

EMN

SATISFYING LABOUR DEMAND THROUGH MIGRATION IN SPAIN

SPAIN

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Satisfying Labour Demand through Migration in Spain

Spain

This National Report analyses the national strategies for addressing labour market needs with third-country national migrant workers.

This Report has been developed by the Spanish National Contact Point in the European Migration Network and the researchers Fausto Miguélez and Óscar Molina.

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Executive summary

This report seeks to answer the question of how and to what extent economic immigration meets the needs of the Spanish labour market that are not covered by domestic supply. Therefore, it is based on the assumption that one of the main roles of immigration is to cover labour shortages in the labour market. To respond to that question in this study we review the interplay between both factors (the labour market and immigration) between 2004 and 2009. This time frame covers two very different situations seen during the period: one, until 2007, featured by substantial economic growth and rates of participation in economic activity and of unemployment that were very close to the average for the EU, and the other, since 2008, with unemployment twice as high as the EU average.

In methodological terms this Report is based on a review of statistical information, of immigration regulations, of various social and political factors at play during the period, and on some exploratory interviews.

We begin by noting some features that readers need to take into account to understand the complexity of economic immigration into Spain, which are the following:

- Immigration increased to an extraordinarily high level within a very short period of time. At the end of 2009 there were nearly five million aliens with residence permits in force¹, almost 10% of the population, whereas in 1995 there were about 500,000.

¹ This figure includes citizens from other Community countries who hold certificates to the effect that they are registered as residents in Spain, and the members of their families.

- Because —among other reasons— of the economic structure and well-rooted patterns of behaviour in the Spanish economy, not a small number of those immigrants have entered the country illegally. To prevent immigrants from being unprotected or exploited, several regularization operations have been carried out, especially between 2000 and 2005 (the latter known as a *Normalization*), covering almost one million immigrant workers.

The **domestic policy** objective in this field, particularly since the Organic Act N° 4/2000, of January 11, 2000, on Rights and Freedoms of Aliens and their Social Integration in Spain, as amended through the organic acts N° 8/2000, of December 22, N° 11/2003, of September 29, N° 14/2003, of November 20, and N° 2/2009, of December 11, hereinafter referred to as the Alien Act (AA 4/2000) is to regulate immigration flows, adjusting them to meet labour market requirements. The objectives became clearer since 2004, with the approval of the implementing Regulation —in force until today— and other measures that have materialized into three well-defined lines of action: fighting illegal immigration; defining clear channels for immigrants to enter Spain, renew their residence permits, or return to their home country; and, lastly, integrating immigrants in Spanish society. To achieve the first two objectives the Acts have been amended and the implementing Regulation has been drawn up during the period under review; also, steps have been taken against illegal immigration and a policy of collaboration with various countries has been developed; besides, Spain has been very actively involved with the budding European immigration policy that has materialized in the form of directives, compacts and coordinated strategies on immigration². The third objective has been pursued through the 2007-2010 Strategic Plan on Citizenship and Integration and other integration support programs. Said objectives are developed in the relevant legislation and intervention mechanisms.

Entry mechanisms are designed to ensure that two requirements are met: a) that immigrants only fill, as a rule, the jobs that are not covered by nationals and aliens who are already residents (taking into account the «domestic employment situation»), and b) that, at the same time, they enjoy equal labour rights. To fulfill the first requirement there is a so-called «Catalogue of Shortage Occupations» (for job openings that systematically fail to be covered) used as the basis for employers to be able to offer to hire workers. The Catalogue is drawn up quarterly by the National Public Employment Service (under the scope of the Ministry of Labour and Immigration) with the cooperation of the regional authorities, labour federations and business organizations. The first requirement is also

² Apart from a number of directives that have brought the legislations of Member States closer to each other on different aspects of migration policy, we must note the European Pact on Immigration and Asylum (2008), a tool that reflects a number of political commitments to implement a common strategy for the first time. To supplement these, the EU has appropriated funds to finance a number of common actions.

met through the Collective Management of Hiring in the Countries of Origin, involving annual forecasts. The domestic employment picture is also taken into account in making these forecasts. To meet the second requirement there is a procedure for handling applications filed by prospective employer businesses acting individually —this is known as the General System— or jointly with other businesses in what is known as Collective Management of Hiring. Through this procedure the Administration makes sure that the terms of employment of the immigrant workers conform to the regulations in force, that they arrive in Spain with the requisite visas, and that they are registered with the Social Security Administration before they are granted the initial residence and work permits. The renewals of the initial permit until long-term permit is granted after five years is conditional on a number of requirements being met, such as having a new employment agreement, being entitled to unemployment benefits or aid, etc.³. The latest reform of the Alien Aact (Organic Act N° 2/2009) was carried out, among other purposes, to transpose into domestic Spanish legislation the provisions of recent EU directives on immigration and to incorporate as statutory law the case law made by the Constitutional Court.

Of the total number of aliens holding residence permits in force in Spain at the end of 2005, 80% were from countries outside the European Union, particularly from Morocco, Ecuador and Colombia. The figure fell noticeably since then, to 61% in December 2009, mainly reflecting growing numbers of immigrants from Bulgaria and, especially, from Romania, yet also from some EU-15 countries (Italy, Portugal, the United Kingdom)⁴. Therefore a substantial number of immigrants arriving in Spain are citizens of other Community countries.

With reference to the **qualification** of workers, immigrants have helped to mitigate the labour shortage by filling jobs that require little qualification. This role has been performed mainly by workers from third countries. However, immigrant workers cannot be said to have massively taken over such jobs from native-born Spaniards. The immigrants who have filled jobs that require a high level of qualification, for whom there has not been much need, have come mainly from EU-15 countries, although in recent years they have also originated in some third countries (Argentina, Colombia, Peru). Lastly, there has been a certain and perhaps merely relative shortage of skilled workers for jobs that require an intermediate level of qualification. Demand for such workers has resulted from broken training chains in businesses and from weak Occupational Training. The immigrants who have filled this type of job are nationals mainly of third countries, yet also in EU-15 and EU-2 countries. By sex, the weight of immigrant women has increased during the period in question, to nearly 42% of the total number of immigrant workers. The number of alien women who hold jobs requiring a low level of qualification has shown the largest increase.

³ See Section 54 of Royal Decree 2393/2004 as amended through Royal Decree 1162/2009.

⁴ Statistical Yearbook for Immigration 2005 and 2009. Permanent Observatory for Immigration (MLI).

During the current economic crisis, some new structural problems have arisen in connection with labour market needs and immigration. One of them is that projections made in some studies for periods up to 2015 and 2020 suggest the total number of jobs in 2020 will be lower than that recorded in 2007, although the number of those requiring a high level of qualification will increase. If so, there would be difficulties with absorbing the current number of unemployed, of whom one fourth are alien workers with a medium-to-low level of training who have held jobs that have generally required little qualification. There is also a risk that the underground economy will grow, as happens during every economic crisis. Immigrants may be more prone to join that part of the economy as they cannot expect their situation to improve if they return to their home countries. Therefore, providing occupational training to the unemployed and fighting the underground economy become important political challenges.

Lastly, we may say that, in keeping with various recent European decisions, Spain has entered into bilateral agreements with various countries to control migration flows. These agreements include provisions designed to ensure that migrations also have favourable effects on the countries of origin of immigrants. The Alien Act as recently amended acknowledges the significance of such agreements by detailing the characteristics of the “Collective Management of Hiring in the Countries of Origin”.

1 Introduction: purpose and methodology followed

1.1. Methodology and Data Sources

In Spain, the agency responsible for production of the report is the National Contact Point (NCP), composed of experts from four ministries (Ministry of Labour and Immigration, Ministry of Home Affairs, Ministry of Foreign Affairs and Cooperation and Ministry of Justice) and coordinated by the Permanent Observatory on Immigration. The NCP also works with independent experts to conduct studies and draft reports for the EMN. This study was jointly drafted by Fausto Miguélez and Óscar Molina, and the team of NCP.

The report comes to fill an important gap in the existing literature about the relationship between the labour market and immigration in Spain. Even though there are many studies that have explored the contribution of recent immigration to the period of economic expansion and rapid employment growth preceding the present crisis, few of them have approached in-depth the contribution of immigration to fill different skill demands in the

economy. A closer look into the skill composition of recent immigration, as it is done in this report, will not only contribute to improve our knowledge about the relationship between immigration, skills and labour market performance. Its most important contribution consists in providing a tool to identify the skill deficits facing the labour market as well as to support the development of policies which could contribute to a better match between skill demands and labour force qualifications of immigrant workers.

The most relevant aspects of the methodology used in the elaboration of this report are the following. First, the statistical part of it has consisted in the analysis of stock and flow data for immigrant workers⁵ for the 2005-2009 period. Eventually, information about national workers has been included in order to compare the performance of the two groups in the labour market. This analysis has considered three variables as potentially important in order to understand and interpret the characteristics of immigration that has fulfilled skill shortages in the labour market: geographical origin by means of differentiating between UE-15, UE-10, UE-2 and third country nationals; qualification or skill level of employed immigrants, as we expect this to influence the pattern of adjustment depending on the sectoral distribution of economic activity; finally, sex is also regarded important in order to understand immigration and its contribution to labour market adjustment as we observe a trend towards the equalization in the stock of migrants by sex, hence endowing migration with a longer-term character.

The second methodological aspect has to do with the review of migration management regulations that has been under way since the Act of 2000 until the Act of 2009 (with a brief reference to that of 1985), as well as of the implementing regulation in force, of Community directives and some references to the Spanish Constitution itself as well as to judgments of the Constitutional Court. Efforts have been made to understand how the provisions in question have responded to economic changes, political proposals and social demands during the period.

In the third place, regarding the context in which the migration flows take place, the various factors and parties involved in the migration process are reviewed from a social and political point of view. Such review must necessarily take into account the characteristics, aims and strategies of the parties concerned as reflected by different types of information: their political programs (in the case of political parties) or other types of statement (including those of other parties involved), their behaviour, which may or may not coincide with those programs or proposals, the resources that the Administration may have invested in various actions. Naturally, such actions are ultimately contingent on the economic context, as for the purposes of this Report immigration is, above all, an economic phenomenon.

⁵ Nationality is the differentiating criterion that prevails in the registral data used.

Finally, we have carried out a number of interviews with various parties involved in the management of immigration flows: businesses, trades unions and the Administration. In these interviews we have focused on Catalonia as an emblematic case, being the autonomous region with the largest number of immigrants. The interviews have been carried out for a purely exploratory purpose, however, so in drawing up this Report they have only been given any bearing in the section on the implementation of the legislation on immigration and in some aspects of cooperation⁶.

Box 1. *Data Sources: main features and limitations*

Source	Main characteristics and limitations in the context of this report	Information used
Social Security Registry (Registro de la Seguridad Social)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> — The information refers to all those workers affiliated to and registered as in employment in the Social Security System as of 31 December of each year. — It includes third country nationals as well as European citizens. — The Social Security Registry provides the <i>professional category</i> of the employment registered, instead of the occupation. However, for the sake of simplicity, for this report, we call this variable <i>occupation</i>. — The Social Security Registry does not record the occupation of workers for all the regimes. As a consequence, information on occupation used in this report only refers to foreign workers employed under the General Regime and some workers under the special regimes. In the tables of the Annex, the workers for which occupation information is missing are included under a specific category of occupation. 	Stock of foreign workers by occupational category, nationality and sex (Tables I and III, Annex)

⁶ Eight interviews have been carried out: With Foment, Pimec, Cecot, Unió de Pagesos, Servei d'Ocupació de Catalunya, CCOO, UGT, and the Aliens Office in Barcelona. Rather than using a formal script, the interviews have been on the points foreseen in the Report in the sections on the application of migration legislation and on aspects relating to cooperation.

Source	Main characteristics and limitations in the context of this report	Information used
Ministry of Presidency (Ministerio de la Presidencia), Registry of Work and Residence Permits	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> — This is the most complete database with regard to work and residence permits. However, for some categories it has to be completed with other sources. — It includes only third country nationals. — This dataset provides information about most of the work and residence permits granted to foreign workers under the General system, and it includes part of the permits granted to researchers and seasonal workers (to be completed with other sources). — There is no information about flows of EU workers (including nationals) as they do not require a permit. — Data availability is limited to the period 2005-2009. 	Inflow of work permits granted to workers by occupational category, nationality and sex (Tables II, IV and V, Annex)
Large Companies Unit Database (Unidad de Grandes Empresas)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> — This dataset provides information about the following work and residence permits: a) those granted to highly qualified workers, b) those granted to researchers, c) those requested by large companies. — It includes only third country nationals. 	Inflow of work permits granted to researchers, highly skilled workers and other work permits (Tables II, IV and V, Annex)
Collective Hiring Management in Origin Database (Gestión Colectiva de las Contrataciones en Origen)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> — This dataset provides information about foreign workers hired through the Collective Hiring Management mechanism. — It includes only third country nationals. 	Inflow of work permits granted to seasonal workers (Tables II, IV and V, Annex)
Registry of the Public Employment System	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> — This dataset provides information about the number of job vacancies managed through the Public Employment System that are not filled by the end of the year. — However, this dataset provides only partial information about unfilled vacancies as the percentage of job demands managed through the public system is relatively low. 	Unfilled Vacancies (Table I, Annex)

Two main administrative data sources have been used in order to produce the statistical part of this report. Stock data contained in the Tables I and III (see Annex) comes from Social Security registry sources (see Box 1 for a short description of the main data sources used and their limitations). Flow data contained in Tables II, IV and V have been produced by the Ministry of Labour and Immigration (Permanent Observatory for Immigration) from microdata files obtained from the database managed by the Ministry of Presidency. Data coming from these two sources have been complemented in some cases with other data sources like the Public Employment System, the Large Companies Unit Database (Unidad de Grandes Empresas) or the Collective Hiring Management in Origin Database, within the Ministry of Labour and Immigration. In the following paragraphs we provide a detailed description of the databases used.

Regarding stocks, we have used the statistics on workers affiliated to and registered as in employment in the Social Security System as of 31 December of each year. The tables have been provided by the Ministry of Labour and Immigration (produced by the Permanent Observatory for Immigration from microdata files provided by the State Secretariat for Social Security). The Social Security Registry contains information about individuals who maintain an active relationship with the Social Security system. This includes those currently employed as well as those who perceive any type of unemployment benefit. Nevertheless, stock tables included in this report refer only to foreign workers currently employed⁷. The advantages of using a registry source lie not only in the completeness and the guidelines' suggestion to avoid survey data (see the report guidelines) but most importantly, it enhances its reliability and comparability with other countries where similar administrative data have been used in order to elaborate this report.

The downside of this greater reliability and comparability is the existence of some limitations as to the degree of detail as well as the type of data that can be provided. A first problem relates to the classification of occupations used in the Social Security registry. The Spanish Social Security system is organized along six regimes: General, Self-employed workers, Agriculture workers, Fishermen, Mining workers and Domestic workers. The most important regime in terms of number of workers is the General one, as can be observed in Table 1. This is the only regime for which the information on skill level is complete⁸. In order to follow the guidelines provided in the specifications for the study, these professional categories have been grouped as showed in Box

⁷ We have excluded from the stock tables those unemployed that perceive any form of unemployment protection (contributory benefit or subsidy).

⁸ Professional category (*categoría profesional*) or contribution groups (*grupos de cotización*). This information is also available for a small percentage of cases of the special regimes.

2. It follows from this that the differentiation between skill categories specified in the report guidelines has mainly been made with regard to workers in the General regime plus those for whom the skill level is registered, which represented almost 76% at the end of 2009 (66% if we take into account only foreign workers). However, in order to complete the picture, we have included in the stock Tables I and III (Annex) information about the size and distribution by country of nationality of foreign workers for whom the skill level is not available (most of the remaining five social security regimes). This may introduce a double bias in the analysis and interpretation of results since we exclude foreign workers in predominantly low skilled regimes like agriculture and housework, the latest being characterized by a high proportion of women. Thus, the skill distribution provided in the stock Tables I and III (Annex) under-estimates the number of women and low skilled workers as we can reasonably think that many of the domestic and agriculture workers belong to these categories. As it can be observed, the Domestic workers Social Security regime is the second most important for women after the General regime. Moreover, the Agricultural regime is the second most important for men. Similarly, many of the self-employed are professionals belonging to the skilled or highly skilled categories, predominantly men, which would lead to an under-estimation of the highly skilled and skilled categories. A more detailed analysis of these issues is made in section 3.2.1.

TABLE 1. *Workers affiliated to and registered as in employment in the Social Security system by Regime and Sex, 2004 and 2008*

	Total				%			
	2004		2008		2004		2008	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Total	725,380	415,042	1,088,065	794,149	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00
General	541,515	283,189	762,959	520,181	74.65	68.23	70.12	65.50
Self-Employed	85,284	36,590	154,631	66,978	11.76	8.82	14.21	8.43
Agriculture	88,901	25,028	149,370	53,252	12.26	6.03	13.73	6.71
Domestic Workers	6,134	70,013	16,936	153,402	0.85	16.87	1.56	19.32
Fishermen	2,951	217	3,515	323	0.41	0.05	0.32	0.04
Mining	595	5	654	13	0.08	0.00	0.06	0.00

Source: Statistical Yearbook of Immigration. Permanent Observatory for Immigration (Ministry of Labour and Immigration).

A related point to the one just mentioned is the lack of stock data about two of the categorizations provided in the study specifications, i.e., researchers and seasonal workers. Even though this does not constitute a major obstacle in the case of seasonal workers due

to their inherently unstable residence, it may be the case for researchers, whose period of stay is probably longer and does not follow a seasonal pattern. We only report data for these two categories in the flow Tables II and IV (Annex), since the source used, based on work permits data registered by the Ministry of Presidency, allows distinguishing these two groups.

Box 2. Correspondence between skill categories (EMN Study), occupation classification (ISCO 88⁹) and professional categories (Social Security system)

Skill categories (EMN Study)	ISCO 88	Professional categories - Social Security system
Highly Skilled (Highly Qualified)	Major Group 1 - Legislators, senior officials and managers Major Group 2 - Professionals Major Group 3 - Technicians and associate professionals	Group 1 - Senior and Junior Engineers Group 2 - Technical Engineers Technical Experts Group 3 - Administrative and Shop Managers
Skilled (Qualified)	Major Group 4 - Clerks Major Group 5 - Service Workers and Shop and Market Sales Workers Major Group 6 - Skilled Agricultural and Fishery Workers Major Group 7 - Craft and Related Trades Workers Major Group 8 - Plant and Machine Operators and Assemblers	Group 4 - Non-graduate Assistants Group 5 - Administrative Officers Group 6 - Junior Staff Group 7 - Administrative Assistants Group 8 - First and Second Officers
Low Skilled	Major Group 9 - Elementary Occupations	Group 9 - Third Officers and Semi-skilled Workers Group 10 - Unskilled Workers Group 11 - Workers under 18

The requirement of being granted a work permit in order to work in Spain allows us to have a reliable source to measure the number of immigrants that have entered every year

⁹ International Standard Classification of Occupations (International Labour Organization).

the labour market and work legally. Inflow data for 2004 has not been included due to the low quality of the data because it was the early stages of implementation of the tool for recording the applications. Accordingly, only inflow data for the 2005-2009 period has been included. Moreover, as EU-15 citizens do not require a work permit in order to join the Spanish labour market, data for this group is not available. The same applies to EU-10 workers from 2006 onwards and EU-2 workers from 2009. These restrictions are reflected in Tables II and IV¹⁰.

Because there are several sources that cover the different mechanisms of entry into the Spanish labour market (see Box 1 above and Section 3.1 for detailed explanation of the mechanisms), we have added the data from each of the sources in order to complete the statistical information for inflow data:

- Ministry of the Presidency Database
- Large Companies Unit Database¹¹ (*UGE, Unidad de Grandes Empresas*), for data on the permits granted to highly qualified workers, permits granted to researchers and other permits requested by large companies.
- Collective Hiring Management in Origin Database (*Gestión Colectiva de las Contrataciones en Origen*): foreign seasonal workers hired under this mechanism.

Table V (Annex), which should contain data about stock of workers in different occupations, has been elaborated using inflows. The reason for doing this is the lack of detailed information about these specific occupations in the Social Security registry. As a consequence, we have decided to use inflow data of work permits granted, registered by the Ministry of Presidency, which are classified by occupation.

Regarding outflows data, its measurement is very problematic using the available sources. For this reason we have decided to not include them in the statistical part of this report.

Finally, the measurement of labour market shortages in terms of unfilled vacancies presents in the case of Spain several problems. The only available source of information comes from the registry of the Public Employment System (PES). The specific indicator

¹⁰ The evidence contained in tables I to V differentiates four main origins of immigrants. EU-15 nationals are those belonging to countries belonging to the EU before the 2004; EU-10 nationals belong to the countries that joined the EU in 2004; EU-2 refer to nationals of the two countries that joined the EU in 2007 (Bulgaria and Romania); Third-country nationals are those coming from any other country.

¹¹ This Database and the Collective Hiring Management in Origin Database are directly managed by the Ministry of Labour and Immigration.

used here is '*Ofertas Pendientes*' (Unmatched demands), that is, the number of job demands managed through the PES that are not filled by the end of the year. The first problem of this indicator is the fact that only a small percentage of total demands are managed through the PES. More specifically, we know from other sources that only about 10-20% of total demands are channelled through the PES (Alujas 2009). The second problem regards the type of jobs that are announced. As pointed by several sources (CES 2005), demands that require a university degree are less often managed through the PES than are those for skilled or low skilled. In other words, unfilled vacancies for highly skilled jobs are underrepresented in this indicator. Notwithstanding the above shortcomings, this is the only available source for unfilled vacancies and we have decided to include it.

1.2. Definitions

In the following paragraphs we define the most important categories used in this report along the lines contained in the Specifications for EMN Study. When definitions and categories used by national sources depart significantly from those outlined in the guidelines, the definition actually used has been included (see Section 1.1 for more information).

Active Registered Workers. This refers to workers who are registered as in employment with the Social Security Administration at December 31 of each year.

Registration is mandatory for persons falling under the Social Security System. These are required to register once and for all schemes managed by the Social Security Administration in general, on an exclusive basis and for their whole working life. When a worker is hired as an employee, an obligation arises to pay Social Security dues in respect of the worker, and an application must be filed for the worker to be registered for the purposes of the relevant social security scheme. There is a possibility that an individual worker may be counted more than once in the relevant statistics, because he or she holds more than one job (moonlighting) and consequently is in various situations giving rise to an obligation to pay dues under the same scheme or various schemes. However, only three percent of the total number of workers registered with the Social Security Administration are in such situations.

The situations in which individual workers are deemed to be at work, or likened to those at work, arise in certain cases explicitly foreseen by law. In such cases, those who have temporarily or finally ceased to be at work remain registered for Social Security purposes as individuals who are at work. Such individuals are treated as if they were still at work in respect of such risks and to such extent as may be specified in each case.

Besides, such treatment is not afforded to some types of employees for whom dues are paid covering the risk of worker accidents yet do fall under the description of workers, such as prison inmates, individuals recruited to work in social cooperation projects, students at occupational training schools, workers who are being retrained as part of industrial conversion programmes, members of polling stations in elections, etc.

- **Highly skilled (Highly Qualified Migrant).** This refers to a person falling within ILO ISCO-88¹² Classes 1, 2 and 3:
 - *Major Group 1:* Legislators, senior officials and managers.
 - *Major Group 2:* Professionals.
 - *Major Group 3:* Technicians and associate professionals.
- **Skilled.** This refers to a person falling within ILO ISCO-88 Classes 4 to 8:
 - *Major Group 4:* Clerks.
 - *Major Group 5:* Service Workers and Shop and Market Sales Workers.
 - *Major Group 6:* Skilled Agricultural and Fishery Workers.
 - *Major Group 7:* Craft and Related Trades Workers.
 - *Major Group 8:* Plant and Machine Operators and Assemblers.
- **Low skilled.** In line with the above, this refers to a person falling within ILO ISCO-88 Class 9:
 - *Major Group 9:* Elementary Occupations.

The correspondence between the ISCO and Spain's national statistical source used for migrant workers stock in this report (Tables I and III of Annex), is contained in Box 2, Section 1.1.

¹² Major, Sub-Major, Minor and Unit Group titles are available from <http://www.ilo.org/public/english/bureau/stat/isco/isco88/major.htm>.

- **Researcher**

- Stock data (Tables I and III in the Annex): the source used to provide the stock of foreign workers does not allow distinguishing between highly qualified immigrant workers and researchers.
- Inflow data (Tables II and IV of Annex): includes the number of permits with exemption of work permit application granted to researchers, scientists and teachers, recorded in the database of the Ministry of the Presidency, and the work permits granted to researchers, scientists and teachers recorded in the Large Companies Unit.

- **Seasonal Worker Migrant.**

- Stock data (Tables I and III in the Annex): the source used to provide the stock of foreign workers does not allow distinguishing seasonal workers from the rest of workers.
- Inflow data (Tables II and IV of Annex): fix-term work permits of up to 9 months of duration granted under two procedures: Collective Hiring Management in Origin procedure and the General scheme (Ministry of Presidency Database).

2 Approach to economic migration policy in Spain

Preliminary Points

The phenomenon of immigration in Spain has a number of features that must be taken into account to understand the country's economic immigration policy.

In the first place, immigration started only recently, having been hardly significant until 1995. The inflow of immigrants has been very intensive, particularly since 2000, with the intensity having much to do with the strong growth of the Spanish economy. As can be seen in Table 2, in less than 10 years the number of aliens holding valid residence permits (or registration certificates in the case of Union citizens) in Spain has risen from one million to nearly five million, a number equal to 10% of the population. New changes are beginning to take place, however. As we can see, while the number of aliens holding certificates of registration or residence permits in force rose by more than 900,000 in 2007 from the previous year, and by nearly 500,000 in 2008, the increase seen in 2009 was just over 300,000 and was mainly attributable to family reasons or reasons other

than work¹³. If we measure the topic in terms of those who belong to the work force, the Active Population Survey shows that their number has not stopped growing, not even during the economic crunch (there were 3,294,700 working aliens in the 4th quarter of 2007 compared with 3,623,500 in the same period of 2009). The pace of growth in their number, however, has been much slower since the crisis broke out, an aspect that ought to be borne in mind with a view to the future.

Another feature that we ought to bear in mind is that, since the end of the 1990s, a large number of immigrants have entered Spain illegally, something that does not have to do so much with migration legislation as it does with two other factors of a social and economic nature. The first factor is linked to the existence, before the immigration process, of underground economy situations of which certain businesses that cut labour costs unlawfully have been able to take advantage more easily by tapping the immigrant work force. Even though the underground economy is difficult to estimate in quantitative terms¹⁴, there is no doubt that it exists and is quite sizeable, and that many businesses resort to it. Therefore, that can be expected to mean that part of the work is performed in the underground economy. The second factor concerns the Spanish business structure itself, with mainly small— and micro-sized undertakings in sectors in which hundreds are formed and destroyed each year, as is the case in the building, hotel, personal services and other industries, which may make it difficult to control whether employees are hired lawfully. According to figures taken from the DIRCE¹⁵ for 2004, close to a time when irregular immigration reached a high volume (just before the 2005 regularization process), businesses with less than 10 workers made up 93.9% of the total number of Spanish businesses. As for business registration and deregistration movements, according to the figures for 2009¹⁶, the Directory gives a rate of 10.8% for de-registrations and a rate of 8.7% for registrations, which confirms the assumption that businesses are formed and destroyed at a high rate.

¹³ The 2009 Statistical Yearbook for Immigration contains figures on the number of residence permits in force, giving the breakdown by regime of residency and according to the reasons for granting the residence permits. These figures show which categories grow most from the previous year.

¹⁴ Although several studies have been carried out, only a nationwide study has provided an estimate of the possible volume of underground work in Spain. This was carried out by the Ministry of Economy years before the period of stepped-up immigration, and led to the conclusion that the share of underground work in the different sectors of the Spanish economy was 20% (Ministry of Economy, 1985). Later estimates of the share of the underground economy, by the Tax Studies Institute or the OECD, have ranged from 15% to 20%. The Spanish researchers Mauleón and Sardá as well as the Austrian researcher Schneider, in a study covering 76 countries, quoted the ICE Economic Bulletin N° 2639 (published in 2000) as saying in an editorial that the underground economy was an estimated 25% of the country's GDP.

¹⁵ The Central Business Directory (Directorio Central de Empresas - DIRCE), compiled by the National Statistics Institute, brings together under a single information system all Spanish businesses and their local units situated in Spain.

¹⁶ <http://www.ine.es/daco/daco42/dirce/dirce10.pdf>

The last factor to be considered is that of regularisations. The fact that there were immigrants in an illegal situation made the labour shortages difficult to evaluate. Besides, that contributed towards other social and political problems i.e., they were workers who did not pay Social Security dues, who were liable to be exploited by employers or to suffer unreported accidents, which needed to be corrected. For the reasons mentioned so far, and other reasons, past Governments have found it appropriate to carry out several regularisations, to clarify the supply and demand of labour and alleviate certain social pressures. Even though there had been regularisation operations in 1985, 1991 and 1996 (when about 175,000 aliens were regularised) (Kostova, 2006), 163,352 immigrants were regularised in 2000, another 36,013 in the reexamination carried out in 2001, and 241,696 in the regularisation of 2001¹⁷, respectively, following the promulgation of the Organic Act N° 4/2000 and of the amending Organic Act N° 8/2000. The last regularisation, in 2005, called *Alien Worker Normalisation Process* or *Normalisation*, was different from the preceding operations because it involved an individualised procedure, with applicants being required to have an employment contract in force to be granted the relevant residence and work permit. As a result of the Normalisation, 578,375 aliens were authorised to reside and work in Spain. We must also note that the normalisation process of 2005 was carried out under a new legal framework designed to bring the underground economy to light, protect the social and labour rights of aliens, and thus allow them to pay Social

TABLE 2. *Number of Foreign Residents⁽¹⁾ in Spain and Annual Variation (%), 2001-2009*

	Foreign Residents (as of 31 st December)	Annual Variation (%)
2001	1,109,060	—
2002	1,324,001	19.4
2003	1,647,011	24.4
2004	1,977,291	20.1
2005	2,738,932	38.5
2006	3,021,808	10.3
2007	3,979,014	31.7
2008	4,473,499	12.4
2009	4,791,232	7.1

Source: Statistical Yearbook for Immigration 2009. Permanent Observatory for Immigration (Ministry of Labour and Immigration).

(1) Aliens holding a Certificate of registration or a Residence permit in force.

