



IOM International Organization for Migration



Gudrun Biffl

SATISFYING LABOUR DEMAND THROUGH MIGRATION IN AUSTRIA

**Study of the National Contact Point Austria
in the European Migration Network**

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REPUBLIC OF AUSTRIA
FEDERAL MINISTRY OF THE INTERIOR

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**Satisfying Labour Demand
Through Migration in Austria**

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The opinions presented in the national study are those of the author and do not necessarily represent the position of the Austrian Federal Ministry of the Interior and of the International Organization for Migration.

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EMN Information

The EMN was launched in 2003 as a pilot project and was formally established by Council Decision 2008/381/EC¹ in May 2008. “As stipulated in Council Decision 2008/381/EC, the objective of the [...] EMN is to meet the information needs of Union institutions and of Member States’ authorities and institutions on migration and asylum, by providing up-to-date, objective, reliable and comparable information on migration and asylum, with a view to supporting policymaking in the European Union in these areas. The EMN will also serve to provide the wider public with such information.”²

The EMN is co-ordinated by the European Commission (under the direct responsibility of the Directorate General Home Affairs) with the assistance of two service providers,³ and is overseen by the EMN Steering Board. The EMN Steering Board is chaired by the Commission and consists of representatives from each Member State,⁴ observers from Denmark and Norway⁵, and the European Parliament. At present the EMN consists of 27 National Contact Points (NCP), which are established in 26 EU Member States, and which were designated by the government of the respective Member State. Denmark as an EU Member State has observer status, but no NNCP has been established; in contrast Norway while not being an EU Member State, has observer status and established an active NCP.

- 1 Council Decision of 14 May 2008 establishing a European Migration Network (2008/381/EC).
- 2 European Commission, EMN Status Report 2009, Version 1, April 2010, p.6.
- 3 In 2009, the European Commission appointed GHK-COWI and iLiCONN as Service Providers. GHK-COWI is responsible for the coordination of the network and to produce the Synthesis Reports, iLiCONN for the Information Exchange System and the Website.
- 4 Initially Ireland did not participate in the adoption of the Council Decision in May 2008, instead notifying its willingness to opt-in in July 2008. This was finally concluded through Commission Decision C(2009)2708 and published in the Official Journal (L108/53 of 29th April 2009).
- 5 Denmark and Norway are officially observers and take part in the EMN on a voluntary basis.

In Austria the EMN NCP is based at the International Organization for Migration (IOM) in Vienna.⁶ The core activities of the EMN NCPs include the preparation of Annual Policy Reports and Annual Reports on Asylum and Migration Statistics, undertaking research and draft studies addressing policy developments, issuing ad-hoc queries and responding promptly to such requests from other EMN NCPs. Furthermore, the NCPs are establishing a national network composed of national organisations, institutions and individuals active in the area of migration and asylum.

The EMN Studies such as “Satisfying labour demand through migration” are developed according to common specifications in order to provide European wide comparable findings. To support the comparability of the outputs, an EMN Glossary has been launched, which ensures that similar terminology is used in the national reports.

Specifications for studies and reports are developed by the EMN NCPs in co-operation with the European Commission and its service providers. Using these, each EMN NCP produces a national report. A synthesis report is then prepared providing the key findings from each national report, highlighting the most important aspects and placing them within an EU perspective. All national and synthesis reports are available at the EMN website.⁷

6 More information on the EMN NCP AT is available at www.emn.at and information on the International Organisation for Migration (IOM) Vienna is available at www.iomvienna.at

7 More information on the EMN is available at www.emn.europa.eu

Table Of Contents

FOREWORD	9
EXECUTIVE SUMMARY	11
1. INTRODUCTION: PURPOSE AND METHODOLOGY	13
1.1 Purpose	13
1.2 Methodology	14
1.3 Definitions	14
2. APPROACH TO ECONOMIC MIGRATION IN AUSTRIA	18
2.1 National Vision and Policy	19
2.2 Legislative and Institutional Framework	23
2.3 Political Debate and Involvement of Stakeholders	27
3. APPROACH TO IMPLEMENTING ECONOMIC MIGRATION POLICY	28
3.1 Implementation of Economic Policy and Legislation	28
3.2 Statistics and Trends	34
3.2.1 Statistics on the labour market and migration	35
3.2.2 Analysis of trends and relevant developments	50
4. CO-OPERATION WITH THIRD COUNTRIES FOR ECONOMIC MIGRATION	53
5. ANALYSIS AND CONCLUSIONS	54
6. ANNEX	55
I. Bibliography	55
II. Statistical data	58

Table of figures

Figure 1: Net migration of Austrians and foreigners 1983-2009	19
Table 1: Total stock of workers in the ISCO-88 Major Groups 1-9 by groups of citizenship, 2009	34
Table 2: Main category of employment of workers by groups of citizenship, 2009	35
Table 3: Workers by groups of citizenship and main category of employment, 2009	36
Table 4: Workers by groups of citizenship and main category of employment by sex, 2009	40
Table 5: The top 4 migrant worker groups by skill level, 2009	41
Table 6: Annual inflow of settlers and temporary residents of third countries. Residence Permits issued in the course of the years 2002-2008, Annual Sum by end of December	43
Table 7: Sum of settlement permits granted to citizens of third countries (Non-EEA/CH) by residence status and sex. First January to end of December	45
Table 8: Sum of temporary residence permits granted to citizens of third countries (Non-EEA/CH) by residence status and sex. First January to end of December	47

Foreword

Dear Reader,

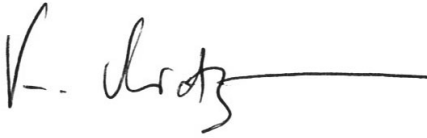
The present study has been produced within the European Migration Network. It provides an overview of the legal background, political and economic measures and the employment situation of different groups of migrant workers in Austria. The focus is on the situation of third-country nationals (EU internal mobility is also an issue as it plays an important role in Austria) over the years 2004-2009.

After an introduction and the description of the methodology and terminology in the first chapter, economic migration in Austria is portrayed in the second chapter, including national policy, the legal and institutional framework as well as the political debate and the position of various stakeholders. The third chapter summarises basic approaches to the implementation of economic migration in Austria, focusing on current statistics and data. After the presentation of co-operations with third countries in the fourth chapter, a short analysis and conclusions follow in the fifth chapter.

The National Contact Points in the European Migration Network produced studies on “Satisfying Labour Demand through Migration”, providing an overview over developments in the respective Member States. These studies serve as a basis for the synthesis report, which is compiled by the European Commission and which offers insights into the different situations of the various European countries. Both the national report and the synthesis report offer an objective, scientifically reliable perspective over labour migration in Europe.

The present Austrian report was written by Prof. Dr. Gudrun Biffl, head of the Department for Migration and Globalisation at the Danube University Krems and expert in the field of economic migration in Austria. Anna Faustmann and Isabella Skrivaneck provided support as research assistants. Special thanks go also to Elisabeth Petzl and Mária Temesvári for the support in the preparation process of the publication and Katharina Benedetter for text editing, all from the National Contact Point Austria.

All people involved performed their tasks with professionalism, diligence, great commitment and team spirit. To all of them I express my gratitude and a warm thank you.

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read 'K. Kratzmann', followed by a long horizontal line.

Dr. Katerina Kratzmann
Head of Research, IOM Vienna

Executive Summary

The study identifies the degree to which migrants from the EU and third countries contribute to the satisfaction of labour demand in the various skill levels in Austria in the period after the enlargement of the EU in 2004. The information is taken from the annual labour force survey (4th quarter) for the years 2004-2009, discerning three skill groups, the highly skilled, the skilled and the low skilled workers (15-64 year olds). In addition, researchers and seasonal workers who are special target groups of migration policy are taken into account.

The early beginnings of migration policy in the context of labour migration go back to the so-called “guest worker model” of the 1960s, which focused on satisfying labour demand and reducing labour scarcities. The main source countries were Non-EU member states, in the main from the region of former Yugoslavia and Turkey. The position today is different. Increasingly migrants from other EU MS come to Austria to take up jobs, even though workers from the new EU MS do not yet enjoy the right to free movement of labour. They may enter the labour market on the basis of labour market testing, thereby responding to labour scarcities and skill needs of the labour market. After one year of work in Austria, they also enjoy free labour movement, just as citizens of the EU-15. Mobility of labour within the EU is the main driving force behind immigration to Austria. Some 60% of the annual net inflow of migrants accrues to the EU-27. The rest is the result of family reunification and humanitarian intake of third-country citizens together with a small inflow of highly skilled economic migrants from third countries.

Austria is currently rethinking its migration policy by discussing options to raise the inflow of highly skilled migrants in general and of highly skilled third-country nationals in particular. A reorientation of migration policy towards the highly skilled is expected to alleviate pressures on public budgets arising from population ageing on the one hand and to speed up the transition from an industrial to a knowledge society on the other.

Austria is well suited to establish skill shortages on the labour market, an important ingredient of any immigration model targeting skilled migrant workers. A major point in question remains, however, why Austria

has so far not been able to attract larger numbers of highly skilled economic migrants for settlement.

The support of immigration is not unanimous; right wing political parties are strongly opposing further immigration, and unions have until very recently not been in favour of immigration for fear of downward pressure on wages and working conditions.

As far as facts and figures are concerned, Austria features among the EU MS with a particularly high proportion of migrants in the work force. In 2009 10.6% of total employment⁸ were foreign citizens and close to 20% were foreign born. Workers from another EU-15 country are on average the best skilled group; followed by persons from the new EU MS. Third-country citizens have an above average share of low skilled labourers. However, in the course of the last five years, the skill composition of persons from the EU has deteriorated while the contrary is true for third country migrants. Accordingly, the policy to promote immigration of highly skilled third-country citizens, which has been pursued since 2003, has been successful. It is a rather slow process, however, requiring migration policy reform in order to raise the annual high skilled economic migrant intake. This is what the current government aims at when planning to amend the immigration model by bringing in employer nomination schemes targeting highly skilled economic migrants.

8 Excluding military personnel (ISCO Major Group 0).

1. Introduction: Purpose and Methodology

1.1 Purpose

The aim of this study is to provide insight into the occupational and skill composition of migrant workers in Austria. Migrants are defined as persons with another than the Austrian citizenship. The study differentiates, where possible, between EU-15, EU-10, EU-2 citizens and citizens of third-countries. This study is intended for policy makers at the national and European level, particularly in the labour market sphere, as well as interest groups, research institutions in the field of migration and civil society at large.

The report clarifies what type of occupations and skill levels enter Austria from within Europe, where free mobility of labour and therefore market conditions drive labour mobility. It informs also about the occupational and skill composition of migrants of third countries, who enter Austria either as labour migrants, who fulfil the requirements of the highly skilled immigration programme (Schlüsselkraftverfahren), or as family members. A minor group of migrants enters as refugees according to the Geneva Convention, or as asylum seekers; the latter may join the labour force as temporary workers.

An in depth understanding of the skill composition of migrant labour is a precondition for the design of an effective immigration policy. Currently, Austria is discussing the introduction of criteria along the lines of the UK to promote the inflow of highly skilled third country migrants – on the one hand to speed up the transition from an industrial society to a knowledge society, on the other to combat population ageing. While population ageing is a strong argument for a larger migrant intake, the current skill mix represents a challenge for integration policy, above all education and labour market policy. While immigration may postpone the slowdown of labour supply growth, it does not resolve the problem of qualitative aging, i.e. the skills implications of an older work force. Therefore, a rethinking of immigration policy towards a larger high-skill intake has set in since the end of the 1990s.

1.2 Methodology

This national report was produced by Prof Dr. Gudrun Biffl. The Labour Force Survey is the only data source which allows the differentiation by occupation and the concomitant skill levels. Accordingly, Statistics Austria provided the anonymised data files of the labour force surveys of 2004-2009; Mag. Anna Faustmann and MMag. Isabella Skrivaneck processed the data (via SPSS) by occupation and skill level, and filled out the statistical tables at the end of the report.⁹ Where necessary, other sources of data are included or referenced, in particular social security data (which only differentiates data by industry), data from the central population register of Statistics Austria (POPREG), and inflow data of third-country citizens of the Federal Ministry of the Interior.

This report is the first of its kind in Austria, identifying occupations and skills of foreign citizens by region and the ten most important source countries, in view of implementing migration and other policies conducive to attract highly skilled (third country) migrants. It is an important complement to the recent collaborative study (Biffl et al. 2010) of the Danube University Krems (DUK) and the Institute of Advanced Studies (IHS), which looked into the contribution of increased skilled migration to economic growth and the degree of alleviation of the pressure on public budgets arising from ageing.¹⁰

1.3 Definitions

The following definitions serve as a basis for the terminology of the study:

Economic Migrant:¹¹ Person(s) who leave/s its (their) country of origin purely for economic reasons, not in any way related to the refugee defi-

9 It has to be kept in mind that the small sample size of the Labour Force Survey (1% of households) does not always provide reliable information on the employment level of sub-groups and sub-categories of occupations by nationality. Shaded figures inform about problems associated with small sample size.

10 Biffl, G., Skrivaneck, I., Berger, J., Hofer, H., Schuh, U., Strohnner, L.: Potentielle Auswirkungen einer Änderung der österreichischen Migrationspolitik in Richtung qualifizierte Zuwanderung auf das mittel- bis langfristige Wirtschaftswachstum (Prognosehorizont 2050), DUK-IHS-Report, Krems, 2010.

11 Instead of this term an alternative terminology is used in the German version of this report namely 'migrant worker' (Arbeitsmigrant) which meets the German context better.

dition, or in order to seek material improvements in their livelihood. (EMN Glossary)¹²

Labour Migration: Movement of persons from their home State to another State for the purpose of employment. Labour migration is addressed by most States in their migration laws. In addition, some States take an active role in regulating outward labour migration and seeking opportunities for their nationals abroad. (IOM Glossary on Migration)¹³

Employed persons: The definition of Employment follows the LFS criteria,¹⁴ i.e. employed persons are aged 15-64, who during the reference week performed work, for one hour a week or more, for pay, profit or gain or who were not at work but had a job or business from which they were temporarily absent because of, e.g., illness, holidays, industrial dispute or education and training. The term worker is used as a synonym for employed persons.

In order to provide a common framework for the study to facilitate comparability, the following five broad categorisations are used:

- a) Highly skilled
- b) Skilled
- c) Low skilled
- d) Researchers
- e) Seasonal workers

Throughout the text, these are referred to as 'economic migrants'. Each of these categorisations is elaborated in turn below.

12 European Migration Network: Asylum and Migration Glossary, Brussels, 2010, available at www.emn.at/images/stories/EMN_GLOSSARY_Publication_Version_January_2010.pdf

13 International Organization for Migration: Glossary on Migration, Geneva, 2004, available at www.iom.int/jahia/webdav/site/myjahiasite/shared/shared/mainsite/published_docs/serial_publications/Glossary_eng.pdf

14 EUROSTAT, Definitions for employment and unemployment (LFS), available at http://epp.eurostat.ec.europa.eu/portal/page/portal/employment_unemployment_lfs/methodology/definitions

a) Highly skilled

Derived from Article 2(b) of Council Directive 2009/50/EC (“highly qualified employment”)

This refers to a person falling within ILO ISCO-88 Major Groups 1, 2 and 3, e.g. a person who is qualified as a manager, executive, professional, technician or similar, who moves within the internal labour markets of transnational corporations and international organisations, or who seeks employment through international labour markets for scarce skills.

