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REPORT FOR SOPEMI (OECD)

**INTERNASJONAL FLYTTING TIL NORGE
RAPPORT TIL SOPEMI (OECD)**

BY/AV
LARS ØSTBY

**STATISTISK SENTRALBYRÅ
CENTRAL BUREAU OF STATISTICS OF NORWAY**

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**REPORT FOR THE CONTINUOUS REPORTING SYSTEM OF
MIGRATION OF OECD (SOPEMI)**

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PREFACE

This is the Norwegian Report to Systeme d'observation permanent des migrations (SOPEMI) of OECD. The Report was presented and discussed at the yearly SOPEMI meeting in Paris in November 1990. Based on the reports and the meeting, the OECD secretariate publishes a synthesis report for the whole region.

This was the second time Norway took part in SOPEMI. The topic is of some general interest, and the Central Bureau of Statistics has decided to make a reprint of this overview of migration to and from Norway available to a broader audience. The Report follows the outline and instructions given by OECD (SME/MI/88.11), with some minor changes. Mr. Østby's account (in Norwegian) from the SOPEMI meeting in Paris 28 - 29 November 1990 is included as an appendix.

Central Bureau of Statistics, Oslo, 21 December 1990

Gisle Skancke

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FOREWORD

This is the second report from Norway to the Continuous Reporting System on Migration of OECD. The report follows Instructions to Correspondents SME/MI/88.11 and later amendments, with some exceptions. The first report was a more general one with greater emphasis on the last decades. It was published by the Central Bureau of Statistics (Østby, 1990).

Many persons and institutions have given valuable assistance in collecting and presenting the information. Peter Bøgh and his colleagues at the Directorate of Immigration has given me much data from the information system of the Directorate. This is the main source for data concerning asylum seekers and refugees. Espen Thorud in the Ministry of Local Government has as always been a valuable source of information. He, as well as Helge Brunborg (CBS), has given comments of substantial and linguistic nature.

All population statistics are based on publications and computations from the Central Bureau of Statistics. My colleagues in the Division for Population Statistics have compiled the most recent migration figures, and Kåre Vassenden has produced valuable data for analyses of immigrant demography. Liv Hansen has done many of the calculations and drawings.

Remaining errors are the responsibility of myself.

SUMMARY

Between 1970 and 1985 the gross yearly immigration of foreigners to Norway was between 11 000 and 13 000, nearly twice the emigration. There was a small net outmigration of national citizens. In 1985 Norway was "discovered" by asylum seekers, and in 1987, Norway received more than 8000 of them. As a percentage of the total population, this was more than in most other Western European countries. The number then decreased, may be mainly as a reaction to a more restrictive handling of their applications. In 1990, we do not expect more than 4000 asylum seekers, the same as in 1989. The asylum seekers come from many countries, with Chile, Iran, Sri Lanka and Yugoslavia as the most important. In 1989 and the first months of 1990, Yugoslavia, Sri Lanka, Iran, and Somalia have so far been of greatest importance.

The number of quota refugees increased somewhat in 1989, due to more liberal quotas. The refugees are mainly Vietnamese and Iranian.

The total number of foreign citizens in Norway was 140.300 at the beginning of 1990. This is 3,3 per cent of the total population. 4,3 per cent of the population are born abroad. The majority of the foreign population has an origin in a Scandinavian or other western country, particularly UK, USA and FRG. About 40 per cent come from a third world country, and this percentage is increasing quickly. The main countries of origin are Pakistan, Viet Nam, Turkey as well as the countries of the asylum seekers.

Citizens of the industrialised world are quite evenly distributed over the country, with some nationalities concentrated in the economically most active regions. Before 1975, most third world citizens came as immigrant workers. They settled mainly in the capital region. After the immigration ban of 1975, migrants from third world countries are allowed to enter the country mainly for family reunification or as refugees/asylum seekers. Those obtaining political asylum or residence permit on humanitarian grounds, are settled by the authorities in many different municipalities all over the country.

The foreign population is much younger than the nationals. Immigrants, and especially third world immigrants, are mostly young adults. The percentage of children is the same among Norwegians and immigrants. There is a very small number of aged persons among foreign nationals.

An analysis of immigrant fertility in Norway shows that 10 per cent of the children born in 1987 had one or two parents born abroad. Less than one third of them had both parents born abroad. Without any immigrant fertility, the total fertility rate of Norway would have been 0.02 lower than registered in 1987. Due to the reasons accepted as exceptions from the immigration ban (family reunification), women from third world countries give birth to many children the first years after arrival to Norway. The fertility is decreasing with increasing length of stay. Immigrants from different third world countries have very different fertility levels, reflecting the background for their entry to Norway.

We have very little information on the employment situation of foreigners in Norway. Normally, their unemployment figures are much higher than for nationals. Foreigners in Norway, even students or persons on a tourist visa, may be given a temporal permit to work. During the 1980s, an increasing number of Poles take seasonal work after having entered the country on tourist visa.

In 1989, Norway experienced net out-migration for the first time in more than 20 years. The main changes from the previous years are the following: The number of emigrating Norwegian citizens increased by nearly 60 per cent, mainly due to labour migration to Sweden. There was a small net out-migration to most other Western countries as well. Among foreign citizens, there was also a small net out-migration to most Western countries. The worsening of the labour market situation of Norway is the main reason behind these new migration trends. Norwegian nationals reacted more quickly to the changing labour market than other citizens did. The migration of third world citizens was little influenced by the changes in the labour market. Their out-migration was very moderate in 1989 as in the years before, and the number immigrating was reduced a little, as the number of asylum seekers declined.

1. MIGRANT FLOWS

1.1 Immigration and departure of foreigners

1.1.1 Situation in the 1980s, and in 1989

In the 1970s and the first half of the 1980s, the number of foreigners immigrating to Norway increased slightly, from 11.000 to 13.000 annually. From 1985, the number increased further, reaching more than 23.000 in 1987 and 1988. In 1989, we had an entirely new situation. The immigration decreased by 20 per cent (see table 6). The decrease was most pronounced for citizens from other Nordic countries (minus 37,5 per cent) and the rest of Europe (Euro 12 without Denmark decreased by 30 per cent). For third world citizens, the decrease was 15 per cent. The new situation of 1985 was mainly due to an increase in the number of asylum seekers. From 1989, Norway has had higher unemployment rates than ever since World War II (diagram 6), making the labour market less favourable, and there has also been a more restrictive immigration policy than before.

The new inflow of asylum seekers started late 1985, taking the Norwegian authorities by surprise. Our system for control and reception of the asylum seekers was not fully prepared for its growing tasks, neither was the political system nor the public opinion. The inflow reached its maximum in late 1987. The number of asylum seekers was more than 2.000 lower in 1989 than in 1988, and figures for the first nine months of 1990 are indicating that there still will be a slight decrease. As an appendix to the previous report (Østby 1990), there is a description of the Norwegian laws and regulations relevant to the treatment of asylum seekers and political refugees, written by the Immigration Departement of the Ministry of Justice.

In 1989, there was a change in the regional origin of the asylum seekers. As a consequence of the need for Chilean citizens to have a visa before entering Norway, the inflow of asylum seekers from Chile has come to an end, after being the largest group in 1988. The greatest number in 1989 came from Yugoslavia (Kosovo), Iran, Sri Lanka and Poland. In 1990, there has in addition arrived some asylum seekers from Romania. See table 9 for further details.

The number of persons seeking asylum differs much from the number granted asylum. From 1987, asylum seekers who are not refused to enter the country, are normally included in the migration statistics. According to the Central Population Register of Norway (CPR), a person intending to stay in the country for more than 6 months, should be given a personal identification number and be included in the CPR. This is the source of all our population statistics.

The time spent before an application is finally decided upon, varies substantially. Before 1989, many cases were under consideration for more than 12 months. Considerable efforts have been made to reduce this time span, and it is at the moment said to be less than 6 months. The aim is to reduce the average waiting time to 3 months for the primary decision, and an additional 2 months for an eventual appeal. As the time used for considering an application is decreasing, it will be easier to turn it down. As a rule, a person who has not received a negative answer within 15 months after the application was made, will be given a permit to stay.

As the political authorities gradually has been able to formulate an immigration policy, and not only make decisions in single cases, the proportion of the asylum seekers not granted permission to stay has increased. Among the first asylum seekers, 20 per cent were given political asylum, and 20 per cent were refused to stay in the country. The rest was allowed to stay on humanitarian reasons, without being accepted as political refugees. Due to various rights to appeal and to protest actions, legal and illegal, the number really leaving the country was much lower than the number of refusals. Among applications given a first decision in 1989, only 5 per cent was accepted as political refugees, and more than 40 per cent was refused to stay. During the first 9 months of 1990, almost 2/3 of the applications was rejected, 1/3 was allowed to stay on humanitarian grounds and less than 5 per cent was given political asylum.

It is an aim in the immigration policy to have further to increase the refusals, because the authorities states that the majority of the applicants are not genuine refugees, percecuted in their home country. The problems behind their wish to emigrate cannot be solved through the use of asylum, but with political action. Their use of the right to seek asylum might spoil the possibility to have asylum for those who really need it.

There seems to be a general political agreement that the country (at the moment?) does not have the economic resources necessary for maintaining the more generous policy we had towards the end of the 1980s. It is expected that the provisions of the new Aliens Act will be introduced from the beginning of 1991. The hardening of the decisions in 1990 will probably indicate the content of these new regulations, and this policy is intended to be the permanent way of treatment.

Many of the asylum seekers from 1989 or previous years, have left the country, or they will have to leave after receiving a negative answer to their application. We are, however, not sure that everyone who leaves the country will notify the authorities. Consequently, there is probably an undercount of foreigners leaving and an overcount of foreign citizens staying in Norway.

In the 1980s, Norway decided to receive a quota of 1.000 refugees per year, mainly from the UN High Commissioner for Refugees (table 8). This quota is intended to be widened if the number of asylum seekers decreases. Before 1988, the quota included refugees and family reunification cases for refugees accepted earlier. From 1988, the quota includes only "primary" refugees. As a consequence of the new regulations, the number of refugees and family members are three times higher in 1989 than the average level 1980-1987.

From a level of 7-800 in 1980-86, the number of quota refugees and family reunification cases reached 2.000 in 1989, half of which were family reunifications. The refugees came mainly from Iran and Viet Nam, the family reunifications concerned mainly Vietnamese. We can expect that new groups of refugees after some years will create a potential for family reunification, but may be not at the same extent as before.

Table 6 shows the inflow of foreigners to Norway in the 1980s. Even in 1989, more than 50 per cent of the total immigration of foreigners were not in any way connected with refugees or asylum seekers. For many years, the majority of ourimmigrants have come from our Scandinavian neighbours and other Western European countries. There has been full freedom of movement between the Scandinavian countries since 1954, and we have traditionally kept close contacts with some other Atlantic countries.

The most dramatic change in the migratory pattern of foreigners in 1989 is the sharp decrease in the number of immigrating European citizens. The number of Swedes moving to Norway is reduced by almost 50 per cent. The economic recession in Norway at the end of the 1980s is the main reason behind the reduced immigration from these countries. The number of out-migrating foreigners was less affected. However, still low, the number of out-migrating citizens from third world countries increased by 2/3 (see table 7). For the first time in many years, we had net outmigration to those Western countries from where we have many citizens (see tables 6, 7, and 12). The net streams for the majority of other countries are still going to Norway.

In addition to the third world countries mentioned in the sections on asylum seekers and refugees, we have had a stable inflow of citizens from our traditional countries of origin for migrant workers, mainly Pakistan, but also Turkey and Morocco. A general immigration ban has existed since 1975, and it has had an influence on the composition of the migratory streams, but the new regulations is not reflected in the number of migrants, see table 2 and diagram 1. However, without an immigration ban, we would have expected an increase in the number of immigrants.

There are many exceptions from the immigration ban. Family reunification and asylum are of greatest importance for third world immigrants. The level of immigration from third world countries is relatively little influenced directly by the changes in the Norwegian labour market.

Norwegian migration statistics contain little demographic information on the inflow of foreign citizens. Figures are usually given for the total number of immigrants only. However, in diagram 7, we show the age structure of the migration of foreigners. As expected, the migrants are young adults, many of them accompanied by their children. Almost 40 per cent of the immigrants and one third of the emigrants are in their twenties. As in other streams of migration, the number is declining rapidly with increasing age. Among foreign citizens above the age of 40, the net migration is close to zero. Diagram 7 also exhibits the comparable age structure for migrating Norwegian citizens moving across the country border.

The regional pattern of foreigners entering Norway shows a strong concentration around the central parts of the country (see diagram 4). Especially people from the third world live in or near the capital. However, as the number of asylum seekers has increased, more and more municipalities have accepted small quotas for settlement, making the regional distribution more even than before. The settlement pattern for refugees etc. is more regulated than the spontaneous pattern of the migrant workers. At the moment, the political goal seems to be a sort of "decentralized concentration", i. e. concentration of immigrants according to origin in many scattered locations.

As a consequence of the steeply increasing expences on receiving and integrating refugees and persons given permit to stay on humanitarian grounds, the Government appointed a working group from the offices concerned to evaluate the settlement and integration of refugees and others who are allowed to stay in the country. The increasing social security benefits to refugees etc. (the municipalities were refunded for their expences, see Otnes (1989), and the SOPEMI report from Norway for 1988 (Østby, 1990)), and the bad prospect for integrating these groups in the labour market was considered as the main problems. The scope was to revise the budgetary arrangements to get better control with the resources involved, and to be sure that everyone with a permit to stay spent as short time as possible in a reception center before permanent settlement. There will also be better language training for persons with special needs.

After negotiations with the municipalities, a parliamentary report presented the conclusions (Kom- munaldepartementet, 1990). From 1991, the refund system is replaced by a fixed amount to cover the integration expences for 5 years (in 1991 USD 13.000 per person the first year). Not every municipa- lity agreed with the conclusions of the working group. If the number to be settled increases once more, there may be future problems in finding local authorities willing to accept settlement if the new system means less refunding of the expences involved. Thus, we know little about the future regional pattern of immigrants who come as refugees etc.

Migrants from areas with free movement (Scandinavia) have a diversified settlement pattern, partly influenced by the employment opportunities and partly by settlement of previous migrants. Migrants from the rest of the

industrialised world settle where they are needed by the Norwegian industry, around the capital and in the oil extracting region in South-West.

1.1.2 Prospects for the future

So far, the economic recession and the more rigorous immigration policy from 1988 have not caused substantially higher numbers of foreigners to leave the country (table 7 and table 10). The numbers have been fluctuating for most nationalities during the 1980s, reflecting fluctuations in the various reasons for moving to Norway. The recession is most clearly mirrored in the figures for Sweden. Since a steep increase in the number of immigrants often is followed by a corresponding change in the number of emigrants two or three years later, we can expect a further increase in the outmigration of foreigners in the years to come, especially if important groups among the refugees and asylum seekers are allowed to return to their home country. At the moment, very low numbers return to third world countries, but those who have their application for asylum turned down may become more visible in the future migration statistics.

The main recipients of out-migrating foreigners are Scandinavia, UK and the USA. To these countries, there was an increase in out-migration among their own nationals in 1989, but not of the same magnitude as the increase in the emigration of Norwegian citizens. From August 1990, the oil price has increased substantially, followed by higher exploring and extraction activity. If the new activity level lasts, there may be an increase in immigration of technical experts etc. to the oil industry. The relative differences between the Swedish and Norwegian labour market will direct the net migration stream between the two countries. There seems to be a political goal to keep immigration from third world countries on a lower level than at the end of the 1980s, but one can not expect a substantial decrease in the next few years.

Norway is not among the 12 Member countries of the EEC, and will probably not be so for some years, at least not before the establishment of the Single European Market of 1993. However, the Single Market will not leave Norway unaffected. At the moment, the remaining EFTA countries are negotiating with EEC to establish an agreement of collaboration within the

European Economic Space (EES). It seems like the EFTA countries will accept the principle of free movement of people, and to have common criteria and control procedures for persons entering the region.

A working group representing the relevant governmental offices has made an evaluation of the consequences for the Norwegian immigration policy of the EFTA-EEC process. In some areas, there are already common rules and procedures, in others some changes will be needed, but these changes are not considered to be of fundamental importance. The working group does not expect major changes in the future migration to and from Norway, but it has not made any in-depth analysis of the migrations as it has been focusing on the political aspects. (see Arbeidsgruppen... 1990).

Many of the EEC and EFTA countries have by now research projects trying to evaluate the possible effects of the Single Market for the migrations within and to Europe. A Norwegian pilot project is reported by Larsen and Røed, 1990. It seems very appropriate to present the information from these projects in one report or in a seminar. The experiences of the common Scandinavian labour market since 1954 do not entirely rule out the possibility that free choice of country may have some consequences for the migrations.

