
Philip Martin
University of California–Davis

Martin Ruhs
Centre on Migration, Policy and Society (COMPAS) at Oxford University

Comprehensive U.S. immigration reform proposals have three major elements: improved border and workplace controls, dealing with the 11 million unauthorized foreigners in the U.S., and managing “future flows” of foreign workers requested by U.S. employers. Improved controls and dealing with unauthorized foreigners were discussed extensively in the U.S. Senate in 2006 and 2007. Future flows were not. This article reviews the decisions governments face when employers request migrant workers, Britain’s independent Migration Advisory Committee, and the promises and perils of a similar U.S. commission to manage labor migration. We conclude that a U.S. commission could help to clarify the trade-offs involved in migrant labor policy, but cannot replace the need for inherently political choices between competing policy objectives.

U.S. IMMIGRATION REFORM: MANAGING “FUTURE FLOWS”

Arizona in April 2010 enacted a law (SB1070) making it a crime for unauthorized foreigners to be in the state. President Barack Obama said

1Philip Martin is an economist at UC-Davis and author of Importing Poverty? Immigration and the Changing Face of Rural America, Yale University Press, 2009; plmartin@ucdavis.edu.

2Martin Ruhs is an economist at the Centre on Migration, Policy and Society (COMPAS) at Oxford University and a member of the UK’s Migration Advisory Committee (MAC); this article does not necessarily reflect the views of the MAC. Ruhs is the co-editor (with Bridget Anderson) of Who Needs Migrant Workers? Labor Shortages, Immigration and Public Policy, Oxford University Press, 2010; martin.ruhs@compas.ox.ac.uk.

© 2011 by the Center for Migration Studies of New York. All rights reserved.
DOI: 10.1111/j.1747-7379.2010.00843.x
SB1070 was “a misdirected expression of frustration over our broken immigration system,” but added “I don’t have 60 votes in the Senate” to enact comprehensive immigration reform.\(^3\) In late July 2010, a federal judge blocked the implementation of Arizona’s law just before it was to take effect because of a “a substantial likelihood that [Arizona law enforcement] officers will wrongfully arrest legal resident aliens” if SB 1070 is implemented, imposing “a ‘distinct, unusual and extraordinary’ burden on legal resident aliens that only the federal government has the authority to impose.”\(^4\)

The controversy over the Arizona law renewed the U.S. debate over immigration. There is agreement that comprehensive immigration reform must deal with three elements: border and workplace controls, the 11 million unauthorized foreigners in the U.S., and the “future flow” of foreign workers requested by employers. The first two elements were debated extensively in the Senate in 2006 and 2007, but there was much less discussion of how to respond to employers seeking temporary migrant or guest workers.\(^5\) One reason the Senate failed to approve the Comprehensive Immigration Reform Act (CIRA) in 2007 is because some Republicans thought that CIRA did not make it sufficiently easy for U.S. employers to hire foreign workers, while some Democrats feared that CIRA made it too easy for employers to get access to foreign labor.

Opening the U.S. labor market to more guest workers is one of the toughest migration issues facing Congress. The most challenging questions include how many foreign workers should be admitted and what criteria employers should have to satisfy before they receive permission to hire migrant workers. The U.S. government currently uses an easy attestation

\(^5\)Ray Marshall, Secretary of Labor under President Carter, in April 2009 proposed a Foreign Worker Adjustment Commission to determine whether there are labor shortages that need to be filled with guest workers or immigrants (Marshall, 2009). Marshall’s plan for comprehensive immigration reform was endorsed by the two major U.S. federations of unions, the AFL-CIO and Change to Win. Papademetriou et al. (2009) proposed renewable 3-year provisional visas for foreign workers that would tie them to employer who sponsored them for their first year in the U.S., after which they could change U.S. employers. MPI proposed that Congress determine the number of provisional visas and the criteria for renewal and adjustment to immigrant status.
procedure for employers seeking college-educated foreigners to fill jobs
that require a college degree under the H-1B program, which is one rea-
son the regular 65,000 H-1B visas are often requested as soon as they
become available. The certification procedure for employers seeking low-
skilled foreigners to fill seasonal farm jobs includes more steps to protect
U.S. workers, one reason why the number of H-2A visas is not capped.