In Austria, there is a distinction between highly skilled (referring to someone who has the required adequate and specific competence, as proven by higher educational qualifications, and/or extensive [vocational] experience); and highly qualified (referring to someone who has required adequate and specific competence, as proven by higher educational qualifications only). This distinction reflects the Austrian education and training system which has a strong vocational orientation. Accordingly, international comparability is at times difficult to achieve, in particular in the area of health and social services. Nursing in Austria does not require university education but is comparable to apprenticeship education in commercial and technical occupations without ‘Matura’ (university entrance requirement).

b) Skilled

The category ‘Skilled’ is derived by aggregating the following groups in the International Labour Organisation ISCO-88 classifications¹⁵ into one group:

- 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

c) Low skilled

The following ISCO-88 classification is taken as ‘low skilled’:

- Major Group 9: Elementary Occupations

15 International Labour Organization, Major, Sub-Major, Minor and Unit Group titles, available at www.ilo.org/public/english/bureau/stat/isco/isco88/major.htm

d) Researcher

Derived from Council Directive 2005/71/EC¹⁶

Means a (third-country national) holding an appropriate higher education qualification, which gives access to doctoral programmes, who is selected by a research organisation for carrying out a research project for which the above qualification is normally required.

There is an overlap with category a) highly skilled: data are taken from the labour force surveys, whereby researchers represent a subgroup of highly skilled workers. In the case of flow data, administrative data is used, namely of third-country citizens (including EU-12 MS, whom transition regulations apply to); researchers may enter for work within the highly skilled inflow category, within and without quotas.

e) Seasonal Worker

Derived from Council Resolution of 20 June 1994 on limitation on admission of third-country nationals¹⁷ to the territory of the Member States for employment¹⁸

Refers to a (Third-Country National) worker who is resident in a third country but is employed in an activity dependent on the rhythm of the seasons in the territory of a Member State on the basis of a contract for a specified period and for specific employment.

The labour force survey does not provide this distinction. Accordingly, administrative data is used in the report and integrated in the data sheets in the annex. Austria only distinguishes between seasonal work in tourism and agriculture/forestry for third-country citizens and for persons of the new EU MS as long as transition agreements apply.

16 Council Directive 2005/71 EC on a specific procedure for admitting third-country nationals for the purposes of scientific research, available at <http://eur-lex.europa.eu/LexUriServ/LexUriServ.do?uri=OJ:L:2005:289:0015:0022:EN:PDF>

17 The category 'third-country nationals' also includes persons originating from Switzerland and non-EU EEA countries.

18 Council Resolution of 20 June 1994 on limitation on admission of third-country nationals to the territory of the Member States for employment, available at <http://eur-lex.europa.eu/LexUriServ/LexUriServ.do?uri=OJ:L:2005:289:0015:0022:EN:PDF>

2. Approach to Economic Migration in Austria

The Austrian labour migration system has its origins in the so-called “guest worker model”, going back to the early 1960s. The objective of that model was to satisfy labour demand, which was perceived to be cyclical rather than structural. As Austria was the poor-house of Europe after WWII, it could not attract highly skilled workers, as the wages were too low compared to other immigration countries. As a consequence Austria lost highly skilled native workers to neighbouring Germany and Switzerland as well as immigration countries like Canada, USA, and Australia. Accordingly, labour scarcities emerged. As Austria could not attract highly skilled migrants, given the competition for high potentials, it had to restructure work organisations within enterprises and a given production technology, in accordance with the skills at hand, complemented by un- and semiskilled migrant workers.

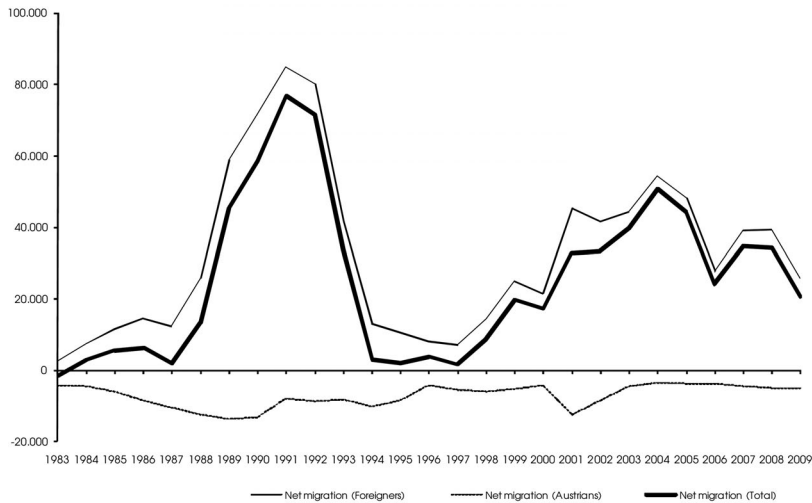
By the mid 1980s the demand for economic migrants declined as the labour supply of Austrians increased, not least because the baby boom generation entered the labour market. However, family reunification and chain migration had already set in, thereby promoting supply driven rather than demand driven immigration. In addition, an increasing number of asylum seekers and refugees raised labour supply.

Consequently, in 1992, the foreign worker legislation was complemented by immigration laws modelled after the immigration legislation of USA, thereby hoping to encompass immigration. In view of free mobility of labour within the EU, Austria contained the inflow of migrants of third countries, particularly of workers. Only family members (reunification) and a select group of highly skilled economic migrants from third countries were allowed to enter. As can be taken from figure 1, the policy move was considered to be a success. Net migration declined abruptly after 1992; net immigration picked up slowly in the wake of the Austrian EU-membership and gained momentum with the onset of the Eastern enlargement of the EU.

It was not until 2008 that the government decided to introduce legislative reforms similar to those in the UK in 2005, in recognition of skill

needs which the Austrian education system could not satisfy in large enough numbers. Following the red-white-red card discussions in 2009, the Austrian government is currently working on the development of an immigration model which is capable of attracting highly skilled third country economic migrants.

Figure 1: Net migration of Austrians and foreigners 1983-2009



Source: Statistics Austria

2.1 National Vision and Policy

As shown above, historically Austria could not attract highly skilled workers as it used to be the poor-house of Europe after WWII and the wages were too low relative to other receiving countries. In the 1990s, Austria still experienced brain drain¹⁹ and did not attract large numbers of highly skilled workers; this was also true in 2006, where the EMN study “Conditions of Entry and Residence of Third Country Highly-Skilled Workers in Austria”²⁰ comes to the conclusion that Austria has a low intake of highly

19 If highly skilled is narrowly defined as university graduates, as was mentioned in the EMN NCP AT study Biffl, G., Bock-Schappelwein, J.: Conditions of Entry and Residence of Third Country Highly-Skilled Workers in Austria, National Contact Point Austria in the European Migration Network, Vienna, September 2006, available at www.emn.at/en/emn-studies.html

20 Idem. p.6.

skilled workers and “the migration system does not appear to encourage the recruitment of highly skilled people from third countries.”²¹

In 2009 and 2010 a new picture emerges as the Austrian government is rather divided over immigration policy and its reform. While employers' associations push for an increased intake of highly skilled migrants, workers' associations argue that increased investment in further education and training, as promoted by the EU, e.g., in its Lifelong Learning programme,²² is a more promising road for satisfying skilled labour demand. The workers' representatives point towards Austria's limited capacity to attract skilled migrants (OECD 2005A). They argue that between 2008 and today only a small number of migrants from the new EU MS took advantage of the opening up of 67 skilled occupations without prior labour market testing. Another indicator for the limited attractiveness of Austria for highly skilled migrants is the small number of highly skilled third country migrants who enter Austria under the highly skilled immigration programme (Schlüsselkraftverfahren). The ceiling in the quota of highly skilled workers is continually raised but the numbers flowing in remain small, i.e. around 900 persons annually in the last few of years.²³

Austria hopes to close the gap in skilled labour demand by facilitating access of third country graduates from Austrian universities to the labour market, a common practice in traditional immigration countries. In principle this has been possible since 2003, but access to public sector employment, where many university graduates tend to find a job, tends not to be open to third-country citizens, e.g. in the case of medical doctors. Private industries on the other hand often do not pay the entry wages required for a third-country citizen to get a settlement permit.

Thus there appears to be an inconsistency between the vision of migration policy and the actual implementation. On the one hand the migration system does not appear to encourage the recruitment of highly skilled people from third countries, on the other, their career opportunities in Austria appear to be limited, as legal ramifications are not in line with the rhetoric, and as social networking is an important element of career opportunities (insider-outsider problem, Biffl 2000).

21 Idem. p.10.

22 Decision No 1720/2006/EC of the European Parliament and of the Council establishing an action programme in the field of lifelong learning, available at <http://eurlex.europa.eu/LexUriServ/LexUriServ.do?uri=OJ:L:2006:327:0045:0068:en:PDF>

23 The data stems from the register of third-country migrants by entry category of the Federal Ministry of the Interior. For more information see Biffl et al. 2009.

- a) Vision of the Austrian government of the (possible) future role of migration in combating labour shortages

In view of population ageing most stakeholders in Austria want to use migration as one tool to raise labour supply, to counter the negative effects of population ageing on labour productivity and the public budget. Austria sees the need for more immigration from the year 2020 onwards, when the baby boom generation will reach retirement age. Until then, Austria is not expecting any labour scarcities. Austria sees the major challenge in rising the actual retirement age of currently 59 to 65. Again it is the workers' representatives who argue that employers will only be enticed to prolong the employment of mature workers and to invest in education and training in case of labour scarcities. Employers on the other hand argue that scarcities of skilled labour will lead to reallocation of production to neighbouring countries and/or investment in labour saving production technology.

It is the latter which causes concern for the government. Austria has large numbers of un- and semiskilled workers, largely of migrant origin. Providing jobs for them is important and raising their skill levels is even more important. But the school system does not appear to be capable of raising the educational attainment level of migrant children to the level of Austrian children fast enough (OECD 2006).

- b) Policies to address labour shortages in Austria

Austria addresses labour shortages through a policy mix, namely:

- **by raising the activity rate of women, particularly migrant women,**
- **by raising the employment rate of mature workers and**
- **by using the migration tool to select certain key skills. These skilled migrants need not necessarily have high qualifications in terms of proven higher educational qualifications, but they have to be nonetheless highly skilled in terms of their competency levels. This is particularly the case for care workers in the mobile home services sector. In the latter case self-employment is a preferred option on the part of Austrian authorities.**

Consequently, Austria has a short- to medium term perspective as well as a long-term perspective of satisfying labour demand. The long-term perspective aims at raising the labour supply of women by various instruments: e.g. education policy to raise the educational attainment level; infrastructural investments, in particular in social services to promote outsourcing of care work from households to the market; and reforms of the retirement regulations to raise the employment level at older ages. The latter also applies to men.

In addition, school reforms are envisaged to raise the educational attainment level of children from poorer socio-economic backgrounds, often migrants. All these entail reforms which have been put in motion but which will need a longer time horizon to become fully effective.

In the short to medium run, Austria expects a noticeable inflow of migrants from the new EU MS (10) as transition regulations will come to an end in April 2011. There are fears of an inflow of unskilled labourers thereby exerting pressure on unskilled workers, often with migration background, who are already facing slack labour demand.

One hopes to raise demand for unskilled workers by bringing in highly skilled migrants of third countries, as the latter tend to promote economic growth thereby raising labour demand also at the lower skill end (Storesletten 2000). Reforms of immigration legislation in that direction have been decided upon in the current coalition government agreement.

c) Reasons for the limited attractiveness of Austria for highly skilled migrants

It may well be that it is not legal barriers to entry and residence of highly skilled that hamper immigration of the highly skilled into Austria. Indications are that seniority rules and thus functional mechanisms of the Austrian labour market are important explanatory factors for the limited intake of the highly skilled outside normal inter-company skill transfers.

The important role of internal labour markets, i.e. internal career ladders underpinned by seniority wages, in large enterprises and the public sector may be one of the major reasons for the limited access of highly skilled migrants to these sorts of jobs. The same may hold for Austrians, who would like to return from abroad and take up adequate employment in Austria but who are not willing to start at the very beginning of a career path. Characteristics of Austrian career developments are low entry wages in an international comparison and slow wage increases as turnover is still high close to the entry point. Thus, entry wages tend to be below productivity but continued employment bears the prospect of recuperating foregone earnings from persons in their mid-30s onwards.

One way of breaking into internal labour markets is through temporary work agencies and personnel leasing companies. Austria does not take recourse to these agencies to the same extent as the UK, Ireland, Netherlands or the Nordic countries. But then, these countries do not have as pronounced wage (and work) hierarchies as Austria as exemplified by age-earnings curves and therefore not the same extent of an insider-outsider problem. Only France, possibly Belgium and Italy appear to have a si-

milar insider-outsider problem as Austria as exemplified by the pervasive character of seniority wage rules. Pronounced internal labour markets with seniority wage scales do not only have an impact on cross-border labour mobility within the EU which is apart from inter-company labour transfers, but also on employment opportunities of mature workers in ageing societies. (OECD 2005B)

2.2 Legislative and Institutional Framework

Administrative procedures in the field of migration are carried out by two regulatory institutions - the Federal Ministry of the Interior and the Federal Ministry of Labour, Social Affairs and Consumer Protection. While the former regulates the inflow and resident status of immigrants and short-term movers of third countries, the latter regulates access to the labour market albeit of an increasingly smaller and very specific group of workers. The interaction and co-ordination of policy concerning immigration is laid down in Federal Laws and Regulations. The Chancellery has the position of a mediator in certain situations. In contrast, integration of migrants is regulated and organised at the state level. Only very recently, in December 2009, did the Federal Ministry of the Interior produce a National Action Plan for Integration. The procedures and the budget plans for the promotion of integration on a federal level have not yet been made public.

In 2005 the legislation regarding foreigners was fundamentally revised, affecting asylum law, the regulation of residence and settlement of foreigners and Alien Police Law. The regulation pertaining to the residence status and access to work has been overhauled, whereby the two legislative bodies have cooperated to systematise the law in accordance with EU Directives. The redrawing of legislation is thus to a large extent due to the efforts on the part of the EU to coordinate migration policy and to harmonise legislation. The employment of certain groups of third-country nationals is regulated in the Foreign Employment Act.

Immigration of third-country citizens to Austria for the sole purpose of work is limited to workers with key skills²⁴ (Schlüsselkraftverfahren) and

24 Key workers are more narrowly defined by the Austrian laws than highly qualified workers in Article 2(b) of Council Directive 2009/50/EC of 25 May 2009 on the conditions of entry and residence of third-country nationals for the purposes of highly qualified employment, available at <http://eur-lex.europa.eu/LexUriServ/LexUriServ.do?uri=OJ:L:2009:155:0017:0029:en:PDF>

seasonal workers.²⁵ In addition, workers of the new EU Members States may access the labour market in 67 occupations designated as shortage occupations and health workers (skilled worker act of 2008).

Admission and employment of third-country nationals

Depending on the purpose of the stay, the Austrian settlement and residence laws provide different residence titles (settlement and temporary residence permits and other residence titles *sui generis*). Settlement is characterised by a long-term perspective of stay in Austria, whilst a temporary residence permit allows only a temporary stay. In particular, an EC-long term residence status and Austrian citizenship can only be obtained by third-country citizens, if the migrant had a settlement permit. The total number of settlement permits is capped by annual quotas for various categories, while no quota limitations apply for temporary residence permits.

In the context of labour migration, the following settlement and temporary residence permits are most relevant:

1. “settlement permit – key worker” (Schlüsselkraftverfahren)
2. “residence permit – intercompany transfers (Rotationskraft)”
3. “residence permit – persons on business assignments of third country firms without a registered office in Austria (Betriebsentsandter)”
4. “residence permit – special cases of paid employment” specified in the

Foreign Employment Act, the most prominent being for researchers.