The number of EEC citizens and persons born in EEC countries is given in tables 11 and 12. There has been a net immigration of EEC nationals since 1970, mainly from Denmark, Germany and UK, and in some years from France. The off-shore oil activities seem to be a main attraction. Due to the economic recession, we had net emigration of EEC nationals from Norway in 1989, but we do not know whether this is a new permanent situation or not.

Projections of the immigrant population

We have made a projection of foreigners in Norway (Sevaldson et. al. 1990), using the population projection model of the Central Bureau of Statistics. We applied different assumptions for the net immigration to see the demographic effects of different immigration policies. The fertility assumptions start at the present level for the different groups, and the immigrant fertility is expected to be down at 2,1 in 2015. The base population for the projection was 228.000 persons of foreign origin,

including all foreign born and 66.000 descendants of foreign born mothers. This is a wider definition of foreigners than the common one.

Projections are made for three groups: all immigrants, immigrants with a third world origin, and Pakistanis. With the most extrem assumption about net immigration (12.000 foreign citizens per year), the foreign population will consist of almost 1,5 million persons, 30 per cent of the total population in the year 2050. One half of the group will be born in Norway, one half abroad. With a net immigration of 12.000 foreigners, we estimate 9.000 to come from third world countries. Projected to the year 2050, this immigrant group will increase from 67.000 in 1988 to nearly 1 million in 2050, or 20 per cent of the projected total population.

A net migration of 5.000 per year will result in a population with 15 per cent being of third world origin in 2050, If the immigration is reduced from 5.000 to 2.000 from the year 2008, the percentage in 2050 will be 10. Even without any net immigration from third world countries after 1988, the percentage of third world descendants will increase from 1,6 per cent in 1988 to 3,4 per cent in 2050.

Impact of political changes in Eastern Europe

The political changes in the East European countries have not yet had any significant effects on the migratory pattern of Norway. We have for some time had many temporary visitors from Poland, who enter the country on tourist visas and work temporarily in the summer and early autumn (see section 3.1). The regulations for having temporary work have been changed recently to limit the access to the labour market for persons staying in the country on a tourist visa. These changes have not had any effect on the number of Poles working in Norway. Poland has for some years been one of the more important sending countries for asylum seekers. Normally, the asylum seekers are not seasonal workers who stay on and seek asylum. If this had been used as a back-door for entry to the country, it would have been closed immediately.

The political changes have probably been even greater in the other East European countries, but the number of migrants or asylum seekers from these countries is very small and do not show any significant increase. One

exception might be Romania. This year we have received 159 asylum seekers from that country, but of these only 30 arrived after the 1 June, after which date Romanians had to have a visa to be allowed to enter Norway. Most of those wanting to leave their countries seem to have closer or more natural choice than Norway.

According to a news item of 15 October, the chairman of the Supreme Soviet estimated the number of Soviet citizens wanting to emigrate to Scandinavia to be 4-5 millions. As long as Norway keeps the immigration ban, and the political situation in the Soviet Union is dominated by the more liberal groups, Soviet refugees will probably not be allowed to stay in Norway. This attitude will not be influenced by economic recession and unemployment in the Soviet Union.

Yugoslavia has for some years been a major sending country of asylum seekers (see table 9). That is due to the situation for the ethnic Albanians in Kosovo, and is an other aspect of the political changes in other Eastern European countries. However, one can imagine that problems between ethnic groups in Yugoslavia and other Eastern European countries may cause new exoduses, like when ethnic Turks and other Muslims left Bulgaria during the summer of 1989. Norway was unaffected by that stream, but other groups might still want to consider to go to Norway. At the moment, it is not very likely that ethnic refugees or other refugees from Eastern Europe would be given asylum in Norway. If the political situation worsens dramatically, the attitude might change, but accelerating economic problems of these countries will probably not be reasons accepted for entering Norway.

1.2 Emigration and return of nationals

Norway was for a long time an out-migration country. Between 1865 and 1930, some 900.000 Norwegian citizens left the country for destinations overseas, mainly USA (Backer 1965). Relative to the population size, this was (in Europe) second only to Ireland. Between 1945 and 1970, the net emigration of Norwegians was 1 - 2.000 yearly. Since 1970, the yearly number of immigrating nationals has been close to 7.000 (table 10). The number of emigrating nationals was slowly increasing until 1987, creating an emigration surplus approaching 1.500 annually.

From 1988, the number of nationals leaving the country has increased sharply; whereas the immigration has been unchanged. Consequently, the net out-migration of Norwegian citizens was 9.000 in 1989 (table 10). It seems like the economic recession and the increasing unemployment towards the end of the 1980s got a much quicker response from Norwegian than from foreign citizens. More than 50 per cent of the Norwegians who left the country in 1989, moved to Sweden. Towards Sweden we had a net loss of 7.000 Norwegian migrants. In Sweden, the labour market has currently had a great need for qualified workers. There is free movement of labour within Scandinavia, and the labour market authorities in Norway and Sweden have successful recruitment campaigns in Norway in collaboration with Swedish enterprises. If the differences between the labour markets in the two countries are reduced, we would expect a certain return migration within the next years. According to calculations from made in September, the Swedes expect the same gain of Norwegians in 1990 as in 1989 (personal communication, Sven Reinans).

The number of national citizens migrating to and from countries outside Europe is well balanced. In 1989, Norway had a small net emigration of nationals to virtually every country in Europe, and to many overseas countries as well. The net figures, however, exceeded 100 only to USA, UK, FRG, France, and Spain, in addition to Sweden.

The inflow of nationals does not show any changes in level (table 10) or pattern in recent years. The main countries of origin are our Scandinavian neighbours, UK and some other Western European countries, and USA. In addition there is some exchange with third world countries which receive Norwegian development assistance. The total number of returning Norwegians equals less than 0,2 per cent of the total population. No difficulties of their reintegration have been reported.

In our population statistics, there is no distinction between temporary and permanent migration. Every absence intended to be of longer duration than 6 months is registered as emigration in the Central Population Register.

2 FOREIGN RESIDENTS AND RESIDENTS ABROAD

2.1 Foreign residents

From a demographic point of view, the foreign population of Norway has grown in importance as the natural growth of the national population has declined. The demographic aspects are analysed among others by Texmon and Østby (1989) and Vassenden (1988).

The proportion of foreign residents in the population has increased steadily in 1980s, from 2,0 per cent at the beginning of the decade to 3,3 per cent at the end. At the beginning of this century, the percentage was the same as in 1980, but it was only 1/2 per cent at the end of World War II. Table 12 and diagram 2 shows the distribution by country and region of origin based on citizenship, and the changes in the distribution during the 1980s.

25 per cent of the foreign residents are citizens of a Scandinavian country and more than 25 per cent belong to the rest of Europe. 60 per cent has an origin in the industrialised world, and the rest come from third world countries (Africa, Asia and Latin America). The proportion coming from a third world country has doubled during the 1980s, due to processes described in section 1. The number has increased from 16.000 to 55.000. At the beginning of the century, the majority of the foreigners in the country were Swedes.

The increase in number of foreign citizens slowed down towards the end of the 1980s. In 1989, the number of foreigners increased by 4.400 persons (3 per cent), and we had a shift towards third world origin. The number of Scandinavians decreased by 2.000, and the number from most other European countries were lower at the end of 1989 than at the beginning. Mainly due to asylum seekers, the number of Poles (200) and Yugoslavs (850) increased, as well as the number of Turks (400). In 1989, the number of citizens from Asia, Africa and Latin America increased with more than 6.000 to 55.430. The increase is partly due to inflow of refugees and asylum seekers, to family reunifications and to children born in Norway by foreign parents.

The distribution by age is shown in relative numbers in diagram 3, based on

Central Bureau of Statistics (1990a). Compared to the national population, there is a clear concentration of young adults. The share of these age groups (20-34 years) in the foreign population is almost twice their share in the national population. The percentage of children is about the same as in the total population.

There is a strong concentration of foreigners in the capital region, and also in the counties surrounding two of the other largest cities, Bergen and Stavanger. The geographical distribution is illustrated in diagram 4. Generally, there are more foreigners in urban than in rural areas. The distribution is changing due to the location of the reception centers of the asylum seekers and the organised settlement of refugees and persons granted permit to stay of humanitarian reasons, as discussed in section 1.

So far, foreign residents have been defined as foreign citizens. However, it is possible, and for some purposes more relevant, to use other definitions of foreigners, by combining own and parental nationality and country of birth. On 1 January 1990, we had 140.300 foreign citizens in Norway. 183.300 persons were born abroad. Among the foreign citizens, 21.000 were born in Norway. Many of them may be considered as second generation immigrants. Thus, the total number of foreign persons can be estimated to be slightly above 200.000. 110.000 persons living in Norway have one of their parents born abroad, many of whom are Norwegian citizens (Vassenden, 1988).

Table 11 shows the population of Norway by country of birth, and table 12 the population by citizenship. Comparing figures for 1 January 1990 in tables 11 and 12, gives an impression of the differences inherent in the two definitions of foreigners. The geographical distribution is very much the same in the two tables, especially on the higher regional level.

The largest difference concerns Korea. The great majority of persons born in Korea and living in Norway are adopted children, who obtain Norwegian citizenship shortly after arriving in the country. Further, it has been more common for Danes than for Swedes to become Norwegian citizens. The average duration of stay in Norway explains many of the differences between tables 11 and 12. In addition, refugees who have judged their possibility to return home as low (esp. from Eastern Europe and South Africa) have more

often than other refugees taken Norwegian citizenship.

Among the more important countries in tables 11 and 12, only Pakistan and Turkey has greater figures in table 12 than in table 11. That means that the number of citizens from Pakistan and Turkey in Norway is higher than the number of persons living in Norway and born in the countries themselves. Births in Norway among citizens of these two countries more than compensate for losses due to deaths, emigrations and naturalisations.

2.2 Naturalisations

The number of naturalisations is shown in table 13. The numbers show random fluctuations 1980-1987, but a substantial increase during the last two years. This is in accordance with the fact that the number of eligible and interested foreigners is increasing. Behind the stable figures before 1987, there is a decreasing number of naturalisations of citizens from the industrialised world and an increasing number from the third world. It is not easy to find the correct denominator for making comparable relative figures for naturalisations. In table 13, the number taking Norwegian citizenship in 1988 for each country is given as a percentage of the total number of foreign citizens at the beginning of the year. Norwegian citizenship is normally obtainable after living in the country for 7 years, or by family ties. Thus, the distribution of length of stay in Norway is important.

The most common countries of birth of adopted children have very high relative numbers in table 13. Among the rest, the level is much higher among third world citizens than among Europeans. Since many citizens of Viet Nam have been in Norway for less than 7 years, it must be very common for them to obtain Norwegian citizenship very soon after having stayed long enough in the country. Pakistanis and Turks so far do not make use of their opportunity to obtain Norwegian citizenship to the same extent. This difference may reflect different opinions about returning to the country of origin. In 1989, the Vietnamese had more naturalisations than any other group. Persons of Western European origin have at the moment little interest in changing their citizenship.

2.3 Mixed marriages

There is no new data on this, so the text and tables in this section are unchanged from the 1988-report. There were about 46.000 existing marriages between persons born in Norway and persons born abroad at the beginning of 1988 (see table 14a). 21.000 are foreign born men married to Norwegian born women, and 25.000 men born in Norway are married to women born abroad. There are relatively few Norwegian born women married to men born in Asia, and relatively many Norwegian women married to men born in Africa. This pattern is particularly pronounced for South-East Asia and North Africa.

Table 14b shows marriages contracted in 1988 by citizenship of wife and husband. Most members of the new immigrant groups seem to find partners among their compatriots and not among Norwegians. This might be the case for second generation immigrants as well. The potential for family reunifications is highly dependent upon the marriage pattern.

There has recently been a debate about whether or not pro forma marriages are used as a means to get around the immigration ban, or to obtain permits to stay for asylum seekers. The number of divorces (table 14c) indicates that pro forma marriages between Norwegian women and African men may not be totally non-existent, and that they probably are absent in all other groups. Among other types of mixed or foreign marriages, the marital stability seems to be on the level of or higher than that in marriages between Norwegian partners.

For some time matrimonial agencies have been intermediaries in finding South-East Asian and East-European wives for Norwegian men. These marriages do not seem to have higher risks for divorce than other marriages.

2.4 Fertility among foreign born women

Inspired by the public interest in immigrant fertility and by the OECD Meeting of National Experts on the Demographic Aspects of Migration in November 1988, we have made some estimates of immigrant fertility in Norway for the years 1986 and 1987. The results referred to in this section are taken from Vassenden and Østby (1989). At the end of the section, we have added some unpublished data for 1988 and 1989.

The total number of births in Norway was 54.000 in 1987. Exactly 10 per cent of the new-born had one or two parents born abroad. One third of them (1.867 children) had a Norwegian mother and a father born abroad, one third (1.866) had a foreign mother and a Norwegian father, and 1.606 children were born to parents both born in another country. Altogether, persons from 120 countries became parents in Norway in 1987.

Our Scandinavian neighbours were responsible for 25 per cent of the new-born with at least one foreign parent, other industrialised countries 38 per cent and third world countries 37 per cent. Foreigners from some countries marry and have children with their own nationals, while others mostly find Norwegian partners. In couples with at least one partner from countries like Sweden, USA, UK, Denmark and the Philippines, 80-90 per cent of the partners were born in Norway. People born in Pakistan, Viet Nam and Turkey, however, almost always find a partner from their own country if they have children. About 95 per cent of births to third world women take place in marriage, whereas only 2/3 of the births to Norwegian-born women are within marriage.

The capital Oslo has the greatest absolute and relative number of immigrants in Norway. The percentage living in Oslo is greater (up to 90) among immigrants from the typical immigrant worker countries than among immigrants from industrialised countries. The city had 11,5 per cent of the total number of births in Norway in 1987, 29 per cent of all children born with one immigrant parent, 47 per cent of those with two foreign-born parents, and as much as 60 per cent of children born to a couple from a third world country. 28 per cent of the foreign-born population lives in Oslo.

A special problem is connected with measuring immigrant fertility, namely the dependency between fertility and duration of the stay in the country. We have had an immigration ban since 1975. Some exceptions are stated in the provisions concerning refugees, scientists, exchange of youth, specialists on short time contracts or of vital importance for an employer, and persons with special connections to Norway or to persons living in Norway. Thus, family reunifications are allowed, and every Norwegian citizen, or person with a residence permit, may bring in spouse and

children under the age of 18. The women from third world countries most commonly represented in Norway are seldom applying for asylum or are allowed to enter the country under other exception rules than family reunification. The fact that a woman from that part of the world is permitted to stay in Norway, is closely related to her stage in the family formation process. On this basis, it is easy to understand that groups with high proportions of newly arrived women, have high fertility rates.

Altogether, foreign born women caused the total fertility rate of Norway to be 0,025 higher than the "native" Norwegian fertility rate. Women born abroad had a total fertility rate (TFR) of 2,19 in 1987, Norwegian-born women had 1,72. Table 16 shows that women born in the third world had significantly higher fertility than Norwegian-born women. We find high rates mainly among women from our traditional migrant workers countries. One per cent of the total births were among women from these countries. Women coming from countries with many asylum seekers had exceptionally low fertility rates.

Due to conditions under which third world women are permitted to enter the country, we would expect a strong dependency between fertility and duration of stay in Norway. Diagram 5 shows TFR for different groups of foreign women by duration of stay, based on births in 1986 and 1987. Women born in Pakistan, Turkey, and Morocco have very high fertility rates the first years after arrival. For those who have stayed in Norway less than two years, the TFR was 6,7. However, this is based on 185 births only. The rate should be compared to newly married Norwegian women, as they are in the same stage in the family formation process. After two years of marriage, Norwegian women have 0,5 children on the average, which is the same as immigrant women from Pakistan etc. have after two years of stay in Norway.

New immigrant fertility data for 1988-89 have just been produced. They have not yet been analysed, but I will refer to some preliminary results. The main conclusions based on 1986-87 data are not to be changed. There has been a general fertility increase in Norway towards the end of the 1980s. The TFR for all women living in Norway was 1,89 in 1989. Norwegian-born women alone had a TFR of 1,86. In 1985, 9 per cent of the new-born had at least one parent born abroad. That percentage was 11 in 1989, which is quite low compared to the increase in the foreign-born population.

In the analysis of the 1986-87 data, we studied the duration dependency, based on a rather small number of observations. The overall dependency seems to be very little affected by adding observations for another two years. Women who have recently arrived from a third world country, still have very high fertility rates, in accordance with the reason for their admittance to Norway. We have expected an increase in the fertility of women from refugee-countries. At the end of the 1980s, that increase was still moderate.

2.5 Education of foreigners

Calculations made on the basis of the population censuses and the register of education, show that foreigners in Norway generally have a very high level of education (Central Bureau of Statistics, 1989b). More than one in four foreign-born women of age 40-49 has a university degree. This is higher than for any other 10-year cohort, of men or women, born in Norway or abroad.