Opinion polls suggest that most Americans, and majorities in other
industrial democracies, want immigration reduced, including guest worker
admissions (Transatlantic Trends, 2009). The Labor government elected
in Britain in 1997 greatly increased the admission of migrant workers,
but reformed its migrant worker system a decade later as public opinion
turned against the rapid growth in immigration. A key mechanism intro-
duced by the British reform was an independent Migration Advisory
Committee (MAC) charged with determining if labor shortages exist in
occupations for which employers request migrants and whether admitting
migrants is a sensible response.

Senate Democrats in April 2010 released an outline for comprehen-
sive immigration reform, Real Enforcement with Practical Answers for
Immigration Reform (REPAIR), that includes a new U.S. commission to
assess the need for migrant workers. The Commission on Employment-
Based Immigration would study “America’s employment-based immigra-
tion system to recommend policies that promote economic growth and
competitiveness while minimizing job displacement, wage depression, and
unauthorized employment.” REPAIR does not include a new guest
worker program, prompting Senator John McCain (R-AZ), once a leading
supporter of comprehensive immigration reform to assert: “We don’t
need a commission. I can’t support any proposal that doesn’t have a
[new] temporary worker program.”

This article examines the key challenges facing governments when
employers request migrant workers. We review the British experience with
the MAC since 2008 and assess the promises and perils of a similar

Additional 20,000 H-1B visas are available for foreigners who earned advanced degrees in
the U.S., and an unlimited number are available to universities and nonprofits seeking col-
lege-educated foreigners to fill U.S. jobs that normally require a college degree.

For example, a May 2010 WSJ/NBC poll found that two-thirds of U.S. adults supported
SB 1070, even though almost two-thirds agreed that it would lead to discrimination
against legal Hispanic immigrants.

The REPAIR proposal is available at: <http://www.media.washingtonpost.com/wp-srv/
politics/.../REPAIRProposal.pdf>.
commission in the U.S. We conclude that a commission could provide help to Congress to enact comprehensive immigration reform, but cannot and should not replace Congressional decisions that weigh the trade-offs involved in decisions to admit migrant workers.

**EMPLOYER-LED MIGRATION POLICY**

Governments face several key decisions when designing guest worker programs. These include how many migrants to admit, how to select migrants, what rights and privileges to grant them after admission, and whether to allow migrants to change employers and become permanent residents or require them to return home after a period of employment.

One answer to questions about how many and what type of temporary migrant workers should be admitted is to take a “trust-the-employer” approach. Such an employer-led policy usually allows employers to hire migrants after meeting two basic requirements – offering a bona fide job and testing the labor market to ensure that “local workers”9 are not available to fill it.

Labor market tests usually involve a government agency certifying that an employer tried and failed to find local workers. The agency typically monitors employer recruitment efforts by requiring that job vacancies be posted on local employment exchanges and checking on the outcomes of employer interviews with local workers who respond. Failed recruitment efforts are “rewarded” with a certification that the employer can fill the job with the desired guest worker, who is generally identified before the employer began the fruitless search for local workers.

Certification becomes contentious when local workers respond to employer recruitment efforts but are not hired. If rejected local workers complain that the employer unlawfully preferred migrants, government agencies are not well equipped to determine whether the local worker or the migrant is better qualified to fill a particular job. For example, recruiter Global Horizons was found by the U.S. Department of Labor to have rejected qualified U.S. workers to fill apple picking jobs because Global preferred Thai guest workers. Mordechai Orian, the president of Global Horizons, testified during a July 2007 trial that Thais were preferred because “they work really hard” and were less likely to abscond or leave their employers than local workers, who might change jobs to earn higher wages.

9In the U.S., “local workers” are U.S. citizens and other legally authorized workers.
The Thais had each paid $10,000–$17,000 to obtain U.S. work visas and were loyal to Global because getting fired meant being removed from the U.S.\footnote{See H-2A, H-2B, Global. 2007. Rural Migration News. Vol. 13. No. 4. October. <http://www.migration.ucdavis.edu/rmn/comments.php?id=1249_0_4_0>, Global was charged with human trafficking in September 2010 even though all of Global’s workers were admitted legally with H-2A visas.}

The alternative to certification is \textit{attestation}, a procedure that allows employers to attest or assert that they offered at least the prevailing occupational wage and, in some cases, have sought and failed to find local workers. U.S. attestation policies do not involve labor market tests. Instead, employers can recruit foreign workers simply by asserting that they are offering prevailing wages, and government agencies wait for complaints made by foreign or local workers to trigger inspections. Attestation makes it relatively easy for employers to obtain foreign workers but, to provide some protections for local workers, there is often a cap on the number of work visas available.

