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***Lessons from the Swiss migration experience:¹
an empirical analysis of the employment performance***

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1. INTRODUCTION

The Swiss migration experience started with the industrialization process in the second half of the last century. Comparatively attractive jobs as well as complete freedom of movement and settlement led to a surge in immigration. As a result, the share of foreigners living in Switzerland increased markedly from a mere 3 percent in 1850 to 15.2 percent in 1914. This process was reversed, however, by the two world wars and the Great Depression which, together with a restrictive admission policy, were responsible for the decline in the share of foreigners to 5.2 percent in 1941. Due to shortages in the labour market, there was a large inflow of foreign workers after World War II. In the after-war boom period, there was a general perception in Switzerland that immigrant workers would stay only temporarily to accumulate some wealth, but would then eventually return to their home countries. Nevertheless, it turned out that a large share of these immigrants remained permanently. As a consequence, the share of foreigners had risen to almost 20 percent and the share of foreigners in overall employment had increased to almost 34 percent by 1995. Switzerland, therefore, together with Luxembourg and Australia, has by far the highest share of foreigners in all OECD countries (see Table 1).

While policy makers initially encouraged the influx of immigrants and approved an accordingly liberal admission policy, the steep rise in the share of the foreign population led to a growing resistance in the population against the free access of immigrants. As a result, in 1963 the Swiss government introduced restrictions on the admission of immigrants for the first time since World War II. The growing number of immigrants and the compositional shifts in the countries of origin as well as the motives of migration led to a reorientation of the Swiss migration policy. While immigration initially originated mainly from neighbouring countries, there was a shift from core European countries to the periphery and to non-European countries. Parallel to this development, family and refugee migration became increasingly important compared to labour migration.

In 1991, the so-called three-circle policy was introduced, which implied a policy that was based on country of origin considerations. Nevertheless, the globalization process and the corresponding increase in competition for mobile factors, led the Swiss government to announce a

shift in migration policy at the end of 1997 that would more closely correspond to the needs of the labour market and would enhance the integration of immigrants.

As a result of the importance of migration for Switzerland, analyzing the employment performance of immigrant workers is not only an interesting issue from an academic point of view, but also a very relevant issue in formulating migration policy. Therefore, the focus of the paper is twofold. First, we will analyze the performance of immigrant workers.² We will then derive a reform proposal for the Swiss migration policy. The paper is structured as follows. In Section 2, we present some descriptive statistics on the employment performance of immigrants. We analyze productivity related determinants of the employment performance in Section 3. In Section 4, we turn to discrimination related determinants of the employment performance; and in Section 5, we sketch the reform proposal for the Swiss migration policy.

2. DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

In this section we want to draw a statistical portrait of immigrants and the native-born in Switzerland. The procedure is as follows. The human capital endowment of individuals is analyzed, which is proxied by the highest educational attainment. Next, the occupational position as well as the sectoral distribution of the employed are examined. This analysis will provide first insights on vertical and horizontal occupational segregation. In a third step, the employment performance is measured directly through employment and unemployment ratios.

Before turning to the descriptive analysis, some remarks on the data used for the descriptive and empirical analyses have to be made. It is based on data from the Swiss Labour Force Survey (SLFS), a sample survey that has been carried out annually since 1991. The SLFS provides a broad database on a wide range of labour market related issues. It provides information on socio-demographic and socio-economic characteristics of the employed, labour market conditions, job characteristics, sectors and so on. As the SLFS covers only the so-called resident population, i.e. Swiss and immigrants holding an annual or a residence permit, not all employed persons working in Switzerland are included in the analysis, namely seasonal workers and commuters. To avoid

² A thorough analysis of the performance of immigrant workers can be found in Golder (1999). In his analysis, Golder distinguishes between employment and earnings performance.

cohort-specific heterogeneity problems, our analysis focuses solely on the employment performance of first generation immigrants, i.e. immigrants who were either born abroad, or aged more than 16 when they came to Switzerland. For the descriptive analysis and the examination of the labour market segmentation, projections for the resident population are used to provide a more accurate picture at the aggregate level. Finally, the analysis is confined to persons aged 16 to 64, i.e. those of working age.

Educational attainment. Educational attainment is one of the most important criteria for an accurate assessment of the labour market performance of immigrants. In Table 2, the average educational attainment for male and female immigrants and native-born is shown. The main results can be summarized as follows. *First*, there are significant nationality-specific differences in the educational attainment for males as well as for females. *Second*, male immigrants from non-European countries exhibit a significant degree of heterogeneity in their skill profile, which is mainly due to the relatively high level of aggregation within this nationality group. *Third*, Table 2 reveals that immigrants from Northern European countries are relatively better qualified than immigrants from other countries. On the one hand, this is due to a better overall educational level in these countries. On the other hand, these differences also reflect a duality in recruitment of immigrant workers between these regions. While immigrants from Northern European countries are mainly recruited for high-skilled jobs, the opposite holds for immigrants from other regions.

