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Tmmigration law in New Zealand and the USA: A Comparison of Recent Changes In New Zealand's Immigration Law with Those Made in the *USA*

by

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New Zealand's immigration policies and Immigration Act (1987): some comparisons with the United States of America and the Immigration Reform and Control Act (1986)

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IMMIGRATION ACT 1987

By focussing on a discussion of the New Zealand Immigration Act of 1987, this paper intends to suggest that despite obvious disparities in size and location, New Zealand and the United States of America have much in common in terms of immigrant experience. Differences in the respective political, economic, social and cultural heritages may explain variations on the theme, but the theme, is common to both nations; the creation of one people - e pluribus unum,or,katahi tatou.

As with the United States the colonial period in New Zealand was one of a rapid inflow from distant lands and an overwhelming of the population present at the time of European discovery. The Maori population of New Zealand at the time of Captain Cook's first voyage in 1769 has been estimated at between 150,000 and 200,OO0 (Bedford,l986). In 1840, when by the Treaty of Waitangi, New Zealand became a British colony, that figure was still in excess of 100,000 compared to some 1500 European settlers. Acknowledging an undercount of the Maori in the first national census of 1858, 56,045 out of a total population of 115,462, there is no denying that a pattern of a predominant non Polynesian population had been established (Poo1,1977) (Table 1).

The steady growth of migrants from Britain throughout the nineteenth century, with very small contributions from France, Scandinavia and Yugoslavia, reflected the same basic economic, religious and social motivations as did trans Atlantic movements

to the United States. In similar fashion, rom time to time, unusual circumstances created surges in the flow. The first of these was the discovery of gold in the South Island of New Zealand, and the subsequent gold rush. This episode, following the arrival of Chinese prospectors from Australia, introduced the debate over Oriental migration to New Zealand (Price, 1974). In contrast to the United States, the New Zealand government took the initiative in recruitment and operated a subsidized immigration scheme which resulted in an accelerated movement from Britain in the 1870s. World War 2 produced an increase in migrants who might well be classified as refugees. These included Jewish people fleeing from Nazi Germany in the 1930s and Chinese and Dutch from the Japanese advances in South East Asia. In a drive for new migrants following the end of the war, and failing to secure sufficient applicants from Britain, the New Zealand government established an agreement with the Netherlands that introduced a significant Dutch element into New Zealand. There was a dramatic upsurge in immigration, both from Britain and the Islands of the South Pacific in the early 1970s. Meanwhile, refugees continued to enter New Zealand displaced by such disparate events as nationalist movements throughout the British Empire, oppressive dictatorships as in Chile after 1973, and the dislocations in South East Asia stemming from the Vietnam War. Finally,the 1987 Immigration Act has resulted in a major increase in applications for residence with significant contributions from Southeast Asia and the Islands (Table 2).

The pattern of New Zealand's immigration has, like that of the United States, been influenced markedly by foreign policy. For the United States the War with Mexico (1848), the War with Spain (1898), the Vietnam War in the 60s and 70s and more recent involvement in Central America has led to special immigration connections with Mexico, Puerto Rico, Cuba, and the Philippines together with many countries in South East Asia and Central America. New Zealand's very obvious special relationship with Australia, and less obvious ties with Fiji and Tonga, are a legacy of the British Empire and later Commonwealth. Within that overall relationship New Zealand has developed close bonds, in terms of citizenship, with Western Samoa, the Cook Islands, Niue and the Tokelauan Islands.[1]

The record of immigration policy and legislation in New Zealand, both in thrust and timing, evidences some interesting similarities with the United States until the 1960s. Suspicion and fear of Chinese immigration produced specific restrictive Chinese Immigration Acts in 1881, 1886, and 1896. An added fear of migrants from India resulted in legislation in 1890 and 1910 that used language and literacy tests to effectively exclude Asian migrants from New Zealand (Roy,1970).

[1] Western Samoa was acquired under a League of Nations mandate in 1920. The United Kingdom ceded the Cook Islands and Niue to New Zealand in 1901 and the Tokelau Islands in 1925. Western Samoa became self governing in 1962 and the Cook Islands attained complete internal self government in 1965.