For the above mentioned permits, access to the labour market is linked to the residence permit in a so called “one stop shop procedure”, which means that the settlement and the work permit are issued in a single procedure. In addition, third-country nationals who have a residence permit without the explicit right to enter the labour market may obtain a work permit on the basis of an employer nomination scheme, i.e. after labour market testing.²⁶

The work permits are subject to quota regulations: the total number of work permits is capped (Federal State quotas) to the extent that the number of employed and unemployed foreigners does not exceed 8% of the total dependent labour supply (291,000 for 2010).²⁷ In some special cases a work permit can be granted by the governor beyond this quota up to a limit of 9% of the labour supply.

25 Nowotny, I.: Das Ausländerbeschäftigungsgesetz: Die Regelung des Zugangs von AusländerInnen zum österreichischen Arbeitsmarkt, in: Fassmann, H.: 2. Österreichischer Migrations- und Integrationsbericht, Klagenfurt/Celovec, 2007, p.47-73, p.55.

26 Art. 4b Aliens' Employment Act

27 Art. 12a Aliens' Employment Act

The requirements for a 'key worker' are in terms of a certain minimum earnings level rather than in terms of educational attainment levels such that young third country university graduates may not qualify, as entry wages tend to be below this ceiling. The person's monthly gross earnings must be 60% (or beyond) the social security contribution ceiling, i.e. be equal to or have surpassed EUR 2,412 in 2009. Moreover, prior work experience must be proven in addition to key skills (competencies). Accordingly, the number of third country employees with those narrowly defined characteristics, are fairly stable over time at some 900 persons on an annual average (the annual number of some 1,300 'key workers' includes also dependent children and partners, the latter making up some 40% of the total).

The average age of skilled third country migrants ranges from 33 to 41. The oldest ones tend to be self-employed highly skilled workers, the youngest ones are researchers or inter-corporate transferees, the somewhat elderly tend to be artists.²⁸

Depending on the length of stay intercompany transferees and persons on business assignment need a work permit (duration of stay of more than six months) or a job confirmation (for the work visa D,²⁹ which is issued by the embassies for work period of up to six months).³⁰

According to the requirements of the Directive 2005/71/EC researchers must provide a hosting agreement of a registered research institution. They do not need a work contract just as all other activities which are exempted in the Foreign Employment Act.³¹

Thus, persons with a residence permit on the basis of 'special cases of paid employment activity' are exempted from the foreign worker employment law and therefore do not need a work permit. Among the activities are inter alia diplomats, as well as their domestic service providers, representatives of religious groups, internationally renowned researchers, mariners/employees on cross border ships, top managers as well as their family members and household service providers.³²

28 For more details see Biffel et al. 2009.

29 Art. 24 Settlement and Residence Act

30 Art. 18 Aliens' Employment Act

31 Art. 67 Settlement and Residence Act

32 Highly skilled managers are third-country nationals who have a leading position in the managing or executive board of a multinational company or who are internationally recognised researchers and who have a monthly gross income of 120% or more of the wage level at which no further rise in social security contributions has to be paid (in 2010 this meant an income of at least 4.900 per month).

As immigration of workers to Austria is highly controlled and limited, the Federal Ministry of Labour, Social Affairs and Consumer Protection can admit seasonal workers in tourism and in agriculture and forestry in order to meet seasonal peak demands for workers.³³ The work permit is limited to six months but can be extended by a further six months if this is foreseen in the regulation. After twelve months the seasonal worker is not allowed to apply for a further permit for two months in order to prohibit settlement via this channel. Annual quotas (Kontingente) are set by the Federal Minister of Labour, Social Affairs and Consumer Protection.

The right to and the conditions of family reunification depend on the status of the sponsor. Family reunification is uncapped for third-country citizens who are partners of or are dependent children of an Austrian or EU citizen.³⁴ Only the inflow for settlement of third-country citizens and of their family members is regulated by quotas.

Family members of EEA nationals or Austrian nationals are granted free access to the labour market. In most cases also family members of third-country nationals have access to the labour market, namely when they have resided legally in Austria for four years, or when they have obtained a work permit on the basis of labour market testing or when they can carry out work on their own account.

Employment of nationals of the new EU-8 and EU-2 Member States

Austria applies labour market access restrictions for the 8 EU Member States that joined the EU in 2004 until 30 April 2011 and for Romania and Bulgaria until 31 December 2013, i.e. nationals of these EU MS can take up employment, if they are granted a work permit (labour market testing³⁵ applies). According to the principle of community preference when issuing work permits, preference is given to nationals of the new EU MS over third-country nationals. After one year of employment in Austria the person is granted free access to the Austrian labour market with a so-called "confirmation of free mobility".³⁶

33 Art. 2 Settlement Regulation

34 After four years of residence the permanent residence permit (which was issued on the basis of family reunification) may be transferred into a permanent settlement permit in its own right. For a detailed account of legislation, quotas, and actual inflows see Biffl (2005).

35 Examination of the Public Employment Service Austria, if the respective vacancy could also be filled with an Austrian or a with a foreigner already present in Austria.

36 Art. 32a Aliens' Employment Act

Additionally, Austria allows employment of new EU nationals in 67 shortage occupations, as mentioned above (e.g. brick layers, carpenters, welders, glaziers etc.)³⁷ even if the quotas for the work permits are surpassed. Also for these occupations labour market testing applies and occupational competencies and skills must be documented.³⁸

2.3 Political Debate and Involvement of Stakeholders

Austria has a long tradition of debating migration in the political arena. Political parties with opposing views are the Green Party on the one hand and the Freedom Party on the other. While the former is in favour of immigration, preferably on the basis of a point system like the one in Canada, the Freedom Party is downright against immigration, scapegoating migrants for unemployment and security problems. The two major Parties, the Christian Democrats and the Social Democrats, are rather lukewarm in their approach to migration. In contrast, as stated above, the social partners have very pronounced views on immigration. While the industrialists and the Chamber of Commerce promote increased skilled migration,³⁹ the Chamber of Labour and the unions are reticent in their immigration stance. The latter argue that immigration from other EU MS to Austria is high and rising, thereby satisfying labour demand. Currently some 60% of immigrants to Austria are from another EU MS, largely for work. Even in 2009, the year of the crisis, the inflow of migrants did not slow down significantly. This, together with high levels of unemployment, explains the rather modest support of government for increased migration of (skilled) third-country citizens.

Unions have, however, recently come around to addressing issues of migrants. They promote careers of migrants in their rank and file and provide support for special needs of migrants (translations, help dealing with bureaucracy, language training, etc.). They also cooperate increasingly with unions in the new EU MS and engage in capacity building across the border.

At the municipal level close cooperation with various cities in the EU is taking place and in the case of Vienna particularly with Istanbul.

37 The occupations are cited in the Regulation concerning the employment of skilled workers 2008.

38 Regulation concerning the employment of skilled workers 2008

39 See discussion paper: Industriellenvereinigung: Zuwanderung gestalten – Ein zukunftsorientiertes Migrationsmodell, Vienna, November 2008, available at www.iv-net.at/b1805m143

3. Approach to Implementing Economic Migration Policy

Perceived labour shortages are the *raison d'être* for creating a labour migration system. However, labour shortages are not easy to predict or to forecast. In manpower planning, long term forecasts (over 5 years) have generally turned out to be wrong, but fairly accurate predictions can be made for the medium term (2 to 3 years, see also Blaug 1973). Werner (1994) argues that analyzing trends and changes in the labour market is more useful than carrying out mechanistic forecasts. This is also the experience in Austria.

General labour market testing tends to be a more efficient way to manage the intake of foreign workers than individual labour market tests. It requires that a ceiling is placed (possibly by sector and region) which in turn presupposes fairly accurate labour market information and forecasts.

For purposes of meeting labour shortages – absolute or relative⁴⁰ – flexible mechanisms for identifying and meeting labour demand that are close to economic realities and involve social partners in decision-making on migration planning, have been most effective in Austria.

3.1 Implementation of Economic Policy and Legislation

- a) Recent mechanisms in place to identify, map and determine labour shortages

One way of identifying labour and skills shortages is through the analysis of employer reports and surveys.⁴¹ These have a long tradition in Austria as part of labour market monitoring. While regular, comprehensive employer surveys along a common grid among the EU MS are very recent – in 2009

40 Labour shortages can be absolute – that is persons required by the employers simply do not exist in the numbers required, or relative – that is for various reasons (mobility, particular skills, wages, conditions of work etc.) the existing labour force does not wish to or is unable to fill certain jobs.

41 Fachkräftemonitoring (FAMO), available at www.famo.at; CENTROPE is a more recent data source, available at www.centrope.com; others are from Synthesis Employer Monitoring, available at www.synthesis.co.at; or the business cycle employer survey of the Austrian Institute of Economic Research (WIFO), available at www.wifo.ac.at

the first comprehensive employer survey of job vacancies was undertaken⁴² – enterprise surveys of skill shortages or perceived skill needs have been undertaken regionally (Bundesländer) and nationally since the 1970s.

Initially, regular enterprise surveys were conducted by a market research institute (IFES), upon request of the Federal Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs and Consumer Protection, as part of an annual labour market monitoring and forecasting procedure. In these surveys, current skill needs as well as needs for the following year were surveyed (on the basis of a representative sample of enterprises). After some years, it became clear that enterprises, in particular small and medium-sized enterprises (SME), have a very short planning horizon and longer term skill needs (planning horizon beyond half a year) could not be identified by that method. In particular, cyclical turning points could not be judged by individual enterprises. Consequently, the Austrian Institute of Economic Research (WIFO) is running regular employer surveys (WIFO-Investitions- und Konjunkturtest, Innovationstest), comparable to the ifo-institute in Munich. The data are analysed by WIFO and integrated into the quarterly business cycle forecasting model. The enterprise surveys provide information on stocks and orders, on investment behaviour and on innovative activities.

This is an important input from which cyclical turning points can be judged. Such information is an integral part of any labour market forecast. An intake of migrant workers in situations of an economic downswing can exacerbate labour market problems. On the other hand, labour shortages may hamper economic growth in a situation of an economic upswing. It follows that close cyclical monitoring has to be one element of management of migration policy. In addition, other planning instruments must be in place as forecasts of labour market needs in particular skill shortages require a complex information system.

Accordingly, the Ministry of Labour and later the LMS (Labour Market Service) embarked upon the development of a variety of monitoring systems and manpower forecasting models along the lines of the Bureau of Labour Statistics (BLS)⁴³ in Washington, D.C.

At present, Industry-Occupation Matrices (by the Federal State-Bundesland) which have been built on the basis of Census data, and annual social security employment data, are an integral part of econometric fore-

42 Statistics Austria, available at www.statistik.at/web_de/statistiken/arbeitsmarkt/offene_stellen/index.html

43 Further information available at www.bls.gov

casting models. The matrices are continually updated and are the basis of medium to long-term forecasts of labour demand developments by occupation and industry (for Austria and some federal states, e.g. Upper Austria and Styria). Occupational skill shortages are identified on the basis of Industry-Occupation Matrices, which are integrated into an Input-Output Model, in order to better understand the origin of skill needs, i.e. the workings of industrial restructuring and the implications for labour demand by occupation. The regional sectoral MultiREG macro-model, which has been developed by WIFO and Joanneum Research for Upper Austria and will be extended to include all provinces, offers a tool that generates medium- to long-term forecasts of gross output and employment broken down by the Länder and industrial sectors. MultiREG maps the links between demand, production, employment and income. The use of the model for medium-term employment forecasts at the Länder level calls for some adjustments. In order to ensure that they match the forecast for Austria on a national basis, additional data sources on employment must be integrated. (Huber et al. 2006, Fritz et al. 2002) Independent of this system, the educational attainment level of the work force (by occupation and industry) is monitored, in particular the transition from school to work.

Another way to identify labour scarcities is via the skills monitor of the Labour market Service - LMS (AMS-Qualifikationsbarometer). It is an on-line service for enterprises and persons looking for jobs; it provides, amongst other services, the skill requirements in particular occupations and professions (10.000 occupations). This database is a prerequisite for efficient education and training measures provided for the unemployed and funded by the LMS. In addition, it is an indicator of skill needs which cannot be rapidly satisfied by the Austrian education and training system (initial and further education). It also serves as an information device for the recruitment of migrant workers (work permits). Occupational/skills shortages are defined by a ratio of unemployed to job openings of 1.5:1. The ratios are calculated for local labour markets because of the limited labour mobility within Austria – the result of high labour mobility costs (housing etc.) and relatively small regional wage differences.

A certain sequence in procedures is followed: the scarce skills may be imported in the first instance from new EU (12)-MS and second from the rest of the world. For unskilled workers the transition regulations apply as there is sufficient unskilled labour supply in Austria.

The Austrian monitoring system has been developed after abandoning enterprise panels as forecasting instruments. The latter had been in place

between the mid 1980s and the late 1990s, and were similar to the Excelsior Information System in Italy. Just as in the case of Excelsior, actual job take-up tended to be far below the survey results. Consistent overestimates of expected labour demands in employer surveys were the reason for abandoning this instrument as a planning instrument for labour and migration policy in Austria. The decision against employer surveys as a guide for migration policy was the result of a migration and training policy mistake in the early 1990s, when an enterprise survey indicated severe shortages of ICT-Personnel. Accordingly, education and training policy as well as migration policy were tasked to deal with this problem. This resulted in an oversupply of information-communication skills as large numbers of ICT personnel began to enter the labour market at a time when the ICT-bubble had burst, thereby exacerbating the unemployment problems of ICT-personnel.

An example of the application of a complex set of forecasting models and labour market monitoring systems is the annual migrant intake of seasonal workers. The starting point is an analysis of labour market developments, in particular of unemployment rates in tourism and agriculture by WIFO and DUK, followed by an analysis of the labour supply developments resulting from migration policy (family reunification, asylum seekers and refugee intake) and the picture of the regional labour market monitor. On the basis of this information, annual inflow quotas are determined by the Ministry of the Interior, together with the Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs, the provinces and the social partners (Biffl et al. 2009).

In order to provide more focused information on skill needs in the provinces, the social partners are included in the local LMS as decision making partners rather than as members of an advisory board. The inclusion of the social partners (Chamber of Commerce, Chamber of Labour, Chamber of Agriculture and industrialists) in the board of directors of the LMS (Labour Market Service), both at the federal and the provincial level, promotes decision taking on the basis of real problems rather than ideological battles and idiosyncrasies. The regional government is included in the decision-making process on migrants, i.e. the setting of quotas, within which the LMS has free decision making capacity. Should the migrant intake go beyond the quotas, decisions are taken on a case by case basis by the governor of the region.

- b) 'Job-matching' ensures that the migrants' profile fits the job requirements

Job matching on an individualised basis remains a challenge. While un- and semiskilled labourers are easily matched with the job, matching becomes more difficult as the skills and the skill requirements get more complex. The LMS together with advisory councils have so far undertaken the matching. Skills assessments are in the hands of the social partners, while the recognition of qualifications of migrants rests with the educational authorities.

- c) Integration measures

Austria does not make any distinction between migrants and non-migrants in their labour market policy measures. The focus is rather on specific target groups such as distant learners, marginalised groups of workers and so forth. The only specific instrument of integration of migrants is the organisation and funding of German as a second language courses by the LMS. In addition, general integration policies are established in primary and adult education and in community services.

While most migrants do not need any special integration support in the labour market, namely third country workers who have a work contract and who are free to enter, reside and work in Austria outside of any quota regulation, others are in need of special assistance beyond the right of free access to the labour market. This is particularly true for migrants who enter as family members or as asylum seekers and refugees. While the new immigration policy of 1992/93 regulated their inflow and residence rights, the labour market integration needs were not addressed as the Ministry of Labour and the social partners, who had been running the so-called "Guest Worker model" were not part of the policy coordination.