Fourth, aside from nationality-specific differences, there are also gender-specific differences in educational attainment. The comparison between males and females reveals that the share of females in the highest educational segments is significantly below that of males. *Finally*, skill levels of immigrants and the native-born can be compared. Two points are noteworthy in this context, namely that immigrants are not only more concentrated in the lowest educational segments, but also in the highest. This result is mainly due to the above-average share of low-skilled (high-skilled) immigrants from Southern and non-European countries (Northern European countries). As a result, the importance of a disaggregated analysis is reinforced.

Employment Status. The analysis of this paper does not only provide insights on the employment performance, but also on the extent of labour market segmentation. While the analysis of the employment status gives information on the extent of vertical segmentation, horizontal segmentation will be analyzed in the context of the sectoral allocation of immigrants. As can be seen in Table 3, there is a close connection between skill profile and employment status,

which reinforces the intuitive conclusion that education is a major determinant of the labour market performance. More than two-thirds of the immigrants from Southern or non-European countries do not have a position with a superior function. In contrast, around 60 percent of the male immigrants from Northern Europe are located in the highest segments. The lower educational attainments of females compared to males are also reflected in a stronger concentration of female employment in lower employment status'. Overall, the comparison between immigrants and the native-born shows that the latter, on average, attain a higher employment status than the former.

Economic sector. To provide a thorough assessment of the employment performance as well as to gain some insights on horizontal labour market segmentation, the allocation of immigrants and native-born in economic sectors is also considered. In Table 4, sectoral employment shares for males and females are displayed. In line with the previous results, it can be seen that almost 75 percent of the male immigrants from Southern Europe are working in the manufacturing, construction or wholesale and retail trade business. In contrast, immigrants from Northern Europe exhibit large shares in low- as well as high-skill intensive sectors. This duality in employment can be attributed to the fact that the share of immigrants from Northern Europe has been high in recent years as well as during the first immigration wave, with the former being higher skilled than the latter. Based on the results from the descriptive analysis, one could therefore conclude that there is a significant vertical as well as horizontal segmentation of the labour market segmentation. The latter will be analyzed in more detail in the empirical segment of the paper.

Participation rates and employment level. As pointed out above, employment performance is measured by the employment as well as the unemployment stance of immigrants and the native-born. To assess the employment stance, two indicators have to be considered: namely the participation rate and the level of employment. Looking at Table 5, gender-specific differences are most noteworthy. The comparison between the different nationality groups reveals that there are neither large differences for males nor for females in terms of their participation rates. As the labour force encompasses employed and unemployed, it is not possible to draw an unambiguous picture from participation rates on the employment performance.

If employment rates are considered instead of participation rates, i.e. employed as a share of the labour force, it can be seen that the former are substantially higher for male as well as for female immigrants from Northern Europe compared to immigrants from Southern and non-

European countries.³ As a result of the small differences in participation rates among the three nationality groups, lower employment rates therefore imply higher unemployment rates. This can be explained by the higher degree of transferability of human capital for immigrants from similar regions in terms of culture, language and economic structure. The comparison between immigrants and the native-born reveals that although there are nationality-specific differences in participation rates, there are no significant differences in employment levels for males. For females, however, the share of part-time employed Swiss is significantly higher than that for foreigners.

Unemployment rates and duration of unemployment. As a second criterion for a thorough analysis of the employment performance, unemployment has to be considered. Analogous to the employment analysis, two factors determine the unemployment stance: the risk of becoming unemployed as well as the likelihood of finding a job (see Table 6). As can be seen, the rate as well as the duration of unemployment are highest for immigrants from Southern and non-European countries. Besides these nationality-specific divergences, there are also significant gender-specific differences as well as differences between the native-born and immigrants.

3. UNEMPLOYMENT PROBABILITIES

In the context of the empirical analysis, we discuss productivity as well as discrimination-related aspects that determine employment performance. The main question to be answered is whether there are significant differences in the employment performance between immigrants and the native-born and what these differences are due to, i.e. productivity, or discrimination-specific factors. In the literature, three different measures to analyze the employment performance are usually distinguished. First, the unemployment probability, which is proxied by the unemployment rate; second, the employment probability, which is measured by the employment rate; and third, the participation probability, which is measured by the participation rate. As a result of the significant differences in unemployment rates, the similarities in employment rates as well as the mingling of these two measures in the participation rate, it seems best to use the unemployment probability to study the employment performance.

³ See Golder and Straubhaar (1998), Golder (1998).

Model specification. To analyze the employment performance, we use a qualitative response model, namely a binomial probit model.⁴ In line with index function models, we proxy the endogenous variable — unemployment probability — by the dichotomous variable *UNEMPL*, which takes a value of 1 when the person is unemployed and a value of 0 when the person is employed. On the right-hand side, the following exogenous variables are included. First, the age of the individuals in the sample (*AGE*) is used. As a result of the cross-sectional nature of the analysis, the duration and risk component of unemployment cannot be disentangled, which implies that there is an ambiguous effect from age on the unemployment probability. While the risk of becoming unemployed is higher for young persons as compared to older persons, the duration of unemployment usually increases with age.⁵ In the context of cross-sectional analyzes, therefore, the likelihood of finding older persons in the sample is higher. As a result, we can expect a positive effect of age on the unemployment probability.