In 1920, foreshadowing the United States's restrictive legislation based on the concept of national-origins quotas, New Zealand also introduced legislation designed to maintain and develop the predominance of a perceived national North West European ethnic stock. The principle applied was to grant free entry to all persons of exclusively British, including Irish, birth and descent. All others needed to obtain entry permits from the Minister of Customs; later of Labour and Immigration. It gave a flexibility of control, not available to the United States government, and it's basic discriminatory rigidity ensured that New Zealand would be a nation of predominantly British settlers and their descendants.2

By requiring all non New Zealand citizens to obtain an entry permit the 1974 Immigration Act might have been seen by some as paralleling the United States abolition of the quota system in 1965. However, New Zealand continued to practice discrimination in favour of certain countries both by official bi-lateral agreements and administrative practice. The most obvious example of the former, which has had and continues to have a most profound effect upon New Zealand's population and migration history, is the Trans Tasman Travel Agreement (Hurrelle,1988). This allows Australian citizens, together with other British and

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[1] According to the 1986 Census 83.4% of the population was classified as European. 8.23% of the population had been born in the United Kingdom and Ireland with a further 1.36 % born elsewhere in Europe. In comparison 12.5% were recorded as Maori and an additional 3.1% as non Maori Polynesian.

Commonwealth and Republic of Ireland citizens who have permission to reside in Australia, exemption from the need to obtain a permit to enter New Zealand. Until February 1986 the Department of Labour maintained a policy of giving preference to persons from "traditional source countries". Skilled persons from developing countries were specifically excluded, ostensibly to try and prevent "brain drain" from those counties. Perhaps the most uniquely New Zealand restriction, that remains fundamental to the New Zealand attitude toward immigration, was that despite membership of some preferred group the basic requirement, save for those entering under the TTTA, was the possession of skills and qualifications not only relevant to New Zealand, but, also, in sufficient demand to warrant recruitment overseas (Ministry of Foreign Affairs,l983).

The 1987 Act, as could be expected, perpetuated and even further emphasized the priority given to "occupational" entry.[3] However, in the light of United States practice, it is of interest to note the following points in the legislation. The new Labour government maintained that the legislation provided only the legal basis for administering immigration activities. The decision as to who may reside in New Zealand remains that of

[3] Since employment is the basic requirement for migrants it is understandable that a higher percentage report an occupation on entry than in the United States. The figures for 1987 and 1988 were 52% and 53% (N.Z.) compared with 40% and 44% (U.S.A). It can be argued that the more dramatic, if simplistic, comparison should be with the United States third and sixth occupational preference categories; 3.9% and 2.0% in 1987 and 1988.

the government of the day; delegated to the appropriate minister. Mindful of past experience, and aware of the problems connected with the legal technicalities of entry documents in immigration cases in many countries, including the United States, the New Zealand Act discarded the previous emphasis on permission to enter New Zealand in favour of the simple concept of status within New Zealand. In addition, offenses against the immigration laws were no longer to result in criminal prosecution, deportation and consequent permanent prohibition from entry into New Zealand.

From colonial times, and especially since the 1960s, the acknowledged priority has been the encouragement of the immigration of people with skills and experience needed in New Zealand. Present policy, which may be regarded as instructive, in view of the current debate in the United States over legal immigration reform is based on three categories. The first is economic. A regularly updated Occupational Priority List (OPL) is produced by the department of Labour in consultation with the employers and organized labour unions. This provides a very clear, if restricted, guide line to officials checking applications for residence. In addition a prospective employer may make a case for employing a person from overseas on the grounds of the impossibility of filling a position from the local labour market. The standard requirements relate to health, character (lack of a criminal record), ability in the English language and proof of the means to provide accommodation. There

is no limitation on the number of children in a family, the definition of which takes into account the cultural practices of neighbouring South Pacific nations. The family income must be sufficient to presume that it will place no unusual demand upon social services. The normal age limit for migrants to New Zealand is 45 years. The crucial factor is that a firm offer of a job by a New Zealand employer remains the prime factor for permission to reside in New Zealand. In contrast to the United States law, is the discrimination in favour of the citizens of two very different countries of origin; in addition to the very fundamental one implicit in the TTTA. A quota of up to 1,100 per annum has been available to Western Samoans who, having met the standard requirements, need only to have a guaranteed job with no level of skill to be proven. A further quota of 1,000 per aannum exists for citizens of the Netherlands with a guaranteed position or an assurance, from the Netherlands Emigration Office, that such entrants will not become a public charge. Netherlands immigrants must comply with all other conditions.