It was not until 1996 that the Federal Minister of the Interior (Caspar Einem) made the first steps towards the coordination of migration and integration policies. This policy initiative is frozen in law (Alien Law 1997), attempting to promote labour market integration of migrants, who had resided in Austria for a longer period of time. It was meant to facilitate access to the labour market of family members, who had arrived in Austria before 1992.

As a coordinating step on the part of the Ministry of Labour, enterprises were increasingly controlled to ensure abidance of the law, namely the execution of labour market testing in case of first issues of work permits. As a result, the 'habit' of some firms to employ a third country foreigner (who had a residence permit but no right to access work or only under the

condition of labour market testing) without applying for a work permit by the LMS, had to be discontinued. The rules had to be applied, i.e. a firm got a first work permit for a foreigner granted only after four unemployed, who could in principle fill the post (unemployment benefit recipients), got the job offered but rejected it. Labour market testing is an effective labour market entry barrier of unskilled and semi-skilled third country migrants. Thus, the 'coordination' of policy resulted in the application of the law which in effect reduced the employment opportunities of certain groups of third country migrants.

The enforcement of labour market testing went hand in hand with an increase in the quota of seasonal workers from abroad. It is in the discretionary power of the Minister of Labour, Social Affairs and Consumer Protectionism to decide upon an annual inflow of seasonal workers in tourism and in the agricultural/forestry sector, on the basis of regional and social partnership decisions. Both instruments contributed to a decline in clandestine work, but they reduced the chances of labour market integration of un- and semiskilled migrants already residing in the country.

The second and more effective legal reform step took place in 2003, with the introduction of the settlement certificate (*Niederlassungsnachweis*). The option of long-term foreign residents to apply for a green card, which allows entry into the labour market without the firm having to apply for a work permit, i.e. the abandonment of the requirement of labour market testing, has significantly improved the employment opportunities of unskilled third country migrants. One year after the introduction of the green card system the quota for seasonal workers from abroad had to be reduced. This was a reaction to the increase in unemployment which resulted from the substantial supply increases in the low skill segment, as seasonal work represents an employment option for resident migrants. It is important to acknowledge, however, that easy access to seasonal work from abroad within a large quota contributes to reducing clandestine work, particularly if the season is short (harvesting) and if traditional personal connections are the basis for recruitment.

Thus the coordination of migration policy with labour market policy, which started in the mid to late 1990s, introduced a better understanding of the impact of immigration on labour demand and supply in the respective administrative disciplines. Another aspect which increasingly became an issue and resulted in amendments to migration law (NAG 2005) was the cut-off age for family reunification of children. Raising the age from originally 14 (until 2000) to 18 (2005) meant a significant improvement

of the education and earnings opportunities of third country youth in Austria. While second generation migrants who arrive in Austria at a relatively young age tend to be quite successful in school and later in the labour market, this is not the case for youth arriving at an older age. Some of the greatest difficulties migrant youth are faced with on the labour market today are the result of protracted entry, often after the age of compulsory schooling in Austria (15), and the concomitant lack of school leaving certificates or acknowledgement of credentials obtained abroad.

3.2 Statistics and Trends⁴⁴

Austria has a high and rising share of migrants in the work force. In 2009, according to the Labour Force Survey, 422.900 or 10.6% of a total of 3.993.900 workers in the ISCO 88 skill levels 1-9 were foreign citizens: 2,6% other EU-15 nationals, 1,4% EU-10 nationals, 0,5% EU-2 nationals and 6,1% third-country nationals.

Table 1: Total stock of workers in the ISCO-88 Major Groups 1-9 by groups of citizenship, 2009

Country of citizenship	Abs.	Rel.
Nationals	3.571.034	89,4%
Foreign nationals	422.910	10,6%
EU-15	105.245	2,6%
EU-10	55.008	1,4%
EU-2	20.428	0,5%
TCNs	242.229	6,1%
Total	3.993.944	100%

Source: Labour Force Survey 2009

The proportion of foreign-born was close to 20%. The share of foreign employees did not differ much by gender: 10.8% of all male workers had a foreign citizenship and 10.4% of female workers. Between 2004 and 2009 the share of foreign citizens increased by 1 percentage point on average, the increase was more pronounced for women than for men (1.5 percentage points versus 0.1 percentage point).

⁴⁴ Please note that the total stock of workers excludes ISCO-88 Main Group (0) "Armed forces".

3.2.1 Statistics on the labour market and migration

A break-down of the employment stocks by skill level shows that 39% of the total employment in 2009 accrued to the highly skilled group, i.e. ISCO-88 classes of 1, 2 and 3, 51.8% to the skilled group of ISCO-88 groups 4-8 and 9.2% to the low skilled group of elementary occupations. The overall skills composition as defined did not change much between 2004 and 2009. Table 2 shows that workers with EU-15 citizenship are on average the best skilled group, 59.2% belonging to the highly skilled and only 3.9% to the low skilled. In contrast, citizens of EU-10 countries are less skilled than the Austrians, 30.9% belonging to the highly skilled group and 17.7% to the low skilled one. A striking feature of this group of workers is that they make up about the same proportion of persons with medium skills as Austrians (51.5%). Citizens of EU-2 countries make up a somewhat smaller proportion of workers with medium skills (49.8%) but a significantly higher proportion of persons with low skills (35.8%). This share is only slightly below the share of low skilled workers of third country origin (36.5%). In contrast, the share of highly skilled workers is higher among third-country citizens than among EU-2 workers (17.1%).

Table 2: Main category of employment of workers by groups of citizenship, 2009

Main categorisation		A. Highly skilled (ISCO 1-3)	B. Skilled (ISCO 4-8)	C. Low skilled (ISCO 9)	TOTAL (A+B+C)
Nationals	Total	1.393.539	1.849.662	327.833	3.571.034
	%	39,0%	51,8%	9,2%	100,0%
EU-15	Total	62.282	38.848	4.115	105.245
	%	59,2%	36,9%	3,9%	100,0%
EU-10	Total	16.973	28.312	9.723	55.008
	%	30,9%	51,5%	17,7%	100,0%
EU-2	Total	2.936	10.176	7.316	20.428
	%	14,4%	49,8%	35,8%	100,0%
TCNs	Total	41.334	112.585	88.310	242.229
	%	17,1%	46,5%	36,5%	100,0%
TOTAL	Total	1.517.064	2.039.583	43.7297	3.993.944
	%	38,0%	51,1%	10,9%	100,0%

Source: Labour Force Survey 2009

The proportion of foreign citizens amongst the employed changed somewhat over time: the share of migrants in highly skilled jobs increased from 6.4% in 2004 to 8.1% in 2009, and declined in the medium (from 9.6% to 9.3%) and low skill segment (from 25.1% to 25% in 2009).

Table 3: Workers by groups of citizenship and main category of employment, 2009

Nationality		A. Highly skilled (ISCO 1-3)	B. Skilled (ISCO 4-8)	C. Low skilled (ISCO 9)	Total (A+B+C)
Nationals	abs.	1.393.539	1.849.662	327.833	3.571.034
	% of Total	91,9%	90,7%	75,0%	89,0%
Foreign Nationals	abs.	123.525	189.921	109.464	422.910
	% of Total	8,1%	9,3%	25,0%	10,6%
EU-15	abs.	62.282	38.848	4.115	105.245
	% of Total	4,1%	1,9%	0,9%	2,6%
EU-10	abs.	16.973	28.312	9.723	55.008
	% of Total	1,1%	1,4%	2,2%	1,4%
EU-2	abs.	2.936	10.176	7.316	20428
	% of Total	0,2%	0,5%	1,7%	0,5%
TCNs	abs.	41.334	112.585	88.310	242229
	% of Total	2,7%	5,5%	20,2%	6,1%
Total	Total	1.517.064	2.039.583	437.297	3.993.944

Source: Labour Force Survey 2009

Employed persons disaggregated by groups of countries of citizenship and occupation

In 2009 of all highly skilled workers 4% were EU-15 nationals – compared to 3% in 2004; 1% were EU-10 nationals – just as in 2004; less than 1% were EU-2 nationals – just as in 2004; and 3% were third-country citizens – compared to 2% in 2004.

Of all skilled workers, 2% were migrants from another EU-15 country (2004: 1%); 1% was from an EU-10 MS (2004: 2%); less than 1% was EU-2 nationals – just as in 2004; but 6% were from third countries – just as in 2004.

Of all low skilled workers, 1% was from another EU-15 country (2004: 1%); 2% were from an EU-10 country (2004: 1%); 2% were from an EU-2 country (2004: 2%), and 20% were from a third country (2004: 21%).

Thus, the rising share of highly skilled migrants in total employment is due to above average increases of EU-15 (a rise of 1.1 percentage points between 2004 and 2009) and third country highly skilled workers (+0.8 percentage points between 2004 and 2009). The declining share of skilled migrant workers is, in contrast, due to an above average fall in the number of medium skilled EU-10 (-0.2 percentage points) and third-country nationals (-0.9 percentage points 2004/2009). The share of low skilled migrant workers in total employment declined only in the case of third-country citizens (-1.1 percentage points 2004/2009), while rising for all EU groups, in particular from EU-10 countries.

The labour force data substantiate the notion that migrants from another EU MS tend to have higher skills than third-country citizens. The dynamics over time show that EU-15 citizens tend to increasingly satisfy growing skill demands (rising share of highly skilled plus skilled migrants in total highly skilled and skilled employment: from 4.4% in 2004 to 6% in 2009) while EU-10 and EU-2 citizens continuously tend to be somewhat stronger represented in the low skill segment (rising share from 3.1% to 3.9% 2004/09). Third-country nationals, on the other hand, have a very diverse skill composition, satisfying labour demand in all three skill levels. Over time, the share of highly skilled increases (from 1.9% to 2.7%) and the share of low skilled decreases (from 21.3% to 20.2%). The great bulk remains in the low skilled segment, however, namely 88.300 or 36% of all third country workers in 2009.

Researchers are to a significant extent migrants. In 2009 11.1% of a total of 431,400 researchers were migrants, the majority from another EU-15 country (7.1% of all researchers). But also persons from EU-10, EU-2 and third countries are increasingly satisfying the demand for researchers. In 2009 2.7% of all researchers were from third countries, 1.1% from EU-10 and 0.2% from EU-2 countries.

Seasonal workers may enter Austria either on the basis of a temporary employment permit granted by the Federal Ministry of Labour, Social Affairs and Consumer Protection, or as a result of a bilateral cross-border agreement (commuters from Hungary and the Czech Republic).⁴⁵ These temporary work contracts are linked to employment contracts, which in both cases have a ceiling. In these cases the residence in Austria is an integral part of the work contract and does not need processing by the Federal

45 The annual quota for Hungary (since 1998) amounts to some 2000 commuters and for Czechs 500 (since 2006).

Ministry of the Interior. Consequently, they are not included in the third-country citizenship residence register of the Federal Ministry of the Interior. Accordingly, a large proportion of seasonal workers are commuters in border regions in the East and Southeast of Austria.

Seasonal work is not only an opportunity to work for non-resident third country migrants (or EU-12 countries for as long as the transition regulations apply) but also for third country migrants residing in Austria who do not have the resident permit which grants access to the labour market without prior labour market testing. As a consequence of the introduction of the 'green card' in 2003, which allowed entry into the labour market without the firm having to apply for a work permit, the employment opportunities of unskilled migrants who have legally resided in Austria for 4 years improved. Accordingly, the seasonal worker quota in agriculture, forestry and harvesting plus tourism could be reduced in 2003 from some 27,000 (sum of monthly contingents averaged over a year) to some 21,000 in 2004. The actual number of seasonal workers has been fluctuating around an annual average of some 12,000 ever since then. About two thirds of the seasonal foreign workers were working in agriculture and forestry and one third in tourism.

Seasonal foreign workers make up a fairly high proportion of foreign wage and salary earners in agriculture and forestry, namely some 80% to 90%. In contrast, only some 8% of all foreign workers in tourism are working on the basis of a seasonal work permit. The seasonal worker regulation is an important means to reduce clandestine work of third country migrants.⁴⁶ (Biffl et al. 2009)

Employed persons disaggregated by groups of countries of citizenship and sex.

In 2009 men were on average somewhat better skilled than women. Of a total of 2.1 million employed men 39.6% were highly skilled - compared to 36.1% of the 1.9 million employed women, 55.1% were skilled (compared to 50.9% of women) and 12.7% were unskilled (compared to 13% of women). The best skilled men and women were citizens from another EU-15 country: 64.2 % of men and 53.3% of women were highly skilled and only 2.7% of men and 5.4% of women were low skilled. In contrast,

46 The contingent as well as the number of seasonal permits is larger than the number of employed persons averaged over a year. In seasonal peak times the actual number of seasonal workers is quite high, however, e.g. in June 2009 some 12,000 harvesters and seasonal workers in agriculture and forestry were employed in addition to 3,600 seasonal workers in tourism.

40.7% of Austrian men and 37% of Austrian women were highly skilled and 7.8% respectively 10.7% were low skilled. Women from another EU-15 country contributed thus more to skilled (2.1 vs 1.7%) and low skilled (1.1 vs 0.8%) and less to high skilled labour demand (3.8 vs 4.3% of high skilled labour) than third country men.

In the case of EU-10 and EU-2 citizenship women in Austria are proportionately working more than men, namely 1.7% respectively 0.7% of all female employment compared to 1.1% respectively 0.4% of all male employment; their skill composition differs by sex. Women from EU-10 countries have a pronounced polarisation of their skill structure. While 35.9% of EU-10 female workers are highly skilled, compared to 24% of EU-10 men, 20.9% are low skilled – compared to 13.4% of their male counterparts.

EU-2 women are, in contrast, to a smaller extent than their male counterparts highly skilled (10.6% versus 19.8%), and the proportion of unskilled is significantly higher than in the case of EU-2 men (43% versus 25.4%).

Among third-country citizens women make up an even higher share of unskilled workers than EU-2 women (47.7%), but they also make up a higher share of the highly skilled (15.5%). Men of third countries are on average better skilled than their female counterparts. Migrant men tend to be much stronger represented in the medium skill bracket than migrant women.

Table 4: Workers by groups of citizenship and main category of employment by sex, 2009

			A. Highly skilled (ISCO 1-3)	B. Skilled (ISCO 4-8)	C. Low skilled (ISCO 9)
1. Nationals	Skill levels in %	Male	40,7	51,5	7,8
		Female	37,1	52,2	10,7
		Total	39,0	51,8	9,2
2. (Other) EU-15 Nationals ⁴		Male	64,2	33,1	2,7
		Female	53,3	41,4	5,4
		Total	59,2	36,9	3,9
3. EU-10 Natio-nals ⁴		Male	24,0	62,6	13,4
		Female	35,9	43,2	20,9
		Total	30,9	51,5	17,7
4. EU-2 Nationals ⁴		Male	19,8	54,8	25,4
		Female	10,6	46,3	43,0
		Total	14,4	49,8	35,8
5. Third Country Nationals		Male	18,2	53,3	28,5
		Female	15,5	36,9	47,7
		Total	17,1	46,5	36,5
Total		Male	39,6	51,2	9,2
		Female	36,1	50,9	13,0
		Total	38,0	51,1	10,9

Source: Labour Force Survey 2009.

The ten major nationalities of economic migrants

The ten major single nationalities of migrants in Austria represent 76% of all foreign citizens in the work force in 2009. They are in the correct rank order from: Germany, Serbia-Montenegro, Bosnia-Herzegovina, Turkey, Croatia, Poland, Romania, Slovakia, Italy (mainly from South Tyrol) and Hungary. The rank order changed between 2004 and 2009 in that the influx from Germany gained weight, overtaking immigrant numbers from Serbia-Montenegro and Bosnia-Herzegovina. Also the number of Romanians increased significantly since EU-membership in 2007 such that they jumped the queue from 8th place in 2004 to 7th place in 2009.