The U.S. H-1B program is an example of an attestation program. H-1B visas are available to foreign workers with at least a BA degree who are requested by U.S. employers to fill jobs that normally require such degrees. When the H-1B program was created in 1990, a compromise gave employers easy access to foreign university graduates in exchange for an annual cap of 65,000 visas a year, almost three times annual admissions at the time. A combination of the IT-boom in the 1990s and the development of a migration infrastructure to move Indian and other guest workers into U.S. jobs pushed employer requests above 65,000 a year in the late 1990s, and prompted successful employer efforts to raise the cap and create exemptions from it.\footnote{The American Competitiveness and Work Force Improvement Act of 1998 raised the cap on H-1B visas from 65,000 a year to 115,000 in 1999 and 2000 and 107,500 in 2001, imposed a $500 per H-1B visa training fee on employers to generate funds to train U.S. workers to fill the rising number IT jobs, and required H-1B-dependent employers and willful violators of H-1B regulations to attempt to recruit U.S. workers and not lay off U.S. workers to hire H-1B foreigners.} Today, the cap is 65,000 a year, plus 20,000 H-1B visas for foreigners with advanced degrees from U.S. universities and an unlimited number for those employed in nonprofit institutions such as universities.\footnote{Congress again raised the cap on H-1B visas to 195,000 a year for FY01, FY02, and FY03 in the American Competitiveness in the Twenty-First Century Act of 2000. (The cap reverted to 65,000 a year in FY04.) The employer-paid training fee was raised to $1,000 per H-1B visa, and H-1B visas issued to foreigners employed by U.S. universities and research institutions were exempted from the cap.}
Under the H1-B program, employer attestations are submitted via the internet, and over 99 percent are approved in seconds. Enforcement normally awaits complaints about employer violations, and complaints are rare because foreigners whose legal stay in the U.S. depends on satisfying their employer rarely complain. Most U.S. employers may lawfully hire H-1B visa holders even if U.S. workers are available, and some do (Hira, 2009).

Until 2008, Britain had a similar trust-the-employer approach to the admission of skilled non-European Union (EU) workers. British employers had to submit job offers and undergo a labor market test to hire migrants, but there was no cap on how many could be admitted. The labor market test was to advertise the job for 2 weeks (1 week if the salary exceeded £40,000) and, if local workers were unavailable, the employer received permission to hire the migrant worker. Amidst rapid economic growth, there was little oversight of employer recruitment efforts, and the number of work permits tripled from <30,000 in 1995 to almost 90,000 in 2007 (MAC, 2008a).

The rising number of work permits for non-EU migrants, plus workers from Eastern Europe who arrived after EU enlargement in May 2004, contributed to a rapid rise in overall immigration, from 330,000 a year in the early 1990s to 574,000 in 2007; net migration rose from 44,000 to 233,000 during this period (MAC, 2009a). Rising migration triggered a heated debate about the impact of migration on UK population growth even before the onset of the global economic downturn. If net migration remained at 2008 levels, Britain’s population was projected to increase from the current 61 million to over 70 million by 2029 (Office for National Statistics 2009).

SPECIAL OR NATIONAL INTERESTS

Employer-led migrant worker policies often become special interest policies that give significant influence to recruitment agencies and the “migration industry.” Employers, migrants, and intermediaries clearly benefit from increased migration, but the admission of more migrant workers may not always be in best interest of the economy and society as a whole. To make immigration policy sustainable, labor immigration policies need to be based on the national interest, a term that is often hard to define.

---

13 In the UK, “local worker” means workers from within the European Economic Area (EEA), the 27 member states of the EU plus Iceland, Liechtenstein, and Norway.
but involves balancing the interests of all affected parties, including those of local workers. The national interest must also consider the wider benefits and costs of immigration, including the positive productivity spillover effects of highly skilled migrants and any negative economic or congestion effects of migrants concentrated in particular occupations and areas.

This means that what is good for IT and financial firms such as Microsoft and Goldman Sachs may not be in the national interest. The existence of unfilled job vacancies does not, by itself, indicate that there are labor or skills shortages that would justify the admission of migrant workers. There are several reasons, including the fact that there is no universally accepted definition of a labor or skills shortage. Employers may claim that there is a shortage if they cannot find local workers at prevailing wages and employment conditions, and most media reports of shortages are based on surveys that ask employers to report hard-to-fill jobs at current wages and employment conditions.

