



Australia's international migration was transformed in the 1990s. These changes include: a shift from the permanent settlement model to increasing numbers of workers entering Australia on a non-permanent basis; an increasing emphasis on attracting skilled workers to Australia; and increasing levels of permanent and long-term emigration of the Australia-born population.

2 Trends in permanent and long-term migration to and from Australia

2.1 Introduction

Australia's international migration was transformed in the 1990s, although there was surprisingly little public discussion of the changes that took place. These changes include:

- A shift away from immigration to Australia being based purely on the permanent settlement model and increasing numbers of workers entering Australia on a non-permanent basis.
- An increasing emphasis in both the settlement program and in non-permanent visa categories on attracting skilled workers to Australia.
- Increasing levels of permanent and long-term emigration of the Australia-born population.

Our chief focus here is on the latter but the other developments are also relevant.

2.2 Recent trends in settler migration in Australia

Over the last decade there have been substantial changes in the categories by which settlers can enter Australia. The Migration Program operates within set planning levels and is made up of humanitarian and non-humanitarian programs. The former involves:

- The *Refugee Program*, which provides protection for people outside their country fleeing persecution.
- *Special Humanitarian Programs* (SHP), which comprise the In-country Special Humanitarian Program for people suffering persecution within their own country, and the Global Special Humanitarian Program for people who have left their country because of significant discrimination amounting to a gross violation of human rights.
- The *Special Assistance Category* (SAC), which embraces groups determined by the Minister for Immigration and Multicultural Affairs to be of special concern to Australia and in real need, but who do not fit within traditional humanitarian categories. This program also assists those internally and externally displaced people who have close family links in Australia.

Within the non-humanitarian part of the Program there are three main components summarised in Table 2.1. Within the Migration Program itself, some components – that is, business skills, employer nominated scheme (ENS), distinguished talent, spouses and dependent children – are demand-driven and not subject to capping. Increases in demand for these visas, beyond planned levels, are compensated by reductions in other program components; that is, independent and skilled-Australian linked, parents, fiancés and interdependents.

There are three main eligibility migration categories in the Migration Program: family, skill and special eligibility. *Family Migration* consists of a number of categories under which a potential migrant can be sponsored by a relative who is an Australian citizen or permanent resident of Australia. For statistical purposes the various family migration classes and sub-classes were grouped in the following categories up to 1996–97:



Over the last decade there have been substantial changes in the categories by which settlers can enter Australia.

Preferential

- Spouse
- Prospective marriage
- Child
- Adoption
- Parent (meeting the balance of family test)
- Aged dependent relative
- Remaining relative
- Orphan relative
- Special need relative.

Concessional

- Non-dependent child
- Non-dependent brother or sister
- Non-dependent niece or nephew
- Parent of working age not meeting the balance of family test.

Table 2.1 Program management structure (2000–01) migration (non-humanitarian) program

Skill	Family	Special eligibility
<i>Skilled independent and skilled–Australian sponsored*</i>	<i>Parents and preferential family</i> Can be capped subject to demand in all other Family categories	Can be capped
• Points tested • Planning level adjusted subject to demand in Business skills and ENS	<i>Fiancés & interdependents</i> Can be capped subject to demand for spouse and dependent child places	
<i>Business skills, ENS and Distinguished talent</i>	<i>Spouses and dependent children</i>	
Demand-driven	• Demand-driven • Exempt from capping	
<i>Contingency reserve</i>	<i>Contingency reserve</i>	
To be utilised if states and territories, business employers and regional authorities generate additional demand	Legislation defeated in Senate October 2000	

* Formerly Independent and Skilled-Australian Linked (until July 1999).

Source: DIMA 2000a

The composition of family and skill streams changed on 1 July 1997 when the points-tested concessional family category moved from the family stream to the skill stream, and was re-named ‘Skilled-Australian Linked’. This reflected the shift to a greater emphasis on skill-related attributes in the selection criteria for this category. Those



The Skill Migration component of the migration program is designed to contribute to Australia's economic growth. It consists of a number of categories for prospective migrants where there is demand in Australia for their particular occupational skills, outstanding talents or business skills.

skill-related attributes were further strengthened in changes made from 1 July 1999 (Birrell 1999). The *Skill Migration* component of the migration program is designed to contribute to Australia's economic growth. It consists of a number of categories for prospective migrants where there is demand in Australia for their particular occupational skills, outstanding talents or business skills. These categories are:

- Skilled-independent and independent migrants – not sponsored by an employer or relative in Australia. They must pass a points test that includes skills, age and English language ability (15 610 visas in 1999–2000).
- Skilled-Australian sponsored and skilled-Australian linked – commenced on 1 July 1997 (replacing the concessional family category). Applicants must pass a points test on skills, age and English ability, and receive additional points for sponsorship by relatives in Australia (7900 visas in 1999–2000). Also includes regional linked for those sponsored by relatives in regional areas (not points tested).
- Employer sponsored – employers may nominate (or 'sponsor') personnel from overseas through the Employer Nomination Scheme (ENS), Regional Sponsored Migration Scheme (RSMS) and labour agreements. These visas enable Australian employers to fill skilled permanent vacancies with overseas personnel if they cannot find suitably qualified workers in Australia. A total of 5390 visas were granted in 1999–2000. Some 135 individuals whose country of birth was Australia were also included in the top ten. These individuals were children born in Australia of parents on the ENS.
- Business skills migration – encourages successful business people to settle permanently in Australia and develop new business opportunities (6260 visas in 1999–2000).
- Distinguished talent – for distinguished individuals with special or unique talents of benefit to Australia (110 visas in 1999–2000).

There are also several categories that cater for other types of visaed settler arrivals but are not included in the categories above. These are:

- Former citizen of Australia.
- Former resident of Australia.
- Family of New Zealand Citizen for dependents of New Zealand citizens who have settled or intend to settle permanently in Australia.

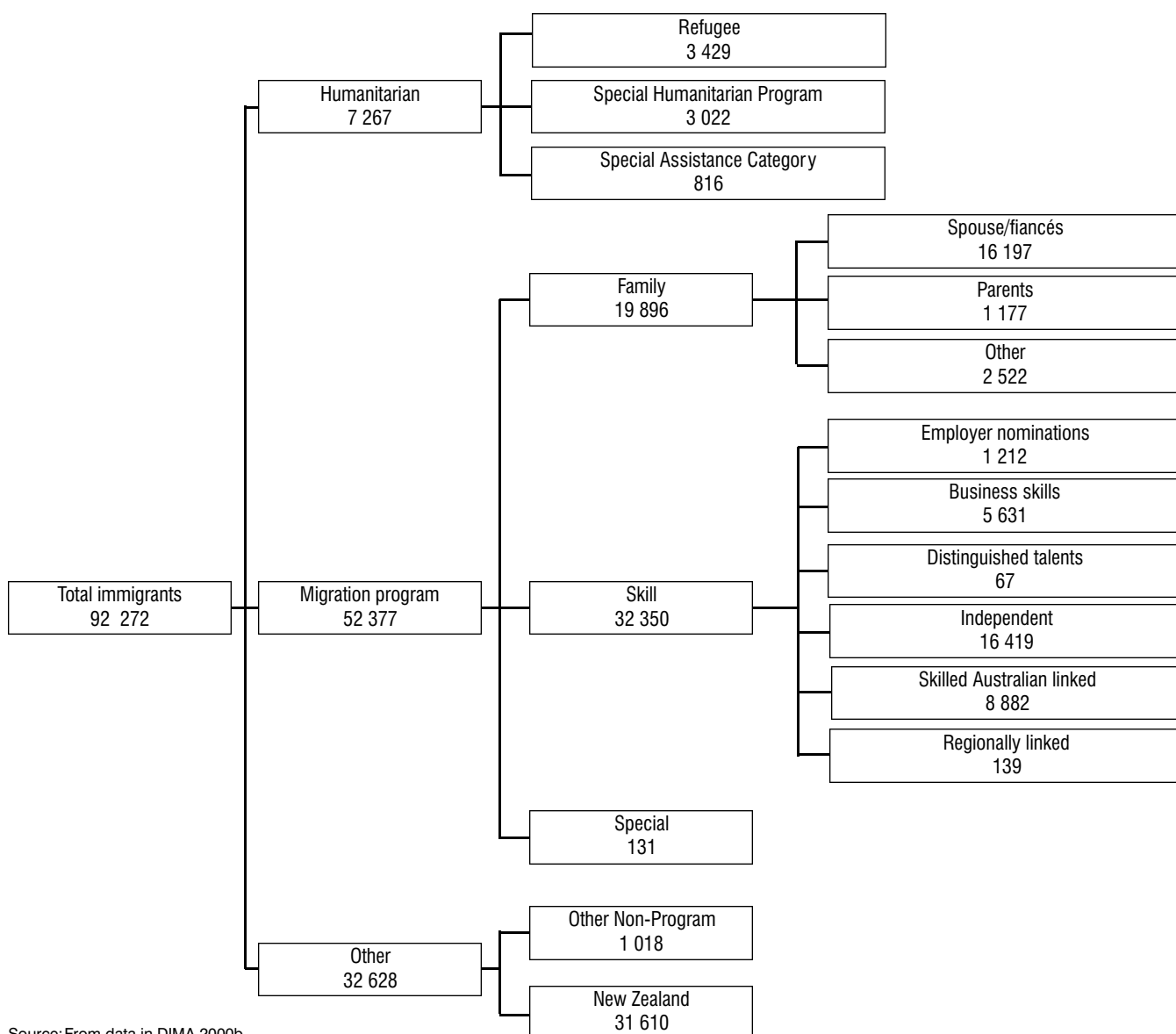
In addition, there are a number of categories for which visas were not required prior to 1 September 1994. These are:

- New Zealand Citizens, which refers to the arrival of New Zealand citizens under the Trans-Tasman Travel Arrangement.
- Other (Non-Visaed), which refers primarily to the arrival in Australia of children born to Australian citizens overseas. It also includes residents of Cocos (Keeling) Islands, Norfolk Island, and so on, and persons granted Australian citizenship overseas.

Figure 2.1 presents the breakdown of the numbers in each category for the year 1999–2000 to give an indication of the recent numbers in each category. Over recent times in Australia there has been greater government intervention to shape the content of the intake of immigrants so that it can better contribute to national



Figure 2.1 Categories of immigration to Australia, 1999–2000



Source: From data in DIMA 2000b

development goals. This has seen greater emphasis on skills in migrant selection and in the development of business migration programs involved to attract entrepreneurs with substantial sums to invest in the destination country. Australia and Canada have micro-managed the qualifications of their migrant intake since the 1970s with the introduction of points assessment schemes.

In Australia, the recent years have seen a substantial shift towards skills/business migration and away from family migration as Table 2.2 and Figure 2.2 demonstrate. Mid-1997 saw the removal of the concessional family category and the introduction of the skilled-Australian-linked category and the preferential family category has been reduced by capping the migration of parents.

Over recent times in Australia there has been greater government intervention to shape the content of the intake of immigrants.



Table 2.2 Migration program visas granted, 1990–91 to 2000–01 (planned)

Migration category/ component	1990–91	1991–92	1992–93	1993–94	1994–95	1995–96	1996–97	1997–98	1998–99	1999–2000	2000–01
<i>Family</i>											
Spouses/fiancés	24 500	26 300	27 800	25 100	26 100	33 550	25 130	25 790	24 740	26 330	28 250
Parents	10 300	7 200	5 300	4 500	5 100	8 890	7 580	1 080	3 120	1 900	2 100 ^(e)
Dependent children	2 000	2 000	2 700	2 500	2 500	2 830	2 200	2 190	2 070	2 160	2 770
Other	2 000	2 000	1 700	1 700	3 100	3 450	2 330	2 250	2 100	1 600	1 280
Concessional family ^(a)	22 500	18 100	7 700	9 400	7 700	8 000	7 340	–	–	–	–
Total family	61 300	55 900	45 300	43 200	44 500	56 700	44 580	31 310	32 040	32 000	34 400
% of total program	54.6	56.5	66.7	68.8	58.2	68.7	60.3	46.7	47.2	45.6	45.3
<i>Skill</i>											
Employer nominations ^(b)	7 500	5 600	4 800	4 000	3 300	4 640	5 560	5 950	5 650	5 390	5 800
Business skills ^(c)	7 000	6 200	3 300	1 900	2 400	4 900	5 820	5 360	6 080	6 260	6 700
Distinguished talents	100	200	200	200	100	200	190	180	210	110	170
Skilled – independent ^(d)	35 100	29 400	13 000	11 800	15 000	10 600	15 000	13 270	13 640	15 610	21 350
Skilled – Australian sponsored ^(a)	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	9 540	9 240	7 900	5 950
1 November onshore	–	–	–	500	9 600	3 800	980	370	180	60	30
Total skill	49 800	41 400	21 300	18 300	30 400	24 100	27 550	34 670	35 000	35 330	40 000^(f)
% of total program	44.4	41.9	31.4	29.1	39.7	29.2	37.3	51.7	51.5	50.3	52.6
<i>Special Eligibility</i>	1 200	1 700	1 400	1 300	1 600	1 700	1 730	1 100	890 2	850 1	600
Total program	112 200	98 900	67 900	62 800	76 500	82 500	73 900	67 100	67 900	70 200	76 000

Please note that figures have been rounded and the total may not be the exact sum of components.

(a) From 1 July 1997 the concessional family category was replaced by the skilled-Australia linked category and transferred from the family to the skill stream. On 1 July 1999 it was renamed the skilled-Australian sponsored category.

(b) Includes Employer Nomination Scheme, labour agreements, and Regional Sponsored Migration Scheme.

(c) Business migration program changed to business skills during 1991–92.

(d) Named independent prior to 1 July 1999.

(e) Legislation to implement a 4000-‘contingency reserve’ in 2000–01 to aged parents was rejected in the Senate in October 2000.

(f) A further 5000-‘contingency reserve’ places still available in 2000–01 to migrants with skills in short supply.

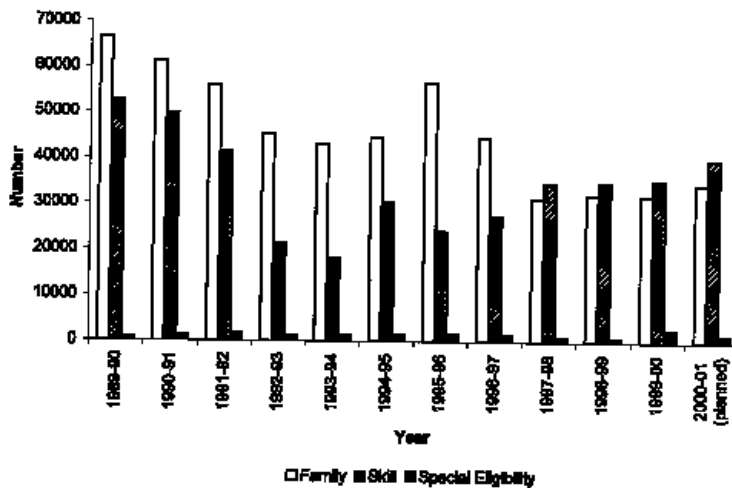
Source: DIMA *Population Flows: Immigration Aspects*, various issues

The skill stream of the Australian Migration Program is aimed at attracting people with qualifications and relevant work experience, and can help to address skill shortages in Australia and enhance the size, skill level and productivity of the Australian labour force. In 1999–2000, there were 35 330 people granted skill visas, an increase of 330 (0.9 per cent) on the 1998–99 level. Of total skill stream visas, 13.5 per cent (4780) were granted to onshore applicants. The UK accounted for 5537 of all 1999–2000 skill stream visa grants. Other major source countries included South Africa (4615), the PRC (2670), India (4064) and Indonesia (2741).

A range of changes to the requirements for migration under the independent and skilled-Australian linked (SAL) categories was introduced on 1 July 1999. The points test for these categories will place greater emphasis on targeting migrants who have



Figure 2.2 Australia: migration program outcomes by stream, 1989–2001



Source: DIMA *Population Flows: Immigration Aspects*, various issues

skills in shortage in the Australian labour market by awarding additional points to applicants whose occupation is on the migration occupations in demand list (MODL). Further points are available to applicants with a job offer in one of these occupations. The new points test also takes account of other attributes, including Australian qualifications and work experience, fluency in a language other than English, and spouse's skills.

A number of mechanisms have been established within the skill stream to assist those states and territories who wish to encourage more skilled migration to their regions:

- State/Territory Nominated Independent (STNI) Scheme – enables state and territory governments to sponsor Independent category applicants identified through skill matching, who are willing to settle in their states and territories. These nominations are based on an audit conducted by the state or territory government to establish which skills are in short supply and where they are needed.
- Skilled-regional sponsored category – allows the sponsorship of applicants by relatives to join them in designated areas and must meet threshold English language, age and skill criteria. This category is not points tested.
- Regional Sponsored Migration Scheme (RSMS) – enables employers in regional Australia to nominate overseas personnel for permanent entry where the employer has been unable to recruit suitable skilled personnel through the local labour market. Applicants must meet English language, age and skill criteria.
- Regional Established Business in Australia (REBA) – allows people who have successfully established a business venture in a designated area of Australia, and who are sponsored by the state/territory government, to apply for permanent residence.
- Skill matching database – operated by the Commonwealth, the database identifies skilled applicants who meet threshold criteria for English language, age and skills,

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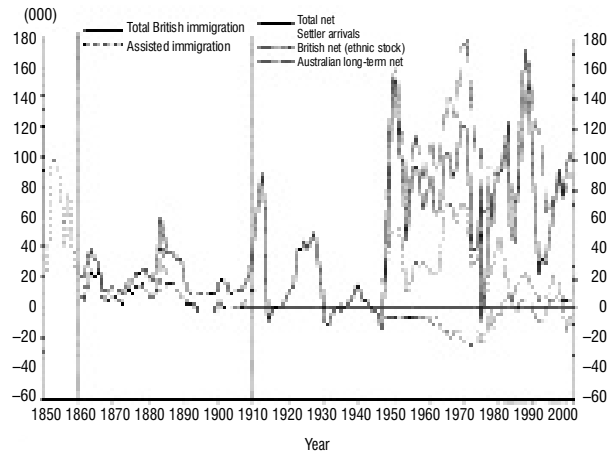
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Over recent times new visa types involving temporary migration have been created in Australia, especially those involving temporary migration for work.

