

International migration and the United Kingdom: Recent patterns and trends

Final report to the Home Office
December 2001

Janet Dobson, Khalid Koser, Gail Mclaughlan and John Salt
with the assistance of James Clarke, Charlie Pinkerton and Isobel Salt

*The views expressed in this report are those of the authors,
not necessarily those of the Home Office (nor do they reflect Government policy).*

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Foreword

The RDS Occasional Paper "Migration: an economic and social analysis", published earlier this year, called for further debate and serious research on how migration policy might be further developed in the interests of sustainable growth and social inclusion. In response to this, the RDS Innovations Fund financed the Migration Research Unit at the University College London to produce this study.

The report brings together information on stocks of migrants within the UK, and flows to and from the UK. It examines characteristics such as citizenship, employment, occupation and skill level, to provide a comprehensive picture of migrants' impact on the UK labour market.

A range of data on trends of UK migration over the last twenty-five years is analysed, with a particular focus on the last decade. The report brings together all the different data sources, including Home Office immigration and Work Permit statistics, Office of National Statistics International Passenger Survey data, and Labour Force Survey data. Together, these sources provide a coherent story about immigration, and its implications for wealth generation in the UK. This provides a context to inform policy debate on international migration and its implications for the UK labour market.

Paul Wiles,
Director, Research Development and Statistics Directorate,
Home Office

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Executive summary

This report aims to inform policy debate on international migration and its implications for the UK labour market. It analyses a range of data on trends and patterns of UK migration over the last twenty-five years, with a particular focus on the 1990s and on aspects which affect the labour supply. It examines the present locus of foreign workers in the economy, the work permit system and the role of asylum seekers.

Current debate is tending to concentrate on three main propositions: the contribution migration can make to alleviating the possible impacts of demographic change; a need to compete in a global skills market to remain economically competitive; and a need to recruit overseas workers to meet specific labour shortages. There is often a failure to recognise that patterns of migration to and from the UK are complex, dynamic and difficult to pin down and that outflows as well as inflows of workers, British as well as non-British, need to be considered in assessing economic impacts. In addition, it is not just migrants entering through work-related categories that can have an impact on the labour market, but also students, family members and, in the long run, their children.

Sources of data which shed light on stocks and flows of migrants use widely differing concepts and definitions. For example, the International Passenger Survey (IPS), which covers both British and non-British citizens, defines a migrant to the UK as 'a person who has resided abroad for a year or more and who states on arrival the intention to stay in the UK for a year or more'. The Labour Force Survey (LFS) provides statistics on both foreign workers (workers with foreign citizenship) and foreign-born workers, a diverse group of people born outside the UK and thus, by definition, having been immigrants at some point (including workers with foreign citizenship, those who have been naturalised, British citizens born abroad and Commonwealth citizens who took up British citizenship). Furthermore, the LFS, like the Census, allows identification of an international migrant as someone who is living in this country at time of survey having been resident outside the UK a year before. Work permit holders and working holidaymakers are specific groups within the far wider categories identified above. It is crucial in interpreting the findings of this research to understand the concepts and definitions involved.

The UK has the third largest foreign population and labour force in Western Europe. However, as a proportion of total population, its stock of foreign citizens and labour is low compared with many of its neighbours and it contains a relatively high proportion of immigrants from high income countries. Since 1993 its annual rate of increase in foreign population has been faster than in the region overall.

The International Passenger Survey indicates that the UK has gained population through migration every year since 1983. There has been a net outflow of British citizens and a bigger net inflow of non-British. The highest net inflows occurred between 1994 and 1999 and, during the late 1990s, net migration has become a larger element in UK population growth than natural increase. Inflows throughout the period have been dominated by those of working age, particularly the 15-24 age group, with labour force implications both immediately and in the longer term where family formation and expansion occur.

There has been an overall trend of increase in incoming migrants categorised as 'employed', with the inflow in 1995-9 almost double that in 1975-9, whereas the outflow in 1995-9 was not much greater than in the late 'seventies. Professional and managerial workers have accounted for about 60 per cent of this inflow over

the last twenty years, while their proportion in the outflow has increased to the same level. In terms of actual numbers, inflows of professionals and managers have exceeded outflows since the mid-eighties, with a net inflow of over 100,000 in 1995-9. Manual and clerical workers have correspondingly formed about 40 per cent of the inflow and a declining proportion of the outflow, with a net inflow of over 50,000 in 1995-9.

In both occupational groups, a net loss of British citizens has been more than replaced by a net gain of non-British in the 1990s. There has been growth in the proportion of women among employed migrants since the late 'seventies/early 'eighties. The actual number of employed women entering the UK in 1995-9 was 124 per cent higher than in 1975-9, whereas the total inflow of employed men was only 65 per cent higher.

Citizens of the developed world, and notably of the Old Commonwealth and EU/EFTA, have formed a high and increasing proportion of workers entering and leaving the UK since the mid-eighties. Citizens from less developed countries have become a smaller proportion of the inflow than they were in the late 'seventies/early 'eighties but also a dwindling part of the outflow.

In terms of actual numbers, every citizenship group recorded its highest net inflow in 1995-9 and in every group, professional and managerial workers predominated. It would appear that just over a third of the net addition to the labour force in this final period came from less developed countries and just over two thirds came from more developed countries, nearly half of them from the Old Commonwealth.

There has been a sharp increase in the 'nineties in numbers of migrants categorised in the IPS as 'students' prior to entry, some of whom are likely to have been coming as working holiday-makers or for other purposes, as well as those intending to further their studies.

For migrants arriving in the UK and those leaving, London is clearly more important as a destination/origin for the non-British than for the British. In respect of emigrants, about a third go to EU/EFTA countries (less in the case of manual and clerical workers), two-thirds elsewhere. Old Commonwealth destinations are still significant for British workers with skills and qualifications and increasingly for British working holiday-makers.

The Labour Force Survey shows that, as a result of the trends described above, the foreign national workforce in the UK has risen steadily, by more than a quarter since 1995. It is highly concentrated in London and, to a lesser extent, the rest of the South East.

Foreign nationals are most numerous in labour-intensive sectors: those found to have over 10,000 foreign employees in both the mid-eighties and the late 'nineties were financial and administrative services and hotels and catering (with an increasing share of total foreign employment); manufacturing, construction, transport and communications and other services (with a decreasing share); and distribution (no change). Among sub-sectors, health and social work increased its share but education's share remained unchanged.

Although the foreign national workforce has a broadly similar occupational structure to that of the overall population, there are higher proportions of foreign-born workers in the more skilled occupational groups. Changes in the proportions of foreign workers in different occupational categories between 1992 and 2000 were not obviously related to skill levels. The largest gaining occupations during the period were computer analysts and programmers. Occupations with diminishing numbers of foreign workers were dominated by manufacturing. Despite increased flows, the stock of foreign-born nurses active in the labour force does not seem to have changed.

Compared with the UK-born, a lower proportion of the foreign-born is economically active and their unemployment rates are consistently higher. However, the Longitudinal Study suggests that some immigrants born outside the UK have higher rates of progression in respect of occupational status than the indigenous population, particularly those coming from less developed countries.

An analysis of the work permit system reveals major changes over time and notably in the 1990s. Work permits now seem more likely than hitherto to bring in specific skills in occupational areas where there are shortages. However, the main increases have been in a small number of occupations associated with IT and health and there has been a shift to new supply countries.

Asylum seekers have been a substantial component of non-British migration flows in the 1990s, appearing to comprise between a sixth and a third of annual inflows. A considerable number are legally entitled to work and others may in fact be doing so. In the longer term, decisions on their applications, the numbers who remain and the opportunities they have to contribute their potential will determine their role in the economy.

Policy implications

There are many policy implications of the report's findings, including the following:

- Migration policy must address the sheer complexity of patterns and trends in movement, recognising the importance of outflows as well as inflows and of migration by British as well as non-British citizens.
- More account should be taken of the substantial volume of medium- and short-term movement of labour. Specific attention should be focussed on the actual and potential role in the workforce of overseas migrants in their late teens and early twenties who have, over the years, filled a range of skilled and unskilled jobs before moving on, particularly in the London area. Attempts to increase recruitment of overseas students are likely to add to their numbers.
- Where the immigration of young people leads to permanent settlement, this may to some extent have a rejuvenating effect on the indigenous population confronting demographic ageing, in the short-term at any rate though possibly not in the long-term. However, the likely outcomes in terms of birth rate, the need for family housing and other services will have to be planned for.
- The big increase in the numbers and proportion of females among employed migrants has significance for the make-up of the labour force in some regions and sectors of employment in the UK and the policy implications of this need to be explored.
- Policy development should have regard to the regional consequences of migration, given the heavy concentration of foreign workers in London and the South East. There are implications for the regional distribution of skills and for social provision.
- The UK needs to consider how far it wishes to go in the direction of encouraging permanent immigration of labour market skills and how far to compete, and with whom, in attracting temporary foreign workers.
- A major decision for government is how much responsibility it wants to give to employers for foreign labour recruitment.

- Where skilled workers are being recruited from less developed parts of the world, the costs and benefits for different sending countries need to be assessed and appropriate action determined. Policies need to be reconciled with those on overseas development.
- The movement of highly skilled British citizens to countries overseas takes place in a variety of circumstances, many of them beneficial to the UK economy or to developing countries, but the reasons for outward migration could usefully be studied and the possibilities for greater retention considered.
- A range of strategies, including some current national policy initiatives on training and access to work, could lead to greater workforce participation within the UK population and reduce the need for overseas recruitment. There are also fundamental issues relating to pay and conditions of hard-to-fill jobs which are relevant here.
- It seems likely that there will be future competition in the global migration market from some less developed countries, for example in the IT sector. The UK is in a good position to provide training and experience, leading to future collaboration through the networks which are established.
- For many highly-skilled occupations, the international movement of expertise is increasingly taking place in ways that do not involve traditional migration. These take the form of new types of collaboration between firms in different countries, shorter-term secondments, weekly commuting and the electronic transmission of knowledge. Any policy to increase the national capital bank of skills through the encouragement of labour migration needs to take these new trends into account.

Glossary

CLS	Centre for Longitudinal Studies
DfEE	Department for Education and Employment
DSS	Department of Social Security
EEA	European Economic Area
EFTA	European Free Trade Association
ELR	Exceptional Leave to Remain
EU	European Union
GAD	Government Actuary's Department
IBF	Insurance, Banking and Finance
ICT	Inter-company Transfer
IGC	Intergovernmental Consultations on Asylum etc.
IPS	International Passenger Survey
ISC	Indian Sub-continent
IT	Information Technology
LFS	Labour Force Survey
LS	Longitudinal Study
NACE	Nomenclature générale des activités économiques dans les Communautés européennes (General Industrial Classification of Economic Activities within the European Communities)

NHS	National Health Service
NHSCR	National Health Service Central Register
OC	Old Commonwealth
OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
OLS	Overseas Labour Service
ONS	Office for National Statistics
OPCS	Office of Population Censuses and Surveys
PMT	Professional, Managerial and Technical
RSE	Rest of South-East
RWE	Rest of Western Europe
SIC	Industrial Classification
SOC	Occupational Classification
SOCRATES	European Action Programme for Education
SOPEMI	Système d'Observation Permanente des Migrations Internationales (Continuous Reporting System on International Migration)
TWES	Training and Work Experience Scheme
UKCC	Central Council for Nursing, Midwifery and Health Visiting
UN	United Nations
WAP	Working Age Population
WP(UK)	Work Permits (UK)

1.1 The migration business

The last decade or so has seen migration rise up the political agenda on a national and global basis. However, when we use the term 'migration', it is not immediately clear what is meant. Traditionally it has been associated with some notion of permanent settlement, or at least long-term sojourn. In reality, it is a sub-category of a more general concept of 'movement', embracing a wide variety of types and forms of human mobility each capable of metamorphosing into something else through a set of processes which are increasingly institutionally driven. What we then choose to define as migration is an arbitrary decision, and may be time-specific. This applies a fortiori to labour migration.

For anyone studying the subject over the last quarter century, one thing stands out: international migration is inevitable. It can be managed by states but not controlled by them. To the simple dichotomy of individual and state must be added the myriad of institutions which have become part of this management process, in some circumstances seeking to limit it, in others to promote and facilitate it. Today, international migration can also be regarded as a diverse international business, managed by a set of individuals, agencies and institutions, including governments and employers, each of which has an interest in developing a sector of the business.

Today, debates about migration policy have become focused on three propositions. The first proposition is that replacement migration will be needed to cope with population ageing and demographic shortfalls. The various scenarios are supply-side based and take no account of skill requirements. The second is that a global market in migrants exists where immigration is regarded as an engine of economic growth. Human resource skills are perceived as national economic resources for which countries are in competition. The third is that for various reasons specific skill shortages have emerged which are holding back economic growth and the improvement of public services. The shortages are caused partly by excess demand for new types of skills, partly by such supply side constraints as inadequate training and poor retention.

These three are now discussed in more detail.

1.1.1 Replacement migration

The debate about whether replacement immigration is needed to cope with the labour market effects of demographic shortfalls has gone on for some time (see, for example, OECD 1991). At the heart of the matter is that a falling population of working age, combined with a rising population of elderly in many developed countries, seems likely to have marked deleterious effects on the economic and social system. However, the impact of immigration in mitigating population ageing is widely acknowledged to be small because migrants also age. For a substantial effect, net inflows of migrants would not only need to occur on an annual basis but would have to rise continuously (see, for example, OECD, 1991; Wattelar and Roumans, 1991; DTI, 2000).

Despite these and other findings, debate about the link between changing demography and a migration 'fix' refuses to go away. A major stimulus to the discussion was the UN's report on 'Replacement Migration' (UNDP, 2000). The debate has on the whole shed more heat than light but has at least focused attention on what targets might be scrutinised.

Much interest focused on the scenario in the UN study which computed the amount of migration needed to maintain the potential support ratio (working age population to old age population) at the highest level it would reach in the absence of migration after 1995. This indicated an annual net migration level between now and 2050 into the European Union of nearly 13 million a year, with the UK taking around one million a year. Other scenarios, notably those maintaining a constant working age population and a constant total population, were more cautious in their projections, figures for the UK being 48,000 and 114,000 respectively. One problem is the robustness of such projections, made at a particular point in time and using a certain set of assumptions. Coleman (2000) compared the UN's projections with those of the UK Government Actuary's Department's (GAD) own projections and concluded that for 2050 the latter were 13 per cent higher than the UN medium variant projection which would mean that there was less 'need' for additional migration. Indeed, using a net immigration assumption based on actual levels for 1998-9, instead of the lower one incorporated in the GAD projection, Coleman concluded that a population level would be reached by 2050 that exceeded the UN requirements for population and workforce growth.

These are long term projections and full of uncertainty. Assessment of likely migration needs for demographic reasons depend on the period of projection and other factors. Feld (2000) forecast that, with the exception of Italy, Western European countries as a whole will either maintain their working age population at the existing level or, more generally, see their workforce grow substantially up to the year 2020, largely as a result of higher participation rates. Even under the least favourable scenarios, productivity gains more than compensate for any contraction in the working population. "Accordingly, we may safely assert that there is no risk of a shortage of workers between now and the year 2020, and that an increasing supply of labour will render reliance on a greater influx of foreign workers unnecessary." (Ibid: 3).

A similar conclusion is reached in the Council of Europe's study on Europe's population and labour market beyond 2000 (Punch and Pearce, 2000). The working age population (WAP), 488 million in 1995, is projected to rise to 496 million in 2010, falling to 452 million in 2025 and 370 million by 2050. In the short and medium term the study concludes that there is unlikely to be a labour shortage in Europe in the immediate future, given existing unemployment levels and productivity gains. However, labour market difficulties at local level are not ruled out. In the long run the study concedes that the scale of flows required to plug the demographic gap would be too large and create problems of integration.

It is sometimes assumed that demographic ageing has an effect on the unemployment rate and that the natural rate of unemployment has fallen because of the changing age composition of the labour force. For the period 1984-98 it has been estimated that the changing age structure of the workforce has reduced the unemployment rate by around 10 per cent (Barwell, 2000). On the basis of current projections, however, it appears that future shifts in the composition of the labour force will have little effect on unemployment rates over the next decade.

All this is not to say that some degree of replacement migration may not be thought desirable by government. As well as its effect on labour supply, population ageing has implications for labour demand. The most recent GAD projections suggest that by 2030 older people will outnumber younger adults by a fifth. Particularly striking is the increase in the very elderly, with a projection of over four million in the UK by 2030. The majority of older people, particularly those in their sixties and early seventies will be healthy and active. In retirement they will demand consumer items and the personal services that go with increased leisure time. Many will be reasonably well off, others less so. For the majority, cost will be an issue and the use made of labour intensive service provision will be dependent on affordability. This is likely to mean an increase in relatively low-paid, low-skilled jobs which may be difficult to fill from the indigenous labour force.

The more elderly will also require increased attention, from a caring sector again characterised by labour intensity and low pay rates. This ageing population is likely to be segmented by income, health and participation in the economy (through savings and ownership of stocks and shares), with a growing number of poorer, less healthy and technologically disadvantaged individuals (DTI, 2000). Overall, the combination of demographic ageing and the consumption demands of the grey population seems likely to increase the demand for low skilled labour.

Migration should not be seen as a simple answer to meeting such needs. There are important social, moral and practical issues to be considered, ranging from those around pay, status and training for particular occupations, through those related to the use of migrant labour to fill jobs that the native population is unwilling to undertake, to those concerning the housing and other requirements of migrant workers. Nevertheless, given these provisos, there may be a growing role for overseas migrants in employment areas related to the needs of an ageing population.

1.1.2 Global market

The last two decades have seen the emergence of a global migration market, mainly for the highly skilled. All countries have become part of a multi-dimensional global matrix of movement involving people, capital, goods, services and ideas and they compete for skills in the world's 'migration market'. Within the global migration market there is a complex pattern of exchange involving professional, managerial and technical staff.

The main stimulus for competition in the global migration market has come from governments. Competition was led in the 1980s by Australia and Canada, followed in the 1990s by the US. Europe held itself largely aloof until very recently with little action and almost no debate about competition in the migration skills market. There were various reasons for this, particularly the historical legacy of the guestworker phase of the 20th century's third quarter and the availability of some skills in the 1990s as a result of the opening up of Central and Eastern Europe.

All companies are now facing the problem of integrating new technologies which require specific skills but are finding they must compete in a global labour market where the main competitors are the US, Australia and Canada and other European states. However, it is by no means clear who are the "skilled" or the "highly skilled" (Salt, 1997). The evidence across Europe, including the UK, indicates that immigrant workers occupy places across the skill spectrum and even those we refer to as highly skilled are a diverse lot.

The US in particular is proving to have a voracious appetite for highly skilled workers. In October 2000 President Clinton signed into law legislation to increase the annual quota of H-1B visas available for skilled foreign workers from 115,000 to 195,000 over the next three years. The law followed pressure from US technology companies worried by the shortage of home-grown qualified workers and anxious to snap up the best of foreign manpower. Germany, too, has entered the race with its (so-called 'green card') plan to import 20,000 IT specialists, predominantly from Eastern Europe and India. By March 2001 it had managed to recruit about a quarter of those wanted.

Extensive discussion has taken place in the media especially over the last year or so about the general shortage of qualified staff in the UK. Several long-term factors are frequently mentioned. They include the growing skills shortages across the economy as a whole and the feeling that the UK is losing out to competitors abroad; an under trained domestic workforce; the accelerating globalisation of the labour market; and an ageing population that will not only see a reduced working age population but also create

new labour demands through its consumption patterns. Attention has also been drawn to the potential of asylum seekers to stem gaps in the labour market at all skill levels, often associated with retraining or refreshment of skills.

Overall, the UK economy gains through the transfer of money by migrants (British and non-British) into and out of the UK. During the period 1986-1999 the net credit balance for migrants' transfers was £2,360 million, about £169 million per year. The total net gain in 1999 was the largest recorded. In every year, credits exceeded debits. (UK Balance of Payments Pink Book 1998, 1999, 2000).

While some developing countries benefit from the remittances of their nationals living and working in the UK, there is a major concern about the current drain of highly-skilled and qualified people from developing to developed countries. There are national objectives relating to overseas development which may be in conflict with policies to attract more skilled migrants to the UK.

1.1.3 Specific skill shortages

A newcomer in the debate about labour immigration policy is the perceived shortage of specific skills. Skill shortages can occur because of the inefficiencies of the internal labour market and because of specific mismatches caused by growth in demand outstripping local training capability or by an inadequacy of supply at the prevailing wage rate. In the UK today, and in some other countries, high level skill shortages occur among two groups in particular: the IT sector (including those working as practitioners and as users) and the more skilled end of public services, especially health and education. Developing strategies and procedures to recruit specific skills in shortage occupations is predominantly employer led, with governments acting as facilitators.

The idea that in a tight job market the demand for staff can be met by rising inflows of foreign workers has attracted attention in the media and among market analysts and consultants. How successful this might be as a solution is unclear. During the last couple of years the rate of job growth has been 3-4 times that of the working age population, even allowing for the net inflow of people (Saunders and O'Kelly, 2000).

The global migration market is seen largely in terms of the acquisition of skills. So far the debate in the UK has focused on attempting to fill a shortage of skilled workers in the IT sector. One estimate suggests that the number of IT practitioners in the UK is around a million, with recent growth at 10 per cent per annum and showing few signs of slowing (Dixon, 1999). Within this sector as a whole, individual IT occupations are different in scale and are pursuing different trajectories. The sector may be divided into five major categories: about a third are computer analysts and programmers; computer systems managers, computer operators (numbers falling) and software engineers (numbers growing) each account for about a fifth; a tenth are computer engineers. The employed IT workforce may be further divided into those working for user (about 70 per cent) and for supplier (about 30 per cent) companies. Nearly half work in London and the South-East and overall annual turnover is relatively high at 15-20 per cent (Ibid.).

There is an assumption in much of what has been written recently about labour shortages that those for high level skills constitute the main problem. While this may be true at present, the longer term may be different. New technologies generate changes in labour use and the qualifications and training required even over relatively short periods. The interaction between these sorts of changes and immigration of workers is complicated. Migration can help fill short-term shortages as they arise. In the longer term training schemes and better pay structures for indigenous labour may enable skills shortages to be met by indigenous workers. Furthermore, new technology may have a deskilling effect in some sectors, leading to higher demand for less

skilled workers (Feld, 2000). If the prevailing wage rates for such people mean that the jobs are unattractive to local workers there may well be immigration to fill the gaps. At the same time, migration may contribute to the expansion of new sectors and the creation of new jobs.

Not all public sector shortages are new, for example, the abolition of the Inner London Education Authority in 1990 was accompanied by extensive overseas teacher recruitment. In the health service recruitment and training of doctors has long been regarded as inadequate by many, hence the expansion of medical school places in the late 1990s. The problem is not only one of training and recruiting skills but also retaining them. A study of nurses in the UK suggested that around 40 per cent of them expected to leave the NHS in the next three years, turnover among those aged under 30 being particularly high (IZA, 2000). Training, retaining and securing the return of qualified people are all on the policy agenda in the education and health sectors at the present time.

The difficulty of using immigration to deal with skill shortages is compounded by the fact that they are rarely general but occur in particular occupations and/or localities. Where localised labour shortages are related in part to poor pay, difficulties in obtaining housing or other problems, importing migrant labour may solve one difficulty but exacerbate another.

The scale of shortages currently varies greatly across the country. They are most severe in London and the South-East where economic growth has been fastest but where cost of living is highest. Areas of social deprivation also tend to experience greater recruitment problems in the public services than more affluent ones. These facts are evident in annual HMCI reports, the most recent of which stated that "LEAs in London and the South East are increasingly trying to recruit qualified teachers from abroad to keep their schools fully staffed." (HMCI 1999-2000). There are also variations between sectors, with construction, some branches of engineering, IT and hotels and restaurants reporting recruitment difficulties. Not all these shortages are for skilled workers, however.

Whatever the individual or combination of reasons that lead to turnover in different 'shortage' areas of employment, the potential for the inactive to fill gaps is important to assess. The economic growth currently being experienced may not go on for ever. A rise in unemployment could result in a greatly improved position in some employment shortage areas quite rapidly, especially in the public sector.

1.2 Aims and objectives of the study

It is in the light of these debates that the present study has been carried out. The project has been financed by the Home Office Innovative Research Challenge Fund. It has been developed in the context of the likely challenges to UK migration policy in the coming years. These include the processes and consequences of demographic shifts in the UK and elsewhere, changes in the structure of employment and a perceived need to compete in what has become a global migration market for skills. Each of these has attracted attention from researchers but little attempt has been made to analyse the links between them and their implications for the direction of future migration policy.

Before confronting these policy challenges, it is necessary to make some assessment of the effects of earlier policies, particularly in relation to the scale and nature of population flows and their outcomes as represented in the characteristics of the stock of foreign and foreign-born citizens. That has been the purpose of this project. In the broadest of terms it asks how large is the foreign population in the UK, how many are foreign-born, what do they do and what are their dynamics.

The methodology adopted is highly empirical and data-based. As full a picture as possible of the contemporary situation and recent trends has been compiled. A major statistical analysis has been completed, using a wide range of both published and unpublished data sources. The main focus is the migration of labour and especially the movement of skills, both to and from the country. Although the migration of British citizens is analysed, the emphasis is on the foreign population and workforce.

The specific objectives are described in more detail in the chapters. However, several individual aims may be identified:

1. To evaluate the statistical sources which are available for analysing international migration involving the UK, and labour migration in particular.
2. To use the wide range of existing statistical information to identify the patterns and trends of primary and temporary migration to and from the UK over the last two decades or so and the relationship between them.
3. To analyse the scale and nature of the foreign and foreign-born workforce in the UK.
4. To identify the roles of the work permit and other schemes in the attraction of skills into the UK.
5. To evaluate the potential labour contribution of asylum seekers.
6. To assess the implications of the findings for policy makers.

1.3 Migration as a component of change in UK population

These aims should be seen in the context of the changing importance of international migration as a component of total population change in the UK. Annual statistics on natural increase, net migration and total population change have been analysed for the period 1964-98, with summaries for five year periods (Table 1.1). The period as a whole can be divided into two: in the first one, total population change is dominated by a large decline in natural increase, in the second by growing net positive migration.

Between 1964 and 1977, natural increase fell from 390,000 to – 4,800, the tail end of the baby boom. During this time there was consistent net out migration, continuing until 1983. Subsequently, natural increase rose slowly, with minor fluctuations, until 1998, while net migration also followed a generally rising trend but with larger fluctuations.

Over the period as a whole, natural increase was the most significant contributor to overall population change in 25 of the 34 years. Those years when net migration was more significant fall into two groups: the mid-1970s and mid-1990s. In the first of these migration's contribution was negative (emigration) whereas in the latter it had the opposite effect. Examination of trends since 1984 (Figure 1.1) show a converging impact of natural increase and net migration on total population change, until in recent years the latter has become the main component of change.

1.4 Structure of the report

Chapter 2 discusses migrant concepts and definitions as a prelude to a review and discussion of the main data sources for UK international migration. It concludes with a brief evaluation of the sources and some comparative tables. Chapter 3 places the UK into the broader Western European context, identifying similarities and differences at the cross-national level.

Chapters 4-9 are based on analysis of data from the International Passenger Survey, mainly for the last 25 years. Chapter 4 presents an overview of migration flows into and out of the UK over the period and of employed people within them, clarifying labour market implications of different types of movement. In Chapter 5 the regional distribution of migrants and their origins and destinations within the UK is analysed in order to determine any regional imbalances and also how stable overall patterns have been. Chapter 6 examines the scale and pattern of migration by professional and managerial workers and manual and clerical workers and the extent to which non-British inflows have replaced British outflows in the labour market. Trends of change in the male/female breakdown of employed migrants by occupational group and the extent to which women are becoming an increasing proportion of the total are explored in Chapter 7. This is followed in Chapter 8 by analysis of the composition of migration flows of employed people in respect of citizenship, identifying aspects which have changed over time and aspects which have remained constant. Chapter 9 considers the destinations of employed migrants leaving the UK, the relative importance of EU/EFTA countries compared to others and the continuing significance of Old Commonwealth countries for British migrants.

The social progression of selected national groups of foreign-born migrants is the subject of Chapter 10. It uses data from the Longitudinal Study for the years 1971-91 to compare their patterns and rates of social change with each other and with the indigenous population.

Chapters 11-13 use unpublished data from the Labour Force Survey to identify the characteristics of the foreign and foreign-born population and workforce. Chapter 11 presents an overview of the foreign population and workforce by citizenship within the UK workforce since the mid-1980s. This is followed in Chapter 12 by analysis of the employment of foreign labour by industrial group, identifying sectors where foreign workers are employed, their citizenship and changes since the 1980s. The foreign-born are the focus of Chapter 13 which reviews their economic activity and unemployment rates and analyses the occupational structure of workers in the UK economy.

Chapter 14 considers how the work permit system has responded to the demands of the labour market, looking at trends and changes over time, the dominant countries receiving permits and the skills supplied. It also reviews two other schemes, for seasonal agricultural workers and for working holidaymakers. It concludes with a summary of the main 'routes of entry' for foreign workers into the UK labour market.

Chapter 15 examines published data on asylum seekers in the UK economy in the last decade, and aims to assess their impact in quantitative/qualitative, short term/long term and potential/actual terms, whilst noting difficulties.

The final chapter summarises the main findings and suggests some of the main implications for policy making.

Table 1.1: Components of UK population change 1964-1998 (thousands)

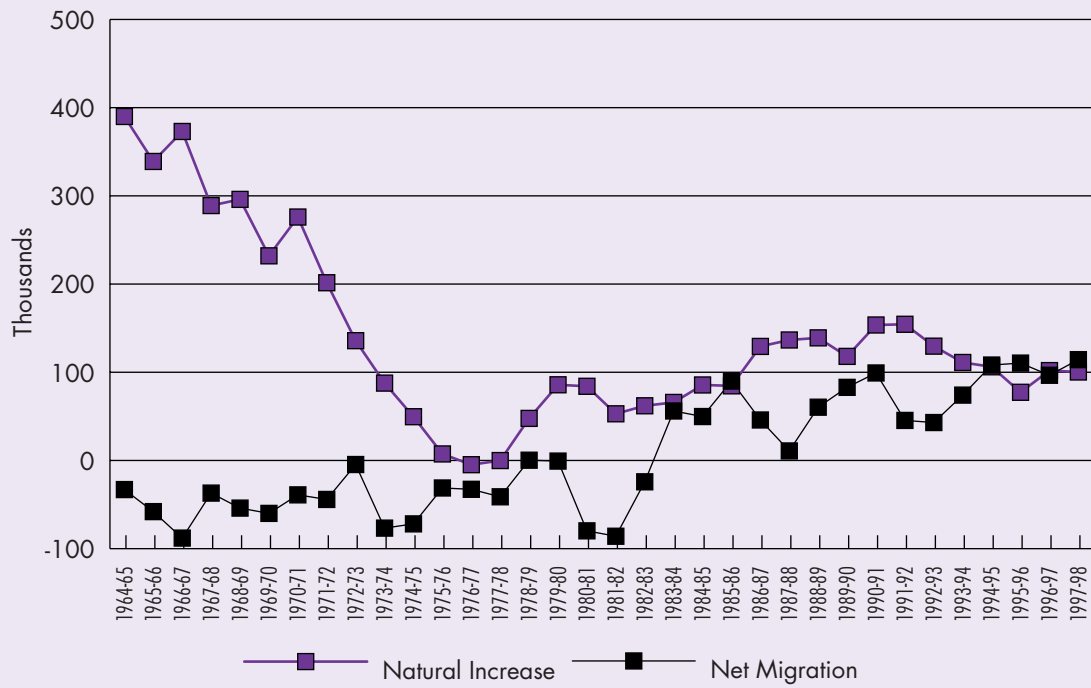
Years	Population	Total Change		Nat. Increase/Net Migration	
Other ⁽¹⁾					
1964-5	53885.0	333.0	390.0	-33.0	-24.0
1965-6	54218.0	283.0	339.0	-58.0	2.0
1966-67	54500.0	300.0	373.0	-88.0	15.0
1967-68	54800.0	248.0	289.0	-37.0	-4.0
1968-69	55049.0	214.0	296.0	-54.0	-28.0
Average	54490.4	275.6	337.4	-54.0	
1969-70	55263.0	158.0	232.0	-60.0	-14.0
1970-71	55421.0	189.0	276.0	-39.0	-48.0
1971-72	55609.6	183.8	201.5	-44.2	26.5
1972-73	55793.4	140.0	135.8	-4.6	8.8
1973-74	55933.4	31.2	87.7	-76.7	20.2
Average	55604.1	140.4	186.6	-44.9	
1974-75	55964.6	-21.8	49.6	-71.9	0.5
1975-76	56214.8	-9.1	7.4	-31.2	14.7
1976-77	56205.7	-26.5	-4.8	-32.7	11.0
1977-78	56179.2	-11.8	-0.1	-41.2	29.5
1978-79	56167.4	59.8	47.7	0.3	11.8
Average	56146.3	-1.9	20.0	-35.3	
1979-80	56227.2	87.0	85.8	-0.7	1.9
1980-81	56314.2	64.7	84.1	-79.8	60.5
1981-82	56378.9	-43.5	52.9	-85.9	-10.4
1982-83	56335.4	41.4	62.0	-24.2	3.6
1983-84	56374.6	131.3	65.8	56.1	9.4
Average	56326.1	56.2	70.1	-26.9	
1984-85	56505.9	178.9	85.6	49.8	43.5
1985-86	56684.8	165.1	84.6	90.0	-9.5
1986-87	56849.9	158.4	129.3	45.9	-16.8
1987-88	57008.2	150.9	136.6	10.8	3.5
1988-89	57159.0	192.8	139.0	60.4	-6.6
Average	56841.6	169.2	115.0	51.4	
1989-90	57351.7	209.6	118.0	82.9	8.7
1990-91	57561.3	239.6	153.6	99.2	-13.2
1991-92	57800.9	197.4	154.4	45.4	-2.4
1992-93	58012.7	185.0	129.6	43.0	12.4
1993-94	58197.7	203.1	111.1	74.1	17.9
Average	57784.9	206.9	133.3	68.9	
1994-95	58400.8	210.9	106.2	108.2	-3.5
1995-96	58611.7	195.5	77.3	110.4	7.8
1996-97	58807.2	206.8	101.9	96.6	8.2
1997-98	59014.0	222.6	100.3	114.3	8.0
Average	58708.4	209.0	96.4	107.4	

Source: Council of Europe

Note:

1. Changes in numbers of armed forces plus adjustments to reconcile differences between estimated population change and the figures for natural change and net civilian migration.

Figure 1.1: Components of total population change, natural increase and net migration, 1964-1998



Source: Council of Europe

2 International migration definitions and data sources for the United Kingdom

Research questions

- What concepts and definitions are in use in the measurement of international migration and stocks and flows of migrant labour?
- What data sources exist on international migration in the UK and what are their strengths and weaknesses?

Main findings

- Concepts and definitions vary greatly, with major significance for estimates of number. Patterns of migration into and out of the UK which affect the labour force are complex, dynamic and difficult to pin down.
- A range of sources provide statistical data relating to migrant stocks and flows. Inevitably, all sources have limitations – for example, in respect of sample size, population included, details recorded, time-period covered and changing definitions over time.

2.1 Introduction

An inventory of sources which may yield data on patterns of international migration relating to the UK is a combination of partiality and complexity (Coleman, 2000; Salt, Hogarth and Singleton, 1994). This is a reflection of the rather haphazard way in which the present system has evolved in response to the development of immigration control during the 20th century. The UK lacks a universal and compulsory registration for citizens and foreign residents and most of the data are based on administrative systems related to control rather than migrant numbers and characteristics. With the exception of the International Passenger Survey (IPS), they record only immigration. Only the Census in 1991 and the Labour Force Survey (LFS) record information on ethnic minorities.

This chapter provides an overview of the sources of data, together with their main strengths and weaknesses. It does not set out to list all of the difficulties attendant upon specific aspects and variables: this is best done in the context of use and analysis.

2.2 Migrant concepts and definitions

The concept of 'migrant' is not a simple one. Over the years numerous typologies have been produced, normally based on distance moved, time spent away or motivation. There is no consensus on what a migration is, although most definitions would assume a move of home. Conceptually, however, what constitutes 'home' varies, for example, is a family on a corporate secondment or an individual working seasonally or a student on a SOCRATES programme really moving home?

The concept of labour migrant is equally unclear. Does the description relate only to those moving for specific work reasons or can it apply to anyone of working age who moves and who subsequently might enter the labour market? Further conceptual complications arise when migrants are categorised by degrees of skill. For example, are the highly skilled to be classed as such on the basis of paper qualifications and how do we conceptualise 'brain wastes', where migrants take jobs which are less than commensurate with the skills, qualifications and experience they possess?

Furthermore, types of migration are not immutable. Individuals classed as one type of migrant may easily become another and, perhaps, back again. Thus, labour migrants move in and out of the labour market. Migrants coming for purposes of family reunion go to work. Children of migrants finish their education and go out to work; overseas students marry and remain. Refugees take up work, naturalise and settle down. The permutations are endless. Even where there is information on reason for movement it may complicate rather than clarify the picture. For example, in 1998 only 38 per cent of those who were working prior to entry to the UK and who were interviewed in the IPS gave work-related reasons for coming.

The conceptual difficulties illustrated above combine with those of definition to complicate further any attempt to assess the number and characteristics of foreign migrants and evaluate their impact. In the UK the main definitions are based on some concept of 'foreignness'. Some statistics use citizenship as the base for analysis, others use birthplace (hence foreign-born), country of last/next residence or ethnicity. Whichever of these is chosen will determine the outcome of analysis.

There are problems of what to measure and who does the measuring. The IPS is a continuous record of flows, but was never designed to provide accurate and comprehensive data on migrants. The Census and the LFS produce transition data, defining migration on the basis of address a year ago compared with today and, in the process missing many short-term moves. The figures, ostensibly for the same phenomenon are, inevitably, different. Other sources are purely administrative, not designed to count migrants per se: they include settlement and asylum statistics and work permit issues.

Although this report is predominantly about labour migration, these caveats must be borne in mind in what follows. There is no legal definition of 'immigrant' in the UK and thus none of 'labour immigrant'. In essence, what we choose to call a labour migrant has to be seen against a background of changing concept, uncertain definition and inadequate statistical sources.

2.2.1 Foreign workers

The comments above suggest that what should be a straightforward exercise to define and quantify foreign workers in the UK labour force and then to project future numbers depending on different immigration policies and assumptions is, in reality, dealing with something that is complex, dynamic and difficult to pin down.

2.2.1.1 Who is a foreign worker?

The definition 'foreign workers' could be deemed to apply to any or all of the following groups, divided for present purposes into three categories based on length of stay:

i) Foreign citizens who work in the UK for less than a year on a 'one-off' or recurrent basis.

- People coming for seasonal work in agriculture
- People coming for seasonal work in hotels and catering

- Young people coming as working holiday-makers
- Experts/highly-skilled people doing specific tasks for international organisations
- Entertainers on tour
- Academics visiting UK institutions

ii) Foreign citizens who work in the UK for a year or more but subsequently return to country of origin (or other country) before retirement age.

- People with particular skills, qualifications and experience coming with fixed contracts to work in the private and public sectors
- EU nationals entering a range of occupations, including service industries
- Football players joining UK clubs
- Some of those who enter the country seeking asylum
- Working holidaymakers
- Overseas students who subsequently remain in the UK to work
- Spouses of those entering the UK to take up employment or courses of study

iii) Foreign citizens who come to the UK, take up employment and remain in this country until retirement age or permanently.

- Foreign-born adults who are granted the right of permanent settlement (including spouses and refugees)
- Foreign-born children who enter the country with their parents and later enter the labour market.
- Overseas students who subsequently remain in the UK.

People in two or more of these categories may enter the UK initially by the same route of entry, for example as a work-permit holder, a student or an asylum seeker, but length of stay will then vary with circumstances.

2.2.1.2 Stocks of foreign workers

It is apparent from the above examples that statistical estimates of the number of foreign workers in the UK labour force at any one time will vary considerably according to the definition used. For instance, should the term 'foreign worker' include:

- Someone born overseas, even if they have been resident in the UK since childhood? (Such workers are included in counts of the foreign-born.);
- Someone born overseas who has acquired British citizenship? (Such workers are not included in statistics on workers who are foreign citizens.).

Naturalisation conceals the existence in the labour force of large numbers of foreign-born workers who have become British citizens. Yet many such people and their children (whether foreign-born or British-born) play a crucial role in the UK economy and public services (notably the Health Service) at the present time. The children of migrants who arrived in the UK with their parents during the post-war period and others born after arrival have comprised an increasing element entering the labour market after completing their education, particularly in London and other urban areas where migrant communities settled.

2.2.1.3 Flows of foreign workers

Attaching figures to inflows of foreign workers likewise involves difficulties of definition. For instance, does the term 'migrant worker' include:

- Someone who does not come to the UK for the purposes of work but subsequently joins the labour force? (e.g. an asylum seeker or the spouse of a migrant coming to take up a specific job.);
- Someone who comes for a period of months?

In the IPS 'Usual occupation' refers to occupation prior to migration. An estimate of the inflow of foreign workers derived from this source would cover categories (ii) and (iii) above in terms of (intended) length of stay but would relate to numbers who were employed before entry to the UK – not necessarily the same thing as numbers coming for the purpose of work or numbers obtaining employment.

2.2.2 Estimating the annual addition of foreign migrants to the UK labour force.

Annually, there are gains and losses of foreign citizens in the labour force. On the 'gain' side, there are inflows of foreign migrants to the UK via the various routes of entry (work permits, asylum, family reunion and so on), some of whom immediately enter employment, others entering at a later date. In any given year, some foreign migrants taking jobs will have arrived in the country in a previous year.

Other joining the workforce will be overseas students in UK institutions who have completed their studies and young people who came to the UK at a younger age with their parents and are now leaving full-time education.

On the 'loss' side – those leaving the UK labour force – will be foreign citizens who leave the country and others who reach retirement age, experience redundancy or give up work for other reasons. In addition, to confuse the issue further, there will be an apparent loss of foreign workers resulting from naturalisation.

2.3. Sources of international migration data for the UK

2.3.1 Stocks

2.3.1.1 Census

The Census is of limited use overall as a source of data on international migration. Although it asks about place of residence a year ago, there is no question on nationality, year in which foreign nationals settled in the UK, nor country from which they came.

Birthplace is recorded, but in the absence of year of entry is of little help. Ethnic origin was asked for the first time in 1991. However, increasing numbers of people in ethnic minority groups are British Citizens, many born in the UK, so the question's use as a migration source is limited. It is possible to calculate a migration flow from the census question that asks where you were living a year ago.

Due to the periodicity of the census there are no figures more recent than 1991 and we have not included census figures in this analysis. A review of the patterns of stocks and flows by country of birth and ethnicity can be found in Salt (1996).

2.3.1.2 Labour Force Survey

The first LFS in the UK was conducted in 1973; the survey was biennial until 1983 and has been annual since 1984. Since its inception it has been used increasingly by government departments to obtain information useful in framing social and economic policy. During the 1980s it became widely used as a source of information on the labour force generally, and on the characteristics of ethnic minority groups in particular.

The sample LFS is a major source of both stock and flow data on international migration. Before 1992, about 80,000 addresses were surveyed, with a response rate of 80-90 per cent. The new quarterly survey, from 1992 onwards, consists of five 'waves', each containing about 12,000 households. One consequence of the change is that the data before and from that date are not directly comparable.

The survey includes all UK and foreign citizens. The nationality question means that all foreigners are included, and the LFS provides the only source on EU nationals working in the UK. Data are available in the LFS on a wide range of variables, including nationality, age, sex, occupation, industry, region of destination and ethnicity. Some information on the labour market characteristics of ethnic minorities are published, but not those on immigration flows. It is possible to relate ethnicity to international migration, though this has not been done here. The LFS also provides information on year of entry into the UK. In theory it is possible to use these data to calculate length of stay by comparing the 'stock' figure for year of entry in successive surveys. In practice there are major difficulties in so doing because of fluctuations caused by sampling errors.

ONS are fairly confident that migrant and minority ethnic communities are suitably represented in the LFS (interpreters are provided for those who are not proficient in English language, for example). However, as a voluntary survey, it is likely that the LFS has a lower response rate from illegal migrants. Due to the nature of illegal migration and working, conventional data sources are likely to exclude the bulk of the illegal population. However, those members of the illegal population who entered legally (for example, overstayers on work permits) may be well-integrated in UK society, and thus more likely to be included in the conventional and administrative data sources.

The LFS has two major drawbacks for this project. First, it provides no information on emigration. Second, the size of the sample is too small for many applications. The application of grossing factors means that one sample interviewee is aggregated up to about 300 people in total. In consequence, weighted figures below 10,000 are too small to be used with any degree of accuracy (even then the error is +/- 3,000). It is possible to average (for stocks) or aggregate (for flows) LFS data over several quarters/years to smooth out sampling variations for smaller numbers. The Office for National Statistics (ONS) recommends that data from four quarters (or years if only annual spring data are used) need to be averaged for a minimum publication level of 6,000 and eight for one of 4,000.

This constraint constitutes a major problem when dealing with foreign nationals whose numbers are relatively small anyway. Both flow and stock figures may be below this threshold for individual nationalities, particularly when any disaggregation into migrant characteristics is attempted. For example, transition (flow) data for inflows of foreigners averaged for 1998-9 suggested that around 64,000 were living outside the UK a year previously and were now living and working in the UK. Any attempt to break this figure down by migrant characteristics soon runs into a threshold constraint.

The revised procedure for carrying out the LFS in 1992 created a discontinuity in the numbers recorded for national groups. This is discussed further in chapter 11.

2.3.2 Flows

2.3.2.1 International Passenger Survey

The IPS is a continuing voluntary sample survey conducted by the Office for National Statistics (formerly the Office of Population Censuses and Surveys or OPGS) which covers the principal air and sea routes between the UK and overseas, but has excluded those between the UK and Ireland until recently. It is the only demographic source giving both immigration and emigration statistics: thus it has considerable value.

Most of those surveyed are short-term travellers, but a sub-sample of "migrants" is identified. A migrant into the UK is a person who has resided abroad for a year or more and on entering has declared the intention to stay in the UK for a year or more. A migrant from the UK is a person who has resided in the UK for a year or more and on leaving has declared the intention to reside abroad for a year or more. These definitions accord with those of the United Nations.

Data are available on citizenship, country/region of origin and destination, age, sex, and occupational status. Unfortunately, the sample size of "migrants" is small, around 2,500 in all. Hence, detailed analyses of migrant characteristics in relation to particular variables, such as country of origin or region of destination, have limited value because the standard errors are too high. The standard error for an estimate of 1000 migrants is about 40 per cent and for 10,000 migrants is 15 per cent. Also, its definition is based on intention to stay, and there is no guarantee that those recorded as migrants do actually come or go for the specified period. In an attempt to get round the problem of "switching" (i.e. people who arrive or leave with the intention of being in or out of the UK for less than a year, but subsequently stay for more than a year) the Home Office makes an annual adjustment to the total – around 40-50,000 per annum (see below). Unfortunately this adjustment cannot be made to the figures for migrant characteristics by origin, age etc.

Until 1999 the IPS did not cover routes between the UK and the Irish Republic. Previously flows between the two countries were estimated using other sources. Estimates of outflows from the UK were made using data from the Irish Labour Force Survey. The inflow of migrants from the Irish Republic was estimated using a number of data sources; these are the National Health Service Central Register, the Census of Population and the Country of Residence Survey.

The IPS does not allow identification of ethnic minorities, although it is possible to make some inferences on the basis of aggregated countries of origin and destination.

IPS data used in this analysis are from the ONS tables published annually in *International Migration*, together with additional tables especially commissioned from the ONS.

2.3.2.2 Labour Force Survey

The LFS provides transition data on immigrants to the UK, by asking for address one year ago. It does not provide flow data. Because of small sample size, breakdowns showing the characteristics of individual nationalities are rarely possible. For only the major national groups (such as Irish) are total numbers of immigrants available. An attempt was made by OPCS in 1994 to compare IPS inflow figures for 1987-91 with the LFS data subset where individuals were living abroad one year ago. The results suggested that either the IPS overestimated or the LFS underestimated the number of persons with country of birth/citizenship in the Old and New Commonwealths.

2.3.2.3 Home Office data on immigration control and settlement

Home Office statistics result primarily from enquiries made in the process of immigration control, in order to ascertain the status of arrivals with respect to the Immigration Rules, and to ensure that only those who are entitled to enter and settle are allowed to do so. By definition, British citizens, EU nationals and others who have a right of abode in the UK are exempt from control and only appear in the gross totals of arrivals. All non-EU nationals entering the UK must fill in a landing card for the purpose of immigration control. Table 2.1 indicates the numbers coming in the various categories of entry for 1999.

Table 2.1: Categories of entry to the UK, 1999

Students	272,000
Au Pair	14,600
Work Permit Holders	53,500
Dependants of Work Permit Holders	22,600
Husband/Wife/ Fiancé(e)	20,300
Refugees, ELR and Dependants	9,000

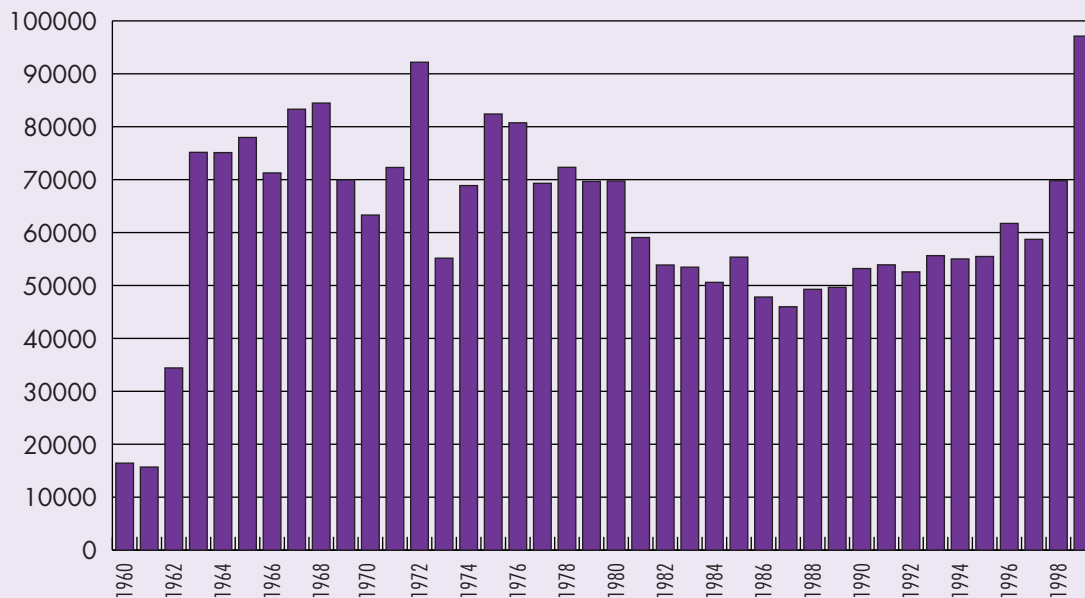
Source: Home Office

Data on foreign nationals accepted for settlement are a by-product of immigration control and they may be regarded as a main measure of longer-term immigration. Variations from year to year may reflect legal changes, changes in the Immigration Rules, and administrative difficulties as well as pressure of demand. EU nationals are normally admitted to the UK for an initial limited period of six months and are not accepted for settlement on arrival. No data on such admissions are collected by the Home Office. EU nationals can, however, apply for settlement on removal of time limit.

For those non-EU nationals granted entry for more than six months the following data are recorded on computer files: date of arrival; length of stay granted; nationality; admission category; date of birth; sex; number of children; date of departure. The data are regarded by the Home Office as generally reliable, although there is uncertainty about matching embarkation with arrivals.

Information for all settlement cases is available on date of settlement grant, nationality, category of settlement and sex. For non-EU nationals accepted after initial admission for a limited period (now over 80 per cent of all acceptances) this information is computerised and also includes date of birth. In addition, similar information is available for all those granted an extension to a limited stay in the UK, e.g. as a student.

Acceptances for settlement have fluctuated in the last 40 years (Fig 2.1). During most of the 1960s and 1970s the number ranged between 60 and 80,000 falling to around 50,000 per annum through the 1980s. Major increases occurred in the late 1990s, including one of 39 per cent between 1998 and 1999 to reach the highest total recorded at 97,120. This increase was mainly due to a significant rise in the number of recognized refugees and persons granted exceptional leave to remain, including acceptances under measures aimed at reducing the backlog of pre-1993 asylum applications.

Figure 2.1: Total acceptances for settlement, 1960 to 1999

Source: Home Office

Publication of numbers of acceptances by nationality, sex and category occurs annually in *Control of Immigration Statistics*.

2.3.2.4 Home Office adjustments to ONS migration data

Work undertaken by OPCS in 1993 showed that projecting forward the 1981 Census figures, using data on births, deaths and unadjusted migration, resulted in underestimates of the overseas-born population in the UK in 1991. An exact analysis could not be undertaken because the degree of undercounting in the 1991 Census was known to be greater overall than that in the 1981 Census and the precise amount was not known for the overseas born population. A similar exercise carried out in the 1980s using 1971 Census data suggested that no significant adjustments to the migration data needed to be made. However this type of comparison is fairly crude, as the Census data relate to overseas-born people who regard themselves as usually resident in the UK – with little or no guidance as to how ‘usually resident’ should be defined – and do not relate to ‘migrants’ as defined in the IPS.

Although some 80 per cent of asylum seekers are not granted asylum or exceptional leave to remain, nearly all of them need to be recorded as migrants as they stay at least a year while their application is decided and their appeal against refusal is heard. Such persons will be recorded as outward migrants when they leave the country, because they have spent at least a year here and, therefore, they need to be recorded as inward migrants at some stage.

i) Port asylum seekers

It had always been assumed that these persons were covered by the IPS. However, when "asylum seeker" was introduced in the 1994 survey as a "reason for migrating", it was found that only around a thousand or so of the migrants (based on a small number of contacts) were seeking asylum. Inquiries made subsequently at the ports showed that immigration staff accompanying asylum seekers to Baggage Reclaim discourage any

'outsider' from talking to the applicant before the latter is initially interviewed. Once the asylum seeker has been interviewed and given temporary admission to the country or detained while their application is considered fully, the person is unlikely to cross the IPS counting line again or might do so 'after hours'.

Therefore, for 1995 onwards an adjustment has been made for port asylum seekers. Allowance is made for the fact that some are already in the IPS and some (currently an estimated 10 per cent) do not stay for a year or longer because they are refused and removed within a year, for example, because they had entered the UK from a safe third country.

ii) After-entry asylum seekers

An adjustment for these asylum seekers has been made for 1989 onwards to reflect the substantial increase in the number of such persons. Again, allowance is made for the fact that some (currently an estimated 10 per cent) do not stay for a year or longer, or were likely to have initially entered the country for a year or longer and therefore should not be included again.

iii) Non-asylum switchers

An adjustment for these persons, mainly visitors but including short-term students who switch, has been included for 1981 onwards to reflect the substantial increase in such persons. Most of the switching is due to marriage or becoming a student.

Information on non-EEA nationals switching category after entry and being allowed to remain in the country for a year or longer is available from the Home Office database. However, the latter is not perfect and in many cases the previous category is blank. This normally means that the person initially entered as a visitor or short-term student, whose arrival is not recorded on computer. However, it can also mean that the relevant information has not been entered.

As a result of a review in 1996 of the methodology used for deriving all the adjustments to the IPS migration data, including gauging the feasibility and magnitude of various types of switching, it was decided that the adjustments made previously for 'non-asylum switchers' were likely to be too large. Taken over a number of years, this overestimation offset the omission of adjustments for port asylum seekers for years prior to 1995. The current methodology is more likely to underestimate than overestimate the numbers of 'non-asylum switchers'. This is deliberate and reflects the wish not to over-adjust the IPS data and the fact that no adjustment can be made for those inward intending migrants who actually stay for less than a year.

iv) Adjustments to IPS outflow data

The number of non-asylum switchers of USA or Old Commonwealth nationality is known, and the arbitrary assumption is made that there are equal numbers of British citizens visiting these countries who switch, i.e. stay for a year or longer. This is the only adjustment made to the outflow data.

v) Overview

The adjustments increased net inward migration by 53,700 in 1995, made up of about 38,600 asylum seekers, and 15,000 other visitor switchers. The equivalent figures for 1996 were 40,300, 25,700 and 14,600. The asylum category is relatively volatile, depending on the number of asylum claims and the time taken to deal with cases. The non-asylum number does not vary much from year to year: in 1995 it included about 8,000 from the New Commonwealth and 7,000 from elsewhere (but excluding the USA and Old Commonwealth)

There is no information on the extent to which inflows and outflows between the UK and other EEA countries are affected by switching, nor the extent to which inward and outward intending migrants of all nationalities actually stay less than a year. The Home Office adjustments are fairly rudimentary but, it is to be hoped, of the right order of magnitude.

2.3.3 National Health Service Central Register

The NHSCR allocates a new NHS number and prepares a migration record for all new patients with a place of birth stated to be abroad. No information on the actual resident status of the person is available. The data may include some short-stay visitors and settled immigrants who have been in the UK for some years, but did not register with a doctor earlier and would be counted as recent immigrants upon registration. NHSCR data on migration from abroad include only age and sex. They are particularly incomplete as a record of emigration, since most people leaving do not inform their doctors. These weaknesses mean that the NHSCR is little used as a source of migration data.

2.3.4 Illegal immigrants: enforcement statistics

The best indicator of the extent of illegal migration comes from the enforcement statistics. Again, though, these are not comprehensive enough to sustain attempts to estimate the scale of irregular migration. Aggregate statistics are published annually in Control of Immigration Statistics. Those deported are tabulated by major world region. The data are almost certainly a major underestimate of immigrants in an illegal situation, especially those at work.

There are six tables published in the Control of Immigration Statistics, numbered 7.1 – 7.6 as below. They are based on the number of people against whom enforcement action is taken. Such action includes serving either illegal entry papers or deportation papers and a deportation order.

Table 7.1 in Control of Immigration Statistics records the total number of people against whom enforcement action has been taken, together with the number of people removed from the country. Removal may be supervised, or assumed, based on possession of documentation such as a return air ticket for example. Removals also include voluntary departures.

Table 7.2 records numbers of people dealt with as illegal entrants. These are people apprehended while trying to circumvent entry and served with the appropriate papers. Some of these will have been caught during the actual entry process (e.g. hiding in the back of a lorry), others at later stages of their stay in the UK: there is no time limit. It is not possible to tell from the Home Office database how long those apprehended as illegals had been in the UK and, therefore, how many are actually caught while entering. It is possible, however, to compare annual outcomes with cohorts of apprehension.

In the tables "custody" refers to any type of official detention centre (special centre, police cells, prison); "dual custody" means being in detention for both a criminal and an immigration offence. "Voluntary departure" implies some 'record' of having left (e.g. possession of a ticket.) "Supervised departures" are included in the removals figures.

Tables 7.3 and 7.5 do not include voluntary departures. Table 7.6 records numbers of court actions.

Table 7.4 records the various types of deportation action taken. In the last few years Home Office action has focused on removals rather than detection. The rising numbers reflect both more failed asylum seekers (i.e. applications turned down, including on appeal) and more detection resources.

Some unpublished data exist on the numbers of illegal migrants who are failed asylum seekers, broken down by nationality. Other data on enforcement action can be made available, broken down by age, sex and nationality. In the Home Office's view, it is unlikely that enforcement data can be used to calculate the number of illegal migrants. Nor can this be done by matching entry and embarkation cards because there are too many gaps (including notably EEA nationals), meaning that the exercise would be statistically unsound.

2.4. Labour

2.4.1 Work permits

The employment of people who are subject to immigration control is regulated by the granting of work permits from the Department for Education and Employment's (DfEE) Overseas Labour Service (now renamed Work Permits UK). Under the 1971 Immigration Act a work permit is granted to a specific employer for a named person for a specific job.

All foreign nationals who are not EU citizens, and who wish to work in the UK, must obtain a work permit. From January 1993 a more relaxed approach was adopted towards citizens of EFTA countries in anticipation of the creation of the EEA. Some people do take up work illegally, without a permit. Their number is not known, but they are likely to be concentrated in labour intensive and low-paid occupations such as catering and cleaning. Work permits are granted to employers, not workers. There is no check on whether the nominated worker actually enters the UK, nor whether he/she stays for the full duration of the permit.

Not requiring DfEE approval are certain permit-free categories (e.g. clergy), working holidaymakers (young Commonwealth citizens between 17 and 27) students and dependants of work permit holders. These miscellaneous groups may, in fact, be quite significant in the short-term labour market.

Permits are issued for varying periods, but effectively they are either short-term (under one year) or long-term (one year or more). Most short-term permits go to entertainers and sportspeople, most long-term permits to managerial and professional staff. Work permit data are not published except as tables; unpublished data are available by nationality, occupation, and industrial group. Separate data are available for the main work permit scheme, and for the Training and Work Experience Scheme which caters principally for young workers from the Commonwealth.

Total numbers of work permit holders admitted, together with the associated numbers of dependants given leave to enter, are published annually in the Home Office's *Control of Immigration Statistics*. There is a breakdown by nationality but there are no data on occupational or other personal characteristics.

In 1998 new classifications were introduced:

- In country extension: application from an employer who wishes to extend the employment of an individual currently working for them in the UK.
- In country change of employment: application from an employer who wishes to employ an individual already in the UK who originally entered with a work permit for a different employer.
- In country technical change: applications from employers who wish to engage an individual in other work for the same employer.

- In country supplementary employment: applications from employers who wish to employ an individual during a period covered by another employers work permit. Agreement of current employer is sought by the OLS first.
- Work permit extension: extension applications from employers to extend the employment of an individual who is out of the UK at the time the application is considered.

Unpublished work permit statistics are available by nationality, SIC (industrial classification) and SOC (occupational classification). The new computer system which came into operation in the summer of 1999 has difficulty in providing data from 1997 onwards comparative to those before: currently, for example, it is not possible to obtain a short/long-term breakdown by occupation, industry and nationality.

A growing problem since 1995 has been the increase in the occupational category 'Other' from less than 5 per cent to over 50 per cent. This seems to be a procedural rather than a definitional problem. Unfortunately, it means that occupational trends before and after 1996 may not be comparable. The data that are available for 2000 show a dramatic improvement and 'other' occupations account for only 1.1 per cent (133) of the total permits issued.

Some indication of the propensity of work permit holders to settle more permanently can be derived by comparing the number accepted for settlement with the number of long-term work permits issued four years previously. The comparison suggests that in the period 1986-99 around a quarter of long-term work permit holders have applied for and been accepted for settlement

2.4.2 Labour Force Survey

See 2.3.1.2 and 2.3.2.2 above.

2.4.3 National Insurance

The data, produced by the Department of Social Security, have their origin in EU Regulation 311/76 (1976) designed to collect homogeneous statistics on foreign workers, using social security records. They are based on the issue to all new workers, including those from overseas, of a National Insurance card. From 1992 they are likely also to include those seeking social security benefit. Hence they are produced from information held for administrative purposes.

No data are published, but certain tables are available on request. Their circulation is mostly within government departments. The tables are based on a 100 per cent extraction of data on non-UK nationals arriving from abroad who register or re-register for National Insurance purposes during each year. (Re-registration occurs in cases where an individual claims to have worked in the UK at some time in the past, but where no NI trace can be found). The data should not be taken as a full record of migrant workers, as the only available evidence of "work" is the recorded payment of one Class 1 contribution which, although paid, may or may not have been recorded by the date of data extraction. Self-employed people are excluded.

There are a number of difficulties involved in using these data to provide an accurate picture of labour immigration flows. The main one is that they provide no indication of the length of time worked: they merely record that a card was issued. No sample studies have been carried out by the DSS to verify the data.

The DSS statistics do, however, have a number of advantages. They pick up those workers who have come and gone within a year, and who are lost to the LFS. They are also likely to pick up illegal workers who,

despite their position, seem able to obtain NI cards. They will also include those who are not in private households – living in hotels or hostels, for example – and who were omitted from the LFS before 1992.

Three basic tables are produced by the DSS for arrivals: age, nationality and sex; nationality, sex and region of residence; and age, sex and region of residence. An additional table analyses arrivals by nationality, sex and industry, but it is based on a 1 per cent sample only, since it uses an alternative database which is limited to 1 per cent of the full main file.

Because of a change in the computing system, no data are available for the period April 1997-October 1999 and none have yet been produced for the period since.

2.5 Asylum seekers

The UK is a party to the 1951 UN Convention and 1967 Protocol relating to the Status of Refugees. Statistics on applications for asylum and on decisions are a by-product of the asylum determination procedure. They cover all applicants for asylum. Information recorded during interviews with asylum seekers includes: arrival date; nationality; date of birth; number of dependants; where the application is made; date granted refugee or exceptional leave to remain (ELR) status.

Data on applications, grants and refusals, by nationality, age and sex are published in an annual Home Office Statistical Bulletin.

Those who fulfil all the criteria for asylum are granted full refugee status. In addition, the UK is prepared to grant, to applicants who do not fully meet the requirements of the Convention, exceptional leave to remain (ELR) for an appropriate period, if it would be unreasonable or impracticable in all the circumstances to seek to enforce their return to their country of origin. People granted refugee status are given leave to remain for four years, after which they may apply for indefinite leave to remain, or settlement. Those granted ELR are able to apply for indefinite leave to remain after seven years. In recent years the proportion of applicants recognized as refugees and so granted asylum has decreased. The proportions granted ELR and outright refusal have fluctuated recently.

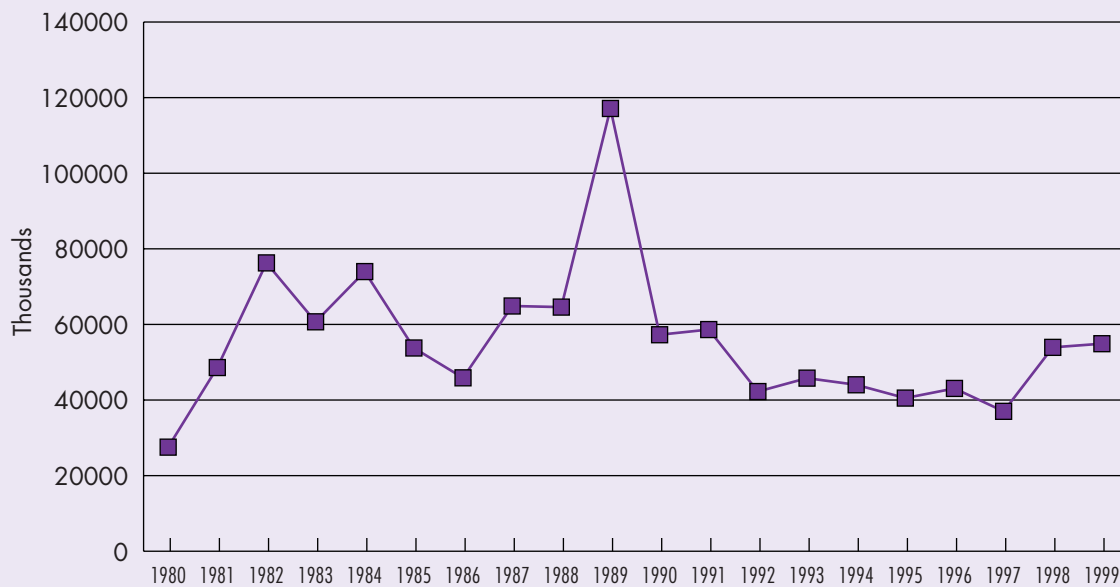
There are no statistics on the labour market situation, including occupation, of asylum seekers.

2.6 Naturalisation and citizenship

The UK has traditionally had a more relaxed attitude towards naturalisation than many of its neighbours, mainly due to past colonial influences. Most grants are discretionary rather than by entitlement. Data are available by former nationality, type and basis of grant, and are published in an annual Home Office Statistical Bulletin.

Naturalisation statistics need to be analysed alongside those on stocks of foreign nationals when estimating changes in the foreign population. As far as we are aware, this has not been attempted in a systematic fashion. Figure 2.2 shows that grants of British citizenship fluctuated in the 1980s but have been fairly stable at 40-60,000 per annum in the 1990s. The peaking in 1989 was a direct consequence of the end of the transition period following the 1981 British Nationality Act.

Figure 2.2: Grants of British Citizenship in the United Kingdom 1980-1999



Source: Home Office

2.7 Longitudinal Study (LS)

The LS has been little used for studies of international migration. It has severe limitations as a means of measuring flows and its main value is in the analysis of stock changes between censuses. Nationality is not recorded but birthplace is available. By definition it contains information on individuals from the Census (such as birthplace and ethnicity) and should allow tracking within the UK via the NHSCR data it contains.

In this study the LS has been used to assess levels of social progression among selected national groups. Off-the-peg cross tabulations from the LS for 1971, 1981 and 1991 were used and not specially commissioned data.

2.8 Evaluation

At first sight the UK appears rich in international migration data. There is some scope for cross-checking between sources, though most of them should be regarded as complementary to each other. The IPS is a source giving comparative immigration and emigration data, and conforming to the UN definition; it is also unique in Europe. It is probably an adequate basis for recording total numbers of migrants for the UK as a whole, together with breakdowns into broad categories, but the small sample size means it cannot be used for any detailed analysis. If the number of passengers continues to rise, special measures will be required to maintain the sample size of migrants. The Labour Force Survey also suffers from problems of small sample size, though not as acutely as the IPS. The LFS has unrealised potential as a source of data on stocks of foreign population and labour. The administrative nature of Home Office statistics means that no direct comparisons can be made with most other sources, although some comparisons are possible with IPS data. Some evidence of how long those granted work permits stay in the UK comes from the numbers granted settlement after four years: in recent years this figure has been around a quarter of long-term permits issued.

The 'headline' variability in flow numbers derived from different sources is illustrated in tables 2.2 and 2.3. Which provide comparative flow statistics from various sources. Table 2.2 contains only total flows because the census does not record nationality. Total unadjusted inflows for 1991 from the IPS were almost identical to those from the LFS, while the adjusted IPS figure was similar to that from the census. Although the question is the same (address a year ago) the census figure may be expected to be higher than that of the LFS because of its more comprehensive cover.

Table 2.2: Flows of migrants into the UK 1991

Census	326,000
LFS	269,000
IPS (adjusted)	337,000
IPS (unadjusted)	267,000

Source: Census, LFS, IPS

The variation in labour flows (Table 2.3) is considerable, reflecting the coverage of the two administration systems (work permits and DSS) and the two surveys (LFS and IPS). No data are available from the DSS after 1997. The narrowing gap between the total issues of work permits and the LFS reflects the growing importance of non-EEA labour inflows relative to the total. The rapid increase in total foreign immigration recorded in the IPS in the last few years is reflected in the data on worker inflows.

Table 2.3: Inflows of foreign national workers, 1991, 1997 and 1999

Numbers	1991	1997	1999
WP	28978	42443	55494
LFS	51000	59000	64000
IPS	75000	79000	127000
DSS	114521	130309	-

Data/Sources:

WP = Department of Employment and Department for Education and Employment: work permits, first permissions and TWES.

LFS = Labour Force Survey: foreigners living and working in the UK, living outside the UK 1 year ago.

IPS = International Passenger Survey: estimated inflow of foreign workers.

DSS = Department of Social Security: number of immigrant workers registering or re-registering (in financial year, April-April).

Notes:

IPS and LFS figures rounded to nearest '000.

2.9 Conclusions

Concepts and definitions used in the context of international migration and more specifically of labour migration are extremely varied. In the analysis and interpretation of data, it is therefore essential to be clear on these issues.

A range of statistical sources exist which shed light on stocks and flows of migrant population in the UK and which, taken together, can help to construct a picture of patterns and trends in international migration and its significance for the labour market. However, all have limitations which need to be taken into account.

Research questions

- How do migration patterns and trends in the UK compare with those in Western Europe as a whole?
- How does the size of the foreign labour force in the UK compare with that in other West European countries?

Main findings

- The UK has the third largest foreign population and labour force, after Germany and France, in Western Europe.
- Between 1988 and 1993, its total foreign population rose at a lower rate than in the region overall but after 1993 its annual rate of increase exceeded that of the region as a whole. A similar pattern applied to its foreign labour force.
- Compared with its neighbours, the UK's stock of both foreign citizens and labour as a proportion of its total population is low.
- Compared with other EU countries, a relatively high proportion of the UK's stocks and flows of immigrants are from high income countries.

3.1 Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to place recent UK migration patterns and trends into the broader Western European context. It reviews the situation with regard to the foreign population and labour force generally and then focuses on the economic nature of immigrant origins. The comparative tables use the respective national statistical sources and so detailed definitions vary. There are also variations in the temporal pattern of data availability. For some countries more up-to-date statistics are available than for others. One particular difficulty in producing aggregate figures for Western Europe as a whole is that in the case of France the only official source recording stocks of foreign population is the census, the last one for which data are available being 1990¹. In view of the large size of the foreign population stock in France this is an important constraint in assessing overall trends in numbers.

3.2 Foreign population

3.2.1 Stocks of foreign population

The total recorded stock of foreign population living in Western European countries in 1998 (listed in Table 3.1) stood at around 20.34 million people, over 5 per cent of the total population. The UK had almost 11 per cent of the total. The number has increased considerably in recent years. In 1988 (1989 for Ireland and

¹ A preliminary figure for 1999 census has recently become available

1990 for France), the figure for foreign nationals was 14.9 million. Hence, between 1988 and the present, total foreign national stocks in Western European countries have increased by 36.5 per cent. In the UK the rise (21.2%) was below this level, in contrast, for example, to Germany (63%), Italy (93.7%) and Austria (114.3%).

See Table 3.1

3.2.2 Rate and direction of change in stocks

The latest statistics indicate that total numbers of foreign residents are still growing in most Western European countries but that the overall rate of increase in numbers has declined significantly since the early 1990s. However, it is essential to scrutinise the experience of individual countries to appreciate that there have been and continue to be marked differences between countries which cannot be detected from the overall picture. For example, Germany recorded an exceptionally high rate of increase in foreign nationals between 1990 and 1992 which greatly inflated the overall rate of change in Western Europe at that time. By contrast, Spain recorded a drop in stocks of foreign nationals between 1990 and 1991 and, since then, has experienced its highest rate of increase between 1997 and 1998.

For those countries for which data were available at or around 1981, 1988 and 1998 (the major omissions being France and the UK), rates of increase of foreign national stocks have been computed. During the period 1981-88 the annual increase averaged 122,700 (1.4%), but rose to 789,400 (8.3%) 1988-93, then fell to 201,500 (1.5%) 1993-98. Some 477,800 per annum of the 1988-93 increase occurred in Germany, compared with only 88,300 during 1993-98. Data for the UK show an annual increase of 36,000 (3.3%) 1988-93 and 41,000 (2.2%) 1993-98.

Though rates of change at different points in time differed, most of the countries with year-on-year data in Table 3.1 saw an annual increase in their stock of foreign residents in most years between 1980 and 1993. In 1994, the situation appeared to start changing. Five countries recorded a drop in numbers of foreign residents and this increased to six in 1995. In other countries numbers fluctuated: for example, those in Austria fell in 1995 then rose in each succeeding year; those of the UK fell in 1996 then rose strongly. In Denmark, Finland, Ireland, Italy, Luxembourg and Portugal there were consistent rises; in Germany and Switzerland 1998 saw falls after rises throughout the period as a whole. The evidence does not suggest that we are seeing the beginning of a trend of decline in foreign population stocks overall; if anything there is still a strong upward trend. However, Western European states are displaying some individuality and trends and fluctuations do vary from country to country.

See Table 3.2

3.2.3 Foreign stocks as proportion of total population

The relative importance of foreigners in the total population varies considerably from country to country, although proportions have been rising generally (Table 3.2). Compared with elsewhere in Western Europe the size of the UK's foreign population is modest: it comes tenth on the list in the table. In 1998 (or the latest available date) the largest proportions of foreigners, relative to the total population, were in Luxembourg (34.9% of the total population) and Switzerland (19%). In three countries – Austria, Belgium and Germany – the proportion was around nine per cent. In another group of countries – Denmark, France Ireland, Netherlands, Norway, Sweden and the United Kingdom – it ranged between 3 per cent and 6.3 per cent.

Table 3.1: Stock of foreign population in selected European countries, 1980-1998 (thousands)

	1980	1981	1982	1983	1984	1985	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998
Austria	282.7	299.2	302.9	296.7	297.8	304.4	314.9	326.2	344.0	387.2	456.1	532.7	623.0	689.0	713.5	723.0	728.0	732.7	737.3
Belgium (1)	-	885.7	891.2	890.9	897.6	846.5	853.2	862.5	868.8	880.8	904.5	922.5	909.3	920.6	922.3	909.7	911.9	903.1	892.0
Denmark	101.6	101.9	103.1	104.1	107.7	117.0	128.3	136.2	142.0	150.6	160.6	169.5	180.1	189.0	196.7	222.7	237.7	237.7	256.3
Finland	12.8	13.7	14.3	15.7	16.8	17.0	17.3	17.7	18.7	21.2	26.3	37.6	46.3	55.6	62.0	68.6	73.8	81.0	85.1
France (2)	-	-	3714.2	-	-	3752.2	-	-	-	-	3607.6	3596.6	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Germany (3)	4453.3	4629.8	4666.9	4534.9	4363.7	4378.9	4512.7	4630.2	4489.1	4845.9	5241.8	5882.3	6495.8	6878.1	6990.5	7173.9	7314.0	7365.8	7319.6
Greece	213.0	223.0	229.7	232.0	234.1	233.2	220.1	217.8	222.6	226.1	229.1	253.3	262.3	265.0	244.0	153.0	155.0	165.4	-
Ireland	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	79.3	80.8	87.7	94.9	89.9	91.1	96.1	117.8	114.4	111.0
Italy (4)	298.7	331.7	358.9	381.3	403.9	423.0	450.2	572.1	645.4	490.4	781.1	859.6	925.2	987.4	922.7	991.4	1095.6	1240.7	1250.2
Luxembourg	94.3	95.4	95.6	96.2	96.9	98.0	96.8	98.6	100.9	104.0	110.0	114.7	119.7	124.5	130.0	132.5	138.1	142.8	147.7
Netherlands	520.9	537.6	546.5	552.4	558.7	552.5	568.0	591.8	623.7	641.9	692.4	732.9	757.4	779.8	757.1	725.4	679.9	678.1	662.4
Norway (5)	82.6	86.5	90.6	94.7	97.8	101.5	109.3	123.7	135.9	140.3	143.3	147.8	154.0	162.3	164.0	160.8	157.5	158.0	165.1
Portugal (6)	49.3	53.6	57.7	65.9	72.6	80.0	87.0	89.8	94.7	101.0	107.8	114.0	121.5	170.8	157.1	157.0	168.3	175.3	178.1
Spain	182.0	197.9	200.9	210.4	226.5	241.9	293.2	334.9	360.0	398.1	407.7	360.7	393.1	430.4	461.0	499.8	539.0	609.8	719.6
Sweden (7)	421.7	414.0	405.5	397.1	390.6	388.6	390.8	401.0	421.0	456.0	483.7	493.8	499.1	507.5	537.4	531.8	526.6	522.0	499.9
Switzerland (8)	892.8	909.9	925.8	925.6	932.4	939.7	956.0	978.7	1006.5	1040.3	1100.3	1163.2	1213.5	1260.3	1300.1	1363.6	1370.6	1372.7	1347.9
Turkey	-	-	-	-	-	-	24.9	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	68.1	135.9	162.2
United Kingdom	-	-	-	-	1601.0	1731.0	1820.0	1839.0	1821.0	1949.0	1875.0	1791.0	1985.0	2001.0	2032.0	1948.0	1934.0	2066.0	2207.0

Sources: Eurostat, Council of Europe, OECD SOPEMI Correspondents, National Statistical Offices

Notes:

1. In 1985, as a consequence of a modification of the nationality code, some persons who formerly would have been counted as foreigners were included as nationals. This led to a marked decrease in the foreign population.
2. Population censuses on 4/3/82 and 6/3/90. The figure for the census of 20/2/75 is 3442.4.
3. Data as of 30/10 up to 1984 and in 1990 and as of 31/12 for all other years. Except for 1991 & 1992, refers to western Germany. FSO.
4. Data are adjusted to take account of the regularisations which occurred in 1987-88 and 1990. The fall in numbers for 1989 results from a review of the foreigners' register (removing duplicate registrations, accounting for returns). Source: Ministry of the Interior, elaborated by CENSIS.
5. From 1987, asylum seekers whose requests are being processed are included. Numbers for earlier years were fairly small.
6. 1993 figure includes estimated 39,200 from special regularisation.
7. Some foreigners permits of short duration are not counted (mainly citizens of other Nordic countries).
8. Numbers of foreigners with annual residence permits (including, up to 31/12/82, holders of permits of durations below 12 months) and holders of settlement permits (permanent permits). Seasonal and frontier workers are excluded. 1993 data from Sopeni. 1994 figure taken in April.

Table 3.2: Stock of foreign population as a percentage of total population in selected European countries, 1980-1998

	1980	1981	1982	1983	1984	1985	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	
Austria	3.7	3.9	4.0	3.9	3.9	4.0	4.2	4.3	4.5	5.1	5.9	6.8	7.9	8.6	8.9	9.0	9.0	9.1	9.1	
Belgium (1)	-	9.0	9.0	9.0	9.1	8.6	8.6	8.7	8.8	8.9	9.1	9.2	9.0	9.1	9.1	9.0	8.9	8.9	8.7	8.7
Denmark	2.0	2.0	2.0	2.0	2.1	2.3	2.5	2.7	2.8	2.9	3.1	3.3	3.5	3.6	3.8	4.2	4.5	4.5	4.8	4.8
Finland	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.7	0.9	1.0	1.2	1.3	1.4	1.6	1.6	1.6
France (2)	-	-	6.8	-	-	6.8	-	-	-	-	6.3	6.3	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Germany (3)	7.2	7.5	7.6	7.4	7.1	7.2	7.4	7.6	7.3	7.7	8.2	7.3	8.0	8.5	8.6	8.8	8.9	9.0	8.9	8.9
Greece	2.2	2.3	2.3	2.4	2.4	2.3	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.3	2.5	2.5	2.6	-	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.5
Ireland	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.7	0.8	0.8	2.7	2.7	2.7	2.7	3.2	3.1	3.0	3.0
Italy (4)	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.8	1.0	1.1	0.9	1.4	1.6	1.6	1.7	1.6	1.7	1.9	2.2	2.2	2.2
Luxembourg	25.8	26.1	26.2	26.3	26.5	26.7	26.2	26.5	26.8	27.4	28.6	29.4	30.3	31.1	32.0	32.6	33.4	34.1	34.9	34.9
Netherlands	3.7	3.8	3.8	3.8	3.9	3.8	3.9	4.0	4.2	4.3	4.6	4.8	5.0	5.1	5.0	5.0	4.3	4.5	4.2	4.2
Norway (5)	2.0	2.1	2.2	2.3	2.4	2.4	2.6	2.9	3.2	3.3	3.4	3.5	3.6	3.8	3.8	3.7	3.6	3.6	3.7	3.7
Portugal (6)	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.7	0.7	0.8	0.9	0.9	1.0	1.0	1.1	1.2	1.2	1.7	1.6	1.6	1.7	1.7	1.8	1.8
Spain	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.8	0.9	0.9	1.0	1.0	0.9	1.0	1.1	1.2	1.2	1.4	1.5	1.5	1.5
Sweden (7)	5.1	5.0	4.9	4.8	4.7	4.6	4.7	4.8	5.0	5.3	5.6	5.7	5.7	5.8	6.1	6.0	5.9	5.9	5.9	5.9
Switzerland (8)	14.1	14.3	14.4	14.4	14.4	14.5	14.7	14.9	15.2	15.6	16.3	17.0	17.6	18.1	18.6	19.3	19.6	19.4	19.0	19.0
Turkey	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.04	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.1	0.2	-	-
United Kingdom	-	-	-	-	2.8	3.0	3.2	3.2	3.2	3.4	3.3	3.1	3.4	3.4	3.5	3.6	3.4	3.5	3.8	3.8

Sources: Eurostat, Council of Europe, OECD SOPEMI Correspondents, National Statistical Offices

Notes:

1. In 1985, as a consequence of a modification of the nationality code, some persons who formerly would have been counted as foreigners were included as nationals. This led to a marked decrease in the foreign population.
2. Population censuses on 4/3/82 and 6/3/90. The figure for the census of 20/2/75 is 3442.4.
3. Data as of 30/10 up to 1984 and in 1990 and as of 31/12 for all other years. Except for 1991 & 1992, refers to western Germany. FSO.
4. Data are adjusted to take account of the regularisations which occurred in 1987-88 and 1990. The fall in numbers for 1989 results from a review of the foreigners' register (removing duplicate registrations, accounting for returns). Source: Ministry of the Interior, elaborated by CENSIS.
5. From 1987, asylum seekers whose requests are being processed are included. Numbers for earlier years were fairly small.
6. 1993 figure includes estimated 39,200 from special regularisation.
7. Some foreigners permits of short duration are not counted (mainly citizens of other Nordic countries).
8. Numbers of foreigners with annual residence permits (including, up to 31/12/82, holders of permits of durations below 12 months) and holders of settlement permits (permanent permits). Seasonal and frontier workers are excluded. 1993 data from Sopemi. 1994 figure taken in April.

Most countries, like the UK, have recorded rises in the proportion of foreigners but in a few (Belgium, Netherlands, Norway, Sweden) the percentage has fallen or remained stable during the latest period for which data are available. Changes in the proportion of foreigners may have occurred for a number of reasons, including rates of acquisition of citizenship by foreigners and updating of statistics.

3.3 Labour

It is more difficult to obtain accurate and comparable data across Europe for stocks of labour than for the foreign population as a whole. There are problems of knowing who is included and which sources might be used. In addition, unrecorded workers are almost certainly proportionately more important in the labour market than are unrecorded residents in the total population.

3.3.1 Stocks of foreign labour in Western Europe

The evidence from Table 3.3 suggests that in Western Europe around 1998 (using the latest data for each country) there were about 7.71 million recorded foreign workers. This represents an increase of 29.4 per cent on the 1988 figure (5.96 million) but only 4 per cent on that for 1994 (7.4 million). Indeed, it would appear that over the last few years stocks of recorded foreign labour have changed little. This is in contrast to the situation earlier in the 1990s when Western Europe increased its foreign labour force as the economy went into recession. A longer term perspective may be had by comparing the situation in 1980, 1988 and 1998 (1997 for France) for those eight countries in Table 3.3 for which data are available throughout. In 1980 these countries had 4.63 million foreign workers, but by 1988 this total had fallen slightly to 4.45 million (-3.9%); in 1998 the number had risen to 5.16 million, an increase in nine years of 710,000 (16%). For these countries, therefore, all of the increase in the foreign labour force since 1980 occurred after 1988.

In the UK, there was a 19.2 per cent increase in foreign labour between 1988 and 1998, rather lower than that in the region as a whole. However, after 1994 the UK increased its foreign labour force at a faster rate (20.3%) than its collective neighbours.

The period since 1988 has, however, been one of fluctuation. For all countries listed a comparison of the situation in 1988, 1992 and 1998 (or latest data available) has been made. In 1988 total numbers of recorded foreign workers were 5.9 million; by 1992 these had risen by 23.1 per cent to 7.3 million but rose only 5 per cent to 7.7 million in 1998. It would appear, therefore, that increases in Western Europe's recorded foreign workers occurred almost entirely in the late 1980s and early 1990s and that since then the numbers have hardly changed.

Despite the general increases in the stocks of foreign population between 1980 and 1998, changes in the stocks of foreign labour have varied between the traditional countries of immigration. In 1998 the recorded stock of foreign labour in Germany was 1.4 per cent lower than in 1980, despite an increase of 64.4 per cent in the foreign population. From 1980 to 1998, Austria's foreign labour stock increased by 71 per cent (124,000), compared with a 161 per cent increase in foreign population. In contrast, between 1984 and 1998 the UK's stock of foreign labour rose at a higher rate (39.7%) than that of the foreign population as a whole (37.9%).

In the last few years trends in foreign labour stocks have varied between countries. Germany and Switzerland recorded falls in numbers; in contrast, Austria, Ireland, Luxembourg, Portugal and Spain had relatively large gains although in the latest years these gains have levelled off. Numbers in the UK have risen, especially

Table 3.3: Stocks of foreign labour in selected European countries, 1980-1998 (thousands)⁽¹⁾

	1980	1981	1982	1983	1984	1985	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	
Austria (2)	174.7	171.8	156.0	145.3	138.7	140.2	146.0	147.4	150.9	167.4	217.6	266.5	273.9	277.5	291.0	316.8	319.7	298.8	298.6	
Belgium (3)	-	-	-	190.6	182.5	179.7	179.2	176.6	179.4	196.4	-	290.4	337.3	-	-	328.8	343.8	-	-	-
Denmark (4)	-	-	-	51.9	53.6	56.5	60.1	62.7	65.1	66.9	68.8	71.2	74.0	77.7	80.3	83.8	87.9	106.4	116.6	-
Finland (5)	4.5	4.8	5.3	5.5	6.0	6.8	6.4	7.2	8.0	10.0	13.0	14.0	14.7	15.2	22.6	25.5	29.7	32.5	-	-
France (6)	1458.2	1427.1	1503.0	1574.8	1658.2	1649.2	1555.7	1524.9	1557.0	1593.8	1549.5	1506.0	1517.8	1541.5	1593.9	1573.3	1604.7	1569.8	-	-
Germany (7)	2015.6	1917.2	1785.5	1709.1	1608.1	1586.6	1600.2	1610.8	1656.0	1730.8	1837.7	1972.9	2103.9	2183.6	2140.5	2128.7	2067.7	2001.8	1987.5	-
Greece (8)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	24.9	23.9	21.6	23.2	24.2	33.1	29.0	26.2	27.4	28.7	29.4	-	-
Ireland (9)	-	-	-	-	-	34.0	33.0	33.0	35.0	33.0	34.0	39.3	40.4	37.3	34.5	42.1	43.4	-	-	-
Italy	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	187.8	153.4	380.9	464.6	507.5	525.5	474.6	-	-	-	-	-
Luxembourg (10)	51.9	52.2	52.3	53.8	53.0	55.0	58.7	63.7	69.4	76.2	84.7	92.6	98.2	101.0	106.3	111.8	117.8	124.8	134.6	-
Netherlands (11)	188.1	192.7	185.2	173.7	168.8	165.8	169.0	175.7	176.0	192.0	197.0	214.0	229.0	219.0	216.0	221.0	218.0	208.0	-	-
Norway (12)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	49.5	47.7	46.3	46.3	46.6	47.9	50.3	51.9	-	-	-	-
Portugal (8)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	33.4	35.2	-	36.9	39.9	59.2	63.1	77.6	84.3	86.8	87.9	-	-
Spain (13)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	58.2	69.9	85.4	171.0	139.4	115.4	121.8	138.7	161.9	176.0	190.5	-
Sweden (14)	234.1	233.5	227.7	221.6	219.2	216.1	214.9	214.9	220.2	237.0	246.0	241.0	233.0	221.0	213.0	220.0	218.0	220.0	219.0	-
Switzerland (15)	501.2	515.1	526.2	529.8	539.3	549.3	566.9	587.7	607.8	631.8	669.8	702.4	716.7	725.8	740.3	728.7	709.1	692.8	691.1	-
Turkey	-	-	-	-	-	-	5.5	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	16.3	21.0	23.4	-
United Kingdom (16)	-	-	-	-	744.0	808.0	815.0	815.0	871.0	914.0	882.0	828.0	902.0	862.0	864.0	862.0	865.0	949.0	1039.0	-

Sources: OECD SOPEMI Correspondents, National Statistical Offices

Notes:

1. Includes the unemployed, except in Benelux and the U.K. Frontier and seasonal workers are excluded unless otherwise stated.
2. Annual average. Work permits delivered plus permits still valid. Figures may be over-estimated because some persons hold more than one permit. Self-employed are excluded. Data for 1990 and 1991 have been adjusted to correct for a temporary over-issue of work permits relative to the number of jobs held by foreigners, between August 1990 and June 1991.
3. Excludes the unemployed and self-employed.
4. Data from population registers and give the count as of the end of November each year except December (end of December).
5. Estimate, assuming activity rates of the 1980s (slightly under 50%).
6. Data as of March each year derived from the labour force survey.
7. Data as of 30 September each year. Includes frontier workers but not the self-employed. Refers to Western Germany.
8. Excludes the unemployed.
9. 1991 data excludes the unemployed.
10. Data as of 1 October each year. Foreigners in employment, including apprentices, trainees and frontier workers. Excludes the unemployed.
11. Estimates as of 31 March, including frontier workers, but excluding the self-employed and their family members as well as the unemployed.
12. Excludes unemployed. Data are for the second quarter.
13. Data derived from the annual labour force survey.
14. 1990-92 data corrected.
15. Data as of 31 December each year. Numbers of foreigners with annual residence permits (including up to 31 December 1982, holders of permits of durations below 12 months) and holders of settlement permits (permanent permits) who engage in gainful activity.
16. Excludes the unemployed.

since 1997. Partly these differences reflect responses to the economic cycle, but they also reflect the statistical capture of foreign workers. In most countries the real numbers of foreign worker stocks are higher because of the presence of illegal workers.