¹⁷ According to figures drawn from the database of the Ministry of the Presidency.

Security dues and taxes. As a result of all these regularisation operations about one million aliens who were in an irregular situation in Spain have been granted residence permits since 2000.

2.1. National vision and policy

Labour Shortages and Immigration

Spain's current Government, and the preceding governments since the Alien Act was promulgated, have promoted lawful and coordinated immigration mainly with the aim of meeting current labour shortages or those foreseen for the future because of economic growth and an aging population. Two requirements have been placed at the fore in seeking to achieve that aim. The first one has been that the supply of immigrant labour must not harm domestic labour, which is what both the Act and its implementing Regulation mean by the referring to "the domestic employment situation", i.e. immigrants must be hired only when there is no domestic labour (i.e., Spaniards and existing resident aliens) available to fill vacancies¹⁸. The second requirement has been that the working conditions of immigrants must be the same as those foreseen by law for the native-born population. That calls for making sure that immigrants are actually employed according to law, and that they undergo an integration process. This political vision evolved since the 1990s, and particularly since the Act of 2000, and became fully consistent in 2005 and 2006 when all of the new mechanisms were in operation.

The immigration policy has had to meet labour shortages in generally labour-intensive sectors that require less qualified workers, such as the building and hotel industries, commerce, agriculture or personal service industries, where the terms offered were not very attractive for the native-born population despite a high rate of structural unemployment among the latter. While taking steps to ensure that the two requirements mentioned above are observed, the Administration has left it to businesses to take the initiative in hiring immigrants.

There are two principal immigrant entry mechanisms or channels (and other special procedures), whose operation is described further on, designed to ensure that workers are hired in their countries of origin. The existence of these mechanisms allows a distinction to be made between long-term and circumstantial labour shortages.

¹⁸ There are some exceptions to the "domestic employment situation" rule, which are mentioned in Section 40 of the Alien Act as amended in 2009: members of reunified immigrant families, those who have refugee status, aliens who have Spanish ancestors or offspring in their care, individuals hired to fill positions of trust and company directors, researchers hired by public entities, universities or research centres, etc.

The first mechanism, called the General System, is that through which most of the immigrants hired in the country of origin obtain their permits. The granting of such permits is conditional on the domestic employment situation, as noted above, which is described in terms of vacant jobs available in each province, registered in the so-called "Catalogue of Shortage Occupations". The Catalogue, which is updated quarterly, shows the occupations in which native-born workers do not suffice to meet job openings, classifying these by sector, subsector and province. Until 2007, many occupations were mentioned in that Catalogue because both new job opportunities were being created and many native-born people chose not to seek such jobs. We must recall that, even though activity rates rose significantly and unemployment rates fell during the past 10 years, according to the Active Population Survey the rate of employment among women in the fourth quarter of 2007 still stood at 54.7%, lower than the average for the EU, and the rate of unemployment was 8.03%, so in theory there was a potential for more native-born people to join the work force. Since the end of 2008, however, the Catalogue has shrunk considerably as a result of the economic crunch. In the first quarter of 2010, for example, the Catalogue of Shortage Occupations includes only two occupations for most of the provinces: general practitioner doctors and nurses, because of a shortage of health care professionals; whereas the Catalogue for the second quarter already mentions a slightly larger number of occupations reflecting changes in some regions. This is a highly flexible mechanism that readily adjusts to reflect changing labour market needs.

The second mechanism, Collective Management of Hiring in the Countries of Origin (called the *Contingent* prior to the reform carried out through the Act of 2009), is also determined by a shortfall in the domestic supply of labour, because it is based on annual forecasts made by the public employment services taking into account the domestic employment situation. These are provisional forecasts which may be altered to respond to market developments. This mechanism may be described as having been greatly reduced in 2009 and 2010, reflecting the economic crunch.

All that shows migration policy has good tools available for adjusting migration flows to meet labour market requirements.

Recent Changes in Migration Policy

Migration policy has been influenced by two types of phenomena recently: on one hand, by the economic crisis, as a result of which the requirements for new immigrant labour are going to be restructured, at least in the middle term, presumably by reducing the need for unskilled labour and selectively increasing the need for highly skilled workers. On the other hand, the process of harmonisation of migration policies within the EU has

resulted in various directives that must be taken into account by both Spanish immigration policy and, specifically, domestic legislation.

In the current economic circumstances, the Ministry of Labour and Immigration has put under way a new program for immigrants to voluntarily return to their countries of origin, by proposing the capitalisation of their unemployment insurance payments as an incentive, in addition to the humanitarian program of aided voluntary return, in force since 2003, and the productive return program. According to figures provided by the Ministry, these voluntary return programs have enabled 20.250 aliens to return to their countries of origin between 2003 and April 2010. Of these, 76% or 15,400 have returned since 2008 (8,451 under the new program linking their return to a lump sum payment of the unemployment benefit, and 6,949 under the humanitarian return program)¹⁹.

The amended Alien Act approved in December 2009 sums up all these circumstances: it has been drafted in the context of the new requirements arising from the economic crisis which has driven up unemployment to 19% of the active population at the end of 2009, in order to more strictly adjust migration flows to labour market needs. Yet it also takes into account the European directives approved since the Alien Act 4/2000 was previously amended, such as the so-called Return Directive, that concerning highly-qualified immigrants (the so-called EU Blue Card Directive) and others²⁰. In the following section we shall enlarge on this point.

2.2. Legislative and institutional framework

In order to clarify the framework for action by the Administration on questions relating to immigration, it is advisable for us to briefly describe the framework of competences

¹⁹ For further information on programmes of assisted voluntary return, please refer to the *EMN Study (2009) Programmes and strategies regarding assisted return and reintegration in third countries.- Spain*.

The publication *Inmigración y mercado de trabajo. Informe 2010*, contains a chapter on return and its relationship to the economic crisis (Pajares, 2010).

²⁰ Directive 2003/110/EC on assistance in cases of transit for the purposes of removal by air; Directive 2003/109/EC concerning the status of third-country nationals who are long-term residents; Directive 2004/81/EC on the residence permit issued to third-country nationals who are victims of trafficking in human beings or who have been the subject of an action to facilitate illegal immigration, who cooperate with the competent authorities; Directive 2004/82 on the obligation of carriers to communicate passenger data; Directive 2004/114/EC on the conditions for admission of third-country nationals for the purposes of studies, pupil exchange, unremunerated training or voluntary service; Directive 2005/71/EC on a specific procedure for admitting third-country nationals for the purposes of scientific research; Directive 2008/115/EC on common standards and procedures in Member States for returning illegally staying third-country nationals; Directive 2009/50/EC on the conditions of entry and residence of third-country nationals for the purposes of highly qualified employment; Directive 2009/52/EC providing for minimum standards on sanctions and measures against employers of illegally staying third-country nationals.

of the various bodies of the Administration on the subject, and to first of all recall the provisions of the Spanish Constitution itself to the effect that the National Government has exclusive competence in the matter of immigration (Article 149.1.1 of the SC). The Alien Act unifies under provincial offices (Immigration Offices) the existing services reporting to different bodies of the National Administration that have competence in immigration matters. Its implementing Regulation approved through Royal Decree N° 2393/2004 provides that Immigration Offices shall report to the offices of the National Government delegates and underdelegates to the different provinces, specifically to the Secretary General of such offices, and functionally to the Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs, through the State Secretariat for Immigration and Emigration as well as to the Ministry of Home Affairs. Through Royal Decree N° 432/2008, reorganising several ministries, the Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs has been replaced by the Ministry of Labour and Immigration, which has been given the responsibility of developing Government policy in immigration and emigration matters. The State Secretariat for Immigration and Emigration is divided into three Directorates General: The General Directorate for Immigration, the General Directorate for the Integration of Immigrants, and the General Directorate for Spanish Citizenship Abroad.

The Ministry of the Interior performs duties relating to frontier control, control of illegal immigration, documentation, asylum, etc. The Ministry of Foreign Affairs and Cooperation is in charge of managing the country's foreign policy and foreign development cooperation. The Ministry of Justice has duties to perform in matters relating to nationality. The competent ministry in matters relating to social cohesion and social integration of immigrants is the Ministry of Health and Social Policy.

Royal Decree N° 942/2010 provides for the offices of the National Government delegates to the different provinces to take over and perform the services that fall within the scope of the Ministry of Labour and Immigration as well as of the Ministry of Health and Social Policy through two functional areas: The Labour and Immigration Area, and the Health and Social Policy Area.

At the regional level, in Catalonia, as a result of the Statute of Autonomy approved in September, 2009, the allocation of competences among the National Government and the Regional Authority of Catalonia has changed following the approval of Royal Decree N° 1463/2009²¹. This law involves the transfer of duties and services to the Regional

²¹ Royal Decree N° 1463/2009, of September 18, 2009, on the transfer of duties and services in immigration matters to the Regional Authorities of Catalonia: initial work permits for aliens working as self-employed individuals or as employees of others in Catalonia. Published in the Official National Government Gazette N° 229, on September 22, 2009.

Authorities of Catalonia in the matter of initial work permits for nationals of third countries who are self-employed or employees of others and work in Catalonia.

The first Spanish immigration act was the Organic Act Nº 7/1985, of July 1, 1985, on the duties and rights of aliens in Spain, which was approved just before the accession of Spain to the European Union. Until then, immigration was immaterial in terms of the number of immigrants. These were mostly Moroccans who worked in agriculture, nationals of some Latin American countries (Chile, Argentina and Colombia) and citizens of other European Union countries. It was not until 1990, when the Inter-ministerial Committee for Aliens was appointed, however, that issues such as the quotas for hiring immigrants in their countries of origin or some immigrant integration measures were raised. A Bill drafted by the Popular Party (PP) government in 1999, to bring the applicable legislation in line with the case law made by the Constitutional Court in various judgments on the rights of aliens²², was approved in January, 2000 as the Organic Act Nº 4/2000, of January 12, 2000. The minority government voted against the Act as finally worded because it did not agree with the changes made by the opposition in the wording. The reason for such an unusual event, of the opposition making certain changes in the Bill, was that as originally worded it did not fully reflect what the Constitutional Court had suggested and the lawmakers wished to allay fears among part of the society. Subsequently, in the election of March 12, 2000, the Popular Party won an absolute majority in Parliament and amended the Act (through Organic Act Nº 8/2000, of December 22, 2000) by introducing stiffer entry requirements and restricting family reunification, among other things. Neither the previous Act nor the more restrictive amended Act succeeded in stopping the flow of irregular immigrants, who according to an expert (Cachón, 2007) numbered more than one million in January, 2003.

During the period between one Act and the other a major political and social debate took place. The PP criticised the Alien Act Nº 4/2000 saying that the improved terms of integration foreseen in it were going to boost the “call effect” and described a serious outbreak of xenophobia in the town of El Ejido, in Almeria Province, with demonstrations

Correction of errors in Royal Decree Nº 1463/2009, of September 18, 2009, on transferring duties and services to the Regional Authority of Catalonia in matters relating to initial work permits for self-employed individuals or employees of others to work in Catalonia. Published in the Official National Government Gazette Nº 262, of October 30, 2009.

²² Constitutional Court judgments Nº 107/1984, on equal protection of the rights of Spaniards and aliens; Nº 115/1993 on allegedly unconstitutional sections of the Alien Act Nº 7/1985 (on the rights of assembly and of association, among others); Nº 116/1993 on the lack of sufficient legal grounds for removing aliens; Nº 94/1993 on the freedom of movement and the right to choose a place of residence; Nº 95/2000 on health care rights; and Nº 13/2001 on racial discrimination.

after a street vendor was killed by a Moroccan immigrant, as an effect of the new Act²³. In fact, the conservative party turned amending the Act into one of the objectives to be fulfilled after winning the election in March de 2000²⁴. The opposition, for their part, were against amending the Act. The Spanish Socialist Workers' Party (PSOE) started to speak of the need for a National compact on immigration to pull the issue out of the pre-election debate and filed appeals against several sections of the Alien Act N° 8/2000 on the grounds that they were unconstitutional. The opposition and the trades unions described the attempts to amend the Act as regressive²⁵.

This debate and, above all, the insistence on the part of the PSOE on a National compact on immigration, as well as the growth of irregular immigration, led to an agreement between the two major parties for amending the law, in 2003, through the Organic Act N° 14/2003. Some new features of this Act, compared with the one in force until then, were the following: agreement in Parliament on the mechanisms for entering the country and renewing residence permits, as well as on the grounds for returning immigrants; granting of visas to look for a job as a way of fighting illegal immigration; stronger measures to fight against migrant smuggling; making changes in family reunification management practices by eliminating exceptional reunification for humanitarian reasons yet extending the right to reunification to include the spouse's parents who are dependent on a lawful resident; making regularisation on the grounds that an immigrant has taken roots in the country conditional on the immigrant actually joining the labour market. Besides, in the same year 2003, the Organic Act N° 11/2003 on security in the cities, domestic violence and the integration of aliens was approved. The new Act provided for more specific and additional grounds of return.

When the Socialist government took over in Parliament in March, 2004, it was able to undertake more ambitious objectives with regard to regulating immigration. These were the following: fighting illegal immigration, promoting legal immigration (to meet the need for alien workers to join the economy and the social security system) and achieving social integration of immigrants by undertaking an extensive program in that respect. In a way, these objectives were included in the political program of the PSOE for the 2004 election, in the section on immigration²⁶. The need to carry out a normalisation process to

²³ -The El Mundo newspaper said on February 8, 2000: "Piqué (a minister in the PP government) blames the events on the new Alien Act. -El País, February 10, 2000: Matutes (a minister in the PP government) blames the events in Almería on the growing number of illegal immigrants and insists on the need to change the law."

²⁴ See for example the newspapers of May 6, 10, 17 and 26, as well as of June 26 of that year.

²⁵ See El Pais and other newspapers from June 2000, for example.

²⁶ See in PSOE *Political program for the 2004 general election*. The political program speaks of: Fighting exploitation of immigrant workers and the underground economy; Drawing up a Statute to integrate

put an end to irregular immigration and the need to lay the groundwork for integration were frequently mentioned in debates in Parliament in 2005²⁷. Above all, however, the objectives were expressed through the steps taken by the new government. The new government used three tools for the purpose: In the first place, the government undertook a regularisation process (the *Alien Worker Normalisation Process* or *Normalisation*, 2005) to put an end to the situation of many illegally-staying aliens. In the second place, the 2007-2010 Strategic Plan on Citizenship and Integration was launched and duly funded. We shall return to the Plan further on in this Report²⁸. In the third place, changes in the law were proposed. We shall now focus on the latter. The Alien Act, which was last reformed by agreement between the two major parties, was not amended during the first term of the PSOE government. Instead, its implementing Regulation was reformed, in December, 2004, with the cooperation and support of the business organizations, the trades unions, immigrant organizations and local governments, in what were truly new developments. The features we note below are based on the reform before last of the Act (Organic Act N° 14/2003) and on the Regulation of 2004.

The key aspects of the law to be taken into account concern entry, residence and work permits and family reunification. With respect to entry, the general rule is the following: alien workers from outside the EU must be hired in their countries of origin when they are hired for the first time, whether they are hired according to the General System or under the Contingent procedure (or through Collective Management of Hiring in the Countries of Origin, according to the terminology used in the latest reform, of Organic Act N° 2/2009), except for those who already hold a residence permit, including those who have been granted such permit for family reunification purposes, and those who are granted a residence permit on the grounds that they have taken root in Spain.

The law provides that the initial residence and work permit, for a period of one year, be granted, with some exceptions²⁹, solely for the industry and province in which the immigrant has been offered an employment contract. Such permit may be renewed for a further two years, and at the time of renewal the immigrant may change over to another industry and province, if he or she has been offered an employment contract to that effect. The permit is renewed again two years later, for another two years, provided always that the immigrant is offered a job. Once these last two years have elapsed, the

immigrants by promoting the integration of immigrants who are lawfully resident in Spain; Opening hiring offices in the countries of origin of immigrants to organize and control the migratory flows; Simplifying channelling processes by using new technologies, improving management by introducing a single procedure for granting work and residence permits; etc.

²⁷ Susana Ridao, "La Regularización de Inmigrantes de 2004", a review of the speeches of the political groups during the State of the Nation debate in the Spanish Parliament in 2005. Almería University.

²⁸ The budget foreseen in the Strategic Plan for the 4-year period was 2,005,017,091 euros.

²⁹ There are exceptions to that rule. For example, if the employer company goes out of business.

immigrant is entitled to a long-term residence permit. For the purposes of these permit renewals immigrants are not required to be hired for filling jobs in occupations in which job-seekers are hard to find. The mandatory return of immigrants is foreseen to take place after the first, third or fifth year, at the time when their work and residence permits need to be renewed, until they secure a long-term residence permit. If an immigrant does not meet the requirements for the work and residence permit to be renewed, he or she must leave the country.

As for reunification, until the reform of December, 2009, the law provided for the possibility of reunification of the following family members: the spouse of the sponsor, his or her children and those of the spouse, provided they are under 18 or disabled individuals who are not objectively capable of providing for their own needs because of their health condition, his or her parents and those of the spouse when they are in charge of the parents. The reunited family members are granted a residence permit. The offspring who are over 18 and wish to enter Spain must follow the same procedure as the rest of immigrants.

Beyond these administrative procedures the Government has made many agreements with third countries to facilitate legal immigration to Spain and discourage illegal immigration, and has implemented specific ways of gaining access to the labour market for researchers and highly-qualified workers. We take a closer look at these aspects further on in this Report.

New reform of the Organic Act on Aliens in 2009

Some changes have been made through newly-reformed Act (Organic Act N° 2/2009, of December 11, 2009) concerning entry, residence and work permits, as well as the return of immigrants, of which the following may be noted: immigrants who are granted residence permits in Spain on the grounds of family reunification because they are spouses or offspring may access the labour market without having to go through any further administrative procedure, i.e. they may seek a job under the same terms as native-born people. Neither children nor grandchildren of Spanish nationals are subject to the national employment situation. These changes strengthen the rights of these groups. There are special legal provisions on the procedure for granting residence and work permits to migrant seasonal workers. Countries with which Spain has signed agreements on regulating migration flows are given preference for these purposes, as is the case with Collective Management of Hiring in the Countries of Origin³⁰.

³⁰ With the latest reform of the Alien Act the terminology has been updated to reflect the new situation more accurately: terms such as permit, permanent residence and contingent have been replaced with others such as authorization, long-term residence, Group Management of Hiring in the Countries of Origin.

Another very important aspect is that concerning the family reunification mechanism. As mentioned above, the new provisions facilitate access to the labour market by the spouses and offspring. However, the newly-reformed Act is restrictive compared to that previously in force in what concerns the parents of both the resident immigrant and his or her spouse, because it requires that they be over 65 (so they will not join the labour market), while providing that they may be granted a residence permit at an earlier age for humanitarian reasons, and may be reunited by immigrants who hold long-term residence permits (after having resided in Spain for an unbroken period of five years or as holders of a Blue Card in Spain or another EU country).

Special rules have been introduced for researchers, who are granted residence and work permits that are renewable annually, to carry out research projects at admitted entities engaging in research. The rules also apply to aliens admitted as researchers in other Member States of the EU who wish to conduct part of their research in Spain³¹. Once the agreement in question expires, the researcher may be authorised to reside in Spain and engage in a for-profit activity.

To transpose the EU Blue Card directive into domestic Spanish legislation, provision has been made for highly-qualified professionals who wish to reside and work in Spain. They are required to prove they have a higher education or, as an exception, at least five years' experience in their profession that may be considered equal to a higher education. To authorise such individuals to reside and work in Spain the Administration may take into account the domestic employment situation as well as the need to protect their countries of origin by ensuring these have sufficient human resources. Such individuals may also access Spain from another EU Member State, provided that they have resided in it for 18 months.

The reform of the Act described above needs to be supplemented with an implementing regulation which is still in the process of being drafted.

2.3. Political debate and involvement of stakeholders

Debates on Migration Policy

The debates on the phenomenon of immigration have gone through three different phases in relation to three historical periods featured by migration flows of different volumes, as

³¹ All aliens admitted as researchers in another Member State of the European Union who apply to carry out part of their research in Spain during a period of more than three months may request and be granted residence and work permits if they meet the relevant regulatory requirements. They need not obtain a visa, although a new reception agreement may be required.

well as by different economic and political management capabilities to ensure the lawful entry and integration of immigrants.

Between the mid-1990s and the Acts of 2000 as well as of the years immediately following, the debate turned around the rights of immigrants, because immigration started to grow strongly and the working conditions of many who held jobs in agriculture and the building industry were very precarious, partly due to the fact that a high percentage of them were illegally-staying immigrants. Several experts have noted the correlation between illegality and the precariousness of rights during that period (Cachón, 2003; IOE, 2001). We have already mentioned what the PSOE contributed basically in the debate that took place during those years. Certain aspects of the Act as reformed at the end of 2000 with the votes of the Popular Party majority in Parliament were opposed to the point that the PSOE filed appeals against some of its provisions before the Constitutional Court, and the proposals on a National compact on immigration. We have also noted that the Popular Party raised the phantom threat of the call effect —claiming that the Act of January 2000 was too lax— in order to reform the Act in December of the same year, and blamed on the presence of illegally-staying immigrants both the outbreaks of xenophobia that took place as well as alleged breaches of law and order in the form of conflicts relating to immigration, which are discussed below. In general, immigration gradually gained prominence as a political issue, and became a matter of State as from 1998, mainly with regard to the problems caused by the immigration from third countries. Thus, two different approaches took shape: on one hand, immigration was defined as socially enriching, and on the other, illegality became a problem. Therefore, it was a matter of promoting its socially enriching aspects and doing away with irregular immigration. The stand of the Socialist Group in Parliament (Dios Pintado, 2005³²) was featured, as from 1998, by the view that illegality is a structural phenomenon that cannot be dealt with through punitive measures alone. Rather, it must be confronted by extending rights to immigrants and by undertaking a clear and ordinary regularisation process. The Socialist Group also introduced the notions of family reunification, permanent residence and universal social policies applying to immigrants too. The Popular Party Group in Parliament is more reluctant to approve measures that have to do with expanding the rights of immigrants, and relies more on penalties as a way of solving the problem of illegality. The United Leftwing (“Izquierda Unida”) Group took the most permissive stand on immigrants entering and staying in Spain and on acknowledging their rights, and

³² In this section we draw extensively on the well-documented study by Sofia Dios Pintado, «Inmigración y extranjería en el debate parlamentario español», in which the author reviews the debates that took place in Parliament on this issue from 1985 to 2003, when a legislative cycle was closed by the Alien Act Nº 14/2003, based on the Diario de Sesiones transcripts and official gazette editions relating to the Alien Act Nº 7/1985, the Alien Act Nº 4/2000, the Alien Act Nº 8/2000, and the Alien Act Nº 14/2003.

therefore criticised the rigid conditions resulting from the provisions in force and the fact that these provisions developed control rather than the integration of certain groups of immigrants; in the debates in Parliament and before the public this political Group argued for granting immigrants active and passive voting rights in local elections without that being conditional on Spaniards enjoying a reciprocal treatment in the countries of origin of the immigrants, for granting them six-month permits to seek a job, for cutting through red tape in the procedure for being granted permanent resident status, etc. The Socialists and the conservatives reached agreement with respect to regulating the entry and stay of immigrants in the Act of 2003 (Bravo López, 2005), although they remained at odds over the rights of immigrants, an issue that was shelved for the time being to allow the public debate to cool down.

The trades unions and immigrants' organisations became involved in the debate, however³³, as did the newspapers, when the Popular Party government tried to remove illegally-staying immigrants, a development that gave rise to immigrants locking themselves up in public buildings and staging demonstrations in some towns, which also happened at the time when the Act was reformed. We may mention, in the first place, the rejection of the Act by society, particularly in February 2001, as reflected in all the newspapers at the time³⁴. The newspapers reported these events and published editorials on the subject. According to a study based on Catalan newspapers conducted by Giró X and Jarque JM, in 2006³⁵, the following conclusions may be drawn from what was published in those newspapers: there must be a law governing immigration, approved by consensus agreement in Parliament, also dealing with the integration of immigrants. Only *La Vanguardia* defended the Act as reformed by the Popular Party. The press settled on the view that it was necessary to fix quotas, and also to regularise to prevent exclusion. As for the political rights of immigrants, there were disagreements in the press. The newspapers agreed on the removals, yet these had to be carried out according to law and respecting the rights of the individuals concerned. All of the newspapers reviewed

³³ In both cases, support was shown of the immigrants who had locked themselves up and in other ways, according to the newspapers of February and March, 2001.

³⁴ The following events, appearing in the press in February 2001 are of note. In Murcia immigrants and Spaniards alike stage sit-ins across in 6 towns: Los Alcázares, Cartagena, Murcia, Molina de Segura Jumilla and Puente Tocinos. In Valencia Ecuadorans stage sit-ins organized by the Rumiñahui association, which are supported by folk concerts. In Ceuta, 350 immigrants go on an indefinite hunger strike. In Almería immigrants stage a sit-in at the University. In Barcelona there is a sit-in in the church of Santa Maria del Pi with a heavy turnover of students in the form of demonstrations.

³⁵ These authors carried out a study based on the following newspapers circulating in Catalonia: *El País*, *La Vanguardia*, *El Periódico*, and *Avui*, between October 1999 and June 2002, covering both the editorials and news published by these newspapers on the subject. We may assume that this sample of editorials and news taken from Catalan newspapers is a representative sample of those published by the Spanish press in general

were against racist or xenophobic aggressions (with reference to El Ejido and other cases), yet several of them linked such aggressions to Government actions.

This period ended precisely as a result of the PSOE having won the 2004 election, which paved the way for a dialogue with the social actors or parties concerned on a new way of regulating flows and on how to carry out the normalisation process of 2005. Also, however, because the new government accepted, in line with the case law made by the Constitutional Court, that all aliens, irrespectively of their administrative status, were entitled to benefit from the basic public services.

Thus, the political debate went into a second phase that lasted from 2004 to 2008: the issue is no longer the rights of immigrants, which are guaranteed, but to what extent does the economy need the inflow of immigrant labour and how to channel such inflow. Certain experts raised the prospect of 10 million immigrants being needed by 2020 for both economic reasons —the economy would continue growing— and demographic reasons (Oliver, 2006). The current crisis has weakened this argument, which is challenged by the trades unions³⁶. These debates, without putting into question the basic guidelines of migration policy, coincide in time with demands, usually from business organisations, for entry mechanisms to be simplified, and with a dissatisfaction on the part of the trades unions with the way of calculating the Contingent and with the comparatively small volume of resources appropriated to fighting the underground economy, as well as with demands from some regional authorities —those of Catalonia, for example— to be allowed to manage the granting of initial work permits (Amorós *et al*, 2008).

The third phase in the debates on immigration, on its role and its management in the context of the economic crisis, started in 2008 and is still under way. Our knowledge of new subjective points of view taken by citizens on immigration does not stem from the fact that immigration is mentioned in surveys as one of the major problems perceived by citizens, because this has always been so. As a sign of a certain degree of distrust of immigration on the part of the population this indicator in fact has lost weight and has become less useful during the current phase, in which other problems, such as unemployment, financial difficulties and the political class have come to the fore³⁷. Yet the surveys have shown an alarming increase in racism and xenophobia as well as in the percentage of those who demand stiffer laws against immigration³⁸ (Spanish Observatory on Racism and Xenophobia,

³⁶ CCOO LABOUR CONFEDERATION. Office of the Secretary for Migrations. First nationwide meeting on migrations. March 6, 2007.

³⁷ Whereas in January 2010, 16.6% of those interviewed in a survey ranked immigration among the top three problems in Spain, the percentage was 19.3% in 2009, 23.7% in 2008, 34.5% in 2007, 32.5% in 2006 and 24.2% in 2005.

³⁸ The trend reported by the Spanish Observatory on Racism and Xenophobia may be a good indicator.

2009). The objective questions underlying the possible increase in xenophobia may have to do with the rise in unemployment, although immigrants have been the hardest hit by it, and with the deterioration of certain public services —health, education, family aid, etc.— as a result of an insufficient increase in the means available, in the face of a very large increase in the population, sometimes having special needs (as in the case of education) (Miguélez, Recio, 2008). On the political side, this new phase has various facets. Xenophobic political parties have started to appear, with little success in elections³⁹ and some local leaders of the major political parties have proposed anti-immigration policies⁴⁰. Besides, many local authorities from all political parties have noted the difficulty of complying with the procedures for receiving and integrating following cuts in appropriations for the purpose in the 2010 and perhaps the 2011 budgets. The opposition Popular Party is once again pointing to immigration management as one of the policies to be reformed, yet with an extreme populist approach, charging that the Government is being lax in this matter.

At this point in the debate, the Government started offering unemployed immigrants opportunities in their countries of origin that they could not find in Spain, through the voluntary return program for alien workers who lost their jobs, yet the number of aliens who have made use of this program has not been very high (see Section 2.1 for more information on this).

The hard fact is that there are more than one million jobless immigrants. At the present time, as already noted and as is the case in all serious economic crises, the high rate of unemployment may breed mistrust of immigrants among the population at large, which could break the reasonably convivial relationship seen between immigrants and native-born people after the period of tension at the beginning of the decade.

Social Dialogue

Since 2004, the social agents (trades unions and business organizations, at various territorial levels) and the regions (regional authorities) are much more committed to regulating migration flows by participating in drawing up the Catalogue of Shortage Occupations

³⁹ That is the case with “Plataforma per Catalunya”, an openly xenophobic party with councillors in the municipal council of Vic, which has people prepared to vote for it in several inland towns of Catalonia and candidates who might run for office on this ticket in the regional election of 2010.

⁴⁰ There are some cases to be recalled:

- In January, 2010, the Mayor of Vic (of the CIU party) proposed that the local authority refuse to include illegally-staying immigrants in the Municipal Population Register. He backed out when that was shown to be in breach of the Basic Act on Local Authorities which requires that they carry a record of the actual population, and in the face of objections from the Government and several political parties, trades unions and associations.
- The Mayor of Torrejón (of the Popular Party) refused to register immigrants holding tourist visas, and also backed out eventually.

and in Collective Management of Hiring in the Countries of Origin (what was called the Contingent until the latest reform of the Alien Act), as we shall see more in detail further on.

The main bodies in which the social dialogue takes place are the Tripartite Labour Commission on Immigration and the Forum for the Integration of Immigrants.

The first is a nationwide body —yet similar bodies may be formed by the regional authorities and the province level— that liaises permanently between the National Administration, the trades union organizations and the most representative business organizations at the national level, on matters relating to the management of migration flows.

