Chapter 2

Labour market integration of immigrants and their children: Developing, activating and using skills[1]

Immigrants now account for more than 115 million people in the OECD, which represents almost 10% of the total population. Their share has increased in virtually all OECD countries over the past decade, and children of immigrants are also entering the labour market in growing numbers. Against this backdrop, the integration of immigrants and their offspring has become a prime policy objective for OECD countries, and a vast array of different integration policies have been adopted over the past fifteen years. Among the various challenges for integration, perhaps the most important one is releasing the full skills potential of immigrants and their offspring. Skills of immigrants that are not used represent a wasted resource at a time when economies are increasingly less able to afford such waste, and may also impact negatively on social cohesion.

The chapter takes stock of the broad issues involved in the labour market integration of immigrants and their offspring from a human capital perspective, as well as of the policies at hand to free their full skills potential through the identification and utilisation, the activation, and the development of their skills. It builds on the extensive work of the OECD on integration issues, together with new evidence. The chapter first identifies the main issues involved, followed by a discussion of the instruments and policies in OECD countries along the three pillars identified by the OECD Skills Strategy – namely using, developing and activating skills.

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.

Key policy findings

Immigrants make up a growing share of the workforce in nearly all OECD countries.

There are now 115 million immigrants in the OECD, about 10% of the total population. They entered for a wide variety of reasons, ranging from labour, humanitarian, and family-reunification to immigrants who benefited from mobility within free movement zones. While the share of immigrants has grown in all OECD countries – save Estonia and Israel – the size of populations varies from over 25% of the total population in Australia, Luxembourg, and Switzerland to less than 2% in the Asian and Latin American OECD countries, as well as in most Central and Eastern European OECD countries. However, a number of them with small immigrant populations – like the Central and Eastern European Countries and Korea – are preparing themselves for larger inflows. Others meanwhile, e.g. Southern European countries, have only recently become large-scale immigration destinations.

New challenges are emerging related to the children of immigrants,…

In many countries, particularly in Europe, children of immigrants are entering the labour market in greater numbers. In 2012, about 12.5% of all 15-year-olds had two foreign-born parents – 50% more than a decade earlier. Their integration, particularly those whose parents are low-educated, is a growing concern.

… the impact of the crisis…

Countries, particularly in Southern Europe, which experienced large inflows of low-skilled labour migration, are grappling with the pressing concerns of the crisis and the long-term employability of lesser-skilled immigrants. Indeed, the crisis hit immigrants disproportionately hard and, of the additional 15 million unemployed in the OECD since 2007, about 3 million, i.e. about one in five, are foreign-born.

… and the integration of highly educated immigrants.

Immigrants are also overrepresented at the other end of the qualification scale, and the number of highly educated has grown by 70% over the past decade. Robust efforts are being made to make better use of their qualifications. This is a key issue in the OECD countries that were settled by immigration and host many highly educated immigrants, such as

Australia, Canada, and New Zealand. It is also an emerging topic in the United States and in European OECD countries. Countries with limited inflows until now, however, are only just starting to consider how to integrate immigrants into the labour market and society.

The growing diversity of the immigrant population poses additional challenges.

Over the past two decades, as immigration flows have become more diverse across the OECD, integration has become a greater challenge. That diversity applies not only to immigrants' countries of origin and destination, but to their education levels and the categories to which they belong – labour, free movement, family reunification, and humanitarian. Migration category is the single largest determinant of integration outcomes: while integration is more or less immediate for labour immigrants, this is not the case for humanitarian and family immigrants. These two groups struggle with labour market integration in all countries. The different categories that make up immigrant populations account for most of the cross-country differences in labour market outcomes. And even within the different categories, there are wide disparities. While many humanitarian migrants, for example, are tertiary-educated, a significant proportion also lacks basic qualifications. Moreover, there are specific issues for immigrant women. Many arrive in a host country for family reasons and, in comparison with immigrant men, are much less likely to be in employment than their native-born peers.

The majority of immigrants are employed…

In spite of such diversity, however, most immigrants are in work. On average, the employment rates of low-educated immigrants are actually higher than those of their native-born peers – although households headed by such immigrants are twice as likely to suffer from in-work poverty. In contrast, highly educated immigrants show lower employment rates than their native-born counterparts in virtually all OECD countries. And, even when they are employed, they are 47% more likely to be in jobs for which they are formally over-qualified.

… but their potential is underutilised.

As a result, labour markets fail to utilise much of the potential that immigrants offer. Qualifications and work experience from abroad, particularly non-OECD countries, are widely undervalued. One reason is that immigrants often acquire their work experience in different languages and labour markets, and obtain qualifications in education systems that may perform less effectively than the host country's. There are implications for the transferability of skills and their value in the host-country labour market, and employers have trouble judging them.

Unlocking the skills potential of immigrants is one of the most important issues in integration.

The underutilisation of immigrants' skills is a waste of resources that OECD countries can scarcely afford. Using them effectively is important if immigrants are to feel part of the host-country society. Making use of their skills matters, too, for social cohesion and for the acceptance of future migration by the host-country society. Effective labour market integration has important spill-overs: it improves language learning, for example, and enables immigrants to contribute to society at large in their host countries.

Even the children of immigrants face barriers, which extend beyond the education system.

While it might be difficult to assess the skills that immigrants have acquired abroad, the issue should not arise when it comes to their children who have been raised and educated in the host country. Their outcomes are widely considered an integration "benchmark", yet they, too, are often lower than those of natives' children. This holds not only regarding education outcomes, but even for labour market outcomes at given education and skills levels. Yet, there is also evidence that education is a powerful driver in the labour market integration of the children of immigrants – more so than for the children of the native-born.

This is due to a mix of factors such as few contacts and little knowledge of how the labour market functions.

Immigrant offspring's relatively low outcomes in the labour market relate to a series of obstacles to full integration. They include: little contact with employers, limited access to the networks through which many vacancies are filled, or merely a lack of knowledge about the way the host-country labour market functions. For example, job application covering letters and CVs tend to be highly country-specific. Mentorship programmes, such as the large-scale programmes in Canada, Denmark, and France tackle those obstacles and have met with some success.

A further, often underestimated, factor is discrimination. Immigrants make particular efforts to compensate for that challenge.

Discrimination against immigrants in the labour market is a serious issue in most countries. While it is generally difficult to clearly assess, one clear way to measure its extent is to examine how the labour market treats CVs that are fully equivalent to those of native-born applicants – except for the name which indicates a migration background. Studies have revealed a high incidence of discrimination in all 17 OECD countries in which these were carried out. It is not uncommon that, to get an interview, candidates with an immigrant-sounding name have to submit twice as many applications as people who have similar qualifications and experience but a name with a native ring to it. To compensate for this disadvantage, immigrants and their offspring work disproportionately hard to find a job.

The starting point for integration is to make sure that immigrants' skills are identified through recognition and validation procedures which, however, are often lacking.

To integrate adult immigrants, the point of departure is to take stock of their qualifications and skills. This first step should be designed into integration programmes which should themselves be tailored to specific needs. The available evidence suggests that credential recognition procedures which convert foreign degrees into their host-country equivalents are highly valued by employers and are associated with better labour-market outcomes. Yet, few immigrants seek to have their qualifications recognised. One reason is the lack of transparency surrounding the procedures and the large number of actors involved, particularly in heavy-regulated professions. Recent reforms in several OECD countries have sought to respond by putting in place contact points that inform applicants and, ideally, pass on their applications directly to those in charge of the recognition process. A much broader issue than the recognition of formal qualifications is the validation of skills – acquired both formally and informally. It is a measure from which immigrants would be expected to benefit disproportionately, yet they are under-represented among those who have their skills evaluated.

Immigrants with foreign qualifications often need bridging courses.

Since not all foreign qualifications are fully equivalent with domestic ones, there is often a need for supplementary education to bring them up to the standard required in the host country. Bridging courses meet that purpose. Such courses, a logical complement to the growing focus on recognition and accreditation, are currently underdeveloped in most OECD countries and should be stepped up.

Employer involvement is crucial in the recognition and validation process.

Ultimately, however, it is up to the employer to accept the skills and qualifications of immigrants as "equivalent". Validation and recognition procedures should therefore involve employers. Indeed a feature of many of the most successful integration measures is precisely strong employer involvement.

Work experience measures help to overcome employer uncertainty about immigrants' skills.

One very important issue for immigrants is to get a chance to demonstrate their skills to employers and overcome employer resistance to hiring them. Traineeships and other work-experience measures have proved effective, as has "temping" work – i.e. jobs in temporary employment agencies – which can be a springboard to more stable employment. Well-designed and carefully phased-out temporary wage subsidies can also be a highly efficient tool for disadvantaged groups in the labour market, and the available evidence – particularly from Denmark and Sweden – points to much greater benefits for immigrants than for the native-born.

At the same time, immigrants are often underrepresented in the most effective programmes.

Yet, immigrants tend to be underrepresented in wage-subsidy schemes and in other active labour market programmes which have proven particularly effective in enabling quick transitions into employment. In some countries, such as Austria, Belgium, Germany, Norway and Sweden, immigrants have become a specific target group of active labour market policy instruments.

Many promising integration measures are small-scale and project-based, with little evaluation and mainstreaming.

While the bulk of integration measures are mainstream across all OECD countries, many innovative and promising new ones have been developed to address the specific integration challenges that immigrants and their children grapple with. Such instruments are often small-scale and project-based, however, and the resources to identify and scale up successful projects are generally lacking. Since many participants would have found a job anyway – even in the absence of such measures – a simple comparison of outcomes does not have much value. Proper evaluation, though costly, should be designed into policy measures and that includes factoring in an appropriate comparison group of non-participants.

This also raises the issue of policy co-ordination.

There is a need for better communication and co-ordination between the many different actors involved in integration. Indeed, one key challenge in the design and implementation of integration policy is precisely the fact that so many stakeholders are involved and responsibilities are often widely dispersed, both within and across levels of government.

Naturalisation is associated with better outcomes, partly because it is seen by employers as a signal for integration.

In most host countries, immigrants who have obtained citizenship show better integration outcomes. One reason is that those who are better integrated are more likely to naturalise. But there is also growing evidence that naturalisation can, by itself, trigger integration – notably for immigrants from non-OECD countries – seemingly because employers interpret naturalisation as a sign of immigrants integrating. Take-up of host-country citizenship should therefore be encouraged as it is, for example, in Australia, Canada, and the United States. By the same token, barriers to naturalisation should not be unreasonably high. What's more, the fact that employers equate naturalisation with integration suggests there is a general case for raising immigrant awareness of the benefits of sending out signals to employers that they are "integrated".

Public opinion about immigration also has a significant impact on integration, so debate should be fact-based and balanced.

Society in the host country sends out signals, too – through the public discourse, for example. It plays a central role in shaping the way immigrants are perceived. The challenge in this respect is not necessarily to obtain a consensus on immigration issues, but to limit preconceptions. For example, contrary to what public opinion widely thinks, immigrants receive fewer benefits than the native-born on average. The public focus on negative integration outcomes among some immigrant groups tends to obscure all that is positive. Sending out ambivalent messages on integration risks encouraging discriminatory attitudes, which may in turn affect the behaviour of immigrants themselves – affecting their willingness to learn the host-country language, for example.

Employment in the public sector can be an important driver for the integration process.

Public sector recruitment practices also send out signals on integration. Perceptions of immigrants are shaped, in part, by their being seen to be part of everyday life. By employing qualified immigrant candidates, the public sector enhances such visibility and acts as a role model for the private sector. Employment in the public sector can also contribute to enhancing the understanding of immigrants' needs by the institutions concerned. When immigrants are employed in certain key occupations such as teaching, they can serve as a role model for others – notably youth with immigrant parents. Yet, even the native-born children of immigrants are underrepresented in the public sector, which should identify barriers to the employment of immigrants and their offspring and take corrective action. To that end, some countries, such as Norway and the Netherlands, have implemented specific policies. Because the authorities can naturally exert more influence on public employment decisions than on those in the private sector, those policies have been rather effective.

The single most important skill is knowledge of the host-country's language.

While immigrants have many skills that the labour market should value more, they also need to develop new ones – generally ones that are specific to the host country. The most important one is the host-country language. Not surprisingly, governments spend more on language training than any other component of integration policy directly aimed at immigrants. While the sheer importance of mastering the host-country language in the integration process can hardly be overstated, care needs to be taken not to demand standards of language that are so high they rule immigrants out of certain occupations. It needs to be made clear to employers that immigrants can be productive even if they do not fully master the host-country language.

Language training should be adapted to immigrants' skills and oriented towards labour market integration.

The starting point, when it comes to language learning, varies greatly according to immigrants' prior qualifications, their intended occupation in the host country, and their background. In order to be effective, training must account for different needs and be geared towards labour market integration – by providing vocation-specific language training, ideally on-the-job. Although such training is costly, it is an investment that appears to pay off, and the beneficial impact on labour market integration is often considerable. Immigrants are also more likely to be motivated by training if it is adapted to their skills needs.

For the children of immigrants, early intervention is crucial.

For the native-born children of immigrants with low-educated parents, early contact with host-country educational institutions has proven crucial for future integration outcomes. Yet, while the age of three to four is a critical one in this respect, children of immigrants are still often underrepresented in early childhood education and care. As for children born abroad, early family reunification should be encouraged, as each year of delay further sets back educational outcomes.

The concentration of the offspring of low-educated in certain schools needs to be addressed.

Creating an appropriate environment for developing the skills of immigrant children requires tackling the concentrations of the children of low-educated immigrants in certain schools. It is not, in fact, the actual concentrations that are the issue, but the fact that they concern the children of immigrants with little education. The effects on the educational outcomes of the children and of both immigrants and the native-born are highly detrimental. Addressing such a challenge involves a mix of measures that should include supporting immigrant parents.

Activating the skills of immigrants who have been out of the labour market – in particular women – is a particular challenge.

If inactive immigrants are to be coaxed back into the labour market, they need to be activated. This is a particular challenge when immigrants have been inactive for a number of years and if they arrived at a time when integration policies were less well developed (which is frequently the case). One widely affected group is immigrant women. They are often ineligible for mainstream support, since they are not benefit-dependent if their partner is working – as he usually is. Measures to integrate immigrant women also benefit their children considerably. One promising scheme – that has been rolled in Denmark and Germany – is to offer women language training combined with care and language stimulation for their children, ideally in the same institution.

Supporting the children of immigrants in the school-to-work transition requires an individualised approach.

Another group of particular concern to policymakers is young people who do not pursue further education and who are not in employment or training (NEET). The children of immigrants are overrepresented among NEETs in many OECD countries, often by a factor of two or more. Measures that have been successful in promoting their transition into employment involve an individualised approach with specialised case-workers. The young people attend targeted additional training courses and internships during which their case workers continue to accompany them. Switzerland is one country that uses this approach. Early contact with the population at risk while still in school is crucial.

To encourage employers, diversity policies are a promising tool that is sparking renewed interest.

An emerging workplace policy trend is voluntary diversity measures. It includes initiatives like "diversity labels", whereby the authorities audit and certify a company's diversity management policies on a regular basis with the relevant stakeholders. In such schemes, companies commit to diversity as part of their corporate social responsibility and are given an incentive – the labels are a public relations tool – which is in line with the promotion of equal opportunity. Diversity plans go a step further: companies volunteer to be audited for potentially discriminatory hiring practices, then implement measures to diversify their staff – with the support of consultants paid by the public employment services and in co-operation with social partners.

Ultimately, integration is an investment – and that needs to be designed into integration measures.

Effective policies need not always be accompanied by high costs to the public purse. However, some certainly do require significant investment at a time when most OECD countries face severe budget constraints. Here, integration needs to be seen as an investment, which calls for early intervention and the pursuit of policies where the pay-off is not always immediate. Access to integration programmes should not, therefore, be dependent on the group to which the immigrant belongs, but rather on his or her settlement prospects and needs. Ultimately, integration can only fully succeed if all immigrant groups have a chance to realise their potential.

Box 2.1. **Effective policies for better using the potential of immigrants and their children**

Take stock of the skills which immigrants bring and value them

- Develop efficient and transparent procedures for recognising foreign credentials and validating competences in co-operation with the social partners.
- Start integration programmes by evaluating and validating immigrants' qualifications and skills and raising awareness of the benefits of such measures.
- Establish policy measures which bring immigrants into contact with employers and help them gain early work experience.
- Make sure that immigrants benefit from effective mainstream active labour market policy instruments, including wage subsidies.
- Encourage the take-up of host-country citizenship.
- Identify and remove barriers to employment in the public sector.
- Tackle stereotypes and false perceptions of immigration by disseminating facts-based evidence on migration issues.

Develop host-country-specific skills which immigrants need

- Ensure that language training and introduction programmes prepare for labour market integration but do not delay it.
- Focus on vocational language training that should be provided, if possible, on the job.
- Equip all immigrants with the basic skills for succeeding in the labour market.
- Provide more bridging course offers for immigrants with foreign qualifications.
- Make sure that immigrants are informed and understand how the host-country labour market functions.
- Use mentorship to promote integration.
- Encourage that immigrants' children enter early childhood education, starting at the age of three.
- Encourage early family reunification if families have children.
- Make sure that children who arrive in a host country at the end of obligatory schooling are either in education, employment or training.
- Avoid the geographic concentration of children of low-educated immigrants in the same schools.

Activate the skills of immigrants

- Ensure that all long-term immigrants have full access to the labour market.
- Implement tailor-made approaches for disadvantaged youth with an immigrant background.
- Make sure that immigrant women have equal access to integration measures.
- Link training for immigrant mothers with childcare opportunities.
- Raise awareness of the issue of discrimination and take pro-active measures to tackle it.
- Engage employers through diversity policies and monitor the outcomes.
- Make sure that immigrant entrepreneurs have equal access to credit and start-up support.

Introduction

A significant and growing share of the population in OECD countries is made up of immigrants and their descendants.[2] Since 2000-01, that share has grown everywhere, except Estonia and Israel. There are now 115 million immigrants in the OECD – about 10% of the total population. Around one-half have become nationals of their country of residence and, of those, two out of three reported voting in the most recent elections. It is generally expected that the proportion of immigrants will continue to rise in coming decades, notably because of labour needs related to population ageing.

Immigrants and their native-born offspring account for a growing share of the workforce across the OECD. They have become part of society in countries of longstanding immigration – not only those that were settled though immigration like Australia, Canada, New Zealand, and the United States, but also some Western European OECD countries. Elsewhere – in Southern Europe, for example – the growing presence of immigrants' offspring in the education system and the labour market is more recent. Across the OECD in 2012, 12.5% of all 15-year-olds were either born abroad or had two foreign-born parents – 50% more than ten years before.

The integration of immigrants and their offspring has become a prime policy objective in OECD countries, which have adopted a wide array of policies in the past 15 years. They generally run in parallel to mainstream labour market and social policies and target specific groups of immigrants, particularly newcomers. They range from "civic" integration packages and language courses for new arrivals to broader schemes regulating residence and citizenship.

Although many integration issues are longstanding, policies must nevertheless continuously adapt to new challenges and target groups. They need also to adjust to macroeconomic contexts like the recent global economic crisis and draw on experience of what works and what does not, both domestically and abroad. In addition, a number of OECD countries, like those in Central and Eastern Europe and Korea, are bracing for larger immigrant inflows. Others, in Southern Europe, have only recently experienced large-scale migration and are having to address new issues, such as the long-term employability of low-skilled immigrants and the integration of their children. One clear trend across the whole OECD in the past two decades, however, has been the growing diversity of immigration. There is an increasingly wide cross-section of countries of origin, education levels, and migration categories (i.e. labour, family reunification, humanitarian, and free movement).

Among the various integration challenges, perhaps the most important is how to unleash the full skills potential of immigrants and their offspring. The failure to use them is a waste of resources that economies today can ill afford.

An extensive literature exists on the role of skills in driving economic growth – both in augmenting human capital and prompting technological change. The skills of immigrants are already an important part of the human capital on which OECD economies depend today. They will become even more important in the future. In this sense, investing in immigrants' skills to promote integration is a critical element in a broader skills strategy.

Education and skills are important at the individual level, too. Workers with higher skills are more productive, tend to earn more, and enjoy better employment prospects. Yet, skills do not automatically translate into higher incomes or higher productivity. Much depends on which skills are developed, whether they are geared to the labour market, and

how they are used in the workforce. While many such issues hold true for both the native-born and the foreign-born, there are a number of specific issues relating to immigrants and their descendants which this chapter sets out to explore.

The starting point is that immigrants have generally acquired at least some of their skills in their country of origin, in contexts that are frequently very different from those in host countries. Does this matter and, if so, why? Are their skills appropriate to the local labour market? How do they compare with those of the native-born citizens? How can information on immigrants' skills be effectively communicated to the general public and, in particular, to employers so that they can make the appropriate hiring decisions?

These questions are relevant to wider societal integration, since the under-utilisation of the skills of immigrants and their children has both economic and social costs. Although freeing up immigrants' potential skills and using them in the labour market does not necessarily guarantee social integration, it is certainly a major step towards economic independence, social inclusion, and acceptance in their new homes. A good job affords people better protection against poverty, greater recognition in society, and more opportunities for social interaction.

The question of how to make the best use of immigrants' skills goes well beyond issues of over-qualification and the recognition of qualifications and skills obtained abroad. This chapter takes stock of the broad issues involved in the labour market integration of immigrants and their offspring from a human capital perspective. It also considers the policies at hand for unlocking their full skills potential through the identification, utilisation, activation and development of those skills. It builds on the extensive work of the OECD on integration issues (Box 2.2), together with new evidence.

The first part of this chapter sets out the overall context and identifies the major issues for labour market integration from a skills perspective. The second part then discusses the instruments and policies as they relate to the three pillars identified by the OECD Skills Strategy – namely using, developing, and activating skills. The chapter ends with a discussion of some general lessons for policy.

The labour market integration context

Size and structure of immigrant populations

Priorities in integration policy are set in response to the characteristics of past and present waves of immigration. In order to understand the current state of labour market integration and the use of immigrants' skills across the OECD, it is important first to take stock of the size and make-up of immigrant populations.

The foreign-born population has steadily grown in most OECD countries over the past 15 years and did not decline even during the recent global economic and financial crisis. Immigrant populations vary widely in size across the OECD. They range from less than 5% of the total population in most Central European countries, Chile, Japan, Korea, Mexico and Turkey to between 20% and 30% in Australia, Canada, New Zealand, and Switzerland, and over 40% in Luxembourg (Figure 2.1). Countries with large foreign-born populations generally also have higher populations of native-born children of immigrants.

Another important factor is the share of recent arrivals in the immigrant population, as integration generally occurs over time and the need for support is greatest in the first few years. As a consequence, newcomers tend to receive the bulk of policy attention and

Box 2.2. **OECD work on the integration of immigrants and their children**

Over the past decade, the OECD has done extensive work on the integration of immigrants and their children. In its *Jobs for Immigrants* series, the OECD has completed 12 in-depth country reviews on the labour market integration of immigrants and their children in Australia, Austria, Belgium, Denmark, France, Germany, Italy, the Netherlands, Norway, Portugal, Sweden, and Switzerland (OECD, 2007, 2008, 2012c, 2014). The OECD has now begun a new series that starts with Sweden. It brings together the expertise of local and national stakeholders in order to identify bottlenecks in the integration system, strengthen co-ordination, and build on good practice from elsewhere in the OECD.

Comprehensive cross-cutting information on the integration outcomes of immigrants and their children in all OECD countries is set out in *Settling In: OECD Indicators of Immigrant Integration* (OECD, 2012e). The *International Migration Outlook* also regularly analyses trends and developments in immigrants' labour market outcomes. They include, among other issues, the labour market integration of immigrant women (OECD, 2006a), over-qualification (Dumont and Monso, 2007), the wages of immigrants (OECD, 2008), and discrimination (Heath, Liebig and Simon, 2013).

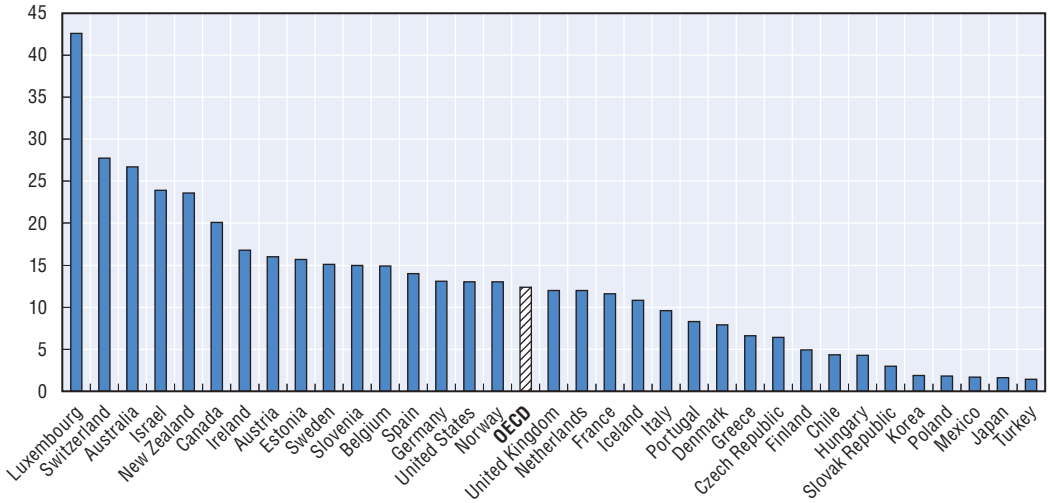
With the support of the European Commission, the OECD has shed new light on emerging integration topics by bringing together the latest research and new comparative evidence on the following issues: the school-to-work transition of the children of immigrants (OECD 2010a), the links between naturalisation and socio-economic integration (OECD, 2011) and, more recently, immigrants' skills (OECD/European Union, 2014). Immigrant entrepreneurship has been a further topic of in-depth investigation (OECD, 2010c), as were local integration solutions (OECD, 2006c) and the links between immigration and labour market outcomes (Jean et al., 2010).

The OECD has also analysed the education outcomes of immigrants' children, chiefly in its Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) (OECD, 2006b and 2012d). As part of the assessments, the OECD also undertook a number of country reviews of education frameworks for the children of immigrants.

support across the OECD. Nowhere, however, do they make up the majority of the foreign-born population. Nevertheless, in some countries, like Ireland and in Southern Europe, about one-third of the immigrant population has arrived in the past five years.

A third key issue is the education levels of immigrant populations. Highly and poorly educated immigrants grapple with different labour-market challenges and overcoming them requires policy responses that factor in different experiences. On average across the OECD in 2011-12, the foreign-born were overrepresented both among the low educated (i.e. lower secondary education or below) and among the highly educated (i.e. those with tertiary-level degrees). The foreign-born are particularly highly educated in Canada, New Zealand, Luxembourg, the United Kingdom, Israel, Australia, Ireland, Poland and Estonia (Figure 2.2), where some 40% or more have a university degree. The shares were above 30% in Japan, Switzerland, Norway, the United States, Sweden and Mexico. By contrast, in Italy and Greece, where most immigrants come to take up low-skilled jobs, the highly educated accounted for less than 15%. Since the beginning of the millennium, the proportion of tertiary-educated immigrants has risen in virtually all OECD countries.

Figure 2.1. **Foreign-born as a percentage of the total population, 2012**



Note: The data for Korea and Japan are on the stock of foreigners.
Source: OECD International Migration Database 2012 except for Australia, Canada, the Czech Republic, Denmark, Estonia, France, Ireland, Israel, New Zealand, Poland and Portugal (2011), Chile and Mexico (2010), and Turkey: *Database on Immigrants in OECD Countries (DIOC) 2010/11*.

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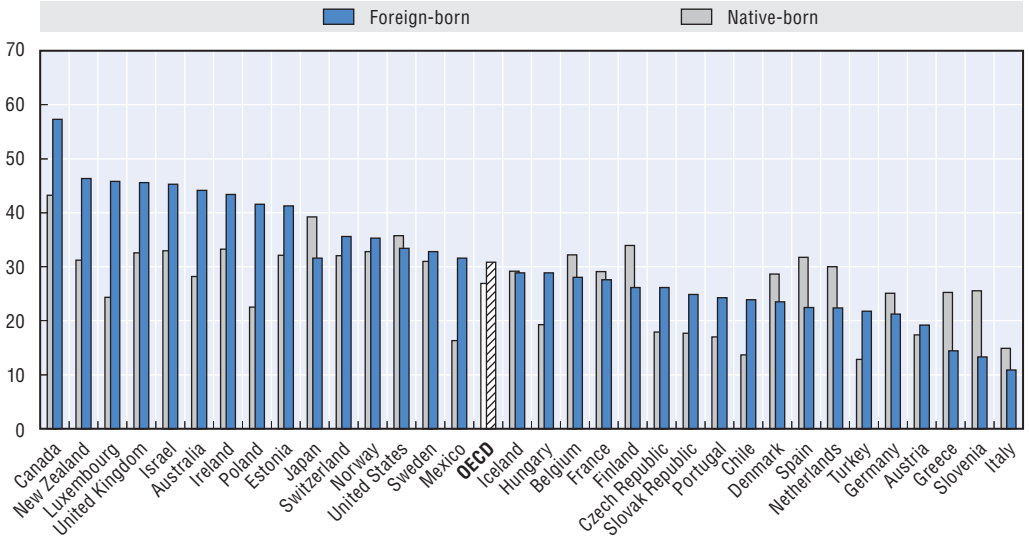
Figure 2.2. **Share of the highly educated among the foreign- and native-born of working age (15-64 years old), 2013**

Percentages



Source: European countries and Turkey: Labour Force Surveys 2013 (Eurostat); Australia and Japan (DIOC 2010/11); Canada, New Zealand: Labour Force Surveys 2012; Chile: *Encuesta de Caracterización Socioeconómica Nacional* (CASEN) 2011; Israel: Labour Force Survey 2011; Mexico: *Encuesta Nacional de Ocupación y Empleo* (ENOE) 2013; United States: Current Population Survey 2013.

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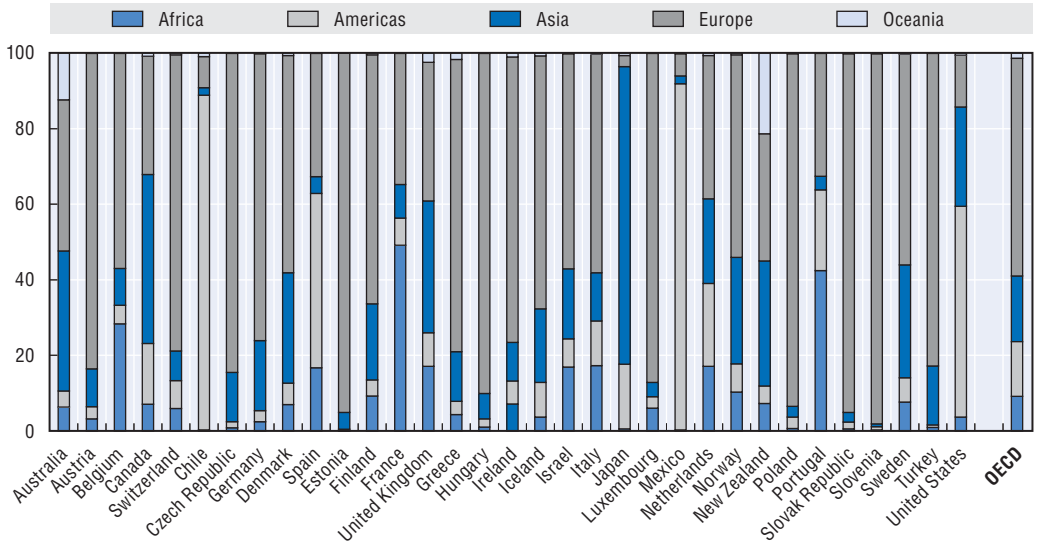
There is also great diversity in countries of origin (Figure 2.3). On average, just over one-third of foreign-born working-age adults hail from another OECD country, although the share varies significantly across the OECD. Most foreign-born working-age adults in Luxembourg, Iceland, Ireland and Switzerland are from the OECD, as they are in the Czech Republic, the Slovak Republic, and Mexico. Immigrants from neighbouring countries and within areas of free movement – namely the European Union (EU) and the European Free Trade Association (EFTA) – account for most of them, as they do in Belgium, the Nordic countries, and the United Kingdom. Australia and New Zealand also have high shares of immigrants from OECD countries. In contrast, people born in non-OECD countries make up the vast majority of foreign-born working-age adults in Southern Europe and some Central European countries, as well as in Chile, Israel, Japan, and Korea.

Figure 2.3. **Distribution of the working-age foreign-born by continent of birth, 2010-11**

Percentages



Source: Database on Immigrants in OECD Countries (DIOC) 2010/11.

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Immigrants' country of origin is often related to migration categories. In many European OECD countries, for example, high numbers of immigrants from non-OECD countries have arrived for humanitarian or family reasons. As explained in more detail below, such immigrants often show lower labour market outcomes than those who migrate for employment, even if they originate from the same countries and share otherwise similar characteristics.

Unfortunately, comparative data on the composition of the resident immigrant population by category of migration are scarce. Some information on self-reported categories is nevertheless available for selected European OECD countries from an ad hoc module in the 2008 European Labour Force Survey. It shows that in Belgium, the Netherlands, Norway, and Sweden, between 61% and 81% of the non-OECD foreign-born arrived as adult family-reunification immigrants or for humanitarian reasons.

Knowledge of the host country's language is probably the single most important asset for both the transferability of skills across countries and labour market integration (for recent overviews, see e.g. Chiswick and Miller, 2014; Sweetman, 2014). In practice, however, it is difficult to single out its impact – it is closely related to other skills – or to measure it. Indeed, constructing a reliable language proficiency indicator is no easy task. One basic, widely used measure is immigrants' self-reported command of their host countries' languages. It is, however, prone to error and seldom found in labour force surveys. Another, more easily available proxy, is the percentage of immigrants from a country which shares one official language with the host country – even though the official tongue might be different from the one actually spoken by immigrants, especially in multilingual countries.

Obviously, an OECD host country whose language is widely spoken in countries of origin will have a much greater share of immigrants who speak their language than one which does not share that advantage.[3] Nevertheless, there is still wide variation even among English-speaking OECD countries. The proportion of immigrants from countries with English as a main official language ranges from 24% in the United States to around 50% in Australia, Canada, the United Kingdom, and New Zealand. Among non-English speaking countries, France, Portugal, and Spain are home to many immigrants from former colonies where French, Portuguese, and Spanish are official languages. Belgium, Chile, the Czech Republic, Luxembourg, Mexico, the Slovak Republic, and Switzerland also have non-negligible shares of immigrants with a command of their languages – mainly because many are from neighbouring countries. Percentages are, however, very small in OECD countries whose language is spoken little beyond their national borders. They include Germany, Greece, Israel, and Italy and Central and Eastern European, Scandinavian, and Asian countries.

Taken together, the characteristics of immigrant populations in the above overview paint a picture of widely diverse national contexts in OECD host countries and can be used to classify them. Figure 2.4 affords an overview of the resulting groups.

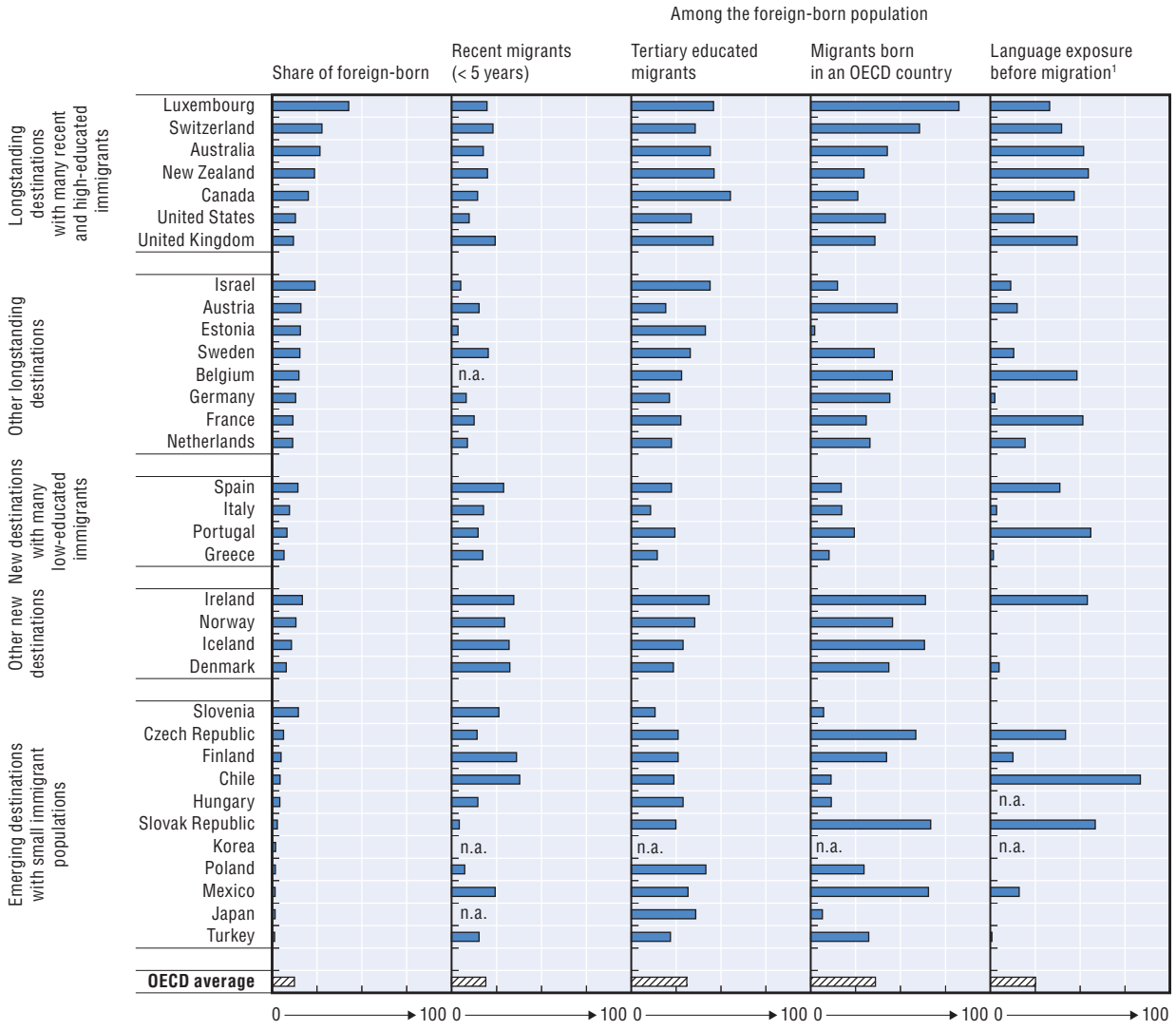
Group 1: Longstanding destinations with many recent and high-educated immigrants

Countries in this group boast lengthy traditions as destinations and have many recent and long-settled immigrants. In all of them, the foreign-born represent at least 12% of the working-age population, while native-born children of immigrants also make up a significant share of the overall population. All the countries in the group have sizable shares of highly educated immigrants– around one-third are university-educated – and many were exposed to their host country's language before arrival.[4]

The traditional destinations – Australia, Canada, New Zealand, and the United States – see their history of immigration as a generally successful one of integration, and consider it part of the national heritage. This first group also includes several European countries – namely Luxembourg, Switzerland, and the United Kingdom – with longstanding immigrant populations and large shares of new arrivals stemming from free movement within the EU-EFTA area. All have also experienced significant employment-driven migration over the past decade.

Figure 2.4. **Characteristics of immigrants in OECD countries, 2012**

Percentages



1. If the country of birth and the country of destination have an official language in common, the immigrant is considered to have been exposed to the language spoken in the country of destination before his/her migration.

Source:

Foreign-born (all ages): *OECD International Migration Database 2012* except for Australia, Canada, the Czech Republic, Denmark, Estonia, France, Ireland, Israel, New Zealand, Poland and Portugal (2011), Turkey (*Database on Immigrants in OECD Countries [DIOC] 2010-11*). The data for Korea and Japan relate to the foreign nationals.

Recent immigrants (aged 15+): DIOC 2010/11; Portugal: Labour Force Surveys 2011-12.

Tertiary-educated immigrants (aged 15-64): European countries and Turkey: Labour Force Surveys 2013 (Eurostat); Australia and Japan: DIOC 2010/11; Canada, New Zealand: Labour Force Surveys 2012; Chile: *Encuesta de Caracterización Socioeconómica Nacional* (CASEN) 2011; Israel: Labour Force Survey 2011; Mexico: *Encuesta Nacional de Ocupación y Empleo* (ENOE) 2012; United States: Current Population Survey 2013.

Region of birth (aged 15-64): European countries: Labour Force Surveys (Eurostat) 2012, Germany and other countries: DIOC 2010/11.

Language exposure before migration (aged 15+): French research centre in international economics (CEPII), *Trade, Production and Bilateral Database*; DIOC 2010/11.

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Group 2: Other longstanding destinations

The second group comprises other countries in Europe (plus Israel) that are longstanding immigrant destinations. They have predominantly long-settled foreign-born populations who account for between 12% and 16% of the population (24% in the case of

Israel). In all these countries, with the exception of Sweden, at least three-quarters of the foreign-born have lived in the country for more than ten years. The group includes Austria, Belgium, France, Germany, and the Netherlands, all of which experienced significant migration of the "guest-worker" type after the Second World War. Guest workers were generally low-skilled labour migrants seeking work who were later joined by their families.

With the exception of Estonia, all the European countries in this group have also taken in many humanitarian immigrants. They thus have large shares of immigrants who arrived for reasons other than employment, and whose integration outcomes tend to be less favourable. As a result, integration issues are relatively high on the policy agenda. Although some countries in the group – notably Germany – currently experience significant flows of immigration, mainly from other EU countries, newcomer populations are relatively small in comparison with the long-settled populations from lower-income countries. In the case of France, many long-settled immigrants arrived from the former colonies. As for Estonia, the high share of foreign-born stems from internal migration within the former Soviet Union. Since independence, immigration has been very limited.

Group 3: New destinations with many low-educated labour migrants

The third group encompasses the Southern European countries, all of which are relatively recent destinations with large shares of low-educated labour immigrants from non-OECD countries. About 14% of the population in Spain is now foreign-born, with the vast majority having arrived since the year 2000. Greece, Italy, and Portugal have somewhat smaller immigrant populations, making up around 10% of the working-age population.

In all the countries in this group, labour immigrants filled many of the low-skilled jobs prior to the global financial and economic crisis. Since the downturn, they have been disproportionately affected by unemployment. Between 2008 and 2012, the number of newcomers to all four countries dropped by nearly one-half. Yet, at the same time, the number of children of immigrants has grown rapidly, which raises new questions related to integration in the education system, school-to-work transition, and citizenship legislation.

Group 4: Other new destinations

The fourth group comprises relatively recent immigrant destinations in Northern Europe, Ireland and Scandinavia, where a sizeable share of the foreign-born populations are relative newcomers. These countries host large numbers of EU citizens who benefited from free mobility and, in the case of Ireland, immigrants from English-speaking countries. Much immigration to the Scandinavian countries has been humanitarian and, subsequently, family-related – in other words, groups only loosely attached to the labour market, at least initially. As a result, integration tends to be relatively high on the policy agenda.

Group 5: Emerging destinations with small immigrant populations

The remaining group of countries is diverse, consisting of destinations with small foreign-born populations. It includes the OECD countries in Central Europe, the Americas, East Asia, and Turkey. In all these countries, foreign-born residents makes up less than 5% of the population. Percentages are higher, however, in Slovenia and the Czech Republic, where – as in the Slovak Republic – many foreign-born inhabitants are so classified as a result of border changes.

Since the immigrant population across this group is small and new inflows limited, integration policies are recent and focus on certain categories of newcomers. For example, the impetus behind the development of integration policy in Japan and Korea was prompted by, respectively, ethnic and marriage migration. The European countries in this group generally put integration lower down the political agenda than the emigration of their own nationals and the transit of non-EU immigrants through their territory to Western Europe.

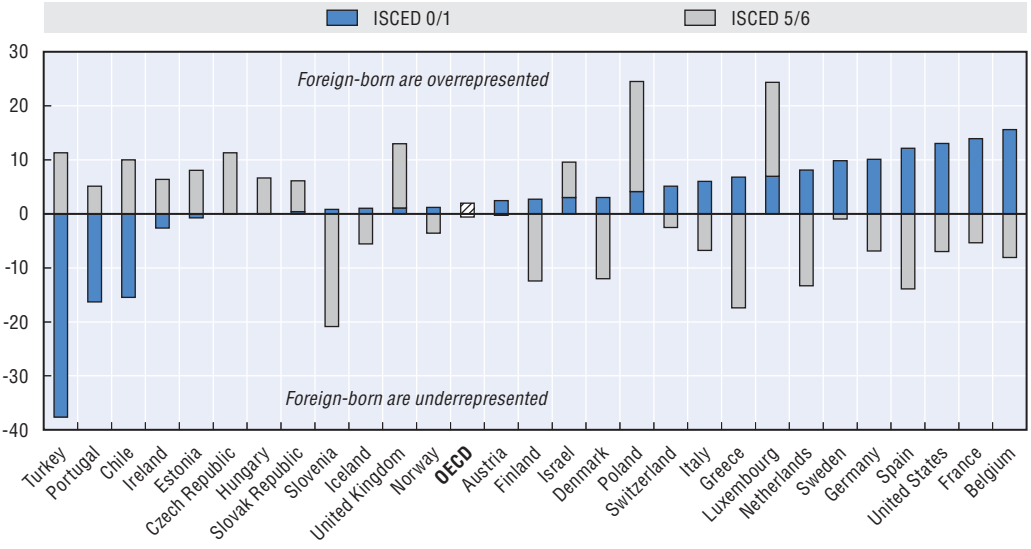
The qualifications and skills of foreign-born adults and their offspring

Foreign-born adults' qualifications and skills

Immigrants' overrepresentation at both ends of the educational attainment scale (see Figure 2.5) challenges labour market and social integration in specific ways. It also points to their underrepresentation at intermediate levels in most countries.

Figure 2.5. **Difference in the distribution of very low and high education levels between the foreign- and native-born aged 25-54, 2013**

Percentage points



Note: ISCED stands for International Standard Classification of Education. ISCED 0/1 refers to persons whose highest completed education level is pre-primary or primary. ISCED 5/6 refers to persons who have completed tertiary education. The information on the highest education level attained in the Chilean CASEN does not match ISCED levels exactly. It is assumed that those who started but did not complete secondary education at least completed lower secondary education (ISCED 2).

Source: European countries and Turkey: Labour Force Surveys 2013; Chile: *Encuesta de Caracterización Socioeconómica Nacional* (CASEN) 2011; Israel: Labour Force Survey 2011; United States: Current Population Surveys 2013.

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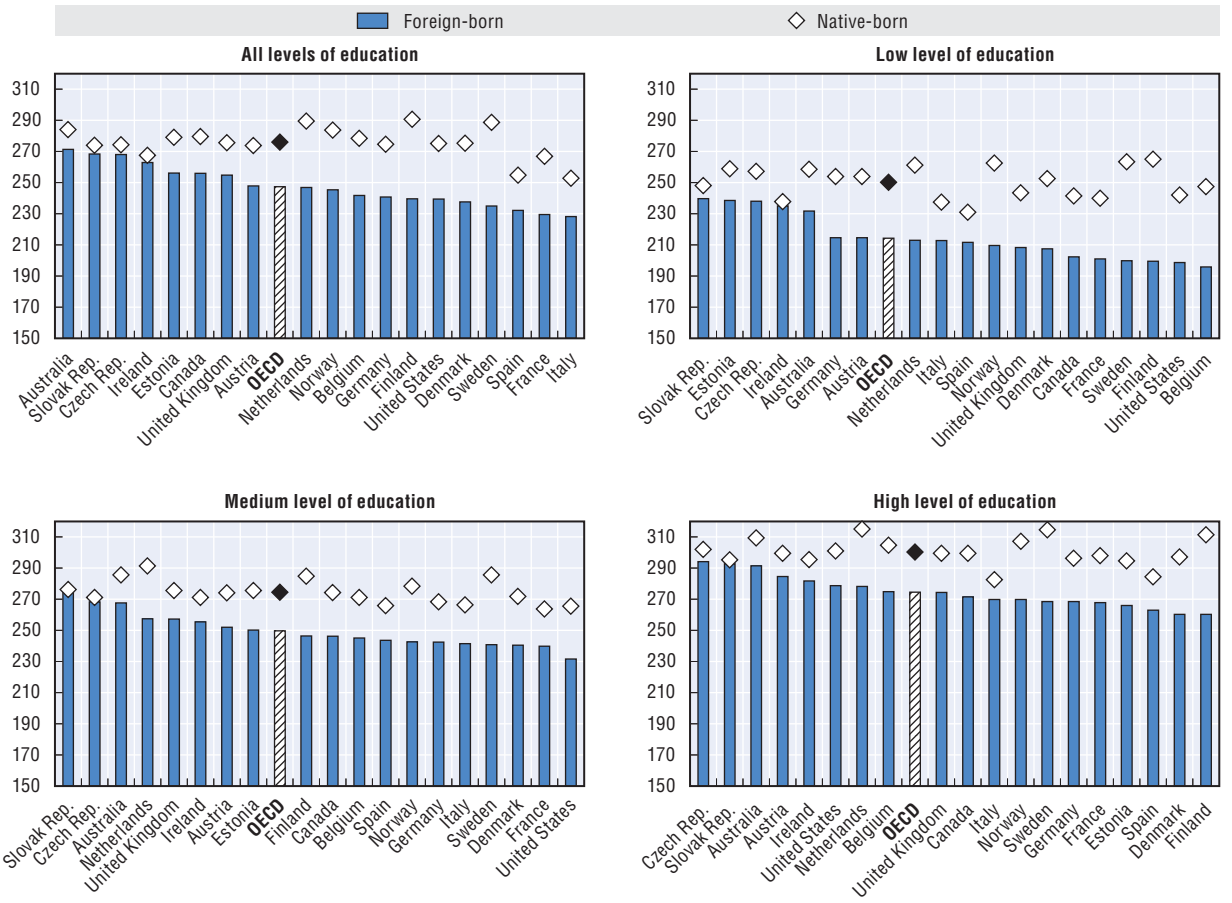
Information on immigrants' level of education is only a proxy for their actual skills. Such information is available in countries with significant foreign-born populations participating in the 2012 OECD Programme for the International Assessment of Adult Competencies (PIAAC). While a thorough discussion of the findings is beyond the scope of this chapter (for an overview, see Bonfanti and Xenogiani, 2014), they point to immigrants having – on average – lower skills than their native-born counterparts in all countries. The pattern holds true regardless of formal education levels (Figure 2.6). This is partly

Figure 2.6. **Mean literacy scores by country of residence, level of education, and place of birth of 16- to 64-year-olds, 2012**

Scores points



Source: Survey of Adult Skills (PIAAC), 2012.

