalised communities and answer questions in multiple languages about asylum processes and legal rights. In Korea, an AI-driven personalised conversation service (available to migrants and native-born Koreans) is used to check on people's well-being once or

twice a week, chatting with people for about two minutes. The AI service is able to remember past conversations and use them as input for the next call (OECD, 2025^[2]).

Through EU funded CommuniCity project, the cities of Amsterdam and Prague have adapted an existing AI-powered application to address the specific administrative challenges often faced by immigrants and refugees. The application simplifies bureaucratic processes by translating, organising and setting reminders for the submission of important documents, such as government letters, while a chatbot provides personalised assistance.

Language learning, education and recognition

Language training has been at the heart of integration for many years. Artificial intelligence offers significant potential to support language learning, particularly in the context of migrant integration. AI-powered tools can provide personalised and adaptive instruction, tailoring content to individual learners' needs and progress, thereby increasing the efficiency of learning. Real-time feedback on grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation supports continuous improvement, while advances in natural language processing enables interactive practice through realistic dialogue simulations. These scalable tools can offer flexible and cost-effective learning opportunities for migrants who may face barriers to traditional education – particularly those juggling language study with care and work obligations.

Given this potential, language learning has been leading the way in the use of AI for integration and many OECD countries have developed initiatives in this area. In Germany, the *Ankommen* (Arrive) app, Co-developed by the German Government, combines language lessons, integration course information and job search tools, while in Finland, AI is used in online Finnish and Swedish learning platforms tailored for immigrants. Austria has expanded its online learning platform Sprachportal.at for migrants to improve their language proficiency and, since January 2023, the Austrian Integration Fund has been issuing digital certificates for integration and language tests, streamlining the process of language accreditation for migrants. In Australia, a new national curriculum and digital delivery model is being developed to improve English language training for migrants, while in Norway, counties have begun using digital tools to deliver Norwegian language and social studies training to full-time upper secondary students in the introduction program. Building on the opportunities for the use of AI in recognition, Estonia has introduced an AI-driven diploma recognition system, allowing migrants to upload credentials digitally for assessment.

Employment and job matching

Alongside strengthening the supply of skills embodied in the foreign-born population – through learning, education and recognition, integration services also play an important role in helping migrants find work, in matching migrants with skills to employment opportunities that require those skills. The heavy reliance of job search on networks can put migrants, who have more limited access to such networks, at a disadvantage.

Advances in AI are supporting the shift in job matching from simply collecting information about a job-seeker's formal qualifications and experience to a more holistic approach that looks at skill-based profiling and matching. In this manner AI tools, such as machine learning, can be particularly important to help immigrants match with jobs that suit their skills, even when formal qualifications do not transfer easily. In this vein, Germany's Job Turbo Initiative, discussed above, offers a structured AI-driven employment programme to minimise unemployment spells by placing refugees into jobs quickly after completing integration courses. Building on advances in Natural Language Processing, Sweden has piloted AI-driven career guidance chatbots for recent arrivals, available in multiple languages. The Flemish Public Employment Service (VDAB) has collaborated with Radix AI to develop a deep-learning model that enhances job matching by analysing both structured and unstructured data from CVs and job postings. This AI-driven approach improves the accuracy of matching candidates to suitable job opportunities.

The Danish Agency for Labour Market and Recruitment (STAR) has developed a profiling model using machine learning techniques that predict the likelihood of people becoming long-term (>26 weeks) unemployed. The model combines data from administrative records and an online survey that gathers behavioural information. In collaboration with the University of Copenhagen, a new survey instrument is currently being developed that aims to capture structural personality traits such as time and risk preferences. The system is voluntary for jobseekers to use but if they do, they get full access to the model's results. The system does not automatically refer jobseekers to active labour market programmes (ALMPs), rather it supports caseworkers who keep full discretionary responsibility (OECD, 2025^[2]).

Social inclusion and community building

Ultimately, the goal of integration policy is not just to provide services, but to create conditions in which migrants can fully participate in and contribute to society. With thoughtful design and implementation, AI can be a valuable ally in that effort.

AI and social platforms have the potential to foster community connections, cultural exchange and civic participation. And, in many OECD countries, local communities and non-governmental organisations have been working alongside government to harness AI to enhance social inclusion and community building. In France, apps like *RefAid* and *Bienvenue!* have been developed to provide real-time information about shelters, food, legal help and nearby language meetups. Meanwhile, Australia supports digital storytelling and community-building apps that allow migrants to share their stories and connect with locals. In a number of OECD countries, local communities and government have taken the lead in using digital tools to support social inclusion and integration. In Germany, for example, an open-source mobile app, *Integreat*, is maintained by local governments and non-governmental organisations. The app offers localised information and services tailored to refugees and migrants in Germany and provides guidance on registration, healthcare, education, and employment in multiple languages. In Czechia, as part of the Refugees Welcome project, a Prague-based NGO, SIMI, has created an online guide (<https://bydleni.migrace.com/>) containing a comprehensive, up to date summary of practical information to help foreigners navigate the path to dignified, safe and long-term housing. The handbook is based on the organisation's long-term experience working with clients who do not have social ties in Czechia, lack awareness of local customs and legal norms, are in a situation that is too vulnerable to claim their rights, or have been exposed to discrimination. The handbook provides information on housing opportunities, details about costs of accommodation, and advice on how to proceed in looking for housing guiding clients through the rights and responsibilities of tenants and landlords and the ways in which a lease agreement can be terminated.

AI holds transformative potential in the field of migrant integration, offering scalable, personalised, and integrated solutions to the complex challenge of integration. From real-time translation and skills recognition to predictive analytics for better service planning, AI can bridge the linguistic, bureaucratic, and logistical gaps that often hinder integration. However, the move towards digitalisation and online engagement is not without risks in a field where success is defined by social interaction and community engagement. While many migrant groups are well placed to take advantage of the opportunities created by AI, gaps in digital literacy can be large, and some migrant groups may be unable to access to digital services. Moreover, the speed with which the current digital environment is evolving may mean that certain tools may quickly become obsolete and, if not updated regularly, the quality of information can rapidly degrade. As use of digital processes and AI is increasingly adopted in the field of integration policy, these risks must be monitored, and care must be taken to protect data privacy, to ensure that bias arising from the use of historical data is not built in to predictive tools, and to ensure that inequalities in digital literacy and access to digital devices does not undermine the accessibility and quality of integration services.

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4

Immigrant integration: The role of firms

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This chapter sheds new light on the integration of immigrants in the labour market by focussing on the role of firms in shaping the immigrant earnings gap using linked employer-employee data for 15 OECD countries. The chapter starts by documenting the immigrant earnings gap at entry in the labour market and the extent to which it is driven by immigrants working disproportionately in lower-paying firms, industries and occupations. It then analyses how the earnings gap evolves as immigrants integrate in the labour market by moving to better-paying firms, industries and occupations. The implications for immigrant integration policy are discussed in the conclusion.

This project is part of the OECD LinkEED 2.0 project which mobilises linked employer-employee data for cross-country research and policy analysis (<https://www.oecd.org/en/about/projects/linkeed-200.html>). It relies on the contributions of a network of researchers with access to confidential linked employer-employee data for their country, including: Winnie Chan and Tahsin Mehdi (Canada), Lukas Delgado-Prieto (Colombia), Paolo Santini (Denmark), Stefano Lombardi (Finland), Yajna Govind (France), Gaetano Basso (Italy), Jordy Meekes (the Netherlands), Nazila Alinaghi and Lucas Chen (New Zealand), Patrick Bennett and Kjell Salvanes (Norway), Andrei Gorskov and Oskar Nordstrom-Skans (Sweden), Erik Vickstrom (United States).*

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In Brief

- Immigrants fulfilling their earnings' potential in the host country is the foundation for better living conditions and a safeguard against poverty. While there has been substantial progress in measuring integration outcomes, there is little cross-country evidence on the earnings of immigrants, mainly due to data availability.
- This chapter provides cross-country evidence on the size and sources of the immigrant earnings gap and its evolution over time in the host country labour market. To this end, it makes use of linked employer-employee panel data for the period 2000-2019 for 15 OECD countries: Austria, Canada, Colombia, Denmark, Finland, France, Germany, Italy, Portugal, the Netherlands, New Zealand, Norway, Spain, Sweden and the United States.
- Immigrants at entry in the labour market earn 34% less than native-born workers of the same age and sex, on average across countries. The immigrant earnings gap decreases by about one-third (13 percentage points (p.p.)) in the first five years in the host country, and by about half in the first ten years.
- While immigrants with lower initial earnings are more likely to drop out of employment in the host country, this composition effect is small and does not drive the reduction in the earnings gap.
- Almost two-thirds (63%) of the initial immigrant earnings gap can be explained by the concentration of immigrants in lower-paying firms and sectors, on average across countries. Work in lower-paying sectors accounts for over one-third (36%) of the gap, and working in lower-paying firms, within sectors and regions, accounts for an additional quarter (27%).
- In the first years in the labour market, immigrants move to higher-paying sectors and firms. Moving to higher-paying sectors accounts for 18%, and to higher-paying firms for 24%, of the reduction of the gap in the first five years in the labour market. The firms immigrants move to over time are higher quality firms in a general sense: they are larger, more productive and less segregated.
- Working in lower-paying occupations accounts for a quarter of the initial immigrant earnings gap, on average for the six countries with available data. For this subset of countries, sectors and firms account nevertheless for about half of the earnings gap. The occupational effect is due partly to widespread immigrant overqualification in the host country labour markets. Strikingly, immigrants do not move to higher-paying occupations over time.
- Accounting for educational differences between immigrants and the native-born for two countries with available data decreases the initial earnings gap by one-quarter. However, it does not change the reduction of the earnings gap by much, nor does it change the role of firms and sectors in explaining the immigrant earnings gap and its reduction over time.
- The immigrant earnings gap at labour market entry is larger for immigrants from Africa, the Middle East and Asia, and smaller for immigrants from the EU15 and North America and Oceania. This is partly due to immigrants from Africa, the Middle East and Asia working in lower-paying sectors and firms. Immigrants of all origin groups move to higher paying firms over time.
- The earnings gap is slightly larger for men than women, and the reduction of the gap is larger for women. This reflects in part the greater employment concentration of male immigrants in lower-paying firms and its relative persistence over time.

- This chapter highlights the importance of policies related to the recognition of foreign qualifications and upskilling, given the persistence of the large share of the immigrant earnings gap that is due to immigrants working in lower-paying occupations.
- Nevertheless, it also shows that job mobility to better paying firms and sectors can play an important role in the earnings integration of immigrants. This suggests that there is scope for policies that target barriers to job mobility including providing information on job search and the host country labour market, career counselling and the development of professional networks, improving local transportation, combatting discrimination in the housing market and providing affordable housing, among others.

Introduction

A good understanding of the integration of immigrants in the host countries' labour market and society is necessary to design efficient and effective integration policies. The outcomes of immigrants are well documented in an increasing number of areas: educational and labour market outcomes, living conditions, health outcomes, or civic participation (OECD/European Commission, 2023^[1]).

When it comes to the integration of immigrants in the labour market, a key indicator of successful integration of employed immigrants is their earnings. Immigrants fulfilling their earnings' potential in the host country labour market is the foundation for better living conditions and a safeguard against poverty. Beyond the benefits to immigrants themselves, higher earnings enhance immigrants' contribution to the host country economy and are an important factor in the attraction and retention of immigrants.

While a rich and long-standing literature has documented the earnings of immigrants and their growth over time in selected host countries (e.g. Chiswick (1978^[2]), Lubotsky (2007^[3]), Abramitzky, Boustan and Eriksson (2014^[4])), cross-country studies are scarce. This is primarily due to the lack of earnings data that are reliable and comparable across countries.

Most existing studies on immigrant earnings have taken a human-capital approach that focusses on immigrants' characteristics as a source of the immigrant earnings gap. One explanation is that immigrants may be initially paid less because they are less productive than the native-born due to lower educational attainment, low portability of skills acquired abroad, or lack of host country language fluency, but as they accumulate host-country specific human capital, their earnings increase.

A complementary explanation is that different firms pay equally productive workers differently. There is growing evidence that, in imperfectly competitive labour markets, earnings are not just determined by one's human capital but also by one's employer (Card, Heining and Kline, 2013^[5]; Song et al., 2019^[6]; OECD, 2022^[7]). Consequently, immigrants may have lower earnings if they are more likely to be employed in lower-paying firms. This may be due to immigrants having smaller local networks, difficulties navigating the host country labour market, or hiring discrimination. In this case, job mobility between firms can play a potentially important role in advancing the integration of immigrants in the labour market.

The objective of this chapter is to provide comprehensive cross-country evidence on the sources of the immigrant earnings gap and its evolution over time since first entering the host country labour market. It focusses on three key questions. First, what is the importance of immigrant sorting across firms, industries, and occupations, in explaining the immigrant earnings gap at entry in the labour market? Second, to what extent do immigrants integrate in the labour market by moving to better paying firms, industries and occupations over time? Third, to what extent do differences in the characteristics of immigrants (e.g. country of origin, sex) matter for the earnings gaps at entry and their subsequent integration in the labour market?

To address these questions, the chapter uses linked employer-employee panel data for 15 OECD countries.¹ For most countries, the data is based on administrative sources related to the social security or the tax system. The data are very comprehensive – often covering the universe of workers and their employers in the country – and provide highly reliable information, notably on earnings.

Studying the importance of firms for the immigrant earnings gap over time has important policy implications. Most policies targeted at the labour market integration of immigrants have focussed on the worker side, such as providing host country language classes, upskilling or facilitating the recognition of foreign qualifications. This chapter argues that policies that promote immigrant job mobility, which so far have received less attention from policymakers, should also be part of the immigrant integration policy toolkit.

The chapter is organised as follows. The first section lays out the data and the methodology for analysing the immigrant earnings gap and provides a description of the characteristics of immigrants included in the analysis. The second section provides cross-country estimates of the immigrant earnings gap at entry in the host labour market and over time. The third section estimates the contributions of firms, industries and occupations to the immigrant earnings gap. The fourth section presents results by region-of-origin and sex. The conclusion draws out the implications of the analysis for immigrant integration policy.

The framework

The empirical approach

This chapter studies the earnings of immigrants entering the labour market from the early 2000s to 2015 over five years, and up to ten years for the earlier cohorts.² The earnings of immigrants at entry in the labour market, and in each subsequent year, are compared to those of the native-born of the same age and sex, in the same calendar year. The immigrant earnings gap after five, and ten years, is compared with the initial gap to assess the reduction of the earnings gap as immigrants integrate in the host country labour market.

As a second step, the immigrant earnings gap in each year since entry is decomposed into differences due to immigrants working in lower-paying firms and sectors. For countries with information on occupations, the extent to which the earnings gap is due to immigrants working in lower-paying occupations is also analysed.³ The methodology is described in detail in Box 4.1.

Box 4.1. Methodology

Estimating the integration profiles of immigrants

The integration profiles of immigrants, i.e. the differences in immigrant outcomes relative to the native-born with the same age and sex over time in the host country, are estimated using the following benchmark specification:

$$(1) Y = X\beta_1 + YSE\delta_1 + u_1$$

Y represents the integration outcome for worker i in year t at its main employer in the year.¹ Integration outcomes are worker wages, measured using the logarithm of real monthly earnings,² or firm characteristics. The latter includes firm productivity (value added per worker or, if not available, sales per worker); firm wage premia (average firm wage conditional on worker composition); firm size (employment) and the degree of immigrant segregation (a dummy which equals one in firms where immigrants account for more than 50% of the workforce and zero otherwise). X denotes a set of control variables which includes a quartic in age fully interacted with sex and year fixed effects. YSE denotes a full set of years-since-entry dummies or, more precisely, years since first entry in formal employment. The coefficient of interest, δ_1 , represents for each year since entry the average difference in the outcome of interest between immigrants and the native-born of the same age and sex, controlling for common year effects. u_1 stands for the error term. The subscript 1 denotes the benchmark specification (Equation 1).

The benchmark specification is estimated by focussing on the first five years since first entry in formal employment to maximise the number of immigrant entry cohorts included in the analysis. The analysis tracks the evolution of immigrants' outcomes following the first spell in formal employment, since in most countries the data do not provide information on the actual year of arrival in the host country.

The role of firms and occupations in the immigrant earnings gap: A Gelbach decomposition

To analyse the contribution of firms and occupations to the immigrant earnings gap at each year since entry estimated above, the benchmark specification is extended to include firm and (2-digit) occupation fixed effects that control for differential sorting of immigrants relative to native born across firms and occupations, as follows:

$$(2) Y = X\beta_2 + YSE\delta_2 + F\psi_2 + O\gamma_2 + u_2$$

where ψ_2 and γ_2 denote the firm and occupation fixed effects respectively, while δ_2 represents the unexplained earnings gap after controlling for firms and occupations.

The difference between δ_1 and δ_2 represents the part of the earnings gap that can be explained by differences in the sorting of immigrants and native-born across firms and occupations. The differences in the explained earnings gap $\delta_1 - \delta_2$ at each year since entry (YSE) is decomposed into parts attributable to firm and occupational sorting following (Gelbach, 2016^[8]).³ The Gelbach-decomposition allows for the unambiguous determination of the contribution of firms (τ_ψ) and occupations (τ_γ) to the explained part of the earnings gap at each year since entry:

$$(3) \delta_1 - \delta_2 = \tau_\psi + \tau_\gamma$$

In practice, τ_ψ is obtained by regressing the estimated firm-fixed effects from the full specification (Equation 2) on the covariates of the baseline specification (Equation 1), YSE and X . Analogously, τ_γ is obtained by regressing the estimated occupation fixed-effects in the full specification on the covariates of the baseline specification. The contribution of firms τ_ψ captures the impact of all time-invariant characteristics of firms on the immigrant earnings gap. This includes the firm-specific

characteristics as well as those of the broader industry and region groupings to which they belong (Card, Rothstein and Yi, 2024^[9]; Card, Rothstein and Yi, 2025^[10]).⁴

To understand the role of the firm net of that of regions and sectors, the contribution of firms (τ_ψ) is further decomposed into the contribution of regions (τ_θ), the contribution of sectors (τ_χ) and the contribution of firms within regions and sectors (τ_v). In practice, this is achieved by regressing the estimated firm-fixed effects from the full specification on regional, sectoral dummies and a residual term. The residual from this regression captures the contribution of firms within regions and sectors. Estimates of τ_θ , τ_χ and τ_v are obtained from separate regressions using the estimated sector, region fixed effects and residuals as dependent variables and regressing them on the covariates of the base model, YSE and X.

1. The main employer in a year typically corresponds to the employer with the highest reported earnings among all reported employment spells in the year or at the date in which the data is collected (e.g. October in Portugal). Except for Germany, the employer corresponds to the firm and not the establishment.
2. The focus is on monthly earnings to maximise country coverage and comparability. It has the caveat that some of the earnings catch-up can be attributed to improvements in hours worked and not necessarily hourly wages. To account for this, whenever possible, we also estimate the integration profiles based on hourly wages.
3. More details and a theoretical derivation of the Gelbach decomposition can be found in Annex 4.A.
4. The specification does not control for worker fixed effects; the firm component may partly capture unobserved worker heterogeneity. To address this, in addition to the Gelbach decomposition, we relate the wage gaps to AKM firm wage premia that controls for unobserved worker heterogeneity, with similar findings (Abowd, Kramarz and Margolis, 1999^[11]).

Longitudinal linked employer-employee data

The framework is implemented using harmonised longitudinal linked employer-employee data for 15 OECD countries: Austria, Canada, Colombia, Denmark, Finland, France, Germany, Italy, Portugal, New Zealand, the Netherlands, Norway, Spain, Sweden and the United States.

The data are drawn from administrative records designed for tax or social security purposes or, in a few cases, mandatory employer surveys. As a result, these data are very comprehensive and of high quality, given the financial implications of reporting errors for tax and social security systems. In nine of the 15 countries, the data covers the universe of workers in the labour market; in the other six countries, a large representative random sample is used instead (Annex Table 4.A.1).⁴ Importantly, time-invariant worker and firm identifiers allow the outcomes of workers and their employers to be followed over time.

Since the data are collected for national administrative purposes, the data are not necessarily comparable across countries. To enhance the cross-country comparability of the data, considerable efforts have been made to harmonise them in terms of data cleaning, sample selection (e.g. years and immigrant cohorts covered) and definition of variables (e.g. industry classification, earnings, regions of origin).

The main outcome of interest is individual monthly earnings. Monthly earnings capture both hours worked and hourly earnings. To disentangle these two margins of the immigrant earnings gap, hourly earnings are studied as an additional outcome for countries with available data on hours worked (Denmark, France, Italy, the Netherlands and Portugal). For Canada, Norway and the United States, data on yearly earnings are used instead, since there is no information on the number of months worked.

Immigrants are identified based on their nationality *at entry in the labour market*. The term *immigrants* in this chapter therefore refers to foreign nationals instead of foreign-born as is standard practice in OECD studies.⁵ Given that immigrant status is defined *at entry* in the labour market, citizenship acquisition after entry is not a confounding factor. This definition of immigrants may however include individuals born in the host country who do not have the host country's nationality, such as the native-born adult children of immigrants in some OECD countries.

The chapter focusses on immigrants' first years in formal employment in the host country, that is, the first year they are in the data. To avoid including workers who are not entering the labour market but only returning from a spell out of work, the analysis includes only immigrants who are not in employment in the first three years of the data but enter employment in the subsequent years.⁶

A limitation of administrative data, relative to survey data for example, is the little information on individual characteristics. Information on educational attainment in particular, is not available for all countries. Hence, the immigrant earnings gap do not account for educational differences in the main results. However, additional results taking into account educational differences between immigrants and the native-born are presented for countries with available data.

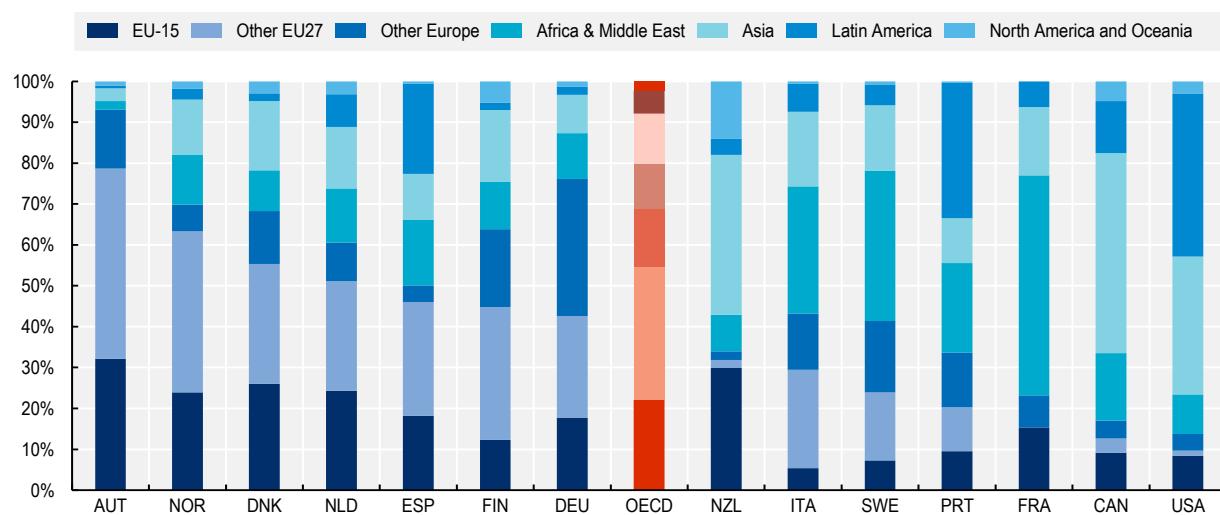
The characteristics of new immigrants in the labour market

The analysis covers *all* immigrants who first entered the labour market of the 15 OECD countries in the early 2000s to the mid-2010s. Over this period, over 7 million new immigrants are observed in the data (Annex Table 4.B.1). Women represent 43% of all immigrants in the sample. The average age of immigrants at entry in the host country labour market is 32 years.

Immigrants' regions-of-origin vary significantly between host countries. These differences partly reflect geography and historical ties between some origin and destination countries. In Portugal, Spain and the United States, a large share of immigrants come from Latin American countries (33%, 22% and 40%) (Figure 4.1). In Portugal, these mainly come from Brazil, while in Spain and the United States they mainly come from Spanish-speaking Latin-American countries. In France, over half of immigrants come from African countries (33% from North Africa and 21% from Sub-Saharan Africa), mostly from predominantly French-speaking former colonies. In Canada and New Zealand, close to half of immigrants come from Asia.

Figure 4.1. The region of origin of new immigrants in the labour market

Share of origin region in all immigrant labour market entries, percentage



Note: The figure shows the distribution of immigrants across regions of origin as measured in the first year in the host country labour market. Countries are sorted by the share of EU (EU-15 + Other EU27) immigrants. OECD refers to the unweighted average across countries.

Source: National linked employer-employee data, see Annex Table 4.A.1 for details. Authors' calculations.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/fi65tk>

The differences in regions of origin across OECD countries stem also from differences in the category of migration of the migration flows (e.g. labour, family humanitarian). Over half the immigrants in Austria, Denmark, the Netherlands, Norway come from another EU-27 country. This reflects the importance of free movement migration within the EU-EFTA area to these countries. In Sweden, 30% of immigrants are from the Middle East, in part reflecting the importance of humanitarian migration. Information on immigrants' category of migration is available in the administrative data in some countries. Box 4.5 presents results by category of migration for Canada.

The immigrant earnings gap at entry in the host country labour market and over time

Immigrants earn substantially less than the native-born at entry in the labour market, but the gap reduces over time

At entry in the host country labour market, immigrants face large pay penalties relative to the native-born of the same age and sex in all OECD countries included in the analysis. The earnings of immigrants are on average across the 15 OECD countries 34% lower than those of the native-born (Figure 4.2).⁷ The earnings gap ranges from around 28% in Denmark, France and Portugal to 45% in Italy.

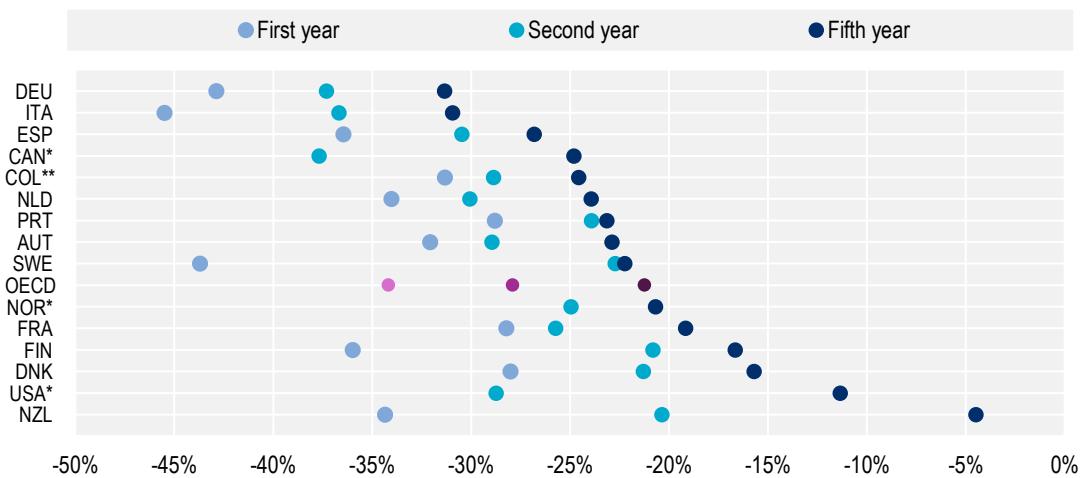
By the fifth year in the host country labour market, the earnings gap relative to the native-born is significantly lower than the gap at entry. The earnings gap decreases by one-third on average across countries, or 13 p.p., from 34% on entry to 21% after five years.⁸ Approximately half of the decrease of the immigrant earnings gap takes place from the first to the second year in the host country labour market, on average across countries.

For the earlier immigrant cohorts, for which it is possible to estimate the earnings gap after ten years, the gap more than halves, decreasing from 37% initially to 16% by the tenth year (Annex Figure 4.B.1).⁹ Hence, almost two-thirds of the decrease in the immigrant earnings gap over ten years takes place in the first five years.

The decrease in the immigrant earnings gap over time reflects a significant increase in real earnings of immigrants. After five years in the labour market, the average earnings of immigrants are 24% higher than those of immigrants in the first year across the 15 host countries (Annex Table 4.B.2).

Figure 4.2. The immigrant earnings gap decreases with time spent in the host country labour market

Immigrant earnings gap in the first, second and fifth year since entry in the host country labour market, percentage



Notes: * The earnings measure corresponds to annual earnings. In countries with annual earnings information, the earnings gap in the first year corresponds to that recorded in the second year to correct for differences in days worked and mechanically low earnings induced by the day of entry in the labour market. ** For Colombia, the earnings gap is estimated after four years, instead of five, due to the short panel structure.

Source: National linked employer-employee data, see Annex Table 4.A.1 for details. Authors' calculations.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/tuzqde>

Immigrant earnings gaps partly reflect differences in education and hours worked

Part of the immigrant earnings gap may be due to differences in skills if immigrants have lower skill levels than the native-born. Alternative data sources show this is only partly the case. Immigrants are more likely, than the native-born, to not have completed an upper secondary degree but also more likely to be tertiary educated in most host countries (Annex Table 4.B.3).

Controlling for education in countries where data is available (Germany, Portugal) reduces the initial earnings gap by about a quarter.¹⁰ However, taking differences in education into account only marginally changes the reduction of the earnings gap over time.¹¹ The next sub-section shows that, in contrast, differences in the sectors, firms and occupations in which immigrants work account for a large share of the immigrant earnings gap and its reduction.

Differences in hours worked explain part of the initial immigrant earnings gap and its decrease over time. For the six countries with information on hours worked, Box 4.2 compares the monthly and hourly immigrant earnings gap at entry in the labour market and after five years. Working fewer hours than the native-born accounts for around one-quarter of the initial immigrant earnings gap on average across these countries. This is consistent with evidence that shows that recent immigrants are more likely to hold part-time jobs, and in particular involuntary part-time jobs (OECD/European Commission, 2023^[1]). As immigrants spend more time in the host country labour market, they work more hours, contributing to higher earnings. Increased working hours account for one fifth of the decrease in the immigrant earnings gap in the first five years, on average across the six countries.

Box 4.2. Hours worked explain part of the initial immigrant earnings gap and its decrease over time

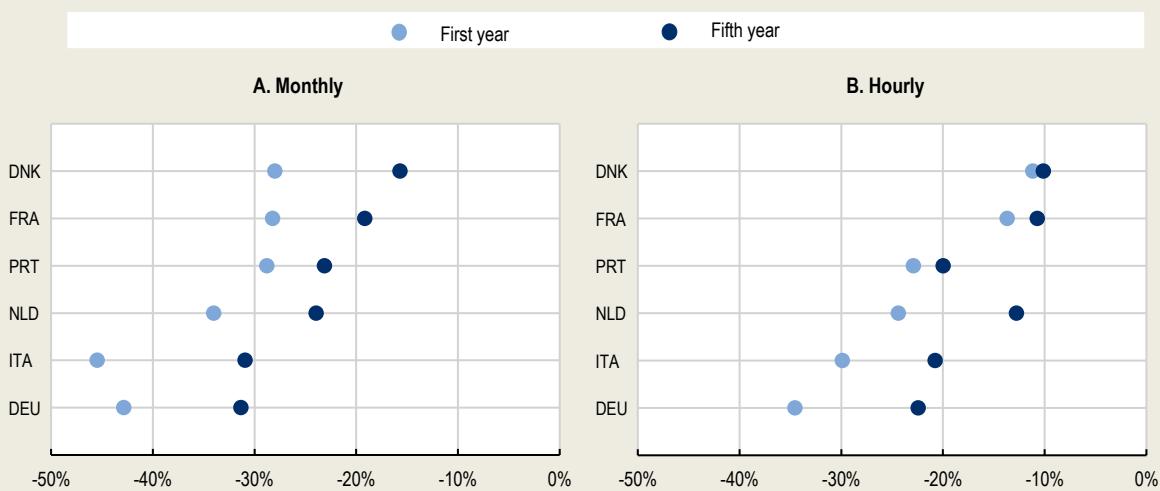
Part of the initial immigrant earnings gap is due to immigrants working fewer hours per month than the native-born. The initial immigrant gap in hourly earnings is significantly lower than the gap in monthly earnings in all six countries for which data on hours worked are available. On average, the immigrant gap in hourly earnings is around one-quarter lower than the monthly earnings gap (26% compared to 34%).

The role of hours worked is particularly large in Denmark and France. The initial hourly earnings gap represents only 42% and 53% of the monthly earnings gap in these countries. In contrast, in Portugal, hours worked are more similar for immigrants and the native-born. The initial hourly earnings gap represents 90% of the monthly earnings gap.

By the fifth year in the labour market, hours worked account for less of the monthly immigrant earnings gap than at entry. Immigrants work more hours as they integrate in the host country labour market, and this contributes to raising their monthly pay. One fifth of the decrease of the immigrant monthly earnings gap in the first five years is accounted for the increase in hours worked, on average across the six countries. The increase in hours worked is particularly important in Denmark and France, where the initial gaps in hours are larger.

Figure 4.3. Hours worked explain part of the initial immigrant earnings gap and its decrease over time

Immigrant monthly and hourly earnings gap in the first and fifth year since entry in the host country labour market, percentage



Note: For Germany, the sample is restricted to full-time workers for the calculation of hourly earnings gaps. Countries are ranked based on the monthly earnings gap in the fifth year.

Source: National linked employer-employee data, see Annex Table 4.A.1 for details. Authors' calculations.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/d5flaq>

The reduction of the immigrant earnings gap is not driven by less successful immigrants dropping out of employment in the host country

A concern when studying the earnings of immigrants over time is that they may reflect changes in the composition of immigrants, due to outmigration or differences in labour market attachment. For example, the least successful immigrants in the labour market may be more likely to drop out of employment or leave the host country altogether (Lubotsky, 2007^[3]). As a result, the composition of immigrants remaining in employment in the host country would shift towards more successful immigrants and reduce the earnings gap even if immigrants did not actually improve their labour market position. To address this concern, at least partly, the analysis is repeated by restricting the sample to immigrants who are still in employment in the host country after five years.

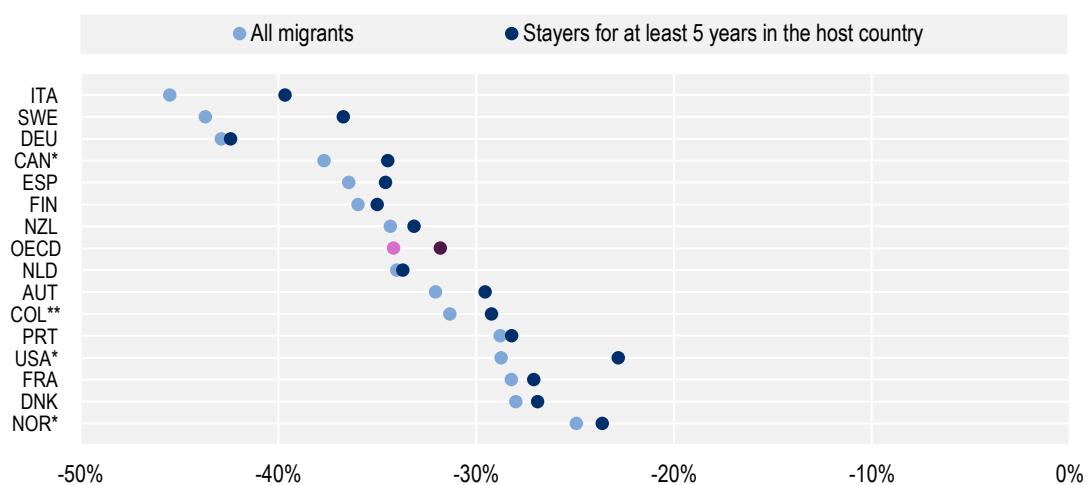
Across the OECD countries included in the analysis, immigrants who remain employed in the host country for five years or more had a smaller initial earnings gap, relative to the native-born, than the initial gap estimated for all immigrants (irrespective of duration of stay) (Figure 4.4).

The selection effect is small on average across countries. The initial earnings gap of immigrants who are in employment at year five is 2 p.p. lower than the overall initial gap (32% compared with 34%). The selection effect tends to be larger in the host countries with the largest initial earnings gaps, such as Italy and Sweden but also in the United States. The selection effect is small in Germany, despite a large initial earnings gap, as well as in Portugal and the Netherlands.

Consequently, the positive selection of immigrants in employment does not drive the estimated decrease in the immigrant earnings gap. When focussing only on immigrants who remain employed in the host country for at least five years, the reduction of the earnings gap is estimated at 11 p.p., very close to the 13 p.p. when considering all immigrants entering the host country labour market.

Figure 4.4. Immigrants who remain employed in the host country after five years are positively selected

Immigrant earnings gap at entry for all immigrants and those observed in employment after five years or more in the country, percentage



Note: * The earnings measure corresponds to annual earnings. In countries with annual earnings information, the earnings gap in the first year corresponds to that recorded in the second year to correct for differences in days worked and mechanically low earnings induced by the day of entry in the labour market. ** For Colombia, the earnings gap is estimated after four years, instead of five, due to the short panel structure.

Source: National linked employer-employee data, see Annex Table 4.A.1 for details. Authors' calculations.

StatLink <https://stat.link/uia16m>

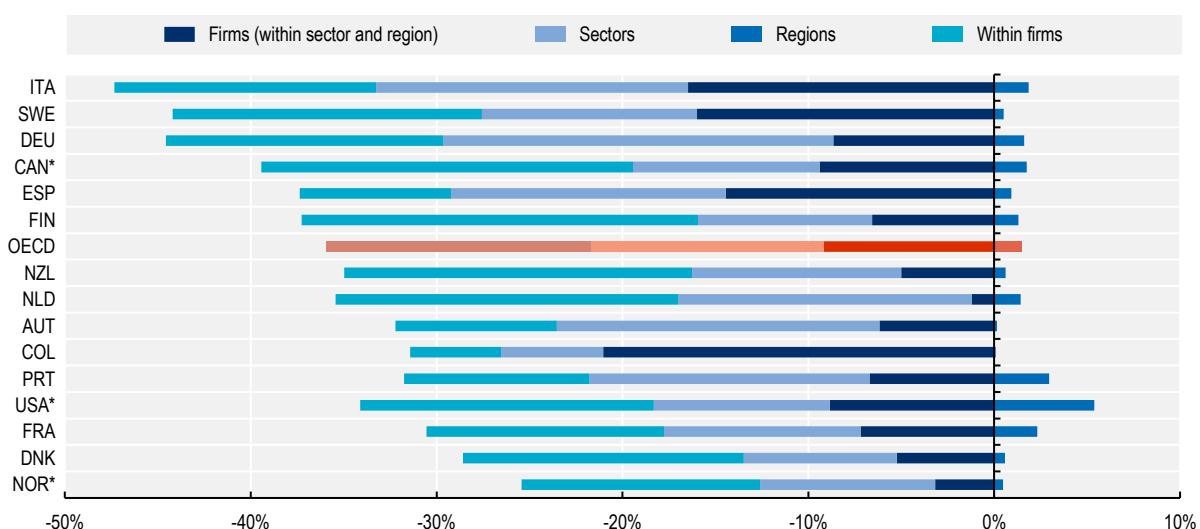
The role of firms, sectors and occupations in the immigrant earnings gap

Almost two-thirds of the initial immigrant earnings gap is due to immigrants working in lower-paying sectors and lower-paying firms within sectors

Almost two-thirds (63%) of the initial immigrant earnings gap can be explained by the concentration of immigrants in lower-paying firms and sectors, on average across countries (Figure 4.5). These are sectors, and firms within sectors, where all workers, both foreign and native-born, receive on average lower earnings. The combined contribution of firms and sectors to the immigrant earnings gap is substantial in all countries, ranging from 44% in Finland to 85% in Colombia. In contrast, immigrants tend to concentrate in higher-paying regions, such as urban areas. The positive impact of regions on the earnings gap is however very small in all countries.

Figure 4.5. Working in lower-paying firms and sectors accounts for over half of the initial immigrant earnings gap

Immigrant earnings gap at entry in the host country labour market, decomposed into the contribution of sectors, regions, firms (within sector and region) and a within-firm component, percentage



Note: The overall earnings gap corresponds to the average monthly earnings difference between immigrants upon entry in the host country and the native-born workers of the same age and sex in the same year. The decomposition of the earnings gap follows Gelbach (2016^[8]), see Box 4.1 for details. * The earnings measure corresponds to annual earnings. In countries with annual earnings information, the earnings gap in the first year corresponds to that recorded in the second year to correct for differences in days worked and mechanically low earnings induced by the day at entry in the labour market.

Source: National linked employer-employee data, see Annex Table 4.A.1 for details. Authors' calculations.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/1wtpjo>

The concentration of immigrants in lower-paying sectors alone accounts for over one-third (36%) of the earnings gap on average across countries. The contribution of sectors to the earnings gap is large for all countries and ranges from 18% in Colombia to around 50% in Austria, Germany and Portugal. For example, in Portugal, 57% of all immigrants at labour market entry work in low-wage sectors such as accommodation and food, administrative service activities and construction.

Across OECD countries, immigrants are strongly concentrated in a few sectors, such as construction, domestic services, accommodation and food services, manufacturing, healthcare or information

technology (OECD, 2020^[12]). When entering the host country labour market, immigrants in this analysis are initially overrepresented in administrative service activities (which includes security and cleaning services to buildings), accommodation and food services and agriculture (Annex Table 4.B.4). These patterns are broadly similar across immigrant cohorts and countries.

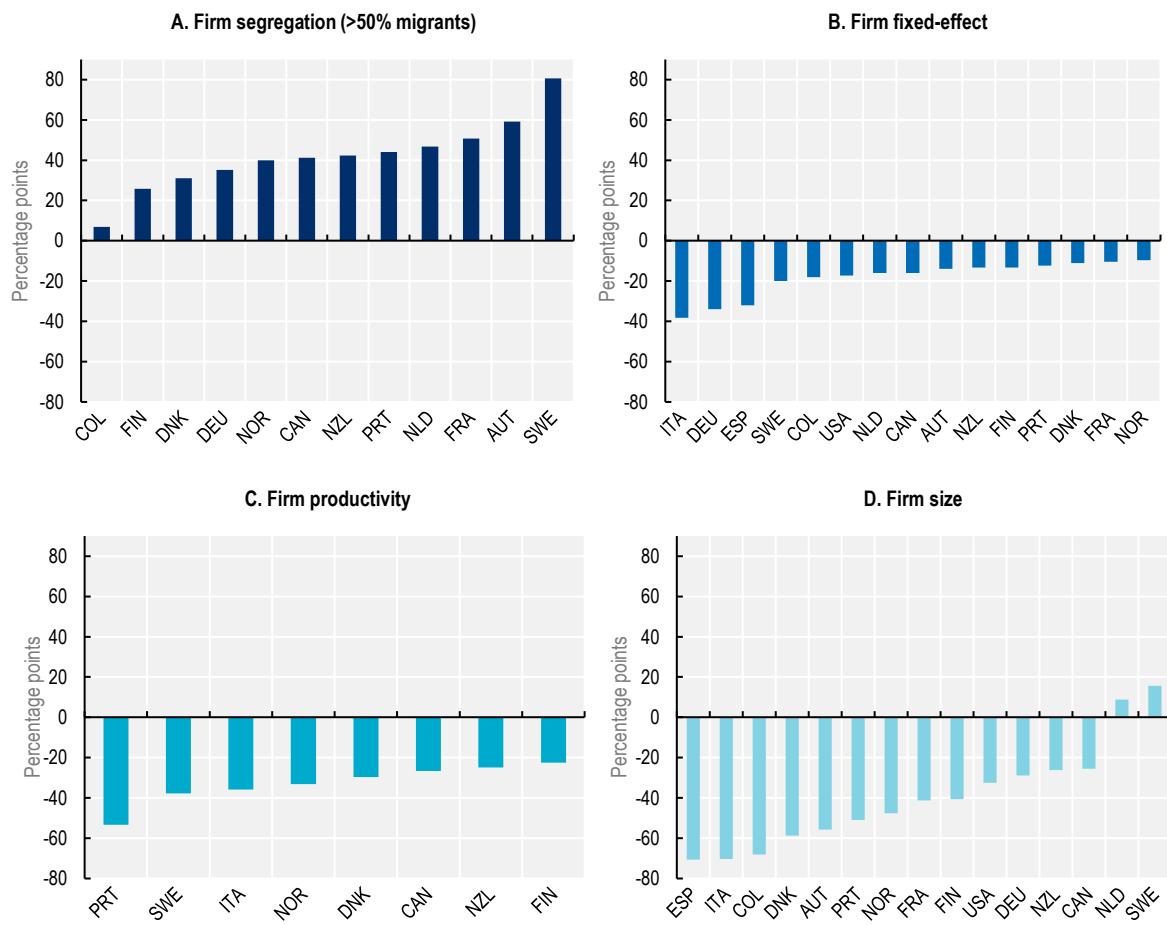
Immigrants are not only concentrated in some sectors of the economy, but they also concentrate in specific firms within sectors. Across the 15 OECD countries considered in this chapter, the concentration of immigrants in lower-paying firms within industries accounts for about one-quarter (27%) of the immigrant earnings gap at entry in the host country labour market.¹² The contribution of firm-pay differences within industries to the immigrant earnings gap ranges from 13% to 40% in most countries. Two notable exceptions are the Netherlands where firm-pay differentials explain very little of the immigrant earnings gap, and Colombia, where firm effects account for two-thirds of the earnings gap. The importance of firms in the immigrant earnings gap in Colombia may to some extent reflect the greater importance of differences in wage-setting practices and performance across firms, as is the case in many emerging economies (Kline, 2024^[13]).

Lower-paying firms are often also firms of low quality in a more general sense (Figure 4.6). Immigrants not only sort into lower-paying firms when first entering the host country labour market but also in firms that are smaller, less productive (measured by lower value added per worker) and substantially more segregated than firms that employ their native-born counterparts in all countries.

The evidence presented above adds to a growing academic literature on immigrant firm segregation from across the OECD.¹³ Different mechanisms may be at play that explain immigrant workplace segregation. Many workers find employment through job referrals and their informal networks. If immigrants' networks are disproportionately composed of other immigrants, then immigrants will tend to work together. Employer discrimination may also be at play, leading immigrants to concentrate in workplaces that do not discriminate against immigrants at hire.

Figure 4.6. Immigrants work in lower quality firms at entry in the labour market

Characteristics of the firms where immigrants work at entry in the labour market, relative to the native-born of the same age and sex



Note: The firm fixed-effect is a firm earnings premium paid to all workers in a given firm net of worker composition following (Abowd, Kramarz and Margolis (1999)^[11]). Firm productivity is measured in terms of value-added per worker, except for Portugal, where it is measured as sales per worker. Firm size refers to the number of employees in a given firm and year. Firm segregation is a dummy variable equal to one if immigrants comprise more than 50% of all workers in a given firm and year. Information on firm-level productivity is not available in Austria, Colombia, Germany, Spain, France, the Netherlands and the United States. The share of immigrants in the firm is not available in Spain, Italy and the United States. For Spain, Italy and France, the firm fixed-effects do not control for worker composition due to small sample sizes.

Source: National linked employer-employee data, see Annex Table 4.A.1 for details. Authors' calculations.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/mubfyq>

Differences in pay between immigrants and the native-born within the same firm account for the remaining initial immigrant earnings gap on average across countries (42%). This within-firm component ranges from 16% and 22% in Colombia and Spain to over 50% in countries such as Canada, Denmark, Finland, New Zealand or the United States. Within-firm earnings gaps may reflect differences in the type of work immigrants do within firms (i.e. differences in occupations), differences in their productivity within those occupations related to tenure, language fluency and educational attainment, or differences in pay for work of equal value (e.g. bargaining, discrimination).

Additional analysis for Germany and Portugal, for which data on education is available, suggests that differences in earnings within firms change only marginally when accounting for differences in education between the two groups (Annex Figure 4.B.2). Immigrants also do not sort into lower-paying sectors and firms due to lower education. In contrast, the section below shows, for countries with available data, that a large share of the immigrant earnings gap is due to immigrants working in occupations that pay lower wages.

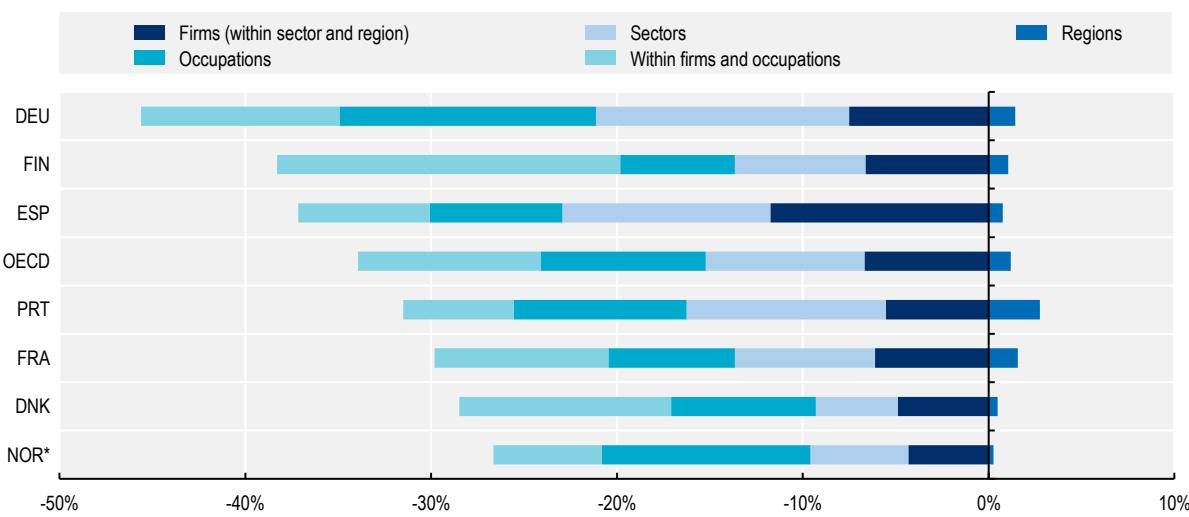
Working in lower paying occupations accounts for one-quarter of the immigrant initial earnings gap

On average across countries with available occupational information, the concentration of immigrants in lower-paying occupations explains over one-quarter (27%) of the immigrant earnings gap (Figure 4.7). These are occupations, where all workers, both foreign and native-born, are paid on average lower wages. The role of occupations in explaining the immigrant earnings gap is particularly pronounced in Portugal and Germany, where over 30% of the initial entry earnings gap can be explained by work in lower-paying occupations relative to the native-born.¹⁴ In contrast, in Finland, occupations explain only 17% of the immigrant earnings gap at entry.

Accounting for occupations in which immigrants work reduces the magnitude of the immigrant earnings gap within firms, indicating that immigrants work in lower-paying occupations within the same firms. The remaining earnings gap within firms after controlling for occupations reflects differences in tasks and responsibilities within occupations, differences in productivity in a given job (e.g. tenure, educational attainment, language skills) or differences in pay for work of equal value.¹⁵

Figure 4.7. Working in lower paying occupations accounts for one-quarter of the immigrant initial earnings gap

Immigrant earnings gap at entry in the host country labour market, decomposed into the contribution of sectors, regions, firms (within sector and region) and a within-firm component, percentage



Note: The overall earnings gap corresponds to the average monthly earnings difference between immigrants upon entry in the host country and the native-born workers of the same age and sex in the same year. The decomposition of the earnings gap follows Gelbach (2016^[8]), see Box 4.1 for details. Occupation is measured at the 2-digit level across countries considered. For Finland, occupational information is only available from 2004 onwards. * The earnings measure corresponds to annual earnings. In countries with annual earnings information, the earnings gap in the first year corresponds to that recorded in the second year to correct for differences in days worked and mechanically low earnings induced by the day at entry in the labour market.

Source: National linked employer-employee data, see Annex Table 4.A.1 for details. Authors' calculations.

The concentration of immigrants in lower-paying occupations reflects the lower educational attainment of part of the immigrant population but also the widespread overqualification of tertiary educated immigrants. The immigrant gap in overqualification has been well documented across the OECD (OECD/European Commission, 2023^[1]; Dustmann, Frattini and Preston, 2012^[14]). Box 4.3 presents overqualification rates for immigrants and the native-born from alternative data sources for the countries covered in the analysis.

Box 4.3. Immigrant overqualification is widespread across OECD countries

On average across countries, the share of overqualified immigrants, measured as the proportion of tertiary educated immigrants working in medium- and low-skilled occupations, is 27 p.p. higher than that of the native-born (Table 4.1). The overqualification rate of immigrants is particularly large in Italy and Norway, as well as Portugal and Sweden. It is relatively lower in Austria and Germany as well as close to zero in Canada and the United States.

Table 4.1. Overqualification rates among recent immigrants

Share of (recently arrived) tertiary-educated workers in medium- to low-skilled occupations by country

Country	Foreign-born	Native-born	Difference (FB – NB)
ITA	64	14	50
NOR	49	12	37
PRT	41	12	29
SWE	41	12	28
DNK	34	13	22
ESP	51	33	18
FRA	38	20	18
FIN	33	18	15
OECD	44	17	27
NLD	23	14	9
AUT	31	23	8
DEU	25	18	8
CAN*	36	34	2
USA*	35	35	0

Note: For European countries, the overqualification rate for immigrants is based on all tertiary educated immigrants arriving to the host country between 2006-2015 as recorded in the EU-LFS. For the United States and Canada, denoted with an asterisk, the overqualification rate is measured based on all tertiary educated immigrants in the country in 2015 as recorded in the Database on Immigrants in OECD and non-OECD Countries (DIOC). For New Zealand, information on occupations is not available in the Labour Force Survey and as such overqualification cannot be measured.

Source: EU-LFS, DIOC, authors' calculations.

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Several mechanisms may be at play for explaining the role of occupations and overqualification. Immigrants may face barriers to human capital transferability acquired in the origin country, for example due to obstacles in the formal recognition of their qualifications in the host country. Language barriers and occupational licensing may also prevent reallocation towards higher-paying occupations. There may also be potential mismatches between the demand for skills in the host country labour market and immigrants' skills acquired in the origin country.

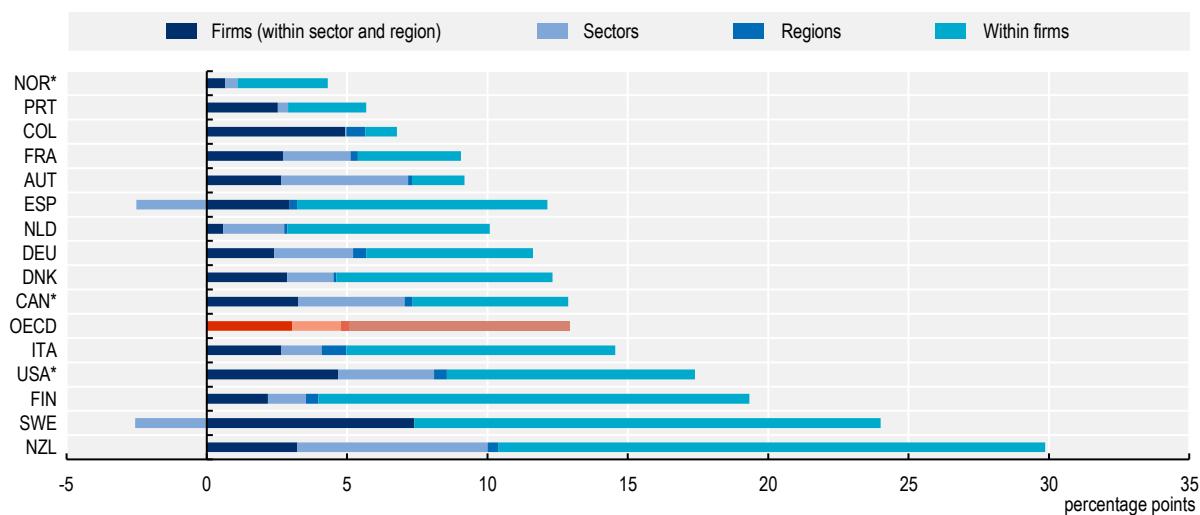
Immigrants partially close the earnings gap by moving to better paying firms and sectors over time

As immigrants gain experience in the host country labour market, they partially close the earnings gap with respect to the native-born through job mobility towards better-paying firms and sectors (Figure 4.8). On average across countries, the immigrant earnings gap is reduced by about one-third, or 13 p.p., from the initial year in the labour market.

Moving to higher paying firms accounts for one-quarter (24%) of the reduction in the gap, moving to higher-paying sectors accounts for 13%. The larger reduction in the immigrant earnings gap through job mobility to higher-paying firms than to higher-paying industries reflects that transitions between sectors are more difficult since different economic activities may require different skills. Moving to better paying regions is not relevant for the reduction in the gap, accounting for only 1 p.p. As immigrants tend to enter the labour market in higher-paying regions relative to the native-born, there is little room for further improvement in this dimension.

Figure 4.8. Immigrants partially close the earnings gap by moving to better paying firms and sectors

Change in immigrant earnings gap between the fifth and the first year in the host country labour market, decomposed into changes in the contribution of sectors, regions, firms (within sector and region) and a within-firm component, p.p.



Note: The change in the earnings gap between the first and the fifth year in p.p. can be decomposed as the sum of the change in each component (firm, sector, region, within-firm) between the first and the fifth year. * The earnings measure corresponds to annual earnings. In countries with annual earnings information, the earnings gap in the first year corresponds to that recorded in the second year to correct for differences in days worked and mechanically low earnings induced by the day at entry in the labour market. ** For Colombia, the earnings gap is estimated after four years, instead of five, due to the short panel structure.

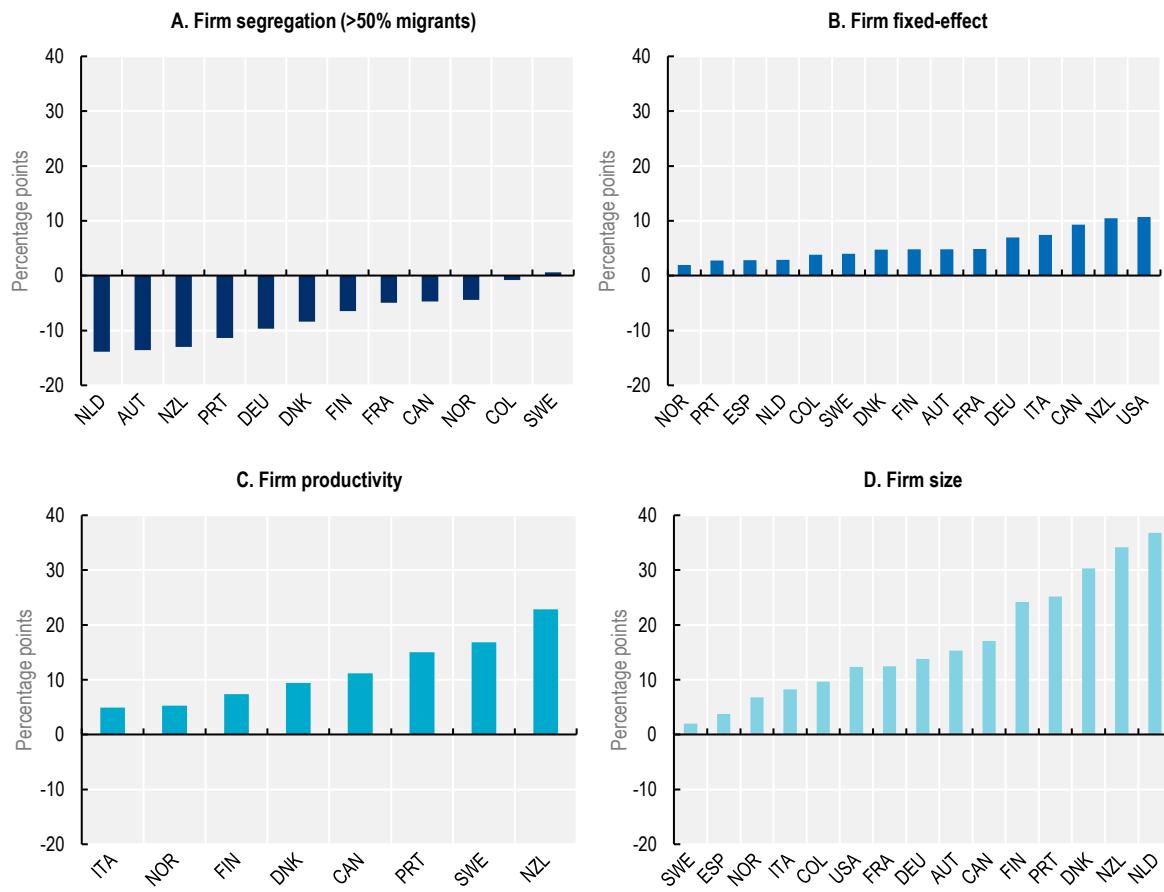
Source: National linked employer-employee data, see Annex Table 4.A.1 for details. Authors' calculations.

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The mobility of immigrants to higher-paying firms is coupled with improvements in firm quality relative to the native-born (Figure 4.9). Across all the countries considered, immigrants move to firms that not only pay higher wages, but also are more productive, larger in size and less segregated.

Figure 4.9. Immigrants climb up the firm quality ladder towards larger, higher paying, more productive and less segregated firms

Change in firm characteristics of immigrants relative to the native-born between the fifth and the first year in the host country labour market



Note: The firm fixed-effect is a firm earnings premium paid to all workers in a given firm net of worker composition following Abowd, Kramarz and Margolis (1999^[11]). Firm productivity is measured in terms value-added per worker, except for Portugal, where it is measured by sales per worker. Firm size refers to the number of employees in a given firm and year. Firm segregation is a dummy variable equal to one if immigrants comprise more than 50% of all workers in a given firm and year. Information on firm-level productivity is not available in Austria, Colombia, Germany, Spain, France, the Netherlands and the United States. The share of immigrants in the firm is not available in Spain, Italy and the United States. For Spain, Italy and France, the firm fixed-effects do not control for worker composition due to small sample sizes.

Source: National linked employer-employee data, see Annex Table 4.A.1 for details. Authors' calculations.

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While job mobility towards better firms is an important margin for wage progression among immigrants, it is important to keep in mind that most of the reduction in the immigrant earnings gap happens within firms. On average across countries, more than half (61%) of the reduction in the earnings gap by the fifth year can be attributed to progression within firms. Mobility within firms is particularly relevant in Finland, Norway and Sweden, as well as the Netherlands and Spain but less so in Austria and Colombia. This reflects increases in hours worked (as seen above), returns to tenure and potentially transitions to higher-paying occupations. The next sub-section extends the analysis to include occupational mobility for the countries with available data to assess to what extent the reduction in the within-firm earnings gap reflects transitions to higher-paying occupations.

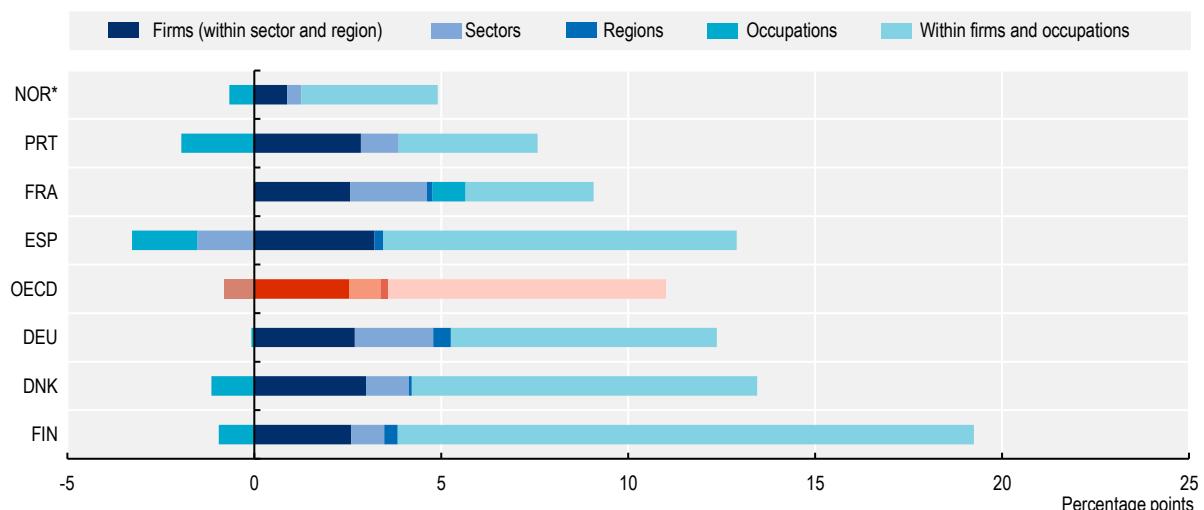
Immigrants do not close the earnings gap by moving to higher paying occupations despite widespread overqualification

Job mobility towards higher-paying occupations does not contribute to the reduction in the immigrant earnings gap in the countries considered in the analysis with available data on occupations. On average across the seven countries, occupations have a close to zero contribution to the overall reduction in the immigrant earnings gap in the first years in the labour market (Figure 4.10). This pattern is similar across countries with the contribution of occupations to the reduction of the earnings gap being small in all countries, and in most cases negative. This means that immigrants move to higher-paying occupations at a lower rate than the native-born of the same age and sex.

Despite the large contribution of working in lower-paying occupations to the immigrant earnings gap, immigrants do not move up the occupational ladder in the countries in the analysis. More immigrants than native-born have a low educational attainment which partly explains they work in lower skill, and lower pay, occupations. However, it is also the case that tertiary educated immigrants face high rates of overqualification upon arrival in the host country: they work in lower skill, and lower paying occupations than predicted by their educational attainment. In the case of tertiary educated immigrants, upwards occupational mobility (gaining access to occupations that match their educational credentials) could play a role in decreasing the immigrant earnings gap over time.

Figure 4.10. Immigrants do not close the earnings gap by moving to higher-paying occupations

Change in the immigrant earnings gap between the fifth and the first year in the host country labour market decomposed into the contributions of firms, sectors, regions, occupations and the within-firm and within-occupation component, p.p.



Note: The change in the earnings gap between the first and the fifth year in p.p. can be decomposed as the sum of the change in each component (firm, sector, region, occupation, within-firm and occupation) between the first and the fifth year. * The earnings measure corresponds to annual earnings. In countries with annual earnings information, the earnings gap in the first year corresponds to that recorded in the second year to correct for differences in days worked and mechanically low earnings induced by the day at entry in the labour market. Occupation is measured at the 2-digit level across countries considered. For Finland, occupational information is only available from 2004 onwards.

Source: National linked employer-employee data, see Annex Table 4.A.1 for details. Authors' calculations.

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Importantly, the contribution of firms and sectors remains substantial for the reduction in the immigrant earnings gap after accounting for occupational mobility. This reinforces the conclusion that job mobility to higher-paying firms and sectors, as well as earnings growth within firms, are key to the earnings integration of immigrants.

The results in this chapter show that the immigrant earnings gap is quite persistent over time, despite improvements in the first years in the labour market (Annex Table 4.B.1). This raises the question of whether the gap persists across generations. Box 4.4 presents recent cross-country evidence that shows that the adult native-born children of immigrants experience a much lower earnings gap than their parents. They still work in lower paying sectors and jobs than the native-born, but to a much lower extent than the foreign-born.

Box 4.4. The integration of the native-born children of immigrants: The role of firms

The adult native-born children of immigrants are a large and growing group in many OECD countries (OECD/European Commission, 2023^[1]). While the adult native-born children of immigrants experience an earnings gap relative to the native-born without a migration background, recent evidence shows that it is a substantially lower gap than that experienced by recent immigrants (Boustan, 2025^[15]).

Hermansen et al (2025^[16]) uses administrative data for selected OECD countries to document the earnings gap of immigrants, and of the children of immigrants, within and across industries and jobs (a job is an occupation within an establishment or firm). The study shows that for the six OECD countries with available data (Canada, Denmark, Germany, the Netherlands, Norway and Sweden), the adult children of immigrants experience a much lower earnings gap than immigrants. Moreover, the earnings of the adult children of immigrants are virtually the same as those of the native-born working in the same sectors and jobs. Hence, the small differences in earnings between the adult children of immigrants and their native-born counterparts are due to them working in lower paying sectors and jobs.

Differences in the immigrant earnings gap by region-of-origin and sex

The immigrant earnings gap is larger for immigrants from Africa, the Middle East and Asia partly because they work in lower paying sectors and firms

The outcomes of immigrants in the labour market differ by immigrants' region of origin (see Chapter 2). The differences in outcomes are driven by differences in immigrants' reason for migration, individual characteristics (e.g. educational level, quality of the education, experience in host country), immigrant networks, among others. This section presents the earnings gap over time in the labour market for the main regions of origin of immigrants in the 15 OECD countries and assesses the contribution of sectors and firms in explaining the gaps.

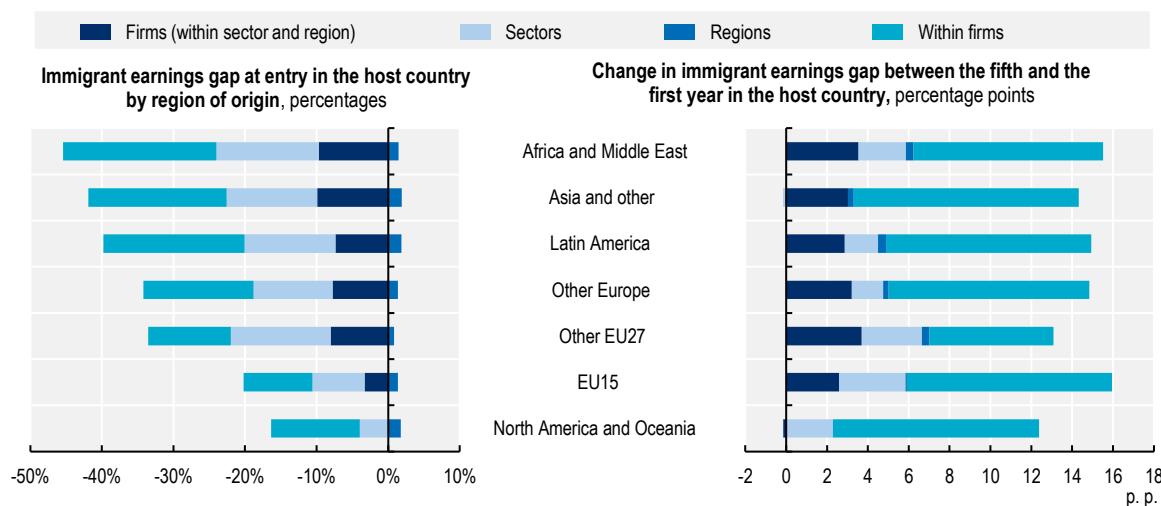
The immigrant earnings gap at labour market entry is larger for immigrants from Africa, the Middle East and Asia, and smaller for immigrants from the EU15 and North America and Oceania, on average across host countries (Figure 4.11). The earnings gap relative to the native-born of the same age and sex is 44% for immigrants from Africa and the Middle East and 40% for immigrants from Asia, compared with 19% for immigrants from EU-15 countries and 15% for immigrants from North America and Oceania.

Immigrants from all regions of origin work in lower-paying sectors and firms than the native-born. The contribution of work in lower-paying firms and sectors is higher for those origin groups with the largest earnings gaps. The contribution of working in lower-paying sectors and firms is 18 and 12 p.p. for

immigrants from Africa and the Middle East. For immigrants from the EU15, the contributions are 8 p.p. and 4 p.p. on average across host countries. The small group of immigrants from North America and Oceania work in similarly paying firms than the native-born (despite working in lower paying sectors on average).

Over time in the labour market, the earnings gap decreases for immigrants from all regions of origin. However, the reduction in the earnings gaps is similar across regions of origin over five years, such that initial level differences between immigrant groups are persistent. Immigrants of all origin groups move to higher-paying firms over time. Differences in firm effects between origin groups are also persistent over time. See Annex Figure 4.B.3, Annex Figure 4.B.4 and Annex Figure 4.B.5 for gaps by region of origin and host country.

Figure 4.11. The earnings gap by region of origin



Note: Average across countries (unweighted). The overall earnings gap corresponds to the average monthly earnings difference between immigrants upon entry in the host country and the native-born workers of the same age and sex in the same year. The decomposition of the earnings gap follows Gelbach (2016^[8]), see Box 4.1 for details.

Source: National linked employer-employee data, see Annex Table 4.A.1 for details. Authors' calculations.

StatLink <https://stat.link/lnimw4>

The composition of immigrants, including the countries they come from, is partly shaped by migration policies. Immigrants arriving through different pathways (e.g. labour, family or humanitarian) have different labour market attachment and different labour market outcomes. Box 4.5 presents estimations of the immigrant earnings gap, as well as the contributions of sectors and firms to the earnings gap, for immigrants in Canada by broad category of migration. Canada is one of the few countries for which detailed data on immigrants' visa status is available.

Furthermore, several recent academic papers have focussed on humanitarian migrants, or large migration waves, to study the role of firms in their integration in specific OECD countries. The results of this literature are summarised in Box 4.6.

Box 4.5. Earnings gaps and the role of firms by category of immigration – Evidence from Canada

Immigrants arriving in the host country through different migration pathways often fare differently in the host country labour market and may require different integration support. While in many cases, labour immigrants arrive with a job offer, family migrants or refugees need to first choose whether to enter the labour market and if they do so, look for a job.

In Canada, the administrative data contains information on the residence or work permit the immigrant holds at each point in time. The data is very detailed but for the purpose of this analysis, immigrants were grouped into six categories at the time they entered the Canadian labour market.¹

Immigrants from all six categories at entry earn less than the native-born of the same age and sex (Figure 4.12). Among permanent immigrants at entry, economic immigrants experience the lowest earnings gap, and the largest decrease in the gap, followed by immigrants for family reasons and refugees.

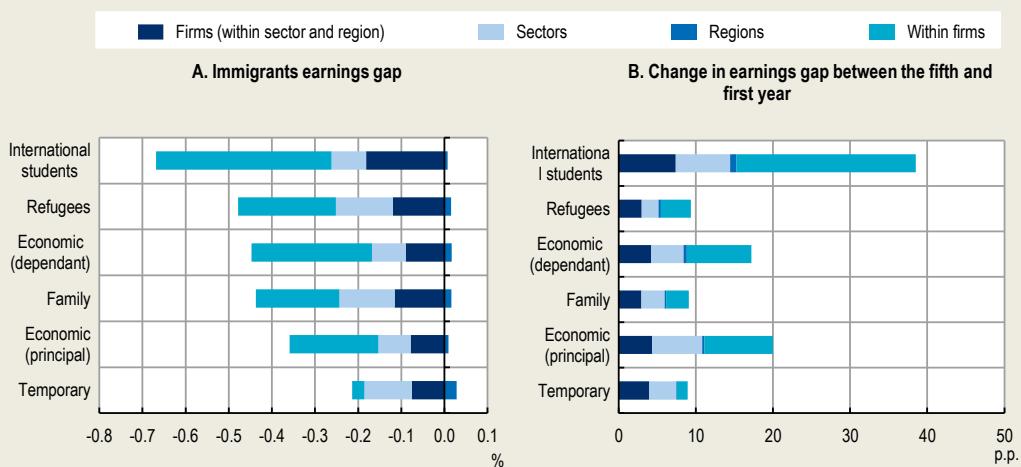
The large initial earnings gap (mainly within sectors and firms) experienced by international students mainly reflects the importance of part-time jobs that can be combined with study. International students have the largest reduction in the earnings gap as many transition to full-time jobs after graduating.

Temporary migrants experience the lowest earnings gap. This is a heterogeneous group that includes temporary foreign workers of both high- and low-skill streams, as well as participants in Canada's International Mobility Program.

Immigrants from all categories of migration work in lower-paying sectors and firms upon entry in the labour market. The firm effect accounts for between 10 and 20 p.p. of the initial earnings gap. Over time in the labour market, immigrants from all categories of migration move to better paying firms.

Figure 4.12. The immigrant earnings gap by category of migration in Canada

Immigrant earnings gap at entry in the host country labour market, and change between the fifth and first year, by category of migration, decomposed into the contribution of sectors, regions (within sector and region) and a within-firm component, percentage and p.p.



Source: National linked employer-employee data, see Annex Table 4.A.1 for details. Authors' calculations.

StatLink <https://stat.link/ngf0pz>

1. There are four categories of permanent migrants (principal applicant of the economic class, dependent of the economic class, immigrant for family reasons and refugee) and two categories of temporary migrants (international students and temporary economic migrants).

Box 4.6. The integration of refugees: The role of firms

The integration of refugees in the labour market poses distinct challenges compared to that of economic migrants (Brell, Dustmann and Preston, 2020^[17]). Due to the forced nature of refugee immigration, refugees typically experience substantial and highly persistent gaps in integration outcomes, even when compared to other migrants (Fasani, Frattini and Minale, 2021^[18]; Müller, Pannatier and Viarengo, 2023^[19]).

A growing body of research aims at understanding the role of firms for the economic integration of refugees:

For the **Netherlands**, Yumoto et al. (2023^[20]) document that refugees earn only a third of the average hourly pay of the native-born and concentration of refugees in low-paying firms explains 17% of the overall hourly earnings gap between 2014 and 2021. Assortative matching (i.e. the extent by which high-ability workers work for high-paying firms) is estimated to be negative for refugees, indicating that high-ability refugees tend to work in low-paying firms. Within firms, the authors find no pay-setting differences between refugees and the native-born.

For **Denmark**, Caiumi and Simonsen (2025^[21]) leverage the quasi-random assignment of refugees to municipalities and find that on average refugees achieve a significant improvement in workplace quality only after ten years since arrival. However, refugees that are placed in municipalities with a higher share of co-nationals employed by high-quality employers experience significant increases in employment probability and annual earnings, which highlights the role of social connections for integration.

For **Colombia**, Delgado-Prieto (2025^[22]) finds that, despite massive regularisation programmes targeted at Venezuelan migrants, only 10% of regularised migrants had formal jobs. Conditional on entering the formal sector, about half of the immigrant earnings gap can be attributed to the concentration in low-paying firms, with persistent gaps with respect to the native-born in most job and firm dimensions.

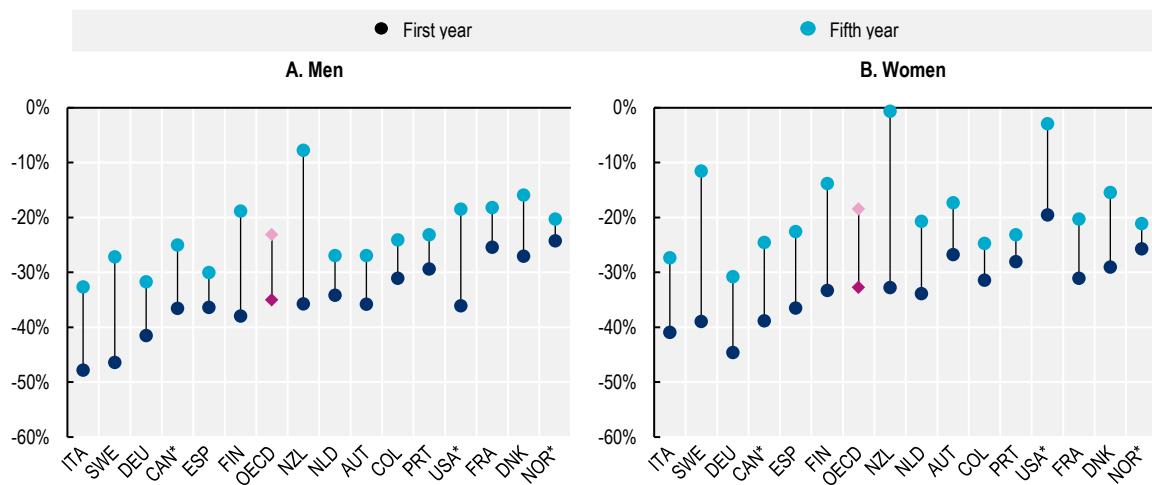
For **Israel**, Arellano-Bover and San (2022^[23]) study the mass migration of nearly 1 million former Soviet Union (FSU) Jews during the 1990s fleeing from the Soviet Union. This historical episode offers a unique setting to study unconstrained integration, as FSU immigrants received citizenship on arrival to Israel. At labour market entry, FSU immigrants earned 57% less than comparable natives and about 20% of the earnings gap can be explained by work in low-paying firms. Over time, FSU immigrants close the earnings gap relative to the native-born after 29 years in the host country, and this process is substantially mediated by job mobility towards higher-paying, more desirable employers as opposed to improvements in differential pay-setting within firms.

The immigrant earnings gap at entry is slightly larger for men than women and declines more slowly over time

On average across OECD countries, the immigrant earnings gap at labour market entry is slightly higher among male immigrants, with male immigrants experiencing an average 35% gap relative to native-born men, compared to an average 33% gap for female immigrants relative to native-born women (Figure 4.13). There is a larger earnings gap among male immigrants in most countries, except for Colombia, Germany, France, Denmark and Norway.

Despite the lower immigrant earnings gap among women, it is important to keep in mind that immigrant women face a double pay penalty in the labour market. They experience an earnings gap relative to men and relative to the native-born.

Figure 4.13. The immigrant earnings gap is slightly larger among male immigrants at labour market entry



Note: * The earnings measure corresponds to annual earnings. In countries with annual earnings information, the earnings gap in the first year corresponds to that recorded in the second year to correct for differences in days worked and mechanically low earnings induced by the day at entry in the labour market. ** For Colombia, the earnings gap is estimated after four years, instead of five, due to the short panel structure. Darker dots represent the value at YSE = 5, lighter dots at YSE = 1.

Source: National linked employer-employee data, see Annex Table 4.A.1 for details.

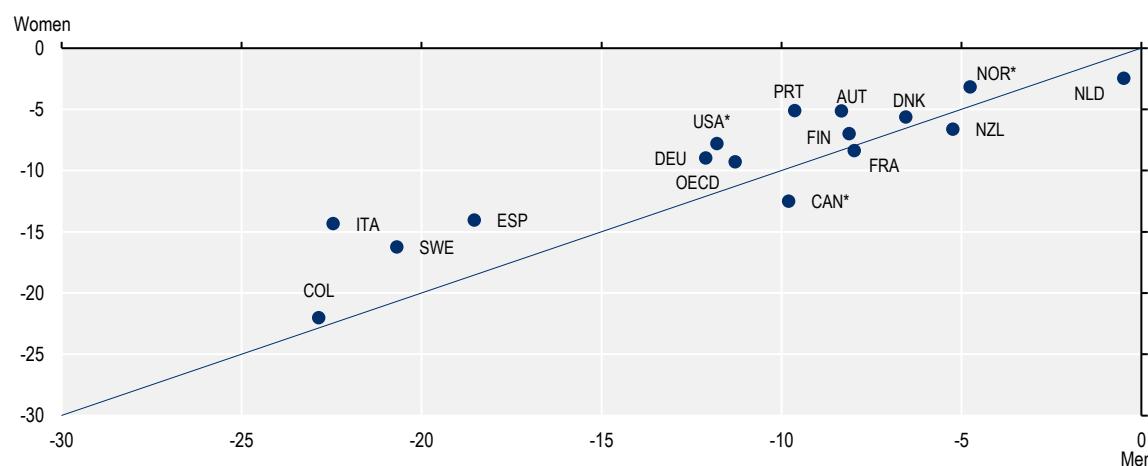
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Between the first and the fifth year in the host country, immigrant men reduce earnings gaps relative to the native-born at a slower pace than women. On average across OECD countries, immigrant men close 12 p.p. of the immigrant earnings gap after five years, compared to a 14 p.p. reduction among immigrant women. The slower pace of convergence to the native-born, together with the higher earnings gaps at entry, results in immigrant earnings gaps being larger among male immigrants also after five years. A slower speed of convergence among immigrant men has been found to be present across countries in the literature (Lee, Peri and Viarengo, 2022^[24]).

The contribution of work in lower-paying firms to the immigrant earnings gap is higher for men than women (Figure 4.14). On average across OECD countries, work in low-pay firms accounts for 12 p.p. of the immigrant earnings gap at entry for men, compared with 10 for women. The firm earnings gap is larger for immigrant men than women in all countries in the analysis, except for New Zealand, France and the Netherlands where firm earnings gaps are similar for men and women. There is no clear pattern on whether mobility towards higher-paying firms is more relevant for male than for female immigrants.

Figure 4.14. Work in lower-paying firms explains more of the immigrant earnings gap for male immigrants

Contribution of firms to the immigrant earnings gap at labour market entry, for immigrant men and women, p.p.



Note: Sample are all immigrants at labour market entry. Points above the red 45-degree line imply a smaller contribution of firms to the immigrant-native earnings gap for female immigrants.

Source: National linked employer-employee data, see Annex Table 4.A.1 for details.

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Conclusion

This chapter provides comprehensive cross-country evidence on the sources of the immigrant earnings gap at entry, and over time, in the host country labour market, based on linked employer-employee panel data for 15 OECD countries.

Its main findings can be summarised as follows. First, immigrants, when first entering the host country labour market, earn significantly less than native-born workers of the same age and sex, but partially catch up as they become more integrated. On average across countries, the immigrant earnings gap declines from 34% when first entering the host country labour market to 21% after five years. Second, immigrants earn less because they are initially employed in lower-paying firms, industries and occupations. Third, over time, immigrants move to higher paying firms and industries, but they do not move to higher paying occupations. One-quarter of the reduction in the earnings gap is due to moving to better paying firms within sectors, on average across host countries. Fourth, there are large differences in the immigrant earnings gaps at entry and their evolution over time by region-of-origin.

The main message for integration policy is that while measures that focus on the recognition of immigrant credentials or the remediation of skills gaps are crucial, they should be complemented with measures that support job search and job mobility. One of the most striking findings of the chapter is that occupational segregation is highly persistent. This highlights the importance of policies related to the recognition of prior qualifications and remediation of skill gaps related to language fluency and professional licensing requirements. However, the chapter also shows that job mobility to better paying firms and sectors can play an important role in the earnings integration of immigrants. This suggests that there is scope for policies that target barriers to job mobility including providing information on job search and the host country labour market, career counselling and the development of professional networks, improving local transportation, combatting discrimination in the housing market and providing affordable housing, among others.

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Annex 4.A. Data and methodology

Annex Table 4.A.1. Linked employer-employee datasets by country

Country	Name	Source	Sample	Period	Cohorts included
Austria	AMS-BMASK Arbeitsmarktdatenbank	Social security administration	Universe	2000-2019	2003-2015
Canada	Canadian Employer-Employee Dynamics Database	Tax administration	Universe	2001-2019	2004-2015
Colombia	Planilla Integrada de Liquidación de Aportes (PILA)	Social Security administration	Universe (formal sector)	2017-2021	2018-2020
Denmark	Integrerede Database for Arbejdsmarkedsforskning (IDA) and other data from Statistics Denmark	Tax administration	Universe	2000-2019	2003-2015
Finland	FOLK employment data from Statistics Finland, Employer Payroll Report from Tax Admin.	Tax administration	Universe	2000-2019	2003-2015
France	Panel DADS	Social security administration	8.5% random sample of workers	2002-2019	2005-2015
Germany	Sample of Integrated Employer-Employee Data (SIEED)	Social security administration	1.5% sample of establishments	2000-2019	2003-2015
Italy	Italian Social Security Dataset (INPS)	Social security administration	6.6% random sample of workers	2000-2019	2003-2015
Netherlands	CBS Microdata from Statistics Netherlands	Tax administration	Universe	2006-2019	2009-2015
New Zealand	Integrated Data Infrastructure (IDI)	Tax administration	Universe	2000-2019	2003-2015
Norway	Arbeidsgiver- og arbeidstakerregister (Aa-registeret), Lønns- og trekkoppagaveregisteret (LTO)	Tax administration	Universe	2000-2019	2003-2015
Portugal	Quadros de Pessoal	Mandatory employer survey	Universe	2002-2019	2005-2015
Spain	Muestra Continua de Vidas Laborales con Datos Fiscales (MCVL-CDF)	Social security and tax administration	4% random sample of workers	2006-2019	2009-2015
Sweden	Longitudinell integrationsdatabas för sjukförsäkrings- och arbetsmarknadsstudier (LISA), Företagens ekonomi (FEK), Jobbregistret (JOBB)	Social security administration	Universe	2002-2018	2005-2014
United States	U.S. Census Bureau Numerical Identification file (Numident), Internal Revenue Service (IRS) individual W-2 forms, Longitudinal Business Database (LBD), American Community Survey (ACS)	Social security and tax administration, survey data	2.5% sample of workers (addresses)	2001-2019	2004-2015

Gelbach decomposition of the immigrant earnings gap

The following decomposition is an application of Gelbach (2016^[8]) and similarly applied in (Raposo, Portugal and Carneiro (2019^[25])). A Gelbach decomposition allows to unambiguously determine the contribution of covariates for the change of a coefficient estimate. The benchmark integration specification can be written in matrix notation as follows:

$$Y = X\beta_0 + YSE\delta_0 + u_0$$

Where X is a matrix of control variables (sex dummy interacted with a quartic in age, calendar year effects). YSE is a matrix collecting years-since-migration dummies and δ_0 a vector of corresponding regression

coefficients for each ysm dummy. u_0 stands for the error term. The subscript 0 denotes the benchmark specification.

Based on the Frisch-Waugh-Lovell theorem, the least squares estimate of δ_0 is given by running a regression of Y on YSE , after netting out the effect of the control variables in X from both Y and YSE . This is:¹⁶

$$\widehat{\delta_0} = (YSE'R_XYSE)^{-1}YSE'R_XY = A_XY$$

Where $R_X = [I - X(X'X)^{-1}X']$ is the residual-maker that, when multiplied with any variable, generates the residuals from running a regression of that variable on X . In this case, they allow to net out the impact of X on both Y and YSE . For the sake of simplicity, define the matrix $A_X = (YSE'R_XYSE)^{-1}YSE'R_X$ as matrix that, when multiplied with Y , generates coefficients for δ_0 after netting out the effects from all control variables included in X as described above.

In a second step, we expand the benchmark specification to include occupation and firm dummies to account for the impact of sorting. This results in the full specification, expressed as:

$$Y = X\beta_1 + YSE\delta_1 + F\psi_1 + O\gamma_1 + u_1$$

Where ψ_1 and γ_1 denote the firm and occupation fixed-effects respectively. The difference between δ_0 and δ_1 is that the first is biased due to the omission of firms and occupations. Multiply both sides of the full model with A_X and bring δ_1 to the left-hand side to obtain:¹⁷

$$\delta_0 - \delta_1 = A_X F\psi_1 + A_X O\gamma_1 = \tau_\psi + \tau_\gamma$$

Where τ_ψ is the overall contribution of firm sorting to the integration of immigrants and τ_γ the corresponding contribution of occupational sorting. In practice, we can obtain the overall contribution of firms τ_ψ by a regression of estimated firm fixed-effects from the full specification on the covariates of the base model (YSM and X). Analogously, we can obtain the overall contribution of occupations τ_γ .

Disentangling regional and sectoral sorting from firm sorting

In principle, the overall contribution of firms (τ_ψ) absorbs wage differentials between regions and between industries (Card, Rothstein and Yi, 2025^[10]; Card, Rothstein and Yi, 2024^[9]). This is because the sector and workplace region are time-invariant firm characteristics, which are absorbed by the introduction of firm fixed-effects. Consequently, we decompose the overall contribution of firms (τ_ψ) into separate components capturing wage differentials (1) between regions (2) between sectors and (3) between firms within sectors and regions.

In order to disentangle regions and sectors from firms, we assume the firm fixed-effect to be orthogonal to sector and region effects, such that we can write firm fixed-effects as a function of region fixed-effects (θ), sector fixed-effects (χ) and a residual term containing the impact of firms after netting out the effects of regions and sectors (ν):¹⁸

$$F\psi_1 = R\theta + S\chi + \nu$$

Multiply both sides of this expression with A_X to obtain:

$$\tau_\psi = \tau_\theta + \tau_\chi + \tau_\nu$$

The gross contribution of firms to the integration of immigrants τ_ψ can be thus separated into the contribution of regions, sectors, and the net contribution of firms. In practice, we regress firm fixed effects from the full specification on 3-digit industry dummies, NUTS-2 region dummies and a residual term, which allows us to obtain estimates of these three terms. Finally, we obtain estimates of τ_θ , τ_χ and τ_ν (i.e. the contribution of regions, sectors and firms) from separate regressions using the estimated sector, region fixed-effects and residuals as dependent variables and regressing them on the covariates of the base model YSE and X .

Annex 4.B. Additional tables and figures

Annex Table 4.B.1. Counts, age and share of women among new immigrants in the labour market

Average age, share of women and count of immigrants in the first year in the host country labour market

Country	Average age	Share of women	Number of immigrant workers
AUT	31.0	0.41	1 193 306
CAN	32.4	0.48	2 928 420
COL	31.6	0.68	118 488
DNK	29.8	0.54	224 744
ESP	31.8	0.45	20 646
FIN	32.3	0.42	123 325
FRA	33.0	0.47	118 302
ITA	31.6	0.34	265 270
NLD	30.6	0.47	553 720
NOR	31.6	0.41	210 266
NZL	33.9	0.34	90 663
PRT	32.0	0.43	228 540
SWE	34.4	0.35	82 332
DEU	30.7	0.44	176 856
USA		0.47	842 000
OECD	31.9	0.45	7 176 878

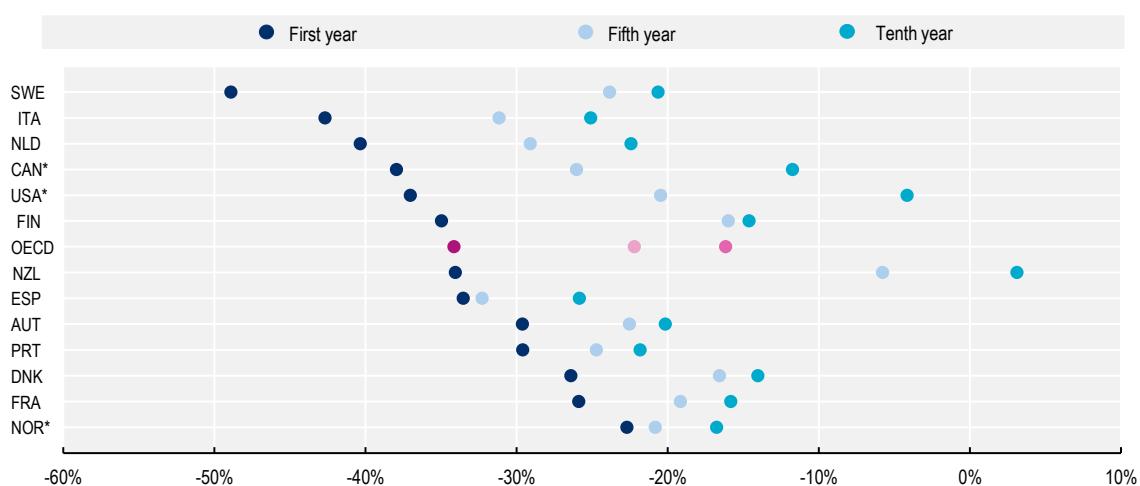
Note: Sample refers to all immigrants entering the labour market between 2006-2015.

Source: National linked employer-employee data, see Table 4.A.1 for details. Authors' calculations.

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Annex Figure 4.B.1. Immigrant earnings gaps after ten years

Immigrant earnings gap in the first, fifth and tenth year after entry in the host country labour market, percentage



Note: * The earnings measure corresponds to annual earnings. In countries with annual earnings information, the earnings gap in the first year corresponds to that recorded in the second year to correct for differences in days worked and mechanically low earnings induced by the day of entry in the labour market.

Source: National linked employer-employee data, see Annex Table 4.A.1 for details. Authors' calculations.

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Annex Table 4.B.2. Immigrant earnings over time in the labour market

Average real earnings (in USD) by years-since-entry in the host country labour market

Country	Monthly earnings in USD		
	YSE = 1	YSE = 5	Percentage change
AUT	885	1 068	21
COL	242	303	25
DEU	1 417	2 102	48
DNK	3 161	3 893	23
ESP	1 192	1 517	27
FIN	2 156	3 067	42
FRA	1 578	1 880	19
ITA	1 241	1 603	29
NLD	2 216	2 072	-6
NZL	4 010	3 786	-6
PRT	775	904	17
SWE	1 328	1 909	44
Annual earnings in USD			
CAN	29 557	37 618	27
NOR	59 752	67 877	14
USA	27 375	39 163	43

Note: Real monthly earnings in each currency are converted into USD using average annual exchange rates from OECD.Stat for the period 2003-2019 (Euro area, Sweden, Denmark, New Zealand, Norway), 2004-2019 (Canada), 2017-2021 (Colombia).

Source: Linked employer-employee data, OECD.Stat, authors' calculations.

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Annex Table 4.B.3. Educational attainment of recent immigrants

Share of high- and low-educated foreign-born and native-born workers, percentage

Country	High-educated		Low-educated	
	Foreign-born	Native-born	Foreign-born	Native-born
CAN*	64	54	15	19
DNK	52	28	21	30
NZL*	45	24	15	35
SWE	43	29	37	23
USA*	39	35	26	14
FRA	37	27	32	29
OECD	35	28	31	30
NOR	35	32	20	25
NLD	33	29	31	30
DEU	33	23	28	17
AUT	32	18	20	21
ESP	27	31	43	47
FIN	22	32	36	23
PRT	18	15	50	66
ITA	12	14	55	45

Note: High-educated individuals are those who completed a tertiary education degree. Low-educated individuals are those who did not complete upper secondary education. For European countries, immigrant education is measured in the year of arrival to the host country for the cohorts arriving in the years 2006-2015. For Canada, New Zealand and the United States (denoted with an asterisk), the education shares are calculated based on DIOC, with reference year 2015 and based on immigrants entering the country within the past 10 years. For native-born education shares are calculated as an average across all native-born individuals. Countries are ranked based on share of highly educated immigrants.

Source: EU-LFS, DIOC, Authors' calculations.

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Annex Table 4.B.4. Distribution of foreign- and native-born across industries

Share of foreign-born and native-born workers by 1-digit industry, percentage

Industry (1-digit)	Foreign-born	Native-born	Difference (Foreign-born – Native-born)
Accommodation and Food	16.5	5.2	11.3
Administrative Service Activities	17.2	6.5	10.7
Agriculture	4.6	2.9	1.7
Construction	8.6	7.6	1.1
Other Service Activities	2.9	2.7	0.2
Arts, Entertainment and Recreation	1.6	1.4	0.1
Real Estate Activities	0.8	0.9	-0.2
Mining and Quarrying	0.3	0.5	-0.2
Information and Communication	2.8	3.0	-0.2
Water Supply	0.2	0.5	-0.3
Electricity, Gas and Steam	0.1	0.5	-0.4
Professional Activities	4.9	5.6	-0.7
Transportation and Storage	4.3	5.3	-1.0
Education	4.2	5.3	-1.2
Financial and Insurance Activities	1.1	3.2	-2.2
Wholesale and Retail Trade	11.5	15.0	-3.5
Health	6.3	10.0	-3.7
Public Administration and Defence	3.6	9.3	-5.7
Manufacturing	8.6	14.4	-5.8

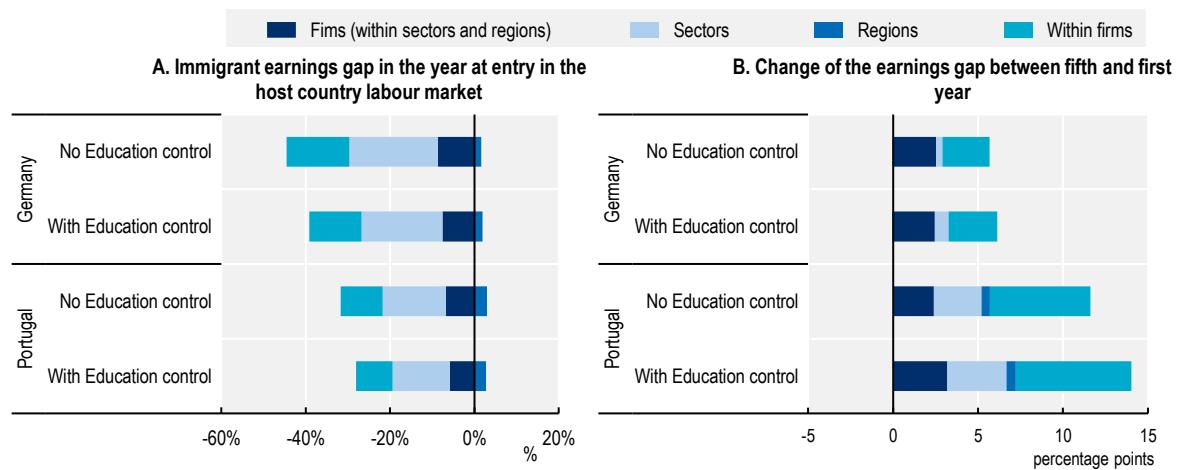
Note: The foreign and native-born columns refer to the share of native-born (foreign-born) working in an industry relative to all native-born (foreign-born) workers. For immigrant, the distribution is measured at labour market entry. Average across Austria, Canada, Denmark, Spain, Finland, France, Italy, the Netherlands, Norway, New Zealand, Portugal, Sweden and the United States.

Source: National linked employer-employee data, see Annex Table 4.A.1 for details. Authors' calculations.

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Annex Figure 4.B.2. Educational attainment does not explain immigrants working in lower-paying sectors and firms

Immigrant earnings gap in the year at entry in the host country labour market and change of the earnings gap between fifth and first year, decomposed into the contribution of sectors, regions, firms (within sector and region) and a within-firm component, adding and omitting educational controls, percentage and p.p.



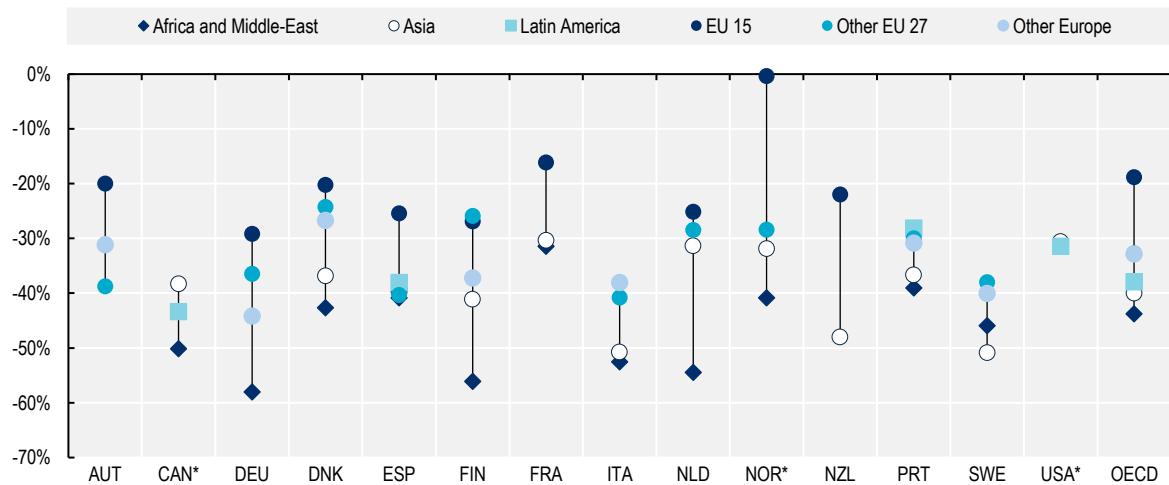
Note: The overall earnings gap corresponds to the average monthly earnings difference between immigrants upon entry in the host country and the native-born workers of the same age and sex in the same year. The decomposition of the earnings gap follows Gelbach (2016^[8]), see Box 4.1 for details. The change in the earnings gap between the first and the fifth year in p.p. can be decomposed as the sum of the change in each component (firm, sector, region, within-firm) between the first and the fifth year. For Germany and Portugal, dummies for broad educational groups (no vocational training, vocational training and university degree) are introduced in all specifications to control for education, and the resulting estimates contrasted with the case when omitting educational controls.

Source: National linked employer-employee data, see Annex Table 4.A.1 for details. Authors' calculations.

StatLink <https://stat.link/j09hcl>

Annex Figure 4.B.3. Earnings gaps at entry in the labour market, by region of origin

Immigrant earnings gap at entry in the host country labour market by region of origin, percentage

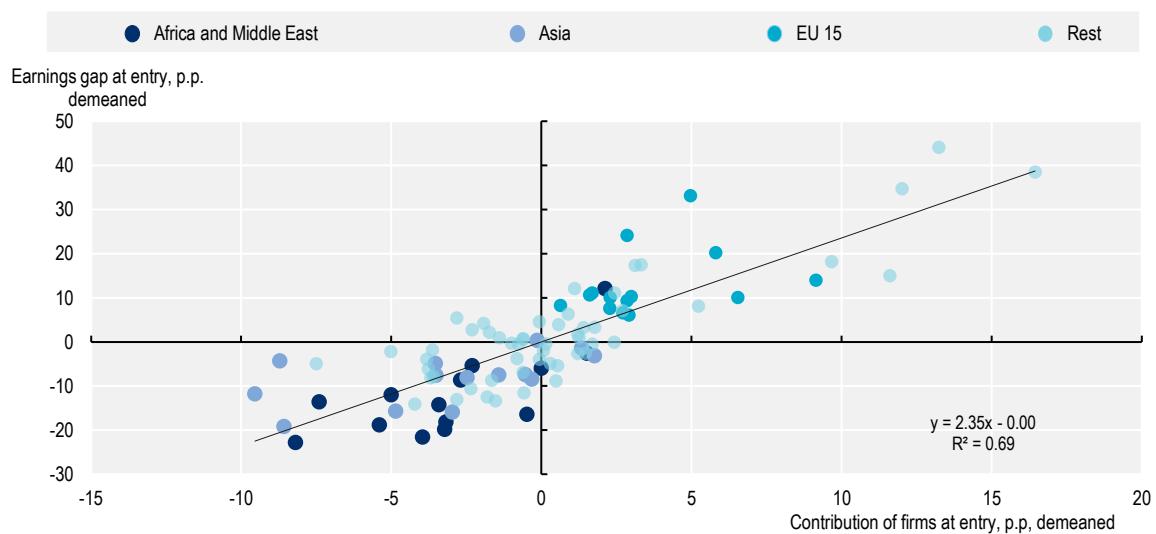


Note: To report relevant group sizes, wage gaps for each country are reported if the region of origin amounts to at least 10% of the total migrant inflow at entry. The OECD average is an unweighted average by region of origin across all countries. Colombia is not included in the chart as the data identifies only Venezuelans.

Source: National linked employer-employee data, see Annex Table 4.A.1 for details.

StatLink <https://stat.link/upyh32>

Annex Figure 4.B.4. Immigrant earnings gaps and contribution of firms at entry in the host country labour market

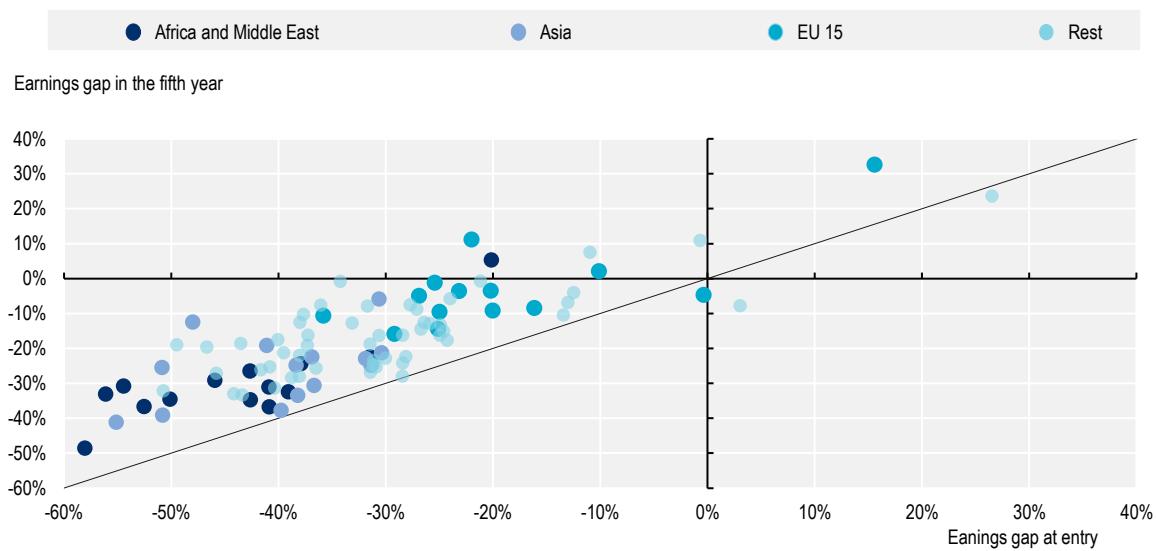


Note: Each observation represents *host country x region of origin*. The earnings gap at entry, the contribution of sectors, and the contribution of firms (within of sectors and regions) are regressed on country dummies first such that each dot can be interpreted as the deviation of a given region of origin with respect to the average immigrant earnings gap at entry or average contribution of firms within a country. Dotted lines indicate areas above-below the national average.

Source: National linked employer-employee data, see Annex Table 4.A.1 for details.

StatLink <https://stat.link/rmv4fu>

Annex Figure 4.B.5. Immigrant earnings gaps in the first and fifth year in the host country labour market, by region of origin



Note: Each observation represents *host country x region of origin*. Red line represents 45-degree line.

Source: National linked employer-employee data, see Annex Table 4.A.1 for details.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/cjy3kv>

Notes

¹ The countries covered are Austria, Canada, Colombia, Denmark, Finland, France, Germany, Italy, Portugal, New Zealand, the Netherlands, Norway, Spain, Sweden and the United States.

² For the exact cohorts covered in each country, see Annex Table A.4.1. The analysis stops in 2019 to avoid the potential confounding effects of the COVID-19 pandemic on labour markets.

³ The countries with available information on occupations are Denmark, France, Germany, Italy, the Netherlands and Portugal.

⁴ The data covers formal employment. Note that immigrants in formal employment may in some cases have an irregular migration status. This may be the case if their visa or work permit has expired (See on this issue Chapter 4. Addressing the illegal employment of foreign workers in (OECD, 2018^[32])). Irregular migrants working in the informal sector are not covered in the data.

⁵ For Colombia, immigrants are identified based on the regularisation documentation that was issued to Venezuelan refugees, who represent the vast majority of immigrants in the country.

⁶ If an individual is absent from the labour market for more than three years, due to inactivity, unemployment, or parental leave for example, he/she will be considered as a new entrant in the labour market. The threshold of three years allows maximising the number of immigrant cohorts included in the analysis while minimising the cases in which immigrants are misclassified as new arrivals.

⁷ Only annual earnings are available for Canada, Norway and the United States, instead of monthly earnings as in the other 12 countries in the analysis. Immigrants enter the host country labour market throughout the calendar year. Hence, their earnings in the first year in the labour market are mechanically low relative to the native-born, as they have worked on average fewer months during the year. For these 3 countries, in the analysis, the earnings upon arrival are the earnings in the second calendar year.

⁸ For Colombia, earnings are not available in the fifth year in the labour market, given that the migration wave of Venezuelans considered in the analysis is recent. The fourth year is used instead in the analysis.

⁹ There is no data for the earnings of immigrants after 10 years in Colombia and the United States. The average takes into account the remaining 13 OECD countries.

¹⁰ The initial immigrant earnings gap decreases from 43% to 33% in Germany and from 29% to 22% in Portugal.

¹¹ The decrease in the immigrant earnings gap after five years changes from 11.6 to 13.5 p.p. when controlling for education in Germany, and from 5.7 to 5.8 p.p. in Portugal.

¹² This is the effect of lower firm pay within 3-digit industries.

¹³ Several country studies provide evidence of immigrant workplace segregation across the OECD, such as Åslund and Skans (2010^[34]) for Sweden, Carneiro, Fortuna and Varejão (2012^[26]) for Portugal, Andersson et al. (2014^[33]) for the United States, Glitz (2014^[27]) for Germany, and (Ansala, Åslund and Sarvimäki (2022^[28]) for Finland. There is further evidence that the firms immigrants concentrate in are disproportionately lower-wage firms, e.g. Ayemir and Skuterud (2008^[35]) for Canada, Barth, Bratsberg and

Raam (2012^[36]) for Norway, Eliasson (2013^[29]), Aslund et al. (2022^[30]) for Sweden, Damas de Matos (2016^[37]) for Portugal, Arellano-Bover and San (2022^[23]) for Israel and Gorshkov (2023^[31]) for Denmark.

¹⁴ For example, in Portugal, at labour market entry, over 70% of immigrants work in lower-paying occupations such as elementary occupations (34%), service and sales occupations (25%) and craft and related trades occupations (15%).

¹⁵ The analysis controls for 2-digit occupations, which is the most detailed level available across all countries. Results for Germany using 5-digit occupations (which account for the hierarchical position within the firm) results in little changes in the contribution of occupations. The limited role of occupational mobility for earnings progression also remains unaltered (results available on request).

¹⁶ Recall that the OLS estimator of $Y = X\beta + \epsilon$ in matrix form is given by $\beta = (X'X)^{-1}X'Y$.

¹⁷ Note that $A_X Y = \delta_0$, $A_X X = A_X u_1 = 0$ and $A_X YSM = I$

¹⁸ Conceptually, this is similar to the approach in (Card, Rothstein and Yi, 2024^[9]) and (Card, Rothstein and Yi, 2025^[10]) to characterise sectoral and regional wage differentials. This is because the estimates for the regional and sectoral dummies in the regression capture (employment-weighted) average firm wage premia at the regional and sectoral level respectively.

5

International migration of health professionals to OECD countries

Ave Lauren (OECD), José Ramalho (OECD), Jean-Christophe Dumont (OECD), Gaetan Lafortune (OECD), Agya Mahat (WHO) and Tapas Nair (WHO)

This chapter is the result of a collaboration between the OECD and the WHO in the context of the Working for Health programme. It examines the evolution of international migration of health professionals, specifically doctors and nurses, to OECD countries since 2000/01, in the context of growing workforce shortages and increasing global competition for talent. It analyses recent trends in the mobility of foreign-trained and foreign-born health professionals, drawing on the latest available data. The chapter also considers the implications for countries of origin, including the risk of brain drain, and highlights the importance of ethical recruitment practices. Finally, it explores recent changes in migration policies affecting health professionals, as well as developments in the recognition of foreign qualifications and licensing across the OECD.

In Brief

Key findings

- Health workforce shortages have become a critical challenge across OECD countries, driven by ageing populations, increasing care needs, and growing demand for medical services. In response, many OECD countries have reinforced their training capacity of health personnel, but the international recruitment of doctors and nurses has also continued to increase.
- The total number of migrant doctors and nurses in OECD countries has grown significantly over the past two decades, outpacing overall employment growth in these professions. In the OECD, the total number of foreign-born doctors increased by 86% and foreign-born nurses increased by 136%. Meanwhile, the number of foreign-trained doctors rose by 62% and nurses by 71% since 2010. This shows a high and growing reliance by OECD countries on migrant health professionals to staff their health systems and respond to population health and care needs.
- The largest increases in absolute numbers of migrant health professionals were recorded in the United States, Germany and the United Kingdom. These three countries remain the primary destinations for foreign-born and foreign-trained doctors and nurses, together hosting the majority of migrant health professionals in the OECD.
- The number of foreign-born doctors more than tripled over the past two decades in several countries, including Finland, Germany, Luxembourg, Norway, Spain and Switzerland. For foreign-born nurses, Finland saw an almost eightfold increase, while Germany, Ireland, New Zealand and Norway also saw their numbers more than triple.
- In most OECD countries, the share of foreign-trained health workers is lower than the share who were born abroad, showing that many migrants finish at least part of their education or have to redo it in the host country.
- About one in five migrant doctors and nurses in OECD countries originates from another European Economic Area (EEA) country, while 30% and 27% of migrant doctors and nurses respectively are from the broader OECD area. Asia is the main region of origin, accounting for approximately 40% of foreign-born doctors and 37% of foreign-born nurses working in the OECD.
- India, Germany and China are the main countries of origin for doctors, while the Philippines, India and Poland are the top three countries for nurses. About 89 000 doctors and 257 000 nurses originate from countries on the WHO Health Workforce Support and Safeguards List (SSL), raising concerns about the possible impact of the international mobility of health workers on the fragile health systems of these countries.
- Seven countries of origin have more doctors working in the OECD than at home and this number goes up to 15 countries for nurses. These are mostly small island states and less developed countries in Sub-Saharan Africa.
- Migration policies are evolving to facilitate international recruitment in the health sector. Most OECD countries use shortage occupation lists and specific bilateral labour agreements while dedicated migration pathways for health professionals have become more common. The main receiving countries should, however, maintain efforts to increase training and improve health workforce retention in order to reduce domestic shortages and maldistribution.

- Recognition of qualifications and licensing remain major barriers to the skills-appropriate labour market integration of migrant health professionals. Lengthy and complex procedures often delay labour market entry for foreign-trained professionals, prompting several countries to streamline procedures for the recognition of foreign qualifications and to reinforce the offer of bridging courses. This positive practice can serve as a reference and a roadmap for other countries to consider.
- Recent crises, particularly COVID-19, triggered a wide range of temporary policy responses concerning both migration and recognition/licensing systems. While many migration-related measures were short term, the experience has generated broader interest across the OECD countries in introducing new licensing approaches, notably temporary and conditional licensing.
- It is crucial for all countries to implement the *WHO Global Code of Practice on the International Recruitment of Health Personnel* to its full scope. This may require strengthening international co-operation to help developing countries build a sufficient health workforce and to reinforce their health systems, thereby mitigating the factors that drive health professionals to leave.

Introduction

The international migration of health professionals has become an increasingly prominent global policy issue, particularly in light of global health workforce shortages and existing pressures on healthcare systems. Although international migration flows were temporarily disrupted during the COVID-19 pandemic, the crisis highlighted the essential role that migrant health workers already present in OECD countries played in maintaining and recovering the provision of healthcare services and underscored their long-term importance to health systems' resilience (OECD, 2020^[1]). At the same time, ageing populations and growing healthcare needs have intensified competition for qualified personnel, prompting many OECD countries to revisit their workforce strategies and approaches to international recruitment.

Recent developments have further reshaped this evolving landscape. The United Kingdom's departure from the European Union introduced new dynamics in the mobility of health professionals within Europe. Simultaneously, geopolitical and humanitarian crises have led to a notable increase in asylum applications across the OECD. The large-scale displacement of Ukrainians in 2022 has been particularly significant, yet forms part of a broader trend of rising asylum flows globally. Among these displaced populations are many individuals with prior experience in health-related occupations, encouraging several OECD countries to explore more flexible and inclusive pathways for recognising foreign qualifications and supporting their integration into the health workforce.

These developments, together with the increasing competition for qualified workers (OECD, 2023^[2]), are prompting a shift in how OECD countries plan their health workforce, manage international mobility, and integrate foreign-trained professionals – raising key concerns around sustainability, ethical recruitment, and impact on countries of origin. The *WHO Global Code of Practice on the International Recruitment of Health Personnel*, adopted in 2010, continues to offer a relevant and effective framework. It promotes ethical recruitment and helps countries develop systems that balance the interests of both sending and receiving countries, while safeguarding the rights of migrant health workers.

Against this backdrop, this chapter examines the evolution of international migration of health workers to OECD countries over the past two decades, beginning in 2000/01. It also explores the implications for countries of origin, to assess the scale and patterns of brain drain of both doctors and nurses across a

wide range of countries. These trends are analysed within the broader context of shifting labour migration policies and evolving approaches to skills recognition and licensing of foreign-trained health professionals.

The analysis draws on two principal data sources:

- The most recent data (2023 or the latest) on foreign-trained doctors and nurses working in OECD countries, collected through the OECD/Eurostat/WHO-Europe Joint Questionnaire on Healthcare Statistics, offering internationally comparable time series dating back to 2000;
- The latest available data (circa 2020/21) on foreign-born doctors and nurses working in OECD countries, sourced from the OECD Database on Immigrants in OECD Countries (DIOC), which compiles information from national population censuses and labour force surveys, with time series available since 2000/01.

This chapter is the result of a close collaboration between the OECD and the WHO in the context of the Working for Health programme that builds on longstanding joint work on this issue between the two organisations. The 2007 International Migration Outlook included a dedicated chapter offering a comparative overview of migrant doctors and nurses across OECD countries, aimed at informing both national and international policy dialogue (OECD, 2007^[3]). This analysis was subsequently updated in the International Migration Outlook 2015 (OECD, 2015^[4]), the 2019 report on trends in the international migration of doctors, nurses and medical students (OECD, 2019^[5]), and in two OECD Health Working Papers (Socha-Dietrich and Dumont, 2021^[6]; Socha-Dietrich and Dumont, 2021^[7]). The topic was also addressed in the 2016 OECD report *Health Workforce Policies: Right Jobs, Right Skills, Right Places*, which analysed how health and migration policies influence the inflow of foreign-trained doctors and nurses into OECD countries (OECD, 2016^[8]), as well as in a 2020 policy brief highlighting the contribution of migrant health professionals during the COVID-19 pandemic (OECD, 2020^[11]).

Recent trends in international migration of doctors and nurses in the OECD

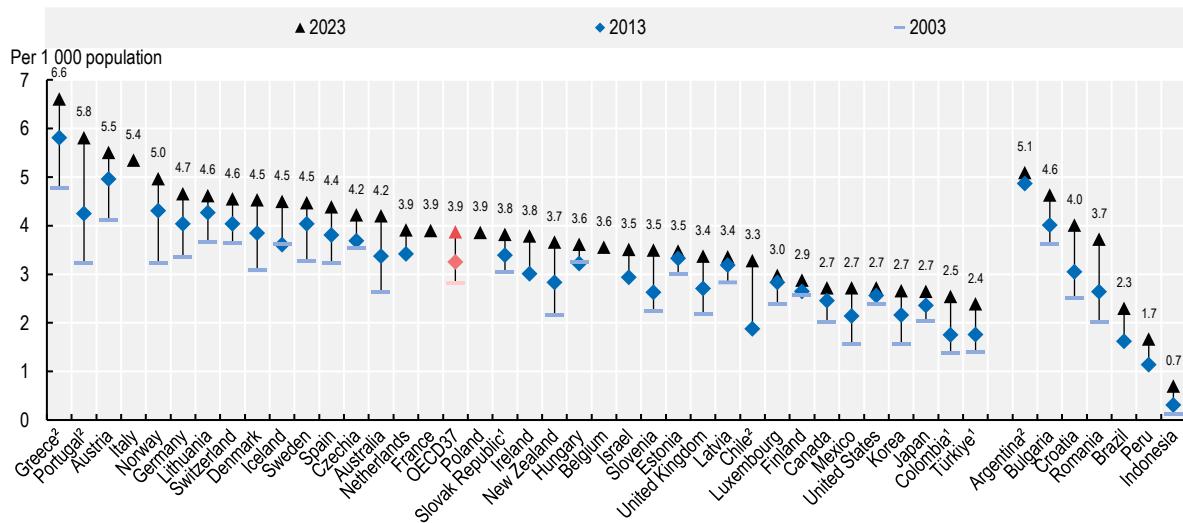
Overall trends in health sector employment in the OECD

Since the turn of the century, the number of people working in the health and social care sector across OECD countries has grown by over 28 million, reaching almost 73 million in 2023. This expansion outpaced both population and overall employment growth, with the share of workers in the health and social care sector rising from 9% in 2000 to 11% in 2023 on average across OECD countries. The United States, the OECD's largest health labour market, illustrates this expansion. Healthcare employment there rose from 9.3 million in 1990 to 18.1 million in 2022, an annual growth rate of 2.1%, almost twice that of non-health employment (1.1%). It overtook employment in manufacturing in 2006 and employment in retail trade in 2009 to become the largest sector in terms of employment (Gottlieb et al., 2025^[9]).

In all countries, doctors and nurses are critical to the functioning of health systems, and their numbers reflect this role. In 2023, OECD countries had over 4.5 million doctors and 12.3 million nurses, compared to 2.8 million and 8.1 million in 2000, respectively. Over the past two decades, the growth in the number of these professionals has outstripped population growth in virtually all OECD countries. The 38 OECD countries represent 17% of the world's population but account for about 39% of the world's medical doctors, nurses, midwives, dentists and pharmacists.

On average, the number of doctors per 1 000 population across OECD countries increased by 38%, reaching 3.9 doctors per 1 000 population (Figure 5.1). This growth was particularly noticeable in countries such as Norway, Germany, Denmark Australia and New Zealand, while it was less pronounced in the United States and Finland. Accession countries such as Croatia and Romania also registered considerable increases.

Figure 5.1. The evolution of the density of doctors in OECD countries

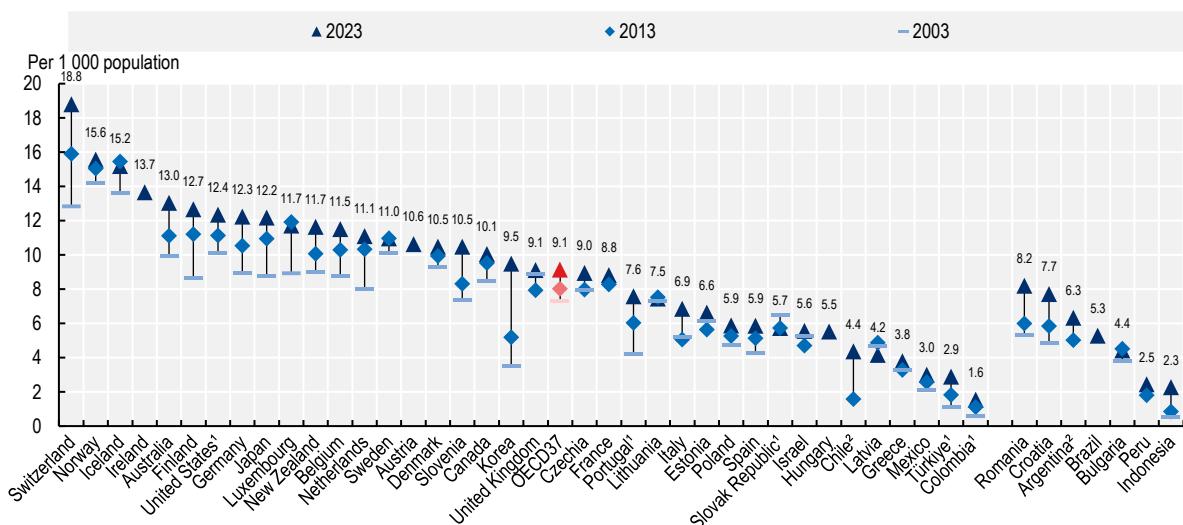


Note: The OECD average is unweighted. 1. The data for Colombia, the Slovak Republic and Turkiye refer to professionally active. 2. The data for Argentina, Chile, Greece and Portugal refer to license to practice (resulting in a large overestimation).

Source: OECD Data Explorer, *Physicians*, <http://data-explorer.oecd.org/s/2i7>.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/milkug>

Figure 5.2. The evolution of the density of nurses in OECD countries



Note: The OECD average is unweighted. 1. The data for Colombia, Portugal, the Slovak Republic, Turkiye and the United States refer to professionally active. 2. The data for Argentina and Chile refer to license to practice.

Source: OECD Data Explorer, *Nurses*, <http://data-explorer.oecd.org/s/2i8>.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/2t39x1>

Over the same period, the number of nurses rose by 25%, reaching an average of 9.1 nurses per 1 000 population across the OECD (Figure 5.2). Korea, Switzerland, Finland and Portugal experienced strong growth rates. However, the picture is more mixed in the 2013-2023 period. In the last decade, a few countries, such as the Slovak Republic and Latvia, have experienced declines in the number of nurses per 1 000 population.

The overall supply of health professionals is shaped by a range of factors, from domestic education and training to the immigration of health professionals, as well as through outflows such as retirement or emigration. In the face of widespread health workforce shortages and growing demand for healthcare, it is imperative to understand these determinants. What role has migration played in the supply of labour in OECD countries' health systems?

Foreign-born health professionals in the OECD

Migrant doctors and nurses have been instrumental to the rising number of healthcare professionals across many OECD countries over the past decade. Their contribution can be assessed using data on either foreign-born or foreign-trained health professionals in destination countries (Box 5.1). This section presents the most recent data on foreign-born doctors and nurses in OECD countries, with the next section focussing on the foreign trained.

Box 5.1. Monitoring the international migration of health professionals

As the international migration of doctors and nurses gains prominence in policy and public discussions, there is a growing need to monitor and better understand the associated trends. Effective monitoring should meet two key criteria: (1) relevance to both origin and destination countries, and (2) the feasibility of regular data collection. Migration patterns of health professionals can be assessed using nationality, place of birth, or place of education and training – each with its own advantages and limitations.

Nationality is a weak indicator, as naturalised individuals are no longer counted as foreign nationals, and in some countries a considerable proportion of people born and raised in a country may hold foreign nationality. Place of birth offers a more consistent measure, as it reflects cross-border movement, but does not show where education occurred – an important factor when assessing impacts on origin countries. Some foreign-born individuals migrated at a young age or came for university and stayed, meaning the cost of their education was often covered by the host country or by themselves.

The place of education or training offers an alternative perspective but is more difficult to measure. In some countries, where medical education is highly regulated or costly, a significant proportion of nationals pursue their studies abroad and are consequently classified as immigrants based on place of education. Conversely, recently arrived immigrants who were fully trained as doctors or nurses prior to migration may be required to repeat their education in the host country and are therefore not recorded as immigrants under this classification. Furthermore, medical and nursing education may span multiple countries, further complicating classifications. The OECD/Eurostat/WHO-Europe Joint Questionnaire defines foreign-trained professionals as those who obtained their first medical or nursing degree abroad. In addition, data is also captured on the distribution of foreign trained health workers by place of birth, which provides further insights on the internationalisation of health education.

This chapter uses both the place of birth and place of training approaches. Data on foreign-born professionals come from recent population censuses and Labour Force Surveys (LFS), which identify health workers using the ISCO-08 classification. Data on foreign-trained professionals are collected through the Joint Questionnaire, with most countries relying on professional registries or government sources.