Australia has long had an emphasis on attracting permanent settlers and strongly expressed opposition to attracting temporary and contract workers. However, in recent years attitudes have changed and it has been recognised that it is essential to allow non-permanent entry of workers in certain groups.

Figure 2.3 Australia: annual migration, 1850–2000



Sources: Price 1979; Hugo 1986; ABS Overseas Arrivals and Departures Bulletins; DIMA 2000b

and who are willing to settle in areas where their occupational skills are in demand. It is disseminated to state and territory governments and employers, to encourage skilled migration to their regions through the RSMS or the STNI. It also assists in the targeting of regional promotional campaigns.

There have been substantial fluctuations over time in the level of immigration intake in Australia as Figure 2.3 indicates. Currently, the level of settler intake is set each year by the federal government after consultations with major stakeholders like unions, industry and the state governments.

2.3 Trends in long-term and short-term movement

Over recent times new visa types involving temporary migration have been created in Australia, especially those involving temporary migration for work (Birrell and Healy 1997). These often cut across the long-term and short-term categories. Table 2.3 shows that over the last two decades there has been a shift in overseas movement to Australia that has seen an increase in non-permanent moves.

It was mentioned earlier that Australia has long had an emphasis on attracting permanent settlers to the country and a strongly expressed opposition to attracting temporary and contract workers. During the labour shortage years of the 1950s and 1960s Australia's migration solution to the problem contrasted sharply with that of European nations like Germany and France when it opted to concentrate on attracting permanent migrants to meet worker shortages rather than contract workers. However, in recent years attitudes have changed in Australia and it has been recognised that in the context of globalised labour markets it is essential to have mechanisms to allow



Table 2.3 Growth of population movement into and out of Australia, 1982–83 to 1999–2000

	1982–83	1991–92	1999–2000	Per cent growth 1991–2000
<i>Arrivals</i>				
Permanent	83 010	107 391	92 272	-14.1
Long-term				
– residents	48 990	62 920	79 651	+25.6
– visitors	30 740	63 861	133 198	+108.6
– total	79 730	126 781	212 849	+67.9
Short-term				
– residents	1 240 800	2 072 400	3 299 900	+59.2
– visitors	930 400	2 519 700	4 651 800	+84.6
– total	2 171 200	4 592 100	7 951 700	+73.2
<i>Departures</i>				
Permanent	24 830	29 122	41 078	+41.1
Long-term				
– residents	47 020	67 191	84 918	+26.4
– visitors	25 440	47 971	71 850	+49.8
– total	72 460	115 162	156 768	+36.1
Short-term				
– residents	1 259 100	2 173 500	3 332 300	+53.3
– visitors	907 500	2 473 700	4 635 200	+87.4
– total	2 166 600	4 647 100	7 967 500	+71.5

Sources: Bureau of Immigration and Population Research 1993; DIMA 2000a

non-permanent entry of workers in certain groups. Nevertheless, this entry has not been extended to unskilled and low-skilled areas, and has been open to people with particular skills and entrepreneurs. Hence, there has been an increase in people coming to Australia as short-term or long-term entrants and being able to work in the country. There has been increasing pressure from some groups to allow some unskilled workers to enter the country temporarily to meet labour shortages in some areas. The most notable example of this is in the area of harvest labour, especially in fruit, vegetables and vines where significant seasonal labour shortages have occurred in recent years (Hugo 2001a). Nevertheless, the government has not responded positively to these suggestions.

The significance of people coming to work in Australia temporarily is especially evident in the expansion of long-term entrance in Australia shown in Figure 2.4. This has had an impact, at least in the short term, on overall net migration gains. It will be noted from Figure 2.5 that an increasing proportion of Australia's net migration gain in recent years has been from an excess of long-term arrivals over long-term departures, and a reducing proportion has been from an excess of settler arrivals over permanent departures. Indeed in 1999–2001 the net migration gain from long-term movement exceeded that from permanent movement.

Figure 2.6 shows some recent trends in the major forms of non-permanent migration to Australia. One type of short-term movement of particular significance is the increasing tempo of migration of Asian students (Shu and Hawthorne 1996). Over the 1987–99 period the number of full-fee overseas students in Australia increased from 7131 to 157 834 (DEETYA 1995; DETYA 2000). The crisis in Asia had some

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One type of short-term movement of particular significance is the increasing tempo of migration of Asian students.

There has been a significant increase in Working Holiday Maker (WHM) Program temporary migration in recent years.

Since 1995 there has been a new visa category of Temporary Business Migrants. There has been a fall in this category since a peak in 1996–97.

impact as Figure 2.6 shows but the numbers of student visas given offshore increased by 6 per cent to 67 130 over 1998–99 and by 11 per cent to 74 428 in 1999–2000. The major sources are the US (6407 visas) and Asian countries such as the PRC (6079), Indonesia (5439), Malaysia (5900) and Hong Kong (4544).

Figure 2.6 also shows that there has been a significant increase in Working Holiday Maker (WHM) Program temporary migration in recent years. This has been comprehensively reviewed by the Australian Parliament Joint Study Committee on Migration (JSCM 1997). WHMs are foreign nationals aged 18–30 from selected countries with which Australia has a reciprocal arrangement, who can work under certain conditions for up to 12 months. Their numbers have increased dramatically and reached 74 454 in 1999–2000, more than doubling in the 1990s. Kinnaird (1999) reports that while the economic impact nationally of the migration is limited it has significant impacts in specific industries in specific areas. While Europeans dominate this category, there are significant numbers from Japan (8510) and Korea (1200).

Since 1995 there has been a new visa category in Australia of Temporary Business Migrants. There are five types:

- Business visitors who come for short periods and are in the ‘short-term’ arrival category.
- Temporary business residents who come for longer periods and are usually in the ‘long-term’ arrival category.
- Independent executives who enter Australia for the purpose of establishing, or buying into a business and managing that business.
- Medical practitioners – qualified general and specialist medical practitioners where there is a demonstrated need for employing practitioners from overseas.
- Educational – a visa for qualified people to join educational and research organisations to fill academic teaching and research positions that cannot be filled from within the Australian labour market.

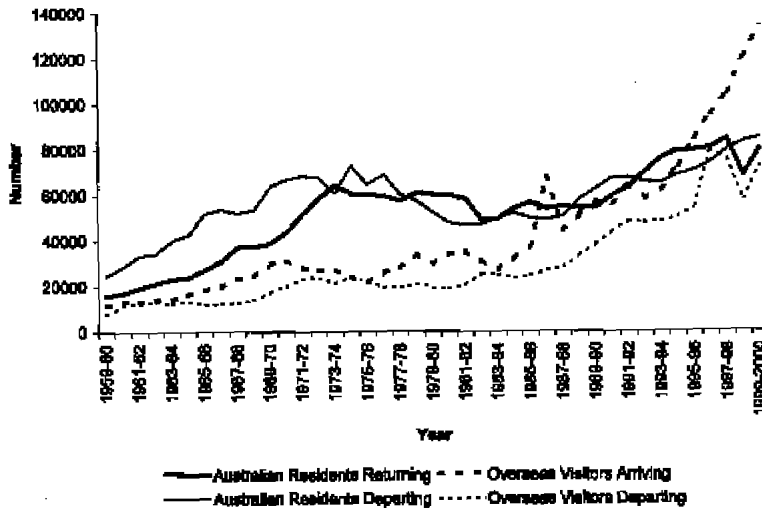
Figure 2.6 indicates there has been a fall in this category since a peak in 1996–97, and in 1999–2000 a total of 236 085 business visitors visas were granted, as well as 35 006 temporary business residence visas, 3937 independent executive visas, 2515 medical practitioner visas and 1700 educational visas.

Among the business visitors, North America accounts for almost one-quarter and the main Asian groups are from China (15 per cent), Japan (7 per cent) and India (5 per cent). Among the longer term business residents the UK makes up almost one-quarter and the largest Asian groups are from Japan (6 per cent), China (4 per cent), India (8 per cent) and Indonesia (3 per cent).

The increasing numbers of short-term worker entrants to Australia represents a huge change in Australian immigration policy that in the past has been adamant in its concentration on permanent settlers and its eschewing of temporary migration. Kinnaird (1999), based on DIMA data, has estimated the stock of temporary entrants to Australia in mid-1998 and these are presented in Table 2.4 and suggest that there were over 200 000 people in Australia temporarily with work rights and a similar number without work rights. This represents a substantial number of people equivalent to 2–3 per cent of the permanently resident population. In Table 2.5 we



Figure 2.4 Australia: long-term arrivals and departures, 1959–60 to 1999–2000

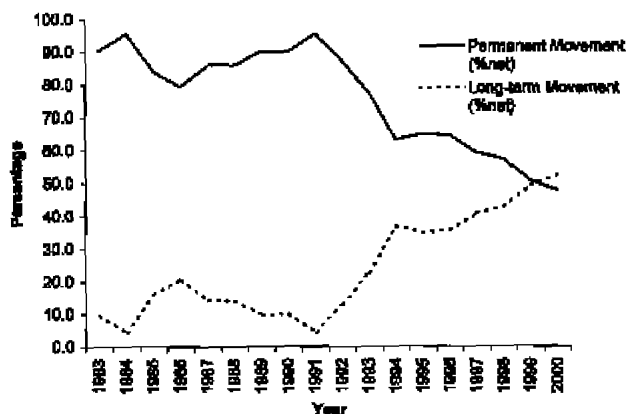


Sources: DIMA *Australian Immigration Consolidated Statistics and Immigration Update*, various issues

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At 30 June 2000 there were 513 900 persons in Australia on temporary visas.

Figure 2.5 Australia: net permanent and long-term movement as a percentage of total net migration gain, 1983–2000

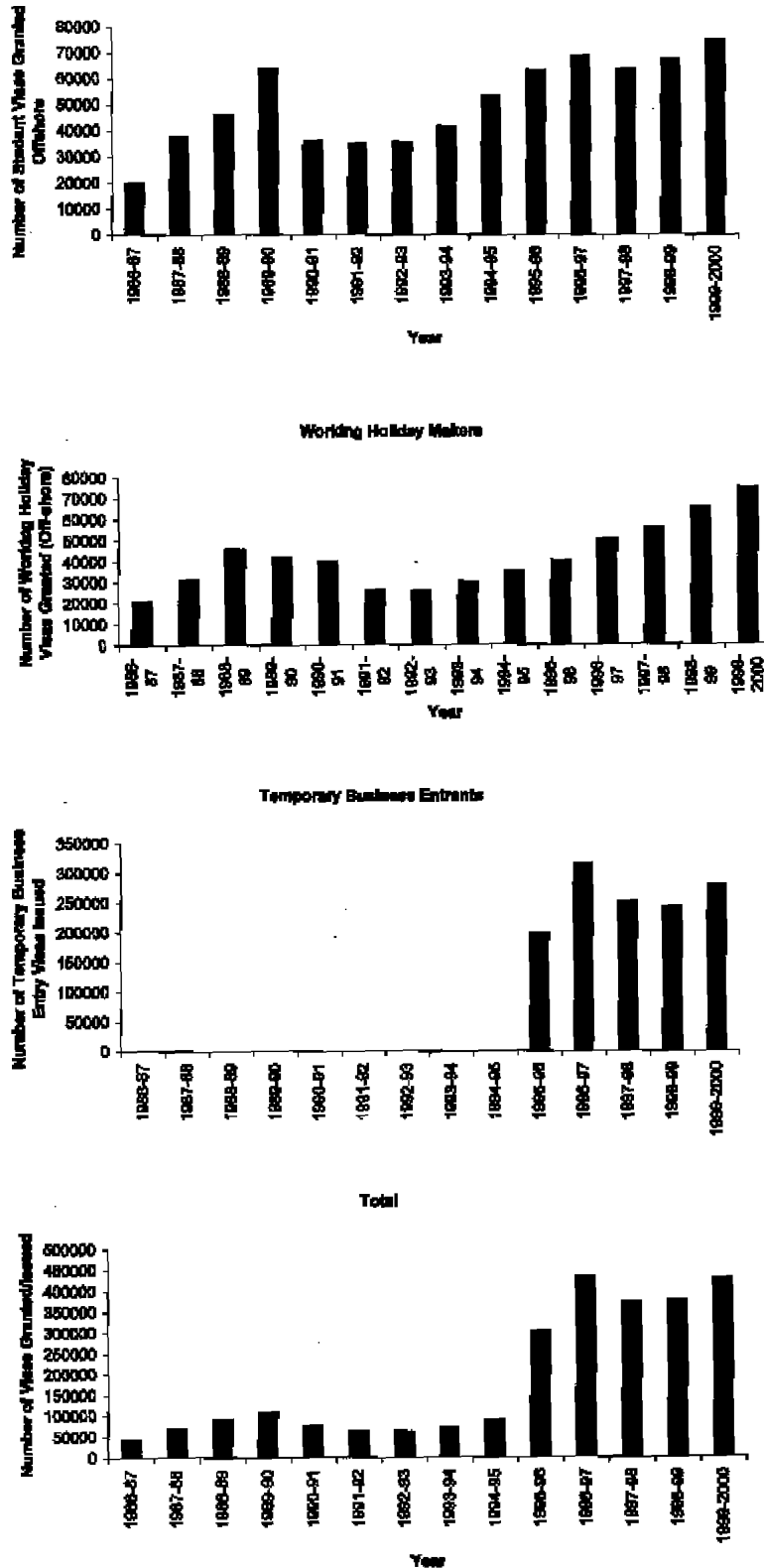


Source: DIMA *Immigration Update*, various issues

present official estimates of the stocks and flows of non-permanent entrants to Australia in 1999, but it would appear that Kinnaird's estimates for the previous year continue to be applicable. DIMA (2000a, p. 5) estimates that at 30 June 2000 there were 513 900 persons in Australia on temporary visas – 181 900 had been in Australia for less than three months, 182 800 between three and twelve months and 149 200 longer.¹ The largest group of the 513 900 were from the UK (76 100), followed by the US (40 300), China (33 300), Japan (32 000) and Indonesia (31 300).



Figure 2.6 Non-permanent migration to Australia by category, 1986–2000



Source: DIMA *Population Flows: Immigration Aspects*, various issues.



Table 2.4 Estimated stock of temporary entrants in Australia by main visa category, June 1998

Visa category/class	No. (000s)	%
<i>With work rights</i>		
Student 560	100.6	23.9
WHM 417	35.2	8.4
Business (long stay) 457	31.6	7.5
Business (short stay) 456	7.6	1.8
All others	28.4	6.7
<i>Subtotal – work rights</i>	203.4	48.3
<i>No work rights</i>	217.6	51.7
Total	421.0	100.0

Source: Kinnaird 1999, p. 49

Table 2.5 Temporary entrants to Australia

	Flow 1999–2000	Stock 30 June 2000
Visitors	3 057 147	184 270
Overseas students	74 428	121 140
Working holiday-makers	74 454	45 264
Temporary business visitors	236 085	13 910
Temporary business residents	35 006	50 400
Bridging visa holders*	–	61 224
Social cultural international relations program	37 880	24 590
Other	4 215	13 100
Total	3 519 215	513 898

* Bridging visas provide lawful status to non-citizens who would otherwise be unlawful.

Source: DIMA 2000a

The increased movement of skilled workers on a non-permanent basis to Australia is indicative of the development of global labour markets in a number of skilled areas. The occupations of the non-permanent migrants tend to be of the highly skilled, high-income, high-education type. This is evident in Table 2.6.

Net migration now accounts for half of the population growth in the world's more developed countries (UN 1997, p. 23) and in Australia it can be seen from Tables 2.7 and 2.8 that over the last 20 years the proportion that net migration contributed to population change varied from a low 17.8 per cent in 1993 to a high of 45.1 per cent in 2000, which was somewhat less than the peak of 54.5 per cent in 1989. A key point in the recent net migration gains, however, is that in recent years an increasing proportion of that gain has been derived from an excess of long-term (as opposed to permanent) arrivals over long-term departures such that by 1999–2000 they accounted for over half of the net gains. This points to the increasing diversification of migration to and from Australia and the developing role of non-permanent migration in the Australian economy and society.

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There is a tendency for Australia to be categorised as a purely immigration country but it is also a country of significant emigration.

In 1999–2000 permanent departures from Australia reached the highest level since 1972–73 and the proportion of Australia-born was the highest ever recorded.

There is a similar increase in the pattern of long-term out-movement of Australian residents.

Table 2.6 Temporary entrants to Australia with the right to work by occupation, 1999–2000

Occupation	Working Holiday Makers		Temporary Business entrants	
	number	%	number	%
Managers /admin.	2 214	8.3	17 100	37.7
Professionals	7 652	28.8	16 270	35.8
Associate professionals	2 548	9.6	6 788	15.0
Trades persons	3 024	11.4	1 020	2.2
Advanced clerical and service	1 214	4.6	458	1.0
Intermediate clerical and service	6 677	25.1	2 310	5.1
Intermediate product and transport	536	2.0	150	0.3
Elementary clerical sales service	2 106	7.9	1 038	2.3
Labourers	607	2.3	262	0.6
Total workforce	26 578	100.0	45 394	100.0
Not in workforce	15 182		18 326	
Not in employment 1	2 598		350	
Not stated	25 546		29 872	
Total	79 904		93 942	

Source: Unpublished data supplied by DIMA

2.4 Emigration trends

There is a tendency for Australia to be categorised as a purely immigration country but, in fact, it is also a country of significant emigration. Table 2.9 shows that over recent years departures on a permanent or long-term basis have been very substantial. Indeed, Table 2.10 shows that while the ratio of permanent emigration to permanent immigration has varied between 14 and 52 per cent since 1968, the ratio has been comparatively high in recent years. Over the post-war period there has been a close relationship between immigration and emigration trends with the later tending to follow the former with a small time lag. This is because, as Table 2.10 indicates, former settlers have been a major part of emigration over the years. Moreover, the return migration effect has been understated in the data since a significant number of the Australia-born are the dependent children of overseas-born returnees. *In 1999–2000 permanent departures from Australia (41 078) reached the highest level since 1972–73 and the proportion Australia-born (49.3 per cent) was the highest ever recorded indicating an increasing trend for the Australian population to emigrate.*

It is apparent from Figure 2.7 that there has been an upward trend in the numbers of Australia-born permanent departures in the 1990s, and this is indicative of a greater tendency for Australia-born adults deciding to move overseas on a permanent basis.