Due to lack of information on education taken abroad by immigrants coming to the country after 1980, the group without any information on education is relatively large. If those without any stated education is supposed to have the same distribution of education as the others, the education differences in favour of the immigrants will be even higher. Immigrants from Central Europe have on average the highest level of education, together with people born in Egypt, Iran and China. The lowest level of education is among immigrants from the traditional migrant workers countries (Central Bureau of Statistics, 1989b, and Vassenden, 1990).

Table 17 shows the number of pupils in primary (age 7-12) and lower secondary (age 13-15) school who speak another language than Norwegian with at least one of their parents at home. The percentage is increasing, probably mostly due to improvements in the statistical system. The increase of foreign speaking pupils is much stronger than the increase of foreign citizens in school-age. In 1983, 12.400 persons of age 7-15 were foreign citizens, whereas the number was 15.500 at the end of 1989. 3,5 per cent of all the pupils in Norwegian schools speak a foreign language at home.

2.6 Foreign students

The number of persons with education as the reason for their temporary residence permit, was about 5.500 per september 1990. The number will differ from the real number of students because it includes family members of persons with student permits. It does not include persons with another primary cause to stay in Norway, but who have started to study after the arrival. The real number of foreign students is not very far from 5.000.

It is a stated aim of our educational policy to increase the number of foreign students at Norwegian institutions for higher education. This is one of several measures in a general internationalisation of Norwegian higher education and research. In addition, it seems to be a general agreement that accepting students from third world countries is an important part of our aid to developing countries. The policy concerning foreign students and internationalisation is discussed in a report to the Ministry for Culture and Science (Kultur- og vitenskapsdepartementet, 1989).

The foreign students may be given temporary permit to work. They are allowed to work part-time during the study terms and to have full-time jobs in the vacations. The Norwegian system for grants and loans to students cover only the terms (total 10 1/2 months per year). These students are competing at the labour market with Norwegian citizens at formally equal conditions. As the Norwegian labour market is difficult at the moment, it may be difficult for students or others, nationals or foreigners, to find a part-time job. The labour market authorities shall give priority to foreign students before other foreigners seeking seasonal work in Norway.

The State Educational Loan Fund gives financial aid to some groups of foreign students. The assistance is given as a combination of grant (scholarship) and loan. The loans have to be repaid according to the regulations in force. Four kinds of students are entitled to support, according to different rules:

- 1) Political refugees
- 2) Foreign citizens with special links to Norway
- 3) Citizens from most developing countries
- 4) Citizens from Nordic countries

Under 1), a person must have obtained status as political refugee or residence permit on humanitarian basis. They have the same rights as Norwegian citizens. Applicants for asylum awaiting a decision, are not entitled. Those who are accepted as political refugees, will in addition receive a grant for a maximum of three years of secondary education.

"Special links to Norway" is given a broad definition, including to have worked on Norwegian ships and paid taxes to Norway for not less than 12 months immediately preceding the school year. Citizens from developing countries who undergo vocational education in Norway, may be granted financial aid according to special rules even if the conditions mentioned are not complied with. The aim is to give citizens from developing countries the possibility to take an education in Norway, that later on can be used in the home country. With the same reasoning, the Norwegian Agency for International Development (NORAD) gives scholarships to a number of foreign students.

It is, however, a rather small fraction of the students from the developing world who have been given student loans and have completed their studies, who so far have returned to their home country.

2.7 Nationals resident abroad

Norwegian population statistics contain very little information about nationals residing abroad. Everyone emigrating from Norway after 1964 keeps his/her individual identification number in the CPR, but the registration status of the person is changed from "Resident" to "Emigrated". Thus, it is possible to count the number of emigrated persons not having returned to the country. The figures for the most common countries are collected in table 18. Information on changes occurring abroad (marriage, migration, change of citizenship etc.) are registered only at the return to the country, so we do not know what have happened after the emigration for those who have not returned. Deaths among nationals residing abroad are seldom registered.

In table 18 we have also included the number of emigrated Norwegian citizens in 1988 and 1989 to give an indication of how recent the emigration is. We see that the emigration during the last two years equals more than 50 per cent of the total stock of Norwegians in Sweden and France. We expect a considerable return migration from these countries, especially if the labour market conditions behind the recent out-migration improve. Distant countries, and countries with little recent immigration of Norwegians, cannot be expected to create high number of return-migrants.

3. EMPLOYMENT OF FOREIGNERS

3.1 Employment status

Very little is known about the employment situation of immigrant groups in Norway. From the population censuses we have some information, but at the last census in 1980, immigration was not an important topic in the analysis. Numerically as well as politically, the importance of immigration has grown during the 1980s. The Labour Force Survey could have been used for analyses of the employment status of immigrants. However, due to small samples and high non-response rates among immigrants, especially from the third world, the results will not be published. Instead, the Central Bureau of Statistics will exploit the register over employers and employees, linked with information from the Central Population Register. We hope to have some results from that project before the next SOPEMI report. The 1990 Census will be based partly on a 8-20 per cent sample of the population in the greater municipalities, combined with use of the registers. Thus, it will not give very detailed information on employment activities of small groups of immigrants. Results from the 1990-census will not be available before 1992.

Generally, it is not believed that there is illegal employment of immigrants of any magnitude, with a minor exception for the construction industry. During the construction boom before 1988, construction companies often hired subcontractors who temporarily used foreign workers, mainly from other Scandinavian countries, without properly informing the authorities. This may now have been brought to an end by the economic recession. The employment situation in the oil industry is complicated, and there may be some possibilities for irregularities. In addition, there may be an undercount of seasonal workers, as discussed below.

People staying in Norway while waiting for their asylum application to be settled and foreign students may be given a temporal work permit. In the period between May 15 and October 31, persons visiting the country as tourists (with a visa or not) can also be granted a permit to take seasonal work of less than three months' duration. They have to apply for permit to work at the Norwegian embassy in their home country. There is no complete registration of such permits, but a substantial number of persons is involved.

A special group is seasonal workers from Poland. During the 1980s, an increasing number has arrived on tourist visas to take temporary work in agriculture, etc. Before 1989, it was easy to obtain a permit to work after arriving in the country if one was offered a job. In 1989, more than 25.000 visas were issued at the Norwegian embassy in Warsaw, and in 1990 the number is of the same magnitude. Most of the visa-holders have the intention to obtain seasonal work and to return home after the expiration of their visa. In 1990, tourists intending to take seasonal work, should apply for a working permit before leaving Poland. It seems that only 10 per cent has done so. Most of the visa holders are, nevertheless, assumed to have worked in Norway.

From 1989 unemployed Norwegians and foreigners already in the country (students, asylum seekers, refugees etc.) are supposed to be given priority before foreigners on temporary visit. An employer will not get permission to hire a visitor or a tourist before the job has been offered to other applicants through the official employment service. This takes time and the employer will have to pay more for workers hired through official channels. In addition, farmers often know the Poles from previous visits, and they are generally very well satisfied with their work. On this background, there may be a substantial number of clandestine workers in the harvest season, and as building maintenance workers. As the great majority of Poles return home without causing any trouble for the immigration authorities, their presence and work seems to be silently accepted.

3.2 Number and characteristics of first entries to the labour market of foreigners already resident

We do not have any information on the first entries to the labour market of foreigners already resident in the country. The background is that the registration of the reason to stay is at the entry to the country. For persons who have entered for family reunification we do not know whether or not their work permit is their first one.

There exists, however, information on newly issued work permits for every year. Table 19 shows the numbers of first permits to stay and first permits to work issued for the years 1975-1989. There is an increasing proportion of permits given to citizens of third world countries.

3.3 Unemployment

Our register of unemployed persons contains information on citizenship . As we do not have information on the total number of foreigners in the labour force, table 20 shows the unemployment in per cent of the total population in the active ages. If better data were available, the difference between Norwegians and especially third world citizens would have been greater. As we do not have any employment information, it is of no use to break the unemployment down by occupation, industry etc.

The total unemployment in the country has increased with about 1/3 from the beginning of 1989 to the beginning of 1990. The increase among foreigners has, however, been very moderate. Table 20 is based on the registered unemployment, and as many foreigners have no rights to unemployment benefits and they have bad prospects for obtaining a job in a difficult labour market, their unemployment figures might give a too positive picture of the labour market situation for foreigners.

The average duration of the unemployment period is shorter for foreigners than it is for Norwegians, but this may be due to differences in job searching opportunities. Asian nationals have longer unemployment periods than other foreigners (Directorate of Labour, 1990).

4. SETTLEMENT IN THE HOST COUNTRY

4.1 Development of policy

It is my impression that since 1988, foreigners trying to obtain a permit to stay in Norway are treated in a more restrictive manner than before. There may be several reasons behind this. Generally, there has been an increasing hostility towards "visible" immigrants in the country as their numbers are growing. The political authorities are trying to introduce a sharp, but probably artificial distinction between "real" refugees and economic migrants. (For the distinction between economic and political refugees, see Simmons 1989.)

The same kind of argument is used by organised movements with a stated aim to reduce the foreign impact in the Norwegian population. Broad groups will limit third world immigration only to "genuine" refugees. Thus, legitimacy has been given to racist actions against asylum seekers and other third world immigrants. The number of violent attacks on asylum seekers has increased, causing many of them to feel unsafe. However, the situation seems to have improved during the last year. The Peace Research Institute in Oslo (PRIO) has analysed that type of criminality (Bjørge, 1990).

The government stated that the large number of asylum seekers in 1987 was a problem, and it has succeeded in limiting the number of permits and new applicants in the last years. Asylum applications are more restrictively handled than before, but on the other hand, the number of quota refugees has increased (see page 11). Close family members to persons already given permit to stay in the country are granted family reunification on the same reasons as before. Everyone with a general permit to stay, as family member or for other reasons, will also have access to the labour market. However, in times with rising unemployment their prospects in the labour market are more difficult than those of the nationals. At the beginning of 1991, the new Aliens Act will be introduced. There is reason to believe that the more restrictive treatment of immigrants will be in accordance with this law.

Normally, persons who have stayed in the country for seven years may be granted Norwegian citizenship upon request. After having stayed for at least three years, foreign citizens have the right to vote in local elections. The participation rates of foreign citizens have been

significantly lower than among Norwegian citizens at both elections (1983: 46 per cent versus 73 per cent, 1987: 41 per cent versus 67 per cent). The rates varied considerably between 1983 and 1987 for most of the national groups. Citizens of Morocco and Turkey generally had low participation rates, whereas Pakistanis were above the average of foreign citizens (Central Bureau of Statistics, 1984 and 1987).

Based on two different approaches, we have had a very loud debate on the criminality of foreigners in Norway. One starting point was the supposed high number of rapes committed by immigrants from Muslim countries. The participants fell into all the traditional pitfalls of criminological debates. Some used sentences, some used reports to the police or even the impression of police officers, some used only their good or bad will. Nobody used the data, showing only two-three convictions yearly.

At the same time, Falck and Støkken (1990) presented a pilot study trying to assess the data sources and methodological problems involved in analyses of immigrant criminology. Their conclusion was that the criminality among immigrants were surprisingly low, and could not be said to be higher than in comparable groups of Norwegian citizens. Foreigners only visiting Norway were responsible for a significant part of crimes committed by foreigners, and could not be related to the immigrant population in Norway. This is typical for severe drug crimes.

4.2 Coverage of migrants by social security

Everyone living in Norway has the right to social care, i.e. supplementary benefits or economic assistance from local government when they "... are unable to support themselves or take care of themselves". Ottesen (1989) has presented an analysis of the use of the social security system by foreigners and Norwegians, respectively, and found that foreign citizens have been overrepresented among recipients of economic assistance at an increasing degree in the period 1977-1988.

The very steep increase in the social security expenditure in Norway is partly explained by the increasing number of foreigners dependent on social support. This was one of the reasons behind the new agreement between the central and local governments on reception of refugees etc. (see page 13).

The intention with this agreement is to limit the needs for social security benefits and the amount spent on it in the municipalities, but the coverage will be the same. The problems seem to relate to difficulties concerning integration in the labour market. The new agreement is expected to give local authorities better motivation for facilitating that integration, and consequently reduce the need for social security assistance.

The Norwegian Institute for Applied Social Analysis (INAS) are at the moment carrying out a research project financed by the Ministry of Health and Social Affairs to analyse in depth how different types of immigrants use the social security system. The pilot project is reported by Berge and Vattekar (1989).

The Central Bureau of Statistics conducts Surveys on Level of Living every three or four years. In 1983, a special sample of immigrants from Chile, Pakistan, Viet Nam, Turkey, and UK was included. The results are reported by Støren (1987). Immigrants from non-European countries seem to have more difficult living conditions than Norwegian and British citizens. The differences are significant in areas of employment and working conditions and in housing.

5. RETURN TO THE COUNTRY OF ORIGIN

No direct measures are taken to promote repatriation of foreign citizens, and repatriation is not a part of Norwegian immigration policy. Nobody will be encouraged to return against their will. There is, however, some measures taken to facilitate the reinsertation in the country of origin for persons who want to return. Some refugees have returned to Latin-American countries with assistance from Norway, but the numbers involved are very limited.

There are some activities going on in cooperation with different international organisations to integrate short and long term developing aid and repatriation. This will be of more concern to refugees staying in third world countries than to those staying in Norway. There seems to be a general agreement on the necessity to integrate a repatriation policy in the general policy for developing aid. Resources allocated for developing aid may be used for facilitating voluntary repatriation, but so far this has happened in very few cases. Assistance of this kind will be given to local communities and not to persons. It is supposed that transfers directly to returning migrants or refugees will be discriminatory towards those who never left their home country.

6. POLITICAL CONTACTS WITH SENDING COUNTRIES

Norway takes active part in the cooperation organised by the UN High Commissioner for Refugees and other UN bodies to reduce the global refugee problems. The main aim of this policy is to reduce the factors creating the need for migration, and to improve the living conditions for those having to leave their homes, for political, economic, or ecological reasons. Normally, there are not many bilateral contacts between Norway and the countries from where we receive immigrants, refugees, and asylum seekers.

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Diagram 1. Immigration, emigration, asylum seekers and political refugees (quota). 1973 - 1989