Over the past two decades, the overall share of foreign-born health professionals in OECD countries has increased steadily. In countries with consistent data over the period, the total number of foreign-born doctors rose by 86% between 2000/01 and 2020/21, while the number of foreign-born nurses grew by nearly two and a half times (Table 5.1 and Table 5.2¹). In both cases, this growth outpaced the general increase in the total number of doctors and nurses, which rose by 41% and 48%, respectively. At the country level, several OECD countries saw marked increases in the absolute number of foreign-born doctors between 2000 and 2020/21. In Luxembourg, it grew nearly sixfold, while in Finland it rose more than fourfold. Germany, Norway, Spain and Switzerland also recorded increases of over threefold. Among the main countries of residence (Table 5.1), Germany and Australia saw the number of foreign-born doctors nearly triple. The United Kingdom experienced a doubling, and more moderate increases were observed in the United States and France.

A similar pattern is evident among foreign-born nurses. Finland saw the steepest rise, with numbers increasing almost eightfold though starting from a very low level in 2000/01. In Norway, they increased more than fourfold. In Germany, Ireland and New Zealand, the numbers more than tripled, while in Australia and Spain, they nearly tripled. Switzerland also recorded a significant increase. Among the other major countries of residence, Canada, the United Kingdom and the United States all saw their numbers more than double. For detailed figures, see Table 5.2.

These trends also reflect deliberate efforts to address health workforce shortages amid an ageing population and increasing care needs. Finland for example has expanded its educational offer to attract international students, with several Universities of Applied Sciences now providing nursing degree programmes in English, combined with Finnish language training, enabling international graduates to enter the national workforce more easily.

Across the reporting countries for which data is available for all years, the proportion of foreign-born doctors among all doctors increased from 21.2% in 2000/01 to 27.9% in 2020/21. For nurses, the share rose from 11% to 17.6% over the same period. However, the overall share varies considerably across OECD countries. In 2020/21, the share of foreign-born doctors ranged from 4% or less in Mexico, Poland and the Slovak Republic to over 50% in Australia, Luxembourg and New Zealand, and exceeded 40% in Ireland, Israel, Switzerland and the United Kingdom. Luxembourg, Switzerland and Ireland recorded the largest increase in the shares of foreign-born doctors over the period. For nurses, the lowest shares were in Poland (0.2%), Mexico (0.6%) and the Slovak Republic (2.0%), and the highest in New Zealand (42.7%), Australia (41.1%) and Israel (40.5%). Ireland, New Zealand, Australia and the United Kingdom experienced the most significant increases in the share of foreign-born nurses since 2000/01.

Table 5.1. Foreign-born doctors working in OECD countries, circa 2000/01, 2010/11 and 2020/21

	2000/01			2010/11			2020/21		
	Total	Foreign-born	% Foreign-born	Total	Foreign-born	% Foreign-born	Total	Foreign-born	% Foreign-born
Australia ¹	48 211	20 452	42.9	68 795	36 076	52.8	109 484	59 404	54.3
Austria ¹	30 068	4 400	14.6	40 559	6 844	16.9	42 434	8 398	19.8
Belgium	48 759	8 133	16.7
Canada ¹	65 110	22 860	35.1	79 585	27 780	34.9	105 200	38 985	37.1
Czechia	39 562	3 468	8.8	43 985	5 130	11.7
Denmark ¹	14 977	1 629	10.9	15 403	2 935	19.1	25 754	4 104	15.9
Estonia	4 145	747	18.0	4 453	640	14.4
Finland ¹	14 560	575	4.0	18 937	1 454	7.7	21 821	2 260	10.4
France ¹	200 358	33 879	16.9	224 998	43 955	19.5	270 794	49 005	18.1
Germany ¹	282 124	28 494	11.1	366 700	57 210	15.7	412 029	88 855	21.6
Greece	49 114	5 348	10.9	58 816	5 347	9.1
Hungary ¹	24 671	2 724	11.0	28 522	3 790	13.3	33 293	4 657	14.0
Ireland ¹	8 208	2 895	35.3	12 832	5 973	46.6	125 00 ²	6 102	48.8
Israel	23 398	11 519	49.2	35 531	14 841	41.8
Italy	234 323	11 822	5.0	236 074	11 088	4.7
Latvia	6 673	753	11.3
Lithuania	13 269	752	5.7
Luxembourg ¹	882	266	30.2	1 347	536	40.0	2 264	1 541	68.1
Mexico	205 571	3 005	1.5	447 535	6 895	1.5
Netherlands ¹	42 313	7 032	16.7	57 976	8 429	14.6	77 206	12 227	15.8
New Zealand ¹	9 009	4 215	46.9	12 708	6 897	54.3	20 238.	10 281	50.8
Norway ¹	12 761	2 117	16.6	19 624	4 460	22.7	26 103	7 049	27.0
Poland ¹	99 687	3 144	3.2	109 652	2 935	2.7	112 832	2 970	2.6
Portugal ¹	23 131	4 552	19.7	36 831	6 040	16.4	43 749	6 162	14.1
Slovak Republic	21 552	823	3.8	23 497	933	4.0
Slovenia	5 556	1 006	18.1
Spain	126 248	9 433	7.5	190 773	32 285	16.9
Sweden ¹	26 983	6 148	22.9	47 778	14 173	29.8	47 320	15 155	32.0
Switzerland ¹	23 039	6 431	28.1	43 416	18 082	41.6	50 531	25 003	49.5
Türkiye	82 221	5 090	6.2	104 950	3 003	2.9
United Kingdom ¹	147 677	49 780	33.7	236 862	83 951	35.4	269 620	109 512	40.6
United States ¹	807 844	196 815	24.4	838 933	221 393	26.4	980 215	291 184	29.7
OECD Total ¹	1 881 613	398 408	21.2	2 261 457	552 914	24.4	2 663 387	742 854	27.9
OECD Total for a given year	2 295 653	415 936	18.1	2 744 058	590 650	21.5	3 772 752	829 651	22.0
	(22 countries)			(27 countries)			(29 countries)		

1. OECD Total for foreign-born doctors includes 19 countries, for which data is available for all years (2000/01, 2010/11 and 2020/21). Only countries with ¹ are included.

2. For Mexico, figures include dentists. For Ireland, the 2020/21 total is an estimate.

Source: DIOC 2000/01, DIOC 2010/11, DIOC 2020/21, EU-LFS 2021.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/lnq65j>

Table 5.2. Foreign-born nurses working in OECD countries, circa 2000/01, 2010/11 and 2020/21

	2000/01			2010/11			2020/21		
	Total	Foreign-born	% Foreign-born	Total	Foreign-born	% Foreign-born	Total	Foreign-born	% Foreign-born
Australia ¹	191 105	46 750	24.8	238 935	78 508	33.2	307 838	126 584	41.1
Austria ¹	56 797	8 217	14.5	70 147	10 265	14.6	109 310	18 041	16.5
Belgium ¹	127 384	8 409	6.6	140 054	23 575	16.8	159 535	18 374	11.5
Canada ¹	284 945	48 880	17.2	326 700	73 425	22.5	428 400	119 035	27.8
Czechia	89 301	1 462	1.6	93 717	3 554	3.8
Denmark ¹	57 047	2 320	4.1	61 082	6 301	10.3	67 012	3 793	5.7
Estonia	8 302	2 162	26.0	9 383	1 241	13.2
Finland ¹	56 365	470	0.8	72 836	1 732	2.4	82 483	4 193	5.1
France ¹	421 602	23 308	5.5	550 163	32 345	5.9	650 441	40 577	6.2
Germany ¹	781 300	74 990	10.4	1 074 523	150 060	14.0	1 259 421	240 935	19.1
Greece ¹	39 952	3 883	9.7	42 641	3 352	7.9
Hungary ¹	49 738	1 538	3.1	59 300	1 218	2.1	57 651	3 561	6.2
Ireland ¹	43 320	6 204	14.3	58 092	15 606	26.9	60 970	22 771	37.3
Israel	31 708	16 043	50.6	50 088	20 277	40.5
Italy	399 777	39 231	9.8	391 982	36 395	9.3
Latvia	9 995	1 566	15.7
Lithuania	22 954	1 134	4.9
Luxembourg ¹	2 551	658	25.8	4 372	1 347	30.8	4 299	1 484	34.5
Mexico	267 537	550	0.2	280 247	1 695	0.6
Netherlands ¹	259 569	17 780	6.9	323 420	30 909	9.6	211 117	15 097	7.2
New Zealand ¹	33 261	7 698	23.2	40 002	13 884	35.0	62 550	26 712	42.7
Norway ¹	70 698	4 281	6.1	97 725	8 795	9.0	121 486	18 208	15.0
Poland ¹	243 225	1 074	0.4	245 667	595	0.2	241 613	<1k	0.2
Portugal ¹	36 595	5 077	13.9	47 619	5 549	11.7	67 053	6 591	9.8
Slovak Republic	52 773	303	0.6	38 571	785	2.0
Slovenia	17 124	1 483	8.7
Spain ¹	167 498	5 638	3.4	252 804	14 400	5.7	302 857	16 532	5.5
Sweden ¹	98 505	8 710	8.9	113 956	15 834	13.9	114 865	13 780	12.0
Switzerland ¹	62 194	17 636	28.6	110 069	36 531	33.3	130 907	43 285	33.1
Türkiye	147 611	4 484	3.1
United Kingdom ¹	538 647	81 623	15.2	618 659	134 075	21.7	715 557	198 965	27.8
United States ¹	2 818 735	336 183	11.9	3 847 068	561 232	14.6	4 334 770	736 181	17.0
OECD Total ¹	6 441 033	711 327	11.0	8 353 193	1 216 187	14.6	9 532 776	1 678 607	17.6
OECD Total for a given year	6 708 570	711 877	10.6	9 099 789	1 281 355	14.1	10 429 713	1 745 254	16.7
	(23 countries)			(29 countries)			(30 countries)		

1. OECD Total for foreign-born nurses includes 22 countries, for which data is available for all years (2000/01, 2010/11 and 2020/21). Only countries with ¹ are counted. The OECD Total includes an estimation for Greece in 2010/11.

Source: DIOC 2000/01, DIOC 2010/11, DIOC 2020/21, LFS-EU 2021.

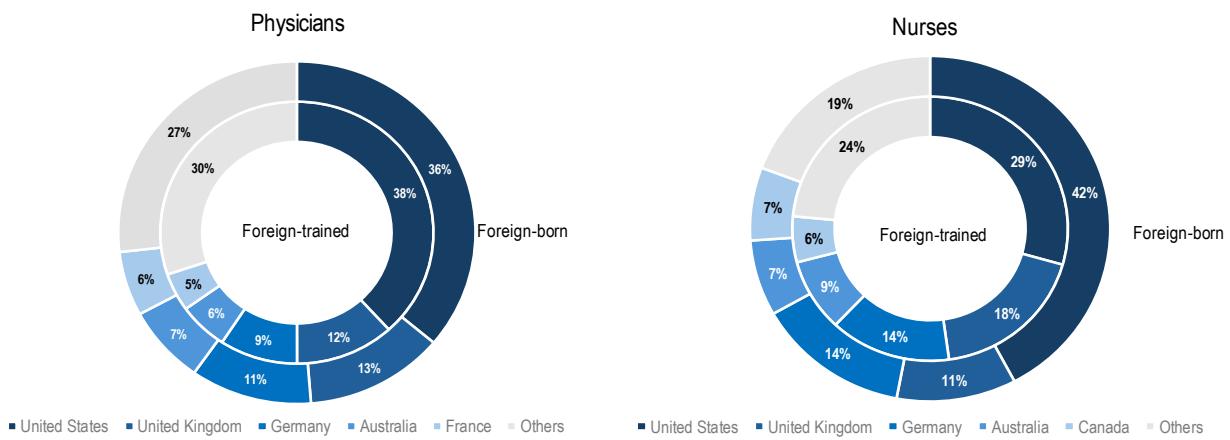
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While the share of foreign-born health professionals has increased in most OECD countries, it has declined in a few. Over the past decade, the share of foreign-born doctors decreased in Estonia, France, Israel and Portugal, while the share of foreign-born nurses declined in Denmark, Estonia, Israel, the Netherlands, and several other countries. There are different reasons for these trends. For instance, the share of foreign-born doctors in France, Israel and Portugal has decreased as the number of domestic-born doctors increased more rapidly than the foreign-born. In Israel, this reflects significant increases in domestic training capacity over recent decades. Meanwhile in Estonia, the decrease reflects, among other factors,

the retirement of many Russian-born health professionals who had arrived in the country during the Soviet period.

In absolute terms, the United States remains the primary country of residence for both foreign-born doctors and nurses (Figure 5.3). Among all foreign-born health professionals in OECD countries, 36% of all foreign-born doctors and 42% of nurses were practising in the United States in 2020/21. Other key countries of residence for doctors include the United Kingdom (13%), Germany (11%), Australia (7%), and France (6%). Together, these five countries account for nearly three-quarters of all foreign-born doctors in the OECD, with the remaining 27% distributed across other member countries. Similarly, the main countries of residence for foreign-born nurses – after the United States – are Germany (14%), the United Kingdom (11%), Australia (7%) and Canada (7%). In this case, the top five destinations host an even greater share (81%), with the remaining 19% of foreign-born nurses residing in other OECD countries.

Figure 5.3. Distribution of foreign-born doctors and nurses by country of residence



Note: Data for foreign-trained doctors does not include Costa Rica, Iceland, Korea, Luxembourg, Portugal, Spain, Japan, Mexico and Türkiye; Data for foreign-trained nurses does not include Costa Rica, Greece, Iceland, Korea, Japan, Luxembourg, Mexico, Portugal, the Slovak Republic, Spain and Türkiye.

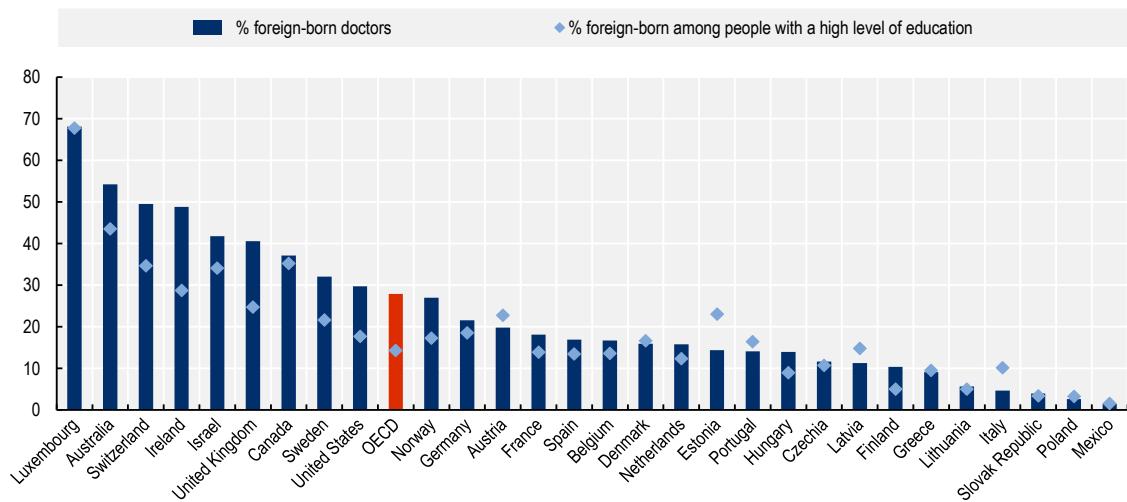
Source: OECD Data Explorer (DF_HEALTH_WFMI) for foreign-trained and DIOC 2020/21 for foreign-born.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/cph4vt>

Although the international migration of doctors and nurses is typically considered part of highly skilled migration in policy terms, the share of foreign-born health professionals in OECD countries does not always mirror the overall share of skilled immigrants in the workforce. Moreover, distinct patterns emerge between foreign-born doctors and nurses.

Over recent decades, highly skilled migration has been increasing overall; however, in the case of migrant doctors, the trend is even more pronounced. This partly reflects the challenges destination countries face in matching domestic training capacities and physician demand, given the high cost and lengthy duration of medical education, although other factors also play a role. In most OECD countries, the percentage of foreign-born doctors in the country tends to be higher, on average, than the percentage of immigrants among highly educated workers (Figure 5.4). In countries such as the United Kingdom, Switzerland, the United States, Australia and Sweden, the difference between these two groups exceeds 10 percentage points (p.p.). However, there are also countries where foreign-born doctors are underrepresented compared to the share of highly educated immigrant workers – most notably Estonia, Italy, Latvia, Austria and Portugal.

Figure 5.4. Percentage of foreign-born among doctors and among people with high level of education in different OECD countries, 2020/21



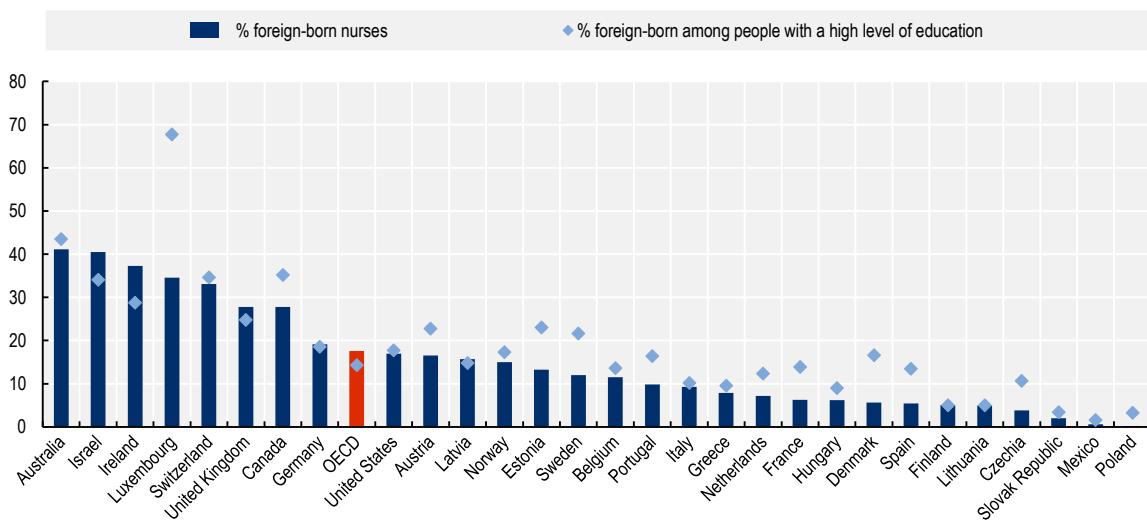
Note: High-level of education refers to ISCED 2011 Level 5/6/7/8.

Source: DIOC 2020/21, LFS-EU 2021.

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Trends for nurses are less clear. The share of foreign-born nurses is in most cases similar to or lower than the share of immigrants in the skilled workforce of the respective countries (Figure 5.5). The difference is particularly striking in Luxembourg, where foreign-born individuals account for nearly 68% of the highly educated workforce, but only 34.5% of nurses. The only OECD countries where the share of foreign-born nurses exceeds the average share of immigrants among highly educated workers by more than 1 p.p. are Israel, Ireland and the United Kingdom.

Figure 5.5. Percentage of foreign-born among nurses and among people with high level of education in different OECD countries, 2020/21



Note: High-level of education refers to ISCED 2011 Level 5/6/7/8.

Source: DIOC 2020/21, LFS-EU 2021.

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Foreign-trained health professionals in the OECD

In most OECD countries, the share of health workers who were trained abroad is lower than the share who were born abroad. This reflects the fact that many migrants receive part of their education and training in their country of destination, sometimes because their previous qualifications are not transferable or recognised in the host country.

Most OECD countries are both receiving and sending countries of migrant health workers. Although they have often been viewed primarily as destinations, patterns of international mobility vary substantially between countries and over time, highlighting the need for a more nuanced analysis.

In 2023, OECD countries reported over 606 000 foreign-trained doctors and 732 000 foreign-trained nurses, representing increases of 62% and 71%, respectively, compared to 2010. The distribution of foreign-trained doctors and nurses reflects differences in national labour markets, education and recruitment policies, and migration regimes. In 2023, just three countries – the United States, the United Kingdom and Germany – accounted for 58% of all foreign-trained doctors working across OECD countries (Table 5.3). The concentration was even greater for nurses, with the same three countries hosting 61% of all foreign-trained nurses (Table 5.4). The top 15 OECD countries together accounted for 94% of foreign-trained doctors and 98% of foreign-trained nurses.

While foreign-trained doctors and nurses remain concentrated in this small group of countries, their share fell slightly between 2010 and 2023, signalling a modest diversification in foreign-trained professionals' destinations.

In nearly all OECD countries, the number of foreign-trained doctors has grown more rapidly than the number of domestically trained doctors over the past decade. As a result, the share of foreign-trained physicians among all practising doctors has increased in most countries. This trend points to the growing role of international recruitment in meeting the unabating demand for medical care.

English-speaking countries have some of the highest shares of foreign-trained doctors. In 2023, foreign-trained physicians accounted for 43% of the medical workforce in Ireland, 42% in New Zealand, 36% in the United Kingdom and 31% in Australia. Only Israel (59%) and Norway (44%) recorded higher shares, while Switzerland was comparable at 40%.

The reliance on foreign-trained health professionals is not limited to doctors. In almost all OECD countries, the share of foreign-trained nurses has also increased over the past decade, pointing to their growing importance in national health systems. The highest shares in 2023 were observed in Ireland (52%), New Zealand (33%), Switzerland (27%), the United Kingdom (23%) and Australia (18%) (Table 5.4).

Ireland stands out, with nearly 52% of its nursing workforce trained abroad in 2023. This heavy reliance reflects ongoing domestic shortages, particularly in hospitals. To address chronic staffing gaps, Ireland's Health Service Executive has conducted international recruitment campaigns targeting countries such as the Philippines and India, both of which have well-established nursing diasporas in Ireland. At the same time, a significant number of Irish-trained nurses have emigrated to other English-speaking countries, attracted by better working conditions and pay. This has further worsened domestic shortages and increased the health system's dependence on foreign-trained nurses (OECD/European Commission, 2024^[10]).

Notable increases have also been observed in the United Kingdom and Switzerland, where the share of foreign-trained nurses rose by around 12 p.p. over the past decade, and the absolute number more than doubled. In both countries, international recruitment – particularly from neighbouring countries or from countries where one of the official languages is widely spoken – has become a key element of strategies to address persistent nursing shortages.

Although Belgium still has a comparatively small share of foreign-trained nurses, it recorded the fastest growth in relative terms. Between 2010 and 2023, the number of foreign-trained nurses working in Belgium quadrupled, signalling a marked shift towards international recruitment in response to domestic workforce pressures (Box 5.2). All three Belgian regions – Flanders, Wallonia and Brussels – face ongoing challenges in attracting and retaining nurses and have developed region-specific strategies to address these issues.

Table 5.3. Foreign-trained doctors working in OECD countries in 2000, 2010, and 2021-2023

Reference area	2000		2010		2021-2023	
	Foreign-trained (of which natives)	% of total (natives)	Foreign-trained (of which natives)	% of total (natives)	Foreign-trained (of which natives)	% of total (natives)
Australia			17 460	25.8	35 144 (411)	31.4 (0.4)
Austria			1 289	3.9	3 127 (568)	7.5 (1.4)
Belgium	1 934	4.4	4 380	8.2	10 673	14.0
Canada	13 711	21.3	18 765	23.2	27 226	24.6
Chile					16 318 (3 138)	24.9 (4.8)
Colombia			2 770 (2 464)	4.1 (3.6)	6 820 (5 033)	5.1 (3.8)
Czechia	579	1.3	1 874	4.4	3 781	8.2
Denmark	595	3.8	1 809	8.8	3 161	11.7
Estonia			82	1.4	326	4.5
Finland			1 510 (546)	11.3 (4.1)	2 255 (736)	14.1 (4.6)
France	7 795	3.9	15 903	7.5	29 180 (920)	11.0 (0.3)
Germany	9 863	3.7	19 949	6.5	58 449	15.0
Greece					15 130 (12 030)	22.0
Hungary			2 609	7.7	2 887 (329)	8.3 (0.9)
Ireland			6 708	35.7	12 824	43.4
Israel	14 559 (3 018)	64.5 (13.4)	15 466 (4 031)	60.0 (15.6)	20 564 (11 297)	58.5 (32.1)
Italy	1 350 (945)	0.4 (0.3)	2 985 (1 321)	0.8 (0.4)	4 538 (2 138)	1.0 (0.5)
Latvia			585	7.0	427	6.7
Lithuania					126	0.8
Netherlands	706	1.8	1 287	2.6	2 643 (805)	3.8 (1.2)
New Zealand	3 756	38.0	5 944	43.6	8 193	42.4
Norway			6 902 (3 319)	34.4 (16.5)	12 088 (6 902)	44.0 (25.1)
Poland			2 487	2.1	5 738	3.8
Slovak Republic			436	2.6		
Slovenia			531	10.7	1 097 (172)	15.4 (2.4)
Sweden	3 839 (378)	14.0 (1.4)	8 598 (891)	23.5 (2.4)	13 333 (3 350)	28.4 (7.1)
Switzerland			7 304	24.1	16 573	40.3
United Kingdom			46 276	29.8	77 793	38.3
United States			181 145	24.8	215 630	25.0
OECD Total	Unweighted average		375 054	15.9	606 044	19.6
	Weighted average			14.8		18.4
			(28 countries)		(28 countries)	

Notes: For Germany the data refer to foreign citizens (not necessarily foreign-trained). For the United States, the 2021-2023 data point refers to 2016, the latest year available. Data missing for Costa Rica, Iceland, Korea, Japan, Mexico, Spain and Türkiye. In Luxembourg, 100% of doctors have received their first medical degree in another country.

Source: OECD Data Explorer (DF_HEALTH_WFMI).

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Table 5.4. Foreign-trained nurses working in OECD countries in 2000, 2010, and 2021-2023

Reference area	2000		2010		2021-2023	
	Foreign-trained (of which natives)	% of total (natives)	Foreign-trained (of which natives)	% of total (natives)	Foreign-trained (of which natives)	% of total (natives)
Australia			38 975	14.1	62 377 (494)	17.9 (0.1)
Austria					15 261	13.7
Belgium	679	0.5	2 419	1.5	10 670	4.6
Canada	14 187	6.1	25 635	7.2	44 221	10.0
Chile					1 579 (242)	1.8 (0.3)
Colombia			90 (68)	0.2 (0.2)	501 (388)	0.6 (0.5)
Czechia					1 595 (298)	3.5 (0.7)
Denmark	821	1.7	1 092	2.0	1 769	2.8
Estonia			3	0.0	34	0.2
Finland			351 (94)	0.6 (0.2)	638 (103)	0.9 (0.1)
France	6 331	1.7	12 646 (7 815)	2.5 (1.5)	19 876 (12 471)	3.1 (2.0)
Germany			50 000	6.1	102 000	10.1
Greece					391 (349)	0.9
Hungary					1 025 (35)	1.9 (0.1)
Ireland					37 609 (7 713)	51.8 (10.6)
Israel	5 297	12.8	4 782 (1 714)	10 (3.6)	7 557 (4 518)	11.4 (6.8)
Italy	1 701	0.6	22 774 (483)	5.8 (0.1)	23 311 (696)	5.2 (0.2)
Latvia			421	4.4	227	2.9
Lithuania					129	0.5
Netherlands	1 495	0.9	2 223	1.1	3 044 (653)	1.5 (0.3)
New Zealand	4 860	14.7	10 115	23.9	20 044	33.1
Norway			6 402 (1 037)	7.9 (1.3)	5 545 (875)	6.5 (1.0)
Poland					1 353	0.4
Portugal	1 954	4.7	2 005	3.2		
Slovenia			17	0.4	231 (29)	2.1 (0.3)
Sweden	2 344	2.7	2 734 (295)	2.6 (0.3)	4 266 (488)	3.7 (0.4)
Switzerland			8 618 (411)	14.7 (0.7)	21 484 (2 326)	26.6 (2.9)
United Kingdom	39 912	6.8	70 750	11.3	170 067	22.7
United States			166 779	6.0	176 042	5.2
OECD Total	Unweighted average		428 831	6.0	732 846	8.8
	Weighted average			6.4		8.3
			(21 countries)		(28 countries)	

Note: For Germany the data refer to foreign citizens (not necessarily foreign-trained). Data missing for Costa Rica, Iceland, Luxembourg, Korea, the Slovak Republic, Japan, Mexico, Spain and Türkiye.

Source: OECD Data Explorer (DF_HEALTH_WFMI).

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In most OECD countries, domestically trained doctors accounted for the majority of the overall increase in physician numbers between 2010 and 2023. However, in five countries, foreign-trained doctors contributed to more than half of the growth in the medical workforce – most notably in Switzerland (86%), Norway (70%) and Ireland (57%) (Annex Figure 5.A.1). In Norway, over half of this increase was driven by Norwegian students who studied medicine abroad before returning to complete their specialist training. Greece and Israel also show a high proportion of the foreign-trained doctors who are nationals who obtained their degrees overseas and then returned to practise. They illustrate a broader, two-decade trend towards the internationalisation of medical and nursing education (Box 5.3).

Box 5.2. Regional policies fuel the rapid rise of foreign-trained nurses in Belgium

Shortage occupation lists in Belgium are drawn up separately by each regional employment service – VDAB in Flanders, Le Forem in Wallonia, and Actiris in the Brussels-Capital Region. These lists, on which nurses consistently appear alongside other high-demand health occupations (such as healthcare assistants, physiotherapists, and occupational therapists), guide both domestic and international recruitment and underpin a range of incentive schemes (Directorate-General for Migration and Home Affairs, 2023^[11]).

To address local nursing shortages, Brussels launched its first international recruitment partnership with Lebanon in 2012 and has since expanded this channel. Flanders, meanwhile, links mandatory integration training for low-skilled newcomers to shortage occupations such as nursing. Across all three regions, bespoke programmes allow jobseekers to train as nurses while retaining welfare benefits, and accelerated conversion schemes support foreign-trained nurses in obtaining a Belgian qualification (Cedefop - European Centre for the Development of Vocational Training, 2016^[12]).

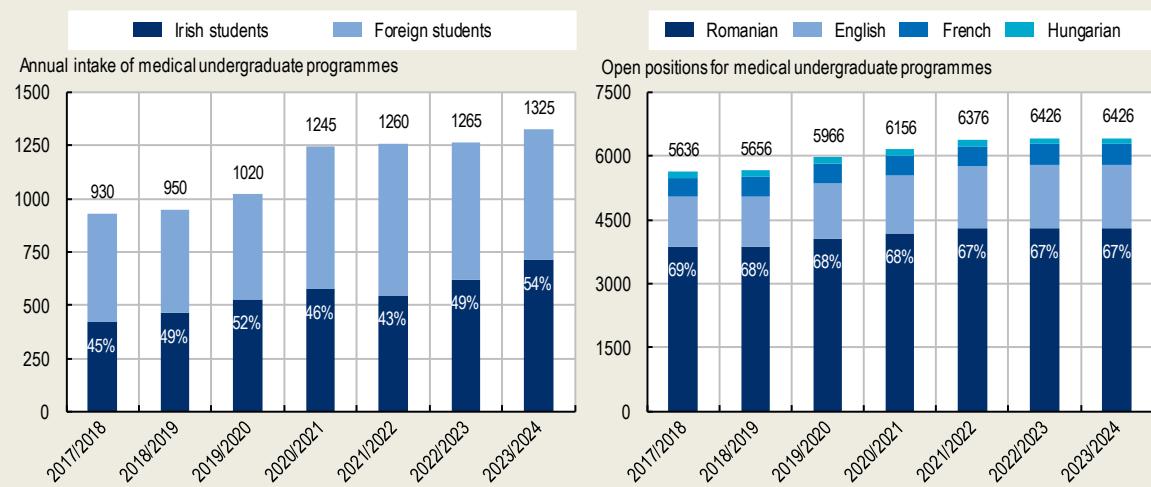
Despite these efforts, non-EU foreign-trained nurses continue to face structural barriers to full integration. A key challenge lies in the recognition of foreign qualifications. Complex or lengthy procedures often delay or prevent recognition, forcing many qualified nurses to take up lower-skilled roles as healthcare assistants (Belgian Health Care Knowledge Centre (KCE), 2025^[13]). This mismatch between skills and employment highlights the need for more transparent and efficient pathways for recognising foreign credentials, to ensure that Belgium's growing reliance on international recruitment leads to sustainable and meaningful integration of workers into its health system.

Box 5.3. International training hubs deliver many graduates

Ireland and Romania sit among the three OECD and accession members with the highest rate of new medical graduates per 100 000 population – more than double the OECD average (OECD, 2025^[14]). Yet a sizeable share of these graduates are international students. In Ireland, around 50% of all enrolled medical students came from outside the country in recent years. In Romania, around one-third of places in medical schools in recent years are taught in foreign languages (mainly in English, but also in French and to a lesser extent in Hungarian). Without these foreign students, both countries' graduation rates would fall to – or below – the OECD average.

Irish medical schools have actively recruited abroad since the mid-2000s, when cuts in state subsidies – accompanied by a cap on Irish/EU places – made high non-EU tuition fees an essential revenue stream. However, limited residency programme posts and priority for Irish/EU citizens means that most of these foreign graduates leave after obtaining their first medical degree. In Romania, eleven public and two private universities have expanded intakes since the early 2010s, partly to offset emigration of Romanian doctors and partly because multilingual, moderately priced programmes are attractive to students from Moldova, Israel, France and other European and Mediterranean countries who often have not been admitted in their home country due to limited capacity or “*numerus clausus*” policies. As in Ireland, most foreign graduates return home or move elsewhere in the EU to pursue their specialty training and career (WHO, 2025^[15]).

Figure 5.6. Evolution of medical undergraduate programme intake in Ireland and Romania



Sources: Health Education Authority 2025 dashboards for Ireland, and annual government decrees on the nomenclature and specialisation in tertiary education for Romania.

StatLink <https://stat.link/26tehd>

Ireland has faced a paradoxical situation in recent years: while Irish medical schools have provided basic medical education to a very large number of both domestic and foreign students, the country has had to rely increasingly on the international recruitment of fully-trained doctors (Annex Figure 5.A.1) to address doctor shortages because many new graduates do not stay in the country after graduation (OECD, 2019^[5]).

The Irish and Romanian examples make clear that the internationalisation of medical education can expand the capacity and diversify funding streams of medical schools and offer students wider education and career opportunities. It can also bolster supply in countries that struggle to scale their own training systems. At the same time, cross-border student flows add layers of uncertainty to national workforce planning regarding the country in which they might end up working, and – unless postgraduate training places and long-term career incentives keep pace – they cannot guarantee that the countries hosting the programmes will be able to count on this growing education effort to meet their own staffing needs.

As previously noted, the international migration of foreign-trained nurses has generally been more limited than that of doctors. Several countries have relied heavily on foreign-trained nurses to expand their nursing workforce. In the United Kingdom, 83% of the increase of nearly 120 000 nurses between 2010 and 2023 relied on nurses trained abroad. Switzerland also recorded a high share (58%), followed by New Zealand (54%) (Annex Figure 5.A.1). While the time series is more limited for Ireland, available data indicate that foreign-trained nurses accounted for 92% of the growth in the nursing workforce – nearly 12 500 nurses – between 2021 and 2024.

Notably, Switzerland was the only country where foreign-trained professionals accounted for more than half of the growth in both the medical and nursing workforce. This may, in part, reflect a relatively modest expansion of domestic training capacity over the past two decades. The number of medical graduates per 100 000 people remained broadly stable between 2000 and 2016, with only a slight increase in more recent years. Admissions to medical schools rose by just 28% between 2013 and 2022, well below the growth rates observed in neighbouring countries such as Italy or France, where intakes more than doubled.

This limited expansion of domestic training capacity, coupled with relatively high wages and favourable career prospects, has made Switzerland an attractive destination for foreign-trained doctors and nurses, particularly from neighbouring countries.

In 2023, foreign-trained professionals were an important source of inflows of new doctors and nurses in many OECD countries compared with new domestic medical and nursing graduates. In more than half of OECD countries in 2023, at least one in every four new doctors – and on average, 36% – had trained abroad. The contribution of international recruitment to nursing was more modest: only six countries saw foreign-trained nurses make up more than one-quarter of the annual inflow, and the OECD average stood at 17%. Figure 5.7 underlines this difference. In most countries, the proportion of inflows attributable to foreign-trained is higher for doctors than for nurses; Ireland and Austria are the notable exceptions.

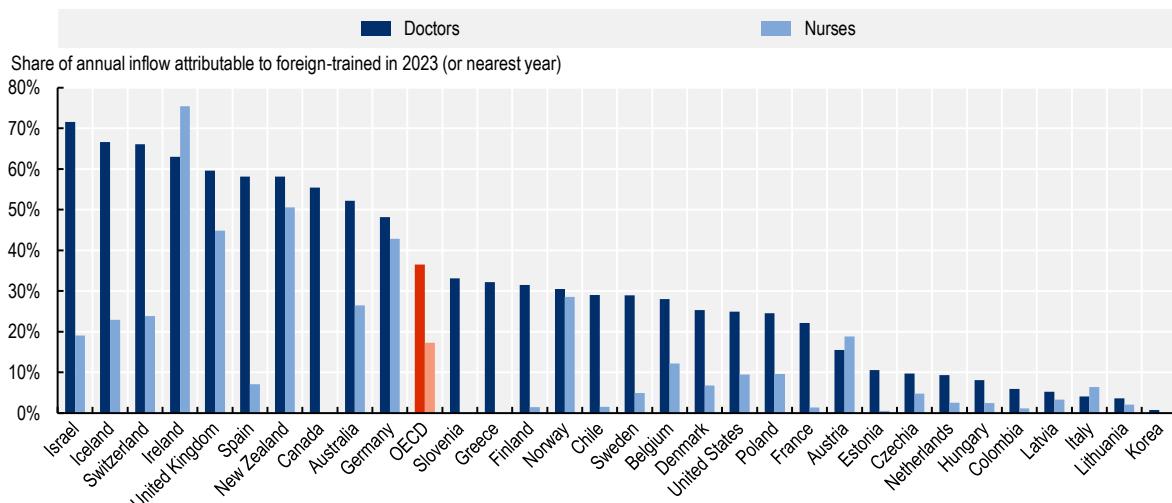
Another easy-to-grasp way of gauging reliance on international recruitment is to express inflows as the number of foreign-trained professionals admitted for every 100 domestically trained graduates – the *foreign-trained dependency ratio* (Annex Table 5.A.1).

In 2023, the United States, despite hosting the largest stock of foreign-trained doctors, recruited just 33 foreign-trained doctors for every 100 new medical graduates, whereas the ratio topped 200 in other OECD countries (Annex Table 5.A.1). Reliance is lower for nurses overall, but cross-country variation remains wide (Annex Table 5.A.2). Between 2010 and 2023 the United Kingdom's doctor-dependency ratio quadrupled, while Norway cut its reliance by expanding training places at home.

These contrasts sit against a broader backdrop of rising training capacity. Across the OECD, the number of new medical graduates per 100 000 population grew by over 70% – reaching over 14 graduates per 100 000 people – between 2000 and 2023. Every country recorded growth, with Lithuania, Poland and Portugal tripling their output, whereas increases in countries such as Germany and Norway were in the low double digits. A similar, though less pronounced pattern is observed for nurses: average graduate numbers climbed by 50%. Although a handful of countries registered declines, most had increases, with some such as Australia, the Netherlands and the United States more than doubling their capacity (OECD, 2025^[14]).

Taken together, the figures highlight two distinct policy paths: some health systems continue or are increasingly reliant on international recruitment to cover their workforce needs, while others are investing on larger domestic trained cohorts to build a workforce strategy that is more resilient and sustainable over the longer term.

Relying on just two reference years can obscure sudden shifts in international recruitment. Figure 5.8, which traces annual inflows of foreign-trained doctors, shows how divergent the trajectories can be. Switzerland's intake has been broadly stable, hovering around 1 800 a year, which is a particularly high level. The United Kingdom followed a pronounced boom-and-bust cycle: a rapid rise from a little over 6 000 in 2000 to more than 13 000 in 2003 was driven by an NHS recruitment campaign (Bach, 2004^[16]) (UK Department of Health, 2004^[17]) and the 2004 EU enlargement, which gave doctors from the ten new member states immediate and automatic access to UK registration and training posts. Numbers then fell to about 5 000 for most of the 2010s following tighter migration rules in 2006 for non-EU doctors, before surging again after 2017 as post-Brexit staffing gaps, streamlined registration routes, and the removal of visa caps for doctors and nurses (UK Visas and Immigration and Home Office, 2018^[18]) prompted renewed hiring abroad by trusts, lifting inflows above 18 000 in 2023.

Figure 5.7. Share of annual inflow of doctors and nurses attributable to foreign-trained in 2023

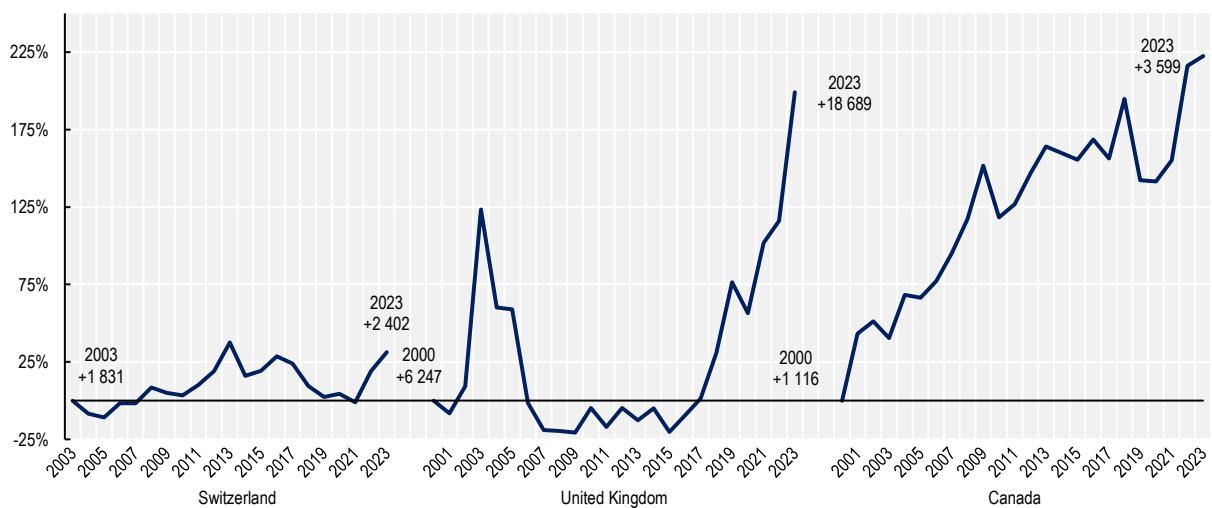
Note: The OECD average is weighted. The share of annual inflow attributable to foreign-trained doctors is the number of new foreign-trained doctors divided by the same-year total inflows (foreign-trained plus domestic graduates). This measure assumes all domestic graduates enter the labour market or proceed to postgraduate training.

Source: OECD Data Explorer (DF_HEALTH_WFMI and DF_GRAD).

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Figure 5.8. Evolution of yearly inflows of foreign-trained doctors over 2000-2023 in selected OECD countries

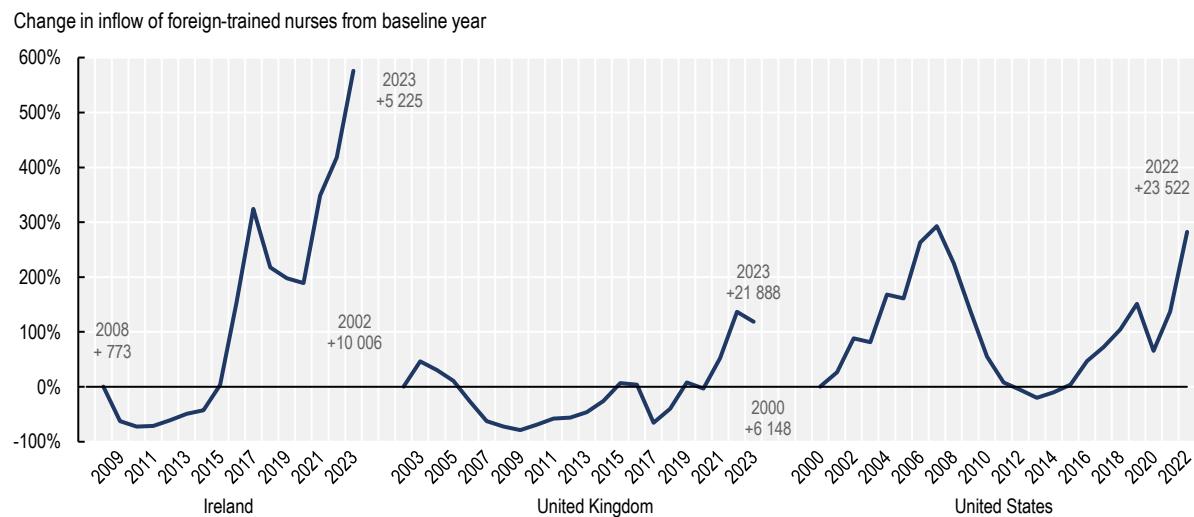
Change in inflow of foreign-trained doctors from baseline year



Source: OECD Data Explorer (DF_HEALTH_WFMI).

StatLink  <https://stat.link/6ld54p>

Figure 5.9. Evolution of yearly inflows of foreign-trained nurses over 2000-2023 in selected OECD countries



Source: OECD Data Explorer (DF_HEALTH_WFMI).

StatLink <https://stat.link/sfaf12>

Canada shows yet another pattern. Its inflows trace a near-linear upward path. Provincial “practice-ready” schemes, targeted immigration streams, and, from 2015, the federal Express Entry system – a points-based fast-track for skilled professionals – have sustained growth so that by 2023, arrivals were more than three times higher than their 2000 level, despite minor year-to-year fluctuations and a brief slowdown in 2020.

Figure 5.9 shows that inflows of foreign-trained nurses also follow very different trajectories across countries. In Ireland, arrivals stood at about 700 in 2008, fell to only a few hundred during the post-crisis hiring freeze, and remained low until 2015 (Office of the National Director of Human Resources, 2009^[19]). They then rose sharply – to almost 3 300 in 2017 – partly because nurses who might otherwise have moved to the United Kingdom chose Ireland while the implications of Brexit were unclear and new English language requirements came into force. After dipping to around 2 200 in 2019/20, inflows climbed again in the wake of the pandemic to exceed 5 000 in 2023 – more than six times the 2008 level.

The United States offers a longer time series dating back to 2000. Annual inflows grew from about 6 000 to over 24 000 between 2000 and 2007, when Schedule A fast-track green cards and buoyant hospital demand opened the door to large-scale recruitment of foreign-educated nurses (US Citizenship and Immigration Services (USCIS), 2025^[20]). They then fell back to roughly 5 000 after the global financial crisis. Numbers began to climb again from 2016 – interrupted only by a single pandemic-year dip in 2020 – and reached more than 23 000 in 2022.

Inflows of foreign-trained nurses to the United Kingdom have also risen sharply since 2018, topping 23 000 in 2022. This expansion has helped to ease staffing gaps but growing living costs and reports of challenging working conditions mean the United Kingdom is now often perceived as a stepping-stone to other destinations. Evidence from the Nursing and Midwifery Council (NMC) supports this view. Applications for Certificates of Current Professional Status (CCPS) – the document a UK-based nurse must obtain before registering abroad – jumped from about 3 300 in 2019/20 to almost 12 500 in 2022/23. Non-EU/EFTA, foreign-trained nurses lodged nearly three-quarters (72%) of these requests, compared with just 23% three years earlier (The Health Foundation, 2024^[21]). More than four-fifths of CCPS

applications were for three English-speaking countries: the United States, Australia and New Zealand. Data regarding time since NMC registry point to increasingly shorter stays in the country. In 2018/19 only 27% of foreign-trained nurses seeking a CCPS had been on the UK register for fewer than three years, whereas by 2023/24 that share had risen to 77%; just 3% had been in the United Kingdom for ten years or more (down from 50% in 2018/19).

Onward migration is not a new phenomenon or unique to the United Kingdom. New Zealand has long experienced similar patterns, with many nurses moving on to Australia under the Trans-Tasman Mutual Recognition Arrangement. A 2024 Ministry of Health brief noted that, between July 2022 and August 2023, 80% of the Nursing Council's letters of good standing were requested by foreign-trained nurses, and most were sent to Australia. Of more than 760 letters issued in July 2023, over 60% were sought within one month of gaining New Zealand registration and a further 15% within one and six months (New Zealand Ministry of Health, 2024^[22]). These data suggest that headline inflows underestimate the extent of nurse mobility and the difficulties of solely relying on foreign-trained professionals.

The contribution of foreign-born and foreign-trained to the total stock of health professionals

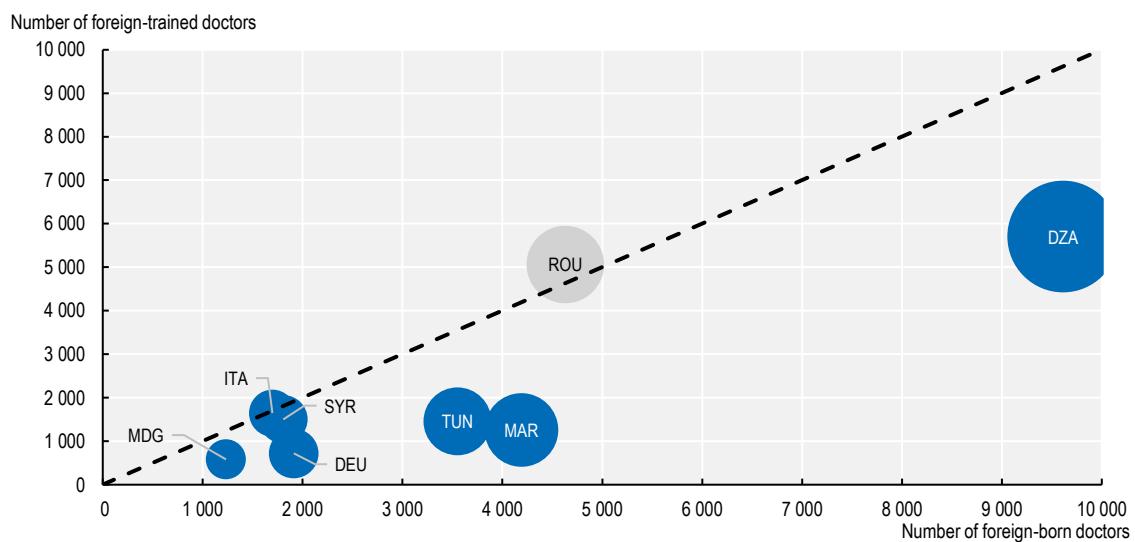
Data from various sources confirms that the proportion of both foreign-trained and foreign-born health professionals – particularly nurses – has grown in most OECD countries over recent decades. However, there are notable differences in the overall share of each category, with foreign-born health professionals outnumbering those who are foreign-trained. According to the most recent available data, foreign-born individuals account for over 25% of all doctors in the OECD area, compared to 20% who are foreign-trained. Among nurses, the gap is even wider: 18% are foreign-born, while just under 9% are foreign-trained. The differences in these proportions offer valuable insights into migration pathways, the internationalisation of medical education, and the socio-economic and educational integration of migrants.

Countries with high shares in both categories suggest a broad reliance on international migration to address domestic workforce shortages and rising demand. The variation between the two groups, however, may reflect differing use of specific recruitment and training pathways. A higher share of foreign-trained professionals relative to the foreign-born may indicate greater reliance on international recruitment or the overseas training of domestic health professionals, alongside a more inclusive system for recognising foreign qualifications. Conversely, a higher share of foreign-born professionals compared to the foreign-trained may suggest a more restrictive system for recognising foreign qualifications, higher retention of international students who remain in the host country after completing their studies, or – reflecting both aspects – a requirement for migrant professionals to retrain domestically before entering the workforce.

In France, for example, far more doctors are foreign-born than foreign-trained for the main countries of origin (Figure 5.10). For Algeria, Morocco and Tunisia, the gap runs to several thousand physicians, indicating that many migrants from these countries receive their medical training in France rather than arriving with a qualification earned at home. Romania is the only sizeable country of origin where foreign-trained doctors outnumber those who are foreign-born. This reflects the rapid internationalisation of medical education in Romania where about one-third of medical undergraduate programme positions are in English, French or Hungarian, with French nationals forming the largest group of international students (OECD, 2019^[5]). At the same time, this does not preclude Romanian-born doctors from also training in Romania and later being recruited to practise in France, particularly in less populated or rural areas.

In Switzerland, where most migrant doctors come from neighbouring countries, the numbers of foreign-born and foreign-trained physicians are broadly similar, suggesting greater reliance on medical training completed abroad (Figure 5.11). Austria is the only country of origin where the number of foreign-trained doctors slightly exceeds that of the foreign-born, indicating that some Swiss nationals obtain their medical degree in Austria before returning to practise in Switzerland.

Figure 5.10. Immigrant doctors in France, main countries of origin, 2021

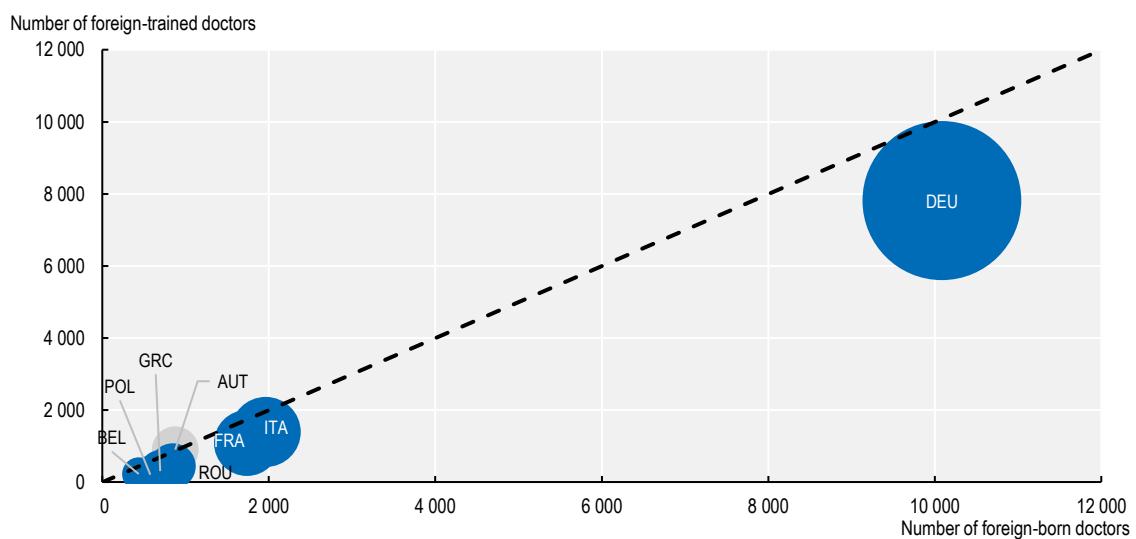


Notes: The size of the bubble corresponds to the share of the country in the total number of foreign-trained doctors. Bubbles are coloured grey when the number of foreign-trained doctors from that country is higher than the number of foreign-born doctors, and blue when the reverse is true.

Source: OECD Data Explorer (DF_HEALTH_WFMI) for foreign-trained and DIOC 2010/11 and DIOC 2020/21 for foreign-born.

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Figure 5.11. Immigrant doctors in Switzerland, main countries of origin, 2021



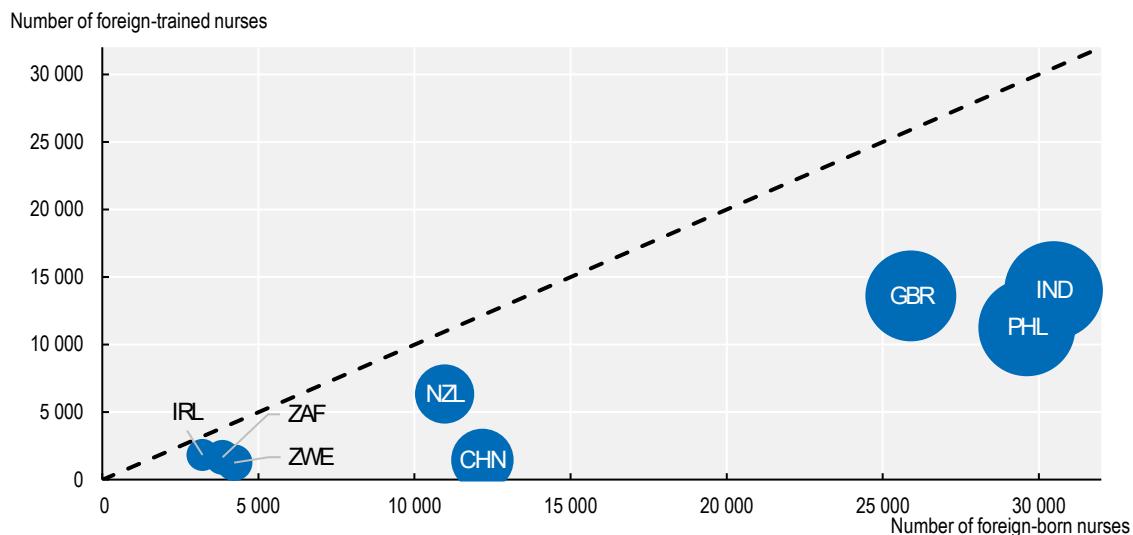
Notes: The size of the bubble corresponds to the share of the country in the total number of foreign-trained doctors. Bubbles are coloured grey when the number of foreign-trained doctors from that country is higher than the number of foreign-born doctors, and blue when the reverse is true.

Source: OECD Data Explorer (DF_HEALTH_WFMI) for foreign-trained and DIOC 2010/11 and DIOC 2020/21 for foreign-born.

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Among nurses, foreign-born numbers far exceed foreign-trained in both Australia (Figure 5.12) and Canada (Figure 5.13). This suggests that many foreign-born nurses obtained their qualifications after arriving in the destination country, either as children or as international students. Additionally, some may have been required to retrain in the country in order to practise.

Figure 5.12. Immigrant nurses in Australia, main countries of origin, 2021

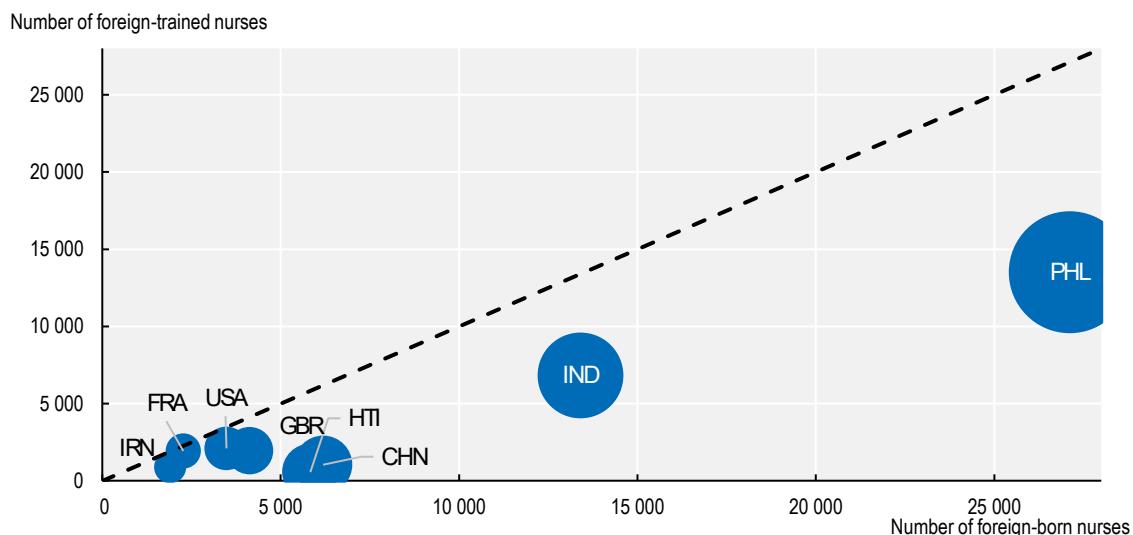


Notes: The size of the bubble corresponds to the share of the country in the total number of foreign-trained doctors. Bubbles are coloured grey when the number of foreign-trained doctors from that country is higher than the number of foreign-born doctors, and blue when the reverse is true.

Source: OECD Data Explorer (DF_HEALTH_WFMI) for foreign-trained and DIOC 2010/11 and DIOC 2020/21 for foreign-born.

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Figure 5.13. Immigrant nurses in Canada, main countries of origin, 2021



Notes: The size of the bubble corresponds to the share of the country in the total number of foreign-trained doctors. Bubbles are coloured grey when the number of foreign-trained doctors from that country is higher than the number of foreign-born doctors, and blue when the reverse is true.

Source: OECD Data Explorer (DF_HEALTH_WFMI) for foreign-trained and DIOC 2010/11 and DIOC 2020/21 for foreign-born.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/zrqpnv>

Box 5.4. Canada's health workforce reflects both brain gain and brain waste

Census data make Canada one of the few OECD countries able to cross-tabulate country of birth and country of first medical or nursing qualification for every practicing health worker (Table 5.5). Between 2006 and 2021, the number of doctors grew from 56 000 to just over 80 000, yet the composition of the workforce shifted. Canadian-born, foreign-trained (CB-FT) doctors increased eight-fold, accounting for 4% of all practising physicians in 2021, up from 0.6% in 2006. The subgroup of foreign-born, foreign-trained (FB-FT) doctors rose by 68% between 2006 and 2016, but then fell by 12% between 2016 and 2021.

Table 5.5. Physicians and nurses working and not working in their trained occupation by place of birth and training, 2006, 2016 and 2021

	Year	CB-CT	CB-FT	FB-CT	FB-FT	Total
Panel A: Physicians						
Working (Count)	2006	37 040	385	11 250	7 755	56 430
	2016	45 115	1 510	13 840	13 020	73 485
	2021	50 635	3 145	15 305	11 410	80 495
Not Working in Trained Profession (Count)	2006	3 105	160	1 170	9 500	13 935
	2016	5 420	640	2 420	21 640	30 120
	2021	5 905	1 085	2 860	20 175	30 025
% Working in Trained Profession	2006	92.3%	70.6%	90.6%	44.9%	80.2%
	2016	89.3%	70.2%	85.1%	37.6%	70.9%
	2021	89.6%	74.3%	84.3%	36.1%	72.8%
Panel B: Registered Nurses						
Working (Count)	2006	187 270	660	25 645	17 435	231 010
	2016	186 615	545	34 230	19 120	240 510
	2021	195 215	800	42 970	25 485	264 470
Not Working in Trained Profession (Count)	2006	108 845	600	14 490	22 135	146 070
	2016	99 025	520	16 265	32 575	148 385
	2021	93 765	625	18 770	49 265	162 425
% Working in Trained Profession	2006	63.2%	52.4%	63.9%	44.1%	61.3%
	2016	65.3%	51.2%	67.8%	37.0%	61.8%
	2021	67.6%	56.1%	69.6%	34.1%	62.0%

Notes: CBCT – Canadian born and Canadian trained; CBFT – Canadian born and Foreign-trained; FBCT – Foreign born and Canadian trained; and FBFT – Foreign born and Foreign trained.

Source: Personal communications from Rabiul Islam and Arthur Sweetman (Department of Economics, McMaster University) based on 2006, 2016 and 2021 Canadian Census data.

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Nursing numbers also climbed significantly over the same 15-year period. Foreign-born, Canadian-trained (FB-CT) nurses increased by 68%, and FB-FT nurses by 46% – much higher than the 4% increase among Canadian-born, Canadian-trained (CB-CT) nurses. As a result, the share of CB-CT nurses among all working nurses declined from 81% to 74%.

Canada's data also highlight a significant "brain waste" problem. In 2021, only 73% of all physicians were working in medicine, down from 80% in 2006, with participation rates varying considerably across subgroups. Just 36% of FB-FT and 74% of CB-FT doctors reported working in their trained profession. This implies that 26% of CB-FT and 64% of FB-FT doctors were under-utilised in 2021.

The loss of clinical skills is even more pronounced among nurses: only about 62% were working in their trained profession. While most subgroups saw improvements, the rate among FB-FT nurses fell by 10 p.p. to just 34%.

Canada thus experiences both “brain gain” (through CB-FT inflows) and “brain waste” when graduates, especially FB-FT, cannot secure licences or suitable positions. Key factors include licensing hurdles and lengthy bridging programmes, more lucrative opportunities in non-clinical roles, and geographical or specialty maldistribution (OECD, 2019^[5]).

The main countries of origin of foreign-born health professionals

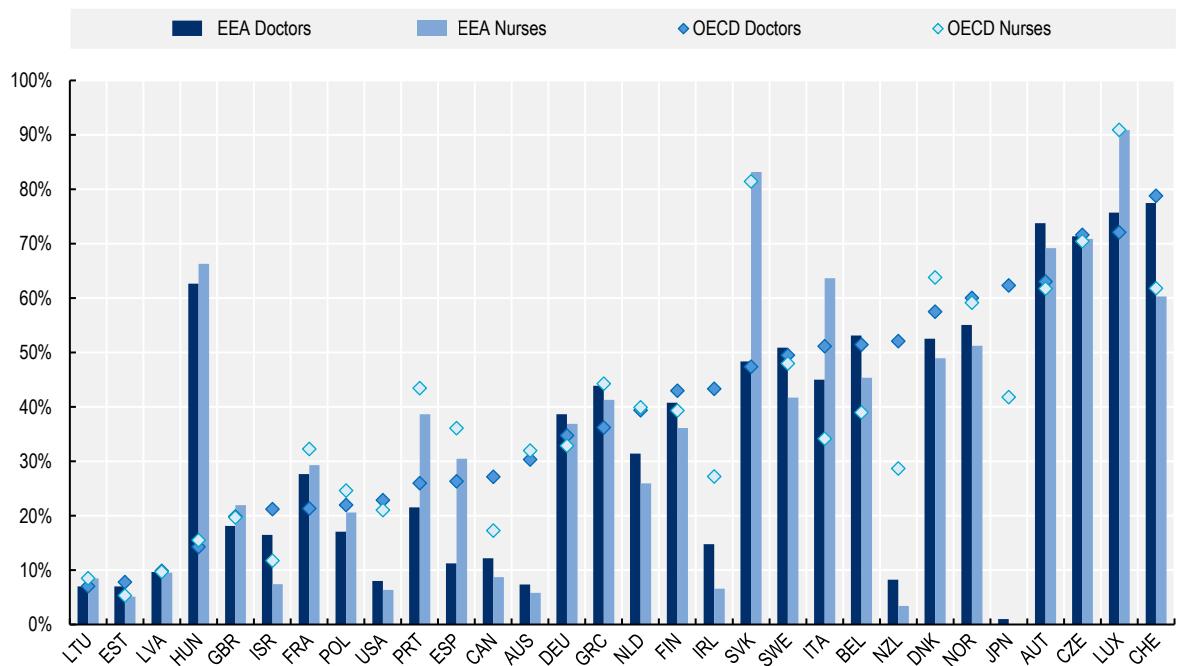
As OECD countries strive to meet their own health workforce needs, there is a risk that shortages may be exported both within and beyond the OECD area, placing an undue burden on some of the poorest countries in the world. This section provides evidence on the composition of migration of doctors and nurses to the OECD, by region and countries of origin.

Intra-OECD and EEA movements

Migration flows to the OECD are characterised by a combination of movements within the OECD area, including between EEA countries, as well as inflows from third countries. In the case of health professionals, intra-OECD and EEA mobility is facilitated by a number of mutual recognition agreements for qualifications, which tends to facilitate mobility.

In total, more than 243 000 migrant doctors and 463 000 migrant nurses are originating from another OECD country, corresponding respectively to 29.6% and 26.7% of all migrant doctors and nurses. The corresponding percentages for those originating from another EEA country are 21.1% for doctors and 18.5% for nurses. There are, however, important differences across destination countries. Unsurprisingly, the highest shares of EEA migrants are recorded in OECD-EU countries (Figure 5.14). In countries such as Austria, Czechia, Denmark, Luxembourg, Hungary, the Slovak Republic, Norway or Switzerland, close to, or more than half of all migrant doctors and nurses originate from another EEA country. Italy also records a high share of doctors born in another European country, while Belgium reports a high share of nurses from within Europe.

Figure 5.14. Share of doctors and nurses born in EEA or OECD countries among all migrant doctors and nurses, circa 2020/21



Source: DIOC 2020/21, LFS-EU 2021.

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In most destination countries, the share of migrants originating from OECD countries is higher than that from EEA countries. However, this pattern does not hold in specific OECD-EU countries, where the number of migrants originating from EEA non-OECD countries, such as Bulgaria and Romania, is particularly important. Romanian nurses are especially numerous in Italy, Germany and Hungary. Romanian doctors are present in large numbers in France, where they rank as the second-largest, foreign-born group after Algeria and ahead of Morocco, as well as in Germany and Hungary. Bulgarian doctors also constitute a sizeable group in Germany.

Overall, the share of OECD migrant doctors and nurses, who do not originate from EEA countries is most evident in Japan, with inflows primarily from Korea. It is also high in New Zealand and Ireland, mainly due to arrivals from the United Kingdom, and to a lesser extent in Canada and the United States.

Movements of health professionals within the OECD are becoming increasingly complex. However, only a few countries within the OECD area are net gainers, meaning that they receive more doctors and nurses from other OECD countries than they lose.

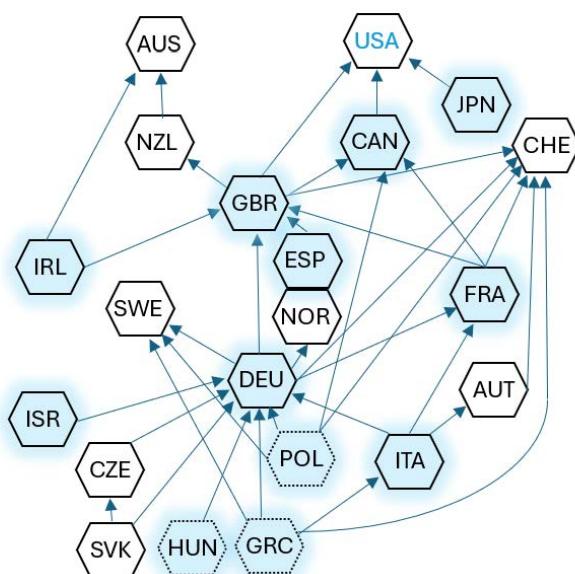
The United States stands out, with a net gain of more than 55 000 doctors and 144 000 nurses compared to the rest of the OECD. Other countries with net positive gains for both doctors and nurses include Australia, Austria, Luxembourg, Norway, Sweden and Switzerland. Germany is the third largest overall net gainer of nurses. New Zealand, Spain, France and the Netherlands each receive at least 1 000 more doctors from other OECD countries than they send. Conversely, countries such as Poland, Hungary, Greece or the Slovak Republic are net senders for both doctors and nurses to other OECD countries.

Within the OECD, international flows of both doctors and nurses often follow a cascade-like pattern, where movements from one country to another create a domino effect, generating recruitment needs in other

countries to fill the resulting gaps. Figure 5.15 illustrates these interactions between OECD countries for doctors (see also Annex 5.B). Arrows between countries X and Y indicate that there are at least 500 more doctors originating from country X residing in country Y than the reverse. Where no arrow is shown between two countries, the difference in the number of migrant doctors is less than 500.

The United States, Australia and Switzerland are the only three countries that are net gainers in relation to every other OECD country. The United Kingdom and Germany are net gainers vis à vis eight and seven countries respectively but are also net senders to four and seven countries. Countries such as France or Austria fall in the middle of the cascade. Both lose doctors to Switzerland but gain from Italy, which in turn is a net recruiter from Greece. Greece, Hungary and Poland appear at the very bottom of the graph, experiencing net losses of doctors to six or seven other countries.

Figure 5.15. Net migrant stocks over 500 between OECD countries for migrant doctors to and from the OECD, circa 2020/21



Note: Countries highlighted in blue should show arrows towards the United States. Those with dotted lines should show arrows towards the United Kingdom. Belgium, Denmark, Estonia, Finland, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Latvia and Portugal are not represented because they do not have a net stock over or below 500 with no other country. Colombia, Costa Rica, Chile, Mexico, Slovenia, Türkiye, Korea and Iceland are not included in this graph because no data is available for these destination countries.

Source: DIOC 2020/21, LFS-EU 2021.

Main regions of origin for migrant doctors and nurses in the OECD

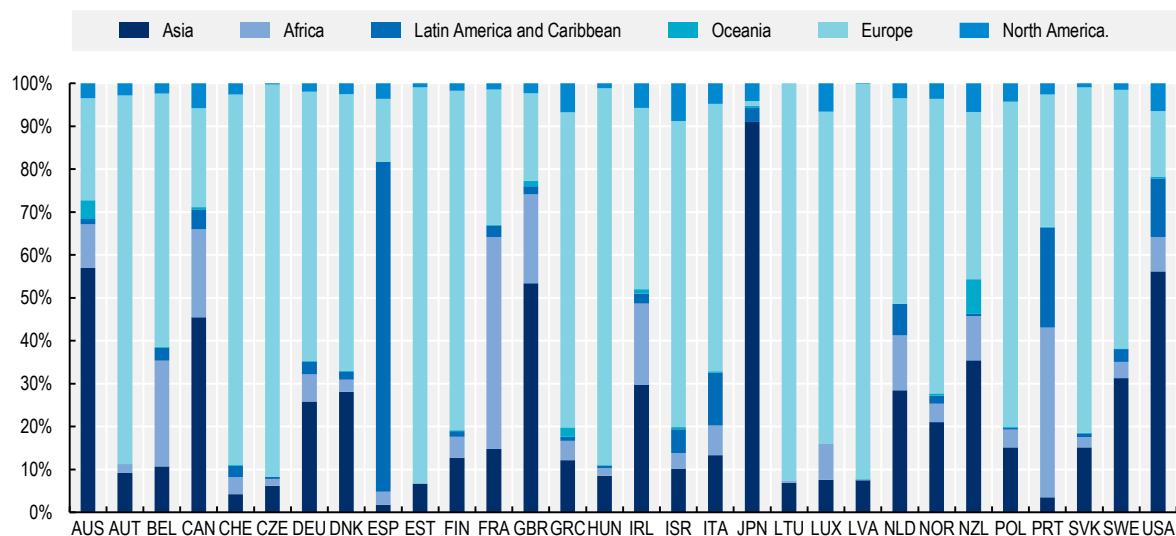
Broadening the perspective to all regions of origin highlights the importance of Asia as the main region of origin for both doctors and nurses. Almost 40% of migrant doctors in the OECD and 37% of migrant nurses were born in an Asian country.

In Australia, Japan, the United Kingdom and the United States, more than one in two migrant doctors were born in Asia (Figure 5.16). Asia is also the predominant region of origin for migrant nurses in non-EU OECD countries and in Ireland. More than 20% of migrant nurses in Finland, Norway, Sweden and Germany were also born in Asia. A similar trend is observed for doctors in Germany and the Netherlands.

Doctors born in African countries form the largest group only in France (49.4%) and Portugal (39.6%), while doctors born in Latin American countries are the most numerous only in Spain (76.9%). Similar

patterns are observed among migrant nurses (Figure 5.17). Latin American nurses also represent a significant share in Italy (12%) and the United States (13.8%). Oceania is important region of origin mainly for nurses in New Zealand (12.8%) and in Australia (8%) as well as for doctors in New Zealand (8%).

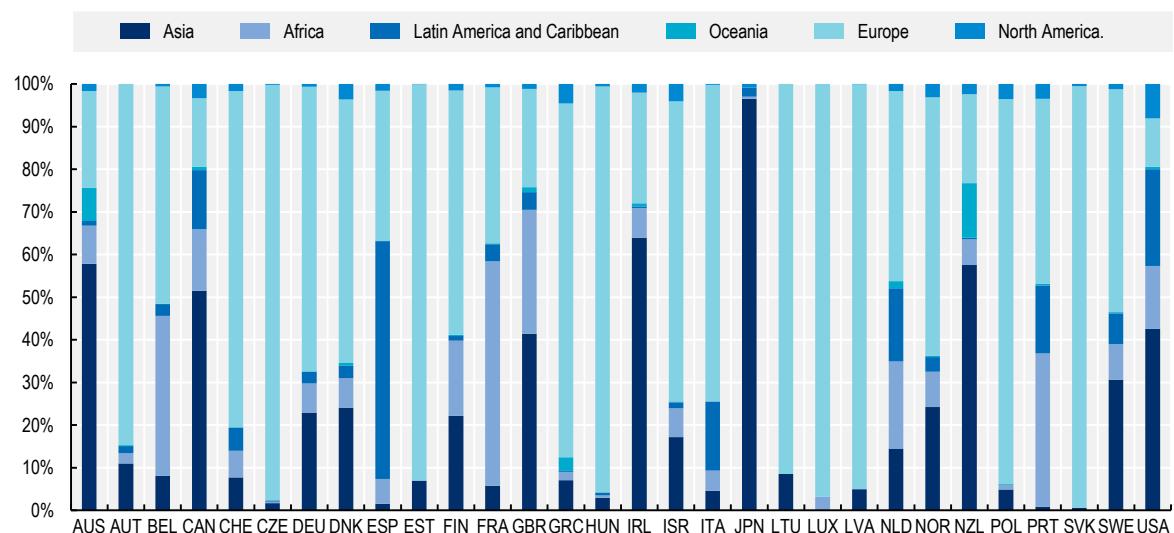
Figure 5.16. Share of migrant doctors by country of destination and main region of origin, circa 2020/21



Source: DIOC 2020/21, LFS-EU 2021.

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Figure 5.17. Share of migrant nurses by country of destination and main region of origin, circa 2020/21



Source: DIOC 2020/21, LFS-EU 2021.

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Impact of the international mobility of health professionals on origin countries

One of the key issues concerning the international mobility of health professionals, and a major focus of the political attention in recent decades, relates to its impact on countries of origin. Despite considerable efforts to gather information at regional and national levels, statistical evidence by origin country remains limited and difficult to compare. The data presented in Table 5.6 and Annex 5.C aim to address this gap by presenting data for foreign-born doctors and nurses in OECD countries, disaggregated by detailed country of birth for 2020/21 and 2000/01.

In 2020/21, there were slightly less than 100 000 doctors born in India working in the OECD. Germany, China and Pakistan each had about 30 000 emigrant doctors in OECD countries. Romania and the United Kingdom followed with around 25 000. Among migrant nurses, the Philippines was by far the main country of origin, with nearly 280 000 nurses abroad. India ranked second, with 122 000 – less than half the number from the Philippines. Poland followed in third place, with about half the total of India. Nigeria and Germany completed the top five.

Looking at changes since 2000/01, all main countries of origin have experienced outstanding growth rates, with the exception of the Philippines for doctors and Canada for nurses. In most cases, the growth rates largely outpace those observed for migrants in general, including highly skilled migrants. This reflects the strength of longstanding migration corridors from specific countries and raises concerns about the potential impact on health systems in countries of origin.

Overall, the number has more than doubled in 14 of the 25 main countries of origin for doctors. The increase is even more marked for nurses, with 16 countries witnessing at least a tripling in the number of emigrants. The most significant growth rates for doctors are observed in Romania, Nigeria and Greece, while the largest increases for nurses are found in Cameroon, Portugal and Zimbabwe. Very high growth rates are also recorded for Ukraine, Romania and India in the case of nurses.

Since 2000/01, Russia, Nigeria, Ukraine and Romania each climbed more than ten places in the ranking of origin for doctors. By contrast, Viet Nam and Algeria fell by more than ten places, despite experiencing continued outmigration. The Philippines also dropped out of the top ten countries of origin, losing eight places.

For nurses, the most significant changes were recorded for Kenya and Zimbabwe, which rose from the 45th to the 20th place and from the 38th to the 11th place respectively. Romania and Ghana also gained more than ten places each. Conversely, Jamaica lost six places.

Table 5.6. 25 main countries of origin for migrant doctors and nurses in the OECD, circa 2020/21

Doctors	2020/21	Growth since 2000/01	Nurses	2020/21	Growth since 2000/01
India	98 857	76%	Philippines	277 266	147%
Germany	31 024	107%	India	122 400	435%
China	30 342	60%	Poland	64 268	232%
Pakistan	29 689	182%	Nigeria	54 480	295%
Romania	25 499	272%	Germany	49 584	60%
United Kingdom	24 548	53%	United Kingdom	49 492	10%
Iran, Islamic Republic of	19 313	100%	Romania	46 882	487%
Russian Federation	18 826	268%	China	42 440	179%
Canada	17 587	76%	Jamaica	41 098	32%
Nigeria	17 060	264%	Mexico	39 244	214%
Poland	16 275	122%	Russian Federation	36 706	279%
Philippines	14 922	-6%	Haiti	35 834	175%
Syrian Arab Republic	14 864	128%	Korea	25 686	151%
Egypt	14 008	82%	Ukraine	23 884	450%
Ukraine	12 979	233%	Canada	23 630	4%
South Africa	11 953	61%	Kazakhstan	22 070	236%
Italy	11 860	168%	Viet Nam	21 517	224%
Korea	11 790	37%	Ghana	21 377	292%
Algeria	11 423	5%	Bosnia and Herzegovina	20 350	221%
Malaysia	10 623	127%	Kenya	20 277	565%
United States	10 548	192%	Zimbabwe	20 194	438%
Greece	9 964	245%	France	18 746	138%
Viet Nam	9 922	34%	Cuba	18 730	331%
Cuba	9 821	69%	Cameroon	17 186	772%
Iraq	9 767	174%	Portugal	15 418	568%

Source: DIOC 2020/21, LFS-EU 2021.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/dinuoh>

Migrant health workers from countries on the health workforce support and safeguards list

As part of the revision of the *WHO Global Code of Practice on the International Recruitment of Health Personnel*, the WHO established in 2023 a health workforce support and safeguards list (SSL) comprising 55 countries. These countries face the most pressing health workforce challenges in relation to universal health coverage. These countries have: 1) a density of doctors, nurses and midwives below the global median (49 per 10 000 population); and 2) a universal health coverage service coverage index below a defined threshold. Active recruitment from these countries, unless accompanied by compensatory measures, should be avoided and, instead, increasing international support for the strengthening of health system in these countries is recommended.

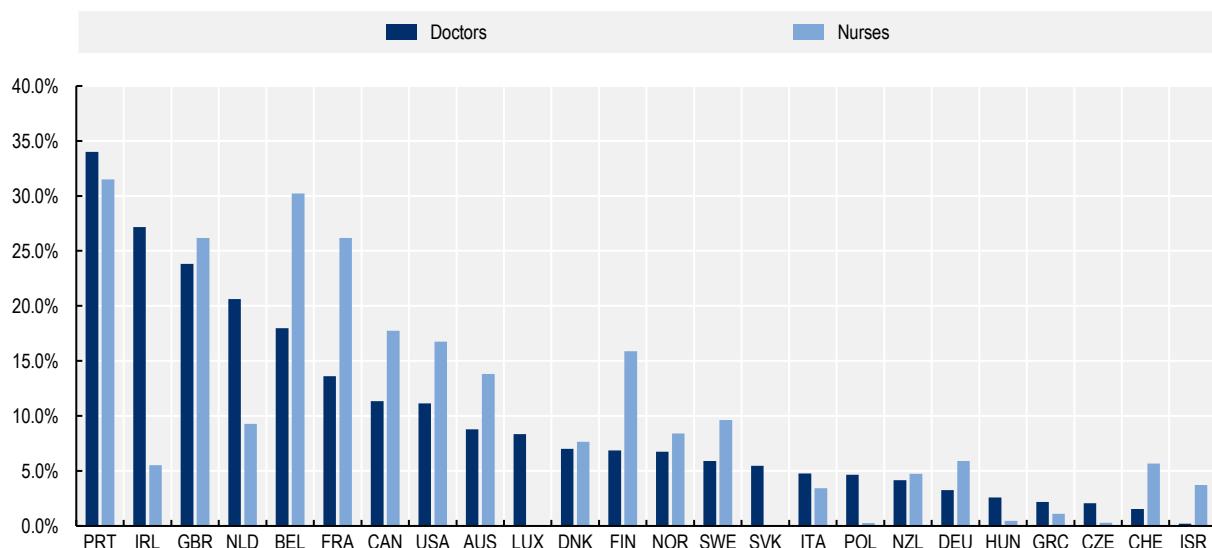
Overall, in 2020/21, about 89 000 doctors and 257 000 nurses working in the OECD were born in an SSL country. The main countries of origin for SSL doctors included Pakistan (29.6k), Nigeria (17k), Afghanistan (5k), Bangladesh (4.9k) and Cameroon (3k). For Nurses, the main countries of origin were Nigeria (55k), Haiti (35.8k), Ghana (21.4k), Zimbabwe (20.8k) and Cameroon (17.2k).

By country of destination, more than one in four migrant doctors in Portugal, Ireland and the United Kingdom originated from an SSL country, notably Nigeria and Angola. Similarly, one in four migrant nurses originates from an SSL country in Belgium (the Democratic Republic of the Congo and Cameroon)

and France (Congo, The Democratic Republic of the Congo, Cameroon, Côte d'Ivoire and Madagascar). Sizeable shares and absolute numbers of migrant doctors and nurses from SSL countries are also recorded in Canada and the United States.

It is, however, important to note that these figures are based on country of birth. Several destination countries also play an important role in training students from SSL countries in their medical and nursing education systems. This is the case for Portugal with Angola and Cape Verde, Belgium with the Democratic Republic of the Congo, France with several African countries, the United States and Canada with Caribbean countries, and Australia and New Zealand with Pacific countries.

Figure 5.18. Share of migrant doctors and nurses originating from countries in the WHO SSL list



Source: DIOC 2020/21, LFS-EU 2021.

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What is more, assessing the impact of migration on specific countries of origin solely on the basis of data from OECD destination countries may provide a partial and potentially misleading picture. A significant share of global health workforce migration occurs also outside the OECD area. From this perspective, data collected through the National Health Workforce Accounts (NHWA) from non-OECD countries, via nationally appointed focal points, can usefully complement OECD data. Together, these sources can provide a more comprehensive understanding of global and regional levels, trends and patterns in health workforce mobility levels (Box 5.5 and Box 5.6).

Box 5.5. Health workforce migration: A global perspective

WHO has been actively engaged at the global, regional and national levels to strengthen data and information on the health and care workforce. A key effort in this area of work is its ongoing collaboration with the OECD to improve the measurement and monitoring of health worker mobility. The Joint Questionnaire serves as an official reporting mechanism of data on the health and care workforce to the National Health Workforce Accounts (NHWA), and it is one of the primary sources of data on health workforce migration along with the National Reporting Instrument and the country-reported and validated data by NHWA focal points directly via the NHWA online data platform. The advantage of the

NHWA is its ability to cover a wider range of health and care workforce occupations beyond medical doctors and nursing personnel.

Since the launch of the NHWA in 2018, there has been a substantial improvement in health workforce data availability and quality, with focal points nominated in 190 out of the 194 WHO Member States for annual reporting either directly on the NHWA data platform or indirectly through other channels (such as the Joint Questionnaire), as of June 2025.

In 2023, WHO published the WHO report on global health worker mobility, based on consolidated data on health worker mobility from 134 countries overall (including OECD Member states and other countries) gathered across diverse data sources.

- The evidence indicates that health worker mobility depends on various factors such as the fundamental influences of language and geographical proximity, the levels of bilateralism and multilateralism operating between countries and regions, and the levels of remuneration and opportunities for better career prospects.
- In addition to the OECD high-income countries, the cluster of destination countries now includes the Gulf Co-operation Council (GCC) countries – Bahrain, Kuwait, Oman, Qatar, Saudi Arabia and the United Arab Emirates, which have a substantial proportion of foreign-born health personnel (50% or higher).
- Meanwhile, the cluster of source countries has expanded to include Egypt, Germany, New Zealand, Romania, Russian Federation and the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland, compared with earlier evidence, which primarily focussed attention on India, Pakistan, the Philippines and South Africa.

Thanks to the progressive implementation of NHWA at national level, data on health workforce migration continues to improve on an annual basis. The latest status of data availability for distribution of health workers by either place of birth or place of training is presented below for medical doctors, nursing personnel, dentists and pharmacists, according to the NHWA 2024 data release (Table 5.7).

Table 5.7. Health workforce migration data availability status by occupation

Occupation	Number of WHO member states with data available for distribution by either place of birth or by place of training (2014-2023) [n (%)]
Medical doctors	105 (54%)
Nursing personnel	128 (66%)
Dentists	74 (38%)
Pharmacists	74 (38%)
Any occupation	141 (73%)

Source: NHWA data portal – December 2024 update.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/2opnrc>

The latest available data on health workforce migration from the NHWA, building on key insights from the WHO report on global health worker mobility, highlights significant disparities in the global distribution of health workers and reveals complex migration patterns:

- The ten major destination countries with the maximum number of foreign trained or born doctors and nurses are Australia, Canada, France, Germany, Ireland, Saudi Arabia, Switzerland, the United Arab Emirates, the United Kingdom and the United States (in alphabetical order). These ten high-income countries, which account for just 9% of the world's population, host 23% of the world's doctors, nurses and midwives. In contrast, the 55 countries in the WHO health workforce support and safeguards list 2023 (SSL) represent 21% of the world's population but account for

only 5% of the world's doctors, nurses and midwives.

- The traditional distinction between source and destination countries is increasingly blurred. For example, two of the major destination countries for foreign-born or -trained nurses and physicians – Germany and the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland – are also key source countries. Meanwhile, in 26 low- and middle-income countries, more than one in five health workers of at least one health occupation (doctors, nurses, dentists or pharmacists) is foreign trained.
- In 79 destination countries, approximately 72 000 of the foreign trained physicians and 164 000 of the foreign trained nurses originate from the 55 SSL countries, representing 11% of the stock from these source countries.
- There is growing evidence of substantial intraregional and South-South migration patterns. For example, about 80% of foreign trained doctors in Argentina are trained in either Bolivia, Colombia or Ecuador; nearly 40% of foreign trained doctors in Sierra Leone are trained in either Ghana, Kenya or Nigeria; and nearly 40% of foreign trained doctors in Sri Lanka are trained in Bangladesh, India or Nepal.
- Small island developing states (SIDS) may not be major suppliers of health workers, but emigration of their health workers is an area of concern to sustain health service delivery. More nurses from Antigua and Barbuda, Barbados, Belize, Dominica, Grenada, Guyana, Haiti, Jamaica, Liberia and Saint Vincent work in other countries than domestically.

Source: WHO (2023^[23]), *WHO report on global health worker mobility*, Geneva 2023, World Health Organization, Geneva, <https://iris.who.int/handle/10665/370938>; WHO (2023^[24]), *National health workforce accounts: a handbook, second edition*, World Health Organization, Geneva, <https://iris.who.int/handle/10665/374320>; WHO (2024^[25]), *Bilateral agreements on health worker migration and mobility: Maximising health system benefits and safeguarding health workforce rights and welfare through fair and ethical international recruitment*, World Health Organization, Geneva, <https://iris.who.int/handle/10665/376280>; WHO (2025^[15]), *National Health Workforce Accounts data portal – December 2024 update [database]*, World Health Organization, Geneva, <https://apps.who.int/nhwaportal/>.

Box 5.6. Health workforce migration trends in Saudi Arabia and the United Arab Emirates

Among the top ten high-income countries with the highest numbers of foreign trained or born medical doctors and nurses, eight are members of the OECD. While the first section of the report focusses on the health workforce migration levels and trends within OECD Member states, this box highlights trends in the other two major destination countries – Saudi Arabia and the United Arab Emirates.

Both countries have been actively engaged in the NHWA and have reported data on health worker distribution by place of birth for the period 2015-2023, covering four key health and care workforce occupations – medical doctors, nurses, dentists and pharmacists. Data indicate that both countries have a high reliance on foreign born health personnel (Figure 5.19). However, while the share of foreign-born doctors, nurses, dentists and pharmacists has remained stagnant in the United Arab Emirates, it has declined over time in Saudi Arabia.

A variety of factors such as health labour market dynamics and health workforce policies may account for these divergent trends, such as health workforce education and training capacity, level of interest among young nationals to enrol in health workforce education and training programmes, attractiveness of careers in the health workforce, insufficient national born health personnel to meet population health needs, policy measures aimed at reducing dependence on international health personnel, etc.

Figure 5.19. Trends in the share of foreign-born medical doctors, nurses, dentists and pharmacists in Saudi Arabia and the United Arab Emirates (2015-2023)



Source: NHWA data portal – December 2024 update.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/4zqynp>

Emigration rates of doctors and nurses to the OECD by country of origin

Beyond absolute numbers, assessing the impact of emigration on countries of origin requires placing migration figures in the context of health workforce situation in the origin country. Emigration rates can be calculated by dividing the number of migrant doctors and nurses by the sum of those abroad and those in the country. This calculation requires robust and comparable data on the total number of health professionals in all countries of the world. The National Health Workforce Accounts (NHWA), maintained by the WHO, provide such data. However, limitations in data comparability across countries and over time mean that the nominal values of the emigration rate estimates presented in this section and in the Annex 5.C should be interpreted with caution.

While the absolute numbers of emigrant health professionals were dominated by Asian countries, emigration rates reveal a different picture. African and Caribbean countries stand out as disproportionately affected by the emigration of health professionals. Most of the countries with expatriation rates above 50% – implying that there are as many doctors or nurses born in these countries working in the OECD as there are working in their home country – are either small island states in the Caribbean or Pacific, or lower-income countries in Africa (Table 5.8). Notably, several small French-speaking countries, including Cameroon, Haiti, Senegal and Togo, appear to be among the most affected.

By contrast, large countries of origin such as China, India, the Russian Federation, the United Kingdom and Germany all have emigration rates below 10% (Annex 5.C). The Philippines, however, has more than a third of its nurses working abroad (37%). Emigration rates for Romanian doctors (28%) and nurses (24%,) as well as for Irish doctors (25%), and for Polish (23%), Latvian (23%) and Slovak (21%) nurses, are also notably high.

Table 5.8. The 20 highest emigration rates for doctors and nurses, circa 2020/21

Emigration rates for doctors		Emigration rates for nurses	
Grenada	69%	Jamaica	90%
Jamaica	58%	Sierra Leone	87%
Saint Vincent and the Grenadines	56%	Haiti	85%
Cameroon	54%	Guyana	78%
Fiji	53%	Grenada	75%
Tonga	52%	Somalia	66%
Somalia	51%	Belize	66%
Zimbabwe	49%	Saint Vincent and the Grenadines	64%
Samoa	46%	Trinidad and Tobago	62%
Kenya	46%	Fiji	60%
Suriname	46%	Cameroon	60%
Eritrea	45%	Samoa	58%
Guyana	43%	Tonga	58%
Haiti	40%	Cape Verde	56%
Congo	39%	Barbados	52%
Senegal	37%	Suriname	49%
Cape Verde	37%	Bosnia and Herzegovina	49%
Guinea-Bissau	35%	Eritrea	44%
Albania	35%	Bahamas	43%
Togo	34%	Mauritius	41%

Source: DIOC 2020/21, LFS-EU 2021.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/90ys5k>

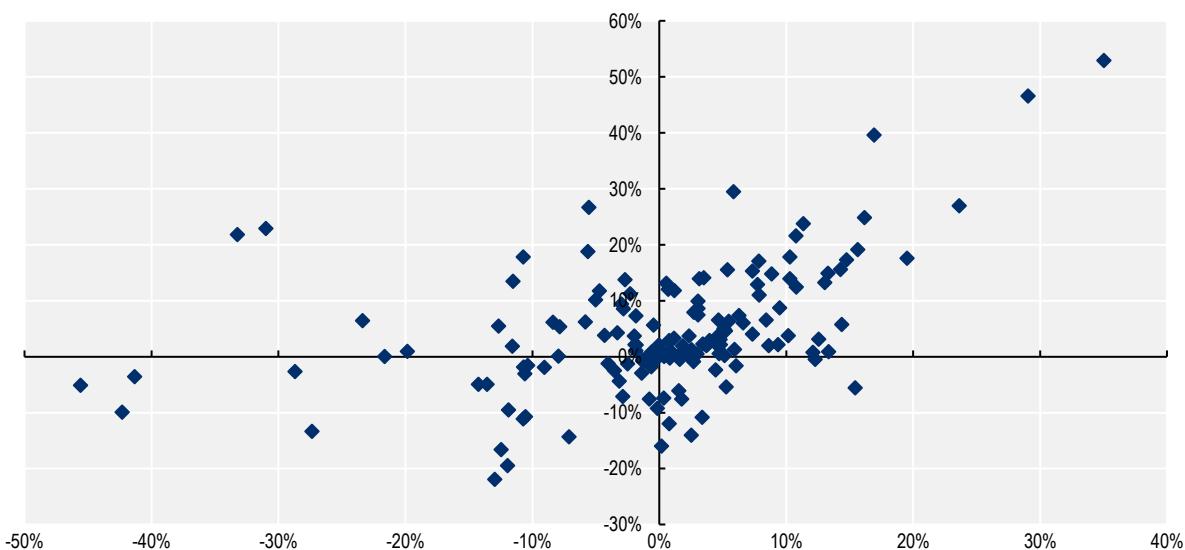
Over the past two decades, emigration rates for doctors and nurses have been influenced not only by the increase of migrant stocks, as presented above, but also by efforts undertaken by countries of origin to train and retain health professionals. As a matter of fact, significant variations of emigration rates over time can be observed, pointing to either improvements or deteriorations in the health workforce situation. In most cases, trends have been broadly similar for doctors and nurses (Figure 5.20).

Countries that have experienced the largest increases in emigration rates for both doctors and nurses include Afghanistan (16 p.p. for doctors, 25 p.p. for nurses), Albania (24 and 27 p.p.), Cameroon (35 and 53 p.p.), Somalia (17 and 40 p.p.), Suriname (29 and 47 p.p.) and the Slovak Republic (20 and 18 p.p.).

Conversely, some countries have recorded substantial decreases in the emigration rate for doctors, notably in North Africa and certain sub-Saharan African countries, such as Benin (-23 p.p.), Tanzania

(-41 p.p.) and Uganda (-22 p.p.). For nurses, the situation has improved notably in several Central American and Caribbean countries such as Belize (-16 p.p.), Barbados (-17 p.p.), Grenada (-11 p.p.), and Trinidad and Tobago (-13 p.p.).

Figure 5.20. Evolution of emigration rate to the OECD for doctors (X axis) and nurses (Y axis) between 2000/01 and 2020/21, p.p. change



Source: DIOC 2020/21, LFS-EU 2021.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/fzra7n>

Evolving migration policies for health professionals in OECD countries

In many OECD countries, due to past and current under-investment in health professional education the growing demand for health workers cannot be met without the international recruitment of migrants. This need is reflected in migration management systems across the OECD, which increasingly aim to facilitate the mobility of health professionals, including doctors and nurses.

The international migration of doctors and nurses has traditionally been managed through general labour migration pathways, and this approach remains predominant across the OECD. Highly skilled national migration schemes are widely utilised for medical and nursing professionals in many OECD countries, including Australia, Belgium, Canada, Czechia, Denmark, Estonia, Finland, Iceland, Korea, Latvia, Lithuania, the Netherlands, New Zealand, Norway, Poland, Sweden and Switzerland. Among EU OECD countries, the EU Blue Card system provides an important additional pathway for admitting skilled foreign health workers, particularly in Germany and Italy.

However, there is an increasing trend towards implementing additional measures to facilitate the recruitment of foreign health workers within broader migration systems. These policy developments are examined further in this section and include the widespread inclusion of healthcare professionals on shortage occupation lists, the establishment of specialised migration schemes and pathways, the negotiation of bilateral agreements and training programmes, as well as temporary policy adjustments introduced in response to public health and migration crises.

Shortage lists are a popular tool across the OECD

Shortage occupation lists continue to be widely used to address labour market imbalances by identifying occupations or skills in high demand but with a shortage of qualified domestic workers. Their use enables countries to bypass standard labour market tests, thereby streamlining and accelerating recruitment processes. In nearly all OECD countries that use such lists to facilitate migration, healthcare professionals are included, either across the sector or in specific categories. Examples include Australia, Austria, Belgium (Flanders and Wallonia), Canada, Denmark, Finland, France, Ireland, Italy, New Zealand, the Slovak Republic, the United Kingdom and the United States. A notable exception is Costa Rica, which does not include health professionals on a shortage list due to an oversupply of generalists in the health sector. While specialist roles are in demand, the country has yet to define its requirements for specialised medical personnel.

Despite the widespread use of shortage lists, the types of healthcare workers included vary between countries. In many cases, doctors and nurses tend to fall under highly skilled migration pathways that already have preferential terms, so shortage lists are often utilised for medium-skilled or lower-skilled health and care workers. For instance, in Italy and Flanders (Belgium), doctors are not listed as high-skilled professions but are automatically exempt from labour market testing. However, medium- and lower-skilled healthcare roles are included. In Italy, care workers employed in healthcare facilities are listed under the migration shortage category within the country's quota system. Similarly, in Flanders, healthcare assistants and nursing assistants, classified as medium-skilled professions, are included on the shortage list.

In Canada, a distinction is drawn between short-term and long-term migration pathways. While healthcare professionals are not included in temporary foreign worker shortage lists, they are prioritised for permanent residency through the Express Entry track, which prioritises candidates with experience in specific healthcare occupations.

In some cases, the migration of health professionals is facilitated by removing restrictions that would otherwise limit their employment. For example, while Hungary does not maintain a shortage occupation list, it has a list of professions where third-country nationals are prohibited from working. Certain healthcare roles, such as dentists, physiotherapists, and medical assistants, are included on this list. However, doctors and registered nurses have been removed, enabling them to obtain a work permit.

Dedicated pathways for health professionals are emerging across the OECD

Over the past decade, there has been a notable shift towards the development of specialised schemes, permits, and visa categories specifically designed for healthcare workers. This trend suggests a potential move away from reliance on general skilled migration pathways. These specialised pathways for healthcare professionals vary widely in scope and scale, encompassing diverse approaches. Some focus on tailored mobility programmes for postgraduate training or short-term practice in host countries, while others involve permits linked to the complex recognition or licensing processes that healthcare professionals must navigate. Additionally, some countries have introduced special tracks or even fully dedicated visa and permit pathways exclusively for health professionals.

Some countries have introduced special mobility programmes for postgraduate medical training. For example, Ireland's International Medical Graduate Training Initiative (IMGTI) enables overseas doctors to undertake structured postgraduate medical training within Ireland's public health service. The IMGTI provides suitably qualified overseas medical graduates with the opportunity to complete a fixed period of clinical training, typically lasting 24 months, as developed by an Irish postgraduate medical training body. The programme is designed to address the clinical needs identified by health services in participants' home countries. While trainees are expected to return home upon completion – as the IMGTI is not intended to provide a route to settlement in Ireland – between 2015 and 2020, approximately 32% eventually returned to Ireland for at least a year, following a period back in their country of origin (NDTP, 2024^[26]). There is

also a special scholarship programme associated with the general IMGTI scheme, primarily aimed at doctors from countries with less developed healthcare sectors. Currently, participants include doctors from Pakistan and Sudan.

In other instances, general training and education pathways may include exceptions for health professionals, allowing them to extend their stay in the host country. For example, the United States offers the Conrad 30 Waiver Program for physicians who entered under the J-1 Exchange Visitor Program. Typically, J-1 visa holders are subject to a two-year foreign residency requirement, which mandates them to return to their country of nationality or last residence before they can apply for an immigrant visa, adjustment of status, or a new non-immigrant visa. However, Section 214(l) of the Immigration and Nationality Act (INA) provides a waiver for foreign medical graduates who agree to work full-time in H-1B classification for a minimum of three years in a designated health worker shortage area.

Foreign-trained doctors, nurses, and other licensed medical professionals often face complex qualification recognition and licensing procedures before they can practice in a host country. These processes may require them to remain in the country to undertake additional training or work, necessitating a legal basis for their stay. To address this, some OECD countries have introduced permits specifically for the duration of recognition, licensing, or authorisation processes. For instance, in Austria, foreign-trained doctors and nurses can obtain a Red-White-Red card, enabling them to work in qualified roles while completing compensatory measures for full recognition. Similarly, Denmark and Germany issue visas and residence permits to facilitate the recognition of professional qualifications in the health and care sector obtained abroad.

The United Kingdom allows overseas-qualified nurses and midwives to work while preparing for the Objective Structured Clinical Examination (OSCE), the second stage required for professional registration with the Nursing and Midwifery Council (NMC). Candidates have up to 12 weeks from the start date on their certificate of sponsorship, provided by their employer, to complete their first OSCE attempt. During this time, they receive support and practice opportunities. Upon successfully registering with the NMC, they can transition to their substantive roles without needing to apply for a new visa.

Some countries have introduced dedicated schemes to facilitate the immigration of specific health workers, particularly those in low- and semi-skilled health professions. These workers are in high demand but often do not qualify through conventional skilled migration pathways. For instance, in Australia, aged care providers can recruit overseas workers through the aged care industry labour agreement. This scheme allows roles such as nursing support workers, personal care assistants, and aged or disabled carers to benefit from exemptions to standard skilled visa requirements, provided they are sponsored by an eligible employer. These exemptions include waiving post-qualification work experience requirements and, in certain cases, relaxing English language criteria. Employers seeking to hire under this agreement must first establish a memorandum of understanding with the relevant union. Once in Australia, foreign direct care workers employed through the aged care industry labour agreement may qualify for permanent residency after completing two years of full-time work, provided they are under the age of 45. Australia also uses Designated Area Migration Agreements (DAMA), formal arrangements between the government and regional or state authorities. These agreements enable aged care providers in approved regions to recruit overseas workers for caregiving, nursing, and medical roles with specific concessions.

In some cases, OECD countries have established fully dedicated visa and permit pathways specifically designed for healthcare workers. Japan, for instance, has for a long time used specialised migration tracks known as Status of Residence (SoR) for a variety of different types of occupations, including various types of health professionals. The SoR for Medical Services applies to registered physicians, dentists, and nurses, while the Nursing Care SoR, introduced in 2016, is designated for certified care workers. In 2022, 2 467 individuals held the Medical Services SoR, and 6 284 were under the Nursing Care SoR (OECD, 2024^[27]). However, these specific residency statuses are typically granted to foreigners already residing in Japan, as eligibility requires acquiring Japanese training and certification first.

In 2020, the United Kingdom introduced the Health and Care Worker Visa, tailored for doctors, nurses, and other healthcare professionals with a valid job offer from an approved UK employer in the healthcare or social care sector. To qualify, the role must meet minimum skill and salary requirements. This visa offers several advantages over the Skilled Worker Visa, including faster processing times (within three weeks after biometric submission), a dedicated support service, reduced application fees, and exemption from the healthcare immigration surcharge for applicants and their families.

Since its launch, various modifications have been made to the visa, periodically adjusting eligibility criteria, inclusion in shortage lists, and family reunifications rules, which have resulted in significant fluctuations in application numbers over the first years. In the year ending September 2022, 61 274 Health and Care Worker Visas were granted to main applicants, 143 990 in 2023, and 50 591 in September 2024 (UK Home Office, 2024^[28]).

In 2024, France announced plans for a multi-year residence permit for medical and pharmacy professionals, expected to be implemented in the coming years. This pathway targets non-EU trained doctors, dental surgeons, midwives, and pharmacists who are licensed by French health authorities to practise and meet the required salary thresholds. The initiative is part of country's broader efforts to enhance talent attractiveness.

Bilateral agreements and training programmes are used to foster skills development, while addressing skills shortages in host countries

Several OECD countries have introduced bilateral agreements to facilitate the migration of health workers. These agreements are tailored to the specific priorities and circumstances of the countries involved, reflecting diverse approaches to managing health workforce challenges. By combining mechanisms to ease mobility with commitments to ethical recruitment and mutual capacity-building, these arrangements underscore the growing reliance on bilateral frameworks to strengthen healthcare systems and promote shared development objectives.

Canada has facilitated the mobility of practicing nurses and teaching or research physicians through agreements such as the Canada-Chile Free Trade Agreement (since 1997) and the Canada-United States-Mexico Agreement (formerly NAFTA, since 1994). These arrangements have contributed to cross-border mobility of healthcare professionals within the Americas.

The United Kingdom has established six government-to-government agreements for health and social care workforce recruitment with Sri Lanka (since 18 January 2021), Kenya (since 29 July 2021), the Philippines (since 8 October 2021), Malaysia (since 8 November 2021), India (since 21 July 2022) and Nepal (since 22 August 2023). Among these, the agreement with Nepal is a pilot and is more nuanced due to the country's inclusion on the WHO's Health Workforce Support and Safeguards List. As such, Nepal falls under the "red list" of countries that must not be actively targeted by health or social care recruiters unless a government-to-government agreement is in place to ensure managed recruitment under specified terms. The Nepal pilot agreement is designed with strict parameters to uphold these safeguards. Active recruitment is limited to a single NHS Trust, ensuring a controlled and ethical approach to hiring. By September 2024, 41 nurses had been recruited through this pilot initiative. An additional 700 Nepal-trained nurses joined the NMC register between October 2023 and September 2024 through other routes.

Since 2012, the Netherlands has maintained an agreement with Suriname that allows medical specialists from Suriname to stay for one year to practice and further develop their specialisations in Dutch hospitals. Approximately 120 medical professionals have utilised this pathway.

Meanwhile France does not have bilateral labour migration agreements explicitly targeting health workers, but agreements have existed to facilitate the stay of postgraduate medical students from Gulf countries, including Bahrain, Dubai, Qatar and Saudi Arabia.

In February 2024, Denmark and India signed a “Mobility and Migration Partnership Agreement”, which, among other things, stipulated that the two parties would explore the potential for recruiting qualified Indian professionals for employment in the Danish healthcare and medical services sector, with the aim of assessing whether bilateral co-operation could be expanded in this area.

In addition to bilateral labour migration agreements, a growing number of OECD countries are introducing training programmes for healthcare workers abroad, particularly nurses, to facilitate potential labour migration to the host country. These initiatives are led by national and sub-national authorities in countries such as Australia, Belgium, Canada, Finland, Germany, Italy and Japan, often in partnership with private sector organisations.

Japan has established Economic Partnership Agreements (EPAs) with Indonesia (2008), the Philippines (2009), and Viet Nam (2014) to provide training, promote knowledge exchange, and facilitate the entry of nurses and care workers. These agreements are jointly managed by the Japan International Corporation of Welfare Services (JICWELS) and government organisations in the partner countries. For the nursing pathway, all candidates must have completed relevant nursing education in their home country and either hold a nursing licence or have at least two years of professional experience. Under the EPA framework, candidates undergo training in Japan for up to three years for nursing and four years for care work.

After completing their training, candidates are eligible to sit the Japanese national qualification exams. Those who pass are eligible for the SoR of Medical Services, discussed in a previous subsection on dedicated pathways, and permitted to remain in Japan indefinitely. However, despite the training provided, pass rates remain relatively low (OECD, 2024^[27]). By 2021, a total of 1 587 nursing candidates and 6 454 care worker candidates had participated in the EPA programmes. Of these, only 529 nursing candidates and 1 762 care worker candidates successfully obtained their Japanese qualifications. In 2021, just 20.9% of nursing candidates passed the national exam, compared to a 90.4% pass rate for Japanese candidates. For care workers, 36.9% of EPA candidates succeeded, compared with 72.3% of their Japanese counterparts.

In Germany, there are no publicly funded programmes for training nurses in their countries of origin; however, private sector-funded initiatives play a key role. Since 2013, over 6 200 highly qualified nurses have been placed in Germany through various projects and agreements, involving countries such as Bosnia and Herzegovina, Colombia, India, Indonesia, Jordan, Mexico, the Philippines and Tunisia.

One example here is the Global Skills Partnerships Nursing Programme, implemented by the *Deutsche Gesellschaft für Internationale Zusammenarbeit GmbH* (GIZ). This programme collaborates with universities in the Philippines and Mexico and facilitates the selection of participating students by future employers, with support from the Federal Employment Agency (ZAV) or private recruitment agencies accredited under the “Fair Recruitment for International Nurses” framework. It provides student nurses in partner countries with additional training based on a jointly approved curriculum tailored to the requirements of the German procedure for recognising nursing qualifications. The curriculum includes German language courses enabling students to achieve B2-level proficiency, alongside the necessary practical experience in elderly care.

Similarly, the Aurora project in Belgium, initiated by private stakeholders in 2021, focusses on the recruitment and training of Indian nurses for the Flemish healthcare system. The pathway from recruitment to qualification as a certified nurse in Belgium spans approximately two years. It begins with a six-month training programme in Kerala (India), offered free of charge. This programme includes an intensive Dutch language course up to level B1, alongside introductory lessons on Belgian geriatric care, psychiatric care, and healthcare model. Upon successful completion of the training in India, candidates undertake a one-year training programme in Belgium, which combines further language instruction with practical experience as healthcare assistants. Candidates who successfully complete the programme are awarded the qualification of registered nurse.

Finland is currently piloting a programme to provide supplementary training for experienced health and social care professionals in other EU/EEA countries that could facilitate their future employment in Finland. The initiative targets licensed professionals, including physicians, registered nurses, nursing assistants, and other healthcare specialists. At its core, the programme combines recruitment with training to address employer needs in the health and social care sectors. A specialised service provider manages the process by identifying qualified candidates, assessing their credentials, and matching them with employers in Finland. Selected candidates receive tailored supplementary training, which includes cultural orientation and Finnish or Swedish language instruction. The training is customised to meet the specific requirements of both employers and professionals, with the goals, content, duration, and delivery method jointly agreed upon. The programme is co-funded by employers and the economic affairs and employment administration, with the state covering 50% of the costs.

Interest in establishing similar training arrangements is growing among other OECD countries. For example, Lithuania's Ministry of Health has introduced the 2024-2029 Action Plan to attract and retain healthcare professionals. This strategy aims to address the uneven distribution and shortage of specialised health workers, with ongoing discussions about incorporating training schemes within this framework.

Recent crises have prompted a wide range of temporary policy responses

The COVID-19 pandemic created unprecedented challenges for healthcare systems worldwide, prompting several OECD countries to temporarily adjust migration policies to address urgent shortages of healthcare professionals. These measures varied across countries but generally aimed to facilitate the entry, employment, and retention of foreign healthcare workers to strengthen national pandemic responses (EMN/OECD, 2021^[29]). Designed as temporary solutions, they were intended to remain in place only for the duration of the health crisis.

To meet critical needs in their healthcare sectors, many countries implemented exemptions from general entry bans for healthcare workers (EMN/OECD, 2020^[30]). These measures aimed to ensure the continued provision of essential health services and public health support. In the United States, healthcare professionals and medical researchers engaged in work deemed critical to the COVID-19 response or broader public health objectives were granted entry under specific visa categories, including the skilled temporary visa (H-1B) and the intracorporate transfer visa (L-1). Canada prioritised health workers delivering essential services, such as emergency care, the maintenance and installation of medical equipment, and medical supply logistics, by exempting them from entry restrictions. Australia and Japan also introduced limited exemptions for foreign nationals providing critical or specialist medical services, provided their contributions were deemed essential for strengthening national healthcare systems.

In addition to being exempt from entry restrictions in many cases, several OECD countries, including Belgium, Ireland and Spain, prioritised permit applications for healthcare professionals, implementing measures such as accelerated processing times. Similarly, New Zealand prioritised visa applications for critical healthcare roles.

In some cases, new bilateral agreements were established between countries to secure the necessary health workforce. In 2020, Italy signed an agreement between the Calabria Region and the Cuban Government to temporarily hire 497 Cuban doctors during the COVID-19 pandemic. These medical professionals, specialising in emergency care, surgery, and anaesthesiology, were recruited under the Blue Card permit system. The agreement is set to remain in effect until 2025.

In most cases, countries focussed on maximising the availability of healthcare workers already residing within their borders, easing regulations to allow foreigners to remain and work (EMN/OECD, 2020^[30]; EMN/OECD, 2021^[29]). For example, Poland and Portugal waived work permit requirements for certain categories of medical workers to enable rapid deployment during the pandemic. Spain introduced an exceptional provision in 2020 permitting healthcare professionals not recognised as specialists to practise for a 12-month period, extendable in three-month increments until the end of the health crisis.

The Slovak Republic similarly allowed foreign doctors (including EU citizens and third-country nationals) to practice under eased terms during the public health crisis, requiring only diploma recognition. Similarly, France adopted several measures to address workforce shortages. These included authorising temporary healthcare sector workers to remain and work in the country and relaxing practice conditions for foreign doctors. Notably, those without full practising rights were allowed to perform non-medical roles, such as care assistance and reception, to support healthcare teams managing the crisis. Additionally, foreign doctors with refugee status were permitted to work in public health establishments as associated contract workers without the need to pass knowledge verification tests Box 5.7).

While most measures implemented during the pandemic were temporary, they provided an opportunity in some cases to initiate contingency planning and assess the capacity of existing migration systems to respond to future crises. This included examining ways to improve pathways for skilled healthcare workers. For example, Germany and Spain used the COVID-19 pandemic as a catalyst to develop new strategies for attracting talent, particularly skilled professionals in healthcare and nursing. Evaluation of the regulatory flexibilities taken during COVID-19 pandemic for domestic health workers is also necessary to identify measures that could limit reliance in international health professionals (WHO 2024).

Box 5.7. Migration pathways for skilled refugees in the health sector

The COVID-19 pandemic is not the only recent crisis to prompt action from host countries; many OECD nations have also experienced significant increases in the arrival of asylum seekers and refugees (OECD, 2024^[31]). In response, several countries have developed initiatives to support skilled refugees, such as doctors and nurses, in resuming their professions. While most efforts focus on facilitating rapid labour market entry by improving qualification recognition and licensing procedures, a number of countries have also introduced targeted migration policy measures and alternative pathways for highly skilled refugee professionals, particularly in the health sector.

Australia

Australia's *Skilled Refugee Labour Agreement Pilot (SRLAP)*, launched in 2021 in partnership with Talent Beyond Boundaries (TBB), enables skilled refugees to access employment through employer-sponsored visas (subclass 186, 482, and 494). The programme provides targeted concessions, including waivers for labour market testing, reduced English requirements, and lower income thresholds, and covers over 900 occupations, including doctors and registered nurses.

Extended in 2023, SRLAP allocated 500 primary visa places for the period 2023-2025. Employers are responsible for verifying candidates' qualifications. Licensing requirements for regulated professions, such as those set by the Australian Health Practitioner Regulation Agency (AHPRA), remain in place.

United Kingdom

In July 2021, the UK Government launched the *Displaced Talent Mobility Pilot*, in partnership with TBB, to identify and address administrative and legal barriers that prevent displaced individuals from migrating internationally as skilled workers. Under this initiative, TBB UK facilitated several healthcare pilot programmes, successfully placing over 200 displaced nurses and healthcare professionals in both the NHS and private sector.

The United Kingdom has focussed particularly on integrating nurses into the health system. In collaboration with TBB, the Nursing and Midwifery Council (NMC) – the UK's independent regulator for nurses, midwives, and nursing associates – developed a new policy to support registration for eligible applicants. The two-stage process includes a qualification review, a test of competence, and final checks on health, character, and language, allowing for individualised assessment.

Canada

Canada's Economic Mobility Pathways Pilot (EMPP), introduced already in 2018, facilitates refugee migration through existing economic immigration streams at both federal and regional levels. It offers flexible entry routes with streamlined processing, waived fees, and support services such as settlement loans and travel assistance.

The EMPP is implemented in collaboration with NGOs that have formal agreements with Immigration, Refugees and Citizenship Canada (IRCC). These organisations identify suitable candidates and help match them with job vacancies, ensuring the process is accessible and fee-free.

Healthcare professionals migrating under the EMPP must still meet provincial or territorial licensing requirements. Accreditation and certification are handled independently of the migration process by regional regulatory bodies to ensure national standards are met before entry into the health workforce.

Overview of the recognition of foreign qualifications and licensing in health occupations in OECD countries

The recognition of foreign qualifications and the licensing of health professionals is a particularly complex, time-consuming, and multi-stage process, designed to ensure that health workers meet the standards of their host country. While these procedures are essential for maintaining the quality and safety of healthcare services (Box 5.8), they can be lengthy and significantly delay the integration of skilled migrant health professionals into the workforce. These administrative barriers often discourage migrants from continuing in the sector, contributing to the phenomenon of “brain waste”.

Although some OECD countries, particularly within the European Union (Box 5.9), have longstanding measures to facilitate the recognition of foreign health qualifications, growing labour shortages in the health sector have prompted calls to further streamline and improve recognition and licensing systems for migrant health professionals across the OECD. Over the past five years, much attention has been given to expanding access to bridging programmes and compensatory measures required for full accreditation. These courses help migrants build on their existing education and training, supporting entry into regulated professions, targeted job roles or further study.

Several OECD countries are undertaking reforms to improve the recognition and licensing of foreign-trained health professionals. In Germany, a shift towards skills-based assessments now allows candidates to demonstrate their competencies through practical tests, rather than relying solely on documentation. Following the Independent Review of Australia's Regulatory Settings Relating to Overseas Health Practitioners (Kruk Review), and as part of its 2021-2031 National Health Workforce Strategy, Australia has introduced expedited registration pathways for both foreign-trained doctors and nurses. From October 2024, specialist international medical graduates from the United Kingdom, Ireland or New Zealand in general practice, anaesthesia, psychiatry, obstetrics and gynaecology – soon to be joined by paediatrics, general medicine and diagnostic radiology – may register on the basis of substantially comparable qualifications, subject to six months' supervision as well as cultural-safety and orientation training. Beginning in 2025, a new standard will offer two faster and easier routes to registration for registered nurses who have practised for at least 1 800 hours since 2017 in the United Kingdom, Ireland, the United States, Singapore, Spain or the Canadian provinces of British Columbia and Ontario, while maintaining all existing patient-safety checks.

Despite these efforts, significant challenges remain. This is particularly the case in ensuring that migrant health professionals are able to meet national clinical standards, acquire the necessary language skills, and secure placements within a highly regulated sector. Going forward, sustained collaboration between

national authorities, professional bodies, health practitioner regulators and educational institutions will be vital to developing long-term frameworks that uphold patient safety while expanding opportunities for refugee and other migrant health professionals.

Box 5.8. How can migrant health professionals practice in another country?

For migrant health professionals, entering regulated health professions requires completing an equivalency process. While the specifics vary across countries (see the country case studies below), the overall approach remains largely consistent. Depending on the country's governance structure, this process may be managed at either the national or regional levels in federal states. It can be lengthy and costly, often requiring candidates to pass both theoretical and practical examinations, as well as language proficiency tests. Additionally, registration with the relevant professional body is usually necessary before full authorisation to practise is granted.

The initial steps involve verifying and assessing educational credentials and professional qualifications. Degrees, diplomas, and transcripts from foreign institutions must be authenticated and assessed for equivalence with national educational standards. Completed clinical training, internships, and specialisations are also evaluated to ensure they meet national professional requirements. In some cases, migrant health professionals may be required to repeat certain aspects of their studies. The validation of credentials, including education and work experience, is typically overseen by the Ministry of Health or designated regulatory bodies.

To facilitate and streamline the recognition of health qualifications, some countries have long-established bilateral or multilateral agreements. Notable examples include the EU Directive 2005/36/EC, which enables the mutual recognition of qualifications among EU Member States, as well as mutual recognition agreements (MRAs) between the United States and Canada and within ASEAN (since 2006 for nursing and 2009 for medicine and dentistry). Similar agreements also exist between individual states and regions, such as the France-Quebec mutual recognition agreement, which now covers around 30 medical specialties along with other professions.

Once qualifications are recognised, the next step is obtaining a licence and registering with the relevant professional bodies. Migrant health professionals are typically required to pass national medical board examinations, demonstrate a high level of language proficiency, and submit a certificate of good standing. In some cases, they may also need to complete additional training, supervised practice, or other compensatory measures before being granted full licensure.

Box 5.9. System of recognition of professional qualifications in the EU

EU legislation facilitates the recognition of professional qualifications across member states, allowing EU citizens to practise their professions in other EU countries. This is governed by Directive 2005/36/EC on the recognition of professional qualifications. The professional qualifications directive was modernised in 2013 by Directive 2013/55/EU. Further changes are in the process of being introduced through Directive (EU) 2024/505, which facilitates the recognition of certain Romanian nursing diplomas obtained prior to Romania's EU accession, following completion of an approved upgrading programme. In 2023, the European Commission (2023^[32]) also issued a recommendation to EU countries to simplify the recognition of qualifications for third-country nationals.

These legal frameworks are based on the principle that a professional qualified in one EU member state is deemed qualified to practise the same profession in another. They establish, among other aspects, common rules for the recognition of professional and academic qualifications, language skills, and conditions for practising in another EU country.

For health professionals, the Directive 2005/36/EC provides for the automatic recognition of qualifications in six professions where training standards have been harmonised across the EU: doctors, dentists, nurses responsible for general care, midwives, pharmacists, and veterinary surgeons. Although national licensing procedures may still differ, the directive significantly simplifies the recognition of qualifications among EU member states.

The COVID-19 pandemic led many OECD countries to temporarily relax recognition and licensing procedures for migrant health professionals

During the COVID-19 pandemic, many OECD countries implemented temporary measures to address urgent labour shortages in the health sector (OECD, 2020^[11]). These efforts focussed on facilitating the recognition and licensing of migrant health professionals already residing in the country but not yet practising in their professions, to expedite their entry into national healthcare systems. Some countries authorised the hiring of migrant doctors and nurses, even if their certification had not yet been validated, while others introduced emergency licensing pathways, waiving standard requirements to allow foreign-trained professionals to contribute to the pandemic response.

One approach taken by several OECD countries in the early months of the pandemic was to expedite the recognition of foreign qualifications, enabling internationally trained professionals to enter the workforce more quickly. Belgium, Ireland and Luxembourg, for instance, streamlined application processes for the recognition of foreign credentials, while Lithuania reduced language test requirements.

Other countries relaxed employment restrictions for migrant health professionals who had not yet received full recognition of their qualifications. In France, non-licensed foreign-trained healthcare workers were permitted to work in non-medical support roles. Similarly, Argentina, Chile and Peru authorised their national health services to employ foreign health professionals regardless of formal recognition. In Colombia, such facilitations were specifically targeted towards Venezuelan health workers already in the country. Meanwhile, Australia allowed international nursing students to work in an expanded capacity before completing their training and exceed the usual 40-hour work limit.

Another widely adopted measure involved temporary and conditional licensing, allowing migrant health professionals to work under supervision while completing full accreditation. In 2020, Italy introduced a decree permitting the temporary licensing of foreign-trained health professionals. Temporary “contingency” licenses were introduced also in Spain (Box 5.10). In Germany, doctors from third countries who are undergoing the recognition procedure may obtain a professional licence valid for up to two years; this licence, which can be issued with restrictions and ancillary provisions, enables them to practise while they finalise full recognition.

Similarly, in the United States, several states introduced limited licences. For example, New York and Massachusetts granted international medical graduates a restricted permit with a reduced training requirement – one year instead of three in New York, and two years in Massachusetts. New Jersey established a pathway for foreign-licensed physicians to obtain a temporary emergency licence to practise medicine. In Canada, the province of Ontario allowed international medical graduates who had either passed their exams to practise in Canada or graduated within the previous two years to apply for a Supervised Short Duration Certificate, a temporary 30-day medical licence.

While many of these measures were temporary, the pandemic highlighted the need for more flexible and responsive licensing frameworks for migrant health professionals. Some jurisdictions have since considered making these changes permanent. In the United States, for instance, Tennessee introduced a permanent pathway for internationally trained doctors, removing the requirement for a US-based medical residency and replacing it with a two-year supervised practice period. Altogether 11 US states have implemented similar policies to ease entry into the healthcare workforce for foreign-trained professionals (Box 5.15). These new pathways, often employer-led and based on supervised practice, aim to assess clinical competence while maintaining patient safety. Some states, such as Colorado, now offer full and permanent licensure through these routes, signalling a shift toward more inclusive and sustainable licensing models.

Box 5.10. Spain turns to Latin America to fill persistent doctor shortages

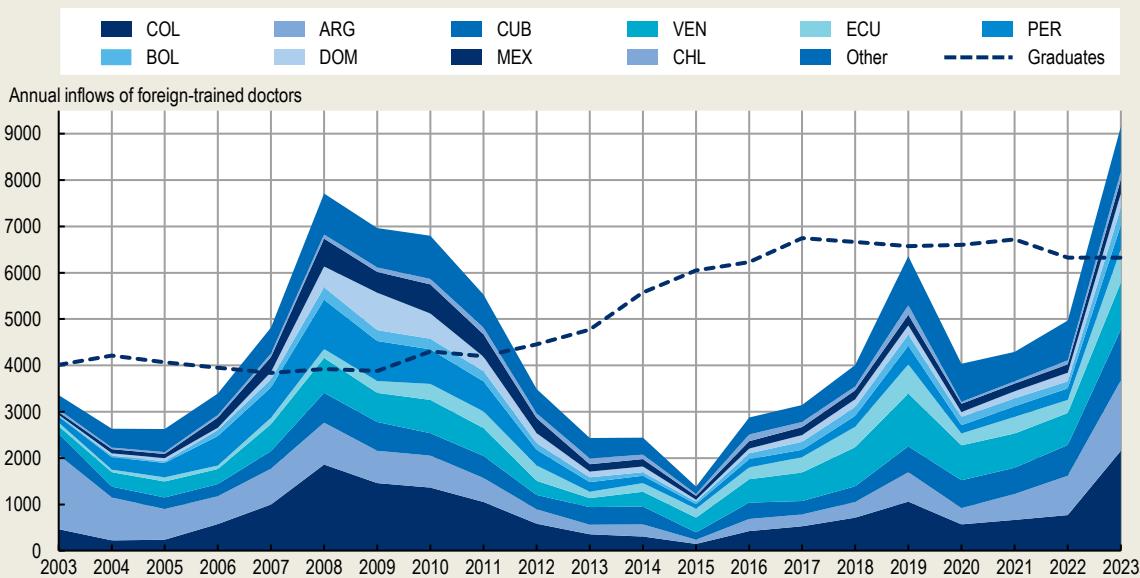
Spain's longstanding shortage of physicians – estimated at nearly 6 000 in the Ministry of Health's 2024 workforce assessment (Barber and López-Valcárcel, 2024^[33]) – has resulted in the country receiving the third-largest inflow of foreign-trained doctors in the OECD, after the United Kingdom and the United States. Between 2003 and 2023, Spain admitted 92 000 doctors trained abroad. Eight to nine out of every ten obtained their first degree in one of ten South or Central American countries, with Colombia, Argentina, and Venezuela alone accounting for nearly half of the total (Figure 5.21) This is a classic example of how language also factors in and influences migratory patterns (WHO 2023).