The New Zealand situation also provides a comparison with Puerto Rico. Because of their being former New Zealand dependencies, Cook Islanders, Niueans and Tokelauans are entitled to settle in New Zealand with all the rights and privileges of citizenship. Between 1965 and 1975 the New Zealand government, recognizing the problems of rapid population growth on atolls with severely restricted resources, resettled about 500 Tokelauans in N.Z.; arranging both employment and accommodation.

This may be seen as a very distinctive form of aid programme. A dramatic result of these special relationships is that the majority of the populations of these islands, especially Niue, now reside in New Zealand. In an almost farcical situation, stemming from a decision of the Privy Council of the United Kingdom in 1982, a similar citizenship by virtue of a former dependency relationship was conferred upon some 100,000 Western Samoans for a matter of weeks (Macdonald, 1986).

Since 1979 New Zealand has had a second economic category of business migrant. These, after a satisfactory evaluation of their business record and credit worthiness, have been allowed entry regardless of age, occupation and national origin. They have to meet the general requirements as to health character and knowledge of English.

New Zealand's social immigration is in terms of family reunion. There are few formalities for spouses and children of New Zealand citizens. Parents may be approved if they are alone in their home country or have at least the same number of adult children resident in New Zealand as are resident in any other country. An adult child resident in New Zealand must sponsor the applications and the general requirements must be met. Brothers and sisters may be approved if they are the last member of a family in the home country, are under 45 years old, are sponsored by a New Zealand sibling resident and possess a "worthwhile" skill. Evidence of this is interpreted as having had two years of training and two years of experience.

New Zealand's humanitarian category is somewhat different from the refugee programmes in the United States. First, any relative of a New Zealand resident who does not meet the standard criteria may apply for consideration based on the intrinsic merit of the appeal. Again New Zealand demonstrates selectivity in the matter of the country of origin of refugees. Currently, special rules apply to applications from Sri Lanka and the Lebanon. Subject to continuing community sponsorship, the present government is following a programme, adopted in 1987, of admitting up to 800 refugees per year in association with the United Nations High Comissioner for Refugees. However, in 1989, at the Geneva Conference on Indo-Chinese Refugees, the Minister of Immigration made a commitment that New Zealand accept at least 1,000 Indo-Chinese refugees beginning on 1st April 1990. This figure will include 200 Vietnamese per year and will limit the number of admissable refugees from other areas over the next three years.

There are four categories of temporary admission into New Zealand. The largest is that of tourism and the visiting of relations. Some 57% of short term visitors enter visa free (Table 3). Students require visas if their course lasts longer than three months and from 1990 foreign students may enter only on the basis of full cost recovery. The cost recovery regulations also apply to the category of temporary entry for medical treatment.

The New Zealand Immigration Act (1987) makes for an

interesting comparison with the United States Immigration, Reform and Control Act (1986) because it was similarly the result of attempts to control illegal migration and a vital element was that of "amnesty". In New Zealand the roots of the legislation lie in the circumstances of the late 1960s. It can be argued that these circumstances are again present in New Zealand in 1990 and thus it is important that current attempts to link planned economic growth with a policy of increased immigration are based on a knowledge of what were the results of a similar policy in the past. It appears all the more of a " replay" when it is noted that the present government's "ideal" annual immigration figure of 10,000 persons is exactly the same as it was twenty years ago. It may well be that the New Zealand experience provides a cautionary and salutary model for other countries.

New Zealand experienced a short economic recession between 1967 and 1969. Associated with this were the first migration losses since the 1930s (Farmer,1979). The National Development Conference of 1969, realizing that it's economic growth target could not be met without a recruitment of manpower, put the case for another period of active encouragement of migrants. Political and public opinion combined, in a reversal of customary traditional unease over the presumed deleterious effect of immigration because of competition for jobs and resources, to favour extensive immigration. The chief aim was to recruit from the traditional source of skilled migrants; Great Britain. With the target achieved by 1972 the scheme was judged a success, but

there were misgivings when the flow reached 30,000 only two years later (Bedford, 1982). Soon even the migrants from Europe were subjected to widespread criticism for the burden which it was widely alleged that they were creating; especially in the supply and pricing of housing. More significant, however, to the creation of future demands for "amnesty" was that the government's favouring the rapid expansion of the manufacturing sector coincided with two other events in the South Pacific Region. First, there were improvements in the efficiency of transportation between the South Pacific Islands and especially with New Zealand. Secondly, it was a time of great push from the other islands to New Zealand because of a lack of opportunity for wage employment . The result was a rapid growth in the movement of migrants from several island communities to New Zealand. Just as many people from south of the United States - Mexican border dreamed of going "El Norte" so then did tens of thousands of Pacific Islanders plan to go to "Godzone".4 One aspect of this new flow of migrants, in particular, troubled many in New Zealand. It was apparent that many visitors and those on short term permits were staying on in New Zealand after the expiry of their permits. The presence of a growing number of "illegal" migrants was tolerated in the initial expansion of the economy because of the need for labour. The situation changed dramatically following Britain's entry into the European Economic

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4 Colloquial expression for New Zealand. Short for God's Own Country.