See Table 3.3

The majority of foreign workers in Europe in 1998 – like the majority of the foreign population – were concentrated in the Federal Republic of Germany and France, with a total of over 3.56 million workers. The UK also had over a million, about 13 per cent of all recorded foreign workers in Western Europe. Between them, these three countries had about 60 per cent of the total.

3.3.2 Foreign labour as a proportion of total labour

Table 3.4 lists foreigners as a proportion of the total labour force for Western European countries in 1988 and 1998. Figures for 1998 ranged from a massive 57.7 per cent in Luxembourg to 1.2 per cent in Spain. The UK, with 3.9 per cent, was well down at eighth place among those listed, a position it also held in 1988. Over the decade, most countries experienced growth in the foreign proportion of their labour force as a whole, the exceptions being France and the Netherlands.

Table 3.4: Foreign labour force in selected OECD countries, 1988 and 1998

	Thousands		% of total labour force	
	1988 ¹	1998 ²	1988 ¹	1998 ²
Austria	161	327	5.4	9.9
Belgium	291	375	7.2	8.8
Denmark	65	94	2.2	3.2
Finland	-	35	-	-
France	1557	1587	6.4	6.1
Germany	1911	2522	7.0	9.1
Ireland	35	48	2.7	3.2
Italy	285	332	1.3	1.7
Luxembourg	69	135	39.9	57.7
Netherlands	176	208	3.0	2.9
Norway	49	67	2.3	3.0
Portugal	46	89	1.0	1.8
Spain	58	191	0.4	1.2
Sweden	220	219	4.9	5.1
Switzerland	608	691	16.7	17.3
United Kingdom	871	1039	3.4	3.9

Source: OECD, 2001.

Notes:

1. 1991 for Italy; 1989 for Belgium.

2. 1995 for Italy; 1997 for Denmark, Germany and the Netherlands.

3.4 Origins of foreign population and labour in the EU by income category

An issue of growing importance to the UK and its EU partners is the relationship between immigration and the level of development in the origin countries. In general economies are likely to gain more from the immigration of skilled rather than unskilled workers and immigrants are more likely to be skilled if they come from more developed countries.

A recent study (Salt et al, 2000) linked migration statistics for EU states with the World Bank's categorisation of countries by income. Table 3.5 summarises the situation with respect to total foreign population stocks and flows and labour stocks and uses the two extremes ("high" and "low") of the four World Bank categories. The data highlight the variability that exists across the member states and also between the various measures of migration within countries. In general, it seems that Luxembourg, Ireland, UK and Belgium gain more benefit in terms of the skills of their foreign populations, who are more likely to come from high income countries, while the reverse is the case for Germany, Italy, France and Finland. The overall situation with regard to proportions from low income countries is less clear, though Italy, Portugal and the UK tend to have higher figures.

The differences in proportions within countries for the three measures of migration indicate a complex relationship between stocks and flows, including the effects of incorporating asylum seekers into the calculations. As things stand at the moment, Italy, France, Denmark and Sweden have around a fifth of their inflows from low-income countries, Belgium, Greece, Spain, Luxembourg and Ireland have less than one in ten.

Table 3.5: EU countries: proportions of immigrant stocks, flows and labour by income category of origin (most recent year available)

(a)	Immigration Flows from High-Income Countries (per cent)	Labour Stocks from High-Income Countries (per cent)	Total Foreign Population Stocks from High-Income Countries (per cent)
Luxembourg	81.1	95.2	-
Ireland	80.5	90.0	66.2
United Kingdom	67.1	62.8	53.8
Belgium	65.7	-	63.8
Portugal	65.2	25.6	34.1
Denmark	41.3	51.3	32.6
Sweden	41.0	72.4	44.7
Spain	34.2	4.6	54.6
Netherlands	32.9	38.0	30.6
Greece	30.1	46.8	42.2
Germany	29.4	35.4	28.7
Italy	25.0	16.4	28.0
France	24.4	47.1	39.7
Finland	23.7	44.0	25.6

(b)	Immigration Flows from Low-Income Countries (per cent)	Labour Stocks from Low-Income Countries (per cent)	Total Foreign Population Stocks from Low-Income Countries (per cent)
Italy	23.1	36.7	21.1
France	22.3	6.4	11.0
Denmark	21.3	6.0	18.4
Sweden	21.3	4.0	11.1
Portugal	16.1	65.7	47.8
Finland	15.3	10.3	16.4
United Kingdom	14.4	20.7	26.3
Netherlands	12.7	5.4	9.4
Germany	11.8	1.1	6.9
Belgium	9.1	-	3.6
Greece	9.1	16.7	12.2
Spain	6.7	15.1	5.4
Luxembourg	2.5	1.0	-
Ireland	0.0	0.0	0.0

Source: Eurostat, MRU database, World Bank

3.5 Conclusions

This chapter has examined recent UK migration patterns and trends in the wider context of Western Europe. It has been shown that the UK has the third largest foreign population and labour force, after Germany and France, in Western Europe. It holds about 11 per cent of Western Europe's stock of foreign citizens and 13 per cent of its foreign labour. Between 1988 and 1993 its total foreign population rose at a lower rate than in the region overall, but after 1993 this changed and its annual rate of increase exceeded that of the region as a whole.

A similar pattern applied to its foreign labour force. Compared with its neighbours, the UK's stock of both foreign citizens and labour as a proportion of its total population is low. However, in comparison with other EU countries, a relatively high proportion of the UK's stocks and flows of immigrants are from high income countries.

Research questions

- What have been the main trends and patterns in UK migration 1975-99?
- What have been the particular features of migration flows in the 1990s?

Main findings

- The UK has experienced a net gain of population through migration every year since 1983, with the highest annual net inflows from 1994 to 1999. There has been a net outflow of British citizens but a much larger net inflow of non-British.
- There was a ratio of six women to four men in the net inflow 1983-99 but the male/female balance was closer in the late 'nineties.
- Migrants are predominantly of working age. The largest component of the inflow has been the 15-24 age group - over a third of the total and 45 per cent of the non-British in 1995-9. The 25-34 age group has been the largest group in the outflow.
- The make-up of non-British flows in terms of citizenship has changed over time. In the late 'nineties, the Other Foreign group became the largest element in the inflow, with EU citizens (including the Irish) the largest in the outflow.
- Employed migrants were slightly under half of the inflow up to the mid-eighties and then became slightly more than half. They were consistently more than half of the outflow.
- Among the non-active, children were the largest group in both inflows and outflows before 1990 but students were the largest in the 1990s. Numbers of migrants described as 'housewives' diminished over the period
- The data demonstrate the importance of studying outflows as well as inflows to assess the policy implications of migration.

4.1 Introduction

This is the first of six chapters which examine trends and changes in migration to and from the UK over the last twenty-five years and particularly in the 1990s, drawing mainly on data from the International Passenger Survey (IPS). This chapter presents an overview, looking at the broad characteristics of migrants over that period and placing flows of employed people within the broader context of total migration flows. Chapter 5 analyses the regional distribution of migrants and their origins and destinations within the UK. The following four chapters focus on those who were in employment before they migrated and look in more detail at occupation, sex and citizenship and also at the overseas destinations of emigrants.

The nature of the IPS and the value and limitations of the data are discussed in Chapter 2 and it is important to bear in mind the information given in that chapter when considering the following analysis and interpreting the statistics presented here. It should be noted that in some tables there may be discrepancies due to the rounding of figures.

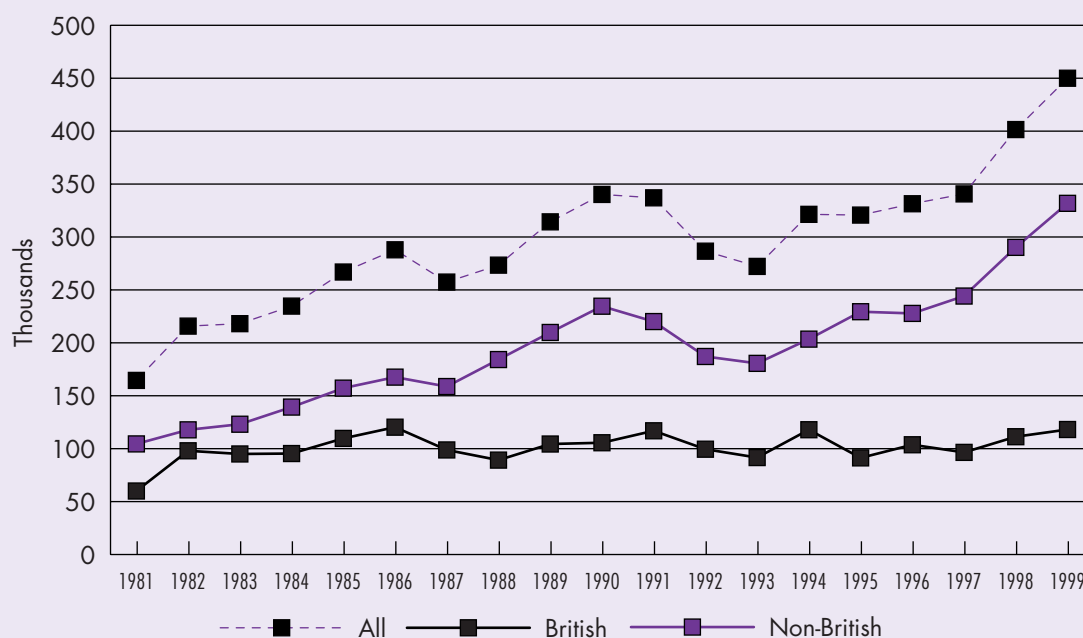
A migrant into the UK, as defined by the IPS, is a person who has resided abroad for a year or more and on entering has declared the intention to stay in the UK for a year or more. A migrant from the UK is a person who has resided in the UK for a year or more and on leaving has declared the intention to reside abroad for a year or more. 'Migration' in this sense is not confined to those who move from one country to another with a view to permanent settlement but includes substantial numbers moving for limited periods of time for work and other reasons. The statistics discussed in this and the following four chapters will include many individuals who entered the UK in one year and left again in another or vice versa, and some who came and went, or went and came back, more than once.

Unlike most major statistical sources which illuminate the impact of international migration on UK population and employment, the IPS provides data on those who leave as well as on those who enter the country. Much of the debate on immigration policy is conducted with no regard to the former, yet outflows are as important as inflows to any assessment of the impact of migration on the labour market, as well as on other areas of economic and social life.

4.2 Total movement: adjusted figures

The following analysis of migration flows uses adjusted IPS data for the period from 1981 (when adjustments started to be made) to 1999. As stated earlier, the Office for National Statistics calculates adjustments to the total flows derived from the IPS to try to improve their accuracy – for example, taking into account those who change their intentions regarding length of stay, those seeking asylum after entering the country and those entering and leaving the Irish Republic.

Figure 4.1: International migration 1981-1999; total adjusted inflows by citizenship



Source: IPS

Table 4.1: Adjusted international migration 1: flows by citizenship 1981-1999 (thousands)

	All	British	Non-British	EU	Old C/W ²	New C/W	Other Foreign
Inflow to UK							
1981	164.5	60.0	104.5	11.0	15.3	40.0	39.2
1982	215.8	98.0	117.8	18.0	16.3	43.4	41.1
1983	218.1	95.0	123.1	14.0	17.8	48.4	45.0
1984	234.7	95.4	139.3	33.8	20.6	42.8	42.0
1985	266.9	109.7	157.2	39.6	27.7	42.9	47.0
1986	287.9	120.3	167.6	54.0	22.1	42.4	49.0
1987	257.4	98.8	158.7	51.9	23.2	43.5	40.0
1988	273.4	89.2	184.2	63.2	25.5	40.9	54.5
1989	314.3	104.4	209.8	63.1	31.8	56.5	58.4
1990	340.2	105.6	234.6	61.4	36.7	59.9	77.6
1991	337.0	116.9	220.1	50.4	29.2	62.5	77.9
1992	286.6	99.5	187.1	41.3	21.1	56.5	68.2
1993	272.2	91.6	180.6	42.4	25.9	49.9	62.5
1994	321.4	117.9	203.5	48.3	23.9	58.8	72.6
1995	320.7	91.3	229.4	59.1	29.5	62.6	78.2
1996	331.4	103.7	227.8	69.5	32.1	52.4	73.8
1997	340.7	96.5	244.2	71.5	34.6	61.7	76.5
1998	401.5	111.3	290.2	77.6	59.9	52.7	99.9
1999	450.0	118.1	331.8	65.7	57.1	66.4	142.6
Outflow from UK							
1981	237.3	168.3	69.0	15.0	13.0	16.0	25.0
1982	263.3	191.3	72.0	11.0	13.0	19.0	28.0
1983	189.3	126.3	63.0	12.0	11.0	16.0	25.0
1984	176.9	102.5	74.3	17.9	15.0	15.3	26.2
1985	187.1	108.5	78.7	21.0	17.4	15.7	24.5
1986	229.7	132.0	97.7	24.4	21.8	12.6	39.0
1987	227.3	130.4	96.9	33.6	21.2	12.6	29.6
1988	255.5	143.2	112.4	36.9	18.2	20.8	36.4
1989	223.4	122.2	101.3	34.7	15.4	14.9	36.3
1990	251.9	135.4	116.5	45.9	20.5	13.6	36.5
1991	263.7	136.7	127.1	52.4	19.5	17.3	37.9
1992	251.5	133.4	118.1	36.1	18.1	13.7	50.2
1993	236.8	126.7	110.1	40.0	18.5	15.5	36.1
1994	212.6	108.3	104.3	38.7	16.6	16.1	32.8
1995	212.0	118.0	93.9	36.6	18.2	10.7	28.4
1996	238.4	139.2	99.2	42.7	17.7	13.5	25.2
1997	248.7	130.8	117.9	52.3	20.5	15.8	29.3
1998	223.7	111.2	112.5	47.2	20.6	10.0	34.7
1999	268.5	126.5	141.9	58.4	32.7	9.7	45.3
Balance							
1981	-72.8	-108.3	35.5	-4.0	2.3	24.0	14.2
1982	-47.5	-93.3	45.8	7.0	3.3	24.4	13.1
1983	28.8	-31.3	60.1	2.0	4.3	33.8	20.0
1984	57.8	-7.1	65.0	15.9	5.6	27.5	15.8
1985	79.8	1.2	78.5	18.6	10.3	27.2	22.5
1986	58.2	-11.7	69.9	29.6	0.3	29.8	10.0
1987	30.1	-31.6	61.8	18.3	2.0	30.9	10.4
1988	17.9	-54.0	71.8	26.3	7.3	20.1	18.1
1989	90.9	-17.8	108.5	28.4	16.4	41.6	22.1
1990	88.3	-29.8	118.1	15.5	16.2	46.3	41.1
1991	73.3	-19.8	93.0	-2.0	9.7	45.2	40.0
1992	35.1	-33.9	69.0	5.2	3.0	42.8	18.0
1993	35.4	-35.1	70.5	2.4	7.4	34.4	26.4
1994	108.8	9.6	99.2	9.6	7.3	42.7	39.8
1995	108.8	-26.8	135.5	22.5	11.3	52.0	49.8
1996	93.1	-35.5	128.6	26.8	14.3	38.9	48.5
1997	92.0	-34.3	126.3	19.2	14.1	45.8	47.2
1998	177.8	0.1	177.6	30.5	39.3	42.7	65.2
1999	181.5	-8.4	189.9	7.4	28.6	56.6	97.3

Source: IPS

Notes:

1. 1984-99 includes adjustments for asylum seekers, and for persons admitted as short-term visitors who are subsequently granted an extension of stay for other reasons - for example, as students or on the basis of marriage. 1981-83 includes adjustments for short term visitors but not asylum seekers.
2. Includes estimates of South African citizenship for all years.

4.2.1 Inflows of migrants

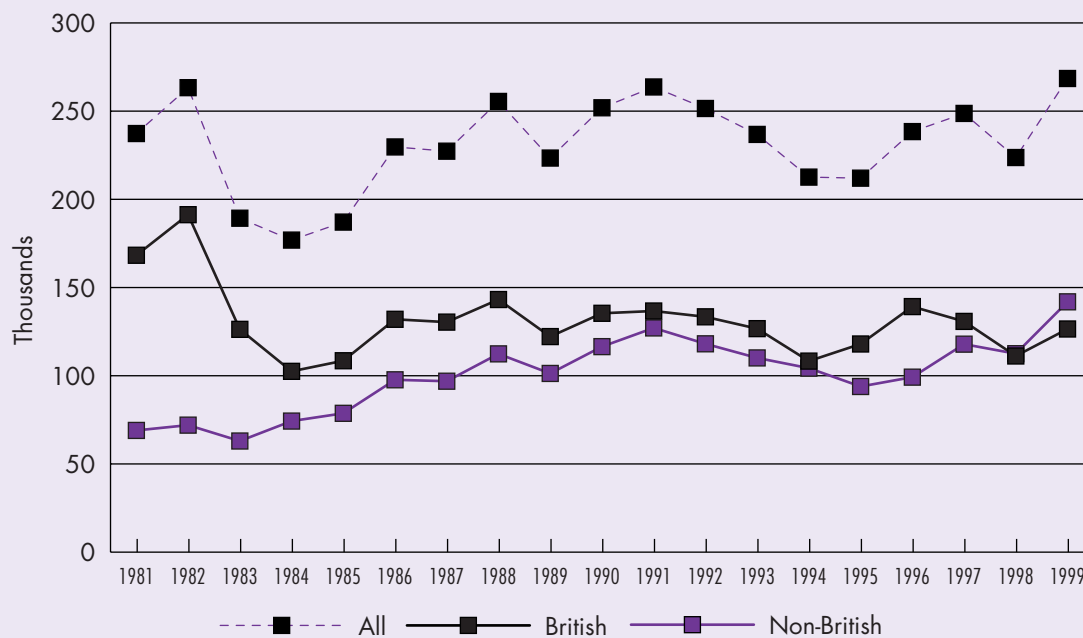
The total inflow of population across the period followed a rising trend, growing rapidly in the late 'eighties and even more so in the late 'nineties (see Figure 4.1). In 1999, the annual inflow reached 450,000, a 12 per cent increase on the 1998 total (401,500) and a 173 per cent increase on the 1981 figure (164,500). Adjusted statistics for the full period 1981-99 are presented in Table 4.1.

Inflows of the non-British were consistently higher than those of the British. British inflows remained fairly stable, fluctuating around an annual figure of about 100,000, whereas non-British inflows increased steadily over most of the period, from 104,500 in 1981 to 331,800 in 1999. Though there was a slight falling back in the early 'nineties, the inflow rose sharply later in the decade, with a 14 per cent increase between 1998 and 1999.

4.2.2 Outflows of migrants

Total adjusted outflows fluctuated mostly between 200,000 and 250,000, reaching a maximum of 268,500 in 1999. Figure 4.2 shows that after the early 'eighties outflows of British citizens tended to be only slightly higher than those of non-British citizens – the two were converging from the late 1980s onwards. In 1998 and 1999, for the first time since the data series began (1981), outflows of non-British exceeded those of British citizens. The difference was tiny in 1998 but increased the following year, when the non-British outflow was 141,900 compared to the British total of 126,500.

Figure 4.2: International migration 1981-1999; total adjusted outflows by citizenship



Source: IPS

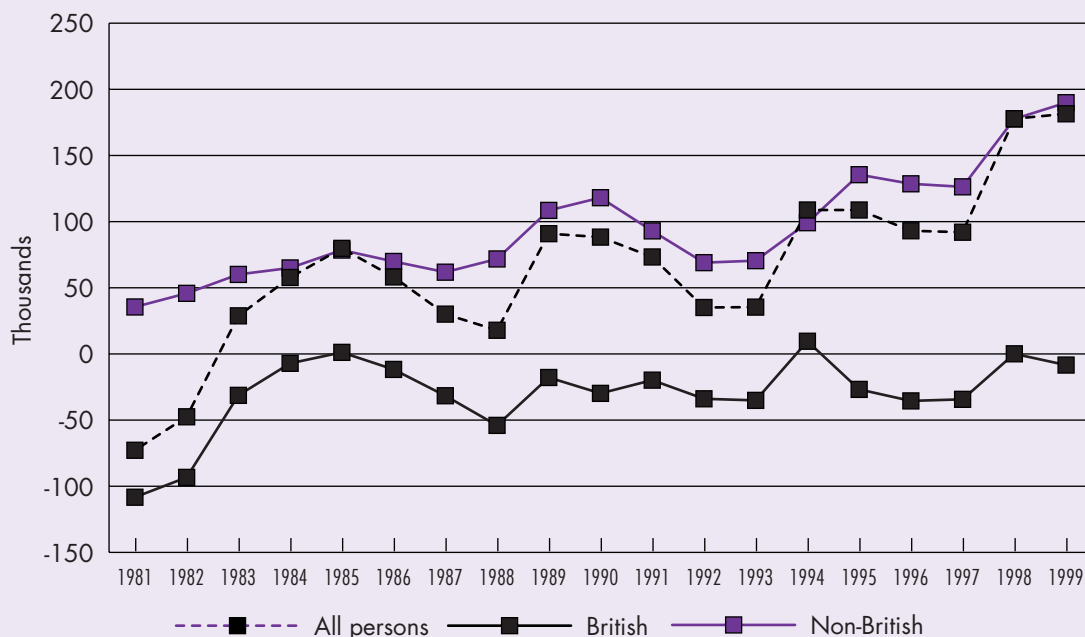
4.2.3 Net flows of migrants

Overall, the UK experienced a net gain of population through migration every year from 1983 onwards, with the highest net inflows from 1994 through to 1999. The net gain during this latter period alone was over

three quarters of a million people – substantially higher than for the whole 1983-93 period, when the net inflow was just under 600,000. Taking the period 1981-99 as a whole and allowing for a net loss through migration in 1981 and 1982, the total net inflow of population was over 1.2 million.

The statistics for British and non-British population movements show that the net gain was produced by substantial net inflows of foreign nationals which more than replaced a net loss of British citizens. (See Figure 4.3). There was a net inflow of non-British citizens every year from 1981 to 1999 and a net outflow of British citizens every year except 1985, 1994 and 1998. Annual net gains of foreign nationals were consistently above 60,000 per annum from 1983 onwards and above 100,000 in 1989, 1990 and 1995-9. They were particularly high in 1998 (177,600) and 1999 (189,900). By contrast, the net gains of British citizens were very small in the years when they occurred and annual net losses of British citizens over the same period were almost all below 36,000 – in 1998, the net gain was tiny and in 1999, there was a net loss of 8,400.

Figure 4.3: International migration 1981-1999; total adjusted net flows by citizenship



Source: IPS

4.2.4 Non-British flows by citizenship

There were important differences in trends and patterns of migration in respect of four different groups of non-British citizens – those from EU countries (including the Irish Republic), those from the Old Commonwealth (Australia, Canada, New Zealand and South Africa), those from the New Commonwealth and those from Other Foreign countries (including Hong Kong). Annual statistics from 1981 to 1999 are given in Table 4.1.

The relative numbers in the inflow of each group underwent remarkable change over the period. In 1981, New Commonwealth and Other Foreign were clearly the dominant groups, whereas in 1999, the dominant group was Other Foreign with the other three having smaller inflows of fairly similar size. In the intervening period, the relative significance of the different groups changed from year to year – for instance, EU citizens were the smallest component of the inflow in 1981 and 1983 but the largest in 1986-9.

For every group, there was a marked increase in numbers entering the UK in the late 'eighties. In the case of the European Union and the Old Commonwealth, there was then a drop after 1990, followed by a resurgence in the late 'nineties. In the case of the New Commonwealth and Other Foreign, there was a drop in inflow in 1991-2 but no dramatic changes until the final years of the decade.

The key feature in the final years was the very big increase in inflows of Other Foreign citizens – from 76,500 in 1997 to 99,900 in 1998 to 142,600 in 1999. There were also significantly greater numbers of Old Commonwealth citizens entering the country at this time, rising from 34,600 in 1997 to 59,900 in 1998, dropping slightly to 57,100 in 1999. The inflow from the New Commonwealth increased between 1998 and 1999, from 52,700 to 66,400. By contrast, the EU inflow reached its highest point in 1998 and then dropped in 1999, from 77,600 to 65,700. As a result of all these changes, the inflow of the Other Foreign group in 1999 was more than twice as large as any of the others.

In the case of outflows, one striking feature was the very small size of the New Commonwealth outflow compared to the other groups, with the two smallest outflow figures recorded in 1998 and 1999. By contrast, the other three groups all recorded high outflow figures in 1999 relative to previous years, the highest on record in the case of EU and Old Commonwealth nationals. In the early 'eighties, Other Foreign citizens were the dominant group in the non-British outflows but this dominance was taken over by the EU, which was clearly and consistently the largest group in the late 'nineties.

The most noticeable aspect of the net flow figures is that there was a net inflow of every group into the UK in every year from 1981 to 1999, apart from two tiny net outflows of European citizens in 1981 and 1991. However, there are clear variations both within and between the different groups. New Commonwealth citizens were the largest component of the net inflow every year but one from 1981 to 1995 until, in 1996-9, Other Foreign citizens became the largest component. Net inflows of Old Commonwealth citizens were relatively small throughout the period until 1998-9. Net inflows from the EU alternated between periods of small and larger flows, with a very sharp drop in 1999.

As already indicated, the adjusted figures include movement between the UK and the Irish Republic. In the late 1980s, the divergence in labour market conditions between the two countries led to high net inflows of population from Ireland to the UK. In the early 'nineties, as the employment situation in the UK deteriorated, inflows and outflows were more-or-less in balance and by the late 'nineties there was a strong net outflow from the UK to the Irish Republic. These movements would have included some British citizens and others, as well as Irish citizens, who are part of the EU total (Sexton, J., Annual SOPEMI Report for Ireland).

Taking the final five years 1995-9 together, it can be seen that the net inflow of Other Foreign citizens greatly exceeded that in any previous period, totalling 308,000, while New Commonwealth citizens totalled 236,000. The net inflow of Old Commonwealth citizens was 107,600, nearly two thirds of them arriving in 1998 and 1999. The net inflow of EU citizens was 106,400, a total that would have been greater without the big drop in numbers in 1999.

4.3 Total movement: unadjusted figures

In the rest of this section and in subsequent chapters, unadjusted data from the IPS are used, which means that the total flow figures are lower than those discussed in section 4.2 above. Adjusted data are not available on more detailed aspects of flow composition.

Table 4.2: Unadjusted Figures, International Migration by Sex, 1975-1999 (Thousands and Per Cent)

Inflows	All Citizenships														
	British							Non British							
	Total	Males	%	Females	%	Total	Males	%	Females	%	Total	Males	%	Females	%
1975	196.9	101.7	51.7	95.1	48.3	85.0	43.3	50.9	41.7	49.1	111.9	58.4	52.2	53.4	47.7
1976	190.6	99.8	52.4	90.8	47.6	86.5	48.1	55.6	38.4	44.4	104.0	51.7	49.7	52.4	50.4
1977	161.9	87.8	54.2	74.1	45.8	72.5	39.0	53.8	33.5	46.2	89.3	48.8	54.6	40.5	45.4
1978	186.5	95.7	51.3	90.9	48.7	73.3	39.5	53.9	33.8	46.1	113.2	56.2	49.6	57.1	50.4
1979	194.8	103.4	53.1	91.3	46.9	78.2	44.6	57.0	33.6	43.0	116.6	58.8	50.4	57.8	49.6
1980	173.4	91.4	52.7	81.9	47.2	66.7	34.5	51.7	32.1	48.1	106.7	56.9	53.3	49.8	46.7
1981	152.8	82.4	53.9	70.4	46.1	60.0	37.8	63.0	22.1	36.8	92.8	44.6	48.1	48.2	51.9
1982	201.0	100.1	49.8	101.0	50.2	97.4	47.3	48.6	50.1	51.4	103.7	52.8	50.9	50.9	49.1
1983	201.6	106.9	53.0	94.7	47.0	95.8	56.0	58.5	39.8	41.5	105.8	50.8	48.0	54.9	51.9
1984	200.9	101.9	50.7	99.0	49.3	95.3	46.2	48.5	49.0	51.4	105.6	55.6	52.7	50.0	47.3
1985	232.1	98.8	42.6	133.3	57.4	109.6	50.1	45.7	59.5	54.3	122.6	48.7	39.7	73.9	60.3
1986	250.3	120.5	48.1	129.8	51.9	120.3	60.7	50.5	59.5	49.5	130.0	59.7	45.9	70.3	54.1
1987	211.4	104.8	49.6	106.6	50.4	98.0	49.3	50.3	48.7	49.7	113.4	55.5	48.9	57.9	51.1
1988	216.0	109.3	50.6	106.7	49.4	89.2	41.0	46.0	48.2	54.0	126.8	68.2	53.8	58.5	46.1
1989	249.8	109.5	43.8	140.2	56.1	104.4	46.1	44.2	58.4	55.9	145.3	63.5	43.7	81.9	56.4
1990	266.8	135.2	50.7	131.6	49.3	105.6	54.2	51.3	51.4	48.7	161.2	81.0	50.2	80.2	49.8
1991	266.5	122.3	45.9	144.2	54.1	116.9	50.8	43.5	66.1	56.5	149.6	71.5	47.8	78.1	52.2
1992	215.9	98.7	45.7	117.2	54.3	99.5	45.7	45.9	53.8	54.1	116.4	53.0	45.5	63.4	54.5
1993	213.4	100.9	47.3	112.5	52.7	91.6	43.3	47.3	48.2	52.6	121.8	57.6	47.3	64.2	52.7
1994	253.2	126.5	50.0	126.8	50.1	117.9	62.3	52.8	55.6	47.2	135.3	64.1	47.4	71.2	52.6
1995	245.5	130.1	53.0	115.4	47.0	91.3	49.7	54.4	41.6	45.6	154.2	80.4	52.1	73.8	47.9
1996	272.2	129.6	47.6	142.6	52.4	103.7	43.6	42.0	60.1	58.0	168.5	86.0	51.0	82.5	49.0
1997	284.6	143.0	50.2	141.6	49.8	96.5	46.7	48.4	49.8	51.6	188.1	96.3	51.2	91.8	48.8
1998	332.4	167.4	50.4	164.9	49.6	111.3	59.5	53.5	51.8	46.5	221.1	108.0	48.8	113.1	51.2
1999	354.1	180.8	51.1	173.2	48.9	115.6	63.0	54.5	52.5	45.4	238.5	117.8	49.4	120.7	50.6

Outflows

	All Citizenships						British			Non British					
	Total	Males	%	Females	%	Total	Males	%	Females	%	Total	Males	%	Females	%
1975	237.8	125.7	52.9	112.1	47.1	168.9	90.7	53.7	78.2	46.3	68.9	35.0	50.8	33.9	49.2
1976	209.9	117.3	55.9	92.6	44.1	136.8	78.3	57.2	58.5	42.8	73.1	38.9	53.2	34.1	46.6
1977	208.2	117.2	56.3	91.0	43.7	143.4	78.5	54.7	64.9	45.3	64.7	38.7	59.8	26.0	40.2
1978	192.0	107.7	56.1	84.3	43.9	126.0	73.3	58.2	52.7	41.8	66.0	34.4	52.1	31.5	47.7
1979	188.5	106.3	56.4	82.3	43.7	125.8	73.4	58.3	52.5	41.7	62.7	32.9	52.5	29.8	47.5
1980	228.4	133.2	58.3	95.1	41.6	149.8	89.0	59.4	60.8	40.6	78.6	44.2	56.2	34.3	43.6
1981	232.3	132.6	57.1	99.6	42.9	163.8	93.5	57.1	70.3	42.9	68.5	39.1	57.1	29.4	42.9
1982	257.3	133.2	51.8	124.1	48.2	185.7	97.2	52.3	88.6	47.7	71.5	36.1	50.5	35.5	49.7
1983	184.2	89.9	48.8	94.4	51.2	121.8	60.3	49.5	61.5	50.5	62.4	29.6	47.4	32.8	52.6
1984	163.5	80.3	49.1	83.2	50.9	102.2	50.6	49.5	51.7	50.6	61.3	29.7	48.5	31.6	51.5
1985	173.7	91.1	52.4	82.6	47.6	108.5	56.7	52.3	51.8	47.7	65.2	34.5	52.9	30.7	47.1
1986	213.1	107.3	50.4	105.8	49.6	131.7	64.8	49.2	66.9	50.8	81.4	42.4	52.1	38.9	47.8
1987	209.1	106.9	51.1	102.2	48.9	129.9	67.6	52.0	62.3	48.0	79.2	39.3	49.6	39.9	50.4
1988	237.2	124.6	52.5	112.6	47.5	143.2	74.5	52.0	68.7	48.0	94.1	50.1	53.2	43.9	46.7
1989	205.4	108.2	52.7	97.2	47.3	122.1	62.2	50.9	59.9	49.1	83.3	46.0	55.2	37.3	44.8
1990	230.8	113.2	49.0	117.6	51.0	135.4	68.9	50.9	66.5	49.1	95.4	44.4	46.5	51.0	53.5
1991	238.9	120.4	50.4	118.6	49.6	136.7	73.1	53.5	63.5	46.5	102.3	47.3	46.2	55.0	53.8
1992	227.0	112.9	49.7	114.1	50.3	133.4	65.1	48.8	68.2	51.1	93.6	47.7	51.0	45.9	49.0
1993	215.9	113.2	52.4	102.7	47.6	126.7	63.6	50.2	63.0	49.7	89.2	49.5	55.5	39.7	44.5
1994	190.8	92.4	48.4	98.4	51.6	108.3	54.8	50.6	53.5	49.4	82.5	37.6	45.6	44.8	54.3
1995	191.6	101.9	53.2	89.7	46.8	118.0	65.1	55.2	53.0	44.9	73.5	36.8	50.1	36.7	49.9
1996	216.1	105.5	48.8	110.7	51.2	139.2	67.0	48.1	72.1	51.8	77.0	38.4	49.9	38.5	50.0
1997	224.5	121.2	54.0	103.3	46.0	130.8	72.6	55.5	58.3	44.6	93.7	48.7	52.0	45.0	48.0
1998	198.9	99.7	50.1	99.2	49.9	111.2	58.5	52.6	52.7	47.4	87.7	41.2	47.0	46.5	53.0
1999	245.3	131.8	53.7	113.5	46.3	114.9	69.8	60.7	45.1	39.3	130.5	62.0	47.5	68.4	52.4

Balance	All Citizenships						British		Non British	
	Total	Males		Females		Total	Males		Females	
		Males	Females	Males	Females		Males	Females	Males	Females
1975	-40.9	-24.0	-17.0	-83.9	-47.4	-36.5	43.0	23.4	19.5	
1976	-19.3	-17.5	-1.8	-50.3	-30.2	-20.1	30.9	12.8	18.3	
1977	-46.3	-29.4	-16.9	-70.9	-39.5	-31.4	24.6	10.1	14.5	
1978	-5.5	-12.0	6.6	-52.7	-33.8	-18.9	47.2	21.8	25.6	
1979	6.3	-2.9	9.0	-47.6	-28.8	-18.9	53.9	25.9	28.0	
1980	-55.0	-41.8	-13.2	-83.1	-54.5	-28.7	28.1	12.7	15.5	
1981	-79.5	-50.2	-29.2	-103.8	-55.7	-48.2	24.3	5.5	18.8	
1982	-56.3	-33.1	-23.1	-88.3	-49.9	-38.5	32.2	16.7	15.4	
1983	17.4	17.0	0.3	-26.0	-4.3	-21.7	43.4	21.2	22.1	
1984	37.4	21.6	15.8	-6.9	-4.4	-2.7	44.3	25.9	18.4	
1985	58.4	7.7	50.7	1.1	-6.6	7.7	57.4	14.2	43.2	
1986	37.2	13.2	24.0	-11.4	-4.1	-7.4	48.6	17.3	31.4	
1987	2.3	-2.1	4.4	-31.9	-18.3	-13.6	34.2	16.2	18.0	
1988	-21.2	-15.3	-5.9	-54.0	-33.5	-20.5	32.7	18.1	14.6	
1989	44.4	1.3	43.0	-17.7	-16.1	-1.5	62.0	17.5	44.6	
1990	36.0	22.0	14.0	-29.8	-14.7	-15.1	65.8	36.6	29.2	
1991	27.6	1.9	25.6	-19.8	-22.3	2.6	47.3	24.2	23.1	
1992	-11.1	-14.2	3.1	-33.9	-19.4	-14.4	22.8	5.3	17.5	
1993	-2.5	-12.3	9.8	-35.1	-20.3	-14.8	32.6	8.1	24.5	
1994	62.4	34.1	28.4	9.6	7.5	2.1	52.8	26.5	26.4	
1995	53.9	28.2	25.7	-26.7	-15.4	-11.4	80.7	43.6	37.1	
1996	56.1	24.1	31.9	-35.5	-23.4	-12.0	91.5	47.6	44.0	
1997	60.1	21.8	38.3	-34.3	-25.9	-8.5	94.4	47.6	46.8	
1998	133.5	67.7	65.7	0.1	1.0	-0.9	133.4	66.8	66.6	
1999	108.8	49.0	59.7	0.7	-6.8	7.4	108.0	55.8	52.3	

Source: IPS

The difference between adjusted and unadjusted figures can be seen by comparing Tables 4.1 and 4.2. The unadjusted total inflow figure in 1999 was 354,000 compared to the adjusted figure of 450,000; the unadjusted outflow figure was 245,000 compared to the adjusted figure of 268,500; and the unadjusted net inflow was 109,000 compared to the adjusted figure of 181,500. It may be concluded that some of the figures used in the following pages will understate the true position rather than exaggerating it. During the 1983-99 period, three annual net losses of population were recorded (in 1988, 1992 and 1993), whereas the adjusted figures show a continuous net gain.

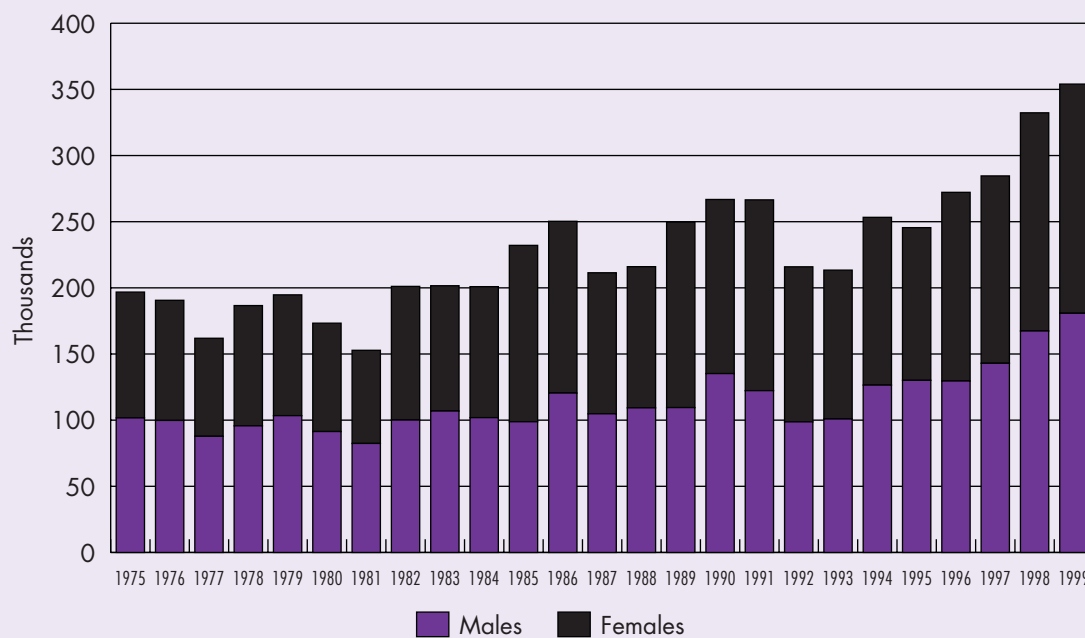
Data presented cover the twenty-five years 1975-99. Some of these data have been aggregated into five-year periods to assist with the analysis of broad patterns and trends of change.

4.3.1 Migration flows by sex and citizenship

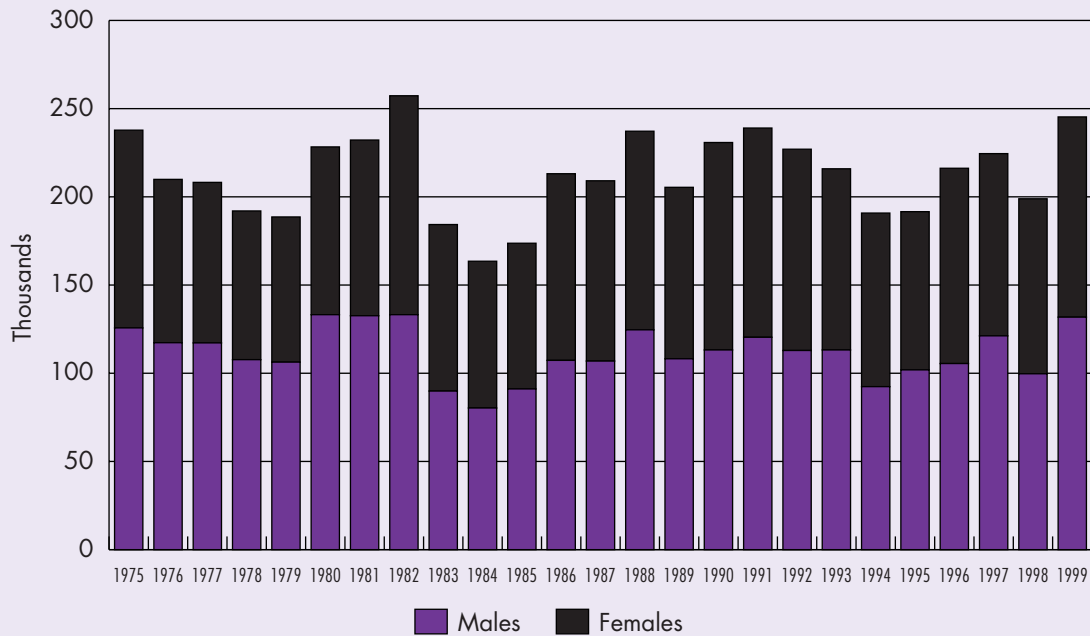
Both inflows and outflows over the period as a whole contained a slightly higher proportion of males than females (see Table 4.2) – the male predominance was more marked in the early years of the period and in the outflow. In 1975, 52 per cent of the inflow and 53 per cent of the outflow were male; in 1999 the relative proportions of males were remarkably similar, accounting for 51 per cent of the inflow and 54 per cent of the outflow. However, there was some greater variation in the intervening years (see Figures 4.4 - 4.6).

When comparing the flows of British and non-British citizens, it is noteworthy that in both groups women became a more significant part of the inflow in the latter half of the period. The outflow pattern was somewhat different, with men predominating in most years among both British and non-British. This was more marked in the case of the British, with nearly 61 per cent of the outflow (the highest recorded percentage) being male in 1999. By contrast, over half of the non-British outflow in 1999 (and in 1998) was female.

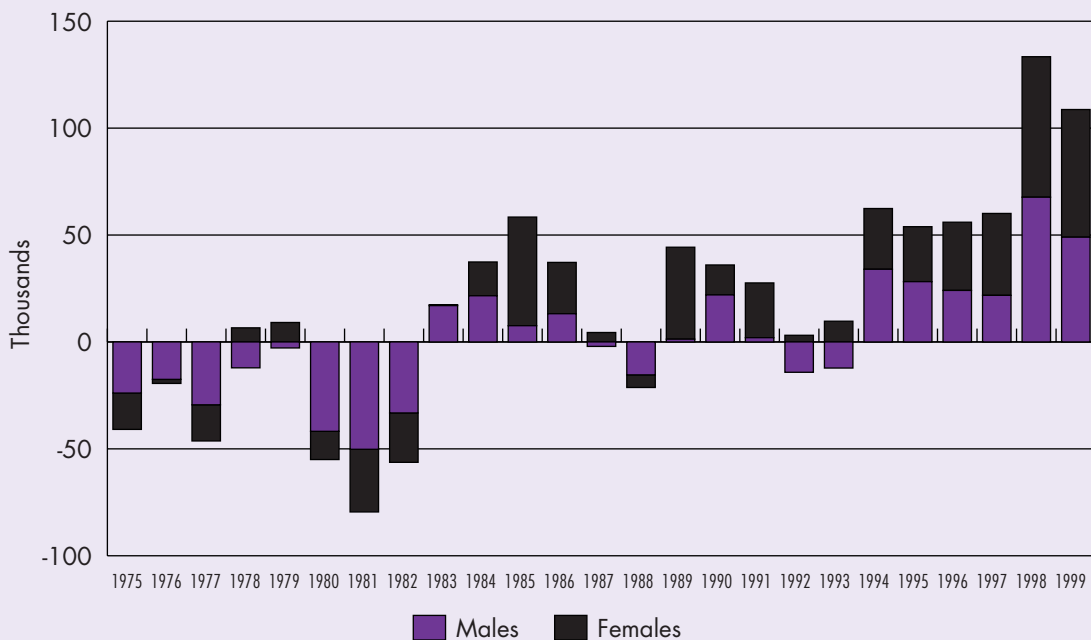
Figure 4.4: Unadjusted total inflows by sex, 1975-1999



Source: IPS

Figure 4.5: Unadjusted total outflows by sex, 1975-1999

Source: IPS

Figure 4.6: Unadjusted Total Net Flows by Sex 1975-1999

Source: IPS

The net results of this pattern of movement produced losses and then gains of both men and women to the UK population. There was a recurrent annual net loss of men during the late 'seventies and early 'eighties (211,000 in aggregate between 1975 and 1982), followed by a period of net inflows and outflows of no great size. However, the highest net inflows of males were towards the end of the period – 1998 and 1999 were the highest annual figures, totalling almost 117,000 for these two years alone.

There was an overall net loss of females, too, in the 1975-82 period, nearly 86,000 in total. Thereafter, there was a fluctuating net inflow of women every year but one right up to the end of the period. This inflow, in aggregate, greatly exceeded the net inflow of men between 1983 and 1999 (nearly 432,000 compared with 258,000 men, or a ratio of 6:4). As in the case of men, the highest net inflows of women were in 1998 and 1999, over 125,000 in total.

Net losses of British males and females were recorded in most years, with male numbers significantly higher overall. Net gains of non-British males and females were recorded every year: in many years, including the whole period 1994-9, the numbers of men and women were closely similar, in others very different.

4.3.2 Migration flows by age and citizenship

Table 4.3 shows inflows, outflows and net flows by age group. The 15-24 year olds were consistently the largest group in the inflow: they comprised around a third of the total in every five-year period, and 36 per cent (their highest proportion) in 1995-9. The 25-34 year olds were the second largest adult group and represented nearly 33 per cent of the inflow (their highest proportion) in 1995-9. Thus, young adults were two-thirds of the total inflow in the most recent five-year period and were the major element in the increase in actual numbers of people entering the country in the late 'nineties. By contrast, the numbers aged under 15 coming into the country were falling in the 1990s and the numbers aged 60/65+ were fairly constant.

See Table 4.3.

The 25-34 year old group was consistently the largest component of the outflow, with the 15-24 group being the second largest. However, the difference between the two was greater than in the inflow. In 1995-9, 15-24 year olds were 27 per cent of the outflow and 25-34 year olds were 37 per cent. The outflows of those aged under 15 and 60/65+ both fell in real and percentage terms in the 1990s.

The overall result of these movements was an aggregate net inflow of more than half a million 15-24 year olds during the twenty-five year period, over a quarter of a million of them arriving between 1995 and 1999. There were net losses of population from the UK in the other age groups in the earlier part of the period but net gains were experienced in the late 'nineties by every group except those aged 60/65 and over: +95,000 aged 25-34, +34,000 aged 35-44 and + 39,000 children aged under 15.

Even among those aged 60/65+, the net outflow had dwindled to a thousand by 1995-9, following a process of steady decline from the early 'eighties. Given the fact that some UK residents go abroad to live on retirement (both those born in the UK who have bought a retirement home and others returning to country of origin), this trend is interesting – the product of fairly stable levels of inflow but diminishing outflow.

A comparison of the patterns of movement of British and non-British citizens reveals some striking differences in age profiles. In the inflows, the proportion aged 25-34 was similar for both British and non-British, about a third in 1995-9, but the proportion of 15-24 year olds was twice as high among the non-British – 45 per cent compared to 20 per cent in the final period. The proportion of British citizens in the 35+ age groups was commensurately higher than in the case of non-British.

In respect of children under 15, there were some interesting differences and similarities between the British and non-British inflows. Children were a larger proportion of the British than of the non-British inflow throughout, but the trend in both inflows was the same: that is to say, the highest proportion of children in the

Table 4.3: International migration 1975-1999, five-year groups; flows by citizenship and age (thousands)

	Inflows					Outflows					Balance										
	Total	<15	15-24	25-34	35-44	45-60	60/65+	Total	<15	15-24	25-34	35-44	45-60	60/65+	Total	<15	15-24	25-34	35-44	45-60	60/65+
All Citizenships																					
1975-79	930.8	166.5	312.4	261.2	106.0	61.4	23.3	1036.4	182.0	267.9	353.0	131.0	73.9	28.6	-105.6	-15.5	44.5	-91.8	-25.0	-12.5	-5.3
1980-84	929.6	206.6	276.2	251.9	115.4	61.6	17.9	1065.6	217.4	241.6	344.5	145.9	80.8	35.4	-136.0	-10.9	34.7	-92.6	-30.5	-19.2	-17.5
1985-89	1159.5	214.2	356.6	303.9	168.6	88.4	27.8	1038.6	182.2	258.4	322.7	135.6	95.3	44.4	120.9	32.0	98.2	-18.8	33.0	-6.9	-16.6
1990-94	1215.8	191.7	383.2	367.9	155.3	93.2	24.5	1103.3	173.4	281.6	373.7	154.4	89.3	30.9	112.4	18.3	101.6	-5.8	0.9	3.8	-6.4
1995-99	1501.7	166.7	545.8	489.3	180.1	94.4	25.4	1067.2	128.2	282.8	394.8	146.6	88.3	26.5	434.5	38.5	263.0	94.5	33.5	6.1	-1.1
Total	5737.4	945.7	1874.2	1674.2	725.4	399.0	118.9	5311.1	883.2	1332.3	1788.7	713.5	427.6	165.8	426.2	62.4	542.0	-114.5	11.9	-28.7	-46.9
British																					
1975-79	395.7	83.0	82.5	115.4	58.0	42.1	14.7	701.0	134.0	168.3	225.6	93.9	56.5	22.7	-305.3	-51.0	-85.8	-110.2	-35.9	-14.4	-8.0
1980-84	415.2	98.1	84.9	112.8	68.3	39.5	11.6	723.3	157.1	145.6	221.6	106.5	62.7	29.8	-308.2	-58.9	-60.8	-108.8	-38.3	-23.2	-18.2
1985-89	521.5	105.8	113.5	130.0	91.6	60.1	20.5	635.5	111.8	155.4	183.9	81.5	69.2	33.7	-114.0	-6.0	-41.9	-53.9	10.0	-9.1	-13.1
1990-94	531.4	96.4	118.1	156.1	78.4	65.3	17.1	640.3	105.7	151.3	205.9	88.8	63.7	24.9	-109.0	-9.4	-33.1	-49.9	-10.4	1.6	-7.8
1995-99	525.8	81.0	107.0	169.9	86.7	60.2	21.0	610.6	83.1	133.7	213.1	98.0	62.1	20.6	-84.9	-2.0	-26.8	-43.2	-11.4	-1.9	0.4
Total	2389.6	464.3	506.0	684.2	383.0	267.2	84.9	3310.7	591.7	754.3	1050.1	468.7	314.2	131.7	-921.4	-127.3	-248.4	-366.0	-86.0	-47.0	-46.7
Non-British																					
1975-79	535.1	83.5	229.9	145.8	48.0	19.3	8.6	335.4	48.0	99.6	127.4	37.1	17.4	5.9	199.7	35.5	130.3	18.4	10.9	1.9	2.7
1980-84	514.4	108.5	191.3	139.1	47.1	22.1	6.3	342.3	60.3	96.0	122.9	39.4	18.1	5.6	172.2	48.0	95.5	16.2	7.8	4.0	0.7
1985-89	638.0	108.4	243.1	173.9	77.0	28.3	7.3	403.1	70.4	103.0	138.8	54.1	26.1	10.7	234.9	38.0	140.1	35.1	23.0	2.2	-3.5
1990-94	684.4	95.3	265.1	211.8	76.9	27.9	7.4	463.0	67.7	130.3	167.8	65.6	25.6	6.0	221.4	27.7	134.7	44.1	11.3	2.2	1.4
1995-99	975.9	85.7	438.8	319.4	93.4	34.2	4.4	456.6	45.1	149.1	181.7	48.6	26.2	5.9	519.4	40.5	289.8	137.7	44.9	8.0	-1.5
Total	3347.8	481.4	1368.2	990.0	342.4	131.8	34.0	2000.4	291.5	578.0	738.6	244.8	113.4	34.1	1347.6	189.7	790.4	251.5	97.9	18.3	-0.2

Source: IPS (Unadjusted Figures)

inflow of both groups was in 1980-4, followed by a steady decline to the lowest recorded proportion in 1995-9 (15% in the case of the British and 9% in the case of the non-British). In terms of actual numbers, the British and non-British inflows of children were remarkably similar.

In the oldest age-group, those aged 60/65+ were also a larger proportion of the British than the non-British inflow throughout, with the British inflow somewhat bigger and the non-British inflow slightly smaller in real terms at the end of the period than at the beginning. The actual numbers of non-British in this age group entering the UK were extremely small – less than a third of the British.

Looking at the outflows of British and non-British adults, it can be seen that 25-34 year olds were the largest component and 15-24 year olds the second largest component of both. However, the non-British were still skewed more to the younger end of the working-age spectrum: in 1995-9, these two age groups (15-24 and 25-34) were 57 per cent of the British outflow but 73 per cent of the non-British.

In respect of the outflow of children under 15, the overall picture largely reflected that of the inflow. Children were a larger proportion of the British than the non-British outflow but in both groups the highest proportion was in the 'eighties, declining thereafter to the lowest recorded proportion in 1995-9 (14% of the British and 10% of the non-British). However, in terms of actual numbers, the British outflow was twice the size of the non-British.

In the case of the oldest age-group, the trend of change was different from that of the inflow. Both British and non-British outflows of population age 60/65+ declined in absolute and percentage terms from a peak in 1985-9. The non-British outflow was very small – a quarter of the British numbers in the 1990s.

As a result of these movements into and out of the country, there was a net loss of British citizens in every age group in almost every period, with the largest losses in the 25-34 age group (-366,000) and the 15-24 age group (-248,000) during the period as a whole. In contrast, there was a net gain of non-British citizens in every age-group in almost every period, with by far the largest net inflow (in aggregate over 790,000) aged 15-24.

These figures have significant labour market implications. The 15-24 age group is most likely to contain students, working holiday-makers and young workers, both qualified and unqualified. The 25-34 age group will include people with qualifications and expertise established in a career. In addition, the two groups together are in the phase of life when family formation and expansion most often take place: thus, they are potential contributors to the next generation of the labour force.

The immediate net gain of children to the UK population through migration also represents a future contribution to the workforce. From 1985-99, the net inflow of children under 15 amounted to nearly 89,000, after a decade of net loss.

Table 4.4 shows the inflows and outflows of population in the final five year period 1995-99 in relation to age and a more detailed breakdown of citizenship. There are some interesting differences between groups. It should be noted that certain age categories are different from those given above.

Table 4.4: Unadjusted figures - IPS international migration: citizenship and age 1995-1999 (thousands)

	Inflows		Outflows		Balance thousands
	thousands	per cent	thousands	per cent	
British					
Under 15	80.3	15.5	83.6	13.6	-3.3
15-24	104.4	20.1	135.4	22.0	-31.0
25-44	254.2	49.0	313.2	51.0	-59
45-59/64	58.4	11.3	61.3	10.0	-2.8
60/65 and over	21.0	4.1	20.6	3.4	0.4
Total	518.3	100.0	614.1	100.0	95.8
European Union					
Under 15	16.7	5.9	6.5	4.4	10.1
15-24	148.0	52.0	53.5	35.9	94.4
25-44	112.7	39.6	78.5	52.7	34.2
45-59/64	6.7	2.4	8.1	5.4	-1.4
60/65 and over	0.3	0.1	2.3	1.5	-2
Total	284.4	100.0	148.9	100.0	135.3
Old Commonwealth					
Under 15	12.8	6.3	6.5	6.6	6.3
15-24	79.7	39.3	31.5	32.2	48.3
25-44	100.2	49.5	52.9	54.1	47.3
45-59/64	9.1	4.5	5.7	5.8	3.4
60/65 and over	0.8	0.4	1.2	1.2	-0.4
Total	202.6	100.0	97.8	100.0	104.9
New Commonwealth					
Under 15	19.6	10.2	9.8	17.3	9.8
15-24	97.7	51.0	18.5	32.6	79.2
25-44	66.2	34.6	24	42.3	42.2
45-59/64	5.6	2.9	2.8	4.9	2.8
60/65 and over	2.4	1.3	1.6	2.8	0.7
Total	191.5	100.0	56.7	100.0	134.7
Other Foreign					
Under 15	36.5	12.5	23	14.5	13.6
15-24	111.8	38.3	48.5	30.5	63.3
25-44	131.1	44.9	76.2	47.9	55
45-59/64	11.3	3.9	10.5	6.6	0.8
60/65 and over	1	0.3	0.8	0.5	0.2
Total	291.7	100.0	159.0	100.0	132.9

Age groups: 45-59/64 – 45-59 for females, 45-64 for males.
60/65 and over – 60 years and over for females, 65 years and over for males.

Source: IPS

Looking at inflows first, it can be seen that the British were markedly different from any other group in having a much lower proportion aged 15-24 and a much higher proportion aged 45 and above. The EU and the New Commonwealth inflows contained the highest proportions of young adults aged 15-24 – around half of the total in each case. The largest group in the British, Old Commonwealth and Other Foreign inflows was the 25-44 age group, approaching a half of each. The British inflow contained the highest proportion of children under 15, followed by Other Foreign and the New Commonwealth. Children under 15 were a very small component of the EU and Old Commonwealth inflows.

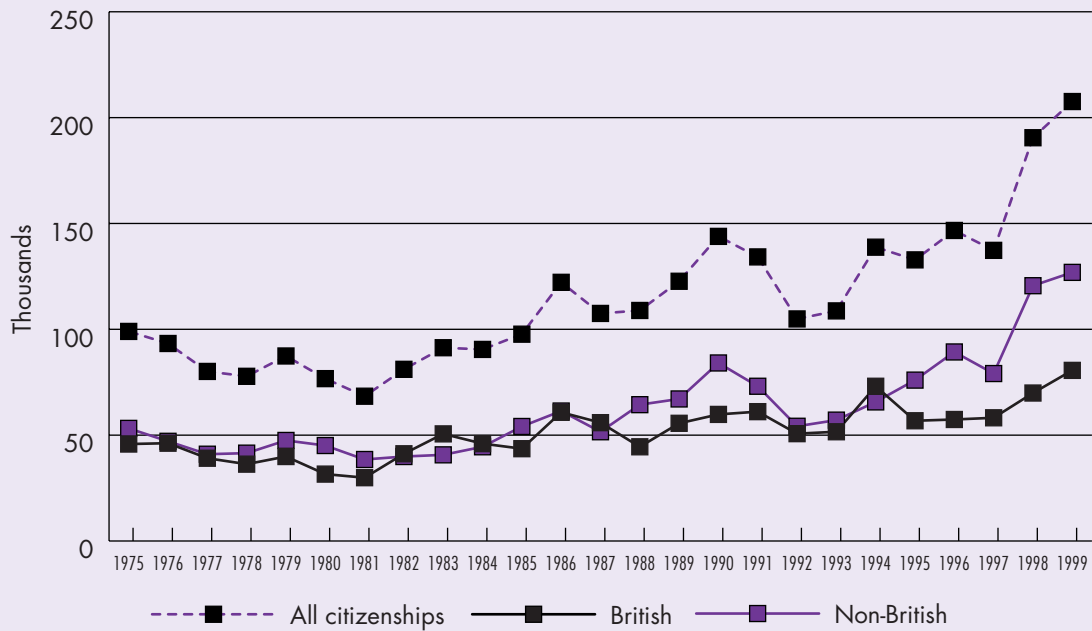
In respect of outflows, the age distribution of the British was closely similar to that for inflows. However, the pattern of outflow was significantly different from the inflow for some of the non-British groups. In every case the largest proportion of the outflow was in the 25-44 age range, with the EU in particular having an outflow much more heavily weighted than the inflow towards those aged 25 and over. Children under 15 appeared to be a slightly higher proportion of New Commonwealth and Other Foreign outflows than of inflows.

To some extent, the differences in age profile of inflows and outflows may reflect the fact that some young people who are under twenty-five when they arrive in the UK return to their country of origin (or move on elsewhere) a few years later; and that those coming to the UK for limited periods to do senior and highly skilled jobs are likely to be in the 25+ age group.

4.4 Usual occupation

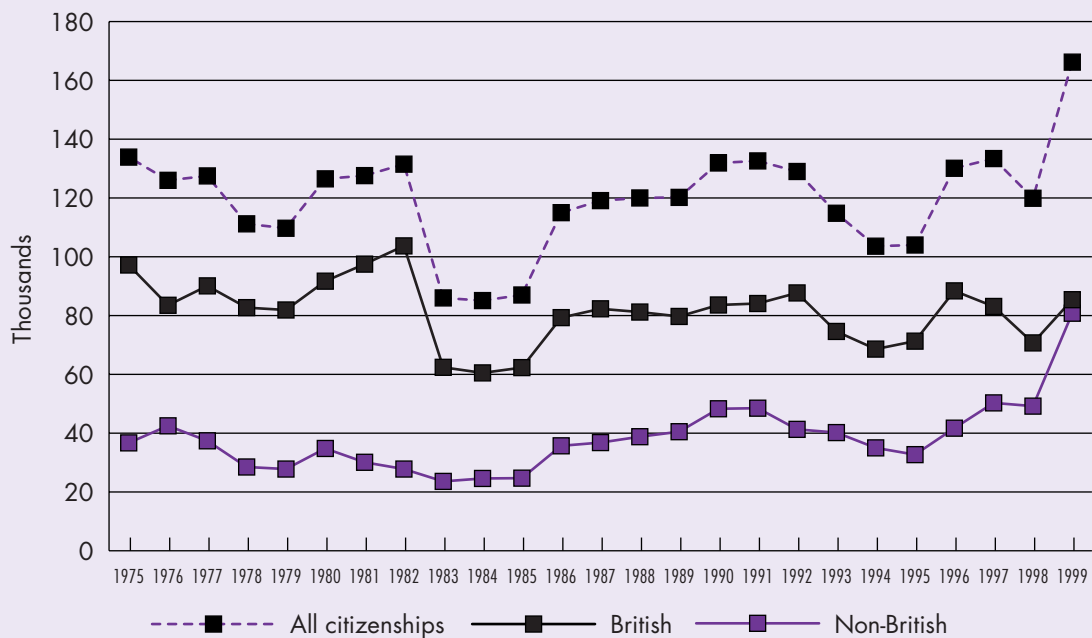
'Usual occupation', as recorded in the IPS, refers to the regular occupation of an individual prior to migration. The two occupational categories used for those who were in employment before migrating are: Professional and Managerial (administrators, managers and people with professional and technological qualifications) and Manual and Clerical for those in all other occupations. Migrants who were not employed prior to migration are classified into four groups which we have termed 'non-active': children (for these purposes, those aged under 16), students, housewives and other adults (includes retired people and people with no paid occupation). In considering the following analysis, it is important to remember that the regular occupation of migrants before they leave a country is not necessarily the occupation they take up at their destination.

Figure 4.7: Total inflows of employed migrants by citizenship, 1975-1999



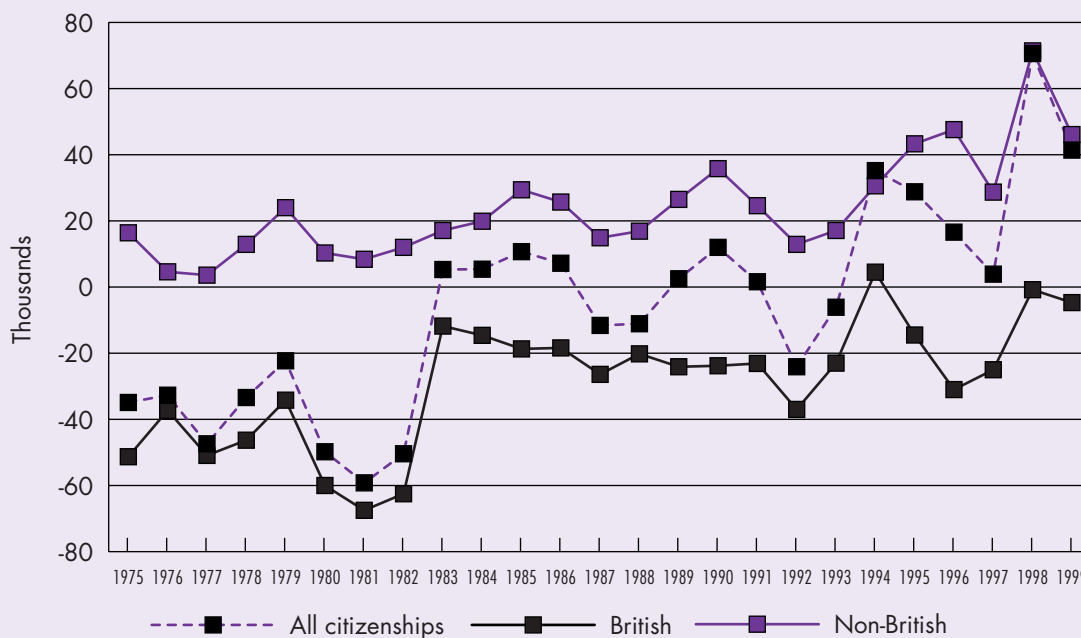
Source: IPS

Figure 4.8: Total outflows of employed migrants by citizenship, 1975-1999



Source: IPS

Figure 4.9: Total net flows of employed migrants by citizenship, 1975-1999



Source: IPS

This section focuses mainly on those in 'non-active' occupations. The analysis is presented in five parts. The first looks briefly at flows of employed persons and compares the size of total flows of employed with those of non-active persons into and out of the UK. This is followed by an examination of the relative importance of each of the non-active categories and the trends and changes in inflows, outflows and net flows of all citizenships, British and non-British. The final part looks at the relative proportions of men and women amongst non-active migrants and changes that have taken place over the twenty-five year period. A detailed analysis of data on employed migrants follows in Chapters 6 to 9.

4.4.1 Total employed and total non-active

Figures 4.7, 4.8 and 4.9 show migration trends for employed people by citizenship over the twenty-five year period and Table 4.5 presents figures on total inflows, outflows and net flows aggregated into five-year periods. Large net outflows of employed migrants in the late 'seventies and early 'eighties fell to a very small net outflow in 1985-9, a net inflow in 1990-4 and a large net inflow in 1995-9. Both total inflows and total outflows reached their highest level in the final period.

Table 4.5: Unadjusted figures - international migration of the employed population by sex 1975-1999 in five-year groups

Total Employed (Thousands)

	Inflows			Outflows			Balance		
	Total	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females
1975-1979	437.6	279.4	158.1	608.3	407.6	200.6	-170.7	-128.1	-42.5
1980-1984	408.0	265.9	142.1	556.7	362.0	194.4	-148.7	-96.1	-52.3
1985-1989	559.0	328.3	230.8	561.3	329.7	231.5	-2.3	-1.4	-0.7
1990-1994	630.5	355.8	274.4	611.9	339.9	272.2	18.6	15.9	2.2
1995-1999	814.9	460.4	354.4	653.6	378.1	275.9	161.3	82.3	78.4
Total	2850.0	1689.8	1159.8	2991.8	1817.3	1174.6	-141.8	-127.4	-14.9

Source: IPS

Table 4.6 shows the annual inflows and outflows of the employed and the non-active over the twenty-five year period. Up to the mid-eighties, inflows of the non-active were slightly larger than those of employed people. From the late 'eighties, the opposite was true in most years. Outflows of employed people have been greater throughout than those of the non-active, accounting on average for 60 per cent of the total. In 1999, 68 per cent of those leaving the country were in employment prior to migration. Employed persons were consistently a higher proportion of emigrants than of immigrants in the 1990s.

Figures 4.10 – 4.13 illustrate the proportions of total flows (British and non-British) accounted for by non-active and employed persons 1975-1999. In general a higher proportion of British inflows was employed rather than non-active, except in the early 'eighties. In the late 1990s, employed people accounted for around 60 per cent of the inflows, peaking at 70 per cent in 1999. In the case of the outflows, the employed accounted for over 60 per cent of British migrants in nearly all the years studied and in 1999, they were 74 per cent of the total. The highest proportion of non-active persons in the British outflow was in 1983, when they were nearly a half.

See Table 4.6

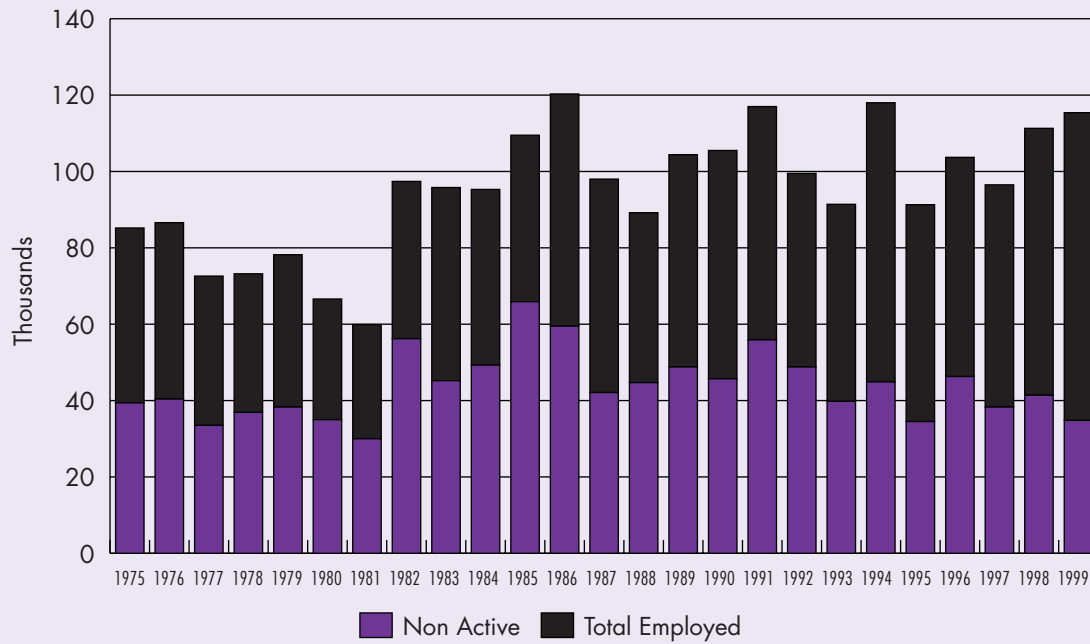
Table 4.6: Unadjusted figures - IPS international migration: total employed & total non-active by citizenship 1975-1999

	Total employed (thousands)			Total non-active (thousands)		
	Inflows	Outflows	Balance	Inflows	Outflows	Balance
All Citizenships						
1975	99.0	133.9	-34.9	98.1	104.4	-6.3
1976	93.3	126	-32.7	97.4	83.9	13.5
1977	80.1	127.5	-47.4	81.7	80.6	1.1
1978	77.8	111.2	-33.4	108.7	80.8	27.9
1979	87.4	109.7	-22.3	107.3	78.9	28.4
1980	76.7	126.5	-49.8	96.6	101.8	-5.3
1981	68.4	127.6	-59.2	84.3	104.7	-20.3
1982	81.1	131.5	-50.4	119.9	125.9	-5.8
1983	91.3	86	5.3	110.3	98.2	11.9
1984	90.5	85.1	5.4	110.3	78.4	32.0
1985	97.7	87	10.7	134.4	86.8	47.7
1986	122.2	115	7.2	128.0	98	30.0
1987	107.5	119.1	-11.6	103.8	90.1	13.8
1988	108.9	120	-11.1	107.1	117.2	-10.2
1989	122.7	120.2	2.5	127.1	85.2	42.0
1990	143.9	131.9	12.0	122.7	98.8	23.8
1991	134.2	132.6	1.6	132.4	106.3	26.1
1992	104.9	129	-24.1	111.0	98	13.1
1993	108.7	114.8	-6.1	104.5	101.1	3.4
1994	138.8	103.6	35.2	114.5	87.2	27.3
1995	132.8	104	28.8	112.7	87.7	25.0
1996	146.7	130.1	16.6	125.4	86	39.4
1997	137.3	133.4	3.9	147.3	91.2	56.2
1998	190.5	119.9	70.6	141.8	79	62.8
1999	207.6	166.2	41.4	146.5	79.1	67.4
Total	2850.0	2991.8	-141.8	2873.8	2329.3	544.9
British						
1975	45.8	97.2	-51.3	39.4	72.1	-32.8
1976	46.2	83.5	-37.3	40.4	53.4	-13.0
1977	39.1	90.1	-50.9	33.5	53.4	-19.8
1978	36.3	82.7	-46.3	36.9	43.3	-6.3
1979	39.9	81.9	-34.2	38.3	44.0	-5.7
1980	31.6	91.7	-60.0	35.0	58.2	-23.1
1981	29.9	97.5	-67.5	30.0	66.3	-36.2
1982	41.2	103.7	-62.5	56.2	82.1	-26.0
1983	50.6	62.4	-11.8	45.2	59.3	-14.1
1984	46.0	60.5	-14.6	49.3	41.7	7.6
1985	43.6	62.3	-18.7	65.9	46.2	19.7
1986	60.8	79.3	-18.4	59.5	52.5	7.0

1987	55.9	82.3	-26.4	42.1	47.5	-5.5
1988	44.5	81.2	-20.2	44.7	62.1	-17.4
1989	55.6	79.7	-24.1	48.8	42.5	6.5
1990	59.8	83.6	-23.8	45.7	51.8	-6.0
1991	61.1	84.1	-23.1	55.9	52.5	3.3
1992	50.7	87.7	-37.0	48.8	45.7	3.1
1993	51.6	74.6	-23.0	39.8	52.1	-12.1
1994	73.1	68.6	4.5	44.9	39.8	5.1
1995	56.8	71.3	-14.5	34.5	46.8	-12.3
1996	57.4	88.4	-31.0	46.3	50.8	-4.4
1997	58.2	83.1	-25.0	38.3	47.8	-9.5
1998	69.9	70.7	-0.8	41.4	40.6	0.8
1999	80.6	85.4	-4.7	34.8	29.4	5.4
Total	1286.2	2033.5	-722.6	1095.6	1281.9	-185.7
Non-British						
1975	53.2	36.7	16.4	58.7	32.3	26.5
1976	47.1	42.5	4.6	57.0	30.5	26.4
1977	41.0	37.4	3.6	48.3	27.3	21.1
1978	41.5	28.5	12.9	71.8	37.4	34.3
1979	47.5	27.8	24.0	69.0	37.4	34.1
1980	45.1	34.8	10.3	61.6	43.7	17.8
1981	38.5	30.1	8.4	54.3	38.3	15.9
1982	39.9	27.8	12.0	63.9	43.7	20.1
1983	40.7	23.6	17.1	65.1	38.8	26.1
1984	44.5	24.6	19.9	61.0	36.5	24.6
1985	54.1	24.7	29.4	68.5	40.6	28.0
1986	61.4	35.7	25.7	68.6	45.7	22.9
1987	51.6	36.8	14.9	61.9	42.5	19.3
1988	64.4	38.8	16.9	62.4	55.2	7.2
1989	67.1	40.5	26.5	78.3	42.7	35.5
1990	84.1	48.3	35.8	77.1	47.1	30.0
1991	73.1	48.5	24.6	76.6	53.8	22.8
1992	54.2	41.3	12.9	62.2	52.3	10.0
1993	57.1	40.2	17.1	64.7	49.1	15.6
1994	65.7	35.0	30.6	69.6	47.5	22.1
1995	76.0	32.7	43.3	78.2	40.9	37.4
1996	89.3	41.7	47.6	79.2	35.3	43.9
1997	79.1	50.3	28.7	109.0	43.3	65.6
1998	120.6	49.2	71.4	100.4	38.4	61.9
1999	126.9	80.8	46.1	111.5	49.6	61.9
Total	1563.7	958.3	600.7	1720.2	1017.6	704.5

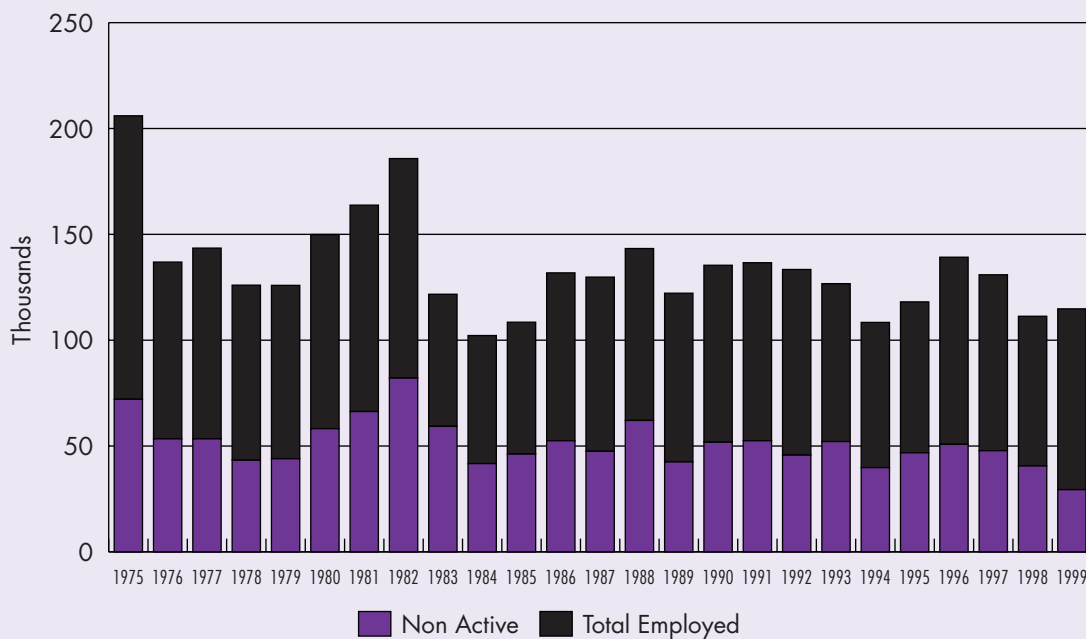
Source: IPS

Figure 4.10: Inflows of British non-active and employed migrants, 1975-1999



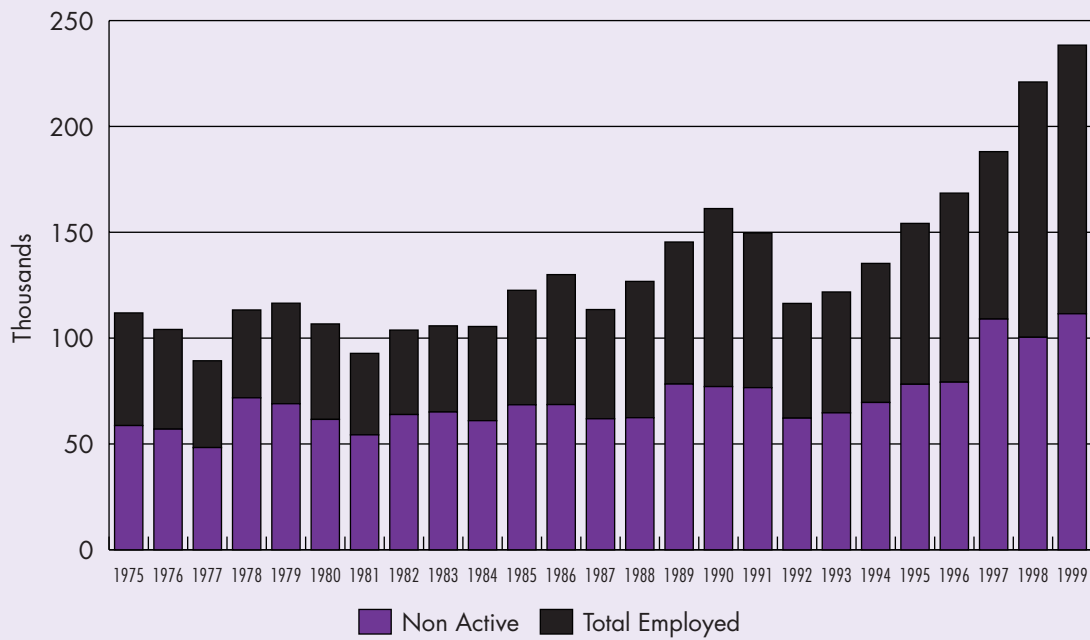
Source: IPS

Figure 4.11: Outflows of British non-active and employed migrants, 1975-1999



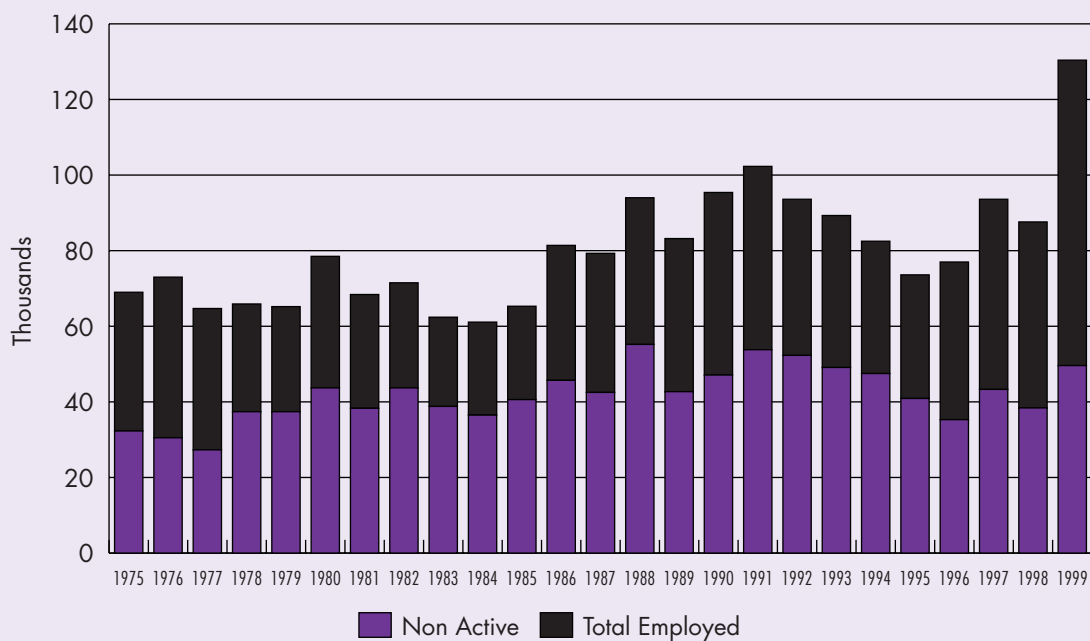
Source: IPS

Figure 4.12: Inflows of non-British employed and non-active migrants, 1975-1999



Source: IPS

Figure 4.13: Outflows of non-British employed and non-active migrants, 1975-1999



Source: IPS

The pattern of inflow and outflow of non-British citizens differed from the above. On average, a higher proportion of the non-British inflows was non-active rather than employed. The largest non-active proportion was recorded in 1981, constituting 59 per cent of the total. In respect of outflows, the proportion of non-British citizens who were employed or non-active fluctuated across the period. Towards the end, a slightly higher proportion were employed persons and in 1999, 62 per cent of non-British emigrants were employed.

The proportions of employed in the different flows will in part reflect employment opportunities prior to migration, as well as factors such as age composition and the extent to which children and students are represented among different migrant groups.

4.4.2 Total flows of non-active persons

Total inflows of non-active persons increased steadily over the twenty-five years, with the exception of the small decline in 1990-94 (see Table 4.7). Between the start and end of the period, their numbers increased by 37 per cent, from 493,200 in 1975-9 to 673,700 in 1995-9. The annual average inflow was 15 per cent higher in the late 1990s compared to the previous five years (134,700 in 1995-9 compared to 117,000 in 1990-4). Total outflows of non-active persons from all citizenships have fluctuated. Having increased to a peak of 509,000 in 1980-84, the outflow dropped to 423,000 in the 1995-9 period.

Overall, in each of the five-year periods there was a net gain of non-active migrants in the UK, although the size of the net flows varied. Net gains of non-active people were smallest in the early 1980s, with a positive balance of only 12,500. The largest net gains occurred in 1995-9, when there was a net inflow of 250,800 non-active persons, a 167 per cent increase on the 1990-4 figure of 93,700.

Inflows of British non-active persons increased from 188,500 between 1975-9 to a peak of 261,000 in 1985-9 before declining to 195,300 in 1995-9. Outflows of British non-active persons were greatest between 1980-4 (307,600) but declined from the late 1980s to 215,400. The only period during which there was a net gain of non-active British citizens was 1985-9; in every other period there was a loss. Net losses were greatest in 1975-9 (77,600) and 1980-4 (91,800).

Non-British inflows of non-active persons were significantly higher than British ones, particularly in the 1990s. Inflows increased by 56 per cent over the 25 years, from 304,800 in 1975-9 to 478,300 in 1995-9. The rate of increase accelerated in the late 'nineties and the latter figure was a 36 per cent increase on the previous five-year period. Outflows of non-British non-active persons also increased but at a slower rate and subsequently declined, falling from a peak of 249,800 in 1990-4 to 207,500 in 1995-9.

The combination of large inflows and smaller outflows meant that in all the five-year periods there were net gains of over 100,000 non-British non-active persons, increasing dramatically in the final period to 207,500, a 169 per cent increase on the net inflow in the previous five years (100,500).

4.4.3 Relative proportions of non-active groups

The numbers and relative proportions of each of the non-active categories in the total inflows and outflows of non-active migrants are shown in Tables 4.7 and 4.8. These tables reveal that over the period as a whole, the dominant flows of those in non-active occupations comprised students and children. Between 1975 and 1989 children constituted the highest percentage of the inflow, reaching a peak of 41 per cent between 1980 and 1984. Over the same period they were approximately 40 per cent of the total outflow. It should be remembered that 'children' in this table are under 16 years of age, not under 15 as in Table 4.3.