If we look at the pattern of long-term out-movement of Australian residents, a similar pattern emerges. Figure 2.8 shows that the number of Australian residents who are departing overseas for a period of more than a year but with intentions to return has increased substantially in recent years.

If we break the long-term departures into Australia-born and overseas-born in Table 2.11, again this provides evidence of greater Australia-born movement out of



Table 2.7 Components of population growth, 1977–2000

Year ended 30 June	Total population	Population growth			
		Natural increase		Net overseas migration	
		Total persons	% of total growth	Total persons	% of total growth
1977	14 192 200	115 500	66.6	57 900	33.4
1978	14 359 300	118 300	65.4	62 700	34.6
1979	14 515 700	115 100	67.6	55 100	32.4
1980	14 695 400	117 000	60.7	75 900	39.3
1981	14 923 300	121 500	50.5	119 200	49.5
1982	15 184 200	126 100	49.6	128 100	50.4
1983	15 393 500	128 800	63.7	73 300	36.3
1984	15 579 400	129 700	72.5	49 100	27.5
1985	15 788 300	127 600	63.4	73 700	36.6
1986	16 018 400	123 000	55.1	100 400	44.9
1987	16 263 900	126 700	50.2	125 700	49.8
1988	16 532 200	125 700	45.7	149 300	54.3
1989	16 814 400	131 400	45.5	157 400	54.5
1990	17 065 100	132 400	51.5	124 600	48.5
1991	17 284 000	141 600	62.1	86 400	37.9
1992	17 494 700	138 400	66.9	68 600	33.1
1993	17 667 100	138 600	82.2	30 000	17.8
1994	17 854 700	134 800	74.4	46 500	25.6
1995	18 071 800	132 000	62.2	80 100	37.8
1996	18 310 700	124 000	54.4	104 100	45.6
1997	18 532 200	126 400	59.2	87 100	40.8
1998	18 730 400	119 900	58.1	86 400	41.9
1999	18 937 200	121 700	58.8	85 100	41.2
2000	19 157 000	120 800	54.9	99 100	45.1

Note: Differences between the total growth in each year and the sum of the components of that growth arise from retrospective adjustments that are made after each census to eliminate any intercensal discrepancy.

Sources: DIMA 1999, p. 94; ABS 200b

Australia on a long-term basis. Between 1998–99 and 1999–2000 there was an increase in the number of long-term departures from Australia from 140 281 to 156 768 persons. The number who were Australian residents increased from 82 861 to 84 918 persons. In 1999–2000 there was a net migration loss of 5267 through ‘long-term’ movement among the Australia-born compared with a net gain of 61 348 among the overseas-born. There has been a similar massive increase in the number of residents travelling overseas for periods of less than a year (Hugo 2001a). While tourists and very short-term business visits are dominant here it does include significant numbers who are working overseas on a longer term basis but who are not to be absent from the country for over a year.

Settler loss has been an important feature of the post-war Australian migration scene with around a fifth of all post-war settlers subsequently emigrating from Australia, most of them returning to their home nation. There has been concern about this settler loss among policy-makers (Hugo 1994), but it has a number of components

There is evidence of greater Australia-born than overseas-born movement out of Australia on a long-term basis.



Table 2.8 Components of net overseas migration (000s), 1983–2000

Year ended 30 June	Permanent movement			Long-term movement			Category jumpers (a)	NOM	Perm (b)	L-t. (b)
	Arrivals	Departures	Net	Arrivals	Departures	Net				
1983	93.0	24.8	68.2	79.7	72.5	7.3	-2.2	73.3	90.4%	9.6%
1984	68.8	24.3	44.5	76.5	74.4	2.0	2.6	49.1	95.6%	4.4%
1985	77.5	20.4	57.1	85.7	74.9	10.9	5.7	73.7	84.0%	16.0%
1986	92.6	18.1	74.5	93.8	74.4	19.4	6.4	100.4	79.3%	20.7%
1987	113.5	19.9	93.6	90.9	75.4	15.5	16.6	125.7	85.8%	14.2%
1988	143.5	20.5	123.0	98.8	78.6	20.2	6.1	149.4	85.9%	14.1%
1989	145.3	21.6	123.7	104.6	91.0	13.6	20.2	157.4	90.1%	9.9%
1990	121.2	27.9	93.4	110.7	100.2	10.5	20.8	124.6	89.9%	10.1%
1991	121.7	31.1	90.6	114.7	110.5	4.2	-8.3	86.4	95.6%	4.4%
1992	107.4	29.1	78.3	126.8	115.2	11.6	-21.3	68.6	87.1%	12.9%
1993	76.3	27.9	48.4	127.4	113.2	14.2	-32.6	30.0	77.3%	22.7%
1994	69.8	27.3	42.5	137.6	112.7	24.9	-20.8	46.5	63.1%	36.9%
1995	87.4	26.9	60.5	151.1	118.5	32.6	-12.9	80.1	65.0%	35.0%
1996	99.1	28.7	70.5	163.6	124.4	39.2	-5.5	104.1	64.3%	35.7%
1997	85.8	29.9	55.9	175.2	136.7	38.5	-7.3	87.1	59.2%	40.8%
1998	77.3	32.0	45.3	188.1	154.3	33.8	7.2	86.4	57.3%	42.7%
1999	84.1	35.2	49.0	187.8	140.3	47.5	-11.0	85.1	50.7%	49.3%
2000(c)	92.3	41.1	51.2	212.8	156.8	56.1			47.7%	52.3%

(a) Category jumping is the net effect of persons whose travel intentions change from short term to permanent or long term, or vice versa.

(b) The percentage contributions of permanent and long-term movement are based on the net migration totals before adjustment for category jumpers.

(c) These figures are preliminary, and category jumpers are not yet available for 2000.

Source: DIMA 2000a, p. 106

Table 2.9 Australia: settlers and long-term migration, 1987–2000

Year	1987–88	1988–89	1989–90	1990–91	1991–92	1992–93	1993–94	1994–95	1995–96	1996–97	1997–98	1998–99	1999–2000
<i>Permanent migration</i>													
Arrivals	143 480	145 316	121 227	121 688	107 391	76 330	69 768	87 428	99 139	85 752	77 327	84 143	92 272
Departures	20 470	21 647	27 857	31 130	29 122	27 905	27 280	26 948	28 670	29 857	31 985	35 181	41 078
Net	123 010	123 669	93 370	90 558	78 269	48 425	42 488	60 480	70 469	55 895	45 342	48 962	51 194
<i>Long-term movement</i>													
Arrivals	98 780	104 590	110 695	114 711	126 781	127 436	137 600	151 095	163 578	175 249	188 114	187 802	212 849
Departures	78 570	90 991	100 199	110 512	115 162	113 190	112 707	118 533	124 386	136 748	154 294	140 281	156 768
Net	20 210	13 599	10 496	4 199	11 619	14 246	24 893	32 562	39 192	38 501	33 820	47 521	56 081
Total permanent and long-term net gain	143 220	137 242	103 866	94 757	89 888	62 671	67 381	93 042	109 661	94 396	79 162	96 483	107275
% Net migration from long-term movement	14.1	9.9	10.1	4.4	12.9	22.7	36.9	35.0	35.7	40.8	42.7	49.3	52.3

Source: DIMA *Immigration Update*, various issues



Table 2.10 Australia: permanent movement, financial years, 1968–2000

Financial year	Settler arrivals	Former settlers ^(a)		Permanent departures Australia-born ^(b)		Total	Departures as % of arrivals
		No.	% of departures	No.	% of departures		
1968–69	175 657	23 537	74.3	8 141	25.7	31 678	18.0
1969–70	185 099	26 082	72.3	10 000	27.7	36 082	19.5
1970–71	170 011	28 244	71.8	11 072	28.2	39 316	23.1
1971–72	132 719	32 280	72.8	12 439	27.8	44 719	33.7
1972–73	107 401	31 961	71.2	12 945	28.8	44 906	41.8
1973–74	112 712	26 741	67.8	12 699	32.2	39 413	35.0
1974–75	89 147	20 184	64.0	11 361	36.0	31 545	35.4
1975–76	52 748	17 150	62.5	10 277	37.5	27 427	52.0
1976–77	70 916	15 447	62.8	9 141	37.2	24 588	34.7
1977–78	73 171	13 972	60.5	9 124	39.5	23 096	31.6
1978–79	67 192	13 797	54.3	11 632	45.7	25 429	37.8
1979–80	80 748	12 044	54.7	9 973	45.3	22 017	27.3
1980–81	110 689	10 888	55.8	8 608	44.2	19 496	17.6
1981–82	118 030	11 940	57.2	8 940	42.8	20 890	17.7
1982–83	93 010	15 390	62.0	9 440	38.0	24 830	26.7
1983–84	68 810	14 270	58.7	10 040	41.3	24 300	35.3
1984–85	77 510	11 040	54.2	9 340	45.8	20 380	26.3
1985–86	92 590	9 560	52.8	8 540	47.2	18 100	19.5
1986–87	113 540	10 800	54.2	9 130	45.8	19 930	17.6
1987–88	143 470	10 716	52.3	9 755	47.7	20 471	14.3
1988–89	145 320	15 087	69.7	6 560	30.3	21 647	14.9
1989–90	121 230	19 458	69.8	8 399	30.2	27 857	23.0
1990–91	121 688	21 640	69.5	9 490	30.5	31 130	25.6
1991–92	107 391	19 944	68.5	9 178	31.5	29 122	27.1
1992–93	76 330	18 102	64.9	9 803	35.1	27 905	36.6
1993–94	69 768	17 353	63.6	9 927	36.4	27 280	39.1
1994–95	87 428	16 856	62.6	10 092	37.4	26 948	30.8
1995–96	99 139	17 665	61.6	11 005	38.4	28 670	28.9
1996–97	85 752	18 159	60.8	11 698	39.2	29 857	34.8
1997–98	77 327	19 214	60.1	12 771	39.9	31 985	41.4
1998–99	84 143	17 931	50.1	17 250	49.0	35 181	41.8
1999–00	92 272	20 844	50.7	20 234	49.3	41 078	44.5

(a) Data 1988–89 to 1997–99 constitute permanent overseas-born departures due to a change in definition by DIMA. Data prior to this constitute former settler departures

(b) Data prior to 1988–89 constitute permanent departures other than former settlers.

Sources: DIMA *Australian Immigration Consolidated Statistics and Immigration Update*, various issues

including a group of migrants who never intended to settle permanently in Australia, as well as people who are influenced by family changes, or who are not able to adjust to life in Australia, and so on. The pattern of settler loss, while it varies between birthplace groups (for example, it is high among New Zealanders but low among Vietnamese), has tended to remain a relatively consistent feature of the post-war migration scene in Australia and the fluctuations in its numbers are very much related to earlier levels of immigration.



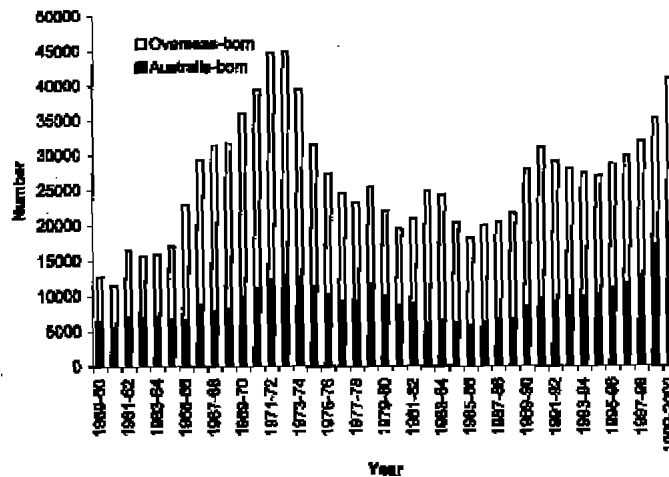
Settler loss has been an important feature of post-war Australian migration.

There has been a consistent increase in the level of out-movement of Australian residents.

The profile of departures of residents tends to be younger and more educated than the population of the nation as a whole and the spectre of 'brain drain' has arisen.

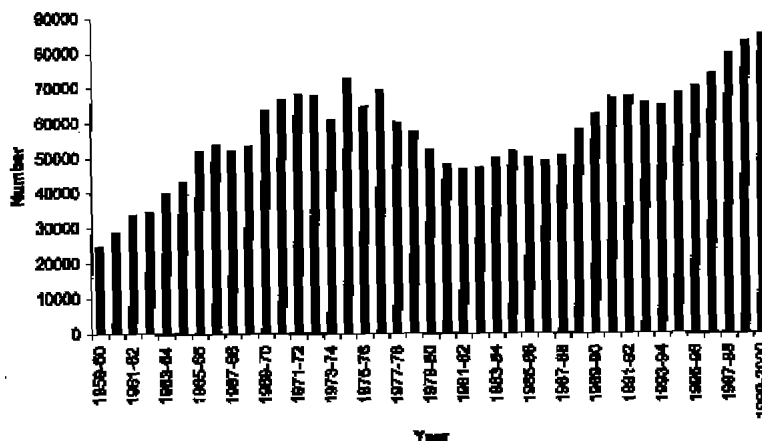
With an increase in the skill profile in immigration we can expect an increase in settler loss since skilled migrants have a greater chance of remigrating than family migrants. Nevertheless, there has been a change in the level of out-movement of Australian residents with a consistent increase being in evidence. This has begun to attract policy attention since the profile of departures of residents tends to be younger and more educated than the population of the nation as a whole and the spectre of 'brain drain' has arisen. There can be no doubt that the global international migration system with respect to highly skilled labour has been transformed since the 1960s, when the 'brain drain' research of the 1960s and 1970s was undertaken.

Figure 2.7 Permanent departures of Australia-born and overseas-born persons from Australia, 1959–60 to 1999–2000



Sources: DIMA *Australian Immigration Consolidated Statistics* and *Immigration Update*, various issues

Figure 2.8 Australian resident long-term departures from Australia, 1959–60 to 1999–2000



Sources: DIMA *Australian Immigration Consolidated Statistics* and *Immigration Update*, various issues



Table 2.11 Australia: long-term movement, 1959–60 to 1999–2000

	Arrivals			Departures			Net overseas movement		
	Australian residents	Overseas visitors	Total	Australian residents	Overseas visitors	Total	Australian residents	Overseas visitors	Total
1959–60	16 049	11 748	27 797	24 730	7 838	32 568	-8 681	3 910	-4 771
1960–61	16 870	13 320	30 190	28 542	11 823	40 365	-11 672	1 497	-10 175
1961–62	19 301	13 423	32 724	33 370	12 591	45 961	-14 069	832	-13 237
1962–63	21 376	13 971	35 347	34 324	13 219	47 543	-12 948	752	-12 196
1963–64	23 066	14 170	37 236	39 931	12 325	52 256	-16 865	1 845	-15 020
1964–65	24 065	16 484	40 549	42 702	13 640	56 342	-18 637	2 844	-15 793
1965–66	27 279	18 461	45 740	51 785	11 808	63 593	-24 506	6 653	-17 853
1966–67	31 161	20 078	51 239	53 750	12 707	66 457	-22 589	7 371	-15 218
1967–68	37 032	23 341	60 373	51 847	12 516	64 363	-14 815	10 825	-3 990
1968–69	37 376	24 442	61 818	53 296	3 817	67 113	-15 920	10 625	-5 295
1969–70	38 711	29 842	68 553	63 454	17 414	80 868	-24 743	12 428	-12 315
1970–71	43 554	31 225	74 779	66 463	19 928	86 391	-22 909	11 297	-11 612
1971–72	51 356	27 713	79 069	68 069	23 328	91 397	-16 713	4 385	-12 328
1972–73	58 292	26 733	85 025	67 379	23 579	90 958	-9 087	3 154	-5 933
1973–74	64 297	27 212	91 509	60 636	21 246	81 882	3 661	5 966	9 627
1974–75	60 239	23 615	83 854	72 397	24 386	96 783	-12 158	-771	-12 929
1975–76	60 224	21 687	81 911	64 475	21 528	86 003	-4 251	159	-4 092
1976–77	59 193	26 133	85 326	68 792	19 724	88 516	-9 599	6 409	-3 190
1977–78	57 311	28 043	85 354	60 099	19 194	79 293	-2 788	8 849	6 061
1978–79	60 947	34 064	95 011	57 255	21 216	78 471	3 692	12 848	16 540
1979–80	59 963	29 586	89 549	52 114	19 228	71 342	7 849	10 358	18 207
1980–81	59 871	34 220	94 091	47 848	18 778	66 626	12 023	15 442	27 465
1981–82	57 860	34 760	92 620	46 500	20 310	66 810	11 360	14 450	25 810
1982–83	48 990	30 740	79 730	47 020	25 440	72 460	1 970	5 300	7 270
1983–84	49 190	27 280	76 470	49 490	24 950	74 440	-300	2 330	2 030
1984–85	53 770	31 980	85 750	51 710	23 160	74 870	2 060	8 820	10 880
1985–86	56 560	37 250	93 810	49 690	24 670	74 360	6 870	12 580	19 450
1986–87	53 597	67 325	20 922	48 854	26 538	75 392	4 743	40 787	45 530
1987–88	54 804	43 978	98 782	50 499	28 054	78 553	4 305	15 924	20 229
1988–89	53 798	50 766	104 564	57 733	33 258	90 991	-3 935	17 508	13 573
1989–90	53 967	56 728	110 695	62 300	37 899	100 199	-8 333	18 829	10 496
1990–91	59 062	55 649	114 711	66 883	43 629	110 512	-7 821	12 020	4 199
1991–92	62 920	63 861	126 781	67 191	47 971	115 162	-4 271	15 890	11 619
1992–93	69 594	57 842	127 436	65 446	47 744	113 190	4 148	10 098	14 246
1993–94	75 600	62 000	137 600	64 786	47 921	112 707	10 814	14 079	24 893
1994–95	79 063	72 032	151 095	68 377	50 156	118 533	10 686	21 876	32 562
1995–96	79 206	84 372	163 578	70 253	54 133	124 386	8 953	30 239	39 192
1996–97	80 170	95 079	175 249	73 777	62 971	136 748	6 393	32 108	38 501
1997–98	84 358	103 756	188 114	79 422	74 872	154 294	4 936	28 884	33 820
1998–99	67 910	119 892	187 802	82 861	57 420	140 281	-14 951	62 472	47 521
1999–00	79 651	133 198	212 849	84 918	71 850	156 768	-5 267	61 348	56 081

Sources: DIMA *Australian Immigration Consolidated Statistics* and *Immigration Update*, various issues



The long-term out-movement of the Australian population reached record levels in 1999–2000.