Community and the Oil Crisis of 1973. These two events were a body blow to the New Zealand economy which suffered a severe downturn from which it has yet to recover. Many Pacific Islanders were put out of work and their visibility made them subject to widespread criticism. As in the United States, politicians responded to the public demand that "something be done about it" to remedy the presumed problem. However, unlike the situation in the United States, New Zealand, being a small unitary parliamentary nation, enabled the government to respond quickly. The immigration department was instructed to be more rigorous in it's regulation of short term entry into New Zealand. Also, in conjunction with the police, they embarked on a policy of identifying those who had "overstayed" and began proceedings for their deportation.

In March 1974 publicity about the infamous "Dawn Raids" caused an outcry against procedures that were "alien to our way of life" and the government had to change the direction of it's policy. When it was seen to be determined to respond to the public outcry about overstayers it received requests from Pacific Island Communities in New Zealand. These ranged from total amnesty to being allowed to return home with dignity and without penalty. The first amnesty/stay of proceedings was announced in April 1974 for Tongans only. Over 3,000 Tongans came forward to register and gain immunity from prosecution. They were given an extension of time to make the necessary arrangements before leaving. In an attempt to meet both the demands of the employers

and the special relationship that New Zealand strives to maintain with the South Pacific Islands, a work permit scheme was introduced. In order to protect this and make it uneconomical for visitors to work in New Zealand, visitors permits from the islands were restricted to one month; in itself, another example of discrimination. However, there was continued concern at the alleged social and employment pressures and media coverage reinforced popular fears with "silent invasion" type headlines reminiscent of the United States. Another similarity to the United States was that the government lacked any precise figures as to the number of overstayers. It settled for an estimate of between 10,000 and 12,000 (Immigration Division,l985). At a Pacific Island Church seminar on 10 April 1976 the minister, T.F. Gill, announced that whilst there would be no amnesty, there would be a "stay of proceedings" for all persons who had overstayed their temporary permits before that date and had remained unlawfully in New Zealand. The register for this respite from prosecution under the Immigration Amendment Act (1974) was open from 10 April to 30 June 1976. It produced a heated debate between the islander's leaders and the Immigration Division. The former demanded to know the criteria of eligibility for permit extension and residence. The department wished to keep the criteria private to prevent overstayers calculating their chances of eligibility and then deciding to register or not accordingly. Race relations were again soured by the charge of discrimination, when the media reported the circumstances of

random immigration status checks by the police in Auckland, Wellington and Christchurch (Amnesty Aroha,1987). Disappointed with the turnout and suspecting that island leaders had discouraged registering, the minister rejected local consultation and visited the governments in Western Samoa, Tonga, and Fiji. Determined that there would be no recurrence of overstaying he reopened reluctantly the registers from 20 December 1976 to 30 January 1977. The total of overstayers who registered was 5,381; 2,507 from Tonga, 2,464 from Western Samoa, 36 from Fiji and 74 others. 3,712, almost 70%, of those who registered were accepted for permanent residence. Regarding the review to have been completed and since no further stay of proceedings were intended the minister released the criteria that had been used to determine acceptance for permanent residency. They were marriage to a New Zealand citizen or permanent resident or being the sole remaining member of a family unit permanently resident in New Zealand. Favourable consideration was also given to parents of New Zealand born children with a good employment record.