Table 4.7: Unadjusted Figures; IPS International Migration - Non Active Flows by occupation and citizenship; 1975-1999 five year groups (Thousands)

Total Non Active

	All Citizenships			British			Non British		
	Inflows	Outflows	Balance	Inflows	Outflows	Balance	Inflows	Outflows	Balance
1975-79	493.2	428.6	64.6	188.5	266.2	-77.6	304.8	164.9	142.4
1980-84	521.4	509.0	12.5	215.7	307.6	-91.8	305.9	201.0	104.5
1985-89	600.4	477.3	123.3	261.0	250.8	10.3	339.7	226.7	112.9
1990-94	585.1	491.4	93.7	235.1	241.9	-6.6	350.2	249.8	100.5
1995-99	673.7	423.0	250.8	195.3	215.4	-20.0	478.3	207.5	270.7
Total	2873.8	2329.3	544.9	1095.6	1281.9	-185.7	1778.9	1049.9	731.0

Students

	All Citizenships			British			Non British		
	Inflows	Outflows	Balance	Inflows	Outflows	Balance	Inflows	Outflows	Balance
1975-79	153.4	81.7	71.6	30.5	30.8	-0.1	122.8	52.2	71.9
1980-84	138.5	125.0	13.5	35.3	35.7	-0.3	103.3	89.3	14.0
1985-89	190.5	148.5	42.0	51.6	51.1	0.6	139.0	97.5	41.4
1990-94	224.8	197.4	27.4	55.9	61.5	-5.5	169.0	136.2	33.0
1995-99	359.0	193.6	165.4	44.7	64.2	-19.6	314.3	129.3	184.9
Total	1066.2	746.2	319.9	218.0	243.3	-24.9	848.4	504.5	345.2

Housewives

	All Citizenships			British			Non British		
	Inflows	Outflows	Balance	Inflows	Outflows	Balance	Inflows	Outflows	Balance
1975-79	119.3	111.3	8.1	52.6	74.4	-21.7	66.9	38.6	29.8
1980-84	138.6	129.0	9.5	62.7	90.8	-27.9	75.8	38.2	37.6
1985-89	151.0	89.7	61.6	77.5	50.5	27.0	73.8	39.1	34.6
1990-94	127.0	80.8	46.2	62.9	47.0	16.0	64.1	34.0	30.1
1995-99	90.5	66.9	23.7	39.0	40.8	-1.6	51.5	26.1	25.4
Total	626.4	477.7	149.1	294.7	303.5	-8.2	332.1	176.0	157.5

Other Adults

	All Citizenships			British			Non British		
	Inflows	Outflows	Balance	Inflows	Outflows	Balance	Inflows	Outflows	Balance
1975-79	44.1	45.8	-1.7	18.1	21.8	-3.8	25.8	25.1	2.0
1980-84	28.4	32.0	-3.4	14.4	20.9	-6.6	14.1	10.8	3.0
1985-89	32.5	50.9	-18.5	20.6	34.9	-14.3	11.9	16.1	-4.2
1990-94	34.3	32.3	2.0	17.4	22.7	-5.3	17.0	9.6	7.3
1995-99	47.6	23.9	23.8	27.0	18.3	8.6	20.7	5.6	15.1
Total	186.9	184.9	2.2	97.5	118.6	-21.4	89.5	67.2	23.2

Children

	All Citizenships			British			Non British		
	Inflows	Outflows	Balance	Inflows	Outflows	Balance	Inflows	Outflows	Balance
1975-79	176.4	189.8	-13.4	87.3	139.2	-52.0	89.3	49.0	38.7
1980-84	215.9	223.0	-7.1	103.3	160.2	-57.0	112.7	62.7	49.9
1985-89	226.4	188.2	38.2	111.3	114.3	-3.0	115.0	74.0	41.1
1990-94	199.0	180.9	18.1	98.9	110.7	-11.8	100.1	70.0	30.1
1995-99	176.6	138.6	37.9	84.6	92.1	-7.4	91.8	46.5	45.3
Total	994.3	920.5	73.7	485.4	616.5	-131.2	508.9	302.2	205.1

Source: IPS

Table 4.8: Unadjusted figures; IPS – relative proportions of total non-active flows by occupation and citizenship; 1975-1999 five-year groups (percentages)

Students						
	All Citizenships		British		Non British	
	Inflows	Outflows	Inflows	Outflows	Inflows	Outflows
1975-79	31.1	19.1	6.2	7.2	24.9	12.2
1980-84	26.6	24.6	6.8	7.0	19.8	17.5
1985-89	31.7	31.1	8.6	10.7	23.2	20.4
1990-94	38.4	40.2	9.6	12.5	28.9	27.7
1995-99	53.3	45.8	6.6	15.2	46.7	30.6
Total	37.1	32.0	7.6	10.4	29.5	21.7
Housewives						
	All Citizenships		British		Non British	
	Inflows	Outflows	Inflows	Outflows	Inflows	Outflows
1975-79	24.2	26.0	10.7	17.4	13.6	9.0
1980-84	26.6	25.3	12.0	17.8	14.5	7.5
1985-89	25.1	18.8	12.9	10.6	12.3	8.2
1990-94	21.7	16.4	10.8	9.6	11.0	6.9
1995-99	13.4	15.8	5.8	9.6	7.6	6.2
Total	21.8	20.5	10.3	13.0	11.6	7.6
Other Adults						
	All Citizenships		British		Non British	
	Inflows	Outflows	Inflows	Outflows	Inflows	Outflows
1975-79	8.9	10.7	3.7	5.1	5.2	5.9
1980-84	5.4	6.3	2.8	4.1	2.7	2.1
1985-89	5.4	10.7	3.4	7.3	2.0	3.4
1990-94	5.9	6.6	3.0	4.6	2.9	2.0
1995-99	7.1	5.7	4.0	4.3	3.1	1.3
Total	6.5	7.9	3.4	5.1	3.1	2.9
Children						
	All Citizenships		British		Non British	
	Inflows	Outflows	Inflows	Outflows	Inflows	Outflows
1975-79	35.8	44.3	17.7	32.5	18.1	11.4
1980-84	41.4	43.8	19.8	31.5	21.6	12.3
1985-89	37.7	39.4	18.5	23.9	19.2	15.5
1990-94	34.0	36.8	16.9	22.5	17.1	14.2
1995-99	26.2	32.8	12.6	21.8	13.6	11.0
Total	34.6	39.5	16.9	26.5	17.7	13.0

Source: IPS

In the 1990s the situation changed and students became more important both absolutely and relatively. During the period 1975-9 they comprised 31 per cent of the total inflow but by 1999 this figure had increased to 53 per cent. Similarly, outflows of students also increased, reaching a peak of 46 per cent between 1995 and 1999. By the 1990s, students had become the largest component of both inflows and outflows of the non-active.

Housewives remained a fairly stable percentage of non-active flows in the earlier part of the period and then became a dwindling component. Until the 1990s, they accounted for about a quarter of the total inflow but their proportion then fell to only 13 per cent in 1995-9. Housewives also accounted for about a quarter of the total outflow from 1975 to 1984 but then became a diminishing proportion, around 16 per cent in the 1990s. These trends may be explained in part by the fact that more spouses were recorded as 'employed' at the end of the twenty-five years than at the beginning because more were in paid work.

'Other adults' have consistently accounted for the smallest proportion of total inflows and outflows of non-active population. Having comprised 9 per cent of the inflow in 1975-9, other adults subsequently fluctuated around 5-7 per cent. They were nearly 11 per cent of the outflow in 1975-9 and 1985-9 but again fluctuated around 5-7 per cent of the outflows for the rest of the period.

When British and non-British flows are examined separately, some clear differences are evident. The largest component of both inflows and outflows of British non-active persons were children in every five-year period. By contrast, students dominated non-active flows of non-British citizens. Only in 1980-4 did children account for the largest percentage of the non-British inflow; in all other periods, students were the main component of the non-active, accounting for over 20 per cent and reaching a peak of 47 per cent by 1999. Students also dominated outflows of non-active non-British migrants in every period.

Throughout the twenty-five year period, housewives accounted for only a small proportion of total flows in the case of both British and non-British citizens. They were slightly more significant in non-British inflows than in the British but were a much more significant element in British outflows than in those of the non-British. However, inflows and outflows of housewives in both groups were below ten per cent of the total in 1995-9.

Flows of other adults were even smaller, accounting for less than five per cent of total non-active inflows and outflows in 1995-9 for both British and non-British citizens. Over the period as a whole, they were slightly more significant in the British inflows and markedly more significant in British outflows than in the case of the non-British.

The preceding paragraphs have reviewed the relative importance of the four non-active groups of migrants. Below is a more detailed analysis of change in each of them.

4.4.4 Students

Total inflows of students increased dramatically in the late 1980s and more particularly in the late 1990s (See Table 4.7). Over the twenty-five year period, numbers of students entering the country grew from 153,400 in 1975-9 to 359,000 in 1995-9, representing a 134 per cent increase. The period of most significant growth (60%) occurred in the late 'nineties. Outflows of students also increased over the twenty-five years, from 81,700 in 1975-9 to over 190,000 in the 1990s. There was a small downturn in 1995-9. Net flows resulting from these movements were positive throughout, with the biggest net inflow in 1995-9 (165,400) and the second largest in 1975-9 (71,600). The net student inflow in 1995-9 exceeded the aggregate net inflow for the whole of the previous twenty years.

Non-British citizens accounted for the majority of the student inflow, consistently over 70 per cent of the total and reaching a peak of 88 per cent between 1995 and 1999. The numbers of non-British students entering the UK decreased slightly in 1980-4 but thereafter increased steadily until finally leaping up in the late 'nineties. The inflow in 1995-9 was 314,300 compared to 169,000 in 1990-4. The inflow of British students, albeit much smaller, consistently increased to nearly 60,000 in 1990-4 but then fell to 44,700 in 1995-9.

Non-British citizens also exceeded the British in student outflows, though the disparity in numbers between the two groups was not quite so great. The outflow of the non-British fell slightly in 1995-9 to 129,300, whereas the outflow of British students followed a trend of continuous increase to reach over 64,000.

The consequence of these patterns of movement was a small but accelerating net outflow of British students and a fluctuating net inflow of non-British ones, culminating in a huge leap in numbers in 1995-9. Some of the latter may have been coming to seek asylum or employment rather than to continue as students in the UK.

4.4.5 Children

Children were an important component of the non-active flows into and out of the UK. As Table 4.7 shows, total inflows of children were at their highest in the 1980s (over 200,000 in each five-year period), dropping back to their pre-1980 level of about 176,000 in the period 1995-9. Total outflows of children were at their highest in 1980-4 (also over 200,000), falling to their lowest level of 139,000 in 1995-9. The consequence of these trends was a net loss of some 20,000 children from the UK in the late 'seventies and early 'eighties, followed by a net inflow of 94,000 between 1985 and 1999, 38,000 of whom entered the country during the last five years. The net inflow over the entire period was nearly 74,000.

Numbers of British and of non-British children entering the UK in each five-year period were remarkably similar to one another. Peak inflows of both citizenship groups occurred in the 1980s with maximum inflows of 111,300 British and 115,000 non-British in 1985-9. After that, numbers declined to 84,600 British and 91,800 non-British in 1995-9.

By contrast, outflows of British children were significantly larger than those of the non-British. The former declined from a peak of 160,200 in 1980-4 to 92,100 in 1995-9, whereas the non-British outflow was only 74,000 at its highest in 1985-9 and declined to 46,500 in 1995-9. The net consequence of these patterns of movement was that there was a net loss of British children in every five year period, albeit a small one since the mid-eighties, whereas there were sizeable net inflows of non-British children throughout.

4.4.6 Housewives

Inflows of housewives from all citizenship groups increased steadily until the late 1980s, growing from 119,300 in 1975-9 to 151,000 in 1985-89. In the 1990s inflows declined to 90,500 in 1995-9. Outflows also fell to 66,900 in 1995-99 from a peak of 129,000 in 1980-84. Across all the five-year periods the UK experienced a fluctuating net increase in numbers of housewives. Net gains were small (under 10,000) in the late 1970s and early 1980s and then increased dramatically in 1985-9 to 61,600, after which they fell to 23,700 in 1995-9.

Inflows of both British and non-British housewives increased in the 1970s and 1980s and declined in the 1990s. The inflows were very similar for both citizenship groups with peak numbers of over 70,000 in the late 1980s, dropping to 39,000 (British) and 51,500 (non-British) in 1995-9. Outflows of British housewives consistently outnumbered those of the non-British over the 25-year period. Non-British outflows remained low, fluctuating between 35,000 and 40,000 until 1995-9 when they dropped to 26,100. Outflows of British

housewives were considerably higher in the late 1970s and early 1980s, peaking at 90,800 in 1980-84, before declining steadily to 40,800 in 1995-9. Overall the UK experienced net gains of non-British housewives in all the five-year periods, whereas there were net losses of British housewives in the late 1970s and early 1980s, gains in the late 'eighties and early 'nineties and then a virtual balance in 1995-9.

See Table 4.9.

4.4.7 Other adults

Over the twenty-five years, inflows of 'other adults' were small relative to other non-active categories, with the largest numbers at the beginning and end of the period. The biggest inflow was 47,600 in 1995-9. Outflows were likewise relatively small, declining steadily from a high point of 50,900 in 1985-9 to 23,900 in 1995-9. In total, inflows and outflows were almost in balance over the period as a whole, though in 1995-9 there was a net inflow of nearly 24,000.

In the case of British citizens, outflow (118,600) slightly exceeded inflow (97,500) over the twenty-five years but there was a net inflow for the first time in 1995-9 (8,600). In the case of non-British citizens, total inflow (89,500) exceeded outflow (67,200). There was a small net inflow in every five-year period but one, with by far the highest figure in 1995-9 (15,100).

Comparing the numbers of migrants aged 60/65+ in Table 4.3 and the numbers of migrants in the 'other adults' category in Table 4.7, it would appear that a majority of the British citizens in this category are of retirement age, whereas this is less true of the non-British. In respect of inflows, the number of 'other adults' in the non-British inflows in the 1990s was three times as great as the numbers aged 60/65+.

4.4.8 Relative proportions of males and females

Overall, females dominated total flows of non-active persons, British and non-British, accounting for about 60 per cent of the aggregate inflows and outflows of both groups in each of the five-year periods (see Table 4.9).

The sex balance varied slightly by citizenship and occupational group. Inflows of British students in the late 1970s and early 1980s were more likely to be male (between 53 and 57%) but this balance changed in the period 1985-94, when females accounted for over 50 per cent; in 1995-9 the balance was about equal. Similarly, males accounted for 64 per cent and 58 per cent of non-British student inflows in 1975-9 and 1980-4 but since 1985-9, females have accounted for 52 per cent or more. British students leaving the country were slightly more likely to be female in all of the five-year periods with the exception of 1985-9. Outflows of non-British students were more likely to be male, though the proportion of males declined steadily from 63 per cent in 1980-4 to under 53 per cent in 1995-9.

The sex balance of both inflows and outflows of British children was more or less equal over the period as a whole. Inflows of non-British children were more likely to be male, accounting for nearly 58 per cent in 1995-9, though the sex balance in the outflow was more even.

Flows of housewives were clearly almost always female. Both inflows and outflows of British 'other adults' comprised a majority of men, 61 per cent of the inflow and 57 per cent of the outflow over the period as a whole, 64 per cent and 55 per cent in 1995-9. By contrast, flows of non-British 'other adults' contained a majority of females, with 59 per cent of the inflow and 56 per cent of the outflow overall, 59 per cent and 66 per cent in 1995-9.

Table 4.9: Unadjusted Figures; IPS International Migration – Non Active Flows by occupation and sex 1975-1999 five year groups (Percentages)

Total Non Active													
	All Citizenships				British				Non British				
	Inflows		Outflows		Inflows		Outflows		Inflows		Outflows		
	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	
1975-79	39.5	57.7	38.9	61.1	40.0	60.1	36.7	63.4	43.9	56.1	42.2	58.0	
1980-84	38.2	58.5	40.7	59.3	40.0	59.9	37.3	62.8	42.7	57.3	46.0	54.1	
1985-89	33.9	64.3	43.7	56.3	33.9	66.1	41.0	58.9	37.2	62.8	46.7	53.2	
1990-94	36.1	61.1	43.2	56.8	35.7	64.2	39.6	60.4	41.0	59.1	46.7	53.4	
1995-99	39.9	56.9	43.0	56.9	39.9	60.1	40.8	59.2	44.4	55.6	45.3	54.7	
Total	37.5	59.7	41.9	58.1	37.6	62.4	38.9	61.1	41.9	58.0	45.6	54.5	
Students													
	All Citizenships				British				Non British				
	Inflows		Outflows		Inflows		Outflows		Inflows		Outflows		
	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	
1975-79	62.8	37.3	55.2	44.7	57.4	43.3	45.5	54.9	64.3	35.7	60.3	40.0	
1980-84	57.1	43.0	57.1	43.0	53.3	46.5	42.0	58.3	58.2	41.6	63.0	37.0	
1985-89	45.0	55.0	58.3	41.7	42.4	57.6	53.2	46.8	45.9	54.0	61.0	38.9	
1990-94	47.8	52.2	54.8	45.2	47.0	53.0	47.8	52.0	48.2	52.0	57.8	42.3	
1995-99	48.4	51.6	51.7	48.3	51.5	48.8	49.2	50.9	48.0	52.0	52.9	47.1	
Total	50.9	49.1	55.1	44.9	49.3	50.8	48.2	51.9	51.3	48.7	58.4	41.7	
Housewives													
	All Citizenships				British				Non British				
	Inflows		Outflows		Inflows		Outflows		Inflows		Outflows		
	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	
1975-79	0.8	99.2	1.2	98.8	-	98.9	1.1	98.8	-	99.3	-	98.7	
1980-84	0.6	99.5	-	99.3	-	99.7	-	99.0	0.8	99.5	-	99.7	
1985-89	1.6	98.4	-	99.6	-	98.8	-	99.2	-	97.6	-	100.0	
1990-94	-	98.6	-	100.0	-	98.9	-	100.0	-	98.4	-	100.0	
1995-99	-	100.0	-	100.0	-	100.0	-	100.0	-	100.0	-	100.0	
Total	0.9	99.1	0.3	99.5	0.0	99.2	0.3	99.3	0.2	98.9	0.0	99.7	
Other Adults													
	All Citizenships				British				Non British				
	Inflows		Outflows		Inflows		Outflows		Inflows		Outflows		
	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	
1975-79	45.6	54.4	51.1	48.9	63.5	36.5	57.3	43.1	32.9	67.8	47.8	52.6	
1980-84	64.8	35.2	62.2	37.5	73.6	25.0	77.5	23.0	55.3	44.0	34.3	65.7	
1985-89	41.5	58.5	51.9	47.9	50.0	50.0	52.1	47.6	27.7	73.1	50.9	49.1	
1990-94	52.5	47.5	43.7	56.3	54.6	45.4	44.9	55.1	50.0	50.0	40.6	59.4	
1995-99	54.2	45.8	49.8	50.2	64.1	35.6	54.6	-	40.6	58.9	33.9	66.1	
Total	51.3	48.7	51.8	48.1	60.7	39.0	56.6	36.5	40.8	59.3	44.2	56.0	
Children													
	All Citizenships				British				Non British				
	Inflows		Outflows		Inflows		Outflows		Inflows		Outflows		
	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	
1975-79	52.1	48.1	51.1	49.0	52.5	47.5	50.5	49.6	51.5	48.5	52.2	47.8	
1980-84	54.9	45.1	51.5	48.5	54.8	45.3	51.6	48.5	55.0	44.9	51.5	48.6	
1985-89	49.9	50.2	50.6	49.4	49.9	50.3	50.0	50.0	49.9	50.1	51.5	48.4	
1990-94	50.5	49.6	49.8	50.2	48.1	51.8	50.8	49.2	52.5	47.5	48.6	51.7	
1995-99	51.4	48.6	50.6	49.3	44.6	55.6	50.2	49.6	57.7	42.4	51.2	48.8	
Total	51.7	48.3	50.7	49.2	50.1	50.0	50.7	49.3	53.3	46.7	50.9	49.2	

Source: IPS

4.5 Summary

The overall picture is one of substantial increase in inflow with a more constant level of outflow, resulting in a net addition to the UK population of some 1.2 million people between 1981 and 1999.

At the beginning of the 'eighties, there was an annual net loss of people. By the end of the 'nineties, the annual net inflow was approaching 200,000. The figures for 1998 and 1999 were exceptionally high but from 1994 onwards, annual net inflow figures were higher than any previous ones in the 1981-99 period. From 1994 through to 1999, there was a net inflow to the UK of over three quarters of a million people.

The pattern of movement for most of the period has been a net outflow of British citizens and a very much larger net inflow of the non-British. The latter was consistently above 60,000 per annum from 1983 onwards and consistently above 120,000 from 1995 to 1999.

The make-up of the total inflow of non-British citizens has undergone many changes. In 1981, New Commonwealth and Other Foreign nationals were clearly the largest components, whereas in 1999, Other Foreign was the dominant group, with New Commonwealth, Old Commonwealth and EU citizens comprising smaller flows of fairly similar size. The key feature in the late 'nineties was the big increase in inflows of Other Foreign citizens - from 77,000 in 1997 to 100,000 in 1998 to 143,000 in 1999. There was also a sharp rise in numbers from the Old Commonwealth .

The make-up of the total outflow of non-British citizens has also changed over the period. In the early 'eighties, Other Foreign nationals were the dominant component of the outflow, whereas EU citizens were clearly and consistently the largest group in the late 'nineties. One striking aspect was the very small size of the New Commonwealth outflow throughout the period compared to other groups.

These patterns of inflow and outflow in combination produced net inflows of every group into the UK in every year from 1981 to 1999, with two minor exceptions. However, there were major differences in numbers. New Commonwealth citizens were the dominant group up to 1996, when Other Foreign became the largest component. Net inflows of Old Commonwealth citizens were relatively small until 1998-9. Net inflows from the EU alternated between periods of small and large net inflows, with a very sharp drop in 1999.

In terms of male/female breakdown, both inflows and outflows contained a slightly higher proportion of males than females, particularly in the earlier years of the period and in the outflow. Women became a greater part of the inflow latterly. Male predominance in the outflow was more marked among the British.

The combined outcome of these patterns of movement was a ratio of six women to four men in the net inflow of migrants between 1983 and 1999. However, the male/female balance in the net inflow was closer than this in the late 'nineties.

In terms of age breakdown, the dominant component of the total inflow throughout the whole period was the 15-24 age group, comprising around third of the total in every five-year period and over 36 per cent in 1995-99. The 25-34 group was the second largest adult group representing nearly 33 per cent in 1995-9. Thus young adults were two thirds of the total inflow in the late 'nineties, the highest proportion recorded in the period studied. By contrast, inflows of children under 15 were smaller in the 1990s than in the 1980s in absolute numbers and as a proportion of total flows.

The 25-34 age group was consistently the largest group in the outflow with the 15-24 group in second place – 37 per cent and 27 per cent of the total respectively in 1995-9. The overall age distribution of the outflow showed remarkable constancy over time, apart from a marked reduction in the number and proportion of children.

The net result of these patterns of movement was a net inflow of 15-24 year olds throughout the study period and net gains in all age groups, apart from those aged 60/65+, in the final period. Between 1995 and 1999 alone, there was a net inflow of over a quarter of a million young people aged 15-24. The proportion of non-British migrants in this age group was particularly high.

Looking at flows in terms of economic activity, the employed were slightly under half of the inflow up to the mid-1980s and then became slightly more than half. By contrast, they have formed a higher proportion of the outflow than the non-active throughout the period. In general, employed people have been a larger part of the British than the non-British flows. The largest net inflow of both employed and non-active migrants was in 1995-9.

The composition of non-active flows has changed. Overall, children were the largest group in both inflows and outflows of the non-active before 1990 but students (i.e. those who were students before migrating) were the largest in the 'nineties, with extremely rapid growth in numbers entering the UK. These were predominantly non-British and it seems likely that some were coming as working holiday-makers and for other purposes, possibly seeking asylum, as well as those intending to further their studies. Numbers described as 'housewives' both entering and leaving the country significantly diminished in the latter years of the period, perhaps in part because more spouses are now counted as 'employed'.

4.6 Conclusions

This chapter has presented an overview of changes in migration to and from the UK during the final decades of the twentieth century, drawing on data from the International Passenger Survey.

Few of the trends described above have been smooth over the period in question but the overall trend has been one of increase in both gross and net migration into the UK. Judging by the experience of the last twenty years, the exceptionally high numbers entering the country in the late 'nineties may not be sustained over the next decade but are unlikely to drop back to the levels of the late 'seventies and early 'eighties.

Net gains of foreign nationals have more than offset the net loss of British citizens. The data clearly show the need to study both inflows and outflows of population, British and non-British, to understand the full implications of migration for the labour market and other areas of social policy. The huge preponderance of young people (including children) in the net inflows has had, and continues to have, major implications for the present and future workforce in the UK.

5

Regional patterns and trends in migration flows

Research questions

- What has been the scale of migration flows for different regions of the UK?
- Does the pattern vary for British and non-British migrants?
- What trends of change have occurred over the 1975-99 period?

Main findings

- Overall trends in inflows and outflows for the UK as a whole have largely tended to be replicated in the regions.
- There is a more even regional distribution of British flows than of non-British.
- London is significantly more important as both a destination and an origin for non-British migrants than it is for the British.
- The geographical distribution of both inflows and outflows has been stable throughout the period for both British and non-British citizens.

5.1 Introduction

It is commonplace that regional selectivity exists in both in- and outflows of international migrants. In this chapter IPS data are used to analyse the annual in- and outflows of the British and foreign population by region for the period 1975-99. In many cases the numbers are small and subject to sampling error.

This chapter examines the scale of flows into and out of different UK regions, compares the flow patterns of British and non-British migrants and studies trends over the twenty-five year period.

5.2 Scale of movement 1975-99

The period has been one of sustained rise overall, for both the country as a whole and for the regions. However, individual regions have experienced marked fluctuations, in some cases the effects of sample size. While some regions have shown sustained growth, others have not. London, for example, had a total inflow (all citizenships) of 67,500 in 1975, rising to 137,900 in 1999. Inflows to the South East also rose, the equivalent figures being 31,700 and 67,300. In contrast, the North East recorded 5,200 in 1975 and 6,200 in 1999, Yorkshire and Humberside 11,000 and 16,600. In general, regions outside London and the South East had lower rates of increase in their inflows.

Outflows at the national level have not shown the same growth. The outflow for 1975 was 237,800, but only 245,300 in 1999; the peak figure of 257,300 occurred in 1982. Regional trends in outflows differ from

those in inflows. Those from London have grown less, if at all, although the figure for 1999 (83,800) was the highest recorded. The South East recorded an increased outflow in 1999 but it was still lower than that for 1996. Outflows from Wales seem to have drifted downwards while Scotland's and those of most other regions have fluctuated without any clear trend. However, in more cases than not there were substantial increases between 1998 and 1999.

In view of the complexities in summarising annual data over a 25-year period for in- and out-migration for twelve regions and in view of the problems resulting from sample size, the annual data were grouped into five-year periods from 1975. In addition, yearly averages for these periods were calculated (Tables 5.1, 5.2 and 5.3).

5.3 Citizenship by area of destination or origin within the UK: all citizenships

During the period as a whole the annual average inflow to the UK was 229,000. London received an annual average inflow of 74,000, 32.3 per cent of the national total; the South East received a further 17.5 per cent. Thus the south-east corner of the country averaged about half of the total inflow. No other region reached double figures. At the lower extreme, Wales received 2.5 per cent, the North East 2.2 per cent and Northern Ireland 0.7 per cent.

Analysis of change during the period reveals little that is startling. The annual average numbers for each region have generally risen in line with the national situation; proportionately changes have been minor. Thus the regional distribution has been generally constant. Wales, Northern Ireland, North East, London, South East and South West exhibited little trend; the North West and Yorks and Humberside have seen their proportions drift downwards while East Anglia experienced the reverse until the last few years. Scotland's position fluctuated in the 1990s, as did that of the West Midlands.

During the period as a whole the average annual outflow was 212,800, London accounting for 26.3 per cent, well below its share of the inflow. Seven regions had a higher proportion of outflows than inflows: Wales, Scotland, Northern Ireland, North East, North West, East Anglia and South West. The South East, East Midlands and Yorks and Humberside had a similar share of both inflows and outflows.

It is not easy to discern major shifts in regional proportions of outflows because of the fluctuations that have occurred. However, the shares of Wales, North West, Yorks and Humberside and, perhaps, Northern Ireland have fallen, as has that of the North East since the 1980s. Corresponding rises have occurred in London, the South East and the South West. Overall, it seems that during the period there has been a trend towards a more even regional distribution of outflows. The behaviour of London and the South East is key because of the major role they play in the national migration machine: they are regions through which international movers increasingly move. Any increases in gross migration nationally seem likely to exacerbate this tendency.

The average net annual balance for the 25-year period for the UK as a whole was 16,200, with strong regional variations. London gained an annual 18,100, the South East 2,900 and West Midlands 1,300. Other small positive balances were in Yorks and Humberside, East Midlands and the North West. All other regions had net emigration, the largest loss being from Scotland (5,000).

Table 5.1: Unadjusted figures; International migration, inflows by citizenship and countries of the United Kingdom and Government Office Regions of England, five-year groups 1975-1999 (per cent)

	All Citizenships													
	United Kingdom	England	Wales	Scotland	Northern Ireland	North East	North West (inc Merseyside)	Yorkshire and Humberside	East Midlands	West Midlands	East	London	South East	South West
1975-1979	100.0	90.3	2.5	6.5	0.7	2.1	8.8	6.3	3.9	7.5	6.6	32.6	16.0	6.5
1980-1984	100.0	90.7	2.4	6.2	0.7	2.5	8.2	5.7	4.0	6.4	7.9	30.8	17.1	8.1
1985-1989	100.0	90.8	2.4	6.0	0.7	2.2	8.2	5.4	4.2	5.3	9.7	32.0	17.2	6.6
1990-1994	100.0	89.5	2.4	7.3	0.7	2.2	7.2	5.9	4.3	5.6	9.7	29.0	18.6	6.9
1995-1999	100.0	91.0	2.7	5.6	0.6	2.0	7.1	4.9	4.2	5.7	7.7	36.1	17.1	6.1
25 Year Average	100.0	90.5	2.5	6.3	0.7	2.2	7.8	5.6	4.1	6.0	8.4	32.3	17.3	6.8
British														
	United Kingdom	England	Wales	Scotland	Northern Ireland	North East	North West (inc Merseyside)	Yorkshire and Humberside	East Midlands	West Midlands	East	London	South East	South West
1975-1979	100.0	88.2	3.0	7.8	1.1	2.9	9.8	7.1	4.5	7.8	7.3	23.2	17.6	8.1
1980-1984	100.0	89.2	2.7	7.0	1.1	3.4	9.2	5.4	5.1	5.9	7.8	20.9	20.5	11.0
1985-1989	100.0	90.1	2.5	6.5	0.9	2.9	10.3	7.4	5.0	6.0	9.2	20.8	20.4	8.1
1990-1994	100.0	88.3	2.1	8.7	0.8	1.9	8.1	7.1	5.7	5.7	9.5	19.5	21.0	9.7
1995-1999	100.0	88.2	3.7	6.6	1.3	2.7	9.6	4.8	5.8	3.8	10.0	23.3	19.4	8.8
25 Year Average	100.0	88.8	2.8	7.3	1.0	2.7	9.4	6.3	5.3	5.8	8.9	21.5	19.9	9.1
Non British														
	United Kingdom	England	Wales	Scotland	Northern Ireland	North East	North West (inc Merseyside)	Yorkshire and Humberside	East Midlands	West Midlands	East	London	South East	South West
1975-1979	100.0	91.9	2.2	5.5	0.4	1.6	8.0	5.7	3.5	7.3	6.2	39.6	14.7	5.4
1980-1984	100.0	91.9	2.2	5.5	0.4	1.8	7.3	5.9	3.2	6.8	8.0	38.8	14.3	5.8
1985-1989	100.0	91.4	2.4	5.5	0.6	1.7	6.5	3.8	3.5	4.6	10.1	41.2	14.6	5.4
1990-1994	100.0	90.5	2.6	6.2	0.6	2.5	6.5	5.1	3.3	5.5	9.8	36.3	16.7	4.8
1995-1999	100.0	92.5	2.2	5.1	0.2	1.7	5.8	4.9	3.3	6.8	6.4	43.0	15.9	4.7
25 Year Average	100.0	91.7	2.3	5.5	0.4	1.8	6.7	5.0	3.3	6.2	8.0	40.1	15.4	5.1

Source: IPS

Table 5.2: Unadjusted figures; International migration, outflows by citizenship and countries of the United Kingdom and Government Office Regions of England, five-year groups 1975-1999 (per cent)

	All Citizenships													
	United Kingdom	England	Wales	Scotland	Northern Ireland	North East	North West (inc Merseyside)	Yorkshire and Humberside	East Midlands	West Midlands	London	South East	South West	
1975-1979	100.0	86.0	3.2	9.2	1.6	3.7	9.2	6.0	4.4	5.8	25.3	16.8	6.1	
1980-1984	100.0	84.6	4.1	10.0	1.3	4.0	9.4	6.1	4.6	6.0	23.1	15.7	6.9	
1985-1989	100.0	87.0	2.9	8.7	1.4	2.6	7.8	5.4	3.5	5.7	24.6	18.8	8.6	
1990-1994	100.0	87.3	2.6	9.2	0.9	1.9	6.6	5.3	3.9	6.2	28.2	17.1	7.5	
1995-1999	100.0	88.4	2.1	8.3	1.1	2.4	7.9	5.1	4.9	5.6	29.9	17.8	7.2	
25 Year Average	100.0	86.7	3.0	9.1	1.3	2.9	8.2	5.6	4.3	5.8	26.3	17.2	7.3	
British														
1975-1979	100.0	83.5	3.8	10.7	2.1	4.6	10.7	7.1	5.2	6.1	16.4	17.5	6.8	
1980-1984	100.0	83.0	4.3	11.0	1.6	5.2	11.3	7.3	5.2	6.6	15.4	15.8	7.3	
1985-1989	100.0	85.6	3.4	9.0	2.0	3.1	8.9	6.6	4.2	6.1	17.8	20.0	10.2	
1990-1994	100.0	86.4	2.8	9.5	1.2	2.3	8.1	6.3	4.6	7.2	18.7	19.3	8.6	
1995-1998	100.0	82.9	3.3	12.5	1.4	3.2	7.1	4.4	5.0	4.9	18.9	21.0	9.8	
25 Year Average	100.0	84.4	3.6	10.4	1.7	3.8	9.5	6.5	4.8	6.3	17.3	18.4	8.4	
Non British														
1975-1979	100.0	91.3	2.0	6.2	0.6	2.1	5.9	3.7	2.8	5.0	43.7	15.2	4.5	
1980-1984	100.0	88.1	3.5	7.9	0.5	1.5	5.5	3.5	3.4	4.6	39.5	15.4	5.9	
1985-1989	100.0	89.0	2.1	8.4	0.5	1.7	6.1	3.6	2.5	4.9	35.2	17.0	6.1	
1990-1994	100.0	88.5	2.3	8.7	0.6	1.3	4.6	4.0	3.0	4.9	41.4	14.1	6.0	
1995-1999	100.0	92.7	3.1	4.4	-0.2	1.3	5.0	5.6	2.7	8.8	41.0	16.0	5.3	
25 Year Average	100.0	90.0	2.6	7.0	0.4	1.5	5.3	4.2	2.9	5.8	40.1	15.5	5.6	

Source: IPS

Table 5.3: Unadjusted figures; international migration, netflows by citizenship and countries of the United Kingdom and Government Office Regions of England, five-year groups 1975-1999 (thousands)

All Citizenships		North West Yorkshire													United Kingdom																									
		Northern Ireland			North East		North East		East Midlands		West Midlands		London				South East		South West																					
		Scotland	Wales	England	Wales	England	Scotland	Wales	England	Wales	England	Scotland	Wales	England			Wales	England	Scotland	Wales	England																			
1975-1979	-105.5	-50.5	-9.6	-35.4	-10.1	-18.9	-13.2	-3.8	-9.5	10.3	-29.3	41.7	-25.2	-2.4	-136.0	-58.6	-20.8	-49.5	-7.0	-19.5	-24.8	-11.5	-11.8	-20.5	-8.5	1.9	121.1	150.0	-1.9	-21.4	-6.1	-0.6	14.2	6.5	12.1	7.9	115.7	4.6	-12.3	
1980-1984	112.4	124.8	-0.2	-12.5	-1.0	6.2	15.2	13.2	9.5	-0.8	1.9	40.9	37.1	1.8	412.3	402.5	17.7	-5.6	-3.3	4.0	21.2	16.8	8.9	32.9	64.1	13.2	25 Year Average	16.2	22.7	-0.6	-5.0	-1.1	-1.2	0.5	0.8	0.4	-0.3	18.1	2.9	0.1
British																																								
1975-1979	-305.2	-236.0	-14.9	-44.4	-10.2	-20.5	-36.4	-21.8	-18.6	-11.7	-34.3	-23.4	-53.1	-15.9	-308.1	-230.2	-20.2	-50.7	-7.0	-23.5	-43.5	-30.2	-16.4	-31.6	-29.4	-7.6	-113.9	-74.3	-8.6	-22.9	-8.3	-5.0	-3.3	-0.5	-7.4	-7.7	-5.0	-20.3	-22.6	
1980-1984	-109.0	-84.6	-7.2	-14.8	-3.1	-4.8	-8.5	-3.0	0.8	-15.5	-22.6	-15.9	-11.6	-3.5	-95.7	-68.5	1.6	-27.7	-2.2	-2.5	-4.2	-11.4	-4.7	-3.1	-17.0	-13.9	25 Year Average	-37.3	-27.7	-2.0	-6.4	-1.2	-2.3	-3.8	-2.8	-1.6	-4.0	-2.5	-5.3	-2.5
Non British																																								
1975-1979	199.6	185.5	5.1	8.7	0.1	1.4	23.1	18.2	9.2	22.1	5.1	65.2	28.0	13.5	172.3	171.5	-0.6	1.2	0.2	4.0	18.8	18.6	4.7	11.2	20.7	9.6	234.9	224.4	6.7	1.5	1.9	4.1	17.2	9.8	12.1	15.6	120.8	24.8	10.0	
1980-1984	221.3	209.5	7.3	2.4	1.8	11.1	23.5	16.0	8.7	14.8	24.4	56.9	48.7	5.2	400.0	369.2	14.3	17.1	-0.9	6.4	22.1	18.2	15.2	27.7	61.9	17.3	25 Year Average	49.1	46.4	1.3	1.2	1.1	4.2	3.2	2.0	3.4	18.7	7.4	2.2	
Source: IPS																																								

5.4 Citizenship by area of destination or origin within the UK: British citizens

Average annual British inflow for the UK as a whole was 95,300. The number rose quite strongly from the late 1970s until the mid 1990s, when it fell back. The regional pattern was more even than that for all citizenships. London had only just over a fifth of the flow, the South East nearly as many. The North West, East Anglia and the South West approached ten per cent. The distribution has remained fairly stable with little definable trend for any region except a tendency towards increase in East Anglia.

Outflows of British citizens have been greater than inflows, averaging 123,400 per annum for the period. The distribution pattern is different from those discussed so far in this chapter. The South East has been the main region for emigration, with 18.4 per cent (22,700) of the total, compared with 17.3 per cent (21,300) for London. Scotland has had 10.4 per cent of the outflow of British, compared with only 7.3 per cent of inflow. In contrast to inflows, there are regional trends in outflows. The Welsh proportion has declined overall but it increased after the mid-1990s; Northern Ireland and the North East had a similar experience. The North West and Yorks and Humberside continued with their proportionate decline. The reverse has been the case for London, the South East and South West, which have had an increasing proportion of outflows. What this may indicate is a globalisation effect in the metropolitan south-east with increasing numbers of the British population there moving between global city regions.

The net balance for British citizens was negative for every region over the period of study. It averaged 37,300 per annum for the UK as a whole. Scotland had the largest net annual loss, averaging 6,400, amounting to 17.2 per cent of the overall national loss. The South East had the second largest net loss of 5,300 per annum, 14.2 per cent of the total, then the North West (10.2 per cent). London lost an annual average of 2,500, 6.7 per cent of the total.

During the period the overall net loss fell steeply, from around 61,000 per annum 1975-84 to 19,000 per annum in 1995-99. All regions experienced this trend, though only London in the late 1990s and East Midlands in the early 1990s had an average net gain. The 1990s seems to have been a period of fluctuation, with net annual loss rising in the second part of the decade in several regions: Scotland, Yorks and Humberside, South East and South West, but falling elsewhere: Wales, North West, North East, East Anglia and London. These changes do not seem to be related to geographical location within the UK or to regional prosperity.

5.5 Citizenship by area of destination or origin within the UK: non-British citizens

Average annual inflow for non-British citizens during 1975-99 was 133,700, considerably higher than that for the British. Since 1980 the upward trend has been strong. London (53,600) and the South East (20,600) were the main destinations overall, the next largest recipient being East Anglia with 10,700. Comparison of annual average inflows between British and non-British shows some marked differences. London received 40.1 per cent of the latter compared with only 21.5 per cent of the former, indicating a greater propensity for foreign citizens, compared with British citizens, to move to the capital. Only one other region, the West Midlands, was in a similar situation but the difference was small (5.8 and 6.2% respectively).

The distribution pattern over the period, as measured by the regional yearly average as a percentage of the UK total yearly average, was remarkably stable. There were minor fluctuations only and where trends did

emerge, notably non-British inflows becoming relatively less important in the South West but the reverse in the South East, the change was small. Thus, although overall there has been a rise in inflows of foreign nationals, their regional geography has remained constant.

Average annual outflow of non-British citizens over the period was 82,100, well below the inflow. London accounted for a massive 40.1 per cent (33,000 annual average) of this total, the South East 15.5 per cent, followed by East Anglia (9.0%) and Scotland (7.0%). The overall upward trend continued through the 1990s.

So dominant is London as an origin region for outflows of non-British that all other regions had higher proportions of British than non-British emigrants, an example being the South East with 18.4 per cent and 15.5 per cent respectively. For the most part the trends in regional outflows followed the national trend, with relatively small changes in the geographical distribution over the period, indicating a remarkably stable pattern.

The net change in non-British flows over the 25-year period is an annual gain of 49,100, including 18,700 in London, 7,400 in the South East and 4,200 in each of the West Midlands and North West. Of particular importance, however, is the big rise since 1995, from an annual average of around 45,000 in the decade 1985-94 to 80,000 since. This recent increase has been heavily concentrated in London, with comparatively small increases in most other regions and even decline in Northern Ireland, the North West and the North East.

5.6 Conclusion

Further analysis needs to be done to determine the relationships between these flow data and specific regional characteristics, but some basic conclusions may be drawn. Firstly, trends in inflows and outflows for the UK as a whole have largely tended to be replicated by the regions. Secondly, the geographical distribution for both in-and outflows and for both British and non-British citizens has been stable throughout the period of analysis. British migration flows are more evenly distributed across the regions than those of the non-British. London is significantly more important as both a destination and an origin for non-British citizens than it is for the British.

6 Changes in the flows of professional and managerial workers and manual and clerical workers among employed migrants 1975-99

Research questions

- Have the relative proportions of professional and managerial and manual and clerical workers been changing within total flows of employed migrants?
- Have patterns and trends of movement in each of these occupational groups been different for British and non-British citizens?
- Has the consequence of migration been a replacement of emigrant British citizens by immigrant non-British citizens in the labour-force?

Main findings

- Professional and managerial workers have comprised about 60 per cent of the inflow of employed people over the last twenty years and increased from about 50 per cent to 60 per cent of the outflow.
- In terms of actual numbers, there have been more professional and managerial workers entering the UK than leaving since the mid-eighties, with a net inflow of over 100,000 in 1995-9.
- Manual and clerical workers have correspondingly formed about 40 per cent of the inflow and a declining proportion of the outflow.
- In terms of actual numbers, there has been a net inflow of manual and clerical workers since the beginning of the 1990s, over 50,000 in 1995-9.
- In both occupational groups, a net loss of British citizens has been more than replaced by a net inflow of non-British in the 1990s. However, there have been differences in trends of change over time in the migration patterns of the British and non-British.

6.1 Introduction

This chapter uses IPS data to explore changes in the migration flows of different occupational groups. Specifically, it seeks to establish whether the relative proportions of professional and managerial workers and manual and clerical workers have been changing within the total flows of employed people into and out of the UK over the last twenty-five years. It examines whether there have been differences in patterns and trends of movement in each of these occupational groups in respect of British and non-British citizens and considers whether there has been a replacement of emigrant British citizens by immigrant non-British citizens in the labour force.

It analyses information on the occupation of migrants before they migrated into or out of the UK, with 'regular occupation' categorised as 'professional and managerial' or 'manual and clerical'. As stated earlier, the former category includes those described as administrators, managers and people with professional and technological qualifications; the latter covers all other workers.

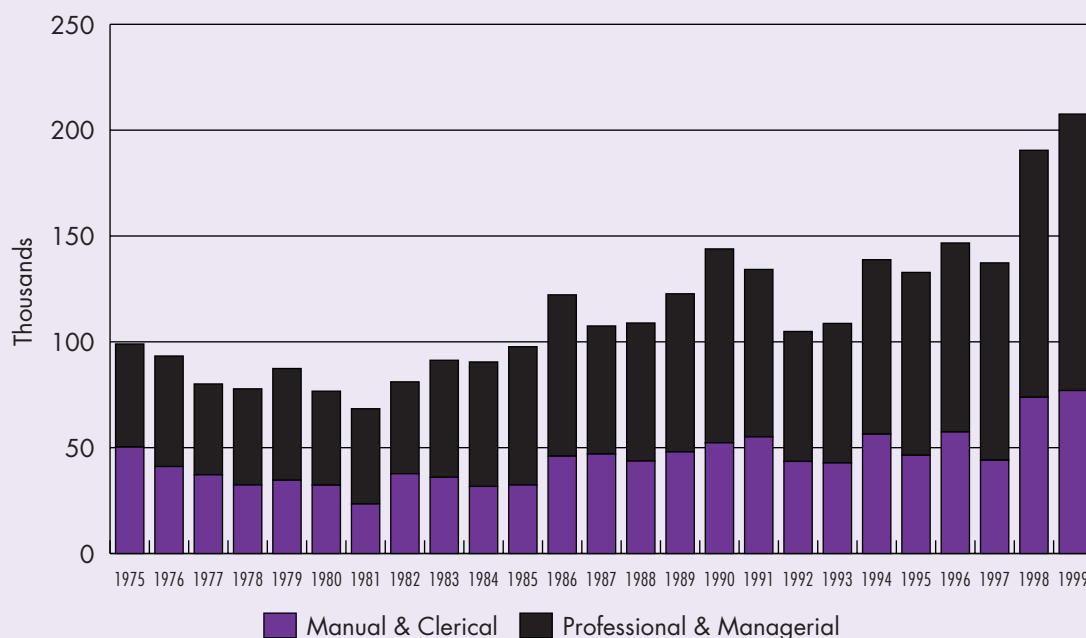
It should be borne in mind that the occupation of migrants before they leave a country is not necessarily the occupation they take up at their destination – as far as UK immigration is concerned, not all members of the 'professional and managerial' category will have gained instant access to employment which matched their skills and experience, particularly if there was a language barrier to overcome or perceived differences between overseas and UK qualifications. At the same time, some people who were not in regular paid employment before they migrated to this country and who were not therefore counted as migrant workers will in fact have found jobs in the UK.

6.2 The total picture

6.2.1 Number and proportion of each occupational group – inflows

As noted in Chapter 4, both inflows and outflows of employed migrants were higher at the end of the 1975-99 period than they were at the beginning, most strikingly in the case of the inflow (see Table 4.9). After some relatively low inflow figures in the first decade (the lowest was recorded in 1981), the overall trend was one of substantially increasing inflows, though with year-on-year fluctuations. In 1995-9, the inflow of 814,900 workers was almost double that of the 1975-9 period. In 1999 there was, for the first time, an annual inflow figure in excess of 200,000, with 1998 having the second-highest figure recorded during the twenty-five year period.

It seems remarkable that, in spite of this great change in numbers, the relative proportions of professional and managerial workers and manual and clerical workers in the total inflow remained more-or-less constant throughout the period (see Figure 6.1). The ratio of the former to the latter was around 60:40 in most years. There were annual variations in the exact proportion but no clear trend. When the flow data is aggregated into five-year periods, the proportions are very similar from 1980 onwards (see Table 6.1 below), with a slightly higher proportion of professionals and managerial than previously in the final period.

Figure 6.1: Inflows of professional and managerial workers and manual and clerical workers 1975-1999

Source: IPS

Table 6.1: Inflow of employed migrants by occupational group 1975-99

	Professional and managerial		Manual and clerical		Total	
	thousands	per cent	thousands	per cent	thousands	per cent
1975-79	242.0	55.3	195.6	44.7	437.6	100.0
1980-84	246.9	60.5	161.1	39.5	408.0	100.0
1985-89	341.9	61.2	217.1	38.8	559.0	100.0
1990-94	380.4	60.3	250.1	39.7	630.5	100.0
1995-99	516.2	63.3	298.7	36.7	814.9	100.0
Total	1727.4	60.6	1122.6	39.4	2850.0	100.0

Source: IPS

This perception of increase in proportion of professionals and managerials at the end is reinforced by studying the annual data. The highest proportion of professional and managerial workers recorded in any one year was nearly 68 per cent in 1997, while the lowest was 53.5 per cent in 1982. In over half of the years it was above 60 per cent and this included six of the seven years 1993-9. The proportion of manual and clerical workers in the inflow were correspondingly below 40 per cent in six of these seven years.

6.2.2 Number and proportion of each occupational group - outflows

While there was a doubling of the inflow of employed people, the difference in the outflow in 1995-9 compared to 1975-9 was not very large: 653,600 compared to 608,300 (see Table 6.2). Moreover, if there had not been the big increase in the outflow figure in 1999 and the size of the outflow had remained the same as in 1998, there would have been very little difference in the 1975-9 and 1995-9 outflows. (The

aggregate outflows for the two five-year periods in the 1980s were smaller than that for the late 'seventies and the outflow during the 1990-4 period was not much higher.)

Table 6.2: Outflow of employed migrants by occupational group 1975-99

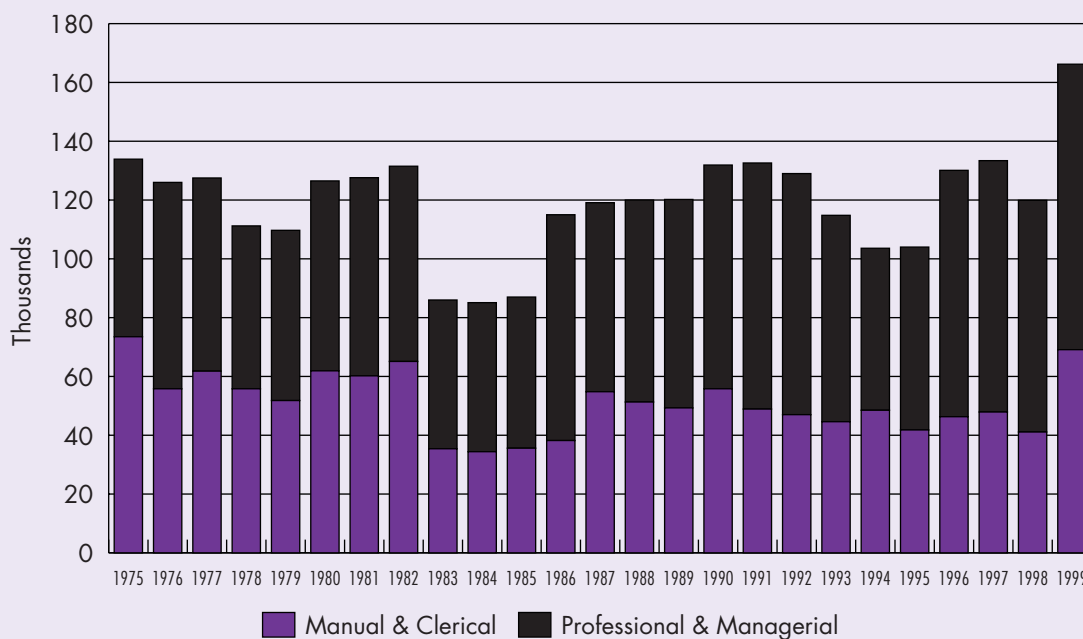
	Professional and managerial		Manual and clerical		Total	
	thousands	per cent	thousands	per cent	thousands	per cent
1975-79	309.6	50.9	298.7	49.1	608.3	100.0
1980-84	299.7	53.8	257.0	46.2	556.7	100.0
1985-89	332.1	59.2	229.2	40.8	561.3	100.0
1990-94	367.1	60.0	244.8	40.0	611.9	100.0
1995-99	407.4	62.3	246.2	37.7	653.6	100.0
Total	1715.9	57.4	1275.9	42.6	2991.8	100.0

Source: IPS

Just as 1999 saw the highest recorded inflow of employed people for the whole 1975-99 period, so it saw the highest outflow figure at 166,200. However, 1998 was not the second-highest recorded figure – there were many higher outflows in previous years (see Figure 6.2).

It is within this context that the continuous increase in the proportion of professional and managerial workers and decrease in proportion of manual and clerical workers in the outflow shown in Table 6.2 should be noted. The ratio of the former to the latter started off in 1975-9 at about 50:50 but became 60:40 from the late 'eighties.

Figure 6.2: Outflows of professional and managerial workers and manual and clerical workers 1975-1999



Source: IPS

Nevertheless, it is important to note that the 1999 proportion of professional and managerials (58.4%) in the outflow was distinctly lower than in the three preceding years (64.4%; 64.1%; 65.7%). The big leap in outflow from 1998 to 1999 represented an increase of over 18,000 professional and managerial workers but an even bigger increase of 28,000 manual and clerical workers. Whether the 1999 changes were the start of a trend or a 'one-off' remains to be seen.

6.2.3 The net flow of employed migrants by occupational group

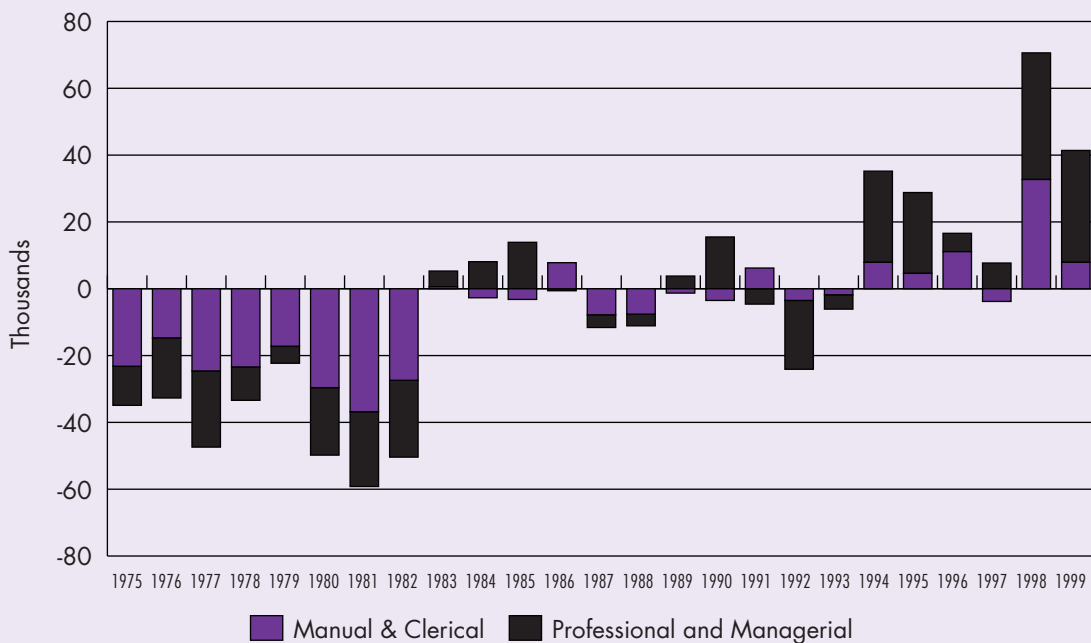
As Table and Figure 6.3 shows, the combined effects of the inflows and outflows described above was to produce a small net gain (11,500) to the UK labour force of professional and managerial workers over the twenty-five year period as a whole and a larger net loss (153,300) of manual and clerical workers. For both occupational groups, the pattern was one of net outflow in the early part of the period, the size of which declined fairly sharply and then changed to net inflow.

Table 6.3: Unadjusted figures IPS; net flow of employed migrants by occupational group 1975-99 five-year groups (thousands)

	Professional and managerial	Manual and clerical	Total
1975-9	-67.6	-103.1	-170.7
1980-4	-52.8	-95.9	-148.7
1985-9	9.8	-12	-2.3
1990-4	13.3	5.3	18.6
1995-9	108.8	52.5	161.3
Total	11.5	-153.3	-141.8

Source: IPS

Figure 6.3: Net flows of professional and managerial workers and manual and clerical workers 1975-1999



Source: IPS

The net inflow of professional and managerial workers in 1995-9 was more than double that of manual and clerical workers: nearly 109,000 compared to 52,500.

6.3 British and non-British migration flows: professional and managerial workers

6.3.1 Inflows of professional and managerial workers by citizenship

The inflow of professional and managerial workers who were British citizens fluctuated throughout the twenty-five year period but the overall trend was one of increase (see Figure 6.4). From 1995 onwards the inflow increased each year up to 1999, when there was the highest recorded annual figure of nearly 50,000.

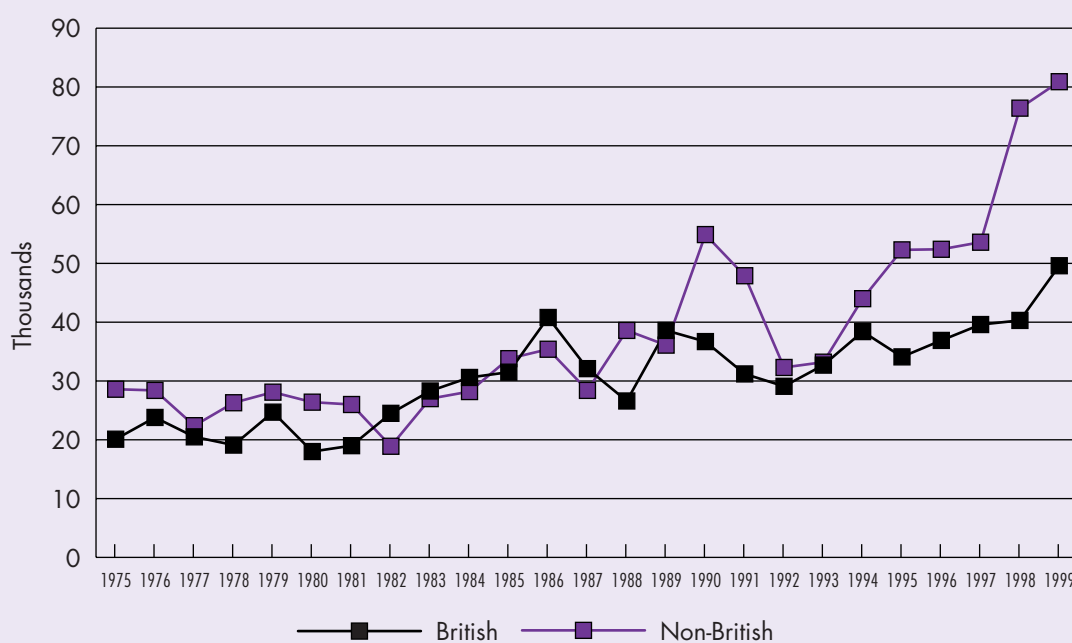
In the case of non-British citizens, the broad picture of fluctuation and overall increase in inflows was the same. From 1992 onwards the inflow increased each year and in 1999 reached its highest level at nearly 81,000.

Over the whole period 1975-99, the aggregate inflow of professional and managerial workers was 766,800 British citizens and 960,500 non-British; in the final five year period 1995-9, the totals were 200,500 British and 315,600 non-British (see Table 6.4). The proportion of non-British citizens in the professional and managerial inflow was therefore 61 per cent of the total in the last five years, compared to 56 per cent during the period as a whole.

6.3.2 Outflows of professional and managerial workers by citizenship

As in the case of inflows, annual outflows of professional and managerial workers who were British citizens fluctuated throughout the 1975-99 period but the overall trend from the mid-eighties was one of increase (see Figure 6.5). The outflow of 61,200 in 1996 was the highest annual figure recorded but this high level was not sustained in subsequent years - in 1998, the outflow was below 50,000 and in 1999 it was 53,000.

Figure 6.4: Inflows of professional and managerial workers by citizenship, 1975-1999



Source: IPS

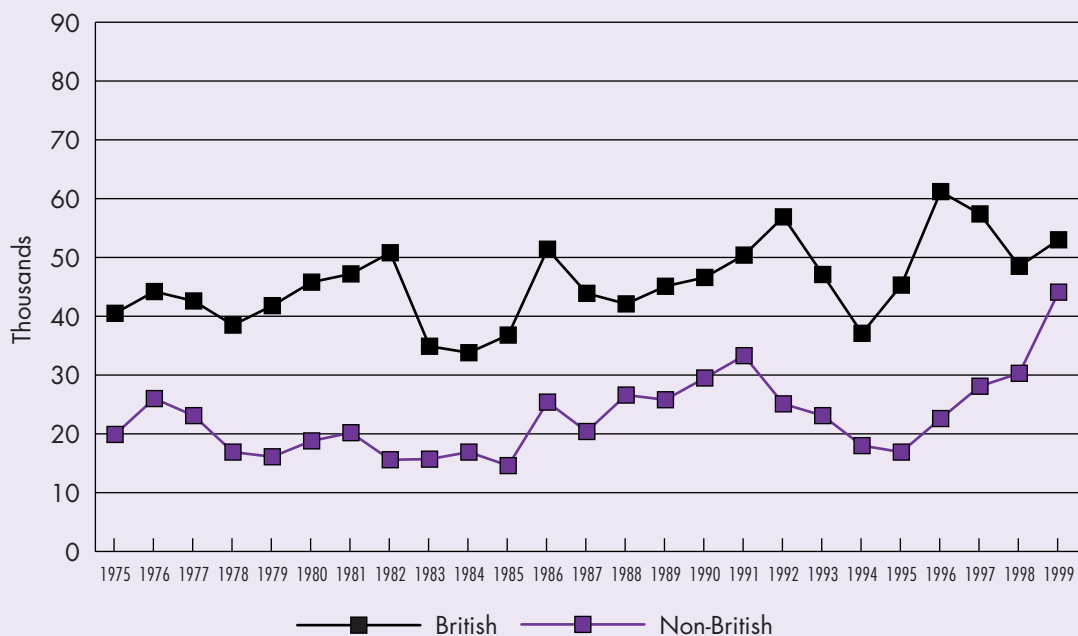
Table 6.4: Unadjusted figures; IPS – inflows of professional and managerial workers by citizenship, five-year groups 1975-99 (thousands)

Inflows					
	Total	British	%	Non-British	%
1975-1979	242.0	108.2	44.7	133.8	55.3
1980-1984	246.9	120.4	48.8	126.5	51.2
1985-1989	341.9	169.6	49.6	172.3	50.4
1990-1994	380.4	168.1	44.2	212.3	55.8
1995-1999	516.1	200.5	38.8	315.6	61.2
Total	1727.3	766.8	44.4	960.5	55.6

Source: IPS

The outflow of professional and managerial workers who were non-British citizens likewise fluctuated throughout the period rising in the late 1980s, dropping back in the early 1990s and then steadily increasing to reach the highest annual figure recorded in 1999 – over 44,000.

Over the whole period 1975-99, the aggregate outflow of professional and managerial workers was 1,142,900 British citizens and 573,000 non-British; in the final five year period 1995-9, the totals were 265,400 British and 142,000 non-British (see Table 6.5). The proportion of non-British citizens in the professional and managerial outflow was therefore 35 per cent of the total in the last five years, compared to 33 per cent during the period as a whole.

Figure 6.5: Outflows of professional and managerial workers by citizenship, 1975-1999

Source: IPS

Table 6.5: Unadjusted figures: IPS – outflows of professional and managerial workers by citizenship, five-year groups 1975-99 (thousands)

Outflows	Total	British	%	Non-British	%
1975-1979	309.6	207.6	67.1	102.0	32.9
1980-1984	299.7	212.5	70.9	87.2	29.1
1985-1989	332.1	219.3	66.0	112.8	34.0
1990-1994	367.1	238.1	64.9	129.0	35.1
1995-1999	407.4	265.4	65.1	142.0	34.9
Total	1715.9	1142.9	66.6	573.0	33.4

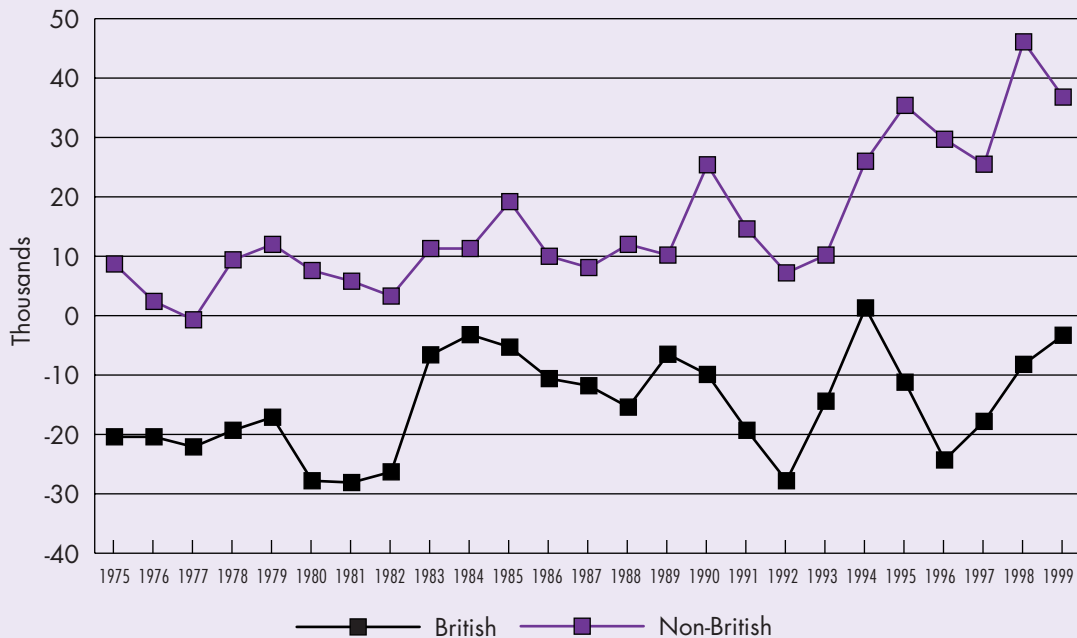
Source: IPS

6.3.3 Net flows of professional and managerial workers by citizenship

The combination of gross inflows and outflows described above produced very different net flows in respect of British and non-British citizens (see Figure 6.6). In the case of the British, there was a net loss of professional and managerial workers from the UK every year throughout the twenty-five year period, apart from 1994, when the net inflow was 1,300. Many of the annual net outflows were also relatively small – the highest was 28,000 in 1981.

Aggregated data for five-year periods (Table 6.6) show that the highest net outflows of British professional and managerial workers were in the 1975-84 period, followed by a drop in numbers in the late 'eighties and then a higher net outflow in the 1990s – though not as high as at the beginning of the period. In the last four years, the annual net outflow decreased steadily from 24,300 in 1996 to 3,300 in 1999.

The data on net flows of non-British professional and managerial workers present a dramatically different picture – there was a net gain to the UK every year throughout the twenty-five years, except in 1977 when the net outflow was 700. Many of the annual net inflows were fairly small, never reaching 20,000 before 1990. However, from 1994, the annual net gain of professional and managerial workers who were non-British citizens was consistently above 25,000.

Figure 6.6: Net flows of professional and managerial workers by citizenship, 1975-1999

Source: IPS

Table 6.6: Unadjusted figures; IPS – netflows of professional and managerial workers by citizenship, five-year groups 1975-99 (thousands)

Netflows	Netflows		
	Total	British	Non-British
1975-1979	-67.5	-99.3	31.8
1980-1984	-52.7	-92.0	39.3
1985-1989	9.9	-49.6	59.5
1990-1994	13.3	-70.1	83.4
1995-1999	108.7	-64.8	173.5
Total	11.7	-375.8	387.5

Source: IPS

This fact is reflected in the net flow data aggregated for five-year periods. The net inflow of non-British professionals and managerial more than doubled in 1995-9 compared to 1990-4. The 1998 net inflow figure of over 46,000 was the highest on record, with the second highest figure of nearly 37,000 in 1999.

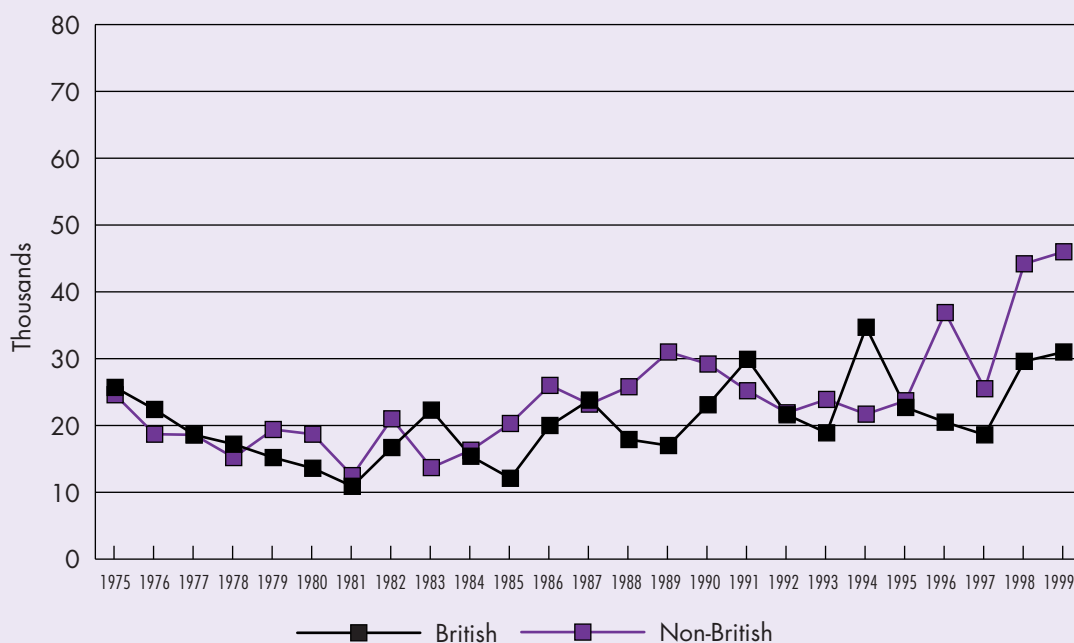
It is very clear from the above analysis and from Table 6.6 that the professional and managerial section of the UK labour force would have been seriously depleted through migration over the last twenty-five years if there had been no immigration of non-British citizens. A net outflow of over 376,000 British professional and managerial workers took place during this time, with a net loss of nearly 65,000 in the last five years. The net inflow of over 387,000 non-British professional and managerial workers, nearly 174,000 during the last five years, has more than offset the British outflow in terms of aggregate numbers.

6.4 British and non-British migration flows: manual and clerical workers

6.4.1 Inflows of manual and clerical workers by citizenship

The inflow of manual and clerical workers who were British citizens showed erratic annual variation (see Figure 6.7). However, when data are aggregated into five year periods (see Table 6.7), it appears that the volume of movement fell in the early 'eighties but rose sharply in the 1990s. The average annual inflow in both the early and the late 'nineties was around 25,000.

Figure 6.7: Inflows of manual and clerical workers by citizenship, 1975-1999



Source: IPS

Table 6.7: Unadjusted figures; IPS – inflows of manual and clerical workers by citizenship, five-year groups 1975-99 (thousands)

Inflows	Total	British	%	Non-British	%
1975-1979	195.6	99.1	50.7	96.5	49.3
1980-1984	161.1	78.9	49.0	82.2	51.0
1985-1989	217.1	90.8	41.8	126.3	58.2
1990-1994	250.1	128.2	51.3	121.9	48.7
1995-1999	298.7	122.4	41.0	176.3	59.0
Total	1122.6	519.4	46.3	603.2	53.7

Source: IPS

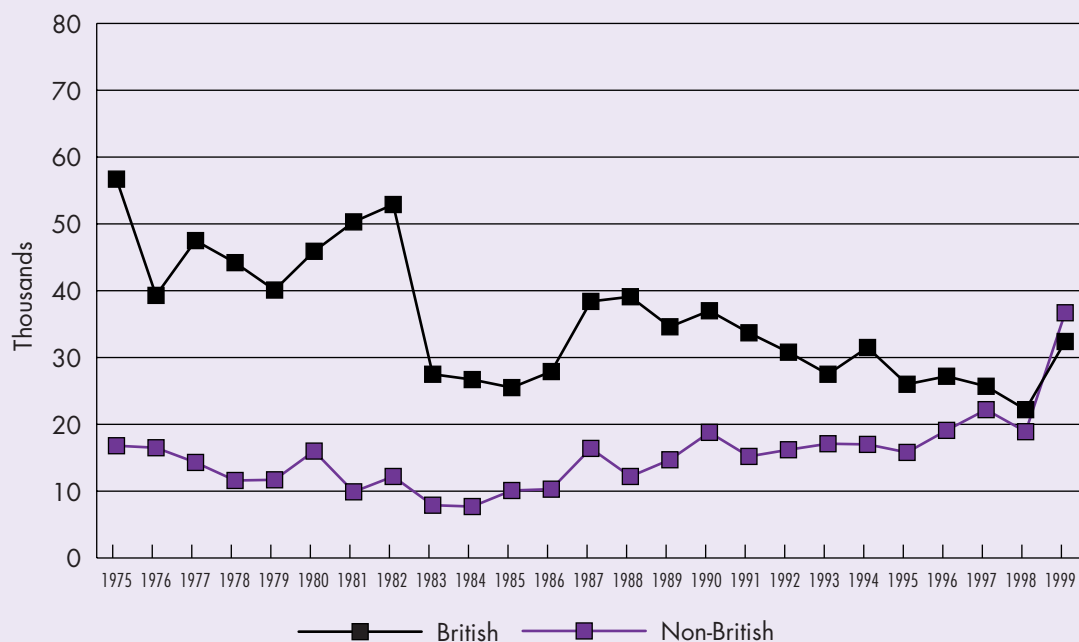
In the case of non-British citizens, there was also much fluctuation in inflows year-on-year, with higher numbers entering the UK in the latter part of the period (see Figure 6.7) and particularly in the last five years (see Table 6.7), when the average annual inflow was over 35,000 – in 1998 and 1999, there were the first recorded inflows of over 40,000.

Over the whole period 1975-99, the aggregate inflow of manual and clerical workers was 519,400 British citizens and 603,200 non-British; in the final five-year period 1995-9, the totals were 122,400 British and 176,300 non-British. The proportion of non-British citizens in the manual and clerical inflow was therefore 59 per cent of the total in the last five years, compared to 54 per cent during the period as a whole.

6.4.2 Outflows of manual and clerical workers by citizenship

Outflows of manual and clerical workers who were British citizens showed an overall trend of decline during the period (see Figure 6.8 and Table 6.8), though there were some significant fluctuations: the lowest figures were in the mid-eighties and again in the 'nineties, with annual outflows below 30,000. The 1998 outflow of just over 22,000 was the lowest recorded, though the 1999 figure was over 32,000.

Figure 6.8: Outflows of manual and clerical workers by citizenship, 1975-1999



Source: IPS

Table 6.8: Unadjusted figures: IPS – outflows of manual and clerical workers by citizenship, five-year groups 1975-99 (thousands)

Outflows	Total	British	%	Non-British	%
1975-1979	298.7	227.8	76.3	70.9	23.7
1980-1984	257.0	203.3	79.1	53.7	20.9
1985-1989	229.2	165.5	72.2	63.7	27.8
1990-1994	244.8	160.5	65.6	84.3	34.4
1995-1999	246.2	133.5	54.2	112.7	45.8
Total	1275.9	890.6	69.8	385.3	30.2

Source: IPS

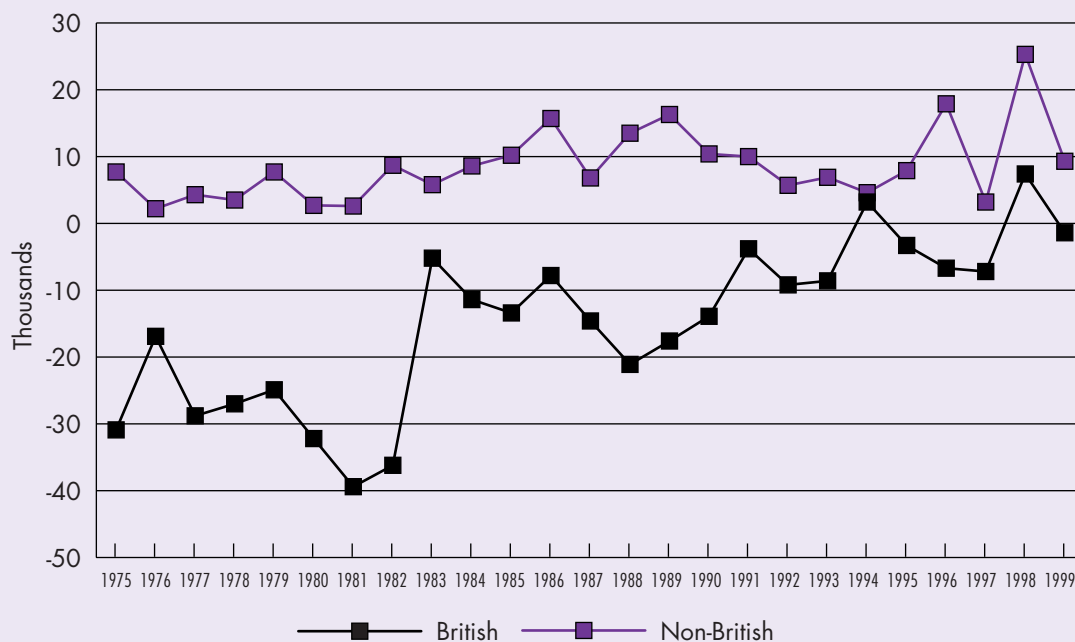
The outflow of manual and clerical workers who were non-British citizens initially showed a trend of decline and then one of increase (see Figure 6.8 and Table 6.8) but there were many small annual fluctuations and the total numbers of people involved were much smaller than in the case of British citizens. There were only two annual outflows above 20,000 people: just over 22,000 in 1997 and nearly 37,000 in 1999. It should be noted that 1999 was the only year throughout the whole period in which non-British citizens outnumbered the British in the outflow because of the exceptionally high number of non-British emigrants relative to previous years.

Over the whole period 1975-99, the aggregate outflow of manual and clerical workers was 890,600 British citizens and 385,300 non-British; in the final five year period 1995-9, the totals were 133,500 British and 112,700 non-British. The proportion of non-British in the manual and clerical outflow was therefore 46 per cent of the total in the last five years, compared to 30 per cent during the period as a whole.

6.4.3 Net flows of manual and clerical workers by citizenship

There was a net loss of manual and clerical workers who were British citizens every year throughout the twenty-five year period apart from 1994 and 1998 but the size of the annual net outflows at the end of the period were a fraction of those in the late 'seventies and early 'eighties. The aggregate net outflow 1995-9 was just over 11,000, compared to over 120,000 in both of the two periods 1975-9 and 1980-84 (see Table 6.9 and Figure 6.9).

Figure 6.9: Net flows of Manual and Clerical Workers by Citizenship, 1975-1999



Source: IPS

Table 6.9: Unadjusted figures; IPS – netflows of manual and clerical workers by citizenship, five-year groups 1975-99 (thousands)

Netflows	Total	British	Non-British
1975-1979	-103.3	-128.7	25.4
1980-1984	-96.0	-124.4	28.4
1985-1989	-12.0	-74.5	62.5
1990-1994	5.3	-32.3	37.6
1995-1999	52.4	-11.2	63.6
Total	-153.6	-371.1	217.5

Source: IPS

In complete contrast, there was a net gain of manual and clerical workers who were non-British citizens every year. Broadly speaking, there were small annual gains at the beginning and end of the twenty-five year period and larger ones in the middle but the two highest net inflows were in 1996 and 1998 – nearly 18,000 and over 25,000. Because of these annual patterns, the highest net inflows for five-year periods were recorded in 1985-9 and 1995-9, both over 60,000, more than double the net inflows in 1975-9 and 1980-4. (see Table 6.9).

The net outflow of British manual and clerical workers has not been offset by the net inflow of non-British citizens over the full twenty-five year period but this situation has changed during the 1990s. A net loss of over 371,000 British workers took place 1975-99 compared to a net gain of 217,700 non-British. However, the net inflow of non-British manuals and clericals exceeded the net outflow of the British in 1990-4 and in 1995-9. During this last five year period, the net loss of British workers was over 11,000 but the net gain of the non-British was nearly 64,000.

6.5 Conclusions

Flows of professional and managerial workers and of manual and clerical workers over the twenty-five year period showed considerable fluctuation but there were also some consistent patterns and trends.

Professional and managerial workers have comprised about 60 per cent of the inflow of employed people from the beginning of the 'eighties. There appears to have been a slight trend of increase in their proportion in the 1990s but not a dramatic one. In the outflow, there has been a steady trend of increase in the proportion of professional and managerial workers from around 50 per cent to over 60 per cent.

In terms of actual numbers of professional and managerial workers, the overall trend in inflows both for British and non-British citizens has been one of increase. The inflow of British managerials and professionals increased continuously from 1995 onwards and in the case of the non-British from 1992 onwards.

In respect of outflows of professional and managerial workers, the overall trend from the mid-eighties was for an increase in outflow for both British and non-British citizens. The highest annual British outflow was in 1996 but this level was not sustained subsequently. There was a continuous increase in outflow of the non-British from 1995 onwards.

Manual and clerical workers had different inflow trends according to citizenship. In broad terms, British inflows started the period at a relatively high level, dropped back and then rose sharply in the 1990s. Non-British inflows rose sharply in the mid 1980s and again in the last five years.

Trends in the outflow of manual and clerical workers were also different in the cases of British and non-British citizens. There was an overall trend of decline in the outflow of British workers, though with significant fluctuations – the lowest outflows were in the mid-eighties and again in the 'nineties. By contrast, after an initial decline there was an overall trend of growth in the outflow of non-British citizens, with the highest recorded outflows in the late nineties.

Have emigrant British citizens been replaced by immigrant Non-British citizens in the Labour force? Taking the twenty-five year period as a whole, the answer would appear to be 'Yes' in the case of professional and managerial workers and 'No' in the case of manual and clerical workers. Looking just at the 1990s, the answer seems to be 'Yes' for both occupational groups.

Of course, these aggregate figures do not tell us the specific occupations of those who entered and left the country, nor how many of those coming in actually took up employment in the UK. However, the net inflows of non-British citizens in 1995-9 were so much greater than the net outflows of British citizens in respect of both occupational groups, it seems likely that the numbers of incomers who entered the labour market exceeded those who left it.

7 Changes in the proportion of men and women among employed migrants 1975-99

Research questions

- Have the relative proportions of men and women been changing within total flows of employed migrants?
- Have trends been the same for different occupational groups, for British and non-British citizens and for those both entering and leaving the UK?

Main findings

- The proportion of women in the inflow and outflow of employed migrants was higher in the 1990s than in the late 'seventies/early eighties. This was true of both occupational groups and of British and non-British citizens.
- From the mid-1980s, women comprised over 40 per cent of all employed migrants fairly consistently, though never as much as half.
- Women have been a higher proportion of manual and clerical than of professional and managerial migrants. In 1995-9, they were over 50 per cent of the former but under 40 per cent of the latter in both inflow and outflow.
- Women have tended to form a higher proportion of non-British than British migrants though there have been some trends towards convergence.

7.1 Introduction

This chapter draws on IPS data to study changes in the sex composition of migration flows. It seeks to determine whether the relative proportions of men and women among employed migrants have been changing over the last twenty-five years and in particular whether the proportion of women has been increasing. It examines whether identified trends have been the same for different occupational groups, for British and non-British citizens and for those both entering and leaving the country.

7.2 The total picture

7.2.1 Proportion of women among employed migrants

The relative proportions of males and females among employed migrants have changed over the last twenty-five years, with an increase in the female proportion both among those entering the UK and among those leaving it. IPS migration data aggregated into five-year periods (see Tables 7.1 and 7.2) indicate that the mid-eighties were the time when the most marked increase in the proportion of women occurred. However, there was no smooth continuous trend of increase throughout the twenty-five years, as is illustrated both by the statistics in Tables 7.1 and 7.2 and by the annual variations shown in Figures 7.1 and 7.2.

In the case of inflows, women comprised less than 40 per cent of the total every year up to 1984. From 1985 onwards they were over 40 per cent in every year but two, though always less than half. When flows are aggregated for five-year periods, the highest (identical) proportions of women in the inflows are shown to have been in 1990-4 and 1995-9, slightly higher than in 1985-9.

Table 7.1: Inflows of employed migrants by sex, five-year groups 1975-99 (thousands)

	Total	Males	%	Females	%
1975-1979	437.6	279.4	63.8	158.1	36.1
1980-1984	408.0	265.9	65.2	142.1	34.8
1985-1989	559.0	328.3	58.7	230.8	41.3
1990-1994	630.5	355.8	56.4	274.4	43.5
1995-1999	814.9	460.4	56.5	354.4	43.5
Total	2850.0	1689.8	59.3	1159.8	40.7

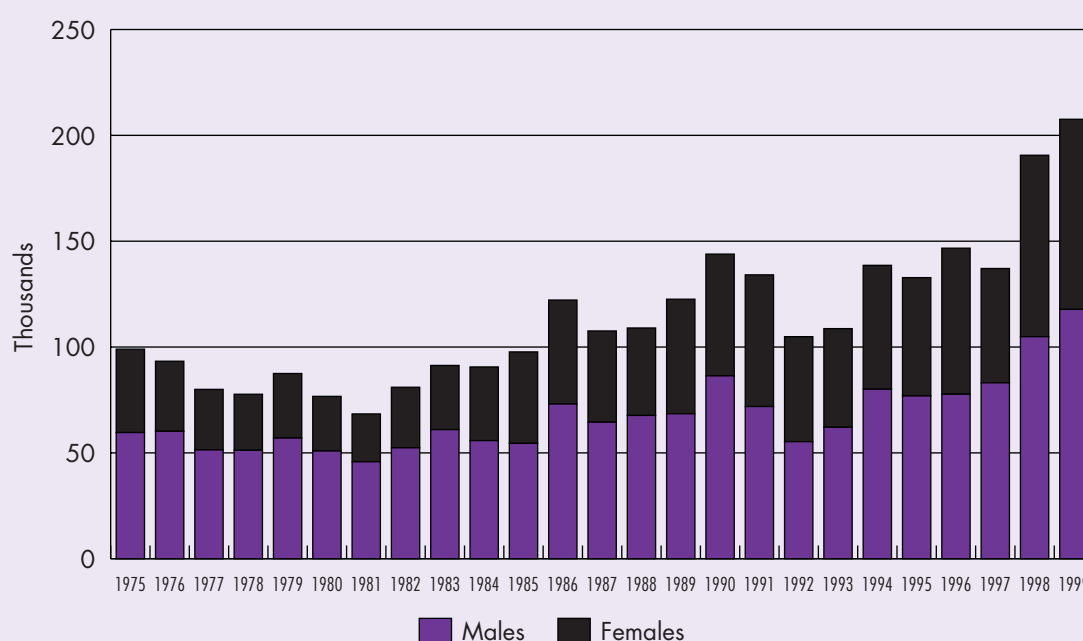
Source: IPS

Table 7.2: Unadjusted figures; IPS - outflows of employed migrants by sex, five-year groups 1975-99 (thousands)

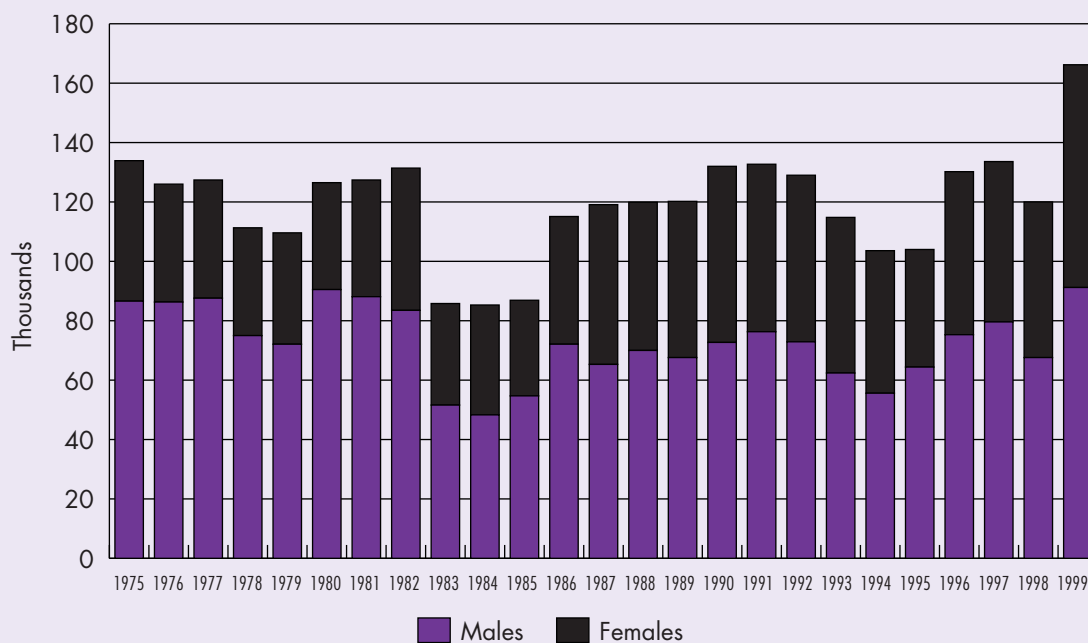
	Total	Males	%	Females	%
1975-1979	608.3	407.6	67.0	200.6	33.0
1980-1984	556.7	362.0	65.0	194.4	34.9
1985-1989	561.3	329.7	58.7	231.5	41.2
1990-1994	611.9	339.9	55.5	272.2	44.5
1995-1999	653.6	378.1	57.8	275.9	42.2
Total	2991.8	1817.3	60.7	1174.6	39.3

Source: IPS

Figure 7.1: Inflows of employed migrants by sex, 1975-1999



Source: IPS

Figure 7.2: Outflows of employed migrants, by sex 1975-1999

Source: IPS

In the case of outflows, women comprised less than 40 per cent of the total every year up to 1986, apart from 1984. From 1987 onwards they were over 40 per cent in every year but one, though always less than half. Looking at five year periods, the highest proportion of women in the outflow was in 1990-4, with similar but slightly lower levels in 1985-9 and 1995-9.

7.2.2 Comparison of inflows and outflows

Taking the twenty-five year period as a whole, women have comprised nearly 41 per cent of the total inflow of employed persons and just over 39 per cent of the outflow. In three out of five years, the female proportion in the inflow has exceeded the proportion in the outflow – this was true every year from 1976 to 1981 but subsequently, there was no particular pattern.

In the 1990s, the proportion of women in the inflow was higher than that in the outflow in five years and lower in the other five. For the period 1990-4, women were 43.5 per cent of the inflow and 44.5 per cent of the outflow. For the period 1995-9, they were 43.5 per cent of the inflow and 42.2 per cent of the outflow.

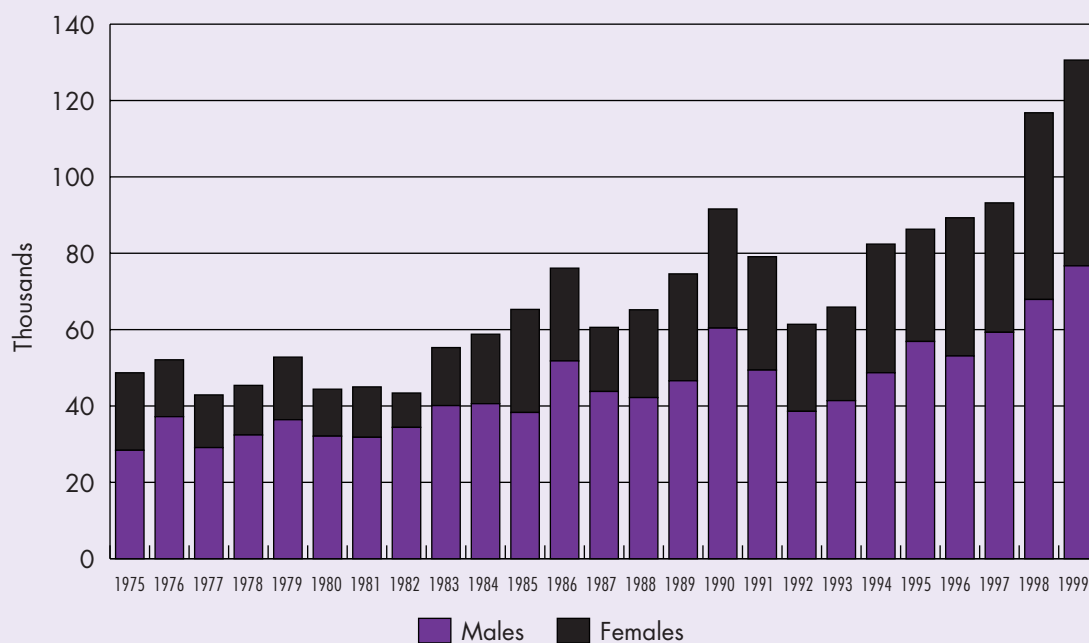
In summary, it may be seen that women comprised about four out of ten employed persons both entering and leaving the country during the 1975-99 period. While there was an increase in the proportion of women in both inflows and outflows, they never became half of the total.