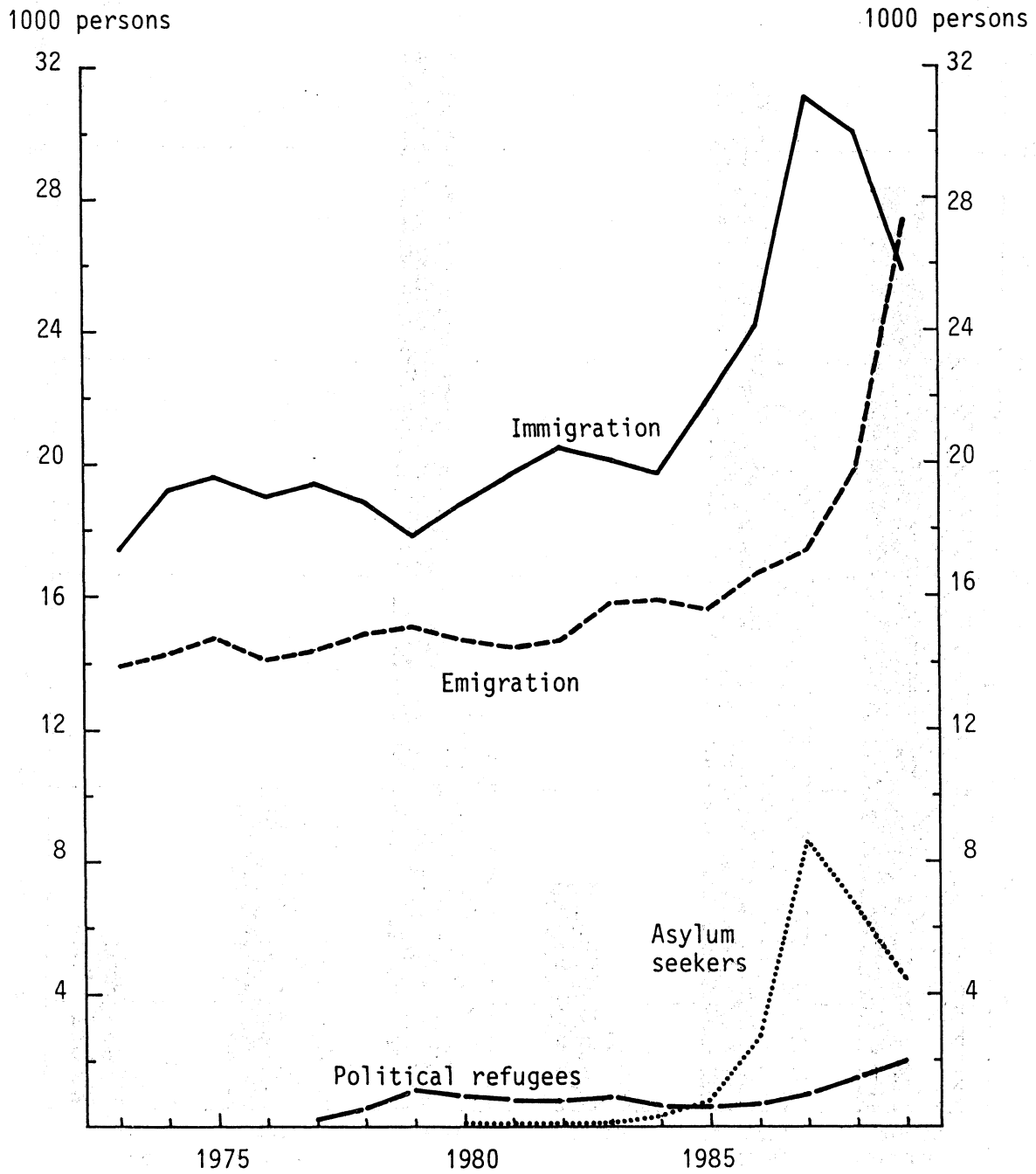


Diagram 2. Foreign citizens by citizenship. 1 January 1981 and 1 January 1990

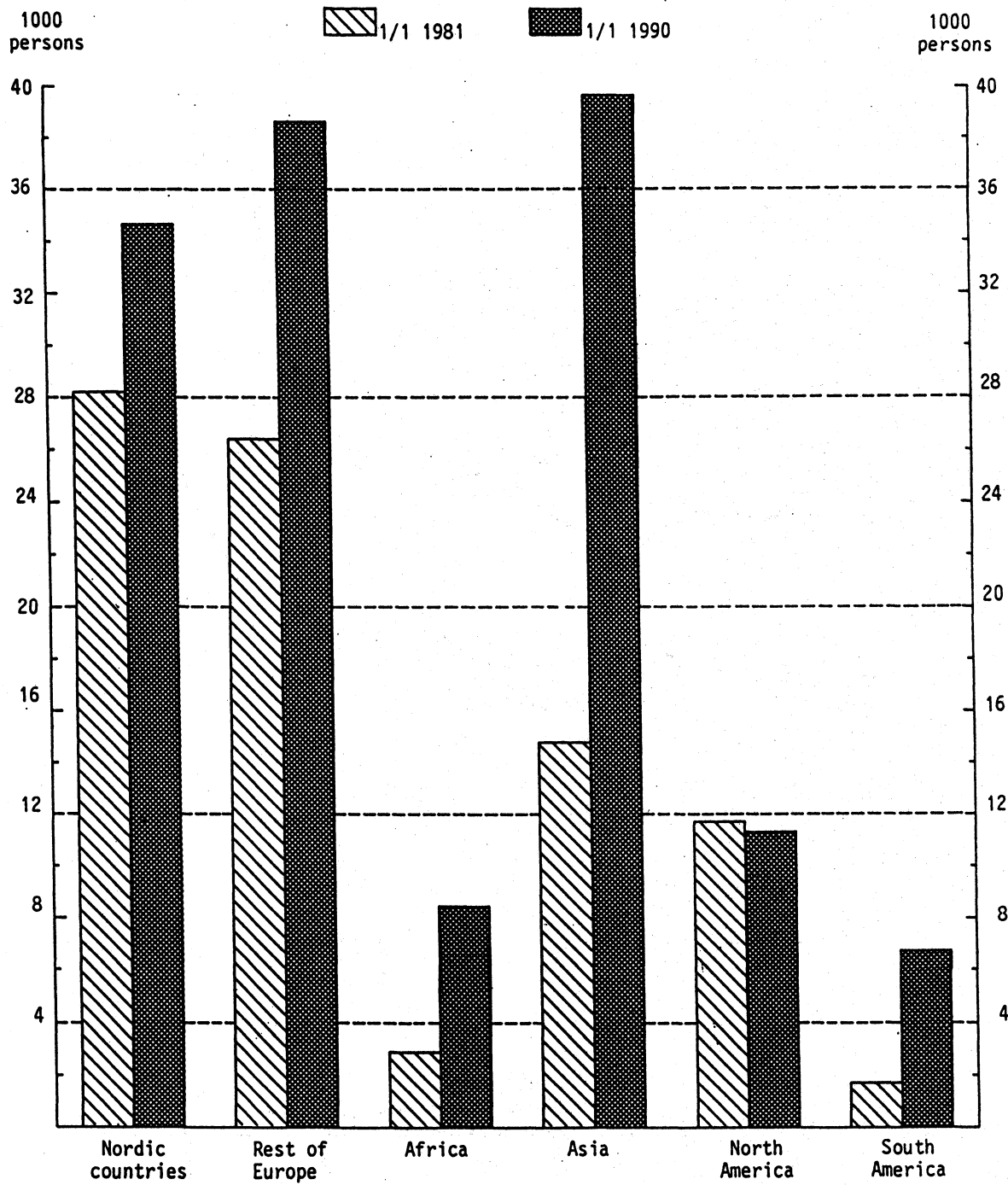


Diagram 3. Total population and immigrants, by sex and age. Per cent.
1 January 1990

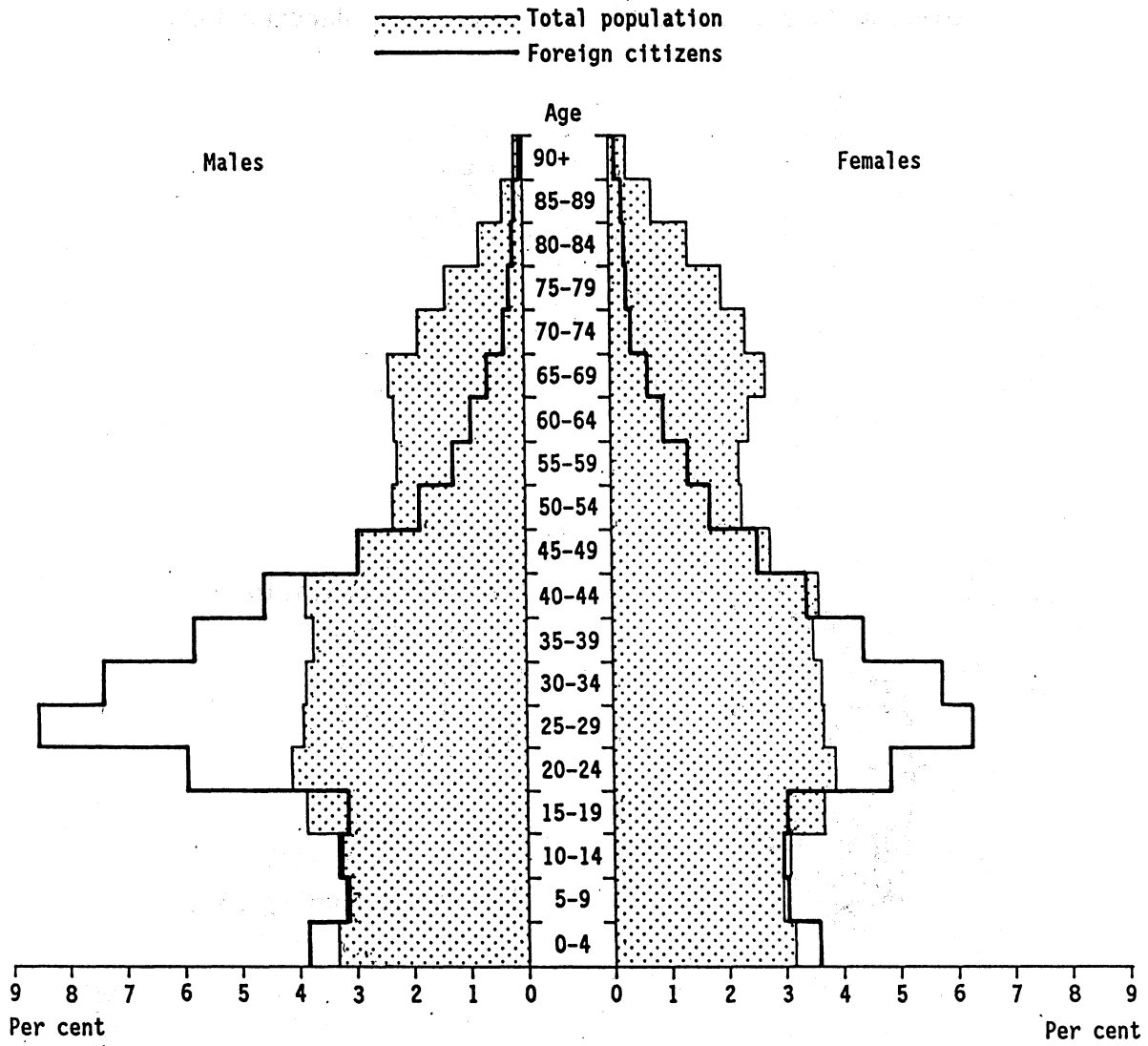


Diagram 4. Foreign citizens. Country. 1 January 1990

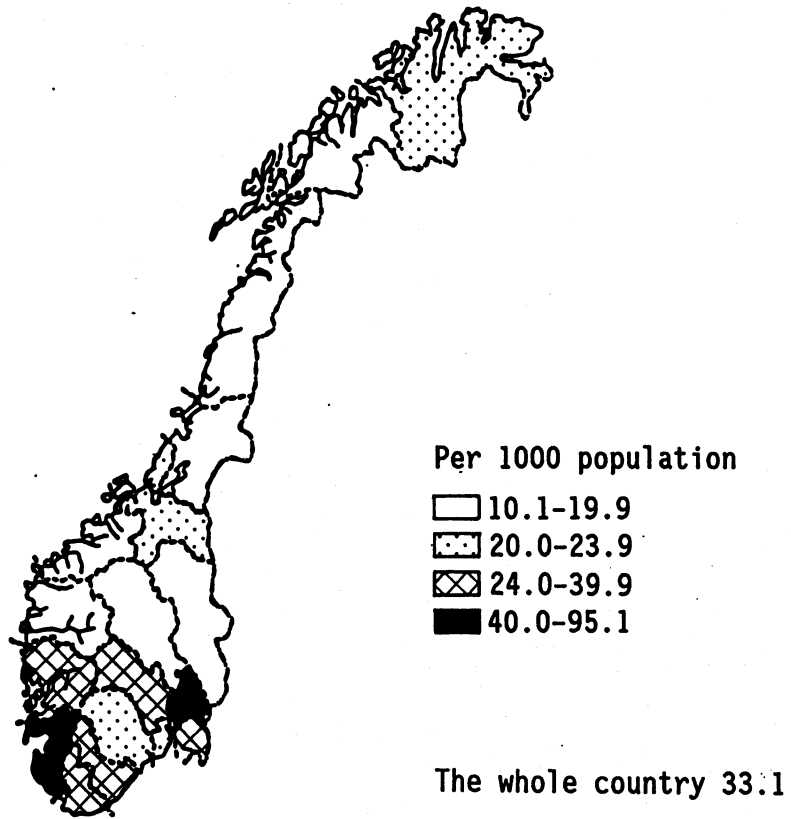


Diagram 5. Total fertility rate for immigrant women, by length of stay in the country. 1986-1987