With supreme confidence the minister announced ' there will in the future be no need for a register. Our laws are now well understood" (Gi11,1977). Yet the first twelve months of a new computerized control system produced a list of 3,641 overstayers; 2,176 of these were from Western Samoa, Tonga or Fiji. In view of the current situation it is noteworthy that 40% of the overstayers were not from the Pacific Islands (Table 4). Claiming to be acting in the interests of job security for New

Zealanders, the minister moved to amend the immigration bill. Temporary visitors were forbidden to work without authorization, and it was made an offence to employ those who an employer had reason to know were not authorized to work in New Zealand.5

The issue of illegal migration into New Zealand continued despite the markedly changed context from that of the 1970s. New Zealand had a disturbing loss by emigration both in terms of numbers and calibre of emigrant throughout the 1980s (Figure 1). The early years of the decade saw constant denial from the government that there would be any future amnesty despite strong pleas, especially from the Tongan community, and after the Australian regularization of status programme. However, the feeling became general among those attempting to execute the immigration laws: the courts, lawyers and immigration division, that the basic Act (1964) was no longer adequate for the changed migration conditions of New Zealand in the eighties. Many of the sections in fact dated from 1908, and one senior official claimed that 37 of the 57 sections were deficient or simply unworkable (Scrivener,l984). Extravagant charges were made that it was minister Malcolm's frustration at court decisions, made on the technical deficiencies of entry documents which made "thousands upon thousands" of Pacific Island overstayers de facto permanent residents, that stirred the government to action. In fact there

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[5] For further discussion of the "Overstayers" debate in the 1970s see De Bres and Campbell, 1975a, 1975b, 1976; Macdonald, 1977; New Zealand Coalition for Trade and Development, 1982.

were 2,000 of the so called "limbo" cases .

Inconsistencies in the New Zealand immigration law were given the necessary wide public forum in the Lesa case (McManamy,l982). This decision of the United Kingdom Privy Council was nullified by the Citizenship (Western Samoa) Act (1983). Whilst ensuring that a considerable proportion of the Western Samoan population would not be entitled to New Zealand citizenship, it was in effect a virtual amnesty for a cohort of Western Samoans in New Zealand on the day before the act came into force. The National government introduced a new immigration bill in December 1983, but it died following the government's defeat in the "snap" election of 1984.

The new Labour government was committed by it's election manifesto to a review of immigration law and policy. The two major changes in terminology and jurisdiction, in regard to status within New Zealand and the decriminalization of immigration offenses, were retained from the aborted 1984 act, but the previous government's intention to give immigration officers the power of arrest was abandoned. The immigration division was aware of the international debate on illegal migration and that several countries had or were considering amnesty/regularization programmes. The motivations ranged from regaining control of borders to bringing illegal immigrants within the law for broad social reasons. The immigration division whilst not accepting that the overstaying situation was out of control, and not wishing to reward breaking of the law

with amnesty, recommended another regularization programme. The prime concern may have been the "limbo" cases, but it was also felt that other groups who had been in a similar situation to Western Samoans before the 1982 act might benefit from such a scheme.

The reports of the immigration division, discussions of the government caucus committees on Immigration and Justice, consultations with several departments including the Pacific Islands Affairs Advisory Council, and finally consideration by cabinet culminated in the publishing of a Review of Immigration Policy in August (Burke,1986). An Immigration Bill was introduced concurrently which would eventually come into force on 1 November 1987.

In introducing the legislation the minister declared a restricted, but by international standards unusually lenient, legalization programme. All who had arrived in New Zealand on or before 14th August 1983, and had no criminal record, would be granted permanent residence status. Persons who had arrived after 14th August, could apply for permanent residence but this would only be granted if the new business, occupational or family guidelines were met. 2,567 persons were granted residence under the programme, including 805 from Tonga and 543 from Western Samoa.

This was followed by the minister announcing a "once only never to be repeated " opportunity for people in New Zealand without valid permits to rectify the situation (Rodgers,l987). In

view of the charges of confusion and lack of time and communication made about similar schemes in other countries, and previous New Zealand efforts in this field, it is interesting to compare the publicity approach with that taken in 1976. Believing that a short period would encourage compliance, a three month period was allowed during which a temporary permit would be issued automatically. The opportunity was then offered for an extension of that permit or even one for residence. The earlier the application after 1 November, the longer would be the currency of the initial permit. Thus, one obtained in November would expire on 30 June. A permit gained in December would end on 31 May. A last minute application between 1 January and 9 February would only run until 30 April. Acknowledging a lack of facilities and personnel, the immigration division retained a professional advertising consultant, but the budget of $250,000 was minute compared with the over $10 million available to the Immigration and Naturalisation Service in the United States. The result was a ten minute video shown on TV2 at 10.50 a.m. on Saturday 31 October. In addition there were the traditional posters and a special supplement in seven languages for the "Sunday News" on 1 November. 3,115 people including 1,523 from Tonga and 940 from Western Samoa, registered under the transitional provisions of the new act between 1 November and 9 February. This was slightly less than 25% of the official estimate of overstayers as at 20 May 1987. To emphasise that this was not to be a general amnesty giving automatic residency,

the minister reiterated constantly such phrases as a "gift of time" and "clean the slate". However, all who applied for residence were approved if they had a job, adequate accommodation, all immediate members of their family in New Zealand and no criminal convictions. Recognizing an anomaly, after the programme had begun, it was decided to put all persons legally in New Zealand during the regularization period on the "fast track" to residency if they so wished.