There were significant differences in the proportions of men and women among professional and managerial workers, as compared to manual and clerical workers. Among the former, women comprised just over a third of both inflow and outflow during the twenty-five year period. Among the latter, they were almost half of the inflow and approaching half of the outflow. A more detailed analysis is given below.

7.2.3 Professional and managerial workers

Overall, there has been a trend of increase in the proportion of women in the inflow of professional and managerial workers during the twenty-five years (see Figure 7.3). In 1975 the proportion was nearly 42 per cent, which is not easy to explain except in terms of sampling or other error, but from 1976 to 1984 women comprised less than 30 per cent of the inflow in most years. After a period of fluctuation in the mid-eighties, they were consistently a third or more of the annual inflow. In 1985 and in four years during the 1990s, they were over 40 per cent. When flows are aggregated for five-year periods (Table 7.3), the proportion of women in the inflow 1995-9 is seen to be the higher than in any preceding period.

Figure 7.3: Inflows of professional and managerial workers, by sex 1975-1999



Source: IPS

Table 7.3: Unadjusted figures; IPS – inflows of professional and managerial by sex, five-year groups 1975-99 (thousands)

	Total	Males	%	Females	%
1975-1979	242.0	163.5	67.6	78.4	32.4
1980-1984	246.9	179.0	72.5	67.9	27.5
1985-1989	341.9	222.7	65.1	119.1	34.8
1990-1994	380.4	238.5	62.7	141.9	37.3
1995-1999	516.2	313.9	60.8	202.3	39.2
Total	1727.4	1117.6	64.7	609.6	35.3

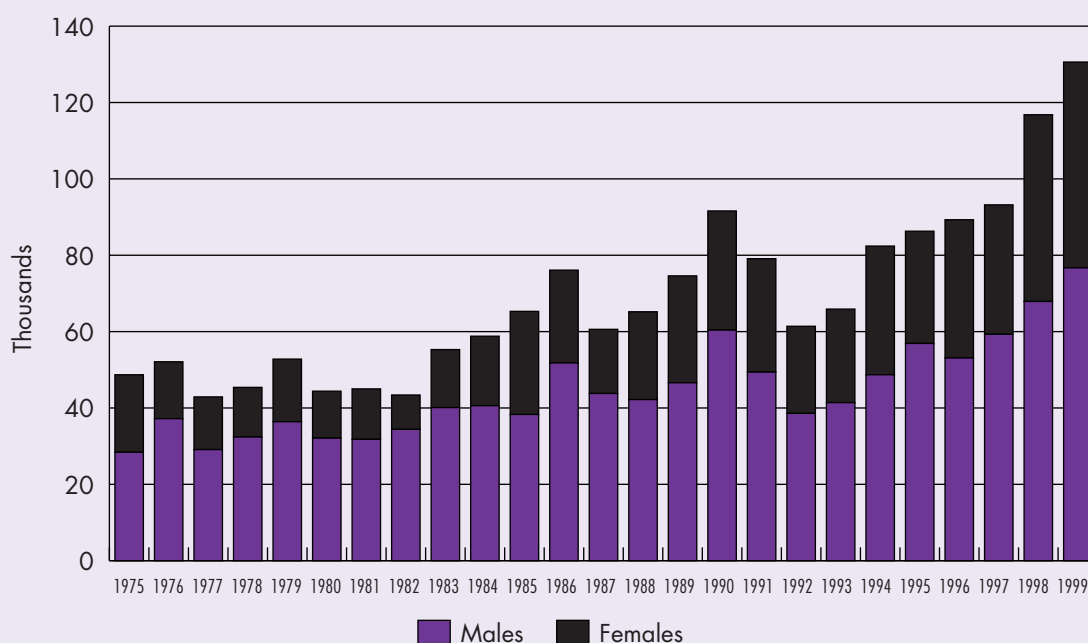
Source: IPS

There has also been an overall trend of increase in the proportion of women in the outflow of professional and managerial workers (see Figure 7.4) Before 1983, the female proportion was below 30 per cent every year, as well as in 1985-6. From the late 'eighties, women were consistently a third or more of the annual

outflow. In 1987 and in four years during the 1990s, they were over 40 per cent of the outflow. However, looking at five-year periods (Table 7.4), the proportion of women in the outflow was highest in 1990-4 and somewhat lower in 1995-9.

Over the twenty-five year period as a whole, women have on average comprised 35.3 per cent per annum of the total inflow of professional and managerial workers and 34.4 per cent of the outflow. In just over half the years, they have formed a higher proportion of the inflow than of the outflow, whilst in just under half, the reverse has been the case.

Figure 7.4: Outflows of professional and managerial workers, by sex 1975-1999



Source: IPS

Table 7.4: Unadjusted figures; IPS – outflows of professional and managerial by sex, five-year groups 1975-99 (thousands)

	Total	Males	%	Females	%
1975-1979	309.6	223.5	72.2	86.2	27.8
1980-1984	299.7	210.6	70.3	88.8	29.6
1985-1989	332.1	219.3	66.0	112.8	34.0
1990-1994	367.1	215.1	58.6	152.1	41.4
1995-1999	407.4	257.0	63.1	150.4	36.9
Total	1715.9	1125.5	65.6	590.3	34.4

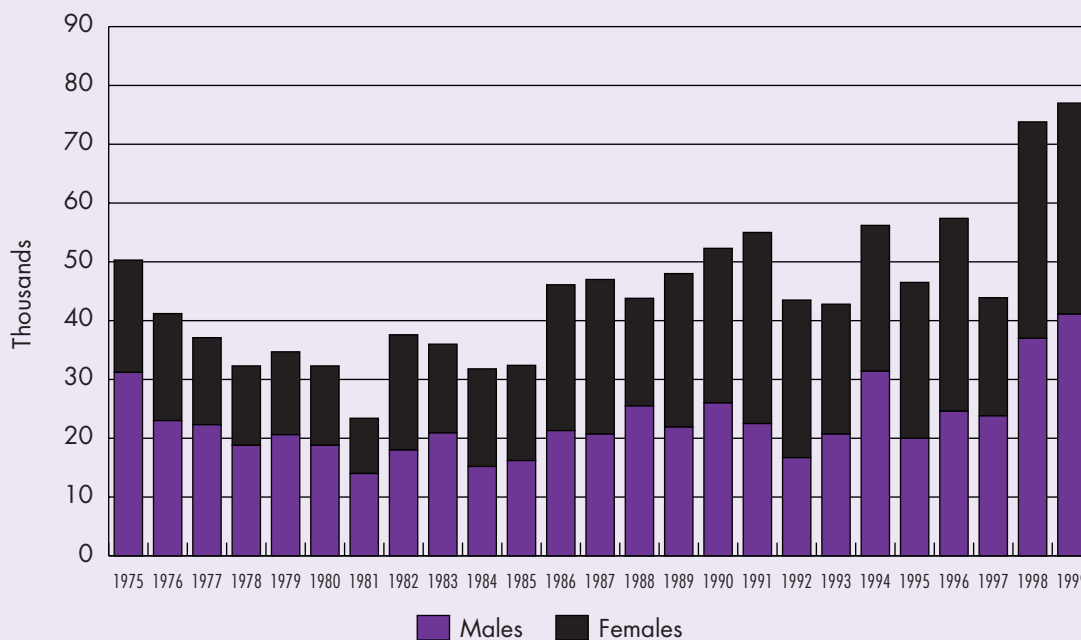
Source: IPS

In the early 1990s, the proportion of women in the outflow was consistently higher than in the inflow, whereas in the late 1990s, the opposite was true. For the period 1990-4, women were 37.3 per cent of the inflow of professional and managerial workers and 41.4 per cent of the outflow. For the period 1995-9, they were 39.2 per cent of the inflow but only 36.9 per cent of the outflow.

7.2.4 Manual and clerical workers

Since the early 'eighties, women have formed a higher proportion of the inflow of manual and clerical workers than was previously the case (see Figure 7.5). However, there has been no sustained trend of increase in this proportion. Before 1982, women comprised 40 per cent or less of the inflow. Between 1982 and 1996, the proportion lay between 50 per cent and 59 per cent in most years (over 60% in 1992). Between 1997 and 1999, it has been in the 45 per cent-50 per cent range. When flows are aggregated into five-year periods (Table 7.5), the proportion of women in the inflow can be seen at its highest in 1990-4, but the proportions in 1985-9 and 1995-9 were not very different.

Figure 7.5: Inflows of manual and clerical workers, by sex 1975-1999



Source: IPS

Table 7.5: Unadjusted figures; IPS - Inflows of manual and clerical by sex, five-year groups 1975-99 (thousands)

	Total	Males	%	Females	%
1975-1979	195.6	115.9	59.3	79.7	40.7
1980-1984	161.1	86.9	53.9	74.2	46.1
1985-1989	217.1	105.6	48.6	111.7	51.5
1990-1994	250.1	117.3	46.9	132.5	53.0
1995-1999	298.7	146.5	49.0	152.1	50.9
Total	1122.6	572.2	51.0	550.2	49.0

Source: IPS

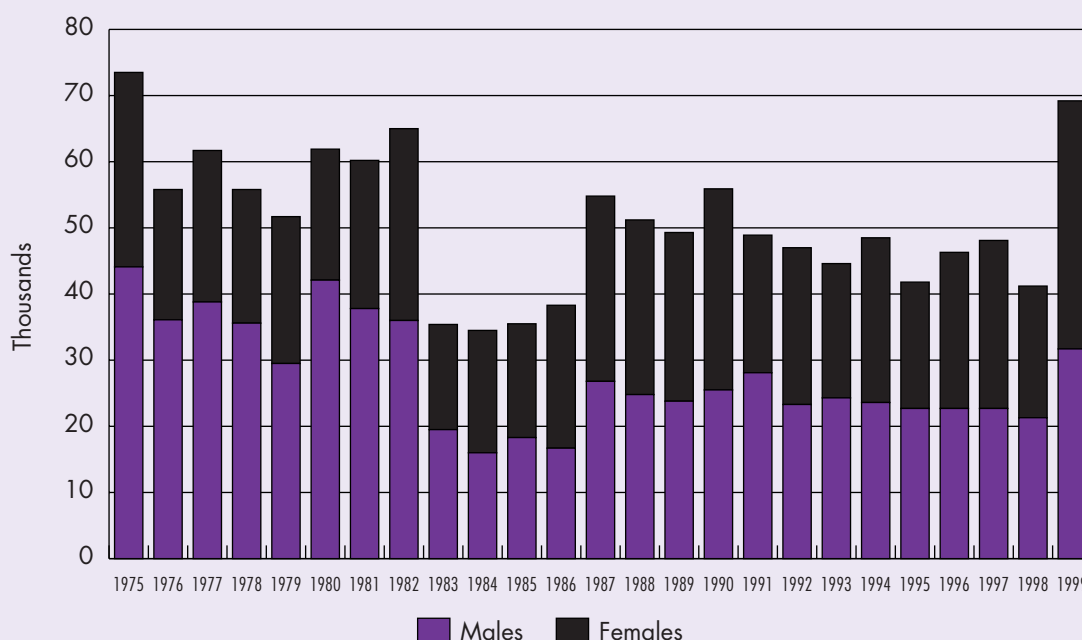
In respect of the outflow of manual and clerical workers, the picture is similar though not identical. Since the early 'eighties, women have formed a higher proportion of the outflow of clerical and manual workers than previously but there has been no sustained trend of increase (see Figure 7.6). Before 1982, the proportion of women was 40 per cent or below. Since 1982, it has wavered year-on-year, mainly in the 45 per cent-55 per

cent range. Looking at five-year periods (Table 7.6), the proportion of women in the outflow was highest in 1985-9, but the proportions were not very different in 1990-4 and 1995-9.

Over the whole twenty-five year period, women have on average comprised 49 per cent per annum of the total inflow of manual and clerical workers and 45.8 per cent of the outflow. In three years out of five, the proportion of women has been higher in the inflow than in the outflow.

This has been precisely the situation in the 1990s, with no particular pattern or trend. Looking at aggregate five-year periods, for the period 1990-4 women were 53 per cent of the inflow of manual and clerical workers and 49 per cent of the outflow. For the period 1995-9, they were 50.9 per cent of the inflow and 51 per cent of the outflow.

Figure 7.6: Outflows of manual and clerical workers, by sex 1975-1999



Source: IPS

Table 7.6: Unadjusted figures; IPS - outflows of manual and clerical by sex, five-year groups 1975-99 (thousands)

	Total	Males	%	Females	%
1975-1979	298.7	184.1	61.6	114.4	38.3
1980-1984	257.0	151.4	58.9	105.6	41.1
1985-1989	229.2	110.4	48.2	118.7	51.8
1990-1994	244.8	124.8	51.0	120.1	49.1
1995-1999	246.2	121.1	49.2	125.5	51.0
Total	1275.9	691.8	54.2	584.3	45.8

Source: IPS

7.2.5 The net flows

The foregoing analysis has examined the proportions of men and women in the inflows and outflows of employed persons. This section considers how these inflows and outflows have, in combination, produced net losses and gains of population and the sex breakdown of the net flows.

As Table 7.7 shows, men significantly outnumbered women in the large net losses of employed people in the decade 1975-84 – by three to one in 1975-9 and by nearly two to one in 1980-4. The small net loss in 1985-9 was also disproportionately male and the net gain in 1990-4 even more so. However, the substantial net inflow in 1995-9 was much more balanced, with just over a half being male and just under a half female.

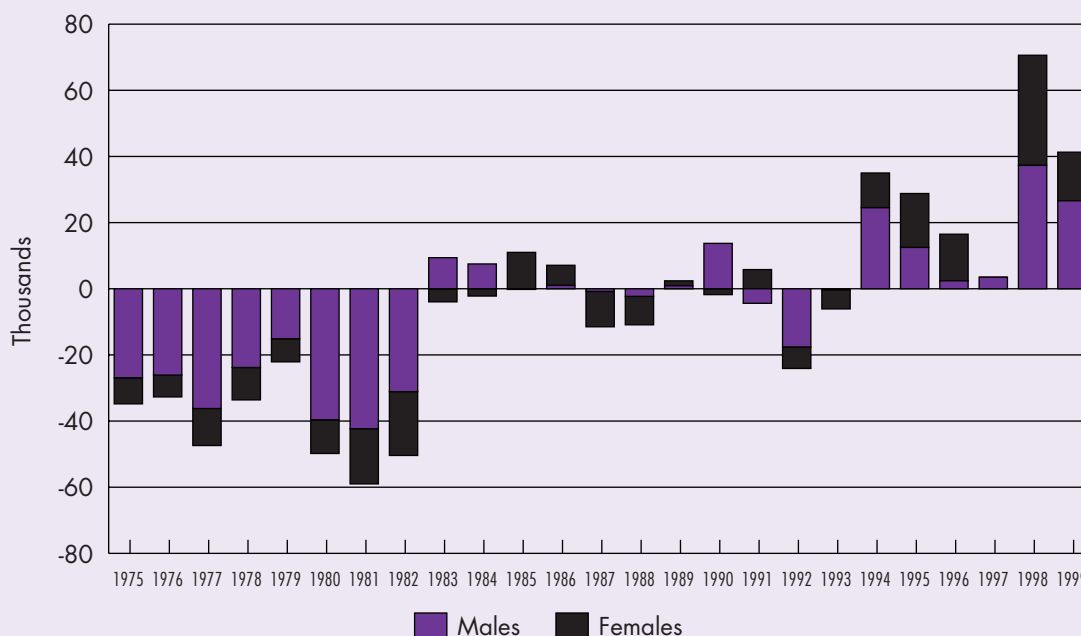
It should be noted that the five-year periods conceal major annual variations in the net flows of both males and females and the relationship between the two. For example, in 1990 there was a net inflow of men but a net outflow of women, in 1991 the reverse was true and in 1992-3 there was a differing net outflow of both. From 1994 onwards, there was an annual net inflow of both but the ratios were very variable, with women outnumbering men in 1995 and 1996 (see Figure 7.7).

Table 7.7: Unadjusted figures; IPS – net flows of all employed migrants by sex, five-year groups 1975-99 (thousands)

	Total	Males	Females
1975-1979	-170.7	-128.1	-42.5
1980-1984	-148.7	-96.1	-52.3
1985-1989	-2.3	-1.4	-0.7
1990-1994	18.6	15.9	2.2
1995-1999	161.3	82.3	78.4
Total	-141.8	-127.4	-14.9

Source: IPS

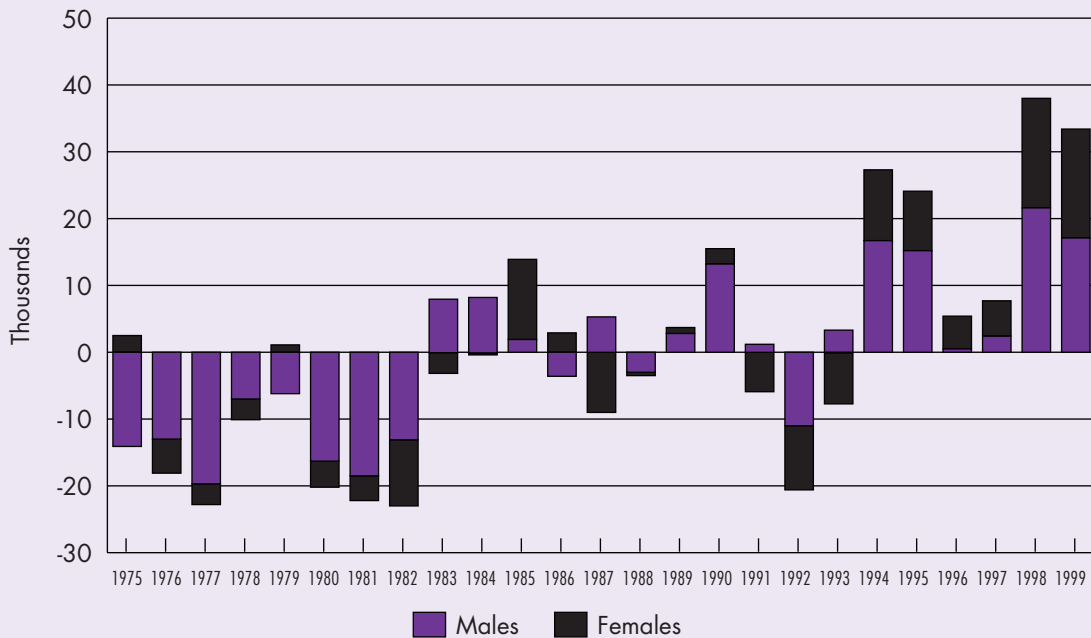
Figure 7.7: Net flows of employed migrants, by sex 1975-1999



Source: IPS

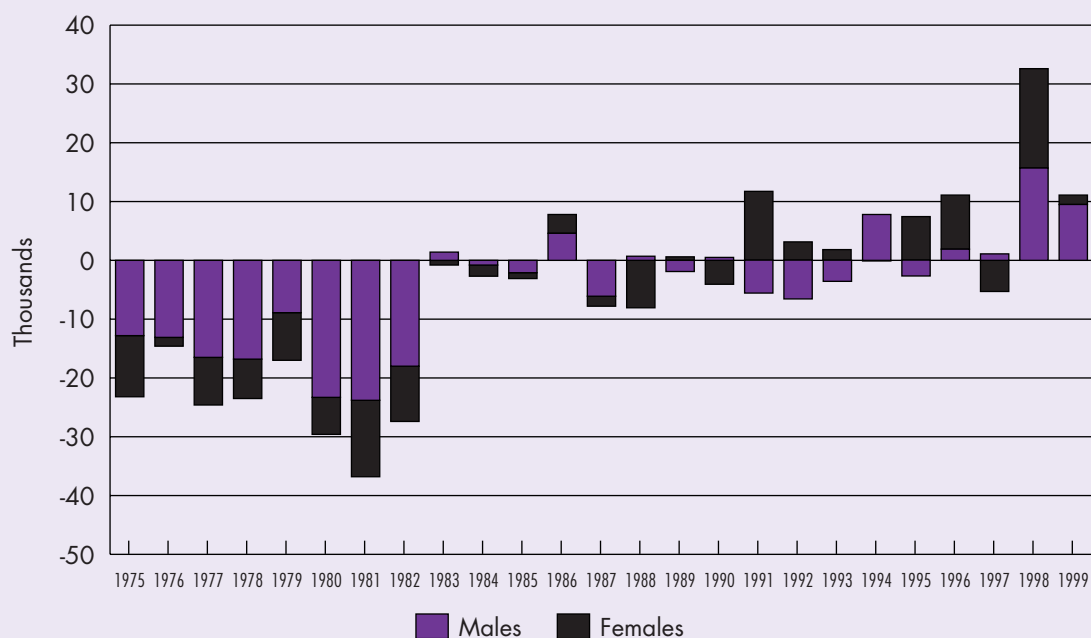
The variations described above in respect of the total employed population reflect the high degree of annual variation evident in the separate figures for professional and managerial workers and for manual and clerical workers (see Figures 7.8 and 7.9). Taking the last five years (1995-9) together, it can be seen that in both occupational groups the ratio of men to women in the net inflow was close to 50:50, with slightly more men among professional and managerial workers and slightly more women among manual and clericals. However, if the whole decade 1990-9 is aggregated, men outnumber women by two to one in the former group, whereas the opposite is true for the latter.

Figure 7.8: Net flows of professional and managerial workers by sex, 1975-1999



Source: IPS

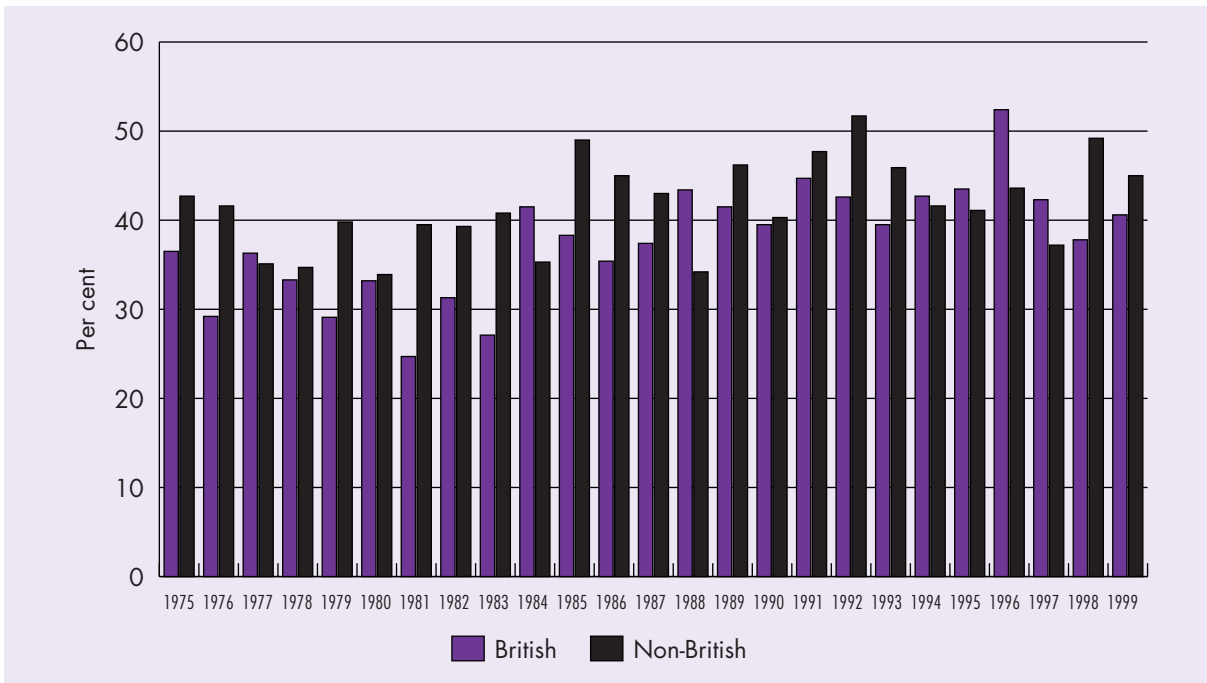
Figure 7.9: Net flows of manual and clerical workers by sex, 1975-1999



Source: IPS

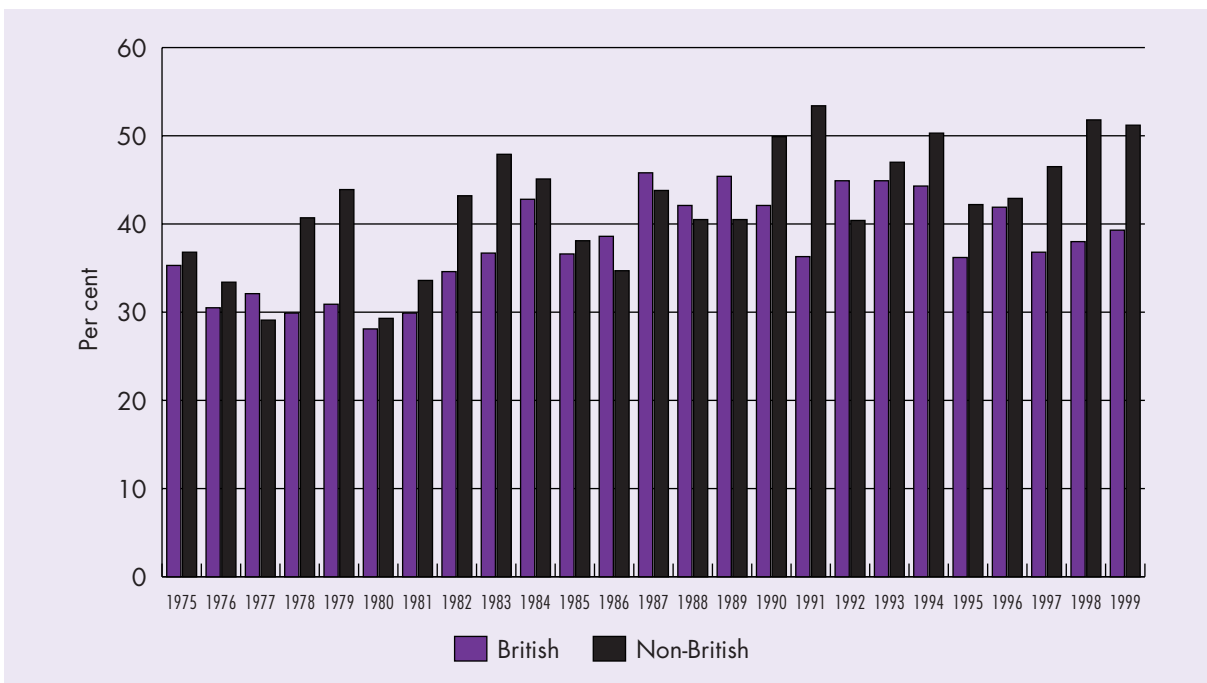
7.3 Differences between British and non-British citizens

Figure 7.10: The proportion of women in British and Non-British inflows of employed migrants 1975-1999



Source: IPS

Figure 7.11: The proportion of women in British and Non-British outflows of employed migrants 1975-1999



Source: IPS

7.3.1 An overview

Over the last twenty-five years, there have been differences in the proportions of men and women among employed migrants belonging to different citizenship groups (see Figures 7.10 and 7.11). Among those entering the country during the period 1975-99, British citizens comprised 61.5 per cent males and 38.5 per cent females, whereas non-British citizens comprised 57.5 per cent males and 42.5 per cent females. Among those leaving the country, British citizens comprised 62.5 per cent males and 37.5 per cent females, whereas non-British citizens comprised 57.0 per cent males and 43.0 per cent females. Because of the big differences in actual numbers of British and non-British citizens entering and leaving the country at different times, these differences in the sex breakdown of the two groups had a bigger impact on the male/female composition of net flows than is immediately apparent from looking at the relative proportions of each in the total gross flows.

Overall there has been a gradual convergence over the 1975-99 period in the proportions of men and women in the inflows of British and non-British workers. In 1990-4, women formed nearly 42 per cent of the British inflow and 45.0 per cent of the non-British. In 1995-9, they formed nearly 43 per cent of the British inflow and nearly 44 per cent of the non-British. There were only four years in the whole period 1975-1989 in which females constituted a higher proportion of the British inflow than of the non-British inflow, yet they were also a higher proportion of the British than the non-British in the four years 1994-7.

There were two examples in the 1990s where, for the first time, women comprised more than half of the inflow in one or other citizenship group. They were 51.7 per cent of the non-British inflow in 1992 and 52.4 per cent of the British inflow in 1996.

By contrast with the picture presented above, the difference between the composition of the British and non-British outflows has increased rather than decreased over time. In 1990-4, women formed 42.4 per cent of the British outflow and 48.4 per cent of the non-British outflow. In 1995-9, they formed 38.6 per cent of the British outflow and 47.9 per cent of the non-British outflow. There were four years in the 1975-89 period in which females constituted a higher proportion of the British than of the non-British outflow, all in the late 'eighties, but only in 1992 was this the case in the 'nineties.

There were four years in the 1990s where, for the first time, women comprised more than half the outflow in one or other group – all of the instances relating to the non-British group. Women were 53.4 per cent of the non-British outflow in 1991, 50.3 per cent in 1994, 51.8 per cent in 1998 and 51.2 per cent in 1999.

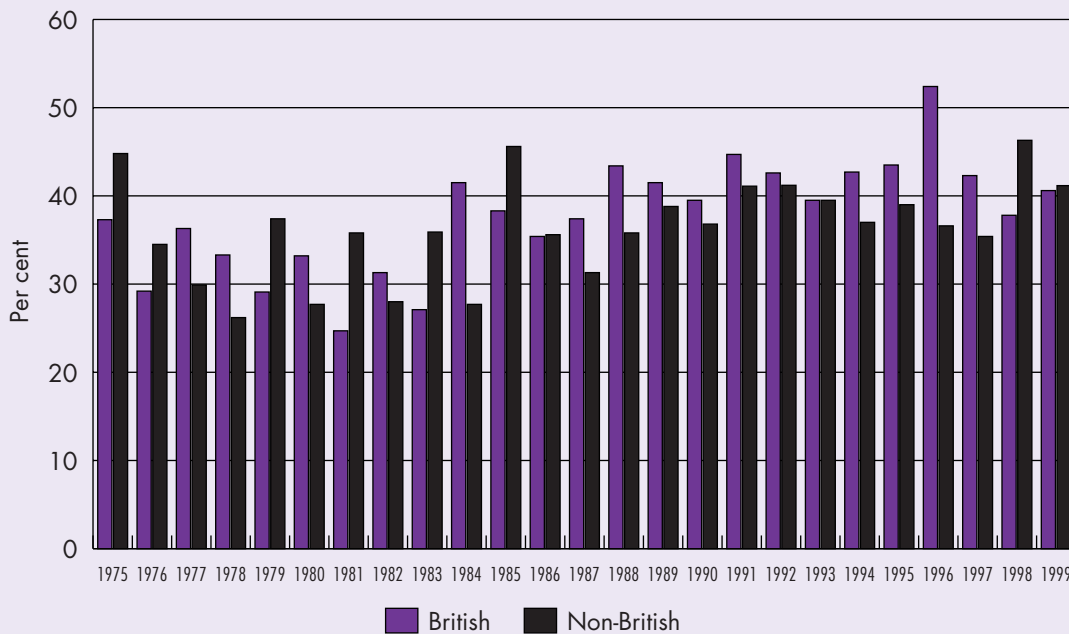
7.3.2 British and non-British: professional and managerial

If professional and managerial workers are studied separately, it can be seen that over the 1975-99 period, the inflow of British citizens comprised 67.5 per cent males and 32.5 per cent females, whereas non-British citizens comprised 62.4 per cent males and 37.6 per cent females. Among those leaving the country, British citizens comprised 67 per cent males and 33 per cent females, whereas non-British citizens comprised 58.2 per cent males and 41.9 per cent females. Broadly speaking, there was a higher proportion of women among the inflows and outflows of both British and non-British in the latter part of the period compared to the early part (see Figure 7.12).

Between 1975 and 1979, the proportions of males and females which made up the professional and managerial inflow were not very different for British migrants than for the non-British. The proportion of women then fell more sharply among the former than among the latter but, since the mid-eighties, there has

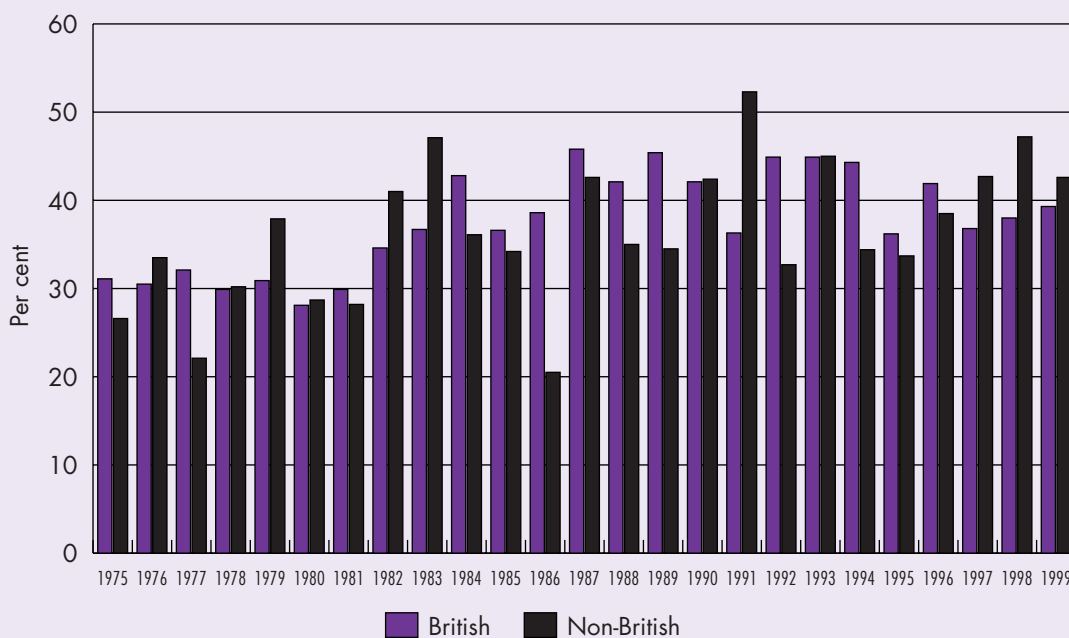
been an increase in both and a growing convergence between them. In 1990-4, women were 32.9 per cent of the British inflow and 37.4 per cent of the non-British. In 1995-9, they were 37.4 per cent of the British inflow and 40.3 per cent of the non-British. In 1994, 1996-7 and 1999, females constituted a higher proportion of the British inflow than of the non-British inflow. However, there were no examples of women in either group comprising more than half of the inflow.

Figure 7.12: The proportion of women in British and non-British inflows of professional and managerial workers 1975-1999



Source: IPS

Figure 7.13: The proportion of women in British and non-British outflows of professional and managerial workers 1975-1999



Source: IPS

In the case of the professional and managerial outflow, there was no consistent trend of the kind just described. In 1990-4, women were 40.9 per cent of the British outflow and 42.4 per cent of the non-British. In 1995-9, they were 34.3 per cent of the British outflow (similar to 1985-9) and 41.9 per cent of the non-British. In 1992-4, females constituted a higher proportion of the British outflow than of the non-British outflow. There was a single case of women forming more than half of the outflow – they were 52.3 per cent of the non-British outflow in 1991 (see Figure 7.13).

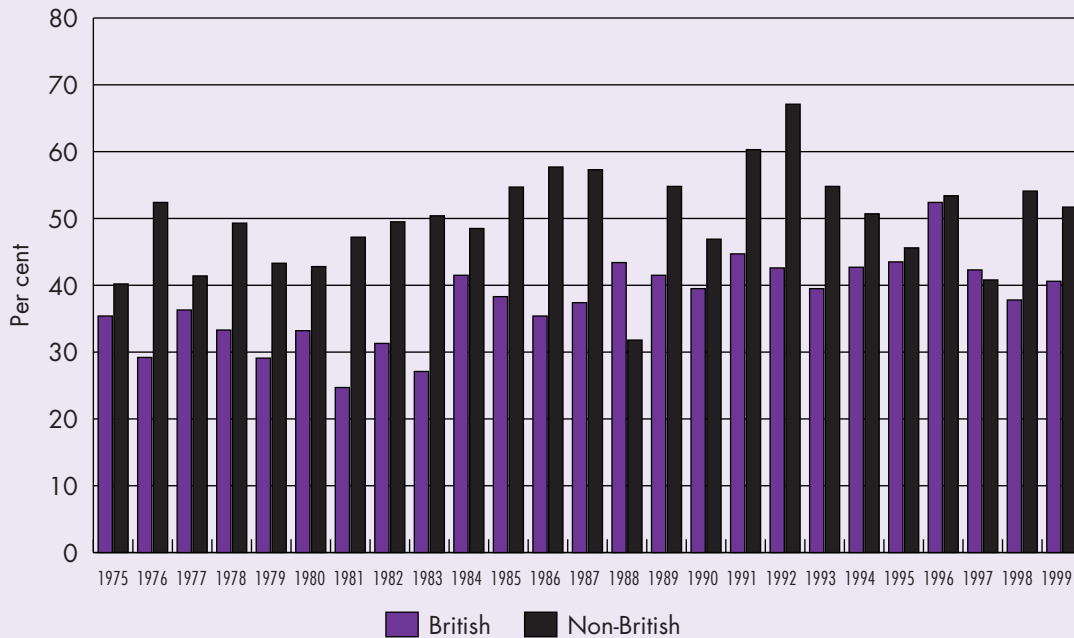
7.3.3 British and non-British: manual and clerical

Among manual and clerical workers over the 1975-99 period, the inflow of British citizens comprised 52.5 per cent males and 47.5 per cent females, whereas non-British citizens comprised 49.7 per cent males and 50.3 per cent females. Among those leaving the country, British citizens comprised 56.7 per cent males and 43.3 per cent females, whereas non-British citizens comprised 48.3 per cent males and 51.8 per cent females. Overall, there was a higher proportion of women among the inflows and outflows of both British and non-British in the latter part of the period than in the early part (see Figures 7.14 and 7.15).

Comparing the relative proportions of women in the British and non-British inflows for different five year periods, there appeared to be an overall trend of convergence in the 'eighties followed by divergence and then convergence again in the 'nineties. In 1990-4, women were 50.5 per cent of the British inflow and 55.5 per cent of the non-British. In 1995-9, they were 51.9 per cent of the British inflow (the same as in 1985-9) and 50.3 per cent of the non-British inflow (similar to 1985-9). There were seven years, including 1995-7, when females constituted a higher proportion of the British inflow than of the non-British.

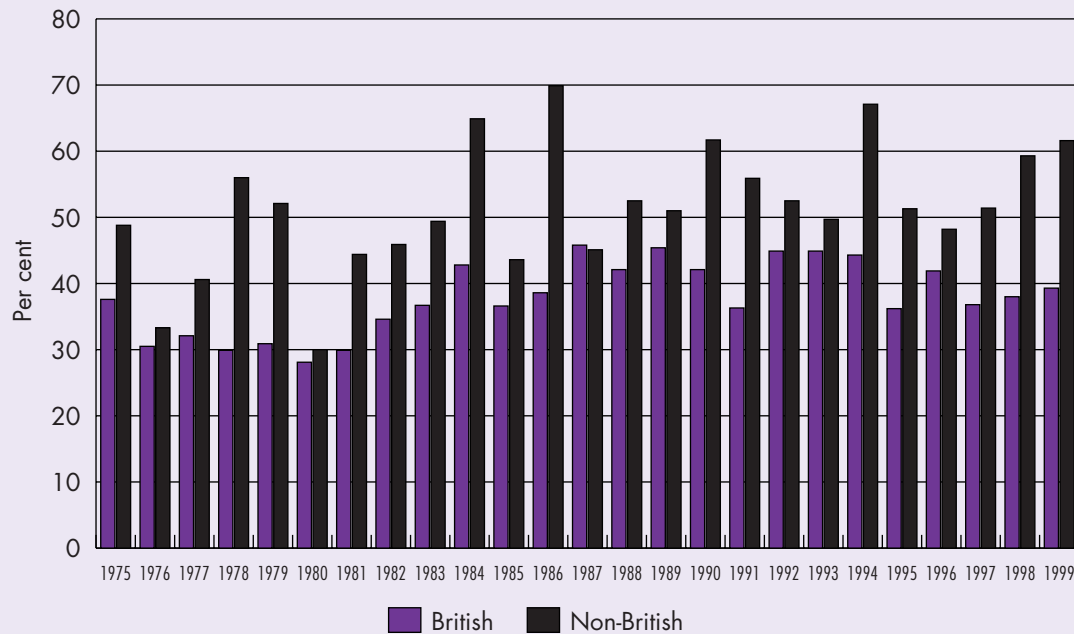
There were a number of single years in respect of British inflows, and even more so in respect of non-British inflows, where women comprised over half of the manual and clerical workers. There were also years where the proportion of women in one or other group exceeded 60 per cent. Women were 60.3 per cent of the non-British inflow in 1991 and 67.1 per cent in 1992; they were 69.2 per cent of the British inflow in 1995 and 63.9 per cent in 1996.

Figure 7.14: The proportion of women in British and non-British inflows of manual and clerical workers 1975-1999



Source: IPS

Figure 7.15: The proportion of women in British and non-British outflows of manual and clerical workers 1975-1999



Source: IPS

In the case of the manual and clerical outflow, the overall trends were somewhat similar to the inflow, except that in the 'nineties the differences between the British and non-British outflows were substantially different. In 1990-4, women were 44.6 per cent of the British outflow and 57.5 per cent of the non-British. In 1995-9,

they were 47.2 per cent of the British outflow and 55.5 per cent of the non-British. However, there were seven years, including 1996 and 1997, when females constituted a higher proportion of the British outflow than of the non-British outflow.

It was only among non-British citizens that women were ever more than 60 per cent of the outflow of manual and clerical workers – 64.9 per cent in 1984, 69.9 per cent in 1986, 61.7 per cent in 1990, 67.1 per cent in 1994 and 61.6 per cent in 1999.

7.4 Conclusions

During the 1990s, the proportion of women in the inflow and outflow of employed migrants was higher than in the late 'seventies and early 'eighties. This was true of professional and managerial workers, manual and clerical workers, British citizens and non-British citizens.

In the earlier part of the period 1975-99, the proportion of women in the total inflow and in the total outflow was generally below 40 per cent. In the late 'eighties and early 'nineties, the female proportion was generally above 40 per cent in both flows, though never as high as 50 per cent. However, this trend of increase has not been smooth and it conceals significant differences between different groups of workers and between British and non-British citizens.

In the case of professional and managerial workers, the proportion of women among those entering and leaving the country in the first decade of the period was generally below 30 per cent, whereas in the final decade, it was in the region of 40 per cent. In the case of manual and clerical workers, women were 40 per cent or less of the flows in the early years and a higher but varying proportion thereafter – from 1982 onwards, they were generally between 50 per cent-59 per cent of the inflow and 45 per cent-55 per cent of the outflow.

Women have overall comprised a higher proportion of employed migrants among non-British citizens than among the British. However, there has been a gradual convergence in the proportions of women found in the inflows, whereas the difference in the sex composition of the British and non-British outflows has tended to increase.

Looking at occupational groups by citizenship, the trends and patterns of change are different for professional and managerial workers as compared to manual and clerical workers. It is evident that the convergence noted above in the female proportion of the inflows, British and non-British, occurred among professional and managerial workers but there was no consistent trend of this kind in the outflows.

In the case of manual and clerical workers, there was no overall, long-term trend in the relative proportions of women among British and non-British citizens, in respect of either inflows or outflows. However, during the 1990s there was a much closer similarity in the sex breakdown of British and non-British migrants entering the country than there was in the case of those going out, where women formed a much higher proportion of the non-British than of the British.

In the first five years of the period, there was a large net loss of employed people with men outnumbering women three to one. In the last five years, there was a net inflow with a male/female ratio close to 50:50.

There has not been time to investigate in depth all the underlying causes of the trends and patterns described above. However, in light of wider trends in work and society, it seems fairly certain that the increased proportion of women in the flows of employed migrants is related partly to the increased employment of

spouses/female partners moving with employed males and to a larger volume of independent movement by working women. The changing composition of migration flows in terms of occupation and of citizenship are also factors to be considered.

Taken together, the increase in the gross volume of movement into and out of the UK and the increase in the proportion of women mean that the actual numbers of women joining and leaving the labour market through international migration each year are very substantially higher today than in the 1970s. The actual number of employed women (354,000) entering the UK in the five years 1995-9 was greater than the total entering the country in the ten years 1975-84. The actual number (275,000) leaving the UK in 1995-9 was 70 per cent of the total leaving in 1975-84.

The total inflow of employed women in 1995-9 was 124 per cent higher than in 1975-9, whereas the total inflow of men was only 65 per cent higher. The total outflow of employed women in 1995-9 was 38 per cent higher in 1995-9 whereas the total outflow of men was seven per cent lower. Such trends of change clearly have implications for the make-up of the labour force in some regions and employment sectors in the UK.

8 Changes in the citizenship of employed migrants (non-British) 1975-99

Research questions

- What changes have taken place in the flows of employed migrants belonging to different citizenship groups?
- Have trends of change been the same for different occupational groups?

Main findings

- Citizens of the developed world, and notably of the Old Commonwealth and EU/EFTA, have formed a high and increasing proportion of workers both entering and leaving the UK since the mid-eighties. These two groups together comprised over half the incoming professional and managerial workers and nearly 70 per cent of the manual and clerical inflow in 1995-9.
- Citizens from developing countries have become a smaller proportion of the total inflow than they were in the late 'seventies / early 'eighties but also a dwindling part of the outflow. This means that, although they appear currently to comprise only a quarter of professional and managerial workers entering the UK, they are more likely to stay than those from more affluent countries.
- In terms of absolute numbers, every citizenship group recorded its highest net inflow in 1995-9 and in every group, professional and managerial workers predominated.

8.1 Introduction

This chapter uses IPS data to examine the changes that have taken place in the citizenship breakdown of non-British migrant workers over the twenty-five year period 1975-99. It analyses changes which have taken place in the flows of employed migrants belonging to different citizenship groups and considers whether patterns and trends of change have been the same irrespective of type of employment.

It analyses information on citizenship and the regular occupation of individuals before they migrated into/out of the UK, where 'regular occupation' was categorised as 'professional and managerial' or 'manual and clerical'. The definitions given and observations made at the start of Chapter 4 need to be borne in mind in interpreting the following data, also the reservations made elsewhere about small sample size.

Special tabulations have been provided by ONS for the purposes of this study, with data aggregated into five-year periods, using the following breakdown into six citizenship groups:

Old Commonwealth: Australia, Canada, New Zealand, Republic of South Africa.

EU and EFTA: 14 EU countries excluding the UK, plus Iceland, Liechtenstein, Norway and Switzerland.

Eastern and Other Europe: Albania, Andorra, Bulgaria, Cyprus, Hungary, Malta, Monaco, Poland, Romania, San Marino, Turkey and all the constituent states of former USSR, Yugoslavia and Czechoslovakia.

Other Foreign Developed Countries: Hong Kong, Israel, Japan, Singapore, South Korea, Taiwan, USA.

Indian Subcontinent: Bangladesh, India, Pakistan, Sri Lanka.

Rest of the World: Countries not included above, including Africa other than South Africa, Caribbean, South America, Middle East, Rest of Asia and Oceania.

The following analysis is in three main sections dealing separately with total flows of migrant workers, flows of professional and managerial workers and flows of manual and clerical workers. Each section looks at trends of change in inflows, outflows and net flows of the six citizenship groups over the twenty-five year period and change in the relative size of the groups over time.

8.2 Citizenship of non-British migrant workers 1975-99

8.2.1 Inflows of migrant workers

8.2.1.1 Total numbers – inflow

The total numbers of migrant workers in each citizenship group entering the country between 1975 and 1999 are shown in Table 8.1. Out of a total inflow of over one and a half million, the largest groups were citizens of the Old Commonwealth (420,100) and EU/EFTA (386,500). The next largest groups were Rest of the World (283,900) and Other Foreign Developed Countries (247,500). The smallest aggregate inflows comprised citizens of the Indian subcontinent (118,000) and East and other Europe (53,900).

Table 8.1: Inflows of employed migrants by citizenship group; five-year periods 1975-1999 (thousands)

	1975-1979	1980-1984	1985-1989	1990-1994	1995-1999	1975-1999
Old Commonwealth	48.1	44.7	81.8	92.0	153.5	420.1
EU/EFTA	44.8	47.3	81.2	78.1	135.1	386.5
East & other Europe	3.8	4.2	8.6	13.8	23.5	53.9
Other Foreign Developed Countries	27.0	36.8	53.7	59.3	70.7	247.5
Bangladesh, Pakistan, India, Sri Lanka	20.7	20.8	20.4	22.1	34.8	118.8
Rest of World	32.7	54.9	53.0	68.9	74.4	283.9
Total Inflow	177.1	208.7	298.7	334.2	492.0	1510.7

Source: IPS

8.2.1.2 Trends of change in inflow of each group

As Table 8.1 shows, the inflow of employed people who were non-British citizens increased substantially over the period 1975-1999. When this inflow is broken down by citizenship groups, some noteworthy features are evident:

- in every group, the highest recorded inflow was in the 1995-9 period.
- in every case except the EU/EFTA, the second highest inflow was in 1990-4, and the EU/EFTA figure was only slightly higher in 1985-9 than in 1990-4.
- in only one group was there a continuous trend of increase throughout.

The profiles of change in the inflows of each citizenship group (see Table 8.2) illustrate the last point. Where the term 'similar flows' is used, it means that the difference between the size of recorded flows in two different periods was less than 1000 people. Where an increase/decrease of 25 per cent or above was recorded, the percentage is stated.

None of the trends of change summarized in Table 8.2 were identical. There were similarities between the Old Commonwealth and EU/EFTA groups, with inflows increasing substantially in the latter half of the 'eighties and again in the late 'nineties. However, there was a decrease in the Old Commonwealth inflow in the early 'eighties when the EU/EFTA flow was growing and a slight drop in the EU/EFTA inflow in the early 'nineties when the Old Commonwealth inflow was growing.

Table 8.2: Trends of change in inflows of employed migrants 1975-99

Trends of Change in Inflow 1975-99	
Old Commonwealth	Decline in inflow 1980-84, then continuous increases from 1985 onwards (83% increase in 1985-89, 67% in 1995-99).
EU/EFTA	Continuous increases to 1989, slight drop 1990-94, increase 1995-99 (72% increase 1985-89, 73% in 1995-99).
East and Other Europe	Similar inflows 1975-79 and 1980-84, then continuous increases from 1985 onwards (105% increase in 1985-89, 60% in 1990-94 and 70% in 1995-99).
Other Foreign Developed Countries	Continuous increases 1975-99 (36% in 1980-84, 46% in 1985-89).
Bangladesh, Pakistan, India, Sri Lanka	Similar inflows up to 1989, slight increase 1990-94, large increase 1995-99 (57%).
Rest of World	Increase in 1980-84, slight drop in 1985-89, then further increases in the 1990s (68% increase in 1980-84, 30% in 1990-94).

Source: IPS

The inflow of East and Other Europe citizens was stable during the first ten years of the period but the large increase in 1985-9 was followed by two more in succession, reflecting events in countries of origin.

The flow from Other Foreign Developed Countries showed a trend of continuous growth throughout the period, with the largest increases during the 'eighties. In sharp contrast, the inflow from the Indian sub-continent seemed to maintain a fairly constant level until the last decade, with a slight increase in 1990-4 and a large one in 1995-9. The inflow from the Rest of the World was unique in having a large increase in the early 'eighties and another in the early 'nineties.

The preceding analysis looks at broad trends of change in the inflows of each citizenship group. However, it must be remembered that the actual numbers of people in each group differed enormously and that sharp rates of increase, for example in the East and Other Europe group, did not necessarily mean vast numbers of migrants.

On the other hand, from the point of view of public perception and the localised impact of different groups, even relatively small changes in numbers can be highly significant. Thus, though the number of migrant workers from East and Other Europe was still relatively small even in 1995-9, it had increased by over 500 per cent since the late 'seventies and was bigger in absolute terms than the numbers who had arrived from the Indian subcontinent in 1975-9.

This, and other changes in the inflows of different groups at the beginning and end of the twenty-five year period, is illustrated in Table 8.3. There was an increase of over 200 per cent in the inflows from the Old Commonwealth and the EU/EFTA, of over 160 per cent from Other Foreign Developed Countries and of nearly 130 per cent from Rest of the World. In only one case was there an increase of less than a 100 per cent: the inflow from the Indian Subcontinent was only 68 per cent higher in 1995-9 than it had been in 1975-9. Contrary to common perceptions, the biggest contributors to the increase in migrant workers were countries in the developed world.

Table 8.3: Inflows of employed migrants by citizenship group 1975-9 and 1995-9 (thousands)

	1975-79	1995-99	Difference	Percentage change
Old Commonwealth	48.1	153.5	105.4	219.1
EU/EFTA	44.8	135.1	90.3	201.6
East/Other Europe	3.8	23.5	19.7	518.4
Other Foreign Developed Countries	27.0	70.7	43.7	161.9
Bangladesh/Pakistan/India/Sri Lanka	20.7	34.8	14.1	68.1
Rest of World	32.7	74.4	41.7	127.5
Total inflow	177.1	492.0	314.9	177.8

Source: IPS

8.2.1.3 Change in the composition of total inflows

Table 8.4 shows the percentage of the total inflow represented by each citizenship group in each five year period from 1975 to 1999. It can be seen that the overall picture did not change dramatically over time but there were some interesting trends and fluctuations.

Table 8.4: Percentage of total inflows of employed migrants in each citizenship group in each five-year period, 1975-99

	1975-79	1980-84	1985-89	1990-94	1995-99	1975-99
Old Commonwealth	27.0	21.0	27.0	28.0	31.0	28.0
EU/EFTA	25.0	23.0	27.0	23.0	27.0	26.0
East and Other Europe	2.0	2.0	3.0	4.0	5.0	4.0
Other Foreign Developed Countries	15.0	18.0	18.0	18.0	14.0	16.0
Bangladesh, Pakistan, India, Sri Lanka	12.0	10.0	7.0	7.0	7.0	8.0
Rest of World	18.0	26.0	18.0	21.0	15.0	19.0

Source: IPS

By 1995-9, the proportions represented by the two smallest groups had converged much more closely together, as the proportion from East and Other Europe increased and the proportion from the Indian Subcontinent decreased. The Rest of the World showed the most marked fluctuations and, like Other Foreign Developed Countries, was a smaller proportion of the inflow in 1995-9 than it had been in any previous five-year period. By contrast, the proportions of the inflow comprising citizens of the Old Commonwealth and the EU/EFTA were as high or higher in 1995-9 than at any previous period.

Table 8.5: Citizenship groups ranked according to size of inflow of employed migrants in each five-year period, 1975-99

	1975-79	1980-84	1985-89	1990-94	1995-99
Old Commonwealth	1	3	1	1	1
EU/EFTA	2	2	2	2	2
East and Other Europe	6	6	6	6	6
Other Foreign Developed Countries	4	4	3	4	4
Bangladesh, Pakistan, India, Sri Lanka	5	5	5	5	5
Rest of World	3	1	4	3	3

Source: IPS

Table 8.5 ranks citizenship groups from biggest (number 1) to smallest (number 6) according to size of inflow in each of the five-year periods. Only in the 1980s was there any divergence from the consistent overall pattern. In the 1980-4 period, the large increase in the Rest of World inflow made it the biggest component of the total inflow at that time. In 1985-9, it sank to fourth position, just below Other Foreign Developed Countries. The difference between the two was very small, as it was between Old Commonwealth and EU/EFTA in this period.

8.2.2 Outflows of migrant workers

8.2.2.1 Total numbers – outflow

The total numbers of migrant workers in each citizenship group leaving the country between 1975 and 1999 are shown in Table 8.6. In a total outflow of 922,000, the largest groups were citizens of the EU/EFTA (307,000) and Old Commonwealth (266,000). The next largest groups were Other Foreign Developed Countries (162,000) and Rest of World (111,000). The smallest aggregate outflows comprised citizens of the Indian Subcontinent (38,600) and East and Other Europe (37,600).

Table 8.6: Outflows of employed migrants by citizenship group; five-year periods 1975-1999 (thousands)

	1975-1979	1980-1984	1985-1989	1990-1994	1995-1999	1975-1999
Old Commonwealth	36.2	39.9	50.6	58.4	80.5	265.6
EU/EFTA	38.9	38.2	56.4	72.2	101.2	306.9
East & other Europe	4.1	2.6	4.0	13.2	13.7	37.6
Other Foreign Developed Countries	20.9	26.6	36.0	43.4	35.4	162.3
Bangladesh, Pakistan, India, Sri Lanka	9.8	6.4	8.4	7.8	6.2	38.6
Rest of World	26.4	27.3	21.2	18.2	17.9	111.0
Total Outflow	136.3	141.0	176.6	213.2	254.9	922.0

Source: IPS

Table 8.7: Trends of change in outflows of employed migrants 1975-99

	Trends of Change in Outflow 1975-99
Old Commonwealth	Continuous increases in outflow 1975-99 (27% increase in 1985-89, 38% in 1995-99).
EU/EFTA	Similar outflows 1975-79 and 1980-84, then continuous increases from 1985 onwards (48% increase in 1985-89, 28% in 1990-94, 40% in 1995-99).
East and Other Europe	Decline in outflow 1980-84, increase in 1985-89 (numbers very small pre-1990). Increase (230%) in 1990-94, similar outflow in 1995-99.
Other Foreign Developed Countries	Continuous increases to 1994 (35% in 1985-89), then a decline 1995-99.
Bangladesh, Pakistan, India, Sri Lanka	Decline in outflow 1980-84, increase 1985-89, then decline in the 1990s (numbers small throughout).
Rest of World	Similar outflows 1975-79 and 1980-84, then a decline. Similar flows during the 1990s.

Source: IPS

8.2.2.2 Trends of change in outflow of each group

The outflow of employed people who were non-British citizens increased over the twenty-five year period, though nothing like as much as the inflow (see Table 8.7). When the outflow is broken down into citizenship groups, two notable features emerge:

- The overall trend in groups comprising the more developed countries – Old Commonwealth, EU/EFTA and Other Foreign Developed Countries – was one of strong, sustained increase in outflow, though there was a drop in outward migration of the last of these groups in 1995-9.
- Two groups including less developed countries – the Indian Subcontinent and the Rest of World – showed an overall trend of decline in outflow.

The Old Commonwealth group was the only one where the outflow of employed people increased continuously throughout the period. Trends in the Old Commonwealth and EU/EFTA groups were different at the start but similar from 1985 onwards.

The outflow of East and Other European citizens increased dramatically in the early 1990s and the same level of movement was sustained in 1995-9. By contrast, the outflow of citizens of Other Foreign Developed Countries increased steadily from 1975 onwards and then dropped in the final period.

Outflows of citizens from the Indian Subcontinent fluctuated at a low level throughout but were largest at the beginning of the period and smallest at the end. Outflows of citizens of Rest of World also showed some fluctuation but were markedly higher in the first decade than the last.

Table 8.8 focuses further on the differences in outflow of different groups in 1975-9 and 1995-9. The contrasts here are striking. Setting aside the large percentage increase in the outflow of citizens of East and other Europe, reflecting particular circumstances in countries of origin, the biggest growth in outward

migration was by citizens of the Old Commonwealth (over 120% increase) and EU/EFTA (160%). Other Foreign Developed Countries showed an increase of nearly 70 per cent. However, the Indian Subcontinent and Rest of the World groups had outflows that were around a third smaller in 1995-9 than in 1975-9.

Table 8.8: Outflows of employed migrants by citizenship group 1975-9 and 1995-9 (thousands)

	1975-79	1995-99	Difference	percentage change
Old Commonwealth	36.2	80.5	44.3	122.4
EU/EFTA	38.9	101.2	62.3	160.2
East/Other Europe	4.1	13.7	9.6	234.1
Other Foreign Developed Countries	20.9	35.4	14.5	69.4
Bangladesh/Pakistan/India/Sri Lanka	9.8	6.2	-3.6	-36.7
Rest of World	26.4	17.9	-8.5	-32.2
Total outflow	136.3	254.9	118.6	87.0

Source: IPS

8.2.2.3 Change in the composition of total outflows

Table 8.9 shows the percentage of the total outflow represented by each citizenship group during each five year period. There were some very significant changes over time in the relative proportions of each.

The percentage of EU/EFTA citizens increased markedly, notably in the last five years when it rose to 40 per cent. By contrast, there was a substantial decline in the proportion of Indian Subcontinent and Rest of World citizens in the outflow: in 1975-9, these two groups together comprised a quarter of the outflow, whereas in 1995-9 they were less than 10 per cent. Old Commonwealth citizens were a fairly stable proportion of the outflow up to the last five years, when they increased to nearly a third. Conversely, the proportion of outward migrants who were citizens of Other Foreign Developed Countries noticeably fell in 1995-9.

Table 8.9: Percentage of total outflows of employed migrants in each citizenship group in each five-year period 1975-99

	1975-79	1980-84	1985-89	1990-94	1995-99	1975-99
Old Commonwealth	27.0	28.0	29.0	27.0	32.0	29.0
EU/EFTA	29.0	27.0	32.0	34.0	40.0	33.0
East and Other Europe	3.0	2.0	2.0	6.0	5.0	4.0
Other Foreign Developed Countries	15.0	19.0	20.0	20.0	14.0	18.0
Bangladesh, Pakistan, India, Sri Lanka	7.0	5.0	5.0	4.0	2.0	4.0
Rest of World	19.0	19.0	12.0	9.0	7.0	12.0

Source: IPS

Table 8.10 ranks citizenship groups according to size of outflow in each of the five-year periods. It shows EU/EFTA citizens to have been the largest component of the outflow from 1985 onwards, with the Old Commonwealth group in second place, Other Foreign Developed Countries in third and Rest of World in fourth. It also reflects the fact that East and Other Europe citizens became a larger part of the outflow than those of the Indian Subcontinent in the 1990s.

Table 8.10: Citizenship groups ranked according to size of outflow of employed migrants in each five-year period, 1975-99

	1975-79	1980-84	1985-89	1990-94	1995-99
Old Commonwealth	2	1	2	2	2
EU/EFTA	1	2	1	1	1
East and Other Europe	6	6	6	5	5
Other Foreign Developed Countries	4	3	3	3	3
Bangladesh, Pakistan, India, Sri Lanka	5	5	5	6	6
Rest of World	3	3	4	4	4

Source: IPS

8.2.3 Net flows of migrant workers

As the preceding pages show, the total inflow of migrant workers to the UK between 1975 and 1999 was greater than the outflow, leading to a net inflow of over half a million people. Table 8.11 provides data on net flows of each citizenship group for each five-year period.

Table 8.11: Netflows of employed migrants by citizenship group; five-year periods 1975-1999 (thousands)

	1975-1979	1980-1984	1985-1989	1990-1994	1995-1999	1975-1999
Old Commonwealth	11.9	4.8	31.2	33.5	72.9	154.3
EU/EFTA	5.8	9.0	24.8	6.0	34.0	79.6
East & other Europe	-0.2	1.6	4.5	0.6	9.9	16.4
Other Foreign Developed Countries	6.1	10.2	17.7	16.0	35.3	85.3
Bangladesh, Pakistan, India, Sri Lanka	11.0	14.5	12.1	14.4	28.7	80.7
Rest of World	6.3	27.6	31.8	50.7	56.5	172.9
Total Netflow	40.9	67.7	122.1	121.2	237.3	589.2

Source: IPS

The table indicates two important facts:

- every group in every five-year period, with one miniscule exception, recorded a net inflow, although some of these inflows were small.
- every group recorded its highest net inflow figure in 1995-9.

Over the twenty-five year period as a whole, the largest net inflow comprised Rest of World citizens (173,000), closely followed by Old Commonwealth citizens (154,000). Three groups had similar, lower net inflows: Other Foreign Developed Countries (85,000); Indian Subcontinent (81,000) and EU/EFTA (80,000). The net inflow from East and Other Europe was 16,000.

The total figures for the whole period conceal very significant differences between groups in terms of trends and patterns of change. The net inflow of Old Commonwealth citizens showed a dramatic increase in the mid-eighties and a huge leap in the late 'nineties. In both instances, this reflected a big rise in numbers entering the UK accompanied by a much smaller increase in outflow. In 1995-9, Old Commonwealth citizens were easily the largest group within the net inflow, being nearly 73,000 or 31 per cent of the total.

In the case of the EU/EFTA group, there was a very sharp fall in net inflow in 1990-4, without which the total figure for net inflow of EU/EFTA citizens 1975-99 would have been much higher. This drop related to a slight fall in gross inflow, together with an increase in outflow. Although the net inflow figure of 34,000 in 1995-9 was the highest recorded for EU/EFTA migrants in any five year period and comprised 14 per cent of the total net inflow, it still put the EU/EFTA group in fourth place compared to the other citizenship groups – just behind Other Foreign Developed Countries. The fact that EU/EFTA citizens comprised 27 per cent of the total gross inflow but 40 per cent of the outflow in the last five years was highly relevant to the net figure and the comparative position of the group.

Net flows of East and Other Europe citizens were negligible in size except in 1985-9 and 1995-9, when there were net inflows of 4,500 and nearly 10,000. These figures are the product of changing patterns of inflow and outflow from the mid-eighties in the context of changing circumstances in countries of origin. In 1995-9, the East and Other Europe group was 4 per cent of the total inflow.

Net inflows of citizens from Other Foreign Developed Countries showed a steady and substantial increase over the twenty-five year period, with a slight fall-back in 1990-4. The number more than doubled in 1995-9 to over 35,000 or 15 per cent of the total, reflecting an increase in inflow and a decrease in outflow.

In the case of the Indian Subcontinent group, the net inflow also doubled in 1995-9 to nearly 29,000 or 12 per cent of the total, having fluctuated without any great change up to that time. As with the previous group there was an increase in inflow and a decrease in outflow underlying the change, with the former being the dominant factor.

The Rest of the World group was the largest component of the net inflow from 1980 to 1994 and the second largest component in 1995-9, constituting nearly 57,000 people or 24 per cent of the total net inflow in the final period. After 1985, a trend of increase in inflow was accompanied by one of decrease in outflow.

Overall, it may be seen that just two groups – Old Commonwealth and Rest of the World citizens – accounted for over half of the net inflow of non-British workers during the twenty-five year period and from 1985 onwards they were consistently the two largest components of the net inflow.

8.2.4 Flows of migrant workers and citizenship: analysis and conclusions

The principal conclusion deriving from the above analysis is that it is essential to have data on both inflows and outflows of migrant workers to gain a full understanding of the impact of international migration on the UK labour force.

Looking only at inflows, it is evident that the largest numbers entering the country since the mid-eighties have been citizens of the Old Commonwealth and the EU/EFTA countries (58% of the total in 1995-9), with those from Other Foreign Developed Countries and the Rest of World group comprising similar, smaller flows (in aggregate, 29% of the 1995-9 inflow) and flows from the Indian Subcontinent and East/Other Europe constituting the rest.

Looking also at outflows, it then becomes apparent that Old Commonwealth and EU/EFTA citizens have also been the largest emigrant groups and have been so throughout the entire period, being 72 per cent of the total outflow in 1995-9. Since the mid-eighties, those from Other Foreign Developed Countries have been the third largest component of the outflow, though falling from 20 per cent to 14 per cent in 1995-9. However, the outflow of citizens from Rest of World countries has fallen steadily since the mid-eighties and they

comprised only 7 per cent of those leaving the country in 1995-9 – the same proportion as the combined outflows of citizens of the Indian Subcontinent and East and Other Europe.

The composite picture is one in which there are heavy inflows but also fairly heavy outflows from the developed countries and smaller inflows with small and shrinking outflows from less developed parts of the world. Because inflows have exceeded outflows in every citizenship group, there has been a net gain to the UK labour force across all groups but the largest net gains have been of citizens from the Old Commonwealth and the Rest of the World countries.

Table 8.12 brings together data on inflows, outflows and net flows in 1995-9, illustrating the pattern of movement and its consequences for each citizenship group in the most recent five-year period.

Table 8.12: Inflows, outflows and net flows of employed migrants by citizenship group 1995-99 – total numbers and percentage of total flows

	Inflow		Outflow		Net Flow	
	thousands	per cent	thousands	per cent	thousands	per cent
Old Commonwealth	154	31.2	81	31.8	73	30.7
EU/EFTA	135	27.4	101	39.6	34	14.3
East and Other Europe	24	4.9	14	5.5	10	4.2
Other Foreign Developed Countries	71	14.4	35	13.7	35	14.7
Bangladesh, India, Pakistan, Sri Lanka	35	7.1	6	2.4	29	12.2
Rest of World	74	15.0	18	7.1	57	23.9

Source: IPS

It indicates that, during this period, citizens of the Old Commonwealth were represented in similar proportions in the inflow and outflow of migrant workers, as were those from Other Foreign Developed Countries and East and Other Europe, whereas (as mentioned earlier) EU/EFTA citizens formed a higher proportion of the outflow than they did of the inflow. The much lower proportion of Indian Subcontinent and Rest of World citizens in the outflow relative to inflow is also clearly shown.

This fact is further illustrated by Table 8.13, which expresses the outflows of population in each citizenship group as a percentage of the numbers coming into the UK between 1995 and 1999. The outflow of EU/EFTA citizens was, in numerical terms, nearly 75 per cent of the inflow. The outflows of citizens of the Old Commonwealth, East and Other Europe and Other Foreign Developed Countries were in the range 49 to 58 per cent of the inflows. The outflows of Indian Subcontinent and Rest of World citizens were, respectively, 17 per cent and 24 per cent of the inflows. The data suggest that migrants in the latter groups are much more likely to remain as long-term or permanent residents.

Table 8.13: Inflows and outflows of employed migrants by citizenship group 1995-1999 and outflows as percentage of inflows

	Inflow (thousands)	Outflow (thousands)	Outflow as % of inflow (per cent)
Old Commonwealth	154	81	52.6
EU/EFTA	135	101	74.8
East and other Europe	24	14	58.3
Other Foreign Developed Countries	71	35	49.3
Bangladesh, Pakistan, India, Sri Lanka	35	6	17.1
Rest of World	74	18	24.3

Source: IPS

Finally, taking account of the actual numbers involved and the balance of movement, it would appear that just over a third of the net addition to the labour force in the 1995-9 period came from the groupings of less developed countries and just over two thirds came from more developed countries, nearly half of them from the Old Commonwealth.

8.3 Citizenship of non-British migrants: professional and managerial workers

8.3.1 Inflows of professional and managerial workers

8.3.1.1 Total numbers – inflow (professional and managerial)

The total numbers of professional and managerial workers in each citizenship group entering the country between 1975 and 1999 are shown in Table 8.14. Out of a total inflow of 932,100, the dominant groups were citizens of the Old Commonwealth (234,900), Rest of World (213,300), EU/EFTA (205,900) and Other Foreign Developed Countries (183,700), all clustered around the 200,000 mark. The inflow from the Indian Subcontinent was 66,500 and from Eastern and Other Europe, 27,800.

Table 8.14: Inflows of professional and managerial workers by citizenship group; five-year periods 1975-1999 (thousands)

	1975-1979	1980-1984	1985-1989	1990-1994	1995-1999	1975-1999
Old Commonwealth	24.9	24.5	44.0	49.9	91.6	234.9
EU/EFTA	26.3	20.9	33.3	46.0	79.4	205.9
East & other Europe	2.1	2.8	5.4	6.7	10.8	27.8
Other Foreign Developed Countries	18.6	26.7	38.0	46.0	54.4	187.3
Bangladesh, Pakistan, India, Sri Lanka	10.2	9.8	10.5	12.4	23.6	66.5
Rest of World	23.1	41.8	41.2	51.4	55.8	213.3
Total Inflow	105.2	126.5	172.4	212.4	315.6	932.1

Source: IPS

8.3.1.2 Trends of change in inflow (professional and managerial)

The total inflow of professional and managerial workers who were non-British citizens increased threefold during the twenty-five year period. Trends of change differed to some extent between citizenship groups but common features are evident:

- in every group, the highest recorded inflow was in the 1995-9 period.
- in every group, the second highest inflow was in the 1990-4 period.
- for every group, the trend was one of increasing inflow in all, or all but one, of the five-year periods.
- in every groups, there was a continuous trend of increase post-1985.

The profiles of change in the inflows of professional and managerial workers set out in Table 8.15 summarise the trends of change in each group.

Big percentage increases in inflow in 1995-9 were a feature common to the Old Commonwealth, EU/EFTA, East and Other Europe and the Indian Subcontinent – the first three also recorded big increases in 1985-9, as did Other Foreign Developed Countries. The Rest of the World and Other Foreign Developed Countries each had their biggest percentage increase in 1980-4. The Rest of the World and EU/EFTA also had fairly large increases in inflow in 1990-4.

The difference in the inflows of different groups at the beginning and end of the period is illustrated in Table 8.16. Apart from East and Other Europe (+414%), the biggest percentage increase and also the biggest increase in actual numbers of professional and managerial workers entering the UK was in Old Commonwealth group (+268%). EU/EFTA and Other Foreign Developed Countries both had an increase in inflow of around 200 per cent, with the former having the larger increase in terms of actual numbers. Inflows from the Indian Subcontinent and the Rest of the World both increased by well over 100 per cent, with the actual numerical increase in the latter being almost as large as that for Other Foreign Developed Countries.

Table 8.15: Trends of change in inflows of professional and managerial workers 1975-99

	Trends of Change in Inflow 1975-99
Old Commonwealth	Similar inflows 1975-79 and 1980-84, then continuous increases from 1985 onwards (80% increase in 1985-89, 84% in 1995-99).
EU/EFTA	Decline in inflow 1980-84, then continuous increases from 1985 onwards (59% in 1985-89, 38% in 1990-94, 73% in 1995-99).
East and Other Europe	Continuous increases 1975-99 (93% in 1985-89, 61% in 1995-99).
Other Foreign Developed Countries	Continuous increases 1975-99 (44% in 1980-84, 42% in 1985-99).
Bangladesh, Pakistan, India, Sri Lanka	Slight fall in 1980-84, then continuous increases from 1985 onwards (90% increase in 1995-99).
Rest of World	Increase 1980-84, similar inflow 1985-89, further increases after 1990 (85% increase in 1980-84, 25% in 1990-94).

Source: IPS

Table 8.16: Inflows of professional and managerial workers by citizenship group 1975-9 and 1995-9 (thousands)

	1975-79	1995-99	Difference	percentage change
Old Commonwealth	24.9	91.6	66.7	267.9
EU/EFTA	26.3	79.4	53.1	201.9
East/Other Europe	2.1	10.8	8.7	414.3
Other Foreign Developed Countries	18.6	54.4	35.8	192.5
Bangladesh/Pakistan/India/Sri Lanka	10.2	23.6	13.4	131.4
Rest of World	23.1	55.8	32.7	141.6
Total inflow	105.2	315.6	210.4	200.0

Source: IPS

8.3.1.3 Change in composition of total inflows (professional and managerial)

Table 8.17 shows the percentage of the total inflow of professional and managerial workers represented by each citizenship group in each five-year period from 1975 to 1999. It indicates some significant change in the composition of the inflow from one period to the next.

Old Commonwealth citizens were one of the largest components throughout, apart from 1980-4. They were a quarter of the total inflow 1975-99 and 29 per cent in the final period. Professional and managerial workers from the Rest of World countries were the second largest component of the inflow over the twenty-five years, representing a third of the total in 1980-4, but dropped to 18 per cent in 1995-9. Citizens of EU/EFTA and Other Foreign Developed Countries each represented about one in five of the total inflow 1975-99, but the former increased to 25 per cent of the last five years, whereas the latter fell to 17 per cent. The proportion from the Indian Subcontinent fell gradually from 10 per cent to 7 per cent. The inflow from East and Other Europe increased by one percentage point to 3 per cent after 1985.

Table 8.17: Percentage of total Inflows of professional and managerial workers in each citizenship group in each five year period, 1975-99

	1975-79	1980-84	1985-89	1990-94	1995-99	1975-99
Old Commonwealth	24.0	19.0	26.0	24.0	29.0	25.0
EU/EFTA	25.0	17.0	19.0	22.0	25.0	22.0
East and Other Europe	2.0	2.0	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0
Other Foreign Developed Countries	18.0	21.0	22.0	22.0	17.0	20.0
Bangladesh, Pakistan, India, Sri Lanka	10.0	8.0	6.0	6.0	7.0	7.0
Rest of World	22.0	33.0	24.0	24.0	18.0	23.0

Source: IPS

Table 8.18 ranks citizenship groups according to size of inflow of professional and managerial workers in each of the five-year periods. The increase in the relative importance of the Old Commonwealth group is highlighted by this (the ranking is based on actual numbers of migrants rather than rounded percentages, hence the first place of Old Commonwealth in 1990-4, as well as in the periods before and after). The

greater relative significance of the EU/EFTA inflow in the 1990s is also indicated, as well as the declining positions of Other Foreign Developed Countries and Rest of the World.

Table 8.18: Citizenship groups ranked according to size of inflow of professional and managerial workers in each five-year period, 1975-99

	1975-79	1980-84	1985-89	1990-94	1995-99
Old Commonwealth	2	3	1	1	1
EU/EFTA	1	4	4	3	2
East and Other Europe	6	6	6	6	6
Other Foreign Developed Countries	4	2	3	3	4
Bangladesh, Pakistan, India, Sri Lanka	5	5	5	5	5
Rest of World	3	1	2	2	3

Source: IPS

8.3.2 Outflows of professional and managerial workers

Table 8.19: Outflows of professional and managerial workers by citizenship group; five-year periods 1975-1999 (rhousands)

	1975-1979	1980-1984	1985-1989	1990-1994	1995-1999	1975-1999
Old Commonwealth	18.3	20.0	28.6	26.9	35.3	129.1
EU/EFTA	19.7	18.7	33.9	45.1	59.6	177.0
East & other Europe	2.8	1.4	3.8	7.7	2.6	18.3
Other Foreign Developed Countries	15.3	20.2	25.4	31.6	26.8	119.3
Bangladesh, Pakistan, India, Sri Lanka	6.6	4.3	4.9	5.7	4.9	26.4
Rest of World	19.5	22.6	16.2	11.9	12.9	83.1
Total Outflow	82.2	87.2	112.8	128.9	142.1	553.2

Source: IPS

8.3.2.1 Total numbers – outflow (professional and managerial)

The total numbers of professional and managerial workers in each citizenship group leaving the country between 1975 and 1999 are shown in Table 8.19. In a total outflow of over half a million, the largest component was the EU/EFTA group (177,000), followed by Old Commonwealth and Other Foreign Developed Countries with fairly similar numbers (129,000 and 119,000). The Rest of the World outflow was 83,000 and the smallest were the Indian Subcontinent (26,000) and East and Other Europe (18,000).

8.3.2.2 Trends of change in outflow of each group (professional and managerial)

The total outflow of professional and managerial workers who were non-British citizens increased substantially over the twenty-five year period but the scale and pattern of movement was different from that revealed by the inflow data. As described earlier in relation to migrant workers as a whole, there was a strong overall trend of increase in the outflow of workers who were citizens of more developed countries (though the outflow of the Other Foreign Developed Countries group fell in 1995-9). The outflow of those from less developed countries fluctuated over time.

These facts are indicated in Table 8.20. None of the groups showed a continuous trend of increase or decrease in outflows throughout the entire period, though it should be noted from the statistics in the Table 8.19 that some of the changes between periods were quite small.

Table 8.20: Trends of change in outflows of professional and managerial workers, 1975-99

	Trends of Change in Outflow 1975-99
Old Commonwealth	Increases in outflow 1975-89, decline 1990-94, increase 1995-99 (43% increase in 1985-89, 31% in 1995-99).
EU/EFTA	Decline in outflow 1980-84, then continuous increases from 1985 onwards (81% increase in 1985-89, 33% in 1990-94, 55% in 1995-99).
East and Other Europe	Decline in outflow 1980-84, increases from 1985 to 1994, decline in 1995-99 (numbers small throughout).
Other Foreign Developed Countries	Continuous increases to 1994 (32% increase in 1980-84, 26% in 1985-89), then a decline 1995-99.
Bangladesh, Pakistan, India, Sri Lanka	Decline in outflow 1980-84, increases 1985-94, then decline in 1995-99 (numbers small throughout).
Rest of World	Increase in outflow 1980-84, a decline 1985-94, an increase 1995-99 (28% drop in outflow 1985-89, 27% in 1990-94).

Source: IPS

Table 8.21 highlights the difference between outflows of different groups at the beginning and end of the twenty-five year period. The difference in the EU/EFTA figures is the most striking, with a 200 per cent increase in outflow. The increases in the outflows of those from Old Commonwealth and Other Foreign Developed Countries were also substantial but not as great. The outflows of the other groups were lower at the end of the period than at the beginning, though the actual numbers involved were relatively small.

Table 8.21: Outflows of professional and managerial workers by citizenship group 1975-9 and 1995-9 (thousands)

	1975-79	1995-99	Difference	percentage change
Old Commonwealth	18.3	35.3	17.0	92.9
EU/EFTA	19.7	59.6	39.9	202.5
East/Other Europe	2.8	2.6	-0.2	-7.1
Other Foreign Developed Countries	15.3	26.8	11.5	75.2
Bangladesh/Pakistan/India/Sri Lanka	6.6	4.9	-1.7	-25.8
Rest of World	19.5	12.9	-6.6	-33.8
Total outflow	82.2	142.1	59.9	72.9

Source: IPS

8.3.2.3 Change in the composition of total outflows (professional and managerial)

Table 8.22 shows the percentage of each citizenship group in the total outflow of professional and managerial workers during each five-year period. Patterns of change varied from group to group.

Old Commonwealth citizens remained a fairly constant proportion of the total outflow throughout the period, whereas the EU/EFTA group increased dramatically – the proportion (42%) it represented in 1995-9 was double that in 1980-4. Other Foreign Developed Countries and East and other Europe rose and then fell again in 1995-9 as a proportion of the total outflow. The Indian Subcontinent and the Rest of the World groups declined steadily as a proportion of the total – in 1975-9, these two groups together comprised nearly a third of the outflow, whereas in 1995-9 they were a mere 12 per cent.

Table 8.22: Percentage of total outflows of professional and managerial workers in each citizenship group in each five year period, 1975-99

	1975-79	1980-84	1985-89	1990-94	1995-99	1975-99
Old Commonwealth	22.0	23.0	25.0	21.0	25.0	23.0
EU/EFTA	24.0	21.0	30.0	35.0	42.0	32.0
East and Other Europe	3.0	2.0	3.0	6.0	2.0	3.0
Other Foreign Developed Countries	19.0	23.0	22.0	24.0	19.0	22.0
Bangladesh, Pakistan, India, Sri Lanka	8.0	5.0	4.0	4.0	3.0	5.0
Rest of World	24.0	26.0	14.0	9.0	9.0	15.0

Source: IPS

Table 8.23 ranks citizenship groups in terms of size of outflow in each of the five-year periods. It serves to emphasise the leading position of the EU/EFTA group in the outflow throughout, with the exception of 1980-4. From 1980 onwards, the Old Commonwealth and Other Foreign Developed Countries moved up and down between second and third places. The Rest of the World group was consistently in fourth place from 1985 onwards, having previously been much more significant. The smallest outflows were consistently those of Indian Subcontinent and East and Rest of Europe citizens, with the latter exceeding the former in 1990-4.

Table 8.23: Citizenship groups ranked according to size of outflow of professional and managerial workers in each five-year period, 1975-99

	1975-79	1980-84	1985-89	1990-94	1995-99
Old Commonwealth	3	3	2	3	2
EU/EFTA	1	4	1	1	1
East and Other Europe	6	6	6	5	6
Other Foreign Developed Countries	4	2	3	2	3
Bangladesh, Pakistan, India, Sri Lanka	5	5	5	6	5
Rest of World	2	1	4	4	4

Source: IPS

8.3.3 Net flows of migrant workers (professional and managerial)

The inflow of professional and managerial workers exceeded the outflow by a total of 379,000 during the whole twenty-five year period. Table 8.24 provides data on the net flows of each citizenship group for each five-year period.

The following overall observations can be made on the data:

- with three small exceptions, every group in every period recorded a net inflow.
- in the 'eighties and early 'nineties, the net inflow from the Indian Subcontinent and the Rest of World group, taken together, was over half of the total, while the net inflow from EU/EFTA was negligible.
- the net inflow more than doubled in 1995-9 and every group contributed to this increase, though least so in the case of the Rest of World group.

Over the twenty-five year period as a whole, the largest net inflow of professional and managerial workers comprised Rest of World citizens (130,000), followed by those from the Old Commonwealth (106,000); Other Foreign Developed Countries (65,000); the Indian Subcontinent (40,000); EU/EFTA (29,000) and East and Other Europe (10,000).

Table 8.24: Netflows of professional and managerial workers by citizenship group; five-year periods 1975-1999 (thousands)

	1975-1979	1980-1984	1985-1989	1990-1994	1995-1999	1975-1000
Old Commonwealth	6.6	4.5	15.4	22.9	56.3	105.7
EU/EFTA	6.6	2.2	-0.6	0.9	19.9	29.0
East & other Europe	-0.6	1.4	1.5	-1.0	8.3	9.6
Other Foreign Developed Countries	3.4	6.5	12.6	14.5	27.6	64.6
Bangladesh, Pakistan, India, Sri Lanka	3.6	5.5	5.6	6.7	18.7	40.1
Rest of World	3.6	19.2	25.0	39.5	42.9	130.2
Total Netflow	23.2	39.3	59.5	83.5	173.7	379.2

Source: IPS

The total net inflow for the whole period and the net inflow in most of the six citizenship groups would have been very much lower without the increase in 1995-9. The net inflow of the Old Commonwealth group had been increasing continuously since 1980 but over half of that recorded for 1975-99 occurred in 1995-9. In the case of EU/EFTA, the picture was even more remarkable: nearly 20,000 of the 29,000 net inflow for the whole period occurred in 1995-9.

Net inflows from Other Foreign Developed Countries and the Indian Subcontinent had increased continuously since 1975, by relatively small increments in most cases, but leaped up in 1995-9. In the case of the East and Other Europe group, which had previously shown both net inflows and net outflows of negligible proportions, the net inflow in 1995-9 was over 8000.

The Rest of the World was the only group not to manifest a very large increase in net inflow in 1995-9 but, as it had had easily the biggest net inflow in every five-year period since 1980, it remained one of the biggest at the end, pushed into second place behind Old Commonwealth.

8.3.4 Flows of professional and managerial workers: an overview

The pattern of movement described in relation to inflows and outflows of migrant workers as a whole applies to some extent to the professional and managerial component but there are also some significant differences.

In respect of inflows, the flows of the four largest groups – Old Commonwealth, EU/EFTA, Other Foreign Developed Countries and Rest of World – over the twenty-five year period were more similar in the case of professional and manual workers than among all employed migrants. In 1995-9, the Old Commonwealth and EU/EFTA were first and second in terms of size of inflow and Rest of the World and Other Foreign Developed Countries were third and fourth for both professional and managerial workers and for all workers entering the country. However, the two largest groups were 54 per cent of the professional and managerial component, compared to 58 per cent of all workers, while the third and fourth groups were 35 per cent of the professional and managerial inflow compared to 29 per cent of all workers. Migrants from East and Other Europe countries seemed to form a slightly smaller proportion of the professional and managerial inflow compared to all workers, whereas for migrants from the Indian Subcontinent the proportions in 1995-9 were the same.

In respect of outflows, the proportion of each citizenship group in the total outflow for the 1975-99 period was broadly similar for professional and managerial workers and for all employed migrants, with EU/EFTA citizens comprising around a third of the total, Old Commonwealth in second place, Other Foreign Developed Countries third and Rest of World fourth. However, there were differences that should be noted.

The EU/EFTA component of the outflow, which showed a strong trend of increase from 1980 onwards for all employed migrants (27% of the total outflow in 1980-4, 40% in 1995-9), showed an even more marked increase in the case of professional and managerial workers (21% of the outflow in 1980-4, 42% in 1995-9). The proportion of Old Commonwealth citizens in the professional and managerial outflow was consistently lower than that for employed migrants overall – they were a quarter of the professional and managerial outflow in 1995-9, compared to nearly a third of the total outflow of migrant workers.

By contrast, the proportion of the professional and managerial outflow made up of citizens from Other Foreign Developed Countries was consistently higher than in respect of all migrant workers, though the outflow dropped in both cases in 1995-9. The proportion of the outflow comprising citizens of Rest of World countries declined from the mid-eighties onwards among professional and managerial workers as among all workers, though remaining slightly larger – 9 per cent of the former as compared to 7 per cent of the latter in 1995-9. Outflows of the two smallest citizenship groups did not appear to represent a significantly different proportion of the professional and managerial outflow compared to the total outflow, though the proportion of the outflow from East and Other Europe was very small in 1995-9 (2%).

Tables 8.25 and 8.26 demonstrate the dominance of professional and managerial workers in net inflows to the UK. In four out of six citizenship groups, they were more than 60 per cent of the net inflow of workers over the whole twenty-five year period and about half of the net inflow from the Indian Subcontinent; only in the case of the EU/EFTA group did they constitute as little as a third. For the period 1995-9, their dominance was even more marked, with a majority of the net inflow in every group being of professional and managerial workers, three-quarters or more in four groups.

Table 8.25: Net inflow of professional and managerial workers compared to total net inflow of employed migrants 1975-99

	Professional and managerial (thousands)	All migrant workers (thousands)	Professional and managerial as a proportion of net inflow (per cent)
Old Commonwealth	106	154	68.8
EU/EFTA	29	80	36.3
East and Other Europe	10	16	62.5
Other Foreign Developed Countries	65	85	76.5
Bangladesh, Pakistan, India, Sri Lanka	40	81	49.4
Rest of World	130	173	75.1

Source: IPS

Table 8.26: Net inflow of professional and managerial workers compared to total net inflow of employed migrants 1995-99

	Professional and managerial (thousands)	All migrant workers (thousands)	Professional and managerial as a proportion of net inflow (per cent)
Old Commonwealth	56	73	76.7
EU/EFTA	20	34	58.8
East and Other Europe	8	10	80.0
Other Foreign Developed Countries	28	35	80.0
Bangladesh, Pakistan, India, Sri Lanka	19	29	65.5
Rest of World	43	57	75.4

Source: IPS

8.4 Citizenship of non-British migrants – manual and clerical workers

8.4.1 Inflows of manual and clerical workers

8.4.1.1 Total numbers – inflow (manual and clerical)

The total numbers of manual and clerical workers in each citizenship group entering the country between 1975 and 1999 are shown in Table 8.27. Out of a total inflow of 578,500, the dominant groups were citizens of the Old Commonwealth (185,200) and EU/EFTA (180,600), followed by Rest of World (70,600), Other Foreign Developed Countries (63,800), the Indian Subcontinent (52,300) and East and Other Europe (26,100).