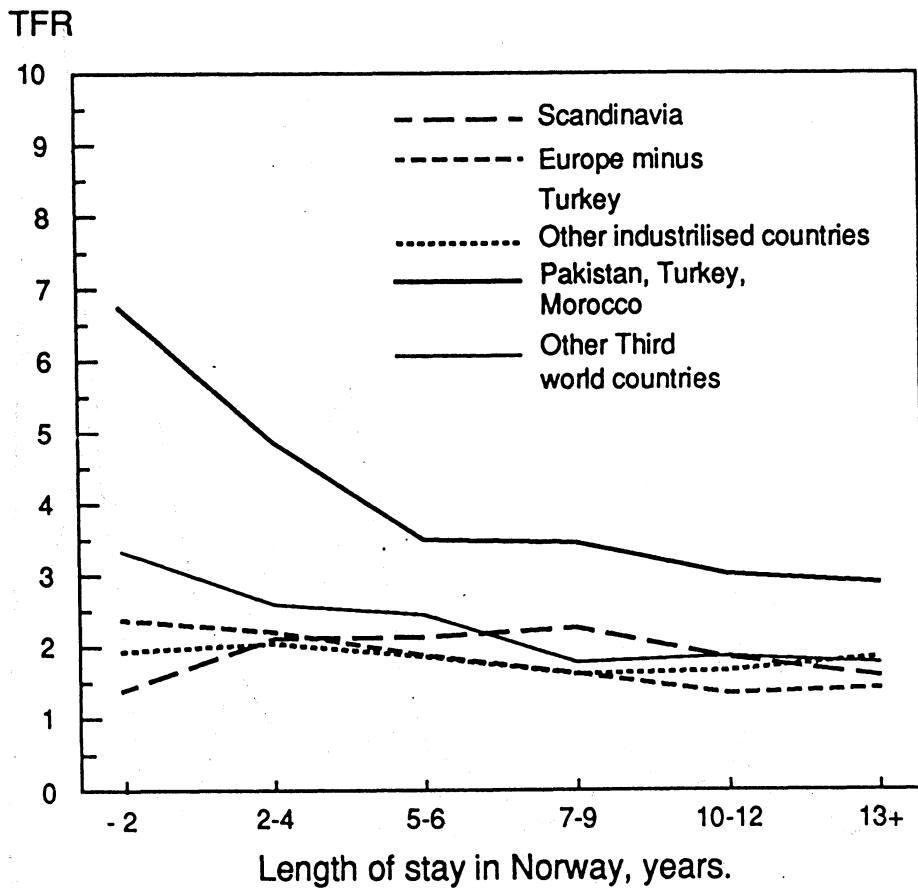


Diagram 6. Gross migrant inflow and total unemployment rate
1972 - 1989

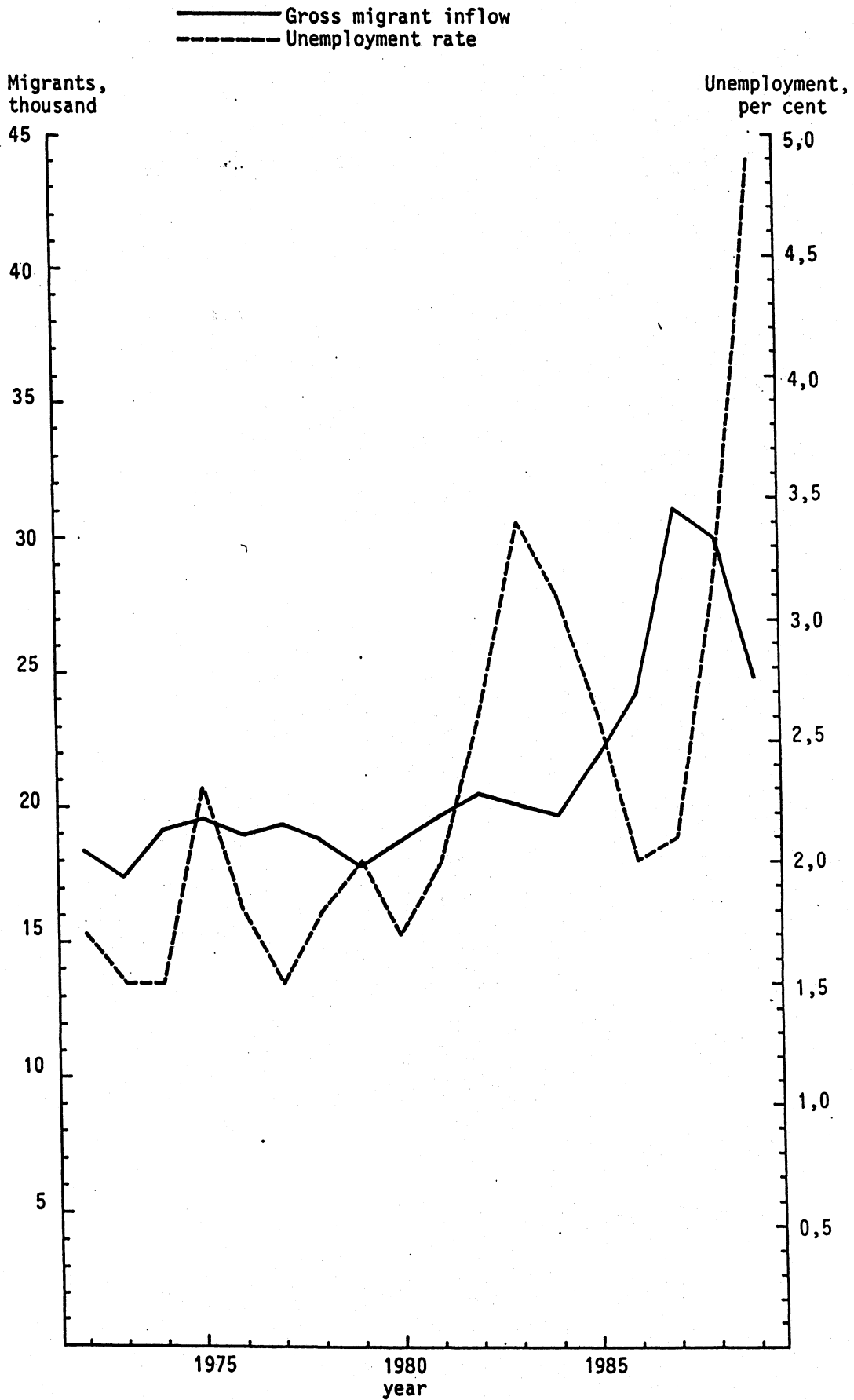
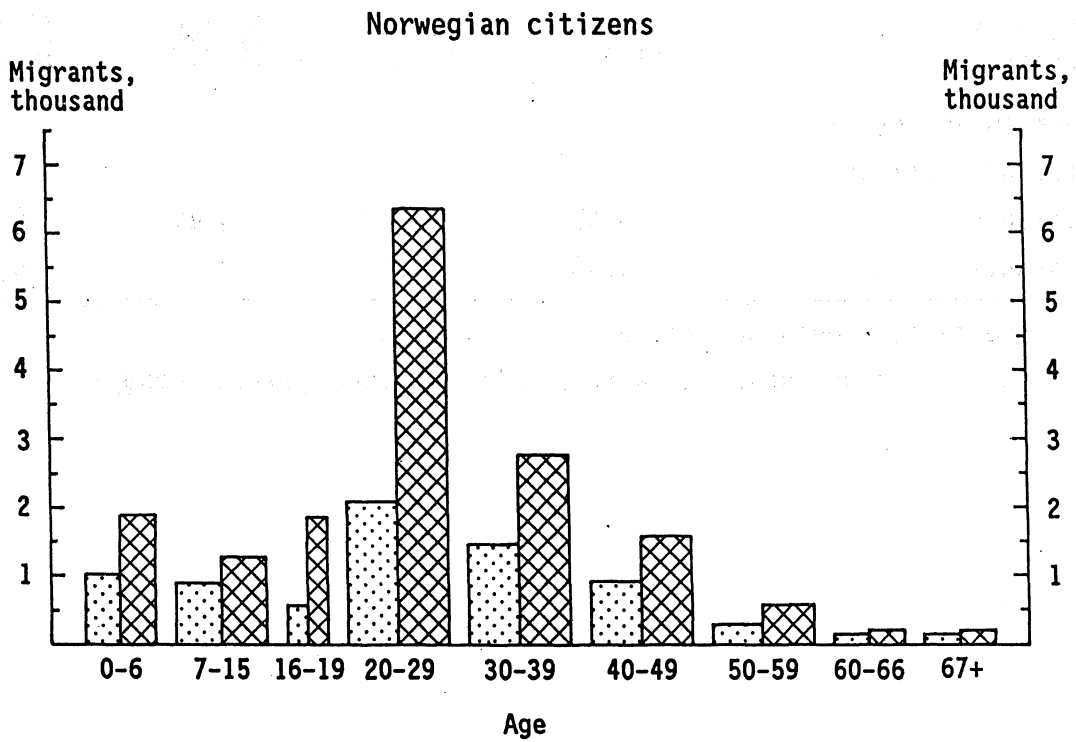
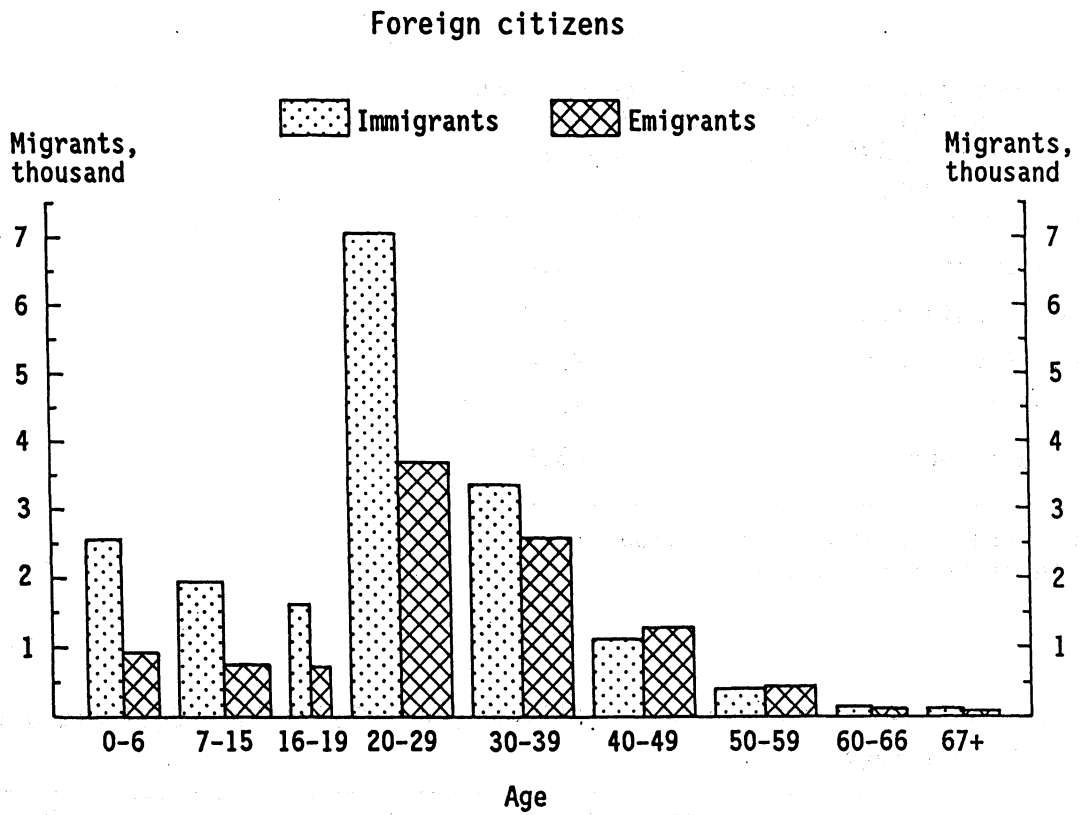


Diagram 7. Migration to and from Norway, by age and citizenship. 1989



TABLES

Table 1. Demographic growth, economic growth and migration between 1988 and 1989, NORWAY. (Annual change in per cent)

Total population ¹	+0.4
Foreign population ¹	+7.0
Inflow of foreigners	-20.2
Real GNP ²	+2.3
Total employment ²	-3.5

¹ Growth from mid-1988 to mid-1989.

² Growth of yearly average.

Table 2. Average annual gross inflows and outflows of legal migrants. 1971-1989

	1971-75	1976-80	1981-85	1986-89
Immigrants	18 766	18 758	20 355	27 789
Emigrants	13 931	14 615	15 317	20 312
As percentage of total population ¹				
Immigrants	0.47	0.46	0.49	0.66
Emigrants	0.35	0.36	0.37	0.48

¹ As percentage of mean population in the period.

The figures exclude seasonal workers, but include asylum seekers.

Table 3. Immigration to Norway by country of origin. 1981-1989

Country	1981	1982	1983	1984	1985	1986	1987	1988	1989
Total	19 698	20 468	20 063	19 688	21 858	24 196	31 149	29 964	25 847
Denmark	3 113	3 036	2 586	2 418	2 987	3 613	3 750	3 721	2 719
Finland	526	503	426	369	410	551	559	423	224
Sweden	2 394	2 503	2 187	2 120	2 534	3 170	3 857	3 635	3 212
France	470	621	536	699	588	570	437	479	362
Yugoslavia	77	89	101	81	112	172	747	825	1 036
Spain	278	314	368	374	352	425	482	453	463
United Kingdom	2 293	2 696	2 511	2 483	2 778	2 310	2 148	2 031	1 420
Turkey	324	262	165	169	206	352	724	873	784
Fed.Rep.of Germany	651	648	819	836	710	755	864	765	599
Rest of Europe	1 875	2 049	2 034	1 949	2 241	2 516	2 379	2 255	2 242
Morocco	132	99	93	81	105	153	214	297	282
Rest of Africa	1 055	1 062	1 212	1 065	1 358	1 395	2 054	2 320	2 274
Philippines	364	394	504	394	453	404	655	590	591
Iran	17	22	15	47	115	335	1 846	1 470	661
Pakistan	649	608	751	748	910	923	1 015	1 086	1 079
Sri Lanka	95	137	184	241	379	502	1 783	606	811
Viet Nam	262	288	421	326	328	232	279	628	830
Rest of Asia	1 810	1 731	2 009	1 980	2 001	2 190	2 540	2 590	2 706
USA	2 369	2 335	2 140	2 203	2 115	2 285	2 075	1 864	1 802
Chile	72	97	77	89	163	313	1 525	1 983	578
Rest of America	708	742	701	800	833	808	974	880	950
Oceania	203	196	202	203	174	211	230	183	201
Not stated	15	36	21	13	6	11	11	7	21

Source: Central Bureau of Statistics (1990, and previous issues).

Table 4. Emigration from Norway by country of destination. 1981-1989

Country	1981	1982	1983	1984	1985	1986	1987	1988	1989
Total	14 522	14 728	15 778	15 927	15 630	16 745	17 380	19 821	27 300
Denmark	1 850	2 364	2 541	2 449	2 334	2 713	3 029	3 298	3 315
Finland	422	408	389	399	268	333	438	463	531
Sweden	1 659	1 811	2 531	3 069	2 538	2 825	3 573	4 868	11 123
France	494	391	417	438	532	675	516	579	588
Yugoslavia	46	56	57	23	48	30	53	207	112
Spain	311	441	514	498	516	610	785	887	658
United Kingdom	2 012	1 492	1 850	1 759	1 758	2 196	1 724	1 679	2 142
Turkey	68	70	60	79	60	62	85	103	137
Fed.Rep.of Germany	479	434	440	503	696	556	563	635	764
Rest of Europe	1 494	1 502	1 354	1 376	1 306	1 488	1 712	1 882	1 916
Morocco	20	28	53	16	53	65	27	33	34
Rest of Africa	937	920	1 047	917	882	924	760	839	855
Philippines	95	84	61	58	38	35	58	65	57
Iran	5	-	2	-	2	5	4	13	32
Pakistan	247	488	349	308	266	243	209	159	201
Sri Lanka	31	44	35	37	24	34	24	22	31
Viet Nam	2	4	12	3	-	2	1	-	-
Rest of Asia	977	991	999	996	974	850	696	789	956
USA	2 377	2 215	2 117	2 118	1 898	1 856	1 871	2 105	2 272
Chile	21	16	17	17	26	31	36	52	190
Rest of America	556	546	483	403	639	637	713	831	636
Oceania	222	247	181	216	205	178	166	240	247
Not stated	197	176	269	275	567	397	337	72	503

Source: Central Bureau of Statistics (1990, and previous issues).

Table 5. Net migration for Norway, by country. 1981-1989

Country	1981	1982	1983	1984	1985	1986	1987	1988	1989
Total	5 176	5 740	4 285	3 761	6 228	7 451	13 769	10 143	-1 453
Denmark	1 263	672	45	-31	653	900	721	423	-596
Finland	104	95	37	-30	142	218	121	-40	-307
Sweden	735	692	-344	-949	-4	345	284	-1 233	-7 911
France	-24	230	119	261	56	-105	-79	-100	-226
Yugoslavia	31	33	44	58	64	142	694	618	924
Spain	-33	-127	-146	-124	-164	-185	-303	-434	-195
United Kingdom	227	1 204	661	724	1 020	114	425	352	-722
Turkey	256	192	105	90	146	290	639	770	647
Fed.Rep.of Germany	172	214	379	333	14	199	301	130	-165
Rest of Europe	381	547	680	573	935	1 028	667	373	326
Morocco	112	71	40	65	52	88	187	264	248
Rest of Africa	118	142	165	148	476	471	1 294	1 481	1 419
Philippines	269	310	443	336	415	369	597	525	534
Iran	12	22	13	47	113	330	1 842	1 457	629
Pakistan	402	120	402	440	644	680	806	927	878
Sri Lanka	64	93	149	204	355	468	1 759	584	780
Viet Nam	260	284	409	323	328	230	278	628	830
Rest of Asia	833	740	1 010	1 014	1 027	1 340	1 844	1 801	1 750
USA	-8	120	23	85	217	429	204	-241	-470
Chile	51	81	60	72	137	282	1 489	1 931	388
Rest of America	152	196	218	397	194	171	261	49	314
Oceania	-19	-51	21	-13	-31	33	64	-57	-46
Not stated	-182	-140	-248	-262	-561	-386	-326	-65	-482

Source: Central Bureau of Statistics (1990, and previous issues).

Table 6. Available information on inflow of foreign population. 1981-1989

Immigration of citizens of:	1981	1982	1983	1984	1985	1986	1987	1988	1989
Total, foreign citizens	13 061	13 990	13 090	12 837	14 905	16 534	23 793	23 041	18 384
Nordic countries, total							6 411	6 056	3 784
Denmark	2 371	2 476	2 014	1 919	2 403	2 953	3 169	3 204	2 184
Sweden	996	1 251	1 104	1 042	1 167	1 698	2 203	2 017	1 122
Yugoslavia	74	77	90	79	106	157	748	808	1 022
U.K.	1 671	2 133	1 779	1 902	2 177	1 705	1 512	1 485	891
F.R.G.	313	315	450	476	421	410	454	443	265
Euro 12							6 042	5 977	4 091
USA	1 346	1 355	1 165	1 154	1 155	1 168	1 087	966	726
Third world, incl. Turkey							11 477	11 305	9 632
Morocco	138	103	92	84	109	155	209	282	281
Philippines	192	177	205	215	338	404	512	480	455
Iran	34	35	21	69	170	335	1 986	1 682	654
Pakistan	642	600	742	727	856	830	959	972	926
Sri Lanka	89	143	157	231	371	502	424	595	797
Viet Nam	735	524	705	494	477	364	459	816	1 017
Chile	92	108	87	95	168	330	1 527	1 985	575
Other and stateless	..	4 871	4 654	4 650	4 987	5 523	8 544	7 306	7 469

Foreign citizens intending to stay in Norway for more than 6 months are registered in the Central Population Register, and are included in this table. From 1987, asylum seekers are also included.

Source: Central Bureau of Statistics (1990, and previous issues).

Table 7. Available information on outflow of foreign population. 1981-1989

Outmigration of citizens of:	1981	1982	1983	1984	1985	1986	1987	1988	1989
Total, foreign citizens	7 252	7 218	7 955	7 617	7 522	8 424	8 591	9 320	10 563
Nordic, countries, total							4 295	5 205	5 190
Denmark	1 180	1 668	1 895	1 744	1 582	1 901	2 305	2 555	2 589
Sweden	474	527	670	766	621	762	1 073	1 627	1 748
Yugoslavia	39	44	57	23	45	26	47	199	115
U.K.	1 343	859	1 327	1 214	1 259	1 670	1 292	1 051	1 479
F.R.G.	173	166	204	218	361	257	181	250	346
Euro 12							4 452	4 577	5 119
USA	1 237	1 183	1 057	1 050	1 081	989	898	784	992
Third world, incl. Turkey							798	732	1 221
Morocco	19	26	50	12	38	39	13	16	22
Philippines	41	37	45	33	36	35	45	41	34
Iran	11	7	15	5	6	5	9	27	30
Pakistan	252	474	319	270	238	207	159	116	124
Sri Lanka	22	18	22	31	22	34	16	26	25
Viet Nam	34	43	36	28	19	21	26	27	26
Chile	32	20	31	20	27	23	22	45	188
Other and stateless	..	2 171	2 262	2 239	2 187	2 455	2 505	2 556	2 845

Same sources, note and definitions as table 6.

Table 8. Asylum applicants and political refugees in Norway. 1980-1990

		Asylum seekers	Political refugees ¹
1980		50-150	877
1981		50-150	751
1982		50-150	767
1983	about	150	852
1984	about	300	634
1985		829	638
1986		2 722	686
1987		8 613	1 043
1988		6 602	1 486 ²
1989		4 433	1 957
1990, 1/1-30/9		2 738	

¹ Refugees on quotas from UN High Commissioner for Refugees. In addition, a few hundred asylum seekers are recognized as political refugees. Includes family reunifications to refugees 1980-1987.

² From this year, the quota of 1000 do not include family reunification cases to refugees.

Source: Directorate of Immigration (1990), and earlier annual reports.

Table 9. Number of asylum seekers by origin. 1987, 1988 and 1989

Citizens of	1987	1988	1989
Bangladesh			105
Chile	1 524	1 960	29
Ethiopia	209	361	270
Ghana	199	172	64
India	82	138	78
Iraq	267	131	114
Iran	1 558	985	605
Lebanon	164	132	177
Pakistan	467	303	154
Poland	211	190	419
Somalia	359	548	362
Sri Lanka	1 291	158	451
Turkey	517	438	114
Yugoslavia	1 238	455	905
Rest	527	631	586
Total	8 613	6 602	4 433

Source: Directorate of Immigration, unpublished and annual reports.