As a second individual-specific variable, the skill profile is considered, which is approximated by the number of years of schooling attained (*SCH*). This variable, which is calculated according to Table 7, is based on the educational attainment in the SLFS.⁶ With respect to the skill profile, a negative relationship to unemployment probability can be expected since for the low skilled the risk as well as the duration of unemployment is in general higher than that for the higher skilled. Nevertheless, as all individuals in the sample exhibit an education level equivalent to at least seven years of schooling, this could imply that educational differences cannot be accounted for appropriately.⁷

An insignificant effect of the education variable for foreigners could also be due to the fact that they are not able to transfer their skills attained in the home country to the host country, thereby reducing the correlation between education and the unemployment probability. Finally, an insignificant or negative effect from education could also be an indicator of so-called mismatch-

⁴ See Greene (1995).

⁵ See Franz (1991).

⁶ This conversion is, however, not without problems, as the factors used in Table 7 are based on the normal duration that is needed to achieve a certain degree. Inter-individual differences in education periods as well as qualitative differences in education are therefore neglected. This issue is especially problematic when the duration of education for foreigners is calculated, as not only the attribution of a foreign degree to one of the categories in Table 7 can be difficult, but also because the use of identical conversion factors for natives and immigrants does not account for internationally diverging education systems.

⁷ This issue could be dealt with by the use of a dummy variable for skilled and unskilled workers.

unemployment, which describes a situation where skill profiles of workers and skill requirements of employers do not correspond. In general, this form of unemployment serves as an indicator of the extent of structural unemployment.

Besides these individual-specific variables, the logarithmic monthly household residual income (*LN_HHINC*) is considered, which is used as a proxy for the household structure. This variable is constructed from the differences of the total monthly household income and the monthly labour income of the individual in the sample. The use of this variable is based on the consideration that the unemployment probability is influenced by the economic situation of the household. An increasing household residual income not only raises the opportunity costs of labour but also the risk of becoming unemployed. Search theory furthermore implies that with increasing household income the search costs decrease, thereby leading to a prolongation in the duration of unemployment. Overall, we can therefore expect a positive effect from the household residual income on the unemployment probability.

Besides these microeconomic factors, the general economic situation plays an important role in explaining unemployment. As an indicator of the current economic situation, we use unemployment rates at the state level (*UNPL*). It is likely that there is a positive relationship between the level of state unemployment rates and individual unemployment probabilities. Finally, two dummy variables for immigrants from Northern Europe (*NTHEU*) and Southern Europe (*STHEU*) are used to account for differences between nationality groups. A summary of the model specification can be found in Table 8.

Empirical results. After the discussion of the empirical framework, we now turn to the estimation results. In Table 9, the descriptive statistics of the variables used to estimate unemployment probabilities are shown. In line with the results from the descriptive analysis of the last section, unemployment probabilities of immigrants turn out to be significantly higher than those of the native-born.

In Table 10, the estimation results of the probit regression for Swiss males and females are presented. As can be seen, there is a significant negative relationship between age and the unemployment probability for males. This implies that for males, the risk of becoming unemployed decreases over time. Therefore, in explaining unemployment for males, the risk component bears a larger weight than the duration component. For female Swiss, in contrast, the age effect is insignificant, which could be due to a counterbalancing of the two components. A negative effect

on the unemployment probability for the Swiss arises also from the skill profile, although this effect is only significant for females. As a result, at least for females, an improvement in the skill profile has a significant negative impact on the unemployment probability. The insignificant effect for males can be explained by a mismatch of skills between workers and employers.

As suggested by theory, there is a positive relationship between unemployment and household residual income. The same also holds for general economic conditions. In the first case, this is mainly due to the fact that not only the opportunity costs of working have become larger and thus the unemployment risk, but also that search costs are reduced, thereby leading to a reduction in search intensity of the unemployed. In the second case, a deterioration of the economic climate can lead not only to an increased risk, but also to a prolongation of unemployment duration.

In Table 11, the estimation results for male and female immigrants are shown. One major difference to the native-born arises from the age variable, which is significantly positive for immigrant men, but significantly negative for native men. This result is mainly due to the fact that in cross-sectional analyses, long-term unemployed are represented in the sample with a higher probability and that older persons in general exhibit a longer duration of unemployment than younger persons.⁸ With respect to foreign females, the coefficient of the education variable is not significant. In line with previous arguments, this can be explained by a mismatch in skill requirements and skill profiles. As a result of the incomplete transferability of the human capital acquired in the home country, it is likely that the skill profile of immigrants has only a slightly positive influence on the employment performance.

The consideration of nationality-specific differences in Table 11 finally reveals that immigrants from Northern Europe have the lowest probability of becoming unemployed and immigrants from non-European countries the highest. These results correspond to those from the descriptive analysis, which showed that immigrants from Northern European countries exhibit the most favourable individual characteristics, while the opposite holds for immigrants from non-European countries.

⁸ These results coincide with those from the descriptive analysis.

4. LABOUR MARKET SEGMENTATION

After the discussion of productivity-related determinants of the labour market performance, we now turn to discrimination-related determinants. More specifically, we want to examine the extent of horizontal segmentation on the Swiss labour market.