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attributable to the fact that measured literacy includes command of language. And as tests are carried out in the host-country's language, it is not possible to properly disentangle mastery of that foreign language from command of language itself.

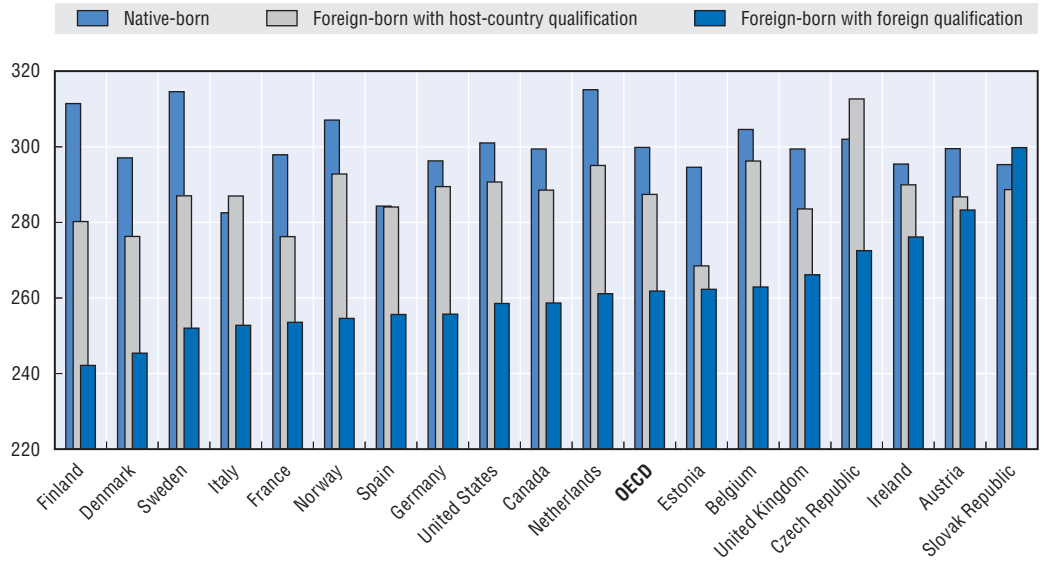
Immigrants' lower skills at given levels of education stem partly from their qualifications being obtained in education systems which do not always perform as well as those of their countries of residence.[5] Indeed, there appears to be less of a gap between native-born and foreign-born residents who graduate in the host country. Nevertheless, the gap – albeit narrower – still obtains in most countries (Figure 2.7).

Qualifications and skills among the offspring of immigrants

One key trend that emerges from the OECD Programme of International Student Assessment (PISA) is that the children of immigrants also tend to have lower educational outcomes than their peers whose parents are not migrants (OECD; 2006b, 2012d, 2013b). The finding may not be surprising for children who have themselves immigrated, particularly those who arrive towards the end of the obligatory schooling age. At least part of their schooling takes place in a system, context, and language that may have been quite

Figure 2.7. **Literacy scores of highly educated immigrants and native-born residents between the ages of 16 and 64, according to the country where the highest qualification was obtained**

Literacy scores points



Source: Survey of Adult Skills (PIAAC), 2012.

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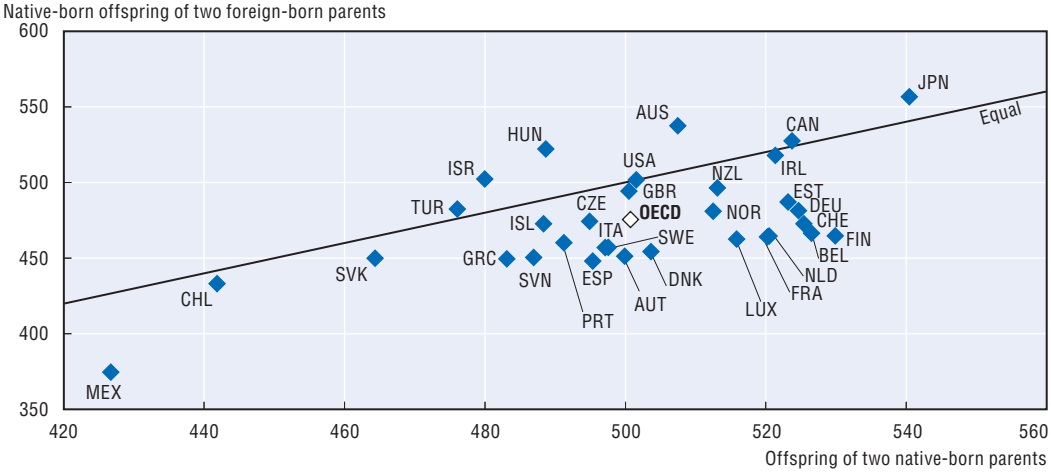
different from those in the host country. Yet, even the native-born children of immigrants show lower educational outcomes in most countries (Figure 2.8). Such outcomes may be partly attributable to some intergenerational transmission of disadvantage, a still under-researched question.

Figure 2.8. **Mean reading scores of 15-year-old native-born students by parents' place of birth, 2012**



Source: OECD Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) 2012.

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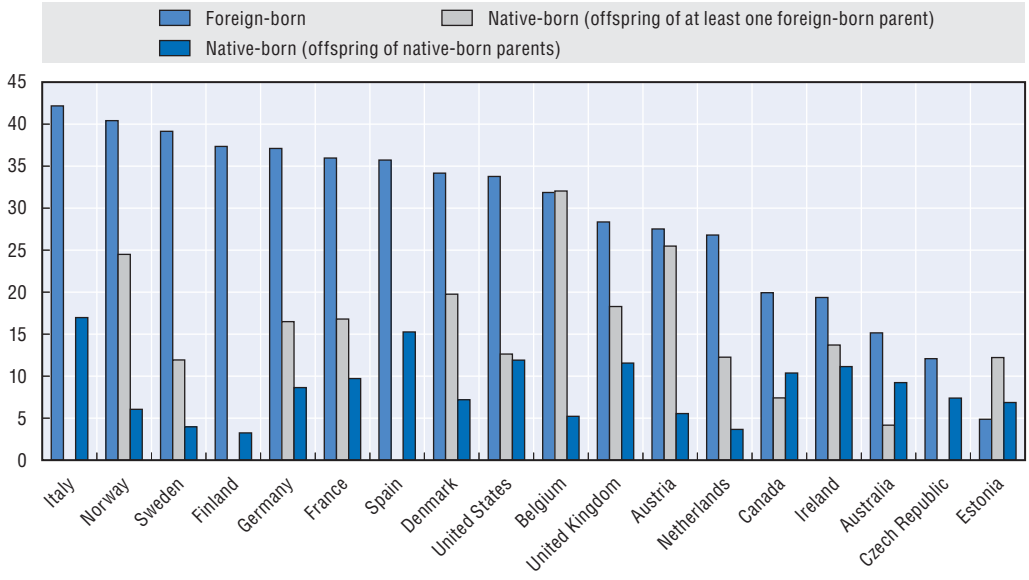
Overall, however, differences in PISA scores are greater between countries than within countries between students with and without immigrant parents. Native-born children with parents from the same country of origin and social background are also found to have substantially different educational outcomes according to their country of residence (OECD, 2006b; Dronkers and Fleischmann, 2010; Dustmann et al., 2012).

Of particular concern for host country policymakers are young adults who lack the basic skills to be fully functional in the host-country's labour market and society. In all the OECD countries for which data is available, with the exception of Estonia, young immigrants are largely overrepresented among low achievers in literacy skills (Figure 2.9). The situation is particularly worrying in the Nordic countries, Germany, Belgium (Flanders), and France. Again, language difficulties are part of the reason, as are frequently low-performing education systems in countries of origin.

Figure 2.9. **Low achievers in literacy among 16- to 34-year-olds by migration status and parental origin**

Percentages



Note: The low achievers in literacy are adults with literacy scores below 226.
Source: Survey of Adult Skills (PIAAC), 2012.

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As expected, therefore, the gap narrows – partly, at least, if not completely – between native-born offspring of immigrants and non-migrants in all countries where significant differences are observed (with the exception of Austria). This positive showing suggests that, in literacy skills at least, the native-born children of immigrants fare much better than their immigrant peers. They nevertheless remain overrepresented among the low achievers in many of the European OECD countries which experienced significant low-skilled labour migration in the 1960s and early 70s, such as those in the second group identified in Figure 2.4 (Austria, Belgium, Germany, France, the Netherlands), together with Norway and Denmark.

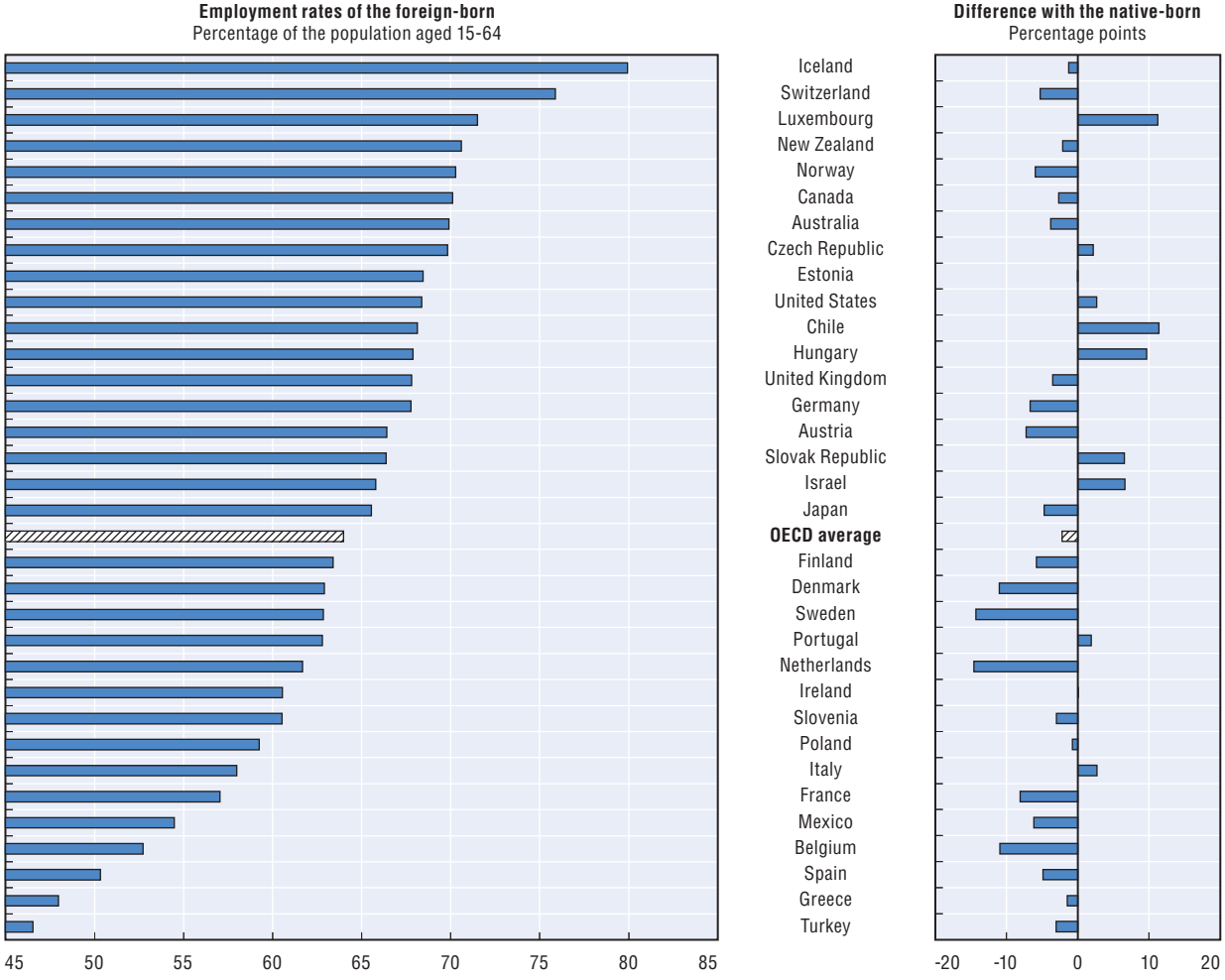
Labour market outcomes of immigrants and their children

Foreign-born adults' labour market outcomes

Overview. When looking at immigrants' labour market outcomes, the first and most striking fact is that in virtually all OECD countries, most working-age immigrants are in employment. The exceptions are Greece, which has been particularly hard hit by the global economic crisis, and Turkey (Figure 2.10).

Across the OECD, an average of nearly two-thirds of working-age immigrants are in employment. Rates range from less than 55% in Greece and Turkey, as well as in Spain – another country hard hit by the crisis – Belgium and Mexico, to 70% or more in Australia, Canada, Norway, New Zealand, Luxembourg, Switzerland and Iceland. Five of these seven countries are in Figure 2.4's group of longstanding destinations and boast many highly educated immigrants.

Figure 2.10. **Employment rates of the foreign-born in contrast to those of the native-born, 2013**



Note: Data for Japan relate to foreigners compared with Japanese nationals. Data for Chile and Israel are for the year 2011. Data for Australia and New Zealand refer to the year 2012.

Source: European countries and Turkey: Labour Force Surveys (Eurostat); Australia, Canada, Israel, New Zealand: Labour Force Surveys; Chile: *Encuesta de Caracterización Socioeconómica Nacional* (CASEN); Japan: Population Census; Mexico: *Encuesta Nacional de Ocupación y Empleo* (ENOE); United States: Current Population Surveys.

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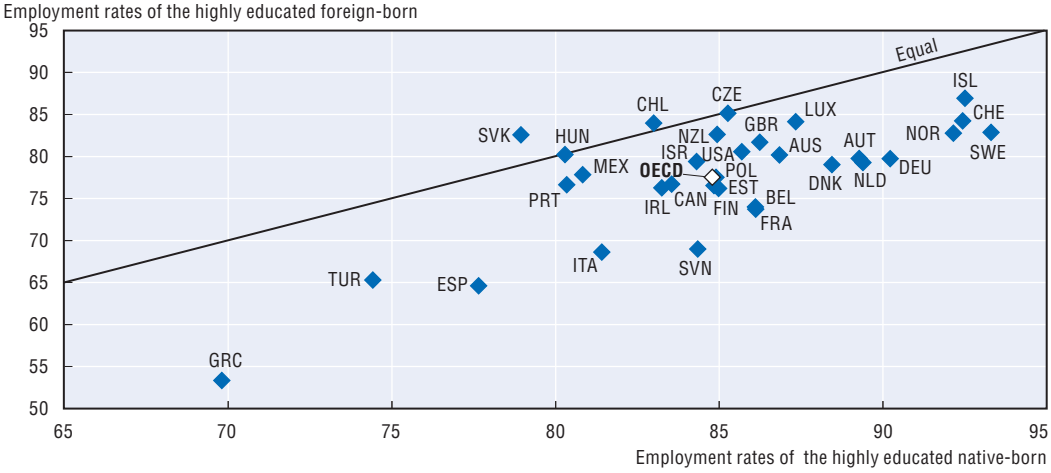
Average employment rates are slightly lower among immigrants than native-born residents, with significant disparities in the Scandinavian countries, the Netherlands, Belgium, Austria, France and Germany – all from the second and fourth country clusters identified in Figure 2.4. Gender is also an important factor, since employment gaps between immigrant women and their native-born peers tend to be wider than among men.

Among the highly educated, immigrant employment rates are lower than those of the native-born in all OECD countries except Chile and the Slovak Republic (Figure 2.11). The gaps are particularly wide in countries which are destinations for significant humanitarian migration, such as Sweden, and in those hard hit by the crisis, like Greece and Spain. Nevertheless, more than two-thirds of the university-educated foreign-born are working in all OECD countries, save Greece.

Figure 2.11. **Employment rates among the highly educated native-born and foreign-born aged 15-64 who are not in education, selected OECD countries, 2013**

Employment rates expressed as percentages



Note: The data for Canada, Japan, New Zealand and Turkey apply to the 25-64 age group and may include people still in education. The data for Australia refer to the 15-64 age group and may include people still in education.
Source: European countries and Turkey: Labour Force Surveys (Eurostat), 2013; Australia: Labour Force Survey 2012; Canada, New Zealand: Labour Force Surveys 2011-12; Chile: *Encuesta de Caracterización Socioeconómica Nacional* (CASEN) 2011; Israel: Labour Force Survey 2011; Mexico: *Encuesta Nacional de Ocupación y Empleo* (ENOE) 2013; United States: Current Population Surveys 2013.

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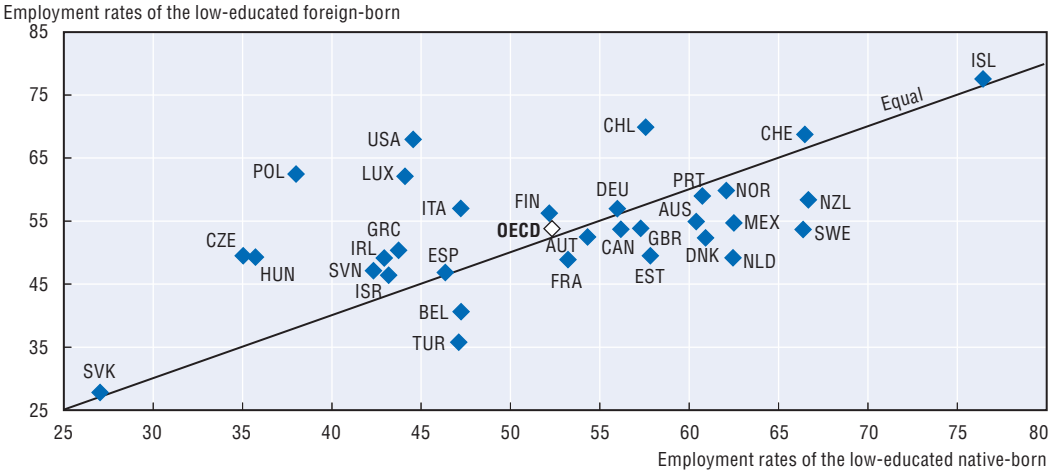
The picture is much more diverse among low-educated workers (Figure 2.12). In contrast to the highly educated, low-educated foreign-born residents are often just as likely to work as their native-born peers. Compared with the latter, immigrants' labour situations appear particularly good in countries that have seen significant recent inflows of low-educated workers, e.g. the United States, Luxembourg, Italy, and Greece. By contrast, there are wide gaps to the detriment of immigrants in Estonia, the Netherlands, Sweden, and Denmark. In general, however, most foreign-born resident with low levels of educational attainment are in work in the bulk of OECD countries. The only exceptions are Belgium, Spain, France, Ireland, Israel, The Netherlands, Turkey and Central European countries with small and often older immigrant populations (belonging to the fifth group identified in Figure 2.4).

Figure 2.12. **Employment rates of the low-educated native-born and foreign-born, persons aged 15-64 and not in education, selected OECD countries, 2013**

Employment rates expressed as percentages



Note: The data for Canada, Japan, New Zealand and Turkey refer to the 25-64 age group and can include those still in education. The data for Australia refer to the 15-64 age group and can include people still in education.
Source: Australia: Labour Force Survey 2012; Canada, New Zealand: Labour Force Surveys 2011-12; Chile: *Encuesta de Caracterización Socioeconómica Nacional* (CASEN) 2011; Israel: Labour Force Survey 2011; European countries and Turkey: Labour Force Surveys (Eurostat), 2013; Mexico: *Encuesta Nacional de Ocupación y Empleo* (ENOE) 2013; United States: Current Population Surveys 2013.

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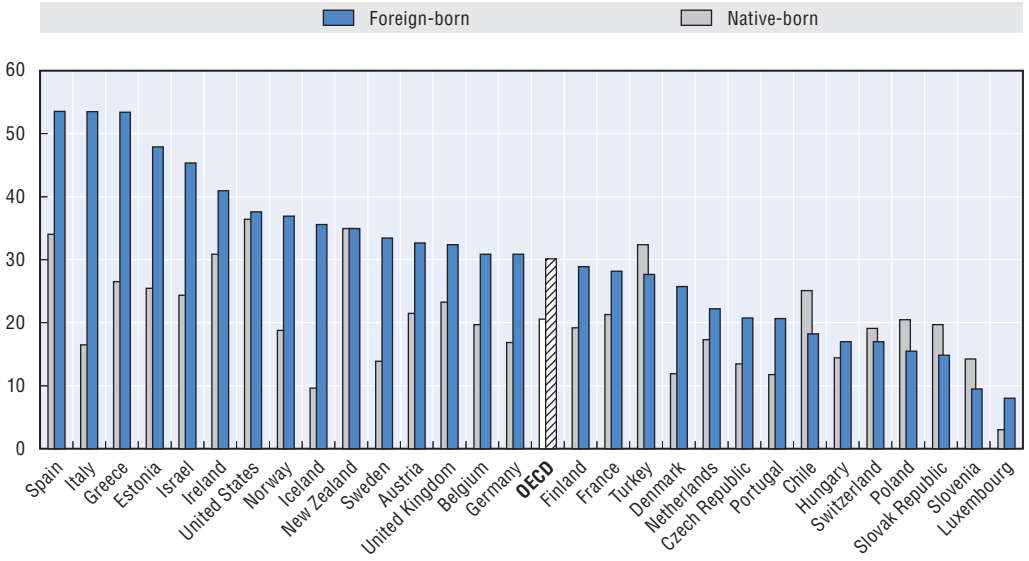
The picture that emerges is that, although immigrants' employment rates rise with their education levels, they do so to a lesser degree than those of the native-born. The employment gap thus widens with educational attainment (see Table 2.A1.4 and Damas de Matos and Liebig, 2014).

Although most of the foreign-born are in work, they are more often to be found in low-skilled or low-quality jobs than their native peers who have attained the same level of education. This is generally an issue for the highly educated, although it may also affect those with intermediate levels of education. Not only are educated immigrants less likely to be in employment, those who do work are also much more widely over-qualified than their native-born peers in virtually all countries (Figure 2.13). The incidence of over-qualification is particularly high in countries from the third and fourth groups in Figure 2.4 – i.e. Southern European countries, where there has been much recent labour migration into low-skilled jobs, and the Nordic countries, where many arrivals with university degrees are humanitarian immigrants. They are far more likely to be over-qualified for their jobs than other immigrant groups (Table 2.A1.4 and Damas de Matos and Liebig, 2014).

Where the issue for the highly educated in employment is over-qualification, the chief concerns for the uneducated foreign-born are poor working conditions and low wages, which are in turn associated with in-work poverty. In nearly all OECD countries for which such information is available, households headed by poorly educated immigrant workers are more likely to live in poverty than their native-born peers. The exceptions are Germany, Switzerland, and Poland (Figure 2.14). Disparities are often considerable and in some countries – such as Estonia, Greece, Denmark, Belgium, the Netherlands, Austria and Sweden – the families of low-educated immigrant workers are more than twice as likely to be affected by in-work poverty as those where the household head is native-born.

Figure 2.13. **Over-qualification rates among the highly educated in employment, 15- to 64-year-olds, by migration status, 2013**

Over-qualification rates expressed as percentages



Note: Highly educated corresponds to tertiary education. They are considered over-qualified if the job is classified as ISCO 4 to 9. (ISCO stands for International Standard Classification of Occupations.)
Source: European countries and Turkey: Labour Force Surveys (Eurostat), 2013; Chile: *Encuesta de Caracterización Socioeconómica Nacional* (CASEN) 2011; Israel: Labour Force Survey 2011; New Zealand: Labour Force Survey 2012; United States: Current Population Survey 2013.

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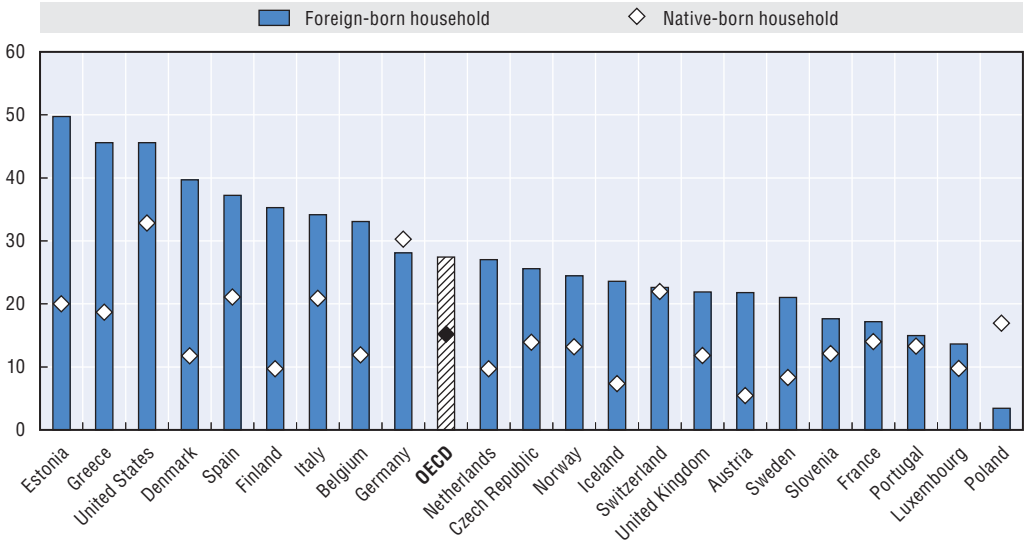
Figure 2.14. **In-work poverty risk by migration status in households with low-educated household head(s), selected OECD countries, 2011**

Percentages



Note: "In-work poverty risk" denotes the share of individuals who live in a household where the equivalent income is below half of the median income of the whole population living in the country. The equivalent scale used is the square root scale. The households considered are those where at least one adult has been at work for at least seven months in the previous twelve. The income considered is the total household income after social transfers that is disposable in a twelve-month period (previous calendar or tax year or twelve months preceding the interview).
Source: European Countries: EU-SILC (Eurostat), 2011; United States: American Community Survey 2012.

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Specific labour-related issues for family and humanitarian immigrants. Obviously, immigrants do not all start out from the same position on the labour market. Labour immigrants – particularly those who arrive with the offer of a job – usually step into work immediately or a few months after arrival. Indeed, their employment rates can only decline over time.

The situation is very different for family and humanitarian immigrants, for whom employment is generally not the main reason for moving to a new country. Data for the European OECD countries show that – after controlling for other relevant individual characteristics – humanitarian immigrant men and women from lower-income countries have, respectively, employment rates that are 11 and 18 percentage points higher than their peers who have come as labour migrants (Table 2.A1.3).

With the exception of women from non-OECD countries, former international students are just as likely to be employed as labour immigrants. Of immigrants who arrive as adults in European countries, more than 50% of men declare that they come to work and 25% for family reasons. The proportions are reversed among women. Less than 10% of men and women arrive for humanitarian reasons or to study.

Given the different initial motives for migrating, what one may reasonably expect for one category of newcomers may not be appropriate for another. Indeed, differences in the composition of immigrant populations explain many cross-country disparities in integration outcomes (Bevelander and Pendakur, 2014). Finding work fast is a reasonable benchmark for labour immigrants and, indeed, having a job upon arrival is a precondition for admission into European OECD countries and, increasingly, into Australia, Canada, and New Zealand. The same applies to former international students who change status. Family and humanitarian immigrants need greater support and more time (years) to achieve labour market integration.[6]

Immigrant women often face a double disadvantage. As most family migrants are women, gender is central to that particular migration category. Even after controlling for a broad range of socio-economic characteristics, it appears that immigrant women have much lower employment rates than men in relation to their native-born peers, whose employment rates already fall short of native men's. Clearly, then immigrant women are at a "double disadvantage" (OECD, 2006a addresses the issue in depth).

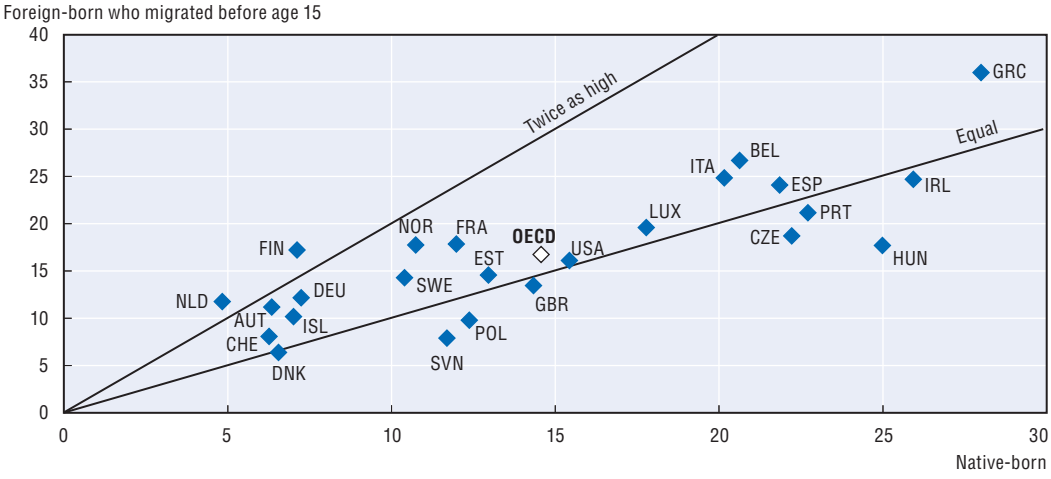
The twin disadvantage is partly attributable to more traditionally separate gender roles being more pronounced among immigrants, particularly those from countries where the incidence of women in work is low. Having small children also seems to curb the employment opportunities of foreign-born women more than it does those of their native-born peers. Although immigrant women from lower-income countries appear worst affected (Table 2.A1.4), they, too, tend to show higher employment rates in countries where large numbers of native-born women are in work. A country's overall labour market context for women thus seems to affect immigrant women's employment.

Outcomes of youth with immigrant parents

Since a significant proportion of young people are still in out comes of education, the best youth integration indicator is widely considered to be the percentages who are neither in employment nor in education or training (the NEET group). Figure 2.15 shows the share of NEETs among foreign-born young people who migrated as children in comparison to those who are native-born. In most countries, they are overrepresented among the NEET compared with their native-born peers – and more than twice as much in the Netherlands and Finland.

Figure 2.15. **Share by place of birth of youth who are neither in employment nor in education or training (NEET), 2012-13**

Percentages among 15- to 24-year-olds



Source: European countries: Labour Force Surveys (Eurostat) 2012; United States: Current Population Survey 2013.

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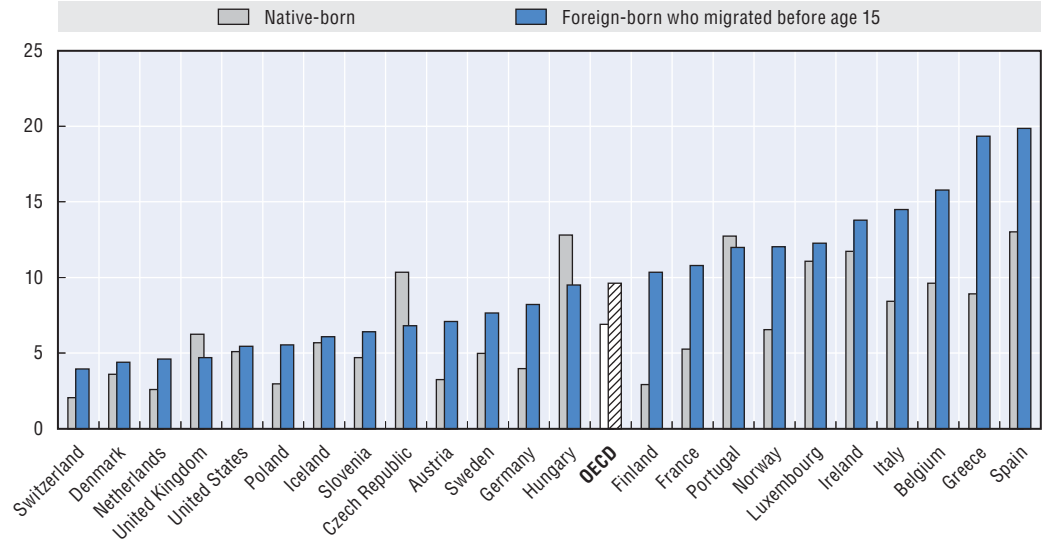
Disparities between immigrant and native-born young people are even wider among the poorly educated NEET (Figure 2.16). In this group, which is of key concern for policy-makers, immigrant youth are overrepresented in all countries, particularly in Europe. The only exceptions are the United Kingdom and a few European OECD countries where the number of immigrants in the 15-to-24 age group is small.

Figure 2.16. **Share by place of birth of low-educated young people neither in employment nor education or training (NEET) among the total youth (15- to 25-year olds), 2012-13**

Percentages



Source: European countries: Labour Force Surveys (Eurostat) 2012; United States: Current Population Survey 2013.

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Although native-born children of immigrants show higher NEET and lower employment rates than the children of the native-born in many OECD countries, their outcomes are better than those of immigrant youth (OECD, 2010a and 2012e; Liebig and Widmaier, 2009).

That native-born immigrant offspring are overrepresented among NEETs and the unemployed is true irrespective of education level. However, for those whose parents were from a non-OECD county, their chances of employment rise faster with education level than those of children with native-born parents (Table 2.A1.4). This pattern suggests that education is a strong driver of labour market integration among children of immigrants, particularly among women.

Irrespective of their education level, native-born immigrant offspring widely show poorer labour market outcomes than their peers without a migration background – at least in the European OECD countries (Table 2.A1.2).[7] Preliminary analysis based on data from the PIAAC survey indicates that there are persistent gaps in employment rates between children of non-immigrants and native-born children of immigrants, even after controlling for education and literacy skills (Table 2.A1.7).[8] The inference is that structural obstacles other than formal qualifications or mastery of the host-country language undermines use of the skills of young people from immigrant parents.

Factors that shape differences between the labour market outcomes of immigrants and their offspring and those of the native-born

Integration takes place over time

Integration is a process that takes time. Labour market outcomes tend to improve with the years as immigrants gradually acquire the skills required by the host country, which includes command of the language. However, the gap with those who have no migration background seldom closes completely.

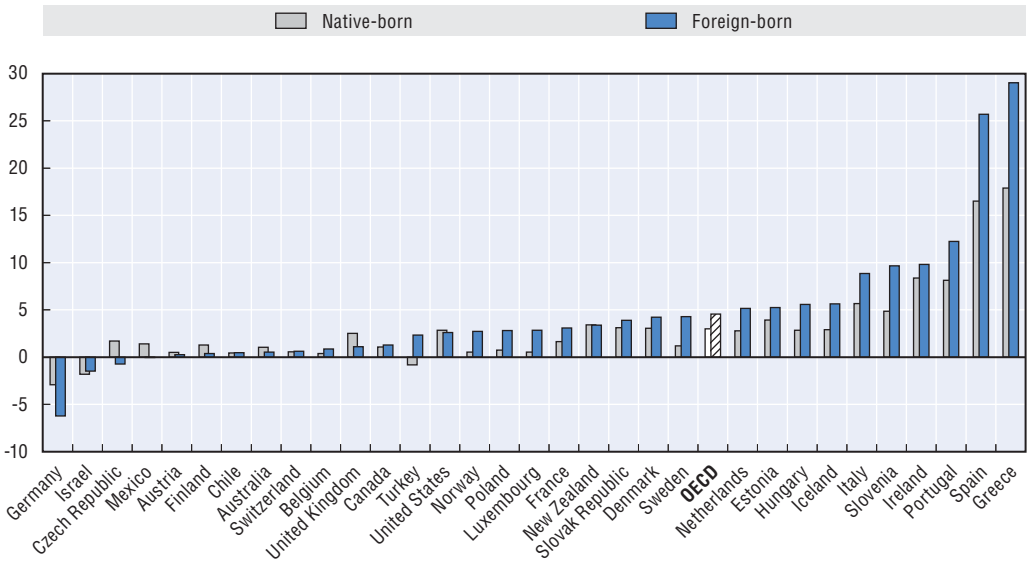
Comparison of recent and long-settled immigrants reveals that the latter are more likely to participate in the labour market and less prone to unemployment. In European OECD countries, an additional year of residence is associated with a 0.2 percentage point increase in the immigrant employment rate for men and a rise of 0.4 among women (Table 2.A1.3).[9] The improvement is particularly sharp in some immigrant groups, particularly refugees. Longitudinal data points to similar results in the settlement countries. The risk of over-qualification also seems to fall – by one percentage point per year – among employed immigrants born in a lower-income country (Table 2.A1.5).

General labour market conditions matter more for immigrants

General economic conditions obviously shape the labour market outcomes of both foreign- and native-born workers. Nevertheless, immigrants are, as a rule, much more widely affected by change because they tend to be overrepresented in cyclical sectors and occupations. In addition, their jobs are less stable and they tend to enjoy less seniority, which makes them more likely to be laid off. There is also some, albeit limited, evidence of employers selectively firing immigrants (Arai and Vilhelmsson, 2003; OECD, 2009). As a result, the immigrant unemployment rates have grown much faster with the economic and financial downturn than those of the native-born, particularly in the worst-affected countries, Greece and Spain (Figure 2.17).

Figure 2.17. **Evolution of unemployment rates by place of birth, 15 to 64 years old, 2007-13**

Percentage points



Note: The data for Canada are for the period 2008-12; Turkey: 2008-13; Israel: 2007-11; Chile: 2006-11; Australia and New Zealand: 2007-12.

Source: European countries and Turkey: Labour Force Surveys (Eurostat); Chile: *Encuesta de Caracterización Socioeconómica Nacional* (CASEN); Australia, Canada, Israel, New Zealand: Labour Force Surveys; Mexico: *Encuesta Nacional de Ocupación y Empleo* (ENOE); United States: Current Population Surveys.

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Examination of how employment rates have evolved since the onset of the crisis paints an uneven picture (Figure 2.18). On average, the employment rates of both immigrants and the native-born have fallen by about 2.5 percentage points. And in some longstanding European destinations – particularly Germany, Austria, and Switzerland – the foreign-born have actually not been as badly affected as the native-born. In contrast, however, immigrant joblessness has risen much faster than that of the native-born in the OECD countries hardest hit by the economic crisis (i.e. those in the third group identified in Figure 2.4, together with Ireland). Many immigrants in those countries had arrived just prior to the crisis and struggled hard to find jobs. A protracted period of unemployment, especially upon arrival, tends to weaken the long-term prospects for successful labour market integration.

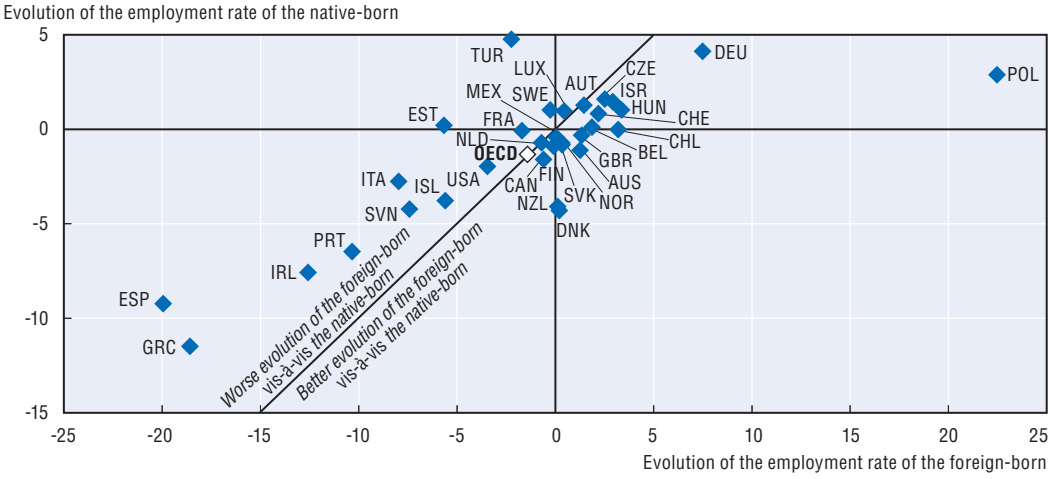
Employers have difficulty judging skills acquired abroad

As noted above, there are often significant differences between immigrants' qualifications and skills and those of their native-born peers (for more comprehensive overviews, see Damas de Matos and Liebig, 2014, on qualifications; Bonfanti and Xenogiani, 2014, on skills; and, for a review of the literature, Damas de Matos, 2014).

The previous section pointed to significant, systematic disparities between the labour market outcomes of the native-born and those of highly educated immigrants, particularly if they have degrees from non-OECD countries. The same pattern was not necessarily true of the poorly-educated, however. The inference is that the returns to education are lower among immigrants than among the native-born, even after controlling for differences in age, gender, and field of study (Damas de Matos and Liebig, 2014).

Figure 2.18. **Evolution of the employment rates of the foreign- and native-born, 15 to 64 years old, 2007-13**

Percentage points



Note: The data for Canada are for the years 2008 and 2012, Chile: 2006 and 2011, Israel: 2007 and 2011; Australia, New Zealand: 2007 and 2012; Turkey: 2008 and 2013.

Source: Australia, Canada, Israel and New Zealand: Labour Force Surveys; Chile: *Encuesta de Caracterización Socioeconómica Nacional* (CASEN); European countries and Turkey: Labour Force Surveys (Eurostat); Mexico: *Encuesta Nacional de Ocupación y Empleo* (ENOE); United States: Current Population Surveys.

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Host-country labour markets tend to devalue foreign qualifications, which affects employment, leads to over-qualification (see Tables 2.A1.5 and 2.A1.8 for European OECD countries), and reduces wages (Bonfanti and Xenogiani, 2014). Employment returns to education abroad – as measured by the increase with an additional year of education in the probability of being in employment – are only a little more than half the returns of domestic qualifications, both in Europe and the United States. Indeed, immigrants' labour market outcomes seem to be more strongly determined by the country in which they obtained their qualifications than by the country in which they were born (Damas de Matos and Liebig, 2014).

The downgrading of foreign qualifications on host-country labour markets holds even after controlling for differences in years of residence and literacy skills (Tables 2.A1.7 and 2.A1.8). It is a key issue in integration, since most immigrants hold foreign degrees (Figure 2.A1.1).

Estimates suggest that between one-third and one-half of the high observed over-qualification of immigrants compared with the native-born is associated with lower skills at given qualification levels (Bonfanti and Xenogiani, 2014; OECD, 2008a; Dumont and Monso, 2007). Indeed, immigrants with host-country degrees generally enjoy similar labour market outcomes to their native-born peers. However, it is unclear to what extent the undervaluing of foreign qualifications may be ascribed to the poor performance of education systems in countries of origin or to the limited transferability of skills. Further analysis with PIAAC data should shed some light on this.

Host-country employers downgrade foreign work experience even more than they do foreign qualifications. However, recent evidence (Picot and Sweetman, 2011) suggests that attitudes change once immigrants become more familiar with the local labour market and employers have information that enables them to better judge the value of foreign qualifications and work experience.

Mastering the host-country language is the most important skill for labour market integration

As mentioned above, the single most important skill for succeeding in local labour markets and, indeed, in society at large is mastery of host countries' official languages. Adequately measuring command of language and its links with the labour market is a challenging task. Literacy, as measured by PIAAC, clearly includes language skills. For European OECD countries, some self-reported information is available from the 2008 Labour Force Survey on whether immigrants consider that poor language skills are a barrier to finding a job that matches their qualifications and work experience. Although self-reporting is far from an objective measure of language skills, it does afford an immigrant take on language skills and what is adequate for the country's labour market.

More than one in five immigrants report that language difficulties are a considerable obstacle to finding a suitable job. Of that proportion, those with low levels of education are over-represented. Controlling for education level, it appears that immigrants who cite language as a major difficulty are chiefly those with foreign – particularly non-OECD – qualifications. Humanitarian immigrants are the most likely to report language difficulties, followed by family and labour immigrants, while those who state that they immigrated for the purpose of studying rarely report language problems.

Damas de Matos and Liebig (2014) find that there is a strong negative correlation between language difficulties and labour market outcomes, notwithstanding entry categories and the level and country of qualification. After controlling for differences in other observable characteristics, the authors find that immigrants who struggle with language are 17 percentage points more likely to be over-qualified for their job than those who do not report such difficulties. Immigrants' self-reported language difficulties also seem to account for much of the disadvantage observed among immigrants compared to the native-born of a similar age and education level. For labour immigrants who do not report language problems, the labour market disadvantage seems to disappear entirely.

Immigrants and their children lack networks and understanding of labour markets

Formal qualifications, language, and work experience are only some of the skills needed to succeed on the labour market. Immigrants also face greater challenges when seeking jobs and recruitment channels, even when their qualifications are at least comparable to those of their native-born peers. They are at an obvious disadvantage when it comes to knowledge of the host-country's labour market and hiring practices and with respect to contacts, direct or indirect, with employers.

In all OECD countries, much hiring is through informal contact with employers. The question of contacts and networks goes well beyond the "I'll put you in touch with". Sometimes, a contact may just be a mere hint that there is an employer who might be interested. Having contacts is not only an issue for people who immigrated as adults, but also for the children of immigrants raised and educated in the host country. The reason is that contact with the first employer – generally for apprenticeship or internships – often comes about through the parents' personal networks.

The lack of direct contact between employers and immigrants also fuels the formers' misgivings about the latters' skills and productivity. A Swedish study (Åslund et al., 2009) found that managers are generally much more likely to hire workers with their same ethnic background, except in cases where the applicant was a former employee.

Networks are part of the broader issue of knowledge of a local labour market and how it functions. Writing applications and presentation in a job interview tend to be highly country-specific. Differences in this respect are wide even between OECD countries. Analysis from the Nordic countries (Rosholm et al., 2001) suggests that interpersonal skills are particularly critical in highly skilled sectors where new technologies and work practices – e.g. team work, freelancing and virtual offices – are making the workplace more loosely structured.

Discrimination

Discrimination is also a factor that hinders the access of immigrants and their native-born offspring to the job market. However, the selective hiring of people from certain backgrounds and discrimination against those from others is hard to prove (Heath, Liebig and Simon, 2013; OECD, 2008b). There is always the chance that characteristics that affect productivity but are not observed directly could account for employer preference for certain candidates, rather than outright discrimination.

One way to circumvent this are situation and CV-testing studies. These have demonstrated discrimination in hiring for many OECD countries.[10] The results are summarised in Table 2.1. The tests involve submitting equivalent applications for the same job from two (fictitious) candidates with the same profile who differ in name alone. Since applicants' qualifications need to be very similar, they are given the same level of attainment in the domestic education system. Test findings therefore chiefly apply to the offspring of immigrants. They show that it is not uncommon that immigrants and their offspring have to regularly send out more than twice as many applications before they secure to a job interview.

Interestingly, given the high incidence of discrimination and the on average lower educational outcomes of immigrants' children, it is reasonable to expect that they should show much higher unemployment rates than are actually observed. One reason seems to be that immigrants' offspring compensate for discrimination by making additional efforts to find work or accepting lower-skilled jobs.[11] Survey data from a number of OECD countries suggest that that is actually what happens – an important finding that merits highlighting.

Although results cannot be directly compared across countries and sectors, one common finding is that discriminatory practices generally affect immigrant men more than women. Discrimination is also probably even greater when the labour market is slack, as companies can afford to pick and choose who they take on. It also tends to be more pronounced in small- and medium-sized enterprises which not only have fewer contacts with immigrants, but may also be less willing to take the risk of hiring a person about whose productivity they know little.

Yet, can uncertainty be justified when it comes to the children of immigrants who have good host-country qualifications? Indeed, a key finding from Heath, Liebig and Simon (2013) is that in European OECD countries, native-born children of immigrants report feeling discriminated against more often than immigrants themselves. The contrast is stark with non-European OECD countries that have been settled by migration, where the reverse is the case.

Discrimination has multiple negative effects and its extent, as revealed in testing studies, is worrying. It not only reduces immigrants' incentives to invest in education and training, but also impacts adversely on both the economy and social cohesion.

Table 2.1. **Results from situation testing in 17 OECD countries**

	Ethnic group	Relative call-back rate
Australia	Chinese	1.7[1]
	Italian	1.1
	Middle Eastern	1.6[1]
Austria	Chinese	1.4[1]
	Nigeria	2.0[1]
	Serbian	1.3[1]
	Turkish	1.5[1]
Belgium	Moroccan	1.9[1]
	Turkish (compared with Flemish) (Bottleneck jobs)	2.1[1]
	Turkish (compared with Flemish) (Non-bottleneck)	1.0
Canada (Montreal)	African	1.8[1]
	Arab	1.6[1]
	Latin-American	1.6[1]
Canada (Toronto)	Chinese	1.5[1]
	Indian	1.3[1]
	Pakistani (applicants with Canadian education and experience)	1.4[1]
Finland	Russian (names)	2.0[1]
France	North African and sub-Saharan African (native-born offspring)	2.0[1]
Germany	Turkish	1.4[1]
Greece	Albanian	1.8[1]
Ireland	African	2.4[1]
	Asian	1.8[1]
	German	2.1[1]
Italy	Moroccan (foreign-born)	1.4[1]
Netherlands	Antillean	1.2[1]
	Moroccan	1.1[1]
	Moroccan (men only)	1.3[1]
	Surinamese	1.2[1]
	Turkish	1.2[1]
Norway	Pakistani (native-born offspring)	1.3[1]
Spain	Moroccan (foreign-born)	1.3[1]
Sweden	Arabic/African	1.8[1]
	Young native Swedes of Middle-Eastern background	2.5[1]
	Middle Eastern (men only)	1.5[1]
Switzerland	Albanian speakers from former Yugoslavia (in French-speaking areas)	1.3[1]
	Albanian speakers from former Yugoslavia (in German-speaking areas) (foreign-born men)	2.5[1]
	Portuguese (in French-speaking areas)	1.1
	Turkish (in German-speaking areas)	1.4[1]
United Kingdom	Black African	1.7[1]
	Black Caribbean	1.9[1]
	Chinese	1.9[1]
	Indian	1.9[1]
	Pakistani/Bangladeshi	1.5[1]
United States	African American	1.5[1]
	Latinos	1.2
	Black	2.0[1]

1. Significantly different from 1.0. The relative call-back rate is the number of applications that a person from the group concerned has to send out – relative to a person without an "immigrant background" – before he or she is invited to a job interview.