In 1999–2000, 33.1 per cent of all Australians leaving the country on a permanent or long-term basis went to the UK.

There has been about a doubling in the numbers of young Australians going to the US.

Table 2.12 Permanent and long-term out-movement of the Australia-born who went to the UK, 1994–2000

Year	Total	Sex ratio (m/100f)	Per cent
1994–95	14 657	71.5	28.3
1995–96	15 873	70.2	29.2
1996–97	17 812	74.5	30.9
1997–98	21 209	80.1	33.7
1998–99	25 210	79.3	33.9
1999–00	26 493	79.0	33.1

Source: DIMA Movements Data Base (unpublished)

Table 2.13 Australia: permanent and long-term out-movement of the Australia-born who went to the US, 1994–2000

Year	Total	Sex ratio (m/100f)	Per cent
1994–95	6 495	96.3	12.5
1995–96	6 821	97.9	12.6
1996–97	7 526	105.9	13.1
1997–98	8 236	102.8	13.1
1998–99	10 164	101.7	13.7
1999–00	11 472	96.6	14.3

Source: DIMA Movements Data Base (unpublished)

2.5 Emigration of Australian residents

Increasing attention has been given in recent times to the numbers of Australia-born leaving Australia on a permanent or long-term basis. It has been shown in the previous section that the long-term out-movement of the Australian population reached record levels in 1999–2000. It was decided to look in some detail at this movement using the Movements Data Base to focus on the movements to some of the major destination countries. An important point to make here is that the movement under study here involves only the Australia-born. It excludes overseas-born persons.

In 1999–2000, 33.1 per cent of all Australians leaving the country on a permanent or long-term (an anticipated absence of over a year) basis went to the UK. It will be noted that the numbers have almost doubled over the last six years (Table 2.12). Females outnumber males in the movement but there has been a faster increase in male out-movement than in female out-movement in recent years.

Turning to the second most popular destination of Australia-born emigrants from Australia, Table 2.13 shows that there has been about a doubling in the numbers of young Australians going to the US. It is interesting, however, that this movement is less dominated by women than is the case for the migration to the UK.

A similar pattern of increased tempo of emigration is found when we look at the other



There is a significant flow of skilled Australians across the Tasman perhaps indicating a single labour market. Females dominate in the movement although this dominance has lessened in recent years.

Table 2.14 Australia: permanent and long-term out-movement of the Australia-born who went to New Zealand, 1994–2000

Year	Total	Sex ratio	Per cent
1994–95	4838	86.3	9.3
1995–96	5408	89.1	10.0
1996–97	5159	98.5	8.9
1997–98	5125	97.0	8.2
1998–99	6072	90.3	8.3
1999–00	7074	93.8	8.8

Source: DIMA Movements Data Base

Table 2.15 Australia: permanent and long-term out-movement of the Australia-born to Continental Europe, 1994–2000

Year	Germany	France	Other Europe
1994–95	738	473	3963
1995–96	664	457	3961
1996–97	713	457	4057
1997–98	672	557	4532
1998–99	845	630	4985
1999–00	904	684	5401

Source: DIMA Movements Data Base

major destinations of emigrants from Australia. It is interesting in the context of the debate about trans-Tasman migration to look at the movement of Australia-born persons on a long-term or permanent basis to New Zealand. It will be shown later that some of these are the Australia-born children of former New Zealand migrants to Australia – there is a significant flow of skilled Australians across the Tasman perhaps indicating that for many jobs Australians and New Zealanders form a single labour market. Females dominate in the movement although this dominance has lessened in recent years.

The movement to other European destinations is much smaller than any of these considered so far, but again the trend found a substantial increase in numbers. Table 2.15 shows these trends.

One interesting aspect of the changed patterns of movement of the Australia-born relates to the migration on a permanent or long-term basis to Asian destinations. Table 2.16 shows that the pattern varies between nations. The pattern of movement to Malaysia is indicative of the fact that several Asian countries suffered from the effects of the Asian financial crisis that began in 1997. This also influenced countries like Indonesia and Thailand where large numbers of Australian engineers, accountants and other highly skilled groups had migrated during the Asian-boom of the decade preceding 1997. Several countries like Indonesia and Malaysia had not been able to



One interesting aspect of the changed patterns of movement of the Australia-born relates to migration on a permanent or long-term basis to Asian destinations. For example, the number of Australia-born travelling to Singapore permanently or on a long-term basis almost doubled in the second half of the 1990s.

Table 2.16 Permanent and long-term departures of Australia-born to Asian destinations, 1994–2000

Year	Singapore	Hong Kong	Malaysia	Japan	Other Asia	Total Asia per cent
1994–95	1739	1787	1282	1468	4935	21.6
1995–96	1643	1751	1325	1379	5312	20.9
1996–97	1838	1676	1327	1636	5681	21.1
1997–98	2166	1622	1267	1889	5906	20.4
1998–99	2097	2385	1179	2225	6762	20.5
1999–00	3036	2540	1223	2512	6963	19.3

Source: DIMA Movements Data Base

Table 2.17 Long-term and permanent departures of Australia-born to the UK and US by occupation, 1994–2000

Occupation	UK		US	
	No.	%	No.	%
Manager – administrator	9 782	10.2	4 914	15.8
Professionals	39 341	41.0	15 063	48.3
Associate professionals	8 238	8.6	2 709	8.7
Trades persons	7 254	7.6	1 746	5.6
Clerks/sales/service/transport	29 415	30.7	6 348	20.3
Labourers	1 931	2.0	419	1.3
Total in workforce	95 961	(79.1)	31 199	(61.4)
Not in workforce	22 879	(18.9)	18 520	(36.4)
Not employed	716	(0.6)	316	(0.6)
Not stated	1 700	(1.4)	783	(1.6)
Total	121 256	(100.0)	50 818	(100.0)

Source: DIMA Movements Data Base

produce sufficient numbers of people with the skills needed for their fast-developing economies and had to resort to the immigration of expatriates (Hugo 2000; Azizah 2000, 2001). Hence, it will be noted that in Malaysia the numbers of Australia-born persons immigrating on a long-term or permanent basis peaked in 1996–97 and thereafter declined, although there was a recovery in 1999–2000 reflecting the fact that Malaysia by then had recovered from the effects of the crisis.

Some of the other Asian countries were less effected by the Asian financial crisis, and this is reflected in the fact that the numbers of Australia-born moving to them on a permanent or long-term basis increased during the 1990s. In Singapore, for example, Table 2.16 shows that the number of Australia-born travelling there permanently or on a long-term basis almost doubled in the second half of the 1990s. In Hong Kong the numbers declined slightly during the uncertainty that surrounded the return of Hong Kong to China in 1997, but it has increased substantially in recent years. The



Australia-born who are moving to other countries on a long-term or permanent basis are dominated by highly skilled groups.

Table 2.18 Long-term and permanent departures of Australia-born to other areas by occupation, 1994–2000

Country	Total workers	Managers, administrative, professionals and para-professional	
		No.	%
New Zealand	17 303	10 329	59.7
Germany	2 677	1 933	72.2
France	1 934	1 369	70.7
Other Europe	14 845	9 127	61.5
Singapore	7 876	6 566	83.4
Hong Kong	6 423	5 362	83.5
Malaysia	3 727	3 002	80.5
Japan	7418 5	855	78.9
Other Asia	19 786	15 190	76.8
Other	35 491	24 720	69.8

Source: DIMA Movements Data Base

Table 2.19 Permanent and long-term departures of Australia-born to the UK and the US, age/sex structure

Age	UK				US			
	Males	Females	Total		Males	Females	Total	
			No.	%			No.	%
0–9	4 252	4 238	8 490	7.0	3 531	3 559	7 090	14.0
10–19	2 453	4 064	6 517	5.4	2 098	2 434	4 532	8.9
20–29	31 998	46 178	78 176	64.5	7 669	8 701	16 370	32.2
30–39	9 685	9 703	19 388	16.0	7 129	6 428	13 557	26.7
40–49	2 649	2 702	5 351	4.4	3 233	2 825	6 058	11.9
50–59	1 035	1 283	2 318	1.9	1 327	1 109	2 436	4.8
60+	479	547	1 026	0.8	383	393	776	1.5
Total	52 551	68 715	121 266	100.0	25 370	25 449	50 819	100.0

Source: DIMA Movements Data Base

movement to Japan has increased over the period as has that to elsewhere in Asia. However, the migration of Australians to Asia has contributed about one-fifth of all those who have left on a permanent and long-term basis over the last five to six years.

It is of importance to examine the workforce characteristics of those Australia-born who are moving to other countries on a long-term or permanent basis. Table 2.17 shows that the movement to the two main destination countries is dominated by highly skilled groups. Almost 60 per cent of workers going to the UK, the largest single destination are drawn from the manager, administrative, professional and associate professional categories, while 72.8 per cent of these going to the US are in those occupations. This compares with 37.7 per cent of all employed persons in Australia. Hence, it is very much a 'brain drain' phenomena that is very selective of highly skilled groups. Moreover, it is clear from Table 2.18 that this selectivity characterises the flows to other destinations as well. It is especially true of the



It is very much a 'brain drain' phenomena that is very selective of highly skilled groups.

Australia-born persons leaving permanently or on a long-term basis are overwhelmingly concentrated in the young adult age groups.

Table 2.20 Permanent and long-term departures of Australia-born to other areas by age structure

Destination	Per cent aged 20–29	Per cent aged 30–39
New Zealand	23.6	20.3
Germany	36.5	24.6
France	31.6	25.4
Other Europe	34.5	21.2
Singapore	20.1	27.5
Hong Kong	18.1	26.2
Malaysia	12.3	24.2
Japan	45.6	24.4
Other Asia	15.2	23.8
Other	25.4	21.9

Source: DIMA Movements Data Base

Table 2.21 Permanent and long-term departures of Australia-born to selected countries aged between 40 and 49 years

Destination	Number	Per cent
Singapore	2012	15.2
Hong Kong	1522	12.9
Malaysia	1371	18.0
Japan	871	7.8
Other Asia	6660	18.0
UK	5351	4.4
US	6058	11.9

Source: DIMA Movements Data Base

movement to Asia where there tends to be a pattern of local education systems not producing enough highly skilled people trained in a number of areas, or a mismatch between the needs of the labour market and the output of the education system. Another important characteristic of the emigrants that needs to be considered is age. Table 2.19 shows the age–sex breakdown of Australia-born persons leaving permanently or on a long-term basis for the UK and the US. The pattern is one of an overwhelming concentration in the young adult age groups. There are some significant differences. In the movement to the UK two-thirds of the migrants are aged between 20 and 29 years. These are clearly part of the reciprocal movement to the Australian Working Holiday Maker program; that is, it involves young people on holidays who intend to return to Australia after a year or two. The pattern in the US is quite different. There is currently no Working Holiday Maker (WHM) Program with the US, so each of the people going on a long-term basis need to qualify for movement under a work-related criteria. It is interesting that the age structure of movement to the US is somewhat older than that to the UK. This reflects the fact that movement to the US is overwhelming of people who are already in the workforce and are not a recent graduate. Moreover, it is interesting that many young Australian families, including dependent children, are moving to the US. The proportion of



Around half or more of Australia-born permanent or long-term movers are aged between 20 and 39.

The age profile of the Australia-born moving on a permanent or long-term basis to Asia is older than the movement to other areas.

While the skill profile of permanent movement out of Australia is slightly higher than that of permanent movement into the country there is a net gain of skilled people through permanent migration. However, significantly higher skill profiles were recorded among temporary business arrivals.

Australia-born aged less than ten years in the movement to the US is twice that to the UK due to the fact that young professionals often with their families dominate among the migration to the US.

Table 2.20 shows the age structure of the movement of Australia-born on a permanent or long-term basis to the other major destinations. It shows that around half or more of movers are aged between 20 and 39. There are some interesting variations around this theme. The lowest proportion in this age group go to New Zealand. This reflects the fact that 28.2 per cent of the Australia-born moving to New Zealand are aged 0–9. This reflects the fact that many of these children have New Zealand-born parents who were returning to their home country.

An interesting trend is evident in the movement to Asia. It is apparent that the age profile of the Australia-born moving on a permanent or long-term basis to Asia is older than the movement to other areas. In the movement of the Australia-born on a long-term or permanent basis to the UK only 4.7 per cent are aged between 40 and 49. However, Table 2.21 shows that the movement to most Asian destinations includes very high proportions aged between 40 and 49 years, especially when compared with the movement to the UK. The only exception is Japan where there is also a significant Working Holiday Movement.

2.6 Recent developments regarding highly skilled workers including information technology (IT) workers

The previous section has given some details of the workforce characteristics of international migration. It was noted there that there has been an increased focus on skill in selection of permanent migration to Australia. It was shown that while the skill profile of permanent movement out of Australia is slightly higher than that of permanent movement into the country there is a net gain of skilled people through permanent migration. However, significantly higher skill profiles were recorded among temporary business arrivals. The Temporary Business Visa category was introduced in 1996 and as DIMA (2000a, p. 48) points out:

The employer-sponsored temporary business visas allow employers to fill skill shortages from overseas and assess new ideas, skills and technology. The visa holders tend to be highly skilled and have relatively high income levels and are therefore able to contribute to economic growth through improved productivity and increased demand for goods and services. The entry of managers and skilled specialists under these categories can also enhance Australia's ability to compete in international markets.

In 1999–2000 a total of 35 006 temporary resident business visas were granted – an increase of 5.5 per cent over 1998–99. The breakdown of occupations was as follows:

- professionals – 43 per cent
- associate professionals – 24 per cent
- managers/administrators – 24 per cent
- trades and related workers – 4 per cent
- other – 5 per cent.

In fact, the top five specific occupations were computing professionals (12.6 per cent),



The top five specific occupations granted Temporary Resident Business Visas were computing professionals, self-employed, general managers, accountants and chefs.

Australia is, like other nations, currently experiencing skill shortages in the IT and T industries, which is seen as a constraint to the growth of industry competitiveness.

self-employed (10.4), general managers (8.3), accountants (5.1) and chefs (4.4). The main countries of origin are as follows:

- UK – 23 per cent
- US – 10 per cent
- India – 8 per cent
- South Africa – 7 per cent
- Japan – 6 per cent
- China – 4 per cent
- Canada – 3 per cent
- Ireland – 3 per cent
- Indonesia – 3 per cent
- France – 2 per cent.

There are three other categories of skilled temporary residents:

- Temporary resident medical practitioners are recruited to fill 'area-of-need' positions often for regional and remote areas. In 1999–2000, 2515 visas were issued – 1419 principal applicants and 1096 dependents. The main origins are South Africa (19 per cent), Indonesia (15), UK (14), China (8), Singapore (6), Hong Kong (3), Taiwan (3), US (3), Malaysia (2) and Germany (2).
- Educational temporary resident visas were granted to 1700 people to fill academic, teaching and research positions that cannot be filled within the Australian labour market.
- Independent executives come under a non-sponsored temporary visa that enables a person to enter Australia for the purpose of establishing or buying into a business and managing that business. In 1999–2000, 3937 independent visas were granted. The main countries of origin were South Africa (19 per cent), Indonesia (15 per cent), UK (14 per cent), China (8 per cent), Singapore (6 per cent), Hong Kong (3 per cent), Taiwan (3 per cent), US (3 per cent), Malaysia (3 per cent) and Germany (3 per cent).

Turning to the issue of information technology (IT) and international migration, Australia is, like other nations, currently experiencing skill shortages in the IT and T industries, which is seen as a constraint to the growth of competitiveness of industry in Australia and to the emerging information economy. Occupations involved in IT and T in Australia include the following (NOIE 1998, p. 3):

- computing professionals
- information technology managers
- engineering technologists
- technical sales representatives (information/communication)
- electrical engineering associate professionals



Table 2.22 Number of course completions^(a) in IT^(b) by local and full-fee paying overseas students, 1989–93 and 1993–98

	1989	1993	1998	Growth 1989–93	Share of growth (%)	Growth 1993–98	Share of growth (%)
Overseas	208	978	2578	770	33.3	1600	64.1
Local	2588	4110	5007	1522	66.4	897	35.9
Total	2796	5088	7585	2292	100.0	2497	100.0

(a) Includes undergraduate and postgraduate completions.

(b) Includes students enrolled in courses reported by universities as field of study 0902 Computer Science, Information Systems and field of study 040502 Business Data Processing.

Source: Birrell et al. 2000, p. 76

Table 2.23 Commencements in IT in science, IT and business courses, 1990–99

	1990	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	Growth no.	1990–99 %
Overseas	1 084	2 483	2 317	2 549	3 435	4 080	5 932	4 848	447.2
Local	9 060	8 696	9 502	10 643	11 039	11 274	13 531	4 471	49.3
Total	10 144	11 179	11 819	13 192	14 474	15 354	19 463	9 319	91.9

Source: Birrell et al. 2000, p. 77

- computing support technicians
- electronic/office equipment tradespersons
- communications tradespersons.

Under this definition in 1998 total employment in IT- and T-related occupations were over 302 200 of whom 134 700 (45 per cent) were computing professionals. Over the previous 10 years the number of occupations grew by 46.4 per cent. There are a number of indicators of a significant labour shortage in the IT industry in Australia. It was estimated in 1995 that the numbers of computing professionals alone would increase from 79 000 in 1993–94 to 146 000 in 2004–05 (DEETYA 1995, p. 140), but by 1998 there were already 134 700 (NOIE 1998, p. 6). A study entitled *Future Demand for IT and T Skills in Australia* (AIIA 1999) found that 360 000 were then primarily engaged in the IT and T industry and that the demand was likely to be:

- in one year – 29 700
- in three years – 87 700
- in five years – 169 000.