Table 10. Total number of immigrations and emigrations by citizenship.
1978-1989

Year	Foreign citizens		Norwegians		Total	
	Immi- gration	Emi- gration	Immi- gration	Emi- gration	Immi- gration	Emi- gration
1978	12 183	7 624	6 642	7 227	18 825	14 851
1979	11 213	7 619	6 618	7 466	17 831	15 085
1980	11 833	7 288	6 943	7 417	18 776	14 705
1981	13 061	7 252	6 637	7 270	19 698	14 522
1982	13 990	7 218	6 478	7 510	20 468	14 728
1983	13 090	7 955	6 973	7 823	20 063	15 778
1984	12 837	7 617	6 851	8 310	19 688	15 927
1985	14 906	7 522	6 952	8 108	21 858	15 630
1986	16 534	8 424	7 662	8 321	24 196	16 745
1987	23 793	8 591	7 356	8 789	31 149	17 380
1988	23 041	9 320	6 923	10 501	29 964	19 821
1989	18 384	10 563	7 463	16 737	25 847	27 300

Source: Central Bureau of Statistics (1990 and previous issues).

Table 11. Population by country of birth. 1970, 1980, 1987, 1988, 1989 and 1990

Country of birth	1.11 1970	1.11 1980	1.1 1987	1.1 1988	1.1 1989	1.1 1990
Total	3874133	4091132	4175521	4198289	4220686	4233116
Norway	3798395	3977072	4026668	4036664	4044191	4049807
Foreign countries	75738	114060	148853	161625	176495	183309
Europe, total	57306	73736	90076	93411	97190	96426
Denmark	13607	16363	19946	20482	21108	20452
Sweden	15733	15956	17893	18608	19018	18131
France	962	1980	2545	2488	2458	2407
Yugoslavia	1137	1756	2085	2743	3347	4245
Netherlands	1628	2418	2918	2973	3079	3099
Poland	1145	1566	3007	3355	3790	4309
United Kingdom	6353	10867	14547	14622	15019	14337
Turkey	244	2148	3201	3731	4503	5011
Germany	6527	7211	7793	7991	8179	8114
Rest of Europe	9970	13471	16141	16418	16689	16321
Euro 12	31428	41669	51177	52076	54126	52846
Africa, total	1890	3581	5706	6877	8874	10575
Morocco	407	1113	1653	1818	2110	2364
Rest of Africa	1483	2468	4053	5059	6764	8211
Asia, total	2402	15580	30050	36513	42964	48584
Philippines	96	787	2112	2535	3032	3449
India	344	1724	3284	3581	3973	4275
Iran	68	193	827	2738	4402	5220
Pakistan	170	5401	8160	8897	9757	10536
Sri Lanka	..	263	1608	3281	3931	4689
The Republic of Korea	349	2521	4107	4317	4537	4693
Viet Nam	94	2073	5365	5781	6549	7545
Rest of Asia	1281	2618	4587	5383	6783	8177
North America, total	12782	18030	18087	18117	18324	17880
USA	11347	15939	15498	15438	15494	14991
Rest of North America	1435	2091	2589	2679	2830	2889
South America, total	758	2283	4010	5740	8128	8836
Chile	107	910	1641	3062	5103	5485
Colombia	53	370	1023	1208	1395	1592
Rest of South America	598	1003	1346	1470	1630	1759
Oceania, total	600	850	924	967	1012	1008

.. Data not available

Source: Central Bureau of Statistics (1990)

Table 12. Foreign citizens by citizenship per 1 January. 1981-1990

Citizenship	1981	1982	1983	1984	1985	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990
Total	82570	86476	90637	94668	97775	101471	109286	123675	135947	140312
Europe, total	52612	54597	57583	59395	60922	63159	66892	71341	74468	73252
Denmark	13999	14844	15362	15301	15269	15740	16785	17562	18157	17454
Sweden	8367	8728	9235	9548	9726	10032	10951	12037	12414	11704
France	1580	1551	1789	1934	2138	2184	2097	2055	1985	1921
Yugoslavia	1664	1689	1718	1731	1694	1665	1791	2457	3022	3870
Netherlands	2090	2178	2208	2282	2334	2382	2481	2545	2606	2619
Poland	688	769	1021	1248	1421	1573	1885	2253	2632	2874
United Kingdom	9308	9487	10565	11026	11687	12480	12549	12770	13187	12510
Turkey	2486	2821	3086	3251	3345	3406	3708	4285	4877	5267
The Federal Republic of Germany	3576	3541	3498	3673	3834	3739	3866	4108	4272	4124
Rest of Europe	8854	8989	9101	9401	9474	9958	10779	11269	11316	10909
Euro 12	32937	34057	35845	36698	37773	39122	40561	42007	43274	41804
Africa, total	2638	2855	3008	3211	3312	3453	3950	5292	6917	8454
Morocco	1274	1402	1449	1492	1459	1404	1496	1657	1896	2062
Rest of Africa	1364	1453	1559	1719	1853	2049	2454	3635	5021	6392
Asia, total	12994	14769	15825	17763	19237	20709	23703	30301	35626	39731
Philippines	677	801	890	1009	1035	1040	1364	1725	2030	2217
India	1585	1716	1854	2100	2241	2277	2513	2812	3118	3371
Iran	145	155	175	155	199	348	672	2658	4350	5248
Pakistan	6455	6956	7002	7541	7962	8475	9268	10252	11093	11620
Sri Lanka	294	357	461	583	749	1045	1519	3270	3873	4703
The Republic of Korea	239	271	331	292	324	201	270	324	332	322
Viet Nam	2258	3023	3559	4322	4851	5276	5624	5954	6513	6752
Rest of Asia	1341	1490	1553	1761	1876	2047	2473	3306	4317	5498
North America, total	11906	11699	11628	11593	11552	11407	11539	11698	11741	11253
USA	10668	10445	10293	10216	10131	9995	10023	10099	10113	9640
Rest of North America	1238	1254	1335	1377	1421	1412	1516	1599	1628	1613
South America, total	1558	1725	1796	1898	1987	2002	2429	4179	6305	6745
Chile	904	966	1015	1046	1077	1102	1386	2941	4895	5328
Colombia	169	200	196	241	291	261	342	414	485	468
Rest of South America	485	559	585	611	619	639	701	824	925	949
Oceania, total	501	524	544	572	561	563	601	663	675	662
Stateless and unknown	361	307	253	236	204	178	172	201	215	215
Per cent of total population	2.0	2.1	2.2	2.3	2.4	2.4	2.6	2.9	3.2	3.3

Source: Central Bureau of Statistics (1990, and previous issues).

Table 13. Naturalizations by previous citizenship. 1980-1989

Previous citizenship	1980	1981	1982	1983	1984	1985	1986	1987	1988	1989	Per cent ¹⁾ 1989
	Total	2680	2441	3095	1754	2798	2851	2486	2370	3364	4622
Europe, total	1458	1271	1473	746	1071	1197	957	808	1079	1548	2.1
Denmark	350	335	315	215	198	261	174	166	144	200	1.1
Sweden	151	138	165	106	104	135	128	99	75	117	0.9
Yugoslavia	55	36	35	48	112	52	68	64	109	160	5.3
Poland	48	53	96	47	83	94	75	62	105	332	12.6
United Kingdom	199	172	270	61	106	151	104	76	65	100	0.8
Turkey	19	18	12	10	61	117	88	106	281	280	5.7
The Federal Republic of Germany	212	178	170	63	106	94	86	44	58	64	1.5
Rest of Europe	424	341	410	196	301	293	234	191	242	295	
Euro 12	1005	876	1022	443	543	640	475	381	371	477	1.1
Africa, total	116	98	192	84	247	225	174	175	252	283	4.1
Morocco	35	33	90	37	145	97	87	94	111	124	6.5
Rest of Africa	81	65	102	47	102	128	87	81	141	159	3.2
Asia, total	697	683	1030	734	1181	1072	1043	1061	1626	2233	6.3
Philippines	36	35	74	61	177	187	146	131	203	219	10.8
India	105	140	172	82	173	154	112	102	141	131	4.2
Pakistan	188	163	319	158	308	254	259	252	428	582	5.2
The Republic of Korea	186	176	258	328	265	252	229	159	233	149	44.9
Viet Nam	14	8	7	4	61	51	171	273	457	940	14.4
Rest of Asia	168	161	200	101	197	174	126	144	164	212	
North America, total	185	202	179	74	91	104	104	85	101	117	1.0
USA	126	153	128	42	38	64	56	37	39	54	0.5
Rest of North America	59	49	51	32	53	40	48	48	62	63	
South America, total	80	97	155	98	171	223	188	216	286	421	6.7
Chile	19	16	50	30	59	108	35	71	105	127	2.6
Colombia	41	50	66	48	85	78	122	109	131	211	43.5
Rest of South America	20	31	39	20	27	37	31	36	50	83	
Oceania, total	18	9	12	3	5	9	5	6	12	6	0.9
Stateless and unknown	126	81	54	15	32	21	15	19	8	14	6.5

1) Number of persons changing citizenship in 1989 in per cent of the total number of citizens from that country. 1 January 1989 (see table 12)

Sources: 1981-1988: Central Bureau of Statistics (1989, and previous issues),
1989: Central Bureau of Statistics (1990b).

Table 14a. Existing marriages by country of birth of the partners. 1 January 1988

Husbands	Wives								
	Total	Norway	Rest of Europe	Africa	Asia	North America	South America	Oceania	Not known
Total	914822	869701	25438	1146	7606	4716	1030	296	4889
Norway	874618	848733	18643	444	2219	3663	497	231	188
Rest of Europe	24374	15370	6400	52	146	121	26	29	2230
Africa	2219	1080	79	633	10	10	1	-	406
Asia	8110	1098	113	8	5206	11	3	2	1669
North America	4163	2948	165	4	20	901	2	8	115
South America	1123	314	22	3	3	9	500	-	272
Oceania	215	158	16	2	2	1	1	26	9
Not known	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

Source: Unpublished data in Central Bureau of Statistics

Table 14b. Marriages contracted in 1988 by citizenship of bride and bridegroom

Bride-grooms	Brides								
	Total	Norway	Rest of Europe	Africa	Asia	North America	South America	Oceania	Not known
Total	21744	19847	883	91	664	145	97	6	11
Norway	19448	18216	645	37	362	127	47	6	8
Rest of Europe	1077	854	191	2	12	7	9	-	2
Africa	430	360	16	49	-	1	3	-	1
Asia	524	207	19	3	286	3	6	-	-
North America	134	123	4	-	1	6	-	-	-
South America	89	53	3	-	1	-	32	-	-
Oceania	20	16	3	-	-	1	-	-	-
Not known	22	18	2	-	2	-	-	-	-

Source: Central Bureau of Statistics (1989).

Table 14c. Divorces 1988 by citizenship

Husbands	Wives								
	Total	Norway	Rest of Europe	Africa	Asia	North America	South America	Oceania	Not known
Total	8772	8410	235	14	46	44	20	3	-
Norway	8238	7968	178	9	35	34	11	3	-
Rest of Europe	282	232	45	-	2	3	-	-	-
Africa	73	68	1	4	-	-	-	-	-
Asia	51	41	1	1	8	-	-	-	-
North America	36	29	3	-	-	4	-	-	-
South America	13	5	-	-	-	-	8	-	-
Oceania	1	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Not known	78	66	7	-	1	3	1	-	-

Source: Central Bureau of Statistics (1989).

Table 15. Children born 1987-1989 by country of birth of the parents¹

Country of birth of parents	Number of children		
	1987	1988	1989
Total	54 027	57 526	59 326
Both parents born in Norway	48 616	51 217	52 500
One or both parents born abroad	5 411	6 309	6 826
Of which born in:			
Sweden	602	686	682
USA	558	580	561
Denmark	530	599	608
Pakistan	509	529	567
United Kingdom	431	484	471

¹ Country of birth of the mother, if she is born abroad, else country of birth of the father.

Source: Vassenden and Østby (1989), unpublished data at Central Bureau of Statistics

Table 16. Total fertility rate (TFR) by country of birth of the mother. Average for 1986 and 1987

Country of birth of the mother	TFR	Number of women aged 15-44	Number of children born
Total	1.72	918 654	53 235
Norway	1.70	876 249	49 884
Rest of Scandinavia	1.67	13 620	790
Rest of Europe except Turkey	1.86	11 122	715
Other industrialized countries	1.92	5 541	422
Third world	3.08	12 122	1 424
Of which:			
Pakistan, Turkey and Morocco	4.30	3 775	622
Rest of Third world	2.47	8 346	801

Source: Vassenden and Østby (1989)

Table 17. Total number of pupils and foreign pupils in primary and lower secondary schools.
1981-1989

	1981	1982	1983	1984	1985	1986	1987	1988	1989
TOTAL									
Primary	384 121	373 155	362 146	347 768	335 373	325 577	317 228	312 384	310 600
Lower secondary	202 020	203 755	203 351	202 368	198 627	194 290	188 714	180 385	172 364
OF WHICH FOREIGNERS ¹									
Primary	2 726	3 312	4 360	5 032	5 700	6 915	8 469	10 442	11 752
Lower secondary	1 074	1 277	1 761	2 082	2 324	2 711	3 140	3 825	4 400
PER CENT FOREIGNERS									
Primary	0.7	0.9	1.2	1.4	1.7	2.1	2.7	3.3	3.8
Lower secondary	0.5	0.6	0.9	1.0	1.2	1.4	1.7	2.1	2.6

¹ Foreigners defined as pupils speaking another mother tongue than Norwegian (or Sami) at home. Before 1983, the figures give the number of immigrant pupils who got auxiliary teaching/mother tongue training. The number speaking Swedish or Danish at home is underestimated.

Source: Central Bureau of Statistics (1990a, and previous issues).

Table 18. Norwegian citizens emigrated 1964-1989, who had not returned by 1 January 1990, and emigration 1988-1989 by country of destination

Country	Emigrants 1964-1989 not returned	Emigrants 1988-1989	
		Total	Pct. ¹
Total	57 841	27 238	47
Sweden	21 960	12 212	56
USA	6 930	2 758	40
Denmark	5 581	1 775	32
United Kingdom	3 655	1 517	42
Spain	3 239	1 408	43
The Federal Republic of Germany	2 182	807	37
Canada	1 188	446	38
France	1 065	563	53
Australia	867	231	27
Switzerland	867	349	40
Netherlands	851	264	31
Italy	437	178	41
Belgium	420	206	49
Finland	407	199	49
Tanzania	351	245	70
The rest	7 841	4 080	52

¹ As per cent of total number of emigrants 1964-1989

Source: Unpublished data from Central Bureau of Statistics

Table 19. First permits to stay and first permits to work. 1975-1989

Year	Permit to stay	Of which with permit to work
1975	12 399	6 560
1976	13 260	6 159
1977	14 177	7 350
1978	13 041	6 288
1979	12 568	6 131
1980	13 431	7 019
1981	13 669	6 891
1982	14 696	7 282
1983	14 056	6 742
1984	14 615	7 003
1985	16 515	8 071
1986	16 620	7 855
1987	21 089	10 595
1988	26 266	
1989	26 957	13 962

Source: Directorate of Immigration

Table 20. Unemployment rate by nationality and sex 31 January 1989 and 1990. (Registered unemployed persons as per cent of number of persons in age group 20-66 years)

Nationality	1989	1990		
		Total	Males	Females
Norway	3.2	4.3	5.5	3.1
Total foreign	3.6	3.8	5.1	2.3
of which: Norden	2.9	3.0	4.0	2.0
Rest of Europe	2.9	3.2	4.0	2.1
Africa	6.4	6.7	8.4	2.8
Asia	5.2	4.8	6.2	3.0
USA and Canada	1.6	1.3	1.8	0.8
Latin America	5.1	5.8	8.0	3.2
Oceania	5.6	3.3	3.9	2.8

Source: Directorate of Labour (1989) and (1990).

APPENDIX

TIL KOMMUNALDEPARTEMENTET, INNVANDRINGSAVD.

Kopi til Statistisk sentralbyrå, Utenriksdepartementet og Norges permanente delegasjon ved
OECD

FRA LARS ØSTBY

Demografisk analysegruppe, SSB

RAPPORT FRA MØTE I SOPEMI (*Systeme d'observation permanent des migration*),
OECD, PARIS 28.-29. NOVEMBER 1990

SAMMENDRAG

SOPEMI har som formål å holde løpende oversikt over de internasjonale flyttingene for OECDs medlemsland. På basis av møtet og landenes rapporter vil OECDs sekretariat sette opp en samlepublikasjon med et felles tabellverk og beskrivelse av hovedtrekkene i flyttingene.