Model specification. One form of discrimination on the labour market is horizontal labour market segmentation, i.e. the concentration of immigrants in selected sectors or branches of the economy.⁹ In order to be able to assess the extent of segregation between immigrants and the native-born, it is necessary to have a measure of the distribution of the employed over the different branches. In the literature, two indices are usually employed to study these issues.¹⁰ One index is called '*Dissimilarity-Index*' D , which can be traced back to Duncan and Duncan (1955). The other is called '*G-Segregation-Index*' G_S , which was developed by Butler (1987) and further elaborated by Silber (1989a, 1989b).

For the empirical analysis of the labour market segmentation, the so-called general nomenclature of economic sectors (ASWZ 85) of the Swiss Federal Statistical Office is used. In order to provide for a differentiated analysis of sector-specific segregation on the one hand, and to ensure a sufficient number of observations for the individual sectors on the other, the analysis of the labour market performance is based on a 'two-digit definition' of economic sectors.

As a result of the large correspondence between the dissimilarity and the G-segregation index, only the former is used in what follows. In their definition, both indices are based on the literature on income distribution.¹¹ Duncan and Duncan (1955) were the first to use the insights of

⁹ The literature is by and large focused on questions related to gender specific labour market segmentation. For an overview see Taubmann and Wachter (1986).

¹⁰ See Boisso, Hayes, Hirschberg and Silber (1994), Deutsch, Flückiger and Silber (1994), Flückiger, Boymond and Silber (1995) and Silber (1989a, 1989b).

¹¹ The advantage of the G-Segregation Index consists of the fact that it accounts for the relative importance of the different branches in total employment [see also Flückiger, Boymond and Silber (1995)]. The G-Segregation Index corresponds to the weighted Gini-Index of the immigrant/native relation F_i/N_i , such as

$$G_S = 0.5 \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n \frac{N_i}{N} \cdot \frac{N_j}{N} \left| \frac{F_i/N_i - F_j/N_j}{F/N} \right|.$$

To simplify the calculation, Silber (1989a, 1989b) proposed the following rearrangements in matrix notation:

$$G_S = \left(\frac{N_i}{N} \right)' \cdot G \cdot \left(\frac{F_i}{F} \right) = n' G f. \text{ For the elements of matrix } G \text{ holds that .}$$

this literature for the analysis of labour market segmentation in the deduction of their concept of the segregation curve on the traditional Lorenz curve of income distribution analysis. The *Dissimilarity-Index D* is defined as follows:

$$(1) \quad D = 0.5 \sum_{i=1}^n \left| \frac{F_i}{F} - \frac{N_i}{N} \right|,$$

with F_i and N_i being the number of foreign and native workers in sector i and F and N being the total workforce of immigrants and the native-born. If a Lorenz-type segregation curve is constructed for the different sectors based on the respective distributions, then the index can be understood as the largest vertical distance between this curve and the diagonal. More intuitively, the index can be understood as the share of native-born or foreigners that have to change jobs, in order to allow for an equilibrium in the employment shares between immigrants and the native-born in the different sectors. Index D plays an important role in the literature, as it can be used for a number of different questions related to segregation.

Estimation results. The analysis of labour market segmentation is based on the 1991 and 1995 survey sample of the SLFS. The sample is projected to the permanent resident population in Switzerland to allow for a better comparison to the results from the descriptive analysis. As an additional constraint, only full-time employed are considered since employment level is likely to have an influence on the sectoral employment shares. The consideration of estimation results from both 1991 and 1995 allows us to account for qualitative intertemporal changes in the extent of labour market segmentation.

The results in Table 12 can be interpreted as follows. A value of zero implies identical employment share of native-born and foreigners in the different branches. A positive value, in contrast, implies that there is a divergence in the employment shares between the native-born and immigrants. The closer the index is to one, the larger the discrepancy in employment shares. At a value of one, there is a complete sectoral segregation between immigrants and the native-born. As already mentioned, native-born employees or rather their employment shares are used as a reference value for the calculation of the dissimilarity index.

The results in Table 12 clearly indicate that not only are there significant differences between males and females, but also among the three nationality groups in the extent of sectoral segregation. The main results can be summarized as follows. First, especially for men, there has

been a substantial convergence in the employment structure between the native-born and immigrants between 1991 and 1995.¹² Second, differences between the native-born and immigrants are larger for males than for females. This result is due to the larger sectoral dispersion of male as compared to female employment. Third, there are also substantial differences in sectoral segregation between the different nationality groups. This is especially true for immigrants from non-European countries.

While there are a number of conclusions that can be drawn from this table on the extent of labour market segmentation, no conclusions can be deduced about which branches are responsible for the diverging employment shares. This issue is, however, crucial for the evaluation of the employment performance, as a larger employment concentration of foreigners in sectors that require a higher (lower) skill profile cannot only lead to an increase in sector specific segregation, but can also imply an improvement (worsening) of the employment performance of immigrants. A solution to this problem can be found in Table 4, where employment shares in the different sectors are exhibited at the one-digit-level. While immigrants from Southern and non-European countries are much more heavily concentrated in industrial sectors than the native-born, immigrants from Northern Europe exhibit a stronger employment concentration in the service sector, especially in the banking, insurance and real estate business, but also in other services, and the wholesale and retail trade. In contrast, the native-born exhibit much higher shares in the agricultural industry as well as in the civil service, which is in part due to legal restrictions on foreigner employment.