This represents a growth in demand for labour of around 9 per cent per annum and the current shortage of IT workers is generally given at around 30 000 jobs.

It is apparent that the demand for IT professionals is not being met by training within Australia. Birrell et al. 2000 have analysed the extent of IT training in Australian universities and their data are presented in Tables 2.22 and 2.23. They show rapid increase in *both* commencements and completions in the IT area, although they do not go close to meeting the annual need of around 30 000 skilled people.

There are a number of indicators of a significant labour shortage in the IT industry in Australia.



Since mid-1999 overseas full fee-paying students who graduate in IT and some other professional fields in demand in Australia have been encouraged to apply for permanent residence.

It appears that only a small proportion of the overseas IT students are taking advantage of the new regulations.

Considerable emphasis is being placed on international migration to meet the shortfall in IT professionals.

Table 2.24 Australia: arrival and departure of permanent and long-term migrants with IT and T occupations, 1995–2000

Year	Arrivals		Departures		Net Gain	
	Wider definition(a)	Narrow definition(b)	Wider definition	Narrow definition	Wider definition	Narrow definition
1995–96	5946		3318		2628	
1996–97	6062		3912		2150	
1997–98	6189	4708	4477	3743	1712	965
1998–99		5507		3934		1573
1999–00		7007		4227		2780

(a) ASCO 1 definition includes data-processing managers, electrical and electronics engineers, computing professionals, electronic engineering technicians, communications equipment trades, office equipment, computer services and sales representatives.

(b) ASCO 2 definition is more restrictive and includes information technology managers, computing professionals and computing supply technicians.

Source: DIMA unpublished data

Moreover, Birrell et al. (2000) argue that these figures are somewhat misleading in that a substantial proportion of the IT students in Australian universities are in fact overseas students. In mid-1999 the government reversed its former policy that overseas students were required to leave the country on graduation for at least two years before applying for residence. However, after mid-1999 overseas full fee-paying students who graduate in IT and some other professional fields in demand in Australia have been encouraged to apply for permanent residence. Birrell et al. (2000, p. 81) report that in 1999–2000:

- There were 1153 IT professionals who applied for settlement in Australia under the two points assessed categories (independent and skilled Australian-linked categories).
- Of these, 708 received bonus points allocated for having Australian qualifications – 188 from India, 92 from Hong Kong, 83 from Malaysia and most of the rest from East and South-east Asian countries. This was slightly less than half being recent graduates.

Hence, it appears that only a small proportion of the overseas IT students are taking advantage of the new regulations. Birrell et al. (2000) also argue that the official IT enrolments in Tables 2.22 and 2.23 may exaggerate the degree of growth since a ‘rebadging’ of courses occurred in Australian universities in the 1990s. In sum, however, it is clear that the university system is not training sufficient graduates to meet the increasing demand for IT professionals.

Accordingly, considerable emphasis is being placed on international migration to meet the shortfall in IT professionals. In 1999–2000, 54.3 per cent of the 92 272 settler arrivals in Australia were in the workforce prior to migration. The top three individual occupations were general managers (1943 persons), computer professionals (1778) and accountants (1694). The computer professionals attracted to Australia as settlers almost all came under the two points tested skill categories. The numbers of computing professionals coming to Australia under the temporary residence business visas in 1999–2000 were significantly greater than those coming permanently (4411 persons). However, while 71.3 per cent of all permanent and long-term temporary computer professionals arriving in Australia were in the long-term temporary category, this was the case for 43 per cent of all IT and T people (DIMA 2000a, p. 49).



Table 2.25 Australia: permanent and long-term arrivals and departures of IT personnel, 1997–98 to 1999–2000

	1997–98	1998–99	1999–2000	Per cent change	
				1997–98 to 1998–99	1998–99 to 1999–2000
Permanent arrivals	1325	1563	2078	+18.0	+32.9
Permanent departures	593	765	700	+29.0	-8.5
Net permanent	732	798	1378	+9.0	+72.7
L/T resident arrivals	1823	1361	1896	-25.3	+39.3
L/T resident departures	2277	2372	2302	+4.2	-3.0
Net L/T residents	-454	-1011	-406	-122.7	+59.8
L/T visitor arrivals	3148	2583	3033	-17.9	+17.4
L/T visitor departures	2870	797	1225	-72.2	+53.7
Net L/T visitors	278	1783	1808	+541.4	+1.4
Total arrivals	4708	5507	7007	+17.0	+27.2
Total departures	3743	3934	4227	+5.1	+7.4
Total net	556	1573	2780	+182.9	+76.7

Note: L/T = long term.

Source: DIMA unpublished data

Assessing the patterns of migration of people with IT and T skills to and from Australia is difficult with the data available, since defining the category of workers is somewhat problematical. The data the NOIE (1998) use to define IT and T occupations among persons leaving and arriving in Australia are different to those used by DIMA to define the sector. Accordingly, the data provided in Table 2.24 involve two definitions of IT and T workers.

The NOIE definition is a wider definition than that adopted in recent years within DIMA. Nevertheless, there are some important trends that can be discerned in the patterns of long-term and permanent movement of IT and T workers to and from Australia:

- There has been a substantial increase in the inflow of people with IT and T skills into Australia over the last five years.
- It will also be noted that the outflow has also been increasing. This reflects a high degree of *turnover* of IT and T workforce internationally.
- What will also be noted is that there has been a substantial increase in *net* migration gain in recent years.

Migration agents have been active in recruiting IT personnel for Australia from countries like India and the impact of this is evident in the increased inflow of IT professionals.

More insights can be gained from examining the involvement of IT professionals in different types of movement to and from Australia. Table 2.25 shows the breakdown between permanent and long-term movement in IT professions between 1997–98 and 1999–2000. With respect to permanent movement, Australia is experiencing a gain of IT professionals, although there is also a significant permanent out-movement. Nevertheless, it is evident that there was a significant increase in the net migration gain of IT professionals in the last year. It will be noted that while in 1997–98 all of the net gain of IT professionals was made up of permanent arrivals, by 1999–2000

With respect to permanent movement, Australia is experiencing a gain of IT professionals, although there is also a significant permanent out-movement. There was a significant increase in the net migration gain of IT professionals in the last year. All of the net gain was made up of permanent arrivals.



There is a net loss of Australian residents who are IT professionals through long-term movement. On the other hand, there is a significant in-movement of Australian residents who are IT professionals suggesting that many of the Australians with IT skills going overseas to work return to the country.

There has been increased coming and going of overseas-born skilled workers.

The emigration of the Australia-born on an intendedly long-term or permanent basis has increased over the last decade reaching record levels in 1999–2000.

they made up only half of the net gain. Hence, long-term movements of IT professionals have increased in significance in the last four years and have been an important factor in the growth of net gains of IT professionals from migration.

The changes in patterns of long-term migration of IT professionals in Table 2.25 are in line with an overall increase in the significance of non-permanent movement of migrant workers into Australia as discussed earlier. It is interesting, however, to look separately at the long-term migration of Australian residents and visitors. It will be noted that there is, in fact, a net loss of Australian residents who are IT professionals through long-term movement. On the other hand, there is a significant in-movement of Australian residents who are IT professionals suggesting that many of the Australians with IT skills going overseas to work return to the country. It is apparent that the net gain of overseas visitors with IT skills who intend to stay in Australia for a year or more but eventually will leave the country has increased in recent years.

Overall there has been an upswing in IT professionals moving to Australia on a long-term or permanent basis. There also has been a significant out-movement of the group reflecting a lot of turnover in the group that involves both Australian residents and foreigners. It would seem, however, that the influx of IT professionals is still not sufficient to make up the shortfall between the demand and the output of training institutions. It is clear that there is a pressing need in Australia to increase the output of IT professionals from educational institutions.

2.7 Conclusion

This chapter has analysed data collected from the arrival and departure cards completed by all people entering or leaving Australia. It shows a number of interesting developments in emigration since the earlier study (Hugo 1994) was completed. The major changes identified are as follows:

- There has been a major shift in policy to increase the proportion of workers moving to Australia who are skilled.
- The former policy of eschewing non-permanent immigration of workers has been reversed in recognition of increasing globalisation of labour markets and increased international competition for some groups of highly skilled workers. The numbers of workers coming to Australia on temporary visas now outnumber those settling in Australia.
- This has meant that there has been increased coming and going of overseas-born skilled workers.
- Since persons who enter Australia under the 'skill' settlement categories have a greater tendency to remigrate than is the case for those entering under the family and humanitarian categories, this can be expected to increase the overall rate of settler loss. This must be considered an expected result of internationalisation of labour markets.
- The emigration of the Australia-born on an intendedly long-term or permanent basis has shown a strong trend of increase over the last decade reaching record levels in 1999–2000.
- The Australia-born out-movement is strongly selective of young adults and well-educated, skilled people.



- The main destinations of the emigrant Australia-born are other developed economies, especially the UK, which accounts for 33.1 per cent, and the US (14.3 per cent). However, Asian destinations have increased in significance, although the Asian economic crisis saw a downturn in movement to countries like Indonesia and Malaysia.
- The out-movement of the emigrant Australia-born to Asia is a somewhat older trend than that to European and North American destinations, indicating that much of the former is of an extended 'working-holiday' type, while that to Asia is overwhelmingly career advancement in nature.
- One of Australia's major shortages is in the area of information technology, and while there has been success in attracting settlers and temporary skilled entrants with these skills, there is also a high rate of emigration of both overseas- and Australia-born with these skills. This suggests that increased efforts in training in this area, as well as overseas recruitment, are urgently needed.
- Australia is very definitely still experiencing a 'brain gain' in terms of there being a net gain recorded in each skill area. Nevertheless, the skill profile of emigration remains higher than that of immigration. Moreover, the gap between numbers of skilled immigrants and the number of skilled emigrants is decreasing. Hence, we are experiencing a greater 'turnover' of skilled personnel than in the past.

Definitive conclusions from these changes must await the empirical investigation of the emigrants themselves – their motives, intentions, plans and activities. This will be the second phase of the study of which only the first, secondary data analysis phase, is reported here. Nevertheless, it is clear from this analysis that substantial changes have occurred in emigration from Australia over the last decade. This needs to be examined closely from the perspective of its impact, especially on Australia's economic, social, demographic and cultural future. In the post-war period, immigration has been a strong focus of government intervention and policy. On the other hand, while there have been occasional discussions about problems of settler loss and of a possible 'brain drain' from Australia (Hugo 1996), it has never been a focus of policy. Perhaps this needs to be reassessed, but only in the light of detailed research into the impact of emigration.

The next two chapters utilise some existing data sets to examine in greater detail two subsets of emigration from Australia. In Chapter 3 some results of the National Longitudinal Survey of Immigration in Australia (LSIA) are analysed in relation to settler loss. In Chapter 4 we examine some data from the Graduate Destination Survey (GDS) to consider the movement overseas of recent graduates from Australian universities.

Note

1 These figures do not include New Zealand citizens.

The main destinations of the emigrant Australia-born are other developed economies, especially the UK. However, Asian destinations have increased in significance.

Australia is very definitely still experiencing a 'brain gain'. Nevertheless, the skill profile of emigration remains higher than that of immigration. The gap between numbers of skilled immigrants and the number of skilled emigrants is decreasing. Hence, we are experiencing a greater 'turnover' of skilled personnel than in the past.

Problems of settler loss and of a possible 'brain drain' have never been a focus of policy. Perhaps this needs to be reassessed.



The overall level of attrition from the sample by Wave 3 was quite high. Persons entering under the Independent Points Assessment Scheme had the lowest participation by Wave 3. The humanitarian stream, as well as those entering under the family provision as spouses joining settlers, also showed above-average loss. The lowest level of attrition was associated with the 'concessional family' category.

3 Settler loss

3.1 Introduction

This section provides an analysis of data from the Longitudinal Survey of Immigrants to Australia (LSIA) undertaken by the former Department of Immigration and Ethnic Affairs and continued by the present Department of Immigration and Multicultural Affairs (DIMA). The first cohort of respondents selected from visaed principal applicants arriving in Australia between September 1993 and August 1995 were interviewed within six months of arrival, and then in specified follow-up periods after the initial interview. Over a five-year period, they were asked the same questions in each of the three waves of the survey to establish how well they had adjusted to life in Australia and to monitor changes that may have occurred. The survey forms the basis of the analysis presented here as it allows us to identify the characteristics of recent immigrants no longer resident in Australia at the time of the third wave of the survey. Moreover, the survey includes questions on respondents' intentions to emigrate, the reasons for doing so and the preferred destination country.

The settler arrival and departure data discussed earlier are especially useful in respect to monitoring recent changes in the source country, the popularity of specific visa categories and levels of departure, but are limited in respect to the characteristics of immigrants and do not capture the settlement experience. The LSIA data are very comprehensive, including important information on the characteristics of immigrants, such as age, sex, birthplace country, marital status, educational levels, work experience and the reasons for migration, which can be matched with visa category.

This chapter is divided into three parts. The first systematically details the levels of attrition from the survey that have occurred from the initial interview until Wave 3, the final interview for this cohort of settlers. It deals with the reasons for respondents being unavailable for interview and contrasts their characteristics. The second looks specifically at settlers who were not interviewed in Wave 3 and were identified as having left Australia to live permanently overseas. These immigrants are considered here to be emigrants and their characteristics are contrasted with those immigrants still in Australia at the time of Wave 3, referred to here as the 'Stayers'. The third section is somewhat hypothetical in that it examines the emigration intentions of the settlers for each wave of the survey and attempts to establish favoured destination countries for specific birthplace groups and the reasons for expressing a desire to leave so soon after settling in Australia.

3.2 Sample attrition

The focus here is upon the sample of principal applicants and the loss of respondents over each of the waves. Some 5192 principal applicants were selected for interview between March 1994 and January 1996. They were seen to be representative of about 75 000 visaed immigrants at that time. The overall level of attrition from the sample by Wave 3 was quite high with some 28.3 per cent of those interviewed in Wave 1 dropping out.

Table 3.1 shows that persons entering under the Independent Points Assessment Scheme had the lowest participation by Wave 3; some 29.9 per cent of males and 37.4 per cent of females were not interviewed. The humanitarian stream, as well as those entering under the family provision as spouses joining settlers, also showed above-average loss. The lowest level of attrition was associated with the 'concessional family' category, with only 20 per cent of males and 25.7 per cent of females not being available for interview in Wave 3.



Table 3.1 Percentage of male and female respondents in Wave 1 not interviewed by Wave 3 by visa category

	Percentage of respondents in Wave 1 not interviewed by Wave 3		
	Males	Females	Persons
Spouse	31.7	28.7	29.7
Family	21.5	31.3	26.6
Concessional family	20.0	25.7	21.6
Skill-business	26.1	21.5	25.5
Independent points	29.9	37.4	31.9
Humanitarian	31.2	25.1	29.1
Prospective marriage	27.5	23.3	25.0
Total	28.1	28.5	28.3

Source: DIMA LSIA Waves 1–3 (unpublished)

Respondent loss by age is shown in Figure 3.1, and it is clear that the highest attrition is among young male and female adults up to 35 years of age. This represents about 30 per cent of those immigrants aged 15–24 and 25–34 years at first interview, with very little difference evident between males and females. The loss reduces somewhat for ages 35–44 and 45–54 years, with a higher level of attrition evident for males. The reverse applies for the older ages with female loss much higher than for males, particularly for those aged 65 years or more.

Table 3.2 shows that attrition from the survey varied considerably by birthplace region, with the highest loss occurring among immigrants from the North-east Asian region, some 39 per cent of males and females. This above-average loss was primarily due to the high attrition of immigrants from Hong Kong, whereby only 50 per cent of those at first interview responded by Wave 3. The other two regions with above-average loss were North America (US 37 per cent and Canada 31 per cent) and also South/Central America (37 per cent). Immigrants from the Southern Asian region had the lowest level of attrition with only 20 per cent leaving the sample; however, this varied between countries, with only 18.8 per cent of immigrants from India not interviewed compared with one-third from Pakistan.

If we specifically look at those immigrants who were not interviewed in Wave 3, it is interesting to examine the reasons provided for failure to obtain an interview (Table 3.3). In total, 43.2 per cent of those not interviewed could not be tracked, 46 per cent of females and 40.7 per cent of males. Approximately 16 per cent of applicants had refused to be interviewed with only a small percentage deceased or declared 'out of scope', but were still living in Australia. Of particular interest here, one-third of those applicants not interviewed were overseas, either temporarily or permanently. Much of the analysis presented here focuses upon those who were identified as leaving the country on a permanent basis, some 13.2 per cent of males and 15.6 per cent of females, or in total 14.3 per cent of those not interviewed. This analysis effectively provides some insights into the characteristics of emigrants and the selectivity of that group compared with those who stay.

The highest attrition is among young male and female adults up to 35 years of age.

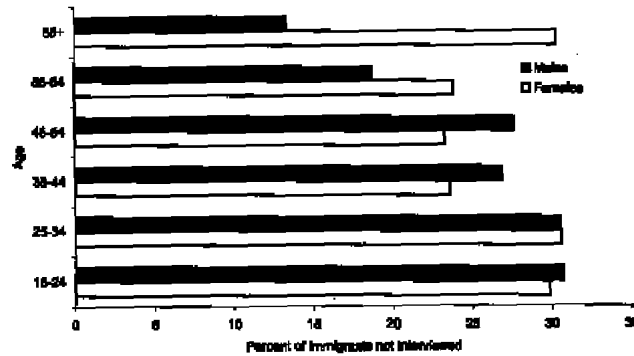
Attrition varied considerably by birthplace region, with the highest loss occurring among immigrants from the North-east Asian region, primarily due to the high attrition of immigrants from Hong Kong.

The other two regions with above-average loss were North America and South/Central America.

Immigrants from the Southern Asian region had the lowest level of attrition.