Yet, despite this seemingly lenient policy, the official number of overstayers in New Zealand at the end of April 1988 was 17,351 (Table 4). Restructuring of the immigration department and new procedures now give some confidence that this is a reasonably accurate figure. Thus they cannot be seen as evidence of a New Zealand success in the elimination of the presence of illegal migrants. The total is higher than the pre-regularization estimate and considerably higher than in the previous decade before New Zealand embarked on a 15 year period of reform and regularization.

This paper can only deal briefly with comparison with the second vital element of IRCA 1986; sanctions. In 1990, individual states are reporting on whether or not sanctions have resulted in discrimination as overall estimates are made as to their success in reducing the "pull" force of the United States labour market. There is no such excitment and speculation in New Zealand. Similar penalties have been in place for fourteen years, but not one employer has been prosecuted for the offence of

employing illegal workers. It is obvious that the New Zealand government cannot, and has no real desire to, implement the law in this matter. Similarly, despite reminders from the opposition party and the media, the promise to follow the period of transition with the application of "the full force of the law" has proved somewhat empty. As in the United States, enforcement activities were curtailed for a period to allow the regularisation provisions the maximum chance of success. However, in the twelve months following the resumption of enforcement in August 1988, only some 1,293 warrants had been issued. 56 persons were removed from New Zealand in that period, and a further 311 departed voluntarily.

New Zealand presents an apparent contradiction to the idea, held by many supporters of IRCA 1986, that the growth of an undocumented population is primarily the result of economic "pull". The precarious state of the economy, featuring high rates of unemployment resulting from massive restructuring, means that the "pull" in New Zealand is very weak. Yet, the "push" from the smaller islands of the Pacific remains, as indicated by the growth of the illegal population despite the various schemes to eliminate it during the last seventeen years.

As in the United States, without waiting for a clear understanding and evaluation of the impact of the legislation aimed at illegal migration, the mood is for reform of legal migration. Again, in New Zealand, it is executive and bureaucracy driven. Inevitably, given the present government's

dedication to privatisation, the proposal has been made to allow private consultants to assess the suitability of potential immigrants. They would apply a set of standards, based on a points system, and be subject to audit by a goverment department. Obviously, it is felt that the current regulations, which concentrate on wealth rather than skill and are open to abuse, have failed to produce either the quantity or quality of immigrants vital to the development of a healthy economy and society. The scheme is unlikely to find favour with the New Zealand populace at large, long suspicious of immigration, but still inclined to leave decisions in this area to the State. New Zealand is currently embroiled in trying to redress grievances of the Maori caused by biased interpretions of the partnership with non Maori settlers agreed to in the Treaty of Waitangi. Now this must include, in a complete reversal of past practice, participation by the tangata whenua (people of the land) in the decision as how many and what kind if immigrants are to be permitted to enter the country.

Finally, it may be that New Zealand should not be compared with the United States but rather with Mexico. In the year ending January 1989, 45,154 people moved from New Zealand to Australia as permanent or long term residents. The figure for the previous year was 36,227 out of a total of 60,843 permanent and long term departures. The New Zealand born population of Australia probably now exceeds 250,000. Thus, thanks to the TTTA, New Zealanders treat the Tasman Sea as a "Porous Border"

regarding themselves as participants in a common Australasian labour market. Perhaps this, also, echoes a counterpart in North America.

TABLE I. New Zealand Population Growth: Total and Maori population

Census	Total Population	NZ Maori population (incl. in total)
1858	115,462	56,049
la74	344,984	47,330
1878	458,007	45,542
1881	534,030	46,141
1886	620,451	43,927
1891	668,651	44,177
1896	743,214	42,113
1901	815,862	45,549
1906	936,309	50,309
1911	1,058,312	52,723
1916	1,149,225	52,997
1921	1,271,668	56,987
1926	1,408,139	63,670
1936	1,573,812	94,053
1945	1,702,330	116,394
1945	1,747,711	100,044
1951	1,939,472	134,842
1956	2,174,062	162,458
1961	2,414,984	202,535
1966	2,676,919	249,867
1971	2,862,631	290,501
1976	3,129,383	356,847
1981	3,175,737	385,524
1986	3,307,084	405,309

Source: New Zealand Census, various years.