Nesten hele møtet gikk med til at SOPEMIs 20 medlemsland presenterte sine rapporter. De aller fleste land har økning i innflyttingen fra land utenom Europa, mens utvekslingen mellom EF-landene synes å avta. Det er særlig sterk økning i asylsøkertallet, i forbindelse med omveltningene i Øst-Europa og ellers. De tradisjonelle flyktningegruppene fikk liten oppmerksomhet.

Norge skilte seg ut ved at vi hadde nettoutflytting i 1989, etter mange år med økende innflyttingsoverskudd. Vi har sterkt økende utflytting av norske statsborgere, nettoutflytting av utenlandske statsborgere fra andre vestlige industriland og nedgang i asylsøkertallet.

I reiserapporten refereres de enkelte landenes flyttemønster. Det gis også en samlet oversikt over utviklingen i asylsøkerstrømmene og konsekvensene for flyttingene av endringene i Øst-Europa og av det enhetlige marked fra 1993 og forhandlingene om EFTAs tilpasning til dette.

INNLEDNING

SOPEMI har som formål å holde løpende oversikt over de internasjonale flyttingene for OECDs medlemsland. På basis av innsendte landrapporter utarbeider sekretariatet en årlig oversikt med et standardisert tabellverk og kommentarer til utviklingen. SOPEMI's rapport for 1989 finnes hos meg. Landrapportene sendes inn av et nett nasjonale korrespondenter, fortrinnsvis personer som arbeider med analyse av flyttingene uten å sitte i en posisjon med direkte ansvar for politikken på området. Det synes som om det er blitt et sterkere islett av folk i administrative posisjoner i år.

I OECD ligger SOPEMI under Directorate for Social Affairs, Manpower and Education, møtet ble ledet av Peter Schwanse, sjef for Manpower Policies Division. Dagsorden for møtet skulle være at hvert enkelt land ble gitt 5-10 minutter for presentasjon av sin rapport, fulgt av spørsmål og diskusjon innen en samlet ramme på 20 minutter. Siste del av møtet skulle så drøfte OECDs foreløpige utkast til samlet rapport. De aller fleste land overskred sin tid, og til slutt ble det derfor altfor kort tid til fellesrapporten og til nødvendig diskusjon av hvordan grunnlaget for den kunne forbedres og gjøres mer enhetlig. OECD fikk dessuten ikke ferdig noe utkast som grunnlag for diskusjon av fellesrapporten.

Også denne gang var det temaer som rapportene skulle legge spesiell vekt på. Noen av disse temaene kom til å dominere diskusjonene etter hver presentasjon. Særlig sto behandlingen av asylsøkere og forventningene til flyttestrømmene fra de tidligere kommunistlandene i Øst sentralt. Også fra øst-europeernes og Sovjets side er det stor interesse for studier av interne og internasjonale flyttinger, og de venter sterkt økende strømmer både innen landene og til Vest-Europa. Interne flyttebevegelser ville skyldes fornyet etnisk segregering og gjenoppretting av en befolkningsfordeling mer lik situasjonen rett etter 1. verdenskrig, og altså en reversering av mange av strømmene fra etter 2. verdenskrig. Overfor utlandet var det særlig redsel for brain drain. Den finske delegat formidlet en invitasjon til å delta i et migrasjonsseminar i Moskva til våren.

DE ENKELTE LANDS RAPPORTER

Jeg vil nå presentere de punktene fra hvert lands rapporter som jeg finner mest interessante, eller mest relevante for norske forhold. I hovedsak bygger dette på presentasjonen på møtet. Landene tas i den rekkefølge jeg finner naturlig. Innholdet i rapportene varierte temmelig mye, dels fordi datagrunnlaget varierer mye fra land til land og dels fordi prioriteringene var ulike. Den rammen som var sendt ut på forhånd, har ikke vært

endret på noen år, og landene hadde gradvis tilpasset seg den på litt forskjellig måte. De enkelte rapportene oppbevares hos meg.

DE STORE OVERSJØISKE INNVANDRINGSLANDENE

Canada har lenge hatt kvoter for ulike typer innvandring og et samlet tallmessig mål for innvandringen. Nå legger de etterhvert større vekt på balansen mellom de ulike strømmene, hvor arbeidskraft, familiegjenforening og humanitære grunner er de tre hovedgruppene. Målet for 1991 er å få nettoinnvandring på 220 000, mer enn fordoblet siden 1985.

Innvandrerne er tilsynelatende godt integrert, de har som gruppe flere positive og færre negative levekårsindikatorer enn de som er født i Canada. De har tidligere opplevd få spenninger, og de problemene som nylig har oppstått i Toronto og Montreal skal møtes med bedre språkopplæring og grundigere innføring i canadiske normer og verdier. Quebec kan bruke et eget poengsystem når de skal velge ut innvandrere, for å styrke det franske innslaget.

Canada har en økende strøm av asylsøkere. 70 prosent av dem får politisk asyl, resten får bli på humanitært grunnlag. I Canada gir tidligere innvandrere betydelig bidrag, både økonomisk og politisk, for å øke innvandringen fra "gamlelandet". I øyeblikket er den polske lobby den mest aktive.

Australia la stor vekt på å presentere endringene i lover og reguleringer. Til forskjell fra andre store innvandererland, har de ingen begrensninger på antall midlertidige bosatte, slik at det er mange studenter og arbeidere med korttidskontrakter som kommer i tillegg til den ordinære, kvotebegrensede, innvandringen. Å undervise utlendinger er blitt en ny stor eksportindustri i landet.

Innvandringskvoter fastsettes for de samme tre grupper som i Canada, men fordi de som har søkt om innreise de seinere åra ikke har hatt gode nok kvalifikasjoner, er ikke kvotene blitt fylt. Australia velger heller å ta inn færre enn å justere ned kravene til inntak.

De endringene som er skjedd i lovverket, har gjort det mindre fleksibelt og gitt mindre plass for unntak. Alle som skal reise inn til Australia skal ha tillatelse på forhånd, og dette sjekkes mot et sentralt register ved ankomst. Flyselskap som har fraktet folk uten nødvendige tillatelser, vil bli straffet, og de uten visa skal avvises. Det er fri bevegelse mellom Australia og New Zealand. På grunn av ulike konjunkturer går nå nettostrømmen til New Zealand.

USA drøfter hvor mye innvandringen bør øke, og havner trolig på et nivå de kommende åra 30-40 prosent over de nærmest foregående. Det er svært mange som er godkjent for innvandring som må vente i opptil et par år før de får slippe inn. Mexico og 5-6

land i Asia dominerer innvandringen til USA, og dette fører til at den etniske sammensetningen i landet endres. Landet velger å øke kvotene fra de tidligere innvandrerlandene i håp om å kunne motvirke for raske endringer. Deres politikk er å unngå midlertidig innvandring og øke den permanente. Det antas at landet har behov for stor arbeidskraftsinnvandring, og derfor blir de enkelte arbeidsgiveres behov tillagt stor vekt i avgjørelsen av enkeltsaker.

EUROPAS INNVANDRINGSLAND

Tyskland var for første gang med etter gjenforeningen. Det er en sterk økning i antallet utenlandske statsborgere, både gjennom naturlig tilvekst og nettoinnvandring. Nå er antallet asylsøkere under sterk vekst, og ventes å kunne nå 200.000 i 1990 (mot 120.000 i 1989). Tilstrømningen av etniske tyskere fra resten av Øst-Europa er stor, og etter 1. januar 1991 vil det være fri utreise for disse også fra Sovjet. Det samlede potensiale av etniske tyskere vil være på flere millioner. De nye innflytterne til Tyskland blir ikke sagt å representere noen fare for økende arbeidsløshet blant tidligere innvandrere. De skaper øket etterspørsel, og de går inn i andre sektorer. Innvandrernes arbeidsløshet har sunket fra 14 til 10 prosent i perioden med sterk innflytting østfra, nedgangen har vært raskere enn for tyskerne i Tyskland.

Tidligere Øst-Tyskland kan ha hatt omlag 200.000 utlendinger, i tillegg til Warsawalandenes styrker. Utlendingene hadde alle sammen korttids arbeidskontrakter, og de fikk ikke bringe med seg familien. De skal være ute av Tyskland innen årets utgang. Det kan nok bli mange fra de militære styrkene som vil ønske å bli i Tyskland.

Tysk næringsliv inngår nå stadig oftere kontrakter med polske firmaer, som velges ut av Polens regjering. Kontrakten vil være for et avgrenset oppdrag, og arbeiderne skal forlate Tyskland når jobben er gjort. Dette kontraktsystemet regnes som svært gunstig både av tyskerne og polakkene; for tyskerne betyr det redusert innflytting uten tilsvarende nedgang i arbeidskraften, og polakkene får vestlig valuta og unngår at gode fagarbeidere flytter permanent vestover.

Sveits hadde svært stor økning i antallet utlendinger i 1989, og er nå oppe i 16 prosent av innbyggertallet, selv når asylsøkere og midlertidig arbeidskraft holdes utenfor. Sveits har hatt en viss økning i arbeidsløsheten, men den er fortsatt svært moderat. Sammensetningen av flyttestrømmen er under forandring. Det kommer nå relativt få fra Italia og Spania, mens økningen fra Portugal, Jugoslavia og Tyrkia er stor. Antall asylsøkere økte med vel 40 prosent både i 1989 og 1990, og det er ventet 32.000 i 1990. Sveits har fått en del asylsøkere fra

Romania og Bulgaria, men ikke fra Ungarn eller Tsjekkoslovakia. De er i øyeblikket i ferd med å legge om behandlingen av asylsøknadene, for å få ventetiden ned. De vet ikke om avslagsprosenten da kommer til å bli større eller mindre.

Sveits berørte også de pågående EØS-forhandlingene i sin rapport. De venter at resultatet vil bli økende mobilitet i Europa, og de venter den samme effekt av GATT-forhandlingene som forutsetter en langt friere strøm av tjenester mellom landene.

Luxemburg var nytt medlemsland. Landet er lite, men hele 30 prosent av de vel 300.000 som bor der, er utenlandske statsborgere. Det er fortsatt stor innflytting. Det kommer nå stadig flere fra Portugal, til tross for de hindringer som fortsatt gjelder for portugisisk arbeidskrafts flytting til andre EF-land. Tidligere var italienerne den viktigste gruppen. Det er en økende skepsis til å ha så mange utlendinger i landet, og en forsøker bl.a. å styrke luxemburgisk språk på bekostning av fransk. Det er særlig strid om utlendingenes skolegang, og om de skal ha samme opplæring som de innfødte, f.eks. om alle må lære både fransk og tysk.

Det har vært drøftet å gi utlendinger stemmerett i lokalvalg. Dette er ikke gjennomført fordi det vil være flertall av utlendinger i noen kommuner, og fordi alle politiske diskusjoner da måtte føres på fransk. Med unntak av stemmeretten skal utlendingene ha samme rettigheter som de innfødte.

STORE EUROPEISKE LAND UTEN STOR INNVANDRING

Frankrike hadde en økning i alle typer innflytting i 1989. Mest økte antallet asylsøkere (80 prosent til 60.000). Frankrikes regelverk er blitt liberalisert i det siste, særlig til fordel for familiegjennforening. Det er imidlertid ingen løpende registrering av omfanget. De regner med at bare 50 prosent av innflyttingen til landet blir registrert. Utflytting blir registrert bare dersom det gis noen for støtte til tilbakeflytting gjennom repatrieringsprogram. Det viktigste datagrunnlaget for fransk innvandring er Folketellingene, og den nyeste nå er fra 1982. AKU brukes også.

Rammene for innvandringspolitikken er under forandring. Den utformes av et interdepartementalt utvalg på høyt nivå. De styrker også staben som behandler asylsøknader for ikke å gjøre ventetida for lang. Det gis stadig flere avslag på asylsøknader, men de vet lite om hvor mange som reiser ut etter å ha fått avslag. De regner med at de fleste med avslag oppholder seg illegalt i landet. Asylsøkere får uten videre midlertidig arbeidstillatelse, for at de ikke skal gjøres til illegale arbeidstakere. De fleste vil være avhengig av inntekt av eget arbeid i den tida det tar å få søknaden avgjort.

Storbritannia har nå en svak nettoinnvandring, etter å ha hatt underskudd en periode. Fortsatt er det utflytting av britiske borgere. Nettoinnvandringen skyldes at det er flere innvandrere fra tredje verden, gjennom familiegjenforening og som asylsøkere. De har fortsatt en svært streng praksis, men de relativt få asylsøkere som kommer får stort sett bli i landet. De får ikke rett til familiegjenforening før de er blitt britiske borgere.

Storbritannia har dårlig datagrunnlag for beskrivelse av flyttingene til og fra landet og utlendinger som oppholder seg der. Enkelte kilder gir 4 ganger så høy innvandring som andre. Folketellingen vil denne gang ha med et spørsmål om etnisitet, og den vil bli en viktig kilde til kunnskap.

Storbritannia er blant de få land som har et økende antall arbeidstakere fra andre EF-land hos seg. Dette skyldes at det er stadig flere irer som arbeider der.

Det er et stort press fra tidligere kolonier av folk som vil komme til Storbritannia, men det synes ikke å ligge noen liberalisering i den nære framtiden. Dersom det skal være mulig å opprettholde den restriktive politikken, vil det bli vanskelig for landet å slutte seg til Schengen-avtalen, som bl.a. forutsetter felles ytre grensekontroll. Arbeidskraftens frie bevegelse innenfor det europeiske økonomiske rom er det heller ikke lett å se hvordan skal la seg gjennomføre i praksis.

RESTEN AV MELLOM-EUROPA

Belgia har nå en nettoinnflytting på 16.000, langt mer enn tidligere år. De har nettoinnflytting fra de fleste EF-land og fra Marokko og Tyrkia. Asylsøkertallet vokser raskt, men var likevel bare 8.000 i 1989. Behandlingstiden for søknadene er lange. Det later til at deres praksis vil være noe mildere enn vår. Belgia har god statistikk både over flyttingene til og fra landet (registerstatistikk) og over utenlandsk arbeidskraft.

Nederland hadde raskt økende innflytting i 1989-1990. Dette skyldes først og fremst flere asylsøkere og flere innflyttere fra Tyrkia, Marokko og Surinam. Asylsøkere som venter på å få avgjort sin søknad (1-2 år) holdes i store leire hvor de får oppholdet, men ingen ressurser til egen disposisjon. Familiegjenforening for arbeidsvandrere (fra før 1975) er stadig viktigere for flyttestrømmenes sammensetning, og de venter at det kan fortsette også i framtida.

En venter i Nederland at flyttere fra de øst-europeiske landene vil slå seg ned der de har tidligere landsmenn. Nederland har bare en liten gruppe fra Polen, og det kan eventuelt komme noen flere herfra. Regjeringen har vist en negativ holdning til asylsøkere fra Øst-Europa, og ingen er godtatt som flykninger. Rumenerne har derfor helt sluttet å søke asyl i

Nederland. Nederlandske bedrifter har hentet arbeidskraft fra Jugoslavia, og har forsøkt å inngå arbeidskontrakter med firmaer i tidligere Øst-Tyskland. Det var da ikke nok interesse derfra til å fylle noen hundre arbeidsplasser.

Det er iferd med å legges grunnlag for en ny minoritetspolitikk i Nederland, med et mer desentralisert ansvar for denne. Hovedprinsippet skulle være at forskjellsbehandling av enhver sort ikke skal finnes i politikken. De første virkningene av dette har vært at holdninger med diskriminerende konsekvenser lett er kommet til orde i utformingen av politikken på det lavere regionale nivå, mens minoritetenes forsvarere ikke så lett får samme innflytelse som tidligere.

Nederland har så høy standard i sin demografisk orienterte migrasjonsforskning, og såpass mange migrasjonspolitiske målsetninger til felles med oss, at landet peker seg ut som en svært naturlig samtalepartner på begge disse områdene.

Østerrike er det land som etter Tyskland sterkest har fått merke kommunistregimenes fall i Europa. De har fortsatt en meget sterk økonomisk vekst, forårsaket av veksten i Tyskland. Det er større etterspørsel etter arbeidskraft enn det som kan dekkes internt, og det er relativt lett for innvandrerne å få arbeid, både de legale og de mer uoffisielle. Den samlede nettoinnflytting i 1989 var over 100.000, og det ble gitt 90.000 nye arbeidstillatelser til utlendinger.

Denne sterke veksten i innflyttingen har ført til endringer i lovverket for å begrense videre vekst. Det synes ikke å bli lett å håndtere en slik politikk.

Østerrike har lang tradisjon som transitland for flyktninger ut av Øst-Europa. Tidligere fikk de aller fleste reise videre til USA og Canada, men dette vil ikke bli mulig i samme utstrekning i framtida. Disse landene vil plukke ut de flyktningene de vil ha, og Østerrike har ingen tradisjon for å sende folk tilbake til land de har forlatt. De må derfor satse på en politikk for å integrere større grupper. Østerrike forsøker å forebygge utvandring fra nabolandene ved å investere i disse landene og utvikle arbeidsmarkedet der slik at behovet for å søke vestover skulle bli mindre.