Table 8.27: Inflows of manual and clerical workers by citizenship group; five-year periods 1975-1999 (thousands)

	1975-1979	1980-1984	1985-1989	1990-1994	1995-1999	1975-1999
Old Commonwealth	23.2	20.2	37.8	42.1	61.9	185.2
EU/EFTA	18.5	26.4	47.9	32.1	55.7	180.6
East & other Europe	1.7	1.4	3.2	7.1	12.7	26.1
Other Foreign Developed Countries	8.4	10.1	15.7	13.3	16.3	63.8
Bangladesh, Pakistan, India, Sri Lanka	10.5	11.0	9.9	9.7	11.2	52.3
Rest of World	9.6	13.1	11.8	17.5	18.6	70.6
Total Inflow	71.9	82.2	126.3	121.8	176.4	578.6

Source: IPS

8.4.1.2 Trends of change in inflow (manual and clerical)

The total inflow of manual and clerical workers increased by two and a half times between the beginning and end of the period. The following may be noted:

- in every group, the highest recorded inflow was in the 1995-9 period.
- there was considerable variation between groups in trends of change.

This last point is illustrated in Table 8.28. The trends identified are very different from those found in respect of professional and managerial workers. Only two groups, Old Commonwealth and the small East and Other Europe group, showed a continuous increase from the mid-eighties onwards. The inflow of Rest of World and Indian Subcontinent citizens decreased in 1985-9, while the inflow from EU/EFTA and Other Foreign Developed Countries fell in 1990-4. Though every group experienced an increase in inflow in 1995-9, fewer groups had very high increases than in the case of professional and managerial workers.

Table 8.28: Trends of change in inflows of manual and clerical workers 1975-99

	Trends of Change in Inflow 1975-99
Old Commonwealth	Decline in inflow 1980-84, then continuous increases from 1985 onwards (87% increase in 1985-89, 47% in 1995-99).
EU/EFTA	Increase in inflow to 1989 (43% in 1980-84, 81% in 1985-89), decline in 1990-94 (33%), then increase 1995-99 (74%).
East and Other Europe	Similar inflows 1975-79 and 1980-84, then continuous increases from 1985 onwards (129% in 1985-89, 122% in 1990-94, 79% in 1995-99).
Other Foreign Developed Countries	Increase in inflow to 1989 (20% in 1980-84, 55% in 1985-89), decline in 1990-94, then increase in 1995-99.
Bangladesh, Pakistan, India, Sri Lanka	Similar inflows in 1975-79 and 1980-84, decline in 1985-89, similar inflow in 1990-94, increase in 1995-99.
Rest of World	Increase in 1980-84, decline in 1985-89, further increases after 1990 (36% increase in 1980-84, 48% in 1990-94).

Source: IPS

The difference in the inflows of different groups at the beginning and end of the period is illustrated in Table 8.29. Apart from East and Other Europe (+647%), the biggest percentage increase (201%) and the second biggest numerical increase was in the EU/EFTA inflow. This percentage increase was virtually identical to the percentage increase in inflow of professional and managerial workers who were EU/EFTA citizens, whereas in every other citizenship group, the percentage increase was lower in the case of manual and clerical workers.

Table 8.29: Inflows of manual and clerical workers by citizenship group 1975-9 and 1995-9 (thousands)

	1975-79	1995-99	Difference	percentage change
Old Commonwealth	23.2	61.9	38.7	166.8
EU/EFTA	18.5	55.7	37.2	201.1
East/Other Europe	1.7	12.7	11.0	647.1
Other Foreign Developed Countries	8.4	16.3	7.9	94.0
Bangladesh/Pakistan/India/Sri Lanka	10.5	11.2	0.7	6.7
Rest of World	9.6	18.6	9.0	93.8
Total inflow	71.8	176.3	104.5	145.5

Source: IPS

In terms of actual numbers, the difference between the 1975-9 and 1995-9 inflows of manual and clerical workers was above 30,000 in only two groups, EU/EFTA and Old Commonwealth, whereas in the case of professional and managerial workers, this scale of increase also applied to Other Foreign Developed Countries and Rest of World.

8.4.1.3 Change in composition of total inflows (manual and clerical workers)

Table 8.30 shows the percentage of total inflow of manual and clerical workers represented by each citizenship group in each five-year period from 1975 to 1999.

The data illustrate the dominance of the Old Commonwealth and EU/EFTA in the inflow of manual and clerical workers in every five-year period, each representing around a third of the total inflow in 1995-9. The EU/EFTA was particularly dominant in 1985-9, whereas the Old Commonwealth inflow was the largest in the 1990s. All the other groups represented a relatively small proportion of the total inflow, showing either a fluctuating or downward trend after 1985, with the exception of the East and Other Europe group which increased to 7 per cent in 1995-9. It then became larger than the Indian Subcontinent component, which was a shrinking proportion of the total throughout the whole period.

Table 8.30: Percentage of total inflows of manual and clerical workers in each citizenship group in each five year period, 1975-99

	1975-79	1980-84	1985-89	1990-94	1995-99	1975-99
Old Commonwealth	32.0	25.0	30.0	35.0	35.0	32.0
EU/EFTA	26.0	32.0	40.0	26.0	32.0	31.0
East and Other Europe	2.0	2.0	3.0	6.0	7.0	5.0
Other Foreign Developed Countries	12.0	12.0	12.0	11.0	9.0	11.0
Bangladesh, Pakistan, India, Sri Lanka	15.0	13.0	8.0	8.0	6.0	9.0
Rest of World	13.0	16.0	9.0	14.0	11.0	12.0

Source: IPS

Table 8.31 ranks citizenship groups according to size of inflow of manual and clerical workers for each of the five-year periods. The points made earlier are highlighted by this – in particular, the leading positions of the Old Commonwealth and EU/EFTA groups as the largest components throughout and the diminishing proportion of Indian Subcontinent citizens in the inflow.

Table 8.31: Citizenship groups ranked according to size of inflow of manual and clerical workers in each five-year period, 1975-99

	1975-79	1980-84	1985-89	1990-94	1995-99
Old Commonwealth	1	2	2	1	1
EU/EFTA	2	1	1	2	2
East and Other Europe	6	6	6	6	5
Other Foreign Developed Countries	5	5	3	4	4
Bangladesh, Pakistan, India, Sri Lanka	3	4	5	5	6
Rest of World	4	3	4	3	3

Source: IPS

8.4.2 Outflows of manual and clerical workers

Table 8.32: Outflows of manual and clerical workers by citizenship group; five-year periods 1975-1999 (thousands)

	1975-1979	1980-1984	1985-1989	1990-1994	1995-1999
Old Commonwealth	17.9	19.9	22.0	31.5	45.2
EU/EFTA	19.2	19.5	22.5	27.1	41.6
East & other Europe	1.3	1.2	0.2	5.5	11.1
Other Foreign Developed Countries	5.6	6.4	10.6	11.8	8.6
Bangladesh, Pakistan, India, Sri Lanka	3.2	2.1	3.5	2.1	1.3
Rest of World	6.9	4.7	5.0	6.3	5.0
Total Outflow	54.1	53.8	63.8	84.3	112.8

Source: IPS

8.4.2.1 Total numbers – outflow (manual and clerical)

The total numbers of manual and clerical workers in each citizenship group leaving the country between 1975 and 1999 are shown in Table 8.32. In the total outflow of 368,700, by far the largest components were Old Commonwealth (136,500) and EU/EFTA (129,900), followed by Other Foreign Developed Countries (43,000), Rest of World (27,900), East and Other Europe (19,300) and the Indian Subcontinent (12,200).

8.4.2.2 Trends of change in outflow of each group (manual and clerical)

The outflow of non-British citizens doubled between the beginning and end of the twenty-five year period but the outflow of four of the citizenship groups remained small throughout, with varying trends and fluctuations. Only the EU/EFTA and Old Commonwealth groups showed sustained trends of increase in outflow from the early 'eighties, as Table 8.33 shows.

Table 8.33: Trends of change in outflows of manual and clerical workers, 1975-99

	Trends of Change in Outflow 1975-99
Old Commonwealth	Continuous increase in outflow 1975-99 (43% increase in 1990-94, 43% in 1995-99).
EU/EFTA	Similar outflows in 1975-79 and 1980-84, then continuous increases from 1985 onwards (54% increase in 1995-99).
East and Other Europe	Similar outflows in 1975-79 and 1980-84, decline in 1985-89, then increases in the 1990s (numbers small throughout).
Other Foreign Developed Countries	Similar inflows 1975-79 and 1980-84, increases to 1994, then a decline in 1995-99 (numbers small throughout).
Bangladesh, Pakistan, India, Sri Lanka	Decline in outflow 1980-84, increase 1985-89, then decline in the 1990s (numbers small throughout).
Rest of World	Decline in outflow 1980-84, similar outflow 1985-89, an increase 1990-94, a decline 1995-99 (numbers small throughout).

Source: IPS

Table 8.34 shows the differences between the outflows of different groups at the beginning and end of the twenty-five year period. It demonstrates what has just been said about the small numbers involved in most groups, as well as highlighting the fact that in two groups the numbers leaving the UK in 1995-9 were actually lower than in 1975-9 (as was the case for professional and managerial workers).

Table 8.34: Outflows of manual and clerical workers by citizenship group 1975-9 and 1995-9 (thousands)

	1975-79	1995-99	Difference	percentage change
Old Commonwealth	17.9	45.2	27.3	152.5
EU/EFTA	19.2	41.6	22.4	116.7
East/Other Europe	1.3	11.1	9.8	753.8
Other Foreign Developed Countries	5.6	8.6	3.0	53.6
Bangladesh/Pakistan/India/Sri Lanka	3.2	1.3	-1.9	-59.4
Rest of World	6.9	5.0	-1.9	-27.5
Total outflow	54.1	112.8	58.7	108.5

Source: IPS

There is an interesting contrast between the two largest groups when manual and clerical and professional and managerial workers are compared. In the case of Old Commonwealth citizens, the increase in outflow of manual and clerical workers was greater than that of professional and managerials, whereas the reverse was the case for EU/EFTA citizens. The other groups are so small in terms of actual numbers that comparisons are more difficult to make.

8.4.2.3 Change in composition of total outflows (manual and clerical)

Table 8.35 shows the percentage of each citizenship group in the total outflow of manual and clerical workers during each five-year period. Old Commonwealth citizens were the largest proportion overall and in the 1990s, with EU/EFTA close behind. Their proportions were similar throughout. East and Other Europe, though small numerically, increased steadily as a proportion of the total outflow and was the third largest component in 1995-9 (see Table 8.36). Meanwhile, the outflow of manual and clerical workers from Other Foreign Developed Countries, the Indian Subcontinent and the Rest of the World fell as a proportion of the total outflow during the 1990s. Indeed, the Rest of the World represented a shrinking part of the whole manual and clerical outflow throughout the entire twenty-five year period and fell to fifth place in the ranking order in 1995-9.

Table 8.35: Percentage of total outflows of manual and clerical workers in each citizenship group in each five year period, 1975-99

	1975-79	1980-84	1985-89	1990-94	1995-99	1975-99
Old Commonwealth	33.0	37.0	34.0	37.0	40.0	37.0
EU/EFTA	35.0	36.0	35.0	32.0	37.0	35.0
East and Other Europe	2.0	2.0	3.0	7.0	10.0	5.0
Other Foreign Developed Countries	10.0	12.0	17.0	14.0	8.0	12.0
Bangladesh, Pakistan, India, Sri Lanka	6.0	4.0	5.0	2.0	1.0	3.0
Rest of World	13.0	9.0	8.0	7.0	4.0	8.0

Source: IPS

Table 8.36: Citizenship groups ranked according to size of outflow of manual and clerical workers in each five-year period, 1975-99

	1975-79	1980-84	1985-89	1990-94	1995-99
Old Commonwealth	2	1	2	1	1
EU/EFTA	1	2	1	2	2
East and Other Europe	6	6	6	5	3
Other Foreign Developed Countries	4	3	3	3	4
Bangladesh, Pakistan, India, Sri Lanka	5	5	5	6	6
Rest of World	3	4	4	4	5

Source: IPS

8.4.3 Net flows of migrant workers (manual and clerical)

The inflow of manual and clerical workers exceeded the outflow by a total of 210,000 during the whole twenty-five year period. Table 8.37 provides data on the net flows of each citizenship group for each five-year period. The following overall observations can be made on the data:

- with one miniscule exception, every group in every period recorded a net inflow.
- the total net inflow in 1985-9 was almost the same as in 1995-9, with a sharp drop in 1990-4.
- the net inflow figures for many five year periods were small and this applied to some extent to all citizenship groups.
- there were many fluctuations in the net inflows of different groups.

Over the twenty-five year period as a whole, the largest net inflow of manual and clerical workers comprised EU/EFTA citizens (50,600), followed by Old Commonwealth (48,600), Rest of World (42,700) and Indian Subcontinent (40,600). The smallest net inflows were from Other Foreign Developed Countries (20,700) and East and Other Europe (6,800).

Table 8.37: Netflows of manual and clerical workers by citizenship group; five-year periods 1975-1999 (thousands)

	1975-1979	1980-1984	1985-1989	1990-1994	1995-1999	1975-1999
Old Commonwealth	5.3	0.3	15.8	10.6	16.6	48.6
EU/EFTA	-0.8	6.8	25.4	5.1	14.1	50.6
East & other Europe	0.4	0.2	3.0	1.6	1.6	6.8
Other Foreign Developed Countries	2.7	3.7	5.1	1.5	7.7	20.7
Bangladesh, Pakistan, India, Sri Lanka	7.4	9.0	6.5	7.7	10.0	40.6
Rest of World	2.7	8.4	6.8	11.2	13.6	42.7
Total Netflow	17.7	28.4	62.6	37.7	63.6	210.0

Source: IPS

The largest net inflow of EU/EFTA citizens occurred in 1985-9, when the net inflow was over 25, 000 compared to just over 14,000 in 1995-9. By contrast, the net inflow of Old Commonwealth citizens (about 16,000) was similar for these two periods, with a drop in between – but not as big as the drop in the net inflow of EU/EFTA workers in 1990-4.

Only the Rest of World and Indian Subcontinent groups showed a continuous trend of increase in net inflows from the mid-eighties onwards and in 1995-9, they had net inflows of nearly 14,000 and 10,000 respectively.

8.4.4 Flows of manual and clerical workers: an overview

As in the previous section on professional and managerial workers, a comparison can be made between the data on manual and clerical workers and the overall picture when all employed migrants are taken together. In the case of inflows, the Old Commonwealth and EFTA groups formed larger proportions of the manual and clerical inflow than they did of the total inflow, while Other Foreign Developed Countries and Rest of World were less significant as a proportion of manuals and clericals. The two smallest groups did not significantly differ in this respect.

In the case of outflows, Old Commonwealth citizens comprised a significantly larger proportion of the manual and clerical outflow than of the overall outflow of employed migrants whereas there was more similarity in the EU/EFTA proportions, at least from the mid-eighties. Other Foreign Developed Countries were a smaller proportion of the manual and clerical outflow than of the total outflow of employed people – this was also true of Rest of World migrants in the earlier part of the period but less so in the 'nineties. At the same time, outflows of manual and clerical workers from East and Other Europe became relatively more significant after 1990, while outflows of those from the Indian Subcontinent were an even tinier proportion of the manual and clerical outflow than of the total outflow of workers.

As the tables at the end of the previous section made clear, in four out of six citizenship groups, manual and clerical workers were a much smaller part of the net inflow than professional and managerial workers over the twenty-five year period; they formed about half of the net inflow from the Indian Subcontinent and almost two-thirds of that from EU/EFTA. In the final period 1995-9, they were a minority of the net inflow in every citizenship group.

8.5 Summary

The preceding analysis indicates the relative importance of different citizenship groups in the migration of labour to and from the UK over the last twenty-five years. Some of the most significant trends and patterns are summarised below.

8.5.1 Inflows

- The total inflow of migrant workers was higher in 1995-9 than in any previous period, being nearly three times as great as in 1975-9. For all six citizenship groups defined at the beginning of this chapter, the largest inflow figures were recorded in 1995-9.
- Since the mid-eighties, the biggest inflows have consistently been from Old Commonwealth and EU/EFTA countries. Over half the inflow has been accounted for by these two groups and their proportion of the total was at its highest in 1995-9.
- The Rest of the World and Other Foreign Developed Countries accounted for the next largest inflows in the late 'eighties and 'nineties, together comprising around a third of the total, though their proportion fell in 1995-9.

- Around three-quarters of the total inflow of employed people since 1985 appears to have been made up of citizens from the more developed countries.
- The total inflow of professional and managerial workers was about three times as high in 1995-9 as it had been in 1975-9, with the inflows of all six groups being substantially higher.
- The inflow of professional and managerial workers showed a very strong trend of increase from the mid-eighties onwards, particularly from the more developed countries. However, in 1995-9 there was a sharp rise in the inflow from the Indian Subcontinent.
- The relative importance of different groups in the inflow of professional and managerial workers fluctuated over time but Old Commonwealth citizens were the largest component from 1985 onwards and EU/EFTA citizens had become the second largest by 1995-9, when these two groups together were 54 per cent of the total.
- The inflow of professional and managerial workers from the Rest of World countries, which was the largest component in 1980-4, was a much reduced proportion of the total by the end of the period.
- The inflow of manual and clerical workers was two and a half times as high in 1995-9 as it had been in 1975-9 but the inflow from the Indian Subcontinent was very little higher in the last five years of the period than it was at the beginning.
- Trends of change in the inflow of manual and clerical workers fluctuated a great deal from one group to another and only inflows from the Old Commonwealth and EU/EFTA showed continuous growth from the mid-eighties onwards.
- The Old Commonwealth and EU/EFTA were by far the biggest components of the manual and clerical inflow throughout the entire twenty-five year period and together comprised 67 per cent of the total in 1995-9.
- Manual and clerical workers from the Indian Subcontinent dwindled continuously as a proportion of the total inflow and were fewer in number than those from East and Other Europe during the last five-year period.

8.5.2 Outflows

- The total outflow of migrant workers was nearly twice as large in 1995-9 than in 1975-9, though outflows of citizens from the Indian Subcontinent and the Rest of World countries were actually smaller at the end than at the beginning of the period.
- Old Commonwealth and EU/EFTA citizens formed the major part of the outflow throughout the twenty-five years and together constituted 72 per cent of the total outflow in 1995-9, the highest for any period. The outflow of citizens from Other Foreign Developed Countries was the third highest but fell in 1995-9.

- From the mid-eighties, the EU/EFTA was increasingly the largest component in the outflow and comprised 40 per cent of the total in 1995-9. At the same time, the Indian Subcontinent and the Rest of the World steadily diminished as a proportion of the outflow, together comprising only nine per cent in 1995-9.
- The total outflow of professional and managerial workers was about 70 per cent higher in 1995-9 than in 1975-9 but two groups – Indian Subcontinent and Rest of World – had lower outflows at the end of the period and flows of East and Other Europe citizens were about the same.
- The biggest outflow of professional and managerial workers from the mid-eighties onwards was clearly and consistently of EU/EFTA citizens, who were 42 per cent of the outflow in 1995-9.
- Citizens of the Old Commonwealth and Other Foreign Developed Countries were the other two most significant components of the professional and managerial outflow from the mid-eighties, with the former increasing and the latter decreasing in 1995-9. Together, they were consistently over 40 per cent of the total throughout the twenty-five year period.
- The Rest of World fell from being the largest component of the professional and managerial outflow in the 1975-84 decade to a minor part of it relative to other groups in the last decade.
- The total outflow of manual and clerical workers was more than twice as high in 1995-9 as it had been in 1975-9 though, as in the case of professional and manual workers, the outflows of Indian Subcontinent and Rest of World citizens were lower at the end of the period.
- The Old Commonwealth and EU/EFTA were overwhelmingly the largest components of the manual and clerical outflow throughout the twenty-five years, with the former slightly larger than the latter in the 1990s and the combined outflow forming 77 per cent of the total in 1995-9, the highest proportion for any period.
- Outflows of manual and clerical workers from Other Foreign Developed Countries, from the Indian Subcontinent and from Rest of World countries all declined significantly from the mid-eighties, so that East and Other Europe became the third largest component (at 10%) of the outflow in 1995-9.

8.5.3 Net flows

- Every citizenship group in every five-year period recorded a net inflow, except for one miniscule net outflow of East and Other Europe citizens in 1975-9.
- Every group recorded its highest net inflow in 1995-9, though not preceded in all cases by a smooth upward trend – there was a very sharp drop in EU/EFTA numbers in 1990-4.
- Old Commonwealth citizens were the second largest component of the net inflow for the period as a whole but were the largest in 1995-9, comprising nearly a third of the total.

- Rest of World citizens were the largest component for the period as a whole but the second largest in 1995-9, when they were nearly a quarter of the total.
- Three other groups comprised 12-15 per cent of the total net inflow in 1995-9: Other Foreign Developed Countries; EU/EFTA; and the Indian Subcontinent. East and Other Europe were only four per cent.
- The net inflow of professional and managerial workers rose steadily throughout the period. It more than doubled in 1995-9 and for every group, the total net inflow in this period was predominantly made up of professional and managerial workers: in only two cases, EU/EFTA (59%) and the Indian Subcontinent (66%) were they less than three quarters of the total.
- The total net inflow of manual and clerical workers was almost the same in 1985-9 as in 1995-9 with a sharp drop in 1990-4, and there were many different trends and fluctuations in the inflows of different groups.
- There were many small net inflow figures for the five year periods in respect of manual and clerical workers – the biggest was for EU/EFTA citizens in 1985-9. In 1995-9, Old Commonwealth, EU/EFTA and Rest of World had the largest net inflows, all of fairly similar size.

8.6 Conclusions

Over the last twenty-five years, there have been both constant and changing features in the pattern of inflow and outflow of employed migrants. The mid-eighties seemed to be a crucial period in which many of the changes began to occur. The final years of the 1990s have likewise seen some significant developments, particularly in terms of the overall scale of migration and increased movement of professional and managerial workers.

Citizens of the developed world, and most notably citizens of the Old Commonwealth and EU/EFTA, have formed a high and increasing proportion of workers both entering and leaving the UK since the mid-eighties. Citizens from less developed countries have become a smaller proportion of the inflow than they were at the start of the period and a dwindling part of the outflow.

The data highlight the vital importance of looking at both immigration and emigration to understand the impact of migration on the labour market in the UK. The net flows of migrant workers are somewhat different from what one would expect simply by looking at inflows. Also, the patterns of inflow and outflow in respect of different citizenship groups are not necessarily the same for professional and managerial workers as they are for manual and clerical workers. And even within the categories of 'developed' and 'less developed' countries, there are different migration trends at different periods of time.

Research questions

- What proportion of the outflow of employed people from the UK goes to EU/EFTA countries and what proportion goes elsewhere? Are these proportions constant or changing?
- Is the pattern of movement the same for British and non-British citizens and for different occupational groups?

Main findings

- In the late 'nineties, about a third of employed people leaving the UK went to EU/EFTA countries, two-thirds elsewhere. The proportions were similar for British and non-British migrants and for professional and managerial workers and manual and clerical workers, though British manual and clerical migrants were slightly less likely than others to be going to EU/EFTA destinations.
- The proportion going to EU/EFTA has increased over time, though not dramatically so. The non-British flow to EU/EFTA is largely composed of EU/EFTA citizens.
- Old Commonwealth destinations are still significant for British workers with skills and qualifications and increasingly for working holidaymakers.

9.1 Introduction

This chapter examines some IPS data relating to the destination countries of employed migrants who have left the UK and also looks briefly at additional information contained in some of the annual reports to the OECD's Continuous Reporting System on International Migration (SOPEMI) on the immigration flows of UK workers to Old Commonwealth countries. It seeks to establish the relative importance of EU/EFTA countries, compared to others, as destinations of British and non-British migrants and also to discern whether there are differences between different occupational groups.

The special tabulations mentioned earlier in paragraph 8.1 provided by ONS for the purpose of this study give destination figures for employed people in each of the six citizenship groups defined in the preceding chapter, as well as for British citizens. However, destination countries are classified simply as EU/EFTA and 'Other', so there is no detail on the breakdown of the latter. Also, it should be borne in mind that many of the figures relating to the destinations of different citizenship groups were very small and subject to error – reference is therefore made only to the key features of these data in sections 9.2.3 and 9.2.4 below.

9.2 Destination of employed migrants leaving the UK 1975-99

9.2.1 Destinations of professional and managerial workers

As the following table (Table 9.1) shows, just over a quarter (28%) of the outflow of professionals and managerial workers who were British citizens went to EU/EFTA countries, taking the twenty-five year period as a whole. However, the proportion with an EU/EFTA destination was over a third (34%) in 1995-9 and the actual number going there was almost twice as high as that in the 1975-9 period. The number going to other countries was about 45 per cent higher in 1995-9 than in the earlier period and the increase was greater in absolute terms than the increase in numbers going to EU/EFTA.

Table 9.1: Destinations of British professional and managerial workers leaving the UK (thousands)

	1975-99		1975-79		1995-99	
	thousands	per cent	thousands	per cent	thousands	per cent
EU/EFTA	311.1	28.2	46.7	28.0	91.3	34.4
Other countries	791	71.8	120.3	72.0	173.9	65.6
Total	1102.1	100.0	167.0	100.0	265.2	100.0

Source: IPS

The destination breakdown for professional and managerial workers who were non-British citizens was remarkably similar to that for the British, as was the overall pattern of change in numbers – the number of those with an EU/EFTA destination was over twice as high in 1995-9 as in 1975-9. The proportion going to EU/EFTA countries was higher and the proportion going to other countries lower than in the case of British migrants for each of the periods given but the differences were small. (See Table 9.2).

Table 9.2: Destinations of non-British professional and managerial workers leaving the UK (thousands)

	1975-99		1975-79		1995-99	
	thousands	per cent	thousands	per cent	thousands	per cent
EU/EFTA	166.5	30.1	24.3	29.6	50.3	35.4
Other countries	386.8	69.9	57.9	70.4	91.9	64.6
Total	553.3	100.0	82.2	100.0	142.2	100.0

Source: IPS

9.2.2 Destinations of manual and clerical workers

As in the case of professional and managerial workers, just over a quarter (27%) of British manual and clerical workers leaving the UK between 1975 and 1999 went to EU/EFTA destinations and there was a higher proportion doing so in 1995-9 than at the beginning of the twenty-five year period. (See Table 9.3). However, the actual numbers going to the EU/EFTA countries were slightly smaller in 1995-9 than they were in 1975-9 (though not in 1990-4, when they were nearly 54,000). The numbers going to other countries were substantially smaller in the latter period.

Table 9.3: Destinations of British manual and clerical workers leaving the UK (thousands)

	thousands	1975-99 1975-79		1995-99		
		per cent	thousands	per cent	thousands	per cent
EU/EFTA	221	26.5	40.8	23.8	36.7	27.5
Other countries	612.7	73.5	130.3	76.2	96.8	72.5
Total	833.7	100.0	171.1	100.0	133.5	100.0

Source: IPS

While the proportion of British manual and clerical workers going to EU/EFTA countries 1975-99 was just over a quarter of the total outflow, in the case of the non-British, it was closer to a third (See Table 9.4). The proportion with an EU/EFTA destination in the final five years was slightly higher in 1995-9 than in 1975-9, as it was for British emigrants. However, the trend in respect of actual numbers was dramatically different for non-British compared to British manual and clerical workers. The number of non-British workers going to EU/EFTA in 1995-9 was almost double that in 1975-9, while the number going to other countries was more than double.

Table 9.4: Destinations of non-British manual and clerical workers leaving the UK (thousands)

	thousands	1975-99 1975-79		1995-99		
		per cent	thousands	per cent	thousands	per cent
EU/EFTA	117.8	32.0	17.5	32.4	38.7	34.3
Other countries	250.8	68.0	36.5	67.6	74.1	65.7
Total	368.6	100.0	54.0	100.0	112.8	100.0

Source: IPS

9.2.3 Destinations of non-British professional and managerial workers by citizenship group

When the destinations of non-British citizens are broken down by the six citizenship groups identified in the previous chapter, some indications are given of patterns of movement of workers leaving the UK for other parts of the world.

In the case of professional and managerial workers, EU/EFTA citizens constituted the dominant part of the non-British outflow to EU/EFTA countries during the twenty-five year period. This was true in 1975-9, when they were about three quarters of the total, and even more so in 1995-9, when they accounted for 95 per cent of the recorded outflow. Whilst these percentages may be distorted by sampling or other error, it seems likely that the broad picture is accurate. The size of outflow of every other citizenship group to EU/EFTA countries both at the beginning and end of the period was extremely small.

The flow of non-British professional and managerial workers to other (i.e. non-EU/EFTA) countries was very different in composition. In 1975-9, three citizenship groups dominated the outflow of employed migrants to other destinations. They were Rest of the World, Old Commonwealth and Other Foreign Developed Countries in that order, each representing 25-30 per cent of the total outflow. The other three groups all constituted small numbers.

By 1995-9, the picture had changed somewhat. Old Commonwealth citizens formed 37 per cent of the outflow to other countries, with citizens of Other Foreign Developed Countries in second place at 28 per cent. Rest of the World and EU/EFTA citizens comprised a similar proportion – around 13 per cent – of the total. In terms of actual numbers, three of these groups comprised substantially bigger flows in 1995-9 than they had done in 1975-9; only the Rest of the World component had diminished.

9.2.4 Destinations of non-British manual and clerical workers by citizenship group

As in the case of professional and managerial workers, the outflow of non-British manual and clerical workers to EU/EFTA countries was very largely composed of EU/EFTA citizens both at the beginning and end of the period. The numbers belonging to other citizenship groups were negligible. Comparing 1975-9 to 1995-9, only in the case of the Old Commonwealth group was an increase in flow recorded which might have been indicative of real change, but the figure for the latter period was still very low.

However, Old Commonwealth citizens dominated the outflow of non-British manual and clerical workers to other countries, both in 1975-9 and in 1995-9, with numbers leaving for a non-EU/EFTA destination in the latter period about two and a half times as great as in the former. All the other citizenship groups appeared to be of much lesser importance in numerical terms, with some increasing and others decreasing in relative significance between the beginning and end of the twenty-five year period. The number of EU/EFTA citizens moving from the UK to non-EU/EFTA countries was twice as high in 1995-9 as in 1975-9 but it was still small.

9.2.5 Destinations of British citizens outside EU/EFTA

Earlier sections of this chapter have presented IPS data which indicate that, in 1995-9, some 265,000 British professional and managerial workers left the UK for countries outside the EU/EFTA (i.e. an average of 53,000 per annum), as well as nearly 134,000 manual and clerical workers (about 27,000 per annum). More detail of their destinations is not currently available from this source. However, it is known that migration to Old Commonwealth countries, not necessarily with the intention or expectation of permanent settlement, is one continuing component of the outflow of British workers. The following information has therefore been extracted from recent SOPEMI reports for selected countries, using the most up-to-date figures available, to give some indication of scale of movement.

Australia recorded that in 1999-2000, for the fourth year in succession, the largest group of incoming migrants (using the IPS definition of migrant – intending to stay for at least a year) was from the UK. The current size of inflow, over 23,000, was said to be twelve times as high as it was in 1976-7. This figure included all migrants, not only employed people. The following paragraph focuses on the latter.

Australia grants long-stay business visas to certain immigrants, most of whom are employed in professional and management positions. A quarter are said to be employed in the Information Technology and Telecommunications industry. In 1999-2000, 8015 such visas were granted to UK citizens, out of a total of nearly 35,000. The UK figure was 2.3 per cent higher than the previous year. UK citizens were also by far the largest component of working holiday-maker visa grants by post, with a continuous growth in numbers between 1995 and 2000. In 1999-2000, they were 37,374 out of a total of 71,531 visas granted. In 1995-6, the UK figure had been only 20,526.

In the case of New Zealand, total migration flows into the country in 1998/9 were predictably smaller than the Australian figures, with the inflow of UK nationals at 5,535 the largest component apart from New Zealanders themselves. 'Professional' was the most frequently-recorded occupational classification among migrants as a whole, but there was an extremely high non-response rate in data collection on this subject.

There is a general skills category relating to the immigration of workers to New Zealand, within which higher numbers of qualifying points are awarded for educational qualifications and experience: 17 per cent of total approvals in this category in 1998/99 went to British migrants. In addition, recent steps to encourage the immigration of those wanting to develop new businesses and bring key employees was reported to have attracted 650 initial applications, approximately half from China, Korea and Britain. On working holiday schemes, 4,000 places are currently allocated for UK citizens, by far the largest number from any country.

In Canada, UK citizens in 1999 were 4,476 out of a total of nearly 190,000 'immigrant landings' – only ranked tenth in terms of size of inflow compared to other nationalities. Among skilled worker immigrants (principal applicants), the UK ranked seventh with an inflow of 1,210, a number similar to the two previous years. Those with a university degree among incoming workers of all citizenships rose from 68 per cent in 1997 to 78 per cent in 1999.

There were 122 UK citizens entering Canada in 1999 who were classed as 'business immigrants' – not a big variation from previous years – this category being said to include entrepreneurs, investors and self-employed people expected to benefit the economy. The number of UK citizens admitted as foreign workers with employment authorizations to work in Canada temporarily rose from 5,063 in 1997 to 5,278 in 1998 to 6,116 in 1999 – the UK was ranked third in size of inflow in the last two years.

A further 1,805 people from the UK entered Canada as working holidaymakers in 1999, the figure having risen steadily from 1,005 in 1989. The UK is consistently the third largest source in the Canadian scheme, behind Japan and Australia.

9.3 Conclusions

This chapter has looked briefly at the question of where employed people go when they leave the UK, whether the pattern is the same for British and non-British citizens and whether it is the same for different occupational groups. It has drawn principally on IPS data, with some supplementary information from SOPEMI reports.

Currently, about a third of all professional and managerial workers who leave the UK go to EU/EFTA countries and about two-thirds go elsewhere. The proportion is very similar for both British and non-British emigrants and has increased over time, though not dramatically so.

The non-British flow to EU/EFTA is very largely composed of EU/EFTA citizens – there is no indication that significant numbers of professionals and managerials from outside Western Europe move on from the UK into other parts of the EU/EFTA area. By contrast, there does seem to have been some increase in the EU/EFTA component of the professional and managerial outflow going to countries other than those in the EU/EFTA by the late 'nineties. The key components in this outflow in 1995-9 were citizens of the Old Commonwealth and Other Foreign Developed Countries. Rest of World citizens diminished over the period both numerically and as a proportion of total outflow to non-EU/EFTA countries.

In the case of manual and clerical workers, just over a quarter of the British and about a third of the non-British outflow go to EU/EFTA destinations and the rest to other countries. As in the case of professional and managerial, there has been a slight increase over time in the proportion of emigrants going to EU/EFTA, the non-British who go there are very largely EU/EFTA citizens and EU/EFTA citizens have become a slightly larger component than hitherto in the movement to non-EU/EFTA countries. However, Old Commonwealth citizens were the dominant group in the outflow of non-British manual and clerical workers to other countries at both the beginning and end of the period.

Where British citizens are concerned, even this very cursory look at current movements to Australia, New Zealand and Canada indicate that the Old Commonwealth is still an important destination for UK workers with skills and qualifications, as well as increasing numbers of working holiday makers.

Research questions

- Do immigrants perform better than the indigenous population in terms of socio-economic progression?
- Are there differences in progression rates between immigrants from different places or between males and females?

Main findings

- With the exception of Irish and Old Commonwealth citizens, the other overseas groups seem to experience higher levels of social progression than those who are UK born. However, extending the analysis to the proportion of all upward mobility accounted for only by those moving into highly skilled occupations, it would appear that the indigenous population performs relatively better in this regard than it does overall.
- There are considerable differences between immigrant groups. In general, those from more developed regions have lower rates of upward mobility than those from the Indian Sub-continent and Sub-Saharan Africa.
- These overall findings apply to both sexes. During the 1980s particularly, women had more upward social mobility than men, with those from Africa and the Indian Sub-continent doing especially well. However, the interaction between the three active categories and the residual 'others and unknown' is more influential than for men.

10.1 Introduction

One of the key issues in debates about migration policy is the degree of socio-economic progression made by immigrants over varying time periods. A number of questions are raised in this context – for example, whether immigrants outperform to the indigenous population in terms of progression, whether there are differences in progression rates between immigrants for different places and whether there are differences between males and females in this respect.

Although there is a growing literature which seeks to answer these questions, most of it relates to the US, Canada and Australia. Lack of data for the UK has largely been responsible for a dearth of studies and what information there is mainly relates to ethnic minority groups. The only source that could be used is the Longitudinal Study (LS) but so far little advantage has been taken of it. The analysis presented here is exploratory rather than definitive at this stage¹.

¹ We would like to thank ONS for allowing use of the ONS Longitudinal Study and members of the LS User Support Programme at the Centre for Longitudinal Studies (CLS), Institute for Education for assistance with accessing the data. The views expressed in this publication are not necessarily those of the ONS or CLS.

The main aim of the analysis is to determine the degree of social progression of the various national groups represented and particularly to test the hypothesis that the rate of progression by those born outside the UK has been faster than those who are UK-born. A number of caveats should be made. First, the overseas born are not necessarily foreign nationals, although in the age groups included here the number of UK nationals born overseas is likely to be small and should not affect the conclusions. Second, the data take no account of qualifications held prior to entry or during stay in the UK. Additional research using special tabulations would be required to obtain this information. Third, the analysis includes only those who were already in the UK in 1971. It thus represents the change in circumstances of an historically selected group. More recent immigrants may have a different profile. Within these limits the analysis provides some initial evidence of social progression by different birthplace groups.

10.2 The data used

The LS has been little used for studies of international migration. It has severe limitations as a means of measuring flows and its main value is in the analysis of stock changes between censuses. Nationality is not recorded but birthplace is available.

The present study uses off-the-peg cross tabulations from the LS and not specially commissioned data. The statistics measure the movement between social classes of LS members who were enumerated at the 1971, 1981 and 1991 censuses and who were aged between 16-55 in 1971. The data were of:

1. social class in 1971 by social class in 1981;
2. social class in 1981 by social class in 1991; and
3. social class in 1971 by social class in 1991

for each sex and for various grouped countries of birth. The data include only people who were present at all three census dates, and consequently ignore those who came and went during the 20 year period.

The countries included were: UK; Ireland; Rest of Western Europe (excluding Malta, Gozo and Cyprus); Australia, New Zealand and Canada; Indian Sub-continent; USA; Sub-Saharan Africa (excluding the Republic of South Africa and Zimbabwe). The selected country groups were chosen to be indicative and to contain a sufficiently large sample for the results to have some validity. The sample size varied significantly, the numbers from each sex and the total being recorded in Table 10.1

Table 10.1: Number in sample

	UK	Irish Republic	Rest of Western Europe	Australia, New Zealand & Canada	Indian Subcontinent	USA	Sub-Saharan Africa
Total	185679	2805	1833	323	2867	135	502
Male	89299	1226	613	147	1810	69	284
Female	96380	1579	1220	176	1057	66	218

Source: ONS Longitudinal Study

Data were provided for seven social categories: professional; intermediate (managerial and technical in 1981-91); skilled non-manual; skilled manual; partly skilled; unskilled; others and unknown. Because of sample size, these were combined into three 'active' categories (the first pair, the second pair and the third

pair) with the last as a residual. The 'others and unknown' category was included in the main analysis on the assumption that for the most part it contained people who moved in or out of the labour force. The main components of this category are students, housewives, disabled, permanently sick, retired and Armed Forces. It is unlikely that the last group would have contained many overseas born. In light of the possibility that the inclusion of the 'others and unknown' category might have affected some of the results, a second analysis was done and which included only the three active categories.

Table 10.2: Percentage of sample in professional and intermediate categories, 1971

Birthplace	Percentage
United Kingdom	15.4
Ireland	12.8
Rest of Western Europe	15.4
Australia, New Zealand, Canada	30.3
Indian Sub-Continent	11.9
United States	27.4
Sub-Saharan Africa	14.3

Source: ONS Longitudinal Study

The socio-economic nature of the sample at the start of the period will have an effect on the analysis in that the lower the status, the greater the scope for upward mobility. However, the relationship is not straightforward, given that there are several socio-economic categories involved and that downward as well as upward movement may occur. As Table 10.2 shows, the birthplace groups did not all start from the same level. In 1971 those from Australia, New Zealand and Canada (Old Commonwealth) and from the US were more likely already to be in the professional and intermediate categories. Among the other groups, the proportions were not greatly different. On this evidence, it would be reasonable to expect that the scope for social progression into the highest categories among those born in the Old Commonwealth and the US was less than for the others. This needs to be borne in mind in the rest of the chapter although it does not materially affect the main conclusions.

See Table 10.3

10.3 Social progression 1971-91

Table 10.3 summarises the proportions of each birthplace group who experienced upward or downward mobility or remained in the same category for the dates indicated. In this analysis a move from the 'others and unknown' category is regarded as an upward move, while one into that category is the reverse.

For the total population 29.9 per cent of the UK-born had upward mobility between 1971 and 1991. The Irish did slightly less well, those from the Australia, New Zealand and Canada (Old Commonwealth – OC) group had the lowest rate of 23.2 per cent. In contrast, those born in the Indian Sub-continent (ISC), USA and Africa experienced greater degrees of upward mobility than the UK-born. Those from the Rest of Western Europe (RWE) had a similar experience to the indigenous population. Downward mobility followed a broadly reciprocal pattern, with Africans least likely to have that experience.

Table 10.3: Social progression including others/unknown (per cent)

	1971-1981			1981-1991			1971-1991			
	Upward	Static	Downward	Upward	Downward	Static	Upward	Downward	Static	
Total										
UK	25.5	55.8	18.7	19.5	18.1	62.4	29.9	18.1	47.1	23.0
Irish Republic	26.3	55.7	18.1	18.2	22.1	59.6	29.1	22.1	45.2	25.7
Rest of Western Europe	26.2	55.8	18.0	17.9	17.9	64.1	30.6	17.9	47.5	21.9
Australia, New Zealand & Canada	23.2	57.6	19.2	17.0	20.1	62.8	23.2	20.1	53.6	23.2
Indian Subcontinent	28.0	56.0	15.9	20.5	18.6	60.9	34.3	18.6	45.4	20.3
USA	32.6	52.6	14.8	17.8	24.4	57.8	33.3	24.4	43.0	23.7
Sub-Saharan Africa	37.1	48.2	14.7	24.7	14.1	61.2	44.8	14.1	41.2	13.9
Males										
UK	23.6	62.7	13.7	13.9	21.9	64.2	25.3	21.9	51.0	23.7
Irish Republic	21.9	61.7	16.4	14.5	26.5	59.0	22.8	26.5	48.1	29.0
Rest of Western Europe	25.1	58.7	16.2	14.4	20.6	65.1	26.1	20.6	49.8	24.1
Australia, New Zealand & Canada	21.8	64.6	13.6	11.6	26.5	61.9	19.7	26.5	54.4	25.9
Indian Subcontinent	28.0	54.4	17.6	18.2	21.9	59.8	32.2	21.9	43.1	24.8
USA	36.2	52.2	11.6	13.0	29.0	58.0	30.4	29.0	43.5	26.1
Sub-Saharan Africa	40.1	48.2	11.6	20.8	16.2	63.0	45.1	16.2	39.8	15.1
Females										
UK	27.2	49.5	23.3	24.7	14.6	60.7	34.1	14.6	43.6	22.4
Irish Republic	29.6	51.0	19.4	21.1	18.7	60.2	34.0	18.7	42.9	23.1
Rest of Western Europe	26.7	54.3	18.9	19.8	16.6	63.6	32.8	16.6	46.4	20.8
Australia, New Zealand & Canada	24.4	51.7	23.9	21.6	14.8	63.6	26.1	14.8	52.8	21.0
Indian Subcontinent	28.2	58.8	13.1	24.4	12.8	62.8	37.9	12.8	49.4	12.7
USA	28.8	53.0	18.2	22.7	19.7	57.6	36.4	19.7	42.4	21.2
Sub-Saharan Africa	33.0	48.2	18.8	29.8	11.5	58.7	44.5	11.5	43.1	12.4

Source: ONS Longitudinal Study

Table 10.4: Difference between proportions experiencing upward and downward movements (including others/unknown)

Total			
	1971-1981	1981-1991	1971-1991
UK	6.8	1.4	6.9
Irish Republic	8.2	-3.9	3.5
Rest of Western Europe	8.2	0.0	8.6
Australia, New Zealand & Canada	4.0	-3.1	0.0
Indian Subcontinent	12.1	2.0	14.0
USA	17.8	-6.7	9.6
Sub-Saharan Africa	22.3	10.6	30.9
Males			
	1971-1981	1981-1991	1971-1991
UK	9.9	-8.0	1.6
Irish Republic	5.5	-12.0	-6.2
Rest of Western Europe	9.0	-6.2	2.0
Australia, New Zealand & Canada	8.2	-15.0	-6.1
Indian Subcontinent	10.3	-3.7	7.4
USA	24.6	-15.9	4.3
Sub-Saharan Africa	28.5	4.6	29.9
Females			
	1971-1981	1981-1991	1971-1991
UK	3.9	10.1	11.7
Irish Republic	10.3	2.3	11.0
Rest of Western Europe	7.8	3.1	12.0
Australia, New Zealand & Canada	0.6	6.8	5.1
Indian Subcontinent	15.1	11.6	25.3
USA	10.6	3.0	15.2
Sub-Saharan Africa	14.2	18.3	32.1

Source: ONS Longitudinal Study

Table 10.4 presents the degree of difference between the proportions having upward and downward mobility respectively for the birthplace groups (a negative value indicates a greater proportion had downward mobility). The difference for the UK-born was 6.9 percentage points; the Irish did less well, with about half that gain, the RWE somewhat better. For the Old Commonwealth group, as many experienced downward mobility as upward. Those born in the ISC and especially in Africa were much more likely to experience net upward movement.

This broad pattern applies to both males and females, although the rates of progression were significantly higher among women (Table 10.3). Women born in Africa and the ISC did particularly well. Comparison of the differences in rates of upward and downward movement (Table 10.4) emphasises the variation between the sexes. Irish men and those from the Old Commonwealth group were more likely to experience downward rather than upward movement, in sharp contrast to the women from these places. While both sexes from the ISC and Africa showed clear progression, this was especially the case for women.

Table 10.5: Social progression excluding others/unknown (per cent)

Total	1971-1981			1981-1991			1971-1991		
	Upward	Static	Downward	Upward	Downward	Static	Upward	Downward	Static
UK	18.4	68.8	12.8	15.2	73.4	11.5	22.6	62.6	14.7
Irish Republic	18.0	69.5	12.5	15.4	73.5	11.1	23.6	62.4	14.0
Rest of Western Europe	19.5	67.7	12.8	13.2	75.8	11.0	24.1	62.5	13.4
Australia, New Zealand & Canada	14.3	74.5	11.2	12.4	76.1	11.4	15.7	71.4	13.0
Indian Subcontinent	22.8	63.8	13.4	18.0	70.5	11.5	30.5	56.6	12.9
USA	17.9	70.5	11.5	12.9	75.3	11.8	19.7	66.7	13.6
Sub-Saharan Africa	21.3	66.4	12.2	18.1	72.3	9.6	28.4	59.9	11.8
Males									
	1971-1981			1981-1991			1971-1991		
	Upward	Static	Downward	Upward	Downward	Static	Upward	Downward	Static
UK	19.0	68.3	12.7	14.5	73.1	12.3	23.5	62.1	14.4
Irish Republic	18.8	68.2	13.0	15.6	72.4	12.0	24.4	62.1	13.5
Rest of Western Europe	21.6	64.2	14.2	14.9	74.9	10.3	25.7	60.8	13.5
Australia, New Zealand & Canada	15.5	72.9	11.6	12.8	74.4	12.8	18.2	69.1	12.7
Indian Subcontinent	23.6	62.5	13.9	18.0	70.2	11.8	31.9	54.4	13.7
USA	22.2	64.8	13.0	15.1	73.6	11.3	19.5	70.7	9.8
Sub-Saharan Africa	23.9	64.7	11.4	19.4	69.8	10.9	30.7	58.2	11.1
Females									
	1971-1981			1981-1991			1971-1991		
	Upward	Static	Downward	Upward	Downward	Static	Upward	Downward	Static
UK	17.1	70.1	12.9	16.2	73.8	10.0	21.0	63.7	15.3
Irish Republic	16.5	71.9	11.6	15.1	74.9	10.0	22.3	62.9	14.7
Rest of Western Europe	17.1	71.8	11.1	11.7	76.6	11.7	22.4	64.3	13.3
Australia, New Zealand & Canada	11.9	77.6	10.4	11.9	78.6	9.5	12.0	74.7	13.3
Indian Subcontinent	18.8	70.6	10.6	18.0	71.5	10.5	23.4	67.4	9.2
USA	8.3	83.3	8.3	9.4	78.1	12.5	20.0	60.0	20.0
Sub-Saharan Africa	15.3	70.6	14.1	15.6	77.3	7.0	24.0	63.0	13.0

Source: ONS Longitudinal Study

Tables 10.5 and 10.6 show the results of a similar analysis with the 'others and unknown' category excluded. A similar pattern of upward and downward movement by birthplace group to that described above is manifest. The main change is the expected increase in the proportion who did not change category, to around 60-70 per cent of the total. For the total population the Irish and RWE groups had similar rates of upward movement to the UK-born, the Old Commonwealth- and (unlike the analysis including the 'others and unknown') the USA-born were less likely to move upwards, those from the ISC and Africa more so.

Table 10.6 confirms the strong variations between birthplace groups, although there are some differences when compared with Table 10.4, notably the better performance of the Irish and the relative worsening of the USA-born.

These patterns were broadly repeated for males and females. The exclusion of the 'other and unknown' category improved the relative performance of males. For example, the difference between the proportions experiencing upward and downward mobility for the UK-born rose from 1.6 to 9 percentage points, that for the Irish from -6.2 to 10.9 and for the Old Commonwealth group from -6.1 to 5.5. For women the effect was the reverse, with the difference generally narrowing. These results suggest that for males, exchanges between the 'active' classes and the residual 'others and unknown' tended to be downward, while for females the reverse was the case. This is consistent with the trend towards the mobilisation of married women into the workforce during the period under review.

Overall, these results seem to provide prima facie evidence that, when all categories are included, immigrants experience greater social progression during their stay in the UK than the UK-born with the exception of those born in the Old Commonwealth and the Irish. When the 'others and unknown' category is excluded, most of the non-UK born groups still outperform the indigenous population in upward social progression. These results are broadly in accordance with findings from elsewhere (notably the US, Canada and Australia) that immigrants are more likely to improve their position rather than the reverse and that they do so at a faster rate than the indigenous population. However, more analysis is needed of the circumstances of particular groups before this may be taken as an axiom.

Table 10.6: Difference between proportions experiencing upward and downward movements (excluding others/unknown)

Total			
	1971-1981	1981-1991	1971-1991
UK	5.6	3.7	7.9
Irish Republic	5.5	4.3	9.6
Rest of Western Europe	6.8	2.2	10.6
Australia, New Zealand & Canada	3.1	1.0	2.7
Indian Subcontinent	9.5	6.5	17.5
USA	6.4	1.2	6.1
Sub-Saharan Africa	9.1	8.5	16.6
Males			
	1971-1981	1981-1991	1971-1991
UK	6.3	2.2	9.0
Irish Republic	5.8	3.6	10.9
Rest of Western Europe	7.4	4.6	12.1
Australia, New Zealand & Canada	3.9	0.0	5.5
Indian Subcontinent	9.7	6.1	18.2
USA	9.3	3.8	9.8
Sub-Saharan Africa	12.4	8.5	19.6
Females			
	1971-1981	1981-1991	1971-1991
UK	4.2	6.2	5.7
Irish Republic	4.9	5.1	7.6
Rest of Western Europe	6.1	0.0	9.0
Australia, New Zealand & Canada	1.5	2.4	-1.3
Indian Subcontinent	8.2	7.5	14.2
USA	0.0	-3.1	0.0
Sub-Saharan Africa	1.2	8.6	11.0

Source: ONS Longitudinal Study

10.4 Social progression 1971-81 and 1981-91

The analysis so far has reviewed changes over a twenty year period. When this is broken down into the two component intercensal decades, substantial differences emerge between the 1970s and 1980s. It would thus appear that the rate and direction of progression is related to the (probably economic) context in which they occur.

For the total population rates of upward movement (including the 'others and unknown' category) were much higher and rates of downward movement much lower during the 1970s than in the 1980s (Table 10.3). The now familiar differences between birthplace groups were again present, with higher rates of upward movement among those born in the ISC, USA and Africa and lower ones among those from the Old Commonwealth and UK. These variations between birthplace groups are reiterated when the differences

between proportions moving upwards and downwards are examined (Table 10.4). With the exception of the OC-born, all immigrant groups did better than the indigenous population, this being especially so for Africans, Americans and those from the ISC. During the 1980s proportions of upward movement were generally smaller. The Irish, OC and USA-born had more downward than upward movement, those from RWE were in balance, ISC-born did slightly better than the UK group, African-born much more so.

It is unclear why the relative deterioration in social condition during the 1980s occurred. The most likely explanation is that at the time of the 1981 census the full force of the recession and job shake-out of the early 1980s had not yet taken place. Any effects of this would have been compounded by the fact that the census in 1991 occurred in the middle of recession which, furthermore, tended initially to affect the upper end of the socio-economic spectrum. This would explain why all birthplace groups had a similar experience. Nevertheless, in the 1980s the overseas born managed for the most part to experience higher levels of progression than the indigenous group.

Figures relating to the total population hide considerable differences between the experiences of males and females. Although the 1980s saw generally lower levels of upward movement, women considerably outperformed men (Table 10.3). This is particularly apparent when the difference in proportions moving upwards and downwards between the sexes is examined. Whereas for males all birthplace groups except Africans experienced more downward than upward movement, all female groups had a preponderance of upward movement. Women from Africa and the ISC did particularly well. One interesting feature is the good performance of UK-born women in the 1980s, especially in comparison with those from the Irish Republic, RWE, OC and USA. They also improved relatively to those from the ISC and Africa compared with the 1970s: the rate of upward mobility for UK-born women rose by 6.2 percentage points between the decade (3.9 to 10.1), that for African women rose by 4.1 while that for ISC women fell by 3.5 percentage points (Table 10.4). This suggests that at a time of economic difficulty and restructuring UK-born women were more likely to experience social progression than all males and most of the foreign-born female groups. This implies a greater mobilisation of women from the 'others and unknown' group and an easier transition up through the active groups.

Exclusion of the 'others and unknown' category does not materially alter the pattern between the birthplace groups. However, there are some differences between the decades. For males no group had an excess of downward movement during the 1980s, unlike the situation depicted in Table 10.4. The relative improvement in upward mobility between the decades was especially noticeable for the Irish-, the OC- and the USA-born. The implication is that movement between the active categories and the residual 'others and unknown' category varied in significance between birthplace groups. For females, the 1980s saw more progression for the UK-born than the 1970s, for those from RWE, ISC and USA less, for the Irish there was little difference between the two decades, but for the African-born there was a major increase.

Overall, what the analysis shows is that although more needs to be known about the interaction between the active and residual categories, ultimately most immigrant groups, especially those from ISC and Africa, did better than the indigenous population.

10.5 Mobility into the professional, managerial and technical category

Thus far the analysis has been in terms of mobility between all of the social categories. This section focuses only on those who moved into professional, managerial and technical (PMT) occupations. Table 10.7 shows the proportion of all upward moves (including those from the 'others and unknown') that were into this category during the twenty-year period 1971-91.

Table 10.7: Upward movement to professional/managerial/technical as a proportion of total upwards movement (per cent)

Total	
	1971-1991
UK	48.3
Irish Republic	37.6
Rest of Western Europe	44.8
Australia, New Zealand & Canada	64.0
Indian Subcontinent	42.3
USA	66.7
Sub-Saharan Africa	58.2
Males	
	1971-1991
UK	67.0
Irish Republic	50.4
Rest of Western Europe	61.3
Australia, New Zealand & Canada	79.3
Indian Subcontinent	48.6
USA	57.1
Sub-Saharan Africa	67.2
Females	
	1971-1991
UK	35.4
Irish Republic	30.9
Rest of Western Europe	38.3
Australia, New Zealand & Canada	54.3
Indian Subcontinent	33.2
USA	75.0
Sub-Saharan Africa	46.4

Source: ONS Longitudinal Study

For the total population just under half of all upward moves by UK-born people were into PMT occupations. Those born in the Irish Republic were least likely to take this path (37.6%); the RWE and ISC groups did better than the Irish but worse than the UK-born. In contrast, those from the OC and USA did considerably better, as did the African-born. These figures indicate that although the OC-born have relatively low rates of overall upward mobility, that which occurs tends to be into the most highly skilled jobs. In contrast, mobility by the ISC-born is high overall but they are less likely than others to move into these types of jobs. Africans not only have the highest overall upward mobility, but a higher proportion of them move into highly skilled jobs than the UK-born and than several of the other immigrant groups.

The pattern for the population as a whole hides significant differences between the sexes. Among males, almost four-fifths of upward moves by those from the OC were into PMT occupations, around two-thirds by

Africans and UK-born, with lower percentages from the RWE, USA and especially the Irish Republic and the ISC. Among females, around three-quarters of the upwardly mobile from the USA were into PMT jobs, although the sample size was very small. Those born in the OC and in Africa had relatively high proportions moving into highly skilled occupations and the proportion for the RWE was also higher than that for the UK-born. Women from the ISC and the Irish Republic had the lowest proportions moving into PMT occupations.

10.6 Conclusions

On the basis of the evidence presented above, many immigrants are upwardly mobile in social terms. With the exception of the Irish and those from the OC, the other overseas groups seem to experience higher levels of social progression than those who are UK-born. However, extending the analysis to the proportion of all upward mobility accounted for only by those moving into highly skilled occupations suggests that a qualification should be added. The indigenous population performs relatively better in this regard than it does overall.

There are also considerable differences between the immigrant groups. In general, those from the more developed regions (RWE, OC, Irish Republic, and to a lesser extent USA) have lower rates of upward mobility than those from the ISC and Africa. Put simply, social improvement as measured here is at a faster rate among those coming from less developed regions. Africans even have higher proportions of upward movers entering the PMT category than the three European groups. However, the significance of this conclusion has to be tempered by the higher starting level of the Old Commonwealth and US groups discussed in Section 10.2.

These broad conclusions apply to both sexes. During the 1980's particularly, women had more upward social mobility than men with those from Africa and ISC doing especially well. However the interaction between the three active categories and the residual 'others and unknown' is more influential than for men.

These findings are significant. They seem to provide evidence that many immigrants in the UK have higher rates of social progression than the indigenous population. Perhaps more interesting is that on the whole it is those coming from less developed parts of the world, namely from the sub-Saharan Africa and the ISC, who experience the greatest gains.

This broad pattern is apparent whether or not the large 'others and unknown' category is included. However, more analysis is required of who is entering and leaving this category. It appears, for example, that the high rate of upward mobility by the ISC born is partly accounted for by shifts into the two lower 'active' categories (skilled non-manual/manual; partly skilled/unskilled).

Finally, this analysis has been unable to take into account other variables. More information is needed on the qualifications held by immigrants, including those acquired before arrival in the UK and those gained after entry and whether or not they are granted by foreign or British institutions. Age is another important variable and may be particularly significant in identifying students entering the labour market whose social progression might then be tracked.

Research questions

- What trends of change have occurred in the total foreign population and in foreign labour stocks in the UK since the mid-eighties and have these trends been different?
- Are there differential trends by region of origin?
- How do foreign workers compare with UK nationals in terms of broad socio-economic and industrial groups and by regional distribution?
- What does the Labour Force Survey reveal about inflows of migrant labour?

Main findings

- Both the foreign population and the foreign workforce rose steadily from the mid-eighties to the late 'nineties, with females outstretching males, although the sex balance has been fairly stable in recent years.
- The foreign workforce rose quickly towards the end of the period, by more than a quarter between 1995 and 2000. However, there was a decline in the proportion from other EU states in this final period, mainly due to falling numbers of Irish.
- The foreign national workforce has a broadly similar occupational structure to that of the overall population but is generally more skilled. It is highly concentrated in London and, to a lesser extent, the rest of the South-East.
- The industrial pattern of employment of foreign nationals has been generally stable and similar in its distribution to the UK workforce, though foreign workers are more likely to be found in labour-intensive sectors.
- Comparison of the inflow of migrant workers with stocks of labour indicates that immigrants, especially the British, have higher skill levels. However, non-EU nationals entering the UK are less likely than others to be highly-skilled.
- Foreigners entering the UK, both to live and work, are between two and three times more likely to move to London than incoming British citizens.

11.1 Introduction

The Labour Force Survey is the only source of data on the nationality of the foreign population and workforce in the UK. The survey includes all UK and foreign citizens, but the relatively small size of the sample (broadly speaking, one sample interviewee is weighted up to 300 people in total) means that disaggregation by

nationality and migrant characteristics cannot be detailed. Partly for this reason, LFS data on international migration are not regularly published. Annual fluctuations may reflect sampling errors. A summary of the situation for 1992-3 was published in January 1995¹ and one for 1996-7 in July 1998².

This chapter aims to present an overview of the scale and nature of the foreign population and workforce and the basic trends that have occurred since the mid-1980s when LFS data became available. It examines whether there are differential trends by region of origin or different trends between total foreign population and labour stocks. It compares foreign workers with UK nationals in terms of broad socio-economic and industrial groups and by regional distribution. It also analyses information on inflows of migrant labour.

11.2 Stocks of foreign population

A major and ultimately irresolvable problem in producing a consistent time series for the foreign population back to 1984 is the change in methodology of the LFS after 1992. Until then a substantial number of respondents each year had no nationality recorded and were returned as "Unknown/No answer". The number ranged from 442,000 in 1985 to 803,000 in 1988. In 1991, the last year of the old LFS they numbered 625,000; in 1992 there were only 8,000 so recorded. In the nine year period 1992-2000 the number was under 10,000 on four occasions, peaking at 30,000 in 1994.

The size of this reduction makes it impossible to continue a consistent time series back beyond 1992. However, by looking at the change in numbers of UK and foreign nationals between 1991 and 1992, it is possible to obtain some idea of how the "Unknown/No answer" group might have been allocated after 1991. Such a comparison is better done for the total population than for those in employment, since this was the deepest part of the recession of the early 1990s when major losses of employment were occurring. Changes in the labour market may thus hide the impact of the changes in survey methodology. When the comparison is done for the population as a whole, the picture becomes clearer. Between 1991 and 1992, the total UK population remained more or less constant, the recorded domestic population rose by 449,000 and the foreign population by 194,000. It would thus appear that the 'Not Stated' population was divided roughly 2:1. Although this evidence is insufficient to produce an accurate historical time series, for each year reallocating the large "Unknown/No answer" group in this proportion, it does suggest that historically the LFS has tended to underestimate the number of foreign nationals recorded. For example, in 1985 an additional 145,000 would have been added to the 1.75 million foreigners recorded; in 1988 a further 265,000 would supplement the 1.84 million recorded. A similar scenario would also apply to the numbers of foreigners working in the UK.

11.3 Total numbers 1984-2000

Table 11.1 presents a summary review of the foreign population in the UK from 1984 to 2000. The total foreign population has risen steadily with minor downturns in 1987, 1989-91 and 1994 (Figure 11.1). The rise between 1991 and 1992, from 1.83 to 2.03 million partly reflects the reallocation of the "Unknown/No answer" group referred to above. The overall increase between 1984 and 2000 was 812,000 (53%), almost 51,000 per annum. However, if the "Unknown/No answer" group is reallocated on a 2:1 basis as described above, the increase would be only 591,000 (34%) or 37,000 per annum.

1 Salt, J., Foreign workers in the United Kingdom: evidence from the Labour Force Survey, Employment Gazette, January 1995, 11-19.

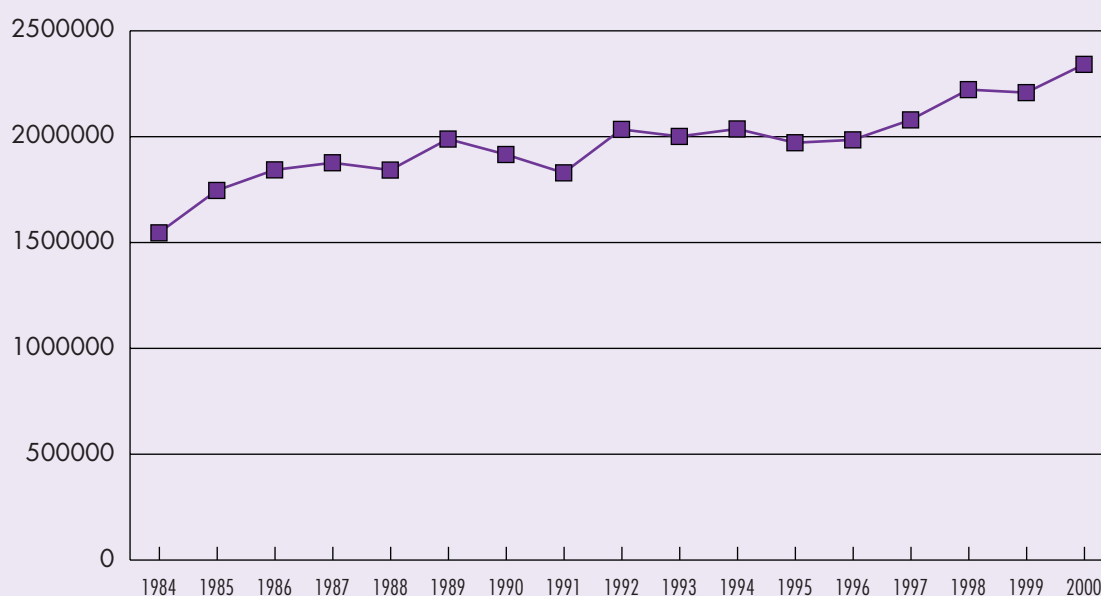
2 Salt, J. and Clarke, J.A., Flows and stocks of foreign labour in the UK, Labour Market Trends, July 1998. 371-385

11.4 Males and females

The total foreign population is not evenly divided between the sexes. In 1984 there were 767,000 foreign males and 779,000 females. Not only have females been in the majority throughout, but that tendency has been increasing. By 2000 foreign males numbered 1.109 million, females 1.249 million. The increased female dominance was particularly a feature of the 1980s and early 1990s. However, it appears that from the mid-1990s the balance between the sexes has become more stable (Figure 11.2), levelling off at around 47 per cent males, 53 per cent females.

See Table 11.1

Figure 11.1: Total foreign nationals in UK population 1984-2000



Source: LFS

Table 11.1: UK population by citizenship and sex, 1984-2000

Thousands

	1984	1985	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000
Total	55695	55843	56004	56157	56305	56501	56704	56939	57106	57307	57489	57680	57881	58105	58317	58506	58650
UK (inc Channel Islands & IOM)	53527	53654	53459	53683	53660	53907	54258	54485	55063	55277	55445	55696	55889	56019	56091	56247	56277
Foreign Nationals	1546	1746	1843	1877	1842	1989	1916	1829	2034	2001	2037	1971	1985	2079	2222	2253	2358
Europe Foreign Total	789	931	925	965	1014	1095	1044	938	966	909	981	948	971	991	1068	1074	1043
EU15 Foreign & EFTA Total	703	829	822	857	916	980	938	829	850	791	842	813	835	831	878	925	864
Central and Eastern Europe	52	67	61	57	52	63	57	60	58	61	72	75	75	84	100	84	121
Other Europe	34	35	43	51	46	52	49	49	58	58	68	60	61	76	89	64	58
Africa	96	104	90	92	98	107	120	136	120	114	215	223	235	262	264	292	346
Americas	252	283	343	310	248	295	246	220	281	280	223	250	232	237	273	264	279
Asia	359	381	436	460	425	431	431	448	496	533	511	454	434	475	518	525	569
Indian Sub-Continent	241	235	288	296	265	291	267	285	308	333	284	269	273	268	321	330	346
Oceania	48	43	46	47	53	61	67	56	71	78	69	71	89	88	88	89	107
Other	:	11	:	12	12	:	19	23	16	11	:	11	:	15	:	:	15
Stateless	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
Unknown/No Answer	622	442	702	598	803	606	530	625	:	28	30	12	:	:	:	:	15
Non-EU/EFTA	843	917	1021	1019	926	1009	978	1000	1185	1210	1195	1159	1150	1249	1344	1328	1494
Non-EU/EFTA Advanced Economies	183	195	244	228	224	246	249	231	281	286	245	266	272	282	310	299	305
Non-EU/EFTA Other	660	722	777	792	702	763	729	769	904	924	950	893	878	966	1034	1029	1189

Foreign nationals by citizenship as a proportion of the total foreign population (per cent)

	1984	1985	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000
Foreign Nationals	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Europe Foreign Total	51.0	53.3	50.2	51.4	55.0	55.1	54.5	51.3	47.5	45.4	48.2	48.1	48.9	47.7	48.1	47.7	44.2
EU15 Foreign & EFTA Total	45.5	47.5	44.6	45.7	49.7	49.3	49.0	45.3	41.8	39.5	41.3	41.2	42.1	40.0	39.5	41.1	36.6
Central and Eastern Europe	3.4	3.8	3.3	3.0	2.8	3.2	3.0	3.3	2.9	3.0	3.5	3.8	3.8	4.0	4.5	3.7	5.1
Other Europe	2.2	2.0	2.3	2.7	2.5	2.6	2.6	2.7	2.9	2.9	3.3	3.0	3.1	3.7	4.0	2.8	2.5
Africa	6.2	6.0	4.9	4.9	5.3	5.4	6.3	7.4	5.9	5.7	10.6	11.3	11.8	12.6	11.9	13.0	14.7
Americas	16.3	16.2	18.6	16.5	13.5	14.8	12.8	12.0	13.8	14.0	10.9	12.7	11.7	11.4	12.3	11.7	11.8
Asia	23.2	21.8	23.7	24.5	23.1	21.7	22.5	24.5	24.4	26.6	25.1	23.0	21.9	22.8	23.3	23.3	24.1
Indian Sub-Continent	15.6	13.5	15.6	15.8	14.4	14.6	13.9	15.6	15.1	16.6	13.9	13.6	13.8	12.9	14.4	14.6	14.7
Oceania	3.1	2.5	2.5	2.5	2.9	3.1	3.5	3.1	3.5	3.9	3.4	3.6	4.5	4.2	4.0	4.0	4.5
Other	:	0.6	:	0.6	0.7	:	1.0	1.3	0.8	0.5	:	0.6	:	0.7	:	:	0.6
Stateless	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
Unknown/No Answer	40.2	25.3	38.1	31.9	43.6	30.5	27.7	34.2	:	1.4	1.5	0.6	:	:	:	:	0.6
Non-EU/EFTA	54.5	52.5	55.4	54.3	50.3	50.7	51.0	54.7	58.3	60.5	58.7	58.8	57.9	60.1	60.5	58.9	63.4
Non-EU/EFTA Advanced Economies	11.8	11.2	13.2	12.1	12.2	12.4	13.0	12.6	13.8	14.3	12.0	13.5	13.7	13.6	14.0	13.3	12.9
Non-EU/EFTA Other	42.7	41.4	42.2	42.2	38.1	38.4	38.0	42.0	44.4	46.2	46.6	45.3	44.2	46.5	46.5	45.7	50.4

Foreign Nationals by sex, 1984-2000 (thousands)

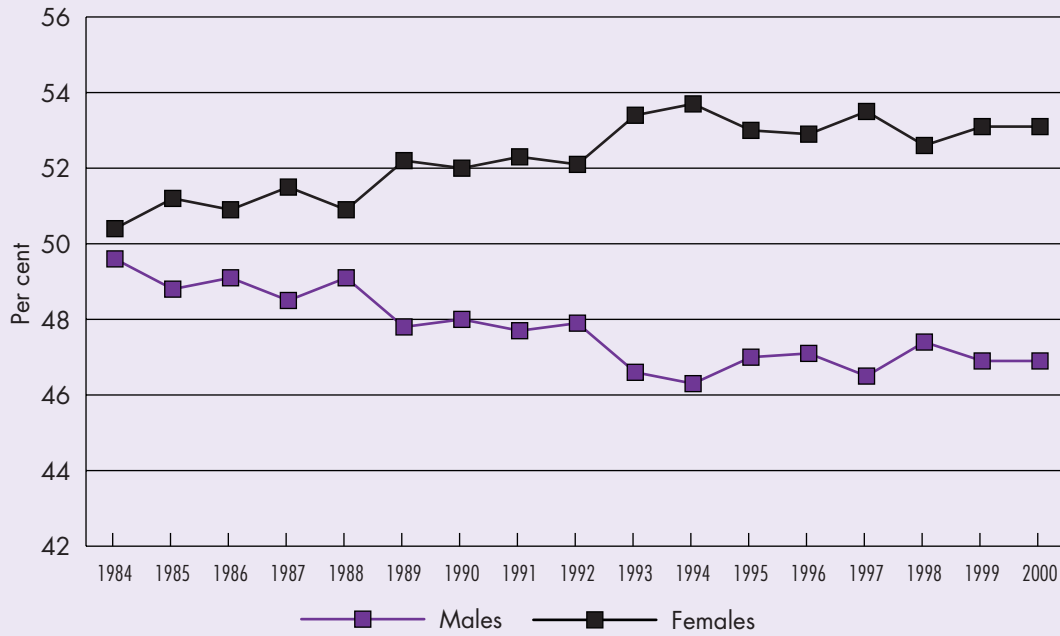
	1984	1985	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000
Both sexes	1546	1746	1843	1877	1842	1989	1916	1829	2034	2001	2037	1971	1985	2079	2222	2253	2358
Males	767	851	905	910	905	950	920	872	974	932	942	927	935	968	1053	1063	1109
Females	779	895	938	967	938	1039	996	957	1061	1070	1094	1045	1050	1112	1170	1190	1249

Foreign Nationals by sex, 1984-2000 (per cent)

	1984	1985	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000
Both sexes	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Males	49.6	48.7	49.1	48.5	49.1	47.8	48.0	47.7	47.9	46.6	46.2	47.0	47.1	46.6	47.4	47.2	47.0
Females	50.4	51.3	50.9	51.5	50.9	52.2	52.0	52.3	52.2	53.5	53.7	53.0	52.9	53.5	52.7	52.8	53.0

Source: IFS

Figure 11.2: UK foreign population by sex, 1984-2000

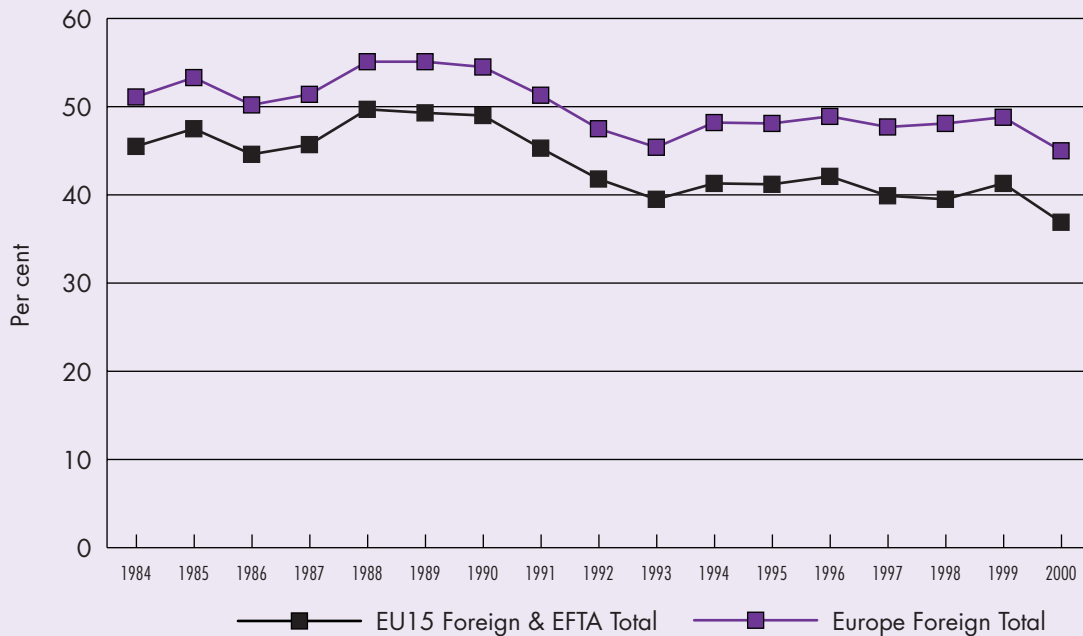


Source: LFS

11.5 Regions of origin

11.5.1 Europe

Around half of all foreign nationals have been citizens of other European countries, 789,000 in 1984 rising to 1.043 million in 2000. However, the relative importance of the European spring seems to have been diminishing (Figure 11.3). In the 1980s Europeans fluctuated between 50 and 55 per cent, peaking in 1988-89. From 1992 onwards the European proportion of the total was around 47-48 per cent for the most part, but fell in 2000 to 45 per cent, the lowest figure recorded. Indeed, in 2000 the absolute number of Europeans fell marginally by 23,000.

Figure 11.3: UK foreign population by region – Europe, 1984-2000

Source: LFS

The European total masks differences between the constituent parts of the continent. Most notably, the proportion accounted for by the EU and EFTA has fallen, from 45-50 per cent during the 1980s and early 1990s to around 40 per cent during most of the 1990s and down to 37 per cent in 2000. Figure 11.3 reflects this situation: although the graphs of the total European foreign population and of EU and EFTA follow a similar trajectory, the gap has been widening. In contrast, both the numbers and proportions from Central and Eastern Europe and Other Europe (which includes Cyprus, Malta and Turkey) have risen, the former from 52,000 to 121,000, the latter from 34,000 to 89,000 in 1998 but falling to 58,000 in 2000. These trends are reflected in the proportions of total foreign stock accounted for. Central and Eastern Europeans, about 3 per cent of the total until 1993, subsequently rose to 5.1 per cent by 2000; Other Europeans reached 4 per cent in 1998 but have fallen in the last couple of years to their level of the 1980s and early 1990s.

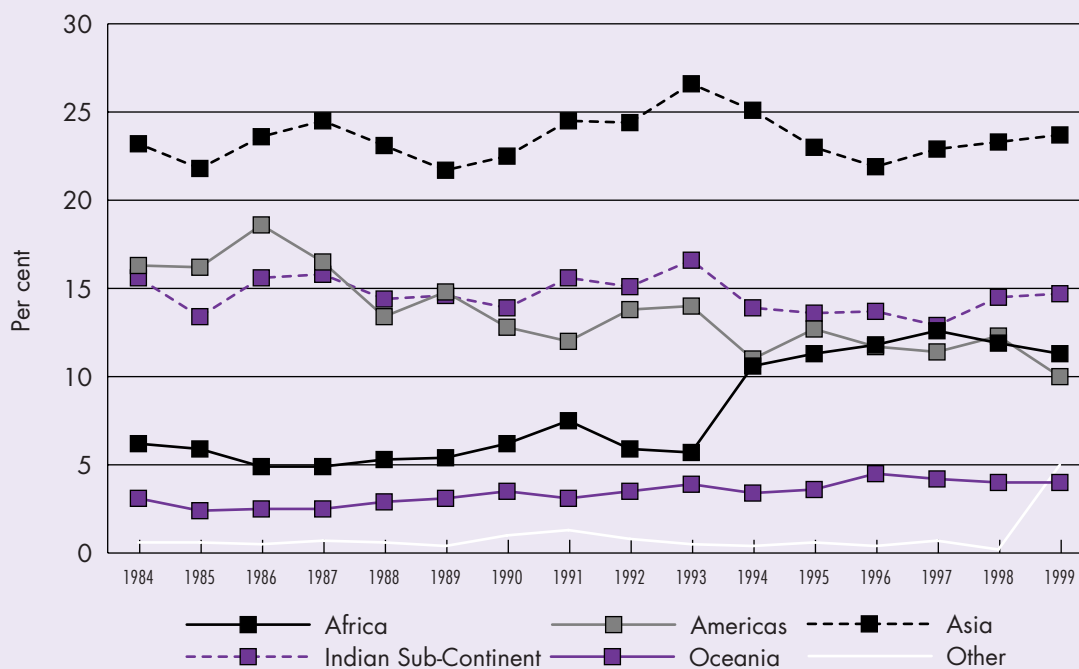
By 2000, EU and EFTA nationals were 83 per cent of all Europeans, Central and Eastern Europeans 11.6 per cent and Other Europeans 5.6 per cent. Back in 1984 the first of these groups accounted for 89 per cent of the European total. Thus, as the UK has increased its total stock of foreign citizens in recent years, the proportion accounted for by those countries with freedom of movement (plus Switzerland) has gone down.

The dominant national group is the Irish, around 404,000 in 2000, 17.1 per cent of all foreign nationals and 46.7 per cent of those from EU and EFTA states. The number of Irish has gone down substantially from the peak of 655,000 in 1989 when they accounted for two-thirds of all EU and EFTA nationals. All of the other major EU and EFTA citizenships have experienced increases, although there have been fluctuations in numbers. Italians have traditionally been the second largest national group (11% of the EU and EFTA total in 2000), followed by the French (9.8%) and the Germans (7.3%). The largest group from Central and Eastern Europe is the Poles (33,000) and from the rest of Europe the Turks whose numbers increased dramatically between 1984 and 1998 before almost halving over the next two years.

11.5.2 Non-European regions

Beyond Europe, the principal continental region of origin is Asia, the numbers from which have fluctuated between 20 and 25 per cent of the total, peaking in 1993 but generally maintaining their share (Figure 11.4). Overall numbers with Asian nationalities have risen from around 359,000 in 1984 to 569,000 in 2000. The Indian Sub-continent (ISC) accounts for the bulk of these, the numbers rising from 241,000 to 346,000. However, the ISC proportion of the total foreign stock has changed little, being around 15 per cent during most of the period. Naturalisation has probably had a disproportionate effect on ISC numbers, however. During 1995-99 there were 58,500 naturalisations by citizens of ISC countries. This compares to a total inflow from these countries recorded by the IPS of 87,200, an outflow of 14,700 and a net gain of 72,500.

Figure 11.4: UK foreign population by region – Africa, Americas, Asia, ISC, Oceania and Other, 1984-2000



Source: LFS

Contrasting trends are shown by American and African stocks. Numbers of the former rose in the 1980s to peak at 343,000 in 1986 before drifting downwards to a fairly stable level at around 230,000 during much of the 1990s. This trend is reflected in the proportion of the total accounted for, from 16.3 per cent in 1984 to 11.8 per cent in 2000. African numbers have risen sharply. In 1984 they stood at 96,000 and changed little until 1989 before rising fitfully and then steadily to a peak of 346,000 in 2000. Their proportion of total foreign stocks has doubled, from 6.2 per cent in 1984 to 14.7 per cent in 2000. The steep rise after 1993 was coincidental with an increase in numbers of asylum seekers at the time, together with the consequences of the 1993 Asylum and Immigration Act, one effect of which was to increase the number of asylum appeals.

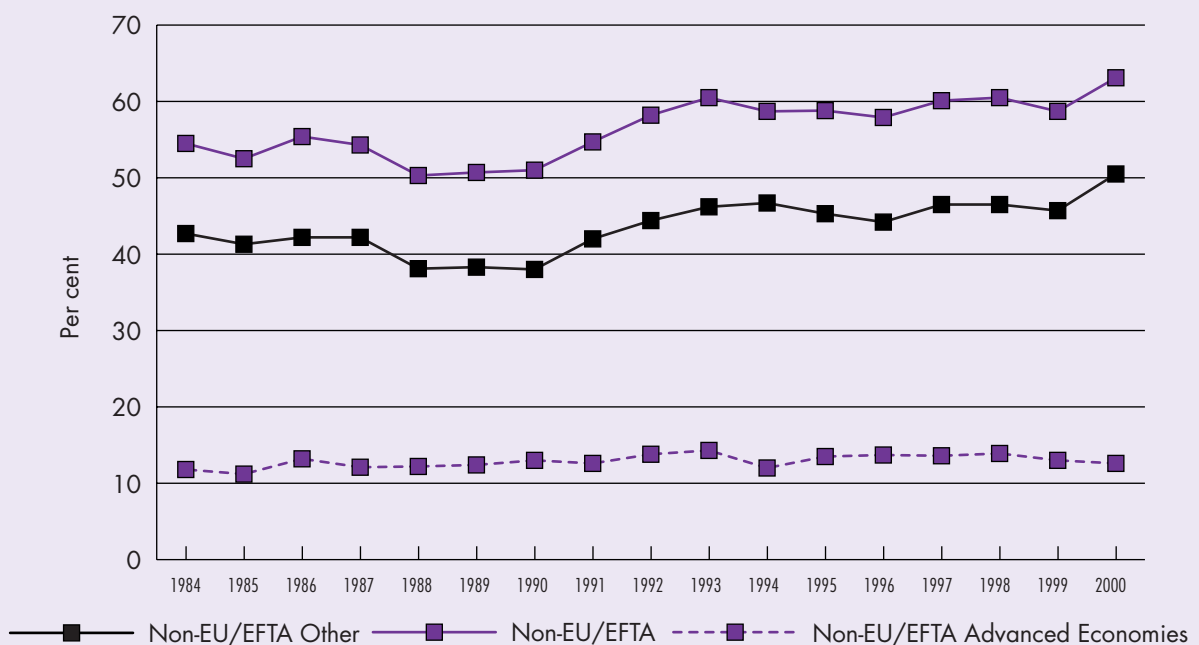
Numbers from Oceania, mainly Australia and New Zealand, have risen both absolutely and proportionately, from around 48,000 (3.1%) in 1984 to 107,000 (4.5%) in 2000.

In sum, therefore, over the period since 1984, the proportion of European nationals has declined overall (but not those from Central and Eastern Europe) as has that of Americans. Africans and Oceanians have become relatively more important while the proportion of Asians has remained broadly stable. None of the groups has declined in absolute terms except for those from the Americas.

11.5.3 Regional summary

In complement to the declining trend from EU and EFTA states, the proportion from the rest of the world has slowly increased, rising from 54.5 per cent in 1984 to 63.4 per cent in 2000 (Figure 11.5). The rise occurred particularly in the early 1990s with another large rise between 1999 and 2000.

Figure 11.5: UK foreign population by region – Non- EU/EFTA, non- EU/EFTA A.E., non EU/EFTA Other, 1984-2000



Source: IPS

How much of this movement is from other advanced economies? Globalisation has reinforced the tendency for highly developed economies routinely to exchange population and skills. For the UK there has been a significant rise in the numbers of migrants from the richer non-European countries, from around 183,000 in 1984 to 305,000 in 2000, though with some annual fluctuations, including peaks in 1989-90, and 1992-93 and with something of a plateau from 1997. However, the overall rise in foreign citizen stocks has meant that this increase has not been reflected in a higher proportion of migrants coming from the richer non-European countries. The graph is generally flat, fluctuating between 11.2 (1985) and 14.3 (1993) per cent. The main source country in this group is the USA but although there has been some increase over the period as a whole, numbers of US citizens peaked in 1986-87 at the time of deregulation in the City of London and during the associated economic boom and have since tended to level off at a lower level. Numbers of Japanese increased modestly as did those of Canadians. However, the largest increases were among Australians and New Zealanders.

Meanwhile, numbers from the rest of the world have increased more sharply, from about 660,000 in 1984 to 1.19 million in 2000. This absolute increase has been accompanied by a proportionate increase also, from around 42 per cent in the mid-1980s to just over 50 per cent in 2000. The largest annual increase occurred 1999-2000.

Taken together, those from EU and EFTA states and from other advanced economies accounted for 49.6 per cent of all foreign stocks in 2000, down from 57.3 per cent in 1985. This suggests that the UK has become more open to those from less developed countries. However, it cannot be taken that this means that migrants from these countries are less skilled, since brain drain may have been an element in the flows. The balance may also be affected by the differential turnover of the groups, with some people coming and going while others come and settle.

11.6 Stocks of foreign workers

The small sample size of the LFS has two main consequences for the following analysis. First, year to year fluctuations may reflect sampling error rather than real changes in the numbers, hence, trends over a period are a more reliable indicator of what is going on. Second, detailed breakdowns are frequently not possible because of the small sample. The 10,000 cell cut-off means that statistics may only be presented annually for certain national groups. The aggregation (flows) or averaging (stocks) of annual statistics over a number of years allows more detailed analysis but the number of years that need to be included in order to reduce the sampling error necessarily varies with the size of the original sample. It is not possible, therefore, to apply a uniform period to all nationalities or characteristics. Furthermore, the period of aggregation or averaging may be so great (normally minimum of five years) that it covers too diverse a period to allow sound conclusions to be derived. This means that any comparisons of the situation up to and after 1991 need to be treated with care for the reasons discussed in section 11.2.

11.7 Total numbers working

Between 1984 and 2000 the number of foreign nationals working in the UK rose from about 744,000 to around 1,107,000, an increase of just under 50 per cent (Table 11.2). The largest increases have occurred since the mid-1990s, a rise of 28 per cent between 1995 and 2000. Despite this increase in absolute numbers foreigners remain a small proportion of the total UK workforce, accounting for 3.1-3.4 per cent during the 1980s and 3.3-3.6 per cent during much of the 1990s. However, after 1997 their importance rose to reach 3.9 per cent in 1998 and 4 per cent in 2000.

Overall, it would appear that during the period for which the LFS provides data, from 1984 onwards, there has been a steady upward drift in the numbers of foreign workers but that their relative importance has changed comparatively little until the last few years.

11.8 Numbers of males and females working

The number of foreign males working rose from 428,000 in 1984 to 585,000 in 2000, an increase of 37 per cent (Table 11.2). Between 1995 and 2000, the period of main increase, the rise was 30 per cent. During the 1980s and first half of the 1990s the foreign male workforce comprised 3.1-3.3 per cent of the UK total for the most part, rising in 1998 to 3.8 per cent and 3.9 per cent in 2000.

The number of female foreign workers is lower than that of males, although the gap has been narrowing. From 316,000 in 1984 their numbers have risen to 523,000 in 2000. Proportionately, however, they have been more significant in the overall female total than males in theirs, ranging between 3.2 and 3.5 per cent in the 1980s, 3.5-3.8 per cent during most of the 1990s, latterly rising to 3.9 per cent of the total female workforce in 1998 and 4.2 per cent in 2000.

This relative increase in the foreign female workforce is reflected in their rising share of the total foreign workforce, from 42.5 per cent in 1984 to 47.2 per cent in 2000. There are a number of possible reasons for this, mainly relating to the changing sex balance in the workforce overall. First, the changing structure of labour demand, with greater emphasis on service industries, has favoured female over male employment. Second, deregulation and growing flexibility in the labour market have created opportunities, both full- and part-time for women in a range of personal and miscellaneous services, such as entertainment, hotels and catering. The lack of trades union organisation has made it easier for employers to take on foreign workers. Jobs in these areas often involve poor pay and unsociable hours. They are unattractive to the indigenous workforce especially at times of declining unemployment. Employers are able to fill the jobs with those (foreign) workers, many of them female, willing and able to accept the conditions of work on offer through lack of choice. Third, greater equality in the workplace has helped more women, particularly married women returning to work, enter the labour market as well as widening recruitment of women in jobs hitherto the domain of men. Fourth, free movement of labour within the EEA has helped both sexes to seek and take work in another country. One of the characteristics of foreign workers in the UK is the substantial number of young Europeans who work for shorter or longer periods before returning home. Finally, women are increasingly to be found in the traditionally mobile highly skilled sector of the labour force. Although numbers of corporate secondments by women are still small, there is evidence that they have been increasing.