Figure 3.1 Per cent of male and female respondents in Wave 1 who were not interviewed in Wave 3 by age, LSIA



Source: DIMA LSIA Waves 1-3 (unpublished)

Table 3.2 Percentage of male and female respondents in Wave 1 not interviewed by Wave 3 by birthplace region, LSIA

Birthplace region	Males	Females	Persons
Oceania	21.4	28.9	25.2
UK and Ireland	26.5	29.0	27.4
Europe and USSR	26.9	26.6	26.7
Middle East and Nth Africa	28.2	29.2	28.6
South-east Asia	27.6	24.5	25.6
North-east Asia	39.1	39.4	39.3
Southern Asia	20.8	22.2	21.3
North America	40.6	29.6	35.1
South and Central America	35.0	39.5	37.2
Africa	21.3	29.0	24.2

Source: DIMA LSIA Waves 1-3

Table 3.3 Reasons why principal applicants in Wave 1 were not interviewed in Wave 3 by sex, LSIA

Reason not interviewed	Males	Females	Persons
Unable to track	40.7	46.0	43.2
Refused	15.2	16.0	15.6
Overseas temporarily	19.7	15.7	17.8
Overseas permanently	13.2	15.6	14.3
In Australia-out of scope	3.7	1.9	2.8
Deceased	1.5	1.3	1.4
Other	6.2	3.6	4.9
Total (weighted sample)	100.0	100.0	100.0
	(11 042)	(10 176)	(21 218)

Source: DIMA LSIA Waves 1-3



Table 3.4 Reasons why principal applicants in Wave 1 were not interviewed in Wave 3 by visa category, LSIA

Reason not interviewed	Prospective marriage	Spouse	Family	Concessional family	Skill/business	Independent points assessment	Humanitarian
Unable to track	54.2	45.8	33.4	23.3	15.6	38.0	57.2
Refused	17.4	14.9	15.5	16.9	13.1	12.9	19.4
Overseas temporarily	13.9	16.1	21.3	33.0	33.1	20.8	8.5
Overseas permanently	10.9	13.2	13.3	17.8	27.9	23.0	4.4
Deceased	.3	.4	5.0	–	1.7	–	4.3
Other	3.3	9.5	11.4	9.1	8.6	5.4	6.2
Total (weighted sample)	100.0 (2225)	100.0 (7616)	100.0 (2285)	100.0 (1270)	100.0 (656)	100.0 (4089)	100.0 (3076)

Source: DIMA LSIA Waves 1–3

In examining the reasons for non-interview according to visa category (Table 3.4), we find that the highest percentage of applicants who could not be tracked were in the ‘prospective marriage’ (54.2 per cent), ‘spouse’ (45.8 per cent) and ‘humanitarian’ (57.2 per cent) categories. Immigrants most likely to leave permanently had gained entry via the ‘skill-business’ program (27.9 per cent) and through independent points assessment (23 per cent), while those least likely to have done so (4 per cent) were in the humanitarian program. Those immigrants recorded as being temporarily overseas were primarily in the ‘concessional family’ or ‘skill-business’ categories (33 per cent). However, it should be noted that one-fifth of those coming through independent point assessment were also found to be temporarily overseas. It appears that persons meeting either the skill-business or independent entry criteria are the most likely to return overseas, either temporarily or permanently. This finding is consistent with the movement data discussed earlier. Unfortunately, we are not able to establish the destination countries or any reasons for immigrants being overseas at the time of Wave 3 of the survey. Nonetheless, we can pursue the degree to which they differ from the overall sample of immigrants in respect to their origins, education and work experience as established in Waves 1 and 2.

In considering the birthplace region of immigrants who were not interviewed in Wave 3, Table 3.5 shows that a large percentage of those who could not be tracked were from South-east Asia and North-east Asia, 28.5 per cent and 19.6 per cent, respectively.

Immigrants from Europe and the former USSR, as well as South-east Asia, were predominant among the refusals. Of those who were deemed to be overseas temporarily, some 30.9 per cent were from the North-east Asia region and a further 30 per cent from Europe/former USSR and the UK. Of particular interest here, most immigrants who had left to go overseas permanently were from the UK and Ireland (24.9 per cent) and from Europe/former USSR (21.7 per cent), with North-east Asia also highly represented (18.6 per cent). In total, 65 per cent of immigrants who had left permanently came from these three regions, although they only made up 50 per cent of those not interviewed by Wave 3.

Immigrants most likely to leave permanently had gained entry via the ‘skill-business’ program and through independent points assessment.

Persons meeting either the skill-business or independent entry criteria are the most likely to return overseas, either temporarily or permanently.



Table 3.5 Reasons why principal applicants in Wave 1 were not interviewed in Wave 3 by birthplace region, LSIA

Birthplace Region	Unable to track	Refused	Overseas temporarily	Overseas permanently	Other
Oceania	2.3	2.9	1.3	-	5.7
UK and Ireland	13.7	10.5	15.3	24.9	10.2
Europe and USSR	9.4	26.4	15.0	21.7	26.2
Middle East and North Africa	10.3	12.7	10.4	5.7	9.7
South-east Asia	28.5	19.8	9.2	8.3	15.8
North-east Asia	19.6	9.7	30.9	18.6	9.0
South Asia	7.0	10.0	7.8	4.2	7.6
North America	2.6	4.8	4.2	9.0	5.9
South, Central America	2.7	.8	1.5	2.9	4.2
Africa	3.9	2.4	4.4	4.7	5.8
Total (weighted sample)	100.0 (9167)	100.0 (3302)	100.0 (3769)	100.0 (3041)	100.0 (1938)

Source: DIMA LSIA Waves 1–3

Most immigrants who had left to go overseas permanently were from the UK and Ireland and from Europe/former USSR, with North-east Asia also highly represented.

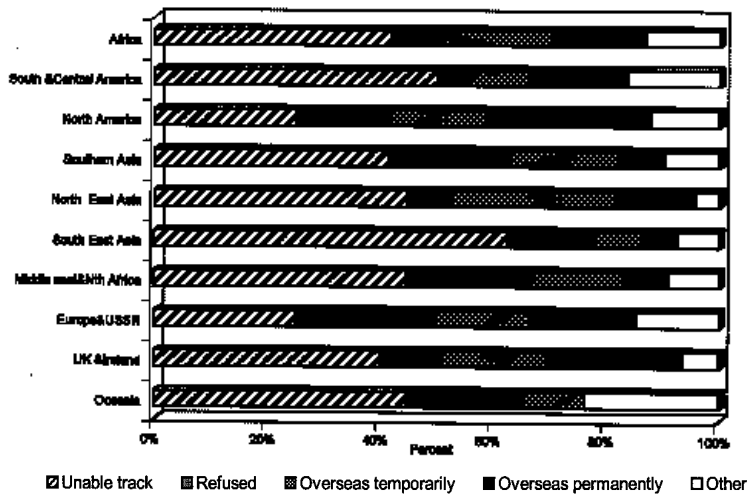
It is interesting if we consider the reasons for non-interview by birthplace region. The considerable variations are shown in Figure 3.2. Of those from South-east Asia dropping out of the survey a very high 63 per cent of them could not be tracked by Wave 3. This was also predominantly the case for immigrants from Oceania, as well as South and Central America, the Middle East and Africa. The refusal rates by birthplace group were highest among those from Europe/former USSR (25.1 per cent) and the lowest among those from North-east Asia and the UK and Ireland. Some 29 per cent of immigrants not interviewed from North-east Asia had left Australia temporarily, as was the case for those from Southern Asia (19 per cent) and the UK and Ireland (18.3 per cent). Of particular note, the highest representation of immigrants who had left Australia not to return were from North America (29.2 per cent), the UK and Ireland (24.2 per cent) and Europe (19 per cent), and the lowest representation was among immigrants from Asia. In other words, applicants from European and North American origins who were not interviewed were the most likely to have emigrated from Australia since the time of first interview. By contrast, immigrants from Asia and the Middle East were not as likely to be missed at interview because they had left the country permanently. Although it is not possible to say what percentage of those who could not be tracked had left the country, it can be assumed that they have fewer choices and most remain in Australia.

3.3 Respondents permanently overseas by Wave 3

This section focuses upon the characteristics of respondents who had moved permanently overseas by the final wave of the survey and were not available for interview. It is important to highlight their characteristics as they can be considered to be the most indicative of immigrants who leave the country after a relatively short period of stay. Unfortunately, we can not establish the destination countries of these former immigrants selected for LSIA, and therefore, do not know whether they migrated to



Figure 3.2 Reasons why respondents in Wave 1 were not interviewed in Wave 3 by birthplace region, LSIA



Source: DIMA LSIA Waves 1-3

a new country or returned to their former country of origin. It must be borne in mind that this group represents a relatively small number of sampled principal applicants and therefore some of the more detailed trends alluded to here have to be viewed with some caution.

3.3.1 Visa and birthplace characteristics

In examining the categories under which these departing immigrants entered Australia (Table 3.6), we find that 39 per cent of males and 23.5 per cent of females gained entry under the Independent Points Assessment Scheme. Of particular note, some 22.7 per cent of males and 42.7 per cent of females did so under the Spouse provision. This may indicate that the spouse (male or female) with the best chance of gaining entry through the Independent Points Assessment Scheme or on the basis of other economic criteria is the initial principal applicant who is then joined by his or her respective partner, who applies later. It is important to stress that persons interviewed in LSIA are only principal applicants and those immigrants (most notably spouse and children) who were part of the migrating unit are not included in this analysis. There is a separate file containing rather limited data on them. In this analysis those seeking entry as a spouse under the family reunion contingency appear to have applied separately and are joining partners who have already migrated to Australia. Moreover, it appears that almost 60 per cent of females compared to only 26 per cent of males who emigrated had entered Australia under the spouse or other family member category. By contrast, males who had emigrated were over-represented in the economic categories of entry (skill-business and independent points assessment), some 49.4 per cent compared to 25.6 per cent of females.

The over-representation of emigrants among those gaining entry to Australia via Independent Points Assessment Scheme criteria and to a lesser extent the 'skills-business' category is clearly shown in Figure 3.3. By contrast, those immigrants gaining

In examining the categories under which these departing immigrants entered Australia, we find that 39 per cent of males and 23.5 per cent of females gained entry under the Independent Points Assessment Scheme. Of particular note, some 22.7 per cent of males and 42.7 per cent of females did so under the Spouse provision.

There is an over-representation of emigrants among those gaining entry to Australia via Independent Points Assessment Scheme criteria and to a lesser extent the 'skills-business' category.



Immigrants gaining entry under the humanitarian program and also the 'prospective marriage' visa category, are not as likely to leave so soon after settlement as those meeting the economic and skill requirements.

Immigrants most likely to stay were predominantly from South-east Asia, Southern Asia, China and the Middle East. Hong Kong is the main exception.

Immigrants from North America had the highest representation of emigrants. The next highest representation was the UK and Ireland, followed by North-east Asia and Europe/former USSR

Table 3.6 Visa category of male and female immigrants identified as being permanently overseas by Wave 3, LSIA

Visa category	Male	Female
Spouse	22.7	42.7
Family	3.3	16.1
Concessional family	9.6	5.5
Skill-business	10.3	2.1
Independent points assessment	39.1	23.5
Humanitarian	5.4	3.6
Prospective marriage	9.7	6.5
Total (weighted sample)	100.0 (1452)	100.0 (1589)

Source: DIMA LSIA Waves 1-3

entry under the humanitarian program and also the 'prospective marriage' visa category, are not as likely to leave so soon after settlement as those meeting the economic and skill requirements. There is a relatively even representation of 'stayers' and emigrants in the 'spouse', 'family' and 'concessional family' categories, indicating that family members who migrate to join family tend to accompany those who leave permanently.

Figure 3.4 shows that the US, Europe and the UK and Ireland were over-represented as the birthplace regions of the former immigrants, which is not surprising given that a high proportion of the respondents who had emigrated from Australia had gained entry due to economic visa criteria. Immigrants most likely to stay were most predominantly from South-east Asia, Southern Asia, China and the Middle East. Hong Kong is the main exception in that there is a substantial over-representation of immigrants who had emigrated elsewhere rather than stayed in Australia.

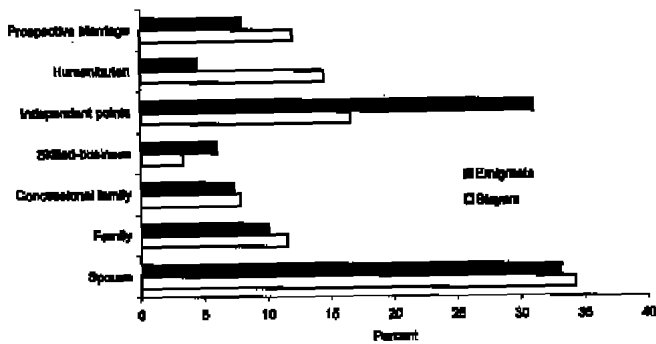
In considering the relative share of emigrants to the total number of immigrants eligible for interview in Wave 3 by birthplace region, we find that immigrants from North America had the highest representation of emigrants, with 10.2 per cent leaving Australia to live overseas permanently (Table 3.7). The next highest representation of emigrants was the UK and Ireland (6.6 per cent), followed by North-east Asia (5.5 per cent) and Europe/former USSR (5.1). It was interesting that female emigrants outnumbered their male counterparts, particularly those who initially had come from UK and Ireland, and also North America.

3.3.2 Age and Marital Status

In considering the characteristics of immigrants who had departed permanently overseas by Wave 3, it must be noted that overall there were more female principal applicants that had emigrated than males, a ratio of some 109.4 females per 100 males. It should also be stressed that the characteristics of those immigrants who had left Australia were as recorded at the time of the first interview. For example, a large percentage of respondents identified as emigrants were aged 25-29 years (37 per cent of males and 31 per cent of females) at the time of first interview, which spanned a period of selection over two years (1993-95). Moreover, the analysis showed a much higher representation of female emigrants aged 15-24 years (19 per cent) and also above 65 years of age (9.3 per cent) than was the case for males (1.9 per cent). Of particular note, some 27 per cent of male emigrants were aged between 30-34 years of age, compared with only 15 per cent of their female counterparts.

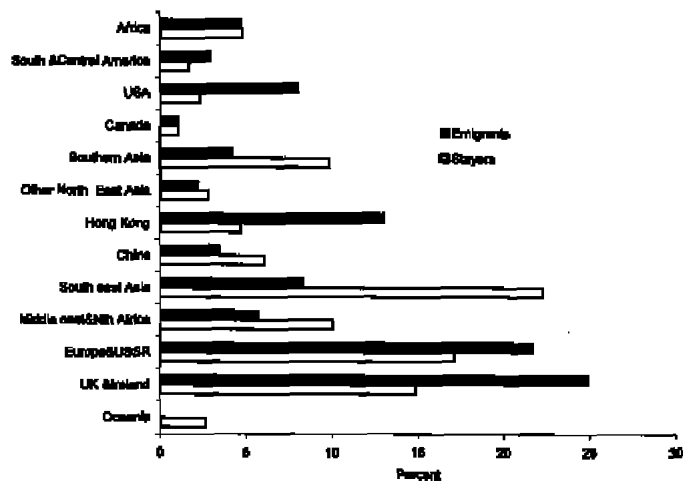


Figure 3.3 Visa category of immigrants who stayed and those who had emigrated from Australia by Wave 3 of LSIA



Source: DIMA LSIA Waves 1-3

Figure 3.4 Birthplace region of immigrants who stayed and those who had emigrated from Australia by Wave 3 of LSIA



Source: DIMA LSIA Waves 1-3

Table 3.7 Percentage of male and female principal applicants identified as emigrants by Wave 3 by birthplace region, LSIA

Birthplace region	Males	Females	Persons
UK and Ireland	5.3	9.0	6.6
Europe and former USSR	5.1	5.1	5.1
Middle East and North Africa	1.7	3.3	2.3
South-east Asia	1.2	1.8	1.6
North-east Asia	5.9	5.2	5.5
Southern Asia	1.8	1.6	1.8
North America	7.5	12.9	10.2
Other	2.2	4.9	3.4

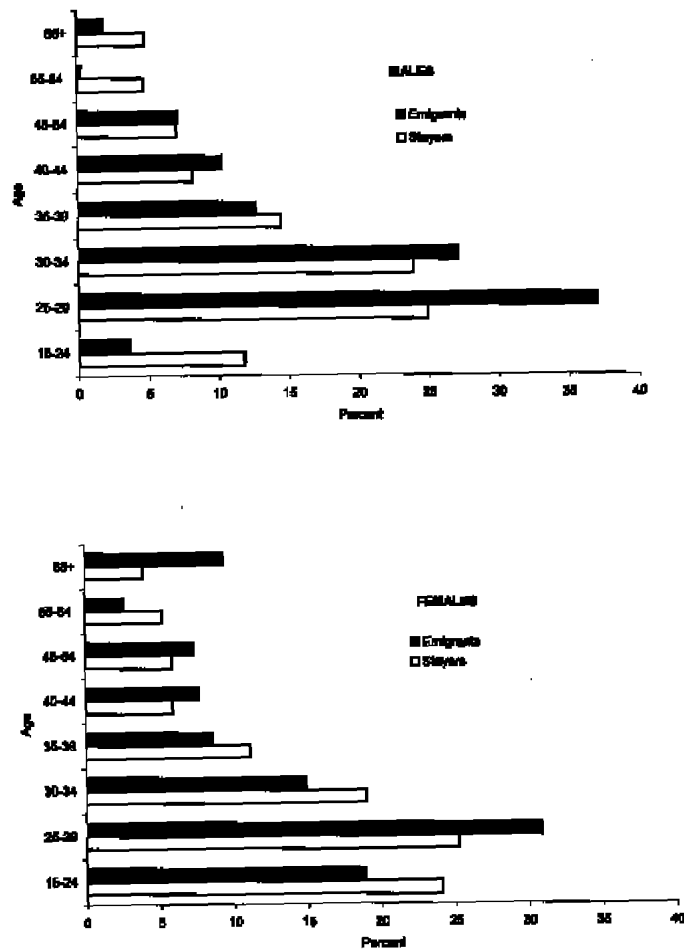
Source: DIMA LSIA Waves 1-3



More female principal applicants had emigrated than males.

Another important difference is the over-representation of female immigrants aged 65 years or more leaving the country that is not the case for males. However, it is important to note that older persons make up only a small percentage of emigrants.