Inflows of foreign-trained doctors peaked just before the 2008 global financial crisis, declined sharply during the fiscal consolidation following the sovereign-debt crisis, and began to rise again from 2016. Following a brief dip during the onset of the COVID-19 pandemic, inflows reached a new record in 2023 – despite a concurrent expansion of domestic training capacity. Annual admissions to Spanish medical schools almost doubled, rising from 4 300 in the 2003/04 academic year to 8 300 in 2023/24. Nevertheless, foreign-trained doctors remain essential to the health system. During the first ten months of 2023, the Ministry of Health approved 8 585 applications for the recognition of non-EU medical degrees – exceeding the 8 550 residency programme (MIR) posts available and surpassing the number of Spanish medical graduates from the previous year by 36%.

Language and cultural proximity are clear pull factors, but national policies have amplified their impact. A 2014 Royal Decree codified a primarily documentary validation process (*homologación*) for non-EU medical degrees, and a 2022 Decree introduced an electronic portal along with a six-month statutory deadline, significantly reducing administrative delays (Ministry of Science, 2025^[34]). Spain's ratification of the Andrés Bello Cultural Convention in 1996, and its subsequent adherence in 2009 to the broader Ibero-American degree recognition accord, created streamlined, low-bureaucracy validation procedures for medical diplomas from 22 Spanish- or Portuguese-speaking countries.

During the 2000-2015 expansion, these channels enabled thousands of Latin American physicians to obtain Spanish equivalence far more easily than other non-EU applicants. A more recent development has been the use of temporary “contingency” licences – first introduced at the height of the COVID-19 crisis – which allow regions to employ non-EU doctors (and Spanish graduates awaiting specialist certification) under a provisional register while their *homologación* is processed. The measure proved effective in the post-pandemic period, particularly in family medicine and paediatrics, where MIR posts exceeded local demand. It has since been reauthorised in successive decrees, with regions such as Madrid and Valencia now activating it whenever staffing gaps arise. In parallel, several autonomous communities – notably Madrid, Valencia and the Basque Country – have launched targeted recruitment initiatives in Latin America.

Figure 5.21. Spain inflows of foreign-trained doctors over 2003-2023 by country of training



Source: OECD Data Explorer (DF_HEALTH_WFMI and DF_GRAD).

StatLink  <https://stat.link/6z8wag>

Despite recent efforts, significant “brain waste” remains unaddressed within Spain’s health workforce. A Lighthouse Reports study based on EU-LFS data (Braun et al., 2024^[35]) reveals that 34% of migrant health professionals with tertiary education are overqualified for their current roles, compared to just 24% of their Spanish-born counterparts. Moreover, the unemployment rate among highly educated migrant health professionals stands at 10%, compared to 6% among natives.

The issue is particularly acute for doctors. Although Spain recognised more than 8 500 non-EU medical degrees in the first 10 months of 2023 – more than in any previous full year – yet approved only 167 specialist-title applications. A further 13 000 applications lodged in 2023 were still awaiting a decision. As a result, many foreign-trained physicians are unable to practise at the level for which they were trained, exacerbating the underutilisation of their skills.

Streamlining recognition and licensing procedures is used to improve labour market outcomes for refugee healthcare professionals already in host countries

In response to the growing number of refugees with healthcare qualifications, over the past five years, more than 12 OECD countries have introduced targeted measures to facilitate their entry into the health workforce and address specific barriers such as missing documentation, limited host-country language proficiency, incomplete studies or internships, or prolonged professional inactivity due to displacement. These measures have been particularly common in European OECD countries, including Czechia, France, Hungary, Latvia, Poland and Switzerland, but have also been adopted in Australia, Colombia and Mexico. In the latter two, authorities implemented expedited mechanisms to recognise qualified and experienced refugee and asylum-seeker health workers to help address COVID-19-related healthcare shortages.

In Europe, many developments have been linked to the Ukrainian displacement crisis following Russia’s large-scale invasion against Ukraine, which has led to nearly 5 million displaced Ukrainians arriving in

OECD countries, most of whom remained in Europe. Many arrivals were highly educated, including individuals with previous experience in the health sector. This has prompted efforts to support their labour market integration at a level commensurate with their skills, including improvements to recognition procedures for Ukrainians as well as other refugees (OECD, 2023^[36]; JRS France, 2025^[37]).

Several OECD countries, particularly in Central and Eastern Europe, introduced temporary or conditional licensing measures to support the rapid entry of Ukrainian healthcare professionals into the workforce. These schemes allowed qualified individuals to practise under supervision or within defined conditions while initiating the formal recognition process. In Hungary, a government decree simplified access to the health sector for Ukrainian-trained professionals and Hungarian citizens arriving from Ukraine. Qualified individuals could begin working under supervision without full qualification recognition, provided they initiated the recognition process. Additional facilitations included waived procedural fees for applications submitted before 2023 and allowances for missing documentation. Poland also introduced a simplified procedure for Ukrainian doctors, dentists, nurses, and midwives, allowing them to practise for up to five years without diploma certification or a formal licensing exam. The Minister of Health granted temporary authorisations, with specific conditions set by professional councils. Similarly, Latvia issued five-year permits for Ukrainian medical practitioners, pharmacists, and pharmacist's assistants, a longer period than typically granted to other foreign-trained health workers.

Some countries developed solutions for Ukrainian students in health professions who had to flee at different stages of their studies. Rather than requiring them to restart their education, the Netherlands offered additional training in Dutch higher education institutions, contributing academic credits towards their Ukrainian diploma. These credits could be transferred to their home universities, allowing students to work towards completing their degrees.

Not all changes have been limited to Ukrainian arrivals; many facilitations have applied to broader groups of refugee health professionals. In recent years, common measures have focussed on improving access to training opportunities and alleviating financial burdens related to qualification recognition. These efforts have aimed to address barriers such as limited access to preparatory courses, language training, and examination fees, which often prevent refugees from re-entering their professions.

In France, specific provisions exist for foreign-trained graduates in medicine, dentistry, midwifery, and pharmacy (PADHUEs) who are beneficiaries of international protection or are stateless. These individuals are exempt from the quota system that limits the number of places available for the annual knowledge verification tests (EVC), the first stage of the authorisation procedure. Additionally, while awaiting their EVC examination, they may apply for a certificate allowing temporary practice. If granted by the Director General of the Regional Health Agency (ARS) in their region, this certificate enables them to work in a healthcare facility on a temporary basis, provided they commit to taking the knowledge verification tests.

Similarly, Ireland has taken steps to support a wide range of refugee health professionals in gaining registration and employment. In collaboration with the Health Service Executive (HSE) and professional regulators, the Irish Department of Health allocated EUR 1 million in 2023 to cover training and registration costs, with an additional EUR 200 000 available in 2024. These funds have been used to provide English language training and support for professional registration, including covering the cost of professional competence exams for doctors and dentists. By removing financial and linguistic barriers, these initiatives have aimed to facilitate a smoother transition into the health workforce and ensure that refugee professionals can contribute effectively to national healthcare systems.

Another notable example is REACHE (The Refugee and Asylum Seekers Centre for Healthcare Professionals Education) in the United Kingdom, which has been active for over 20 years. REACHE assists refugee and asylum-seeker doctors, nurses, and allied health professionals by providing free language and clinical training, clinical placements, and support to help registered professionals secure their first NHS job.

Recognition and licensing procedures in selected OECD countries

This section reviews recognition and licensing procedures for migrant health professionals in Czechia, France, Germany, Poland, Sweden, the United Kingdom and the United States (Table 5.9). These countries were selected to reflect a diversity of experiences: some have long-standing histories of receiving foreign-trained health workers, while others are more recent destinations. The scale of arrivals also varies, with the United States receiving the largest numbers in the OECD, while Poland has seen relatively modest inflows, though the recent arrival of displaced Ukrainian professionals has brought these issues to the forefront. The group also includes examples of federal systems, illustrating how different degrees of decentralisation can shape credentialing processes.

Czechia

Foreign-trained doctors		Foreign-trained nurses	
Total stock (2022): 3 590	Main countries of origin:	Total stock (2022): 1 313	Main countries of origin:
7.9% of all practicing doctors	Slovak Republic, Ukraine, Russia (2023)	1.4% of all practicing nurses	Slovak Republic, Ukraine, Russia (2022)
Evolution in stock between 2000-2022: +520%			

Physicians and nurses trained in third countries (i.e. outside the EU/EEA/Switzerland) must undergo nostrification and approbation to obtain authorisation to practise in Czechia. The process begins with the nostrification of the medical diploma, conducted by authorised medical universities. The university assesses the foreign medical programme's curriculum, duration, learning outcomes, professional rights conferred, and traineeships, comparing them to its own standards. Candidates are encouraged to apply to a university offering a programme like theirs. The outcome of the nostrification is fail or pass, though an appeal is possible. No compensatory measures are offered for rejected applications.

Some simplifications apply here to displaced Ukrainians. Applicants with temporary protection status are exempt from nostrification fees and face fewer documentation requirements, particularly regarding translations. Missing documents may be also replaced by an affidavit. Additionally, foreign diplomas issued in one of the republics of the former Soviet Union between 6 June 1972 and 27 February 2000 are automatically recognised under the "Protocol of equality of documents of education, academic titles and degrees, which are issued or awarded in the Czechoslovak Socialist Republic and in the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics".² Holders of these diplomas proceed directly to approbation.

Table 5.9. Recognition and licensing of foreign-trained doctors (D) and nurses (N) in selected OECD countries

	Czechia		France		Germany		Poland		Sweden		United Kingdom		United States	
	D	N	D	N	D	N	D	N	D	N	D	N	D	N
Language requirements (CEFR equivalent)	Not specified	Not specified	B2	B2	C1	B2	Not specified	Not specified	C1	C1	C1	C1	C1	B2–C1, depending on state
Automatic recognition of medical and nursing diplomas with select countries	Yes ¹ (incl. former USSR until 2000)	Yes ¹ (incl. former USSR until 2000)	Yes ¹ (incl. Quebec)	Yes ¹ (incl. Quebec)	Yes ¹ (incl. some Commonwealth and English-speaking countries)	Yes ¹	No	No						
Possibility for supervised work allowed before recognition of diplomas (outside compulsory training)	Yes ²	Yes ²	No	No	Yes	Yes	Yes ²	Yes ²	No	No	No	No	No	No
Possibility for supervised work allowed before full licensing (outside compulsory training)	Yes ²	Yes ²	Yes ²	Yes ²	Yes	Yes	Yes ²	Yes ²	No	No	Yes	Yes	Varies by state	Varies by state
Recognition of previous internships or postgraduate training	No	No	No	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	No	No	Yes	Yes	Varies by state	Varies by state
Written exam required for licensing	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	No	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes ³	Yes	Yes	Yes
Simplified recognition conditions in the context of free movement	No	No	No	Yes ⁴	Yes	Yes	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No
Special measures in place for displaced Ukrainians	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	No	Yes	Yes	No	No

1. Countries with automatic recognition of medical and nursing diplomas with the EU, EEA, and Switzerland.

2. Primarily in the context of special measures aimed at specific migrant groups (e.g. displaced Ukrainians).

3. Required in most cases, but waived for physicians who have passed a licensing exam in Australia, Canada or the United States – considered acceptable overseas registration clinical exams.

4. Third-country nursing degrees are generally not recognised in France, but if previously recognised in the EU/EEA/Switzerland, an equivalence assessment is conducted.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/pjkxaf>

Once nostrification is completed, candidates must undergo approbation. For physicians, applications are submitted to the Ministry of Health. The process, conducted entirely in Czech, typically takes 16 months, excluding preparation or repeat exams. It includes three stages: written tests assessing medical knowledge and knowledge of the Czech healthcare and legal system, a six-month rotating internship in internal medicine, surgery, intensive care, paediatrics, and obstetrics/gynaecology, and an oral examination. Previous postgraduate training or specialist experience abroad is not recognised in Czechia, and doctors must complete specialist training in the country. However, they may apply for a reduction in training time based on documented experience. For nurses, the approbation process is managed by the National Centre for Nursing and Non-Medical Health Professions (*Národní centrum ošetřovatelství a nelékařských zdravotnických oborů*, NCO NZO) in Brno. It includes written tests, an internship lasting 14 to 60 days at a healthcare or social services provider, and an oral exam. The written tests are available in Czech, English, French, German or Russian, but the oral examination, assessing professional knowledge and Czech language skills, is conducted exclusively in Czech.

Some facilitations exist for foreign-trained doctors and nurses. For instance, they may practise for up to three months under supervision before nostrification through a short-term internship (*krátkodobá stáž*), requiring an invitation from an authorised healthcare facility. Originally intended for visiting medical professionals, this pathway has helped third-country physicians and nurses, particularly from Ukraine, gain practical experience and improve their Czech while awaiting nostrification. After nostrification but before completing approbation, they may apply for a long-term internship (*dlouhodobá stáž*), lasting up to one year and renewable twice (maximum three years), enabling them to continue working under supervision while preparing for approbation exams.

France

Foreign-trained doctors		Foreign-trained nurses	
Total stock (2022): 27 652	Main countries of origin:	Total stock (2021): 19 876	Main countries of origin:
12.7% of all practicing doctors	Algeria, Romania, Belgium	3.1% of all practicing nurses	Belgium, Spain, Portugal
Evolution in stock between 2000-2022: +255%	(2 022)	Evolution in stock between 2000-2021: +214%	(2021)

In France, physicians trained outside the EU/EEA/Switzerland must pass the Knowledge Verification Test (EVC) and complete a two-year Skills Consolidation Programme (*parcours de consolidation des compétences*) to obtain the right to practise. There is no formal equivalence assessment for foreign medical or postgraduate training, and specialist titles from third countries are not recognised.

The Knowledge Verification Test (EVC) is specialty-specific, allowing candidates to choose any medical specialty listed in France, regardless of their prior specialisation. To apply, candidates must preregister with the Centre national de gestion (CNG) and apply to a regional health agency (*Agence régionale de santé*, ARS). Required documents include proof of medical education, a B2-level French language certificate (TCF-TEF or DELF), and certified translations if necessary. The EVC consists of two written exams assessing theoretical and practical knowledge, held once per year. Candidates may attempt the test up to four times.

Successful EVC candidates are assigned to a limited number of placements for the two-year Skills Consolidation Programme, which involves supervised medical practice. Placement selection is competitive, with higher EVC scores improving the chances of securing a position. At the end of the programme, a committee of specialists evaluates the candidate's performance. If the evaluation is unsuccessful, an extension may be granted. A favourable evaluation allows candidates to apply for authorisation to practise from the Licensing Commission (*Commission d'autorisation d'exercice*, CAE). After receiving this authorisation, the physician must register with the French Medical Council (*Conseil National de l'Ordre des Médecins*) by applying to the regional council in their intended practice area.

Unlike physicians, nursing degrees from third countries are generally not recognised in France, and foreign-trained nurses must repeat their training in France. The only exception is for nursing diplomas from the EU and Quebec (Canada), which are automatically recognised.

Additionally, Article L4 311-4 of the *Code de la santé publique* stipulates that a candidate with a nursing diploma from a third country, which has already been recognised elsewhere in the EU/EEA or Switzerland, may apply for recognition through a regional professional association of nurses, provided they are also a national or long-term resident of the EU/EEA or Switzerland. In this case, an equivalence assessment is conducted, considering the candidate's education, practical experience, and additional training. If significant differences are identified, compensatory measures may be required, such as an aptitude test or an adaptation period of up to six months. Upon successful completion, the candidate is granted authorisation to practise as a general nurse.

To minimise the burden, foreign-trained nurses who must retrain in France may take three so-called admissibility examinations (one written and two oral/practical). Based on exam results, a jury and the director of the Institute of Nursing Education (*Institut de formation en soins infirmiers*, IFSI) determine which parts of the French nursing curriculum can be waived, potentially reducing the duration of necessary training.

Since March 2022, Ukrainian physicians with temporary protection status may apply for a temporary permit to practise under supervision (*praticien attaché associé*), while Ukrainian nurses may apply for a temporary permit to work as auxiliary nurses. Applications must be submitted to the regional health agency, including proof of completed medical studies, temporary protection status, and language proficiency (French or English), as well as an employment offer from an authorised healthcare facility. Document requirements are more flexible, and missing documents may be replaced with a self-signed statement. In the case of physicians, the EVC must be taken at the first available opportunity, but they are not required to compete for limited places in the Skills Consolidation Programme. However, for nurses, there is no dedicated pathway to transition into full professional recognition as general nurses in France.

Germany

Foreign-trained doctors ¹		Foreign-trained nurses	
Total stock (2022): 54 958	Main countries of origin:	Total stock (2022): 99 000	Main countries of origin:
14.4% of all practicing doctors	Syria, Romania, Russia (2022)	9.9% of all practicing nurses	N/A
Evolution in stock between 2000-2022: +457%		Evolution in stock between 2012-2022: +98%	

1. The data for Germany in the background box on both doctors and nurses refers to foreign citizens, not necessarily foreign-trained health professionals.

Germany's recognition procedures for medical and nursing education follow a general framework but are fragmented across regional authorities, often resulting in lengthy processing times – at times up to three years, not including language training or compensatory measures. However, efforts are underway to harmonise, streamline, and accelerate these processes across the federal states.

The recognition process for physicians and nurses trained outside the EU/EEA/Switzerland begins with an equivalence assessment, which evaluates medical and nursing diplomas, as well as any postgraduate internships or practice periods, against German standards. If full equivalence is established and all other conditions are met (language proficiency, medical fitness, and a clean professional record), the applicant receives approbation (authorisation to practise).

Already upon application for the equivalence assessment, applicants must prove at least an intermediate knowledge of German. To obtain approbation, physicians must later pass a C1-level language examination, typically administered by the regional Medical Association (*Ärztekammer*), covering oral and

written skills. For nurses, the required language level is B2 under the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR).

The equivalence assessment is conducted by competent authorities at the federal state level, with Bundesländer setting their own document requirements, which vary by region. However, once recognition is granted in one state, it is generally valid for general physicians and nurses nationwide. The responsible authority depends on where the candidate intends to practise, as well as their country of origin, education, and recent professional experience. Candidates can access detailed information via the Recognition Finder (anerkennung-in-deutschland.de), managed by the Federal Institute for Vocational Education and Training (BIBB), which also provides personalised counselling services (Box 5.11).

Box 5.11. Personalised counselling available for migrant health professionals seeking recognition of their medical qualifications in Germany

The ProRecognition initiative provides physicians and nurses from selected countries (Algeria, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Ecuador, Egypt, India, Indonesia, Morocco, Peru, the Philippines, Tunisia, Türkiye, and Venezuela) with information and counselling on the German recognition process. Guidance is offered in the local language through the foreign offices of the German Chambers of Commerce Abroad (*Auslandshandelskammern*, AHKs). The initiative is organised and funded by the Federal Ministry of Education and Research (*Bundesministerium für Bildung und Forschung*, BMBF) and the Association of German Chambers of Industry and Commerce (*Deutsche Industrie- und Handelskammer*, IHK).

For applicants from any country of origin, counselling is available via the “Working and Living in Germany” Hotline (*Arbeiten und Leben in Deutschland* Hotline), operated by the Federal Office for Migration and Refugees (*Bundesamt für Migration und Flüchtlinge*, BAMF) and the Federal Employment Agency (*Bundesagentur für Arbeit*, BA). Support is provided by phone or email. Additionally, physicians and nurses outside Germany can receive step-by-step guidance through the recognition process from the Service Centre for Professional Recognition (*Zentrale Servicestelle Berufsanerkennung*, ZSBA), operated by the Federal Employment Agency (BA).

To improve consistency and efficiency, federal-level standards are being developed through the Assessment Office for Healthcare Professions (*Gutachtenstelle für Gesundheitsberufe*, GfG) at the Standing Conference of the Ministers of Education and Cultural Affairs (KMK). A key initiative is a database of expert reports on foreign qualifications, categorised by issuing authority and date range, to reflect changes in medical education and practice regulations. However, full centralisation of the equivalence assessment remains opposed by the federal states.

If substantial differences are identified in the equivalence assessment, candidates must undertake additional measures before full recognition is granted. For physicians, this may involve a knowledge test (*Kenntnisprüfung*) or a limited right to practise under supervision for up to two years to compensate for experience gaps. This approach allows candidates to continue working while awaiting full recognition. For nurses, besides a knowledge test, they may be also required to complete an adaptation internship and additional theoretical training.

Discussions are ongoing to streamline and accelerate recognition and licensing procedures. A federal legislative initiative introduced in July 2024 (*Bundesrats-Entschließungsantrag*) proposes bypassing the equivalence assessment and allowing candidates to proceed directly to the knowledge test. It also calls for mandatory electronic applications nationwide. The Nursing Studies Strengthening Act (*Pflegestudiumsstärkungsgesetz*), in force since December 2023, mandates harmonisation of the recognition process and opens a possibility to adopt regulations that would allow the nurses also to skip

equivalence assessment and proceed directly to a knowledge test or adaptation internship, which would significantly shortening recognition timelines. Facilitations have been also introduced in the context of support displaced Ukrainians (Box 5.12).

Some practical steps have already been taken through targeted programmes. For instance, procedures for nurses have been accelerated and streamlined through the *INGA Pflege* (INGA Care) programme. This initiative provides an adaptation period for migrant nurses, combining professional recognition support with supervised practice, familiarisation with the German healthcare system, and language training. Initially developed for nurses from the Philippines, it has since been expanded to include professionals from a broader range of countries. Furthermore, an online practical handbook has been created to equip hospitals and care institutions with tools and resources to support the effective integration of migrant nurses into the healthcare sector.

Physicians who have already obtained approbation in Germany can apply for recognition of their medical specialty. The competent authority for specialist recognition may differ from the approbation authority, even within the same federal state. Due to regional variations, specialist recognition granted in one state is not always accepted in another. To promote harmonisation regarding specialisations, the German Medical Association (*Bundesärztekammer*) introduced a regulatory framework (*Musterweiterbildungsordnung*), though it is non-binding and serves only as guidance.

Physicians whose specialist titles were already recognised in an EU/EEA country or Switzerland, and who have practised for at least three years in that country, can have their specialty recognised in Germany under Directive 2005/36/EC, even if it is not covered by German federal state regulations.

For nurses, the European Professional Card (EPC), introduced in 2013, allows general care nurses to have their qualifications recognised across the EU/EEA and Switzerland without undergoing the full recognition procedure again. This also applies to nurses educated in third countries, provided they have already had their qualifications recognised in an EU/EEA country or Switzerland and have worked there for at least three years.

Box 5.12. Supporting displaced Ukrainian medical students in Germany

A significant number of Ukrainian applicants seeking recognition in Germany have completed the theoretical part of their medical studies in Ukraine but not the practical component (*Клінічна ординатура; Інтернатура*). Various initiatives have been proposed to enable these students to complete their training in Germany and obtain authorisation to practise without having to return to Ukraine.

One proposal suggested allowing one year of supervised practice in Germany, with the intention that Ukrainian authorities would recognise this period as fulfilling the missing practical training. This would have enabled graduates to qualify as physicians in Ukraine, thereby meeting Germany's standard requirement that candidates for recognition must hold the right to practise in their country of education. However, no agreement was reached with the Ukrainian Government.

Under current German legislation, there is a possible pathway for these students to complete their training in Germany and obtain approbation (authorisation to practise). This mechanism relies on two key elements:

- §10 of the *Bundesärzteordnung* (BÄO) (Federal Medical Practitioner Law) allows for supervised practice (*Berufserlaubnis*) if required to complete medical education.
- A ruling by the Administrative Court (*Verwaltungsgericht*) in Bremen confirmed that an applicant can obtain approbation in Germany if their medical studies are deemed equivalent to German medical education, or they have fully completed their studies, including both theoretical and practical components.

Thus, if the Ukrainian theoretical training – with possible compensatory measures – combined with a substitute practical component completed in Germany is deemed equivalent to German medical education, the competent German authority would have a legal basis to issue approbation.

A separate initiative aims to introduce legislative changes allowing Ukrainian students to complete the practical components of German medical education without repeating theoretical coursework. However, such reforms would require amendments to the federal licensing regulations (*Approbationsordnung*) and are unlikely to be implemented before 2027.

Poland

Foreign-trained doctors		Foreign-trained nurses	
Total stock (2022): 5 738	Main countries of origin: 3.8% of all practicing doctors Ukraine, Belarus, Russia Evolution in stock between 2010-2022: +131%	Total stock (2022): 1 353	Main countries of origin: 0.4% of all practicing nurses Ukraine, Belarus, Lithuania (2022)

Foreign-trained physicians seeking recognition of their qualifications in Poland have two options: nostrification or the Medical Knowledge Verification Exam (LEW – *Lekarski Egzamin Weryfikacyjny*). Nostrification, conducted by authorised medical universities, determines whether a foreign diploma is equivalent to a Polish one. The process, typically completed within 90 days, may result in recognition, rejection, or a requirement for compensatory measures, such as additional exams or traineeships. A fee usually applies, but exemptions may be granted based on financial circumstances.

Alternatively, physicians with at least five years of medical training, who have the right to practise in their country of qualification and proficiency in Polish, may opt for the LEW exam. Organised by the Centre for Medical Exams in Łódź (*Centrum Egzaminów Medycznych*), it is conducted twice a year, exclusively in Polish, and can be taken in multiple locations. Candidates must submit a certified copy of their diploma, authenticated and translated into Polish. The exam, currently costing around EUR 75, may be repeated if necessary.

After passing either nostrification or the LEW exam, candidates must obtain authorisation to practise, which includes completing a one-year postgraduate internship and passing the Final Medical Exam (LEK – *Lekarski Egzamin Końcowy*). The LEK exam, also administered by the Centre for Medical Exams in Łódź, is available in Polish or English, depending on the language of the candidate's medical studies. It is free of charge unless taken in English or retaken, in which case a fee of approximately EUR 75 applies. Foreign-trained physicians must also demonstrate sufficient Polish language proficiency (B2 level recommended), which may require passing a Polish language exam administered by the Medical Council. This exam, available upon request, costs approximately EUR 100.

Polish regulations allow the recognition of postgraduate internships or practice periods completed abroad, including in third countries. Applications are submitted to the Ministry of Health, which evaluates the documentation through the Centre for Postgraduate Medical Training (*Centrum Medyczne Kształcenia Podyplomowego*). A panel of experts convenes at least every three months, and a decision is issued within 14 days. If significant differences are identified, compensatory measures may be required.

Similarly, specialist training and practice from third countries can be recognised. Applications are submitted to the Ministry of Health, but candidates must first obtain authorisation to practise in Poland from the Polish Medical Council. If substantial differences exist that cannot be compensated by work experience, additional training at a designated healthcare facility may be required. This compensatory training cannot exceed three years.

The process for nurses differs slightly. Nursing qualifications from third countries can only be recognised through notification. The decision, issued within 90 days, may result in recognition, rejection, or compensatory requirements, such as additional exams or traineeships. Fees generally apply but may be waived based on financial need. To obtain authorisation to practise, foreign-trained nurses must meet two additional requirements: proficiency in Polish and completion of a six-month adaptation internship at an authorised healthcare facility.

Box 5.13. Special measures for foreign-trained physicians and nurses in Poland during COVID-19 and the Ukrainian Displacement Crisis

Over the past five years, Poland has introduced temporary simplified procedures to facilitate the employment of foreign-trained physicians and nurses, initially in response to COVID-19 and later due to the influx of Ukrainian refugees. In 2020, during the pandemic, regulations were amended to provide fast-track clearance for foreign-trained health professionals, allowing them to bypass the standard recognition process. Instead, they could apply directly to the Ministry of Health for a conditional right to practise (valid for up to five years) or a limited scope of practice restricted to specific services and employers (also for a maximum of five years).

The conditional right to practise initially restricted doctors and nurses to supervised roles in public healthcare facilities treating COVID-19 patients. However, specialists and nurses with at least three years of experience were required to work under supervision for only three months. In April 2022, restrictions on healthcare facility types were lifted, allowing those with conditional rights to work in any healthcare facility, provided they notified the Ministry of Health of employer changes. However, new applications for this pathway were also suspended.

The conditional license remains available for specialists and experienced nurses with sufficient Polish language proficiency, documented through a self-signed declaration. These professionals must undergo 12 months of initial supervision and can work in any facility providing the selected specialist services.

After these temporary authorisations expire, physicians and nurses must undergo standard recognition procedures to continue practising in Poland. However, public sector work experience under these temporary permits is now considered in the recognition process.

In March 2022, these simplified procedures were extended to Ukrainian health professionals with temporary protection status in Poland. Unlike other foreign-trained doctors and nurses, Ukrainians could still apply for the conditional right to practise beyond April 2022. Additionally, Ukrainian specialists and experienced nurses with documented Polish language skills can apply for limited scope practice rights, which have been available to Ukrainians under any legal status since 2020. Further modifications allow Ukrainian physicians to provide healthcare exclusively to other Ukrainian citizens under temporary protection status. Those with limited scope permits do not require additional approval to work in facilities serving only Ukrainian patients.

Since 24 October 2024, the Ministry of Health no longer accepts applications for conditional practice permits, although the limited scope practice pathway remains open. By April 2026, all Ukrainian physicians and nurses practising under these special measures must pass a Polish language exam, demonstrating at least B1 proficiency on the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR).

As of September 2024, around 2 500 physicians held conditional practice rights, and 715 physicians were working under limited scope permits, as recorded in the Central Physician Register.

Sweden

Foreign-trained doctors		Foreign-trained nurses	
Total stock (2021): 13 963	Main countries of origin:	Total stock (2022): 4 079	Main countries of origin:
30.4% of all practicing doctors	Poland, Romania, Hungary (2021)	3.6% of all practicing nurses	Finland, Germany, Norway (2021)
Evolution in stock between 2010-2022: +264%		Evolution in stock between 2000-2021: +74%	

In Sweden, physicians and nurses trained outside the EU/EEA/Switzerland can obtain a license to practice through two pathways: recognition of qualifications or compensatory training. Both culminate in the submission of certificates to the National Board of Health and Welfare (*Socialstyrelsen*), which then issues the license. Applicants must also provide proof of language ability at C1 level in Swedish, Norwegian or Danish, even if they are Swedish nationals.

For both physicians and nurses, the recognition process consists of four steps: an assessment of medical or nursing studies, a proficiency exam, a course on Swedish laws and regulations, and clinical training. Applications for qualification assessment must be sent to the National Board of Health and Welfare. If an applicant lacks a medical or nursing diploma, they may request a background paper from the Swedish Council for Higher Education (*Universitets- och högskolerådet*, UHR), which evaluates their qualifications based on available evidence. Sweden – along with Canada, Denmark, Estonia, Italy, Norway and the Netherlands – offers a specialised refugee qualification assessment, as outlined in the Lisbon Recognition Convention and co-ordinated through the ENIC-NARIC networks.

Once a complete application is sent, the National Board of Health and Welfare typically completes the assessment within three months. If the application is rejected, candidates may still qualify for a Swedish license by completing compensatory training or retraining through a Swedish medical or nursing degree. If approved, the candidate continues to the proficiency exam.

For physicians, the proficiency exam, administered by Umeå University, consists of theoretical and practical components in Swedish. The theoretical part is a 7.5-hour written exam, offered four times per year, and must be passed before trying the practical part, which lasts two days, is held eight times per year. Candidates are allowed five attempts for the theoretical exam (within five years) and three attempts for the practical part. Physicians who pass the proficiency exam may apply for special authorisation to work temporarily as medical doctors.

For nurses, the proficiency exam, conducted by Gothenburg University, also consists of theoretical and practical components in Swedish. The theoretical part is a four-hour written exam, offered six times per year (with a maximum of 60 candidates per session), and must be passed before taking the practical component, which lasts half a day. Candidates are allowed five attempts for the theoretical exam (within five years) and three attempts for the practical part.

After passing the proficiency exam, candidates must complete a course on Swedish laws and regulations, which may be taken full-time or part-time before, after, or during clinical training.

The clinical training period is six months for physicians and three months for nurses, completed at a single healthcare facility. Earlier professional experience is not considered. Candidates must secure employment themselves and obtain special authorisation to practice temporarily.

The compensatory training pathway for physicians consists of two to four semesters of full-time studies at five universities, conducted in Swedish, followed by an 18-month full-time internship (or an optional 36-month part-time internship). The curriculum is partially adapted to the candidate's prior education, but study places are limited, and universities set their own admission requirements. Candidates are responsible for securing an internship employer.

For nurses, the compensatory training pathway consists of two to three semesters of full-time studies at three universities, also conducted in Swedish, but without an internship. Universities may request a qualification assessment from the National Board of Health and Welfare before enrolment.

Foreign-trained physicians may apply for specialist qualification recognition only after obtaining a Swedish medical license. To receive a recognition of a specialist qualification, candidates must have completed at least three years of specialist training abroad, have a total of five years of combined specialist training and work experience outside Sweden, and complete at least one year of specialist training in Sweden after obtaining their license to practice.

United Kingdom

Foreign-trained doctors		Foreign-trained nurses	
Total stock (2021): 66 211	Main countries of origin:	Total stock (2022): 150 251	Main countries of origin:
31.9% of all practicing doctors	India, Pakistan, Nigeria (2021)	20.7% of all practicing nurses	India, Philippines, Nigeria (2023)
Evolution in stock between 2010-2022: +43%		Evolution in stock between 2002-2022: +276%	

In the United Kingdom, foreign-trained physicians can obtain a licence to practise through several pathways, with the recognition process taking anywhere from three months to over a year, depending on the route. All applications are submitted online to the General Medical Council (GMC), and each stage, including final registration with a licence to practise, is subject to fees. Since January 2020, the United Kingdom is no longer part of the EU/EEA, yet automatic recognition of medical qualifications from EU/EEA/Switzerland has been maintained.

For most foreign-trained physicians, the process begins with an assessment of their primary medical qualification and postgraduate internship of at least 12 months, which is required for full registration regardless of the country of study.

Applications for medical and postgraduate internship assessment must be submitted to the GMC, along with copies of relevant documents. Before submission, candidates must complete Primary Source Verification through the Educational Commission for Foreign Medical Graduates (ECFMG), which verifies documents directly with the awarding institution, usually within 90 days. If documents are missing or destroyed, the GMC assesses qualifications using alternative evidence. Following verification, the GMC evaluates whether the applicant's qualifications meet UK standards. If a qualification is not accepted, the decision cannot be appealed.

For postgraduate internships, 12 months of continuous medical practice in an approved public hospital training post is required. Alternatively, two years of supervised practice after graduation may be accepted. Candidates who have not completed an internship may apply for a Foundation Programme training post in the United Kingdom, which requires provisional registration, but this can only be granted after passing the PLAB test or an accepted overseas registration exam.

Physicians without specialist training must pass the Professional and Linguistic Assessments Board (PLAB) test to obtain full registration. The PLAB test consists of two parts. PLAB 1 is a multiple-choice written exam available in several countries and in the United Kingdom, held four times per year, and can be attempted up to four times. PLAB 2 is a practical Objective Structured Clinical Examination (OSCE) held throughout the year at the GMC Clinical Assessment Centre in Manchester. Due to high demand, candidates may experience waiting times for a test date. Physicians who pass both PLAB 1 and PLAB 2 are eligible for full registration with a licence to practise. The PLAB test requirement is waived for those who have passed a licensing exam in Australia, Canada, or the United States.

An alternative to PLAB is the Sponsorship Pathway, which is available to physicians with at least three years of practice, including the most recent 12 months, and who have been selected for postgraduate training by a GMC-approved sponsor. There are more than 110 approved sponsors, each with varying admission requirements. The sponsoring organisation provides a Sponsorship Registration Certificate, which must be included in the GMC application for full registration. Initially, physicians using this route must work under supervision in an approved practice setting until revalidated.

For physicians with specialist training and experience, the Portfolio Pathway allows them to apply for specialist consultant or GP registration by submitting extensive evidence of their specialist training and recent practice. Gathering the required documentation is a significant undertaking, so applicants are given up to 24 months to complete and submit their application, which then typically takes three to six months to process. If rejected, applicants can appeal within 28 days or submit additional evidence within 12 months. The Portfolio Pathway covers 65 medical specialties and includes an option for non-standard specialities. Alongside the Primary Source Verification by the ECFMG, applicants must provide evidence verified by medical supervisors as well as detailed reports from referees.

Some medical qualifications from Australia, Bangladesh, Canada, Hong Kong, Malaysia, New Zealand, Singapore, South Africa, Sri Lanka, the United States, and the West Indies are automatically recognised, as they have been assessed to meet the same standards as UK postgraduate qualifications (GMC, n.d.^[38]). The European Society of Intensive Care Medicine qualifications also receive automatic recognition. Under the Recognised Specialist Qualification procedure, automatic recognition applies to five specialties from Australia, Canada and New Zealand. If the qualification was awarded less than three years ago, only the diploma is required; otherwise, the candidate must also document recent medical practice.

Foreign-trained general nurses must validate their nursing diploma with the Nursing & Midwifery Council (NMC) and pass a Test of Competence to register and obtain the right to work in the United Kingdom. The United Kingdom still maintains automatic recognition of EU/EEA/Swiss nursing qualifications. The registration process consists of an eligibility and qualification application, a test of competence, and the final registration application. During the first stage, the NMC validates the candidate's identity and education, verifies the authenticity of diplomas with the issuing institution, and confirms whether the qualification allows the applicant to work as a general nurse in the country where it was obtained. Refugees must follow the same process, though alternative evidence may be accepted if they cannot provide the required documentation.

With a positive result, candidates can proceed to the test of competence, which consists of a computer-based test and the OSCE, which may be taken in any order. The test assesses numeracy and clinical knowledge and is available through an international network of test centres in multiple countries. The OSCE is a practical exam conducted at five locations in the United Kingdom. After three failed attempts, the entire registration application is closed and must be reopened from the beginning, although there is an option to appeal.

Once the test of competence is successfully completed, nurses can apply for registration with the NMC to obtain the right to practise. In addition to passing the test, applicants must also submit evidence of health, character, and language proficiency.

Box 5.14. Medical Support Workers Scheme introduced in the United Kingdom

In 2020, within NHS England, a new employment position, medical support worker, was created as part of the response to the COVID-19 national emergency. The role enabled NHS facilities to employ foreign-trained physicians before completing or even starting the recognition process and registration with the GMC, if NHS employer standards were upheld. Physicians working as medical support workers were only permitted to practise under supervision. Employment was typically offered for six months, with the possibility of extension. The scheme aimed to help foreign-trained physicians return to medical practice while also supporting them in initiating and completing the recognition process, leading to full registration with a licence to practise as a physician in the United Kingdom.

Since 2022, the medical support worker role has been increasingly used to support refugee doctors, including those from Ukraine, as they seek recognition of their qualifications and await full GMC registration. Several organisations facilitate connections between refugee doctors and potential employers, who then assess candidates on an individual basis.

United States

Foreign-born doctors ¹		Foreign-born nurses	
Total stock (2020/21): 291 184	Main countries of origin: 29.7% of all practicing doctors India, China, Pakistan Evolution in stock between 2000-2021: +48%	Total stock (2020/21): 736 181	Main countries of origin: 17% of all practicing nurses Philippines, India, Mexico Evolution in stock between 2000-2022: +119%

1. The data for the United States in the background box refers to foreign-born individuals, not necessarily foreign-trained professionals.

The recognition process for medical qualifications in the United States is complex, with licensing procedures governed by individual state laws and regulations. International medical graduates (IMGs) must obtain certification from the Educational Commission for Foreign Medical Graduates (ECFMG) before entering the US healthcare system. IMGs are those who earned their medical degrees outside the United States and Canada, but from 1 July 2025, graduates from Canadian medical schools will also be classified as IMGs in the context of entry to residency programmes accredited by the Accreditation Council for Graduate Medical Education (ACGME) due to changes in accreditation bodies (ECFMG, 2024^[39]).

To be eligible for ECFMG certification, an IMG must meet several requirements. Their medical school must be listed in the World Directory of Medical Schools with an ECFMG note indicating that its students and graduates are eligible to apply for certification. If a school is not listed, its students are not eligible. IMGs must also pass the two first steps of the United States Medical Licensing Examination (USMLE), which assesses a physician's ability to apply medical knowledge and clinical skills in patient care.

The USMLE consists of three steps and is mandatory for all doctors seeking a licence to practise in the United States, including domestic medical graduates. Step 1 is a multiple-choice exam assessing fundamental medical sciences in clinical scenarios. Step 2 is divided into two parts: Clinical Knowledge (CK), a multiple-choice test evaluating essential medical knowledge, and Clinical Skills (CS), a practical exam testing patient interaction, physical examination, and communication skills. Step 3, a multiple-choice exam focussing on the independent practice of medicine with an emphasis on patient management in ambulatory settings, is taken last, as IMGs must be ECFMG-certified to be eligible.

Once certified, IMGs may apply for a hospital residency, which lasts between three and eight years depending on the specialty. Residency applications are highly competitive, as IMGs compete for the same positions as US medical graduates. Applications are submitted in the autumn of the year preceding the

residency start date. There are over 8 000 residency programmes in the United States, and each programme director has sole discretion over selection, meaning there are no national admission standards.

All medical graduates, whether trained domestically or internationally, must apply for a state-specific licence to practise. Though there are 50 states, there are approximately 70 licensing jurisdictions, as some states maintain separate licensing boards for MDs (Doctor of Medicine) and DOs (Doctor of Osteopathic Medicine), while others have a unified board. Each licensing board has their own requirements. In recent years, several states have been introducing new provisions to address licensing pathways for IMGs. As of early 2025, 11 states have enacted laws that don't require IMGs to complete a US-based medical residency to gain a license to practice medicine (Box 5.15).

As with medical licenses, nursing licensure requirements in the United States vary by state, making the process complex for internationally trained nurses. Generally, obtaining a nursing licence involves multiple steps. The first step requires contacting an evaluation agency. The Commission on Graduates of Foreign Nursing Schools (CGFNS) is the primary provider of credential evaluation services for internationally trained nurses, with all states using at least one of its evaluation products. To expand options for applicants, some states have begun allowing alternative evaluation providers. In 2023, for example, Virginia required its nursing board to approve multiple credential evaluation entities. CGFNS or another evaluation body typically pre-screens foreign-educated nurses by assessing their education, home-country licensure, English language proficiency, and performance on a predictor exam that indicates their likelihood of passing the National Council Licensure Examination (NCLEX).

The second step involves meeting additional state-specific requirements if relevant and taking the NCLEX, a nationally recognised examination required for licensure as a registered nurse (NCLEX-RN) or a licensed practical nurse (NCLEX-PN). The exam is developed and maintained by the National Council of State Boards of Nursing (NCSBN), and state nursing boards use NCLEX results to determine whether to grant or deny a nursing licence.

Several states have introduced reforms to facilitate licensure for foreign-trained nurses. In 2018, Georgia allowed its nursing board to approve foreign nursing education programmes as equivalent to US standards if deemed no less stringent. Alabama permits licensure if an independent credential review agency verifies the foreign education as comparable to a board-approved programme. In 2022, Kentucky introduced temporary work permits for internationally trained nurses pursuing licensure by endorsement, drawing from temporary measures implemented during the COVID-19 pandemic. That same year, Hawaii adopted legislation allowing internationally trained nurses to obtain temporary licensure by endorsement if their education met Hawaii's standards at the time of their graduation and they had secured employment with a Hawaii-based employer.

Box 5.15. New licensing pathways for foreign-trained doctors emerging across various US states

States have long provided alternative routes to medical licensure, such as academic licensing, faculty appointments, and exceptional service licensing. Recently, new pathways have emerged that allow IMGs to gain licensure through evaluation by approved medical employers. These reforms generally require candidates to have previously been licensed abroad, hold Educational Commission for Foreign Medical Graduates (ECFMG) certification, pass all steps of the United States Medical Licensing Examination (USMLE), and secure employment with an approved hiring entity where they are supervised and assessed to ensure clinical competence. Many states also require IMGs to work in rural or underserved areas for a fixed period following their assessment.

Washington was the first state to implement such a pathway with SB 1 129 in 2021. The law grants a limited two-year licence, renewable once, to IMGs nominated by the chief medical officer of an approved medical practice. Candidates must have resided in Washington for at least one year, hold ECFMG certification, have passed the USMLE, undergo a background check, practise under a fully licensed physician, and file a practice agreement with their employer. Washington's broad definition of approved medical practice includes hospitals, state departments, and multi-physician medical practices. However, this pathway does not currently lead to full, unrestricted licensure.

Colorado introduced a different approach in 2022 with HB 22-1 050, allowing IMGs to obtain re-entry licences if they hold a current or expired foreign medical licence and meet other board requirements. The legislation also authorised an assessment model to evaluate applicants' skills and competencies, with criteria set by the medical board. Unlike Washington's model, Colorado's pathway provides full and permanent licensure without requiring a provisional period.

By the end of 2023, Tennessee, Illinois and Idaho had also introduced alternative licensure pathways, followed by Virginia, Wisconsin, Florida, Iowa, Louisiana and Massachusetts in 2024. These reforms aimed to create a fairer licensure process for IMGs and spurred a broader national discussion. More states are expected to introduce similar legislation in 2025.

In late 2023, the Federation of State Medical Boards (FSMB), Intealth and the Accreditation Council for Graduate Medical Education (ACGME) established an Advisory Commission on Additional Licensing Models. Meeting four times in 2024, the commission issued nine recommendations to standardise these alternative pathways while ensuring patient safety.

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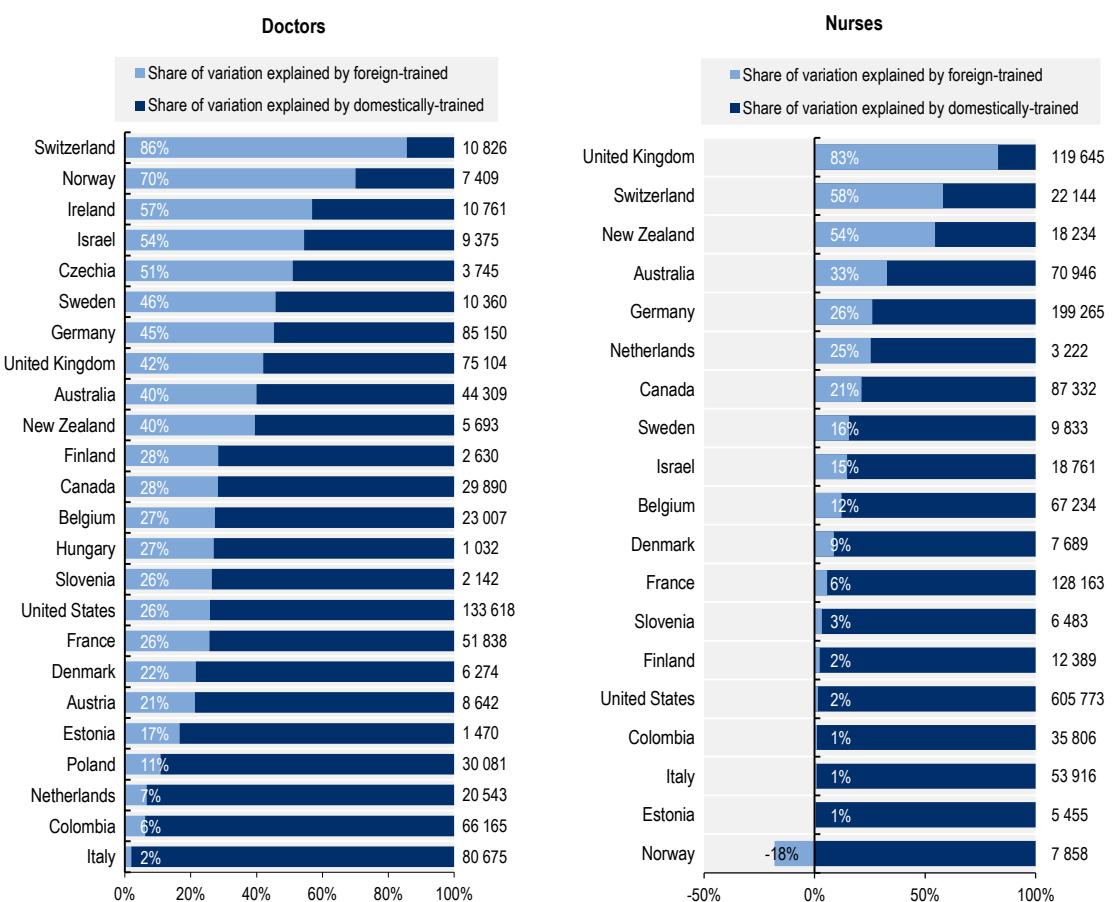
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Annex 5.A. Evolution of the stock of foreign-trained health professionals

The stock of foreign-trained health professionals reflects the current composition of the workforce and is the cumulative result of both inflows and outflows of domestic and foreign-trained workers. However, focussing specifically on the annual inflows of doctors and nurses allows for a more targeted analysis of recent migration trends. From 2010 to 2023, almost every country saw its doctor and nurse workforce expand in absolute terms, but the contribution of foreign-trained staff to that growth differed markedly (Annex Figure 5.A.1). Many health systems relied especially on foreign-trained doctors to bolster medical capacity: in five countries these professionals represented more than half of the growth in doctor numbers, whereas the same was true for nurses in only three countries.

Annex Figure 5.A.1. Share of total physician and nurse stock growth (decrease) over 2010-2023 explained by foreign-trained



Note: In Germany, data is based on nationality (not place of training). Numbers shown at the end of each bar indicate the overall change in the number of doctors or nurses during the period analysed. Data for doctors in the United States only goes up to 2016.

Source: OECD Data Explorer (DF_HEALTH_WFMI).

StatLink  <https://stat.link/0saymx>

For a more detailed breakdown Annex Table 5.A.1 and Annex Table 5.A.2 compare inflows of foreign-trained doctors and nurses to OECD countries in 2010 and 2023. In 2023, the 31 OECD countries with available data received more than 68 000 foreign-trained doctors – double the number recorded in 2010 (data available for 26 countries). The United Kingdom, the United States, Spain, Australia and Canada attracted the largest numbers, together accounting for over 70% of the total inflow.

Absolute figures, however, require context. Several indicators can help place inflows into perspective – such as population size, the size of the existing labour market for each occupation, or the stock of foreign-trained professionals already present. Another useful approach is to compare these inflows with the number of domestically trained professionals entering the labour market, namely recent graduates. This method more clearly illustrates a country's reliance on foreign-trained professionals at a given point in time and allows for analysis of how this relationship has evolved over time.

In 2023, the United States admitted 33 foreign-trained doctors for every 100 new medical graduates, whereas the United Kingdom received 148. Other high ratios were observed in Norway (265), Israel (252), Switzerland (195) and Ireland (170). Between 2010 and 2023, this ratio doubled in both the United Kingdom and Ireland, indicating an increasing reliance on foreign-trained doctors. By contrast, the ratio declined in New Zealand, where more modest inflows coincided with significant growth in the number of domestic graduates – 74% (Annex Table 5.A.1).

Annex Table 5.A.1. Inflows of foreign-trained doctors and new medical graduates in OECD countries in 2010 and 2021-2023

Reference area	2010				2021-2023			
	Year	Foreign-trained	Graduates	Foreign-Trained Dependency Ratio (per 100 graduates) ¹	Year	Foreign-trained	Graduates	Foreign-Trained Dependency Ratio (per 100 graduates)*
Australia	2010		2 662		2023	4 446	4 068	109
Austria	2010	191	1 726	11	2023	280	1 530	18
Belgium	2010	504	980	51	2023	675	1 735	39
Canada	2010	2 437	2 447	100	2022	3 528	2 835	124
Chile	2011	551	1 193	46	2023	944	2 313	41
Colombia	2011	154	4 088	4	2023	485	7 672	6
Czechia	2010	103	1 458	7	2023	191	1 780	11
Denmark	2010	296	912	32	2023	424	1 250	34
Estonia	2010	11	149	7	2023	17	144	12
Finland	2010	133	656	20	2023	335	729	46
France	2011	1 490	4 384	34	2023	2 191	7 710	28
Germany	2010	1 426	9 894	14	2023	9 456	10 186	93
Greece	2010		1 038		2022	675	1 421	48
Hungary	2010	35	1 040	3	2023	144	1 631	9
Iceland	2010		44		2023	104	52	200
Ireland	2010	683	785	87	2023	2 266	1 330	170
Israel	2010	377	314	120	2023	1 748	695	252
Italy	2010	149	6 732	2	2023	416	9 795	4
Korea	2010	1	4 027	0.02	2023	29	3 841	1
Latvia	2010	39	179	22	2023	28	508	6
Lithuania	2010		391		2023	24	644	4
Netherlands	2010	226	2 276	10	2023	257	2 497	10
New Zealand	2010	1 168	317	368	2023	767	552	139
Norway	2010	1 309	551	238	2023	1 577	595	265
Poland	2010	60	3 081	2	2022	1 892	5 809	33
Slovenia	2010	76			2023	115	232	50
Spain	2010	6 800	4 299	158	2023	9 158	6 587	139
Sweden	2010	810	969	84	2022	580	1 422	41
Switzerland	2010	1 892	813	233	2023	2 402	1 231	195
United Kingdom	2010	5 945	8 490	70	2022	13 504	9 140	148
United States	2010	7 318	20 469	36	2023	9 556	28 781	33
OECD Total	34 104		82 299	Unweighted: 68	68 214		118 715	Unweighted: 74
				Weighted: 41				Weighted: 57
	(26 countries)				(31 countries)			

Note: Data missing for Costa Rica, Mexico, Japan, Luxembourg, Portugal, the Slovak Republic and Türkiye.

1. The Foreign Trained Dependency Ratio expresses the number of foreign trained doctors entering practice for every 100 new domestically trained graduates.

Source: OECD Data Explorer (DF_HEALTH_WFMI and DF_GRAD).

StatLink  <https://stat.link/sgrzk0>

Annex Table 5.A.2. Inflows of foreign-trained nurses and new nursing graduates in OECD countries in 2010 and 2021-2023

Reference area	2010				2021-2023			
	Year	Foreign-trained	Graduates	Foreign-Trained Dependency Ratio (per 100 graduates) ¹	Year	Foreign-trained	Graduates	Foreign-Trained Dependency Ratio (per 100 graduates)*
Australia	2013	900	17 303	5	2023	10 773	29 912	36
Austria	2010		2 914		2023	917	3 951	23
Belgium	2010	361	4 542	8	2023	687	4 955	14
Chile	2010		1 977		2023	113	7 377	2
Colombia	2011	8	3 574	0.2	2023	54	4 568	1
Czechia	2010		1 283		2023	194	3 900	5
Denmark	2010	162	2 229	7	2023	213	2 922	7
Estonia	2010	2	379	1	2023	2	413	0.5
Finland	2010	123	3 139	4	2023	59	4 138	1
France	2010	442	25 720	2	2021	384	28 080	1
Germany	2012	663	34 854	2	2023	27 282	36 391	75
Hungary	2013	48	3 364	1	2023	73	2 868	3
Iceland	2010		248		2023	89	299	30
Ireland	2010	211	1 641	13	2023	5 225	1 700	307
Israel	2010	78	848	9	2023	792	3 365	24
Italy	2010	2 105	9 776	22	2023	698	10 218	7
Korea	2010	5	42 861	0.01	2023	24	49 395	0.05
Latvia	2010	14	806	2	2023	13	379	3
Lithuania	2010		581		2023	17	815	2
Netherlands	2010	91	6 519	1	2023	298	11 349	3
New Zealand	2010	1 295	1 454	89	2023	2 834	2 772	102
Norway	2010	2 498	3 260	77	2023	1 847	4 623	40
Poland	2010	6	9 653	0.1	2022	772	7 406	10
Spain	2010	1 088	10 098	11	2023	884	11 593	8
Sweden	2010	127	4 081	3	2022	224	4 348	5
Switzerland	2010	2 237	5 983	37	2023	3 070	9 817	31
United Kingdom	2010	3 097	17 289	18	2022	23 664	29 080	81
United States	2010	9 535	201 611	5	2022	23 522	225 098	10
OECD Total		25 096	410 984	Unweighted: 14 Weighted: 6		104 724	501 732	Unweighted: 30 Weighted: 21
			(23 countries)					(28 countries)

Note: Data missing for Costa Rica, Canada, Greece, Mexico, Japan, Portugal, Luxembourg, Slovenia, the Slovak Republic and Türkiye.

1. The Foreign-Trained Dependency Ratio expresses the number of foreign-trained nurses entering practice for every 100 new domestically trained graduates.

Source: OECD Data Explorer (DF_HEALTH_WFMI and DF_GRAD).

StatLink  <https://stat.link/783qd2>

In 2023, the 28 OECD countries with available data admitted more than 104 000 foreign-trained nurses, well above the inflow of doctors and over four times the 2010 level (data available for 23 countries). The United Kingdom, the United States, Germany, Australia and Ireland received more than 85% of these nurses.

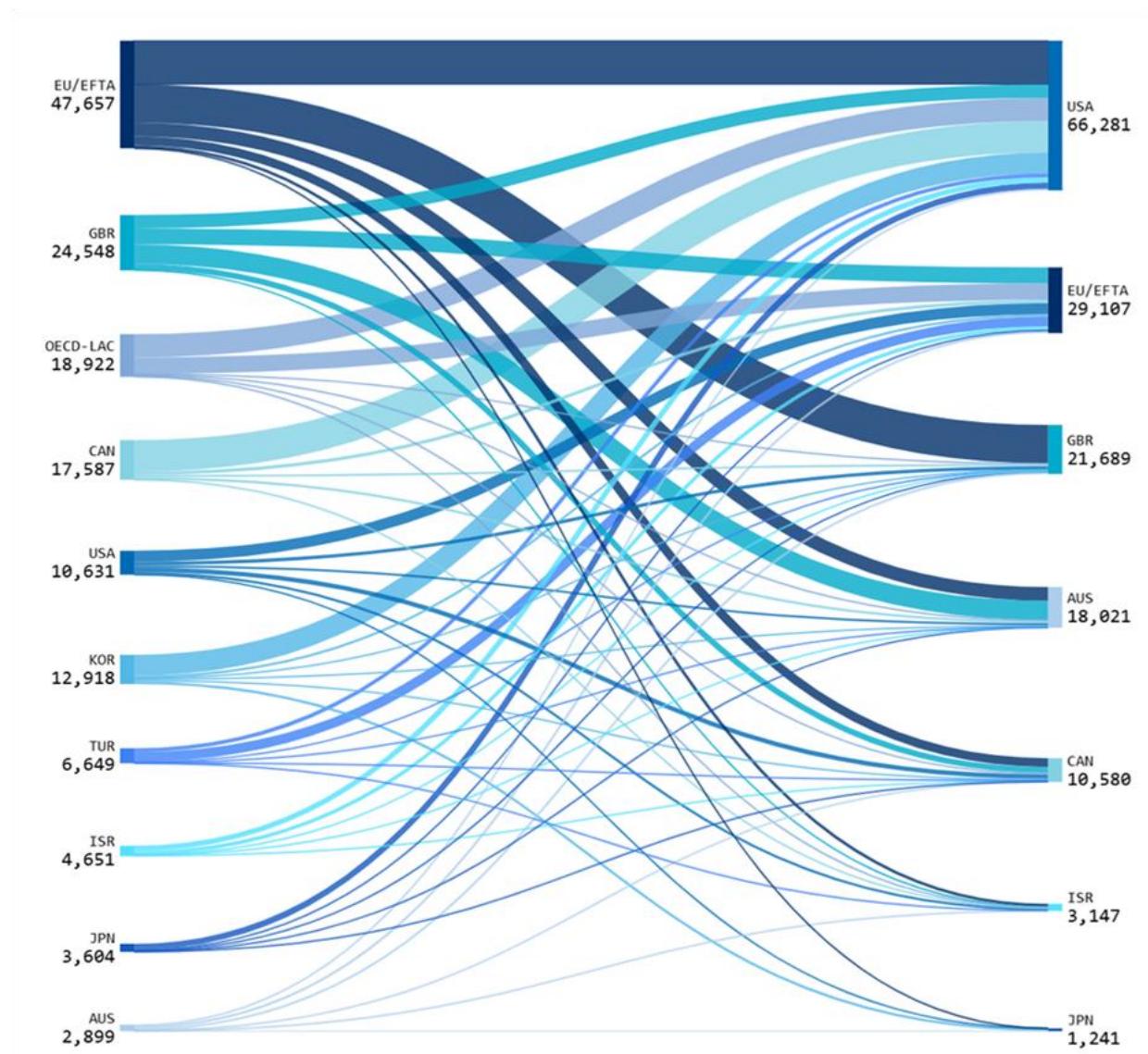
Reliance on international recruitment is lower for nurses than for doctors. Using the Foreign-Trained Dependency Ratio, only Ireland and Austria exceeded parity: in 2023, Ireland registered 307 foreign-trained nurses for every 100 new Irish nursing graduates, up from 13 per 100 in 2010. Over

this period, the annual output of Irish nursing graduates stagnated at about 1 600, while the inflow of foreign-trained nurses rose almost 20-five-fold, from roughly 200 to more than 5 000.

The next-highest ratios were recorded in New Zealand and the United Kingdom – around 100 and 80 foreign-trained nurses per 100 graduates, respectively. For the United Kingdom this represents a sharp increase from 18 in 2010. Norway moved in the opposite direction: by more than doubling its nursing graduate output over the 13-year period, it cut its dependency ratio by half to 40 and reduced foreign-trained inflows by roughly a quarter.

Annex 5.B. Intra OECD movements of migrant doctors, circa 2020/21 left axis (country of origin); right axis (country of residence)

Annex Figure 5.B.1. Intra OECD movements of migrant doctors, circa 2020/21 left axis (country of origin); right axis (country of residence)



StatLink  <https://stat.link/3umld5>

Annex 5.C. Stocks of migrant doctors and nurses to the OECD by country of origin and emigration rates

Annex Table 5.C.1. Stocks of migrant doctors and nurses to the OECD by country of origin and emigration rates

Doctors	Number of persons working in OECD countries		Expatriation rate	Nurses	Number of persons working in OECD countries		Expatriation rate
Country of birth	2000	2020		Country of birth	2000	2020	
Afghanistan	885	5 063	33.9%	Afghanistan	1 311	6 269	32.9%
Albania	542	2 876	34.8%	Albania	1 610	9 743	38.3%
Algeria	10 854	11 423	17.7%	Algeria	8 711	8 611	18.5%
Andorra	13	105	22.8%	Andorra	16	128	26.3%
Angola	1 519	1 311	14.6%	Angola	1 737	2 093	5.0%
Antigua and Barbuda	100	72	21.4%	Antigua and Barbuda	678	465	43.3%
Argentina	4 098	6 399	2.6%	Argentina	1 304	2 816	1.5%
Armenia	408	1 299	12.4%	Armenia	571	2 473	16.3%
Australia	2 028	2 888	2.8%	Australia	4 589	5 027	1.6%
Austria	1 876	4 363	8.4%	Austria	2 208	3 746	3.9%
Azerbaijan	388	1 725	5.1%	Azerbaijan	215	1 477	2.6%
Bahamas	178	155	17.3%	Bahamas	560	1 308	43.0%
Bahrain	87	360	24.7%	Bahrain	77	191	4.6%
Bangladesh	2 127	4 946	4.3%	Bangladesh	688	3 129	4.5%
Barbados	275	324	30.5%	Barbados	3 496	1 359	52.2%
Belarus	982	3 174	6.9%	Belarus	897	3 900	3.9%
Belgium	1 717	5 264	11.5%	Belgium	2 885	6 102	4.4%
Belize	71	118	22.2%	Belize	1 360	1 413	65.8%
Benin	215	373	17.5%	Benin	186	624	10.1%
Bhutan	4	23	5.7%	Bhutan	1	755	32.0%
Bolivia	588	1 331	10.5%	Bolivia	397	1 340	7.2%
Bosnia and Herzegovina	956	2 986	25.7%	Bosnia and Herzegovina	6 346	20 350	49.1%
Botswana	33	178	14.8%	Botswana	47	247	3.1%
Brazil	2 358	5 803	1.2%	Brazil	2 866	10 859	1.0%
Brunei Darussalam	94	252	23.4%	Brunei Darussalam	129	182	6.6%
Bulgaria	1 453	5 567	15.8%	Bulgaria	1 411	5 866	16.7%
Burkina Faso	66	87	4.0%	Burkina Faso	27	439	3.6%
Burundi	71	189	17.8%	Burundi	64	905	7.2%
Cambodia	671	474	12.0%	Cambodia	1038	1 920	16.8%
Cameroon	730	3 003	54.0%	Cameroon	1 971	17 186	60.0%
Canada	9 967	17 587	16.0%	Canada	24 509	23 630	5.8%
Cape Verde	165	222	37.3%	Cape Verde	261	1 144	56.3%
Central African Republic	83	55	22.7%	Central African Republic	98	187	20.3%
Chad	69	122	10.8%	Chad	140	112	4.1%
Chile	875	1 704	3.0%	Chile	2 059	3 266	4.6%
China	18 941	30 342	0.9%	China	15 200	42 440	0.9%

Doctors	Number of persons working in OECD countries		Expatriation rate	Nurses	Number of persons working in OECD countries		Expatriation rate
Country of birth	2000	2020		Country of birth	2000	2020	
Chinese Taipei	14	8 151		Chinese Taipei	14	5 205	
Colombia	3 532	9 741	7.4%	Colombia	2 880	13 290	15.7%
Comoros	20	57	13.9%	Comoros	64	182	21.1%
Congo	539	498	38.6%	Congo	498	1 265	19.2%
Democratic Republic of the Congo	358	1 976	11.0%	Democratic Republic of the Congo	458	6 654	6.4%
Cook Islands	16	22	45.8%	Cook Islands	80	91	43.1%
Costa Rica	303	540	4.1%	Costa Rica	607	1 457	8.6%
Côte d'Ivoire	267	421	8.7%	Côte d'Ivoire	409	2 997	18.7%
Croatia	1 109	2 066	12.7%	Croatia	3 280	8 694	23.6%
Cuba	5 814	9 821	8.6%	Cuba	4 343	18 730	18.1%
Cyprus	724	1 821	30.4%	Cyprus	729	658	12.4%
Czechia	1 703	4 481	9.3%	Czechia	2 135	6 226	6.3%
Denmark	924	1 342	5.0%	Denmark	1 595	2 602	3.7%
Djibouti	25	28	10.7%	Djibouti	10	49	17.7%
Dominica	58	82	50.9%	Dominica	620	1 184	72.0%
Dominican Republic	1 590	4 255	16.6%	Dominican Republic	1 969	7 585	26.7%
Ecuador	957	2 833	6.5%	Ecuador	1 215	4 524	9.6%
Egypt	7 703	14 008	16.0%	Egypt	1 196	2 346	1.2%
El Salvador	683	1 188	6.1%	El Salvador	2 389	7 559	33.5%
Equatorial Guinea	78	34	8.5%	Equatorial Guinea	98	121	6.6%
Eritrea	124	234	44.6%	Eritrea	835	3 740	43.9%
Estonia	249	726	13.6%	Estonia	184	1 291	13.2%
Ethiopia	668	1 997	14.1%	Ethiopia	1 632	9 645	12.1%
Fiji	382	837	52.8%	Fiji	2 032	4 943	60.3%
Finland	875	1 173	5.6%	Finland	5 221	3 827	5.2%
Macedonia	338	1 182	15.9%	Macedonia	822	3 472	27.2%
France	3 918	8 577	3.8%	France	7 892	18 746	3.0%
Gabon	62	59	4.2%	Gabon	107	211	3.7%
Gambia	49	64	24.6%	Gambia	123	1 448	54.1%
Georgia	425	2 376	10.9%	Georgia	587	2 310	9.6%
Germany	14 958	31 024	7.7%	Germany	30 924	49 584	4.7%
Ghana	1 497	2 482	32.0%	Ghana	5 452	21 377	18.2%
Greece	2 887	9 964	13.1%	Greece	1 304	3 522	8.3%
Grenada	109	350	68.6%	Grenada	2 131	1 854	74.5%
Guatemala	444	853	3.7%	Guatemala	1 212	3 582	8.2%
Guinea	106	231	7.5%	Guinea	140	1 129	15.6%
Guinea-Bissau	183	208	35.1%	Guinea-Bissau	246	268	16.3%
Guyana	949	861	43.5%	Guyana	7 450	8 869	78.4%
Haiti	2 161	1 997	40.1%	Haiti	13 018	35 834	85.2%
Honduras	290	718	12.7%	Honduras	917	2 501	25.5%
Hungary	3 139	5 293	14.7%	Hungary	2 337	6 013	10.5%
Iceland	340	648	29.1%	Iceland	158	830	12.7%
India	56 077	98 857	8.9%	India	22 897	122 400	4.8%
Indonesia	2 713	1 901	1.1%	Indonesia	3 145	4 370	0.7%
Iran	9 640	19 313	11.9%	Iran	4 990	12 897	7.8%
Iraq	3 567	9 767	20.1%	Iraq	792	3 982	4.2%
Ireland	4 062	5 861	25.4%	Ireland	19 905	11 989	12.9%
Israel	2 493	4 651	12.9%	Israel	1019	1 666	3.4%
Italy	4 418	11 860	4.7%	Italy	6 489	12 723	3.3%

Doctors	Number of persons working in OECD countries		Expatriation rate	Nurses	Number of persons working in OECD countries		Expatriation rate
Country of birth	2000	2020		Country of birth	2000	2020	
Jamaica	2 113	1 981	57.7%	Jamaica	31 217	41 098	89.9%
Japan	2 677	3 604	1.1%	Japan	4 784	8 689	0.6%
Jordan	1 229	3 410	10.6%	Jordan	421	975	3.1%
Kazakhstan	945	3 454	4.6%	Kazakhstan	6 573	22 070	15.2%
Kenya	2 411	3 338	46.2%	Kenya	3 049	20 277	39.7%
Kiribati	0	6	21.4%	Kiribati	19	64	12.6%
Korea	8 574	11 790	8.3%	Korea	10 220	25 686	5.6%
Kosovo ¹	180	695		Kosovo ¹	1 335	4 904	
Kuwait	505	2 134	17.6%	Kuwait	164	812	3.9%
Kyrgyzstan	146	547	4.6%	Kyrgyzstan	675	2 680	9.3%
Laos	331	458	14.9%	Laos	873	2 111	23.2%
Latvia	508	1 321	17.2%	Latvia	623	2 407	23.2%
Lebanon	4 575	7 776	33.7%	Lebanon	1 551	2 887	21.8%
Lesotho	7	10	1.3%	Lesotho	8	6	0.1%
Liberia	122	97	11.1%	Liberia	1 242	5 176	68.2%
Libya	864	2 737	16.6%	Libya	121	334	0.8%
Liechtenstein	25	0		Liechtenstein	61	68	
Lithuania	1 009	2 687	17.7%	Lithuania	884	4 508	17.1%
Luxembourg	293	916	34.0%	Luxembourg	209	878	9.8%
Madagascar	888	1 253	20.1%	Madagascar	1 371	2 193	34.3%
Malawi	162	229	19.3%	Malawi	200	516	3.7%
Malaysia	4 689	10 623	12.6%	Malaysia	7 573	4 833	3.5%
Maldives	6	9	0.8%	Maldives	0	17	0.7%
Mali	162	678	16.5%	Mali	240	722	11.2%
Malta	413	404	15.8%	Malta	662	416	9.1%
Marshall Islands	4	2	7.7%	Marshall Islands	0	501	72.0%
Mauritania	39	172	15.5%	Mauritania	103	156	3.5%
Mauritius	769	1 452	29.6%	Mauritius	4 503	3 137	40.9%
Mexico	4 407	6 937	2.2%	Mexico	12 503	39 244	9.5%
Micronesia	0	2	1.8%	Micronesia	1	362	61.1%
Moldova	213	2 241	15.3%	Moldova	673	3 963	17.8%
Monaco	59	61	15.8%	Monaco	87	212	22.5%
Mongolia	81	305	2.4%	Mongolia	65	525	4.1%
Montenegro	16	82	4.5%	Montenegro	124	574	15.5%
Morocco	6 256	6 869	20.3%	Morocco	5 643	12 193	25.6%
Mozambique	936	736	22.2%	Mozambique	789	747	7.8%
Myanmar	1 725	3 267	7.6%	Myanmar	429	1 273	4.7%
Namibia	75	224	17.8%	Namibia	36	455	6.6%
Nauru	0	0	0.0%	Nauru	5	9	9.7%
Nepal	316	2 362	8.7%	Nepal	359	15 411	19.9%
Netherlands	1 871	3 846	5.4%	Netherlands	6 191	6 774	3.4%
New Zealand	1 860	2 895	14.2%	New Zealand	7 524	9 102	14.4%
Nicaragua	559	858	16.4%	Nicaragua	1 170	3 630	26.8%
Niger	26	62	6.9%	Niger	23	128	2.9%
Nigeria	4 686	17 060	17.7%	Nigeria	13 795	54 480	39.3%
Niue	0	6	66.7%	Niue	41	39	66.1%
Norway	663	1 013	3.9%	Norway	1 687	1 817	2.1%
Oman	23	275	3.0%	Oman	23	114	0.6%
Palau	0	0	0.0%	Palau	0	0	0.0%

Doctors	Number of persons working in OECD countries		Expatriation rate	Nurses	Number of persons working in OECD countries		Expatriation rate
Country of birth	2000	2020		Country of birth	2000	2020	
Pakistan	10 510	29 689	10.3%	Pakistan	1 887	7 870	6.9%
Palestinian administrative areas	335	980		Palestinian administrative areas	92	307	
Panama	871	619	8.1%	Panama	1 904	3 113	18.4%
Papua New Guinea	136	175	22.5%	Papua New Guinea	455	547	10.8%
Paraguay	288	543	6.0%	Paraguay	179	535	1.3%
Peru	2 468	6 321	11.8%	Peru	2 957	11 156	16.2%
Philippines	15 905	14 922	15.0%	Philippines	112 165	277 266	37.1%
Poland	7 327	16 275	11.4%	Poland	19 348	64 268	23.4%
Portugal	850	2 220	3.7%	Portugal	2 310	15 418	17.1%
Puerto Rico	3 853	6 554		Puerto Rico	6 714	13 012	
Qatar	52	127	1.6%	Qatar	6	66	0.3%
Romania	6 861	25 499	28.5%	Romania	7 982	46 882	24.0%
Russia	5 109	18 826	3.3%	Russia	9 673	36 706	3.0%
Rwanda	46	203	11.8%	Rwanda	100	2 387	18.6%
Saint Kitts and Nevis	15	55	27.5%	Saint Kitts and Nevis	711	290	51.5%
Saint Lucia	39	90	10.7%	Saint Lucia	369	1 169	64.5%
Saint Vincent and the Grenadines	115	131	56.2%	Saint Vincent and the Grenadines	1 228	1 169	64.1%
Samoa	46	103	46.4%	Samoa	567	794	58.2%
San Marino	4	319	65.3%	San Marino	0	0	0.0%
Sao Tome and Principe	71	92	46.7%	Sao Tome and Principe	139	111	20.1%
Saudi Arabia	586	4 709	4.7%	Saudi Arabia	192	2 352	1.2%
Senegal	449	828	37.4%	Senegal	298	1 557	29.1%
Serbia	646	4 160	17.3%	Serbia	2 419	11 388	21.1%
Seychelles	36	42	11.2%	Seychelles	152	176	21.9%
Sierra Leone	237	219	27.5%	Sierra Leone	2 141	6 820	86.8%
Singapore	1 363	2 927	16.5%	Singapore	1 923	2 262	6.1%
Slovak Republic	1 076	6 797	25.3%	Slovak Republic	1 413	8 391	21.0%
Slovenia	195	498	6.7%	Slovenia	591	1 878	7.9%
Solomon Islands	11	8	4.8%	Solomon Islands	38	61	4.1%
Somalia	155	663	51.0%	Somalia	354	5 428	66.5%
South Africa	7 405	11 953	20.2%	South Africa	5 895	10 996	15.3%
South Sudan	0	20	4.3%	South Sudan	0	293	6.1%
Spain	2 633	6 151	2.8%	Spain	3 066	9 003	3.0%
Sri Lanka	4 696	9 440	26.4%	Sri Lanka	2 183	5 443	10.9%
Sudan	797	2 950	21.6%	Sudan	190	887	1.8%
Suriname	39	649	46.0%	Suriname	18	1 883	49.1%
Swaziland	9	4	2.4%	Swaziland	37	24	0.8%
Sweden	1 016	2 595	5.5%	Sweden	1 995	4 882	4.2%
Switzerland	1 214	3 312	8.0%	Switzerland	1 539	6 786	4.1%
Syria	6 521	14 864	32.0%	Syria	1 688	5 497	14.6%
Tajikistan	77	302	1.5%	Tajikistan	248	1 192	2.0%
Thailand	1 405	1 740	4.6%	Thailand	3 259	7 070	3.0%
Timor-Leste	35	38	3.7%	Timor-Leste	61	96	5.6%
Togo	159	351	33.9%	Togo	262	1 657	40.3%
Tonga	23	108	51.9%	Tonga	449	631	57.8%
Trinidad and Tobago	1 205	1 716	21.2%	Trinidad and Tobago	9 815	9 237	61.6%
Tunisia	2 680	4 876	23.6%	Tunisia	795	3 477	12.3%
Türkiye	2 691	6 649	3.7%	Türkiye	3 534	12 338	5.1%

Doctors	Number of persons working in OECD countries		Expatriation rate	Nurses	Number of persons working in OECD countries		Expatriation rate
Country of birth	2000	2020		Country of birth	2000	2020	
Turkmenistan	11	42	0.3%	Turkmenistan	51	231	1.0%
Tuvalu	0	0	0.0%	Tuvalu	10	10	19.6%
Uganda	1 089	902	11.4%	Uganda	1 267	4 409	7.9%
Ukraine	3 893	12 979	8.8%	Ukraine	4 342	23 884	8.8%
United Arab Emirates	131	1 980	6.9%	United Arab Emirates	19	1 305	2.2%
United Kingdom	16 047	24 548	10.7%	United Kingdom	44 957	49 492	8.0%
Tanzania	1 025	957	14.2%	Tanzania	1 002	1 675	5.0%
United States	3 618	10 548	0.9%	United States	5 271	9 876	0.2%
Uruguay	476	742	4.5%	Uruguay	529	896	3.5%
Uzbekistan	368	2 075	2.6%	Uzbekistan	656	5 189	1.4%
Vanuatu	5	35	41.9%	Vanuatu	20	29	7.6%
Venezuela	1 711	9 689	16.0%	Venezuela	1 358	5 436	8.3%
Viet Nam	7 392	9 922	10.6%	Viet Nam	6 643	21 517	16.8%
Yemen	351	804	11.2%	Yemen	269	487	3.6%
Zambia	567	993	17.1%	Zambia	847	3 285	10.6%
Zimbabwe	849	1 917	49.2%	Zimbabwe	3 755	20 194	35.2%

1. This designation is without prejudice to positions on status, and is in line with United Nations Security Council Resolution 1244/99 and the Advisory Opinion of the International Court of Justice on Kosovo's declaration of independence.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/q8d0io>

Notes

¹ OECD averages for foreign-born doctors and nurses in this chapter are calculated using the OECD Total* in each table, based on countries with consistent data available for 2000/01, 2010/11, and 2020/21.

² *Protokol o rovnocennosti dokumentů o vzdělání, vědeckých hodnotech a titulech, které jsou vydávány nebo udělovány v Československé socialistické republice a ve Svazu sovětských socialistických republik.*

6

Country notes: Recent changes in migration movements and policies

Australia

Foreign-born population – 2024	32.3% of the population	Main countries of birth:
8.6 million, 51% women	Evolution since 2014: +31%	United Kingdom (13%), India (11%), China (10%)

In 2024, Australia received 239 000 new immigrants on a long-term or permanent basis (including changes of status), 0.3% more than in 2023. This figure comprises 12% immigrants benefitting from free mobility, 28% labour migrants, 52% family members (including accompanying family) and 8% humanitarian migrants. Around 182 000 permits were issued to tertiary-level international students and 310 900 to temporary and seasonal labour migrants.

India, China and Nepal were the top three nationalities of newcomers in 2023. Among the top 15 countries of origin, India registered the strongest increase (11 000) and the United Kingdom the largest decrease (-1 200) in flows to Australia compared to the previous year.

In 2023, the number of first asylum applicants increased by 69%, to reach around 33 000. The majority of applicants came from Iran (4 400), Viet Nam (3 000) and India (2 400). The largest increase since 2022 concerned nationals of Iran (2 500) and the largest decrease nationals of Malaysia (-41). Of the 18 000 decisions taken in 2024, 12% were positive.

Emigration of Australian citizens to OECD countries increased by 0.2% in 2023, to 22 000. Approximately 24% of this group migrated to New Zealand, 19% to the United Kingdom and 16% to the United States.

In 2024-2025, the Australian Government continued to implement the Migration Strategy, focussing on simplifying the immigration system and addressing workforce shortages. A key reform was the introduction of the new Skills in Demand (SID) visa in December 2024, which replaced the Temporary Skill Shortage (TSS) visa. The SID visa comprises of three streams – Specialist Skills, Core Skills and the Labour Agreement stream – which are based on salary thresholds and occupation lists. The SID visa offers a more streamlined process for both migrants and employers, and also provides visa holders with a clearer route to permanent residence.

Changes were also made to the Employer Nomination Scheme (ENS) visa's Temporary Residence Transition (TRT) and Direct Entry (DE) streams. From December 2024 onwards, for the TRT stream, periods of employment with any approved employer count towards the two-year work experience requirement for permanent residence. This follows amendments implemented in July 2024 that made it easier for sponsored workers in the SID or the Skilled Employer Regional schemes to change employers. Additionally, the DE stream now uses the new Core Skills Occupation List. A new Core Skills Income Threshold now also applies to both streams.

Throughout 2024 a range of changes were implemented to the student visa to address integrity issues identified in the international education sector. Changes include increased English proficiency scores, financial capacity requirements and visa application charges, as well as restrictions on applying for a further stay on a student visa and additional scrutiny to applications suspected of containing fraudulent or misleading information.

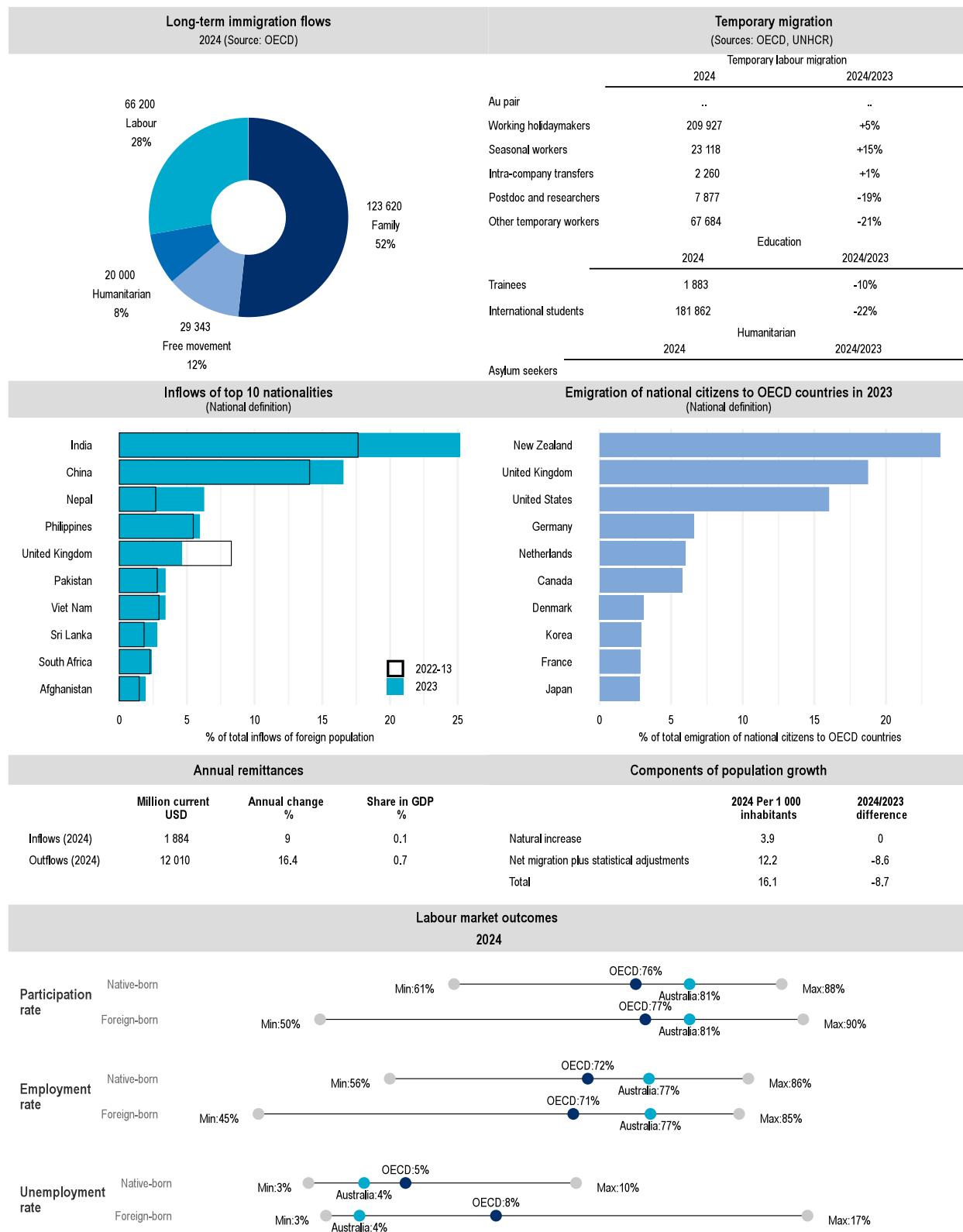
In December 2024, the government launched the National Innovation Visa to attract exceptional international talent. This programme replaces the Global Talent visa and the Business Innovation and Investment visa. The NIV is aimed at individuals who have achieved recognition internationally for their expertise or accomplishments in priority sectors such as critical technologies, health industries, or infrastructure and transport.

To support its commitment to combatting worker exploitation, the government has implemented the Migration Amendment (Strengthening Employer Compliance) Act 2024, effective from 1 July 2024. The Act introduces new criminal offences relating to coercive work arrangements, imposes enhanced penalties and compliance measures, and grants the relevant authority the power to ban non-compliant employers from hiring additional migrant workers. To support this legislation, the Department of Home Affairs has strengthened its compliance and enforcement capabilities.

Additionally, on 1 July 2024, the Australian Government began implementing the Workplace Justice pilots that amend visa settings to make it easier for temporary migrants to report exploitation and assert their workplace rights. The Strengthening Reporting Protections pilot amends the Migration Regulations to provide protection from visa cancellation in prescribed circumstances. The Workplace Justice Pilot supports temporary migrants who have experienced workplace exploitation to remain in Australia between six and 12 months, (with the option of extending it for up to four years) while they pursue activities related to workplace justice. Once approved, visa holders are permitted to work while resolving their workplace issues.

For further information: www.homeaffairs.gov.au/

Key figures on immigration and emigration – Australia



StatLink  <https://stat.link/lf71w3>

Austria

Foreign-born population – 2024	22.3% of the population	Main countries of birth:
2 million, 51% women	Evolution since 2014: +44%	Germany (13%), Bosnia and Herzegovina (9%), Türkiye (8%)

In 2024, Austria received 103 000 new immigrants on a long-term or permanent basis (including changes of status and free mobility), -2.7% compared to 2023. This figure comprises 57% immigrants benefitting from free mobility, 6% labour migrants, 15% family members (including accompanying family) and 22% humanitarian migrants. Around 5 900 permits were issued to tertiary-level international students and 17 300 to temporary and seasonal labour migrants (excluding intra-EU migration). In addition, 333 000 intra-EU postings were recorded in 2023, a 9% increase compared to 2022. These posted workers are generally on short-term contracts.

Germany, Romania and Ukraine were the top three nationalities of newcomers in 2023. Among the top 15 countries of origin, Türkiye registered the strongest increase (2 700) and Ukraine the largest decrease (-62 000) in flows to Austria compared to the previous year.

In 2024, the number of first asylum applicants decreased by -61%, to reach around 22 000. The majority of applicants came from Syria (13 000), Afghanistan (2 200) and Türkiye (1 000). The largest increase since 2023 concerned nationals of China (five) and the largest decrease nationals of Syria (-7 900). Of the 32 000 decisions taken in 2024, 71% were positive.

Emigration of Austrian citizens to OECD countries increased by 4% in 2023, to 15 000. Approximately 38% of this group migrated to Germany, 22% to Switzerland and 9% to Türkiye.

In 2024 and 2025 Austria continued its efforts to address labour shortages. The government updated its list of federal shortage occupations to 81 for 2025, with additional regional lists addressing local labour market needs at the provincial level. These include a broad range of roles across healthcare, construction, transportation, IT and skilled trades. Third-country skilled workers in shortage occupations may apply for a Red-White-Red Card to work in Austria. Seasonal worker quotas were raised further in 2025 after having been raised in the previous year, affecting employment in agriculture, forestry, and tourism. Austria also continued its bilateral efforts to recruit foreign workers, with an MoU signed with Indonesia in May 2024. Also in September 2024, after the MoU on the recruitment of skilled workers with the Philippines in 2023, the Philippine Migrant Workers Office opened in Vienna and a Pre-Check Qualification Register was introduced to facilitate the recognition of foreign qualifications.

Displaced persons from Ukraine received extended access to education, residence and the labour market in the context of the EU decision to prolong that special status. Students were exempted from tuition fees through the winter semester 2024/25 and was prolonged until the end of February 2026. Amendments adopted in July 2024 extended compulsory schooling to minors under temporary protection. From October 2024, Ukrainians holding a residence permit for displaced persons were allowed to transition to the regular settlement scheme. They became eligible for the Red-White-Red card if able to prove at least one year of full-time employment within the last two years and fulfilled the general requirements for granting residence permits according to the Settlement and Residence Act.

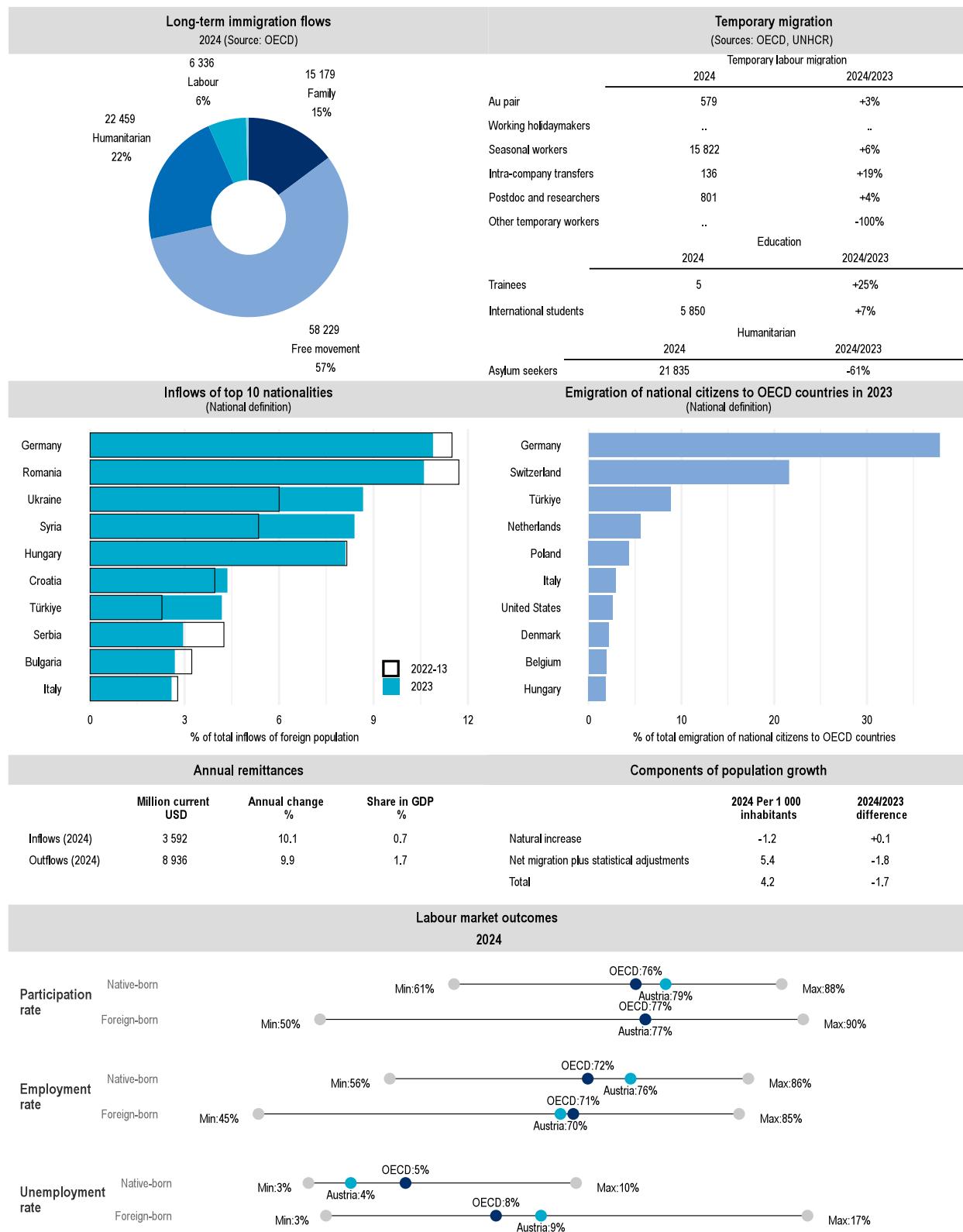
At the same time, Austria implemented more restrictive measures in the asylum system. Under the new federal government, family reunification for beneficiaries of protection was suspended in March 2025, after the introduction of DNA testing and stricter documentation checks in May 2024. In December 2024, the Interior Ministry halted all asylum and family reunification applications from Syrians and introduced a return programme, offering EUR 1 000 for voluntary departures. Returns to Syria are now under review, and a removal list is being prepared.

After a decision by the Austrian Constitution Court in December 2023, the legal framework governing asylum procedures was amended in July 2024 to ensure the independence of legal advisors. Meanwhile, a payment card system for asylum seekers – piloted in July 2024 – is being implemented for a potentially nationwide rollout in 2025. It restricts cash withdrawals and blocks certain transactions, and forms part of a broader effort to link support to compliance with social obligations, such as mandatory community service.

Austria also maintained internal border controls with neighbouring Schengen states throughout 2024 and into 2025, citing irregular migration and security concerns. An MoU with Ghana enhancing co-operation on preventing irregular migration and return/readmission issues, as well as certain aspects of legal mobility, was signed in 2024.

For further information: www.bmi.gv.at | www.migration.gv.at | www.emn.at.

Key figures on immigration and emigration – Austria



StatLink  <https://stat.link/f1y7bj>

Belgium

Foreign-born population – 2024	19.9% of the population	Main countries of birth:
2.3 million, 51% women	Evolution since 2014: +33%	Morocco (10%), France (8%), the Netherlands (6%)

In 2024, Belgium received 106 000 new immigrants on a long-term or permanent basis (including changes of status and free mobility), as in 2023. This figure comprises 59% immigrants benefitting from free mobility, 7% labour migrants, 20% family members (including accompanying family) and 15% humanitarian migrants. Around 9 800 permits were issued to tertiary-level international students and 1 100 to temporary and seasonal labour migrants (excluding intra-EU migration). In addition, 231 000 intra-EU postings were recorded in 2023, a 7% increase compared to 2022. These posted workers are generally on short-term contracts.

Romania, Ukraine and France were the top three nationalities of newcomers in 2023. Among the top 15 countries of origin, Syria registered the strongest increase (1 900) and Ukraine the largest decrease (-37 000) in flows to Belgium compared to the previous year.

In 2024, the number of first asylum applicants increased by 13%, to reach around 33 000. The majority of applicants came from Syria (5 300), the West Bank and Gaza Strip (5 300) and Eritrea (2 300). The largest increase since 2023 concerned nationals of West Bank and Gaza Strip (2 400) and the largest decrease nationals of Afghanistan (-700). Of the 32 000 decisions taken in 2024, 49% were positive.

Emigration of Belgian citizens to OECD countries increased by 1% in 2023, to 28 000. Approximately 28% of this group migrated to France, 21% to Spain and 12% to the Netherlands.

Under Belgium's federal system, the regions have competence for a wide range of labour migration and integration roles. In 2024, all regions introduced new bills.

In the Brussels-Capital Region (as of October 2024), the main changes include a new method of calculating minimum wages and a shortage-list exemption from the labour market test.

In the Walloon Region (as of September 2024), the main changes include new work permit exemptions; changes in salary thresholds and calculations; an increased role for the Public Employment Service (FOREM) in administering the labour market test; easier employer change but additional refusal grounds. The Walloon Government also adopted a thorough revision of its integration strategy.

In the Flemish Region (as of May 2024), the main changes include an extended labour market test. In particular, the Region aims to focus more on attracting talent in sectors facing shortages; in addition, the Region raised the requisites for language learning, civic orientation, and long-term social participation.

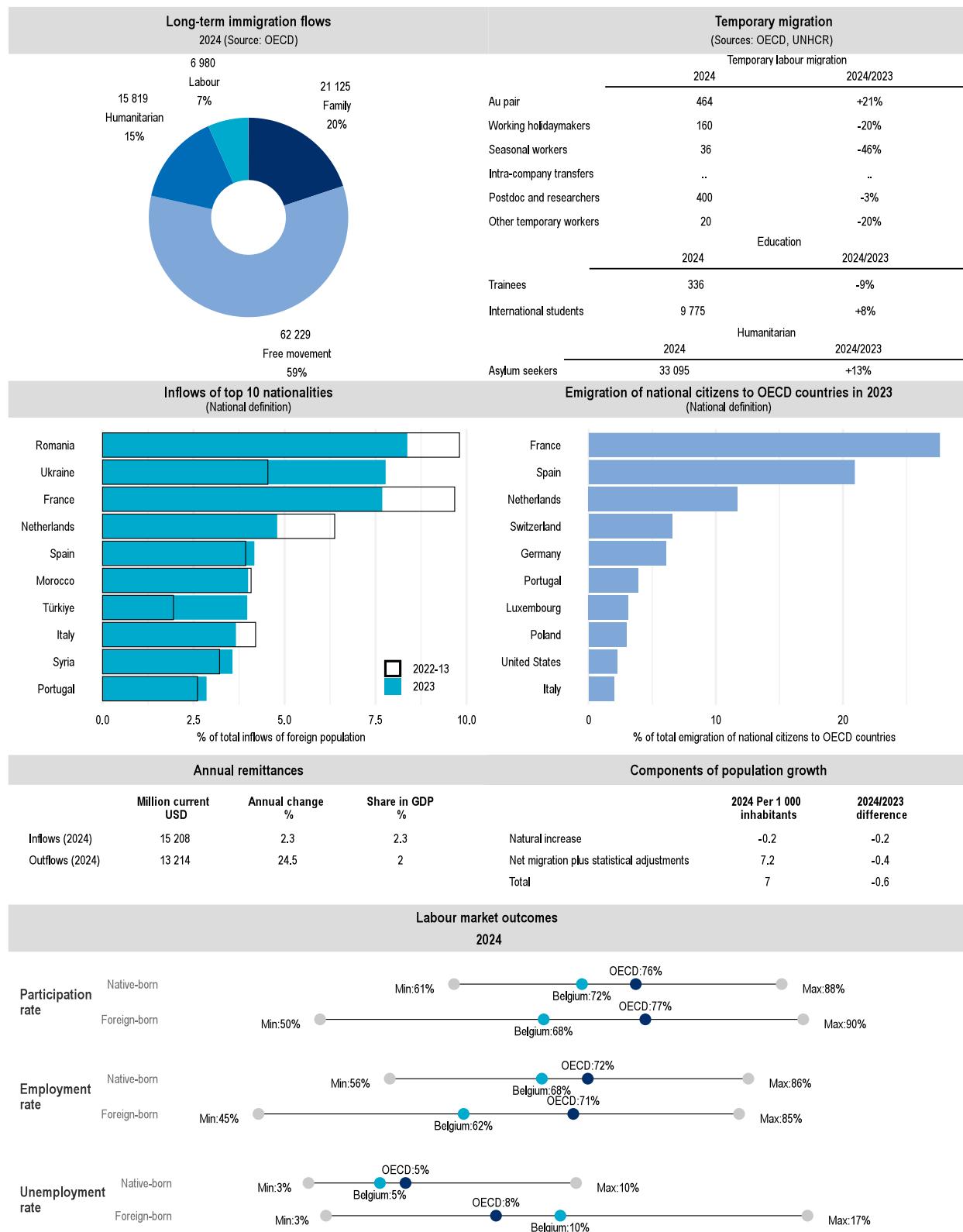
Following elections in 2024, the incoming federal coalition partners reached a federal coalition agreement on 31 January 2025 Objectives in the plan regard migration in the 2025-2029 period. The new government wants to reduce the number of asylum applications in Belgium, fight against illegal migration and attract foreigners who contribute economically and socially. The agreement aims to consolidate the Immigration Office, the Office of the Commissioner General for Refugees and Stateless Persons, Fedasil, and the Council for Aliens Law Litigation under one institution, the "Federal Public Service Migration".

On 11 April 2025, the Council of Ministers agreed on a package of crisis measures and four draft bills have been submitted to the Council of State for review. These include *inter alia*: i) Limiting reception (Reception will be restricted (a) if protection was granted in another EU Member State, (b) for minors applying independently after their parents' application has been denied); ii) Restricting subsequent applications for individuals who have received a decision in another country, limiting review to new elements; iii) Stricter family reunification, though (a) increasing the financial requirement for family reunification to 110% of the guaranteed minimum income, with an additional 10% for each extra person, (b) extending the waiting period for reunification by up to two years, depending on the applicant's status, and reducing the waiting period for family reunification without conditions for recognised refugees to six months, (c) tightening rules for family reunification for those with subsidiary or temporary protection; iv) Ending integration income for applicants for international protection – applicants will no longer be eligible for social assistance from public welfare centres, and only Fedasil, the Federal Agency for Asylum Seekers, will provide material support. A new law (September 2024) introduces a new administrative procedure to grant residence permits on the grounds of statelessness. Previously, recognised stateless persons could only obtain residence through humanitarian regularisation.

In March 2025, Belgium extended temporary protection status for individuals fleeing the war in Ukraine until 4 March 2026.

For further information: www.dofi.ibz.be | www.myria.be | www.statbel.fgov.be.

Key figures on immigration and emigration – Belgium



StatLink  <https://stat.link/po9cl5>

Bulgaria

Foreign-born population – 2022	3.3% of the population	Main countries of birth:
0.2 million, 49% women	Evolution since 2014: +104%	Russia (16%), Türkiye (9%), Germany (8%)

In 2024, 13 000 new immigrants obtained a residence permit longer than 12 months in Bulgaria (excluding EU citizens), 8.1% more than in 2023. This figure comprises 57.3% labour migrants, 18.6% family members (including accompanying family), 8.3% who came for education reasons and 15.8% other migrants. Around 1 300 short-term permits were issued to international students and 1 500 to temporary and seasonal labour migrants (excluding intra-EU migration). In addition, 15 000 intra-EU postings were recorded in 2023, a 42% increase compared to 2022. These posted workers are generally on short-term contracts.

Ukraine, Türkiye and Russia were the top three nationalities of newcomers in 2023. Among the top 15 countries of origin, Ukraine registered the strongest increase (7 900) and Germany the largest decrease (-200) in flows to Bulgaria compared to the previous year.

In 2024, the number of first asylum applicants increased by 11%, to reach around 12 100. The majority of applicants came from Syria (7 600), Afghanistan (2 000) and Morocco (900). The largest increase since 2023 concerned nationals of Egypt (500) and the largest decrease nationals of Syria (-4 800). Of the 8 220 decisions taken in 2024, 62% were positive.

Emigration of Bulgarian citizens to OECD countries decreased by -11% in 2023, to 81 000. Approximately 43% of this group migrated to Germany, 15% to the Netherlands and 10% to Spain.

Political instability in Bulgaria, related to the frequent change of governments in 2022-2024, slowed down the development of effective migration policies addressing internal and external challenges. Nevertheless, a political agreement was reached on 1 January 2025, as Bulgaria became a full member of the Schengen Area. This milestone followed the earlier removal of air and sea border checks on 31 March 2024. The integration into the Schengen Area facilitates passport-free travel, boosting trade, tourism, and strengthening the EU-EFTA internal market.

In preparation for Schengen accession, the Bulgarian Government focussed on improving and modernising its border control. In October 2024, Bulgaria, Romania, Hungary and Austria agreed on a joint declaration committing to the continuation of joint efforts to fight irregular migration and preventing illegal onward transit. Furthermore, in order to mitigate the potential change of migratory patterns and in accordance with the provisions of the Schengen Borders Code, Bulgaria temporarily reintroduced the internal border control at the Bulgarian-Romanian land border for six months.

Temporary Protection Status for Ukrainians has been extended to 4 March 2026, in line with the European Council's decision in June 2024 to extend the protection regime for displaced Ukrainians. Consequently, the Council of Ministers adopted a new Programme for Humanitarian Support and Integration of Displaced Persons from Ukraine Granted Temporary Protection in the Republic of Bulgaria in May 2025.

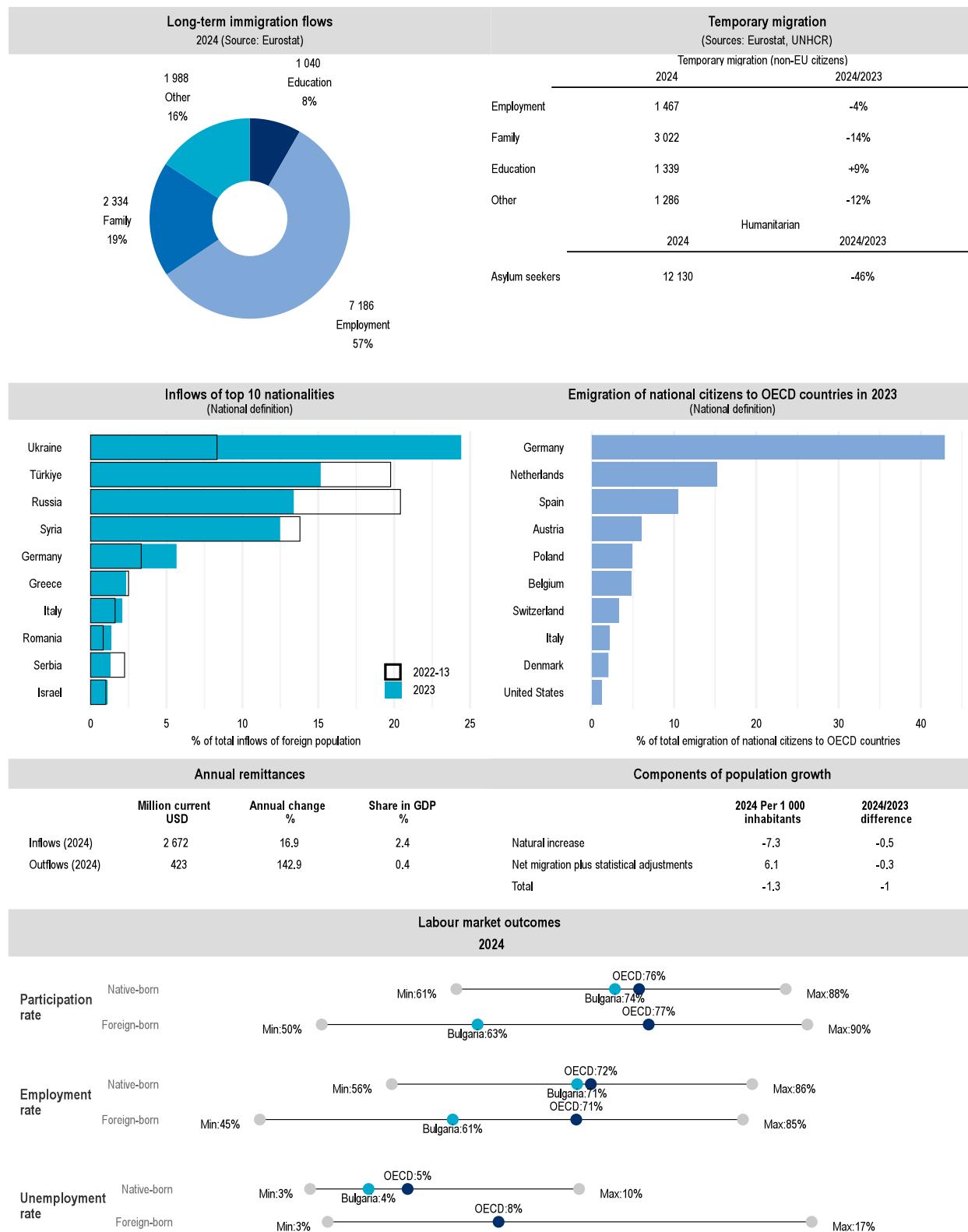
The government approved a draft law amending the Foreigners in the Republic of Bulgaria Act in early 2025. Part of the amendments aim to align the Act with EU directives, in particular the directives on highly qualified employment and seasonal employment of third-country nationals. For example, for EU Blue Card holders, the amendments provide for the possibility of changing employers after the first 12 months; for seasonal workers, there will be an option to extend their stay for up to 90 days.

Apart from these adjustments several reliefs and facilitations were approved concerning third-country nationals who come to reside and work or study in Bulgaria. More specifically, holders of EU Blue Cards and single permits, as well as seasonal workers will be obligatorily insured by the National Health Insurance Fund. Foreign students will have the possibility to apply for a stay of up to 18 months initially and two new legal grounds for residence of digital nomads and post-graduates were provided in the amending law.

Bulgaria also continued its effort in the digitalisation of migration processes. The testing phase of the digitalisation of foreign labour recruitment services started in May 2024. Intermediary companies will have to be registered electronically, and all documents and processes will go through the information system of this register. For the time being the digital system has not been legally regulated in the Foreigners in the Republic of Bulgaria Act.

For further information: www.aref.govment.bg | www.mvr.bg.

Key figures on immigration and emigration – Bulgaria



StatLink <https://stat.link/kq9vnj>

Canada

Foreign-born population – 2021	22% of the population	Main countries of birth:
8.4 million, 48% women	Evolution since 2014: +17%	China (11%), India (11%), Philippines (9%)

In 2024, Canada received 484 000 new immigrants on a long-term or permanent basis (including changes of status), 2.5% more than in 2023. This figure comprises 30% labour migrants, 50% family members (including accompanying family) and 16% humanitarian migrants. Around 213 000 permits were issued to tertiary-level international students and 221 300 to temporary and seasonal labour migrants.

India, China and the Philippines were the top three nationalities of newcomers in 2023. Among the top 15 countries of origin, India registered the strongest increase (22 000) and Nigeria the largest decrease (-4 700) in flows to Canada compared to the previous year.

In 2024, the number of first asylum applicants increased by 19%, to reach around 174 000. The majority of applicants came from India (33 000), Bangladesh (16 000) and Nigeria (13 000). The largest increase since 2023 concerned nationals of India (21 000) and the largest decrease nationals of Mexico (-15 000). Of the 89 000 decisions taken in 2024, 55% were positive.

Emigration of Canadian citizens to OECD countries decreased by -3% in 2023, to 39 000. Approximately 48% of this group migrated to the United States, 8% to Mexico and 7% to the United Kingdom.

Canada's 2025-2027 Immigration Levels Plan set decreasing permanent resident admissions at 395 000 in 2025, 380 000 in 2026 and 365 000 in 2027. Targets for temporary residents were included in the Plan for the first time, with the aim of reducing their share to below 5% of Canada's population by 2027.

In response to various international crises and situations, Canada introduced family-based humanitarian pathways for affected foreign nationals who have close or extended family in Canada to find safe haven and build their lives in Canada with support from their family. Pathways have been created in response to humanitarian situations in Ukraine, the Americas, Sudan and Gaza.

In 2024, Canada continued to support human rights defenders facing persecution through a dedicated refugee resettlement stream. Canada collaborated with the United Nations Refugee Agency and human rights defender protection organisations to resettle over 400 human rights defenders.

In March 2024, to support talent attraction, the Innovation Stream of the International Mobility Programme was introduced to provide selected Global Hypergrowth Project companies with an exemption from the labor market impact assessment and make it easier to bring talent.

Canada implemented several reforms to the International Students Programme in 2024 to better equip international students for life in Canada and to address evolving economic and social priorities. These measures include enhanced volume controls through: an intake cap on most study permit applications; the realignment of the Post-Graduation Work Permit to better support national labor market needs; and, the strengthening of programme integrity through initiatives such as the introduction of a letter of acceptance verification system and new regulatory authorities enabling Canada to take action against non-compliant institutions. These reforms are designed to reduce fraud and abuse within the programme and to ensure its long-term sustainability.

In 2024, regulatory amendments came into force that provide the government of Canada's International Experience Canada programme with enhanced abilities to negotiate symmetrical bilateral youth mobility agreements and arrangements. As a result, this supports reciprocal opportunities between Canada and its partner countries and territories.

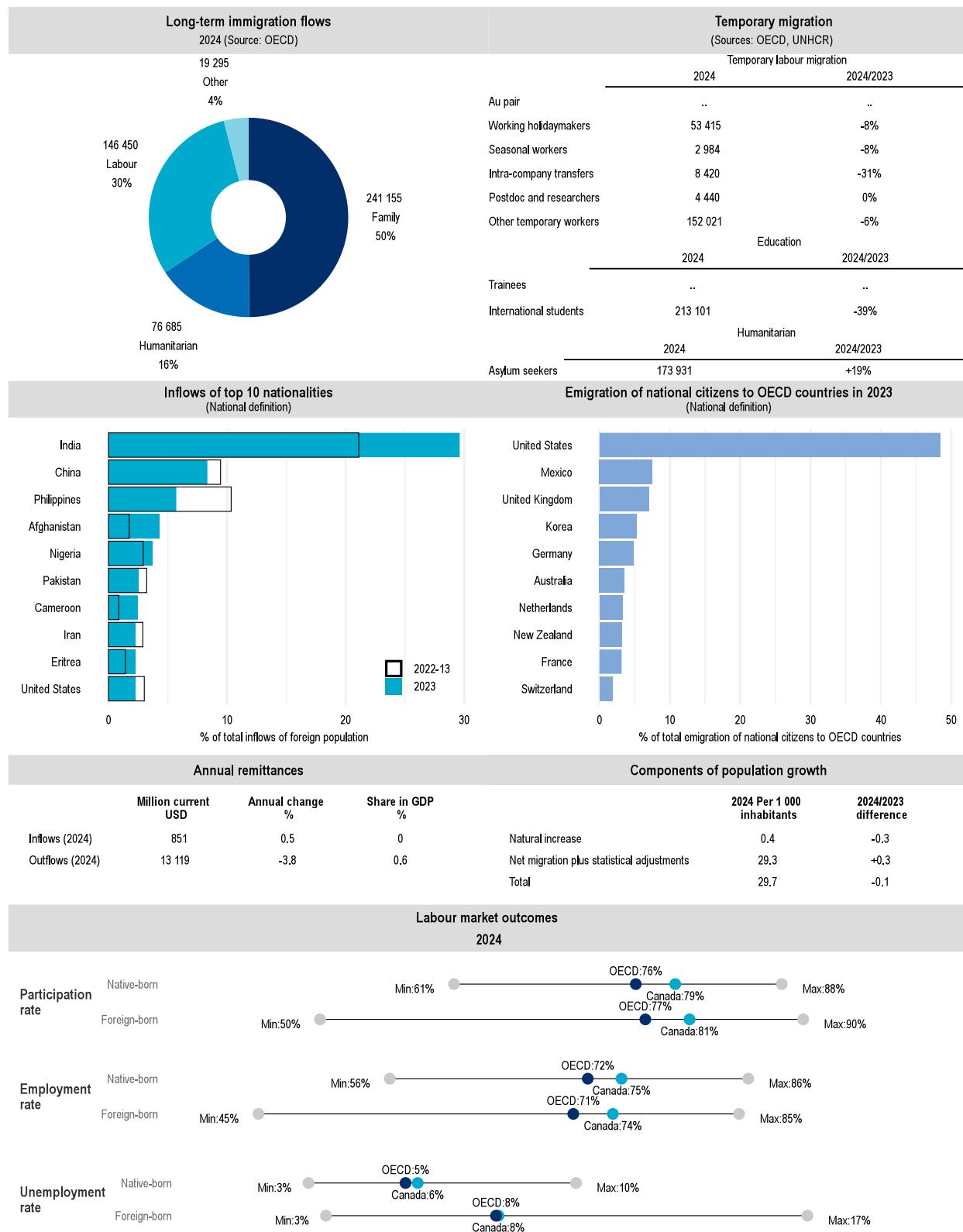
In January 2025, the minister launched the Rural and Francophone Community Immigration Pilots to provide pathways to permanent residence for newcomers who can help overcome critical labor job shortages in key sectors and wish to stay in select rural communities. These pilots build on the success of the Rural and Northern Immigration Pilot.

Canada remains committed to Francophone immigration. In 2024, Canada exceeded its 6% target by reaching 7.21% of admissions of French-speaking permanent residents outside Quebec. Canada's 2025-2027 Immigration Levels Plan includes a fixed target of 8.5% in 2025, along with notional targets of 9.5% in 2026, and 10% in 2027. Canada also launched the Francophone Minority Communities Student Pilot programme, where participants will benefit from a direct pathway to permanent status after obtaining their diploma, and access to settlement services while they're studying.

Canada launched the Home Care Worker Immigration Pilots in March 2025, which provide direct pathways to permanent residence for home care workers who support Canada's seniors, children and people living with disabilities.

For more information: www.canada.ca/en/immigration-refugees-citizenship.html.

Key figures on immigration and emigration – Canada



StatLink  <https://stat.link/tmpcox>

Chile

Foreign-born population – 2024	9.7% of the population	Main countries of birth:
1.9 million, 52% women	Evolution since 2014: +334%	Venezuela (38%), Peru (14%), Colombia (11%)

Venezuela, Colombia and Bolivia were the top three nationalities of newcomers in 2023. Among the top 15 countries of origin, China registered the strongest increase (200) and Venezuela the largest decrease (-89 000) in flows to Chile compared to the previous year.

In 2024, the number of first asylum applicants decreased by -31%, to reach around 2 500. The majority of applicants came from Venezuela (1 500), Colombia (600) and Cuba (100). The largest decrease concerned nationals of Venezuela (-800). Of the 1 850 decisions taken in 2024, 6% were positive.

Emigration of Chilean citizens to OECD countries increased by 13% in 2023, to 19 000. Approximately 46% of this group migrated to Spain, 12% to the United States and 9% to New Zealand.

At the end of 2023, the Chilean Government enacted Decree No. 181, officially establishing the new National Migration and Foreign Policy (PNME, for its acronym in Spanish). This policy is built around ten thematic pillars, includes 28 immediately applicable nationwide measures, and comprises a series of bills submitted to both the Chamber of Deputies and the Senate to reform the existing legal framework. The PNME aims to align Chile's immigration framework with constitutional and international standards, modernise immigration procedures, and enhance inter-agency co-ordination. Key priorities include promoting the regularisation of migrants, improving migrants' access to public services, and attracting highly qualified foreign nationals.

In February 2024, Chile enacted Law No. 21655 to address the steep rise in asylum applications. This law introduced stricter criteria for determining refugee status. It established a preliminary assessment phase to filter out "manifestly unfounded" applications, aiming to expedite genuine asylum claims. It also disqualifies applicants who spent more than 60 days in another country before arriving in Chile.

In November 2024, the Chamber of Deputies approved a bill to reform the Migration Law, amending 56 articles. Changes included expanding causes of expulsion to cover offenses such as domestic violence and illegal possession of weapons; implementing biometric data collection for foreign nationals; setting stricter controls on the entry of unaccompanied minors; and increasing penalties for those facilitating irregular migration. The bill also proposed extending the minimum residency period for naturalisation from five to ten years.

In December 2024, the Senate approved a bill extending reasons for revoking or denying residence permits. The National Migration Service may now deny permits to foreign nationals with repeated minor infractions, such as noise disturbances, street fighting, and unauthorised street vending. These infractions do not lead directly to deportation, but they can result in the revocation of temporary residence permits.

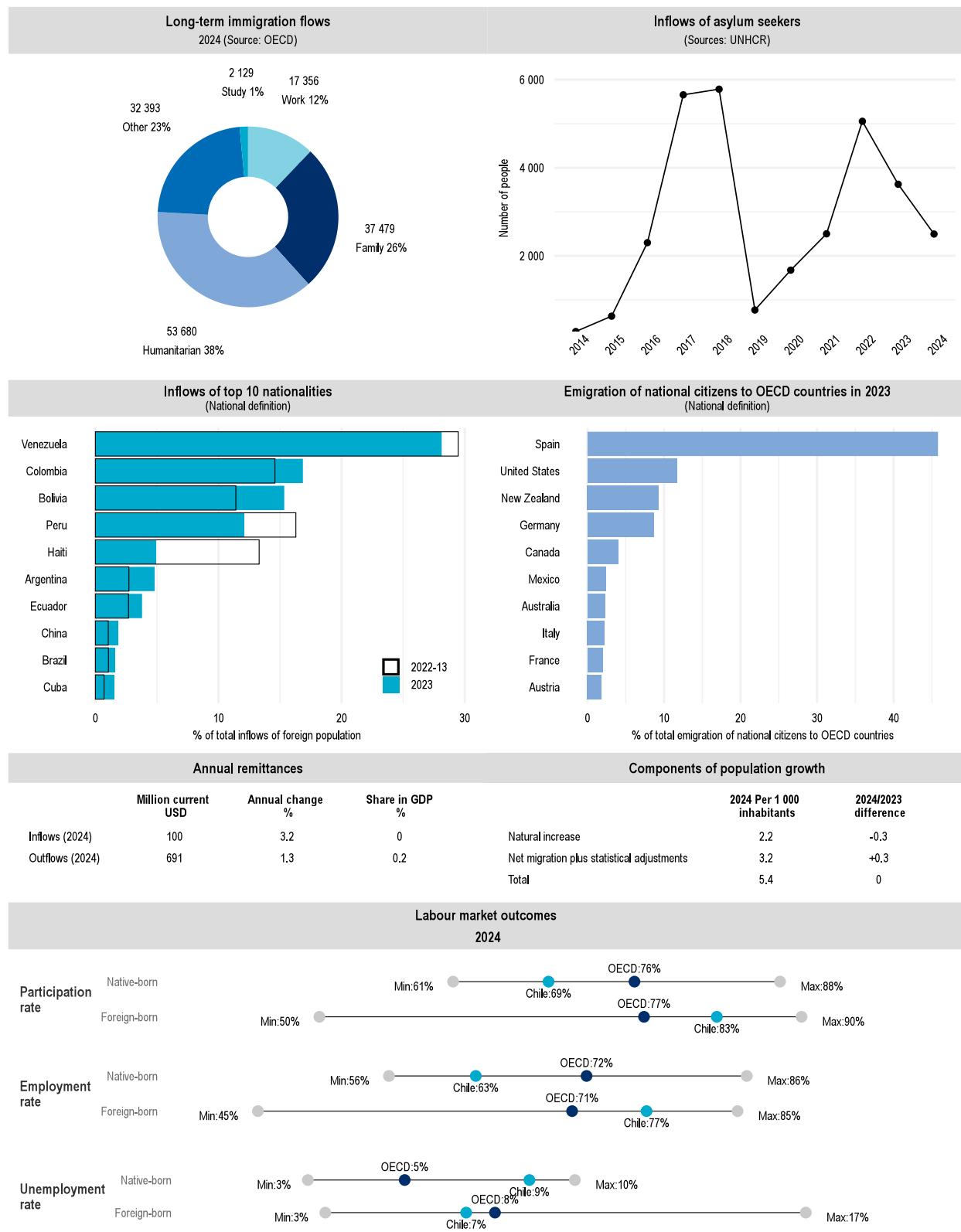
In January 2025, the Senate gave general approval to the migration reform bill. It must now be reviewed by the government's Commission on Decentralisation and Regionalisation, which will ensure that the law meets further criteria and standards.

By 2024, the National Migration Service reported 1 100 cases of expulsion: 690 administrative and 410 judicial. The latter were court-ordered and involved crimes such as robbery with violence, homicide or illegal weapon possession. The number of administrative expulsions is the highest in the last seven years. They reflect the government's efforts to enforce the current legislative framework and enhance national security.

Additionally, in December 2024, Latin America and Caribbean officials gathered in Santiago at a Ministerial event to adopt the Declaration and Plan of Action of Chile 2024-2034 (Cartagena + 40). This declaration provides a framework for regional co-operation to strengthen protection and inclusion for individuals displaced by environmental factors, underscoring the need for comprehensive policies to address climate-induced migration over the next decade.

For further information: www.extranjeria.gob.cl | www.serviciomigraciones.cl/en/home/

Key figures on immigration and emigration – Chile



StatLink <https://stat.link/a4u2dj>

China

Foreign-born population – 2020 (UNDESA)	0.1% of the population	Main countries of birth:
0.9 million, 39% women	Evolution since 2015: +6%	Viet Nam (44%), Korea (21%), Brazil (8%)

In 2024, the immigration management authorities in China inspected 610 million exit-entry travellers in total, marking a rise of 43.7% compared with the previous year. Specifically, 64.9 million were made by foreign nationals, reflecting a year-on-year increase of 82.9%. A total of 32.6 million trips were made by vehicles of transportation (planes, trains, ships, and cars) throughout the year, marking a year-on-year growth of 38.8%. The number of foreigners visiting China was experiencing a rapid growth trend and was gradually returning to the levels observed in 2019. Meanwhile, relevant authorities intensified actions against cross-border illegal and criminal activities in border areas, carried out winter crackdowns on public security offenses, and strengthened management over foreign nationals who illegally entered, resided, or worked in China.

To enhance the convenience for foreigners visiting China, the National Immigration Administration of China, in collaboration with the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, has been actively optimising visa policies, enhancing visa-free agreements with additional countries, streamlining visa processing procedures, and reducing processing times. Additionally, by maximising the advantages of policies such as port visas, regional entry visa exemptions, and transit visa exemptions, a more flexible, efficient, and convenient visa system for entry into China is being developed.

Currently, China has established visa exemption agreements encompassing different categories of passports with 157 countries and has entered into comprehensive visa exemption agreements with 29 countries. A unilateral visa-free policy has been introduced for 47 countries, including France, Germany, South Korea and Japan, allowing visa-free entry and stay for up to 30 days. Moreover, the transit visa-free policy has been extensively relaxed and optimised, extending the stay duration to 240 hours, increasing the number of applicable ports to 60, and expanding the stay activity areas to 24 provinces. Meanwhile, over 20 measures have been subsequently introduced, including a 30-day, visa-free entry policy for individuals from 59 countries to Hainan, a 15-day, visa-free allowance for foreign tourist groups arriving at coastal provinces by cruise, and the relaxation of port visa criteria, thoroughly satisfying the diverse needs of international visitors. According to statistics, China recorded 20.1 million visa-free entries in 2024, a year-on-year increase of 112.3%.

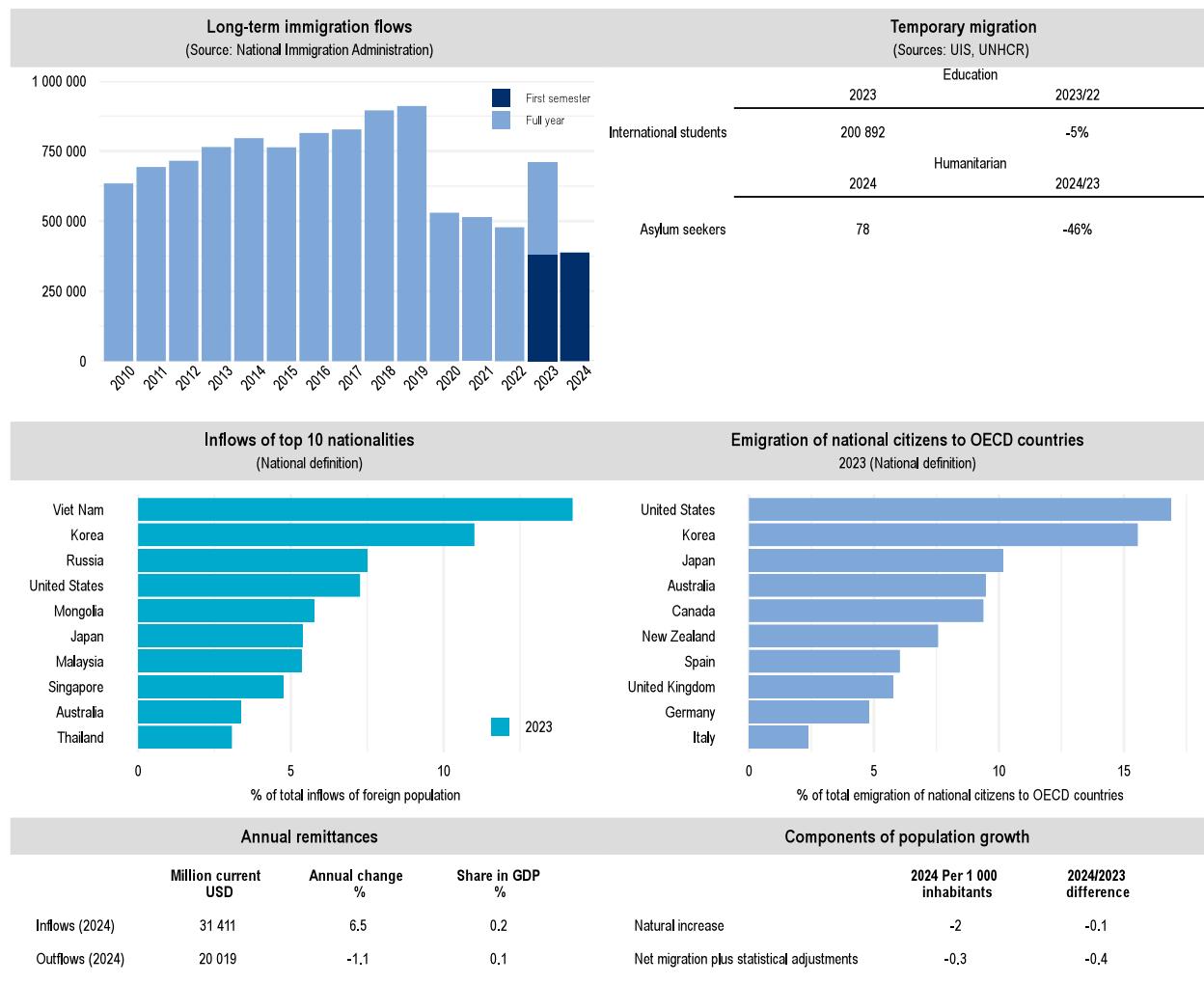
In December 2024, China integrated the physical Foreigner's Work Permit into the electronic Social Security Card. The Permit is now issued digitally. In most cases, applications, renewals and changes are done online through the Service System for Foreigner's Working in China platform. Moving forward, China decided to expand the institutional opening-up in migration management, implementing broader and more vigorous visa exemption policies, creating a more market-driven, law-based, and international business setting.