See Table 11.2

11.9 Age structure of foreign workers

Table 11.3 summarises trends in the age structure of foreign workers 1983-99. Two age groups are used, young workers aged 20-24 and adults 25-54; foreign nationals are divided into EU and non-EU nationals. The data, from the LFS, are those submitted annually to Eurostat under Regulation 311/76.

See Table 11.3

11.9.1 Age 20/24

Generally, the proportion of the total workforce accounted for by this age group has not greatly changed during the period. There is some evidence of a decline: during the 1980s the proportion of the total workforce was 8-10 per cent but in the 1990s was more likely to be around 7-8 per cent. This trend seems to have affected the foreign national groups differently. Relative to EU nationals the trend is towards a decline in the percentage of non-EU nationals aged 20-24. Overall, then, the 1990s have seen a slightly smaller proportion of the total workforce in this age category, with non-EU nationals most affected.

11.9.2 Age 25/54

As might be expected, given the broad age band, there seems little trend in the total workforce, the proportion in the age group fluctuating annually around 75 per cent. However, the proportion of EU nationals in this age group tends to be lower than that of non-EU nationals. Overall, the trend for EU nationals is, to a small degree, to be younger than non-EU citizens.

Table 11.2: Persons living and working in the UK, 1984-2000 (thousands)

a) 1992-2000

	1992		1993		1994		1995		1996		1997		1998		1999		2000		
	Total	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	
All Nationalities	25345	14045	11300	25097	13766	11330	25278	13894	11384	25699	14204	11495	25962	14281	11680	26446	14570	11876	26736
UK	24443	13571	10871	24232	13325	10907	24411	13454	10956	24835	13747	11088	25095	13829	11266	25497	14051	11446	25696
Foreign Nationals	902	473	429	862	440	423	864	439	425	862	456	406	865	451	414	949	519	430	1039
EU12	415	217	197	359	176	183	413	209	204	424	211	214	395	193	202	398	206	192	436
EU12 (exc. Rep. Ire.)	159	83	74	137	67	71	172	82	90	208	106	103	176	86	90	182	97	85	215
EU15	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	441	218	223	410	197	213	416	214	202	454
EU15 (exc. Rep. Ire.)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	225	113	112	192	90	101	200	104	96	233
Rep. Ireland	256	134	123	222	109	113	241	127	114	216	105	111	218	107	112	216	109	106	221
Belgium	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Denmark	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
France	30	12	18	26	11	15	33	12	22	34	13	21	27	19	33	13	20	49	21
Italy	50	31	19	40	23	17	40	27	13	43	25	17	42	26	16	42	30	11	52
Luxembourg	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Netherlands	14	-	-	11	-	-	13	-	14	-	14	-	14	-	20	13	-	18	-
Germany	14	-	-	15	-	-	20	-	15	27	10	16	30	11	19	32	11	21	39
Greece	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Portugal	12	-	-	10	-	-	20	10	18	11	15	14	15	15	23	14	23	10	23
Spain	20	12	-	18	-	-	26	13	13	17	20	11	24	11	13	18	13	18	18
Austria	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Finland	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Sweden	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
FSU & E. Europe	21	-	-	13	22	13	22	11	11	23	15	23	14	27	13	14	32	10	21
Northern Europe	14	-	-	11	16	-	16	-	12	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Central Europe	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Mediterranean Europe	13	10	-	10	-	-	-	-	-	-	17	11	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Other Europe Total	56	24	32	55	24	31	55	23	32	46	22	24	38	17	21	45	24	20	71
Northern Africa	-	-	-	12	11	-	-	-	-	-	12	11	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Eastern Africa	24	10	14	22	10	12	19	-	13	17	-	15	-	15	-	22	13	23	12
Western Africa	37	19	18	32	14	18	33	14	18	41	21	19	44	25	19	47	27	20	48
South Africa (Rep.)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Other Africa	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Africa Total	87	45	43	78	41	37	72	34	38	83	46	37	92	53	39	103	60	43	108
Turkey	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Middle East	12	10	-	16	11	-	12	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Bangladesh	11	10	-	12	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
India	72	39	33	68	32	36	59	28	32	60	35	24	58	35	24	56	31	25	71
Pakistan	16	14	-	23	16	-	22	18	-	17	14	-	17	14	-	20	17	-	20
Sri Lanka	10	-	-	10	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

	1984	1985	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990	1991	
	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total
Malaysia	13	13	26	13	13	26	12	12	24
Philippines	11	11	22	10	10	20	10	10	20
Vietnam									
China									
Hong Kong									
Japan				10	10	20	13	13	26
Asia Total	178	114	292	191	110	301	196	124	320
Canada	15	20	35	19	22	41	20	28	48
USA	49	20	69	49	26	75	53	28	81
Jamaica	25	10	35	20	11	31	17	11	28
West Indies Total	49	18	67	38	16	54	37	15	52
South America									
Americas Total	120	47	167	108	56	164	112	56	170
Australia	24	13	37	34	16	50	35	18	53
New Zealand	21	12	33	19	26	45	21	12	33
Rest of World									
Not Stated									

b) 1984-1991

	1984	1985	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990	1991		
	Total	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	
All nationalities	23772	13877	9894	24143	14039	10104	24225	13975	10249	24629
UK	22783	13310	9473	23176	13498	9677	23125	13373	9752	23584
Foreign nationals	744	428	316	808	455	353	815	459	356	814
EU 12	341	189	153	382	214	168	389	210	180	401
EU 12 (exc. Rep. Ire.)	105	57	48	114	64	50	129	65	64	144
Irish Republic	236	131	105	269	150	118	261	145	116	258
France	13			17			13		18	
Germany				13			13		13	
Northern Other EU	14			16			18		10	
Denmark										
Belgium										
Netherlands							13		13	
Luxembourg										
Southern Other EU	78	49	29	80	49	32	76	42	34	86
Italy	55	34	22	56	36	20	44	26	18	50
Greece										
Portugal										
Spain	15			14			18		17	
Main Other Europe	53	31	22	56	30	26	54	32	22	55
Africa	37	23	14	51	31	19	42	27	15	43

Asia	148	100	48	144	96	48	158	102	56	164	108	56	165	99	66	187	110	78	187	114	73	166	103	63
Middle East	10	:	:	16	14	:	14	13	:	14	11	:	10	:	:	15	11	:	14	10	:	19	16	:
Indian Sub-continent	26	23	:	89	59	30	107	66	41	111	73	38	107	64	43	124	76	48	121	72	49	96	61	35
South East Asia	17	:	:	14	:	:	17	:	:	15	:	:	23	:	13	20	:	12	21	10	11	21	:	15
Americas	124	63	61	136	65	71	149	80	69	131	72	58	121	66	56	130	64	66	126	67	59	110	59	51
US	31	16	15	37	19	18	47	23	24	41	23	18	40	21	19	45	22	22	50	28	22	39	22	17
Canada	11	:	:	14	:	:	15	:	:	14	:	:	18	11	:	14	:	:	19	11	:	13	:	:
Caribbean/West Indies	77	38	39	16	:	10	79	43	36	72	37	34	60	32	28	62	30	32	48	24	24	50	28	22
Australia	11	:	:	13	:	:	16	:	:	12	:	:	19	:	:	27	10	17	25	12	13	21	:	11
New Zealand	10	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	14	:	:	12	:	:	15	:	:	14	:	:
Not Stated	245	140	105	160	86	74	285	144	141	230	125	106	352	191	161	59	32	27	184	104	80	235	122	113

Source: Labour Force Survey

Notes:

Numbers rounded to the nearest '000.

: indicates/refers to figures less than 10,000.

From 1995, figures from Austria, Finland and Sweden are included in the EU 15 rather than Northern, Central and Other Europe.

Table 11.3a: Age structure of foreign population, 1983-1999, age-group 20-24 (per cent)

	1983	1984	1985	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999
EU	6.1	7.3	9.8	8.3	9.9	9.7	10.8	11.0	9.8	8.5	8.2	9.9	7.0	6.4	7.9	6.2	9.0
non-EU	10.6	8.8	9.7	11.3	11.2	8.5	9.8	10.8	10.7	9.4	8.1	7.2	8.5	7.0	6.4	7.4	6.8
Total	8.7	8.2	9.7	10.2	10.7	9.0	10.3	10.9	10.3	8.9	8.1	8.8	7.7	6.7	7.1	6.8	7.8

Table 11.3b: Age structure of foreign population, 1983-1999, age-group 25-54 (per cent)

	1983	1984	1985	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999
EU	75.4	74.3	72.2	73.3	69.2	69.0	68.7	72.6	72.1	71.8	72.0	73.3	75.7	76.3	71.7	76.0	72.5
non-EU	77.6	77.0	74.7	73.9	72.9	77.3	76.7	77.6	78.3	80.7	83.0	83.0	82.7	85.0	84.5	83.8	84.8
Total	76.6	76.0	73.8	73.7	71.5	74.2	72.9	75.3	75.4	76.7	78.2	77.8	79.2	73.0	73.3	80.2	78.9

Source: IFS

11.9.3 The situation in 1999

A more detailed breakdown is available than for earlier years (Table 11.4). It shows significant variations between the age distributions of foreign and UK workers. All of the foreign groups listed had a higher proportion than UK workers in the 25-39 age group, with Africa, the ISC and Australia all showing 60 per cent or more. For the other age groups, in most cases the proportions were lower than for the UK workforce.

Among 16-19 year olds Other Europe (excluding the EU) was the only one with a higher proportion than the indigenous group. For 20-24 year olds, the rest of the EU, Other Europe and Australia had higher proportions than the UK group. These figures are consistent with young Europeans coming to the UK as students, to learn the English language or as part of their early career development. The relatively high proportion of Australians is probably exacerbated by the presence of working holidaymakers. Among 40-54 year olds only those from the Americas have a higher proportion than the UK and this may be a reflection of the trans-Atlantic movement of professional and managerial staff. Only the EU had a higher proportion than the UK of the over 55s, mainly because of the presence of Irish nationals: 12.2 per cent of them were in this age group compared with very few among other national groups.

11.10 EU foreign workers

The changing composition of the EU creates difficulties in presenting an accurate trend in numbers of workers from other member states. The following analysis is based on two datasets. The first, EU12, covers the whole period from 1984; the second, EU15, includes Austria, Finland and Sweden from their accession in 1995. In fact, the number of workers from these three countries is relatively small and makes little difference to the overall EC/EU trend. One problem in including new member states retrospectively in historical series is that prior to their accession their migration relationships with the EC/EU were different because of the lack of free movement. However, it appears that, with the possible exception of Portugal, migration trends between the newly acceding states and the rest of the EU changed little.

As with the total foreign workforce, the general trend for EU foreign national worker stocks has been upward, from around 341,000 in 1984 to 432,000 in 2000, a 27 per cent rise (compared with a 50 per cent increase in the total foreign workforce) (Table 11.2). However, the 1984 figure is exceptionally low and a better baseline may well be the 382,000 in 1985, giving a period increase of only 13 per cent. During the 1980s numbers fluctuated, peaking at 419,000 in 1990 and rising to over 430,000 only in 1998.

The trend for the EU15, from 1995, presents a similar picture. Overall, it adds around 20,000 to the EU12 total in 2000. In 1995 the EU15 total stood at 441,000 (424,000 EU12), fell in 1996 and 1997, rising to its present level in each of the years 1998-2000.

Table 11.4: Age distribution of foreign labour force, 1999 (per cent)

	Total Workers					
	16-19	20-24	25-39	40-54	55-59	60+
EU15	2.2	9.0	44.5	28.0	9.1	7.3
Other Europe	7.0	17.7	48.8	24.7	1.8	0.0
Non Europe	2.5	6.8	57.4	27.4	3.8	2.3
Africa	3.0	6.3	63.2	24.5	1.8	1.2
Americas	1.2	4.5	47.1	37.6	6.4	3.1
Asia	3.1	7.4	59.1	24.6	3.4	2.5
ISC	2.7	7.7	61.3	22.2	3.6	2.5
Australasia	2.2	11.3	60.8	20.6	3.7	1.4
UK	6.2	8.7	38.1	35.8	6.9	4.3

Source: IFS

Note: Proportions higher than UK are bold-italic

During the 1980s EU12 countries accounted for 45-50 per cent of the foreign workforce, peaking at 60 per cent in 1990, a year in which the overall stock fell sharply. In the 1990s the proportion has fluctuated, from 41.6 per cent in 1992 to 45.7 per cent in 1995, since when there has been a fall to a historic low of 39 per cent in 2000 (Table 11.5). EU15 accounted for 51.2 per cent in 1995 but has since fallen to 40.8 per cent in 2000. The overall picture is thus one of fluctuation, the proportion being higher during times of recession around a general level of between 40 and 50 per cent. Recent years have seen less dependence on EU labour than hitherto, though it is not possible to say whether this constitutes a defining break with the past. The decline in the EU share is because the numbers of non-EU nationals have increased rather than a decrease of EU nationals.

The main factor determining the migration relationship between the UK and the EU is the Republic of Ireland (Sexton, (annual) SOPEMI Report for Ireland). During the 1980s there were commonly 250-270,000 Irish workers in the UK but in the 1990s the number has decreased and since 1995 has fluctuated around 220,000, reaching a low of 206,000 in 2000. In consequence, the relative importance of the Irish among all foreign nationals has also decreased. They accounted for around a third of the total during the 1980s, falling to around a quarter in the mid-1990s and to less than a fifth in 2000.

During most of the period since World War II the Irish in the UK may be likened to the guestworkers elsewhere in Europe. Migration across the Irish Sea has ebbed and flowed with the state of the two economies. In the 1980s the relatively poor performance of the Irish economy encouraged emigration, mainly to its traditional destination in the UK. Over the last decade there are signs that the trend has changed. Not only has the expanding Irish economy stemmed outflows, it has also encouraged Irish workers in the UK and elsewhere to return. This largely explains the falling stocks of Irish labour in the UK. This quantitative change has been accompanied by a qualitative one. More Irish labour emigrants are now highly skilled, moving for career development purposes. Although it is too soon to say for certain, it seems likely that the traditional labour migration pattern between the UK and Ireland may have fundamentally changed. If this were to be so, it would leave a substantial gap in the UK labour supply in certain sectors of the economy.

See Table 11.5

From 1995, figures from Austria, Finland and Sweden are included in the EU 15 rather than Northern, Central and Other Europe.

Table 11.5: Foreign nationals living and working in the UK by citizenship as a proportion of total foreign population, 1984-2000 (per cent)

a) 1992-2000

	1992		1993		1994		1995		1996		1997		1998		1999		2000		
	Total	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	
Foreign Nationals	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	
EU 12	46.0	45.9	45.9	41.6	40.0	43.3	47.8	47.6	48.0	48.0	45.7	42.8	48.8	41.9	39.7	44.7	42.0	38.0	46.7
EU 12 (exc. Rep. Ire.)	17.6	17.5	17.2	15.9	15.2	16.8	19.9	18.7	21.2	24.1	23.2	25.4	20.3	19.2	18.7	19.8	20.7	19.5	22.1
EU 15	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	51.2	47.8	54.9	47.4	43.7	41.2	47.0	43.7	39.1	49.3
EU 15 (exc. Rep. Ire.)	-	-	-	-	-	-	26.1	24.8	27.6	22.2	20.0	24.4	21.1	20.0	22.3	22.4	20.6	24.6	23.3
Rep. Ireland	28.4	28.3	28.7	25.8	24.8	26.7	27.9	28.9	26.8	25.1	23.0	27.3	27.1	22.8	21.0	24.7	21.3	18.5	24.6
Belgium	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Denmark	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
France	3.3	2.5	4.2	3.0	2.5	3.5	3.8	2.7	5.2	3.1	4.6	3.5	2.5	4.7	3.7	5.9	4.4	3.3	
Italy	5.5	6.6	4.4	4.6	5.2	4.0	4.6	6.2	3.1	5.0	5.5	4.2	4.9	5.8	4.4	5.8	6.0	6.0	3.8
Luxembourg	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Netherlands	1.6	-	-	1.3	-	-	1.5	-	1.6	-	1.6	-	2.1	2.5	-	1.7	-	1.6	-
Germany	1.6	-	-	1.7	-	-	2.3	-	3.5	3.1	2.2	3.9	3.5	2.4	4.6	3.8	3.2	4.5	4.4
Greece	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Portugal	1.3	-	-	1.2	-	-	2.3	2.3	2.1	2.4	1.7	1.7	1.5	1.5	2.2	1.9	2.2	1.9	2.5
Spain	2.2	2.5	2.1	2.1	2.1	3.0	3.0	3.1	2.0	2.3	2.3	2.5	2.1	3.0	1.7	1.7	1.7	2.5	2.4
Austria	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Finland	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Sweden	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1.3	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
FSU & E. Europe	2.3	3.0	2.6	2.6	2.5	3.1	2.5	2.6	2.7	2.7	3.7	2.7	3.4	2.8	2.5	3.3	3.1	1.8	4.5
Northern Europe	1.6	2.6	1.9	1.9	1.9	2.8	1.9	2.8	2.8	2.8	2.8	2.8	2.8	2.8	2.8	2.8	2.8	2.8	2.3
Central Europe	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Mediterranean Europe	1.4	2.1	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.2	2.0	2.4	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.1
Other Europe Total	6.2	5.1	7.5	6.4	5.5	7.3	6.4	5.2	7.5	5.3	4.8	5.9	4.4	3.8	5.1	4.7	6.8	4.9	9.3
Northern Africa	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Eastern Africa	2.7	2.1	3.3	2.6	2.3	2.8	2.2	3.1	2.0	1.7	2.5	2.3	2.5	2.2	2.1	2.3	2.4	2.4	2.4
Western Africa	4.1	4.0	4.2	3.7	3.2	4.3	3.8	3.2	4.2	4.6	4.7	5.1	5.5	4.6	5.0	5.2	4.7	4.6	5.1
South Africa (Rep.)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1.6	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.4
Other Africa	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Africa Total	9.6	9.5	10.0	9.0	9.3	8.7	8.3	7.7	8.9	9.6	10.1	9.1	10.6	11.8	10.4	11.8	11.8	11.8	11.9
Turkey	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Middle East	1.3	2.1	1.9	2.5	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.4

Bangladesh	1.2	2.1	:	1.4	:	1.4	:	1.4	:	1.9	3.1	:	1.5	2.3	:	1.7	2.8	:	1.3	2.2	:							
India	8.0	8.2	7.7	7.9	7.3	8.5	6.8	6.4	7.5	7.0	7.7	5.9	6.7	7.8	5.8	5.9	6.0	5.8	6.8	6.8	7.4	6.2	6.6	6.9	6.2	6.7	6.7	
Pakistan	1.8	3.0	:	2.7	3.6	:	2.5	4.1	:	2.3	3.9	:	2.0	3.1	:	2.1	3.3	:	1.9	3.2	:	2.7	4.3	:	2.8	4.6	:	
Sri Lanka	1.1	:	:	1.2	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	1.4	:	:	1.2	:	:	2.1	2.8	:	1.2	:	:	2.0	2.4	:	
Malaysia	:	:	:	1.5	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	1.3	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
Philippines	:	:	:	1.3	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	1.1	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	1.2	:	:
Vietnam	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
China	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
Hong Kong	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
Japan	:	:	:	:	:	:	1.2	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	1.4	:	:	1.3	:	:	:	1.0	:	:	:	:	:
Asia Total	19.7	24.1	14.7	22.2	25.0	19.4	19.8	23.2	16.2	17.6	21.5	13.5	18.3	22.2	14.0	20.7	23.9	16.7	20.4	25.4	14.4	19.3	22.8	15.3	20.8	24.8	16.3	
Canada	1.7	:	:	2.3	:	2.4	1.7	:	:	2.2	:	:	2.5	2.9	:	2.1	2.5	:	2.7	2.5	:	3.0	2.1	2.2	:	1.5	:	
USA	5.4	4.2	6.8	5.6	5.7	5.4	4.2	3.9	4.5	5.7	6.4	4.9	5.3	5.8	4.8	5.6	5.4	5.6	6.1	5.8	6.4	5.5	4.5	6.5	5.5	6.0	5.2	
Jamaica	2.8	2.1	3.3	3.1	3.2	3.1	2.5	:	3.1	2.3	:	3.0	2.9	2.4	3.4	1.8	:	2.6	1.7	:	2.1	1.6	:	1.5	:	:	:	
West Indies Total	5.4	3.8	7.2	5.8	5.7	5.9	4.3	3.6	4.9	4.4	3.7	5.2	4.7	3.5	5.8	3.9	2.9	5.3	3.4	2.6	4.2	2.4	2.4	2.4	2.8	2.4	3.3	
South America	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
Americas Total	13.3	9.9	17.2	14.3	13.9	14.7	10.6	9.6	11.8	12.5	12.3	12.8	12.8	12.4	13.3	11.8	10.8	13.0	12.4	11.3	14.0	10.5	9.6	11.8	10.2	10.1	10.3	
Australia	2.7	2.7	2.6	3.4	3.2	3.5	3.1	:	4.0	3.9	3.9	4.2	3.7	3.5	3.6	3.7	3.5	4.0	3.0	3.2	2.8	3.6	4.1	3.0	4.9	5.3	4.4	
New Zealand	2.3	2.5	:	2.8	2.7	2.8	2.1	:	:	2.2	2.4	:	3.0	2.7	3.4	2.2	:	2.8	2.9	3.5	2.1	2.3	2.2	2.6	2.3	2.1	2.5	
Rest of World	:	:	:	:	:	:	2.1	2.5	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	2.3	2.5	:	:	:	:	:	2.4	2.2	2.4	2.9	2.9	2.9
Not Started	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:

b) 1984-1991

	1984		1985		1986		1987		1988		1989		1990		1991											
	Total	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total										
Foreign Nationals	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0										
EU 12	45.8	44.2	48.4	47.3	47.0	47.6	47.7	45.8	50.6	49.3	46.1	53.0	50.1	50.0	49.9	40.4	60.0	59.0	61.3	48.1	45.6	51.1				
EU 12 (excl. Rep. Ire.)	14.1	13.3	15.2	14.1	14.1	14.2	15.8	14.2	18.0	17.7	15.1	20.9	17.2	19.2	15.5	14.8	16.3	21.6	20.5	23.0	18.8	17.9	19.9			
Irish Republic	31.7	30.6	33.2	33.3	33.0	33.4	32.0	31.6	32.6	31.7	31.0	32.1	32.0	33.0	30.9	25.1	25.7	24.5	38.4	38.3	29.2	27.7	31.1			
France	1.7	:	:	2.1	:	:	1.6	:	2.2	:	2.2	:	3.6	2.3	:	3.9	1.8	:	2.7	3.4	:	5.1	2.8	:	3.5	
Germany	:	:	:	:	:	:	1.6	:	1.6	:	1.6	:	1.3	:	1.3	:	1.6	:	1.9	2.0	:	:	1.7	:	:	
Northern Other EU	1.9	:	:	2.0	:	:	2.2	:	1.7	:	2.1	:	3.1	2.3	2.2	2.5	3.0	2.9	:	:	:	:	2.8	:	3.7	
Denmark	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
Belgium	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
Netherlands	:	:	:	:	:	:	1.6	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	1.4	:	:	1.7	:	:	:	:	1.4	:	:	:
Luxembourg	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
Southern Other EU	10.5	11.4	9.2	9.9	10.8	9.1	9.3	9.2	9.6	10.6	10.4	10.7	10.8	12.2	8.9	9.1	10.2	8.0	12.0	13.5	9.9	10.9	11.9	9.6		
Italy	7.4	7.9	7.0	6.9	7.9	5.7	5.4	5.7	5.1	6.1	6.2	6.0	6.7	7.9	5.3	5.0	5.5	4.3	6.9	8.6	4.8	6.2	7.5	4.3		
Greece	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
Portugal	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	1.5	:	:	1.6	:	:	:	1.2	:	:	1.6	:	:	1.4	:	:	
Spain	2.0	:	:	1.7	:	:	2.2	:	2.1	:	2.1	:	1.7	2.1	:	2.3	2.5	1.9	2.3	:	:	2.4	:	2.7		
Main Other Europe	7.1	7.2	7.0	6.9	6.6	7.4	6.6	7.0	6.2	6.8	6.4	7.1	5.2	4.9	5.6	5.0	4.7	5.2	7.6	7.0	8.3	1.9	2.4	:		
Africa	5.0	5.4	4.4	6.3	6.8	5.4	5.2	5.9	4.2	5.3	5.5	4.9	6.1	6.4	5.6	4.6	4.7	4.5	8.5	9.4	7.3	8.7	9.7	7.2		
Asia	19.9	23.4	15.2	17.8	21.1	13.6	19.4	22.2	15.7	20.1	23.9	15.4	20.0	21.2	18.4	16.8	18.5	15.1	26.8	29.6	23.3	20.0	22.8	16.8		
Middle East	1.3	:	:	2.0	3.1	:	1.7	2.8	:	1.7	2.4	:	1.2	:	:	1.4	1.8	:	2.0	2.6	:	2.3	3.5	:		
Indian Sub-Continent	3.5	5.4	:	11.0	13.0	8.5	13.1	14.4	11.5	13.6	16.2	10.4	13.0	13.7	12.0	11.2	12.8	9.3	17.3	18.7	15.7	11.6	13.5	9.3		
South East Asia	2.3	:	:	1.7	:	:	2.1	:	:	1.8	:	:	2.8	:	3.6	1.8	:	2.3	3.0	2.6	3.5	2.5	:	4.0		
Americas	16.7	14.7	19.3	16.8	14.3	20.1	18.3	17.4	19.4	16.1	16.0	15.9	14.7	14.2	15.6	11.7	10.7	12.8	18.1	17.4	18.8	13.3	13.1	13.6		
US	4.2	3.7	4.7	4.6	4.2	5.1	5.8	5.0	6.7	5.0	5.1	4.9	4.8	4.5	5.3	4.1	3.7	4.3	7.2	7.3	7.0	4.7	4.9	4.5		
Canada	1.5	:	:	1.7	:	:	1.8	:	1.7	:	1.7	:	2.2	2.4	:	1.3	:	2.7	2.9	:	2.7	2.9	:	1.6	:	
Caribbean/West Indies	10.3	8.9	12.3	2.0	:	2.8	9.7	9.4	10.1	8.8	8.2	9.3	7.3	6.9	7.8	5.6	5.0	6.2	6.9	6.2	7.7	6.0	6.2	5.9		
Australia	1.5	:	:	1.6	:	:	2.0	:	:	1.5	:	:	2.3	:	:	2.4	1.7	3.3	3.6	3.1	4.2	2.5	:	2.9		
New Zealand	1.3	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	1.7	:	:	1.1	:	2.1	:	:	:	1.7	:	:		
Not Stated	32.9	32.7	33.2	19.8	18.9	21.0	35.0	31.4	39.6	28.3	27.7	29.1	42.7	41.0	44.8	5.3	5.4	5.2	26.4	27.0	25.6	28.4	27.0	30.1		

Source: Labour Force Survey

Notes:

: indicates/refers to figures less than 10,000.

From 1995, figures from Austria, Finland and Sweden are included in the EU 15 rather than Northern, Central and Other Europe.

11.11 Nationality and socio-economic group 1992-2000

For the purposes of Table 11.6, the working population has been grouped into three major categories, based on the standard classification by socio-economic group. About 25.3 per cent of the working population as a whole may be categorised as professionals, employers and managers (Group A), 35 per cent as other non-manual (Group B), and 39.5 per cent as manual (Group C). This distribution across socio-economic groups shows very little variation during the 1990s. Not surprisingly, these proportions reflect the socio-economic structure of the domestic (UK) population.

The foreign national working population has a broadly similar structure to that of the overall population, but differs in a number of ways. It is generally more skilled, with a higher proportion (30.5%) in Group A and smaller proportions in the other two groups. Unlike earlier years, in 2000 this was less the case for non-EU foreigners, 29.6 per cent of whom are in Group A. The situation for EU nationals is affected by the inclusion of the Irish who, in the past, have contained about the same proportion of the highest skilled (Group A) as the total labour force, but considerably less than the rest of the EU. Compared with foreigners as a whole, a higher proportion of Irish are also to be found among manual groups, but this is now less than previously (44% in 1998-9). During the 1990s there have been fluctuations in the numbers and proportions of Irish in each of the socio-economic groups. Over the last three years the number of highly skilled has tended to increase while that of manual workers has gone down. In consequence the proportion of all Irish workers who are highly skilled has risen while that of manual has fallen.

In general, it would appear that the tendency for foreign nationals to be more skilled than their UK counterparts has been fairly constant. In 1992 the respective proportions were 22.8 and 25.4 per cent and in 2000 25.1 and 30.5 per cent.

Unfortunately sample size allows only limited analysis for nationalities and national groups. Where data are available, they do not show a uniform picture, indicating that different foreign groups have different roles in the UK labour market. The situation is broadly similar for most years in the 1990s, indicating a generally stable pattern. French and Germans, for example, are much more likely to be in highly skilled and in other non-manual occupations, much less so in manual jobs. In contrast, workers from the southern tier of EU countries (Spain, Portugal, Italy, Greece) are very much over-represented in manual employment, having the highest proportion among those listed in this category. In contrast North Americans have by far the largest concentration among the highly skilled (48.1%) and, along with Australians and New Zealanders, the lowest in manual occupations. Asians, but not those from the Indian sub-continent, are also proportionately more likely to be in Group A. In contrast, foreign nationals from the Indian sub-continent and from the Caribbean and West Indies are much more likely to be found in manual employment.

Trends in the individual categories may be summarised as follows.

11.11.1 Professional and managerial workers

There are considerable variations between national groups. The Irish have traditionally been less well represented among the highly skilled but in recent years this has changed and a higher proportion of them are now in professional and managerial occupations. This has been the main factor in a narrowing of the gap between EU and non-EU nationals, the latter tending historically to a higher proportion in the category. When the Irish are excluded, EU nationals are generally more skilled than both non-EU foreigners and the UK indigenous workforce. The Southern EU states are still less well represented among the highly skilled, but in recent years the situation seems to have been changing.

Table 11.6 : Foreign workers in the UK by Socio-economic Group, 1992-2000

a) Proportion Professionals (per cent)

	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000
All nationalities	22.9	23.8	23.7	24.3	24.5	24.4	24.6	24.8	25.3
UK	22.8	23.6	23.5	24.2	24.3	24.2	24.5	24.6	25.1
Foreign nationals	25.4	28.0	27.7	28.6	30.3	30.0	29.2	31.5	30.5
Non-EU nationals	25.6	29.3	28.8	27.6	31.4	31.0	30.9	33.3	29.6
EU countries	25.0	26.1	26.5	29.7	29.1	28.6	27.0	29.2	31.9
EU countries excluding Irish Rep.	25.9	31.4	26.0	37.4	30.2	32.0	30.0	32.0	34.6
Irish Republic	24.5	24.7	26.8	22.4	28.1	25.4	23.8	26.3	28.6
France and Germany	34.3	37.7	31.5	40.2	41.0	35.7	37.6	35.2	35.8
Northern EU	:	:	:	47.8	33.1	35.6	40.5	37.8	48.2
Southern EU	19.4	21.9	19.8	26.8	22.8	27.2	19.0	26.0	26.6
Other Europe	24.9	28.2	24.6	24.6	30.7	28.9	20.4	23.5	27.0
Africa	23.1	30.4	26.3	20.7	25.1	22.9	25.5	31.9	20.7
Indian sub-continent	19.6	18.2	20.4	22.0	22.2	25.8	25.8	26.4	24.1
South East Asia	38.3	38.3	:	:	28.0	34.8	38.9	31.1	:
Other Asia	:	:	43.9	50.2	37.1	44.2	25.1	34.6	37.5
North America	40.5	43.6	41.7	41.8	47.9	50.1	47.0	50.0	48.1
Caribbean/West Indies	:	:	:	:	:	16.5	:	7.5	:
Other America	13.5	18.0	:	:	:	:	37.0	28.6	:
Australia and New Zealand	29.5	33.7	36.4	33.8	40.8	42.0	41.1	44.3	41.8

b) Proportion Other non-manual (per cent)

	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000
All nationalities	33.9	33.9	34.2	33.8	34.0	34.5	34.2	35.0	35.0
UK	34.1	34.0	34.3	33.9	34.1	34.7	34.4	35.1	35.1
Foreign nationals	29.9	30.6	31.0	29.1	30.6	29.4	29.9	30.3	32.8
Non-EU nationals	30.2	32.3	30.9	28.1	29.7	29.3	29.2	29.1	32.3
EU countries	29.5	28.1	31.2	30.3	31.8	29.4	30.8	31.9	33.4
EU countries excluding Irish Rep.	28.0	31.4	35.4	29.0	35.3	28.2	29.8	33.9	32.1
Irish Republic	30.5	30.7	28.2	31.5	28.6	30.6	31.9	29.7	35.0
France and Germany	39.4	37.2	46.4	36.4	35.4	28.8	36.0	43.4	37.0
Northern EU	45.6	:	42.6	36.3	51.1	33.9	31.0	37.8	32.1
Southern EU	17.7	27.5	27.1	19.4	29.4	24.4	23.9	23.3	28.4
Other Europe	36.1	31.8	31.2	20.5	33.3	34.4	26.2	:	25.4
Africa	35.0	30.9	34.1	31.2	31.4	33.6	33.5	26.7	38.6
Indian sub-continent	21.7	24.0	23.0	17.2	22.1	21.4	22.2	25.4	24.1
South East Asia	31.6	30.1	:	:	:	:	30.5	:	38.7
Other Asia	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	34.3	20.8
North America	36.3	37.1	43.7	33.8	30.0	31.5	32.6	32.1	35.4
Caribbean/West Indies	31.0	24.9	29.8	:	40.3	36.8	:	:	:
Other America	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
Australia and New Zealand	30.2	39.2	42.5	44.0	35.2	35.8	42.7	37.1	41.8

c) Proportion Manual (per cent)									
	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000
All nationalities	42.2	41.6	41.5	41.3	41.0	40.8	40.9	39.9	39.5
UK	42.1	41.6	41.5	41.3	41.1	40.8	41.0	40.0	39.6
Foreign nationals	43.4	40.0	40.3	41.1	38.1	40.4	40.5	37.9	36.5
Non-EU nationals	42.2	38.5	38.9	43.4	38.0	39.3	39.5	37.2	37.7
EU countries	44.8	42.1	41.8	38.5	38.1	41.9	41.9	38.6	34.7
EU countries excluding Irish Rep.	45.3	38.6	38.3	30.8	33.7	39.6	39.9	33.6	33.3
Irish Republic	44.5	44.2	44.2	45.8	42.0	44.0	44.0	44.1	36.9
France and Germany	25.6	24.2	22.0	22.9	22.6	35.5	26.4	20.5	25.9
Northern EU	:	:	:	:	:	30.5	57.8	23.5	19.6
Southern EU	62.5	48.6	52.7	52.8	47.8	47.9	56.6	50.8	45.0
Other Europe	37.3	42.8	42.9	52.3	33.6	36.8	53.3	49.7	46.0
Africa	39.1	36.6	38.7	44.5	41.6	43.2	41.0	40.6	40.0
Indian sub-continent	56.4	52.5	53.9	58.4	55.8	52.3	51.1	48.2	51.1
South East Asia	29.5	36.8	:	:	:	:	30.6	:	35.5
Other Asia	45.8	:	:	:	40.4	34.5	60.7	:	43.8
North America	21.5	17.0	:	23.5	21.0	18.4	19.7	17.6	15.2
Caribbean/West Indies	61.6	60.4	59.7	62.7	42.5	46.7	57.5	64.4	51.6
Other America	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
Australia and New Zealand	38.4	26.3	:	22.2	24.0	22.2	:	18.6	16.5

Source: Labour Force Survey

Notes:

- Socio-economic groups are based on Standard Occupational Classification (SOC) as defined by ONS:
 - Group A: Professional, employers, managers
 - Group B: Other non-manual
 - Group C: Skilled manual, semi-skilled manual, unskilled manual
- EU country groups are as follows:
 - Northern EU: Austria, Benelux, Denmark, Finland and Sweden
 - Southern EU: Greece, Italy, Portugal and Spain
- ' :' indicates less than 10,000. Row totals include relevant estimates for these cells.

Those from the Indian sub-continent contain rising proportions of people working in highly skilled occupations, but this does not seem to be the case for Africans or those from the Caribbean/West Indies. North Americans and Australians and New Zealanders show evidence of a rising trend in their proportions of professional and managerial workers.

11.11.2 Intermediate non-manual

The foreign national population is less well represented in this category than in that of the highly skilled and displays no particular trend over the period. Among EU nationals only France and Germany have an above average proportion while those from the Southern EU states are under-represented. Both of these groups show annual fluctuations, but with no noticeable trend. The Irish have tended to have a lower proportion in the category than either the UK population or foreign nationals generally, although in 2000 this was not the case, a situation consistent with the changing character of Irish immigrant workers. Those from Africa and Latin America also seem to be relatively over-represented in the group. In contrast, those from the Indian sub-continent are present in lower proportions.

In general, this category seems to have a lower level of variation among the major groups than professional and managerial workers.

11.11.3 Manual workers

During the 1990s there seems to have been a downward shift in the proportion employed in manual work, from 42.2 per cent in 1992 to 39.5 per cent in 2000. This trend has affected both indigenous and foreign workers. Foreign nationals are less likely to be found in this group than the UK population and the proportion of them employed as manual workers seems to have gone down more rapidly. Although numbers have fluctuated, EU nationals have been better represented in the group than non-EU nationals, mainly due to the proportionately high Irish presence. However, this may be changing, the most recent data showing a substantial fall in the proportion of Irish manual workers, with a consequent knock-on effect on numbers of EU nationals as a whole. France, Germany and other Northern EU states have low proportions of manual workers, in sharp contrast to the Southern EU group, around half of whom are in this category. Annual fluctuations in proportions occur for both groups, with no apparent trend.

Other high proportions of manual workers are found among Africans and the pattern appears to be stable. The situation is similar for those from the Indian sub-continent. In contrast, Australians and New Zealanders and North Americans are scarce among manual workers and the trend seems to be one of declining proportions.

11.11.4 Summary

Foreign nationals are more likely to be professional and managerial workers than the UK population and less likely to be manual or intermediate non-manual workers. Marked variations occur between the major origin groups in the proportions in the first two groups. In general, those from the northern EU (including France and Germany) are more highly skilled and contain lower proportions of manual workers; a similar situation prevails for North Americans, Australians and New Zealanders. More emphasis on manual workers and less on professional and managerial is to be found among Africans, those from the Indian sub-continent and from the Caribbean/West Indies. The situation of the Irish is particularly important. Traditionally a major source of manual workers, they have become more skilled, albeit with declining overall numbers.

11.12 Nationality and region of residence 1992-2000

The regional distribution of foreign workers is very uneven (Table 11.7). Greater London (Region A in the table) had 520,000 in 2000, 47 per cent of the total, and 36,000 up on the previous year. As ever, the figures clearly show the importance of the capital in the international labour mobility machine. The Rest of the South-East (Region B) accounts for another 218,000 foreign workers, about 20 per cent of the total and continuing the (modest) rising trend of the last few years. Hence, around two-thirds of foreign workers are in South East England, the capital being the dominant focus. In comparison, only 10.8 per cent of UK nationals work in Greater London, and only 31.3 per cent in the South East as a whole. This heavy concentration of foreign labour in the capital city and its surrounding region is similar to that found in other European countries. Furthermore, the pattern seems overall to be very stable. Although there have been fluctuations in the 1990s, no clear trend towards greater or lesser concentration has emerged. As with the analysis of flow patterns by region, there seems to be an underlying stability.

See Table 11.7

The concentration of foreign workers in Greater London applies to all national groups identified. Non-EU nationals are more likely than EU nationals to be in London. In part this is due to the relative under-representation of Irish workers in the capital, 34.5 per cent in 2000 compared with 45 per cent of other EU

Table 11.7: Persons Living and Working in UK, by Region of Residence, 2000

	Absolute Figures (thousands)				Proportion of Total (per cent)					
	Region A	Region B	Region C	Region D	All of UK	Region A	Region B	Region C	Region D	All of UK
All nationalities	3367	5650	7843	10708	27568	12.2	20.5	28.4	38.8	100.0
UK/GB	2847	5431	7671	10511	26460	10.8	20.5	29.0	39.7	100.0
Foreign nationals of which:	520	218	172	197	1107	47.0	19.7	15.5	17.8	100.0
Non-EU Countries	338	112	103	103	656	51.5	17.1	15.7	15.7	100.0
EU Countries	182	106	69	94	452	40.3	23.5	15.3	20.8	100.0
EU Countries excl. Irish Republic	111	60	38	36	246	45.1	24.4	15.4	14.6	100.0
Irish Republic	71	46	31	58	206	34.5	22.3	15.0	28.2	100.0
France & Germany	33	25	13	10	81	40.7	30.9	16.0	12.3	100.0
Northern EU	21	14	:	11	56	37.5	25.0	-	19.6	100.0
Southern EU	56	21	16	15	109	51.4	19.3	14.7	13.8	100.0
Other Europe	32	13	:	10	63	50.8	20.6	-	15.9	100.0
Africa	85	24	15	16	140	60.7	17.1	10.7	11.4	100.0
Middle East	:	:	:	:	:	-	-	-	-	-
Indian Sub-Continent	60	20	34	28	141	42.6	14.2	24.1	19.9	100.0
Southeast Asia	:	:	:	:	31	-	-	-	-	100.0
Other Asia	40	:	:	:	48	83.3	-	-	-	100.0
North America	31	18	17	12	79	39.2	22.8	21.5	15.2	100.0
Caribbean/West Indies	16	:	:	:	31	51.6	-	-	-	100.0
Other Americas	:	:	:	-	:	-	-	-	-	-
Australia & New Zealand	43	14	:	13	79	54.4	17.7	-	16.5	100.0

Source: Labour Force Survey

Notes:

1. Regions are based on standard regions used by the Department of Employment and Skills:

- A: Greater London (inner and outer)
- B: Rest of South East
- C: East Anglia; East Midlands; West Midlands (Metropolitan and rest); South West
- D: Rest of UK

2. Numbers rounded to the nearest '000.

3. ':' indicates less than 10,000. Row totals include relevant estimates for these cells.

nationals and 47 per cent of foreign nationals as a whole. There is some evidence that the proportion of Irish workers in London has gone down during the 1990s. French and Germans and those from other Northern EU countries are also less likely to be in the capital, in contrast to those from the Southern EU where the reverse is the case. Those from the rest of Europe are also more likely to be in London.

For most non-EU groups, concentration in London is common. About two-thirds of Africans in employment, around half of those from Australia and New Zealand, from Asia (excluding the Indian sub-continent) and from the Caribbean/West Indies are in London. Even though ISC nationals are less well represented in London than foreign nationals as a whole, their proportion is still over 40 per cent. North Americans seem to be slightly more dispersed but are still between three and four times more likely to be in London than the indigenous population.

In the other regions listed, the importance of the different nationalities varies. The heavy concentration of the foreign workforce in London means that, relative to the UK population, they are under-represented in other parts of the country. The nearest to parity is in the Rest of the South-East (RSE), where 20.5 per cent of the UK population and 19.7 per cent of the foreign population live and work. The RSE is a region of concentration especially for those from EU countries (excluding the Irish Republic), and North America. Compared with foreigners as a whole, those from the Indian sub-continent, France and Germany and North America are over-represented when compared with all foreign nationals in the Midlands and South-Western England (Region C). The Irish and those from the Indian sub-continent are the only foreign groups relatively over-represented in northern and western parts of the UK (Region D). Again, this pattern reflects the situation of recent years.

Within the RSE there are variations between national groups. EU nationals are more likely to live and work in the region than either non-EU foreigners or the UK population. This tendency is increased if the Irish are excluded, although the Irish themselves are more likely to live and work in the RSE than the indigenous population. French and Germans are particularly over-represented in the region as, to a lesser extent, are those from the remaining Northern EU countries. Those from the Southern EU, however, are less likely than the UK population or than all foreign nationals to be in the RSE. Most of the other groups identifiable, except for those from the Middle East and North America, are less likely than both the indigenous population and foreign nationals in total to live and work in the RSE region.

All foreign groups are much less likely to live and work in the 'Middle England' group than the indigenous population, 15.5 compared with 29 per cent in 2000. Only the Indian sub-continent, the Caribbean/West Indies and, to a lesser extent, North America, have over one in five of their nationals in this region. There is little difference between EU and non-EU nationals. Although relatively small numbers pose sampling problems, it appears that there are no particular temporal trends.

Rather more variation between origin groups is visible in the distributions across northern and western parts of the UK. Proportionately less than half of foreign nationals live and work here compared with the UK population, 17.8 compared with 39.7 per cent respectively in 2000. The presence of the Irish makes a significant difference to the proportion of EU nationals. If the Irish are excluded from the EU group, non-EU nationals are marginally more likely to live and work in this region. Among the other groups, those from the Middle East, ISC and other parts of Asia are over-represented compared with the total foreign population, but not with UK nationals. There is some evidence that the North American presence has diminished proportionately during the 1990s.

Outside London, almost without exception, foreign nationals are proportionately less well represented among those living and working than the UK population as a whole. In London, foreigners are relatively over-represented by a factor of between three and four. Generally speaking, there are differences between northern (including France and Germany) and southern EU states, with the former being relatively more prominent in the RSE, the latter in London. Of the major groups only the Irish have a strong presence in the northern and western parts of the country

11.13 Nationality and industry group 1992-2000

This section presents an overview of the industrial distribution of foreign national groups. Aggregation into a small number of major categories, because of sample size, allows the industrial distribution of at least some national groups to be identified. It would appear that foreign nationals as a whole are more likely than Britons to work in more labour intensive sectors (Table 11.8), the picture being very similar to that for the last few years. Indeed, the stability of this distribution pattern is one of its fundamental characteristics, suggesting that the different national groups perform specific roles in the UK economy. A smaller proportion of foreigners than UK citizens work in primary industries (Group A) and in manufacturing and construction (Group B), while the reverse is the case for distribution, hotels and catering and repair services (Group C), finance and business services (Group D), and for transport and communications and other services (Group E).

The different national groups are not evenly spread across industries, the pattern changing little in the last few years. Non-EU nationals, and particularly North Americans, Australians and New Zealanders are more likely than others to be in the financial and business service sector (Group D), which generally requires higher level skills. Africans are especially to be found in Groups C, D and E). The Irish continue to be relatively over-represented in manufacturing and construction (Group B), and in transport, communications and other services (Group E). Other EU nationals display a different pattern: French and Germans have a greater propensity to be in Groups D and E; those from the southern EU countries in Group C, most probably in hotels and catering. Nationals of Indian sub-continent countries are over-represented in manufacturing and construction (Group B), and especially in distribution, hotels and catering and repairs (Group C). West Indians have a high relative presence in Group E.

Trends in each of the sectors are briefly described below.

See Table 11.8

11.13.1 Primary

The proportion of the total population working in primary industries is low, around 5 per cent in 2000 and with a declining trend. The proportion of the foreign national population in the sector is about half that of the UK population and has also tended to decline during the 1990s. Numbers are generally too small to identify specific national patterns.

11.13.2 Manufacturing and construction

Foreign nationals are also under-represented in this group and both UK and foreign groups have seen a fall in employment in the sector during the 1990s. Non-EU nationals are more likely to work in the sector than EU nationals, particularly when the Irish are excluded. Those from the ISC are more likely than other foreign groups to work in the sector.

Table 11.8: Persons Living and Working in UK, by Industry, 2000

Absolute Figures (thousands)

	Group A	Group B	Group C	Group D	Group E	Other	All
All nationalities	1346	6133	5420	3875	10705	88	27568
UK/GB	1318	5955	5188	3693	10233	74	26460
Foreign nationals	28	179	232	182	472	14	1107
of which:							
Non-EU Countries	11	107	145	112	270	11	656
EU Countries	17	72	87	70	202	:	452
EU Countries excl. Irish Republic	:	36	62	44	94	:	246
Irish Republic	:	36	25	26	108	:	206
France & Germany	:	11	18	14	34	:	81
Northern EU	:	:	:	14	21	-	56
Southern EU	:	17	36	16	38	:	109
Other Europe	:	:	11	11	31	:	63
Africa	:	17	32	27	59	:	140
Middle East	-	:	:	:	:	-	:
Indian Sub-Continent	:	36	41	12	48	:	141
Southeast Asia	-	:	:	:	18	-	31
Other Asia	:	:	22	:	11	:	48
North America	:	:	:	22	32	:	79
Caribbean/West Indies	-	:	:	:	19	-	31
Other Americas	:	-	:	-	:	-	:
Australia & New Zealand	:	15	10	21	29	-	79

Proportion of Total (per cent)

	Group A	Group B	Group C	Group D	Group E	Other	All
All nationalities	4.9	22.2	19.7	14.1	38.8	0.3	100.0
UK/GB	5.0	22.5	19.6	14.0	38.7	0.3	100.0
Foreign nationals	2.5	16.2	21.0	16.4	42.6	1.3	100.0
of which:							
Non-EU Countries	1.7	16.3	22.1	17.1	41.2	1.7	100.0
EU Countries	3.8	15.9	19.2	15.5	44.7	-	100.0
EU Countries excl. Irish Republic	-	14.6	25.2	17.9	38.2	-	100.0
Irish Republic	-	17.5	12.1	12.6	52.4	-	100.0
France & Germany	-	13.6	22.2	17.3	42.0	-	100.0
Northern EU	-	-	-	25.0	37.5	-	100.0
Southern EU	-	15.6	33.0	14.7	34.9	-	100.0
Other Europe	-	-	17.5	17.5	49.2	-	100.0
Africa	-	12.1	22.9	19.3	42.1	-	100.0
Middle East	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Indian Sub-Continent	-	25.5	29.1	8.5	34.0	-	100.0
Southeast Asia	-	-	-	-	58.1	-	100.0
Other Asia	-	-	45.8	-	22.9	-	100.0
North America	-	-	-	27.8	40.5	-	100.0
Caribbean/West Indies	-	-	-	-	61.3	-	100.0
Other Americas	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Australia & New Zealand	-	19.0	12.7	26.6	36.7	-	100.0

Source: Labour Force Survey
 Industry divisions are based on Standard Industrial Classification (SIC 1980)

Group A: 0 Agriculture, forestry and fishing
 1 Energy and water supply industry
 2 Extraction of minerals and ores, other than fuels
 Manufacture of metals, mineral products and chemicals
 Group B: 3 Metal goods, engineering and vehicle industries
 4 Other manufacturing industries
 5 Construction

Group C: 6 Distribution, hotels and catering, repairs
 Group D: 8 Banking, finance and insurance, business services and leasing

Group E: 7 Transport and communications
 9 Other services

Notes: Northern EU: Austria, Benelux, Denmark, Finland and Sweden

Southern EU: Greece, Italy, Portugal and Spain
 : Less than 10,000. Row totals include relevant estimates for these cells.

11.13.3 Distribution, hotels and catering, repairs

Employment in this sector overall has been fairly stable during the period. A higher proportion of foreigners than UK nationals work in it, a characteristic more common among non-EU nationals. Those from the Southern EU states have a particular concentration, around a third in 2000. This is also a sector in which ISC nationals are relatively over-represented, as is the case for other Asians.

11.13.4 Financial and business services

This sector has experienced a general growth in employment, shared by both indigenous and foreign nationals. However, growth has been greater among the latter, from 10.6 to 16.4 per cent 1992-2000. A higher proportion of foreign nationals than UK population work in the sector. The proportion employed has risen for all of the European groups, especially those from the Northern EU. The proportion of Africans has also risen and they are more likely than foreigners generally to work in the sector. In contrast, relatively low proportions from the ISC have worked in the sector during the 1990s. North Americans, Australians and New Zealanders have above average proportions which have tended to grow over the period.

11.13.5 Transport, communications and other services

This is another sector where employment generally has grown, around 40 per cent of both UK and foreign nationals occupied therein. Foreign nationals are more likely to work in the sector than the UK population. Irish employment has grown particularly, while the proportion of non-EU nationals in the sector has changed little. Those from the Caribbean/West Indies are particularly likely to be in the sector. In contrast, the proportion of those from the Indian sub-continent in this sector is below average. For North Americans, the proportion has declined while for Australians and New Zealanders there have been annual fluctuations but no noticeable trend.

11.13.6 Summary

The foreign and UK population exhibit broadly similar patterns and trends in employment across the five major sectors. Foreigners are less likely to be found in the primary and manufacturing (including construction) sectors, more so in the others, although the differences are small, around 2-4 percentage points. There are some differences between the national groups, though small sample size hinders detailed analysis.

11.14 Foreign worker flows by citizenship

11.14.1 Flows of migrant workers by nationality and sex 2000

As indicated in Chapter 2, section 2.3.1.2, the LFS can be used to indicate the scale of annual labour migration into the UK. The survey asks for address the year before and the number of international migrants is derived from those reporting an address abroad at that time. Strictly speaking, this gives a measurement of transition migration rather than actual movement (unlike the International Passenger Survey), since it takes no account of possible movement during the intervening period. Such measurements under-record the real level of migration.

Table 11.9 records both total migrants into the UK (living abroad a year ago and living in the UK at the time of the survey) and labour migrants (living abroad one year before the survey, and living and working in the UK at the time of the survey). The small overall sample size means that a detailed breakdown by nationality is not possible.

Immigration of workers in 2000 reached 304,000, 62.8 per cent of the total (compared with an average of 57.8 per cent in 1998/9 and 55.4 per cent in 1997/8). The LFS figure for 2000 is much less than that calculated from the IPS (354,000). There were slightly more males than females for the UK stream, but among foreigners the reverse was the case.

The small sample size makes it impossible to identify the national origins of labour immigrants at anything but the most aggregate scale. The total number was 141,000 about 46 per cent of the total, of whom 87,000 (62%) were of foreign nationality. Countries of the EU provided about 28,000 labour immigrants, almost a third of all foreign nationals. Foreign nationals coming in to work were more likely to be male (53%) than total foreigners entering (49.2%).

11.14.2 Migrant workers by nationality and socio-economic group 2000

Overall, labour immigrants recorded in the LFS in 2000 contain approximately equal numbers and proportions of the three socio-economic groups identified, indicating that the UK labour market continues to import workers across a broad occupational spectrum (Table 11.10). This situation is similar to that of recent years.

However, comparison of Table 11.10 with Table 11.6 shows that the socio-economic structure of labour immigrants differs from that of the resident working population. In particular, the data suggest that immigrants, especially the British, have higher skill levels. Non-EU foreign nationals are less likely to be highly skilled. Proportionately more immigrants (34.8%) are in the category of professionals, employers and managers (Group A) than in the working population as a whole (25.3%), a similar situation to earlier years. In contrast, manual workers (Group C) are less well represented among migrants than in the working population as a whole (29.8 as against 39.5%), especially if they are UK nationals. For other non-manual workers (Group B), the overall differences are less. Comparison of those foreign nationals entering in 1999-2000 with those who entered in 1995-6 shows some difference. Although the more recent entrants contained a larger number of professional and managerial workers the percentage share of this group declined, owing to larger increases in numbers in other groups.

See Table 11.9

See Table 11.10

11.14.3 Migrant workers by nationality and region

Table 11.11 records the destination regions in the UK of all immigrants (those 'living', i.e. including those working and not working), and of those currently working at the time of the survey. The domination of London and the RSE is clear: 37.8 per cent of all immigrants, and 38.3 per cent of those working came to the capital, and around a fifth more had destinations in the RSE. This is a similar situation to that of the last few years.

There are significant regional differences by nationality. Foreign nationals, especially those from non-EU countries, are much more likely than UK citizens to come to London, both to live (48.7 and 18% respectively) and to work (48.3 and 22.2%). However, in contrast to earlier years in the mid-1990s, this is no longer true for the RSE. Foreign nationals continue to be less likely to move either to live or work in other regions. Those from Australia and New Zealand are particularly likely to come to London.

Such a situation is consistent with the role that London plays as a global city, exchanging population and labour force world-wide. Unfortunately, small sample size inhibits such conclusions with regard to the foreign national population entering regions beyond the capital.

Table 11.9: Persons Living in UK now and outside UK 1 year ago, by nationality and sex, 2000

	Absolute Figures (thousands)						Proportion of Total (per cent)												
	Males			Females			Total			Males			Females			Total			
	Living	Working	Total	Living	Working	Total	Living	Working	Total	Living	Working	Total	Living	Working	Total	Living	Working	Total	
All Nationalities	156	82	148	59	304	141	51.3	58.2	48.7	41.8	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	
UK/GB	60	36	50	18	111	54	54.1	66.7	45.0	33.3	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	
Foreign nationals	94	46	97	41	191	87	49.2	52.9	50.8	47.1	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	
of which:																			
Non-EU Countries	68	31	69	28	137	59	49.6	52.5	50.4	47.5	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	
EU Countries	26	15	28	13	54	28	48.1	53.6	51.9	46.4	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	
EU Countries Excl. Irish Rep.	24	14	23	10	48	25	50.0	56.0	47.9	40.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	
Irish Republic	:	:	:	:	:	:	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
France & Germany	12	:	:	:	22	:	54.5	-	-	-	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	
Other EU	13	:	13	:	26	15	50.0	-	50.0	-	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	
Africa	11	:	17	:	27	12	40.7	-	63.0	-	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	
Asia	16	:	15	:	31	:	51.6	-	48.4	-	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	
North America	12	:	:	:	21	12	57.1	-	-	-	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	
Australia & New Zealand	:	:	:	:	16	15	-	-	-	-	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	

Source: Labour Force Survey

Numbers rounded to the nearest '000.

: indicates/refers to figures less than 10,000.

Table 11.10: Persons Living in UK now and outside UK 1 year ago, by nationality and SEG, 2000

	Absolute Figures (thousands)						Proportion of Total (per cent)					
	Group A	Group B	Group C	Other	Total		Group A	Group B	Group C	Other	Total	
All nationalities	49	51	42	-	141	34.8	36.2	29.8	-	100.0		
UK/GB	21	22	11	-	54	38.9	40.7	20.4	-	100.0		
Foreign nationals	27	28	31	-	87	31.0	32.2	35.6	-	100.0		
Non-EU Countries	17	20	21	-	59	28.8	33.9	35.6	-	100.0		

Source: Labour Force Survey

Notes:

1. Socio-economic groups based on Standard Occupational Classification (SOC), defined by ONS:

- Group A: Professional, employers, managers
- Group B: Other non-manual
- Group C: Skilled manual, semi-skilled manual, unskilled manual

2. : less than 10,000. Row totals include relevant estimates for these cells.

3. Figures rounded to nearest '000

Table 11.9: Persons Living in UK now and outside UK 1 year ago, by nationality and sex, 2000

	Absolute Figures (thousands)						Proportion of Total (per cent)					
	Males		Females		Total		Males		Females		Total	
	Living	Working	Living	Working	Living	Working	Living	Working	Living	Working	Living	Working
All Nationalities	156	82	148	59	304	141	51.3	58.2	48.7	41.8	100.0	100.0
UK/GB	60	36	50	18	111	54	54.1	66.7	45.0	33.3	100.0	100.0
Foreign nationals	94	46	97	41	191	87	49.2	52.9	50.8	47.1	100.0	100.0
of which:												
Non-EU Countries	68	31	69	28	137	59	49.6	52.5	50.4	47.5	100.0	100.0
EU Countries	26	15	28	13	54	28	48.1	53.6	51.9	46.4	100.0	100.0
EU Countries Excl. Irish Rep.	24	14	23	10	48	25	50.0	56.0	47.9	40.0	100.0	100.0
Irish Republic	:	:	:	:	:	:	-	-	-	-	-	-
France & Germany	12	:	:	:	22	:	54.5	-	-	-	100.0	-
Other EU	13	:	13	:	26	15	50.0	-	50.0	-	100.0	100.0
Africa	11	:	17	:	27	12	40.7	-	63.0	-	100.0	100.0
Asia	16	:	15	:	31	:	51.6	-	48.4	-	100.0	-
North America	12	:	:	:	21	12	57.1	-	-	-	100.0	100.0
Australia & New Zealand	:	:	:	:	16	15	-	-	-	-	100.0	100.0

Source: Labour Force Survey
Numbers rounded to the nearest '000.
: indicates/refers to figures less than 10,000.

Table 11.10: Persons Living in UK now and outside UK 1 year ago, by nationality and SEG, 2000

	Absolute Figures (thousands)					Proportion of Total (per cent)				
	Group A	Group B	Group C	Other	Total	Group A	Group B	Group C	Other	Total
All nationalities	49	51	42	-	141	34.8	36.2	29.8	-	100.0
UK/GB	21	22	11	-	54	38.9	40.7	20.4	-	100.0
Foreign nationals	27	28	31	-	87	31.0	32.2	35.6	-	100.0
Non-EU Countries	17	20	21	-	59	28.8	33.9	35.6	-	100.0

Source: Labour Force Survey

Notes:

- Socio-economic groups based on Standard Occupational Classification (SOC), defined by ONS:
 - Group A: Professional, employers, managers
 - Group B: Other non-manual
 - Group C: Skilled manual, semi-skilled manual, unskilled manual
- : Less than 10,000. Row totals include relevant estimates for these cells.
- Figures rounded to nearest '000

11.15 Conclusions

Despite the constraints of sample size, it is possible to draw a picture of the foreign population and workforce. Both have been rising steadily during the period, with females outstretching males, although the sex balance has been fairly stable in recent years. The foreign workforce has risen quickly recently, by more than a quarter between 1995 and 2000. However, overall there has been a decline in the proportion from other EU states since the mid-1990s, the main factor in this being a fall in numbers of Irish nationals.

Although the foreign national workforce has a broadly similar occupational structure to that of the overall population, it is generally more skilled. It is also highly concentrated in London and, to a lesser extent, the rest of the South-east. The industrial pattern has been generally stable and similar in its distribution to the UK workforce. However, foreigners are more likely to be found in the labour-intensive sectors of the economy.

Comparison of the inflow of migrant workers with stocks of labour suggest some differences. In particular, immigrants, especially British citizens, have higher skill levels. Non-EU nationals entering are less likely than other foreigners to be highly skilled. Foreigners entering the country, both to live and to work, are between two and three times more likely to move to London than incoming UK citizens.

The next chapters go on to examine in more detail the industrial and occupational characteristics of the foreign workforce.

See Table 11.11

Table 11.1.1: Persons Living in UK now and outside UK 1 year ago, by nationality and region of residence, 2000

Absolute Figures (thousands)	Region A		Region B		Region C		Region D		UK	
	Living	Working	Living	Working	Living	Working	Living	Working	Living	Working
All nationalities	115	54	61	32	58	25	71	30	304	141
UK/GB	20	12	26	15	26	11	37	17	111	54
Foreign nationals	93	42	34	17	30	14	33	14	191	87
of which:										
Non-EU Countries	71	30	24	11	22	:	20	:	137	59
EU Countries	22	12	10	:	:	:	13	:	54	28
EU Countries excl. Irish Rep.	21	12	:	:	:	:	11	:	48	25
Irish Republic	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
France & Germany	12	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	22	:
of which: Sweden	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
Finland	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
Africa	14	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	27	12
Asia	14	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	31	:
North America	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	21	12
Australia & New Zealand	12	12	:	:	:	:	:	:	16	15
Proportion of Total (per cent)										
All nationalities	37.8	38.3	20.1	22.7	19.1	17.7	23.4	21.3	100.0	100.0
UK/GB	18.0	22.2	23.4	27.8	23.4	20.4	33.3	31.5	100.0	100.0
Foreign nationals	48.7	48.3	17.8	19.5	15.7	16.1	17.3	16.1	100.0	100.0
of which:										
Non-EU Countries	51.8	50.8	17.5	18.6	16.1	-	14.6	-	100.0	100.0
EU Countries	40.7	42.9	18.5	-	-	-	24.1	-	100.0	100.0
EU Countries excl. Irish Rep.	43.8	48.0	-	-	-	-	22.9	-	100.0	100.0
Irish Republic	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
France & Germany	54.5	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	100.0	-
of which: Sweden	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Finland	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Africa	51.9	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	100.0	100.0
Asia	45.2	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	100.0	-
North America	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	100.0	100.0
Australia & New Zealand	75.0	80.0	-	-	-	-	-	-	100.0	100.0

Source: Labour Force Survey
 Regions are based on standard regions used by the Department of Employment:
 A: Greater London (Inner and Outer)
 B: Rest of South East
 C: East Anglia; East Midlands; West Midlands; South West
 D: Rest of UK
 Notes
 : Less than 10,000. Row totals include relevant estimates for these cells.
 Figures rounded to nearest '000

Research questions

- In which sectors of the economy is foreign labour employed and what changes have occurred between the 1980s and the 1990s?
- Are some activities more dependent than others on non-EU nationals?

Main findings

- Over 10,000 foreign employees were recorded in the categories specified below both in 1984-8 and in 1995-9.
- Trends of change in total foreign employment in these categories were as follows:
 - *Financial Services (especially), Administrative Services and Hotels and Catering* increased their shares.
 - *Manufacturing (especially), Construction, Transport and Communications and Other Services* decreased their shares.
 - *Distribution's* share was unchanged.

Among sub-sectors, health and social work increased its share but education's remained unchanged.

- Overall, non-EU nationals were about 56 per cent of foreign employees during the period studied but there was considerable variation across sectors. EU nationals were relatively over-represented in Construction, Transport and in some areas of the Administration etc. category.

12.1 Introduction

The objectives of this chapter are threefold: to identify those sectors of the economy where foreign labour is employed, to determine whether some activities are more dependent than others on non-EU nationals and to analyse changes between the 1980s and 1990s.

The analysis is based upon the annual submission by ONS of data from the LFS to Eurostat, broken down into two-digit NACE categories. The analysis of industrial distribution in this chapter differs from that in Chapter 11 by using a different form of reductionism. In Chapter 11 it was possible to present a more detailed breakdown by nationality by using aggregated industrial categories. Here, a more detailed industrial breakdown is combined with aggregation of foreign nationalities into only two categories, other-EU and non-EU.

In a further attempt to overcome the difficulties of small sample size, in part at least, data for five year periods have been amalgamated to provide an average. Thus, in the data presented for individual years figures are included only for those industries where, for at least one year during the five, there was a cell with over 10,000 recorded. For the average, smaller cell sizes are included, but the data should be regarded at best as indicative of size rather than as an absolute value.

A complication in assessing the trend from the 1980s is that until 1992 the NACE-70 categorisation was used. Subsequently a new one, NACE-Revision 1, was produced by Eurostat and is used for most of the 1990s data. A more or less direct comparison between the two categorisations is possible, but there are some incompatibilities which are not easily reconcilable at the two-digit level. Even so, the broad trends can be distinguished without much loss of accuracy.

The two periods analysed are 1995-99 (the latest available at the time of writing) and 1984-88. Foreign workers are broken down into those from other EU states and those from elsewhere.

12.2 Patterns and trends 1995-99

12.2.1 Overall situation

During the period, the number of foreign workers averaged 962,000 (Table 12.1). About 427,000 (44.4%) were from other EU states, 535,000 (55.6%) were from non-EU states (Tables 12.1 and 12.2). Three of the main NACE categories consistently recorded less than 10,000 foreigners. These were: Agriculture, hunting and forestry; Mining, quarrying and petroleum; Electricity, gas and water supply. In contrast, around a quarter of a million foreigners were in the Administration, education, health and defence category, 26.4 per cent of the total. The other major categories were Finance, insurance and other business services (163,000, 16.9%), Manufacturing (129,000, 13.4%), Wholesale and retail trade (110,000, 11.5%) and Hotels and restaurants (102,000, 10.6%). Just over 5 per cent of the Construction workforce were foreign, as were around 4 per cent of those employed in Transport.

It is very difficult to read trends over the period because of sampling errors. However, it seems that of the major sectors, Manufacturing has become relatively less important, Finance etc more so, with no obvious trends for the others. However, within the sectors there have been some shifts in the relative importance of individual sub-sectors.

12.2.2 Specific industries

A more detailed breakdown is possible in those sectors where foreigners are concentrated. In the Administrative, education, health and defence sector, Health and social work is the sub-sector which accounts for the largest number, averaging 140,000 during the period, 14.6 per cent of all foreign workers employed. In fact, this sub-sector alone occupies more foreign labour than the whole of manufacturing. The number of foreigners in the sub-sector has been rising, from about 135,000 in 1995 to 151,000 in 1999; however, its proportion of the total has not risen commensurately, implying that over the last few years it has not taken a disproportionate share of the overall rise in foreign employment. Education is another large employer of foreign labour, averaging about 75,000 during the period, 7.8 per cent of the total. As with the health sub-sector, numbers have risen in recent years but its proportion of the total has not changed substantially. Numbers in public administration, around 25,000 on average during the period (2.9%) have not risen during the five-year period.

The Finance, insurance and other business services sector showed strong growth during the period, its proportion of the total rising from 14.7 per cent in 1995 to 17.8 per cent in 1999, averaging 16.9 per cent during the period as a whole. The growing significance of business services, including consultancies, is clear with numbers averaging 81,000 over the five years and rising from 64,000 in 1995 to 93,000 in 1999, with an increase in the proportion of total foreign employment from 7.2 to 9.1 per cent. Computer and related activities occupied about 21,000 foreigners but it cannot be assumed that this was the number of computer specialists at work, since NACE measures industry and not occupation. These activities accounted for only two out of fifty foreigners at work. Slightly more important in the sector was financial services per se, with an average of 28,000, almost 3 per cent of the total.

See Table 12.1

Foreign employment in Manufacturing is widely distributed with only the Clothing etc industry (13,000) averaging more than 10,000 over the period. In the Other Services sector, recreational, cultural and sporting activities form the largest sub-sector (29,000), with Domestic service employment in private households (16,000) and Employment in extra-territorial organisations and bodies (14,000) being the other main sub-sectors.

12.2.3 NACE category by citizenship

To what extent are some activities more dependent upon non-EU nationals than others? Overall during the period about 44 per cent of foreigners were other EU nationals and 56 per cent were non-EU nationals. These proportions varied significantly across sectors and sub-sectors (Table 12.2). In the Administration etc sector the proportions overall (46 and 54%) were similar to the total breakdown. However, in Public administration non-EU nationals were considerably more important, with 61 per cent; in Education other EU nationals were relatively more important than in the sector as a whole, while in Health and Social work the breakdown was 46-54 .

See Table 12.2

In the Finance, insurance and other business sector non-EU nationals were more important than their position in total employment, with 58 per cent of foreign workers. In Computer and related activities they accounted for two-thirds of all foreigners. Other Services was also dominated by non-EU nationals, especially the Other service activities, Domestic service and Extra-territorial agencies sub-sectors. However, Recreational, cultural and sporting activities had a similar breakdown to that of the total.

The Manufacturing sector also had over-representation of non-EU nationals (around 60%), this concentration being particularly apparent in the Clothing industry. In sharp contrast, Construction was very heavily dominated by EU nationals (probably the Irish effect) who account for almost three quarters of foreign nationals employed. Amongst the remaining sectors, Hotels and restaurants employed more non-EU nationals than might be expected from the overall distribution (58%) as did Post and telecommunications (61%) and Wholesale and retail trade (59%). In Transport other EU-nationals were relatively more important than in the total foreign workforce.

See Table 12.3

Table 12.1 Foreign workers by industry and citizenship, 1995-1999 (thousands)

	1995			1996			1997			1998			1999			1995-1999 Average	
	Total	EU	Non-EU	Total	EU	Non-EU	Total	EU	Non-EU	Total	EU	Non-EU	Total	EU	Non-EU	EU	Non-EU
Total	884	390	493	889	412	477	961	418	543	1056	458	596	1021	456	565	427	535
Agriculture, Hunting and Forestry	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
Mining, Quarrying and Petroleum	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
Manufacturing	130	54	76	124	49	75	131	57	73	128	50	78	134	47	86	51	78
- food products and beverages	13	:	:	13	:	:	:	:	:	13	:	:	16	:	11	:	:
- textiles	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
- wearing apparel; dressing and dyeing of fur	14	:	11	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	19	:	14	:	:
- wood and of products of wood and cork except furniture etc.	:	:	:	17	:	15	25	:	22	24	:	20	:	:	:	13	12
- publishing, printing and reproduction of recorded media	16	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	14	:	:	:	:
- chemicals and chemical products	:	:	:	13	:	:	11	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
- other non-metallic mineral products	:	:	:	11	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
- machinery and equipment n.e.c.	10	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
- office machinery and computers	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	11	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
- electrical machinery and apparatus n.e.c.	:	:	:	10	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
- furniture, manufacturing n.e.c.	:	:	:	:	:	:	10	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
Electricity, Gas and Water Supply	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
Construction	45	34	11	51	34	17	51	37	14	53	39	15	55	42	13	37	14
Wholesale and Retail Trade	102	45	57	94	43	51	115	48	67	120	44	76	120	46	73	110	65
- sales, maintenance and repair of motor vehicles and motorcycles; retail sale of automotive fuel	:	:	:	:	:	:	15	:	:	11	:	:	13	:	:	:	:
- wholesale trade and commission trade, except of motor vehicles and motorcycles	25	11	14	22	:	13	30	13	17	34	13	21	23	:	16	27	16
- retail trade, except of motor vehicles and motorcycles; repair of personal and household goods	67	30	38	64	32	32	70	27	43	76	29	47	84	35	49	72	42
Hotel and Restaurants	94	43	51	97	44	53	105	39	65	115	48	66	101	41	60	102	59
Transport	43	18	25	33	17	16	37	17	20	48	25	23	43	19	24	41	22
- land transport; transport via pipelines	23	:	14	16	:	:	19	:	12	21	:	12	19	:	12	19	12
- supporting and auxiliary transport activities; activities of travel agencies	14	:	:	14	:	:	14	:	:	20	12	:	21	11	10	17	:

Post and Telecommunications	12	:	:	:	-	-	16	:	:	20	:	13	21	:	12	14	:	
Finance, Insurance, Other Business	130	56	74	146	67	79	172	66	105	185	81	104	182	73	109	163	69	94
- financial intermediation, except insurance and pension funding	23	11	12	27	11	15	25	:	17	35	15	19	33	14	18	28	12	17
- real estate activities	-	-	-	-	-	-	15	:	:	16	:	:	11	:	:	:	:	:
- computer and related activities	13	:	:	17	:	:	19	:	16	25	10	15	28	:	20	21	:	14
- other business activities	64	25	39	69	29	40	91	39	51	87	36	51	93	37	57	81	33	47
Admin, Educ, Health, Defense	285	119	166	234	114	120	230	103	127	259	113	145	262	133	129	254	116	137
- public administration and defense, compulsory social security	30	11	19	25	12	13	25	:	15	29	:	21	28	12	16	28	11	17
- education	67	34	32	78	40	38	72	35	37	78	38	40	83	43	40	75	38	37
- health and social work	135	59	77	131	62	69	133	58	75	152	67	85	151	78	73	140	65	76
Other Services	53	15	38	68	27	40	69	28	41	98	36	62	81	33	48	73	28	46
- activities of membership organizations n.e.c.	-	-	-	10	:	:	-	-	-	17	10	:	11	:	:	:	:	:
- recreational, cultural and sporting activities	24	12	13	28	12	16	25	12	14	36	13	23	31	17	15	29	13	16
- other service activities	-	-	-	-	-	-	13	:	:	13	:	:	12	:	:	:	:	:
- private households with employed persons	13	:	10	17	:	:	17	:	:	17	:	11	15	:	10	16	:	:
- extra-territorial organizations and bodies	16	:	15	12	:	12	13	:	11	15	:	12	11	:	10	14	:	12

Source: LFS

Table 12.2: Foreign Workers by industry and citizenship, 1995-1999 (per cent)

	1995			1996			1997			1998			1999			1995-1999 Average			
	Total	EU	Non-EU	Total	EU	Non-EU	Total	EU	Non-EU	Total	EU	Non-EU	Total	EU	Non-EU	Total	EU	Non-EU	
Total	100.0	44.2	55.8	100.0	46.3	53.7	100.0	43.5	56.5	100.0	43.4	56.5	100.0	44.6	55.4	100.0	44.4	55.6	
Agriculture, Hunting and Forestry	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
Mining, Quarrying and Petroleum	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
Manufacturing	100.0	41.3	58.7	100.0	39.3	60.7	100.0	43.9	56.1	100.0	39.0	61.0	100.0	35.4	64.6	100.0	39.8	60.2	
- food products and beverages	100.0	:	:	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	70.7	-	-	-	-
- textiles	-	-	-	100.0	:	:	-	-	-	100.0	:	:	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
- wearing apparel; dressing and dyeing of fur	100.0	:	73.2	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	100.0	:	77.2	-	-	-	
- wood and of products of wood and cork except furniture etc.	-	-	-	100.0	:	89.4	100.0	:	90.0	100.0	:	83.9	-	-	-	100.0	:	87.6	
- publishing, printing and reproduction of recorded media	100.0	:	:	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	100.0	:	:	-	-	-	
- chemicals and chemical products	-	-	-	100.0	:	:	100.0	:	:	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
- other non-metallic mineral products	-	-	-	100.0	:	:	100.0	:	:	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
- machinery and equipment n.e.c.	100.0	:	:	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
- office machinery and computers	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	100.0	:	:	-	-	-	
- electrical machinery and apparatus n.e.c.	-	-	-	100.0	:	:	100.0	:	:	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
- furniture, manufacturing n.e.c.	-	-	-	-	-	-	100.0	:	:	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
Electricity, Gas and Water Supply	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	
Construction	100.0	76.0	24.0	100.0	66.8	33.2	100.0	72.7	27.3	100.0	72.6	27.4	100.0	76.6	23.4	100.0	72.9	27.1	
Wholesale and Retail Trade	100.0	43.9	56.1	100.0	45.5	54.5	100.0	42.0	58.0	100.0	36.7	63.3	100.0	38.8	61.2	100.0	41.1	58.9	
- sales, maintenance and repair of motor vehicles and motorcycles; retail sale of automotive fuel	-	-	-	-	-	-	100.0	:	:	100.0	:	:	100.0	:	:	-	-	-	
- wholesale trade and commission trade, except of motor vehicles and motorcycles	100.0	45.3	54.7	100.0	:	61.0	100.0	42.7	57.3	100.0	37.4	62.6	100.0	:	68.5	100.0	39.3	60.7	
- retail trade, except of motor vehicles and motorcycles; repair of personal and household goods	100.0	44.2	55.8	100.0	49.8	50.2	100.0	38.2	61.8	100.0	38.1	61.9	100.0	41.8	58.2	100.0	42.2	57.8	
Hotel and Restaurants	100.0	45.8	54.2	100.0	45.1	54.9	100.0	37.5	62.5	100.0	42.2	57.8	100.0	40.5	59.5	100.0	42.1	57.9	
Transport	100.0	42.1	57.9	100.0	50.7	49.3	100.0	45.2	54.8	100.0	52.5	47.5	100.0	45.1	54.9	100.0	47.2	52.8	
- land transport; transport via pipelines	100.0	:	62.3	100.0	:	:	100.0	:	63.4	100.0	:	58.1	100.0	:	64.0	100.0	:	59.4	
- supporting and auxiliary transport activities; activities of travel agencies	100.0	:	:	100.0	:	:	100.0	:	:	100.0	58.5	:	100.0	51.6	48.4	100.0	:	:	

Table 12.3: Foreign workers by industry and citizenship, 1984-1988 (thousands)

	1984	1985	1986	1987	1988	1984-1988 Average
Total	828	829	903	906	719	837
Agricultural, hunting, forestry and fishing	:	:	:	:	:	:
Energy and water	17	15	14	12	12	14
Extraction and processing of non-energy-producing mine	18	28	29	22	22	24
- chemical industry	-	13	17	-	-	11
Manufacturing of which	204	211	216	187	194	202
- metal manufacture; mechanical, electrical and instruments	100	95	93	89	90	94
- manufacture of metal articles (except for mechanical,	12	14	18	11	-	12
- mechanical engineering	17	12	11	17	14	14
- electrical engineering	25	25	23	20	23	23
- manufacture of motor vehicles and of motor vehicle par	27	24	17	17	26	22
- manufacture of other means of transport	-	-	-	11	-	-
- other manufacturing industries	104	115	122	98	103	109
- food, drink and tobacco industry	28	23	30	22	27	26
- textile industry	15	14	18	14	-	14
- footwear and clothing industry	29	35	32	25	25	29
- manufacture of paper and paper products; printing and	13	20	17	12	20	16
- processing of rubber and plastics	-	11	13	11	11	11
Building and civil engineering	47	51	49	48	52	49
Distributive trades, repairs	86	98	85	101	112	97
- wholesale distribution (except dealing in scrap and wa	17	22	22	22	22	21
- retail distribution	58	67	57	69	77	66
Hotels and catering	68	69	74	82	83	75
Transport and communication	55	68	57	57	50	57
- railways	13	-	-	-	-	-
- other land transport (urban transport, road transport,	15	18	15	19	16	16
- air transport	-	10	-	-	-	-
- travel agents, freight brokers and other agents facili	-	-	-	-	10	-
- communication	14	21	16	13	12	15
Banking and finance, insurance, business services, ren	53	64	67	87	92	73
- banking and finance	14	17	20	22	31	21
- activities auxiliary to banking and finance and insura	25	34	31	46	45	36
- letting of real estate by the owner	-	-	-	10	-	-
Administration, Education, Medical Services	195	205	200	190	191	194
- public administration, national defence and compulsory	29	25	31	44	41	34
- sanitary services and administration of cemeteries	-	11	-	-	-	-
- education	58	69	69	66	63	65
- medical and other health services; veterinary services	107	99	99	80	87	95
Other Services	17	21	20	25	25	22
- other services provided to the general public	31	33	35	42	40	36
- recreational services and other cultural services	14	11	15	17	15	15
Other services: non-market services of general government	10	:	:	14	13	10
Other services : non-market services of private non-profit organisations	23	23	35	29	20	26

Source: LFS

12.2.4 Change 1984-88 – 1995-99

A direct comparison between the 1980s and 1990s is not possible because of the change in classification system. However, there is sufficient overlap for the comparison to be substantially correct. There is no breakdown by nationality for the earlier period.

In the five-year period during the 1980s total numbers employed averaged 837,000, rising by 15 per cent to 962,000 in the 1990s period (Tables 12.1 and 12.3). During both periods Agriculture etc. and Mining and extraction employed less than 10,000. Energy and water supplies, numbers already falling in the 1980s from 17,000 to 12,000, employed under 10,000 foreign workers by the late 1990s.

See Table 12.4

The largest NACE-category employer in the 1980s was Manufacturing, accounting for 202,000 foreign workers, almost a quarter (24.2%) of the total (Table 12.4). By the late 1990s foreign employment here had fallen by 26 per cent to 129,000, 13.4 per cent of foreign workers. Classification changes again hinder direct comparisons of specific industries. Nevertheless, the picture is clearly one of substantial and widespread decline in the employment of foreigners. Within manufacturing as a whole metal and engineering manufacture employed 94,000 (11.2%), other manufacturing industries 109,000 (13%). Overall, ten manufacturing sub-categories employed over 10,000 workers in the 1980s, compared with only one in the 1990s.

In contrast, Administration etc and Financial services showed major gains. Foreign employment in the first of these rose from 194,000 to 254,000, a rise of 31 per cent, although its proportion of all foreign employment rose only modestly from 23.2 to 26.4 per cent. The health and medical sub-sector rose from 95,000 (11.3%) to 140,000 (14.6%), a proportionate increase of 47 per cent. Education employed 65,000 foreign workers in the 1980s, 75,000 in the 1990s with the same share of the total (7.8%) in both periods and an overall increase of 15 per cent. Financial services increased their foreign employment from 72,000 to 163,000, up by 126 per cent, their share of the total almost doubling from 8.7 to 16.9 per cent. However, reclassification difficulties make it difficult to make straightforward comparisons: in particular, the NACE-70 system does not separately distinguish computer-related activities nor 'other business activities'. There are also classification difficulties with respect to the Other services category, where numbers appear to have gone down from 87,000 to 73,000.

Numbers in Construction changed little, 49,000 in the 1980s (5.9% of the total), 51,000 in the 1990s (5.3%). The situation was similar for Transport and communications with around 57,000 in the 1980s, 54,000 (amalgamating Transport with Post and Telecommunications) in the 1990s.

Two other categories which increased their numbers were Distributive trades and Hotels and catering. The former increased by 13.4 per cent to 110,000, although its proportion of the total remained the same (11.5%). Numbers engaged in the latter went up by 36 per cent to 102,000 and the proportion of the total from 9 to 10.6 per cent.

Table 12.4: Foreign workers by industry and citizenship, 1984-1988 (per cent)

	1984	1985	1986	1987	1988	1984-1988 Average
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Agricultural, hunting, forestry and fishing	:	:	:	:	:	:
Energy and water	2.0	1.8	1.6	1.3	1.6	1.7
Extraction and processing of non-energy-producing mine	2.1	3.3	3.2	2.4	3.0	2.8
- chemical industry	-	1.6	1.9	-	-	1.3
Manufacturing of which	24.7	25.4	23.9	20.6	27.0	24.2
- metal manufacture; mechanical, electrical and instruments	12.1	11.5	10.3	9.8	12.6	11.2
- manufacture of metal articles (except for mechanical,	1.4	1.7	2.0	1.2	-	1.5
- mechanical engineering	2.1	1.4	1.2	1.9	1.9	1.7
- electrical engineering	3.0	3.1	2.5	2.3	3.2	2.8
- manufacture of motor vehicles and of motor vehicle par	3.2	2.9	1.9	1.9	3.5	2.6
- manufacture of other means of transport	-	-	-	1.2	-	-
- other manufacturing industries	12.6	13.9	13.6	10.8	14.4	13.0
- food, drink and tobacco industry	3.4	2.8	3.3	2.4	3.8	3.1
- textile industry	1.8	1.7	2.0	1.6	-	1.7
- footwear and clothing industry	3.5	4.2	3.5	2.7	3.5	3.5
- manufacture of paper and paper products; printing and	1.5	2.4	1.8	1.4	2.8	2.0
- processing of rubber and plastics	-	1.3	1.4	1.3	1.5	1.3
Building and civil engineering	5.6	6.1	5.4	5.3	7.3	5.9
Distributive trades, repairs	10.4	11.9	9.4	11.1	15.6	11.5
- wholesale distribution (except dealing in scrap and wa	2.0	2.7	2.4	2.4	3.0	2.5
- retail distribution	7.0	8.1	6.3	7.7	10.7	7.8
Hotels and catering	8.2	8.3	8.2	9.0	11.5	9.0
Transport and communication	6.6	8.2	6.3	6.2	6.9	6.8
- railways	1.6	-	-	-	-	-
- other land transport (urban transport, road transport,	1.8	2.2	1.7	2.0	2.2	2.0
- air transport	-	1.2	-	-	-	-
- travel agents, freight brokers and other agents facili	-	-	-	-	1.4	-
- communication	1.7	2.6	1.8	1.4	1.7	1.8
Banking and finance, insurance, business services, ren	6.3	7.7	7.4	9.6	12.8	8.7
- banking and finance	1.7	2.1	2.2	2.5	4.3	2.5
- activities auxiliary to banking and finance and insura	3.1	4.1	3.5	5.1	6.3	4.4
- letting of real estate by the owner	-	-	-	1.1	-	-
Administration, Education, Medical Services	23.5	24.8	22.1	21.0	26.6	23.2
- public administration, national defence and compulsory	3.5	3.1	3.5	4.9	5.7	4.1
- sanitary services and administration of cemeteries	-	1.4	-	-	-	-
- education	7.0	8.4	7.7	7.3	8.7	7.8
- medical and other health services; veterinary services	13.0	11.9	11.0	8.8	12.1	11.3
Other Services	5.5	5.3	5.6	6.5	7.7	6.1
- other services provided to the general public	3.7	4.0	3.9	4.6	5.6	4.3
- recreational services and other cultural services	1.7	1.4	1.7	1.8	2.1	1.7
Other services: non-market services of general government	1.3	:	:	1.5	1.8	1.2
Other services : non-market services of private non-profit organisations	2.7	2.8	3.9	3.2	2.8	3.1

Source: LFS

12.3 Summary

In sum, non- organisations.

For those categories with over 10,000 foreign employees at both dates, the following changes occurred. Financial services (especially), Administrative services and Hotels EU nationals were generally present in greater numbers than other EU nationals. EU nationals were relatively over-represented in Construction, Transport and parts of the Administration category, including especially education and to a lesser extent health and social work, and recreational, cultural and sporting activities. Non-EU nationals were relatively over-represented in Manufacturing (especially clothing), Wholesale and retail trade, Hotels and restaurants, Post and telecommunications, Finance, insurance and business services (including financial mediation, computer and related activities and other business activities) and Other services, especially domestic service and extra-territorial and catering increased their shares of total foreign employment. Manufacturing (especially), Construction, Transport and communications and Other services decreased their shares while Distribution's share was unchanged. Among sub-sectors, health and social work increased its share but education's remained unchanged.

13 The foreign-born population: economic activity and occupational patterns and trends

Research questions

- What differences exist between the foreign-born and UK populations in respect of economic activity and unemployment rates?
- Which occupational groups contain higher proportions of foreign-born workers?
- What trends and patterns of change have occurred in the 1990s in the occupational distribution of the foreign-born?

Main findings

- Compared with the UK-born, a lower proportion of the foreign-born is economically active and their unemployment rates are consistently higher.
- More skilled occupational groups contain higher proportions of foreign-born workers.
- Changes in the proportion of foreign-born workers in different occupational categories between 1992 and 2000 were not obviously related to skill levels.
- The largest gaining occupations during the period were computer analysts and programmers. Losing occupations were dominated by manufacturing.
- Despite increased flows, the stock of foreign-born nurses does not seem to have changed.

In view of the salience of the occupational structure of foreign workers, it was decided to break them down by country of birth rather than citizenship. Strictly speaking, therefore, they should not be referred to as 'foreign' and so are here described as 'foreign-born'. The use of country of birth rather than citizenship increases the size of the sample considerably. Thus, in 1992 the number of foreign workers was 902,000 while that of foreign-born was 1,929,000; the equivalent figures for 2000 were 1,107,000 and 2,190,000.

The chapter begins with a broad review of economic activity and unemployment rates among the foreign-born. Because an analysis on the basis of nationality would result in many very small numbers the breakdown here is twofold: EU/EFTA and other foreign-born.

13.1 Economic activity and unemployment rates

13.1.1 Economic activity

This section looks at the differences in rates of economic activity and of unemployment during the 1990s between the UK- and foreign-born population, and also distinguishes between those in the latter group born in other EU/EFTA states and those born elsewhere. Tables 13.1 and 13.2 present data for the total population aged over 16 and for the working age population only.

Throughout the decade a higher proportion of the UK-born was economically active, the average for them being 63.2 per cent compared with 59.8 per cent for the foreign-born (Table 13.1). Although both groups experienced falls in the early-middle 1990s as the recession took hold, the proportion of foreign-born who were economically active did not recover, with the result that the difference between the two proportions widened, from 1.3 to 5 percentage points between 1990 and 2000. Thus, not only is a higher proportion of the UK-born economically active but the foreign-born have tended to become less so, both absolutely and relatively. However, this increasing difference may reflect the growing numbers of elderly foreign-born retiring from the labour market as earlier migration streams experience demographic ageing. Table 13.1 shows that during much of the 1990s there was no obvious trend but that in the last couple of years the difference increased significantly.

