Challenges of Policy Coordination for Third-Country Nationals

Eurofound
Challenges of Policy Coordination for Third-Country Nationals

Abstract
[Excerpt] Migration is a major policy concern for EU Member States and the issue is generally dealt with at both national and European level. While Member States have put in place specific regulations such as entry conditions or programmes for categories of workers, the overall architecture of migration-related policies presents a huge challenge for policymakers. In recent months, the significant inflow of refugees from third countries has profoundly changed the situation in Europe. Most EU countries are facing the arrival of an unprecedented number of refugees and have been grappling with how to respond in a comprehensive and coordinated way to the immediate needs of asylum seekers and the longer-term issues of integration. Furthermore, the challenges of labour shortages and demographic change in Europe call for comprehensive policies that will take into account the effects of immigration on host countries and on the refugees and migrants themselves.

This report examines how policies in the areas of migration, the labour market and integration are coordinated within Member States, with a specific focus on the role of the social partners and local-level initiatives.

Keywords
European Union, migration, labor market, integration

Comments

Suggested Citation
Challenges of policy coordination for third-country nationals
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Introduction

Migration is a major policy concern for EU Member States and the issue is generally dealt with at both national and European level. While Member States have put in place specific regulations such as entry conditions or programmes for categories of workers, the overall architecture of migration-related policies presents a huge challenge for policymakers. In recent months, the significant inflow of refugees from third countries has profoundly changed the situation in Europe. Most EU countries are facing the arrival of an unprecedented number of refugees and have been grappling with how to respond in a comprehensive and coordinated way to the immediate needs of asylum seekers and the longer-term issues of integration. Furthermore, the challenges of labour shortages and demographic change in Europe call for comprehensive policies that will take into account the effects of immigration on host countries and on the refugees and migrants themselves.

This report examines how policies in the areas of migration, the labour market and integration are coordinated within Member States, with a specific focus on the role of the social partners and local-level initiatives.

Policy context

Immigration by non-EU (third-country) nationals represented two-thirds of the EU population growth in the past decade, and half of the employment growth in the past five years. These numbers are very likely to increase when the recent inflow of refugees is taken into account. Third-country nationals are shown to be at a disadvantage in the labour market: unemployment among this group, for instance, tends to be much higher than for the native populations in most Member States.

Member States are beginning to realise the need for greater coherence between immigrant integration policies and for specific measures to attract migrants, while endeavouring to address the long-term integration issues in a more coordinated way.

The EU has different instruments to deal with migration and immigration (through legislative measures) and with integration (through non-legislative measures). A number of EU laws are in place to regulate the admission and residency of third-country nationals. The Common Basic Principles for Immigrant Integration Policy in the EU, published in 2004, created a framework to support Member States in formulating their own integration policies. In May 2015, the European Commission launched the European Agenda on Migration which sets out crucial measures to respond to the refugee crisis as well as longer-term actions to improve the management of migration.

Key findings

Policy coordination

Cooperation between Member States on migration, the labour market and integration policies tends to be uneven. Countries that have the best outcomes are also those which, in terms of policy coordination, focus on integration policy from the outset, taking account of both integration outcomes and economic competitiveness.

It is crucial to aim for policy coherence during the implementation and programme coordination phase – to ensure both internal coherence within policy programmes and among stakeholders and external coherence between the government and municipality. The stability of the institutions involved also plays a role in maintaining good policy coordination. Likewise, strong commitment
Challenges of policy coordination for third-country nationals

from the various stakeholders and setting up a coordination centre with sufficient resources are both key. It is also vital to consult migrants themselves and to incorporate their input when drawing up programme goals.

The countries that score well in terms of integration policy have greater transparency between policy discourse and policy outcomes. This is in line with the literature supporting the preservation of values throughout the policy process. Positive policy discourse – or elements of it – seem to be in place in these countries.

Social partner role and involvement

In many countries, there is cooperation between a broad range of stakeholders – including the government, employers and trade unions – to identify and deal with labour shortages and to inform broader migration legislation, especially that relating to the labour market.

The most widespread programmes supporting workplace integration relate to language provision – both general and job-specific. Other measures address general training in labour law and health and safety.

Employer organisations and individual companies are increasingly active in diversity management, particularly in Belgium, Denmark and Germany.