International student enrolment in China, following a partial reopening to degree-programme students in mid-2022, increased. While for the academic year 2021/22, there were 131 000 new entrants for the academic year 2022/23, up from 114 000 the previous year, and overall enrolment was stable at about 254 000, 24% below the 2019 level.

In terms of outflows of workers, China sent 409 000 workers abroad in 2024 through labour co-operation, an 18% increase from 2023. There were almost 600 000 Chinese workers abroad through labour co-operation at the end of 2024.

For further information: <https://en.nia.gov.cn>.

Key figures on immigration and emigration – China



StatLink <https://stat.link/5fhte9>

Colombia

Foreign-born population – 2024	5.8% of the population	Main countries of birth:
3.1 million, 50% women	Evolution since 2015: +2 005%	Venezuela (95%), United States (1%), Ecuador (1%)

Venezuela, the United States and Peru were the top three nationalities of newcomers in 2021. Among the top 15 countries of origin, the United States registered the strongest increase (2 700) and Venezuela the largest decrease (-38 000) in flows to Colombia compared to the previous year.

In 2024, the number of first asylum applicants increased by 22%, to reach around 7 100. The majority of applicants came from Venezuela (6 400), Cuba (300) and Ecuador (89). The largest increase since 2023 concerned nationals of Venezuela (700) and the largest decrease nationals of Russia (-7). Of the 1 590 decisions taken in 2024, 1% were positive.

Emigration of Colombian citizens to OECD countries increased by 3% in 2023, to 227 000. Approximately 75% of this group migrated to Spain, 12% to the United States and 3% to Germany.

According to the Administrative Unity of Colombian Migration (UAEMC), the migratory control authority, 53 283 foreign identity cards were issued in 2024, of which 20% were from Venezuela, 13% from the United States, 8% from Ecuador, 5% from Mexico and 5% from Peru. In this way, in 2024, Colombia continued the implementation of the Temporal Statute of Protection to Venezuelan migration (ETPV) established through the 216 Decree in 2021, to regularise the status of Venezuelan migrants, with the aim of facilitating their economic and social integration. Currently the pre-registration on the ETPV is available exclusively for the underaged. Moreover, in September 2024, the government signed the 1209 Decree under which special stay permits to approximately 540 000 Venezuelan migrants who are guardians of minors residing in the country were issued. This initiative aimed at integrating adults responsible for around 270 000 children and adolescents, who already held temporary protection permits.

In December 2024, the Minister of Foreign Affairs introduced a two-year Special Visitor Visa (*Visa de Visitante Especial*) designed for eligible Venezuelan nationals. This visa offers a valuable opportunity for those who meet specific criteria to regularise their status in Colombia and to access employment, healthcare and education.

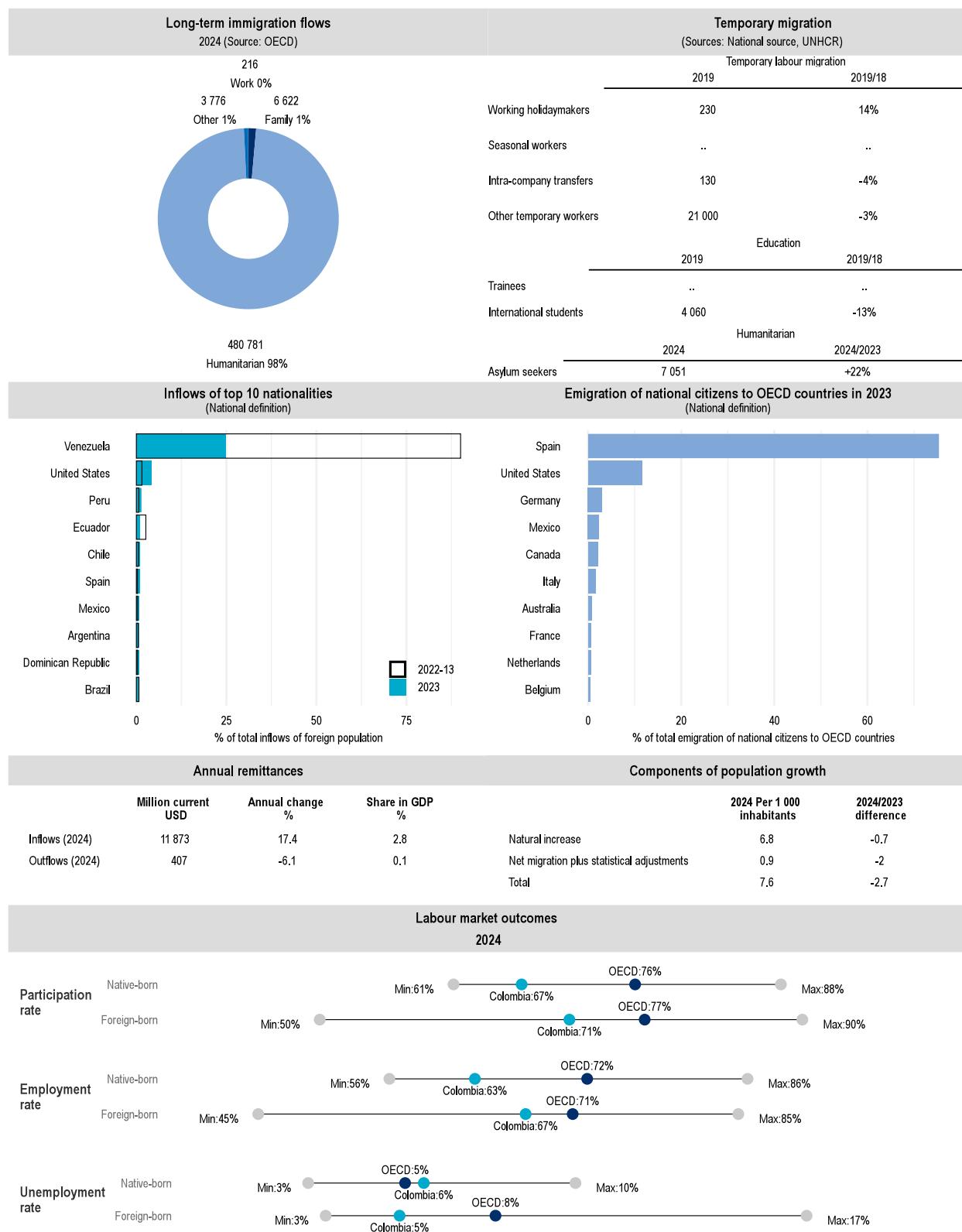
Many Venezuelan nationals have faced persistent challenges in renewing their passports, which has significantly affected their ability to travel and complete immigration procedures. In response, the Colombian Ministry of Foreign Affairs issued Resolution 2231 of 2021, which recognises expired Venezuelan passports – or those nearing expiration – as valid for purposes of entry, transit, legal stay or departure from Colombian territory. This recognition applies for a period of ten years from the expiration date of the passport or the extension stamped within it.

To be eligible for the Special Visitor Visa, applicants must be Venezuelan nationals without any other nationality, have resided in Colombia as of 4 December 2024. This visa grants a work permit, allowing holders to be employed by any company or be self-employed, and provides access to healthcare and education services. Together with Resolution 2231 of 2021, which recognises expired Venezuelan passports for migration purposes, this visa has played a vital role in supporting legal entry, stay, and integration of Venezuelan nationals through both regular and humanitarian pathways. In February 2025, the United Nations Special Rapporteur on the human rights of migrants conducted an official visit to Colombia. The visit focussed on assessing the human rights situation of migrants and asylum seekers, particularly at border areas with Panama. The rapporteur emphasised the need to enhance state presence in border areas, establish state-run shelters, and raise awareness about the risks of crossing the Darien jungle.

In September 2024, Colombia launched the 2024-2025 programme for the Global Forum on Migration and Development (GFMD).

For further information: www.migracioncolombia.gov.co/

Key figures on immigration and emigration – Colombia



StatLink <https://stat.link/87aeqx>

Costa Rica

Foreign-born population – 2024	12.3% of the population	Main countries of birth:
0.6 million, 49% women	Evolution since 2015: +53%	Nicaragua (67%), Venezuela (5%), Colombia (5%)

In 2024, the number of first asylum applicants decreased by -18%, to reach around 28 000. The majority of applicants came from Nicaragua (23 000), Cuba (1 700) and Venezuela (1 300). The largest increase since 2023 concerned nationals of Colombia (100) and the largest decrease nationals of Nicaragua (-5 000). Of the 10 000 decisions taken in 2024, 19% were positive.

Emigration of Costa Rican citizens to OECD countries decreased by -15% in 2023, to 4 100. Approximately 63% of this group migrated to the United States, 8% to Mexico and 7% to Germany.

Costa Rica continues to play a pivotal role as a transit and destination country for immigrants, exhibiting a marked increase in asylum applications in recent years. In response, the government has implemented a series of modifications to its asylum system in the past year. Most notably, in June 2024, Costa Rica introduced the Executive Decree No. 44501-MGP, which constitutes a reform of the country's refugee regulations. Among the changes introduced by the decree are the removal of the previously established deadline for claiming asylum and the extension of the same protection entitlements and safeguards granted to asylum-seekers as to recognised refugees while their applications are being processed. Furthermore, as of 1 July 2024, asylum seekers are eligible to receive an identification document and work permit, thus enabling them to participate in formal employment. These measures are designed to ensure the protection of the rights of asylum seekers in Costa Rica.

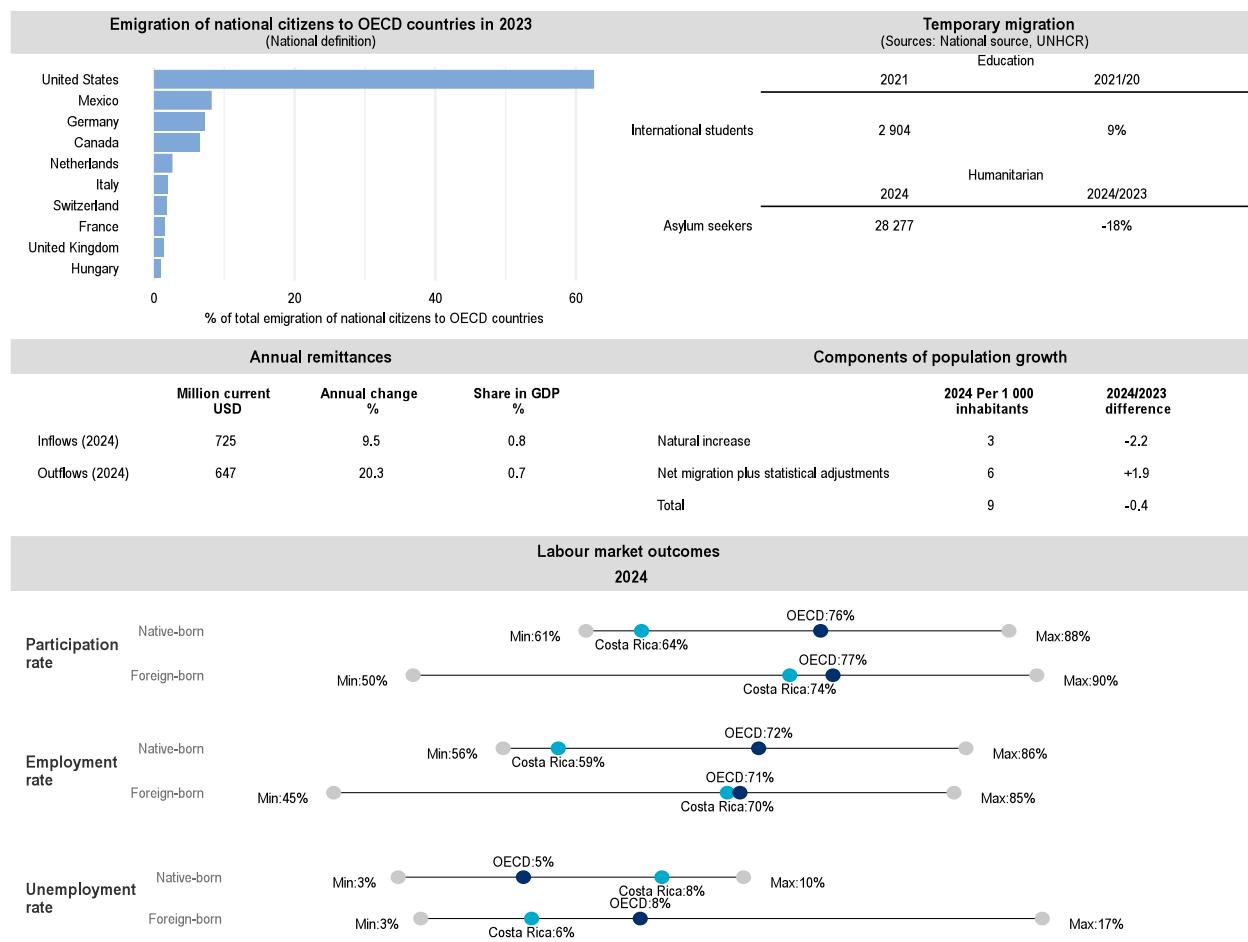
Additionally, foreign nationals are permitted to submit applications for temporary residence while abroad, provided that they have signed a specialised power of attorney (POA) authorising a third party to represent them. Moreover, the resolution enables individuals who have exceeded their authorised period of stay to submit immigration applications, conditional upon payment of a fine. Further regulations relate to birth certificates, biometric data and other documentation submitted in support of immigration applications. The objective of these amendments is to modernise Costa Rica's immigration system by enhancing the efficiency and transparency of immigration processes.

In March 2025, Costa Rica introduced two reforms regarding higher education institutions. Firstly, the new provisions concern accreditation pathways for eligible higher education institutions, with the new regulations allowing said institutions to obtain company-style accreditation with the DGME. This amendment is intended to facilitate the immigration procedures for foreign faculty and students. Secondly, the DGME has expanded special immigration categories to include interns and short-term academic or cultural visitors, and processing times for these individuals. These reforms aim to strengthen Costa Rica's standing as a destination for international academic collaboration.

In May 2025, Costa Rica and Guatemala signed a joint protocol to regulate labour migration flows between the two countries, promote fair recruitment practices, and provide employers with legal certainty when hiring migrant workers. The protocol clearly defines the roles and responsibilities of each government agency to strengthen interinstitutional co-ordination – including Public Employment Services – to effectively meet labour market needs in both countries.

For further information: www.migracion.go.cr.

Key figures on immigration and emigration – Costa Rica



StatLink <https://stat.link/5xb82g>

Croatia

Foreign-born population – 2024	13.4% of the population
0.5 million, 51% women	Evolution since 2014: -7%

In 2024, 3 000 new immigrants obtained a residence permit longer than 12 months in Croatia (excluding EU citizens), -66.4% compared to 2023. This figure comprises around 44% labour migrants, 44% family members (including accompanying family), 3% who came for education reasons and 10% other migrants. Around 400 short-term permits were issued to international students and 84 000 to temporary and seasonal labour migrants (excluding intra-EU migration).

Ukraine, Bosnia and Herzegovina and Nepal were the top three nationalities of newcomers in 2023. Among the top 15 countries of origin, Ukraine registered the strongest increase (1 000) and Germany the largest decrease (-200) in flows to Croatia compared to the previous year.

In 2024, the number of first asylum applicants decreased by -39%, to reach around 1 600. The majority of applicants came from Russia (300), Syria (200) and Türkiye (100). The largest increase since 2023 concerned nationals of Egypt (25) and the largest decrease nationals of Russia (-400). Of the 310 decisions taken in 2024, 21% were positive.

Emigration of Croatians to OECD countries decreased by -15% in 2023, to 30 000. Approximately 43% of this group migrated to Germany, 27% to Austria and 9% to Switzerland.

In 2025, the Croatian Government adopted amendments to the Aliens Act targeting the residence and employment of third-country nationals. The amendments align national legislation with EU law while addressing the needs of the Croatian labour market by easing access for highly skilled workers, especially in the IT sector, while tightening requirements for employers and strengthening legal protections for workers.

The law outlines cases exempt from needing a dedicated stay and work permit or registration. Unless exempted, the work permits are generally tied to a labour market test from the Croatian Employment Service (CES) to ensure that local workers are prioritised. Work permit holders can now stay for up to three years and may change jobs and take on supplementary employment. Seasonal work permits may now last up to nine months, while Digital Nomad stays were extended from 12 to 18 months.

The validity of the EU Blue Card was extended from two to four years. Seeking to attract more highly skilled IT professionals, applicants who lack formal educational requirements, but have at least three years of relevant IT experience may also be eligible. EU Blue Card holders can now change employers without a new permit and engage in self-employed or professional activities. Both EU Blue Card holders and work permit holders can be unemployed for a limited time without losing their status.

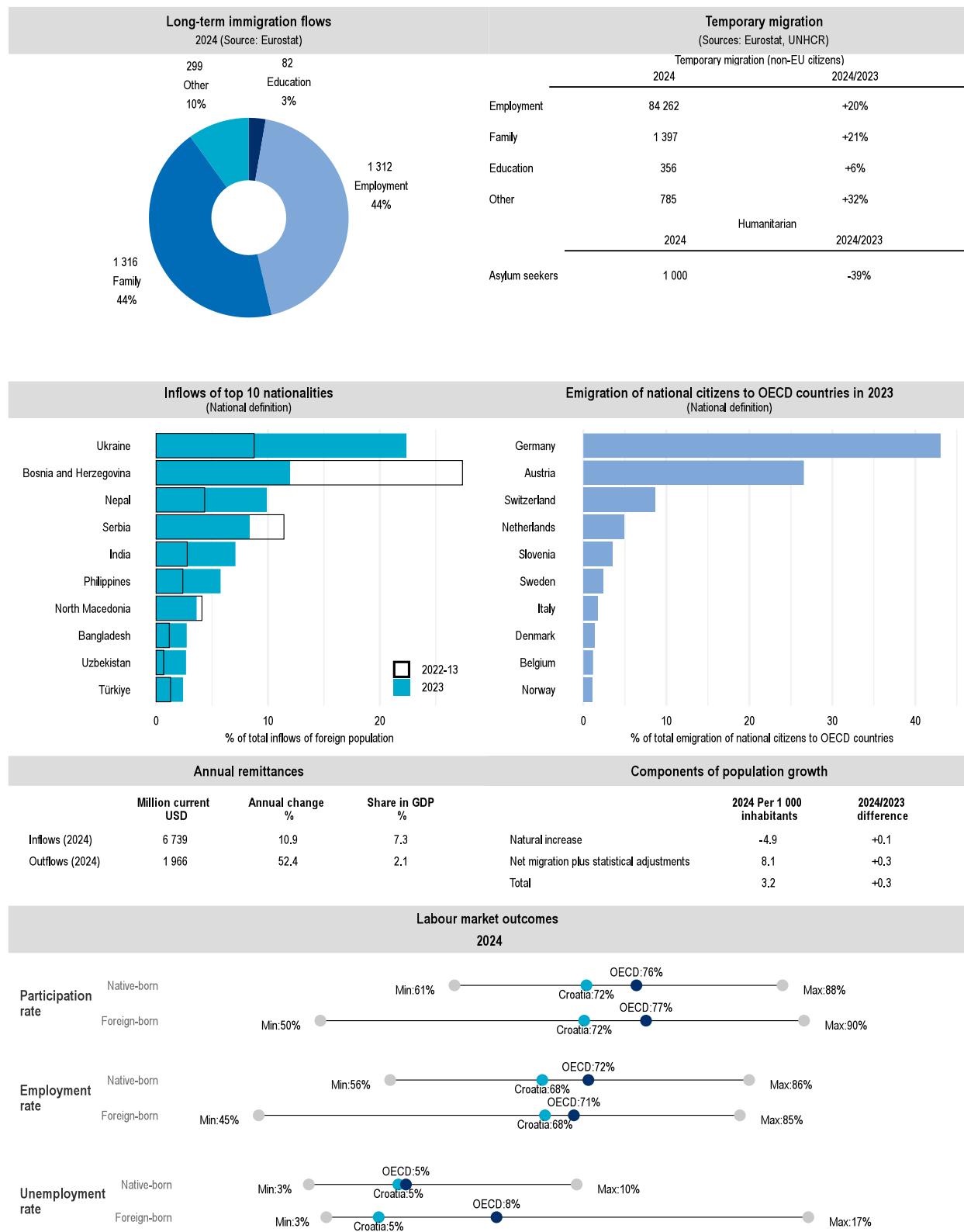
Employers hiring foreign workers face increased obligations and responsibilities. To qualify for the employment of foreign workers, employers must meet a set of requirements including having had employed at least one Croatian or EU/EAA/Swiss Confederation national for the past 12 months and being actively engaged in economic activity. Moreover, employers who were found to be engaging in undeclared work in the past are forbidden from hiring foreign workers. Given past cases of visa issuances to foreigners who never arrived or used their visas to enter other Schengen countries, recruitment agencies are facing increased scrutiny, and employers face a fine if the third-country national does not start work as stated in their employment contract or if the contract is terminated within three months. Regulations also aim to deter illegal employment of third-country nationals via increased financial penalties. Furthermore, in cases when employers are intermediaries, accommodation for workers must be adequate.

The reforms also include a set of incentives for the immigration and return of Croatian emigrants. Foreigners of Croatian descent and their family members are eligible for a two-year temporary residence permit that allows them to work or be self-employed without a permit, access to education programmes, and the option to apply for Croatian citizenship immediately after receiving their residence permit.

Croatia also advanced the digitalisation of its immigration processes in 2024.

For more information: <https://emn.gov.hr> | <https://mup.gov.hr/>

Key figures on immigration and emigration – Croatia



Czechia

Foreign-born population – 2024	9.9% of the population	Main countries of birth:
1.1 million, 52% women	Evolution since 2014: +170%	Ukraine (49%), Slovak Republic (22%), Russia (4%)

In 2024, Czechia received 40 000 new immigrants on a long-term or permanent basis (including changes of status and free mobility), 7.3% more than in 2023. This figure comprises 30% immigrants benefitting from free mobility, 43% labour migrants, 25% family members (including accompanying family) and 0.5% humanitarian migrants. Around 5 000 permits were issued to tertiary-level international students and 1 400 to temporary and seasonal labour migrants (excluding intra-EU migration). In addition, 79 000 intra-EU postings were recorded in 2023, an 8% increase compared to 2022. These posted workers are generally on short-term contracts.

Ukraine, the Slovak Republic and the Philippines were the top three nationalities of newcomers in 2023. Among the top 15 countries of origin, the Philippines registered the strongest increase (900) and Ukraine the largest decrease (-205 000) in flows to Czechia compared to the previous year.

In 2024, the number of first asylum applicants decreased by -8.8%, to reach around 1 000. The majority of applicants came from Ukraine (200), Uzbekistan (200) and Viet Nam (100). The largest increase since 2023 concerned nationals of Ukraine (70) and the largest decrease nationals of Türkiye (-100). Of the 770 decisions taken in 2024, 21% were positive.

Emigration of Czech citizens to OECD countries increased by 4% in 2023, to 14 000. Approximately 32% of this group migrated to Germany, 11% to Austria and 9% to Switzerland.

Under the digital nomad programme, from July 2023 eligible foreign nationals can now obtain visas which allow them to stay in Czechia while they either telework for their home employer or work as a self-employed freelancer. Applicants must have either three years of experience in the field of information technology, or hold a university level degree, or higher, in science, technology, engineering, or mathematics. Family members of the Nomads may also be included into this Programme. In February 2025 the Digital Nomad visa was expanded to include applicants from Brazil, Israel, Mexico and Singapore, and marketing specialists may now also apply for the visa.

In August 2024, the government approved the new law on Stay of foreigners in the territory of Czechia. Among the main changes are: digitalisation of the foreigners' residence register (routine); new system of registration of EU citizens who intend to stay in Czechia more than 90 days; and the strengthening of the role of a guarantor, i.e. a person or an institution who/which will guarantee the purpose of a foreigner's stay in the territory. This new law will come into effect in January 2026.

Changes have been made to work authorisation rules. From July 2024, employers of nationals of Australia, Canada, Israel, Japan, New Zealand, Singapore, South Korea, the United Kingdom and the United States will no longer need to conduct a labour market test for positions they seek to fill with a foreign worker, and they will not need to publish a vacancy regarding the role. Additionally, nationals of the above countries will be able to change employers in Czechia without waiting for government approval. From March 2025, these relaxed work authorisation rules also apply for Chinese Taipei.

Czechia's amendments to its EU Blue Card regime, and its restrictions on long-term visas and residence permits, along with other law changes, came into force in July 2023. The implementation process was hastened because many of these amendments were necessary for the country to align with the EU Blue Card Directive.

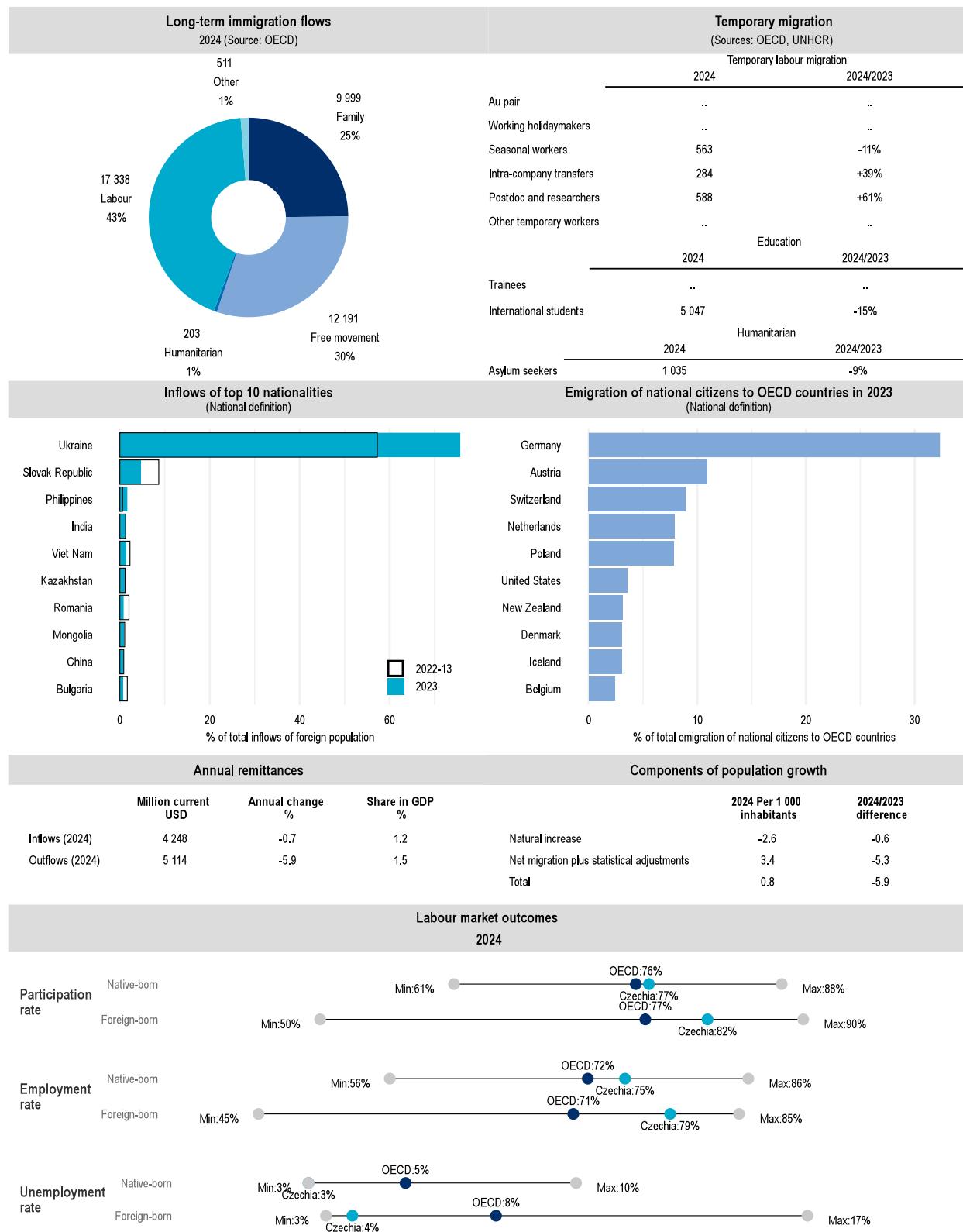
From September 2023, foreign nationals can source travel and health insurance from any insurer authorised to operate in Czechia.

After July 2024, any registration, deregistration of employment status or other labour-related change (i.e. change of employer, employee transfer) has to be submitted online instead of by mail or in person (depending on the situation).

Since September 2024 the period of providing of humanitarian accommodation for Ukrainian war refugees has been shortened from 150 to 90 days. A new law will provide a special type of long-term residence permit, for Ukrainians who were granted temporary protection, during 2025, entitling these persons to stay in Czechia for 5 years.

For more information: www.mvcr.cz | www.mpsv.cz | www.cizinci.cz.

Key figures on immigration and emigration – Czechia



StatLink <https://stat.link/5me3xj>

Denmark

Foreign-born population – 2024	12.2% of the population	Main countries of birth:
0.7 million, 51% women	Evolution since 2014: +52%	Poland (7%), Ukraine (6%), Romania (5%)

In 2024, Denmark received 54 000 new immigrants on a long-term or permanent basis (including changes of status and free mobility), -5.3% compared to 2023. This figure comprises 56% immigrants benefitting from free mobility, 21% labour migrants, 21% family members (including accompanying family) and 2% humanitarian migrants. Around 12 000 permits were issued to tertiary-level international students and 5 100 to temporary and seasonal labour migrants (excluding intra-EU migration). In addition, 63 000 intra-EU postings were recorded in 2023, a 45% increase compared to 2022. These posted workers are generally on short-term contracts.

Ukraine, Romania and Germany were the top three nationalities of newcomers in 2023. Among the top 15 countries of origin, Nepal registered the strongest increase (1 200) and Ukraine the largest decrease (-22 000) in flows to Denmark compared to the previous year.

In 2024, the number of first asylum applicants decreased by -7.1%, to reach around 2 200. The majority of applicants came from Syria (400), Türkiye (300) and Eritrea (200). The largest increase since 2023 concerned nationals of Türkiye (200) and the largest decrease nationals of Afghanistan (-300). Of the 1 510 decisions taken in 2024, 47% were positive.

Emigration of Danish citizens to OECD countries decreased by -1% in 2023, to 9 700. Approximately 18% of this group migrated to Sweden, 12% to Spain and 11% to Norway.

Effective January 2025, the Danish Agency for International Recruitment and Integration updated the Positive Lists for people with a higher education and skilled workers. Social and healthcare workers were added to the Skilled Work Positive List as of July 2024, with a quota of 1 000 residence and work permits. The Higher Education Positive List now includes 162 job titles, and the Skilled Work Positive List 49 titles. New additions include attorney-at-law, language teacher and IT architect. These updates aim to address labour shortages across sectors.

Furthermore, since July 2024, foreigners with residence permits under the Authorisation Residence Scheme are exempt from work permits, allowing immediate employment for adaptation and training purposes. Moreover, a new authorisation residence scheme for requested healthcare professionals was introduced. Foreigners on the authorisation scheme can also stay in Denmark up to six months after their permit expires to search for a job.

From 2 May 2025, students from third countries on non-state-approved higher education programmes will no longer be granted a work permit, a six-month job search period and the right to bring accompanying family members. New rules for family reunification came into effect July 2024. The integration requirement can now be met by five years of ordinary full-time employment with significant Danish communication, as an alternative to passing the Danish language test "Prøve i Dansk 3". The financial guarantee requirement was reduced by half to DKK 57 000.

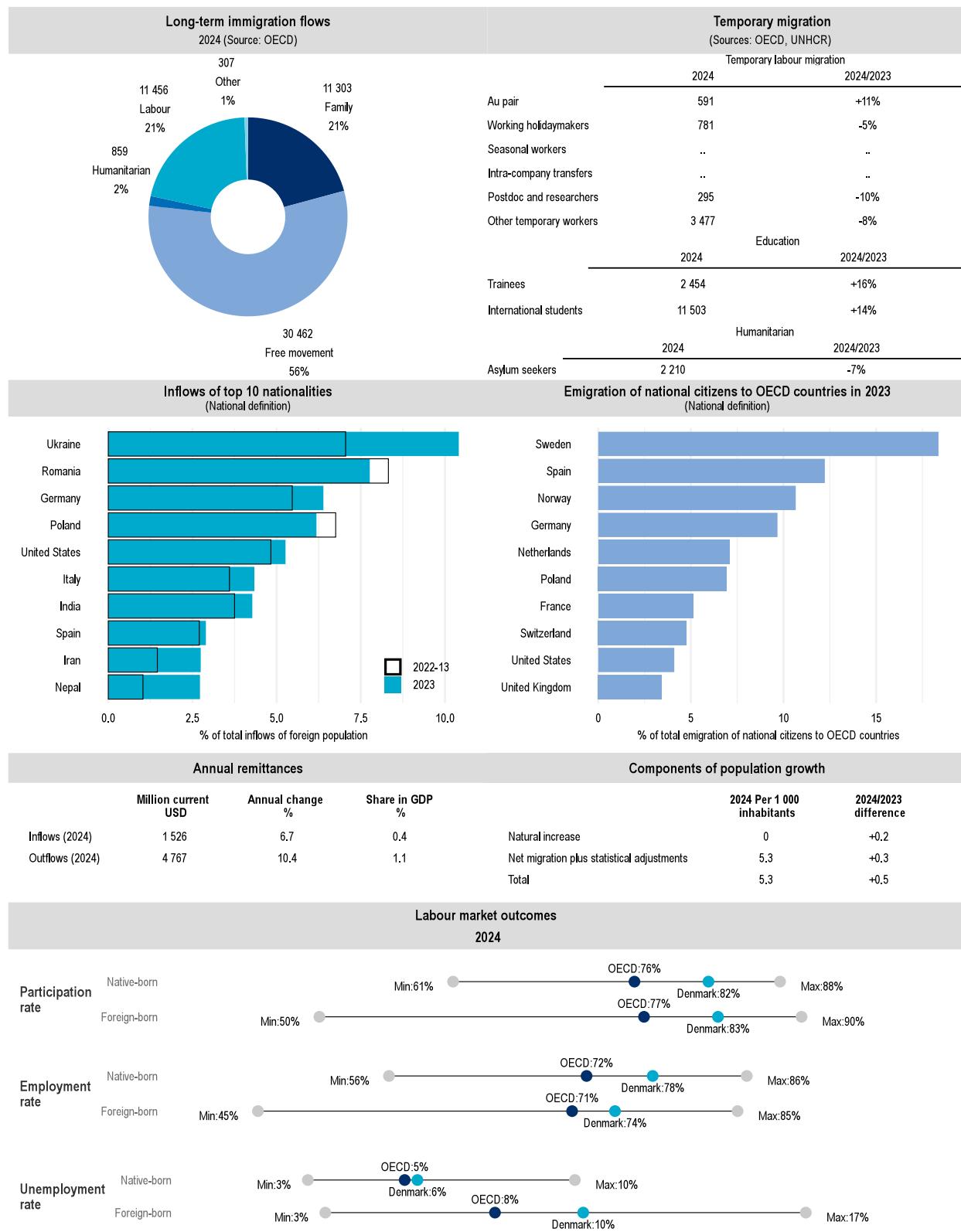
From January 2025, government processing fees were adjusted: work permit applications increased to DKK 6 055, family reunification fees decreased to DKK 8 575, permanent residence permits now cost DKK 7 475, and accompanying family members' permits cost DKK 2 380.

Denmark extended special residence permits for displaced people from Ukraine to 17 March 2027. Educational provisions allowing municipalities to use English or Ukrainian as languages of instruction for children, along with Ukrainian materials and online teaching, were extended until 17 March 2026.

In May 2024, the Danish Parliament reaffirmed mandatory Danish language tests in primary and lower secondary schools where over 30% of students live in socially vulnerable areas. These tests apply to all kindergarten pupils and to pupils in grades one to nine who no longer receive Danish as a second language support. The tests aim to improve language skills and ensure social and academic inclusion. Pupils must pass the language test once during the first year in order to advance to the next grade.

For further information: www.uim.dk (in Danish) | www.nyidanmark.dk.

Key figures on immigration and emigration – Denmark



StatLink  <https://stat.link/xgo821>

Estonia

Foreign-born population – 2024	17.9% of the population	Main countries of birth:
0.2 million, 56% women	Evolution since 2014: +24%	Russia (44%), Ukraine (29%), Belarus (4%)

In 2024, Estonia received 8 900 new immigrants on a long-term or permanent basis (including changes of status and free mobility), -29% compared to 2023. This figure comprises 35% immigrants benefitting from free mobility, 30% labour migrants, 20% family members (including accompanying family) and 15% humanitarian migrants. Around 500 permits were issued to tertiary-level international students and 4 700 to temporary and seasonal labour migrants (excluding intra-EU migration).

Ukraine, Russia and Finland were the top three nationalities of newcomers in 2023. Among the top 15 countries of origin, Uzbekistan registered the strongest increase (57) and Ukraine the largest decrease (-20 000) in flows to Estonia compared to the previous year.

In 2024, the number of first asylum applicants decreased by -67%, to reach around 1 300. The majority of applicants came from Ukraine (1 200), Russia (40) and Belarus (15). The largest increase since 2023 concerned nationals of India (5) and the largest decrease nationals of Ukraine (-2 600). Of the 1 410 decisions taken in 2024, 96% were positive.

Emigration of Estonian citizens to OECD countries decreased by -7% in 2023, to 4 300. Approximately 32% of this group migrated to Finland, 10% to Germany and 10% to Sweden.

In 2025, Estonia continued policy discussions on labour migration, with a particular focus on attracting highly skilled talent. Despite interest in raising the immigration quota to better reflect labour market needs, the annual quota remained unchanged and underutilised in 2024 – partly due to an economic slowdown and subdued employer demand, but also because most labour migrants have historically come from Russia and Ukraine. These flows have either declined significantly or shifted into other migration categories. This evolving context has prompted renewed debate on the structure and purpose of the quota system, with proposals for a more flexible model – potentially linked to economic performance – under consideration for 2025. In parallel, Estonia has continued to promote talent attraction by simplifying procedures for highly qualified workers and supporting innovation-led sectors. In May 2024, Estonia transposed the revised EU Blue Card Directive, introducing more flexible eligibility criteria, including recognition of professional experience, shorter minimum contract durations, and greater labour market mobility.

On 1 January 2025, amendments to the Statutory Fees Act came into force, raising state fees for identity documents and immigration services. The increase reflects actual processing costs and is intended to encourage use of digital self-service platforms.

In response to geopolitical developments, Estonia introduced new restrictions. As of March 2025, Russian citizens with non-biometric passports are no longer permitted entry or eligible for Estonian Schengen visas. Affected individuals may apply for biometric passports until September 2025. In May, Estonia also suspended visa-free travel for Georgian diplomatic and service passport holders, following a partial suspension of the EU-Georgia visa facilitation agreement. Additionally, legislative proposals are under development to limit e-residency access for nationals of high-risk countries, with implementation expected in 2026.

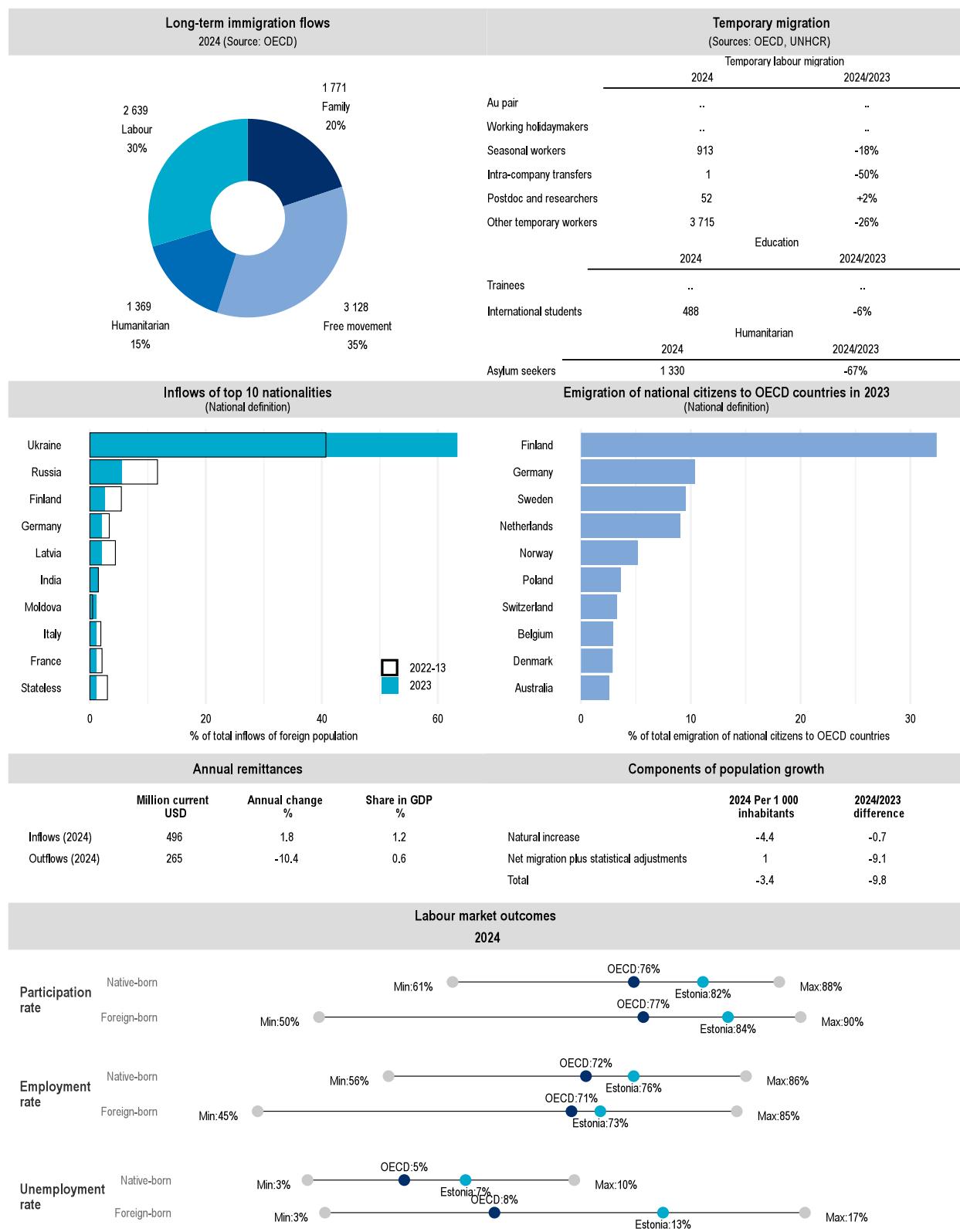
Estonia further strengthened border management with an additional EUR 19.4 million in EU funding approved in December 2024 for surveillance upgrades, mobile ID tools, and anti-drone technologies. The Border Management and Visa Policy programme was also amended to support the rollout of EU "Smart Borders" systems.

Estonia continues to adjust integration policies in response to shifting migration dynamics, particularly the arrival of Ukrainian refugees since 2022. Ukrainian nationals account for approximately three-quarters of new arrivals in recent years. In January 2025, the Ministry of Culture and the Integration Foundation expanded support for language learning and orientation, including free A2 and B1-level study groups. A broader review of the national integration strategy was launched in March 2025, focussing on programme effectiveness and inclusive service delivery, with stakeholder consultations underway.

Estonia also extended temporary protection for Ukrainian nationals until 4 March 2026. Beneficiaries are required to apply for renewal through the Police and Border Guard Board's self-service portal within the designated time window before their current permit expires.

For further information: www.kul.ee | www.siseministeerium.ee | www.politsei.ee | www.emn.ee.

Key figures on immigration and emigration – Estonia



StatLink <https://stat.link/pwdxvl>

Finland

Foreign-born population – 2024	9.5% of the population	Main countries of birth:
0.5 million, 48% women	Evolution since 2014: +76%	Former USSR (14%), Estonia (9%), Sweden (6%)

In 2024, Finland received 35 000 new immigrants on a long-term or permanent basis (including changes of status and free mobility), -19% compared to 2023. This figure comprises 16% immigrants benefitting from free mobility, 22% labour migrants, 55% family members (including accompanying family) and 6% humanitarian migrants. Around 12 000 permits were issued to tertiary-level international students and 5 300 to temporary and seasonal labour migrants (excluding intra-EU migration). In addition, 39 000 intra-EU postings were recorded in 2023, a 24% increase compared to 2022. These posted workers are generally on short-term contracts.

Ukraine, Russia and the Philippines were the top three nationalities of newcomers in 2023. Among the top 15 countries of origin, Ukraine registered the strongest increase (18 000) and Russia the largest decrease (-1 600) in flows to Finland compared to the previous year.

In 2024, the number of first asylum applicants decreased by -49%, to reach around 2 300. The majority of applicants came from Somalia (300), Afghanistan (200) and Türkiye (200). The largest increase since 2023 concerned nationals of Nigeria (50) and the largest decrease nationals of Syria (-500). Of the 2 500 decisions taken in 2024, 54% were positive.

Emigration of Finnish citizens to OECD countries decreased by -3% in 2023, to 9 200. Approximately 18% of this group migrated to Sweden, 15% to Spain and 11% to the Netherlands.

A number of policy changes have been introduced with the goal of restricting the inflows of asylum seekers. Since July 2024, the Border Security Act allows for restriction of asylum applications at specific border areas. This includes the ongoing closure of land border crossings with Russia, which have been shut since 4 April 2024. The government has also capped the annual quota for resettled refugees at 500 from 2024. Furthermore, while Finland continues to implement the EU's Temporary Protection Directive for displaced Ukrainians, extended until 4 March 2026, eligibility has been tightened to exclude third-country nationals who held temporary permits in Ukraine prior to the conflict. Amendments to the Aliens Act now prohibit asylum applicants from switching to work-based or education-based residence permit procedures while in Finland.

Concurrently, however, Finland has continued attempts to attract talent to support domestic labour supply through the Talent Boost Programme. Policies include for instance a partnership model for targeted measures to increase recruitment from selected countries of origin. In legislative terms, on 13 May 2024, Finland implemented new EU Blue Card rules to attract highly skilled professionals. Alongside this, Finland has strengthened the requirements for residence permits for an employed person by, effective as of January 2025, introducing a minimum monthly salary requirement of EUR 1 600. Additionally, visa-exempt nationals and Schengen Visa holders can no longer apply in-country for most first residence permits, including work- and study-based categories, except for certain groups like family members of Finnish citizens and researchers. This is meant to promote well-managed immigration as first permits are applied for abroad.

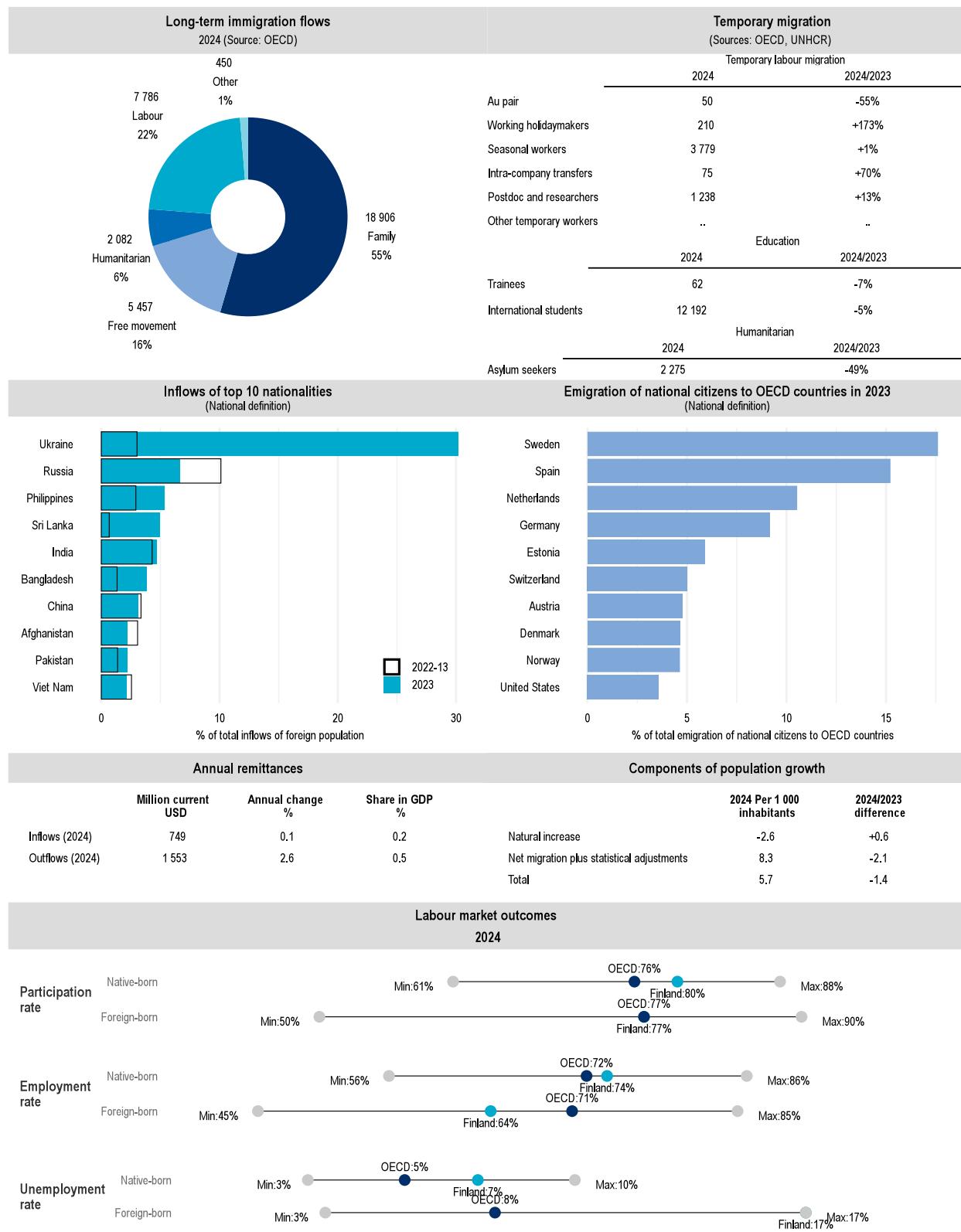
The Finnish Government has also introduced significant changes to its integration policies, aimed at encouraging self-reliance and reducing public spending. Policies in this domain include a reduction in the period during which municipalities are reimbursed for supporting refugee integration (from four to three years for quota refugees, and from three to two years for other beneficiaries of international protection). In addition, some other compensations paid to municipalities and well-being services counties were also cut or reduced (e.g. the level of the imputed specified transfers, reimbursement of income support, interpreting costs). Alongside this, immigrants who fail to notify authorities of missed integration appointments may be charged fees for unused interpretation services. And, effective as of July 2024, the maximum age for after-care support for unaccompanied minors has been reduced from 25 to 23.

Finland's integration strategy is increasingly focussed on employment, with new measures to link work-based residence permits more closely to active employment. For instance, recent proposals would require work-based permit holders to leave Finland if they remain unemployed for more than three months, except for specialists and entrepreneurs who would have a six-month job-seeking period.

Finally, the Finnish Government is tightening the path to citizenship through reforms of the Citizenship Act, extending the required period of residence for naturalisation from five to eight years. Only time spent on a valid residence permit will count towards this requirement.

For further information: <https://intermin.fi/> | <https://tem.fi/> | www.emn.fi.

Key figures on immigration and emigration – Finland



StatLink  <https://stat.link/5yc0m2>

France

Foreign-born population – 2024	14% of the population	Main countries of birth:
9.3 million, 52% women	Evolution since 2014: +21%	Algeria (17%), Morocco (12%), Portugal (7%)

In 2024, France received 298 000 new immigrants on a long-term or permanent basis (including changes of status and free mobility), -2.6% compared to 2023. This figure comprises 22% immigrants benefitting from free mobility, 20% labour migrants, 34% family members (including accompanying family) and 14% humanitarian migrants. Around 104 000 permits were issued to tertiary-level international students and 41 000 to temporary and seasonal labour migrants (excluding intra-EU migration). In addition, 375 000 intra-EU postings were recorded in 2023, a 11% increase compared to 2022. These posted workers are generally on short-term contracts.

Algeria, Morocco and Tunisia were the top three nationalities of newcomers in 2023. Among the top 15 countries of origin, China registered the strongest increase (1 200) and Morocco the largest decrease (-9 300) in flows to France compared to the previous year.

In 2024, the number of first asylum applicants decreased by -9.8%, to reach around 131 000. The majority of applicants came from Ukraine (13 000), Afghanistan (10 000) and Democratic Republic of the Congo (9 300). The largest increase since 2023 concerned nationals of Ukraine (10 000) and the largest decrease nationals of Afghanistan (-6 200). Of the 138 000 decisions taken in 2024, 38% were positive.

Emigration of French citizens to OECD countries decreased by -5% in 2023, to 104 000. Approximately 19% of this group migrated to Switzerland, 16% to Spain and 11% to Belgium.

In January 2024, France adopted a new immigration law to better regulate inflows and support integration. Undocumented workers in shortage occupations with 12 months of employment over two years and three years' residence can now independently apply for regularisation, without requiring their employer to file the application on their behalf. Sanctions for employers of undocumented migrants were strengthened.

A new four-year residence permit was introduced by the law for medical and pharmacy professionals. Language requirements were raised to A2 for multi-annual permits, B1 for residency, and B2 for naturalisation.

The asylum system was streamlined by reducing the number of litigation procedures from 12 to 3 and improving local co-ordination. Deportation rules now cover foreigners who arrived before age 13. A biometric decree adopted in April 2024 interconnects the fingerprint database with eight national and European systems.

In early 2024, Mayotte faced major political and economic unrest mostly driven by poverty and the scale of illegal migration. In response to protests, the French Government launched "Operation Wuambushu" to curb illegal migration and clear unsafe housing. It also proposed ending automatic birthright citizenship in Mayotte to discourage unauthorised immigration.

In March 2024, the government relaxed the tax rules for employers hiring non-EU foreign nationals: Employers of residence permit holders exempt from work authorisation no longer need to pay the foreign worker tax; for others, the tax is now payable annually instead of after each hire, simplifying the process and reducing administrative burdens. Another change aims to make France more attractive to foreign talent amid labour shortages. All agricultural professions are now included in the list of shortage occupations for all metropolitan regions.

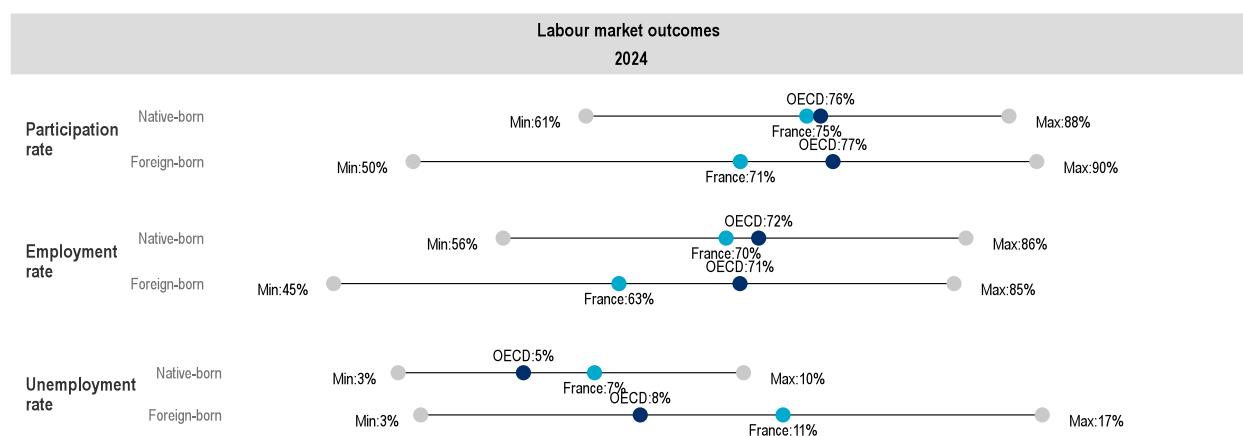
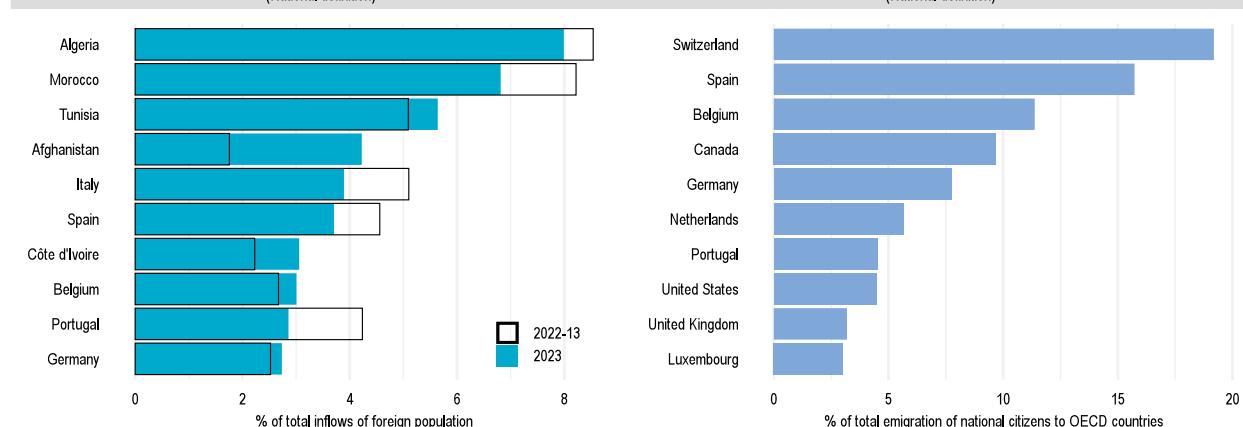
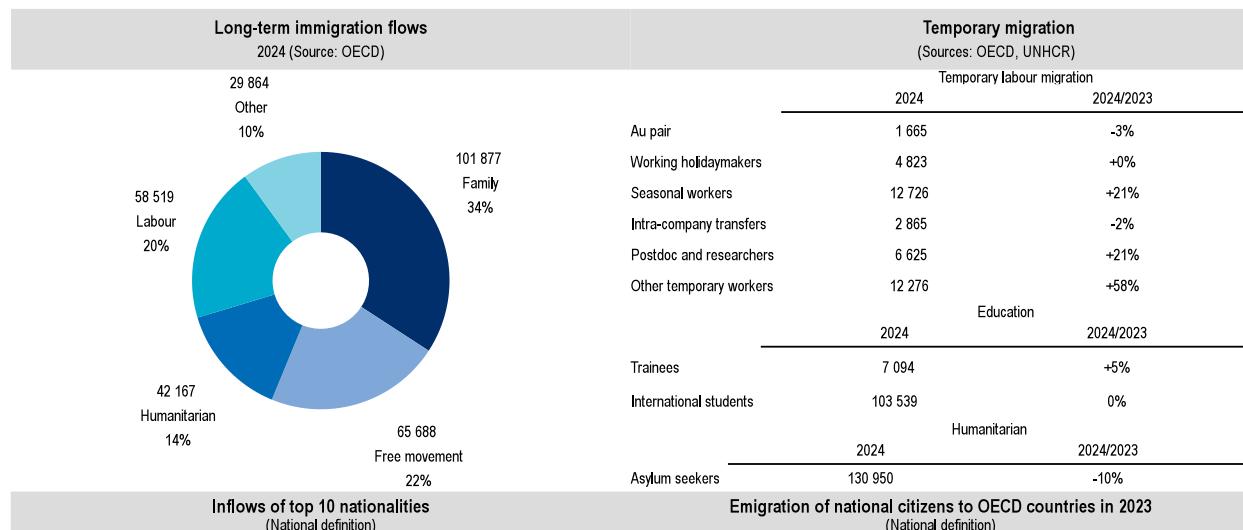
Integration support has expanded, with enhanced language training for the Republican Integration Contract (CIR) signatories and the rollout of the AGIR programme, which offers refugees individualised assistance in employment, housing, and access to services.

France continued digitising residence permit applications, extending it to vulnerable categories like trafficking victims and minors in care. Employer obligations for posted workers were simplified to reduce administrative burdens.

Following the implementation of the 2024 law, in May 2025, a circular by the Ministry of Interior aimed at strengthening the conditions for access to French nationality by decree. It clarifies that applicants must not only meet the language and residency criteria (B2 level and five years' lawful residence in most cases), but also demonstrate full tax and legal compliance, continuous physical presence in France, and clear integration through employment or sustained community engagement. Administrative practices have been harmonised across prefectures, and files showing unpaid taxes, undeclared income, or extended stays abroad face likely rejection.

For further information: www.immigration.interieur.gouv.fr | www.ofii.fr | www.senat.fr.

Key figures on immigration and emigration – France



StatLink  <https://stat.link/q8elzv>

Germany

Foreign-born population – 2024	19.1% of the population	Main countries of birth:
16.2 million, 50% women	Evolution since 2014: +55%	Poland (10%), Türkiye (9%), Russia (7%)

In 2024, Germany received 586 000 new immigrants on a long-term or permanent basis (including changes of status and free mobility), -12% compared to 2023. This figure comprises 47% immigrants benefitting from free mobility, 11% labour migrants, 18% family members (including accompanying family) and 24% humanitarian migrants. Around 59 000 permits were issued to tertiary-level international students and 11 300 to temporary and seasonal labour migrants (excluding intra-EU migration). In addition, 548 000 intra-EU postings were recorded in 2023, a 12% increase compared to 2022. These posted workers are generally on short-term contracts.

Ukraine, Romania and Syria were the top three nationalities of newcomers in 2023. Among the top 15 countries of origin, Türkiye registered the strongest increase (44 000) and Ukraine the largest decrease (-789 000) in flows to Germany compared to the previous year.

In 2024, the number of first asylum applicants decreased by -30%, to reach around 230 000. The majority of applicants came from Syria (77 000), Afghanistan (34 000) and Türkiye (29 000). The largest increase since 2023 concerned nationals of Somalia (1 700) and the largest decrease nationals of Türkiye (-32 000). Of the 250 000 decisions taken in 2024, 53% were positive.

Emigration of German citizens to OECD countries decreased by -3% in 2023, to 145 000. Approximately 18% of this group migrated to Switzerland, 14% to Austria and 13% to Poland.

Germany continued its efforts to address labour shortages in 2024 and early 2025. The Act on the Further Development of Skilled Immigration introduced more flexible rules for recruiting third-country nationals. Key changes entered into force in March and June 2024, including more flexible pathways to the recognition of professional qualification, new residence permits for experienced professionals, a one-year Opportunity Card for job seekers, partly based on a points system, and a doubled annual quota for workers from the Western Balkans with special access to the German labour market. As for improving labour market access of humanitarian migrants, another law was introduced to – among other objectives – shorten the waiting period from nine to six months for individuals in reception centres (asylum seekers and people with “Duldung” – or tolerated – status) to be able to access the labour market.

Germany also expanded its bilateral migration partnerships to boost the migration of skilled workers and facilitate the repatriation of irregular migrants. In September 2024, an agreement with Kenya was signed and a similar agreement with Uzbekistan was concluded. In addition, agreements and partnerships already exist with Colombia, Georgia, India and Morocco. Further partnerships are under development.

Furthermore, naturalisation rules were overhauled through the Nationality Modernisation Act, which came into force in June 2024. It reduced the required years of residence for citizenship from eight to five, or three in cases of special integration achievements (according to the coalition agreement of the new government, the latter will soon be retracted). In turn, regulations concerning sufficiency of subsistence became stricter. The law also introduced unrestricted dual citizenship and granted birthright citizenship to children born in Germany if at least one parent had resided legally in the country for five years.

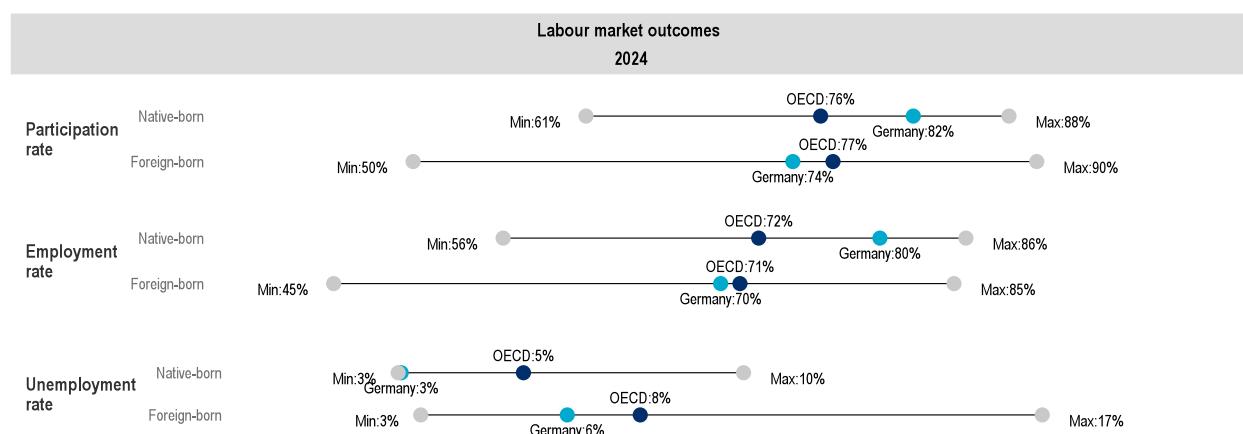
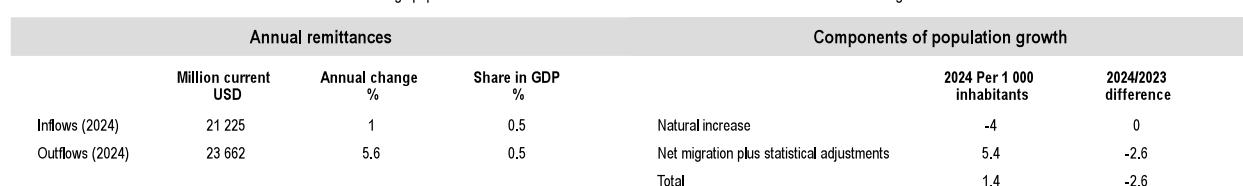
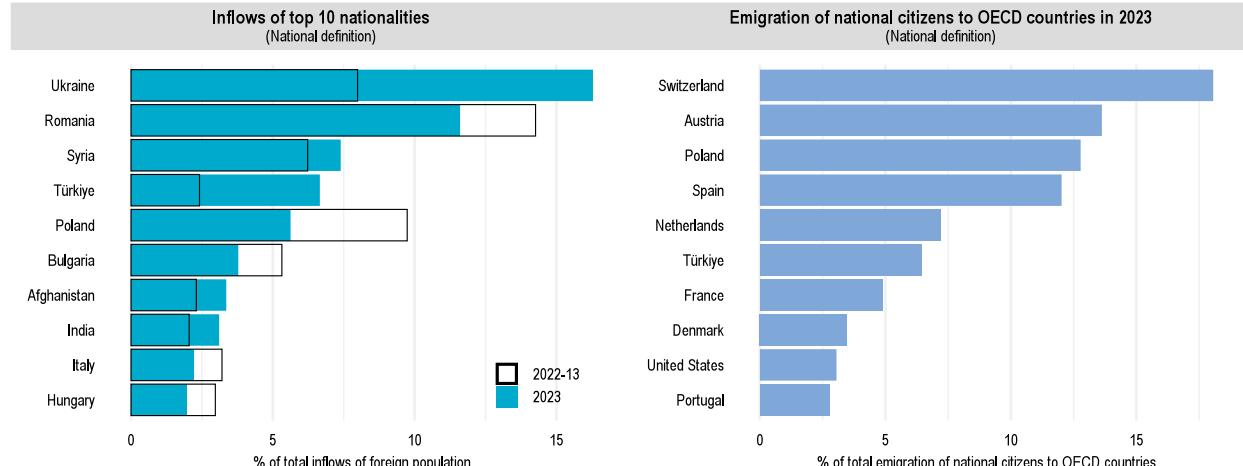
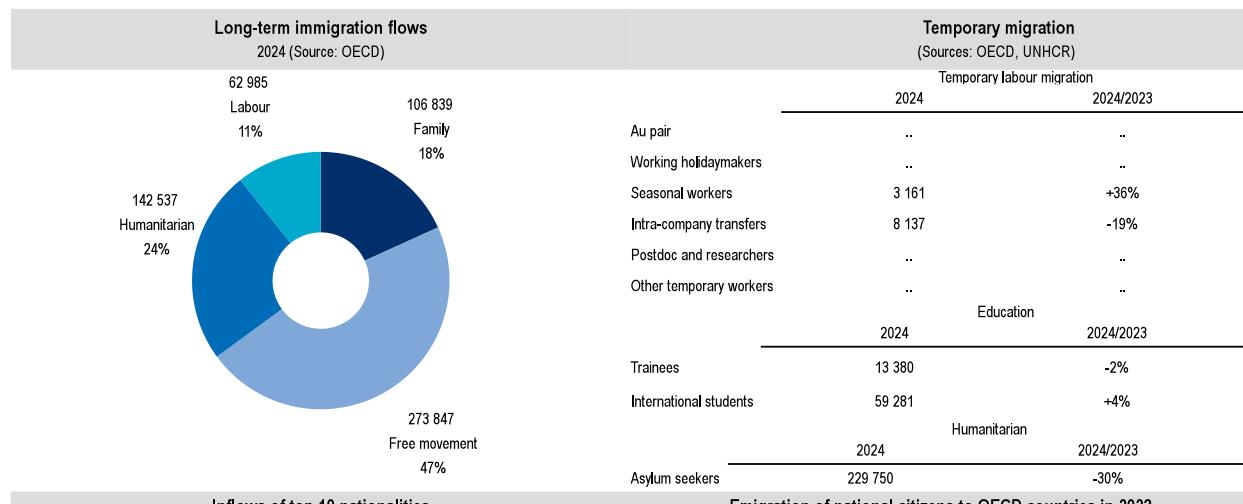
The Job-Turbo Action Plan for the labour market integration of refugees launched in October 2023 has created considerable momentum for the labour market integration of refugees. The plan aims at supporting refugees who have completed an integration course, in gaining work experience as quickly as possible with the help of the public employment service and in co-operation with relevant stakeholders. Integration measures were also further developed. New types of vocational language courses for on-the-job-learning and for the childcare sector were introduced while targeted initiatives to support women with migrant backgrounds, including a digital counselling pilot to provide information and advice on social media on labour market integration, continued in 2024.

At the same time, Germany adopted more restrictive measures on asylum and irregular migration. In September 2024, temporary border controls were reintroduced at Germany's land borders, initially for six months. The government indicated that these would remain in place until EU Asylum reforms are finalised.

In the coalition agreement concluded in April 2025, the new federal government announced a two-year suspension of family reunification rights for beneficiaries of subsidiary protection. It also decided to end voluntary admission programmes as far as possible. It announced expanding the list of safe countries and working on comprehensive regulations to increase the number of returns.

For further information: www.bamf.de | www.bmi.bund.de | www.bams.de.

Key figures on immigration and emigration – Germany



StatLink  <https://stat.link/b18xj6>

Greece

Foreign-born population – 2024	11.3% of the population
1.1 million, 52% women	Evolution since 2014: -9%

In 2024, 88 000 new immigrants obtained a residence permit longer than 12 months in Greece (excluding EU citizens), 24% more than in 2023. This figure comprises 25.3% labour migrants, 18.3% family members (including accompanying family), 0.9% who came for education reasons and 55.4% other migrants. In addition, 29 000 intra-EU postings were recorded in 2023, a 33% increase compared to 2022. These posted workers are generally on short-term contracts.

In 2024, the number of first asylum applicants increased by 19%, to reach around 69 000. The majority of applicants came from Syria (22 000), Afghanistan (15 000) and Egypt (7 100). The largest increase since 2023 concerned nationals of Syria (8 000) and the largest decrease nationals of West Bank and Gaza Strip (-4 200). Of the 55 000 decisions taken in 2024, 72% were positive.

Emigration of Greek citizens to OECD countries decreased by -4% in 2023, to 32 000. Approximately 35% of this group migrated to Germany, 18% to the Netherlands and 8% to Switzerland.

In Greece, the maximum number of job posts that can be filled by third-country nationals in 2025 is set at 89 290, of which 41 670 intended for dependent employment, 45 620 for seasonal work and 2 000 for highly qualified workers.

In September 2024, the real estate threshold increased to EUR 800 000 in high-demand areas and the lease of properties purchased through the Golden Visa scheme as short-term rentals was banned.

A new type of residence permit was introduced in December 2024 for third-country nationals investing in Greek start-ups. With a minimum investment of EUR 250 000 in an eligible start-up, within a maximum of 33% of company's shares, it provides an initial one-year residence permit. The permit is renewable for two-year periods if the start-up has created at least two jobs in the first year of investment, and maintains, for at least five years from the time of investment, the total number of its employment positions (including the above-mentioned two positions).

A total of 46 550 persons have applied for residence permit in accordance with art. 193 of law 5078/2023 that offered a time-limited opportunity for regularisation to undocumented third-country nationals, provided that they have been residing in Greece for at least three years before 30 November 2023, continue to reside in the country and have been offered a valid job offer. As of end of May 2025, 33 333 persons received a temporary residence permit following initial approval of their application. This opportunity was available until 31 December 2024.

In November 2024, the National Co-ordinator for Returns and the National Co-ordinator for combatting migrants' smuggling were appointed within the Ministry of Migration and Asylum. They are mandated with the planning and co-ordination of the national and European policies on the respective fields, both being major policy priorities for Greece.

In May 2025, the government announced the intention to present a draft legislation in order to introduce tougher penalties for illegal entry and stay and speed up returns of those not authorised to stay.

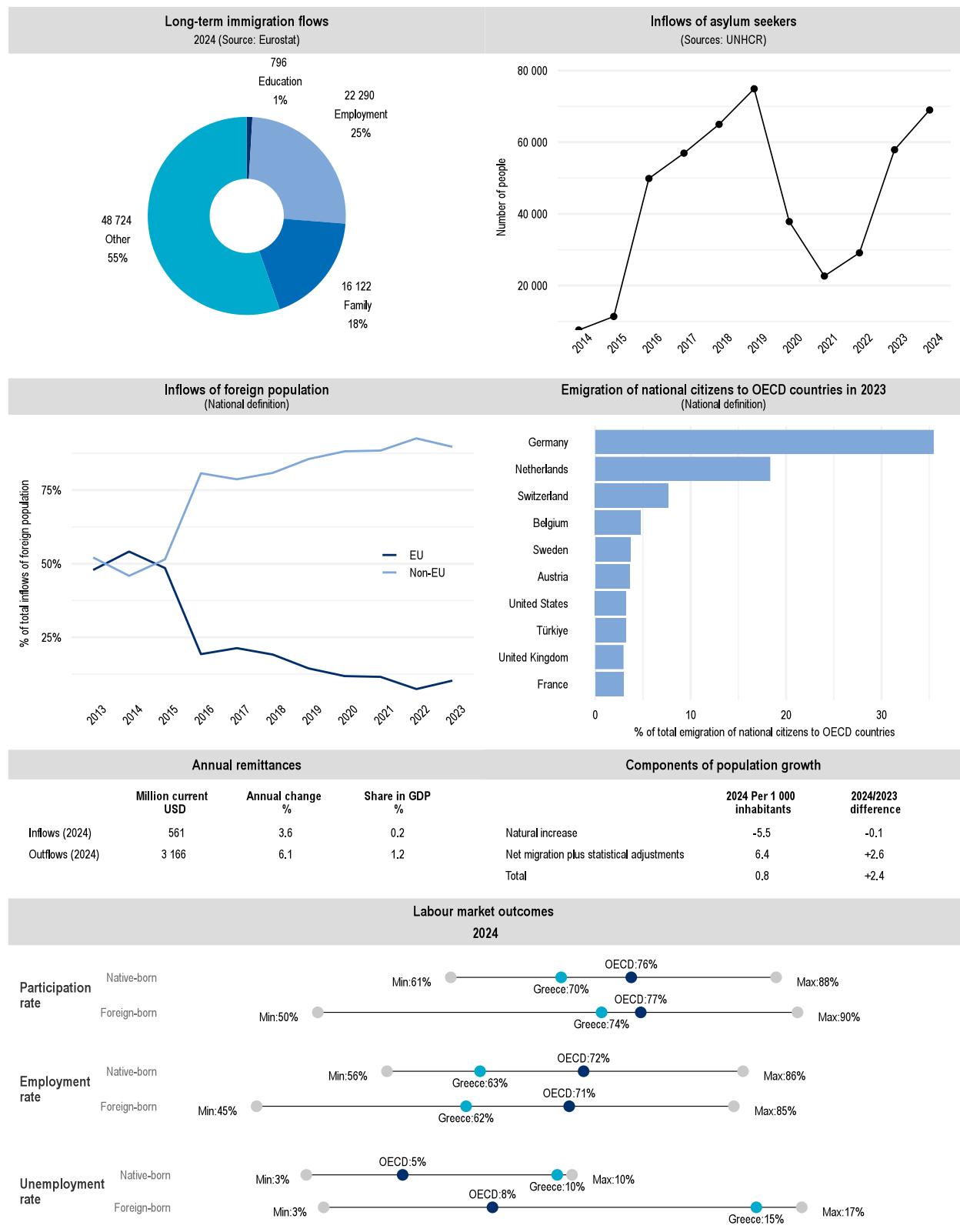
In 2024, the Greek Ministry of Foreign Affairs and the Public Employment Service signed a memorandum of co-operation to engage with Greek diaspora. This initiative aims to inform Greeks living abroad about job opportunities in Greece and design incentives such as employment, entrepreneurship, and training programmes to encourage their return.

In terms of bilateral agreements, a digital platform was launched in June 2024 to facilitate the implementation of the bilateral agreement with Egypt for the employment of seasonal agricultural workers. Greece is also negotiating a bilateral agreement on labour migration with India.

The "HELIOS" integration programme concluded in 2024, offered support to 45 688 beneficiaries of international and temporary protection in finding housing, Greek language learning and labour market integration. Building on these results, the "HELIOS+" programme includes monitoring of the integration progress, awareness raising activities for the host community and further co-operation with the local authorities regarding the Migrants' Integration Centres. Additionally, the "HELIOS JUNIOR" programme, launched in October 2024, was designed for approximately 2000 formerly unaccompanied minors who have reached adulthood.

For further information: www.migration.gov.gr | www.astynomia.gr | www.statistics.gr.

Key figures on immigration and emigration – Greece



StatLink  <https://stat.link/d9pw2x>

Hungary

Foreign-born population – 2024	7% of the population	Main countries of birth:
0.7 million, 49% women	Evolution since 2014: +52%	Romania (30%), Ukraine (12%), Germany (7%)

In 2024, 67 000 new immigrants obtained a residence permit longer than 12 months in Hungary (excluding EU citizens), 5.9% more than in 2023. This figure comprises 72.2% labour migrants, 7% family members (including accompanying family), 19.7% who came for education reasons and 1.2% other migrants. Around 7 400 short-term permits were issued to international students and 7 400 to temporary and seasonal labour migrants (excluding intra-EU migration). In addition, 54 000 intra-EU postings were recorded in 2023, a 28% increase compared to 2022. These posted workers are generally on short-term contracts.

Viet Nam, the Philippines and Ukraine were the top three nationalities of newcomers in 2023. Among the top 15 countries of origin, Viet Nam registered the strongest increase (7 500) and Ukraine the largest decrease (-10 000) in flows to Hungary compared to the previous year.

In 2024, the number of first asylum applicants decreased by -17%, to reach around 25. Of the 25 decisions taken in 2024, 60% were positive.

Emigration of Hungarian citizens to OECD countries increased by 13% in 2023, to 50 000. Approximately 35% of this group migrated to Germany, 29% to Austria and 9% to the Netherlands.

Hungary's new immigration law came into effect on 1 March 2024. The new law significantly overhauls the immigration system, introducing new work-related permits and modifying existing ones. The previous "Single Permit" was replaced with a set of new work permit types, including the "Guest Worker" permit for temporary lower-skilled roles, the "Hungarian Card" for highly skilled talent, and the "Residence Permit for the Purpose of Posting" for intra-EU posted workers. The residence permit for "Other Purposes" was abolished.

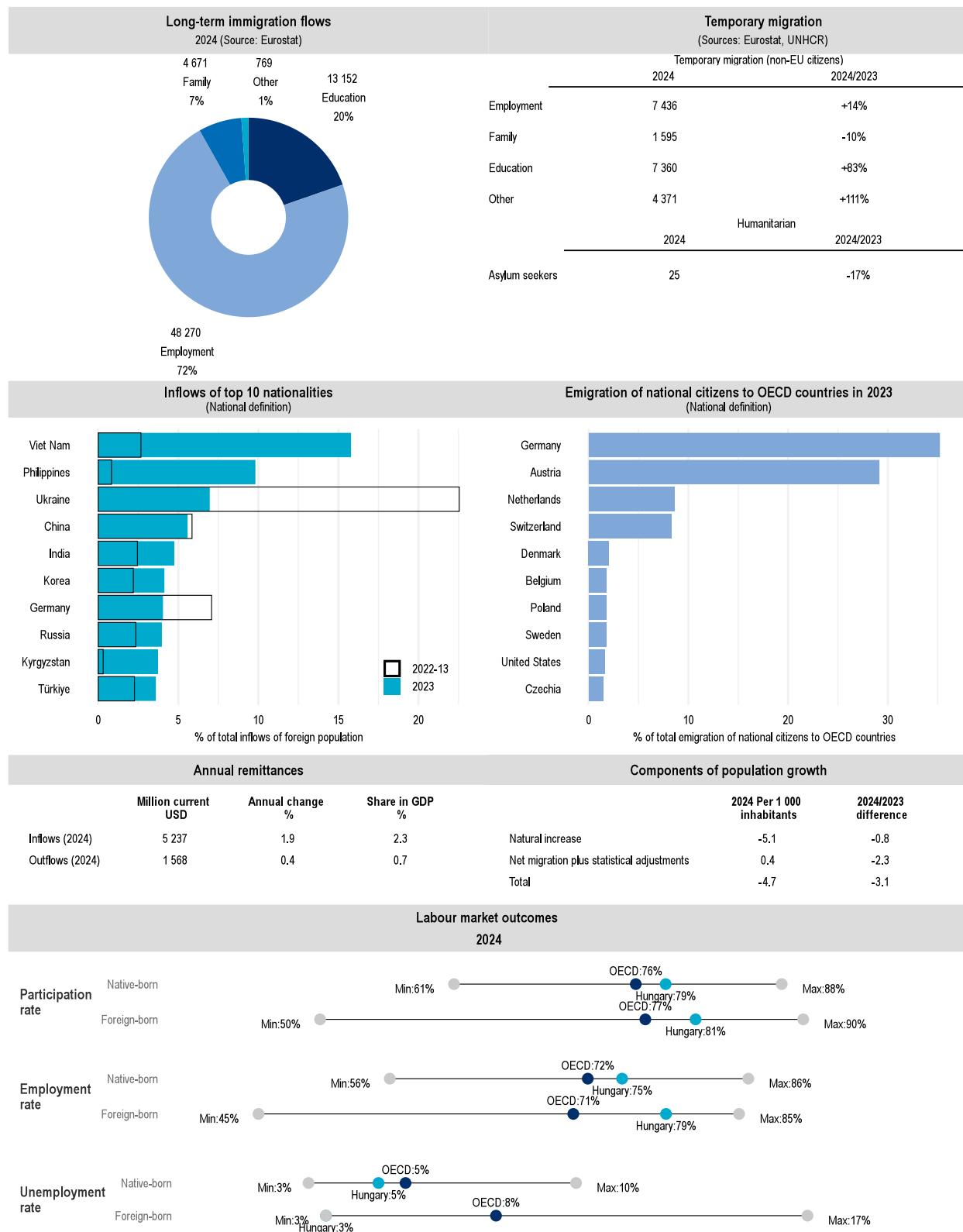
The new "guest worker" permit comes with significant restrictions. The permit can only be granted for a reduced set of roles, excluding about 300 listed occupations, and only for registered "preferential employers" or "qualified lenders." Guest worker permits are valid for two years, with one 12-month extension possible. Guest workers may not transfer to other types of permits, do not become eligible for permanent residence, and cannot request family reunification. Employers of guest workers face stricter notification requirements and need to ensure that the "guest worker" leaves Hungary after the end of their employment or face high non-compliance fines.

As of January 2025, eligibility for guest worker permits was restricted to nationals of a limited list of countries based on specific criteria. As of early 2025, only Armenia, Georgia and the Philippines were on the list, though this may be extended. In addition, combined quotas for guest workers have decreased further, from a cap of 65 000 in 2024 to a cap of 35,000 in 2025. From July 2024, an additional type of work permit called the "National Card" – originally limited to Serbians and Ukrainians in shortage occupations – is no longer restricted by occupation and expands to eight eligible nationalities, including Belarus, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Moldova, Montenegro, North Macedonia and Russia.

Alongside the EU Blue Card, the new immigration law introduced a new permit called "Hungarian Card", aimed at highly skilled talent with relevant higher education qualifications – especially in the engineering or IT sectors – or engaged in sports or the performing arts. The Hungarian Card is valid for three years and allows for indefinite renewal, change of status, access to permanent residence, and family reunification. Starting 15 July 2025, digital nomads applying to Hungary's White Card permit face increased income requirements. Hungary has also relaunched its investor visa programme through the "guest investor" residence permit. The programme grants works and residence rights for ten years (renewable once).

For further information: <https://oif.gov.hu/>.

Key figures on immigration and emigration – Hungary



StatLink <https://stat.link/y71cja>

Iceland

Foreign-born population – 2024	20.7% of the population	Main countries of birth:
0.1 million, 47% women	Evolution since 2014: +117%	Poland (28%), Denmark (5%), Ukraine (5%)

In 2024, 1 200 new immigrants obtained a residence permit longer than 12 months in Iceland (excluding EU citizens), -13% compared to 2023. This figure comprises 9% labour migrants, 31.1% family members (including accompanying family), 2.2% who came for education reasons and 57.7% other migrants. Around 700 short-term permits were issued to international students and 400 to temporary and seasonal labour migrants (excluding intra-EU migration).

Poland, Ukraine and Romania were the top three nationalities of newcomers in 2023. Among the top 15 countries of origin, Vanuatu registered the strongest increase (300) and Ukraine the largest decrease (-600) in flows to Iceland compared to the previous year.

In 2024, the number of first asylum applicants decreased by -55%, to reach around 1 900. The majority of applicants came from Ukraine (1 200), Venezuela (200) and the West Bank and Gaza Strip (90). The largest increase since 2023 concerned nationals of Venezuela (400) and the largest decrease nationals of Ukraine (-700). Of the 1 620 decisions taken in 2024, 12% were positive.

Emigration of Icelandic citizens to OECD countries increased by 4% in 2023, to 2 300. Approximately 40% of this group migrated to Denmark, 20% to Sweden and 9% to Poland.

Over the past year Iceland has implemented several changes to its migration and integration policies, reflecting its commitment to addressing labour market needs while supporting displaced populations.

In 2024, Iceland continued to experience a steady influx of foreign workers, particularly in sectors such as tourism, construction, and healthcare. To address labour shortages, the Directorate of Labour collaborated with employers to streamline recruitment processes for non-EEA nationals, ensuring that labour market needs were met while maintaining fair working conditions.

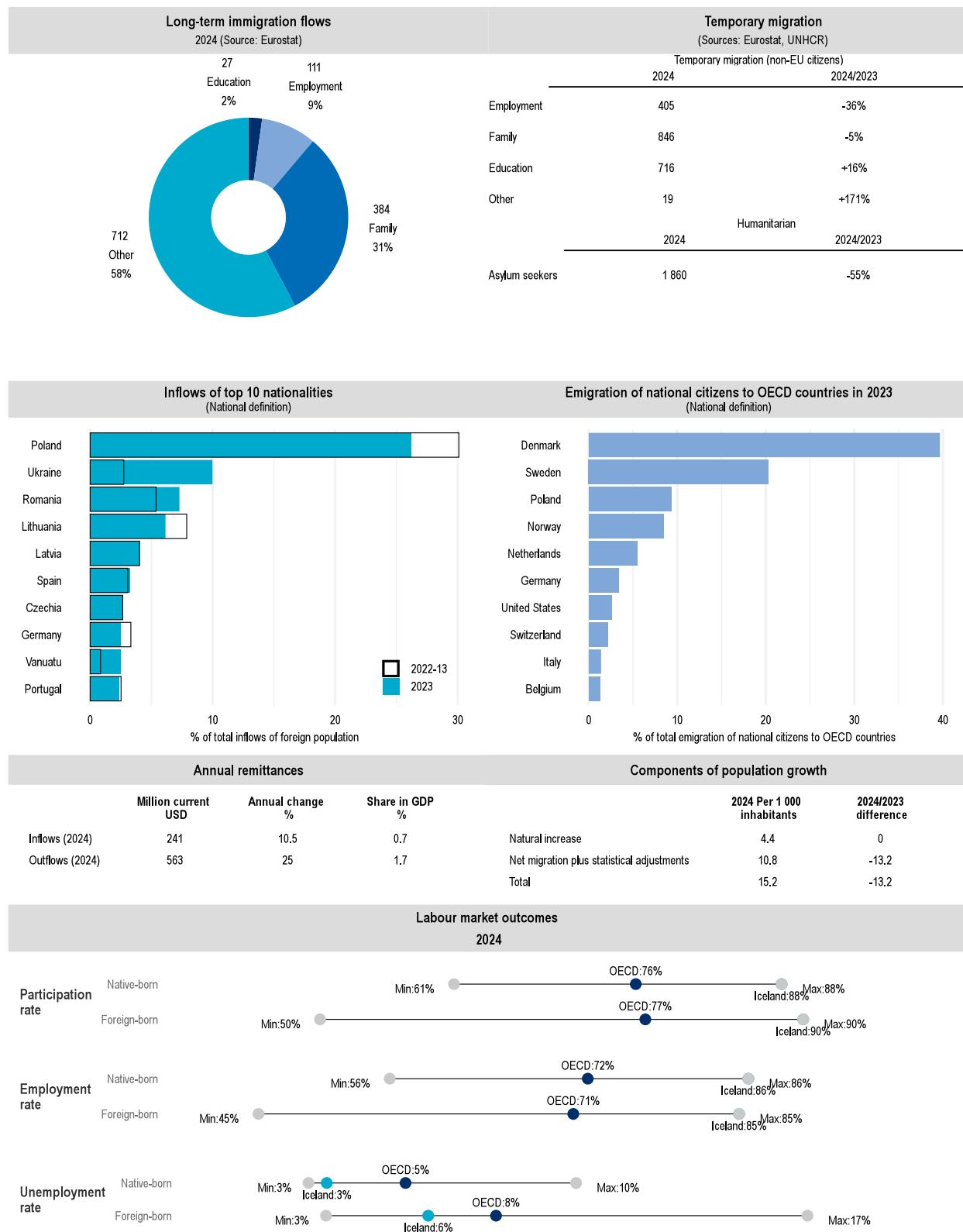
A couple of years ago, Iceland implemented changes to its residence permit application procedures, introducing an online portal to streamline the submission process for applicants. The digital platform allows for more efficient processing of applications, reducing waiting times and improving communication between applicants and immigration authorities. Meanwhile, in July 2024, the Icelandic Parliament passed amendments to the Foreign Nationals Act, affecting the renewal process for residence permits based on subsidiary protection. Under the new provisions, such permits may only be renewed if the conditions that led to the granting of protection still exist, aligning Iceland's policies with broader European standards.

Also in February 2025, Iceland started the extension of its temporary collective protection for individuals fleeing the conflict in Ukraine until 2 March 2026. Beneficiaries received notifications via SMS regarding the collection of new residence permit cards. This automatic extension reflects Iceland's ongoing commitment to supporting displaced individuals from Ukraine.

The previous government worked on a long-term immigration strategy accompanied by a four-year National Action Plan that would have entered into force in January 2025 if passed by the Parliament. In the integration field, the strategy aimed to foster an inclusive society and integration into all facets of Icelandic life. Specific actions included: among others efforts to expand and diversify Icelandic language instruction and simplify the assessment and recognition of foreign education and work experience and measures to align immigration policies with labour market needs and attract qualified workers. The policy was developed through extensive consultations with stakeholders, including immigrants, government agencies, and civil society organisations. At the time of drafting this note, the new government has not issued how the work on the Strategy will be continued. They have though issued that a new Action Plan on matters of immigrants will be put before Parliament this fall along with changes in the legislation on matters of immigrants.

For further information: www.stjornarradid.is | www.utl.is | www.vinnumalastofnun.is | www.hagstofa.is.

Key figures on immigration and emigration – Iceland



StatLink  <https://stat.link/g6rblh>

Ireland

Foreign-born population – 2024	23.3% of the population	Main countries of birth (2022):
1.2 million, 51% women	Evolution since 2014: +54%	United Kingdom (28%), Poland (10%), India (6%)

In 2024, Ireland received 72 000 new immigrants on a long-term or permanent basis (including changes of status and free mobility), 9.6% more than in 2023. This figure comprises 45% immigrants benefitting from free mobility, 44% labour migrants, 6% family members (including accompanying family) and 5% humanitarian migrants. Around 29 000 permits were issued to tertiary-level international students and 1 500 to temporary and seasonal labour migrants (excluding intra-EU migration). In addition, 62 000 intra-EU postings were recorded in 2023, a 39% increase compared to 2022. These posted workers are generally on short-term contracts.

In 2024, the number of first asylum applicants increased by 39%, to reach around 18 000. The majority of applicants came from Nigeria (4 000), Jordan (2 900) and Pakistan (1 400). The largest increase since 2023 concerned nationals of Nigeria (1 000) and the largest decrease nationals of Georgia (-1 700). Of the 5 140 decisions taken in 2024, 74% were positive.

Emigration of Irish citizens to OECD countries increased by 4% in 2023, to 19 000. Approximately 20% of this group migrated to Spain, 12% to the Netherlands and 12% to Australia.

The Employment Permits Act 2024 was implemented in September 2024, bringing several significant changes to the Irish system, including a reduction of the job mobility period and a revision of the labour market test. It also contained the first Irish seasonal employment permit, which came into effect in February 2025. It allows seasonal work of “horticultural operatives” between April and November for a minimum EUR 30 000 annual salary and is renewable twice. It is a pilot restricted to the horticulture sector and few employers and occupations but is planned to be extended in the future.

In October 2024, the Department of Justice launched the “Digital Contact Centre”, a new online immigration self-service portal. Users can book registration appointments and their application’s status online. The Department of Enterprise, Tourism and Employment launched “Employment Permits Online”, a platform for all employment permit applications including enhanced data protection.

In March 2025, 1 000 General Employment Permits were added to the current quota for the role of care workers and carers in the home, and the occupation of town planner was added to the Critical Skills Occupations List (CSOL).

The increases to minimum annual remuneration (MAR) for employment permits that should have taken place in January 2025 have been postponed.

The International Protection Act 2015 was amended to reduce the social welfare entitlements payable to Beneficiaries of Temporary Protection where they are resident in certain State-provided accommodation.

In July 2024, the Department of Justice added Brazil, Egypt, India, Malawi, and Morocco as safe countries of origin.

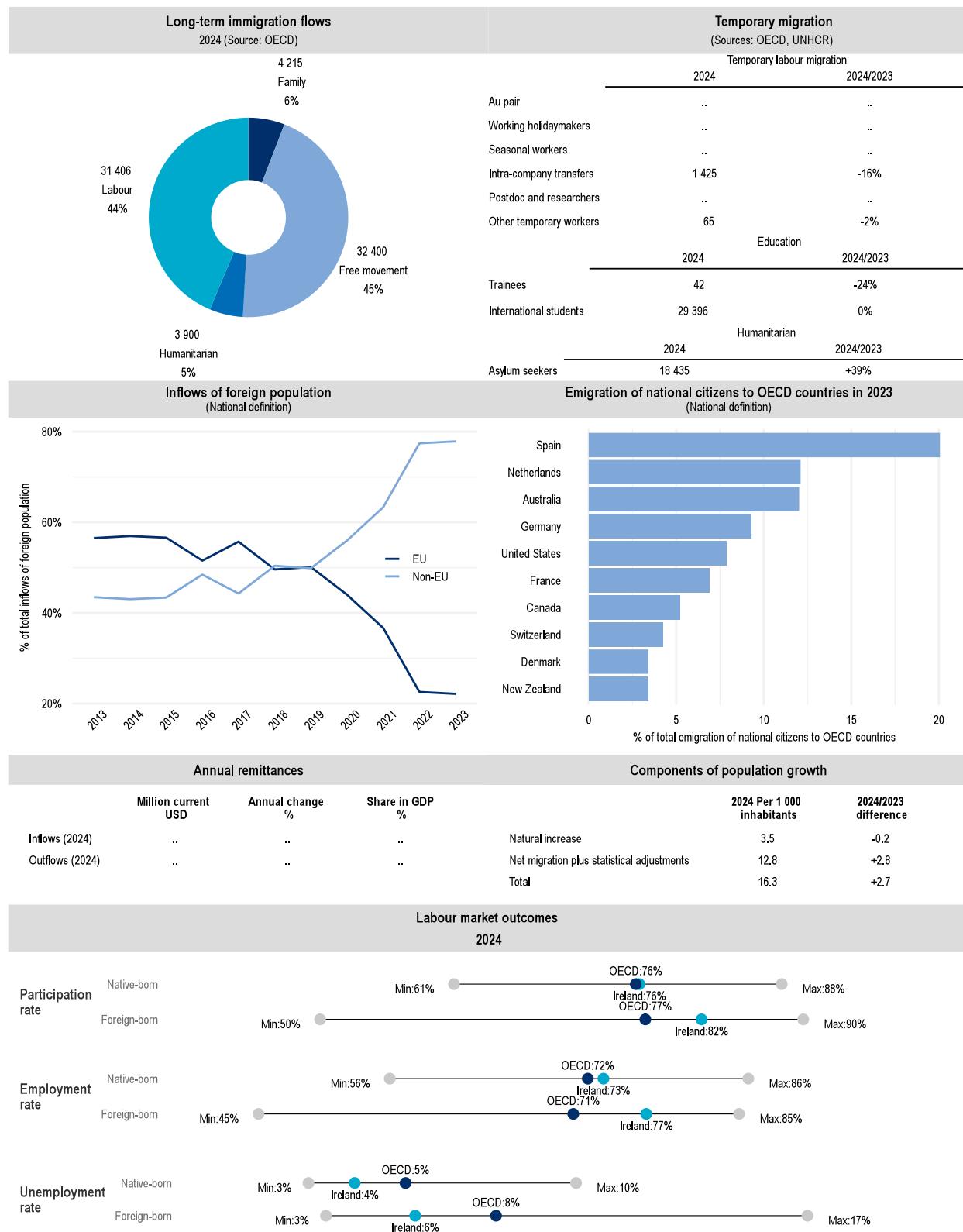
In April 2025, the government approved the publication of the General Scheme of the International Protection Bill 2025 which is intended to replace the International Protection Act 2015. The draft Bill includes a new “border procedure” setting a three-month limit for first-instance and appeal decisions to be completed for applicants from countries of origin with a recognition rate of 20% or less across the EU, or who have no documents or false documents, or who pose a security risk. It also proposes to establish a new appeals board and to reduce significantly oral hearings in asylum appeals. The new International Protection Act 2026 will be commenced when the EU Asylum and Migration Pact comes into effect in June 2026.

Since 13 January 2025, all first-time immigration registration services are being handled by Ireland’s Immigration Service Delivery (ISD) in Dublin. Previously, individuals who wished to reside more than 90 days in Ireland could complete the registration at a local office of the An Garda Síochána (Irish police force). This aims to free up police time and makes immigration administration fully civilian.

On 5 June 2025, the Department of Justice updated its title to the Department of Justice, Home Affairs and Migration and a new Minister of State with responsibility for migration was appointed. The change of title reflects the Department’s expanded remit following the transfer of different functions to the Department, among them the International Protection Accommodation Services (IPAS), which offers accommodation and related services to international protection applicants.

For further information: www.irishimmigration.ie | www.ria.gov.ie | www.enterprise.gov.ie.

Key figures on immigration and emigration – Ireland



StatLink  <https://stat.link/erzxys>

Israel

Foreign-born population – 2024	19.3% of the population	Main countries of birth:
1.8 million, 55% women	Evolution since 2014: -1%	Former USSR (50%), Morocco (7%), United States (6%)

In 2024, Israel received 40 000 new immigrants on a long-term or permanent basis (including changes of status), -14% compared to 2023. This figure comprises 17% family members (including accompanying family). Around 81 000 permits were issued to temporary and seasonal labour migrants in 2023.

Russia, the United States and Ukraine were the top three nationalities of newcomers in 2023. Among the top 15 countries of origin, Azerbaijan registered the strongest increase (11) and Ukraine the largest decrease (-12 000) in flows to Israel compared to the previous year.

In 2024, the number of first asylum applicants decreased by -11%, to reach around 6 100. The majority of applicants came from Russia (700), India (600) and Malawi (500). The largest increase since 2023 concerned nationals of Malawi (500) and the largest decrease nationals of Russia (-1 200). Of the 5 460 decisions taken in 2024, 25 were positive.

Emigration of Israeli citizens to OECD countries increased by 9% in 2023, to 11 000. Approximately 33% of this group migrated to the United States, 18% to Germany and 9% to Canada.

In the field of permanent migration under the Law of Return, inflows continue to fall from 2022 – when Russian and Ukrainian migrants boosted total numbers – to 2023 and 2024. While Russians comprised 72% of new immigrants in 2023, that fell to 60% in 2024, along with a 30% decline in overall immigration.

In 2024, the Finance Committee amended the property tax benefits for new immigrants to exempt first-time buyers from paying purchase tax on the first NIS 1.98 million of the value of a home bought in 2024. The original budget for the Ministry of Aliyah and Integration was reduced by 10% in 2025 relative to 2024. In March 2024 to strengthen absorption, rental assistance for new immigrants was updated to concentrate support in the first year after arrival and is tailored to households' circumstances. The reform also supplements support for new immigrants who settle in designated National Priority/periphery areas.

Several changes were made to conditions which previously benefited new immigrants. From 2026, new immigrants must report to the tax authority all global income and assets; this ends longstanding exemptions and aligns with OECD standards.

In March 2025, the Israeli Government approved reforms to expedite the professional licensing process for new immigrants in a number of regulated professions. The changes allow the process to start before arrival and grant temporary licenses to qualified professionals to practice their occupations more swiftly upon arrival.

In the field of temporary foreign workers, policy activity has, since Hamas' terrorist attacks on Israel on 7 October 2023, been largely focussed on expanding the channels and number of temporary foreign workers to substitute the suspended entry of Palestinian daily workers to Israel and to address increased labour demand in a number of sectors. The quotas have been lifted, and the government set in 2024 a ceiling for the stock of foreign workers at 3.3% of total resident population – well above the number of foreign workers in Israel at the time.

In light of the increased quotas for foreign workers and the urgent need for large scale recruitment within a short period of time, Israel has allowed direct recruitment of foreign workers to Israel, in parallel with recruitment via bilateral labour agreements, in a number of industries, including construction and agriculture. The "B2B" programme is subject to a quota and it is limited in time.

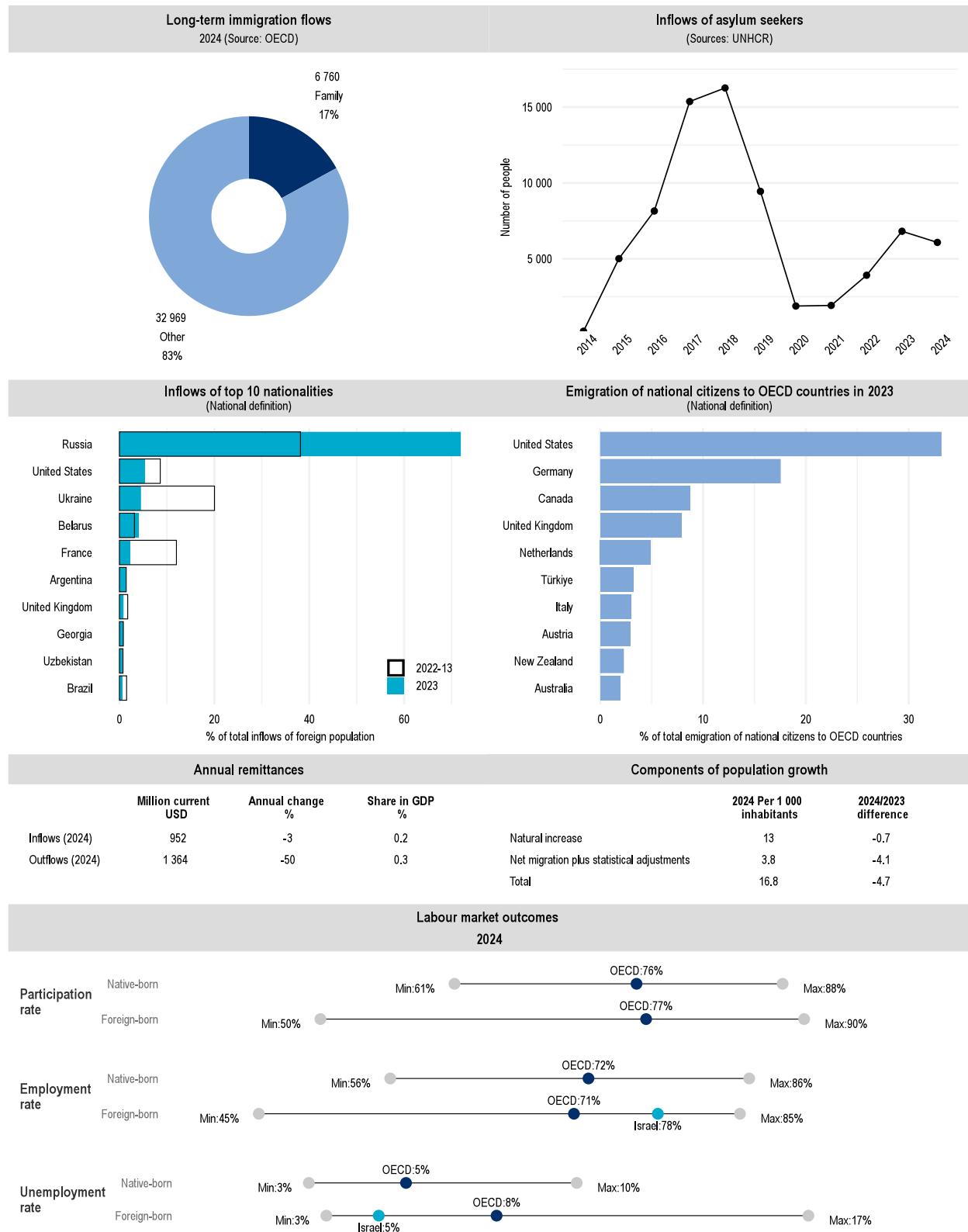
The number of foreign workers at the end of 2024 stood at 156 800, up 41% from 2023, with most of the increase driven by construction (51 600, up 108%) and agriculture (33 100, up 92%).

Israel introduced Electronic Travel Authorization for visa-exempt nationals as a pilot in 2024 and imposed it from 2025 on all visa-exempt travellers.

Israel continues to extend its non-refoulement policy concerning Ukrainians not eligible for the Law of Return in Israel, including non-enforcement of the prohibition concerning employment of Ukrainians without work permits.

For further information: www.gov.il/en.

Key figures on immigration and emigration – Israel



StatLink <https://stat.link/wbh56e>

Italy

Foreign-born population – 2024	11.2% of the population	Main countries of birth:
6.7 million, 53% women	Evolution since 2014: +16%	Romania (13%), Albania (8%), Morocco (7%)

In 2024, Italy received 169 000 new immigrants on a long-term or permanent basis (including changes of status and free mobility), - 16% compared to 2023. This figure comprises 23% immigrants benefitting from free mobility, 10% labour migrants, 61% family members (including accompanying family) and 5% humanitarian migrants. Around 20 000 permits were issued to tertiary-level international students and 17 300 to temporary and seasonal labour migrants (excluding intra-EU migration). In addition, 169 000 intra-EU postings were recorded in 2023, a 27% increase compared to 2022. These posted workers are generally on short-term contracts.

Ukraine, Albania and Romania were the top three nationalities of newcomers in 2023. Among the top 15 countries of origin, Egypt registered the strongest increase (8 300) and Romania the largest decrease (-5 100) in flows to Italy compared to the previous year.

In 2024, the number of first asylum applicants increased by 16%, to reach around 151 000. The majority of applicants came from Bangladesh (33 000), Peru (16 000) and Pakistan (12 000). The largest increase since 2023 concerned nationals of Bangladesh (9 700) and the largest decrease nationals of Egypt (-6 600). Of the 79 000 decisions taken in 2024, 36% were positive.

Emigration of Italian citizens to OECD countries remained stable in 2023, to 152 000. Approximately 32% of this group migrated to Spain, 15% to Germany and 13% to Switzerland.

The Italian Government has been implementing a series of measures to streamline entry procedures for foreign workers. In October 2024, Decree Law No. 145/2024 introduced several changes including the digitalisation of the contract of stay and integration agreement, along with biometric data requirements for visas beginning in January 2025. Labour market test waiting times were shortened to eight days. From January 2025, employers seeking to hire EU Blue Card or quota-subject work permit applicants must confirm their interest within one week of approval notification for the issuance process to proceed.

Italy's 2024 work permit quotas allocated a total of 151 000 permits (up from 136 000 for 2023), including 61 250 permits for non-seasonal workers, 89 050 for seasonal workers, and 700 for self-employed individuals.

Following the November 2023 revision of Italy's EU Blue Card legislation, an implementing circular was issued in March 2024 to clarify the new rules. The EU Blue Card professional experience pathway was opened for applicants lacking academic qualifications but possessing five years of relevant professional experience or three years in the IT sector. The circular also requires EU Blue Card sponsoring employers to prove that no local workers (of any nationality) were available for the position. Exceptions to labour market testing apply to highly qualified individuals on a researcher or EU ICT permit (who can now also obtain an EU Blue Card without leaving Italy).

Italy introduced a Digital Nomad Visa in April 2024, allowing third-country nationals to reside in Italy and perform highly skilled remote work as freelancers or for foreign employers for up to 12 months (renewable). Dependents may join under a family permit. Eligibility includes prior remote work or digital nomad experience, and professional skills equivalent to EU Blue Card requirements.

In March 2024, following an MoU, Italy and Tunisia signed a Protocol to facilitate the entry of 12 000 Tunisian workers over three years to address labour shortages in Italy. In April 2024, a one-year pilot project was launched to bring 300 workers, from Lebanon, Ethiopia and Ivory Coast, under a "worker corridors" scheme.

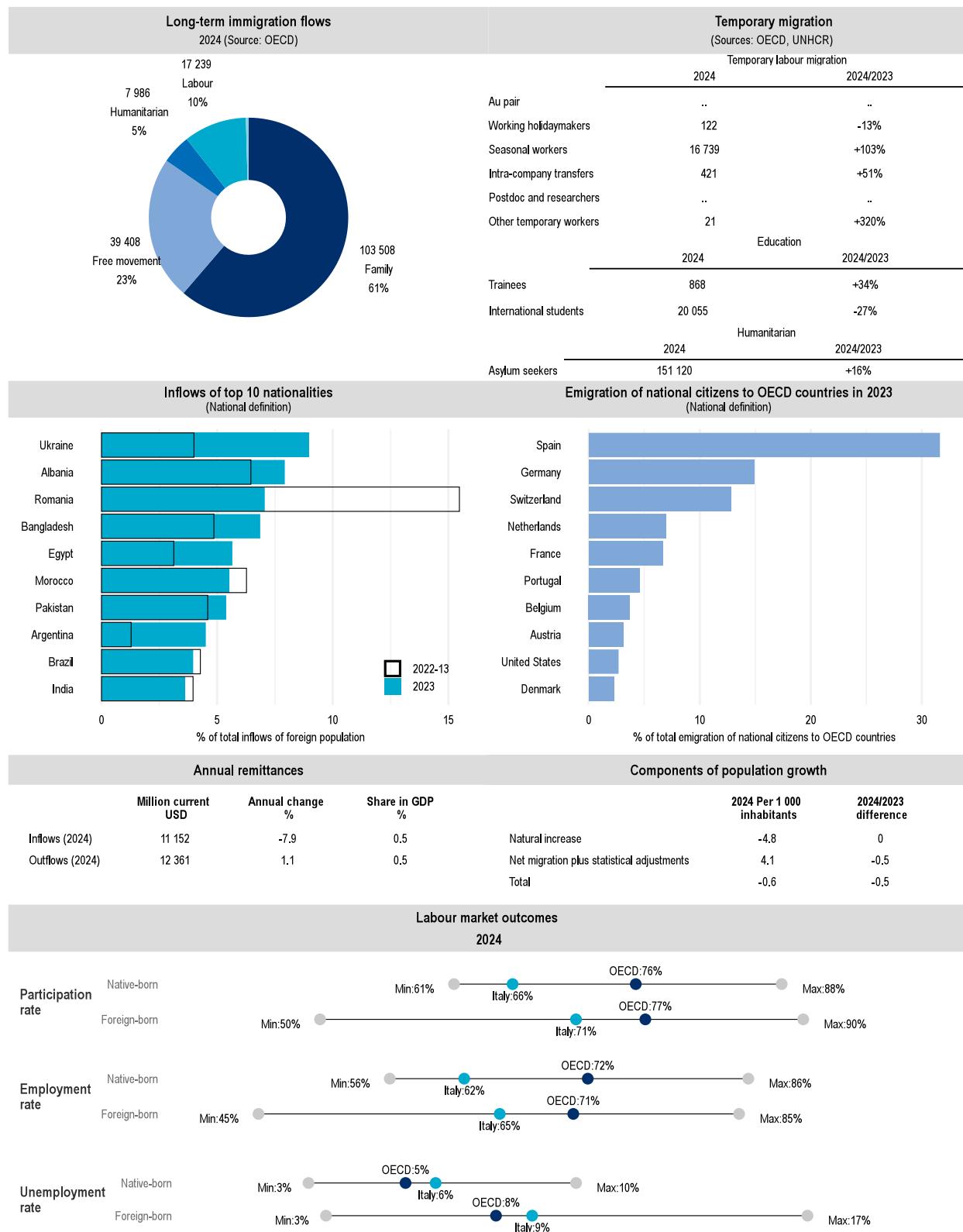
In other changes: from 1 June 2024, dependent foreign nationals staying over 90 days for family reunification must apply for a "family reasons" national visa (Type D) instead of relying on a short-stay visa. Further, in January 2024, fines were increased for Italian citizens failing to register while residing abroad.

In March 2025, Decree Law No. 36/2025 introduced significant citizenship law changes, most notably limiting automatic citizenship by descent to individuals with at least one parent or grandparent born in Italy. A separate decree in May 2025 expanded the use of Albanian migrant detention centres to include migrants in Italy under deportation orders.

In December 2024, Law 187/2024 introduced stricter rules for family reunification in Italy. Most foreign nationals must now complete two continuous years of legal residence before applying to bring family members – such as spouses, disabled adult children, or parents under certain conditions. The rule does not apply to holders of international protection or to minor children under 18.

For further information: www.lavoro.gov.it/ | www.integrazioneimmigranti.gov.it/.

Key figures on immigration and emigration – Italy



StatLink  <https://stat.link/wdx714>

Japan

Foreign population – 2024	2.7% of the population	Nationalities:
3.4 million, 50% women	Evolution since 2014: +65%	China (24%), Viet Nam (17%), Korea (12%)

In 2024, Japan received 177 000 new immigrants on a long-term or permanent basis (including changes of status), 8.6% more than in 2023. This figure comprises 63% labour migrants, 34% family members (including accompanying family) and 1% humanitarian migrants. Around 167 000 permits were issued to tertiary-level international students, 102 000 to temporary and seasonal labour migrants and 165 000 to trainees.

Viet Nam, China and Indonesia were the top three nationalities of newcomers in 2023. Among the top 15 countries of origin, Indonesia registered the strongest increase (16 000) and Nepal the largest decrease (-4 900) in flows to Japan compared to the previous year.

In 2024, the number of first asylum applicants decreased by -1.3%, to reach around 14 000. The majority of applicants came from Sri Lanka (2 500), Thailand (2 100) and Türkiye (1 200). The largest increase since 2023 concerned nationals of Thailand (1 900) and the largest decrease nationals of Sri Lanka (-1 300). Of the 15 000 decisions taken in 2024, 15% were positive.

Emigration of Japanese citizens to OECD countries increased by 0.9% in 2023, to 22 000. Approximately 20% of this group migrated to Germany, 17% to the United States and 8% to the Netherlands.

Japan enacted new legislation in June 2024 that abolished the Technical Intern Training Programme and will replace it with a new programme named “Employment for Skill Development.” It aims to secure and develop human resources in fields facing labour shortages and will serve as a stepping stone to the Specified Skilled Worker (SSW) System. The new programme will start in April 2027.

The sectors covered by the SSW System, introduced in 2019, have been successively expanded to a total of 16 fields in 2024. The latest fields to be included are: Automobile transportation business, Railway, Forestry and Wood industry. While SSW(i) status can be renewed up to five years in total, SSW(ii) can be renewed indefinitely, support dependents, and eventually permanent residence may be granted.

In August 2024, Japan signed a Memorandum of Co-operation (MoC) with the Republic of Tajikistan on the SSW System. The Republic of Tajikistan is the 17th country to sign a MoC since the launch of the programme in 2019.

Japan has introduced a new possibility for graduates to stay in Japan for job search. Under the “Job-seeking Promotion Project for Foreign Students Graduating from Overseas Universities in National Strategic Special Zones” created in March 2024, graduates from overseas institutions who graduate from a Japanese-language institute in Japan may apply for a Designated Activities visa to remain in Japan and search for a job for up to one year.

In June 2024, a Partial Amendment of the Immigration Control and Refugee Recognition Act introduced a sponsorship system for migrants subject to deportation procedures. Migrants subject to deportation procedures were thus far detained. Under this new system, migrants are not detained but are under the support of a Sponsor throughout the procedure.

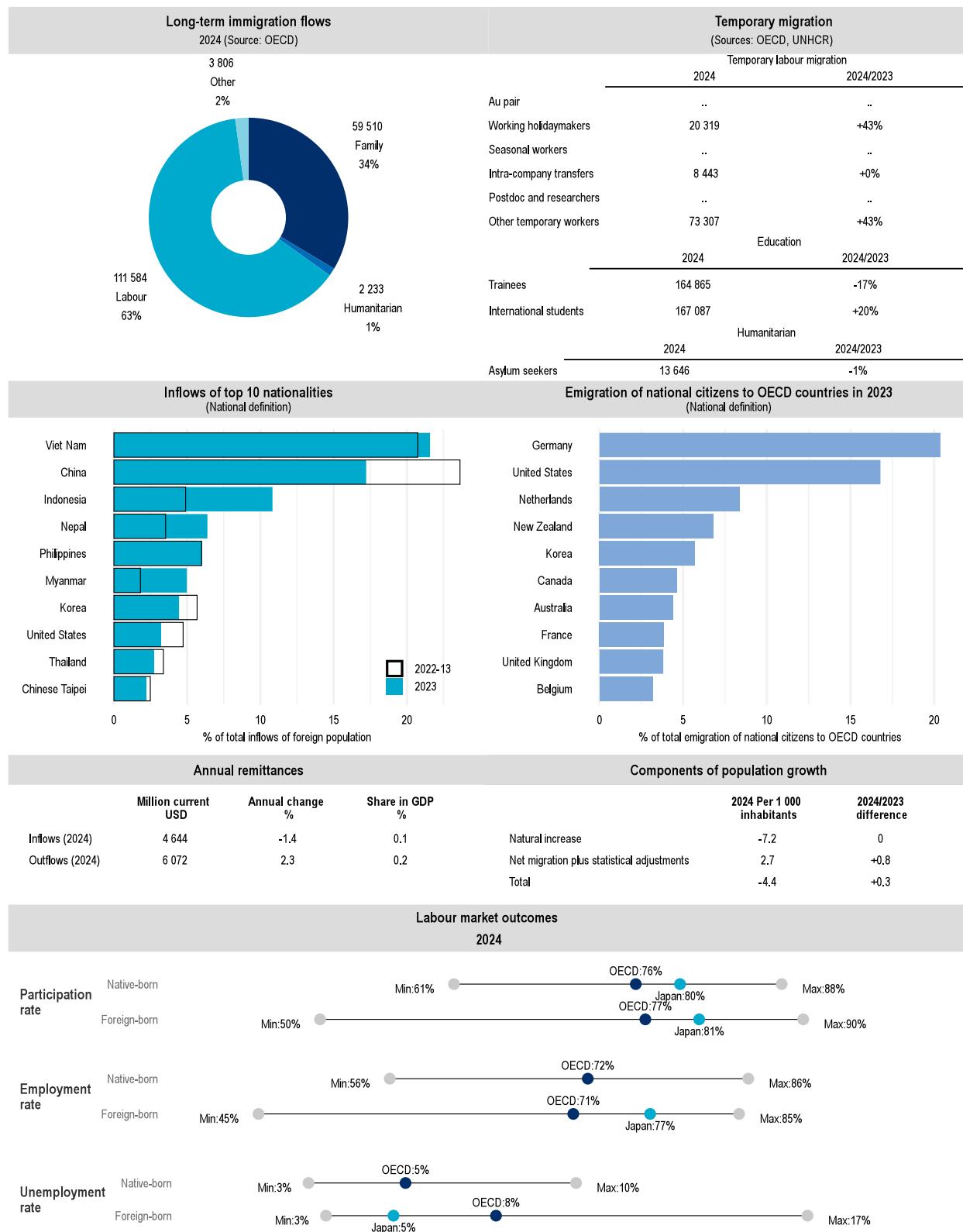
In May 2025, Japan released a compilation of measures, the Zero Illegal Immigrants Plan for the Safety and Security of the People (tentative), to speed up deportations, including misused and abusive applications for refugee status recognition.

On the integration side, the “Comprehensive Measures for Acceptance and Coexistence of Foreign Nationals” established in 2018 continue to be revised annually. In 2022, Japan formulated a “Roadmap for the Realization of a Society of Harmonious Coexistence with Foreign Nationals” that shows Japan’s visions of society of harmonious coexistence with foreign nationals. In 2024, the Immigration Services Agency launched the first edition of a six-month programme to train Support Co-ordinators for Foreign Nationals. The co-ordinators support the integration of immigrants in all areas of life in Japan. Starting in 2024, January is designated “Life in harmony promotion month”. Throughout the month, various awareness-raising activities are carried out, such as the “All together festival”.

Persons under complementary protection will benefit from the same support measures as refugees. The “Settlement Support Programme” started in April 2024 and includes Japanese language classes and lifestyle guidance among other integration support measures.

Further information: www.mhlw.go.jp/english | www.isa.go.jp/en | www.moj.go.jp.

Key figures on immigration and emigration – Japan



StatLink <https://stat.link/xy9kzf>

Korea

Foreign population – 2024	4.2% of the population	Nationalities:
2.2 million, 44% women	Evolution since 2014: +66%	China (38%), Viet Nam (11%), Uzbekistan (4%)

In 2024, Korea received 76 000 new immigrants on a long-term or permanent basis (including changes of status), -13% compared to 2023. This figure comprises 15% labour migrants, 23% family members (including accompanying family) and 0.2% humanitarian migrants. Around 56 000 permits were issued to tertiary-level international students, 151 000 to temporary and seasonal labour migrants and 43 500 to trainees.

China, Viet Nam and Thailand were the top three nationalities of newcomers in 2023. Among the top 15 countries of origin, China registered the strongest increase (37 000) and Kazakhstan the largest decrease (-5 500) in flows to Korea compared to the previous year.

In 2024, the number of first asylum applicants decreased by -2.7%, to reach around 18 000. The majority of applicants came from Russia (4 500), China (1 600) and India (1 400). The largest increase since 2023 concerned nationals of Viet Nam (400) and the largest decrease nationals of Russia (-1 200). Of the 14 000 decisions taken in 2024, 1% were positive.

Emigration of Korean citizens to OECD countries decreased by -4% in 2023, to 42 000. Approximately 34% of this group migrated to the United States, 12% to Canada and 10% to Germany.

In 2025, Korea set the admission quota for E-9 foreign workers at 130 000 – a decrease of 35 000 from 2024 – reflecting reduced demand due to economic changes and increased use of alternative visa types such as the E-7 (special activity) and E-8 (seasonal work) visas. Over 70 000 slots are allocated to the manufacturing sector. The remaining quotas are distributed as follows: Shipbuilding (2 500), Construction (2 000), Services (3 000), Agriculture (10 000), and Fishery (8 500).

On 26 September 2024, the Ministry of Justice announced upgraded immigration policies, representing a new paradigm in Korea's immigration policy, in preparation for the foreign resident population approaching 3 million. These include the introduction of a "Top-Tier" visa to attract highly skilled individuals and a "Youth Dream" visa for young people from countries that participated in the Korean War and other countries with close ties to Korea, offering opportunities for cultural experience and career exploration.

On 10 January 2025, the Ministry of Justice (MoJ) launched the Mobile Residence Card for registered foreign residents, Mobile Permanent Resident for F-5 visa holders and Mobile Overseas Residence Cards (F-4 visa holders). All registered foreign nationals aged 14 and above with a smartphone in their name are eligible. The mobile card holds the same legal validity as the physical card.

From 24 February 2025, the MoJ officially implemented the e-Arrival Card system, allowing foreign tourists to submit their entry declarations online in advance. The system is expected to help attract more foreign tourists by reducing immigration wait times and alleviating congestion at airports.

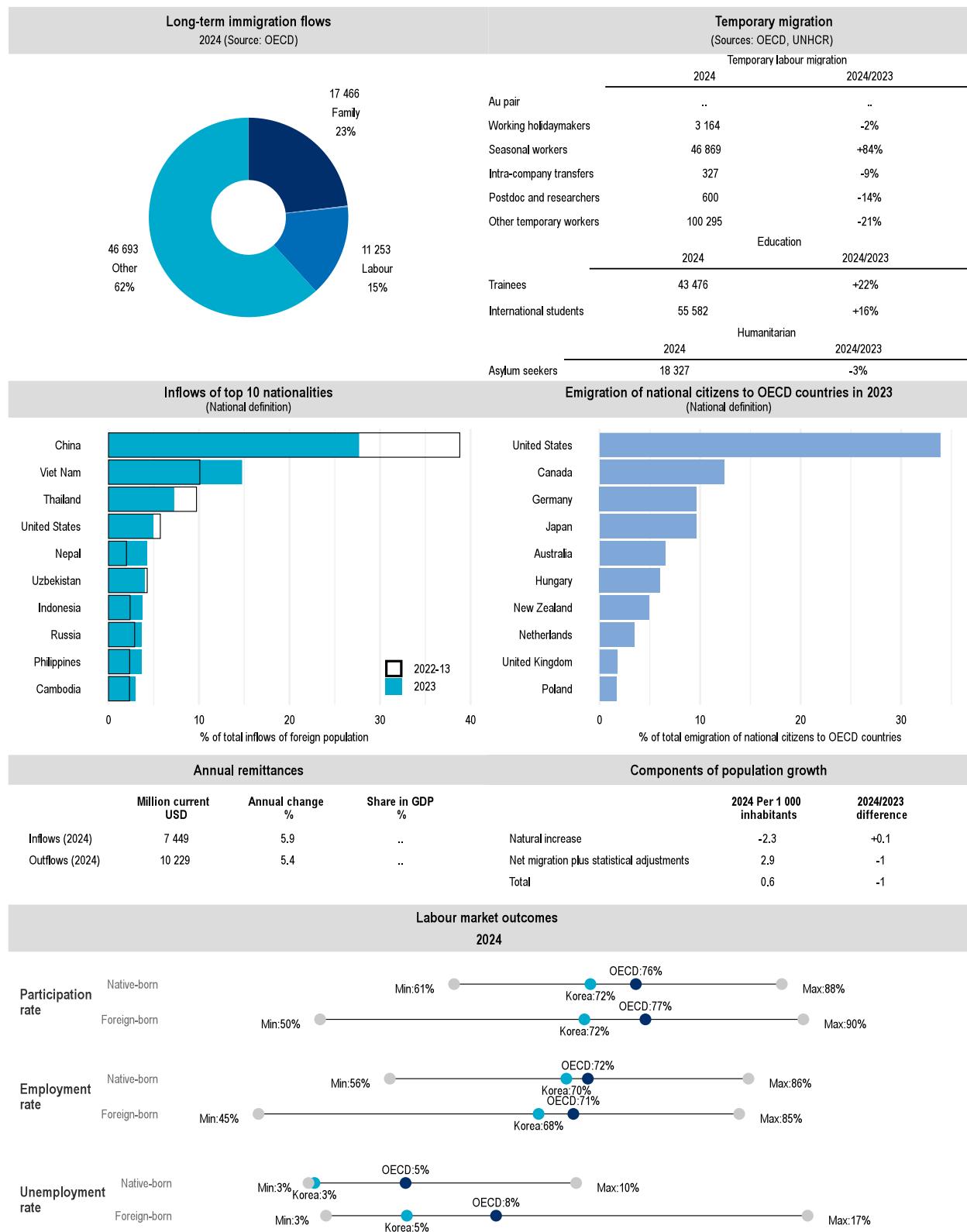
The MoJ, in co-operation with the Ministry of SMEs and Startups, has introduced a Special Visa for foreign entrepreneurial talent (D-8-4(S)). The visa minimises quantitative requirements such as academic background and is issued by the MoJ after a private evaluation of business feasibility and innovation, followed by a recommendation from the Ministry of SMEs and Startups.