In competitive labor markets, changes in wages can be expected to bring labor supply and demand into balance. Most labor shortages should be temporary, eliminated by rising wages that increase the supply and reduce the demand for labor. However, labor market adjustments can be slow, so government responses to unfilled vacancies often depend on the reasons for labor shortages, such as whether they are due to a sudden increase in the number of jobs or high turnover among workers who move up in an expanding labor market.

The fundamental point remains: complaints of labor shortages cannot be separated from wages and other labor market indicators. Industries and occupations reporting labor shortages should have rising relative real wages, faster-than-average employment growth, and relatively low and declining unemployment rates.

It is hard to find evidence of national labor shortages using such top-down measures. For example, Veneri (1999) looked for labor shortages in 68 occupations in the late 1990s, when U.S. unemployment rates were low. Labor-short occupations were defined as those with employment growth at least 50 percent higher than the average for all occupations; median weekly earnings rising at least 30 percent faster than the average for all occupations; and an occupational unemployment rate at least 30 percent lower than the average for all occupations. Veneri found shortages in only 7 of the 68 occupations, and did not find shortages in information technology, among construction workers and for registered nurses, occupations that U.S. employers claimed had significant shortages.
One limitation of top-down national wage and employment indicators is that they cannot deal with employer claims of shortages in specific areas. Bottom-up evidence from employers, workers, and other stakeholders is a major feature of the British MAC’s approach to dealing with labor shortage complaints. For example, the MAC in 2008 relied on bottom-up evidence to find a shortage of “project managers for property development and construction,” even though top-down data did not suggest a national shortage in the broader occupation “managers in construction” (SOC 1122). Similarly, there was no top-down evidence of a shortage of “secondary education teaching professionals” (SOC 2314), but bottom-up evidence found a shortage of secondary education math and science teachers (MAC, 2008a).

If there are labor shortages, is immigration a “sensible” response? Answering this question requires an assessment of the feasibility and desirability of alternatives to migrants. Employers can respond to perceived shortages by increasing wages to attract local workers who are not in the labor force, who are unemployed, or who are employed in other sectors. Second, if local workers lack necessary skills to fill vacant jobs, employers could invest in training or change production processes to use less-skilled labor. Third, employers could remedy some labor shortages by changing to less labor-intensive production processes. Finally, some labor shortages could be dealt with by shrinking production at home and increasing imports, as with labor-intensive agriculture.

These alternatives may not be available to all employers at all times. For example, most construction, health, social care, and hospitality work cannot be easily replaced by imports. In practice, employers weighing the recruitment of migrants versus other alternatives look at relative costs. Although migrants are often a cost-attractive option for employers, they may not be a “sensible” choice for the overall economy. For example, in some low-wage occupations, admitting more migrant workers may entrench low-cost production systems in high-wage economies, reducing their competitiveness over time.

Reliance on ever more migrants in response to claims of labor shortages can lead to path dependence that makes it hard to change migration policy (Ruhs and Anderson, 2010). Employers who assume that low-skilled migrants will continue to be available may make investments that will be unprofitable if the inflow is reduced, as when meatpacking plants are opened in places with many animals but few workers, or when farmers plant apple and cherry trees in remote areas. The lower labor costs due to
the availability of migrants can be capitalized into asset values, distorting
investment decisions in the sense that the wages acceptable to migrants,
not trends in local workers’ wages and benefit costs, justify investment
decisions. Once low migrant wages are capitalized into asset values, own-
ers have an incentive to keep border gates open to migrant workers to
preserve asset values, which helps to explain the keen interest of U.S.
farmers in migration policies.

How can governments assess the feasibility and desirability of alter-
natives to migrants? Defining, measuring and identifying labor needs and
the alternatives to migrants are complex. Australia, Canada, and Spain
have special government units or independent advisory bodies to analyze
labor shortage complaints. The UK went further, establishing the MAC
to advise the government if there are skilled labor shortages that can be
“sensibly” remedied by migrant workers from outside the European
Economic Area (EEA). The MAC was created to develop objective analy-
ses of labor shortages and appropriate policy responses, the same goal
envisaged for the U.S. commission proposed by Senate Democrats. In
3 years, the MAC has changed the quality of the debate over labor and
skills shortages in Britain, but its experience also highlights the inherent
limitations of independent commissions in making migrant worker policy.