The skill composition of the migrant workers differs greatly by country of origin. Of the four top migrant nationalities, Germans make up the highest proportion of highly skilled workers (56%) and a fairly high proportion are skilled (39%). In contrast, workers from the regions of former Yugoslavia and Turkey tend to have a fairly similar skill structure with some

10% highly skilled and an almost equal division of skilled and low skilled. Among them, migrants from Bosnia-Herzegovina tend to be somewhat better skilled than the other two categories.

Table 5: The top 4 migrant worker groups by skill level, 2009

	Total	A. Highly skilled (ISCO 1-3)		B. Skilled (ISCO 4-8)		C. Low skilled (ISCO 9)	
	Abs.	Abs.	In %	Abs.	In %	Abs.	In %
Germany	75.942	42.933	56,5%	29.816	39,3%	3.193	4,2%
Serbia-Montenegro	51.429	4.181	8,1%	23.834	46,3%	23.414	45,5%
Bosnia-Herzegovina	47.389	4.309	9,1%	24.555	51,8%	18.525	39,1%
Turkey	38.965	4.153	10,7%	17.681	45,4%	17.131	44,0%

Source: Labour Force Survey 2009. Shaded figures are statistically not reliable due to small sample size.

Some major occupations of economic migrants

Migrants make up 21% of all employed persons in housekeeping and restaurant services. The major group is third-country nationals (12% of all workers), followed by other EU-15 nationals (5% of all workers in 2009, largely from Germany), citizens of EU-10 countries (3%) and EU-2 countries (1%).

In personal care work some 8% are migrant workers, mostly female, evenly spread over the various source countries (3% of the total from third countries, 2% ex aequo from EU-15 and EU-10 and 1% from EU-2.

Of all health professionals except nursing 9% were migrants, basically from EU-15 (7%) and EU-10 (1%).

Nursing personnel is not captured in the occupational classification of 223, but rather in 323 (non-academic nursing and care), where more than 11% of all workers had a foreign citizenship in 2009.

The highest proportion of migrants is working as a labourer in manufacturing, construction, transport and mining (ISCO 93), making up 22%, mainly persons from third countries (19%). In contrast, highly skilled professionals in engineering and related professions are mainly from another EU-15 country (6% of the total), followed by EU-10 (4%) and third-country nationals (3% of the total).

Flow data on migrants refer to the number of settlement permits (NB = Niederlassungsbewilligung) and residence permits (until 2005 AE = Aufenthaltserlaubnis, from 2006 AB = Aufenthaltsbewilligung) granted to third-country citizens (as EU citizens do not require such a permit due to freedom of movement of persons).⁴⁷

Accordingly, it is important to remember that a relatively small proportion of the annual inflows of settlers are regulated by quotas; temporary residents are able to reside on the basis of regulations of labour market institutions (seasonal or other employment contracts), university or other school access rights or on humanitarian grounds.

Over the course of 2008 a sum total of 21.200 resident permits were issued to newcomers from third countries (-300 or 1.6% versus 2007), of which 15.400 or 72% were issued to settlers. Thus the annual inflow of settlers remained more or less at the level of 2007 - after the abrupt decline in 2006, which had resulted from the reforms of the immigration regulations in 2005. The reforms effectively took away the right to family reunification of welfare recipients.

The number of temporary resident permits granted to third-country citizens increased slightly to 5,900 permits (180, 3.2%), after the break in 2006, after which the numbers were more than halved as a result of a switch from resident permits to work visas for temporary work of less than 6 months.

Of the 15.400 new settlers in 2008, almost one half (7.400) were issued on the basis of a quota, i.e., either due to high skills/key workers (Schlüsselarbeitskraft) or as a family member of a third-country citizen, who is a settler in Austria within a quota. Thus, 52% of the new third country settlers have the right to join their Austrian or EEA-family members or may settle on humanitarian grounds.

Settler permits can also be acquired by having a temporary permit transformed or the status of a settler visa without access to work transferred into one with access to work. In the course of 2008, 2.600 such transformations were taking place; 78% went to persons who were not under a quota/cap, namely 2.008. The transformations of titles were evenly spread across men and women.

47 For access to the labour market of EU nationals under transitional agreements see chapter 2.2.

Table 6: Annual inflows of settlers and temporary residents of third countries
Residence Permits issued in the course of the years 2002-2008
Annual Sum by end of December

	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
First issue settler	27.166	34.564	31.835	32.166	16.353	15.888	15.361
First Issue temporary resident	38.801	35.405	32.209	21.200	6.613	5.699	5.879
	65.967	69.969	64.044	53.366	22.966	21.587	21.240
Men							
First issue settler	11.976	15.158	14.471	14.508	7.016	7.083	7.037
of which within quota regulation	2.745	2.977	1.840	2.287	1.616	2.096	2.218
outside quota	9.231	12.181	12.631	12.221	5.400	4.987	4.819
Prolongation of settlement	0	34.332	33.443	36.484	51.852	59.203	56.327
Transfer of title to settler (no quota)	-	-	-	-	362	614	1.057
Transfer of title to settler (inside quota)	-	-	-	-	144	280	279
First issue temporary resident	21.257	19.891	16.903	11.374	2.902	2.621	2.660
Prolongation of temporary stay	0	13.943	10.757	9.994	7.521	7.124	7.596
Total	33.233	83.324	75.574	72.360	69.291	76.031	73.620
Women							
First issue settler	15.190	19.406	17.364	17.658	9.337	8.805	8.324
of which within quota regulation	3.851	5.050	3.298	3.971	2.453	3.159	5.183
outside quota	11.339	14.356	14.066	13.687	6.884	5.646	3.141
Prolongation of settlement	0	37.214	38.304	41.883	55.778	62.174	63.067
Transfer of title to settler (no quota)	-	-	-	-	450	619	951
Transfer of title to settler (inside quota)	-	-	-	-	229	292	289
First issue temporary resident	17.544	15.514	15.306	9.826	3.711	3.078	3.219
Prolongation of temporary stay	0	13.381	12.731	12.508	8.008	7.085	7.422
Total	32.734	85.515	83.705	81.875	76.834	81.142	82.032
Total							
First issue settler	27.166	34.564	31.835	32.166	16.353	15.888	15.361
of which within quota regulation	6.596	8.027	5.138	6.258	4.069	5.255	7.401
outside quota	20.570	26.537	26.697	25.908	12.284	10.633	7.960
Prolongation of settlement	0	71.546	71.747	78.367	107.630	121.377	119.394
Transfer of title to settler (no quota)	-	-	-	-	812	1.233	2.008
Transfer of title to settler (inside quota)	-	-	-	-	373	572	568
First issue temporary resident	38.801	35.405	32.209	21.200	6.613	5.699	5.879
Prolongation of temporary stay	0	27.324	23.488	22.502	15.529	14.209	15.018
Total	65.967	168.839	159.279	154.235	147.310	158.978	158.228

Source: Federal Ministry of the Interior

As to the newly issued temporary resident permits: of the total of 5.900 issued to third-country citizens in 2008, the majority are persons working in Austria temporarily (and their family members), followed by students and their family members, and 1% could stay on humanitarian grounds, many of them 'integrated' asylum seekers.

Temporary residence may be granted on the basis of various regulations, e.g., a temporary employment permit granted by the Federal Ministry of Labour Social Affairs and Consumer Protection in the case of seasonal work, or as a result of a bilateral cross-border agreement (commuters from Hungary and Czech Republic). These temporary work contracts are linked to employment contracts, which have a ceiling, e.g., in the case of seasonal workers and cross-border commuters. In these cases the residence in Austria is an integral part of the work contract and does not need processing by the Federal Ministry of the Interior. All other temporary residence cases which exceed a stay of 6 months are documented by the Federal Ministry of the Interior, e.g., students, training and work experience schemes, sports and entertainment schemes etc. These stays are uncapped, e.g., researchers, students etc., i.e. all of the 5.900 temporary residence permits issued in 2008 are uncapped by quotas. The temporary residence status may be extended, e.g. in the case of students. The total number of extensions is almost triple the number of first issues, namely 15.000 in 2008, +809 or 5.7% versus 2007.

In the course of 2008 15.400 first settler permits were issued, somewhat less than in 2007 and about 1.000 (-6.1%) less than in 2006. Two thirds of the settlement permits are issued to persons in uncapped categories, namely 10.000. The settler permits issued to third-country citizens, to whom no quota limit applies, are either family members of Austrians (or of citizens of the EEA) or they have obtained settlement rights in another EU Member State, or else may reside in Austria on humanitarian grounds. As far as the first group is concerned, they have unlimited access to the labour market (5.900 in 2008). The latter may access work on the basis of labour market testing.

Among the capped categories a fairly small number are highly skilled migrants, who come for work. The figures rose between 2006 and 2008 by 300 or 52% to 832. They constituted 15% of all first quota settlement permits in 2008. The majority of first settlers, who come under a quota, are family members who may only enter the labour market after labour market testing (limited access to work), (Table 7).

**Table 7: Sum of settlement permits granted to citizens of third countries (Non-EEA/CH) by residence status and sex
1 January to end of December**

	2006			2007			2008		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Sum of all first settlement permits within the quota regulation	1.616	2.453	4.069	2.096	3.159	5.255	2.218	3.141	5.359
No access to work	44	72	116	62	57	119	86	88	174
Limited (Family reunion)	1.043	2.050	3.093	1.353	2.665	4.018	1.333	2.508	3.841
Limited (Family reunion with self-employed high skilled settler)	13	12	25	13	20	33	5	17	22
Limited (Family reunion with salaried high skilled settler)	87	190	277	116	235	351	147	328	475
Limited (mobility of self-employed)	2	1	3	2	2	4		2	2
Limited (mobility of salaried worker)	2	5	7	7	5	12	6	7	13
High skilled settler (self-employed)	22	5	27	25	9	34	26	10	36
High skilled settler (salaried worker)	403	118	521	518	166	684	615	181	796
Sum of all first settlement permits outside the quota regulation	1.840	1.849	3.689	2.114	2.002	4.116	2.119	1.950	4.069
Family member	555	589	1.144	291	373	664	172	248	420
No access to work	17	21	38	9	8	17	11	9	20
No access to work (Humanitarian status)	17	7	24	8	7	15	2	2	4
Limited access to work (Family reunion)	1.179	1.151	2.330	1.682	1.507	3.189	1.860	1.624	3.484
Limited access to work (Family reunion humanitarian)	23	38	61	72	78	150	34	46	80
Limited access to work (European agreement)	2	4	6	3	3	6	3	5	8
Limited access to work (humanitarian)	47	39	86	49	29	78	37	16	53
First settlement permits: Family member	3.560	5.035	8.595	2.873	3.644	6.517	2.700	3.233	5.933
Family reunion (labour market testing for access to labour market)	-	-	-	18	16	34	24	11	35
Family reunion with Austrian/EEA (free access to labour market)	3.560	5.035	8.595	2.855	3.628	6.483	2.676	3.222	5.898
Sum of all first settlement permits	7.016	9.337	16.353	7.083	8.805	15.888	7.037	8.324	15.361
Prolongation of settlement permits	22.462	24.260	46.722	29.781	31.527	61.308	31.554	33.778	65.332
Family member	907	2.510	3.417	1.129	2.441	3.570	1.199	2.467	3.666
No access to work	355	525	880	364	561	925	375	529	904
Limited access to work (LM-testing)	11.327	11.140	22.467	12.712	12.133	24.845	10.887	10.740	21.627
High skilled settler (self-employed)	20	11	31	9	4	13	12	4	16
High skilled settler (salaried worker)	125	49	174	57	35	92	75	30	105
Unrestricted access to labour market	9.728	10.025	19.753	15.510	16.353	31.863	19.006	20.008	39.014
Prolongation of other settlement permits	29.389	31.518	60.907	29.422	30.647	60.069	24.773	29.289	54.062
Permanent residence- EU mobility	14.392	11.325	25.717	16.717	14.455	31.172	12.286	11.931	24.217
Permanent residence- family member EEA	1.293	1.683	2.976	1.902	1.818	3.720	1.594	2.188	3.782
Family member of perm. resident (LM- Testing)	-	-	-	12	17	29	29	27	56
Family member of Austrian/EEA (free access to LM)	13.704	18.510	32.214	10.791	14.357	25.148	10.864	15.143	26.007
Sum of all settlement permits	58.867	65.115	123.982	66.286	70.979	137.265	63.364	71.391	134.755

Source: Federal Ministry of the Interior, Central Alien Register

Settlement permits entitle third-country citizens to settle in Austria, but not everybody intends to settle, while others want to transform their settlement category into another title with more rights, e.g. free access to the labour market. Adding also the extensions and transformations into the picture, Austria issued a total of some 134.800 settlement permits in 2008.

In the event of a legal stay beyond five years, settlers may opt for obtaining a settlement certificate, which has been available since 2003 and which was renamed in 2005 to settlement-EU (Daueraufenthalt-EG), modelled after the American 'green card'. Prolongations of settlement permits are becoming more frequent as the duration of stay gets longer and integration proceeds. In addition, large numbers of prolongations go to third-country citizens who have permanent residence rights in another EU MS. They may access the labour market in Austria without any limitations. Their numbers amounted to 25.700 in 2006, increased to 31.200 in 2007 and declined again in 2008 to 24.200.

Table 8: Sum of temporary residence permits granted to citizens of third countries (Non-EEA/CH) by residence status and sex 1 January to end of December

	2006			2007			2008		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
First temporary residence permits	2.902	3.711	6.613	2.616	3.068	5.684	2.660	3.219	5.879
Employed persons on basis of GATS (mode 4)	126	73	199	93	12	105	152	19	171
Family member of highly skilled	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	2
Family member of researcher	9	17	26	7	34	41	19	38	57
Family member of intercompany transfers	42	94	136	41	90	131	40	94	134
Family member of special employment-artist-scientists etc.)	114	204	318	123	197	320	97	158	255
Family member of students	76	84	160	50	64	114	51	77	128
Family member of scientist/artist	11	10	21				13	45	58
Researcher	45	29	74	96	47	143	102	49	151
Humanitarian grounds	64	80	144	84	104	188	58	54	112
Artist (on the basis of work contract)	57	34	91	25	19	44	42	20	62
Artist (self-employed)	32	17	49	24	9	33	17	15	32
Intercompany transfers	135	51	186	120	27	147	114	36	150
Pupil	256	346	602	207	356	563	208	333	541
Self-employed	13	6	19	9	1	10	9	3	12
Special cases of salaried employees	597	1.391	1.988	542	1.123	1.665	529	1.164	1.693
Social worker	2	2	4	1	2	3		1	1
Students of higher education	1.323	1.273	2.596	1.194	983	2.177	1.209	1.111	2.320
Extensions of temporary residence permits	7.521	8.008	15.529	7.124	7.085	14.209	7.596	7.422	15.018
Employed persons on basis of GATS (mode 4)	74	45	119	44	38	82	90	39	129
Family member of highly skilled	-	-	-	-	-	-	8	10	18
Family member of researcher	3	6	9	13	16	29	4	4	8
Family member of intercompany transfers	62	150	212	61	153	214	9	35	44
Family member of special employment-artist-scientists etc.)	171	335	506	281	524	805	67	165	232
Family member of students	150	217	367	120	165	285	320	519	839
Family member of scientist/artist	41	66	107	35	58	93	128	173	301
Researcher	17	7	24	48	26	74	20	46	66
Humanitarian grounds	35	55	90	39	46	85	127	62	189
Artist (on the basis of work contract)	107	83	190	104	79	183	44	46	90
Artist (self-employed)	91	53	144	104	56	160	123	89	212
Intercompany transfers	154	55	209	149	46	195	109	65	174
Pupil	595	891	1.486	481	780	1.261	182	45	227
Self-employed	12	3	15	20	6	26	471	784	1.255
Special cases of salaried employees	705	857	1.562	1.018	653	1.671	22	5	27
Social worker	5	11	16	0	0	0	1.136	678	1.814
Students of higher education	5.299	5.174	10.473	4.607	4.439	9.046	4.736	4.657	9.393
Sum of all temporary residence permits	10.423	8.008	22.142	9.740	10.153	19.893	10.256	10.641	20.897

Source: Federal Ministry of the Interior, Central Alien Register

In addition to settlement permits, the Federal Ministry of the Interior issues temporary residence permits to persons who have obtained the right to enter for study, temporary work and business purposes including services mobility (GATS mode 4 = posted workers) or on humanitarian grounds. In the course of 2008, altogether 5,900 temporary residence permits were issued for the first time and 15.000 were extended. The largest number of first temporary residence permits went to students of higher education, namely 2.300 or 39% of all first temporary resident permits. Students were also the largest group to get their temporary stay extended namely 9.400 or 63% of all extensions, (Table 8).