The framework of anti-discrimination has been used, especially by trade unions, to provide migrant-specific programmes. However, the social partners’ approach in gathering information about the migrant workforce seems to be sporadic and fragmented (Austria and Croatia), with only a few countries doing this systematically (Malta and Spain).

Few trade unions, with the notable exceptions of Ireland and the UK, have the strategic vision or overall objective of increasing their membership among the migrant workforce. In most countries, activities and initiatives are aimed directly at migrant workers rather than at simplifying the unions’ own internal procedures and structures.

Monitoring and evaluation

While individual countries differ in how they collect and use the information about migrant integration, the so-called Zaragoza indicator set, agreed by the Member States in 2010, has slowly become an established instrument, evident from the way statistics are published.

Given the general emphasis on evidence-based policymaking in the EU, the number of countries reportedly using benchmarks is quite low. This may be an indication that their practice of generating evidence, and using it to formulate policies, needs to be reviewed.

While some form of data collection and reporting on policy implementation has taken place in all Member States, the report did not find any systematic linking of policies across the three fields discussed. Instead, a more general challenge was observed – that of capturing the effects of the national integration strategies. Overall, policy evaluations across the EU28 seem to be rather fragmented, lacking any framework or continuity. Nevertheless, studies or evaluation reports that address policy coordination challenges were identified in seven countries.
Policy pointers

For Member States to succeed at coordinating their policies, they need to think beyond the institutional and political status quo and initiate a shift towards understanding the global challenges.

In designing migration-related policies, Member States should think more holistically from the outset about the end outcomes that go beyond the labour market and encompass integration too – this could lead to smoother planning and yield better outcomes.

It is important to maintain policy coherence and stability of the process when implementing policy or programme coordination.

Stakeholders, particularly the social partners, could capitalise on existing, well-defined and tested settings such as tripartite consultations to engage more in the debate on immigration, diversity management and the concepts of equal rights and anti-discrimination.

Trade unions could reflect on strategies for increasing the participation of migrant workers at all levels within their structures, such as reviewing membership costs, the complex language used, intercultural training and the use of multicultural personnel in dealing with a migrant workforce.

The social partners could also reflect on whether their external activities – collective bargaining, consultation and campaigns – could improve the working and living conditions of migrants.

Member States could reassess their practices of generating evidence and using it in policies. There could also be a need to increase understanding of benchmarks and to improve transparency in how available data are used in policy planning and evaluation.
Introduction and methodology

Immigration is a matter for policy at national and European level. While it is dealt with in great detail for the purpose of introducing specific regulations, such as entry conditions or particular worker categories, reaching a comprehensive, overarching structure of migration-related policies remains a challenge for policymakers (Pascouau, 2013). In recent months, the significant inflow of refugees has profoundly changed the situation in Europe. Most EU countries are facing the arrival of an unprecedented number of refugees and have been grappling with how to respond in a comprehensive and coordinated way, both to the immediate needs of asylum seekers and the longer-term challenges of integration.

Furthermore, the long-term challenges of labour shortages and demographic change also require comprehensive policies to reflect the effects of immigration on host countries, and on the refugees themselves.

European countries that seek to attract migrants to fill labour shortages and to mitigate the impact of an ageing population face two challenges. First, they face global competition in attracting and retaining migrants and, secondly, they must provide an environment in which all members of their society, including migrants, feel welcome and can flourish. These challenges are closely intertwined: effective integration and economic opportunities are key to countries attracting migrants, and those Member States that fail to realise this and properly implement strategies to attract migrants are more likely to lose out.

However, Member States are slowly starting to realise the need for a greater coherence between immigrant integration policies and measures to attract migrants, while also looking for more coordinated methods of addressing long-term integration issues. They have done so by involving a broad range of partners from different government ministries and departments at national, regional and local level, as well as other stakeholders including civil society organisations, the social partners and service providers.

This coordinated approach can be seen in various ways. First, government attempts to attract more migrant workers have often been interlinked, right from the start, with integration and economic competitiveness. Secondly, some governments have implemented a relatively new approach to immigrant integration, referred to as mainstreaming. This is a way of reaching people with an immigrant background through programmes and policies that also target the general population. Mainstreaming can be achieved by adapting governance structures, horizontally or vertically, to improve coordination on integration goals, or by adapting general policies to incorporate integration priorities into overall objectives.