BRITAIN’S MAC

In 2008, Britain reformed its immigration policy for admitting migrant
workers from outside the EEA, moving from a system that offered more
than 80 routes of entry to a streamlined point-based system with five tiers
or entry channels. Tier 1 is for highly skilled workers without a British
job offer, and is available for those with characteristics that suggest they
will be successful in the UK labor market because of their education, high
previous earnings, and British work experience.

Tier 2 admits skilled workers with a job offer in the UK in three
major subchannels. One admits migrants to fill jobs on a shortage occupa-
tion list, eliminating the need for the employer to test the labor market.
Another permits the entry of migrants after employers have tested the
labor market and failed to find local workers, but foreigners arriving via
this subchannel must achieve sufficient points based on education and the
UK wage offered to enter. The third subchannel is for intracompany
transfers. Tier 3 is for low-skilled migrant workers and is currently
closed. Tier 4 governs foreign students, and Tier 5 includes other
temporary migrants who are not primarily seeking jobs, such as working holidaymakers.

There were two key rationales for reforming the UK’s immigration system: the government wanted to make the system simpler and more transparent and to move from an employer-led migration model to a migration policy that maximized the benefits of migration for the entire British economy. Although employers still play an important role in the reformed system, the five-tier system introduced new selection criteria and gave the MAC an important role in dealing with labor shortage complaints.

The MAC’s initial charge was to “provide independent, evidence-based advice to government on specific sectors and occupations in the labor market where shortages exist which can sensibly be filled by migration.” The government has since expanded the work of the MAC, asking it to determine which jobs should be on the Tier 2 shortage occupation list (MAC 2008a, 2009b, 2010a), to recalculate the points for Tier 1 highly skilled migrants, to redesign the rules for Tier 2 entries, to assess the economic impacts of dependents (MAC, 2009a), and whether to abolish the Worker Registration Scheme for A8 migrants (from the eight East European countries that joined the EU in 2004; MAC, 2009c) and give A2 migrants (from Bulgaria and Romania who joined the EU in 2007) free access to the British labor market (MAC, 2008b). In summer 2010, the MAC was asked to recommend how many work visas should be made available for non-EU skilled workers (MAC, 2010b).

The MAC is usually given 3–6 months to respond to the government’s migration questions with a public report that includes recommendations. The fact that the MAC’s advice is public makes it harder for the government to reject MAC recommendations without good reason or further evidence. Most, but not all, of the MAC’s recommendations have been adopted by the British government.

The MAC has had three major impacts on British debates about labor shortages and immigration policy. First, the MAC has earned a reputation for transparent analysis of the data and evidence relied upon to reach its recommendations, helping to win them wide acceptance. There are many stakeholders who disagree with some of the MAC’s recommendations, but the MAC’s use of both top-down indicators and bottom-up evidence, such as submissions from employers, unions, government departments, has bolstered its reputation and provided flexibility. Bottom-up evidence allows employers and other stakeholders to have a voice in MAC analysis.
Second, even if the MAC finds that there is a labor shortage, it can decide not to recommend the admission of migrant workers. Requiring the MAC to weigh top-down and bottom-up evidence of labor needs before deciding whether admitting migrant workers is a sensible solution helps to make clear that the mere existence of a labor shortage does not automatically open the door to migrant workers.

Even when the MAC recommends the inclusion of a particular occupation on the shortage list, it can point out that migration may not be a sensible long-run response to shortages. For example, two-thirds of the care assistants in London are migrants. The MAC’s analysis found that shortages of care givers were often due to low wages. Most social care is publicly funded by local governments but provided by the employees of private businesses and voluntary organisations, and constraints on local authorities’ budgets keep wages low. As a result, care operators tend to hire flexible migrants willing to accept prevailing wages. Simply training more British workers is unlikely to provide more British care workers because local workers with required training can earn more elsewhere.14

Third, the MAC highlighted the link between training and immigration to foster more cooperation between government departments. In late 2008, then-Prime Minister Gordon Brown announced that if an occupation was put the labor shortage list, making it easier for British employers to recruit non-EU workers to fill vacant jobs, the government would review whether and how more training of British workers could reduce the need for migrants, highlighting the links between shortages, migration, and training.