Table 13.1: Economic activity by country of birth (per cent)

	(a) Total population aged over 16			(b) Working age population		
	UK born	Total Foreign-Born	Difference	UK Born	Total Foreign-Born	Difference
1990	64.2	62.9	1.3	80.8	73.5	7.2
1991	63.9	61.6	2.3	80.4	71.9	8.5
1992	63.2	61.1	2.1	79.5	71.7	7.8
1993	62.8	60.4	2.4	79.1	71.2	7.9
1994	62.8	59.6	3.2	78.9	70.7	8.2
1995	62.7	58.8	3.9	78.7	69.8	9.0
1996	62.8	59.5	3.3	78.9	70.4	8.4
1997	63.0	59.0	4.0	78.9	70.4	8.6
1998	62.8	58.5	4.3	78.8	69.9	8.9
1999	63.3	58.3	5.0	79.3	69.0	10.3
2000	63.6	58.6	5.0	79.6	69.4	10.2
1990-2000 Average	63.2	59.8	3.3	79.4	70.7	8.6

Source: LFS

These patterns and trends are not shared equally by the two foreign-born groups, however (Table 13.2). Among the total population aged over 16, those born in other EU/EFTA states had a lower rate of economic activity generally, 58.4 per cent on average in the 1990s compared with 60.6 per cent for other foreign-born. Although the difference between them fluctuated, with peaks in 1993 and again in 1996-7, overall the difference seems to have been growing over the period as a whole. This is not the case for the working age population (Table 13.2) among whom the difference between the two foreign groups shows no discernible trend over the decade.

Table 13.2: Economic activity by country of birth (per cent)

	(a) Total population aged over 16			(b) Working age population		
	EU/EFTA foreign-born	Non-EU/EFTA foreign-born	Difference	EU/EFTA foreign-born	Non-EU/EFTA foreign-born	Difference
1990	62.3	63.1	0.8	78.1	71.7	6.4
1991	61.1	61.9	0.8	76.4	70.2	6.2
1992	59.5	61.9	2.4	77.6	69.6	8.0
1993	58.0	61.4	3.4	76.0	69.6	6.4
1994	59.2	59.8	0.6	77.9	68.0	9.9
1995	57.2	59.5	2.3	74.9	67.8	7.1
1996	57.2	60.5	3.3	74.4	68.9	5.4
1997	56.1	60.3	4.2	74.3	68.9	5.4
1998	56.9	59.2	2.3	73.8	68.5	5.3
1999	57.4	58.6	1.2	74.2	67.2	7.0
2000	57.7	60.0	2.3	74.4	67.7	6.7
1990-2000 Average	58.4	60.6	2.1	75.6	68.9	6.7

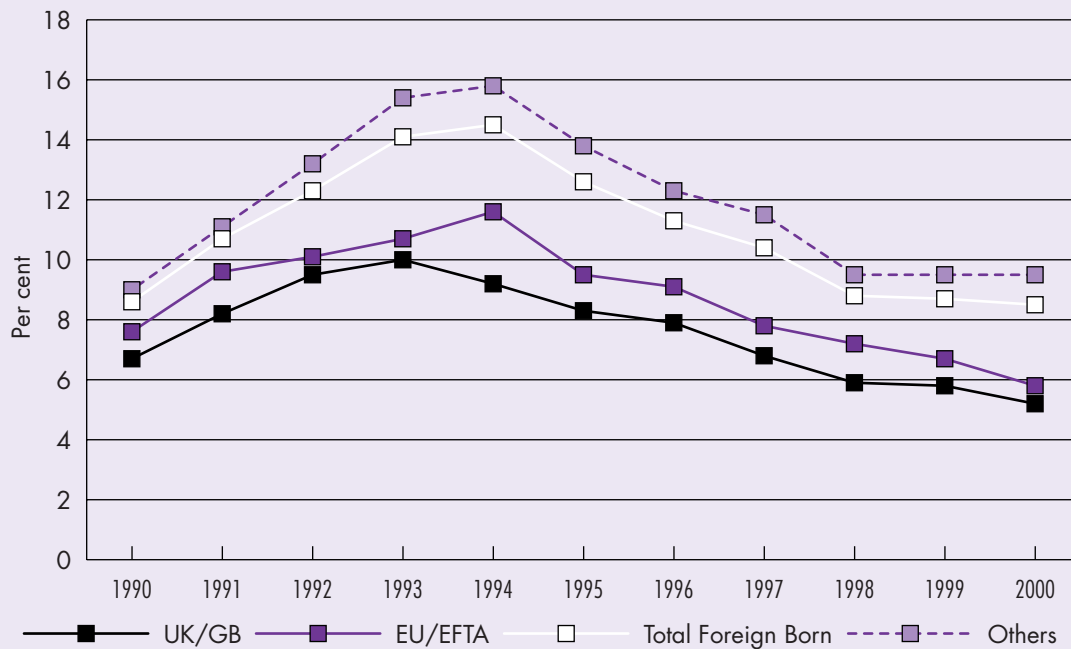
Source: LFS

In sum, economic activity rate is lower among the foreign-born than the indigenous population and the difference appears to be growing. Those born outside the EU/EFTA area have higher activity rates than those within.

13.1.2 Unemployment

Analysis of unemployment rates between the groups shows a clear pattern (Figure 13.1). The UK-born have consistently lower unemployment rates than the other groups, the highest rates being experienced by non-EU/EFTA foreign-born. This pattern persisted throughout the decade and at various stages in the economic cycle. As the recession in the early 1990s took hold unemployment among the other foreign born group rose most strongly and, along with the EU/EFTA group, continued to rise when indigenous unemployment was already beginning to fall. Thus in 1994 the unemployment rate of other foreign-born, at 15.8 per cent, was 6.6 percentage points higher than that of the UK-born. Although there was a downward trend towards convergence from the mid-1990s this trend ceased in 1998. Thus, in the last two or three years and at a time when the economy has been performing strongly and net immigration has been at its height, the unemployment gap between the other foreign-born group on the one hand and the UK and EU/EFTA groups on the other has widened. The explanation for this is extremely complicated and a simplistic relationship between economic performance, immigration and unemployment cannot be assumed.

Figure 13.1: Unemployment rates by country of birth, Spring (March to May) 1990-2000



Source: LFS

13.2 Change in UK occupational structure in the 1990s

The aim of this section is to indicate contemporary scales and rates of change in the occupational structure of the UK workforce. The purpose is twofold. First, the analysis indicates the changing structure of labour demand in the UK by identifying which occupational groups have grown and declined most in both absolute and relative (percentage) terms. Second, it provides a context for assessing the relationship between foreign and foreign-born labour and the workforce as a whole. It indicates what labour demand is likely in the near future and the role that foreign labour might be called upon to play. It also indicates whether foreign-born labour supplements existing occupational growth patterns or whether it satisfies a demand in sectors of the labour market where overall employment growth is low.

During the period 1992-2000 overall employment rose by 1,981,000. Two of the major occupational categories, *Craft and related occupations* and *Other occupations* experienced net losses. All others had gains, the main ones being *Managers and administrators* (618,000) and *Associate professionals and technical occupations* (604,000) (Table 13.3). In general, the largest gains were in the skilled groups.

The large differences between groups in absolute numbers are matched by those in percentage change. The labour force as a whole increased by 7.7 per cent, a figure exceeded by five of the nine major groups (Table 13.4). For the most part those groups having the largest absolute increases also had the biggest proportionate increases. The main difference between the two was in the *Managers and administrators* group which had the largest absolute increase but ranked only fourth in proportionate change. At this aggregate occupational level there is thus a consistent picture of change. Jobs associated with manual work, trades and manufacturing have been lost or not increased, those with management, administration, professional and technical work have been increasing.

Table 13.3: Change in employment; ranked totals by sub-group, 1992-2000 (thousands)

	Total	UK/GB	Total Foreign	EU/EFTA	Other countries of birth
Managers and Administrators	618	567	51	10	42
Associate Professionals and Technical Occupations	604	539	66	21	45
Personal and Protective Service Occupations	581	538	43	0	43
Professional Occupations	458	362	97	33	62
Sales Occupations	243	213	30	2	28
Clerical and Secretarial Occupations	109	80	29	-4	33
Plant and Machine Operatives	11	8	3	-8	11
Craft and Related Occupations	-327	-305	-22	-8	-14
Other Occupations	-450	-385	-66	-27	-38

Source: LFS

Table 13.4: Ranked proportional change in total 1992-2000, subtotals (per cent)

	Total	UK/GB	Total Foreign	EU/EFTA	Other countries of birth
Associate Professionals and Technical Occupations	26.4	26.1	29.7	30.9	29.2
Personal and Protective Service Occupations	23.4	23.8	19.2	0.0	30.1
Professional Occupations	17.7	15.4	40.6	62.3	33.2
Managers and Administrators	15.9	15.9	14.9	9.9	17.4
Sales Occupations	11.9	11.0	25.2	5.3	34.6
Clerical and Secretarial Occupations	2.7	2.1	11.8	-4.9	20.1
Plant and Machine Operatives	0.5	0.4	1.8	-19.0	8.6
Craft and Related Occupations	-9.1	-9.0	-12.1	-14.3	-11.1
Other Occupations	-17.4	-16.2	-31.9	-38.6	-27.9

Source: LFS

A more detailed analysis of occupational change at the 85 category two-digit level reveals a more complicated picture (Table 13.5). Three groups, specialist managers (including financial, marketing, sales, advertising, computer systems and data processing managers), childcare and related occupations (including nursery nurses and educational assistants) and sales and checkout assistants, each experienced growth of more than a quarter of a million jobs. A further ten groups increased their employment by over 100,000. At the other end of the spectrum two groups, textiles and garment trades and secretarial personnel, each lost over 100,000 jobs and a further eight lost over 50,000.

Table 13.5: Employment change by occupation, difference 1992-2000, ranked by total (thousands)

	Total		Total
Total	1981		
Specialist managers	346	<i>continued</i>	
Childcare and related occupations	263	Legal associate professionals	9
Sales, check-out assistants	252	Ship, aircraft officers & controllers	8
Teaching professionals	194	Food, drink, tobacco operatives	6
Health and related occupations	193	Travel attendants etc occupations	5
Prod managers - manufacturing etc	158	Other routine operatives	5
Artistic, sports etc professionals	138	Librarians etc professionals	3
Financial & office managers etc	132	Professional occupations nes	1
Clerks nes	131	Aid fw/armed forces	0
Welfare etc associate professionals	126	Buyers, brokers agents etc	-1
Road transport operatives	117	Natural scientists	-1
Health associate professionals	110	Metal working operatives	-3
Security etc service occupations	102	Sales representatives	-4
Engineers and technologists	98	Protective service officers	-6
Computer analysts, programmers	96	Metal making, treating operatives	-6
Stores, despatch clerks & keepers	94	Construction trades	-8
Prof, technical occupations nes	85	NCOs etc, armed forces	-12
Business & financial professionals	83	Other manufacturing etc occupations	-13
Managers etc service industry	82	Textiles, tannery operatives	-14
Managers, administrators nes	56	Printing and related trades	-14
Sales occupations nes	55	Other transport, machine operatives	-17
Catering occupations	53	Other construction occupations	-18
Health professionals	40	Woodworking trades	-18
Business, finance associate profs	39	Draughtspersons, surveyors etc	-19
Legal professionals	30	Food preparation trades	-19
Other transport occupations	23	Chemicals, paper etc operatives	-23
Receptionist, telephonists etc	22	Other communication occupations	-25
Domestic staff etc	22	Vehicle trades	-33
Managers in transport and storing	21	Other craft, related trades nes	-34
Filing and record clerks	21	Metal forming, welding etc trades	-39
Administrative staff in government	20	Other sales, service occupations	-44
Electrical, electronic trades	20	Clerical, secretarial occupations nes	-45
Other occupations nes	17	Metal machining, fitting etc trades	-48
Assemblers, lineworkers	15	Hairdressers, beauticians etc	-55
Scientific technicians	13	Mobile salespersons & agents	-59
Personal service occupations nes	12	Plant & machine operatives nes	-67
Architects, town planners, surveyors	12	Other farming related occupations	-68
Other occupations nes	17	Gen managers - government, large orgs	-76
Assemblers, lineworkers	15	Managers in farming, horticulture etc	-96
Scientific technicians	13	Managers in farming, horticulture etc	-96
Personal service occupations nes	12	Other occupations nes	-98
Architects, town planners, surveyors	12	Textiles, garments etc trades	-133
Numerical clerks and cashiers	10	Secretarial etc personnel	-145

Source: LFS

Analysis of proportionate change indicates that some groups had high rates of increase. Welfare associate professionals (including welfare, community and youth workers), childcare and related occupations and sales occupations not elsewhere specified (nes) (including telephone salespersons) all rose by two-thirds or more, and a further seven groups by more than a third. At the other extreme, a clutch of ten groups experienced losses of over 20 per cent.

Table 13.6: Top ten ranked occupations by absolute, by percentage change, 1992-2000

Top 10 occupations	Absolute Rank	Percentage Rank
Specialist Managers	1	6
Childcare	2	2
Sales	3	22
Teaching	4	21
Health & Related	5	10
Prod Managers - manuf. etc.	6	8
Artistic, Sports etc.	7	7
Finance & Office managers	8	11
Clerks	9	19
Welfare, Associate Professionals	10	1

Source: LFS

Although the rank orders are not identical, in general those occupational groups which increased most in absolute numbers also had high rates of increase (Table 13.6). Thus, specialist managers were respectively 1st and 6th, childcare and related occupations 2nd in both cases; sales occupations, with the third highest absolute increase, were within the top quartile for rate of increase.

For purposes of more detailed analysis the occupational groups have been divided into seven categories, ranging from those with high rates of growth to those with high rates of decline (Table 13.7).

1. In the first category are three groups with rates of increase of two-thirds or more; they are labour intensive, not highly skilled and are focused on the provision of personal services.
2. This group, with rates of increase between one- and two-thirds, is dominated by such highly skilled occupations as specialist managers and computer analysts and programmers. It also contains the less skilled part of the health sector, namely the health and related occupations group – nursing auxiliaries, ward assistants, ambulance staff, care assistants and attendants.
3. Rates of increase here are between a fifth and a third. The group is mixed, with professionals (including those in health) and managers, but also security and service occupations and clerks.
4. Growing more moderately, though still faster than average, is another mixed group which includes professionals (including those in teaching, engineers and technologists) associate professionals (including such health associate professionals as nurses) and a range of less skilled groups such as catering and domestic staff.
5. This is a large and varied group, with below average growth and moderate decline. It is dominated by manufacturing trades, though it also includes service industry managers, scientific occupations and sales representatives.

6. This group had rates of decline of between 10 and 20 per cent and consists mainly of trades personnel.
7. The heaviest losses, rising to over 40 per cent, were experienced by this relatively low-skilled group which is largely composed of manufacturing trades (especially in textiles), personal services such as hairdressers and clerical occupations not elsewhere specified (including computer and data processing operators).

See Table 13.7

Some general conclusions can be drawn from Table 13.7. First, amongst those occupations growing most rapidly, both highly skilled and less skilled groups are to be found: indeed, the fastest growth has been in a range of labour intensive personal services. Second, decline and slowest growth has been especially in traditional trades, especially those associated with manufacturing. Few highly skilled groups have experienced decline. Third, there is some evidence of a polarisation effect in some sectors, seen especially in health, in which rapid growth has occurred at both ends of the skills column.

13.3 Occupations of foreign-born workers

13.3.1 How important are foreign-born workers by occupation?

The analysis begins by identifying the importance of the foreign-born in the various occupational categories relative to the UK-born. This is done by comparing the proportions of the total workforce accounted for by each.

Table 13.8 shows the importance of foreign-born among the nine major occupational categories in 1992 and 2000. Overall in 2000 the foreign-born accounted for 7.9 per cent of the total labour force, with EU/EFTA nationals 2.2 per cent and other foreign-born 5.7 per cent. In general, it is the more skilled occupational groups that contain the highest proportions of foreign-born. When ranked, the category most dependent on them is that of Professional occupations (11%), followed by Associate Professionals and Technical occupations (10%). Two other categories, Managers and Administrators and Personal and Protective Service occupations (both 8.7%) also contain above average proportions of the foreign-born. The remaining groups have below average proportions, namely Plant and Machine Operatives (7.1%), Clerical and Secretarial occupations (6.7%), Other occupations (6.6%), Sales occupations (6.5%) and Craft and Related occupations (4.9%). In each case the proportion of those born in EU/EFTA states is less than those born elsewhere.

Table 13.7: Employment change by occupation, ranked by percentage change 1992-2000

	Percentage change 1992 (new) - 2000	% Change		
1	Welfare etc associate professionals	90.0	Continued	
	Childcare and related occupations	70.3	Scientific technicians	5.3
	Sales occupations nes	65.5	Electrical, electronic trades	4.0
2	Computer analysts, programmers	47.1	Food, drink, tobacco operatives	3.8
	Prof, technical occupations nes	42.5	Other routine operatives	1.4
	Specialist managers	41.0	Numerical clerks and cashiers	0.9
	Artistic, sports etc professionals	39.8	Professional occupations nes	0.6
	Prod managers - manufacturing etc	38.9	Natural scientists	-0.7
	Legal associate professionals	34.6	Sales representatives	-1.1
	Health and related occupations	33.1	Construction trades	-1.3
3	Financial & office managers etc	30.0	Buyers, brokers agents etc	-1.4
	Legal professionals	29.7	Metal working operatives	-2.3
	Business & financial professionals	29.6	Other sales, service occupations	-3.4
	Security etc service occupations	27.3	Woodworking trades	-5.5
	Stores, despatch clerks & keepers	26.9	Other transport, machine operatives	-7.0
	Ship, aircraft officers & controllers	23.5	Metal machining, fitting etc trades	-8.7
	Managers, administrators nes	23.4	Other communication occupations	-9.5
	Other transport occupations	23.2	Other construction occupations	-9.8
	Clerks nes	21.7	Metal forming, welding etc trades	-9.9
	Health professionals	21.3	6 Other craft, related trades nes	-10.1
4	Teaching professionals	19.4	Printing and related trades	-10.3
	Sales, check-out assistants	18.4	Protective service officers	-10.7
	Engineers and technologists	18.0	Chemicals, paper etc operatives	-10.8
	Other occupations nes	17.2	Vehicle trades	-11.1
	Road transport operatives	16.7	NCOs etc, armed forces	-11.1
	Health associate professionals	16.7	Metal making, treating operatives	-11.3
	Domestic staff etc	15.7	Draughtspersons, surveyors etc	-14.1
	Personal service occupations nes	14.1	Other manufacturing etc occupations	-14.6
	Business, finance associate profs	13.1	Food preparation trades	-17.6
	Managers in transport and storing	12.1	Secretarial etc personnel	-18.4
	Architects, town planners, surveyors	10.6	7 Plant & machine operatives nes	-20.5
	Librarians etc professionals	10.0	Gen managers - government, large orgs	-21.8
	Travel attendants etc occupations	10.0	Clerical, secretarial occupations nes	-24.2
	Catering occupations	9.0	Other occupations nes	-30.3
	Total	7.7	Hairdressers, beauticians etc	-30.6
5	Receptionist, telephonists etc	7.4	Other farming related occupations	-31.2
	Managers etc service industry	7.2	Teiles, tannery operatives	-32.6
	Assemblers, lineworkers	7.0	Managers in farming, horticulture etc	-37.5
	Filing and record clerks	6.3	Mobile salespersons & agents	-41.3
	Administrative staff in government	5.6	Textiles, garments etc trades	-41.7

Source: LFS

Table 13.8: Persons in employment by occupation and country of birth, 1992 and 2000 (per cent)

1992					
	Total	UK/GB	Total Foreign	EU/EFTA	Other countries of birth
Associate Professionals and Technical Occupations	100.0	90.3	9.7	3.0	6.7
Professional Occupations	100.0	90.7	9.2	2.1	7.2
Personal and Protective Service Occupations	100.0	91.0	9.0	3.3	5.8
Managers and Administrators	100.0	91.2	8.8	2.6	6.2
Other Occupations	100.0	92.0	8.0	2.7	5.3
Plant and Machine Operatives	100.0	93.0	7.0	1.7	5.3
Clerical and Secretarial Occupations	100.0	93.9	6.1	2.0	4.1
Sales Occupations	100.0	94.2	5.8	1.9	4.0
Craft and Related Occupations	100.0	94.9	5.1	1.6	3.5
All Occupations	100.0	92.5	7.5	2.3	5.2
2000					
	Total	UK/GB	Total Foreign	EU/EFTA	Other countries of birth
Professional Occupations	100.0	89.0	11.0	2.8	8.2
Associate Professionals and Technical Occupations	100.0	90.1	10.0	3.1	6.9
Managers and Administrators	100.0	91.3	8.7	2.5	6.3
Personal and Protective Service Occupations	100.0	91.3	8.7	2.6	6.1
Plant and Machine Operatives	100.0	92.9	7.1	1.4	5.7
Clerical and Secretarial Occupations	100.0	93.3	6.7	1.9	4.8
Other Occupations	100.0	93.4	6.6	2.0	4.6
Sales Occupations	100.0	93.5	6.5	1.7	4.8
Craft and Related Occupations	100.0	95.1	4.9	1.5	3.4
All Occupations	100.0	92.1	7.9	2.2	5.7

Source: IFS

13.3.2 How have proportions changed since 1992?

Although there have been no dramatic shifts, some clear trends are apparent. Overall the foreign-born have increased their representation from 7.5 to 7.9 per cent. The biggest increase was among those in Professional occupations (up 1.8 percentage points), the biggest decrease was in Other occupations (-2.5). However, the changes are not obviously related to skill levels, with some of the less-skilled categories, like Sales, Clerical and Secretarial occupations, increasing their foreign-born representation relative to the UK-born, while some of the more skilled, including Managers and Administrators, experienced small relative declines.

However, these changes may be because of shifts in either birthplace group. In the case of Managers and Administrators and Professional occupations, for example, both birthplace groups increased their numbers significantly: among the former the UK-born increased by 15.9 per cent between the two dates, compared

with a 14.2 per cent increase for the foreign-born; for the latter the respective gains were 40.6 per cent and 15.4 per cent (Table 13.9). For some other categories the percentage growth of the foreign-born was greater than that of the UK-born, namely Associated Professionals, Clerical and Secretarial, Sales and, to a lesser extent, Plant and Machine Operatives. It thus appears that where foreign-born labour representation, relative to the UK-born, has increased, it has done so across the occupational spectrum. In contrast, in Craft and Related and Other occupations both birthplace groups had declining numbers but in each case the number of foreign-born went down faster than that of the UK-born.

Table 13.9: Percentage change in proportion of total workforce by occupation and country of birth, over the period 1992 to 2000

	Foreign born	UK born
Managers and Administrators	14.2	15.9
Professional	40.6	15.4
Associate Professionals and Technical	29.7	26.1
Clerical	11.8	2.1
Craft and Related	-12.1	-9
Personal & Protective Services	19.2	23.8
Sales	25.2	11
Plant and Machine Operatives	1.8	0.4
Other	-31.9	-16.2

Source: LFS

13.3.3 Numbers of foreign-born by occupational category

This section focuses on the way in which the foreign-born are distributed across the occupational spectrum. It begins by presenting data on the nine major (single-digit) categories before presenting a more detailed picture at the two-digit level. Trends between 1992 and 2000 are discussed.

13.3.3.1 Major groups

The skilled nature of the foreign-born as a whole is clear from Table 13.10. In 2000, just over a million of them (46.6%) come into the three categories Managers and Administrators, Professionals and Associate Professionals. In 1992 the three accounted for 804,000, 41.7 per cent of the total. Thus recent years have seen both rising numbers of foreign-born and a greater proportion of them in highly skilled occupational categories. It was not only the more skilled categories that saw increases, however. In addition to the three categories mentioned above, Personal and Protective Service and Sales occupations had increases above the average, while Clerical and Secretarial occupations and Plant and Machine Operatives increased their numbers but at a rate below the average. Only two of the nine categories, Craft and Related and Other occupations experienced absolute declines in numbers of foreign-born between the two dates.

Table 13.10: Foreign born workforce by occupation, 1992 and 2000

1992		
	Thousands	Per cent
Managers and Administrators	343	17.6
Clerical	245	12.6
Professional	239	12.2
Personal & Protective Services	224	11.5
Associate Professionals and Technical	222	11.4
Other	207	10.6
Craft and Related	182	9.3
Plant and Machine Operatives	171	8.8
Sales	119	6.1
2000		
	Thousands	Per cent
Managers and Administrators	394	18.0
Professional	336	15.4
Associate Professionals and Technical	288	13.2
Clerical	274	12.6
Personal & Protective Services	267	12.2
Craft and Related	174	8.0
Plant and Machine Operatives	160	7.3
Sales	149	6.8
Other	141	6.5

Source: LFS

Comparison of the proportions of foreign-born and UK-born in each category allows us to identify where the former are relatively over-represented (Table 13.11). In 2000 this was among Managers and Administrators (18.0 and 16.1% respectively), Professionals (15.4 and 10.6), Associate Professionals and Technical occupations (13.2 and 10.2) and Personal and Protective Service occupations (12.2 and 10.9). This indicates the familiar pattern of relative concentration of the foreign-born in occupations at the high-skill (the first three of these categories) and low skill ends of the spectrum.

Table 13.11: Foreign-born and UK-born work-force by occupation, 2000 (as percentage of all persons)

	Total Foreign	UK/GB
Professional	15.4	10.6
Associate Professionals and Technical	13.2	10.2
Managers and Administrators	18.0	16.1
Personal & Protective Services	12.2	10.9
Plant and Machine Operatives	7.9	8.9
Other	6.4	7.8
Sales	6.8	8.4
Clerical	12.5	14.9
Craft and Related	7.3	12.1

Source: LFS

See Table 13.12

See Table 13.13

13.3.3.2 Specific occupations

Table 13.12 identifies those occupational sub-groups where the LFS recorded at least 10,000 foreign-born in 2000 and in 1992, ranked according to their proportion of total employment in each sub-group. Health professionals topped the list in 2000, over a quarter of all employed being foreign-born. Eleven other occupational groups had over 10 per cent. Although this set was dominated by highly skilled occupations, others are less so, including catering, textile and garment trades and metal working operatives.

This mixture of skills is apparent also when occupations are ranked by numbers of foreign-born employed (Table 13.13). The two largest are managers and administrators n.e.s. (145,000) and specialist managers (111,000), with teaching professionals in third place (110,000). Next come sales assistants and other sales and service occupations, between them employing 210,000, followed by health associate professionals (101,000), catering occupations (91,000), numerical clerks and cashiers (79,000), health and related personal occupations (62,000) and health professionals (61,000). Computer analysts and programmers numbered 40,000. The significance of the foreign-born in all health related occupations is considerable: they numbered a quarter of a million, just over 10 per cent of all foreign-born employed, and 12.6 per cent of all those employed in health occupations.

13.3.3.3 Trends by occupation

Comparison with 1992 shows considerable variation in trend across the occupational spectrum. However, it must be borne in mind that sampling error may make the trends identified indicative rather than accurate. In general, the more skilled the occupation the greater the likelihood that numbers of foreign-born employed will have increased at a faster rate than for the less-skilled occupations, but there are exceptions to this rule. Overall, numbers of foreign-born employed rose by 13.5 per cent.

Table 13.12: Persons in employment by occupation and country of birth, ranked by proportion of each occupation accounted for by foreign-born workers, 2000 (per cent)

	Total	UK Born	Total Foreign Born	EU/EFTA For Born	Non-EU/EFTA For Born
Health professionals	100.0	73.2	26.8	:	22.8
Natural scientists	100.0	84.9	15.1	:	10.3
Catering occupations	100.0	85.8	14.2	4.4	9.8
Computer analysts, programmers	100.0	86.7	13.3	:	10.3
Health associate professionals	100.0	86.9	13.1	4.9	8.2
Business & financial professionals	100.0	87.3	12.7	:	10.2
Textiles, garments etc trades	100.0	87.1	12.4	:	10.2
Professional occupations nes	100.0	87.4	12.1	:	9.9
Managers etc service industry	100.0	88.2	11.9	3.1	8.8
Artistic, sports etc professionals	100.0	88.5	11.5	3.5	8.0
Ncos etc, armed forces	100.0	87.5	11.5	:	11.5
Metal working operatives	100.0	89.8	10.2	:	9.4
Specialist managers	100.0	90.6	9.3	2.5	6.8
Teaching professionals	100.0	90.8	9.2	3.0	6.2
Other routine operatives	100.0	90.9	9.1	:	7.7
Engineers and technologists	100.0	90.8	9.0	2.5	6.5
Unpaid fw/armed forces	100.0	91.1	8.9	:	8.0
Financial & office managers etc	100.0	91.6	8.4	2.3	6.1
Welfare etc associate professionals	100.0	91.7	8.3	:	6.0
Other sales, service occupations	100.0	92.0	8.0	2.4	5.6
Health and related occupations	100.0	91.9	8.0	2.3	5.7
Food, drink, tobacco operatives	100.0	92.1	7.9	:	:
Secretarial etc personnel	100.0	92.4	7.6	2.2	5.3
Domestic staff etc	100.0	92.6	7.4	:	:
Clerks nes	100.0	92.6	7.4	1.9	5.4
Road transport operatives	100.0	92.8	7.3	1.3	6.0
Gen managers - government, large orgs	100.0	92.7	7.3	:	5.5
Numerical clerks and cashiers	100.0	92.8	7.3	2.0	5.2
Receptionist, telephonists etc	100.0	93.4	6.9	:	4.4
Sales, check-out assistants	100.0	93.3	6.7	1.7	5.0
Childcare and related occupations	100.0	93.2	6.6	2.4	4.2
Assemblers, lineworkers	100.0	93.4	6.6	:	5.7
Scientific technicians	100.0	93.4	6.6	:	4.6
Filing and record clerks	100.0	93.8	6.5	:	4.3
Prof, technical occupations nes	100.0	93.3	6.3	:	4.2
Security etc service occupations	100.0	93.5	6.3	:	4.8
Business, finance associate profs	100.0	93.8	6.3	:	4.8
Managers in transport and storing	100.0	94.4	6.2	:	:
Managers, administrators nes	100.0	93.9	6.1	:	4.7

Prod managers - manufacturing etc	100.0	94.0	6.0	2.3	3.7
Other communication occupations	100.0	94.1	5.9	:	4.6
Plant & machine operatives nes	100.0	94.6	5.4	:	:
Electrical, electronic trades	100.0	94.7	5.3	:	4.0
Sales representatives	100.0	94.7	5.3	:	3.2
Stores, despatch clerks & keepers	100.0	94.8	5.2	:	4.1
Administrative staff in government	100.0	94.9	5.1	:	3.7
Vehicle trades	100.0	95.1	4.9	:	4.2
Other transport, machine operatives	100.0	95.2	4.8	:	:
Woodworking trades	100.0	95.5	4.5	:	:
Construction trades	100.0	95.8	4.3	2.0	2.3
Other craft, related trades nes	100.0	96.0	4.3	:	:
Metal forming, welding etc trades	100.0	96.3	4.0	:	:
Metal machining, fitting etc trades	100.0	96.2	3.8	:	2.4
Protective service officers	100.0	94.0	:	:	:
Managers in farming, horticulture etc	100.0	98.1	:	:	:
Legal professionals	100.0	95.4	:	:	:
Architects, town planners, surveyors	100.0	92.8	:	:	:
Librarians etc professionals	100.0	93.9	:	:	:
Draughtspersons, surveyors etc	100.0	96.6	:	:	:
Ship, aircraft officers & controllers	100.0	85.7	:	:	:
Legal associate professionals	100.0	94.3	:	:	:
Clerical, secretarial occupations nes	100.0	95.7	:	:	:
Printing and related trades	100.0	95.1	:	:	:
Food preparation trades	100.0	93.3	:	:	:
Travel attendants etc occupations	100.0	87.3	:	:	:
Hairdressers, beauticians etc	100.0	94.4	:	:	:
Personal service occupations nes	100.0	95.9	:	:	:
Buyers, brokers agents etc	100.0	91.4	:	:	:
Mobile salespersons & agents	100.0	91.7	:	:	:
Sales occupations nes	100.0	94.2	:	:	:
Textiles, tannery operatives	100.0	82.8	:	:	:
Chemicals, paper etc operatives	100.0	96.3	:	:	:
Metal making, treating operatives	100.0	91.5	:	:	:
Other farming related occupations	100.0	98.7	:	:	:
Other manufacturing etc occupations	100.0	96.1	:	:	:
Other construction occupations	100.0	97.0	:	:	:
Other transport occupations	100.0	95.1	:	:	:
Other occupations nes	100.0	93.1	:	:	:
All occupations	100.0	92.1	7.9	2.2	5.7

Source: LFS

Table 13.13: Persons in employment by occupation and country of birth, ranked by number of foreign-born workers in each occupation, 2000 (thousands)

	Total	UK Born	Total Foreign Born	EU/EFTA For Born	Non-EU/EFTA For Born
Managers etc service industry	1218	1074	145	38	107
Specialist managers	1189	1077	111	30	81
Teaching professionals	1193	1083	110	36	74
Sales, check-out assistants	1622	1513	108	27	81
Other sales, service occupations	1269	1167	102	31	71
Health associate professionals	770	669	101	38	63
Catering occupations	641	550	91	28	63
Numerical clerks and cashiers	1089	1011	79	22	57
Health and related occupations	776	713	62	18	44
Health professionals	228	167	61	:	52
Road transport operatives	818	759	60	11	49
Engineers and technologists	642	583	58	16	42
Artistic, sports etc professionals	485	429	56	17	39
Clerks nes	734	680	54	14	40
Secretarial etc personnel	642	593	49	14	34
Financial & office managers etc	572	524	48	13	35
Business & financial professionals	363	317	46	:	37
Childcare and related occupations	637	594	42	15	27
Computer analysts, programmers	300	260	40	:	31
Prod managers - manufacturing etc	564	530	34	13	21
Other routine operatives	352	320	32	:	27
Security etc service occupations	475	444	30	:	23
Electrical, electronic trades	525	497	28	:	21
Construction trades	601	576	26	12	14
Filing and record clerks	352	330	23	:	15
Stores, despatch clerks & keepers	443	420	23	:	18
Textiles, garments etc trades	186	162	23	:	19
Natural scientists	146	124	22	:	15
Professional occupations nes	182	159	22	:	18
Welfare etc associate professionals	266	244	22	:	16
Receptionist, telephonists etc	318	297	22	:	14
Business, finance associate profs	336	315	21	:	16
Gen managers - government, large orgs	273	253	20	:	15
Sales representatives	375	355	20	:	12
Unpaid fw/armed forces	225	205	20	:	18
Administrative staff in government	376	357	19	:	14
Metal machining, fitting etc trades	506	487	19	:	12
Managers, administrators nes	295	277	18	:	14
Prof, technical occupations nes	285	266	18	:	12

Scientific technicians	259	242	17	:	12
Assemblers, lineworkers	228	213	15	:	13
Metal forming, welding etc trades	354	341	14	:	:
Woodworking trades	309	295	14	:	:
Plant & machine operatives nes	260	246	14	:	:
Other communication occupations	239	225	14	:	11
Vehicle trades	264	251	13	:	11
Other craft, related trades nes	302	290	13	:	:
Food, drink, tobacco operatives	164	151	13	:	:
Metal working operatives	127	114	13	:	12
Managers in transport and storing	195	184	12	:	:
Domestic staff etc	162	150	12	:	:
Ncos etc, armed forces	96	84	11	:	11
Other transport, machine operatives	227	216	11	:	:
Protective service officers	50	47	:	:	:
Managers in farming, horticulture etc	160	157	:	:	:
Legal professionals	131	125	:	:	:
Architects, town planners, surveyors	125	116	:	:	:
Librarians etc professionals	33	31	:	:	:
Draughtspersons, surveyors etc	116	112	:	:	:
Ship, aircraft officers & controllers	42	36	:	:	:
Legal associate professionals	35	33	:	:	:
Clerical, secretarial occupations nes	141	135	:	:	:
Printing and related trades	122	116	:	:	:
Food preparation trades	89	83	:	:	:
Travel attendants etc occupations	55	48	:	:	:
Hairdressers, beauticians etc	125	118	:	:	:
Personal service occupations nes	97	93	:	:	:
Buyers, brokers agents etc	70	64	:	:	:
Mobile salespersons & agents	84	77	:	:	:
Sales occupations nes	139	131	:	:	:
Textiles, tannery operatives	29	24	:	:	:
Chemicals, paper etc operatives	189	182	:	:	:
Metal making, treating operatives	47	43	:	:	:
Other farming related occupations	150	148	:	:	:
Other manufacturing etc occupations	76	73	:	:	:
Other construction occupations	165	160	:	:	:
Other transport occupations	122	116	:	:	:
Other occupations nes	116	108	:	:	:
All occupations	27793	25603	2190	612	1578

Source: LFS

Table 13.14: Percentage changes from 1992 to 2000 by occupation for the foreign born workforce

Top 10 Gainers

	per cent
Computer Analysts and Programmers	110.5
Security Etc. Service Occupations	100.0
Arts and Sports Professionals, Etc.	69.7
Financial and Office Managers, Etc.	60.0
Managers in Transport and Storing	60.0
Childcare and Related	55.6
Sales Representatives	53.8
Specialist Managers	52.1
Teachers	48.6
Road Transport Operatives	46.3

Top 10 Losers

	per cent
Production Managers in Manufacturing	-44.4
Textile Trades	-42.5
NCOs Etc., Armed Forces	-31.3
Metal Trades	-26.9
Business and Finance Associate Professionals	-22.2
Administrative Staff in Government	-20.8
Assemblers and Line Workers	-16.7
Other Transport and Machine Operatives	-15.4
Woodworking	-12.5
Other Plant and Machine Workers (NES)	-12.5

Source: LFS

Table 13.14 records the top ten gaining and losing occupations. Amongst both groups the skill spectrum is wide. Numbers of computer analysts and programmers have grown fastest, by about 111 per cent from around 19,000 to 40,000, about eight times the overall average. Security service occupations also doubled in number, from 15- to 30,000. Numbers of artistic and sports professionals, finance office managers, managers in transport and storing, childcare and related occupations, sales representatives and specialist managers all showed rises of over 50 per cent. Teaching professionals (up 48.6%) and road transport operatives (46.3) made up the rest of the top ten. Even allowing for sampling error, the picture that emerges from these figures is of an economy sucking in foreign-born workers across the occupational and skill spectrum, but with an emphasis on those in service industries.

The top ten losing occupations were dominated by manufacturing occupations. Headed by production managers in manufacturing (down by 44.4%) and textile trades occupations (-42.5%), no fewer than seven of the ten were manufacturing industry occupations. The exceptions were armed forces occupations, government clerical and administrative staff and, perhaps surprisingly, business and finance professionals.

13.3.3.4 Health occupations

Because of the significance attached to the role of foreign labour in the health service, a more detailed breakdown was obtained (at the three-digit level) of the health professionals and health associate professional groups. Only two occupations, medical practitioners (doctors) and nurses recorded over 10,000 foreign-born employed at both dates; in 2000 occupational and speech therapists were added to this list, though the number was small (Table 13.15).

Table 13.15: Number of persons in employment in medical occupations by country of birth, 1992 and 2000 (thousands)

1992					
	Total	UK Born	Total Foreign Born	EU/EFTA For Born	Non-EU/EFTA For Born
Total	25812	23883	1929	588	1341
Medical practitioners	111	81	30	:	25
Nurses	471	401	70	20	50
Occupational & speech therapists	43	37	:	:	:
2000					
	Total	UK Born	Total Foreign Born	EU/EFTA For Born	Non-EU/EFTA For Born
Total	27793	25603	2190	612	1578
Medical practitioners	143	100	44	:	38
Nurses	494	424	70	25	44
Occupational & speech therapists	75	63	12	:	:

Source: LFS

In 2000, the 44,000 foreign-born doctors were 30.5 per cent of the total employed; just under 70,000 foreign-born nurses were 14.1 per cent of all nurses and 12,000 foreign-born occupational and speech therapists were 15.6 per cent of their total. Between 1992 and 2000 numbers of foreign-born doctors rose sharply, by 44 per cent. Numbers of foreign national doctors also increased, by 77 per cent to nearly 28,000, although these relatively small numbers are subject to sampling error. Never the less, it does appear that increased inflows of foreign doctors have resulted in bigger stocks.

In contrast, the stock of foreign-born nurses was effectively unchanged at just under 70,000. This is most surprising in view of the common perception that large numbers of nurses have been recruited from overseas in the last few years. Several explanations may be put forward. The stock figure is a balance of in- and outflows. It may be that an earlier generation of foreign-born, perhaps recruited in the 1950s and 60s, has left or retired and been replaced by a new generation. Alternatively, it may be that recent recruitment exercises are simply resulting in a high rate of turnover. In any case this trend among foreign-born nurses is not matched by the UK-born, whose numbers rose over the period by 5.7 per cent.

The trend in number of nurses differed between EU/EFTA born, whose numbers increased by a quarter, and those from other countries of birth where the decline was 11 per cent. This might suggest that nurses recruited from beyond Western Europe have not had the desired effect of increasing the overall stock.

In order to explore the matter further, two additional sources of information were examined. First, a breakdown of medical occupations at the three-digit level was obtained on the basis of citizenship (Table 13.16). In 1992 there were 33,000 foreign nurses, rising to 38,500 in 2000. The rise was evenly divided in the data between EU/EFTA and other foreign nationals. The second source was data on the number of foreign trained nurses registering with the United Kingdom Central Council for Nursing, Midwifery and Health Visiting (UKCC) for the period 1992-2000, a total of 31,300.

Table 13.16: Number of persons in employment in medical occupations by citizenship, 1992 and 2000 (thousands)

1992					
	Total	UK	Total Foreign	EU/EFTA Foreign	Non-EU/EFTA Foreign
Total	25812	24865	947	455	492
Medical practitioners	111	95	16	:	12
Nurses	471	438	33	17	16
Occupational & speech therapists	43	41	:	:	:
2000					
	Total	UK	Total Foreign	EU/EFTA Foreign	Non-EU/EFTA Foreign
Total	27793	26672	1120	461	659
Medical practitioners	143	116	28	:	22
Nurses	494	455	39	20	18
Occupational & speech therapists	75	67	:	:	:

Source: LFS

Thus, during the period 1992-2000

- the stock of foreign-born nurses did not change
- the stock of foreign national nurses rose by about 5,500 (not taking account of sampling error).
- the number of foreign-trained nurse registrations rose by over 31,000

Clearly, increased flows of foreign and foreign-born nurses have not been reflected in rising stocks.

13.3.3.5 Country of birth

How far do the different occupational groups come from other EU/EFTA states? The average for the foreign-born as a whole was 27.9 per cent, the range extending from 19.8 per cent among Plant and Machinery operatives to 31 per cent among Associated Professionals (Table 13.17). The largest number of EU/EFTA nationals (111,000) was among Managers and Administrators, followed by Associate Professionals (89,000) and Professionals (86,000).

Table 13.17: Number of persons in employment by occupation by country of birth, 1992 and 2000 (per cent)

	1992			2000		
	Total For. Born	EU/EFTA For. Born	Non- EU/EFTA For. Born	Total For. Born	EU/EFTA For. Born	Non- EU/EFTA For. Born
Total	100.0	30.5	69.5	100.0	27.9	72.1
Managers and Administrators	100.0	29.4	70.6	100.0	28.2	72.1
- gen managers - government, large orgs	100.0	33.3	66.7	100.0	:	75.0
- prod managers - manufacturing etc	100.0	:	75.0	100.0	38.2	61.8
- specialist managers	100.0	32.9	67.1	100.0	27.0	73.0
- financial & office managers etc	100.0	:	70.0	100.0	27.1	72.9
- managers in transport and storing	:	:	:	100.0	:	:
- protective service officers	:	:	:	:	:	:
- managers in farming, horticulture etc :	:	:	:	:	:	:
- managers etc service industry	100.0	28.6	71.4	100.0	26.2	73.8
- managers, administrators nes	100.0	:	71.4	100.0	:	77.8
Professional Occupations	100.0	22.2	78.2	100.0	25.6	74.1
- natural scientists	100.0	:	73.3	100.0	:	68.2
- engineers and technologists	100.0	24.4	75.6	100.0	27.6	72.4
- health professionals	100.0	:	86.4	100.0	:	85.2
- teaching professionals	100.0	29.7	70.3	100.0	32.7	67.3
- legal professionals	:	:	:	:	:	:
- business & financial professionals	100.0	:	87.9	100.0	:	80.4
- architects, town planners, surveyors	:	:	:	:	:	:
- librarians etc professionals	:	:	:	:	:	:
- professional occupations nes	100.0	:	75.0	100.0	:	81.8
Associate Professionals and						
Technical Occupations	100.0	30.6	69.4	100.0	30.9	69.1
- scientific technicians	100.0	:	:	100.0	:	70.6
- draughtspersons, surveyors etc	:	:	:	:	:	:
- computer analysts, programmers	100.0	:	68.4	100.0	:	77.5
- ship, aircraft officers & controllers	:	:	:	:	:	:
- health associate professionals	100.0	31.5	68.5	100.0	37.6	62.4
- legal associate professionals	:	:	:	:	:	:
- business, finance associate profs	100.0	:	66.7	100.0	:	76.2
- welfare etc associate professionals	100.0	:	76.5	100.0	:	72.7
- artistic, sports etc professionals	100.0	30.3	69.7	100.0	30.4	69.6
- prof, technical occupations nes	100.0	:	:	100.0	:	66.7
Clerical and Secretarial Occupations	100.0	33.1	66.9	100.0	28.1	71.9
- administrative staff in government	100.0	:	75.0	100.0	:	73.7
- numerical clerks and cashiers	100.0	30.0	70.0	100.0	27.8	72.2
- filing and record clerks	100.0	:	65.0	100.0	:	65.2
- clerks nes	100.0	33.3	66.7	100.0	25.9	74.1
- stores, despatch clerks & keepers	100.0	:	:	100.0	:	78.3
- secretarial etc personnel	100.0	35.8	64.2	100.0	28.6	69.4
- receptionist, telephonists etc	100.0	:	61.9	100.0	:	63.6
- clerical, secretarial occupations nes	100.0	:	:	:	:	:

Craft and Related Occupations	100.0	30.8	69.2	100.0	30.0	70.0
- construction trades	100.0	60.0	44.0	100.0	46.2	53.8
- metal machining, fitting etc trades	100.0	:	73.1	100.0	:	63.2
- electrical, electronic trades	100.0	:	80.0	100.0	:	75.0
- metal forming, welding etc trades	100.0	:	:	100.0	:	:
- vehicle trades	100.0	:	:	100.0	:	84.6
- textiles, garments etc trades	100.0	:	92.5	100.0	:	82.6
- printing and related trades	:	:	:	:	:	:
- woodworking trades	100.0	:	:	100.0	:	:
- food preparation trades	:	:	:	:	:	:
- other craft, related trades nes	100.0	:	:	100.0	:	:
Personal and Protective Service Occupations	100.0	36.2	63.8	100.0	30.3	69.7
- NCOs etc, armed forces	100.0	:	87.5	100.0	:	100.0
- security etc service occupations	100.0	:	:	100.0	:	76.7
- catering occupations	100.0	31.8	68.2	100.0	30.8	69.2
- travel attendants etc occupations	:	:	:	:	:	:
- health and related occupations	100.0	40.0	60.0	100.0	29.0	71.0
- childcare and related occupations	100.0	48.1	51.9	100.0	35.7	64.3
- hairdressers, beauticians etc	100.0	:	:	:	:	:
- domestic staff etc	100.0	:	:	100.0	:	:
- personal service occupations nes	:	:	:	:	:	:
Sales Occupations	100.0	31.9	68.1	100.0	26.8	73.2
- buyers, brokers agents etc	:	:	:	:	:	:
- sales representatives	100.0	:	:	100.0	:	60.0
- sales, check-out assistants	100.0	31.0	69.0	100.0	25.0	75.0
- mobile salespersons & agents	:	:	:	:	:	:
- sales occupations nes	:	:	:	:	:	:
Plant and Machine Operatives	100.0	24.6	74.9	100.0	19.5	79.9
- food, drink, tobacco operatives	100.0	:	84.6	100.0	:	:
- textiles, tannery operatives	:	:	:	:	:	:
- chemicals, paper etc operatives	100.0	:	:	:	:	:
- metal making, treating operatives	:	:	:	:	:	:
- metal working operatives	100.0	:	:	100.0	:	92.3
- assemblers, lineworkers	100.0	:	77.8	100.0	:	86.7
- other routine operatives	100.0	:	86.7	100.0	:	84.4
- road transport operatives	100.0	26.8	73.2	100.0	18.3	81.7
- other transport, machine operatives	100.0	:	:	100.0	:	:
- plant & machine operatives nes	100.0	:	:	100.0	:	:
Other Occupations	100.0	33.8	65.7	100.0	30.5	69.5
- other farming related occupations	:	:	:	:	:	:
- other manufacturing etc occupations	:	:	:	:	:	:
- other construction occupations	100.0	68.8	:	:	:	:
- other transport occupations	:	:	:	:	:	:
- other communication occupations	100.0	:	76.9	100.0	:	78.6
- other sales, service occupations	100.0	37.5	62.5	100.0	30.4	69.6
- other occupations nes	:	:	:	:	:	:
Unpaid fw/armed forces	100.0	:	84.8	100.0	:	90.0

Source: LFS

Small sample size means that comparatively few specific occupations have more than 10,000 recorded from EU/EFTA states. Of those that do, EU/EFTA born have more than their 'share' in a small number: construction trades (46.4%), health associate professionals (37.6%), managers in transport and storing (33.2%), teaching professionals (32.5%), catering (30.9%) and artistic and sportspeople (30.7%). Low shares are in: road transport operatives (18.5%), clerks (25.2%) and sales assistants (24.8%).

13.4 Summary

Compared with the UK-born, a lower proportion of the foreign-born is economically active and their unemployment rates are consistently higher. However, more skilled occupational groups contain higher proportions of foreign-born workers.

Changes in the proportions of foreign-born workers in the different occupational categories between 1992 and 2000 are not obviously related to skill levels. The largest gaining occupations during the period were computer analysts and programmers, whilst the losing occupations were dominated by manufacturing. Despite increased flows, the stock of foreign-born nurses does not seem to have changed.

14 Labour migration, the work permit system and other schemes

Research questions

- How stable are trends in applications for, and issues of, work permits over time?
- Is the skill spectrum changing?
- Which countries dominate the numbers of permits issued?
- Are there differences between countries in the skills they supply?
- What other schemes exist for bringing in overseas labour?

Main findings

- There have been changes in the work permit system over time, notably a dramatic increase in the scale and nature of the operation in the 1990s.
- The system now seems more concerned than hitherto with supplying specific skills. Recent increases have mainly been in a small number of occupations, particularly in IT and health.
- New major suppliers have emerged, especially India and the Philippines, associated with specific skills in ways that the older sources (e.g. the US and Japan) are not.
- Schemes additional to that of work permit issues are important providers of labour though precise levels of skill are unknown.

This chapter aims to show how the work permit system responded to the demands of the labour market. It also includes information on other schemes designed to bring foreign labour migrants into the UK.

14.1 Introduction

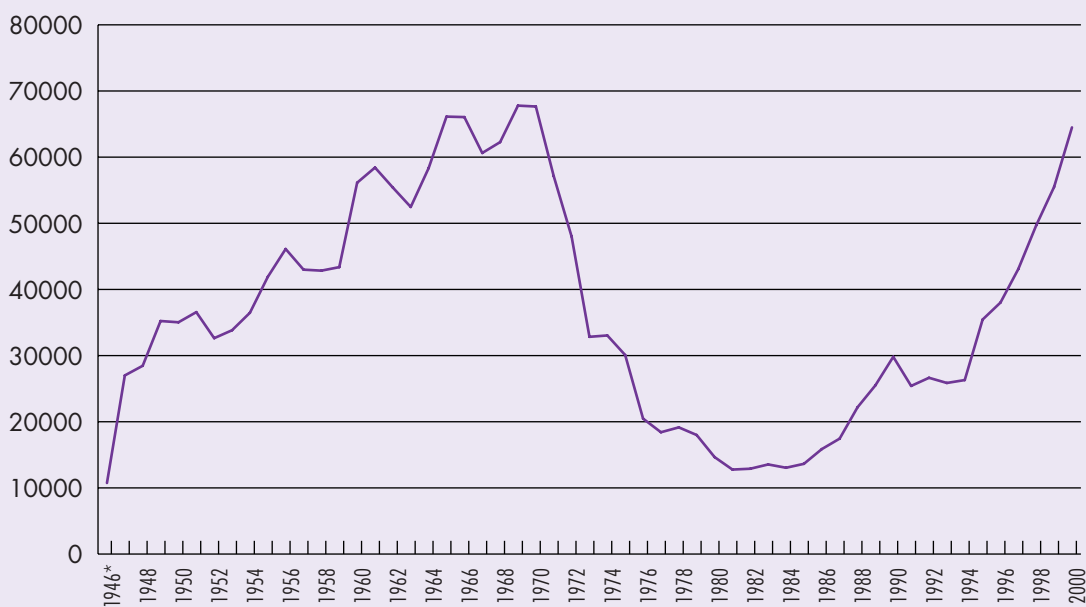
Restrictions on foreigners seeking work in the UK were first introduced during the First World War. In 1919-20 a system of work permits was brought in which laid down conditions to regulate the employment of foreigners. To obtain permits, employers had to show that the proposed employment of a foreigner was reasonable and necessary, that adequate efforts had been made to find indigenous labour and that wages and conditions were not less favourable than those accorded to British employees for similar work. These conditions have remained extant to the present.

No restrictions were imposed on immigration from the Empire and Commonwealth, including the Irish Free State after its independence in 1923. Not until the Commonwealth Immigrants Act of 1962, with the introduction of a voucher system, was labour immigration from the Commonwealth brought under some kind of control; that from Ireland never has been.

The need to rebuild Europe’s shattered economy after 1945 led to labour shortages in a number of countries, including the UK. Between 1945 and 1950 about 170,000 displaced citizens from Eastern Europe were placed into employment; in addition, another 136,000 foreigners with work permits, mostly from Western Europe, came in during this time (Department of Employment, 1977).

The story of work permit issues between the Second World War and the present has been something of a roller-coaster (Figure 14.1). Until the late 1960s there was a fluctuating upward trend. Most work permits went to unskilled and semi-skilled workers: during the 1950s the largest category was domestic service, 44 per cent of the total in 1955. In a foretaste of things to come a growing number of permits were granted for nurses, doubling to 2,400 between 1950 and 1955, although thereafter the trend levelled off.

Figure 14.1: Number of work permits and first permissions issued 1946-2000 (excluding trainees)



Source: Department of Employment (1977); UK SOPEMI Reports (annual)

The introduction of a voucher scheme in the 1960s heralded a change in the flow of work permits. From January 1st 1972 work permits for jobs in industry and commerce were not issued for unskilled and semi-skilled foreign men from countries outside the European Economic Community, Denmark and Norway (the latter country at the time was expected to join the EEC). The only exception was the hotel and catering industry where a reduction was brought about in stages by means of a quota system. The 1971 Immigration Act further tightened controls. Under this Act work permits for Commonwealth citizens were issued on the same basis as for foreigners from non-EEC countries. For a permit to be issued an overseas worker now had to have both a specific job to come to and a skill or qualification that was needed.

There followed a prolonged period of decline in work permit issues to around 15,000 in the early 1980s. In 1982 the number of long-term work permits granted was only 5,700. From the middle 1980s issues began to rise significantly, peaking in 1990 at around 30,000 before falling back during the recession. After 1994 there was further sharp rise so that by 2000 the total number of issues was back at its highest post-war level, achieved some thirty years earlier.

14.2 Work permit issues in the 1980s and early 1990s

Changes in the way that work permit applications and issues are recorded mean that data for the periods before and after 1997 need to be treated separately, although the two systems overlap 1994-97. This section, together with relevant tables looks at the situation in the 1980s and first half of the 1990s.

Table 14.1: Work Permits, First Permissions and TWES Issues 1969-97

Date	Annual		Annual		Total	Annual % change		
	Work Permits	% change	Trainees	% change				
1969	67093	-	8312	-	75405	-		
1970	66470	-0.9	7549	-9.2	74019	-1.8		
1971	56031	-15.7	6399	-15.2	62430	-15.7		
1972	46987	-16.1	5712	-10.7	52699	-15.6		
	Annual		Annual					
	Long-term	% change	Short-term	% change				
1973	20716	-	12123	-	3697	-	36536	-
1974	20695	-0.1	12350	1.9	2903	-21.5	35948	-1.6
1975	18664	-9.8	11414	-7.6	3136	8.0	33214	-7.6
1976 ¹	11925	-36.1	8545	-25.1	2651	-15.5	25271	-23.9
1977	10613	-11.0	7801	-8.7	3164	19.4	21578	-14.6
1978	9686	-8.7	9463	21.3	3662	15.7	22811	5.7
1979	8344	-13.9	9649	2.0	4010	9.5	22003	-3.5
1980	6423	-23.0	8238	-14.6	4152	3.5	18813	-14.5
1981	5906	-8.0	6866	-16.7	3088	-25.6	15860	-15.7
1982	5672	-4.0	7225	5.2	2557	-17.2	15454	-2.6
1983	6438	13.5	7108	-1.6	2361	-7.7	15907	2.9
1984	6801	5.6	6244	-12.2	2646	12.1	15691	-1.4
1985	7067	3.9	6571	5.2	2937	11.0	16575	5.6
1986	7915	12.0	7947	20.9	2826	-3.8	18688	12.7
1987	8063	1.9	9385	18.1	2900	2.6	20348	8.9
1988	10391	28.9	11793	25.7	3790	30.7	25974	27.6
1989	13268	27.7	12234	3.7	4228	11.6	29730	14.5
1990	16055	21.0	13760	12.5	4812	13.8	34627	16.5
1991	12800	-20.3	12615	-8.3	3513	-27.0	28978	-16.3
1992	12681	-0.9	13963	10.7	3407	-3.0	30051	3.7
1993	12523	-1.2	13339	-4.5	3467	1.8	29329	-2.4
1994	13425	7.2	12876	-3.5	3791	9.3	30092	2.6
1995	15498	15.4	15565	20.9	4405	16.2	35468	17.9
1996	16874	8.9	16810	8.0	3969	-9.9	37653	6.2
1997	18719	10.9	19030	13.2	4694	18.3	42443	12.7

Source: Department of Employment, 1981 and Department for Education and Employment (unpublished)

Note:

1. 1976 total includes 2150 issued unanalysed owing to industrial action.

Over the last two decades the trend in work permit issues (including first permissions and Training and Work Experience Scheme (TWES) permits, but not extensions and changes of employment) has fluctuated, numbers

halving during the 1970s, then rising again in the 1980s (Table 14.1). In the first half of the 1990s the number appeared to have stabilised at around 30,000 issues a year, but then began to rise again.

The increase in numbers of long-term work permits is particularly important. The rise in the 1990s is consistent with an increased demand for skills as the UK economy emerged strongly from recession and went into a period of sustained growth. The data also suggest that for several reasons, including deregulation, the UK labour market has opened up to labour from outside the EEA. Hence it is important to analyse the breakdown of work permit issues by industry, occupation and nationality. Unfortunately, a long- and short-term breakdown for occupations and industries under the new system is not possible.

The industrial and occupational breakdown used in sections 14.2.1 and 14.2.2 below is that formerly used when work permit data were published annually, until the early 1980s, in the Department of Employment Gazette (now Labour Market Trends) and maintained in successive UK reports to the OECD by its SOPEMI Correspondent.

14.2.1 Industrial group

During the 1980s and 1990s the distribution of work permit issues by industrial group has been remarkably stable (Table 14.2). Short-term work permits have been dominated by the *Miscellaneous services* category (mainly entertainers and sportspeople), which accounts for around three-quarters of issues. *Insurance, banking and finance (IBF)*, *Professional services* and *Metal industries* were the only other industrial groups to have over a thousand work permits and first permissions for short-term non-EU foreign nationals. There is some evidence, however, of a shift in the distribution. Since 1992 the dominance of *Miscellaneous services* has been slowly eroded, indicating a tendency for more short term recruitment or transfer in other industries. If this is the case, it suggests a new pattern of foreign recruitment may be happening across UK industries.

One way of testing if there is a substitution of longer term relocation of skills by shorter term movements is to see if there has been a shift towards more extended business trips. In order to do this, two hypotheses were developed. The first was that companies were simply using short-term business travel (trips of less than a month) more extensively instead of seconding staff for longer periods. The second was that long term business trips (over one and over six months) were substituting for secondment and long-term work permits. The data used, for the period 1993-98, were from the IPS and recorded the length of business trips abroad for UK residents and of those into the UK for overseas residents. Since the data refer to trips made, some individuals may have been counted more than once in the annual figure.

The results were inconclusive. During the period total business trips by UK residents rose by 48 per cent to 7.1 million in 1998, those by overseas residents 44 per cent to 6.2 million. The rates of increase for trips of under one month were similar (49 and 45%). These high rates of increase indicate the growing importance of the international relocation of expertise through short business visits. More extended trips of over one month showed slower growth, up 23 per cent for UK residents going abroad, 19 per cent for foreign residents visiting the UK. Numbers of visits of over six months fluctuated with no evidence of overall growth.

It thus appears that there has been a rapid growth in overall business trips, but not in extended ones. On this evidence there does not appear to have been a substitution effect. What is not clear is whether the growth in short-term business trips simply reflects the modern way of doing business or whether such trips are a reflection of new ways of moving and using knowledge and skills.

Table 14.2: Work Permits and First Permissions by Industry, 1985-1997

a) Absolute figures

Short Term (Including TWES)

	1985	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997
Mining, Oil	158	109	129	128	189	130	126	88	86	69	63	101	196
Coal, Chemicals	52	79	77	80	73	138	122	115	143	134	136	144	137
Metal Industries	285	291	273	297	398	530	366	383	366	476	660	857	1389
Other Manufg.	51	44	52	55	71	117	232	163	204	248	279	164	174
Transp. & Communics.	107	112	86	124	93	97	132	113	130	124	92	111	106
Distribution	77	56	72	66	78	76	48	43	68	65	62	55	45
Ins., Bankg., Finance	308	335	384	507	519	534	988	821	642	714	950	1283	1845
Prof. Services	556	613	505	656	683	816	797	680	715	808	985	1205	1422
Misc. Services	6107	7462	8924	11177	11506	12850	11539	12941	12518	11902	14288	14797	15991
Others	119	92	131	164	271	325	273	273	376	719	974	360	369
Total	7820	9193	10633	13254	13881	15613	14623	15620	15248	15259	18490	19073	21674

Long Term (Including TWES)

	1985	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997
Mining, Oil	649	403	388	547	625	725	613	507	519	424	368	490	716
Coal, Chemicals	202	228	272	319	361	505	450	424	381	335	453	498	477
Metal Industries	1210	1319	1408	1769	1997	2225	1959	1775	1562	2021	2394	2681	3851
Other Manufg.	213	298	379	453	472	575	543	468	428	396	524	482	568
Transp. & Communics.	322	331	306	454	570	464	392	347	311	307	388	415	343
Distribution	499	453	378	410	490	465	340	316	338	253	248	274	269
Ins., Bankg., Finance	2032	2564	2634	3037	3300	3568	3287	3210	3103	3475	3462	4230	5490
Prof. Services	2283	2413	2448	3207	4538	5149	4193	3732	3156	3360	4031	4553	5115
Misc. Services	1225	1334	1363	2232	2926	4468	3190	3349	3905	3964	4864	5025	5009
Others	120	152	139	291	570	870	389	303	377	298	246	357	492
Total	8755	9495	9715	12719	15849	19014	15356	14431	14080	14833	16978	19005	22330

b) Per cent

Short Term (Including TWES)

	1985	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997
Mining, Oil	2.0	1.2	1.2	1.0	1.4	0.8	0.9	0.6	0.6	0.5	0.3	0.5	0.9
Coal, Chemicals	0.7	0.9	0.7	0.6	0.5	0.9	0.8	0.7	0.9	0.9	0.7	0.8	0.8
Metal Industries	3.6	3.2	2.6	2.2	2.9	3.4	2.5	2.5	2.4	3.1	3.6	4.5	6.4
Other Manufg.	0.7	0.5	0.5	0.4	0.5	0.7	1.6	1.0	1.3	1.6	1.5	0.9	0.8
Transp. & Communics.	1.4	1.2	0.8	0.9	0.7	0.6	0.9	0.7	0.9	0.8	0.5	0.6	0.5
Distribution	1.0	0.6	0.7	0.5	0.6	0.5	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.2
Ins., Bankg., Finance	3.9	3.6	3.6	3.8	3.7	3.4	6.8	5.3	4.2	4.7	5.1	6.7	8.5
Prof. Services	7.1	6.7	4.7	4.9	4.9	5.2	5.5	4.4	4.7	5.3	5.3	6.3	6.6
Misc. Services	78.1	81.2	83.9	84.3	82.9	82.3	78.9	82.8	82.1	78.0	77.3	77.6	73.6
Others	1.5	1.0	1.2	1.2	2.0	2.1	1.9	1.7	2.5	4.7	5.3	1.9	1.7
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Long Term (Including TWES)

	1985	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997
Mining, Oil	7.4	4.2	4.0	4.3	3.9	3.8	4.0	3.5	3.7	2.9	2.2	2.6	3.2
Coal, Chemicals	2.3	2.4	2.8	2.5	2.3	2.7	2.9	2.9	2.7	2.3	2.7	2.6	2.1
Metal Industries	13.8	13.9	14.5	13.9	12.6	11.7	12.8	12.3	11.1	13.6	14.1	14.1	17.3
Other Manufg.	2.4	3.1	3.9	3.6	3.0	3.0	3.5	3.2	3.0	2.7	3.1	2.5	2.5
Transp. & Communics.	3.7	3.5	3.1	3.6	3.6	2.4	2.6	2.4	2.2	2.1	2.3	2.2	1.5
Distribution	5.7	4.8	3.9	3.2	3.1	2.4	2.2	2.2	2.4	1.7	1.5	1.4	1.2
Ins., Bankg., Finance	23.2	27.0	27.1	23.9	20.8	18.8	21.4	22.2	22.0	23.4	20.4	22.3	24.6
Prof. Services	26.1	25.4	25.2	25.2	28.6	27.1	27.3	25.9	22.4	22.7	23.7	24.0	22.9
Misc. Services	14.0	14.0	14.0	17.5	18.5	23.5	20.8	23.2	27.7	26.7	28.6	26.4	22.4
Others	1.4	1.6	1.4	2.3	3.6	4.6	2.5	2.1	2.7	2.0	1.4	1.9	2.2
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: Department of Employment and Department for Education and Employment (unpublished)

Table 14.3: Work Permits and First Permissions by Occupation, 1985-97

a) Absolute figures

Short Term (Including TWES)

	1985	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997
All Prof/Managerial	1596	1580	1333	1678	1976	2539	2314	2555	3237	3820	5105	4314	5074
General Management	37	37	49	54	39	69	71	113	108	136	211	247	217
Prof/Manag Support	809	817	715	847	1104	1398	1443	1598	2065	2705	3774	2605	3386
Prof/Manag in Education, Health & Welfare	125	132	139	234	207	381	374	374	545	519	503	470	564
Prof/Manag in Science & Technology	492	428	360	410	502	619	392	427	490	445	588	959	867
Other Managerial	133	166	70	133	124	72	34	43	29	15	29	33	40
Literary, Art, Sport	6054	7381	8947	11177	11406	12451	11311	12568	11828	11213	12933	13642	14578
Clerical & Related	28	22	16	57	30	12	10	10	3	0	0	24	9
Catering, Personal Services	41	32	227	285	350	330	263	315	62	92	74	113	192
Others	101	178	110	57	119	281	725	172	118	134	376	986	1829
Total	7820	9193	10633	13254	13881	15613	14623	15620	15248	15259	18488	19079	21682

Long Term (Including TWES)

	1985	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997
All Prof/Managerial	7515	8103	8170	10789	13156	15356	11444	11789	12227	12579	13266	13319	14183
General Management	1338	1645	1945	2265	2020	2249	1650	1848	2252	2328	2683	2781	2594
Prof/Manag Support	3321	3654	3628	4656	6146	6474	4984	4271	3546	3566	4277	4096	4809
Prof/Manag in Education, Health & Welfare	808	791	804	1348	1685	3794	2539	2916	3448	3638	2397	2087	2497
Prof/Manag in Science & Technology	1775	1161	1501	2291	3040	2677	2080	2630	2924	3010	3888	4267	4231
Other Managerial	273	352	292	229	265	162	188	124	57	37	21	87	52
Literary, Art, Sport	692	770	713	1175	1085	1359	1387	1440	1332	1341	1644	1409	446
Clerical & Related	34	27	33	84	75	15	17	14	4	1	1	12	3
Catering, Personal Services	321	396	422	517	812	810	844	746	255	198	371	296	385
Others	192	199	172	154	721	1394	1667	442	262	714	1695	3970	6223
Total	8754	9495	9715	12719	15849	19014	15356	14431	14080	14833	16977	19005	21349

b) Per cent

Short Term (Including TWES)

	1985	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997
All Prof/Managerial	20.4	17.2	12.5	12.7	14.2	16.3	15.8	16.4	21.2	25.0	27.6	22.6	23.4
General Management	0.5	0.4	0.5	0.4	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.7	0.7	0.9	1.1	1.3	1.0
Prof/Manag Support	10.3	8.9	6.7	6.4	8.0	9.0	9.9	10.2	13.5	17.7	20.4	13.7	15.6
Prof/Manag in Education, Health & Welfare	1.6	1.4	1.3	1.8	1.5	2.4	2.6	2.4	3.6	3.4	2.7	2.5	2.6
Prof/Manag in Science & Technology	6.3	4.7	3.4	3.1	3.6	4.0	2.7	2.7	3.2	2.9	3.2	5.0	4.0
Other Managerial	1.7	1.8	0.7	1.0	0.9	0.5	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2
Literary, Art, Sport	77.4	80.3	84.1	84.3	82.2	79.7	77.4	80.5	77.6	73.5	70.0	71.5	67.2
Clerical & Related	0.4	0.2	0.2	0.4	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.1
Catering, Personal Services	0.5	0.3	2.1	2.2	2.5	2.1	1.8	2.0	0.4	0.6	0.4	0.6	0.9
Others	1.3	1.9	1.0	0.4	0.9	1.8	5.0	1.1	0.8	0.9	2.0	5.2	8.4
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	78.8	75.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Long Term (Including TWES)

	1985	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997
All Prof/Managerial	85.8	85.3	84.1	84.8	83.0	80.8	74.5	81.7	86.8	84.8	78.1	70.1	66.4
General Management	15.3	17.3	20.0	17.8	12.7	11.8	10.7	12.8	16.0	15.7	15.8	14.6	12.2
Prof/Manag Support	37.9	38.5	37.3	36.6	38.8	34.0	32.5	29.6	25.2	24.0	25.2	21.6	22.5
Prof/Manag in Education, Health & Welfare	9.2	8.3	8.3	10.6	10.6	20.0	16.5	20.2	24.5	24.5	14.1	11.0	11.7
Prof/Manag in Science & Technology	20.3	12.2	15.5	18.0	19.2	14.1	13.5	18.2	20.8	20.3	22.9	22.5	19.8
Other Managerial	3.1	3.7	3.0	1.8	1.7	0.9	1.2	0.9	0.4	0.2	0.1	0.5	0.2
Literary, Art, Sport	7.9	8.1	7.3	9.2	6.8	7.1	9.0	10.0	9.5	9.0	9.7	7.4	2.1
Clerical & Related	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.7	0.5	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.0
Catering, Personal Services	3.7	4.2	4.3	4.1	5.1	4.3	5.5	5.2	1.8	1.3	2.2	1.6	1.8
Others	2.2	2.1	1.8	1.2	4.5	7.3	10.9	3.1	1.9	4.8	10.0	20.9	29.7
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	13.2	15.2	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: Department of Employment and Department for Education and Employment (unpublished)

Long-term permits are economically the most significant for the labour market. Although the main pattern is one of continuity and overall stability, there is evidence of some change. The pattern has been dominated by three service industries: *IBF*, *Professional services*, and *Miscellaneous services*. In the rest of the economy, only *Metal Industries* (including engineering), made any substantial use of overseas non-EU nationals, though the sector is characterised more by its stability than anything else. While the dominance of the 'big three' was maintained throughout the period 1985-97, several trends can be observed.

First, by 1997 the *Miscellaneous services* category was no longer the largest group, a position it had held since 1993. Secondly, *IBF*, which peaked in 1986-87, probably in anticipation of financial deregulation in the City of London, levelled off at around 22 per cent during most of the 1990s, but rose to its highest proportion for a decade in 1997. *Professional services*, which remained fairly stable during the 1980s, declined sharply in 1993 to its lowest level for a decade. That decline seemed to have halted, with small rises in the three subsequent years, but in 1997 numbers fell both absolutely and proportionately.

Among the other industries, the decline in *Mining/Oil* was halted in 1996, but the proportionate decrease in *Distribution* continued. Both of these categories have been reduced to almost negligible proportions since 1985. In contrast, *Coal/Chemicals* and *Other manufacturing* fell in 1997, but numbers in *Metal industries* grew strongly and their share increased.

14.2.2 Occupational group

The occupational distribution of work permit issues, like the industrial breakdown, also remained remarkably stable over the period 1985-97 (Table 14.3). Throughout most of this period, around four-fifths of short-term permits were received by literary, artistic and sportspeople, highly skilled in their own right. Over the period their proportional significance has declined, due almost entirely to the rising importance of professional and managerial short-term permits. This group accounts for most of the remaining short-term permits and until 1996 showed a clear growth trend both in numbers and proportion, especially among those providing professional and managerial support. The rise was resumed in 1997. This increase is likely to result from tendency for companies to bring in specialist expertise for short periods, perhaps on corporate transfers. It may also reflect career development processes in both internal and external labour markets, with entry to the UK associated with short career training periods.

It is clear from Table 14.3 that the work permit system has mainly operated to bring in, on a long-term basis, the highly skilled. The major countries of origin (see section below) have been other advanced industrial countries, with which the UK has developed a network of 'brain exchanges'. Long-term work permits have traditionally gone mainly to professional and managerial people, as many as 86.8 per cent in 1993. The proportionate decline in this group is counterbalanced by a rise in the granting of permits to workers in the 'Other' category, up from 1.9 per cent in 1993 to 29.7 per cent in 1997. Indeed, the growth in this category has made it difficult to determine what skills have come into the country during the second half of the 1990s. This is taken up below.

Trends among the constituent categories of the professional and managerial group show some significant variations. The professional and managerial support (middle level management) category has consistently been the largest in the professional and managerial group as a whole. The proportion of professional and managerial workers in education, health and welfare rose markedly in the early 1990s, with a continuing but smaller rise in 1994; subsequent proportionate declines are probably associated with the increases in the Other category. Numbers of science and technology professionals and managers seem to be more responsive

to the state of the national economy than others. Growth may be a consequence of the increasing 'technification' of UK industry and at the same time a growing corporate culture, with foreign experts brought in to support and further these changes.

Among the non-professional/management/technical group, long-term work permit issues to those in *Catering* and *Personal services* have fluctuated over the period as a whole, while those to *Others* rose sharply to become easily the largest individual group.

14.2.3 Country of origin

The US and Japan have dominated the list of long-term work permit issues throughout the period, with the US consistently accounting for more than a quarter of all work permit issues, with Japan in second place (Table 14.4). From 1985 to 1997 these two countries accounted annually for 40-50 per cent of issues. For most other countries, the number of long-term work permit issues was a few hundred at best. As will be seen below, this situation has recently changed.

Table 14.4: Long term work permits issued in the UK, (including trainees) by nationality, 1990-97 (thousands)

	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997
United States	5.0	4.0	4.1	4.4	5.1	5.5	5.8	5.9
Japan	2.6	2.4	2.1	2.0	2.1	2.2	2.4	2.1
Australia and New Zealand	1.4	1.1	1.1	1.0	1.1	1.2	1.4	1.7
India	0.8	0.8	0.9	0.9	1.3	1.5	1.8	1.9
China	0.6	0.5	0.4	0.5	0.6	0.5	0.5	0.6
Canada	0.5	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.7	0.8	0.8
Malaysia	0.7	0.4	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.2
Hong Kong	0.8	0.4	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1
South African countries	0.4	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.6	0.9
Other Countries	6.2	5.1	4.4	4.0	3.2	4.7	4.9	4.7
Total Long-term permits	19.0	15.4	14.4	14.1	14.8	17.0	18.6	18.9

Source: Department of Employment and Department for Education and Employment (unpublished)

As with the industrial and occupational patterns, the main feature of the distribution by country of origin is stability, with a broadly similar relationship being maintained between the countries listed over the time period covered. During much of the 1990s the main upward trend has been the doubling of long-term work permit issues to Indians. Despite this, it is clear that for the most part the UK work permit system has served to select labour mainly from other industrial countries. Analysis of the occupations of those people from 'developing' countries issued with work permits showed that up to the early 1990s the profile was very similar to that from the 'developed' world: most were professional and managerial workers (Salt and Ford, 1993).

14.2.4 Intra-company transfers (ICTs)

These are people who are being transferred to the UK within the international internal labour markets of their employers. Comparatively few ICT applications have traditionally been refused. Most come from large, reputable organisations, easily able to make a case for bringing in an individual executive on the grounds of product development and corporate career development policy. The modifications to the work permit system

introduced in October 1991 and subsequently were designed to make it even easier for ICTs to be issued with permits. Recent changes have reinforced this trend.

During the 1980s and 1990s the trend in numbers of issues of ICTs was upward. After 1992 there was a strong annual growth in total ICT issues, from 7,899 to 16,725 in 1997, an increase of 111.7 per cent (Table 14.5). ICTs have become more important as a proportion of both main scheme and TWES (Trainee and Work Experience Scheme) issues, rising from around a quarter of main scheme and total issues to well over a third. They have traditionally constituted only a small proportion of TWES issues, however. Unfortunately, it is not possible to obtain numbers of ICTs from the present Work Permits (UK) data system.

A fuller picture of the scale of corporate transfer may be derived from the LFS, which records whether or not an immigrant who was working abroad the year before is now working in the UK for the same employer, and is thus a corporate transferee.

Table 14.5: Inter-Company Transfer (ICT) issues, 1992-97

Absolute figures

	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997
Total Issues	29590	29130	29970	32944	36502	43033
Mainscheme ICT Issues	7185	7742	8785	9816	13709	15428
TWES ICT Issues	714	533	735	930	1143	1297
Total ICT Issues	7899	8275	9520	10746	14852	16725
Per cent						
	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997
Total Issues	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Mainscheme ICT Issues	24.3	26.6	29.3	29.8	37.6	35.9
TWES ICT Issues	2.4	1.8	2.5	2.8	3.1	3.0
Total ICT Issues	26.7	28.4	31.8	32.6	40.7	38.9

Source: Work Permits (UK)

In 2000, the number of people working abroad a year before and at the time of the survey was 90,000 (Table 14.6). About 28,000 of them (31.1%) worked for the same employer at both times and may be assumed to be corporate transferees. The majority of this group (16,000) were foreign nationals. Both of these numbers are lower than in the last two years (Table 14.7). It is not clear how far these fluctuations are random statistical ones caused by the sampling, or represent real changes in corporate relocation.

Table 14.6: Living and working in UK now and outside UK one year ago, by nationality and whether for same or different employer, 2000

	Absolute Figures (thousands)			Proportion of Total (per cent)		
	Same	Different	All	Same	Different	All
All nationalities	28	63	90	31.1	70.0	100.0
UK/GB	12	25	36	33.3	69.4	100.0
Foreign nationals	16	38	54	29.6	70.4	100.0
of which:						
Non-EU Countries	11	27	38	28.9	71.1	100.0
EU Countries	:	11	16	-	68.8	100.0
EU Countries excl. Irish Rep.	:	:	14	-	-	100.0

Source: LFS

Aggregation of the data for the period 1985-2000 provides more detail (Table 14.7). Over the period, there were 403,000 corporate transferees (defined in this case as working at the time of the survey and one year before) entered the UK. Foreign nationals are consistently more likely than UK immigrants to be transferees. This is particularly the case with non-EU nationals, over 40 per cent of whom worked for the same employer before and after entering the UK. This distribution is to be expected in view of the work permit system, which provides an easier entry for company transferees than for some other types of application. Corporate transfers are less important for EU nationals (less than a third), who do not require work permits.

Table 14.7 uses the aggregate data for the sixteen years represented between 1985 and 2000 to present the average annual number of corporate transfers. For all nationalities this has been 25,200, divided more or less equally between UK and foreign nationals. About 3,000 EU citizens are transferred in each year.

Table 14.7: Persons transferred into the UK, 1985-2000 (thousands)

	All Persons	British	Foreign
1985	29	15	14
1986	28	14	13
1987	22	14	8
1988	26	15	11
1989	23	11	12
1990	28	14	14
1991	24	13	11
1992	13	5	7
1993	26	13	13
1994	20	8	12
1995	23	8	14
1996	22	9	13
1997	30	13	18
1998	35	13	22
1999	26	12	15
2000	28	12	16
Total	403	189	213
Ave p.a.	25.2	11.8	13.3

Source: LFS

Note:

Refers to persons living and working in the UK, working outside the UK one year ago and working for the same employer.

14.3 Work permit schemes and recent developments

This analysis is for the period 1995-2000. It is based on data provided by the Work Permit (UK)'s new Report Writer system and does not include existing MRU analyses using the old DBA data management system for the period prior to 1997 and discussed above. Under the new system retrospective statistics are available to 1995; detailed data for 2000 are included here.

14.3.1 Numbers of work permit applications

Table 14.8 shows that over the last five years the number of applications for a work permit has increased dramatically. In 1995 there were 38,617 applications, rising to 65,959 by 1999, a 70.8 per cent increase. The largest increase in demand for work permits occurred in 2000 when 93,552 applications were made, a 41.8 per cent increase on the year before (65,959).

14.3.2 Numbers of work permit approvals

The trend in the numbers of work permit approvals between 1995 and 2000 has also been upward (Table 14.8). In 1995, 87.2 per cent of applications (excluding withdrawals and transferrals) were approved and 24,161 work permits (including first permission and TWES permits but not extensions and changes of employment) were issued. In 1999, 91.8 per cent of applications were approved and 41,922 work permits were granted, representing an 11.7 per cent increase on the year before (37,970). In 2000, 85,638 of the 93,552 applications made for work permits were approved, further increasing the approval rate to 94.4 per cent.

Table 14.8: Total applications cleared, approved and refused 1995-2000

Total Applications Cleared ⁽¹⁾						
	Total	Work Permits Permits	First Permissions	Extensions	Change of Employment	Supplementary Employment
1995	38617	24918	3929	7745	2024	1
1996	41711	26747	4215	7977	2772	:
1997	48828	32212	4473	9161	2973	9
1998	58600	37970	5490	11180	3697	263
1999	65959	41922	6514	12728	4591	204
2000	93552	60848	10625	14121	7863	95
Total Applications Approved						
	Total	Work Permits Permits	First Permissions	Extensions	Change of Employment	Supplementary Employment
1995	32704	21688	2473	6841	1701	1
1996	36132	23596	2849	7297	2390	:
1997	42844	28675	3059	8471	2630	9
1998	51613	33659	3906	10441	3359	248
1999	58245	37269	4696	11937	4161	182
2000	85638	56484	8257	13469	7350	78
Total Applications Refused						
	Total	Work Permits Permits	First Permissions	Extensions	Change of Employment	Supplementary Employment
1995	4811	2610	1280	667	254	:
1996	4575	2562	1217	503	293	:
1997	4206	2528	1115	378	185	:
1998	4601	2799	1213	422	162	5
1999	5215	3051	1467	454	233	10
2000	5075	2741	1843	317	168	6

Source: Work Permits (UK)

Notes:

1. Includes withdrawn and transferred.

The majority (over 75%) of applications that are approved each year are work permits and first permissions. Extensions generally account for around 15 per cent of approvals and changes of employment around 5 per cent.

Total numbers of work permit refusals increased between 1995 (4,811) and 1999 (5,215) but in 2000 dropped to 5,075. The proportion of applications that are rejected has also fallen. In 1995, 12.5 per cent (4,811) of all applications were rejected, whereas in 2000 the figure was 5.4 per cent (5,075). Over the period most refusals were for work permits and first permissions. The business and commercial group had almost 50 per cent of all refusals across the years, sports and entertainment around 30 per cent with TWES applications experiencing the lowest rejection rate of fewer than 10 per cent.

The totals illustrated in table 14.8 exclude permits given to group workers. These permits are issued to individuals who wish to enter the UK and work as part of a group. Groups of one to nineteen members are issued individual permits under a group name; these are usually performing bands with no large tour entourage. Over the past five years the number of applications for 'group worker' permits has increased steadily from 14,216 in 1995 to 17,043 in 2000. The numbers of approvals has also increased, in 1995 82 per cent (11,672) of applications were approved and 11,285 work permits and first permissions were issued. In 2000, 92 per cent (16,536) of applications were approved and 15,835 work permits and first permissions were issued to group workers, a 14.5 per cent increase on the previous year (14,448). Groups of twenty or more members are designated 'bulk applications', these are not included in the total work permit applications or in the group workers total. No individual permits are issued but a letter of approval detailing the individuals within the group is sent to the employer and immigration services to allow them into the UK. They are usually large orchestras, internationally known performing artists with large tour entourage and theatre production/tour groups.

14.3.3 Long and short term applications approved 1995-2000

Statistics on long and short-term work permit issues are not directly comparable with earlier DBA data up to 1997. There are also some problems in matching the numbers of short and long term permits with total issues.

14.3.3.1 Long-term applications

Long-term permits are granted for periods of over 12 months. Total applications increased from 16,736 in 1995 to 55,189 in 2000, an increase of 230 per cent over the period (Table 14.9). From 1995 to 1998 there was a steadily increasing trend of between 12-15 per cent each year which rose to 23 per cent between 1998 and 1999 and to no less than 81 per cent in 2000 to a peak of 55,189. Consistently during the period over 70 per cent of the long-term applications that were approved were for work permits and first permissions; of these approximately 10 per cent were first permissions.

Table 14.9: Long and short-term applications –1995-2000

Total Long-Term Applications Approved 1995 – 2000

	Total	Work Permits	First Permission	In-Country Change of Employment	In-Country Extension	In Country Supplementary Employment	Work Permit Extension	In Country Technical Change
1995	16736	10328	1590	1338	3480	:	:	:
1996	18898	11565	1981	1784	3568	:	:	:
1997	21709	13906	1971	1897	3935	:	:	:
1998	24761	16615	2223	1990	3931	2	:	:
1999	30505	20446	2817	2616	4414	6	54	152
2000	55189	35389	6134	5648	7288	26	158	546

Total Short Term Applications Approved 1995 – 2000

	Total	Work Permits	First Permission	In-Country Change of Employment	In-Country Extension	In Country Supplementary Employment	Work Permit Extension	In Country Technical Change
1995	15957	11360	883	363	3361	:	:	:
1996	17234	12031	868	606	3729	:	:	:
1997	20698	14581	1055	637	4425	:	:	:
1998	23832	16068	1394	841	5528	:	1	:
1999	21865	14820	1170	621	5147	15	29	63
2000	30449	21095	2123	869	5857	52	166	287

Source: Work Permits (UK)

14.3.3.2 Short-term applications

Short-term permits are valid for up to 12 months. The total number of applications increased by 37 per cent between 1995 (15,957) and 1999 (21,865) and the total number of approvals also increased steadily. In 1999 the number of short-term approvals had dropped 9 per cent from 23,832 in 1998 to 21,865. In 2000 the number of short term applications that were approved rose significantly to 30,449, a 39 per cent increase on the 1999 figure. Previously the largest annual growth in short-term issues was the 20.1 per cent increase between 1996 and 1997.

14.3.4 Work permits and first permissions: industrial breakdown 2000

This section presents a brief summary of the industries receiving work permits and first permissions in 2000 and looks at the trend since 1995 (Table 14.10). Since the basis for the analysis is the employing industry and not the occupation of the individual a word of caution is appropriate. It cannot be assumed, for example, that those going into computer services are computer specialists, nor that computer specialists go only into the computer industry. Thus, the industrial group breakdown tells us less about the incoming skills than the breakdown by occupation. However, it does tell us which economic sectors make most use of foreign (non-EEA) labour. The occupational breakdown is discussed in detail in the following section.

Two industries dominated in 2000, *Health and medical services* (22.5%) and *Computer services* (19.7%): between them they were responsible for 27,242 permit issues. *Administrative, business and management*

services (14%) and *Financial services* (10.8%) were the other major industries. Six other industrial groups each received over a thousand permits.

There have been some major shifts in the industrial distribution since 1995. With the exception of *Agricultural activities*, and *Retail and related services*, all groups recorded increases. Overall the rate of increase in permit issues during the period was 167.3 per cent. Several industrial groups had gains well above average. The *Health and medical services* sector experienced a massive seven-fold increase and *Computer services* was not far behind with a six-fold gain. Other large rises were in the *Hospitality industry* and *Telecommunications* and, from a lower base, *Construction* and *Law services*. As a result, all of these became relatively more important as work permit recipients over the period. In other industries numbers of work permits grew more slowly but nevertheless they managed to double their numbers: *Administrative and business services*, *Education and cultural activities*, *Financial services*, *Transport* and even *Utilities*.

Two main points come from this brief analysis. First, the growth in numbers of work permits issued was something that occurred across virtually the whole economy. Second, computing and health stand out as the major growth zones: between them they accounted for 58.5 per cent of the total increase during the period.

14.3.5 Work permits and first permissions: occupational breakdown

Issues of work permits and first permissions for the years 1995-2000 were classified in the same way as the occupational breakdown in the LFS, at the two-digit level. It was explained above that from the mid-1990s increasing numbers of work permits and first permissions were given a generic classification of either 'Other' or 'Trainee', making it impossible to produce a listing of the number of issues for each individual occupation. However, this was not the case for 2000, allowing a detailed analysis of the occupational breakdown for that year.

During the years 1995-99 161,718 work permits and first permissions were issued (this number excludes group workers, who numbered around 60,000 over the period). Of these, 84,643 (52.3%) were classed as 'Other' and 22,164 (13.7%) as 'Trainee'. Thus, it is impossible to know the occupations of about two-thirds of those to whom permits were granted. A further 12,497 (7.7%) went to *Artistic and sport professionals*, leaving only just over a quarter to be divided between the other occupational categories. The lion's share of these were recorded as going to *Managers and administrators* and *Associate professionals*. Numbers in *Professional occupations* were in the hundreds with only a handful (or none) in any one year recorded for the other categories.