Temporary residence status does not envisage the possibility of family reunification and access to welfare payments, in particular unemployment benefits. While the average duration of stay of temporary residents before the administrative break in 2006 was on average four to 6 weeks (in 2005 and 2004), it rose to seven months by mid 2008.

Labour Market needs (vacancies)

Job vacancy data from the employer survey in 2009⁴⁸ show that of the 52,700 job openings the largest number referred to the medium skill segment (54% of all vacancies) followed by highly skilled workers (31% of all job openings). But there is also unsatisfied demand for unskilled workers – even in 2009, the year of the economic crisis.

The major occupations for which job openings were recorded were in services tasks, in particular sales personnel (27% of all vacancies), followed by trades persons, i.e. technicians and similar skill level (21.4%) and crafts skills (13.5%). Vacancies for unskilled workers amounted to 12.3%.

The year of economic crisis has to be kept in mind, however, when wanting to explain the very low vacancy rate of 1.3%, compared to an unemployment rate of some 4.1%.

Future needs

Projections / scenarios of future needs (in the next 5, 10, 20 years), indicate that immigration to Austria will continue, on the one hand via chain migration and family reunification, on the other in the wake of the fall of transition regulations and further enlargement of the EU. In addition, Austria is planning to implement a point-based system of increased skilled

48 Statistics Austria: Employer Survey 2009, Vienna, 2009, available at www.statistik.at/web_de/statistiken/arbeitsmarkt/offene_stellen/index.html

migration from third countries. According to the forecast, Austria expects to raise the annual average intake of highly skilled from the current number of 1.000 persons to some 8.000 by 2030. Accordingly, Austria hopes to raise the number of highly skilled migrants by 100.000 between now and 2030. (Biffl et al 2010)

The planning and control of migration flows is becoming increasingly difficult, given the rights to family reunification, to refuge and to settlement after a certain period of legal residence on the one hand and free mobility of labour within the EU. Thus it will be difficult to adapt the migration system to a larger inflow of highly skilled migrants. If immigration to Austria continues to take place along traditional un- and semiskilled lines, it will not fit into the emerging specialisation processes of industrial production and economic integration and will most likely result in increased unemployment of the less skilled. These circumstances will not only limit potential economic growth but will contribute to rising income inequality and endanger social cohesion. The need for adjustment assistance is evident, one element being a coherent approach by the government and other relevant parties in the development of a system of lifelong learning.

The development of a system of lifelong learning is a major tool to raise and adapt the skill base of the work force and thus productivity. It is an integral part of the Lisbon Agenda towards a productive knowledge society. It may not suffice, however, to reduce the productivity gap between Europe and North America. The latter, together with Australia, are more successful than Europe in attracting the highly skilled, who almost by definition contribute more than proportionately to economic and productivity growth. In light of this, Europe may have to rethink its migration policies and develop better tools to attract and retain the highly skilled.

This can for example be achieved by implementing a system of controlled migration. It is a prerequisite for maximising the economic advantage associated with migration. However, integration measures have to complement immigration if social cohesion is not to be jeopardised. Even in cases of temporary worker migration, integration measures should be accessible, in particular housing and language courses, in order to promote social cohesion, one of the main pillars of the Lisbon Agenda.

While migrants will play a part in alleviating the problems linked to population ageing, the eventual ageing of the migrants themselves will add yet another dimension to the already daunting task of providing adequate care for an ageing population. The comparatively poor health of older migrants relative to Austrians implies that health care institutions will be faced

with caring for people with special needs, which are often chronic and multimorbid health problems as well as different language and cultural background. This may imply institutional adjustments, e.g. intercultural and diversity training for care-personnel, medication and equipment.

As migratory processes do not only have an economic dimension but also political, cultural, social, humanitarian and even strategic ones, it is important to inform the Austrian population about the contributions of immigrants to the wellbeing of society. In this respect Austria will have to learn from the traditional immigration countries overseas, where the media play an important role in informing the general public about the economic benefits accruing from immigration. However, this may partly be the result of a better informed media, as research into the role of immigration in socio-economic development is abundant and outcomes are readily available – a result of a long tradition of generous funding of migration research and a policy of transparency.

3.2.2 Analysis of trends and relevant developments

a) Shortages in particular occupations and/or sectors

Shortages will surface mainly in personal social and health care services, to some extent also in the high skill segment of engineering and natural science. The root causes are mainly deficiencies in the Austrian education system. In the first case, the reforms of the education system of the 1960s and 1970s did not integrate social and health care in the federal system but left this part of education and training to the Bundesländer to organise. As a consequence, health care education and training is fragmented and not included in the higher education stream which leads to a Matura, i.e. university entrance qualification levels. This has an impact not only on wages and career options but also on the social status and the working conditions.

In contrast, investment in higher education and university facilities in the natural sciences and engineering were insufficient to provide incentives to follow these long cycle university studies. In addition, wage and employment policy provided more incentives to choose law and business studies than science courses. As a consequence, not enough people want to work in these occupations, for reasons of limited career opportunities and earnings.

Accordingly, demand is high for migrants in these occupations.

b) Migrant workers managed to satisfy labour demand in shortage occupations
As data indicates, Austria so far has been successfully applying the strategy to fill shortage occupations with migrants. Germans and other EU citizens tend to satisfy the demand for engineers and similar occupations while women of new EU MS tend to work in care services, often as self-employed with low pay and working conditions.

c) No evidence that economic migrants are returning to their country of origin when the labour shortages in the particular occupations and/or sectors cease to exist

There is no indication that migrants return home in cases where the demand for their labour has ceased in Austria. Unemployment benefits and active labour market policies are in place to finance retraining and further education to ensure renewed employability.

d) With reference also to Article 14(2) of Directive 2009/52/EC (Employer Sanctions),⁴⁹ information on the extent of illegally resident third-country nationals working in specific sectors (e.g. construction, agriculture, domestic, hotels). Assessment of their impact on, and the needs of, the labour market in these sectors.

Austria has a long tradition of irregular employment. Employer sanctions have not been very successful in combating clandestine work. However, legalisation of services, above all in the household and care sector, can create a large number of jobs thereby reducing unemployment of lower to medium skill groups.

This could be seen in the case of legalising domestic care work. With the Enlargement of the EU in 2004 irregular employment of home care workers from Central and Eastern European Countries gained momentum. In 2006 the estimated number of irregular workers in care work was in the order of 40.000 workers, mainly women from Slovakia. The organisation of care work in the household sector became a hot topic in public debate. It triggered a reform of legislation in 2007, promoting the legalisation of clandestine care workers from new EU MS. By 2008, some 20.000 legalisations were registered, many of them as self-employed. Thus the above average employment and labour supply growth in 2008 was to a certain extent

49 Directive 2009/52/EC of the European Parliament and of the Council of 18 June 2009 providing for minimum standards on sanctions and measures against employers of illegally staying third-country nationals, available at <http://eur-lex.europa.eu/LexUriServ/LexUriServ.do?uri=OJ:L:2009:168:0024:0032:EN:PDF>

a mirage and brought about by legalisation of clandestine care workers. The pronounced slow-down in measured productivity growth in 2008 has to be re-interpreted in that context as well.

The few data collected on irregular (foreign) employment reveal that – apart from care work – the industries most affected are construction, catering, agriculture and small-scale industry. Until 2002 (Biffl et al., 2002), the majority of irregularly working immigrants came from Poland or Slovakia on the one hand and the successor states of Former Yugoslavia on the other. Jandl, et al. (2007) estimate irregular employment to be most pronounced in construction, catering/tourism (with some 15% of total employment) and agriculture (13%) (ibid).

Ever since then, no comprehensive information has been made available on clandestine work by nationality. But some of the complex administrative procedures regarding access to the labour market of migrants from third countries (and for citizens of new EU MS for as long as the transition regulations apply) have to be understood as instruments to combat clandestine work, in particular seasonal work in tourism and harvesting. The actual number of permits granted annually is in the order of 60.000 to 70.000 – for a limited time period, obviously. In an annual average the numbers are quite small in comparison though (12.100 in 2008 and 11.700 in 2009), taking into account that some may only work a few weeks and have a tradition of coming to the same employer over years. While this system is efficient in combating clandestine work, it also makes sure that every seasonal worker has social security coverage during the period of work in Austria.

Another group of persons has been taken out from the pool of clandestine workers, i.e., third country students. The amendment of the Alien Law of July 2002 allowed students to take up employment but only as part-timers, to help cover their living expenses. This amendment was not expected to and did not raise labour supply of migrant students but tended to legalise their work. No exact numbers have come forward yet, as most of them are ‘casual workers’, who do not get full social security coverage.

4. Co-operation with Third Countries for Economic Migration

Today, Austria does not cooperate with any third country to satisfy its labour demand. This was the case in the days of the foreign worker model, when recruitment centres in Turkey and former Yugoslavia were cooperating with the local LMS to recruit migrant workers.

5. Analysis and Conclusions

The major part of immigration to Austria is a result of free mobility of labour within the EU and of family reunification. Only a small proportion of third country migrants enter on the basis of scarce skills and thus labour recruitment (1.5% of all settler residence permits). Consequently, the speed of labour market access depends on the legal status of the migrant. Most migrants have free access to the labour market and do not need any special integration support. Those in need of special assistance are mainly third country family members, who enter under the family reunification scheme. In addition refugees are in need of special assistance, which is provided by the Labour Market Service and the regions with generous co-funding by the Federal Ministry of the Interior. There is one group, however, which would need special assistance but does not get it, i.e. asylum seekers.

Until today, labour shortages could be successfully addressed by promoting the inflow of skilled migrants from new EU MS through opening a large number of occupations to free entry, thereby loosening the net of transition regulations. Employers are, however, increasingly concerned about skills shortages, raising the issue of skilled immigration from third countries. The study raises the question to what extent an adaptation of the migration model can alleviate that shortage given that Austria has difficulties in attracting highly skilled migrants and keeping them. Recognition of skills obtained from abroad is one issue, moving up the career ladder is another. A pronounced Insider-Outsider labour market segmentation may hamper any efforts of migration policy to satisfy perceived skill needs.

6. Annex

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II. Statistical data

1. Stock of Employed Persons in ISCO-88 Major Groups 1-9 by skill level, nationality and sex, in 2004 to 2009 inclusive¹

Year: 2004

Main categorisation	1. Nationals			2. Other EU-15 Nationals		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
A. Highly skilled (ISCO 1-3)	749.565	606.128	1.355.693	26.193	16.700	42.893
B. Skilled (ISCO 4-8)	952.476	767.693	1.720.169	11.309	14.635	25.944
C. Low skilled (ISCO 9)	127.629	158.833	286.462	2.019	583	2.602
D. Researchers ²	174.842	154.176	329.018	12.171	5.701	17.872
E. Seasonal workers ³	-	-	-	-	-	-
TOTAL (A+B+C)	1.829.670	1.532.654	3.362.324	39.521	31.918	71.439

Year: 2005

Main categorisation	1. Nationals			2. Other EU-15 Nationals		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
A. Highly skilled (ISCO 1-3)	748.048	604.364	1.352.412	27.358	21.403	48.761
B. Skilled (ISCO 4-8)	989.688	789.840	1.779.528	12.709	12.183	24.892
C. Low skilled (ISCO 9)	130.716	158.817	289.533	1.950	2.812	4.762
D. Researchers ²	187.659	159.741	347.400	14.243	7.825	22.068
E. Seasonal workers ³	-	-	-	-	-	-
TOTAL (A+B+C)	1.868.452	1.553.021	3.421.473	42.017	36.398	78.415

3. EU-10 Nationals			4. EU-2 Nationals			5. Third-Country Nationals		
Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
8.428	10.813	19.241	741	2.811	3.552	17.625	9.437	27.062
19.941	9.547	29.488	2.625	2.397	5.022	87.351	34.279	121.630
1.358	4.127	5.485	2.029	4.530	6.559	37.054	44.371	81.425
4.536	218	4.754	511	1.557	2.068	5.256	2.280	7.536
12.171								
29.727	24.487	54.214	5.395	9.738	15.133	142.030	88.087	230.117

3. EU-10 Nationals			4. EU-2 Nationals			5. Third-Country Nationals		
Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
4.740	8.625	13.365	1.738	3.536	5.274	14.069	10.378	24.447
11.126	8.434	19.560	3.214	3.773	6.987	87.435	32.601	120.036
3.867	4.498	8.365	1.070	3.881	4.951	36.425	48.481	84.906
1.578	684	2.262	719	-	719	5.603	2.632	8.235
11.356								
19.733	21.557	41.290	6.022	11.190	17.212	137.929	91.460	229.389

Year: 2006

Main categorisation	1. Nationals			2. Other EU-15 Nationals		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
A. Highly skilled (ISCO 1-3)	755.199	621.049	1.376.248	31.182	17.693	48.875
B. Skilled (ISCO 4-8)	1.007.055	809.095	1.816.150	14.840	16.393	31.233
C. Low skilled (ISCO 9)	135.247	180.074	315.321	2.585	3.071	5.656
D. Researchers ²	188.067	163.299	351.366	15.049	6.138	21.187
E. Seasonal workers ³	-	-	-	-	-	-
TOTAL (A+B+C)	1.897.501	1.610.218	3.507.719	48.607	37.157	85.764

Year: 2007

Main categorisation	1. Nationals			2. Other EU-15 Nationals		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
A. Highly skilled (ISCO 1-3)	759.861	588.829	1.348.690	32.319	22.739	55.058
B. Skilled (ISCO 4-8)	1.015.994	843.567	1.859.561	16.764	19.012	35.776
C. Low skilled (ISCO 9)	144.716	182.235	326.951	3.266	1.952	5.218
D. Researchers ²	193.691	166.956	360.647	15.148	9.370	24.518
E. Seasonal workers ³	-	-	-	-	-	-
TOTAL (A+B+C)	1.920.571	1.614.631	3.535.202	52.349	43.703	96.052

3. EU-10 Nationals			4. EU-2 Nationals			5. Third-Country Nationals		
Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
6.648	8.299	14.947	529	1.746	2.275	20.984	17.920	38.904
15.940	10.723	26.663	1.616	1.547	3.163	89.870	32.716	122.586
6.298	7.493	13.791	273	1.851	2.124	35.301	45.246	80.547
779	1.697	2.476	143	-	143	7.638	6.224	13.862
10.894								
28.886	26.515	55.401	2.418	5.144	7.562	146.155	95.882	242.037

3. EU-10 Nationals			4. EU-2 Nationals			5. Third-Country Nationals		
Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
5.506	10.814	16.320	835	1.691	2.526	19.230	14.424	33.654
17.024	13.451	30.475	2.101	2.302	4.403	87.756	36.766	124.522
5.011	5.692	10.703	341	2.590	2.931	46.953	48.155	95.108
1.852	684	2.536	327	285	612	3.559	3.501	7.060
11.536								
27.541	29.957	57.498	3.277	6.583	9.860	153.939	99.345	253.284

Year: 2008

Main categorisation	1. Nationals			2. Other EU-15 Nationals		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
A. Highly skilled (ISCO 1-3)	779.254	597.762	1.377.016	33.860	24.067	57.927
B. Skilled (ISCO 4-8)	992.483	879.690	1.872.173	16.789	19.098	35.887
C. Low skilled (ISCO 9)	149.921	188.848	338.769	3.062	2.295	5.357
D. Researchers ²	194.559	173.306	367.865	17.203	8.694	25.897
E. Seasonal workers ³	-	-	-	-	-	-
TOTAL (A+B+C)	1.921.658	1.666.300	3.587.958	53.711	45.460	99.171

Year: 2009

Main categorisation	1. Nationals			2. Other EU-15 Nationals		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
A. Highly skilled (ISCO 1-3)	777.490	616.049	1.393.539	36.517	25.765	62.282
B. Skilled (ISCO 4-8)	982.926	866.736	1.849.662	18.836	20.012	38.848
C. Low skilled (ISCO 9)	149.432	178.401	327.833	1.517	2.598	4.115
D. Researchers ²	198.510	184.963	383.473	18.881	11.621	30.502
E. Seasonal workers ³	-	-	-	-	-	-
TOTAL (A+B+C)	1.909.848	1.661.186	3.571.034	56.870	48.375	105.245

Source: Statistics Austria, Labour Force Survey 2004-2009 for stocks, population in private households without conscripts or people in civilian service. Labour Market Service for seasonal workers. For the definition of worker (employed person) see chapter 1.2. Grey shading: Values with less than 8.000 persons are statistically not reliable due to small sample size. Values with less than 4.000 persons can statistically not be interpreted.