A key limitation of the MAC is that it can deal only with questions submitted to it by the government; it cannot independently conduct analyses and make recommendations other issues. For example, British governments and stakeholders have discussed caps on non-EU migration for the past several years, but the MAC dealt with the question of caps only after being asked to do so by the Conservative–Liberal Democrat government elected in May 2010. The MAC’s analysis emphasized that only 20 percent of non-EU migration in recent years is employment related, so

14 The MAC’s analysis concluded that care “budgets need to be larger, or at least better targeted toward those parts of the sector suffering from labor shortage, so that those workers can be paid more.” It recommended that only the highest skilled care workers be added to the shortage occupation list to avoid “institutionalizing low pay in the care sector.” (MAC, 2009b:96).
that the government can achieve its goal of reducing net migration to “tens of thousands” only by reducing non-EU student and family migration.\textsuperscript{15}

The MAC has helped to define and refine controversial migration policy issues and the options to deal with them. Until recently, the MAC dealt only with the economic aspects of migration. The then-Labor Government in 2008 established a separate Migration Impacts Forum (MIF) to examine the social effects of migration, but it received little support, prompting criticism that the government was considering only economic issues in making migration policy. The current Conservative–Liberal Democrat government asked the MAC to consider economic as well as social impacts of migration when making recommendations to the government.

\textit{CONCLUSION: PROMISES AND LIMITATIONS OF AN INDEPENDENT U.S. COMMISSION}

Regulating the entry and right to work of migrants is a key function of governments. However, it is often hard for government agencies to assess and respond to employer requests for foreign workers to fill alleged labor and skills shortages because of the complexity of measuring shortages and evaluating alternative options to deal with them. The cost of bad policy decisions can be very high, leaving local workers without jobs and delaying productivity-increasing changes that keep economies competitive. On the other hand, restricting access to foreign workers could adversely affect particular employers and may slow economic growth.

Managing future flows of migrant workers is one of the three key elements of U.S. immigration reform proposals. The bills considered by the Senate in 2006 and 2007 would have followed current policy by stipulating the number of work visas in law and setting out the procedures to be followed by employers seeking migrant workers. However, the April

\textsuperscript{15}Net migration was 196,000 in 2009, when 55,000 non-EU foreign workers and 163,000 non-EU foreign students arrived for planned stays of more than a year in the UK. The MAC recommended reducing work-related non-EU migration by 20 percent, which means that family unification and student migration must be reduced by 80 percent if the government is to achieve its goal of reducing net migration to <100,000 by 2015 (MAC, 2010b).
2010 Senate Democrats’ proposal copies the UK approach by calling for a MAC-like independent commission to make recommendations on when and how many migrants to admit.

The experience of the British MAC suggests that a U.S. commission could make several key contributions. First, it could help to de-politicize the debate on labor needs by allowing data and evidence to replace assertions about the need for migrant workers. Careful consideration and analysis of both top-down labor market indicators and bottom-up evidence from employers, unions, and other stakeholders can raise the quality of the debate over the need for foreign workers. Second, an independent commission can help to clarify the various measures of shortages and outline sensible responses when shortages are found. Third, a commission can make the trade-offs that underlie competing policy objectives clearer, such as that between protecting local workers and giving employers easy access to foreign workers.

It is equally important to be clear about the limitations of a commission. Immigration policy ultimately requires a balancing of competing interests. The MAC has shown that there is no single answer as to whether migrants are needed to fill vacant jobs. Deciding whether the optimal response should be additional migrants, higher wages, or some other option is an inherently political decision. An independent commission can make the trade-offs between policy options and their consequences clearer, which is a very important contribution. However, it cannot and should not replace an explicit political debate about competing policy objectives and trade-offs. An independent commission can provide the data and evidence to improve migration decision making, but it cannot resolve political decisions about whose interest should have higher priority.

REFERENCES


2009a Analysis of Tier 1, Tier 2 and Dependants under the Points-based System. Migration Advisory Committee.

2009b First Review of Recommended Shortage Occupation Lists for the UK and Scotland. Migration Advisory Committee.


2010a Third Review of Recommended Shortage Occupation Lists for the UK and Scotland. Migration Advisory Committee.

2010b Limits on Migration. Migration Advisory Committee, November.