Source: For full references and discussion: Heath, Liebig and Simon (2013), except for: Austria: Hofer et al. (2013); Finland: Larja et al. (2012); Germany: SVR (2014).

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In summary, while immigrants and their offspring face a number of labour market integration challenges, they should not overshadow the fact that, in most OECD countries, the majority of immigrants and their children are in work. This is an important point, since relatively few of the foreign-born in OECD countries arrive with the same advantages and skills as the native-born, who have domestic degrees, local contacts, and native-speaker's advantage on the labour market. Yet immigrants and their children still have much potential to offer. The next section sets out to explore which policies help tap into it.

What policies matter for immigrant integration?

When it comes to integrating immigrants and maintaining employment levels, appropriate skills investment – to develop, activate, and use them effectively in the host-country's labour market – can make immigration a tool for meeting the labour market challenges that stem from population ageing. In addition to driving long-term growth, investment in the skills of immigrants and their native-born children can, at the individual level, help them make the most of their potential and go some way to halting the transmission of disadvantage from one generation to the next. Workers with higher skills – be they immigrants or native-born – are more productive, tend to earn more, and have brighter employment prospects.

The OECD Skills Strategy (OECD, 2012a) is an instrument designed to help governments better understand how to identify the strengths and weaknesses of their existing training and education systems. Adapted to immigrants and their children, its holistic approach can help harness the widely underutilised skills of immigrants and their children as part of an integration policy that contributes effectively to the overall goals of better jobs, economic growth, and social inclusion.

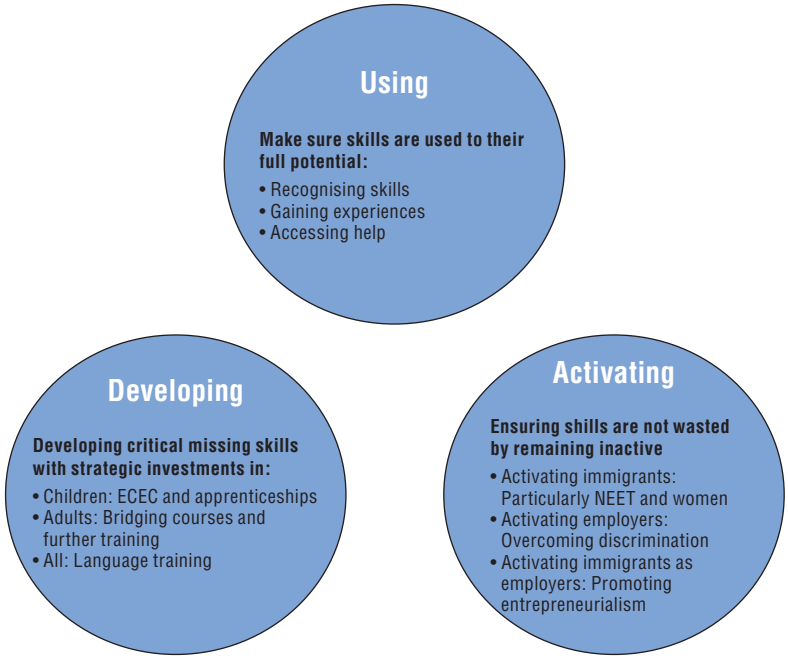
The Skills Strategy builds on three pillars:

- **Putting existing skills to effective use on the labour market** requires effective policies and investment. The first step is to take stock and "recognise" immigrants' skills appropriately. Foreign-born adults bring skills formalised by foreign qualifications and shaped by work experience that host countries often fail to fully acknowledge. Successful entry into the labour market has a profound impact on a person's career and subsequent use of skills, while the scarring effects of a poor start may lead to unemployment or over-qualification that workers struggle to overcome later in their careers. Skills that go unused tend to atrophy, while work experience often brings out new ones. Integration policies should begin by clearly communicating information about the skills that are needed and available, so helping to connect qualified workers with potential employers and averting the risk of unemployment and over-skilling.
- **Developing skills that meet the needs of the labour market.** Policies to develop skills seek to ensure that the supply of skills in the labour market is sufficient, in both quantity and quality, to meet current and emerging needs. Within integration policy, it is important to foster the right mix of skills through education and training.
- **Activating skills currently not supplied to the labour market.** Activating skills encourages inactive working-age people to seek a job or retrain. They may have many skills but not offer them on the labour market out of choice, for personal or family reasons, because of poor perceived employment prospects, or financial disincentives to work or hire. To activate skills effectively, governments can create financial incentives

that make work pay and dismantle non-financial barriers to labour market participation. Activating skills effectively may require galvanising employers and tackling their reluctance to hire individuals who are inactive or drifting away from the labour force.

The diagram below (Figure 2.19) shows how the skills strategy can be adapted to integrating immigrants.

Figure 2.19. **Using the OECD Skills Strategy framework to integrate immigrants**



Investing in skills involves all three of the inter-linked pillars. Ultimately, policies can enhance the use only of skills that have been developed and activated. If their skills are used effectively workers are more likely to be inclined to invest in developing them and feel encouraged to remain active. When it comes to the foreign-born, proper assessment and recognition of their existing skills will avoid any unnecessary investment in developing them and will focus any additional training on the critical missing skills. At the same time, activating existing skills – through early integration in the labour market – may facilitate the development of further ones, like language, among new arrivals.

This chapter draws on the three pillars of the OECD Skills Strategy – developing, activating, and putting skills to effective use. For the offspring of immigrants and the native-born, the Strategy rightly takes the development of skills as its starting point. The first part of this chapter considers the importance of recognising and harnessing existing skills to bring foreign-born adults into the labour market. Immigrant adults bring qualifications and skills with them and getting them into employment early has become a key policy goal. The second part goes on to demonstrate how immigrants and their offspring can effectively activate and develop the right skills for participating in the labour market on an equal footing with the native-born and their offspring.

Putting skills to use

Putting the skills of the foreign-born to effective use requires recognising them and putting them into practice. It can involve overcoming additional hurdles and may, at times, require extra help to connect immigrants with employers so that they can evaluate immigrants' skills rather than acting on preconceptions.

Assessing and recognising immigrants' skills

The first step in putting immigrants' skills and qualifications to effective use is to gather information about these qualifications and to make them available to potential employers. Employers, the public and even immigrants themselves may be uncertain whether a foreign qualification actually represents the skills that are needed in the labour market. Assessing and recognising these qualifications is often a helpful first step in the integration process and helps immigrants to access jobs that are appropriately matched to their skills and qualifications. Assessing the skills of foreign-trained immigrants can help to identify needs for additional training and work experience.

Many actors are involved in ensuring that the skills and qualifications of immigrants are appropriately recognised and used:

- **Educational authorities** assess and certify the comparability of qualifications from abroad, often to decide whether an applicant qualifies for a specific study programme.
- **Professional bodies** assess and recognise qualifications in their regulated field of expertise.
- **Dedicated recognition bodies** may certify qualifications, provide information, co-ordinate other actors involved and are often a first point of contact for potential applicants.
- Co-operation with **employers** in the recognition process can improve their appreciation of immigrants' foreign qualifications.

Recognising immigrants' skills primarily takes two forms: assessment and recognition of formal qualifications and the validation of competences.

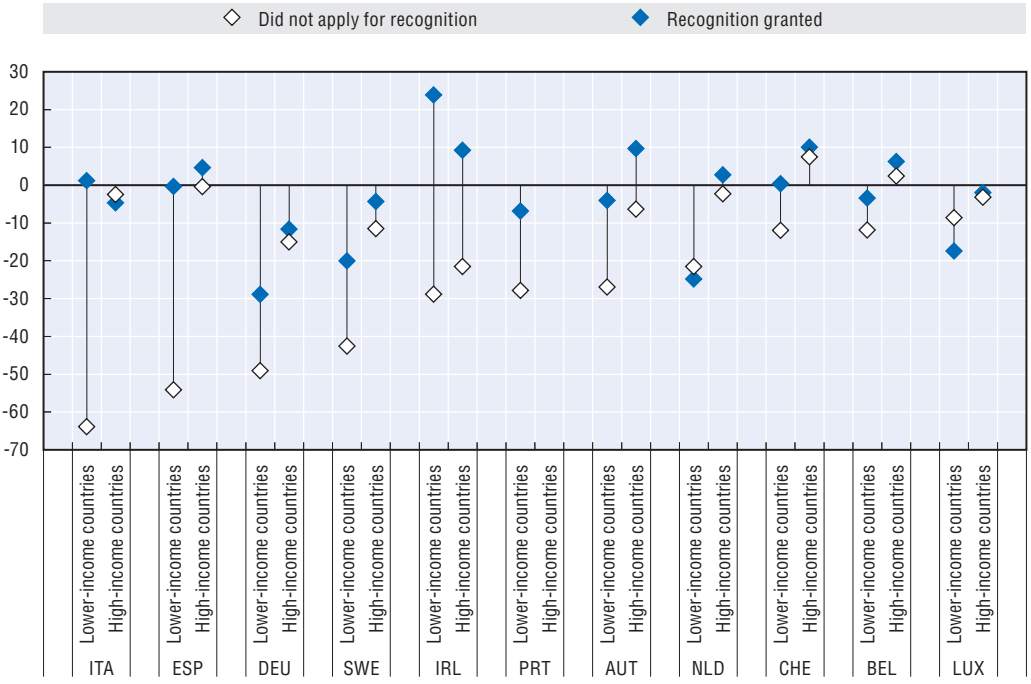
Assessment and recognition of formal qualifications. The formal assessment and recognition of foreign qualifications is an important tool for authorities as they seek to help employers overcome their misgivings about the skills of immigrants. Formal recognition by educational or professional bodies certifies the authenticity of the qualification and its (full or partial) equivalence with a domestic qualification that is better known to employers or grants a domestic degree directly. Formal recognition is needed to exercise regulated professions, such as medicine or law. Such professions, however, are generally only a small share of the labour market. In other cases, the assessment and recognition procedure can nevertheless be useful as an official certification of qualifications and a touchstone for employers who are unsure about the true value of immigrants' foreign qualifications – particularly those obtained in education systems that are very different from the host country's. Ultimately, however, "recognition" of immigrants' skills lies with employers who decide if they want to accept the foreign qualifications, whether they have undergone a formal assessment and recognition procedure or not. It is thus important that they have confidence in the outcome of the accreditation process.[12]

Data from selected EU countries shows that completion of a formal assessment and recognition procedure is associated with higher employment and better jobs for immigrants. It helps, for example to reduce over-qualification, as measured in the percentage of the highly educated who are employed below their formal education level.

The over-qualification gap between the foreign- and native-born is significantly narrower among immigrants who obtained recognition than among those who do not even apply. The improvement in labour market outcomes associated with recognition is particularly pronounced among immigrants from lower-income countries, i.e. those whose education systems tend to differ widely from those of OECD countries (Figure 2.20).

Figure 2.20. **Shares of highly educated foreign-born workers in jobs matching their formal qualifications in selected European OECD countries, by recognition of qualifications, 2008**

Percentage points differences with native-born



Note: "-10" means that the highly educated immigrants in employment have a probability to be in a job according to their qualification that is 10 percentage points lower than the native-born. Highly educated corresponds to tertiary education. They are considered to hold a job "according to their qualification" if the job is classified as ISCO 1 to 3 (ISCO stands for International Standard Classification of Occupations). High-income countries include EU27, North America and Oceania. No finer categorisation is possible with the level of precision of the Labour Force Survey.
Source: Labour Force Surveys (Eurostat) 2008 ad hoc module on the labour market situation of migrants and their immediate descendants.

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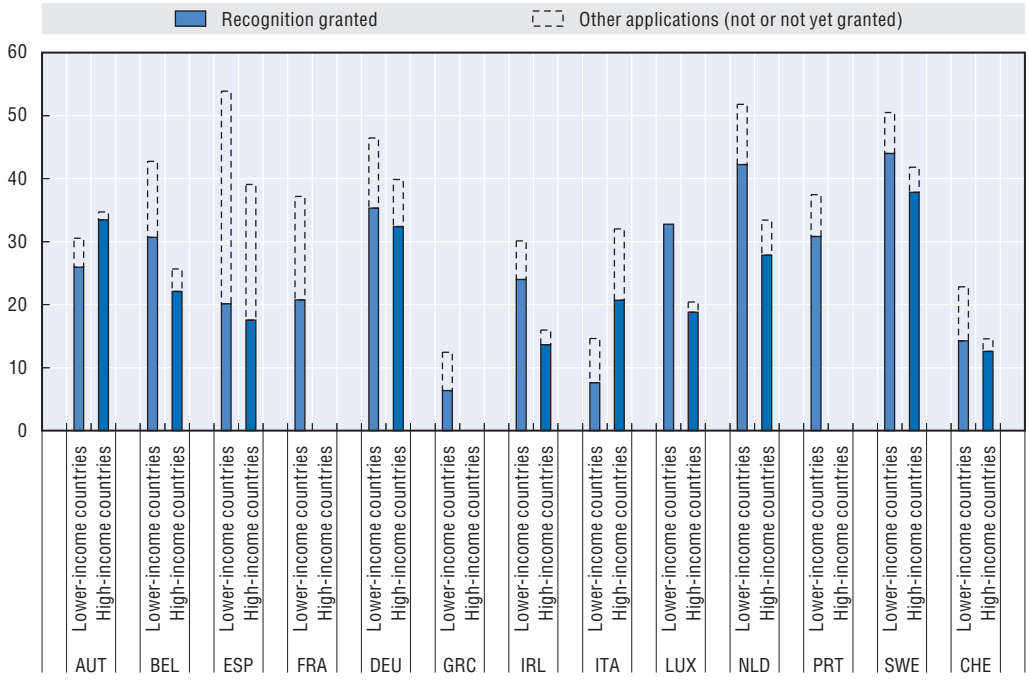
Some benefits derive from the fact that formal assessment and recognition is often the starting point for obtaining a host-country qualification that is highly valued in the labour market. For example, foreigners generally require formal certification that their qualifications are equivalent to at least to an upper secondary degree before they can enter the country's tertiary education system.

Across the European OECD countries, those most likely to apply for recognition are non-EU immigrants who arrive as students or ultimately obtain a tertiary-level degree in the host country. This finding indicates that accreditation is used mainly within the confines of the higher education system by immigrants pursuing their studies. Application rates are much lower among humanitarian and family immigrants and lowest among labour immigrants. Those with degrees in the health sector are also most likely to apply,

with rates 16 percentage points above the second most common field of study, which is teaching and education. Recognition thus appears to be only standard practice within certain highly regulated professions. Nevertheless, it yields positive results for a wide range of applicants, regardless of their reasons for migrating, their field of study, or where they obtained their degrees (Damas de Matos and Liebig, 2014).

In most countries for which data are available, though, it seems that despite the apparent career benefits, and the fact that full or partial recognition is generally granted to applicants, only a minority of immigrants with foreign qualifications actually do apply (see Figure 2.21).

Figure 2.21. **Percentages of highly educated immigrants, aged 15-24, who apply for accreditation of their foreign qualifications, selected European OECD countries, 2008**



Note: Highly educated corresponds to tertiary education. The sample excludes persons who are not working, have not found a job which will start later and would not like to have work. High-income countries include EU27, North America and Oceania. No finer categorisation is possible with the level of precision of the Labour Force Survey.
Source: Labour Force Surveys (Eurostat) 2008 ad hoc module on the labour market situation of migrants and their immediate descendants.

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Possible explanations for the low application rates point to the fact that assessment and recognition is not yet a standard part of most countries' integration policies. Outside higher education and the health sector, immigrants and integration service-providers may simply not know that there is such a procedure or that it can convey benefits.

A further explanation is that immigrants know about assessment and recognition but perceive the procedure as too burdensome or complex. Indeed, authorities responsible for this process are often numerous, disconnected from and unrelated to the bodies generally responsible for integration and employment. Additional formalities often surface, depending on the level and regulation of professions. For example, while universities are often in charge of the assessment and recognition of tertiary-level qualifications, it is the

job of professional bodies to grant recognition of qualifications in regulated professions. And overly cumbersome procedures can effectively exclude certain professional and academic qualifications. Administrative complexities are even greater in countries where education and employment authorities are decentralised or whose duties overlap.

Immigrants may encounter additional procedural hurdles, such as complicated documentation requirements, high fees, a potentially long wait for a decision, and a lack of transparency in the whole process. In some cases, too, a host country's authorities are unable to check on the degree from the country of origin – if, for example, the applicant is a refugee from a conflict zone or failed state. All such obstacles can deter foreign-educated immigrants from applying for recognition, so that only those certain to succeed in the end may apply.

Facilitating and promoting assessment and recognition of foreign qualifications has been a key recent policy trend in OECD countries, especially those seeking to attract highly educated immigrants. Germany's Federal Recognition Act instituted the right to an assessment in federally regulated professions through a more standardised, transparent procedure. In 2012, its first year in force, the act prompted 30 000 applications – mostly from EU citizens and in the health sector – and a high recognition rate.

Other countries, such as Denmark and Slovenia, also set forth the assessment and recognition procedure through laws that create the clear entitlement to assessment in regulated and non-regulated professions. Canada has drawn up a non-binding framework – the 2009 Pan-Canadian Framework for the Assessment and Recognition of Foreign Qualifications – which spells out to all provinces and territories common principles for improving fairness, transparency, timeliness, and consistency. A few countries have introduced uniform structures for the assessment and recognition of all foreign qualifications. Examples are some Nordic and Central European countries and the United Kingdom. Even without such structures, some countries have put in place one-stop shops to process all applications (e.g. the Netherlands) and counselling services to assist applicants (e.g. Austria, Canada, Germany, Denmark, and Sweden).

Validation of competencies. A related issue is the broader validation of competencies, obtained both formally and informally. This "accreditation of prior learning" is increasingly widespread among OECD countries and often focuses on the certification of intermediate-level skills of individuals who do not have a formal – or formally recognised – educational degree. However, while it might be expected that immigrants are overrepresented, as they would seem to benefit overwhelmingly from such certification, data on programmes from a number of OECD countries reveal that they are in fact underrepresented (OECD, 2008a and 2012c).

In several OECD countries – such as Belgium, Denmark, France, the Netherlands, Norway, Sweden and Switzerland – the public employment services have well established general procedures for assessing and validating skills, competencies, and work experience. Some countries have also developed immigrant-specific validation tools. One such tool is Denmark's "Competence Card".

The Competence Card helps to make immigrants' skills more visible to prospective employers and to connect them with labour market needs. The relevant institution assesses and documents individuals' professional, linguistic, and general skills. Competencies are placed on a digital competence card that can be used to seek jobs or further education. As with formal recognition of qualifications, accreditation of prior learning should involve employers in the certification process if it is to be successful. It is ultimately up to them to

accept the outcome. Denmark has again taken an innovative approach here, drawing not only the public employment service into the validation process, but the social partners, too.

Gaining experience: Integrating immigrants and their skills into the workplace

Working can be just as effective as formal study for developing a wide range of skills. Yet beyond the accreditation of foreign qualifications and competences, there are many hurdles still facing the effective use of immigrant skills on domestic labour markets. They relate to employers' experience with using those skills and public perceptions of them. Practical experience – in both the private and public sectors – is a valuable tool for debunking preconceptions and misinformation. It also helps to ensure that immigrants are given the opportunity to integrate and develop their skills.

Early integration in the labour market can set off a virtuous circle in the development and use of immigrants' skills as on-the-job learning, language use, and social integration mutually reinforce one another. Indeed, early labour market integration is a good predictor of outcomes in the long run. However, even when qualifications have been formally recognised, employer reticence as to the level and relevance of skills and experience obtained abroad can limit their willingness to hire foreign-born applicants. Against this backdrop, policies that bring immigrants into contact with employers and allow them to familiarise themselves with immigrants have proven particularly effective.

Work experience schemes – a chance to demonstrate skills. Instruments through which private-sector employers can be encouraged to offer work experience to foreign-born workers include subsidised wages, work placements, and internships. Policies that involve some element of employment experience can give them an opportunity to demonstrate to potential employers the relevance of their skills and qualifications. Such policies offset the employer uncertainty that widely affects demand for immigrant workers. Indeed, many of the most effective active labour market programmes (ALMPs) – for both native and foreign-born beneficiaries – combine work experience with on-the-job training.

Available evaluations from North-West Europe (see e.g. the meta-analysis by Butschek and Walter, 2013; and Nekby, 2008) suggest that private-sector incentive schemes, specifically wage subsidies and work placements, can be effective instruments. They are utilised to varying degrees in OECD countries and have been found to be most effective when implemented early – within the first six months of unemployment or in the first year(s) after arrival. The evaluations also found that such measures, particularly wage subsidies, often have a much stronger positive impact on immigrants than on their native-born peers.

The risk, however, associated with such private-sector incentive schemes of the wage subsidy sort is that they may crowd out hiring. In other words, employers may choose to rely on subsidised labour instead of regular contracts and therefore be reluctant to offer permanent jobs to programme participants when subsidies comes to an end. Such policies must therefore be carefully designed, targeted at the jobseekers most in need, used on a temporary basis, and made conditional on firms not substituting existing workers with subsidised ones. Combining subsidised work with on-the-job-training can help overcome that risk, as job-specific training will raise the productivity of the programme participant as subsidies are reduced. Sweden's "Step-in" jobs programme, for example – introduced in 2007 – grants a subsidy of 80% of gross wage costs for up to 24 months to employers who hire new arrivals. This employment subsidy can be combined with Swedish language training to prevent language hurdles from holding back rapid labour market integration.

Other programmes targeted at the rapid integration of foreign-born workers in Sweden include: "New Start Jobs", which gives tax relief to employers who hire foreign-born (or long-term unemployed) workers; funded apprenticeships; and the new "Applied Basic Year" which combines on-the-job vocational training with language instruction.

Similarly, the Danish "Stepmodel" applies three steps combining language training, work placements, and wage subsidies that are phased out as workers' productivity increases. Unemployed newcomers from non-Western countries first undergo intensive language training and labour market orientation. They are then given a state-financed work placement and, where possible, on-the-job language training. In the third and last phase, employers are expected to offer workers a job which the state may subsidise for up to one year while they acquire further language and skills trainings.

Despite the benefits that wage subsidies and similar policy measures seem to afford immigrants, they are rarely explicitly designated as a target group and are largely underrepresented among beneficiaries. Generally speaking, while the foreign-born tend to be more or less fairly represented among the participants in ALMPs as a whole, they are often underrepresented in the schemes from which they benefit most. Such a pattern has emerged, for example, in Austria, Belgium, Denmark, the Netherlands, Norway, and Switzerland (OECD; 2007, 2008a, 2012c).

There are several possible explanations for the underrepresentation. In the first place, immigrants may not know programmes are available and may instead be directed towards classroom-based vocational and language training, which can be difficult to combine with work. A second reason for the low take-up among the foreign-born may lie – as with regular employment – on the demand side. Employers may not have much contact with foreign-born workers or not realise that immigrant candidates are eligible for the schemes concerned. It is also conceivable that some employers are simply unwilling to give immigrants a chance. Finally, in some countries – such as Ireland, Korea and several Central European countries – there are legal barriers preventing some categories of newcomers from accessing public employment services.

Temporary employment agency work as a stepping stone. Another channel of work experience in host countries is through contracts arranged by temporary employment agencies. Indeed, in some countries – such as the Netherlands, Sweden, and Germany – there is evidence that the proportion of ethnic minorities among temporary agency workers is higher than among other employees. While the expansion of "temping" has raised concerns that it may be crowding out more stable forms of employment, it can actually be a valuable stepping stone into such work for foreign-born workers – whose skills often prompt misgiving when they lack domestic qualifications and experience. Depending on the country, between around one-third and two-thirds of temporary workers move into a permanent position within two years, and there is some evidence that foreign-born "temps" are more likely to make the transition (see OECD, 2008a).

However, private temporary employment agencies play no formal role in the integration process and have little connection with integration service providers and immigrant communities. The risk of relying on them to help immigrants gain experience is that they train their sights on the most employable workers, the "easy ones" who are most likely to reflect employer preferences. Ultimately, therefore, they may actually sideline foreign-born who face greater obstacles to labour market integration.

Employment in the public sector and the role of the public discourse. An important factor in shaping the way immigrants' skills are perceived by employers and society at large is the public discourse on migration and integration issues (Huddleston et al., 2013). The challenge with respect to public opinion is not to secure a consensus on immigration and integration issues, but rather to halt the perpetuation of preconceptions. A fact-based, solution-oriented public discourse helps to counter stereotypes about immigrants and dispel employers' doubts about their skills.[13] The public discourse not only influences public acceptance of future immigration in OECD countries, it may also play a crucial part in the integration of existing immigrant populations. Negative messages with regard to immigrants encourage discrimination, which may in turn affect the behaviour of immigrants themselves and lead to under-investment in their skills and labour market integration. In that event, anxieties over immigration would become self-fulfilling prophecies (OECD, 2010b; Liebig, 2011).

Negative public discourse also affects immigrants' self-confidence and their ability to give their best in host countries. Experiments show that exposing the foreign-born to negative stereotypes and anti-immigrant messages substantially lowers their performance on cognitive tests.[14] Those who internalise stereotypes become more anxious, more distracted, less confident, and less motivated.

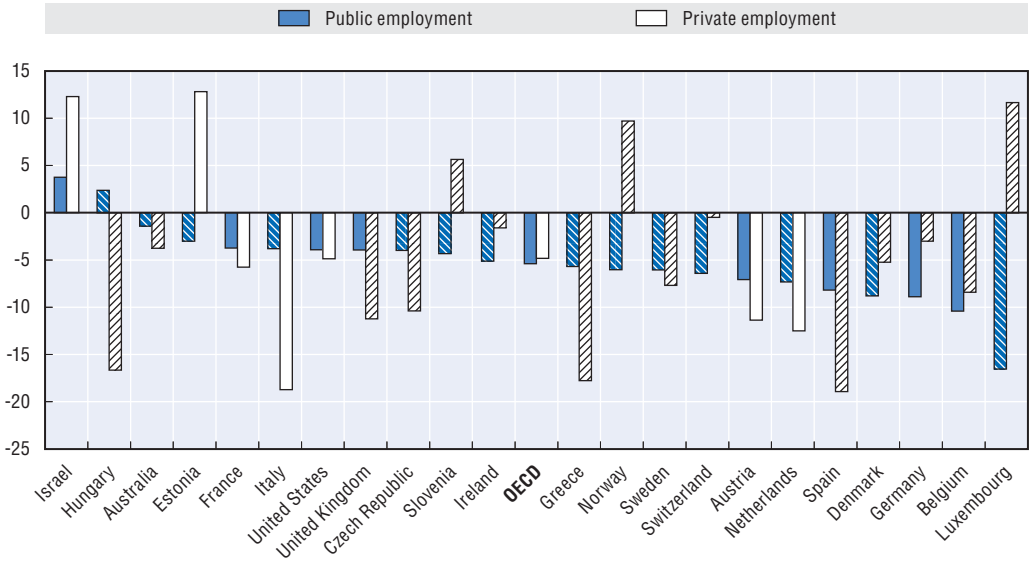
Perceptions of immigrants are partly shaped by their visibility in normal, everyday life. And, while the private sector, too, has its part to play, the public sector has proven particularly important in influencing perceptions. By employing qualified immigrant candidates, it acts as a role model for the private sector. Working in the public sector heightens the visibility of immigrants' as playing a normal part in everyday life. Greater diversity in public sector staff can help to enhance understanding of immigrants' needs by government institutions. And, when immigrants work in key occupations such as teaching, they can also serve as role models for others, particularly immigrant youth. Finally, employment in the public sector gives the government a lever with which to further labour market integration, as it has a more direct bearing on its own employment decisions than on those in the private sector.

With the exception of some healthcare professions, relatively few jobs in the public service are typical entry jobs for new arrivals, so it is not surprising that immigrants tend to be underrepresented even in the longer run. However, as Figure 2.22 shows, even the native-born children of immigrants are more under-represented in the public than in the private sector in most European OECD countries, which include those with large, longstanding populations of native-born offspring, such as Austria, Belgium and Germany. The reason may, in some cases, be that not all children born in a host country have its nationality, although that is generally not a major obstacle. A further explanation is that people are more likely to join the public service if one of their parents is or was employed there. There is less chance of that among immigrants and their children.

In recent years, several OECD countries have stepped up their efforts to promote the employment of immigrants and (particularly) their children in the public sector. Most OECD countries have now removed legal restrictions on foreign nationals working in public sector and civil service jobs unrelated to the exercise of public authority.[15] Some have gone further and actively encouraged the employment of immigrants and their offspring in the public sector, often as part of broader equal employment policies (EEPs) (Heath, Liebig and Simon, 2013). EEPs generally take as their benchmark the equitable representation of

Figure 2.22. **How immigrants' native-born offspring are represented in the public and private sectors compared to the children of the native-born in selected OECD countries, 2008-09**

Percentage points difference between native-born children of two immigrant parents and children of two native-born parents, persons aged 15-34



Note: Employment in the public sector is defined as the population working in public administration, human health, and social work activities or in education with the exception of Australia where it includes only employment in national, state/territory and local governments. The striped bars indicate that the differences are not statistically significant (at a 5% level), excluding the OECD average. A 5 percentage point negative difference means that native-born children of immigrants are five percentage points less likely to work in the given sector than children of the native-born.
Source: European countries: Labour Force Surveys (Eurostat) 2008 ad hoc module on the labour market situation of migrants and their immediate descendants and the 2009 ad hoc module on the entry of young people into the labour market; Australia: Population Census 2011; Israel: Labour Force Surveys 2008-09; United States: Current Population Surveys 2008-09.

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immigrants and their children at all levels of the public sector. Policymakers make a commitment to the benchmark and develop promotional activities and diversity management practices.

Countries with well-developed public sector EEPs in the public sector have often managed to improve the representation of immigrants and their descendants over time, compared with those countries that have not done so. In addition to the well-known examples of affirmative action in the US and employment equity policies in Canada, the United Kingdom has had policies in place since 2000 and broader equality duties since 2010. Similarly, Sweden introduced measures for ethnic and religious affirmative action in 1999 and reinforced them in 2009. In 2012, the proportion of new hires in the public sector who have an immigrant background succeeded their population share for the first time. Indeed, monitoring should rather focus on new hiring than on the stock of those employed.

The Netherlands, too, has a long tradition of such policies in the public sector. They were particularly robust in the late 1980s and early 1990s, though some of the more pro-active policies have recently been replaced by monitoring and reporting requirements. They may nevertheless have an impact as awareness-raising tools. Over the past decade, Norway has introduced legal obligations for the public sector to interview immigrant candidates, set up diversity recruitment plans, set targets, and provided diversity training

for hiring managers. The available evidence suggests that Norwegian action has yielded improved outcomes, with the public sector making a disproportionate contribution to the higher employment rates among immigrants from lower-income countries in recent years. Denmark's 2003 diversity agenda also set an equity benchmark for all state and municipal governments, investing funds and introducing major pilot schemes. Specific targets have been set, a regular employment statistics watch has been put in place, and small financial incentives provided.[16] Such measures have been backed by relatively good monitoring mechanisms and shown some positive results.

Naturalisation as a signal of motivation and intentions to stay. There are a number of other ways to overcome employer reticence apart from government equity measures. One way would be if immigrants were able to send out signals about their employability. Naturalisation is one such message. Employers tend to interpret it as a sign of integration and higher productivity – maybe because it denotes a better command of language or greater motivation. Multivariate and longitudinal analyses from several OECD countries have identified a "citizenship premium", although it cannot necessarily be observed in all countries and for all immigrant groups (Liebig and Von Haaren, 2011).[17]

Immigrants who have naturalised generally enjoy better employment outcomes than their peers with similar characteristics and years of residence. Naturalised men from non-OECD countries are 3.7% more likely to be employed than foreigners, controlling for other individual factors (Table 2.A1.3 in the annex). Young native-born adults with foreign-born parents are also slightly more likely to be employed if they are nationals of their country of birth, even after controlling for their age, education level, and family situation. Such a "naturalisation premium" has also been observed in longitudinal studies that followed the same people over time (see the overview in OECD, 2011). Furthermore, CV testing experiments have found that employers more frequently give a naturalised immigrant a job interview than a foreign applicant with the same qualifications (Heath, Liebig and Simon, 2013).

There are three possible explanations for the citizenship or naturalisation premium, which tends to have its most pronounced effect among immigrants from lower-income countries (OECD, 2011). Firstly, as indicated above, naturalisation allows immigrants to signal that they are, or intend to be, settled and "integrated" citizens of their host countries. Employers and the public respond positively, harbouring less doubts about immigrants' intentions of staying on and inferring a greater determination to integrate.

Secondly, although legal and administrative barriers to taking on foreigners are few and, where they do exist, not widely restrictive – at least for foreigners with a permanent status, some employers may still think formal barriers are in place.[18] However, there is no need to check a naturalised person's right to work or sponsor them for a work permit. Thirdly, naturalisation gives immigrants additional incentives and opportunities to invest in country-specific skills, both during and after the naturalisation process. Employers may also be more willing to invest in training naturalised immigrants who now have a secured future in the country. As for the native-born children of immigrants, their acquisition of citizenship at birth or when young, sends the signal that they are considered part of society. Indeed, data from the 2008 European Value Survey show that being born in a country is the determinant most widely cited by nationals of what it means to be a citizen of that country.

While naturalisation can be a useful tool for integration, it should be used with caution – not least because public opinion may need convincing that reforms to ease naturalisation do not "devalue" citizenship. Indeed, many OECD countries with liberal access to citizenship in terms of duration-of-residency requirements have reinforced other criteria for naturalisation to avoid the misperception that citizenship is being "given away". Interestingly, however, there is no evidence that the integration outcomes associated with the acquisition of citizenship are weaker in countries with more inclusive naturalisation policies. Nor does dual nationality seem to harm immigrants' labour market integration (Mazzolari, 2009).

There is, however, a case for encouraging citizenship take-up through public campaigns and by removing barriers to citizenship in countries where they are particularly restrictive. Over the past 15 years citizenship reforms in many countries have, to varying degrees: accepted dual nationality; set basic requirements for immigrant adults; removed practical obstacles in the naturalisation procedure, and created some form of birthright citizenship for the native-born children of immigrants. As for duration-of-residence requirements, there seems to be a general swing towards the five-to-eight year range. Promotional campaigns are also increasingly popular, encouraging eligible applicants to apply and assisting them in meeting requirements. Promoting citizenship is a longstanding policy in many OECD countries that have been settled by migration – e.g. Australia, Canada, New Zealand, and the United States – and is gradually spreading to European OECD countries.

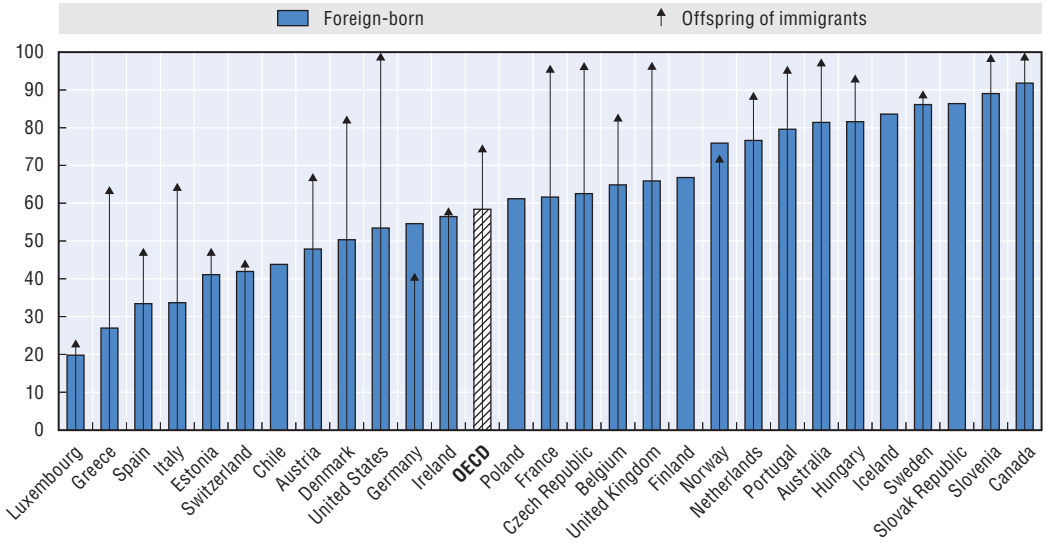
Tools for promoting citizenship include information campaigns and free preparatory courses, materials and practice tests. Citizenship ceremonies that publicly recognise naturalised immigrants are now the practice in most OECD countries. These and other measures are being increasingly adopted in European countries with large foreign populations, from Portugal and Sweden to the Baltic States and, most recently, Ireland, and more specifically in cities in Austria, Germany, and Italy (Huddleston, 2013). A number of countries, such as Korea, make it easier for migrants who have successfully attended integration courses to naturalise.

Notwithstanding the recent policy efforts, many migrants who would in principle be eligible for citizenship have not yet naturalised (Figure 2.23). Between 50% and 80% of immigrant adults have not naturalised, even after living for ten years or more in countries such as Austria, Chile, Switzerland, Estonia, Italy, Spain, Greece, and Luxembourg. Among the countries with significant immigrant populations not affected by border changes, the share of naturalised immigrants exceeds 80% only in Australia, Sweden, the Slovak Republic, Slovenia and Canada, all of which have generous provisions for naturalisation. Indeed, the shares of even native-born children of immigrants with host-country nationality are relatively low in countries like Estonia, Germany, Luxembourg, Switzerland, and most Southern European countries.

Accessing help: Improving immigrants' use of job-search support

The public employment service. In many OECD countries, the public employment service (PES) is the primary actor connecting jobseekers with employers. While structures differ from one country to another, the PES generally plays a key role in matching labour supply and demand by providing information, placing workers, and enhancing their employability through active labour market policies (ALMPs).[19] Labour force survey data suggest that, in many countries across the EU, less than 10% of the population relied on the PES when searching for their current job or setting up a business. In Spain, Ireland, Italy, Luxembourg, and Portugal – i.e. countries where many labour immigrants have arrived in recent years –

Figure 2.23. **Percentage of nationals among the foreign-born population with at least ten years of residence in 2013 and among the native-born offspring of two immigrant parents in 2008-09**



Note: The percentage of nationals among foreign-born is based on the 15- to 64-year-old population (except in Canada and Australia where it is based on the population aged 15 and above) with at least ten years of residence in the country. The percentage of nationals among the offspring of immigrants is based on the 15- 34-year-old native-born offspring of two immigrant parents. In the Czech Republic, Hungary, Poland, the Slovak Republic and Slovenia, the percentage of nationals among the foreign-born population might be influenced by the border changes in and between these countries in the past. The OECD average includes only countries that have some information on the percentage of nationals among the offspring of immigrants.

Source: European countries: Labour Force Surveys (Eurostat) 2013; 2008 ad hoc module on the labour market situation of migrants and their immediate descendants and the 2009 ad hoc module on the entry of young people into the labour market; Australia: Population Census 2011; Canada: National Household Survey 2011; Chile: *Encuesta de Caracterización Socioeconómica Nacional* (CASEN) 2011; United States: Current Population Surveys, 2008-09 and 2013.

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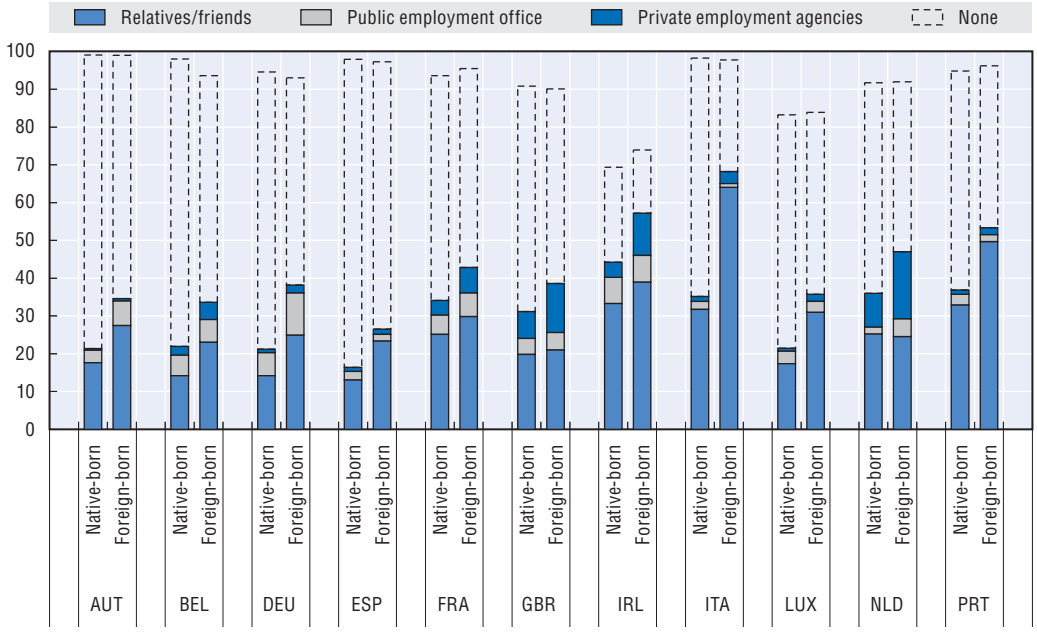
the foreign-born population rely on the PES even less than their native-born counterparts (Figure 2.24). The reverse is the case in Austria, Germany and the Netherlands, which all to some degree include immigrants in their ALMP target groups.

The role PESs play in integrating immigrants varies widely, although many countries have assigned it a key role and have taken specific measures to back it up:

- PESs in countries such as Austria, the United Kingdom, the Nordic countries, and Belgium's Flemish region, have made immigrants and their children explicit ALMP target groups. PESs may thus devote greater resources to people from an immigrant background in the form of training, outreach activities, staff specialisation, and the provision of one-stop shops or contact points on integration. Other countries, like Australia, seek to give immigrants equal representation in ALMPs.
- In other countries, PESs lead efforts to connect labour market actors with immigration authorities, immigrant-support NGOs, municipalities, and other bodies involved in integration. Norway's Labour and Welfare Service (NAV) started prioritising immigrants as a target group before putting in place NAV Intro, a specialised unit that helps immigrants seek work and advises local authorities on how to adapt their general services.
- Sweden has tasked its PES with administering its integration programme in order to strengthen the labour market focus of policy. Japan has also transferred responsibility for labour market integration to its PES and satellite offices in immigrant-dense areas (known as Employment Service Centres for Foreigners).

Figure 2.24. **Main source of support used by 15- to 64-year-olds for finding current jobs or creating business by place of birth, in selected European OECD countries, 2008**

Percentages



Note: The respondent could also respond "migrant or ethnic organisation" or "other".
Source: Labour Force Surveys (Eurostat) 2008 ad hoc module on the labour market situation of migrants and their immediate descendants.

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Another strategy designed to encourage immigrants to take up ALMPs is to bring all job-seeking support together in integration programmes for newcomers. Reforms in Sweden in 2010 and Finland in 2010, for example, have steered that course. Such moves encourage PESs to adapt their general service provision and improve uptake among newcomers. This often involves informally assessing skills and advising on labour market functioning, then offering specific, tailored solutions. PES involvement is generally a key element in mainstreaming integration policies (Box 2.3).

Accessing help through networks and mentors. As mentioned in the first part of this chapter, informal networks of friends and relatives are an important source of employment information and contacts in many countries. Indeed, when they are looking for work, the foreign-born tend to rely on such networks even more heavily than the native-born population (see Figure 2.24). However, their networks are likely to be less extensive or professionally useful, while their reliance on them can compound integration challenges – particularly when immigrants are concentrated in certain areas.

One approach to extending networks of the foreign-born in host countries has been to create mentoring programmes. Mentoring has been particularly cost-effective almost everywhere for the highly skilled foreign-born and their children, helping them also to develop the knowledge about the host-country labour market and its functioning that is required to find adequate employment. It matches jobseekers with volunteers who have basic training and generally a similar background in age, gender, neighbourhood, or field of study. Volunteers with an immigrant background bring with them the added value of being

Box 2.3. **Mainstreaming in labour market integration policies**

The concept of mainstreaming, as developed in the field of gender equality, refers to efforts to facilitate access to and take-up of policies and services which do not target a particular disadvantaged group, but address disadvantage among the entire population, irrespective of gender or migration status.

The first step is to monitor access to and take-up of policies aimed at disadvantage – among the foreign-born, their children, and their native-born counterparts in similar socio-economic circumstances. It is a critical step designed to ascertain the extent to which certain disadvantaged groups struggle to access policies and programmes that are targeted not at them but at their circumstances.

If migrants are found to be significantly under-represented in access to or take-up of general programmes, it may be that they face additional hurdles, such as lack of information about their eligibility. In that event, specific policies become necessary, such as further investment in outreach to immigrant groups, pre-investment in the skills required for take-up (e.g. language), or additional support like childcare. The distinction between general and specific policies, therefore, is not always clear-cut. General policies may require specific targeting measures and outreach in order to ensure equal access and take-up across all disadvantaged groups. Similarly, specific policies may be most effective where they enable disadvantaged groups to access general policies. In addition, some mainstream policies may have strong indirect targeting – when, for example, they focus on groups with language difficulties.

Successfully mainstreaming integration into general policy development and implementation requires commitment from all relevant ministries. Germany, Portugal, and Norway have developed strong co-ordination structures that involve different stakeholders in the mainstreaming process.

Since 2006, Germany's annual national integration summit has brought together policymakers at various levels of governance, service providers, and immigrant organisations. The summits have led to the drawing up of National Integration Plans with hundreds of voluntary commitments from all actors. The Commissioner of the Federal Government for Migration, Refugees and Integration supports them in their work to implement their commitments, set targets, and monitor outcomes.

Portugal's High Commission for Immigration and Intercultural Dialogue (ACIDI) co-ordinates the commitment of the different ministries in the Plan for Immigrant Integration and monitors implementation through a network of focal points, annual reports, and the Consultative Council for Immigration Affairs.

Norway's Ministry of Children, Equality and Social Inclusion plays the same mainstreaming role by helping to secure commitments from related ministries and then monitoring them in four main fields – labour and employment, education and qualification, living conditions, and social cohesion and participation. An annual report on these is submitted to Parliament within the national budget.

One new co-ordination structure under development is Australia's "Multicultural Access and Equity Policy", adopted in March 2013. It requires most departments and agencies to design and report on biennial plans in order to make their services accessible to all beneficiaries, responsive to their needs, and equally effective for all, regardless of cultural or linguistic background.

"role models".[20] In the mentoring schemes, they share with participants the unwritten rules and tricks of the trade for interviews, tests, job-seeking, and career advancement. Mentors help to make better use of participants' skills by building their self-confidence and connecting them with other professionals and employers through matching and recommendations.

Nearly every Western European country and countries of settlement have used immigrant mentoring programmes. Governments include them in their general policies (France's sponsorship scheme,) and introduction programmes (introduction guides in Sweden). The programmes often involved the civil society and rely on broad networks of native-born volunteers and mentors, such as the Toronto Region Immigrant Employment Council in Canada, KVinfo in Denmark and Finland's FIKA programme. In some countries, including Austria and Norway, employers' organisations have also developed mentorship programmes. Political representatives in countries such as Canada and Ireland have even developed mentoring schemes for immigrant candidates (Bird et al., 2011).

Building closer social contact with the native-born not only opens up employment opportunities for the foreign-born (Kanas et al., 2011; Facchini et al., 2014), it also improves attitudes towards them (Coenders et al., 2005; Ward and Masgoret, 2006) at a relatively low cost and to the satisfaction of participants and volunteers. Finding a sufficient number of volunteers is seldom an obstacle. One study in France, a country which makes wide use of mentoring, also suggests that they are effective in helping immigrant participants into jobs (see OECD, 2008a).

Developing skills

Developing the skills of foreign-born adults

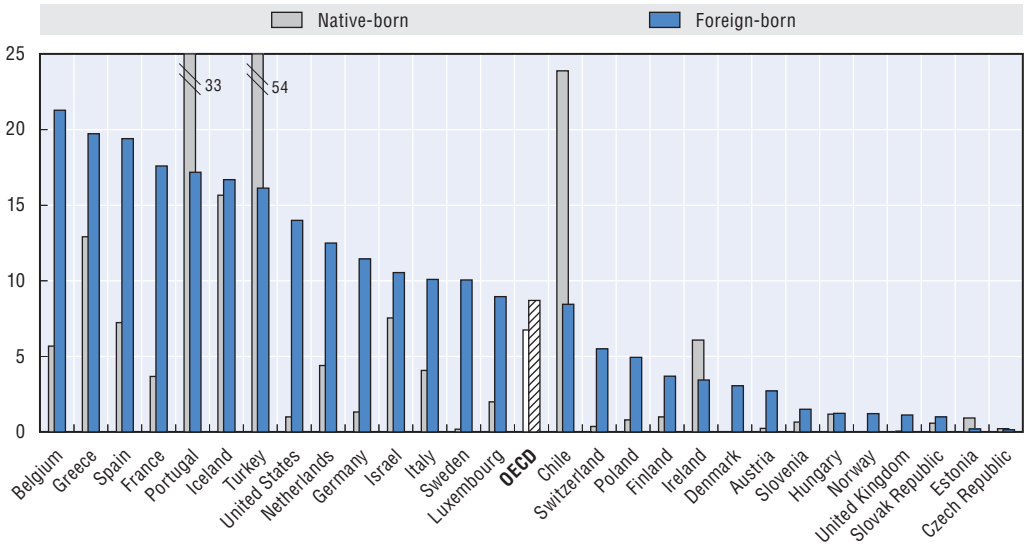
Policies to develop immigrants' skills are often couched in a language of deficit, suggesting they fall short of requirements and need extensive (re-)training and assistance. Such an assumption is often inaccurate and actually runs counter to the parallel goal of recognising – and thus valuing – their skills. Policies that begin with assessing and recognising them may then take a more individual approach to developing the skills needed to succeed in the local labour market. Obviously, learning trajectories will differ depending on immigrants' educational background. Most will develop skills specific to the host country over the length of time they live there. The challenge is to invest in developing immigrants' skills so as to speed up rather than delay labour market integration. It will be easier to achieve if learning eventually moves out of the classroom and into the workplace.