Figure 3.5 Age distribution of male and female immigrants who stayed and those who had emigrated from Australia by Wave 3 of LSIA



Source: DIMA LSIA Waves 1-3

Figure 3.5 shows not only the young age structure of the emigrants but the distinctive differences between those respondents at first interview who had not left the country on a permanent basis by Wave 3, classified here as 'stayers'. There is a very clear over-representation of male emigrants aged 25–29 years, and to a lesser extent 30–34 years, and an under-representation of immigrants aged (15–24 years) and also at older ages. The female emigrants also show a pattern of over-representation for ages 25–29 years but are under-represented for ages 30–34 years. Another important difference is the over-representation of female immigrants aged 65 years or more leaving the country that is not the case for males. This is no doubt linked to the fact that many older females coming to Australia to join family subsequently leave with them. However, it is important to note that older persons make up only a small percentage of emigrants. Of particular note, a high 64 per cent of male emigrants were aged 25 to 34 years, compared with 49 per cent of those who stayed. By contrast, females were less concentrated at ages 25–34 years and more evenly distributed between 'stayers' and emigrants, 44 and 46 per cent, respectively.



Table 3.8 Marital status of immigrants at first interview identified as ‘stayers’ and emigrants by Wave 3, LSIA

Marital status at first interview	Male		Female	
	Emigrants	Stayers	Emigrants	Stayers
Married	66.7	72.6	49.0	70.8
Never married	28.9	24.6	40.3	16.4
Separated–divorced	1.3	2.0	2.4	5.4
Widowed	3.0	0.8	8.3	7.3
Total (weighted sample)	100.0 (1452)	100.0 (37 782)	100.0 (1589)	100.0 (34 160)

Source: DIMA LSIA Waves 1–3

Table 3.9 Male and female respondents who had emigrated by marital status and visa category, LSIA

Marital status at first	Spouse	Family	Concessional family	Skill/business	Independent points	Humanitarian marriage	Prospective
Males							
Married	97.3	28.7	48.5	70.4	55.9	74.8	61.5
Never married	2.7	19.7	44.3	24.7	44.1	25.2	22.8
Not now married	–	51.6	7.2	4.8	–	–	15.7
	(330)	(48)	(139)	(150)	(568)	(78)	(140)
Females							
Married	84.9	1.2	38.0	52.4	21.1	20.0	57.2
Never married	15.1	47.6	62.0	47.6	78.9	45.1	24.8
Not now married	–	51.2	–	–	–	34.9	18.0
Total (weighted sample)	(678)	(256)	(87)	(33)	(374)	(58)	(103)

Source: DIMA LSIA Waves 1–3

In respect to marital status, Table 3.8 shows that two-thirds of males who left to go overseas permanently (emigrants) were married when they were first interviewed and 28.9 per cent had never married. By contrast, 49 per cent of females were married and a high 40.3 per cent had never married, with a relatively high percentage not now married (separated/divorced or widowed). On the other hand, females classified as ‘stayers’ were far more likely to be married, some 70.8 per cent with only 16.4 per cent never married. There was not such a stark contrast evident for males and yet 72.6 per cent of stayers were married, compared with 66.7 per cent of emigrants.

Table 3.9 shows the marital status of male and female emigrants by visa category. For females entering under the Independent Points Scheme, it should be noted that only a small percentage were married (21.1 per cent) with some 78.9 per cent who had never married. Similarly, a lower percentage of males with this type of visa entry were married at the time of first interview. The relatively large representation of males and females who were principal applicants under the category of spouse were pre-

Two-thirds of males who left to go overseas permanently were married when they were first interviewed. By contrast, 49 per cent of females were married and a high 40.3 per cent had never married.



At the time of first interview a high percentage of males who had since emigrated were looking for work, with only two-thirds employed in a job or in their own business. Females interviewed in Wave 1 who had subsequently left by Wave 3 had lower levels of employment.

The occupational characteristics of those employed at the time of first interview and had subsequently emigrated by Wave 3 were predominantly in professional occupations.

Males and females who had emigrated were much more likely to be employed at the time of first interview than immigrants who stayed in Australia.

Table 3.10 Education/work status of respondents at the time of Waves 1 and 2 who had emigrated by Wave 3, LSIA

Education/work status at first interview	Males	Females
Present job or business	67.8	47.2
Looking for work	18.4	5.6
Studying	7.1	16.3
Other (NILF)	6.7	30.9
Total	100.0	100.0
(weighted sample)	(1452)	(1589)

Source: DIMA LSIA Waves 1-3

dominantly married and were no doubt entering to join partners who had gained prior entry based on economic criteria.

It can be suggested that principal applicants who were married and had subsequently emigrated have done so as a family unit. On the other hand, a high percentage of those emigrating, especially females who were young and had never married, had entered Australia under the Independent Points Assessment Scheme and had subsequently managed to gain entry to another country, presumably on the basis of their employability and experience. Emigrants who had initially entered Australia in the family category were predominantly widowed with females significantly outnumbering their male counterparts. However, some caution must be taken in interpreting these links between marital status, gender and visa category, as the sample numbers are small and yet they show some clear trends that are also apparent in the movement data discussed earlier.

3.3.3 Employment and educational characteristics

It is important to briefly look at the work status, occupation and educational qualifications of immigrants who had left by the third wave of the survey, in an attempt to identify the groups most likely to emigrate shortly after arrival. Table 3.10 shows that at the time of first interview a high percentage of males who had since emigrated were looking for work (18.4 per cent), with only two-thirds employed in a job or in their own business. Females interviewed in Wave 1 who had subsequently left by Wave 3 had lower levels of employment, with fewer looking for work, more studying and some 31 per cent were at home.

The occupational characteristics of those employed at the time of first interview and had subsequently emigrated by Wave 3 were predominantly in professional occupations, some 46.1 per cent of males and 24.3 per cent of females (see Table 3.11). Trade occupations also featured strongly among males (32.8 per cent), while for females the highest representation was in sales and personal services (33.6 per cent). It was interesting that there was only a small representation of managers and administrators and also persons involved in unskilled manual work among the emigrants.

It is important to compare the work and occupational status of emigrants with the 'stayers'. Figure 3.6 shows that males and females who had emigrated were much more likely to be employed at the time of first interview than immigrants who stayed in Australia. It is interesting that they were also less likely to be looking for work and yet there were relatively high levels of male unemployment for both groups. Male



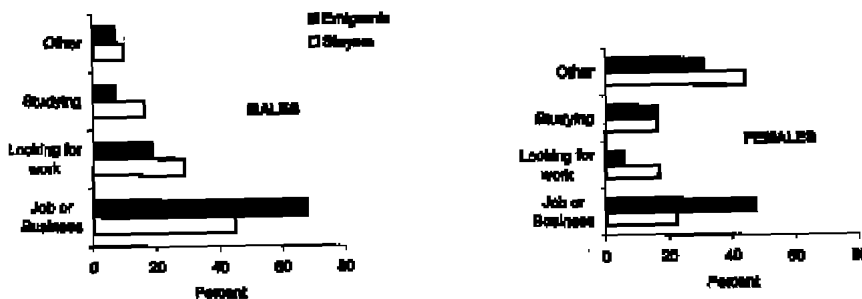
Table 3.11 Occupation of male and female respondents at first interview who had emigrated by Wave 3, LSIA

Occupation at first interview	Males	Females
Manager-administrator	10.5	5.5
Professionals	46.1	24.3
Para-professionals	1.4	12.7
Tradesperson	32.8	1.4
Clerical	–	11.5
Sales-personal services	1.5	33.6
Manual work*	7.7	11.0
Total	100.0	100.0
(weighted sample)	(987)	(855)

*Manual work includes plant machine operators, drivers, labourers and related workers.

Source: DIMA LSIA Waves 1–3

Figure 3.6 Work status of male and female respondents at first interview identified as 'stayers' and emigrants by Wave 3, LSIA



Source: DIMA LSIA Waves 1–3

immigrants who stayed were more likely to be studying than was the case for emigrants; however, females had an equal representation for the two groups. It is clear that those leaving Australia were more actively involved in the workforce from the time of settlement and were not as likely to be unemployed.

Figure 3.7 shows the very distinctive over-representation of male emigrants in professional occupations and also in skilled trade jobs and their low participation in labouring or related occupations. By contrast, female principal applicants were predominantly employed in clerical and sales occupations with emigrants more highly represented than 'stayers'. Of particular note, the percentage of females in professional occupations was very similar for both emigrants and 'stayers', although emigrant females had a slightly higher representation among para-professionals and a significantly lower percentage employed in labourer or related occupations.

Those leaving Australia were more actively involved in the workforce from the time of settlement and were not as likely to be unemployed.

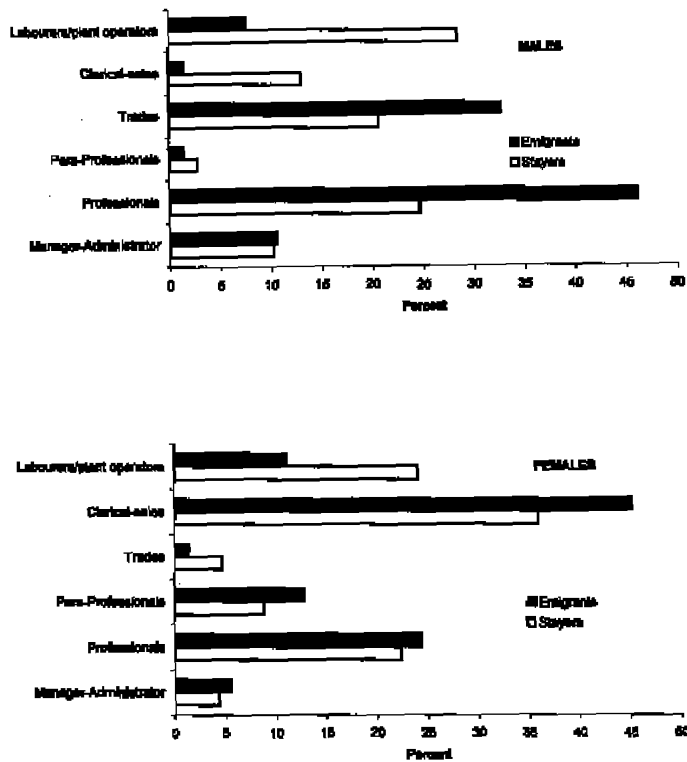
There is a distinctive over-representation of male emigrants in professional occupations and also in skilled trade jobs and low participation in labouring or related occupations. By contrast, female principal applicants were predominantly employed in clerical and sales occupations with emigrants more highly represented than 'stayers'.



There is a disproportionate percentage of male emigrants with higher degrees, and to a lesser extent trade qualifications, and a very low representation with no post-school qualifications. Similarly, female emigrants were significantly over-represented in respect to degrees and diplomas.

Immigrants who had left Australia soon after settlement were those with high educational qualifications.

Figure 3.7 Occupation of employed male and female respondents at first interview identified as 'stayers' and emigrants by Wave 3, LSIA



Source: DIMA LSIA Waves 1-3

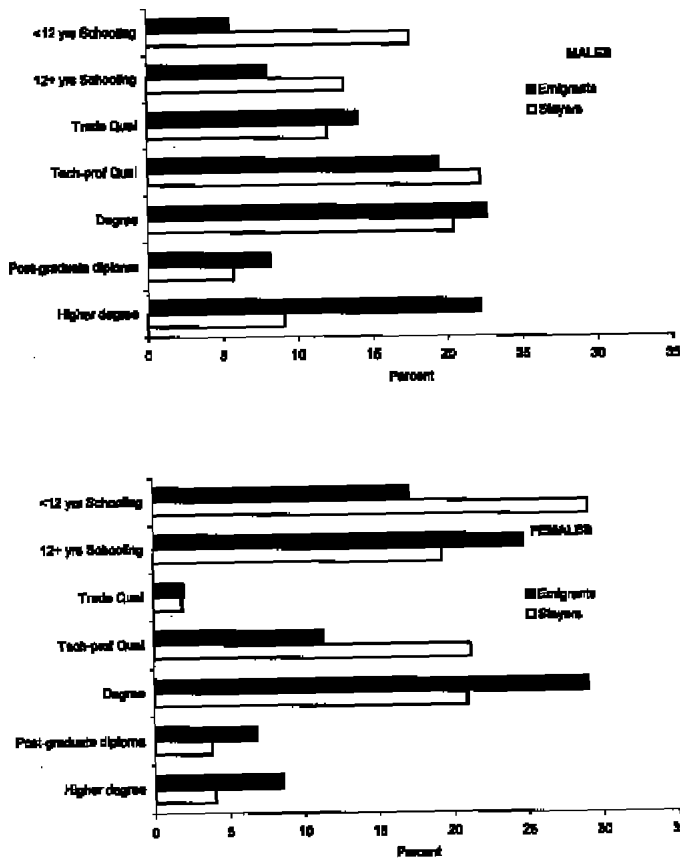
The very distinctive employment characteristics of those who had emigrated from Australia are also reflected in their educational qualifications shown in Figure 3.8. There is a disproportionate percentage of male emigrants with higher degrees, and to a lesser extent trade qualifications, and a very low representation with no post-school qualifications. Similarly, female emigrants were significantly over-represented in respect to degrees and diplomas with a higher proportion of them having at least 12 years of schooling than was the case for 'stayers'.

It appears that those immigrants who had left Australia so soon after settlement were those with high educational qualifications suited to employment in professional occupations and also skilled trades, which was most notably the case for males.

It is interesting to explore occupational and educational characteristics by broad visa category; namely, 'family', 'economic' and 'humanitarian'. Table 3.12 clearly shows that most employed emigrant males gaining entry via the Independent Points Assessment Scheme were predominantly working in professional occupations (60.7 per cent) or as skilled trade persons (31.7 per cent). Employed females in the same category were also highly represented as professionals (38.9 per cent), but had a higher representation of para-professionals (27.3 per cent). Indeed, female emigrants were found in a wider range of occupations and those coming under family-entry criteria were predominantly working in sales and personal services (43.5 per cent) with a very low representation of professionals.



Figure 3.8 Educational qualifications of male and female respondents at first interview identified as 'stayers' and emigrants by Wave 3, LSIA



Employed male emigrants in the humanitarian stream were primarily tradesmen, indicating that only the skilled had the ability to leave soon after coming to Australia.

The high representation of male and female emigrants with degrees or higher qualifications in the 'skill-business' and 'independent points assessment' categories clearly demonstrates the selectivity of emigration from Australia.

Source: DIMA LSIA Waves 1-3

Although the actual sample numbers are very small it is clear that employed male emigrants in the humanitarian stream were primarily tradesmen, indicating that only the skilled had the ability to leave soon after coming to Australia. This is confirmed in Table 3.14 where it is shown that the majority of emigrants in the humanitarian category had degrees and it can be assumed that they had not found employment in Australia. Moreover, the high representation of male and female emigrants with degrees or higher qualifications in the 'skill-business' and 'independent points assessment' categories clearly demonstrates the selectivity of emigration from Australia.

The age and sex selectivity of emigrants by broad visa category shown in Table 3.14 will to some extent help explain the significant educational and occupational differences highlighted above. Of those emigrants gaining entry via the skill-business or independent point provisions, some 75 per cent of males and 89 per cent of females were aged 25 to 34 years on arrival. Most had degrees or other post-school qualifications, they were most likely to be employed in professional or skilled jobs, and therefore, most able to operate in an international labour market and leave Australia to pursue more lucrative offers elsewhere.



Table 3.12 Occupation by visa category at time of first interview for emigrants who had left Australia by Wave 3, LSIA

Occupation at first interview	Visa category					
	Family ^(a)		Skill-business/Independent points		Humanitarian	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Manager-administrator	21.9	6.6	3.5	4.3	–	–
Professionals	28.5	15.7	60.7	38.9	–	–
Para-professionals	2.6	3.5	0.7	27.3	–	–
Tradespersons	28.2	1.4	31.7	1.5	100.0	–
Clerks	–	16.8	–	4.6	–	–
Sales-personal services	0.9	43.5	2.0	18.9	–	32.7
Manual work ^(b)	17.8	12.5	1.4	4.5	–	67.3
Total (weighted sample)	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
	(380)	(496)	(572)	(333)	(35)	(26)

(a) Family includes spouse, family, prospective marriage and concessional family.

(b) Manual work includes plant machine operators, drivers, labourers and related workers.

Source: DIMA LSIA Waves 1–3

Table 3.13 Educational qualifications by visa category at time of first interview for emigrants who had left Australia by Wave 3, LSIA

Educational qualifications at first interview	Visa category					
	Family*		Skill-business/Independent points		Humanitarian	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Higher degree	9.3	6.3	36.5	15.8	–	–
Post-graduate Diploma	5.3	4.7	11.8	13.6	–	–
Degree	16.9	20.5	25.0	49.5	48.7	49.7
Tech.-professional qualification trade	27.4	10.0	14.1	16.5	–	–
12+ years schooling	17.2	1.5	9.6	3.7	28.7	–
<12 years schooling	12.6	33.0	2.1	1.0	22.7	30.3
Total (weighted sample)	11.3	23.9	0.8	–	–	20.0
	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
	(657)	(1,125)	(718)	(407)	(78)	(58)

*Family includes spouse, family, prospective marriage and concessional family.

Source: DIMA LSIA Waves 1–3

3.3.4 Reasons for immigration to Australia

The survey included questions in Wave 1, which asked the selected principal applicants their reasons for immigrating to Australia. They were presented with a list of pre-coded responses and asked to indicate those factors perceived to underlie their decision to migrate to Australia. Of persons who had emigrated (claimed to be overseas permanently at the time of Wave 3), 22.8 per cent had indicated that 'better employment opportunities' was a reason for immigrating to Australia. Other reasons featuring quite predominantly were the 'political climate' and to 'join family and friends'.



Table 3.14 Age distribution by main visa category of immigrants identified as being permanently overseas by Wave 3, LSIA

Age at first interview	Visa category					
	Family*		Skill-business/Independent points assessment		Humanitarian	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
15–24	2.4	26.7	2.6	–	22.7	–
25–34	55.7	30.1	75.6	89.1	28.7	45.1
35–44	26.0	16.3	17.4	10.4	48.7	54.9
45+	15.9	26.9	3.9	0.5	–	–
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
(weighted sample)	(657)	(1,125)	(718)	(407)	(78)	(58)

*Family includes the categories spouse, family, prospective marriage and concessional family.