Focus of the report

This report aims to improve the understanding and development of policies on legal and economic migration by third-country nationals. It focuses on how the three interlinked policy fields of migration, the labour market and integration are coordinated in the EU28. It reviews and discusses how policy coordination can affect policy outcomes, and analyses (through selected case studies) examples of policy coordination involving a range of stakeholders, especially the social partners.
Overall research objectives

- To map procedures, mechanisms and structures used by Member States to link their policies on migration with those addressing labour market needs.
- To identify the key actors and the extent of stakeholder involvement in mechanisms to attract and retain migrants.
- To identify mechanisms which address the implications of migration and labour market policies for other policy domains and the socioeconomic integration of migrants.
- To understand better the impact of decisions adopted in relation to migration on other policy domains.

(Eurofound, 2012; 2013)

When mapping the key elements of the three domains, the report aims to focus on tensions and their complementarity. Stakeholders, including policymakers, the social partners and others, can use and build on the information in this report in moving the debate forward in their respective countries. An added-value component, addressed from the perspective of Eurofound as a tripartite EU Agency, is discussing the social partner involvement in policy mechanisms. The report builds on the Migrant Integration Policy Index (MIPEX) and, together with original data gathered through Eurofound’s network of European correspondents, it establishes two new indices in the area of policy coordination and the involvement of the social partners in the areas of migration, the labour market and integration. Country groupings are created and described using the two new indices.

In view of the current refugee crisis and the need for Member States to adopt a more comprehensive approach to migration, findings from this report could deepen the understanding of policy coordination mechanisms, as well as the role of the social partners in the migration and integration discourse.

Chapter 1 provides a brief overview in terms of the share and number of third-country nationals in different Member States. It provides information on the most common nationalities of third-country nationals. It then provides a snapshot of key socio-economic characteristics, including employment and unemployment rates, as well as rates of risk of social exclusion and poverty. It also includes information on the key aspects of labour market attachment and the sectors in which most immigrants work. The chapter concludes with an overview of the policy developments from a European and national perspective.

Chapter 2 provides an overview and analysis of the coordination between migration, labour market and integration policies. It investigates the types of coordination that work best, the role of the different actors, taking into account the policy discourse. Indices are created, based on which countries can be clustered into three groups according to their level of policy coordination.

Chapter 3 explores the role of the social partners in the design and implementation of broader policies on migration, the labour market and integration at national level, not only at the workplace, but also broader, integration-related initiatives. It then explores trade union attitudes towards monitoring their migrant membership, as well as initiatives to increase unionisation among migrant workers.

Chapter 4 provides an overview of the policy coordination at local level, with case studies showing where it works particularly well.
Chapter 5 looks at what monitoring and evaluation mechanisms are applied to policy coordination at national level. It also considers the prominence of benchmarking and the existence of initiatives and monitoring programmes, as well as the use of findings and conclusions from evaluations of these programmes.

The report finishes with a set of conclusions and policy pointers.

**Methodology**

The report is based on information collected by Eurofound’s network of European correspondents. This network provides information to Eurofound which feeds into:

- the European Observatory of Working Life;
- the European Monitoring Centre on Change (in the fields of employment and restructuring);
- further-related social policy topics.

The network covers all 28 EU Member States plus Norway. The draft questionnaire was developed by Eurofound and circulated to all correspondents for their feedback. The final questionnaire was then circulated to all correspondents in May 2014 (see Annex). The report is based on contributions from the national correspondents. It is important to note that the information included in the report refers to the situation in the Member States at the time of data collection. The individual national contributions are available on request from Eurofound.

In addition, several in-depth case studies were carried out by Ramboll Management Consulting in Denmark. These explored and investigated policy coordination in three specific areas:

- multi-level examples of vertical coordination, such as links between EU, national, regional and local level or horizontal coordination between different policy domains;
- local level;
- the role and the level of involvement of the social partners.

In this report, case studies are used as illustrations for particular developments. All final versions of the comprehensive case studies are available on request.

Finally, the report (especially Chapter 2 on policy coordination) makes extensive use of the Migrant Integration Policy Index (MIPEX). MIPEX is a tool which measures policies to integrate immigrants in all EU Member States, Australia, Canada, Iceland, Japan, New Zealand, Norway, South Korea, Switzerland, Turkey and the USA. The index looks at labour market mobility, family reunion, education, political participation, long-term residence, access to nationality, anti-discrimination and health (MIPEX, 2015a).

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1 Thanks to Anna Platonova (IOM) and Anna Faustmann (Danube University Krems) for their valuable comments on the draft version of the questionnaire.
2 The richness of the contributions varies between different Member States.
3 Contributors were Risto Karinen, Anni Eronen, Klara Denckert, Marcus Neureiter, Kristina Broens, Yukako Karato, Kathrin Nachtshelm, Christine Lunde Rasmussen and Dirk Gebhardt.
Population figures and trends

As reported by the European Commission in early 2013, the immigration of non-EU or third-country nationals represented two-thirds of the EU population growth in the past decade, and half of the employment growth in the past five years. Of more than 30 million non-nationals in the EU, 20.7 million were non-EU citizens. Some 5.7 million people acquired citizenship in one of the EU27 Member States in the period 2002–2011.

According to the latest Eurostat figures (November 2015), the largest absolute numbers of third-country nationals are hosted by Germany (4.7 million), Italy (3.1 million), France (2.7 million), Spain (3 million) and the UK (2.5 million) – in fact, the most populous countries in the EU.

In terms of population share, the highest rates are registered in Latvia (15.2%) and Estonia (14.2%); however, the figures also include members of their Russian and Ukrainian minorities, some of whom arrived in the Soviet period rather than in the recent influx of immigrants.

The next highest percentages are in Austria (6.9%), Cyprus (6.6%), Greece (6.3%), Spain (6.4%) and Luxembourg (3.1%).

At the lower end of the scale, there are the countries with traditionally low immigration, such as Poland (0.2%), Slovakia (0.3%), Romania (0.3%), but also Croatia (0.5%), Bulgaria (0.5%), Hungary (0.6%) and Lithuania (0.6%). There was a perception that this situation was changing in some of these countries in the period 2013–2015, due to the refugee crisis in the Middle East and the Mediterranean, and to increased numbers of asylum applications. However, it remains to be seen if this will become a significant proportion of overall migration of third-country nationals to the countries listed.

Table 1 shows that the countries with the highest total population also receive the largest inflows of third-country nationals (Germany, UK and Italy). However, this is only partially reflected in terms of their proportion in the overall population. As mentioned, there are some exceptions, such as Latvia, Luxembourg, Austria and Greece. For example, third-country nationals in Austria accounted for a 6.9% share of its middle-sized population in 2013, a higher share than in countries of similar population size. However, Poland and Romania had a small proportion of third-country immigration (0.2% and 0.3%, respectively, of their relatively large total population).

4 According to the latest Eurostat statistics available at a time of publication, the number of people residing in an EU Member State with citizenship of a non-member country on 1 January 2014 was 19.6 million, representing 3.9% of the EU28 population (Eurostat, Migration and migrant population statistics, data extracted 10 August 2015).
Table 1: Immigration by citizenship, 2013