There are particular concerns for those without a lower secondary degree (ISCED 0-1),[21] often considered the minimum level required for long-term employability and the ability to function properly in society. Figure 2.25 shows how the foreign-born are overrepresented in the lowest education strata in most OECD countries. Only in Chile, Estonia, Ireland, Portugal and Turkey are shares of very poorly educated adults higher among the native- than the foreign-born.

Participation in lifelong learning. The evidence is mixed on the effectiveness of ALMP-type training. Although results appear to be slightly better for the foreign- than the native-born (Butschek and Walter, 2013; Nekby, 2008), ALMP training schemes that do not lead to a degree – the most common kind – show only modest benefits for both foreign- and native-born. The reasons may be that they have lock-in effects in the short term while

Figure 2.25. **Share of the population aged 25 to 54 with educational levels of ISCED 0-1 levels, 2013**

Percentages



Note: ISCED 0-1 levels denote primary education level only. The information on the highest education level attained in the Chilean CASEN does not match ISCED levels exactly. It is assumed that those who have started and not completed secondary education have at least completed lower secondary education (ISCED 2).

Source: European countries and Turkey: Labour Force Surveys 2013; Chile: *Encuesta de Caracterización Socioeconómica Nacional* (CASEN) 2011; Israel: Labour Force Surveys 2011; United States: Current Population Surveys 2013.

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failing to offer any long-term guarantee of work. Programmes leading to a post-secondary degree (ISCED 3 or higher) tend to protect more effectively against unemployment and also help to limit the incidence of over-qualification among foreign-educated immigrants.

One type of lifelong learning relates to second-chance campaigns for adults with low or no formal qualifications. They have been rolled out in several countries – such as Austria, Germany, Korea, the Netherlands, Norway, Poland, and Sweden (OECD, 2012a) – often with an implicit focus on immigrants. Some schemes target reluctant adults by providing non-formal environments compatible with their daily lives. When combined with part-time work, they tend to be more effective at helping immigrants find work, as joint work and study programmes generally overcome employers' reticence over immigrants' skills. The same holds for work placements and private-sector incentive schemes. Working part-time also help adults meet the costs of studying and some of their, and their families', basic needs. Programmes where there is basic financing are also more likely to be completed.

Bridging courses. Foreign-educated immigrants whose qualifications have been only partially recognised, or not at all, suffer from higher risks of unemployment and over-qualification (see OECD, 2007, on Australia and Sweden). Bridging programmes give them a chance to train and secure a host-country qualification in their field without having to study all over again. Starting from scratch may well delay labour market integration and lead to underutilisation of the skills of immigrants who cannot afford to study and have to work in positions for which they are over-qualified.

Effective bridging programmes deliver domestic qualification which employers know and value. This was a key finding in the recent evaluation of a Swedish programme that included bridging courses (Niknami and Schröder, 2012). Bridging picks up where accreditation finishes. Ideally, applicants follow an individual learning plan and receive the missing profession-specific training and/or workplace experience required to obtain the host country qualification. Subsidies can cover the sometimes substantial costs of training and taking exams, as they do in countries such as Australia, Canada, and Israel. Vocation-specific language training is almost always part of the package. Bridging's topping-up approach is the most direct and efficient path to re-qualification for educated immigrants as it avoids any duplication of their foreign education or training.

A further benefit of bridging is that it may also prompt greater interest in formal and informal recognition procedures, since educated immigrants who fear there is little chance of recognition may be more likely to apply when alternatives exist.

Bridging courses are becoming the standard follow-up to unsuccessful accreditation procedures and are expanding across countries and professions. While they are well established in longstanding labour immigration destinations – such as Australia, Canada, New Zealand, and the United States – they have recently begun to spread to other host countries, especially in Europe. For example, Sweden's complementary education scheme offers supplementary courses for university-trained non-EU nationals with foreign qualifications, like lawyers, and teachers. However, most new initiatives concern the healthcare sector.[22] Programmes seem to be particularly effective if they involve all relevant stakeholders, from labour market service providers and employers to professional organisations and universities. If immigrants are able to successfully re-qualify, bridging programmes are cost-effective. A programme for foreign-trained medical doctors in Portugal – run by non-governmental organisations, the health ministry and a university – saw 106 of the 120 participants find work in their profession. The cost of the nine-month programme was only a fraction of the average annual cost of medical training in the country (OECD, 2008). Likewise, a programme for foreign-trained nurses in Australia cost only 10% of the higher-education alternative (Konno, 2006).

Ensuring country-specific skills for all: Language training and introduction programmes

State-funded language training represents the bulk of public integration expenditure in most OECD countries – from traditional settlement countries and Europe to Japan and Korea. It is also the single most important component in introduction programmes for newcomers, which are gradually being opened up to all legal categories of newcomers, including immigrants in areas of free movement (see Box 2.4). Some OECD countries make participation or successful completion of such courses a requirement for acquiring long-term residence permits or naturalisation.

Many European countries include civic orientation in their immigrant introduction courses. Traditional settlement countries, on the other hand, provide such information chiefly through booklets, websites, and voluntary pre-arrival courses in immigrants' languages of origin (see annex Tables 2.A1.9 and 2.A1.10).

Language courses are seldom scientifically evaluated to determine whether they contribute effectively to labour market integration. This is somewhat surprising given the significant investment required. Evaluation was designed into very few courses from the

Box 2.4. **The integration of immigrants in free-movement areas**

With growing intra-European mobility, the integration of free moving European Union citizens is an increasingly important issue in European OECD countries. EU citizens do not generally have to contend with the same employment, over-qualification, and wage problems as immigrants from other, particularly non-OECD countries. Their relative ease of labour market integration is due partly to the greater return to and easier recognition of their qualifications. They are also more likely to move for reasons of work and study and to return home in the event of labour market difficulties.

The question which arises in this context is whether or not free-mobility migrants should have access to immigrant-specific integration measures, notably language training. Some EU citizens will make the investment themselves, while others may only do so if (part of) the cost is covered. Subsidised integration programmes are now also open to EU citizens in Belgium (Flanders), Denmark, Estonia, Germany and, most recently, Austria (Vienna). Free voluntary language training is also available in Ireland, Italy, Luxembourg, Portugal, Sweden, and the United Kingdom.

start, due to the lack of pilot or randomised studies and the necessary administrative or survey data. Existing evaluations are mostly devised *ex post* to measure attendance rates and test scores. They use before-after comparisons to assess participants, often without the necessary comparison group. Designing scientific evaluations of language and orientation courses would be a timely move that would help improve the efficiency of such major investment in integration (Box 2.5).

The available evidence suggests that language courses have a limited effect on labour market integration, and civic orientation courses even less. Frequently, no direct link emerges between immigrants' overall employment rate and course attendance. One reason is a trade-off between language fluency and early work experience. If newcomers spend too much time becoming fully fluent, they are less likely to gain early work experience, which delays their chances of finding the right job. This so-called "lock-in" effect has been found to be substantial in scientific evaluations of integration programmes in the Nordic countries and in Germany (Djuve, 2003; Svantesson and Aranki, 2006; Clausen et al., 2009; Nekby, 2008; Nordin, 2009; Sarvimaki and Hamalainen, 2012). While the few long-term studies undertaken reveal positive employment effects in some groups (Clausen et al., 2009; Sarvimaki and Hamalainen, 2012), they are not necessarily robust enough to outweigh the potential "scarring effects" associated with employers shunning job applicants with long absences from the labour market.[23]

The demands and content of most language and civic orientation courses do not appear to be particularly relevant to the realities of the labour market. The one exception is vocation-specific language training – ideally undertaken on the job – which has been found to be highly effective in improving labour market integration. It would seem that people with basic skills in the language learn significantly more quickly when applying their skills to real-life situations. Clausen et al. (2009) find that, in Denmark, people who attended evening classes or were in work progressed much more quickly through the programme, even after controlling for other socio-economic characteristics. Sweden's SESAME Pilot 2001-3, which combined work-oriented language training with work placements, was also found to accelerate newcomers' transition into employment and mainstream training. On-the-job language courses may also address reticence about

Box 2.5. **Integration policy evaluation**

Across the OECD, the quality of integration policy evaluation varies widely and the authorities in both longstanding and newer destination countries have trouble assessing whether their policies have improved integration or not. Data constraints are part of the problem, as is an incomplete understanding of the process of rigorous impact evaluation. Ideally, an evaluation is factored in from the outset and part of the budget is set aside for that purpose.

All too often, however, evaluations are designed as an afterthought, once policy implementation is already underway and cannot therefore isolate the effects of the instruments.

No accurate picture of an intervention's impact may be gleaned from merely monitoring the *ex post* outcomes of participants. They need to be compared with the outcomes of a comparison group of non-participants who had the same *ex ante* outcomes and who are similar in age, gender, education and other key criteria that may influence outcomes. The reason is that those migrants that choose – or are picked – to participate in a programme are often systematically different from those who do not. Immigrants who do choose may do so because they are more motivated than those who do not. Improvements in outcomes may therefore reflect motivation rather than the impact of a programme itself. Similarly, if certain migrants are targeted for additional support, it may be because they are struggling. The impact of the programme is therefore underestimated. Occasionally, the "success" of a programme is measured by participant satisfaction – not necessarily the best metric of effectiveness.

Slightly better are evaluations that at least compare outcomes before and after a policy was implemented. However, even with such comparisons, evaluation of policy is problematic. Take integration policy, for example. Although some immigrants are found to have secured work after taking part in a particular programme, it is not necessarily because the programme is effective – let alone cost-efficient. They may just as easily have found a job without the aid of the programme.

Across all European OECD countries, an average of almost one-third of the foreign-born unemployed in 2011 found a job a year later, regardless of policy intervention. And rates reached upwards of 40% in Iceland, the Netherlands, the Slovak Republic, Switzerland, Turkey and the United Kingdom (Figure 2.A1.2 in the annex). Consequently, concluding that when an immigrant finds work it is the fruit of a particular policy intervention is not a straightforward matter of comparing their employment situation before and after the programme.

Rigorous evaluation relies on the ability to identify an appropriate counterfactual group that does not have access to a programme – i.e. a group of individuals who are similar *ex ante* to those who undergo the policy intervention. Comparing the *ex post* outcomes of the people who attend the programme with the counterfactual group yields an evaluation of the impact of the policy intervention.

In practice, such rigorous evaluations are seldom undertaken. There are a number of reasons. In the first place, they are costly and require long-term cost-benefit calculations. Secondly, smaller-scale projects may not involve sufficient numbers of participants to enable an evaluation, even under ideal circumstances. Last, identifying an appropriate counterfactual group often requires randomisation, or a policy roll-out that is random in the timing with which different individuals, or groups of individuals, have access to the programme. Policy can be randomly implemented either through implementing it in randomly selected areas (e.g. schools, neighbourhoods, or municipalities) or in all areas but only for randomly selected participants. The Nordic countries, for example, are increasingly using pilots with such randomisation in order to assess the effectiveness of new integration policies. An alternative that is often used, notably for introduction programmes, is to compare the outcomes of different cohorts of migrants – e.g. those who enter a new programme just prior to the cut-off date for eligibility with those who enter just after – provided that the two groups have otherwise similar characteristics.

immigrants' language qualifications among employers who – particularly those who have little experience with immigrant workers – may overestimate the language knowledge and fluency required for jobs (Chiswick and Miller, 2009).[24]

Relatively few immigrants in OECD countries benefit from such effective courses because there are none, or very few, as they are costly and difficult to organise.[25] There need to be enough students interested in a sector of activities for providers in a given area to develop the capacity to stage courses on a regular basis. And only a few employers are able or willing to accommodate language learning in the workplace. Countries which have no vocation-specific language training find it difficult to integrate language and vocational training: they are generally offered in parallel by separate providers and funded by stakeholders with different objectives.

Many stakeholders are involved in language training, but there is often little co-ordination between offers. In many countries, for example, standard language courses are funded by municipalities or agencies under the remit of the Ministry of Interior. The public employment service, by contrast, finances training that is geared to the labour market. Vocational training providers often lack accredited language teachers and offer syllabuses that are disconnected from language courses. Conversely, language training providers usually lack expertise in relevant job sectors. Even where the content of language courses content is partly job-specific, providers and participants widely focus on the standard language test required for long-term residence or naturalisation.

Several OECD countries have built extensive experience in vocation-specific language training, which is gradually becoming more widespread:

- Canada offers such a provision nationwide through its federal, provincial and territorial taxpayer-funded programmes.
- Since 1991, the authorities in Australia have, together with employers, co-financed on-the-job training to improve their workplace English language and literary. Australia's free extensive Adult Migrant English Programme also includes "Settlement Language Pathways to Employment and Training", where participants are entitled to up to 200 hours of vocation-specific language tuition and up to 80 hours of work placements.
- In Israel, Jewish immigrants can attend one of around 100 free institutes or schools specialised in the intensive study of Hebrew. The institutes offer specific courses for youngsters, seniors, immigrants with academic degrees and those with vocational degrees in fields such as medicine and engineering.
- Language is also part of on-the-job training in the introduction programmes of Sweden ("Step-in jobs") and Denmark ("Stepmodel").
- In Belgium, the third step in the integration programme in place in Belgium (Flanders) is to direct participants to the Flemish employment service (VDAB), whose programmes then offer job-oriented language courses, including "Dutch in the Workplace".
- Germany has put in place a wide-reaching new system of free courses in "German for professional purposes". They are aimed at foreign-born jobseekers and their children who have completed mandatory schooling and intermediate German courses. The vocation-specific language courses mix technical instruction, work placement and site visits. Germany has also taken an innovative approach to tackling the co-ordination issue, as part of the vocation-specific language training is co-funded by the Federal Office for Migration and Refugees – an agency under the aegis of Ministry of the Interior – and the Ministry of Labour.

- Vocation-specific language courses are also part of Portugal's "Portuguese for All" training schemes and of the new Intervention Programme for Unemployed Immigrant Workers.

General language courses also need to be adapted to learners' education levels and language backgrounds. At the one end of the educational scale, adults with limited literacy take much longer to become fluent in a country's language – a significant investment for both the country and immigrant concerned. But pay-offs can be far-reaching in that they benefit also the immigrants' children, whose chances of academic success are strongly influenced by their parents' educational level, particularly their mother's. At the other end of the scale, the university-educated need a faster-paced, more demanding classroom dynamic in order to achieve the higher degrees of fluency required for highly skilled jobs.

As well as the education level, language background also affects how quickly immigrants learn a new language. The effects of linguistic difference have been investigated in a number of OECD countries such as Australia, Canada, Germany, Israel, and the United States (Chiswick, 2008; Isphording and Otten, 2011). They have also been tested with data from the International Adult Literacy Survey in nine European countries (Isphording, 2013). The rough indications are that immigrants of very different linguistic origins (e.g. a Korean or a Japanese person in France or Germany) are at significant initial disadvantage to those whose languages are not so far removed from the host-country's. Their language skills do progress over time, but not generally enough to offset the initial disadvantage.

The powerful influence of education level and linguistic difference on language learning ensures that no one type of course, or amount of support, is appropriate for all immigrants. This finding has emerged from course evaluations in several OECD countries, such as Australia, Germany and Sweden. When the evaluation was conducted, for example, Germany's programme of 600 hours of language training – high in comparison with other countries – was not enough for almost half of the participants to reach the required level (B1 in the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages, CEFRL) (Schuller, Lochner and Rother, 2011).

The challenge is to provide high-quality personalised language courses across a country at a reasonable cost. Urban areas and those with high numbers of immigrants naturally develop the infrastructure to offer more specialised courses, as was also evidenced by programme evaluations in Germany (Ramboll, 2007) and Sweden (Åslund and Engdahl, 2012). In Norway, the lack of appropriate courses was one important reason given for non-participation: 60% of municipalities could not offer adequate language courses and work placements for highly educated immigrants (OECD, 2012c). Several OECD countries have reformed language and integration courses, developing specific pathways and programmes for different types of learners:

- In the wake of its 2007 programme evaluation, Germany introduced federally funded specialised schemes with literacy, catch-up and intensive courses, and additional specific pathways for young adults, parents, and women. A more recent assessment that used a longitudinal survey with a control group found significant improvements in language skills, employment, and other integration outcomes (Schuller et al., 2011).
- Sweden's adult language courses were also reformed following an evaluation in 2009 which advocated courses that were more flexible and geared to individuals so as to account for learners' different education levels, professions, and work schedules. It also recommended that language courses should be tied more closely to other employment and social activities.

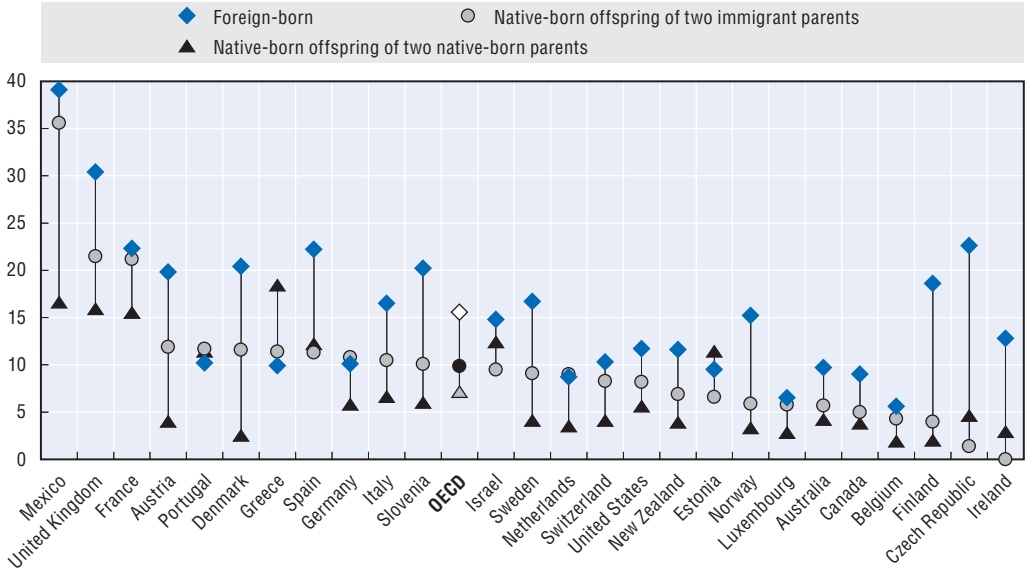
- The development of more flexible courses and support arrangements does not necessarily come at a higher cost, as there is often a certain overlap between different language offers. Finland, for example, seeks to offer a more differentiated, better targeted provision through the efficient reallocation of existing resources (Sarvimaki and Hamalainen, 2012).

Developing the skills of immigrants' offspring

Promoting equal opportunities in education: Early childhood education, literacy, and socio-economic concentration in schools. Achieving basic language and literacy skills is a challenge for a significant number of pupils, particularly the children of low-educated immigrants. Data from Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) 2012 revealed that, in most OECD countries, at least one in four of 15-year-old pupils with immigrant parents lacked basic reading proficiency. Given that high proportion, participation in remedial language courses is surprisingly low among children of immigrants, as Figure 2.26 shows.

Figure 2.26. **Shares of students attending test language remedial classes, by migration status**

Percentages



Note: Countries are ranked in descending order of the share of native-born offspring of two immigrant parents attending test language remedial classes.
Source: OECD, *PISA Database* in OECD (2012d), *Untapped Skills: Realising the Potential of Immigrant Students*, OECD Publishing, Paris.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933157613

Growing evidence suggests that access to early childhood education and care (ECEC) from the age of two to three yields high returns in educational and, ultimately, labour market and social outcomes. The finding is especially true for the native-born children of low-educated immigrants. ECEC provides them not only with a basic education but exposure to the host-country language that they would not otherwise get. For example, native-born children of immigrants who attend ECEC are a full one year ahead in reading skills at the age of 15, according to PISA data. These effects persist even after controlling for

parental education, reasons for migration, and the language spoken at home. Attendance rates in ECEC are generally lower among the children of immigrants in countries with comparatively small, late, or fee-based programmes (OECD, 2012h).

The challenge is to boost immigrant offspring's often disproportionately low ECEC attendance rates, particularly at early ages, which are widely related to issues of cost, information, and outreach. Evaluations of the US Head Start programme found that the proximity of Head Start Centers helped overcome the underrepresentation of immigrant children, especially newcomers, in ECEC (Neidell and Waldfogel, 2009) and increased their English and mathematics proficiency (Magnuson et al., 2006). Reviews of the evidence (Burger, 2010; and Ruhm and Waldfogel, 2011) find the benefits are significant for disadvantaged pupils, including immigrants, even though they do not cancel out disadvantage.

Greater access to existing remedial courses may not be enough in schools with high numbers of pupils from low-educated families, where low literacy skills are frequent. Moreover, developing fluency in a language takes years of proper teaching. Early intervention and long-term support are both part of a comprehensive approach to basic literacy and language fluency.

A further finding is that the language spoken at home has less of an impact on academic performance in countries with higher ECEC attendance rates and after-school-support than in countries where children spend more time at home (Schnepf, 2004). The introduction of universal language diagnostic tests and support in pre-school has helped practitioners in Austria and Germany to better identify the language and literacy needs of children – including those without a migration background – and offer additional language bridging support. Such programmes have met with some success, both in the high take-up rates for remedial language classes and in education outcomes that are superior to those of non-participants (see Liebig, 2007).

During compulsory education, systematic ongoing support may be required across grade levels. In parallel to explicit language and literacy support, an "open-school" approach can offer additional support after school and over the summer with tutors, homework centres, and extracurricular activities that engage language skills (OECD, 2012d).

Specific issues arise from high concentrations of children of low-educated immigrant parents in the same areas and schools (see Box 2.6). A key challenge is to weaken the systemic link between academic performance and school socio-economic concentration. In some countries, the Netherlands and France, for example, schools with large numbers of pupils from low-educated families receive disproportionately high state funding. Funds may go into greater financial and technical support for such schools, staffing them with the most highly qualified and experienced teachers, and paying those teachers higher wages. However, evidence on the impact of such additional funding is mixed. Disadvantaged pupils, who would benefit disproportionally from high-quality teaching, are often the least likely to receive it, especially when there are shortages of qualified teachers (Nusche, 2009). In education systems with several educational tracks that run in parallel there is also a case for enhancing efforts to inform immigrant parents about the various choices available to their children, and the labour market prospects that are associated with them.

Box 2.6. **Socio-economic concentration in schools and its effects on the children of immigrants**

Evidence from the OECD's Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) shows that the school performance of children of immigrants tends to lag significantly behind that of children of the native-born. The same finding applies to settlement countries – like Australia, Canada and New Zealand – and European OECD countries. One driver is the fact that, because immigrants are concentrated in certain housing areas, their children are concentrated in local schools.

At first glance, the concentrations of immigrants' children appears to account for much of the gap with children of the native-born in their educational outcomes. However, a closer look at the data suggests that it is rather the concentration of pupils from low socio-economic backgrounds (whose parents are often educated to a lower level) that hinders academic achievement. The two are often confused since children of immigrants are strongly overrepresented in disadvantaged schools in nearly all OECD countries, even after controlling for parental education (Lemaître, 2012). Indeed, in many OECD countries, going to a disadvantaged school – that is, a school with many children of low-educated parents – has a greater effect on educational attainment than parental country of origin. Concentration in disadvantaged schools negatively impacts the school performance of the children of immigrants and the native-born. However, the penalty (as measured in PISA scores) for going to a disadvantaged school is higher for children of immigrants.

OECD countries have adopted a number of approaches to prevent socio-economic concentrations in disadvantaged schools or to improve the academic performance of children in such schools. The Netherlands and France have addressed the latter by targeting financial and technical support at schools with many pupils from low-educated families. Such action has included higher pay – and other measures – to attract the most highly qualified and/or experienced teachers to disadvantaged schools.

A more fundamental solution, however, is to address the level of school socio-economic concentration within the school system. It is partly attributable to the housing market and to the structural characteristics of the school system itself, such as the number of different tracks and the age at which streaming first takes place (OECD, 2013b; Alegre and Ferrer, 2010). Schemes to ease institutional differentiation include the mandatory assignment of students to certain schools and "controlled choice" approaches. Their success depends partly on the discretionary power that the authorities enjoy over schools in their area (see Karsten, 2010a). Most promising, however, seems to be the focus on early interventions such as universal early childhood education and care in order to overcome disadvantage prior to admission into primary school (OECD, 2013b).

Participation in vocational education and apprenticeship. Vocational degrees and apprenticeships have been found to be highly effective in facilitating school-to-work transitions and so averting high rates of inactivity and incidences of young people neither in employment nor education or training (NEET). They are particularly effective among the children of immigrants, especially in countries with high quality apprenticeships and vocational training and education (VET) systems such as Austria, Germany, and Switzerland. The problem is nevertheless that the children of immigrants are often underrepresented and are also more likely to drop out. There are several possible reasons for underrepresentation, which also often help to understand the high drop-out rates.

A first possible explanation is that immigrant parents and pupils may prefer academic study or paid work to apprenticeships, particularly if they originate from countries without a well-respected VET and apprenticeship system. A second possibility is that the children of immigrants who perform poorly in compulsory schooling may need some additional preparatory skills development. Although a number of countries have responded by offering bridging years for this group, results have been mixed because of the stigma attached to them. The more successful bridging schemes identify target groups at early stage and implement a highly individual approach with a low student-to-trainer ratio. To prevent students dropping out and ensure they successfully complete apprenticeships, Austria, for example, has introduced "apprenticeship coaching". In addition, the country has a broad offer of preparatory courses and supra-company training opportunities in which children of immigrants are overrepresented.

It is also conceivable that immigrant students may lose out in competition for limited numbers of apprenticeship placements. In some countries, students need to have an apprenticeship placement before they can start the programme. In others, students do not need to find a placement with an employer to enter a programme and are supposed to find one later on. In these cases, not securing a placement with a private employer is often the reason for drop-outs, as the alternative – placement in a firm chosen by, or part of, the national education system – is seen as less prestigious.

Yet another possible reason why immigrants' children are underrepresented in VET programmes is that their parents often find apprenticeship placements through their contacts. However, the networks might not include the right employers. Those closest to immigrant parents, i.e. immigrant entrepreneurs, are the least likely to offer apprenticeships. The reason may be the relatively small size of immigrant businesses, limited knowledge of the apprenticeship system, and fewer links with Chambers of Commerce. Some countries – like Germany with Netzwerk IQ and KAUSA – have initiated schemes to reach out to immigrant businesses and/or to involve host-country employers through co-operation with the Chambers of Commerce and trade and crafts associations. Others, like the Netherlands and Norway, as well as some *Länder* in Germany, have implemented measures to offer the children of immigrants apprenticeship places in the public sector, where they are generally underrepresented. One project in the Netherlands provides specific preparatory training for children of immigrants if they fail the entry exam because of their lack of knowledge of Dutch society.

Finally, there is the issue of discrimination. This chapter previously described that the children of immigrants have to write up to twice as many applications to get a job interview as their peers without a migration background. Discrimination may ultimately breed a sense of exclusion from the host-country society and discourage the children of immigrants from applying for apprenticeships in sectors or occupations where they perceive discrimination as being particularly rife.[26]

Indeed, in systems where experience in the workplace comes at the end of a VET programme, the children of immigrants have trouble finding placements and apprenticeships. They often end up in less highly prized alternatives, which (as mentioned above) appears to account for drop-out.

Links with family reunification policies. The legal and administrative framework for family reunification can either hasten or delay the age at which children enter a country and its school system. Requirements for sponsors – a common practice in most countries but one that differs widely in scale and scope – may slow down the procedure and penalise children insofar as it postpones their integration at a critical age (Table 2.2). This "late-arrival" penalty is true of nearly all OECD countries (Figure 2.27).[27] The penalty is more marked for those originating from a low-income country and not speaking the language of the host country at home. These are generally also the groups with the greatest obstacles to family reunification from immigration policy. The merit of such policies thus has to be weighed against the fact that, when children arrive young, rapid family reunification is generally good for their skills development and future opportunities in the host country.

Table 2.2. **Average age of foreign-born pupils at time of immigration in PISA 2012, children aged 15**

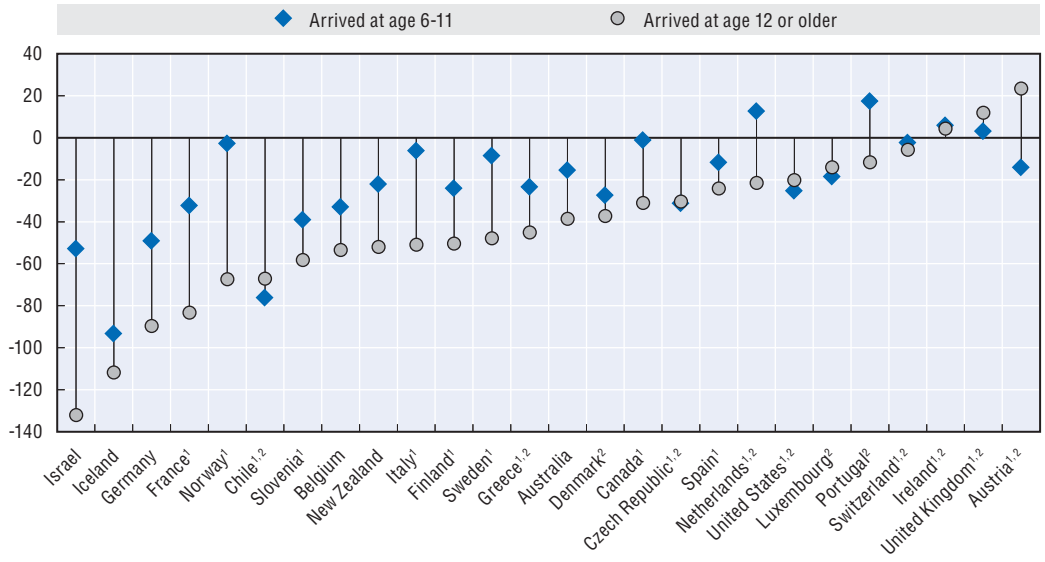
	Average age at immigration	Percentage arrived at 12 or later
Slovak Republic	10	51
Chile	9	37
Slovenia	9	35
Hungary	8	31
United Kingdom	8	31
Australia	8	28
Belgium	7	28
New Zealand	8	28
Portugal	8	28
Czech Republic	8	26
France	7	24
Sweden	8	24
Canada	7	23
Ireland	8	23
Switzerland	7	21
Italy	7	20
Luxembourg	7	20
Norway	7	20
Japan	7	19
Finland	7	18
OECD average	**7**	**18**
Spain	8	17
Iceland	8	15
Denmark	6	14
Estonia	6	14
Austria	6	12
United States	6	12
Turkey	4	10
Mexico	3	9
Germany	5	9
Greece	5	8
Israel	5	8
Netherlands	4	4

Source: OECD Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) 2012.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933157839

Figure 2.27. **The advantage of early arrival for immigrant students**

PISA point differences in reading scores at 15 years old compared with immigrant students who arrive at or before the age of 5



1. Difference between immigrant students who arrived at or before the age of 5 and immigrants who arrived between the ages 6 and 11 is not significant.
2. Difference between immigrant students who arrived at or before the age of 5 and immigrants who arrived between at the age of 12 or older is not significant.

Source: OECD Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) 2012.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933157624

Activating the skills of immigrants and their children

General skills activation policies include measures to strengthen motivation for entering the labour market through enhanced incentives to work, job search requirements, and benefit sanctions. They also seek to improve employability and manage employment services and other labour market instruments so that they effectively promote and support the return to work (OECD, 2013d).[28]

This section focuses on activating immigrants themselves, while also taking a broad view that includes policies to encourage employers to hire and train disadvantaged job-seekers on the labour market, including immigrants and their descendants. The section concludes with a discussion of how to activate immigrants by facilitating entrepreneurship so that they become employers themselves.

Activation policy design depends on countries' employment and social policies. However, a full discussion of activation policy and how it ties in with immigrants' labour market integration is beyond the scope of this chapter (see OECD, 2012b, for a discussion of that issue). The rest of this section looks at how specific issues and policies affect immigrants.

Activating immigrants' skills

Effective activation begins with an analysis of the reasons for inactivity. The obstacles that immigrants face are best identified by comparing reasons for inactivity among the foreign-born and their descendants with those that account for inactivity among the native-born with similar profiles – gender, age, level of educational attainment, and family background.

However, even within the foreign-born population, inactivity can be ascribed to factors that vary widely. New arrivals are inactive for very different reasons than immigrants who settled a long time ago and have become increasingly distant from the labour market over a length of time. Similarly, the obstacles to activation can be quite different for the educated, young people, and women. Specific issues affect all four groups – newcomers, the highly educated, youth, and women. They will be discussed in turn below.[29]

Unemployment and inactivity traps. A particular concern for activation policy is that unemployment benefits and/or social assistance may weaken the incentive to look for work, particularly among low-skilled newcomers who expect only low wages. The result is what is often referred to as "unemployment/inactivity traps". It affects both immigrants and the native-born, of course. But because they are widely socio-economically disadvantaged and expect lower wages, immigrants are generally overrepresented among the entrapped, which has an adverse impact on employment. Any policy to eliminate unemployment/inactivity traps by enhancing the net benefit of being in employment will also tend to promote employment.

Supply-side incentives in the tax and benefit system try to make work more attractive by lowering the marginal effective tax rates on entry-level low-skilled jobs. The disincentives of high marginal tax rates affect immigrants in the same way as the low-skilled native-born, making both groups prone to inactivity traps. The worst-affected tend to be potential second earners, many of whom can only look forward to low wages in the labour market. Immigrant women are often overrepresented in this group. Restructuring the tax and benefit system can therefore help to alleviate such inactivity and avert the unemployment/inactivity trap. Adults able to work can be supported through unemployment benefit that is made conditional on active job-seeking, accepting suitable job offers, and taking in active labour market programmes (ALMPs). The activation tool set also includes tax credits for work and training and transitional into-work benefits that combine benefits and training with work for a certain period.

Schemes initiated by countries include:

- Norway's "qualification programme", which is targeted at people with reduced work capacity and provides a salary-type benefit to participants who follow a tailor-made integration plan to improve their education and work-related training.
- Combined work and disability benefit programmes in the Netherlands (Snel and Linder, 2008) also yield positive employment effects for the foreign- and native-born, according to research.

Such incentive programmes seek less to decrease the use of benefits than to reduce barriers to retraining and employment as part of a broader activation strategy. The challenge in redesigning the tax and benefit structure is to determine the amount of support that different types of jobseekers need if they are to successfully pursue their training and job hunting and transition into regular employment.

Evidence from many OECD countries (Liebig and Mo, 2013; Zimmermann and Barrett, 2011) shows that even though the foreign-born are often overrepresented among those targeted by benefits (i.e. the poor, the unemployed, parents), they are actually less likely to use benefits than the native-born with the same characteristics (i.e. age, gender, education, employment, and family situation).

Specific issues for newcomers. Legally permitted access to the labour market is a precondition for activation. If immigrants, and new arrivals in particular, are prevented by law from working in their new country of residence, they risk turning to informal work or drifting further away from the labour force.

The bulk of OECD countries now grant immediate access to the labour market to most new arrivals who are expected to stay even if – as happens in European OECD countries – they initially have only a temporary permit. Family migrants, for example, are now generally granted the same labour market access as their sponsors. In the past, several European OECD countries enforced waiting periods, which may have contributed to the low employment rates among immigrant women widely seen in those countries (Krause and Liebig, 2011). Recent reforms in Austria, Germany, Greece and Spain have extended equal access to reunited family members.

The reforms are indicative of the growing emphasis that policymakers are placing on early labour market participation for all newcomers on the path to permanent residence. However, there are still restrictions on the full, immediate right to work of provisionally or temporarily admitted humanitarian immigrants. Yet many will stay in the host country for good, so there seems to be a good case for removing these last remaining obstacles – unless it is evident that their stay will only be temporary.

The unemployment/inactivity traps discussed above are an issue only if immigrants do indeed have access to benefits. In several OECD countries, such as Australia and Denmark, the law specifically restricts access to benefits for newcomers or at least some of these. Although they may consequently move swiftly into employment, it might be with unintended consequences. Newcomers may be overly exposed to poverty, for example, especially if they have no job. There might also be a higher incidence of over-qualification if higher-skilled immigrants are compelled to accept low-skilled employment prematurely:

- While the evidence suggests that Denmark's lower social benefits for newcomers – the "Start Help" – slightly increased employment rates, it has also cut their income levels. Furthermore, it seems that it has not increased labour market participation among newcomers and has had little effect on the groups furthest from the labour market, such as women and the low educated (Rosholm and Vejlin, 2010; Pedersen, 2013).
- Along the same lines, the United States' 1996 restrictions on welfare benefits for newcomers have been associated with increases in employment rates among immigrant women (Kaushal and Kaestner, 2007; Hall et al., 2010). At the same time, however, it has also affected immigrants' exposure to poverty and social exclusion (Fix, 2009; Nam, 2011).
- Australia's introduction of a two-year waiting period for social benefits for labour immigrants and their families has boosted their employment rate but has had a negative impact on their job quality and over-qualification rate (Junankar and Mahuteau, 2005).[30]
- Similarly, there seems to be a link between the high incidence of over-qualification in Austria and the fact that immigrants were, until recently, required to be in work in order to enjoy secure residence status (Krause and Liebig, 2011).

Introducing immigrant-specific restrictions on access to benefits also conflicts with the objective of welcoming immigrants and risks sending out the message that they are different. The restrictions raise the question of trade-off between short-term gains and negative long-term impacts on career mobility and social integration.

Specific issues for the children of immigrants. When low income, poor education, and limited command of a host country's language limit immigrants' resources, their children may well be particularly vulnerable to dropping out of school early. And, as described in the first part of this chapter, they find themselves in disproportionately high numbers among NEETs.

Activating young people goes hand-in-hand with skills development. Across the OECD, remedial policies for early school leavers are paying ever greater attention to immigrant pupils, especially late arrivals, as they are overrepresented among pupils quitting education prematurely.

- Switzerland's "Motivation Semester" provides individual vocational, language and confidence-building support to coax young people onto the right track to starting an apprenticeship or educational programme.
- Denmark's campaigns, "We need all youngsters" and "Retention Caravan", are both mainstream assistance programmes for young people with immigrant backgrounds that encourage them to take up courses in sectors such as social work, healthcare, and the police.
- Austria uses a range of tools such as youth coaching and supra-company apprenticeships. It also runs workshop-based dual programmes and complementing (preparatory) measures that integrate vocational training and language support measures.
- France has also rolled out numerous initiatives, including the CIVIS programme to support young people who have family, social, or cultural difficulties in finding a job.
- Germany is currently putting in place an initiative called "Strengthen Youth". It comprises four key programmes, one of which is specific to migrant youth.

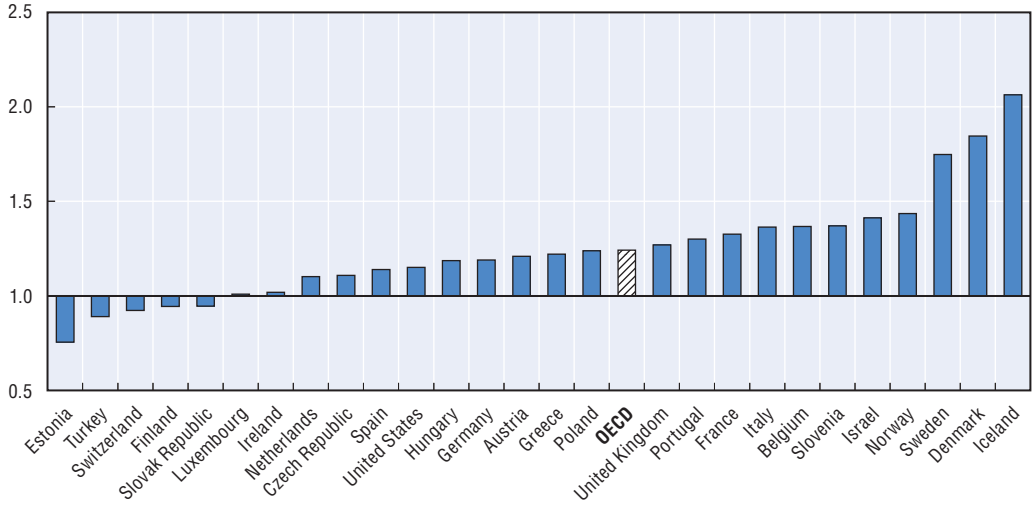
Working with young people who are struggling in school is a challenge. But when they have dropped out it can be even more challenging. It is important, therefore, to identify them early and give them the support they need to stop them from slipping into a downward spiral. Promising approaches in this respect include the "Work-Up" project in Belgium, where youth counsellors – generally themselves of immigration background – work on the street with the children of immigrants. Although it is a resource-intensive approach, it could nevertheless pay off significantly in the long run.

In addition to such remedial policies, Belgium has also undertaken preventative action to improve school graduation rates by raising the minimum school-leaving age, limiting the practice of requiring students to repeat a year, and improving VET upper-secondary options (De Witte et al., 2013; and European Commission, 2010). In this context, co-operation is key, since school-to-work transition is often an area in which the roles and responsibilities of different stakeholders such as schools, municipalities, and the public employment service are not clear-cut. One group of immigrant youth for which the school-to-work transition is a particularly problematic time are those who arrive at the end of compulsory schooling. Indeed, family reunification policies should, as far as possible, seek to avoid immigrant children from arriving at such a late age.

Specific issues for immigrant women. Activating foreign-born women also entails specific challenges. Low labour market participation among women frequently stems from household or childcare duties which stand in the way of job-seeking and employment. They also can prevent women from taking part in introduction programmes and language training. In most countries, immigrant women are more likely than their native-born peers to cite family and childcare as their main reason for not looking for work (Figure 2.28). The gap is particularly stark in the Nordic countries, where they are up to twice as likely to mention these reasons.

Figure 2.28. **Inactive women who cite family commitments as the main reason for not looking for work, 2012-13**

Ratio between foreign-born and native-born, women aged 25-54



Note: Family commitments include child care, looking after incapacitated adults or other family reasons.
Source: European countries and Turkey: Labour Force Surveys (Eurostat) 2012-13; Israel: Labour Force Surveys 2011; United States: Current Population Surveys 2013.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933157638

Childcare duties can be particularly burdensome on foreign-born women, who tend to enjoy more limited access to childcare than the native-born. While few countries place access restrictions on children of foreign nationality, the fact that supply cannot match demand and places are often costly tends to put immigrant women at a disadvantage. And women from countries where there is little formal childcare may also be unaware of the benefits the provision can bring.

Particular issues arise from cash-for-care subsidies. They often disproportionately curb the labour market supply of immigrant mothers as the wages they can expect from working are lower than those of the native-born (Hardoy and Schøne, 2008). According to studies from Nordic countries, replacing cash-for-care with free or low-cost early childhood education and afterschool care for all tends to improve both children's educational outcomes and their mothers' labour market participation. Immigrant mothers stand to gain considerably (Ellingsæter, 2012).

One example of an effective way to activate immigrant women is the "District Mothers" programme in Denmark, where unemployed immigrant mothers are trained to visit and advise other women in their neighbourhood on how to enrol in education or find work. Similar schemes are in place in other OECD countries, such as Germany where some *Länder* have taken action.

Also promising are policies that combine measures to activate immigrant mothers – which include language training – with care and early language stimulation for their children, ideally in the same institution. Such an approach helps to overcome immigrant parents' reticence about the way their children may be treated in childcare and preschool institutions.

Facilitating mothers' involvement in school, preschool, and childcare not only benefits their children, it can also help to activate mothers themselves as it improves their language learning and brings them more into social mainstream. Several OECD countries have introduced the international programme "Home Instruction for Parents of Preschool Youngsters" (HIPPY) and other programmes of mother and child education. There is evidence that they have helped connect educationally disadvantaged parents with the labour market and improved their children's education outcomes.

Norway has initiated a scheme to enhance immigrant parents' self-confidence and awareness of their role in their children's learning. Similar projects have also been rolled out at national and local level in Denmark and the Netherlands (OECD; 2007, 2008a). Germany and France run programmes that organise language and vocational training for parents at their children's school. The aim is also to generate positive side-effects on the school climate and parent-teacher relations. In Korea, support centres provide basic services directed specifically at immigrant mothers. The services include family education, language courses, translation and interpretation, childcare and child education support.

Immigrant women across the OECD are also addressing these issues themselves by creating self-help groups focused on empowerment. Countries where they are taking matters into their own hands include Australia, Denmark, Finland, Ireland, and Sweden.

Family commitments, particularly childcare, are not the only obstacles to efforts to activate foreign-born mothers. In some countries, women who arrive as family-reunification immigrants are not entitled to welfare, which also makes them ineligible for ALMP. Indeed, provisions for family formation and reunification in many countries formally prohibit access to social benefit. Where integration schemes are time-bound – as introduction programmes usually are – foreign-born women who have spent their first few years in a host-country busy with childcare duties may find that they are no longer entitled to them. Action to activate foreign-born women should therefore carefully factor in formal obstacles to activity.

Specific issues for highly educated immigrants. One of the most striking findings from the first part of this chapter is the wide gap in employment rates between the highly educated foreign- and native-born. It stems chiefly from inactivity, which is particularly high among immigrants from non-OECD countries. And even when they are in employment, they are often over-qualified for the jobs they do. The fact, though, that so many are inactive, and therefore not even looking for a job, is a puzzle. It points to issues of discouragement. The reasons are not entirely clear, but seem related to the non-recognition of their foreign credentials and discrimination, as well as language obstacles.

Positive versus negative incentives. The activation approach adds a new perspective to the on-going political debate over compulsory versus voluntary integration programmes. Many mainstream schemes carry the threat of benefit sanctions for refusal to participate. In fact, that is now standard practice and there is no reason to distinguish between immigrants and the native-born in this respect.[31] Yet, several European OECD countries – including Austria, Denmark, France, Germany, and Norway – have also made integration programmes obligatory for specific categories of newcomers.[32] Obligation is further reinforced by penalties for non-participation. They do not necessarily entail shutting off access to benefits – indeed, as mentioned, many family immigrants are not eligible, anyway – but, rather, the denial of permanent residence permits.

A frequently aired motive for compelling immigrants to attend integration programmes is that many of those who have been resident in a host country for years still do not master its language well. There has been less focus on the underlying barriers to participation in integration programmes or the use of positive incentives.

Like other integration policy approaches, activation should start by spotting immigrants who struggle with the language and identifying their reasons for non-participation in integration programmes. Reasons can range from simple disinterest to ignorance of available courses, lack of time due to work or family commitments, inconvenient or inadequate offers, the perceived high costs or low benefits of programmes for labour market integration.

A number of well-designed voluntary integration measures in OECD countries have had take-up rates of well above 90%. Their popularity suggests that the widespread concern over immigrants' "lack of willingness to integrate" – reflected in the mandatory nature of many programmes – is a problem that concerns only a small minority. The question is not only whether making integration measures obligatory is an effective way of reaching the few immigrants who would not otherwise participate, but whether it may have an adverse effect on the vast majority who would have participated anyway. After all, obligation sends out the message that the host-country presumes that immigrants do not want to learn the language or settle down permanently. That sentiment can discourage the foreign-born from investing in their skills and training and reinforce negative stereotypes about immigrants, which may put employers off from hiring them.

The activation approach focuses both on expanding the demand for and the supply of integration support, since high-quality courses and high levels of participation are mutually reinforcing. In addition, incentives should be directed not only at immigrants – after all, participation is generally in their own best interest. Providers, too, should be incentivised to ensure quality training. They should be paid – in part, at least – only if they achieve the stated objectives of improving language proficiency and labour market integration.[33]

Engaging with employers

Making hiring more attractive. Several OECD countries have addressed the issue of encouraging employers to hire people who have drifted away from the labour market. They do so through mechanisms such as wage subsidies (see previous section) and cuts in employer-based contributions to social security.[34] Recent structural reforms in Italy and Spain have sought to reduce barriers to employment by facilitating part-time work and introducing more flexible working arrangements (OECD, 2012b).

Making informal work into formal employment may also be an effective strategy, particularly in lower-income OECD countries with large estimated informal sectors, such as domestic services, where immigrants are widely over-represented. While greater enforcement seems to have had only a modest effect, potentially effective measures are tax and wage incentives and cuts in red tape to ease hiring formalities (OECD, 2004). Personal and household service vouchers that lower the price in the formal market can also help to move people out of informal to formal employment. The use of such vouchers in Italy and Belgium, for example, has improved the employment prospects of low-skilled workers, particularly women, in domestic service.

As with active labour market policies in general, a recurring problem with action primarily aimed at the labour demand side is that immigrants are often underrepresented among beneficiaries. The inference is that there are further structural barriers to employers' willingness to employ immigrants – at least in the formal sector – that need to be addressed. Some schemes, like one targeted at refugees in Australia and local initiatives in Sweden, have reached out to employers in an effort to better understand their business needs and give immigrant participants training that responds specifically to those needs.