This dialogue, with the local authorities as well as with immigrant associations as well as with the social agents, has become the rule in what concerns immigrant integration processes. The Forum for the Integration of Immigrants, established in 2006 (through Royal Decree N° 3/2006, of January 16, 2006), is a special forum for that dialogue. It is a consultative body made up of several members that provides information and advice on matters relating to the integration of immigrants in Spanish society, falling under the scope of the Ministry of Labour and Immigration. Its members are nominated by the Administration, immigrants' associations and social organizations, to ensure that problems can be debated in a representative way.

The last few governments have likewise increased the agreements made with third countries, to which we shall refer later on, to improve regulation of the process.

3 Approach to implementing economic migration policy

3.1. Implementation of economic migration policy / legislation

Hiring Mechanisms

We shall now describe the two main mechanisms through which immigrants are hired and granted an initial residence and work permit according to the legislation in force and other special hiring procedures.

A. Hiring according to the General System

This must be carried out nominally, at the initiative of employers, who may resort to hiring given individuals in their countries of origin for the jobs that appear in the quarterly

Catalogue of Shortage Occupations. The Catalogue is drawn up by the National Public Employment Service, using information furnished to it by the public employment services of the regional authorities, after hearing the Tripartite Labour Commission on Immigration. The Catalogue contains a breakdown by province of the occupations for which there are no job-seekers in each province, using an 8-digit classification, which gives an idea of how very specific the jobs to be filled are, and applies from the first to the last working day of the quarter in question. This is a very flexible mechanism that can be speedily updated to reflect any changes in labour market requirements.

When an employer wishes to hire an alien worker for a job not appearing in the Catalogue, he may report that to the province employment service, which will publicise the job offer during 15 days. If not covered with a native-born worker or an alien worker already legally residing in Spain, the employer may proceed as he had foreseen.

Employers must abide by what they have demanded regarding both the occupation and the province recorded in the Catalogue, and must hire the relevant worker under a one-year contract. During the period the worker may not switch to work in another industry or territorial area, except where he is free from such restrictions according to the Act⁴¹ or under the applicable International Agreements.

B. Collective Management of Hiring in the Countries of Origin

Each year, the Ministry of Labour and Immigration approves a forecast concerning the number and type of job openings that may be filled through the Collective Management of Hiring in the Countries of Origin. These forecasts are made on the basis of proposals submitted by the public employment services of the regional authorities and of information furnished by the National Public Employment Service, taking into account the domestic employment situation and after hearing the Tripartite Labour Commission on Immigration. These are provisional estimates, however, open to subsequent reallocations and changes to adjust hirings to meet changes in demand for labour.

The jobs are offered preferentially in countries with which Spain has signed agreements on regulating and organising migrations flows or, secondarily, other collaboration tools. Nevertheless, provision have been made for sending out job offers to countries with which there are no such agreements in force, with the prior approval of the Ministry of Labour and Immigration (General Directorate for Immigration).

⁴¹ Section 38.5 of the Alien Act as amended in 2009.

The Ministry of Labour and Immigration (General Directorate for Immigration) forwards the relevant job offers to the body responsible for presenting a preliminary selection of candidates in the country of origin, through the relevant Diplomatic Mission or Consular Office.

The candidates are selected according to the procedure foreseen in the applicable agreements referred to above or to the established procedures in the case of countries with which there is no agreement in force or with the assistance of officers representing the Ministry of Labour and Immigration (General Directorate for Immigration). Employers are encouraged to take part in the process. In certain cases, the candidates may be selected without having to appear personally before those in charge of hiring them.

Besides, employers may propose that training actions be undertaken.

The initial residence and work permit granted to these immigrants are for a given territorial area and industry.

C. Other Special Hiring Procedures

The new Act provides for the following **special cases**:

C.1. *Special rules for Seasonal workers*

These rules govern the hiring of alien workers to carry out jobs having a duration of less than one year. There are two types:

- Seasonal (**for a season or crop year**). The law provides for them to be granted temporary residence and work permits to work as wage-earners in carrying out crop year or seasonal work, in agriculture, during the time for which they are hired. In principle such permits are granted for staying in Spain for nine months out of any 12 consecutive months, although the stay may be extended in some cases.
- For carrying out **works or services**. The works or services may not take more than one year to complete. (Activities such as mounting industrial or electrical plants, or construction of infrastructure works, buildings and infrastructure networks, etc.).

The employer must guarantee proper and healthy accommodation to the workers and must arrange for them to travel to Spain and return to their country of origin, paying at

least for the cost of the initial trip to Spain and of travelling between the place where they arrive in the country and the place where they will be lodged.

The workers must comply with the requirement of returning to their country of origin at the end of the period for which they have been hired, and are required to prove that they have returned by appearing before the diplomatic or consular authority. Complying with this requirement has a number of benefits for the workers hired under such terms, as he or she will not have to go through any further selection procedure in the future and, in the event that the worker is hired for two consecutive seasons (under the provisions of the alien acts previously in force the period was four seasons), it becomes easier for the worker to secure a residence and work permit eventually.

C.2. Special rules for researchers

These rules apply to alien individuals arriving in Spain for the main purpose of carrying out a research project.

They are required to have an agreement with a research organisation.

The initial residence and work permit may be renewed annually provided that the original requirements continue to be met. Researchers may engage in other work in Spain, such as teaching, provided that this is consistent with performing the research activities.

C.3. Rules for highly-qualified employees

The new Alien Act makes special provision for highly-qualified workers. These alien workers are granted the Community Blue Card.

The Act provides that the domestic employment situation and a shortage of highly-qualified human resources in the country of origin may be taken into account for these purposes.

C.4. Cross-border workers and Intra-corporate transferees

Under this heading the law provides for two different types of workers:

- **Cross-border** workers: These are alien workers who reside in neighbouring countries and work in Spain, returning to their place of residence daily. These workers must meet similar requirements to those foreseen in the rules applying in general.

- **Intra-corporate transferees:** Workers who provide services of a **transnational** nature. Provision is made for aliens who work as employees of businesses domiciled in a State that is not a member of the European Union or of the European Economic Area.

They are granted an initial residence and work permit for a period of time equal to the duration of their contract, and in any case of less than one year. The law provides for the possibility of such permits being extended. These permits are granted for working in a specific activity and territorial area.

Matching the profile of immigrants with the employment offered

The first of the two main mechanisms for matching job offers with the profile of immigrants—that known as the General System—consists of trusting in the employer to know that a prospective immigrant worker has the necessary qualifications for performing a job the employer cannot cover with native labour or aliens who are legally resident in Spain. Employers request to be allowed to hire a given worker who is in another country to perform a specific job in their company, which has specific requirements. The Immigration Office checks that the job in question is not inconsistent with the domestic employment situation (i.e., the occupation must be included in the Catalogue of Shortage Occupations, or else the employer must submit the so-called negative certificate produced by the Public Employment Service). If the requirements are met, the application for the initial residence and work permit is processed, subject to the worker obtaining a visa. The qualifications of workers who enter Spain using this mechanism cannot be checked, however, except in case they are required to hold a convalidated degree or diploma for engaging in the relevant occupation or holding the job they are offered, in which case the permit is granted subject to the candidate holding and convalidating the relevant degree or diploma, and even to the candidate becoming a member of the relevant professional association if that is required (Alien Act, Section 36), as in the case of medicine and other professions. In fact, this was not a serious problem during the economic boom period because most of the job openings that needed to be filled required little qualification (in the building industry, agriculture, hotels and restaurants, personal services), as we shall see further on.

On the other hand, this mechanism has a hitch or dysfunction mentioned by the business organisations: the time it takes for a worker to arrive in Spain after the relevant papers are filed with the Immigration Office, which is too long, because the procedure includes: steps that must be taken by the Spanish Administration, the act of notifying the worker, granting him a visa in the country of origin, background checks, granting of the permit (Amorós *et al*, 2008).

The second mechanism is the Collective Management of Hiring in the countries of origin. Employers may file applications for hiring alien workers either personally themselves or through a representative acting on their behalf (which may be a business organisation), and may take part directly or indirectly in selecting the workers in the country of origin, jointly with the employment services of the country in question and with representatives of the Spanish Administration. Employer companies may also give some kind of training to the alien workers before hiring them. The whole procedure is usually completed in quite a short time. The reason why this mechanism is used less often than it should may be because employers are required to apply for hiring at least 10 workers for each location and province (save that a smaller number of employees is specified for a given location and province in the list drawn up for the purpose of Collective Management of Hiring in the Countries of Origin). That tends to keep small-sized companies from using this mechanism unless they belong to very active business organisations that arrange for several employers to file a single application between them⁴².

Skill assessments and recognition of qualifications

Naturally, immigrants need to hold a degree or diploma just like natives to work in a job for which a degree or diploma is required. Mechanisms have been developed only for the recognition of degrees or diplomas issued in the countries of origin for some professions involving a high level of qualification, such as medicine and nursing. In these cases, some regional professional associations have organised courses for immigrant doctors and nurses on how Spanish health care works and on the medicines used in Spain. More specifically, immigrant doctors are admitted to the MIR system (for resident medical interns, who practice for a period at a hospital). Of course, as a rule, all holders of University degrees may apply for these to be recognised by the Ministry of Education in a procedure that is mandatory where the degree is required for holding a job.

There are no mechanisms in place, however, for the recognition of work experience or expertise in a trade gained by immigrants prior to entering the Spanish labour market, even though the need for such mechanisms has been raised sometimes by immigrants' associations. It is the immigrants themselves who most frequently claim that the jobs they hold is not consistent with their level of education, saying that the job they hold is below their qualifications, as shown by the 2007 National Survey of Immigrants (used by Reher *et al*, 2008).

⁴² The observation about the minimum required number of workers being too high has been mentioned in interviews by business organisations that perform, albeit to a limited extent, such mediation role.

Integration Measures

In the past few years, efforts have been stepped up to achieve the integration objectives envisioned by the alien acts and Government policies since 1999. Various authors have noted that much progress has been made with these integration policies (Reher *et al*, 2009), while others have said that the full integration of immigrants is taking years longer than necessary because of the entry restrictions in force (Cachón, 2009), or point out that integration usually comes about with the passage of time, yet the educational level and the industry through which they join the labour market initially can be major obstacles. The reason is that many immigrants, being forced to accept as their first job one for which job-seekers “are in short supply”, mostly low-skill jobs, find it difficult to move on to jobs in other industries either because they have a low level of education or because they have less time and resources available than natives to seek a better job —they have to work to send money back to their home country every month (Quit, 2010).

We are going to review this question at the different territorial levels (national, regional, local), restricting this review to the measures implemented by the relevant authorities without attempting to evaluate their impact. The National Government approved the 2007-2010 Strategic Plan on Citizenship and Integration, with a budget of more than two billion euros for actions in all areas: reception, education, employment, equal opportunity, social services, homes. The budget covers four key aspects, with the breakdown of appropriations in percentage terms being as follows: education (42%), reception (23%), employment (11%), and other (24%). Various ministries are involved, especially the Ministry of Labour and Immigration, although many of the actions are carried out at a de-centralized level. There are a number of regional and local programs designed to achieve the integration of immigrants and to adjust certain services and structures to deal with the new, much more complex circumstances.

We must also mention the Immigrant Reception and Integration Support Fund, managed by the Ministry of Labour and Immigration, which the Sectoral Conference on Immigration discusses and allocates among the regional authorities annually. This fund is designed to achieve three key objectives: reception and integration, educational reinforcement, and care of minors not accompanied by adults. The funds are allocated using objective criteria such as the number of registered third-country nationals in a given population, the number of third-country workers, the number of non-Community alien students, the number of places made available in the region or district for receiving alien minors who are not accompanied by an adult.

At the regional level, formal or informal agreements have been made with some regional authorities on immigration matters⁴³; these agreements are aimed at assuring the integration

⁴³ For example, the “Pacte nacional per a la immigració en Catalunya” (December 2008).

of immigrants based on the principles of cohesion and equal opportunity. Accordingly, language teaching programs have been undertaken as well as programs for receiving and informing immigrants about the host society. Such programs are frequently carried out by the immigrants' associations themselves, with financial support from the public authorities⁴⁴. With regard to the integration of immigrant labour, even though there are specific vocational training programs for immigrants, it is understood that immigrants workers must take part in the general training programs as a way of achieving integration, mainly by taking part in the same programs available to the population and the work force as a whole⁴⁵. Some public authorities and agencies provide free courses to help immigrants learn the language. Demand for such courses has increased during the current downturn because learning the language may be precisely what certain groups of unemployed immigrants from non Spanish-speaking countries need to do to find a new job.

We must mention in particular the management efforts of local authorities through reception programs financed by the Central Administration —under the Strategic Plan on Citizenship and Integration and by means of the Support Fund mentioned above—, or by the regional administrations.

Besides, the local authorities are responsible for certifying that immigrants have taken roots in the community, through a so-called social insertion report, when the immigrants apply for regularisation of their legal status on the grounds that they have been years in the country for years and are actively involved in community life. Local authority programs and activities provide further opportunities for integration.

Not only the Administration is involved in the integration measures; the trades unions and business organisations as well as the immigrants' associations are too. That is made possible at the National level through the so-called Forum for the Integration of Immigrants, a consultative body of the Ministry of Labour and Immigration in which administrative authorities as well as immigrants' associations and other non-governmental organisations take part. The immigrant associations undoubtedly play an integrating role in many different ways: through the presence of these associations in events such as celebrations and parades, by organising reception courses, and by encouraging immigrants to participate in local elections if they are entitled to vote and run as candidates. That is possible in part thanks to the support given to such associations by the various administrative authorities.

⁴⁴ The websites of the secretariats for immigration of the regional authorities of Madrid and Catalonia can give an idea of the extent and complexity of these actions undertaken to receive immigrants.

⁴⁵ This reflects the strategy adopted in that respect for immigration, which is none other than to apply the principle of transversality as well as of integration of immigrants in the general resources, and only implementing specific programs when the general programs cannot meet their needs.

In any case, none of these integration measures is used as a mandatory tool in the admission or permit renewal procedures. Immigrants are not required to meet integration objectives to retain their residence or work permits. On the contrary, it is the administrative authorities at all levels that are interested in integration taking place.

3.2. Statistics and Trends

3.2.1. Statistics on the Labour Market and Migration. Current situation: 2009

As of 31 December 2009, there were 17,640,018 workers affiliated as in employment in the Social security system, of which 1,811,879 were foreign workers, 10.3% of the total working population (Table 3). The largest group of foreign workers corresponded to third-country nationals, followed by EU-2, other EU-15 and EU-10.

By the end of 2009, the distribution by nationality of workers in the Spanish labour market is characterised by an over-representation of foreign workers in the low skilled categories (17.2% of low skilled workers are foreign nationals, and 82.8% are Spaniards) in comparison with their share among the skilled (7.3%) or highly skilled (3.6%) ones⁴⁶.

Compared with Spanish workers, foreigners have a higher representation in low skilled jobs. The distribution of foreign workers by skill level shows that 47.7% are employed in low skilled jobs, while 43.7% had skilled employment and 8.6% highly skilled one (compared to 22.6%, 54.8% and 22.6% respectively from the Spanish). This distribution varies significantly when we take into account nationality. Thus in the case of EU-15 nationals, they mostly occupy skilled and highly skilled jobs whilst in the case of EU-10, EU-2 as well as third countries the situation is the reverse.

⁴⁶ As explained in section 1.1 Methodology, the Social security system only registers information on the skill categories with regard to workers in the General regime and a small share of workers in the special regimes. At the end of 2009, the workers for whom the skill level is registered represented from 57 to 76% of the workers, depending on the national group of Table 3. In relation to this study, the workers for whom information is missing are included in the category *Special Social Security Regimes w.o. information on skill level*.

The percentages provided on workers under each skill category have been obtained taking into account only the share of workers whose skill level is known.

This lack of information may introduce a bias in the analysis and interpretation of results since we exclude foreign workers in predominantly low skilled regimes like agriculture and housework, the latest being characterized by a high proportion of women. Similarly, many of the workers in the Self-employed regime are professionals belonging to the skilled or highly skilled categories, predominantly men, which would lead to an under-estimation of the highly skilled and skilled categories.

TABLE 3. *Stock of Workers affiliated to and registered as in employment in the Social Security system by group of Nationality and Skill level, 31-12-2009*

		Total	Highly Skilled	Skilled	Low Skilled	Special Social Security Regimes w.o. information on skill level
Total		17,640,018	2,838,741	7,145,529	3,298,247	4,357,501
Nationals		15,828,139	2,736,013	6,624,665	2,730,478	3,736,983
Non-Nationals	Total	1,811,879	102,728	520,864	567,769	620,518
	Other EU-15 Nationals	279,721	53,081	106,553	35,784	84,303
	EU-10 Nationals	48,173	2,547	14,386	12,515	18,725
	EU-2 Nationals	327,450	3,706	79,336	103,777	140,631
	Third Country Nationals	1,156,535	43,394	320,589	415,693	376,859
Distribution of workers of each national group according to skill level⁽¹⁾						
Total		100.0%	21.4%	53.8%	24.8%	—
Nationals		100.0%	22.6%	54.8%	22.6%	—
Non-Nationals	Total	100.0%	8.6%	43.7%	47.7%	—
	Other EU-15 Nationals	100.0%	27.2%	54.5%	18.3%	—
	EU-10 Nationals	100.0%	8.6%	48.9%	42.5%	—
	EU-2 Nationals	100.0%	2.0%	42.5%	55.5%	—
	Third Country Nationals	100.0%	5.6%	41.1%	53.3%	—
Distribution of workers of each skill level according to national groups						
Total		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
Nationals		89.7%	96.4%	92.7%	82.8%	85.8%
Non-Nationals	Total	10.3%	3.6%	7.3%	17.2%	14.2%
	Other EU-15 Nationals	1.6%	1.9%	1.5%	1.1%	1.9%
	EU-10 Nationals	0.3%	0.1%	0.2%	0.4%	0.4%
	EU-2 Nationals	1.9%	0.1%	1.1%	3.1%	3.2%
	Third Country Nationals	6.6%	1.5%	4.5%	12.6%	8.6%

Source: Table I, Annex 1.

(1) To calculate the percentages were not taken into account the workers for whom there is no information on skill level.

Amongst third-country nationals, the country with the largest number of affiliated workers in 2009 was Morocco followed by Ecuador, Colombia and China (Table 4). The skill distribution of workers from the main nationalities varies slightly with Morocco exhibiting a larger share of low skilled workers (67.5%) then followed by Bolivia (57.6%), Dominican

Table 4. Skill level distribution of the stock of Third Country National workers affiliated to and registered as in employment in the Social Security system by Nationality (%), 31-12-2009

	Total		Highly Skilled	Skilled	Low Skilled
Third Country Nationals	1,156,535	100.0%	5.6%	41.1%	53.3%
Morocco	219,419	100.0%	1.4%	31.1%	67.5%
Ecuador	180,445	100.0%	1.1%	41.7%	57.2%
Colombia	113,652	100.0%	6.4%	44.6%	48.9%
China	74,826	100.0%	2.3%	46.3%	51.5%
Peru	70,946	100.0%	6.9%	45.9%	47.1%
Bolivia	69,955	100.0%	2.6%	39.9%	57.6%
Argentina	46,122	100.0%	13.2%	54.5%	32.2%
Ukraine	32,983	100.0%	3.1%	42.3%	54.6%
Dominican Republic	30,757	100.0%	3.6%	39.0%	57.4%
Brazil	23,678	100.0%	8.1%	46.2%	45.7%
Other countries	293,752	100.0%	10.4%	40.5%	49.1%

Source: Table III, Annex 1.

Note: To calculate the percentages were not taken into account the workers for whom there is no information on skill level.

Republic (57.4%) and Ecuador (57.2%). Argentina exhibits the lowest share of low-skilled (32.2%) and the highest percentage of highly skilled workers (13.2%), followed by Brazil (8.1%) and Colombia (6.4%).

According to sex, 56.5% of foreign workers registered are men and 43.5% women (Table I, Annex). This gender distribution is very similar to that between national workers (55.0% men and 45.0% women). The share of women employed in high-skilled occupations is higher to that of men in the case of EU-2 (66.4% women) and EU-10 (55.9%). By contrast, men have a higher share of skilled and low skilled jobs irrespectively of the origin. Among Third country nationals the share of women employed in high-skilled occupations is higher to that of men in the case of Ucraina, Dominican Republic and Ecuador. The women nationals of theses three countries plus those from Colombia and Brazil also have higher numbers than men in low skilled jobs.

Furthermore, the skill level distribution among men and women shows some interesting aspects. Table 5 shows that the share of highly skilled workers is higher among women in the case of EU-10, EU-2 and Third country nationals, and the share of low skilled workers is also higher for women among EU-10 and EU-2. Nevertheless, it should be kept

TABLE 5. *Skill level distribution of the stock of Foreign workers affiliated to and registered as in employment in the Social Security system by group of Nationality and Sex (%), 31-12-2009*

	Other EU-15 Nationals		EU-10 Nationals		EU-2 Nationals		Third Country Nationals	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Total	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
Highly Skilled	28.5%	25.3%	7.4%	10.0%	1.2%	3.1%	5.3%	5.9%
Skilled	52.9%	56.8%	51.2%	46.3%	47.8%	35.2%	40.1%	42.6%
Low Skilled	18.6%	17.9%	41.4%	43.7%	51.1%	61.7%	54.6%	51.5%

Source: Table I, Annex 1.

Note: To calculate the percentages were not taken into account the workers for whom there is no information on skill level.

in mind that the skill level distribution can be obtained only for those workers whose contribution group or skill level is known, thus ignoring the special regimes of Domestic workers, Agriculture workers, etc.

Regarding flows, 38,593 immigrant workers obtained a work permit in 2009, of which 52.8% were men (Table II, Annex). The third countries with the highest inflows were Morocco, Peru, Colombia and Ecuador. Table 6 shows how 17.6% of total third-country immigrants entering the country in 2009 occupied high-skilled jobs, plus 1.7% of researchers, compared to 25.9% skilled and 43.7% low skilled. There were also 11.1% of seasonal workers.

Among the top ten countries of the stock and flows in 2009, there are seven common countries. However, the Philippines, Cuba and Paraguay took the seventh, ninth and tenth respectively in the inflows recorded in 2009, although these countries are not among the top ten countries in the stock at 31st December 2009. Other countries, such as Venezuela, Mexico and United States of America show high figures, mainly due to highly skilled employment.

The comparison of the skill distribution between stock and flow data of the main third countries shows an interesting result (Table 7): first of all, there is an increase in the skill intensiveness of recent inflows. This is clear when we compare the percentage of high skill workers already in the labour market (stock) and the percentage of high-skilled foreign workers entering the labour market in 2009 (inflow) which is significantly higher in all countries. The share of the skilled workers is lower in the case of inflow data. Finally, there has also been intensification in the affluence of workers occupying low skilled jobs.

TABLE 6. *Residence and work permits granted to Foreign Workers by Nationality and Skill level (%), 2009*

	Total		Highly Skilled	Skilled	Low Skilled	Researchers	Seasonal Workers
Third Country Nationals	38,593	100.0%	17.6%	25.9%	43.7%	1.7%	11.1%
Morocco	5,643	100.0%	3.4%	25.5%	48.8%	0.4%	21.9%
Peru	4,309	100.0%	10.6%	25.3%	58.8%	0.2%	5.1%
Colombia	5,188	100.0%	14.3%	23.9%	35.2%	0.8%	25.8%
Ecuador	3,201	100.0%	4.0%	24.7%	56.6%	0.2%	14.5%
China	2,076	100.0%	18.1%	50.0%	27.4%	1.3%	3.2%
Bolivia	1,884	100.0%	5.0%	18.7%	75.1%	0.3%	0.9%
Philippines	1,220	100.0%	2.7%	21.8%	75.3%	0.2%	0.0%
Argentina	1,565	100.0%	30.9%	29.4%	16.0%	2.9%	20.8%
Cuba	1,135	100.0%	27.0%	32.2%	39.0%	1.3%	0.5%
Paraguay	1,093	100.0%	4.8%	24.7%	69.5%	0.3%	0.7%
Dominican Republic	1,101	100.0%	8.9%	33.1%	56.3%	0.0%	1.8%
Brazil	1,054	100.0%	32.8%	27.8%	33.7%	2.5%	3.3%
Ukraine	777	100.0%	14.5%	23.0%	42.7%	0.9%	18.9%
Chile	715	100.0%	27.1%	31.5%	30.9%	4.0%	6.4%
Venezuela	714	100.0%	53.6%	22.3%	19.3%	1.9%	3.0%
Mexico	718	100.0%	76.9%	9.1%	3.7%	8.4%	1.9%
India	666	100.0%	40.9%	22.7%	29.9%	6.6%	0.0%
Russian Federation	387	100.0%	34.8%	19.9%	26.3%	8.5%	10.4%
United States of America	686	100.0%	82.1%	2.3%	0.6%	13.9%	1.0%
Others	4,461	100.0%	28.6%	26.7%	35.1%	3.5%	6.2%

Source: Table IV, Annex 1.

Note: To calculate the percentages were not taken into account the workers for whom there is no information on skill level.

Overall, we could conclude that there is some kind of polarization in the skill composition of recent inflows.

According to sex, the skill level distribution of inflows shows a different picture (Table II, Annex). Hence, in 2009 female migrant workers mostly occupied low skilled jobs, 60.8%, compared to 19.8% in skilled and 16.1 in high-skilled jobs, plus 1.5% of researchers. By contrast, men were employed predominantly in low skilled jobs and skilled jobs (36.7% and 36.2% respectively) with 22.3% in highly skilled and 2.1% of researchers. Seasonal

TABLE 7. *Skill level distribution of the Stock (workers affiliated) and Inflow (residence and work permits) of Third Country National workers by Nationality, 2009*

Main Third Countries	Highly skilled + Researchers		Skilled		Low skilled + Seasonal workers	
	Stock	Inflow	Stock	Inflow	Stock	Inflow
Morocco	1.4%	3.8%	31.1%	25.5%	67.5%	70.7%
Ecuador	1.1%	4.2%	41.7%	24.7%	57.2%	71.1%
Colombia	6.4%	15.1%	44.6%	23.9%	48.9%	61.0%
China	2.3%	19.4%	46.3%	50.0%	51.5%	30.6%
Peru	6.9%	10.8%	45.9%	25.3%	47.1%	63.8%
Bolivia	2.6%	5.3%	39.9%	18.7%	57.6%	76.0%
Argentina	13.2%	33.9%	54.5%	29.4%	32.2%	36.8%
Ukraine	3.1%	15.4%	42.3%	23.0%	54.6%	61.6%
Dominican Republic	3.6%	8.9%	39.0%	33.1%	57.4%	58.1%
Brazil	8.1%	35.3%	46.2%	27.8%	45.7%	36.9%

Source: Tables III and IV, Annex 1.

Note: Stock data as of 31st December 2009.

workers accounted for 11.1% of total inflows in 2009, but information about gender is missing in most of the cases.

The analysis of inflows in 2009 by specific occupations provides further confirmatory evidence of some of the above mentioned facts. First of all, we can observe in Table 8 how the largest number of immigrant workers from third-countries entering the Spanish labour market were domestic employees, which accounted for 33.5% (including those taking care of old-age persons or children), followed by non-skilled agriculture and fishery workers (10.1%) as well as restaurant services workers (9.2%). Other occupations with relatively high presence in 2009 inflows are labourers in mining, construction, manufacturing and transport (4.7%), store clerks (4.6%) and technicians of the physics, chemistry and engineering (4.2%). In other words, low skilled occupations continue being the most important channel for the incorporation of foreign workers to the Spanish labour market. Even though this holds true for both sexes, there are significant differences among men and women. Most immigrant women (54.9%) were occupied as domestic workers. As we will point out later, this is one of the occupations expected to continue growing in the coming years as population ageing will require a constant inflow of personal care workers. By contrast, there were more men employed as non-skilled agricultural and

TABLE 8. Residence and work permits granted to Foreign Workers (Third Country Nationals) by Occupation and Sex, 2009

1 of 2

		Total		Male		Female		Sex unknown
ALL OCCUPATIONS								
Total		38,593	100.0%	18,596	100.0%	16,603	100.0%	3,394
SPECIFIC CATEGORIES SELECTED FOR THE EMN STUDY								
Total		6,725	19.9%	4,406	24.7%	2,319	14.5%	0
Housekeeping and restaurant services workers	Total	3,128	9.2%	1,763	9.9%	1,365	8.5%	0
	Housekeepers and related workers	10	0.0%	8	0.0%	2	0.0%	0
	Cooks	1,172	3.5%	744	4.2%	428	2.7%	0
	Waiters, waitresses and partenders	1,946	5.7%	1,011	5.7%	935	5.8%	0
Personal care and related workers	Total	156	0.5%	34	0.2%	122	0.8%	0
	Child-care workers	17	0.1%	0	0.0%	17	0.1%	0
	Institution-based personal care workers	82	0.2%	16	0.1%	66	0.4%	0
	Home-based personal care workers	48	0.1%	13	0.1%	35	0.2%	0
	Personal care and related workers not elsewhere classified	9	0.0%	5	0.0%	4	0.0%	0
Health professionals (except nursing)	Total	890	2.6%	525	2.9%	365	2.3%	0
	Medical doctors	890	2.6%	525	2.9%	365	2.3%	0
Nursing and midwifery professionals	Total	119	0.4%	22	0.1%	97	0.6%	0
	Nursing and midwifery professionals	119	0.4%	22	0.1%	97	0.6%	0
Other	Total	2,432	7.2%	2,062	11.6%	370	2.3%	0
	Skilled Agricultural and Fishery Workers	404	1.2%	371	2.1%	33	0.2%	0
	Architects, Engineers and related professionals	233	0.7%	186	1.0%	47	0.3%	0
	Teaching personnel	212	0.6%	96	0.5%	116	0.7%	0
	Labourers in Mining, Construction, Manufacturing and Transport	1,583	4.7%	1,409	7.9%	174	1.1%	0

TABLE 8. *Residence and work permits granted to Foreign Workers (Third Country Nationals) by Occupation and Sex, 2009*

2 of 2

		Total		Male		Female		Sex unknown
OTHER OCCUPATIONS IN THE SPANISH LABOUR MARKET								
Total		31,868	80.1%	14,190	75.3%	14,284	85.5%	3,394
Other relevant occupations	Total	21,895	64.7%	9,854	55.2%	12,041	75.1%	0
	Management of companies with 10 or more employees	798	2.4%	518	2.9%	280	1.7%	0
	Professionals in business organisations, professionals in social and human sciences associated to 2 nd - and 3 rd -cycle university degrees	319	0.9%	147	0.8%	172	1.1%	0
	Other professions associated to a 1 st -cycle university degree	509	1.5%	228	1.3%	281	1.8%	0
	Technicians in physical and chemical science as well as engineering	1,423	4.2%	1,080	6.1%	343	2.1%	0
	Support professionals in financial and commercial operations	389	1.1%	224	1.3%	165	1.0%	0
	Other support technicians and professionals	940	2.8%	615	3.4%	325	2.0%	0
	Retail workers and the like	1,550	4.6%	760	4.3%	790	4.9%	0
	Workers in structural construction works and the like	830	2.5%	812	4.6%	18	0.1%	0
	Workers skilled in finishing construction works and the like; painters and the like	490	1.4%	468	2.6%	22	0.1%	0
	House personal services employees and other building indoor cleaning personnel	11,224	33.1%	2,419	13.6%	8,805	54.9%	0
	Unskilled agriculture and fishing labour	3,423	10.1%	2,583	14.5%	840	5.2%	0
Others		5,244	15.5%	3,577	20.1%	1,667	10.4%	0
Occupation Unknown	Total	4,729	—	759	—	576	—	3,394
	Of which Seasonal workers	3,394	—	0	—	0	—	3,394

Source: Table V, Annex 1.