To support undocumented foreign children residing long-term in Korea and attending school, the MoJ has extended its regularisation initiative until 31 March 2028. Under this initiative, children who meet certain eligibility requirements and submit an application may be granted visa status following a review process.

On 2 April 2025, the MoJ launched the "Local Government Pilot" pilot programme, which allows each metropolitan local governments to design tailored eligibility requirements for study (D-2) or special activity (E-7) visas. The 15 metropolitan local governments selected for the pilot programme will implement it in co-operation with the Ministry of Justice through 2026.

For further information: www.eps.go.kr | www.immigration.go.kr | www.mrtc.re.kr/eng/main/main.php.

Key figures on immigration and emigration – Korea



StatLink <https://stat.link/xtwyuv>

Latvia

Foreign-born population – 2024	12.7% of the population	Main countries of birth:
0.2 million, 59% women	Evolution since 2014: -12%	Russia (41%), Ukraine (22%), Belarus (15%)

In 2024, 5 500 new immigrants obtained a residence permit longer than 12 months in Latvia (excluding EU citizens), -10.7% compared to 2023. This figure comprises 39.4% labour migrants, 12.5% family members (including accompanying family), 37.9% who came for education reasons and 10.1% other migrants. Around 800 short-term permits were issued to international students and 1 400 to temporary and seasonal labour migrants (excluding intra-EU migration). In addition, 5 300 intra-EU postings were recorded in 2023, a 62% increase compared to 2022. These posted workers are generally on short-term contracts.

India, Kazakhstan and Uzbekistan were the top three nationalities of newcomers in 2023. Among the top 15 countries of origin, Kazakhstan registered the strongest increase (800) and Ukraine the largest decrease (-500) in flows to Latvia compared to the previous year.

In 2024, the number of first asylum applicants decreased by -51%, to reach around 800. The majority of applicants came from Tajikistan (200), Afghanistan (200) and India (95). The largest increase since 2023 concerned nationals of Tajikistan (200) and the largest decrease nationals of Syria (-300). Of the 660 decisions taken in 2024, 28% were positive.

Emigration of Latvian citizens to OECD countries decreased by -6% in 2023, to 12 000. Approximately 24% of this group migrated to Germany, 15% to the Netherlands and 9% to Sweden.

In 2025, Latvia continued to advance its border management and migration governance, with a strong focus on national security and legal compliance. In December 2024, the government adopted the Integrated Border Management Plan 2024-2028, aimed at strengthening institutional co-ordination, modernising surveillance infrastructure, and enhancing cross-border co-operation with EU partners. Enhanced surveillance measures at the Belarusian border remained in place, with the Cabinet of Ministers extending the regime for a further six months in March 2025, in response to ongoing irregular crossing attempts. In addition, access at three checkpoints – Paternieki, Terehova and Grebneva – was restricted to motor vehicles only.

To further mitigate security risks, Latvia extended entry and visa restrictions for Russian and Belarusian citizens until the end of 2026. New entry requirements are also planned for third-country nationals without Latvian-issued visas or residence permits. Once implemented, such individuals will be required to submit detailed information about their travel purpose, duration, itinerary, and affiliations at least 48 hours prior to arrival.

Labour migration regulations were also revised. Amendments to the Immigration Law in June 2024 granted authorities broader powers to restrict the ability of individuals or organisations to invite foreign workers in cases of legal violations, while also allowing the Cabinet of Ministers to impose visa restrictions in specific geopolitical contexts. Additionally, new rules were introduced to set the required financial means for third-country workers at the average wage within the relevant sector. Further changes, approved in December 2024, introduced stricter obligations for employers recruiting foreign nationals. From January 2025, employers must justify vacancies to the State Employment Agency, assess local candidates proposed by the agency, and provide documented reasons for any rejections.

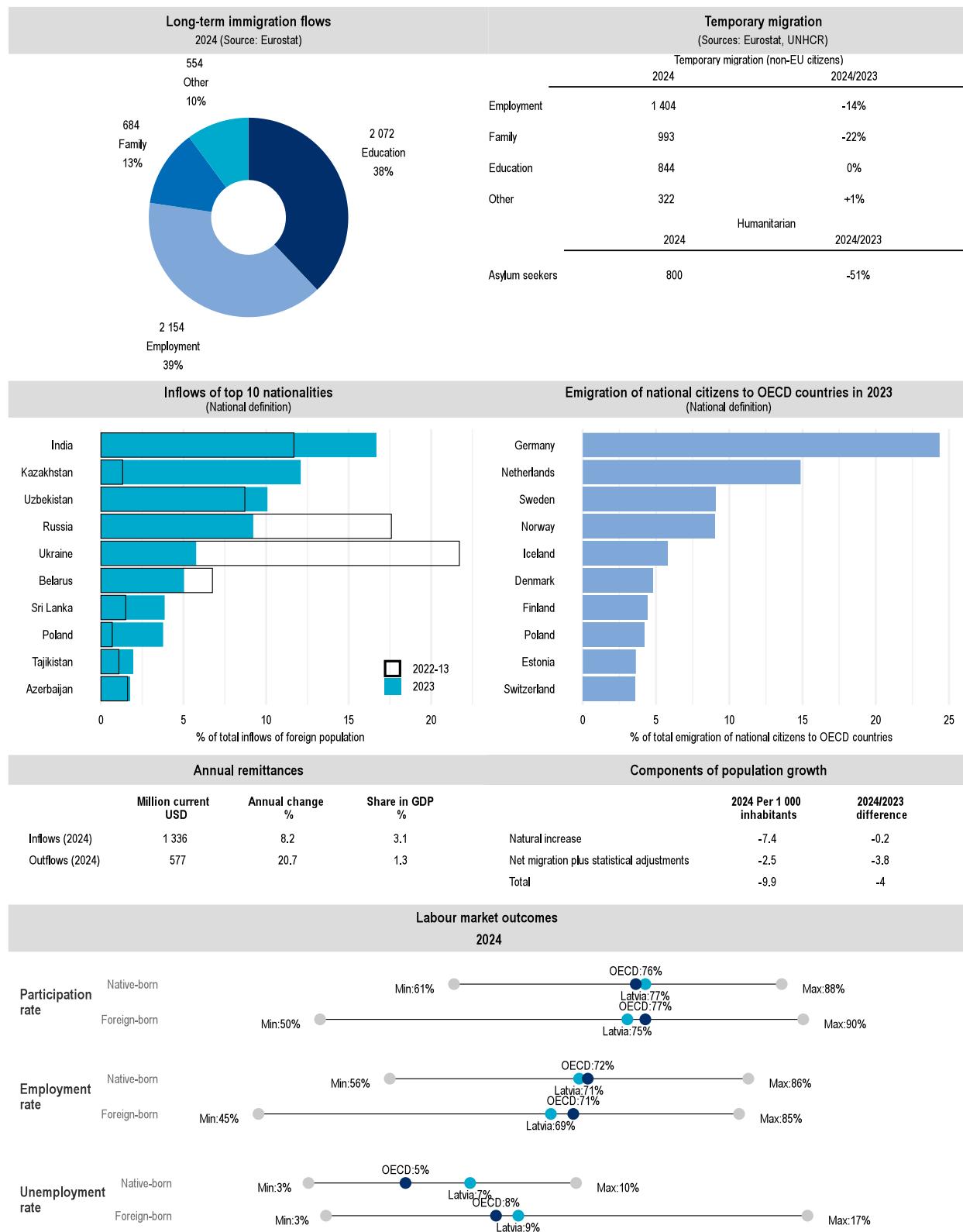
Several EU directives were transposed into national law, including provisions related to the Emergency Travel Document and regulations clarifying the rights of EU Blue Card holders and their family members to access social services and disability-related benefits. In addition, state fees for migration services were increased in November 2024.

Latvia continues to offer temporary protection to Ukrainians, following the EU-wide extension until March 2026. Further amendments were adopted in November 2024, stipulating that, from 11 December, temporary residence permits would be issued for a three-year period instead of two. The amendments also extended deadlines for the provision of various forms of assistance. In early 2025, however, authorities reported that more than 18 000 Ukrainian residents had not renewed their temporary protection status and consequently lost their legal residence.

In December 2024, Latvia adopted the Development Plan for a Cohesive and Civically Active Society 2024-2027. The plan outlines integration measures for third-country nationals and beneficiaries of international protection, with a focus on social inclusion, civic education, and access to essential services.

For further information: www.pmlp.gov.lv | www.csp.gov.lv | www.emn.lv.

Key figures on immigration and emigration – Latvia



StatLink  <https://stat.link/6dhcs3>

Lithuania

Foreign-born population – 2024	9.4% of the population	Main countries of birth:
0.3 million, 46% women	Evolution since 2014: +95%	Belarus (25%), Russia (24%), Ukraine (23%)

In 2024, Lithuania received 5 700 new immigrants on a long-term or permanent basis (including changes of status and free mobility), -18% compared to 2023. This figure comprises 11% immigrants benefitting from free mobility, 32% labour migrants, 51% family members (including accompanying family) and 3% humanitarian migrants. Around 5 900 permits were issued to tertiary-level international students and 50 to temporary and seasonal labour migrants (excluding intra-EU migration). In addition, 9 000 intra-EU postings were recorded in 2023, a 40% increase compared to 2022. These posted workers are generally on short-term contracts.

Belarus, Ukraine and Uzbekistan were the top three nationalities of newcomers in 2023. Among the top 15 countries of origin, Belarus registered the strongest increase (5 900) and Ukraine the largest decrease (-50 000) in flows to Lithuania compared to the previous year.

In 2024, the number of first asylum applicants decreased by -42%, to reach around 300. The majority of applicants came from Belarus (100), Russia (40) and Ukraine (25). The largest increase since 2023 concerned nationals of Ukraine (20) and the largest decrease nationals of Belarus (-200). Of the 400 decisions taken in 2024, 48% were positive.

Emigration of Lithuanian citizens to OECD countries decreased by -8% in 2023, to 17 000. Approximately 17% of this group migrated to Germany, 14% to Norway and 13% to Spain.

Lithuania has taken steps to refine its labour migration policy and improve regulatory compliance. Amendments adopted in 2024 aimed to better align migration with national priorities by managing lower-skilled entries and expanding access for highly qualified professionals.

A new population-based immigration quota was also introduced at maximum 1.4% of the resident population. The employment quota for third-country nationals is set at 24 830 in 2025, without any breakdown by economic activities. Once this threshold is reached, foreign hires must be offered a salary above the national average. The quota is not applicable to highly qualified specialists.

Lithuania also introduced additional compliance measures in 2024. From December, only nationals of countries where a Lithuanian-approved external service provider operates are eligible to apply for a temporary residence permit via an external service provider. Highly qualified, third-country nationals, students, researchers and lecturers, ICT and family members can apply for a temporary residence permit in any country where an approved Lithuanian external service provider operates. Other third-country nationals can apply for a temporary residence permit in Lithuania.

Border security was further strengthened through the Integrated Border Management Plan 2024-2028, which aims to improve inter-agency co-ordination, infrastructure, and surveillance, with a focus on regional and EU-level co-operation. In April 2025, the parliament tightened sanctions against Russian nationals, allowing residence permits to be revoked if they travel to Russia or Belarus more than once in three months without valid justification. In parallel, a new Action Plan for Combating Human Trafficking (2024-2026) was adopted in July 2024, providing specialised training for officials to identify victims.

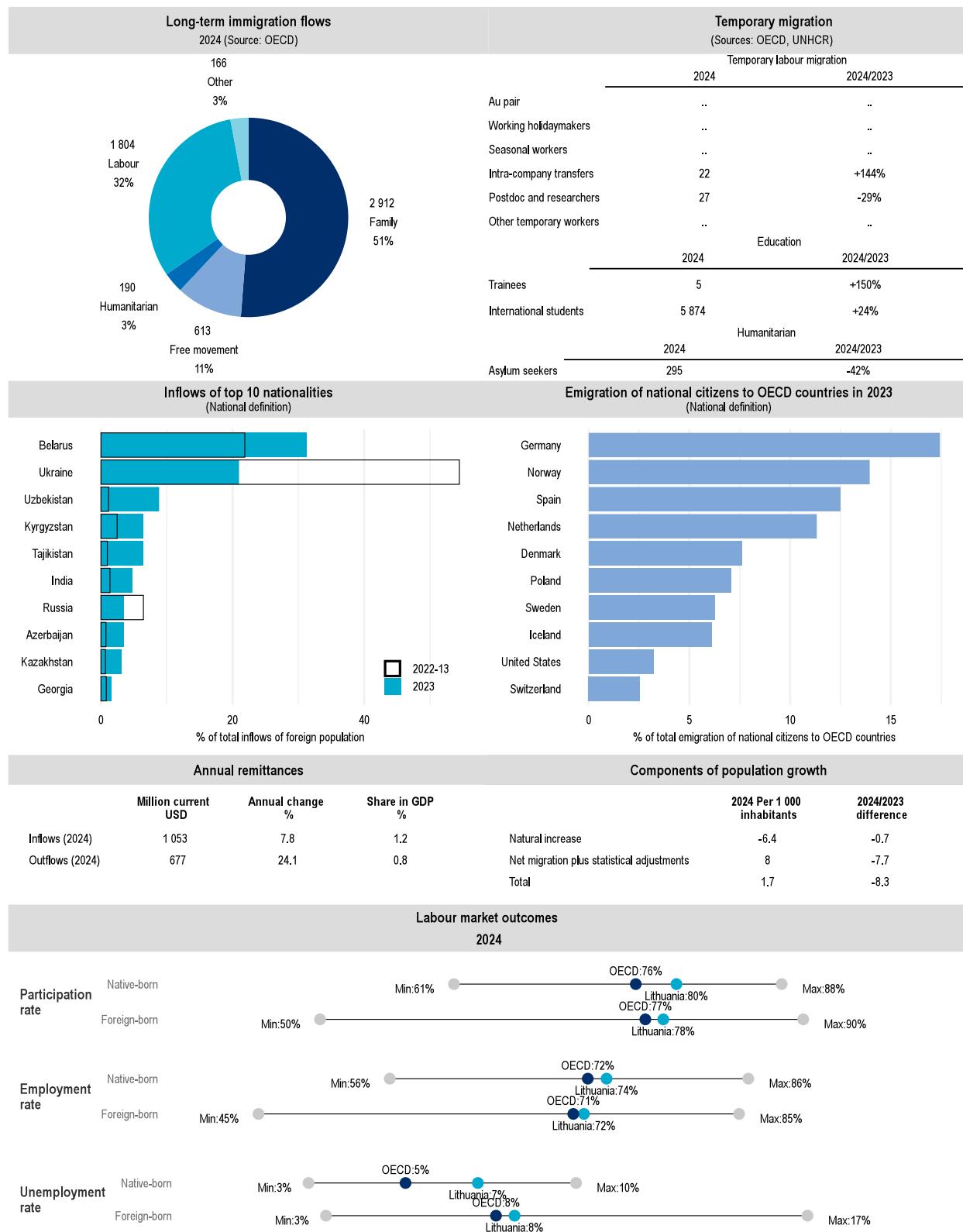
A new Reception and Integration Agency under the Ministry of Social Security and Labour became operational in January 2025. It is responsible for ensuring reception conditions for asylum seekers, providing temporary accommodation, age assessment, health screening, transport, and legal services. Recipients of international or temporary protection have the right to live free of charge in accommodation of the Reception and Integration Agency for up to six months. The period may be extended up to one month (up to three months for vulnerable persons). After this period, the recipients of international and (or) temporary protection, as well as other vulnerable groups may stay for up to three months at their own expense.

In January 2025, Lithuania adopted a new strategic plan to improve migrant integration. Foreign residents integration policy co-ordinators were employed in 16 out of 60 municipalities (more than 65% of foreign residents in Lithuania are covered) and they have been drafting integration measures needed for each specific municipality. Sociocultural adaptation and mental health, together with information access and language trainings are some of the core measures.

Diaspora engagement efforts also progressed. In October 2024, the government approved the 2025-2027 "Global Lithuania" Action Plan, involving nearly 100 institutions. The plan supports cultural identity, youth engagement, return migration through targeted educational and community programmes.

For further information: www.migracija.lt | www.stat.gov.lt | www.emn.lt.

Key figures on immigration and emigration – Lithuania



Luxembourg

Foreign-born population – 2024	51.3% of the population	Main countries of birth:
0.3 million, 49% women	Evolution since 2014: +45%	Portugal (21%), France (13%), Belgium (6%)

In 2024, Luxembourg received 26 000 new immigrants on a long-term or permanent basis (including changes of status and free mobility), -4% compared to 2023. This figure comprises 61% immigrants benefitting from free mobility, 12% labour migrants, 22% family members (including accompanying family) and 4% humanitarian migrants. Around 500 permits were issued to tertiary-level international students and 600 to temporary and seasonal labour migrants (excluding intra-EU migration). In addition, 52 000 intra-EU postings were recorded in 2023, a 9% increase compared to 2022. These posted workers are generally on short-term contracts.

Portugal, France and Italy were the top three nationalities of newcomers in 2023. Among the top 15 countries of origin, China registered the strongest increase (80) and Ukraine the largest decrease (-3 500) in flows to Luxembourg compared to the previous year.

In 2024, the number of first asylum applicants decreased by -19%, to reach around 2 100. The majority of applicants came from Eritrea (400), Syria (400) and Algeria (100). The largest increase since 2023 concerned nationals of Algeria (65) and the largest decrease nationals of Syria (-400). Of the 1 520 decisions taken in 2024, 64% were positive.

Emigration of Luxembourg citizens to OECD countries decreased by -18% in 2023, to 4 100. Approximately 47% of this group migrated to Germany, 17% to France and 10% to Belgium.

Throughout 2024, several legal and policy developments in the field of immigration took place in Luxembourg.

On 1 July 2024, Luxembourg amended its Immigration Law to transpose the EU Blue Card Directive 2021/1883. The reform simplified entry procedures by reducing the required contract duration to six months and introduced a single salary threshold, currently set at EUR 58 968, with a view to enhancing talent attraction. Other main changes included: authorising a stay to highly qualified workers for a period up to 90 days if travelling on business; granting access to employment in high-skilled occupations after 12 months (down from 24 months); allowing travel to another Member state after 12 months of legal stay; authorising stay while renewal is in progress; simplifying and accelerating procedure for family reunification; allowing for a possibility to apply for an EU Blue Card for beneficiaries of temporary protection; simplifying access to the labour market.

On 4 April 2024, the list of shortage occupations was published. This list comprised a reduced number of occupations compared to the previous list (published in September 2023), which was the first of its kind in Luxembourg.

Regarding international protection, the new Constitution recognised the right of asylum. Furthermore, on 7 August 2023, the labour market test requirement for applicants for international protection was abolished.

In matters of temporary protection granted to Ukrainian nationals fleeing Russia's full-scale aggression in March 2024, temporary protection was extended until March 2025. In December 2024, it was further extended until 4 March 2026. Protection holders are now issued with a biometric card. As of 5 December 2024, individuals granted temporary protection status in Luxembourg are required to initiate the process of obtaining a biometric residence card immediately upon arrival. For those renewing their existing cards, government authorities provide advance notification regarding the steps required to obtain a biometric card.

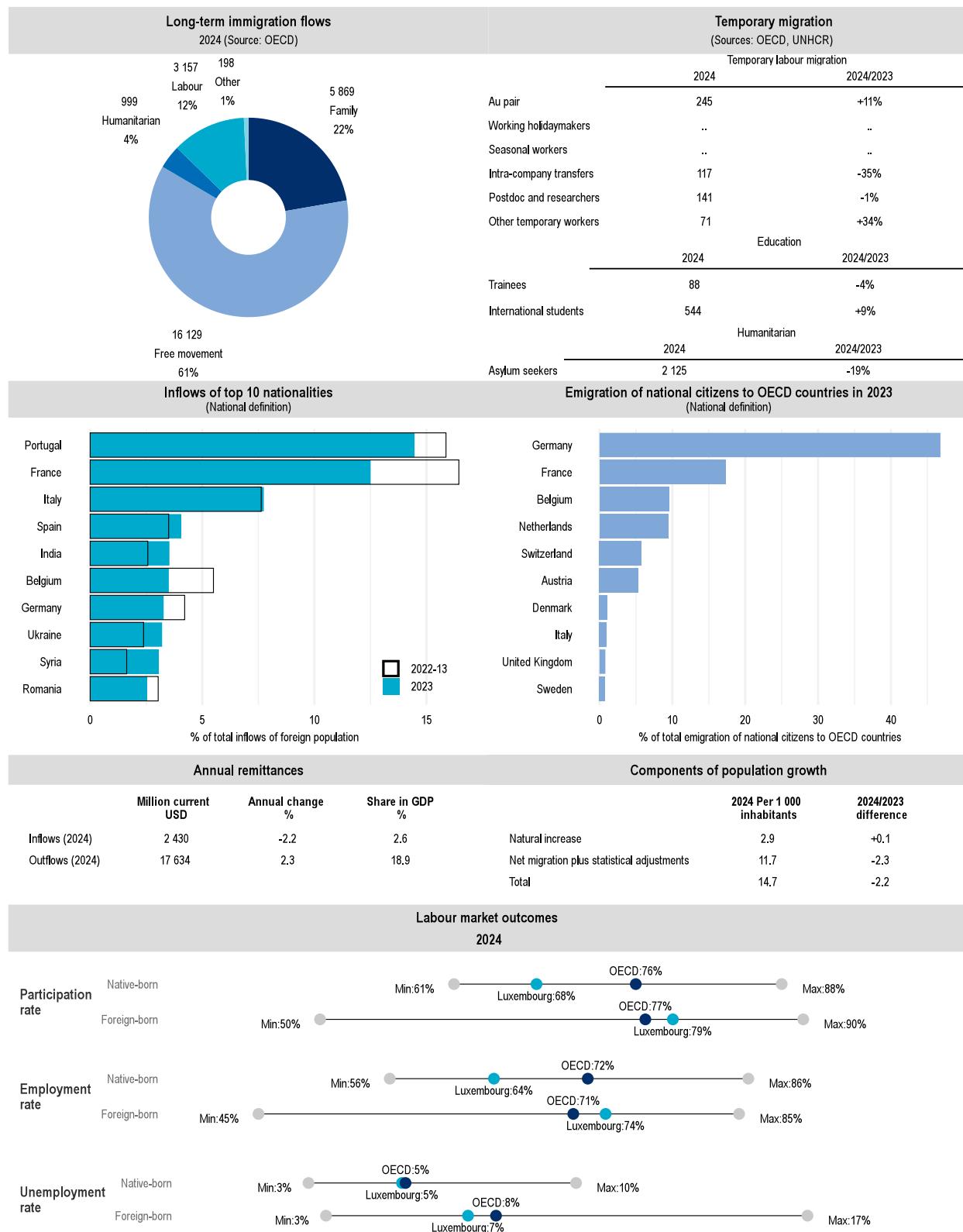
In matters of integration, the new Law on Living Together entered into force on 1 January 2024. It replaced the concept of integration with that of living together. The Citizen Pact (Biergerpakt) replaced Welcome and Integration Contract. Unlike the Contract, the Citizen Pact is open to any person living or working in Luxembourg.

On 21 April 2023, amendments were introduced to the Immigration Law to structure returns measures and entry bans. On 7 August 2023, major amendments to the Labour Code were adopted to combat illegal employment. These included closing loopholes concerning regularly residing third-country nationals without work authorisation, increasing fines and imprisonment penalties, and clarifying aggravating circumstances, particularly those related to human trafficking. Throughout 2024, Luxembourg continued to face challenges related to irregular migration.

Overall, the year 2024 was considered a transition year for the new government. In November 2023, the Directorate of Immigration came under the supervision of the Ministry of Home Affairs. The government has also remained in a state of anticipation until the adoption of the new Pact on Migration and Asylum by the Council and the European Parliament on 11 June 2024, and implementation is scheduled for 2026.

For further information: www.guichet.public.lu | www.ona.gouvernement.lu | www.integratioun.lu.

Key figures on immigration and emigration – Luxembourg



StatLink <https://stat.link/xm5nuz>

Mexico

Foreign-born population – 2020	1% of the population	Main countries of birth:
1.2 million, 49% women	Evolution since 2014: +29%	United States (66%), Guatemala (5%), Spain (2%)

In 2024, Mexico received 72 000 new immigrants on a long-term or permanent basis (including changes of status), 3.7% more than in 2023. This figure comprises 6% labour migrants, 46% family members (including accompanying family) and 36% humanitarian migrants. Around 5 000 permits were issued to tertiary-level international students and 28 400 to temporary and seasonal labour migrants.

Honduras, Guatemala and the United States were the top three nationalities of newcomers in 2023. Among the top 15 countries of origin, Guatemala registered the strongest increase (2 400) and Venezuela the largest decrease (-3 500) in flows to Mexico compared to the previous year.

In 2024, the number of first asylum applicants decreased by -44%, to reach around 79 000. The majority of applicants came from Honduras (28 000), Cuba (18 000) and Haiti (11 000). The largest increase since 2023 concerned nationals of Peru (200) and the largest decrease nationals of Haiti (-33 000). Of the 70 000 decisions taken in 2024, 39% were positive.

Emigration of Mexican citizens to OECD countries increased by 32% in 2023, to 217 000. Approximately 88% of this group migrated to the United States, 4% to Spain and 3% to Canada.

In February 2024, Mexico launched its Comprehensive Human Mobility Strategy (CHMS) based on the Mexican Human Mobility Model to address both immediate humanitarian needs and the structural causes of migration, with a strong emphasis on regional development co-operation. The model includes actions to provide humanitarian assistance for newcomers, improve border security, expand regular migration pathways, support the Mexican diaspora, and improve living conditions in migrants' countries and communities of origin. These actions are co-ordinated through the Interministerial Commission for Comprehensive Migration Management (CIAIMM, for its acronym in Spanish). In October 2024, the new government ratified the CHMS, ensuring continuity in immigration policy.

As part of the CHMS, Mexico extended its flagship social programmes, Jóvenes Construyendo el Futuro ("Youth building the future") and Sembrando Vida ("Sowing Life"), to countries across the region, including Belize, Colombia, Cuba, Ecuador, El Salvador, Haiti, Honduras and Panama. The government pledged to expand regular labour migration pathways, promote job creation, and more regular employment options. To support this initiative, Mexico launched a digital platform, México te emplea ("Mexico employs you") to integrate migrants and refugees into the labour market. The platform offers job openings, tools, and resources on labour rights, training, and vocational development. By September 2024, more than 6 000 jobs had been opened to migrants in co-operation with over 380 companies.

The human mobility strategy also addresses irregular migration flows. By September 2024, the CIAIMM reported a 66% decrease in irregular migration compared to 2023. This achievement was credited to enhanced security along migration routes, anti-trafficking initiatives, and the creation of integration centres for migrants. Additionally, in anticipation for potential mass deportations from the United States, the government installed temporary shelters in northern border cities. It also implemented the programme Mexico te abraza ("Mexico embraces you"), a repatriation strategy to welcome Mexicans who return to the country from the United States, protecting their rights and ensuring their reintegration into their communities of origin. Authorities collaborated with local organisations to host returnees and implemented measures to ensure the safe transfer of asylum seekers.

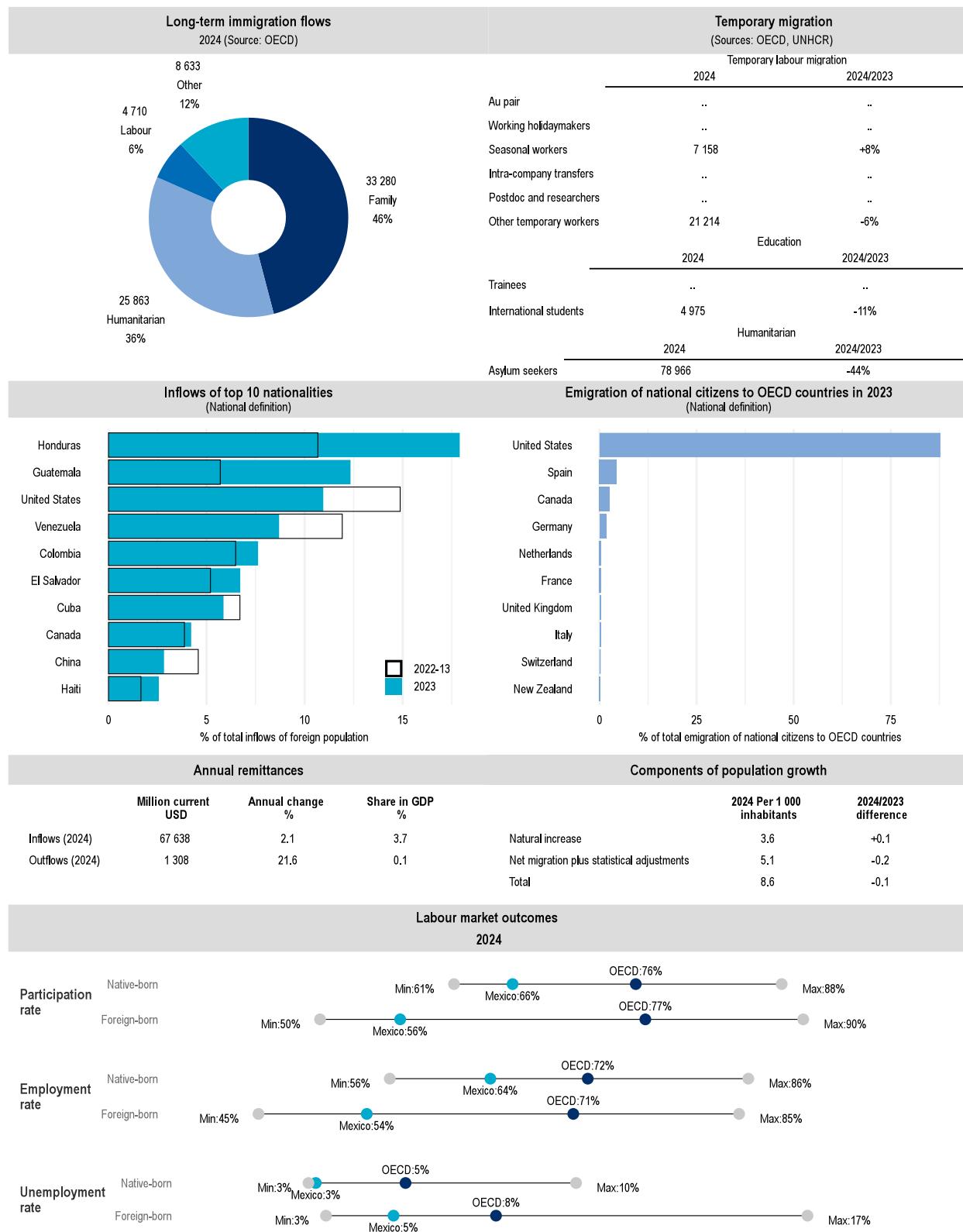
In late 2024, the President requested the United States to repatriate non-Mexican migrants directly to their countries of origin. Further, in February 2025, Mexican troops were mobilised to border posts with high flows of irregular migration as part of an agreement to pause United States tariffs on Mexican imports.

In January 2025, to assist Mexican nationals at risk of deportation, the government launched the mobile app "ConsulApp Contigo". The app has a "panic button" to notify consulates and family members if a user is detained by US authorities. Additionally, Mexico expanded services in its U.S. consulates to meet the growing needs of Mexican diaspora, including a 24-hour hotline for consular assistance.

In January 2025, Mexico hosted the Forum for an Orderly, Safe, and Regular Migration, where the government emphasised the need for domestic reforms. These include drafting a new migration law, restructuring the National Institute of Migration, and strengthening migrant support services. Mexico City also announced a plan to guarantee access to housing, employment, healthcare, and education services for all migrants in the city by March 2025.

For further information: www.politicamigratoria.gob.mx | www.comar.gob.mx.

Key figures on immigration and emigration – Mexico



StatLink  <https://stat.link/4v0shf>

Netherlands

Foreign-born population – 2024	16% of the population	Main countries of birth:
2.9 million, 52% women	Evolution since 2014: +49%	Türkiye (8%), Poland (6%), Suriname (6%)

In 2024, the Netherlands received 183 000 new immigrants on a long-term or permanent basis (including changes of status and free mobility), -6.4% compared to 2023. This figure comprises 47% immigrants benefitting from free mobility, 13% labour migrants, 23% family members (including accompanying family) and 17% humanitarian migrants. Around 22 000 permits were issued to tertiary-level international students and 2 500 to temporary and seasonal labour migrants (excluding intra-EU migration). In addition, 193 000 intra-EU postings were recorded in 2023, an 11% increase compared to 2022. These posted workers are generally on short-term contracts.

Ukraine, Poland and Syria were the top three nationalities of newcomers in 2023. Among the top 15 countries of origin, Syria registered the strongest increase (2 500) and Ukraine the largest decrease (-66 000) in flows to the Netherlands compared to the previous year.

In 2024, the number of first asylum applicants decreased by -17%, to reach around 32 000. The majority of applicants came from Syria (12 000), Iraq (2 200) and Türkiye (1 900). The largest increase since 2023 concerned nationals of Iraq (700) and the largest decrease nationals of Syria (-1 500). Of the 21 000 decisions taken in 2024, 75% were positive.

Emigration of Dutch citizens to OECD countries decreased by -2% in 2023, to 42 000. Approximately 21% of this group migrated to Spain, 18% to Belgium and 13% to Germany.

In December 2024, the Dutch Cabinet approved a comprehensive package of asylum-related measures submitted by the Minister for Asylum and Migration, aimed at minimising pressure on the national asylum system. The package includes limiting the right to family reunification, restricting the eligibility for shelter and financial support for asylum seekers with a low likelihood of receiving protection, and accelerating procedures for nationals of designated "safe countries of origin." These measures should lead to a more efficient and swift asylum procedure and in turn lead to an increase in the return of rejected asylum seekers. Under the proposed Asylum Emergency Measures Act, the Dutch Government intends to replace permanent asylum residency with fixed-term permits valid for three years subject to periodic review for renewal.

In parallel, in response to ongoing pressures on the asylum reception system, the Central Agency for the Reception of Asylum Seekers (COA) expanded its temporary accommodation capacity through agreements with municipalities and private partners. However, capacity shortages remain a challenge in early 2025, with plans underway to establish a more sustainable long-term reception framework.

In September 2024, the Dutch Government publicly stated its intention to seek an opt-out from parts of the EU's Pact on Migration and Asylum, citing concerns about national sovereignty and capacity. Nevertheless, as a signatory, the Netherlands has continued to prepare for the implementation of the regulations, including infrastructure for the new border procedures and screening mechanisms.

In April 2024, the Netherlands abolished its foreign investor scheme, which had allowed third-country nationals to obtain residence permits through high-value economic investments. The scheme had seen very limited uptake since its inception and was considered to offer limited added value.

From 18 November 2023, the Immigration and Naturalisation Service (IND) implemented new provisions associated to the recast of the EU Blue Card Directive. In May 2025, the House of Representatives voted in favour of the bill that implements revised decision periods in the Aliens Law 2000. The House exerted its right of amendment, adding three provisions: evaluation of, minimum salary requirements for and a labour market test for the Blue Card. The Senate is expected to commence proceedings later in 2025.

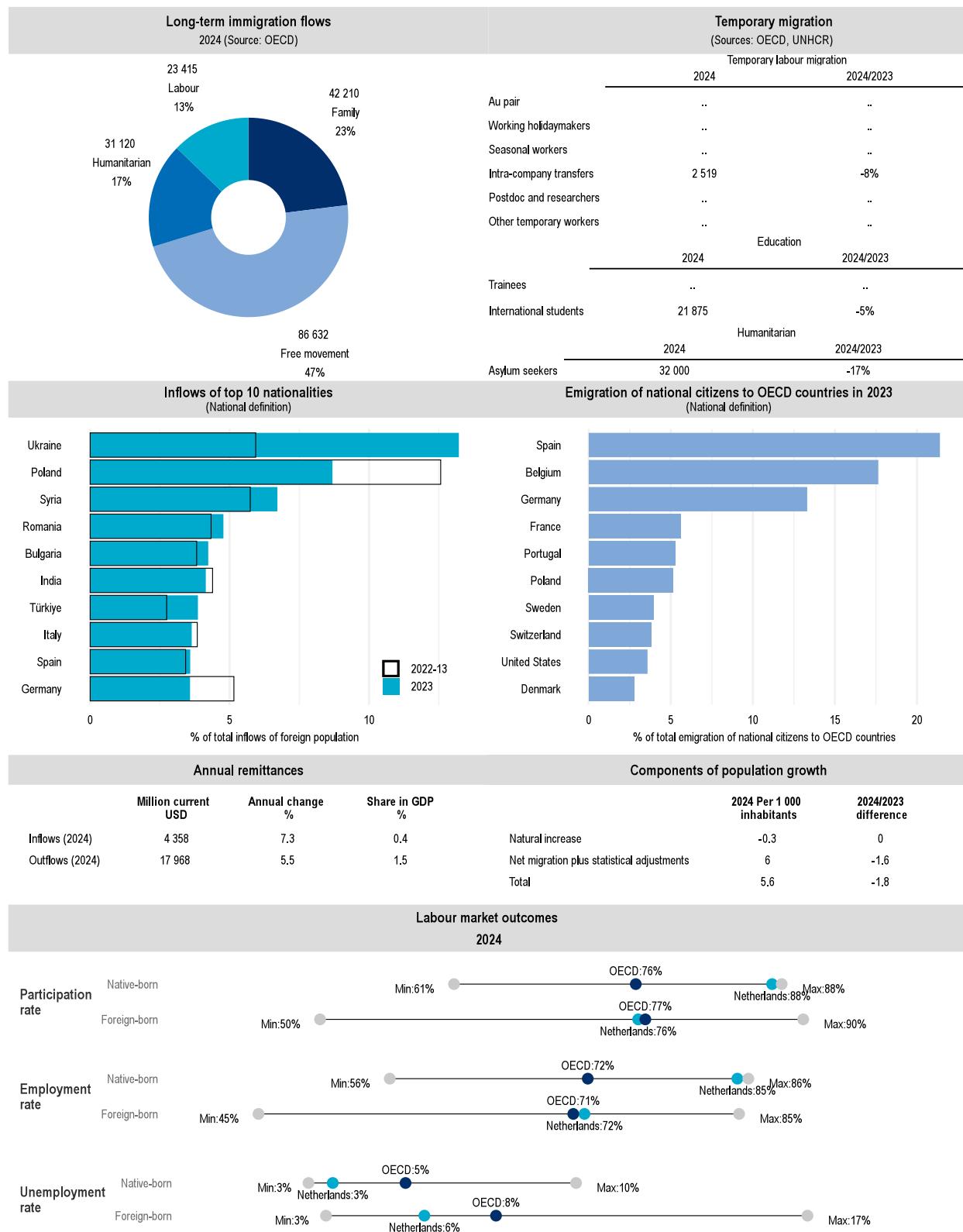
Dutch authorities have proposed new rules for hiring highly skilled workers through Employer of Record (EOR) arrangements. Key changes include the obligation from the company where the employee actually works to declare recognised sponsorship. In addition, work permits under EOR should be valid for two years only, with no renewals allowed. Finally, EORs must justify the use of their services and meet tougher notification and reporting requirements.

The Netherlands also introduced measures to curb irregular migration and smuggling, including enhanced surveillance and co-operation with neighbouring countries, investment in digital systems to detect fraud and strengthen border checks.

The government continued to invest in civic integration programmes. In 2024, efforts were made to reinforce language training, job market participation, and civic education for newly arrived third-country nationals under the Civic Integration Act 2021, which mandates tailor-made integration trajectories delivered by municipalities. In 2025, evaluation reports are expected to inform further revisions.

For further information: www.government.nl.

Key figures on immigration and emigration – Netherlands



StatLink  <https://stat.link/1ipnbw>

New Zealand

Foreign-born population – 2023	28.8% of the population	Main countries of birth:
1.5 million, 51% women	Evolution since 2018: +10%	United Kingdom (17%), China (11%), India (10%)

In 2024, New Zealand received 53 000 new immigrants on a long-term or permanent basis (including changes of status), -56% compared to 2023. This figure comprises 6% immigrants benefitting from free mobility, 18% labour migrants, 64% family members (including accompanying family) and 11% humanitarian migrants. Around 24 000 permits were issued to tertiary-level international students and 104 600 to temporary and seasonal labour migrants.

India, the Philippines and China were the top three nationalities of newcomers in 2023. Among the top 15 countries of origin, India registered the strongest increase (33 000) in flows to New Zealand compared to the previous year.

In 2024, the number of first asylum applicants increased by 39%, to reach around 2 400. The majority of applicants came from India (1 100), China (300) and Sri Lanka (200). The largest increase since 2023 concerned nationals of India (400) and the largest decrease nationals of Malaysia (-200). Of the 1 080 decisions taken in 2024, 22% were positive.

Emigration of New Zealand citizens to OECD countries increased by 24% in 2023, to 18 000. Approximately 75% of this group migrated to Australia, 6% to the United Kingdom and 5% to the United States.

In 2024-2025, New Zealand's Accredited Employer Work Visa (AEWV) scheme underwent significant reforms to improve accessibility and responsiveness to labour market needs. Key changes include removing the median wage threshold for all AEWV and Specific Purpose Work Visa roles and reducing required work experience from three to two years. Two new seasonal visa pathways will be introduced in 2025 to help employers address labour shortages.

Immigration New Zealand (INZ) is also redesigning the Job Check stage to ensure migrants are placed in genuine employment. The updated system aims to streamline processes for low-risk employers and improve processing times, supported by a revised job classification list.

There are numerous healthcare occupations on the Straight to Residence pathway on the Green List including all registered nurse occupations. This is the immigration system's most attractive offering. Healthcare professionals with a job offer in New Zealand may also be eligible to come to New Zealand on an AEWV or work towards residency through the Skilled Migrant Category.

From early November 2025, China will have transit visa waiver status and Chinese and Pacific visitors with an eligible Australian visa will not need New Zealand visa to visit New Zealand.

To align international education settings with labour market needs, international students who have studied Bachelor's degree-level and above qualifications for at least one year in New Zealand are eligible for Post Study Work Visas (PSWV) of up to three years, depending on the level and length of the qualification. A change allows those who complete a Master's degree after shifting from a Postgraduate Diploma to obtain a PSWV. Graduates of sub-degree qualifications linked to Green List occupations are also eligible for PSWVs.

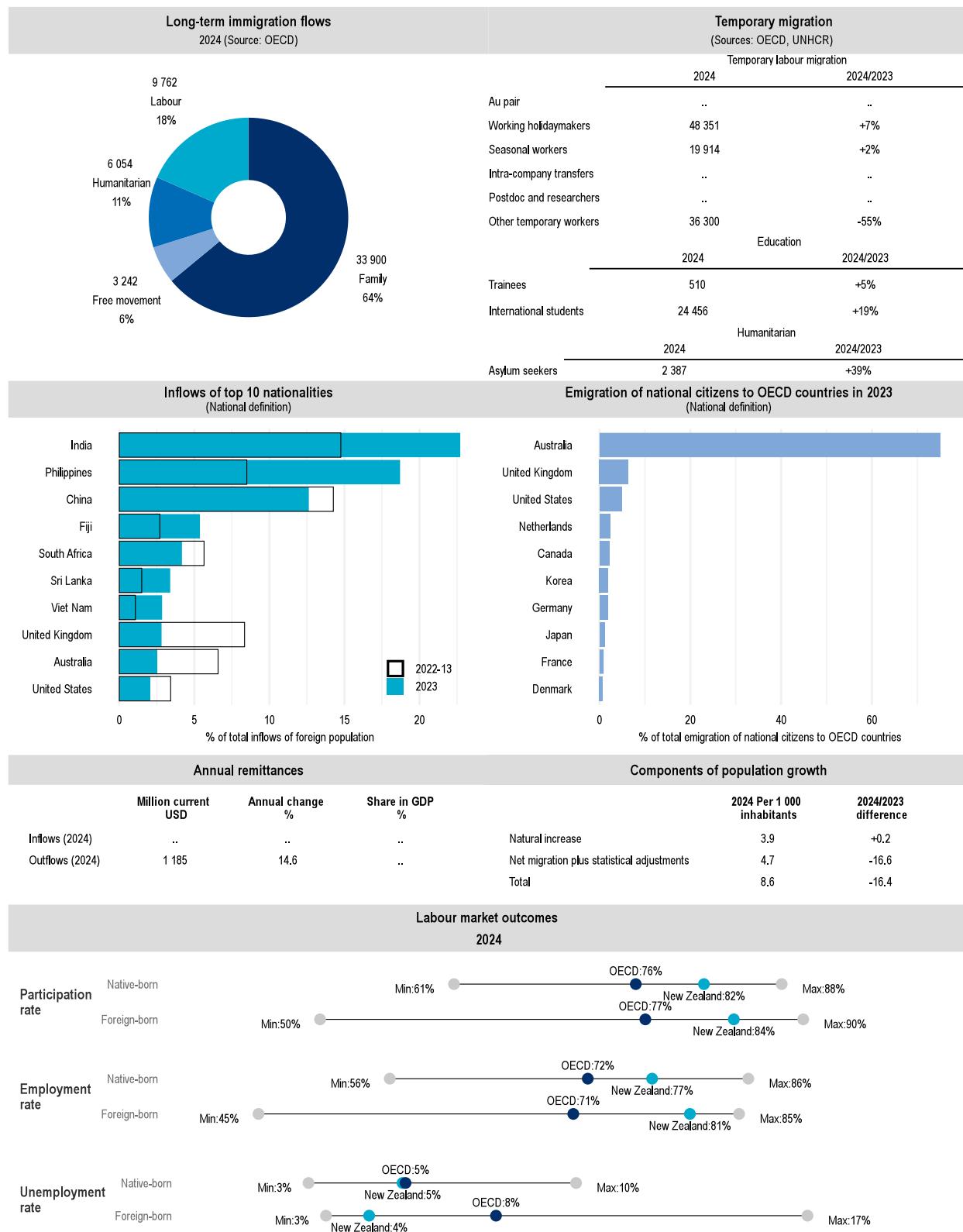
From 29 September 2025, applications will open for a five-year renewable visitor visa for parents of New Zealand citizens and residents. There are health, insurance and income requirements to access this visa. This balances family reunification goals with the need to protect public services. Existing visitor and residence visas for parents remain.

Changes to the Active Investor Plus visa, effective from 1 April 2025, aim to better attract foreign investment to New Zealand and simplify settings for users. Two investment categories have been introduced: the Growth (minimum NZD 5 million) and Balanced (minimum NZD 10 million) categories. The latter expands the scope of acceptable investments to include bond and property investments. Immigration requirements, such as the investment period and the time required to be spent in New Zealand, have been eased for Growth category investors. Balanced category investors who choose to make investments available under the Growth category will also receive discounted time in New Zealand requirements. The English language requirement has been removed for both investment categories. The changes will encourage deeper engagement with New Zealand's investment ecosystem and investments.

Integration efforts continue into 2025 through the Migrant Settlement and Integration Strategy, which defines successful settlement as feeling safe and well, having a sense of belonging and being able to participate in and contribute to all aspects of life (social, economic, cultural, and civic).

For further information: www.immigration.govt.nz/

Key figures on immigration and emigration – New Zealand



StatLink <https://stat.link/dvsi8>

Norway

Foreign-born population – 2024	18.2% of the population	Main countries of birth:
1 million, 49% women	Evolution since 2014: +44%	Poland (11%), Ukraine (7%), Sweden (5%)

In 2024, Norway received 36 000 new immigrants on a long-term or permanent basis (including changes of status), -14% compared to 2023. This figure comprises 49% immigrants benefitting from free mobility, 11% labour migrants, 33% family members (including accompanying family) and 8% humanitarian migrants. Around 3 000 permits were issued to tertiary-level international students and 6 500 to temporary and seasonal labour migrants.

Ukraine, Poland and Syria were the top three nationalities of newcomers in 2023. Among the top 15 countries of origin, Syria registered the strongest increase (800) and India the largest decrease (-500) in flows to Norway compared to the previous year.

In 2024, the number of first asylum applicants decreased by -6.5%, to reach around 4 800. The majority of applicants came from Syria (2 100), Ukraine (800) and Eritrea (300). The largest increase since 2023 concerned nationals of Syria (600) and the largest decrease nationals of Ukraine (-300). Of the 2 660 decisions taken in 2024, 57% were positive.

Emigration of Norwegian citizens to OECD countries increased by 1% in 2023, to 8 800. Approximately 20% of this group migrated to Spain, 20% to Denmark and 16% to Sweden.

In 2025, Norway pursued a more restrictive course in migration policy, reflecting growing domestic concern over capacity and sustainability. Key changes include the implementation of the Return Strategy 2025 – 2030, which aims to streamline both voluntary and forced returns. Emphasising humane processes, the strategy also strengthens reintegration support and bilateral co-operation with origin countries.

Stricter subsistence requirements for family immigration were introduced in January 2025, raising the income threshold for sponsors. Similarly, Norway continued to adjust its temporary collective protection scheme for Ukrainians by narrowing eligibility: dual nationals of Ukraine and another safe country, and individuals from regions deemed safe are now excluded. Travel restrictions were imposed, with re-entry permits revocable if beneficiaries return to Ukraine without valid reason.

Educational migration fell in 2024 with the introduction of tuition fees for non-EU/EFTA students in the autumn of 2023 prompting a notable drop in international enrolments. To counterbalance this, Norway expanded scholarships for students from developing countries. The au pair scheme was discontinued in March 2024 following criticism over its misuse as a source of low-wage labour. In the field of asylum, since July 2024, all asylum registrations must occur at the National Arrival Centre in Råde, with transportation provided only to vulnerable individuals. A temporary change to the Tenancy Act enables longer leases in holiday homes used for refugee accommodation.

In the integration field, Norway's Integration Act remains the cornerstone, regulating Norwegian language and social studies training, the introduction programme, and municipal responsibilities. However, the focus of the Introduction Programme has further oriented towards work and self-sufficiency and, since July 2024, stipulates at least 15 hours of weekly work-oriented activities after the first three months. Furthermore, a July 2024 amendment has reduced benefits for some cohorts (e.g. dual-income households without children).

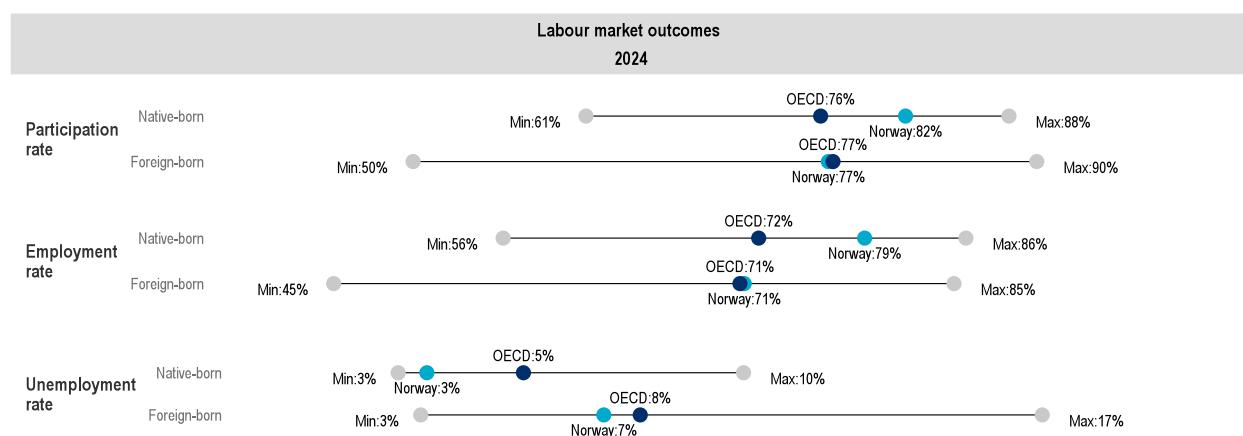
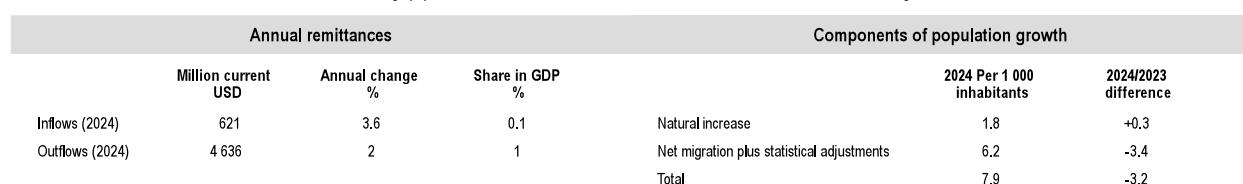
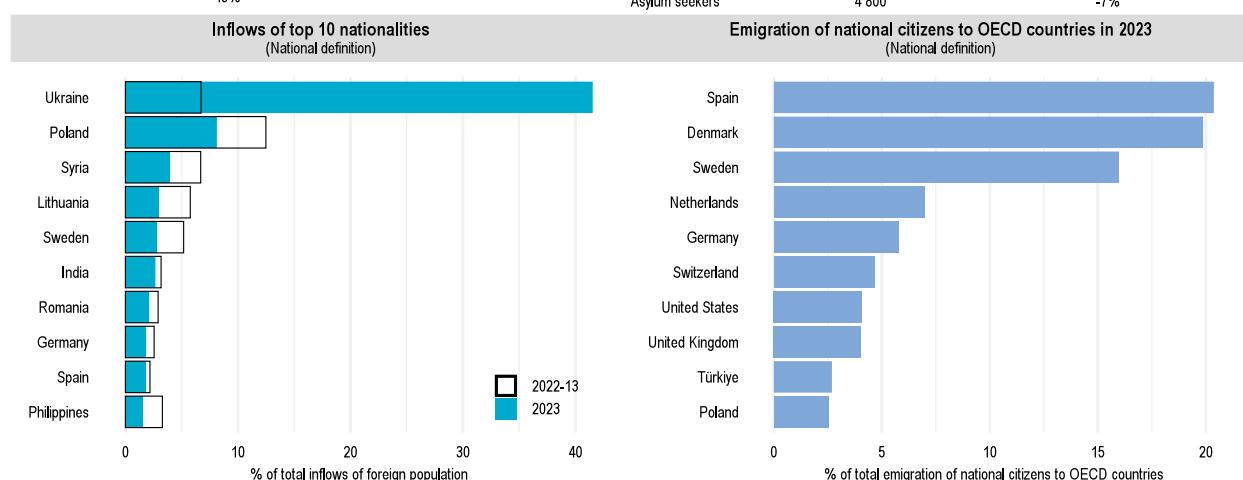
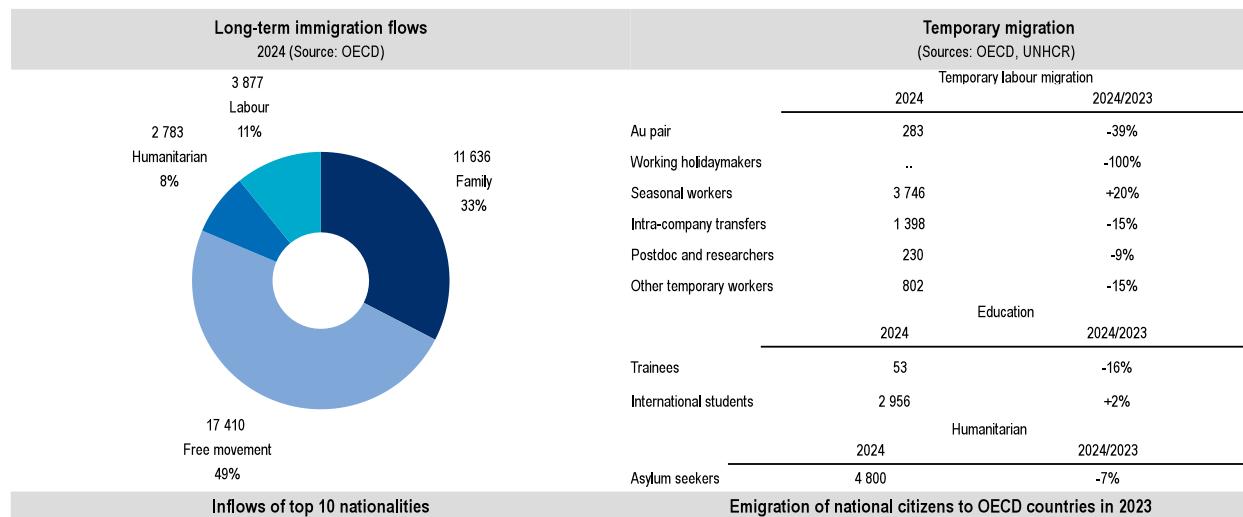
Recognition of qualifications has been restructured under the Norwegian Directorate for Higher Education and Skills (HK-dir). Foreign education is now more rapidly assessed, with a five-day fast-track option for employers. A new automatic recognition scheme supports smoother access to the labour market, especially for citizens from Ukraine and EEA states.

Integration support has been expanded in early childhood education and school, with new legislation easing the set-up of temporary kindergartens for refugee children. Primary education is guaranteed for all children expected to stay over three months, regardless of status. National and municipal grants support kindergartens serving high numbers of minority-language children.

To combat discrimination and promote equality, the government adopted the Action Plan to Combat Anti-Muslim Racism 2025-2030. The plan includes 30 measures to support civil society, improve data collection, and advance diversity education.

For further information: www.udi.no | www.imdi.no | www.regjeringen.no.

Key figures on immigration and emigration – Norway



Poland

Foreign-born population – 2024	2.4% of the population
0.9 million, 53% women	Evolution since 2014: +51%

In 2024, 180 000 new immigrants obtained a residence permit longer than 12 months in Poland (excluding EU citizens), -1.8% compared to 2023. This figure comprises 73% labour migrants, 11.1% family members (including accompanying family) and 15.8% other migrants. Around 24 000 short-term permits were issued to international students and 206 000 to temporary and seasonal labour migrants (excluding intra-EU migration). In addition, 105 000 intra-EU postings were recorded in 2023, a 14% increase compared to 2022. These posted workers are generally on short-term contracts.

Ukraine, Belarus and Germany were the top three nationalities of newcomers in 2021.

In 2024, the number of first asylum applicants increased by 87%, to reach around 14 000. The majority of applicants came from Ukraine (6 100), Belarus (3 600) and Ethiopia (500). The largest increase since 2023 concerned nationals of Ukraine (4 500) and the largest decrease nationals of Russia (-500). Of the 8 580 decisions taken in 2024, 82% were positive.

Emigration of Polish citizens to OECD countries decreased by -1% in 2023, to 136 000. Approximately 40% of this group migrated to Germany, 19% to the Netherlands and 6% to Switzerland.

In October 2024, the Polish Council of Ministers adopted the “Regain Control. Ensure Security.” Migration Strategy for 2025-2030, emphasising national security, controlled migration, and selective labour migration. The strategy outlines a number of key areas of intervention, including regulations of the rules of entry and residence of foreigners, access to international protection, conditions to access the labour market to meet demand in shortage occupations, integration, educational migration, citizenship and repatriation, and diaspora policy.

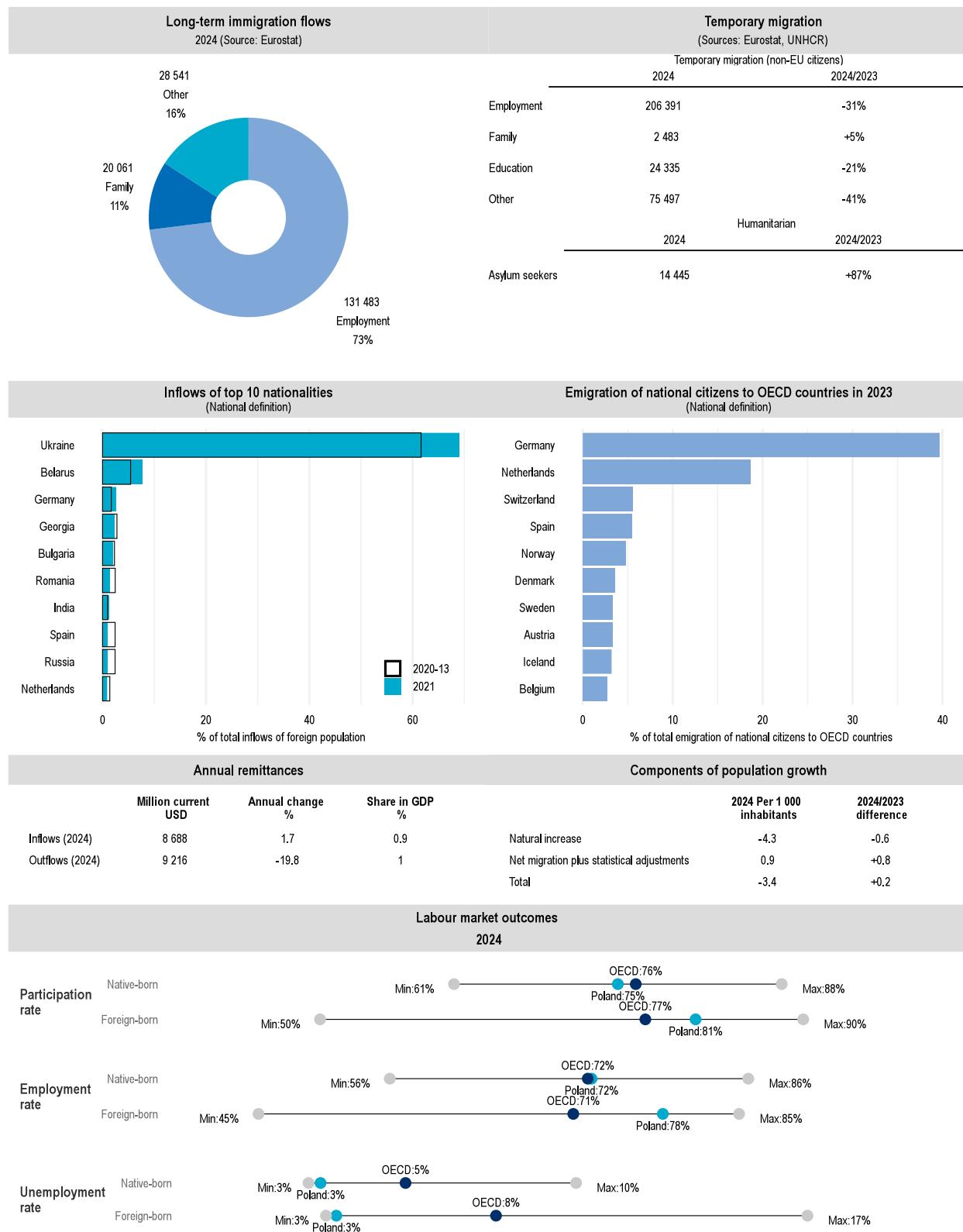
In line with the migration strategy, in April 2025 Poland adopted a reform to streamline employment procedures for foreign nationals to facilitate employment and increase security in the labour market. Key changes include an elimination of a labour market test in favour of a “protected professions” list, that can be adopted if harsh conditions in the local labour market arise, a shift to fully digitalised procedures for the issuing of work permits, and stricter compliance requirements for employers. Employment contracts must always be submitted to authorities prior to the commencement of work, and a minimum employment threshold has been introduced to qualify for a work permit. In addition, fast-track processing will be available for employers who are deemed crucial to the Polish economy or who are hiring in shortage occupations. Foreign nationals under family visit or study (non-degree) visas or visa-free entries will no longer be allowed to work. These changes will come into effect on 1 June 2025.

The migration strategy also introduces stricter regulations for the issuing of student visas, including increased verification of educational background and language skills, to prevent the use of student status as a pretext for legal residence in the EU. Since July 2025, a new law stipulates that foreign students need to prove B2-level proficiency in the language of study, and university leaders will be obliged to notify the authorities when international students fail to attend studies. The share of international students will also be capped to not exceed 50% of the total number of students at all universities.

In March 2025, the Polish Parliament passed a legislation allowing for the temporary suspension of the right to apply for asylum for individuals entering the country irregularly, particularly along the border with Belarus. This measure, justified by the government as a response to the instrumentalisation of migration by neighbouring states, allows for a restriction of rights for up to 60 renewable days in the event of a “serious and real threat to security”. Certain categories remain protected, including minors and their families, pregnant women, people requiring special care, people deemed at “real risk of harm” if returned over the border, and citizens of the country carrying out the instrumentalisation.

For further information: migrant.info.pl | www.emn.gov.pl | www.mos.cudzoziemcy.gov.pl/en.

Key figures on immigration and emigration – Poland



Portugal

Foreign-born population – 2023	11.7% of the population	Main countries of birth (2021):
1.2 million, 53% women	Evolution since 2014: +30%	Brazil (25%), Angola (14%), France (9%)

In 2024, Portugal received 138 000 new immigrants on a long-term or permanent basis (including changes of status and free mobility), -1.9% compared to 2023. This figure comprises 28% immigrants benefitting from free mobility, 44% labour migrants and 14% family members (including accompanying family). Around 9 000 permits were issued to tertiary-level international students. In addition, 73 000 intra-EU postings were recorded in 2023, a 29% increase compared to 2022. These posted workers are generally on short-term contracts.

Brazil, Angola and Cape Verde were the top three nationalities of newcomers in 2023. Among the top 15 countries of origin, Brazil registered the strongest increase (99 000) in flows to Portugal compared to the previous year.

In 2024, the number of first asylum applicants increased by 2.9%, to reach around 2 700. The majority of applicants came from Senegal (400), the Gambia (300) and Colombia (300). The largest increase since 2023 concerned nationals of Senegal (200) and the largest decrease nationals of Afghanistan (-100). Of the 1 010 decisions taken in 2024, 1% were positive.

Emigration of Portuguese citizens to OECD countries increased by 4% in 2023, to 61 000. Approximately 21% of this group migrated to Switzerland, 19% to Spain and 12% to France.

The Portuguese Council of Ministers approved a new Action Plan for Migration in June 2024 following a government change in April 2024. The plan contains 41 measures in four main areas: regulating migration, attracting foreign talent, integration and institutional reorganisation. Among the main measures is the repeal of the “expression of interest” mechanism through which third-country nationals, residing irregularly in Portugal, could apply for a residence permit to work or self-employment.

A priority of the Portuguese Government in 2024/25 has been to reduce the backlog of over 400 000 residence permit applications. To do so, it created a Task Force in AIMA (the Agency for Integration, Migration and Asylum). In addition, in July 2024, the government announced the automatic extension of all immigration visas and residence permits until 30 June 2025.

In April 2025, the Portuguese Government signed an agreement for regulated labour migration with employers' confederations and business associations. The aim is to speed up the process of hiring from abroad by imposing a 20-day maximum visa processing time. The agreement also clarifies the employers' obligations when hiring from abroad, in terms of labour contract, health and travel insurance, but also in ensuring training, language learning and appropriate accommodation for foreign employees.

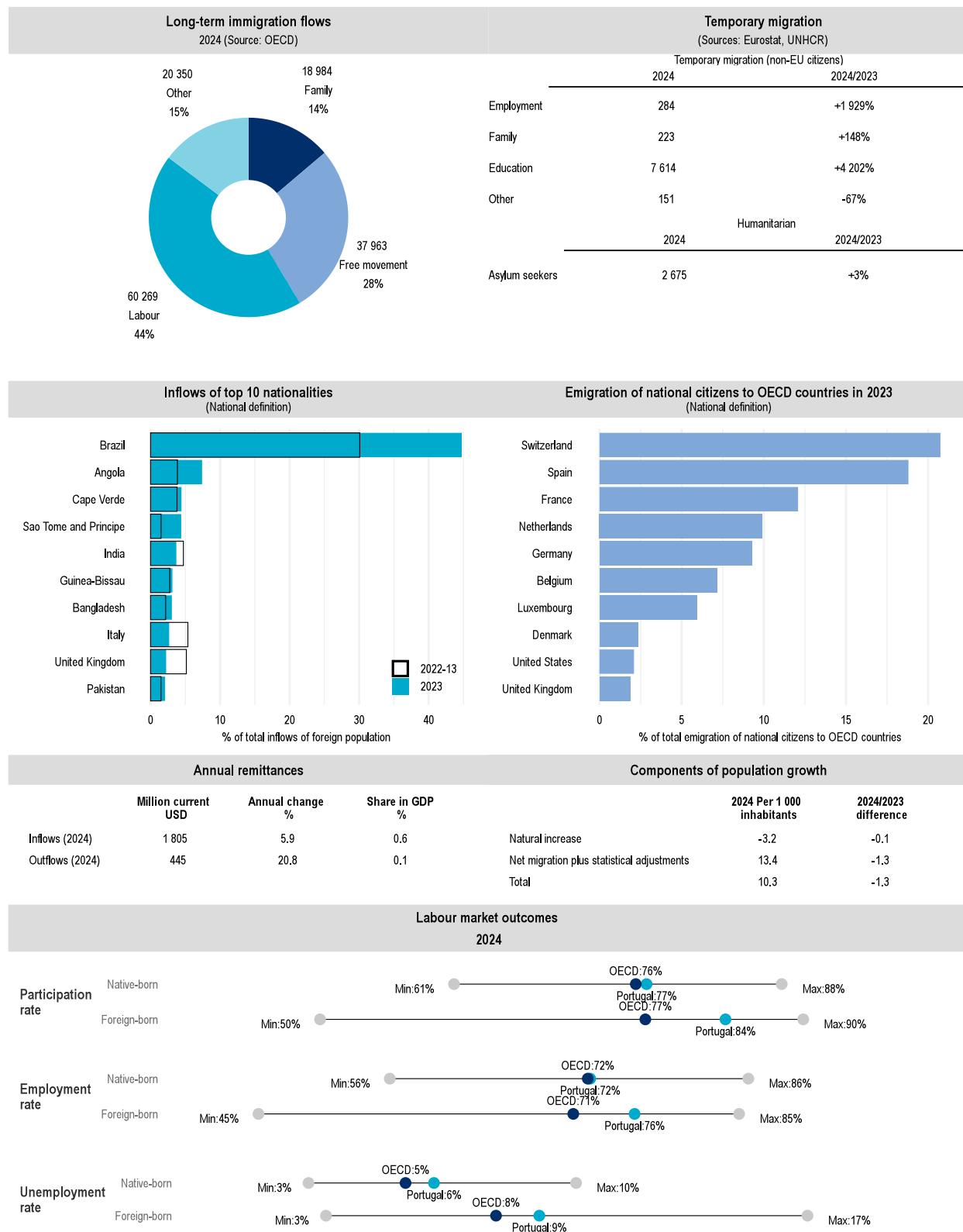
A National Council for Migration and Asylum was created in July 2024. One of its main roles is to advise the government on national migration and asylum policy and to facilitate co-operation among the different stakeholders involved in migration policy. It includes over 20 members, including two appointed members of parliament, immigrant associations, social partners, Non-Governmental Organisations, the National Association of Municipalities and employers' associations, among others.

In the field of integration, Portugal launched a new integration programme, Programa Integrar, in the fall of 2024. This programme targets migrants who are looking for a first job, are unemployed or seeking to transition careers. Migrants need to be enrolled with the national Institute of Employment and Vocational Training (IEFP). The programme offers training opportunities, support with recognition of qualifications, and personalised assistance with job placement.

In December 2024, an integration programme targeting the tourism sector, Programa Integrar para o Turismo, was also launched. The initial intake of the programme will be 1 000 migrants and beneficiaries of international protection already residing in Portugal. The programme offers three-month technical training followed by an internship in companies in the tourism, hotel and catering sector.

For further information: www.aima.gov.pt.

Key figures on immigration and emigration – Portugal



StatLink <https://stat.link/95bayt>

Romania

Foreign-born population – 2024	3.1% of the population	Main countries of birth:
0.6 million, 45% women	Evolution since 2014: +178%	Mexico (23%), India (19%), China (12%)

In 2024, 52 000 new immigrants obtained a residence permit longer than 12 months in Romania (excluding EU citizens), 5.7% more than in 2023. This figure comprises 80.6% labour migrants, 9.5% family members (including accompanying family), 7% who came for education reasons and 3% other migrants. Around 1 800 short-term permits were issued to international students and 2 600 to temporary and seasonal labour migrants (excluding intra-EU migration). In addition, 47 000 intra-EU postings were recorded in 2023, a 41% increase compared to 2022. These posted workers are generally on short-term contracts.

Nepal, Sri Lanka and Türkiye were the top three nationalities of newcomers in 2023. Among the top 15 countries of origin, Nepal registered the strongest increase (11 000) in flows to Romania compared to the previous year.

In 2024, the number of first asylum applicants decreased by -77%, to reach around 2 300. The majority of applicants came from Syria (700), Nepal (200) and Iraq (200). The largest increase since 2023 concerned nationals of West Bank and Gaza Strip (65) and the largest decrease nationals of Bangladesh (-2 700). Of the 2 220 decisions taken in 2024, 34% were positive.

Emigration of Romanian citizens to OECD countries decreased by -9% in 2023, to 244 000. Approximately 36% of this group migrated to Germany, 19% to Spain and 11% to Italy.

The annual quotas for work permits established by the Romanian Government have held steady for several years, set at 100 000 in 2022, 2023, 2024 and again in 2025. The quota has generally been fully used; more than 130 000 applications were submitted in 2024, slightly more than in 2023. The General Inspectorate for Immigration issued more than 106 000 work authorisations in 2024. This does not translate into actual new entries and starting up work, since many applicants are renewals – and until 2024, counted against the quota – and others fail to obtain a visa or to arrive in Romania.

The EU Blue Card Directive was transposed in 2024, extending Blue Card validity up to three years, and allowing certain applicants to qualify based on professional experience alone, and relaxing family reunification eligibility and employment contract duration requirements.

The Emergency Government Ordinance no.25/21-03-2024 introduced a number of changes to the government Emergency Ordinance No. 194 / 2002 on the regime of foreigners in Romania [act representing the framework regulating the entry in, stay in and exit out of the Romanian territory of foreigners, their rights and obligations, as well as specific measures for the control of immigration].

New rules simplify the procedure for obtaining and extending residence permits for study, work or family reunification purposes. Amendments also clarify the types of visas available for foreigners, particularly those seeking long-term visas for work or family reunification. The updated Law introduces faster processing times and more transparent procedures for long-term visa applications, especially for highly skilled workers and students. The changes also impose stricter requirements for visa extensions, especially to ensure that applicants have adequate financial resources and legitimate reasons to remain in the country.

There are changes in the conditions under which foreign nationals can be employed, particularly in skilled and high-demand sectors such as information technology and healthcare. The updated regulations also address the mobility of foreign workers between EU countries and Romania, aligning with European Union labour mobility standards. Additionally, the new provisions set standards for employers.

Other changes affect the legal framework governing the integration of foreigners into Romanian society, providing clearer guidelines for those who qualify long-term residence or citizenship. The updates also focus on better regulating the interaction between foreigners and public institutions, ensuring that foreigners have access to necessary social services while maintaining their legal responsibilities.

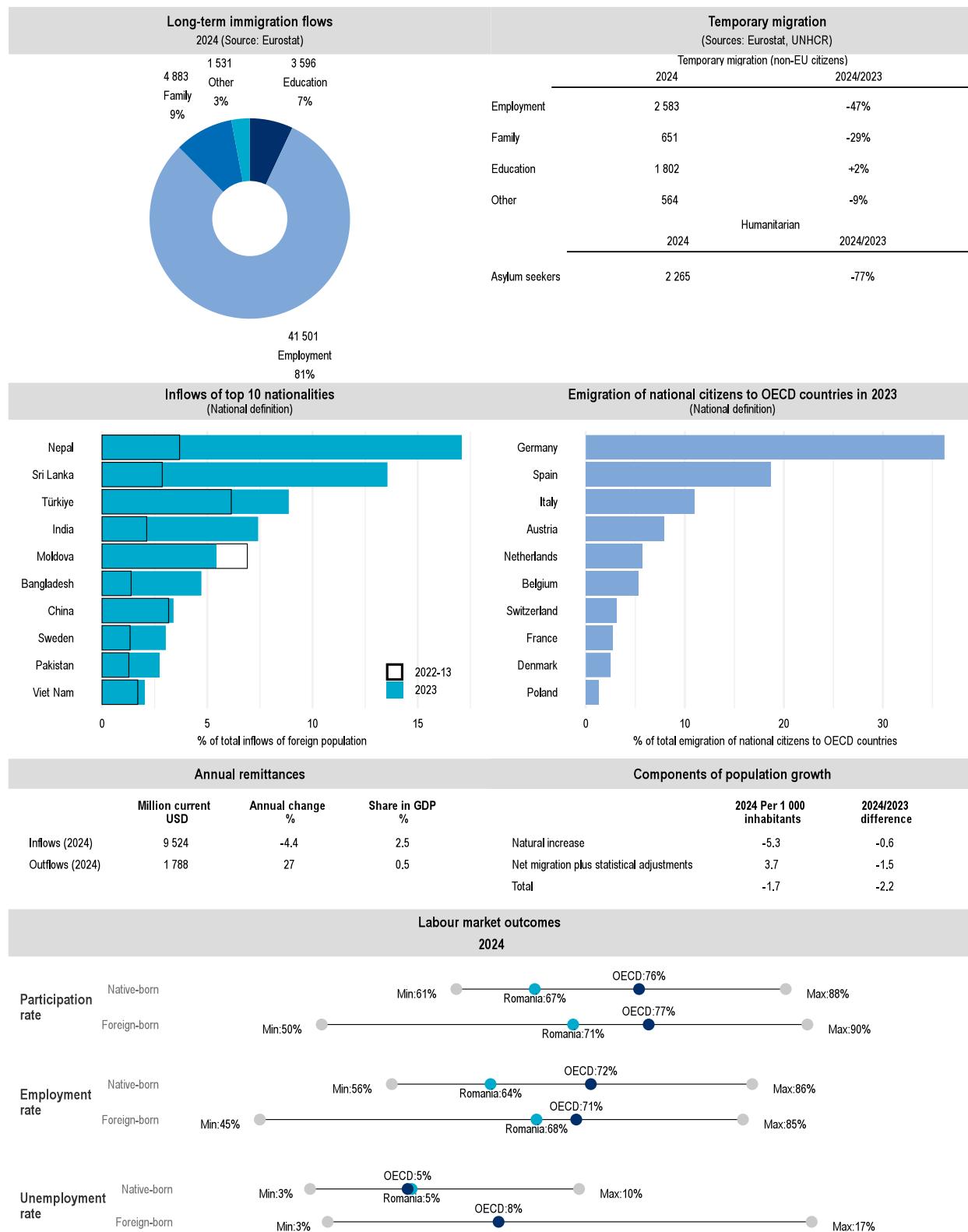
A new citizenship law, effective 15 March 2025, introduces stricter requirements. The language level requirement was set at B1 in the CEFR in mid-2024. A citizenship oath is required, and a residency reporting requirement is imposed.

As of 1 January 2025, Romania entered the Schengen Area as a full member, eliminating ID checks for travel within the region.

In March 2025, the European Union Agency for Asylum (EUAA) and Romanian authorities initiated the 2025-2026 Operational Plan, focussing on enhancing reception capacities and asylum procedures. The plan includes reception support, to improve the quality assurance of reception and address gaps identified.

For further information: igi.mai.gov.ro/.

Key figures on immigration and emigration – Romania



Slovak Republic

Foreign-born population – 2024	4.1% of the population	Main countries of birth:
0.2 million, 50% women	Evolution since 2014: +30%	Czechia (46%), United Kingdom (7%), Ukraine (6%)

In 2024, the Slovak Republic received 21 000 new immigrants on a long-term or permanent basis (including changes of status and free mobility), -14% compared to 2023. This figure comprises 5% immigrants benefiting from free mobility, 77% labour migrants, 16% family members (including accompanying family) and 0.2% humanitarian migrants. Around 2 800 permits were issued to tertiary-level international students and 1 400 to temporary and seasonal labour migrants (excluding intra-EU migration). In addition, 34 000 intra-EU postings were recorded in 2023, a -43% decrease compared to 2022. These posted workers are generally on short-term contracts.

Ukraine, Hungary and Czechia were the top three nationalities of newcomers in 2023. Among the top 15 countries of origin, Ukraine registered the strongest increase (300) and Czechia the largest decrease (-96) in flows to Slovak Republic compared to the previous year.

In 2024, the number of first asylum applicants decreased by -63%, to reach around 100. The majority of applicants came from Ukraine (30), Belarus (15) and Afghanistan (15). The largest increase since 2023 concerned nationals of Belarus (15) and the largest decrease nationals of Türkiye (-100). Of the 120 decisions taken in 2024, 50% were positive.

Emigration of Slovak citizens to OECD countries decreased by -5% in 2023, to 25 000. Approximately 26% of this group migrated to Czechia, 19% to Germany and 17% to Austria.

From July 2024, several changes for labour migrants were introduced. For those with an EU Blue Card, the required wage was reduced to 1.2 times the average wage in the Slovak economy; for persons who completed university studies in the last three years, to the level of the average salary; and the minimum required length of the employment contract was shortened to six months. Managers and specialists in the field of information and communication technologies were able to replace higher education with proof of the acquisition of higher professional skills, and employees in regulated professions will have to present proof of qualification recognition. Blue Card holders for longer than two years may start a business or are allowed to be unemployed for a period of six months. From July 2025, applicants for long-term residence will be required to demonstrate Slovak language proficiency at A2 level; Blue Cards are valid up to five years (vs. four) and holders (after two years) may start a business or be unemployed for up to six months.

The process of obtaining temporary residence for the purpose of employment was streamlined in July 2024. Employer can request to fill the vacant position after 20 working days following the report of a vacancy; the Labour Office will decide within 15 working days; the candidate will have 90 days to submit an application for residence and will be able to start working immediately.

Holders of temporary residence for the purpose of study will not be able to apply to the foreign police to change the purpose of residence if they do not successfully complete their studies.

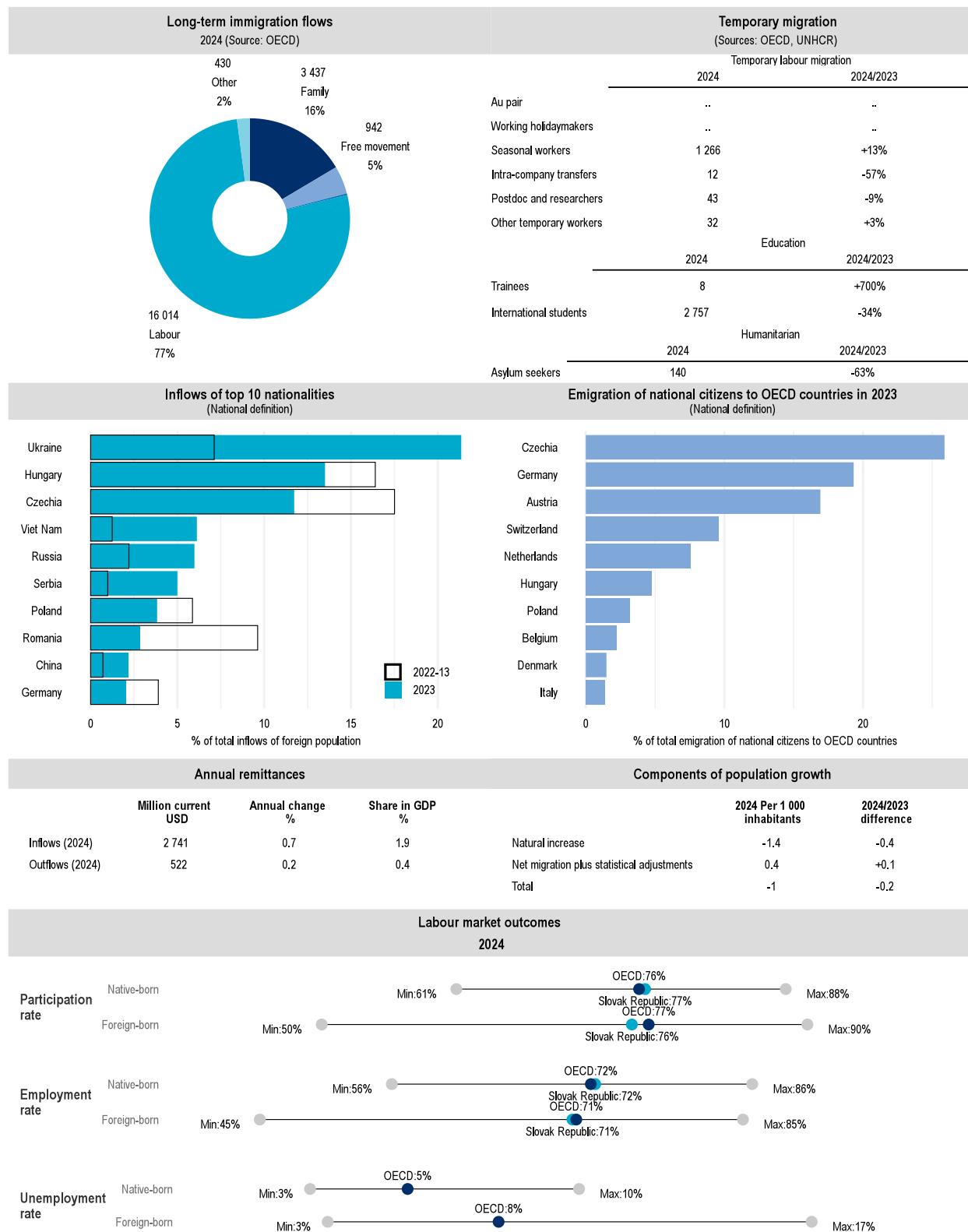
From July 2024, holders of a Schengen visa for seasonal employment and persons granted temporary refuge are able to apply for residence at the Foreign Police Department. New rules on allowances for those providing accommodation to Ukrainians who qualify for assistance on grounds such as age, vulnerability or material need, were also announced. They include checks on vulnerability and reduce some allowances.

To reduce bureaucracy and enhance efficiency, the immigration system is being digitalised to facilitate online applications for residence permits, renewals, and related services. Employers must still report vacancies and obtain labour-office consent but now apply electronically to the labour office (with the draft contract) and receive a decision in 15 working days. Once consent is granted, the third-country national applies for a temporary residence/work permit; the worker may start work immediately upon submitting the (completed) application, while the police decide within 60 days. Individuals under temporary protection, notably from Ukraine, will receive EU-standard ID cards to improve security and mobility.

Under amendments to the Labour Code in January 2025, a new seasonal work contract (max 520 hours/year) with reduced social contributions was introduced. The scope of seasonal work has been broadened to include all hospitality jobs, including restaurants and hotels and administrative conditions are simplified. These changes facilitate short-term hiring of workers – domestic or foreign – for seasonal sectors.

For further information: www.minv.sk.

Key figures on immigration and emigration – Slovak Republic



StatLink <https://stat.link/cpr1e9>

Slovenia

Foreign-born population – 2024	15.1% of the population	Main countries of birth:
0.3 million, 42% women	Evolution since 2014: +36%	Bosnia and Herzegovina (45%), Croatia (13%), Serbia (10%)

In 2024, Slovenia received 26 000 new immigrants on a long-term or permanent basis (including changes of status and free mobility), -16% compared to 2023. This figure comprises 16% immigrants benefiting from free mobility, 60% labour migrants, 24% family members (including accompanying family) and 0.6% humanitarian migrants. Around 3 200 permits were issued to tertiary-level international students and 300 to temporary and seasonal labour migrants (excluding intra-EU migration). In addition, 35 000 intra-EU postings were recorded in 2023, a 28% increase compared to 2022. These posted workers are generally on short-term contracts.

Bosnia and Herzegovina, Serbia and Ukraine were the top three nationalities of newcomers in 2023. Among the top 15 countries of origin, Bosnia and Herzegovina registered the strongest increase (600) and Ukraine the largest decrease (-4 300) in flows to Slovenia compared to the previous year.

In 2024, the number of first asylum applicants decreased by -24%, to reach around 5 500. The majority of applicants came from Morocco (3 500), Algeria (400) and Afghanistan (400). The largest increase since 2023 concerned nationals of Afghanistan (300) and the largest decrease nationals of Morocco (-2 300). Of the 390 decisions taken in 2024, 47% were positive.

Emigration of Slovenian citizens to OECD countries decreased by -9% in 2023, to 4 500. Approximately 27% of this group migrated to Austria, 23% to Germany and 15% to Switzerland.

In 2024, Slovenia continued to adjust its labour migration policies to address workforce shortages. Non-EU nationals can be employed based on a single permit that combines residence and work authorisation, issued with the consent of the Employment Service of Slovenia. The country has also concluded international agreements with third countries to define conditions for the employment and work of foreigners, aiming to protect its labour market while addressing sectoral labour demands.

In December 2024, the Slovenian Government adopted a national plan to implement the EU Pact on Migration and Asylum. The plan outlines ten substantive building blocks as defined in the EU Common Implementation Plan. The legislative framework necessary for the pact's implementation is under preparation and is expected to be adopted before June 2026.

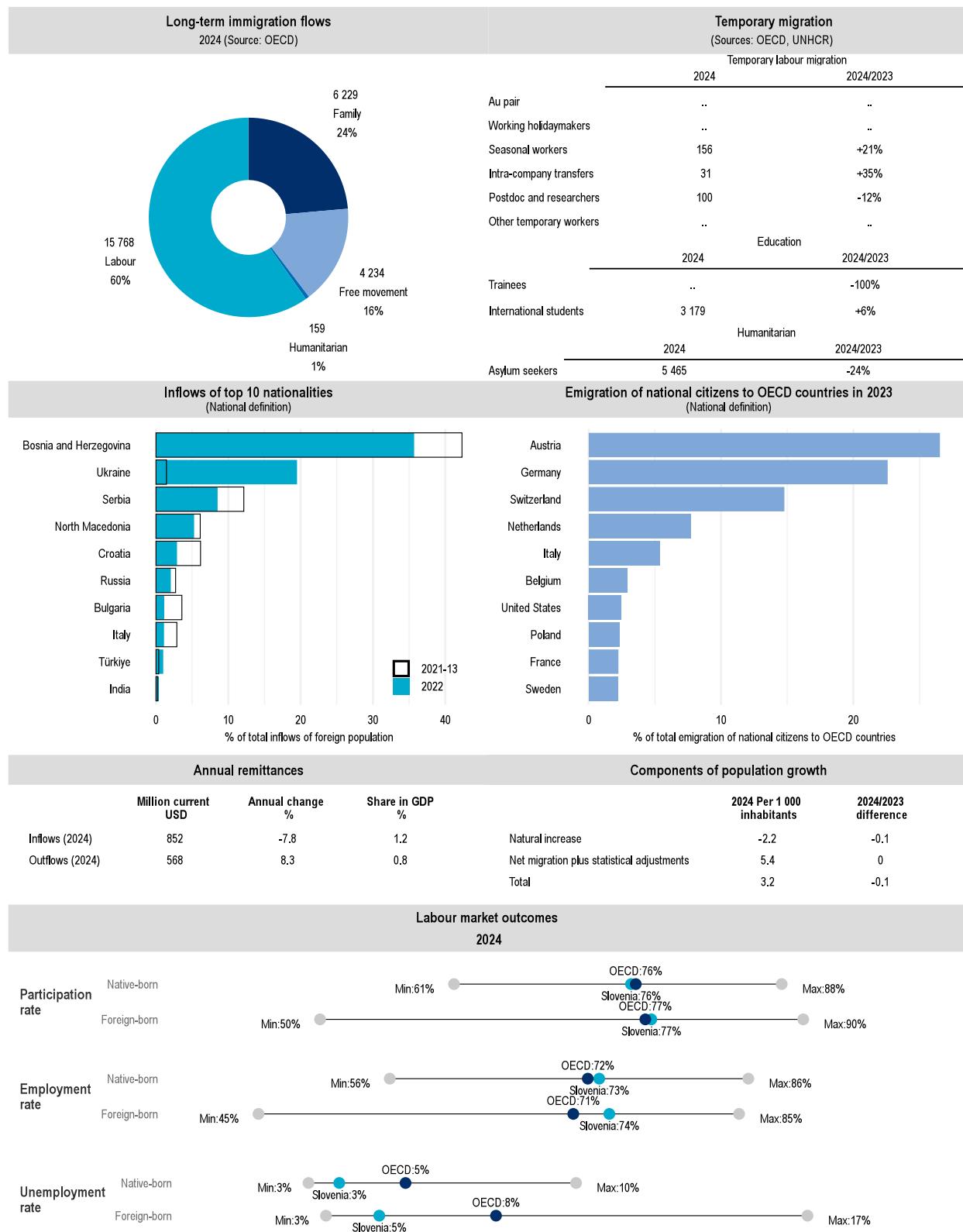
Starting 1 November 2024, adult third-country nationals (aged 18-60) seeking to renew their temporary residence permits for family reunification must demonstrate Slovenian language proficiency at subsistence-level A1. This requirement has been phased in over the course of 2024, with the final step including a mandatory certificate of successful completion of survival-level Slovenian language exam required from 1 November 2024. Furthermore, to obtain a permanent residence permit, third-country nationals will have to provide confirmation that they passed a Slovenian language exam at the A2 level. Family members of Blue Card holders and international researchers are exempted from these language requirements.

The government has announced the establishment of a new integration and intercultural information centre to support the integration of immigrants through counselling, training, and cultural activities. The centre will offer both individual and group guidance aimed at empowering migrants and increasing their awareness of rights and responsibilities. In addition, a multilingual website will be launched to provide accessible, up-to-date information for foreigners. These initiatives are part of Slovenia's broader strategy to facilitate the integration of immigrants into society.

Slovenia has launched new opportunities for refugee students in co-operation with UNHCR. The Education Pathway to Slovenia initiative allows refugees who have completed a three-year bachelor's degree to pursue a master's degree in the country. Besides granting access to tertiary education, the initiative also offers additional support such as social integration assistance. The first students to use the pathway arrived in January 2025.

For further information: www.stat.si | www.gov.si/en/news | www.infotuisci.si.

Key figures on immigration and emigration – Slovenia



StatLink <https://stat.link/f1965d>

Spain

Foreign-born population – 2024	18.4% of the population	Main countries of birth:
8.8 million, 52% women	Evolution since 2014: +48%	Morocco (12%), Colombia (10%), Venezuela (7%)

In 2024, Spain received 368 000 new immigrants on a long-term or permanent basis (including changes of status and free mobility), -1.8% compared to 2023. This figure comprises 32% immigrants benefitting from free mobility, 6% labour migrants, 39% family members (including accompanying family) and 5% humanitarian migrants. Around 70 000 permits were issued to tertiary-level international students and 55 900 to temporary and seasonal labour migrants (excluding intra-EU migration). In addition, 190 000 intra-EU postings were recorded in 2023, a 27% increase compared to 2022. These posted workers are generally on short-term contracts.

Colombia, Morocco and Venezuela were the top three nationalities of newcomers in 2023. Among the top 15 countries of origin, Morocco registered the strongest increase (9 700) and Ukraine the largest decrease (-57 000) in flows to Spain compared to the previous year.

In 2024, the number of first asylum applicants increased by 2.2%, to reach around 164 000. The majority of applicants came from Venezuela (65 000), Colombia (40 000) and Mali (11 000). The largest increase since 2023 concerned nationals of Mali (9 300) and the largest decrease nationals of Colombia (-13 000). Of the 90 000 decisions taken in 2024, 56% were positive.

Emigration of Spanish citizens to OECD countries increased by 3% in 2023, to 80 000. Approximately 18% of this group migrated to Germany, 13% to the Netherlands and 12% to France.

In November 2024, Spain approved a new Regulation on Foreigners, a comprehensive overhaul of its immigration regulations. Effective 20 May 2025, the reforms aim to harmonise national rules with European Union legislation while streamlining visa procedures, enhancing migrant inclusion, and addressing labour shortages. The new regulation highlights work, training, and family as the three levers of inclusion for migrants in Spain. Key measures include clearer visa rules, improved labour market access, extended family reunification rights, and new pathways to residency for undocumented migrants.

All initial visa authorisations are now valid for one year, with renewals for four years. The job-seeker visa was extended from three months to one year to give applicants more time to find employment in selected sectors. A new five-year residence permit was introduced for non-EU family members of Spanish citizens, and eligibility for family reunification permits was extended to cover de facto couples and expanded family ties. The reforms also clarified long-term residency rules and simplified the process of changing from one residence status to another. International students can now work up to 30 hours per week and benefit from streamlined access to employment pathways after graduation. The reform also improves and strengthens the rights and guarantees of foreign seasonal workers.

The new regulation also established five updated “arraigo” pathways to help undocumented migrants regularise their stay via social, family, work, or training pathways. These pathways offer a clearer route to employment and integration. Within the next few years, Spain’s extensive regularisation programmes seek to integrate a large number of undocumented migrants into the formal economy, where they can help address labour shortages in key sectors.

In December 2024, Spain adopted the 2025 GECCO Order to support circular migration. The order introduced seasonal work permits that offer workers protection and support. Participants in circular migration schemes can now obtain authorisations valid for up to four years, allowing them to work for up to nine months each year, provided they return to their home country between seasons.

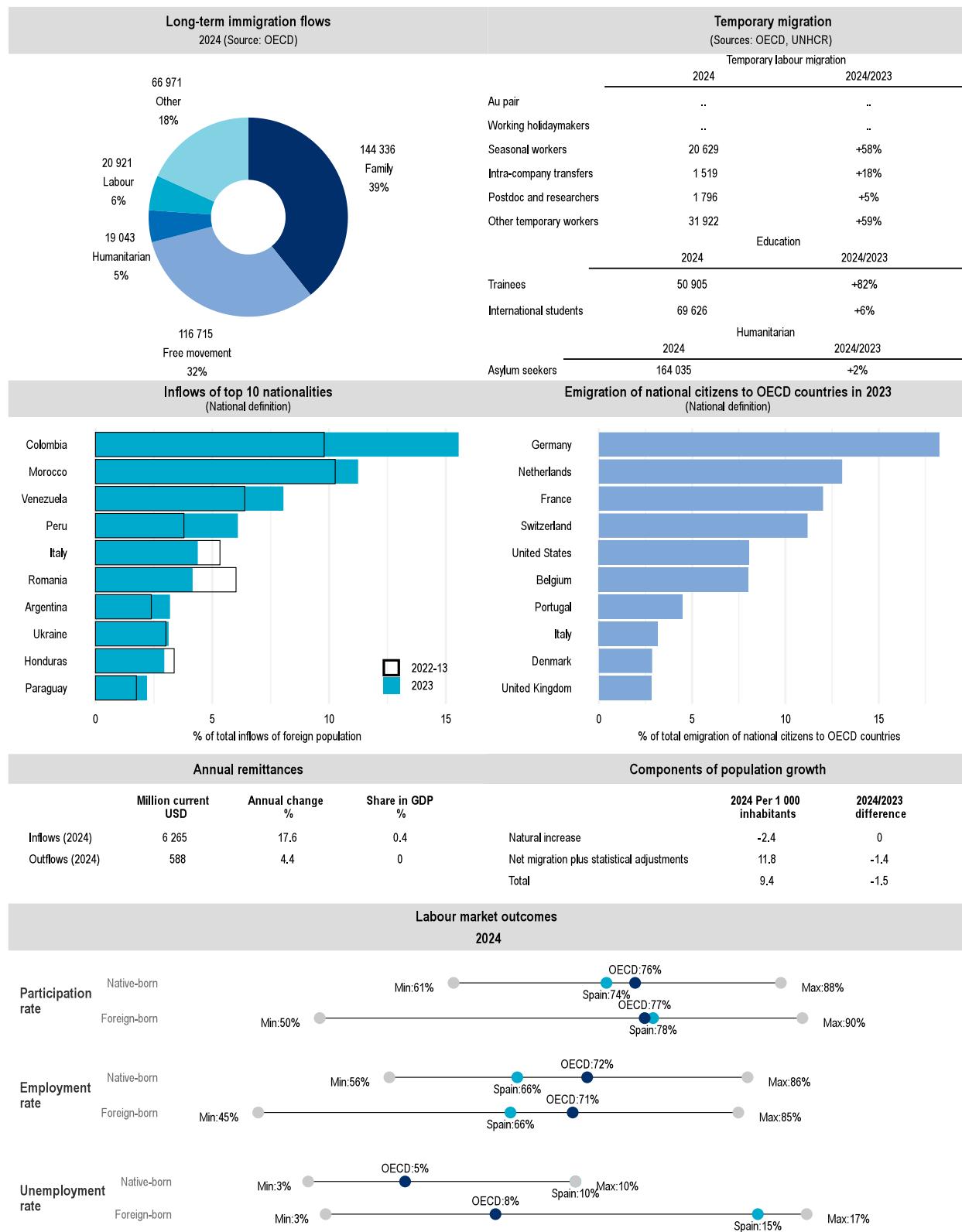
In February 2025, the Spanish Government announced new regulations on Spanish citizenship abroad aimed at improving support for overseas citizens and encouraging their return. This includes measures for emergency repatriation, talent attraction and a new voluntary return plan.

Spain also opened a public consultation on the Intercultural Integration and Coexistence Plan in February 2025, aiming to gather ideas and experiences from citizens, organisations, and associations. Building on the Strategic Framework for Citizenship and Inclusion against Racism and Xenophobia 2023-2027, this initiative aims to promote equality, social cohesion, and civic participation. Specific areas of action include education, social services and health, housing and employment.

In April 2025, Spain formally ended its Golden Visa programme, discontinuing all residence-by-investment routes. This followed concerns about housing affordability and the limited economic return of such schemes.

For more information, see www.inclusion.gob.es/.

Key figures on immigration and emigration – Spain



StatLink <https://stat.link/12dhi4>

Sweden

Foreign-born population – 2024	20.5% of the population	Main countries of birth:
2.2 million, 50% women	Evolution since 2014: +42%	Syria (9%), Iraq (7%), Finland (6%)

In 2024, Sweden received 76 000 new immigrants on a long-term or permanent basis (including changes of status and free mobility), -13% compared to 2023. This figure comprises 35% immigrants benefitting from free mobility, 16% labour migrants, 44% family members (including accompanying family) and 5% humanitarian migrants. Around 12 000 permits were issued to tertiary-level international students and 2 800 to temporary and seasonal labour migrants (excluding intra-EU migration). In addition, 78 000 intra-EU postings were recorded in 2023, a 10% increase compared to 2022. These posted workers are generally on short-term contracts.

India, Poland and Germany were the top three nationalities of newcomers in 2023. Among the top 15 countries of origin, China registered the strongest increase (700) and Syria the largest decrease (-1 400) in flows to Sweden compared to the previous year.

In 2024, the number of first asylum applicants decreased by -24%, to reach around 6 800. The majority of applicants came from Syria (900), Uzbekistan (400) and Afghanistan (400). The largest increase since 2023 concerned nationals of Nigeria (25) and the largest decrease nationals of Uzbekistan (-300). Of the 9 690 decisions taken in 2024, 34% were positive.

Emigration of Swedish citizens to OECD countries increased by 5% in 2023, to 22 000. Approximately 18% of this group migrated to Spain, 15% to Germany and 10% to Norway.

Sweden has in the past few years implemented a series of reforms aimed at establishing a more restrictive and sustainable migration and asylum framework, alongside an enhanced focus on voluntary return and reintegration and measures to attract highly skilled workers and researchers.

The government is preparing proposals to strengthen the status of citizenship. These include i.a. a longer period of residence (as a starting point eight years), requirements of self-support and an honest lifestyle, requirements for knowledge of the Swedish language and civic knowledge for Swedish citizenship. These legislative changes are proposed to come into effect mid-2026. A Constitutional Committee has been investigating issues regarding fundamental freedoms and rights and the government will prepare the proposed amendments to allow for the revocation of citizenship for those with dual citizenship who have committed very serious crimes. The Swedish Migration Agency is also tasked with implementing additional and robust measures to prevent, to the greatest extent possible, individuals who pose a security threat or who reside in Sweden under a false identity from being granted Swedish citizenship.

As of 1 April 2025, the possibility for rejected asylum seekers to transition to work permits without leaving the country has been abolished, eliminating the so-called “track change” option. Living conditions for Ukrainians under temporary protection have improved through a legislative change that enables earlier registration of residence, gaining quicker access to integration support, social benefits, healthcare, and labour market opportunities.

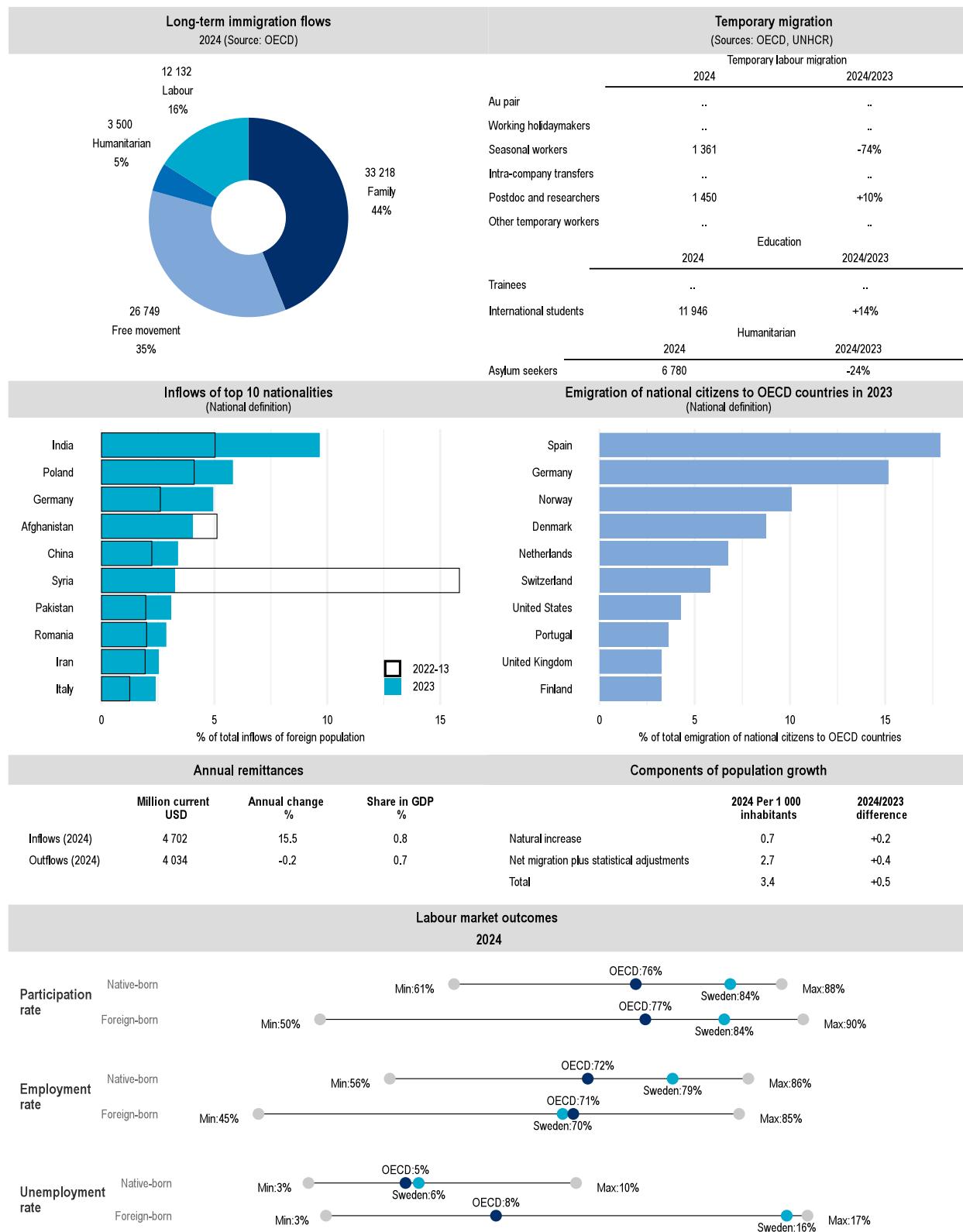
In the Budget Bill for 2025, the government presented measures to stimulate voluntary repatriation. The current system has been reviewed to enable increased repatriation assistance in 2026 offering up to a maximum of SEK 350 000 per individual or SEK 600 000 per family, which is a substantial increase from the current level (SEK 10 000 per adult or a maximum of SEK 40 000 per family). The government will present proposals to this effect later.

In January 2025, the government adopted a bill that aims to ensure that more people who have been issued with removal orders return to their country of origin, including an extended validity period for refusal of entry or expulsion decisions from four to five years. Additionally, the Swedish Migration Agency has been granted the authority to issue longer re-entry bans for individuals who have not left Sweden following an expulsion decision.

To attract and facilitate the recruitment of highly skilled workers, Sweden has implemented the new EU Blue Card directive. Key changes include lower minimum salary thresholds and reduced job-offer duration requirements. The legislative amendments entered into force on 1 January 2025. In addition, the government has received suggestions from an inquiry on improved conditions for international researchers and doctoral students, for example, a suggestion to facilitate quicker access to permanent residence and greater flexibility in changing permit grounds from within the country. To prevent misuse of study permits, the proposed suggestions also suggest introducing tighter work restrictions and stricter academic progression requirements for international students. These measures are proposed to come into effect on 1 March 2026.

For further information: www.migrationsverket.se | www.regeringen.se.

Key figures on immigration and emigration – Sweden



StatLink  <https://stat.link/ricugf>

Switzerland

Foreign-born population – 2024	32.2% of the population	Main countries of birth:
2.9 million, 51% women	Evolution since 2014: +25%	Germany (13%), Italy (10%), Portugal (7%)

In 2024, Switzerland received 136 000 new immigrants on a long-term or permanent basis (including changes of status), -6.2% compared to 2023. This figure comprises 74% immigrants benefitting from free mobility, 2% labour migrants, 15% family members (including accompanying family) and 10% humanitarian migrants. Around 6 300 permits were issued to tertiary-level international students and 3 300 to temporary and seasonal labour migrants.

Germany, France and Italy were the top three nationalities of newcomers in 2023. Among the top 15 countries of origin, Portugal registered the strongest increase (3 100) and Croatia the largest decrease (-600) in flows to Switzerland compared to the previous year.

In 2024, the number of first asylum applicants decreased by -15%, to reach around 23 000. The majority of applicants came from Afghanistan (5 000), Türkiye (3 800) and Algeria (2 000). The largest increase since 2023 concerned nationals of Algeria (300) and the largest decrease nationals of Türkiye (-2 900). Of the 25 000 decisions taken in 2024, 66% were positive.

Emigration of Swiss citizens to OECD countries decreased by -5% in 2023, to 9 700. Approximately 22% of this group migrated to Spain, 20% to Germany and 7% to the Netherlands.

Switzerland maintained its 2024 immigration quotas for third-country and UK nationals for 2025, with 8 500 permits for third-country nationals and 3 500 for UK nationals. Quotas for both, third-country and UK nationals, were not exceeded in previous years. As of 1 January 2025, Croatian nationals have full access to the Swiss labour market, but a safeguard clause may be applied if numbers exceed a set threshold (only in 2026).

In an initiative to support both domestic skilled labour supply and the integration of refugees, the State Secretariat for Migration and Swiss universities launched a pilot in March 2025 to support refugees with academic potential in accessing Swiss universities. The supported projects will provide participants with targeted preparation for entry into a higher education degree programme.

Refugees from Ukraine are granted the protection status S in a fast-track procedure. The temporary protection (status S) has been extended until March 2026 to provide legal certainty. Switzerland pursues a dual intent approach towards refugees from Ukraine: professional and social integration is promoted from the outset. The qualifications acquired in Switzerland do not aim only to integrate refugees into the domestic labour market but are also useful after their return to their home country. At the same time, legal barriers to accessing the labour market have been lowered. In the education sector, tuition fee exemptions were granted to Ukrainian students through the 2024/25 academic year.

On the other hand, the State Secretariat for Migration revised its assessment of Afghan asylum claims in April 2025, deeming return reasonable for specific categories, such as healthy, single adult men if the circumstances are favourable.

The Swiss Government also further enhanced migration enforcement. The new Identification and Security Checks Division was launched in January 2025, with the goal of supporting various departments within the State Secretariat for Migration, other federal or cantonal offices and foreign authorities in verifying the identity of foreign nationals. It also serves as a contact point for Eurodac and the Schengen Information System.

In response to broader European developments, in March 2025 the Federal Council adopted those parts of the EU Pact on Migration and Asylum that are legally binding for Switzerland due to its association to Schengen and Dublin/Eurodac. Although Switzerland is not subject to mandatory quotas or financial contributions foreseen in the AMM Regulation, the Federal Council expressed support for voluntary solidarity measures.

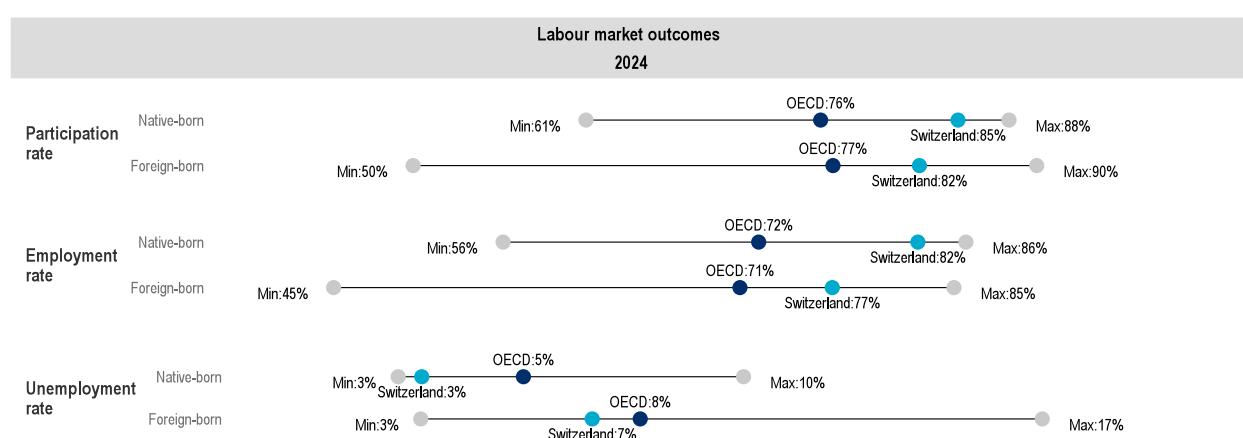
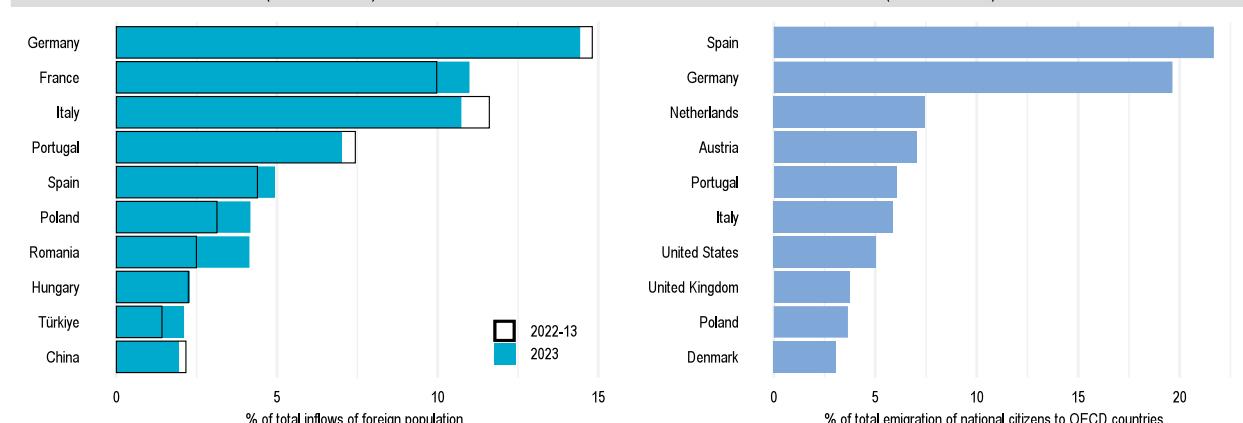
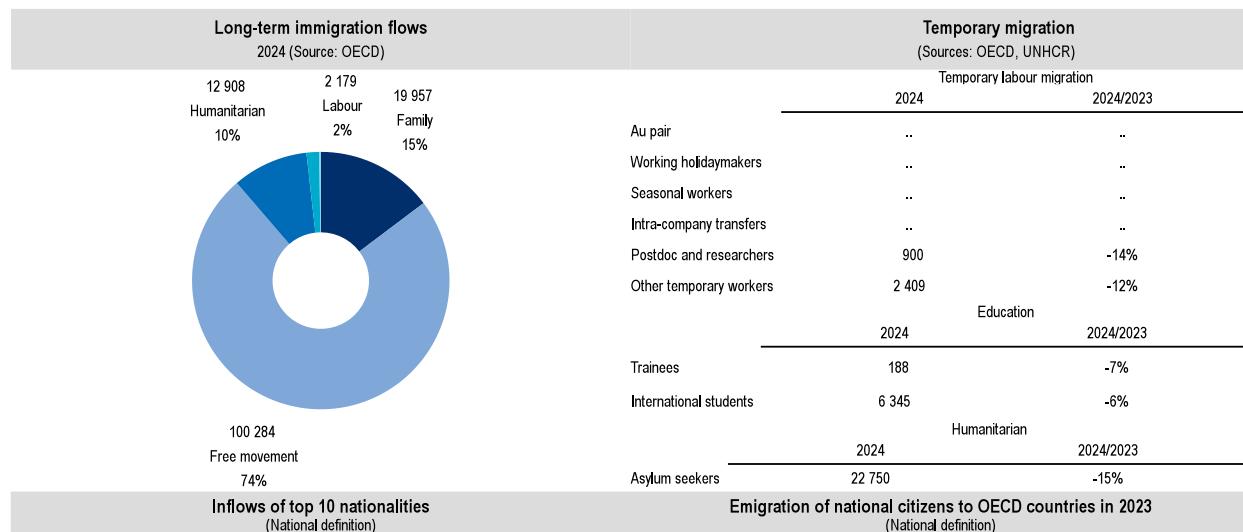
Furthermore, Switzerland continued its international co-operation efforts regarding migration. The Swiss Agency for Development and Co-operation (SDC) advanced migration partnerships with countries including Sri Lanka, Nigeria, Tunisia, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Serbia and Kosovo¹, focussing on vocational training and migration governance.

In addition, under the Second Swiss Contribution to selected EU member states, Switzerland provides support to migrants, refugees and asylum seekers. Projects focussing on asylum and infrastructure, as well as voluntary return and reintegration, are implemented under the framework credit migration.

For further information: www.sem.admin.ch | www.eda.admin.ch.

1. This designation is without prejudice to positions on status, and is in line with United Nations Security Council Resolution 1244/99 and the Advisory Opinion of the International Court of Justice on Kosovo's declaration of independence.

Key figures on immigration and emigration – Switzerland



StatLink  <https://stat.link/8s0jur>

Türkiye

Foreign-born population – 2024	3.4% of the population	Main countries of birth:
2.9 million, 54% women	Evolution since 2014: +101%	Bulgaria (11%), Germany (11%), Syria (10%)

Russia, Azerbaijan and Turkmenistan were the top three nationalities of newcomers in 2023. Among the top 15 countries of origin, Turkmenistan registered the strongest increase (6 700) and Russia the largest decrease (-71 000) in flows to Türkiye compared to the previous year.

In 2024, the number of first asylum applicants decreased by -53%, to reach around 9 000. The majority of applicants came from Afghanistan (5 600), Iraq (1 900) and Iran (800). The largest increase since 2023 concerned nationals of Ukraine (-600) and the largest decrease nationals of Afghanistan (-7 500).

Emigration of Turkish citizens to OECD countries increased by 37% in 2023, to 158 000. Approximately 57% of this group migrated to Germany, 7% to the Netherlands and 5% to the United Kingdom.

In October 2024, Türkiye introduced legal changes to facilitate the attraction of skilled labour and encourage formal employment. The changes include the introduction of work permit exemptions for foreigners under temporary protection and humanitarian residence. Permit holders in Türkiye who are notified by the Ministry of Interior and conditions where exemptions of longer duration (up to three years) can be granted as well as journalists with permanent press cards will also benefit from work permit exemption. Foreigners who meet the criteria can now apply for an exemption at any time during their legal stay in Türkiye and they can apply from abroad as well, while previously, they had to submit their application within 30 days of their entry in Türkiye. As a rule, work permit exemptions cannot be extended, nor can a foreigner apply for an exemption in the same scope unless certain time requirements are met.

Employment criteria for companies looking to hire foreign nationals have been modified. More exceptions to the quota of Turkish workers were decided. For large companies – annual sales over TRY 50 000 000 – the quota does not apply for the first five foreign employees, and for firms in certain sectors.

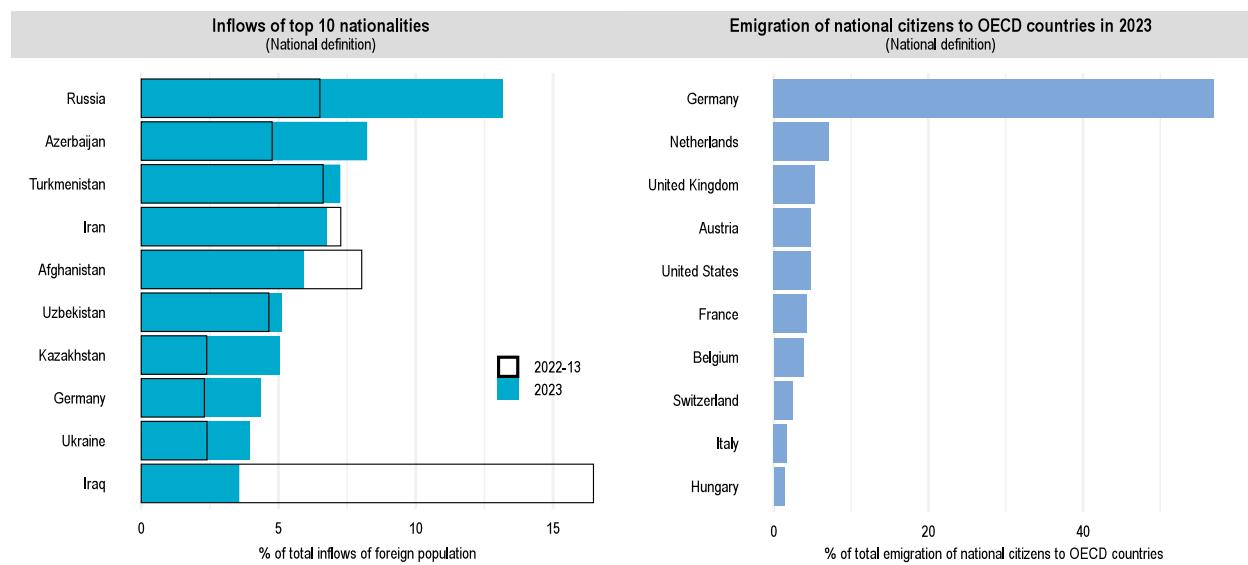
In order to ensure that only financially stable companies are allowed to hire foreign workers, stricter financial criteria have been effective as of January 2025. In particular, the minimum capital requirement to hire foreign workers has been increased from TRY 100 000 to TRY 500 000. The annual increase of the minimum wage in Türkiye (+30%) was partly counterbalanced by adjusted relative salary requirements for some occupations. The minimum salary to be paid to the foreign senior executives and pilots was lowered from 6.5 times to five times the minimum wage. For foreign engineers and architects, it was lowered from five to four times, and from three to two times for foreign workers in roles requiring specialised skills or craftsmanship.

In September 2024, the Digital Nomad visa entered into force and is available for citizens of Canada, the United States and 34 European countries; and a new start-up programme entitled Türkiye Tech Visa was launched. This programme targets skilled workers and entrepreneurs in the technology sector. Work permit exemption will be available for the selected entrepreneurs to set up their company in Türkiye. After that, work permits issued will be valid for up to three years and will include several benefits, such as fiscal advantages, financial assistance, health insurance, and facilitated family reunification.

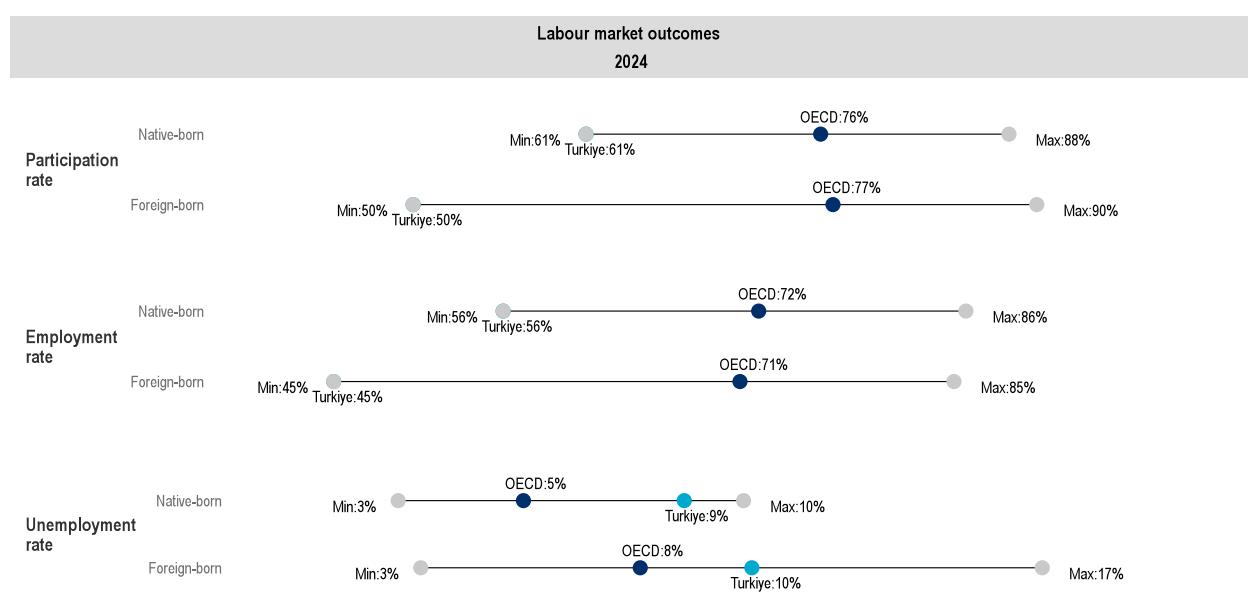
In June 2025, the Turkish Ministry of Labour and Social Security announced that work permit applications for shepherds/herd managers who are to be employed in livestock enterprises possessing either cattle or ovine livestock, have begun to be accepted within the framework of the determined evaluation criteria for work permit applications with the co-operation of the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry.

For further information: www.csgb.gov.tr/uigm/en/ | www.turkiyetechvisa.gov.tr/ | www.goc.gov.tr.

Key figures on immigration and emigration – Türkiye



Annual remittances			Components of population growth		
	Million current USD	Annual change %	Share in GDP %	2024 Per 1 000 inhabitants	2024/2023 difference
Inflows (2024)	982	-4.6	0.1	Natural increase	5.2
Outflows (2024)	1 526	53.5	0.1	Net migration plus statistical adjustments	-1.8
				Total	3.4
					+2.3



StatLink <https://stat.link/ktpzul>

United Kingdom

Foreign-born population – 2023	15.2% of the population	Main countries of birth:
10.3 million, 52% women	Evolution since 2014: +28%	India (9%), Poland (7%), Pakistan (5%)

In 2024, the United Kingdom received 436 000 new immigrants on a long-term or permanent basis (including changes of status and free mobility), -41% compared to 2023. This figure comprises 27% labour migrants, 60% family members (including accompanying family) and 9% humanitarian migrants. Around 384 000 permits were issued to tertiary-level international students and 102 800 to temporary and seasonal labour migrants (excluding intra-EU migration). In addition, 10 000 intra-EU postings were recorded in 2023, a 10% decrease compared to 2022. These posted workers are generally on short-term contracts.

India, Nigeria and Pakistan were the top three nationalities of newcomers in 2023. Among the top 15 countries of origin, Nigeria registered the strongest increase (50 000) and China the largest decrease (-22 000) in flows to United Kingdom compared to the previous year.

In 2024, the number of first asylum applicants increased by 28%, to reach around 108 000. The majority of applicants came from Pakistan (11 000), Afghanistan (8 500) and Iran (8 100). The largest increase since 2023 concerned nationals of Pakistan (5 300) and the largest decrease nationals of Türkiye (-1 200). Of the 106 000 decisions taken in 2024, 39% were positive.

Emigration of United Kingdom citizens to OECD countries decreased by -4% in 2023, to 85 000. Approximately 21% of this group migrated to Spain, 13% to the United States and 12% to Australia.

A general election in July 2024 saw a change from a Conservative to a Labour Government. The UK Government has since prioritised reducing historically high levels of net migration through increased border security and addressing irregular migration.

Estimated net migration to the United Kingdom fell to 431 000 in the year ending (YE) December 2024 from 860 000 in the previous year. This was driven by a decrease in immigration from non-EU+ nationals, with fewer people arriving on work and study visas, and increased emigration, including from people leaving who originally came on study visas once pandemic travel restrictions were eased.

In the YE March 2025 there were fewer work (192 000, 39% reduction) and study visas (403 000, 10% reduction) granted than the previous year alongside new restrictions on student dependents introduced in early 2024, with visas issued to dependents falling by 83%.

70 000 grants of leave were offered via safe and legal routes in YE March 2025, 26% fewer than the previous year, largely due to the reduction in visas and extensions requested and granted on Ukraine Schemes. The Ukraine Permission Extension scheme (launched in February 2025) enables Ukrainian nationals and eligible family members in the United Kingdom to extend their stay up to a further 18 months. While the Ukraine Family Scheme was closed to new applicants, the Homes for Ukraine Scheme remains open and uncapped for new applicants.