Source: DIMA LSIA Waves 1–3

Table 3.15 Per cent of emigrants saying ‘yes’ to each of the following reasons for immigrating to Australia by main visa type, LSIA

Reasons for immigration to Australia	Family*	Skill-business/ Independent points	Humanitarian
(1) Better employment opportunities	16.2	30.1	49.3
(2) To join family-relatives	59.9	5.6	15.0
(3) To get married	21.3	2.8	–
(4) To undertake studies	13.4	14.1	13.0
(5) Better future for family	34.7	28.6	59.1
(6) Political stability	33.1	76.3	40.8
(7) Lack employment in former country	3.2	3.2	–
(8) Disliked economic conditions of former country	7.9	7.7	21.3
(9) Disliked war-political situation of former country	8.6	21.9	28.0
(10) Escape war-political situation	5.5	17.3	85.2

*Family includes spouse, family, prospective marriage and concessional family

Source: DIMA LSIA Waves 1–3

Of persons who had emigrated, 22.8 per cent had indicated that ‘better employment opportunities’ was a reason for immigrating to Australia. Other reasons featuring quite predominantly were the ‘political climate’ and to ‘join family and friends’.

It is important to look at this response by type of broad visa entry. Table 3.15 shows that the response varied considerably by visa type with ‘political stability’ (in reference to Australia) being most popular among emigrants who had entered under the skill-business/independent points requirements (76.3 per cent). They also gave ‘better employment opportunities’ the second-most favoured response, followed closely by ‘better future for the family’. There was little disquiet expressed about the economic or employment situation in their former country, but some 21.9 per cent of the emigrants did indicate that they disliked the political climate in their former country. As expected, most emigrants who had entered Australia due to family entitlements gave ‘to join family-relatives’ as the main reason for settling in Australia, with only a small percentage expressing employment-related reasons. It should be noted that like those entering under the ‘economic’ and ‘skilled’ categories, one-third



Immigrants who left Australia shortly after settlement were initially motivated to migrate to Australia for its more stable political climate and better opportunities for families rather than for economic reasons.

Overall, a very small proportion of principal applicants indicated any intentions to emigrate.

It is interesting that those immigrants wishing to emigrate actually demonstrated a relatively high retention rate.

The age and sex structure of immigrants wishing to emigrate from Australia changes over the three waves of the survey.

also tended to value the political stability and the fact that they perceived a better future for their families. Those emigrants in the humanitarian stream not surprisingly gave strong preference to the response 'to escape war or political situation in their former country'; indeed, some 85 per cent, with a high percentage favouring the political stability of Australia and also the better employment opportunities.

From this analysis it appears that the immigrants who did manage to leave Australia shortly after settlement were initially motivated to migrate to Australia for its more stable political climate and better opportunities for families rather than for predominantly economic reasons. Further evidence of this is found in the fact that few of those who emigrated specifically expressed employment or economic difficulties in the former home country as a reason for immigrating to Australia. It can be assumed that the process of migration may elucidate problems in Australia in respect to gaining suitable employment or indeed appropriate levels of remuneration or business success that may lead to them seeking better employment opportunities elsewhere in similar politically stable countries like the US or Canada.

3.4 Respondents with intentions to emigrate

A question was included in the survey on whether principle applicants at the time of the first, second and third waves had intentions to emigrate. Questions were also included to obtain information on the countries to which immigrants wished to emigrate and the reasons for seeking to leave Australia so soon after settlement. In matching the intentions of immigrants to leave Australia with those who had actually done so, it was found that only a small number of those who had emigrated by Wave 3 had indicated that they planned to do so in Wave 1. Overall, a very small proportion of principal applicants indicated any intentions to emigrate; however, it is useful to establish from the survey the most popular destination countries and the reasons likely to drive recent immigrants to emigrate from Australia.

It is interesting that those immigrants wishing to emigrate actually demonstrated a relatively high retention rate, at least one similar to the average of 28 per cent by Wave 3. Moreover, among those potential emigrants not interviewed by Wave 3 most were deemed to be temporarily overseas rather than to have permanently left Australia. Unfortunately, we do not know the overseas location for those immigrants who were temporarily or permanently out of Australia, and therefore cannot establish if many of those overseas on a temporary basis finally do migrate to countries in which they spend time out of Australia. It is interesting that only 1.6 per cent of those stating a desire to emigrate in Wave 1 had moved permanently overseas by Wave 2. Moreover, of those interviewed in Wave 2 who indicated a desire to emigrate, some 6.6 per cent of them were deemed to be permanently overseas and 11.7 per cent temporarily overseas by Wave 3.

3.4.1 The characteristics of immigrants wishing to emigrate from Australia

In examining the characteristics of immigrants most likely to express a wish to emigrate, we find that the age and sex structure of respondents changes over the three waves of the survey. Table 3.16 shows that males predominated in Wave 1, there was a more even balance between males and females in Wave 2 and that females outnumbered males by Wave 3. The overall numbers also increased over the survey period despite the fact that there would have been some attrition due to emigration between Waves 1 and 3. However, the very small sample numbers involved effectively limit the utility of data in establishing the more detailed characteristics of potential emigrants.



Table 3.16 Male and female immigrants expressing a wish to emigrate from Australia, LSIA

	Wave 1	Wave 2	Wave 3
Males	61.1	55.2	40.4
Females	38.9	44.8	59.6
Total (weighted sample)	100.0	100.0	100.0
	(355)	(423)	(432)

Source: DIMA LSIA Waves 1–3

Table 3.17 Immigrants expressing a wish to emigrate from Australia by age, LSIA

Age at first interview	Wave 1	Wave 2	Wave 3
15–24	4.2	7.3	31.3
25–34	57.1	69.5	53.0
35–44	16.5	23.2	10.4
45+	22.2	–	5.3

Source: DIMA LSIA Waves 1–3

The change to a dominance of females wishing to emigrate by Wave 3 was accompanied by a noticeable shift in age structure as shown in Table 3.17. However, respondents with intentions to emigrate remained predominantly young adults aged 25 to 34 years; indeed, they represented 57 per cent of potential emigrants in Wave 1, increasing to 69.5 per cent in Wave 2 and dropping back to 53 per cent by Wave 3. Young immigrants aged 15–24 years at the time of first interview increasingly expressed a desire to emigrate and by Wave 3 formed 31 per cent of potential emigrants. This is no doubt a function of the ageing of the initial cohort of principal applicants and the increasing number of females stating a wish to emigrate by Wave 3.

It can be suggested that many of the males intending to emigrate in the early waves of the survey had actually done so and their spouses or other family members were yet to accompany them. However, the small sample numbers make it very difficult to draw any conclusions about linkages between desires to emigrate and age–sex-specific differences.

In examining the visa category of those respondents expressing a wish to emigrate, in Wave 1 the majority entered Australia under the ‘economic’ category (Independent Points Assessment Scheme and ‘skill-business’) (54.2 per cent) with a further 32.4 per cent under family provisions. Table 3.18 shows that between Waves 2 and 3 there is a substantial reduction in the representation of immigrants who had entered under economic categories wishing to emigrate. This was balanced by a significant increase in the representation of immigrants in the ‘family’ category, rising from 32.4 per cent to 72.4 per cent between Waves 1 and 3 of the survey. Moreover, this trend provides some understanding of the shift in age and sex structure alluded to above. It appears that those who do manage to emigrate are likely to be males who are able to gain entry to another country due to their desirable economic or educational attributes. After

There was a change to a dominance of females wishing to emigrate by Wave 3.

Respondents with intentions to emigrate remained predominantly young adults aged 25 to 34 years.

In Wave 1 the majority of those respondents expressing a wish to emigrate, entered Australia under the ‘economic’ category. Between Waves 2 and 3 there is a substantial reduction in the representation of immigrants who had entered under economic categories. This was balanced by a significant increase in the representation of immigrants in the ‘family’ category.



Those who emigrate are likely to be males who are able to gain entry to another country due to their desirable economic or educational attributes. After initial settlement in a new country, it appears that spouses and other family members follow.

Forty per cent of persons stating a desire to emigrate in Wave 1 came from the North-east Asia region. Some 80 per cent of those from this region gave North America as the desired destination country.

For persons born in the UK and Ireland who intended to emigrate, 46.4 per cent had nominated New Zealand as a preferred destination.

By Wave 3 immigrants from South-east Asia were much more likely to state an intention to emigrate with those from North-east Asia less likely to do so.

Table 3.18 Immigrants expressing a wish to emigrate from Australia by visa category, LSIA

Visa category	Wave 1	Wave 2	Wave 3
Family*	32.4	47.5	72.4
Economic	54.2	40.7	24.4
Humanitarian	13.4	11.8	3.2

*Family includes: the categories spouse, family, prospective marriage and concessional family.
Source: DIMA LSIA Waves 1–3

Table 3.19 Region of birth of respondents expressing a wish to emigrate from Australia, LSIA

Birthplace region	Wave 1	Wave 2	Wave 3
UK/Ireland	20.7	1.4	1.4
Europe and USSR	8.2	17.7	17.3
Middle East	1.9	12.6	5.4
South-east Asia	8.5	9.4	37.7
North-east Asia	48.5	41.7	25.2
South Asia	4.7	9.8	6.6
Other	7.6	7.3	6.5

Source: DIMA LSIA Waves 1, 2 and 3

initial settlement in a new country, it appears that spouses and other family members follow them under family reunion provisions, similar to those under which they initially came to Australia.

The birthplace characteristics of persons stating a desire to emigrate in Wave 1 are interesting in that 40 per cent of them came from the North-east Asia region (Table 3.19). Of particular note, some 80 per cent of those from this region gave North America as the desired destination country. More specifically, the bulk of immigrants wishing to emigrate who were from the North-east Asia region had given China as their country of birth, most of them (86.2 per cent) indicating the US as a preferred destination. By contrast the smaller representation from Hong Kong overwhelmingly stated Canada as their favoured destination. For persons born in the UK and Ireland who intended to emigrate, 46.4 per cent of them had nominated New Zealand as a preferred destination and some 40 per cent North America. There was also a similar pattern of response in Wave 2 with most desiring to leave the North-east Asian region, the majority of which (60.2 per cent) stating North America with one-fifth also stating their home region. By Wave 3 immigrants from South-east Asia were much more likely to state an intention to emigrate (37.7 per cent) with those from North-east Asia less likely to do so, making up only 25 per cent of those expressing a wish to emigrate. It can be assumed that most immigrants from North-east Asia stating a desire to leave had already emigrated or were overseas temporarily by Wave 3 and were not available for interview.



Table 3.20 Regions nominated as preferred destinations for emigration from Australia, LSIA

Region intending to emigrate	Wave 1	Wave 2	Wave 3
New Zealand	11.5	1.4	3.2
UK/Ireland	–	7.1	10.4
Europe and USSR	6.3	10.8	1.4
Middle East	0.6	3.3	2.3
South-east Asia	3.0	–	12.8
North-east Asia	–	9.4	7.7
South Asia	–	–	–
North America	68.4	53.6	56.6
Other	1.3	7.0	5.6
Not stated/Don't know	8.8	7.4	–

Source: DIMA LSIA Waves 1–3

3.4.2 Preferred destination regions

Although the sample numbers are extremely small and the survey results must be viewed with caution, it is interesting to examine the preferred destinations nominated by respondents who expressed a desire to emigrate. Table 3.20 shows that of those respondents in Wave 1 who said that they wished to emigrate, 68.4 per cent stated North America, predominantly the US, which was also by far the most favoured destination for persons interviewed in Waves 2 and 3. New Zealand was the next highest preference given by respondents in Wave 1.

However, New Zealand as a preferred destination very rapidly lost popularity in Waves 2 and 3, and it can be assumed that persons nominating that region as a preference in Wave 1 had already made that move or, indeed, changed their mind. Respondents in Wave 2 who expressed a desire to emigrate were more likely to give UK/Ireland and Europe as a preferred destination. However, overall North America, predominantly the US, remained the favoured destination. Of particular note, one-third of those selecting North America in Wave 1, and favouring Canada as a desired destination, were not interviewed later, indicating that they may have had some success in emigrating.

3.4.3 Reasons for intending to emigrate

The survey included questions in each wave asking those immigrants who expressed a wish to emigrate their reasons for intending to do so. They were presented with a list of pre-coded responses and asked to indicate which factors were perceived to be the ones influencing their decision to migrate from Australia. The reasons given by respondents in Wave 1 for intending to emigrate were predominantly 'friends or family live there' (38.2 per cent) or 'better job opportunities' (17.9 per cent). In Wave 2, the reasons were much more evenly divided between 'friends and family' (32.8 per cent) and 'better job opportunities' (36.8 per cent). By Wave 3, respondents to this question gave a wide range of answers that were classified as 'other' (35.7 per cent) with 20 per cent stating 'better job opportunities' and some 21.7 per cent claiming that they would 'like to try another country'. It can be assumed that as time progressed and immigrants were more established that disadvantages associated with life in Australia

Of respondents in Wave 1 who said that they wished to emigrate, 68.4 per cent stated North America, predominantly the US, which was also by far the most favoured destination for persons interviewed in Waves 2 and 3.

New Zealand was the next highest preference given by respondents in Wave 1 but New Zealand very rapidly lost popularity in Waves 2 and 3.

Reasons given by respondents in Wave 1 for intending to emigrate were predominantly 'friends or family live there' or 'better job opportunities'. By Wave 3, respondents to this question gave a wide range of answers.



Although only a small percentage of principal applicants not available for interview by Wave 3 had gone overseas on a permanent basis, it is clear that they reflect the newly emerging trends in immigration whereby many migrants are part of the rapidly growing international labour market.

Immigrants departing Australia were predominantly young, highly educated and likely to be employed in professional and skilled jobs, and of European and North American origins.

The largest sample attrition was among those principal applicants who gained entry to Australia under the Independent Points Assessment scheme.

became more apparent and, therefore, desires to go elsewhere surfaced. Moreover, some of the respondents from Wave 1, who were anxious to join friends and relatives in another country, may have already achieved that aim and therefore are not included in Wave 3.

3.5 Conclusion

The analysis of data from the Longitudinal Survey of Immigrants to Australia, provided a useful insight into the characteristics and circumstances of those immigrants who had left the country so soon after settlement. Although only a small percentage of principal applicants not available for interview by Wave 3 had gone overseas on a permanent basis, it is clear that they reflect the newly emerging trends in immigration whereby many migrants are part of the rapidly growing international labour market. Immigrants departing Australia between Waves 1 and 3 of the survey were predominantly young, highly educated and likely to be employed in professional and skilled jobs, and of European and North American origins. They were predominantly principal applicants who gained entry to Australia through the Independent Points Assessment Scheme or 'business-skill' criteria and therefore had far fewer difficulties remigrating to other destination countries or returning to their home countries than appeared to be the case for those gaining entry under family or humanitarian provisions.

Of principal applicants not interviewed in Wave 3, one-third were overseas, either temporarily or permanently. The group of most interest here is the permanent overseas departures, which constituted a relatively small 14.3 per cent of immigrants not interviewed by Wave 3, or 4.1 per cent of the total principal applicants selected for the survey. The largest sample attrition was among those principal applicants who gained entry to Australia under the Independent Points Assessment scheme. Immigrants from Asia and the Middle East were not as likely to have emigrated as was the case for those from the UK and Ireland, Europe and North America. Immigrants from North-east Asia, most notably Hong Kong, were much more likely to be reported as being overseas temporarily than as permanent departures.

In focusing on the immigrants who had left to live overseas permanently, the selectivity of settler loss is clear. They were overwhelmingly concentrated in their 20s and 30s, when first arriving in Australia, with a slightly higher number of females departing so soon after settlement. It was interesting in comparing the characteristics of those who had left with those who stayed. It was found that female 'stayers' were much more likely to be married with a low percentage never married. This was in direct contrast to emigrant females who were much more likely to have been never married on arrival in Australia with only half of them married. Presumably this gave them more flexibility or independence in respect to decisions to emigrate to pursue opportunities elsewhere. There was not such a stark difference evident for male emigrants; however, there were proportionately fewer married than the 'stayers'. Of particular note, male and female emigrants were much more likely to be employed at the time of first interview than immigrants who stayed. They were also much more likely to be employed in professional and skilled occupations than 'stayers', and generally had higher educational qualifications. The 'stayers' on the other hand were much more likely to hold manual jobs as labourers or plant operators, although it should be noted that the surveyed immigrants generally had a higher occupational profile than the nation as a whole.

In examining reasons given by emigrants for coming to Australia, it appears that they

were more likely to migrate to Australia for its stable political climate and better opportunities for families rather than for predominantly economic reasons. They were also not as likely to give reasons such as employment or economic difficulties in their former home countries as a reason for migrating to Australia than others who stayed.

It was surprising that few immigrants responding to questions on their intentions to emigrate in the future actually gave an affirmative response. Of those who did, a very small percentage had actually done so by Waves 2 and 3 of the survey. This was unfortunate in that the small numbers made it difficult to draw any conclusions about future intentions of specific groups such as the skilled or those of particular origins to leave Australia. Nevertheless, most immigrants expressing a desire to emigrate had gained entry to Australia under economic criteria (Independent Points Assessment Scheme or the 'skill-business' category). Moreover, small numbers aside, almost half the immigrants stating a desire to emigrate in Wave 1 had come from the North-east Asia region, and one-fifth from the UK and Ireland. Of particular note, of those expressing a desire to emigrate the overwhelming majority favoured North America, specifically the US as a preferred destination country. It is disappointing that we are unable to obtain information on the destination countries of those settlers who had left to enable us to assess the implications of emigrant flows to specific countries, and to establish whether immigration to Australia is simply a stage in a much larger process of skilled migration in a rapidly expanding global labour market.



Emigrants were much more likely to be employed at the time of first interview than immigrants who stayed. They were more likely to be employed in professional and skilled occupations than 'stayers'.

Emigrants were more likely to migrate to Australia for its stable political climate and better opportunities for families rather than for predominantly economic reasons.