Note: To calculate the percentages were not taken into account the workers for whom there is no information on occupation.

fishery workers (14.5% compared to 5.2% among women), as well as in occupations of hotels and restaurant sectors. Something similar happens in the case of construction where men constitute almost 100% of new inflows in this sector. Note that inflows of workers in the construction sector has been 8.6% over the total; as we will see later (see Graph 6), this is remarkably lower compared to figures for previous years and reflects very well the asymmetric impact of the economic crisis in the construction sector. In the following section we further discuss some of these aspects when looking at the evolution of inflows by specific occupations in the 2005-2009 period.

3.2.2. Analysis of trends: 2005-2009

As has been already pointed out, one of the main transformations of the Spanish labour market in the last fifteen years has been related to a remarkable affluence of immigrants. In the following paragraphs we will provide a brief analytical description of the characteristics of this transformation focusing in the 2005-2009 period covered by the statistics collected in Annex. We will organise this short analysis around the three dimensions that have oriented the study, i.e., country of nationality, skill level and sex of immigrant workers.

The first aspect coming out from the Table 9 is the steady increase in the number of immigrant workers employed in the Spanish labour market from 2005 until 2007. A large increase is registered in 2005 with respect to 2004 (not shown in the table) mainly due to the regularisation process of irregular workers approved by the Socialist Government. A second aspect worth mentioning is the evolution in the stock of immigrant workers that has followed a decreasing trend in 2008 and 2009. The decrease in the stock of immigrant workers by 31st December 2009 compared to the previous year has been particularly intense as a consequence of continuous job losses.

The recent trend is well reflected in Graph 1, that shows the percentage of migrant workers as a percentage of total employment in Spain. The decrease since 2008 is explained by the fact that the economic crisis had an asymmetric impact amongst the working population, with migrant workers exhibiting higher increases in unemployment rates compared to nationals. We observe in Table 10 how the increase in the total unemployment rate was not evenly distributed amongst these two groups. In the case of Spanish workers, unemployment rate was 7.9% in the fourth quarter of 2007 and increased until 12.5% one year later. In the case of foreign workers, the increase in unemployment rate in that same period was from 12.4% up until 21.3%. Hence, in 2008 unemployment rate for native workers increased by 58% whilst for foreign workers the increase was 72%. In 2009, the evolution of unemployment rates was more similar

TABLE 9. *Stock of Workers affiliated to and registered as in employment
in the Social Security system by group of Nationality, 31st December 2005-2009*

	Total	Nationals	Foreign-nationals				
			Total	Other EU-15 Nationals	EU-10 Nationals	EU-2 nationals	Third Country Nationals
Total							
2005	18,156,182	16,467,588	1,688,594	257,489	26,676	199,046	1,205,383
2006	18,770,259	16,946,290	1,823,969	296,321	53,977	213,641	1,260,030
2007	19,195,755	17,214,651	1,981,104	326,171	63,747	282,296	1,308,890
2008	18,305,613	16,423,392	1,882,221	304,867	53,493	274,772	1,249,089
2009	17,640,018	15,828,139	1,811,879	279,721	48,173	327,450	1,156,535
Male							
2005	10,674,645	9,663,299	1,011,346	162,896	16,043	116,262	716,145
2006	10,946,472	9,841,392	1,105,080	189,666	31,930	127,735	755,749
2007	11,065,533	9,862,767	1,202,766	208,503	37,015	181,196	776,052
2008	10,267,417	9,179,345	1,088,072	188,218	28,529	167,862	703,463
2009	9,736,000	8,712,242	1,023,758	170,108	24,622	189,212	639,816
Female							
2005	7,481,537	6,804,289	677,248	94,593	10,633	82,784	489,238
2006	7,823,787	7,104,898	718,889	106,655	22,047	85,906	504,281
2007	8,130,222	7,351,884	778,338	117,668	26,732	101,100	532,838
2008	8,038,196	7,244,047	794,149	116,649	24,964	106,910	545,626
2009	7,904,018	7,115,897	788,121	109,613	23,551	138,238	516,719

Source: Table III, Annex 1.

between both groups. Whilst for Spanish workers the unemployment rate increased by 34% (from 12.5% to 16.8%), for foreign workers the increase was 39% (from 21.3% to 29.7%). Amongst foreign workers, the increase of unemployment rates has been sharper in the case of non-EU nationals.

Due to the characteristics of the economic crisis, unemployment has also had a stronger impact amongst foreign men. This is mostly because of the crisis of the construction sector, where a large percentage of immigrant men were employed in previous years. Taking the entire population, the unemployment rate is higher for women compared to men, even though there are more unemployed men in absolute terms. However, this

TABLE 10. *Unemployment Rate by group of Nationality and Sex, 2005-2009*

		Total	Male	Female	
Total	2005	8.7	6.6	11.6	
	2006	8.3	6.1	11.4	
	2007	8.6	6.8	11.0	
	2008	13.9	13.0	15.1	
	2009	18.8	18.6	19.1	
Nationals	2005	8.5	6.5	11.4	
	2006	7.7	5.7	10.6	
	2007	7.9	6.1	10.5	
	2008	12.5	11.3	14.1	
	2009	16.8	16.0	17.9	
Foreign-nationals	Total	2005	10.2	8.2	12.8
		2006	12.0	8.8	16.1
		2007	12.4	11.2	13.8
		2008	21.3	21.9	20.5
		2009	29.7	33.2	25.5
	EU	2005	8.5	7.9	12.3
		2006	10.0	7.6	13.7
		2007	11.4	9.7	13.6
		2008	18.0	16.9	19.4
		2009	24.0	25.1	22.6
	Non-EU	2005	10.5	8.5	12.9
		2006	12.3	9.0	16.4
		2007	12.8	11.9	13.8
		2008	22.6	24.0	20.9
		2009	32.2	36.7	26.7

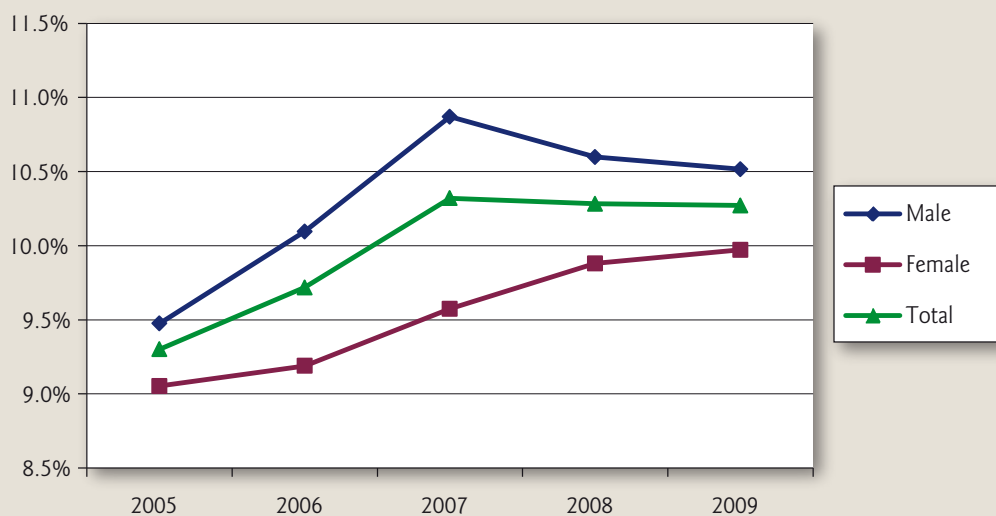
Source: Labour Force Survey, 4th quarter (National Statistics Institute).

difference has decreased significantly as Table 10 shows, with only 0.5 percentage points of difference in the fourth quarter of 2009. However, when we look by nationality, we observe how the unemployment rate of migrant men is higher than that for migrant women—in the case of non-EU nationals this was already the case in the fourth quarter of 2008—, hence confirming the abovementioned asymmetric impact of the economic crisis by sex and origin.

The stronger initial impact of the crisis on migrant workers is well reflected in Graph 1 that shows the evolution of employment for immigrant workers as a percentage of total employment. In the case of men, this ratio increases until 2007 and exhibits a downward trend for the years 2008 and 2009, hence showing how male migrant workers have been more affected by the crisis than natives. Nevertheless, the rate continues growing for women.

When we have a closer look at the evolution of migrant workers by nationality, we observe some interesting trends (see Graph 2). All national groups have increased their number of workers until 2007 and, with the exception of EU-2 nationals, decreased thereafter. In the case of nationals from Bulgaria and Romania, they have seen a significant increase during the year 2009, from 274,772 at the end of 2008 to 327,450 one year later. These changes can also be observed in the inflow data, as contained in Tables II and IV of the Annex, that show a significant decrease in the number of migrant workers entering the Spanish labour market.

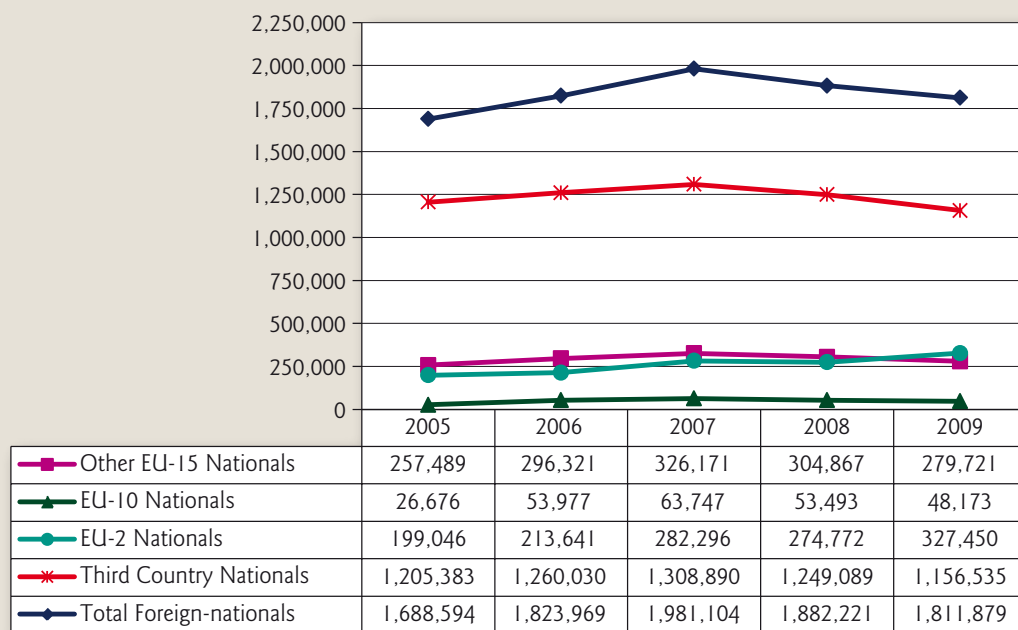
GRAPH 1. *Stock of Foreign workers (% over Total workers) by sex, 31st December 2005-2009*



Source: Table I, Annex.

In relative terms, and considering the 2005-2009 period as a whole, EU-15 nationals show a slight increase in their weight within total migrant employment in Spain, from 15.2% at the end of 2005 to 15.4% as of 31st December 2009. The weight of the EU-10 nationals has passed from 1.6% in 2005 to 2.7% in 2009. The EU-2 nationals accounted for 11.8% of total migrant employment in 2005 and 18.1% by 2009. On the contrary, the Third country nationals have diminished their presence amongst migrant workers in Spain from 71.4% at the end of 2005 down to 63.8% in 2009.

GRAPH 2. Stock of Foreign workers by group of Nationality, 31st December 2005-2009



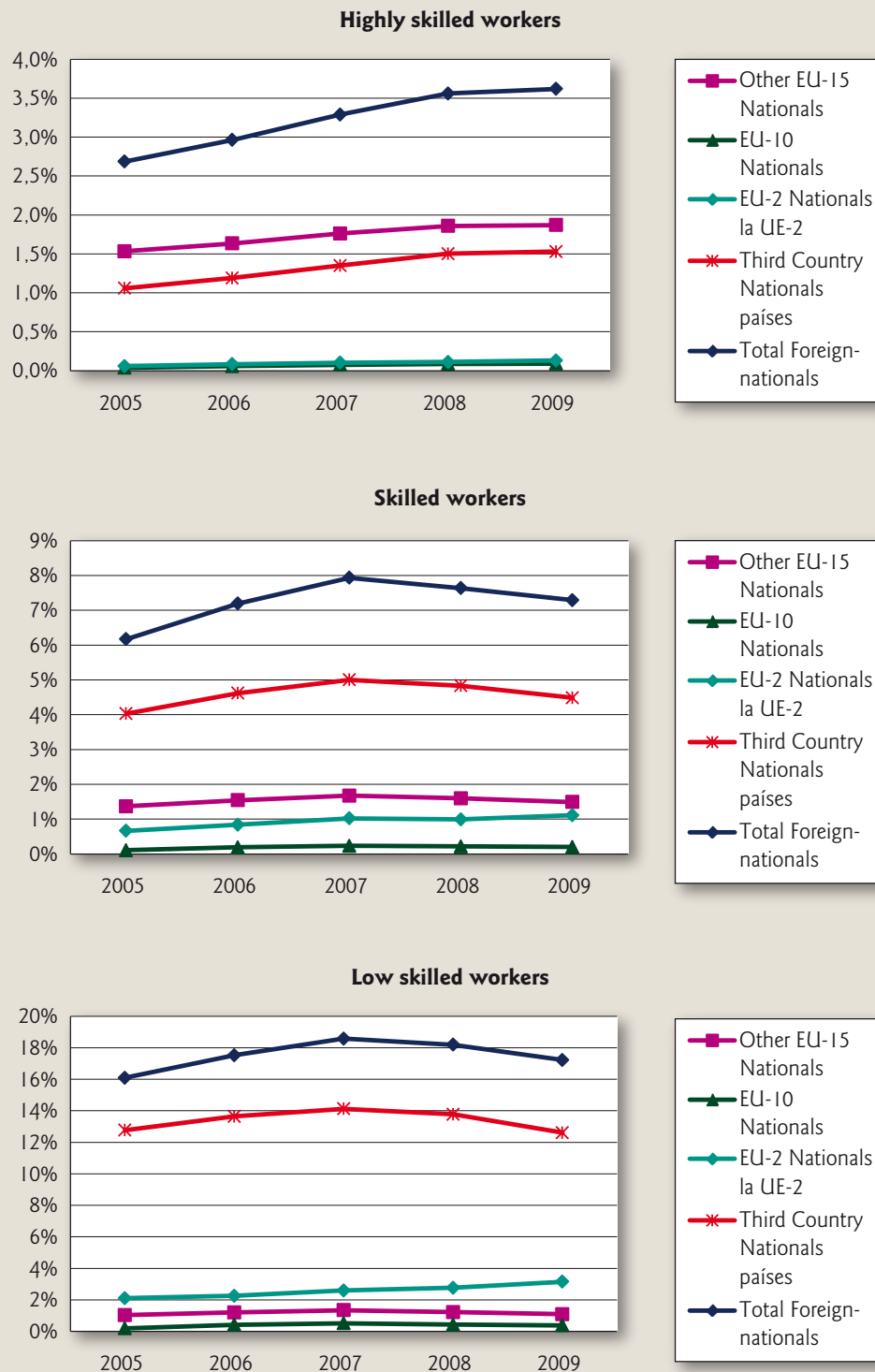
Source: Table I, Annex.

It is finally worth noticing how the economic crisis has affected to larger extent third country workers due to their strong presence in sectors and occupations that have been more affected by the economic downturn. Overall these trends reflect well which has been the pattern of economic growth of the Spanish economy in the 1996-2007 period of economic expansion, and more specifically, in the most recent years until 2007. In the period 2005-2007, the percentage of EU-15 workers over the total number of workers has decreased due to the rapid increase in the stock of immigrant workers coming from other European countries or third countries and which were mostly low skilled.

When looking at the weight of the national groups by skill level (Graph 3), we observe how migrant workers have increased their participation in the highly skilled occupations during all the period notwithstanding their origin. This increase has been particularly significant all over the period considered for EU-15 and Third country nationals. This highlights the fact that for some groups of immigrant workers that have been working in Spain already for some years, there are now more opportunities to improve their occupational position as already showed in some other works (Quit, 2010).

By contrast, in 2008 and 2009 there has been a decrease in the percentage of skilled and low skilled immigrant workers over the total number of skilled and low skilled

GRAPH 3. Foreign workers by Skill level (% over Total workers of this level) by group of Nationality, 31st December 2005-2009



Source: Table I, Annex.

occupied in the economy. This statement holds for all groups except for EU-2, whose nationals have seen their share among skilled and low skilled workers increased all the period.

EU-15 nationals are more present in the highly skilled occupations and have a good share of employment amongst skilled jobs. Third country nationals are the most important migrant group in the skilled and low skilled occupations.

In absolute terms, the same trend is observed in these occupations as in the percentage of aliens who hold high-skilled, skilled and low-skill jobs, respectively. That is to say, the number of highly qualified workers has shown a rising trend since 2005 and, in the case of aliens holding skilled or low-skill jobs, their numbers have risen until 2007 and fallen since 2008. Notwithstanding that, the total number of alien workers in the latter two categories has fallen more sharply than the percentage of the total number of workers in these categories since 2008. That is to say, despite a considerable fall in the number of registered alien workers, the decline in the number of Spanish workers has prevented the percentage of alien workers out of the total number of workers from falling so sharply.

If we then look at inflows, we can also highlight some interesting aspects (Table 11). In the first place, the number of third-country nationals entering the Spanish labour market each year has shown a declining trend. The largest number entered in 2005 because of the regularisation process that took place in that year, when 578,375 alien workers joined the labour market with an employment contract. In the 2006-2008 period, the number of those entering the labour market each year remained flat at a little more than 200,000, with seasonal workers making up a large part of the total. The year 2009 brought a sharp fall in the number of work permits granted to third-country nationals. The categories that have been hardest hit by the downturn are those of skilled and unskilled workers, as well as of seasonal workers. Notwithstanding that, the number of highly qualified workers entering the Spanish labour market in 2009 fell much less, comparatively, with that of researchers even having grown in line with the rising trend seen in their number throughout the period.

In regard to the percentage distribution of foreign workers by skill category, we observe in Graph 4 how there has been an increase in the percentage of highly skilled workers over the total number of immigrant workers joining the Spanish labour market. Also, if we consider in the same group those workers who occupy low skilled jobs and the seasonal workers (most seasonal workers come to fill unskilled jobs in the agricultural seasons), it appears that they have reduced their weight relative to the

TABLE 11. *Residence and work permits granted to Foreign Workers by Skill level, 2005-2009*

	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Total	680,662	204,266	232,239	229,551	38,593
Highly Skilled	9,932	3,664	5,086	9,792	6,568
Skilled	145,498	41,420	57,081	53,552	9,643
Low skilled	378,107	60,550	79,343	74,891	16,292
Researchers	215	98	451	664	623
Seasonal workers	37,675	82,696	79,496	82,844	4,148
Unknown Skill level	109,235	15,838	10,782	7,808	1,319

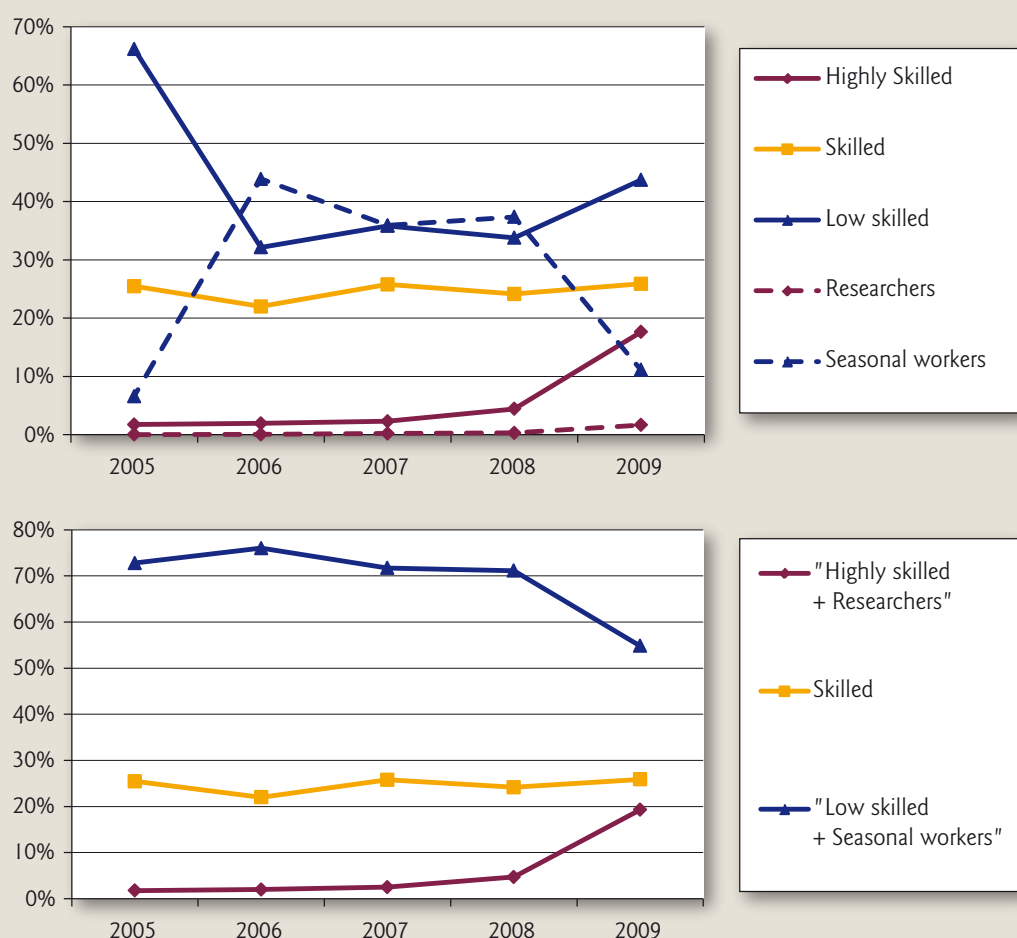
Source: Table II, Annex 1.

total immigrant workforce entered the period 2005-2009. However, if we consider low skilled workers separately, they have increased their weight over the total of workers entered in 2009. On the other hand, the weight of skilled workers remains stable. Even though these figures must be taken carefully as the third countries to which the data refer are not the same throughout the period observed⁴⁷ a clear pattern can be observed. We can also think that the economic crisis starting by the end of 2007 has reduced the demand for new workers from abroad specially in the low skilled occupations and, therefore, the immigrants with low levels of qualification and skills have lost incentive to come to Spain. By contrast, the employment prospects for highly skilled immigrants seem to remain good enough as to determine a relative increase in entries for this category.

A review of the share of the different groups of nationals in each category of workers shows that third-country nationals were a majority in all categories except that of seasonal workers (Graph 5). The bulk of the workers in the latter category were Romanians and Bulgarians. These were 74.5% of the total number who entered Spain as seasonal workers in 2008. EU-10 nationals also had a significant weight in that category until 2006, when the moratorium applying to the work of these workers ended. In the rest of the categories of workers, EU-2 nationals accounted for a comparatively larger percentage of those holding skilled or low-skill jobs and for a very low percentage of highly qualified workers and researchers.

⁴⁷ Data source for Tables II, IV and V of Annex are the work permits granted to third country nationals over the period. Due to the accession to the EU of 10 countries in 2004 and 2 countries in 2007, for which the period of limited access to labour market ended in 2006 and 2008 respectively, data for these 12 countries is only available until two years after their accession. The countries included each year can be seen from table II and IV in Annex.

GRAPH 4. Skill level Distribution of Foreign workers Inflows (%), 2005-2009

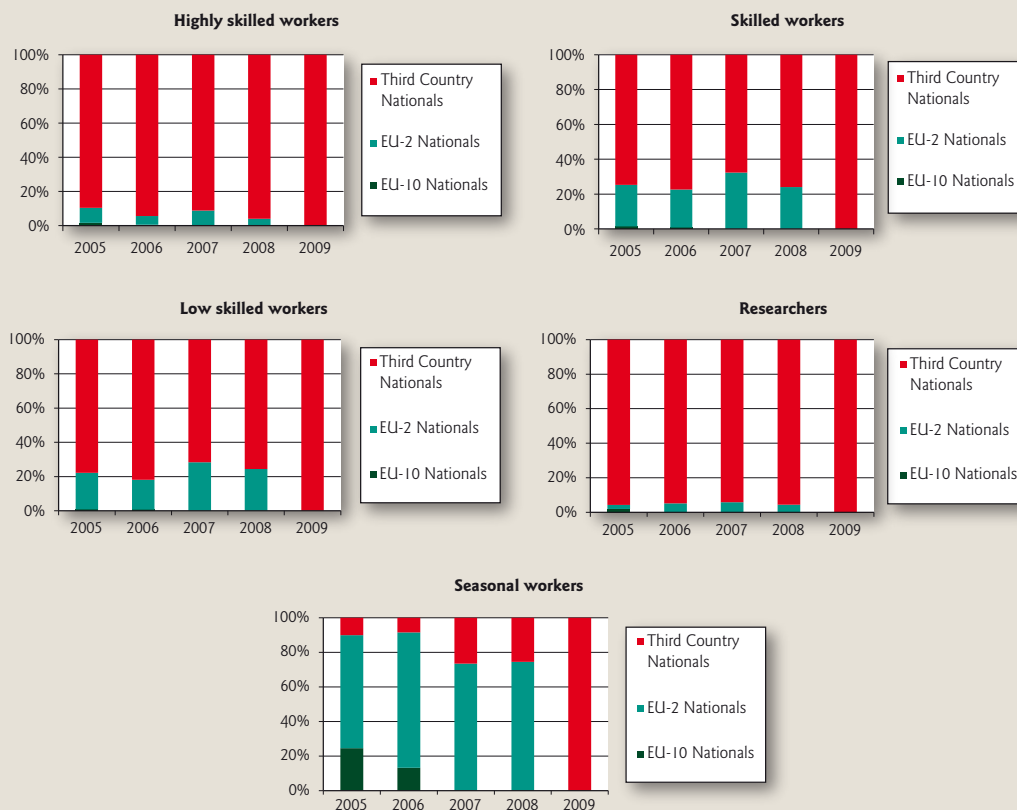


Source: Table II, Annex.

We must point out that the preponderance of third country nationals among the highly skilled workers and researchers is influenced by the fact that the data used to measure inflows (work permits granted) does not allow us to have data on EU-15. As a matter of fact, the European Union has traditionally been the main region of origin for foreign researchers in Spain (LeMouillour et al 2005). However, these authors also emphasize the increasing importance of researchers' inflows from African and South American countries.

The distribution by sex and skill level shows how, compared to men, women have a lower presence in all occupational categories both among national workers and foreign-nationals (see Table 12). Nonetheless, the presence of women as a percentage of total employment in the highly skilled category was the highest compared to the rest of categories in 2005 both for nationals (44.6%) and migrants (37.1%), except for the special Social Security

GRAPH 5. Foreign workers Inflows by Skill level and group of Nationality (%), 2005-2009



Source: Table II, Annex.

regimes for which skill information is lacking, where foreign women represented 55.5% at the end of 2005 (many of them registered under the Domestic workers Regime). The share of women has increased in all the skill levels throughout the period 2005-2009 both for nationals and migrant workers, again with the exception of the special Social Security regimes, where foreign women have decreased their percentage to reach 47.2% at the end of 2009. Another aspect that can be stressed is that the sex gap diminishes as does the level of qualification and through the years. Thus, the sex gap between highly qualified foreign workers decreased from 25.7 percentage points at the end of 2005 to 15.1 in 2009. For the skilled workers the gap descended from 28.8 to 16.5, and for the low skilled, from 39.2 to 17.4.

Nonetheless, there are some important differences according to their nationality. Hence, for all occupational categories, the share of women employed is higher in the case of nationals compared to the foreign workers. Moreover, the sex gap is lower for nationals in all the skill levels, although it has narrowed significantly both for nationals and foreigners over time.