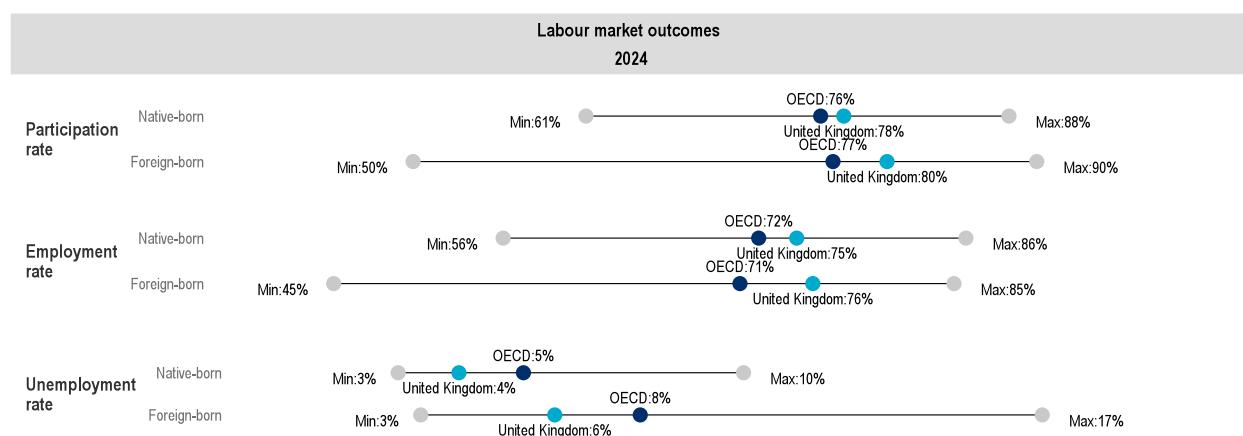
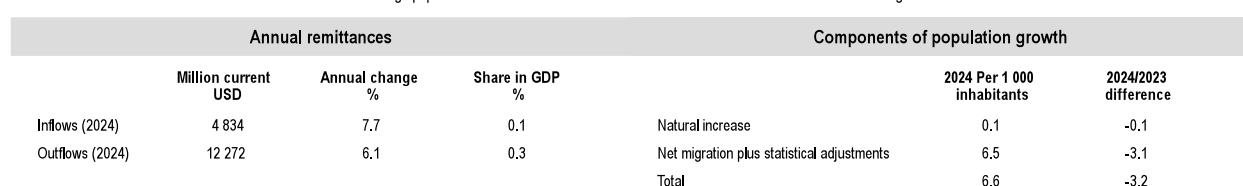
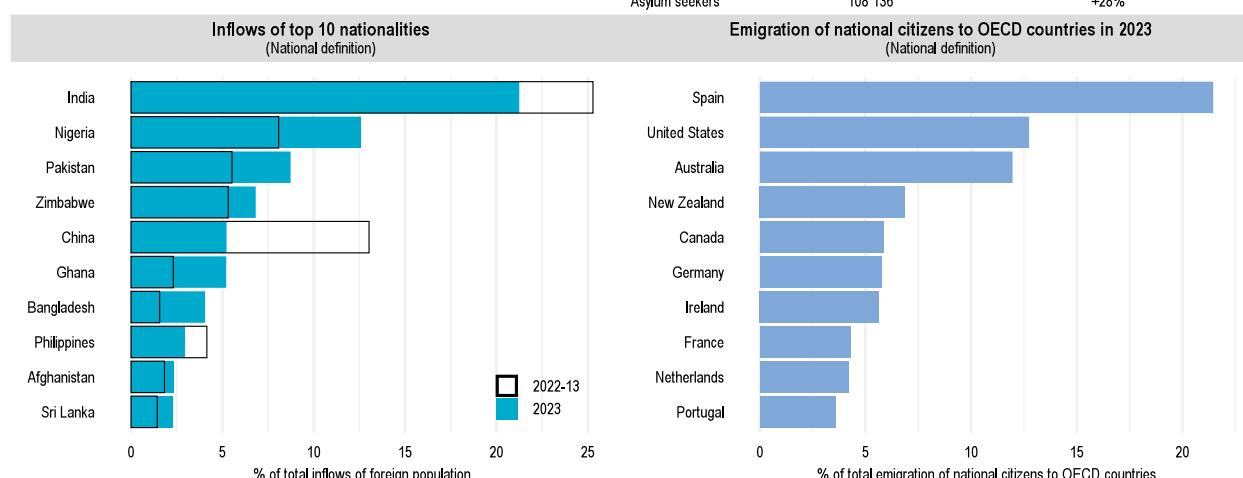
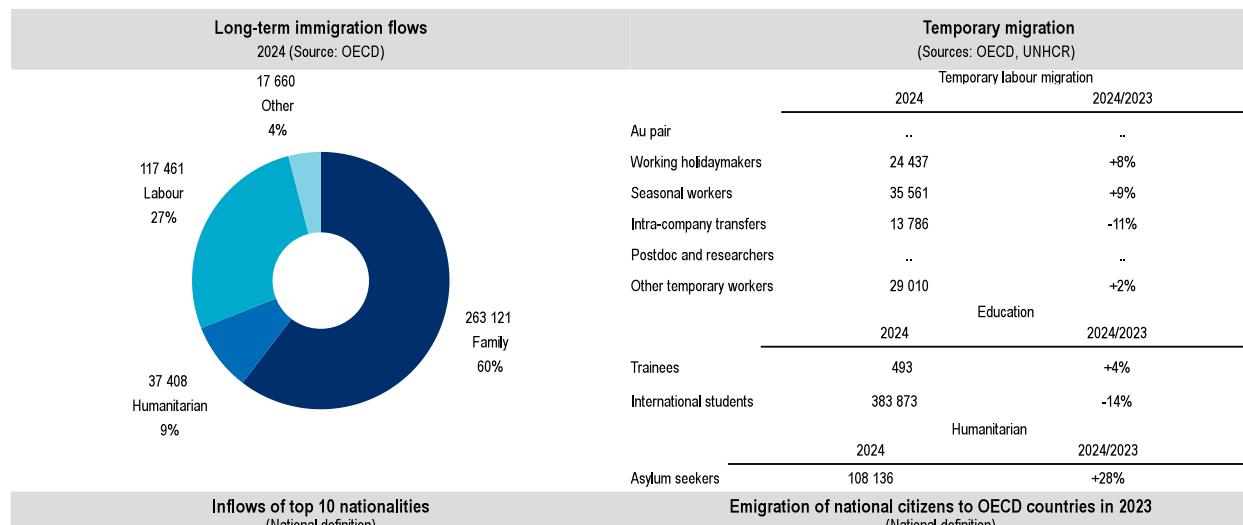
In YE March 2025, 44 000 irregular arrivals were detected, 14% more than the previous year. Of these, 38 000 (86%) arrived on small boats. 109 000 people claimed asylum in YE March 2025, 17% more than the previous year. The Illegal Migration Act 2023 (Amendment) Regulations 2024 was laid to remove the retrospective application of the Illegal Migration Act (which suspended the processing of asylum claims for irregular entrants) and enabled the processing of claims dated from March 2023 onwards. By March 2025, 94 000 people received initial decisions on asylum claims, 16% fewer than the previous year. 49% of initial decisions were grants. The top nationalities claiming asylum were Pakistan (11 048), Afghanistan (8 069) and Iran (7 786).

Measures unveiled in the Restoring Control over the Immigration System White Paper (published May 2025) aim to further reduce net migration and encourage economic growth, including through attracting higher skilled workers and linking the immigration system to domestic skills and training requirements. Proposed changes include increasing qualification requirements for skilled worker visas to degree level, reducing the Graduate visa route from 2 years to 18 months and increasing the time individuals must have spent in the United Kingdom before seeking settlement (from five to ten years). The paper commits to ending overseas recruitment for social care work, with a "transition period" planned until 2028.

The Border, Security, Asylum and Immigration Bill is currently passing through Parliament and aims to address irregular migration by enhancing border security and making changes to the UK's asylum and immigration system. A commitment to end the Migration and Economic Development Partnership with Rwanda was made in July 2024, following an election pledge by the Labour Party.

For further information: www.gov.uk/government/organisations/home-office | www.gov.uk/government/collections/migration-statistics.

Key figures on immigration and emigration – United Kingdom



United States

Foreign-born population – 2024	14.9% of the population	Main countries of birth:
51.2 million, 51% women	Evolution since 2014: +21%	Mexico (24%), India (7%), China (4%)

In 2024, the United States received 1 425 000 new immigrants on a long-term or permanent basis (including changes of status), 20% more than in 2023. This figure comprises 6% labour migrants, 68% family members (including accompanying family) and 17% humanitarian migrants. Around 390 000 permits were issued to tertiary-level international students and 841 900 to temporary and seasonal labour migrants.

Mexico, Cuba and India were the top three nationalities of newcomers in 2023. Among the top 15 countries of origin, Cuba registered the strongest increase (57 000) and India the largest decrease (-56 000) in flows to United States compared to the previous year.

The estimated number of first asylum applicants increased by 43% in 2024, to reach around 1.7 million. In 2023, the majority of applicants came from Venezuela (185 000), Colombia (128 000) and Cuba (99 000). The largest increase since 2022 concerned nationals of Colombia (+96 000) and the largest decrease nationals of Cuba (-57 800). Of the 259 000 decisions taken in 2024, 14% were positive.

Emigration of United States citizens to OECD countries decreased by -0.1% in 2023, to 104 000. Approximately 13% of this group migrated to Spain, 10% to the United Kingdom and 10% to Canada.

Following the transition to a new administration in January 2025, US immigration policy underwent a marked shift through a series of executive, legislative, and administrative actions. On 20 January 2025, President Trump issued a suite of executive orders that rescinded many Biden Administration executive actions, including several key orders affecting employment-based immigration. The Executive Order entitled "Protecting the American People Against Invasion" focusses on the faithful execution of US immigration laws. It aimed to ensure efficient and expedited removals, expand detention capacity, increase penalties for aliens who fail to register, and restrict federal funding to jurisdictions designated as sanctuary cities. It also called for significant hiring increases of Immigration and Customs Enforcement (ICE) and Customs and Border Protection (CBP) personnel. Additionally, the January 2025 orders aimed to suspend the US Refugee Admissions Program (USRAP) until there is a finding that resumption of entry of refugees would be in the interest of the United States, modify gender markers on federal documents, and introduce birthright citizenship limitations. Numerous executive orders face litigation, and the latter order is temporarily enjoined with the Trump Administration seeking Supreme Court review of the nationwide injunctions against the order. On 27 June 2025, the Supreme Court ruled that federal judges do not have the authority to issue nationwide injunctions.

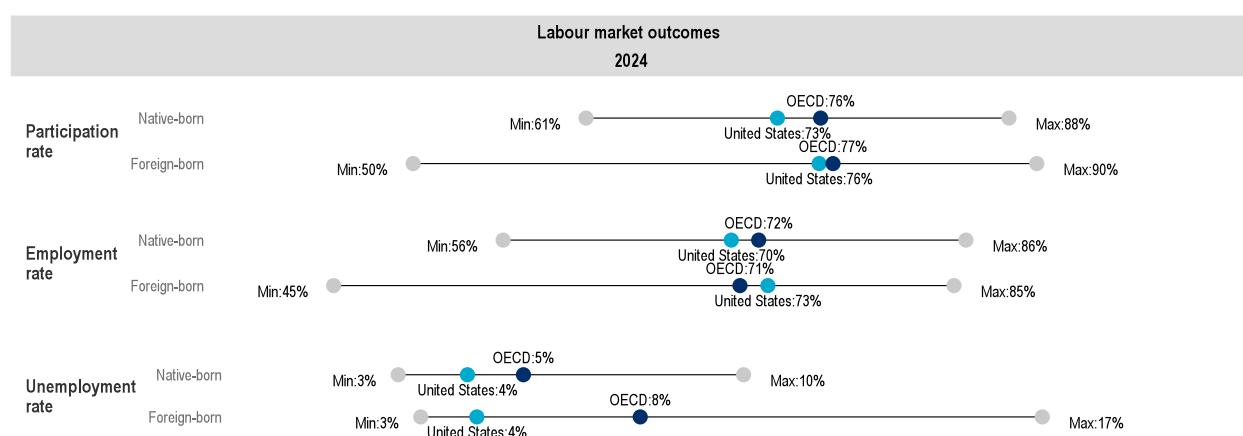
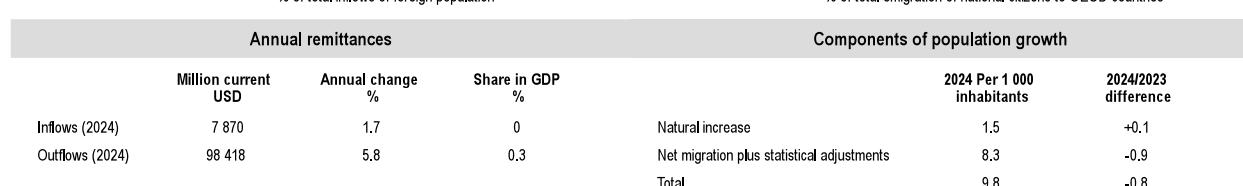
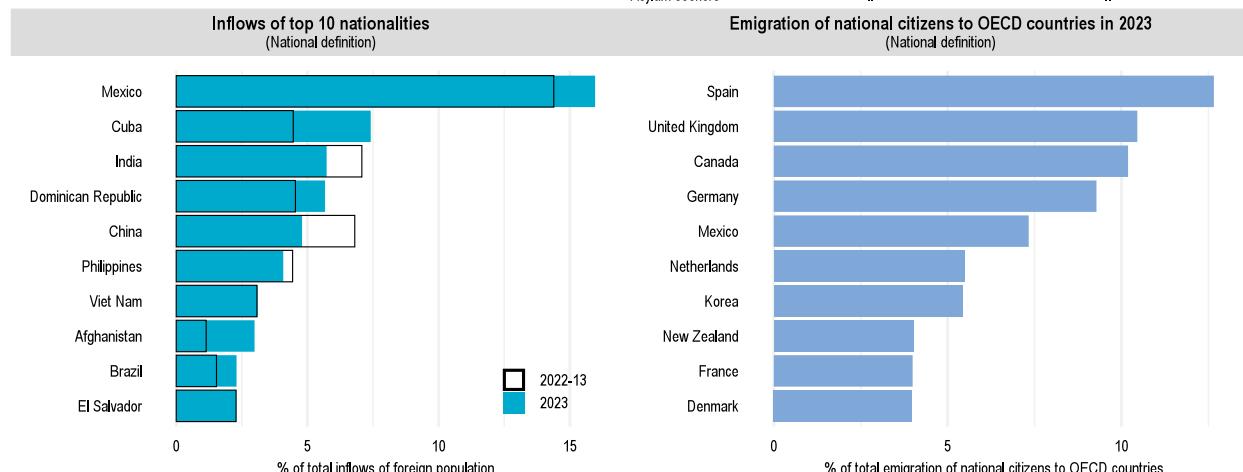
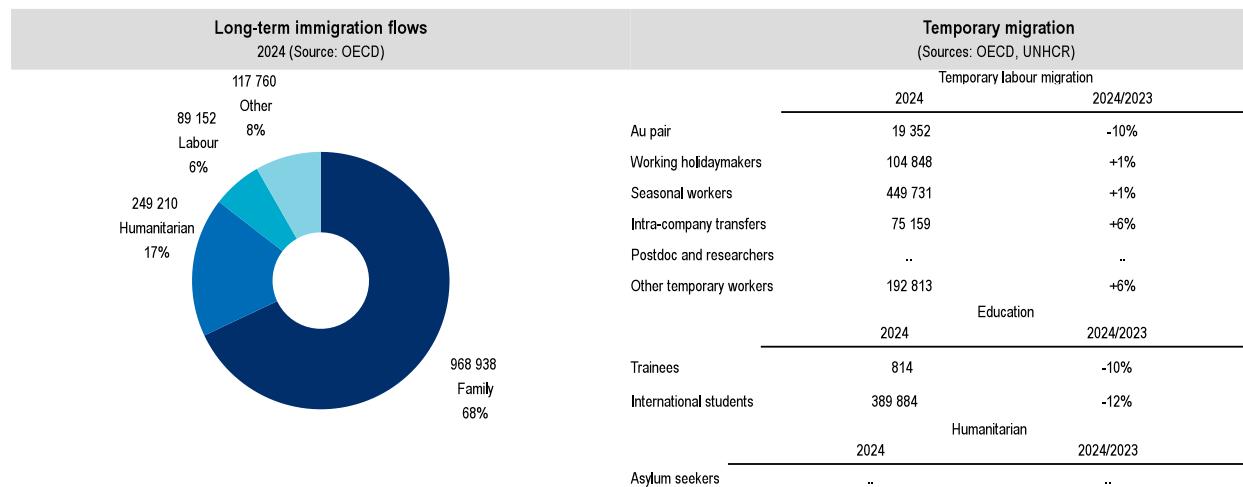
In January 2025, Congress enacted the Laken Riley Act, which requires the detention of aliens charged with specified criminal offenses and permits US states to initiate legal action against the Department of Homeland Security (DHS) for decisions or alleged failures related to immigration enforcement. In an exception to the suspension of refugee arrivals, an executive order from February 2025 instructed the Secretaries of State and Homeland Security to promote resettlement for South African Afrikaners claiming race-based persecution. Other policy developments include the discontinuation of the categorical parole programme for nationals of Cuba, Haiti, Nicaragua and Venezuela effective as of March 2025. Following the Supreme Court's decision, USCIS issued notices to these aliens on 12 June 2025, notifying them that their parole and parole-based employment authorisation documents were terminated, if they had not already expired by 24 April 2025. Additionally, Temporary Protected Status (TPS) was not renewed for several countries, including Nepal, Cameroon, Afghanistan, Haiti, Honduras and Nicaragua.

Certain administrative systems were overhauled as well. The CBP One application – expanded by the previous administration to schedule asylum appointments – was discontinued. Since March 2025, CBP Home Mobile application has been available, a digital platform intended to facilitate voluntary returns. Beginning 11 April 2025, certain foreign nationals staying in the United States for 30 days or more must register using Form G 325R, as required by a new DHS interim final rule. Noncompliance may lead to fines, imprisonment, or both.

In June 2025, a Presidential Proclamation introduced a travel ban affecting nationals of 12 countries and imposing partial visa restrictions on an additional seven countries. The policy applies to individuals without valid visas and includes limited exemptions.

For further information: www.whitehouse.gov/ | www.loc.gov/ | www.federalregister.gov/ | www.uscis.gov/

Key figures on immigration and emigration – United States



Annex A. Statistical annex

Inflows and outflows of foreign population

A.1. Inflows of foreign population into OECD countries

B.1. Inflows of foreign population by nationality

A.2. Outflows of foreign population from selected OECD countries

Metadata relative to Tables A.1, B.1 and A.2. Inflows and outflows of foreign population

Inflows of asylum seekers

A.3. Inflows of asylum seekers into OECD countries

B.3. Inflows of asylum seekers by nationality

Metadata relative to Tables A.3 and B.3. Inflows of asylum seekers

Stocks of foreign and foreign-born populations

A.4. Stocks of foreign-born population in OECD countries

B.4. Stocks of foreign-born population by country of birth

Metadata relative to Tables A.4 and B.4. Stocks of foreign-born population

A.5. Stocks of foreign population in OECD countries

B.5. Stocks of foreign population by nationality

Metadata relative to Tables A.5 and B.5. Stocks of foreign population

Acquisitions of nationality

A.6. Acquisitions of nationality in OECD countries

B.6. Acquisitions of nationality by country of former nationality

Metadata relative to Tables A.6 and B.6. Acquisitions of nationality

Introduction

Most of the data published in this annex have been provided by national correspondents of the OECD Expert Group on Migration appointed by the OECD Secretariat with the approval of the authorities of member countries. Consequently, these data are not necessarily based on common definitions. Countries under review in this annex are OECD countries for which data are available. The OECD Expert Group on Migration has no authority to impose changes in data collection procedures. It is an observatory which, by its very nature, has to use existing statistics. However, it does play an active role in suggesting what it considers to be essential improvements in data collection and makes every effort to present consistent and well-documented statistics.

The purpose of this annex is to describe the “immigrant” population (generally the foreign-born population). The information gathered concerns the flows and stocks of the total immigrant population as well as the acquisition of nationality. These data have not been standardised and are therefore not fully comparable across countries. In particular, the criteria for registering persons in population registers and the conditions for granting residence permits, for example, vary across countries, which means that measurements may differ greatly even if the same type of source is being used.

In addition to the problem of the comparability of statistics, there is the difficulty of the very partial coverage of unauthorised migrants. Part of this population may be counted in censuses. Regularisation programmes, when they exist, make it possible to identify and enumerate a far from negligible fraction of unauthorised immigrants. In terms of measurement, this makes it possible to better measure the volume of the foreign-born population at a given time, even if it is not always possible to determine the year these immigrants entered the country.

Each series in the annex is preceded by an explanatory note concerning the data presented. A summary table then follows (series A, giving the total for each destination country), and finally the tables by nationality or country of birth, as the case may be (series B). At the end of each series, a table provides the sources and notes for the data presented in the tables for each country.

General comments

The tables provide annual series covering the period 2013-23 or 2014-24.

- The series A tables are presented in alphabetical order by the name of the country. In the other tables, nationalities or countries of birth are ranked by decreasing order of frequency for the last year available.
- In the tables by country of origin (series B), only the 15 main countries are shown. “Other countries” is a residual calculated as the difference between the total foreign or foreign-born population and the sum for all countries indicated in the table. For some countries, data are not available for all years and this is reflected in the residual entry of “Other countries”. This must be borne in mind when interpreting changes in this category.
- There is no table by nationality for the series on outflows of the foreign population (series A.2). These statistics, as well as data by gender, are available online (<https://data-explorer.oecd.org/s/312>).
- The rounding of data cells may cause totals to differ slightly from the sum of the component cells.
- The symbol “..” used in the tables means that the data are not available.
- Figures in italic are estimated by the Secretariat.

Inflows and outflows of foreign population

OECD countries seldom have tools specifically designed to measure the inflows and outflows of the foreign population, and national estimates are generally based either on population registers or residence permit data. This note describes more systematically what is measured by each of the sources used.

Flows derived from population registers

Population registers can usually produce inflow and outflow data for both nationals and foreigners. To register, foreigners may have to indicate possession of an appropriate residence and/or work permit valid for at least as long as the minimum registration period. Emigrants are usually identified by a stated intention to leave the country, although the period of (intended) absence is not always specified.

In population registers, departures tend to be less well recorded than arrivals. Indeed, the emigrant who plans to return to the host country in the future may be reluctant to inform about his departure to avoid losing rights related to the presence on the register. Registration criteria vary considerably across countries; in particular the minimum duration of stay for individuals to be registered ranges from three months to one year, which poses major problems of international comparisons. For example, in some countries, register data cover many temporary migrants, in some cases including asylum seekers when they live in private households (as opposed to reception centres or hostels for immigrants) and international students.

Flows derived from residence and/or work permits

Statistics on permits are generally based on the number of permits issued during a given period and depend on the types of permits used. The so-called “settlement countries” (Australia, Canada, New Zealand and the United States) consider as immigrants persons who have been granted the right of permanent residence, and this right is often granted upon arrival. Statistics on temporary immigrants are also published in this annex for these countries. In the case of France, the permits covered are those valid for at least one year (excluding students).

Another characteristic of permit data is that flows of nationals are not recorded. Some flows of foreigners may also not be recorded, either because the type of permit they hold is not included in the statistics or because they are not required to have a permit (freedom of movement agreements). In addition, permit data do not necessarily reflect physical flows or actual lengths of stay since: i) permits may be issued overseas but individuals may decide not to use them, or delay their arrival; ii) permits may be issued to persons who have in fact been resident in the country for some time, the permit indicating a change of status.

Flows estimated from specific surveys

Ireland provides estimates based on the results of Quarterly National Household Surveys and other sources such as permit data and asylum applications. These estimates are revised periodically on the basis of census data. Australia and New Zealand conduct passenger surveys, which enable them to establish the length of stay on the basis of migrants' stated intentions when they enter or exit the country.

Table A.1. Inflows of foreign population into selected OECD countries

Thousands

	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023
Australia	244.8	233.9	223.7	218.5	224.2	186.6	155.8	137.5	153.8	217.4	219.5
Austria	135.2	154.3	198.7	158.7	139.3	131.7	135.0	121.3	139.5	246.3	181.6
Belgium	105.5	106.3	128.8	106.1	109.2	119.7	129.5	101.6	122.4	192.0	153.9
Canada	259.0	260.3	271.8	296.7	286.4	321.0	341.1	184.6	406.0	437.6	471.8
Chile	135.5	139.9	173.6	179.8	263.1	438.4	328.4	198.6	98.8	251.2	89.3
Colombia	104.5	217.9	225.8	74.8	40.7	108.1	49.9
Costa Rica	15.7	6.6	8.6	9.2	7.8
Czechia	27.8	38.5	31.6	34.8	43.5	55.9	63.3	53.8	67.3	347.7	139.9
Denmark	56.0	64.5	75.4	71.2	66.4	64.6	61.9	48.0	57.3	101.2	78.9
Estonia	1.6	1.3	7.4	7.7	9.1	9.7	11.0	10.3	12.5	42.4	20.6
Finland	23.9	23.6	21.4	27.3	23.7	23.1	24.2	23.3	28.0	42.5	66.0
France	249.2	236.9	240.5	243.6	246.2	259.9	268.5	208.5	250.4	284.9	259.8
Germany	1 108.1	1 342.5	2 016.2	1 719.1	1 384.0	1 383.6	1 345.9	994.8	1 139.8	2 481.0	1 741.2
Greece	31.3	29.5	34.0	86.1	80.5	87.3	95.4	63.4	28.7	64.1	71.7
Hungary	21.3	26.0	25.8	23.8	36.5	49.3	55.3	43.8	49.1	55.5	61.4
Iceland	4.4	4.8	5.6	8.6	12.5	12.5	10.7	8.9	10.0	17.0	16.6
Ireland	43.0	47.9	52.9	57.2	52.1	66.4	61.6	43.6	47.0	129.7	106.6
Israel	16.9	24.1	27.9	26.0	26.4	28.1	33.2	19.7	25.5	74.7	46.0
Italy	279.0	248.4	250.0	262.9	301.1	285.5	264.6	191.8	243.6	336.5	378.4
Japan	306.7	336.5	391.2	427.6	475.0	519.7	592.0	220.6	80.0	561.8	619.7
Korea	360.5	407.1	372.9	402.2	452.7	495.1	438.2	233.1	220.6	412.9	479.8
Latvia	3.5	4.5	4.5	3.4	5.1	6.5	6.6	4.6	6.4	7.3	7.4
Lithuania	3.0	4.8	3.7	6.0	10.2	12.3	19.7	22.3	21.1	81.0	50.2
Luxembourg	19.8	21.0	22.6	21.6	23.2	23.4	25.2	21.0	23.8	29.9	25.1
Mexico	63.0	43.5	34.4	35.9	32.8	38.7	40.5	58.4	68.5	75.6	69.9
Netherlands	122.3	139.3	159.5	182.2	183.9	191.0	215.2	170.6	208.1	359.3	291.2
New Zealand	75.4	90.7	101.5	104.0	103.4	104.2	124.7	54.5	28.2	92.6	207.6
Norway	66.9	61.4	59.1	58.5	49.8	44.4	44.6	30.8	46.6	83.3	79.3
Poland	46.6	32.0	86.1	107.0	128.0	137.6	163.2	163.5	224.2	335.3	374.1
Portugal	33.2	35.3	37.9	46.9	61.4	93.2	129.2	118.1	111.3	143.1	329.0
Slovak Republic	2.5	2.4	3.8	3.6	2.9	2.9	2.5	2.8	2.0	1.8	2.1
Slovenia	11.6	11.3	12.7	13.8	15.5	24.1	27.6	24.8	19.7	31.9	29.9
Spain	248.4	264.5	290.0	352.2	454.0	560.0	666.0	415.2	752.3	1 120.5	1 098.0
Sweden	95.4	106.1	113.9	143.0	125.0	114.4	98.2	65.8	74.4	86.5	77.2
Switzerland	155.4	152.1	150.4	143.1	137.8	140.1	140.6	137.0	141.5	162.4	181.6
Türkiye	273.9	364.6	466.9	578.5	242.5	615.1	399.6	214.8
United Kingdom	297.6	357.7	390.2	374.9	317.7	317.7	356.1	199.9	369.0	488.4	743.1
United States	990.6	1 016.5	1 051.0	1 183.5	1 127.2	1 096.6	1 031.8	707.4	740.0	1 018.0	1 193.8

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of Table A.2.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/n0hq64>

Table B.1. Inflows of foreign population by nationality – Australia (permanent)

Thousands

	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	Of which: Women 2023 (%)
India	38.1	39.6	34.7	38.6	40.0	33.1	32.6	24.5	26.4	44.5	55.3	45
China	29.2	28.5	29.4	30.9	31.1	27.7	27.2	20.1	21.0	35.7	36.3	55
Nepal	4.0	4.4	4.2	5.1	4.4	3.0	3.8	4.7	6.8	13.4	13.8	49
Philippines	11.0	10.3	11.9	12.0	12.1	10.9	9.2	8.5	9.8	13.3	13.1	59
United Kingdom	23.1	23.8	22.2	19.0	17.6	14.1	13.3	10.8	9.9	11.4	10.2	47
Pakistan	3.6	5.7	8.0	7.0	6.8	6.3	4.7	3.8	4.7	5.5	7.5	43
Viet Nam	5.7	5.2	5.1	5.4	5.5	5.2	5.5	5.1	7.8	8.0	7.5	60
Sri Lanka	5.3	4.5	3.9	3.8	3.2	2.7	2.7	2.4	3.2	4.8	6.1	51
South Africa	5.8	4.9	4.7	4.0	4.8	4.3	4.0	3.8	3.7	5.4	5.2	51
Afghanistan	2.2	5.7	3.3	3.2	3.6	3.8	2.2	2.2	1.2	1.9	4.3	60
Iran	3.1	2.7	3.9	2.8	2.8	2.6	2.2	2.4	3.7	4.4	3.7	51
Malaysia	5.6	4.5	4.0	4.1	4.2	3.4	2.5	2.1	2.9	3.7	3.5	56
Brazil	1.3	1.5	1.3	1.4	1.7	1.6	2.2	2.3	2.7	3.6	3.1	53
United States	3.8	3.8	3.5	3.5	3.6	2.7	3.6	3.2	3.5	3.2	2.9	53
Korea	5.4	3.8	3.6	3.3	3.2	2.2	2.5	2.6	2.4	3.2	2.7	55
Other countries	97.4	85.0	80.0	74.7	79.4	63.1	37.6	39.0	44.0	55.4	44.3	
Total	244.8	233.9	223.7	218.5	224.2	186.6	155.8	137.5	153.8	217.4	219.5	51

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/n0hq64>.**Table B.1. Inflows of foreign population by nationality – Austria**

Thousands

	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	Of which: Women 2023 (%)
Germany	17.7	16.8	17.0	16.1	16.2	17.0	18.3	19.0	19.4	21.7	19.8	49
Romania	13.5	20.7	17.5	16.7	17.9	19.2	20.3	17.5	17.9	21.7	19.3	41
Ukraine	1.3	1.8	2.0	1.6	1.6	1.6	1.8	1.5	2.0	78.4	15.7	57
Syria	1.7	7.4	22.6	9.0	6.7	2.1	1.6	3.7	13.4	15.1	15.2	44
Hungary	14.9	14.5	14.4	13.3	13.1	12.6	12.1	10.1	9.6	12.5	14.7	45
Croatia	4.2	6.0	5.8	5.1	5.1	5.4	5.5	7.2	8.4	9.2	7.9	43
Türkiye	4.5	3.7	3.7	3.7	3.3	3.0	3.3	2.5	3.1	4.9	7.6	36
Serbia	7.1	7.4	7.6	7.3	7.2	6.8	6.5	5.3	5.4	5.6	5.4	44
Bulgaria	3.9	5.8	5.2	4.9	5.0	5.3	5.7	4.4	4.5	5.6	4.9	46
Italy	4.0	4.1	4.6	4.2	4.4	4.4	4.5	4.2	4.0	4.8	4.7	43
Poland	7.3	6.9	6.1	5.4	5.2	4.8	4.7	4.4	4.2	4.9	4.5	36
Bosnia and Herzegovina	5.0	5.2	5.2	4.3	4.2	4.1	3.9	3.3	3.5	4.1	4.4	42
Slovak Republic	6.2	6.5	6.1	5.6	5.1	4.8	4.6	4.2	4.1	4.6	4.3	46
Russia	3.5	3.1	2.9	2.7	2.4	2.1	2.2	1.8	2.1	3.5	3.7	53
Afghanistan	2.3	3.2	19.5	11.7	2.1	1.3	1.4	1.5	2.3	3.3	3.5	31
Other countries	38.1	41.1	58.4	47.1	39.8	37.5	38.6	30.7	35.6	46.2	46.0	
Total	135.2	154.3	198.7	158.7	139.3	131.7	135.0	121.3	139.5	246.3	181.6	45

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/n0hq64>.

Table B.1. Inflows of foreign population by nationality – Belgium

Thousands

	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	Of which: Women 2023 (%)
Romania	8.7	11.3	10.6	10.9	11.9	13.4	14.3	11.3	13.0	14.2	12.9	36
Ukraine	0.5	0.9	0.8	0.6	0.7	0.7	0.8	0.6	0.8	49.2	12.0	53
France	12.6	12.0	12.0	11.3	11.3	11.7	12.0	11.3	11.9	12.0	11.8	51
Netherlands	7.9	8.1	8.1	7.9	7.8	7.8	7.8	6.9	7.6	8.1	7.4	48
Spain	5.5	5.0	4.1	3.6	4.0	4.2	4.7	4.5	5.8	6.6	6.4	48
Morocco	4.5	4.7	4.8	4.7	4.5	5.0	5.8	4.7	5.3	5.9	6.2	56
Türkiye	1.8	1.6	1.7	1.8	1.9	2.4	2.8	2.2	2.8	4.7	6.1	36
Italy	5.1	5.3	5.1	4.8	4.9	5.4	5.5	4.7	4.9	5.5	5.6	47
Syria	1.0	2.8	10.4	4.7	5.5	3.6	2.8	1.7	3.3	3.6	5.5	38
Portugal	3.8	3.0	2.9	3.0	2.7	2.9	3.2	2.9	3.5	3.9	4.4	41
West Bank and Gaza Strip	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.6	0.9	2.8	2.6	0.7	1.7	3.9	4.0	33
Afghanistan	1.1	1.1	7.5	2.6	1.6	2.2	3.8	3.2	6.2	6.9	3.9	30
Bulgaria	3.5	4.2	3.8	3.5	3.7	3.9	4.7	4.1	4.4	4.7	3.9	44
Poland	6.6	5.8	5.3	4.6	4.3	4.2	4.3	3.3	3.4	4.0	3.7	47
India	2.1	1.9	2.2	2.4	3.0	3.3	3.3	2.0	2.8	3.5	3.6	47
Other countries	40.9	38.5	49.3	39.2	40.6	46.2	51.0	37.6	44.9	55.4	56.5	
Total	105.5	106.3	128.8	106.1	109.2	119.7	129.5	101.6	122.4	192.0	153.9	46

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/n0hq64>.**Table B.1. Inflows of foreign population by nationality – Canada (permanent)**

Thousands

	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	Of which: Women 2023 (%)
India	33.1	38.3	39.5	39.8	51.6	70.0	85.6	42.9	127.9	118.3	139.8	48
China	34.9	25.2	20.2	28.1	31.6	31.3	31.8	17.6	33.3	35.6	39.4	53
Philippines	29.5	40.0	50.8	41.8	40.9	35.1	27.8	11.0	18.0	22.1	27.0	56
Afghanistan	2.0	1.5	2.6	2.6	3.5	3.6	3.9	1.7	8.6	23.8	20.2	49
Nigeria	4.2	4.2	4.1	4.4	5.4	10.9	12.6	6.4	15.6	22.1	17.5	51
Pakistan	12.6	9.1	11.3	11.3	7.7	9.5	10.8	6.2	8.5	11.6	11.9	52
Cameroon	2.4	2.1	2.0	2.1	2.3	2.3	3.0	1.6	2.6	6.3	11.7	51
Eritrea	1.7	2.0	2.2	4.6	4.7	5.7	7.0	2.6	5.4	7.7	10.7	47
Iran	11.3	16.8	11.7	6.5	4.7	5.5	6.1	3.8	11.3	11.1	10.7	52
United States	8.5	8.5	7.5	8.4	9.1	10.9	10.8	6.4	12.0	10.4	10.6	50
France	5.6	4.7	5.8	6.4	6.6	6.2	5.0	4.6	12.7	14.2	10.1	47
Syria	1.0	2.1	9.9	34.9	12.1	12.0	10.1	4.9	5.6	8.5	9.3	49
Brazil	1.7	1.9	1.8	1.7	2.8	4.0	5.3	3.7	11.4	7.3	7.2	52
Viet Nam	2.1	2.5	2.6	2.4	2.5	3.1	4.2	2.6	5.8	5.5	6.6	56
Morocco	3.3	2.5	2.7	2.1	2.3	2.8	3.0	3.0	3.0	6.4	6.4	50
Other countries	105.1	98.9	97.1	99.1	98.8	108.4	114.2	65.7	124.5	126.9	132.9	
Total	259.0	260.3	271.8	296.4	286.5	321.1	341.2	184.6	406.1	437.6	471.8	50

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/n0hq64>.

Table B.1. Inflows of foreign population by nationality – Chile

Thousands

	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	Of which: Women 2023 (%)
Venezuela	1.5	2.9	8.4	22.8	72.3	144.1	159.5	80.8	43.6	114.4	25.1	55
Colombia	28.3	29.1	38.7	34.8	37.4	41.2	31.9	23.5	16.8	40.2	15.0	53
Bolivia	27.0	27.5	28.4	21.7	28.5	40.3	29.1	17.4	7.7	24.3	13.7	48
Peru	40.3	40.4	50.1	41.5	41.4	46.6	31.4	20.0	12.5	35.1	10.8	48
Haiti	2.6	3.7	9.2	23.9	46.4	125.7	37.3	33.0	4.8	6.7	4.4	56
Argentina	6.0	6.6	7.4	6.6	6.8	6.1	7.0	4.6	3.1	5.8	4.3	37
Ecuador	4.2	4.3	5.2	6.0	8.2	9.1	6.9	4.6	2.7	8.1	3.4	52
China	1.9	2.2	2.8	2.7	3.4	3.3	2.8	1.6	0.7	1.5	1.6	32
Brazil	1.6	1.7	2.3	2.7	3.1	2.9	3.4	2.2	1.3	2.1	1.4	49
Cuba	0.5	0.7	1.1	0.9	0.9	3.7	3.6	1.7	0.9	1.5	1.4	54
Dominican Republic	3.8	2.6	2.1	1.4	1.4	3.9	4.2	1.2	0.7	2.0	1.3	54
Spain	5.0	4.8	4.0	2.9	2.2	1.5	1.5	1.2	0.7	1.5	1.0	50
Mexico	1.0	1.1	1.2	1.0	1.0	0.8	0.8	0.7	0.5	0.8	0.8	53
France	0.9	0.9	1.0	0.8	0.7	0.6	0.5	0.4	0.2	0.6	0.6	56
Paraguay	1.1	1.0	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.3	1.2	0.7	0.4	0.9	0.5	60
Other countries	10.0	10.2	10.6	8.8	8.1	7.1	7.1	4.7	2.3	5.7	3.8	
Total	135.5	139.9	173.6	179.8	263.1	438.4	328.4	198.6	98.8	251.2	89.3	51

 Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/n0hq64>.

Table B.1. Inflows of foreign population by nationality – Colombia

Thousands

	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	Of which: Women 2021 (%)
Venezuela	88.9	201.7	206.6	63.7	24.8	
United States	2.2	2.7	3.1	1.6	4.3	
Peru	0.9	0.9	1.4	1.0	1.4	
Ecuador	4.8	4.5	4.7	2.3	1.1	
Chile	0.7	0.9	1.1	1.0	1.0	
Spain	0.4	0.4	0.7	0.5	0.9	
Mexico	0.6	0.5	0.7	0.5	0.8	
Argentina	0.6	0.8	1.0	0.7	0.7	
Dominican Republic	0.6	0.4	0.8	0.4	0.7	
Brazil	1.3	1.3	1.3	0.5	0.5	
France	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.1	0.4	
Panama	0.4	0.3	0.4	0.3	0.4	
Canada	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.4	
Italy	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.3	
Germany	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.1	0.3	
Other countries	2.4	2.7	3.1	1.5	2.5	
Total	104.5	217.9	225.8	74.8	40.7	108.1	49.9	

 Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/n0hq64>.

Table B.1. Inflows of foreign population by nationality – Czechia

Thousands

	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	Of which: Women 2023 (%)
Ukraine	3.7	8.4	5.5	5.8	10.3	16.7	22.8	21.1	32.1	311.0	106.0	56
Slovak Republic	6.5	6.9	6.7	6.7	6.3	6.7	5.8	7.2	7.0	6.4	6.5	46
Philippines	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.5	0.8	0.5	0.5	1.4	2.3	29
India	0.3	0.4	0.6	0.8	1.0	1.2	1.5	0.9	1.2	2.0	1.9	32
Viet Nam	1.2	1.7	1.3	1.8	2.2	2.3	1.9	1.4	1.6	1.9	1.9	51
Kazakhstan	0.6	1.0	0.7	0.6	0.6	0.8	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.7	1.4	45
Romania	0.9	1.2	1.3	1.6	1.8	2.2	2.1	1.6	1.4	1.3	1.2	30
Mongolia	0.1	0.2	0.6	0.7	1.2	1.5	1.3	0.7	0.7	1.1	1.1	39
China	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.8	1.1	1.0	0.5	0.6	0.7	1.1	53
Bulgaria	1.0	1.1	1.0	1.3	1.6	2.0	1.7	1.1	1.0	1.0	0.9	21
Türkiye	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.5	0.5	0.9	0.9	32
Moldova	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.7	0.7	0.5	0.8	0.9	0.8	31
Russia	3.1	4.9	2.9	2.4	2.9	3.4	4.3	3.4	3.7	3.3	0.8	62
United States	0.8	0.9	0.8	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.0	0.7	1.0	0.8	0.8	55
Hungary	0.4	0.7	0.8	0.9	1.2	1.3	1.1	1.2	1.1	0.9	0.7	36
Other countries	8.2	9.5	8.3	9.5	11.0	13.8	15.6	11.6	12.9	12.4	11.4	
Total	27.8	38.5	31.6	34.8	43.5	55.9	63.3	53.8	67.3	347.7	139.9	52

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/n0hq64>.**Table B.1. Inflows of foreign population by nationality – Denmark**

Thousands

	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	Of which: Women 2023 (%)
Ukraine	1.4	1.6	1.3	1.5	1.9	2.4	2.3	1.5	1.9	31.1	8.2	55
Romania	4.4	5.3	5.4	5.3	5.5	5.7	5.2	4.4	6.8	7.5	6.1	31
Germany	2.9	3.1	3.2	3.3	3.4	3.6	3.6	3.5	4.1	5.6	5.0	54
Poland	4.4	5.0	4.9	4.6	4.6	4.3	3.9	3.2	4.8	5.2	4.9	38
United States	3.2	3.3	3.7	3.8	3.7	3.9	3.8	1.4	1.5	3.8	4.2	65
Italy	1.6	2.0	2.0	2.1	2.1	2.2	2.4	2.3	3.3	3.9	3.4	44
India	1.7	2.1	2.3	2.8	2.7	3.0	3.1	1.7	2.1	3.5	3.4	42
Spain	1.5	1.6	1.5	1.6	1.7	1.7	1.7	1.6	2.5	2.5	2.3	47
Iran	1.0	1.1	1.0	0.9	1.3	0.8	0.6	0.7	0.8	1.4	2.2	53
Nepal	0.5	0.6	0.8	1.2	0.9	0.6	0.4	0.2	0.7	1.0	2.1	45
China	1.6	1.8	1.9	2.1	1.9	2.0	2.3	1.4	1.4	1.6	2.0	55
Sweden	1.6	1.6	1.7	1.8	1.9	1.8	1.7	1.8	1.7	1.8	1.9	50
Norway	1.9	1.9	2.0	1.9	1.9	1.8	1.8	1.6	1.7	1.8	1.8	63
France	1.3	1.3	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.6	1.5	1.4	1.5	1.9	1.7	50
Bulgaria	1.6	1.8	1.7	1.6	1.6	1.6	1.7	1.4	2.0	2.0	1.6	35
Other countries	25.3	30.4	40.5	35.5	29.8	27.5	25.8	19.9	20.5	26.6	28.0	
Total	56.0	64.5	75.4	71.2	66.4	64.6	61.9	48.0	57.3	101.2	78.9	48

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/n0hq64>.

Table B.1. Inflows of foreign population by nationality – Estonia

Thousands

	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	Of which: Women 2023 (%)
Ukraine	0.3	0.4	1.2	1.1	1.0	1.5	1.8	2.4	3.0	33.2	13.1	50
Russia	0.5	0.4	1.3	1.3	1.3	1.5	1.7	1.4	1.9	1.9	1.1	59
Finland	0.0	0.0	0.9	0.9	0.9	0.8	0.7	0.7	0.6	0.5	0.5	40
Germany	0.0	0.0	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.4	0.6	0.5	0.4	44
Latvia	0.0	0.1	0.3	0.4	0.9	0.8	0.7	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.4	36
India	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.3	40
Moldova	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	23
Italy	0.0	0.0	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.2	43
France	0.0	0.0	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.5	0.3	0.2	36
Stateless	..	0.0	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.2	29
Belarus	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.5	0.4	0.2	37
Türkiye	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	37
Spain	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.2	37
Romania	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.1	28
Uzbekistan	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.1	7
Other countries	0.5	0.3	1.9	2.2	2.7	2.8	3.6	3.0	3.2	3.2	3.0	
Total	1.6	1.3	7.4	7.7	9.1	9.7	11.0	10.3	12.5	42.4	20.6	47

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/n0hq64>.

Table B.1. Inflows of foreign population by nationality – Finland

Thousands

	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	Of which: Women 2023 (%)
Ukraine	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.7	0.8	0.9	1.5	1.5	19.9	59
Russia	2.9	2.4	2.1	2.5	1.5	1.7	2.2	2.3	2.7	6.0	4.4	48
Philippines	0.3	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.8	0.6	0.7	2.9	3.5	61
Sri Lanka	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	1.1	3.3	49
India	0.7	0.8	0.8	0.7	0.7	1.0	1.4	1.0	1.4	2.6	3.1	43
Bangladesh	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.3	1.2	2.5	36
China	0.8	0.7	0.7	0.8	0.7	0.8	1.0	0.9	1.1	1.2	2.1	52
Afghanistan	0.6	0.5	0.4	1.9	0.9	0.7	0.7	0.6	0.8	0.9	1.5	58
Pakistan	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.4	0.3	0.4	1.0	1.4	34
Viet Nam	0.4	0.5	0.7	0.9	0.6	0.6	0.7	0.5	0.8	1.0	1.4	53
Estonia	5.9	4.7	3.4	2.6	2.2	2.0	1.6	1.6	2.4	1.8	1.4	40
Nepal	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.7	1.3	44
Iran	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.6	0.9	1.0	50
Nigeria	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.4	0.5	1.0	39
Türkiye	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.7	0.7	0.6	0.9	0.9	37
Other countries	10.1	11.1	10.7	14.9	14.3	13.5	12.5	12.6	13.8	18.0	17.2	
Total	23.9	23.6	21.4	27.3	23.7	23.1	24.2	23.3	28.0	42.5	66.0	50

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/n0hq64>.

Table B.1. Inflows of foreign population by nationality – France

Thousands

	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	Of which: Women 2023 (%)
Algeria	23.6	22.0	22.4	21.8	21.8	22.6	21.8	17.9	18.4	20.2	20.8	52
Morocco	20.0	18.1	18.4	18.8	19.1	20.8	22.5	17.5	22.2	27.0	17.7	56
Tunisia	11.6	10.8	10.5	11.3	11.9	14.2	15.0	11.5	13.2	16.9	14.7	44
Afghanistan	0.9	0.8	0.6	1.7	5.0	5.3	5.5	5.4	8.6	9.9	11.0	22
Italy	12.2	12.7	13.2	13.9	13.6	14.4	14.6	11.5	9.7	11.2	10.1	49
Spain	13.7	12.9	12.4	10.7	10.9	12.7	10.5	8.2	11.4	10.2	9.6	51
Côte d'Ivoire	3.6	4.0	3.7	3.9	4.2	5.3	6.8	6.6	8.8	8.5	7.9	46
Belgium	6.6	6.5	6.4	6.7	6.6	7.4	6.8	5.3	6.7	7.5	7.8	51
Portugal	18.8	14.7	11.6	12.4	8.3	8.0	7.6	6.0	7.7	10.2	7.4	50
Germany	7.7	6.4	7.1	6.2	5.7	6.1	5.7	4.5	5.8	7.6	7.1	54
Türkiye	5.9	5.3	4.9	5.0	5.0	4.8	5.1	4.0	5.3	6.3	6.8	32
Romania	6.1	8.1	10.1	8.5	8.1	8.4	8.6	6.8	6.1	7.0	6.7	46
Guinea	2.0	2.1	2.3	2.5	2.7	3.4	4.7	5.8	7.9	7.2	6.2	37
China	7.6	5.3	5.0	5.3	4.7	4.6	5.4	3.6	3.7	4.6	5.8	57
Russia	4.1	4.1	3.9	4.1	4.1	3.8	4.0	2.9	3.8	5.5	5.0	58
Other countries	104.6	103.3	107.9	110.8	114.6	118.2	123.7	91.0	111.4	125.2	115.1	
Total	249.2	236.9	240.5	243.6	246.2	259.9	268.5	208.5	250.4	284.9	259.8	49

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/n0hq64>.**Table B.1. Inflows of foreign population by nationality – Germany**

Thousands

	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	Of which: Women 2023 (%)
Ukraine	8.3	13.5	15.8	13.3	13.1	14.2	15.8	11.8	12.4	1073.2	283.6	53
Romania	139.5	198.7	221.4	222.3	230.6	252.0	245.0	198.4	202.7	217.0	202.0	34
Syria	19.0	69.1	309.7	179.4	76.4	49.0	44.1	31.1	58.8	92.3	128.7	26
Türkiye	23.2	22.1	23.7	28.6	33.7	40.6	43.8	30.4	41.9	72.2	115.9	34
Poland	190.4	192.2	190.8	160.7	149.7	143.6	128.6	101.9	94.4	100.2	97.9	35
Bulgaria	60.9	80.1	86.3	83.0	81.6	85.7	87.4	76.2	75.7	76.6	65.9	39
Afghanistan	9.1	12.9	84.9	75.8	12.5	12.5	13.0	14.1	40.1	68.5	58.5	21
India	19.5	22.4	26.1	27.7	29.5	33.7	39.1	20.5	34.1	53.4	54.1	40
Italy	47.5	56.7	57.2	52.6	51.5	53.3	50.4	36.6	34.8	37.9	38.5	40
Hungary	60.0	58.8	58.1	51.6	48.1	43.9	36.7	28.4	27.7	30.1	34.0	34
Russia	31.4	20.6	21.6	23.1	18.1	18.2	18.8	11.6	13.7	32.6	26.7	49
Serbia	27.3	38.4	39.7	22.9	24.5	25.6	26.2	20.5	23.1	24.6	24.2	36
Iran	8.3	7.1	17.2	23.0	13.7	19.4	16.2	9.0	13.0	22.0	23.4	46
North Macedonia	14.4	15.6	24.8	14.3	18.2	18.5	20.4	12.7	17.2	23.0	22.5	45
Albania	4.1	15.2	69.4	13.0	14.9	17.3	19.1	14.5	17.0	22.0	22.1	39
Other countries	445.2	519.2	769.6	727.9	567.9	556.0	541.4	377.1	433.1	535.2	543.1	
Total	1 108.1	1 342.5	2 016.2	1 719.1	1 384.0	1 383.6	1 345.9	994.8	1 139.8	2 481.0	1 741.2	40

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/n0hq64>.

Table B.1. Inflows of foreign population by nationality – Greece

Thousands

	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	Of which: Women 2023 (%)
EU	15.0	16.0	16.5	16.6	17.2	16.7	13.8	7.5	3.3	4.7	7.4	48
Non-EU	16.3	13.5	17.5	69.5	63.3	70.6	81.6	55.9	25.4	58.0	64.3	35
Total	31.3	29.5	34.0	86.1	80.5	87.3	95.4	63.4	28.7	64.1	71.7	36

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/n0hq64>.**Table B.1. Inflows of foreign population by nationality – Hungary**

Thousands

	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	Of which: Women 2023 (%)
Viet Nam	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.7	1.3	2.0	1.8	1.1	2.1	9.7	37
Philippines	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.5	1.9	6.0	30
Ukraine	0.6	0.7	1.1	1.2	6.3	16.7	21.2	8.9	15.4	14.9	4.3	59
China	2.2	4.7	3.5	1.5	2.3	2.0	2.4	1.2	1.3	1.7	3.4	44
India	0.2	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.8	1.4	1.2	0.9	1.3	2.3	2.9	21
Korea	0.3	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.6	0.8	1.2	1.4	1.3	1.7	2.5	25
Germany	2.0	2.0	2.0	2.3	2.5	2.5	2.6	3.7	4.0	3.8	2.5	49
Russia	0.6	1.0	0.9	0.7	0.8	0.9	0.9	0.6	0.7	1.9	2.4	49
Kyrgyzstan	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.5	2.3	24
Türkiye	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.7	1.0	1.0	1.2	0.9	1.1	1.3	2.2	25
Mongolia	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.7	0.8	0.3	0.4	1.1	1.9	47
Slovak Republic	1.1	1.2	1.3	1.3	1.5	1.5	1.5	6.0	2.5	1.7	1.2	53
Serbia	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.6	1.7	2.9	2.5	0.7	1.2	1.4	1.1	22
Romania	4.0	3.7	3.5	3.1	2.9	2.9	2.7	2.3	1.9	1.9	1.0	31
United States	1.0	1.1	1.2	1.1	1.4	1.3	1.4	0.7	0.9	1.0	0.9	48
Other countries	7.8	9.4	9.8	10.0	13.6	13.4	13.4	14.1	15.1	16.2	17.1	
Total	21.3	26.0	25.8	23.8	36.5	49.3	55.3	43.8	49.1	55.5	61.4	38

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/n0hq64>.

Table B.1. Inflows of foreign population by nationality – Iceland

Thousands

	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	Of which: Women 2023 (%)
Poland	1.4	1.5	1.7	3.1	4.7	4.1	3.1	2.3	2.3	4.3	4.4	37
Ukraine	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	2.3	1.7	55
Romania	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.5	0.7	0.7	0.5	0.8	1.3	1.2	20
Lithuania	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.7	1.3	1.3	1.0	0.7	0.7	1.0	1.0	19
Latvia	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.6	0.6	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.7	0.7	16
Spain	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.5	42
Czechia	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.2	0.2	0.4	0.4	49
Vanuatu	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.4	48
Germany	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.4	68
Portugal	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.4	0.4	37
United States	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.4	57
Italy	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.3	0.3	0.3	40
Philippines	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	71
Greece	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.3	41
Hungary	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.3	46
Other countries	1.5	1.7	1.9	2.5	2.9	3.1	3.2	3.0	3.1	4.2	4.0	
Total	4.4	4.8	5.6	8.6	12.5	12.5	10.7	8.9	10.0	17.0	16.6	40

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/n0hq64>.**Table B.1. Inflows of foreign population by nationality – Ireland**

Thousands

	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	Of which: Women 2023 (%)
EU	23.8	26.8	29.4	28.9	28.5	32.3	30.3	18.8	17.2	29.3	23.6	53
Non-EU	18.3	20.3	22.5	27.2	22.7	32.8	30.1	23.9	29.7	100.4	83.0	55
Total	43.0	47.9	52.9	57.2	52.1	66.4	61.6	43.6	47.0	129.7	106.6	55

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/n0hq64>.

Table B.1. Inflows of foreign population by nationality – Israel

Thousands

	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	Of which: Women 2023 (%)
Russia	4.0	4.6	6.6	7.0	7.1	10.5	15.8	6.6	7.6	45.5	33.1	50
United States	2.2	2.4	2.5	2.7	2.6	2.5	2.5	2.3	3.5	3.0	2.4	53
Ukraine	1.9	5.7	6.9	5.8	7.0	6.4	6.2	2.9	3.1	14.7	2.1	50
Belarus	0.3	0.6	0.9	0.9	..	0.6	1.0	2.2	1.8	50
France	2.9	6.5	6.6	4.2	3.2	2.4	2.2	2.4	3.6	2.2	1.0	51
Argentina	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.6	0.8	1.0	0.5	51
United Kingdom	0.4	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.4	55
Georgia	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.1	0.4	0.4	47
Brazil	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.5	0.5	0.4	0.3	53
Uzbekistan	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.3	0.3	0.3	47
South Africa	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.2	51
Canada	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.2	49
Azerbaijan	0.1	0.1	0.2	50
Latvia	0.0	0.1	0.1	47
Germany	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.1	62
Other countries	4.6	3.3	3.1	3.5	3.5	3.0	3.8	2.2	3.2	3.3	2.8	
Total	16.9	24.1	27.9	26.0	26.4	28.1	33.2	19.7	25.5	74.7	46.0	50

 Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/n0hq64>.

Table B.1. Inflows of foreign population by nationality – Italy

Thousands

	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	Of which: Women 2023 (%)
Ukraine	12.8	9.7	9.3	8.7	7.9	7.7	6.6	5.2	8.7	29.9	33.9	68
Albania	12.2	11.4	11.5	13.0	15.4	18.0	22.2	17.2	22.1	29.1	30.0	47
Romania	58.2	50.7	46.4	45.2	43.5	40.1	39.2	28.7	28.4	31.8	26.7	52
Bangladesh	10.5	12.7	12.4	10.7	14.6	13.4	11.8	7.8	14.6	21.1	26.0	19
Egypt	9.8	8.7	7.4	6.6	7.7	7.4	9.0	5.7	7.9	13.1	21.4	20
Morocco	19.6	17.6	15.0	14.7	15.7	16.9	20.3	12.5	15.4	19.4	20.9	42
Pakistan	7.8	9.6	11.4	14.7	15.0	13.2	9.9	9.7	14.3	16.7	20.4	15
Argentina	0.7	0.7	0.9	1.0	1.4	2.2	4.3	2.2	6.1	14.6	17.1	49
Brazil	5.0	5.0	7.0	10.5	15.7	18.0	20.6	8.7	8.2	15.1	15.0	52
India	10.8	11.1	11.2	10.0	7.7	11.1	12.0	7.3	11.3	13.0	13.7	47
Tunisia	4.3	3.7	3.9	3.7	3.6	3.7	4.9	3.3	5.0	7.8	12.6	35
Peru	4.3	2.8	1.9	1.7	2.2	2.4	3.2	2.7	4.8	8.7	11.3	57
China	17.6	15.8	14.9	12.4	11.3	10.0	10.8	4.9	6.2	8.2	8.1	53
Senegal	6.5	6.3	7.5	8.5	10.9	8.8	5.8	4.6	5.8	6.8	6.2	30
Nigeria	6.3	5.3	8.9	14.7	23.3	17.9	5.7	7.2	7.6	7.5	6.2	44
Other countries	92.7	77.4	80.4	86.8	105.4	94.7	78.4	64.2	77.2	93.9	108.9	
Total	279.0	248.4	250.0	262.9	301.1	285.5	264.6	191.8	243.6	336.5	378.4	44

 Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/n0hq64>.

Table B.1. Inflows of foreign population by nationality – Japan

Thousands

	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	Of which: Women 2023 (%)
Viet Nam	31.7	43.0	65.9	77.5	98.6	123.3	148.2	71.1	24.2	127.9	133.7	..
China	93.9	99.7	101.9	104.9	112.1	117.1	133.9	46.3	15.3	99.0	106.7	..
Indonesia	9.6	11.8	14.3	16.8	19.6	23.2	28.8	13.7	2.3	51.3	67.1	..
Nepal	8.3	11.5	13.4	14.1	14.5	13.0	13.1	4.2	1.5	44.5	39.6	..
Philippines	16.4	19.9	24.0	26.2	29.6	31.3	34.7	12.7	4.9	34.4	37.3	..
Myanmar	2.1	3.3	5.2	6.1	7.6	8.1	11.6	6.2	1.4	19.5	30.8	..
Korea	24.2	21.1	22.6	25.6	28.0	32.4	33.9	8.3	2.9	23.1	27.6	..
United States	21.1	22.0	21.5	22.2	22.0	22.9	24.1	6.2	5.2	17.6	19.7	..
Thailand	15.4	14.3	14.5	15.4	16.4	17.1	17.9	6.4	1.6	13.1	16.8	..
Chinese Taipei	6.6	7.7	10.8	12.2	13.7	14.9	16.3	4.2	1.3	9.4	13.6	..
Sri Lanka	1.5	2.2	3.1	4.7	5.6	4.0	3.3	2.9	0.8	9.9	11.3	..
India	5.6	6.9	6.9	7.0	7.9	9.6	11.0	3.7	1.3	11.7	10.5	..
Brazil	4.8	6.1	9.1	12.8	14.2	15.8	16.6	4.1	2.3	9.5	8.8	..
Cambodia	1.3	2.3	3.7	4.2	4.8	5.0	6.3	3.7	0.5	8.8	8.4	..
Bangladesh	1.2	2.0	2.4	2.8	2.8	2.6	2.5	1.4	0.7	6.1	6.5	..
Other countries	62.9	62.7	72.1	74.8	77.6	79.5	89.7	25.4	13.9	76.1	81.2	..
Total	306.7	336.5	391.2	427.6	475.0	519.7	592.0	220.6	80.0	561.8	619.7	..

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/n0hq64>.**Table B.1. Inflows of foreign population by nationality – Korea**

Thousands

	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	Of which: Women 2023 (%)
China	179.3	193.8	177.8	166.5	157.8	170.2	139.4	97.0	95.5	95.9	132.9	52
Viet Nam	22.2	28.0	30.2	40.1	48.0	56.0	61.3	28.0	17.4	51.7	70.8	46
Thailand	18.3	48.3	20.1	28.5	71.5	80.3	53.3	8.7	5.2	34.7	34.8	55
United States	26.6	24.5	22.7	21.8	19.8	21.2	20.8	21.3	17.0	21.5	23.7	56
Nepal	6.0	6.8	6.5	8.7	8.6	9.8	8.8	3.0	1.0	16.0	20.1	13
Uzbekistan	12.3	12.9	14.2	16.2	18.5	18.8	26.0	8.0	13.1	22.2	19.1	30
Indonesia	11.8	10.5	8.5	9.0	6.9	10.7	9.8	3.4	3.1	16.7	18.0	11
Russia	2.8	3.2	6.8	15.0	18.6	18.7	18.0	6.7	7.3	12.3	17.6	42
Philippines	12.0	10.7	9.9	9.5	9.0	10.1	9.1	2.9	1.8	13.6	17.5	29
Cambodia	10.5	9.5	9.6	10.2	9.5	8.7	9.9	3.5	4.6	12.0	14.2	35
Myanmar	4.6	5.1	5.2	6.7	6.3	7.4	5.9	1.9	1.5	10.2	12.6	18
Mongolia	4.3	4.0	8.3	8.2	11.8	10.2	8.7	7.1	3.8	10.8	11.7	53
Kazakhstan	1.1	1.4	3.5	7.7	13.4	15.7	12.5	3.5	6.1	15.6	10.1	49
Sri Lanka	5.3	4.8	5.5	7.1	3.9	3.9	4.1	1.2	1.4	7.7	8.6	9
Bangladesh	2.5	2.3	2.9	2.9	2.7	3.3	2.8	1.1	1.0	7.3	6.6	17
Other countries	40.7	41.2	41.0	44.2	46.4	49.9	47.7	35.8	40.8	64.7	61.3	..
Total	360.5	407.1	372.9	402.2	452.7	495.1	438.2	233.1	220.6	412.9	479.8	44

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/n0hq64>.

Table B.1. Inflows of foreign population by nationality – Latvia

Thousands

	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	Of which: Women 2023 (%)
India	..	0.1	0.6	0.9	0.8	0.4	0.5	0.9	1.2	..
Kazakhstan	..	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.9	..
Uzbekistan	..	0.1	0.3	0.5	0.6	0.4	0.4	0.8	0.8	..
Russia	..	1.3	0.9	0.9	0.9	0.6	1.0	0.9	0.7	..
Ukraine	..	0.5	0.9	1.4	1.6	1.1	1.5	1.0	0.4	..
Belarus	..	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.2	0.6	0.4	0.4	..
Sri Lanka	..	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.3	..
Poland	..	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.3	..
Tajikistan	..	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.2	0.1	..
Azerbaijan	..	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	..
Lithuania	..	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	..
Viet Nam	..	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.6	0.1	..
Georgia	..	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.1	..
Türkiye	..	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	..
Germany	..	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	..
Other countries	..	1.6	1.5	1.6	1.4	1.1	1.8	1.9	1.6	
Total	3.5	4.5	4.5	3.4	5.1	6.5	6.6	4.6	6.4	7.3	7.4	..

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/n0hq64>.

Table B.1. Inflows of foreign population by nationality – Lithuania

Thousands

	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	Of which: Women 2023 (%)
Belarus	0.5	0.5	0.4	1.2	2.7	3.3	6.4	7.3	8.3	9.8	15.7	..
Ukraine	0.4	1.1	1.1	1.6	4.3	5.7	8.9	9.3	6.3	61.5	10.5	..
Uzbekistan	..	0.0	..	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.5	0.4	0.7	4.4	..
Kyrgyzstan	0.1	0.3	0.4	1.1	3.2	..
Tajikistan	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.8	3.2	..
India	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.4	2.4	..
Russia	0.8	1.5	0.7	0.8	0.7	0.8	1.0	1.0	1.8	2.8	1.7	..
Azerbaijan	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.6	1.7	..
Kazakhstan	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.3	0.2	0.4	1.6	..
Georgia	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.4	0.8	..
Türkiye	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.3	0.8	..
Moldova	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.4	..
Pakistan	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.4	..
Sri Lanka	0.0	0.0	..	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.2	..
Philippines	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.2	..
Other countries	..	1.2	..	1.6	1.6	1.6	1.9	2.3	2.7	1.7	2.8	
Total	3.0	4.8	3.7	6.0	10.2	12.3	19.7	22.3	21.1	81.0	50.2	..

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/n0hq64>.

Table B.1. Inflows of foreign population by nationality – Luxembourg

Thousands

	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	Of which: Women 2023 (%)
Portugal	4.6	3.8	3.5	3.4	3.3	3.5	3.8	3.3	3.9	3.6	3.6	45
France	3.5	3.9	4.1	4.0	4.2	4.0	4.1	3.6	3.6	3.1	3.1	45
Italy	1.3	1.6	1.6	1.8	1.8	1.9	2.0	1.7	1.9	2.0	1.9	40
Spain	0.6	0.6	0.7	0.8	0.8	0.7	0.8	0.8	1.2	1.2	1.0	44
India	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.6	0.7	0.8	0.5	1.0	1.3	0.9	46
Belgium	1.5	1.6	1.5	1.3	1.4	1.2	1.2	1.0	1.1	1.0	0.9	43
Germany	1.0	1.0	1.0	0.9	1.0	1.0	1.0	0.9	0.9	0.8	0.8	46
Ukraine	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.2	4.3	0.8	54
Syria	0.0	0.1	0.7	0.4	0.5	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.9	0.8	36
Romania	0.4	0.8	0.7	0.6	0.7	0.8	0.8	0.7	0.8	0.7	0.6	51
Russia	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.5	0.5	55
Brazil	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.5	0.5	0.5	60
China	0.4	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.5	57
Greece	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.4	0.5	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.4	48
Poland	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.4	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.4	53
Other countries	5.2	5.7	6.4	6.1	6.6	7.2	8.2	6.4	7.0	8.7	8.3	
Total	19.8	21.0	22.6	21.6	23.2	23.4	25.2	21.0	23.8	29.9	25.1	47

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/n0hq64>.**Table B.1. Inflows of foreign population by nationality – Mexico**

Thousands

	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	Of which: Women 2023 (%)
Honduras	2.4	2.3	1.8	2.6	2.5	3.4	3.6	7.9	12.4	13.8	12.5	..
Guatemala	3.1	2.6	1.6	1.7	1.8	2.3	1.9	2.5	4.3	6.3	8.6	..
United States	14.4	9.4	7.1	6.8	5.4	5.2	5.0	5.3	6.9	7.6	7.7	..
Venezuela	2.8	2.6	2.2	2.5	3.4	6.3	7.4	11.0	10.6	9.6	6.1	..
Colombia	3.2	2.5	2.1	2.2	2.2	2.8	2.7	3.9	5.2	5.2	5.3	..
El Salvador	1.6	1.2	1.1	1.8	2.3	2.8	2.5	3.6	4.0	4.6	4.7	..
Cuba	3.2	2.7	2.6	2.4	2.1	2.3	2.7	5.1	5.1	4.6	4.1	..
Canada	3.5	2.0	1.8	1.7	1.3	1.4	1.3	1.4	1.9	2.8	2.9	..
China	5.2	2.6	2.2	2.1	1.5	1.8	1.9	1.7	1.5	1.9	2.0	..
Haiti	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.3	1.4	2.5	3.1	1.8	..
Argentina	3.2	2.1	1.4	1.4	1.0	1.1	1.1	1.3	1.5	1.6	1.6	..
Spain	2.6	1.8	1.6	1.7	1.5	1.5	1.3	1.4	1.3	1.3	1.1	..
Russia	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.8	1.0	..
Brazil	1.1	0.7	0.6	0.6	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.9	1.2	1.2	0.9	..
Peru	1.2	0.9	0.6	0.6	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.6	0.7	0.7	0.6	..
Other countries	14.9	9.7	7.3	7.5	6.6	6.4	7.5	10.1	9.0	10.8	8.9	
Total	63.0	43.5	34.4	35.9	32.8	38.7	40.5	58.4	68.5	75.6	69.9	..

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/n0hq64>.

Table B.1. Inflows of foreign population by nationality – Netherlands

Thousands

	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	Of which: Women 2023 (%)
Ukraine	0.7	0.9	1.1	1.1	1.2	1.3	1.4	1.1	1.4	104.5	38.5	58
Poland	20.4	23.8	23.0	23.1	23.8	25.5	27.3	24.4	25.1	26.3	25.3	44
Syria	0.6	6.9	17.3	25.1	15.3	5.3	5.7	5.7	11.9	17.1	19.6	35
Romania	2.5	4.6	4.3	5.2	7.5	9.4	11.8	10.7	12.9	14.8	13.9	39
Bulgaria	4.5	5.2	4.8	5.0	6.0	6.9	9.2	9.2	10.4	12.5	12.3	43
India	4.5	5.1	6.1	7.2	8.6	10.6	12.3	5.9	9.8	14.6	12.1	47
Türkiye	3.0	2.8	2.8	3.2	4.4	5.5	6.6	5.2	7.3	12.1	11.3	44
Italy	4.2	5.1	5.7	6.5	7.6	8.5	9.4	7.7	9.1	10.3	10.6	47
Spain	5.3	5.0	5.0	5.2	5.9	6.5	7.6	6.3	8.9	10.6	10.4	48
Germany	8.1	8.2	8.6	9.4	10.5	10.9	11.7	10.4	11.1	10.5	10.4	56
China	4.7	4.8	5.4	5.7	6.5	6.8	7.5	4.4	6.0	6.1	8.0	58
Portugal	2.4	2.3	2.2	2.4	2.7	3.1	3.7	3.2	4.4	5.7	6.1	43
France	3.2	3.6	4.0	4.5	5.0	5.5	5.9	5.0	5.9	6.3	5.9	53
Greece	2.9	2.6	2.8	3.1	3.6	4.0	4.7	4.0	5.2	6.3	5.9	41
United States	3.6	3.8	4.7	4.7	5.6	5.8	6.0	4.0	4.4	5.6	5.7	56
Other countries	51.7	54.7	61.6	70.7	69.7	75.4	84.5	63.5	74.2	96.1	95.3	
Total	122.3	139.3	159.5	182.2	183.9	191.0	215.2	170.6	208.1	359.3	291.2	49

 Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/n0hq64>.

Table B.1. Inflows of foreign population by nationality – New Zealand

Thousands

	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	Of which: Women 2023 (%)
India	9.1	16.2	19.5	14.7	14.0	14.3	15.1	9.2	3.7	14.0	47.2	42
Philippines	4.5	6.5	8.4	8.2	9.1	9.1	10.6	3.1	2.2	13.1	38.8	45
China	11.2	13.7	15.8	17.3	16.3	15.7	16.1	4.6	3.2	11.6	26.2	47
Fiji	2.4	2.4	2.4	2.9	2.5	2.4	2.9	1.2	0.4	4.3	11.2	46
South Africa	2.2	2.5	3.4	5.8	5.8	7.0	12.2	3.9	1.0	5.8	8.7	49
Sri Lanka	1.0	1.0	1.2	1.4	1.7	1.7	1.9	0.8	0.2	2.2	7.0	46
Viet Nam	0.7	0.8	0.9	1.1	1.3	1.4	1.6	0.6	0.1	0.9	5.9	43
United Kingdom	8.8	8.7	8.6	8.8	8.8	8.1	9.6	4.8	2.5	4.5	5.8	47
Australia	5.6	6.1	6.6	6.9	6.8	6.6	7.5	3.3	3.4	5.1	5.2	51
United States	3.0	2.8	3.1	3.0	3.4	3.4	4.4	2.9	1.3	2.7	4.2	52
Samoa	1.8	2.1	2.3	2.4	2.7	2.8	3.4	1.8	1.6	2.0	3.0	46
Nepal	0.3	0.8	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.9	0.9	0.5	0.1	0.8	2.8	42
Tonga	1.0	1.0	1.3	1.3	1.3	1.4	2.2	1.2	0.3	1.1	2.7	45
Malaysia	1.4	1.6	1.6	1.8	1.8	1.7	1.9	0.9	0.4	2.4	2.5	53
Korea	2.1	2.5	2.6	3.1	2.9	2.7	3.0	1.4	0.3	1.4	2.1	59
Other countries	20.3	22.1	23.1	24.7	24.4	25.2	31.3	14.4	7.4	20.8	34.4	
Total	75.4	90.7	101.5	104.0	103.4	104.2	124.7	54.5	28.2	92.6	207.6	46

 Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/n0hq64>.

Table B.1. Inflows of foreign population by nationality – Norway

Thousands

	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	Of which: Women 2023 (%)
Ukraine	0.5	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.4	0.7	0.4	0.4	32.3	32.9	54
Poland	10.5	9.9	8.2	6.0	5.2	5.0	5.0	3.7	8.1	6.6	6.4	38
Syria	0.8	2.1	4.0	11.2	7.0	3.8	1.5	1.5	2.2	2.4	3.1	42
Lithuania	5.6	4.4	3.3	2.5	2.7	2.8	2.5	1.8	3.1	2.6	2.3	40
Sweden	5.3	4.6	3.6	2.5	2.2	2.1	2.0	1.8	2.1	2.1	2.2	44
India	1.5	1.8	1.7	1.4	1.6	2.0	2.4	1.0	1.3	2.6	2.1	45
Romania	2.5	2.1	1.9	1.2	1.2	1.1	1.3	0.9	1.6	1.9	1.7	38
Germany	1.6	1.5	1.3	1.3	1.2	1.3	1.3	1.1	1.7	1.7	1.5	49
Spain	1.5	1.4	1.3	1.1	1.0	0.9	1.0	0.7	1.4	1.5	1.5	46
Philippines	2.8	2.2	2.2	2.1	1.9	1.8	1.8	0.9	0.7	1.6	1.2	71
Latvia	1.3	1.1	0.8	0.7	0.7	0.8	0.8	0.7	1.1	1.2	1.0	36
Denmark	2.0	1.7	1.4	1.3	1.2	1.2	1.1	1.0	1.2	1.2	1.0	47
Pakistan	0.6	0.6	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.5	0.6	0.5	0.8	1.1	1.0	51
Italy	0.8	0.8	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.6	0.9	1.0	0.9	43
United States	1.0	0.9	0.9	0.9	0.9	0.9	1.1	0.8	1.0	1.0	0.9	51
Other countries	28.6	25.8	26.6	24.6	21.4	18.8	21.0	13.6	18.9	22.6	19.4	
Total	66.9	61.4	59.1	58.5	49.8	44.4	44.6	30.8	46.6	83.3	79.3	50

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/n0hq64>.**Table B.1. Inflows of foreign population by nationality – Poland**

Thousands

	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	Of which: Women 2021 (%)
Ukraine	11.9	7.8	45.2	63.8	79.0	88.7	108.4	111.0	154.8	46
Belarus	2.3	1.4	3.2	3.5	6.2	7.9	9.1	8.1	17.2	45
Germany	0.2	0.2	0.5	0.6	0.7	1.9	4.1	4.3	5.9	18
Georgia	1.2	0.8	1.9	2.8	4.1	4.5	4.9	4.9	5.3	29
Bulgaria	1.9	1.1	2.5	2.6	2.7	3.0	3.4	3.4	4.5	51
Romania	2.8	2.0	3.3	3.2	4.0	3.0	2.6	2.7	3.1	42
India	0.4	0.3	0.5	0.7	0.9	1.1	1.8	2.0	2.9	34
Russia	3.0	1.6	3.8	3.9	4.2	2.9	2.5	2.3	2.1	44
Spain	3.0	1.6	3.8	3.9	4.2	2.9	2.6	2.3	2.1	44
Netherlands	1.4	0.9	1.7	1.7	2.0	1.9	1.9	1.7	2.0	24
Italy	0.2	0.2	0.5	0.9	0.8	0.5	0.6	1.1	1.4	10
Uzbekistan	1.1	0.6	1.0	0.8	0.7	0.7	0.8	1.2	1.3	34
United Kingdom	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.4	0.6	0.8	1.1	45
Moldova	0.2	0.1	0.3	0.5	0.4	0.5	0.7	0.9	1.0	20
Lithuania	2.0	2.0	2.3	2.3	2.2	1.8	1.8	1.0	0.9	22
Other countries	14.8	11.3	15.4	15.4	15.7	15.7	17.5	15.9	18.5	
Total	46.6	32.0	86.1	107.0	128.0	137.6	163.2	163.5	224.2	335.3	374.1	43

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/n0hq64>.

Table B.1. Inflows of foreign population by nationality – Portugal

Thousands

	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	Of which: Women 2023 (%)
Brazil	6.7	5.6	5.7	7.1	11.6	28.2	48.8	42.2	39.5	48.3	147.3	46
Angola	1.5	1.5	1.3	1.5	1.8	2.9	4.5	4.8	4.6	6.9	24.4	54
Cape Verde	2.7	2.2	2.0	2.0	2.1	2.6	4.4	4.2	3.9	4.7	14.6	50
Sao Tome and Principe	0.8	0.6	0.5	0.5	0.8	1.2	1.5	1.6	2.0	2.8	14.5	49
India	1.0	0.9	1.1	1.0	1.8	4.1	6.3	7.2	7.4	7.4	12.2	35
Guinea-Bissau	1.2	1.2	1.1	1.0	1.1	1.9	3.5	3.4	3.7	4.2	10.3	39
Bangladesh	0.5	0.4	0.7	0.4	0.7	2.0	2.4	2.2	2.1	6.2	10.1	26
Italy	0.8	1.1	1.6	3.1	5.3	7.0	7.9	4.5	5.3	7.0	8.8	43
United Kingdom	1.4	1.5	1.9	3.1	3.8	5.1	8.4	13.2	0.4	3.0	7.4	44
Pakistan	0.4	0.4	0.6	0.5	0.6	1.3	1.0	1.3	2.0	4.0	6.9	20
Germany	0.8	1.0	1.0	1.6	1.9	2.5	2.8	2.6	3.9	4.0	5.5	47
France	0.7	1.9	2.5	3.5	4.7	5.3	4.4	4.1	4.8	4.7	5.1	45
Russia	0.3	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.6	1.5	4.9	50
United States	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.5	0.6	0.7	1.1	1.1	2.5	3.3	4.8	51
Spain	1.5	1.5	1.7	2.2	2.7	2.9	3.2	2.8	3.6	3.6	4.3	45
Other countries	12.7	14.8	15.6	18.7	21.4	25.2	28.4	22.4	25.0	31.5	48.0	
Total	33.2	35.3	37.9	46.9	61.4	93.2	129.2	118.1	111.3	143.1	329.0	45

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/n0hq64>.

Table B.1. Inflows of foreign population by nationality – Slovak Republic

Thousands

	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	Of which: Women 2023 (%)
Ukraine	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.5	40
Hungary	0.4	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.4	0.5	0.4	0.5	0.4	0.3	0.3	30
Czechia	0.4	0.4	0.6	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.4	0.7	0.4	0.3	0.3	57
Viet Nam	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.1	44
Russia	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	48
Serbia	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	32
Poland	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	40
Romania	0.3	0.3	0.5	0.5	0.2	0.4	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	39
China	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	45
Germany	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.0	32
Italy	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.0	14
Thailand	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	96
Iran	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	48
Austria	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.0	32
Spain	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.0	43
Other countries	0.7	0.6	1.0	1.0	0.8	0.7	0.6	0.6	0.4	0.4	0.4	
Total	2.5	2.4	3.8	3.6	2.9	2.9	2.5	2.8	2.0	1.8	2.1	41

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/n0hq64>.

Table B.1. Inflows of foreign population by nationality – Slovenia

Thousands

	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	Of which: Women 2023 (%)
Bosnia and Herzegovina	3.8	3.4	4.7	4.8	6.2	11.7	13.8	11.3	8.4	11.4	12.0	30
Serbia	1.4	1.3	1.3	1.6	2.0	3.2	3.8	3.0	2.1	2.7	3.0	29
Ukraine	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.2	58
North Macedonia	0.8	0.7	0.7	0.9	1.0	1.5	1.6	1.5	1.2	1.7	1.9	40
Russia	0.3	0.5	0.6	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.7	1.1	50
Croatia	1.2	1.1	0.8	1.1	1.1	1.2	1.3	1.2	0.9	0.9	1.0	41
Türkiye	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.3	0.5	9
Bulgaria	0.7	0.8	0.7	0.7	0.8	0.7	0.6	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.4	28
Italy	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.5	0.5	0.4	0.7	0.5	0.4	0.3	34
India	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	15
Montenegro	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	33
China	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	46
Germany	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.2	44
Hungary	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	41
United States	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	47
Other countries	2.2	2.3	2.5	2.7	2.6	3.7	4.6	5.2	4.8	6.6	6.6	
Total	11.6	11.3	12.7	13.8	15.5	24.1	27.6	24.8	19.7	31.9	29.9	33

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/n0hq64>.**Table B.1. Inflows of foreign population by nationality – Spain**

Thousands

	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	Of which: Women 2023 (%)
Colombia	8.7	8.5	9.4	22.6	34.1	53.3	76.8	51.4	64.5	172.2	170.7	54
Morocco	20.5	20.0	23.8	29.7	39.8	60.9	72.9	44.9	99.5	113.7	123.5	35
Venezuela	4.7	7.2	10.5	18.5	31.6	47.1	58.1	29.7	37.4	82.5	88.4	53
Peru	4.8	4.7	5.3	8.0	13.9	19.3	28.6	18.1	26.1	65.2	66.9	54
Italy	12.2	14.9	18.6	21.7	28.8	31.3	33.4	21.3	42.1	48.8	48.1	47
Romania	22.8	29.7	28.8	28.6	31.0	29.1	27.0	15.7	47.5	48.0	45.7	50
Argentina	3.8	4.2	5.0	6.4	8.8	11.1	17.9	10.7	20.8	33.9	35.0	51
Ukraine	3.3	5.7	8.8	6.9	7.8	8.2	8.1	4.2	9.9	91.6	34.4	57
Honduras	4.3	5.7	7.6	10.9	18.3	23.4	29.1	18.7	19.9	34.6	32.4	62
Paraguay	3.8	4.2	4.7	7.2	8.4	9.3	12.0	6.5	10.4	23.5	24.3	59
Ecuador	5.3	4.9	5.3	6.8	8.8	9.3	10.7	5.8	12.8	18.0	21.8	50
Russia	8.4	8.2	7.0	6.2	7.0	8.1	9.0	4.7	13.0	20.3	21.6	53
China	9.1	9.4	10.1	10.2	11.4	11.9	12.1	5.1	18.2	14.3	20.5	53
Cuba	5.1	4.6	4.9	5.9	8.0	11.3	14.2	6.4	12.0	18.2	20.4	54
Brazil	5.1	5.6	7.1	9.7	12.5	15.5	16.5	8.7	12.8	20.2	19.6	56
Other countries	126.4	127.0	133.1	153.0	183.7	210.8	239.8	163.1	305.5	315.4	324.9	
Total	248.4	264.5	290.0	352.2	454.0	560.0	666.0	415.2	752.3	1 120.5	1 098.0	49

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/n0hq64>.

Table B.1. Inflows of foreign population by nationality – Sweden

Thousands

	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	Of which: Women 2023 (%)
India	2.4	3.0	3.5	4.2	5.7	7.3	7.4	4.0	6.0	8.0	7.5	48
Poland	4.6	5.1	5.6	5.0	4.4	3.8	3.2	2.5	3.2	4.7	4.5	38
Germany	2.2	2.2	2.3	2.5	2.4	2.4	2.5	2.3	3.4	4.5	3.8	53
Afghanistan	4.2	3.8	3.4	4.1	11.3	9.6	7.9	2.6	2.2	3.3	3.1	57
China	2.1	2.4	2.3	2.2	2.7	2.9	2.8	1.7	1.9	1.9	2.6	52
Syria	11.7	21.7	28.0	49.0	20.9	13.9	6.0	3.2	3.6	3.9	2.5	64
Pakistan	0.8	0.8	1.1	1.2	1.7	2.5	3.1	2.4	3.2	3.3	2.4	47
Romania	1.9	2.0	2.3	2.3	2.2	2.3	2.0	1.4	1.7	2.5	2.2	35
Iran	2.0	1.7	1.3	1.7	2.3	2.5	2.3	1.5	2.0	2.3	1.9	53
Italy	1.0	1.1	1.2	1.3	1.3	1.4	1.3	1.1	1.3	1.7	1.8	46
Denmark	2.5	2.0	2.1	2.1	1.9	1.9	1.9	1.9	1.7	1.8	1.8	43
Türkiye	1.3	1.2	1.2	1.1	1.5	2.2	2.2	1.6	1.8	2.2	1.7	48
Netherlands	0.8	0.9	0.9	1.0	1.0	1.0	0.9	0.8	1.2	1.7	1.6	49
Finland	2.3	2.6	2.8	3.0	2.9	2.6	2.2	1.7	1.7	1.8	1.6	56
Spain	1.4	1.4	1.3	1.3	1.4	1.3	1.2	1.0	1.1	1.5	1.4	47
Other countries	54.2	54.2	54.4	60.9	61.2	56.9	51.6	36.0	38.3	41.4	36.5	
Total	95.4	106.1	113.9	143.0	125.0	114.4	98.2	65.8	74.4	86.5	77.2	49

 Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/n0hq64>.

Table B.1. Inflows of foreign population by nationality – Switzerland

Thousands

	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	Of which: Women 2023 (%)
Germany	26.6	23.8	22.1	20.9	19.7	20.2	19.9	19.2	20.6	23.3	26.2	43
France	13.5	13.8	14.8	13.8	14.1	13.8	14.0	15.7	14.9	17.3	20.0	42
Italy	17.5	17.8	18.2	18.1	15.5	16.5	15.9	16.5	15.5	18.0	19.5	39
Portugal	19.9	14.9	12.6	10.1	9.2	8.7	8.3	7.6	7.6	9.6	12.8	41
Spain	8.8	7.6	7.0	5.8	5.2	5.6	5.2	5.4	6.0	7.4	9.0	45
Poland	2.9	4.8	4.8	4.1	4.1	4.7	4.7	4.6	4.7	6.3	7.6	37
Romania	2.7	2.4	2.0	2.9	2.9	2.4	4.5	4.8	5.2	6.7	7.5	41
Hungary	2.5	4.2	3.9	3.6	3.3	3.2	3.1	2.8	2.8	3.3	4.2	42
Türkiye	1.7	1.7	1.5	1.5	1.6	1.7	2.0	2.7	3.1	3.4	3.8	46
China	2.9	2.9	3.3	3.2	3.1	3.1	3.3	3.1	3.4	3.2	3.5	54
India	2.5	2.6	2.9	2.9	3.1	3.1	3.0	2.5	2.9	3.2	3.5	46
Afghanistan	0.3	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.9	1.1	1.0	1.0	2.4	3.0	3.5	40
Austria	2.9	3.0	3.2	2.9	2.8	2.8	2.9	2.7	2.7	3.1	3.3	43
Bulgaria	1.1	0.9	1.0	1.8	1.7	1.3	2.3	2.1	2.0	2.5	2.6	37
Croatia	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.9	0.8	0.8	0.8	3.2	2.6	42
Other countries	49.3	50.7	52.0	50.6	50.1	51.1	49.8	45.5	47.0	49.0	52.1	
Total	155.4	152.1	150.4	143.1	137.8	140.1	140.6	137.0	141.5	162.4	181.6	45

 Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/n0hq64>.

Table B.1. Inflows of foreign population by nationality – Türkiye

Thousands

	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	Of which: Women 2023 (%)
Russia	6.4	7.3	13.8	17.3	15.3	31.5	99.8	28.3	49
Azerbaijan	15.3	20.9	23.2	26.6	9.0	27.1	18.2	17.7	46
Turkmenistan	8.4	20.3	34.9	80.0	17.9	24.5	8.9	15.6	57
Iran	15.5	17.8	31.9	42.4	13.4	67.0	25.8	14.5	54
Afghanistan	27.9	37.7	45.0	47.2	22.9	34.1	21.5	12.7	27
Uzbekistan	9.0	17.9	15.2	25.1	14.5	40.0	15.1	11.0	53
Kazakhstan	3.6	4.3	7.4	10.0	9.0	20.2	15.7	10.8	55
Germany	8.6	8.4	8.9	9.4	7.6	13.2	11.5	9.4	47
Ukraine	6.5	6.3	5.9	6.6	4.1	8.5	32.5	8.5	63
Iraq	70.9	97.1	110.3	83.8	28.8	74.3	19.2	7.7	47
Kyrgyzstan	6.0	9.0	9.1	10.0	5.2	11.8	6.6	5.5	61
Indonesia	1.2	1.6	2.1	2.7	1.3	5.7	4.2	4.2	65
Egypt	4.1	8.6	13.5	12.5	4.3	13.4	5.6	3.4	40
India	1.8	2.2	1.2	1.1	0.6	1.7	2.5	3.4	9
Syria	25.7	28.2	39.0	43.2	14.7	37.0	12.6	3.3	58
Other countries	63.0	77.0	105.3	160.7	73.9	205.2	100.1	58.8	
Total	273.9	364.6	466.9	578.5	242.5	615.1	399.6	214.8	49

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/n0hq64>.**Table B.1. Inflows of foreign population by nationality – United States (permanent)**

Thousands

	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	Of which: Women 2023 (%)
Mexico	135.1	133.2	158.3	173.5	170.1	161.6	155.7	100.0	107.0	138.7	190.6	57
Cuba	31.8	45.9	53.6	65.6	64.5	75.5	39.4	15.1	21.6	31.3	88.5	51
India	67.3	76.3	62.8	63.0	59.1	58.9	53.8	45.8	92.6	125.1	68.4	51
Dominican Republic	41.2	43.7	50.0	59.9	58.1	57.0	49.4	29.7	24.1	39.5	67.7	53
China	74.4	78.3	76.6	84.5	74.3	67.8	62.3	41.7	49.7	68.1	57.2	57
Philippines	54.3	49.2	56.0	52.2	48.7	46.9	45.6	25.2	27.5	36.3	48.7	61
Viet Nam	26.5	29.4	30.4	40.1	37.9	33.4	39.2	29.5	16.1	23.8	37.0	57
Afghanistan	2.2	10.6	8.5	12.5	19.8	13.7	10.5	11.7	9.6	14.4	35.6	48
Brazil	10.8	10.2	11.2	13.5	14.7	15.1	19.4	16.3	18.0	23.6	27.4	58
El Salvador	18.2	19.2	19.4	23.1	24.9	28.1	27.5	17.8	18.6	30.5	27.3	56
Colombia	20.7	17.7	16.8	18.0	17.4	17.1	19.3	11.7	15.0	21.4	26.2	63
Jamaica	19.1	18.7	17.4	22.9	21.7	20.2	21.5	12.7	13.2	16.3	22.1	56
Canada	21.0	18.5	20.1	20.3	18.8	16.1	17.8	14.5	15.3	19.3	19.0	53
Bangladesh	12.0	14.4	13.4	18.4	14.6	15.6	15.0	9.1	6.3	10.5	17.8	52
Venezuela	9.5	8.2	9.0	10.6	11.6	11.5	15.2	11.5	13.7	20.0	17.6	59
Other countries	446.4	443.1	447.5	505.3	471.0	458.2	440.2	314.9	291.7	399.2	442.7	
Total	990.6	1016.5	1051.0	1183.5	1127.2	1096.6	1031.8	707.4	740.0	1 018.0	1 193.8	55

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/n0hq64>.

Table A.2. Outflows of foreign population from selected OECD countries

Thousands

	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023
Austria	74.5	76.5	80.1	89.0	89.6	91.7	90.0	79.4	84.6	103.0	109.7
Belgium	69.7	64.9	59.8	61.8	58.6	56.8	46.5	52.0	59.1	54.7	65.5
Czechia	27.2	16.1	15.0	13.4	14.4	16.2	17.5	26.8	18.2	16.9	43.7
Denmark	29.7	30.4	30.6	37.4	41.5	45.4	52.4	41.7	31.9	42.3	48.6
Estonia	0.3	0.3	4.0	4.7	4.3	3.9	6.2	5.5	5.5	4.3	7.0
Finland	4.2	5.5	6.7	7.5	6.8	7.6	7.2	6.6	5.2	6.5	6.5
Germany	657.6	765.6	859.3	1083.8	885.5	923.6	961.3	746.2	746.5	935.5	1004.5
Greece	55.0	51.2	53.4	51.8	49.7	53.1	49.5	44.3	45.3	45.7	43.4
Hungary	13.1	10.8	10.4	10.5	12.9	24.4	27.9	48.0	46.3	29.6	35.6
Iceland	2.7	3.0	3.3	4.0	5.2	7.1	7.9	7.8	6.6	7.8	9.6
Ireland	33.0	30.0	27.5	29.1	31.4	26.6	25.9	25.9	30.9	30.5	33.5
Italy	43.6	47.5	44.7	42.6	40.6	40.2	57.5	38.9	64.1	50.7	44.4
Japan	213.4	212.9	223.5	233.5	259.2	292.1	333.6	173.0	140.0	191.1	223.2
Korea	268.1	270.5	301.0	325.0	348.7	365.1	425.6	361.6	263.3	244.6	319.1
Latvia	3.4	1.4	2.6	3.0	2.3	2.9	4.1	3.8	3.7	4.8	4.1
Lithuania	3.3	3.5	7.6	4.3	2.6	3.2	4.8	7.8	6.4	10.3	11.7
Luxembourg	8.9	9.5	10.4	11.3	11.6	11.6	13.0	12.0	12.9	14.0	13.5
Netherlands	83.1	83.4	85.2	89.9	96.4	102.8	109.9	113.2	100.6	124.8	144.5
New Zealand	37.3	35.7	37.0	38.9	45.3	47.0	55.1	39.3	44.0	42.5	36.1
Norway	25.0	23.3	27.4	30.7	26.6	24.5	17.6	19.9	26.0	23.1	24.8
Poland	49.5	68.6	89.5	40.1	45.8	43.0	43.9	57.5	72.9	65.9	68.9
Portugal	3.0	1.9	0.5	1.1	0.6	2.3	0.7	2.0	1.3	1.4	4.1
Slovak Republic	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Slovenia	5.6	6.2	6.3	6.8	7.7	6.9	8.5	11.9	2.6	3.1	3.6
Spain	459.0	320.0	249.2	237.5	282.0	230.3	220.2	183.1	541.3	390.8	481.8
Sweden	24.6	26.4	31.3	23.5	23.4	24.1	25.3	26.7	22.8	20.6	35.7
Switzerland	70.0	69.2	73.4	77.6	79.1	80.7	80.0	70.3	74.4	73.7	75.3
Türkiye	178.0	253.6	323.9	245.4	342.7	184.0	327.4	423.2
United Kingdom	170.0	171.0	164.0	195.0	222.0	203.0	202.0

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata in the following table.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/onydf8>

Metadata related to Tables A.1, B.1 and A.2. Inflows and outflows of foreign population

Country	Types of migrant recorded in the data	Other comments	Source
Australia	<p><i>Inflows:</i> Includes persons who are entitled to stay permanently in Australia at arrival (Settler Arrivals) as well as those who changed status from temporary to permanent residence. Settler arrivals include holders of a permanent visa, holders of a temporary (provisional) visa where there is a clear intention to settle, citizens of New Zealand indicating an intention to settle and persons otherwise eligible to settle.</p> <p><i>Outflows:</i> People leaving Australia for 12 months or more in a 16-month period. Net Overseas Migration (NOM).</p>	Data refer to the fiscal year (July of the year indicated to June). From 2014, figures inferior to 5 individuals are not shown.	Department of Home Affairs.
Austria	<p><i>Inflows and outflows:</i> Foreigners holding a residence permit and who have actually stayed for at least 3 months.</p>	Outflows include administrative corrections.	Population Registers, Statistics Austria.
Belgium	<p><i>Inflows:</i> Foreigners holding a residence permit and intending to stay in the country for a period that is of at least 3 months (up to 2009) or of at least 12 months (from 2010).</p> <p><i>Outflows:</i> Up to 2009: Departures and automatic write-offs. From 2010: Changes of usual residence for a period that is, or is expected to be, of at least 12 months.</p>	Both series include breaks in 2010 and in 2011.	Population Register, Eurostat.
Canada	Admissions of permanent residents by country of citizenship.	Due to privacy considerations, the figures have been subjected to random rounding (either up or down to multiples of 5).	Immigration, Refugees and Citizenship Canada.
Chile	Total number of people who obtained a temporary visa for the first time.		Register of residence permits, Department of Foreigners and Migration, Ministry of the Interior and Public Security.
Colombia	Inflows of all foreign nationals who entered Colombia in the given year and subsequently stayed for at least 90 days.		Migration Colombia, Ministry of External Relations.
Czechia	<p><i>Inflows:</i> Foreigners holding a permanent or a long-term residence permit (visa over 90 days) or who were granted asylum in the given year. Excludes nationals of EU countries if they intend to stay for less than 30 days in the country.</p> <p><i>Outflows:</i> Departures of foreigners who were staying in the country on a permanent or temporary basis.</p>	Country of origin refers to country of last permanent or temporary residence. Inflows and outflows of nationals of EU countries are likely to be underestimated.	Register of Foreigners, Czech Statistical Office.
Denmark	<p><i>Inflows:</i> Foreigners who live legally in Denmark, are registered in the Central population register, and have been living in the country for at least six months.</p> <p><i>Outflows:</i> Include administrative corrections.</p>	Excludes asylum seekers and all those with temporary residence permits.	Central Population Register, Statistics Denmark.
Estonia	<p><i>Inflows and outflows:</i> Foreigners expecting to stay in the country (out of the country in the case outflows) for at least 12 months.</p>	The number of nationals from other EU countries who are staying temporarily in the country for at least 12 months may be underestimated.	Statistics Estonia.
Finland	<p><i>Inflows and outflows:</i> Foreign nationals with a residence permit valid for more than one year and nationals of EU countries who intend to stay in the country for more than 12 months. Nordic citizens who are moving for less than 6 months are not included.</p>	Includes foreign persons of Finnish origin. Excludes asylum seekers and persons with temporary residence permits. Inflows and outflows of nationals of EU countries can be underestimated.	Central Population Register, Statistics Finland.

Country	Types of migrant recorded in the data	Other comments	Source
France	<i>Inflows:</i> Inflows of non-EU nationals are first issuances of permanent-type permits. They include status changes from a temporary-type permit to a permanent-type permit. Inflows of EU nationals included from 2013 onwards are extracted from the permanent census.		<i>Inflows:</i> Ministry of the Interior and INSEE.
Germany	<i>Inflows:</i> Foreigners who had previously no registered address in Germany and intending to stay at least one week in the country. <i>Outflows:</i> Deregistrations from population registers of persons who move out of their address without taking a new address in the country and administrative deregistrations.	Includes asylum seekers living in private households. Excludes inflows of ethnic Germans (<i>Aussiedler</i>).	Central Population Register, Federal Statistical Office.
Greece	<i>Inflows:</i> Eurostat dataset Immigration by age group, sex and citizenship. <i>Outflows:</i> Eurostat dataset Emigration by age group, sex and citizenship		Eurostat.
Hungary	<i>Inflows:</i> Foreigners expecting to stay in the country for at least 90 days. <i>Outflows:</i> Foreign citizens having a residence or a settlement document and who left Hungary in the given year with no intention to return, or whose permission's validity has expired and did not apply for a new one or whose permission was invalidated by authority due to withdrawal. From 2012 on, includes estimations.	Excluding asylum seekers	Population Register, Office of Immigration and Nationality, Central Statistical Office.
Iceland	<i>Inflows and outflows:</i> Foreigners expecting to stay in the country (out of the country in the case outflows) for at least 12 months.		Register of Migration Data, Statistics Iceland.
Ireland	<i>Inflows:</i> Eurostat dataset Immigration by age group, sex and citizenship. <i>Outflows:</i> The estimates derive from the quarterly National Household Survey (QNHS) and relate to the persons who were resident in the country at a point in the previous twelve-month period who are now living abroad.	Figures for Table A.2. are based on May to April of the year indicated. Figures for Table A.1 and B.1. are based on Eurostat figures.	Central Statistics Office. Eurostat.
Israel	Data refer to permanent immigrants by last country of residence.	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.	Population register, Central Bureau of Statistics.
Italy	<i>Inflows and outflows:</i> Changes of residence.	Excludes seasonal workers. Administrative corrections are made following censuses (the last census took place in 2011).	Administrative Population Register (Anagrafe) analysed by ISTAT.
Japan	<i>Inflows:</i> Foreigners who entered the country, excluding temporary visitors and re-entries. <i>Outflows:</i> Foreigners who left Japan without re-entry permission. Excludes temporary visitors.		Ministry of Justice, Immigration Bureau.
Korea	<i>Inflows and outflows:</i> Data refer to long-term inflows/outflows (more than 90 days).		Ministry of Justice.

Country	Types of migrant recorded in the data	Other comments	Source
Latvia	<i>Inflows and outflows:</i> Long-term migration (permanent change of residence or for a period of at least one year).		Population Register, Central Statistical Office.
Lithuania	<i>Inflows and outflows:</i> Foreign citizens who have been residing in the country for at least 6 months.		Lithuanian Department of Migration.
Luxembourg	<i>Inflows:</i> Foreigners holding a residence permit and intending to stay in the country for at least 12 months. <i>Outflows:</i> Foreigners who left the country with the intention to live abroad for at least 12 months.		Central Population Register, Central Office of Statistics and Economic Studies (Statec).
Mexico	Until 2012, number of foreigners who are issued an immigrant permit for the first time (" <i>inmigrante</i> " FM2). 2011 and 2012 also include new and former refugees who obtained immigrant status (" <i>inmigrado</i> "). From 2013 on, number of foreigners who are issued a permanent residence card, as the 2011 Migration Act came into effect.	The sharp increase in the numbers of 2013 is explained by administrative changes with the implementation of the 2011 Migration Act. Most of these "new residents" are foreigners already in the country on a temporary status.	National Migration Institute, Unit for Migration Policy, Ministry of Interior.
Netherlands	<i>Inflows:</i> Foreigners holding a residence permit and intending to stay in the country for at least four of the next six months. <i>Outflows:</i> Outflows include the "net administrative corrections", i.e. unreported emigration of foreigners.	Inflows exclude asylum seekers who are staying in reception centres.	Population Register, Central Bureau of Statistics.
New Zealand	<i>Inflows:</i> Permanent and long-term arrivals to live in the country for 12 months or more. <i>Outflows:</i> Permanent and long-term departures: Foreign-born returning to live overseas after a stay of 12 months or more in New Zealand.	This data is based on Stats NZ migration flows data calculated using the 12/16 month rule. This data is provisional until 16 months after the fact and updated afterwards.	Statistics New Zealand.
Norway	<i>Inflows:</i> Foreigners holding a residence or work permit and intending to stay in the country for at least 6 months. Include EU/EFTA foreigners. <i>Outflows:</i> Foreigners holding a residence or work permit and who stayed in the country for at least 6 months.	Asylum seekers are registered as immigrants only after having settled in a Norwegian municipality following a positive outcome of their application. An asylum seeker whose application has been rejected will not be registered as an 'immigrant', even if the application process has taken a long time and return to the home country is delayed for a significant period.	Central Population Register, Statistics Norway.
Poland	<i>Inflows:</i> Number of permanent and "fixed-term" residence permits issued. Since 26 August 2006, nationals of European Union Member States and their family members are no longer issued residence permits. However, they still need to register their stay in Poland, provided that they are planning to stay in Poland for more than 3 months. <i>Outflows:</i> Departures of usual residents for a period that is, or is expected to be, of at least 12 months.		<i>Inflows:</i> Office for Foreigner. <i>Outflows:</i> Eurostat.

Country	Types of migrant recorded in the data	Other comments	Source
Portugal	<p><i>Inflows:</i> Data based on residence permits. Following the new legislation, the data include the new residence permits delivered to every foreigner with a citizenship from an EU or non-EU country. Includes continuous regularisation.</p> <p><i>Outflows:</i> Departures of usual residents for a period that is, or is expected to be, of at least 12 months.</p>		<i>Inflows:</i> Immigration and Border Control Office (SEF); National Statistical Institute (INE); Ministry of Foreign Affairs (before 2008). <i>Outflows:</i> Eurostat.
Slovak Republic	<p><i>Inflows and outflows:</i> Includes permanent, temporary, and tolerated residents.</p>		Register of Foreigners, Statistical Office of the Slovak Republic.
Slovenia	<p><i>Inflows and outflows:</i> Persons who immigrated/emigrated to Slovenia from abroad and have usual residence in Slovenia (intend to stay for a year or more).</p>		Statistical Office of the Republic of Slovenia (SURS). Eurostat.
Spain	<p><i>Inflows and outflows:</i> Changes in regular residence for at least 12 months declared by foreigners.</p>	From 2008 on, data correspond to Migration Statistics estimates that are based on the number of registrations and cancellations in the Municipal Registers by all foreigners, irrespective of their legal status.	Municipal Population Registers (<i>Padron municipal de habitantes</i>), National Statistical Institute (INE).
Sweden	<p><i>Inflows:</i> Foreigners holding a residence permit and intending to stay in the country for at least one year (including nationals of EU countries).</p> <p><i>Outflows:</i> Departures of foreigners who have the intention to live abroad for at least one year.</p>	Excludes asylum seekers and temporary workers.	Population Register, Statistics Sweden.
Switzerland	<p><i>Inflows:</i> Foreigners holding a permanent or an annual residence permit. Holders of an L-permit (short duration) are also included if their stay in the country is longer than 12 months.</p> <p><i>Outflows:</i> Departures of foreigners holding a permanent or an annual residence permit and of holders of an L-permit who stayed in the country for at least one year. The data include administrative corrections, so that, for example, foreigners whose permit expired are considered to have left the country.</p>		Register of Foreigners, Federal Office of Migration.
Türkiye	<p><i>Inflows:</i> Residence permits issued for the first time to foreigners intending to stay 12 months or more in the country (long-term residents).</p> <p><i>Outflows:</i> Departures of long-term residents.</p>		Turkish Statistical Institute.
United Kingdom	<p><i>Inflows:</i> OECD Secretariat calculation based on entry clearance data.</p> <p><i>Outflows:</i> Non-British citizens leaving the United Kingdom.</p>		Home Office.
United States	Permanent migrants: Lawful Permanent Residents (LPRs) ("green card" recipients).	Includes persons already present in the United States who changed status. Certain LPRs are admitted conditionally and are required to remove their conditional status after two years; they are counted as LPRs when they first enter. Data cover the fiscal year (October to September of the year indicated).	Office of Immigration Statistics, Department of Homeland Security; Citizenship and Immigration Services, Department of Homeland Security.

Note: Data for Serbia include persons from Serbia and Montenegro. Some statements may refer to nationalities/countries of birth not shown in this annex but available on line at: <https://data-explorer.oecd.org/s/312>.

Inflows of asylum seekers

Statistics on asylum seekers published in this annex are based on data provided by Eurostat and the United Nations High Commission for Refugees. Since 1950, the UNHCR, which has a mission of conducting and co-ordinating international initiatives on behalf of refugees, has regularly produced complete statistics on refugees and asylum seekers in OECD countries and other countries of the world (<https://www.unhcr.org/data.html>).

These statistics are most often derived from administrative sources, but there are differences depending on the nature of the data provided. In some countries, asylum seekers are enumerated when the application is accepted. Consequently, they are shown in the statistics at that time rather than at the date when they arrived in the country. Acceptance of the application means that the administrative authorities will review the applicants' claims and grant them certain rights during this review procedure. In other countries, the data do not include the applicants' family members, who are admitted under different provisions (France), while other countries count the entire family (Switzerland).

Table A.3. New asylum requests in OECD countries

	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	2024
Australia	8 965	12 305	27 685	36 295	28 840	27 405	19 220	14 155	19 305	32 550	..
Austria	25 700	85 520	39 905	22 470	11 610	11 010	13 415	37 830	109 800	56 160	21 835
Belgium	14 130	39 065	14 290	14 055	18 160	23 140	12 930	19 605	32 140	29 305	33 095
Canada	13 655	16 560	23 620	47 845	55 375	58 340	19 045	23 365	94 375	146 740	173 930
Chile	280	615	2 280	5 635	5 775	770	1 675	2 500	5 055	3 625	2 495
Colombia	710	405	405	610	2 675	10 620	11 920	15 940	5 530	5 790	7 050
Costa Rica	1 365	2 190	4 485	6 320	27 970	59 180	21 125	108 425	129 480	34 645	28 275
Czechia	915	1 240	1 205	1 140	1 360	1 575	795	1 060	1 335	1 135	1 035
Denmark	14 565	20 855	6 070	3 140	3 495	2 645	1 435	2 015	4 505	2 380	2 210
Estonia	145	225	150	180	90	100	45	75	2 940	3 980	1 330
Finland	3 495	32 150	5 295	4 350	2 955	2 455	1 455	1 365	4 835	4 465	2 275
France	58 845	70 570	76 790	91 965	126 580	138 290	81 735	103 810	137 605	145 160	130 950
Germany	173 070	441 900	722 365	198 310	161 930	142 510	102 580	148 235	217 775	329 120	229 750
Greece	7 590	11 370	49 875	56 950	64 985	74 915	37 860	22 660	29 135	57 900	68 995
Hungary	41 215	174 435	28 215	3 120	635	470	90	40	45	30	25
Iceland	160	360	1 100	1 065	730	805	625	865	4 530	4 120	1 860
Ireland	1 440	3 270	2 235	2 910	3 655	4 740	1 535	2 615	13 645	13 220	18 435
Israel	225	7 535	15 045	15 345	16 260	9 445	1 885	1 925	3 915	6 815	6 080
Italy	63 655	82 790	121 185	126 560	53 440	35 005	21 340	45 200	77 200	130 565	151 120
Japan	4 995	7 575	10 900	19 650	10 495	10 375	3 935	2 415	3 770	13 825	13 645
Korea	2 880	5 690	7 520	9 925	16 125	15 430	6 665	2 330	11 540	18 825	18 325
Latvia	365	330	345	355	175	180	145	580	545	1 625	800
Lithuania	385	275	415	520	385	625	260	3 905	905	510	295
Luxembourg	1 030	2 360	2 065	2 325	2 225	2 200	1 295	1 370	2 405	2 615	2 125
Mexico	1 510	3 410	8 760	14 585	29 610	70 365	41 205	131 420	118 735	140 980	78 965
Netherlands	21 780	43 035	19 285	16 090	20 465	22 540	13 720	24 755	35 530	38 370	32 000
New Zealand	270	335	380	430	425	540	435	415	335	1 720	2 385
Norway	10 970	30 505	3 275	3 385	2 550	2 205	1 340	1 615	4 650	5 135	4 800
Poland	5 610	10 255	9 785	3 005	2 405	2 765	1 510	6 240	7 700	7 720	14 445
Portugal	445	870	710	1 015	1 240	1 735	900	1 350	1 980	2 600	2 675
Slovak Republic	230	270	100	155	155	215	265	330	505	375	140
Slovenia	355	260	1 265	1 440	2 800	3 615	3 465	5 220	6 645	7 185	5 465
Spain	5 460	14 610	15 570	33 040	52 745	115 190	86 385	62 065	116 150	160 470	164 035
Sweden	75 090	156 195	22 385	22 225	18 685	20 805	11 800	9 055	13 210	8 960	6 780
Switzerland	22 130	38 120	25 875	16 670	13 535	12 600	9 765	13 295	23 130	26 895	22 750
Türkiye	87 800	133 305	78 595	126 050	83 795	56 415	31 335	29 255	33 245	19 015	9 010
United Kingdom	32 345	39 970	39 355	34 435	38 485	44 465	36 025	56 465	89 395	84 415	108 135
United States	121 160	172 740	261 970	331 700	254 300	301 070	250 940	188 860	730 400	1 176 050	..
OECD Total	824 935	1 663 470	1 650 755	1 275 265	1 137 120	1 286 755	852 100	1 092 625	2 093 925	2 724 995	..

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the Tables B.3.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/6x3d4n>

Table B.3. New asylum requests by nationality – Australia

	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	2024
Iran	260	816	2 971	5 075	744	1 069	1 289	846	1 916	4 408	..
Viet Nam	262	217	772	1 263	812	959	1 165	764	721	2 979	..
India	958	644	1 117	1 299	1 813	2 495	1 762	833	1 562	2 410	..
China	1 531	1 444	1 914	6 638	6 586	5 058	2 296	1 975	1 540	2 366	..
Afghanistan	125	542	2 563	1 478	453	697	346	1 138	1 542	1 988	..
Stateless	59	197	721	1 917	141	355	406	233	671	1 481	..
Pakistan	826	627	1 334	1 404	657	801	495	392	881	1 418	..
Sri Lanka	172	778	2 662	2 184	451	836	534	432	1 149	1 165	..
Indonesia	151	213	318	510	618	752	605	384	705	1 004	..
Malaysia	681	2 771	7 258	7 983	9 791	7 065	4 010	2 149	1 030	989	..
Vanuatu	5	6	71	..	642	948	..
Tonga	69	35	55	66	70	222	400	..	621	887	..
Thailand	38	112	204	301	1 481	919	636	515	474	746	..
Myanmar	32	26	60	208	27	74	156	499	549	703	..
Philippines	63	75	93	190	318	671	363	..	175	632	..
Other countries	3 738	3 808	5 638	5 773	4 878	5 434	4 687	3 993	5 125	8 428	..
Total	8 965	12 305	27 685	36 295	28 840	27 407	19 221	14 153	19 303	32 552	..

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/6x3d4n>.

Table B.3. New asylum requests by nationality – Austria

	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	2024
Syria	7 660	24 720	8 640	7 255	3 300	2 675	5 080	16 130	19 585	20 850	12 990
Afghanistan	4 915	24 840	11 520	3 525	1 765	2 585	2 825	8 050	24 445	7 760	2 230
Türkiye	165	190	310	260	175	245	280	875	5 240	7 675	975
Somalia	1 150	2 040	1 505	655	475	600	615	1 575	1 715	1 380	720
Iran	725	3 380	2 400	950	1 050	660	310	405	585	640	465
Morocco	220	670	935	205	90	110	705	1 850	8 625	6 800	455
Russia	1 485	1 340	1 235	1 035	690	550	360	365	715	855	415
Stateless	1 295	2 000	1 065	755	390	245	355	715	595	530	400
China	225	290	245	195	170	175	80	75	135	255	260
India	265	370	415	310	195	295	140	870	19 855	1 145	250
Pakistan	330	2 890	2 415	1 445	160	255	145	1 315	7 900	1 430	225
Iraq	1 050	13 225	2 725	1 345	650	605	625	955	900	795	190
Egypt	95	175	200	130	85	45	165	955	1 550	1 190	165
Georgia	350	355	290	380	410	265	80	145	335	315	160
Algeria	440	840	850	220	80	120	325	425	580	240	135
Other countries	5 330	8 195	5 155	3 805	1 925	1 580	1 325	3 125	17 040	4 300	1 800
Total	25 700	85 520	39 905	22 470	11 610	11 010	13 415	37 830	109 800	56 160	21 835

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/6x3d4n>.

Table B.3. New asylum requests by nationality – Belgium

	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	2024
Syria	2 635	10 295	2 235	2 625	2 770	2 730	1 320	1 765	3 215	3 935	5 340
West Bank and Gaza Strip	10	10	140	815	2 420	2 320	455	1 200	2 500	2 965	5 330
Eritrea	790	335	330	665	725	1 155	805	1 505	1 880	2 130	2 325
Türkiye	135	185	650	465	785	1 000	585	560	1 620	2 400	1 995
Afghanistan	805	7 730	2 225	995	1 045	2 245	2 310	5 155	5 760	2 535	1 870
Dem. Rep. of the Congo	610	630	500	550	405	520	385	275	815	990	1 730
Burundi	65	255	270	235	400	620	320	480	2 720	745	1 085
Cameroon	350	280	255	350	355	390	270	400	695	1 100	1 010
Guinea	665	635	720	750	1 000	830	455	535	725	1 160	990
Somalia	280	2 010	725	295	380	765	600	935	640	690	745
Georgia	280	195	185	415	640	500	210	485	840	660	730
Moldova	15	15	5	5	5	5	170	435	910	660	565
Colombia	0	5	20	65	155	365	170	170	470	580	545
Yemen	15	40	20	20	110	370	120	140	370	200	400
Venezuela	15	20	45	190	405	525	120	115	265	405	380
Other countries	7 460	16 425	5 965	5 615	6 560	8 800	4 635	5 450	8 715	8 150	8 055
Total	14 130	39 065	14 290	14 055	18 160	23 140	12 930	19 605	32 140	29 305	33 095

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/6x3d4n>.

Table B.3. New asylum requests by nationality – Canada

	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	2024
India	298	374	580	1 487	4 524	5 150	1 564	1 705	4 273	11 520	32 539
Bangladesh	323	210	288	470	813	731	194	235	862	4 474	15 736
Nigeria	597	820	1 565	5 459	9 599	3 976	646	326	1 892	9 253	13 222
Sri Lanka	196	232	210	390	524	664	267	228	1 181	2 739	9 877
Mexico	65	99	256	1 446	3 156	5 061	1 776	2 292	16 620	24 137	9 088
Haiti	348	306	634	7 329	1 403	1 374	1 056	755	11 194	5 585	8 124
Ghana	74	86	114	225	155	152	74	78	452	1 936	7 066
Iran	167	156	302	694	2 483	3 663	689	1 396	4 768	5 961	6 777
Pakistan	790	912	1 165	1 640	2 031	2 059	684	521	2 649	5 334	5 610
Colombia	540	683	821	1 347	2 571	3 040	974	1 441	7 833	6 237	4 386
China	1 221	1 575	1 331	1 154	1 865	1 394	279	436	1 023	1 938	3 960
Algeria	76	57	105	208	430	520	177	200	403	1 127	3 341
Türkiye	182	262	1 106	2 163	1 820	1 548	312	842	9 196	6 583	2 755
Dem. Rep. of the Congo	301	274	417	559	1 167	1 312	274	235	1 371	3 703	2 660
Guinea	63	45	71	122	208	175	55	69	175	877	2 658
Other countries	8 413	10 469	14 654	23 151	22 627	27 520	10 024	12 606	30 482	55 335	46 132
Total	13 654	16 560	23 619	47 844	55 376	58 339	19 045	23 365	94 374	146 739	173 931

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/6x3d4n>.

Table B.3. New asylum requests by nationality – Chile

	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	2024
Venezuela	..	14	246	1 345	1 666	226	394	2 065	3 430	2 266	1 484
Colombia	238	490	1 803	2 516	1 157	252	670	98	821	809	640
Cuba	..	17	56	1 603	2 764	272	531	158	183	212	136
Ecuador	..	7	20	8	101	102
Russia	5	..	5	67	..	25
Peru	13	5	36	..	50	17
Lebanon	16
Ukraine	5	96	25	..
Afghanistan	12	74	146
Haiti	23	8	6	29	115
Dominican Republic	5	..	64	48	59	8	..	12
Syria	6	8	12	29	19	7
Nicaragua	1	5
Iraq	5	..	10
El Salvador	5	7	14	..	8
Other countries	18	87	37	82	95	..	80	28	197	162	75
Total	282	630	2 299	5 656	5 784	770	1 675	2 500	5 055	3 625	2 495

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/6x3d4n>.

Table B.3. New asylum requests by nationality – Colombia

	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	2024
Venezuela	47	119	316	575	2 592	10 479	11 832	15 811	5 184	5 613	6 361
Cuba	430	227	54	24	41	24	57	111	233	108	301
Ecuador	5	5	7	23	25	89
Peru	10	..	23
Russia	27	15	8
Ukraine	28	5	5
Haiti	..	5	5	7	5	..
Türkiye	19	7	27	..	5	5	..
Bolivia	5	..
Argentina	5	..
Chile	5	..
Nigeria
Dominican Republic
Syria	8	7	5	..	6	5
Egypt	5
Other countries	225	47	6	4	9	118	21	- 5	6	..	263
Total	710	405	405	610	2 675	10 621	11 920	15 939	5 530	5 791	7 050

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/6x3d4n>.

Table B.3. New asylum requests by nationality – Costa Rica

	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	2024
Nicaragua	15	38	66	78	23 138	31 624	9 416	101 962	119 425	28 469	23 443
Cuba	167	129	89	172	42	1 856	1 644	344	1 095	2 839	1 670
Venezuela	130	280	1 423	3 175	2 884	2 626	742	2 928	5 634	1 830	1 265
Colombia	524	583	669	778	533	1 137	377	789	1 492	1 039	1 168
Honduras	80	82	149	225	188	436	129	325	353	85	83
Russia	5	24	344	75	75
El Salvador	303	801	1 471	1 644	1 059	1 149	152	335	367	65	55
Ecuador	5	5	5	5	..	44	80	38	47
Peru	5	..	7	47	49	32	28
Stateless	25	26
Dominican Republic	6	67	21	41	88	21	22
Haiti	9	7	68	62	..	92	73	902	77	14	15
China	5	12	153	60	113	66	13	14
Guatemala	8	6	9	26	13	37	8	76	44	13	11
Nepal	52	78	52	12	10
Other countries	66	186	489	145	91	19 998	8 498	497	368	73	343
Total	1 365	2 190	4 485	6 320	27 970	59 180	21 127	108 427	129 482	34 643	28 275

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/6x3d4n>.

Table B.3. New asylum requests by nationality – Czechia

	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	2024
Ukraine	420	565	355	295	280	215	240	265	205	105	175
Uzbekistan	5	5	15	10	90	65	35	25	75	110	175
Viet Nam	50	55	55	60	75	120	40	50	105	95	140
Russia	25	30	50	40	70	80	30	15	135	95	70
Moldova	5	15	5	15	10	40	45	55	70	90	70
Türkiye	0	5	25	25	35	20	25	35	220	185	55
Georgia	10	15	45	110	140	190	85	185	70	45	30
Syria	105	130	65	70	30	35	20	30	45	45	30
Azerbaijan	5	5	50	120	35	35	30	0	15	20	25
Nigeria	15	15	20	10	10	15	5	5	20	15	25
Myanmar	5	0	5	5	5	0	0	5	20	25	25
Kazakhstan	0	10	15	35	30	95	20	10	15	30	20
Algeria	5	10	5	5	15	10	5	20	10	15	20
Tunisia	0	0	5	5	10	5	5	10	25	15	15
Belarus	20	15	10	15	10	10	60	35	40	35	15
Other countries	245	365	480	320	515	640	150	315	265	210	145
Total	915	1 240	1 205	1 140	1 360	1 575	795	1 060	1 335	1 135	1 035

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/6x3d4n>.

Table B.3. New asylum requests by nationality – Denmark

	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	2024
Syria	7 200	8 580	1 255	765	600	490	340	320	370	480	445
Türkiye	15	25	15	35	25	25	35	35	60	60	265
Eritrea	2 275	1 705	250	295	675	480	165	380	195	200	215
Afghanistan	305	2 215	1 110	170	115	90	70	555	375	440	170
Stateless	1 135	1 685	490	120	140	200	75	60	75	85	115
Ukraine	135	95	95	40	45	35	20	10	2 065	100	100
Iran	275	2 745	315	145	195	135	80	65	120	125	85
Morocco	205	175	325	300	175	155	100	65	100	65	75
Russia	495	170	70	45	80	60	30	15	105	120	60
Georgia	105	100	70	70	405	65	35	45	95	60	45
Iraq	145	1 470	435	130	120	115	55	65	100	55	45
Algeria	120	95	150	80	70	40	45	25	35	30	40
Somalia	695	255	250	85	105	160	40	40	40	40	35
Uganda	35	40	20	10	10	10	5	5	5	15	35
Colombia	0	0	5	10	25	20	5	10	20	20	35
Other countries	1 425	1 500	1 215	840	710	565	335	320	745	485	445
Total	14 565	20 855	6 070	3 140	3 495	2 645	1 435	2 015	4 505	2 380	2 210

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/6x3d4n>.

Table B.3. New asylum requests by nationality – Estonia

	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	2024
Ukraine	55	95	5	10	15	5	0	5	2 610	3 775	1 215
Russia	15	15	10	15	10	30	15	10	215	75	40
Belarus	5	0	0	5	0	0	0	5	30	20	15
India	0	5	0	0	5	0	0	0	0	5	10
Syria	5	15	45	80	5	5	5	0	0	5	5
Türkiye	0	0	5	0	0	20	5	10	10	10	5
Iraq	0	15	20	5	0	5	0	5	0	0	5
Nigeria	0	5	0	0	0	5	0	0	15	0	5
Uzbekistan	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	10	5	5
Israel	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	10	5
Moldova	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	5	5	5
Afghanistan	0	10	5	5	0	5	0	15	15	15	0
Georgia	5	10	5	10	0	5	0	0	10	10	0
Egypt	10	5	0	5	10	0	0	5	0	0	0
Sudan	20	10	5	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Other countries	30	40	50	45	45	20	20	20	20	45	15
Total	145	225	150	180	90	100	45	75	2 940	3 980	1 330

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/6x3d4n>.

Table B.3. New asylum requests by nationality – Finland

	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	2024
Somalia	405	1 975	425	100	155	140	180	140	190	805	300
Afghanistan	195	5 190	685	305	135	125	190	225	215	310	235
Türkiye	40	55	100	110	285	360	80	125	175	325	170
Nigeria	155	155	160	95	90	105	35	55	90	120	170
Syria	145	875	600	740	105	95	55	85	135	690	170
Russia	125	165	175	395	455	285	95	70	1 095	345	125
Iran	90	615	140	90	230	95	25	30	95	150	120
Iraq	800	20 400	1 080	1 000	565	270	475	150	185	230	100
Georgia	35	15	20	120	70	60	5	50	65	90	55
Pakistan	40	55	95	30	25	15	15	15	35	65	50
Yemen	5	60	65	60	50	70	15	15	35	150	45
Rwanda	5	10	5	15	5	20	0	20	55	45	40
China	15	15	50	25	15	40	5	15	10	65	40
Cameroon	45	40	85	45	55	60	25	25	45	45	30
Colombia	0	0	0	5	0	25	10	5	40	50	30
Other countries	1 395	2 525	1 610	1 215	715	690	245	340	2 370	980	595
Total	3 495	32 150	5 295	4 350	2 955	2 455	1 455	1 365	4 835	4 465	2 275

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/6x3d4n>.

Table B.3. New asylum requests by nationality – France

	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	2024
Ukraine	1 395	1 625	525	530	755	1 175	2 110	2 240	1 770	3 390	13 355
Afghanistan	575	2 410	6 015	6 600	11 885	11 685	10 000	16 005	22 585	16 550	10 375
Dem. Rep. of the Congo	5 195	3 800	3 385	3 805	4 225	4 545	3 120	2 750	6 760	8 815	9 295
Guinea	2 190	2 040	2 645	4 130	7 985	7 045	4 690	5 250	6 200	10 510	7 990
Côte d'Ivoire	950	1 270	1 675	3 620	6 465	6 725	4 635	6 210	5 915	9 560	6 975
Türkiye	1 400	1 015	1 010	1 290	2 110	4 110	3 095	4 965	10 005	9 805	5 870
Haiti	1 860	3 185	5 290	5 600	2 245	4 720	2 830	2 620	1 885	2 820	5 755
Bangladesh	2 655	3 345	2 440	2 620	4 045	6 705	4 615	6 200	10 555	9 565	5 395
Sudan	1 950	5 315	6 085	4 680	2 980	2 120	1 355	2 210	2 520	5 615	5 185
Georgia	1 370	1 085	870	1 895	7 405	7 985	1 805	4 580	8 905	6 120	3 480
Kosovo*	2 420	3 825	2 350	2 680	2 160	2 000	865	855	1 415	1 220	3 160
Mauritania	725	875	620	735	1 560	1 675	930	1 375	1 515	1 155	2 975
Sri Lanka	2 165	1 405	1 275	1 305	1 750	1 970	1 020	905	1 995	3 565	2 965
Angola	710	475	685	880	1 365	1 835	1 265	400	985	2 125	2 695
Mali	1 485	1 545	1 445	1 720	4 675	4 870	1 675	2 310	1 905	1 955	2 435
Other countries	31 800	37 355	40 475	49 875	64 970	69 125	37 725	44 935	52 690	52 390	43 045
Total	58 845	70 570	76 790	91 965	126 580	138 290	81 735	103 810	137 605	145 160	130 950

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/6x3d4n>.

Table B.3. New asylum requests by nationality – Germany

	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	2024
Syria	39 330	158 655	266 250	48 970	44 165	39 270	36 435	54 905	70 975	102 930	76 765
Afghanistan	9 115	31 380	127 010	16 425	9 945	9 520	9 900	23 275	36 360	51 275	34 150
Türkiye	1 565	1 500	5 385	8 025	10 160	10 785	5 780	7 065	23 940	61 180	29 175
Iraq	5 345	29 785	96 115	21 930	16 330	13 740	9 845	15 605	15 175	11 150	7 840
Somalia	5 530	5 125	9 850	6 835	5 075	3 570	2 605	3 650	3 940	5 300	6 955
Iran	3 195	5 395	26 425	8 610	10 855	8 405	3 120	2 695	6 320	9 385	5 230
Russia	4 410	5 255	10 985	4 885	3 940	3 145	1 700	1 440	2 850	7 665	4 700
Colombia	20	5	55	60	135	450	350	325	1 380	3 280	3 840
Eritrea	13 200	10 875	18 855	10 225	5 570	3 520	2 560	3 170	3 925	4 115	3 130
Guinea	1 150	660	3 460	3 955	2 870	2 420	1 270	880	1 320	3 300	3 050
Venezuela	5	20	90	205	405	725	555	390	1 820	3 730	3 005
Georgia	2 875	2 780	3 450	3 080	3 765	3 330	2 050	3 685	7 965	8 415	2 635
Nigeria	3 925	5 205	12 710	7 810	10 170	9 070	3 305	2 510	2 365	2 355	2 070
Algeria	2 175	2 040	3 565	1 950	1 200	1 060	1 205	1 520	1 445	2 030	2 060
Tunisia	675	820	870	430	575	475	415	710	1 270	2 350	1 890
Other countries	80 555	182 400	137 290	54 915	36 770	33 025	21 485	26 410	36 725	50 660	43 255
Total	173 070	441 900	722 365	198 310	161 930	142 510	102 580	148 235	217 775	329 120	229 750

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/6x3d4n>.