De har tidligere ikke hatt behov for særlig omfattende system for tollkontroll langs grensen mot øst. Etter at den ble åpnet, har det vært behov for å sette inn hæren i grensekontroll. Det blir presisert at dens oppgave ikke var å reise nye stengsler mellom landene. De nye gruppene som slår seg ned i Østerrike blir altså ikke sendt hjem, men de får heller ingen statlig hjelp til å opprettholde livet. De utgjør derfor et meget sterkt uformelt arbeidsmarked, med vilje til å jobbe for lav lønn og uten noen form for kontrakter. De ulike kirkesamfunnene i Østerrike spiller en viktig rolle i omsorgen for de innflytterne fra Øst som

ikke greier seg selv. De som greier å skaffe seg en vanlig jobb, får også permanent arbeids- og oppholdstillatelse.

DE NORDISKE LAND

Finlands rapport forelå ikke på forhånd fordi det hadde vært problemer med å få fram korrekte data. I 1989 hadde Finland en betydelig nettoinnflytting (+4000). Dette skyldes dels den vanlige tilbakeflyttingen fra resten av Norden, men i tillegg opplever Finland nå nettoinnvandring også av utenlandske statsborgere. Dette er noe helt nytt, og det antas å ha fortsatt i 1990. Fra juni 1990 har også Finland fått asylsøkere. Mens det på 80-tallet knapt kom 100 pr. år, var det i november 1990 opptil 100 pr. dag. De antas at tallet for hele 1990 vil bli 2.500. Finland har nå de samme problemene i sitt mottaksapparat som vi hadde midt på 1980-tallet. Den største gruppen asylsøkere til Finland kommer fra Somalia, via Moskva. Det er etterhvert også blitt en visst innslag av asylsøkere som er avviste i Norge eller Sverige.

Utviklingen i Sovjet vil fortsatt være viktig for Finland, men det er foreløpig bare kommet folk fra Estland, ikke fra Russland. Finnene venter at det ekspansive arbeidsmarkedet de har hatt lenge, skal bli mye dårligere som følge av at markedet i Sovjet vil bli dårligere. De venter også en viss flyktningsstrøm fra Russland, særlig dersom forsyningssituasjonen der blir vanskeligere. Det er liten grunn til å tro at særlig mange fra Russland vil få asyl i Finland, men noen vil nok få bli av humanitære grunner.

Det er en betydelig finskspråklig minoritet fortsatt i Ingermansland. Disse vil få anledning til å slå seg ned i Finland dersom de vil, når utreise fra Sovjet blir friere fra 1. januar 1991. De er usikre på antallet finskspråklige i Ingermansland, det er anslått å kunne være inntil 60.000.

Norges rapport er mer demografisk enn de fleste andre, og mindre orientert mot regelverket for behandling av utlendinger. Den ble også denne gangen mottatt med interesse, fordi utviklingen i vårt flyttemønster er godt dokumentert, og fordi utviklingen atskiller seg fra de fleste andre lands. I 1989 og hittil i 1990 har vi hatt omtrent flyttebalanse, etter mange år med innvandringsoverskudd. Vi har som nesten det eneste landet nedgang i antall asylsøkere, og vi behandler søknadene deres mer restriktivt enn tidligere.

Det var mange spørsmål om behandlingen av asylsøknadene, med utgangspunkt i at de fleste nok hadde ventet mer liberale regler i Norge enn det vi har. Flere var også opptatt av Norges forventninger til framtidige flyktningsstrømmer fra Sovjet. Jeg antok at det neppe ville bli snakk om noen stor innvandring, og at gjeldende praksis i behandling av asylsøknader ikke hjemler særlig mange positive avgjørelser. Det virker som om mange land er opptatt av

utviklingen i Sovjet, men at få har gjort såpass grundige vurderinger og forberedelser som Norge har.

Rapporten er tidligere sendt Departementet. Den vil bli vurdert for publisering av SSB.

Sverige er fortsatt et meget viktig land for politisk asyl. På slutten av 1989 økte både asylsøkertallet og annen flytting fra utenomeuropeiske land dramatisk. Ialt var det innflytting på 60.000 utenlandske statsborgere til Sverige i 1989, mens bare 13.000 flyttet derfra. De fleste (25.000) er asylsøkere, men det var også 18.000 som kom for familiegjenforening. Det var imidlertid flere nordmenn som flyttet dit (9.000) enn noen annen nasjonalitet.

Utover mot slutten av 1989 ble det innført flere tiltak for å begrense strømmen av asylsøkere. Visumplikt brukes effektivt. Fra 1. januar 1990 skal det gis oppholdstillatelse bare til asylsøkere som oppfyller Geneve-konvensjonens krav til å bli definert som flyktning. Dette vil føre til at mange flere vil få avslag, og hensikten er også at antallet søknader skal reduseres. De er fortsatt usikre på effekten av de nye reglene, men antallet søknader og innvilgninger vil nok bli lavere i 1990 enn i 1989. For 1990 er ventet at 50% av søknadene skal få avslag. De har ikke deportert særlig mange asylsøkere (ennå).

Problemene på arbeidsmarkedet vil føre til at Sverige blir mindre attraktivt også for andre flyttere, og det kan nok allerede i 1991 ventes en viss tilbakevandring til Norge. Arbeidsmarkedsmyndighetene i Sverige (AMS) har store ressurser som brukes til å integrere flyktningene på arbeidsmarkedet. Det har til nå vært en tendens til å "klientisere" flyktninger også i Sverige.

Sverige er også opptatt av utviklingen i Sovjet. Det regnes ikke som sannsynlig eller ønskelig at det skal komme så mange derfra, og visum skal brukes til å regulere mengden. Det er blant mange i Sverige et sterkt ønske om å ta inn baltere som vil komme, særlig fra Estland.

TIDLIGERE UTFLYTTINGSLAND I EUROPA

Italias rapport inneholder ikke mye om utflytting, dette har de lite data for, og den antas å være av svært liten betydning. Hovedproblemet er innflyttingen, som nå har vokst i flere år. Det har vært liten oversikt over innvandringen, og få muligheter til å regulere den. Fra februar 1991 skal det bli et generelt innvandringsforbud for personer fra land utenfor EF, dersom en ikke før innvandringen har skaffet seg kontrakt for arbeid og bolig.

Antallet legale innvandrere i Italia er ikke så stort, men det finnes større mengder nord-afrikanere som er der uten arbeids- eller oppholdstillatelse. Det er forholdene rundt disse, og behov for regularisering som har ført til stengingen av grensene. Italia har tiltrådt

Schengen-avtalen, og den forutsetter at de ytre grensene skal kontrolleres.

Hellas sin situasjon likner mye på de andre land i denne gruppen. De har dårlige data, men går ut fra at det er flere tilbakeflyttende grekere enn utflyttere, og en viss tilstrømming av asylsøkere og illegale immigranter. I tillegg er det mulig for folk med gresk etnisk bakgrunn å få komme "hjem". Dette gjelder fra enkelte naboland og Kypros, og det er dessuten trolig 100.000 såkalte pontiske grekere i Sovjet, som nå vil få mulighet til å reise ut av landet og som trolig vil benytte denne muligheten. Videre er det blitt en viss økning i flyttingene mellom Hellas og EF-landene etter at Hellas ble medlem. Dette gjelder særlig personer i ledelsesfunksjoner i flernasjonale selskap. At grekerne fra 1988 har den samme frihet for valg av arbeidssted som andre EF-borgere, har ikke satt spor etter seg i flyttingene.

Med sin plassering nærmest flere av verdens urosentra, har Hellas lenge vært et viktig transittland for asylsøkere. I likhet med Østerrike, opplever også Hellas at mange ikke slipper inn i det landet de hadde tenkt seg til, og blir i Hellas. Det er i øyeblikket ikke ansett som aktuell politikk å sende asylsøkere tilbake til sitt hjemland.

Spania la ikke fram noen rapport, og var representert bare med en fra den faste OECD-delegasjonen som ikke sa noen ting. Å dømme etter de data andre land la fram, er Spania nå et invandringsland med stor tilbakeflytting fra andre EF-land og også fra enkelte land i Sør-Amerika. I tillegg er Spania dels målet, del transittland for afrikanere som vil til Europa.

Det er mulig at den endelige SOPEMI-rapporten også kan ta inn en forsinket spansk rapport.

Portugal hadde ingen rapport og heller ikke deres OECD-delegat hadde noe innlegg. Portugiserne er fortsatt en voksende gruppe i Sveits og Luxemburg, men ellers er det ikke stor utflytting fra det landet lenger.

DE STORE UTFLYTTINGSLANDENE

Tyrkias flyttestatistikk gir tall bare for utflyttinger hvor myndighetene på en eller annen måte har formidlet et arbeidstilbud ute. Derfor viser rapporten nesten bare flytting til land i Midt-Østen, og ikke til land i Europa. Landene har fortsatt stor utflytting til de store industrilandene i Mellom-Europa, og de er redde for at de nye strømmene fra øst skal gjøre det vanskeligere for tyrkere som er i Vest-Europa, eller som ønsker å komme dit. Det har hittil ikke blitt påvist slike forandringer. Tyrkia har siden mai 1989 fått vel 350.000 etniske tyrkere fra Bulgaria. For fortsatt å kunne hevde sin rett til eiendom i Bulgaria, må de ikke være ute av landet mer enn 6 måneder. Mange har derfor vendt tilbake.

Den tyrkiske delegat bemerket med et visst temperament at Tyrkia i den norske rapporten var gruppert sammen med tredje verden og ikke sammen med Europa i enkelte av tabellene og figurene. I demografisk sammenheng synes det dog korrekt å plassere landet der for tiden.

Jugoslavia har lenge vært preget av økonomiske kriser, og nå kommer politiske i tillegg. Representanten herfra mente at det var stor fare for militærkupp eller borgerkrig i forbindelse med den oppløsningen som nå foregår. Dette ble regnet som en medvirkende årsak til at utflyttingen fra Jugoslavia igjen er økende, for første gang siden 1973. Deres egne data bygger på formidlinger som arbeidsmarkedsmyndighetene er med på, men i tillegg er Jugoslavia det eneste landet som systematisk bruker andre lands data for å beskrive sine egne statsborgeres flyttinger.

De økonomiske problemene i landet vises ved prisstigningen på 2600 prosent på ett år. Nå har de knyttet dinaren opp til tyske mark, og håper å kunne begrense inflasjonen.

Jeg tok opp spørsmålet om politiske flyktninger fra Jugoslavia. Deres representant mente at det nå var svært få asylsøkere som hadde rimelige grunner til å forlate Jugoslavia, og at mange hjemvendte flyktninger spiller en sentral rolle i den demokratiseringen av landet som pågår. Særlig gjelder dette i Kosovo.

SAMMENDRAGSRAPPORTEN

Denne gang forelå ikke noe utkast til slik rapport ved møtets begynnelse, angivelig fordi det var for få rapporter som var sendt inn på forhånd. Vi hadde en drøy time til rådighet for å drøfte rapporten ved møtets avslutning. Det meste av denne tida ble brukt til en muntlig presentasjon av dens innhold. Det er nok OECDs ønske å spre rapporten bredere enn tidligere fordi det er stor interesse for emnet. Dersom det skal bli vellykket, bør nok hele gruppen involveres mer aktivt i opplegget og utformingen av rapporten.

Trolig kommer rapporten til å følge det samme hovedopplegget som tidligere. Det legges vekt på aktuelle emner, og for 1990-rapporten vil det naturlig nok bli asylsøkere, utviklingen i Øst-Europa og "The single market from 1993". Det blir også større vekt på naturalisering. Det ble i tillegg nevnt enkelte andre emner som kunne gis spesialbehandling, som f.eks. den økende åpne fremmedfiendlighet som det er i mange land, eller flere analyser av innvandrernes atferd på arbeidsmarkedet, både det formelle og det uformelle. Jeg foreslo at OECD burde utnytte europeiske flyttedata samlet inn av andre internasjonale samarbeidsorganer (EUROSTAT, ECE, Europarådet) for å få bedre beskrivelser av land som

selv mangler data, og generelt mer konsistente data.

Det er i øyeblikket uklart om det blir avvik fra fjorårets rapport.

KONKLUSJONER

Jeg skal referere noen hovedtrekk fra tre emneområder på tvers av den gjennomgåelsen av enkeltland som er gitt foran, og sette Norge i relasjon til de europeiske hovedstrømmene.

Asylsøkere blir det stadig flere av i de fleste landene. Veksten skyldes flere forhold. Det er like klart som tidligere at det er umulig å etablere et fast skille mellom politisk og økonomisk eller økologisk motiverte flyktninger. I fjor kunne det synes som om flyktninger med vesentlig politisk bakgrunn ble vanligere, mens det kanskje ble færre flyktninger hvor arbeidsmarkedsforholdene dominerte som årsak. I år er det nok annerledes. De som nå forlater landene i Øst-Europa har trolig ikke politiske motiver i samme grad som tidligere, i hvert fall ikke politiske motiver som aksepteres som grunn for asyl i vestlige land. Norge atskiller seg fra mange andre land ved at vi får stadig færre asylsøkere, og at vi gjennomfører en svært restriktiv behandling av de søknadene vi får.

Øst-Europa og Sovjet vil være viktige for OECD-landenes flyttinger i åra som kommer. Omfanget av utflytting/flukt derfra vil bestemmes både av landenes økonomiske utvikling og av mulighetene til å komme til andre land. Internt i landene vil det bli store flyttinger dersom utviklingen går i retning av etnisk mer homogene stater eller delstater. Det er allerede store bevegelser av minoritetsgrupper ut av Bulgaria (til Tyrkia), fra Romania til Ungarn og av etniske tyskere fra alle landene i øst til Tyskland. Det er også mindre grupper, som rumenere, grekere, finner og andre som vil søke til sine gamle hjemland. Utviklingen i Sovjet går i øyeblikket i retning av relativt selvstendige etniske republikker, hvor minoriteter (oftest russere, men også andre) vil måtte flytte tilbake til sine egne republikker, hvis de har noen.

EFTA-EF forhandlingene og det enhetlige markedet fra 1993 kan også tenkes å få stor betydning for flyttingene mellom landene. De aller fleste land i SOPEMI synes å ha hatt prosjekter eller arbeidsgrupper for å vurdere dette. Konklusjonene er relativt like. Det ventes ikke store endringer i flyttingene som følge av denne prosessen. Det blir nok mer flytting blant bedriftsledere, men omfanget kommer neppe til å prege framtidens flyttestatistikk i Europa. Allerede nå er det frie muligheter for en statsborger i ett EF-land å få jobb i et annet. Dette er blitt heller mindre vanlig i løpet av 1980-tallet. De landene i Sør-Europa som tidligere manglet denne muligheten, har heller ikke fått store endringer i sitt flyttemønster når

denne friheten har nådd også dem. Flere har vist til at de nordiske landene har hatt helt fri bevegelse seg imellom i snart 40 år, uten at det har hatt stor betydning for flyttingene. Dette synspunktet mener jeg er noe unyansert. Forholdene helt fram til 1990 har vel vist at når det oppstår stor forverring i arbeidsmarkedet i ett nordisk land, samtidig med at det er stor etterspørsel etter arbeidskraft i et annet, så kan det på kort varsel oppstå betydelige flyttestrømmer. Flyttingene til Sverige fra Finland på slutten av 1960-tallet, fra Danmark tidlig på 70-tallet og fra Norge i 1989-90 er indikasjoner på at mulighetene til fri bevegelse kan være viktig. Flyttingene til Norge på slutten av 1980-tallet antyder det samme.

Integrasjonen i Europa kan vise seg å få større betydning for flyttingene mellom Europa og den tredje verden enn for de Euro-interne flyttingene. Det er foreløpig uklart hvilke konsekvenser en samordning vil få for personer som vil flytte til Europa, men dersom kontrollen ved de indre grensene skal bygges ned, virker det rimelig at den ytre kontrollen både strykes og blir mer ensartet. Dersom innholdet av politikken overfor flyttere fra resten av verden vil følge et slags europeisk gjennomsnitt, vil dette nok føre til en mer liberal behandling av asylsøkere og innvandrere enn det vi har idag. Velger Europa derimot å følge de mest restriktive landene, blir det heller skjerping av den norske politikken. Det er likevel stor uklarhet knyttet til om det overhode blir samordning på dette området.

Det må være **riktig å fortsette dette samarbeidet**, til gjensidig nytte. OECD vurderer saksfeltet som viktig, og mener at alle medlemsland bør bidra. Vårt bidrag ligger i at vi har svært gode data til å beskrive et fenomen som nok betyr mindre hos oss enn de fleste andre steder. Vi kan få tilbake et grunnlag for å sammenlikne vår innvandringspolitikk med andres, og SSB får nyttige tilbakespill for sin statistikkproduksjon.

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