TABLE 12. Sex distribution of National and Foreign Workers affiliated to and registered as in employment in the Social Security system by Skill level, 31st December 2005-2009

	Nationals			Foreign-nationals		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Total						
2005	100.0%	58.7%	41.3%	100.0%	59.9%	40.1%
2006	100.0%	58.1%	41.9%	100.0%	60.6%	39.4%
2007	100.0%	57.3%	42.7%	100.0%	60.7%	39.3%
2008	100.0%	55.9%	44.1%	100.0%	57.8%	42.2%
2009	100.0%	55.0%	45.0%	100.0%	56.5%	43.5%
Highly skilled						
2005	100.0%	55.4%	44.6%	100.0%	62.9%	37.1%
2006	100.0%	54.6%	45.4%	100.0%	61.7%	38.3%
2007	100.0%	53.9%	46.1%	100.0%	60.2%	39.8%
2008	100.0%	53.1%	46.9%	100.0%	58.8%	41.2%
2009	100.0%	52.4%	47.6%	100.0%	57.5%	42.5%
Skilled						
2005	100.0%	57.6%	42.4%	100.0%	64.4%	35.6%
2006	100.0%	57.0%	43.0%	100.0%	64.0%	36.0%
2007	100.0%	56.3%	43.7%	100.0%	62.6%	37.4%
2008	100.0%	55.0%	45.0%	100.0%	59.3%	40.7%
2009	100.0%	54.3%	45.7%	100.0%	58.3%	41.7%
Low Skilled						
2005	100.0%	58.3%	41.7%	100.0%	69.6%	30.4%
2006	100.0%	57.7%	42.3%	100.0%	67.0%	33.0%
2007	100.0%	56.2%	43.8%	100.0%	64.7%	35.3%
2008	100.0%	52.4%	47.6%	100.0%	60.6%	39.4%
2009	100.0%	50.2%	49.8%	100.0%	58.7%	41.3%
Special Social Security Regimes w.o. information on skill level						
2005	100.0%	62.9%	37.1%	100.0%	44.5%	55.5%
2006	100.0%	62.6%	37.4%	100.0%	47.4%	52.6%
2007	100.0%	62.3%	37.7%	100.0%	52.8%	47.2%
2008	100.0%	62.1%	37.9%	100.0%	53.1%	46.9%
2009	100.0%	61.9%	38.1%	100.0%	52.8%	47.2%

Source: Table I, Annex 1.

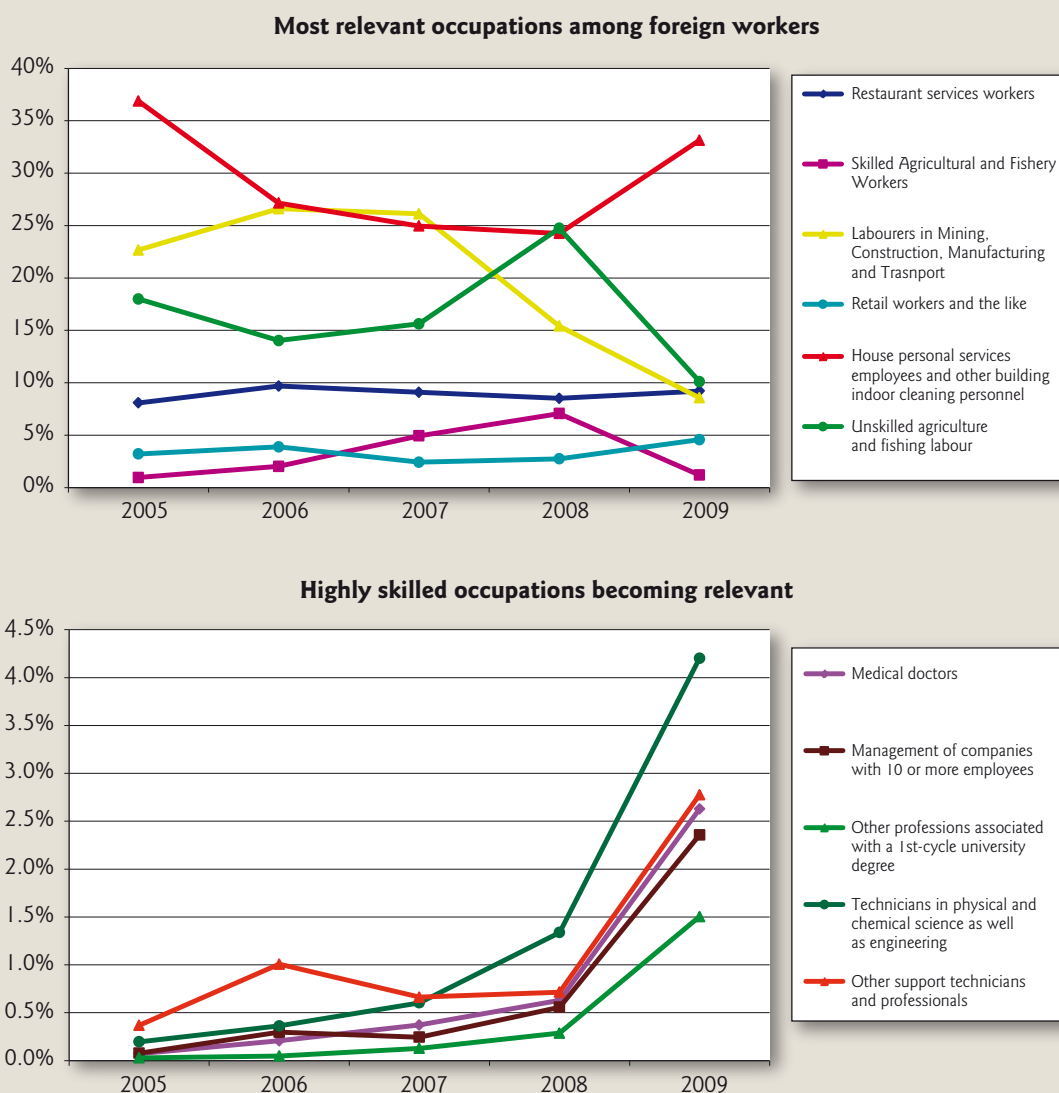
The evolution of inflows considering specific occupations provides interesting insights not only to understand the impact of the economic crisis on the changing occupational structure of immigration, but also in the future skill composition of immigrant inflows. Graph 6 based on Table V in Annex shows divergent trends in the distribution of immigrant inflows across specific occupations. First, the percentage of immigrant workers entering Spain in order to work in the construction sector has exhibited a clear downward trend along the period considered as a consequence of the burst of the construction bubble and the ensuing fall in activity in this sector. In 2005, the percentage of immigrants obtaining a permit to work in the construction sector was almost 23% of total new immigrant workers. By 2009, that percentage was 8.6%. Something similar happened with inflows of low skilled immigrant workers in agriculture and fisheries that decreased significantly between during 2009. In other occupations like restaurants services, the percentage of immigrant workers has remained stable around 9%.

By contrast, the percentage of domestic workers, and to a lesser extent workers in the care sector, has followed an increasing trend over the period considered due not only to the decrease experienced by other occupations (construction) but also to a growing demand of workers to work in this sector.

In Graph 6 we can also observe how the percentage of some specific highly skilled occupations has increased significantly since 2008. Even though this could be explained as a result of a compensation effect (lower inflow of low-skilled workers translates into a higher percentage of highly-skilled), a quick look at absolute numbers shows how there has been a steady increase. Amongst the occupations with highest absolute numbers, those that showed the highest increases are the Technicians from the physics, chemistry and engineering, Other professional and technical support, Medical doctors, Managers of companies with 10 or more employees and Other occupations associated with a 1st degree. This confirms the results in Graph 4, that showed an incipient change in the pattern of immigrant inflows' skill composition whereby highly-skilled occupations are gaining weight amongst total inflows compared to low-skilled ones. However, it should be remarked that low-skilled occupations continue to account for the largest share of new immigrant inflows.

To sum up, the evolution of migrant workers in the Spanish labour market has been characterised, first of all, by the role developed by Third country nationals. Among these, Moroccans, South American (Ecuador, Colombia, Peru, Bolivia, Argentina) and Chinese have been the nationalities registering higher inflows to Spain in the period 2005-2009. From 2006 on, Romanians have also increased significantly their presence in the labour market (see Table IV in Annex). All national groups have decreased their number of workers since 2008, with the exception of EU-2 nationals, that have seen a significant increase during the year 2009.

GRAPH 6. Foreign workers Inflows by specific occupations (% over Total occupations), 2005-2009



Source: Table V, Annex.

Most migrant workers have been employed in low skilled jobs, although this does not necessarily mean these workers have low levels of qualification or low formal education as there is evidence of a generalized over-qualification in many sectors (ENI, 2007; Fernández and Ortega, 2008).

Although migrant workers have increased their percentage over the total highly skilled workers during all the period, at the end of 2009 the share of foreign workers in the highly skilled occupations is only 3.6% and most of these migrant workers are EU-15 nationals.

Regarding the evolution of specific occupations, those of the construction sector as well as the agriculture and fishing sectors have shown a downward trend along the period considered. On the contrary, there has been an increasing trend with regard the domestic workers occupations. Since 2008 we can observe an upward trend of some specific highly skilled occupations: technicians, medical doctors, company managers, etc.

Regarding the distribution by sex and skill level women have a lower presence in all occupational categories compared to men, both among national workers and foreign-nationals, although the share of women has increased in all the skill levels throughout the period 2005-2009.

Labour market needs

As can be observed in Table 13, the vacancy rate (i.e., the number of unfilled vacancies⁴⁸ as a proportion of the total number of workers affiliated as in employment in the Social Security as of 31st December) takes values that fluctuate between 1.5% and 3.6% considering the different skill levels in the period 2006-2009⁴⁹. The first conclusion that come out from the analysis of the evolution of this indicator is that unfilled vacancies have followed a counter-cyclical trend in line with what we could expect: it has increased until 2007, reaching a maximum of 2.3% this year. It has then decreased until 1.5% in 2009 as the economic crisis has meant a gradual decrease in the number of unfilled vacancies in the economy for all occupations.

Secondly, the vacancy rate shows the highest value for the skilled jobs and the lowest for the highly skilled category. This means that skilled occupations, in addition to being the category that employs more people in Spain, it is also the one that keeps more vacancies in relation to the number of workers already employed in these occupations. That is, the skilled category presents more shortages than the other categories. In this regard, we could talk of a skill mismatch due to a lack of certain specific skills or competences that triggers structural unemployment in these sectors of the economy. The persistence of higher vacancy rates along time for the skilled category suggests that shortages are not temporary phenomena, but constitute an entrenched characteristic of the Spanish labour market. One of the possible explanations for this structural behaviour is the availability of an increasingly large pool of national workers holding a university degree which contrasts with the relative lack of workers with vocational training. In other words, the problem seems to lie in the type of qualifications and more specifically, the lack of specific skills

⁴⁸ See Section 1.1 for a detailed description of the indicator used.

⁴⁹ Data on unfilled vacancies is not available for 2005.

TABLE 13. *Unfilled vacancies and Vacancy rate (% over Total employment) by Skill level, 2006-2009*

	2006	2007	2008	2009
Unfilled vacancies				
Total	393,588	438,695	296,781	263,375
Highly Skilled	56,185	61,916	49,671	45,414
Skilled	241,118	286,390	175,449	151,138
Low Skilled	96,285	90,389	71,661	66,823
Vacancy rate				
Total	2.1%	2.3%	1.6%	1.5%
Highly Skilled	2.1%	2.2%	1.7%	1.6%
Skilled	3.1%	3.6%	2.3%	2.1%
Low Skilled	2.4%	2.3%	2.1%	2.0%

Source: Table I, Annex 1.

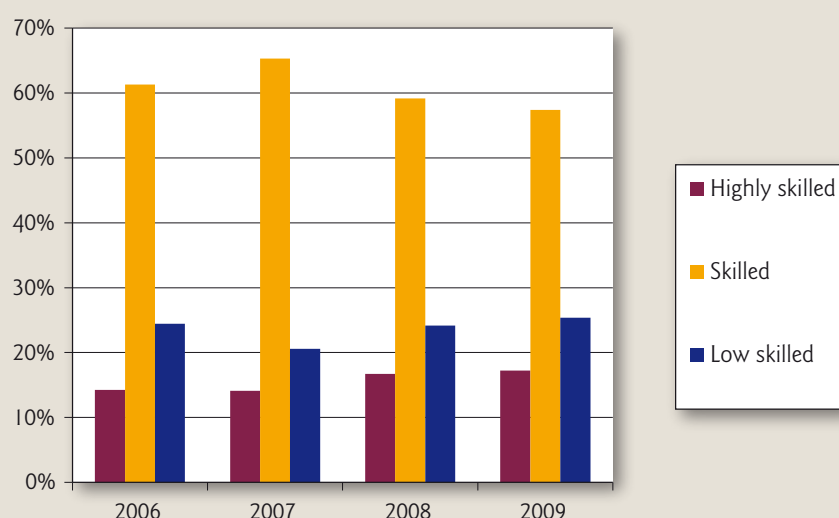
Note: The overall Vacancy rate is computed taking into account all workers, including those for which the skilled level cannot be determined. Thus, the overall vacancy rate can be inferior to that of a specific skill level.

and competences in certain labour-intensive sectors where notwithstanding the massive use of unskilled labour, there remains a shortage of individuals with specific skills.

Furthermore, if we consider the distribution of vacancies among the skill categories (Table 14), we can observe that there hasn't been any significant change in this distribution in the period analyzed (Graph 7). The percentage of vacancies in highly skilled occupations over the total number of vacancies was 14.3% in 2006 and after some years of economic expansion followed by recession in 2008 and stagnation thereafter, the percentage reached 17.2% at the end of 2009. In line with what we could expect, there has been a slight increase in recent years in the proportion of low skilled vacancies over the total due to the increase of unemployment in low skilled occupations.

In order to explain the nature or roots of labour shortages, we need to compare unfilled vacancies with unemployment rates in particular sectors or occupations. Table 14 shows the comparative weight of each occupation in the total number of job openings pending to be filled at the end of each year during the 2006-2009 period. The number of unfilled service jobs as a percentage of the total number of job openings increased by about 43% over the four-year period (from 9.3% of the total number of unfilled jobs at the end of 2006 to 13.3% at the end of 2009). There has also been an increase in the comparative shares of jobs available for highly-qualified workers and for unskilled agricultural, fishing, construction, manufacturing industries and transport workers.

GRAPH 7. Skill level Distribution of Unfilled Vacancies, 31st December 2006-2009



Source: Table I, Annex.

Table 14 also shows the trend in the unemployment rate by occupation. For many occupations, increases in the unemployment rate for a given occupation go hand-in-hand with a decline in the comparative share of unfilled jobs for that occupation at year end (Graph 8). That is to say, as the number of unemployed workers rises, jobs tend to be filled as they become available. That is the case with skilled workers in the construction and manufacturing industries and in agriculture, for example. The unemployment rate among such workers has grown, while the number of unfilled vacancies in these occupations in both absolute terms and as a percentage of total job openings has declined.

In Graph 8, however, we can see that in certain occupations, despite the unemployment rate having risen, the percentage of unfilled job openings has remained unchanged (for company managers) or has even increased (scientific and support technicians and professionals). This shows that, despite the downturn, there continues to be a need for workers to fill a number of job openings in these occupational niches which, despite not having risen in absolute terms, account for a growing percentage of the job openings that remain unfilled at year end, i.e, this shows there is a shortage of highly-qualified workers in the Spanish labour market, so new job opportunities can be expected to be created for those occupations in the future. The unemployment rate and the percentage of unfilled jobs have also risen for unskilled workers in the agricultural and fishing sectors, in the construction and manufacturing industries, as well as in the services sector. That would point towards the polarisation noted throughout this report, away from skilled jobs and towards high-skill and low-skill jobs.

TABLE 14. *Unfilled vacancies and Unemployment rate by occupation (%), 2006-2009*

1 of 2

	2006	2007	2008	2009
Unfilled vacancies (%)				
Total	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
Highly skilled	14.3%	14.1%	16.7%	17.2%
Public administration management and management of companies	0.2%	0.3%	0.3%	0.3%
Technicians and professionals, scientists and intellectuals	5.3%	5.7%	6.7%	6.4%
Support technicians and professionals	8.8%	8.2%	9.8%	10.5%
Skilled	61.3%	65.3%	59.1%	57.4%
Administrative-type employees	7.0%	6.8%	6.2%	5.9%
Restaurant, personal services as well as protection and security service workers	9.3%	11.2%	14.0%	13.3%
Retail workers and the like	2.8%	3.0%	2.6%	2.1%
Skilled agricultural and fishing workers	17.3%	16.3%	15.0%	15.0%
Skilled construction workers, except for machinery operators	13.0%	17.2%	11.8%	12.2%
Workers skilled in extractive industries, metallurgy, machine building and the like	4.1%	4.1%	3.4%	3.2%
Workers skilled in the graphic arts, textile and clothing, food preparation and furniture making industries as well as craftpersons	1.8%	1.3%	1.3%	1.2%
Operators of industrial installations and fixed machines; fitters and assemblers	5.9%	5.5%	4.9%	4.5%
Low skilled	24.5%	20.6%	24.1%	25.4%
Unskilled service (other than transport) workers	6.7%	5.2%	6.6%	5.6%
Unskilled agricultural, fishing, construction, manufacturing and transport industry workers	17.7%	15.4%	17.6%	19.8%
Unemployment rate				
Total	5.2%	5.7%	9.9%	12.1%
Highly skilled	2.2%	2.1%	3.7%	5.0%
Public administration management and management of companies	1.0%	1.0%	1.9%	2.6%
Technicians and professionals, scientists and intellectuals	2.0%	2.1%	2.7%	3.4%
Support technicians and professionals	3.2%	2.9%	5.9%	8.3%
Skilled	5.5%	5.9%	11.2%	13.7%
Administrative-type employees	5.2%	4.9%	7.6%	8.7%

TABLE 14. *Unfilled vacancies and Unemployment rate by occupation (%), 2006-2009*

2 of 2

	2006	2007	2008	2009
Restaurant, personal services as well as protection and security service workers	7.9%	8.2%	11.2%	13.9%
Retail workers and the like	6.8%	7.8%	9.5%	11.8%
Skilled agricultural and fishing workers	2.2%	2.9%	5.0%	6.3%
Skilled construction workers, except for machinery operators	5.7%	6.8%	20.1%	25.8%
Workers skilled in extractive industries, metallurgy, machine building and the like	2.8%	3.1%	7.9%	10.5%
Workers skilled in the graphic arts, textile and clothing, food preparation and furniture making industries as well as craftpersons	5.2%	6.0%	9.5%	13.9%
Operators of industrial installations and fixed machines; fitters and assemblers	4.3%	4.6%	10.2%	11.5%
Low skilled	9.7%	11.6%	17.7%	20.8%
Unskilled service (other than transport) workers	7.3%	7.7%	11.3%	13.2%
Unskilled agricultural, fishing, construction, manufacturing and transport industry workers	12.7%	16.7%	26.1%	31.0%

Source: Unfilled Vacancies and Total employment: Table I, Annex 1; Unemployment rate: Labour Force Survey, 4th quarter (National Statistics Institute).

Note: The Unemployment rates are computed only with the unemployed who have lost their job in the last 12 months, thus underestimates the actual Unemployment rate.

In line with what has just been said, the remarkable inflow of migrants entered the Spanish labour market in recent years has contributed to alleviate some of the shortages, mostly for low skilled jobs where the demand has increased to a larger extent in the years of economic growth. As a matter of fact, irrespectively of their formal qualifications (measured by educational attainment), most immigrants in Spain have been employed in labour-intensive, low skill sectors and occupations characterized by relatively low wages and very often temporary contracts. Even though we cannot talk of a generalised displacement of nationals by foreign workers in these occupations or sectors —as it has very often been argued—, we can certainly affirm that within every sector, migrant workers have occupied the lowest occupational categories (Pajares 2009).

This can be observed in the evolution of both inflows and stocks. As can be seen in Graph 3 above as well as Tables I and III in Annex, the stock of foreign workers is particularly high in low skilled occupations and their presence within skilled or highly skilled jobs is low with the exception of EU-15 citizens. When we look at the nationality of immigrants

GRAPH 8. *Unfilled vacancies by occupation (% over Total occupations)
and Unemployment rate by occupation, 2006-2009*



Source: Unfilled Vacancies (as of 31st December): Table I, Annex; Unemployment rate: Labour Force Survey, 4th quarter (National Statistics Institute).

Note: The Unemployment rates are computed only with the unemployed who have lost their job in the last 12 months, thus underestimates the actual Unemployment rate.

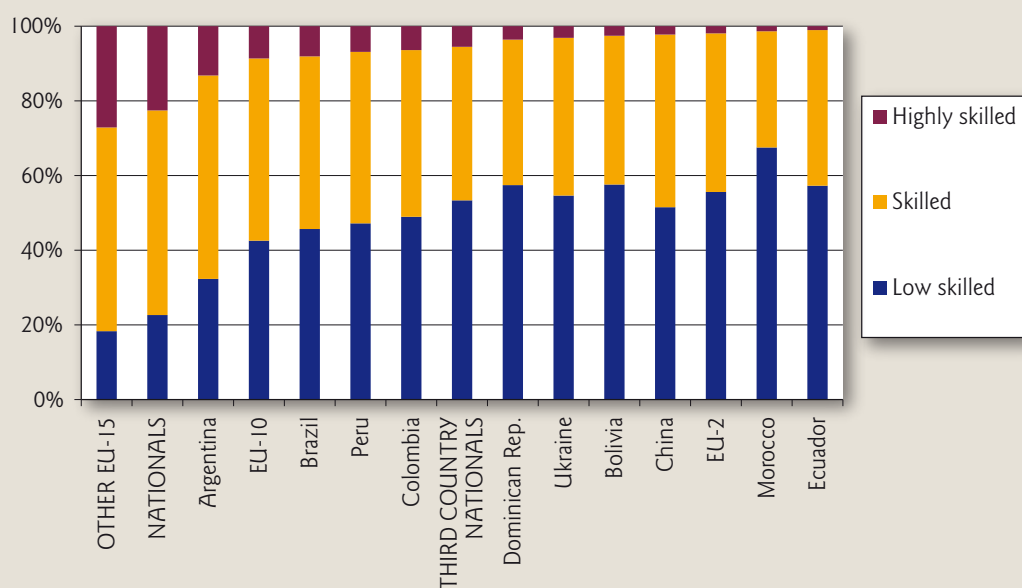
(Graph 9) we observe how third-country nationals constitute the most important group in the skilled and low skilled categories, but no in the highly skilled. The third countries with the highest number of workers are South American (Ecuador, Colombia, Peru, Bolivia and Argentina) as well as Morocco and China. EU-15 nationals are mostly in the highly skilled and skilled categories, whilst EU-10 and EU-2 are mostly in the skilled and low skilled categories.

Immigration has successfully contributed to fill shortages in all sectors of the economy, with a particularly significant impact in sectors like construction that have experienced an important expansion in the 1996-2007 period. Third country nationals and EU-2 have contributed to a larger extent to fill shortages in low skilled categories whilst EU-15 and in some cases third country nationals have done so in the highly skilled ones.

Nonetheless, one of the structural problems of the Spanish labour market highlighted previously —i.e., the shortage of skilled workers with very specific competences in certain occupations / sectors—, has not completely been resolved through immigration. Despite the increasing number of third-country nationals occupied in this category, there remain shortages in some specific occupations.

Regarding the prominence of some nationalities in certain skill categories or occupations, several points are worth mentioning from Graph 9. First of all, EU-15 has a greater

GRAPH 9. Skill level Distribution of Stock of workers by group and country of Nationality (%), 31st December 2009



Source: Table III, Annex.

percentage in highly skilled jobs than Spain's nationals. EU-2 countries exhibit a similar distribution to that of third country nationals, with a prominence of low skilled workers. There are nonetheless some third countries that deviate from this pattern. Argentina has a larger share of workers in the skilled categories and the largest share of highly skilled amongst third countries. Brazil, Peru and Colombia also exhibit percentages of highly skilled workers greater than the average. EU-10 countries are closer to these than to EU-2. By contrast, Morocco has the largest share of low skilled workers (67.5%), followed by Bolivia, Dominican Republic and Ecuador.

3.2.3. Future Needs of immigrant workers

To meet a possible future demand of immigrant workers in the Spanish labour market we must have an objective idea of the future needs. Calculating such needs is a complex matter, particularly considering there is a downturn under way which has hit employment harder than expected in Spain and that there is also uncertainty in respect of employment as to the way out of this situation. To respond to that question we have resorted to projections prepared by CEDEFOP, the European Centre for the Development of Vocational Training.

CEDEFOP estimates labour demand in Spain as well as in other EU countries in 2015 and 2020 as shown in tables N° 15 and N° 16, as well as in Graph 10. Before briefly commenting on these figures, we must say that they were prepared through econometric extrapolation by the CEDEFOP in 2009 and probably do not fully reflect the actual loss of jobs experienced in Spain. Thus, the CEDEFOP forecast the number of employed in Spain in 2010 at 18,891,000, whereas according to the Labour Force Survey the actual number of those employed in the second quarter of 2010 was 18,476,900, which means it is likely that the volume of jobs at the end of 2010 will be lower than forecast by the CEDEFOP, and the difficulties involved in achieving a recovery will be greater. In any case, if these estimates prove to be right, the volume of jobs in Spain will not recover to the level of 2005 until 2015, and by 2020 will not exceed the volume achieved in 2007 (of 20,626,000⁵⁰). Various experts have pointed out, however, that the volume of jobs will be slow to recover substantially. The prospects are that serious difficulties will be encountered in absorbing the current 4.5 million unemployed (more than a million of whom are aliens), besides the number of youths who reach working age in the next few years (minus those who retire or pull out of the labour force, of course) and the immigrants of working age who enter the country for family reunification reasons and wish to work here.

⁵⁰ According to harmonised figures for the EU prepared by the European Commission and reported in Employment in Europe 2009, Brussels.

Therefore, in estimating future labour needs we have to make assumptions about two questions that relate to matching labour market requirements and immigration. These assumptions must be applied with prudence, yet must be taken into account in observing how the situation unfolds. The first question concerns the immigrants already in Spain who have lost their jobs and will have to look for a new job here, because there are few signs that they are going to return *en masse*. On the other hand, we should recall that a large part of these jobless immigrants may already hold long-term residence permits. The second assumption concerns possible new specific needs of immigrant labour or of alternative options given the existing high volume of unemployment among natives.

We are going to respond to both questions, looking more in depth into the characteristics of the possible new demand of jobs as per the CEDEFOP figures. Concerning the possible growth in the demand of labour by sectors between 2005 and 2020 (Table 15), the figures are significant only for distribution, hotels, health, education, and miscellaneous services; the labour requirements of the sectors where most jobs were created during the past employment boom, such as the building industry or agriculture, will be lower. The most noteworthy development, however, is that demand will become polarised in terms of skills. high-skill jobs will increase a lot and low-skill jobs will remain unchanged (or increase slightly), while the number of jobs requiring an intermediate level of qualification will fall noticeably. By 2020, demand of highly qualified workers will make up about 35% of total demand of labour (Graph 11), against 28% in 2000. Besides, even though demand of skilled labour will fall as a percentage of total demand of labour, skilled workers will remain the most sizeable group within the occupational structure.

It seems that Spain's employment structure may yet become much more polarized into high— and low-skill workers (Table 16), in a trend we can also see in the individual occupational categories: Between 2010 and 2020, the number of managers and support technicians will rise, as will the number of workers holding service and low-skill jobs. On the other hand, the volume of jobs for all types of skilled workers (save for those in services mentioned above) will fall in percentage terms.

If we apply these considerations to the subject of this report, i.e. labour market needs and immigration, we may note that the needs in intermediate and low qualification sectors can be met with the workers who are currently unemployed, be they natives or aliens. For the purpose, a major vocational training effort will have to be undertaken, to recycle the unemployed workers so that they can work in new sectors or under new forms of organization. In many cases, such training will involve acquiring a better knowledge of the language (we must not forget that learning the language may have been put off in many cases because of the speed at which migrant workers flowed into the country). With reference to high-qualification jobs, the slow pace of growth forecast for the period until

TABLE 15. *Total employment by Economic Sector 2000-2020 (in thousands)*

	2000	2005	2010	2015	2020
Total	16,410	19,269	18,891	19,263	20,310
Agriculture etc.	1,037	1,001	853	813	809
Mining & quarrying	42	47	45	42	43
Food, drink & tobacco	432	472	404	376	363
Engineering	407	416	416	338	386
Rest of manufacturing	2,129	2,215	2,088	2,147	2,145
Electricity, gas & water	78	90	95	104	108
Construction	1,821	2,412	1,789	1,382	1,410
Distribution	2,533	2,911	2,890	3,339	3,573
Hotels and catering	1,027	1,294	1,462	1,657	1,894
Transport telecommunications	905	1,111	1,115	1,157	1,175
Banking & insurance	362	378	331	241	279
Other business services	1,278	1,722	1,711	1,709	1,884
Public admin and defence	1,255	1,336	1,467	1,535	1,585
Education	860	989	1,063	1,085	1,093
Health and social work	911	1,202	1,318	1,380	1,424
Miscellaneous services	1,333	1,673	1,844	1,959	2,139

Source: CEDEFOP, 2010.

Note: For the period starting in 2010 these are forecast figures. The details of the model used for making the projections can be found in CEDEFOP (2010).

2020 does not lead to foresee any sizeable new inflows, with the exceptions currently seen in health care and perhaps in other very specific sub-sectors. On the contrary, assuming that the volume of jobs will grow slowly until 2020, we have an extensive period of time ahead that can and must be used to improve educational structures and results so that the new job openings can be filled by the existing and prospective future domestic labour. Growth in the number of jobs that require an intermediate level of qualification, such as skilled jobs in the manufacturing and service industries, may slow down substantially, according to the figures in Graph 10.

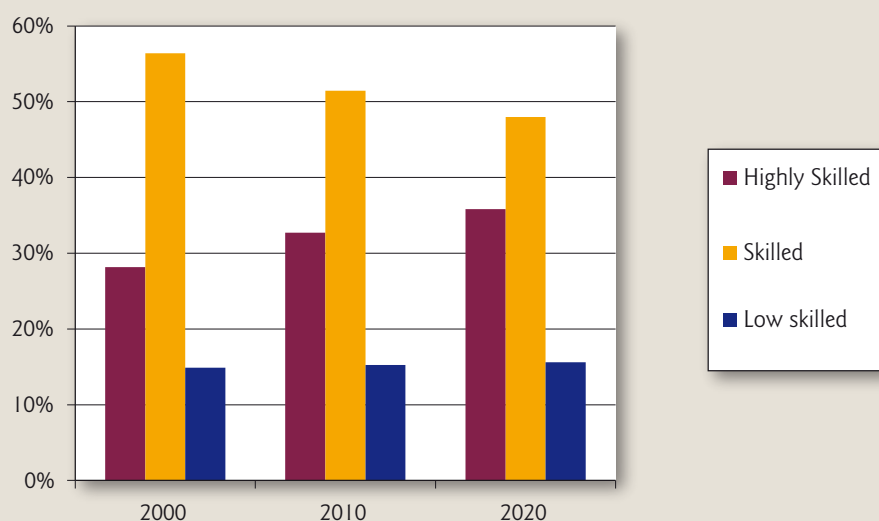
TABLE 16. *Total employment by Occupation, 2000-2020 (in thousands)*

	2000	2005	2010	2015	2020
Total	16,410	19,269	18,891	19,263	20,310
Highly skilled	4,622	5,788	6,181	6,643	7,277
Legislators, senior officials and managers	1,190	1,433	1,415	1,508	1,626
Professionals	1,863	2,253	2,360	2,394	2,449
Technicians and associate professionals	1,569	2,102	2,406	2,741	3,202
Skilled	9,254	10,464	9,717	9,556	9,745
Clerks	1,661	1,834	1,780	1,785	1,850
Service workers and shop and market sales workers	2,430	2,942	3,038	3,320	3,535
Skilled agricultural and fishery workers	685	618	490	428	385
Craft and related trades workers	2,820	3,191	2,626	2,283	2,244
Plant and machine operators and assemblers	1,658	1,879	1,783	1,740	1,731
Low skilled	2,443	2,917	2,884	2,949	3,173
Elementary occupations	2,443	2,917	2,884	2,949	3,173

Source: CEDEFOP, 2010.