Table B.3. New asylum requests by nationality – Greece

	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	2024
Syria	730	3 325	26 630	16 305	13 145	10 750	7 415	2 945	4 280	13 865	21 875
Afghanistan	1 550	1 545	4 295	7 480	11 820	23 665	11 100	3 195	4 085	8 770	15 155
Egypt	230	230	260	810	915	1 695	710	775	1 335	2 160	7 085
Türkiye	30	40	180	1 820	4 820	3 795	1 590	1 910	1 395	2 650	4 230
West Bank and Gaza Strip	65	55	850	1 305	1 515	2 140	1 260	760	2 895	6 720	2 570
Eritrea	245	135	415	320	330	305	200	140	630	1 810	2 255
Iraq	130	575	4 770	7 870	9 640	5 590	1 465	990	2 030	6 080	2 235
Yemen	10	35	95	195	310	275	130	60	560	935	1 580
Stateless	40	200	290	715	365	320	115	35	40	175	1 495
Sudan	315	115	45	85	80	90	50	55	455	970	1 490
Somalia	105	95	125	230	715	2 270	1 530	1 485	1 985	2 840	1 390
Nepal	5	0	45	90	115	135	100	50	55	530	1 185
Pakistan	1 125	1 505	4 420	8 345	7 185	6 420	3 515	3 415	2 555	1 965	1 075
Bangladesh	370	535	1 055	1 255	1 435	2 375	1 625	2 480	1 280	340	770
Iran	295	190	1 085	1 295	1 730	2 325	835	575	415	620	755
Other countries	2 345	2 790	5 315	8 830	10 865	12 765	6 220	3 790	5 140	7 470	3 850
Total	7 590	11 370	49 875	56 950	64 985	74 915	37 860	22 660	29 135	57 900	68 995

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/6x3d4n>.

Table B.3. New asylum requests by nationality – Hungary

	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	2024
Syria	6 630	64 080	4 875	565	50	20	10	0	0	0	5
Russia	10	15	5	0	0	0	5	0	5	10	0
Azerbaijan	5	5	0	5	0	0	0	0	0	5	0
Afghanistan	8 560	45 560	10 775	1 365	270	185	15	5	15	0	0
Iran	255	1 785	1 250	95	30	20	5	10	5	0	0
Pakistan	310	15 010	3 650	100	20	25	25	0	0	0	0
Iraq	470	9 175	3 355	795	215	155	5	0	0	0	0
Bangladesh	225	4 005	255	10	0	0	5	0	0	0	0
West Bank and Gaza Strip	835	1 010	195	15	5	5	0	0	0	0	0
Morocco	15	250	935	10	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Algeria	25	530	605	25	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Nigeria	180	940	45	5	0	5	0	0	0	0	0
Somalia	185	340	320	5	5	0	0	0	0	0	0
Türkiye	105	275	410	20	0	5	0	0	0	0	0
Cameroon	95	630	10	10	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Other countries	23 310	30 825	1 530	95	40	50	20	25	20	15	20
Total	41 215	174 435	28 215	3 120	635	470	90	40	45	30	25

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/6x3d4n>.

Table B.3. New asylum requests by nationality – Iceland

	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	2024
Ukraine	..	10	10	10	30	10	5	0	2 350	1 625	1 235
Venezuela	..	0	0	0	15	180	105	355	1 220	1 570	170
West Bank and Gaza Strip	..	5	15	15	25	20	120	90	230	215	90
Nigeria	..	5	20	10	35	50	35	50	65	115	45
Colombia	..	0	0	0	5	10	5	15	40	45	40
Afghanistan	..	20	25	15	45	45	30	90	65	40	40
Iraq	..	30	70	110	110	135	110	60	70	45	35
Syria	..	40	35	30	40	20	60	65	90	80	35
Türkiye	..	0	0	5	5	10	0	0	15	35	20
Kosovo*	..	10	5	15	5	5	0	0	0	0	15
Iran	..	15	20	25	30	35	15	20	35	50	15
Uganda	..	0	0	0	0	5	0	5	5	5	10
Somalia	..	5	20	30	50	35	40	40	100	75	10
Russia	..	0	10	5	10	15	5	0	30	10	10
Georgia	..	0	40	290	30	20	5	0	20	15	10
Other countries	..	220	830	505	295	210	90	75	195	195	80
Total	160	360	1 100	1 065	730	805	625	865	4 530	4 120	1 860

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/6x3d4n>.

Table B.3. New asylum requests by nationality – Ireland

	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	2024
Nigeria	140	185	175	185	250	385	210	450	1 105	2 080	4 015
Jordan	0	0	0	5	5	10	5	5	25	70	2 860
Pakistan	290	1 350	235	195	240	205	85	55	240	620	1 385
Somalia	15	15	30	20	55	135	165	335	1 570	1 095	1 305
Bangladesh	100	285	55	60	55	60	30	35	160	445	1 005
Afghanistan	25	125	120	75	95	105	70	200	850	1 105	1 000
West Bank and Gaza Strip	15	10	20	20	45	35	10	10	35	120	970
Georgia	20	40	75	300	450	635	35	330	2 705	1 050	655
Zimbabwe	85	95	190	260	280	445	80	145	975	765	555
South Africa	50	55	95	105	200	315	80	115	445	485	400
Syria	25	75	245	545	330	85	45	55	100	195	350
Algeria	75	80	65	80	95	95	70	135	1 765	1 455	280
Viet Nam	0	5	5	0	15	20	10	15	20	35	250
Eswatini	10	0	5	5	10	15	0	10	60	105	250
Ukraine	50	45	20	15	5	10	0	5	420	215	250
Other countries	540	905	900	1 040	1 525	2 185	640	715	3 170	3 380	2 905
Total	1 440	3 270	2 235	2 910	3 655	4 740	1 535	2 615	13 645	13 220	18 435

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/6x3d4n>.

Table B.3. New asylum requests by nationality – Israel

	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	2024
Russia	395	635	2 772	4 477	325	53	1 012	1 864	700
India	322	671	636	189	268	279	751	580
Malawi	10	26	30	13	5	11	60	528
Sri Lanka	..	160	..	430	540	446	134	174	151	292	508
China	52	40	248	88	405	185	272	277
Kenya	23	47	30	5	6	35	110	249
Colombia	21	127	212	85	16	143	166	242
Ethiopia	..	292	127	195	136	133	43	28	68	171	240
South Africa	..	42	..	151	145	178	31	..	62	163	210
Moldova	302	332	436	242	75	193	218	348	200
Uzbekistan	72	356	190	38	18	111	204	199
Thailand	5	9	9	5	20	19	20	193
Türkiye	5	41	169	322	89	128	159	256	161
Rwanda	5	5	..	14	50	64	160
Belarus	103	376	667	165	8	319	688	159
Other countries	..	4 516	7 321	12 976	10 408	1 620	600	589	1 093	1 386	1 474
Total	226	5 010	8 150	15 368	16 263	9 445	1 885	1 925	3 915	6 815	6 080

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/6x3d4n>.

Table B.3. New asylum requests by nationality – Italy

	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	2024
Bangladesh	4 525	6 010	6 570	12 125	4 165	1 340	2 275	6 635	14 590	23 195	32 865
Peru	20	35	40	120	750	2 445	735	570	3 000	7 485	15 595
Pakistan	7 095	10 275	13 470	9 470	7 445	7 305	4 960	6 880	11 370	16 685	11 740
Egypt	680	560	775	810	740	805	360	2 680	8 835	18 175	11 595
Morocco	310	575	1 545	1 860	1 875	1 510	475	1 575	2 785	5 085	9 985
Tunisia	465	295	330	445	1 005	705	1 000	6 360	5 365	7 515	9 435
India	80	250	535	505	915	1 035	205	140	535	1 780	4 835
Sri Lanka	85	85	135	325	500	385	85	110	415	1 330	4 335
Burkina Faso	285	410	820	900	205	55	60	210	250	5 660	3 910
Georgia	90	130	195	540	1 155	970	495	1 335	3 240	3 040	3 365
Colombia	70	40	90	210	580	875	540	380	1 765	2 080	3 325
Mali	9 760	5 420	6 305	7 495	2 075	185	320	810	795	3 050	3 115
Venezuela	25	45	140	520	1 260	1 545	830	455	1 350	1 410	2 385
China	85	360	870	315	365	465	145	85	150	345	2 360
Côte d'Ivoire	1 480	3 080	7 435	8 380	1 685	405	500	1 015	1 580	7 040	2 210
Other countries	38 600	55 220	81 930	82 540	28 720	14 975	8 355	15 960	21 175	26 690	30 065
Total	63 655	82 790	121 185	126 560	53 440	35 005	21 340	45 200	77 200	130 565	151 120

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/6x3d4n>.

Table B.3. New asylum requests by nationality – Japan

	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	2024
Sri Lanka	485	469	938	2 226	1 551	1 530	502	3 778	2 455
Thailand	136	83	21	65	40	184	2 128
Türkiye	845	926	1 143	1 198	563	1 331	445	2 406	1 223
India	225	229	470	603	549	730	172	934	951
Pakistan	212	295	289	469	720	971	238	1 062	700
Myanmar	434	808	650	962	656	788	298	324	627
Bangladesh	284	244	242	438	542	662	230	538	568
Nepal	1 293	1 768	1 451	1 451	1 713	1 256	130	697	506
Cambodia	..	67	318	772	961	1 321	578	888	364
Uzbekistan	2	210	473	265
Ghana	70	50	174	106	50	75	31	98	251
Indonesia	18	969	1 829	2 038	634	53	226
China	55	167	156	315	308	134	45	90	195
Tunisia	34	32	63	87	58	86	31	126	155
Cameroon	70	67	66	98	203	234	84	175	139
Other countries	834	1 401	3 088	8 822	1 947	1 204	778	2 050	2 892
Total	4 995	7 575	10 900	19 650	10 495	10 375	3 936	2 413	3 772	13 823	13 645

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/6x3d4n>.

Table B.3. New asylum requests by nationality – Korea

	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	2024
Russia	7	27	324	692	1 916	2 829	1 064	45	1 038	5 750	4 546
China	360	401	1 062	1 413	1 199	2 000	311	301	772	1 282	1 571
India	40	295	218	691	1 120	959	420	148	1 278	1 189	1 403
Kazakhstan	..	45	539	1 223	2 496	2 236	603	36	2 456	2 094	1 347
Malaysia	..	5	6	448	1 236	1 438	452	..	140	1 205	1 113
Mongolia	34	199	450	200	86	40	159	836	1 015
Türkiye	5	..	11	42	158	320	171	16	1 188	564	785
Pakistan	396	1 143	809	667	1 120	790	303	131	349	476	775
Bangladesh	62	388	335	383	608	491	435	233	304	334	394
Viet Nam	..	202	275	53	106	381	56	5	10	14	392
Uzbekistan	9	82	145	43	146	235	168	64	265	477	380
Egypt	568	812	1 002	741	870	114	718	117	288	322	353
Indonesia	6	6	5	12	16	87	15	6	..	31	329
Kyrgyzstan	..	27	92	71	112	86	41	49	206	372	310
Tajikistan	..	5	21	9	11	8	6	20	49	182	308
Other countries	1 427	2 252	2 642	3 238	4 561	3 255	1 817	1 117	3 036	3 698	3 304
Total	2 880	5 690	7 520	9 925	16 125	15 429	6 666	2 328	11 538	18 826	18 325

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/6x3d4n>.

Table B.3. New asylum requests by nationality – Latvia

	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	2024
Tajikistan	0	0	15	15	5	5	0	0	5	10	165
Afghanistan	15	35	35	15	5	5	10	70	110	305	150
India	0	0	20	5	5	15	5	5	10	165	95
Bangladesh	0	0	5	5	5	5	5	0	5	40	50
Russia	10	10	25	25	50	25	10	30	120	45	40
Syria	35	5	150	140	5	5	10	0	15	345	40
Pakistan	0	5	20	0	5	5	5	5	5	10	35
Somalia	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	25	35
Iraq	20	85	5	5	20	5	5	350	50	65	30
Iran	0	0	0	0	0	5	5	5	60	210	30
Belarus	0	0	5	5	0	5	45	55	65	25	25
Sri Lanka	5	0	5	0	5	0	0	5	20	20	15
Cameroon	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	5	0	55	15
Ukraine	75	45	5	5	5	10	0	5	20	10	10
Nepal	0	0	10	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	10
Other countries	205	145	45	135	65	90	45	45	60	295	55
Total	365	330	345	355	175	180	145	580	545	1 625	800

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/6x3d4n>.

Table B.3. New asylum requests by nationality – Lithuania

	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	2024
Belarus	10	15	10	35	15	15	80	245	400	280	125
Russia	35	35	50	80	50	275	65	115	140	50	40
Ukraine	65	60	30	35	15	15	0	0	10	5	25
Cuba	0	0	5	5	0	0	0	0	5	10	20
Uzbekistan	0	0	0	0	0	5	5	0	0	10	20
Tajikistan	5	5	20	50	120	205	40	35	45	15	10
Afghanistan	70	30	30	15	20	10	10	115	40	25	10
Türkiye	0	0	5	20	20	15	15	30	5	5	10
Azerbaijan	20	15	5	5	25	10	0	5	5	5	10
Pakistan	5	0	5	10	0	0	0	30	0	0	10
Syria	5	5	165	170	15	15	5	110	60	30	5
Cameroon	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	120	10	0	5
Iraq	5	25	40	0	35	10	15	2 370	95	0	0
Georgia	110	45	5	10	0	0	0	0	5	0	0
Congo	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	150	0	0	0
Other countries	55	40	45	85	70	50	25	580	85	75	5
Total	385	275	415	520	385	625	260	3 905	905	510	295

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/6x3d4n>.

Table B.3. New asylum requests by nationality – Luxembourg

	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	2024
Eritrea	40	45	115	230	410	565	255	320	450	490	445
Syria	95	635	330	405	280	375	360	445	1 045	785	370
Algeria	40	25	75	160	75	75	35	20	30	65	130
Venezuela	0	0	0	0	10	65	45	35	85	125	115
Türkiye	10	20	15	10	45	60	45	25	90	75	105
Colombia	0	0	0	0	5	10	10	10	20	70	100
Morocco	10	15	75	205	90	45	25	15	25	50	70
Guinea	5	5	20	35	50	40	25	15	30	65	60
Afghanistan	5	220	60	40	180	170	100	115	185	130	55
Cameroon	10	10	20	15	15	25	20	25	20	55	50
Tunisia	40	20	40	100	90	30	20	15	30	40	50
Ethiopia	5	10	15	25	30	25	10	35	25	35	45
Kosovo*	105	190	195	65	65	20	0	5	15	5	35
Somalia	10	15	25	20	30	45	20	15	20	25	35
Sudan	5	5	15	30	65	40	15	40	15	130	30
Other countries	650	1 145	1 065	985	785	610	310	235	320	470	430
Total	1 030	2 360	2 065	2 325	2 225	2 200	1 295	1 370	2 405	2 615	2 125

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/6x3d4n>.

Table B.3. New asylum requests by nationality – Mexico

	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	2024
Honduras	768	1 560	4 119	4 272	13 631	30 093	15 469	36 361	31 092	41 936	27 889
Cuba	81	37	43	796	212	8 683	5 758	8 319	18 095	18 386	17 884
Haiti	24	16	47	436	82	5 536	5 964	51 827	17 153	44 239	10 853
El Salvador	418	1 475	3 488	3 708	6 186	8 999	4 053	6 037	7 806	6 118	5 479
Venezuela	41	57	361	4 042	6 344	7 665	3 292	6 223	14 915	5 518	5 419
Guatemala	52	102	437	676	1 383	3 778	3 005	4 149	5 269	6 111	3 725
Colombia	11	26	44	96	204	558	501	1 275	2 490	2 566	2 315
Ecuador	..	5	20	23	22	78	85	245	1 241	1 574	1 048
Nicaragua	24	28	70	62	1 246	2 232	802	2 919	8 984	1 363	940
Chile	5	418	808	6 970	885	3 489	817
Brazil	5	5	5	552	372	3 836	2 594	3 678	531
Peru	..	5	2	5	7	25	51	112	338	173	333
Angola	184	58	184	1 069	1 244	218
Dominican Republic	5	..	5	5	10	34	32	200	1 423	440	212
Afghanistan	6	541	1 744	142
Other countries	86	99	119	459	273	1 528	954	2 755	4 840	2 400	1 160
Total	1 510	3 410	8 760	14 585	29 610	70 363	41 204	131 418	118 735	140 979	78 965

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/6x3d4n>.

Table B.3. New asylum requests by nationality – Netherlands

	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	2024
Syria	8 750	18 640	2 865	2 965	2 960	3 675	4 070	8 385	12 645	13 030	11 525
Iraq	615	3 010	960	845	745	620	335	745	670	1 495	2 225
Türkiye	45	55	235	480	1 300	1 250	990	2 460	2 685	2 860	1 870
Eritrea	3 835	7 390	1 865	1 590	1 410	500	370	770	1 365	2 345	1 470
Yemen	30	50	45	170	530	645	410	1 190	2 430	1 980	1 080
Somalia	350	260	155	125	135	220	200	905	1 455	1 805	1 070
Algeria	15	45	980	890	1 270	1 210	995	1 105	1 205	1 560	950
Nigeria	225	215	195	245	560	2 105	635	415	520	655	770
Iran	505	1 885	885	720	1 870	1 535	370	265	700	1 125	700
Morocco	55	80	1 270	980	1 065	1 060	775	905	720	885	605
Colombia	10	5	35	35	45	160	105	185	520	590	560
Sudan	180	235	190	260	270	200	155	135	195	810	525
Moldova	5	10	15	340	830	1 205	30	40	205	650	520
Pakistan	185	155	160	180	310	395	265	445	875	640	490
Afghanistan	450	2 550	1 025	320	325	435	390	3 010	2 730	670	490
Other countries	6 525	8 450	8 405	5 945	6 840	7 325	3 625	3 795	6 610	7 270	7 150
Total	21 780	43 035	19 285	16 090	20 465	22 540	13 720	24 755	35 530	38 370	32 000

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/6x3d4n>.

Table B.3. New asylum requests by nationality – New Zealand

	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	2024
India	18	21	31	43	49	66	43	140	68	677	1 079
China	23	23	64	76	103	91	60	68	66	396	340
Sri Lanka	29	23	13	30	42	50	25	29	21	65	198
Pakistan	24	24	14	18	28	12	..	5	14	45	95
Nepal	5	..	5	5	13	80
Malaysia	5	7	11	10	18	36	38	11	34	234	75
Afghanistan	9	9	6	27	7	32	13	5	13	29	66
Iran	11	19	15	19	20	32	14	16	64
Bangladesh	5	17	14	27	12	21	7	12	5	8	48
Myanmar	5	10	17	12	18	34
West Bank and Gaza Strip	5	..	1	..	5	..	5	5	33
Colombia	5	14	8	6	9	14	12	6	..	32	28
Türkiye	9	7	20	34	8	13	8	14	22
Fiji	29	28	12	8	..	12	18	5	18	6	13
Russia	..	5	5	22	7	11	11	15	10	7	12
Other countries	93	138	161	105	107	144	181	98	76	161	198
Total	270	335	380	430	425	539	435	416	337	1 721	2 385

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/6x3d4n>.

Table B.3. New asylum requests by nationality – Norway

	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	2024
Syria	1 980	10 535	540	1 000	415	535	540	585	1 575	1 545	2 120
Ukraine	130	90	25	30	35	25	10	5	750	1 030	755
Eritrea	2 805	2 785	545	840	220	180	150	185	310	320	275
Türkiye	45	80	80	160	770	360	85	100	210	530	265
Colombia	0	0	10	15	10	35	25	45	150	185	160
Afghanistan	550	6 910	365	135	90	95	55	250	500	255	155
Stateless	785	1 100	150	130	75	125	65	30	70	85	95
West Bank and Gaza Strip	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	75
Iran	95	1 310	115	85	110	70	45	30	70	80	65
Russia	175	110	60	45	50	80	25	10	250	185	65
Venezuela	5	0	10	10	20	20	15	30	90	105	60
China	35	60	20	25	15	15	15	100	15	30	55
Iraq	165	2 935	205	140	95	50	35	30	35	40	40
Ethiopia	365	655	155	85	40	40	20	35	55	50	35
Yemen	35	70	15	10	10	30	10	10	30	35	30
Other countries	3 800	3 865	980	675	595	545	245	170	540	660	550
Total	10 970	30 505	3 275	3 385	2 550	2 205	1 340	1 615	4 650	5 135	4 800

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/6x3d4n>.

Table B.3. New asylum requests by nationality – Poland

	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	2024
Ukraine	2 150	1 575	595	300	225	215	95	115	1 505	1 625	6 135
Belarus	20	20	35	30	25	30	385	2 130	2 880	3 515	3 615
Ethiopia	5	0	0	5	5	5	0	10	5	35	520
Russia	2 065	6 985	7 435	2 120	1 600	1 770	495	340	1 350	970	515
Eritrea	10	5	0	5	5	0	5	0	5	15	500
Somalia	5	0	0	5	0	5	5	55	10	55	485
Syria	105	285	40	40	25	25	35	125	85	115	405
Tajikistan	105	525	830	85	35	80	45	95	95	110	305
Sudan	5	0	0	0	0	0	0	5	35	20	225
Afghanistan	30	15	20	25	40	55	120	1 595	245	125	225
Yemen	0	10	0	0	10	5	10	30	45	35	190
India	5	5	5	10	15	20	5	15	45	130	185
Egypt	10	10	10	15	20	15	10	15	165	145	105
Iran	15	5	15	10	30	35	10	60	85	85	90
Pakistan	40	20	20	20	25	15	10	15	60	20	70
Other countries	1 040	795	780	335	345	490	280	1 635	1 085	720	875
Total	5 610	10 255	9 785	3 005	2 405	2 765	1 510	6 240	7 700	7 720	14 445

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/6x3d4n>.

Table B.3. New asylum requests by nationality – Portugal

	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	2024
Senegal	5	10	25	25	20	70	80	45	90	195	390
Gambia	0	5	25	20	20	175	150	65	165	315	275
Colombia	5	0	5	0	20	15	5	10	85	255	255
Angola	15	20	30	120	225	305	115	45	55	155	200
Afghanistan	0	5	20	30	5	20	10	595	250	305	175
Venezuela	5	0	15	35	40	95	15	15	25	55	165
Israel	0	0	0	5	0	0	0	0	0	125	110
Morocco	25	20	5	10	30	35	85	115	110	120	95
Guinea	10	35	50	45	70	120	80	50	35	85	95
China	5	75	10	0	5	15	5	0	5	30	75
Guinea-Bissau	5	0	5	10	50	155	90	50	50	115	75
Dem. Rep. of the Congo	10	25	40	160	130	85	25	10	60	60	70
Nigeria	5	5	5	10	20	60	35	15	25	55	70
India	0	5	0	0	0	5	0	80	230	90	45
Iran	10	10	10	20	15	30	10	5	25	40	45
Other countries	345	655	465	525	590	550	195	250	770	600	535
Total	445	870	710	1 015	1 240	1 735	900	1 350	1 980	2 600	2 675

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/6x3d4n>.

Table B.3. New asylum requests by nationality – Slovak Republic

	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	2024
Ukraine	20	15	15	5	0	5	0	0	150	20	30
Belarus	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	5	0	15
Afghanistan	75	25	10	25	30	85	50	90	15	20	15
Iran	5	5	5	5	15	45	15	0	0	0	10
Azerbaijan	0	0	0	0	15	0	0	0	0	5	5
Russia	0	5	0	5	5	5	0	0	35	10	5
Türkiye	0	0	0	5	5	5	20	10	75	130	5
Morocco	0	0	0	5	0	5	40	105	70	20	5
Colombia	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	5
Pakistan	5	5	15	10	10	5	5	10	15	15	5
Czechia	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	5
Germany	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	5
Syria	35	5	10	10	10	5	35	10	10	5	5
Other countries	90	210	45	85	65	55	100	105	130	150	25
Total	230	270	100	155	155	215	265	330	505	375	140

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/6x3d4n>.

Table B.3. New asylum requests by nationality – Slovenia

	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	2024
Morocco	5	5	40	40	170	720	1 215	160	370	5 745	3 455
Algeria	0	0	40	190	470	1 010	275	80	85	410	415
Afghanistan	70	45	410	575	455	415	740	2 590	1 205	100	375
Syria	90	15	270	90	155	60	55	90	40	45	195
Egypt	5	0	0	10	15	40	145	105	15	15	170
Ukraine	15	10	0	0	0	0	5	0	195	90	120
Tunisia	0	0	10	15	40	130	30	55	70	75	90
Pakistan	20	25	105	140	775	520	490	490	555	130	80
Nepal	0	0	0	5	25	0	10	55	130	20	70
Bangladesh	5	0	0	5	60	175	150	265	825	40	55
Russia	5	5	5	5	30	10	5	10	100	120	45
India	0	0	5	5	35	25	20	35	850	110	40
Türkiye	10	5	60	100	65	65	55	275	200	25	30
Iraq	10	45	115	20	95	85	85	255	180	10	30
West Bank and Gaza Strip	0	0	5	10	20	45	10	25	5	20	30
Other countries	120	105	200	230	390	315	175	730	1 820	230	265
Total	355	260	1 265	1 440	2 800	3 615	3 465	5 220	6 645	7 185	5 465

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/6x3d4n>.

Table B.3. New asylum requests by nationality – Spain

	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	2024
Venezuela	115	585	3 960	11 390	19 070	40 305	28 065	15 655	45 225	60 000	65 460
Colombia	90	120	610	3 150	8 465	28 880	27 180	11 100	35 515	53 040	39 765
Mali	585	215	210	300	650	1 190	1 440	4 470	1 625	1 240	10 585
Peru	5	10	30	255	525	3 965	5 145	2 235	8 850	14 255	10 360
Senegal	30	30	45	235	435	720	665	3 145	1 255	2 145	7 655
Morocco	85	395	335	520	1 280	2 470	945	6 440	3 765	2 980	4 010
Nicaragua	5	10	20	80	1 360	5 840	3 680	1 195	2 040	2 695	2 090
Honduras	50	150	385	1 155	2 400	6 730	5 465	2 195	2 970	3 655	1 880
Mauritania	5	5	10	45	55	55	40	170	80	55	1 780
Ecuador	10	10	10	35	50	210	275	240	625	1 105	1 625
Cuba	15	40	80	140	355	1 295	1 485	1 065	1 335	3 025	1 400
Syria	1 495	5 720	2 920	4 120	2 725	2 315	330	1 060	690	1 130	1 260
Gambia	30	55	70	265	125	175	245	655	245	290	1 260
Argentina	0	0	10	20	55	270	410	275	700	1 250	1 155
Pakistan	135	105	175	200	360	495	700	1 415	485	890	1 105
Other countries	2 805	7 160	6 700	11 130	14 835	20 275	10 315	10 750	10 745	12 715	12 645
Total	5 460	14 610	15 570	33 040	52 745	115 190	86 385	62 065	116 150	160 470	164 035

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/6x3d4n>.

Table B.3. New asylum requests by nationality – Sweden

	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	2024
Syria	30 315	50 890	4 710	5 250	2 635	3 455	1 350	1 815	1 580	945	930
Uzbekistan	280	285	220	280	665	970	725	160	615	695	445
Afghanistan	2 880	41 190	2 145	1 245	685	770	670	915	770	615	420
Türkiye	155	220	690	825	440	630	395	480	445	490	360
Eritrea	11 055	6 515	740	1 540	1 000	1 000	825	535	520	415	325
Iran	800	4 270	935	905	1 115	965	510	255	390	430	265
Ukraine	1 280	1 335	545	460	510	830	510	410	1 785	430	260
Colombia	25	20	120	190	330	490	150	115	545	390	210
Iraq	1 745	20 190	2 045	1 475	1 070	855	575	445	405	240	195
Nigeria	440	405	300	320	325	305	215	140	240	155	180
Peru	15	5	15	90	120	200	95	35	295	230	145
Uganda	200	95	65	50	80	90	75	30	90	180	140
Somalia	3 785	4 730	1 280	550	445	575	420	335	325	150	125
Dem. Rep. of the Congo	55	30	35	25	60	55	55	60	100	200	125
Russia	710	495	260	315	295	300	110	155	665	220	120
Other countries	21 350	25 520	8 280	8 705	8 910	9 315	5 120	3 170	4 440	3 175	2 535
Total	75 090	156 195	22 385	22 225	18 685	20 805	11 800	9 055	13 210	8 960	6 780

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/6x3d4n>.

Table B.3. New asylum requests by nationality – Switzerland

	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	2024
Afghanistan	730	7 800	3 185	1 180	1 125	1 350	1 630	2 960	6 940	5 860	5 045
Türkiye	265	385	475	770	925	1 225	1 130	2 245	4 680	6 635	3 770
Algeria	335	285	520	515	710	780	935	960	1 305	1 740	2 020
Eritrea	6 825	9 860	5 040	3 155	2 495	2 500	1 635	1 725	1 595	1 880	1 880
Syria	3 770	4 650	2 040	1 810	1 195	945	755	905	1 165	1 340	1 385
Morocco	665	370	795	420	440	320	370	510	490	1 565	1 245
Somalia	770	1 215	1 530	795	510	360	260	395	450	600	715
Tunisia	665	285	215	180	245	125	135	170	380	545	630
Iraq	280	2 285	1 250	545	520	490	270	495	455	415	525
Ethiopia	310	565	1 010	305	190	145	100	175	195	245	430
Sri Lanka	905	1 775	1 315	730	500	475	340	270	285	405	390
Georgia	400	365	395	615	805	530	205	335	660	515	365
Iran	115	570	530	280	455	490	255	260	465	480	310
Guinea	205	260	885	785	205	115	65	75	80	405	270
Dem. Rep. of the Congo	150	150	155	130	90	75	95	70	185	200	265
Other countries	5 740	7 300	6 535	4 455	3 125	2 675	1 585	1 745	3 800	4 065	3 505
Total	22 130	38 120	25 875	16 670	13 535	12 600	9 765	13 295	23 130	26 895	22 750

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/6x3d4n>.

Table B.3. New asylum requests by nationality – Türkiye

	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	2024
Afghanistan	15 652	63 443	34 775	67 352	53 029	35 042	22 606	21 926	19 400	13 068	5 550
Iraq	50 510	55 574	28 763	44 500	19 959	15 532	5 875	4 961	4 083	2 776	1 881
Iran	8 202	11 383	12 115	9 186	6 387	3 558	1 425	1 032	1 140	1 416	784
Ukraine	7 131	713	139
Syria	8 366	103	35	17	5
Somalia	642	638	492	1 441	1 769
Pakistan	1 597	434	660	962	716
West Bank and Gaza Strip	367	416	263	227	165
Turkmenistan	146	152	201	284	192
Uganda	362	147	269	109	81
Dem. Rep. of the Congo	191	36	39	334	242
Yemen	134	131	55	246	250
Uzbekistan	162	154	156	234	99
Ethiopia	105	70	68	103	107
China	39	10	57	295	37
Other countries	1 325	614	647	760	757	2 285	1 428	1 337	1 492	1 044	656
Total	87 800	133 305	78 595	126 050	83 795	56 417	31 334	29 256	33 246	19 017	9 010

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/6x3d4n>.

Table B.3. New asylum requests by nationality – United Kingdom

	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	2024
Pakistan	3 975	3 365	3 775	3 195	2 625	2 566	1 525	1 159	2 582	5 273	10 542
Afghanistan	1 755	2 850	3 115	1 960	2 105	2 135	1 546	3 088	10 872	9 307	8 508
Iran	2 500	3 715	4 835	3 095	4 005	5 464	4 199	10 446	9 183	7 397	8 099
Bangladesh	920	1 320	2 255	2 005	1 465	1 364	876	887	3 468	4 258	7 225
Syria	2 355	2 795	1 570	785	920	1 374	1 746	3 895	4 534	3 772	6 680
India	920	1 325	2 055	1 820	1 685	1 910	1 046	1 125	3 248	5 253	5 312
Viet Nam	400	620	820	1 155	1 280	1 584	982	1 844	990	2 304	5 259
Eritrea	3 290	3 755	1 265	1 125	2 210	1 927	2 604	5 019	3 275	3 870	5 053
Sudan	1 615	3 020	1 445	1 840	1 785	1 784	2 153	2 385	3 191	3 453	4 833
Iraq	910	2 650	3 735	3 355	3 660	3 901	3 281	7 721	6 295	3 985	3 469
Türkiye	295	255	430	515	805	1 266	794	748	2 008	4 255	3 019
Sri Lanka	1 715	1 410	1 250	960	620	759	402	329	1 108	2 016	2 862
Nigeria	1 520	1 590	1 895	1 665	1 415	1 430	1 015	1 027	1 168	1 263	2 841
Albania	1 970	2 000	1 885	1 860	2 610	3 970	3 071	4 754	15 925	3 898	2 752
Brazil	20	25	40	35	70	202	205	137	651	1 857	2 669
Other countries	8 185	9 275	8 985	9 065	11 225	12 829	10 582	11 902	20 895	22 255	29 012
Total	32 345	39 970	39 355	34 435	38 485	44 465	36 027	56 466	89 393	84 416	108 135

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/6x3d4n>.

Table B.3. New asylum requests by nationality – United States

	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	2024
Venezuela	3 117	7 369	18 312	29 926	27 483	25 664	23 530	27 020	138 597	185 344	
Colombia	817	1 058	1 767	3 204	2 678	3 334	3 852	11 263	32 189	128 129	
Cuba	169	135	147	770	1 579	9 155	9 497	12 879	157 226	99 426	
Nicaragua	353	387	518	857	1 527	5 474	3 736	4 724	33 080	90 791	
Haiti	2 196	2 220	3 969	8 643	4 112	3 945	7 116	10 038	41 864	75 861	
India	3 395	3 650	6 162	7 435	9 440	10 607	5 599	4 886	21 415	51 353	
Honduras	6 798	14 255	19 470	28 806	24 435	39 466	30 815	19 596	43 190	49 088	
Mexico	13 987	19 294	27 879	26 065	20 026	22 525	15 402	12 135	18 850	44 980	
Peru	429	509	826	838	616	588	394	517	5 398	44 131	
Guatemala	9 098	16 419	25 723	35 318	33 073	51 502	36 490	23 008	39 522	43 073	
Russia	1 115	1 714	2 158	2 936	1 900	2 595	2 775	3 831	18 197	42 846	
China	13 716	15 092	19 868	17 374	9 426	10 267	10 144	4 418	8 982	35 533	
Ecuador	3 545	3 732	4 423	3 884	2 386	2 748	3 378	5 625	21 220	34 005	
Brazil	506	916	1 454	2 625	2 282	2 798	4 593	4 915	25 334	28 290	
El Salvador	10 093	18 883	33 620	49 459	33 391	33 619	23 352	14 913	27 147	24 833	
Other countries	51 826	67 107	95 674	113 560	79 946	76 783	70 267	29 092	98 188	198 368	
Total	121 160	172 740	261 970	331 700	254 300	301 070	250 940	188 860	730 399	1 176 051	

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/6x3d4n>.

Metadata related to Tables A.3 and B.3. Inflows of asylum seekers

Totals in Table A.3 might differ from the tables by nationality (Tables B.3) because the former totals get rounded to the nearest 0 or 5 for all countries, while the latter are only rounded where the source data is. Data refer to first instance/new applications only and exclude repeat/review/appeal applications.

Comments on countries of asylum:

France: Data include unaccompanied minors.

Germany: Germany has a pre-registration system (EASY system). Asylum requests officially registered and presented in this section may be lower than the pre-registrations in the EASY system (1.1 million in 2015).

EU/EEA countries (source Eurostat): Figures are rounded to the nearest multiple of 5.

Other countries (source UNHCR): values between zero and five have been rounded to multiples of five. No data or 0 are indicated with “..”.

United States: In Table B.3, data are a combination of the United States Citizenship and Immigration Service (USCIS – number of cases) affirmative asylum applications, and of the Executive Office for Immigration Review (EOIR – number of persons) defensive asylum applications, if the person is under threat of removal. Factors have been applied to totals between 2010 and 2020 in both Table A.3 and Table B.3 to reflect the estimated number of cases.

Comments on countries of origin:

Serbia (and Kosovo): Data may include asylum seekers from Serbia, Montenegro and/or Former Yugoslavia.

Source for all countries: European countries: Eurostat; other countries: governments, compiled by the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees, Population Data Unit (<https://popstats.unhcr.org/refugee-statistics/download/>).

Stocks of foreign and foreign-born populations

Who is an immigrant?

There are major differences in how immigrants are defined across OECD countries. Some countries have traditionally focused on producing data on foreign residents (European countries, Japan and Korea), whilst others refer to the foreign-born (settlement countries, i.e. Australia, Canada, New Zealand and the United States). This difference in focus relates in part to the nature and history of immigration systems and legislation on citizenship and naturalisation.

The foreign-born population can be viewed as representing first-generation migrants, and may consist of both foreign and national citizens. The size and composition of the foreign-born population is influenced by the history of migration flows and mortality amongst the foreign-born. For example, where inflows have been declining over time, the stock of the foreign-born will tend to age and represent an increasingly established community.

The concept of foreign population may include persons born abroad who retained the nationality of their country of origin but also second and third generations born in the host country. The characteristics of the population of foreign nationals depend on a number of factors: the history of migration flows, natural increase in the foreign population and naturalisations. Both the nature of legislation on citizenship and the incentives to naturalise play a role in determining the extent to which native-born persons may or may not be foreign nationals.

Sources for and problems in measuring the immigrant population

Four types of sources are used: population registers, residence permits, labour force surveys and censuses. In countries which have a population register and in those which use residence permit data, stocks and flows of immigrants are most often calculated using the same source. There are exceptions, however, with some countries using census or labour force survey data to estimate the stock of the immigrant population. In studying stocks and flows, the same problems are encountered whether population register or permit data are used (in particular, the risk of underestimation when minors are registered on the permit of one of the parents or if the migrants are not required to have permits because of a free movement agreement). To this must be added the difficulty of purging the files regularly to remove the records of persons who have left the country.

Census data enable comprehensive, albeit infrequent analysis of the stock of immigrants (censuses are generally conducted every five to ten years). In addition, many labour force surveys now include questions about nationality and place of birth, thus providing a source of annual stock data. The OECD produces estimates of stocks for some countries.

Some care has to be taken with detailed breakdowns of the immigrant population from survey data since sample sizes can be small. Both census and survey data may underestimate the number of immigrants because they can be missed in the census or because they do not live in private households (labour force surveys may not cover those living in collective dwelling such as reception centres and hostels for immigrants). Both these sources may cover a portion of the unauthorised population, which is by definition excluded from population registers and residence permit systems.

Table A.4. Stocks of foreign-born population in OECD countries

Thousands and percentages

	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	2024
Australia	6 570	6 730	6 912	7 139	7 333	7 533	7 653	7 502	7 682	8 181	8 577
% of total population	28.2	28.5	28.8	29.3	29.6	29.9	30.0	29.1	29.5	31.1	32.3
Austria	1 415	1 485	1 595	1 656	1 697	1 729	1 765	1 798	1 842	1 976	2 039
% of total population	16.6	17.3	18.3	18.9	19.2	19.5	19.8	20.2	20.6	22.1	22.3
Belgium	1 751	1 786	1 849	1 881	1 920	1 973	2 056	2 080	2 126	2 249	2 332
% of total population	15.7	15.9	16.4	16.6	16.8	17.2	17.8	18.0	18.3	19.3	19.9
Canada	7 541	8 362
% of total population	20.3	20.5	21.0	21.2	21.5	22.0
Chile	442	465	..	746	..	1 307	1 487	1 535	1 631	1 836	1 919
% of total population	2.5	2.6	..	4.1	..	6.9	7.7	7.9	8.3	9.4	9.7
Colombia	..	145.5	1 932.8	3 064
% of total population	..	0.3	3.8	5.8
Costa Rica	..	412	521	628
% of total population	..	8.5	10.2	12.3
Czechia	396	416	433	465	468	507	534	570	686	991	1 070
% of total population	3.8	4.0	4.1	4.4	4.4	4.8	5.1	5.4	6.5	9.4	9.9
Denmark	476	501	541	571	592	608	614	618	641	698	725
% of total population	8.4	8.8	9.5	10.0	10.3	10.5	10.6	10.6	10.9	11.8	12.2
Estonia	197	195	194	193	196	198	199	198	201	235	244
% of total population	15.0	14.8	14.7	14.6	14.9	14.9	15.0	14.9	15.1	17.7	17.9
Finland	304	322	337	358	373	387	404	421	442	477	535
% of total population	5.6	5.9	6.1	6.5	6.8	7.0	7.3	7.6	8.0	8.6	9.5
France	7 746.5	7 915.8	8 028	8 099	8 200	8 368	8 473	8 549	8 636	8 963	9 329
% of total population	12.2	12.3	12.6	12.6	12.8	13.0	13.1	13.3	13.4	13.9	14.0
Germany	10 401	10 792	11 392	12 609	13 088	13 520	13 754	13 882	14 245	15 311	16 173
% of total population	12.7	13.2	13.9	15.3	15.8	16.3	16.5	16.6	17.1	18.4	19.1
Greece	1 265	1 243	1 220	1 251	1 278	1 307	1 348	1 362	1 198	1 166	1 148
% of total population	11.6	11.5	11.3	11.7	12.0	12.3	12.8	13.0	11.4	11.3	11.3
Hungary	448	476	504	514	537	565	594	598	613	649	682
% of total population	4.5	4.8	5.1	5.2	5.5	5.8	6.1	6.1	6.3	6.3	7.0
Iceland	37	39	42	47	55	61	67	69	72	82	81
% of total population	11.4	11.9	12.6	13.7	15.7	17.2	18.3	18.7	19.3	22.0	20.7
Ireland	790	805	810	845	879	914	948	983	1 017	1 114	1 220
% of total population	17.2	17.3	17.3	17.8	18.3	18.8	19.3	19.8	20.3	22.1	23.3
Israel	1 821	1 817	1 818	1 812	1 811	1 809	1 812	1 797	1 793	1 835	1 804
% of total population	23.4	22.9	22.5	22.0	21.6	21.2	20.9	20.4	20.0	20.2	19.3
Italy	5 737	5 805	5 907	6 054	6 175	6 069	6 161	6 262	6 161	6 417	6 674
% of total population	9.5	9.6	9.8	10.1	10.3	10.1	10.3	10.5	10.4	10.9	11.2
Latvia	271	265	259	251	246	242	237	230	224	241	239
% of total population	13.4	13.3	13.1	12.8	12.6	12.6	12.4	12.2	11.9	12.8	12.7
Lithuania	137	136	130	127	131	138	153	165	169	232	268
% of total population	4.6	4.6	4.4	4.4	4.5	4.8	5.4	5.9	6.1	8.5	9.4
Luxembourg	238	249	261	271	281	291	302	310	319	334	343
% of total population	43.3	44.2	45.2	45.8	46.6	47.4	48.2	48.8	49.5	51.2	51.3
Mexico	940	1 007	1 075	..	1 212
% of total population	0.8	0.8	0.9	..	1.0
Netherlands	1 953	1 996	2 057	2 137	2 216	2 299	2 400	2 451	2 551	2 777	2 915
% of total population	11.6	11.7	12.0	12.4	12.8	13.3	13.8	14.0	14.5	15.8	16.0

	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	2024
New Zealand	1 330	1 468	..
% of total population	27.8	28.8	..
Norway	705	742	772	800	822	842	868	878	898	957	1 011
% of total population	13.8	14.4	14.8	15.2	15.5	15.8	16.2	16.3	16.6	17.5	18.2
Poland	620	612	626	652	696	761	849	902	951	933	936
% of total population	1.6	1.6	1.6	1.7	1.8	2.0	2.2	2.3	2.5	2.4	2.4
Portugal	937	959	980	1 002	1 024	1 046	1 067	1 089	1 105	1 222	..
% of total population	9.0	9.2	9.5	9.7	9.9	10.2	10.4	10.6	10.6	11.7	..
Slovak Republic	175	178	182	186	190	194	198	202	227	227	228
% of total population	3.2	3.3	3.3	3.4	3.5	3.6	3.6	3.7	4.2	3.9	4.1
Slovenia	235	238	241	245	250	265	282	293	295	309	320
% of total population	11.3	11.4	11.6	11.7	11.9	12.6	13.3	13.8	13.9	14.6	15.1
Spain	5 958	5 891	5 918	6 025	6 199	6 539	6 997	7 215	7 365	8 204	8 838
% of total population	12.8	12.7	12.7	13.0	13.3	13.9	14.8	15.2	15.5	17.3	18.4
Sweden	1 533	1 604	1 676	1 784	1 877	1 956	2 020	2 047	2 091	2 146	2 171
% of total population	15.8	16.4	16.9	17.8	18.6	19.1	19.6	19.6	19.9	20.3	20.5
Switzerland	2 290	2 355	2 416	2 480	2 519	2 553	2 590	2 630	2 672	2 734	2 866
% of total population	28.1	28.6	29.0	29.5	29.7	29.9	30.1	30.3	30.7	31.2	32.2
Türkiye	1 460	1 592	1 777	1 924	2 278	2 669	2 610	3 141	3 243	3 003	2 931
% of total population	1.9	2.0	2.2	2.4	2.8	3.2	3.1	3.7	3.8	3.5	3.4
United Kingdom	8 064	8 482	8 988	9 369	9 388	9 482	9 539	9 614	10 031	10 311	..
% of total population	12.5	13.0	13.7	14.2	14.2	14.2	14.2	14.3	14.9	15.2	..
United States	42 391	43 290	43 739	44 525	44 729	44 933	44 258	45 273	47 331	49 060	51 227
% of total population	13.2	13.4	13.4	13.6	13.5	13.5	13.2	13.5	14.0	14.5	14.9

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the Tables B.4. The percentage of total population is based on the UN and Eurostat estimates of the total population and may differ from national estimates.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/408ifz>

Table B.4. Stocks of foreign-born population by country of birth – Australia

Thousands

	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	2024	Of which: Women 2024 (%)
United Kingdom	1 216.3	1 209.1	1 202.1	1 197.2	1 190.0	1 182.0	1 177.2	1 160.6	1 144.7	1 145.2	1 148.9	49
India	411.2	449.0	489.4	538.3	593.3	665.4	724.1	712.0	753.7	846.9	916.3	46
China	561.7	606.7	658.2	706.4	748.2	766.0	746.0	691.9	712.9	778.0	827.9	55
New Zealand	583.7	575.4	568.2	572.3	577.5	582.9	584.5	584.0	586.1	598.5	618.0	49
Philippines	230.2	241.1	252.7	265.3	276.9	294.2	308.4	308.2	320.4	362.9	394.4	59
Viet Nam	228.5	235.6	243.2	251.9	259.7	268.1	275.9	274.8	282.0	299.5	318.8	56
South Africa	174.9	177.4	180.5	185.6	189.7	195.1	200.9	202.7	206.8	215.0	224.2	50
Nepal	42.9	50.2	59.0	73.9	95.0	119.1	132.4	130.3	151.1	179.1	197.8	46
Malaysia	139.4	143.4	152.9	165.0	174.5	177.5	178.8	174.0	176.3	180.6	183.5	54
Sri Lanka	115.1	119.7	124.5	128.4	132.2	137.5	142.7	140.1	145.4	158.7	172.8	48
Italy	200.4	198.5	195.8	190.8	185.3	179.6	174.8	167.6	161.6	159.0	156.1	49
Pakistan	54.4	62.3	69.7	76.6	84.3	91.7	97.1	96.2	103.1	120.6	134.7	39
Indonesia	75.4	77.0	79.0	83.1	86.9	91.0	94.9	92.7	96.8	109.5	120.2	57
Korea	101.9	106.6	111.6	114.8	116.7	116.4	112.0	107.1	108.9	115.7	119.2	55
United States	102.7	104.7	105.8	108.8	110.1	111.0	113.2	113.5	112.6	115.1	118.0	52
Other countries	2 331.7	2 373.1	2 419.8	2 483.5	2 526.4	2 572.2	2 609.6	2 570.1	2 619.5	2 796.8	2 926.1	
Total	6 570.2	6 729.7	6 912.1	7 142.0	7 346.5	7 549.7	7 672.5	7 525.9	7 681.7	8 181.0	8 576.7	51

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/408ifz>.

Table B.4. Stocks of foreign-born population by country of birth – Austria

Thousands

	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	2024	Of which: Women 2024 (%)
Germany	210.7	215.0	219.9	224.0	227.8	232.2	237.8	244.9	251.6	258.6	265.1	52
Bosnia and Herzegovina	155.1	158.9	162.0	164.3	166.8	168.5	170.5	172.4	174.3	176.7	178.9	51
Türkiye	160.0	160.0	160.2	160.4	160.3	159.7	159.6	159.1	159.1	161.1	165.3	47
Romania	79.3	91.3	98.7	105.6	113.3	121.1	128.8	134.2	138.3	145.0	148.5	51
Serbia	132.6	134.7	137.1	139.1	141.9	143.2	144.4	144.4	143.9	144.3	144.5	52
Hungary	55.0	61.5	67.7	72.4	75.8	79.0	81.9	83.9	85.3	88.9	94.7	54
Syria	5.2	12.3	33.6	41.6	47.0	48.5	49.7	52.3	63.0	73.9	85.6	35
Ukraine	9.4	10.7	11.9	12.7	13.4	14.0	14.8	15.4	16.5	80.4	81.5	65
Poland	66.8	69.9	72.2	73.8	75.1	75.6	76.1	76.6	76.5	77.1	77.5	51
Croatia	39.8	41.7	43.3	44.5	45.2	46.7	48.1	50.6	53.5	56.5	58.6	51
Slovak Republic	32.6	35.5	38.0	40.0	41.5	42.7	43.8	44.9	45.8	47.0	47.9	62
Afghanistan	18.2	20.3	36.6	44.7	44.4	43.1	42.2	42.2	43.0	44.9	47.0	36
Russia	30.2	31.7	33.0	33.9	34.4	34.7	35.2	35.8	36.6	40.5	42.7	61
Italy	27.7	29.3	31.2	32.3	33.3	34.1	35.1	35.9	36.4	37.5	38.2	45
Bulgaria	18.5	21.6	23.8	25.7	27.4	29.2	31.1	32.2	33.0	34.6	35.2	54
Other countries	373.5	390.2	425.4	441.5	449.8	456.2	466.0	472.7	485.7	508.8	527.5	
Total	1 414.6	1 484.6	1 594.7	1 656.3	1 697.1	1 728.6	1 765.3	1 797.6	1 842.4	1 975.9	2 038.7	51

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/408ifz>.

Table B.4. Stocks of foreign-born population by country of birth – Belgium

Thousands

	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	2024	Of which: Women 2024 (%)
Morocco	204.8	208.1	211.2	214.1	217.4	221.0	226.5	229.7	233.6	238.9	244.3	50
France	180.8	182.2	183.7	184.5	184.9	186.1	189.2	191.0	191.9	194.2	196.0	54
Netherlands	127.9	128.5	129.4	129.8	130.0	130.7	131.6	131.8	132.8	134.9	136.3	50
Romania	57.9	65.2	71.7	77.3	83.5	90.9	99.9	104.7	108.0	113.8	117.5	45
Italy	119.7	120.0	120.1	119.7	119.1	119.1	119.5	118.3	117.1	116.8	116.4	49
Türkiye	98.4	98.3	98.3	98.5	99.1	100.1	102.0	102.6	104.1	107.9	112.8	47
Former USSR	51.1	51.8	51.2	51.7	53.1	54.6	58.5	58.2	59.5	85.8	91.4	62
Dem. Rep. of the Congo	83.5	83.6	84.1	84.4	84.9	85.4	86.4	86.7	87.1	87.9	89.0	55
Germany	82.4	81.5	81.1	80.6	80.2	80.2	80.2	79.8	79.6	79.9	80.0	54
Poland	70.9	73.4	75.5	76.3	76.9	77.4	78.2	77.5	76.6	77.3	77.7	57
Spain	44.7	46.0	47.0	47.2	47.9	48.9	50.5	51.7	53.5	55.9	57.9	53
Bulgaria	26.1	28.7	31.3	32.9	34.8	36.9	40.4	42.6	44.5	47.0	47.9	50
Syria	8.1	10.9	21.3	25.1	30.0	33.1	35.7	36.4	38.7	42.0	46.5	42
Former Yugoslavia	43.1	43.1	42.9	42.9	43.1	43.8	46.9	44.9	45.1	45.6	45.8	50
Afghanistan	11.7	12.8	20.4	22.1	22.9	24.2	28.2	30.0	35.4	41.6	43.7	28
Other countries	539.7	551.9	580.0	593.6	612.7	640.8	682.7	694.0	718.2	779.2	828.6	
Total	1 750.8	1 786.1	1 849.3	1 880.8	1 920.5	1 973.0	2 056.4	2 079.8	2 125.7	2 248.6	2 331.7	51

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/408ifz>.**Table B.4. Stocks of foreign-born population by country of birth – Canada**

Thousands

	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	2024	Of which: Women 2021 (%)
China	858.2	929.7	45
India	668.6	898.1	50
Philippines	588.3	719.6	42
United Kingdom	499.1	464.1	49
United States	253.7	256.1	45
Pakistan	202.3	234.1	51
Italy	236.6	204.1	50
Iran	154.4	182.9	50
Viet Nam	169.3	182.1	45
Jamaica	138.3	145.4	44
Korea	123.3	138.4	46
Sri Lanka	132.0	136.2	49
Poland	146.5	135.0	45
Portugal	139.5	128.8	49
Germany	145.8	126.5	48
Other countries	3 085.0	3 480.5	
Total	7 540.8	8 361.5	48

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/408ifz>.

Table B.4. Stocks of foreign-born population by country of birth – Chile

Thousands

	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	2024	Of which: Women 2024 (%)
Venezuela	83.0	..	344.5	470.8	488.4	535.8	683.3	728.6	..
Peru	187.8	..	228.1	236.3	242.9	252.9	257.5	260.8	..
Colombia	105.4	..	153.8	168.3	172.5	187.5	203.1	209.9	..
Haiti	62.7	..	179.9	181.2	183.7	185.4	188.6	188.1	..
Bolivia	73.8	..	110.6	123.5	131.6	143.7	163.9	180.3	..
Argentina	66.5	..	74.1	76.7	78.6	80.3	80.9	83.3	..
Ecuador	27.7	..	37.7	40.3	41.3	44.3	47.6	50.5	..
Dominican Republic	11.9	..	17.9	19.4	19.6	19.8	21.1	22.8	..
Cuba	6.7	..	15.8	18.1	19.5	19.8	19.6	21.3	..
Brazil	14.2	..	17.5	18.6	19.3	20.1	20.8	21.3	..
Spain	16.7	..	18.5	19.0	19.4	19.4	19.5	19.9	..
China	10.1	..	13.4	14.1	14.0	14.3	14.4	15.1	..
United States	12.3	..	14.6	15.1	14.3	14.9	15.1	14.8	..
Mexico	5.8	..	6.9	7.4	7.7	7.8	7.9	8.5	..
Germany	5.7	..	6.3	6.9	6.7	6.8	7.0	7.1	..
Other countries	56.1	..	67.3	71.0	75.2	78.0	85.8	86.4	
Total	441.5	465.3	..	746.4	..	1 306.9	1 486.8	1 534.8	1 630.8	1 836.1	1 918.6	..

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/408ifz>.**Table B.4. Stocks of foreign-born population by country of birth – Colombia**

Thousands

	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	2024	Of which: Women 2024 (%)
Venezuela	..	33.1	1 796.1	2 904.9	51
United States	..	18.9	20.9	22.5	44
Ecuador	..	16.3	19.2	21.4	49
Spain	..	11.9	16.5	19.5	41
Argentina	..	4.5	5.7	6.5	38
Mexico	..	4.3	5.5	6.4	44
Peru	..	5.1	5.7	6.2	38
Chile	..	3.4	4.6	5.4	40
Brazil	..	3.5	4.6	5.3	50
France	..	2.6	3.2	3.6	35
Italy	..	2.9	3.2	3.5	33
Panama	..	2.6	3.1	3.5	46
Cuba	..	2.2	2.7	3.2	38
Germany	..	2.1	2.2	2.2	37
Costa Rica	..	1.4	1.8	2.1	49
Other countries	..	30.7	37.7	47.3	
Total	..	145.5	1 932.8	3 063.5	50

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/408ifz>.

Table B.4. Stocks of foreign-born population by country of birth – Costa Rica

Thousands

	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	2024	Of which: Women 2024 (%)
Nicaragua	..	292.2	350.9	423.4	50
Venezuela	..	1.4	28.2	34.0	49
Colombia	..	21.3	25.5	30.8	48
El Salvador	..	13.9	16.7	20.1	53
United States	..	12.7	15.2	18.4	41
Panama	..	11.4	13.7	16.5	47
Caribbean	..	7.6	9.1	11.0	48
Cuba	..	5.8	6.9	8.3	45
Honduras	..	3.9	4.7	5.7	54
Peru	..	3.8	4.5	5.5	46
China	..	3.3	3.9	4.8	45
Mexico	..	3.1	3.7	4.5	51
Guatemala	..	2.7	3.2	3.9	47
Spain	..	2.2	2.6	3.1	42
Italy	..	2.1	2.6	3.1	36
Other countries	..	24.4	29.2	35.3	
Total	..	411.7	520.7	628.4	49

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/408ifz>.**Table B.4. Stocks of foreign-born population by country of birth – Czechia**

Thousands

	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	2024	Of which: Women 2024 (%)
Ukraine	94.2	100.7	104.1	110.3	107.5	122.9	136.8	156.6	174.9	463.1	527.3	55
Slovak Republic	84.7	89.3	94.0	98.9	102.4	106.6	110.1	112.7	234.2	232.3	232.5	53
Russia	30.6	32.7	33.7	36.2	33.4	35.1	35.3	39.3	41.5	44.2	42.7	60
Viet Nam	45.9	45.5	45.6	46.6	46.1	47.2	47.7	48.0	35.3	35.7	36.2	47
Poland	18.6	18.8	19.0	19.4	19.7	20.3	20.7	19.6	19.1	18.8	18.9	63
Moldova	6.2	6.8	7.3	8.3	8.3	9.5	10.5	11.4	10.2	11.8	13.0	42
Bulgaria	8.5	9.3	10.1	11.2	12.6	14.2	15.6	16.2	11.3	11.6	12.2	38
Romania	5.0	5.4	6.1	7.1	8.0	9.1	9.9	10.5	11.2	11.1	11.2	43
United States	5.5	5.2	5.4	7.7	7.6	7.6	5.6	6.2	8.0	9.4	11.1	47
Germany	14.7	15.6	16.2	16.8	16.8	16.9	17.1	16.6	10.5	10.2	10.3	44
Kazakhstan	6.1	6.6	7.0	7.8	7.1	7.5	7.5	8.4	8.7	9.7	9.9	55
United Kingdom	4.6	4.9	5.1	5.3	5.6	6.0	7.0	7.6	8.9	9.2	9.6	34
India	1.5	1.7	2.0	2.9	3.3	4.0	4.5	5.4	5.1	6.5	7.6	30
Belarus	4.0	4.1	4.2	4.5	4.6	5.5	6.3	6.3	7.5	7.7	7.3	54
China	4.6	4.8	4.9	5.4	5.7	6.2	6.4	6.8	5.3	5.6	6.9	51
Other countries	61.5	65.1	68.7	76.7	79.0	88.4	92.6	98.6	94.2	103.8	113.0	
Total	396.2	416.5	433.3	465.1	467.6	507.1	533.6	570.1	685.8	990.8	1 069.6	52

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/408ifz>.

Table B.4. Stocks of foreign-born population by country of birth – Denmark

Thousands

	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	2024	Of which: Women 2024 (%)
Poland	32.0	34.5	37.1	39.1	40.6	41.5	41.5	41.9	44.2	46.9	48.6	47
Ukraine	6.7	7.5	8.1	8.7	9.8	11.1	12.1	12.3	13.4	38.8	40.7	60
Romania	15.7	18.7	21.9	24.3	26.3	28.5	29.4	30.3	34.1	38.2	39.6	42
Germany	28.7	28.7	29.1	29.6	29.8	30.3	30.6	30.9	32.4	35.0	36.8	52
Syria	5.8	11.6	24.1	33.6	35.4	35.9	35.5	35.7	35.3	34.9	35.0	44
Türkiye	32.4	32.4	32.5	32.6	32.9	33.1	33.1	33.2	33.5	34.1	34.8	48
Iraq	21.1	21.2	21.2	21.4	21.6	21.9	21.8	21.9	22.0	22.0	22.1	46
Iran	14.1	14.9	15.6	16.0	16.8	17.1	17.2	17.6	18.0	19.1	20.9	45
India	6.7	7.4	8.5	9.8	10.7	11.8	12.8	12.7	13.7	16.0	17.7	44
United Kingdom	12.8	13.0	13.4	14.1	14.8	15.3	15.5	15.8	16.0	16.2	16.4	35
Bosnia and Herzegovina	17.3	17.3	17.2	17.1	17.1	17.0	16.8	16.6	16.5	16.4	16.3	51
Norway	14.9	15.1	15.6	15.8	15.8	15.7	15.7	15.6	15.6	15.7	15.7	65
Sweden	13.2	13.4	13.6	13.8	14.2	14.3	14.4	14.6	14.8	15.1	15.3	60
Pakistan	12.9	13.5	13.8	14.0	14.2	14.4	14.5	14.5	14.6	14.8	15.2	48
Afghanistan	12.1	12.6	12.8	13.0	13.5	13.8	13.9	13.9	14.0	14.7	14.8	46
Other countries	229.5	239.4	256.0	267.7	278.2	286.1	289.6	290.3	302.7	320.1	335.0	
Total	476.1	501.1	540.5	570.6	591.7	607.6	614.4	617.8	640.9	698.0	724.7	51

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/408ifz>.**Table B.4. Stocks of foreign-born population by country of birth – Estonia**

Thousands

	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	2024	Of which: Women 2024 (%)
Russia	136.4	129.2	126.2	122.9	120.6	118.1	115.9	113.1	110.2	109.5	107.5	63
Ukraine	21.5	21.8	22.4	22.7	23.2	24.0	25.0	26.4	28.6	59.3	69.7	54
Belarus	11.5	11.1	10.9	10.7	10.6	10.4	10.4	10.3	10.3	10.4	10.2	60
Latvia	4.2	4.7	4.8	4.9	5.5	6.0	6.1	6.2	6.4	6.7	6.7	48
Finland	2.3	3.9	4.3	4.7	5.4	5.9	6.0	6.1	6.1	6.2	6.1	40
Kazakhstan	4.0	3.8	3.7	3.7	3.7	3.7	3.8	3.8	3.8	3.9	4.0	57
Germany	1.3	1.8	1.9	2.0	2.4	2.5	2.4	2.0	2.5	2.7	2.7	44
Azerbaijan	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.6	1.7	1.7	1.8	2.0	2.0	41
Lithuania	1.8	2.0	2.0	2.1	2.1	2.2	2.1	2.1	2.0	2.0	2.0	54
Georgia	1.5	1.6	1.7	1.7	1.7	1.8	1.8	1.8	1.8	1.9	1.9	47
Moldova	0.9	0.9	0.9	1.0	1.0	1.1	1.1	1.7	1.9	39
India	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.6	0.7	1.0	1.6	1.8	32
United Kingdom	0.6	0.7	0.7	0.8	1.2	1.3	1.4	1.8	1.8	32
Uzbekistan	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.3	1.4	49
United States	0.8	0.6	0.7	0.7	1.1	1.2	1.2	1.4	1.4	38
Other countries	7.3	9.7	10.7	11.7	14.6	16.5	18.2	24.9	27.0	22.4	23.3	
Total	196.9	194.7	193.9	192.6	196.3	198.1	199.0	198.2	200.6	234.7	244.4	56

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/408ifz>.

Table B.4. Stocks of foreign-born population by country of birth – Finland

Thousands

	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	2024	Of which: Women 2024 (%)
Former USSR	53.7	54.7	55.6	56.5	56.7	57.1	58.1	59.0	60.6	63.9	74.8	60
Estonia	39.5	42.7	44.5	45.7	46.0	46.2	46.0	46.2	46.9	47.2	47.3	49
Sweden	31.8	31.9	32.0	32.1	32.4	32.7	32.9	33.4	33.7	33.9	34.2	48
Iraq	9.3	10.0	10.7	13.8	16.3	17.9	19.0	20.1	20.9	21.7	22.5	37
Russia	11.1	12.0	12.8	13.7	14.2	14.9	15.7	16.6	17.8	20.5	22.4	53
China	8.9	9.4	10.0	10.4	10.9	11.4	11.9	12.6	13.5	14.5	16.3	56
Ukraine	1.4	1.6	1.8	2.1	2.3	2.8	3.2	3.7	4.5	5.4	16.1	52
India	4.9	5.4	5.7	5.8	6.2	6.8	7.9	8.4	9.4	11.6	14.3	43
Somalia	9.6	10.1	10.6	11.1	11.4	11.8	12.1	12.4	12.7	13.2	13.7	49
Philippines	2.7	3.2	3.6	4.0	4.3	4.8	5.6	6.2	6.9	9.8	13.2	65
Thailand	8.7	9.2	9.7	10.2	10.5	10.9	11.3	11.7	12.0	12.5	13.1	78
Viet Nam	5.5	6.0	6.6	7.5	8.0	8.5	9.0	9.4	10.1	10.9	12.1	54
Türkiye	6.1	6.3	6.5	6.8	7.1	7.5	8.2	8.8	9.2	10.1	11.1	35
Iran	5.3	5.8	6.1	6.8	7.2	7.4	7.9	8.3	8.9	9.8	11.1	45
Afghanistan	3.7	4.0	4.3	5.7	6.4	6.9	7.3	7.8	8.5	9.3	10.4	40
Other countries	102.1	109.6	116.8	125.4	132.8	139.8	148.1	156.2	166.7	182.7	202.9	
Total	304.3	322.0	337.2	357.5	372.8	387.2	404.2	420.8	442.3	476.9	535.5	48

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/408ifz>.**Table B.4. Stocks of foreign-born population by country of birth – France**

Thousands

	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	2024	Of which: Women 2024 (%)
Algeria	1 368.4	1 376.9	1 383.7	1 386.4	1 390.3	1 386.2	1 397.4	1 416.1
Morocco	935.4	954.7	967.2	981.2	992.1	1 009.6	1 019.5	1 036.1
Portugal	643.2	648.1	648.1	644.2	624.2	617.1	602.3	595.8	590.2	601.4	584.6	50
Tunisia	393.9	398.2	403.7	410.7	415.6	427.8	427.0	433.5
Italy	325.6	324.0	322.7	322.0	314.9	315.9	311.6	309.0	307.2	313.4	305.5	51
Spain	285.1	286.2	285.2	284.1	275.8	276.7	272.0	271.8	270.1	263.2	274.5	55
Türkiye	261.2	260.8	258.2	257.7	256.7	264.0	257.6	262.4
Germany	210.3	208.4	206.4	204.3	198.3	200.3	196.0	195.0	194.6	196.3	199.3	57
United Kingdom	167.6	166.5	165.6	165.0	162.3	168.8	166.8	166.4
Senegal	127.7	132.9	137.3	143.6	148.4	156.3	158.9	161.4
Belgium	151.6	152.8	154.1	155.6	154.3	155.6	153.7	155.8	158.6	170.2	170.0	55
Comoros	42.5	104.0	108.4	131.4	137.6	143.3	149.7	153.7
Madagascar	124.7	132.7	134.8	137.9	140.3	141.3	149.8	151.8
Côte d'Ivoire	104.4	109.1	114.6	120.5	127.5	133.7	143.5	145.9
Romania	109.0	117.3	124.6	131.9	135.7	136.9	134.5	137.5	140.9	148.5	150.9	53
Other countries	2 496.0	2 543.2	2 613.7	2 622.5	2 725.6	2 834.9	2 932.9	2 956.7	
Total	7 746.5	7 915.8	8 028.2	8 098.9	8 199.7	8 368.3	8 473.3	8 548.9	8 635.5	8 963.3	9 328.9	52

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/408ifz>.

Table B.4. Stocks of foreign-born population by country of birth – Germany

Thousands

	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	2024	Of which: Women 2024 (%)
Poland	1 203	1 253	1 328	1 460	1 548	1 663	1 638	1 456	1 554	1 581	1 572	54
Türkiye	1 313	1 343	1 362	1 321	1 195	1 320	1 340	1 285	1 314	1 327	1 388	50
Russia	959	936	954	955	1 058	1 077	1 076	958	1 018	1 048	1 062	57
Syria	53	70	141	453	620	711	722	874	892	1 002	1 042	42
Kazakhstan	728	725	735	735	910	947	926	833	939	968	965	52
Ukraine	210	214	211	222	251	266	261	258	249	536	961	62
Romania	460	484	545	653	667	777	812	742	814	882	898	51
Italy	417	425	439	506	470	511	525	519	530	508	495	40
Bosnia and Herzegovina	148	157	164	171	263	289	304	334	332	382	389	51
Afghanistan	90	101	111	176	179	209	233	250	277	340	376	38
Bulgaria	96	119	146	214	226	264	269	229	280	299	313	51
Iraq	88	97	104	151	193	233	245	252	282	301	302	41
Croatia	208	219	254	305	242	277	296	280	300	293	284	50
Greece	221	233	256	281	264	299	295	293	280	266	269	46
Iran	100	115	118	129	154	185	187	206	223	248	267	45
Other countries	4 107	4 301	4 524	4 877	4 848	4 492	4 625	5 113	4 961	5 330	5 590	
Total	10 401	10 792	11 392	12 609	13 088	13 520	13 754	13 882	14 245	15 311	16 173	50

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/408ifz>.**Table B.4. Stocks of foreign-born population by country of birth – Greece**

Thousands

	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	2024	Of which: Women 2024 (%)
EU countries	339.2	345.7	350.1	345.6	344.1	348.7	350.0	330.4	247.9	234.4	234.4	61
Non-EU countries	925.9	897.3	870.3	905.2	933.8	958.8	998.2	1 031.3	950.2	931.8	913.4	50
Total	1 265.2	1 242.9	1 220.4	1 250.9	1 277.9	1 307.5	1 348.2	1 361.7	1 198.1	1 166.2	1 147.8	52

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/408ifz>.

Table B.4. Stocks of foreign-born population by country of birth – Hungary

Thousands

	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	2024	Of which: Women 2024 (%)
Romania	198.4	203.4	208.4	206.3	207.4	207.1	210.4	208.0	207.4	208.2	207.8	51
Ukraine	33.3	42.0	50.2	55.8	61.6	68.5	72.2	71.5	74.5	82.2	82.6	52
Germany	29.2	30.2	31.7	32.4	33.6	34.4	37.9	39.0	42.6	46.3	48.3	49
Serbia	30.0	32.4	34.0	34.7	39.4	42.2	43.0	41.0	41.5	42.3	42.6	44
Former USSR	13.5	13.2	13.3	12.7	14.6	23.4	27.6	27.1	28.5	29.2	24.9	54
United Kingdom	6.8	7.9	9.4	11.2	12.9	14.6	16.7	18.0	19.3	20.5	21.3	46
Slovak Republic	21.3	21.1	21.1	21.1	20.9	20.3	20.5	21.3	21.2	21.4	21.2	59
China	11.1	14.8	18.2	17.5	18.2	17.0	17.8	16.8	16.0	16.6	19.6	48
Viet Nam	3.2	3.3	3.5	3.6	4.1	5.1	6.3	7.4	7.1	7.9	16.2	42
Austria	8.8	9.3	9.9	10.3	10.6	10.8	11.5	13.0	14.0	15.0	15.5	46
Former Czechoslovakia	6.0	6.2	6.2	5.8	5.5	5.5	5.8	8.6	9.5	9.9	10.0	58
United States	7.4	7.8	8.2	8.4	8.7	9.0	9.4	9.1	9.5	9.8	9.9	47
Philippines	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.6	0.7	1.1	2.9	8.4	33
India	1.0	1.2	1.5	1.7	2.2	3.1	3.4	3.5	3.9	5.3	7.1	26
Italy	4.3	4.7	5.3	5.6	5.9	6.0	6.4	6.1	6.2	6.3	6.3	38
Other countries	73.0	78.3	83.1	86.6	90.5	97.6	104.9	106.9	110.3	125.3	140.7	
Total	447.7	476.1	504.3	514.1	536.6	565.1	594.3	597.6	612.7	649.2	682.5	49

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/408ifz>.**Table B.4. Stocks of foreign-born population by country of birth – Iceland**

Thousands

	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	2024	Of which: Women 2024 (%)
Poland	10.2	11.0	12.0	13.8	17.0	19.2	20.5	20.6	20.9	23.1	22.4	43
Denmark	3.2	3.3	3.3	3.4	3.5	3.6	3.6	3.7	3.8	3.8	3.8	49
Ukraine	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.5	2.7	3.7	58
Lithuania	1.5	1.5	1.6	1.9	2.4	2.9	3.3	3.3	3.4	3.9	3.6	37
Romania	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.7	1.1	1.5	2.0	2.1	2.5	3.2	3.0	30
United States	2.0	2.0	2.1	2.2	2.3	2.4	2.5	2.7	2.9	2.9	2.8	49
Philippines	1.5	1.6	1.6	1.7	1.9	2.1	2.2	2.3	2.4	2.5	2.6	65
Sweden	1.9	1.9	2.0	2.0	2.1	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.4	2.4	2.4	50
Latvia	0.7	0.7	0.8	0.9	1.4	1.8	2.0	2.1	2.3	2.6	2.2	34
Germany	1.6	1.6	1.7	1.8	1.9	2.0	2.1	2.2	2.4	2.5	2.1	62
United Kingdom	1.2	1.3	1.4	1.5	1.6	1.7	1.8	2.0	2.0	2.0	1.7	40
Viet Nam	0.6	0.6	0.7	0.7	0.8	0.8	0.9	1.0	1.1	1.2	1.6	53
Thailand	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.3	1.3	1.4	1.4	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.5	74
Norway	1.0	1.0	1.1	1.1	1.2	1.3	1.3	1.3	1.4	1.4	1.4	52
Venezuela	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.4	0.6	1.2	1.4	48
Other countries	10.0	10.7	11.6	13.1	15.8	18.1	20.3	19.7	21.8	25.0	24.5	
Total	37.2	39.2	42.0	46.5	54.6	61.4	66.8	67.4	71.8	82.2	80.7	47

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/408ifz>.

Table B.4. Stocks of foreign-born population by country of birth – Ireland

Thousands

	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	2024	Of which: Women 2024 (%)
United Kingdom	277.2	289.1
Poland	115.2	106.1
India	21.0	56.6
Romania	28.7	42.5
Brazil	15.8	39.6
Lithuania	33.3	34.2
United States	28.7	34.2
Nigeria	16.6	20.6
Latvia	19.0	20.3
Philippines	14.7	19.8
China	12.9	18.5
Spain	11.8	18.4
Moldova	6.5	16.2
South Africa	8.1	15.9
Italy	10.9	15.7
Other countries	190.1	269.7
Total	790	805	810	845	879	914	948	983	1 017	1 114	1 220	..

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/408ifz>.**Table B.4. Stocks of foreign-born population by country of birth – Israel**

Thousands

	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	2024	Of which: Women 2024 (%)
Former USSR	858.7	859.4	863.1	867.1	873.3	882.2	895.6	891.0	886.7	942.9	902.1	56
Morocco	145.4	143.1	140.9	138.8	136.1	133.2	130.3	126.9	123.8	120.5	119.4	54
United States	88.0	90.5	92.6	94.6	96.9	98.8	101.4	103.5	103.4	109.1	110.0	52
Ethiopia	85.9	85.6	85.7	85.5	87.0	86.9	87.5	88.6	90.6	92.1	93.6	51
France	46.3	51.1	57.0	60.1	62.6	64.0	65.3	66.5	68.8	69.8	67.8	54
Romania	84.0	80.8	77.8	74.8	71.8	68.8	66.0	63.2	60.6	57.8	55.5	56
Iran	46.7	46.0	45.2	44.4	43.5	42.7	41.8	40.9	40.0	39.1	39.0	52
Iraq	56.8	54.9	53.0	51.1	49.3	47.4	45.4	43.4	41.3	39.1	37.9	55
Argentina	36.3	36.0	35.6	35.4	35.1	34.8	34.9	35.1	35.5	35.8	35.5	53
United Kingdom	23.2	23.5	24.0	24.4	24.6	24.8	25.2	25.3	26.1	26.0	25.9	52
Tunisia	28.4	28.6	28.3	27.7	27.1	26.4	25.6	24.9	24.4	23.8	23.1	56
Poland	42.2	39.7	37.2	34.8	32.6	30.5	28.6	26.8	25.1	23.3	22.8	58
India	17.5	18.0	18.0	17.8	17.9	18.1	17.9	17.8	18.1	17.8	17.7	53
Türkiye	23.4	22.8	22.1	21.6	21.2	20.6	20.0	19.2	18.5	17.8	17.4	54
Yemen	25.4	22.5	21.6	22.7	21.7	20.9	19.9	18.9	16.4	15.5	16.3	58
Other countries	213.0	214.6	215.5	211.7	210.6	208.9	207.0	205.5	213.7	204.8	219.5	..
Total	1 821.0	1 817.0	1 817.5	1 812.4	1 811.2	1 808.9	1 812.2	1 797.3	1 792.9	1 835.3	1 803.5	55

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/408ifz>.

Table B.4. Stocks of foreign-born population by country of birth – Italy

Thousands

	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	2024	Of which: Women 2024 (%)
Romania	1 004.6	1 016.0	1 024.1	1 036.0	1 033.0	984.5	979.1	913.2	901.0	902.3	898.3	60
Albania	440.1	446.6	449.7	458.2	467.9	463.0	478.3	505.3	507.8	534.1	557.1	49
Morocco	418.1	424.1	428.9	434.5	437.8	432.4	442.4	457.0	456.0	472.6	489.0	45
Ukraine	218.5	222.9	231.6	237.6	240.9	239.4	40.9	44.2	43.7	56.9	297.0	76
China	197.1	200.4	212.2	220.1	223.7	218.3	222.4	259.1	228.6	235.0	236.9	50
Moldova	164.0	171.3	176.2	182.2	188.5	40.4	43.9	49.0	49.9	53.6	216.2	66
Germany	216.3	214.3	211.6	210.4	209.0	205.5	204.7	198.3	198.3	201.0	203.9	56
India	134.1	139.1	149.5	155.6	157.8	154.4	160.6	172.0	170.2	180.4	190.3	42
Switzerland	194.9	194.0	192.8	192.1	191.7	190.4	190.1	187.3	187.7	187.9	188.2	54
Bangladesh	95.4	105.5	111.3	119.5	128.5	125.9	129.5	146.7	148.4	165.9	188.2	25
Egypt	106.7	108.9	112.8	117.7	121.8	120.9	127.5	137.3	138.8	150.4	170.0	30
Pakistan	83.4	89.5	97.8	108.9	116.7	117.9	121.5	135.0	134.8	146.7	162.4	24
Philippines	141.1	143.2	145.5	147.8	148.5	140.8	141.6	149.0	144.3	146.5	147.3	60
Brazil	102.5	100.0	104.8	111.8	121.8	129.4	140.7	128.9	121.0	133.4	141.1	63
Peru	114.1	113.2	112.9	113.0	113.7	110.4	112.0	117.3	117.0	125.5	135.8	61
Other countries	2 106.3	2 116.3	2 145.7	2 208.5	2 274.0	2 395.4	2 626.3	2 662.7	2 613.3	2 725.1	2 451.8	
Total	5 737.2	5 805.3	5 907.5	6 054.0	6 175.3	6 069.0	6 161.4	6 262.2	6 161.0	6 417.2	6 673.6	53

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/408ifz>.**Table B.4. Stocks of foreign-born population by country of birth – Latvia**

Thousands

	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	2024	Of which: Women 2024 (%)
Russia	140.7	136.4	131.8	126.9	122.4	117.8	113.8	109.5	104.8	101.5	97.6	64
Ukraine	34.7	34.1	34.0	33.0	32.5	32.6	32.4	31.7	31.4	51.9	52.7	56
Belarus	50.0	48.6	47.2	45.5	43.9	42.6	41.3	39.8	38.5	37.1	35.9	67
Kazakhstan	6.0	5.9	5.9	5.8	5.7	5.7	5.6	5.5	5.4	5.4	5.4	..
United Kingdom	1.7	2.2	2.6	3.2	3.5	3.7	4.1	4.3	4.5	4.6	4.8	44
Uzbekistan	2.0	2.1	2.1	2.1	2.3	2.6	2.9	2.9	2.8	3.2	3.4	..
India	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.8	1.3	1.5	1.3	1.3	1.8	2.6	..
Azerbaijan	2.0	1.9	1.9	1.9	1.9	2.0	2.0	1.9	1.9	1.9	1.9	..
Moldova	1.7	1.7	1.7	1.7	1.7	1.7	1.8	1.7	1.8	1.8	1.9	..
Georgia	1.3	1.3	1.3	1.3	1.3	1.3	1.3	1.3	1.2	1.3	1.3	..
Tajikistan	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.8	0.8	..
Kyrgyzstan	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.7	0.7	0.8	0.8	..
Armenia	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	..
United States	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.7	..
Norway	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.6	..
Other countries	28.8	28.8	28.0	27.5	27.5	27.9	27.2	26.9	26.8	27.0	27.5	
Total	271.1	265.4	258.9	251.5	246.0	241.8	237.0	230.1	223.6	241.1	238.6	59

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/408ifz>.

Table B.4. Stocks of foreign-born population by country of birth – Lithuania

Thousands

	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	2024	Of which: Women 2024 (%)
Belarus	35.4	33.6	31.1	30.0	30.8	32.2	36.0	39.6	41.5	53.9	65.9	39
Russia	60.1	58.5	54.9	52.3	50.5	49.1	48.3	47.2	60.9	63.2	63.6	58
Ukraine	12.4	12.3	11.3	12.4	15.4	19.6	25.7	30.6	17.9	58.8	60.6	53
United Kingdom	3.3	4.3	5.2	5.0	5.4	6.3	8.0	9.1	11.2	12.1	13.0	49
Kazakhstan	4.6	4.5	4.2	4.1	4.0	4.0	4.2	4.5	6.1	6.7	8.1	45
Latvia	5.7	5.6	5.6	5.5	5.4	5.4	5.5	5.5	6.9	6.9	7.0	56
Uzbekistan	1.0	0.9	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.9	1.3	1.5	2.2	6.5	11
Kyrgyzstan	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.6	0.8	1.9	4.7	8
Tajikistan	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.5	1.2	4.3	6
Norway	1.0	1.4	2.0	2.2	2.3	2.6	3.1	3.4	2.7	3.0	3.3	50
Azerbaijan	0.9	0.9	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.8	1.1	1.6	3.1	16
Ireland	1.3	1.5	1.6	1.6	1.6	1.7	1.9	2.1	2.8	3.0	3.1	51
India	0.0	0.0	..	0.1	0.4	0.5	0.6	0.7	0.2	0.4	2.7	9
Germany	1.5	1.6	1.8	1.7	1.8	2.0	2.3	2.6	1.9	2.1	2.3	47
Georgia	0.6	0.7	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.7	0.8	1.2	1.8	24
Other countries	9.0	9.4	9.3	9.9	10.8	12.1	14.0	15.9	11.9	13.6	18.0	
Total	137.4	136.0	129.7	127.4	131.0	138.2	152.6	165.2	168.8	231.8	268.3	46

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/408ifz>.**Table B.4. Stocks of foreign-born population by country of birth – Luxembourg**

Thousands

	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	2024	Of which: Women 2024 (%)
Portugal	72.5	72.8	73.2	73.3	73.1	72.9	72.4	72.1	48
France	39.0	40.6	41.9	43.2	44.0	44.8	45.0	45.6	46
Belgium	20.5	20.8	21.0	21.3	21.4	21.3	21.2	21.2	46
Italy	17.0	17.7	18.4	19.0	19.3	19.8	20.3	20.8	42
Germany	16.5	16.5	16.7	16.7	16.7	16.8	16.8	16.8	52
Cape Verde	6.4	6.6	6.9	7.4	7.7	8.2	8.7	9.2	53
Spain	4.9	5.2	5.5	5.8	6.1	6.6	7.1	7.5	48
Romania	4.2	4.6	5.1	5.5	5.8	6.1	6.3	6.5	58
Brazil	2.9	3.2	3.6	4.2	4.6	5.2	5.8	6.4	58
Ukraine	1.2	1.3	1.4	1.6	1.7	1.8	5.7	5.9	66
India	1.8	2.2	2.7	3.3	3.6	4.3	5.2	5.7	46
United Kingdom	5.1	5.3	5.5	5.5	5.8	5.7	5.7	5.7	44
Poland	4.5	4.6	4.9	5.1	5.2	5.3	5.5	5.7	58
China	3.5	3.9	4.2	4.5	4.7	4.9	5.1	5.4	57
Russia	2.2	2.5	2.7	2.9	3.1	3.3	4.0	4.3	63
Other countries	68.6	72.8	77.4	82.6	86.8	91.9	98.7	104.8	
Total	237.7	248.9	260.6	270.7	280.8	291.2	301.7	309.6	319.0	333.6	343.5	49

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/408ifz>.

Table B.4. Stocks of foreign-born population by country of birth – Mexico

Thousands

	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	2024	Of which: Women 2024 (%)
United States	..	739.2	799.1	..	797.3
Guatemala	..	42.9	32.4	..	56.8
Spain	..	22.6	19.7	..	20.8
Colombia	..	18.7	27.9
Venezuela	..	15.7	24.4
Argentina	..	14.7	10.5
Honduras	..	14.5	18.4
Cuba	..	12.8	18.2
El Salvador	..	10.6	13.6
Canada	..	9.8	14.8
China	..	8.9
France	..	8.6	14.2	..	9.1
Italy	..	6.4
Germany	..	6.4
Brazil	..	5.8
Other countries	..	69.4	81.5	..	328.3
Total	939.9	1 007.1	1 074.8	..	1 212.3

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/408ifz>.**Table B.4. Stocks of foreign-born population by country of birth – Netherlands**

Thousands

	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	2024	Of which: Women 2024 (%)
Türkiye	195.1	192.7	191.0	190.8	192.0	194.3	198.0	200.0	205.0	215.7	225.5	49
Poland	96.2	108.5	117.9	126.6	135.6	145.2	155.2	164.2	173.5	183.0	189.4	52
Suriname	182.6	181.0	179.5	178.6	178.2	178.3	178.8	178.4	177.9	177.9	178.7	56
Morocco	168.5	168.6	168.5	168.7	169.2	170.5	172.2	172.7	173.4	175.3	176.3	50
Syria	9.5	17.9	38.5	65.9	81.8	86.7	91.9	97.4	108.4	124.5	142.3	42
Germany	120.5	119.1	118.6	118.8	119.5	120.6	122.0	122.5	124.0	124.6	124.6	58
Ukraine	14.0	15.0	97.7	114.6	62
Indonesia	129.2	126.4	123.5	120.8	117.9	115.1	112.5	108.8	106.1	103.8	101.5	58
China	61.3	62.5	64.4	66.0	68.3	71.0	74.1	73.5	75.6	78.5	82.6	57
India	22.2	24.3	27.0	30.6	35.3	41.2	48.2	49.2	55.1	65.9	73.7	46
Belgium	52.8	54.0	55.3	56.9	58.6	60.2	61.8	63.5	64.9	65.9	66.9	53
United Kingdom	48.4	49.1	50.2	51.7	53.4	55.8	59.0	61.1	60.9	60.9	61.3	45
Bulgaria	18.3	20.1	21.9	23.7	26.4	29.9	34.7	38.8	43.5	49.0	52.7	49
Romania	14.4	16.4	18.0	20.2	23.7	28.0	32.7	36.0	40.8	46.8	50.5	49
Iraq	40.5	40.7	40.9	43.1	43.9	44.8	45.4	45.9	46.4	47.3	48.3	44
Other countries	793.8	815.0	841.3	874.8	912.0	957.1	1 013.3	1 025.1	1 080.2	1 160.1	1 226.1	..
Total	1 953.4	1 996.3	2 056.5	2 137.2	2 215.9	2 298.7	2 399.8	2 451.2	2 550.8	2 777.0	2 914.9	52

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/408ifz>.

Table B.4. Stocks of foreign-born population by country of birth – New Zealand

Thousands

	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	2024	Of which: Women 2023 (%)
United Kingdom	264.2	254.2	..	49
China	144.2	159.0	..	54
India	117.3	142.9	..	45
Philippines	67.6	99.3	..	49
South Africa	71.4	95.6	..	51
Australia	75.8	86.4	..	52
Fiji	62.3	68.8	..	51
Samoa	55.5	61.5	..	49
United States	28.6	32.8	..	54
Korea	31.0	31.7	..	54
Tonga	26.9	29.3	..	47
Malaysia	19.9	22.5	..	54
Sri Lanka	14.3	19.5	..	47
Netherlands	19.4	17.5	..	50
Germany	16.6	16.3	..	57
Other countries	314.6	330.9	..	
Total	1 329.6	1 468.2	..	51

 Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/408ifz>.

Table B.4. Stocks of foreign-born population by country of birth – Norway

Thousands

	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	2024	Of which: Women 2024 (%)
Poland	84.2	91.2	96.1	97.6	98.6	99.1	101.5	102.5	105.9	107.8	110.0	38
Ukraine	3.9	4.2	4.6	5.0	5.3	5.6	6.2	6.4	6.7	37.0	65.7	59
Sweden	48.6	49.2	49.1	48.3	47.9	47.7	47.7	47.8	48.2	48.5	49.0	49
Lithuania	33.0	35.9	37.4	37.7	38.4	39.4	40.7	41.4	42.1	42.5	42.8	42
Syria	3.1	5.5	9.7	20.8	27.4	30.8	32.0	32.8	34.4	36.2	38.7	42
Germany	27.9	28.2	28.2	28.0	27.8	28.0	28.4	28.7	29.4	29.9	30.4	49
Somalia	25.9	27.0	28.3	28.7	28.8	28.7	28.6	28.4	28.1	27.8	27.7	47
Philippines	19.5	20.6	21.4	22.2	23.1	24.1	25.1	25.0	24.8	26.0	26.8	75
Eritrea	12.4	14.8	17.7	20.1	21.9	22.7	23.2	23.6	24.5	24.8	25.3	44
Thailand	17.3	18.0	18.9	20.1	21.1	22.0	22.8	23.3	23.6	24.2	24.6	81
Denmark	24.4	25.3	25.1	24.8	24.6	24.5	24.4	24.3	24.3	24.3	24.2	47
Pakistan	19.0	19.4	19.7	20.1	20.6	20.9	21.3	21.6	22.2	23.0	23.9	48
Iraq	22.1	22.2	22.2	22.5	23.1	23.3	23.3	23.3	23.3	23.4	23.6	44
United Kingdom	19.0	19.3	19.5	19.4	19.4	19.7	20.3	20.8	21.4	21.7	22.2	38
Russia	16.8	17.2	17.5	17.7	17.9	18.3	18.7	18.9	19.0	20.7	22.2	66
Other countries	327.3	343.7	357.0	366.9	376.5	387.0	403.5	409.3	420.5	439.0	454.1	
Total	704.5	741.8	772.5	799.8	822.4	841.6	867.8	878.2	898.2	956.8	1 011.2	49

 Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/408ifz>.

Table B.4. Stocks of foreign-born population by country of birth – Poland

Thousands

	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	2024	Of which: Women 2024 (%)
EU countries	222.0	219.0	216.3	220.9	247.2	277.1	311.8	225.1	227.1	231.5	236.0	52
Non-EU countries	398.3	392.9	410.1	431.0	448.7	483.7	537.5	710.6	704.0	701.7	699.9	53
Total	620.3	611.9	626.4	651.8	695.9	760.8	849.3	935.7	931.2	933.1	935.9	53

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/408ifz>.**Table B.4. Stocks of foreign-born population by country of birth – Portugal**

Thousands

	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	2024	Of which: Women 2021 (%)
Brazil	271.2	56
Angola	157.0	56
France	103.3	54
Mozambique	65.3	55
Cape Verde	55.3	56
Venezuela	41.0	56
Ukraine	33.6	54
United Kingdom	32.0	48
Germany	28.2	52
Guinea-Bissau	26.1	49
Switzerland	20.9	49
Sao Tome and Principe	20.4	58
Spain	18.2	55
India	17.4	28
Romania	14.6	52
Other countries	184.6
Total	937.0	958.7	980.4	1 002.1	1 023.9	1 045.6	1 067.3	1 089.0	1 105.4	1 222.0	..	53

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/408ifz>.

Table B.4. Stocks of foreign-born population by country of birth – Slovak Republic

Thousands

	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	2024	Of which: Women 2024 (%)
Czechia	88.2	88.0	87.8	88.0	88.0	88.1	88.2	88.2	106.4	104.9	103.8	54
United Kingdom	4.8	5.5	6.3	7.2	8.1	9.1	10.2	11.0	14.4	14.8	15.3	47
Ukraine	9.9	10.1	10.5	10.7	11.1	11.4	11.8	12.1	13.2	13.3	13.6	56
Hungary	17.3	17.1	16.8	16.6	16.3	16.1	15.8	15.7	13.1	12.6	12.4	52
Austria	3.1	3.4	3.7	4.0	4.3	4.7	5.0	5.3	5.9	6.1	6.3	47
Germany	4.6	4.8	5.1	5.4	5.8	6.1	6.5	6.9	5.5	5.8	6.0	45
Romania	8.1	8.3	8.7	9.1	9.3	9.6	9.7	9.8	5.7	5.7	5.7	41
Poland	6.7	6.7	6.9	7.0	7.1	7.3	7.4	7.5	5.0	5.0	5.0	56
Serbia	1.9	1.9	2.0	2.2	2.3	2.4	2.5	2.6	4.1	4.1	4.2	36
Italy	2.7	2.8	3.1	3.4	3.7	3.9	4.0	4.2	3.4	3.4	3.5	33
United States	2.1	2.2	2.3	2.4	2.5	2.6	2.7	2.9	3.3	3.3	3.4	47
Viet Nam	2.1	2.1	2.2	2.2	2.3	2.3	2.4	2.4	3.0	3.0	3.2	40
Russia	2.7	2.8	2.9	2.9	3.0	3.1	3.1	3.2	3.0	3.1	3.2	60
Ireland	0.8	0.9	1.0	1.2	1.3	1.5	1.6	1.7	2.1	2.2	2.3	49
France	2.9	2.9	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0	2.1	2.1	2.1	45
Other countries	17.1	18.1	19.5	21.0	22.2	23.3	24.4	25.5	37.0	37.3	37.7	
Total	174.9	177.6	181.6	186.2	190.3	194.4	198.4	201.9	227.3	227.0	227.5	50

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/408ifz>.**Table B.4. Stocks of foreign-born population by country of birth – Slovenia**

Thousands

	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	2024	Of which: Women 2024 (%)
Bosnia and Herzegovina	100.0	100.9	102.8	104.7	107.7	116.4	126.4	132.6	133.8	138.5	143.6	38
Croatia	47.7	47.0	46.1	45.6	45.0	44.4	43.9	43.3	42.0	40.9	40.1	53
Serbia	26.9	27.1	24.3	24.6	25.4	27.4	29.5	30.2	29.7	30.2	31.0	40
North Macedonia	15.1	15.6	15.9	16.5	17.1	18.2	19.3	19.8	19.9	20.7	21.6	43
Ukraine	1.7	1.8	2.0	2.3	2.5	2.7	2.8	2.9	3.0	8.7	9.0	64
Germany	7.7	7.6	7.4	7.4	7.3	7.3	7.3	7.6	7.7	7.7	7.7	48
Russia	1.7	2.1	2.6	2.8	3.0	3.4	3.7	4.0	4.2	4.9	5.9	56
Italy	3.5	3.6	3.8	4.0	4.1	4.3	4.3	4.6	4.7	4.4	4.2	40
Montenegro	2.8	2.8	2.9	3.4	3.3	3.4	3.4	3.4	3.4	3.5	3.5	46
Austria	2.9	2.8	2.7	2.7	2.6	2.7	2.7	2.8	2.9	2.8	2.8	50
China	0.9	0.9	0.9	0.9	1.0	1.1	1.2	1.3	1.2	1.2	1.2	46
Türkiye	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.7	1.1	16
Switzerland	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	0.9	0.9	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.1	1.1	45
France	1.2	1.2	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.1	49
Bulgaria	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.3	1.5	1.2	1.1	1.0	1.0	47
Other countries	20.9	21.9	26.3	27.0	27.7	30.1	33.3	36.5	38.4	42.0	45.0	
Total	235.3	237.6	241.2	245.4	250.2	265.1	281.6	292.8	294.5	309.3	319.9	42

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/408ifz>.

Table B.4. Stocks of foreign-born population by country of birth – Spain

Thousands

	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	2024	Of which: Women 2024 (%)
Morocco	712.5	699.9	696.8	699.5	713.8	752.2	803.8	930.2	960.0	1 026.4	1 092.9	42
Colombia	353.2	347.5	347.2	361.5	386.1	431.1	499.2	532.3	564.2	715.7	856.6	57
Venezuela	154.3	160.5	174.0	199.4	245.0	311.8	383.5	412.0	441.0	518.9	599.8	54
Romania	670.1	646.2	627.8	611.9	595.7	587.1	579.3	565.7	547.0	538.7	532.5	53
Ecuador	429.4	416.4	409.4	408.2	408.7	411.9	418.9	415.9	419.0	430.8	448.6	54
Argentina	255.3	251.8	252.1	255.5	261.0	272.8	296.0	302.6	327.5	373.1	416.0	50
Peru	186.9	184.8	185.8	190.5	200.5	216.8	241.5	249.6	264.1	322.4	378.9	56
Cuba	127.5	131.1	134.8	139.0	145.0	155.4	169.8	166.1	176.8	198.6	223.5	54
France	205.4	203.7	204.4	205.7	207.9	211.9	216.1	209.5	212.2	215.3	217.2	51
Ukraine	78.8	81.6	88.3	92.5	96.8	101.8	106.9	111.6	113.2	197.2	215.7	61
Honduras	37.9	41.3	47.4	56.8	73.4	95.2	121.4	140.3	149.8	177.6	201.3	68
Dominican Republic	154.1	156.9	159.7	164.3	170.5	176.9	183.7	185.2	187.7	193.7	201.2	59
China	155.7	155.7	158.7	161.9	165.9	171.5	176.7	190.8	189.7	192.3	198.8	54
Bolivia	157.5	150.7	148.3	148.6	150.2	153.1	156.6	176.8	178.7	183.7	189.3	59
Brazil	101.5	99.2	101.5	107.7	115.5	127.6	140.7	153.9	153.5	167.3	179.0	61
Other countries	2 178.1	2 163.9	2 182.0	2 221.6	2 262.8	2 361.8	2 502.7	2 512.3	2 583.9	2 752.5	2 886.9	
Total	5 958.3	5 891.2	5 918.3	6 024.5	6 198.8	6 539.0	6 996.8	7 254.8	7 468.1	8 204.2	8 838.2	52

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/408ifz>.**Table B.4. Stocks of foreign-born population by country of birth – Sweden**

Thousands

	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	2024	Of which: Women 2024 (%)
Syria	41.7	67.7	98.2	149.4	172.3	186.0	191.5	193.6	196.1	197.8	197.2	45
Iraq	128.9	130.2	131.9	135.1	140.8	144.0	146.0	146.4	146.8	146.8	145.6	46
Finland	161.1	158.5	156.0	153.6	150.9	147.9	144.6	140.3	136.6	133.1	129.4	61
Poland	78.2	81.7	85.5	88.7	91.2	92.8	93.7	93.8	95.1	98.4	100.7	51
Iran	67.2	68.4	69.1	70.6	74.1	77.4	80.1	81.3	83.1	85.5	86.8	48
Somalia	54.2	57.9	60.6	63.9	66.4	68.7	70.2	70.2	70.1	69.5	68.3	50
Afghanistan	25.1	28.4	31.3	34.8	44.0	52.0	58.8	60.9	62.8	65.7	67.7	37
Bosnia and Herzegovina	56.8	57.3	57.7	58.2	58.9	59.4	60.0	60.2	60.2	60.3	60.0	50
India	20.6	21.9	23.2	25.7	29.7	35.2	40.6	42.8	47.4	54.0	58.1	47
Germany	49.0	49.4	49.6	50.2	50.9	51.1	51.4	51.4	53.0	55.6	57.0	52
Türkiye	45.7	46.1	46.4	47.1	48.3	49.9	51.7	52.6	54.0	56.0	56.9	45
Eritrea	16.6	21.8	28.6	35.1	39.1	42.3	45.7	47.2	48.3	49.2	49.6	46
Thailand	37.0	38.1	38.8	39.9	41.2	42.4	43.6	44.3	45.1	45.6	45.9	78
Norway	42.5	42.3	42.1	42.1	42.0	41.7	41.6	41.1	40.6	40.3	40.0	54
China	28.5	29.3	29.0	30.2	31.9	33.9	35.9	36.6	37.2	39.1	38.9	59
Other countries	680.3	704.5	728.3	759.9	795.5	830.8	864.3	884.1	914.3	948.9	968.5	
Total	1 533.5	1 603.6	1 676.3	1 784.5	1 877.1	1 955.6	2 019.7	2 046.7	2 090.5	2 145.7	2 170.6	50

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/408ifz>.

Table B.4. Stocks of foreign-born population by country of birth – Switzerland

Thousands

	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	2024	Of which: Women 2024 (%)
Germany	343.6	348.1	350.5	352.2	353.4	355.3	357.4	360.5	364.5	371.1	379.6	50
Italy	251.3	258.3	263.3	267.3	267.9	268.8	268.9	270.0	271.1	272.7	275.2	44
Portugal	211.5	218.7	222.3	223.1	220.9	217.7	214.1	210.7	207.3	203.8	203.7	46
France	146.8	153.1	158.6	162.5	166.3	169.4	172.8	178.5	183.3	188.6	196.1	49
Türkiye	77.9	78.2	78.7	79.2	79.8	80.4	81.6	82.8	84.5	87.3	92.4	47
North Macedonia	57.0	59.2	61.4	64.3	66.9	69.3	72.3	74.8	77.4	80.3	83.2	48
Spain	64.1	67.1	68.9	69.4	68.9	68.6	68.3	69.0	69.9	71.0	72.3	49
Serbia	62.9	63.4	64.6	65.3	65.7	65.9	66.8	67.2	67.4	67.6	67.8	52
Ukraine	7.9	8.6	9.3	9.8	10.1	10.6	11.2	11.8	12.5	13.6	61.1	67
Austria	59.9	60.0	60.1	59.8	59.6	59.2	58.8	58.5	58.2	58.2	58.4	57
Bosnia and Herzegovina	54.1	55.4	56.4	56.9	57.1	57.4	57.7	57.8	57.7	58.1	58.2	53
Poland	28.1	31.6	34.7	36.7	38.7	40.8	42.9	44.8	46.9	50.6	54.8	51
Brazil	35.5	36.6	37.8	39.1	40.9	42.5	44.0	45.4	46.8	48.5	50.6	68
United Kingdom	44.8	45.2	45.2	45.0	45.3	45.7	46.3	47.4	47.6	47.4	47.5	46
United States	35.9	36.3	36.6	37.0	37.6	38.6	39.0	40.0	40.9	41.7	42.3	52
Other countries	808.3	835.2	868.0	912.4	939.9	963.2	987.8	1 011.2	1 036.6	1 073.4	1 122.9	
Total	2 289.6	2 354.8	2 416.4	2 480.0	2 519.1	2 553.4	2 590.0	2 630.4	2 672.4	2 733.9	2 865.9	51

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/408ifz>.**Table B.4. Stocks of foreign-born population by country of birth – Türkiye**

Thousands

	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	2024	Of which: Women 2024 (%)
Bulgaria	382.1	378.7	374.0	366.2	362.7	361.9	365.1	358.5	351.7	344.6	336.9	55
Germany	259.1	263.3	272.7	277.9	281.9	292.4	316.6	330.3	337.2	333.7	336.3	52
Syria	66.1	76.4	98.1	109.4	163.8	217.9	225.4	276.9	304.1	293.2	286.6	49
Iraq	52.2	97.5	146.1	199.7	283.8	313.8	285.7	327.9	284.9	229.3	191.5	50
Afghanistan	33.8	38.7	59.3	78.7	115.2	142.4	153.9	180.5	186.3	167.4	146.0	42
Iran	30.2	36.2	47.5	53.8	80.2	108.5	89.4	155.0	151.3	139.0	134.4	53
Azerbaijan	46.1	52.8	64.2	71.2	85.3	97.8	85.0	107.1	110.2	113.9	124.7	59
Turkmenistan	19.9	24.9	30.3	45.2	71.2	136.9	97.3	130.3	123.6	118.2	122.3	54
Russia	30.3	34.5	37.8	37.4	47.2	57.0	64.3	86.8	161.5	126.9	116.8	59
Uzbekistan	29.6	36.1	43.7	52.1	63.2	78.0	72.7	109.9	106.0	101.6	107.5	61
Kazakhstan	19.3	21.5	23.1	21.6	29.5	36.2	41.1	58.8	67.9	67.9	69.1	59
Saudi Arabia	12.6	14.6	17.3	25.6	41.3	53.2	49.8	55.7	58.9	55.3	54.1	47
Ukraine	16.2	20.5	23.4	23.9	26.0	29.8	29.0	35.9	63.8	55.3	51.4	73
France	28.1	28.5	33.3	35.3	33.9	37.5	39.5	46.0	46.4	40.7	40.9	52
Kyrgyzstan	13.6	17.2	20.6	23.0	26.7	32.7	29.2	39.5	39.4	38.4	40.5	67
Other countries	420.6	450.9	486.1	502.9	566.8	672.4	666.0	842.5	849.4	777.9	771.7	
Total	1 459.8	1 592.4	1 777.3	1 923.9	2 278.5	2 668.6	2 610.0	3 141.4	3 242.7	3 003.2	2 930.8	54

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/408ifz>.

Table B.4. Stocks of foreign-born population by country of birth – United Kingdom

Thousands

	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	2024	Of which: Women 2021 (%)
India	733	784	807	809	862	837	847	896	49
Poland	764	783	883	907	889	827	746	682	56
Pakistan	419	510	525	523	529	533	519	456	46
Ireland	346	372	391	398	380	358	364	412	55
Germany	279	252	299	299	309	305	310	347	56
Romania	162	220	264	340	410	434	370	329	48
Nigeria	170	206	212	190	205	207	219	312	53
South Africa	201	178	200	245	235	255	229	298	52
Italy	159	168	188	220	237	246	240	280	47
China	118	114	209	226	210	198	211	245	56
Bangladesh	187	198	220	247	259	259	251	223	45
United States	186	158	179	163	159	174	168	196	57
Portugal	111	141	141	142	132	149	175	170	51
France	127	174	146	164	178	183	169	169	54
Australia	123	131	131	135	142	145	155	165	50
Other countries	3 979	4 093	4 193	4 361	4 252	4 372	4 566	4 434	
Total	8 064	8 482	8 988	9 369	9 388	9 482	9 539	9 614	10 031	10 311

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/408ifz>.**Table B.4. Stocks of foreign-born population by country of birth – United States**

Thousands

	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	2024	Of which: Women 2024 (%)
Mexico	11714.5	11 643.3	11 573.7	11 269.9	11 171.9	10 931.9	11 295.3	11 780.9	11 969.8	11 808.6	12 383.9	..
India	2 205.9	2 389.6	2 434.5	2 610.5	2 652.9	2 688.1	3 075.1	3 020.6	2 982.1	3 400.7	3 646.8	..
China	2 155.4	2 298.8	2 342.6	2 452.5	2 455.2	2 481.7	2 135.5	2 148.3	2 379.3	2 374.2	2 297.2	..
Philippines	1 926.3	1 982.4	1 941.7	2 008.1	2 013.8	2 045.2	1 704.0	1 747.2	1 822.4	1 946.8	1 846.2	..
Cuba	1 172.9	1 210.7	1 271.6	1 311.8	1 344.0	1 360.0	1 430.0	1 465.9	1 584.0	1 618.5	1 727.4	..
El Salvador	915.6	927.6	935.7	958.8	1 007.0	1 111.5	1 082.1	1 136.7	1 178.4	1 425.1	1 583.9	..
Guatemala	1 315.5	1 352.4	1 387.0	1 401.8	1 419.3	1 412.1	1 484.3	1 424.9	1 347.5	1 484.2	1 436.2	..
Dominican Republic	997.7	1 063.2	1 085.3	1 162.6	1 177.9	1 169.4	1 244.8	1 248.0	1 347.7	1 311.8	1 333.6	..
Vietnam	588.3	599.0	651.1	655.4	646.3	745.8	831.1	900.7	1 114.8	1 184.7	1 297.0	..
Honduras	1 291.8	1 300.5	1 352.8	1 342.6	1 345.8	1 383.8	1 187.9	1 252.4	1 295.4	1 307.1	1 269.3	..
Columbia	706.8	699.4	704.6	783.0	789.6	808.1	803.0	864.3	920.2	1 043.2	1 168.9	..
Jamaica	216.2	255.5	290.2	351.1	393.8	465.2	527.8	582.6	668.1	839.8	1 133.6	..
Venezuela	628.0	675.5	668.2	679.8	687.2	701.7	735.8	732.0	726.5	827.5	998.3	..
Haiti	1 079.8	1 060.0	1 041.7	1 063.1	1 039.1	1 038.9	891.9	816.8	789.8	805.2	914.8	..
Brazil	705.8	711.1	736.3	744.7	733.4	772.2	680.2	721.9	769.9	882.8	858.4	..
Other countries	14 770.2	15 120.5	15 321.9	15 729.8	15 851.5	15 817.0	15 149.6	15 429.7	16 435.6	16 799.3	17 331.7	
Total	42 390.7	43 289.6	43 738.9	44 525.5	44 728.5	44 932.8	44 258.3	45 272.9	47 331.5	49 059.8	51 227.0	..

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/408ifz>.

Metadata related to Tables A.4 and B.4. Stocks of foreign-born population

Country	Comments	Source
Australia	⑥ Estimated residential population. Reference date: 30 June.	Australian Bureau of Statistics (ABS).
Austria	⑥ Stock of foreign-born residents recorded in the population register. Reference date: 1 January.	Population Register, Statistics Austria.
Belgium	⑥ From 2011 on, includes persons who have lived in Belgium for a continuous period of at least 12 months and persons who arrived in Belgium less than 12 months before the reference time with the intention of staying there for at least one year; also includes asylum seekers. Data for the year 2019 are provisional.	Population Register, Eurostat.
Canada	The foreign-born population covers all persons who are or have ever been a landed immigrant/permanent resident in Canada. The foreign-born population does not include non-permanent residents, on employment or student authorizations, or who are refugee claimants. ⑥ 2016 and 2021: Census, 25% sample data.	Statistics Canada.
Chile	2017: census (INE). 2018-2023: estimate of foreign-born residents in Chile (INE-SERMIG)	INE. Servicio Nacional de Migraciones (SERMIG), Ministry of the Interior and Public Security.
Colombia	UN Migrant stock 2015, 2020 and 2024	United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs, Population Division (2024). International Migrant Stock 2024.
Costa Rica	UN Migrant stock 2015, 2020 and 2024	United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs, Population Division (2024). International Migrant Stock 2024.
Czechia	In Table B4, data broken down by country of birth from 2014 to 2024 are from Eurostat. Break in series in 2021.	Czech Statistical Office, Eurostat
Denmark	⑥ Immigrants according to the national definition, e.g. persons born abroad to parents both foreigner or born abroad. When no information is available on the parents' nationality/country of birth, foreign-born persons are classified as immigrants.	Statistics Denmark.
Estonia	⑥ National population register.	Ministry of the Interior.
Finland	⑥ Population register. Includes foreign-born persons of Finnish origin.	Central Population Register, Statistics Finland.
France	From 2014 on, includes the département of Mayotte. Data by country of birth are available only for EU countries for the most recent years. Includes persons who were born French abroad.	National Institute for Statistics and Economic Studies (INSEE). Eurostat.
Germany	⑥ 2011 Census. Up to 2016, data refers to country of citizenship or former citizenship; from 2017 on, it refers to country of birth. Includes ethnic Germans (Aussiedler). Persons with a migration background and migrant experience of their own in microcensus. Excludes people in shared/community accommodation. For details please refer to the methodological notes: www.destatis.de/EN/Themes/Society-Environment/Population/Households-Families/Methods/mz2020-redesigned-changed.html?nn=23832	Federal Statistical Office.
Greece		Eurostat.
Hungary	⑥ From 2010 on, includes third-country nationals holding a temporary residence permit (for a year or more). From February 2022 on, includes those with temporary protection mostly from Ukraine. From 2012 on, includes refugees and persons under subsidiary protection. Reference date: 1 January.	Population Register, National Directorate-General for Aliens Policing (NDGAP), Central Statistical Office; Central Office Administrative and Electronic Public Services (Central Population Register); Central Statistical Office.
Iceland	⑥ National population register. Numbers from the register are likely to be overestimated. Reference date: 1 January.	Statistics Iceland.
Ireland	⑥ 2011, 2016 and 2022 Censuses. Interpolation for 2017-2021. Persons usually resident and present in their usual residence on census night. 2022-2024: estimates based on Eurostat figures.	Central Statistics Office.
Israel	Estimates are based on the results of the Population Censuses and on the changes that occurred in the population after the Censuses, as recorded in the Population Register. They include Jews and foreign-born members of	Central Bureau of Statistics.

Country	Comments	Source
	other religions (usually family members of Jewish immigrants). 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.	
Italy	⑧ Population register. From 2019 on, the data on foreign resident population takes into account the results of the permanent population census. Reference date: 1 January.	National Institute of Statistics (ISTAT).
Latvia	⑧ Population register. Reference date: 1 January.	Central Statistical Office.
Lithuania	Reference date: 1 January.	Department of Migration.
Luxembourg	⑧ 2011: Census.	Population register. Central Office of Statistics and Economic Studies (Statec).
Mexico	⑧ 2010 and 2020 censuses; 2015 Intercensal Survey. ε Other years, estimation from the National Survey on Occupation and Employment (ENOE).	National Institute of Statistics and Geography (INEGI).
Netherlands	⑧ Reference date: 1 January.	Population register, Central Bureau of Statistics (CBS).
New Zealand	⑧ 2013, 2018 and 2023 Censuses.	Statistics New Zealand.
Norway	⑧ Reference date: 1 January.	Central Population Register, Statistics Norway.
Poland		Eurostat.
Portugal	⑧ 2011 and 2021 censuses. Interpolation for 2012-2020. 2022 and 2023 totals estimated using percent change of the series on Eurostat website.	National Statistical Institute (INE).
Slovak Republic	⑧ Population Register.	Ministry of the Interior.
Slovenia		Eurostat.
Spain	⑧ Population register. Foreign-born recorded in the Municipal Registers irrespective of their legal status. Reference date: 1 January.	Municipal Registers, National Statistics Institute (INE).
Sweden	⑧ Reference date: 1 January.	Population Register, Statistics Sweden.
Switzerland	⑧ Population Register of the Confederation.	Federal Statistical Office.
Türkiye		Turkish Statistical Institute.
United Kingdom	⑧ Until 2019: Foreign-born residents in the Labour Force Survey. 2020-2023: Estimates from the Annual Population Survey.	Office for National Statistics.
United States	⑧ Includes persons who are naturalised and persons who are in an unauthorised status. Excludes children born abroad to US citizen parents. Break in series in 2020: for 2020-24, CPS instead of ACS.	American Community Survey and Current Population Survey, Census Bureau.

Notes: Data for Serbia include persons from Serbia and Montenegro. Some statements may refer to nationalities/countries of birth not shown in this annex but available on line at: <https://data-explorer.oecd.org/s/312>.

Table A.5. Stocks of foreign population by nationality in OECD countries

Thousands and percentages

	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	2024
Austria	1 066	1 146	1 268	1 342	1 396	1 439	1 486	1 531	1 587	1 730	1 801
% of total population	12.5	13.4	14.6	15.3	15.8	16.2	16.7	17.2	17.8	19.3	19.7
Belgium	1 241	1 277	1 333	1 354	1 376	1 414	1 479	1 489	1 515	1 613	1 658
% of total population	11.1	11.4	11.8	11.9	12.1	12.3	12.8	12.9	13.0	13.8	14.1
Canada	2 405	3 185
% of total population	6.7	8.4
Chile	953	..	1 251	1 493
% of total population	5.1	..	6.5	7.7
Czechia	439	449	465	493	524	564	593	633	659	1 114	1 066
% of total population	4.2	4.3	4.4	4.7	5.0	5.4	5.6	6.0	6.3	10.6	9.9
Denmark	397	423	463	485	506	526	537	539	562	621	650
% of total population	7.0	7.5	8.1	8.5	8.8	9.1	9.2	9.2	9.6	10.5	10.9
Estonia	212	211	212	212	214	216	216	200	203	237	247
% of total population	16.1	16.1	16.1	16.1	16.2	16.3	16.2	15.1	15.3	17.9	18.1
Finland	208	220	230	244	249	258	268	279	296	324	373
% of total population	3.8	4.0	4.2	4.4	4.5	4.7	4.8	5.0	5.4	5.8	6.6
France	4 227	4 431	4 545	4 606	4 951	5 042	5 174	5 303	5 458	5 629	6 029
% of total population	6.7	7.0	7.1	7.2	7.7	7.8	8.0	8.2	8.5	8.7	9.1
Germany	7 634	8 153	9 108	10 039	10 624	10 915	11 228	11 432	11 818	13 384	13 896
% of total population	9.3	9.9	11.1	12.2	12.8	13.1	13.5	13.7	14.2	16.1	16.4
Greece	855	822	798	810	816	832	906	922	748	764	744
% of total population	7.9	7.6	7.4	7.6	7.7	7.8	8.6	8.8	7.2	7.4	7.3
Hungary	141	146	157	151	162	181	200	194	203	226	251
% of total population	1.4	1.5	1.6	1.5	1.7	1.8	2.0	2.0	2.1	2.2	2.6
Iceland	23	24	26	30	38	44	49	51	55	65	63
% of total population	7.0	7.4	8.0	8.9	10.8	12.4	13.6	13.9	14.8	17.4	16.2
Ireland	604	606	607	567	594	623	644	646	801
% of total population	13.1	13.0	13.0	11.9	12.4	12.8	13.1	13.0	16.0
Italy	4 921	5 014	5 027	5 047	5 144	4 996	5 040	5 172	5 031	5 141	5 254
% of total population	8.2	8.3	8.4	8.4	8.6	8.4	8.5	8.7	8.5	8.7	8.8
Japan	2 066	2 122	2 232	2 383	2 562	2 731	2 933	2 887	2 761	3 075	3 411
% of total population	1.6	1.7	1.8	1.9	2.0	2.2	2.3	2.3	2.2	2.5	2.7
Korea	1 304	1 489	1 595	1 663	1 750	1 951	2 025	1 889	1 830	1 956	2 163
% of total population	2.6	2.9	3.1	3.2	3.4	3.8	3.9	3.6	3.5	3.8	4.2
Latvia	305	298	289	279	273	267	260	252	245	262	258
% of total population	15.1	14.9	14.6	14.2	14.0	13.8	13.7	13.4	13.2	14.2	13.7
Lithuania	22	22	19	20	27	47	66	80	100	189	222
% of total population	0.7	0.8	0.6	0.7	0.9	1.6	2.3	2.8	3.6	6.9	7.7
Luxembourg	249	259	269	281	288	291	296	299	304	313	318
% of total population	45.3	46.0	46.7	47.7	47.9	47.5	47.4	47.2	47.2	48.1	47.4
Mexico	355	382	424	462	480	580	720
% of total population	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.6
Netherlands	816	847	901	972	1 041	1 111	1 192	1 203	1 256	1 445	1 544
% of total population	4.8	5.0	5.3	5.7	6.0	6.4	6.9	6.9	7.2	8.2	8.5
Norway	483	512	538	559	568	584	605	602	586	611	633
% of total population	9.5	9.9	10.3	10.6	10.7	11.0	11.3	11.2	10.8	11.2	11.4
Poland	101	108	150	210	239	290	358	447	442	436	430
% of total population	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.6	0.8	0.9	1.2	1.2	1.1	1.1

	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	2024
Portugal	401	395	389	398	422	480	590	662	699	781	1 044
% of total population	3.8	3.8	3.8	3.9	4.1	4.7	5.7	6.4	6.8	7.6	10.0
Slovak Republic	59	62	66	70	73	76	79	82	63	64	66
% of total population	1.1	1.1	1.2	1.3	1.3	1.4	1.4	1.5	1.2	1.1	1.2
Slovenia	97	102	108	114	122	207	197	216	231	207	203
% of total population	4.7	4.9	5.2	5.5	5.8	9.8	9.3	10.2	10.9	9.7	9.6
Spain	4 677	4 454	4 418	4 419	4 563	4 840	5 227	5 403	5 509	6 090	6 502
% of total population	10.1	9.6	9.5	9.5	9.8	10.3	11.0	11.4	11.6	12.8	13.6
Sweden	695	739	783	852	897	932	941	892	868	865	844
% of total population	7.2	7.5	7.9	8.5	8.9	9.1	9.1	8.6	8.3	8.2	8.0
Switzerland	1 887	1 947	1 994	2 030	2 054	2 081	2 111	2 152	2 190	2 242	2 313
% of total population	23.2	23.6	23.9	24.1	24.2	24.4	24.5	24.8	25.1	25.6	26.0
Türkiye	457	518	650	816	919	1 211	1 531	1 792	1 824	1 571	1 481
% of total population	0.6	0.7	0.8	1.0	1.1	1.5	1.8	2.1	2.1	1.8	1.7
United Kingdom	5 154	5 592	5 951	6 137	5 991	6 194	6 101	6 013
% of total population	8.0	8.6	9.1	9.3	9.0	9.3	9.1	9.0
United States	21 325	22 236	22 824	22 759	22 942	22 519	21 434	22 165	23 825	24 595	26 287
% of total population	6.6	6.9	7.0	6.9	6.9	6.8	6.4	6.6	7.1	7.3	7.6

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the Tables B.5.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/ndruz9>

Table B.5. Stocks of foreign population by nationality – Austria

Thousands

	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	2024	Of which: Women 2024 (%)
Germany	164.8	170.5	176.5	181.6	186.8	192.4	200.0	208.7	216.7	225.0	232.7	50
Romania	59.7	73.4	82.9	92.1	102.3	112.7	123.5	131.8	138.4	147.5	153.4	50
Türkiye	114.7	115.4	116.0	116.8	117.3	117.2	117.6	117.6	117.6	119.7	124.1	48
Serbia	112.5	114.3	116.6	118.5	120.2	121.3	122.1	122.0	121.6	121.9	122.2	49
Hungary	46.3	54.9	63.6	70.6	77.1	82.7	87.5	91.4	94.4	99.7	107.3	52
Croatia	62.0	66.5	70.2	73.3	76.7	80.0	83.6	89.0	95.3	101.8	106.7	47
Bosnia and Herzegovina	91.0	92.5	94.0	94.6	95.2	95.8	96.6	97.0	97.3	98.5	99.8	47
Syria	4.3	11.3	33.3	41.7	48.1	49.8	51.5	55.4	68.4	82.2	95.2	36
Ukraine	7.5	8.6	9.7	10.2	10.7	11.2	11.6	11.9	12.7	79.6	80.7	65
Poland	50.3	54.3	57.6	60.1	62.2	63.4	64.4	65.6	66.1	67.2	67.9	47
Afghanistan	14.0	16.8	35.6	45.3	45.7	44.4	43.7	44.0	45.1	47.4	49.8	36
Slovak Republic	28.6	32.1	35.3	38.1	40.2	42.0	43.6	45.4	46.7	48.5	49.8	59
Bulgaria	15.9	19.6	22.4	24.9	27.4	29.9	32.5	34.2	35.9	38.5	39.8	50
Italy	20.2	22.5	25.3	27.3	29.2	30.9	32.5	34.3	35.7	37.7	39.4	43
Russia	28.8	30.0	31.2	32.0	32.4	32.6	32.9	33.3	33.9	35.6	37.3	58
Other countries	245.7	263.5	297.4	314.9	324.4	332.5	342.7	349.5	360.8	379.2	394.7	
Total	1 066.1	1 146.1	1 267.7	1 341.9	1 395.9	1 438.9	1 486.2	1 531.1	1 586.7	1 729.8	1 800.9	49

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/ndruz9>.

Table B.5. Stocks of foreign population by nationality – Belgium

Thousands

	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	2024	Of which: Women 2024 (%)
France	155.9	158.8	161.8	163.7	164.9	166.9	170.9	173.8	175.6	178.6	180.5	52
Netherlands	146.0	148.9	151.7	153.2	154.7	157.1	159.5	160.9	163.1	166.0	167.9	48
Italy	156.4	156.6	156.8	156.3	155.6	155.5	155.7	154.7	153.4	153.0	152.1	46
Romania	56.7	65.3	73.2	79.8	86.6	94.9	105.5	111.3	116.0	123.4	127.5	43
Morocco	80.9	82.3	83.0	82.6	81.3	80.3	80.9	80.9	81.7	82.1	82.2	55
Spain	57.3	59.9	61.7	62.6	63.6	65.1	67.9	70.0	73.1	77.0	80.3	49
Poland	64.9	68.1	70.4	71.1	71.2	71.0	71.0	70.1	68.8	68.6	67.9	53
Ukraine	4.3	4.9	5.1	5.0	5.1	5.3	5.8	5.9	6.2	55.6	64.1	60
Portugal	41.1	42.6	44.2	45.6	46.4	47.5	49.1	50.2	51.5	53.3	55.3	46
Bulgaria	25.6	28.6	31.3	32.9	34.8	37.0	40.6	43.1	45.2	48.0	49.0	48
Türkiye	37.4	37.2	37.1	37.0	37.0	37.5	38.8	39.0	40.0	42.2	45.2	45
Germany	39.4	39.1	39.3	39.3	39.2	39.5	39.7	40.0	40.2	40.6	41.0	52
Syria	4.6	7.4	18.0	22.1	27.5	30.8	33.1	32.8	32.3	32.3	33.8	44
Afghanistan	8.5	9.6	17.5	19.0	19.2	19.7	22.7	23.3	27.8	32.4	32.5	28
Dem. Rep. of the Congo	22.0	22.1	22.3	22.3	22.5	22.5	22.8	22.7	22.8	23.1	23.5	51
Other countries	340.1	345.6	360.1	361.3	366.9	383.2	415.0	410.5	417.1	436.3	455.2	
Total	1 241.2	1 276.9	1 333.2	1 353.8	1 376.4	1 413.8	1 478.8	1 489.2	1 514.9	1 612.5	1 657.9	49

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/ndruz9>.

Table B.5. Stocks of foreign population by nationality – Canada

Thousands

	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	2024	Of which: Women 2021 (%)
India	274.2	644.3	46
China	340.6	387.0	54
Philippines	259.2	289.4	55
United States	149.7	133.4	55
United Kingdom	113.9	95.4	46
France	65.2	87.8	46
Korea	60.5	72.0	58
Nigeria	27.2	71.6	49
Syria	35.9	65.8	48
Iran	52.2	65.2	50
Pakistan	59.2	59.3	50
Mexico	35.6	58.3	47
Brazil	19.7	48.6	51
Viet Nam	23.5	37.9	60
Germany	46.6	37.4	52
Other countries	841.6	1 031.9	
Total	2 404.8	3 185.3	51

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/ndruz9>.**Table B.5. Stocks of foreign population by nationality – Czechia**

Thousands

	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	2024	Of which: Women 2024 (%)
Ukraine	105.1	104.2	105.6	109.9	117.1	131.3	145.2	165.4	196.6	635.9	574.4	54
Slovak Republic	90.9	96.2	101.6	107.3	111.8	116.8	121.3	124.5	114.6	117.3	119.2	49
Viet Nam	57.3	56.6	56.9	58.0	59.8	61.1	61.9	62.8	64.8	66.3	67.8	47
Russia	33.1	34.4	34.7	35.8	36.6	38.0	38.0	41.7	45.2	43.3	41.0	56
Romania	6.8	7.7	9.1	10.8	12.6	14.7	16.8	18.4	18.8	19.7	20.5	34
Bulgaria	9.1	10.1	11.0	12.3	13.8	15.6	17.2	17.9	17.3	17.7	17.9	37
Poland	19.5	19.6	19.8	20.3	20.7	21.3	21.8	20.7	17.9	17.9	17.8	55
Germany	18.5	19.7	20.5	21.2	21.3	21.3	21.5	20.9	14.8	14.0	12.7	25
Mongolia	5.3	5.5	6.0	6.8	7.9	9.1	9.8	10.1	11.0	12.0	12.7	52
Hungary	1.5	2.3	3.1	4.1	5.4	6.6	7.7	8.9	9.7	10.5	11.1	38
United States	7.1	6.5	6.5	8.8	9.6	9.5	7.2	7.5	8.7	9.7	10.1	43
Kazakhstan	4.8	5.0	5.1	5.5	5.7	6.0	5.9	6.9	8.0	9.1	9.8	52
India	1.5	1.7	2.0	2.8	3.6	4.5	4.9	5.8	6.9	8.5	9.6	32
China	5.5	5.6	5.7	6.2	6.9	7.6	7.7	8.0	7.9	8.0	8.9	48
United Kingdom	5.4	5.6	6.0	6.3	6.7	7.1	8.3	9.1	7.9	7.9	7.9	24
Other countries	67.6	68.7	71.0	77.5	84.8	93.9	98.1	103.8	108.4	115.9	124.4	
Total	439.2	449.4	464.7	493.4	524.1	564.3	593.4	632.6	658.6	1 113.7	1 065.7	49

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/ndruz9>.