TABLE 2.

NUMBERS OF PERSONS GRANTED RESIDENCE VISAS AND PERMITS

Country	1985	1986	1987	1988	1989
Afghanistan					1
American Samoa	1	7	4	2	11
Argentina	5	5		2	59
Austria	11	26	45	53	47
Bahrein		1	1		
Bangladesh	3	6	3	5	11
Barbados	2			4	2
Belgium	6	11	6	11	25
Brazil	3	1	5	7	11
Brunei		1		1	8
Bulgaria		3	4	1	1
Burma	3	5	1	2	9
Canada	274	347	527	386	354
Chile	11	32	35		62
P.R. of China	121	118	175	256	686
Colombia	2	3	4	17	6
Cyprus	1	2		1	1
Czechoslovakia	15	11	4	5	8
Denmark	16	21	21	37	45
Ecuador					1
Egypt	6	1	3	9	15
Fiji	154	127	605	1942	3987
Finland	1	5	6	3	11
France	58	44	28	61	64
French Polynesia	3	4	3	4	14
German D.R.	2	5		5	19
German F.R.	210	204	292	242	420
Greece	18	5	9	18	25
Guyana				6	7
Hong Kong	143	162	188	512	1016
Hungary	12	1	13	8	21
Iceland	2	4	7	7	7
India	107	108	204	369	695
Indonesia	26	34	44	31	74
Iran	29	26	62	187	107
Iraq	1	8	14	2	28
Ireland	52	79	148	186	207
Israel	6	7	14	25	37
Italy	25	16	10	17	20
Jamaica	2	1		1	3
Japan	53	47	52	57	290
Kampuchea	432	417	87	96	413
Kenya	2	1	2	2	6
Kiribati		4	5	5	
Korea		1	1		20
Korea	8	20	23	23	28
Laos	82	129	73	80	26

NUMBERS OF PERSONS GRANTED RESIDENCE VISAS AND PERMITS

Country	1985	1986	1987	1988	1989
Lebanon	7	5	9	36	20
Liechtenstein			1		
Malawi					8
Malaysia	122	86	529	755	1824
Maldives	1				2
Malta		4	3	10	3
Maritius	7	1	4	14	6
Mexico		5	2	2	6
Morocco		1			
Nauru				1	1
Nepal		3			4
Netherlands	510	397	468	543	756
New Caledonia	6	3	15	4	6
Nigeria				4	3
Norway	14	6	6	16	23
Oman					48
Pakistan	6	7	3	15	51
Papua New Guinea	6	9	12	9	15
Peru	2	2		6	24
Philippines	145	296	487	587	658
Pitcairn Island					3
Poland	45	25	34	27	91
Portugal	6	6	3	14	16
Romania	1	7	4	3	7
Saudi Arabia					1
Singapore	38	54	168	157	257
Solomon Island	2	3	3	2	10
South Africa	91	101	311	311	400
Spain	6	7	5	8	11
Sri Lanka	38	64	92	212	354
Sweden	11	19	64	99	113
Switzerland	82	90	87	78	124
Taiwan	26	12	25	95	1640
Tanzania	3		4	2	9
Thailand	19	28	21	32	46
Tonga	444	200	688	371	2080
Trinidada/Tobago		3	2	2	5
Turkey	4	5	1	5	9
Tuvalu	2	1	4	1	20
United Arab Emirates	1				
U.K.	7201	2966	4712	4272	4881
U.S.A.	392	367	527	444	686
Uruguay	2		1	1	6
Vanuatu	1	1	1	4	1
Venezuela	1	7		1	7
Vietnam	158	91	134	164	135
Western Samoa	1706	1560	2096	1753	4082
Yugoslavia	10	13	8	14	43
Zanzibar	23	6	22	33	47

NUMBERS OF PERSONS GRANTED RESIDENCE VISAS AND PERMITS

Country	1985	1986	1987	1988	1989
Other	47	162	50	53	97
TOTALS	8097	8680	13335	14893	27462

Source: Department of Labor. Immigration Permit Statistics, various years. Wellington.

TABLE 3.