Anti-discrimination law and equal employment policies. As was described in the first part of this chapter, discrimination – on the grounds of ethnicity, race, religion, and nationality – is still a major obstacle to immigrants' participation in the labour market. Yet, there is a wide lack of awareness of discrimination – 40% of EU residents think ethnic discrimination is rare or non-existent in their country, according to a 2012 Eurobarometer Survey.[35]

The most basic instrument for preventing discrimination is legislation formally outlawing it. Victims in employment and training can now turn to dedicated laws and agencies in the vast majority of OECD countries. Anti-discrimination legislation seeks to go beyond solely securing redress for victims to actually changing public behaviour. People who believe they have been discriminated against are encouraged to report cases and file complaints. Unfortunately, though, legislation in most OECD countries is generally not strong or accessible enough to effectively prevent employers and others from discriminating against immigrants.

Some OECD countries actually do have comprehensive legislation with strong enforcement mechanisms and agencies. They include countries of settlement and European OECD countries like Sweden and the United Kingdom. In most European OECD countries, frameworks build on recent laws and agencies adopted them some time after 2000 in the wake of the European Union's Employment Equality Framework Directive.[36] The Czech Republic (2009), Estonia (2009), and Poland (2010) are the most recent member countries to incorporate the directive. And even countries with small immigrant populations outside Europe, like Chile and Mexico, are increasingly adopting anti-discrimination framework laws.

However, legislation in a number of countries does not cover discrimination on all grounds and in all areas of public life. The failure to explicitly prohibit it on the basis of nationality or citizenship opens the way to discrimination against immigrants. Plaintiffs often carry the entire burden of proof, while government equality agencies which advise victims are frequently not allowed to file suits themselves and lack independent investigatory powers. Moreover, the penalties meted out to employers found guilty of discrimination are often merely token (European Union Agency for Fundamental Rights, 2008). As a result, few cases find their way into the courts, while some are settled informally.

The robustness and enforcement of legislation and anti-discrimination agencies' powers determine whether employers comply with the law and victims lodge complaints. Evidence from the US indicates that sterner anti-racism laws improve minorities' long-term employment prospects and, to some extent, their earnings (Neumark and Stock, 2001; Donohue, 2005). While the under-reporting of discrimination is a major problem across countries, immigrant survey respondents said they were more likely not to report a case or to think that nothing would come of it in countries with weak anti-discrimination laws (European Union Agency for Fundamental Rights, 2009). Stronger, comprehensive

laws and empowered agencies improve plaintiffs' chances of redress and increase the number of deterrent sanctions. But the chief merit of anti-discrimination legislation is the signal it provides – i.e. that discrimination is unacceptable and policy is watchful.

To offset the known weaknesses of anti-discrimination legislation, a number of countries have gone a step further and introduced equal employment policies (EEPs). They have done so to promote equal opportunity for disadvantaged groups on the labour market, and are increasingly making immigrants and their children a key target group. EEPs seek to remove obstacles to employment through action that ranges from targets regarding immigrant employment and monitoring to quotas and affirmative action. Diversity policies, like Belgium's, for example, include administrative and financial support to employers who agree to take measures that give disadvantaged groups a better chance (OECD, 2008a). Within the OECD, the most robust EEPs seek to enforce gender parity and incorporate measures to ensure equal employment opportunity for women. The foreign-born and their descendants benefit from relatively firm private-sector EEPs mainly in the United Kingdom and countries of longstanding settlement, such as Australia, Canada and the United States. Elsewhere, there are no obligatory EEPs for the foreign-born or their descendants in the private sector, although some countries – like Norway – have introduced them in the public sector.[37]

A recent trend is diversity management whereby employers voluntarily agree to promote diversity and equal opportunity in the workplace for all individuals regardless of race, ethnic origin, or religion. Twelve European OECD countries have introduced national diversity charters,[38] which businesses and public institutions voluntarily sign, pledging to foster diversity. However, the scale and scope of such instruments often remains limited, as implementation is not monitored and only a few large companies commit to them. Belgium and France, however, have taken matters further. They have introduced diversity labels, whereby authorities audit and certify a company's diversity management policies on a regular basis with relevant stakeholders. The labels testify to a company's commitment to its corporate social responsibility, while the labels give it a public relations incentive to be an equal opportunity employer.

EEPs, whether voluntary or obligatory, do not appear to be effective if they are not backed by reporting and accountability requirements. In the United States, affirmative action programmes – which are a management responsibility and hold firms accountable – have improved employment outcomes for minorities, especially those working in firms with federal government contracts (see Holzer, 2010). In comparison, voluntary EEPs have a number of shortcomings.

First, comparatively few businesses participate in EEPs in Europe compared with the United States. Second, small and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs) tend to be underrepresented, even though they not only generally account for the bulk of new jobs, but are the companies where discrimination against immigrants is worst.[39] Moreover, participating businesses often do not have to answer to any monitoring or reporting requirement as to the results of their voluntary diversity action (European Commission, 2008). Greater evaluation and better piloting would strengthen the business case for voluntary EEPs and help design more effective ones, whether voluntary or obligatory.

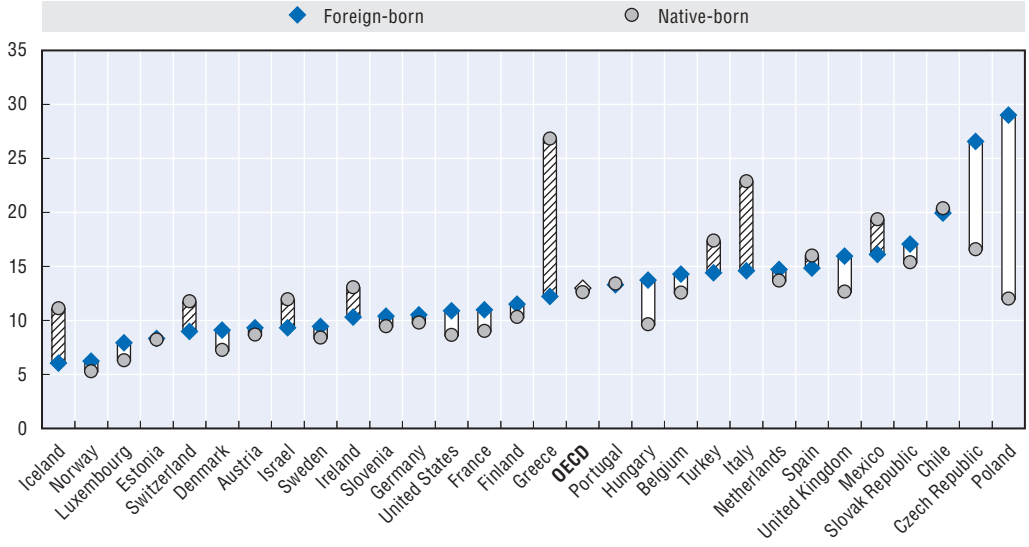
Clearly, there is room for an evidence-based approach to designing more effective EEPs. One good example is a pilot scheme to monitor anonymous CVs in the hiring process. The idea behind anonymous CVs is that there is nothing to tie them to people who are

exposed to discrimination on the grounds of age, gender, ethnicity, race, nationality, or religion. They thus contribute to reducing discrimination. Pilots in Belgium, Germany, the Netherlands, and Sweden suggest that anonymous CVs can indeed help curb discriminatory hiring (Heath, Liebig, and Simon; 2013).[40] However, they may be difficult to implement in SMEs where there is no separate human resources department which would normally be the intermediary between an applicant and the recruitment manager to whom the anonymous application is sent.

Activating immigrants as employers

A third channel of activation is immigrants as employers themselves. In most OECD countries, the foreign-born are slightly more likely than the native-born to be self-employed and open new businesses, even after controlling for their individual characteristics (Figure 2.29).

Figure 2.29. **Percentage of self-employed 15- to 64-year-olds among non-agricultural workers by place of birth, 2012-13**



Note: Hatched bars indicate that the percentage of self-employed is higher among the native-born and white bars indicate that the percentage is higher among the foreign-born.
Source: European countries and Turkey: Labour Force Surveys (Eurostat) 2012-13; Chile: *Encuesta de Caracterización Socioeconómica Nacional* (CASEN) 2011; Israel: Labour Force Surveys 2011; Mexico: *Encuesta Nacional de Ocupación y Empleo 2013* (ENOE); United States: Current Population Surveys 2013.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933157640

There are several positive aspects to immigrants becoming self-employed or setting up their own businesses, such as the significant contribution they make to employment and tentative evidence of growing trade with their countries of origin (OECD, 2010c). Still, doing so is no panacea for labour market integration. Many foreign-born end up in self-employment to escape from marginalisation in the labour market. In other words, self-employment is not always related to entrepreneurial skills. The foreign-born are more likely to both enter and exit self-employment, while new immigrant-run businesses have a lower survival rate than businesses founded by the native-born.

There are barriers to entrepreneurship that are particularly difficult to overcome for immigrants. Among these is access to credit. On the borrower's side, foreign-born entrepreneurs have a more limited credit history in their country of residence than their native-born counterparts. One reason is the lack of cross-border information sharing on credit histories. And because host-country credit institutions have more misgiving about foreign- than native-born entrepreneurs, they apply more stringent lending criteria and even discriminate against them. Research from Italy (Albareto and Mistrulli, 2010 and 2011) shows that immigrant entrepreneurs who obtained a loan had to pay interest rates that were, on average, 70 base points higher than those charged to their native-born peers. Knowledge of host-country administrative requirements and country-specific ways of running a business can also be an obstacle.

However, greater attention is being paid to immigrant entrepreneurs. Specific support is well established in several countries – such as Israel, the United Kingdom, and the United States – and start-ups using them seem to have higher survival rates than the national average. Mainstream programmes, too, can be particularly effective for immigrants. For example, Australia's New Enterprise Incentive Scheme looks to have had good results in helping non-English-speaking immigrants set up stable businesses.

Support for immigrant entrepreneurs is still on the limited side in most European OECD countries, although it is on the increase in France, Germany, and Norway among others. Sweden's national entrepreneurship support agency, ALMI, has even created a dedicated branch – a fine example of how immigrant-specific support can be part of the mainstream.

Conclusion: Integration as investment

Successful integration requires comprehensive, well-tailored measures that factor in considerations specific to immigrants' countries of origins, the groups to which they belong, their entry categories, education background, and family situation. As immigration flows grow more diverse in most countries, they must increasingly customise their integration policy instruments. That being said, immigrants' needs are not necessarily different from those of the native-born, once they have settled in. Indeed, effective general programmes often have an even greater impact on immigrants than on native-born in similar situations, provided that they are accessible. Greater mainstreaming should thus address immigrants' under-representation in more effective general policies that is widely observed to date.

Nevertheless, the reasons for underrepresentation are not always clear. Is it due to lack of information? Are immigrants and employers just not interested enough? If not, why not? Or are integration programmes not properly targeted or incentives wrongly set?

Effective policies do not always need to cost the public purse much. Instruments like volunteer-based mentoring, public sector recruitment, the promotion of naturalisation and stronger anti-discrimination legislation do not entail significant financial investment. Similarly, supplying information on the integration programmes available and the benefits they bring is often just as important as actually providing the programmes. A balanced public discourse is also a "measure" that does not come at a financial cost, but produces potentially valuable gains.

Ultimately, however, the success of labour market integration policy depends not only on the take-up of the programmes and on the investment that goes into them, but – above all – on employers' willingness to hire and train immigrant workers. To that end, aligning

employers' incentives with the objective of harnessing the skills potential of immigrants and their children is critical. Employers need to be part of the integration process and to see integration as an investment, if only for securing future labour supply. Well-designed diversity polices are a promising direction in that respect.

Investing in the skills that bring immigrants into the labour market can pay off handsomely. OECD work on the fiscal impact of migration (Liebig and Mo, 2013) has shown that lifting immigrants' employment rates to native-born levels would deliver fiscal benefits of one-half of a percentage point of GDP or more annually in OECD countries like Belgium, France, and Sweden. Successful integration not only improves the economic and fiscal benefits of immigration, it is also an important factor in social cohesion. Viewing integration as an investment also has implications for the way that integration policies are designed.

First, policy should incorporate early intervention – critical both for newcomers on the way to permanent residence and for the children of immigrants. While the early labour market integration of newcomers is the best predictor of employment in the long-term, an immigrant's first job may well not make full use of his or her skills and thereby not be very stable. Yet, if support does not end with the first day of employment, there need not be a trade-off between rapid employment and lasting integration. As for the offspring of immigrants, the most effective policy is to ensure their participation in early childhood education and care from around the age of three. It is precisely the age at which the fewest children of immigrants tend to be in the education system.

Second, if they consider integration an investment, policies should not seek to pay off immediately. All the immigrants who settle need to build the basic skills that enable them to function in the host society. It is undoubtedly a costly approach and may not even pay off in fiscal terms if only immigrants themselves are considered – particularly if they lack basic skills and have drifted well outside the confines of the labour market. However, the benefits extend beyond the labour market to social cohesion and across generations, where immigrants' children may reap them.

Viewing integration as an investment does not necessarily mean that the state should fund all integration measures. Nevertheless, if the benefits of effective integration are to be felt across the whole of society, there is a strong case for significant subsidies. Especially in situations where immigrants are not in a position themselves to invest the amount they need, government intervention to provide support is warranted.

Finally, policy that takes the long view means that access to integration support should be dependent not on the group to which an immigrant belongs, but on his or her settlement prospects and needs. Family-reunification immigrants, for example, are still too often out of the focus of integration policy. Yet there is a high probability that they will stay on in the host country.

Most immigrants and their offspring, be they educated or not, work in OECD countries. Their situation and skills improve over time. Nevertheless, they have a great fund of still-underused skills and potential to offer. Tapping into their skills and investing to unleash their potential are critical to the future of OECD countries.

Notes

1. This chapter was prepared by Thomas Liebig (OECD) and Thomas Huddleston (Consultant).
2. The terms "foreign-born", "migrant" and "immigrant" are used synonymously in this chapter. They refer to the population born abroad – not only to the population which has a foreign nationality. The terms "descendants", "offspring of immigrants" and "children of immigrants" are also used synonymously. They encompass both youth who immigrated with their parents at school age and the native-born children of immigrants. For the latter, some countries use the term "second-generation immigrants", which risks the connotation that the immigrant status is perpetuated. The OECD countries that have been settled by migration also occasionally use the term "second generation" but give it a different connotation. Canada, for example, refers to "second-generation Canadians", to reflect the fact that both they and their parents are considered an integral part of society.
3. The OECD countries which are English-speaking have the additional advantage that English is widely spoken. Thus, even many – if not most – immigrants from countries which are not formally English-speaking master the language well.
4. In the United States, the shares of recent arrivals, of highly educated and of immigrants who were exposed to their host country's language before arrival are lower than in the other countries in this group.
5. Again, however, part of the higher scores for immigrants with domestic qualifications may also be due to the fact that they master the host-country language better.
6. As a result, humanitarian migrants generally tend to be the main target group of integration programmes in OECD countries. However, this is less often the case for family migrants.
7. Although the integration of the native-born children of immigrants is of particular concern in the European OECD countries, the outcomes of this group are also an important consideration elsewhere (see Hugo [2011] on the children of humanitarian immigrants in Australia).
8. However, the sample sizes are small in most countries, so the results are only statistically significant in a few European OECD countries with large populations of children of immigrants.
9. Note, however, that these results are not based on longitudinal data following the same immigrants over time, but on cross-sectional data based on length of stay. Nonetheless, the pattern observed is generally as expected, i.e. immigrants who have been longer in the host country have better outcomes.
10. Beyond this well-documented discrimination against immigrants in hiring, evidence exists of discrimination in career advancement and in the education system.
11. Along the same line, PISA data show that children of immigrants have on average higher motivation and higher aspirations regarding their careers than the children of native-born.
12. For example, in Canada's Red Seal programme for skilled trades' workers, employer organisations and associations are closely involved in determining standards and accreditation.
13. Many OECD countries have developed media projects and awards to encourage the reporting of objective stories, statistics, and research on migration and integration. One interesting initiative in Germany is "Mediendienst Integration" (Integration Media Service), funded by the government together with private foundations, and located in the House of the German Press Conference. This service provides information, summarises research, highlights new and missing topics, and builds up networks of expertise among researchers and journalists.
14. This is known as the "stereotype threat" which has been confirmed by experiments among women, ethnic minorities, and immigrants. For the United States, see Massey and Fischer (2005); Ward-Schofield (2006); Deaux et al. (2007); Owens and Lynch (2012). For an Austrian example: Appel and Kronberger, 2012.
15. For example, in 2012, the Belgian regions of Brussels and Wallonia granted non-EU nationals equal access to the civil service and teaching jobs in 2013. In Italy, the Law 97/2013 opened the public sector to several legal categories of non-EU nationals.
16. Similar initiatives have been started in cities and federal states in Germany, such as "Berlin braucht dich!" and "Wir sind Hamburg" to raise the proportion of public sector trainees with a migration background. Workforce diversity targets have also been set for the public sector in the region of Flanders in Belgium (Equal Opportunities and Diversity Plan) and cities in Austria (Vienna's Integration and Diversity Monitor), Denmark (Copenhagen's Integration Barometer) and the Netherlands (Amsterdam's Programma Diversiteit). For more such initiatives in Europe, see the European Commission's website on integration.

17. See, for example, the literature review in Liebig and Von Haaren (2011) and the studies collected in OECD (2011).

18. Some barriers remain for certain jobs in the public sector. These again tend to be small in most cases and there has been great improvement in recent years, but hiring nationals might still be preferred. In Canada, where barriers to naturalisation are low, there are no administrative barriers to hiring permanent residents (that is, immigrants who have not yet naturalised), but citizens are given preferential treatment when applying for jobs in the federal public service.

19. In many countries, the PES offers early and intensive coaching focused on immediate employment with individualised follow-up. This policy seems to have met with some success, notably in the Scandinavian countries (Sianesi, 2004; Aslund and Johansson, 2006; Joona and Nekby, 2012).

20. Examples of the systematic use of immigrant-origin mentors are Denmark's "We Need All Youngsters" campaign and its "Retention Caravan" that use youth and parent role models to discuss their experiences and give advice on how to choose and successfully complete education programmes.

21. ISCED stands for International Standard Classification of Education.

22. For instance, Ireland allows the temporary registration of non-EU doctors to work under supervision and receive further training for a period of up to seven years. The United Kingdom also allows temporary registration for certain healthcare professionals. Since 2002, Portugal has put in place a bridging programme for immigrant doctors with a training, exam, and registration procedure. The programme includes financial support covering fees and medicine-specific language courses and textbooks.

23. Similarly, most surveyed participants and teachers in Estonia's language training development programmes did not think it improved labour market participation (Saar Poll OÜ, 2013).

24. Vocational-specific language specialists can also work with employers to help properly define the language skills actually needed for specific jobs, as in the "Work-Up Project" in the Flemish region of Belgium.

25. For example, the Austrian Public Employment Service (AMS) offers vocation-specific on-the-job language training, but this is only 5% of its total language training (see Krause and Liebig, 2011). In Brussels, non-EU immigrants are strongly under-represented among users of its language-cheque programme, providing 20-40 hours of one-to-one language training.

26. Heath, Liebig and Simon (2013) show, using data from social surveys in European OECD countries, Canada, New Zealand and the United States, that native-born children of immigrants in European OECD countries feel more often discriminated against than their parents. Exactly the reverse is observed in the OECD countries which have been settled by migration.

27. While this pattern is observed in the vast majority of countries, it does not hold everywhere. This is probably due to cohort effects: children who arrived in a host country more recently may have different backgrounds than earlier arrivals. For example, they may have parents who are higher educated on average.

28. Training and education for the inactive are also generally considered activation measures. However, they are discussed in the previous section on developing skills since their focus is on the development of new skills rather than on the activation of existing ones.

29. For example, beneficiaries of international protection in European OECD countries are 10 percentage points more likely to be inactive for health reasons than other immigrants of the same age and gender.

30. Note, however, that Australia's social security system differs from that of most other OECD countries as it is government-funded (tax transfers) rather than insurance/contributory based.

31. There may nevertheless be some indirect targeting, if, for example participation in programmes to overcome language obstacles – presumably an issue mainly for immigrants – is a precondition for benefit access. For example, the United Kingdom recently introduced an English Language Requirement for all jobseekers whose English speaking and listening skills are below Entry Level 2. Where levels are below, participation in measures is compulsory. Such measures have the advantage of targeting the issue, rather than immigrants themselves.

32. The Netherlands does not require participation, but does require an integration test to be taken.

33. At the same time, incentives should reflect the fact that immigrants with different skills also have different integration pathways.

34. Indeed, the objective of wage subsidies is two-fold. On the one hand, they aim at encouraging employers to give disadvantaged groups a chance – by compensating for actual or perceived lower productivity. On the other hand, they help to give immigrants a chance to demonstrate their skills in a context where employers are reticent. This is probably the reason why they tend to be more effective for immigrants than for other disadvantaged groups.

35. Particularly in Austria, Germany, Ireland, and most Southern European countries.

36. *http://eur-lex.europa.eu/LexUriServ/LexUriServ.do?uri=CELEX:32000L0078:en:HTML*.

37. The Netherlands also had strong policies in this respect in the past, but most have been abolished over the past decade (see OECD [2008a] for a discussion of the issue).

38. Austria, Belgium, Estonia, Finland, France, Germany, Ireland, Italy, Luxembourg, Poland, Spain and Sweden.

39. SMEs often have little experience in hiring immigrants. In addition, in situations where there is uncertainty about a candidates' skills, SMEs may tend to be more risk-averse since a single less productive employee would have a relatively stronger impact on the company's performance than in a larger firm. As a result, testing studies have confirmed that discrimination tends to be more pronounced in SMEs (Heath, Liebig and Simon; 2013).

40. In France, one evaluation of a pilot scheme point to a negative impact of anonymous CVs. However, the companies that took part had volunteered, making it likely that the participating companies wanted to diversify their staff and were thus not representative.

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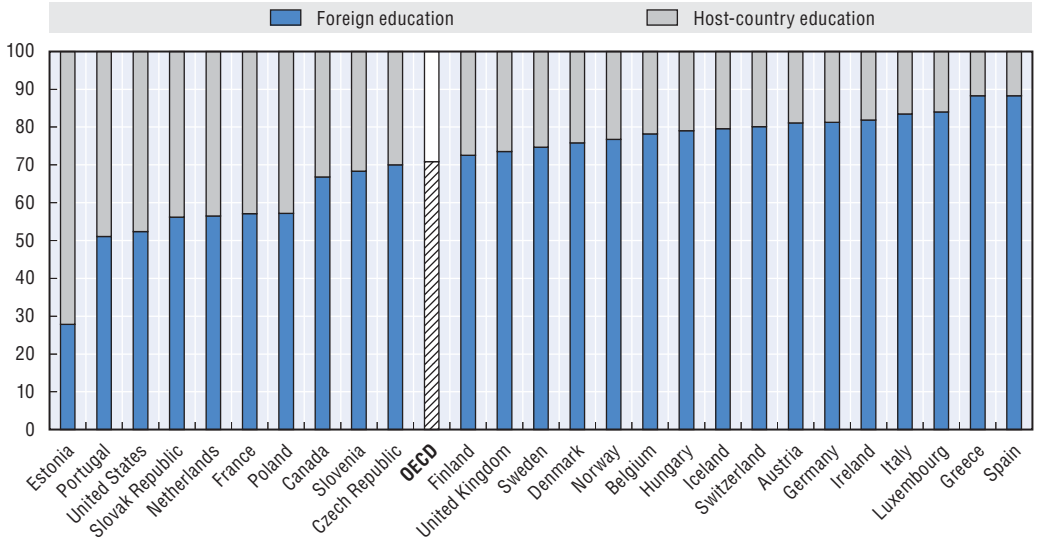
ANNEX 2.A1

Supplementary tables and figures

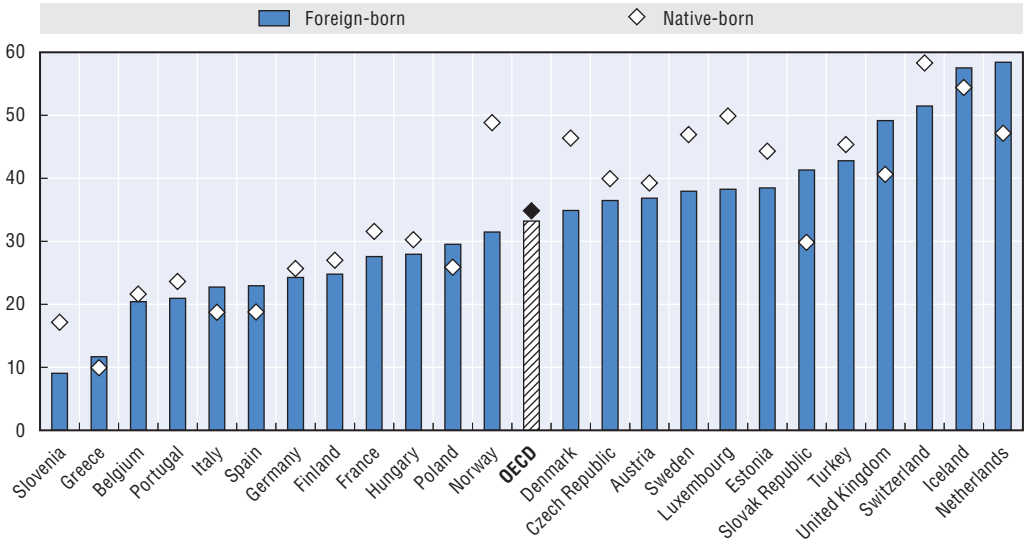
Figure 2.A1.1. **Where the foreign-born obtained their qualifications in selected OECD countries, persons aged 25-64, 2011-12**



Source: European countries: Labour Force Surveys (Eurostat) 2011-12; Canada, United States: Survey of Adult Skills (PIAAC) 2012.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933157659

Figure 2.A1.2. **Percentage of employed among people aged 15-64 who were unemployed one year earlier, by place of birth, 2013**



Source: European countries and Turkey: Labour Force Surveys (Eurostat) 2013.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933157662

Table 2.A1.1. **Associated likelihood of being employed, 25 to 64-year-olds not in education, European OECD countries, 2011-12**

Percentage points

A. Men			
Born in a high-income country	-1.0**	-1.1**	-1.9***
Born in a lower-income country	-9.7***	-8.4***	-9.4***
High level of education		17.3***	16.7***
Medium level of education		10.9***	10.4***
Does not live with a partner or spouse			-15.0***
Has one or more child under 6			0.5**
N	1 988 123	1 981 617	1 981 617
B. Women			
Born in a high-income country	-4.5***	-5.0***	-4.9***
Born in a lower-income country	-16.9***	-14.3***	-13.8***
High level of education		29.2***	29.2***
Medium level of education		18.0***	18.0***
Does not live with a partner or spouse			0.8***
Has one or more child under 6			-12.3***
N	2 112 745	2 106 213	2 106 213

Note: * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$. The probit regressions control for age and country fixed effects. High-income countries include EU27, North America and Oceania. No finer categorisation is possible with the level of precision of the Labour Force Survey.

Source: European Labour Force Surveys 2011-12 (Eurostat).

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933157846

Table 2.A1.2. **Associated likelihood of being employed among 15 to 34-year-olds who are not in education, European OECD countries, 2008**

Percentage points

A. Men			
Native-born sons of two foreign-born parents	-4.4***	-2.4***	-3.3***
High level of education		12.5***	12.4***
Medium level of education		11.7***	11.5***
Does not live with a partner or spouse			-9.6***
Has one or more child under 6			-2.0**
N	110 061	109 543	109 543
B. Women			
Native-born daughters of two foreign-born parents	-18.2***	-13.5***	-12.3***
High level of education		30.8***	29.3***
Medium level of education		22.2***	21.5***
Does not live with a partner or spouse			2.1***
Has one or more child under 6			-20.1***
N	104 941	104 522	104 522

Note: * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$. The probit regressions control for age and country fixed effects.

Source: European Labour Force Survey ad hoc module on the labour market situation of migrants and their immediate descendants, 2008 (Eurostat).

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933157859

Table 2.A1.3. **Associated likelihood of being employed, 15 to 64-year-olds not in education, European OECD countries, 2008**

Percentage points

	Born in a high-income country	Born in a lower-income country
	A. Men	
Citizen	0.1	3.7**
Years of residence in this country	0.2**	0.2**
High level of education	6.1***	4.6***
Medium level of education	3.4**	4.0***
Reason to migrate: Study	-3.8	-4.5
Reason to migrate: Family	-4.4**	-3.5*
Reason to migrate: Humanitarian	-0.9	-11.3***
Reason to migrate: Other	-0.1	-0.3
Has language limitations	-6.9***	-6.3***
Does not live with a partner or spouse	-8.7***	-5.4***
Has one or more child under 6	-2.2	2.0
N	10 717	12 336
	B. Women	
Citizen	-5.5**	0.9
Years of residence in this country	0.4***	0.4***
High level of education	5.9***	7.9***
Medium level of education	3.6*	6.7***
Reason to migrate: Study	-5.9	-8.6*
Reason to migrate: Family	-8.7***	-13.3***
Reason to migrate: Humanitarian	-9.2	-18.4***
Reason to migrate: Other	-9.8**	-12.9***
Has language limitations	-10.5***	-13.8***
Does not live with a partner or spouse	3.3*	0.9
Has one or more child under 6	-6.8**	-8.6***
N	10 351	11 208

Note: * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$. The probit regressions control for 5-year age groups and country fixed effects. Belgium, the Czech Republic, Denmark, Estonia, Hungary, Poland, Slovenia and the Slovak Republic, are not included in the analysis as they did not collect all the information necessary to run the regression. High-income countries include EU27, North America and Oceania. No finer categorisation is possible with the level of precision of the Labour Force Survey. Labour is the reference category for the reason to migrate.

Source: European Labour Force Survey ad hoc module on the labour market situation of migrants and their immediate descendants, 2008 (Eurostat).

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933157869

Table 2.A1.4. **Associated likelihood of being employed, European OECD countries, 2008**

Percentage points

	Native-born adults (25-64)	Foreign-born (25-64)		Native-born children of immigrants (15-34 not in education)		Foreign-born who migrated before the age of 16 (15-34 not in education)		Native-born children of two native-born parents (15-34 not in education)
		Born in a high-income country	Born in a lower-income country	The two parents were born in a high-income country	The two parents were born in a lower-income country	Born in a high-income country	Born in a lower-income country	
A. Men								
High level of education	14.2***	10.6***	10.0***	11.0***	24.3***	14.6***	16.8***	12.3***
Medium level of education	9.0***	5.9***	8.5***	16.5***	12.6***	16.2***	10.5***	12.2***
Does not live with a partner or spouse	-15.0***	-11.1***	-10.5***	-13.5***	-7.3	-11.7*	-17.8***	-10.3***
Has one or more child under 6	0.3	-2.1	0.7	3.3	5.1	-1.0	-2.9	-2.5***
N	353 271	16 103	18 790	861	1 491	1 185	2 474	96 209
B. Women								
High level of education	29.0***	14.3***	23.5***	23.5***	42.6***	29.8***	38.8***	29.0***
Medium level of education	17.8***	7.6***	19.4***	21.4**	24.1***	20.1***	19.9***	21.5***
Does not live with a partner or spouse	1.5***	13.1***	10.5***	12.6*	-3	10.3	-0.3	0.1
Has one or more child under 6	-12.0***	-16.7***	-17.4***	-32.2***	-25.0***	-20.8**	-24.1***	-19.1***
N	374 860	18 182	21 454	815	1 564	1 269	2 359	89 600

Note: * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$. The probit regressions controls for 5-year age groups and country fixed effects. The regressions on the native-born children of immigrants exclude Denmark and Norway. The regressions on 15-34 foreign-born exclude Poland and the Slovak Republic. High-income countries include EU27, North America and Oceania. No finer categorisation is possible with the level of precision of the Labour Force Survey.

Source: European Labour Force Survey ad hoc module on the labour market situation of migrants and their immediate descendants 2008 (Eurostat).

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933157874

Table 2.A1.5. **Associated risks of over-qualification, employed people between 15 and 64 years old, European OECD countries, 2008**

Percentage points

	Born in a high-income country	Born in a lower-income country
Citizen	-4.5	-17.2***
Years of residence in this country	-0.1	-1.1***
Reason to migrate: Study	-6.4	-15.4***
Reason to migrate: Family	5.6	4.3
Reason to migrate: Humanitarian	21.4	27.2***
Reason to migrate: Other	-4.9	-4.1
Has language limitations	20.9***	16.2***
Does not live with a partner or spouse	1.0	1
Has one or more child under 6	-5.2	-0.5
N	6 620	4 473

Note: * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$. The probit regressions control for 5-year age groups and country fixed effects. Belgium, the Czech Republic, Denmark, Estonia, Hungary, Poland, Slovenia and the Slovak Republic are not included in the analysis as they did not collect all the information necessary to run the regression. High-income countries include EU27, North America and Oceania. No finer categorisation is possible with the level of precision of the Labour Force Survey. Labour is the reference category for the reason to migrate.

Source: Labour Force Surveys ad hoc module on the labour market situation of migrants and their immediate descendants, 2008 (Eurostat).

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933157881

Table 2.A1.6. **Associated risk of in-work poverty, European OECD countries, 2011**

Percentage points

Native-born household	-7.5***
Medium level of education	-4.3***
High level of education	-8.6***
One adult working, with children	8.4***
Two adults or more, two workers or more, without children	-6.9***
Two adults or more, one worker, without children	-1.8***
Two adults or more, two workers or more, with children	-5.0***
Two adults or more, one worker, with children	4.3***
N	355 449

Note: * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$. "In-work poverty risk" represents the share of individuals who live in a household whose equivalent income is below half of the median income of the whole population living in the country. The equivalent scale used is the square root scale. The households considered are the ones where at least one adult has been at work at least seven months in the last twelve months. The income considered is the total household income after social transfers disposable in a twelve-month period (previous calendar or tax year or twelve months preceding the interview). The ordinary least squares regression controls for country fixed effects.
Source: European Union Statistics on Income and Living Conditions (SILC) 2011.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933157892

Table 2.A1.7. **Probability of being employed, 2012**

Percentage points

	Native-born offspring of two immigrant parents (aged 16 to 34) compared to the native-born offspring of two native-born parents	Foreign-born (aged 16 to 64) compared to the native-born
Australia	-4.8	-3.2[1]
Austria	-10.3	-8.3[1]
Canada	-4.1	-1.7
Czech Republic	-8.7	-1.2
Denmark	5.9	-6.3[1]
Estonia	-8.7[1]	-7.5[1]
France	-15.7[1]	-6.4[1]
Germany	-3.4	-1.9
Ireland	4.6	-5.0[1]
Italy	25.6	1.6
Netherlands	-19.4[1]	-14.3[1]
Norway	-9.9	-3.5
Slovak Republic	-0.1	-2.1
Spain	-7.0	-3.8
Sweden	-13.3	-2.7
United States	-11.7	7.0[1]
Belgium	-25.7[1]	-4.1
United Kingdom	-1.1	-2.9

1. Results significant at a 5% level. The coefficients are obtained from separate linear probability models which include controls for literacy score and fixed effects for 5-year age groups, gender and education level. The sample excludes the persons in education.

Source: Survey of Adult Skills (PIAAC) 2012.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933157903

Table 2.A1.8. **Probability of being employed and over-qualified, tertiary-educated foreign-born, 2012**

Percentage points

	Probability of being employed of the highly educated foreign-born aged 16 to 64	Risk of being over-qualified of the highly educated employed foreign-born aged 16 to 64
	Association with foreign qualifications	
Austria	5.2	28.2[1]
Belgium	6.4	0.8
Canada	0.4	12.9[1]
Czech Republic	-0.3	-3.0
Denmark	2.3	14.0[1]
Estonia	12.4[1]	14.8
Finland	-16.0	5.6
France	0.4	13.9
Germany	8.6	14.4
Ireland	-4.4	5.5
Italy	0.3	31.3
Netherlands	-21.9[1]	25.4[1]
Norway	8.0	3.5
Spain	-26.8[1]	21.6
Sweden	8.0	34.8[1]
United Kingdom	-13.8[1]	2.4
United States	0.0	8.9

1. Results significant at a 5% level. The coefficients are obtained from separate linear probability models which include controls for literacy score and fixed effects for 5-year age groups, gender and years of residence. The sample excludes the persons in education.

Source: Survey of Adult Skills (PIAAC) 2012.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933157913

Table 2.A1.9. **Overview and timeline of possible integration measures for adult immigrants**

Phase	Abroad	Orientation	Settlement	Participation
Duration	6 months prior to departure.	Arrival to six months of residence.	6 months to 3 years.	After 3-5 years of residence.
Location	Countries of origin and residence.	One-stop shop (per area/region).	General and specific service-provider.	General service-provider.
Securing future in country	• Information/tools on where to settle in the country of residence.	• Equivalence of country of origin/identity documentation. • Advice on area of residence/housing.	• Renewal of residence and path to long-term residence. • Promote early family reunification.	• Goal: Secure access to quality housing. • Goal: Path to naturalisation.
Learning the language of the country	• Free/online language courses for immigrants with a secured visa.	• Right to language assessment. • Free courses tracked by education level, flexible for workers and parents.	• Shift to job-specific/based course. • Certification by professional.	• Goal: Fluency commensurate with level of education.
Developing and activating job-specific skills	• Free information and advise for newcomers on job shortages and job-hunting advice.	• Short orientation course/session. • Assessment of skills and information on specific training options. • Early, intensive, and individualised support by public/temp emp. agency.	• Any necessary job training. • Equal uptake of effective ALMPs (work placement/wage subsidies). • Volunteer mentoring networks. • Entrepreneurs orientation/loans.	• Goal: All newcomers have job-specific skills and network. • Goal: Employment, over-qualification and in-work poverty rate similar to rate for native-born in similar circumstances.
Recognising the qualifications of high-educated immigrants	• Obtain diploma (and official information on equivalence from country of origin).	• Start recognition procedure; right to assessment of foreign qualifications.	• Partial recognition → Bridging programme (e.g. on the job). • No recognition → Support for training or equivalent qualification.	• Goal: Fully recognised or bridged country of origin qualifications or equivalent qualification in country of residence.

Table 2.A1.10. **Overview and timeline of possible integration measures for children of immigrants**

Phase	Orientation for newcomers	Pre-primary and compulsory	Transition-to-work
Duration	Arrival to six months in country.	Until age of compulsory education.	Young adulthood.
Location	Schools with support of one-stop shop (per area/region).	School system and local community.	General service-providers.
Specific policy in school	• Obtain documentation from country of origin required for school. • Assessment by experts of new pupils' prior learning/language skills. • Orientation programme with intensive language support until basic communicative fluency.	• Goal: Near-universal early uptake of early childhood education and care. • Early literacy intervention for all and right to extra language hours until academic fluency and academic support hours to catch-up. • Intercultural approach across school and autonomy to adapt curriculum. • Goal: Equal uptake of mentoring programmes and homework centres. • Goal: Equal uptake and success in "second-chance" programmes, academic and vocational tracks compared to children of native-born in similar circumstances.	• Equal uptake and completion of school-to-work and youth employment programmes. • Equal uptake and completion of apprenticeships. • Goal: Youth NEET rate not higher than that of children of native-born.
Specific policy outside of school	• Facilitate family reunification as early as possible. • Language/orientation courses for newcomer parents at child's school. • Access to nationality for foreign- and native-born children.	• Affordable childcare and recreational services during working hours. • Inform parents about school choice options in due time for school enrolment. • Avoid socio-economic concentration in schools. • Outreach to immigrant parents for ECEC, volunteering and school governance. • Support mentoring among immigrant parents and community.	• Support in finding apprenticeships in immigrant-owned enterprises and promotion of apprenticeships among immigrant employers. • Promote greater diversity in education sector.

Table 2.A1.11. **Quarterly employment rates by gender and place of birth in OECD countries, 2009-13**

Percentages

Men + women

		AUS	AUT	BEL	CAN	CHE	CHL	CZE	DEU	DNK	ESP	EST	FIN	FRA	GBR	GRC	HUN	IRL	ISL	ISR	ITA	LUX	MEX	NLD	NOR	NZL	POL	PRT	SVK	SVN	SWE	TUR	USA
Native-born	Q1 2009	73.9	72.4	63.2	71.4	..	..	65.5	72.0	77.1	60.7	64.2	68.6	64.8	71.0	60.5	54.9	62.8	-	57.8	56.8	60.2	59.4	78.8	77.4	75.0	58.9	66.6	61.0	66.9	73.8	41.2	66.5
	Q2 2009	74.0	73.1	63.2	72.9	80.3	..	65.4	72.3	77.2	60.3	63.0	70.0	65.4	70.3	61.0	55.4	62.1	-	57.9	57.3	63.3	59.5	78.7	77.8	74.3	59.3	66.3	60.4	67.8	74.9	44.6	66.5
	Q3 2009	73.8	73.8	63.1	73.1	..	..	65.2	72.5	76.8	60.1	63.3	69.5	65.3	70.4	61.0	55.3	61.9	-	57.2	56.9	62.9	60.0	78.6	76.8	73.6	59.9	65.4	60.1	68.6	74.9	45.8	66.2
	Q4 2009	74.0	73.0	63.4	71.9	..	..	65.3	73.2	75.2	59.5	61.2	67.5	64.5	70.4	60.2	55.3	60.5	-	57.2	56.5	61.0	60.6	78.1	76.4	74.6	59.4	65.5	59.2	67.5	73.3	44.9	65.1
	2009	**73.9**	**73.1**	**63.2**	**72.3**	**..**	**54.2**	**65.4**	**72.5**	**76.6**	**60.1**	**62.9**	**68.9**	**65.0**	**70.5**	**60.7**	**55.2**	**61.8**	**78.4**	**57.5**	**56.9**	**61.9**	**59.9**	**78.6**	**77.1**	**74.4**	**59.4**	**66.0**	**60.2**	**67.7**	**74.2**	**44.1**	**66.1**
	Q1 2010	73.4	71.9	63.6	70.6	80.3	..	64.1	71.8	74.0	58.7	59.0	66.7	64.6	69.7	59.5	54.3	59.7	-	57.5	56.1	60.5	59.4	77.6	75.6	74.1	58.2	65.5	58.0	66.3	73.1	43.6	64.6
	Q2 2010	73.8	72.7	63.1	73.0	79.9	..	64.8	72.4	75.3	59.0	59.9	69.5	65.0	69.9	59.6	55.1	60.4	-	58.7	56.6	60.3	60.4	78.0	76.5	73.5	59.3	65.3	58.6	66.4	75.4	47.3	65.3
	Q3 2010	74.0	73.7	63.6	73.5	80.2	..	65.3	72.7	75.0	59.1	62.6	69.7	65.3	70.5	59.1	55.8	60.5	-	58.7	56.0	62.0	60.0	76.4	76.2	73.8	60.0	65.1	59.2	66.6	76.5	47.4	65.6
	Q4 2010	74.4	73.4	64.2	72.6	80.5	..	65.4	73.2	74.2	58.9	63.7	68.1	64.4	70.2	57.8	55.6	59.6	-	59.1	56.5	59.9	59.2	76.3	76.0	74.0	59.6	64.9	59.3	65.9	75.3	46.4	65.2
	2010	**73.9**	**72.9**	**63.6**	**72.4**	**80.3**	**..**	**64.9**	**72.5**	**74.7**	**58.9**	**61.3**	**68.5**	**64.7**	**70.1**	**59.0**	**55.2**	**60.1**	**78.5**	**58.5**	**56.3**	**60.7**	**59.7**	**76.2**	**76.1**	**73.9**	**59.3**	**65.2**	**58.8**	**66.3**	**75.1**	**46.2**	**65.2**
	Q1 2011	73.8	72.3	63.0	71.3	80.9	..	64.9	72.8	74.3	58.3	63.6	67.6	64.3	69.9	56.6	54.5	58.6	-	59.0	56.1	60.0	59.1	76.0	75.5	73.6	58.9	64.4	59.0	64.0	75.1	46.0	64.6
	Q2 2011	74.0	73.2	64.3	73.5	81.1	..	65.6	73.6	74.9	58.9	64.8	70.4	64.9	69.9	56.0	55.7	59.1	-	59.5	56.5	58.8	59.9	76.5	75.8	73.2	59.7	64.4	59.6	64.6	77.1	49.2	65.1
	Q3 2011	73.8	74.3	63.5	73.9	80.7	..	66.1	74.0	75.2	58.6	67.2	70.7	65.3	70.0	55.1	56.3	58.6	-	59.0	56.3	60.5	60.1	76.8	76.4	73.3	60.2	64.0	59.9	65.4	78.0	49.9	65.4
	Q4 2011	73.9	73.5	64.0	72.6	81.4	..	66.0	74.6	74.5	57.7	65.8	68.9	64.7	70.2	53.3	56.3	59.0	-	59.1	56.4	58.8	61.2	77.0	76.2	73.9	59.9	62.3	59.5	64.7	76.1	48.3	65.3
	2011	**73.9**	**73.3**	**63.7**	**72.8**	**81.0**	**56.8**	**65.7**	**73.8**	**74.7**	**58.4**	**65.3**	**69.4**	**64.8**	**70.0**	**55.2**	**55.7**	**58.8**	**78.7**	**59.2**	**56.3**	**59.5**	**60.1**	**76.6**	**76.0**	**73.5**	**59.7**	**63.8**	**59.5**	**64.7**	**76.6**	**48.4**	**65.1**
	Q1 2012	73.3	72.7	63.5	71.2	80.6	..	65.6	73.3	73.9	56.6	66.0	68.2	64.3	70.1	52.4	55.6	58.3	-	..	56.1	58.8	60.1	76.7	76.2	73.4	59.2	61.7	59.6	64.0	75.4	46.3	64.7
	Q2 2012	73.8	73.7	63.9	73.4	80.5	..	66.5	73.7	74.4	56.6	67.1	70.7	65.0	70.4	51.9	57.0	58.7	-	..	56.6	60.6	61.4	76.8	76.7	72.9	60.0	62.0	59.8	63.8	77.0	49.9	65.7
	Q3 2012	73.6	75.0	64.1	73.7	81.1	..	67.0	74.2	74.4	56.2	68.2	70.9	65.3	71.0	51.0	57.9	59.0	-	..	56.4	62.2	61.5	77.0	76.7	72.4	60.2	61.5	60.1	64.3	78.2	49.9	66.0
	Q4 2012	73.9	73.8	63.8	72.8	81.3	..	67.0	74.4	74.0	55.3	67.4	68.7	64.8	71.4	50.5	57.6	59.3	-	..	56.1	61.3	60.8	76.9	76.2	72.2	60.0	60.1	59.3	64.2	75.9	49.6	65.9
	2012	**73.7**	**73.8**	**63.8**	**72.8**	**80.9**	**..**	**66.5**	**73.9**	**74.2**	**56.2**	**67.2**	**69.6**	**64.9**	**70.8**	**51.4**	**57.0**	**58.9**	**79.8**	**..**	**56.3**	**60.7**	**60.9**	**76.9**	**76.5**	**72.7**	**59.7**	**61.3**	**59.7**	**64.1**	**76.2**	**48.9**	**65.6**
	Q1 2013	73.2	72.5	63.0	71.6	81.3	..	66.8	73.8	73.5	55.0	67.1	67.7	64.6	70.9	49.4	56.3	59.4	-	..	55.1	59.5	60.0	76.3	76.0	..	58.7	59.5	59.8	62.8	75.5	47.9	65.0
	Q2 2013	73.5	73.7	64.1	73.6	80.7	..	67.8	74.4	74.3	55.4	69.1	70.5	65.2	71.0	49.8	58.1	60.2	-	..	55.4	60.4	61.1	76.4	76.5	..	59.8	60.6	59.8	63.2	77.2	50.8	65.9
	Q3 2013	73.3	74.6	64.1	73.9	80.8	..	68.0	74.6	74.4	56.0	69.0	70.3	65.6	71.6	49.7	59.0	60.9	-	..	55.3	59.3	60.9	76.4	76.6	..	60.7	61.4	60.0	64.7	78.7	50.3	66.2
	Q4 2013	73.4	73.9	63.3	73.1	81.9	..	68.2	75.0	73.6	55.8	68.6	68.2	65.1	71.8	48.9	59.5	61.4	-	..	55.3	61.9	61.6	76.1	75.9	..	60.8	61.9	59.8	63.5	77.2	49.2	65.8
	2013	**73.3**	**73.7**	**63.6**	**73.1**	**81.2**	**..**	**67.7**	**74.4**	**73.9**	**55.6**	**68.5**	**69.2**	**65.1**	**71.3**	**49.4**	**58.2**	**60.5**	**81.2**	**..**	**55.3**	**60.3**	**60.9**	**76.3**	**76.3**	**..**	**60.0**	**60.9**	**59.8**	**63.5**	**77.2**	**49.6**	**65.7**
Foreign-born	Q1 2009	67.8	63.4	53.3	68.3	..	..	66.3	63.1	67.7	58.7	73.2	64.8	58.4	67.0	65.0	64.8	62.9	-	63.6	62.9	69.6	46.4	67.8	70.5	69.4	43.4	71.0	64.9	64.7	62.2	46.2	67.3
	Q2 2009	67.0	64.8	51.4	68.4	75.7	..	66.9	63.4	67.0	58.3	69.4	64.5	58.2	65.5	66.3	66.0	62.9	-	62.9	63.5	68.6	50.3	65.9	71.0	69.6	44.4	71.3	61.4	66.1	61.9	48.2	68.3
	Q3 2009	66.8	65.1	51.4	68.4	..	..	65.1	63.7	71.8	58.2	64.0	64.1	57.7	66.0	67.1	65.3	61.5	-	64.4	62.6	69.4	49.5	66.6	70.5	68.1	43.1	69.0	56.6	66.0	62.8	47.5	67.9
	Q4 2009	67.6	65.5	52.6	68.8	..	..	64.9	64.0	65.6	56.8	65.1	61.8	56.9	65.5	65.6	65.8	60.7	-	63.8	62.3	69.6	46.8	66.0	68.9	68.2	52.6	68.0	58.1	67.4	61.5	47.2	67.4
	2009	**67.3**	**64.7**	**52.2**	**68.5**	**..**	**64.7**	**65.8**	**63.5**	**68.1**	**58.0**	**67.8**	**63.8**	**57.8**	**66.0**	**66.0**	**65.5**	**62.0**	**77.2**	**63.7**	**62.8**	**69.3**	**48.2**	**66.6**	**70.2**	**68.8**	**45.7**	**69.8**	**60.6**	**66.1**	**62.1**	**47.2**	**67.7**
	Q1 2010	67.9	64.5	51.8	67.9	72.3	..	65.5	62.7	64.1	56.4	57.8	61.6	56.9	65.0	64.4	64.3	59.7	-	63.2	61.4	70.1	48.4	64.6	69.4	68.1	47.3	68.8	55.9	66.8	60.6	47.9	66.1
	Q2 2010	67.7	65.6	52.5	69.0	75.3	..	67.5	64.2	63.6	56.8	56.6	61.9	58.4	66.0	64.3	66.2	60.4	-	65.3	62.6	69.8	48.3	65.4	69.1	67.8	49.1	69.5	56.2	67.1	60.9	49.6	68.8
	Q3 2010	68.5	67.4	53.2	69.3	75.8	..	69.8	65.3	63.8	57.8	58.8	59.5	58.1	67.1	64.9	67.1	59.4	-	65.3	62.5	71.1	49.8	65.0	68.6	68.0	54.7	69.3	55.9	63.1	62.5	49.7	68.2
	Q4 2010	69.9	67.6	54.5	68.8	74.9	..	69.8	64.2	62.2	56.3	63.4	59.0	57.8	66.6	62.4	64.2	58.5	-	64.9	61.0	71.7	50.4	65.2	68.5	69.3	53.0	68.7	57.9	64.1	61.4	50.9	67.4
	2010	**68.5**	**66.3**	**53.0**	**68.8**	**74.6**	**..**	**68.1**	**64.1**	**63.4**	**56.8**	**59.2**	**60.5**	**57.7**	**66.2**	**64.0**	**65.5**	**59.5**	**74.8**	**64.7**	**61.9**	**70.7**	**49.2**	**64.4**	**68.9**	**68.3**	**50.7**	**69.1**	**56.5**	**65.3**	**61.3**	**49.5**	**67.6**
	Q1 2011	69.9	65.6	52.4	67.8	74.0	..	68.5	65.0	59.7	54.6	61.0	57.5	57.6	66.6	59.6	61.1	57.8	-	64.9	61.5	72.3	50.2	64.1	68.2	70.1	54.2	66.8	58.7	61.7	61.3	49.4	66.7
	Q2 2011	69.6	67.1	52.9	69.0	75.7	..	67.9	66.9	61.6	55.7	60.7	62.6	58.4	66.7	60.5	60.9	59.4	-	66.4	63.0	69.4	52.1	62.7	70.7	70.2	55.8	69.2	59.0	63.1	62.1	49.8	67.8
	Q3 2011	69.9	67.2	52.0	69.5	76.1	..	67.1	67.1	63.4	54.5	67.4	61.8	57.7	66.8	58.2	63.2	59.7	-	66.0	61.5	70.0	54.9	63.1	71.4	69.6	56.6	69.6	-	61.6	63.5	49.0	67.5
	Q4 2011	69.7	66.8	53.0	69.0	76.1	..	67.9	66.9	61.8	52.7	66.2	62.8	56.3	65.9	55.3	62.9	58.9	-	65.8	60.1	69.7	54.4	64.4	70.4	70.8	55.1	69.2	61.3	61.2	63.3	50.5	68.2
	2011	**69.8**	**66.7**	**52.6**	**68.8**	**75.5**	**68.1**	**67.8**	**66.5**	**61.7**	**54.4**	**63.9**	**61.1**	**57.5**	**66.5**	**58.4**	**62.1**	**59.0**	**76.3**	**65.8**	**61.5**	**70.3**	**52.9**	**63.6**	**70.2**	**70.2**	**55.3**	**68.7**	**59.7**	**61.9**	**62.6**	**49.7**	**67.5**
	Q1 2012	69.9	65.8	51.8	68.5	75.4	..	66.3	66.3	60.8	51.4	66.1	61.7	56.8	65.2	51.3	61.6	58.1	-	..	59.5	70.8	52.1	63.5	69.3	71.0	58.5	67.7	60.7	63.5	62.2	45.2	67.0
	Q2 2012	69.9	67.5	51.7	70.2	76.4	..	66.6	67.9	60.9	51.9	67.4	64.7	57.4	66.6	50.0	65.4	59.3	-	..	61.1	71.4	53.6	63.8	72.4	70.5	63.2	67.9	63.0	63.5	63.8	45.2	67.9
	Q3 2012	69.8	67.4	52.1	70.8	76.8	..	68.0	68.0	61.9	52.6	67.3	65.5	58.1	67.5	50.6	68.5	59.0	-	..	60.4	71.3	53.2	64.6	71.9	70.3	66.1	66.8	62.9	64.3	63.7	48.1	68.0
	Q4 2012	69.9	66.1	52.3	70.8	75.9	..	68.0	68.0	61.0	51.2	66.0	63.4	57.3	67.5	47.9	70.1	59.0	-	..	59.5	71.9	55.8	62.8	70.0	70.6	61.3	63.9	67.4	64.2	62.6	47.0	67.8
	2012	**69.9**	**66.7**	**52.0**	**70.1**	**76.1**	**..**	**67.3**	**67.5**	**61.1**	**51.8**	**66.7**	**63.8**	**57.4**	**66.7**	**49.9**	**66.5**	**58.8**	**79.0**	**..**	**60.1**	**71.3**	**53.6**	**63.6**	**70.9**	**70.6**	**61.9**	**66.6**	**63.7**	**63.9**	**62.8**	**46.4**	**67.7**
	Q1 2013	70.0	64.9	53.0	69.7	75.0	..	67.6	66.9	61.9	50.0	69.8	62.0	56.0	66.9	46.2	68.3	58.7	-	..	58.2	71.5	54.7	61.4	68.8	..	60.0	61.9	-	57.4	61.7	46.4	67.4
	Q2 2013	70.1	66.9	51.8	71.1	76.3	..	69.9	67.8	63.6	51.1	71.3	65.8	57.3	67.3	47.8	68.1	60.2	-	..	57.8	70.5	53.3	61.3	70.2	..	59.6	62.4	64.5	61.0	63.6	48.1	68.7
	Q3 2013	69.6	67.9	53.3	71.5	76.0	..	70.6	68.6	63.4	50.8	67.2	63.4	57.7	68.3	49.0	66.7	61.7	-	..	57.9	73.6	55.5	61.8	71.1	..	59.5	63.3	64.4	62.8	63.5	47.0	69.0
	Q4 2013	69.4	66.0	52.8	69.7	76.3	..	71.1	67.7	62.7	51.0	65.5	62.5	57.2	68.7	49.0	68.4	61.6	-	..	58.0	70.6	52.6	62.2	70.9	..	58.0	63.5	67.6	60.8	62.5	44.7	68.4
	2013	**69.8**	**66.4**	**52.7**	**70.5**	**75.9**	**..**	**69.8**	**67.8**	**62.9**	**50.7**	**68.4**	**63.4**	**57.1**	**67.8**	**48.0**	**67.9**	**60.5**	**79.9**	**..**	**58.0**	**71.5**	**54.0**	**61.7**	**70.3**	**..**	**59.2**	**62.8**	**66.4**	**60.5**	**62.9**	**46.5**	**68.4**