Note: For the period starting in 2010 these are forecast figures. The details of the model used for making the projections can be found in CEDEFOP (2010).

GRAPH 10. *Total employment by Skill level, 2000-2020*



Source: CEDEFOP, 2010.

Note: For the period starting in 2010 these are forecast figures. The details of the model used for making the projections can be found in CEDEFOP (2010).

4 Cooperation with third countries for economic migration

By the end of 2009, Spain had signed bilateral agreements to regulate migration flows with 13 countries⁵¹: eight in Africa and five in South America.

The guiding principles of these agreements may be summed up as follows:

- Bilateral cooperation to regulate in an orderly and consistent way the labour migration flows taking place between Spain and third countries, so that human rights as well as the duties and freedoms foreseen in the national legislations are respected in this area. The idea in that respect is to prevent illegal migration and its effects in terms of exploitation of illegally-staying immigrant workers as well as to prevent trafficking with human beings and other risks linked to illegal migration.
- Reference is made in the agreements to the intent of reinforcing historical and cultural, cooperation and friendship links between the countries.
- The reasons for making these agreements, mentioned in their preambles, are the benefits that migration brings to both parties (the country of origin and the host country). Migration is enriching in terms of economic and social development, cultural diversity, and the transfer of technology.

Cooperation regarding economic migration

The cooperation agreements promote the hiring of workers in the relevant countries of origin through Collective Management of Hiring in the Countries of Origin. The procedure foreseen for the purpose in the legislation in force until December, 2009, was briefly as follows:

The Spanish authorities reported job offerings in Spain through the embassies or consulates. The authorities of the countries of origin, through their employment and migration authorities, reported on the possibilities of meeting the relevant demand of labour.

⁵¹ **Africa:** Republic of Niger (May 2008); Republic of Guinea Bissau (January 2008); Republic of Mali (January 2007); Guinea (October 2006); Gambia (October 2006); Cape Vert (March 2007); Mauritania (July 2007); Morocco (July 2001).

South America: Colombia (May 2001); Peru (Julio 2004); Bolivia (2010); Ecuador (May 2001); Dominican Republic (December 2001).

The authorities of the countries of origin (having undertaken to facilitate the selection of candidates and subsequent steps) then drew up a preliminary list of candidates prepared to work in Spain, and, lastly, a Mixed Committee with members from the country of origin and from Spain) chose those who were to be hired.

The mixed committees, besides choosing the most suitable candidates to fill the jobs, gave advice to the selected workers and assisted them throughout the process, even arranging for the vocational training they might need to be able to perform their jobs. The agreements likewise normally mention that the Mixed Committee is open to those employers who wish to take part in the process or their representatives. The agreement with Ecuador provides that the two contracting parties may, if they wish, be advised by representatives of the trades unions and business organizations, inter-governmental agencies and non-governmental organizations operating in the field of migrations and development cooperation.

Since December, 2009 (after the reform carried out through Organic Act N° 2/2009), there have been some developments on the hiring of immigrant workers, including the following:

- In managing employment contracts made through Collective Management of Hiring in the Countries of Origin, the parties concerned shall liaise with the responsible regional authorities for the work permits to be granted initially.
- Jobs offers made through this mechanism must be directed preferentially towards countries with which Spain has signed agreements to regulate migration flows.

Many of the agreements provide specifically for the situation of migrant seasonal workers. Concerning the seasonal workers who are selected and travel to Spain roughly according to the procedure described above, there are specific provisions to the effect that prior to being hired they must undertake in writing to return to their country of origin once their permit lapses. Failure to abide by this undertaking will be taken into account in deciding on future applications by the same person to be granted a Spanish residence and work permit.

Provision is also made for Spain to examine with special benevolence any possible applications the immigrants hired in such capacity may submit for annual residence and work permits in the future, if they have worked as seasonal workers during four years in a row (the Alien Act of 2009 requires that they have worked as seasonal workers during two calendar years, provided that they have returned to their country of origin in between one stay and the other).

With respect to returning emigrants, in these agreements the parties undertake to liaise with each other on implementing programs to aid emigrants who voluntarily return to their country of origin, through re-integration measures and measures designed to help them make use of the social, work and occupational experience they have gained in the host country. Some such measures have in fact been implemented in coordination with various countries. The agreement made with Ecuador in 2002 provides for the possibility of a productive return, for which purpose Spain must propose incentives, some of which materialised in 2009. An agreement for the productive return of migrant workers was made with Peru in 2009, aimed at supporting their return to undertake business projects in their country of origin. The services to be provided by Spain are to furnish information and give them training before they return, and to give them aid for travelling back to their country of origin and settling there.

Brain Drain

We shall now discuss the right of workers to emigrate and settle in another country in relation to the need to fight the brain drain problem, as provided in the European directive of 2009 on highly-qualified employees.

In general, the alien legislation and the bilateral agreements provide for measures to assure orderly migration flows, which improves the quality of life of migrants. In a more general way, migration can also be found to bring social, cultural and economic benefits (as an occupationally enriching experience, and through the transfer of technology), thereby contributing towards the development of the countries of origin of migrants.

The hiring of workers in the countries of origin for doing seasonal work or for a given crop involves an undertaking on their part to return to their country of origin. Those who have returned at the end of their stay are no longer required to go through the same selection process again in order to be hired the following year. Thus, an incentive is provided for circular migration, which helps to prevent the loss of human capital by the countries of origin.

Besides, the Organic Act N° 4/2000, of December 2009, makes provision for preventing a possible brain drain effect. In that respect, section 38. 3 provides that “for the granting of permits to highly-qualified professionals the domestic employment situation may be taken into account as well as the need to protect the sufficiency of human resources in the country of origin”. Besides, Section 95 of the implementing Regulation provides for the possibility of a third-country national who has spent three years as a student in Spain being granted a residence and work permit outright without any need to apply

for a visa. However, this option is not available for those who have arrived in Spain on scholarships or have received grants from public or private organisations in the context of cooperation or development programs of their country of origin.

Also, the business organisations hiring workers in their countries of origin (particularly farmers' organisations) show a marked tendency to take social criteria into account at the time of choosing the relevant countries, regions and workers. This is not strictly a labour question. For example, preference is given to workers from the most depressed districts and, within these, to the most needy families (those with more children). There are examples of a certain type of compensation being provided in terms of "returned skills". A noteworthy experience is that of a farmers' organisation in the Canary Isles (COAG) that seeks to hire migrant workers in Mali because this country has a similar climate to that of the Isles. The idea is that the seasonal workers from Mali will learn farming methods they can use to contribute towards developing their own agriculture (knowledge and technology transfers).

Other organisations (Unió de Pagesos or Fundació Pagesos Solidaris) seek to hire migrants with a view to aiding the development of their countries of origin, by hiring those who can use the training they get in Spain in productive projects in those countries, helping to start new businesses and supporting improvements in infrastructure. In fact, this and other organisations usually see seasonal migration as an opportunity to raise the level of qualification of the workers and to transfer the relevant skills to the poorer countries (ultimately a form of development aid). The Fundació Pagesos Solidaris has carried out 12 co-development projects in Colombia, 1 in Bolivia and 2 in Morocco. According to the 2008 Report on the Activities of the Foundation, the most significant figures in that respect are the following: 16,310 users who have benefitted from specific actions; 11,733 beneficiaries of job-seeking actions; 13,283 beneficiaries of training received in the host country; 723 users who have been given advice; management of accommodation for 6,143; 58 individuals trained to run accommodation facilities.

However, in the view of some of those interviewed on the subject⁵², the prevailing methods of choosing and hiring such workers do not prevent the loss of human capital (brain drain) or the hiring of over-qualified workers (brain waste). That is the case with all migrations, however. This is one of the reasons why co-development objectives are pursued in connexion with the agreements to regulate migration flows. The European Commission

⁵² Those interviewed either personally or over the telephone are individuals holding positions of responsibility in trades unions, business organisations and immigrants' associations. As mentioned in the section on the methodology used, however, this does not guarantee that representative results have been obtained.

itself has taken this matter into account in drafting the directive on immigration of highly-qualified workers.

The 2007-2010 Strategic Plan on Citizenship and Integration includes some paragraphs devoted to co-development by linking seasonal migration to remittances and to the voluntary return of migrant workers, considering that sound integration of immigrants is consistent with their contributing towards the development of the communities of origin. Also, since the Tampere European Council (in October 1999), in accordance with the Global Approach to Migration and the European Pact on Immigration and Asylum, voluntary returns are linked to the recognition of the training and experience acquired by migrant workers in their host country and to the return of qualified workers. The Spanish Master Plan on Cooperation for the 2005-2008 period, drawn up by the Ministry of Foreign Affairs and Cooperation, links migration flows to possible aid to co-development, with preference to be given to some countries such as Ecuador, Morocco, Mali and Senegal. The Master Plan also refers to the possibility of granting micro-credits, among other measures, to facilitate the reintegration of returning migrant workers in the labour market of their countries of origin. Such micro-credits are to be managed by the Spanish Agency for International Development Cooperation in cooperation with various areas of the Administration depending on the type of program and in support of NGOs involved in development projects. Besides, as part of efforts to prevent the brain drain through measures aimed at promoting the development of the countries of origin, we may mention the increased volume of resources allocated by Spain to scholarships for students from the countries of origin, particularly those from Latin America, who wish to receive further education in Spain.

In that respect we may mention the two bodies mainly responsible for granting scholarships to alien students: the Ministry of Foreign Affairs and Cooperation working in collaboration with the Spanish Agency for International Development Cooperation, and the Ministry of Education. Apart from these there are public foundations (Fundación Carolina, for example) and private foundations linked to financial entities. There are also scholarships funded by universities or by regional authorities, frequently under agreements with other universities or foreign countries. These are mostly for taking post-graduate or doctorate courses, or for doing research. There are also some undergraduate scholarships. Besides, there are scholarships for short-term study of the Spanish language and literature.

In conclusion we may say that, even though the intent of cooperating with the development of impoverished countries from which the more developed countries drain workers is implicit in the cooperation agreements and other concerted policies for hiring immigrants in the countries of origin, there is still room for developing additional measures in that respect. At the European level, some such measures are

mentioned in the Global Approach to Migration (July 2008), including some measures of interest suggested by Spain, and in the European Pact on Immigration and Asylum (October 2009). These papers of the European Commission, especially the latter, propose as an objective “to achieve overall cooperation with the countries of origin and transit in enhancing synergies between migration and development”. Some of the agreements made by Spain stress that the migration experience can be good for the social and economic development of the country of origin by way of the occupational knowledge and experience gained by returning migrant labour. Some of these aspects are mentioned in the agreements with Ecuador, Colombia and the Dominican Republic, as well as in the Framework Agreements for cooperation in the matter of immigration—second generation agreements—concluded with Cape Vert, Mali and Gambia (provisionally in force), Guinea Bissau (provisionally in force), Guinea and Niger, which include commitments concerning development.

Cooperation to prevent brain waste?

The Quality of Working Life surveys conducted by the Spanish Ministry of Labour and Immigration (in various years)⁵³ show that, as we have previously mentioned, immigrants say much more frequently than natives that the type of work they do does not match their level of education. This subjective indicator would show that there is a greater degree of brain waste or over-qualification for the jobs they hold among immigrant workers than among native workers.

Some cooperation projects with the employment services of the countries of origin are aimed at ensuring that the qualifications and skills of alien candidates to fill jobs are well-suited to what is required by the Spanish labour market. In some cases the regulation of migration flows by hiring immigrants in their countries of origin is performed by a de-centralised territorial structure designed to bring the hiring service and the procedures associated to it closer to the businesses offering jobs in a given territory. These are services made available to the business organizations by some regional authorities pursuant to the legislation on the subject and in cooperation with the National Administration, to meet their members’ needs of alien labour in a lawful and regulated manner. That is the case of the Mediation and Vocational Training Services made available in several of the countries of origin of immigrant workers by the Catalan Employment Service, in benefit of Catalan businessmen. These services give advice and accompany or represent applicant businesses throughout the process of recruiting and hiring workers in the

⁵³ See <http://www.mtin.es/estadisticas/ecvt/welcome.htm>

countries of origin, as well as training and relocating them to Catalonia. Training courses are also provided prior to hiring the workers, in collaboration between the Catalan Employment Service and specific industries concerned.

There is specific experience with the hiring of health care personnel —either according to the General System or through Collective Management of Hiring in the Countries of Origin— by both the state-run health care system and by privately-owned hospitals. These actions are designed to meet shortages of health care staff which have arisen mainly because of the growth in numbers and the aging of the domestic population, a problem that has become increasingly serious in Spain in the past few years, and partly because of the emigration of native Spanish professionals to countries like the UK, France and Portugal. The doctors' and nurses' professional associations are involved in these actions, and their purpose is to provide supplementary training to the alien professionals once they arrive in Spain. In the past few years, the Ministry of Education has homologated the degrees in Medicine of many alien doctors, and has convalidated the studies of immigrants seeking to complete their studies and graduate as doctors in Spain. Besides, immigrant doctors are being promoted along with native Resident Medical Interns to take various specialization courses. Other professionals in demand are nurses for hospitals and nursing assistants for elderly homes, who are also given mainly on-the-job training.

There are no cases, however, of cooperation with the authorities responsible for education and vocational training in the countries of origin with the aim of preventing the brain waste problem mentioned above.

5 Analysis and conclusions

Degree to which the political-legislative-institutional framework overcomes labour shortages

Until the end of 2004, an insufficient regulation of migration flows made it difficult to achieve a reasonable matching of supply and demand, i.e., between labour market requirements and immigration. That resulted in part of the supply of immigrant labour being channelled towards the underground economy. Such dysfunctionality fostered inadequate working conditions and imbalances in expected supply-and-demand relationships, as shown by the fact that unmet offers have persisted in occupations that require an intermediate level of qualification (see section 3.2.2).

Once the implementing Regulation currently in force was approved in December 2004 and the Normalisation of 2005—in which 578,000 alien workers were regularised—was carried out to clarify the labour supply and demand picture, the groundwork was laid for the proper matching of labour market requirements and immigration. As previously noted, the mechanisms for migration control allow adjusting migratory flows in both favourable economic circumstances (as in the years before 2008) as well as in the current downturn, and in the event of a subsequent recovery. That is because the Catalogue of Shortage Occupations is adjusted quarterly to reflect actual labour market requirements. Ultimately, the Catalogue is the basic tool for determining labour market requirements, even though Collective Management of Hiring in the Countries of Origin gives businesses a chance of raising other requirements in the tripartite meetings at the province level.

Let us take a look at how the migration flow regulation mechanisms have worked in relation to the labour market. Since 2005, a majority of immigrants have entered the Spanish labour market through the General System. Many hold low-skill jobs, having originally contacted the employer through a friend or acquaintance or through a National Public Employment Service or a private employment agency. These mechanisms seem to have worked comparatively well, although employers have reported two types of problems in the interviews with territorial business organisations which we must assume are so rather than take them to be a fact. The first concerns the processing of permits, which employers view as taking too long and as being too complicated. The second one concerns the difficulty of determining who is the most suitable candidate for a given job in advance. In that respect, this requirement can be met by employment agencies in the country of origin, where they can locate candidates who meet the profile requested by the employer and then report on them to the employer for the latter can apply for hiring the worker, according to the Regulation.

A minority of immigrant workers enters the market through Collective Management of Hiring in the Countries of Origin, in which the public mediation services take part. Strictly speaking, this mechanism must be used to find out labour market requirements in general and in the medium term, i.e. one year, always taking into account the job openings for which there are no domestic job-seekers. The employers and business organizations usually assess this as a satisfactory method of admission, because the applicant entities take part in selecting the immigrant workers in the country of origin. Furthermore, in many cases these workers have received advance generic training, particularly to inform them on the new context in which they will be working. The interest there is in using this mechanism is borne out by the fact that the sectoral or territorial business organisations, responsible regional authorities and Spanish embassies in the countries of origin all become deeply involved in the process. Besides, a strong point of Collective Management of Hiring in the Countries of Origin is that the immigrants effectively hired in certain countries of

origin fall under the provisions of the agreements made with their countries to regulate migration flows, which reduces illegal immigration and can also be a useful tool to balance the right of individuals to seek better opportunities for themselves elsewhere, and the need of their country of origin to retain suitable human resources in order to develop.

Business organisations representing SMEs mention a dysfunctionality in the mechanism of Collective Management of Hiring in the Countries of Origin, however, that would explain why companies do not make full use of the opportunities that this procedure makes available to them for filling job openings, or why this mechanism is used mainly by large undertakings. The hitch is that employers seeking to hire alien workers must apply, as a rule, to fill at least 10 job openings of the same type and in the same province, which is not consistent with the de-centralised structure of many businesses and with the fact that a business may need to hire fewer workers, in the case of small or very small businesses. A well-run business organization can overcome that difficulty by filing joint applications on behalf of several businesses, but this is not always possible. The trades unions, for their part, are usually quite critical of Collective Management of Hiring in the Countries of Origin⁵⁴, on the grounds that the business organisations overestimate the number of jobs they need to fill with immigrant labour so as to have more room for manoeuvre.

Problems encountered with regard to the filling of labour shortages and reasons for such weaknesses

There is a twin weakness to be found in the matter of matching market demand and supply of migrant labour. The first weakness was noticed in the last few years of the economic boom while the second one has to do with the current downturn, which—in terms of employment— may continue in Spain for a few more years.

During the boom period, the weakness seen in the regulatory and political framework of immigration concerned an insufficient coverage of certain employment niches. On one hand, health care professionals such as doctors and nurses who were needed because of the pace of growth of health care needs in Spain; also some others relating to environmental protection and other specific sectors. On the other hand, there was a shortage of domestic labour in certain manufacturing industry occupations⁵⁵, as a result

⁵⁴ According to respondents in some of the interviews conducted in that respect, of which more would have to be completed to gain in-depth knowledge of this question.

⁵⁵ Even though this is merely an indication, we may note that CECOT, the employers' organization of the Western Vallés district of Catalonia, a highly industrialised area, has undertaken specific actions for several years in a row with the aim of recruiting, through the Collective Management of Hiring, manufacturing

of broken links in on-the-job training processes —as manufacturing industry shrunk—, or in the educational system, because of the small weight of Vocational Training in Spain compared with other countries of the EU⁵⁶, a situation that has started to change since the 2009-2010 educational year in terms of enrolment figures. Such demand has continued in part during the downturn, and other occupations will be back in demand, although perhaps this will not be so strong, as the Spanish economy recovers.

With regard to the period from 2008 to the first half of 2010, we may note that the number of unemployed alien workers rose by more than 700,000, to more than one million (equal to 25% of the total number of unemployed) at the end of the second quarter of 2010. According to the relevant legislation, immigrants who do not hold long-term permits or fail to meet the requirements for renewing temporary permits would have to leave the country. At the end of 2009, those who did not yet hold long-term permits included at least all those who entered the country since January 1, 2006; many of the unemployed may have already run out of unemployment and other social security benefits. Voluntary returns have had a very limited impact on the adjustment process so, as already mentioned, there may be a risk of the underground economy growing. But in any case we are confronted with a very sizeable volume of available and partly unemployed immigrant labour already residing in the country. To that must be added the fact that immigrants can be expected to continue flowing in by way of family reunification, and part of the incoming family members can be assumed to be labour not now necessarily required by the labour market.

Therefore, from the point of view of this Report, we are going to have a labour surplus, including immigrant labour, rather than a shortage of labour, for some time, which will call for taking measures.

Possible lines of improvement to achieve the proposed objective

It does not seem likely that the labour market will need immigrants to fill low-skill jobs during the next 10 years —let us recall the figures mentioned above, prepared by CEDEFOP— mainly because the immigrants are already in the country.

industry workers (mechanics, millers, electricians) in Poland (before it joined the EU) and Ukraine. (CECOT interview).

⁵⁶ OECD, "Education Today 2010". According to that report, the percentage of those holding intermediate-level Vocational Training degrees (age 17-18) in Spain in 2008 was 38%; among the EU countries in the OECD the percentage is 52%, and in the OECD in general it is 44%.

With respect to these immigrant workers, the policies must necessarily involve stepped-up training processes. The training will be linguistic in some cases, and in others will also include steering the immigrant workers towards other higher-qualification occupations (let us recall that many of those who are unemployed previously held low-skill jobs in the building industry).

It will also be necessary to accelerate the recognition of the skills or degrees immigrants had in their countries of origin which have not been recognised in Spain to date, because the sectors of the economy that created job opportunities until 2008 required minimal skills. In that respect there are some figures to be taken into account concerning immigrants with a higher education. According to the Labour Force Survey for the 4th quarter of 2007, i.e. before the current downturn began, 20.6% of employed aliens had a higher education. The percentage was 22.5% according to the National Survey of Immigrants, and 21.8% according to the Quality of Working Life Survey, both for 2007. In any case, a very sizeable percentage.

It does not seem that there will be any problems with applying the immigrant integration measures. At the structural level immigrants join the major welfare systems, such as health care and education, with the rights to which they are entitled under the Spanish Constitution and the Alien Act. In effect, the Spanish Constitution, the Alien Act of 2009 (sections 9 and 11) and the case law made by the Constitutional Court in its judgments N° 115/1987, N° 95/2003 and N° 236/2007, grant aliens in Spain educational and health care rights irrespectively of their administrative legal status. Besides, substantial resources—mostly from ministry budget appropriations— have been invested at the regional and local level in carrying out various integration activities. Such integration activities are probably more important during the current downturn than they were during the boom period because adequate reintegration of those who are now unemployed will partly depend on them.

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Annex: stock and inflow statistics on foreign workers

TABLE I. *Workers affiliated to and registered as in employment in the Social Security system by Skill level, group of Nationality and Sex.*
31-12-2005

2005	Total			Nationals			Other EU-15 Nationals			EU-10 Nationals			EU-2 Nationals			Third Country Nationals			Unfilled vacancies
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	
Total	10,674,316	7,481,307	18,156,182	9,662,970	6,804,059	16,467,588	162,896	94,593	257,489	16,043	10,633	26,676	116,262	82,784	199,046	716,145	489,238	1,205,383	n.a.
Highly Skilled	1,358,029	1,083,230	2,441,291	1,316,813	1,058,890	2,375,735	23,905	13,501	37,406	492	426	918	768	650	1,418	16,051	9,763	25,814	n.a.
Skilled	4,287,660	3,097,941	7,385,731	3,994,257	2,935,675	6,930,062	57,797	43,143	100,940	5,087	2,868	7,955	37,231	11,862	49,093	193,288	104,393	297,681	n.a.
Low Skilled	2,337,018	1,552,047	3,889,108	1,901,470	1,361,692	3,263,205	26,220	13,924	40,144	4,695	2,993	7,688	56,242	25,389	81,631	348,391	148,049	496,440	n.a.
Special Social Security Regimes w.o. information on skill level	2,691,609	1,748,089	4,440,052	2,450,430	1,447,802	3,898,586	54,974	24,025	78,999	5,769	4,346	10,115	22,021	44,883	66,904	158,415	227,033	385,448	n.a.

Note: The cases with unknown sex are included under the category Total.

TABLE I. *Workers affiliated to and registered as in employment in the Social Security system by Skill level, group of Nationality and Sex.*
31-12-2006

2006	Total			Nationals			Other EU-15 Nationals			EU-10 Nationals			EU-2 Nationals			Third Country Nationals			Unfilled vacancies
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	
Total	10,946,347	7,823,697	18,770,259	9,841,267	7,104,808	16,946,290	189,666	106,655	296,321	31,930	22,047	53,977	127,735	85,906	213,641	755,749	504,281	1,260,030	393,588
Highly Skilled	1,432,118	1,182,606	2,614,739	1,384,307	1,152,951	2,537,273	27,129	15,582	42,711	771	739	1,510	1,056	1,098	2,154	18,855	12,236	31,091	56,185
Skilled	4,459,217	3,293,299	7,752,573	4,102,382	3,092,499	7,194,938	70,659	48,765	119,424	9,550	5,388	14,938	48,704	16,520	65,224	227,922	130,127	358,049	241,118
Low Skilled	2,360,468	1,619,868	3,980,354	1,893,036	1,389,894	3,282,948	31,888	15,855	47,743	10,504	6,296	16,800	58,176	31,690	89,866	366,864	176,133	542,997	96,285
Special Social Security Regimes w.o. information on skill level	2,694,544	1,727,924	4,422,593	2,461,542	1,469,464	3,931,131	59,990	26,453	86,443	11,105	9,624	20,729	19,799	36,598	56,397	142,108	185,785	327,893	—

Note: The cases with unknown sex are included under the category Total.

Table I. *Workers affiliated to and registered as in employment in the Social Security system by Skill level, group of Nationality and Sex.*
31-12-2007

2007	Total			Nationals			Other EU-15 Nationals			EU-10 Nationals			EU-2 Nationals			Third Country Nationals			Unfilled vacancies
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	
Total	11,065,429	8,130,146	19,195,755	9,862,663	7,351,808	17,214,651	208,503	117,668	326,171	37,015	26,732	63,747	181,196	101,100	282,296	776,052	532,838	1,308,890	438,695
Highly Skilled	1,501,696	1,272,634	2,774,344	1,446,742	1,236,367	2,683,123	30,725	18,124	48,849	1,033	1,074	2,107	1,165	1,673	2,838	22,031	15,396	37,427	61,916
Skilled	4,541,200	3,455,836	7,997,081	4,144,169	3,218,548	7,362,762	79,931	53,820	133,751	11,707	7,002	18,709	59,185	22,653	81,838	246,208	153,813	400,021	286,390
Low Skilled	2,287,191	1,669,307	3,956,513	1,811,570	1,410,057	3,221,642	35,166	17,837	53,003	12,357	8,119	20,476	62,664	40,005	102,669	365,434	193,289	558,723	90,389
Special Social Security Regimes w.o. information on skill level	2,735,342	1,732,369	4,467,817	2,460,182	1,486,836	3,947,124	62,681	27,887	90,568	11,918	10,537	22,455	58,182	36,769	94,951	142,379	170,340	312,719	—

Note: The cases with unknown sex are included under the category Total.

TABLE I. *Workers affiliated to and registered as in employment in the Social Security system by Skill level, group of Nationality and Sex.*
31-12-2008

2008	Total			Nationals			Other EU-15 Nationals			EU-10 Nationals			EU-2 Nationals			Third Country Nationals			Unfilled vacancies
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	
Total	10,267,407	8,038,188	18,305,613	9,179,335	7,244,039	16,423,392	188,218	116,649	304,867	28,529	24,964	53,493	167,862	106,910	274,772	703,463	545,626	1,249,089	296,781
Highly Skilled	1,521,351	1,331,391	2,852,744	1,461,637	1,289,567	2,751,206	32,726	20,298	53,024	1,123	1,323	2,446	1,169	2,035	3,204	24,696	18,168	42,864	49,671
Skilled	4,171,263	3,369,901	7,541,169	3,830,024	3,135,280	6,965,309	68,687	51,917	120,604	9,242	7,026	16,268	50,435	24,337	74,772	212,875	151,341	364,216	175,449
Low Skilled	1,873,429	1,602,680	3,476,112	1,490,102	1,353,755	2,843,860	26,060	16,391	42,451	8,023	6,915	14,938	54,482	41,695	96,177	294,762	183,924	478,686	71,661
Special Social Security Regimes w.o. information on skill level	2,701,364	1,734,216	4,435,588	2,397,572	1,465,437	3,863,017	60,745	28,043	88,788	10,141	9,700	19,841	61,776	38,843	100,619	171,130	192,193	363,323	—

Note: The cases with unknown sex are included under the category Total.

TABLE I. *Workers affiliated to and registered as in employment in the Social Security system by Skill level, group of Nationality and Sex.*
31-12-2009

2009	Total			Nationals			Other EU-15 Nationals			EU-10 Nationals			EU-2 Nationals			Third Country Nationals			Unfilled vacancies
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	
Total	9,735,975	7,903,998	17,640,018	8,712,217	7,115,877	15,828,139	170,108	109,613	279,721	24,622	23,551	48,173	189,212	138,238	327,450	639,816	516,719	1,156,535	263,375
Highly Skilled	1,491,886	1,346,853	2,838,741	1,432,774	1,303,237	2,736,013	32,197	20,884	53,081	1,123	1,424	2,547	1,247	2,459	3,706	24,545	18,849	43,394	45,414
Skilled	3,901,141	3,244,380	7,145,529	3,597,696	3,026,961	6,624,665	59,635	46,918	106,553	7,762	6,624	14,386	51,572	27,764	79,336	184,476	136,113	320,589	151,138
Low Skilled	1,702,654	1,595,588	3,298,247	1,369,349	1,361,124	2,730,478	20,996	14,788	35,784	6,265	6,250	12,515	55,091	48,686	103,777	250,953	164,740	415,693	66,823
Special Social Security Regimes w.o. information on skill level	2,640,294	1,717,177	4,357,501	2,312,398	1,424,555	3,736,983	57,280	27,023	84,303	9,472	9,253	18,725	81,302	59,329	140,631	179,842	197,017	376,859	—

Note: The cases with unknown sex are included under the category Total.