In summary, labour market segmentation is likely to have a positive effect on the labour market performance of immigrants from Northern Europe and a negative effect on immigrants from Southern and non-European countries. In accordance with the considerations on dual labour market theory, the segmentation of the labour market implies that immigrants from Southern and non-European countries are mainly working in those industries that are neither attractive for the native-born nor for the immigrants from Northern Europe.

¹² It must be mentioned, however, that in the context of this assimilation process, an 'upgrading' as well as a 'downgrading' in the employment structure of immigrant workers can happen.

4. LESSONS FOR MIGRATION POLICY

Based on the results from the empirical analysis of the employment performance we now turn to the discussion of their implications for economic policy. As pointed out by Golder (1997) in the context of an international comparison, a nationality-specific admission policy, like the currently adopted three-circle policy in Switzerland, can generate a positive selection of immigrants and thus lead to a good labour market performance of immigrant workers. Nevertheless, two important issues have to be considered. First, the definition of the different circles has a great influence on the labour market performance of immigrants, which can be illustrated by the nationality group specific differences in performance. Second, it has to be recognized that migration policy, which defines different levels of admission on the basis of geographical-political areas, is subject to criticism of discrimination, as immigration is restricted according to a set of individual-specific characteristics, namely citizenship. In this context it should be mentioned that the United States as well as Canada abolished their nationality-specific immigration policy as a result of public pressure against discrimination in the mid-60s and switched to a reorientation of their immigration policy. The three-circle policy in Switzerland has also been criticized rather heavily. In particular, the commission against racism concluded that the current migration policy constitutes a violation of the anti-discrimination law in Switzerland.

In what follows, we will sketch a feasible and economically sound reform alternative, which accounts for these problems and places the Swiss migration policy on a sound and sustainable basis. This proposal is mainly based on Golder (1997), and has already found its way into policy making, as the expert commission on migration policy made reform proposals in fall 1997 that coincided by and large with the proposal presented below.

This proposal suggests a shift to a two-circle policy. Within the first circle, analogous to the current policy, complete freedom of movement between the European Economic Area (EEA) and Switzerland is the goal. In the second circle, where the rest of the countries can be found, immigration should be controlled by a point system. Instead of a selective, nationality-specific access of foreign workers within the existing second circle and a discriminatory access denial for foreign workers from the third circle, a point system should instead be implemented that would better account for the socio-economic characteristics of immigrants.

This new orientation of the Swiss migration policy would have mainly two advantages. First, a point system would, in contrast to a nationality-specific admission policy, allow for a direct consideration of the individual socio-economic characteristics and socio-demographic profiles of immigrants in the admission decision. The needs of the labour market, thereby, could better be accounted for. Second, the transition from a nationality-specific admission policy to a point system would also lead to a shift away from the discriminatory treatment of potential immigrants, as immigration admission would not be granted based on a specific nationality but on specific individual characteristics of applicants.

Several aspects have to be accounted for when implementing a point system. First, the allocation of points should follow the well-proven example of Canada and Australia, and be based on criteria, such as age, marital status, educational attainment, experience, language abilities, the willingness to make financial investments and create new jobs, and the prevalence of a job. The allocation of points should be guided by scarcity indicators for sectors and jobs.¹³ Similar to the Canadian practice, it would be useful to grant preferential treatment to investors.

Second, within a quota system, as it already exists in Switzerland, a flexible and labour market-oriented control of immigration could be realized. As the Swiss experience has shown, especially in the failure of the rotation policy, i.e. the presumption that there is a steady in- and outflow of immigrants, migration policy should not be used for business-cycle policy, but should instead be oriented towards the long-term structural and overall economic developments. Analogous to Canada, the government could fix a target value for a mid-term horizon, which would be subject to annual reviews and be based on the overall economic situation.

Third, the transition to a point system should also be followed by a simplification of residence permits with a clear distinction between temporary and permanent immigration. In the case of temporary immigration, which should mainly be used for training and exchange programs for the highly skilled, duration of residence should be clearly limited. Additionally, the time restriction of the permit should not allow for a deduction of any rights on a prolongation of the residence permit. Family reunification, in contrast, should be liberalized completely. In case of permanent immigration, all restrictions concerning geographical as well as job mobility should be

¹³ See Zimmermann (1997), and Velling and Woydt (1993).

abolished for immigrants as well as for their families. The adoption of these measures would accordingly imply the abolition of the very controversial seasonal statute.