Dear Author,

During the copy-editing of your paper, the following queries arose. Please respond to these by marking up your proofs with the necessary changes/additions. Please write your answers on the query sheet if there is insufficient space on the page proofs. Please write clearly and follow the conventions shown on the attached corrections sheet. If returning the proof by fax do not write too close to the paper’s edge. Please remember that illegible mark-ups may delay publication.

Many thanks for your assistance.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Query reference</th>
<th>Query</th>
<th>Remarks</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>AUTHOR: A running head short title was not supplied; please check if this one is suitable and, if not, please supply a short title of up to 40 characters that can be used instead.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>AUTHOR: Please check and confirm the article title.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>AUTHOR: Please check authors’ affiliations.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>AUTHOR: Please provide the page range for reference Hira (2009) if applicable.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>AUTHOR: Please provide the date of last accessing for all websites in the reference list if applicable.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>AUTHOR: Please provide the city location of publisher for reference Migration Advisory Committee (MAC) (2009a).</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>AUTHOR: Please provide the city location of publisher for reference Migration Advisory Committee (MAC) (2009b).</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
<td>----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>AUTHOR: Please provide the city location of publisher for reference Migration Advisory Committee (MAC) (2009c).</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>AUTHOR: Please provide the city location of publisher for reference Migration Advisory Committee (MAC) (2010a).</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>AUTHOR: Please provide the city location of publisher for reference Migration Advisory Committee (MAC) (2010b).</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>AUTHOR: Please provide the city location of publisher for reference Office for National Statistics (2009).</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>AUTHOR: Please provide the document title, city location of publisher, page range for reference Ruhs, and Anderson (2010).</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>AUTHOR: Please check all website addresses and confirm that they are correct. (Please note that it is the responsibility of the author(s) to ensure that all URLs given in this article are correct and useable.)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>AUTHOR: Please check and approve the correction made in the sentence “Additional...degree.”</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
USING E-ANNOTATION TOOLS FOR ELECTRONIC PROOF CORRECTION

Required Software
Adobe Acrobat Professional or Acrobat Reader (version 7.0 or above) is required to e-annotate PDFs. Acrobat 8 Reader is a free download: [http://www.adobe.com/products/acrobat/readstep2.html](http://www.adobe.com/products/acrobat/readstep2.html)

Once you have Acrobat Reader 8 on your PC and open the proof, you will see the Commenting Toolbar (if it does not appear automatically go to Tools>Commenting>Commenting Toolbar). The Commenting Toolbar looks like this:

If you experience problems annotating files in Adobe Acrobat Reader 9 then you may need to change a preference setting in order to edit.
In the “Documents” category under “Edit – Preferences”, please select the category ‘Documents’ and change the setting “PDF/A mode:” to “Never”.

Note Tool — For making notes at specific points in the text
Marks a point on the paper where a note or question needs to be addressed.

Replacement text tool — For deleting one word/section of text and replacing it
Strikes red line through text and opens up a replacement text box.

Cross out text tool — For deleting text when there is nothing to replace selection
Strikes through text in a red line.
Approved tool — For approving a proof and that no corrections at all are required.

![Approved Rubber Stamp](image)

How to use it:
1. Click on the Stamp Tool in the toolbar
2. Select the Approved rubber stamp from the ‘standard business’ selection
3. Click on the text where you want to rubber stamp to appear (usually first page)

Highlight tool — For highlighting selection that should be changed to bold or italic.

![Highlighting Tool](image)

How to use it:
1. Select Highlighter Tool from the commenting toolbar
2. Highlight the desired text
3. Add a note detailing the required change

Attach File Tool — For inserting large amounts of text or replacement figures as a file.

![Attach File Tool](image)

How to use it:
1. Click on paperclip icon in the commenting toolbar
2. Click where you want to insert the attachment
3. Select the saved file from your PC/network
4. Select appearance of icon (paperclip, graph, attachment or tag) and close

Pencil tool — For circling parts of figures or making freeform marks

![Pencil Tool](image)

How to use it:
1. Select Tools > Drawing Markups > Pencil Tool
2. Draw with the cursor
3. Multiple pieces of pencil annotation can be grouped together
4. Once finished, move the cursor over the shape until an arrowhead appears and right click
5. Select Open Pop-Up Note and type in a details of required change
6. Click the X in the top right hand corner of the note box to close.
Help
For further information on how to annotate proofs click on the Help button to activate a list of instructions: