migrant integration cockpits & dashboards

D1.2

Migrant and Refugee Integration Policies: Antwerp, Bologna, Hamburg and Madrid.

Migration Challenges for MICADO

Project

Acronym: **MICADO**
Title: Migrant Integration Cockpits and Dashboards

Coordinator: HafenCity University Hamburg

Reference: 822717
Type: Innovation Action
Programme: HORIZON 2020
Theme: Addressing the challenge of migrant integration through ICT-enabled solutions (DT-MIGRATION-06-2018)

Start: 1 January 2019
Duration: 42 months

Website: www.micadoproject.eu

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Deliverable

Number:	**D1.2**
Title:	**Migrant and Refugee Integration Policies in Hamburg, Antwerp, Bologna and Madrid**
Lead beneficiary:	**Colegio Profesional de Politólogos y Sociólogos de la Comunidad de Madrid (CPS)**
Work package / Task:	**WP1 / T1.2.4**
Dissemination level:	**Public (PU)**
Nature:	**Report (RE)**
Due date:	**30/09/2019**
Submission date:	**30/09/2019**

Resubmitted on 30/06/2020 after revisions requested by the Commission

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Acknowledgement: This project has received funding from the European Union's Horizon 2020 Research and Innovation Programme under Grant Agreement No 822717.	**Disclaimer:** The content of this publication is the sole responsibility of the authors, and in no way represents the view of the European Commission or its services.

Executive Summary

This report aims to set the basis of **MICADO** project[1] and shed some light on the challenges this **innovation action** faces, so as to identify and clarify them and establish a more accurate picture of migrant integration in the four cities of interest for this project: **Antwerp, Bologna, Hamburg and Madrid**. To that end, we have developed a comprehensive methodology, encompassing: a systematic **literature review** of what has been researched and published in scientific journals and reports about migrants integration in the last five years; analysing the main indicators included in **national and international statistics** in this regard; and by adding to these the **available data at regional and local level**. Finally, we do also include an exploratory **policy map** through a sample of public interventions developed at local level. Hence, results presented in this report try to encompass these challenges delivering some added value for the MICADO project, as well as for the common knowledge of the European society and its institutions.

Scholars, EU institutions and governments seem to agree on the relevance of **employment** and labour markets for successful integration. Employment and **education** are by far the two main topics most addressed in literature, highlighted in EU reports and they are the areas where national, regional and local governments invest and spend most of their efforts. There is also no doubt that a migrant's perspective of finding a job comes first to assure shelter and the subsequent needs for survival and integration. Education is also a determining factor in this regard. Consequently, one of the main barriers also stressed in all the sections of this report revolves around the need to learn the language of the host country. Furthermore, the migrant integration policy index and literature point out that education does not reduce exclusion and inequality as expected, resulting in an increased disaffection with institutions. The imbalance of overqualification, the lack of harmonisation of grades and degrees, and the legal limitations to find a job, which matches the population's skills, downgrade the expectations and potential inclusion of migrant population. Differences in this regard among nationals, people born in the EU vs. those born outside the EU confirm this issue.

However, **integration is a multicausal** phenomenon, and the European Union strives to measure and grasp all the factors with the greatest chance of successfully affecting that integration: health, housing, gender issues, political and social participation, naturalisation, among others, conform this complex puzzle called integration. Surprisingly, we found a lack of studies and government attention to some of these topics of interest, especially, health and housing and more critically political and social participation.

That could be explained for several and diverse reasons: Firstly, **political and social participation** strongly depends on national governments and bilateral agreements with migrants' countries of origin when referring to voting rights. Nonetheless, social participation and openness when making political decisions usually takes place at a local level, but it

[1] https://www.micadoproject.eu/

seems that, at least in the four cities of interest for MICADO, these kinds of initiatives are not considered as priorities for integration, although literature agrees that it is relevant to achieve full integration.

Secondly, in the case of **housing** even though some of the regulations come from national governments, allocation and prices are set by local governments and, more specifically by the private market. Here we must acknowledge national differences in Germany where the rent culture is firmly established among nationals, so differences between them and EU-born and non-EU born people seem less significant. On the other hand, countries like Spain or Italy where homeowners are the main trend among nationals, increase the differences between them and those who struggle with financial constraints and legal limitations to buy a home. These difficulties duplicate the barriers to rent a home in which private contracts and tenants tend to ask for more guarantees from the migrant population than from nationals. Moreover, the countries where housing is more regulated by governments tend to show that non-nationals encounter fewer barriers to access housing. Another explanation could be the lack or hidden information regarding these questions which makes it more difficult to be addressed by both scientific research and institutions.

Finally, the case of **health** is unusual. Although it remains understudied, looking at the policy map we identified a reasonably good performance when it comes to humanitarian emergencies. Once crises have been controlled and migrants have become legal citizens the situation varies among countries, depending on their legal status and the perception of the health services in each country, the perceptions and policies directed towards migrant population become less clear. Furthermore, scholars have pointed out a reality related to mental health issues as a consequence of this population's specific experience of migration, which needs special attention but has not been fully addressed by governments. Moreover, language difficulties in this regard are highlighted as a special need even among migrants already settled in the host city. Even though they already know the local language, technical and medical terms, and even cultural differences mean that people have serious difficulties to understand each other.

One of the most striking features we found when we analysed migrant integration policies is associated to lack of data, official statistics and transparency at a **regional and local level**. In this report we highlight the relevance at a regional and local level for migrant integration. In the cities of interest and in most European countries, government power and competences are decentralised in one way or another, although the legal status recognition remains a national government duty. As a matter of fact, **regional governments manage 40% of budget expenditure and 60% of investment, and hold most of the competences** regarding migrant integration, except housing and naturalization, which depend on local or national/regional governments. In addition, evidence from the migrant policy integration index at a regional level and the policy map shows that there is a strong relationship between policy coherency and regional government competences, and successful integration scores.

Hence, we observe that first level of government assumes the responsibility of granting legal status and recognition; it provides basic and civil and political rights. It also shapes European directives within a national context. Whereas regional and local governments effectively frame the real implementation of migrant integration policies that takes place at the second level. Thus, official statistics are only provided at a national level, giving a broad picture of the reality but not a refined measure of integration. To possess further, in-depth knowledge of integration, a **greater effort to obtain data at a regional level** (including outcome indicators like NUTS2 indicators in Zaragoza and policy indicators like the migration policy integration index) would be necessary.

There is a **coherent variation among topics and policies** oriented towards the needs and conditions of both the host country and background of the migration population, which creates an **almost unique relationship**. Therefore, the analysis and findings presented in this report aim to focus on these heterogeneous relationships: the way they are working, how they need to improve and how relevant they would be for the MICADO ICT solution; there is no intention to rate or criticise any of them.

Regarding **e-governance**, the degree of openness and transparency and also the development of information and communication technologies associated to migrant integration policies, the results of this report clearly show great room for improvement: In terms of the target population's involvement, the general pattern is that they act as beneficiaries or passive objects of the policies. Another common pattern in this regard is a lack of **evaluation**, with very little evidence of reports or data provided by those interventions, added to a lack of transparency regarding the budget or funding devoted to those policies, which does not follow the governance spirit of the new public management defined by the European Union. Although the countries involved in the MICADO project rate highly in the e-government benchmarking rankings, either at a global (UN) or European level, the implementation of service provision through ICTs in migration integration policies is nowhere near their respective national standards in other aspects.

Mobility and migration

- There is an **unprecedented level of human mobility** (United Nations, 2016), since the number of international migrants has increased in the last 25 years to more than 244 million (OECD, 2017).
- This ever increasing figure equates however to 3.3% of the global population, which means that **placed in context displacement remains the exception** (International Migration Organization, 2018).
- The number of migrants arriving in **the EU is no exception to this trend**, in 2018 **38.2 million people European residents had been born outside** of the EU-28, representing **7.5% of the total population** (Eurostat, 2018b). The figure reached a peak in 2015, triggering a so-called migrant crisis in which 1.3 million people applied for asylum in the EU (European Commission, 2018a).

- Germany (9.7 million persons), Italy (5.1 million), and Spain (4.6 million), **three of the Consortium countries, can be found amongst the EU Member States with the largest share of non-nationals** living in them in 2018 (Eurostat, 2018b).
- In terms of growth in the last three decades Belgium has displayed a modest increase from 9.0% to 11.1% while Germany roughly doubled their foreign population from 7.5% to 14.8%. Italy quadrupled their foreign population from 2.5% to 10.0% and Spain show the biggest increase with a rate six times higher from 2.1% to 12.8%. In Spain and Italy, the increase was strongest until 2010, after that the economic downturn following the financial crisis seems to bring this development to a halt.
- The role of immigration in European societies has been **highly visible in public debate, political outcomes and remained at the forefront of public opinion,** as 38% of Europeans believe immigration is the most important issue according to the Standard Eurobarometer 86 (European Commission, 2018b).
- While **migrants contribute significantly** to the sustainability of EU countries and the diversification of cultural activities, and their presence should be considered an opportunity rather than a problem, the movement of people across the world is only expected to become even more widespread and complex, presenting **new challenges for policy makers**.

Critical review of terms

- **Many displaced people today defy the parameters used by policymakers** and the apparently neat differences between categories (migrant, refugee, asylum-seeker, etc.) are more of a legal nature and not so clear and straight as considered, as they **change over time and space.**
- Scholars have also stressed this mismatch between conceptual and policy categories and the experiences lived by those on the move (Crawley & Skleparis, 2017).
- The process in which migration takes place is **far more complex and non-linear than reflected by media, policy makers and politicians**. Migration to Europe for example, rarely happens between two fixed points or is decided at the point of departure, as reflected by the ESRC project, MEDMIG (Crawley, Duvell, Jones, & Skleparis, 2016).
- There is **nothing natural or fixed** about this policy and legal categories; they are not neutral but powerful political tools that position people as objects of policy in a particular way that has consequences (Crawley & Skleparis, 2017; Zetter, 2007).
- A systematic literature review showed that **most research rather focuses on 'established' migrants** -being the largest migrant groups in the country, or the ones with the longest history. Moreover, if recent migrants were included, special attention would be given to asylum seekers. There is a clear **lack of articles where refugees or asylum seekers are linked or studied in relation to integration**.
- The policy map points at some specificities in **which 'types of migrants' are targeted by specific policies and domains**. Madrid and Hamburg seem to be the cities where the least distinction is made across the different kinds of migrants under the public policies umbrella.

Integration

- The **concept of integration or social inclusion has also evolved over time**. Currently, assimilation theories in which social and economic success depended on acculturation and assimilation into the host society have been nuanced, and recent integration concepts emphasize transnational linkages due to new forms of transportation and technology.
- Some scholars follow the segmented assimilationism notion that strongly emphasizes the **importance of the context of reception** as a major determinant of the courses of the adaptation processes. While other scholars highlight that integration also involves the native population's adaptation to immigrants.
- Integration is studied both as a specific measurable condition and as an expected result that arises from other dimensions.
- **Integration is defined in relation to native-born population**, and the ultimate goal would be to achieve equal rights (and obligations) in terms of policy (MIPEX, i.e. equal access to the job market) or outcomes (OECD, i.e. equal unemployment rates).
- **Different countries and cities have different notions of integration, which reflects on the way they regulate** and implement their laws and policies. Some countries regulate specifically for migrants, others regulate for the general population but make a specific mention to migrants, and others regulate for the whole population.
- While the **economic aspects of integration remain unquestionably the main focus of policymaking, sociocultural aspects** have become more relevant.
- There is a consensus in the fact that **integration is a multi-dimensional concept**, although there is not such a clear agreement on what its main dimensions are. However, it is clear that they are **all intimately interrelated**, for example employment integration is strongly affected by education, while education is affected by access to quality housing that also intervenes in physical and mental health, which in turn is affected amongst other things by precarity or overqualification in employment. Discrimination seems to have a negative effect on all domains of integration in a crosscutting manner.
- A systematic literature review shows a great **number of studies in the domains of education and employment in all countries, whereas there is a considerable lack of studies that address housing and health.** Although most research applies qualitative methodologies, with an extensive amount of ethnographic research. A quantitative approach to data analysis is found especially in the fields of employment, health and education.

Integration at a regional and local level

- There has been **increasing recognition in literature and reports on the fundamental relevance of the dimension of local and regional governance** in integration policies, and it is frequently noted that it has been designed or implemented at the sub-national level in key integration areas (OECD, 2016).

- Although the four Consortium cities are part of decentralised states, in Bologna and Antwerp local governments are essential, in Madrid the programmes are mainly managed by the regional government, and in Antwerp and Hamburg both levels of government are very important -in the case of Hamburg, which is a city-state, regional and local levels are similar.
- Many studies stress that in practice integration takes place at the local level and cities are focal spots (OECD, 2018d) and point at the **lack of adequate coordination between the different levels of government** as a major issue (OECD, 2018).
- Cooperation between the different government levels is greater in Bologna and Flanders, where various services at a national level are developed at regional and local level. On the other hand, in both Madrid and Hamburg there is a greater difference between levels of government.
- Furthermore, migrants, especially non-EU, **are generally more spatially concentrated than natives in metropolitan and capital-city regions** (Diaz Ramirez et al., 2018; OECD, 2018d).
- Successful approaches to **integration require multiple local solutions based on local needs, rather than top-down** public policy approaches (Waitemata, 2016). Third-sector organizations are of greater relevance in Hamburg and Bologna, than in Antwerp or Madrid.
- In terms of the policies and programmes collected by the Consortium partners, the vast array of arrangements and differentiation amongst the cities can be observed in detail in the policy map section. **In general, the regional level is predominant**; whereas the European Union is only directly responsible -many regulations are transpositions of directives- for a residual percentage of policies, concentrated in the issues of education and employment. It is also noteworthy that **gender policies rely mostly on national governance**, which may be since these policies are included within the framework of a national gender equality law. We can also observe that the **local level has an important relevance in issues like family policies and housing.**

ICT and integration

- **Public services have increasingly become digitised and directly accessible** online by the public.
- Scholars agree on the fact that digital media can be used as a tool and source of integration that can support migrants' social capital for '**bonding'** with the homeland or the homeland communities settled in the host country and act as a '**bridge'** to interact with the host society and institutions (Lupiañez et al., 2015).
- All the countries and cities of the Consortium have made progress in the creation of comprehensive web portals, urban data portals and mobile applications to facilitate information and data exchange (European Commission, 2019a, 2019d).
- Although **many websites and apps have been developed** in the last years with the purpose of easing the process of integration and facilitate information to migrants and refugees, however very few of these are developed by country authorities or trusted

entities and NGOs (Cserpes et al., 2019), and the topics remain very diverse and dispersed (E.g., one focuses on health, the other one on labour market)

- According to several studies, **migrants are ICT users and their skills are similar or higher**, they are more connected and are more frequent digital users, which is particularly true for newly arrived migrants.
- Migrants however mainly use ICT **for information and communication** rather than for social participation, looking for a job, or learning and education purposes. However, the Internet and IT adoption skills are correlated and it has the statistically significant effect of increasing the employability and integration of migrants (Lupiañez, Codagnone, & Dalet, 2015).
- Migrant women seem to have less technical experience and have negative attitudes toward technology (see gender).
- According to the last Digital Economy and Society Index report of 2019, demand for digital public services is growing, as 64% of EU residents have used public services online and the provision of government services online is also on the rise (European Commission, 2019e).
- In digital public services, the Consortium countries rank above the EU average, except in the case of Germany. However, 43% of German residents, 76% of Spanish, 51% of Belgian, 37% of Italian residents actively engage with e-government services.
- **Digitisation is also a priority for the European Union**, which has allocated €9.3 billion to fund over 3,000 projects in ICT-related areas through its Research and Innovation Framework, Horizon2020.
- Developments in smart technologies and datafication are now an integral part of societies, and migrants and refugees are no exception to this but rather a preeminent target (Metcalfe & Dencik, 2019).
- Not only do these technologies have great potential, they also pose risks: from privacy, security and data protection concerns, to **data justice and the way these allegedly neutral, scientific decision-making procedures often unveil structural inequalities or discrimination** (Dencik, Hintz, Redden, & Treré, 2019). For example Germany, Austria, United Kingdom, France, and Finland collect and store DNA testing in a searchable database to confirm family reunification cases, even after the migratory process has ended which sharing does not require the applicant's consent (Moreno et al. 2017: 263).

Health and integration

- According to literature in Italy, Belgium, Germany and Spain the health profile of migrants is increasingly characterised by conditions of **suffering due to inadequate reception, social fragility, and/or poor accessibility or barriers to health services**, due to both legal and cultural differences.
- The statistical information provided by European Union Statistics on Income and Living Conditions (EU-SILC) confirms this relation, specifically for the sub-group of so-called

third-country nationals or non-EU population, whose results are worse than both natives and EU migrants in all categories and countries.

- **Statistical information on migrants' health is particularly scarce and difficult to access**. The EU-SILC and the European Health Interview Survey (EHIS) provide useful information on self-perceived health, although the covered time span differs between subgroups and countries, which hinders cross-country and cross-time comparisons.
- According to literature many **individual factors play a significant role** in immigrant's health in particular: migration history, place of origin, socio-economic characteristics, social support and networks, literacy level, sex, age, length of stay, legal status, language proficiency, living conditions, etc.
- **Contextual factors** play an important role too, which explain the statistical differences found by place of residence. Among the non-EU-born population, those who reside in Belgium seem to have the worst perceptions about their health, being the least likely to assess their health as very good or good, and most likely to assess it as bad or very bad. The non-EU-born in Italy and Spain seem to be most satisfied in the four-country comparison, whereas their peers in Germany lie somewhere between South Europe and Belgium.
- They might be linked -albeit not directly- to policy integration indicators, in which Italy and Spain, where health access is accessible to regular and irregular migrants, perform better than Belgium and Germany in 'entitlement to health services', policies to facilitate access, and measures to achieve change.
- In the **local/regional realm, Bologna and Madrid are also the cities with the most policy upgrades**, 13 and seven respectively, from the general integration health national policies.
- **A major area of concern in literature is mental health and dissatisfaction**. Although migration in itself is no direct cause for mental health issues, many of the situations directly linked to the migrants' experience such as discrimination, a hostile reception in the host country, precarity or overqualification in employment, unfamiliarity with the language are well-studied causes of stress.
- In this vein **the policy area with the highest need for improvement is the 'responsiveness of health services'**, where all Consortium countries and cities have to adapt to better respond to immigrants' needs, which could be achieved by facilitating interpretation services, using volunteers, cultural mediators and multilingual staff, adapting guidelines or standards, supporting training staff, and involving migrants themselves in the design of information and services.

Employment and integration

- Employment is portrayed as the **most crucial starter** of migrants and refugees' integration process and, **together with education**, it is the dimension in which more data are available, both in statistical terms and in literature. Employment is also the second top dimension in terms of regulatory and **policy efforts** to favour integration.

- According to literature in all EU and OECD countries, **unemployment rates** are higher among migrants, **especially non-EU migrants**. They also have greater presence in **over-qualified jobs and in low-skilled jobs.** These differences between native-born and migrants have **widened as a result of the economic crisis**, especially in Southern Europe.
- The statistical data reviewed in the Consortium countries confirm this, showing that in 2018, the employment rate was significantly higher in all countries for both migrant groups, compared to natives. Moreover, in all countries except Italy, unemployment was far more prevalent among non-EU than among EU-foreigners. This gap is particularly noticeable in Belgium and Germany, where the number of unemployed non-EU foreigners more than doubled the rates measured for the other two groups. However, in the comparison between countries, unemployment among non-EU-foreigners is nowhere as high as in Spain, which mirrors the results for the other population groups.
- These results are reflected in younger generations. In Germany, Belgium and Spain, non-EU born people clearly showed the **highest youth unemployment rates compared to native-born and EU-born** individuals (which is also the case for EU-28).
- **Differences can be found however in terms of employment** rates in the Consortium countries. In Belgium and Germany there is roughly the same number of foreigners from other EU countries as natives, while there is a substantial gap between these two groups and non-EU foreigners, with employment rates of non-EU migrants well below 70% in 2018, which in Germany meant a gap of about 20 percentage points compared to nationals**. In Italy and Spain however, the situation appears to be different**: in Spain there are negligible differences between the three groups, and in Italy the employment rate of non-EU foreigners is even higher than the rate of Italian nationals.
- Across all age groups **there are usually more foreigners in temporary jobs**. Part-time work is much more frequent **among women** and Germany stands out with the highest part-time employment rate (55%) among non-EU born women, whereas Spain had the lowest rate (29%).
- **Self-employment is significantly less common** among non-EU-foreigners than among natives. This discrepancy is by far the biggest in Italy.
- Although, as seen above, the destination country has a significant influence, an important factor in the four contexts studied is the **country of origin, especially in relation to human capital transferability**. According to literature, the other main **individual factors** affecting migrants and refugee's employment outcomes are education, although the return on education is much greater for non-immigrants, language proficiency, social capital and networks, work experience, sex, age, marital status, length of stay, reason for migration and nationality.
- There are also **structural factors** that prevent migrants from entering the employment market, such as the economic situation and unemployment rate in the host country, rigid and credential-based labour markets; the legal access to employment, naturalization and family reunification.

- In policy indicators Germany and Spain perform above average, followed by Italy and Belgium with the lowest scores. It is important to note that these indicators reflect equality among migrants and natives rather than performance. All four countries performed exceptionally well regarding workers' rights, although Belgium obtained a slightly lower score. **Each Consortium country ranks particularly well in each of the subdimensions**: Belgium excels in general support (access to employment services and improvement of qualification and skills), Germany stands out for reaching the targeted support, and Spain especially and, to a lesser extent, Italy are noted for access to employment.

Housing and integration

- Access to **quality housing is a determining factor for integration, well-being, security, stability, and even health and educational outcomes**. It is also instrumental to the integration process, as an address is frequently needed to claim residence rights, financial support, health insurance, etc.
- The topics most discussed in literature related to housing are **spatial distribution, discrimination in the housing market and the more precarious living conditions** of migrants compared to natives.
- Statistical information on the housing situation of immigrants is not easily accessible yet. The **number of owners is significantly lower among migrants** than natives, and particularly low among non-EU foreigners.
- Migrants are also statistically **more likely to live in an overcrowded household** than native-born population, in all age groups and countries. However, Italy shows the highest overcrowding rates, which out of the EU-born, was eight times higher than their peers in Spain and roughly three times higher than their peers in Germany and Belgium.
- In most countries, foreigners are facing **a higher likelihood to be overburdened.** The **housing cost overburden rate** is defined as the share of the population living in households where the total cost of housing accounts for more than 40% of a household's disposable income (Eurostat 2017, p. 43). Germany is the only country where there are no signs for a particularly high incidence of overburdening among foreigners. Non-EU foreigners are not systematically confronted more often with the issue of overburdening. Spain and Italy present the most polarised distribution with a low rate among nationals and high rates among foreign people
- **The role of the local and regional levels is particularly important** according to literature and regulations in the housing dimension, since migrants are more likely to rent, live in substandard housing, and concentrate in specific areas and segregated neighbourhoods, which can have an impact on local infrastructures and the perception of immigration. **Policy actions in this area are fragmented across different authorities and often voluntary work of NGOs and initiatives is crucial.**
- The integration policy index shows an overall better performance for Germany and Belgium, being the latter who obtains the best scores according to MIPEX. Scholars agreed on highlighting the pernicious effect of unfavourable legislation that limits

migrants' scope of action. For example, forbidding them to move or change homes or sometimes making it difficult for migrants to enjoy financial benefits and the advantages of social networks, like reducing their integration allowances if they share a flat.

- Space plays a crucial role on integration, which also brings to light the importance of **place-based interventions**. Cities differ substantially from each other in their diversity. Furthermore, within cities, a large and varied diversity is found across neighbourhoods. Migrants often live in segregated neighbourhoods together with other foreigners, which may provide networks that might be beneficial for as regards looking for a job but makes social contact with natives difficult.

Education and integration

- **Education, together with employment, is the most researched dimension both in literature and statistically**. Labour market prospects vary significantly with educational attainment. Hence, endowments with formal education are a key indicator of equal opportunities.
- In all four countries under investigation, tertiary education is clearly less common among non-EU born individuals in comparison to both natives and people born in other EU-countries, a result that is more pronounced than in the EU-average. The largest disparities are observed in Belgium and Spain. Belgium is also the country that shows the biggest discrepancy between the two migrant groups, due to the fact that tertiary education is even more widespread among people born in other EU-countries than among natives.
- A look at the other end of educational distribution is also a cause for concern. The educational gap is particularly significant in Germany, where the corresponding share of non-EU born with a level of education below upper secondary (level 0-2) is about four times higher. However, when comparing countries, these shares are even higher in the other countries.
- **Educational barriers and underachievement for first generation and even second-generation migrants** can partially explain the obstacles that third-country nationals face to enter the labour market, as the effect remains even when they have higher qualifications.
- **Language skills intersect between education and the labour market**. Deficient skills in the host country's language are one of the most pertinent employment obstacles, especially in Belgium, followed by Italy and Germany.
- The **performance of migrants is worse than native pupils with no migrant background in any of the countries**. Native-born pupils with parents born abroad perform better than foreign-born but the difference is not as large as when compared with natives with no migration background. The country with the largest difference between natives and foreign-born individuals is Germany, while the smallest difference is observed in Spain where a relevant part of migrants come from Latin America and the Caribbean.

- Migrants are also **more likely to leave school early** in all four countries and the Not in Education, Employment or Training (NEET) rate among people born abroad is clearly higher compared to the native-born in Consortium countries in 2018.
- A **crucial factor that has a positive influence on the area of education are the students' own aspirations**, which are generally higher among migrants than among native students; given the choice, migrant students are more likely to choose pathways leading towards higher academic qualifications.
- A frequently addressed topic in recent literature on the interconnections of education and integration is **discrimination and segregation**. Migrant children receive disproportionately higher recommendations for the lowest level of secondary education. In Germany, there are comparably fewer students with a migration background who turn to vocational education and training. The same forces can also be found in Spain where the immigrant population is unevenly distributed across the educational system, with a substantially higher concentration of migrant students in underprivileged schools that also have higher dropout rates.
- **Education is the policy domain in which all countries perform the worst**. Germany and Belgium score slightly better than Spain and Italy, which are clearly below average. In Germany and Belgium more efforts have been made to ensure immigrants' children achieve results and develop at school like the children of national citizens. In addition, in Germany and Belgium migration is used to produce intercultural outcomes for everyone.
- Regarding the educational dimension, **migrant-specific comparative data are tremendously scarce at the regional level**.
- Madrid and especially Hamburg, with 7 and 16 changes, are the cities that report more local upgrades from national educational regulations; which is directly linked to the distribution of competences across levels of government**.**
- **Linking policies and outcomes is particularly difficult in the policy field of education,** where efforts have proved irrelevant to children's performance. Research shows that there might be a gap between intentions and implementation, meaning that **measures are** probably **taken too late** instead of at primary and pre-primary level, where the effect would be greater. It especially demonstrates that results are strongly related to structural and contextual socio-economic factors in the country and parents.

Integration as participation

- While the socio-economic aspects of integration remain unquestionably the focus of policymaking, **sociocultural aspect and societal aspects have become more relevant,** although they still have not be studied sufficiently.
- A traditional vision of integration assimilates it with **political participation and active citizenship**.
- In the policy integration index, the recognition of **political liberties appeared to be granted in all countries,** although improvements could be made regarding electoral

rights and migrants' representation in advisory bodies. The countries with the best scores were Germany and Spain, followed by Belgium and Italy.

- To this end **naturalisation is still extremely relevant**. According to statistics Antwerp has the highest share of no-national individuals, around 27% of Antwerp's population, where Hamburg and Bologna have around 18% and Madrid has the lowest share with 16%.
- These **data appear to contradict policy indicators** to achieve nationality, where **Belgium and Germany exceed** the average score. Spain is below average, followed by Italy, which has the most restrictive legislation, recently modified to a more open scheme.
- This may be explained by easier access to **permanent residence and family reunification in Spain and Italy,** which, in the long term, would facilitate naturalisation and favour integration by facilitating access to employment and settling. Although, as a general rule, establishing 5 years of residence as a prerequisite is due to the transposition of the EU regulation in Italy and Spain, people who have studied in the country acquire easier access to resident permits. In the latter, the time spent living previously in other EU countries is considered as time of residence and is counted in the 5-year requirement. Another difference is related to the possibility of being rejected once obtaining long-term status, which in Belgium and Germany would be possible in the event of criminal activities.
- Literature also points at the **relevant role of self-help organisations, community organisations, religious organisations and ethnic media**. However, the greatest number of studies focuses on the **relevant role of sports** in integration.

Gender

- **46% of migrants and 45% of refugees in Europe are women** and their presence is expected to increase through family reunification, while **little is known yet on their integration outcomes and the specific challenges** associated with poorer health and lower education and labour market outcomes.
- While entire communities suffer the impact of forced displacements and migration, women and girls are often the first to lose their right to education, political participation and their livelihood. 'Simply, crisis exacerbates gender inequalities' (Kang, 2016).
- There are **country differences** regarding the overall share of females in the international migrant stock. **In Italy, over the past 25 years women have consistently made up a clear majority.** In the other three countries shares are closer to 50%. In Spain and Belgium there has been a slight upward trend in recent years, while the share in Germany has recently dropped, probably due to the increased inflow of unaccompanied male refugees.
- **Part-time work is much more frequent** among women compared to men. Germany stands out with highest part-time employment rate (55%) among non-EU born women, whereas Spain held the lowest rate (29%).

- Previous research suggests that there is little correlation between gender differences in participation and employment in the country of origin and the host country, suggesting that these integration issues can be addressed by policy instruments, which also provides an intergenerational pay-off for their children, especially their daughters (Liebig, Thomas; Tronstad, 2018).
- **Migrant women seem to have less technical experience and negative attitudes toward technology** (Castaño, et al., 2011). Women show a more negative view on the impact of digital technologies and they also tend to be less informed than men about new technologies (Tarín Quirós et al., 2018), which also reflects on the fact that despite having similar levels of basic digital skills, they tend to undermine their own capabilities and skills (Tarín Quirós et al., 2018).
- Gender policies, which address women's migrant rights, is the area in which the four countries perform better in the policy integration index indicators (79.2 average total score) where, with the exception of Spain (lacking specific laws related to equality in salaries), all countries obtained 83.3. We can observe the **efforts made to tackle workplace discrimination and the transposition of regulations to fight against trafficking with women for sexual exploitation**. Nevertheless, some provisions of the Palermo Protocol (for example, victims' restitution) are still precariously covered, especially in Spain, although the outcome in family reunification with a special impact on migrant women is better in Spain. Moreover, in the case of people suffering from gender violence, newcomers are specially protected and are given the 'violence victim' status, which offers family members comprehensive support.
- In terms of policies and programmes, although none of the cities have a great amount of policies with a gender perspective, all of them with values under 20%, which is even lower in Bologna, almost all the domains have some gender perspective. Besides the gender domain, family policies have the highest percentage of policies that contain this perspective, due to the presence of different maternity policies, followed by housing and employment, with some specific policies that are focused on women who have suffered gender-based violence.
- It is also worth emphasising that **gender polices mostly rely on the national administrative level**, which may be because these policies are included within the framework of a national gender equality law.

Challenges for the MICADO project

- One of the main challenges for MICADO is **to profile users for the application**. As stated above, the **categories are not fixed but change over time and place**; they not only depend on classic profiling: refugees, asylum seekers, resident or working migrants' permits, reunited families, but also on bilateral agreements that each country of origin has with the host country.
- Moreover, **the dynamism of this population and its constant change of legal status** clearly affects the adaptation and access to services provided by institutions and, therefore, are available to them in the application.

- Another challenge for MICADO would be **to identify and select which kind of interventions or services affect or are relevant** to the migrant population, in order to include them in the application. Some countries and regional governments develop specific policies for refugees, asylum seekers and migrants, especially in those matters where they have special conditions or needs. However, not all of them design policies oriented to migrant population in terms of education, employment, health or housing, where **sometimes general policies apply, thus making it more difficult to untangle the type of services or special conditions** this population has.
- Further challenge for MICADO would **be to identify and engage the units responsible for providing** services and interventions for the migrant population and also **the** available **information and data** for the application. Most of the cities involved in the project belong to a **strongly decentralised government system,** in which each level of government is responsible and autonomous in its activities. Moreover, even at a regional level, there are several **different areas -or even third sector stakeholders**- involved in migrant integration policies without a clear coordination board.
- Finally, as mentioned above, **the low development of e-government services for migrant integration** implies a challenge and also an opportunity.

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1. Introduction

Human mobility and migration flows have been a trademark of the European Union and its member states. The freedom of mobility among EU citizens and special sensitiveness towards asylum seekers and refugees has accompanied EU guidelines and policies since its origins. However, in recent years the **unusually high inflow of asylum seekers and refugees**, unprecedented in Europe since World War II (European Commission, 2018a), has brought issues associated to asylum procedures, legislative and policy changes, and controversial decisions at a national and EU level, prompting media and political attention, as well as increasing debates and interest in social inclusion and integration measures (Eurofound, 2019; Konle-Seidl & Bolits, 2016).

Far from being an isolated phenomenon, **in 2018, 38.2 million people of the total population** in the EU were people who had been born outside the EU-28, representing **7.5% of the EU population**, while 22.3 million (4.4%) were third-country nationals. Furthermore 21.8 million people (4.3%) had been born in a different EU Member State to the one where they were resident.

In this context, migration has become an everyday reality rather than a temporary deviance, which makes it **essential to formulate coherent policy responses**. This means that it is now crucial that 'host countries strongly engage with different, innovative and constructive approaches to migration in order to positively integrate migrants, thus contributing to showing migration as an enriching aspect of contemporary societies rather than challenges to their welfare' (UNU Network, 2015). Nevertheless, the difficulties that governments encounter in successfully integrating migrants and guaranteeing their dignity against prejudice and extremist attitudes came to light, converting migration into one of the most **polarising** issues in national elections and in the most recent European Parliament elections held in 2019.

The **relationship between migration and development** has been further stressed by the European Commission with its inclusion in the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development and the OECD to explore ways for the best design of effective long-term migration policies for positive **development** outcomes through a comprehensive governance system that aims to achieve **policy goals coherence at national, regional and local levels** (OECD, 2017). Moreover, the UNU Migration Network emphasised that 'cities are the places where questions around migrant inclusion will be urgently and tangibly addressed in the years to come (…) local governments are going to play an increasingly central role in developing policies that take into consideration (…) inclusion into economic, social, and cultural spheres of urban life'. Nonetheless, developing coherent policies oriented to the full inclusion and integration of migrant population does not seem an easy task to develop, either at a European level, or national and subnational levels: The **heterogeneity and complexity** of each one of European Member States' political and administrative systems and the cross-cutting nature of the policies directed towards these populations makes both the decision

making process and the implementation of these policies quite challenging. Furthermore, on the other hand, the diverse background of the migrant population in terms of language, education, skills and cultural patterns hinder an effective and efficient relationship between these two actors.

In this regard, the **European Union has developed several initiatives** geared towards fostering and overcoming these hurdles by creating certain standard measurements (Declaration of Zaragoza, 2010) in order to evaluate the extent to which integration has been accomplished. The Action Plan of the European Commission on the integration of third-country nationals, presented in June 2016, envisages actions in five policy priorities: education, employment market integration and access to vocational training, access to basic services, active participation and social inclusion (European Commission, 2016). In the last decade the **European Commission has funded over 60 projects** (research and innovation actions) clearly oriented towards migrant integration (Lipiatou, 2016).

The **H2020 project MICADO -Migrant Integration Dashboards and Cockpits-**[2] is framed within this initiative, addressing the challenge of migrant integration through ICT solutions. The MICADO solution is an integrated 'out-of-the-box' system that provides digital tools for managing the integration of migrants in cities across the EU. By exploiting state-of-the-art data technologies, it consolidates and valorises migrant-related data from local, regional, and national sources. While an intelligent data platform manages this information as backend infrastructure, interactive frontend applications (so-called data dashboards and cockpits) provide analytic and synthetic services in support of migrant-related key issues, for example, migrant work, housing, health, education, etc. With a 'one-fits-all' approach, the basic or 'universal' MICADO solution comprises a set of services applicable to all cities and regions involved in the project, **Hamburg, Antwerp, Bologna and Madrid.** This concept of offering a 'ready-to-use' solution, which only needs to be fed with data to be ready to give the necessary information, represents the boost that many Business Intelligence projects lack. With this approach, a municipality does not have to create a cross-department team to understand how they want to tackle the subject of migrants; they only have to provide the available data, and smart visualisation tools will immediately produce the programmed insight based on that input.

This ambitious project faces several **challenges** that must tackled for a successful implementation:

The first one is to update the state of the art, providing a clear definition and conceptualisation of what we understand by migration, integration and inclusion, considering that each European Member State interprets them legally and institutionally in a different way.

[2] https://www.micadoproject.eu/

Secondly, the heterogeneous political and institutional system in each country poses the challenge of understanding and bringing the different solutions and policies they offer closer to the migrant population. Starting with different policy designs (inclusion, acculturation: integration, multiculturalism)[3] and moving towards their implementation (at national, regional, local levels) and the target population of those policies (migrants, asylum seekers, refugees, general population)[4].

A third challenge relates to the legal-administrative rationale that public authorities follow when providing information and services to this population. The dispersion and difficulties to access meaningful information entail a clear challenge, particularly for a population that has not been socialised in the political system. Finally, even though the European Union and its Member States have made a great effort by providing integration indicators, they have done so at a national level, drawing a quite accurate comparative perspective at an aggregated level for benchmarking purposes. However, integration frequently takes place at both regional and local levels.

Therefore, this report aims to **set the basis of this innovation action and shed some light on these challenges, so as to clarify them and establish a more accurate picture of migrant integration in the four cities of interest for this project: Antwerp, Bologna, Hamburg and Madrid**. To that end, we have developed a comprehensive methodology, trying to encompass the aforementioned challenges, providing some added value for the MICADO project, as well as for the common knowledge of the European society and its institutions.

The rationale behind this deliverable is hence twofold:

a. On the one hand it responds to the will to **contribute to scientific debate and work towards making an advancement** on what literature and European institutions already know, providing a closer look to what has been accomplished across institutional levels. To this end the main contributions are:
   - Collect and analyse the literature produced on migrant and refugee integration in the last five years by means of a systematic literature review.
   - Summarise and analyse the secondary data available on the topic.
   - Update to 2019 and analyse the Migrant Integration Policy Index (MIPEX), an index funded by the European Fund for the integration of third-country nationals in the frame of the project 'Integration Policies: Who benefits?' that provides a comprehensive set of 167 indicators (further developed to 189 indicators and 309 sub-indicators) of integration policies in different domains, which latest results dated back to 2014.

[3] For more information on this terms see chapter 2.4 of this report
[4] For more information on this terms see chapter 2.3 of this report

- Produce and analyse a map of actors intervening in migrant and refugee integration in the Consortium cities, following the example of the initiative developed by the OECD and EC, 'a territorial approach to migrant integration'.
- Collect and analyse the main activities and programmes aimed at migrant integration in the Consortium cities.

b. On the other hand, it responds to the aim of setting the basis of the **scientific fundamentals and challenges for the MICADO project** by:
   - Setting a clear definition and conceptualisation of key terms such as migrant, asylum seeker, refugee, integration, inclusion, etc. to be discussed and followed throughout the life of the project and included in MICADO's Wiki, following good practices contained in '*Success stories of SSH integration in STEM projects*' (Net4Society, EC) geared towards reaching a common project language oriented at STEM and SSH terminology.
   - Finding topics and areas to be included in the MICADO ICT solution by pointing out the topics and interventions that have been proven to impact health, employment, education, housing, participation and integration in the literature, and should be considered together with the results obtained from Work Package 2 interviews and co-creation sessions (28 co-creation sessions with migrants, refugees, asylum seekers and stakeholders, NGOs and 20 interviews with public authorities) as a possible feature for MICADO.
   - Setting out the legal framework in each country and city as regards the different domains, so as to customise and adapt the information provided by MICADO.
   - Collecting the main public policies, programmes and activities, and their e-availability, carried out by each city susceptible of being included in the solution.
   - Pointing out the governmental departments and institutions that hold the information or databases (or could be interested in the outcome) relevant to the MICADO ICT solution in each specific domain.

The **first section** of this report presents a combination of **a classic literature review of the state of the art of migrant integration at a European, national and local level in the last 5 years, with a quantitative text analysis that studies the co-occurrence of different topics of interest**. This up-to-date analysis includes 558 documents including reports and scientific articles from both the European Union and national scientific journals. The thorough revision of the literature brings us the opportunity to provide the MICADO project with a clear definition and conceptualisation of key terms, and discover which evidence-based individual and contextual characteristics have been found to affect integration in the main domains comprised by MICADO.

The **second section** provides a general **overview of secondary data on migrant population regarding the topics of interest (education, employment, health, housing, participation and gender)** in a longitudinal and comparative perspective among the four

countries involved in the MICADO project. It also shows the difficulty to obtain comparative statistics related to these issues at a local level.

A **third section** presents the **migrant integration policy map in the Consortium cities in a multilevel comparative perspective**, encompassing the legal and political framework at a national level and public interventions developed at regional and local levels, with the aim of observing the real actions that have been executed for migrant integration and how they match the social, economic and political particularities in the different cities of interest for MICADO. The legal and political framework at national and local levels has followed the Migration Integration Policy Index, updating its scores to 2019, upgrading it by refining the housing dimension and including gender perspective. According to European Governance and following the new governance paradigm analysis, we aimed to present a **policy map of actors involved in migrant integration** policies in the four cities of interest, with a special focus on those more relevant or directly oriented to the population of interest. The purpose of this map is to show what is being done and who are involved in the decision and implementation of the policy-making process, identifying patterns, agenda priorities and multilevel dependencies in these processes. Moreover, it adds more valuable information to what Eurocities or OECD (2018e) have already developed.

The challenge of providing regional and local information about migration integration in the topics of MICADO interest entails some institutional, methodological and data limitations that must be taken in consideration when reading this report.

The intricacies of competences distribution in multilevel governments in a sensitive issue such as immigration can mislead the interpretation of the results. The four countries included in this report account for four different competencies distribution in this regard and, therefore, four different ways to design, implement and developed migration integration policies. Although that can be considered as strength to encompass the diverse institutional structure present in the European context and so to be considered for the development of the application, it also presents several complexities when presenting general results. Thus, the city of Hamburg represents the case of a city-state in a federal system such as the German, in which the city holds some prerogatives and can lead by itself specific policies. The city of Antwerp, which is also a region, has developed different competences and has a strong relationship with third actors or organizations that directly lead most of the migration policies developed in this region. On the other hand, Bologna as a municipality within a region, leads innovative migration integration plans involving third actors in its development. Finally, Madrid as an Autonomous Community in a decentralized country, assumes direct responsibility in some areas, specially health, education and employment, when others like housing, refugees or more broad policies relies on national or local government levels.

Each government have approached this question by developing different policy strategies, some have designed policies oriented towards migrant population, while others have considered migrants as part of the general population. Furthermore, each city or region deals with a great heterogeneity of contexts related to migration integration: backgrounds,

economic needs, employment demand, health issues, which are very different from one city to another. The data presented in this report has accounted for this variety in order to present how policymakers and stakeholders deal with all this plurality and complexity. **Therefore, the overall aim of this report is not to provide policy benchmarks, evaluate or rank performance, but to provide new insights on how migration integration policies change and adapt to the intricacies of regional and local governments.**

2. State of the Art: systematic literature review

2.1 Context

As stated in the Declaration for Refugees and Migrants we are witnessing an **unprecedented level of human mobility** (United Nations, 2016), since the number of international migrants has increased in the last 25 years to more than 244 million (OECD, 2017). In 2015, migration was growing at a faster rate than world's population; however, this ever-increasing figure equates to 3.3% of the global population, meaning that **placed in context, displacement remains the exception** rather than the norm (International Migration Organization, 2018). In 2019, roughly 70.8 million people have been forcibly displaced, including over 25.9 million refugees, over half of whom are under the age of 18, as well as 3.5 million asylum seekers and over 41.3 million internally displaced persons (UNHCR, 2019b).

In this scenario of increased mobility, the movement of people across the world is only expected to become even more widespread and complex, presenting **new challenges for policy makers.** More comparable and systematic data is required to provide evidence-based policy responses and address the real needs and challenges of both migrants, local communities and public authorities (OECD, 2017).

Europe is no exception to this trend and witnessed a great inflow of asylum seekers and refugees in 2015, unprecedented since World War II. The number of migrants arriving in the EU peaked, many of whom were refugees seeking asylum, triggering a so-called migrant crisis in which 1.3 million people applied for asylum in the EU (European Commission, 2018a). This rise brought issues associated to asylum procedures, legislative and policy changes, and longer-term questions related to successful integration. It also prompted unprecedented media and political attention, in addition to an increased interest in social inclusion and integration measures in the agendas of the EU and Member States (Eurofound, 2019; Konle-Seidl & Bolits, 2016).

In 2018, 22.3 million people third-country nationals were living in the European Union, representing 4.4% of the total population in the EU, which is currently 512.4 million people. Furthermore 38.2 million people had been born outside of the EU-28, so it may therefore be said that **7.5% of the population in the EU is of foreign origin**, while 21.8 million people (4.3%) had been born in a different EU Member State to the one where they were resident. The largest numbers of non-nationals living in the EU Member States in 2018 were found in Germany (9.7 million people), the United Kingdom (6.3 million), Italy (5.1 million), France (4.7 million) and Spain (4.6 million). **Non-nationals in these five Member States collectively represented 76% of the total number of non-nationals living in all the EU** Member States, while the same five Member States had a 63% share of the EU-28s population (Eurostat, 2018b).

Together with the rise of migration in Europe and across the world, we have witnessed the difficulties that governments encounter in successfully integrating migrants and guaranteeing their rights against prejudice and extremist attitudes, particularly in contexts of crises or socio-economic hardship, where prejudice has heightened. The role of immigration in European societies has been **highly visible in public debate** for many years and has played **a major role in recent political campaigns** even regarding membership of the European Union (De Schutter, 2016). Although the number of applications have decreased following the closure of the 'Balkan route' and the EU-Turkey agreement (Konle-Seidl, 2018) the issue **remains at the forefront of public opinion with European polls** showing immigration as the most pressing policy issue -38% of Europeans believe immigration is the most important issue according to the Standard Eurobarometer 86 (European Commission, 2018b)- and the rise of anti-immigration parties. Media coverage has also contributed to shift the debate towards the need to regain control over the borders - which has also had an impact on national and European policies- as irregular arrivals and the increase in asylum seekers and migrants between 2014-2017 have become to symbolise migration to Europe as a whole, when it only represents a small portion of it (Szczepanikova & Criekinge, 2018).

Despite these debates and controversies, there are strong arguments and studies -beyond the need to act consistently with human rights values- which demonstrate that, provided obstacles to access education and inclusion in the employment market are removed, **migrants contribute significantly to the sustainability of EU countries**' social security schemes and tax revenue, especially since these countries face the challenge of an ageing population (De Schutter, 2016) and to the diversification of cultural activities and the revitalisation of the demand for local business (OECD, 2018d). Furthermore, many authors and policy makers stress the need to increase understanding between communities and new arrivals and change the narrative on migration, in order to achieve a better integration and more positive outcomes for all (Waitemata, 2016),. Indeed, the more native-born citizens actually interact with foreign-born people, the more likely they are to consider migration an **opportunity rather than a problem** (OECD, 2018b, 2018d).

Migration has become an everyday reality, something normal rather than a temporary deviance, making it **essential to formulate coherent policy responses**. It has become crucial that 'host countries strongly engage with different, innovative and constructive approaches to migration in order to positively integrate migrants, thus contributing to showing migration as an enriching aspect of contemporary societies rather than challenges to their welfare' (UNU Network, 2015). The relationship between migration and development has been further stressed by the European Commission by its inclusion in the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development, and the OECD is exploring ways to best design effective long-term migration policies to achieve positive development outcomes through a comprehensive governance system that focuses on the coherence of policy goals at national regional and local levels (OECD, 2017).

2.2 Systematic Literature Review

Systematic Literature Reviews (SLR) provide robust, **reliable summaries of the most reliable evidence, a valuable backdrop on which decisions about policies can be drawn**. The SLR[5] is meant to review and synthesise evidence on social interventions and public policy.

The **overall objectives** of this SLR are:

- Obtain a general picture of documents related with migrants/asylum seekers/refugees' integration in the last five years.
- Study different associations about policies for migrant integration implemented in the last decade, and their effectiveness if possible, performing a more exhaustive study in the sectoral policies of health, housing, education, employment and participation.
- Find individual characteristics and contextual factors affecting integration.
- Record policy outcomes in the event it is possible to analyse them in the documents.

With this purpose, each Consortium's city (Antwerp, Bologna, Hamburg and Madrid) conducted a systematic literature review that included:

- All articles in the **Web of Science from the last 5 years** that included the term migrant OR refugee OR asylum seeker OR ethnic OR newcomer (in English, Dutch, Italian, German and Spanish) AND integration OR inclusion OR assimilation (in English, Dutch, Italian, German and Spanish) AND country OR list of all regions OR list of main cities (Belgium, Italy, Germany and Spain)[6].
- A **selection of local or national reports from the main organisations** that deal with migrants and refugees in the city[7].

This selection was completed at a **European level with reports** from the main organisations (EU, EC, OECD, etc.) dealing with migrants and refugees. In general, each topic presented below contains a brief introduction based on this EU literature followed by the SLR analysis.

[5] The SLR is based on the *Campbell Systematic Review*, an adaptation of the Social Sciences of the *Cochrane Systematic Reviews*, the leading journal and database for systematic reviews in health care.
[6] For further information please see Appendix 9.1
[7] In the case of Antwerp, the reports were of non-governmental and non-profit organisations or specific projects on the subject (especially on housing). For Bologna, reports from the Italian Statistical Office (ISTAT) on immigration and other reports by non-profit organisations such as Caritas Migrantes. In Hamburg a monoCharty on a specific concept of integration that is of major relevance for the German context, as well as five reports from regional and state organisations were added. In Spain some reports of the NGO CEAR (Spanish Commission for Refugee Aid) and the Permanent Migrant Observatory linked to the Ministry of Employment and Migration were included.

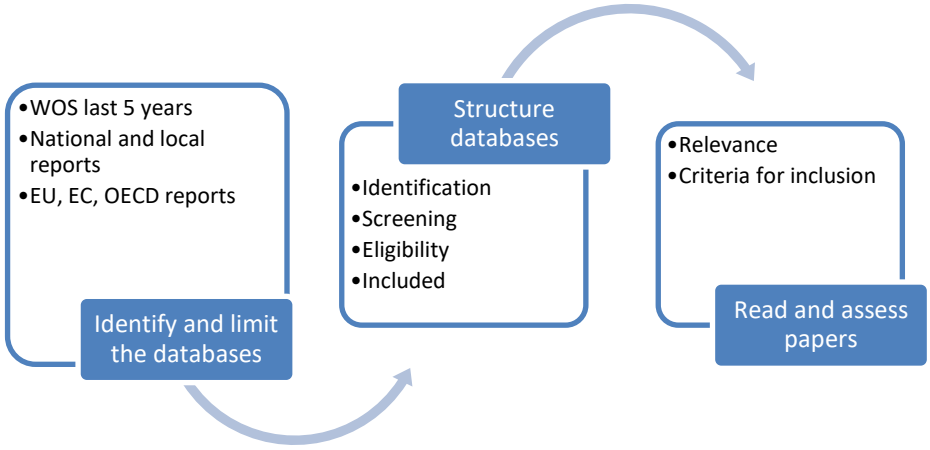


Figure 1. SLR process

The **final outcome** were 558 documents, **327 after screening**:

- Antwerp 113 documents, 88 analysed after screening.
- Bologna 132 documents, 75 after screening.
- Hamburg 176 documents, 76 after screening.
- Madrid 137 documents, 88 after screening.

These **327 documents were analysed by each team qualitatively** and the whole **corpus**[8] **was analysed quantitatively with the R statistical software with the package Quanteda**[9] for managing and analysing textual data looking for the co-occurrence of different topics of interest.

[8] 305 references without reports and books unavailable digitally
[9] Developed by Kenneth Benoit and other contributors. Its initial development was supported by the European Research Council grant ERC-2011-StG 283794-QUANTESS.

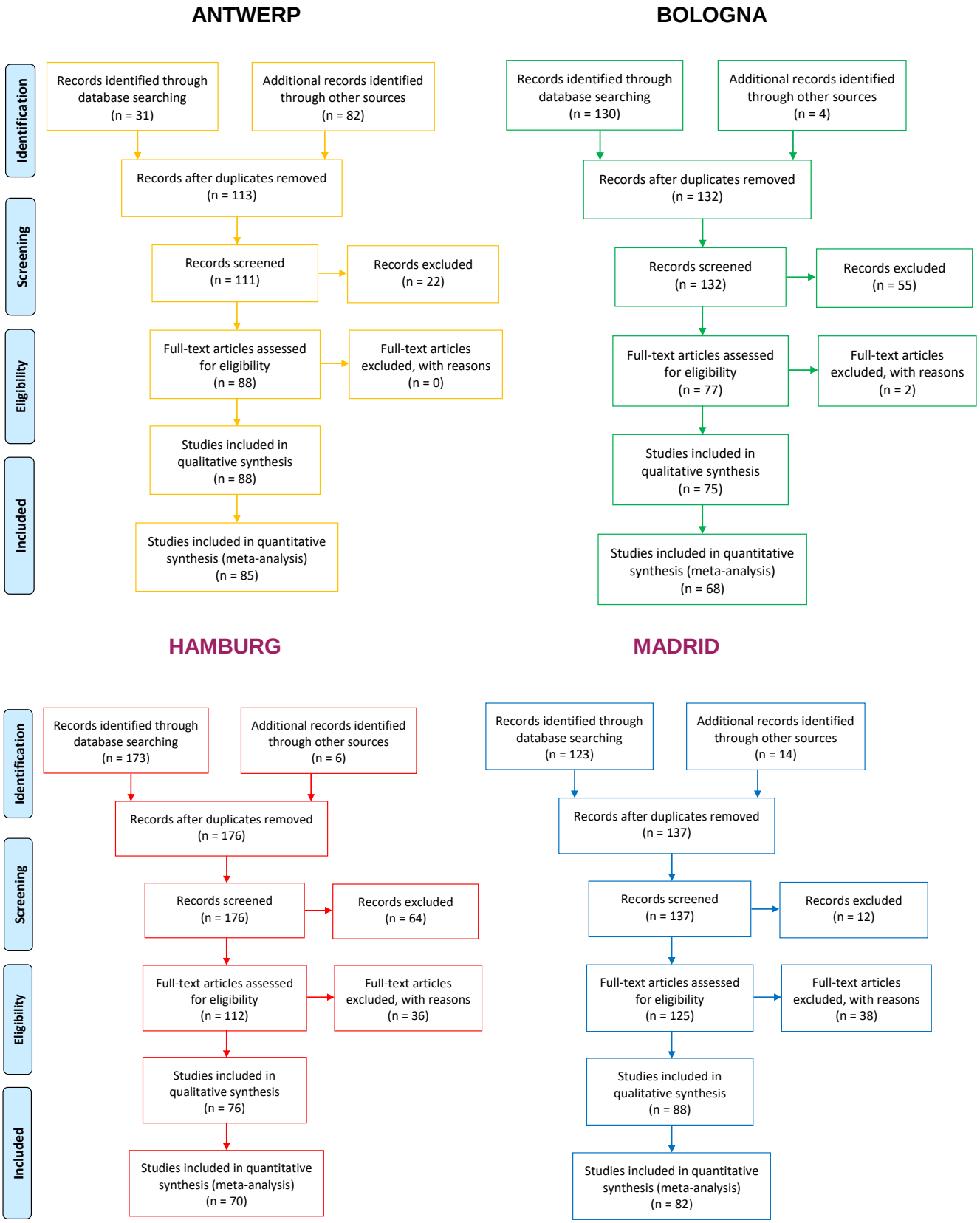


Figure 2. Prisma Flow Diagram for SLR

Source: authors' own compilation following Moher D, Liberati A, Tetzlaff J, Altman DG, The PRISMA Group (2009).

A first overview of this systematic literature review already shows some interesting findings, such as the fact that **no works found in the SLR process in WOS in which refugees or asylum seekers were linked or studied in relation to integration**. It appears to be the case that the work related to these groups focuses on other kinds of issues such as security or other types of policies.

Some **particularities** were found for each case. As regards **nationality or country of origin**, in Hamburg a relatively high number of studies focused on people with a Turkish background, as this group has been the largest migrant group in Germany since the arrival of labour migrants during the industrialisation in the 1960s. In Madrid, although the immigration phenomenon is more recent, the literature mainly focuses on the Latin American population. In Belgium most studies focus primarily on Turkish/Moroccan populations that arrived after World War II, specifically migrant groups with the longest migration history in the country and are often perceived as experiencing difficulties in their participation in various societal domains.

This coincides with the fact that most research **rather focuses on 'established' migrants and less on recent migrants. Moreover, if recent migrants are included, special attention has been given to (former) asylum seekers.** This means that in most academic research, the focus is on immigrant children of second and third generation, often also referred to as ethnic minorities, people of immigrant background. Some other studies considered newly arrived migrant children and the difficulties they experience in the host society.

In general, there is a significantly **higher number of studies in the domains of education and employment in general, while there are very few studies on housing and health.**

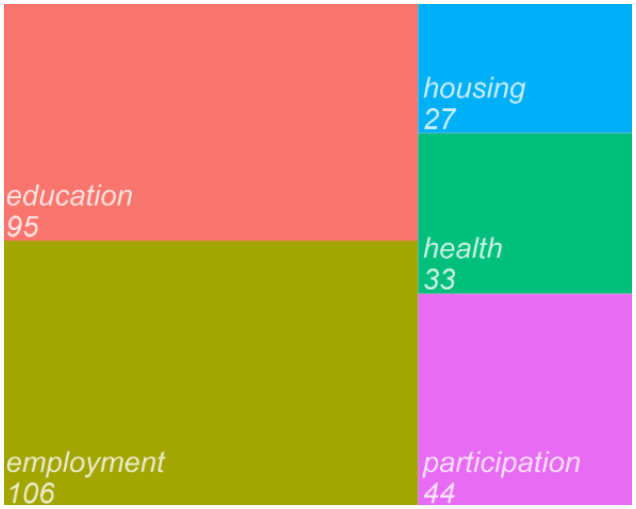


Chart 1. Most frequent topic in the SLR

Most research found that in every case, except Hamburg, **qualitative methodologies are applied, with a high number of ethnographic research studies**. **Quantitative approach to data analysis is found especially in the fields of employment, health and education**.

In the case of Madrid, there is also a large number of studies that apply **a social network analysis** approach (i.e. Bolíbar et al. 2015; Cachia and Maya Jariego 2018; González Motos 2016; Vacca et al. 2018).

Chart 2. Number of mentions by topic in the SLR

In Italian literature there is a relative high number of studies that focus on integration, acculturation and the identity process, followed by articles which centre on migrant's health, paying particular attention to the psychological dimension, probably due to the specific trajectories of Italian migrations (many migrants arrived by sea suffering from post-traumatic pathologies). On the other hand, there are fewer studies on housing, urban and gender dimensions than on the participation process and education. In the selected Italian literature, the research strongly focuses on the issue of inclusion and the process to construct migrants' identities.

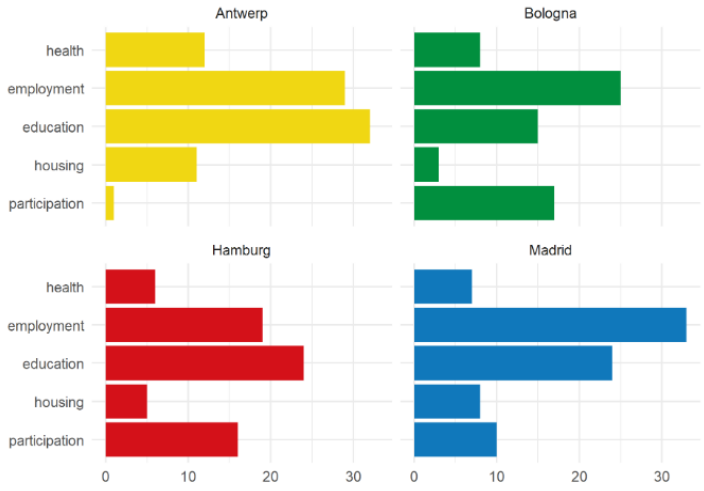


Chart 3. Most research topics by city in the SLR

In the case of Spain, the main topics in the articles found in the SLR are related with employment and education. There are some works that refer to the Longitudinal Study of the Second Generation in Spain (ILSEG), an eight-year-long project led by Alejandro Portes, Rosa Aparicio and William Haller[10], to study the adaptation of immigrants' children to Spanish society over time compared to the USA context (Arango, 2018; Iskander, 2018; Kalter, 2018; Parella, 2018; Rezaei, 2018; Sandberg, 2018). There are also some articles that grant a core importance to language (Gustafson & Cardozo, 2017). Finally, there are articles that analyse the effects of the economic crisis. Most of the articles refer to the regional or local context, even if they cite Spain in the title or abstract. An example of this is provided in the works of the ILSEG, which are actually focused on Madrid and Barcelona. Thus, there is a clear orientation to local contexts; there are also some articles about mobility referring to high skilled immigrants in Seville (Cachia & Maya Jariego, 2018).

2.3 Critical review of terms

When analysing the issue of social inclusion and integration, **the use of terms is not banal** and it comes to the forefront of research and policymaking. It is important to tackle the differences and convergences between migrants, refugees and asylum seekers – mainly because of their different rights and obligations (Konle-Seidl, 2016; Navarrete Moreno et al., 2017).

- '**Migration'** entails crossing the boundary of a political or administrative unit for a certain minimum period. It includes the movement of refugees, displaced persons, as well as economic migrants. Most countries distinguish between several categories in their migration policies and statistics; the variation amongst countries shows a lack of an objective definition of migration. Some common categorisations of international migrants are: temporary labour migrants, highly skilled or business migrants; irregular migrants; forced migrants; family reunification migrants; return migrants (UNESCO, 2018).
- A '**migrant'** in the context of the European Union is a person who establishes their usual residence in the territory of a Member State for a period that is, or is expected to be, of at least 12 months, having previously been usually resident in another Member State or a third country (European Parliament, 2007). In the European context the concept of migration is used to emphasise either a movement with the purpose of work or a movement for a longer or even permanent period. In this context, migrants can have different rights and obligations according to their country of origin, differences are especially relevant between 'third country' nationals and EU nationals, but also regarding bilateral agreements between home and host countries.
  According to the UN Convention on the Rights of Migrants the term 'migrant' 'should be understood as covering all cases where the decision to migrate is taken freely by the

[10] https://cmd.princeton.edu/publications/data-archives/ilseg

individual concerned, for reasons of 'personal convenience' and without intervention of an external compelling factor' (UNESCO, 2018). According to the United Nations Refugee Agency 'migrants choose to move not because of a direct threat of persecution or death, but mainly to improve their lives by finding work, or in some cases for education, family reunion, or other reasons. Unlike refugees who cannot safely return home, migrants face no such impediment to return. Countries deal with migrants under their own immigration laws and processes' (UNHCR, 2016).

Many papers and reports reflect on heterogeneities and complexities that are not grasped with the simple term 'migrant'. For example, there are those who were born abroad and moved from their country of origin to the host country, commonly referred as '1st generation migrants', and people who were born in the host country but have ancestors coming from another country, commonly termed '2nd generation migrants' (Bonin, 2017). Another common way of differentiating between types of migrants comes from the reasons to migrate, some people migrate with the intention of working or investing, called 'economic migrants', others with the intention of studying or training; in other cases the intention is to reunite with family members, while others escape from conflict or prosecution as 'refugees or asylum seekers'. Other distinctions come from ethnic background, associated with differences in cultural and/or linguistic distance that generally affect the portability of human capital, and the prospects of socio-economic integration into the host country (Belot & Ederveen, 2012; Bonin, 2017).

- **'Foreign-born'** The terms migrants and foreign-born are used interchangeably. The term foreign-born is defined 'as the population born in a country different from the one of residence. unlike citizenship, this criterion does not change over time, it is not subject to country differences in legislation and it is thus adequate for international comparisons' (OECD, 2018c).
- '**Mobility'** Although the terms migration and mobility are often used interchangeably and no set terminology is used by the European Union, differentiations and overlapping meanings are first and foremost an expression of power relationships (Karl & Kmiotek-Meier, 2015). While the term migration is more often used for third-country nationals and movements of a certain duration, mobility is generally portrayed as something positive, and frequently used to describe intra-EU movement and other types of movements, whether it is student mobility (Cairns, 2014), scientific mobility and frequently international movements of groups with high cultural capital or highly skilled (Favell, 2008).
- A '**refugee'** is a person who has been granted international protection in a country outside the country of their nationality (Eurofound, 2019); any beneficiary of international protection, including those who received formal refugee status and those with other forms of protection, like subsidiary protection (Liebig & Tronstad, 2018). According to the United Nations Refugee Agency (UNHCR, 2016) refugees are people fleeing armed conflict or persecution for whom denial of asylum has potentially deadly consequences. Refugees are defined and protected by international law, such as the 1951 Refugee Convention, its

1967 Protocol and the 1969 OAU Refugee Convention. In 2015 there were 21.3 million refugees worldwide (UNHCR, 2016).

- An '**asylum seeker'** is a person who has applied for international protection (refugee status or recognition as a beneficiary of subsidiary protection), but whose status is still pending (Eurofound, 2019). A 'recognised asylum seeker' is a specific case in Germany, where some people (either refugees or people who have been granted asylum) have been granted only a temporary or limited permission to stay (Eurofound, 2019).

These apparently neat differences are more of a legal nature and are not so clear and straight as described here, as **many displaced people today defy the parameters used by policymakers**. It is estimated that since 2014, over 18,488 people have died or gone missing while crossing the Mediterranean Sea (UNHCR, 2019a). Many of these and those who enter the EU share a common search for a better life and better opportunities even though not all of them fit the legal definition of a refugee. Many international institutions like the United Nations with its 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development or the New York Declaration for Refugees and Migrants (United Nations, 2015; United Nations, 2016) or the European Union with its Action Plan for the integration of third country nationals of the European Commission (European Commission, 2016) have acknowledged this fact: there are even some differences in regard to need and especially separate legal frameworks, **migrants and refugees share some common features, challenges and vulnerabilities** and a **coordinated response to tackle the policy need of human mobility as a whole, for global governance and a better integration** of these two groups of people should be developed, as the distinction and **situations experienced by migrants and refugees are often times blurred and interconnected** (Nair, 2017).

The Academia alike have stressed this **'categorical fetishism', arguing that there is a mismatch between conceptual and policy categories, and the experiences lived by those on the move** (Crawley & Skleparis, 2017). Many have noted that the process in which migration takes place is far more **complex and non-linear** than reflected by media, policy makers and politicians. That migration to Europe, for example, **rarely happens between two fixed points** or is decided at the point of departure, as reflected by the ESRC project MEDMIG, but is rather an alternative that emerged and evolved after living in other places often for months or years (Crawley et al., 2016).

This dichotomous categorisation of migrants vs. refugees fails to capture the complex relationship between political, social and economic drivers of migration and its nuances over time and space. More importantly it is relevant to note that there is nothing natural or fixed regarding this policy and legal categories; they do not exist in a vacuum but are rather constructed, reconstructed and in constant change, renegotiation and redefinition to respond to political interests and the evolution of policy and law, and **they are not neutral but powerful political tools that position people as objects of policy in a particular way that has consequences** (Crawley & Skleparis, 2017; Zetter, 2007).

The previously noted media and political attention to migration and refugees triggered by the 'migration crisis of 2015' has contributed to this debate as whether migrants entering Europe were 'real' refugees or 'economic' migrants and **differences were made amongst them as one being more deserving than the other**, even by well-intended organisations trying to educate and moderate the debate, which considered that conflating the two terms could undermine public support for refugees in a particularly tumultuous time (UNHCR, 2016).

Although these categories remain pervasive and relevant as they imply access to different rights and policies relevant to our research and solution in MICADO, we acknowledge and intend to maintain a **critical awareness** of the fact that they are created and do not simply represent the world, but reconstruct and reinforce it, also through the iterative relation between academia, policy-making and public opinion (Collyer & de Haas, 2012; Crawley & Skleparis, 2017).

2.4 Integration

Something similar has happened with the **concept of integration and its evolution over time**. Nowadays, **assimilation theories in which social and economic success depend on acculturation and assimilation into the host society have been nuanced** (Diaz-Chorne, Suárez-Lledó, & Rodriguez, 2018) towards the study of the maintenance of migrants' social networks across national borders, while adapting instrumentally to a second cultural endowment (Portes et al., 1999; Snel et al., 2006). Instead of focusing on a methodological nationalism, **recent integration concepts emphasize transnational linkages** and the construction of translocality (Duchene-Lacroix & Koukoutsaki-Monnier, 2016; Riedel, 2017; Iarmolenko et al., 2016). New forms of **transportation and technology allow for such forms of back and forth-mobility** (Iarmolenko et al., 2016) that is often pursued by immigrants with high economic and social capital (Fauser et al., 2015). In this line, integration does not need to be linked to national identity constructs (Duchene-Lacroix & Koukoutsaki-Monnier, 2016). Transnational migrants rather identify with 'multiple countries, groups or other units of reference, for example, subnational local entities' and often cosmopolitanism (Riedel, 2017; Duchene-Lacroix & Koukoutsaki-Monnier, 2016: 138; Holleran, 2017).

However here as happened with the use of terms there seems to be a certain division between academia, in which integration is a highly discussed and contested term, and politics. Thereby although most European countries combine elements of both assimilationist and multicultural approaches, in the last decade the former has been clearly favoured (Boswell, 2016). **Integration has been then regarded as a linear, one-direction process in which immigrants move towards the host society**, with policies reflecting that scheme, disregarding the fact that the host society might be as diverse and stratified as migrants themselves (King & Lulle, 2016).

Integration generally refers to the incorporation of immigrants into an existing social system. The way they adapt, are assimilates, acculturated, incorporated or socially

included into this new environment has always been important in sociological research (Alba & Nee, 1997; Snel & Leerkes, 2006), although scholars have developed diverse and often contradictory definitions and concepts of integration over time.

Schoenbach et al. (2017: 2) and Hochman and Heilbrunn (2018: 104) refer to Berry (1990) who first defined the term **acculturation as the process of adapting one's behaviour, values and beliefs as a result of exposure to people with different cultural backgrounds**. The four forms of acculturation proposed by Berry, namely integration, separation, marginalisation and assimilation, can be positioned between the notions of orientation towards the culture of origin and orientation towards the host culture of the receiving country (Schoenbach et al., 2017: 2). From a different standpoint, Esser (2009), cited by (Brand et al., 2017) and (Schoenbach et al., 2017), suggests three dimensions of social integration to further define acculturation: Integration through common practices and cognitive representations, integration through social interaction and integration through identification.

On the other hand, **some scholars follow the Portes and Rivas' (2011) notion of segmented assimilationism** (the papers citing Spanish Legacies), understood as a structuralist approach. This means cultural and structural accommodation in society could be disassociated. The authors do not distinguish integration from assimilation, but **strongly emphasise the importance of the context of reception as a major determinant** of the courses of the adaptation processes (Kalter, 2018). Thus, from a social network analysis perspective, Vacca et al., (2018) understand integration as cohesion in the host society, that to achieve a higher acculturation it is important to maintain separate groups of transnational contacts or, in other words, keep some contact with natives and people from the country of origin. In this line integration could be understood as well-being, with access to health services as an important indicator (Bermúdez Quintana, 2015).

Many scholars highlight rather that **integration also involves the native population's adaptation** to immigrants (Rodríguez García et al, 2015, citing: Berry 1997; Huddleston, Niessen, and Tjaden 2013). Mainly in the works about education, integration is understood to be cooperative knowledge, where the other is also common knowledge (Martin-Mendoza, 2018; Martinez Chicon & Olmos Alcaraz, 2015; Nikleva & Pena Garcia, 2018; Padilla, Alcaraz, Azevedo, Olmos Alcaraz, & Azevedo, 2018; Padilla & Cuberos-Gallardo, 2016; Soriano-Ayala, Gonzalez-Jimenez, & José, 2015), thus differing from assimilation, which only points at the adaptation of one of the parts. From a social network analysis, Vacca (2018) defines structural assimilation in terms of immigrants' embeddedness in primary-group social networks of native contacts in the host country. From a transnational perspective, maintaining co-ethnic networks leads to a positive attachment to the destination country and more successful integration outcomes (Toma & Castagnone, 2015).

Something that must be emphasised is that **integration is studied both as a specific condition to measure, or as an expected result** that arises from other dimensions. For example, Levecque and Van Rossem (2015) take migrant integration at an individual and

national level to study mental health and depression in migrant people, affirming this is dependent on different forms of migrant integration. Alaminos et al. (2018) study the immigrant participation in Spain as an effect on integration instead of being an indicator to understand how a migrant is integrated. On the other hand, Panichella (2018) highlights that the integration of immigrants can be measured, and hence is a result of two occupational indicators: the probability of being employed, and the probability of avoiding the unskilled working class.

There are also works that point out the different effect of the same factors. For example, Rodríguez-García et al. (2015) study the intermarriage influence on integration concluding that 'it is complex and multidirectional: intermarriage has a direct effect on some dimensions of integration (such as the expansion and diversification of personal/social networks) but has no relationship (such as identification with the society of destination) or a bidirectional relationship (for example, to learn official languages) for others' (:223). In Italy, integration is given by the number of mixed marriages compared to a given density of the population, going so far as to argue that in high-density contexts, such as a metropolis, the number of mixed marriages is growing (Agliari et al., 2018). In the same direction, integration is considered to be a result of a relationship between foreigners and natives, so that the more relationships there are between the two populations, the more migrants will be integrated (Arcidiacono et al., 2017). Even before marriage, some have tried to understand the level of integration of migrants through the number of dates on online meeting platforms between foreigners and natives, platforms that paradoxically tend to emphasise a separation of 'different', enhancing similarity between people (Powell, 2016).

There is a consensus on the fact that **integration is a multi-dimensional concept**, although there is no agreement on its main dimensions, a common differentiation is between socio-economic aspects and social and cultural aspects (Snel & Leerkes, 2006).

Ager and Strang (2004) well-known framework proposes ten domains: employment, housing, health and education are the 'markers' that point at a progress towards integration, these are also 'means' because they mutually reinforce each other; social connections play also a crucial role reflected on social bridges, bonds and links (see participation and ICT), language and cultural knowledge and safety and stability are regarded as 'facilitators' to integration, while rights and citizenship represent the legal basis on which all other domains are based ((King & Lulle, 2016). As Waitemata (2016: 21) points out 'real **integration is a multifaceted process, which goes beyond inter-cultural understanding or access to the labour market and involves housing, education, health, social services, as well as personal, political and cultural life**. Obstacles in any one of these areas can have knock-on effects on others'.

In most studies **integration is defined in relation to native-born population** and the goal would be to have equal rights (and obligations) in policy terms (MIPEX, i.e. equal access to the job market) or the same outcomes (OECD, i.e. unemployment rates). In most domains immigrants tend to have worse economic and social outcomes than the native-born, although

these differences tend to reduce as the length of stay increases (OECD, 2018b). **While the socio-economic aspects of integration unquestionably remain the main focus of policy-making, the sociocultural aspect and societal aspects beyond individual or migrant agency, has become more relevant** (Bruquetas Callejo, 2015).

The integration of migrants and their descendants, and the measures to tackle barriers and facilitate participation **have increasingly become a key policy area** (Eurostat, 2018a). The Zaragoza Declaration adopted in 2010 identified policy areas relevant to migrant integration, mainly employment, education, social inclusion and participation that are regularly monitored through a series of indicators; these have been complemented by Eurostat with additional indicators on health, housing, regional employment and information on second-generation migrants (Eurostat, 2018a). The Action Plan of the European Commission on the integration of third-country nationals envisages actions in five key areas that are relevant for MICADO's innovation action: education, labour market integration and access to vocational training; help to secure access to basic services, improve reception and housing conditions, and promote active participation and the social inclusion of third-country nationals (European Commission, 2016).

Integration at a regional and local level

At the EU and national levels, there has been an **increasing recognition of the fundamental relevance of the local and regional governance** dimension of integration policies. It has been noted that an important part of integration policy has been designed or implemented at the sub-national level that manages **40% of public spending and 60% of public investment** in key integration-enhancing areas, such as education, housing and public services (OECD, 2016).

These studies stress that **in practice integration takes place at the local level, and cities are focal spots** (OECD, 2018d). Obtaining data at the right scale is hence essential to improve our policies for migrant integration (OECD, 2018d). According to the OECD (2018) the **lack of adequate coordination between the different levels** of governance is a major issue (for nearly 90% of the 72 cities surveyed) which many cities work around by engaging and collaborating with local civil society groups (OECD, 2018d).

Furthermore, migrants are generally **more spatially concentrated than natives in metropolitan and capital-city regions** (Diaz Ramirez et al., 2018; OECD, 2018d), places where there are already large migrant communities, particularly if the origin is non-EU (OECD, 2018d) and they present different problems and situations at this level. For example, the unemployment gap between migrants and natives is on average 20% narrower in capital regions than in the rest of the country (OECD, 2018c). **Cities are the places where issues concerning migrant inclusion will be urgently and tangibly addressed** in oncoming years, as local governments are going to play an increasingly central role in developing policies that consider the human rights of migrants and their inclusion into the economic, social and cultural spheres of urban life. (UNU Network, 2015).

Assessing migrants' characteristics to the specific local situation, for example, migrants' education or employment status, language level, the needs and availability of housing and public services, is therefore critical to ensure effective integration and multilevel governance (Diaz Ramirez et al., 2018). Successful approaches to integration require **multiple local solutions based on local needs, rather than top-down public policy approaches** (Waitemata, 2016). Others like the EU Project Data Challenge on the Integration of Migrants in Cities (D4I) stress the **local aspects of migration and how issues of migrant concentration, diversity, spatial segregation intersect with integration processes in the labour market, education, housing** market, public perceptions and electoral outcomes (Tintori et al., 2018)

Experiences have already shown that integration is a long-term process, so even if the inflow has and will probably decline, the Member States most affected by the increase of arrivals will have to face challenges in the years to come. As a recent research study (Konle-Seidl, 2018) points out, as it is impossible to estimate how many people will eventually stay in the country, it is difficult to assess even the need for these integration measures. Some authors define integration as a process of transition and empowerment in which the individual goes from dependence to autonomy, hence policy measures should aim at facilitating this transition and empowerment, whose ultimate goal is emancipation (Bruquetas Callejo, 2015).

Participation and integration

Participation in society is considered to be one of the main factors, or an indicator of a greater or lesser integration in the scientific debate. Specifically, in MICADO we adopt this approach considering integration as not just the mere consecution of material outcomes, mainly labour integration, but as social inclusion, which entails having social networks, political and cultural contacts with natives (sports, art, events, etc.) agency and participation in society.

The interplay of **social exchange and social integration** has been analysed abundantly: Integration happens in everyday social interactions, and one key factor is the development of informal social contacts after migration (Maliepaard & Schacht, 2018: 860). The importance of participation cannot be stressed enough, as it interacts with the aforementioned central domains of housing, health, education and labour. Participation can increase **social and cultural identification with the host country, it supports language acquisition and facilitates social contacts**.

A more traditional vision assimilates **political participation with integration and active citizenship.** An example of this is curious, as it refers to Scandinavian migrant retirees in Spain (Gustafson & Cardozo, 2017), who are in a very good situation, both legal and economically, and they emphasise this participation and the necessity to speak Spanish as a moral obligation to achieve integration. In this vein, a way to measure the integration level in a society is by including migrants in electoral lists (Burchianti & Zapata-Barrero, 2017). Different scholars have highlighted the frequency of migrant presence in left-wing parties, for

example. It is not necessarily done to improve a migrant's integration but is instrumental to the party itself and its values, although, at the same time, it is precisely the migrant's presence that makes the organisation itself evolve and change (Cappiali, 2017). When referring to migrants' participation in trade unions, there is a more immediate positive impact in terms of integration (Marino, 2015). But as Pilati (2016) shows, the political level considered, as well as the structure of political organisations and the breadth and strength of the networks in which these organisations work, will have a determining influence on the political inclusion of migrants placed within them, leading in some cases to situations of actual 'exclusion' (Pilati, 2016a).

Another issue emerging from the debate, albeit not a dominant subject, is how the participation of native population in debates on migrants can, in fact, generate a mechanism of delegitimisation of the political participation of migrants themselves, contrary to the idea of open debate as a democratic practice (Bardan & Coman, 2016), which leads to a paradoxical situation of citizen participation delegitimising the inclusion of foreigners and their participation in consultative processes.

Refugee and migrant political groupings such as the Noborder movement (Gauditz, 2017), as well as **self-help organisations** or refugee theatres (Bhimji, 2016) are a vantage point, but responsibility also lies in civil society, and the intercultural opening up of society's institutions (Free and Hanseatic City of Hamburg, 2017: 10). Some scholars in Spain are paying attention to micro-levels, not only in local contexts, but also **communitarian** ones, where Perez-Agote (2012) found that there are different cleavages for migrants in different societies, such as **religious** organisations because they become places where the people go to deal with their daily problems (Perez Ganan, 2018). As a last remark we want to stress that integration is also heavily influenced by discrimination, as mentioned above. Comparative studies have found that the tone in German media discourse relating to immigration is significantly more negative compared to Netherlands and France (Koopmans und Schaeffer 2016). Germany has also seen an increase in xenophobic violence and crime with a peak in 2015 and 2016, including attacks on asylum centres (Sachverständigenrat deutscher Stiftungen für Integration und Migration 2019: 12). Frequently, an asserted incompatibility of Islam with Christian values is taken as an argument. Studies refute these prejudiced positions, but religious minorities in Europe encounter a relatively secularised majority group - which might partly explain discrimination. However, religiosity does not become less important in following generations, which suggests that it will continue to affect different dimensions of integration (Carol und Schulz 2018, S. 76). Adding to this, experiencing discrimination based on an ethnic group membership can lead to increased identification and consciousness, leading to a reinforcement of perceived religious barriers between communities (Celik 2015, S. 1649).

In this line, different activities like doing sport in cities encourage the establishment of meeting places for people with the same trouble finding social and support networks. This is the case of Seville, where authors have found interesting dynamics of public space

appropriation carried out by some Latin-American migrant groups (Martín-Díaz & Cuberos-Gallardo, 2016).

Several papers are focused on migrants' participation in **sports** and the impact of this participation in terms of integration, as well as the ability of sports federations and informal sports organisations to ensure or hinder foreign presence (Mauro, 2017; Sterchele and Saint-Blancat, 2015). There are also many papers that focus on demonstrating that participating in sports can have a positive influence on physical and mental health[11]. A study by Schoenbach et al. shows an increasing gap in sports participation between migrant and native populations after the transition to retirement, as well as in migrants who are more separated from the native population (2017, S. 1).

Finally some authors stress the importance of ethnic-**media** on facilitating integration, Diez and Dasilva (2016) study the importance of the different Latin radios created by migrants' associations, both to accompany and provide information to newcomers and link the different associations in the country.

ICT and integration

Public services have increasingly become digitalised and directly accessible online by the public, citizens and residents. According to the last Digital Economy and Society Index (DESI) [12] report of 2019 **the demand side of digital public services is growing, as 64% of EU residents have used public services online and the provision of government services online is also on the rise** (European Commission, 2019e).

In digital public services, the Consortium countries rank above the EU average except for Germany. Spain ranks 4th among EU countries with a high level of online interaction between public authorities and citizens as 76% of Spanish internet users actively engage with e-government services. For e-health services, Spain ranks 5th in the EU. In the area of e-health, the measures taken by the Autonomous Regions include the creation of

[11] See chapter 1.5 on health and integration

[12] The Digital Economy and Society Index (DESI) is a composite index that summarises relevant indicators on Europe's digital performance. One of its five dimensions measures Digital Public Services through the collection of eight indicators: the percentage of those internet users who need to submit forms to the public administration (the e-government users indicator); the amount of data already known to public authorities that is pre-filled in forms presented to the user (the pre-filled forms indicator); the number of steps required when dealing with governmental bodies can be carried out completely online (the online service completion indicator); the degree to which public services for businesses are interoperable and cross-border (the digital public services for businesses indicator); the government's commitment to open data (the open data indicator); the percentage of people who use online health and care services without having to go to a hospital or doctor's surgery (the e-health services indicator); the extent to which general practitioners use electronic networks to exchange medical data with other healthcare providers and professionals (the medical data exchange indicator); and the extent to which general practitioners are using electronic networks to transfer prescriptions to pharmacists (the e-prescription indicator) (European Commission, 2019e) (European Commission, 2019e) (European Commission, 2019e) (European Commission, 2019e) (European Commission, 2019e).

comprehensive health web portals and e-health mobile applications that allow patients to access information concerning them via their smartphones (European Commission, 2019d). Belgium ranks 13th in digital public services, above the EU average, representing an improvement from previous years. Belgium performs particularly well in medical data exchange and e-prescription where it ranks 11th in the EU, although only 51% of Belgian residents use the internet to engage with e-government services. Since 2018 residents have been able to identify themselves when using government and private applications such as medical records, taxes and pensions, home banking, etc. using a digital identification app called 'itsme', the first mobile eIDAS12 qualified electronic signatures and enables users to sign any document with a smartphone, a system currently used by 800,000 Belgians. The Belgian federal government also monitors and reports on progress in a transparent fashion by way of a digital dashboard (European Commission, 2019a).

Italy stands in the 18th position in digital public services among EU countries. Although it performs very well in open data (4th in the rank) and e-health services (8th in the rank), there is a low level of online interaction between public authorities and the public, with only 37% of Italian internet users using online services to communicate with government services. The government is developing a smartphone app in an effort to increase this interaction (European Commission, 2019c). Germany is the Consortium country that ranks the lowest in digital public services (24th in the rank). While only 43% of German residents use online e-government services, there has been an improvement from previous years. It is expected that the Online Access Act (Onlinezugangsgesetz, OZG) involving all federal levels, which must be implemented by 2022, will substantially increase the administrative services offered electronically via the administrative portals of the Federal Government, Länder and municipalities, linked to a portal network (Portalverbund). There have been also big advancements in the health realm where results are expected to be patent by 2018-2021 (European Commission, 2019b). DESI provides an overview on public data accessibility and government-citizen interaction that serves as basis but does not necessarily correspond to the regional or city level. Here, for example, Hamburg has an Urban Data Platform containing open and non-open data of different authorities and geospatial information in several categories, for example, education, culture, urban development and planning, environment and traffic, which are distributed via standardised web services (Cserpes, Bindreiter, Forster, & Schuster, 2019).

Digitisation is also a priority for the European Union and it has allocated €9.3 billion to fund over 3,000 projects in ICT-related areas through its Research and Innovation Framework, Horizon2020. The Societal Challenges involving ICT are financed in all seven societal challenges, particularly health and well-being, clean and efficient energy, smart transport, inclusive and innovative societies, and security and freedom. The use of technology and applications to facilitate the inclusion of immigrants already appeared in the European Union's Research and Innovation funding programme for 2007-2013 (FP7), for example, in the MAZELTOV project. This perspective has been maintained, expanding with new approaches and functionalities in H2020, with projects such as MICADO, MIICT,

NADINE and REBUILD. After the migration crisis, the number of direct and cross-cutting projects devoted to migration, refugee and asylum issues has increased considerably. New topics are observed, such as the inclusion of highly qualified scientist refugees in the European Union, with projects such as SCIREA or LAFS, coexisting with projects that seek to improve the skills of workers to enhance their inclusion in European societies, like SIRIUS and CARE. There are projects dedicated to children and young people, enhancing their ability to integrate into host societies like CHILD UP. Migration, refugees and asylum seekers are included in a cross-sectional manner in different projects that work on aspects such as populism, governance, diversity in societies or resilience. DEMOS, PROPREBEL, MIGNEX and RESPOND are some examples of projects where migration issues are included secondarily.

Developments in 'smart' technologies and 'datafication' are now an integral part of how societies are organised, the services we are able to access, and how decisions are made, and migrants and refugees are no exception to this but rather a preeminent target of these policies (Metcalfe & Dencik, 2019). The **potential of these technologies** is enormous and there has been a shift on Academia in regard to the **risks these data-driven technologies and policies** entail, from previous concerns about privacy, security and data protection, scholars have recently moved towards the study of data justice and how these **allegedly neutral, scientific decision-making procedures often unveil structural inequalities or discrimination** (Dencik et al., 2019). The so-called refugee crisis of 2015 had an impact on migration policies at both a national and European level that **boosted the deployment of digital infrastructures and data-driven technologies**, not only as a key element of the provision of humanitarian aid to refugees in camps for example, but also as a central control component, increasingly organised 'around a set of interoperable databases, digital registration technologies, identity verifications, and various algorithmically processed risk assessments' that entail a certain form of social sorting that holds substantial political significance (Metcalfe & Dencik, 2019; Sánchez-Monedero, 2018).

According to several studies **migrants have similar or higher levels of ICT use and skills**; they **are more connected and are more frequent digital users** on average than the general population. This is particularly true for newly arrived migrants (less than 3 years in the host country) than for people who have been at least 10 years in the country, thus showing its relevance at the earlier stages of settlement, and younger (under 55 years old) and highly educated people, students or white collar employees (Lupiañez et al., 2015).

Digital media can be used as a tool when planning or undertaking the move, to maintain ties with the homeland and encourage integration or social inclusion in the host country. It can be used to access the labour market, to seek information on legal procedures or channels, achieve social and political participation, social relationships and for even leisure and entertainment activities. Hence, **digital media is currently a source of integration that can support migrants' social capital for bonding** (with the homeland or homeland communities settled in the new country) or **bridging** (interacting with the host society and

institutions), or as a potential new source of social exclusion from relevant networks (Lupiañez et al., 2015).

Although it appears that migrants use ICT for information and communication rather than for social participation, employment seeking, or learning and education purposes, the internet and IT adoption skills are correlated and have the statistically significant effect of increasing the employability and integration (well-being) of migrants (Lupiañez et al., 2015).

ICT also intersects with gender, as migrant women seem to have less technical experience and positive attitudes toward technology (Castaño, et al., 2011) and while they also use ICT for communication purposes with relatives and peers regardless of their age, educational levels, and cultural background, their use of it to access information and labour integration, although regarded as important, seems to be less employed in practice (Vancea & Boso, 2015). According to some studies, women show a more negative view on the impact of digital technologies and they also tend to be less informed than men about new technologies (Tarín Quirós et al., 2018), which also reflects the fact that despite having similar levels of basic digital skills, women tend to undermine their own capabilities and skills to a greater extent than men (Tarín Quirós et al., 2018). This gender bias can and has also an impact on the lack of diversity in technology development, considering the growing importance of big data and algorithms in our lives.

Many websites and apps such as 'Welkom in Antwerp' have been developed in the last years with the purpose of easing the integration process and facilitate information to migrants and refugees[13], albeit few are developed by country authorities, trusted entities or NGOs.

2.5 Health and integration

While migrants are often comparatively healthy (Rechel, 2011) and, unlike popular belief, refugees and migrants are exposed mainly to infectious diseases that are common in Europe, (European Centre for Disease Prevention and Control, 2015), physical and mental health issues need be identified early to provide adequate support (European Commission, 2016; Levecque & Van Rossem, 2015; OECD, 2016) as migrants often face **particular health challenges and are vulnerable to a number of threats to their physical and mental health, which are many times poorly understood by local authorities or professionals that are not prepared to respond adequately**.

In response to the refugee rise in 2015, the EU Health Programme provided financial support to the Member States and research projects (European Commission, 2015) under the highest pressure to integrate migrants into health systems and train their health workforce. Mental health issues were found to be important for many refugees and asylum seekers, and migrants seem to be vulnerable to occupational diseases, maternal and child problems, and poor mental health associated with uncertainty, poor living conditions, precarious

[13] For a detailed list of these apps and technologies see MICADO Deliverable D.1.3 ICT Challenges for MICADO (Cserpes et al., 2019) www.micadoproject.eu

employment or trauma. **Some evidence has been found in relation to the provision of access to healthcare** for migrants in an irregular situation, suggesting that enabling access to migrants on a regular base rather than in emergency cases, was economically cost-saving for governments (European Union Agency for Fundamental Rights, 2015). Migrant's health is **not only associated to European and national health policies and access to the health system, but more generally to social exclusion, employment, education and housing conditions** (Rechel, 2011).

Individual characteristics affecting integration

From a health perspective, according to scientific debate and reports on the condition of **migrants in Italy, Belgium, Germany and Spain, the migrant health profile is increasingly characterised by conditions of suffering due to inadequate reception, social fragility and poor accessibility to services** (Caritas and Migrantes 2018). In Germany, studies have shown that migrants' health is often worse than that of native populations. **Factors that explain this health gap include different exposure to risk factors, traumatic experiences during migration, increased occupational strain and discrimination, as well as lower socio-economic resources.** Additionally, migrants face **access barriers to health services due to language and cultural differences** (Brand et al., 2017; Eckenwiler 2018). Eckenwiler (2018: 563) found out that a lack of private space, access to outdoors, and isolation from broader social surroundings adversely affect the health of elderly migrants. Belgium also reports a poorer health outcome for migrants in comparison to natives (Dauvrin, Derluyn, Coune, Verrept, & Lorant, 2012; Moullan & Jusot, 2014; Vandenheede et al., 2015).

Self-reported health is a good indicator for the individual perception of health and is a predictor of healthcare use (Van Roy, Vyncke, Piccardi, De Maesschalck, & Willems, 2018). In a recent analysis of the health gap between migrants and Belgian natives, **migrants reported a poorer self-assessed health than natives** (Moullan & Jusot, 2014), especially those coming from Turkey, Morocco and Southern Europe (Lorant et al., 2008). Logically, not only self-reported health predicts healthcare use, as this is strongly influenced by socio-economic status, linguistic limitations and higher illiteracy rates, consequently leading to lower healthcare access.

Studies in this field demonstrate that **many individual factors play a significant role on immigrant's health: for example, socio-economic vulnerabilities, health status at migration, social networks, literacy level, gender-specific vulnerabilities, migration history, length of stay, etc.** (Moullan & Jusot, 2014; Vandenheede et al., 2015).

Migration history and the place of origin influence migrants' health condition: for example, in Belgium the 'healthy migrant effect' is greater in first-generation Turkish and Moroccan migrants and is much less present in first-generation sub-Saharan African migrants (Vandenheede et al., 2015). Yet, this effect reverses over time: migrants tend to have a higher prevalence of chronic diseases and adverse mental health than natives (Lorant &

Bhopal, 2010a; Meys, Hermans, & Van Audenhove, 2014; Moullan & Jusot, 2014; Van Roy et al., 2018). In Spain, Latin-American migrants specifically show no differences to natives. The health condition of the Roma population represents a case treated separately, reflecting on their access to multiple, fragmented care and this is often due to a lifestyle made up of constant movements (Alunni, 2015; (Escobar-Ballesta et al., 2018).

This may be due to the **diverse pathways in which socio-economic inequalities are often central** in understanding differences in ethnic or migrant health-inequalities (Lorant et al., 2008) and social networks (Van Roy et al., 2018). Migrants – particularly those with a non-Western background – are worse off in terms of education, employment and housing status[14] (Vandenheede et al., 2015), entailing a higher risk for physical and psychological issues (Van Roy et al., 2018). Meanwhile the Latin-American case in Spain can be explained by factors like age, sex, but especially **social suppor**t (Salinero-Fort et al., 2015). Integration is in this sense defined as wellness (Bermúdez Quintana, 2015) and **social networks** play a crucial role in migrants' health and well-being, since they are instrumental for social and emotional stability. Following this argument, Bak-Klimek, Karatzias, Elliott, & Maclean (2015) affirm that that social support and integration are significant predictors of well-being.

Age also plays a role in migrant integration with a set of studies especially in Italy and Germany that deal with young adolescent migrants, specifically in relation to drug and alcohol consumption (Lorant et al. 2016; Donath et al. 2016)) and behavioural disorders (Stevens et al., 2015; Ventriglio et al., 2017). According to the studies analysed, in first and second-generation migrant adolescents, there are high levels of dissatisfaction that can turn into bullying and aggression and in some cases into more obvious behavioural disorders. The gender variable, contrary to expectations, does not have a decisive impact on this phenomenon, even in adolescent migrant girls; there is the same gap compared to Italian companions, although slightly less marked than in the case of males (Stevens et al., 2015). In the same vein scholars affirm that adolescent migrants who only have relationships with other migrants are at the same time less exposed to obvious risks to their physical and mental development. In part, this risk also derives from the comparison generated in the encounter between migrant and native adolescents that can lead to greater dissatisfaction with their own living conditions. Moreover, as noted by Ventriglio et al. (2017), these varied forms of dissatisfaction among young migrants could lead to forms of radicalisation or extreme violence, a risk that could be partly solved by facilitating ethno- psychiatric care.

A major area of concern arising from the SLR in all countries is **mental health, dissatisfaction and psychological disorders**. Migration in itself is no cause for mental health issues, but **discrimination** or a hostile reception in the host country are additional triggering stressors (Missinne & Bracke, 2012). Risk factors are mostly socio-economic strains and effects of discrimination (Levecque & van Rossem 2015: 49). Social inclusion and the living environment have been found to be important factors influencing families'

[14] See chapter 1.6, 1.7 and 1.8

psychosocial stress levels (Metzner et al. 2015: 743). Metzner et al. have studied specific support measures for migrant families in Hamburg. They found that in order to reach migrants with specific support measures without discriminating or stigmatising their migration background, support measures were screening risk factors such as social isolation and socioeconomic difficulties, instead of migration background (2015: 747).

At the same time, these depressive pathologies are also influenced by work itself and the subjective perception a migrant has of their life and work. In fact, according to the literature consulted, there is a correlation between work-related stress and ethnicity (Capasso, Zurlo, Smith, 2018), a relationship influenced by several factors that affect this relationship, both individual and cultural factors: factors related to the type of work done and the resources present in the workplace, and the subjective perception that migrants have of their work. Italian literature also identifies a specific relationship between discrimination of a migrant in the workplace and their psychological status. From the sample of Di Napoli et al. (2017), 15.8% feel discriminated and among these people, those that arrived at least 5 years ago have a higher possibility of developing psychological problems, affecting the unemployed as well as migrants from the Americas. Moreover, literature shows a low probability of psychological problems related to discrimination in the workplace for foreign populations from Asian countries and for all those foreigners who work in north-eastern Italy, unlike those who work in the north-west or in central and southern Italy, where discriminatory pressure is stronger. This is also largely due to the political and social context, which is more favourable for migrants in regions with a left-wing political tradition and geared towards welcoming new populations. Also, in regard to migrants' health in the workplace, scientific debate claims that there is a greater incidence of accidents at work in this part of the population than in native workers in the same sector, particularly in the engineering and construction sectors. (Giraudo et al., 2017)

Legal status also has an impact on migrants and refugees' health and access to healthcare, as will be explained in the contextual factors affecting health. There are few studies on the health of asylum seekers and only one present in the bibliographic collection specifically highlights the condition of extreme psychological fragility of asylum seekers, largely due to previous traumas but made worse by the feeling of uselessness generated during the period of compulsory detention in the country of arrival (Lintner and Elsen, 2018).

Several papers address the topic of migrants' participation in **sports** in regard to the positive influence of sport participation on physical and mental health (Anderson et al. 2019). However, simply increasing sport participation is not enough and could even do more harm than good, as 'participation in sport among people of very diverse backgrounds, when not properly managed, can lead to exclusion, conflict, and a reinforcement of prejudice. It can also create situations that trigger trauma, such as failure or touch' (Anderson et al. 2019, S. 90–91). Scholars therefore call for a careful design of sport provision as well as proper training for those who deliver these programmes. That way, a number of both mental and social health benefits can be obtained, , such as relaxation, self-confidence, the opportunity

to acquire coping skills and a sense of community, as well as build friendships, although these are highly dependent on additional elements intentionally and thoughtfully added to sport, through settings and contexts designed by appropriate staff (Anderson et al., 2019)

Language proficiency affects integration, while unfamiliarity with the language may hinder integration into a host country, worsening both physical and mental health (Salinero-Fort et al., 2015).

Contextual characteristics affecting integration

Escobar-Ballesta et al. (2018) defend integration **as access to health services**. There is a correlation between discrimination problems and health problems and discrimination can lead to depression. Many studies in all four countries point at a correlation between **discrimination** and health problems; it emerges that discrimination can lead to depression and that the relationship between discrimination and medical conditions is strong and present especially in first-generation migrants, while for the second and third generations this correlation is less evident (Borrell, Palencia, Bartoll, Ikram, & Malmusi, 2015; Levecque & Van Rossem, 2015). Perceived discrimination forms a barrier to access healthcare: patients from ethnic minorities living in Belgium felt more discriminated in primary healthcare settings than the native population (Hanssens, Detollenaere, Van Pottelberge, Baert, & Willems, 2016). In Spain, the Roma population suffer marginalisation and social exclusion in education, housing and employment, which are determining health factors (Fernandez-Feito et al., 2019).

Health status is determined by a migrant's **legal status** and their residence permit: undocumented migrants are entitled to healthcare under the 1996 law on urgent medical aid (Lorant & Bhopal, 2010b; Roberfroid et al., 2015), but they more frequently face precarious living conditions and are therefore extra vulnerable to health issues (Roberfroid et al., 2015). German social law allows migrants in irregular situations - undocumented migrants, asylum seekers and failed asylum applicants – to access a restricted set of services. However, in practice, residence law hinders undocumented migrants from exercising their rights due to fear of being reported to immigration authorities (Gottlieb und Ben Mocha 2018: 355).

In this line in Italy, the health profile of migrants is increasingly characterised by conditions of suffering due to inadequate reception, social fragility and poor accessibility to services (Caritas e Migrantes 2018). According to this report, migrants' health and lack of health are affected by the **living conditions** in the country of origin (pre-migratory conditions), the migratory path, the levels of reception and inclusion in the country of arrival (post-migratory conditions): migrants also fall ill as a result of social exclusion, failure or threat of failure of their migration project, sometimes with poverty and often with difficulties in accessing social and health services. The promotion of social integration policies would enhance a better health services.

In Belgium, attitudes towards **adapting healthcare to a multicultural context** depend on the nature of the adaptation: health professionals feel they have the duty to adapt when it concerns communicating with the patient, but cultural preferences (for example, the preferred gender of a treating professional) are the patients' responsibility (Dauvrin & Lorant, 2014). However, it is the other way around in a primary care context. According to the authors, this is due to four elements: the legal framework, training of health professionals, organisational culture and adaptation to communication as a prerequisite for other adaptation issues. The legal responsibility for communication lies with the health professional, however, there is no formal training in cultural competence nor communication support, which leaves health professionals with no specific knowledge and skills when caring for migrants (Van Roy et al., 2018). On this subject, it is important to note that in Italy, there are still few scientific and organisational reflections that concentrate on training workers to deal with the presence of foreigners in the territory. As Toffle (2015) notes, for example, there are not many arguments on the issue of diagnosing patients with different cultural reference systems, which has a strong impact on how to communicate a health problem. In addition to this matter, there is a linguistic difficulty that in many cases makes foreigners' access to health care a difficult and frustrating process.

To provide asylum seekers with quick healthcare offers, examinations are carried out in arrival centres in Hamburg, where obvious injuries, illnesses and infections are screened, as well as assessing the vaccination status. The people whose asylum applications are ratified are registered with health insurance companies and given access to medical services, even though restrictions exist in comparison to the health service provision for native populations (Free and Hanseatic City of Hamburg 2017: 97). Another factor specific to refugee status is DNA testing, a practice implemented in 21 European countries facing a high volume of family reunification cases, in order to confirm biological links between the sponsor and applicants (Moreno et al. 2017: 251). However, Germany, together with only four other countries, collect and store this information in a searchable database even after the migratory process is over as part of their efforts to combat terrorism. This sharing is ordered by law and does not require the applicant's consent (Moreno et al. 2017: 263). While the practice of DNA testing can facilitate integration procedures and provide procedural efficiency, thus benefitting immigrants in situations where other evidence is unavailable or insufficient (Moreno et al. 2017: 279), it is also contested. Literature is pointing to discriminatory effects since immigrants are treated differently to citizens, and the disrespect towards immigrants' privacy and their consent to DNA testing. 'Given, that applicants have little choice about agreeing to this type of data sharing, it can be interpreted as an affront to their human rights to autonomy, dignity, and privacy' (Moreno et al. 2017: 279).

Regarding the relationship between migration and **dissatisfaction with medical care**, there is a strong dissatisfaction in the first generation, while in the second generation it decreases (Borracino et al., 2018). People with a migrant background in Belgium experience cultural and language barriers to access some health services (Dauvrin et al. 2012). For example, the 'treatment gap' – i.e. the gap between the real prevalence of persons suffering health

issues and those who receive effective treatment – for mental healthcare in Belgium is higher for people with a different ethnic-cultural background (Meys et al., 2014). This is due to different institutional barriers (for example, a categorical and fragmented organisation, lack of continuity and deinstitutionalisation), as well as cultural barriers (such as differences in views and the 'unwritten rules' in healthcare). The aforementioned analysis of the Belgian welfare survey showed a higher dissatisfaction of health care access and a higher chance of negative experiences among migrants (Van Roy et al., 2018). Perceived discrimination forms a barrier to access healthcare: patients from ethnic minorities living in Belgium felt more discriminated in primary healthcare settings than the native population (Hanssens et al., 2016).

2.6 Employment and integration

Labour market integration, in most of the countries analysed, tends to be the **most researched topic** both in European reports and journals alike, and is portrayed as the **most crucial starter** of the integration process for migrants and refugees as it 'enables migrants to **become self-reliant and provide for their families, fosters a sense of self-worth, helps to build a social network and learn about the culture** and mentality of the country in which they are living' (UNU Network, 2015). Becoming economically self-sufficient is regarded as crucial for successful integration and personal development (Waitemata, 2016).

Many recent studies conducted at both EU and national levels have analysed the main barriers and facilitating factors that influence integration, especially in the labour market: Some have carried out comprehensive investigations (Eurofound, 2016b; OECD, 2016) on the current status of labour market integration and requires further research (Eurofound, 2016a). Another group of studies concentrates on integration support measures, policies and good practices and case studies from selected countries, like Martin et al. (2016) for Austria, Denmark, France, Germany, Italy, the Netherlands, Spain, Sweden and the UK, Irastoza & Bevelander (2017) for Germany and Konle-Seidl (2018) for Austria, Germany and Sweden; the Employment Committee of the European Parliament (Konle-Seidl, R.; Bolits, 2016) focused on strategies and good practices that covered all the Member States.

According to the OECD (2018b) **in all EU and OECD countries immigrants have higher unemployment rates, especially non-EU migrants**. These differences between native-born and migrants have widened as a result of the economic crisis, especially in Southern Europe. They are also **more present in over-qualified jobs and in low-skilled jobs** (OECD, 2018b).

Individual characteristics affecting integration

The main individual factors affecting migrants' and refugees' employment outcomes (Bilgili et al., 2015) are: **education**, although the return on education is much greater for non-immigrants; **language proficiency; recognition of qualifications** (both formal and through attitudes); work experience; sex (OECD, 2018a); **age; marital status; length of stay;**

reason for migration; language proficiency (Bilgili et al., 2015; European Commission, 2016; Konle-Seidl; Bolits, 2016; OECD, 2016; Paola & Brunello, 2016; Staring et al., 2016); **social capital and networks**; and nationality (or naturalization) and ethnicity.

In the SLR equal labour participation is considered by most scholars to be the main determinant of integration (Fernández-Reino et al., 2018; Cebolla-Boado and Finotelli, 2015). Besides countries of origin, **labour market outcomes also vary across migrant groups** (for example, refugees, first-generation migrants in general, second-generation, and illegal migrants). When comparing first and second-generation migrants, it is worth noting that those of the second-generation do not perform better than first-generation migrants (Corluy et al., 2014; Danhier et al, 2014). The more time a refugee spends in the immigrant country, the less likely they will depend on social welfare. Additionally, the earlier they find a job, the better their labour market participation will be. Finally, these differences between migrant groups in the labour market also vary across regions of origin (Lens et al., 2012; Verhaeghe et al., 2012).

The vast majority of studies in Belgium find that **migrants and their descendants occupy less favourable positions in the Belgian labour market as it takes them longer to find their first job, they are often unemployed for longer periods, they find themselves more often in precarious working conditions and are more rapidly affected by an economic crisis** than their native peers (e.g., Neels & Stoop, 2000; Corluy & Verbist, 2014; FOWAS & UNIA, 2017). Nevertheless, according to data collected by governing bodies (FOWAS & UNIA, 2017), the employment percentages of people of non-Belgian descent increase faster than those of Belgian descent. Several individual or group-level factors can partly explain this difference between people of Belgian and immigrant descent. This is partly due to the unequal educational performances across ethnic groups (cfr. above; Neels & Stoop, 2000; Corluy & Verbist, 2014; Rea & Wets, 2016; Baert et al., 2016; FOWAS & UNIA, 2017). In Germany, Leopold et al. found that migrants suffer more from losing their jobs as the result of their already disadvantaged position in the labour market. As they are often younger than unemployed natives and carry more family responsibilities, they are more likely to experience poverty; furthermore, they are seldomly homeowners, which would cushion a job loss (Leopold et al. 2017).

However, in the major Italian and global cities, in the face of contemporary dynamics of ethnicity valorisation, **low-qualified jobs carried out by migrants, such as the whole set of ethnic trades, can undergo a process of touristification that is beneficial for migrant** work, which impacts the transformation of urban space. This touristification process has averted those aspects of retail gentrification which often affects street and food markets, this ‘thanks to the role played not only by the economic stakeholders of the market but also by social and religious stakeholders’, that work to integrate the new waves of migrants (Gilli e Ferrari, 2018). In this direction, the analyses carried out regarding the enhancement of Peruvian brands are also relevant and around some specific cities like Turin and it’s multicultural market.

Although the **destination country matters**, as assimilationist theories highlight, an important variable with a big influence in the four studied contexts is the **country of origin**. Sanroma et al. (2015) points out that human capital from countries with greater or equal economic and technological development is highly transferable, while the opposite is true for human capital acquired in regions with lower development or with a more distant culture or language. In this line, Aldaz Odriozola and Eguia Pena (2015) conclude that labour integration for foreigners coming from the EU15 is easier and similar to that of the native group. Also, Canada (2018) finds that nationality is a fundamental factor in the cleaning sector.

In the case of Spain, the **number of years accumulated in the labour market** reduces the risk of being unemployed 3 months later. The return from work experience is the same for natives, Spaniards born abroad, nationals from EU-15, and Asians. However, the accumulation of years in the labour market provides lower protection from job loss in the case of Latin Americans, Eastern Europeans, and Africans (Calvo Buezas, 2019) .

The country of origin also intersects **gender**, with many Asian men holding positions in sectors segregated by gender while migrant women mainly work in the care provision sector. Migrant women are identified as the most vulnerable group(Aldaz Odriozola and Eguia Pena, 2015). In Germany, second-generation Turkish women are less likely to participate in the labour force, with 74% being economically active compared to 89% in the majority group. An insightful comparative study of the participation of females in the work force after childbearing, conducted by Holland & de Valk (2017) found that among women who work, those with a Turkish-background are more likely to return to work after childbearing than German women (2017: 369). This might be explained by a general socio-cultural and socio-historical privilege of the ‘male breadwinner – female caregiver’ model that is still prevalent in Germany and explains a lower return-rate for native mothers. However, looking at the generally higher unemployment rate of Turkish-background women, an explanation could be the lack of female role models, as first-generation women were less likely to have held paid jobs in Turkey before migrating, than the mothers of the majority of European women. (Holland & de Valk, 2017: 372). On the other hand, Fernández-Reino et al. (2018) found that in ethnic minorities men have less opportunities than women to find a job in Spain.

46% of migrants and refugees in Europe are **women** and their presence is expected to increase through family reunification, while little is known yet on their integration outcomes and the specific challenges associated with poorer health and the lower education and labour market outcomes they face. Previous research suggests that there is little correlation between gender differences in participation and employment in the origin and in the host country, suggesting that these integration issues can be addressed by policy instruments, which also provide a pay-off for their children, especially their daughters (Liebig, Thomas; Tronstad, 2018). While entire communities suffer the impact of forced displacements and migration, women and girls are often the first to lose their rights to education, political participation and livelihoods. ‘Simply, crisis exacerbates gender inequalities’ (Kang, 2016).

Social relationships with the native population have been proven to provide migrants' social capital for labour market participation (Riedel, 2015: 303). This is even more important in Germany during the transition from school to employment, when occupational careers are fundamentally shaped (Riedel, 2015: 304). However, social ties with the majority population lose their significance for highly-skilled immigrants working in international corporations, as their often temporary migration is structured by occupational requirements (Riedel 2015: 304) Social ties to same-ethnic immigrants are also able to reduce poverty risks. This underlines that assimilation (giving up social ties with the own ethnic group) might not be the best integration practice (Heizmann & Boehnke, 2016: 94). A **multiple integration, meaning an embeddedness into two different networks** seems to be the most advantageous condition, allowing access to diverse resources and enabling people to bridge different social contexts (Heizmann & Boehnke, 2016: 81). In contrast with the populist discriminatory discourse in Germany, a religious childhood is not associated with lower labour force participation.

Empirical studies overwhelmingly confirm the significant effect of **education and qualifications** when entering the German labour market (Hartmann 2016; Bundesagentur für Arbeit 2019). Immigrants have a higher poverty risk, and even those second-generation immigrants with a university entrance diploma are twice as likely to be poor compared to their native peers (Heizmann & Boehnke 2016). Specifically for Turkish migrants in the case of Germany, their children have lower returns from education with regard to occupational attainment (Konyali 2017). More often the right to welfare state benefits is based on a person's work history, which predetermines migrant trajectories (Holland & de Valk 2017). This shows that ethnic inequalities strongly influence the outcomes of the next migrant generation: 'By contrast, parents who are able to close the ethnic gap in labour-market outcomes over the course of their careers gain more resources to invest in their children's education' (Hartmann 2016: 282). Previous work (Castagnone et al., 2013; Toma, 2012) showed that having studied in the destination country increases the chances of obtaining skilled employment (Toma & Castagnone, 2015).

Understanding the reasons for these labour market inequalities, scholars agree that **language skills, levels of education and social embeddedness** account for disadvantages. **A lack of language skills increases the risk of unemployment**, as they are necessary to obtain information about job openings and to communicate with possible employers. Language proficiency is key to advancing economically and acquiring social capital (Heizmann & Boehnke 2016: 83). According to different works, language proficiency is also central to the first adaptation in Spain. 'While 62.7% of those who had Spanish as their mother tongue considered that the adaptation was tolerable and smooth, the percentage of those who did not have it, although they learned it, drops to 7.5 points. The difference increases even more when Spanish is barely spoken' (20%) (Calvo Buezas 2019: 107).

In the case of refugees in Belgium, lower educational qualifications and language qualifications hinder their labour market participation (Lambrecht, 2016), as well as the educational qualifications of their parents (Verhaeghe et al., 2012) and gender (Corluy et al., 2014; Baert et al., 2016).

As for language skills and the social capital of Turkish men, for the case of Germany, Hartmann reports lower language skills among second-generation Turkish men, which possibly explains the lower labour-market outcomes (Hartmann 2016: 284). Thus, the lack of host country-specific capital contributes to lower labour-market opportunities for second-generation Turkish men in their early career (Hartmann 2016: 291). A strategic paper outlining the integration measures of the city of Hamburg also argues that migrants are obliged to learn the German language and 'accept our country's legal and social order' (Free and Hanseatic City of Hamburg, 2017: 10).

This factor should not be easily disregarded, as disadvantages can have cumulative effects over the course of life. Hartmann stresses the importance of the **early attendance of host country-specific cultural capital**, since it acts as an important factor for labour market assimilation: 'Accordingly, the importance of education for their labour-market success cannot be overstated' (Hartmann, 2016: 293).

Contextual characteristics affecting integration

As regards contextual and policy factors, the main impacts on integration (Bilgili et al., 2015) are produced by the economic situation of the host country in terms of the **unemployment rate and GDP growth**; as for overqualification rates, job quality is usually better for migrants in countries with less income inequality, better educational systems and less informal economy; flexibility of the employment market seems to have a positive effect on migrant employment rates and produces less overqualification; **easier legal access to employment, naturalisation and family reunification** have also a positive impact on employment prospects; the level of development of the countries of origin also affect the transferability of skills and an early assessment of skills greatly eases labour market access (European Commission, 2016; Konle-Seidl, R.; Bolits, 2016; Martín et al., 2016; OECD, 2016; Serban & Calleja, 2015) although surprisingly, targeted support seems to favour overqualification (Bilgili et al., 2015); finally anti-immigrant sentiments have a negative impact on migrants' labour integration.

Structural factors hampering the labour-market participation of immigrants are **discrimination** and a discouraging integration between the educational system and labour markets (Holland & de Valk 2017: 373). The German labour market is rather **rigid and also more credential-based**, mostly due to the importance of formal qualifications and vocational training, which strongly determines both entry into an occupation and further mobility opportunities (Panichella 2018: 15). Since the peak in asylum applications in 2015, labour migration has moved into the focus of policies. The Federal government has recently enacted a law ('Fachkräfteeinwanderungsgesetz', FEG) offering access to the labour market

for third-country nationals whose qualifications do not correspond with German standards (Sachverständigenrat deutscher Stiftungen für Integration und Migration, 2019). In the course of Hamburg's intercultural opening of their administration, several measures have been implemented to provide labour market integration, such as priority given to youth and adolescent refugees when it comes to training and the recognition of professional qualifications, which also applies to those with practical experience and non-formal skills (Free and Hanseatic City of Hamburg, 2017: 56).

However, labour market inequalities persist, and national **institutional arrangements can create structural disadvantages** and have consequences for individual life chances (Konyali, 2017). Two examples are a lack of union activity in the sectors where migrants frequently work (Bouali, 2018) and wage discrimination. Within EU accession countries, employees from Bulgaria and Czech Republic suffer from the highest wage discrimination: their wages are up to 14% lower than those of their German counterparts. However, foreigners from EU accession countries do fare better than migrants from non-accession and third countries (Bernhard & Bernhard, 2016: 68).

Historically, labour migrants arriving in Germany during the industrialisation period enjoyed high employability due to a shortage of native workforce, but at the same time were pushed towards the bottom of the occupational structure, thus reducing their opportunities for upward career mobility (Panichella, 2018: 20). Research on social stratification shows that Germany has a very rigid labour system, where especially unskilled blue-collar workers encounter strong barriers for upward movement (Panichella, 2018: 15). One scientific explanation for these institutional disadvantages and discriminatory practices in the labour market are lower access to vocational training and a lower response rate to applications with foreign sounding names (Schaeffer et al., 2016; Tjaden, 2017; Gerhards und Kaempfer, 2017).

However, discrimination seems to be more likely in contexts where hiring processes are less standardised and more informal, such as in small and medium-sized enterprises (Tjaden, 2017). In an insightful study of high-skilled immigrant workers, Konyali showed that in international organizations, due to the competence-oriented and innovation-driven nature of the respective jobs, the business sector seems more open to newcomers, regardless of individual background characteristics. Secondly, people in such companies seemed to be more used to cultural differences and had less rigid, more permeable hierarchies that offered more possibilities for individual development (Konyali, 2017: 273).

The main dynamic that characterises the work of migrants in Italy is the **limited access to skilled jobs, meaning that many migrants often suffer a downgrade** compared to their first job in their countries of origin (skills and diplomas are often not recognised in Italy). In other words, there are very few opportunities to work at the same level as in previous jobs and great chances for overqualification. This phenomenon impacts the lives of all migrants, women and men, although many **women are at greater risk of permanent downgrading, with even fewer opportunities than men to access upward labour mobility processes**. In short, the careers of immigrants in Italy do not follow in any way the trajectories assumed

by assimilation theories, since the downgrading of work once people arrive in Italy, is not followed by an improvement in a migrant's working conditions and their status over the years, which is thus configured as a definitive scenario (Fellini e Guetto, 2019). There is another effect in care-giving professions, in which migrants play a leading role, particularly the nursing profession (Stievano et al., 2017). In regard to this specific issue, results show that for Indian nurses in Italy, emigration is important to gain opportunities to expand economic and social privileges (Stievano et al., 2017).

Structural factors related to the rigid Belgian labour market also apply, such as the high salary costs and laws concerning dismissal. Furthermore, the search for work is accompanied by a lot of costs, such as transport and childcare, and the additional income a second earner would bring into the household is often insufficiently rewarded. The Belgian labour market is characterised as being very immobile, which complicates the entry of newly arrived migrants. Additionally, this labour market is very segmented. While one group works in a primary labour market and receives numerous good labour conditions and protective measures, the second group works in a secondary labour market, confronted by unstable jobs, insecure working conditions and lower wages. Apart from being overrepresented in the group of people with a low level of education in Belgium, people with an immigrant background are also confronted by specific factors, such as discrimination. This discrimination is also more visible in sectors that hardly can be accessed by this group of people of immigrant descent, in contrast to the sectors where most of them actually work. In this light, the importance of networks for job searching and potential discriminatory effects should be recognised as well (FOWAS & UNIA, 2017; Baert et al., 2015; 2018). Finally, we should point out that there is a blooming labour market for migrant entrepreneurs in Belgium (Lens et al., 2015a).

In Belgium having a work permit is crucial for finding a job and job protection. Otherwise, people end up working with illegal contracts and very insecure working conditions (Kagné & Martiniello, 2010). Furthermore, when looking at labour market outcomes, a distinction should be made between people who have been naturalised and have acquired Belgian nationality, and those who have not (Corluy, Marx & Verbist, 2011). Former asylum seekers need more time to find a job in the labour market compared to other immigrant categories (Lens et al., 2017), although legal status is not always important (Rea and Wets, 2016).

Social class is postulated as a key element in the social analysis of migrations and xenophobia, being an elementary and differentiating factor in the migratory experience of immigrants in Spain, as well as in other crucial spaces of social coexistence, such as discrimination suffered in labour exploitation, acts of racism and xenophobia, and consequently, a lesser or more painful social integration (Calvo Buezas 2019: 15) Thus, relating this with employment, the author asserts that quality employment is the best integration factor and this is **also influenced by religion**. 23.3% of Catholics had jobs and were employed as domestic workers, compared to higher percentages among Evangelicals/Protestants (32.6%) and Muslims (Calvo Buezas 2019: 109). Episodes of

discrimination suffered by individuals of immigrant origin in the labour market have negative consequences for their integration into receiving societies (Aparicio Gómez, Biderbost, & Tornos Cubillo, 2018; Rezaei, 2018). According to Calvo Buezas (2019) employment is the main determinant of the subjective well-being and integration of migrants, hence it should be the main policy area to be addressed to foster labour market integration, convert or acquire training and qualifications, and prevent exploitation and discrimination.

2.7 Education and integration

Educational barriers and underachievement for first-generation and even second-generation migrants (De Schutter, 2016; Martín et al., 2016; Staring et al., 2016) can **explain the obstacles faced by third-country nationals when the time comes to enter the labour market** -even when they have higher qualifications-; it could also be the reason for employment precariousness and a lower employment rate than the national rate of host countries, especially for female migrants (OECD, 2018a). This is particularly relevant in the current situation, as out of the almost 3.3 million people who applied for asylum in European Member States in 2015, more than a fifth (712,000) were children under 14 years old (Cutmore et al., 2018). Some of the barriers identified in this realm are 'the limited scope of initial assessment, which does not always take account of both academic and non- academic aspects (i.e. social, emotional and health issues); inappropriate grade placement; language provision that is not adapted to the needs of students with a different mother tongue; insufficient learning support and a lack of social and emotional support; teachers who are not trained and/or supported to deal with diversity in the classroom; insufficient home-school cooperation; and a lack of or inflexibility in funding to provide adequate provision and support' (Noorani, Sogol; Baïdak, Nathalie; Krémó, Anita; Riiheläinen, 2019). This is particularly true for Europe where outcomes for young people with a migrant background compared with young people with native-born are over half a school year behind, while the opposite is the case in non-European OECD countries (except for United States), although this is largely driven by differences in socio-economic characteristics (OECD, 2018b), and especially the socio-economic characteristics of the parents (Bilgili et al., 2015). **Linking policies and outcomes is particularly difficult in education** where they have proven irrelevant to children's performances; research shows that there might be a gap between intentions and implementation, **measures are probably taken too late at secondary education to avoid drop-outs instead of at primary and pre-primary level, where the effect would be greater, and especially the fact that results are strongly related to the country's structural and contextual factors and the parents** (Bilgili et al., 2015).

Individual characteristics affecting integration

Despite the major role and possible positive impacts of educational aspects in the realm of integration, studies display that a 'disproportionately high amount of migrant children receive a recommendation for the lowest level of secondary education' (Konyali 2017: 266–267). International studies on educational performance like PISA or TIMSS demonstrate that 'students with a migration background are on average disadvantaged in Germany compared

with native students' (Salikutluk 2016: 582). In addition to the rigidity of the educational system (Cuenca and Hemming 2018:85), there are comparably less students with a migration background that transition to vocational education and training (VET), with Turkish-origin migrants having the lowest participation rates (Tjaden 2017: 111). Konyali further displays that the academic level achieved by children of Turkish migrants brings them fewer returns regarding their occupational attainment, in comparison to Germans with the same educational background (2017: 267).

Educational success is still interrelated to the household's **socio-economic status** (Carol und Schulz 2018; Jacobs und Unterreiner, 2017). With more migrant households having less economic capital at their disposal (Leopold et al. 2017: 250), this is one factor that explains the lower educational performance of migrants. In addition to the interrelatedness of socio-economic status and students' performances, the **parents' educational** success and, connected to that, unequal availability of information, all influence the educational success of migrant students (Carol und Schulz, 2018; Salikutluk, 2016; Tjaden, 2017). Parents without a native school, vocational or university qualification have greater difficulty helping their children make education-related choices within the diverse and often confusing academic German systems.

A crucial factor that mainly has a positive influence on the area of education, are the students' own aspirations, which are generally higher than those of German students with an intrinsic motivation towards upward intergenerational mobility (Salikutluk, 2016; Tjaden, 2017). Studies have found that, given the choice, migrant students are more likely to choose pathways leading towards upgrading academic qualifications, such as university entry level (Tjaden 2017). Yet, due to overweighting negative factors hampering their educational success, they perform worse than natives (Salikutluk, 2016).

As regards educational results, Fellini, Guetto, and Reyneri (2018) indicate that the **country of origin** influences the return to post-secondary education in the first job. They say that in the case of non-Western countries the return rate is very low. In Spain, (de Miguel-Luken and Solana-Solana, 2017) also found that the countries of origin influence success and Moroccan youths are at a higher risk of abandoning their studies, while Latin-American populations are more likely to feel dissatisfied with the level achieved.

Contextual characteristics affecting integration

A frequently addressed topic in recent literature on the interconnections between education and integration is **discrimination**. While Celik speaks of 'various and subtle forms of discrimination' in the context of school – for example, the need to translate in meetings between school authorities and parents (2015: 1651), thus transmitting the feeling that the school does not value the students' culture and language – Carol and Schulz (2018: 75). Tjaden (2017: 110) is more explicit when stating that children of Turkish origin especially face discrimination during the decisive transition from primary to secondary school and in VET access. This practice is continued in German integration courses, where teachers try to

reform their students rather than accept their values, thus diminishing the probability to create a sense of belonging (Brown 2016: 461). The phenomena of rejection and racism, prejudice and xenophobia clearly demonstrate that knowledge is not enough to develop an attitude of dialogue. Accepting an individual is not enough to know them 'it is necessary to develop sympathy and compassion towards him' (Santerini, 2003 cited in Sani, 2015). On the other hand, education is considered as a phase of the migrant's life that took place in the country of origin and the skills that it produced are not recognised by the host country. For this reason, an important policy to consider is the recognition of migrants' educational credentials, as it seems decisive for the employment situation (Fellini et al., 2018).

Structural and **institutional arrangements of educational systems** limit the opportunities of students and families with an immigrant background in Belgium. Flemish education is an early tracking system and applies a social hierarchy between these tracks (De Witte et al., 2013). The ability to access information to make these choices is very important, but it is unequal across social groups (Van Praag et al., 2015). The distribution of students across tracks and **fields of studies remains unequally distributed in terms of ethnicity and social background** (Danhier et al., 2014). Students with a more vulnerable socio-economic/immigrant background are overrepresented in technical and vocational tracks and underrepresented in academic tracks and higher education. This inequality even increases during their secondary education trajectory (Monseur and Lafontaine, 2012; Boone and Van Houtte, 2010; Fédération Wallonie-Bruxelles, 2015). The German educational system can be characterised through its high degree of stratification of secondary education, which provides limited access to higher tracks and thereby University entry, while the lowest and intermediate tracks allow their graduates to engage in vocational education and training (Salikutluk, 2016). This strict separation according to abilities leads to rather homogeneous schools with comprehensive schools as an alternative track that constitutes the minority. As the majority of migrants attend schools for lower abilities – due to the aforementioned influences – this situation creates fewer opportunities for migrants to interact with natives (Kruse, 2017: 192).

The same forces can also be found in Spain, where the **immigrant population is unevenly distributed across the school system, with a substantially higher concentration of migrant students in underprivileged schools** that also have higher dropout rates (Arango, 2018: 514). In the same context, González Motos (2016) shows that in existing **ghettoisation** school dynamics, social integration is not possible. These institutional factors make educational choices complicated, having a negative effect on the achievements of children with an immigrant background. Many studies in Germany consistently define school **segregation** as the 'major obstacle […] to equal educational opportunities' (Jacobs & Unterreiner, 2017: 48). In the context of creating multi-ethnic classes, Schachner et al. mention that it is important not to allow one group become numerically dominating, otherwise this leads to an increase of the negative attitudes towards minority groups (2015: 9). This is more disturbing given the fact that 'schools can provide valuable opportunities for interethnic contact and the formation of interethnic friendships' that are considered very valuable for

developing a sense of belonging (Schachner et al., 2015: 1). Following this argument, another negative factor influencing the possibility of interethnic friendships in schools is the **overlapping of residential and educational segregation**: Children usually become friends with classmates who live in short distance from them (Kruse et al., 2016: 140).

Most policies to decrease inequalities do not necessarily reach their goals, as underlying mechanisms (i.e., monolingual policies or stigmatization) sometimes yield adverse effects (Agirdag et al., 2012; Van der Wildt, 2016; Van Praag et al., 2016b). However, there is evidence that **multicultural teaching** can reduce ethnic prejudices in schools (Vervaet et al., 2018).

2.8 Housing and integration

Access to quality **housing is determinant to integration, well-being and even health and educational outcomes** (Diaz Ramirez, Marcos; Liebig, Thomas; Thoreau, Cécile; Veneri, 2018; Rechel, 2011). Scholars have emphasised the **role of local and regional levels** in the relationship between migration and housing since **migrants are more likely to rent, live in substandard housing and concentrate in specific areas,** which can cause an impact on local infrastructures and the perception of immigration (Diaz Ramirez, Marcos; Liebig, Thomas; Thoreau, Cécile; Veneri, 2018).

There is **limited academic literature on migration and housing** in Italy and Spain in the set of articles selected. Literature is also scarce in Belgium (Pannecoucke & De Decker, 2015). This is primarily due to the lack of a systematic data collection and analysis on migrants' housing and living situation.

Individual characteristics affecting integration

Housing is crucial in migrants' integration process, as an **own address is a compulsory requirement to claim residence rights, obtain financial support and health insurance, etc.** (Vluchtelingenwerk Vlaanderen, 2016). Housing offers **security and stability and is a lifelong growth asset, as well as being a measure of economic success** that promotes or impedes social inclusion processes. Being deprived of shelter is one of the most crucial hurdles immigrants face during the integration process. Some authors identify homeownership and living conditions as among the most important aspects of the immigrant assimilation process.

Housing design, as well as the materiality and design of public spaces have a direct impact on a person's well-being (Eckenwiler 2018: 563). In addition, it shapes a sense of belonging, has an impact on community relationships and enables access to healthcare, education and employment (Phillips, 2006 cited in Mahieu & Ravn, 2017). In a similar understanding, Levecque and van Rossem (2015: 50) underline the importance of being able to **'root oneself' and to 'produce […] a feeling of settling down'** successfully at a new place. This practice seems particularly important for refugees who experienced prosecution and is connected to a feeling of uncertainty and not belonging. Thus, studies stress the

significance of an early transit of refugees from shelters to individual housing (El-Kayed & Hamann 2018: 135) as well as diverse and interconnected neighbourhoods (Dill et al., 2015; Kruse, 2017).

The three most discussed topics in literature are **spatial distribution, discrimination in the housing market and the more precarious living conditions** of migrants compared to natives. **Migrants more often rent their house, live more frequently in an apartment, live in low-quality housing with less comfort, they have less space, live in older houses and spend a larger amount of their family income on housing costs** (Noppe et al. 2018a, Pannecoucke and De Decker, 2015). Furthermore, migrants are **overrepresented when it comes to social housing**. The proportion of candidate-tenants for social housing of non-EU citizens is also higher and is increasing. These migrant groups report more financial difficulties related to living expenses, running costs and other housing-related expenses (Noppe et al., 2018b).

Migrants often find themselves in a precarious position regarding housing availability and are restricted to a limited segment of the housing market, i.e. the 'private, secondary market', referring to low quality houses in unattractive neighbourhoods but still with a high rental (Pannecoucke & De Decker, 2015). People with a **non-EU background are more often dissatisfied with their living conditions** (Noppe et al., 2018). One out of three houses of non-EU citizens are considered to be inadequate, against one out of ten houses inhabited by Belgians. In Spain, (Colom Andrés & Molés Machí, 2017) find that immigrants are less likely to own their primary residence in Spain, even though is the more usual form of housing. For immigrants, tertiary studies increase the likelihood of being owners.

The concept of homophily – the tendency to rather interact with people of a similar background and experiences – can be used to explain the voluntary formation of **ethnic districts**. Dill et al. further state that these enclaves may provide 'informal information networks' that are beneficial, for example, for finding a job (2015: 354). Simultaneously, she found that migrants are rather unhappy to live in a segregated fashion with practically no contact with natives (2015: 354). Moreover Kruse et al. state that exclusive same-ethnic friendship preferences can be problematic for ethnically diverse societies, since they enhance negative interethnic attitudes (2016: 130). At the same time, there are studies about very diverse neighbourhoods, where people had less trust in each other (Koopmans und Schaeffer 2016: 971). Following these examples, on the one hand, neighbourhoods should be developed with a diverse population and, on the other, they should provide people with incentives and possibilities to meet and interact with each other, so as to overcome prejudice, increase mutual understanding and create a sense of social cohesion. Along these lines, the geographic distance between Muslims and Spaniards has increased in recent years as a consequence of increased hostility towards this ethnic group, which has settled in segregated areas (Edling et al., 2016).

Language proficiency does not play a role in discrimination in Belgium (Coenen, Van der Bracht, & Van de Putte, 2015). Regarding the specific group of asylum seekers and

refugees, other challenges are added to previous obstacles: while they are waiting for the decision on their asylum application, they are bound to be living in a reception housing system where living conditions are far from optimal. The current reception model prioritises collective housing, which is contradictory to the needs of this vulnerable migrant group (Vluchtelingenwerk Vlaanderen, 2017). In collective reception centres, privacy and autonomy are compromised, and residents report they feel unsafe. When a residence permit is obtained, the migrants are often pressed by time limits set by the government: two months are granted (extendable by a maximum of one month) to find housing, which is extremely difficult given their limited knowledge of the local language and housing market, but also to overcome various (institutional and/or administrative) barriers, and the limited available options due to – amongst others – discrimination (Mahieu & Ravn, 2017; Vluchtelingenwerk Vlaanderen, 2016).

Contextual characteristics affecting integration

Unfavourable legislation sometimes makes it difficult for migrants to enjoy financial and social network advantages, for example, cohousing reduces their integration allowances. (Mahieu et al., 2019). For example, in Germany, asylum seekers need to reside in their allocated initial accommodation facility for the first six months after being registered in the country, which influences refugees' chances to find appropriate housing. Refugees from 'safe countries of origin' must stay in this initial facility during the whole asylum application process while others are allowed to move to a secondary accommodation facility, which usually fosters a higher level of independence (Free and Hanseatic City of Hamburg, 2017: 85). Many asylum seekers stay in secondary accommodation facilities, even though their application has already been approved, due to packed housing markets and a lack of information and support in finding their own flat (El-Kayed & Hamann, 2018). The residency requirement (Wohnsitzauflage) additionally obliges every person who has been granted asylum to reside for the first three years in the federal state where the asylum procedure took place in order to remain eligible for social welfare. The only way out of this restriction is a work contract in a different federal state (El-Kayed & Hamann, 2018). The German-wide development of reducing the share of social and thus affordable housing can be seen as another external state-driven factor that affects migrant housing with comparably lower economic capital (Ireland und Ireland 2017: 34). On the other hand, having the ability to access an adequate and stable home opens up the possibility of family reunification, which is not an automatic right, not only in Spain (Vickstrom & González-Ferrer, 2016), therefore, poor housing conditions decrease migrants' integration capacity.

In addition to these **structural barriers**, migrants encounter various additional obstacles and difficulties (Mahieu & Ravn, 2017): **one of the biggest is discrimination** (Benhaddou & Devriendt, 2014; Verhaeghe, 2017, 2018; Winters, Ceulemans, & Heylen, 2013). As subgroups of migrants (such as refugees, amongst others) are often dependent on social welfare and need to turn to social welfare institutions to be able to pay a deposit (Mahieu & Ravn, 2017), this can be an additional barrier for private homeowners to accept them as

tenants (Winters et al., 2013). First-generation migrants are more often discriminated compared to other migrant generations (Pannecoucke & De Decker, 2015).

If migrants find somewhere to stay, they often live in **segregated neighbourhoods** among other foreigners (Ireland & Ireland, 2017). In literature on residential segregation there are two strands of studies that attempt to explain this phenomenon, with one suggesting that immigrants voluntarily sort themselves into ethnic enclaves and the other suggesting that discrimination is the main reason for ethnic concentrations and is actually unwanted (Dill et al., 2015: 363).

Added to a **lack of essential information and knowledge** about the housing markets, which are increasingly tense in many German cities, refugees have limited access to housing due to federal laws (El-Kayed und Hamann 2018: 142).

As regards other external factors influencing migrants' housing opportunities, studies mainly talk about state regulations that limit chances for appropriate housing, as well as **discrimination by landlords**. Dill et al. list the fear of unstable rent payments, prejudice and slower housing value appreciation as the main reasons why landlords discriminate migrants (2015: 357). El-Kayed and Hamann state that this discrimination is common with both: private homeowners renting out individual flats, as well as non-profit housing companies working at a bigger scale (2018: 142). The massive disadvantages faced by people without German citizenship, with a migrant background or even only with a non-German name caused some supporter groups to rent apartments on their own, to then sublet them to migrant tenants (El-Kayed & Hamann, 2018).

Non-profit and non-governmental organisations regularly publish reports with policy recommendations (Vluchtelingenwerk Vlaanderen, 2017; Winters et al., 2013). However, **policy actions are fragmented** as different authorities are authorised to develop policy (for example, legal practice tests, information campaigns and training of brokers to prevent discrimination (Verhaeghe, 2017, 2018) and the development of a policy to reduce financial barriers when accessing the housing market (Mahieu & Ravn, 2017). A final way to address housing issues by policy makers is to invest in proper data collection (Noppe et al., 2018a; Struyck et al., 2018). The often voluntary **work of NGOs** and initiatives is crucial. El-Kayed and Hamann describe a one-on-one counselling process by an NGO aimed towards explaining how to successfully find independent housing, as well as an initiative that has developed a web-based matching platform that brings together offers for rooms in shared flats and refugees (2018: 143). However, these are small-scale ideas that do not match the number of refugees and migrants waiting for appropriate housing.

Space plays a crucial role in integration. Conceptualising all people as being embedded socially and spatially sheds focus on the spatial aspect of integration (Eckenwiler, 2018). Current debates and conflicts related to the lack of adequate housing and the growing heterogeneity of urban populations call for a spatial turn in migration studies. Regarding the urban space as places that are created and sustained, transformed or neglected in ways that

foster or perpetuate inequities generates implications concerning place-making as a crucial process in migration and integration. This also calls for the importance of place-based interventions (Eckenwiler, 2018). Cities differ substantially from each other in their diversity. Furthermore, within cities, a large diversity and variety is found across neighbourhoods. This goes along with the significant differences in lifestyles and socio-economic inequalities (Oosterlynck, Verschraegen & Van Kempen, 2018). Studies have focused on the **effects of neighbourhoods** and specific research areas (for example, a city or a neighbourhood), target populations and local urban policies. This allows them to delve deeper into the particular effects of the area and grasp all parts of these effects to the fullest. Furthermore, it prevents researchers from interpreting research results in ethnic terms. Effects of a neighbourhood or area are seen as potential ways to impact the lives of the inhabitants of these areas, and increase their life chances, social cohesion in society and improve their living environment. The basic assumption of these studies is that there are 'neighbourhood effects' or 'contextual effects of the living environment', suggesting that particular features of people's living environment impact the inhabitants of the area, regardless of their individual characteristics. Local policy-makers have applied this perspective, shifting from a pluralist recognition of ethno-cultural diversity, and even the inclusion of various forms of diversity, to a neo-assimilationist approach (Albeda & Oosterlynck, 2018). Increasing emphasis is put on **securitisation, which considered ethnic diversity rather as a threat to the city's social cohesion or a social problem.** This shift also impacted how policy-makers have redistributed their resources. More attention has been given to the reduction of socio-economic inequalities and people's individual responsibilities to integrate with society, to achieve upward social mobility and contribute to society (in an economic way) (Saeys et al., 2014). Additionally, since 1982, increasingly more policy initiatives have been undertaken to stimulate neighbourhood-oriented policies, which in the end also attracted an increasing number of middle class groups to previously deprived neighbourhoods, with the purpose of stimulating quality of life, economy and security (Albeda & Oosterlynck, 2018).

Two main lines of research can be distinguished. A first line focuses on how neighbourhoods are ethnically diverse, and how this growing super-diversity impacts the lives of the inhabitants *and* the neighbourhood itself. Here the main focus lies on the **unequal distribution of people across neighbourhoods**, and how these patterns are in line with already existing social inequalities. This means that in the majority of cases the most vulnerable or poorest groups in society, such as many migrants, live together in the same neighbourhoods, which in turn, are also often the deprived or the poorest neighbourhoods (Albeda & Oosterlynck, 2017; 2018; Verhaeghe, Van der Bracht & Van de Putte, 2012; Geldof, 2013; Fleischmann et al., 2013; Albeda et al., 2018; Oosterlynck, Verschraegen & Van Kempen, 2018).

A second line of research concentrates more on the links these neighbourhoods have with migration patterns (e.g., Diekmann, & Cloquet, 2015; Schillebeeckx et al., 2019; Schrooten et al., 2019). The **importance of having local social networks within a particular urban zone or neighbourhood** is found to facilitate the arrival of newcomers within this city and

promote migrant integration. The increasingly superdiversity in cities has reshaped urban space and the position of migrants. This increases the number of transnational contacts and networks of these migrants. Hence, more trans-migrants can be found within the large migrant population, complicating the functioning of these super-diverse societies. When this particular group of trans-migrants arrives in a relatively deprived neighbourhood or area, and is faced with undesirable living conditions, these living conditions may stimulate them to migrate even more rapidly and put less effort in settling within the society where they are currently living (Schrooten et al., 2012). Some interesting dynamics of identity formation in public space appropriation carried out by some Latin-American migrant groups in Seville were found by Martín-Díaz & Cuberos-Gallardo (2016).

Some authors point out that the most vulnerable populations in Italy have **gradually been expelled from urban centres** (as in other European cities), stressing that 'cities have become economically hostile areas of life for part of the population, especially for social areas outside the residual public supply of houses, which, at the same time, are below the income levels set by the market for access to housing' (Avallone, Torre, 2016). However, with the bursting of the real estate bubble at the start of the century and the economic crisis of 2008, these processes have accelerated, and counter-trends have reached maturity: the 'housing careers' of migrants have been interrupted, or have even taken a step backwards, bringing migrants back to previous housing situations, rejecting them to conditions of precariousness and homelessness (Tosi, 2017). A compilation that shows the reverse trend in home ownership effectively shows the trend of overall sales and purchases concluded by immigrants in the period between 2006 and 2010. The drop in the five-year period is almost fifty percent (Petrillo, 2018).

On the other hand, in Spanish **rural areas**, some villages have implemented different programmes to attract migrant population to rural settings. As Sampedro & Camarero (2018) show, there are different initiatives from councils and different groups, such as agricultural trade unions or non-governmental organizations, in which municipalities provide work or housing to newcomers.

Policy discourses and initiatives have undergone some changes in the organisation of urban space and ethnic diversity, which have also clearly impacted individuals' outcomes. Simultaneously, migration patterns and flows alter over time. This intertwinement also applies to the impact of policy on integration outcomes. Policy changes are hard to evaluate as they coincide with changing migration patterns, economic trends and globalisation changes. For example, many initiatives in Antwerp (Saeys et al., 2014) focus on the creation and stimulation of social cohesion. However, more projects are oriented at social mobility and to a lesser extent at enhancing the economic performance of the city, and their success depends on the available financial resources. Finally, due to new and ever-changing urban environments, local policy makers and social workers have to constantly re-organise their work (trans-migrants: Schrooten et al., 2019; Roma population: Hemelsoet & Van Pelt, 2015).

3. Secondary Data

3.1 Introduction

Several EU Member States have traditionally been a destination for migrants, whether they come from within the EU or elsewhere in the world. The flow of migrants has led to a range of new skills and talents being introduced into local labour markets while also increasing cultural diversity. The relevance of a stronger integration of migrants into the labour markets and societal lives of host countries exists from both a macroeconomic and individual perspective. From a macroeconomic point of view, migrants have a significant pool of skilled workers. As forecasts show, significant immigration may attenuate the decline in labour force potential (Fuchs et al. 2016), but this will only help mitigating labour bottlenecks if migrants are added to the workforce. The individual importance of labour market integration becomes particularly clear against the background of the risk of poverty. For example, based on a nationwide analysis performed by the German Microcensus 2015, it can be seen that, compared with an at-risk-of-poverty rate of families without a migration background (13%), migrant families are much more at risk with a rate of 29% (BMFSFJ 2017a, p. 27).

Consequently, the integration of migrants has increasingly become a key area for policy focus in recent years, with measures to prepare immigrants and their descendants so they may participate more actively in society. **The goal of the Zaragoza indicators, agreed by EU Member States in Zaragoza (Spain) in April 2010 (European Council 2010), is to further develop the core idea of integration as a driver for development and social cohesion.**

Therefore, it is necessary to map the state of the art of existing integration statistics and subgroup-specific integration outcomes, for example, per educational level, citizenship, or country of birth, for the four countries whose pilot cities are involved in the MICADO project. Knowing (a) which data are available at a national level, (b) what the integration outcomes are for each of the four countries based on these data and (c) the limitations of these data are three prerequisites to identify data requirements at a local level where digital tools that aim to better equip migrants, public authorities and helper organisations with reliable and suitable data to manage integration processes are to be developed and implemented in the MICADO framework. Furthermore, some facts on recent migration trends, current migrant stocks and overall demographic and macroeconomic conditions in each of the four countries are considered necessary contextual information to better understand current challenges at a national level (d). The report at hand strives to provide the named prerequisites (a)-(d).

According to the four prerequisites, the remainder of this chapter is as follows. Section 3.2 discusses types, paths and the current situation of migration, as well as demographic and macroeconomic conditions in the four MICADO countries: Belgium, Spain, Italy, and Germany, including a look at the regional situation in and around the four pilot cities. Section 3.3 presents a detailed state of the art with respect to migrant integration, based on significant structural indicators. Section 3.4 is the conclusion while analyses in how far these

structural indicators (together with policy indicators) are applicable to the local level will be discussed in Chapter 5.

3.2 Migrant inflow and migrant stocks in the four-country comparison

In this study, we are concerned with movements across national borders. In this regard, our interest goes beyond the group of immediate movers, it also involves the subsequent generation, i.e. the children of movers raised in the receiving countries. By dealing with macro-level statistics, we have to cope with the issue that the population groups cannot be perfectly separated. **One available indicator to identify movers in particular is information regarding the country of birth. To address the second generation as well, information on citizenship/nationality is an (imperfect, but satisfactorily covered) proxy. In the course of this study, we will therefore consider both types of measures, subject to specific data availability**. In doing so, we additionally differentiate (wherever possible) between integration outcomes for EU and non-EU migrants, to illustrate the significant discrepancies in integration success between these groups. Finally, we draw on (wherever possible) regional data (mostly NUTS-2) to illustrate regional specificities regarding the four pilot cities, while keeping in mind their limited comparability.

The extent to which migrant integration is successful is closely related to individual characteristics and contextual factors at a macroeconomic and societal level. Thus, before exploring different aspects of migrant integration, the basic trends of migration in terms of flows (1.1) and stocks (1.2) as well as key macroeconomic and demographic features (1.3) will be presented for each of the four MICADO pilot countries.

Inflow of migrants

In measuring migration, the evolution of annual inflows, i.e. the annual number of persons from abroad immigrating into a certain country, are of natural concern. **With the exception of the 2009 and 2010, Germany stood out with the highest number of immigrants in the four-country-comparison from 2008 to 2017 (see 4).** After the peak in 2015, caused by the opening of borders in the context of that year's refugee crisis, immigration numbers fell below the one-million threshold in 2017. However, with 917,109 immigrants, the number was **almost twice as high as in Spain, more than seven times higher than in Belgium and roughly 2.5 times higher than in Italy**. While in Belgium the peak was less significant, no similar development can be observed for **Italy and Spain. In these countries, immigration numbers have not yet fully recovered from the massive decline in 2009**, in the context of the economic downturn following the financial crises. **However, since 2015 an upward trend for immigration into these countries can be noticed.**

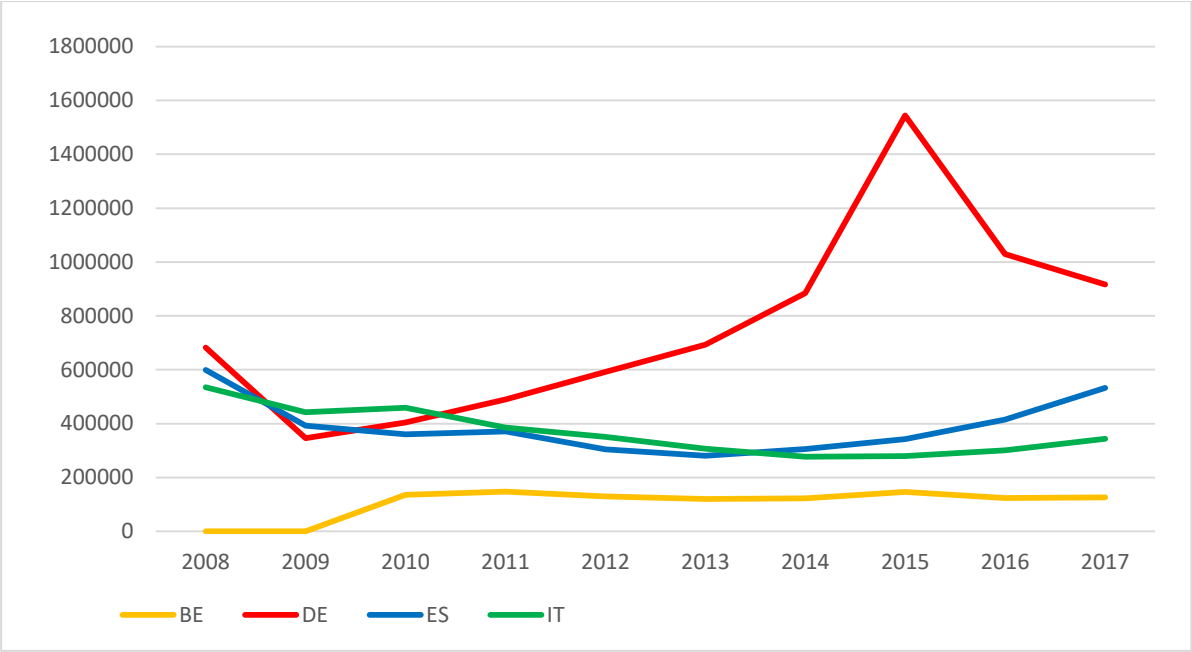


Chart 4. Cross-border immigration 2013-2017
Sources: Eurostat [migr_imm1ctz]; HWWI.

Whereas in 2013 and 2014, migrants with EU-citizenship ('EU migrants') outnumbered those with non-EU citizenship ('non-EU migrants') in Germany the situation reversed in 2015, when the number of non-EU migrants peaked with 967,539 people. However, **by 2017, the number of non-EU migrants registered in Germany (391,498) roughly equalled the number of EU migrants (395,003)**. Belgium showed fairly low immigration numbers, compared to the other countries. **The number of non-EU migrants in Belgium also peaked in 2015 and afterwards almost returned to the previous level, reaching 48,333 in 2017**. Stateless people virtually played no role due to its scarceness (the same holds for people with unknown citizenship). **In Spain and Italy, the number of non-EU migrants exceeded that of EU-migrants at any time.** Whereas in Spain the number of non-EU migrants steadily increased during that time, the number of this group was stable in Italy. In 2017, the numbers amounted to 239,953 in Italy and 314,238 in Spain (Eurostat, 2019).

Migrant stocks: Migrant population compared to total population

In addition to migrant inflows, another measure of the intensity of immigration is the size of the migrant stock (i.e. the number of immigrants residing at a certain point in time in a host country) in relation to the host country's total population size. In general, the four countries under observation notably differ in their population size.[15] Compared to the Belgian population in 2017, in Germany (Spain/Italy) it was seven (four/five) times higher (see Table

[15] The data used to produce the estimates refer to the foreign-born population (Germany, Spain, Italy) and to foreign citizens (Belgium), respectively.

1). Germany also displayed the highest migrant stock in 2017, with more than 12 million people (see Chart 4), Italy (and Spain) had roughly 6 million only half the size of Germany's.

	1990	1995	2000	2005	2010	2015	2017
Belgium	10,006,544	10,186,305	10,282,033	10,546,886	10,938,739	11,287,94	11,429,336
Germany	79,118,326	81,240,604	81,487,757	81,671,234	80,894,785	81,707,789	82,114,224
Spain	39,306,102	39,890,498	40,903,711	44,042,632	46,788,630	46,397,664	46,354,321
Italy	57,127,120	57,255,193	57,293,721	58,808,483	59,729,807	59,504,212	59,359,900

Table 1. Total population of both sexes at mid-year
Sources: United Nations (2017); HWWI.

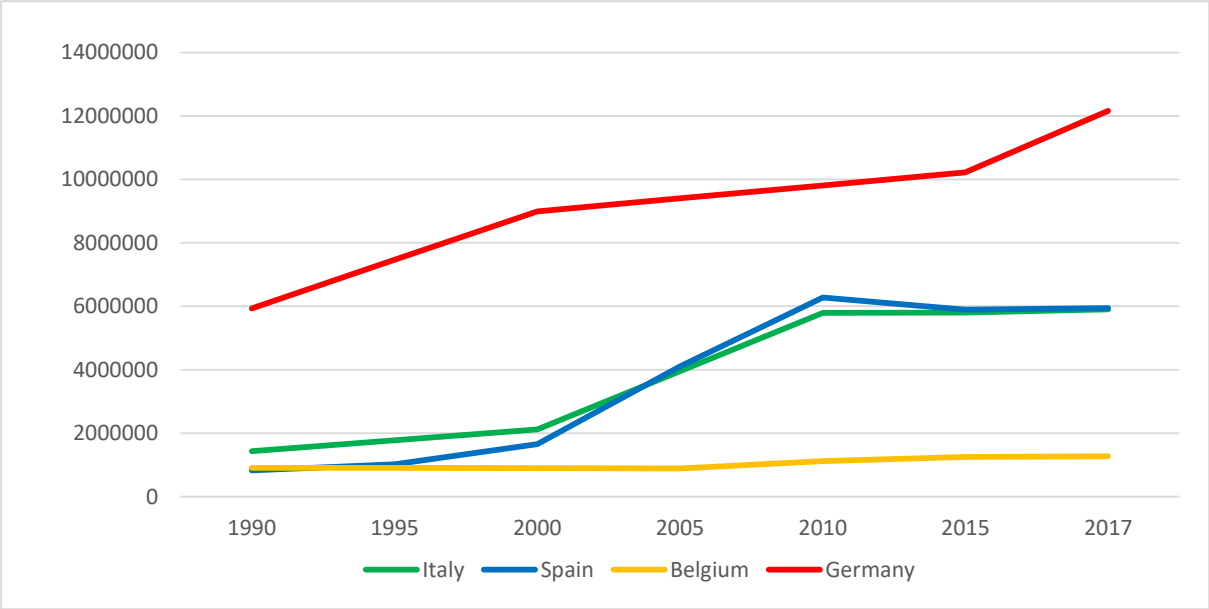


Chart 5. International migrant stock at mid-year (both sexes)
Sources: United Nations (2017); HWWI.

Germany ranked first in 2017 as regards migrants' share of the total population (see Chart 6). Across time, this share increased in all four countries. While **Belgium showed a fairly modest increase from 9.0% to 11.1% in this period, the rate roughly doubled in Germany from 7.5% to 14.8%. In Italy, the rate even quadrupled, going from 2.5% to 10.0%. In Spain, it was up to six times higher in 2017 (12.8%)**, compared to 1990 (2.1%), indicating a long-term trend towards intensified immigration in the latter two countries. In Spain and Italy, the increase was strongest between 2000 and 2010. After that, the economic downturn following the financial crisis seemed to bring this development to a halt. By contrast, this was not the case for Germany. Moreover, it has experienced a particularly dynamic growth since 2015, mainly as a consequence of opening the borders during the

refugee crisis. The trends hardly differ by the sex of the migrants. However, **there are differences between countries regarding the overall share of females in the migrant stock. In Italy, females have consistently made up a clear majority for the past 25 years. In the other three countries shares are closer to 50%. In Spain and Belgium, they have shown a slight upward trend in recent years, while the share in Germany has recently shrunk**, probably due to the increased inflow of unaccompanied male refugees (see Chart 48 in the Appendix).

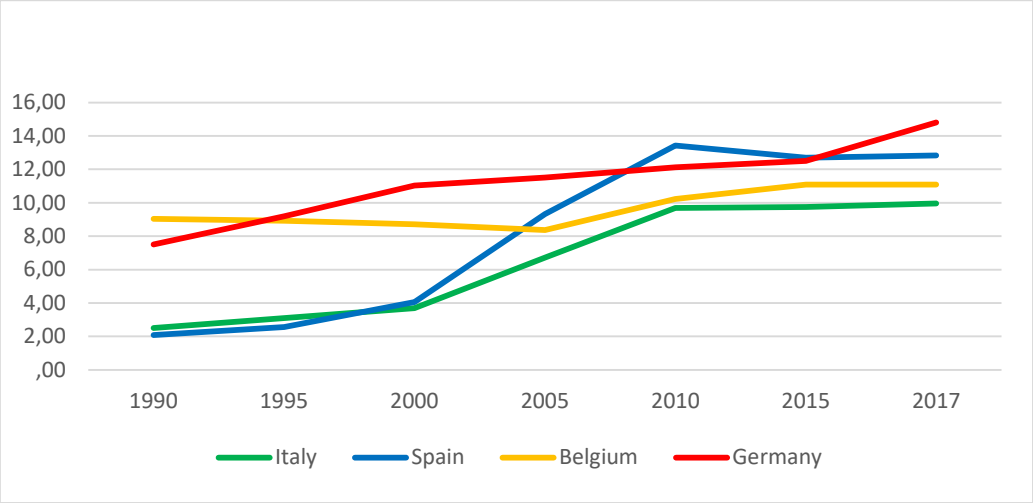


Chart 6. International migrant stock as a percentage of the total population (both sexes)
Sources: United Nations (2017); HWWI.

The five main countries of citizenship and birth of the foreign/foreign-born population on 1 January 2018 are compiled in Table 20. in Appendix **Fehler! Verweisquelle konnte nicht gefunden werden.**. Escape motives have gained momentum among migrants since 2010 in Belgium and since 2015 in Germany (Chart 7). Also, in Italy, the share of asylum seekers and refugees has modestly increased since 2005, albeit at a quite low level. In Spain, however, at no time did this group represent more than 1% in this period of observation.

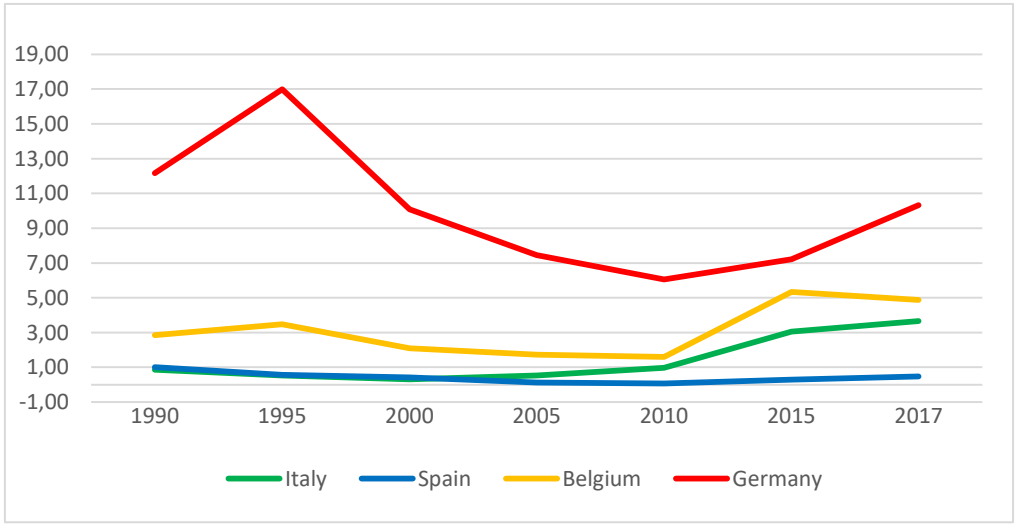


Chart 7. Refugees and asylum seekers as a percentage of the international migrant stock (in %)
Sources: United Nations (2017); HWWI.

Regional dimension

Data availability seriously limits comparability at a regional or even city level in Europe. One basic indicator that could at least be retrieved for all the pilot cities involved in MICADO is migrant share by nationality.

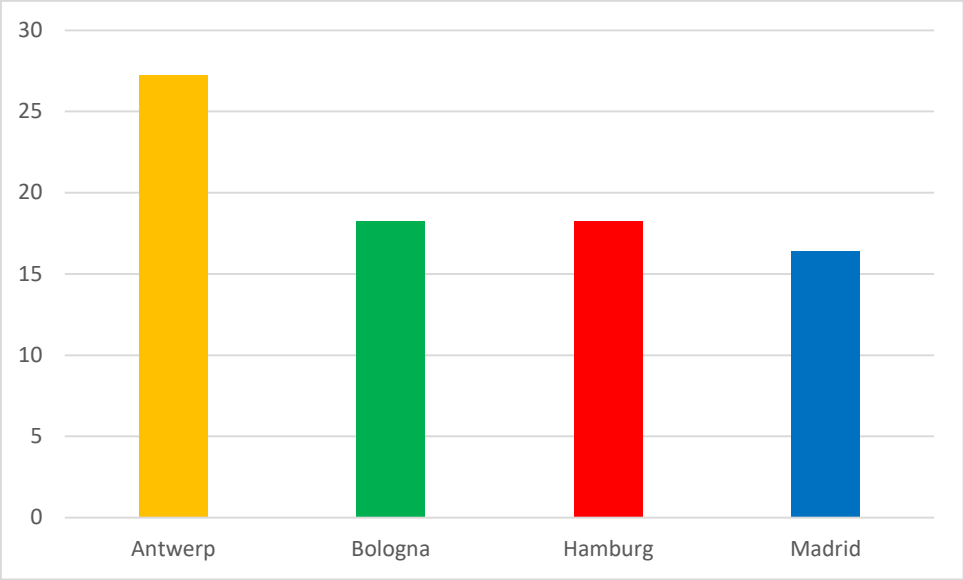


Chart 8. Share of foreign nationals at city level (as % of total population)
Sources: Regional statistical offices in respective countries. Data refer to the year 2018, except for Hamburg (2017).

This figure shows the most recent data concerning the share of foreign citizens in the total population in Antwerp, Bologna, Hamburg and Madrid. As can be seen **Antwerp has the highest share of individuals without citizenship, around 27%, where both Hamburg and Bologna have around 18%; Madrid shows the lowest share, 16%.** These differences have to be interpreted by bearing in mind the economic and legal background in the corresponding countries. Not only does the economic situation as an important pull factor for migrants differ between the countries involved, but the conditions under which migrants can apply for a naturalization procedure are also different.

Demographic and macroeconomic conditions

Migrants encounter different demographic and macroeconomic conditions in the four host countries. The following four tables give an overview.

Indicator	Human Development Index	Unemployment rate	Youth unemployment	National GDP per capita
Measure	**Rank**	**(%)**	**(%)**	**Euros**
Source	**UNDP**	**Eurostat**	**Eurostat**	**Eurostat**
Year	**2017**	**2018**	**2018**	**2018**

Belgium	17	6	10.9	35,300
Germany	5	3.4	5.4	35,900
Spain	26	15.3	26.2	25,000
Italy	28	10.6	24.8	26,700

Table 2. Basic demographic and macroeconomic parameters (national level)

Indicator	Total fertility rate	Death rate	Population growth	Age-dependencyratio
Measure	**no of children per woman**	**per 1000 persons**	**(annual %)**	**Pop_65+/Pop_ 15-64 * 100**
Source	**Eurostat**	**Eurostat**	**Eurostat**	**Eurostat (own calculation)**
Year	**2017**	**2018**	**2017-18**	**2018**
Belgium	1.65	9.7	0.41	29.1
Germany	1.57	11.5	0.33	32.8
Spain	1.31	9.1	0.28	29.2
Italy	1.32	10.5	0.17	35.2

Table 3. Basic demographic and macroeconomic parameters (national level)

Indicator	Population density	Total fertility rate	Population growth	Age-dependencyratio
Measure	**Pop/m^2**	**Avg. no. of child./woman**	**(annual %)**	**Pop 65+/Pop 15-64 * 100**
Source	**Eurostat**	**Eurostat**	**Eurostat**	**Eurostat (own calculation)**
Year	**2017**	**2017**	**2017-18**	**2018**
Prov. Antwerp	657.7	1.7	0.58	29.8
Emilia-Romagna (Bologna)	201.4	1.4	0.09	37.9
Hamburg	2564.1	1.5	1.11	27.2
Comunidad de Madrid	817.0	1.3	1.12	26.6

Table 4. Basic demographic and macroeconomic parameters (regional level (NUTS-2))

Indicator	Unemployment rate	Youth unemployment	Regional GDP per capita
Measure	**(%)**	**(%)**	**Euros**
Source	**Eurostat**	**Eurostat**	**Eurostat**
Year	**2018**	**2018**	**2017**
Prov. Antwerp	4.3	9.3	42,100
Emilia-Romagna (Bologna)	5.9	13.7	35,800
Hamburg	4.1	5.8	60,600
Comunidad de Madrid	12.2	20.9	37,200

Table 5. Basic demographic and macroeconomic parameters (regional level (NUTS-2)

In terms of HDI[16], Germany achieved the highest score in key human development dimensions among the four countries. Germany also shows the highest economic prosperity in terms of GDP per capita and unemployment. However, it exhibits a low birth rate and an ageing society, there are 32.4 people aged 65 and older for every 100 people aged between 15 and 64. **Belgium's demographic trend is more favourable than Germany's. The small country also performs well in terms of GDP; however, unemployment is higher than in Germany**. The economic performance of Italy and Spain is worse compared to their Western European counterparts. Unemployment is much higher and income per capita is lower. Spain's demographic condition is more advantageous than Italy's, with a better births/deaths ratio. Furthermore, the age-dependency ratio is much more favourable for Spain compared to Italy.

From a **regional perspective, the NUTS-2 level shows a slightly different picture** (see Table 5), partly due to basic differences in the socioeconomic structure of the classified regions. The city of Hamburg and the Antwerp province display more favourable economic numbers than the Comunidad de Madrid and the Emilia-Romagna region, especially concerning the unemployment propensity among young people. Regarding the population structure, **Hamburg and the Comunidad de Madrid currently display a comparatively strong population growth and low age-dependency ratios, compared to the other two regions**, a fact that fits their status as more densely populated (and thus more urbanised) places. Of course, any subsequent regional comparisons need to be interpreted in this context.

There are multiple effects of macroeconomic and demographic conditions on migrants' daily lives and integration prospects, but the direction is not clear a priori. For example, it depends on the generosity of migration and integration laws and social policies, whether favourable economic conditions positively affect migrants' individual prosperity (for an overview of core migration and integration policies see the **Policy Map** (Task 1.2.3). The forecasted demographic trends should encourage effective measures for migrant recruitment and rapid integration.

Thus, there is a range of individual characteristics and macro level conditions that impact migrant's integration. A range of structural indicators will be discussed below that present different facets of integration success. According to the MICADO project's four key activity fields, we will refer to integration in the fields of **health, education, housing, and employment**. To shed light on the performance of different migrant subgroups, we will differentiate by EU vs. non-EU citizenship and EU vs. non-EU country of origin, as well as by the migrants' sex and their age groups. As far as possible, a comparison with the native population will be presented.

[16] The HDI (Human Development Index ; 1=high, 188 =low) is the geometric mean of normalised indices for each of the three following dimensions: long and healthy life, knowledge, and a decent standard of living. The health dimension is assessed by life expectancy at birth, the education dimension is measured by mean of years of schooling for adults aged 25 and over and expected years of schooling for children of school entering age. The standard of living dimension is measured by gross national income per capita.

3.3 Structural indicators of migrant integration

The structural indicators to be presented focus on the MICADO project's four main fields of action – labour market, education, health and housing. **Due to different data availability, most indicators can be presented in the field of labour market integration, followed by educational integration. With respect to housing only a few indicators can be reported, and lack of data availability on migrants' health status unable us to present a structured information about it.,** The indicators in the aforementioned fields are supplemented by a couple of further indicators, for example, on naturalisation, risk of poverty and material deprivation.

The reference group provided for each indicator is the group of residents who were native-born and hold the host country's citizenship, respectively. That is, integration is interpreted as a situation where individuals with migration background perform equally as individuals without migration background in the respective aspect. **Thus, integration is not an absolute measurement but has been measured in relative terms, and it addresses the notion of equality of opportunities**. In this view, integrational failure is not suggested to be a personal fault – neither on the side of the migrants themselves nor on the side of the stakeholders in charge of this task – but to be related to differences in individual characteristics and macroeconomic and societal circumstances. This definition sees integration as 'a process as well as a policy goal and a state' (European Council 1997, p. 174). By doing so, it paves the way for action, as a notable part of individual layers can be influenced by tailor-made political, societal and business strategies.[17]

Employment

Among indicators of labour market integration, the employment rate, defined as the proportion of the working age population in employment, is considered to be a key social indicator when studying developments within the labour market. High employment rates among migrants imply good access to jobs and thus less dependence on social security systems, therefore also improving opportunities for migrants to participate in social life.

Chart 9 shows that **in Belgium and Germany foreigners from other EU countries do not differ that much from natives in this respect, while there is a substantial gap between**

[17] The information reported in this chapter adheres to achieved results based on the European Labour Force Survey (EU-LFS) and the EU Statistics on Income and Living Conditions (EU-SILC). Definitions refer to Eurostat (cf. Eurostat Glossary in the References section). Nationals (natives) are referred to as residents who have the reporting country's citizenship (whose host country is their country of birth), whereas EU and non-EU citizens (EU and non-EU born) are residents with EU and non-EU citizenship (whose country of birth is an EU and a non-EU country, respectively). ‚Nationality' and ‚citizenship' are used as synonyms. In what follows, foreign EU-citizens are thus people with nationalities of EU countries that exclude the reporting country; non-EU-citizens are people with nationalities of countries outside the EU.

these two groups and non-EU foreigners. In these two countries, employment rates of migrants from outside the EU were well below 70% in 2018. In Germany, this implied a gap of about 20 percentage points compared to nationals. **In Italy and Spain, the situations appear to be different. While in Spain differences between the three groups are negligible, the employment rate for non-EU foreigners living in Italy is even higher** than the rate measured for Italian nationals. Nevertheless, in country comparison, it is not as high as in Spain.

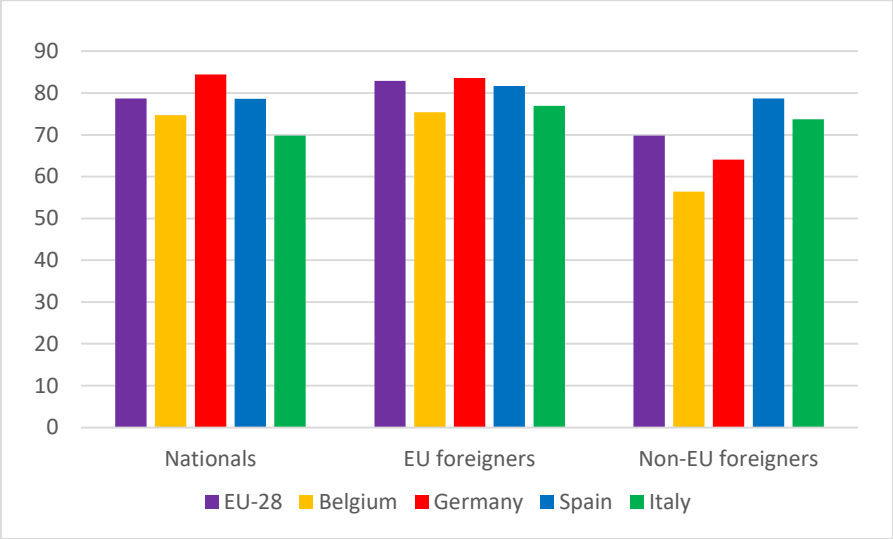


Chart 9. Employment rates of nationals, EU foreigners and non-EU foreigners (aged 20-64), 2018 (%)

Sources: Eurostat [lfsa_argan]; HWWI

Unemployment is another important feature of labour market (non-)integration.[18] Chart 10 depicts the unemployment rates for EU citizens and non-EU citizens for the four countries of interest. The unemployment rate is defined as the number of unemployed persons, divided by the sum of employed and unemployed at a certain point in time.

[18] According to Eurostat and in line with the International Labour Office (ILO) guidelines, an unemployed person is defined as being aged 15 to 74 (or aged 16 to 74 in Spain, the United Kingdom, Iceland and Norway) who was without work during the reference week, was currently available for work and was either actively seeking work in the last four weeks or had already found a job to start within the following three months. The unemployment period is defined as the duration of a job search, or as the length of time since the last job was held (if shorter than the time spent on a job search).

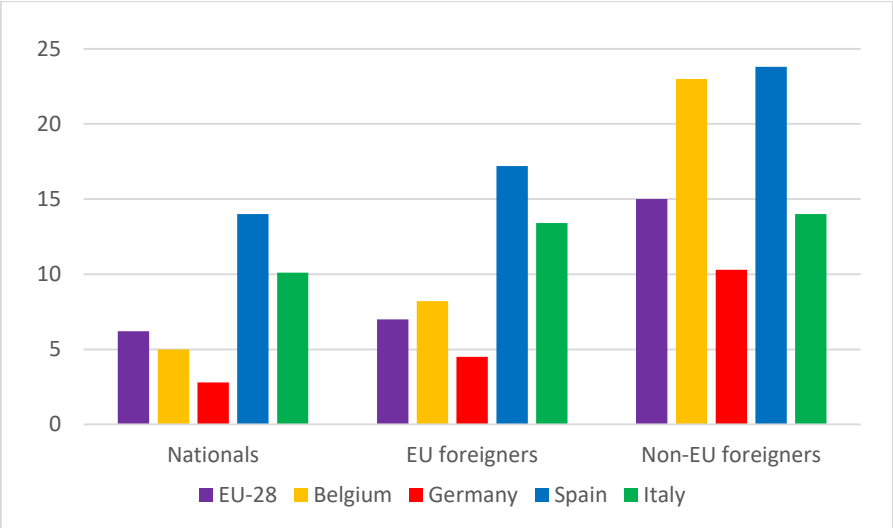


Chart 10. Unemployment rate of nationals, EU and non-EU citizens (aged 20-64), by country 2018 (%)
Eurostat [lfsa_urgan]; HWWI.

As regards unemployment, the picture is even clearer, at least among the countries under investigation. **In all four countries, the unemployment rate for nationals was significantly lower than for both migrant groups in 2018**. Moreover, **in all countries except Italy, unemployment was way more prevalent among non-EU than EU-foreigners**. This gap is particularly surprising **in Belgium and Germany, where the rate for non-EU foreigners more than doubles the rates measured for the other two groups**. However, in country comparison, unemployment among non-EU-foreigners is nowhere as high as in Spain, which mirrors the results for the other population groups. Future development of these numbers will be of high importance for the integration goals. Unemployment spells are disadvantageous for individuals' careers and earnings perspectives and can lead to frustration and resignation, this particularly applies to the younger generation. **In 2017, whereas among young people in Germany, Belgium and Spain, those not born in the EU clearly showed the highest youth unemployment rates compared to native-born and EU-born (which is also the case for EU-28), they featured the lowest rate in Italy (Chart 49).** Still, in cross-country comparison, rates are overall higher in Spain and Italy, compared to Belgium and Germany (the only exception refers to Belgian non-EU born migrants). Germany stands out with far lower rates for all three groups of country of birth.

A particularly severe form of unemployment is **long-term unemployment**, which refers to the number of people who are out of work and have been actively seeking employment for at least a year. In 2017, the foreign-born population aged 15 or over exhibited a higher long-term unemployment rate than the native-born in Italy, Spain (and in the EU-28 average); in Germany and – to a far greater extent in Belgium -, the opposite holds (Chart 50 in Appendix **Fehler! Verweisquelle konnte nicht gefunden werden.**).

Beyond the facets of employment performance, the employed also differ in their working conditions across countries. **Employment conditions** reflect aspects of work quality, for

example, in terms of part-time work or temporary work. An important feature of employment is **self-employment**. A self-employed person is the sole or joint owner of an unincorporated enterprise (one that has not been incorporated, i.e. formed into a legal corporation) in which they work, unless they are also in paid employment which is their main activity (in that case, they are considered to be employees). In some countries, the self-employed also have unpaid family workers. A distinction is also made between self-employed with employees (employers) and those without employees (own-account workers).[19]

In all the countries examined, **self-employment is significantly less common among non-EU foreigners than among natives. This discrepancy is by far the biggest in Italy.** By contrast, no substantial differences in self-employment rates between natives and EU-foreigners can be detected in the countries except in the case of Italy, where EU-foreigners are also significantly less likely to be self-employed. (Chart 51 in the Appendix).

In cross-country comparison, Italy exhibits the highest and Germany the lowest self-employment rates; this applies to natives and foreigners with a non-EU nationality. Among EU- foreigners however, Spain and Belgium are roughly 16% ahead of Germany and Italy (around 10% each).

In all four countries, in 2017, foreigners were far less likely to be an employer than an own-account worker (Chart 52 in the Appendix). However, among foreigners in Germany, the difference in magnitude between employers and own-account workers was the smallest. This picture differs drastically from the situation for nationals in all countries, who were far more often observed to be employers than own-account workers. In comparison to foreign citizens, non-EU citizens were more (ES, BE) and less (DE, IT) likely than EU citizens to be own-account workers. In an absolute measurement, the latter was highest among non-EU citizens in BE (ca. 83%) and among EU-citizens in IT (ca. 81%) (for nationals, the share was below 10% in all 4 countries). Among nationals, the share of employers was highest in DE (ca. 45%), whereas BE, IT and ES scored at ca. 30 %.

In general, **the frequency of temporary employment decreases with age** (Chart 53). At the same time, **across all age groups foreigners are more often found in temporary jobs** than natives in the countries analysed. **These gaps are particularly substantial in Germany and Spain.** In cross-country comparison, Spain exhibits the highest rates of temporary employment, followed - at a notable distance - by Italy. Among foreigners, those with non-EU citizenship mostly feature higher rates than EU foreigners (the difference is particularly pronounced in Belgium). Another aspect of job quality is the number of weekly **hours of work**. In the Labour Force Survey, part-time work is recorded when it is self-reported by individuals who, in their own opinion, consider they work for a lower number of hour every week than full time workers. The part-time quota refers to part-time employment as a percentage of total employment. (Chart 54 in the Appendix).

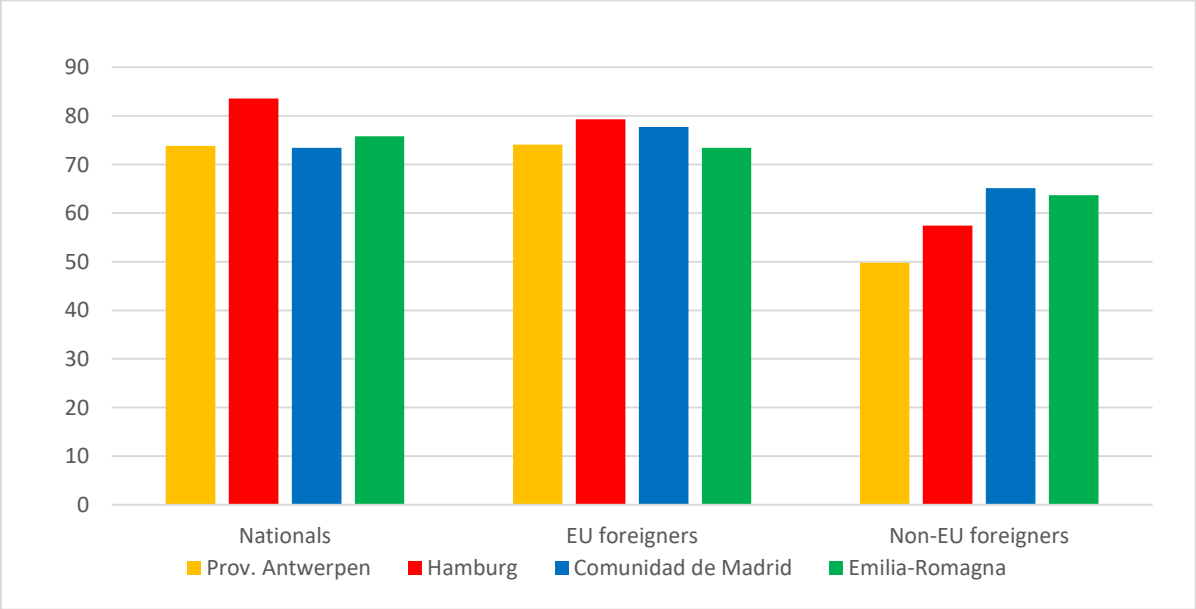
[19] A further feature of own-account workers is that they are engaged in production done entirely for their own final use or own capital formation, either individually or collectively.

In Italy, Germany and Spain, foreigners show higher part-time quotas than nationals, whereas the pattern is less clear-cut in Belgium. The association of part-time work with age is also worth noting. When comparing age groups 25-54 and 55-64, it has to be stated for both nationals and foreigners that the likelihood of part-time employment increases with age in Germany and (for nationals even more) Belgium[20], whereas it (slightly) decreases with age in Spain and Italy.

From a **gender perspective**, **part-time work is much more frequent among women compared to men**. Focusing on the non-EU-born population aged 20 to 64 (Chart 55 in the Appendix) in 2017, **Germany stands out with highest part-time employment rate (55%) among non-EU born women, whereas Spain held the lowest rate (29%).**

Regional dimension

At the regional level, labour market outcomes also reveal significant differences by nationality. In Chart 11, employment rates at NUTS-2 level are plotted. In comparing nationals with non-EU foreigners, **employment rates are notably lower among foreigners within all of the regions under investigation**. By contrast, comparing nationals with EU-foreigners does not yield a uniform picture. **With the exception of Hamburg, employment rates of EU-foreigners are slightly or (in case of the Comunidad de Madrid) even sizably larger than for native citizens.** This can be viewed as a sign for a lively intra-EU work migration. However, it does not necessarily reflect particularly positive job prospects, but also low rates of inactivity. Indeed, a look at the unemployment rate produces a slightly different picture (see Chart 12). While bad perspectives for non-EU foreigners are confirmed for all regions, natives are the best performing group in this regard. However, **the crucial statement that migrants from outside the EU are faced by greater integration barriers to access the labour market can be maintained based on the regional figures**.



[20] Note that no information is given for non-EU citizens in the age group 55-64 in Belgium.

Chart 11. Employment rates of nationals at NUTS-2, EU and non-EU foreigners (aged 20-64), 2018 (%)

Eurostat [lfst_r_lfe2emprtn]; HWWI.

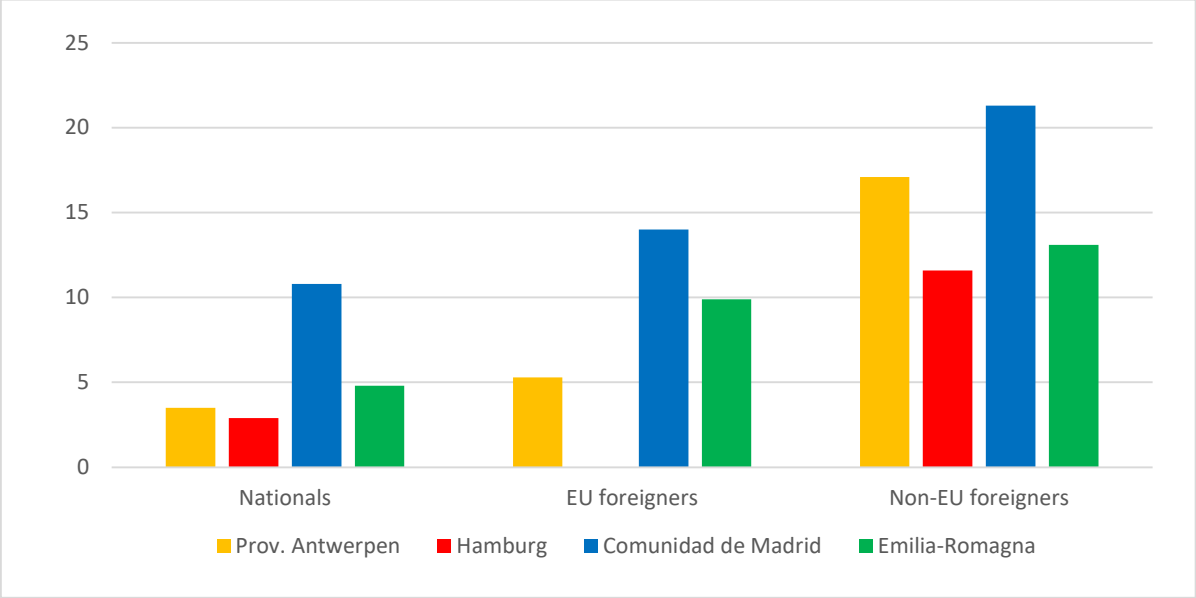


Chart 12. Unemployment rates of nationals at NUTS-2, EU and non-EU foreigners (aged 20-64), 2018 (%)

Eurostat [lfst_r_lfur2gan]; HWWI. No data for EU foreigners in case of Hamburg

Education

Labour market prospects vary significantly with educational attainment. Hence, endowments with formal education is a key indicator of equal opportunities. Educational levels refer to the ISCED 2011[21] classification. For individuals at the medium stage of employment life (age 25-54), Chart 13 depicts the educational distribution in each of the four MICADO pilot countries by country of birth.

[21] International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED), 2011: High education=levels 5-8 (tertiary education), medium education=levels 3-4 (pper secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary education), low education=levels 0-2 (Less than primary, primary and lower secondary education)

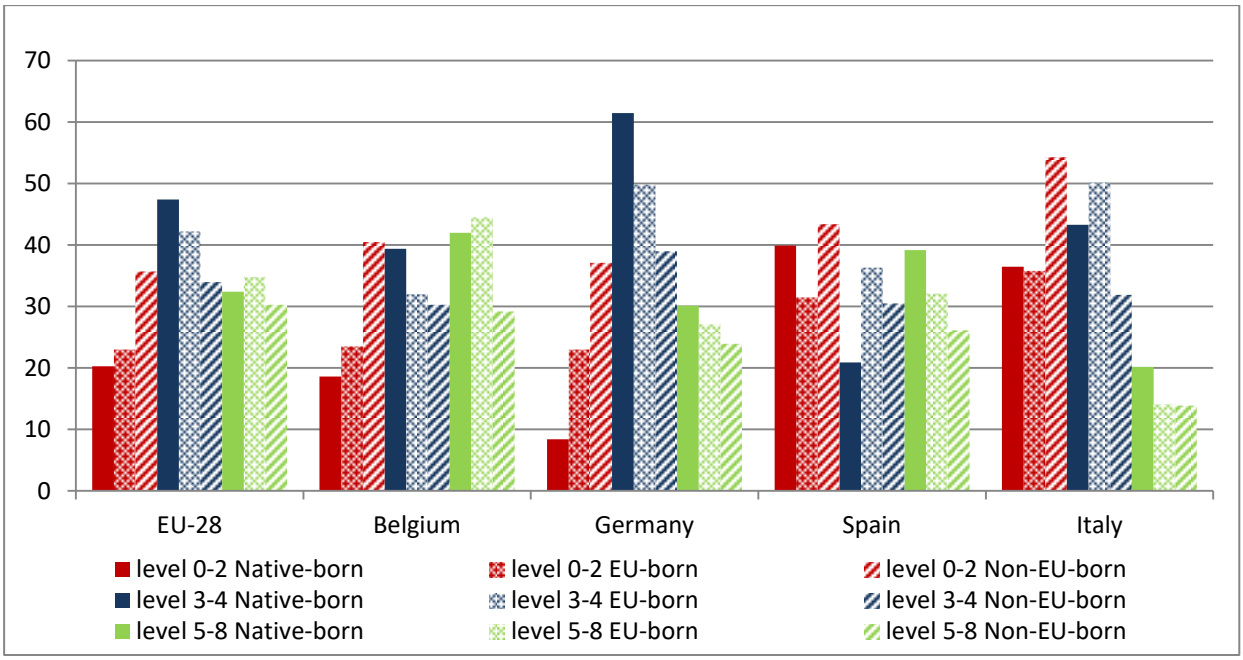


Chart 13. Population aged 25-64 by educational attainment level and groups of country of birth, 2018 (%)

Sources: Eurostat [edat_lfs_9912]; HWWI.

In all four countries under investigation, tertiary education is clearly less common among the non-EU born in comparison to both natives and people born in other EU-countries, a result that is more pronounced than the EU-average. The largest spreads are observed for Belgium and Spain. **Belgium is also the country with the greatest discrepancy between the two migrant groups, due to the fact that tertiary education is even more widespread among people born in other EU-countries than among natives.** A look at the other end of educational distribution is also a cause for concern. The lowest share of the low-educated was observed for German native-born, the highest for Italian foreign born. In all countries, the level of attainment of a more than proportionate number of non-EU born was below upper secondary (level 0-2). **The educational gap is particularly extreme in Germany, where the corresponding share of non-EU born is about four times as high. However, in country comparison, these shares are even higher in the other countries**, with Italy standing out. In Germany, secondary education was the most widespread level of education attained. Half of the EU-born German population attained secondary-education level in 2018 (which also held true for the EU-born Italian population), and among the other three subgroups the prevalence was highest in the four-country comparison and also higher than in the EU-28 average.

Another measure that reflects the integration of immigrants, in particular those who are younger and currently enrolled in the educational system of the country of residence, are results from standardised tests, such as the OECD PISA test (see PISA website). Chart 14 shows the mean PISA reading scores for the four countries of interest. This is an important measure of performance, as it evaluates the level of understanding of the country of residence's language. As presumed, it can be observed that **the performance of native pupils with no migrant background is the best in all countries. Native-born pupils with**

foreign-born parents perform better than foreign-born but the difference is smaller in regard to natives with no migration background. The country with **the largest difference between natives and foreign-born is Germany, while the smallest difference is observed in Spain, where a relevant part of migrants come from Latin America and the Caribbean** with Spanish as their mother tongue.

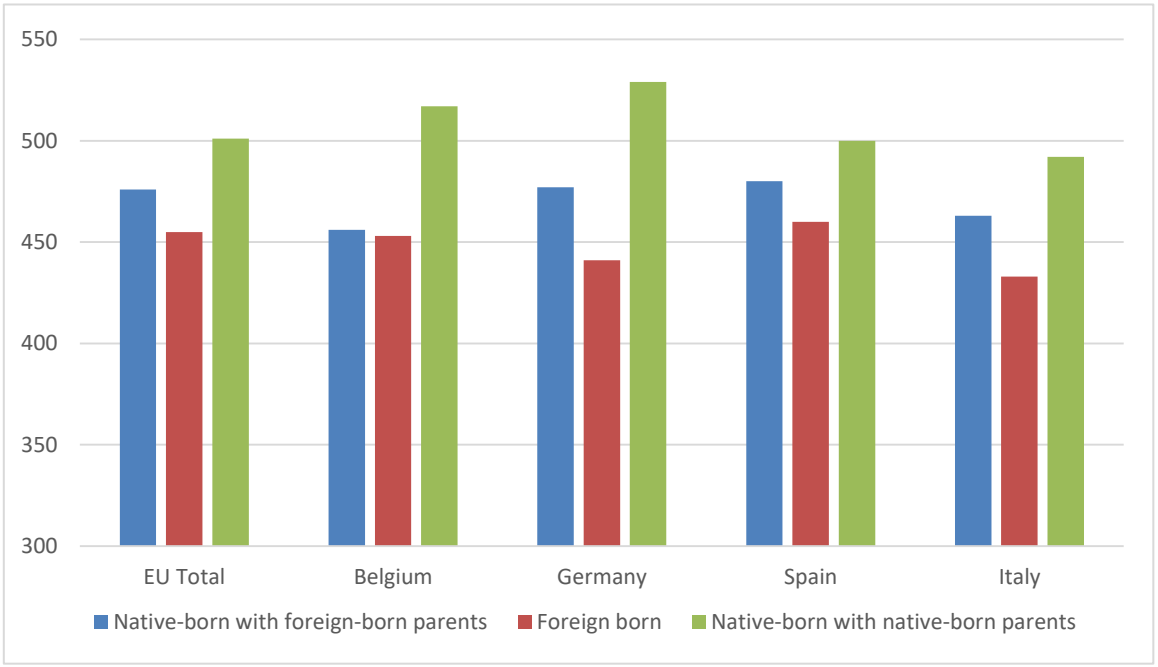


Chart 14. Mean PISA reading scores by immigration background, 15-year-old students (2015)
Source [OECD/EU (2018), Indicators of Immigrant Integration]

Early leavers from education and training denotes the percentage of the population aged 18 to 24 that have attained the lowest level of secondary education who have not been involved in further education or training. This indicator hints at disadvantageous educational careers, associated with a potentially harder labour market integration and restricted earnings perspectives among young adults.

'EU-born' means born in an EU-28 country except the reporting country. 'Non-EU-born' refers to a person not born in an EU-28 country or in the reporting country. 'Native-born' means born in the reporting country. 'Foreign-born' comprises the categories 'EU-born' and 'non-EU-born'.

Chart 15 shows that **native-born people are less likely to leave the educational system early, compared to foreign-born, in all four countries**. The rates of the former group are below (above) the EU-28-average in Germany, Belgium, Italy and Spain. Among the foreign-born, EU and non-EU-born take different positions across countries. **The EU-born in Spain display an outstanding rate with 38.3% which is twice as high as the EU-28 average (19.1).**

The indicator clearly emphasises the need to pay attention to early stages of education when it comes to migrants' educational integration.

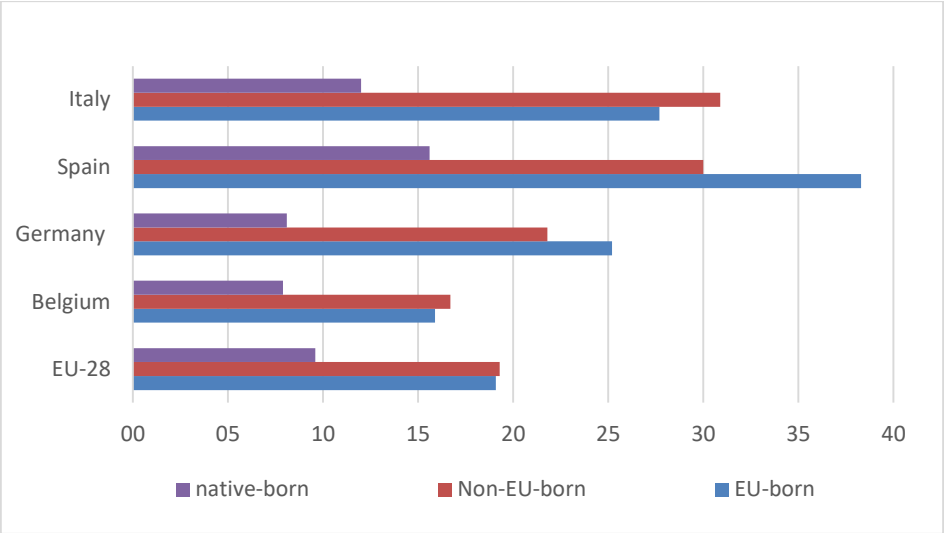


Chart 15. Early leavers from education and training by country of birth as a population percentage in 2018.
Sources: Eurostat [edat_lfse_02]; HWWI.

A further indicator that is a valid supplement to the youth unemployment rate is the NEET rate (Young people **n**either in **e**mployment nor in **e**ducation and **t**raining). Whereas the unemployment rate indicates the employment status, the NEET rate comprises teenagers and young adults who left the educational system and do not work. From the perspective of the human capital theory, this indicates a waste of resources among the young since they neither invest in general human capital (via further schooling) nor in occupation-specific human capital (via professional schooling or training-on-the-job). As a person's earnings are closely related to their human capital endowments, the **NEET status does not only indicate a waste of talents from a macroeconomic perspective but also employment obstacles and related poverty risks at individual level**. The NEET rate is an important indicator particularly in the field of migrant integration, since due to deficient language skills or cultural differentiating factors, young migrants can be expected to struggle more often with educational integration than the native-born.

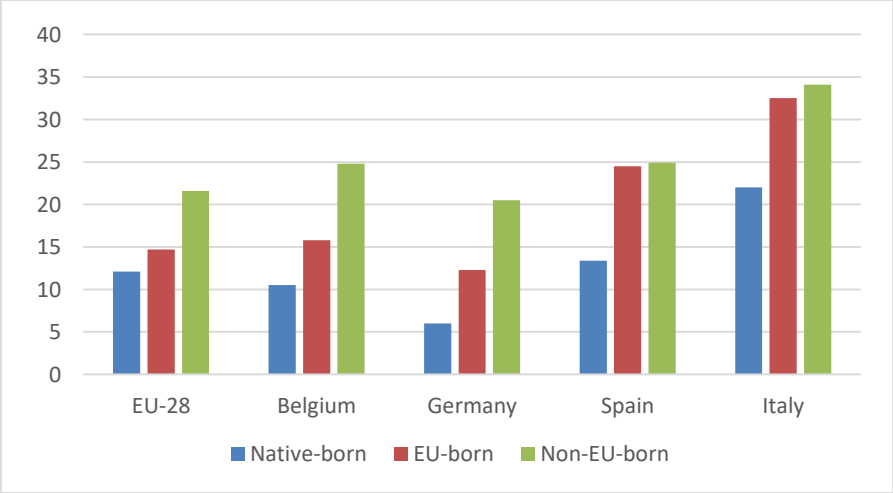


Chart 16. Young people (aged 15-29) neither in employment nor in education and training, by country of birth, 2018 (%)
Eurostat [edat_lfse_28]; HWWI.

Unsurprisingly, Chart 16 shows that **in 2018**, **the NEET rate among the foreign-born is clearly higher compared to native-born in all four countries**. Furthermore, the country order is the same for both groups: Italy ranks first with the highest rate, followed by Belgium, Spain and Germany. Across groups, there is an impressive range: Whereas in 2017, about 6% of people born in Germany were destined to be included in the NEET group, the same likelihood amounts to 34% for the foreign-born in Italy. In Belgium and Germany, the discrepancies between natives and migrants are the most severe.

Language skills are at the interface between education (Section 2.2) and the labour market (Section 2.1). **Deficient skills in the host country's language is one of the most pertinent employment obstacles.**[22] As Chart 56 in the Appendix demonstrates, they are **most significant in Belgium, followed by Italy and Germany**, disregarding citizenship. Language barriers are least important among those who hold a host country citizenship, which might reflect a greater length of stay in the host country or even a completed naturalisation.

Regional dimension

In regard to the educational dimension, **migrant-specific comparative data is tremendously scarce at a regional level**. An analysis of educational attainment is at least feasible for the NUTS-2 divide. Chart 17 illustrates the current situation in the regions of interest. **While cross-region comparisons are aggravated by the difference in educational systems, it is again mainly the discrepancy between people born outside the EU and the other two groups** that catches the eye. In all four regions, people belonging to the former group are least often observed to have tertiary education (Levels 5-8). However, the extent of this phenomenon differs considerably. In terms of percentage points, it is particularly pronounced in case of Prov. Antwerp and the Comunidad de Madrid. For Prov. Antwerp and Hamburg, the comparatively high shares of non-EU migrants with lower upper secondary education (Levels 0-2) is also notable. Concerning the EU-foreign born, their educational attainment ranks somewhere in the middle, with the exception of Prov. Antwerp, where there is not a substantial difference with natives. In all, educational barriers are on average thus observable in both migrant groups, with the problem being consistently more pronounced for the non-EU group.

[22] The information refers to the 2014 Ad-hoc module of the Labour Force Survey which gathered information on this subject.

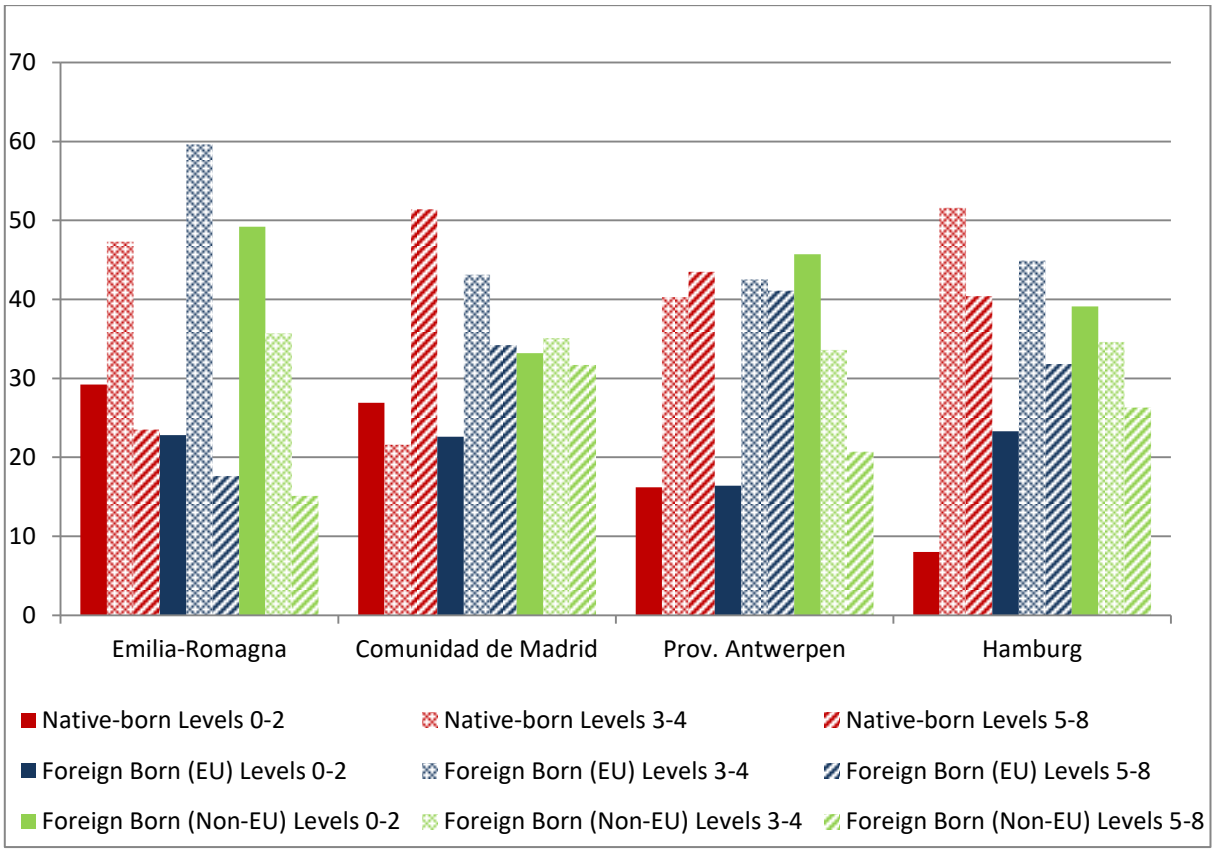


Chart 17. Population aged 25-64 by educational attainment level and groups of country of birth, NUTS-2 2018 (%)

Sources: Eurostat [edat_lfs_9912]; HWWI.

Housing and living conditions

Housing in terms of quality and the cost of each person's living space is an important aspect of the well-being, living standards and social inclusion of individuals (Eurostat 2017). **Information on the housing situation of immigrants is still not easily accessible.** In EU member states, it seems to be difficult for third-country nationals to rent flats or houses, due to high rents and the occasionally discriminatory attitudes of owners (European Council 1997:47). Chart 18 depicts the **tenure status** of nationals and foreign citizens in each of the four countries, compared with the EU-28-average.

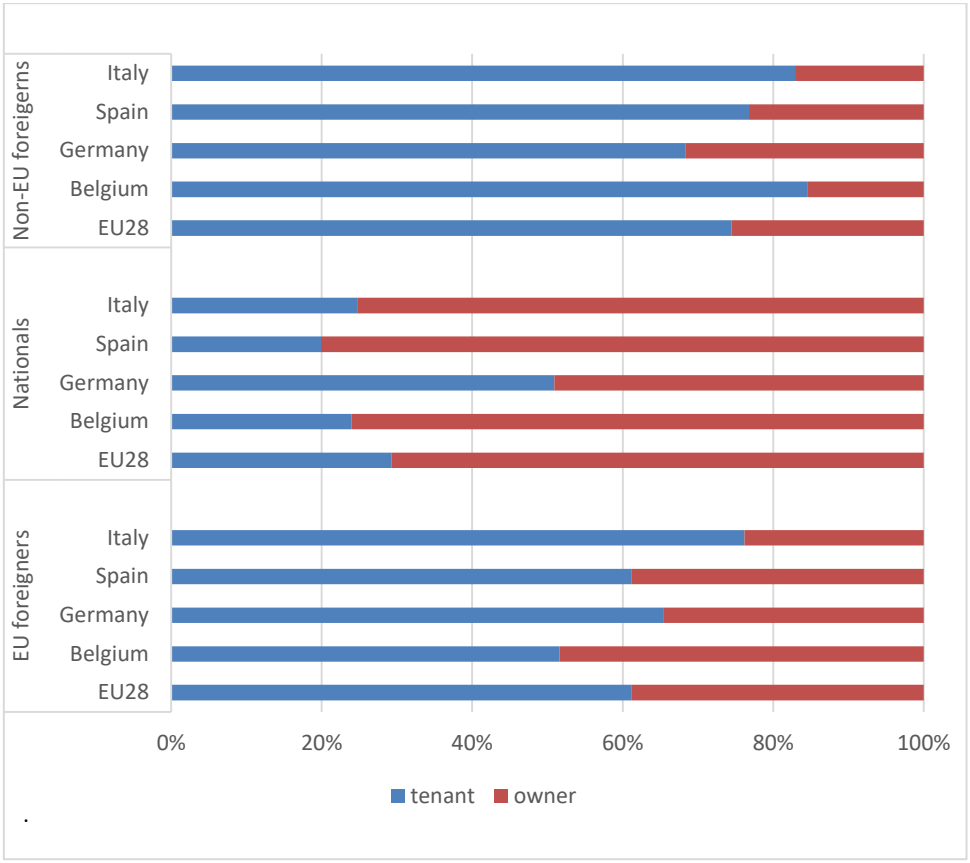


Chart 18. Tenure status of 20-64 year-old nationals of the reporting country and foreign citizens, 2017 (% of respective total population)
Sources: Eurostat [ilc_lvps15]; HWWI

It turns out that the share of homeowners is significantly lower among non-EU foreigners than among nationals. **There is a particular discrepancy to be noted in Belgium, where more than 75% of natives own their homes, but only 15% of non-EU foreigners living in Belgium.** In Belgium, Italy and Spain, EU-foreigners rank somewhere in the middle, while in Germany ownership rates are as low as those displayed by non-EU foreigners. But also among nationals, a sizeable heterogeneity can be detected. Whereas in Spain, Italy and Belgium, between 7 and 8 of every 10 nationals own their home, only 5 of every 10 people in Germany are homeowners. There are many reasons for the differences observed in the countries , such as a notable variation in housing cultures and building regulations. As a result, the tenure status gap between foreign citizens and nationals is least pronounced in Germany in the four-country comparison.

The **overcrowding rate** is defined as the percentage of the population who live in an overcrowded household. A person is considered to live in an overcrowded household if the household does not have a well-defined minimum of rooms, depending on household composition.[23] The overcrowding rate is usually associated with lower income and other indicators of social inclusion.

[23] The minimum is defined by: one room for the household; one room per couple in the household; one room for each single person aged 18 and more; one room per pair of single people of the same gender between 12 and 17 years of age; one room

In 2017, the foreign-born population was generally more likely to live in an overcrowded household than the native-born population (Table 6). This applied to all age groups in all countries. Moreover, older people (55-64) showed a lower overcrowding rate than the population aged 25-54, irrespective of country of birth. In the country comparison, **Italy stood out with far higher overcrowding rates** which were, for example, among EU-born (20-64), 39% eight times higher than their peers in Spain (5%) and roughly three times higher than their peers in Germany (12%) and Belgium (14%, equal to the EU-28 average). **Among the foreign-born population, Italy's rate of 45% was roughly three times higher than the respective rate in Germany (17%), Spain (13%) and Belgium (15%).** For this group, the EU-28 average reached 21%. The patterns of overcrowding with respect to country of birth, age and country of residence have already been observed (for example, 2015 Eurostat 2017, p. 41).

	Native-born			EU-born			Non-EU-born		
	20-64	**25-54**	**55-64**	**20-64**	**25-54**	**55-64**	**20-64**	**25-54**	**55-65**
EU-28	15.5	16.4	9.3	14.3	15.1	7.2	23.8	25.0	13.8
Belgium	2.3	2.3	0.7	14.2	16.7	5.4	15.7	16.0	10.8
Germany	6.9	7.2	3.4	12.0	12.8	7.5	19.7	20.5	11.1
Spain	3.8	3.7	3.3	5.0	5.5	0.0	15.4	15.2	8.3
Italy	26.7	27.8	17.9	39.1	40.5	23.9	47.5	48.3	33.2

Table 6. Overcrowding rate by groups of country of birth and age groups, 2017
Sources: Eurostat [ilc_lvho16]; HWWI.

A notable component of living costs is made up of housing expenses. The **housing cost overburden rate** is defined as the share of the population living in households where the total cost of housing accounts for more than 40% of a household's disposable income (Eurostat 2017, p. 43). Chart 57 in the Appendix depicts the evolution of this rate in the four countries under consideration and the EU-28 average, thereby differentiating by broad groups of citizenship.

It turns out that countries notably differ in magnitude and distribution across groups of citizenship. **In most countries, foreigners are facing a higher likelihood to be overburdened.** However, whereas **Spain and Italy present a polarised distribution with a low rate among nationals and high rates among foreign citizens**, group differences are fairly small in Germany, resulting in a rather compressed distribution. In fact, **Germany is the only country where there are no signs of a particularly high incidence of overburdening among foreigners.** At the same time, **no clear differences between EU and non-EU foreigners are noted: non-EU foreigners are not systematically more often confronted with the issue of overburdening**. Belgium is marking an exception in this

for each single person between 12 and 17 years of age and not included in the previous category; one room per pair of children under 12 years of age (Eurostat 2017, p. 42).

regard. Nationals exhibit the lowest rates at roughly 10% in Belgium, Spain and Italy during the 2010-2017 period. In these countries, the rate of EU foreigners and foreigners in total is also quite stable, whereas there has been a relevant fluctuation in the rate of non-EU nationals. This results in a perfectly stable order of groups of citizenships in Belgium and Spain, whereas in Italy, groups except nationals often change their ranking position.

From 2016 to 2017, rates declined throughout countries. In 2017, foreign citizens' shares stood below 20% in Germany, below 30% in Italy and Belgium and between 30% and 40% in Spain. That is, **the gap in the housing cost overburden rate between foreign citizens and nationals is currently most pronounced in Spain**.

Active citizenship

The acquisition of citizenship reflects effective migrant integration and recognition in the hosting countries, offering them fully active citizenship rights (Eurostat 2017: 53). Therefore, the **naturalisation rate is an important structural indicator for migrant integration**. The rate indicates the ratio between the total number of citizenships granted and the stock of non-national residents at the beginning of the same year. Whereas the rate has been decreasing over time in Spain and Germany, it has risen in Belgium (Table 7). Among the four countries considered in this Report, Italy and Belgium reported higher rates than Germany and Spain in 2017. In the EU comparison, Spain and Germany rank at the bottom end and Italy and Belgium in the middle of the distribution (Eurostat 2019, p. 17).

	2014	2015	2016	2017
Belgium	1.5	2.1	2.4	2.8
Germany	1.6	1.5	1.3	1.2
Spain	4.4	2.5	3.4	1.5
Italy	2.6	3.5	4.0	2.9

Table 7. Naturalisation rate (acquisition of citizenship per hundred resident foreigners)
Sources: Eurostat [migr_acq], [migr_pop1ctz]; HWWI.

3.4 Conclusion

This chapter aims to map the current state of migrant integration in Belgium, Italy, Spain and Germany as regards relevant structural indicators. The data on employment, housing and living conditions, education and health show the great diversity of immigrants' positions in the integration process.

The reference group provided for each indicator corresponds to the group of residents who are native-born and hold the host country's citizenship, respectively. In this view, integrational failure is not suggested to be a personal fault but related to differences in

individual characteristics and macroeconomic and societal circumstances. Following this notion paves the way for action, as a notable part of individual layers can be influenced by tailor-made political, societal and business strategies.

It turns out that there is still a long way to go to achieve migrant integration. Countries perform differently across indicators and population subgroups. Some examples:

- The gap in the housing cost overburden rate between foreign citizens and nationals was recently most pronounced in Spain;
- Italy stands out with the lowest average educational level among the non-EU born population and has the highest NEET rate (neither in employment nor in education and training) among 15-29 year-olds, irrespective of country of birth;
- Germany displays the highest part-time share among employed non-EU citizens and foreign citizens in general;
- Italy reports the highest overcrowding rate among the foreign-born population;
- In Germany, being at risk of poverty or social exclusion (AROPE) is more likely for EU-foreigners than for nationals;
- Italy's naturalisation rates have recently been almost twice as high as Germany's;
- The revealed country-specific challenges might serve as a starting point for local stakeholders to investigate possible causes, identify potential deviations at local level, and learn from the good practices established in partner countries that perform better on the respective indicator.

However, as this Report has already emphasised on several occasions, **structural indicators derived from publicly available secondary data have a couple of shortcomings. Whereas some data is completely lacking, other data are available but not in the appropriate format to be able to draw meaningful conclusions. Awareness of data limitations is a key when data are collected and handled at a local level, which is the subsequent step to be carried out within the MICADO project framework.** Below is a list of some of the flaws of statistical indicators, although it is not complete. They are supplemented by some recommendations (R) on how to manage them in the MICADO project framework.

- **Partially deficient longitudinal scope of data**. It is important to trace potential effects of policy reforms and other country-specific context variable changes on migrant integration over time. However, some information lacks sufficient longitudinal scope for the whole country under consideration. For example, no German data on the population regarding level of educational attainment, sex, age and country of birth[24] are not available before 2017.
    - **R: Data collection with a sufficient longitudinal scope will be a compelling issue at local level**. As complicated and time-consuming data harmonisation

[24] Code: edat_lfs_9912

standards and processes are dispensable or at least less demanding at local level, this will hopefully make it easier to access data for wider time spans.

- **Partially deficient country and subgroup coverage.** Some indicators are available for a wide spectrum of subgroups and countries, but cross-country and cross-subgroup comparisons are not feasible if one relevant group is missing.
    - R: The spatial proximity of relevant actors and interview people at local level, lower complexity of data architecture (compared to European level) and the option to fill emerging gaps in secondary data with newly collapsed field data should boost the appropriateness of the local data pool for the purposes of the MICADO project.
- **The national level may be misleading**, due to considerable regional variation. More disaggregated data is necessary to avoid false conclusions based solely on the national data.
    - R: Collecting data at a local level in pilot cities will circumvent the above-stated problem and ensure a regional fit.
- **A lack of subjective evaluations**. Structural indicators report integration outcomes defined by statistical bodies. Consequently, they lack information on subjectively assessed integration outcomes, by migrants themselves or third parties (public authorities, etc.), including migrants' attitudes towards their host country, their personal expectations concerning their situation and their participation in social and political processes. Since integration also involves and concerns the host society, attitudes of the majority (indigenous) population are also indispensable.
    - R: Migrant surveys provide more disaggregated data such as in Germany. For example, additional information on migrant attitudes, norms and values, sense of belonging etc. has been gained from a Hamburg-specific analysis of the 'Integrationsbarometer' carried out by the Expert Council of German Foundations on Integration and Migration (Sachverständigenrat Deutscher Stiftungen für Integration und Migration, SVR Migration) on behalf of the Free and Hanseatic City of Hamburg - Ministry of Labour, Social, Family Affairs and Integration (SVR-Forschungsbereich 2018). It remains to be examined whether this data can be incorporated into the MICADO data pool.
- **A lack of information on process indicators**. To assess the meaningfulness of integration policies in EU countries, it is essential to evaluate integration outcomes in the context of the policy instruments chosen. This requires sensible cross-country measures for the scope and focus of such policy efforts, which are also currently lacking. The policy analysis undertaken in MICADO is seeking to fill this gap.
    - R: The legal and policy framework in the four countries at a national and regional level will be provided by task T.1.2.3 Policy Map. At the regional level, they will also contain public and private initiatives in the field of migrant integration.
- **Difficult applicability to the local level. (See Chapter 5)** Only a few migration related indicators are consistently available, as the local level is a not part of macroeconomic

databases such as Eurostat. Therefore, comparability depends on the availability of indicators and common definitions at local statistical offices.

- R: As the harmonization of indicators between the four pilot cities can hardly be achieved in the MICADO project, there should be local solutions rather than a universal solution for the presentation of local data.

4. Policy Map

4.1 Introduction and methodology

During recent decades the European Union and its members have developed and collected **consistent information focused on migrant integration**. Since the **Declaration of Zaragoza (2010)** several key policy areas and common indicators, together with others proposed by Huddleston et al (2013) were set and included and monitored by **Eurostat Migrant integration statistics**[25]. Moreover, several European Projects have been funded creating other issue-oriented indices and databases such as the **Migration Integration Policy Index (MIPEX 2015[26])**, the **Oxford Migration Index, (EUI[27]),** etc. All these indices provide **reliable and standardised data at national level** that enables a comparative analysis and a general overview of migrant integration within the European Framework. Nevertheless, their updates have been discontinued and are limited to the national level lacking substantive information regarding social, cultural, economic and political integration at regional and local levels. Moreover, neither focuses specifically on gender although it is a key issue that affects integration.

At local level, where many facets of integration happen, **EUROCITIES**[28] reported a set of policy recommendations and case studies reports, although its information is mainly qualitative and does not include our Consortium cities. In this vein, the **OECD[29], together with the European Commission,** launched an initiative to gather qualitative information from 12 European cities, none of them in our Consortium. Paradoxically, although the regional and local level manages 40% of public spending on integration policy (OECD, 2016), a lack of knowledge or systematic data has been collected in this regard. Moreover, the OECD pointed out the **lack of adequate coordination between different governmental levels** that many cities address by engaging and collaborating with local civil society groups (OECD, 2018d).

This question **clearly intertwines with the new governance paradigm** when public authorities approach new and complex realities. According to the White Paper of European Governance good governance is related to "openness, participation, accountability, effectiveness and coherence in order to stablish more democratic governance. They underpin democracy and the rule of law in the Member States, but they apply to all levels of government – global, European, national, regional and local" (2001: 7). This implies the inclusion of open government initiatives (Beetham and Boyle, 1996) by providing available

[25] Eurostat Migrant integration statistics https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/statistics-explained/index.php/Migrant_integration_statistics
[26] Migrant Integration Index 2015 **(**http://www.mipex.eu/)
[27] EUI http://www.migrationpolicycentre.eu/#0
[28] EUROCITIES report: *Cities and Migrants 3 - the 3rd Integrating Cities Report* (2018) (http://www.eurocities.eu/eurocities/documents/EUROCITIES-report-Cities-and-Migrants-3-the-3rd-Integrating-Cities-Report-WSPO-B6329J)
[29] OECD/EU (2018), *Settling In 2018: Indicators of Immigrant Integration*, OECD Publishing, Paris/EU, Brussels, https://doi.org/10.1787/9789264307216-en.

data and e-administrative processes, and the inclusion of stakeholders and the third sector, as well as the final beneficiaries of the policies in the decision and implementation policy-making process, building strong 'policy networks' (Rhodes, 2007). These studies stress that in practice, integration takes place at a local level and cities are focal spots (OECD, 2018d). Hence it is essential to obtain data at the right scale to improve our policies for migrant integration (OECD, 2018d).

In view of the difficulties and gaps observed above, **this chapter attempts to shed some light on the provision of information at regional and local levels, paying special attention to the policy-making process.** Moreover, it aims to update and harmonise our findings in order to make comparisons between the national and local levels and amongst countries in order to address their heterogeneity and complexity.

We adopted a three-step data-gathering process and each one responds to different goals and methodologies:

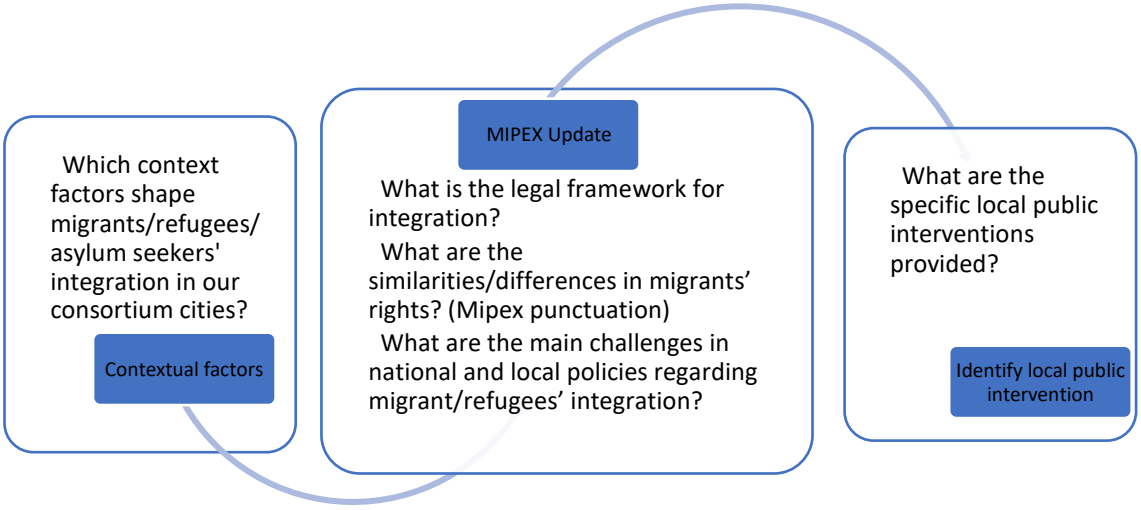


Figure 3. Policy Map data gathering process

1 City Context Questionnaire[30]

Each Consortium partner filled in a questionnaire (available in Appendix 9.3) to describe the local socio-political framework depicting the general integration context of each city. This task was performed by the partners through 'The City Context Questionnaire (8 open questions)' following EUROCITIES open question methodology. The contextual factors were used to interpret the MIPEX and Policy Map analyses.

2 MIPEX Update[31]

[30] See Appendix 9.3
[31] See Appendix 9.4.

Each Consortium partner updated the MIPEX 2014 Datasheet, a compilation of 167 indicators created in 2007, whose methodology has been improved by the MIPEX team to include more dimensions and indicators. MIPEX 2015[32] had 8 dimensions: **Labour Market Mobility**, **Family Reunion for Foreign Citizens**, **Education**, **Political Participation, Permanent Residence, Access to Nationality, Anti-Discrimination**, **Health.**

We have slightly modified the template to **expand and include two new dimensions**: **Housing and Gender and add a column to check and explain local indicators**. This task provided a consolidated national and local legal and political framework dataset made up of ~ 189 indicators/legal evidences, which led us to 'migrant's rights' legal framework and check for similarities and differences at national and local levels, analysing Consortium countries and cities and their evolution by using old longitudinal MIPEX scores obtained since 2007.

3 Local Policy Map[33]

Finally, following a template (see Appendix 9.6) each Consortium partner prospected **local government policies** and included all public interventions related to integration and the topics of interest. This database consists in a matrix that records 40 variables to analyse public interventions. Here we also added several questions regarding accessibility to the data and ICT implementation in order to start feeding useful information to MICADO's ICT solution.

This template included information on the policy-making process, consisting of the design, implementation, evaluation, monitoring and funding. It also gathered information on the involvement of the migration population in the policy-making process. And finally included information relevant to MICADO's ICT solution, such as data availability, link, update frequency, format, etc.

4.2 Migrant Integration Policy Index Update

As stated above, all Consortium cities completed the MIPEX 2015[34] dataset of 167 indicators, which was slightly modified to improve and include the Housing and Gender dimensions, upgrading the index to **189 indicators (309 sub-indicators)**.

Partner cities checked **whether there had been changes to the 2014 scores (the last available)[35], pointed out the relevant laws or regulations, and checked for similarities and differences between national and local levels**, analysing Consortium countries and cities and their evolution by using old longitudinal MIPEX scores obtained since 2007.

[32] MIPEX 2015 methodology and data is available at http://www.mipex.eu/methodology
[33] See Appendix 9.4
[34] MIPEX 2015 methodology and data is available at http://www.mipex.eu/methodology
[35] It is worth noting the update of the MIPEX scores have been performed by the Consortium partners, conformed by Universities and public authorirties, in a very limited amount of time, which may cause some slight variation in the completing of the MIPEX datasheet.

MIPEX 2015 OVERALL SCORE			
LABOUR MARKET MOBILITY	Total Score	PERMANENT RESIDENCE	Total Score
	ACCESS		ELIGIBILITY
	ACCESS TO GENERAL SUPPORT		CONDITIONS FOR ACQUISITION OF STATUS
	TARGETED SUPPORT		SECURITY OF STATUS
	WORKERS' RIGHTS		RIGHTS ASSOCIATED WITH STATUS
FAMILY REUNION FOR FOREIGN CITIZENS	Total Score	ACCESS TO NATIONALITY	Total Score
	ELIGIBILITY		ELIGIBILITY
	CONDITIONS FOR ACQUISITION OF STATUS		CONDITIONS FOR ACQUISITION
	SECURITY OF STATUS		SECURITY OF STATUS
	RIGHTS ASSOCIATED WITH STATUS		DUAL NATIONALITY
EDUCATION	Total Score	ANTI-DISCRIMINATION	Total Score
	ACCESS		DEFINITIONS AND CONCEPTS
	TARGETING NEEDS		FIELDS OF APPLICATION
	NEW OPPORTUNITIES		ENFORCEMENT MECHANISMS
	INTERCULTURAL EDUCATION FOR ALL		EQUALITY POLICIES
POLITICAL PARTICIPATION	Total Score	HEALTH	Total Score
	ELECTORAL RIGHTS		ENTITLEMENT TO HEALTH SERVICES
	POLITICAL LIBERTIES		POLICIES TO FACILITATE ACCESS
	CONSULTATIVE BODIES		RESPONSIVE HEALTH SERVICES
	IMPLEMENTATION POLICIES		MEASURES TO ACHIEVE CHANGE

Table 8. MIPEX 2015 Dimensions and main indicators

Housing	
MEASURES TO ACHIEVE CHANGE	
House acquisition[36]	What categories of TCNs have equal access to buying a house a. Long-term residents b. Residents on temporary work permits (excluding seasonal) c. Residents on family reunion permits (same as sponsor) d. undocumented migrants
House rental	What categories of TCNs have equal access to renting a house a. Long-term residents b. Residents on temporary work permits (excluding seasonal) c. Residents on family reunion permits (same as sponsor) d. Undocumented migrants
Access to housing	What categories of TCNs have equal access to housing benefits? (e.g., public/social housing, participation in housing financing schemes) a. Long-term residents b. Residents on temporary work permits (excluding seasonal) c. Residents with family reunion permits (same as sponsor)
Gender	
MEASURES TO ACHIEVE CHANGE	
Labour and salary equality	Are there policies to avoid workplace discrimination against migrant women?
Attention to victims of sexual exploitation	Have migrant women the right to be helped by public services that protect victims of sexual exploitation?
Attention to victims of violence against women	Have migrant women the right to be helped by public services that assist victims of violence against women?

Table 9. Housing and Gender Dimension MICADO 2019 MIPEX Indicators and Sub-indicators

2019 National Results Vs. 2014 National Results

Since the last collection of indicators carried by the MIPEX in 2014, some relevant socio-political events have taken place as explained above. First, the great arrival of

[36] This sub-indicator was in Labour Market Mobility Dimension (Sub-Indicator – Worker's Rights in MIPEX 2015)

undocumented migration to EU borders which resulted in the temporary reintroduction of border control at diverse internal borders pursuant to Article 25 et seq. of the Schengen Borders Code due to a 'big influx of persons seeking international protection'[37]. This migration crisis had its impact in the political discourses and arenas in some EU states, regions and cities, where right-wing parties took advantage of this discourse against migration, showing the connections with terrorist attacks, which could be also traceable in some Brexit demands. We must also point out the efforts done by some States and cities to welcome migration and fostering integration, a good example could be the reinforced activity of the network Eurocities which has helped to strengthen the role of cities in all EU policy negotiations related to urban issues.

This subchapter examines the evolution of MIPEX scores (at national level) from 2014 to 2019. In order to make comparisons and study how national regulations have performed in each country since 2014 we will first present 2019 update following MIPEX traditional methodology (2015) of 8 domains (labour market mobility, family reunion, education, political participation, residence, nationality, anti-discrimination, health). Interpreting MIPEX Integration Indicators' assuming a temporal gap of five years is difficult, since the breach period covers the 2015 refugee crisis and stops when the countries reactions were still crystallizing, moreover MIPEX is feed only by regulations, which are usually conformed by EU legislative developments, and sometimes legal advancements do not entail the same advancements in reality, meaning although the regulation is in place this entitlements do not materialise in programmes, policies or are even not adequately funded.

Belgium is the only country whose **overall score have decreased in these five years, although it remains the best positioned.** Meanwhile **Germany (3), Spain (3) and Italy (2) increased their scores.**

In the last five years **Belgium** has only improved in the domain related to the Labour market mobility as a result of regulation focused in worker's rights. In the meantime **Germany** has developed legal mechanisms with a special focus in Anti-discrimination (definitions and fields of application) and Education (intercultural education for all, targeting needs and improving opportunities), **Spain** has drastically reduced its score in Family Reunion for foreign citizens and Permanent residence to a more restrictive scheme, while clear efforts have been done in regulating Health, Labour Market Mobility and Anti-discrimination. Finally, **Italy** has adopted more integrative regulation in the Permanent residence dimension (eligibility and security of status) and Anti-discrimination while Political Participation and Family Reunion for foreign citizens indicators have decreased.

[37] «Member States' notifications of the temporary reintroduction of border control at internal borders pursuant to Article 23 et seq. of the Schengen Borders Code». ec.europa.eu. European Commission. Accessed 16 July 2019.

Looking at the overall changes during these five years by dimension we can see that **the main improvements have been achieved in the Anti-Discrimination, Education, Labour Market Mobility and Health Dimensions**, meanwhile a **decrease by adopting more restrictive regulations have been detected in Family Reunion for foreign citizens, and Permanent Residence**.

	MIPEX National Scores Changes 2014-2019			
	BE	DE	ES	IT
OVERALL SCORE	**-4**	**5**	**4**	**2**
LABOUR MARKET MOBILITY	**2**	**0**	**14**	**3**
FAMILY REUNION FOR FOREIGN CITIZENS	**-8**	**-3**	**-13**	**0**
EDUCATION	**-4**	**15**	**5**	**5**
POLITICAL PARTICIPATION	**0**	**2**	**8**	**-7**
PERMANENT RESIDENCE	**-19**	**4**	**-5**	**9**
ACCESS TO NATIONALITY	**1**	**0**	**9**	**0**
ANTI-DISCRIMINATION	**0**	**15**	**13**	**6**
HEALTH	**-3**	**5**	**16**	**5**

Table 10. 2014-2019 Changes in MIPEX (National Results)[38]

The following table show the same evolution, MIPEX indicators (2015) from 2014 to 2019 in detail by subdimension.

[38] Source for all data in this chapter: Authors' own compilation on MIPEX 2015 indicators (http://www.mipex.eu/)

MIPEX 2015 METHODOLOGY FOR ALL SCORES		MIPEX National Scores Changes 2014-2019				MIPEX National Scores 2014 National					MIPEX National Scores Update 2019 National				
		BE	DE	ES	IT	BE	DE	ES	IT	Av.Sc.	BE	DE	ES	IT	Av.Sc.
OVERALL SCORE		**-4**	**5**	**4**	**2**	**70**	**63**	**61**	**58**	**66,1**	**66**	**68**	**65**	**60**	**67,4**
LABOUR MARKET MOBILITY	Total Score	2	0	14	3	64	86	72	66	73,9	66	86	86	69	76,9
	ACCESS	0	0	0	-10	60	70	100	90	80,0	60	70	100	80	77,5
	ACCESS TO GENERAL SUPPORT	0	0	0	8	92	83	83	67	81,3	92	83	83	75	83,3
	TARGETED SUPPORT	0	0	30	0	30	90	30	20	42,5	30	90	60	20	50,0
	WORKERS' RIGHTS	17	0	0	-25	75	100	75	100	91,7	92	100	75	75	96,9
FAMILY REUNION FOR FOREIGN CITIZENS	Total Score	-8	-3	-13	0	72	57	90	71	72,4	65	54	76	70	68,1
	ELIGIBILITY	0	-7	-7	0	64	25	79	71	59,8	64	18	71	71	56,2
	CONDITIONS FOR ACQUISITION OF STATUS	-20	4	-20	-1	61	50	80	39	57,7	41	54	60	38	48,4
	SECURITY OF STATUS	-10	-10	-10	0	80	70	100	80	82,5	70	60	90	80	75,0
	RIGHTS ASSOCIATED WITH STATUS	0	0	-17	0	83	83	100	92	89,6	83	83	83	92	85,4
EDUCATION	Total Score	-4	15	5	5	61	47	37	34	44,6	57	62	42	39	50,0
	ACCESS	0	8	0	0	42	50	42	25	39,6	42	58	42	25	41,7
	TARGETING NEEDS	-5	13	10	-10	65	47	37	60	52,1	60	60	47	50	54,2
	NEW OPPORTUNITIES	-5	20	0	0	53	50	30	10	35,6	48	70	30	10	39,4
	INTERCULTURAL EDUCATION FOR ALL	-6	20	10	30	85	40	40	40	51,3	79	60	50	70	64,8
POLITICAL PARTICIPATION	Total Score	0	2	8	-7	57	63	54	58	58,1	57	65	62	51	58,8
	ELECTORAL RIGHTS	0	0	13	0	13	0	25	0	9,4	13	0	38	0	12,5
	POLITICAL LIBERTIES	0	0	0	0	100	100	100	100	100,0	100	100	100	100	100,0
	CONSULTATIVE BODIES	0	8	-3	-8	25	63	53	53	48,1	25	70	50	45	47,5
	IMPLEMENTATION POLICIES	0	0	20	-20	90	90	40	80	75,0	90	90	60	60	75,0
PERMANENT RESIDENCE	Total Score	-19	4	-5	9	86	60	74	65	71,4	67	64	70	75	68,8
	ELIGIBILITY	0	0	-13	25	63	50	63	38	53,1	63	50	50	63	56,3
	CONDITIONS FOR ACQUISITION OF STATUS	-33	17	0	0	100	33	67	55	63,7	67	50	67	55	59,5
	SECURITY OF STATUS	-44	0	-6	13	81	56	69	69	68,8	38	56	63	81	59,4
	RIGHTS ASSOCIATED WITH STATUS	0	0	0	0	100	100	100	100	100,0	100	100	100	100	100,0
ACCESS TO NATIONALITY	Total Score	1	0	9	0	69	72	48	50	59,6	69	71	57	50	62,0
	ELIGIBILITY	-8	0	-17	0	63	92	50	42	61,5	54	92	33	42	55,2
	CONDITIONS FOR ACQUISITION	8	-2	18	3	28	52	32	23	33,8	37	50	50	27	40,8
	SECURITY OF STATUS	3	0	10	-3	83	57	60	60	65,0	87	57	70	57	67,5
	DUAL NATIONALITY	0	0	25	0	100	88	50	75	78,1	100	88	75	75	84,4
ANTI-DISCRIMINATION	Total Score	0	15	13	6	78	58	49	61	61,5	78	73	62	68	70,2
	DEFINITIONS AND CONCEPTS	0	33	25	8	75	67	50	58	62,5	75	100	75	67	79,2
	FIELDS OF APPLICATION	0	20	40	0	100	80	50	100	82,5	100	100	90	100	97,5
	ENFORCEMENT MECHANISMS	0	6	-6	6	75	69	69	75	71,9	75	75	63	81	73,4
	EQUALITY POLICIES	0	0	-6	11	61	17	28	11	29,2	61	17	22	22	30,6
HEALTH	Total Score	-3	5	16	5	53	43	53	65	53,4	50	48	69	69	59,0
	ENTITLEMENT TO HEALTH SERVICES	-3	-8	50	17	69	50	50	72	60,4	67	42	100	89	74,3
	POLICIES TO FACILITATE ACCESS	5	27	13	0	72	30	67	78	61,7	77	57	80	78	72,9
	RESPONSIVE HEALTH SERVICES	0	0	8	0	42	58	38	50	46,9	42	58	46	50	49,0
	MEASURES TO ACHIEVE CHANGE	-13	0	-8	2	29	33	58	58	44,8	17	33	50	60	40,0

Table 11. 2014-2019 MIPEX (National results by subdimension)

For further information on the overall longitudinal evolution of MIPEX indicators since 2007 see Appendix 9.5

2019 MIPEX National Results

This subchapter presents national results in each of the Consortium countries. This time the data comes from our updated version of MIPEX (2019) indicators containing **10 dimensions** instead of 8 (labour market, education, health, political participation, access to nationality, family reunion, permanent residence, anti-discrimination, housing and gender). This strategy allows to detect regional/local efforts and integration obstacles. The secondary data analysis and relevant insights from the theoretical and analytical findings in the SLR completed the picture, which showed the integration baseline set up by national laws, usually developed by transpositions of EU Directives.

As the policy maps show, **the national regulations for migration, asylum and integration might be described as reactive**, that is, due to EU actions or changes in the broad socio-political context, whose main challenge is integrating an increasing the share of refugees, asylum-seekers and migrants (EU and non-EU).

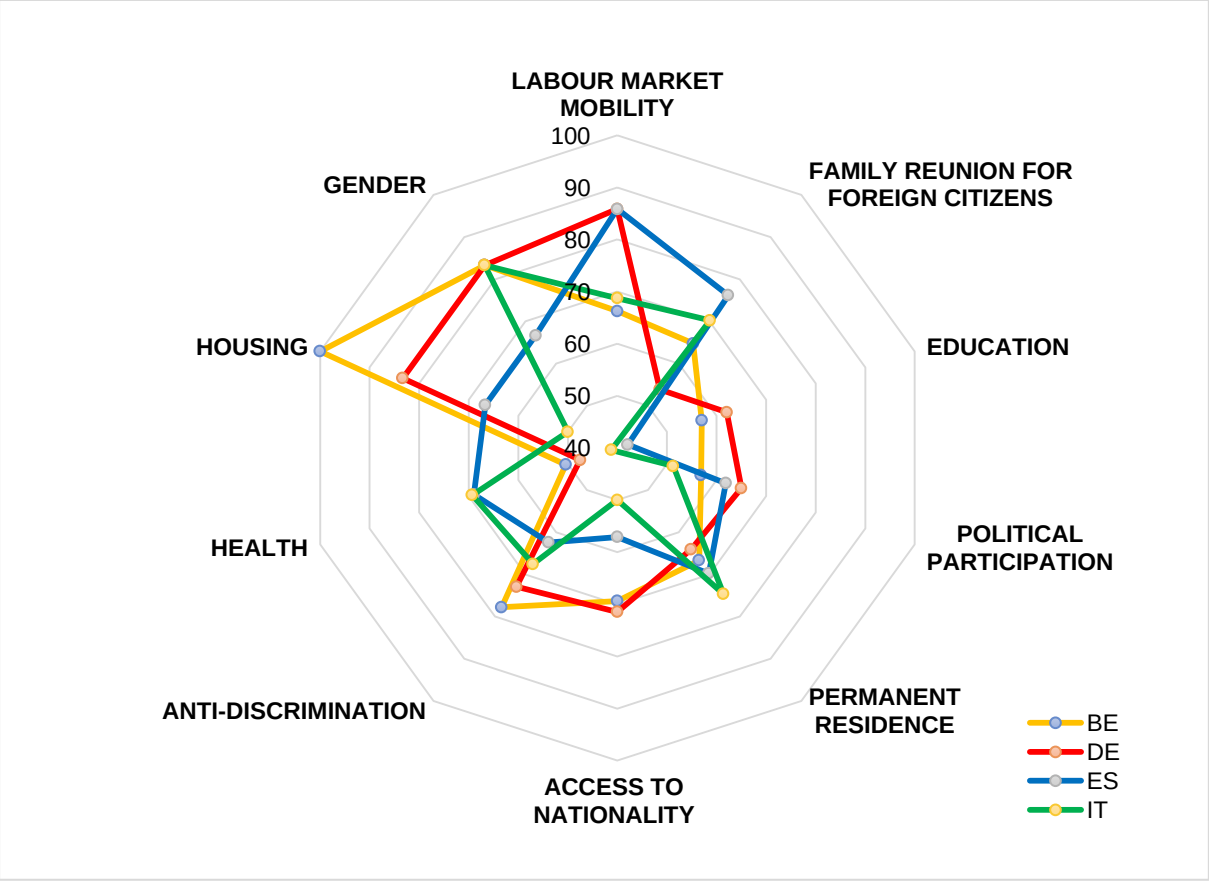


Chart 19. 2019 MIPEX (National results)

Our main results of the 2019 MIPEX update concerning the overall score reveals **Belgium as the country were integration efforts are more evident in national and regional legislations, Germany comes second, and lastly, Spain and Italy**.

The update of the MIPEX indicators in 2019 reveals that the greatest efforts regarding integration – always considered as quality to native-born population- have been carried out by Belgium and Germany (69), with both countries above the average score (66.6); Spain (66) and Italy (62) were below the average result. Our premise is that Belgium and Germany have a longer migrant tradition combined with a more efficient EU Directives transposition at their national level than Spain and Italy due to its newness in this phenomenon.

By dimension, **Labour Market Mobility and Gender are the dimensions with the most integrative regulations, with the highest score in all countries**. The scores for Housing, Permanent Residence and Family Reunion for foreign citizens are also high, although there

are greater differences between countries. On the other hand, the **lowest scores were obtained in the dimensions of Education, Health and Political Participation**, revealing and confirming the need for either a new regulatory effort, or a local perspective when tackling migrant integration issues.

	2019 MIPEX SCORE (NATIONAL LEVEL)			
	BE	DE	ES	IT
LABOUR MARKET MOBILITY	66	86	86	69
FAMILY REUNION FOR FOREIGN CITIZENS	65	54	76	70
EDUCATION	57	62	42	39
POLITICAL PARTICIPATION	57	65	62	51
PERMANENT RESIDENCE	67	64	70	75
ACCESS TO NATIONALITY	69	71	57	50
ANTI-DISCRIMINATION	78	73	62	68
HEALTH	50	48	69	69
HOUSING	100	83	67	50
GENDER	83	83	67	83
TOTAL (MIPEX 2019)	**69,2**	**68,9**	**65,8**	**62,4**

Table 12. 2019 MIPEX Update score (National level)[39]

2019 MIPEX National Results by dimension

The following subchapter presents the 2019 MIPEX National results by dimension and country. Dimensions are ordered by scores, presenting first the dimension with the highest scores on average. The **MIPEX National results show the institutional and regulatory effort made by national governments and public bodies to achieve equality between natives and other categories of foreign-born population**; obviously, in the four analysed countries, the changes in MIPEX indicators are strongly dependent on EU regulations, policies or mere declarations (explicit[40] and implicit). It is important to note that MIPEX indicators reflect legal evidence of integrative regulations and not how these cities perform in term of outcomes more easily traceable through secondary data and statistics.

The **highest score in the comparative analysis by dimension is led by the newly created Gender dimension** that measures migrant women's rights (79.2 average total score), in which all countries but Spain (lacking specific laws related to equality in salaries) obtained 83.3. We can observe the efforts made to tackle workplace discrimination and the

[39] Scores in this table are slightly different than those in Table 10. 2019 Mipex Update score include 10 dimensions (MIPEX 2015 + Housing + Gender).
[40] A New Start for Europe: My Agenda for Jobs, Growth, Fairness and Democratic Change. Political Guidelines for the next European Commission Opening Statement in the European Parliament Plenary Session Strasbourg, 22 October 2014 Candidate for President of the European Commission Strasbourg, Accesed in 15 July 2019 https://ec.europa.eu/commission/publications/president-junckers-political-guidelines_es

transposition of regulations to fight against women trafficking for sexual exploitation, nevertheless some dispositions of the Palermo Protocol (for example, victims' restitution) are still precariously covered, especially in Spain[41].

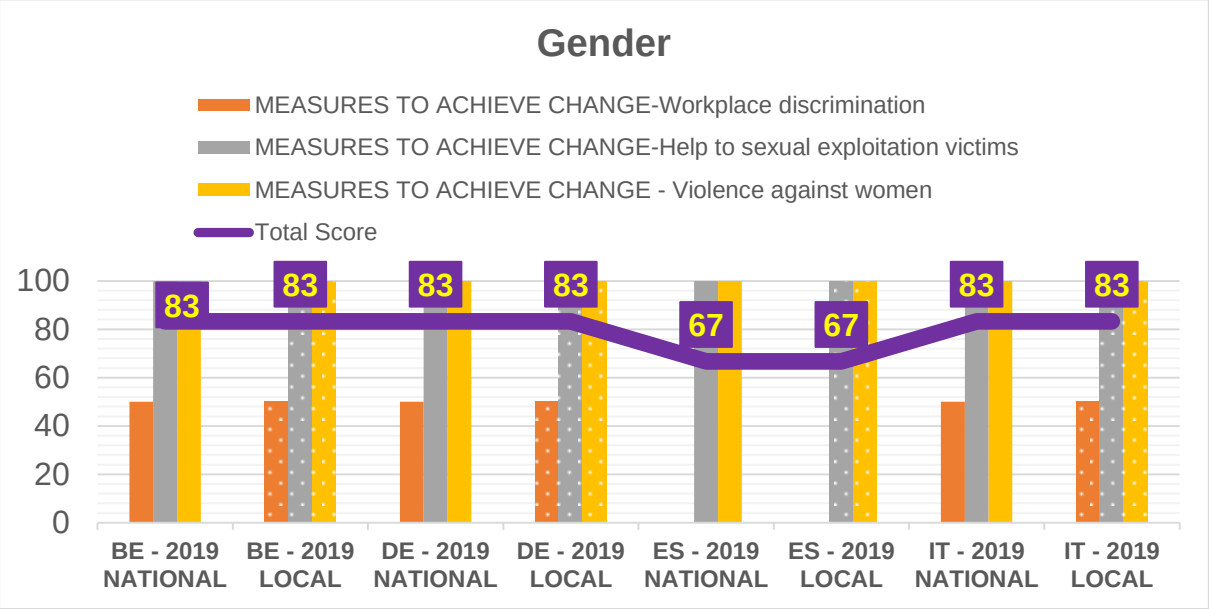


Chart 20. 2019 MIPEX – Gender (National and local results)

The **second top dimension in terms of regulatory effort to fight against inequality was Labour market mobility**, which is the dimension with the most indicators; Germany and Spain's score above average, followed by Italy and Belgium with the lowest scores. The sub-indicator with the lowest scores was related to measures aimed towards addressing the specific needs of workers born and trained abroad. We must point out that, with the exception of Belgium, in the workers' rights subdimension, all national regulations obtained the maximum score, so we could consider that no further legal action is needed to ensure migrants are provided with the same work and social security rights as EU nationals/nationals in Spain, Germany and Italy. **However, as regards access to the labour market, general support and targeted support, all countries could at least reinforce their regulations to increase integration.**

[41] UNDOC (2018). Global report on trafficking in persons.. Accesed in 15 July 2019. https://www.unodc.org/documents/data-and-analysis/glotip/2018/GLOTiP_2018_BOOK_web_small.pdf

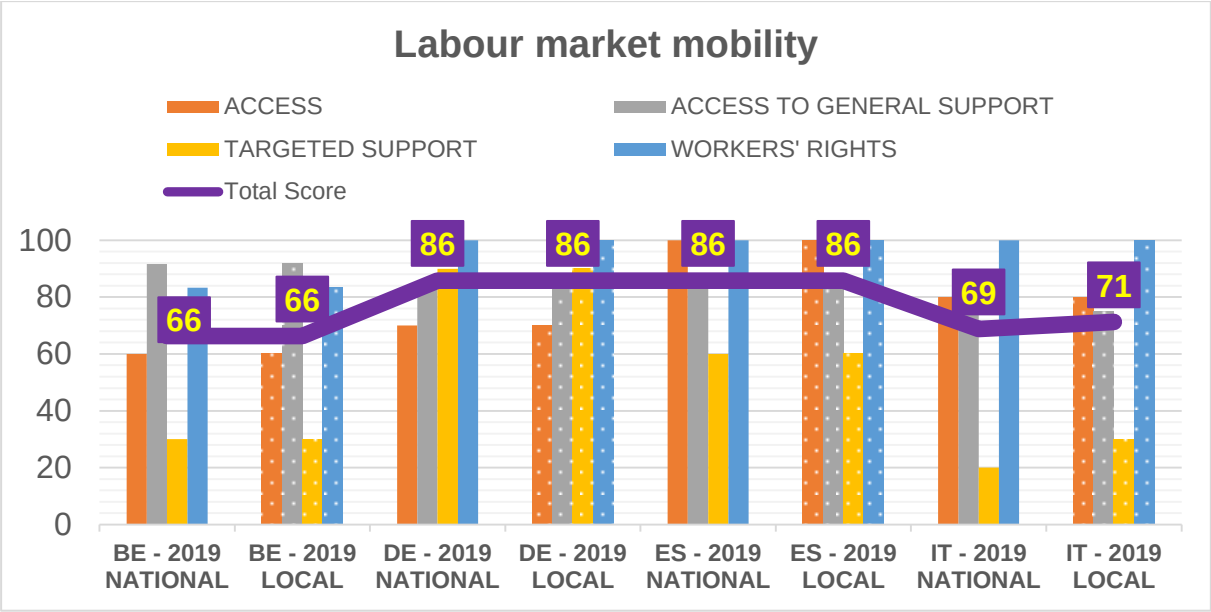


Chart 21. 2019 MIPEX – Labour market (national and local results)

Housing regulations are quite adapted to the integration aims targeted by MIPEX. Belgium obtained the maximum score, followed by Germany. The systematic literature review had already pointed out the **effects** of prejudice and discrimination when migrants try to find and rent a house; these effects are more evident in Spain and Italy. There is a clear need for specific regulation guaranteeing equality in housing access. Buying a house is still difficult in Germany, Spain and Italy, although it could be due to economic problems rather than an equality issue but achieving the same level as nationals to rent or benefit from social protection programmes is still an objective to fulfil in the future.

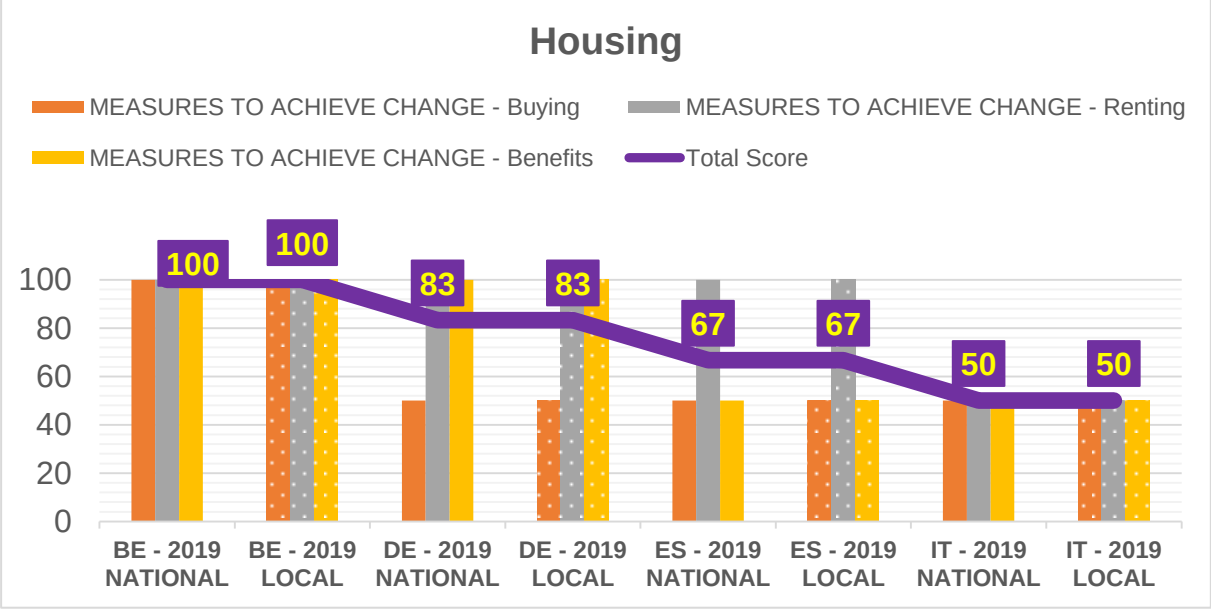


Chart 22. 2019 MIPEX – Housing (National and local results)

The fourth dimension where regulation is ensuring a good level of integration is the **Anti-discrimination** scope, which examines whether residents have effective legal protection from racial, ethnic, religious and nationality discrimination in all areas of life. Belgium, followed by Germany, have a strong legal body, and its governmental procedures have no formal burden of proof (excepting criminal cases). Italy (under the average) scores higher than Spain, probably due to the fact that in these countries Directive 2000/43/CE was transposed with some failures, and the real mechanisms to punish discrimination are still missing.

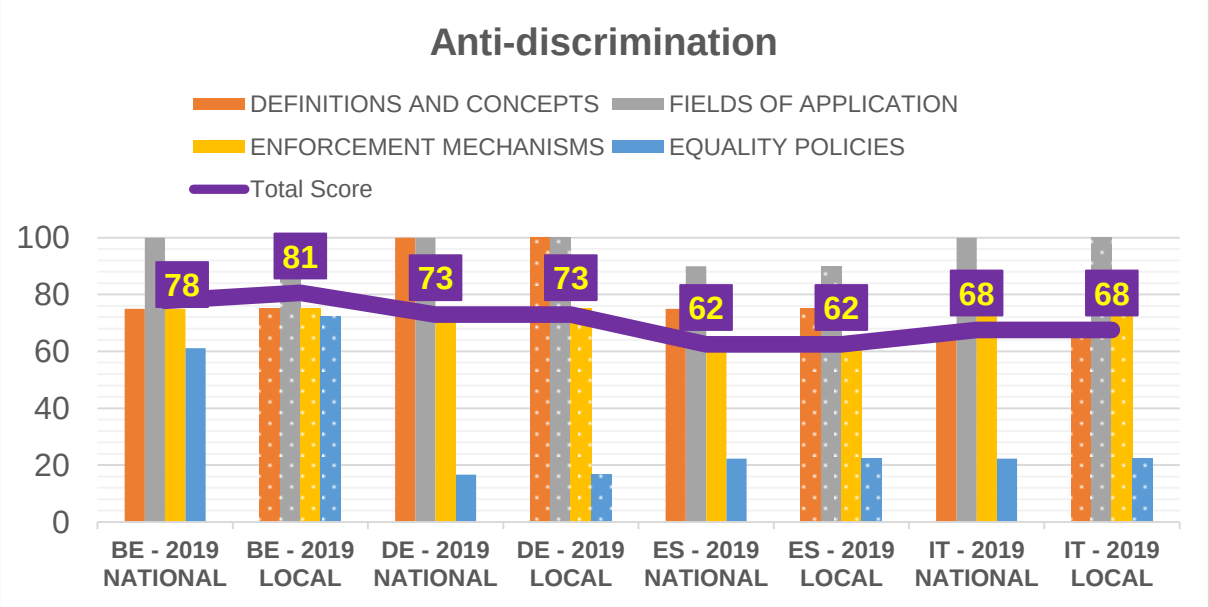


Chart 23. 2019 MIPEX – Anti-discrimination (National & local results)

Permanent residence laws ensure integration, although some improvements should be considered. Here scores shift with Italy (74.6) and Spain (69.7), ranking above average, followed by Belgium and Germany. Although as a general rule, setting 5 years of residence as a prerequisite is due to the transposition of EU Regulation (Directive 2003/109/CE and Directive 2011/51/UE and Council Regulation [EC] No 1030/2002 of 13 June 2002), in Italy and Spain people who have studied in the country acquire easier access to resident permits. Furthermore, in Spain a previous stay in other EU countries is considered as time of residence and included in the 5-year requirement. Another difference is related to the possibility of being rejected after obtaining long-term status, which in Belgium and Germany would be possible in the event of criminal activities, while this is not the case in Spain and Italy.

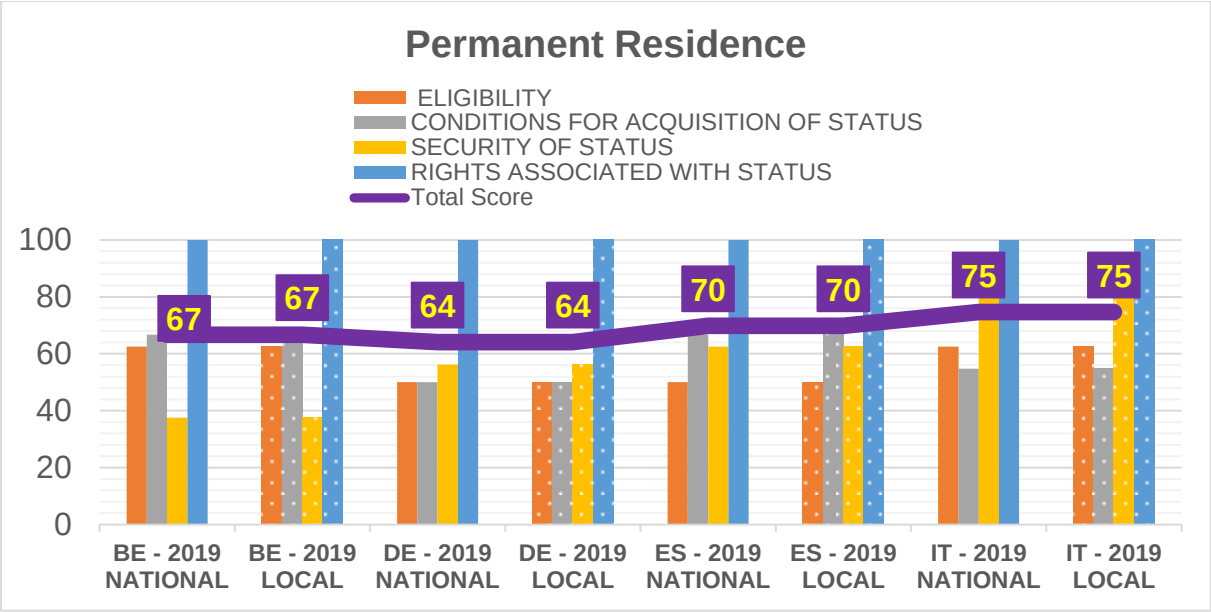


Chart 24. 2019 MIPEX – Permanent residence (National & local results)

Family reunion for foreign citizens is in the sixth position of the general ranking of dimensions, Spain is the country with the most integrative regulation followed by Belgium and Italy, and Germany comes last, with a slightly lower score. Family reunion is less restrictive in Spain than in the other countries; for example, unmarried partners and children under migrant custody is allowed, while in other countries it is necessary to prove children's dependency. In Spain, newcomers' family members are not obliged to learn the language or to sign an 'integration contract' as in the other countries. In case of divorce or legal separation, Spanish law allows newcomers to stay; moreover, if they suffer from gender violence, they receive special protection and are granted the 'violence victim' status, and family members are provided comprehensive support.

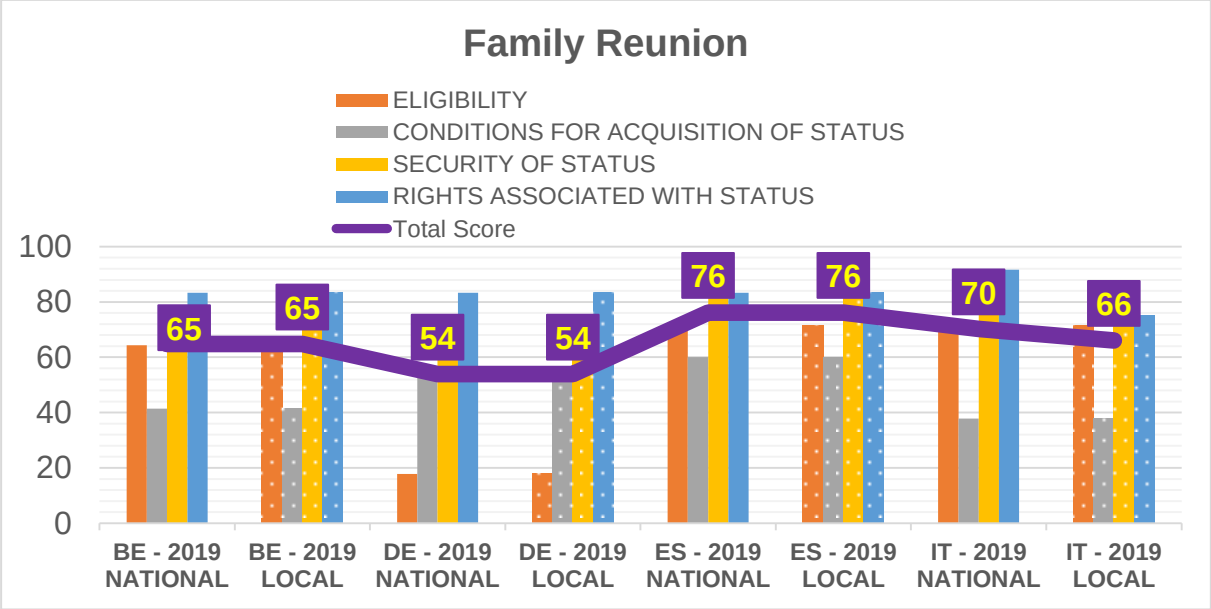


Chart 25. 2019 MIPEX – Family reunion (National & local results)

The dimension **Access to nationality** reflects the national transposition of diverse EU Directives. Belgium and Germany exceed the average score while Spain is below average, followed by Italy, with the most restrictive legislation, although it has been recently modified to a more open scheme. Belgium and Germany require less years of residence in the country than the other countries. An improvement is needed on regulations related to security of status, to meet acquisition conditions and for dual nationality issues.

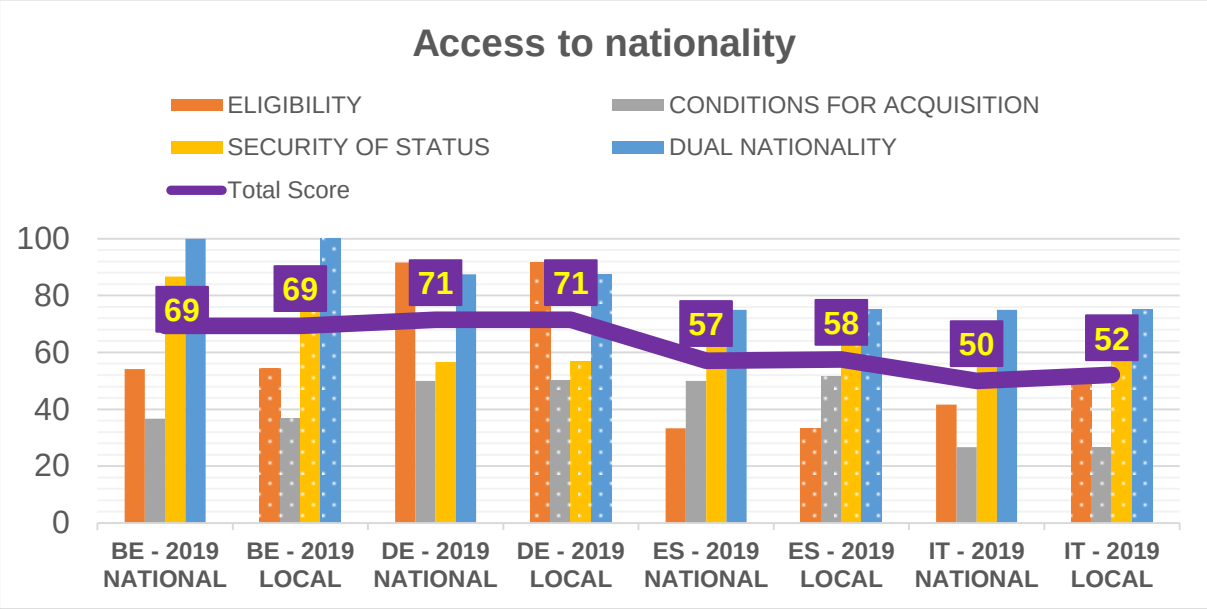


Chart 26. 2019 MIPEX – Access to nationality (National & local results)

Although **the recognition of Political liberties is granted in all countries, efforts should be made to improve voting rights and representation in advisory bodies**. The countries with the best scores were Germany and Spain, followed by Belgium and Italy. In Germany, funds and campaigns are specially allocated to ensure the existence and participation of independent advisory bodies composed of migrant representatives or associations. In Germany and Spain (related to regional governments), legal residents who were born abroad have similar opportunities as than nationals to participate in politics.

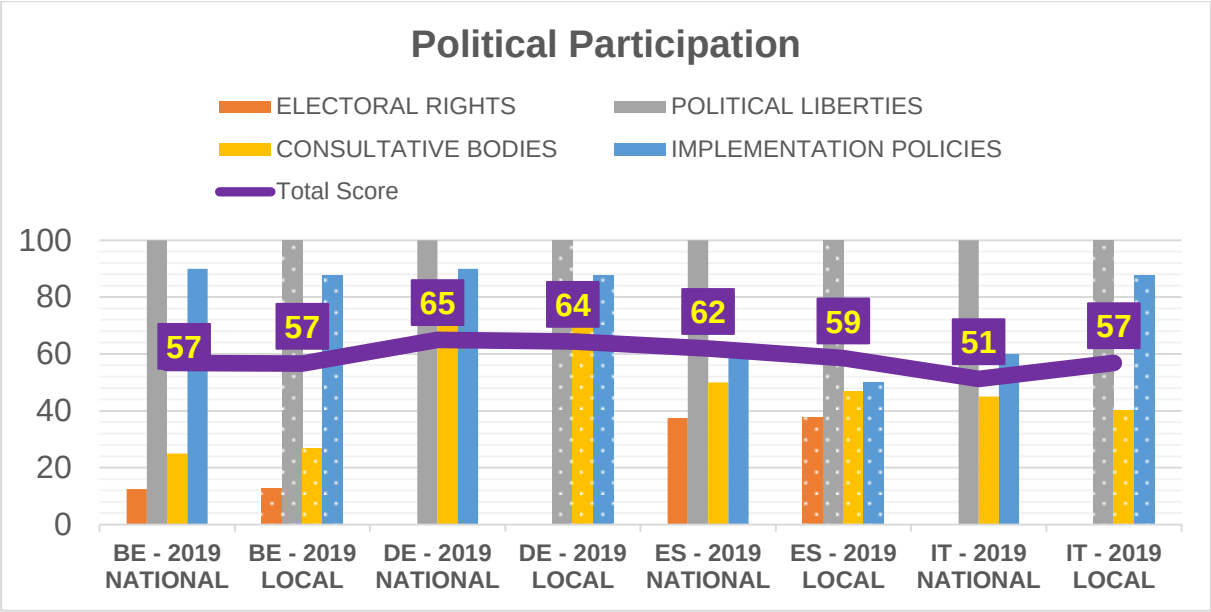


Chart 27. 2019 MIPEX – Political participation (National & local results)

The integrative regulation of the **Health dimension** is better in Italy and Spain than Belgium and Germany. The area requiring the most improvement is health services, which need to be more responsive to immigrants' needs. In Italy and Spain no distinction is made between regular and irregular migrants, whereas health programmes in Belgium and Germany seem more restrictive for irregular migrants.

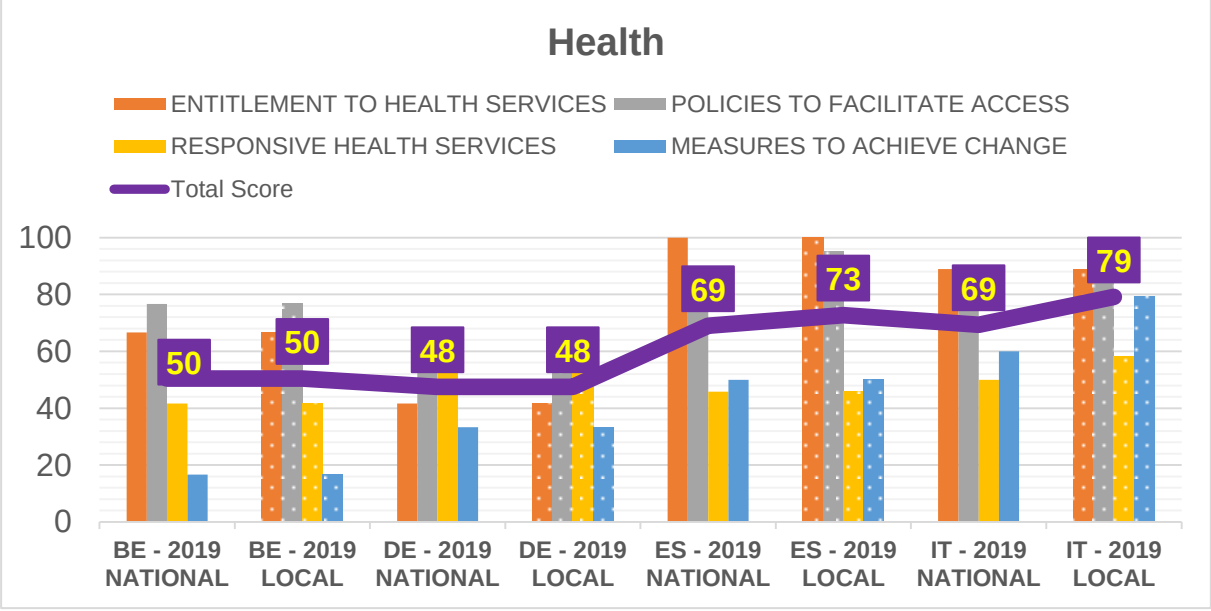


Chart 28. 2019 MIPEX – Health (National & local results)

Finally, **Education** obtained the lowest scores. Higher MIPEX scores were obtained in Germany and Belgium, with Spain and Italy obtaining scores that were clearly below the average. In Germany and Belgium, more efforts have been made to ensure immigrants' children may achieve results and develop at school like the children of national-born citizens;

migration in Germany and Belgium is used to bring intercultural education to everyone (children, teachers, schools and communities). The differences between national and local levels are explained in the next chapter, although we can see that in Germany and Spain regional scores are better than the national regulation scores, which have not only relation to the political willingness to improve results but also with the heterogeneity administrative attributions and competences.

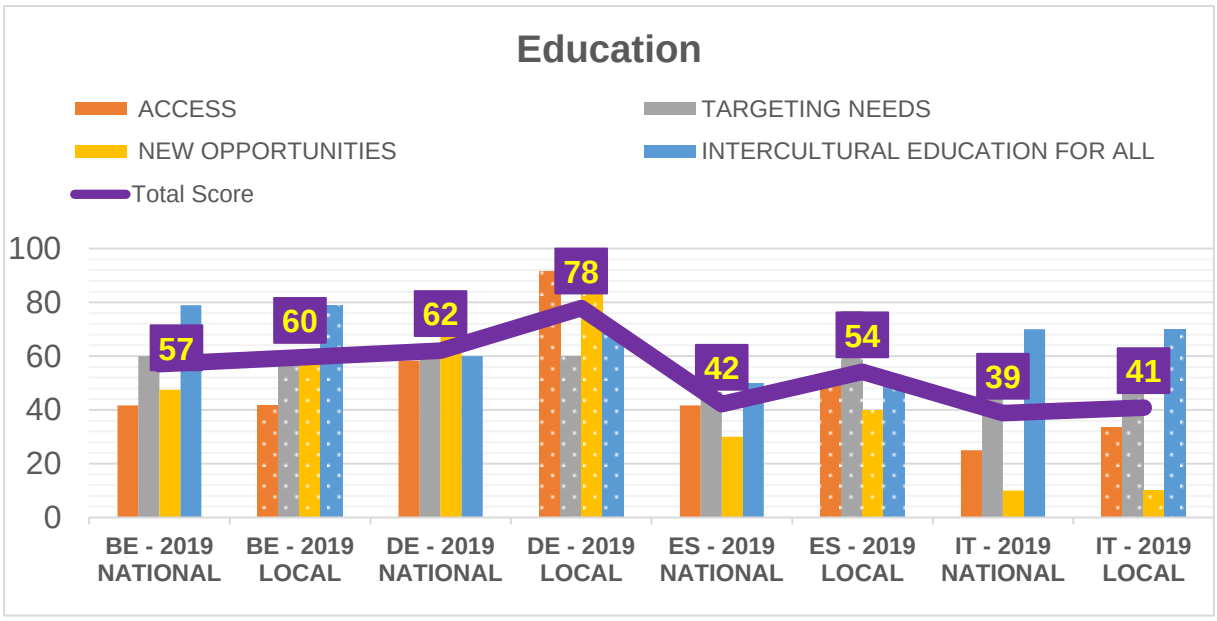


Chart 29. 2019 MIPEX – Education (National & local results)

2019 MIPEX Local Results

In addition to the update of the MIPEX indicators, the Consortium's partners scored and submitted comments and regulations by way of the MIPEX indicators at a local level[42]. The next step of this methodological strategy enabled us to analyse and compare the **2019 MIPEX local integration indicators and focus on the extra efforts made by the four cities**.

It is worth noting again as has been previously stated, that the **main variable influencing local scores is the autonomy of the city in terms of capacity to develop local regulations** in the selected dimensions, in fact, even we are analysing local scores, the effect of national laws is unavoidable in MIPEX analysis (ie. Legal status recognition). The vast majority of changes from national to local scores are positive, meaning that departing from national regulations taken as a basis, all cities to a greater or lesser extent have developed local or regional regulations that favour migrant's integration.

[42] The same limitations in regards to the time available to the completion of MIPEX questionnaire that applied to the national results applies to local scores.

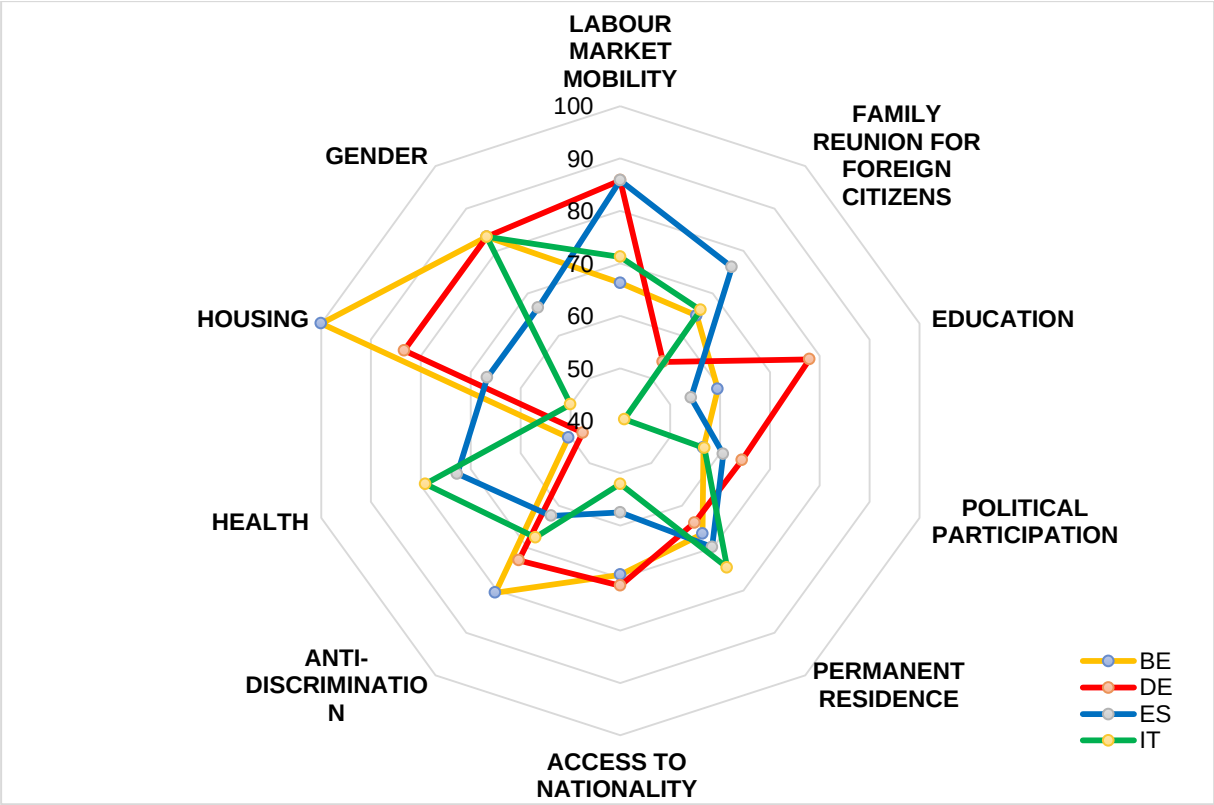


Chart 30. 2019 MIPEX (Local results)

The following chart and table reflect the areas that displayed differences at local level in regard to national scores. **The main dimensions where cities improve integration are education and health**, as has been stated above this is directly linked to the distribution of competences across levels of government**.**

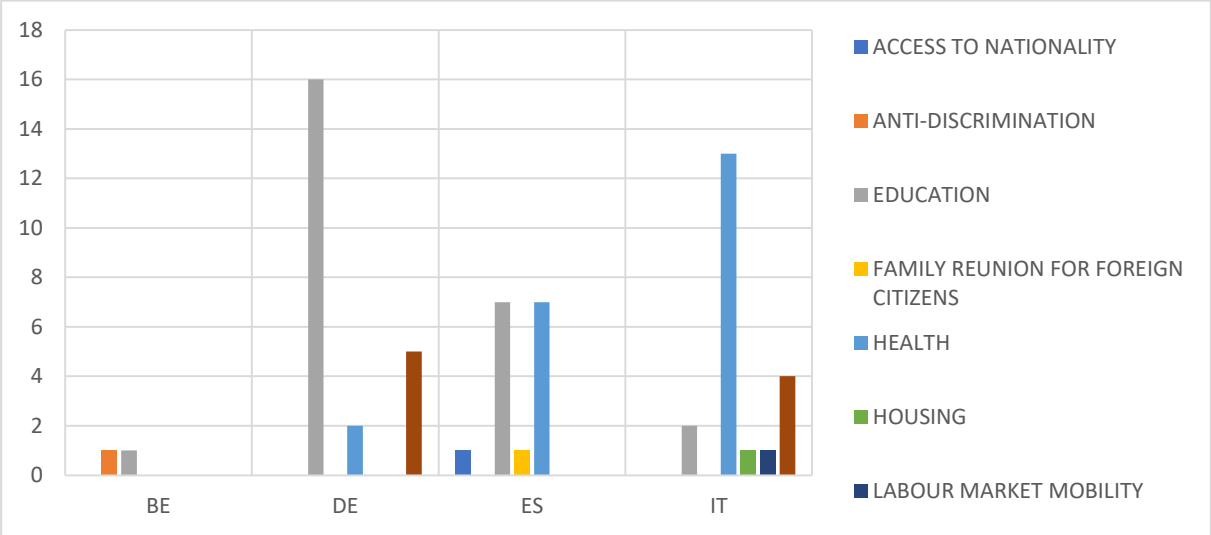


Chart 31. Number of changes between local and national 2019 MIPEX

Changes in local MIPEX	
Country, dimension, subdimension	Number
BE	**2**
Anti-discrimination	1
Equality policies	1
Education	1
New opportunities	1
DE	**23**
Education	16
Access	5
New opportunities	5
Intercultural education for all	2
TARGETING NEEDS	4
Health	2
Policies to facilitate access	2
Political participation	5
Consultative bodies	5
ES	**16**
Access to nationality	1
Conditions for acquisition	1
Education	7
Access	1
New opportunities	1
Targeting needs	5
Family reunion for foreign citizens	1
Rights associated with status	1
Health	7
Policies to facilitate access	2
Responsive health services	5

Country, dimension, subdimension	Number
IT	**21**
Education	2
Access	1
Targeting needs	1
Health	13
Measures to achieve change	4
Policies to facilitate access	6
Responsive health services	3
Housing	1
Measures to achieve change	1
Labour market mobility	1
Targeted support	1
Political participation	4
Consultative bodies	2
Implementation policies	2

Total general	**62**

Table 13. Changes between local and national 2019 MIPEX (Dimension and subdimension)

- **Hamburg is the city that reported the most changes** compared to the national level (changes have been made to 23 of the 189 main indicators). These local modifications of migrant integration are related to education (70%), political participation and health. Obviously, as Hamburg is a single federal state **it has more technical and political autonomy and capacity to improve migrants' integration** than other cities, such as Bologna or Madrid. On the other hand, in the 'Local Context Open Questionnaire' the Hamburg team focused on its historic tradition of migration with a diverse background and the efforts made to improve the match between the local demand of qualified workers and the difficulties to recognise migrant's qualification. The city of Hamburg has developed a holistic integration concept called 'Wir in Hamburg' (We in Hamburg) which distinguishes several dimensions for each action with migrants who are monitored and evaluated. Hamburger Integrationskonzept, presented by the Senate in 2013, sets the main integration goals and its development into specialised services for migrants.

    - **Education in Hamburg**: In the SLR chapter, the Hamburg team's results focused on educational success as 'students with a migration background are on average disadvantaged in Germany compared with native students' (Salikutluk 2016: 582). In Germany, educational success is still interrelated to the socio-economic status

of the household (Carol und Schulz 2018: 75), (Jacobs und Unterreiner 2017: 48). Besides inequalities, the educational system is quite rigid (Cuenca and Hemming 2018:85) and many studies consistently define school segregation as the 'major obstacle[…] to equal educational opportunities' (Jacobs und Unterreiner 2017: 48). Therefore, local implementations for people born abroad focus on levelling students, particularly by ensuring they learn German.

- In terms of **access to education** and regardless their current and future residence status, children without a valid residence permit can obtain access to early childhood education in the day care centre via the Central Information and Counseling for Refugees gGmbH (Refugee Center Hamburg).

- **Vocational Training** ´Entry-level qualification for migrants´ (EQ-M) is a specific vocational training programme created for refugees who no longer qualify for compulsory education (from the age of 18 to 25) in order to promote their transition to dual education. 'Dual training preparation for migrants' (AvM-Dual). Refugees attend school three days a week where they are provided with intensive language training among other things. They then complete their in-company training on the other two days.

- Since the 2015/16 winter semester, the **University of Hamburg** has used the #UHHhilft programme to help refugees interested in studying to apply for a study placement in Hamburg after having fled their home country. Hamburg currently carries out projects to expand the supply of affordable housing and continue with the measures for individual student support (BAföG, exam grants and merit-based scholarships for foreign students). For those refugees who are eligible to study, integration into regular study programmes is generally facilitated by a wide variety of other offers, which include counselling and coordination facilities, the conceptual development of extended student orientation phases for refugees, language courses, guest student programmes and subject-specific programmes.

- **To facilitate migrants' integration, a great deal of work is carried out to help people learn German**. For example, there are compulsory programmes for children aged between 4 and 5 to assess their language skills before joining school and another relevant programme for under-16s, whose proficiency in German is below standard, is the ´International preparatory class´ (Internationale Vorbereitungsklasse – IVK), where children attend until they are relocated to a secondary accommodation facility. They attend this class for a period of up to twelve months. The IVK's core component is an intensive 'German as a Second Language' (Deutsch als Zweitsprache – DAZ) course. On the other hand, some schools in Hamburg teach children in their native language. The following languages are available: Albanian, Arabic, Bosnian, Dari, Farsi, Italian, Kurdish,

Polish, Portuguese, Romanian, Russian and Turkish. If there are at least 15 pupils at a school who want to have lessons in their native language, their parents can submit a request and the school can then apply to the education authorities for a suitable offer. These native language classes are also offered in many pre-primary facilities (Bundesprogramm 'Sprach-Kitas: Weil Sprache der Schlüssel zur Welt ist') which provide native language classes.

- Another integration goal in the Hamburger Integrationskonzept of 2017 is '**Ensuring close cooperation between schools and parents**'. a) for example, Family Literacy Programme, b) parent mentors. In this way, schools in Hamburg encourage migrants to become involved and there is also support to increase the participation of migrant pupils. Day cares/nurseries with a large number of children who do not speak German in their family or who come from socially disadvantaged families receive additional resources and accessible parent education and counselling services are offered (for example, 'Kita Plus' and 'Parent-Child Centres (EKiZ)'). There is support to increase participation of migrant pupils. Related to teachers, one of the integration goals in the Hamburger Integrationskonzept 2017 is '**Increasing the share of qualified educational staff with a migration background'**, the programme 'Horizonte' offers scholarships for migrant students who wish to become teachers. On the other hand, as regards teacher training, the ´Counselling Centre for Intercultural Education´ (Beratungsstelle Interkulturelle Erziehung – BIE) of the ´State Institute for Teacher Education and School Development´ (Landesinstitut für Lehrerbildung und Schulentwicklung – LI) offers a range of counselling, further education and school support services that cover the topics of diversity, inclusion, equal participation and equal opportunities, as well as education for respectful cooperation in everyday school life, specialised classes and school organisation. The Hamburg network 'Teachers with a history of migration' (Lehrkräfte mit Migrationsgeschichte) aims to strengthen the social participation and the educational success of migrants.

- 'The Hamburger Volkshochschule (under the authority of Hamburg state) provides continuing education opportunities to all Hamburg residents where they can find out about and learn more about cultural diversity'.

- **Political participation in Hamburg:** The Integration Advisory Council advises the Administration of Labour, Social, Family Affairs and Integration and the Hamburg Senate on integration policy issues. In particular, the Advisory Board contributes to the implementation and further development of the integration concept. In addition, the Advisory Board addresses current issues in the field of integration. It can comment on integration-related topics and projects and submit proposals for the appointment of committees of the Hamburg administration by

people with a migration background. Members are elected by registered migrant associations ensuring diverse nationalities are included. Chaired by the Senator for Labour, Social, Family Affairs and Integration. Responsible authorities and offices are required to examine the resolutions and recommendations of the Integration Advisory Council. If these are not implemented, they must provide substantiated reasons.

  - **Health in Hamburg**: Information for migrants concerning health education and promotion is available in Albanian, Arabic, Dari, English, French, Persian, Tigrinya and Turkish. To provide asylum seekers with quick healthcare offers, examinations are carried out in arrival centres in Hamburg, where obvious injuries, illnesses and infections are screened, and vaccination protection is checked. Those whose asylum applications are ratified are registered with health insurance companies and provided access to medical services, even though restrictions exist in comparison to the health service provided to native populations (Free and Hanseatic City of Hamburg 2017: 97). The German literature addressed in the SLR show that in Germany migrants face access barriers to health services, likewise due to language and cultural differences (Brand et al., 2017; Eckenwiler, 2018).

- **Bologna (Italy) is the second city with the most local adaptations in integration policy indicators, close to Hamburg with changes made to 21 of the 189 indicators. The main local changes are related to the health dimension (62%).** In spite of recent international migration pressure (in 1986 immigration was mostly Italian), the Municipality of Bologna has constituted four bodies that work on specific topics. Among these, the Serra-Zanetti Institution for Social and Communitarian Integration coordinates, manages and promotes community work, together with the Networks Unit of the Municipality, which is present in every district of the city. **In turn, every district promotes integration activities in collaboration with third sector and volunteering organisations.** The SPRAR project, at a metropolitan level, is coordinated and managed by ASP City of Bologna, International Protection Service, together with third sector organisations (social cooperatives and associations) in collaboration with some units of the Municipality of Bologna such as, for example, the Employment Offices and the Networks Units of every district. **Bologna has a strong network of associations and NGOs involved in these integration issues.**

  - **Health in Bologna**: This city has improved health access by ensuring health attention regardless of the person's legal status. There is a structured website of the Regional health Department which gives information on entitlements, access and use of health care services and other information material targeting specific sub-groups, such as irregular migrants, women, children, elderly people carers 'badanti', etc. in 10 languages. Furthermore, single health care organisations

provide a wealth of information for their migrant population through websites, leaflets, health service guides, booklets, video, etc. in various languages, or through specific meetings addressing migrants with the use of intercultural mediators. At a local level the departments of public health usually have a programme on health and vulnerable groups, including migrants. On the other hand, Bologna has developed a **'Migrant-Friendly Hospital' model for health care delivery, integrating 'Cultural Mediators' and enlarging the number of languages** used in general health information. The linguistic or cultural mediator for the health system is also specific university training of 3 or 5 years. There is a regional evaluation sector for the Emilia-Romagna health services and integration policies, which is also responsible for improving data collection on health services. It is also worth noting the **regional project 'PASS' that provides intercultural training which form part of the mandatory training that each member of the health staff** has to follow.

- **Political participation, the education and labour market in Bologna**: information campaigns and promotion of migrant's associationism are promoted by a triennial program. In each province of the region there are officially regulated advisory bodies for immigration, whose aims are to favour social integration, combat discrimination and provide information. Regarding education, Bologna city is encouraging newly schooled people to learn Italian. Related to the labour market, Bologna has developed regional plans to address the labour market situation of third-country national migrants.

- **Madrid (Spain) has implemented 19 local adaptations of the 189 national integration policy indicators, mostly on health and education which are regional competences.**
  Madrid was a traditional destination for internal migration but since the 1990s with the first wave of Latin American-Caribbean migrants, Madrid became an ethnically diverse city and region. **Comunidad de Madrid (regional)** has the competences to execute the laws, currently through the 2019-2021 Immigration Plan, implemented by the Comunidad de Madrid. The region has improved migrants' integration locally, mainly in the dimensions of the MIPEX health and education indicators.

  - **Education in Madrid**: the region of Madrid offers educational guidance in different languages at all levels and has made an effort to facilitate access to young and adult migrants in the vocational training school system. Madrid has a service which is supporting and monitoring migrant pupils (Servicio de apoyo al alumnado inmigrante, SAI). Some schools in Madrid with a high ratio of migrant students have turned into bilingual schools, in order to also attract non-migrant pupils, geared towards countering segregation and promoting integration. Comunidad de Madrid offers free Spanish courses for everyone.

- **Health in Madrid:** while health indicators related to the access of all kinds of migrants regardless of their legal status are currently in line with national indicators, this has always been the case in Madrid, even when national regulation was more restrictive. Standards or guidelines establish that health services should consider individual and family characteristics, experiences and situations, respect for different beliefs, religion, culture and competence in intercultural communication.

- **Antwerp (Belgium)** has a long tradition of receiving labour migrants, which has resulted in a very diverse population, where 50.1% of the city's inhabitants have a migrant background. **Atlas Integratie en Inburgering Antwerp - partner in the MICADO Consortium work in coordination with The Agency for Integration and Civic Integration – Flanders** (for Flemish territory except for the cities of Antwerp and Gent). **Atlas is responsible for carrying out the Flemish integration policy on behalf and for the City of Antwerp** and it has its own legal status as a non-profit organisation. The board of directors is a representation of the city council. The work of Atlas Integration & Civic integration Antwerp is framed within Antwerp's policy area 'Harmonious city' under the policy objective 'Integration and civic integration' with **two action plans a) 'Integration for non-native speakers' and b) 'Integration and civic integration policies for organisations and society'.** The agency Atlas Integratie & Inburgering Antwerp follows the Flemish integration policy and has received a list of key indicators that provide the basis on which **Atlas needs to monitor and report to the Flemish government on an annual basis. At city level, Atlas reports the indicators set for the action plans to the city of Antwerp on a quarterly basis** ('Policy and Management Cycle' Stad Antwerp, 2019).

  - **Anti-discrimination policies in Antwerp: Antwerp has adopted reinforced measures related to equality in public bodies.** Governmental bodies are required to establish an annual plan of action defining objectives and evaluation methods; and submit an advancement report to the Flemish Government and Parliament every year.

  - **Education in Antwerp:** measures have been adopted to support migrant parents and communities in the education of their children. A relevant project at a state level is the project 'Parents in interaction' organised by CVO (Centre for Adult Education):: education for migrant parents with low grades of literacy. These projects are designed to encourage parents to become involved in school governance (participatiedecree 02/04/2004), such as: Minderhedenforum (i.e. Minority forum), which organises projects to provide migrant pupils and parents the right to participate in different organisations, even schools. These measures

are completed with additional initiatives, undertaken by the Onderwijsnetwerk Antwerp (i.e. Education network Antwerp).

4.3 Policy map analysis

Methodology

The policy map presented below is a first attempt to respond to the fact that the MICADO project needs to **identify every public intervention directly or indirectly oriented to migrant and refugee population integration** in order to see what kind of information is available for the ICT solution.

Secondly, following OECD policy actor's methodology, we wanted to identify the role played by relevant actors at the time of public intervention, differentiating every step of the policy: design, implementation, evaluation. By doing so, we can also observe who promotes public intervention, and the **coherence among levels of government**. Also, according to the new governance approach, we tried to disentangle the extent to which stakeholders, social organizations and the migrant population itself have been involved in the policy-making process.

Thirdly, considering that MICADO is clearly an innovation action based on technological challenges, we also wanted to address **the degree of e-government present in each one of these public interventions**, following UN e-government development indicators.

Therefore, the following matrix has been designed for the comprehensive collection of all this information[43]:

- Classification criteria:
  - Name of the intervention (both native language and in English).
  - Description of the intervention.
  - Domain: Health, Employment, Education, Housing, Participation and Gender.
- Legal and institutional framework:
  - Law or regulation linked to the intervention
  - Government unit responsible for the intervention
  - Type of policy
  - Timing and periodicity of the intervention
  - Design intervention and implementation stage indicators:
  - Units responsible, and level of government in charge of the intervention
- Funding & budget indicators
- Availability of any kind of evaluation of public intervention
- Availability of results of the intervention: openness, update and format.
- E-Governance development indicators

[43] See Appendix 9.5

- Availability of the information in a language other than native
- Openness of the intervention and third actors' participation
- Population affected by the intervention
- Gender scope

The information recollected by partners **points at the enormous heterogeneity of contexts and the need of MICADO to involve not only local authorities but national and regional** ones. The outcome is an **initial sample of 319 interventions**, policies or programs susceptible to be included in the app that will assessed and updated in next work packages.

This chapter analyses this first set of policies and interventions in order to reflect and explain this administrative heterogeneity. The variables selected for this analysis are: a) domain; b) administration (level) responsible for the policy; c) type of policy (policy oriented, legal action or both); d) whether each policy affects refugees, asylum seekers and/or migrants; e) whether there is any kind of evaluation and which administration level is responsible for it; and, finally, f) if there is gender perspective in the policies. We have decided to analyse these variables because they are those most susceptible of showing more differences between the cities and domains. In addition, we have decided to display these results in percentages to make the comparison easier.

First, we present the cross between the **domain and the administration** responsible for the overall policy and each city. Secondly, we find out the **predominant policy type for each city.** Subsequently, we analyse **the main population target** of the policies, whether they affect migrants, refugees or asylum seekers in relation to the main domain and the city separately and in percentage values. Next, we have calculated the percentage of **evaluated policies** and, filtering by those that have any kind of evaluation, we have then analysed the governmental body responsible for that evaluation. Finally, we have observed the **percentage** of policies with **gender perspective**, on the one hand, by city and, on the other, by main domain.

Level of governance by domain

Firstly, as we have previously expressed, our objective is to make an exploratory analysis regarding the governmental body responsible for the policies in general, making a distinction by the main domain considered in the policy map.

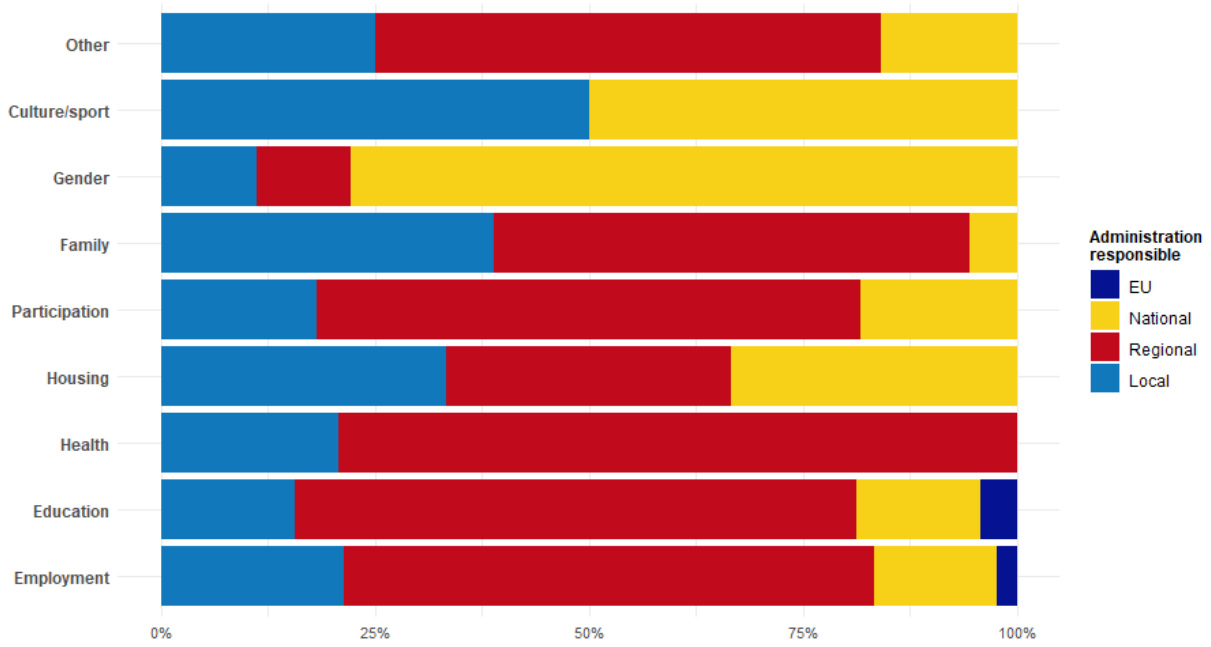


Chart 32. Main domain and government responsible (aggregate of all cities), expressed in percentages
Source: Authors' own compilation

As we can observe, **the regional level is predominant,** while the European Union is only responsible for a residual percentage of policies, concentrated in the domains of education and employment. It is also worth mentioning that **the main governmental body responsible for gender issues is national**. This may be due to the fact that these policies are included within the framework of a national Gender Equality Act, as in the case of Spain. We can also observe that **the local level has an important relevance in issues like family policies and housing.** This can be explained if we bear in mind that many policies included in this policy map belong to a programme or local plan. We need to take into account that in the case of Hamburg, the regional and local levels are the same thing, because it is a city-state. Furthermore, we need to consider that the most represented city in the policy map is Madrid; therefore, the city's main trends are going to determine the global results. Consequently, in the following analysis we can observe this relationship between the main domain and responsible governmental body by city.

Level of governance by city

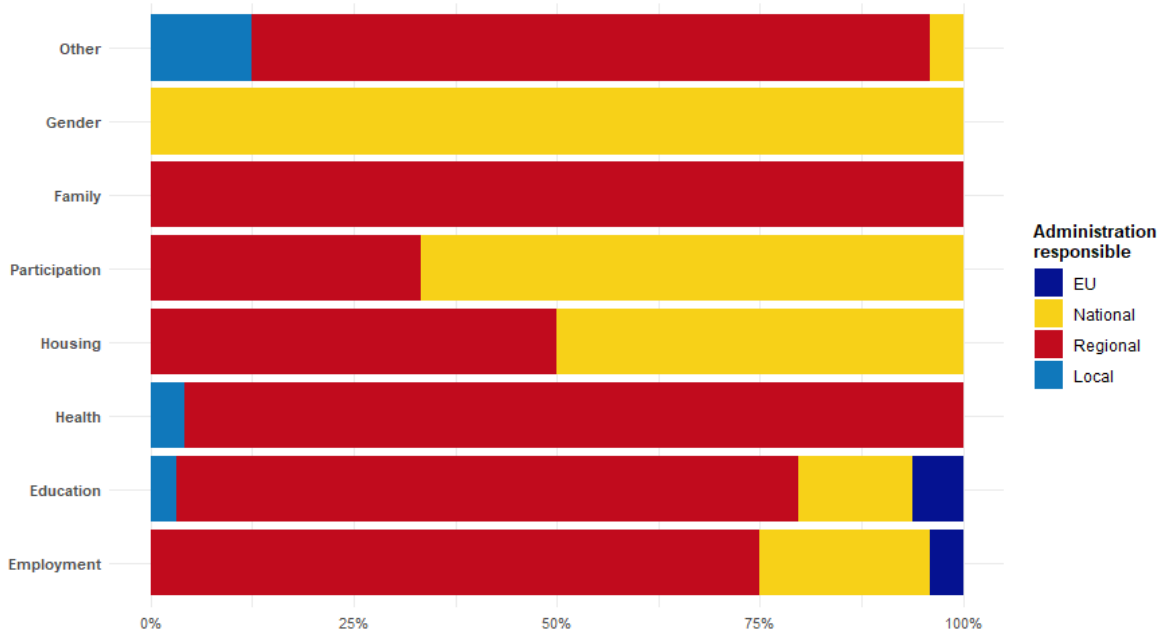


Chart 33. Main domain and government responsible in Madrid, expressed in percentages
Source: Authors' own compilation

In the case of the city of **Madrid,** we can clearly observe that **the regional level is the predominant one.** It is also remarkable that the national administration has a relative importance in some of the domains, like political participation and housing. **In gender issues, the national administration is the only responsible**, because, as we have previously mentioned, they are regulated by a national Gender Equality Act that applies to all the governmental bodies in the country. As regards political participation, the presence of national regulation is due to the inclusion of electoral participation policies on the map, regulated by the national government. Finally, **Madrid City Council and the European Union have a residual presence in the responsibility of the policies included. The presence of EU administration in educational issues is due to the incorporation of grants like Erasmus+** and several similar programmes.

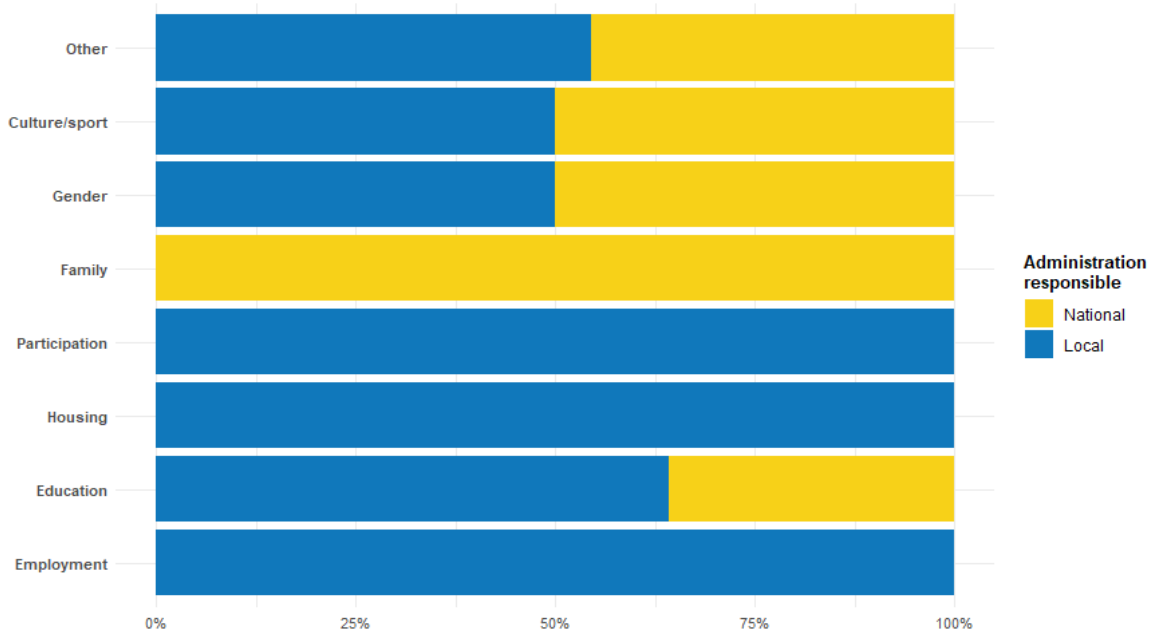


Chart 34. Main domains and government responsible in Hamburg, expressed in percentages
Source: Authors' own compilation

In the case of **Hamburg, the local-regional government is responsible for the majority of policies we have included**, except for those addressed to families, where the only body responsible for the policies related to this matter is the national government. This over-representation at a local-regional level may be due to the fact that Hamburg is a city-state, so the plans or programmes included will be coordinated by this body. Furthermore, it is also important to take into consideration that **the most represented domain** in the policies corresponding to this city **is employment. The fact that employment is the largest group may be explained by the way the German government interprets 'integration"**. In other words, one fundamental aspect for integration in Hamburg is the acknowledgement of migrant people's working skills, due to the specific characteristics of its labour market. The most developed areas of Hamburg's labour market are its seaport activities, sciences and tourism; consequently, there is a demand for qualified workers, and it is necessary to acknowledge working skills.

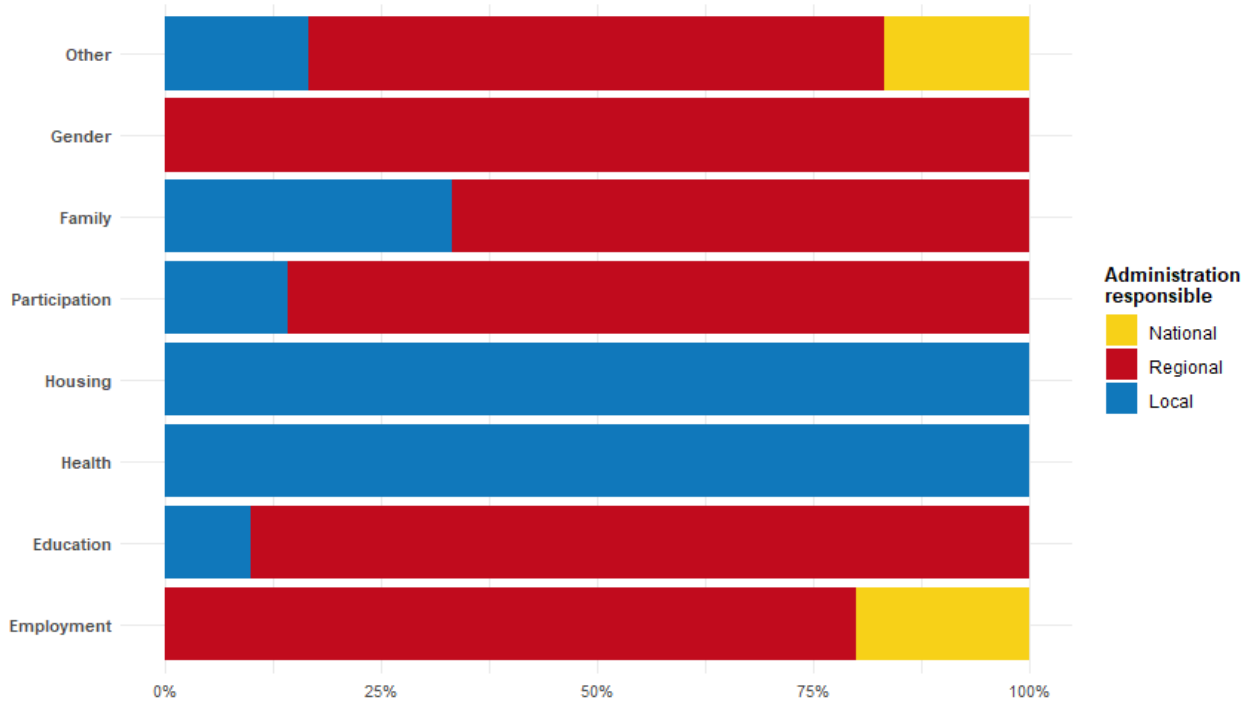


Chart 35. Main domains and government responsible in Antwerp, expressed in percentages
Source: Authors' own compilation

In Antwerp, as in the cities of Madrid and Hamburg, the most represented governmental body is the regional one. Nevertheless, it is important to note that that for the migrant interventions, such as urgent medical support for illegals and refugee trauma support, and thus for Health issues, the only administration responsible is the local one. Similarly, for Housing issues that deal with migrants, the only initiatives that are active are locally organised. If we focus now on the **national government,** we can observe that it plays a very residual role in Antwerp policies, and **is only responsible for employment and other social policies.** The importance of the regional government in the case of Antwerp may be explained by the reform of the Civic Integration Decree which established three new autonomous Agencies for Integration and Civic Integration that operate an in a local and regional environment. For instance, at the local level in this city they have the Atlas Integratie en Inburgering Antwerp. In 2018, this new agency received over 4,500 newcomers. However, the Social Orientation course is a fundamental part of the integration programme, which may explain why the most represented domain in this case is education.

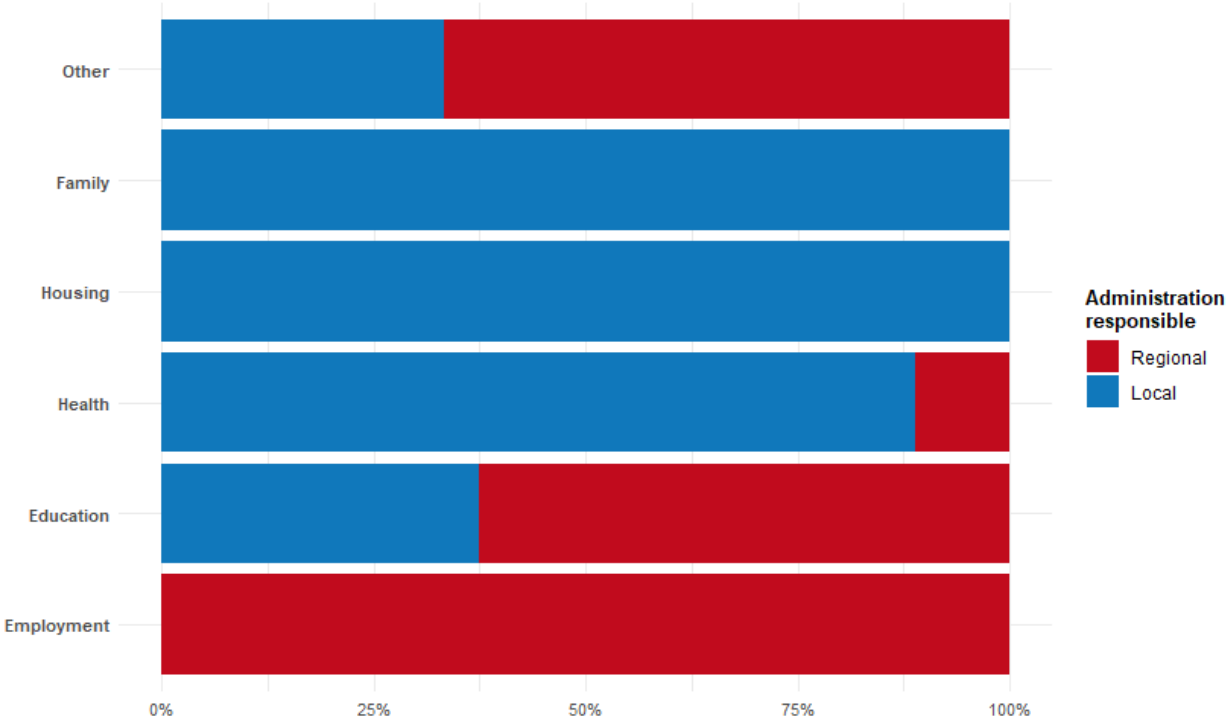


Chart 36. Main domains and government responsible in Bologna in percentages
Source: Authors' own compilation

Finally, if we take a look at the **Bologna public policies,** we can observe that **the most represented governmental body in this case is the local one**. **The other responsible body that appears in these policies is the regional government,** while national and European authorities are not present in this case. **The local government has responsibility over almost all the domains included, except for employment**, which is under the responsibility of the regional government. The absence of the responsibility of national and European governments may be explained by the fact that the policies included in the Bologna case are fundamentally local programmes and plans, although some of them are funded by the national government. Furthermore, in terms of refugees and asylum seekers reception, the process in Bologna is divided into two phases: the first one is competence of the national government, while the second is coordinated by local authorities. This may be one of the main reasons why the local government is overrepresented.

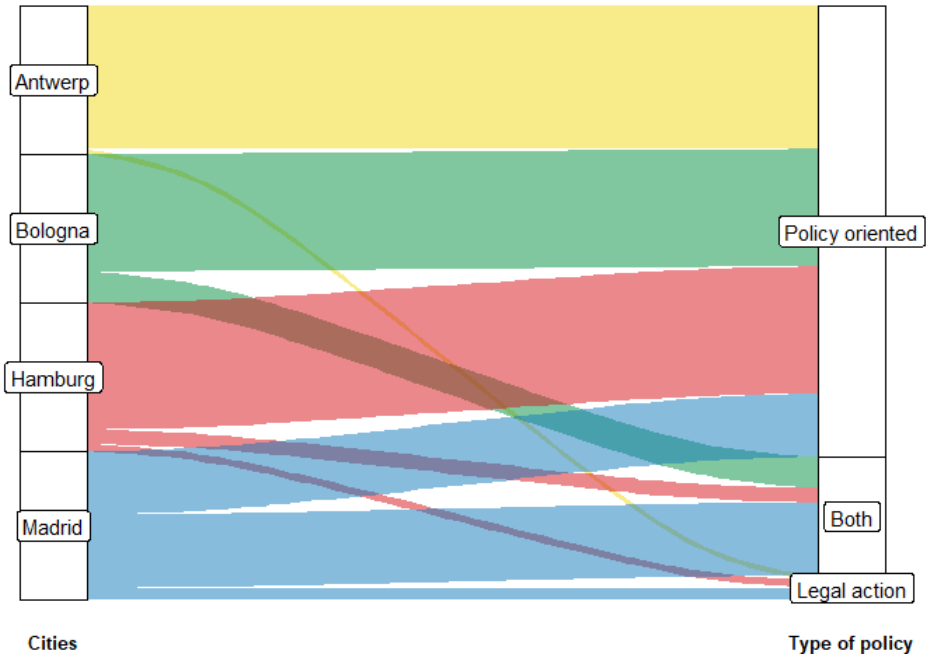


Chart 37. Type of policy by cities in percentages
Source: Authors' own compilation

In the previous Chart, we can observe which type of policy is the most represented in the different cities. For Antwerp, Bologna and Hamburg the main policy type is 'Policy oriented', while in Madrid, the group corresponding to 'Both' – meaning that the policy is oriented but also has a specific legal regulation – is the largest. This difference between Madrid and the rest of the cities may be because more plans and programmes are included, which are usually policies made ad hoc for a specific domain.

Population target

The next Charts examine whether different groups of migrants (refugees, asylum seekers and migrants) are affected by policies contained in the Policy Map. For that purpose, first we cross the variable with dimension and then with city.

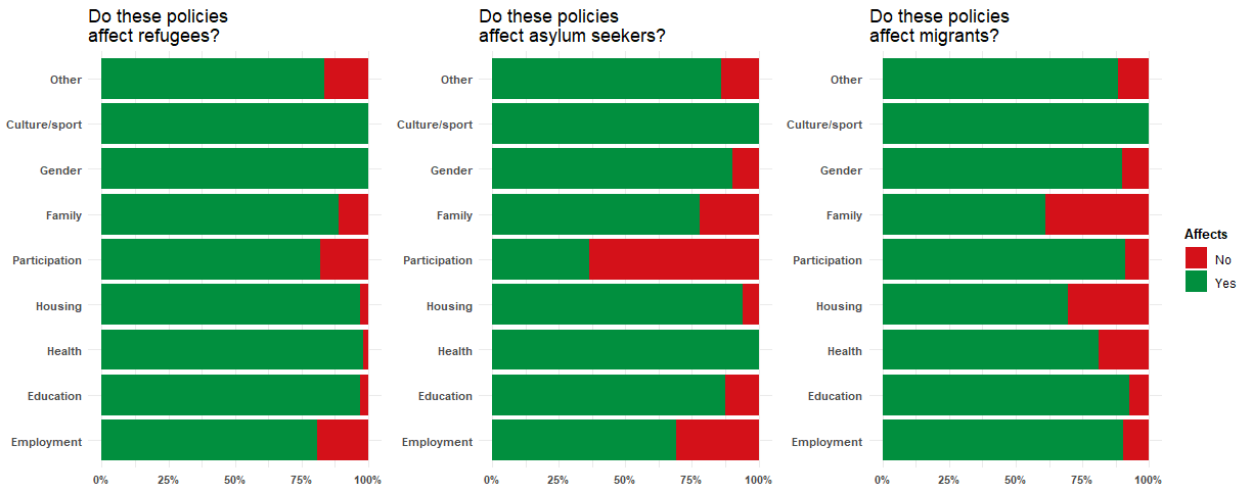


Chart 38. Migrant groups affected by policies
Source: Authors' own compilation

As we can see, **the majority of policies affect the three categories of migrants**. Only asylum seekers display a percentage of 'NO Affects' of over 50% in political participation policies. On the other hand, we find that **all policies for culture and sport affect refugees, asylum seekers and migrants**. However, there is a reduced number of policies in this category. Furthermore, we note that **100% of the gender policies affect refugees, and the health policies affect asylum seekers.**

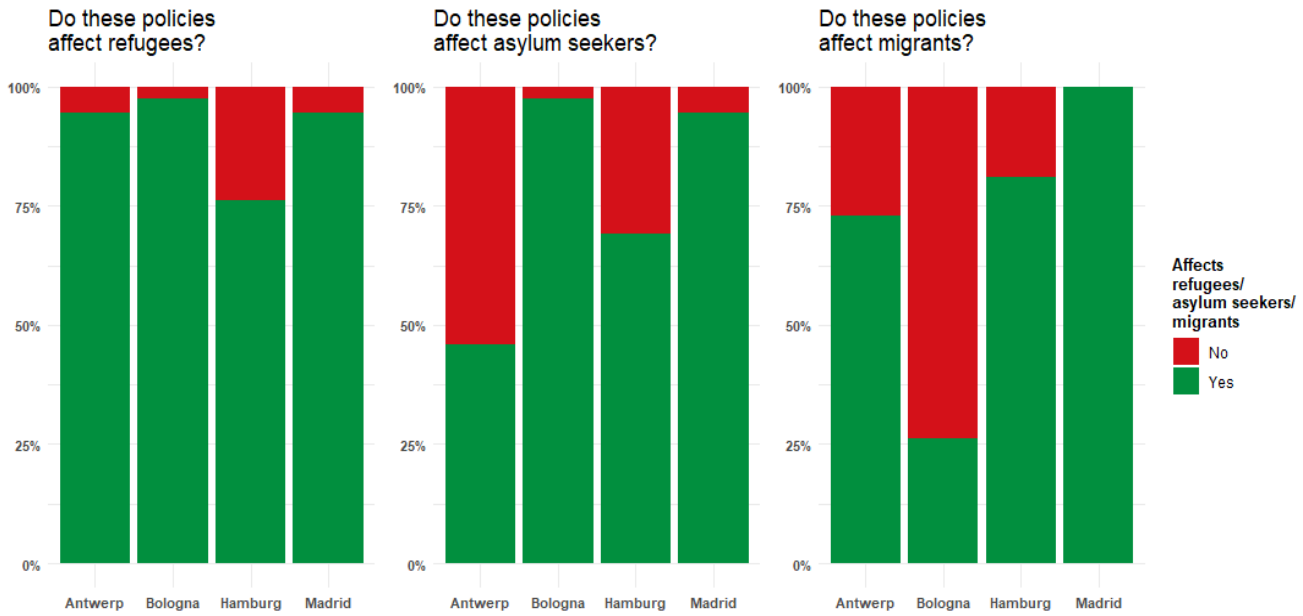


Chart 39. Migrant groups affected by city
Source: Authors' own compilation

Analysing how policies affect the three types of migrants in every city, once again, we can see a high number of Yeses. Nonetheless, in this case, there are two exceptions: firstly, **over 50% of the policies do not affect asylum seekers in Antwerp;** secondly, nearly **75% of the policies do not affect migrants in Bologna**. Finally, Madrid and Hamburg, seem to be the cities where the least distinction is made across the different kinds of migrants under the public policies umbrella.

We are now going to find out which governmental bodies are responsible for evaluating the different policies, classified by cities. Nonetheless, to perform this task, we previously need to know the amount of policies that are being evaluated.

GOVERNMENTAL BODY RESPONSIBLE FOR THE EVALUATION				
CITY	**Yes (Total)**	**No (Total)**	**Yes (%)**	**No (%)**
Madrid	122	76	61.61	38.38
Hamburg	9	33	21.43	78.57

Antwerp	30	9	76.92	23.08
Bologna	37	1	97.37	2.63

Table 14. Policies that have some type of evaluation by cities (totals and percentages)
Source: Authors' own compilation

In the previous chart, it shows that **all the cities, except for Hamburg[44], have more policies subject to evaluation that policies without any type of evaluation**. The **highest percentage belongs to Bologna, where almost all its policies are evaluated.** Next, we are going to analyse which government is responsible for these evaluated policies.

[44] Not all integration policies in Hamburg are evaluated individually, but in a comprehensive report (Hamburg Integration Concept), which was last published in 2017.

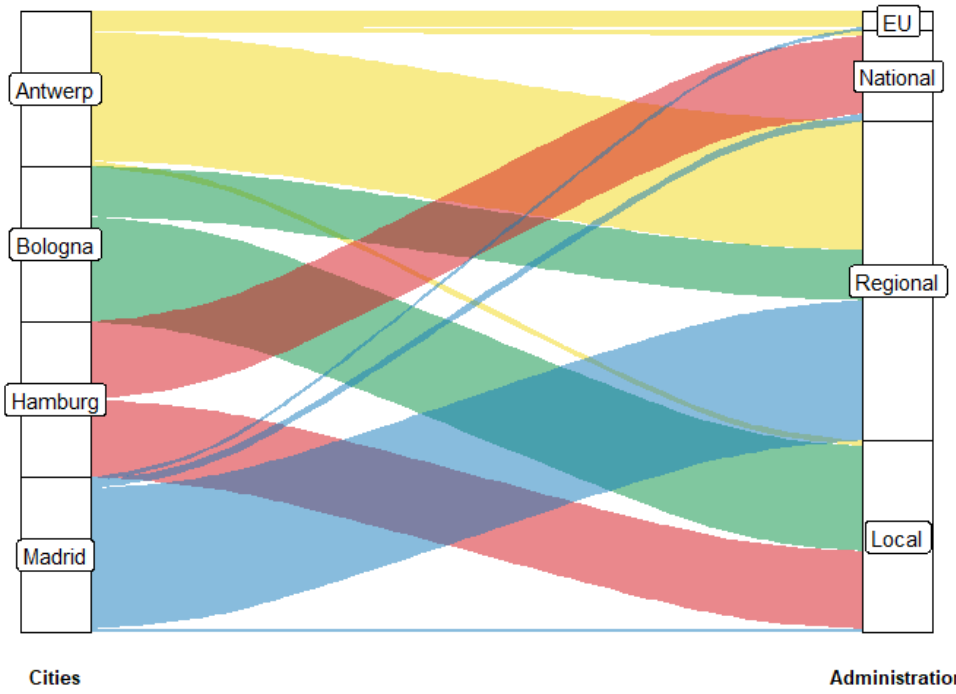


Chart 40. Government responsible for policy evaluation, by cities and expressed in percentages
Source: Authors' own compilation

As we can observe in this Chart, in the policies' collected evaluation in Antwerp and Madrid is mostly performed by the regional government. It is worth noting the partial contradiction with Antwerp's administrative structure as like it has been mentioned above, Atlas reports to the local level on a quarterly basis and once a year to Flanders (regional level). In the case of Bologna, although a significant percentage of policies are evaluated by its regional government, the local government is mainly responsible for performing this task. Finally, in the case of Hamburg, the evaluation of its policies is distributed among national and regional-local governments. The reason could be due to the distribution of the governments responsible for each city, as explained in previous Charts.

Gender perspective

Next, we analyse the presence of gender perspective in the different policies, considering their main dimension and the city they belong to. In the following chart, we take a preliminary view of this matter by cities.

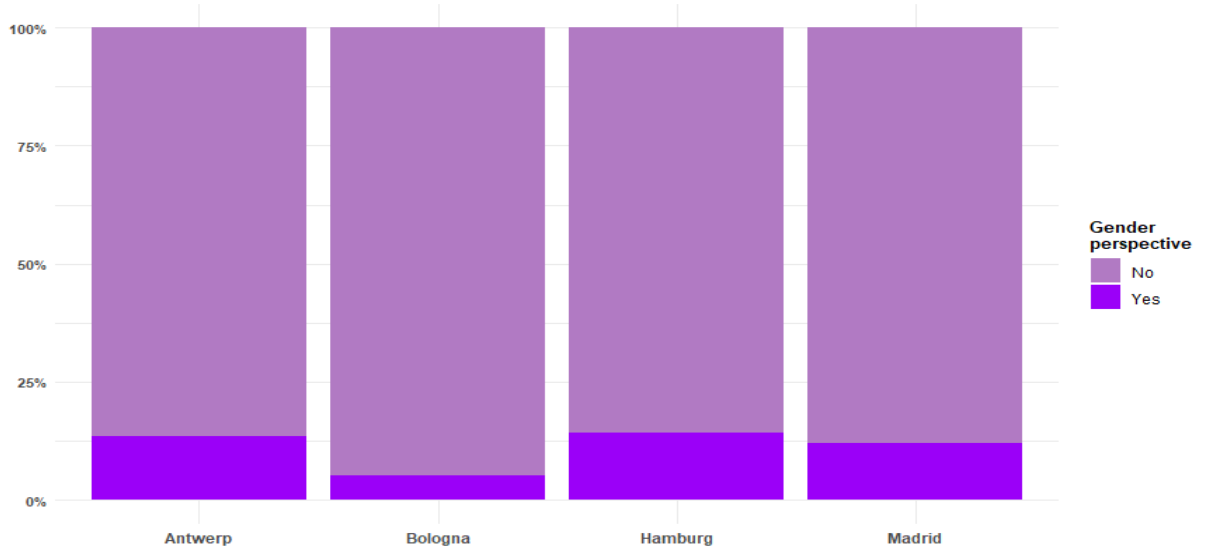


Chart 41. Gender perspective of the policies by city in percentage
Source: Authors' own compilation

As we can observe, **none of the cities have a large amount of policies with gender perspective and all of them have values under 20%**. Nonetheless, it is important to notice that **in the case of Bologna, these values are even lower** than the values corresponding to the other cities, which could be linked to a non-discriminatory perspective that we can find in other policies fields. Having pointed out this matter, we will now analyse this variable in relation to the main domains covered by the policies.

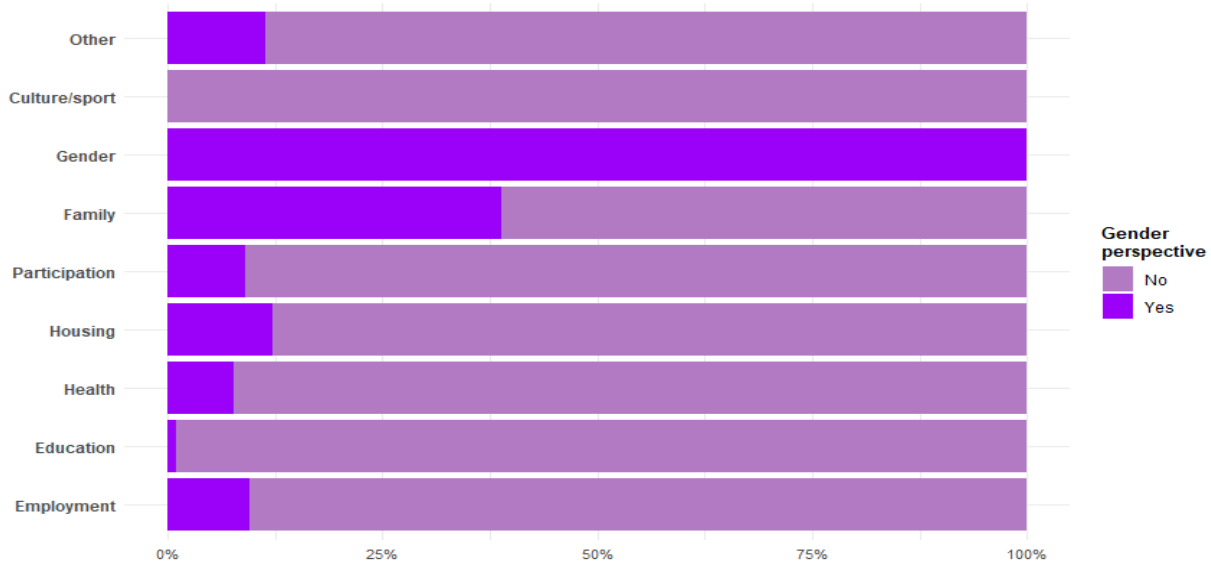


Chart 42. Gender perspective of the policies by their main domain in percentage (aggregate of all cities)
Source: Authors' own compilation

After this preliminary view, we can observe that **almost all the domains have some gender perspective**. Apart from the 'Gender' domain, family policies are the group with the highest percentage of policies containing this perspective, followed by housing and employment. The

percentage of family policies is due to the presence of different maternity policies. Related to the domains of housing and employment, we can affirm that some specific policies are focused on women who have suffered from gender-based violence. Finally, we can analyse these two variables by comparing the different cities.

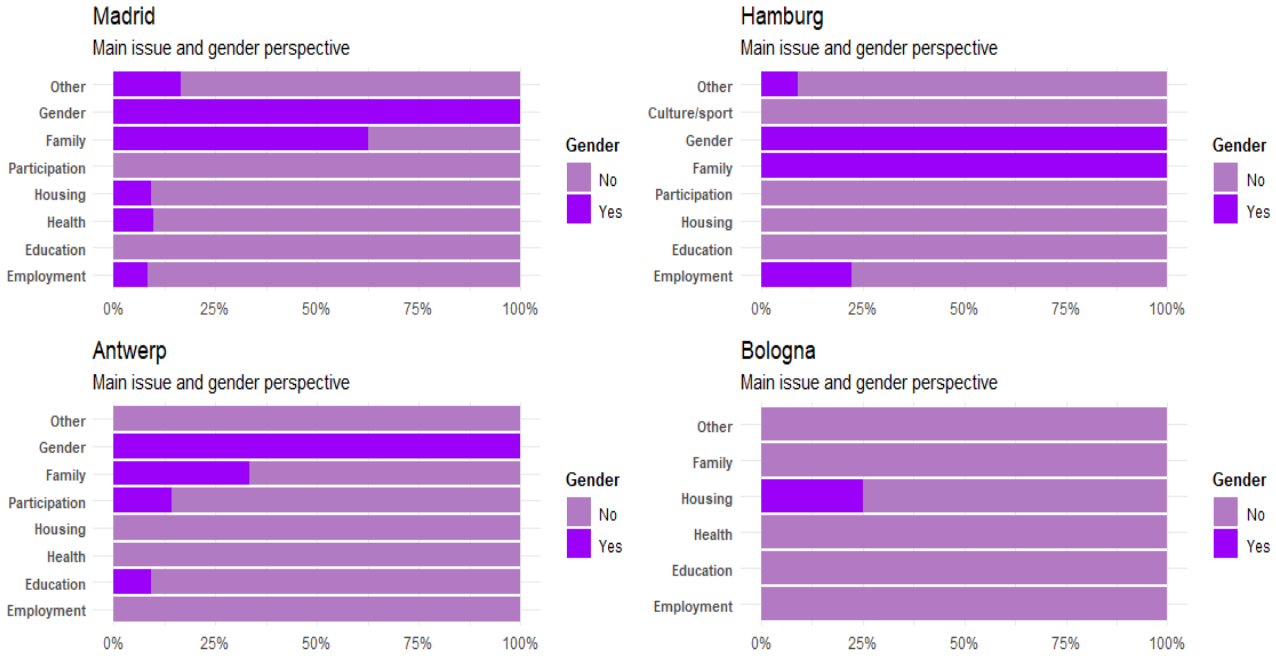


Chart 43. Gender perspective of the policies by their main domains comparing between cities
Source: Authors' own compilation

Now, if we compare the different cities, we can observe that **the city with the greatest presence of gender perspective in its policies (in relation to the domains) is Madrid, where the only domain without gender perspective are political participation and education.** In the case of Bologna, only housing has gender perspective. **In the case of Hamburg, we see that all their family policies have some gender perspective. In Antwerp, contrary to what occurs in the other cities, there is some gender perspective in the participation and education policies.**

4.4 Institutional Maps

Finally, according to the information provided by partners in the city context and the policy map (which as mentioned before, in a first attempt to identify the main involved actors), this section visually represents **the interactions among public institutions and third sector organisations that participate in the integration of migrants, refugees and asylum**

seekers in each city and the role they play in this process: design, implementation, evaluation, funding and monitoring. The policy map templates follow OECD methodology.[45]

We can observe how the process of integrating migrants, refugees and asylum seekers in each city corresponds to different governmental levels. **Even if the four cases are decentralised states, in Bologna and Antwerp the local government is essential, while in Madrid the programmes are mainly managed at a regional level and in Antwerp both levels of government are very important.** Since Hamburg is a city-state and the regional and local government correspond to the city of Hamburg itself, it is mainly for migrant integration.

In **Madrid**, most integration **policies are managed by the regional government level** (Comunidad de Madrid), **responsible for managing education, health and the main social services.** Migrant integration is organised mainly through ordinary agencies for the provision of these services, under the same conditions as a Spanish citizen, with only limited specialised resources such as the Centres for Participation and Integration of Migrants (CEPIs), managed by third-sector entities, which also play a very important role in housing emergencies for refugees and asylum seekers. The national administration participates in migrant integration because is the level that is responsible for legal conditions (nationality, permanent residence) and the basic legislation of social policies, as well as financing some policies that are also funded by the European Union through the European Social Fund.

In **Hamburg**, the government responsible for migrant integration is the **city of Hamburg, which has created specialised agencies**. The national level is responsible for funding many of the programmes that are being developed at a local level. In addition to this, there is **a very significant participation of third-sector organisations**, which oversee the implementation of policies and services for the integration of refugees and migrants.

Regarding the city of **Antwerp**, the **Flemish Government** (northern part of Belgium) **determines the immigrant integration policies**, which implementation is done through three agencies: 1) Agency for Integration and Civic Integration – Flanders (for the Flemish area, except for the cities of Antwerp and Ghent), 2) Atlas, Integration and Civic Integration Antwerpen (for Antwerp city) and 3) In-Gent Integration and Civic Integration (for Ghent city). **The three agencies work closely together and in a coordinated manner**, so as to guarantee uniform implementation of the integration policy throughout the Flemish territory . **The local level - the City of Antwerp –** plays a significant role**.** It participates in the **design, financing and implementation** of city-specific interventions for the migrant population, and monitors the implementation of the Flemish policy by its agency - Atlas Integration and Civic Integration Antwerpen. The national level has low responsibility in migrant integration, but plays an important role for asylum seekers, especially Fedasil (Federal Agency for the Reception of Asylum Seekers), which is the responsible for the legal recognition of asylum seekers.

[45] *Working together for local integration of migrants and refugees* in several cities (OECD, 2018d)

In **Bologna**, **third-sector organisations play a key role in providing services** for the integration of migrants, refugees and asylum seekers. Among governmental levels, the **most important is the local level**, especially in policy implementation, while both regional and national levels are very important in the design, funding and evaluation of policies.

There is greater cooperation between the different governmental levels in both Bologna and Flanders, where various services at a national level are developed at regional and local levels. On the other hand, in both Madrid and Hamburg there is a greater difference between the responsibilities corresponding to each level. For this reason, each government is able to manage their respective services with greater autonomy. The national government takes charge of issues related to the legal status of migrants or asylum and shelter seekers, while issues such as housing, health or education are mainly dealt with at a regional level (local in the case of Hamburg). The national government also participates by financing some of the policies developed at regional or local levels. **Third-sector organisations have greater importance in Hamburg and Bologna, than in Antwerp or Madrid.** There are specialised agencies in Antwerp (ATLAS) and Bologna (ASP) that play an important role in migrants' integration through some services they can offer them, while in Madrid or Hamburg, the same public departments that deal with nationals offer most of these public services.

2019 Institutional Map - Antwerp

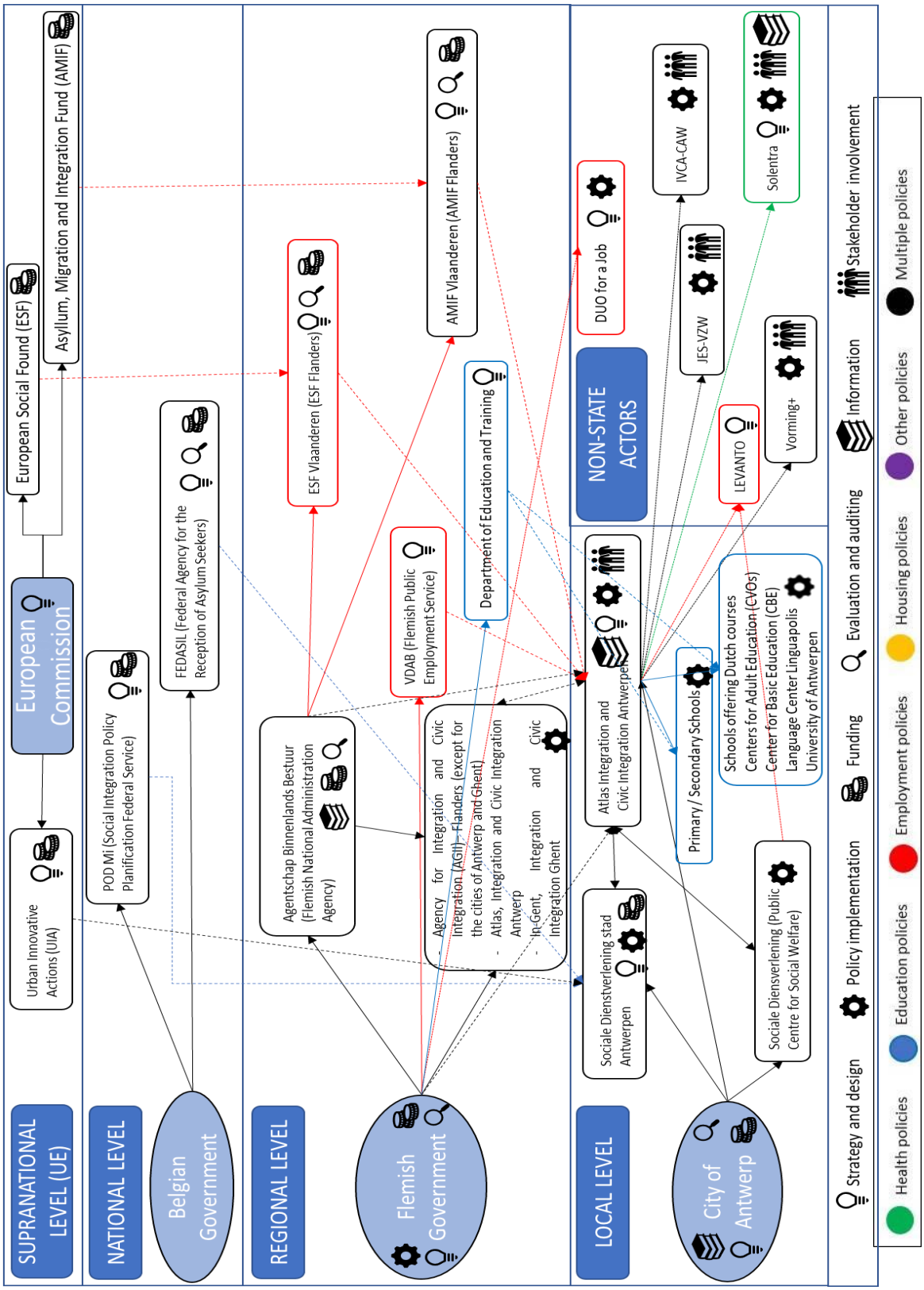


Chart 44: Institutional map of identified interventions by Antwerp partners (2019)
Source: Authors' own compilation

2019 Institutional Map – Bologna

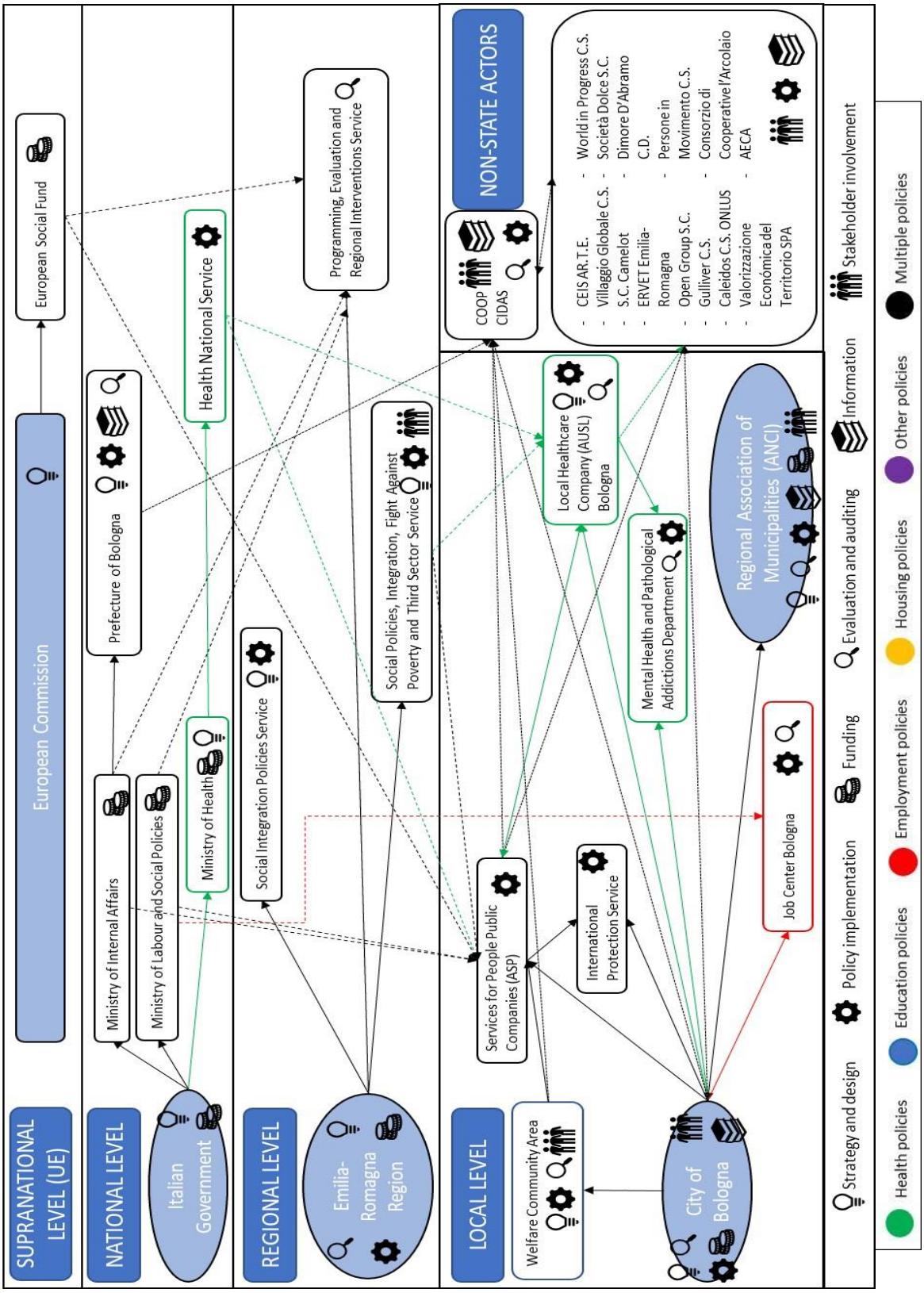


Chart 45. Institutional map of identified interventions by Bologna partners (2019)
Source: Authors' own compilation

2019 Institutional Map – Hamburg

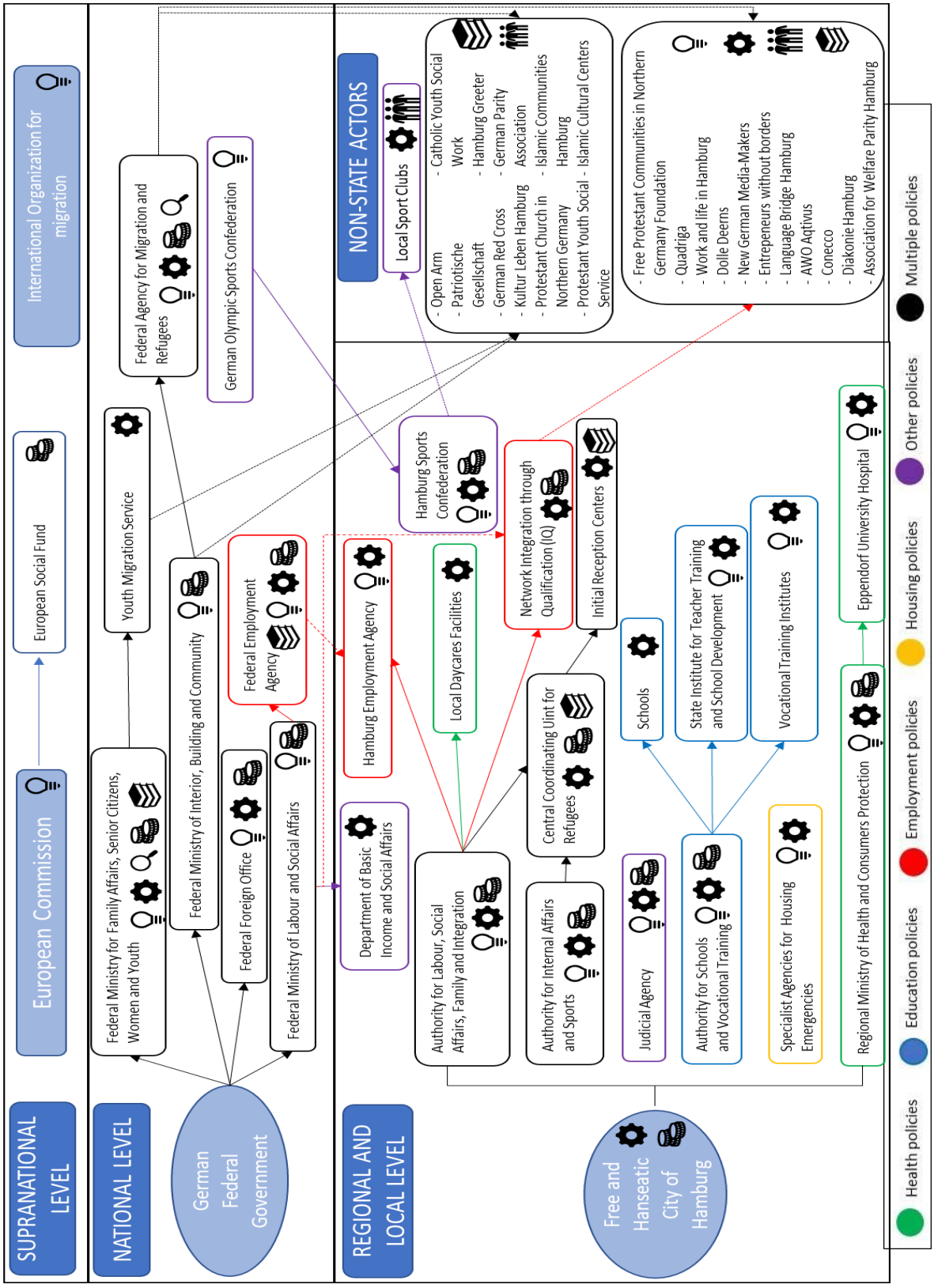


Chart 46. Institutional map of identified interventions by Hamburg partners (2019)
Source: Authors' own compilation

2019 Institutional Map – Madrid

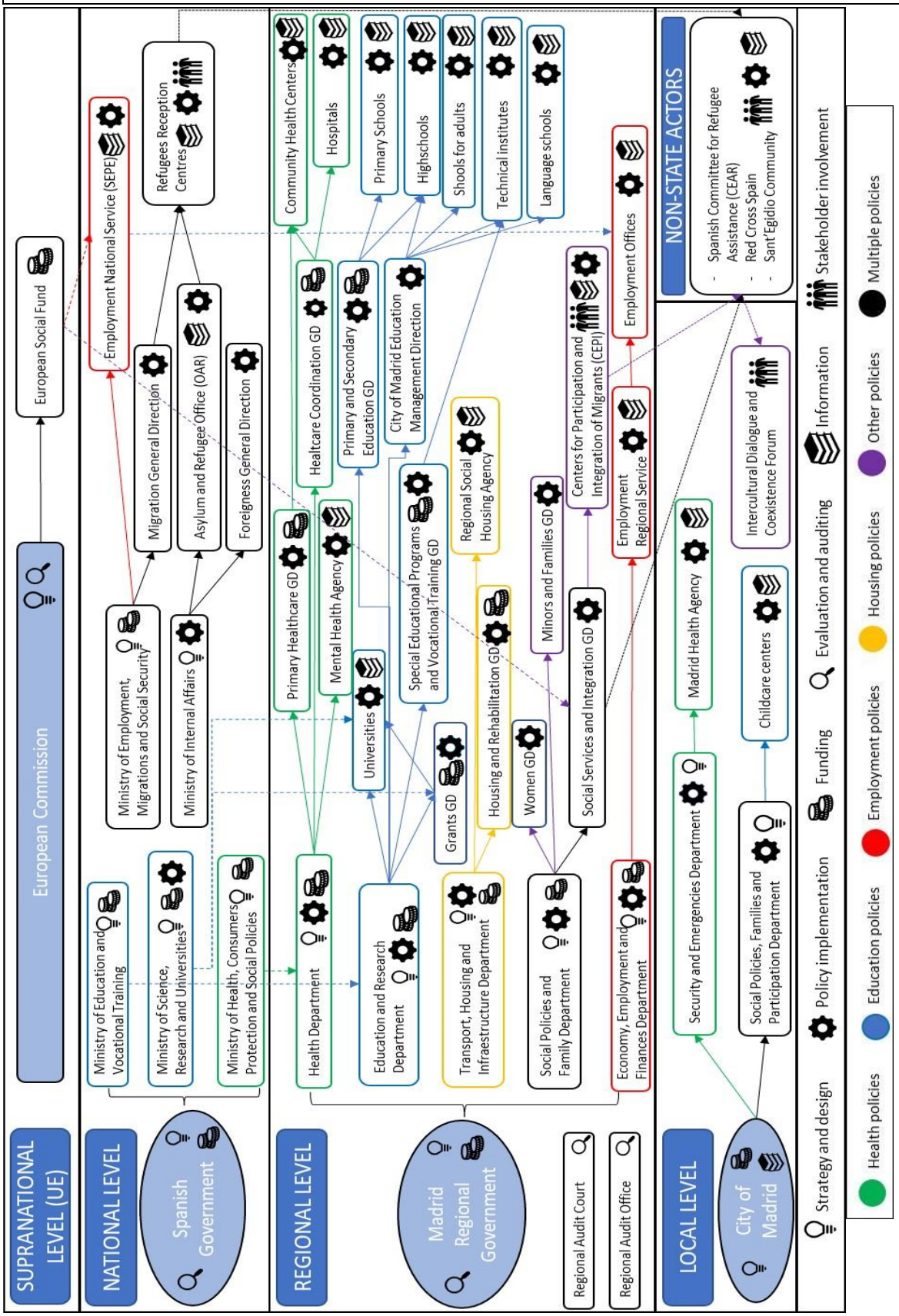


Chart 47. Institutional map of identified interventions by Madrid partners (2019)
Source: Authors' own compilation

5. Availability of data and on migrant population and integration policies and its applicability at the local level

One of the most striking features we found when we analysed migrant integration policies is associated to **the lack of data, official statistics and sometimes transparency at the regional and local levels**. Comparable and consistent data is available only at the national level. However, as already pointed out, in practice, integration takes place and is experienced at local level (OECD, 2018d; Fernandez Reino, 2019) and yet as Mariña Fernandez Reino (2019), researcher at the Migration Observatory at the University of Oxford, points out "there is a dizzying array of data sources on aspects of migration at the local level, scattered across different government websites, from population estimates to schools data and visa figures"[46].

In this report, we highlighted **the relevance of the regional and local levels for migrant integration**. Although migration policies and the legal status recognition remain national government's duties, many European cities and regions design their own policies aimed at easing the process of migrant integration. In the cities of interest of MICADO and in most European countries, government is decentralised in one way or another, and, thus, developing and implementing integration policies is often a regional or local government's competence. Moreover, collecting data on the subnational levels is important due to large variation in structural characteristics of migrant populations (OECD, 2018c) and socio-political outcomes such as support for further integration (Toschkov and Kortenska, 2015) or voting for populist radical right parties (Stockemer, 2016). This section gathers information on the availability of data on (i) migrant populations and (ii) integration policies at the national and regional levels and the applicability of these data at the local level.

5.1 Data on migrant population

Regarding structural data on migrant populations – e.g., share of foreign-born population by citizenship, age, education, residence or employment status – the **availability of comparable data varies depending on the level of aggregation**. While there is plenty of data on migration at the country-level and many indicators available at the regional-level, access to local-level data is very limited. The main **sources of data at all aggregation levels are census, survey, administrative** and other data collected by public authorities such as registration, insurance number or health card data, etc. Nevertheless, already at the national level, as the availability, accessibility, quality and use of official data sources vary greatly across countries (Baldacci, Japec, and Stoop, 2016), the process of harmonisation of

[46] https://migrationobservatory.ox.ac.uk/press/understanding-migration-at-the-local-level-where-integration-takes-place/

the data is costly and time-consuming. **Harmonising data at the regional and local level is even more challenging**, given that:

- **Lack of public data** or availability limited to the **local language only**.
- **Definitions** of who counts as a migrant vary. Dependent on the definitions adopted by national/regional/local authorities the category of "migrant" might include those citizens: who are foreign-born, with foreign-nationality, with migration background, with residence permit, registered in official census, etc.
- **Changes in both the legal status of migrants and the legal framework** of migrant integration are frequent, lowering the consistency and comparability of the gathered data. Migrant populations are very dynamic and mobile. Hence the data needs to be constantly updated to give a reliable picture of the structure of migrant population, especially at the regional and local levels. Moreover, considerable part of migrant population does not have a residence permit and thus is not included in the official statistics.
- **Integration policies** also vary across countries/regions/localities, affecting the comparability of the data. For instance, with regard to the share of the foreign population in each MICADO city/region, it has been observed that the high number of citizens with foreign nationality in Hamburg might be due to higher restrictions in naturalization processes compared to the other cities. Hence, the assessment of structural data must take the local idiosyncrasies in the public policy and legal framework dimensions into account.

As an **example of the obstacles the lack of comparable data** poses for any analysis at the regional or local level, let us focus on the most recent data (2019) on **the number of migrants present in the Autonomous Community of Madrid (region), Hamburg (city and region), Metropolitan City of Bologna (Province), and Antwerp (Province)**. Of course, this indicator would change if we were to restrain the analysis to the city-level. However, already for this basic statistic, we were forced to choose these levels of aggregation for each city/region due to data accessibility and comparability.

Table 15 gathers basic information on the population of each city/region and the **share of the population with foreign nationality**. There are different ways of measuring the number of immigrants in a given region. We opted for official national statistics of residents with foreign nationality over those that count residents born in a foreign country or residents with migration background. With all the trade-offs involved, we believe that this indicator is well suited for the purposes of developing the MICADO solution. This kind of data includes those migrants that are registered in the official census, most of them with some kind of residence permit. Thus, we can assume that including those that reside without an official permit and

those undocumented, would increase in most cases the 'real' share of the population with foreign nationality.

Data from Madrid and Hamburg offer some insight into the magnitude of such an increase. There are 880,918 foreigners with a residence permit in the Community of Madrid. However, as it is possible to register in the census without a residence permit, we know that **there are additional 67,906 foreigners who live in Madrid without official permission: 7.1% of the total foreign population** (Observatorio de la Inmigración, 2019). **In Hamburg, 3% of registered foreigners do not have a residence permit, toleration or permission to stay** (they are already included in the total of 310,545 in Table 4.1). All in all, Hamburg stands out as the city/region with the biggest share of the foreign population (17%), followed by Madrid (13.2%), Bologna (12.0%), and Antwerp (11.8%). Thus, in comparative studies even such basic statistic as the number of migrants in a given locality or region is problematic, given that most data is gathered only at the national level.

City/Region	Population	Population with foreign nationality	Percentage of foreign population
Community of Madrid	6,661,949	880,918	13.2
Hamburg	1,830,584	310,545	17.0
Bologna (Metropolitan City)	1,014,728	121,462	12.0
Province of Antwerp	1,847,486	217,454	11.8

Table 15. Share of population with foreign nationality, 2019

Source: Own compilation based on Instituto Nacional de Estadística, INE; Statistische Bundesamt, DESTATIS; Istituto Nazionale di Statistica, ISTAT; and Directorate General Statistics - Statistics Belgium, STATBEL.

The data used in section 3 Secondary Data was drawn from different databases (**Eurostat, United Nations, OECD**), which cover different territorial levels. OECD's (2018) Database on Migrants in OECD Regions offers the most comprehensive dataset on migrant populations at the regional level. However, the last available data in that dataset is from 2015, and given that we tried to use the most updated data, the structural indicators regarding the four MICADO domains were mostly taken from Eurostat database. Education and labour market data were derived from the **EU Labour Force Survey** (EU-LFS[47]) and data on health and housing issues were based on **EU Statistics on Income and Living Conditions** (EU-SILC[48]). Both EU-LFS and EU-SILC are conducted by national statistical offices and follow

[47] https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/cache/metadata/en/reg_lmk_esms.htm

[48] https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/cache/metadata/en/lfsi_esms.htm

guidelines and definitions that are common for all reporting countries to ensure comparability of results. In EU-SILC information for the identification of regions is inconsistent between countries (Belgium: NUTS 1, Germany: no information, Italy: NUTS 1, Spain: NUTS 2). Therefore, comparable results can only be presented at the national level. In EU-LFS, the lowest regional identifier is the NUTS 2 level for all countries. However, given that only the City of Hamburg is a NUTS 2 region, while the other cities only constitute parts of a larger NUTS 2 region (Antwerp: BE21 Province of Antwerp, Madrid: ES30 Community of Madrid, Bologna: ITH5 Emilia-Romagna), neither EU-LFS nor EU-SILC facilitate analyses on the local level for all pilot cities.

For local data, **comparability of data depends on the availability of certain indicators at local statistical offices**. Although the data is scarce and dispersed, there are initiatives aiming at systemising it. A good example is *The Migration Observatory Local Data Guide*, elaborated by The Migration Observatory at the University of Oxford,[49] which aims to shed light on migration patterns and migrant populations at the local authority level in the UK.

For the **MICADO pilot cities**, as **Fehler! Verweisquelle konnte nicht gefunden werden.** shows, only general population indicators by citizenship and/or migration background are offered at the local level. Among the structural indicators only the (un-) employment rate by citizenship, the level of education by country of birth (with the exception of Bologna) and the at-risk-of-poverty rate by citizenship (with the exception of Bologna and Antwerp) could be accessed locally.

	National	Regional (NUTS 2)	Local
Population indicators			
Immigration	x	x	x
Migrant stock	x	x	x
Refugees and asylum seekers as percentage of migrant stock	x		
Share of foreign nationals	x	x	x
Structural indicators			
Employment			
Employment rate, by citizenship	x	x	x[1]

[49] https://dataguide.migrationobservatory.ox.ac.uk/

Unemployment rate, by citizenship	x	x	x[1]
Self-employment rate, by citizenship	x	x	
Temporary employment rate, by citizenship	x	x	
Part-time employment rate, by citizenship	x	x	
Obstacles to getting a suitable job, by citizenship	x		
Education			
Population by education and country of birth	x	x	x[1]
PISA reading score of 15 years old students, by country of birth	x		
Early leavers from education and training, by country of birth	x		
Young people (aged 15-29) neither in employment nor in education and training, by country of birth	x		
Housing			
Tenure status, by country of citizenship	x		
Overcrowding rate, by country of birth	x		
Housing cost overburden rate, by citizenship	x		
Health			
Self-perceived health, by migration background	x		
At-risk-of-poverty rate, by citizenship	x		x[2]

Table 16. Availability of indicators on migrant population at different territorial levels in MICADO pilot cities

Source: Own elaboration. Notes: 1 Missing data for Bologna; 2 Missing data for Bologna and Antwerp.

5.2 Data on migrant integration policies

Since the **Declaration of Zaragoza (2010)** several key policy areas and common indicators of migrant integration has been developed and some have been monitored by **Eurostat**'s Migrant Integration Statistics. Moreover, several European Projects have created indices and databases such as the **Migration Integration Policy Index (MIPEX 2015)** or the **Oxford Migration Index (EUI)**. These indices provide fairly reliable and standardized data that enables a comparative analysis and a general overview of migrant integration within the European Framework. Nevertheless, the **data is offered only at the national level** and their updates have been discontinued so far although it is expected to be updated in 2020. At local level, the **EUROCITIES** project generated a set of policy recommendations and case studies reports, although it gathers qualitative data on a self-assessment base, limiting the reliability

of the assessments. European projects attempts at gathering policy indicators at regional or local level like **MICADO** (2019) for Antwerp, Bologna, Hamburg and Madrid or newly funded project **REGIN** (2020) at Azores, Campania, Catalonia, Murcia, Puglia and Skåne will provide insightful information on how these perform at the level where integration happens and how these differ from the national level.

Most of the indicators are developed in relative terms, considering full integration in terms of equality of rights between the foreign-born and the natives, and serve as tool to evaluate and compare what governments are doing to promote the integration of migrants. Integration is defined in relation to native-born population, and the ultimate goal would be to achieve equal rights (and obligations) in terms of policy (MIPEX, i.e. equal access to the job market) or outcomes (OECD, i.e. equal unemployment rates). In a similar vein, the Action Plan of the European Commission on the integration of third-country nationals, presented in June 2016, envisages actions in five policy priorities: education, employment market integration and access to vocational training, access to basic services, active participation and social inclusion (European Commission, 2016). Thus, existing data allows for comparative studies – with certain limitations related mostly to lack of consistency – **at the national level only**.

On top of the already identified challenges for harmonisation of data on migrant populations at the regional and local levels (lack of data; data in local language only; problems with the definitions of key terms; changes in both the legal status of migrants and the legal framework), just as a comprehensive description of the structural data should take into account the policy dimension, **a comparative assessment of integration policies should also take into the structural data on population**. Moreover, **the following hindrances are specific to the harmonization of integration policies**:

- **Multilevel governance and competence distribution**. The intricacies of competences distribution in a sensitive issue such as immigration can mislead the interpretation of the results. Following the example of the four countries included in this report, they account for four different competencies distribution in this regard and, therefore, four different ways to design, implement and developed migration integration policies. Thus, the city of Hamburg represents the case of a city-state in a federal system such as the German, in which the city holds some prerogatives and can lead by itself specific policies. The city of Antwerp, which is also a region, has developed different competences and has a strong relationship with third actors or organizations who directly lead most of the migration policies developed in this region. On the other hand, Bologna as a municipality within a region, leads innovative migration integration plans involving third actors in its development. Finally, Madrid as an Autonomous Community in a decentralized country, assumes direct responsibility in some areas, specially health, education and employment, when others like

housing, refugees or more broad policies relies on national or local government levels.

- **Different policy strategies.** Each of the analysed governments has developed different policy strategies, some of them oriented towards migrant population, while others considering migrants as part of the general population. The data has to account for this plurality and complexity.
- **Reliance on expert knowledge.** Given the variety of both structural characteristics of local migrant populations and integration policies implemented, any comparative assessment of the latter relies on expert knowledge (if not on self-assessment as in the case of EUROCITIES). For instance, the 167 indicators of MIPEX are first gathered by experts in each country and then they are peer-reviewed. Thus, at least two experts per country are involved. Although not flawless, this process seems to be an appropriate one also for the regional level, given that larger expert surveys would not be feasible on subnational levels. Nevertheless, already at the national level it is a costly and time-consuming process. Hence, elaborating it at the regional level would require considerable resources.
- **Partially deficient longitudinal scope of data**. It is important to trace potential effects of policy reforms and other country-specific context variable changes on migrant integration over time. However, most information lacks sufficient longitudinal scope even at the country-level. Providing consistent data at the regional one might prove quite challenging.

In this report, we gathered evidence from extending the migrant policy integration index to the regional/local level and elaborating the policy maps for the four MICADO cities. Table 13 and Chart 31 in Section 4 (pp.109-110) outlined the existing differences between the local and national level integration indexes. The majority of changes from national to local scores are positive, meaning that departing from national regulations taken as a basis, all cities to a greater or lesser extent have developed local or regional regulations that favour migrant's integration. With regard to the level of governance, Chart 32 (p.118) demonstrates that most integration policies are developed at the regional level, the local level being the second, and the national one only third. This distribution varies considerably by policy domain. All in all, these results clearly show that there is a strong relationship between policy coherency, regional government competences, and successful integration scores.

5.3 Conclusion

Table 4.3 summarizes the availability, comparability and consistency of the data on both the migrant populations and integration policies by level of aggregation. All things considered,

comparable and consistent official statistics are available only at a national level, giving only a broad picture of immigration in EU member states. In light of the decentralization of competences and the efforts of many European cities and regions to design their own policies aimed at easing the process of migrant integration, more refined measures of this process would be helpful. Obtaining data on the subnational levels deems necessary also due to large variation in structural characteristics of migrant populations and socio-political outcomes of the combination of the characteristics of local migrant populations and integration policies. For now, comparable data on the regional level is scarce and on the local level practically inexistent. Further studies and projects might aim at filling that gap.

	National Level	**Regional Level**	**Local Level**
Availability of data			
Statistics on migrant populations	Excellent *(Eurostat, OECD)*	Good *(Eurostat, OECD)*	Fair
Migration and integration policies	Good *(MIPEX)*	Poor	Poor *(EUROCITIES)*
Comparability of data			
Statistics on migrant populations	Excellent *(Eurostat, OECD)*	Fair *(Eurostat, OECD)*	Poor
Migration and integration policies	Good *(MIPEX)*	Poor	Poor *(EUROCITIES)*
Consistency of data			
Statistics on migrant populations	Excellent *(Eurostat, OECD)*	Fair *(OECD)*	Poor
Migration and integration policies	Fair *(MIPEX)*	Poor	Poor *(EUROCITIES)*

Table 17. Comparison of the availability, comparability and consistency of data on migrant populations and integration policies by level of aggregation
Source: Own elaboration

6. Conclusions

As presented in the introduction the overall aim of this report together with the scientific contribution presented in it and condensed in the Executive Summary: a systematic literature review of documents produced on migrant and refugee integration in the last five years; a summary and analysis of the secondary data available on the topic; and update to 2019 and analyse the Migrant Integration Policy Index, a map of actors intervening in migrant and refugee integration and the collection and analysis of the main activities and programmes aimed at migrant integration; was to shed some light on the **challenges this innovation action faces**, so as to identify and clarify them and establish a more accurate picture of migrant integration in the four cities of interest for this project: Antwerp, Bologna, Hamburg and Madrid.

Overall one of the main challenges for MICADO is to profile users for the application in order to customize the available information. As stated above, categories are not fixed but change over time and place; they not only depend on classic profiling: refugees, asylum seekers, resident or working migrants' permits, reunited families, but also on bilateral agreements that each country of origin has with the host country. Moreover, the dynamism of this population and its constant change of legal status clearly affects the adaptation and access to services provided by institutions and, therefore, are available to them in the application. This deliverable contributes to set a **clear definition and conceptualisation of key terms** such as migrant, asylum seeker, refugee, integration, inclusion, etc (see Chapter 2.3). to be discussed and followed throughout the life of the project and included in MICADO's Wiki, following good practices contained in '*Success stories of SSH integration in STEM projects*' (Net4Society, EC) geared towards reaching a common project language oriented at STEM and SSH terminology.

Another challenge was to point at **possible topics and areas** to be included in the MICADO ICT solution, proven to impact health, employment, education, housing, participation and integration, that should be considered together with the results obtained from Work Package 2 interviews and co-creation sessions as a possible feature of MICADO.

Short name	Challenge	Domain[50]	Actors involved[51]	Target group[52]
Recognition of qualifications	Information about qualifications recognition considering country of origin & destination country harmonization	Education	Public Authorities	Migrants & Refugees
Language skills	Information about language courses for all ages	Education	Micado	Migrants & Refugees
Education Access	Information for relevant profiles about access to VET, University, Programs to avoid early drop-out or NEET (Youth Guarantee etc.)	Education	Public Authorities	Migrants & Refugees
Education- User profile data in public services	Scarcity of harmonized statistics on migrant education at regional level	Education	Public Authorities	Public Authorities
Parent's involvement	Information about procedures for parents with children in education to facilitate participation and intercultural dynamics	Education	Public Authorities	Migrants & Refugees
Promote multicultural teaching	Facilitate and promote among migrant uses information about how to become a teacher	Education	Public Authorities and Micado	Migrants & Refugees
Education-Update	Ensure dynamic information (scholar calendar, holiday periods, enrollment processes, grants, etc.) is updated	Education	Micado	Migrants & Refugees
Assessment and enhancement of skills	Ensure any skills assessment tool included in the app values and shows the inherent skills of users (other languages and culture knowledge, experience, etc.)	Employment	Micado	Migrants & Refugees
Employment-Update	Ensure dynamic information (training and courses for employment, NGO's courses, public employment offers) is updated	Employment	Micado	Migrants & Refugees
Self-employment & entrepreneurship	Information about legal obligations and how to start a business	Employment	Public Authorities	Migrants & Refugees

[50] Domain: General, Education, Employment, Health, Housing, Participation.
[51] Actors involved (helping, hindering or otherwise): Micado, Public Authorities, NGO & Associations, Migrants & refugees, Public Authorities & Micado, All.
[52] Target group (relevant for whom): Micado, Public Authorities, NGO & Associations, Migrants & Refugees, All.

Multi-source job offers	Ensure job offers from all relevant stakeholders, not only institutions but NGO's, private companies and migrant themselves	Employment	Public Authorities	Migrants & Refugees
Volunteering	Facilitate volunteering opportunities to enhance participation and work experience	Employment	All	Migrants & Refugees
Legal rights-Employment	Facilitate clear, short information on employment obligations and rights (type of contracts, salary, unemployment etc.)	Employment	All	Migrants & Refugees
Statistics	Ensure statistical convergence (categories & unit)	General	Public Authorities	All
Definitions	Ensure definitions convergence	General	Micado	All
Language	Ensure translations to other language than the official languages in the country	General	Micado	Migrants & Refugees
Legal status recognition	Customize the information according to national legal status recognition laws	General	Micado	All
Anti-discrimination	Information about bullying, prejudice, hate crimes and mechanisms for complaints and denouncing it. Providing also a shortcut button for denouncing hate crimes	General	Public Authorities and Micado	Migrants & Refugees
Ad-hoc interventions	Update the app to ensure this kind of seasonal or singular interventions are also included in the app	General	Micado	Migrants & Refugees
Recognition of training or activities	Facilitate the recognition of training or activities undertaken at NGO's or others (badges or other)	General	All	Migrants & Refugees
Financial information	Facilitate information about banking and financing activities (training courses, how to open an account, charges, anti-fraud, legal obligations)	General	All	Migrants & Refugees
Gendered bias	Avoid gendered biases when displaying education and employment information in the app. Or even reverse biases for example facilitating STEM careers, ICT courses, etc. information specifically to women	General	Public Authorities	Migrants & Refugees

Financial information	Facilitate information about banking and financing activities (training courses, how to open an account, charges, anti-fraud, legal obligations)	General	All	Migrants & Refugees
First-steps	Facilitate clear, visual information of the 5 main first steps in each city for newcomers	General	Public Authorities	Migrants & Refugees
Integration approach	Facilitate migrants and refugee's agency on their own pathway to integration	General	All	All
NGO's integration	Ensure the services offered by NGO's are available and integrated in the app	General	All	All
Ethical challenges	Ensure all information is treated in an ethical way and in accordance to our agreements	General	All	All
Personal data challenges	Ensure any data collected is treated in accordance to relevant legislation	General	All	All
Anti-trafficking	Facilitate information on assistance for trafficked persons	General	Public Authorities and Micado	Migrants & Refugees
Legal status request	Account for forthcoming legal status request (permanent residence, access to nationality...)	General	Migrants & Refugees	Migrants & Refugees
Relatives user dependant	Provide the information related not only for the user of the app but for those who depend on him or her	General	Migrants & Refugees	Migrants & Refugees
Accessibility	Adapt information provided to ensure or grant access to everyone attending auditive, visual, cognitive and physical handicaps	General	Micado	All
Illiteracy	Adapt the information provided by institutions to a potential illiterate user	General	Micado	All
Gender violence alert	Create a shortcut button for gender violence victims	General	Migrants & Refugees	Migrants & Refugees
Emergency button	be able to provide by any means information regarding public emergencies	General	Migrants & Refugees	Migrants & Refugees
Social Services	Targeted information about social services issues according to the profile (targeted information for people with special needs, disabilities...)	General	Migrants & Refugees	Migrants & Refugees
Mental well-being	Ensure the inclusion of mental health and well-being programs	Health	Public Authorities and Micado	Migrants & Refugees

Sports	Ensure sports programs are included	Health	Public Authorities and Micado	Migrants & Refugees
Targeted information health	Targeted information about health issues according to the profile (targeted information for women sexual, reproductive, etc.; parents, impairments and disabilities, etc.)	Health	Public Authorities and Micado	Migrants & Refugees
Health services responsiveness	Include information about cultural awareness for NGO and services staff and volunteers	Health	NGO & Associations (Civil Society)	Migrants & Refugees
Health - Translation	Facilitate information in different language and if possible, interpret services	Health	Public Authorities and Micado	Migrants & Refugees
Health-Entitlement	Customize the information according to different legal status	Health	Public Authorities and Micado	Migrants & Refugees
Health - User profile data in public services	Improve data recollection to include: migration history, place of origin, socio-economic characteristics, social support and networks, literacy level, sex, age, length of stay, legal status, language proficiency, living conditions, etc.	Health	All	Public Authorities
Addiction prevention or treatment	Facilitate information and prevention on drug and non-substance addiction	Health	All	Migrants & Refugees
Promote migrant staff	Facilitate information about how to work in the health system for migrants	Health	Public Authorities	Migrants & Refugees
Health-Update	Ensure dynamic information (vaccination calendar, periodic campaigns on health habits, sports programs) is updated	Health	Public Authorities and Micado	Migrants & Refugees
Housing-Update	Ensure dynamic information (public housing promotion) is updated	Housing	Public Authorities and Micado	Migrants & Refugees
Multi-source accommodation offers	Ensure accommodation offers from all relevant stakeholders, not only institutions but NGO's, private companies and migrant themselves	Housing	All	Migrants & Refugees
Housing legal	Facilitate rental information legal rights and obligations	Housing	Public Authorities and Micado	Migrants & Refugees
Emergency Housing	Facilitate information on emergency housing	Housing	All	Migrants & Refugees
Emergency Housing for gender violence	Facilitate information on emergency housing for gender violence victims	Housing	All	Migrants & Refugees

Participation-Update	Ensure dynamic information (NGO's activities, cultural agenda, political/electoral information) is up to date	Participation	All	Migrants & Refugees
Migrants participation	Enhancing governance by facilitating migrant's participation in local policies (surveys, consulting bodies, etc.) through the app	Participation	Public Authorities and Micado	Migrants & Refugees
Stakeholders involvement	Promote the use of the app by professionals in each sector (teachers, nurses, GPs, social workers)	Participation	All	All
Local community involvement	Provide information regarding local community groups, associations and platforms	Participation	NGO & Associations (Civil Society)	Migrants & Refugees

Table 18. Challenges for Micado
Source: Authors' own compilation

Another challenge addressed by this deliverable was to set out the l**egal framework in each country and city as regards the different domains**, so as to customise and adapt the information provided by MICADO.

		BE	DE	ES	IT
Employment	**EU**	Residence card is compulsory	√	√	√
	Non-EU	4 months	3 months	6 months	2 months
	Refugee / Asylum seeker	4 months	3 months (not self-employed)	6 months	2 months
Family reunion	**EU**	√	√	√	√
	Non-EU	≤ 1 year of residence. Permit for 1 year	> 1 year of legal residence	> 1 year of legal residence	> 1 year of legal residence
	Refugee / Asylum seeker	≤ 1 year of residence. Permit for 1 year	> 1 year of legal residence	> 1 year of legal residence	> 1 year of legal residence
Permanent residence	**EU**	> 5 years of legal residence	> 5 years of legal residence	> 5 years of legal residence	> 5 years of legal residence
	Non-EU	> 5 years of legal residence	> 5 years of legal residence	> 5 years of legal residence	> 5 years of legal residence
	Refugee / Asylum seeker	> 5 years of legal residence	> 5 years of legal residence	> 5 years of legal residence	> 5 years of legal residence
Nationality	**EU**	3 years	8 years	10 years / 2 years for Portugal citizens	4 years

	Non-EU	3 years	8 years	10 years / 2 years for Latin American countries, Andorra, Philippines, Equatorial Guinea or Sephardic origins	10 years
	Refugee / Asylum seeker	2 years	8 years / 7 years if applicants have attended an integration course successfully / 6 years if applicants have integrated particularly well into society	5 years / 2 years for Latin American countries, Andorra, Philippines, Equatorial Guinea or Sephardic origins	10 years
Political participation	**EU**	No right to vote in national elections / Right to vote in European and local elections	No right to vote in national elections / Right to vote in European and local elections	No right to vote in national and regional elections / Right to vote in European and local elections	No right to vote in national and regional elections / Right to vote in European and local elections

	Non-EU	No right to vote in national and European elections / For local elections is needed more than 5 years of legal residence	No right to vote	No right to vote / Just Bolivia, Cape Verde, Chile, Colombia, Ecuador, Iceland, Norway, New Zealand, Paraguay, Peru, Congo Republic, Korea and Trinidad and Tobago citizens in local elections (After 5 years of legal residence, 3 for Norway)	No right to vote in national, European and regional elections / For local elections: When applying for residency, the applicant can also request that their name be added to the electoral roll (*Lista Elettorale*). If residency permission has already been granted, they will need to provide proof of address and residency to register on the voter's roll and be issued with a voting card

	Refugee / Asylum seeker	No right to vote in national and European elections / For local elections is needed more than 5 years of legal residence	No right to vote	No right to vote / Just Bolivia, Cape Verde, Chile, Colombia, Ecuador, Iceland, Norway, New Zealand, Paraguay, Peru, Congo Republic, Korea and Trinidad and Tobago citizens in local elections (After 5 years of legal residence, 3 for Norwegians)	No right to vote in national, regional and European elections / For local elections: When applying for residency, the applicant can also request that their name be added to the electoral roll (*Lista Elettorale*). If residency permission has already been granted, they will need to provide proof of address and residency to register on the voter's roll and be issued with a voting card
Anti-discrimination	**EU**	√	√	√	√
	Non-EU	√	√	√	√
	Refugee / Asylum seeker	√	√	√	√
Education	**EU**	**Compulsory-age education** from 6 to 18 years is free to access for all / **High education**: None. Migrants only benefit from general support for all students (and targeted non-governmental initiatives where provided).	√	√	All children have access to **pre-primary school** even when undocumented. But Migrants > 18 years old do not have explicit access to higher and **university education** without a resident permit

	Non-EU	**Compulsory-age education** from 6 to 18 years is free to access for all / **High education**: None. Migrants only benefit from general support for all students (and targeted non-governmental initiatives where provided).	Residence permit is compulsory	√	All children have access to **pre-primary school** even when undocumented. But Migrants > 18 years old do not have explicit access to higher and **university education** without a resident permit
	Refugee / Asylum seeker	**Compulsory-age education** from 6 to 18 years is free to access for all / **High education**: None. Migrants only benefit from general support for all students (and targeted non-governmental initiatives where provided).	√	√	All children have access to **pre-primary school** even when undocumented. But Migrants > 18 years old do not have explicit access to higher and **university education** without a resident permit
Health	**EU**	√	√	√	√
	Non-EU	√	Health security card compulsory	√	Residence permit compulsory
	Refugee / Asylum seeker	√	√	√	√
Housing	**EU**	√	√	√	√
	Non-EU	√	√	√	√

	Refugee / Asylum seeker	**First line**: Collective centres / **Second line**: Private housing at local level	**First line**: Initial reception centres / **Second line**: Collective centres, decentralised accommodation	**First line**: First aid centres (CPSA), governmental first reception centres, temporary reception centres (CAS) / **Second line**: System of protection of asylum seekers and refugees (SPRAR)	**First line**: Refugee reception centres (CAR), temporary stay centres (CETI) / **Second line**: Private managed by NGOs

Table 19. Legal Framework Summary
Source: Authors' own compilation

An additional challenge for MICADO would be **to identify and select which kind of interventions or services affect or are relevant** to the migrant population, in order to include them in the application. Some countries and regional governments develop specific policies for refugees, asylum seekers and migrants, especially in those matters where they have special conditions or needs. However, not all of them design policies oriented to migrant population in terms of education, employment, health or housing, where sometimes general policies apply, thus making it more difficult to untangle the type of services or special conditions this population has. The task of initiating the collection of public policies, programmes and activities, and their e-availability, susceptible of being included in the solution, has been started and collected by each Consortium city in a database containing 319 policies, interventions and services, which general analysis was presented in Chapter 4.3 *policy map analysis* in order to show the heterogeneity of results approaches and policies in each city.