Besides these conditions, which govern the admission criteria for immigrants, a more active integration policy should be followed. The necessity for this arises mainly from the shift in migration motives over the last decades, which has led to a substantial increase in network, family and refugee migration. As these migration moves cannot be regulated nor controlled due to humanitarian reasons, labour migration is the only policy parameter that can be used by migration policy. In order to provide all immigrants with the chance to exploit their skill potential and thus be able to contribute to the prosperity of the Swiss economy, integration of immigrants into the Swiss economy must be improved. These considerations underline the necessity for supporting measures in the area of asylum policy. First, Switzerland must continue to adhere to its commitments under international law. Second, measures of integration policy have to be reinforced with respect to refugees who have a permanent residence permit. Third, for temporarily admitted refugees — as in the case of temporary immigration — a liberalization of their employment opportunities should be aimed at, although this should not lead to a strengthening of their residence status.

The targeted liberalization of mobility for goods and persons between Switzerland and the EEA within the first circle, as well as the selection of immigrant workers within the second circle, in general have to be judged positively. Especially with a view to the EEA, these measures will lead to a strengthening of the competitiveness of Swiss firms as well as better access to the European labour market. From an economic point of view, it would be best to let market forces take over the allocation process on the European labour market. This would require, however, that market forces really work, as otherwise misallocations would have to be expected. As market forces are rather weak in a number of sectors in Switzerland at present, supporting measures to strengthen the liberalization and deregulation of economic structures have to be undertaken to provide for an efficient allocation of workers.

This argument holds mainly for the stagnating and sheltered sectors of the internal economy, as sectors like the hotel and construction business, and also production, have contributed to an artificial growth of these sectors with a corresponding increase in their demand for cheap foreign workers. This development has contributed to a substantial share of foreign workers that exhibit an unfavourable skill profile and who therefore cannot be used in high-tech and competitive

sectors. Intensified competition in these sectors would reinforce restructuring therein, and thus reduce the need for low-skilled workers.

In summary, there is a substantial need for reform of the Swiss migration policy to meet future challenges. As this paper has shown, these reforms have to be supported by deregulation and liberalization, strengthened integration measures and adjustments in the area of asylum policy. Expanded globalization and opening of markets as well as the strengthened internationalization of economic relations have increased the pressure on individual economies to implement attractive locational-specific factors to remain competitive in the mobile factors — labour and capital. For this reason, it seems unavoidable to push the restructuring of the Swiss economy toward a service and information society and to enhance its flexibility. At the same time, measures to integrate immigrants must be reinforced in order to enable them to better use their potential, and thereby contribute to the prosperity of the Swiss economy.

APPENDIX: TABLES

Tab. 1: Share of foreigners and share of foreign born¹ in selected OECD countries, 1993

<i>Country</i>	<i>Foreign Population in 1'000</i>	<i>Employed Foreigners in</i>	<i>Foreign Population in %</i>	<i>Employed Foreigners in %</i>
<i>Belgium</i>	921	340	9.1	8.3
<i>Denmark</i>	189	54	3.6	1.9
<i>Germany</i>	6'878	3'432	8.5	8.8
<i>Finland</i>	56	–	1.1	–
<i>France</i>	3'597	1'544	6.3	6.2
<i>UK</i>	2'001	1'026	3.5	3.6
<i>Ireland</i>	94	40	2.7	3.0
<i>Italy</i>	987	–	1.7	–
<i>Japan</i>	1'321	–	1.1	–
<i>Luxembourg</i>	125	65	31.1	38.6
<i>Netherlands</i>	780	278	5.1	3.9
<i>Norway</i>	162	48	3.8	4.5
<i>Austria</i>	690	305	8.6	9.6
<i>Sweden</i>	508	221	5.8	5.1
<i>Spain</i>	430	82	1.1	0.5
<i>Switzerland</i>	1'260	726	18.1	21.7
<i>Australia</i>	4'125	2'164	22.7	24.8
<i>Canada</i>	4'343	2'681	15.6	18.5
<i>USA</i>	19'767	11'636	7.9	9.3

Source: Golder and Straubhaar (1998)

Note: For Australia, Canada and the United States the figures refer to foreign born in 1991

Table 2: Educational attainment of employed native-born and foreigners (in %)

Nationality Groups	Educational Attainment					
	1	2	3	4	5	6
Males						
<i>Northern Europe</i>	4.8	25.7	14.6	18.5	30.9	5.5
<i>Southern Europe</i>	42.7	27.7	9.4	4.2	2.5	13.5
<i>Non-Europe</i>	14.8	29.0	10.7	8.5	20.1	16.9
<i>Foreigners</i>	24.7	27.3	11.3	9.8	15.3	11.6
<i>Swiss</i>	7.4	46.4	13.0	20.1	9.5	3.7
Females						
<i>Northern Europe</i>	7.4	26.5	26.7	8.2	19.6	11.5
<i>Southern Europe</i>	54.0	15.0	9.0	1.1	1.7	19.2
<i>Non-Europe</i>	30.7	28.5	14.3	5.3	4.9	16.4
<i>Foreigners</i>	34.3	21.2	16.2	4.3	8.4	15.7
<i>Swiss</i>	18.2	42.1	24.1	5.3	5.0	5.3

Source: SLFS (1995), own calculations

Notes: Employed: Persons aged 16 to 64

Educational attainment: 1=Compulsory education 2=Vocational education, 3=Upper-level secondary general education, 4=Higher vocational education, 5=University education, 6=No answer, other education