Table B.5. Stocks of foreign population by nationality – Denmark

Thousands

	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	2024	Of which: Women 2024 (%)
Poland	29.3	32.3	35.3	37.6	39.3	40.5	40.8	41.2	43.6	46.6	48.5	45
Romania	15.4	18.8	22.4	25.3	27.8	30.7	32.4	33.8	38.3	43.2	45.1	42
Ukraine	7.0	7.9	8.6	9.2	10.2	11.7	12.7	12.8	13.7	40.6	42.8	59
Syria	4.4	9.8	21.6	31.0	33.6	34.7	34.9	35.6	35.8	35.8	36.3	45
Germany	22.7	23.0	23.7	24.4	24.8	25.5	26.1	26.5	28.2	31.1	33.3	51
Türkiye	28.9	28.8	28.8	28.1	28.2	28.3	28.4	28.4	28.5	29.0	29.5	49
Sweden	13.9	14.4	14.9	15.1	15.7	16.1	16.5	17.0	17.6	18.2	18.6	56
United Kingdom	15.8	16.1	16.7	17.6	18.3	18.8	19.0	18.7	18.2	18.0	17.9	35
Norway	15.5	15.8	16.4	16.7	16.8	16.8	17.0	17.0	17.1	17.3	17.3	61
Italy	6.4	7.2	8.1	9.0	9.6	10.2	10.9	11.7	13.5	15.5	16.7	41
India	5.6	6.3	7.5	8.7	9.6	10.9	12.0	11.9	12.8	14.9	16.7	45
Lithuania	9.7	10.4	11.5	12.4	13.5	14.5	14.7	14.7	15.4	15.8	15.7	48
Bulgaria	6.1	7.2	8.2	9.0	9.7	10.4	10.8	11.2	12.4	13.6	14.0	41
Iran	6.4	7.2	7.9	8.0	8.9	9.3	9.6	10.0	10.6	11.8	13.5	46
China	8.4	8.9	9.6	10.1	10.5	10.9	11.3	10.9	11.2	11.5	12.1	57
Other countries	201.9	208.3	221.9	222.7	229.5	236.5	240.0	238.2	245.3	258.4	271.9	
Total	397.3	422.6	463.1	485.0	506.0	525.9	537.1	539.5	562.2	621.2	650.0	50

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/ndruz9>.

Table B.5. Stocks of foreign population by nationality – Estonia

Thousands

	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	2024	Of which: Women 2024 (%)
Russia	93.6	92.6	91.4	90.3	89.0	88.1	86.0	82.9	81.7	81.0	79.3	53
Stateless	87.1	84.3	81.4	78.9	76.8	74.6	70.4	69.1	66.6	64.3	62.2	47
Ukraine	5.7	6.3	7.2	7.8	8.3	9.3	10.4	13.4	15.9	48.7	60.4	54
Latvia	3.3	3.6	3.9	4.2	5.0	5.6	6.3	4.8	5.0	5.4	5.5	43
Finland	5.7	6.3	6.9	7.6	8.2	8.8	9.2	4.7	4.7	4.6	4.5	37
Belarus	1.6	1.6	1.6	1.7	1.8	1.9	2.0	2.3	2.7	3.0	3.0	47
Germany	1.9	2.2	2.6	3.0	3.3	3.6	3.9	1.7	1.8	2.0	2.0	39
Lithuania	2.0	2.1	2.2	2.3	2.4	2.5	2.6	1.9	1.9	1.9	1.9	44
India	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.6	0.9	..	1.3	1.6	1.8	34
Italy	0.9	1.1	1.3	1.5	1.7	2.0	2.2	..	1.3	1.4	1.4	30
Nigeria	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.7	..	1.1	1.3	1.4	41
France	0.8	0.9	1.1	1.3	1.5	1.7	2.0	..	1.3	1.4	1.3	32
Türkiye	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.5	..	0.7	0.9	1.1	31
United Kingdom	0.9	0.9	1.1	1.2	1.3	1.4	1.6	..	1.1	1.1	1.1	19
United States	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.7	0.7	..	0.9	0.9	1.0	33
Other countries	7.4	8.4	9.6	11.0	12.6	14.4	16.3	19.6	14.7	17.1	19.4	
Total	211.7	211.4	211.5	212.2	213.7	216.4	215.6	200.5	202.7	236.8	247.4	49

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/ndruz9>.

Table B.5. Stocks of foreign population by nationality – Finland

Thousands

	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	2024	Of which: Women 2024 (%)
Estonia	44.8	48.4	50.4	51.5	51.5	51.5	50.9	50.9	51.8	51.8	51.6	47
Russia	30.8	30.6	30.8	31.0	29.2	28.7	28.5	28.9	30.0	33.4	35.4	51
Ukraine	2.7	3.0	3.4	3.8	4.0	4.6	5.1	5.8	7.2	8.4	28.1	54
Iraq	6.4	6.8	7.1	9.8	11.7	13.1	13.9	14.7	15.1	15.3	14.7	37
China	7.1	7.6	8.0	8.5	8.7	9.2	9.8	10.5	11.4	12.3	14.0	53
India	4.4	4.7	5.0	5.0	5.2	5.7	6.8	7.2	8.2	10.5	13.1	42
Philippines	2.0	2.4	2.7	3.0	3.3	3.5	4.2	4.7	5.4	8.1	11.5	63
Afghanistan	3.2	3.5	3.7	5.3	5.8	6.2	6.7	7.1	7.7	8.4	9.2	41
Viet Nam	3.6	4.0	4.6	5.3	5.6	5.9	6.4	6.6	7.2	7.8	8.8	51
Thailand	6.5	6.9	7.2	7.5	7.5	7.6	7.8	7.9	7.9	8.1	8.4	83
Serbia and Montenegro	3.2	3.4	3.5	3.6	3.8	4.0	4.3	4.7	5.4	6.5	7.9	37
Sweden	8.4	8.3	8.2	8.0	8.0	8.0	8.0	8.0	7.9	7.9	7.8	40
Syria	0.5	1.0	1.6	3.4	5.3	6.0	6.6	6.9	7.2	7.9	7.6	47
Türkiye	4.4	4.5	4.6	4.7	4.7	4.8	5.2	5.7	6.1	6.7	7.4	37
Somalia	7.5	7.4	7.3	7.0	6.7	6.4	6.4	6.5	6.6	6.7	6.7	49
Other countries	72.3	77.2	81.7	86.4	88.4	92.2	97.1	102.9	111.3	123.8	140.7	
Total	207.5	219.7	229.8	243.6	249.5	257.6	267.6	278.9	296.5	323.7	373.0	45

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/ndruz9>.**Table B.5. Stocks of foreign population by nationality – France**

Thousands

	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	2024	Of which: Women 2021 (%)
Algeria	..	496.1	505.9	518.4	530.9	537.6	559.8	567.2	49
Portugal	532.2	541.9	546.4	548.9	548.9	540.0	533.0	533.5	535.1	549.5	537.3	47
Morocco	..	458.6	465.2	472.8	480.6	489.3	504.3	510.9	51
Italy	181.9	188.0	194.7	202.7	202.7	211.8	218.3	224.2	231.0	246.0	255.8	46
Tunisia	..	173.1	178.9	187.1	195.4	206.8	216.2	219.0	44
Türkiye	..	215.6	212.6	211.9	210.4	214.2	207.7	210.4	47
Spain	145.1	152.3	157.5	163.7	163.7	168.7	173.9	180.4	187.1	192.4	213.4	50
Comoros	..	116.1	121.8	147.3	155.1	162.1	171.0	175.3	54
United Kingdom	152.7	150.5	148.4	146.2	146.2	149.4	144.7	138.0	49
Romania	87.1	96.9	106.2	116.8	116.8	127.2	128.4	134.0	140.4	147.1	160.7	50
Belgium	97.8	99.3	100.5	101.8	101.8	104.2	104.0	106.4	109.3	117.3	118.9	52
China	..	100.7	100.5	102.2	103.1	108.1	100.4	101.8	59
China	..	100.7	100.5	102.2	103.1	108.1	100.4	101.8	59
Côte d'Ivoire	..	59.6	63.4	68.3	74.5	79.1	90.9	92.0	52
Mali	..	73.4	75.5	78.1	79.1	85.5	88.7	89.9	35
Other countries	..	1 408.8	1 466.7	1 437.3	1 738.5	1 750.0	1 831.9	1 917.7	
Total	4 227.2	4 431.4	4 544.8	4 605.7	4 950.7	5 042.2	5 173.6	5 302.5	5 458.0	5 628.7	6 028.5	50

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/ndruz9>.

Table B.5. Stocks of foreign population by nationality – Germany

Thousands

	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	2024	Of which: Women 2024 (%)
Türkiye	1 549.8	1 527.1	1 506.1	1 492.6	1 483.5	1 476.4	1 472.4	1 461.9	1 458.4	1 487.1	1 548.1	47
Ukraine	122.4	127.9	133.8	136.3	138.0	141.4	143.5	145.5	155.3	1 164.2	1 239.7	61
Syria	56.9	118.2	366.6	637.8	699.0	745.6	789.5	818.5	867.6	923.8	972.5	40
Romania	267.4	355.3	452.7	533.7	622.8	696.3	748.2	799.2	844.5	883.7	909.8	43
Poland	609.9	674.2	741.0	783.1	866.9	860.1	862.5	866.7	871.0	880.8	887.7	47
Italy	552.9	574.5	596.1	611.5	643.1	643.5	646.5	648.4	646.8	645.0	644.0	43
Bulgaria	146.8	183.3	226.9	263.3	310.4	337.0	360.2	388.7	410.9	429.7	436.9	47
Croatia	240.5	263.3	297.9	332.6	367.9	395.7	414.9	426.8	434.6	436.3	434.0	47
Afghanistan	67.0	75.4	131.5	253.5	251.6	257.1	263.4	271.8	309.8	377.2	419.4	35
Greece	316.3	328.6	339.9	348.5	362.2	363.2	363.7	364.3	362.6	361.3	359.0	46
Russia	216.3	221.4	231.0	245.4	249.2	254.3	260.4	263.3	268.6	290.6	308.0	61
Iraq	85.5	88.7	136.4	227.2	237.4	247.8	255.1	259.5	276.9	284.6	281.3	43
Serbia	205.0	220.9	230.4	223.1	225.5	231.2	237.8	242.6	252.3	263.1	270.8	49
India	67.5	76.1	86.3	97.9	109.0	124.1	143.7	150.8	171.9	210.4	246.1	40
Bosnia and Herzegovina	157.5	163.5	168.0	172.6	181.0	190.5	203.3	211.3	222.1	233.8	245.3	47
Other countries	2 972.0	3 154.5	3 463.3	3 680.1	3 876.5	3 951.2	4 063.4	4 113.1	4 264.4	4 512.4	4 693.2	
Total	7 633.6	8 153.0	9 107.9	10 039.1	10 623.9	10 915.5	11 228.3	11 432.5	11 817.8	13 383.9	13 895.9	47

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/ndruz9>.**Table B.5. Stocks of foreign population by nationality – Greece**

Thousands

	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	2024	Of which: Women 2024 (%)
EU	192.6	198.7	206.7	205.2	211.2	213.2	191.1	168.6	115.2	114.9	114.7	64
Non-EU	662.4	623.2	584.7	604.8	604.9	618.5	715.2	752.9	632.7	649.2	629.1	46
Total	855.0	822.0	798.4	810.0	816.1	831.7	906.3	921.5	747.9	764.1	743.8	49

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/ndruz9>.

Table B.5. Stocks of foreign population by nationality – Hungary

Thousands

	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	2024	Of which: Women 2024 (%)
Ukraine	8.3	6.9	6.7	5.8	10.5	24.2	30.3	27.4	30.7	36.0	27.4	53
Germany	18.7	18.8	19.4	18.6	17.9	16.5	18.3	17.5	19.7	22.3	23.3	48
China	12.7	16.5	19.8	19.1	19.9	18.9	19.7	18.6	17.7	18.2	21.2	48
Slovak Republic	8.3	8.7	9.4	9.5	9.7	9.6	10.6	14.7	16.0	16.7	16.9	54
Romania	30.9	28.6	29.7	24.0	22.7	21.0	22.2	18.2	16.6	16.5	15.7	34
Viet Nam	3.1	3.1	3.2	3.3	3.7	4.7	5.7	6.7	6.4	7.2	15.4	42
Philippines	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.5	1.0	2.7	8.3	32
Russia	3.7	4.3	4.9	4.9	4.8	5.1	5.3	5.0	5.0	6.2	7.8	55
India	0.9	1.0	1.3	1.5	2.0	2.9	3.2	3.3	3.8	5.2	7.0	26
Korea	1.1	1.2	1.1	1.1	1.4	1.8	2.4	3.2	3.6	4.5	6.0	28
Türkiye	1.7	1.8	1.9	2.1	2.3	2.8	3.2	3.2	3.5	3.9	5.2	26
Austria	3.9	4.0	4.0	4.0	3.7	3.1	3.3	4.1	4.6	5.0	5.0	40
Mongolia	0.8	0.7	0.8	0.8	0.9	1.5	1.8	1.8	1.9	2.7	4.2	51
Italy	2.3	2.7	3.1	3.4	3.6	3.6	4.0	3.7	3.7	3.9	3.9	30
Serbia	3.1	2.4	2.4	2.3	3.4	5.3	5.0	3.5	3.5	4.0	3.9	25
Other countries	40.9	44.9	48.6	50.4	55.1	59.4	64.4	63.0	64.9	71.2	79.8	
Total	140.5	146.0	156.6	151.1	161.8	180.8	200.0	194.5	202.5	226.3	250.9	43

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/ndruz9>.**Table B.5. Stocks of foreign population by nationality – Iceland**

Thousands

	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	2024	Of which: Women 2024 (%)
Poland	10.2	11.1	12.1	13.8	17.0	19.3	20.6	20.8	21.2	23.4	22.7	42
Lithuania	1.7	1.7	1.8	2.3	3.4	4.1	4.6	4.6	4.8	5.2	4.6	36
Ukraine	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	2.5	3.6	57
Romania	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.6	1.0	1.5	2.1	2.2	2.8	3.7	3.4	28
Latvia	0.7	0.7	0.8	0.9	1.4	1.9	2.1	2.2	2.4	2.7	2.3	32
Portugal	0.5	0.6	0.7	0.8	1.0	1.2	1.4	1.3	1.4	1.7	1.6	36
Spain	0.3	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.8	0.9	1.1	1.2	1.4	1.7	1.5	44
Germany	0.9	1.0	1.0	1.1	1.2	1.3	1.4	1.5	1.7	1.9	1.4	65
Venezuela	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.2	0.3	0.5	1.3	1.4	45
Philippines	0.6	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.7	0.9	1.0	1.0	1.1	1.2	1.3	61
United States	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.7	0.7	0.8	0.9	1.0	1.1	1.0	52
Croatia	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.2	0.4	0.7	0.9	0.9	1.0	1.1	1.0	33
Viet Nam	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.6	1.0	49
United Kingdom	0.6	0.7	0.8	0.8	0.9	1.0	1.2	1.3	1.2	1.2	0.9	31
Czechia	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.5	0.7	0.8	0.7	0.8	0.9	0.9	46
Other countries	5.8	6.0	6.5	7.2	8.4	9.5	10.6	11.6	13.0	14.9	14.9	
Total	22.7	24.3	26.5	30.3	37.8	44.3	49.4	51.3	55.0	65.0	63.5	43

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/ndruz9>.

Table B.5. Stocks of foreign population by nationality – Ireland

Thousands

	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	2024	Of which: Women 2022 (%)
Poland	122.5	93.7	50
United Kingdom	114.9	115.5	103.1	107.7	110.8	114.5	116.9	118.2	83.3	46
India	11.5	45.4	46
Romania	29.2	43.3	46
Lithuania	36.6	31.2	54
Brazil	13.6	27.3	53
Italy	11.7	18.3	47
Latvia	19.9	18.3	56
Spain	12.1	18.0	57
France	11.7	13.9	51
Croatia	5.3	13.6	45
United States	10.5	13.4	61
China	1.0	13.1	53
China	1.0	13.1	53
Germany	11.5	12.4	57
Other countries	206.2	343.1	
Total	603.7	605.6	607.4	566.6	593.5	622.7	644.4	645.6	801.4	50

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/ndruz9>.

Table B.5. Stocks of foreign population by nationality – Italy

Thousands

	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	2024	Of which: Women 2024 (%)
Romania	1 081.4	1 131.8	1 151.4	1 168.6	1 190.1	1 143.9	1 145.7	1 076.4	1 083.8	1 081.8	1 073.2	56
Albania	495.7	490.5	467.7	448.4	440.5	423.2	421.6	433.2	420.0	416.8	416.2	49
Morocco	454.8	449.1	437.5	420.7	416.5	406.1	414.2	428.9	420.2	415.1	412.3	45
China	256.8	265.8	271.3	282.0	290.7	283.4	288.9	330.5	300.2	307.0	309.0	49
Ukraine	219.1	226.1	230.7	234.4	237.0	227.9	228.6	236.0	225.3	249.6	273.5	76
Bangladesh	111.2	115.3	118.8	122.4	132.0	131.0	138.9	158.0	159.0	174.1	192.7	28
India	142.5	147.8	150.5	151.4	151.8	147.2	153.2	165.5	162.5	167.3	170.9	43
Egypt	96.0	103.7	109.9	112.8	119.5	119.9	128.1	139.6	140.3	147.8	161.6	32
Pakistan	90.6	96.2	101.8	108.2	114.2	116.6	121.6	135.5	134.2	144.1	159.3	26
Philippines	162.7	168.2	165.9	166.5	167.9	158.0	157.7	165.4	159.0	158.9	156.6	57
Nigeria	66.8	71.2	77.3	88.5	106.1	114.1	113.0	119.1	119.4	123.6	128.5	43
Senegal	90.9	94.0	98.2	101.2	105.9	105.3	106.2	111.1	110.8	112.6	115.0	27
Sri Lanka	95.0	100.6	102.3	104.9	108.0	104.8	107.6	112.0	108.1	109.8	110.5	48
Tunisia	97.3	96.0	95.6	94.1	93.8	90.6	93.4	97.4	99.0	102.4	110.4	37
Peru	109.9	109.7	103.7	99.1	97.4	91.9	91.7	96.5	94.1	98.7	105.3	58
Other countries	1 350.7	1 348.5	1 344.3	1 344.0	1 373.2	1 332.3	1 329.3	1 366.7	1 294.9	1 331.5	1 358.6	
Total	4 921.3	5 014.4	5 026.9	5 047.0	5 144.4	4 996.2	5 039.6	5 171.9	5 030.7	5 141.3	5 253.7	50

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/ndruz9>.

Table B.5. Stocks of foreign population by nationality – Japan

Thousands

	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	2024	Of which: Women 2024 (%)
China	649.1	654.8	665.8	695.5	730.9	764.7	813.7	778.1	716.6	761.6	821.8	53
Viet Nam	72.3	99.9	147.0	200.0	262.4	330.8	412.0	448.1	432.9	489.3	565.0	46
Korea	519.7	501.2	457.8	453.1	450.7	449.6	446.4	426.9	409.9	411.3	410.2	54
Philippines	209.2	217.6	229.6	243.7	260.6	271.3	282.8	279.7	276.6	298.7	322.0	67
Brazil	181.3	175.4	173.4	180.9	191.4	201.9	211.7	208.5	204.9	209.4	211.8	46
Nepal	31.5	42.3	54.8	67.5	80.0	89.0	96.8	96.0	97.1	139.4	176.3	46
Indonesia	27.2	30.2	35.9	42.9	50.0	56.3	66.9	66.8	59.8	98.9	149.1	32
Myanmar	8.6	10.3	13.7	17.8	22.5	26.5	32.0	35.0	37.2	56.2	86.5	56
Chinese Taipei	33.3	40.2	48.7	52.8	56.7	60.7	64.8	55.9	51.2	57.3	64.7	65
United States	50.0	51.3	52.3	53.7	55.7	57.5	59.2	55.8	54.2	60.8	63.4	33
Thailand	41.2	43.1	45.4	47.6	50.2	52.3	54.8	53.4	50.3	56.7	61.8	71
Peru	48.6	48.0	47.7	47.7	48.0	48.4	48.7	48.3	48.3	48.9	49.1	48
India	22.5	24.5	26.2	28.7	31.7	35.4	40.2	38.6	36.1	43.9	48.8	34
Sri Lanka	9.2	10.7	13.2	17.3	23.3	25.4	27.4	29.3	29.0	37.3	46.9	34
Bangladesh	8.8	9.6	10.8	12.4	14.1	15.5	16.6	17.5	17.5	22.7	28.0	30
Other countries	153.9	162.7	209.8	221.3	233.7	245.8	259.3	249.4	239.0	282.8	305.4	
Total	2 066.4	2 121.8	2 232.2	2 382.8	2 561.8	2 731.1	2 933.1	2 887.1	2 760.6	3 075.2	3 411.0	50

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/ndruz9>.**Table B.5. Stocks of foreign population by nationality – Korea**

Thousands

	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	2024	Of which: Women 2024 (%)
China	651.3	756.4	810.6	826.1	838.9	888.1	889.2	818.8	780.9	779.8	828.7	51
Viet Nam	113.8	122.6	128.0	137.8	151.4	170.7	187.3	181.4	178.9	196.9	227.9	48
Uzbekistan	34.5	39.3	42.5	49.3	56.7	63.1	68.1	61.1	62.5	73.9	82.7	35
United States	69.0	71.1	70.6	69.7	69.1	69.3	71.3	69.5	71.5	75.9	80.3	53
Nepal	20.7	25.5	29.2	33.1	35.4	38.9	40.9	38.5	35.4	44.8	60.7	14
Russia	9.0	9.8	13.2	21.5	28.7	35.3	40.5	38.9	39.6	45.5	55.1	50
Cambodia	30.7	37.3	42.0	44.5	45.7	45.3	45.0	40.2	40.3	45.2	53.9	32
Indonesia	33.3	38.9	40.2	39.3	37.1	37.6	37.3	33.5	30.7	40.5	50.6	10
Philippines	38.8	43.2	45.3	46.1	45.2	45.3	45.4	40.7	38.0	43.0	48.7	43
Thailand	26.2	26.8	27.9	29.3	30.2	31.4	32.6	30.8	31.4	33.8	40.1	39
Myanmar	11.5	14.7	18.1	21.3	23.5	26.7	27.5	25.0	24.3	30.8	39.6	13
Kazakhstan	2.5	3.0	3.9	7.6	12.7	18.5	22.7	19.9	22.0	28.5	33.4	48
Mongolia	18.4	17.3	18.5	20.1	22.6	24.2	24.8	24.5	23.7	27.9	32.5	55
Sri Lanka	21.9	24.6	25.2	26.0	25.3	24.3	23.5	21.2	18.9	22.3	28.3	6
Japan	23.9	24.0	23.8	24.1	24.1	24.7	25.1	23.5	25.1	27.4	28.2	81
Other countries	198.4	234.5	255.8	267.0	302.9	407.7	443.2	421.8	406.5	439.6	471.9	
Total	1 303.8	1 488.9	1 594.8	1 662.8	1 749.6	1 951.1	2 024.6	1 889.5	1 829.8	1 955.8	2 162.6	44

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/ndruz9>.

Table B.5. Stocks of foreign population by nationality – Latvia

Thousands

	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	2024	Of which: Women 2024 (%)
Russia	38.8	51.6	56.0	55.4	54.7	53.9	53.1	52.3	51.5	49.4	45.2	..
Ukraine	2.4	4.1	5.9	6.4	7.0	8.2	9.2	9.4	9.7	8.9	8.3	..
Lithuania	2.9	4.3	4.6	4.8	5.0	5.1	5.1	5.2	5.1	5.1	5.1	..
Belarus	1.7	2.6	2.9	3.0	3.2	3.5	3.9	3.9	4.3	4.3	4.4	..
India	0.6	0.9	1.3	2.2	2.7	2.4	2.2	2.6	4.4	..
Uzbekistan	..	1.0	1.6	1.6	1.6	1.7	2.3	2.4	2.5	3.5	4.1	..
Germany	0.6	1.8	2.2	2.4	2.6	2.5	2.6	2.7	2.6	2.6	2.8	..
United Kingdom	0.8	0.9	1.0	1.1	1.2	1.3	1.4	1.4	1.5	..
Estonia	0.7	1.1	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.3	1.3	1.3	1.3	1.3	..
Israel	..	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.8	1.1	..
Italy	..	0.4	0.5	0.6	0.7	0.8	0.8	0.9	0.9	1.0	1.1	..
France	..	0.4	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.7	0.8	0.9	0.9	0.9	1.0	..
Azerbaijan	..	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.9	..
Sweden	..	0.7	0.8	0.9	0.9	0.9	0.9	0.9	0.8	0.8	0.9	..
United States	0.2	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.7	0.7	0.8	0.8	0.8	..
Other countries	257.6	229.1	209.9	199.1	191.1	183.0	174.6	167.1	159.7	177.6	175.2	
Total	304.8	298.4	288.9	279.4	272.5	266.6	260.4	252.4	245.0	261.8	258.0	52

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/ndruz9>.

Table B.5. Stocks of foreign population by nationality – Lithuania

Thousands

	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	2024	Of which: Women 2024 (%)
Ukraine	1.7	2.1	1.5	2.5	6.2	13.9	21.4	26.9	31.8	94.9	86.4	..
Belarus	2.3	1.9	0.8	0.9	3.2	8.9	15.6	20.8	31.0	48.8	62.2	..
Russia	10.3	10.7	8.9	8.3	8.1	10.9	12.3	12.6	13.4	15.7	15.9	..
Uzbekistan	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.2	0.6	1.0	1.8	8.3	..
Kyrgyzstan	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.3	0.7	2.0	6.2	..
Tajikistan	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.3	0.4	1.4	5.7	..
India	..	0.0	..	0.1	0.4	0.5	0.8	0.9	1.1	1.5	4.7	..
Azerbaijan	0.2	0.2	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.6	1.4	3.8	..
Kazakhstan	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.4	0.5	0.7	0.8	1.2	3.1	..
Stateless	1.8	1.6	1.4	1.3	1.2	1.0	0.9	0.8	2.5	2.4	2.3	..
Georgia	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.3	0.4	0.6	0.7	1.2	2.0	..
Türkiye	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.7	0.9	1.9	..
Moldova	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.2	0.4	0.6	0.9	0.9	1.1	1.4	..
Latvia	0.7	0.7	0.9	0.9	1.1	1.2	1.3	1.4	1.4	1.3	1.3	..
Pakistan	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.2	0.2	0.9	..
Other countries	4.1	4.6	4.8	5.6	6.6	9.1	11.0	12.4	12.9	13.6	15.9	
Total	21.6	22.5	18.7	20.1	27.3	47.2	65.8	79.9	100.1	189.4	221.8	..

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/ndruz9>.

Table B.5. Stocks of foreign population by nationality – Luxembourg

Thousands

	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	2024	Of which: Women 2024 (%)
Portugal	90.8	92.1	93.1	96.8	96.5	95.5	95.1	94.3	93.7	92.1	90.9	47
France	37.2	39.4	41.7	44.3	45.8	46.9	47.8	48.5	49.2	49.1	49.2	46
Italy	18.8	19.5	20.3	21.3	22.0	22.5	23.0	23.5	24.1	24.7	25.1	44
Belgium	18.2	18.8	19.4	20.0	20.2	20.0	19.8	19.6	19.4	19.2	18.9	45
Germany	12.7	12.8	12.8	13.1	13.1	13.0	12.8	12.8	12.8	12.7	12.5	49
Spain	4.7	5.1	5.5	6.1	6.5	6.8	7.2	7.7	8.4	9.1	9.5	47
Romania	2.5	3.2	3.8	4.1	4.7	5.2	5.7	6.1	6.4	6.6	6.8	56
Ukraine	0.5	0.5	0.7	0.7	0.8	0.9	1.0	1.0	1.1	5.2	5.4	65
Poland	3.4	3.8	4.1	4.3	4.5	4.7	4.8	4.9	5.0	5.1	5.2	56
India	0.8	1.0	1.2	1.4	1.9	2.3	2.8	3.1	3.8	4.7	5.1	46
China	2.2	2.5	2.8	3.2	3.5	3.7	3.9	4.1	4.2	4.4	4.7	56
Greece	2.1	2.3	2.6	2.9	3.3	3.4	3.7	3.8	4.0	4.3	4.5	50
Netherlands	4.0	4.0	4.0	4.3	4.3	4.2	4.2	4.1	4.1	4.0	3.9	46
Syria	0.0	0.1	0.8	1.2	1.7	1.9	2.3	2.5	2.7	3.2	3.7	39
United Kingdom	5.9	6.0	6.1	6.1	5.9	5.8	5.3	4.6	4.1	3.9	3.7	42
Other countries	45.2	47.6	50.3	51.6	53.4	54.6	57.0	58.7	61.2	65.1	68.3	
Total	248.9	258.7	269.2	281.5	288.2	291.5	296.5	299.4	304.2	313.4	317.5	49

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/ndruz9>.

Table B.5. Stocks of foreign population by nationality – Mexico

Thousands

	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	2024	Of which: Women 2024 (%)
United States	..	65.3	67.5	68.9	74.6	79.6	82.5	71.5	85.8
Venezuela	..	15.3	18.6	22.3	28.2	35.1	39.3	58.2	73.0
Cuba	..	17.0	18.4	20.5	24.3	26.5	27.9	33.7	72.5
Honduras	..	7.8	9.3	12.0	15.6	19.5	22.5	46.9	67.8
Colombia	..	18.3	20.6	23.0	26.3	30.0	32.0	36.0	44.7
Haiti	..	1.1	1.3	1.3	1.4	2.7	3.3	48.9	33.5
El Salvador	..	6.2	7.2	9.0	12.2	15.3	17.3	23.8	31.0
Canada	..	13.2	14.1	14.6	16.0	17.2	18.3	20.4	27.7
China	..	18.4	20.6	21.5	22.7	23.6	24.5	24.4	27.2
China	..	18.3	20.5	21.5	22.7	23.5	24.5	24.4	27.2
Argentina	..	16.8	18.0	19.0	19.8	20.7	20.8	21.7	24.9
Spain	..	24.7	26.7	27.7	28.5	28.9	26.9	22.6	23.8
Guatemala	..	10.3	11.6	13.2	15.8	18.5	19.9	15.4	23.1
Brazil	..	7.2	8.2	9.3	10.5	11.4	11.6	16.4	17.1
Nicaragua	..	2.6	2.8	3.1	3.4	3.8	4.3	7.5	14.5
Other countries	..	83.6	89.9	95.1	102.0	105.7	104.7	108.1	126.6	
Total	..	326.0	355.2	381.8	423.9	462.0	480.3	579.8	720.4

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/ndruz9>.

Table B.5. Stocks of foreign population by nationality – Netherlands

Thousands

	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	2024	Of which: Women 2024 (%)
Poland	85.8	99.6	110.9	121.4	132.4	144.0	155.9	164.9	176.1	186.8	194.4	49
Ukraine	3.4	3.8	4.4	5.1	5.6	6.3	7.0	7.1	7.5	94.4	111.7	62
Türkiye	80.1	77.5	75.4	74.1	73.8	74.8	77.0	77.3	80.2	87.6	92.3	47
Germany	72.2	71.8	72.3	73.3	75.0	77.1	79.5	80.6	82.9	84.4	85.2	56
Syria	1.4	8.2	25.4	51.4	67.5	74.1	79.5	71.2	57.0	60.1	69.2	40
Bulgaria	17.8	19.8	21.9	24.1	27.3	31.2	36.8	41.8	47.7	54.9	60.5	47
Italy	25.0	27.1	29.5	32.3	35.5	39.1	43.3	45.1	49.1	53.4	57.6	44
India	13.1	14.7	17.1	20.4	24.9	30.6	37.4	37.1	42.1	50.8	55.6	45
Romania	10.0	11.9	13.7	16.1	20.0	24.9	30.7	34.6	40.6	47.8	52.3	46
Spain	23.9	25.3	26.8	28.3	30.3	32.7	35.6	37.4	42.1	46.9	50.5	50
China	27.2	28.2	29.7	31.4	33.9	36.5	39.4	38.9	40.9	43.7	47.4	54
United Kingdom	42.3	43.0	44.2	45.3	46.0	47.3	47.9	48.8	47.1	45.9	45.3	41
Belgium	28.8	29.6	30.6	31.9	33.2	34.4	35.9	37.0	38.2	39.0	39.7	53
France	18.7	19.7	20.9	22.6	24.2	25.8	27.8	29.0	31.5	33.7	34.9	52
Portugal	18.1	18.7	19.4	20.2	21.1	22.4	24.2	25.4	28.0	31.2	34.6	45
Other countries	348.2	348.2	358.3	374.4	390.1	409.7	434.5	426.7	445.3	484.8	512.9	
Total	816.0	847.3	900.5	972.3	1 040.8	1 110.9	1 192.3	1 203.0	1 256.2	1 445.4	1 544.1	50

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/ndruz9>.

Table B.5. Stocks of foreign population by nationality – Norway

Thousands

	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	2024	Of which: Women 2024 (%)
Poland	85.6	93.6	99.6	102.0	103.8	105.2	108.6	110.3	112.7	111.7	111.1	36
Ukraine	2.8	2.9	3.1	3.3	3.3	3.5	3.8	3.8	3.6	35.4	65.8	59
Lithuania	35.8	39.5	41.7	42.5	43.7	45.1	46.9	47.9	48.8	49.0	48.9	43
Sweden	44.2	45.1	45.1	44.4	44.0	44.0	44.2	43.6	39.6	36.7	35.4	46
Syria	1.5	3.6	7.6	18.9	26.0	30.2	32.0	32.8	34.0	32.6	27.0	45
Germany	24.6	25.0	25.2	24.9	24.7	24.8	25.3	25.6	26.2	26.6	26.5	48
Denmark	22.6	23.5	23.3	23.0	22.8	22.8	22.9	22.3	20.8	20.0	19.3	45
Romania	10.0	12.0	13.8	14.5	15.0	15.6	16.6	17.2	17.4	17.6	18.0	40
United Kingdom	15.8	16.3	16.3	16.3	16.2	16.5	17.2	17.5	16.4	15.7	15.2	33
Latvia	9.4	10.3	10.8	11.0	11.1	11.5	12.1	12.5	12.9	13.2	13.4	40
India	5.9	6.8	7.0	6.8	7.1	8.3	9.7	9.5	9.1	10.4	11.6	45
Spain	5.8	6.9	7.6	8.1	8.5	8.8	9.5	9.8	10.4	10.9	11.5	45
Eritrea	12.7	15.2	17.7	19.0	18.6	19.1	18.9	17.1	14.8	12.0	10.2	50
Thailand	11.4	11.5	11.6	12.1	11.3	11.9	12.0	11.9	10.6	10.1	10.0	85
Philippines	11.4	11.7	11.8	12.1	11.7	12.3	12.8	12.1	10.0	9.8	9.8	74
Other countries	183.8	188.4	196.0	200.3	200.2	204.7	212.1	207.6	198.6	199.0	199.8	
Total	483.2	512.2	538.2	559.2	567.8	584.2	604.5	601.6	586.0	610.9	633.4	47

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/ndruz9>.

Table B.5. Stocks of foreign population by nationality – Poland

Thousands

	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	2024	Of which: Women 2024 (%)
EU	27.2	27.7	29.0	33.2	32.9	32.7	32.6	32.4	28
Non-EU	182.6	211.0	260.2	324.4	413.9	408.3	402.8	397.2	48
Total	210.3	239.2	289.8	358.2	447.4	441.7	436.0	430.2	47

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/ndruz9>.**Table B.5. Stocks of foreign population by nationality – Portugal**

Thousands

	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	2024	Of which: Women 2023 (%)
Brazil	92.1	87.5	82.6	81.3	85.4	105.4	151.3	183.9	204.7	239.7	368.4	51
United Kingdom	16.5	16.6	17.2	19.4	22.4	26.4	34.4	46.2	41.9	45.2	47.4	44
Cape Verde	42.4	40.9	38.7	36.6	35.0	34.7	37.4	36.5	34.0	36.6	48.8	46
Italy	5.1	5.3	6.1	8.5	12.9	18.9	25.4	28.2	30.8	33.8	..	43
India	6.0	6.4	6.9	7.2	8.0	11.4	17.6	24.6	30.3	33.6	..	18
Angola	20.2	19.7	18.2	17.0	16.9	18.4	22.7	24.4	25.8	31.6	55.6	52
France	5.3	6.5	8.4	11.3	15.3	19.8	23.1	24.9	26.7	27.1	..	47
Ukraine	41.1	37.9	35.8	34.5	32.5	29.2	29.7	28.6	27.2	25.4	23.5	48
Guinea-Bissau	17.8	18.0	17.1	15.7	15.2	16.2	18.9	19.7	20.3	23.7	32.5	40
Romania	34.2	31.5	30.5	30.4	30.8	30.9	31.1	30.1	28.9	23.4	20.9	44
Nepal	2.6	3.5	4.8	5.8	7.4	11.5	16.8	21.0	21.5	22.9	..	37
China	18.7	21.5	21.4	22.6	23.2	25.4	27.9	26.2	23.0	22.2	28.1	44
Germany	8.6	8.8	9.0	10.0	11.2	12.8	14.7	16.0	18.3	20.3	..	47
Spain	9.5	9.7	10.0	11.1	12.5	14.1	15.8	17.0	18.5	19.3	..	49
Bangladesh	1.7	2.1	2.6	2.8	3.5	5.3	8.0	9.9	10.9	15.8	..	18
Other countries	79.5	79.4	79.3	83.5	89.6	99.9	115.5	124.5	135.6	160.8	419.1	
Total	401.3	395.2	388.7	397.7	421.7	480.3	590.3	661.6	698.5	781.2	1 044.2	45

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/ndruz9>.

Table B.5. Stocks of foreign population by nationality – Slovak Republic

Thousands

	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	2024	Of which: Women 2024 (%)
Czechia	11.4	11.9	12.5	13.0	13.5	14.0	14.4	15.1	10.3	10.5	10.6	49
Hungary	8.1	8.6	9.2	9.8	10.2	10.7	11.1	11.6	6.8	7.1	7.3	34
Ukraine	2.7	2.8	3.1	3.2	3.5	3.7	4.1	4.4	6.5	6.6	7.0	52
Poland	5.1	5.2	5.4	5.6	5.8	5.9	6.1	6.3	4.4	4.5	4.5	54
Romania	4.9	5.3	5.8	6.3	6.5	6.9	7.1	7.3	4.4	4.5	4.5	31
Russia	1.4	1.4	1.5	1.5	1.6	1.7	1.7	1.8	2.4	2.5	2.6	60
Viet Nam	1.4	1.4	1.5	1.5	1.6	1.7	1.7	1.8	2.0	2.0	2.2	43
Italy	2.0	2.1	2.4	2.6	2.8	2.9	3.0	3.1	2.1	2.1	2.1	17
Germany	3.6	3.7	3.8	3.9	4.1	4.2	4.3	4.4	1.9	1.9	1.9	27
China	0.8	0.9	0.9	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.1	1.1	1.7	1.7	1.7	48
United Kingdom	1.6	1.6	1.7	1.9	2.0	2.2	2.4	2.5	1.6	1.6	1.6	21
Serbia	0.6	0.7	0.7	0.8	0.8	0.9	0.9	1.0	1.2	1.2	1.4	29
Austria	1.8	1.9	1.9	2.0	2.1	2.1	2.1	2.2	1.2	1.3	1.3	28
Bulgaria	1.6	1.6	1.8	1.9	2.0	2.1	2.1	2.2	1.3	1.3	1.3	31
Croatia	0.5	0.6	0.7	0.9	0.9	1.0	1.1	1.1	1.0	1.1	1.1	30
Other countries	11.6	12.1	13.0	13.8	14.5	15.1	15.6	16.2	14.2	14.5	14.9	
Total	59.2	61.8	65.8	69.7	72.9	76.1	78.9	82.1	63.1	64.3	66.0	40

 Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/ndruz9>.

Table B.5. Stocks of foreign population by nationality – Slovenia

Thousands

	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	2024	Of which: Women 2024 (%)
Bosnia and Herzegovina	43.3	44.9	47.7	50.4	54.0	93.5	88.7	97.2	102.6	108.3	94.3	32
Serbia	9.8	9.7	9.8	10.6	11.8	23.0	21.3	21.8	22.8	23.6	18.4	31
North Macedonia	9.8	10.1	10.4	10.8	11.3	15.6	15.5	16.2	17.0	18.7	15.9	45
Croatia	8.7	8.8	8.9	9.2	9.5	12.9	12.9	13.3	13.0	13.4	9.7	42
Ukraine	1.4	1.5	1.7	1.9	2.0	2.7	2.6	2.7	2.7	2.7	8.8	63
Russia	1.1	1.5	2.0	2.3	2.6	3.8	3.6	4.1	4.6	5.5	5.1	54
Bulgaria	2.1	2.5	2.6	2.9	3.2	5.2	5.2	4.9	4.6	4.7	3.2	31
Italy	1.4	1.6	1.8	2.1	2.2	3.4	3.3	3.7	3.7	3.6	2.5	36
Montenegro	0.7	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.8	1.1	1.1	1.2	1.3	1.2	1.1	43
Germany	0.9	0.9	0.9	0.9	0.9	1.2	1.2	1.3	1.3	1.3	1.1	49
Türkiye	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.7	1.1	1.6	1.0	16
United Kingdom	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.8	0.8	1.0	1.0	1.0	0.7	36
Hungary	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.6	1.1	1.1	1.0	0.9	1.0	0.7	48
India	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.6	1.1	0.5	19
Austria	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.6	0.6	0.5	0.7	0.7	0.5	42
Other countries	16.1	17.9	19.5	20.8	21.7	41.1	38.6	45.8	52.9	18.2	39.7	
Total	96.6	101.5	107.8	114.4	121.9	206.5	197.0	215.8	230.9	206.5	203.3	37

 Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/ndruz9>.

Table B.5. Stocks of foreign population by nationality – Spain

Thousands

	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	2024	Of which: Women 2024 (%)
Morocco	718.0	688.7	680.5	665.6	682.0	713.8	760.7	860.2	866.7	894.0	920.7	42
Romania	728.3	708.4	695.0	683.8	673.6	670.2	665.9	658.3	639.5	629.8	620.5	52
Colombia	173.2	145.5	135.9	138.4	159.6	199.2	261.2	285.5	311.5	453.9	578.5	54
Italy	180.8	182.7	191.6	203.8	221.4	243.7	267.7	259.6	275.2	301.8	325.4	46
Venezuela	44.4	44.2	50.0	63.3	91.1	134.0	187.2	196.7	213.7	278.2	325.3	55
China	166.0	167.5	172.2	177.5	183.5	190.6	197.2	218.1	217.1	219.9	226.7	50
Peru	84.2	66.4	61.3	59.5	66.7	79.9	101.0	108.6	118.7	172.0	219.6	55
Ukraine	81.8	84.1	90.8	94.5	99.0	103.6	107.6	110.1	109.8	193.2	210.0	60
Honduras	34.3	35.9	40.8	48.1	64.1	84.8	109.5	126.6	133.3	157.0	171.8	66
Argentina	80.9	73.2	71.3	71.2	74.3	80.0	92.0	88.3	96.1	119.3	137.1	51
Germany	148.5	145.0	142.1	141.1	138.8	138.3	139.0	113.5	120.5	125.8	128.0	52
Ecuador	214.0	174.4	159.0	145.2	139.4	134.9	132.6	122.2	118.1	120.0	124.8	46
France	99.5	98.7	100.7	103.2	106.2	111.5	117.1	112.2	116.5	120.8	123.4	50
Bulgaria	139.9	134.4	130.5	127.4	125.0	123.3	122.8	122.6	118.3	115.2	112.8	51
Paraguay	57.0	51.9	51.3	52.4	56.9	61.3	68.3	83.3	82.7	97.7	111.1	63
Other countries	1 726.2	1 653.2	1 644.7	1 644.5	1 681.3	1 771.2	1 897.1	1 937.0	1 971.4	2 091.1	2 166.6	
Total	4 677.1	4 454.4	4 417.5	4 419.5	4 563.0	4 840.2	5 226.9	5 402.7	5 509.1	6 089.6	6 502.3	50

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/ndruz9>.**Table B.5. Stocks of foreign population by nationality – Sweden**

Thousands

	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	2024	Of which: Women 2024 (%)
Poland	46.1	48.2	50.8	52.5	54.0	54.9	55.5	53.8	54.0	56.2	57.1	42
Syria	20.5	42.2	70.0	116.4	132.1	137.1	116.4	95.1	68.5	53.7	44.7	45
Afghanistan	20.3	23.6	26.0	28.0	37.4	45.4	49.6	48.5	46.7	45.1	44.7	36
India	9.2	10.4	11.4	13.5	17.1	22.2	27.0	28.3	31.7	36.3	38.6	44
Finland	62.8	59.7	57.6	55.8	53.8	51.0	48.7	46.1	43.1	40.2	37.8	58
Germany	28.1	28.2	28.2	28.7	29.0	29.2	29.5	29.0	29.9	32.2	33.4	50
Eritrea	12.8	18.0	25.1	32.1	36.4	39.7	43.0	43.5	42.4	36.2	28.7	43
Norway	34.6	34.5	34.4	34.6	34.7	34.5	34.5	32.6	30.7	29.3	28.3	51
Denmark	39.3	38.4	37.1	35.2	33.4	31.5	30.2	29.1	27.4	26.4	25.6	42
China	17.1	17.5	16.6	17.3	18.6	20.2	21.9	22.3	23.2	24.0	23.4	54
Romania	12.0	13.0	14.4	15.5	16.9	18.2	19.3	18.9	19.6	20.9	21.4	40
Pakistan	7.2	7.3	7.3	7.8	8.3	9.4	11.7	13.2	15.7	18.2	18.9	43
Iraq	31.2	25.9	23.2	22.7	25.3	26.4	25.9	23.4	22.2	20.2	18.4	41
Lithuania	9.5	10.4	11.3	12.2	13.6	14.6	15.5	15.6	16.0	16.9	17.3	43
Iran	14.8	14.9	14.1	14.2	14.6	15.2	15.9	15.6	16.3	16.8	17.1	46
Other countries	329.2	347.3	355.3	365.5	372.2	383.0	396.0	377.5	380.9	392.7	388.7	
Total	694.7	739.4	782.8	851.9	897.3	932.3	940.6	892.3	868.2	865.3	844.1	46

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/ndruz9>.

Table B.5. Stocks of foreign population by nationality – Switzerland

Thousands

	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	2024	Of which: Women 2024 (%)
Italy	301.3	308.6	313.7	318.7	319.4	322.1	323.7	328.3	331.4	335.8	342.5	42
Germany	293.2	298.6	301.5	304.7	305.8	307.9	309.4	311.5	313.7	317.5	326.0	45
Portugal	253.8	263.0	268.1	269.5	268.0	265.5	262.9	260.9	258.9	257.8	260.5	45
France	110.2	116.8	123.1	127.3	131.5	135.3	139.6	146.4	151.6	157.8	165.7	45
Spain	75.4	79.5	82.4	83.5	83.7	84.3	85.2	87.2	89.5	92.4	96.7	46
Türkiye	69.2	69.1	68.6	68.0	67.3	66.7	66.3	67.1	68.1	69.2	71.1	47
North Macedonia	62.5	63.3	64.2	65.2	65.8	66.5	67.0	67.6	68.5	69.0	70.0	52
Serbia	79.3	69.7	65.3	64.3	63.2	61.9	60.7	59.7	58.6	57.6	56.8	51
Austria	39.6	40.4	41.3	42.1	42.7	43.2	43.9	44.5	45.2	46.1	47.5	47
Poland	17.9	21.4	24.7	26.9	29.2	31.6	33.9	36.2	38.4	42.2	46.6	47
United Kingdom	40.4	41.1	41.3	41.0	41.0	41.0	41.4	42.4	41.4	40.0	38.8	43
Eritrea	11.7	14.0	16.6	19.8	23.2	26.2	29.0	30.9	32.6	33.9	35.4	46
Romania	10.2	11.3	12.1	13.8	15.6	16.7	19.9	23.1	26.3	30.6	35.1	52
Croatia	30.7	30.2	29.6	29.0	28.5	28.5	28.3	28.3	30.7	32.1	48	
Hungary	11.6	14.9	17.6	19.7	21.4	22.7	24.0	25.3	26.4	27.9	30.1	48
Other countries	479.6	505.1	524.0	536.1	547.4	561.1	576.2	592.6	611.4	633.4	658.6	
Total	1 886.6	1 947.0	1 993.9	2 029.5	2 053.6	2 081.2	2 111.4	2 151.9	2 190.3	2 241.9	2 313.2	47

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/ndruz9>.

Table B.5. Stocks of foreign population by nationality – Türkiye

Thousands

	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	2024	Of which: Women 2024 (%)
Iraq	31.1	47.2	93.7	149.7	201.1	283.9	313.8	322.0	275.3	217.5	178.0	50
Afghanistan	27.9	33.6	38.5	59.9	79.6	120.4	152.2	183.6	186.2	164.1	139.3	42
Germany	59.0	63.2	69.9	75.1	77.2	82.0	88.5	102.6	110.5	114.3	116.0	50
Turkmenistan	13.4	18.4	23.4	28.3	42.8	68.1	133.7	124.0	116.4	110.3	113.8	53
Iran	16.8	21.9	27.8	37.9	44.9	68.8	92.7	128.9	117.0	101.2	95.9	54
Russia	20.7	21.6	25.3	27.7	24.3	33.4	40.2	66.8	151.0	102.6	85.8	56
Azerbaijan	26.2	30.2	36.5	47.0	51.6	61.8	68.5	68.6	68.9	71.0	80.1	52
Syria	57.9	50.9	56.6	75.2	64.6	88.0	114.3	104.6	99.4	80.0	72.4	50
Uzbekistan	7.9	11.0	16.1	21.7	31.6	34.1	44.9	71.1	61.8	54.6	59.1	65
Kazakhstan	11.1	11.9	13.7	14.9	12.6	16.8	21.2	39.5	45.5	44.1	44.4	59
Ukraine	9.7	12.9	17.1	19.9	18.7	18.5	20.2	23.4	50.4	40.5	35.4	71
Egypt	1.2	2.7	4.4	7.6	14.5	26.2	31.1	34.2	33.0	28.5	28.3	42
Kyrgyzstan	8.4	10.6	14.0	17.1	18.6	19.6	23.5	26.5	24.5	22.5	23.8	69
West Bank and Gaza Strip	1.9	2.5	3.3	4.8	8.3	15.7	21.5	28.0	26.3	21.6	23.6	44
Austria	9.5	10.5	12.0	13.3	14.4	16.0	17.3	19.9	21.3	22.1	22.2	46
Other countries	153.8	169.2	197.9	216.3	214.3	257.6	347.5	448.5	436.4	375.8	362.5	
Total	456.5	518.3	650.3	816.4	919.1	1 211.0	1 531.2	1 792.0	1 823.8	1 570.5	1 480.5	52

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/ndruz9>.

Table B.5. Stocks of foreign population by nationality – United Kingdom

Thousands

	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	2024	Of which: Women 2021 (%)
Poland	826	855	1 006	994	829	696	55
India	354	379	347	317	370	370	50
Ireland	309	329	330	343	350	370	54
Romania	165	219	324	382	478	342	48
Italy	182	212	262	296	311	342	48
Portugal	140	235	247	269	195	268	50
Spain	130	167	162	191	156	206	51
Pakistan	197	184	175	167	186	181	47
Nigeria	84	104	95	106	100	178	53
United States	145	132	127	130	149	166	57
Lithuania	158	192	204	196	181	153	60
France	135	189	181	186	179	149	56
Germany	110	119	166	131	120	135	62
China	106	122	113	132	148	124	56
Hungary	83	103	101	91	66	118	57
Other countries	2 030	2 051	2 111	2 206	2 173	2 215	
Total	5 154	5 592	5 951	6 137	5 991	6 194	6 101	6 013	53

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/ndruz9>.**Table B.5. Stocks of foreign population by nationality – United States**

Thousands

	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	2024	Of which: Women 2023 (%)
Mexico	8 179.5	8 524.7	8 340.2	8 165.7	8 021.2	7 644.3	7 186.5	7 700.9	8 006.3	7 825.2	8 226.1	46
India	1 158.8	1 203.8	1 443.8	1 606.6	1 679.1	1 765.4	1 686.7	1 657.0	1 706.5	1 917.6	2 105.5	46
Guatemala	600.8	686.3	732.5	672.2	664.3	686.1	780.5	865.7	923.8	1 132.5	1 275.3	42
China	904.5	965.7	1 093.5	1 110.7	1 140.9	1 092.3	1 057.6	985.0	1 094.5	1 072.6	1 064.5	53
Honduras	448.8	482.1	531.0	471.6	513.2	543.3	651.4	734.2	948.4	961.1	1 060.2	47
El Salvador	971.5	913.5	908.1	997.6	930.6	927.0	909.7	901.9	895.5	985.9	930.9	50
Venezuela	109.0	123.7	176.9	220.8	256.2	314.2	366.7	424.3	496.0	653.5	930.7	47
Cuba	499.1	532.8	619.7	648.7	673.6	635.2	524.6	521.0	581.6	673.3	852.6	48
Colombia	250.8	274.7	300.8	278.9	245.9	331.9	265.7	353.4	407.1	510.5	637.5	52
Dominican Republic	449.8	498.6	569.7	509.7	580.9	560.6	540.8	590.7	684.6	599.9	585.0	56
Brazil	218.0	251.2	279.2	310.4	403.2	416.4	319.6	319.9	494.1	554.2	582.3	51
Haiti	277.0	297.8	276.2	269.0	285.7	233.9	285.1	309.6	246.5	304.9	473.6	48
Philippines	498.6	565.7	599.5	510.8	516.1	505.6	456.0	414.4	410.6	471.0	465.2	57
Ecuador	226.4	238.3	219.8	198.8	217.2	217.5	181.5	172.2	244.4	326.8	385.1	49
Korea	364.2	412.6	387.3	330.5	328.3	321.9	327.6	268.0	273.6	261.9	317.3	53
Other countries	6 168.3	6 264.7	6 346.0	6 456.6	6 485.6	6 323.1	5 893.7	5 946.4	6 411.8	6 344.4	6 395.0	
Total	21 325.1	22 236.2	22 824.2	22 758.7	22 941.9	22 518.8	21 433.7	22 164.7	23 825.2	24 595.3	26 286.8	48

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/ndruz9>.

Metadata related to Tables A.5 and B.5. Stocks of foreign population

Country	Comments	Source
Austria	Stock of foreign citizens recorded in the population register. Reference date: 1 January.	Population Register, Statistics Austria.
Belgium	From 2011 on, includes foreigners who have lived in Belgium for a continuous period of at least 12 months and persons who arrived in Belgium less than 12 months before the reference time with the intention of staying there for at least one year; also includes asylum seekers. Data for the year 2019 are provisional. Reference date: 1 January.	Population Register, Eurostat.
Canada	2016 and 2021 Censuses - Countries of Citizenship for the Population in Private Households of Canada - 25% Sample Data	Statistics Canada.
Chile	2017 Census. Estimates for the total and for selected countries for other years.	Department of Foreigners and Migration, Ministry of the Interior and Public Security.
Czechia	Numbers of foreigners residing in the country on the basis of permanent or temporary residence permits (i.e. long-term visa, long-term residence permit or temporary residence permit of EU nationals). Reference date: 1 January.	Ministry of the Interior, Directorate of Alien Police.
Denmark	Stock of foreign citizens recorded in the population register. Excludes asylum seekers and all persons with temporary residence permits. Reference date: 1 January.	Central Population Register, Statistics Denmark.
Estonia	Population register. Reference date: 1 January.	Statistics Estonia.
Finland	Stock of foreign citizens recorded in the population register. Includes foreign persons of Finnish origin. Reference date: 1 January.	Central Population Register, Statistics Finland.
France		Eurostat.
Germany	Stock of foreign citizens recorded in the population register. Includes all foreigners regardless of their housing situation (private or non-private dwelling). Excludes persons which (also) have the German citizenship as well as foreigners with temporary residence (mostly <= 3 months). Excludes ethnic Germans (<i>Aussiedler</i>). Figures are rounded to the nearest multiple of five and numbers below 3 are not disclosed. Reference date: 1 January.	Central Population Register, Federal Office of Statistics.
Greece	Population by group of citizenship. Reference date: 1 January.	Eurostat.
Hungary	Foreigners having a residence or a settlement document. From 2010 on, includes third-country nationals holding a temporary residence permit (for a year or more). From 2012 on, includes refugees and persons under subsidiary protection as well as those with temporary protection since February 24, 2022. Since 2018, data on recognised refugees and persons under subsidiary protection is partially based on statistical estimations. Reference date: 1 January.	Population Register, National Directorate-General for Aliens Policing (NDGAP), Central Statistical Office.
Iceland	Data are from the National Register of Persons. It is to be expected that figures are overestimates. Reference date: 1 January.	Statistics Iceland.
Ireland	Census data for 2016 and 2022. Other years: Annual population estimates - Estimated population.	Central Statistics Office (CSO).
Italy	Data refer to resident foreigners (registered in municipal registry offices). Excludes children under 18 who are registered on their parents' permit. Includes foreigners who were regularised following the 2009 programme. From 2019 on, the data takes into account the results of the permanent population census. Reference date: 1 January.	National Statistical Institute (ISTAT).
Japan	Foreigners staying in Japan for the mid- to long-term with a resident status under the Immigration Control and Refugee Recognition Act. Reference date: 1 January.	Ministry of Justice, Immigration Bureau.
Korea	Registered foreigners, Ethnic Koreans (F-4) visa holders and foreigners who stayed for more than 90 days with a short-term visa	Ministry of Justice and Korean Yearbook of Immigration Statistics.

Country	Comments	Source
Latvia	Population register. Reference date: 1 January.	Office of Citizenship and Migration Affairs.
Lithuania	Reference date: 1 January.	Department of Migration.
Luxembourg	Stock of foreign citizens recorded in population register. Excludes visitors (staying for less than 3 months) and cross-border workers. Reference date: 1 January.	Population Register, Central Office of Statistics and Economic Studies (Statec).
Mexico	Number of foreigners who hold a valid permit for permanent or temporary residence. Data until 2013 are estimates under the terms of the 1974 Act; they include immigrants FM2 "inmigrante" and "inmigrado" (both categories refer to permanent residence) and non-immigrants FM3 with specific categories (temporary residence). Data from 2015 are estimates under the terms of the 2011 Migration Act.	National Migration Institute, Unit for Migration Policy, Ministry of Interior.
Netherlands	Stock of foreign citizens recorded in the population register. Figures include administrative corrections and asylum seekers (except those staying in reception centres). Reference date: 1 January.	Population Register, Central Bureau of Statistics (CBS).
Norway	Stock of foreign citizens recorded in the population register. It excludes visitors (staying for less than six months) and cross-border workers. Reference date: 1 January.	Central Population Register, Statistics Norway.
Poland		Eurostat.
Portugal	Figures include holders of a valid residence permit and holders of a renewed long-term visa.	Immigration and Border Control Office (SEF); National Statistical Institute (INE).
Slovak Republic	Holders of a permanent or long-term residence permit.	Register of Foreigners, Ministry of the Interior.
Slovenia	Number of valid residence permits, regardless of the administrative status of the foreign national. Reference date: 1 January.	Central Population Register, Ministry of the Interior.
Spain	All foreign citizens in the Municipal Registers irrespective of their legal status. Reference date: 1 January.	Municipal Registers, National Statistics Institute (INE).
Sweden	Stock of foreign citizens recorded in the population register. Reference date: 1 January.	Population Register, Statistics Sweden.
Switzerland	Stock of all those with residence or settlement permits (permits B and C, respectively). Holders of an L-permit (short duration) are also included if their stay in the country is longer than 12 months. Does not include seasonal or cross-border workers. Reference date: 1 January.	Register of Foreigners, Federal Office of Migration.
Türkiye	Reference date: 1 January.	Turkish Statistical Institute.
United Kingdom	Foreign residents. Those with unknown nationality from the New Commonwealth are not included (around 10 000 to 15 000 persons). Reference date: 1 January.	Labour Force Survey, Home Office.
United States	Foreigners born abroad.	Current Population Survey, Census Bureau.

Note: Data for Serbia include persons from Serbia, Montenegro and Serbia and Montenegro. Some statements may refer to nationalities/countries of birth not shown in this annex but available on line at: <https://data-explorer.oecd.org/s/312>.

Acquisitions of nationality

The provisions of nationality law play a key role in shaping the relative size of the national and foreign populations. For example, countries where foreigners can easily be naturalised, provided they spent a minimum number of years as residents, increases in the foreign population through immigration and births can eventually contribute to a significant rise in the population of nationals. On the other hand, in countries where naturalisation is more difficult, increases in immigration and births among foreigners manifest themselves almost exclusively as growth in the foreign population. In addition, changes in rules regarding naturalisation can have significant impact. For example, during the 1980s, a number of OECD countries made naturalisation easier and this resulted in noticeable falls in the foreign population (and rises in the population of nationals).

However, host-country legislation is not the only factor affecting naturalisation. For example, where naturalisation involves renouncing citizenship of the country of origin, there may be incentives to remain a foreign citizen. Otherwise, the decision to apply for naturalisation may largely be influenced by the time and effort required to make the application, and the symbolic and political value individuals attach to being citizens of one country or another.

Data on naturalisations are usually readily available from administrative sources. The statistics generally cover all means of acquiring the nationality of a country. These include standard naturalisation procedures subject to criteria such as age or residency, etc., as well as situations where nationality is acquired through a declaration or by option (following marriage, adoption or other situations related to residency or descent), recovery of former nationality and other special means of acquiring the nationality of the country.

Table A.6. Acquisitions of nationality in OECD countries

Numbers and percentages

	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023
Australia	123 438	162 002	135 596	133 126	137 750	80 562	127 674	204 817	140 748	167 232	192 472
% of foreign population
Austria	7 418	8 350	8 265	8 626	9 271	9 450	10 606	8 996	16 171	20 606	19 939
% of foreign population	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.7	0.7	0.8	0.6	1.1	1.3	1.3
Belgium	34 801	18 726	27 071	31 935	37 399	36 200	40 594	33 915	39 233	48 482	55 213
% of foreign population	2.9	1.5	2.2	2.5	2.8	2.7	2.9	2.4	2.7	3.3	3.6
Canada	129 042	262 645	252 197	147 822	106 378	176 502	250 557	110 994	137 175	375 677	379 991
% of foreign population	4.4	4.5	11.8	11.4
Chile	678	1 048	691	792	2 991	1 801	354	504	2 985	2 051	3 061
% of foreign population	0.2	0.2
Costa Rica	3 050	2 018	3 791	5 562	5 875	5 831	5 808	4 070	3 572	5 493	6 277
% of foreign population
Czechia	2 514	5 114	4 925	5 536	6 440	5 260	4 456	4 214	6 205	6 453	6 389
% of foreign population	0.6	1.2	1.1	1.2	1.4	1.1	0.9	0.7	1.0	1.0	1.0
Denmark	1 750	4 747	11 745	15 028	7 272	2 836	1 781	7 076	6 483	5 149	3 355
% of foreign population	0.5	1.3	3.0	3.6	1.6	0.6	0.4	1.3	1.2	1.0	0.6
Estonia	1 330	1 614	897	1 775	882	766	779	770	1 034	812	1 078
% of foreign population	0.6	0.8	0.4	0.8	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.4	0.5
Finland	8 930	8 260	7 921	9 375	12 219	9 211	9 649	7 816	6 643	10 198	12 224
% of foreign population	4.9	4.2	3.8	4.3	5.3	3.8	3.9	3.0	2.5	3.7	4.1
France	97 276	105 613	113 608	119 152	114 274	110 014	109 821	86 483	130 385	114 483	97 288
% of foreign population	2.4	2.6	2.7	2.7	2.5	2.4	2.2	1.7	2.5	2.2	1.8
Germany	112 353	108 422	107 317	110 383	112 211	112 340	128 905	109 880	131 595	168 775	200 095
% of foreign population	1.6	1.5	1.4	1.4	1.2	1.1	1.2	1.0	1.2	1.5	1.7
Greece	29 462	21 829	12 837	32 819	34 305	27 857	16 328	13 272	10 120	12 733	13 319
% of foreign population	3.2	2.5	1.5	4.0	4.3	3.4	2.0	1.6	1.1	1.4	1.8
Hungary	9 178	8 745	4 048	4 315	2 787	3 508	3 255	2 139	2 511	2 973	2 429
% of foreign population	6.4	6.2	2.9	3.0	1.8	2.3	2.0	1.2	1.3	1.5	1.2
Iceland	597	595	801	703	637	569	437	395	905	706	649
% of foreign population	2.8	2.8	3.5	2.9	2.4	1.9	1.2	0.9	1.8	1.4	1.2
Ireland	24 263	21 090	13 565	10 044	8 195	8 223	5 791	5 475	9 778	13 597	18 265
% of foreign population	4.0	3.5	2.2	1.7	1.3	1.5	1.0	0.9	1.5	2.1	2.3
Italy	100 712	129 887	178 035	201 591	146 605	112 523	127 001	131 803	121 457	213 716	213 567
% of foreign population	2.5	3.0	3.6	4.0	2.9	2.2	2.5	2.6	2.4	4.1	4.2
Japan	8 646	9 277	9 469	9 554	10 315	9 074	8 453	9 079	8 167	7 059	8 800
% of foreign population	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.3
Korea	13 956	14 200	13 934	12 854	13 293	14 758	12 875	16 065	14 057	13 878	15 148
% of foreign population	1.2	1.2	1.1	0.9	0.8	0.9	0.7	0.8	0.7	0.7	0.8
Latvia	3 083	2 141	1 897	1 957	962	930	808	725	419	518	595
% of foreign population	1.0	0.7	0.6	0.7	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.2
Lithuania	173	179	177	173	166	196	123	176	236	126	55
% of foreign population	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.9	1.0	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.2	0.1
Luxembourg	4 411	4 991	5 306	7 140	9 030	11 864	11 450	9 387	6 801	10 499	11 904
% of foreign population	1.9	2.1	2.1	2.8	3.4	4.2	4.0	3.2	2.3	3.5	3.9
Mexico	3 581	2 341	2 736	2 940	3 067	3 872	3 070	2 044	718	1 106	5 294
% of foreign population	1.2	0.9	1.0	0.7	0.4	0.1	0.2	0.7
Netherlands	25 882	32 578	27 877	28 534	27 663	27 851	34 191	55 943	62 959	53 678	56 901
% of foreign population	3.3	4.1	3.4	3.4	3.1	2.9	3.3	5.0	5.3	4.5	4.5

	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023
New Zealand	27 831	27 894	27 600	31 983	36 447	35 709	31 011	22 749	18 159	40 374	36 426
% of foreign population
Norway	13 223	15 336	12 432	13 712	21 648	10 361	13 201	19 698	41 092	39 369	37 340
% of foreign population	3.2	3.4	2.6	2.7	4.0	1.9	2.3	3.4	6.8	6.5	6.4
Poland	3 462	4 518	4 048	4 086	4 259	4 593	12 917	7 159	7 537	9 822	6 921
% of foreign population	4.0	4.8	4.0	3.8	2.8	2.2	5.4	2.5	2.1	2.2	1.6
Portugal	24 476	21 124	20 396	25 104	18 022	21 333	21 099	32 147	24 516	20 844	16 985
% of foreign population	5.6	5.1	5.1	6.4	4.6	5.4	5.0	6.7	4.2	3.1	2.4
Slovak Republic	207	234	309	484	645	721	586	548	592	677	552
% of foreign population	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.8	1.0	1.0	0.8	0.7	0.7	0.8	0.9
Slovenia	1 470	1 057	1 255	1 297	1 563	1 978	2 360	2 042	1 782	1 946	2 052
% of foreign population	1.7	1.2	1.3	1.3	1.5	1.7	1.9	1.0	0.9	0.9	0.9
Spain	225 793	205 880	114 351	150 944	66 498	90 774	98 954	126 266	144 012	181 581	240 208
% of foreign population	4.3	4.1	2.4	3.4	1.5	2.1	2.2	2.6	2.8	3.4	4.4
Sweden	49 632	42 918	48 249	60 343	68 898	63 818	64 206	80 175	89 354	92 225	67 789
% of foreign population	7.6	6.4	6.9	8.2	8.8	7.5	7.2	8.6	9.5	10.3	7.8
Switzerland	34 330	33 321	40 885	41 584	44 509	42 625	40 273	34 061	37 128	41 566	41 299
% of foreign population	1.9	1.8	2.2	2.1	2.2	2.1	2.0	1.6	1.8	1.9	1.9
United Kingdom	208 021	125 715	118 054	149 378	123 207	157 011	159 356	130 568	189 803	175 972	206 619
% of foreign population	4.3	2.5	2.3	2.7	2.1	2.6	2.7	2.1	..	2.9	..
United States	779 929	653 416	730 259	753 060	707 265	761 901	843 593	628 254	813 861	1 004 384	824 250
% of foreign population	3.5	3.0	3.4	3.4	3.1	3.3	3.7	2.8	3.8	4.5	3.5

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the Tables B.6.

StatLink  <https://stat.link/y6qo09>

Table B.6. Acquisitions of nationality by country of former nationality – Australia

	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	Of which: Women 2023 (%)
India	19 217	27 827	24 236	21 989	24 181	17 716	28 470	38 209	24 205	30 160	40 361	51
United Kingdom	20 478	25 884	20 583	20 949	21 069	13 875	13 366	25 018	17 374	19 259	17 303	47
Philippines	9 090	11 628	8 996	8 333	9 112	4 921	9 267	12 838	8 788	11 156	12 650	62
Pakistan	2 100	2 739	2 341	3 077	4 480	919	3 360	8 821	5 615	6 247	8 513	48
China	8 979	10 613	8 610	7 999	7 580	1 990	8 966	17 008	7 383	7 213	7 563	55
Iraq	2 739	3 150	2 054	1 417	1 930	788	3 087	3 883	3 808	5 114	7 198	52
Viet Nam	2 568	3 514	3 835	4 173	3 859	1 216	3 501	6 804	4 942	6 171	7 110	65
Afghanistan	1 253	2 620	2 103	991	1 102	387	620	5 102	3 674	4 777	6 042	44
Syria	171	207	196	185	281	78	290	1 351	2 524	4 435	5 353	51
New Zealand	3 794	5 361	4 091	4 390	3 593	1 840	3 027	5 367	5 643	6 254	5 289	50
South Africa	7 900	9 286	6 211	5 629	4 906	3 370	2 680	5 438	3 854	4 869	5 076	50
Sri Lanka	2 746	3 957	3 179	3 752	4 487	3 262	4 861	6 195	2 888	3 209	4 611	51
Nepal	1 384	1 810	2 401	2 959	2 402	1 665	3 294	3 676	2 232	3 029	3 846	55
Iran	1 657	2 155	2 198	2 416	3 182	1 108	2 770	4 634	2 580	2 797	3 642	51
United States	1 564	2 034	1 833	1 963	2 107	1 383	1 349	2 703	..	2 798	3 105	58
Other countries	37 798	49 217	42 729	42 904	43 479	26 044	38 766	57 770	45 238	49 744	54 810	
Total	123 438	162 002	135 596	133 126	137 750	80 562	127 674	204 817	140 748	167 232	192 472	53

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/y6qo09>.

Table B.6. Acquisitions of nationality by country of former nationality – Austria

	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	Of which: Women 2023 (%)
Israel	20	342	41	41	97	44	60	67	2 635	5 006	4 270	50
Syria	83	95	79	134	98	103	164	211	543	1 165	1 866	38
United States	30	95	37	25	29	30	23	50	1 659	1 917	1 637	51
Türkiye	1 108	885	998	820	779	828	912	847	1 101	1 087	1 142	51
United Kingdom	4	7	10	10	24	44	96	125	1 190	1 593	1 123	48
Bosnia and Herzegovina	1 039	1 120	1 218	1 262	1 288	1 033	1 183	967	921	800	803	58
Afghanistan	208	232	187	332	424	328	372	298	545	720	788	34
Russia	430	433	299	337	323	375	464	355	472	628	635	59
Iran	180	160	184	226	217	306	325	355	389	462	587	48
Serbia	824	671	636	752	557	625	1 008	943	785	667	535	59
Iraq	79	100	109	106	102	100	109	103	120	180	363	39
Hungary	83	112	120	155	227	258	237	221	259	307	358	63
Ukraine	134	137	299	225	181	221	360	184	262	665	339	69
Germany	129	251	160	195	244	274	248	227	273	280	313	55
Romania	224	244	221	258	291	456	376	301	315	293	284	64
Other countries	2 843	3 466	3 667	3 748	4 390	4 425	4 669	3 742	4 702	4 836	4 896	
Total	7 418	8 350	8 265	8 626	9 271	9 450	10 606	8 996	16 171	20 606	19 939	50

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/y6qo09>.

Table B.6. Acquisitions of nationality by country of former nationality – Belgium

	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	Of which: Women 2023 (%)
Morocco	5 926	2 408	3 170	3 996	5 084	4 856	4 975	3 756	3 698	4 842	5 289	55
Syria	205	92	185	253	243	474	979	1 431	3 385	3 615	3 776	44
Romania	1 155	824	1 192	1 535	2 031	2 219	2 409	2 079	1 968	2 791	3 460	54
Afghanistan	283	194	326	534	875	1 067	1 418	1 464	1 460	1 979	2 551	31
Italy	1 856	1 199	1 067	1 048	1 174	1 352	1 589	1 217	1 229	1 536	2 091	49
Türkiye	1 857	691	843	989	1 061	985	1 073	882	911	1 797	1 978	48
Poland	888	742	1 136	1 243	1 498	1 528	1 710	1 096	1 064	1 727	1 834	59
Iraq	612	377	546	655	930	672	759	888	1 891	2 001	1 829	42
Dem. Rep. of the Congo	1 526	713	1 061	1 016	1 201	1 191	1 359	1 178	1 240	1 384	1 607	57
Netherlands	1 272	705	993	1 390	1 368	1 064	1 296	939	1 040	1 433	1 552	48
France	973	586	647	673	795	869	952	862	1 038	1 225	1 446	54
Cameroon	915	546	738	845	872	955	1 046	945	1 196	1 266	1 311	54
Guinea	941	416	635	681	972	855	832	711	790	1 069	1 271	58
Spain	379	266	443	513	717	706	741	612	716	925	1 064	47
Russia	1 525	641	950	1 029	973	896	1 059	835	798	1 047	1 060	62
Other countries	14 488	8 326	13 139	15 535	17 605	16 511	18 397	15 020	16 809	19 845	23 094	
Total	34 801	18 726	27 071	31 935	37 399	36 200	40 594	33 915	39 233	48 482	55 213	51

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/y6qo09>.

Table B.6. Acquisitions of nationality by country of former nationality – Canada

	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	Of which: Women 2023 (%)
India	15 388	26 494	28 095	16 571	9 964	19 407	31 207	15 368	20 797	59 405	78 487	48
Philippines	14 806	27 930	31 876	23 804	14 016	19 592	33 806	15 956	18 207	41 501	36 803	59
China	10 762	22 895	21 255	11 336	6 342	10 476	14 539	5 126	5 831	12 711	14 690	54
Nigeria	1 339	3 007	4 217	2 154	1 888	4 382	5 005	2 278	3 283	12 633	14 277	49
Pakistan	5 276	9 073	8 659	5 768	5 084	9 386	11 166	4 733	5 539	15 186	13 368	50
Syria	414	1 099	1 255	654	587	1 596	6 453	7 237	10 046	20 507	13 027	49
Iran	3 383	9 414	8 992	3 926	3 520	10 019	14 027	4 885	4 847	13 074	10 748	52
United States	4 469	7 359	6 666	4 495	3 385	4 227	5 621	2 479	3 478	9 240	8 626	51
France	2 051	5 724	4 544	2 204	2 081	3 835	5 500	2 317	2 733	8 171	8 263	46
Brazil	1 016	2 477	2 044	1 007	711	1 296	2 044	843	1 353	5 285	6 880	51
United Kingdom	4 765	7 333	6 255	4 170	3 009	3 519	4 842	2 021	3 039	6 886	6 767	41
Iraq	2 394	4 621	5 195	2 974	2 237	3 943	5 046	2 003	2 252	7 747	6 101	49
Algeria	1 845	7 277	5 693	2 468	2 003	3 337	4 243	1 593	1 543	5 205	5 463	50
Viet Nam	1 135	2 231	1 955	1 161	811	1 766	2 603	1 152	1 504	4 419	5 386	61
Eritrea	308	623	724	607	471	655	1 134	483	726	3 138	5 338	45
Other countries	59 691	125 088	114 772	64 523	50 269	79 066	103 321	42 520	51 997	150 569	145 767	
Total	129 042	262 645	252 197	147 822	106 378	176 502	250 557	110 994	137 175	375 677	379 991	51

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/y6qo09>.

Table B.6. Acquisitions of nationality by country of former nationality – Chile

	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	Of which: Women 2023 (%)
Colombia	10	24	26	44	95	144	25	58	401	711	1 830	51
Peru	104	166	122	121	598	155	68	111	606	337	459	59
Ecuador	153	238	142	167	948	226	74	90	484	224	114	67
Venezuela	94	126	83	94	271	272	53	68	309	145	106	57
Bolivia	2	14	10	15	103	41	20	32	250	128	105	76
Dominican Republic	58	95	55	66	225	236	29	33	222	103	79	65
Cuba	88	113	84	70	180	175	12	18	188	105	77	53
Argentina	1	6	4	14	43	86	3	11	88	38	72	26
Haiti	22	31	29	28	66	68	14	16	66	35	49	37
Spain	7	16	8	6	35	26	6	8	43	29	27	41
Russia	3	5	6	4	26	33	2	7	30	18	19	89
Brazil	12	4	2	12	33	31	2	2	30	18	10	20
India	4	7	10	4	14	18	4	..	16	5	9	44
Mexico	1	6	2	3	7	11	2	3	12	10	8	50
Türkiye	11	3	10	5	19	27	7	1	14	12	7	43
Other countries	108	194	98	139	328	252	33	46	225	133	90	
Total	678	1 048	691	792	2 991	1 801	354	504	2 984	2 051	3 061	53

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/y6qo09>.

Table B.6. Acquisitions of nationality by country of former nationality – Costa Rica

	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	Of which: Women 2023 (%)
Nicaragua	1 455	1 043	1 971	3 010	3 576	3 617	3 690	2 811	2 447	3 256	3 900	..
Venezuela	53	25	54	136	191	286	448	263	231	378	658	..
Colombia	610	394	667	757	658	594	457	242	259	351	422	..
El Salvador	93	73	160	196	274	246	234	148	105	162	231	..
United States	119	70	146	182	153	142	108	74	49	126	159	..
Honduras	38	27	57	107	94	111	101	61	56	79	123	..
Panama	61	39	61	118	86	87	70	39	34	628	104	..
Peru	111	46	77	134	87	69	64	59	26	60	78	..
Cuba	108	52	80	113	104	107	78	64	34	45	76	..
Dominican Republic	89	46	65	182	113	125	94	43	44	53	62	..
Guatemala	38	17	43	43	32	59	57	28	34	37	54	..
Mexico	32	22	25	44	28	45	59	20	20	36	46	..
Spain	18	5	15	40	43	42	39	27	23	37	42	..
Argentina	6	8	12	28	21	21	21	11	13	39	38	..
Italy	11	6	15	25	32	14	19	16	16	9	30	..
Other countries	208	145	343	447	383	266	269	164	181	197	254	
Total	3 050	2 018	3 791	5 562	5 875	5 831	5 808	4 070	3 572	5 493	6 277	57

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/y6qo09>.

Table B.6. Acquisitions of nationality by country of former nationality – Czechia

	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	Of which: Women 2023 (%)
Ukraine	948	2 075	1 044	1 429	1 891	1 319	1 002	940	1 484	1 573	1 254	..
Russia	162	463	305	563	752	633	574	516	921	921	1 175	..
Slovak Republic	270	574	111	372	630	501	421	365	587	684	858	..
Belarus	53	137	94	135	215	139	107	115	139	141	167	..
Viet Nam	166	298	271	405	223	231	129	89	174	176	125	..
Kazakhstan	65	122	48	50	64	53	41	60	87	91	122	..
Moldova	41	175	55	93	138	118	92	58	88	72	62	..
Poland	176	105	34	96	110	60	58	54	78	122	57	..
Bulgaria	27	52	51	65	87	53	30	31	46	49	50	..
Serbia	..	57	65	66	90	57	38	47	42	22	35	..
Romania	30	311	111	115	108	82	69	33	44	58	33	..
North Macedonia	14	20	23	28	47	31	22	15	32	49	25	..
Armenia	46	144	49	35	41	19	30	33	31	47	23	..
Syria	23	28	18	29	10	10	8	8	33	24	22	..
Azerbaijan	2	16	4	5	3	3	6	2	12	27	21	..
Other countries	491	537	2 642	2 050	2 031	1 951	1 829	1 848	2 407	2 397	2 360	..
Total	2 514	5 114	4 925	5 536	6 440	5 260	4 456	4 214	6 205	6 453	6 389	..

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/y6qo09>.

Table B.6. Acquisitions of nationality by country of former nationality – Denmark

	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	Of which: Women 2023 (%)
Pakistan	77	38	191	641	199	82	43	630	470	332	213	41
United Kingdom	17	21	20	85	164	143	118	692	546	327	202	46
Germany	41	27	38	110	248	168	129	375	290	278	159	53
Stateless	46	161	130	415	274	92	14	353	166	193	147	48
Ukraine	32	10	72	228	329	73	79	362	380	258	144	47
Poland	39	29	45	174	372	122	78	384	232	201	143	64
Romania	23	8	43	101	164	49	38	197	202	139	131	62
India	9	34	31	211	85	48	45	241	269	302	130	45
Sweden	33	47	105	277	164	185	117	140	128	213	129	57
Norway	33	25	18	49	27	22	18	55	61	121	119	59
Iran	23	130	100	453	157	30	25	100	127	94	113	49
Iraq	356	1 588	1 131	2 917	357	96	82	195	158	139	85	54
Afghanistan	151	917	408	1 621	297	67	62	164	176	101	83	35
Türkiye	166	150	193	977	353	113	71	192	214	155	83	49
Nepal	..	3	4	27	30	15	9	65	88	75	82	45
Other countries	704	1 559	9 216	6 742	4 052	1 531	853	2 931	2 976	2 221	1 392	..
Total	1 750	4 747	11 745	15 028	7 272	2 836	1 781	7 076	6 483	5 149	3 355	53

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/y6qo09>.

Table B.6. Acquisitions of nationality by country of former nationality – Estonia

	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	Of which: Women 2023 (%)
Stateless	1 129	1 360	737	1 452	590	497	483	501	640	377	516	54
Russia	169	204	132	244	225	199	230	198	298	365	467	59
Belarus	2	3	..	5	6	6	4	5	7	15	17	59
Ukraine	18	30	19	29	30	26	33	19	34	10	12	33
Latvia	1	3	1	8	2	7	1	5	10	4	9	56
Türkiye	..	1	1	2	1	2	5	3	3	6	8	0
Pakistan	1	4	1	1	2	8	1	1	5	0
Nigeria	1	..	1	..	4	50
Lithuania	1	2	1	1	1	6	4	1	4	0
Armenia	1	12	4	6	1	8	5	2	4	25
Georgia	1	1	..	3	3	1	5	1	3	3	4	50
Egypt	2	2	..	1	1	..	3	33
Israel	1	1	1	..	1	1	3	67
Finland	1	3	..	1	2	1	2	2	50
Sri Lanka	2	2	..	1	2	50
Other countries	8	8	..	15	13	17	11	11	25	24	18	
Total	1 330	1 614	897	1 775	882	766	779	770	1 034	812	1 078	55

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/y6qo09>.

Table B.6. Acquisitions of nationality by country of former nationality – Finland

	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	Of which: Women 2023 (%)
Russia	2 103	2 317	1 728	2 028	2 758	1 766	1 946	1 546	1 161	2 062	1 906	61
Iraq	521	405	560	534	742	621	589	602	744	950	1 517	39
Syria	22	16	28	47	118	118	299	205	360	352	805	48
Somalia	814	834	955	1 066	957	856	583	541	436	554	728	51
Afghanistan	479	251	242	376	469	339	309	264	227	363	681	36
Estonia	436	382	420	459	705	541	658	516	370	626	486	58
Sweden	146	186	165	206	212	210	248	196	282	199	332	44
Ukraine	157	141	145	163	281	202	255	220	171	321	309	63
Nigeria	87	111	179	175	283	157	113	100	67	160	306	50
Thailand	104	125	150	193	261	249	281	304	209	325	296	84
Viet Nam	150	114	146	225	249	197	221	148	140	331	293	67
Iran	341	219	140	222	309	244	205	156	155	219	288	45
Pakistan	105	121	135	143	228	110	121	70	59	143	259	52
India	99	152	137	193	245	154	174	181	105	174	257	63
Türkiye	271	257	229	264	313	210	260	172	125	238	243	50
Other countries	3 095	2 629	2 562	3 081	4 089	3 237	3 387	2 595	2 032	3 181	3 518	
Total	8 930	8 260	7 921	9 375	12 219	9 211	9 649	7 816	6 643	10 198	12 224	53

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/y6qo09>.

Table B.6. Acquisitions of nationality by country of former nationality – France

	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	Of which: Women 2023 (%)
Morocco	16 662	18 051	19 110	17 769	16 687	15 390	15 776	12 759	18 905	16 131	13 302	51
Algeria	13 408	15 142	17 377	17 662	16 283	14 867	14 785	11 072	15 228	13 368	11 411	50
Tunisia	5 569	6 274	7 018	7 663	7 045	6 687	6 640	5 346	8 710	7 555	6 364	47
Türkiye	5 873	5 835	5 595	5 757	5 332	5 101	5 198	3 982	5 543	5 394	4 715	49
Comoros	2 307	2 175	1 881	2 869	2 917	3 903	2 613	1 834	2 510	2 127	2 770	49
Congo	1 808	1 797	2 089	2 181	2 967	2 935	2 994	2 248	4 282	3 687	2 678	52
Mali	2 645	3 345	3 621	4 111	4 057	3 662	3 638	2 666	4 029	3 293	2 592	46
Côte d'Ivoire	2 513	3 055	3 188	3 652	3 363	3 012	2 863	2 399	3 887	3 319	2 556	53
Senegal	2 823	3 048	3 382	3 369	3 249	2 949	2 940	2 224	3 569	2 999	2 407	49
Cameroon	2 579	3 010	3 125	3 377	3 137	2 502	2 463	2 108	3 841	2 859	2 081	59
Haiti	2 121	2 181	2 228	2 922	2 574	2 496	2 603	2 059	2 870	2 365	2 001	52
United Kingdom	354	279	374	517	1 733	3 268	4 088	3 146	3 693	2 637	1 884	51
Romania	1 409	1 486	1 557	1 695	1 882	1 956	1 896	1 522	2 598	2 283	1 788	58
Guinea	1 208	1 457	1 678	1 820	1 995	1 828	1 878	1 545	2 760	2 336	1 752	45
China	1 497	1 835	1 830	2 057	1 720	1 600	1 502	1 087	1 640	1 608	1 608	52
Other countries	34 500	36 643	39 555	41 731	39 333	37 858	37 944	30 486	46 320	42 522	37 379	
Total	97 276	105 613	113 608	119 152	114 274	110 014	109 821	86 483	130 385	114 483	97 288	52

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/y6qo09>.

Table B.6. Acquisitions of nationality by country of former nationality – Germany

	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	Of which: Women 2023 (%)
Syria	1 508	1 820	2 027	2 263	2 479	2 880	3 860	6 700	19 095	48 385	75 485	36
Türkiye	27 970	22 463	19 695	16 290	14 984	16 700	16 235	11 630	12 245	14 265	10 735	49
Iraq	3 150	3 172	3 450	3 553	3 480	4 080	4 645	4 770	4 420	6 815	10 710	40
Romania	2 504	2 566	3 001	3 828	4 238	4 325	5 830	5 930	6 920	6 990	7 575	57
Afghanistan	3 054	3 000	2 572	2 482	2 400	2 545	2 675	2 880	3 175	4 205	6 520	35
Iran	2 560	2 546	2 533	2 661	2 689	3 080	3 805	3 965	4 020	4 790	6 420	46
Ukraine	4 539	3 142	4 168	4 048	2 718	2 455	4 260	2 260	1 915	5 565	5 910	68
Poland	5 462	5 932	5 957	6 632	6 613	6 220	6 020	5 000	5 490	5 555	5 440	66
Italy	2 754	3 245	3 406	3 597	4 256	4 050	4 475	4 075	5 045	4 510	4 000	52
Stateless	957	999	897	868	782	705	735	795	1 355	2 580	3 595	39
India	1 190	1 295	1 343	1 549	1 619	1 760	2 130	2 235	2 515	2 775	3 405	43
Israel	1 904	1 432	1 481	1 428	1 080	680	1 000	1 025	2 485	3 685	3 170	45
Greece	3 498	2 800	3 058	3 444	3 424	3 235	3 130	2 650	3 220	2 970	2 585	49
Morocco	2 710	2 689	2 551	2 450	2 390	2 365	2 390	2 320	2 055	2 115	2 520	49
Bulgaria	1 790	1 718	1 619	1 676	1 739	1 830	1 990	2 040	2 260	2 135	2 315	59
Other countries	46 803	49 603	49 559	53 614	57 320	55 430	65 725	51 605	55 380	51 435	49 710	
Total	112 353	108 422	107 317	110 383	112 211	112 340	128 905	109 880	131 595	168 775	200 095	45

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/y6qo09>.

Table B.6. Acquisitions of nationality by country of former nationality – Greece

	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	Of which: Women 2023 (%)
Albania	25 830	18 409	10 665	28 251	29 769	24 203	14 050	10 795	7 736	9 631	9 943	52
Ukraine	246	231	188	504	449	388	171	223	183	334	384	74
Romania	129	156	136	234	306	291	205	273	219	248	317	64
Russia	2	309	289	386	345	353	184	186	195	291	303	79
Georgia	359	226	189	331	323	300	207	148	129	207	247	65
Bulgaria	192	200	142	287	329	220	136	230	181	213	195	73
Moldova	159	124	114	365	378	241	137	115	104	171	184	77
Cyprus	118	93	73	95	76	38	46	61	60	152	159	42
Armenia	189	150	109	296	287	240	154	82	107	118	152	66
India	16	18	18	255	278	245	190	171	131	110	141	41
Egypt	58	57	45	358	283	144	114	78	56	84	112	38
United Kingdom	41	43	43	31	58	52	30	118	264	142	99	54
Syria	3	87	46	123	133	78	68	37	44	73	94	44
United States	126	65	62	52	48	51	20	46	51	61	82	65
Serbia	372	59	35	120	86	59	42	48	39	77	74	69
Other countries	1 622	1 602	683	1 131	1 157	954	574	661	621	821	833	
Total	29 462	21 829	12 837	32 819	34 305	27 857	16 328	13 272	10 120	12 733	13 319	54

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/y6qo09>.

Table B.6. Acquisitions of nationality by country of former nationality – Hungary

	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	Of which: Women 2023 (%)
Romania	6 999	6 200	2 605	2 874	1 757	2 123	1 822	1 058	1 319	1 523	1 126	44
Slovak Republic	202	310	208	282	136	223	260	234	298	454	311	59
Russia	97	170	131	119	75	89	93	74	61	100	138	70
Venezuela	2	3	1	..	2	46	129	97	93	229	134	59
Egypt	9	81	93	101	119	191	103	124	105	30	82	43
Ukraine	894	858	386	365	186	192	142	82	75	75	72	71
Serbia	647	410	158	144	93	105	88	52	59	58	61	52
Germany	35	59	29	15	38	50	59	45	60	69	47	57
Viet Nam	15	67	39	36	46	87	100	62	36	51	39	51
Türkiye	20	58	19	20	23	20	26	18	23	21	38	34
United States	9	25	13	17	10	17	25	25	18	18	26	42
China	7	13	12	15	14	12	4	5	8	17	22	50
United Kingdom	7	4	3	11	14	22	52	35	53	23	20	15
Iran	11	16	10	21	10	11	21	13	14	24	19	21
Poland	11	45	15	18	22	19	21	11	21	23	18	72
Other countries	213	426	326	277	242	301	310	204	268	258	276	
Total	9 178	8 745	4 048	4 315	2 787	3 508	3 255	2 139	2 511	2 973	2 429	49

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/y6qo09>.

Table B.6. Acquisitions of nationality by country of former nationality – Iceland

	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	Of which: Women 2023 (%)
Poland	89	149	265	224	223	149	131	134	190	180	156	50
Thailand	26	43	42	48	34	37	19	19	45	25	40	78
Philippines	89	52	74	55	41	20	27	13	46	39	32	63
Viet Nam	39	33	33	26	22	27	30	18	87	49	32	59
United Kingdom	2	1	3	2	5	6	8	9	26	14	22	23
Russia	18	13	25	14	20	10	11	7	14	7	21	76
Spain	5	2	2	3	7	4	2	5	5	6	17	47
Syria	..	1	3	8	3	57	4	1	23	15	17	29
United States	13	14	18	11	17	28	12	9	34	21	17	53
Latvia	18	4	21	22	24	19	16	11	30	16	16	63
Iran	4	1	..	1	5	6	2	4	10	7	14	29
Sweden	3	6	11	17	10	15	5	12	18	15	13	62
Albania	1	3	2	9	..	1	1	..	4	4	12	25
Germany	4	12	1	2	3	3	6	4	8	4	11	45
Lithuania	7	16	10	16	15	13	4	15	30	23	11	55
Other countries	279	245	291	245	208	174	159	134	335	281	218	
Total	597	595	801	703	637	569	437	395	905	706	649	53

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/y6qo09>.

Table B.6. Acquisitions of nationality by country of former nationality – Ireland

	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	Of which: Women 2023 (%)
India	3 009	2 939	1 611	1 028	665	629	515	465	746	1 176	2 503	47
Nigeria	5 792	3 293	1 360	776	509	478	305	227	743	783	1 173	51
Pakistan	1 807	1 244	732	419	341	364	125	136	611	1 068	1 068	44
United Kingdom	55	51	54	98	529	687	665	945	1 186	1 257	1 009	45
Romania	564	1 029	901	756	763	819	552	538	720	895	1 007	50
Poland	508	939	1 161	1 326	1 357	1 464	925	758	819	875	990	51
China	656	576	494	304	225	234	162	129	293	389	857	50
Brazil	245	459	393	304	264	220	188	180	334	524	844	50
Syria	53	55	26	31	24	28	21	35	152	635	730	48
Philippines	2 486	2 184	1 167	729	362	320	191	157	217	333	698	61
Egypt	150	161	125	81	60	71	52	46	108	193	396	39
United States	217	304	246	233	177	195	154	132	199	333	389	60
South Africa	489	563	..	213	140	143	97	85	176	257	370	54
Russia	328	320	154	109	96	91	70	66	113	198	323	58
Latvia	150	226	327	379	392	308	221	146	240	194	287	54
Other countries	7 754	6 747	4 814	3 258	2 291	2 172	1 548	1 430	3 121	4 487	5 621	
Total	24 263	21 090	13 565	10 044	8 195	8 223	5 791	5 475	9 778	13 597	18 265	49

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/y6qo09>.

Table B.6. Acquisitions of nationality by country of former nationality – Italy

	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	Of which: Women 2023 (%)
Albania	13 671	21 148	35 134	36 920	27 112	21 841	26 033	28 107	22 493	38 129	31 728	50
Morocco	25 421	29 025	32 448	35 212	22 645	15 496	15 812	18 024	16 588	30 953	27 901	48
Argentina	362	331	404	753	956	1 348	2 304	1 717	3 669	10 041	16 076	49
Romania	4 386	6 442	14 403	12 967	8 042	6 542	10 201	11 449	9 435	16 302	14 409	59
Brazil	1 786	1 579	1 458	5 799	9 936	10 660	10 762	7 149	5 460	11 239	12 891	52
India	4 863	5 015	6 176	9 527	8 200	5 425	4 683	5 602	4 489	8 509	9 736	38
Egypt	2 130	3 138	4 422	3 438	1 477	1 122	1 245	2 791	3 531	7 029	8 675	36
Bangladesh	3 511	5 323	5 953	8 442	4 411	1 873	1 541	5 661	5 116	6 921	8 066	35
Moldova	1 430	1 475	2 464	5 605	3 827	3 068	3 788	4 340	3 633	7 527	8 020	63
Ukraine	1 806	1 443	1 822	2 890	2 698	2 423	2 400	2 305	2 682	5 393	5 881	72
Ecuador	854	1 182	2 660	4 604	3 426	2 306	3 041	2 579	3 362	5 739	5 801	58
Tunisia	3 521	4 411	5 585	4 882	3 187	2 484	2 471	2 718	3 036	5 361	5 351	43
Peru	2 055	3 136	5 503	5 783	3 689	2 421	2 685	2 553	2 748	4 851	5 131	59
Senegal	2 263	4 037	4 144	5 091	4 489	2 918	2 869	4 005	2 881	4 750	4 049	36
Philippines	1 048	1 937	3 050	2 737	1 964	1 856	2 338	1 818	2 342	3 488	4 044	56
Other countries	31 605	40 265	52 409	56 941	40 546	30 740	34 828	30 985	29 992	47 484	45 808	
Total	100 712	129 887	178 035	201 591	146 605	112 523	127 001	131 803	121 457	213 716	213 567	50

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/y6qo09>.

Table B.6. Acquisitions of nationality by country of former nationality – Japan

	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	Of which: Women 2023 (%)
Korea	4 331	4 744	5 247	5 434	5 631	4 357	4 360	4 113	3 564	2 663	2 807	..
China	2 845	3 060	2 813	2 626	3 088	3 025	2 374	2 881	2 526	2 262	2 651	..
Viet Nam	264	301	269	360	625	..
Brazil	383	409	444	340	526	..
Philippines	235	301	237	217	347	..
Nepal	100	108	139	331	..
Peru	168	172	175	185	206	..
Sri Lanka	46	55	77	80	160	..
Bangladesh	81	125	129	125	147	..
Russia	47	108	..
Other countries	495	622	638	688	892	
Total	8 646	9 277	9 469	9 554	10 315	9 074	8 453	9 079	8 167	7 059	8 800	..

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/y6qo09>.

Table B.6. Acquisitions of nationality by country of former nationality – Korea

	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	Of which: Women 2023 (%)
China	5 805	7 056	6 755	5 331	5 097	5 092	4 620	8 122	5 398	4 654	5 081	..
Viet Nam	4 034	3 044	2 834	3 429	3 894	4 988	4 008	4 194	4 335	4 580	3 952	..
United States	1 587	1 764	1 681	1 498	1 667	1 694	1 490	1 075	1 734	1 976	2 693	..
Canada	226	250	305	289	359	339	280	228	357	415	678	..
Chinese Taipei	274	286	479	303	249	279	388	418	466	286	435	..
Philippines	532	400	412	476	496	750	612	500	363	370	433	..
Cambodia	509	404	427	503	418	464	365	327	278	291	370	..
Thailand	91	84	81	75	94	99	115	116	128	187	190	..
Australia	87	95	96	102	112	116	122	64	65	130	165	..
Mongolia	123	133	119	125	121	125	117	159	122	78	154	..
Japan	84	82	95	68	68	71	59	72	110	127	150	..
Uzbekistan	110	96	120	87	82	86	93	151	115	136	133	..
New Zealand	22	22	17	31	35	37	35	14	46	67	122	..
Russia	125	93	134	138	100	77	119	104	97	109	122	..
Nepal	60	66	71	65	68	85	57	60	23	26	33	..
Other countries	287	325	308	334	433	456	395	461	420	446	437	..
Total	13 956	14 200	13 934	12 854	13 293	14 758	12 875	16 065	14 057	13 878	15 148	..

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/y6qo09>.

Table B.6. Acquisitions of nationality by country of former nationality – Latvia

	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	Of which: Women 2023 (%)
Russia	71	109	70	127	53	50	59	92	40	114	142	..
Belarus	12	15	12	14	5	13	12	11	4	16	6	..
China	1	1	2	3	..
Spain	..	1	..	1	1	..
Stateless	4	..	3	5	..	3	1	..
Türkiye	1	..	3	..	1	1	..	3	1	..
Other countries	2 994	2 016	1 809	1 815	902	859	737	616	375	388	441	..
Total	3 083	2 141	1 897	1 957	962	930	808	725	419	518	595	..

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/y6qo09>.

Table B.6. Acquisitions of nationality by country of former nationality – Lithuania

	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	Of which: Women 2023 (%)
Stateless	57	61	50	33	31	50	38	45	88	29	14	..
Ukraine	19	26	28	36	29	26	16	20	31	15	12	..
Azerbaijan	1	1	2	5	2	..	2	5	..
Belarus	14	12	14	16	22	29	9	20	33	16	4	..
Türkiye	4	2	..	2	6	8	..	4	3	..	3	..
Moldova	2	3	2	1	3	2	2	2	..	1	3	..
Jordan	..	1	1	1	1	2	2	..
Georgia	3	1	2	5	1	3	..	2	1	1	2	..
Nigeria	2	1	1	1	3	1	..
Iraq	1	1	..
India	1	1	1	2	..	1	..	3	1	..
Pakistan	1	..	2	1	..	1	4	1	..
Viet Nam	1	2	4	1	2	4	..	2	3	1	1	..
Uzbekistan	3	1	..	2	1	2	3	1	1	..
Russia	53	49	38	49	43	39	34	47	45	29	1	..
Other countries	23	26	28	16	28	..	19	3	
Total	173	179	177	173	166	196	123	176	236	126	55	..

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/y6qo09>.

Table B.6. Acquisitions of nationality by country of former nationality – Luxembourg

	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	Of which: Women 2023 (%)
Brazil	18	15	30	100	280	931	2 116	1 799	137	3 275	4 404	52
Portugal	982	1 211	1 168	1 089	1 328	1 594	1 067	981	1 141	1 227	1 237	51
France	639	860	1 205	2 262	2 468	2 784	2 466	2 264	1 704	1 191	1 131	51
United States	48	80	100	233	412	665	730	438	139	889	936	52
Belgium	1 577	1 346	1 264	1 836	1 624	1 598	1 335	1 013	844	551	516	49
Italy	314	418	313	304	379	461	339	256	283	273	320	53
Germany	195	209	279	246	288	364	360	360	289	289	308	51
Russia	22	30	40	31	60	77	95	88	126	175	222	69
United Kingdom	37	66	75	128	384	440	431	291	201	158	189	46
Syria	1	1	8	10	30	142	172	173	48
Cape Verde	44	27	47	33	142	220	167	129	128	186	159	56
India	5	5	7	13	24	28	52	34	68	99	124	52
Iraq	..	2	..	1	7	12	10	13	62	92	120	35
Montenegro	99	118	127	134	264	490	372	260	198	172	101	52
Spain	30	48	42	44	85	124	90	79	98	83	100	55
Other countries	400	555	609	686	1 285	2 068	1 810	1 352	1 241	1 667	1 864	
Total	4 411	4 991	5 306	7 140	9 030	11 864	11 450	9 387	6 801	10 499	11 904	52

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/y6qo09>.

Table B.6. Acquisitions of nationality by country of former nationality – Mexico

	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	Of which: Women 2022 (%)
Venezuela	334	259	484	580	725	1 245	1 096	801	253	552	..	55
Cuba	531	287	305	341	403	467	376	280	145	161	..	49
Colombia	601	397	378	358	346	364	265	201	66	78	..	63
United States	163	119	169	166	165	173	116	70	16	29	..	34
Spain	304	130	126	172	141	147	93	63	18	20	..	50
Argentina	59	40	62	56	63	78	49	31	15	18	..	39
El Salvador	8	6	9	14	13	14	13	13	9	17	..	12
Honduras	36	44	29	28	38	41	45	24	7	16	..	94
Guatemala	159	100	93	79	79	72	58	35	6	16	..	25
Peru	129	60	74	89	66	94	78	57	17	15	..	40
Nigeria	119	120	136	119	127	189	139	46	22	13	..	38
Dominican Republic	46	28	23	32	36	35	28	19	3	12	..	50
Ecuador	109	66	66	75	73	100	79	47	26	11	..	18
Russia	141	62	57	98	84	75	62	38	18	10	..	50
Italy	59	53	63	81	72	69	52	30	6	8	..	25
Other countries	783	570	662	652	636	709	521	289	91	130	..	
Total	3 581	2 341	2 736	2 940	3 067	3 872	3 070	2 044	718	1 106	5 294	50

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/y6qo09>.

Table B.6. Acquisitions of nationality by country of former nationality – Netherlands

	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	Of which: Women 2023 (%)
Syria	236	235	210	86	94	214	1 587	15 898	27 040	14 937	11 439	50
Eritrea	30	52	70	51	63	70	237	3 911	7 391	5 709	5 219	53
Türkiye	2 872	3 119	2 824	2 764	2 947	2 675	2 828	3 052	2 886	3 292	4 585	48
India	415	794	638	574	616	661	756	2 035	1 739	3 012	3 953	48
Morocco	3 886	4 251	3 272	3 364	2 944	3 005	2 582	2 973	2 191	2 284	2 781	54
Russia	291	446	355	403	376	399	409	847	846	1 238	1 868	63
Iran	848	690	464	449	492	443	463	1 338	1 055	1 379	1 569	49
Iraq	929	1 331	909	922	738	761	849	1 653	1 430	1 503	1 422	49
Afghanistan	1 341	1 027	510	477	453	392	390	1 253	1 014	1 215	1 293	51
Stateless	3 147	1 537	1 126	1 059	48
Suriname	659	828	594	601	536	560	593	721	678	674	964	61
Ukraine	228	337	277	256	277	304	343	708	631	664	902	64
South Africa	132	204	149	139	136	158	165	283	272	432	782	53
China	494	628	745	499	289	455	694	334	403	620	773	56
Pakistan	248	384	322	242	226	231	303	556	429	459	748	48
Other countries	13 273	18 252	16 538	17 707	17 476	17 523	21 992	17 234	13 417	15 134	17 544	
Total	25 882	32 578	27 877	28 534	27 663	27 851	34 191	55 943	62 959	53 678	56 901	53

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/y6qo09>.

Table B.6. Acquisitions of nationality by country of former nationality – New Zealand

	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	Of which: Women 2023 (%)
India	2 205	2 214	2 394	3 339	4 665	4 845	4 680	3 309	2 727	8 169	6 609	46
United Kingdom	4 824	4 413	3 996	4 926	5 955	5 472	4 413	3 747	3 054	6 093	4 836	49
Philippines	2 781	2 715	2 988	3 018	3 567	3 078	2 556	2 016	1 521	4 431	3 822	55
South Africa	3 264	3 690	3 531	3 636	2 895	2 691	2 463	1 740	1 245	4 065	3 387	51
Fiji	2 088	2 235	2 367	2 694	3 243	2 541	2 013	1 299	966	1 668	1 821	52
Samoa	2 931	2 589	2 721	3 030	2 952	3 186	2 814	1 596	1 287	1 458	1 815	46
China	1 254	1 320	1 005	1 221	1 314	1 176	1 107	738	573	1 326	1 668	51
United States	558	564	516	627	774	813	663	525	522	957	786	55
Australia	216	285	315	507	681	768	600	495	669	588	741	57
Sri Lanka	264	330	438	519	678	636	546	327	285	807	618	46
Tonga	522	501	504	765	684	849	702	384	312	270	531	51
New Zealand	141	201	225	321	372	435	408	291	240	558	522	49
Pakistan	141	156	153	195	201	363	537	471	348	753	513	51
Brazil	135	153	207	243	375	291	333	204	216	480	456	53
Malaysia	411	399	408	507	552	513	393	273	213	342	423	54
Other countries	6 096	6 129	5 832	6 435	7 539	8 052	6 783	5 334	3 981	8 409	7 878	
Total	27 831	27 894	27 600	31 983	36 447	35 709	31 011	22 749	18 159	40 374	36 426	51

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/y6qo09>.

Table B.6. Acquisitions of nationality by country of former nationality – Norway

	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	Of which: Women 2023 (%)
Syria	57	65	84	107	289	144	253	817	1 361	4 188	9 033	40
Poland	166	324	241	276	442	122	152	258	1 727	3 735	3 358	58
Eritrea	323	563	1 114	1 879	2 971	1 091	1 406	2 790	3 559	3 592	2 588	43
Sweden	229	253	300	233	257	235	133	1 172	4 590	3 657	2 384	49
United Kingdom	52	62	54	27	71	66	23	230	1 578	818	1 054	41
Russia	418	401	444	457	464	353	186	638	3 216	1 702	910	67
Somalia	1 667	1 138	451	1 200	1 746	1 881	2 986	3 051	1 831	1 185	899	51
Afghanistan	1 005	1 371	1 088	999	1 264	451	655	360	1 361	1 369	867	43
Philippines	479	851	704	567	1 389	410	682	718	1 955	1 359	861	76
Iraq	1 663	1 418	817	824	1 175	604	471	340	463	612	832	31
Serbia	88	173	177	124	154	86	56	360	1 161	1 067	778	54
Denmark	207	161	120	39	77	63	26	487	1 576	945	719	45
Romania	56	116	85	103	132	69	72	147	560	872	702	57
Germany	124	139	125	141	245	89	101	86	271	390	660	52
Ethiopia	195	362	336	428	709	192	436	403	252	407	655	49
Other countries	6 494	7 939	6 292	6 308	10 263	4 505	5 563	7 841	15 631	13 471	11 040	
Total	13 223	15 336	12 432	13 712	21 648	10 361	13 201	19 698	41 092	39 369	37 340	50

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/y6qo09>.

Table B.6. Acquisitions of nationality by country of former nationality – Poland

	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	Of which: Women 2023 (%)
Belarus	390	741	527	512	229	833	2 145	2 010	2 211	3 005	4 466	..
Ukraine	908	1 911	2 010	1 432	900	2 608	7 072	3 985	4 007	5 201	887	..
Russia	171	370	251	112	63	219	367	311	329	404	597	..
Armenia	111	367	285	160	113	119	120	90	67	107	106	..
Viet Nam	105	289	222	68	120	136	246	93	143	154	86	..
Germany	389	38	17	31	34	39	31	15	31	46	37	..
India	12	14	36	6	10	23	33	20	26	27	35	..
Egypt	11	5	15	9	2	30	36	27	23	40	35	..
Georgia	11	14	8	13	8	3	16	21	13	11	34	..
Kazakhstan	41	36	36	17	13	40	32	27	23	12	32	..
Türkiye	17	33	36	34	22	33	57	43	56	77	30	..
United States	86	26	22	23	11	19	32	15	31	35	27	..
Algeria	6	6	11	8	1	7	15	9	10	22	25	..
Romania	11	25	22	15	11	19	14	15	18	15	21	..
United Kingdom	16	7	8	6	7	29	47	40	27	44	21	..
Other countries	1 177	636	542	1 640	2 715	436	2 654	438	522	622	482	
Total	3 462	4 518	4 048	4 086	4 259	4 593	12 917	7 159	7 537	9 822	6 921	..

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/y6qo09>.

Table B.6. Acquisitions of nationality by country of former nationality – Portugal

	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	Of which: Women 2023 (%)
Brazil	5 102	4 656	6 394	7 804	6 084	6 928	6 468	10 109	7 736	6 404	5 473	58
Cape Verde	3 821	3 200	2 854	3 607	2 591	3 640	3 462	4 701	2 913	2 225	1 539	55
Ukraine	4 007	3 310	2 895	3 240	1 909	1 752	1 620	2 111	1 603	1 797	1 441	58
Angola	2 131	1 630	1 316	1 507	1 225	1 438	1 387	2 118	1 587	1 598	1 287	56
Nepal	33	53	102	293	319	426	1 103	1 249	1 406	1 215	1 149	38
Guinea-Bissau	2 082	1 915	1 676	1 884	1 226	1 542	1 451	2 257	1 304	1 095	859	50
India	539	490	454	1 002	693	855	747	1 326	1 113	1 104	715	28
Sao Tome and Principe	1 027	938	809	1 061	753	1 006	951	1 271	732	640	531	57
Israel	..	5	4	10	18	14	22	742	1 013	668	521	44
Bangladesh	93	71	98	230	189	284	629	678	788	528	510	38
Pakistan	346	333	189	407	239	285	291	688	507	422	339	28
Venezuela	45	80	51	127	90	188	283	449	406	427	284	61
Romania	796	687	515	621	412	434	484	582	400	260	242	50
Moldova	1 816	1 363	964	815	453	400	356	422	298	156	134	54
Mozambique	199	148	148	206	158	175	161	283	202	174	129	60
Other countries	2 439	2 245	1 927	2 290	1 663	1 966	1 684	3 161	2 508	2 131	1 832	
Total	24 476	21 124	20 396	25 104	18 022	21 333	21 099	32 147	24 516	20 844	16 985	52

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/y6qo09>.

Table B.6. Acquisitions of nationality by country of former nationality – Slovak Republic

	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	Of which: Women 2023 (%)
Ukraine	63	62	73	77	129	127	76	90	74	128	108	59
United States	2	5	31	19	16	39	35	35	21	32	33	48
Germany	1	1	11	38	35	41	33	23	16	35	32	59
Serbia	9	5	8	94	124	42	26	55	242	171	32	44
Hungary	5	1	4	6	13	15	8	8	9	13	29	38
United Kingdom	2	15	33	60	70	30	18	31	28	71
Romania	9	7	5	26	24	25	17	17	9	14	25	60
Russia	20	5	5	7	6	27	21	8	21	10	24	33
Viet Nam	15	49	20	26	53	54	46	40	9	13	19	47
Kazakhstan	2	1	..	1	1	12	83
Belarus	3	5	1	2	5	10	3	4	3	12	10	50
Iraq	..	7	2	1	1	1	5	13	10	60
Switzerland	4	3	9	9	24	3	13	4	8	50
North Macedonia	1	5	3	2	10	3	6	7	5	5	8	25
Afghanistan	1	2	..	1	1	6	5	12	3	9	8	25
Other countries	78	80	140	167	187	261	214	215	143	186	166	
Total	207	234	309	484	645	721	586	548	592	677	552	50

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/y6qo09>.

Table B.6. Acquisitions of nationality by country of former nationality – Slovenia

	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	Of which: Women 2023 (%)
Bosnia and Herzegovina	545	570	741	724	918	1 321	1 228	1 146	988	884	879	51
North Macedonia	122	117	145	166	208	222	209	174	242	234	206	55
Serbia	184	155	127	159	153	179	360	269	236	258	191	51
Russia	12	26	8	11	17	7	13	24	26	31	34	62
Bulgaria	1	1	4	1	5	3	12	18	15	32	34	41
Croatia	93	34	30	30	22	40	66	42	50	29	30	67
Ukraine	35	17	21	29	23	24	33	21	31	15	19	79
Montenegro	32	9	20	25	24	22	17	10	12	8	15	60
Italy	186	11	23	18	27	13	109	85	14	70	13	69
Iran	..	1	..	3	2	2	2	1	2	3	11	36
Poland	1	3	5	2	4	2	..	7	8	75
Kazakhstan	..	2	6	1	1	6	33
Türkiye	1	..	1	..	2	3	..	3	3	4	5	20
Venezuela	9	..	1	1	3	..	54	10	1	24	5	80
Slovak Republic	1	2	3	4	..	2	5	1	5	4	4	100
Other countries	249	112	124	122	154	138	248	236	157	342	592	
Total	1 470	1 057	1 255	1 297	1 563	1 978	2 360	2 042	1 782	1 946	2 052	52

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/y6qo09>.

Table B.6. Acquisitions of nationality by country of former nationality – Spain

	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	Of which: Women 2023 (%)
Morocco	31 674	34 806	24 286	37 010	17 082	25 315	24 527	28 240	42 000	55 463	54 027	47
Venezuela	6 217	4 302	2 332	3 127	1 068	2 034	2 554	5 817	6 536	8 036	30 154	58
Colombia	39 332	25 114	11 881	14 299	5 647	6 826	7 515	9 021	8 328	11 125	18 738	60
Ecuador	39 226	32 756	13 950	15 255	7 301	7 988	8 157	8 336	8 325	10 845	11 326	53
Honduras	1 702	2 142	1 632	2 525	1 267	1 783	2 739	3 868	4 235	5 778	11 189	77
Dominican Republic	14 611	14 110	8 171	9 176	4 107	4 940	5 366	6 897	6 791	8 100	10 275	59
Cuba	7 026	5 618	3 072	4 353	1 429	2 688	3 105	5 405	4 975	4 780	9 790	55
Bolivia	19 278	20 895	11 164	15 802	6 124	8 157	7 417	7 794	8 311	9 016	9 103	60
Peru	19 225	16 601	6 954	6 933	3 224	3 273	3 798	4 219	4 082	5 152	8 489	56
Argentina	8 843	7 059	3 054	3 716	1 445	2 043	2 493	3 581	3 120	3 792	7 208	54
Pakistan	1 949	3 326	2 798	3 148	1 708	2 054	3 057	4 458	5 921	6 400	6 829	34
Brazil	4 698	4 017	2 273	3 427	1 294	2 153	2 737	3 382	3 209	3 831	5 759	63
Nicaragua	417	729	599	1 280	473	1 069	1 201	2 100	2 181	2 756	5 160	77
Paraguay	2 958	3 003	1 935	3 358	1 265	2 500	2 726	3 647	3 219	4 172	4 947	76
Romania	1 174	1 608	966	1 469	696	991	1 696	2 771	3 006	4 217	4 932	57
Other countries	27 463	29 794	19 284	26 066	12 368	16 960	19 866	26 730	29 773	38 118	42 282	
Total	225 793	205 880	114 351	150 944	66 498	90 774	98 954	126 266	144 012	181 581	240 208	55

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/y6qo09>.

Table B.6. Acquisitions of nationality by country of former nationality – Sweden

	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	Of which: Women 2023 (%)
Syria	540	495	1 370	4 479	8 635	10 626	20 066	24 470	31 113	19 069	11 133	49
Eritrea	836	997	1 113	1 451	1 677	1 836	1 865	2 307	3 717	8 325	8 370	44
Afghanistan	776	785	1 198	2 330	2 316	1 912	2 793	2 820	4 269	5 405	3 332	43
Somalia	2 482	2 925	4 776	9 069	8 140	6 746	2 952	2 120	4 522	5 678	2 638	57
India	325	306	457	470	724	816	909	1 283	1 635	2 865	2 624	43
Poland	2 473	2 417	2 333	2 702	2 083	1 783	1 209	2 722	2 071	2 027	2 251	55
Iraq	14 317	7 271	4 955	3 694	3 272	2 579	2 260	3 610	2 371	3 101	2 088	46
Finland	2 255	3 023	2 133	2 182	1 974	2 522	1 730	1 584	2 251	2 432	1 865	62
Stateless	2 005	1 711	3 264	4 395	7 072	5 629	3 197	3 227	2 758	2 338	1 537	45
Romania	744	781	736	886	822	779	573	1 431	934	1 134	1 303	52
Serbia	886	919	1 169	1 234	1 808	1 273	1 037	1 269	1 169	1 561	1 231	51
Germany	837	920	918	858	854	893	694	1 419	1 349	1 315	1 122	52
Iran	1 305	1 128	1 331	1 420	1 788	1 736	1 399	1 584	1 312	1 833	1 116	48
Denmark	564	603	1 510	1 942	1 720	2 052	1 356	1 393	2 045	1 319	1 069	50
Norway	302	370	331	355	384	431	346	1 726	1 858	1 442	1 047	53
Other countries	18 985	18 267	20 655	22 876	25 629	22 205	21 820	27 210	25 980	32 381	25 063	
Total	49 632	42 918	48 249	60 343	68 898	63 818	64 206	80 175	89 354	92 225	67 789	49

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/y6qo09>.

Table B.6. Acquisitions of nationality by country of former nationality – Switzerland

	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	Of which: Women 2023 (%)
Germany	3 835	4 119	5 255	4 657	6 020	6 211	6 640	6 924	7 982	8 987	7 614	51
France	1 580	1 748	2 598	3 133	2 962	2 699	2 747	2 756	3 159	3 666	4 933	50
Italy	4 401	4 495	5 495	5 133	5 863	5 230	4 839	3 945	4 216	4 666	4 347	49
Portugal	2 201	2 458	3 626	3 941	3 920	3 352	2 801	2 055	2 092	2 228	2 356	56
Spain	1 054	1 071	1 501	1 564	1 583	1 491	1 280	994	1 082	1 290	1 419	53
Türkiye	1 628	1 399	1 808	1 729	1 796	1 678	1 802	1 363	1 484	1 658	1 413	52
North Macedonia	1 272	1 288	1 306	1 554	1 721	1 626	1 706	1 270	1 325	1 519	1 238	53
United Kingdom	328	449	617	665	883	1 006	844	727	866	946	1 097	51
Serbia	2 562	1 865	1 677	1 568	1 543	1 493	1 364	1 069	1 219	1 261	1 019	54
Russia	397	397	562	614	589	514	536	485	525	617	747	69
Poland	202	218	258	248	292	283	313	279	379	416	558	63
Eritrea	59	41	77	79	112	166	207	257	327	569	551	41
Bosnia and Herzegovina	1 173	966	1 103	965	972	995	847	566	551	572	502	52
Romania	158	163	219	247	258	237	214	206	252	341	479	63
Belgium	222	219	246	367	420	359	296	232	329	340	436	48
Other countries	13 258	12 425	14 537	15 120	15 575	15 285	13 837	10 933	11 340	12 490	12 590	
Total	34 330	33 321	40 885	41 584	44 509	42 625	40 273	34 061	37 128	41 566	41 299	53

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/y6qo09>.

Table B.6. Acquisitions of nationality by country of former nationality – United Kingdom

	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	Of which: Women 2023 (%)
India	36 349	22 425	18 391	24 615	16 687	15 104	14 680	11 444	11 598	15 689	18 319	46
Pakistan	21 647	12 995	13 083	16 737	10 379	11 802	12 914	11 459	11 139	14 945	16 553	48
Italy	808	479	846	1 282	3 515	5 255	5 774	6 049	8 614	8 607	10 772	52
Nigeria	9 268	8 074	8 049	9 810	6 941	8 696	8 839	8 065	6 734	8 713	8 900	49
Mauritius	890	706	785	1 051	717	710	651	477	472	545	8 772	49
Syria	410	260	302	298	336	832	2 363	1 728	3 230	5 524	8 320	54
Romania	2 487	1 501	1 673	1 979	3 022	5 527	5 604	5 483	7 739	6 629	6 389	48
South Africa	6 447	5 294	4 771	5 059	3 103	3 582	4 797	3 008	4 255	5 247	5 999	49
Poland	6 063	3 161	3 777	4 435	7 113	9 626	8 802	5 430	7 662	5 764	5 919	44
Bangladesh	8 900	3 891	3 611	4 648	3 080	3 572	3 780	3 424	3 909	4 438	5 261	42
Iran	2 389	1 542	1 518	2 097	1 797	2 854	2 960	2 342	4 800	4 600	5 114	58
Sri Lanka	3 851	2 335	2 287	3 431	2 465	2 907	2 986	1 541	4 002	3 839	4 306	50
Philippines	10 372	3 095	2 972	4 257	2 805	2 775	2 788	2 042	2 263	3 458	4 074	33
United States	3 117	3 761	2 961	4 024	3 182	3 270	3 496	2 749	3 360	3 882	3 983	39
France	744	411	728	1 163	2 824	4 103	4 472	3 465	4 474	4 023	3 796	46
Other countries	94 279	55 785	52 300	64 492	55 241	76 396	74 450	61 862	105 552	80 069	90 142	
Total	208 021	125 715	118 054	149 378	123 207	157 011	159 356	130 568	189 803	175 972	206 619	48

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/y6qo09>.

Table B.6. Acquisitions of nationality by country of former nationality – United States

	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	Of which: Women 2023 (%)
Mexico	99 330	94 843	105 910	103 487	118 469	131 950	121 983	83 436	112 910	133 661	102 760	..
India	48 945	36 931	41 178	45 183	49 815	51 325	63 579	47 233	56 085	66 670	52 360	..
Philippines	43 076	34 277	40 438	40 973	36 573	38 519	43 263	33 079	47 989	53 100	40 570	..
Dominican Republic	39 448	23 694	26 582	31 216	29 598	22 891	22 977	18 494	27 853	36 223	33 780	..
Viet Nam	23 798	18 451	21 624	24 406	18 989	20 660	25 193	22 302	23 884	34 966	31 900	..
Cuba	30 299	23 975	25 674	31 939	25 836	31 940	35 974	31 013	47 427	44 411	30 280	..
El Salvador	18 363	15 568	16 886	17 189	16 893	17 260	18 206	12 514	18 220	22 218	20 050	..
Jamaica	16 278	13 387	16 370	16 541	14 889	16 998	17 722	13 202	20 383	22 874	18 460	..
Canada	14 931	13 878	14 969	15 170	13 649	15 796	18 498	13 588	18 368	22 742	17 240	..
Colombia	21 942	16 283	17 024	18 374	16 012	17 402	16 914	12 562	17 253	18 052	16 240	..
Haiti	23 444	13 635	14 037	15 223	12 723	14 343	14 228	10 726	14 744	18 332	14 530	..
Pakistan	13 150	11 426	12 194	11 936	10 225	10 451	13 065	10 000	12 248	18 030	13 360	..
Brazil	9 501	8 574	10 476	10 234	9 634	10 455	10 341	8 214	12 281	13 498	12 400	..
Nigeria	9 426	8 609	10 308	9 447	7 537	8 375	11 203	8 778	10 767	14 474	12 350	..
United Kingdom	11 066	10 333	11 638	11 052	10 485	12 165	13 910	10 126	13 174	15 958	11 960	..
Other countries	356 932	309 552	344 951	350 690	315 938	341 371	396 537	292 987	360 275	469 175	396 010	
Total	779 929	653 416	730 259	753 060	707 265	761 901	843 593	628 254	813 861	1 004 384	824 250	..

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of the tables. See <https://stat.link/y6qo09>.

Metadata related to Tables A.6 and B.6. Acquisitions of nationality

Country	Comments	Source
Australia	From 2014, figures inferior to 5 individuals are not shown.	Department of Home Affairs.
Austria	Data refer to persons living in Austria at the time of acquisition.	Statistics Austria and BMI (Ministry of the Interior).
Belgium	Data refer to all acquisitions of Belgian nationality, irrespective of the type of procedure. Data only take into account those residing in Belgium at the time of the acquisition.	Directorate for Statistics and Economic Information (DGSEI) and Ministry of Justice.
Canada	Data refer to country of birth, not to country of previous nationality. Persons who acquire Canadian citizenship may also hold other citizenships at the same time if allowed by the country of previous nationality.	Immigration, Refugees and Citizenship Canada.
Chile	Register of residence permits.	Department of Foreigners and Migration, Ministry of the Interior and Public Security.
Costa Rica		Tribunal Supremo de Elecciones.
Czechia	Acquisitions of nationality by declaration or by naturalisation.	Ministry of the Interior.
Denmark		Statistics Denmark.
Estonia	Acquisitions of citizenship by naturalisation.	Police and Border Guard Board.
Finland	Includes naturalisations of persons of Finnish origin.	Central Population Register, Statistics Finland.
France		Ministry of the Interior and Ministry of Justice.
Germany	Figures do not include ethnic Germans (<i>Aussiedler</i>). From 2018 on, figures are rounded to the nearest multiple of five.	Federal Office of Statistics.
Greece	Data refer to all possible types of citizenship acquisition: naturalisation, declaration (for Greek descents), adoption by a Greek, etc.	Ministry of Interior and Administrative Reconstruction.
Hungary	Person naturalised in Hungary: naturalisation (the person was born foreign) or renaturalisation (his/her former Hungarian citizenship was abolished). The rules of naturalisation in Hungary were modified by the Act XLIV of 2010. The act introduced the simplified naturalisation procedure from 1 January 2011, and made it possible to obtain citizenship without residence in Hungary for the foreign citizens who have Hungarian ancestors. This data refer only to those new Hungarian citizens who have an address in Hungary.	Central Office Administrative and Electronic Public Services (Central Population Register), Central Statistical Office.
Iceland	Includes children who receive Icelandic citizenship with their parents.	Statistics Iceland.
Ireland	Figures include naturalisations and post nuptial citizenship figures.	Department of Justice and Equality.
Italy		Ministry of the Interior.
Japan		Ministry of Justice, Civil Affairs Bureau.
Korea		Ministry of Justice.
Latvia	Acquisition of citizenship by naturalisation including children who receive Latvian citizenship with their parents.	Office of Citizenship and Migration Affairs.
Lithuania		Department of Migration.
Luxembourg	Includes non-residents. Excludes children acquiring nationality as a consequence of the naturalisation of their parents.	Ministry of Justice.
Mexico		Ministry of Foreign Affairs (SRE).
Netherlands		Central Bureau of Statistics (CBS).
New Zealand	Before 2016, the country of origin refers to the country of birth if birth documentation is available (if not, the country of origin is the country of citizenship as shown on the person's passport).	Department of Internal Affairs.
Norway	The statistics are based on population register data.	Statistics Norway.
Poland	Data include naturalisations by marriage and acknowledgment of persons of Polish descent, in addition to naturalisation by ordinary procedure.	Office for Repatriation and Aliens.
Portugal	Acquisition of nationality by foreigners living in Portugal.	Institute of registers and notarial regulations, Directorate General for Justice Policy (DGPJ).
Slovak Republic	Data refer to persons living in Slovak Republic at the time of acquisition.	Ministry of the Interior.

Country	Comments	Source
Slovenia	Include all grounds on which the citizenship was obtained.	Internal Administrative Affairs, Migration and Naturalisation Directorate, Ministry of the Interior.
Spain	Includes only naturalisations on the ground of residence in Spain. Excludes individuals recovering their former (Spanish) nationality.	Ministry of Employment and Social Security, based on naturalisations registered by the Ministry of Justice.
Sweden		Statistics Sweden.
Switzerland		Federal Office of Migration.
United Kingdom		Home Office.
United States	Until 2021, data by country of birth refer to fiscal years (October to September of the year indicated). For 2022 and 2023, data by nationality, referring to calendar year.	Department of Homeland Security.

Note: Data for Serbia include persons from Serbia and Montenegro. Some statements may refer to nationalities/countries of birth not shown in this annex but available on line at: <https://data-explorer.oecd.org/s/312>.

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The 2025 edition of *International Migration Outlook* analyses recent developments in migration movements and the labour market inclusion of immigrants in OECD countries. It also monitors recent policy changes in migration governance and integration in OECD countries. This 49th edition includes two special chapters, one on the role of firms in immigrant integration, another one on the international migration of health professionals to OECD countries. The Outlook also includes country notes and a detailed statistical annex.



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