Table 2.A1.11. **Quarterly employment rates by gender and place of birth in OECD countries, 2009-13** *(cont.)*

Percentages

Men

		AUS	AUT	BEL	CAN	CHE	CHL	CZE	DEU	DNK	ESP	EST	FIN	FRA	GBR	GRC	HUN	IRL	ISL	ISR	ITA	LUX	MEX	NLD	NOR	NZL	POL	PRT	SVK	SVN	SWE	TUR	USA
Native-born	Q1 2009	79.0	76.5	68.4	72.3	..	..	74.2	76.0	79.5	68.7	65.0	69.2	68.8	75.5	72.6	60.5	67.4	-	60.6	67.6	67.3	78.1	83.8	79.0	80.1	65.7	71.7	68.6	69.8	75.1	61.6	69.3
	Q2 2009	78.7	77.7	67.8	74.5	84.5	..	73.9	76.1	79.4	67.9	62.8	70.6	69.2	74.6	73.1	61.3	66.3	-	60.9	68.1	71.1	77.7	83.9	79.8	80.0	66.1	71.2	68.0	71.4	76.0	64.8	69.5
	Q3 2009	78.6	78.6	67.9	75.8	..	..	73.7	76.6	79.1	67.5	65.4	70.6	69.1	74.6	73.1	61.0	66.0	-	60.4	67.9	70.0	77.9	83.6	78.7	78.2	66.9	70.2	67.4	71.9	76.3	66.7	69.8
	Q4 2009	78.9	78.2	68.5	73.4	..	..	73.6	76.9	77.3	66.6	60.8	67.9	68.2	74.6	72.0	60.8	64.2	-	59.8	67.3	68.4	78.4	82.8	77.8	79.7	65.9	70.0	66.1	71.1	74.8	65.5	68.0
	2009	**78.8**	**77.7**	**68.1**	**74.0**	**..**	**68.8**	**73.8**	**76.4**	**78.8**	**67.7**	**63.5**	**69.6**	**68.8**	**74.8**	**72.7**	**60.9**	**66.0**	**80.3**	**60.4**	**67.7**	**69.2**	**78.0**	**83.5**	**78.8**	**79.5**	**66.2**	**70.8**	**67.5**	**71.0**	**75.6**	**64.6**	**69.1**
	Q1 2010	78.6	76.0	68.3	71.4	85.2	..	72.2	75.8	75.3	65.5	56.7	67.2	68.1	73.6	71.1	59.0	63.2	-	60.6	66.8	67.6	77.6	82.0	77.2	79.2	64.3	70.0	64.3	69.8	74.4	63.7	67.0
	Q2 2010	79.0	78.0	68.3	74.8	85.1	..	73.3	76.5	76.6	65.9	58.7	70.4	68.5	74.3	70.9	60.2	64.1	-	62.0	67.0	67.6	78.5	82.4	78.1	78.6	65.5	69.6	65.2	68.9	76.9	67.8	68.5
	Q3 2010	79.3	78.8	68.6	76.4	85.1	..	74.1	77.0	77.5	66.0	65.1	71.4	68.9	75.2	70.3	61.0	64.4	-	62.0	66.4	70.5	78.2	81.4	78.2	79.4	66.6	69.7	65.5	70.3	78.2	68.3	69.2
	Q4 2010	79.9	78.7	68.7	74.5	85.6	..	73.9	77.4	77.2	65.1	66.0	69.1	68.3	74.7	68.6	60.7	63.0	-	61.5	66.7	67.7	77.3	81.1	77.8	79.2	66.2	69.5	65.7	69.3	76.9	67.2	68.2
	2010	**79.2**	**77.9**	**68.5**	**74.3**	**85.3**	**..**	**73.4**	**76.7**	**76.6**	**65.6**	**61.6**	**69.5**	**68.4**	**74.5**	**70.2**	**60.2**	**63.7**	**80.6**	**61.5**	**66.7**	**68.4**	**77.9**	**81.2**	**77.8**	**79.1**	**65.6**	**69.7**	**65.2**	**69.6**	**76.6**	**66.7**	**68.2**
	Q1 2011	79.2	76.8	67.5	72.6	85.7	..	72.9	76.7	76.5	64.6	65.7	68.8	68.1	74.1	67.0	59.5	62.1	-	61.6	66.3	67.5	77.3	80.6	76.8	78.6	65.1	68.6	65.5	67.2	76.4	66.7	67.2
	Q2 2011	79.1	78.4	69.1	75.5	85.6	..	74.0	77.5	77.0	64.8	66.6	72.0	68.7	74.2	66.6	61.0	62.4	-	62.8	66.6	65.6	77.8	80.9	77.3	78.5	66.4	68.4	66.4	67.3	78.5	69.9	68.4
	Q3 2011	78.5	79.4	67.4	77.1	86.0	..	74.4	78.0	77.7	64.8	69.7	72.1	69.1	74.4	65.4	61.8	62.2	-	63.0	66.7	66.0	78.2	81.4	78.3	78.6	67.3	68.5	66.7	68.5	79.3	71.3	69.2
	Q4 2011	78.9	78.8	68.7	74.7	86.0	..	74.2	78.7	77.0	63.3	67.7	70.1	68.2	74.5	63.0	61.8	62.5	-	62.0	66.2	64.4	78.6	81.5	78.0	78.9	66.7	66.1	66.4	67.5	77.5	69.5	68.8
	2011	**78.9**	**73.3**	**68.2**	**75.0**	**81.0**	**70.7**	**65.7**	**73.8**	**74.7**	**58.4**	**65.3**	**69.4**	**64.8**	**70.0**	**55.2**	**55.7**	**58.8**	**78.7**	**62.3**	**56.3**	**59.5**	**78.0**	**76.6**	**76.0**	**78.7**	**59.7**	**63.8**	**59.5**	**64.7**	**76.6**	**48.4**	**68.4**
	Q1 2012	78.3	76.9	68.1	72.5	85.2	..	73.5	77.1	75.8	61.8	67.6	68.9	67.7	74.1	61.9	60.7	61.8	-	..	65.5	63.9	77.8	81.0	77.8	78.8	65.4	65.1	66.4	66.1	76.4	66.1	68.0
	Q2 2012	78.6	78.6	68.8	75.7	85.3	..	74.5	77.7	76.3	61.6	68.3	71.8	68.4	74.7	61.4	62.1	62.0	-	..	65.9	66.9	79.0	81.2	78.2	77.9	66.7	65.3	66.6	66.5	78.0	70.0	69.4
	Q3 2012	78.1	79.6	68.4	76.9	85.9	..	75.1	78.3	76.5	61.5	71.6	71.9	68.8	75.4	60.5	63.3	62.8	-	..	66.2	66.8	79.2	81.1	78.4	77.0	67.1	64.6	67.2	67.8	79.4	70.7	70.2
	Q4 2012	78.8	78.4	67.5	74.9	86.2	..	74.8	78.4	76.6	60.3	70.9	69.9	68.0	75.5	59.7	63.1	62.6	-	..	65.4	67.6	78.3	80.8	77.5	77.4	66.6	63.3	66.4	67.6	77.2	70.0	69.7
	2012	**78.4**	**78.4**	**68.2**	**75.0**	**85.6**	**..**	**74.5**	**77.9**	**76.3**	**61.3**	**69.6**	**70.6**	**68.3**	**75.0**	**60.9**	**62.3**	**62.3**	**81.4**	**..**	**65.8**	**66.3**	**78.6**	**81.0**	**78.0**	**77.8**	**66.3**	**64.6**	**66.7**	**67.0**	**77.4**	**69.2**	**69.3**
	Q1 2013	78.1	76.2	67.0	72.9	85.5	..	74.5	77.1	76.0	59.6	69.9	67.9	67.6	74.8	58.4	61.2	63.3	-	..	64.1	64.0	77.7	79.8	77.1	..	65.2	62.4	66.5	65.7	76.7	67.5	68.5
	Q2 2013	78.2	77.6	68.7	75.6	84.9	..	75.6	78.0	76.3	60.1	71.6	71.4	68.3	75.0	59.0	64.0	64.0	-	..	64.3	64.8	78.3	80.1	78.0	..	66.5	63.6	66.6	66.2	78.2	70.6	69.5
	Q3 2013	78.0	78.6	67.4	76.9	85.0	..	76.0	78.2	75.9	61.0	72.4	71.8	68.7	75.8	59.0	65.2	65.1	-	..	64.6	66.1	78.3	80.3	78.3	..	67.5	64.7	66.5	68.0	80.1	70.8	70.1
	Q4 2013	78.0	78.3	67.1	75.1	85.5	..	76.0	78.6	75.8	60.5	71.2	68.8	67.9	76.0	58.1	65.4	65.9	-	..	64.3	66.6	79.0	80.1	77.1	..	67.2	65.0	65.7	66.8	78.2	69.3	69.2
	2013	**78.1**	**77.7**	**67.5**	**75.1**	**85.2**	**..**	**75.5**	**78.0**	**76.0**	**60.3**	**71.3**	**70.0**	**68.1**	**75.4**	**58.6**	**64.0**	**64.6**	**83.2**	**..**	**64.3**	**65.3**	**78.3**	**80.1**	**77.6**	**..**	**66.6**	**63.9**	**66.3**	**66.6**	**78.3**	**69.6**	**69.3**
Foreign-born	Q1 2009	75.5	70.0	62.1	73.8	..	..	73.9	71.5	73.3	62.6	75.6	68.6	66.2	76.9	80.3	75.6	69.5	-	69.2	77.8	76.4	62.9	76.1	72.6	77.2	46.2	76.1	75.7	67.9	66.8	59.8	76.7
	Q2 2009	74.7	72.4	61.3	73.6	84.1	..	74.2	71.1	70.0	61.8	74.9	67.9	65.4	74.6	80.9	75.7	68.8	-	69.0	77.9	79.0	65.5	74.5	75.2	77.2	52.9	75.7	71.6	71.4	66.3	63.3	78.8
	Q3 2009	74.8	74.1	61.7	74.0	..	..	74.8	72.3	76.8	60.7	63.3	68.5	65.9	75.2	81.3	71.2	66.7	-	69.2	77.5	78.8	65.2	74.8	74.0	74.7	53.8	73.5	67.7	71.3	67.5	62.4	77.8
	Q4 2009	75.6	73.4	60.4	74.1	..	..	75.4	71.9	74.0	59.4	61.0	65.7	64.6	73.7	79.3	73.0	65.8	-	67.8	76.0	78.2	67.6	73.7	74.0	75.3	66.2	73.7	73.7	72.7	66.1	62.6	76.6
	2009	**75.1**	**72.5**	**61.4**	**73.9**	**..**	**73.4**	**74.6**	**71.7**	**73.5**	**61.1**	**68.8**	**67.7**	**65.5**	**75.1**	**80.5**	**74.0**	**67.7**	**76.5**	**68.8**	**77.3**	**78.1**	**65.4**	**74.8**	**74.0**	**76.1**	**54.2**	**74.8**	**72.4**	**70.9**	**66.7**	**61.9**	**77.5**
	Q1 2010	76.7	70.7	58.7	72.6	82.7	..	76.1	71.1	72.1	58.5	55.3	66.3	64.9	72.9	77.6	69.4	64.8	-	67.0	74.5	78.3	64.4	71.3	73.0	76.1	60.1	73.5	74.8	71.2	65.9	61.5	75.2
	Q2 2010	76.2	73.3	61.6	74.3	79.7	..	78.9	72.7	66.0	60.0	57.6	68.6	67.0	74.2	76.6	67.9	66.3	-	70.4	76.4	77.4	65.9	72.2	73.4	75.0	60.8	75.0	74.3	70.5	66.8	64.3	78.8
	Q3 2010	76.7	75.0	62.1	75.7	84.0	..	81.3	74.2	65.3	61.5	59.7	65.0	67.3	76.1	77.4	69.0	65.1	-	70.5	78.1	79.7	69.1	72.5	72.3	75.5	55.4	74.8	74.9	69.9	68.3	66.1	78.7
	Q4 2010	78.2	75.1	63.4	75.4	83.0	..	80.5	73.3	67.6	60.1	70.4	65.1	66.4	76.1	75.3	70.3	63.8	-	69.4	75.3	80.1	70.4	73.2	72.3	76.5	60.1	73.7	73.8	69.4	68.0	66.3	76.8
	2010	**77.0**	**73.5**	**61.4**	**74.5**	**82.8**	**..**	**79.1**	**72.9**	**67.6**	**60.0**	**60.8**	**66.2**	**66.4**	**74.8**	**76.7**	**69.2**	**65.0**	**74.6**	**69.3**	**76.1**	**78.9**	**67.4**	**71.7**	**72.7**	**75.7**	**59.3**	**74.3**	**74.5**	**70.3**	**67.3**	**64.5**	**77.4**
	Q1 2011	78.7	72.4	60.9	73.7	82.4	..	80.7	74.0	63.2	58.2	68.0	64.3	65.7	75.5	71.7	67.0	62.2	-	68.9	74.4	80.5	67.9	70.5	70.8	77.8	59.6	69.4	71.6	66.7	66.7	64.6	76.7
	Q2 2011	77.8	76.1	60.4	75.6	84.4	..	80.5	75.8	66.4	58.6	64.6	68.1	66.3	75.7	71.8	69.7	64.1	-	71.6	77.7	77.3	68.7	69.8	74.5	76.0	58.7	71.0	75.2	69.8	67.6	67.1	78.5
	Q3 2011	78.2	76.4	61.9	76.0	85.4	..	79.7	75.8	67.7	57.7	73.4	66.6	66.2	75.5	70.2	75.2	65.3	-	71.6	76.3	79.4	67.0	71.1	75.1	76.4	63.6	71.5	76.0	69.2	69.3	65.4	78.4
	Q4 2011	77.8	75.0	62.1	75.2	84.7	..	80.0	76.6	67.0	56.3	72.1	68.2	64.5	75.1	66.0	72.1	64.1	-	71.1	73.8	78.6	65.1	71.9	73.6	77.2	69.9	71.0	70.6	68.3	68.5	66.5	78.6
	2011	**78.1**	**75.0**	**61.3**	**75.1**	**84.2**	**79.3**	**80.2**	**75.6**	**66.1**	**57.7**	**69.6**	**66.8**	**65.7**	**75.5**	**70.0**	**71.1**	**63.9**	**77.9**	**70.8**	**75.6**	**78.9**	**67.2**	**70.8**	**73.5**	**76.8**	**62.7**	**70.7**	**73.3**	**68.4**	**68.0**	**65.9**	**78.1**
	Q1 2012	78.9	73.3	60.6	74.6	83.0	..	77.8	75.6	66.1	54.1	68.8	67.3	64.2	75.5	61.4	69.8	62.4	-	..	71.9	79.2	62.2	71.6	72.5	78.4	-	70.1	-	70.7	66.5	61.5	77.2
	Q2 2012	78.5	76.2	60.1	76.1	84.6	..	77.9	76.5	65.0	54.6	73.2	69.4	65.8	77.2	58.2	71.5	64.3	-	..	73.6	79.4	64.1	71.5	75.9	76.2	67.9	68.8	-	71.4	69.2	60.1	78.7
	Q3 2012	78.0	77.3	59.4	77.1	85.3	..	81.5	77.2	65.7	55.3	72.8	71.0	67.0	78.0	58.7	76.8	64.7	-	..	73.1	78.9	62.9	71.5	76.3	75.9	76.5	68.9	67.4	70.5	68.7	70.0	79.4
	Q4 2012	78.5	74.0	59.8	76.8	83.5	..	80.8	76.8	67.5	53.8	68.3	67.6	66.8	76.9	54.9	76.6	65.4	-	..	70.7	79.2	66.9	69.9	75.8	76.9	74.9	66.1	-	73.0	67.6	63.8	78.6
	2012	**78.5**	**75.2**	**60.0**	**76.1**	**84.1**	**..**	**79.5**	**76.5**	**66.1**	**54.4**	**70.7**	**68.9**	**66.0**	**76.9**	**58.4**	**73.8**	**64.2**	**82.1**	**..**	**72.3**	**79.2**	**64.0**	**71.1**	**75.2**	**76.8**	**71.1**	**68.5**	**68.4**	**71.4**	**67.5**	**64.0**	**78.5**
	Q1 2013	78.4	71.9	60.1	75.1	82.1	..	79.3	75.3	66.3	51.7	70.9	67.7	65.0	75.3	53.8	75.6	64.5	-	..	68.2	79.2	67.0	69.6	74.4	..	72.8	63.7	75.8	69.6	66.3	61.2	78.1
	Q2 2013	78.3	75.7	60.0	77.3	83.4	..	80.4	76.7	67.5	54.1	79.2	70.2	66.5	76.0	56.0	81.0	67.1	-	..	68.2	77.1	68.8	68.6	74.7	..	68.9	64.9	70.7	70.1	67.9	65.9	80.2
	Q3 2013	77.2	76.4	61.2	78.1	83.3	..	81.5	77.4	67.2	52.8	71.6	69.6	67.7	78.5	58.3	79.7	68.9	-	..	69.0	81.2	70.1	67.6	75.2	..	70.6	63.9	68.7	74.1	68.2	65.0	80.4
	Q4 2013	77.3	73.7	60.8	75.4	84.6	..	81.3	76.9	68.1	54.3	66.1	68.1	66.4	78.1	58.5	80.8	68.9	-	..	68.4	80.0	67.1	69.4	75.7	..	65.7	64.9	75.4	71.0	67.1	63.5	79.8
	2013	**77.8**	**74.4**	**60.5**	**76.5**	**83.3**	**..**	**80.6**	**76.5**	**67.3**	**53.2**	**71.9**	**68.9**	**66.4**	**77.0**	**56.6**	**79.2**	**67.4**	**82.7**	**..**	**68.5**	**79.4**	**68.2**	**68.8**	**75.0**	**..**	**69.5**	**64.3**	**72.5**	**71.3**	**67.4**	**63.9**	**79.6**

Table 2.A1.11. **Quarterly employment rates by gender and place of birth in OECD countries, 2009-13** *(cont.)*

Percentages

Women

		AUS	AUT	BEL	CAN	CHE	CHL	CZE	DEU	DNK	ESP	EST	FIN	FRA	GBR	GRC	HUN	IRL	ISL	ISR	ITA	LUX	MEX	NLD	NOR	NZL	POL	PRT	SVK	SVN	SWE	TUR	USA
Native-born	Q1 2009	68.7	68.2	57.9	70.4	..	..	56.7	67.9	74.6	52.4	63.5	68.1	61.0	66.5	48.5	49.5	58.1	-	54.9	46.0	53.1	42.5	73.8	75.7	70.1	52.3	61.6	53.3	63.8	72.5	21.5	63.8
	Q2 2009	69.4	68.5	58.5	71.4	75.9	..	56.7	68.5	74.9	52.4	63.1	69.3	61.7	66.0	49.0	49.7	57.8	-	55.0	46.4	55.3	43.0	73.5	75.7	68.9	52.7	61.3	52.8	64.0	73.7	24.9	63.6
	Q3 2009	68.9	69.0	58.3	70.5	..	..	56.6	68.3	74.5	52.4	61.3	68.4	61.7	66.3	48.9	49.7	57.8	-	53.8	45.6	55.4	44.0	73.4	74.9	69.1	53.1	60.7	52.8	65.0	73.4	25.4	62.8
	Q4 2009	69.0	67.7	58.2	70.5	..	..	56.7	69.4	73.0	52.2	61.5	67.1	60.8	66.3	48.3	50.0	56.9	-	54.5	45.6	53.5	44.5	73.3	74.9	69.8	53.0	61.1	52.3	63.7	71.7	24.8	62.4
	2009	**69.0**	**68.4**	**58.2**	**70.7**	**..**	**40.9**	**56.7**	**68.5**	**74.3**	**52.3**	**62.4**	**68.2**	**61.3**	**66.3**	**48.7**	**49.7**	**57.6**	**76.4**	**54.5**	**45.9**	**54.4**	**43.5**	**73.5**	**75.3**	**69.5**	**52.8**	**61.2**	**52.8**	**64.1**	**72.8**	**24.2**	**63.2**
	Q1 2010	68.1	67.6	58.9	69.8	75.5	..	55.8	67.7	72.7	51.8	61.1	66.2	61.2	65.7	47.9	49.8	56.2	-	54.3	45.2	53.1	42.9	73.1	74.1	69.2	52.3	61.1	51.7	62.6	71.7	24.2	62.3
	Q2 2010	68.6	67.4	57.7	71.2	74.6	..	56.2	68.1	74.0	51.8	61.0	68.6	61.5	65.5	48.3	50.3	56.8	-	55.4	46.0	53.2	43.9	73.6	74.7	68.7	53.3	61.1	52.1	63.7	73.8	27.3	62.3
	Q3 2010	68.6	68.6	58.6	70.5	74.8	..	56.4	68.3	72.5	52.0	60.2	68.1	61.8	65.8	47.9	50.7	56.5	-	55.4	45.4	53.3	43.5	71.2	74.2	68.5	53.6	60.5	52.9	62.6	74.8	27.0	62.1
	Q4 2010	68.9	68.0	59.5	70.6	75.3	..	56.8	69.0	71.1	52.4	61.5	67.0	60.5	65.6	46.9	50.6	56.2	-	56.7	46.2	51.4	42.7	71.4	74.1	68.9	53.1	60.3	53.0	62.4	73.7	26.1	62.2
	2010	**68.5**	**67.9**	**58.7**	**70.5**	**75.1**	**..**	**56.3**	**68.3**	**72.6**	**52.0**	**61.0**	**67.5**	**61.1**	**65.7**	**47.8**	**50.4**	**56.4**	**76.4**	**55.5**	**45.7**	**52.8**	**43.2**	**71.1**	**74.3**	**68.8**	**53.1**	**60.8**	**52.4**	**62.8**	**73.5**	**26.1**	**62.2**
	Q1 2011	68.2	67.7	58.4	70.0	75.9	..	56.7	68.8	71.9	51.9	61.6	66.4	60.5	65.7	46.0	49.7	55.2	-	56.3	45.9	52.4	42.5	71.2	74.2	68.7	52.8	60.2	52.5	60.6	73.7	25.9	62.0
	Q2 2011	68.9	67.9	59.4	71.4	76.4	..	57.2	69.6	72.8	52.8	63.1	68.8	61.2	65.5	45.3	50.5	55.8	-	56.2	46.2	51.8	43.5	72.0	74.4	68.1	53.2	60.5	52.8	61.7	75.6	29.0	61.9
	Q3 2011	69.1	69.1	59.5	70.6	75.2	..	57.6	69.9	72.7	52.3	64.8	69.2	61.6	65.6	44.8	50.8	55.0	-	54.9	45.7	54.7	43.6	72.1	74.3	68.1	53.2	59.5	53.0	62.2	76.6	28.9	61.7
	Q4 2011	69.0	68.1	59.3	70.4	76.6	..	57.8	70.5	71.8	51.8	64.0	67.7	61.3	66.0	43.5	51.0	55.6	-	56.1	46.6	53.1	45.4	72.4	74.2	69.1	53.3	58.6	52.5	61.9	74.7	27.6	61.9
	2011	**68.8**	**73.3**	**63.7**	**70.6**	**81.0**	**44.1**	**65.7**	**73.8**	**74.7**	**58.4**	**65.3**	**69.4**	**64.8**	**70.0**	**55.2**	**55.7**	**58.8**	**78.7**	**55.9**	**56.3**	**59.5**	**43.7**	**76.6**	**76.0**	**68.5**	**59.7**	**63.8**	**59.5**	**64.7**	**76.6**	**48.4**	**61.9**
	Q1 2012	68.4	68.4	58.8	69.9	75.9	..	57.5	69.4	71.9	51.3	64.4	67.5	61.0	66.1	42.7	50.7	54.9	-	..	46.6	53.4	43.9	72.3	74.5	68.2	53.0	58.4	52.7	61.9	74.3	26.5	61.6
	Q2 2012	69.0	68.8	58.9	71.2	75.7	..	58.2	69.7	72.5	51.3	65.9	69.5	61.7	66.2	42.3	52.0	55.4	-	..	47.1	54.0	45.4	72.4	75.1	68.1	53.5	58.6	52.9	60.9	76.0	29.8	62.1
	Q3 2012	68.9	70.2	59.7	70.5	76.3	..	58.7	70.0	72.2	50.7	65.0	69.9	61.9	66.6	41.4	52.8	55.2	-	..	46.4	57.6	45.3	72.7	74.9	68.0	53.4	58.4	52.9	60.7	77.0	29.2	62.0
	Q4 2012	69.0	69.2	60.0	70.7	76.3	..	59.0	70.4	71.3	50.2	64.0	67.6	61.7	67.2	41.2	52.2	56.0	-	..	46.7	54.7	44.9	73.0	74.8	67.2	53.4	57.0	52.2	60.6	74.6	29.1	62.3
	2012	**68.8**	**69.2**	**59.4**	**70.6**	**76.0**	**..**	**58.3**	**69.8**	**72.0**	**50.9**	**64.8**	**68.6**	**61.6**	**66.5**	**41.9**	**51.9**	**55.4**	**78.2**	**..**	**46.7**	**54.9**	**44.9**	**72.6**	**74.8**	**67.9**	**53.1**	**58.1**	**52.7**	**61.0**	**75.0**	**28.7**	**62.0**
	Q1 2013	68.2	68.7	58.9	70.4	77.0	..	58.9	70.4	70.8	50.2	64.4	67.6	61.6	67.0	40.2	51.5	55.6	-	..	46.0	54.7	43.9	72.6	74.8	..	52.3	56.7	53.0	59.9	74.3	28.3	61.6
	Q2 2013	68.8	69.7	59.5	71.6	76.5	..	59.7	70.7	72.2	50.6	66.5	69.6	62.2	66.9	40.4	52.3	56.4	-	..	46.3	55.7	45.4	72.5	74.8	..	53.0	57.7	53.0	60.0	76.2	31.0	62.4
	Q3 2013	68.5	70.5	60.8	70.9	76.4	..	59.8	71.0	72.8	50.9	65.6	68.8	62.7	67.3	40.2	53.0	56.7	-	..	45.8	52.4	45.0	72.3	74.9	..	54.0	58.2	53.5	61.2	77.1	29.9	62.4
	Q4 2013	68.8	69.5	59.5	71.1	78.1	..	60.2	71.3	71.2	51.1	66.1	67.7	62.3	67.6	39.7	53.8	56.9	-	..	46.3	57.3	45.7	72.0	74.7	..	54.4	58.8	53.8	60.0	76.1	29.1	62.5
	2013	**68.5**	**69.6**	**59.7**	**71.0**	**77.0**	**..**	**59.6**	**70.8**	**71.7**	**50.7**	**65.7**	**68.4**	**62.2**	**67.2**	**40.1**	**52.7**	**56.4**	**79.1**	**..**	**46.1**	**55.0**	**45.0**	**72.4**	**74.8**	**..**	**53.4**	**57.9**	**53.3**	**60.3**	**75.9**	**29.6**	**62.2**
Foreign-born	Q1 2009	60.1	57.3	44.7	63.2	..	..	58.5	54.9	62.5	54.9	71.2	60.5	51.2	57.6	49.2	56.9	55.8	-	58.7	49.6	62.3	30.9	60.4	68.5	62.3	41.2	66.6	54.7	61.3	58.0	26.7	57.4
	Q2 2009	59.4	57.7	42.2	63.5	67.6	..	59.4	56.0	64.3	54.8	64.4	60.8	51.5	56.9	51.4	58.8	57.0	-	57.5	51.0	58.2	37.3	58.2	66.8	62.2	37.1	67.4	53.4	60.9	57.9	27.3	57.4
	Q3 2009	58.8	56.8	41.4	63.3	..	..	55.5	55.4	67.4	55.7	64.5	59.9	50.0	57.3	52.3	60.9	56.1	-	60.2	49.9	60.1	34.9	59.2	67.0	61.8	35.7	65.2	47.7	60.2	58.7	25.8	57.4
	Q4 2009	59.7	58.3	45.2	63.8	..	..	53.9	56.5	58.6	54.2	68.1	58.4	49.8	57.7	51.5	60.6	55.5	-	60.3	50.2	60.6	27.4	59.2	63.8	61.2	43.8	63.1	45.1	61.5	57.2	25.5	57.6
	2009	**59.5**	**57.5**	**43.4**	**63.4**	**..**	**57.1**	**56.8**	**55.7**	**63.2**	**54.9**	**67.0**	**59.8**	**50.6**	**57.4**	**51.1**	**59.2**	**56.1**	**77.7**	**59.2**	**50.2**	**60.3**	**32.5**	**59.3**	**66.5**	**61.9**	**39.4**	**65.6**	**50.6**	**61.0**	**58.0**	**26.4**	**57.4**
	Q1 2010	59.2	58.9	45.3	63.5	65.0	..	54.4	54.6	57.5	54.4	59.8	57.1	49.3	57.4	50.7	60.5	54.6	-	59.9	50.0	61.9	33.1	58.8	65.7	60.4	36.9	64.8	39.5	62.0	55.8	27.4	56.6
	Q2 2010	59.4	58.6	44.1	64.0	66.9	..	55.0	56.1	61.5	53.9	55.7	55.5	50.5	57.9	51.9	64.8	54.7	-	60.7	50.5	61.5	32.7	59.4	64.6	60.8	39.4	64.7	39.9	63.4	55.5	28.0	58.1
	Q3 2010	60.6	60.6	44.5	63.2	67.5	..	57.3	56.9	62.6	54.2	58.1	54.3	49.4	58.5	52.5	65.5	53.8	-	60.6	48.9	62.6	29.7	58.2	64.7	60.9	54.2	64.4	36.5	56.2	57.3	26.7	57.4
	Q4 2010	61.8	60.9	46.3	62.7	67.1	..	58.3	55.6	58.2	52.6	58.1	53.7	50.0	57.9	49.8	59.1	53.2	-	61.1	48.6	63.6	30.0	57.9	64.5	62.5	46.8	64.3	39.9	58.0	55.5	29.3	57.7
	2010	**60.3**	**59.8**	**45.0**	**63.3**	**66.6**	**..**	**56.2**	**55.7**	**60.0**	**53.8**	**58.0**	**55.1**	**49.7**	**58.0**	**51.2**	**62.4**	**54.1**	**75.0**	**60.5**	**49.5**	**62.4**	**31.5**	**57.8**	**64.8**	**61.1**	**43.7**	**64.5**	**38.9**	**59.8**	**56.0**	**27.8**	**57.4**
	Q1 2011	61.4	59.4	44.6	62.5	65.9	..	55.3	56.5	57.0	51.3	55.5	51.0	50.3	58.4	47.7	56.3	53.5	-	61.4	50.4	63.6	31.9	58.2	65.5	62.7	-	64.6	-	55.7	56.5	27.3	56.4
	Q2 2011	61.5	59.0	45.7	62.9	67.3	..	53.7	58.3	57.7	53.0	57.6	57.4	51.2	58.2	49.2	53.9	54.8	-	61.7	50.3	61.1	34.5	56.5	66.9	64.7	-	67.7	-	55.3	57.0	25.1	56.5
	Q3 2011	61.7	59.0	42.7	63.3	67.1	..	53.1	58.8	59.6	51.7	62.8	57.1	50.0	58.6	46.3	53.0	54.3	-	61.0	48.7	60.3	42.4	55.9	67.7	63.3	50.7	67.7	45.6	53.3	58.1	26.7	56.1
	Q4 2011	61.5	59.4	44.8	63.3	67.7	..	54.4	57.7	57.5	49.3	61.3	57.8	49.0	57.3	44.8	55.6	53.8	-	61.3	48.5	60.6	42.8	57.6	67.2	64.7	43.4	67.4	53.4	52.8	58.5	28.7	57.6
	2011	**61.6**	**59.2**	**44.4**	**63.0**	**67.0**	**59.7**	**54.1**	**57.8**	**58.0**	**51.3**	**59.4**	**55.8**	**50.1**	**58.1**	**47.0**	**54.7**	**54.1**	**74.9**	**61.4**	**49.4**	**61.4**	**38.0**	**57.0**	**66.8**	**63.8**	**48.5**	**66.8**	**46.9**	**54.3**	**57.5**	**27.0**	**56.7**
	Q1 2012	61.0	59.1	43.4	62.7	68.1	..	54.1	57.2	56.3	48.9	64.2	56.5	50.1	55.7	41.4	54.6	54.0	-	..	48.8	62.5	40.6	56.3	66.1	64.2	50.9	65.2	56.2	54.6	58.1	33.1	56.7
	Q2 2012	61.4	59.9	44.1	64.7	68.3	..	55.1	59.6	57.5	49.5	63.6	60.2	49.7	56.7	41.7	60.0	54.6	-	..	50.3	63.5	43.0	56.8	69.0	64.8	57.9	67.1	56.4	54.6	58.8	34.1	57.1
	Q3 2012	61.8	58.9	45.2	65.0	68.2	..	54.5	59.1	58.5	50.2	63.1	60.1	50.0	57.6	42.6	60.9	53.9	-	..	49.6	63.1	42.4	58.4	67.4	64.8	-	64.9	-	57.3	59.0	31.0	56.7
	Q4 2012	61.6	59.2	45.4	65.3	68.2	..	54.7	59.5	55.1	48.8	64.2	59.4	48.5	58.8	41.0	64.1	53.1	-	..	49.9	64.5	42.6	56.3	64.1	64.5	45.4	61.9	66.0	54.6	57.9	32.8	57.2
	2012	**61.4**	**59.3**	**44.5**	**64.4**	**68.2**	**..**	**54.6**	**58.9**	**56.8**	**49.3**	**63.8**	**59.1**	**49.6**	**57.2**	**41.7**	**59.9**	**53.9**	**75.8**	**..**	**49.7**	**63.4**	**42.2**	**56.9**	**66.7**	**64.6**	**51.7**	**64.7**	**59.7**	**55.2**	**58.4**	**32.7**	**56.9**
	Q1 2013	61.9	58.7	46.2	64.7	67.8	..	55.3	58.7	57.6	48.5	68.9	56.6	47.9	58.8	38.9	61.6	53.2	-	..	49.5	63.9	40.6	54.3	63.0	..	-	60.2	-	44.2	57.3	35.2	56.8
	Q2 2013	62.1	59.3	44.3	65.4	69.2	..	58.9	59.3	60.3	48.3	65.7	61.8	48.9	59.2	39.8	56.6	53.9	-	..	48.9	63.8	37.3	55.0	65.7	..	49.3	60.1	58.8	51.2	59.5	35.2	57.4
	Q3 2013	62.2	60.3	45.7	65.2	68.7	..	58.8	60.2	60.4	49.0	64.0	57.0	48.8	58.8	40.2	55.3	54.8	-	..	48.6	65.5	40.5	56.7	66.7	..	48.5	62.8	60.2	50.5	59.0	32.6	58.1
	Q4 2013	61.8	59.2	44.9	64.3	68.2	..	60.6	58.9	58.1	47.9	65.0	57.2	49.0	59.9	39.9	58.2	54.5	-	..	49.1	60.6	38.0	55.7	66.0	..	48.2	62.3	59.3	49.5	58.3	29.3	57.2
	2013	**62.0**	**59.4**	**45.3**	**64.9**	**68.5**	**..**	**58.4**	**59.3**	**59.1**	**48.4**	**65.9**	**58.2**	**48.6**	**59.2**	**39.7**	**58.0**	**54.1**	**77.5**	**..**	**49.0**	**63.4**	**39.0**	**55.4**	**65.4**	**..**	**47.7**	**61.4**	**60.5**	**48.9**	**58.5**	**33.0**	**57.4**

Note: Data are not adjusted for seasonal variations. Comparisons should therefore be made for the same quarters of each year, and not for successive quarters within a given year.

Information on data for Israel: *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932315602*.