Table 3: Employment Status of native-born and foreigners (in %)

Nationality Groups	Employment Status					
	1	2	3	4	5	6
Males						
<i>Northern Europe</i>	17.7	16.9	28.0	36.7		0.7
<i>Southern Europe</i>	9.2	4.2	17.3	68.5	0.2	0.5
<i>Non-Europe</i>	8.5	3.2	14.3	72.2	0.5	1.3
<i>Foreigners</i>	12.0	8.2	20.2	58.6	0.3	0.7
<i>Swiss</i>	20.7	10.6	23.1	39.8	5.0	0.8
Females						
<i>Northern Europe</i>	12.0	4.4	17.1	64.8		1.7
<i>Southern Europe</i>	4.4	1.7	3.6	89.8	0.2	0.3
<i>Non-Europe</i>	4.3	1.7	8.0	84.1	1.9	
<i>Foreigners</i>	8.0	2.6	9.0	79.3	0.4	0.7
<i>Swiss</i>	17.1	3.6	11.8	61.4	4.6	1.4

Source: SLFS (1995), own calculations

Notes: Employed: Persons aged 16 to 64

Employment Status: 1=Self-employed, 2=Position with board member function, 3=Position with superior function, 4=Position without superior function, 5=Trainee, 6=Other employed (classification not possible)

Table 4: Employed native-born and foreigners grouped by economic sectors (in %)

Nationality Groups	Economic Sectors								
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Males									
Northern Europe	0.5		27.3	6.7	19.4	1.0	17.4	25.3	2.3
Southern Europe	0.9	0.3	35.7	27.2	16.9	3.1	8.0	6.9	1.0
Non-Europe	0.2		35.7	11.8	20.8	7.3	9.4	12.3	2.5
Foreigners	0.7	0.2	32.9	17.5	18.4	3.2	11.4	14.0	1.7
Swiss	6.1	1.4	22.3	9.3	16.1	8.5	16.0	13.9	6.4
Females									
Northern Europe			10.4	0.2	19.0	4.6	9.8	49.0	7.1
Southern Europe	0.2		26.2		29.4	3.5	12.5	27.4	0.9
Non-Europe			30.1		24.0	3.7	10.0	30.5	1.7
Foreigners	0.9		21.4	0.1	24.6	3.8	11.1	35.0	3.1
Swiss	4.4	0.3	11.5	2.6	24.7	4.1	15.4	32.9	4.1

Source: SLFS (1995), own calculations

Notes: Employed: Individuals aged 16 to 64

Economic Sectors: 1=Agriculture, hunting and forestry, 2=Electricity, gas and water supply, mining, 3=Manufacturing, 4=Construction, 5=Wholesale and retail trade, hotel and restaurant industry, repair industry, 6=Transport, storage and communication, 7=Financial intermediation, real estate, renting and business activities, 8=Other services (health, education, research), 9=Public administration

Table 5: Employment rates and employment level for native-born and foreigners (in %)

Nationality Groups	Employment Level (Males)				Employment Level (Females)			
	PR	<20	20-69	70-100	PR	<20	20-69	70-100
Northern Europe	96.3		1.9	98.1	72.3	6.0	30.0	64.0
Southern Europe	94.1		1.8	98.2	75.3	4.6	30.4	65.0
Non-Europe	95.3		3.6	96.4	71.6	2.6	23.0	74.4
Foreigners	95.1		2.2	97.8	73.6	4.6	28.5	66.9
Swiss	90.8	0.8	3.4	95.8	68.7	8.2	35.3	56.5

Source: SLFS (1995), own calculations

Notes: PR = Participation rate: Work force (employed and unemployed according to definition by SLFS)/Individuals aged 16 to 64

Table 6: Unemployment rates and duration of unemployment for native-born and foreigners (in %)

<i>Nationality Groups</i>	<i>UR</i>	<i>Duration of unemployment (in months)</i>			
		<i>< 3</i>	<i>3 – 12</i>	<i>12 – 24</i>	<i>> 24</i>
Males					
<i>Northern Europe</i>	2.4	46.7	21.6	31.6	
<i>Southern Europe</i>	5.9	23.1	29.3	39.1	8.5
<i>Non-Europe</i>	9.6	20.4	44.4	15.3	19.9
<i>Foreigners</i>	5.6	25.0	33.1	29.3	12.6
<i>Swiss</i>	1.9	37.3	32.4	23.1	7.2
Females					
<i>Northern Europe</i>	1.4		76.1	4.1	19.8
<i>Southern Europe</i>	8.9	26.3	33.1	33.1	7.5
<i>Non-Europe</i>	11.5	30.0	37.9	5.1	27.0
<i>Foreigners</i>	6.9	25.7	37.6	22.0	14.7
<i>Swiss</i>	3.0	25.4	36.6	18.2	19.8

Source: SLFS (1995), own calculations

Notes: UR = Unemployment rate: Unemployed (according to definition by SLFS)/Work force (employed and unemployed according to definition by SLFS aged 16 to 64)

Table 7: Calculation of years of schooling (SCH)