- 1 4th quarter (quarterly average)
- 2 The category "researchers" is double-counted as part of A. Highly skilled above. They are not counted separately in the total sum.
- 3 Part of A-D above. Seasonal workers in agriculture plus seasonal workers in tourism from third countries and EU-10, EU-2 nationals that need a permit.

3. EU-10 Nationals			4. EU-2 Nationals			5. Third-Country Nationals		
Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
4.781	11.422	16.203	1.189	1.740	2.929	21.552	15.240	36.792
14.521	16.618	31.139	6.249	4.370	10.619	91.223	35.852	127.075
4.776	5.352	10.128	2.236	3.959	6.195	40.253	45.148	85.401
2.825	3.872	6.697	1.041	872	1.913	5.710	3.295	9.005
12.135								
24.078	33.392	57.470	9.674	10.069	19.743	153.028	96.240	249.268

3. EU-10 Nationals			4. EU-2 Nationals			5. Third-Country Nationals		
Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
5.609	11.364	16.973	1.651	1.285	2.936	25.839	15.495	41.334
14.622	13.690	28.312	4.576	5.600	10.176	75.669	36.916	112.585
3.120	6.603	9.723	2.117	5.199	7.316	40.547	47.763	88.310
2.808	2.009	4.817	683	220	903	9.402	2.320	11.722
11.746								
23.351	31.657	55.008	8.344	12.084	20.428	142.055	100.174	242.229

2) Stock of Workers in ISCO-88 Major Groups 1-9 by country of nationality, 2004 to 2009 inclusive¹

Year: 2004

Country of Nationality	Total (A+B+C)			A. Highly skilled	
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Nationals	1.829.670	1.532.654	3.362.324	749.565	606.128
Other EU-15	39.521	31.918	71.439	26.193	16.700
EU-10	29.727	24.487	54.214	8.428	10.813
EU-2	5.395	9.738	15.133	741	2.811
Third countries	142.030	88.087	230.117	17.625	9.437
Serbia-Montenegro	32.369	25.551	57.920	2.828	2.034
Bosnia-Herzegovina	33.182	20.542	53.724	3.243	1.676
Germany	22.420	19.272	41.692	14.734	10.116
Turkey	27.791	12.213	40.004	2.673	835
Croatia	18.228	12.914	31.142	1.494	1.935
Poland	10.642	10.795	21.437	1.586	4.897
Hungary	7.289	5.665	12.954	3.234	2.354
Romania	4.540	8.384	12.924	229	2.159
Slovakia	5.962	2.019	7.981	2.582	1.406
Italy	5.217	2.487	7.704	3.405	1.254
TOTAL	2.046.343	1.686.884	3.733.227	802.552	645.889

Year: 2005

Country of Nationality	Total (A+B+C)			A. Highly skilled	
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Nationals	1.868.452	1.553.021	3.421.473	748.048	604.364
Other EU-15	42.017	36.398	78.415	27.358	21.403
EU-10	19.733	21.557	41.290	4.740	8.625
EU-2	6.022	11.190	17.212	1.738	3.536
Third countries	137.929	91.460	229.389	14.069	10.378
Serbia-Montenegro	31.480	23.656	55.136	1.700	1.816
Bosnia-Herzegovina	34.810	20.154	54.964	2.233	1.557
Germany	26.214	24.419	50.633	15.044	13.897
Turkey	25.755	11.775	37.530	1.699	687
Croatia	17.276	15.281	32.557	561	1.916
Poland	8.741	10.212	18.953	849	3.645
Romania	5.457	10.220	15.677	1.283	3.289
Hungary	5.317	2.359	7.676	1.448	1.585
Czech Republic	2.968	4.643	7.611	1.831	2.288
Italy	5.033	2.033	7.066	3.589	1.401
TOTAL	2.074.153	1.713.626	3.787.779	795.953	648.306

(ISCO 1-3)	B. Skilled (ISCO 4-8)			C. Low skilled (ISCO 9)		
Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
1.355.693	952.476	767.693	1.720.169	127.629	158.833	286.462
42.893	11.309	14.635	25.944	2.019	583	2.602
19.241	19.941	9.547	29.488	1.358	4.127	5.485
3.552	2.625	2.397	5.022	2.029	4.530	6.559
27.062	87.351	34.279	121.630	37.054	44.371	81.425
4.862	19.197	8.304	27.501	10.344	15.213	25.557
4.919	23.695	6.623	30.318	6.244	12.243	18.487
24.850	6.417	8.623	15.040	1.269	533	1.802
3.508	14.818	4.930	19.748	10.300	6.448	16.748
3.429	13.638	5.056	18.694	3.096	5.923	9.019
6.483	8.618	3.495	12.113	438	2.403	2.841
5.588	3.252	2.102	5.354	803	1.209	2.012
2.388	2.625	2.397	5.022	1.686	3.828	5.514
3.988	3.380	613	3.993	-	-	-
4.659	1.676	1.233	2.909	136	-	136
1.448.441	1.073.702	828.551	1.902.253	170.089	212.444	382.533

(ISCO 1-3)	B. Skilled (ISCO 4-8)			C. Low skilled (ISCO 9)		
Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
1.352.412	989.688	789.840	1.779.528	130.716	158.817	289.533
48.761	12.709	12.183	24.892	1.950	2.812	4.762
13.365	11.126	8.434	19.560	3.867	4.498	8.365
5.274	3.214	3.773	6.987	1.070	3.881	4.951
24.447	87.435	32.601	120.036	36.425	48.481	84.906
3.516	20.000	8.679	28.679	9.780	13.161	22.941
3.790	24.451	6.261	30.712	8.126	12.336	20.462
28.941	10.263	8.598	18.861	907	1.924	2.831
2.386	17.010	4.197	21.207	7.046	6.891	13.937
2.477	14.310	4.261	18.571	2.405	9.104	11.509
4.494	4.717	4.135	8.852	3.175	2.432	5.607
4.572	3.104	3.050	6.154	1.070	3.881	4.951
3.033	3.490	735	4.225	379	39	418
4.119	1.137	1.759	2.896	-	596	596
4.990	1.100	632	1.732	344	-	344
1.444.259	1.104.172	846.831	1.951.003	174.028	218.489	392.517

Year: 2006

Country of Nationality	Total (A+B+C)			A. Highly skilled	
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Nationals	1.897.501	1.610.218	3.507.719	755.199	621.049
Other EU-15	48.607	37.157	85.764	31.182	17.693
EU-10	28.886	26.515	55.401	6.648	8.299
EU-2	2.418	5.144	7.562	529	1.746
Third countries	146.155	95.882	242.037	20.984	17.920
Serbia-Montenegro	38.187	26.467	64.654	4.884	3.889
Germany	32.169	28.426	60.595	20.607	13.480
Bosnia-Herzegovina	32.269	20.755	53.024	2.759	2.671
Turkey	26.747	9.133	35.880	1.699	1.007
Croatia	19.140	14.792	33.932	2.013	1.635
Poland	17.665	8.820	26.485	4.202	2.721
Hungary	6.164	6.627	12.791	1.461	1.064
Czech Republic	2.009	5.625	7.634	882	2.321
Romania	2.009	5.144	7.153	120	1.746
Slovakia	2.121	4.822	6.943	104	2.083
TOTAL	2.123.567	1.774.916	3.898.483	814.542	666.707

Year: 2007

Country of Nationality	Total (A+B+C)			A. Highly skilled	
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Nationals	1.920.571	1.614.631	3.535.202	759.861	588.829
Other EU-15	52.349	43.703	96.052	32.319	22.739
EU-10	27.541	29.957	57.498	5.506	10.814
EU-2	3.277	6.583	9.860	835	1.691
Third countries	153.939	99.345	253.284	19.230	14.424
Germany	34.667	34.590	69.257	20.048	17.880
Bosnia-Herzegovina	32.626	23.332	55.958	3.649	1.580
Serbia-Montenegro	31.495	22.939	54.434	3.853	1.816
Turkey	32.213	10.782	42.995	1.970	409
Croatia	18.876	15.116	33.992	268	1.739
Poland	13.819	9.153	22.972	2.567	1.782
Hungary	6.730	5.652	11.082	1.830	2.355
Czech Republic	3.294	6.315	9.609	784	3.490
Romania	3.277	6.298	9.575	835	1.406
Slovakia	2.075	6.971	9.046	137	3.031
TOTAL	2.157.677	1.794.219	3.951.896	817.751	638.497

(ISCO 1-3)	B. Skilled (ISCO 4-8)			C. Low skilled (ISCO 9)		
Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
1.376.248	1.007.055	809.095	1.816.150	135.247	180.074	315.321
48.875	14.840	16.393	31.233	2.585	3.071	5.656
14.947	15.940	10.723	26.663	6.298	7.493	13.791
2.275	1.616	1.547	3.163	273	1.851	2.124
38.904	89.870	32.716	122.586	35.301	45.246	80.547
8.773	23.935	5.632	29.567	9.368	16.946	26.314
34.087	9.805	12.645	22.450	1.757	2.301	4.058
5.430	19.957	6.917	26.874	9.553	11.167	20.720
2.706	17.821	2.568	20.389	7.227	5.558	12.785
3.648	13.211	5.173	18.384	3.916	7.984	11.900
6.923	10.427	2.056	12.483	3.036	4.043	7.079
2.525	2.647	3.839	6.486	2.056	1.724	3.780
3.203	669	2.616	3.285	458	688	1.146
1.866	1.616	1.547	3.163	273	1.851	2.124
2.187	1.364	1.902	3.266	653	837	1.490
1.481.249	1.129.321	870.474	1.999.795	179.704	237.735	417.439

(ISCO 1-3)	B. Skilled (ISCO 4-8)			C. Low skilled (ISCO 9)		
Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
1.348.690	1.015.994	843.567	1.859.561	144.716	182.235	326.951
55.058	16.764	19.012	35.776	3.266	1.952	5.218
16.320	17.024	13.451	30.475	5.011	5.692	10.703
2.526	2.101	2.302	4.403	341	2.590	2.931
33.654	87.756	36.766	124.522	46.953	48.155	95.108
37.928	13.036	15.385	28.421	1.583	1.325	2.908
5.229	20.928	6.979	27.907	8.049	14.773	22.822
5.669	17.309	8.333	25.642	10.333	12.790	23.123
2.379	19.827	3.872	23.699	10.416	6.501	16.917
2.007	14.262	6.057	20.319	4.346	7.320	11.666
4.349	7.519	4.018	11.537	3.733	3.353	7.086
4.185	4.246	2.651	6.897	654	646	
4.274	2.510	2.209	4.719	-	616	616
2.241	2.101	2.302	4.403	341	2.590	2.931
3.168	1.487	3.643	5.130	451	297	748
1.456.248	1.139.639	915.098	2.054.737	200.287	240.624	440.911

Year: 2008

Country of Nationality	Total (A+B+C)			A. Highly skilled	
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Nationals	1.921.658	1.666.300	3.587.958	779.254	597.762
Other EU-15	53.711	45.460	99.171	33.860	24.067
EU-10	24.078	33.392	57.470	4.781	11.422
EU-2	9.674	10.069	19.743	1.189	1.740
Third countries	153.028	96.240	249.268	21.552	15.240
Germany	39.824	34.439	74.263	24.332	17.657
Serbia-Montenegro	34.608	27.960	62.568	2.990	3.594
Bosnia-Herzegovina	34.177	20.922	35.211	2.142	2.808
Turkey	29.586	10.864	40.450	2.867	740
Croatia	19.413	12.478	31.891	3.044	814
Poland	12.363	12.326	24.689	729	2.235
Romania	7.827	8.484	16.311	494	1.428
Slovakia	1.915	11.089	13.004	541	4.299
Hungary	7.221	5.574	12.795	2.296	2.444
Italy	5.099	3.305	8.404	3.523	1.745
TOTAL	2.162.149	1.851.461	4.013.610	840.636	650.231

Year: 2009

Country of Nationality	Total (A+B+C)			A. Highly skilled	
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Nationals	1.909.848	1.661.186	3.571.034	777.490	616.049
Other EU-15	56.870	48.375	105.245	36.517	25.765
EU-10	23.351	31.657	55.008	5.609	11.364
EU-2	8.344	12.084	20.428	1.651	1.285
Third countries	142.055	100.174	242.229	25.839	15.495
Germany	40.107	35.835	75.942	24.265	18.668
Serbia-Montenegro	29.297	22.132	51.429	2.054	2.127
Bosnia-Herzegovina	26.852	20.537	47.389	2.695	1.614
Turkey	27.207	11.758	38.965	2.592	1.561
Croatia	21.025	13.955	34.980	4.206	668
Poland	12.424	9.471	21.895	1.757	3.076
Romania	7.343	10.060	17.403	1.336	1.285
Slovakia	4.131	9.305	13.436	691	4.511
Italy	7.463	3.455	10.918	5.704	1.230
Hungary	3.510	6.641	10.151	1.885	1.679
TOTAL	2.140.468	1.853.476	3.993.944	847.106	669.958

Source: Statistics Austria, Labour Force Survey 2004-2009 for stocks, population in private households without conscripts or people in civilian service. Labour Market Service for seasonal workers. For the definition of worker (employed person) see chapter 1.2.