Table 14.10: Analysis of work permits and 1st permissions granted by industry for 1995 and 2000

Totals 1995 and 2000

	1995	2000	% Change
Admin, bus & man services	4041	9026	123.4
Agriculture activities	952	267	-72.0
Computer services	1827	12726	596.6
Construction & land serv	182	751	312.6
Education & cultural act.	1901	3832	101.6
Ent & leisure services	2919	4235	45.1
Extraction industries	424	1044	146.2
Financial services	3194	6997	119.1
Government	46	228	395.7
Health & medical services	1774	14516	718.3
Hosp, htl, cat & othr serv	320	1751	447.2
Law related services	258	881	241.5
Manufacturing	1987	2747	38.2
Real est & prop services	5	94	1780.0
Retail & related services	2826	927	-67.2
Secur & protect services	2	58	2800.0
Sporting activities	544	989	81.8
Telecommunications	458	2228	386.5
Transport	333	780	134.2
Utilities-gas, elect, water	168	498	196.4
Total	24161	64575	167.3

Percentage Breakdown 1995 and 2000

	1995	2000
Admin, bus & man services	16.7	14.0
Agriculture activities	3.9	0.4
Computer services	7.6	19.7
Construction & land serv	0.8	1.2
Education & cultural act.	7.9	5.9
Ent & leisure services	12.1	6.6
Extraction industries	1.8	1.6
Financial services	13.2	10.8
Government	0.2	0.4
Health & medical services	7.3	22.5
Hosp, htl, cat & othr serv	1.3	2.7
Law related services	1.1	1.4
Manufacturing	8.2	4.3
Real est & prop services	0.0	0.1
Retail & related services	11.7	1.4
Secur & protect services	0.0	0.1
Sporting activities	2.3	1.5
Telecommunications	1.9	3.5
Transport	1.4	1.2
Utilities-gas, elect, water	0.7	0.8
Total	100.0	100.0

Source: Work Permits (UK)

A clearer picture of the pattern of work permit issues can be had for 2000. Change in classification procedures meant that none were recorded generically as 'Trainee' or 'Other'. Three categories were dominant (Table 14.11): Associated professionals (52.2%), Professionals (23.5%) and Managers and administrators (20.9%). Three others, Craft and related, Sales and Plant and machine operatives, recorded no issues.

Those in health were the largest group of Associate professionals (22.4%), among whom 11,897 (18.4% of all issues) were nurses and a further 56 were midwives. Computer analysts and programmers were 16.2 per cent of issues. Amalgamating them with the 2,736 software and computer engineers recorded in the Professional occupations category gives a total of 13,206 IT work permits, 20.5 per cent of all issues. Business and finance associated professionals were another large group with around 6 per cent of issues. Most of the large category of Managers and administrators were recorded as unspecified managers and administrators, although nearly a thousand issues were to 'specialist managers'.

Table 14.11: Work permits and first permissions granted by occupation, 2000

	Number	Per cent
All Occupations	64574	100.0
Managers and Administrators	13487	20.9
- gen managers - government, large orgs	511	0.8
- prod managers - manufacturing etc	61	0.1
- specialist managers	980	1.5
- financial & office managers etc	23	0.0
- managers in farming, horticulture etc	1	0.0
- managers etc service industry	107	0.2
- managers, administrators nes	11804	18.3
Professional Occupations	15187	23.5
- natural scientists	51	0.1
- engineers and technologists	6626	10.3
- health professionals	1049	1.6
- teaching professionals	4368	6.8
- legal professionals	1089	1.7
- business & financial professionals	1238	1.9
- architects, town planners, surveyors	588	0.9
- professional occupations nes	178	0.3
Associate Professionals and Technical Occupations	33715	52.2
- computer analysts, programmers	10470	16.2
- ship, aircraft officers & controllers	32	0.0
- health associate professionals	14477	22.4
- business, finance associate profs	3876	6.0
- artistic, sports etc professionals	4783	7.4
- prof, technical occupations nes	77	0.1
Clerical and Secretarial Occupations	53	0.1
- secretarial etc personnel	45	0.1
- receptionist, telephonists etc	8	0.0
Craft and Related Occupations	0	0.0
Personal and Protective Service Occupations	1587	2.5
- catering occupations	1587	2.5
Sales Occupations	0	0.0
Plant and Machine Operatives	0	0.0
Other Occupations	545	0.8
- other farming related occupations	377	0.6
- other transport occupations	168	0.3

Source: Work Permits (UK)

The third major category was *Professional occupations*, within which several specialisms may be identified. The largest group is that of engineers and technologists who accounted for 6,625 issues, 10.3 per cent of the total. Teaching professionals accounted for 6.8 per cent (4,369) of all permits. Among them the largest group was researchers (2,060), with school and college teachers numbering 998. The health professionals group received 1,049 permits, 1.6 per cent of the total; of these only 322 (0.5%) were for medical practitioners, a group outnumbered by pharmacists (373 permits). Number of work permits going to the health sector as a whole, i.e. health professionals and associated professionals, totalled 15,526, 24 per cent of all issues. Business and financial and legal professionals each had over a thousand permits.

Outside these three categories the only other occupations with a substantial number of permits were in catering, 2.5 per cent of the total.

It is clear from these data that work permit issues are heavily concentrated in a small number of occupational groups. Of 85 occupational groups at the two-digit level, only 11 received over a thousand issues and a further seven over one hundred; 59 received none at all. The demand for foreign (non-EEA) labour is thus focused on a relatively narrow range of skills. Some of these skills are required in certain sectors of the economy only, for example, health, education, finance and entertainment. Others, like computing employees, engineers and technologists are required across the economy more widely as well as in specialist (e.g. IT) firms.

See Table 14.12

14.3.6 Work permits and first permissions for selected countries

There has been little systematic analysis of how far and in what ways the occupational distribution of work permits varies between origin countries. The countries in Table 14.12 have been selected for their levels of economic development and relationship to the UK. Australia, Canada and South Africa are representative of the Old Commonwealth; Japan and the USA are major partners in skill exchanges in the global economy; Poland and Russia reflect the new relationship with former command economies; India, Philippines, China and Malaysia reflect links with economies at various stages of development and where specific skill requirements are known to exist.

There are major variations between the groups. Australia and Canada had very similar patterns, the main exception being the greater importance of the former for health associate professionals. This is even more true for South Africa from where more than four in ten permits were in this group. The patterns for Japan and the US were different. For them management and administration were more significant than for any of the other nationalities. Substantial numbers of permits to Americans also went to computer analysts and programmers, business and finance associate professionals and entertainers and sportspeople, groups which are much less important among the Japanese. The patterns for Poles and Russians are broadly similar as far as Managers and administrators and Professionals were concerned, the main differences being the greater representation of the former in catering and the latter in entertainment and sports.

The other four countries each display an individuality. Almost all (6,327) from the Philippines were health associate professionals, 6,214 of them nurses. Nearly half of the Indians were computer programmers and analysts and 2,083 of the 2,616 engineers and technologists were either software engineers (1,911) or computer engineers (172). Combining these, 8,056 work permits and first permissions for IT occupations were issued to Indians in 2000, almost two-thirds of the total for that country.

The number of permits to Chinese has risen rapidly. Overall this group is characterised by small numbers of permits over a wide range of occupations. Relatively more than in other countries were in catering (64 chefs). *Associate professionals* included 179 in health, of whom 50 (3.2%) were nurses, but the largest group was 411 researchers who accounted for 26.7 per cent of the total (a further 32 were university lecturers).

Malaysians were more concentrated in *Professional occupations* than the other national groups listed, although the total number of permits was the smallest. Professional engineers and technologists was the largest group (147) but numbers of computer and software engineers included were small (12). Health associated professionals were also important, 89 out of 136 being nurses. Fifty-four Malaysians were in education professions (6%), of whom 45 were researchers.

Unfortunately, the data do not allow an assessment of trends that is reliable. However, it would appear from this initial analysis that the pattern of work permit issues by country of origin is very varied. For some countries, for example, the US and Japan, Australia and Canada, the work permit system continues to lubricate a global exchange of skills. Elsewhere, as with Poland and Russia, there is a moderate level intake of management, administrative and professional skills but little sign that these are sources of specific skills. In contrast, some countries have rapidly grown as consumers of work permits to become major suppliers of specific skills. The Philippines especially (for nurses) and India (for IT skills) are obvious cases, but other examples include China and, to a lesser extent, Malaysia for researchers.

Table 14.13: Comparison of LFS Stocks and work permit flows 2000

Percentage of Totals

	Work Permits	LFS (Non-EU)	LFS Total
Associate Professionals and Technical Occupations	52.2	12.6	10.4
Managers and Administrators	20.9	18.0	16.2
Professional Occupations	23.5	15.8	10.9
Personal and Protective Service Occupations	2.5	11.8	11.0
Other	0.8	6.2	7.7
Clerical and Secretarial Occupations	0.1	12.5	14.7
Craft and Related Occupations	0.0	7.1	11.7
Sales Occupations	0.0	6.9	8.2
Plant and Machine Operatives	0.0	8.8	8.8

Source: Work Permits (UK), LFS

14.3.7 Comparison of LFS stocks and work permit flows

How far does the occupational distribution of the work permit system match that of the UK economy as a whole? Table 14.13 shows that the main difference is in the *Associated professionals* category. Here there were more than five times as many work permits as the distribution of the total labour force would leave us to expect. The other major difference was among *Professional* workers where the ratio was more than 2:1. *Managers and administrators* were also over-represented among work permit holders, though the difference was less than in the other two categories. For all other categories work permits were minimal or non-existent.

Table 14.13 also confirms that the distribution of work permits is not consistent with that of the non-EU/EFTA foreign-born. Again it is *Associated professionals* where the main divergence between the two distributions lies: between 4 and 5 times as many work permits were issued here as might be expected given the pattern of the foreign-born stock.

Table 14.12: Work Permits and First Permissions granted by selected country and occupation, 2000

Absolute figures

	Australia	Canada	S Africa	Japan	USA	Poland	Russia	India	Philippines	China	Malaysia
All occupations	3979	1921	4437	2645	12654	687	1054	12292	6772	1541	866
Managers and Administrators	1097	579	589	1275	5247	143	218	1203	55	211	139
Professional Occupations	916	394	879	638	1767	104	177	2947	247	285	348
- engineers and technologists	200	139	213	506	932	63	91	2616	222	147	147
- health professionals	67	2	180	1	17	2	0	109	17	30	9
- teaching professionals	396	161	307	91	429	21	53	84	1	67	10
- business & financial professionals	100	34	91	30	154	6	16	84	3	26	119
Associate Professionals and Technical Occupations	1890	911	2918	604	5493	268	586	7879	6442	885	329
- computer analysts, programmers	486	253	526	138	1404	54	82	5973	82	108	73
- health associate professionals	535	115	1876	46	188	42	13	1301	6327	179	136
- business, finance associate profs	360	174	180	158	1470	41	97	257	20	135	59
- artistic, sports etc professionals	315	275	174	119	2020	89	231	182	9	35	8
Clerical and Secretarial Occupations	5	1	1	7	11	2	4	1	0	4	2
Craft and Related Occupations	18	10	19	17	56	1	2	47	0	4	5
Personal and Protective Service Occupations	25	21	21	70	38	135	62	194	28	125	43
- catering occupations	25	21	21	70	38	135	62	194	28	125	43
Sales Occupations	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Plant and Machine Operatives	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Other Occupations	28	5	10	34	42	34	5	21	0	27	0

Percentages	Australia	Canada	S Africa	Japan	USA	Poland	Russia	India	Philippines	China	Malaysia
All occupations	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Managers and Administrators	27.6	30.1	13.3	48.2	41.5	20.8	20.7	9.8	0.8	13.7	16.1
Professional Occupations	23.0	20.5	19.8	24.1	14.0	15.1	16.8	24.0	3.6	18.5	40.2
- engineers and technologists	5.0	7.2	4.8	19.1	7.4	9.2	8.6	21.3	3.3	9.5	17.0
- health professionals	1.7	0.1	4.1	0.0	0.1	0.3	0.0	0.9	0.3	1.9	1.0
- teaching professionals	10.0	8.4	6.9	3.4	3.4	3.1	5.0	0.7	0.0	4.3	1.2
- business & financial professionals	2.5	1.8	2.1	1.1	1.2	0.9	1.5	0.7	0.0	1.7	13.7
Associate Professionals and Technical Occupations	47.5	47.4	65.8	22.8	43.4	39.0	55.6	64.1	95.1	57.4	38.0
- computer analysts, programmers	12.2	13.2	11.9	5.2	11.1	7.9	7.8	48.6	1.2	7.0	8.4
- health associate professionals	13.4	6.0	42.3	1.7	1.5	6.1	1.2	10.6	93.4	11.6	15.7
- business, finance associate profs	9.0	9.1	4.1	6.0	11.6	6.0	9.2	2.1	0.3	8.8	6.8
- artistic, sports etc professionals	7.9	14.3	3.9	4.5	16.0	13.0	21.9	1.5	0.1	2.3	0.9
Clerical and Secretarial Occupations	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.3	0.1	0.3	0.4	0.0	0.0	0.3	0.2
Craft and Related Occupations	0.5	0.5	0.4	0.6	0.4	0.1	0.2	0.4	0.0	0.3	0.6
Personal and Protective Service Occupations	0.6	1.1	0.5	2.6	0.3	19.7	5.9	1.6	0.4	8.1	5.0
- catering occupations	0.6	1.1	0.5	2.6	0.3	19.7	5.9	1.6	0.4	8.1	5.0
Sales Occupations	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Plant and Machine Operatives	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Other Occupations	0.7	0.3	0.2	1.3	0.3	4.9	0.5	0.2	0.0	1.8	0.0

Source: Work Permits (UK)

14.3.8 Work permits and first permissions by country of origin

Table 14.14 summarises the total numbers of work permits and first permissions issued by country of origin for the period 1995 to 2000 for selected countries. Some noticeable shifts have occurred. Labour migration, as measured by work permit issues, is no longer so dominated by those from the US, India, Japan and Old Commonwealth countries. The US still tops the list of work permit issues in 2000 but its proportion of the total has fallen from around a third to a fifth. The proportion of permits issued to Japanese citizens fell from 10 to 4 per cent while numbers were almost static. The Old Commonwealth group had mixed experience. Canadian numbers grew at a slower rate than average over the period as a whole in contrast to those from Australasia and South Africa. However, all three grew more slowly than average during 1999-2000. Work permits issued to Polish, Russian and Czech citizens remain comparatively small in number, despite some increases. Between 1995 and 2000 their proportions of total issues have gone down.

The biggest change has been in the numbers of Indians granted permits, up from 1,997 to 12,292, an increase of over 500 per cent. Between 1999 and 2000 alone the number more than doubled, with the result that almost as many Indians as Americans now receive permits. Proportionately the biggest shift has been the increase (of over a thousand per cent) in the number of permits going to citizens of the Philippines, including a tripling in one year, 1999-2000. This makes them the third largest national group. Numbers of Chinese and Malays which, as indicated above, have not been targeted for specific skills, grew more slowly than those of Indians and Filipinos.

What these figures suggest is that the work permit system has successfully targeted selected nationalities for specific occupational skills and that this has resulted in a major shift in its geography. It is not clear how far this change is permanent or sustainable but it marks a significant departure from the origin pattern of recent decades.

Table 14.14: Work permits issued in the UK by country of origin 1995-2000

Thousands						
	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000
All nationalities	24161	26432	31720	37528	41950	64571
Australia and New Zealand	1575	1894	2640	3448	3790	5669
Canada	923	1109	1387	1484	1530	1921
South Africa	659	883	1367	2159	3306	4437
United States	7876	8673	9583	10160	9731	12654
Japan	2423	2593	2521	2700	2461	2645
Czech Republic	199	169	184	234	265	429
Poland	615	342	453	525	471	687
Russia	735	642	776	880	787	1054
India	1997	2679	4013	5678	5663	12292
Philippines	66	76	104	273	2254	6772
China	657	688	789	901	1064	1541
Malaysia	296	373	412	742	755	866

Per cent						
	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000
All nationalities	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Australia and New Zealand	6.5	7.2	8.3	9.2	9.0	8.8
Canada	3.8	4.2	4.4	4.0	3.6	3.0
South Africa	2.7	3.3	4.3	5.8	7.9	6.9
United States	32.6	32.8	30.2	27.1	23.2	19.6
Japan	10.0	9.8	7.9	7.2	5.9	4.1
Czech Republic	0.8	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.7
Poland	2.5	1.3	1.4	1.4	1.1	1.1
Russia	3.0	2.4	2.4	2.3	1.9	1.6
India	8.3	10.1	12.7	15.1	13.5	19.0
Philippines	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.7	5.4	10.5
China	2.7	2.6	2.5	2.4	2.5	2.4
Malaysia	1.2	1.4	1.3	2.0	1.8	1.3

Source: Work Permits (UK)

14.3.9 Health and IT sector: international distribution 2000

Figures 14.2-4 indicate the degree to which the UK labour market has become global in its search for specific skills. The maps use the same scale for direct comparison. The Philippines stands out clearly as the main source outside the EEA for nurses, with South Africa, Zimbabwe, India and Nigeria also important (Figure 14.2). The overall significance of sub-Saharan Africa is particularly noteworthy. The contrast with medical practitioners (doctors) is considerable (Figure 14.3): the internationalisation of the market is much less, with India and South Africa the main sources.

Figure 14.4 records the number of work permits by country issued to IT staff. It is a graphic depiction of the global nature of the sector and the degree to which the UK looks globally for its supplies of these skills. India is by far the main source, no other coming near it in scale. Overall, though, the network of suppliers includes countries at all stages of economic development. Non-EEA Europe is important, as are North America and South-east Asia, with sub-Saharan Africa, the Middle East and Latin America all being tapped.

Figure 14.2: Origin countries of nurses issued work permits in the UK, 2000



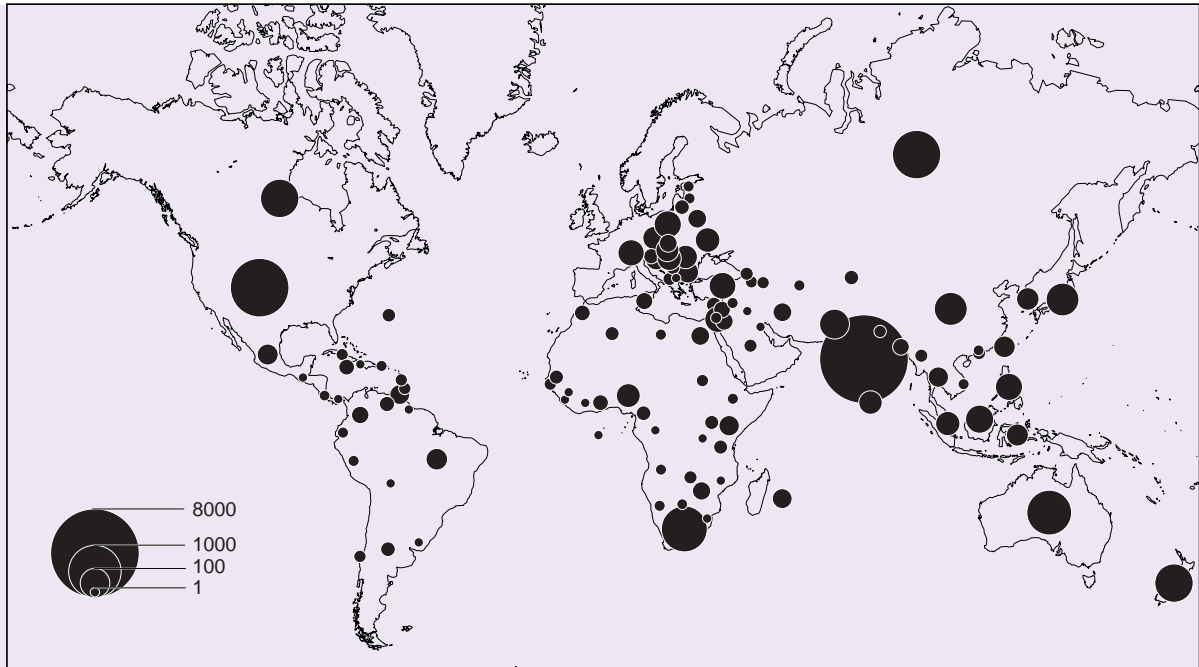
Source: MRU, using Work Permits (UK) data

Figure 14.3: Origin countries of medical practitioners issued work permits in the UK, 2000



Source: MRU, using Work Permits (UK) data

Figure 14.4: Origin countries of IT professionals issued work permits in the UK, 2000



Source: MRU, using Work Permits (UK) data

14.4 Work permit summary

During the last half century or so the work permit system has been through major changes. Until the 1960s it was principally focused on the less skilled and on European sources. At this time, Commonwealth citizens did not require work permits. Subsequently the system became much diminished in scope. Only a few thousand long-term permits were issued, largely to managers and professionals; around the same number of short-term permits went mainly to artistic, entertainment and sports persons. During the 1970s and 1980s numbers of work permits slowly increased. Although there was some sympathy with the state of the labour market, the regulatory pattern operated largely through a system of rules not primarily responding to labour market demands. The granting of a work permit was related mainly to the needs of transnational employers with international internal labour markets within which managers, administrators and professionals moved around the world. The system had a strong geographical expression, dominated by 'brain exchanges' with other advanced economies which are the UK's principal trading partners outside the EU.

In the 1990s and especially in the last few years the work permit system has changed dramatically in the scale and nature of its operation. New major labour suppliers have emerged and it now seems that the system is more concerned with supplying specific skills than has been the case hitherto. However, it is not yet clear how broadly based are the skills coming in. At present the main increases have been in a small number of occupations, mainly associated with IT and health.

These changes have brought about significant shifts, in the short-term at any rate, in the importance of supply countries. The traditional origins, notably the US and Japan, have become relatively less important. New major suppliers, especially India and the Philippines, are associated with specific skills in ways that the older sources are not. Thus, while 10 years ago the occupational skills profile among supplying countries was fairly uniform, the same cannot be said today.

14.4.1 Other labour immigration schemes

In addition to the work permit schemes, there are two other schemes which are designed to bring in foreign workers. These are the Seasonal Agricultural Workers scheme and the Working Holidaymakers scheme. Both are operated through the Home Office.

Table 14.15: Agricultural workers admitted to the United Kingdom, 1999-2000

	1999				2000 (Jan - Jun)			
	Female	Male	Unknown	Total	Female	Male	Unknown	Total
Argentina	-	1	-	1	1	2	-	3
Australia	4	2	-	6	3	1	-	4
Bangladesh	2	3	-	5	-	-	-	-
Brazil	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	1
Bulgaria	528	637	20	1185	492	620	26	1138
Canada	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	1
China	-	12	-	12	1	26	-	27
Croatia	1	-	-	1	-	-	-	-
Cyprus	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	1
Czech Republic	117	149	1	267	95	102	1	198
Czechoslovakia	1	3	-	4	3	2	-	5
Egypt	-	2	-	2	-	-	-	-
Ghana	-	15	-	15	2	1	-	3
Hungary	44	48	1	93	45	41	-	86
India	2	-	-	2	-	-	-	-
Jamaica	1	-	-	1	-	-	-	-
Kenya	1	2	-	3	-	1	-	1
Morocco	-	-	1	1	-	1	-	1
New Zealand	2	-	-	2	1	-	-	1
Nigeria	-	2	-	2	-	-	-	-
Pakistan	1	-	-	1	-	-	-	-
Poland	1768	1670	30	3468	1242	1066	32	2340
Romania	110	193	14	317	108	147	6	261
Russia	70	58	1	129	83	121	4	208
Slovakia	123	184	3	310	143	173	3	319
Slovenia	1	1	-	2	-	4	-	4
Somalia	-	1	-	1	-	-	-	-
South Africa	1	-	-	1	-	1	-	1
South Korea	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	1
Sri Lanka	2	-	-	2	-	1	-	1
Switzerland	-	1	-	1	-	-	-	-
Tanzania	-	5	-	5	-	-	-	-
Tunisia	1	-	-	1	-	-	-	-
Turkey	11	12	5	28	3	7	-	10
Uganda	-	1	-	1	-	-	-	-
USA	-	-	-	-	2	1	-	3
Yugoslavia	-	2	-	2	-	-	-	-
Other Africa	3	20	1	24	-	11	-	11
Other Americas	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	1
Other Europe	-	4	-	4	-	1	-	1
Other former USSR	1484	2066	109	3659	1472	1920	129	3521
Other Asia	10	14	1	25	42	30	6	78
Other former Yugoslavia	21	117	4	142	42	65	7	114
Stateless	18	16	-	34	8	20	1	29
Total	4327	5241	191	9759	3789	4369	215	8373

Source: Home Office

Table 14.16: Working holiday makers admitted to the United Kingdom, 1999-2000

	1999				2000 (Jan - Jun)			
	Female	Male	Unknown	Total	Female	Male	Unknown	Total
Algeria	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	1
Argentina	-	1	-	1	-	-	-	-
Australia	10913	7698	200	18811	5641	3936	81	9658
Bangladesh	1	7	1	9	1	3	1	5
Barbados	-	3	-	3	1	5	-	6
Bosnia	-	1	-	1	-	-	-	-
British Overseas Citizens	11	4	1	16	1	1	-	2
Bulgaria	1	1	-	2	1	-	-	1
Canada	2352	1328	49	3729	1404	730	25	2159
China	6	2	-	8	2	1	-	3
Colombia	-	1	-	1	-	1	-	1
Croatia	1	-	-	1	-	-	-	-
Cyprus	8	13	-	21	1	-	-	1
Czech Republic	2	-	-	2	1	-	-	1
Egypt	1	-	-	1	-	-	-	-
Ethiopia	-	1	-	1	-	-	1	1
Ghana	40	77	5	122	6	10	-	16
Guyana	7	2	-	9	3	4	-	7
Hong Kong	1	-	-	1	6	1	-	7
India	13	33	-	46	12	15	2	29
Indonesia	2	-	-	2	-	-	-	-
Iran	-	1	-	1	-	-	-	-
Israel	-	1	-	1	-	-	-	-
Jamaica	128	60	3	191	41	25	-	66
Japan	2	11	-	13	3	3	-	6
Jordan	-	1	-	1	-	-	-	-
Kenya	9	4	1	14	3	1	-	4
Lebanon	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	1
Libya	-	1	-	1	-	-	-	-
Malaysia	72	43	3	118	38	27	-	65
Malta	11	11	1	23	5	3	-	8
Mauritius	9	12	-	21	1	5	-	6
Morocco	2	-	-	2	-	-	-	-
New Zealand	4110	3879	86	8075	1941	1703	35	3679
Nigeria	16	22	-	38	7	9	-	16
Pakistan	7	34	2	43	2	29	2	33
Peru	-	1	-	1	-	-	-	-
Philippines	7	2	-	9	1	1	-	2
Poland	-	2	-	2	-	1	-	1
Romania	1	1	-	2	-	-	-	-
Russia	8	7	-	15	1	2	-	3
Saudi Arabia	1	2	-	3	-	-	-	-
Sierra Leone	-	1	-	1	-	-	-	-
Singapore	33	15	1	49	11	3	-	14
Slovakia	2	1	-	3	2	-	-	2
Slovenia	-	1	-	1	-	-	-	-
Somalia	2	-	-	2	-	-	-	-
South Africa	6120	6868	212	13200	2754	3073	99	5926
South Korea	1	4	-	5	-	1	-	1
Sri Lanka	8	10	-	18	3	8	1	12
Sudan	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	1
Switzerland	1	-	-	1	2	-	-	2
Syria	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	1

Taiwan	-	-	-	-	1	1	-	2
Tanzania	1	2	-	3	-	1	-	1
Thailand	-	2	-	2	3	3	-	6
Trinidad & Tobago	213	108	5	326	82	63	-	145
Turkey	1	1	-	2	3	1	1	5
Uganda	1	2	-	3	1	1	-	2
USA	16	31	-	47	11	14	-	25
USSR	1	-	-	1	-	-	-	-
Yemen	-	1	-	1	-	-	-	-
Zaire	61	64	2	127	1	5	-	6
Zambia	15	17	3	35	8	9	-	17
Zimbabwe	124	133	2	259	68	52	1	121
Other Africa	128	154	8	290	83	91	5	179
Other Americas	8	9	-	17	3	-	-	3
Other Asia	2	2	-	4	2	-	-	2
Other Middle East	2	1	-	3	-	-	-	-
Other Oceania	9	7	-	16	4	1	-	5
Other former USSR	8	6	-	14	-	1	-	1
Other former Yugoslavia	-	1	-	1	-	-	-	-
Stateless	3	2	-	5	2	-	-	2
Total	24502	20710	585	45797	12169	9845	254	22268

Source: Home Office

14.4.2 Seasonal agricultural workers

The UK has one seasonal worker scheme, in agriculture (Tables 14.15-14.16). The origins of the scheme go back to the period after the Second World War when Displaced Persons were employed as seasonal agricultural labourers. Systematic data on the scheme have only been collected since 1992, however. Overseas citizens who are not EEA nationals may be admitted to the UK to work at certain agricultural camps. These seasonal agricultural workers must be recruited under schemes approved by the Home Office. The scheme is operated by a small number (currently seven) Scheme Operators, normally farming companies. The total number recruited each year is governed by a quota, until 2001 set at 10,000, though actual numbers were normally below this level. The quota per Operator presently ranges from 120 to 4,133. In 2001, the quota was raised to a new ceiling of 15,200.

All new recruits must be students in full time education abroad, and aged between 18 and 25. Applicants must present proof of age and status to Scheme Operators. Operators may, however, issue Home Office work cards to workers who proved reliable in the past and are returning at the express wish of the farmer, but who do not meet these criteria. Those over 25 should be invited back for supervisory tasks and in small numbers. Workers should not take any other employment in the UK and leave at the end of their agricultural season. The period of work lasts for a maximum of 3 months, and should not extend beyond 30th November.

The number of workers admitted has risen from 3,560 in 1992 to 9,759 in 1999 and 8,373 in the first half of 2000 (Tables 14.15). The majority are male, though their proportion has been falling, from 67 per cent in 1992 to 45.3 per cent in 2000. The scheme is largely aimed at workers from Central and Eastern Europe who account for 96-98 per cent of the total. Poland has been the main origin but its importance has slipped latterly, from 39 per cent of all admissions in 1998 to 28 per cent in 2000. The former Soviet Union has become more important, up from 27 per cent in 1998 to 44.5 per cent in 2000. After a period in which the geographical pattern by origin changed little after the Scheme started, there now seems to be a marked shift eastwards.

14.4.3 Working holidaymakers

This is a scheme designed to allow young workers from Commonwealth countries to work in the UK for up to 18 months. Annual numbers have risen from around 23,000 in 1990 to nearly 46,000 in 1999 and 22,300 in the first six months of 2000. It is not possible to know how many of them will be working at any one time, nor what their total contribution to the labour market is. Source countries are dominated by the 'Old Commonwealth', with Australians the largest group, around 41 per cent in 1999 and 43 per cent in 2000 (Table 14.16). Since 1994 numbers of South Africans have grown rapidly, and in 2000 constituted the second largest group (27%). Between them Australia, Canada, New Zealand and South Africa account for around 97 per cent of all recorded in the scheme during the 1990s.

A clear majority of working holidaymakers continue to be female (55%) but there are some differences between source countries in the balance of the sexes. Australians, Canadians and Jamaicans are much more likely to be female than the other groups, while South Africans are predominantly male.

Foreign working holidaymakers are now a significant group in the labour market. While little is known about their characteristics it may reasonably be assumed that they are generally well educated and adaptable. There is no regional breakdown in the statistics for working holidaymakers, nor is it known what jobs they take. It is to be expected that London and other major tourist centres would employ the bulk of them, where they provide a highly flexible element in the labour market.

14.5 Summary of UK labour immigration 1999

One of the features of UK labour immigration emerging from this and previous chapters is the diversity of routes of entry. Table 14.17 is an attempt to provide a summary of the situation for 1999. The table lists the numbers entering through the various routes and in doing so it places the work permit system into a broader context. Overall, they sum up to around 184,000 labour immigrants in one form or another. Not all of these can be assumed to be full-time workers and some of them are seasonal. Furthermore, the categories listed are only those which are separately recorded: the total figure is unknown but is almost certainly higher than that here.

Table 14.17: UK labour immigration 1999: routes of entry

	Number	Per cent
Work Permits(1)	55494	30.2
Working Holidaymakers	45800	25.0
EU(2)	30000	16.3
Domestic Employees	14900	8.1
Au Pairs	14600	8.0
UK Ancestry	11900	6.5
Seasonal Agricultural Workers	9760	5.3
Ministers of Religion	1050	0.6
Total	183504	100.0

Source: Home Office, IPS, Work Permits (UK)

Notes:

1. Work permits and first permissions includes group workers.

2. IPS Figure.

Work permit holders constituted the largest group, around 30 per cent of the total. A further 16.3 per cent were employed immigrants from the EU. This means that over half of the foreign workers entered under various other schemes. Of these, working holidaymakers constituted the largest group, a quarter of the total. Domestic employees (domestic servants in the employ of other immigrants) and au pairs each accounted for just about eight per cent of the total. Foreigners with UK Grandparent Ancestry, entering specifically to work, accounted for 6.5 per cent, with Ministers of Religion the smallest group.

The figure of 184,504 makes no allowance for whether those involved work full or part-time, nor the length of time spent in the country and working. Some will work continuously, others seasonally, others intermittently. What is not at issue is that they span a broad spectrum of the labour market. In addition, it is not just migrants entering through these categories that have an impact on the labour market, but also students, spouses and in the future, their children.

Research questions

- How significant has asylum immigration been in overall immigration?
- How many asylum seekers may also have entered the labour market?
- What are the characteristics of asylum seekers?

Main findings

- Asylum applicants have formed a significant proportion of total non-British immigration in the 1990s, varying from about one sixth to one third of the total annual inflow.
- Different categories of asylum seeker are subject to different conditions for access to the labour market. Data limitations preclude estimates of numbers actually working, or the numbers who may have left the country voluntarily. By examining the number of people who have received refugee or Exceptional Leave to Remain status over the last ten years, data show that around 138,000 are legally entitled to work. A further 28,800 outstanding asylum applicants were also eligible to work at the end of August 2001.
- Asylum seekers are predominantly of working age and some have spouses and children who are also potential recruits to the labour force, present or future.

15.1 Introduction

There is some debate about whether and how asylum seekers should be incorporated into recent discussions about the potential economic impacts of immigration in the UK. The Government's position is that economic potential is not a criterion in judging an asylum application. However, it is reasonable to ask to what extent asylum seekers, refugees and even rejected asylum seekers might contribute to the UK economy – especially given the lengthy periods many can be expected to have to wait for a decision on their applications. Interest in this question has been fuelled by a series of academic studies which have found that even though there is often a higher proportion of qualifications and skills among asylum seekers than within the UK population, asylum seekers and refugees are consistently the most underemployed group in Britain, and that where they are employed their potential is not fully used¹.

In common with the rest of this report, the concern here is to ask what the existing data can tell us about asylum seekers in the UK economy in the last decade. In contrast with the rest of the report, there is a striking lack of data with which to work, and this limits the extent of the analysis. After describing in greater detail the data limitations, the first part of the chapter analyses how important asylum migration has been in overall

¹ Relatively recent studies include: Al-Rasheed (1992), Bloch (1999), Bravo (1993), Carey-Wood et al. (1995), Home Office Research and Planning Unit (1993), Marshall (1989), Refugee Council (1992), Sivanandan (1990).

immigration to the UK. The second part examines which asylum seekers can enter the labour market, and the third explores the feasibility of identifying how many asylum seekers may have entered. The final section uses the published data to analyse the age structure of asylum seekers in the UK, as this may impact their potential contributions in the labour market.

15.2 Data

In common with the rest of this report, the analysis here focuses on macro-level data. Initially, a number of reservations concerning the available data need to be sign-posted. The Labour Force Survey used in earlier chapters of this report will pick up a sample of asylum seekers and refugees, including their employment and wage outcomes, as part of the general population². As such, their labour market outcomes will, to a certain extent, be included in the analyses in earlier chapters. However, the LFS does not specifically identify different types of migrants.

The data sources which specifically focus on asylum seekers and refugees often lack relevant information. For example neither the qualifications, nor the skills, nor the employment experience of asylum seekers entering the UK are systematically recorded. Similarly, there are no systematic data on the number of asylum seekers who apply for, or are given, permission to work after arrival in the UK, nor on the details of their subsequent employment. In addition, there are no data – or even estimates – of the total number of asylum seekers or refugees who subsequently leave the country voluntarily.

Even where relevant data sets are available on asylum seekers, they are often incomplete. The principal source of data on asylum seekers for this section are annual Home Office Statistical Bulletins, which provide a range of asylum statistics, covering numbers and certain characteristics of applications and decisions. However, there are significant gaps. For example, statistics are sometimes available only for principal applicants, which is significant as an asylum seeker's spouse and children (over 16) are permitted to enter the labour market after a positive decision on his or her application. Where they are available this report has used data that include dependants. In addition, it is impossible precisely to distinguish from the available statistics the length of time that asylum seekers have been present in the UK (or, as noted above, when they leave). This is significant because under current regulations asylum seekers for whom a decision is still pending, but who have been present for over six months, can be granted restricted access to the UK labour market.

15.3 How important are asylum seekers in overall immigration to the UK?

Table 15.1 shows the number of asylum applications, total non-British immigration, and the former as a proportion of the latter, for the UK between 1990 and 2000. The asylum data are adjusted to include an estimate of the number of dependants. It is important to note that at least some applications included in the totals will represent fraudulent multiple applications or duplicate files or re-applications, and thus the totals are estimated maxima. The most significant trends they display are a peak in 1991, a dramatic reduction in applications between 1991 and 1992, and a gradual increase in applications towards the late 1990s, concluding in an historic high in 2000. The data for total non-British immigration, which have been adjusted to include 'category switchers' (the majority of whom are likely to be asylum seekers), are available only up to 1999. They demonstrate a broadly comparable trend – after a reduction during the mid-1990s following the immigration of some 235,000 people in 1990, the numbers climbed to their highest level during the decade in 1999, when immigration amounted to 331,800.

² The LFS sample is taken primarily from private households, but also includes NHS accommodation and students in halls of residence – it excludes other communal establishments. Asylum seekers living in large communal establishments would therefore be excluded from the survey

The combination of these two different sets of trends has resulted in no discernible trends for asylum applications as a proportion of total non-British immigration. The ratio value peaked in 1991 at one third, coinciding with a peak in asylum applications and a reduction in other immigration after the 1990 peak. Thereafter the ratio value has varied between 16.2 per cent (1996) and 27.5 per cent (1999). At a general level, however, it can be concluded that asylum applications have, over the last decade, accounted for a significant proportion of total non-British immigration into the UK, varying from about one sixth of the total to about one third.

See Table 15.1

15.4 Which asylum seekers can enter the labour force?

Not all asylum seekers and their dependants are legally eligible to work. The length of time they have spent in the UK, combined with their position in the asylum procedure influence whether, and under what conditions, asylum seekers can enter the labour force.

See Table 15.2

Table 15.2 distinguishes four different categories of asylum seeker, and summarises the conditions for their access to the labour market (and social assistance and education). First, asylum seekers who are still awaiting an outcome on their application can apply for permission to work six months after application. The second and third categories cover those asylum seekers granted either refugee status or Exceptional Leave to Remain (ELR), both of which statuses entail immediate access to the labour market without the requirement of any permission. Finally, rejected asylum seekers can apply for permission to work six months after their initial application, if an appeal has been lodged, and if refusal was not made within 6 months of the application being submitted.

Table 15.3 shows the total number of applications and initial decisions in each of these four groups between 1990 and 2000. Initial decisions in a given year do not necessarily relate to applications in the same year.

See Table 15.3

15.5 How many asylum seekers and refugees enter the labour market?

It is impossible to translate the data on total asylum applications and subsequent decisions presented in Table 15.3 into an estimation of the potential impact of asylum seekers on the UK economy for the following reasons:

- First, a significant proportion of the asylum seekers identified in Table 15.3 will have left the country, for example after their asylum application has been refused or because of a change in circumstances in their country of origin.
- Second, as noted above, the number of applications can be higher than the actual number of people, as a result of some degree of fraudulent multiple applications or duplicate files or re-application. Equally the revision in September 2001 to the numbers of undecided applications, based on a physical count of files on 31 August 2001, implies that between 1997 and 1999 either decisions have been over recorded, or applications have been under recorded, or the previous physical count (December 1996) was inaccurate.
- Third, a proportion of their dependants will be children too young legally to work.

Table 15.1: Asylum applications (including dependants) as a proportion of total non-British immigration into the UK, 1990-2000

	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000 ⁽¹⁾
Asylum applications	38195	73400	32300	28000	42200	55000	37000	41500	58500	91200	93605
Total non-British immigration ⁽²⁾⁽³⁾	234600	220100	187100	180600	203500	229400	227800	244200	290200	331800	:
Asylum applications as a ratio of total non-British immigration	16.3	33.3	17.3	15.6	20.7	24	16.2	17	20.2	27.5	:

Sources: Home Office Statistical Bulletins 1995-1999; Monthly Bulletins 2000; ONS International Migration (1999)

Notes:

1. Data for 2000 are provisional
2. Figures based on IPS data but adjusted to include an estimate of asylum applications
3. These data cover all categories of migration
: no values available

Table 15.2: Labour market, social assistance and education access for different categories of asylum seekers in the UK

	Asylum seekers	Geneva Convention status	ELR	Rejected asylum seekers
Labour market	Access if no decision taken after 6 months, only with permission to work	Immediate access without a work permit requirement	Immediate access without a work permit requirement	Access if no decision taken after 6 months, only with permission to work
Social assistance	Access to social assistance; no time limits for access; assistance in cash or kind; access to full health care.	Access to social assistance; no time limits for access; assistance in cash; access to full health care.	Access to social assistance; no time limits for access; assistance in cash or kind; access to full health care.	Access to social assistance; no time limits for access; assistance in cash or kind; access to full health care.
Education	Access to primary, secondary and university education, and language courses.	Access to primary, secondary and university education, language and vocational courses.	Access to primary, secondary and university education, language and vocational courses.	Access to primary and secondary education.

Source: IGC Comparison of Asylum Systems (unpublished)

- Fourth, a proportion of principal applicants are unaccompanied minors who are too young to work
- Even if asylum seekers are entitled to enter the labour market, they may not be able to find a job, and some may not have chosen to enter the labour market for, perhaps, health or cultural reasons.
- There are no data on the number of people from any of these four specific categories who have actually entered the labour market over the last ten years

The following figures attempt to identify the numbers of asylum applicants who have become eligible to work in each of the four categories, but these figures need to be interpreted in the light of the caveats above. The figures on those eligible to work is very much an upper limit on the actual numbers.

Asylum Seekers

- At the end of August 2001, it is estimated that there were 28,800 outstanding asylum applications which had been lodged over six months previously. If these people were still in the country, they would have been legally entitled to work, although it is not known how many applications for permission to work were actually made, or how many actually found work. This figure changes over time, depending on the number of asylum applications and the speed of the asylum decision process.

Refugee Status (excluding cases under backlog clearance exercise)

- Between 1990 and 1999 a total of 39,265 asylum seekers and their dependants were granted refugee status and, if still in the country, became eligible to work
- In 2000 a further 12,135 principal applicants were granted refugee status

ELR (excluding cases under backlog clearance exercise)

- Between 1990 and 1999 a total of 79,290 asylum seekers and their dependants were granted ELR and, if still in the country, became eligible to work
- In 2000 a further 12,645 principal applicants were granted ELR

Rejected asylum seekers (excluding cases under backlog clearance exercise)

- Between 1990-1999 a total of 225,295 asylum applications were refused. Many of these people may have returned home voluntarily, and some will have been removed. In 2000 a further 92,330 applications were refused. Between 1992 and 2000 (Table 15.4), Home Office statistics record a total of 44,175 total removals or departures, including asylum applicants as well as rejected asylum seekers. However, it is impossible to estimate how many more rejected asylum seekers have left the country voluntarily, without notifying the Home Office.
- At the end of 2000, there were around 15,000 asylum appeals within the Home Office which had not yet been sent on to the Immigration Appellate Authority (IAA), a proportion of which will have been eligible to work if their initial decision was taken more than 6 months after the initial application was lodged (Home Office estimates, subject to revision).

Table 15.4: Removals and voluntary departures of asylum applicants, excluding dependants, 1992-2000 ^{(1) (2)}

Year	Total
1992	1345
1993	1820
1994	2220
1995	3170
1996	4820
1997	7165
1998	6990
1999	7665
2000 ⁽³⁾	8980

Source: Home Office Statistical Bulletin, 1999

Notes:

1. These data are currently available for principal applicants only
2. These figures are rounded to the nearest five
3. Data for 2000 are provisional

Given the problems in identifying the numbers of asylum seekers and refugees who are still in the country, and eligible to work, one alternative would be to use figures on the numbers of people who have been accepted as refugees or granted ELR as a measure of the potential impact of asylum seekers on the labour force. This is a more robust figure, since these people are still in the country. From 1991 to 2000 138,135 refugees and those with ELR status were accepted for settlement. A further 28,800 asylum applicants were also eligible to work as at the end of August 2001.

15.6 What is the age structure of asylum seekers?

So far this report has looked firstly at how many asylum seekers enter the UK, and secondly how many of them may be entitled to enter the labour market. Data limitations preclude analysis of the number of asylum seekers in different categories who actually take up the opportunity to work, and of their impacts once they have entered the labour market – except insofar as they are captured by the LFS data as noted above. A limited insight only is however provided by data on the age structure of asylum seekers, in that they at least allow us to consider the extent to which asylum seekers fall within economically active age groups.

The published data allow some preliminary observations about the age structure of asylum seekers. Table 15.5 shows, in percentage terms and for age groups, the age structure of principal applicants for asylum between 1990 and 2000. Numbers and more detailed breakdowns are available from the Immigration Research and Statistics Service of the Home Office.

See Table 15.5

What the data in Table 15.5 demonstrate is that between 1990 and 2000, the most important age group for asylum seekers in the UK has been the 25–29 group. This group has consistently accounted for one quarter or more of all applications. To extend the analysis, asylum seekers between the ages of 21 and 39 have consistently accounted for over 70 per cent of all applications during this period. A clear conclusion is that asylum seekers are youthful, and are dominated by those in the most economically active age groups. The same is true for those eventually granted refugee status or ELR – in 1999 their median age respectively was

26 and 34, and in 2000 (provisionally) 28 and 28. Furthermore, it is worth re-iterating that the data in Table 15.5 are only for principal applicants. Data for 2000 indicates that only 10% of principal applicants have dependants, a similar proportion to most of the 1990s, and that most applicants who do have dependants have either one or two.

15.7 Conclusions

In the context of data limitations outlined at the beginning, this chapter has presented figures on the number of asylum seekers entering the UK, and their age profiles. It has also given an indication of the proportion that – if still in the country – are entitled legally to enter the labour market. The analysis invites three wider comments, concerning distinctions between the quantitative and qualitative impacts of asylum seekers on the UK economy, their short- and long-term impacts and their potential and actual impacts.

First, in assessing the potential contribution of asylum seekers to the UK economy, it is probably worthwhile distinguishing quantitative from qualitative evaluations. This report has shown that asylum seekers accounted annually for between one sixth and one third of all non-British immigrants to the UK during the 1990s. It is more difficult to evaluate the qualitative impact of asylum seekers in the labour market, but preliminary analysis shows that the majority of asylum seekers are of an economically-active age, which in other contexts have been found to provide particularly successful migrants.

It is also useful to distinguish the short-term from long-term impacts of asylum seekers in the UK labour market. The numbers of asylum seekers and rejected asylum seekers seeking appeals who are eligible to work are not static. If backlog clearance exercises continue to be successful, then the proportion of people who fall within the first category should fall. Their impact will then depend on the decision made on their application, and whether they lodge an appeal. The implication is that while in the short-term there are significant numbers of asylum seekers who can contribute to the UK economy, in the longer-term their numbers may fall.

Finally, and perhaps most importantly, a distinction needs to be made between potential and actual impact on the UK economy. This chapter has identified those categories of asylum seekers entitled to work. It has not enumerated those who actually work. It has indicated that their age profiles may incline them towards success. But it has not charted the actual experiences of asylum seekers and refugees in the labour market, where previous research shows their potential is often not realised. In sum, this chapter has estimated the number of asylum seekers who potentially may be able to contribute to the UK economy.

Table 15.3: Decisions on asylum applications (including dependants) in the UK, 1990-2000

	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000
Asylum applications	38195	73400	32300	28000	42200	55000	37000	41500	58500	91200	93605
Refugee status	1590	800	1900	2860	1395	2200	3660	6210	8245	10405	:
ELR	3610	2950	21680	15480	5445	6780	7510	4740	6455	4640	:
Refusals	855	5390	35480	18550	20915	26220	38180	37585	28205	13915	:

Source: Home Office Statistical Bulletin (1999) and Monthly Bulletins (2000)

Notes:

: data unavailable other than for primary applicants only

Table 15.5: Applications received for asylum in the UK, excluding dependants, by age, 1990-2000 (per cent) ⁽¹⁾⁽²⁾

	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000 ⁽³⁾
0-18	4	3	4	3	2	2	3	5	10	5	8
18-20	9	5	9	8	8	8	8	10	9	10	9
21-24	17	11	18	18	18	19	20	21	20	20	19
25-29	25	30	26	28	29	32	29	27	26	25	27
30-34	23	30	19	19	20	18	17	16	16	17	17
35-39	10	10	10	10	11	10	11	10	9	10	9
40-49	7	7	9	8	8	7	8	7	7	10	8
50-59	2	2	4	3	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
60+	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	1	1	1

Source: Home Office Statistical Bulletin, 1995-99; Unpublished Home Office data

Note:

1. Percentages rounded to the nearest whole per cent

2. These data are currently available for primary applicants only

3. Data for 2000 are provisional

This chapter summarises the main findings of each of the preceding chapters, presents the main general conclusions and indicates the principal policy implications of the data analysis.

16.1 Summary of main findings

16.1.1 How does the UK compare with other EU/EFTA states? (Chapter 3)

In Western European terms the UK is a major immigration country. It has the third largest foreign population and labour force, after Germany and France, with about 11 per cent of Western Europe's stock of foreign citizens and 13 per cent of its foreign labour.

Since the early 1990s the annual rate of increase of the foreign population in the UK has exceeded that of the region as a whole. However, compared with its neighbours, the UK's stock of both foreign citizens and labour as a proportion of its total population and labour force is low and relatively high proportions of the UK's stocks and flows of immigrants are from high income countries.

16.1.2 Migration flows into and out of the UK 1975-99 (Chapter 4)

The overall picture is one of substantial increase in inflow with a more constant level of outflow, resulting in a net addition to the UK population of some 1.2 million people between 1981 and 1999. At the beginning of the 1980s there was an annual net loss of people. By the end of the 1990s the adjusted annual net inflow was approaching 200,000. Although the figures for 1998 and 1999 were exceptionally high, from 1994 onwards annual net figures were higher than any previous ones since 1981. As a result, between 1994 and 1999 there was a net inflow to the UK of over three quarters of a million people.

The pattern of movement for most of the period has been a net outflow of British citizens and a larger net inflow of the non-British. The latter was consistently above 60,000 per annum from 1983 onwards and consistently above 120,000 from 1995 to 1999.

The composition of the total inflow of non-British citizens has undergone many changes. In the early 1980s New Commonwealth and Other Foreign nationals were the largest components. By the late 1990s the key feature was the big increase in inflows of Other Foreign citizens, from 77,000 in 1997 to 143,000 in 1999, with New and Old Commonwealth and EU citizens comprising smaller flows of fairly similar size.

The composition of the total outflow of non-British also changed over the period. In the early 1980s Other Foreign nationals were the dominant group, a role taken by EU nationals by the late 1990s. One striking aspect was the very small size of the New Commonwealth outflow throughout the period compared to other groups.

These patterns of inflow and outflow in combination produced net inflows of almost every group into the UK in every year from 1981 to 1999. However, there were major differences in numbers. New Commonwealth citizens were the dominant group up to 1996, when Other Foreign became the largest component. Net inflows of Old Commonwealth citizens were relatively small until 1998-9. Net inflows from the EU alternated between periods of small and large net inflows, with a very sharp drop in 1999.

Both inflows and outflows contained a slightly higher proportion of males than females, particularly in the earlier years of the period and in the outflow. Women have become a greater part of the inflow latterly. Male predominance in the outflow was more marked among the British. The combined outcome of these patterns of movement was a ratio of six women to four men between 1983 and 1999, but with the sex balance in the net inflow closer than this in the late 1990s.

In terms of age breakdown, the largest component of the total inflow throughout the whole period was the 15-24 age group, with the 25-34 group the second largest. By the late 1990s young adults were two-thirds of the total inflow, the highest figure recorded in the period studied. By contrast, inflows of children under 15 have gone down since the 1980s. The 25-34 age group was consistently the largest component of the outflow, with the 15-24 group being the second largest. The numbers in each adult age group in the outflow were much more constant than in the inflow, though the outflow of children has fallen steadily since the early 'eighties.

The net result of these patterns of movement was a net inflow of 15-24 year olds throughout the study period and net gains in all age groups, except for those aged 60/65+, in the final period. Between 1995 and 1999 alone there was a net inflow of over a quarter of a million young people aged 15-24, among whom the proportion of non-British was particularly high.

In labour market terms the flows may be divided into two groups, those who were employed upon leaving or entering the UK and those who were non-active at that time. In reality the non-active may become part of the labour force in due course and vice versa.

Those who were employed comprised slightly under half of the inflow up to the mid-1980s and then became slightly more than half. By contrast they have formed a higher proportion of the outflow than the non-active throughout the period. In general, employed people have been a larger part of the British than the non-British flows, implying that, relatively speaking, movements by the indigenous population have a more direct labour market effect. The largest net inflow of both employed and non-active migrants has occurred recently.

The composition of non-active flows has changed. Children were the largest group in both inflows and outflows of the non-active before 1990 but students were the largest in the 1990s, with extremely rapid growth in numbers entering the UK. This inflow of students was predominantly of the non-British and it seems likely that some of them were coming as working holiday-makers or for other purposes as well as those intending to further their studies. Numbers of non-active migrants described as 'housewives' both entering and leaving the country significantly diminished in the later years of the period, perhaps in part because more spouses are now counted as 'employed'.

Few of these trends have been smooth over the period in question but the overall trend has been one of increase in both gross and net migration into the UK. Net gains of foreign nationals have more than offset the net loss of British citizens and especially striking is the huge preponderance of young people in the net inflows.

16.1.3 Regional patterns and trends in migration flows (Chapter 5)

The period has been one of sustained rise in flows overall, for both the country as a whole and for the regions. However, individual regions have experienced marked fluctuations and while some regions have shown sustained growth in numbers moving in and out, others have not. In general, the geographical distribution for both in-and outflows and for both British and non-British citizens has been stable throughout the period of analysis, regardless of fluctuations in total movement.

During the period as a whole London received an annual average inflow of 74,000, 32.3 per cent of the national total; the Rest of the South East received a further 17.5 per cent. Thus the south-east corner of the country averaged about half of the total inflow. No other region reached double figures. This pattern was constant throughout. London and the Rest of the South East had a lower proportion of outflows and overall there was a trend towards a more even regional distribution of outflows. Only London had a substantial net gain.

There were differences in pattern between British and non-British citizens, with a more even regional distribution of both in- and outflows by the former. As a result, every region had an average net loss of British citizens over the period, but the reverse was the case for the non-British.

London has been significantly more important as both a destination and an origin for non-British citizens than it is for the British. It both received and sent around 40 per cent of non-British flows.

This regional analysis is significant. First, over the 25-year period the regional distributions of in- and outflows have remained remarkably stable, despite fluctuations in the numbers coming and going nationally. Second, London and, to a much lesser extent, the Rest of the South East consistently play a dominant role in the UK international migration system, especially for the non-British.

16.1.4 Changes in the flows of professional and managerial workers and manual and clerical workers among employed migrants 1975-99 (Chapter 6)

Over the 25 year period the gross flows of employed migrants were considerable, getting on for six million in all. Professional and managerial migrants accounted for around 1.7 million in each direction, but the net flow was small, a gain of only 11,500. This balance hides a marked trend, however, from a net loss of 120,000 1975-84 to a net gain of 109,000 in the last five years. Gross flows of manual and clerical workers have also been high, around 2.4 million over 25 years, with a net outflow of around 153,000. The trend over the period was similar to that for professional and managerial workers, a shift from net loss of about 200,000 1975-84 to a gain of 52,000 1995-9.

These figures reveal a long-standing and substantial involvement in the global migration system, with large numbers of workers moving into and out of the UK labour market. Of particular significance is that, with respect to professional and managerial workers, the UK has clearly been engaged in a more or less even 'brain exchange' with the rest of the world. In recent years the balance has been shifting and now the UK is a substantial net importer of the highly skilled. It has also become a net gainer of manual and clerical workers.

During the period as a whole there has been a remarkable consistency in the relative proportions of the two groups in the inflow but some degree of change in the composition of the outflow. Professional and managerial workers have comprised about 60 per cent of the inflow from the beginning of the 'eighties and although there appears to have been a slight trend of increase in their proportion in the 1990s it was not a dramatic one. In the outflow, there has been a steady trend of increase in the proportion of professional and managerial workers from around 50 per cent to over 60 per cent.

The overall trend in inflows of professional and managerial workers, both for British and non-British citizens, has been one of increase, albeit with changes and fluctuations during the twenty-five year period. The highest annual inflow figure for both was recorded in 1999. For outflows of professional and managerial workers,

the overall trend from the mid-eighties was for an increase in outflow for both British and non-British citizens but with some divergence in trends year-on-year. The highest annual British outflow was in 1996 but this level was not sustained subsequently. In the case of the non-British, there was a continuous increase in outflow from 1995 onwards, culminating in the highest recorded figure in 1999.

The combination of gross inflows and outflows for professional and managerial workers produced very different net flows in respect of British and non-British citizens. In the case of the British, there was a net loss of professional and managerial workers from the UK every year throughout the twenty-five year period, apart from 1994. The data on net flows of non-British professional and managerial workers present a dramatically different picture – there was a net gain to the UK every year throughout the twenty-five years, except in 1977. As a result, over 25 years there was a net outflow of British citizens of about 376,000 and a net inflow of 387,000 non-British. It is very clear from this analysis that the professional and managerial section of the UK labour force would have been seriously depleted through migration over the last twenty-five years if there had been no immigration of non-British citizens. Moreover, this trend continues. There has been a net loss of nearly 65,000 British professional and managerial workers in the last five years, more than compensated for by a net gain of nearly 174,000 non-British professional and managerial workers during the same period.

In respect of manual and clerical workers, there was a difference in overall inflow trends in respect of British and non-British citizens, though annual inflow figures in both cases fluctuated a good deal. In broad terms, British inflows started the period at a relatively high level, dropped back and then returned to a similar level. Non-British inflows were higher in the latter part of the twenty-five year period and particularly in the last five years – the highest recorded inflows of non-British manual and clerical workers were in 1998 and 1999. Trends in the outflow of manual and clerical workers were also different in the cases of British and non-British citizens. There was an overall trend of decline in the outflow of British workers, though with significant fluctuations; by contrast, after an initial decline there was an overall trend of growth in the outflow of non-British citizens, with the highest recorded outflows in 1997 and 1999.

The result of these trends is that there was a net loss of manual and clerical workers who were British citizens every year throughout the twenty-five year period apart from 1994 and 1998 and a net gain of manual and clerical workers who were non-British citizens every year. The net outflow of British manual and clerical workers has not been offset by the net inflow of non-British citizens over the full twenty-five year period but this situation has changed during the 1990s. A net loss of over 371,000 British workers took place 1975-99 compared to a net gain of 217,500 non-British. However, the net inflow of non-British manual and clerical workers exceeded the net outflow of the British in 1990-4 and in 1995-9. During this last five year period, the net loss of British workers was over 11,000 but the net gain of the non-British was nearly 64,000.

These data present us with some evidence that one consequence of migration been a replacement of emigrant British citizens by immigrant non-British citizens in the UK labour force, particularly in the case of professional and managerial workers. However, aggregate figures do not tell us the specific occupations of those who entered and left the country, nor how many of those coming in actually took up employment in the UK. The net inflows of non-British citizens in 1995-9 were so much greater than the net outflows of British citizens in respect of both occupational groups, it seems likely that that the numbers of incomers who entered the labour market exceeded those who left it.

16.1.5 Changes in the proportion of men and women among employed migrants 1975-99 (Chapter 7)

The increased participation of women in the labour market explains why, during the 1990s, the proportion of women in the inflow and outflow of employed migrants was higher than in the late 'seventies and early 'eighties. This was true of professional and managerial workers, manual and clerical workers, British citizens and non-British citizens.

In the case of professional and managerial workers, the proportion of women among those entering and leaving the country in the first decade of the period was generally below 30 per cent, whereas in the final decade, it was in the region of 40 per cent. In the case of manual and clerical workers, women were 40 per cent or less of the flows in the early years and a higher but varying proportion thereafter – from 1982 onwards, they were generally between 50 and 59 per cent of the inflow and 45 and 55 per cent of the outflow.

Overall, women have comprised a higher proportion of employed migrants among non-British citizens than among British citizens, both in respect of those entering the country and those leaving it. However, there has been a gradual convergence in the proportions of women found in the inflows, whereas the difference in the sex composition of the British and non-British outflows has tended to increase.

The increase in the gross volume of movement into and out of the UK and the increase in the proportion of women mean that the actual numbers of women joining and leaving the labour market through international migration each year are very substantially higher today than in the 1970s. The total inflow of employed women in 1995-9 was 124 per cent higher than in 1975-9, whereas the total inflow of men was only 65 per cent higher. The total outflow of employed women in 1995-9 was 38 per cent higher in 1995-9 whereas the total outflow of men was seven per cent lower. Such trends of change clearly have implications for the make-up of the labour force in some regions and employment sectors in the UK, although there has been no time in the present project to analyse these further.

16.1.6 Changes in the citizenship of employed migrants (non-British) 1975-99 (Chapter 8)

Analysis of these changes is extremely complex because of the interaction between three different sets of variables: the six national groups identified; gross and net flows; total employed, professional and managerial, and manual and clerical workers. The principal conclusion deriving from the analysis is that it is essential to have data on both inflows and outflows of migrant workers to gain a full understanding of the impact of international migration on the UK labour force.

16.1.6.1 Flows of migrant workers and citizenship

The largest numbers entering the country since the mid-eighties have been citizens of the Old Commonwealth and the EU/EFTA countries (58% of the total in 1995-9), with those from Other Foreign Developed Countries and the Rest of World group comprising similar, smaller flows (in aggregate, 29% of the 1995-9 inflow) and flows from the Indian Subcontinent and East/Other Europe constituting the rest.

Old Commonwealth and EU/EFTA citizens have also been the largest emigrant groups and have been so throughout the entire period, being 72 per cent of the total outflow in 1995-9. Since the mid-eighties, those from Other Foreign Developed Countries have been the third largest component of the outflow, though falling

from 20 per cent to 14 per cent in 1995-9. However, the outflow of citizens from Rest of World countries has fallen steadily since the mid-eighties and they comprised only 7 per cent of those leaving the country in 1995-9 – the same proportion as the combined outflows of citizens of the Indian Subcontinent and East and Other Europe.

The composite picture is one in which there are heavy inflows but also fairly heavy outflows from the developed countries and smaller inflows with small and shrinking outflows from less developed parts of the world. Because inflows have exceeded outflows in every citizenship group, there has been a net gain to the UK labour force across all groups but the largest net gains have been of citizens from the Old Commonwealth and the Rest of the World countries.

Taking account of the actual numbers involved and the balance of movement, it would appear that just over a third of the net addition to the labour force in this period came from the groupings of less developed countries and just over two thirds came from more developed countries, nearly half of them from the Old Commonwealth.

16.1.6.2 Flows of professional and managerial workers

The pattern of movement described in relation to inflows and outflows of migrant workers as a whole applies to some extent to the professional and managerial component but there are also some significant differences.

The inflows of the four largest groups – Old Commonwealth, EU/EFTA, Other Foreign Developed Countries and Rest of World – over the twenty-five year period were more similar in the case of professional and manual workers than among all employed migrants. In 1995-9, the Old Commonwealth and EU/EFTA were first and second in terms of size of inflow and Rest of the World and Other Foreign Developed Countries were third and fourth for both professional and managerial workers and for all workers entering the country. However, the two largest groups were 54 per cent of the professional and managerial component, compared to 58 per cent of all workers, while the third and fourth groups were 35 per cent of the professional and managerial inflow compared to 29 per cent of all workers. Migrants from East and Other Europe countries seemed to form a slightly smaller proportion of the professional and managerial inflow compared to all workers, whereas for migrants from the Indian Subcontinent the proportions in 1995-9 were the same.

For outflows, the proportion of each citizenship group in the total outflow for the 1975-99 period was broadly similar for professional and managerial workers and for all employed migrants, with EU/EFTA citizens comprising around a third of the total, Old Commonwealth in second place, Other Foreign Developed Countries third and Rest of World fourth. However, there were some differences. The EU/EFTA component of the outflow, which showed a strong trend of increase from 1980 onwards for all employed migrants (27% of the total outflow in 1980-4, 40% in 1995-9), showed an even more marked increase in the case of professional and managerial workers (21% of the outflow in 1980-4, 42% in 1995-9). The proportion of Old Commonwealth citizens in the professional and managerial outflow was consistently lower than that for employed migrants overall – they were a quarter of the professional and managerial outflow in 1995-9, compared to nearly a third of the total outflow of migrant workers.

By contrast, the proportion of the professional and managerial outflow made up of citizens from Other Foreign Developed Countries was consistently higher than in respect of all migrant workers, though the outflow dropped in both cases in 1995-9. The proportion of the outflow comprising citizens of Rest of World countries declined from the mid-eighties onwards among professional and managerial workers as among all

workers, though remaining slightly larger – 9 per cent of the former as compared to 7 per cent of the latter in 1995-9. Outflows of the two smallest citizenship groups did not appear to represent a significantly different proportion of the professional and managerial outflow compared to the total outflow, though the proportion of the outflow from East and Other Europe was very small in 1995-9 (2%).

The data demonstrate the dominance of professional and managerial workers in net inflows to the UK. In four out of six citizenship groups, they were more than 60 per cent of the net inflow of workers over the whole twenty-five year period and about half of the net inflow from the Indian Subcontinent; only in the case of the EU/EFTA group did they constitute as little as a third, in part the Irish effect. For the period 1995-9, their dominance was even more marked, with a majority of the net inflow in every group being of professional and managerial workers, three-quarters or more in four groups.

16.1.6.3 Flows of manual and clerical workers

The Old Commonwealth and EFTA groups formed larger proportions of the manual and clerical inflow than they did of the total inflow, while Other Foreign Developed Countries and Rest of World were less significant as a proportion of manuals and clericals. The two smallest groups did not significantly differ in this respect.

In the case of outflows, Old Commonwealth citizens comprised a significantly larger proportion of the manual and clerical outflow than of the overall outflow of employed migrants whereas there was more similarity in the EU/EFTA proportions, at least from the mid-eighties. Other Foreign Developed Countries were a smaller proportion of the manual and clerical outflow than of the total outflow of employed people – this was also true of Rest of World migrants in the earlier part of the period but less so in the 'nineties. At the same time, outflows of manual and clerical workers from East and Other Europe became relatively more significant after 1990, while outflows of those from the Indian Subcontinent were an even tinier proportion of the manual and clerical outflow than of the total outflow of workers.

In four out of six citizenship groups, manual and clerical workers were a much smaller part of the net inflow than professional and managerial workers over the twenty-five year period; they formed about half of the net inflow from the Indian Subcontinent and almost two-thirds of that from EU/EFTA. In the final period 1995-9, they were a minority of the net inflow in every citizenship group.

16.1.6.4 Flow patterns overall

Over the last twenty-five years, there have been both constant and changing features in the pattern of inflow and outflow of employed migrants. The mid-eighties seemed to be a crucial period in which many of the changes began to occur. The final years of the 1990s have likewise seen some significant developments, particularly in terms of the overall scale of migration and increased movement of professional and managerial workers.

Citizens of the developed world, and most notably citizens of the Old Commonwealth and EU/EFTA, have formed a high and increasing proportion of workers both entering and leaving the UK since the mid-eighties. Citizens from less developed countries have become a smaller proportion of the inflow than they were at the start of the period and a dwindling part of the outflow.

The analysis again highlights the vital importance of looking at both immigration and emigration to understand the impact of migration on the labour market in the UK. The net flows of migrant workers are somewhat different from what one would expect simply by looking at inflows. Also, the patterns of inflow and

outflow in respect of different citizenship groups are not necessarily the same for professional and managerial workers as they are for manual and clerical workers. And even within the categories of 'developed' and 'less developed' countries, there are different migration trends at different periods of time.

16.1.7 Destinations of employed people leaving the UK 1975-99 (Chapter 9)

Currently, about a third of all professional and managerial workers who leave the UK go to EU/EFTA countries. The proportion is very similar for both British and non-British emigrants and has increased over time, though not dramatically so.

The non-British flow to EU/EFTA is very largely composed of EU/EFTA citizens – there is no indication that significant numbers of professionals and managers from outside Western Europe move on from the UK into other parts of the EU/EFTA area. By contrast, there does seem to have been some increase in the EU/EFTA component of the professional and managerial outflow going to countries other than those in the EU/EFTA by the late 'nineties. The key components in this outflow in 1995-9 were citizens of the Old Commonwealth and Other Foreign Developed Countries. Rest of World citizens diminished over the period both numerically and as a proportion of total outflow to non-EU/EFTA countries.

In the case of manual and clerical workers, just over a quarter of the British and about a third of the non-British outflow went to EU/EFTA destinations. As in the case of professional and managers, there has been a slight increase over time in the proportion of emigrants going to EU/EFTA, the non-British who go there are very largely EU/EFTA citizens and EU/EFTA citizens have also become a slightly larger component than hitherto in the movement to non-EU/EFTA countries. However, Old Commonwealth citizens were the dominant group in the outflow of non-British manual and clerical workers to other countries at both the beginning and end of the period.

Where British citizens are concerned, current movements to Australia, New Zealand and Canada indicate that the Old Commonwealth is still an important destination for UK workers with skills and qualifications, as well as increasing numbers of working holiday makers.

16.1.8 Social progression among selected national groups 1971-91 (Chapter 10)

There is some evidence that the social progression of immigrants exceeds that of the UK-born population, although this is not true of all groups. The Irish and those from the Old Commonwealth have less progression. Extending the analysis to the proportion of all upward mobility accounted for only by those moving into highly skilled occupations suggests that a qualification should be added. The indigenous population performs relatively better in this regard than it does overall.

There are also considerable differences between the immigrant groups. In general, those from the more developed regions (Rest of Western Europe, Old Commonwealth, Irish Republic, and to a lesser extent USA) have lower rates of upward mobility than those from the ISC and Africa. For those from the Old Commonwealth and the US this is partly explained by their higher starting point. Overall however, social improvement as measured here is at a faster rate among those coming from less developed regions. Africans even have higher proportions of upward movers entering the professional, managerial and technical category than the three European groups.

These broad conclusions apply to both sexes. During the 1980's particularly, women had more upward social mobility than men with those from Africa and ISC doing especially well. However the interaction between the three active categories and the residual 'others and unknown' is more influential than for men.

These broad patterns are apparent whether or not the large 'others and unknown' category is included. However, more analysis is required of who is entering and leaving this category. It appears, for example, that the high rate of upward mobility by the ISC born is partly accounted for by shifts into the two lower 'active' categories (skilled non-manual/manual; partly skilled/unskilled).

16.1.9 Foreign population and workforce by citizenship (Chapter 11)

Both total foreign population and workforce have risen steadily during the period, females at a faster rate than males, although the sex balance has been fairly stable in recent years. The foreign workforce has risen quickly recently, by more than a quarter since 1995. There has been a decline in the proportion from other EU states since the mid-1990s, the main factor in this being a fall in numbers of Irish nationals. Overall, about half of the foreign labour stock now comes from advanced economies, less than in the mid-1980s and suggesting that the UK has become more open to those from less developed countries.

Although the foreign national workforce has a broadly similar occupation structure to that of the overall population, it is generally more skilled. Foreign nationals are more likely to be professional and managerial workers than the UK population and less likely to be manual or intermediate non-manual workers. However, there are differences between nationalities. In general, those from the northern EU (including France and Germany) are more highly skilled and contain lower proportions of manual workers; a similar situation prevails for North Americans, Australians and New Zealanders. More emphasis on manual workers and less on professional and managerial is to be found among Africans, those from the Indian sub-continent and from the Caribbean/West Indies. The situation of the Irish is particularly important. Traditionally a major source of manual workers, they have become more skilled, albeit with declining overall numbers.

The regional distribution of foreign workers is very uneven. They are highly concentrated in London (47% of the total) and, to a lesser extent, the Rest of the South East (20%). Outside London, almost without exception, foreign nationals are proportionately less well represented among those living and working than the UK population as a whole. In London, foreigners are relatively over-represented by a factor of between three and four. Since the mid-1980s this pattern has changed little.

The foreign and UK population exhibit stable and broadly similar patterns of employment across the five major sectors that were identified. Foreigners are less likely to be found in the primary and manufacturing (including construction) sectors, more so in the others, although the differences are small. On the whole, foreigners are more likely to be found in the labour-intensive sectors of the economy.

Comparison of the inflow of migrant workers with stocks of labour suggest some differences. In particular, immigrants, especially British citizens, have higher skill levels. Non-EU nationals entering are less likely than other foreigners to be highly skilled. Foreigners entering the country, both to live and to work, are between two and three times more likely to move to London than incoming UK citizens.

16.1.10 Employment of foreign workers by industrial group (Chapter 12)

During the period 1995-9, the number of foreign workers averaged 962,000 each year. Three of the main NACE categories consistently recorded less than 10,000 foreigners. These were: *Agriculture, hunting and forestry; Mining, quarrying and petroleum; Electricity, gas and water supply*. In contrast, around a quarter of a million foreigners were in the *Administration, education, health and defence* category, 26.4 per cent of the total. The other major categories were *Finance, insurance and other business services* (163,000, 16.9%), *Manufacturing* (129,000, 13.4%), *Wholesale and retail trade* (110,000, 11.5%) and *Hotels and restaurants* (102,000, 10.6%). Just over 5 per cent of the *Construction* workforce were foreign, as were around 4 per cent of those employed in *Transport*.

At the sub-sector level, *Health and social work* accounted for the largest number, averaging 140,000 during the period, 14.6 per cent of all foreign workers and occupying more foreign labour than the whole of *manufacturing*. *Education* was another large employer of foreign labour, averaging about 75,000 during the period, 7.8 per cent of the total.

About 44 per cent of foreign workers were from other EU states and 56 per cent were from non-EU states. EU nationals were relatively over-represented in *Construction, Transport, Administration etc*, including especially *education* and to a lesser extent *health and social work*, and *recreational, cultural and sporting activities*. Non-EU nationals are relatively over-represented in *Manufacturing* (especially *clothing*), *Wholesale and retail trade, Hotels and restaurants, Post and telecommunications, Finance, insurance and business services* (including *financial mediation, computer and related activities and other business activities*) and *Other services*, especially *domestic service and extra-territorial organisations*.

There were some changes in the industrial distribution between the mid-1980s and the late 1990s. *Financial services* (especially), *Administrative services* and *Hotels and catering* increased their shares of total foreign employment. *Manufacturing* (especially), *Construction, Transport and communications* and *Other services* decreased their shares while *Distribution's* share was unchanged. Among sub-sectors, *health and social work* increased its share but *education's* remained unchanged.

16.1.11 The foreign-born population: economic activity and occupational patterns and trends (Chapter 13)

The analysis of occupational patterns was carried out on the basis of country of birth rather than nationality as this increased the size of the sample and made it possible to identify some of the key patterns and trends in some detail. Foreign-born were divided into those from the rest of the EU/EFTA and others.

Economic activity rates was found to be lower among the foreign-born than the indigenous population and the difference appears to be growing. Those born outside the EU/EFTA area had higher activity rates than those within. Analysis of unemployment rates showed that the UK-born consistently had lower unemployment rates than the other groups, the highest rates being experienced by non-EU/EFTA foreign-born. This pattern persisted throughout the decade and at various stages in the economic cycle.

During the period 1992-2000 total employment (full-and part-time) rose by 1,981,000. Two of the major occupational groups, *Craft and related occupations* and *Other occupations* experienced net losses. All others had gains, the main ones being *Managers and administrators* (618,000) and *Associate professionals and technical occupations* (604,000). In general, the largest gains were in the more skilled groups. At this

aggregate occupational level the picture is consistent: jobs associated with manual work, trades and manufacturing were lost or not increased, those associated with management, administration, professional and technical work have increased.

Analysis at a more detailed occupational level revealed that amongst those occupations growing most rapidly, both highly skilled and less skilled groups were to be found: indeed, the fastest growth was in a range of labour intensive personal services. Second, decline and slowest growth has occurred mainly in traditional trades, especially those associated with manufacturing. Few highly skilled groups have experienced decline. Third, there is some evidence of a polarisation effect in some sectors, seen especially in health, in which rapid growth has occurred at both ends of the skills column.

The foreign-born account for about 8 per cent of the total workforce but they are not evenly distributed across occupations. Overall, it is the more skilled occupational groups that contain the highest proportions of foreign-born, especially professional and associate professional and technical occupations. Changes during the 1990s in the proportions of foreign-born workers in the different occupational categories were not obviously related to skill levels.

Around one million foreign-born, just under half of the total, were to be found in three major occupational categories: Managers and Administrators, Professionals and Associate Professionals. During the 1990s these groups have increased their proportion of the total.

When ranked by number and proportion of foreign-born employed at a more detailed occupational level, both high and low skilled occupations were represented. The fastest growth in numbers of foreign-born between 1992 and 2000 was among computer analysts and programmers, the biggest losers were dominated by manufacturing occupations.

About a quarter of a million health sector workers were foreign-born, including about 44,000 doctors and 70,000 nurses. Between 1992 and 2000 the stock of foreign-born doctors rose by around 40 per cent while that of nurses was unchanged, despite active overseas recruitment.

There is some variation in the occupational make-up of those born in other EU/EFTA states compared with foreign-born from elsewhere. The former are especially to be found in construction and health associate professional groups, less so in road transport.

16.1.12 The work permit system and other schemes (Chapter 14)

During the 1980s and most of the 1990s the distribution of work permit issues has been very stable, both industrially and occupationally. Around four-fifths of short-term work permits went to entertainers and sportspeople and the same proportion of long-term permits to managers and professionals. The geographical pattern of origins was also constant, with around half of all issues to Americans and Japanese. Thus the work permit system has served to bring in the highly skilled, mainly from a limited range of origin countries. This is in contrast to its role in the 25 years or so after World War II.

A substantial proportion of work permit issues continues to go to corporate transferees.

In the late 1990s the number of applications for and issues of work permits has risen substantially. Two industries dominated permit issues in 2000, *Health and medical services* and *Computer services*: between them they were responsible for 27,242 permits, around 42 per cent of the total. *Administrative, business and management services* and *Financial services* were responsible for a further quarter of issues.

In 2000, three major occupational categories were dominant: *Associated professionals* (52.2%), *Professionals* (23.5%) and *Managers and administrators* (20.9%). Three others, *Craft and related*, *Sales and Plant and machine operatives*, recorded no issues. In total about 15,500 permits were issued to health sector workers and 13,200 to those in the IT sector.

Overall, work permit issues are heavily concentrated in a small number of occupational groups. Of 78 occupational groups identified, only 11 received over a thousand issues and a further seven over one hundred; 52 received none at all. The demand for foreign (non-EEA) labour is thus focused on a relatively narrow range of skills. Some of these skills are required in certain sectors of the economy only, for example, health, education, finance and entertainment. Others, like computing employees, engineers and technologists are required across the economy more widely as well as in specialist (e.g. IT) firms.

The pattern of work permit issues by country of origin is very varied. For some countries the work permit system continues to lubricate a global exchange of skills. Elsewhere, there is a moderate level intake of management, administrative and professional skills but little sign that these countries are sources of specific skills. In contrast, some countries have recently grown rapidly to become major suppliers of specific skills. In consequence, there have been significant shifts in the last few years in the importance of supply countries. The traditional origins, notably the US and Japan, have become relatively less important. New major suppliers, especially India and the Philippines, are associated with specific skills in ways that the older sources are not. Thus, while 10 years ago the occupational skills profile among supplying countries was fairly uniform, the same cannot be said today.

There are two other major schemes. The seasonal agricultural workers scheme in recent years has brought in around 10,000 workers per annum, almost all from Eastern Europe and mostly male. The working holidaymakers scheme is designed to allow young Commonwealth workers to work in the UK for up to 18 months. The number is currently running at about 46,000 per year, mainly from Old Commonwealth sources. A majority are female though there are different sex balances according to country of origin.

A summary review of foreign labour immigration by all routes of entry indicates that in 1999 the number totalled 184,000.

16.1.13 Asylum seekers and refugees: a summary of the data (Chapter 15)

During the 1990s there has been no discernible trend for asylum seekers as a proportion of total non-British immigration. However, it appears that they consistently account annually for between one sixth and one third of all non-British immigrants to the UK.

The number of those entitled to work is also considerable, although the number actually working is very difficult to estimate. Over the last ten years, data show that around 138,000 are legally entitled to work.

It is even more difficult to evaluate the qualitative impact of asylum seekers in the labour market, but preliminary analysis shows that the majority of asylum seekers is of an economically-active age and comes from origins which in other contexts have been found to provide particularly successful migrants.

16.2 Conclusions and policy implications

16.2.1 General conclusions

- The analysis in this report has demonstrated very clearly that labour migration into the UK is not a new phenomenon, nor does it occur on a small scale. Indeed, during the last quarter century the UK has had a remarkably open door to both short- and long-term migration, a substantial part of both involving participation in the labour market. Moreover, the flows have been two-way. Historically, it was not until the mid-1980s that the UK effectively became a net importer of people, a position it has maintained since then. There is still a net loss of Britons but the inflow of foreign citizens more than makes up for this. What is most striking, however, is the large rise in migration in the late 1990s, and especially in 1998-9. The last few years have, in historical terms, been a novelty.
- In discussions about labour migration flows those by British citizens frequently tend to be ignored. Yet in- and outflows by them are a substantial part of the total migration picture. Since 1981 their annual outflow has never been less than 100,000 and their inflow has exceeded 90,000 in all but two years. One of the main reasons for this neglect is that the emigration of British citizens and their return has not been perceived to be a problem and thus not in the remit of any government department. Further, with few exceptions (especially 1981-2), British flows have fluctuated within narrower bands than those of the non-British and this relative stability has encouraged invisibility. An implication of the analysis here, however, is that any assessment of the impact of migration on the national labour market should fully take into account both the scale and skill structure of movements by the indigenous population.
- One of the key elements in the UK migration system is its dynamism. It helps to think of the system as a series of migration cycles whereby earlier flows of immigrants become stocks, they enter the labour market and eventually retire or leave. Individual groups of migrants metamorphose, perhaps moving in and out of the labour market as economic, social and individual circumstances change. Different migrant groups have different cyclical profiles: for example, those from more developed countries such as the Old Commonwealth and EU have much higher rates of return than those from the New Commonwealth and less developed countries in the rest of the world.
- The different sources of migrants reinforce each other. Greater numbers come from the developed world, while those from less developed regions seem more likely to stay. There is also evidence to suggest that some of the latter have experienced higher rates of social progression than the rest of the population. Furthermore, immigration seems to have a marked rejuvenating effect. There is a heavy inflow of young people, aged 15-24. Although this is a 'turnover population' it never the less results in a substantial net gain of young adults.
- Flows of labour migrants per se are more likely to be professional and managerial than manual and clerical workers. Foreign citizens coming in more than compensate for highly skilled Britons leaving. Already, then, the UK is actively participating in the network of brain exchanges that characterises the global migration market. However, examination of the industrial and occupational distribution of the foreign and foreign-born workforce illustrates the polarisation that has developed. Put simply, migrant workers are concentrated at both ends of the skill spectrum.

- It is clear also that there are localisation factors at work. There is an enormous concentration of foreign citizens who both live and work, in London and, to a lesser extent, in the rest of south-east England. The capital also receives and sends a disproportionate number of the foreign population that flows to and from the UK. This seems to be an enduring phenomenon with implications at local, regional and national levels.

16.2.2 Policy implications

There are numerous policy implications of the findings in this report; the most salient are listed here.

1. Migration policy needs to take account of the sheer complexities of patterns and trends in movement. It is not easy to define either migration as a whole or labour migration in particular. Movements into and out of the country are at varying scales, involve a wide range of people, may be for very different reasons and include assorted periods of stay. Nor should migration be regarded as only one way or assessed only in net terms. Since the Second World War and especially over the last 25 years the UK has experienced massive gross flows of people, substantial numbers of whom have been British citizens.
2. Although there has, in the past, been a perception that the UK has restrictive migration policies, these policies have, during the period under study, allowed in an increasing number of short and medium term migrants to meet labour market needs. "Long term" migration – in terms of acceptance for settlement – has also increased, although this has largely reflected the UK's humanitarian obligations (for example through family reunification) rather than the long term settlement of people coming here primarily to work. Inflows of both British and non British people have tended to speed up whenever the economy has been doing well. There has been no policy in respect of outflows, with consequently little attempt to relate the loss of British skills with gains from other countries.
3. A lot of the movement of labour in and out of the country is medium-short term. This is not something new and it is certainly not going to cease or decline significantly. For policy makers this means shifting away from the fundamental idea that most migrants are here to settle towards an accommodation with a population and foreign workforce with a turnover time of between 6 months and 5 years.
4. There is a specific need to focus on the (actual and potential) role in the workforce of overseas migrants in their late 'teens and early twenties who stay in this country for limited periods. Thousands of young adults come through the UK for a variety of reasons and on a variety of schemes – students from all over the world, young people from the Old Commonwealth travelling abroad (many as working holiday-makers), EU/EFTA citizens wishing to improve their English and develop their careers (for instance, in the hotel industry) and many others. They have over the years filled a range of skilled and unskilled jobs, particularly in the London area, before moving on. For some, there are great benefits in developing English language fluency, given the world-wide use of the language, and for many, the benefit of advanced study or extended experience. For the UK there are also benefits in positively welcoming such people – the acquisition of a youthful workforce with less demanding requirements for permanent accommodation and support services and the establishment of long-term links with countries of origin, with possible economic advantages. Attempts to increase the numbers of overseas students in higher education are also likely to result in more overseas graduates entering the work-force, either temporarily during their studies or for a period afterwards.

5. Where the immigration of young people is for permanent settlement, it will to some extent have a rejuvenating effect on an indigenous population confronting demographic ageing, in the short-term at any rate. However, in the longer term this will not last unless very large inflows occur on a continuous basis, something almost certainly both practically and politically impossible. A second implication of the settlement of young people is the potential effect on birth rate and consequently upon the local health, education and support services. These effects will be especially felt in certain parts of London and the South East
6. The regional consequences of migration policy are important. All the evidence suggests that any further relaxation of labour immigration policy will increase the pressure on the South East and especially on the capital. International migration, particularly of the highly skilled, is necessary to maintain London's position as a global city and allow it to act as an engine of national economic growth. However, if there are increasing net flows of highly skilled workers into London and the South East, these are likely to generate increased economic activity and associated labour demands. The consequence could be a greater regional imbalance in growth and employment within the UK as whole, as well as increased pressures on housing, transport and the whole social infrastructure in the South East corner of the country.
7. There is a thriving global market for skills in which the UK is already competing. The market is not simple. Some countries are seeking skilled settlement migrants, mainly Australia, Canada, New Zealand and the US. The UK is at risk of both losing its own citizens to these countries and being unable to offer an attractive enough package of benefits to migrants from elsewhere who might be considering the range of options open to them. For other skills and purposes the global migration market is shorter term, usually to fill specific gaps which may be temporary in nature. Here the competitors are the same countries as mentioned above as well as the rest of Europe and other developed economies. One policy issue for the UK government is how far to go in the direction of encouraging permanent immigration of labour market skills and a second is how far to compete and with whom in attracting temporary foreign workers.
8. The high degree of openness of the UK labour market to foreign employment, and particularly the recent relaxation of the work permit system and other schemes, implies a changing relationship between government and employers. The increased labour immigration of recent years suggests that labour market requirements as perceived by employers have become more important factors in determining foreign recruitment. A major policy decision for government is whether and how far it involves employers in foreign labour recruitment.
9. Recruitment of skills from less developed countries can result in a range of costs and benefits for those countries which are complicated to measure and which vary over time and between different countries and sectors. Where such recruitment is occurring or proposed, the implications for different sending countries need to be assessed and appropriate action determined, including ways of increasing benefits and reducing costs. Policies need to be reconciled with those on overseas development.
10. The characteristics of employed British emigrants are similar to those of the non-British entering the country. There is a clear need for research to establish why Britons leave: at least part of a strategy to deal with labour shortages might be the promotion of conditions to persuade British skills that the grass is not necessarily greener beyond the fence. At the same time, it should be recognised that the

circulation of population through migration (permanent or shorter-term) not only helps to sustain the global economy but can also bring a range of social and economic benefits to the countries involved.

11. Migration policy has to be seen as complementary to other labour market policies that the Department for Work and Pensions and the Department for Employment and Skills are developing. It is important that policy makers take into account the migration implications of other social and economic policies, thus framing migration policy in the light of actual and potential movements and the alternatives to migration. Such policies as the following are likely to increase labour market participation and may thus reduce the need for overseas recruitment: training and retraining of the unemployed; the provision of crèche and other welfare facilities that help married women and single parents into or to return to the labour force; schemes to help or encourage those who are qualified to return to shortage occupations; and measures to help the over 50s remain in the labour force.
12. The growing demand for relatively low-skilled labour, the result of both structural change in the labour market and demographic ageing, has particular policy implications. If this demand is to be satisfied, at least in part, by foreign workers, then the social costs will need to be covered. These include housing, education and other support services for the low-paid and their families. In so far as some of these will fall upon local authorities, then what is effectively a national labour immigration strategy may generate calls for additional financial assistance to be transferred from central to local funds.
13. In the not-too-distant future it seems likely that competition in the global migration market will have to be faced from some less developed countries. This will occur particularly in sectors such as IT where human resource skills constitute the major part of the investment. The UK is in a good position to capitalise on the growing importance of the English language world-wide, as well as its existing links with many former colonies, to provide training and experience, leading to future collaboration.
14. For many highly skilled occupations, the international movement of expertise is increasingly taking place in ways that do not involve traditional migration. These take the form of new types of collaboration between firms in different countries, shorter-term secondments, weekly commuting and the electronic transmission of knowledge. Any policy to increase the national capital bank of skills through the encouragement of labour migration needs to take these new trends into account.
15. There is little doubt that non-British immigrants have contributed to the country's current prosperity in several ways. They have to a considerable extent replaced the losses of skilled British abroad. Many of them are working in skilled occupations and in growth areas of the economy, in roles that are likely to maximise both their fiscal contribution and production of goods and services generally. They are also already contributing significantly to the provision of public services, especially in areas where labour shortages are acute.
16. However, overseas recruitment at all skill levels is not a quick-fix solution. The evidence here is that foreign labour permeates the whole economy, a situation that has built up over a long period as successive waves of migrants have filled a range of gaps in the labour market. In the global migration market today formidable problems confront any country seeking to recruit high level skills in any quantity over the short or medium term. Even if that proves possible, it will be difficult to maintain such a level over a sustained period. Thus far, however, the research has not been done to determine the effectiveness of attempts to do so.

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