<i>Educational Attainment</i>	<i>Years of schooling</i>
<i>No degree</i>	7
<i>Compulsory education</i>	8
<i>Low level vocational education</i>	8.75
<i>Vocational education</i>	9.5
<i>Upper-level secondary gen. educ. 1</i>	11
<i>Upper-level secondary gen. educ. 2</i>	10.5
<i>Upper-level secondary gen. educ. 3</i>	12.5
<i>Higher vocational education</i>	11
<i>Technical university</i>	11.5
<i>University education 1</i>	15.5
<i>University education 2</i>	17.5
<i>Other education</i>	8

Source: Swiss Federal Statistical Office

Table 8: Model specification: Unemployment probability

<i>Names of variables</i>	<i>Definition</i>	<i>Names of variables</i>	<i>Definition</i>
<i>UNEMPL</i>	Unemployment probability	<i>UNPL</i>	State level unemployment shares
<i>AGE</i>	Age in years	<i>NTHEU_IC</i>	Dummy variable for Northern Europeans
<i>SCH</i>	Years of schooling	<i>STHEU</i>	Dummy variable for Southern Europeans
<i>LN_HHINC</i>	Logarithmic monthly household residual income		

Source: own description

Table 9: Descriptive statistics on the employment performance

<i>Variables</i>	<i>Native males</i>	<i>Native females</i>	<i>Foreign males</i>	<i>Foreign females</i>
<i>Sample size</i>	6799	5373	939	640
<i>UNEMPL</i>	0.017	0.026	0.060	0.061
<i>AGE</i>	39.10 (11.50)	38.35 (11.48)	41.95 (10.42)	39.18 (9.97)
<i>SCH</i>	10.99 (2.73)	10.32 (2.23)	10.50 (3.22)	9.98 (2.93)
<i>LN_HHINC</i>	4.19 (3.96)	5.54 (4.01)	4.66 (3.85)	5.47 (3.90)
<i>UNPL</i>	4.02 (1.82)	4.10 (1.83)	4.77 (1.92)	4.79 (1.97)
<i>NTHEU_IC</i>			0.31	0.35
<i>STHEU</i>			0.47	0.45

Source: SLFS (1995), own calculations

Notes: Standard errors in parentheses

Table 10: Probit regressions on the unemployment probability, Swiss

Variables	Males		Females	
	<i>Slope b</i> (abs. t-values)	<i>Marginal effects</i>	<i>Slope b</i> (abs. t-values)	<i>Marginal effects</i>
Sample size	6799		5373	
CONSTANT	-2.697*** (11.51)	-0.0665	-2.303*** (8.47)	-0.1025
AGE	-0.009*** (2.68)	-0.0002	-0.004 (1.26)	-0.0002
SCH	-0.018 (1.21)	-0.0004	-0.053*** (2.69)	-0.0024
LN_HHINC	0.113*** (8.30)	0.0028	0.092*** (6.80)	0.0041
UNPL	0.106*** (4.96)	0.0026	0.100*** (4.92)	0.0045
<i>Log-L</i>	-523.153		-600.047	
<i>Pseudo-R²</i>	0.251		0.234	

Source: SLFS (1 995), own calculations

Notes: * 10 % level of significance, ** 5 % level of significance, *** 1 % level of significance

Table 11: Probit regressions on the unemployment probability, Foreigners

Variables	Males		Females	
	<i>Slope b</i> (abs. t-values)	<i>Marginal effects</i>	<i>Slope b</i> (abs. t-values)	<i>Marginal effects</i>
Sample size	939		640	
CONSTANT	-2.977*** (6.41)	-0.2497	-1.621*** (2.74)	-0.1516
AGE	0.013* (1.93)	0.0011	-0.006 (0.64)	-0.0005
SCH	-0.005 (0.21)	-0.0004	-0.029 (0.80)	-0.0027
LN_HHINC	0.110*** (4.78)	0.0093	0.081*** (2.83)	0.0076
UNPL	0.119*** (2.97)	0.0100	0.073 (1.61)	0.0068
NTHEU_IC	-0.540*** (2.69)	-0.0453	-0.593** (2.29)	-0.0554
STHEU	-0.455*** (2.55)	-0.0382	-0.337* (1.65)	-0.0316
<i>Log-L</i>	-186.734		-134.175	
<i>Pseudo-R²</i>	0.336		0.311	

Source: SLFS (1995), own calculations

Notes: * 10 % level of significance, ** 5 % level of significance, *** 1 % level of significance

Table 12: Dissimilarity-Index D: Results on sectoral labour market segregation

<i>Nationality Groups</i>	<i>DISSIMILARITY-INDEX D</i>					
	<i>Females</i>		<i>Males</i>		<i>Total</i>	
	<i>1991</i>	<i>1995</i>	<i>1991</i>	<i>1995</i>	<i>1991</i>	<i>1995</i>
<i>Northern Europe</i>	0.264	0.278	0.307	0.301	0.234	0.248
<i>Southern Europe</i>	0.290	0.281	0.370	0.345	0.319	0.285
<i>Non-Europe</i>	0.468	0.428	0.382	0.395	0.354	0.365

Source: SLFS (1995, 1991), own calculations

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