Source: European countries and Turkey: Labour Force Surveys (Eurostat); Australia, Canada, Israel, New Zealand: Labour Force Surveys; Chile: *Encuesta de Caracterización Socioeconómica Nacional* (CASEN); Mexico: *Encuesta Nacional de Ocupación y Empleo* (ENOE); United States: Current Population Surveys.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933157944

Table 2.A1.12. **Quarterly unemployment rates by gender and place of birth in OECD countries, 2009-13**

Percentages

Men + women

		AUS	AUT	BEL	CAN	CHE	CHL	CZE	DEU	DNK	ESP	EST	FIN	FRA	GBR	GRC	HUN	IRL	ISL	ISR	ITA	LUX	MEX	NLD	NOR	NZL	POL	PRT	SVK	SVN	SWE	TUR	USA
Native-born	Q1 2009	5.7	3.7	6.6	8.1	..	..	5.8	7.1	4.9	15.2	12.3	7.5	8.2	7.0	9.2	9.7	9.4	-	7.4	7.8	3.9	5.2	2.7	2.7	5.6	8.3	9.0	10.5	5.1	6.9	14.4	8.9
	Q2 2009	5.4	3.9	6.3	8.0	3.2	..	6.3	6.9	5.6	15.9	13.5	9.4	8.1	7.5	8.7	9.7	11.4	-	7.8	7.0	3.2	5.4	2.8	3.0	5.7	8.0	9.3	11.3	5.5	8.0	12.4	9.4
	Q3 2009	5.2	4.3	6.8	8.1	..	..	7.3	7.0	5.9	16.1	14.4	7.3	8.4	7.9	9.2	10.4	12.0	-	8.6	7.0	3.5	6.4	3.0	3.0	6.4	8.2	10.1	12.5	6.2	7.0	12.3	9.7
	Q4 2009	5.1	3.8	6.8	7.4	..	..	7.3	6.4	6.4	16.7	15.6	8.0	9.1	7.5	10.1	10.6	11.9	-	8.1	8.2	2.7	5.5	3.3	2.5	6.6	8.6	10.4	13.9	6.7	7.1	11.9	9.7
	2009	**5.3**	**3.9**	**6.6**	**7.9**	**..**	**10.8**	**6.7**	**6.9**	**5.7**	**16.0**	**14.0**	**8.0**	**8.5**	**7.5**	**9.3**	**10.1**	**11.2**	**7.0**	**8.0**	**7.5**	**3.3**	**5.6**	**2.9**	**2.8**	**6.1**	**8.3**	**9.7**	**12.1**	**5.9**	**7.2**	**12.8**	**9.4**
	Q1 2010	5.8	3.9	7.1	8.4	3.5	..	8.1	7.2	7.4	17.9	20.1	9.1	9.0	7.9	11.4	11.9	12.5	-	7.3	8.8	2.6	5.5	3.9	3.2	6.5	10.7	10.9	15.2	7.0	8.0	13.2	10.5
	Q2 2010	5.3	3.6	6.7	7.6	3.1	..	7.2	6.3	6.6	18.1	18.3	9.3	8.3	7.6	11.5	11.3	13.3	-	6.4	8.0	2.7	5.3	3.7	3.3	6.4	9.6	10.9	14.4	7.0	8.0	10.0	9.9
	Q3 2010	5.0	3.8	7.0	7.7	3.7	..	7.2	6.1	6.6	17.9	14.0	6.9	8.4	7.9	12.2	11.0	13.3	-	7.7	7.4	2.7	5.8	3.8	2.9	6.2	9.2	11.2	14.2	7.0	6.4	10.3	9.8
	Q4 2010	4.9	3.4	6.6	6.8	3.1	..	7.0	5.8	6.9	18.4	13.2	7.2	8.8	7.7	14.0	11.0	13.4	-	6.8	8.3	4.0	5.4	3.8	2.7	6.7	9.4	11.2	13.9	7.7	5.9	9.9	9.2
	2010	**5.3**	**3.7**	**6.9**	**7.6**	**3.3**	**..**	**7.4**	**6.3**	**6.9**	**18.1**	**16.4**	**8.1**	**8.7**	**7.8**	**12.3**	**11.3**	**13.1**	**7.2**	**7.1**	**8.1**	**3.0**	**5.5**	**4.0**	**3.0**	**6.5**	**9.7**	**11.0**	**14.4**	**7.2**	**7.1**	**10.8**	**9.9**
	Q1 2011	5.6	3.6	5.9	7.9	3.2	..	7.3	6.1	7.3	19.2	14.1	8.4	8.7	7.7	15.5	11.7	13.8	-	5.9	8.3	3.5	5.3	3.9	2.7	7.1	10.2	12.3	13.9	8.1	6.6	10.5	9.6
	Q2 2011	5.0	3.4	5.1	7.2	2.6	..	6.8	5.3	6.6	18.8	12.8	8.7	8.0	7.8	16.2	10.9	14.3	-	5.5	7.4	-	5.4	3.5	3.0	6.7	9.6	12.3	13.2	7.5	6.8	8.6	9.2
	Q3 2011	5.1	3.1	6.5	7.0	3.4	..	6.6	5.2	6.8	19.4	10.6	6.5	8.3	8.4	17.5	10.8	14.9	-	6.8	7.4	3.4	5.7	3.6	2.7	6.4	9.5	12.7	13.2	7.7	5.3	8.4	9.4
	Q4 2011	5.1	3.4	5.8	6.5	3.0	..	6.5	4.8	6.8	20.6	11.1	6.6	8.8	8.1	20.3	10.8	14.2	-	5.9	9.0	4.0	5.0	4.1	2.5	6.4	9.9	14.5	14.0	8.6	5.5	8.2	8.5
	2011	**5.2**	**3.4**	**5.8**	**7.2**	**3.0**	**8.1**	**6.8**	**5.4**	**6.9**	**19.5**	**12.1**	**7.6**	**8.4**	**8.0**	**17.4**	**11.0**	**14.3**	**6.7**	**6.0**	**8.0**	**3.4**	**5.4**	**3.8**	**2.7**	**6.7**	**9.8**	**13.0**	**13.6**	**8.0**	**6.0**	**8.9**	**9.2**
	Q1 2012	5.8	3.5	5.4	7.6	3.1	..	7.1	5.4	7.3	22.1	11.6	7.8	9.1	8.0	21.9	11.8	14.6	-	..	10.5	-	5.1	4.5	2.6	7.2	10.7	15.3	14.1	8.5	6.4	9.5	8.8
	Q2 2012	5.2	3.6	5.5	7.0	2.7	..	6.7	4.9	7.1	22.5	10.1	8.5	8.6	7.8	22.7	10.9	14.7	-	..	10.2	3.2	4.9	4.4	2.8	6.8	10.1	15.5	13.7	8.1	7.0	7.4	8.3
	Q3 2012	5.2	3.7	6.2	7.1	3.6	..	7.0	4.9	6.7	23.3	9.3	6.9	9.0	7.9	24.0	10.5	14.8	-	..	9.6	-	5.3	4.5	2.7	7.2	10.0	16.3	13.7	9.1	5.7	7.9	8.4
	Q4 2012	5.1	3.6	6.5	6.4	3.2	..	7.2	4.7	6.3	24.1	9.0	6.8	9.7	7.5	25.0	10.9	13.4	-	..	11.2	3.6	5.0	4.8	2.6	6.9	10.2	17.4	14.5	9.5	6.0	8.4	7.7
	2012	**5.3**	**3.6**	**5.9**	**7.0**	**3.1**	**..**	**7.0**	**5.0**	**6.8**	**23.0**	**10.0**	**7.5**	**9.1**	**7.8**	**23.4**	**11.0**	**14.4**	**5.7**	**..**	**10.4**	**3.8**	**5.1**	**4.6**	**2.7**	**7.0**	**10.2**	**16.1**	**14.0**	**8.8**	**6.5**	**8.3**	**8.3**
	Q1 2013	6.0	4.2	6.6	7.3	3.1	..	7.5	5.3	7.2	24.9	10.1	8.6	9.5	7.7	26.2	11.9	13.1	..	..	12.2	3.9	5.0	5.7	2.8	..	11.4	18.0	14.6	10.5	7.1	9.6	8.3
	Q2 2013	5.6	3.7	6.6	6.9	2.9	..	6.8	4.8	6.2	24.4	8.0	9.0	8.9	7.6	26.1	10.4	13.5	..	..	11.3	-	5.2	5.9	3.0	..	10.6	16.6	14.1	10.0	7.4	8.1	7.8
	Q3 2013	5.6	4.2	7.1	6.9	3.5	..	7.0	4.7	6.6	23.8	7.7	6.8	8.7	7.7	26.1	9.9	12.7	..	..	10.8	5.0	5.4	6.0	2.8	..	9.9	15.8	14.1	9.2	5.7	8.9	7.7
	Q4 2013	5.7	4.1	7.0	6.2	2.9	..	6.8	4.6	5.9	24.0	8.4	7.5	9.2	7.0	26.8	9.2	11.4	..	..	12.2	-	4.8	6.0	2.6	..	9.9	15.6	14.3	9.3	5.7	9.0	6.9
	2013	**5.7**	**4.0**	**6.8**	**6.8**	**3.1**	**..**	**7.0**	**4.9**	**6.5**	**24.3**	**8.6**	**8.0**	**9.1**	**7.5**	**26.3**	**10.3**	**12.7**	**..**	**..**	**11.7**	**4.1**	**5.1**	**5.9**	**2.8**	**..**	**10.4**	**16.5**	**14.3**	**9.7**	**6.5**	**8.9**	**7.7**
Foreign-born	Q1 2009	6.6	10.0	16.2	9.7	..	..	8.5	13.2	9.1	27.1	8.1	14.0	13.9	7.9	12.0	9.2	14.2	-	7.0	10.6	7.7	8.1	6.3	6.9	6.3	-	12.6	-	8.6	14.3	16.8	9.8
	Q2 2009	7.1	9.2	15.3	10.6	6.9	..	9.5	13.0	10.1	26.9	14.2	17.2	13.8	9.0	11.4	8.9	15.2	-	7.7	10.7	7.3	2.4	7.2	7.1	6.7	-	12.4	-	7.5	16.7	13.8	9.1
	Q3 2009	6.8	9.5	17.4	10.8	..	..	10.3	13.0	8.8	26.5	18.6	14.9	14.0	9.7	11.4	10.1	16.6	-	6.6	10.4	5.4	8.2	6.6	5.9	6.8	-	13.9	-	8.1	15.0	16.1	10.0
	Q4 2009	6.2	9.5	16.0	9.7	..	..	10.0	12.2	11.5	28.3	17.8	15.6	15.2	9.0	13.2	8.2	15.8	-	6.8	12.3	8.1	9.0	7.3	7.3	8.3	-	13.6	-	5.5	15.5	14.1	10.0
	2009	**6.7**	**9.5**	**16.2**	**10.2**	**..**	**8.2**	**9.6**	**12.8**	**9.9**	**27.2**	**14.8**	**15.4**	**14.3**	**8.9**	**12.0**	**9.1**	**15.4**	**11.8**	**7.0**	**11.0**	**7.1**	**7.0**	**6.8**	**6.8**	**7.0**	**-**	**13.1**	**-**	**7.4**	**15.4**	**15.1**	**9.7**
	Q1 2010	6.2	9.2	18.0	10.2	9.8	..	8.3	13.0	13.4	29.6	22.6	16.8	15.5	9.1	15.7	9.5	15.5	-	6.5	12.6	7.3	6.3	8.7	8.6	7.6	-	14.4	-	9.7	16.2	15.1	11.4
	Q2 2010	5.7	8.6	16.9	10.2	7.4	..	7.5	11.6	14.8	29.1	25.5	18.7	14.0	9.2	15.7	7.6	16.2	-	5.2	11.5	5.6	6.0	7.7	9.1	8.2	-	13.9	-	9.6	17.4	13.3	8.7
	Q3 2010	5.2	7.7	17.9	10.5	7.4	..	6.6	10.7	13.9	28.3	26.0	17.8	14.3	8.9	15.4	6.9	17.3	-	6.4	9.7	5.1	6.4	7.9	8.5	6.9	-	14.6	-	8.9	15.7	10.8	9.2
	Q4 2010	5.1	7.4	15.5	8.9	7.1	..	6.3	11.3	12.2	29.3	17.3	15.5	15.1	8.4	17.9	6.1	18.1	-	6.4	12.2	5.1	7.8	7.8	8.0	7.1	-	16.9	-	10.1	15.7	11.8	9.9
	2010	**5.6**	**8.2**	**17.1**	**10.0**	**7.9**	**..**	**7.2**	**11.6**	**13.6**	**29.1**	**22.8**	**17.2**	**14.8**	**8.9**	**16.2**	**7.5**	**16.8**	**13.4**	**6.1**	**11.5**	**5.8**	**6.6**	**8.5**	**8.5**	**7.4**	**11.6**	**15.0**	**11.8**	**9.6**	**16.3**	**12.8**	**9.8**
	Q1 2011	5.5	9.4	14.6	9.3	7.7	..	7.3	10.4	15.7	30.9	19.1	17.1	15.7	8.7	21.2	-	17.7	-	5.5	11.8	-	7.6	9.2	8.3	7.5	-	19.2	-	13.2	16.9	13.2	10.1
	Q2 2011	5.3	7.8	15.5	8.7	6.1	..	8.1	9.5	14.4	30.5	19.5	14.1	14.3	8.9	19.5	10.5	17.2	-	4.8	10.8	7.6	6.1	9.3	8.4	6.2	9.6	16.7	-	10.9	17.0	11.4	8.7
	Q3 2011	5.1	6.8	15.6	9.1	6.5	..	-	9.1	14.1	31.3	-	-	14.5	9.7	21.9	-	17.2	-	5.0	10.1	-	4.0	9.0	-	7.1	-	15.9	-	-	15.3	9.8	9.0
	Q4 2011	4.9	8.6	14.8	8.7	6.9	..	7.7	9.0	13.8	33.4	14.5	14.4	15.8	10.0	26.3	8.7	17.2	-	4.9	13.9	5.4	7.4	9.1	7.4	6.9	15.3	16.0	15.9	11.2	14.8	9.7	8.7
	2011	**5.2**	**8.2**	**15.1**	**8.9**	**6.8**	**5.9**	**8.0**	**9.5**	**14.5**	**31.5**	**16.9**	**15.2**	**15.1**	**9.3**	**22.2**	**9.5**	**17.3**	**11.1**	**5.0**	**11.7**	**6.3**	**6.2**	**9.2**	**7.7**	**6.9**	**12.1**	**16.9**	**15.3**	**11.5**	**16.0**	**11.1**	**9.1**
	Q1 2012	5.5	8.6	17.0	8.8	7.5	..	9.3	9.6	16.0	35.4	13.1	15.2	16.5	10.1	31.2	11.4	18.1	-	..	15.1	7.1	9.0	10.4	7.8	8.0	4.7	18.6	13.9	10.6	15.8	12.6	9.2
	Q2 2012	5.3	8.0	15.5	8.6	6.5	..	8.9	8.4	14.9	34.5	13.3	14.4	15.5	8.7	33.0	10.7	17.3	-	..	13.3	4.8	8.8	10.6	6.7	7.1	4.5	18.2	-	10.2	15.9	13.3	7.7
	Q3 2012	5.3	7.8	16.6	8.6	6.5	..	8.6	8.3	14.5	33.4	13.4	13.0	14.8	9.2	33.5	8.1	17.3	-	..	11.8	7.5	6.5	10.0	5.7	7.9	-	19.2	-	11.4	15.3	9.4	7.8
	Q4 2012	5.6	8.6	18.3	7.8	7.6	..	8.7	8.4	13.4	35.4	12.2	14.2	16.3	9.1	37.3	6.2	16.4	-	..	15.2	6.4	4.9	11.1	7.0	7.3	10.9	21.5	-	11.4	16.2	11.6	7.9
	2012	**5.4**	**8.3**	**16.9**	**8.5**	**7.0**	**..**	**8.9**	**8.7**	**14.7**	**34.7**	**13.0**	**14.2**	**15.8**	**9.3**	**33.7**	**9.0**	**17.3**	**9.5**	**..**	**13.9**	**6.4**	**7.3**	**10.5**	**6.8**	**7.6**	**6.9**	**19.4**	**11.6**	**10.9**	**16.1**	**11.6**	**8.1**
	Q1 2013	6.2	11.0	18.1	8.6	8.5	..	-	9.1	13.5	37.3	-	-	17.4	9.5	39.8	-	17.0	-	..	17.6	-	5.8	12.4	8.7	..	-	23.1	-	-	16.9	10.6	8.1
	Q2 2013	5.9	8.6	16.6	8.1	7.4	..	8.1	8.5	12.2	35.2	10.4	14.6	15.7	8.7	37.8	8.0	16.4	-	..	17.4	8.5	5.6	12.5	7.8	..	10.7	23.1	-	15.7	16.5	11.1	6.6
	Q3 2013	5.8	8.3	17.1	8.4	7.8	..	8.0	7.9	11.7	35.5	10.6	15.1	14.9	9.1	36.8	11.1	15.4	-	..	15.2	6.3	7.1	12.8	7.7	..	14.2	21.1	13.6	12.5	16.0	10.3	6.7
	Q4 2013	5.6	9.3	17.2	8.2	7.3	..	8.1	7.8	12.3	35.0	12.0	14.3	16.7	7.8	36.4	10.3	14.3	-	..	16.7	8.1	8.8	13.3	7.1	..	13.1	20.2	-	14.5	16.3	10.7	6.5
	2013	**5.9**	**9.3**	**17.2**	**8.3**	**7.7**	**..**	**8.3**	**8.3**	**12.4**	**35.8**	**11.0**	**14.8**	**16.2**	**8.8**	**37.7**	**9.9**	**15.7**	**-**	**..**	**16.7**	**7.5**	**6.9**	**12.7**	**7.8**	**..**	**12.2**	**21.9**	**-**	**15.3**	**16.4**	**10.7**	**7.0**

Table 2.A1.12. **Quarterly unemployment rates by gender and place of birth in OECD countries, 2009-13** *(cont.)*

Percentages

Men

		AUS	AUT	BEL	CAN	CHE	CHL	CZE	DEU	DNK	ESP	EST	FIN	FRA	GBR	GRC	HUN	IRL	ISL	ISR	ITA	LUX	MEX	NLD	NOR	NZL	POL	PRT	SVK	SVN	SWE	TUR	USA
Native-born	Q1 2009	5.8	3.8	6.3	10.1	..	..	5.0	7.5	5.7	14.3	15.1	8.3	8.0	8.0	6.5	10.1	12.3	-	7.0	6.7	4.3	5.3	2.7	3.0	5.5	7.8	8.3	9.7	5.2	7.1	14.6	10.6
	Q2 2009	5.8	3.8	6.3	9.6	3.0	..	5.5	7.2	6.2	15.0	17.9	10.3	7.8	8.8	6.0	10.0	14.7	-	7.9	6.2	2.6	5.6	2.7	3.4	5.4	7.6	8.9	10.5	5.4	8.2	12.5	10.8
	Q3 2009	5.5	4.2	6.2	8.6	..	..	6.4	7.3	6.5	15.3	16.7	7.5	8.0	9.1	6.3	10.6	15.1	-	8.2	6.2	2.7	6.0	2.9	3.1	6.5	7.7	9.2	11.9	6.4	7.3	12.0	10.4
	Q4 2009	5.4	3.9	6.7	8.8	..	..	6.5	6.7	7.1	15.9	19.6	8.7	9.0	8.7	7.3	10.8	15.3	-	8.2	7.2	2.7	5.7	3.3	2.9	6.7	8.3	9.8	13.5	6.6	7.5	12.0	11.0
	2009	**5.6**	**3.9**	**6.4**	**9.3**	**..**	**9.3**	**5.9**	**7.2**	**6.4**	**15.1**	**17.3**	**8.7**	**8.2**	**8.7**	**6.5**	**10.4**	**14.4**	**8.3**	**7.8**	**6.6**	**3.0**	**5.6**	**2.9**	**3.1**	**6.1**	**7.9**	**9.0**	**11.4**	**5.9**	**7.5**	**12.7**	**10.7**
	Q1 2010	6.0	4.2	6.7	10.3	3.1	..	7.6	7.8	9.1	17.3	25.9	10.4	9.1	9.3	8.5	12.7	16.2	-	7.5	7.9	2.8	5.5	3.9	3.7	6.2	10.6	10.2	15.1	7.2	8.5	13.2	12.4
	Q2 2010	5.4	3.7	6.6	8.8	3.2	..	6.3	6.7	7.9	17.2	22.7	10.0	8.2	8.6	8.7	11.9	16.7	-	6.5	7.4	2.7	5.4	3.7	4.0	6.3	9.4	10.2	14.2	7.4	8.4	9.7	11.0
	Q3 2010	4.9	3.9	6.8	7.7	2.9	..	6.1	6.4	6.7	17.1	14.7	7.2	8.1	8.6	9.2	11.1	16.5	-	7.3	6.7	1.9	5.7	3.8	3.1	5.6	8.7	10.0	14.0	7.2	6.6	9.8	10.3
	Q4 2010	4.8	3.3	6.5	7.5	2.9	..	6.0	6.0	7.2	17.7	14.3	7.8	8.2	8.6	11.1	11.2	16.9	-	6.6	7.5	2.7	5.8	3.6	3.1	6.5	9.0	10.3	13.9	7.9	6.1	9.4	10.1
	2010	**5.3**	**3.8**	**6.7**	**8.6**	**3.1**	**..**	**6.5**	**6.7**	**7.7**	**17.3**	**19.4**	**8.8**	**8.4**	**8.7**	**9.4**	**11.7**	**16.6**	**7.9**	**7.0**	**7.4**	**2.5**	**5.6**	**3.9**	**3.5**	**6.1**	**9.4**	**10.2**	**14.3**	**7.4**	**7.4**	**10.5**	**10.9**
	Q1 2011	5.4	3.6	5.9	9.2	3.0	..	6.5	6.6	7.9	18.5	15.7	9.1	8.2	8.6	12.7	12.2	17.4	-	6.3	7.7	-	5.5	3.9	3.0	6.6	10.1	12.0	14.0	8.3	6.5	10.2	10.9
	Q2 2011	5.0	3.3	4.8	8.0	2.6	..	5.9	5.7	7.2	18.3	13.7	9.3	7.6	8.5	13.2	10.9	17.8	-	5.6	6.9	-	5.4	3.6	3.1	6.5	9.1	12.1	13.5	8.0	6.8	8.2	9.8
	Q3 2011	5.3	3.1	6.3	7.0	2.9	..	5.6	5.3	6.7	18.6	10.4	6.9	7.8	9.2	14.5	10.7	18.1	-	5.9	6.6	3.6	5.5	3.6	2.6	6.3	8.4	12.2	13.1	8.1	5.5	7.5	9.5
	Q4 2011	5.1	3.0	5.7	7.2	2.7	..	5.6	4.9	6.8	20.0	12.5	7.5	8.7	8.8	17.2	10.7	17.8	-	5.4	8.4	3.8	5.1	4.0	2.8	6.3	9.0	14.6	13.8	8.4	5.6	7.7	9.0
	2011	**5.2**	**3.3**	**5.7**	**7.8**	**2.8**	**6.7**	**5.9**	**5.6**	**7.2**	**18.8**	**13.1**	**8.2**	**8.1**	**8.8**	**14.4**	**11.1**	**17.8**	**7.6**	**5.8**	**7.4**	**3.0**	**5.4**	**3.8**	**2.9**	**6.4**	**9.1**	**12.7**	**13.6**	**8.2**	**6.1**	**8.4**	**9.8**
	Q1 2012	5.9	3.3	5.2	8.9	3.0	..	6.3	5.8	7.7	21.5	12.9	8.7	9.1	8.9	18.7	12.2	18.0	-	..	9.8	5.1	5.2	4.6	3.2	6.8	10.3	15.2	13.9	8.5	6.7	9.3	9.5
	Q2 2012	5.1	3.6	5.4	7.6	2.5	..	5.8	5.1	7.4	22.2	11.5	9.3	8.5	8.7	19.5	11.4	18.4	-	..	9.7	3.4	4.9	4.3	3.4	6.4	9.4	15.6	13.4	7.9	7.2	7.1	8.7
	Q3 2012	5.6	3.6	5.9	7.0	3.7	..	5.9	5.0	6.8	22.5	9.3	7.1	8.8	8.6	20.4	10.7	18.1	-	..	8.8	3.6	5.2	4.6	2.8	6.9	9.1	16.8	13.0	8.5	5.8	7.1	8.4
	Q4 2012	5.2	3.5	6.9	7.1	3.2	..	6.2	4.8	6.4	23.4	9.4	7.4	9.6	8.1	21.7	11.0	16.8	-	..	10.4	-	5.0	5.0	3.2	6.6	9.5	17.4	14.0	9.3	6.2	7.7	8.0
	2012	**5.4**	**3.5**	**5.8**	**7.6**	**3.1**	**..**	**6.0**	**5.2**	**7.1**	**22.4**	**10.8**	**8.1**	**9.0**	**8.5**	**20.1**	**11.3**	**17.8**	**6.1**	**..**	**9.7**	**3.7**	**5.1**	**4.6**	**3.1**	**6.7**	**9.6**	**16.2**	**13.6**	**8.6**	**6.7**	**7.8**	**8.6**
	Q1 2013	6.1	4.3	6.5	8.4	3.1	..	6.6	5.8	7.3	24.3	10.8	9.6	9.8	8.4	23.1	12.6	15.7	-	..	11.4	4.9	5.0	6.2	3.2	..	10.9	18.3	14.2	10.4	7.3	9.0	9.0
	Q2 2013	5.6	3.8	6.4	7.7	2.9	..	5.7	5.1	5.9	23.7	8.4	10.0	9.0	8.4	22.7	10.3	16.1	-	..	10.9	-	5.2	6.4	3.5	..	10.0	16.7	13.8	9.9	7.6	7.4	8.3
	Q3 2013	5.8	4.1	7.1	6.8	3.5	..	5.8	5.0	6.8	22.9	8.0	7.2	8.7	8.3	22.8	9.8	15.0	-	..	10.3	5.2	5.3	6.3	2.7	..	9.2	15.5	13.7	8.5	5.6	7.9	8.0
	Q4 2013	6.0	3.8	7.3	6.9	3.2	..	5.6	4.8	5.5	23.2	8.6	8.0	9.2	7.6	23.5	9.1	13.3	-	..	11.7	3.8	4.7	6.3	2.8	..	9.3	15.1	14.5	8.9	5.9	8.0	7.4
	2013	**5.9**	**4.0**	**6.8**	**7.5**	**3.2**	**..**	**5.9**	**5.2**	**6.4**	**23.5**	**9.0**	**8.7**	**9.2**	**8.2**	**23.0**	**10.4**	**15.0**	**5.4**	**..**	**11.1**	**4.3**	**5.1**	**6.3**	**3.1**	**..**	**9.8**	**16.4**	**14.0**	**9.4**	**6.6**	**8.1**	**8.2**
Foreign-born	Q1 2009	6.3	11.6	15.9	10.4	..	..	7.8	13.6	8.8	29.1	-	12.1	13.7	7.8	10.3	7.4	16.2	-	7.3	8.9	6.0	9.0	6.3	9.9	6.4	-	11.6	-	10.1	14.7	16.5	10.4
	Q2 2009	7.3	10.6	15.4	11.3	6.2	..	9.6	14.3	10.2	29.5	13.1	19.9	14.1	8.9	9.8	8.0	18.2	-	8.0	8.9	6.2	2.8	7.5	7.3	6.7	-	12.6	-	8.9	18.0	13.8	9.3
	Q3 2009	6.6	10.1	17.0	11.1	..	..	8.2	13.2	9.9	29.3	23.0	15.7	13.5	10.0	9.8	10.6	19.2	-	6.8	9.4	4.9	8.8	7.1	7.8	7.2	-	14.9	-	6.3	16.2	16.0	10.2
	Q4 2009	5.9	10.5	17.0	10.0	..	..	8.2	13.3	11.2	31.4	26.5	16.1	15.4	8.9	11.5	8.6	19.3	-	7.9	10.4	6.4	7.1	8.0	8.8	8.1	-	13.8	-	5.1	16.0	12.7	10.6
	2009	**6.5**	**10.7**	**16.3**	**10.7**	**..**	**7.4**	**8.5**	**13.6**	**10.0**	**29.8**	**17.7**	**16.1**	**14.2**	**8.9**	**10.4**	**8.6**	**18.2**	**14.8**	**7.5**	**9.4**	**5.9**	**7.0**	**7.2**	**8.5**	**7.1**	**-**	**13.2**	**-**	**7.5**	**16.2**	**14.7**	**10.1**
	Q1 2010	5.7	10.6	18.6	10.7	7.4	..	7.1	14.3	14.9	32.5	26.5	17.3	14.7	9.4	14.2	9.1	19.1	-	7.7	11.2	6.5	6.5	9.4	9.5	6.9	-	12.9	-	10.6	16.3	14.6	12.1
	Q2 2010	5.2	9.2	17.1	10.5	9.8	..	5.4	12.1	17.8	31.4	26.2	19.7	13.2	9.4	15.2	8.2	18.5	-	5.9	10.0	5.7	5.3	8.1	10.3	8.6	-	10.9	-	9.7	16.8	14.2	8.8
	Q3 2010	5.0	8.4	16.9	10.1	6.3	..	4.6	11.4	15.0	29.8	26.8	19.8	13.0	8.7	14.9	6.8	20.0	-	7.2	8.0	3.8	7.2	8.0	9.7	6.6	-	12.0	-	7.5	15.3	9.5	9.0
	Q4 2010	4.5	7.1	15.0	8.7	6.4	..	5.0	11.7	12.4	30.7	15.5	16.7	13.7	7.8	16.6	6.4	21.0	-	6.7	11.0	4.7	7.7	8.3	9.6	6.8	-	14.9	-	9.7	15.1	11.1	10.0
	2010	**5.1**	**8.8**	**16.9**	**10.0**	**7.2**	**..**	**5.6**	**12.4**	**15.1**	**31.1**	**23.6**	**18.4**	**13.7**	**8.8**	**15.2**	**7.6**	**19.7**	**16.5**	**6.9**	**10.0**	**5.2**	**6.7**	**8.8**	**9.8**	**7.2**	**12.1**	**12.7**	**8.9**	**9.4**	**15.9**	**12.4**	**10.0**
	Q1 2011	4.7	10.2	16.0	9.1	7.3	..	-	10.9	16.3	31.9	-	17.2	14.3	8.6	19.7	-	20.8	-	6.2	10.4	-	5.3	9.8	9.2	7.4	-	20.2	-	13.0	16.9	12.6	10.4
	Q2 2011	4.6	7.9	16.0	8.2	5.9	..	6.5	9.8	12.9	31.8	19.0	15.7	13.8	9.0	19.4	9.7	19.8	-	5.1	8.2	5.9	4.5	10.1	9.3	6.2	8.4	17.4	-	8.8	16.8	10.1	8.4
	Q3 2011	4.5	6.0	15.0	8.3	5.4	..	7.4	9.3	13.1	33.1	13.6	16.4	13.6	9.3	21.3	8.5	19.3	-	5.8	8.4	3.5	4.0	9.4	6.8	6.5	11.7	18.0	-	8.2	15.0	9.0	8.2
	Q4 2011	4.6	7.9	14.9	8.0	6.2	..	6.2	9.0	13.2	34.6	14.3	14.7	14.7	9.5	25.9	7.1	19.3	-	5.1	11.9	4.7	6.7	9.5	7.8	7.9	11.2	16.4	-	8.2	15.4	9.2	8.4
	2011	**4.6**	**8.0**	**15.5**	**8.4**	**6.2**	**3.9**	**6.1**	**9.7**	**13.8**	**32.9**	**15.6**	**16.0**	**14.1**	**9.1**	**21.5**	**8.9**	**19.8**	**-**	**5.6**	**9.7**	**4.7**	**5.1**	**9.7**	**8.3**	**7.0**	**9.9**	**18.0**	**-**	**9.7**	**16.0**	**10.3**	**8.9**
	Q1 2012	4.8	8.2	17.8	8.7	7.3	..	-	9.9	-	36.9	-	-	16.8	9.4	30.6	-	21.0	-	..	13.2	-	10.9	10.0	-	7.3	-	19.2	-	-	17.0	-	9.0
	Q2 2012	4.7	8.9	15.1	8.6	5.7	..	-	8.6	13.9	36.4	-	14.4	14.8	7.5	34.0	-	19.5	-	..	12.1	-	9.6	10.7	8.1	6.6	-	20.0	-	-	16.0	13.1	7.1
	Q3 2012	4.8	8.0	17.7	8.4	5.4	..	6.2	8.5	13.8	35.7	13.0	12.8	14.4	7.9	34.5	8.8	18.9	-	..	10.2	-	6.6	10.2	5.6	8.2	-	19.1	-	-	16.3	6.7	6.9
	Q4 2012	5.3	9.8	19.6	7.5	6.7	..	-	8.6	11.2	36.9	-	15.9	15.8	8.3	39.0	-	18.2	-	..	14.1	-	4.0	11.1	6.2	6.4	-	21.7	-	-	17.2	11.4	7.0
	2012	**4.9**	**8.7**	**17.6**	**8.3**	**6.3**	**..**	**7.3**	**8.9**	**13.5**	**36.5**	**14.9**	**14.5**	**15.5**	**8.2**	**34.5**	**9.9**	**19.4**	**9.1**	**..**	**12.4**	**5.4**	**7.8**	**10.5**	**7.2**	**7.1**	**3.5**	**20.0**	**14.1**	**8.3**	**16.9**	**11.0**	**7.5**
	Q1 2013	6.1	12.2	20.1	8.6	8.1	..	8.5	9.8	12.6	39.6	12.9	14.7	17.4	9.0	40.4	9.5	18.6	-	..	16.9	6.2	5.7	12.1	7.8	..	6.9	23.7	-	14.5	17.6	12.3	7.6
	Q2 2013	5.8	8.9	17.9	7.7	7.2	..	7.0	8.5	11.0	35.9	7.2	15.7	15.8	8.2	37.6	4.2	17.2	-	..	16.8	7.9	5.3	13.1	7.9	..	-	22.8	-	11.8	17.3	9.9	6.2
	Q3 2013	5.7	8.3	17.6	7.9	7.6	..	6.8	8.0	12.0	38.1	9.1	14.5	14.5	8.0	35.0	8.3	16.1	-	..	14.8	5.7	7.1	14.2	7.0	..	5.1	22.8	15.6	7.7	16.2	8.8	6.1
	Q4 2013	5.6	9.2	17.1	8.3	6.0	..	7.1	8.0	9.8	35.8	15.6	13.0	16.1	6.7	35.0	6.5	15.2	-	..	15.1	6.3	9.3	13.7	7.0	..	7.9	21.2	-	10.1	16.8	9.9	6.1
	2013	**5.8**	**9.6**	**18.2**	**8.1**	**7.2**	**..**	**7.3**	**8.6**	**11.4**	**37.4**	**11.2**	**14.5**	**16.0**	**8.0**	**37.0**	**7.2**	**16.7**	**9.1**	**..**	**15.9**	**6.5**	**6.9**	**13.2**	**7.4**	**..**	**5.7**	**22.6**	**11.8**	**11.0**	**17.0**	**10.2**	**6.5**

Table 2.A1.12. **Quarterly unemployment rates by gender and place of birth in OECD countries, 2009-13** *(cont.)*

Percentages

Women

		AUS	AUT	BEL	CAN	CHE	CHL	CZE	DEU	DNK	ESP	EST	FIN	FRA	GBR	GRC	HUN	IRL	ISL	ISR	ITA	LUX	MEX	NLD	NOR	NZL	POL	PRT	SVK	SVN	SWE	TUR	USA
Native-born	Q1 2009	5.6	3.6	7.1	5.9	..	..	6.8	6.7	4.1	16.4	9.5	6.6	8.5	5.8	12.9	9.4	5.7	-	7.8	9.2	3.3	5.2	2.7	2.3	5.6	9.0	9.9	11.4	5.0	6.6	13.9	7.1
	Q2 2009	5.0	4.0	6.3	6.2	3.4	..	7.4	6.5	5.0	17.1	9.1	8.4	8.4	6.1	12.5	9.2	7.3	-	7.8	8.3	3.9	5.0	2.8	2.5	6.1	8.4	9.8	12.3	5.6	7.8	12.3	8.0
	Q3 2009	4.7	4.5	7.5	7.5	..	..	8.5	6.6	5.2	17.0	12.0	7.2	8.8	6.4	13.1	10.1	8.1	-	9.0	8.2	4.5	7.1	3.1	2.8	6.2	8.7	11.1	13.3	5.9	6.6	13.2	9.0
	Q4 2009	4.7	3.7	7.0	5.9	..	..	8.2	6.1	5.5	17.8	11.5	7.2	9.3	6.2	14.0	10.3	7.6	-	7.9	9.6	2.8	5.3	3.3	2.0	6.5	8.9	11.1	14.4	6.7	6.6	11.9	8.3
	2009	**5.0**	**3.9**	**7.0**	**6.4**	**..**	**13.0**	**7.7**	**6.5**	**5.0**	**17.1**	**10.5**	**7.4**	**8.8**	**6.1**	**13.2**	**9.8**	**7.2**	**5.5**	**8.1**	**8.8**	**3.6**	**5.7**	**3.0**	**2.4**	**6.1**	**8.7**	**10.5**	**12.9**	**5.8**	**6.9**	**12.8**	**8.1**
	Q1 2010	5.6	3.5	7.6	6.3	3.7	..	8.9	6.6	5.5	18.8	14.3	7.7	9.0	6.4	15.3	11.1	8.0	-	7.1	10.1	2.3	5.4	3.9	2.6	6.8	10.7	11.6	15.4	6.8	7.5	13.1	8.3
	Q2 2010	5.1	3.5	6.9	6.3	3.4	..	8.3	5.8	5.2	19.3	13.8	8.5	8.4	6.4	15.3	10.6	9.0	-	6.3	8.9	2.8	5.3	3.7	2.6	6.6	9.9	11.6	14.7	6.5	7.7	10.6	8.8
	Q3 2010	5.2	3.6	7.3	7.6	4.1	..	8.6	5.7	6.5	19.0	13.4	6.7	8.8	7.1	16.2	10.9	9.3	-	8.3	8.3	3.8	5.9	3.8	2.8	7.0	9.8	12.5	14.3	6.9	6.2	11.6	9.3
	Q4 2010	5.0	3.6	6.8	6.0	3.3	..	8.2	5.5	6.7	19.3	12.2	6.5	9.4	6.7	17.9	10.8	9.1	-	7.0	9.5	5.8	4.9	4.0	2.2	6.9	10.0	12.2	14.0	7.5	5.6	11.0	8.3
	2010	**5.2**	**3.6**	**7.1**	**6.6**	**3.6**	**..**	**8.5**	**5.9**	**6.0**	**19.1**	**13.4**	**7.4**	**8.9**	**6.6**	**16.2**	**10.8**	**8.9**	**6.4**	**7.2**	**9.2**	**3.6**	**5.4**	**4.0**	**2.5**	**6.8**	**10.1**	**12.0**	**14.6**	**6.9**	**6.8**	**11.6**	**8.7**
	Q1 2011	5.8	3.6	5.9	6.5	3.5	..	8.2	5.6	6.6	20.1	12.4	7.6	9.2	6.7	19.2	11.2	9.4	-	5.4	9.1	-	5.0	4.0	2.4	7.7	10.3	12.7	13.9	8.0	6.6	11.2	8.2
	Q2 2011	5.0	3.4	5.4	6.4	2.7	..	8.0	4.9	5.9	19.4	11.9	8.1	8.4	6.9	20.2	10.9	9.9	-	5.4	8.2	-	5.4	3.5	2.8	6.9	10.2	12.6	12.8	6.9	6.7	9.7	8.5
	Q3 2011	4.9	3.1	6.7	7.1	3.8	..	7.8	5.1	6.8	20.4	10.9	6.1	8.9	7.4	21.5	10.9	11.0	-	7.7	8.5	-	6.0	3.6	2.9	6.6	10.7	13.3	13.3	7.4	5.0	10.5	9.2
	Q4 2011	5.2	3.9	5.9	5.7	3.3	..	7.6	4.8	6.8	21.3	9.6	5.6	9.0	7.2	24.5	10.9	9.8	-	6.4	10.0	-	4.9	4.2	-	6.6	10.9	14.5	14.3	8.9	5.4	9.6	7.9
	2011	**5.2**	**3.5**	**6.0**	**6.4**	**3.3**	**10.0**	**7.9**	**5.1**	**6.5**	**20.3**	**11.2**	**6.9**	**8.9**	**7.0**	**21.4**	**11.0**	**10.0**	**5.8**	**6.2**	**8.9**	**4.0**	**5.3**	**3.8**	**2.5**	**7.0**	**10.5**	**13.3**	**13.6**	**7.8**	**5.9**	**10.2**	**8.5**
	Q1 2012	5.8	3.7	5.8	6.3	3.3	..	8.1	4.8	6.8	22.8	10.2	6.8	9.1	7.0	26.1	11.4	10.4	-	..	11.4	3.9	4.8	4.4	1.9	7.6	11.2	15.4	14.5	8.5	6.2	10.1	8.0
	Q2 2012	5.3	3.5	5.6	6.3	2.9	..	7.9	4.7	6.8	23.0	8.7	7.7	8.7	6.9	27.0	10.4	10.2	-	..	10.9	-	5.0	4.4	2.2	7.2	10.9	15.4	14.1	8.4	6.7	8.2	7.9
	Q3 2012	4.8	3.8	6.6	7.3	3.4	..	8.3	4.8	6.5	24.3	9.3	6.7	9.3	7.2	28.7	10.3	10.6	-	..	10.7	-	5.5	4.4	2.5	7.5	11.0	15.7	14.6	9.7	5.6	9.7	8.4
	Q4 2012	5.0	3.7	5.9	5.7	3.1	..	8.5	4.6	6.1	25.0	8.6	6.1	9.8	6.9	29.3	10.7	9.4	-	..	12.3	4.6	5.0	4.7	2.1	7.3	11.1	17.4	15.1	9.7	5.8	10.2	7.3
	2012	**5.2**	**3.7**	**5.9**	**6.4**	**3.2**	**..**	**8.2**	**4.7**	**6.6**	**23.8**	**9.2**	**6.8**	**9.2**	**7.0**	**27.8**	**10.7**	**10.1**	**5.2**	**..**	**11.3**	**3.9**	**5.1**	**4.5**	**2.2**	**7.4**	**11.0**	**16.0**	**14.6**	**9.1**	**6.3**	**9.5**	**7.9**
	Q1 2013	5.9	4.1	6.7	6.2	3.2	..	8.6	4.8	7.0	25.7	9.4	7.5	9.2	6.8	30.3	11.0	10.0	-	..	13.2	-	5.0	5.1	2.4	..	12.0	17.7	15.1	10.5	6.9	11.0	7.6
	Q2 2013	5.6	3.6	6.8	6.1	3.0	..	8.2	4.4	6.5	25.2	7.5	7.9	8.7	6.7	30.5	10.5	10.5	-	..	11.9	-	5.1	5.3	2.5	..	11.3	16.4	14.5	10.1	7.2	9.6	7.3
	Q3 2013	5.4	4.3	7.1	7.0	3.4	..	8.5	4.4	6.4	24.9	7.4	6.4	8.6	7.0	30.6	10.0	9.8	-	..	11.5	4.7	5.6	5.6	2.9	..	10.9	16.1	14.6	10.0	5.9	11.2	7.4
	Q4 2013	5.4	4.4	6.7	5.4	2.5	..	8.1	4.4	6.2	25.0	8.2	7.0	9.3	6.3	31.1	9.3	9.0	-	..	13.0	4.4	4.8	5.7	2.4	..	10.6	16.1	14.2	9.7	5.5	11.3	6.5
	2013	**5.6**	**4.1**	**6.8**	**6.2**	**3.0**	**..**	**8.4**	**4.5**	**6.5**	**25.2**	**8.1**	**7.2**	**9.0**	**6.7**	**30.6**	**10.2**	**9.8**	**4.9**	**..**	**12.4**	**3.9**	**5.1**	**5.4**	**2.6**	**..**	**11.2**	**16.6**	**14.6**	**10.1**	**6.4**	**10.8**	**7.2**
Foreign-born	Q1 2009	6.9	8.1	16.6	8.8	..	..	9.3	12.6	9.4	24.8	-	16.1	14.2	8.1	14.8	10.9	11.4	-	6.8	12.8	9.8	6.4	6.3	3.5	6.2	-	13.5	-	6.8	13.9	17.5	8.9
	Q2 2009	6.8	7.4	15.3	9.9	7.8	..	9.3	11.2	10.1	23.8	15.4	13.6	13.5	9.2	13.7	9.6	11.2	-	7.4	12.9	8.8	1.8	6.8	6.8	6.8	-	12.2	-	5.8	15.3	13.8	9.0
	Q3 2009	7.1	8.8	17.9	10.5	..	..	13.0	12.7	7.7	23.2	15.0	14.1	14.6	9.4	13.8	9.7	13.1	-	6.4	11.7	6.2	7.1	6.1	3.6	6.2	-	12.8	-	10.1	13.7	16.4	9.7
	Q4 2009	6.7	8.3	14.7	9.3	..	..	12.4	10.9	11.8	24.7	11.0	15.2	15.0	9.0	15.6	7.9	11.2	-	5.8	14.6	10.1	13.0	6.5	5.5	8.5	-	13.4	-	6.1	15.0	18.5	9.3
	2009	**6.9**	**8.2**	**16.1**	**9.6**	**..**	**9.0**	**11.0**	**11.8**	**9.7**	**24.1**	**12.3**	**14.7**	**14.3**	**8.9**	**14.5**	**9.6**	**11.7**	**8.6**	**6.6**	**13.0**	**8.8**	**7.1**	**6.4**	**4.9**	**7.0**	**-**	**13.0**	**-**	**7.2**	**14.5**	**16.6**	**9.2**
	Q1 2010	6.9	7.6	17.3	9.6	9.8	..	9.9	11.3	11.8	26.2	19.4	16.2	16.6	8.7	17.9	9.7	10.8	-	5.4	14.3	8.3	5.8	7.9	7.5	8.5	-	15.8	-	8.5	16.2	16.5	10.3
	Q2 2010	6.3	8.0	16.5	9.8	8.8	..	10.5	10.9	11.8	26.4	25.0	17.4	15.0	9.0	16.6	7.1	13.2	-	4.3	13.4	5.5	7.1	7.4	7.5	7.7	-	16.8	-	9.5	18.1	10.4	8.6
	Q3 2010	5.5	7.0	19.2	11.0	8.7	..	9.4	10.0	13.0	26.6	25.3	15.4	16.0	9.1	16.2	7.0	13.7	-	5.5	11.9	6.6	4.6	7.8	7.1	7.3	-	17.1	-	10.5	16.1	15.1	9.4
	Q4 2010	5.9	7.7	16.2	9.2	7.9	..	8.1	10.7	12.0	27.6	18.9	14.1	16.6	9.0	19.9	-	14.4	-	6.0	13.7	5.7	8.0	7.4	6.0	7.4	-	19.0	-	10.7	16.4	14.2	9.8
	2010	**6.1**	**7.6**	**17.3**	**9.9**	**8.8**	**..**	**9.5**	**10.7**	**12.1**	**26.7**	**22.2**	**15.8**	**16.0**	**9.0**	**17.7**	**7.4**	**13.0**	**10.4**	**5.3**	**13.3**	**6.5**	**6.4**	**8.2**	**7.0**	**7.7**	**11.1**	**17.2**	**16.7**	**9.8**	**16.7**	**14.1**	**9.5**
	Q1 2011	6.5	8.5	12.8	9.4	8.1	..	11.6	9.8	15.2	29.9	21.8	16.9	17.3	8.9	23.3	8.2	13.8	-	4.4	13.5	9.5	12.4	8.6	7.3	7.5	8.1	18.1	-	13.5	16.8	15.1	9.6
	Q2 2011	6.2	7.6	14.9	9.1	6.3	..	-	9.1	15.7	29.1	20.0	-	14.9	8.9	19.7	-	14.1	-	4.2	14.1	-	9.2	8.5	7.3	6.3	-	16.1	-	-	17.1	15.9	9.1
	Q3 2011	5.9	7.8	16.3	9.9	7.8	..	11.0	9.0	15.1	29.4	16.2	13.6	15.6	10.2	22.8	10.3	14.6	-	4.6	12.3	7.8	4.0	8.4	6.4	7.9	18.2	13.7	-	13.2	15.6	12.3	10.1
	Q4 2011	5.3	9.4	14.6	9.4	7.6	..	10.2	8.9	14.4	32.1	14.7	14.0	17.0	10.6	26.9	10.4	14.6	-	4.5	16.5	6.4	8.5	8.6	7.0	5.8	19.9	15.6	-	15.5	14.2	11.3	9.2
	2011	**6.0**	**8.3**	**14.6**	**9.5**	**7.5**	**7.7**	**10.9**	**9.2**	**15.1**	**30.1**	**18.1**	**14.2**	**16.2**	**9.6**	**23.2**	**10.1**	**14.3**	**-**	**4.5**	**14.1**	**8.4**	**8.2**	**8.5**	**7.0**	**6.9**	**14.5**	**15.9**	**20.8**	**14.0**	**15.9**	**13.6**	**9.5**
	Q1 2012	6.3	9.1	15.8	9.0	7.6	..	11.0	9.2	16.9	33.8	11.2	15.7	16.0	10.9	32.0	11.4	14.6	-	..	17.5	7.7	5.4	11.0	6.2	8.7	-	18.0	-	13.9	14.5	11.2	9.4
	Q2 2012	6.0	7.0	16.0	8.5	7.4	..	10.1	8.2	15.9	32.5	12.2	14.4	16.3	10.2	31.6	8.0	14.8	-	..	14.8	6.3	7.7	10.4	5.2	7.6	-	16.3	-	14.3	15.8	13.6	8.5
	Q3 2012	5.8	7.6	15.2	8.9	7.9	..	12.0	8.1	15.3	30.9	13.9	13.1	15.4	10.8	32.0	7.2	15.5	-	..	13.8	9.9	6.3	9.6	5.9	7.6	12.8	19.3	-	14.2	14.3	13.6	9.0
	Q4 2012	5.9	7.3	16.7	8.1	8.8	..	11.5	8.2	15.7	33.8	8.4	12.2	16.9	10.0	34.9	5.9	14.2	-	..	16.4	7.1	6.6	11.2	7.9	8.3	22.3	21.3	-	15.7	14.9	11.9	9.0
	2012	**6.0**	**7.7**	**15.9**	**8.6**	**7.9**	**..**	**11.2**	**8.4**	**15.9**	**32.8**	**11.4**	**13.8**	**16.2**	**10.5**	**32.6**	**8.0**	**14.8**	**9.9**	**..**	**15.6**	**7.8**	**6.5**	**10.5**	**6.3**	**8.1**	**11.7**	**18.8**	**9.1**	**14.5**	**15.1**	**12.6**	**9.0**
	Q1 2013	6.4	9.6	15.4	8.5	8.9	..	-	8.3	14.5	34.9	-	-	717.4	10.1	39.0	-	15.1	-	..	18.4	-	5.9	12.8	-	..	-	22.6	-	-	16.2	-	8.8
	Q2 2013	6.1	8.2	14.9	8.4	7.5	..	9.8	8.5	13.3	34.4	12.9	13.4	15.5	9.3	38.2	12.4	15.4	-	..	18.0	9.2	6.3	11.8	7.7	..	21.1	23.3	-	20.7	15.4	12.6	7.2
	Q3 2013	6.0	8.2	16.4	9.0	8.0	..	9.7	7.8	11.5	32.8	11.7	15.9	15.5	10.4	39.1	14.5	14.5	-	..	15.7	7.1	7.1	11.4	8.7	..	24.6	19.4	-	19.1	15.7	12.7	7.4
	Q4 2013	5.7	9.5	17.3	8.1	8.8	..	9.5	7.7	14.7	34.2	9.0	15.7	17.4	9.0	38.3	14.2	13.2	-	..	18.5	10.6	7.8	12.7	7.3	..	20.9	19.3	-	20.6	15.8	12.2	7.1
	2013	**6.1**	**8.9**	**16.0**	**8.5**	**8.3**	**..**	**9.7**	**8.1**	**13.5**	**34.1**	**10.8**	**15.2**	**16.5**	**9.7**	**38.7**	**13.0**	**14.5**	**-**	**..**	**17.7**	**8.6**	**6.8**	**12.2**	**8.3**	**..**	**21.1**	**21.1**	**-**	**21.4**	**15.8**	**11.5**	**7.6**

Note: Data are not adjusted for seasonal variations. Comparisons should therefore be made for the same quarters of each year, and not for successive quarters within a given year.
Information on data for Israel: *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932315602*.