Number of short term visitors from countries for which New Zealand has visa exemption arrangements year ended 31st March 1989

Austria	2,395
Belgium	852
Canada	36,999
Denmark	3,449
Finland	1,218
France	8,304
German F.R.	23,523
Greece	376
Iceland	182
Indonesia	3,825
Ireland	3,061
Italy	3,235
Japan	99,916
Kiribati	127
Liechtenstein	18
Luxembourg	61
Malaysia	10,043
Malta	157
Morocco	-
Nauru	207
Netherlands	8,246
Norway	1,481
Portugal	477
Singapore	12,124
Spain	667
Sweden	9,928
Switzerland	8,942
Thailand	3,686
Turkey	198
U.K.	91,176
U.S.A.	160,745
TOTAL	495,623

Source: New Zealand Immigration Service

TABLE 4

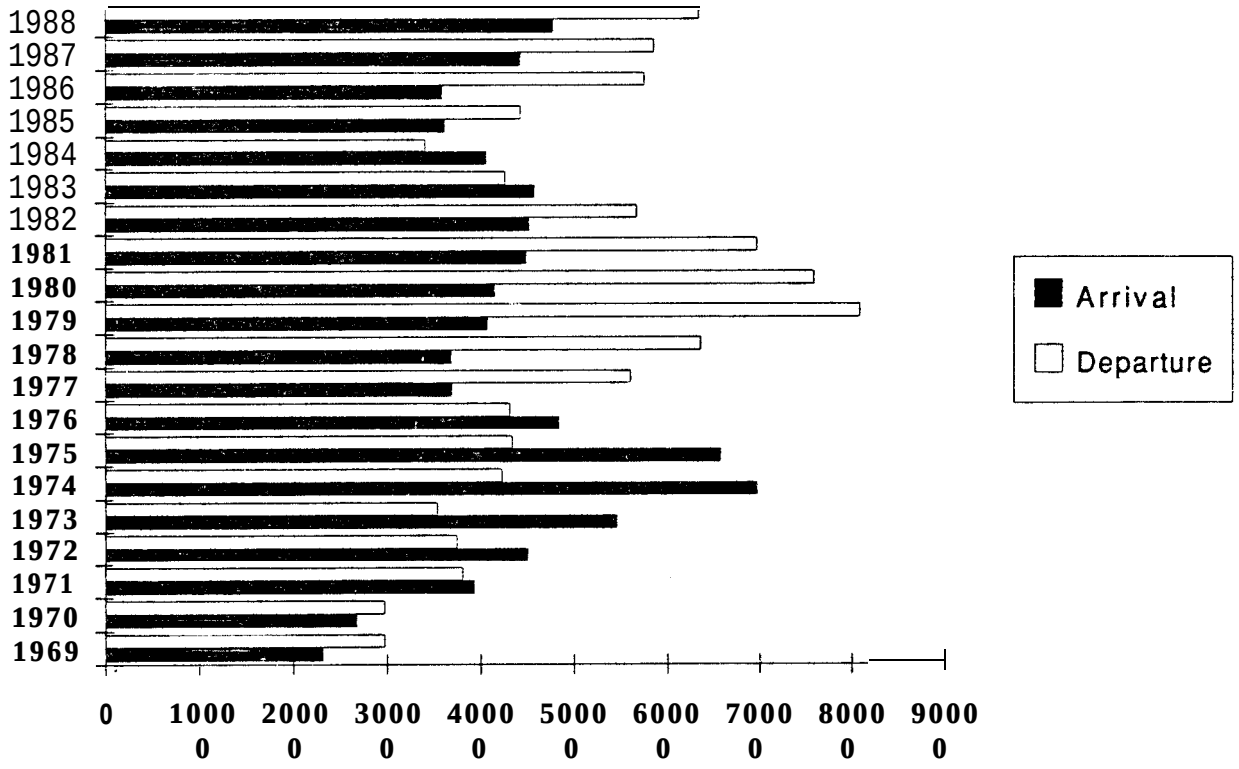
OVERSTAYERS IN NEW ZEALAND - AS OF 26TH JULY 1989

U.S.A.	708
U.K.	1062
Fiji	1111
W. Samoa	6718
Tonga	4614
Malaysia	253
Phillipines	84
Others	3069
Not coded	1
Total	17351

Source: New Zealand Immigration Service

FIGURE 1.

NEW ZEALAND PERMANENT AND LONG TERM MIGRATION



Source: New Zealand Department of Statistics
external migration 1987-85...

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