TABLE II. *Residence and work permits granted to Foreign Workers by Skill level, Group of Nationality and Sex, 2005*

2005	Total				EU-10 Nationals				EU-2 Nationals				Third Country Nationals			
	Male	Female	Sex Unknown	Total	Male	Female	Total	% of Total Foreigners	Male	Female	Total	% of Total Foreigners	Male	Female	Total	% of Total Foreigners
Total	367,435	279,930	33,297	680,662	3,972	3,401	15,144	2.2	74,449	60,047	157,389	23.1	289,014	216,482	508,129	74.7
Highly Skilled	6,180	3,752	0	9,932	62	91	153	1.5	460	420	880	8.9	5,658	3,241	8,899	89.6
Skilled	104,249	41,249	0	145,498	1,292	693	1,985	1.4	24,353	10,387	34,740	23.9	78,604	30,169	108,773	74.8
Low skilled	188,104	190,003	0	378,107	1,486	1,605	3,091	0.8	38,581	42,167	80,748	21.4	148,037	146,231	294,268	77.8
Researchers	126	89	0	215	4	0	4	1.9	4	1	5	2.3	118	88	206	95.8
Seasonal workers*	2,454	1,924	33,297	37,675	771	720	9,262	24.6	942	822	24,657	65.4	741	382	3,756	10.0
Unknown Skill level	66,322	42,913	0	109,235	357	292	649	0.6	10,109	6,250	16,359	15.0	55,856	36,371	92,227	84.4

* Main source of this category does not distinguish gender.

TABLE II. *Residence and work permits granted to Foreign Workers by Skill level, Group of Nationality and Sex, 2006*

2006	Total				EU-10 Nationals				EU-2 Nationals				Third Country Nationals			
	Male	Female	Sex Unknown	Total	Male	Female	Total	% of Total Foreigners	Male	Female	Total	% of Total Foreigners	Male	Female	Total	% of Total Foreigners
Total	81,149	44,817	78,300	204,266	688	405	11,738	5.7	17,202	8,706	88,147	43.2	63,259	35,706	104,381	51.1
Highly Skilled	2,334	1,330	0	3,664	9	8	17	0.5	97	88	185	5.0	2,228	1,234	3,462	94.5
Skilled	31,548	9,872	0	41,420	246	76	322	0.8	7,176	1,888	9,064	21.9	24,126	7,908	32,034	77.3
Low skilled	34,008	26,542	0	60,550	252	146	398	0.7	6,208	4,379	10,587	17.5	27,548	22,017	49,565	81.9
Researchers	44	54	0	98	0	0	0	0.0	3	2	5	5.1	41	52	93	94.9
Seasonal workers*	2,729	1,667	78,300	82,696	139	151	10,935	13.2	1,360	1,110	64,709	78.2	1,230	406	7,052	8.5
Unknown Skill level	10,486	5,352	0	15,838	42	24	66	0.4	2,358	1,239	3,597	22.7	8,086	4,089	12,175	76.9

* Main source of this category does not distinguish gender.

TABLE II. *Residence and work permits granted to Foreign Workers by Skill level, Group of Nationality and Sex, 2007*

2007	Total				EU-2 Nationals				Third Country Nationals			
	Male	Female	Sex Unknown	Total	Male	Female	Total	% of Total Foreigners	Male	Female	Total	% of Total Foreigners
Total	105,601	61,922	64,716	232,239	37076	19341	101,844	43.9	68,525	42,581	130,395	56.1
Highly Skilled	3,098	1,988	0	5,086	214	235	449	8.8	2,884	1,753	4,637	91.2
Skilled	43,756	13,325	0	57,081	13,414	5,064	18,478	32.4	30,342	8,261	38,603	67.6
Low skilled	42,586	36,757	0	79,343	14,138	8,377	22,515	28.4	28,448	28,380	56,828	71.6
Researchers	271	180	0	451	4	22	26	5.8	267	158	425	94.2
Seasonal workers*	9,527	5,253	64,716	79,496	8,157	4,826	58,410	73.5	1,370	427	21,086	26.5
Unknown Skill level	6,363	4,419	0	10,782	1,149	817	1,966	18.2	5,214	3,602	8,816	81.8

* Main source of this category does not distinguish gender.

TABLE II. *Residence and work permits granted to Foreign Workers by Skill level, Group of Nationality and Sex, 2008*

2008	Total				EU-2 Nationals				Third Country Nationals			
	Male	Female	Sex Unknown	Total	Male	Female	Total	% of Total Foreigners	Male	Female	Total	% of Total Foreigners
Total	107,956	80,256	41,339	229,551	42,393	29,146	93,881	40.9	65,563	51,110	135,670	59.1
Highly Skilled	5,869	3,923	0	9,792	151	234	385	3.9	5,718	3,689	9,407	96.1
Skilled	38,304	15,248	0	53,552	7,647	5,184	12,831	24.0	30,657	10,064	40,721	76.0
Low skilled	33,728	41,163	0	74,891	10,885	7,415	18,300	24.4	22,843	33,748	56,591	75.6
Researchers	397	267	0	664	13	16	29	4.4	384	251	635	95.6
Seasonal workers*	24,947	16,558	41,339	82,844	23,319	16,066	61,727	74.5	1,628	492	21,117	25.5
Unknown Skill level	4,711	3,097	0	7,808	378	231	609	7.8	4,333	2,866	7,199	92.2

* Main source of this category does not distinguish gender.

TABLE II. *Residence and work permits granted to Foreign Workers by Skill level, Group of Nationality and Sex, 2009*

2009	Total				Third Country Nationals		
	Male	Female	Sex Unknown	Total	Male	Female	Total
Total	18,596	16,603	3,394	38,593	18,596	16,603	38,593
Highly Skilled	3,989	2,579	0	6,568	3,989	2,579	6,568
Skilled	6,470	3,173	0	9,643	6,470	3,173	9,643
Low skilled	6,549	9,743	0	16,292	6,549	9,743	16,292
Researchers	377	246	0	623	377	246	623
Seasonal workers*	465	289	3,394	4,148	465	289	4,148
Unknown Skill level	746	573	0	1,319	746	573	1,319

* Main source of this category does not distinguish gender.

TABLE III. *Workers affiliated to and registered as in employment in the Social Security system by Nationality, Skill level and Sex. 31-12-2005*

2005	Total			Highly Skilled			Skilled			Low Skilled			Special Social Security Regimes w.o. information on skill level		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Total	10,674,645	7,481,537	18,156,182	1,358,029	1,083,230	2,441,291	4,287,660	3,097,941	7,385,731	2,337,018	1,552,047	3,889,108	2,691,834	1,748,218	4,440,052
Nationals	9,663,299	6,804,289	16,467,588	1,316,813	1,058,890	2,375,735	3,994,257	2,935,675	6,930,062	1,901,470	1,361,692	3,263,205	2,450,655	1,447,931	3,898,586
Other EU-15 Nationals	162,896	94,593	257,489	23,905	13,501	37,406	57,797	43,143	100,940	26,220	13,924	40,144	54,974	24,025	78,999
EU-10 Nationals	16,043	10,633	26,676	492	426	918	5,087	2,868	7,955	4,695	2,993	7,688	5,769	4,346	10,115
EU-2 Nationals	116,262	82,784	199,046	768	650	1,418	37,231	11,862	49,093	56,242	25,389	81,631	22,021	44,883	66,904
Third Country Nationals	716,145	489,238	1,205,383	16,051	9,763	25,814	193,288	104,393	297,681	348,391	148,049	496,440	158,415	227,033	385,448
Ecuador	131,365	138,961	270,326	623	419	1,042	40,285	20,947	61,232	70,079	41,612	111,691	20,378	75,983	96,361
Morocco	196,775	43,166	239,941	917	281	1,198	37,386	6,288	43,674	98,646	18,070	116,716	59,826	18,527	78,353
Colombia	56,529	73,644	130,173	1,363	1,078	2,441	20,405	17,398	37,803	27,838	22,702	50,540	6,923	32,466	39,389
Peru	30,166	29,973	60,139	650	650	1,300	10,462	8,906	19,368	16,587	10,134	26,721	2,467	10,283	12,750
China	32,974	20,802	53,776	405	235	640	10,511	5,834	16,345	12,896	7,300	20,196	9,162	7,433	16,595
Argentina	30,513	22,925	53,438	2,514	1,434	3,948	12,945	9,331	22,276	10,330	5,564	15,894	4,724	6,596	11,320
Bolivia	18,972	25,018	43,990	140	60	200	4,804	1,928	6,732	9,610	3,630	13,240	4,418	19,400	23,818
Ukraine	18,445	18,394	36,839	183	207	390	5,764	2,523	8,287	9,668	5,413	15,081	2,830	10,251	13,081
Dominican Republic	9,566	15,751	25,317	85	112	197	2,998	3,355	6,353	5,767	5,811	11,578	716	6,473	7,189
Cuba	11,048	9,387	20,435	1,218	827	2,045	4,678	3,709	8,387	3,789	2,878	6,667	1,363	1,973	3,336
Other countries	179,792	91,217	271,009	7,953	4,460	12,413	43,050	24,174	67,224	83,181	24,935	108,116	45,608	37,648	83,256

Note: The cases with unknown sex are included under the category Total.

TABLE III. *Workers affiliated to and registered as in employment in the Social Security system by Nationality, Skill level and Sex. 31-12-2006*

2006	Total			Highly Skilled			Skilled			Low Skilled			Special Social Security Regimes w.o. information on skill level		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Total	10,946,472	7,823,787	18,770,259	1,432,118	1,182,606	2,614,739	4,459,217	3,293,299	7,752,573	2,360,468	1,619,868	3,980,354	2,694,618	1,727,975	4,422,593
Nationals	9,841,392	7,104,898	16,946,290	1,384,307	1,152,951	2,537,273	4,102,382	3,092,499	7,194,938	1,893,036	1,389,894	3,282,948	2,461,616	1,469,515	3,931,131
Other EU-15 Nationals	189,666	106,655	296,321	27,129	15,582	42,711	70,659	48,765	119,424	31,888	15,855	47,743	59,990	26,453	86,443
EU-10 Nationals	31,930	22,047	53,977	771	739	1,510	9,550	5,388	14,938	10,504	6,296	16,800	11,105	9,624	20,729
EU-2 Nationals	127,735	85,906	213,641	1,056	1,098	2,154	48,704	16,520	65,224	58,176	31,690	89,866	19,799	36,598	56,397
Third Country Nationals	755,749	504,281	1,260,030	18,855	12,236	31,091	227,922	130,127	358,049	366,864	176,133	542,997	142,108	185,785	327,893
Ecuador	131,834	134,373	266,207	804	603	1,407	47,534	28,163	75,697	67,814	50,872	118,686	15,682	54,735	70,417
Morocco	203,357	47,336	250,693	1,122	364	1,486	43,894	7,650	51,544	101,912	21,392	123,304	56,429	17,930	74,359
Colombia	60,284	74,924	135,208	1,708	1,450	3,158	23,500	21,669	45,169	29,040	26,566	55,606	6,036	25,239	31,275
Peru	35,762	32,961	68,723	917	925	1,842	13,410	11,157	24,567	19,083	11,491	30,574	2,352	9,388	11,740
China	35,827	23,236	59,063	429	302	731	11,069	6,277	17,346	13,717	8,026	21,743	10,612	8,631	19,243
Argentina	31,174	23,383	54,557	2,777	1,752	4,529	13,809	10,700	24,509	9,709	5,737	15,446	4,879	5,194	10,073
Bolivia	20,511	24,619	45,130	202	138	340	7,048	3,401	10,449	10,135	6,112	16,247	3,126	14,968	18,094
Ukraine	19,217	18,484	37,701	234	267	501	7,234	3,137	10,371	9,298	6,404	15,702	2,451	8,676	11,127
Dominican Republic	11,668	17,213	28,881	130	151	281	3,986	4,209	8,195	6,769	6,856	13,625	783	5,997	6,780
Cuba	11,601	10,328	21,929	1,315	874	2,189	4,793	4,320	9,113	4,121	3,206	7,327	1,372	1,928	3,300
Other countries	194,514	97,424	291,938	9,217	5,410	14,627	51,645	29,444	81,089	95,266	29,471	124,737	38,386	33,099	71,485

Note: The cases with unknown sex are included under the category Total.

TABLE III. *Workers affiliated to and registered as in employment in the Social Security system by Nationality, Skill level and Sex. 31-12-2007*

2207	Total			Highly Skilled			Skilled			Low Skilled			Special Social Security Regimes w.o. information on skill level		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Total	11,065,533	8,130,222	19,195,755	1,501,696	1,272,634	2,774,344	4,541,200	3,455,836	7,997,081	2,287,191	1,669,307	3,956,513	2,735,408	1,732,409	4,467,817
Nationals	9,862,767	7,351,884	17,214,651	1,446,742	1,236,367	2,683,123	4,144,169	3,218,548	7,362,762	1,811,570	1,410,057	3,221,642	2,460,248	1,486,876	3,947,124
Other EU-15 Nationals	208,503	117,668	326,171	30,725	18,124	48,849	79,931	53,820	133,751	35,166	17,837	53,003	62,681	27,887	90,568
EU-10 Nationals	37,015	26,732	63,747	1,033	1,074	2,107	11,707	7,002	18,709	12,357	8,119	20,476	11,918	10,537	22,455
EU-2 Nationals	181,196	101,100	282,296	1,165	1,673	2,838	59,185	22,653	81,838	62,664	40,005	102,669	58,182	36,769	94,951
Third Country Nationals	776,052	532,838	1,308,890	22,031	15,396	37,427	246,208	153,813	400,021	365,434	193,289	558,723	142,379	170,340	312,719
Morocco	204,948	52,392	257,340	1,241	492	1,733	47,265	9,144	56,409	100,366	23,393	123,759	56,076	19,363	75,439
Ecuador	125,842	130,855	256,697	879	750	1,629	48,711	33,650	82,361	61,325	54,222	115,547	14,927	42,233	57,160
Colombia	63,586	77,772	141,358	2,235	2,020	4,255	25,443	25,221	50,664	29,601	28,439	58,040	6,307	22,092	28,399
Peru	41,440	36,803	78,243	1,421	1,334	2,755	16,284	13,439	29,723	21,150	12,927	34,077	2,585	9,103	11,688
China	37,888	25,532	63,420	524	353	877	11,202	6,689	17,891	13,663	8,298	21,961	12,499	10,192	22,691
Argentina	31,205	23,715	54,920	2,982	2,084	5,066	13,938	11,306	25,244	9,145	5,845	14,990	5,140	4,480	9,620
Bolivia	22,718	27,862	50,580	310	246	556	8,635	5,652	14,287	10,825	8,802	19,627	2,948	13,162	16,110
Ukraine	19,000	19,118	38,118	270	355	625	7,841	3,946	11,787	8,529	6,854	15,383	2,360	7,963	10,323
Dominican Republic	13,455	19,753	33,208	190	219	409	4,451	5,064	9,515	7,871	8,008	15,879	943	6,462	7,405
Cuba	12,443	11,171	23,614	1,349	927	2,276	5,184	4,643	9,827	4,365	3,452	7,817	1,545	2,149	3,694
Other countries	203,527	107,865	311,392	10,630	6,616	17,246	57,254	35,059	92,313	98,594	33,049	131,643	37,049	33,141	70,190

Note: The cases with unknown sex are included under the category Total.

TABLE III. *Workers affiliated to and registered as in employment in the Social Security system by Nationality, Skill level and Sex. 31-12-2008*

2008	Total			Highly Skilled			Skilled			Low Skilled			Special Social Security Regimes w.o. information on skill level		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Total	10,267,417	8,038,196	18,305,613	1,521,351	1,331,391	2,852,744	4,171,263	3,369,901	7,541,169	1,873,429	1,602,680	3,476,112	2,701,369	1,734,219	4,435,588
Nationals	9,179,345	7,244,047	16,423,392	1,461,637	1,289,567	2,751,206	3,830,024	3,135,280	6,965,309	1,490,102	1,353,755	2,843,860	2,397,577	1,465,440	3,863,017
Other EU-15 Nationals	188,218	116,649	304,867	32,726	20,298	53,024	68,687	51,917	120,604	26,060	16,391	42,451	60,745	28,043	88,788
EU-10 Nationals	28,529	24,964	53,493	1,123	1,323	2,446	9,242	7,026	16,268	8,023	6,915	14,938	10,141	9,700	19,841
EU-2 Nationals	167,862	106,910	274,772	1,169	2,035	3,204	50,435	24,337	74,772	54,482	41,695	96,177	61,776	38,843	100,619
Third Country Nationals	703,463	545,626	1,249,089	24,696	18,168	42,864	212,875	151,341	364,216	294,762	183,924	478,686	171,130	192,193	363,323
Morocco	183,124	54,924	238,048	1,354	572	1,926	37,121	8,977	46,098	77,630	23,332	100,962	67,019	22,043	89,062
Ecuador	101,049	117,669	218,718	774	725	1,499	36,231	30,511	66,742	45,186	47,491	92,677	18,858	38,942	57,800
Colombia	57,385	75,258	132,643	2,803	2,623	5,426	22,460	24,052	46,512	25,074	26,377	51,451	7,048	22,206	29,254
Peru	41,428	38,853	80,281	1,996	1,881	3,877	16,620	13,754	30,374	19,807	12,865	32,672	3,005	10,353	13,358
China	41,421	29,134	70,555	517	379	896	12,323	7,552	19,875	14,093	8,598	22,691	14,488	12,605	27,093
Bolivia	24,251	37,560	61,811	432	359	791	8,072	6,332	14,404	10,655	9,461	20,116	5,092	21,408	26,500
Argentina	28,284	23,006	51,290	3,060	2,160	5,220	12,471	10,606	23,077	7,803	5,445	13,248	4,950	4,795	9,745
Ukraine	15,630	19,236	34,866	293	366	659	5,980	3,964	9,944	6,521	6,623	13,144	2,836	8,283	11,119
Dominican Republic	12,375	20,890	33,265	261	329	590	4,398	5,315	9,713	6,695	7,862	14,557	1,021	7,384	8,405
Brazil	9,079	14,506	23,585	707	646	1,353	3,621	4,727	8,348	3,531	4,407	7,938	1,220	4,726	5,946
Other countries	189,437	114,590	304,027	12,499	8,128	20,627	53,578	35,551	89,129	77,767	31,463	109,230	45,593	39,448	85,041

Note: The cases with unknown sex are included under the category Total.

TABLE III. *Workers affiliated to and registered as in employment in the Social Security system by Nationality, Skill level and Sex. 31-12-2009*

2009	Total			Highly Skilled			Skilled			Low Skilled			Special Social Security Regimes w.o. information on skill level		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Total	9,736,000	7,904,018	17,640,018	1,491,886	1,346,853	2,838,741	3,901,141	3,244,380	7,145,529	1,702,654	1,595,588	3,298,247	2,640,312	1,717,189	4,357,501
Nationals	8,712,242	7,115,897	15,828,139	1,432,774	1,303,237	2,736,013	3,597,696	3,026,961	6,624,665	1,369,349	1,361,124	2,730,478	2,312,416	1,424,567	3,736,983
Other EU-15 Nationals	170,108	109,613	279,721	32,197	20,884	53,081	59,635	46,918	106,553	20,996	14,788	35,784	57,280	27,023	84,303
EU-10 Nationals	24,622	23,551	48,173	1,123	1,424	2,547	7,762	6,624	14,386	6,265	6,250	12,515	9,472	9,253	18,725
EU-2 Nationals	189,212	138,238	327,450	1,247	2,459	3,706	51,572	27,764	79,336	55,091	48,686	103,777	81,302	59,329	140,631
Third Country Nationals	639,816	516,719	1,156,535	24,545	18,849	43,394	184,476	136,113	320,589	250,953	164,740	415,693	179,842	197,017	376,859
Morocco	167,085	52,334	219,419	1,272	562	1,834	31,537	8,360	39,897	65,440	21,221	86,661	68,836	22,191	91,027
Ecuador	81,923	98,522	180,445	663	682	1,345	28,088	25,123	53,211	34,057	38,936	72,993	19,115	33,781	52,896
Colombia	48,738	64,914	113,652	2,848	2,817	5,665	18,675	20,537	39,212	20,481	22,485	42,966	6,734	19,075	25,809
China	43,516	31,310	74,826	593	431	1,024	12,589	8,243	20,832	14,175	9,008	23,183	16,159	13,628	29,787
Peru	35,718	35,228	70,946	2,074	1,921	3,995	14,556	11,876	26,432	16,153	10,988	27,141	2,935	10,443	13,378
Bolivia	25,323	44,632	69,955	469	426	895	7,392	6,425	13,817	10,485	9,464	19,949	6,977	28,317	35,294
Argentina	24,979	21,143	46,122	2,797	2,065	4,862	10,779	9,287	20,066	6,735	5,130	11,865	4,668	4,661	9,329
Ukraine	14,238	18,745	32,983	274	397	671	5,274	3,759	9,033	5,619	6,054	11,673	3,071	8,535	11,606
Dominican Republic	11,157	19,600	30,757	352	469	821	3,964	4,855	8,819	5,790	7,189	12,979	1,051	7,087	8,138
Brazil	8,940	14,738	23,678	741	643	1,384	3,465	4,442	7,907	3,454	4,358	7,812	1,280	5,295	6,575
Other countries	178,199	115,553	293,752	12,462	8,436	20,898	48,157	33,206	81,363	68,564	29,907	98,471	49,016	44,004	93,020

Note: The cases with unknown sex are included under the category Total.

TABLE IV. *Residence and work permits granted to Foreign Workers by Nationality, Skill level and Sex, 2005*

2005	Total				Highly Skilled			Skilled			Low Skilled			Researchers			Seasonal Workers			Unknown Skill level		
	Male	Female	Sex Unknown	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Total	367,435	279,930	33,297	680,662	6,180	3,752	9,932	104,249	41,249	145,498	188,104	190,003	378,107	126	89	215	2,454	1,924	37,675	66,322	42,913	109,235
EU-10 Nationals	3,972	3,401	7,771	15,144	62	91	153	1,292	693	1,985	1,486	1,605	3,091	4	0	4	771	720	9,262	357	292	649
EU-2 Nationals	74,449	60,047	22,893	157,389	460	420	880	24,353	10,387	34,740	38,581	42,167	80,748	4	1	5	942	822	24,657	10,109	6,250	16,359
Third Country Nationals	289,014	216,482	2,633	508,129	5,658	3,241	8,899	78,604	30,169	108,773	148,037	146,231	294,268	118	88	206	741	382	3,756	55,856	36,371	92,227
Ecuador	61,607	71,569	176	133,352	439	218	657	16,034	5,639	21,673	32,399	52,962	85,361	4	4	8	170	67	413	12,561	12,679	25,240
Morocco	66,317	13,897	887	81,101	504	151	655	13,260	2,051	15,311	40,557	9,129	49,686	19	2	21	35	13	935	11,942	2,551	14,493
Colombia	26,122	31,257	1,060	58,439	614	510	1,124	9,396	4,710	14,106	11,440	21,735	33,175	4	6	10	24	18	1,102	4,644	4,278	8,922
Bolivia	16,899	22,890	24	39,813	125	42	167	4,445	1,417	5,862	9,094	17,535	26,629	1	3	4	3	1	28	3,231	3,892	7,123
Argentina	12,856	10,074	15	22,945	916	514	1,430	5,774	3,064	8,838	3,434	4,791	8,225	3	10	13	16	6	37	2,713	1,689	4,402
Ukraine	9,804	10,574	118	20,496	103	92	195	3,008	1,346	4,354	5,281	7,924	13,205	1	0	1	34	57	209	1,377	1,155	2,532
China	8,805	5,631	8	14,444	259	179	438	5,123	2,594	7,717	1,342	1,544	2,886	2	0	2	64	49	121	2,015	1,265	3,280
Peru	6,960	6,300	17	13,277	253	144	397	2,504	983	3,487	3,234	4,297	7,531	3	6	9	3	2	22	963	868	1,831
Uruguay	5,547	4,454	0	10,001	201	80	281	2,252	1,043	3,295	1,609	2,472	4,081	2	0	2	3	6	9	1,480	853	2,333
Brazil	3,474	5,184	37	8,695	178	164	342	1,301	1,109	2,410	1,210	2,998	4,208	1	4	5	33	18	88	751	891	1,642
Pakistan	8,456	120	0	8,576	91	1	92	1,529	17	1,546	3,533	61	3,594	0	0	0	0	0	0	3,303	41	3,344
Senegal	6,946	659	7	7,612	75	10	85	1,092	112	1,204	4,699	455	5,154	0	0	0	0	0	7	1,080	82	1,162
Russian Federation	2,131	5,228	32	7,391	125	178	303	601	1,156	1,757	935	3,061	3,996	5	1	6	14	26	72	451	806	1,257
Venezuela	3,043	3,492	3	6,538	270	175	445	1,240	918	2,158	961	1,851	2,812	4	2	6	7	1	11	561	545	1,106
Mali	6,460	71	0	6,531	8	0	8	310	10	320	5,649	48	5,697	0	0	0	0	0	0	493	13	506
Algeria	5,712	609	0	6,321	66	18	84	996	94	1,090	4,096	420	4,516	0	0	0	3	0	3	551	77	628
Cuba	2,882	2,120	46	5,048	337	168	505	1,025	525	1,550	842	1,054	1,896	33	9	42	98	23	167	547	341	888
United States of America	216	230	3	449	97	82	179	22	41	63	23	40	63	14	7	21	18	6	27	42	54	96
Others	34,777	22,123	200	57,100	997	515	1,512	8,692	3,340	12,032	17,699	13,854	31,553	22	34	56	216	89	505	7,151	4,291	11,442

TABLE IV. *Residence and work permits granted to Foreign Workers by Nationality, Skill level and Sex, 2006*

2006	Total				Highly Skilled			Skilled			Low Skilled			Researchers			Seasonal Workers			Unknown Skill level		
	Male	Female	Sex Unknown	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Total	81,149	44,817	78,300	204,266	2,334	1,330	3,664	31,548	9,872	41,420	34,008	26,542	60,550	44	54	98	2,729	1,667	82,696	10,486	5,352	15,838
EU-10 Nationals	688	405	10,645	11,738	9	8	17	246	76	322	252	146	398	0	0	0	139	151	10,935	42	24	66
EU-2 Nationals	17,202	8,706	62,239	88,147	97	88	185	7,176	1,888	9,064	6,208	4,379	10,587	3	2	5	1,360	1,110	64,709	2,358	1,239	3,597
Third Country Nationals	63,259	35,706	5,416	104,381	2,228	1,234	3,462	24,126	7,908	32,034	27,548	22,017	49,565	41	52	93	1,230	406	7,052	8,086	4,089	12,175
Morocco	17,290	4,672	887	22,849	211	64	275	6,038	843	6,881	8,758	3,241	11,999	11	2	13	42	21	950	2,230	501	2,731
Colombia	6,677	6,159	1,004	13,840	189	182	371	2,895	1,581	4,476	2,515	3,653	6,168	7	4	11	246	105	1,355	825	634	1,459
Ecuador	6,952	4,384	176	11,512	73	56	129	2,403	786	3,189	3,238	2,928	6,166	3	0	3	64	10	250	1,171	604	1,775
Peru	5,441	4,020	13	9,474	174	114	288	2,480	783	3,263	2,448	2,876	5,324	1	1	2	4	1	18	334	245	579
China	3,303	2,406	10	5,719	109	105	214	1,890	990	2,880	850	934	1,784	1	0	1	20	22	52	433	355	788
Bolivia	2,726	1,821	9	4,556	28	9	37	1,001	204	1,205	1,307	1,441	2,748	0	2	2	2	1	12	388	164	552
Dominican Republic	1,477	2,073	51	3,601	36	20	56	651	381	1,032	591	1,356	1,947	0	1	1	3	2	56	196	313	509
Argentina	1,833	969	210	3,012	231	121	352	860	353	1,213	380	339	719	2	2	4	142	13	365	218	141	359
Ukraine	1,380	1,033	96	2,509	28	31	59	563	196	759	591	637	1,228	0	0	0	42	52	190	156	117	273
Cuba	1,394	963	73	2,430	111	59	170	494	236	730	413	503	916	5	2	7	180	19	272	191	144	335
Brazil	1,119	1,026	0	2,145	112	63	175	507	258	765	280	537	817	0	2	2	39	20	59	181	146	327
Philippines	652	993	40	1,685	10	5	15	157	111	268	449	857	1,306	1	3	4	2	0	42	33	17	50
Pakistan	1,446	26	0	1,472	25	0	25	477	13	490	677	8	685	0	0	0	0	0	0	267	5	272
Chile	860	437	23	1,320	63	23	86	410	142	552	244	208	452	0	1	1	7	1	31	136	62	198
Mexico	273	187	2	462	93	44	137	89	47	136	32	66	98	2	7	9	23	1	26	34	22	56
United States of America	140	95	16	251	94	46	140	27	12	39	9	17	26	2	7	9	3	2	21	5	11	16
Others	10,296	4,442	2,806	17,544	641	292	933	3,184	972	4,156	4,766	2,416	7,182	6	18	24	411	136	3,353	1,288	608	1,896

TABLE IV. *Residence and work permits granted to Foreign Workers by Nationality, Skill level and Sex, 2007*

2007	Total				Highly Skilled			Skilled			Low Skilled			Researchers			Seasonal Workers			Unknown Skill level		
	Male	Female	Sex Unknown	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Total	105,601	61,922	64,716	232,239	3,098	1,988	5,086	43,756	13,325	57,081	42,586	36,757	79,343	271	180	451	9,527	5,253	79,496	6,363	4,419	10,782
EU-2 Nationals	37,076	19,341	45,427	101,844	214	235	449	13,414	5,064	18,478	14,138	8,377	22,515	4	22	26	8,157	4,826	58,410	1,149	817	1,966
Third Country Nationals	68,525	42,581	19,289	130,395	2,884	1,753	4,637	30,342	8,261	38,603	28,448	28,380	56,828	267	158	425	1,370	427	21,086	5,214	3,602	8,816
Morocco	19,185	5,108	13,670	37,963	136	65	201	8,515	779	9,294	9,261	3,885	13,146	23	3	26	131	14	13,815	1,119	362	1,481
Colombia	8,183	7,024	2,154	17,361	412	355	767	3,763	1,727	5,490	3,090	4,221	7,311	20	12	32	187	30	2,371	711	679	1,390
Peru	7,793	5,541	522	13,856	230	199	429	3,547	1,177	4,724	3,375	3,803	7,178	5	10	15	240	30	792	396	322	718
Ecuador	6,033	3,755	1,239	11,027	47	41	88	2,577	722	3,299	2,540	2,513	5,053	3	2	5	214	91	1,544	652	386	1,038
Bolivia	3,100	2,835	20	5,955	45	39	84	1,467	281	1,748	1,457	2,402	3,859	0	2	2	6	0	26	125	111	236
Dominican Republic	2,345	3,449	180	5,974	57	35	92	1,119	626	1,745	974	2,556	3,530	1	1	2	2	1	183	192	230	422
China	2,689	1,877	0	4,566	141	99	240	1,247	456	1,703	994	1,071	2,065	7	6	13	22	30	52	278	215	493
Cuba	2,001	1,293	0	3,294	131	72	203	817	261	1,078	641	772	1,413	15	7	22	138	8	146	259	173	432
Philippines	995	1,882	0	2,877	13	4	17	217	117	334	721	1,732	2,453	1	0	1	7	0	7	36	29	65
Brazil	1,534	1,291	2	2,827	148	91	239	809	342	1,151	430	705	1,135	13	9	22	28	19	49	106	125	231
Argentina	1,803	1,005	420	3,228	269	146	415	890	355	1,245	359	357	716	20	13	33	105	48	573	160	86	246
Paraguay	1,080	1,655	0	2,735	20	15	35	543	208	751	492	1,380	1,872	0	0	0	1	1	2	24	51	75
Ukraine	1,254	905	97	2,256	31	24	55	586	163	749	533	620	1,153	4	0	4	19	39	155	81	59	140
Chile	1,309	614	9	1,932	133	45	178	627	200	827	366	292	658	6	5	11	5	4	18	172	68	240
Uruguay	689	369	23	1,081	66	31	97	368	138	506	173	164	337	2	3	5	11	4	38	69	29	98
Senegal	900	116	0	1,016	19	6	25	334	30	364	394	61	455	5	0	5	40	5	45	108	14	122
Venezuela	508	504	3	1,015	119	91	210	214	105	319	107	233	340	14	4	18	4	2	9	50	69	119
Mexico	445	286	8	739	214	96	310	123	69	192	38	91	129	24	15	39	32	1	41	14	14	28
United States of America	239	122	2	363	135	59	194	63	15	78	2	8	10	28	30	58	6	2	10	5	8	13
Others	6,440	2,950	940	10,330	518	240	758	2,516	490	3,006	2,501	1,514	4,015	76	36	112	172	98	1,210	657	572	1,229