Source: European countries and Turkey: Labour Force Surveys (Eurostat); Australia, Canada, Israel, New Zealand: Labour Force Surveys; Chile: *Encuesta de Caracterización Socioeconómica Nacional* (CASEN); Mexico: *Encuesta Nacional de Ocupación y Empleo* (ENOE); United States: Current Population Surveys.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933157951

Table 2.A1.13. **Quarterly participation rates by gender and place of birth in OECD countries, 2009-13**

Percentages

Men + women

		AUS	AUT	BEL	CAN	CHE	CHL	CZE	DEU	DNK	ESP	EST	FIN	FRA	GBR	GRC	HUN	IRL	ISL	ISR	ITA	LUX	MEX	NLD	NOR	NZL	POL	PRT	SVK	SVN	SWE	TUR	USA
Native-born	Q1 2009	78.3	75.2	67.6	77.7	..	..	69.6	77.5	81.1	71.6	73.2	74.2	70.7	76.3	66.6	60.8	69.2	-	62.4	61.6	69.2	62.6	81.0	79.5	79.4	64.3	73.3	68.1	70.5	79.3	48.2	73.0
	Q2 2009	78.3	76.1	67.4	79.3	82.9	..	69.8	77.7	81.9	71.7	72.8	77.2	71.2	76.0	66.9	61.3	70.1	-	62.9	61.7	69.6	62.9	81.0	80.2	78.9	64.4	73.1	68.1	71.7	81.4	50.9	73.4
	Q3 2009	77.8	77.2	67.7	79.6	..	..	70.4	77.9	81.6	71.6	74.0	75.0	71.3	76.5	67.2	61.7	70.3	-	62.5	61.2	70.1	64.2	81.0	79.2	78.6	65.3	72.8	68.8	73.1	80.5	52.2	73.4
	Q4 2009	78.0	75.8	68.1	77.7	..	..	70.4	78.2	80.3	71.5	72.5	73.4	70.9	76.1	66.9	61.8	68.7	-	62.2	61.5	69.6	64.1	80.8	78.3	79.8	65.0	73.1	68.7	72.3	78.9	51.0	72.1
	2009	**78.1**	**76.1**	**67.7**	**78.6**	**..**	**60.8**	**70.0**	**77.9**	**81.2**	**71.6**	**73.1**	**74.9**	**71.0**	**76.2**	**66.9**	**61.4**	**69.6**	**84.3**	**62.5**	**61.5**	**69.6**	**63.5**	**80.9**	**79.3**	**79.2**	**64.7**	**73.1**	**68.4**	**71.9**	**80.0**	**50.6**	**73.0**
	Q1 2010	77.9	74.8	68.5	77.1	83.2	..	69.8	77.4	80.0	71.6	73.8	73.4	71.0	75.6	67.2	61.7	68.3	-	62.1	61.5	69.2	62.8	79.3	78.1	79.2	65.2	73.5	68.4	71.3	79.5	50.3	72.2
	Q2 2010	78.0	75.4	67.6	79.0	82.5	..	69.9	77.2	80.7	72.0	73.3	76.6	70.9	75.7	67.4	62.2	69.7	-	62.8	61.5	69.3	63.8	79.3	79.1	78.6	65.6	73.3	68.5	71.4	82.0	52.5	72.5
	Q3 2010	77.9	76.6	68.4	79.6	83.3	..	70.4	77.4	80.3	72.0	72.8	74.9	71.3	76.5	67.3	62.7	69.7	-	63.7	60.4	71.2	63.6	79.4	78.5	78.8	66.1	73.3	69.0	71.6	81.8	52.9	72.7
	Q4 2010	78.3	76.0	68.8	77.9	83.1	..	70.3	77.7	79.8	72.1	73.4	73.3	70.6	76.0	67.2	62.5	68.8	-	63.4	61.6	62.4	62.6	79.3	78.1	79.3	65.8	73.1	68.9	71.4	80.0	51.5	71.8
	2010	**78.0**	**75.7**	**68.3**	**78.4**	**83.0**	**..**	**70.1**	**77.4**	**80.2**	**71.9**	**73.3**	**74.6**	**70.8**	**76.0**	**67.3**	**62.3**	**69.1**	**84.6**	**63.0**	**61.2**	**62.6**	**63.2**	**79.3**	**78.5**	**79.0**	**65.7**	**73.3**	**68.7**	**71.4**	**80.8**	**51.8**	**72.3**
	Q1 2011	78.1	75.0	66.9	77.4	83.6	..	70.0	77.6	80.1	72.2	74.0	73.8	70.4	75.8	66.9	61.8	68.0	-	62.7	61.2	62.2	62.4	79.1	77.6	79.2	65.5	73.5	68.6	69.6	80.4	51.4	71.4
	Q2 2011	77.9	75.7	67.7	79.2	83.3	..	70.4	77.7	80.3	72.5	74.3	77.2	70.6	75.8	66.8	62.5	69.0	-	63.0	61.0	60.4	63.3	79.3	78.2	78.5	66.0	73.5	68.7	69.8	82.7	53.9	71.7
	Q3 2011	77.8	76.7	67.9	79.5	83.5	..	70.7	78.1	80.7	72.8	75.2	75.6	71.2	76.4	66.8	63.1	68.9	-	63.3	60.8	62.6	63.7	79.7	78.5	78.3	66.5	73.3	69.0	70.9	82.3	54.5	72.2
	Q4 2011	77.9	76.1	67.9	77.6	83.9	..	70.6	78.4	79.9	72.6	74.0	73.8	71.0	76.4	66.9	63.1	68.8	-	62.8	62.0	61.2	64.4	80.3	78.1	79.0	66.5	72.9	69.2	70.8	80.5	52.7	71.3
	2011	**77.9**	**75.9**	**67.6**	**78.5**	**83.6**	**61.7**	**70.4**	**77.9**	**80.2**	**72.5**	**74.4**	**75.1**	**70.8**	**76.1**	**66.8**	**62.6**	**68.7**	**84.4**	**62.9**	**61.3**	**61.6**	**63.5**	**79.6**	**78.1**	**78.8**	**66.1**	**73.3**	**68.8**	**70.3**	**81.5**	**53.1**	**71.7**
	Q1 2012	77.9	75.3	67.1	77.1	83.2	..	70.6	77.5	79.7	72.7	74.6	74.0	70.8	76.2	67.0	63.1	68.3	-	..	62.7	61.6	63.3	80.4	78.2	79.1	66.3	72.8	69.4	70.0	80.6	51.2	71.0
	Q2 2012	77.8	76.5	67.6	79.0	82.8	..	71.2	77.5	80.1	73.0	74.6	77.3	71.2	76.4	67.2	64.0	68.8	-	..	63.0	62.6	64.6	80.4	78.9	78.2	66.7	73.3	69.3	69.4	82.8	53.9	71.6
	Q3 2012	77.6	77.8	68.3	79.4	84.1	..	72.1	78.0	79.7	73.2	75.2	76.2	71.8	77.1	67.2	64.8	69.3	-	..	62.4	64.7	64.9	80.6	78.8	78.0	66.9	73.5	69.6	70.7	82.9	54.2	72.0
	Q4 2012	77.9	76.6	68.2	77.8	83.9	..	72.2	78.1	78.9	72.9	74.0	73.7	71.8	77.2	67.3	64.6	68.5	-	..	63.2	63.6	64.0	80.8	78.3	77.6	66.8	72.8	69.4	70.9	80.8	54.1	71.4
	2012	**77.8**	**76.5**	**67.8**	**78.3**	**83.5**	**..**	**71.5**	**77.8**	**79.6**	**73.0**	**74.6**	**75.3**	**71.4**	**76.8**	**67.2**	**64.1**	**68.7**	**84.6**	**..**	**62.8**	**63.1**	**64.2**	**80.5**	**78.6**	**78.2**	**66.5**	**73.1**	**69.4**	**70.3**	**81.5**	**53.4**	**71.5**
	Q1 2013	77.9	75.7	67.4	77.3	84.0	..	72.2	77.9	79.1	73.3	74.7	74.1	71.4	76.7	66.9	63.9	68.4	-	..	62.8	61.9	63.2	80.9	78.2	..	66.3	72.6	70.0	70.2	81.3	53.0	70.9
	Q2 2013	77.9	76.6	68.7	79.1	83.2	..	72.7	78.1	79.2	73.3	75.1	77.5	71.6	76.8	67.3	64.8	69.7	-	..	62.5	62.6	64.4	81.2	78.8	..	66.8	72.7	69.6	70.2	83.4	55.3	71.5
	Q3 2013	77.6	77.8	69.1	79.4	83.7	..	73.1	78.3	79.6	73.5	74.8	75.4	71.9	77.5	67.2	65.5	69.7	-	..	62.0	62.4	64.4	81.2	78.8	..	67.4	73.0	69.9	71.3	83.4	55.3	71.7
	Q4 2013	77.8	77.1	68.1	77.9	84.3	..	73.1	78.6	78.1	73.5	75.0	73.8	71.7	77.2	66.8	65.5	69.2	-	..	63.1	64.6	64.7	81.0	78.0	..	67.4	73.4	69.8	70.0	81.9	54.0	70.7
	2013	**77.8**	**76.8**	**68.3**	**78.4**	**83.8**	**..**	**72.8**	**78.2**	**79.0**	**73.4**	**74.9**	**75.2**	**71.6**	**77.1**	**67.1**	**64.9**	**69.3**	**85.6**	**..**	**62.6**	**62.9**	**64.1**	**81.1**	**78.5**	**..**	**67.0**	**72.9**	**69.8**	**70.4**	**82.5**	**54.4**	**71.2**
Foreign-born	Q1 2009	72.6	70.4	63.7	75.6	..	..	72.4	72.6	74.5	80.5	79.7	75.3	67.9	72.7	73.9	71.4	73.3	-	68.4	70.3	72.2	50.5	72.4	75.7	74.1	51.3	81.3	70.9	70.8	72.6	55.5	74.6
	Q2 2009	72.1	71.3	60.8	76.5	81.4	..	73.9	72.9	74.6	79.8	80.9	77.9	67.6	72.0	74.8	72.4	74.2	-	68.1	71.1	79.1	51.5	71.0	76.4	74.7	51.0	81.3	71.2	71.5	74.3	55.9	75.2
	Q3 2009	71.7	72.0	62.3	76.8	..	..	72.6	73.2	78.8	79.2	78.6	75.3	67.1	73.1	75.7	72.6	73.7	-	69.0	69.9	74.4	53.9	71.3	74.9	73.0	48.9	80.1	68.5	71.8	73.9	56.6	75.4
	Q4 2009	72.1	72.3	62.6	76.1	..	..	72.0	72.9	74.1	79.2	79.3	73.2	67.1	72.0	75.6	71.7	72.0	-	68.5	71.0	73.3	51.4	71.2	74.4	74.4	55.6	78.7	67.7	71.4	72.8	54.9	74.9
	2009	**72.1**	**71.5**	**62.3**	**76.3**	**..**	**70.4**	**72.7**	**72.9**	**75.5**	**79.7**	**79.6**	**75.4**	**67.4**	**72.4**	**75.0**	**72.0**	**73.3**	**87.4**	**68.5**	**70.6**	**74.7**	**51.9**	**71.5**	**75.3**	**74.0**	**51.6**	**80.4**	**69.7**	**71.3**	**73.4**	**55.7**	**75.0**
	Q1 2010	72.4	71.0	63.2	75.6	80.1	..	71.4	72.1	74.0	80.2	74.7	74.0	67.3	71.5	76.3	71.1	70.6	-	67.6	70.3	76.6	51.6	69.2	75.8	73.8	54.8	80.4	64.1	74.0	72.3	56.3	74.6
	Q2 2010	71.8	71.8	63.2	76.9	81.4	..	73.0	72.6	74.6	80.1	76.0	76.1	67.9	72.7	76.4	71.6	72.1	-	68.8	70.7	77.0	51.4	71.0	76.0	73.8	56.7	80.8	63.4	74.2	73.7	57.2	75.4
	Q3 2010	72.3	73.1	64.9	77.4	81.9	..	74.7	73.2	74.2	80.6	79.5	72.3	67.8	73.7	76.8	72.1	71.9	-	69.7	69.2	78.2	53.2	70.6	75.0	73.0	59.5	81.2	61.9	69.3	74.2	55.7	75.1
	Q4 2010	73.7	73.1	64.6	75.6	80.6	..	74.4	72.4	70.9	79.5	76.7	69.9	68.0	72.7	76.1	68.4	71.4	-	69.3	69.4	75.6	54.7	70.7	74.5	74.6	59.4	82.8	66.8	71.3	72.8	57.7	74.8
	2010	**72.6**	**72.3**	**64.0**	**76.4**	**81.0**	**..**	**73.3**	**72.6**	**73.4**	**80.1**	**76.7**	**73.0**	**67.7**	**72.7**	**76.4**	**70.8**	**71.5**	**86.4**	**68.9**	**69.9**	**75.0**	**52.7**	**70.4**	**75.3**	**73.8**	**57.4**	**81.3**	**64.0**	**72.2**	**73.3**	**56.8**	**75.0**
	Q1 2011	74.0	72.5	61.4	74.7	80.1	..	73.9	72.6	70.9	79.1	75.4	69.3	68.4	73.0	75.6	67.4	70.2	-	68.7	69.7	77.6	54.3	70.6	74.4	75.8	59.1	82.7	66.5	71.1	73.8	56.9	74.2
	Q2 2011	73.5	72.7	62.7	75.6	80.6	..	73.8	73.9	72.0	80.1	75.4	72.9	68.2	73.2	75.2	68.1	71.7	-	69.7	70.6	75.1	55.5	69.2	77.2	74.8	61.7	83.1	70.6	70.8	74.8	56.2	74.3
	Q3 2011	73.7	72.2	61.5	76.4	81.3	..	73.5	73.9	73.9	79.4	79.3	72.7	67.5	74.0	74.5	69.7	72.2	-	69.5	68.4	74.0	57.1	69.3	76.4	75.0	66.6	82.7	-	68.7	74.9	54.4	74.1
	Q4 2011	73.3	73.1	62.2	75.6	81.7	..	73.5	73.5	71.8	79.1	77.5	73.3	66.8	73.2	75.1	68.9	71.2	-	69.2	69.8	73.7	58.7	70.8	76.1	76.1	65.0	82.4	72.9	68.9	74.4	55.9	74.7
	2011	**73.6**	**72.6**	**61.9**	**75.6**	**80.9**	**72.4**	**73.7**	**73.5**	**72.1**	**79.4**	**76.9**	**72.0**	**67.7**	**73.4**	**75.1**	**68.6**	**71.3**	**85.8**	**69.3**	**69.6**	**75.1**	**56.4**	**70.0**	**76.0**	**75.4**	**62.9**	**82.7**	**70.5**	**69.9**	**74.5**	**55.9**	**74.3**
	Q1 2012	73.9	72.0	62.3	75.1	81.5	..	73.1	73.3	72.4	79.5	76.1	72.8	68.0	72.5	74.5	69.5	70.9	-	..	70.1	76.2	57.2	70.9	75.2	77.2	61.4	83.2	70.5	71.1	73.9	51.7	73.7
	Q2 2012	73.8	73.4	61.2	76.8	81.7	..	73.1	74.1	71.5	79.3	77.7	75.5	68.0	72.9	74.5	73.2	71.7	-	..	70.4	75.0	58.8	71.3	77.7	75.8	66.2	83.0	70.6	70.8	75.8	52.2	73.6
	Q3 2012	73.7	73.2	62.4	77.5	82.1	..	74.5	74.2	72.4	79.0	77.8	75.2	68.2	74.4	76.0	74.5	71.4	-	..	68.5	77.0	56.8	71.7	76.3	76.4	70.8	82.7	73.0	72.6	75.2	53.1	73.7
	Q4 2012	74.0	72.4	64.1	76.8	82.1	..	74.5	74.2	70.4	79.2	75.2	73.9	68.4	74.3	76.3	74.7	70.5	-	..	70.1	76.8	58.7	70.6	75.3	76.2	68.7	81.4	73.6	72.5	74.7	53.1	73.5
	2012	**73.9**	**72.7**	**62.5**	**76.6**	**81.9**	**..**	**73.8**	**74.0**	**71.7**	**79.3**	**76.6**	**74.3**	**68.2**	**73.5**	**75.3**	**73.1**	**71.1**	**87.3**	**..**	**69.8**	**76.2**	**57.9**	**71.1**	**76.1**	**76.4**	**66.4**	**82.6**	**72.0**	**71.7**	**74.9**	**52.5**	**73.7**
	Q1 2013	74.6	72.9	64.6	76.2	81.9	..	74.3	73.6	71.5	79.7	78.3	73.3	67.8	73.8	76.8	76.1	70.7	-	..	70.6	76.8	58.0	70.1	75.3	..	67.3	80.5	-	71.0	74.3	51.9	73.3
	Q2 2013	74.5	73.2	62.1	77.4	82.3	..	76.1	74.1	72.4	78.8	79.6	77.0	67.9	73.8	76.9	74.0	72.1	-	..	70.0	77.0	56.5	70.1	76.2	..	66.7	81.1	73.4	72.3	76.2	54.1	73.6
	Q3 2013	73.9	74.0	64.3	78.1	82.4	..	76.8	74.5	71.9	78.8	75.1	74.7	67.8	75.1	77.5	75.1	72.9	-	..	68.3	78.5	59.7	70.9	77.1	..	69.4	80.2	74.5	71.7	75.6	52.5	74.0
	Q4 2013	73.6	72.8	63.7	75.9	82.3	..	77.4	73.5	71.5	78.4	74.4	72.9	68.7	74.5	77.0	76.2	71.8	-	..	69.6	76.9	57.6	71.7	76.4	..	66.7	79.6	73.3	71.0	74.7	50.1	73.1
	2013	**74.1**	**73.2**	**63.7**	**76.9**	**82.2**	**..**	**76.2**	**73.9**	**71.8**	**78.9**	**76.9**	**74.4**	**68.1**	**74.3**	**77.0**	**75.4**	**71.9**	**87.4**	**..**	**69.6**	**77.3**	**58.0**	**70.7**	**76.2**	**..**	**67.5**	**80.4**	**74.4**	**71.5**	**75.2**	**52.1**	**73.5**

Table 2.A1.13. **Quarterly participation rates by gender and place of birth in OECD countries, 2009-13** *(cont.)*

Percentages

Men

		AUS	AUT	BEL	CAN	CHE	CHL	CZE	DEU	DNK	ESP	EST	FIN	FRA	GBR	GRC	HUN	IRL	ISL	ISR	ITA	LUX	MEX	NLD	NOR	NZL	POL	PRT	SVK	SVN	SWE	TUR	USA
Native-born	Q1 2009	83.9	79.6	72.9	80.5	..	..	78.0	82.1	84.3	80.1	76.5	75.5	74.6	82.1	77.6	67.3	76.9	-	65.2	72.5	70.3	82.5	86.1	81.5	84.8	71.3	78.2	76.0	73.6	80.8	72.1	77.5
	Q2 2009	83.5	80.8	72.3	82.4	87.1	..	78.2	81.9	84.7	80.0	76.5	78.7	74.9	81.8	77.7	68.1	77.8	-	66.1	72.6	73.0	82.3	86.2	82.6	84.6	71.5	78.2	76.0	75.5	82.8	74.0	77.9
	Q3 2009	83.2	82.1	72.4	82.9	..	..	78.7	82.5	84.6	79.7	78.5	76.3	75.0	82.1	78.0	68.3	77.7	-	65.8	72.4	72.0	82.9	86.0	81.2	83.7	72.5	77.3	76.6	76.9	82.3	75.8	77.9
	Q4 2009	83.5	81.3	73.4	80.4	..	..	78.7	82.3	83.2	79.2	75.6	74.4	74.8	81.6	77.6	68.2	75.8	-	65.1	72.5	70.3	83.1	85.6	80.1	85.4	71.9	77.6	76.4	76.1	80.9	74.4	76.4
	2009	**83.5**	**80.9**	**72.8**	**81.6**	**87.1**	**75.8**	**78.4**	**82.2**	**84.2**	**79.8**	**76.8**	**76.2**	**74.9**	**81.9**	**77.7**	**67.9**	**77.0**	**87.5**	**65.6**	**72.5**	**71.4**	**82.7**	**86.0**	**81.3**	**84.6**	**71.8**	**77.8**	**76.2**	**75.5**	**81.7**	**74.1**	**77.4**
	Q1 2010	83.6	79.4	73.2	79.6	87.9	..	78.1	82.1	82.9	79.1	76.5	75.0	74.8	81.1	77.7	67.6	75.5	-	65.5	72.5	69.5	82.1	84.5	80.1	84.4	71.9	77.9	75.7	75.2	81.3	73.4	76.5
	Q2 2010	83.5	81.0	73.1	82.0	87.6	..	78.3	82.1	83.2	79.7	75.9	78.2	74.5	81.3	77.6	68.3	77.0	-	66.3	72.3	69.5	83.0	84.5	81.4	83.9	72.2	77.5	76.0	74.5	84.0	75.1	77.0
	Q3 2010	83.4	82.0	73.6	82.8	88.3	..	78.9	82.2	83.0	79.5	76.3	76.9	74.9	82.2	77.4	68.7	77.1	-	66.9	71.2	71.9	82.9	84.7	80.7	84.1	72.9	77.5	76.2	75.7	83.7	75.7	77.1
	Q4 2010	83.9	81.4	73.5	80.6	88.1	..	78.6	82.3	83.1	79.1	76.9	74.9	74.4	81.7	77.2	68.4	75.8	-	65.8	72.0	69.7	82.0	84.2	80.3	84.8	72.7	77.5	76.3	75.2	81.9	74.2	75.8
	2010	**83.6**	**80.9**	**73.4**	**81.3**	**88.0**	**..**	**78.5**	**82.2**	**83.1**	**79.4**	**76.4**	**76.2**	**74.7**	**81.6**	**77.5**	**68.2**	**76.3**	**87.4**	**66.1**	**72.0**	**70.1**	**82.5**	**84.4**	**80.6**	**84.3**	**72.5**	**77.6**	**76.0**	**75.1**	**82.7**	**74.6**	**76.6**
	Q1 2011	83.7	79.7	71.7	80.0	88.3	..	78.0	82.2	83.1	79.2	77.9	75.7	74.2	81.1	76.8	67.7	75.1	-	65.7	71.9	68.6	81.7	83.9	79.1	84.2	72.3	78.0	76.2	73.3	81.8	74.3	75.4
	Q2 2011	83.3	81.1	72.6	82.1	87.9	..	78.6	82.1	83.0	79.3	77.1	79.4	74.4	81.2	76.7	68.5	76.0	-	66.5	71.6	67.5	82.3	83.9	79.7	84.0	73.0	77.8	76.8	73.2	84.3	76.1	75.8
	Q3 2011	82.9	82.0	71.9	82.9	88.6	..	78.8	82.3	83.3	79.6	77.8	77.4	74.9	81.9	76.5	69.3	76.0	-	66.9	71.5	68.5	82.8	84.4	80.4	83.9	73.4	78.0	76.8	74.5	84.0	77.1	76.5
	Q4 2011	83.2	81.2	72.8	80.5	88.4	..	78.5	82.7	82.7	79.1	77.4	75.8	74.6	81.7	76.0	69.2	76.1	-	65.5	72.2	66.9	82.9	84.9	80.3	84.3	73.2	77.3	77.0	73.6	82.1	75.3	75.6
	2011	**83.3**	**81.0**	**72.3**	**81.4**	**88.3**	**75.8**	**78.5**	**82.3**	**83.0**	**79.3**	**77.5**	**77.1**	**74.5**	**81.5**	**76.5**	**68.6**	**75.8**	**87.2**	**66.2**	**71.8**	**67.9**	**82.4**	**84.3**	**79.9**	**84.1**	**73.0**	**77.8**	**76.7**	**73.7**	**83.0**	**75.7**	**75.8**
	Q1 2012	83.1	79.5	71.8	79.5	87.8	..	78.5	81.9	82.1	78.7	77.6	75.5	74.5	81.3	76.1	69.1	75.3	-	..	72.6	67.3	82.1	85.0	80.4	84.5	72.9	76.8	77.1	72.2	81.8	72.9	75.1
	Q2 2012	82.8	81.5	72.7	81.9	87.4	..	79.1	81.8	82.3	79.2	77.2	79.2	74.8	81.8	76.3	70.1	76.0	-	..	73.0	69.2	83.1	84.8	80.9	83.3	73.6	77.4	76.9	72.2	84.0	75.3	76.0
	Q3 2012	82.7	82.6	72.7	82.6	89.2	..	79.9	82.5	82.0	79.3	79.0	77.4	75.4	82.5	76.1	70.9	76.7	-	..	72.6	69.3	83.6	85.0	80.7	82.7	73.8	77.7	77.3	74.1	84.3	76.1	76.6
	Q4 2012	83.1	81.3	72.5	80.6	89.0	..	79.7	82.3	81.8	78.7	78.2	75.5	75.3	82.2	76.2	71.0	75.3	-	..	73.1	69.6	82.5	85.1	80.1	82.9	73.6	76.6	77.2	74.6	82.3	75.9	75.8
	2012	**82.9**	**81.2**	**72.4**	**81.2**	**88.4**	**..**	**79.3**	**82.1**	**82.1**	**79.0**	**78.0**	**76.9**	**75.0**	**82.0**	**76.2**	**70.3**	**75.8**	**86.7**	**..**	**72.8**	**68.9**	**82.8**	**85.0**	**80.5**	**83.3**	**73.3**	**77.1**	**77.1**	**73.3**	**82.9**	**75.1**	**75.9**
	Q1 2013	83.2	79.6	71.7	79.5	88.3	..	79.7	81.9	82.0	78.7	78.4	75.1	75.0	81.6	76.0	70.0	75.1	-	..	72.4	67.3	81.8	85.1	79.7	..	73.2	76.4	77.5	73.3	82.8	74.2	75.3
	Q2 2013	82.9	80.7	73.3	81.9	87.4	..	80.2	82.2	81.1	78.7	78.3	79.3	75.1	81.9	76.4	71.4	76.3	-	..	72.2	67.0	82.6	85.6	80.8	..	73.9	76.4	77.2	73.5	84.6	76.3	75.8
	Q3 2013	82.8	82.0	72.6	82.5	88.1	..	80.7	82.3	81.4	79.2	78.7	77.3	75.2	82.7	76.4	72.3	76.6	-	..	72.0	69.7	82.7	85.7	80.5	..	74.4	76.6	77.1	74.3	84.9	76.8	76.2
	Q4 2013	83.0	81.4	72.3	80.7	88.3	..	80.5	82.5	80.3	78.7	78.0	74.8	74.8	82.3	75.9	71.9	76.0	-	..	72.8	69.3	82.9	85.4	79.3	..	74.1	76.6	76.8	73.3	83.1	75.3	74.7
	2013	**83.0**	**80.9**	**72.5**	**81.1**	**88.0**	**..**	**80.3**	**82.2**	**81.2**	**78.8**	**78.3**	**76.6**	**75.0**	**82.1**	**76.1**	**71.4**	**76.0**	**88.0**	**..**	**72.3**	**68.3**	**82.5**	**85.5**	**80.1**	**..**	**73.9**	**76.5**	**77.2**	**73.6**	**83.8**	**75.7**	**75.5**
Foreign-born	Q1 2009	80.6	79.2	73.8	82.4	..	..	80.2	81.9	80.4	88.2	82.5	78.1	76.6	83.4	89.6	81.6	83.0	-	74.6	85.4	81.3	69.1	81.2	80.5	82.5	59.5	86.1	80.8	75.5	78.3	71.6	85.6
	Q2 2009	80.6	81.0	72.4	83.0	89.6	..	82.1	82.3	78.0	87.6	86.1	84.7	76.1	81.8	89.7	82.3	84.0	-	74.9	85.5	84.2	67.4	80.5	81.2	82.7	60.9	86.7	80.8	78.4	80.8	73.5	86.8
	Q3 2009	80.1	82.5	74.3	83.2	..	..	81.4	82.5	85.2	85.9	82.2	81.2	76.1	83.6	90.2	79.6	82.5	-	74.2	85.6	82.9	71.4	80.6	80.3	80.5	58.1	86.4	83.3	76.1	80.5	74.2	86.6
	Q4 2009	80.3	82.0	72.8	82.3	..	..	82.1	82.3	83.3	86.5	83.1	78.3	76.4	80.9	89.6	79.9	81.5	-	73.5	84.8	83.5	72.8	80.1	81.2	82.0	67.4	85.5	85.3	76.6	78.7	71.7	85.7
	2009	**80.4**	**81.2**	**73.3**	**82.7**	**89.6**	**79.3**	**81.5**	**82.2**	**81.8**	**87.0**	**83.6**	**80.6**	**76.3**	**82.4**	**89.8**	**80.9**	**82.8**	**89.9**	**74.3**	**85.3**	**83.0**	**70.3**	**80.6**	**80.8**	**81.9**	**61.2**	**86.2**	**82.3**	**76.6**	**79.6**	**72.6**	**86.2**
	Q1 2010	81.4	79.1	72.1	81.3	88.4	..	81.9	83.1	84.7	86.7	75.2	80.2	76.1	80.5	90.4	76.4	80.1	-	72.6	83.9	83.7	68.9	76.6	80.6	81.7	68.4	84.4	82.8	79.7	78.7	72.0	85.5
	Q2 2010	80.4	80.7	74.3	83.0	89.6	..	83.4	82.8	80.3	87.4	78.1	85.4	77.1	81.9	90.3	73.9	81.3	-	74.8	84.9	82.1	69.6	79.3	81.8	82.0	67.8	84.2	82.7	78.0	80.3	74.9	86.5
	Q3 2010	80.8	81.8	74.8	84.2	90.1	..	85.3	83.7	76.9	87.7	81.6	81.1	77.3	83.4	90.9	74.1	81.4	-	75.9	84.9	82.9	74.5	78.8	80.1	80.8	62.5	85.0	79.9	75.6	80.6	73.1	86.5
	Q4 2010	81.9	80.8	74.6	82.5	88.7	..	84.7	83.0	77.2	86.8	83.3	78.1	76.9	82.5	90.2	75.2	80.7	-	74.4	84.7	84.0	76.3	79.7	80.0	82.1	70.1	86.6	81.6	76.9	80.1	74.5	85.3
	2010	**81.1**	**80.6**	**74.0**	**82.8**	**89.2**	**..**	**83.8**	**83.1**	**79.7**	**87.1**	**79.6**	**81.2**	**76.9**	**82.1**	**90.4**	**74.9**	**80.9**	**89.3**	**74.4**	**84.6**	**83.2**	**72.3**	**78.6**	**80.6**	**81.6**	**67.4**	**85.1**	**81.7**	**77.5**	**79.9**	**73.6**	**86.0**
	Q1 2011	82.6	80.6	72.4	81.1	88.9	..	84.4	83.0	75.5	85.5	81.0	77.7	76.7	82.6	89.4	74.8	78.5	-	73.5	83.0	84.6	71.7	78.2	78.0	84.0	65.1	86.9	79.1	76.7	80.3	73.9	85.6
	Q2 2011	81.5	82.6	71.9	82.4	89.7	..	86.1	84.0	76.2	85.9	79.7	80.7	76.9	83.2	89.1	77.2	79.9	-	75.5	84.7	82.1	72.0	77.7	82.1	81.0	64.1	85.9	81.8	76.6	81.4	74.6	85.7
	Q3 2011	81.9	81.2	72.8	82.9	90.2	..	86.1	83.6	77.9	86.1	84.9	79.7	76.6	83.3	89.2	82.2	80.9	-	76.0	83.3	82.2	69.8	78.5	80.6	81.6	72.0	87.3	86.5	75.4	81.5	71.9	85.5
	Q4 2011	81.6	81.5	73.0	81.8	90.2	..	85.3	84.2	77.2	86.1	84.2	80.0	75.6	83.0	89.1	77.6	79.5	-	74.9	83.7	82.4	69.8	79.5	79.8	83.8	78.7	85.0	83.1	74.3	80.9	73.3	85.8
	2011	**81.9**	**81.5**	**72.5**	**82.0**	**89.8**	**82.6**	**85.5**	**83.7**	**76.7**	**85.9**	**82.5**	**79.5**	**76.4**	**83.0**	**89.2**	**78.1**	**79.7**	**88.2**	**75.0**	**83.7**	**82.8**	**70.8**	**78.4**	**80.1**	**82.6**	**69.6**	**86.3**	**82.5**	**75.8**	**81.0**	**73.5**	**85.6**
	Q1 2012	82.9	79.8	73.7	81.7	89.5	..	84.7	83.9	77.8	85.7	81.4	79.0	77.2	83.3	88.5	78.9	79.0	-	..	82.9	84.8	69.8	79.5	79.9	84.5		86.7	-	77.2	80.2	71.1	84.9
	Q2 2012	82.4	83.6	70.8	83.3	89.8	..	84.6	83.7	75.5	85.8	85.7	81.1	77.2	83.4	88.2	82.3	79.9	-	..	83.8	82.2	70.9	80.1	82.6	81.6	70.4	86.0	-	77.0	82.4	69.1	84.7
	Q3 2012	82.0	84.0	72.2	84.2	90.2	..	86.9	84.5	76.2	85.9	83.7	81.5	78.3	84.6	89.6	84.2	79.8	-	..	81.4	83.5	67.4	79.7	80.8	82.7	78.0	85.1	80.2	77.7	82.0	75.1	85.2
	Q4 2012	82.9	82.0	74.4	83.0	89.5	..	86.8	84.0	76.0	85.3	81.9	80.4	79.4	83.8	90.0	82.0	80.0	-	..	82.4	84.1	69.7	78.7	80.8	82.2	77.6	84.4	-	79.5	81.7	72.0	84.5
	2012	**82.5**	**82.3**	**72.8**	**83.0**	**89.7**	**..**	**85.7**	**84.0**	**76.4**	**85.7**	**83.1**	**80.5**	**78.0**	**83.8**	**89.1**	**81.9**	**79.6**	**90.3**	**..**	**82.6**	**83.7**	**69.4**	**79.5**	**81.0**	**82.8**	**73.6**	**85.6**	**79.7**	**77.8**	**81.3**	**71.9**	**84.9**
	Q1 2013	83.5	81.8	75.1	82.2	89.4	..	86.6	83.4	75.9	85.6	81.4	79.3	78.7	82.7	90.3	83.6	79.3	-	..	82.2	84.5	71.1	79.2	80.7	..	78.2	83.4	85.0	81.4	80.4	69.8	84.6
	Q2 2013	83.2	83.2	73.0	83.8	89.9	..	86.4	83.8	75.8	84.5	85.4	83.3	79.0	82.8	89.7	84.6	81.0	-	..	82.0	83.7	72.6	79.0	81.1	..	70.5	84.1	82.1	79.5	82.1	73.2	85.5
	Q3 2013	81.8	83.3	74.2	84.7	90.1	..	87.4	84.1	76.3	85.3	78.8	81.4	79.1	85.3	89.7	86.9	82.2	-	..	81.0	86.1	75.4	78.8	80.9	..	74.4	82.8	81.4	80.3	81.5	71.2	85.6
	Q4 2013	81.8	81.1	73.4	82.3	90.0	..	87.4	83.5	75.5	84.6	78.4	78.2	79.1	83.7	90.0	86.5	81.2	-	..	80.6	85.4	74.1	80.5	81.3	..	71.3	82.3	81.1	79.0	80.6	70.4	84.9
	2013	**82.6**	**82.3**	**73.9**	**83.3**	**89.8**	**..**	**87.0**	**83.7**	**75.9**	**85.0**	**80.9**	**80.5**	**79.0**	**83.6**	**89.9**	**85.3**	**80.9**	**91.0**	**..**	**81.4**	**84.9**	**73.3**	**79.3**	**81.0**	**..**	**73.7**	**83.2**	**82.2**	**80.0**	**81.1**	**71.1**	**85.1**

Table 2.A1.13. **Quarterly participation rates by gender and place of birth in OECD countries, 2009-13** *(cont.)*

Percentages

Women

		AUS	AUT	BEL	CAN	CHE	CHL	CZE	DEU	DNK	ESP	EST	FIN	FRA	GBR	GRC	HUN	IRL	ISL	ISR	ITA	LUX	MEX	NLD	NOR	NZL	POL	PRT	SVK	SVN	SWE	TUR	USA
Native-born	Q1 2009	72.8	70.8	62.3	74.8	..	..	60.9	72.8	77.9	70.2	62.8	72.9	66.7	70.6	55.7	54.6	61.6	-	59.5	50.7	55.0	44.8	75.8	77.4	74.3	57.5	68.4	60.2	67.2	77.7	24.9	68.7
	Q2 2009	73.0	71.3	62.5	76.1	78.6	..	61.2	73.2	78.9	69.4	63.2	75.7	67.4	70.3	56.0	54.8	62.3	-	59.6	50.6	57.5	45.3	75.6	77.7	73.4	57.6	68.0	60.2	67.8	79.9	28.4	69.2
	Q3 2009	72.3	72.3	63.0	76.2	..	..	61.8	73.2	78.6	69.6	63.1	73.7	67.7	70.9	56.4	55.3	62.9	-	59.1	49.7	58.0	47.3	75.8	77.1	73.7	58.2	68.3	61.0	69.1	78.7	29.3	69.0
	Q4 2009	72.4	70.3	62.6	74.9	..	..	61.8	73.9	77.3	69.5	63.5	72.4	67.1	70.6	56.2	55.7	61.6	-	59.1	50.4	55.1	47.0	75.8	76.5	74.6	58.2	68.7	61.1	68.3	76.7	28.1	68.0
	2009	**72.6**	**71.1**	**62.6**	**75.5**	**..**	**47.0**	**61.4**	**73.3**	**78.2**	**69.7**	**63.2**	**73.7**	**67.2**	**70.6**	**56.1**	**55.1**	**62.1**	**80.9**	**59.3**	**50.4**	**56.4**	**46.1**	**75.8**	**77.2**	**74.0**	**57.9**	**68.3**	**60.6**	**68.1**	**78.2**	**27.7**	**68.7**
	Q1 2010	72.1	70.1	63.8	74.5	78.4	..	61.2	72.5	77.0	71.3	63.8	71.7	67.2	70.2	56.6	56.0	61.1	-	58.5	50.3	54.4	45.4	76.1	76.0	74.3	58.6	69.2	61.1	67.2	77.5	27.8	68.0
	Q2 2010	72.3	69.8	61.9	76.0	77.2	..	61.3	72.3	78.1	70.8	64.1	75.0	67.2	70.0	57.0	56.3	62.4	-	59.1	50.5	54.8	46.3	76.4	76.7	73.5	59.2	69.2	61.1	68.2	79.9	30.5	68.3
	Q3 2010	72.4	71.2	63.2	76.3	78.0	..	61.6	72.5	77.5	69.6	64.2	72.9	67.8	70.8	57.2	56.9	62.4	-	60.4	49.5	55.4	46.2	74.0	76.3	73.6	59.5	69.2	61.8	67.3	79.7	30.5	68.5
	Q4 2010	72.5	70.5	63.9	75.1	77.9	..	61.9	73.0	76.2	65.0	70.0	71.7	66.8	70.3	57.2	56.7	61.8	-	60.9	51.0	54.6	44.9	74.4	75.8	74.0	59.0	68.7	61.6	67.4	78.1	29.3	67.9
	2010	**72.3**	**70.4**	**63.2**	**75.5**	**77.9**	**..**	**61.5**	**72.6**	**77.2**	**64.3**	**70.4**	**72.8**	**67.1**	**70.3**	**57.0**	**56.5**	**61.9**	**81.6**	**59.7**	**50.3**	**54.8**	**45.7**	**74.1**	**76.2**	**73.9**	**59.0**	**69.1**	**61.4**	**67.5**	**78.8**	**29.5**	**68.1**
	Q1 2011	72.4	70.3	62.1	74.9	78.6	..	61.8	72.9	77.0	65.0	70.3	71.8	66.6	70.4	57.0	56.0	61.0	-	59.5	50.4	55.6	44.8	74.2	76.0	74.5	58.9	69.0	61.0	65.8	79.0	29.1	67.6
	Q2 2011	72.5	70.3	62.7	76.3	78.5	..	62.1	73.2	77.4	65.5	71.6	74.8	66.8	70.4	56.8	56.6	62.0	-	59.5	50.4	53.3	45.9	74.6	76.5	73.2	59.2	69.2	60.6	66.3	81.0	32.2	67.7
	Q3 2011	72.6	71.3	63.8	76.1	78.2	..	62.5	73.7	78.0	65.7	72.7	73.7	67.6	70.9	57.1	57.1	61.8	-	59.5	49.9	56.5	46.4	74.8	76.5	72.9	59.6	68.7	61.2	67.1	80.6	32.3	68.0
	Q4 2011	72.7	70.9	63.0	74.7	79.2	..	62.5	74.0	77.0	65.8	70.8	71.7	67.4	71.0	57.6	57.3	61.6	-	59.9	51.7	55.4	47.7	75.6	75.8	73.9	59.8	68.5	61.3	67.9	78.9	30.5	67.2
	2011	**72.6**	**70.7**	**62.9**	**75.5**	**78.6**	**49.0**	**62.2**	**73.5**	**77.3**	**65.5**	**71.3**	**73.0**	**67.1**	**70.7**	**57.1**	**56.7**	**61.6**	**81.5**	**59.6**	**50.6**	**55.2**	**46.2**	**74.8**	**76.2**	**73.6**	**59.4**	**68.8**	**61.0**	**66.8**	**79.9**	**31.0**	**67.6**
	Q1 2012	72.6	71.0	62.4	74.5	78.4	..	62.5	72.9	77.1	66.4	71.8	72.4	67.1	71.1	57.8	57.3	61.3	-	..	52.6	55.5	46.1	75.6	76.0	73.9	59.7	69.0	61.6	67.7	79.2	29.5	67.0
	Q2 2012	72.8	71.3	62.4	75.9	77.9	..	63.2	73.1	77.8	66.6	72.1	75.3	67.6	71.1	58.0	58.0	61.7	-	..	52.9	55.6	47.7	75.7	76.8	73.4	60.0	69.3	61.6	66.5	81.5	32.5	67.4
	Q3 2012	72.4	73.0	63.9	76.0	79.0	..	64.0	73.5	77.2	66.9	71.6	74.9	68.2	71.8	58.2	58.9	61.8	-	..	52.0	60.1	48.0	76.0	76.9	73.5	60.1	69.3	62.0	67.3	81.6	32.3	67.7
	Q4 2012	72.7	71.9	63.8	75.0	78.7	..	64.5	73.8	75.9	66.9	70.1	72.0	68.4	72.1	58.3	58.5	61.8	-	..	53.2	57.3	47.3	76.5	76.4	72.5	60.1	69.0	61.5	67.1	79.2	32.4	67.2
	2012	**72.6**	**71.8**	**63.1**	**75.4**	**78.5**	**..**	**63.6**	**73.3**	**77.0**	**66.7**	**71.4**	**73.7**	**67.8**	**71.5**	**58.0**	**58.2**	**61.6**	**82.5**	**..**	**52.7**	**57.2**	**47.3**	**76.0**	**76.5**	**73.3**	**59.7**	**69.2**	**61.7**	**67.1**	**80.1**	**31.7**	**67.3**
	Q1 2013	72.5	71.6	63.1	75.0	79.6	..	64.5	73.9	76.2	67.6	71.1	73.1	67.9	71.9	57.7	57.9	61.8	-	..	53.0	56.3	46.2	76.6	76.6	..	59.4	68.9	62.4	66.9	79.8	31.8	66.6
	Q2 2013	72.8	72.3	63.8	76.2	78.9	..	65.0	73.9	77.2	67.7	71.9	75.6	68.2	71.7	58.1	58.4	63.1	-	..	52.6	57.9	47.8	76.6	76.7	..	59.8	69.1	62.0	66.7	82.0	34.4	67.4
	Q3 2013	72.4	73.6	65.5	76.3	79.2	..	65.3	74.2	77.8	67.7	70.9	73.5	68.6	72.4	57.9	58.9	62.9	-	..	51.8	55.0	47.7	76.6	77.1	..	60.6	69.4	62.6	68.0	81.9	33.7	67.3
	Q4 2013	72.7	72.7	63.8	75.2	80.2	..	65.5	74.6	75.9	68.1	72.0	72.7	68.7	72.1	57.6	59.3	62.5	-	..	53.2	59.9	48.0	76.3	76.6	..	60.8	70.1	62.7	66.4	80.5	32.8	66.8
	2013	**72.6**	**72.6**	**64.1**	**75.7**	**79.4**	**..**	**65.1**	**74.2**	**76.8**	**67.8**	**71.5**	**73.7**	**68.3**	**72.0**	**57.8**	**58.6**	**62.5**	**83.2**	**..**	**52.6**	**57.3**	**47.4**	**76.5**	**76.8**	**..**	**60.1**	**69.4**	**62.4**	**67.0**	**81.1**	**33.2**	**67.0**
Foreign-born	Q1 2009	64.6	62.3	53.6	69.3	..	..	64.5	62.8	69.0	77.4	73.0	72.2	59.6	62.6	57.8	63.9	62.9	-	63.0	56.9	69.1	33.0	64.4	70.9	66.4	45.4	77.0	61.4	65.8	67.4	32.4	63.0
	Q2 2009	63.7	62.4	49.8	70.4	73.3	..	65.5	63.1	71.5	76.0	71.9	70.4	59.5	62.7	59.5	65.1	64.2	-	62.1	58.6	63.8	38.0	62.4	71.7	66.8	41.8	76.8	63.4	64.7	68.4	31.7	63.0
	Q3 2009	63.3	62.3	50.5	70.7	..	..	63.7	63.4	73.1	75.9	72.5	69.6	58.6	63.2	60.7	67.4	64.6	-	64.4	56.5	64.0	37.6	63.1	69.5	65.9	42.4	74.8	56.4	67.0	68.1	30.8	63.5
	Q4 2009	64.0	63.5	53.0	70.3	..	..	61.5	63.4	66.4	76.5	72.0	68.8	58.6	63.4	61.1	65.8	62.5	-	64.0	58.8	67.4	31.5	63.4	67.6	66.9	47.3	72.9	53.0	65.4	67.3	31.2	63.5
	2009	**63.9**	**62.6**	**51.7**	**70.2**	**..**	**62.8**	**63.8**	**63.2**	**70.0**	**76.4**	**72.4**	**70.2**	**59.1**	**63.0**	**59.8**	**65.5**	**63.5**	**85.0**	**63.4**	**57.7**	**66.1**	**34.9**	**63.3**	**69.9**	**66.5**	**44.2**	**75.4**	**58.9**	**65.7**	**67.8**	**31.6**	**63.3**
	Q1 2010	63.6	63.7	54.7	70.2	72.0	..	60.4	61.6	65.2	74.2	73.7	68.1	59.1	62.9	61.8	67.0	61.2	-	63.3	58.3	67.5	35.2	63.9	71.1	66.0	43.7	77.0	47.7	67.7	66.5	32.8	63.1
	Q2 2010	63.4	63.7	52.8	71.0	73.4	..	61.5	62.9	69.7	74.3	73.2	67.2	59.4	63.7	62.3	69.8	63.0	-	63.4	58.4	65.0	35.2	64.1	69.8	65.9	47.5	77.7	45.9	70.0	67.7	31.2	63.6
	Q3 2010	64.1	65.2	55.1	71.0	73.9	..	63.2	63.1	71.9	77.8	73.9	64.1	58.8	64.4	62.7	70.4	62.3	-	64.1	55.5	67.0	31.1	63.1	69.7	65.6	57.3	77.7	43.6	62.8	68.4	31.4	63.3
	Q4 2010	65.7	66.0	55.2	69.1	72.8	..	63.4	62.2	66.2	72.7	71.7	62.5	59.9	63.6	62.2	62.7	62.2	-	65.0	56.3	67.5	32.6	62.5	68.6	67.4	49.9	79.3	50.0	65.0	66.4	34.1	64.0
	2010	**64.2**	**64.7**	**54.5**	**70.3**	**73.0**	**..**	**62.1**	**62.4**	**68.2**	**73.4**	**74.5**	**65.4**	**59.2**	**63.7**	**62.2**	**67.4**	**62.2**	**83.7**	**63.9**	**57.1**	**66.8**	**33.6**	**63.0**	**69.7**	**66.2**	**49.1**	**77.9**	**46.8**	**66.3**	**67.3**	**32.4**	**63.5**
	Q1 2011	65.7	65.0	51.1	68.9	71.7	..	62.5	62.7	67.3	73.2	71.0	61.4	60.8	64.1	62.2	61.2	62.0	-	64.5	58.2	70.3	36.4	63.6	70.6	67.8	52.5	78.9	53.5	64.4	67.8	32.1	62.4
	Q2 2011	65.6	63.8	53.7	69.2	71.9	..	60.2	64.2	68.4	74.7	72.0	65.5	60.2	63.9	61.2	60.8	63.8	-	64.6	58.5	67.8	38.0	61.7	72.2	69.0	59.3	80.7	-	64.2	68.8	29.8	62.2
	Q3 2011	65.6	64.1	51.0	70.3	72.8	..	59.7	64.6	70.2	73.2	75.0	66.0	59.3	65.2	60.0	59.1	63.6	-	63.8	55.6	65.4	44.2	61.1	72.3	68.7	62.0	78.5	60.0	61.5	68.9	30.5	62.5
	Q4 2011	65.0	65.6	52.4	69.8	73.3	..	60.5	63.3	67.3	72.6	71.9	67.2	59.0	64.0	61.3	62.0	63.1	-	64.2	58.0	64.8	46.8	63.0	72.3	68.7	54.2	79.9	64.3	62.5	68.2	32.4	63.4
	2011	**65.5**	**64.6**	**52.1**	**69.6**	**72.4**	**64.7**	**60.7**	**63.7**	**68.3**	**73.4**	**72.5**	**65.1**	**59.8**	**64.3**	**61.2**	**60.8**	**63.1**	**83.6**	**64.3**	**57.6**	**67.0**	**41.4**	**62.4**	**71.9**	**68.6**	**56.8**	**79.5**	**59.2**	**63.1**	**68.4**	**31.2**	**62.6**
	Q1 2012	65.1	65.0	51.6	68.9	73.7	..	60.8	63.1	67.8	73.8	72.3	67.0	59.6	62.5	60.9	61.6	63.2	-	..	59.2	67.7	43.0	63.2	70.5	70.3	53.4	79.4	64.8	63.4	68.0	37.2	62.6
	Q2 2012	65.3	64.4	52.5	70.7	73.8	..	61.3	64.9	68.3	73.3	72.4	70.3	59.4	63.1	61.0	65.3	64.1	-	..	59.1	67.8	46.6	63.4	72.8	70.2	61.5	80.1	61.7	63.7	69.8	39.5	62.4
	Q3 2012	65.6	63.8	53.3	71.4	74.0	..	61.9	64.3	69.0	72.7	73.2	69.2	59.1	64.6	62.7	65.6	63.8	-	..	57.5	70.1	45.2	64.6	71.6	70.1	62.8	80.4	66.6	66.7	68.8	35.9	62.3
	Q4 2012	65.5	63.8	54.5	71.1	74.8	..	61.8	64.9	65.3	73.6	70.0	67.7	58.4	65.3	63.0	68.1	61.9	-	..	59.7	69.4	45.7	63.4	69.6	70.3	58.4	78.7	69.0	64.7	68.1	37.2	62.8
	2012	**65.4**	**64.2**	**53.0**	**70.5**	**74.1**	**..**	**61.5**	**64.3**	**67.6**	**73.4**	**72.0**	**68.5**	**59.1**	**63.9**	**61.9**	**65.1**	**63.2**	**84.1**	**..**	**58.9**	**68.7**	**45.1**	**63.7**	**71.1**	**70.3**	**58.5**	**79.7**	**65.7**	**64.6**	**68.9**	**37.4**	**62.5**
	Q1 2013	66.1	65.0	54.6	70.7	74.5	..	61.3	64.0	67.4	74.5	76.1	67.5	57.9	65.3	63.7	69.3	62.7	-	..	60.7	69.2	43.1	62.2	69.7	..	54.7	77.7	-	59.7	68.4	38.4	62.3
	Q2 2013	66.1	64.6	52.1	71.4	74.8	..	65.3	64.8	69.5	73.7	75.4	71.4	57.9	65.3	64.5	64.6	63.6	-	..	59.6	70.3	39.8	62.4	71.2	..	62.6	78.3	65.3	64.6	70.4	40.2	61.9
	Q3 2013	66.2	65.7	54.6	71.7	74.7	..	65.2	65.3	68.2	72.8	72.5	67.8	57.7	65.6	66.0	64.7	64.1	-	..	57.6	70.5	43.6	64.0	73.0	..	64.4	77.9	67.7	62.4	70.1	37.3	62.7
	Q4 2013	65.5	65.4	54.3	70.0	74.8	..	67.0	63.8	68.1	72.9	71.4	67.8	59.4	65.9	64.7	67.8	62.8	-	..	60.2	67.7	41.2	63.8	71.2	..	60.9	77.2	65.1	62.4	69.1	33.4	61.6
	2013	**66.0**	**65.2**	**53.9**	**70.9**	**74.7**	**..**	**64.7**	**64.5**	**68.3**	**73.5**	**73.9**	**68.6**	**58.2**	**65.5**	**64.7**	**66.6**	**63.3**	**84.3**	**..**	**59.5**	**69.4**	**41.9**	**63.1**	**71.3**	**..**	**60.5**	**77.8**	**66.9**	**62.3**	**69.5**	**37.3**	**62.1**

Note: Data are not adjusted for seasonal variations. Comparisons should therefore be made for the same quarters of each year, and not for successive quarters within a given year.
Information on data for Israel: *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932315602*.

Source: European countries and Turkey: Labour Force Surveys (Eurostat); Australia, Canada, Israel, New Zealand: Labour Force Surveys; Chile: *Encuesta de Caracterización Socioeconómica Nacional* (CASEN); Mexico: *Encuesta Nacional de Ocupación y Empleo* (ENOE); United States: Current Population Surveys.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933157963