(ISCO 1-3)	B. Skilled (ISCO 4-8)			C. Low skilled (ISCO 9)		
Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
1.377.016	992.483	879.690	1.872.173	149.921	188.848	338.769
57.927	16.789	19.098	35.887	3.062	2.295	5.357
16.203	14.521	16.618	31.139	4.776	5.352	10.128
2.929	6.249	4.370	10.619	2.236	3.959	6.195
36.792	91.223	35.852	127.075	40.253	45.148	85.401
41.989	13.440	14.949	28.389	2.052	1.833	3.885
6.584	23.023	10.169	33.192	8.595	14.197	22.792
4.950	23.176	7.085	30.261	8.859	11.029	
3.607	16.539	3.653	20.192	10.180	6.471	16.651
3.858	12.793	4.593	17.386	3.576	7.071	10.647
2.964	8.690	6.906	15.596	2.944	3.185	6.129
1.922	5.523	3.823	9.346	1.810	3.233	5.043
4.840	656	5.907	6.563	718	883	1.601
4.740	3.905	2.143	6.048	1.020	987	2.007
5.268	1.182	1.460	2.642	394	100	494
1.490.867	1.121.265	955.628	2.076.893	200.248	245.602	445.850

(ISCO 1-3)	B. Skilled (ISCO 4-8)			C. Low skilled (ISCO 9)		
Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
1.393.539	982.926	866.736	1.849.662	149.432	178.401	327.833
62.282	18.836	20.012	38.848	1.517	2.598	4.115
16.973	14.622	13.690	28.312	3.120	6.603	9.723
2.936	4.576	5.600	10.176	2.117	5.199	7.316
41.334	75.669	36.916	112.585	40.547	47.763	88.310
42.933	14.449	15.367	29.816	1.393	1.800	3.193
4.181	18.344	5.490	23.834	8.899	14.515	23.414
4.309	18.889	5.666	24.555	5.268	13.257	18.525
4.153	13.086	4.595	17.681	11.529	5.602	17.131
4.874	11.313	6.643	17.956	5.506	6.644	12.150
4.833	9.016	3.062	12.078	1.651	3.333	4.984
2.621	4.175	4.040	8.215	1.832	4.735	6.567
5.202	2.138	3.360	5.498	1.302	1.434	2.736
6.934	1.759	1.971	3.730	-	254	254
3.564	1.625	4.662	6.287	-	300	300
1.517.064	1.096.629	942.954	2.039.583	196.733	240.564	437.297

Grey shading: Values with less than 8.000 persons are statistically not reliable due to small sample size. Values with less than 4.000 persons can statistically not be interpreted.

¹ 4th quarter (quartlerly average)

3) Stock of Workers in specific occupations, 2004 to 2009 inclusive¹

Year: 2004

Specific occupations	1. Nationals			2. Other EU-15 Nationals			
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	% of total
Housekeeping and restaurant services workers (ISCO 512)	33.573	65.703	99.276	2.876	3.467	6.343	5,1%
Personal care and related workers (ISCO 513)	11.454	95.270	106.724	0	2.194	2.194	1,9%
Health professionals (except nursing) (ISCO 222)	24.182	20.175	44.357	770	1.147	1.917	4,1%
Nursing and midwifery professionals (ISCO 223)	0	164	164	0	0	0	0,0%
Skilled Agricultural and Fishery Workers (ISCO 61)	84.028	79.720	163.748	832	443	1.275	0,8%
Architects, Engineers and related professionals (ISCO 214)	26.909	4.758	31.667	2.178	64	2.242	5,9%
Teaching personnel (ISCO 23)	40.069	82.663	122.732	3.346	1.913	5.259	4,0%
Labourers In Mining, Construction, Manufacturing And Transport (ISCO 93)	82.736	31.309	114.045	1.397	-	1.397	0,9%
TOTAL	302.951	379.762	682.713	11.399	9.228	20.627	

3. EU-10 Nationals				4. EU-2 Nationals				5. Third-Country Nationals			
Male	Female	Total	% of total	Male	Female	Total	% of total	Male	Female	Total	% of total
900	2.918	3.818	3,0%	112	0	112	0,1%	8.888	6.749	15.637	12,5%
1.005	1.300	2.305	2,0%	0	458	458	0,4%	618	3.148	3.766	3,3%
101	0	101	0,2%	0	0	0	0,0%	0	0	0	0,0%
0	0	0	0,0%	0	0	0	0,0%	0	0	0	0,0%
508	575	1.083	0,6%	-	-	-	0,0%	1.409	84	1.493	0,9%
1.306	-	1.306	3,5%	511	-	511	1,4%	1.692	395	2.087	5,5%
1.535	-	1.535	1,2%	-	-	-	0,0%	272	77	349	0,3%
803	819	1.622	1,1%	1.543	1.489	3.032	2,0%	23.129	7.086	30.215	20,1%
6.158	5.612	11.770		2.166	1.947	4.113		36.008	17.539	53.547	

Year: 2005

Specific occupations	1. Nationals			2. Other EU-15 Nationals in Group			
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	% of total
Housekeeping and restaurant services workers (ISCO 512)	39.914	69.946	109.860	1.052	2.134	3.186	2,4%
Personal care and related workers (ISCO 513)	1.910	86.999	97.909	0	1.059	1.059	1,0%
Health professionals (except nursing) (ISCO 222)	24.667	16.571	41.238	767	808	1575	3,7%
Nursing and midwifery professionals (ISCO 223)	0	114	114	0	0	0	0,0%
Skilled Agricultural and Fishery Workers (ISCO 61)	94.539	90.543	185.082	493	243	736	0,4%
Architects, Engineers and related professionals (ISCO 214)	22.398	3.578	25.976	3.639	498	4.137	12,5%
Teaching personnel (ISCO 23)	48.960	89.320	138.280	2.519	1.786	4.305	3,0%
Labourers In Mining, Construction, Manufacturing And Transport (ISCO 93)	79.675	29.299	108.974	1.516	1.104	2.620	1,8%
TOTAL	321.063	386.370	707.433	9.986	7.632	17.618	

3. EU-10 Nationals				4. EU-2 Nationals				5. Third-Country Nationals			
Male	Female	Total	% of total	Male	Female	Total	% of total	Male	Female	Total	% of total
0	2.694	2.694	2,1%	0	1.856	1.856	1,4%	6.312	6.927	13.239	10,1%
0	434	434	0,4%	0	402	402	0,4%	226	3.565	3.791	3,7%
0	0	0	0,0%	0	0	0	0,0%	0	0	0	0,0%
0	0	0	0,0%	0	0	0	0,0%	0	0	0	0,0%
-	370	370	0,2%	-	-	-	0,0%	1.715	1.280	2.995	1,6%
-	-	-	0,0%	-	-	-	0,0%	2.393	632	3.025	9,1%
-	147	147	0,1%	-	-	-	0,0%	869	1.602	2.471	1,7%
2.145	1.117	3.262	2,3%	1.070	742	1.812	1,3%	20.651	6.682	27.333	19,0%
2.145	4.762	6.907		1.070	3.000	4.070		32.166	20.688	52.854	

Year: 2006

Specific occupations	1. Nationals			2. Other EU-15 Nationals			
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	% of total
Housekeeping and restaurant services workers (ISCO 512)	37.086	72.266	109.352	2.179	2.019	4.198	3,2%
Personal care and related workers (ISCO 513)	11.883	91.096	102.979	131	1.476	1.607	1,5%
Health professionals (except nursing) (ISCO 222)	20.790	19.991	40.781	685	315	1.000	2,4%
Nursing and midwifery professionals (ISCO 223)	0	0	0	0	0	0	
Skilled Agricultural and Fishery Workers (ISCO 61)	92.081	88.068	180.149	813	837	1.650	0,9%
Architects, Engineers and related professionals (ISCO 214)	26.801	3.689	30.490	4.668	668	5.336	13,9%
Teaching personnel (ISCO 23)	43.783	89.045	132.828	2.185	1.641	3.826	2,7%
Labourers In Mining, Construction, Manufacturing And Transport (ISCO 93)	82.977	33.747	116.724	1.857	839	2.696	1,8%
TOTAL	315.401	397.902	713.303	12.518	7.795	20.313	

3. EU-10 Nationals				4. EU-2 Nationals				5. Third-Country Nationals			
Male	Female	Total	% of total	Male	Female	Total	% of total	Male	Female	Total	% of total
446	3.234	3.680	2,8%	262	0	262	0,2%	7.774	6.850	14.624	11,1%
0	1.218	1.218	1,1%	0	64	64	0,1%	198	2136	2334	2,2%
0	275	275	0,7%	0	0	0	0,0%	0	0	0	0,0%
0	0	0		0	0	0		0	0	0	
-	652	652	0,4%	96		96	0,1%	1.126	897	2.023	1,1%
-	-	-	0,0%	-	-	-	0,0%	1.706	820	2.526	6,6%
249	940	1.189	0,8%	-	-	-	0,0%	-	2.435	2.435	1,7%
3.449	-	3.449	2,3%	273	582	855	0,6%	24.242	4.947	29.189	19,1%
4.144	6.319	10.463		631	646	1.277		35.046	18.085	53.131	

Year: 2007

Specific occupations	1. Nationals			2. Other EU-15 Nationals			
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	% of total
Housekeeping and restaurant services workers (ISCO 512)	36.454	76.264	112.718	1.231	1.717	2.948	2,1%
Personal care and related workers (ISCO 513)	13.871	92.604	106.475	830	2.955	3.785	3,2%
Health professionals (except nursing) (ISCO 222)	22.841	21.572	44.413	1.473	1.258	2.731	5,7%
Nursing and midwifery professionals (ISCO 223)	0	94	94	0	0	0	0,0%
Skilled Agricultural and Fishery Workers (ISCO 61)	90.405	83.756	174.161	369	726	1.095	0,6%
Architects, Engineers and related professionals (ISCO 214)	29.432	3.144	32.576	4.561	239	4.800	12,1%
Teaching personnel (ISCO 23)	43.493	85.396	128.889	3.180	2.909	6.089	4,4%
Labourers In Mining, Construction, Manufacturing And Transport (ISCO 93)	90.542	36.916	127.458	1.385	113	1.498	0,9%
TOTAL	327.038	399.746	726.784	13.029	9.917	22.946	

3. EU-10 Nationals				4. EU-2 Nationals				5. Third-Country Nationals			
Male	Female	Total	% of total	Male	Female	Total	% of total	Male	Female	Total	% of total
1.762	4.283	6.045	4,4%	0	565	565	0,4%	8.553	7.143	15.696	11,4%
1.146	3.069	4.215	3,6%	0	407	407	0,3%	0	3.822	3.822	3,2%
0	226	226	0,5%	0	0	0	0,0%	0	491	491	1,0%
0	0	0	0,0%	0	0	0	0,0%	0	0	0	0,0%
410	146	556	0,3%		-	-	0,0%	1.820	570	2.390	1,3%
316	-	316	0,8%	-	-	-	0,0%	1.391	427	1.818	4,6%
-	147	147	0,1%	-	-	-	0,0%	620	1.146	1.766	1,3%
2.134	1.532	3.666	2,2%	147	-	147	0,1%	27.416	9.413	36.829	21,7%
5.768	9.403	15.171		147	972	1.119		39.800	23.012	62.812	

Year: 2008

Specific occupations	1. Nationals			2. Other EU-15 Nationals			
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	% of total
Housekeeping and restaurant services workers (ISCO 512)	39.675	69.471	109.146	3.481	2.776	6.257	4,5%
Personal care and related workers (ISCO 513)	12.897	109.723	122.620	898	2398	3.296	2,4%
Health professionals (except nursing) (ISCO 222)	21.151	20.291	41.442	1.204	559	1.763	4,0%
Nursing and midwifery professionals (ISCO 223)	0	307	307	0	0	0	0,0%
Skilled Agricultural and Fishery Workers (ISCO 61)	91.451	90.611	182.062	659	861	1.520	0,8%
Architects, Engineers and related professionals (ISCO 214)	26.822	5.848	32.670	3.933	799	4.732	11,8%
Teaching personnel (ISCO 23)	44.362	90.891	135.253	1.949	1.178	3.127	2,2%
Labourers In Mining, Construction, Manufacturing And Transport (ISCO 93)	93.285	44.638	137.923	1.901	704	2.605	1,5%
TOTAL	329.643	431.780	761.423	14.025	9.275	23.300	

3. EU-10 Nationals				4. EU-2 Nationals				5. Third-Country Nationals			
Male	Female	Total	% of to- tal	Male	Female	Total	% of to- tal	Male	Female	Total	% of to- tal
784	3.760	4.544	3,3%	0	1.419	1.419	1,0%	9196	6.957	16.153	11,7%
0	4.780	4.780	3,5%	0	0	0	0,0%	650	5.645	6.295	4,6%
0	766	766	1,7%	0	0	0	0,0%	0	441	441	1,0%
0	0	0	0,0%	0	0	0	0,0%	0	0	0	0,0%
-	255	255	0,1%	-	262	262	0,1%	687	183	870	0,5%
529	460	989	2,5%	-	-	-	0,0%	889	765	1.654	4,1%
-	547	547	0,4%	335	321	656	0,5%	1.198	644	1.842	1,3%
2.033	-	2.033	1,2%	885	935	1.820	1,0%	24.746	7.539	32.285	18,3%
3.346	10.568	13.914		1.220	2.937	4.157		37.366	22.174	59.540	

Year: 2009

Specific occupations	1. Nationals			2. Other EU-15 Nationals			
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	% of total
Housekeeping and restaurant services workers (ISCO 512)	44.519	67.922	112.441	4.652	2.887	7.539	5,2%
Personal care and related workers (ISCO 513)	16.635	112.729	129.364	916	1.291	2.207	1,6%
Health professionals (except nursing) (ISCO 222)	21.226	20.783	42.009	1.829	1.550	3.379	7,3%
Nursing and midwifery professionals (ISCO 223)	0	676	676	0	0	0	0,0%
Skilled Agricultural and Fishery Workers (ISCO 61)	85.105	80.679	165.784	476	884	1.360	0,8%
Architects, Engineers and related professionals (ISCO 214)	27.335	4.959	32.294	2.320	-	2.320	6,2%
Teaching personnel (ISCO 23)	42.143	96.585	138.728	3.541	3.770	7.311	4,9%
Labourers In Mining, Construction, Manufacturing And Transport (ISCO 93)	89.498	39.755	129.253	968	700	1.668	1,0%
TOTAL	326.461	424.088	750.549	14.702	11.082	25.784	

Source: Statistics Austria, Labour Force Survey 2004-2009 for stocks, population in private households without conscripts or people in civilian service. Labour Market Service for seasonal workers. For the definition of worker (employed person) see chapter 1.2.

Grey shading: Values with less than 8.000 persons are statistically not reliable due to small sample size. Values with less than 4.000 persons can statistically not be interpreted.

¹ 4th quarter (quarterly average)

3. EU-10 Nationals				4. EU-2 Nationals				5. Third-Country Nationals			
Male	Female	Total	% of total	Male	Female	Total	% of total	Male	Female	Total	% of total
2.221	2.822	5.043	3,5%	0	1.783	1.783	1,2%	10.654	6.693	17.347	12,0%
639	2.114	2.753	2,0%	0	1.077	1.077	0,8%	325	4.369	4.694	3,4%
305	334	639	1,4%	0	220	220	0,5%	0	0	0	0,0%
0	0	0	0,0%	0	0	0	0,0%	0	0	0	0,0%
-	1.337	1.337	0,8%	-	750	750	0,4%	2.274	963	3.237	1,9%
1.044	429	1.473	4,0%	-	-	-	0,0%	1.017	177	1.194	3,2%
-	349	349	0,2%	-	-	-	0,0%	788	1.009	1.797	1,2%
1.964	752	2.716	1,6%	743	862	1.605	1,0%	25.085	5.986	31.071	18,7%
6.173	8.137	14.310		743	4.692	5.435		40.143	19.197	59.340	