Finally, the last challenge addressed in this deliverable for MICADO would be to **identify and engage the units responsible for providing services and interventions** for the migrant population and the available information and data for the application. This last task was addressed in Chapter 4.4 *institutional maps*. As pointed above and reflected in the maps most of the cities involved in the project belong to a strongly decentralised government system, in which each level of government is responsible and autonomous in its activities. Moreover, even at a regional level, there are several different areas -or even third sector stakeholders- involved in migrant integration policies without a clear coordination board. Finally, as mentioned above, the low development of e-government services for migrant integration implies both a challenge and an opportunity.

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8. Table of Charts, Figures and Tables

9. Appendix

9. 1 Systematic literature review. Search terms by city

	ANTWERP	BOLOGNA
CONCEPT 1	*Migra*, Asylum seek*, Refug*, Ethnic*, newcomer*, Asielzoeker, vluchteling, nieuwkomer, etniciteit	*Migra*, Asylum seek*, Refug*, Ethnic*, newcomer*, Richiede* Asilo*, Rifugia*, Etnic*, Stranier*
CONCEPT 2	Integratie, Assimilatie	assimila*, inclus*, integr*, intercult*, Integr*, accoglienza, inserimen*
CONCEPT 3	België, Wallonië, Vlaanderen, Antwerpen, Gent, Luik, Brussel, Charleroi, Brussels, Belgium, Wallonia, Walloon, Flemish, Liège, Ghent, Leuven, Hasselt, Bruges, Mons, Arlon, Namur, Wavre	Italia, Italy, Piemonte, Valle d'Aosta, Vallée d'Aoste, Lombardia, Trentino-Alto Adige, Süd Tirol, Veneto, Friuli-Venezia Giulia, Liguria, Emilia-Romagna, Toscana, Umbria, Marche, Lazio, Abruzzo, Molise, Campania, Puglia, Basilicata, Calabria, Sardegna, Sicilia, Milano, Milan, Bologna, Roma, Rome, Torino, Turin
CONCEPT 4	Housing, Hous*, residen*, accommodat*, habitat*, huisvesting, wonen, accommodat*, woon*	hous*, residen*, accommodat*, habitat*, Casa, residen*, alloggi*, abita*
CONCEPT 5	health*, insur*, gezondheid*, ziek*	health*, insur*, salud, seguridad social, cobertura sanitaria, sanidad, servizi* sanit*, assicura*, sanit*, sistema sanitario nazionale
CONCEPT 6	educat*, school*, language, training, onderwijs, resultaten, prestatie	educat*, school*, training, language, educaz*, scuola, istruzio*, success* scolastic*, formazio*, lingua*
CONCEPT 7	Employment, *employ*, labour, labor*, occup*, job, profession, work*, apprenticeship, training, werk*, tewerkstelling, job*, beroep	*employ*, labour, labor*, occup*, job, profession, work*, apprenticeship, training, impiego*, lavoro, formazione, occup*, inserimen* lavorat*, profession*, apprendista*, stage
CONCEPT 8	participat*, member*, involv*, engag*, attend*, lidmaatschap, deeln*	participat*, member*, involv*, participa*, engag*, attend*, partecipaz*, implicaz*, appartenenz*, attivis*
CONCEPT 9	spac*, place, urban, arriv*, destination, spatial*, territ*, metropol*, local*, city, plaats, ruimte*, context, stedelijk, stad*	Spac*, urban, place, urban, arriv*, destination, spatial*, territ*, metropol*, local*, city, spazio, luogo, contesto, urban*, città, metropol*, territor*, spazial*, local*, destinaz*

	HAMBURG	MADRID
CONCEPT 1	*Migra*, Asylum seek*, Refug*, Ethnic*, newcomer*, Asylbewerber*, Flüchtl*, Geflüchtet*, Einwanderer*, Zuwanderer*	*Migra*, Asylum seek*, Refug*, Ethnic*, newcomer*, asilo, expatriad*
CONCEPT 2	assimila*, inclus*, integr*, Inklus*, Integr*, Teilhabe	assimila*, inclus*, integr*, intercult*, Integr*, asimil*
CONCEPT 3	Deutschland, Germany, Hamburg, Berlin, Cologne, Munich, München, Köln, Bremen, Schleswig-Holstein, Niedersachsen, Sachsen, Thüringen, Saarland, Baden-Württemberg, Bayern, Brandenburg, Hessen, Mecklenburg-Vorpommern, Nordrhein-Westfalen, Rheinland-Pfalz, Sachsen-Anhalt	Spain, Madrid, Cataluña, Catalonia, Andalucia, Castilla, Valencia*, Canarias, Canary, Balear*, Andalusia, Seville, Sevilla, Barcelona, Rioja, Pais vasco, Basque country, Galicia, Galizia, Cantabria, Extremadura, Asturias, Murcia, Aragon, Navarra

CONCEPT 4	Housing, Hous*, residen*, accommodat*, habitat*, Wohnen, Wohnung, Wohnungsmarkt, Unterkunft, Unterkünfte	hous*, residen*, accommodat*, habitat*, estancia, vivienda
CONCEPT 5	health*, insur*, Krankenversicherung, Gesundheit*, Versicherungsschutz, Gesundheitsfürsorge, Gesundheitsversorgung, Krank*, Gesundheitsverhalten, Gesundheitssystem	health*, insur*, salud, seguridad social, cobertura sanitaria, sanidad
CONCEPT 6	educat*, school*, language, training, Bildung*, Ausbildung, Schule, Abschluss, Anerkennung, Abitur, Lehre	educat*, school*, training, language, educa*, escolar*, formación, académic*, idioma
CONCEPT 7	Employment, *employ*, labour, labor*, occup*, job, profession, work*, apprenticeship, training, Arbeit, Beschäftigung, Beruf, Ausbildung, Anerkennung, Arbeitsmarkt	*employ*, labour, labor*, occup*, job, profession, work*, apprenticeship, training, emple*, trabajo, labor*, ocupaci*, prácticas, contrat*
CONCEPT 8	participat*, member*, involv*, engag*, attend*, Teilhabe, Beteiligung, Engagement, Einbeziehung, Einbindung, Lehre	participat*, member*, involv*, participa*, engag*, attend*, enrola*, asociaci*
CONCEPT 9	spac*, place, urban, arriv*, destination, spatial*, territ*, metropol*, local*, city, Raum, Ort, Stadt, Ankommensort, räumliche Aneignung, Spacing, städtisch	Spac*, urban, place, urban, arriv*, destination, spatial*, territ*, metropol*, local*, city, local*, ciudad, espac*, entorno, lugar, emplaza*

9. 2 Secondary Data

Belgium				Spain			
Citizens of	**(%)**	**Born in**	**(%)**	**Citizens of**	**(%)**	**Born in**	**(%)**
France	12.1	Morocco	11.3	Morocco	14.9	Morocco	11.5
Italy	11.4	France	9.6	Romania	14.8	Romania	9.6
Netherlands	11.3	Netherlands	6.8	United Kingdom	6.2	Ecuador	6.6
Romania	6.3	Italy	6.2	Italy	4.9	Colombia	6.2
Morocco	6	Turkey	5.2	China	4	United Kingdom	4.7
Other	52.9	Other	60.8	Other	55.2	Other	61.4
Germany				**Italy**			
Citizens of	**(%)**	**Born in**	**(%)**	**Citizens of**	**(%)**	**Born in**	**(%)**
Turkey	13.7	:	:	Romania	23.1	Romania	16.7
Poland	7.8	:	:	Albania	8.6	Albania	7.6
Syria	6.8	:	:	Morocco	8.1	Morocco	7.1
Romania	6.1	:	:	China	5.7	Ukraine	3.9
Italy	6	:	:	Ukraine	4.6	China	3.6
Other	59.6	:	:	Other	49.9	Other	61.1

Table 20. Foreign population by citizenship and country of birth on 1 January 2018
No country-of-birth information available for Germany. Sources: based on Eurostat (2019); HWWI.

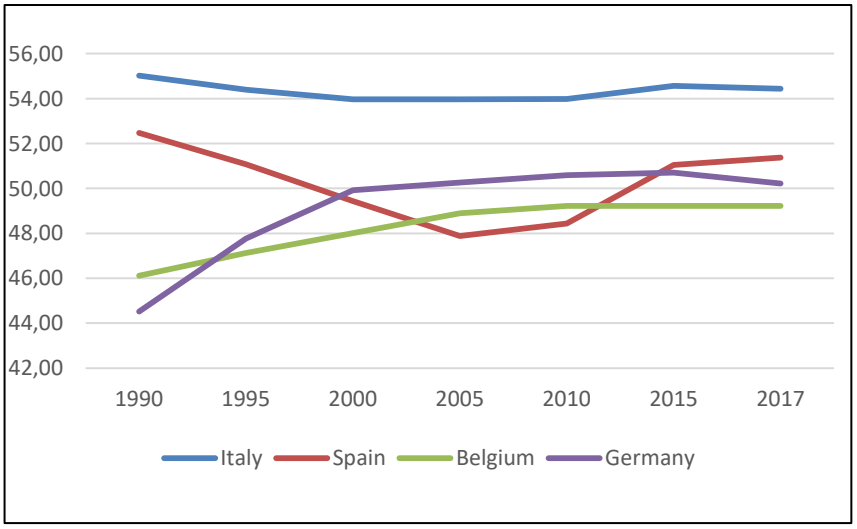


Chart 48. Female migrants as a percentage of the international migrant stock (in %)
Sources: United Nations (2017); HWWI.

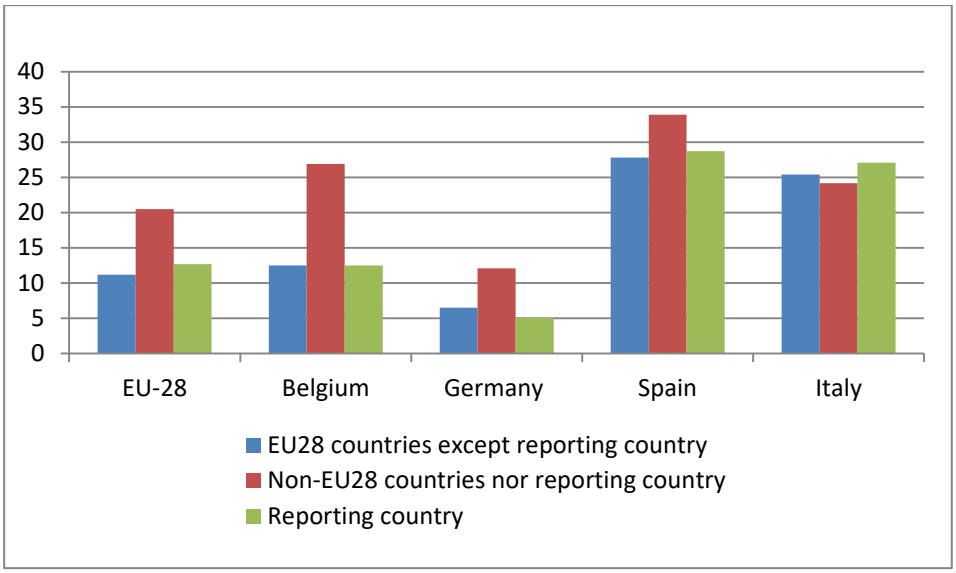


Chart 49. Youth unemployment rate in the population aged 15 to 29, by groups of country of birth, 2017 (%)
Sources: Eurostat [yth_empl_100]; HWWI

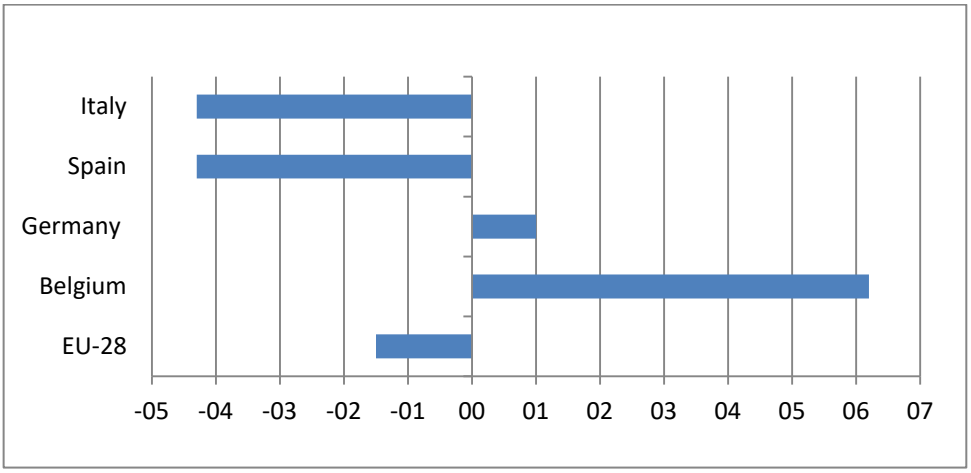


Chart 50. Gap in long-term unemployment (12 months or more) between foreign-born and native-born populations (aged 15 or over), 2017
Sources: Eurostat [lfsa_upgacob]; HWWI

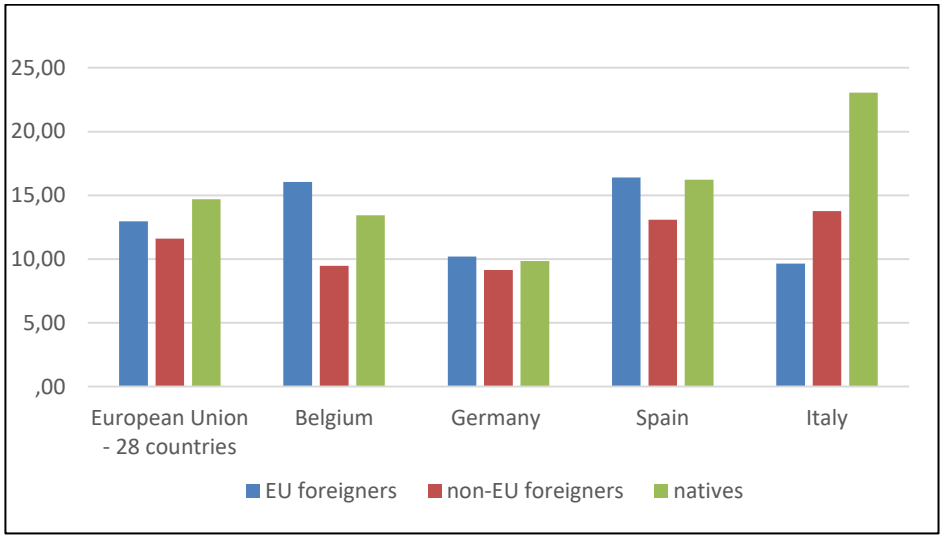


Chart 51. Share of self-employment, by groups of country of citizenship, 2017
Sources: Eurostat [lfsa_esgan]; HWWI

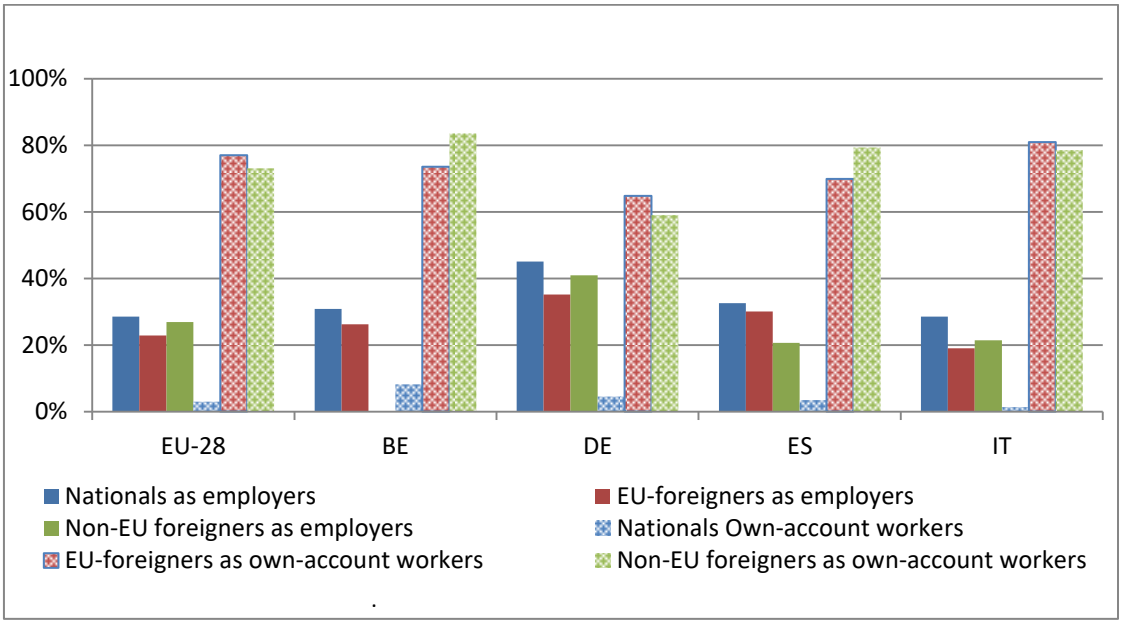


Chart 52. Shares of self-employed persons, by status and citizenship, 2017 (%)
Sources: Eurostat [lfsa_esgan]; HWWI

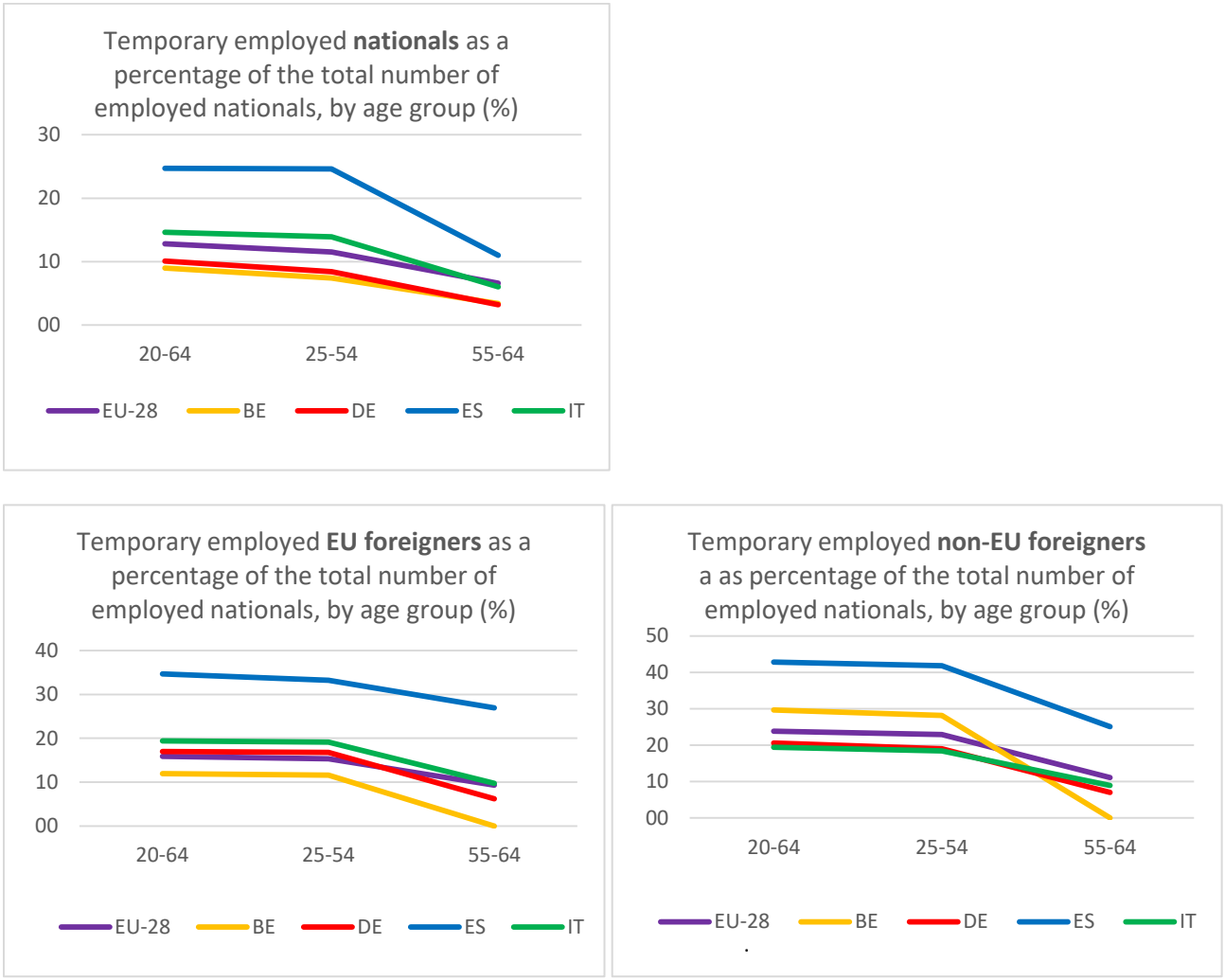


Chart 53. Temporary employed as a percentage of the total number of employed nationals, by citizenship and age group (%)
Sources: Eurostat [lfsa_etpgan]; HWWI

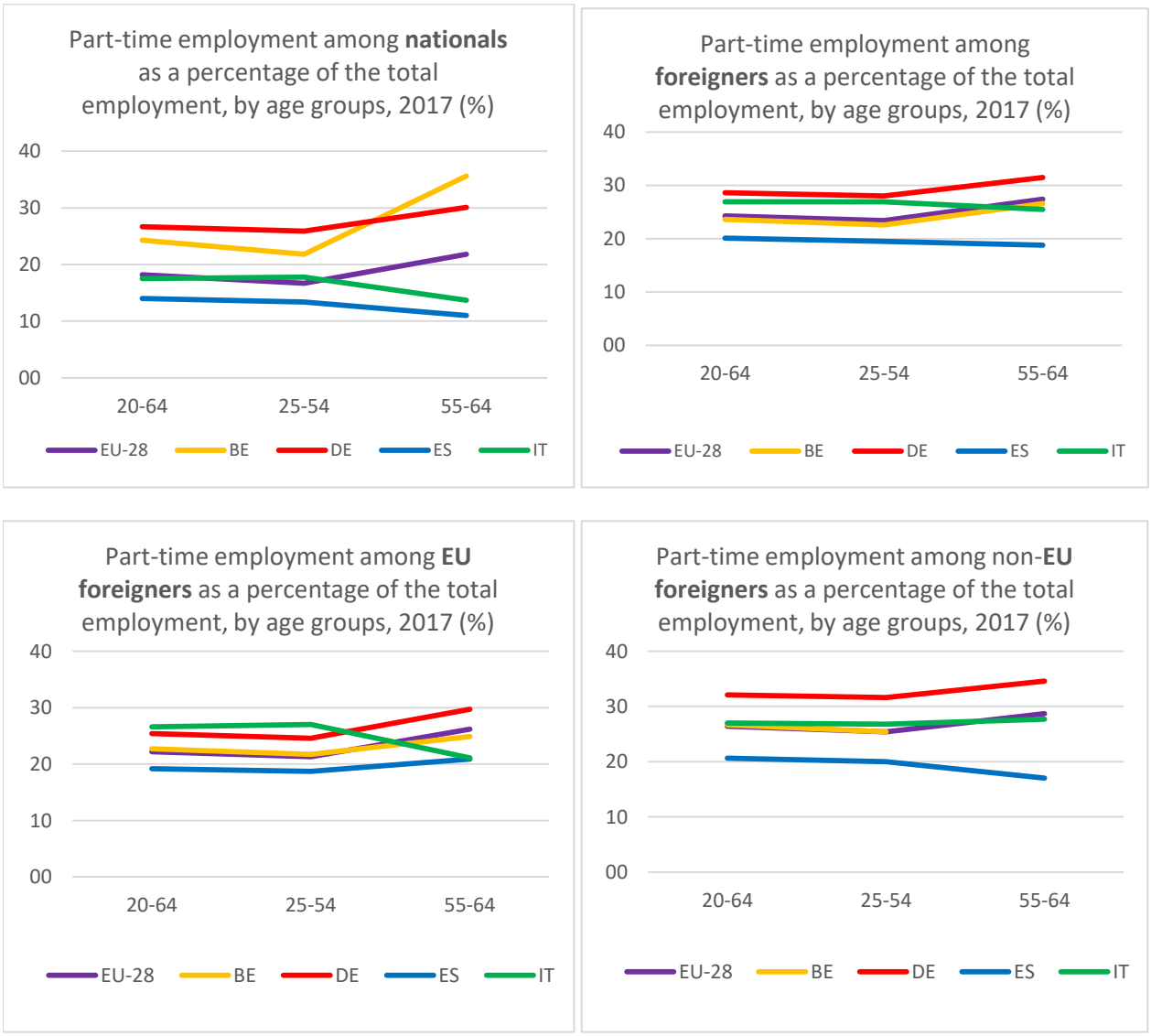


Chart 54. Part-time employment as a percentage of the total employment, by groups of country of citizenship and age group, 2017 (%)

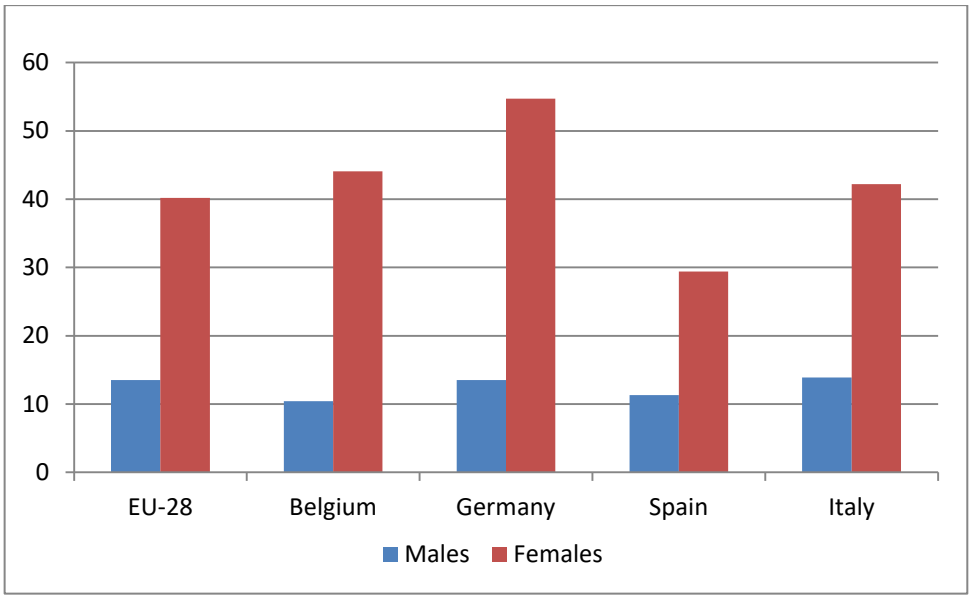


Chart 55. Part-time employment of non-EU citizens aged 20-64, by gender, 2017 (%)
Sources: Eurostat [lfsa_eppgan]; HWWI

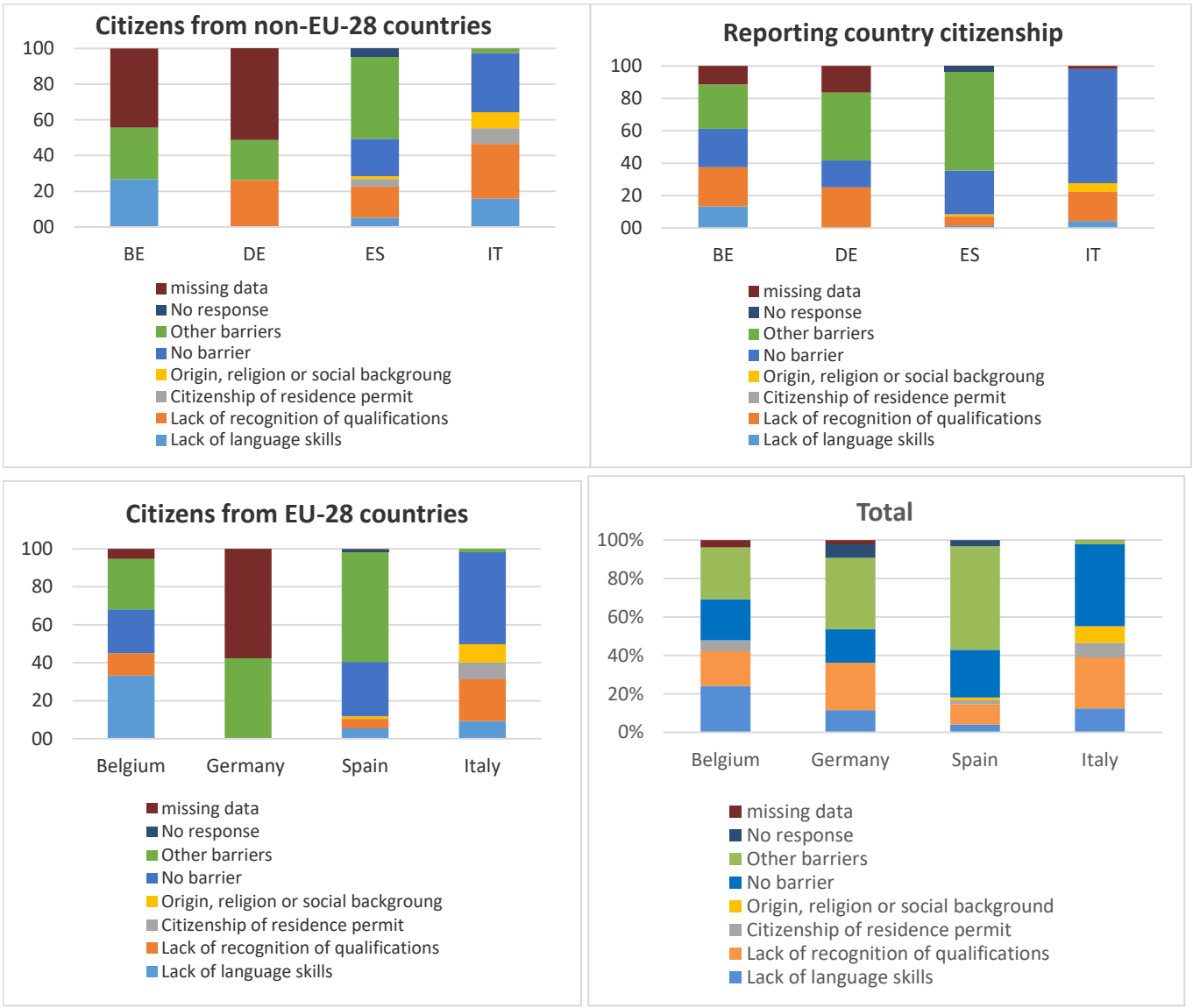


Chart 56. Obstacles to finding a suitable job, foreign-born employed persons by country of citizenship, 2014 (%)

Sources: Eurostat [lfso_14ociti]; HWWI

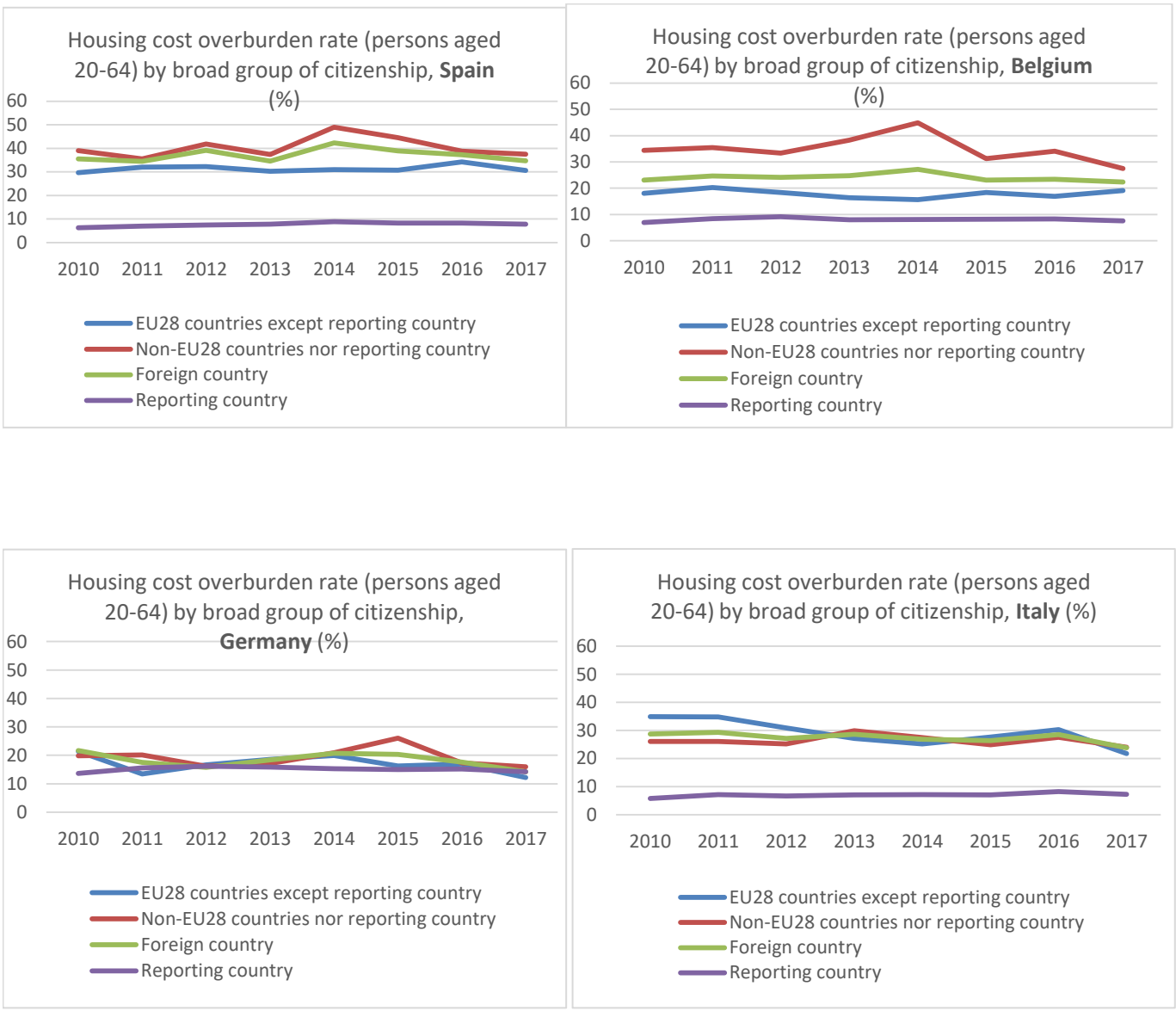


Chart 57. Housing cost overburden rate (persons aged 20-64) by broad group of citizenship (%)
Sources: Eurostat [ilc_lvho25]; HWWI.

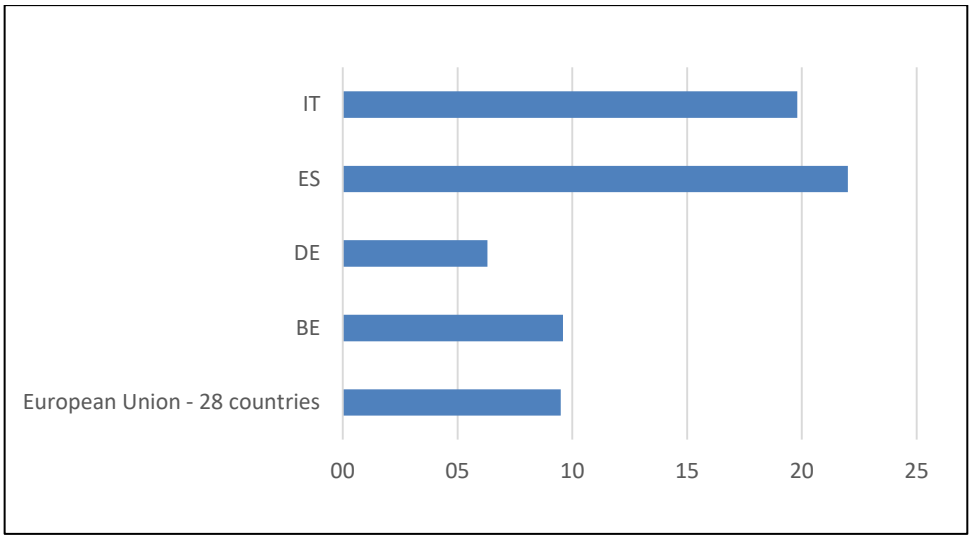


Chart 58. Gap in the in-work at-risk-of-poverty rate between the foreign- and the native-born population aged 20-64, 2017 (%)

Sources: Eurostat [ilc_iw16]; HWWI.

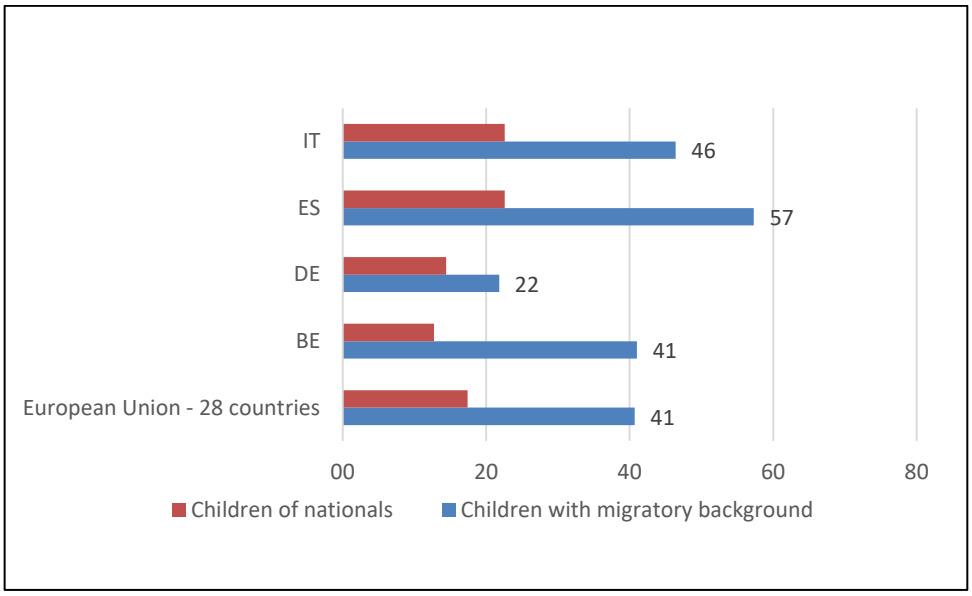


Chart 59. At-risk-of poverty rate for children (0-17) by citizenship of their parents, 2017 (%)

Sources: Eurostat [ilc_li33]; HWWI.

9.3 City Context - Questionnaire

1. **Demographic context:** What is the city's population, and how has it changed over past 10 years? What is the history of migration in the city? What are the main migrant groups, and over what periods have they arrived? Give some information about their language, skills, culture, religion, links with previous migrations trends. What is the impact of changes over time, in immigration to the city? Are there conditions applying specifically to certain groups of migrants (for example asylum seekers, or certain national groups), and differences between them?

   Sources: Statistical office, additional: available studies

2. **Socio-economic context:** Could you briefly describe the social structure and the main economic activities developed in the city? How do migrants fit into this context? Is there any action oriented to match their skills towards city's needs? Is there any allocation policy, such as urban settles for certain migrant groups?

   Sources: Statistical office, additional: available studies

3. **National (or regional) legislation and policy:** Changes in laws and policy on immigration and asylum may have a big effect on a city's integration work. Has your city been affected by such changes in recent years, and which ones had most impact?

   Sources: Legislative texts, additional: available studies

4. **Competences division between National, Regional and local administration:** Is there a clear division related to integration among levels? Are all key decisions about integration policy made at national level (above), or have city leaders' space to pursue their own integration aims? Can regional or national laws limit the city capacity to provide services to migrants & refugees & asylees? How about the way this service is provided?
   Sources: Legislative texts,

5. **City's strategic approach:** Has the city an overall strategy or plan for migrant integration? Does this include a concept or definition of 'integration'? Or does the city have a different approach?

   Sources: official policy documents; additional: expert interviews, available studies

6. **Steering work on integration:** How does your city organise its work on integration? Is there a department or unit specifically to promote this work? What part do elect city leaders play in it? How are local partners eg. third sector/NGOs, involved in the city's integration work?

   Sources: Official information by the local council, organisational charts, expert interviews, additional: available studies

7. **National/Regional/Local political climate:** Remarkable Political Composition and political trends in the State/Region/City during the last 10 years. What is the impact of 'integration' in local public debate? Is there political pressure on this issue on city leaders? Are migration and integration issues in the electoral debate?

Sources: expert interviews, available studies

8. **Civil Society engagement and social-political participation:** How is civil society in the city? Is there social engagement with integration issues? Are there migrants' associations? Are there participative tools in the city? How participative and engaged is the population? How is volunteering related to integration issues?

   Sources: expert interviews, available studies

9. **Community (intercultural) relations:** Have you any evidence about the relationship between migrant groups ('communities') and other groups of city residents, and their attitudes to each other? Are there signs of tension and conflict, or do they live together well?

   Sources: expert interviews, available studies

9.4 MIPEX Update – Template

The whole Excel template is available at http://www.mipex.eu/methodology

The whole Excel template produced by the Consortium and its results will be made public following the Horizon2020 Open Research Data Pilot in OpenAIRE, GESIS or in another open data repository.

Housing	
MEASURES TO ACHIEVE CHANGE	
House acquisition[53]	What categories of TCNs have equal access to buying a house a. Long-term residents b. Residents on temporary work permits (excluding seasonal) c. Residents on family reunion permits (same as sponsor) d. undocumented migrants
House rental	What categories of TCNs have equal access to renting a house a. Long-term residents b. Residents on temporary work permits (excluding seasonal) c. Residents on family reunion permits (same as sponsor) d. Undocumented migrants
Access to housing	What categories of TCNs have equal access to housing benefits? (e.g., public/social housing, participation in housing financing schemes) a. Long-term residents b. Residents on temporary work permits (excluding seasonal) c. Residents with family reunion permits (same as sponsor)
Gender	
MEASURES TO ACHIEVE CHANGE	
Labour and salary equality	Are there policies to avoid workplace discrimination against migrant women?
Attention to victims of sexual exploitation	Have migrant women the right to be helped by public services that protect victims of sexual exploitation?
Attention to victims of violence against women	Have migrant women the right to be helped by public services that assist victims of violence against women?

Table 21. Housing and Gender Dimension MICADO 2019 MIPEX Indicators and Sub-indicators

[53] This sub indicator was in Labour Market Mobility Dimension (Sub Indicator – Worker's Rights in MIPEX 2015)

9.5 MIPEX Update – Longitudinal

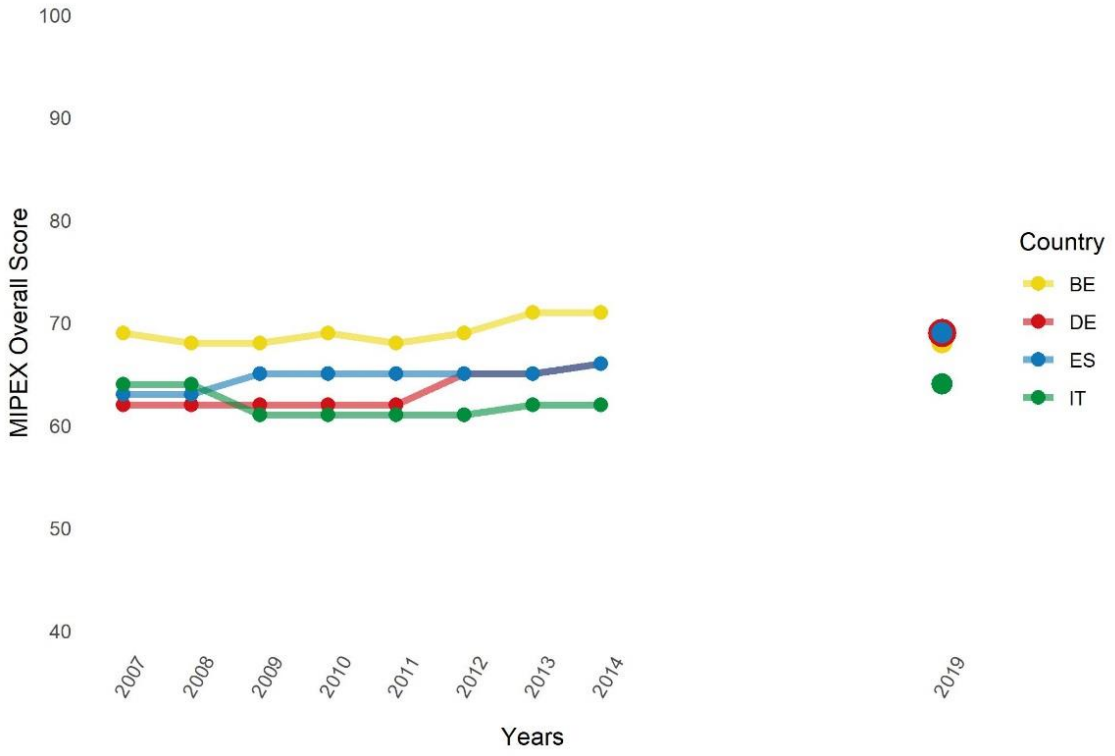


Chart 60. 2007-2019 Overall Score Evolution MIPEX (National results)

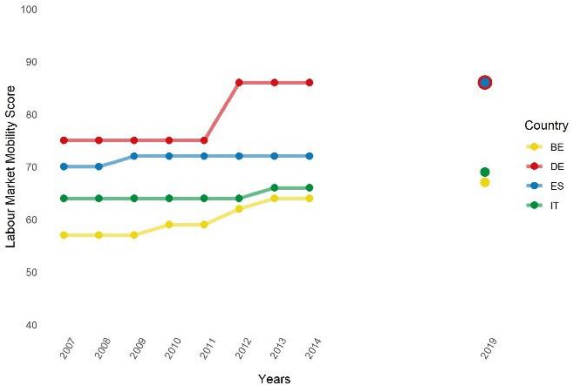
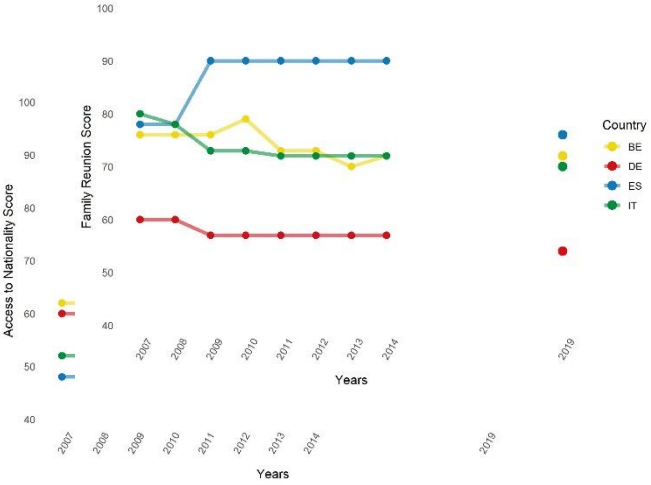
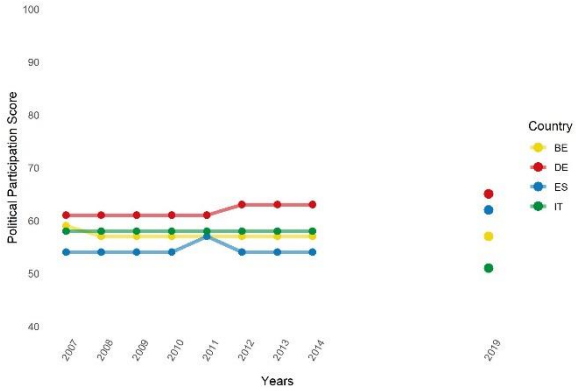


Chart 61. 2007-2019 MIPEX Evolution –





Labour market

Chart 62. 2007-2019 MIPEX Evolution – political participation

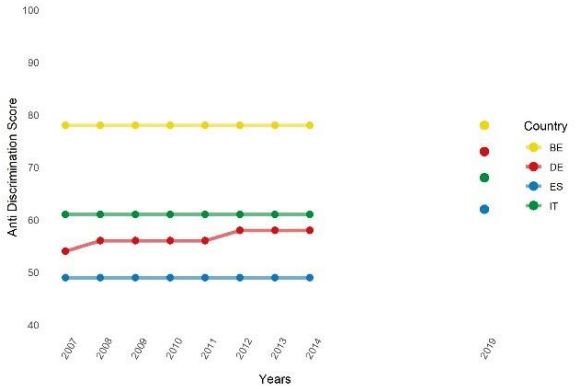


Chart 63. 2007-2019 MIPEX Evolution – Access to nationality

Chart 64. 2007-2019 MIPEX Evolution – Family reunion

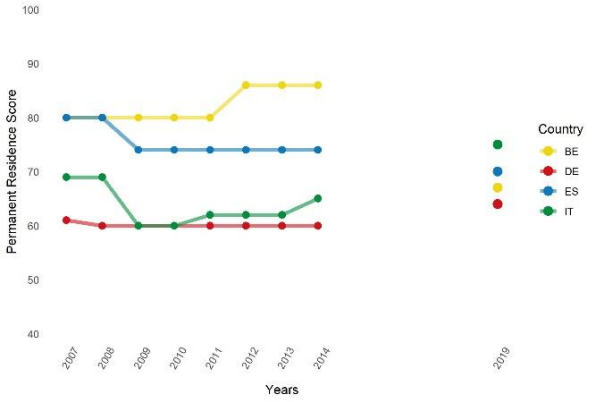


Chart 65. 2007-2019 MIPEX Evolution – Anti-discrimination

Chart 66. 2007-2019 MIPEX Evolution – Permanent residence

9.6 Policy Map variables and categories

VARIABLES	CATEGORIES
Name of the intervention (in English)	
Name of the intervention (Original language)	
Description of the intervention	
Main domain	1. Employment; 2. Education; 3. Health; 4. Housing; 5. Political participation; 6. Family policies; 7. Gender; 8. Culture and sport; 9. Other social policies
Secondary domain	1.1. Job search and labour intermediation; 1.2. Self-employment; 1.3. Training; 1.4. Other employment policies; 2.1. Primary and Secondary Education; 2.2. Higher Education; 2.3. Grants; 2.4. Validation and recognition of foreign studies and degrees; 2.5. Other education policies; 3.1. Health care system; 3.2. Public health policies (vaccines, health promotion and information…); 3.3. Other health policies; 4.1. Access to public housing system; 4.2. Housing intermediation; 4.3. Emergency housing services for refugees and asylum seekers; 5.1. Empowerment and promotion of associationism; 5.2. Participation in consultative bodies; 5.3. Other participation policies; 6.1. Childhood policies; 6.2. Other family policies; 7.1. Women's Empowerment; 7.2. Attention to victims of violence against women; 7.3. Attention to victims of sexual exploitation trafficking; 7.4. Other gender policies; 8.1. Culture; 8.2. Sport; 9.1. Attention to disability; 9.2. Policies to reduce poverty; 9.3. Other social policies
Main regulation	
Secondary regulation	
What administrative level is responsible of it?	UE; National; Regional; Local
Specify the Administrative Unit Responsible	
Permanent link to Administrative Responsible	
Is there a policy oriented to accomplish this goal or is just a legal action problem?	Policy oriented; Legal action; Both
Timing and programming	Permanent intervention; Seasonal intervention; On demand intervention; Punctual intervention
How frequent this intervention occurs over time?	Daily; Monthly; 3 Months; 6 Months; Year; 2 Years; 3 Years; None
Who oversees the design of the intervention?	UE; National; Regional; Local
Specify the Design Unit Responsible	
Permanent link to Design Administrative Responsible	
Who oversees the implementation of the intervention?	UE; National; Regional; Local
Specify the Implementation Unit Responsible	
Permanent link to Implementation Administrative Responsible	
Who's funding this intervention?	UE; National; Regional; Local
Specify the Funding Unit Responsible	
Permanent link to Funding Administrative Responsible	

Budget (In Thousands of Euros)	
Is there any kind of evaluation/report of the intervention?	Yes; No; Sort of
Who oversees the evaluation of the intervention?	UE; National; Regional; Local
Specify the Evaluation Unit Responsible	
Permanent link to Administrative Responsible	
What kind of results can be accounted for the policy/program/action	Report; Database Indicators; Others
How transparent/informative this intervention is	Public; Semi-public; Under request; Not available
Frequency of publication of the results	Daily; Monthly; 3 Months; 6 Months; Year; 2 Years; 3 Years; None
Permanent and useful link where to find the data and the information related to the policy	
In which format are the results available?	Editable; Non editable
To what extent is this intervention using technologies?	Static; Dynamic; Interactive; Fully online intervention
Does it have any social media profile? Twitter, Facebook, Instagram, YouTube account? If so, please specify	
Is the information available in other languages?	Yes; No
Do NGO and associations participate in this policy?	Yes; No
Specify the NGO, Associations etc (name)	
How target population is involved in the policy-making?	Involved in the policy decision; Involved in the implementation; Involved in the evaluation; Involved in the results; Some of the above; In all the above; None of the above
Does the intervention affect to refugees?	Yes; No
Does the intervention affect to asylum seekers?	Yes; No
Does the intervention affect to migrants?	Yes; No
Is the intervention focused on refugees?	Yes; No
Is the intervention focused on asylum seekers?	Yes; No
Is the intervention focused on migrants?	Yes; No
Does the intervention have any specificity focused on gender?	Yes; No
If it does, specify how	