TABLE IV. Residence and work permits granted to Foreign Workers by Nationality, Skill level and Sex, 2008

2008	Total				Highly Skilled			Skilled			Low Skilled			Researchers			Seasonal Workers			Unknown Skill level		
	Male	Female	Sex Unknown	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Total	107,957	80,255	41,339	229,551	5,869	3,923	9,792	38,304	15,245	53,549	33,728	41,163	74,891	397	267	664	24,947	16,558	82,844	4,712	3,099	7,811
EU-2 Nationals	42,390	29,140	22,342	93,872	148	231	379	7,647	5,181	12,828	10,885	7,415	18,300	13	16	29	23,319	16,066	61,727	378	231	609
Third Country Nationals	65,567	51,115	18,997	135,679	5,721	3,692	9,413	30,657	10,064	40,721	22,843	33,748	56,591	384	251	635	1,628	492	21,117	4,334	2,868	7,202
Morocco	14,491	5,413	13,813	33,717	222	87	309	7,611	876	8,487	5,594	4,157	9,751	7	6	13	65	3	13,881	992	284	1,276
Colombia	8,035	8,076	1,910	18,021	674	608	1,282	3,838	2,000	5,838	2,604	4,798	7,402	33	24	57	353	168	2,431	533	478	1,011
Peru	8,223	6,276	290	14,789	490	359	849	3,750	1,377	5,127	3,537	4,250	7,787	4	4	8	74	12	376	368	274	642
Ecuador	7,011	5,040	1,003	13,054	134	94	228	3,381	1,154	4,535	2,798	3,392	6,190	2	3	5	140	15	1,158	556	382	938
Bolivia	2,805	4,444	1	7,250	93	51	144	1,344	377	1,721	1,275	3,939	5,214	3	2	5	7	2	10	83	73	156
China	3,209	2,668	22	5,899	224	153	377	1,685	700	2,385	811	1,483	2,294	11	8	19	20	24	66	458	300	758
Dominican republic	1,787	3,181	67	5,035	68	78	146	1,022	633	1,655	562	2,279	2,841	0	0	0	38	8	113	97	183	280
Paraguay	1,432	2,381	1	3,814	38	19	57	764	299	1,063	557	2,017	2,574	3	0	3	36	7	44	34	39	73
Philippines	1031	2,308	270	3,609	66	36	102	257	123	380	696	2,122	2,818	0	3	3	0	0	270	12	24	36
Argentina	2,119	1,296	425	3,840	457	297	754	819	392	1,211	238	380	618	38	19	57	478	143	1,046	89	65	154
Cuba	1,839	1,360	0	3,199	237	95	332	742	269	1,011	660	851	1,511	12	3	15	25	1	26	163	141	304
Brazil	1,468	1,492	25	2,985	275	194	469	754	414	1,168	335	804	1,139	13	12	25	21	11	57	70	57	127
Chile	1,129	683	8	1,820	199	117	316	546	203	749	246	320	566	13	6	19	55	3	66	70	34	104
Ukraine	916	796	818	2,530	49	74	123	485	164	649	300	493	793	15	7	22	4	6	828	63	52	115
Mexico	786	519	14	1,319	482	276	758	162	88	250	44	99	143	49	33	82	16	0	30	33	23	56
United States of America	398	257	5	660	299	186	485	33	14	47	4	13	17	38	36	74	11	3	19	13	5	18
Others	8,888	4,925	325	14,138	1,714	968	2,682	3,464	981	4,445	2,582	2,351	4,933	143	85	228	285	86	696	700	454	1,154

TABLE IV. *Residence and work permits granted to Foreign Workers by Nationality, Skill level and Sex, 2009*

2009	Total				Highly Skilled			Skilled			Low Skilled			Researchers			Seasonal Workers			Unknown Skill level		
	Male	Female	Sex Unknown	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Total	18,596	16,603	3,394	38,593	3,989	2,579	6,568	6,470	3,173	9,643	6,549	9,743	16,292	377	246	623	465	289	4,148	746	573	1,319
Third Country Nationals	18,596	16,603	3,394	38,593	3,989	2,579	6,568	6,470	3,173	9,643	6,549	9,743	16,292	377	246	623	465	289	4,148	746	573	1,319
Morocco	3,048	1,402	1,193	5,643	123	61	184	1,136	263	1,399	1,648	1,029	2,677	21	3	24	6	0	1,199	114	46	160
Peru	1,744	2,366	199	4,309	230	208	438	667	378	1,045	762	1,664	2,426	5	4	9	10	0	209	70	112	182
Colombia	1,952	2,093	1,143	5,188	383	339	722	712	494	1,206	681	1,095	1,776	19	21	40	88	72	1,303	69	72	141
Ecuador	1,303	1,521	377	3,201	59	65	124	487	271	758	655	1,085	1,740	2	4	6	37	31	445	63	65	128
China	1,127	949	0	2,076	195	142	337	585	344	929	157	352	509	18	6	24	36	24	60	136	81	217
Bolivia	758	1,111	15	1,884	48	45	93	239	110	349	459	939	1,398	3	2	5	0	2	17	9	13	22
Philippines	459	761	0	1,220	20	13	33	218	46	264	217	693	910	1	1	2	0	0	0	3	8	11
Argentina	780	527	258	1,565	280	193	473	303	146	449	103	141	244	28	17	45	43	17	318	23	13	36
Cuba	625	510	0	1,135	203	86	289	195	150	345	182	236	418	7	7	14	2	3	5	36	28	64
Paraguay	389	704	0	1,093	33	19	52	168	100	268	175	578	753	1	2	3	7	1	8	5	4	9
Dominican Republic	339	747	15	1,101	37	57	94	179	172	351	110	488	598	0	0	0	2	2	19	11	28	39
Brazil	490	557	7	1054	197	143	340	175	113	288	87	262	349	12	14	26	14	13	34	5	12	17
Ukraine	303	426	48	777	38	72	110	115	60	175	108	217	325	6	1	7	27	69	144	9	7	16
Chile	397	304	14	715	119	70	189	149	71	220	74	142	216	18	10	28	27	4	45	10	7	17
Venezuela	347	364	3	714	204	169	373	72	83	155	38	96	134	9	4	13	16	2	21	8	10	18
Mexico	430	287	1	718	328	212	540	36	28	64	13	13	26	35	24	59	11	1	13	7	9	16
India	516	150	0	666	198	70	268	125	24	149	155	41	196	31	12	43	0	0	0	7	3	10
Russian Federation	128	254	5	387	61	70	131	19	56	75	13	86	99	14	18	32	16	18	39	5	6	11
United States of America	517	167	2	686	436	124	560	13	3	16	3	1	4	57	38	95	5	0	7	3	1	4
Others	2,944	1,403	114	4,461	797	421	1,218	877	261	1,138	909	585	1,494	90	58	148	118	30	262	153	48	201

TABLE V. *Residence and work permits granted to Foreign Workers by Occupation, group of Nationality and Sex, 2005*

1 of 2

2005		Total				EU-10 Nationals			EU-2 Nationals			Third Country Nationals		
		Male	Female	Sex Unknown	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
ALL OCCUPATIONS														
Total		367,435	279,930	33,297	680,662	3,972	3,401	15,144	74,449	60,047	157,389	289,014	216,482	508,129
SPECIFIC OCCUPATIONS SELECTED FOR THE EMN STUDY														
Total		21,284	22,279	0	43,563	122	401	523	2,793	6,691	9,484	18,369	15,187	33,556
Housekeeping and restaurant services workers	Total	70	37	0	107	0	0	0	7	10	17	63	27	90
	Housekeepers and related workers	7,351	7,809	0	15,160	26	100	126	755	2,275	3,030	6,570	5,434	12,004
	Cooks	13,863	14,433	0	28,296	96	301	397	2,031	4,406	6,437	11,736	9,726	21,462
	Waiters, waitresses and partenders	330	1,346	0	1,676	2	13	15	31	194	225	297	1,139	1,436
Personal care and related workers	Total	97	918	0	1,015	0	3	3	10	138	148	87	777	864
	Child-care workers	140	247	0	387	0	9	9	11	23	34	129	215	344
	Institution-based personal care workers	74	166	0	240	1	1	2	7	30	37	66	135	201
	Home-based personal care workers	19	15	0	34	1	0	1	3	3	6	15	12	27
	Personal care and related workers not elsewhere classified	236	151	0	387	3	1	4	4	5	9	229	145	374
Health professionals (except nursing)	Total	236	151	0	387	3	1	4	4	5	9	229	145	374
	Medical doctors	22	83	0	105	0	1	1	2	13	15	20	69	89
Nursing and midwifery professionals	Total	22	83	0	105	0	1	1	2	13	15	20	69	89
	Nursing and midwifery professionals	81,862	4,780	0	86,642	857	109	966	22,655	1,649	24,304	58,350	3,022	61,372
Other	Total	4,751	436	0	5,187	101	20	121	1,321	208	1,529	3,329	208	3,537
	Skilled Agricultural and Fishery Workers	191	42	0	233	4	1	5	8	2	10	179	39	218
	Architects, Engineers and related professionals	117	144	0	261	0	6	6	5	9	14	112	129	241
	Teaching personnel	76,803	4,158	0	80,961	752	82	834	21,321	1,430	22,751	54,730	2,646	57,376
	Labourers in Mining, Construction, Manufacturing and Transport	76,803	4,158	0	80,961	752	82	834	21,321	1,430	22,751	54,730	2,646	57,376

TABLE V. *Residence and work permits granted to Foreign Workers by Occupation, group of Nationality and Sex, 2005*

2 of 2

2005		Total				EU-10 Nationals			EU-2 Nationals			Third Country Nationals		
		Male	Female	Sex Unknown	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
OTHER OCCUPATIONS IN THE SPANISH LABOUR MARKET														
Total		263,701	251,291	33,297	548,289	2,988	2,876	13,635	48,964	51,495	123,352	211,749	196,920	411,302
Other relevant occupations	Total	164,002	196,399	0	360,401	1,899	2,290	4,189	30,679	42,802	73,481	131,424	151,307	282,731
	Management of companies with 10 or more employees	289	126	0	415	2	1	3	2	7	9	285	118	403
	Professionals in business organisations, professionals in social and human sciences associated to 2 nd - and 3 rd -cycle university degrees	182	222	0	404	7	13	20	13	27	40	162	182	344
	Other professions associated to a 1 st -cycle university degree	93	58	0	151	2	0	2	6	3	9	85	55	140
	Technicians in physical and chemical science as well as engineering	861	190	0	1,051	18	5	23	104	16	120	739	169	908
	Support professionals in financial and commercial operations	2,071	1,077	0	3,148	11	21	32	137	121	258	1,923	935	2,858
	Other support technicians and professionals	1,307	673	0	1,980	86	49	135	108	70	178	1,113	554	1,667
	Retail workers and the like	10,559	6,711	0	17,270	32	87	119	787	1,007	1,794	9,740	5,617	15,357
	Workers in structural construction works and the like	26,920	272	0	27,192	346	4	350	8,571	99	8,670	18,003	169	18,172
	Workers skilled in finishing construction works and the like; painters and the like	13,201	546	0	13,747	146	7	153	3,639	172	3,811	9,416	367	9,783
	House personal services employees and other building indoor cleaning personnel	30,548	167,748	0	198,296	56	803	859	3,577	34,863	38,440	26,915	132,082	158,997
	Unskilled agriculture and fishing labour	77,971	18,776	0	96,747	1,193	1,300	2,493	13,735	6,417	20,152	63,043	11,059	74,102
Others		33,246	11,792	0	45,038	695	207	902	8,157	2,409	10,566	24,394	9,176	33,570
Occupation Unknown	Total	66,453	43,100	33,297	142,850	394	379	8,544	10,128	6,284	39,305	55,931	36,437	95,001
	Of which Seasonal workers	—	—	33,297	33,297	—	—	7,771	—	—	22,893	—	—	2,633

TABLE V. *Residence and work permits granted to Foreign Workers by Occupation, group of Nationality and Sex, 2006*

1 of 2

2006		Total				EU-10 Nationals			EU-2 Nationals			Third Country Nationals		
		Male	Female	Sex Unknown	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
ALL OCCUPATIONS														
Total		81,149	44,817	78,300	204,266	688	405	11,738	17,202	8,706	88,147	63,259	35,706	104,381
SPECIFIC OCCUPATIONS SELECTED FOR THE EMN STUDY														
Total		23,662	6,745	0	30,407	200	59	259	4,620	1,577	6,197	18,842	5,109	23,951
Housekeeping and restaurant services workers	Total	5,702	5,013	0	10,715	8	47	55	476	1,205	1,681	5,218	3,761	8,979
	Housekeepers and related workers	38	11	0	49	0	0	0	1	3	4	37	8	45
	Cooks	2,206	1,711	0	3,917	6	8	14	144	438	582	2,056	1,265	3,321
	Waiters, waitresses and partenders	3,458	3,291	0	6,749	2	39	41	331	764	1,095	3,125	2,488	5,613
Personal care and related workers	Total	110	482	0	592	0	0	0	6	25	31	104	457	561
	Child-care workers	14	87	0	101	0	0	0	2	13	15	12	74	86
	Institution-based personal care workers	67	340	0	407	0	0	0	2	2	4	65	338	403
	Home-based personal care workers	24	47	0	71	0	0	0	2	9	11	22	38	60
	Personal care and related workers not elsewhere classified	5	8	0	13	0	0	0	0	1	1	5	7	12
Health professionals (except nursing)	Total	147	81	0	228	3	0	3	4	5	9	140	76	216
	Medical doctors	147	81	0	228	3	0	3	4	5	9	140	76	216
Nursing and midwifery professionals	Total	31	55	0	86	0	0	0	1	0	1	30	55	85
	Nursing and midwifery professionals	31	55	0	86	0	0	0	1	0	1	30	55	85
Other	Total	17,672	1,114	0	18,786	189	12	201	4,133	342	4,475	13,350	760	14,110
	Skilled Agricultural and Fishery Workers	2,052	182	0	2,234	6	1	7	582	80	662	1,464	101	1,565
	Architects, Engineers and related professionals	81	17	0	98	1	0	1	2	1	3	78	16	94
	Teaching personnel	34	44	0	78	0	0	0	1	4	5	33	40	73
	Labourers in Mining, Construction, Manufacturing and Transport	15,505	871	0	16,376	182	11	193	3,548	257	3,805	11,775	603	12,378

TABLE V. *Residence and work permits granted to Foreign Workers by Occupation, group of Nationality and Sex, 2006*

2 of 2

2006		Total				EU-10 Nationals			EU-2 Nationals			Third Country Nationals		
		Male	Female	Sex Unknown	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
OTHER OCCUPATIONS IN THE SPANISH LABOUR MARKET														
Total		57,487	38,072	78,300	173,859	488	346	11,479	12,582	7,129	81,950	44,417	30,597	80,430
Other relevant occupations	Total	35,950	29,393	0	65,343	291	296	587	7,324	5,335	12,659	28,335	23,762	52,097
	Management of companies with 10 or more employees	252	74	0	326	0	0	0	5	3	8	247	71	318
	Professionals in business organisations, professionals in social and human sciences associated to 2 nd - and 3 rd -cycle university degrees	82	79	0	161	0	2	2	2	6	8	80	71	151
	Other professions associated to a 1 st -cycle university degree	27	26	0	53	0	0	0	1	1	2	26	25	51
	Technicians in physical and chemical science as well as engineering	319	79	0	398	0	2	2	22	4	26	297	73	370
	Support professionals in financial and commercial operations	554	275	0	829	1	1	2	21	25	46	532	249	781
	Other support technicians and professionals	743	364	0	1,107	28	12	40	97	94	191	618	258	876
	Retail workers and the like	2,651	1,620	0	4,271	2	5	7	87	118	205	2,562	1,497	4,059
	Workers in structural construction works and the like	8,506	91	0	8,597	43	0	43	2,345	32	2,377	6,118	59	6,177
	Workers skilled in finishing construction works and the like; painters and the like	4,085	212	0	4,297	38	1	39	1,128	45	1,173	2,919	166	3,085
	House personal services employees and other building indoor cleaning personnel	7,271	22,596	0	29,867	6	59	65	478	3,311	3,789	6,787	19,226	26,013
	Unskilled agriculture and fishing labour	11,460	3,977	0	15,437	173	214	387	3,138	1,696	4,834	8,149	2,067	10,216
Others		10,986	3,292	0	14,278	155	26	181	2,879	548	3,427	7,952	2,718	10,670
Occupation Unknown	Total	10,551	5,387	78,300	94,238	42	24	10,711	2,379	1,246	65,864	8,130	4,117	17,663
	Of which Seasonal workers	—	—	78,300	78,300	—	—	10,645	—	—	62,239	—	—	5,416

TABLE V. Residence and work permits granted to Foreign Workers by Occupation, group of Nationality and Sex, 2007

1 of 2

2207		Total				EU-2 Nationals			Third Country Nationals		
		Male	Female	Sex Unknown	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
ALL OCCUPATIONS											
Total		105,601	61,922	64,716	232,239	37,076	19,341	101,844	68,525	42,581	130,395
SPECIFIC OCCUPATIONS SELECTED FOR THE EMN STUDY											
Total		33,192	11,834	0	45,026	13,162	5,952	19,114	20,030	5,882	25,912
Housekeeping and restaurant services workers	Total	6,744	7,512	0	14,256	1,222	3,467	4,689	5,522	4,045	9,567
	Housekeepers and related workers	16	4	0	20	0	2	2	16	2	18
	Cooks	2,742	2,843	0	5,585	355	1,307	1,662	2,387	1,536	3,923
	Waiters, waitresses and partenders	3,986	4,665	0	8,651	867	2,158	3,025	3,119	2,507	5,626
Personal care and related workers	Total	161	711	0	872	13	142	155	148	569	717
	Child-care workers	22	214	0	236	4	89	93	18	125	143
	Institution-based personal care workers	115	429	0	544	3	32	35	112	397	509
	Home-based personal care workers	20	66	0	86	6	21	27	14	45	59
	Personal care and related workers not elsewhere classified	4	2	0	6	0	0	0	4	2	6
Health professionals (except nursing)	Total	346	235	0	581	4	4	8	342	231	573
	Medical doctors	346	235	0	581	4	4	8	342	231	573
Nursing and midwifery professionals	Total	40	183	0	223	3	38	41	37	145	182
	Nursing and midwifery professionals	40	183	0	223	3	38	41	37	145	182
Other	Total	25,901	3,193	0	29,094	11,920	2,301	14,221	13,981	892	14,873
	Skilled Agricultural and Fishery Workers	5,882	1,851	0	7,733	4,419	1,731	6,150	1,463	120	1,583
	Architects, Engineers and related professionals	203	49	0	252	10	3	13	193	46	239
	Teaching personnel	87	100	0	187	3	10	13	84	90	174
	Labourers in Mining, Construction, Manufacturing and Transport	19,729	1,193	0	20,922	7,488	557	8,045	12,241	636	12,877

TABLE V. *Residence and work permits granted to Foreign Workers by Occupation, group of Nationality and Sex, 2007*

2 of 2

2207		Total				EU-2 Nationals			Third Country Nationals		
		Male	Female	Sex Unknown	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
OTHER OCCUPATIONS IN THE SPANISH LABOUR MARKET											
Total		72,409	50,088	64,716	187,213	23,914	13,389	82,730	48,495	36,699	104,483
Other relevant occupations	Total	49,864	41,082	0	90,946	17,334	11,136	28,470	32,530	29,946	62,476
	Management of companies with 10 or more employees	293	89	0	382	2	5	7	291	84	375
	Professionals in business organisations, professionals in social and human sciences associated to 2 nd - and 3 rd -cycle university degrees	178	154	0	332	4	25	29	174	129	303
	Other professions associated to a 1 st -cycle university degree	102	99	0	201	1	2	3	101	97	198
	Technicians in physical and chemical science as well as engineering	785	159	0	944	90	15	105	695	144	839
	Support professionals in financial and commercial operations	399	299	0	698	21	29	50	378	270	648
	Other support technicians and professionals	686	352	0	1,038	50	41	91	636	311	947
	Retail workers and the like	2,012	1,793	0	3,805	210	394	604	1,802	1,399	3,201
	Workers in structural construction works and the like	12,853	172	0	13,025	4,179	69	4,248	8,674	103	8,777
	Workers skilled in finishing construction works and the like; painters and the like	6,680	282	0	6,962	2,317	95	2,412	4,363	187	4,550
	House personal services employees and other building indoor cleaning personnel	8,698	30,396	0	39,094	598	4,947	5,545	8,100	25,449	33,549
	Unskilled agriculture and fishing labour	17,178	7,287	0	24,465	9,862	5,514	15,376	7,316	1,773	9,089
Others		16,126	4,541	0	20,667	5,419	1,423	6,842	10,707	3,118	13,825
Occupation Unknown	Total	6,419	4,465	64,716	75,600	1,161	830	47,418	5,258	3,635	28,182
	Of which Seasonal workers	—	—	64,716	64,716	—	—	45,427	—	—	19,289

TABLE V. Residence and work permits granted to Foreign Workers by Occupation, group of Nationality and Sex, 2008

1 of 2

2008		Total				EU-2 Nationals			Third Country Nationals		
		Male	Female	Sex Unknown	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
ALL OCCUPATIONS											
Total		107,956	80,256	41,339	229,551	42,393	29,146	93,881	65,563	51,110	135,670
SPECIFIC OCCUPATIONS SELECTED FOR THE EMN STUDY											
Total		29,055	14,736	0	43,791	13,574	8,028	21,602	15,481	6,708	22,189
Housekeeping and restaurant services workers	Total	7,104	8,256	0	15,360	1,027	3,575	4,602	6,077	4,681	10,758
	Housekeepers and related workers	12	6	0	18	0	1	1	12	5	17
	Cooks	2,757	2,720	0	5,477	265	1,111	1,376	2,492	1,609	4,101
	Waiters, waitresses and partenders	4,335	5,530	0	9,865	762	2,463	3,225	3,573	3,067	6,640
Personal care and related workers	Total	202	599	0	801	7	110	117	195	489	684
	Child-care workers	46	234	0	280	2	39	41	44	195	239
	Institution-based personal care workers	133	306	0	439	4	43	47	129	263	392
	Home-based personal care workers	16	55	0	71	1	27	28	15	28	43
	Personal care and related workers not elsewhere classified	7	4	0	11	0	1	1	7	3	10
Health professionals (except nursing)	Total	652	482	0	1,134	5	20	25	647	462	1,109
	Medical doctors	652	482	0	1,134	5	20	25	647	462	1,109
Nursing and midwifery professionals	Total	57	235	0	292	1	25	26	56	210	266
	Nursing and midwifery professionals	57	235	0	292	1	25	26	56	210	266
Other	Total	21,040	5,164	0	26,204	12,534	4,298	16,832	8,506	866	9,372
	Skilled Agricultural and Fishery Workers	8,838	3,902	0	12,740	7,598	3,785	11,383	1,240	117	1,357
	Architects, Engineers and related professionals	260	56	0	316	11	3	14	249	53	302
	Teaching personnel	147	176	0	323	4	10	14	143	166	309
	Labourers in Mining, Construction, Manufacturing and Transport	11,795	1,030	0	12,825	4,921	500	5,421	6,874	530	7,404

TABLE V. *Residence and work permits granted to Foreign Workers by Occupation, group of Nationality and Sex, 2008*

2 of 2

2008		Total				EU-2 Nationals			Third Country Nationals		
		Male	Female	Sex Unknown	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
OTHER OCCUPATIONS IN THE SPANISH LABOUR MARKET											
Total		78,901	65,520	41,339	185,760	28,819	21,115	72,279	50,083	44,404	113,481
Other relevant occupations	Total	57,594	57,124	0	114,718	24,943	19,748	44,691	32,651	37,376	70,027
	Management of companies with 10 or more employees	611	393	0	1,004	3	6	9	608	387	995
	Professionals in business organisations, professionals in social and human sciences associated to 2 nd - and 3 rd -cycle university degrees	219	235	0	454	5	15	20	214	220	434
	Other professions associated to a 1 st -cycle university degree	239	277	0	516	1	4	5	238	273	511
	Technicians in physical and chemical science as well as engineering	1,841	571	0	2,412	43	5	48	1,798	566	2,364
	Support professionals in financial and commercial operations	474	375	0	849	29	39	68	445	336	781
	Other support technicians and professionals	819	469	0	1,288	32	24	56	787	445	1,232
	Retail workers and the like	2,337	2,612	0	4,949	201	482	683	2,136	2,130	4,266
	Workers in structural construction works and the like	8,802	140	0	8,942	2,048	45	2,093	6,754	95	6,849
	Workers skilled in finishing construction works and the like; painters and the like	5,770	254	0	6,024	999	95	1,094	4,771	159	4,930
	House personal services employees and other building indoor cleaning personnel	9,496	34,205	0	43,701	396	3,654	4,050	9,100	30,551	39,651
	Unskilled agriculture and fishing labour	26,986	17,593	0	44,579	21,186	15,379	36,565	5,800	2,214	8,014
Others		16,507	5,239	0	21,746	3,461	1,096	4,557	13,046	4,143	17,189
Occupation Unknown	Total	4,800	3,157	41,339	49,296	415	271	23,031	4,386	2,885	26,265
	Of which Seasonal workers	—	—	41,339	41,339	—	—	22,345	—	—	18,994

TABLE V. Residence and work permits granted to Foreign Workers by Occupation, group of Nationality and Sex, 2009

1 of 2

2009		Total				Third Country Nationals		
		Male	Female	Sex Unknown	Total	Male	Female	Total
ALL OCCUPATIONS								
Total		18,596	16,603	3,394	38,593	18,596	16,603	38,593
SPECIFIC OCCUPATIONS SELECTED FOR THE EMN STUDY								
Total		4,406	2,319	0	6,725	4,406	2,319	6,725
Housekeeping and restaurant services workers	Total	1,763	1,365	0	3,128	1,763	1,365	3,128
	Housekeepers and related workers	8	2	0	10	8	2	10
	Cooks	744	428	0	1,172	744	428	1,172
	Waiters, waitresses and partenders	1,011	935	0	1,946	1,011	935	1,946
Personal care and related workers	Total	34	122	0	156	34	122	156
	Child-care workers	0	17	0	17	0	17	17
	Institution-based personal care workers	16	66	0	82	16	66	82
	Home-based personal care workers	13	35	0	48	13	35	48
	Personal care and related workers not elsewhere classified	5	4	0	9	5	4	9
Health professionals (except nursing)	Total	525	365	0	890	525	365	890
	Medical doctors	525	365	0	890	525	365	890
Nursing and midwifery professionals	Total	22	97	0	119	22	97	119
	Nursing and midwifery professionals	22	97	0	119	22	97	119
Other	Total	2,062	370	0	2,432	2,062	370	2,432
	Skilled Agricultural and Fishery Workers	371	33	0	404	371	33	404
	Architects, Engineers and related professionals	186	47	0	233	186	47	233
	Teaching personnel	96	116	0	212	96	116	212
	Labourers in Mining, Construction, Manufacturing and Transport	1,409	174	0	1,583	1,409	174	1,583

TABLE V. *Residence and work permits granted to Foreign Workers by Occupation, group of Nationality and Sex, 2009*

2 of 2

2009		Total				Third Country Nationals		
		Male	Female	Sex Unknown	Total	Male	Female	Total
OTHER OCCUPATIONS IN THE SPANISH LABOUR MARKET								
Total		14,190	14,284	3,394	31,868	14,190	14,284	31,868
Other relevant occupations	Total	9,854	12,041	0	21,895	9,854	12,041	21,895
	Management of companies with 10 or more employees	518	280	0	798	518	280	798
	Professionals in business organisations, professionals in social and human sciences associated to 2 nd - and 3 rd -cycle university degrees	147	172	0	319	147	172	319
	Other professions associated to a 1 st -cycle university degree	228	281	0	509	228	281	509
	Technicians in physical and chemical science as well as engineering	1,080	343	0	1,423	1,080	343	1,423
	Support professionals in financial and commercial operations	224	165	0	389	224	165	389
	Other support technicians and professionals	615	325	0	940	615	325	940
	Retail workers and the like	760	790	0	1,550	760	790	1,550
	Workers in structural construction works and the like	812	18	0	830	812	18	830
	Workers skilled in finishing construction works and the like; painters and the like	468	22	0	490	468	22	490
	House personal services employees and other building indoor cleaning personnel	2,419	8,805	0	11,224	2,419	8,805	11,224
	Unskilled agriculture and fishing labour	2,583	840	0	3,423	2,583	840	3,423
Others		3,577	1,667	0	5,244	3,577	1,667	5,244
Occupation Unknown	Total	759	576	3,394	4,729	759	576	4,729
	Of which Seasonal workers	—	—	3,394	3,394	—	—	3,394