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<th>Nationals (thousands) (%)</th>
<th>Nationals Total (thousands) (%)</th>
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<td>15.5 (73.5)</td>
<td>4.2 (20.1)</td>
<td>0.0 (0.0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LV</td>
<td>8.3</td>
<td>4.8 (57.5)</td>
<td>3.5 (42.5)</td>
<td>0.9 (11.0)</td>
<td>2.6 (31.4)</td>
<td>0.0 (0.1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MT</td>
<td>8.4</td>
<td>1.8 (21.6)</td>
<td>6.6 (78.4)</td>
<td>3.1 (37.3)</td>
<td>3.5 (41.0)</td>
<td>0.0 (0.0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NL</td>
<td>129.4</td>
<td>36.3 (28.1)</td>
<td>93.1 (71.9)</td>
<td>52.2 (40.3)</td>
<td>40.8 (31.6)</td>
<td>0.1 (0.0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PL</td>
<td>220.3</td>
<td>131.4 (59.7)</td>
<td>88.7 (40.3)</td>
<td>29.6 (13.4)</td>
<td>59.0 (26.8)</td>
<td>0.1 (0.0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PT</td>
<td>17.6</td>
<td>12.2 (69.2)</td>
<td>5.4 (30.8)</td>
<td>1.7 (9.5)</td>
<td>3.7 (21.3)</td>
<td>0.0 (0.0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RO</td>
<td>153.6</td>
<td>138.9 (90.4)</td>
<td>14.7 (9.6)</td>
<td>1.0 (0.7)</td>
<td>13.7 (8.9)</td>
<td>0.0 (0.0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SE</td>
<td>115.8</td>
<td>20.5 (17.7)</td>
<td>94.9 (81.9)</td>
<td>28.4 (22.8)</td>
<td>64.2 (55.4)</td>
<td>4.3 (3.7)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SI</td>
<td>13.9</td>
<td>2.3 (16.2)</td>
<td>11.6 (83.8)</td>
<td>3.3 (23.6)</td>
<td>6.3 (60.1)</td>
<td>0.0 (0.0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SK</td>
<td>5.1</td>
<td>2.7 (51.9)</td>
<td>2.5 (48.1)</td>
<td>2.0 (38.2)</td>
<td>0.5 (9.8)</td>
<td>0.0 (0.0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UK</td>
<td>526.0</td>
<td>76.1 (14.5)</td>
<td>449.9 (85.5)</td>
<td>201.4 (38.3)</td>
<td>248.5 (47.2)</td>
<td>0.0 (0.0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CH</td>
<td>160.2</td>
<td>26.1 (16.3)</td>
<td>134.1 (83.7)</td>
<td>96.8 (60.5)</td>
<td>37.2 (23.3)</td>
<td>0.0 (0.0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IS</td>
<td>6.4</td>
<td>2.8 (43.7)</td>
<td>3.6 (56.3)</td>
<td>2.8 (43.0)</td>
<td>0.8 (12.9)</td>
<td>0.0 (0.3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LI</td>
<td>0.7</td>
<td>0.2 (23.7)</td>
<td>0.5 (76.3)</td>
<td>0.3 (46.8)</td>
<td>0.2 (29.5)</td>
<td>0.0 (0.0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NO</td>
<td>68.3</td>
<td>7.0 (10.3)</td>
<td>61.3 (89.7)</td>
<td>36.4 (53.3)</td>
<td>24.5 (35.8)</td>
<td>0.4 (0.6)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: The values for the different categories of citizenship may not add up to the total due to rounding and the exclusion of the category 'unknown citizenship' from the table.

CH = Switzerland; IS = Iceland; LI = Liechtenstein; NO = Norway.
A full list of country codes is available at the beginning of the report.
Source: Eurostat, Migrant and migrant population statistics (migr_imm1ctz)

Changes in the size of the population of third-country nationals within EU countries during the period 2009–2013 did not exceed 1.5 percentage points, Italy and Belgium showing the highest increase (1 point each), and Latvia the biggest decrease (2.1 points) (Figure 1).
Considering the available policy information, one cannot straightway conclude that the year a particular migration policy was adopted immediately triggered noticeable results, migration push factors notwithstanding. Certain parallel developments (for example, the impact of the economic crisis) between policies and population changes can be seen in some countries only. For example, in 2009, Finland began conducting the Occupational Barometer to anticipate restructuring in occupations, carried out regionally, which is also used in the planning of immigration. One might relate the sharp decrease in 2011 in the immigration of third-country nationals to Finland (from 1.94% to 0.2%) to this policy measure as well as other factors, including the economic decline in general. However, similar policies in other Member States do not indicate clear results. For instance, Italy’s adoption of a points system in 2009 led to an increase of 0.4 percentage points in the rate of third-country nationals arriving the following year, and its adoption of the EU Blue Card Directive (Council of the European Union, 2009) in 2012 led to a decrease of 0.4 percentage points in 2013, both measures focusing on attracting highly skilled third-country nationals.
Socioeconomic characteristics

In 2013, the unemployment rate among third-country nationals in the EU28 was more than twice that of the native population, including across various age groups (see Table 2). The rate of unemployment among third-country nationals was also considerably higher than among EU mobile citizens. The highest unemployment rates for third-country nationals were registered in Spain, Portugal and Greece, the countries that also had the highest overall unemployment rates. The largest differences in unemployment rates between natives and third-country nationals were recorded in Belgium, France, the Netherlands, Sweden and Slovenia. Smaller differences were observed in Ireland, Germany and the UK.

Table 2: Unemployment rates by country of citizenship and age, EU28, 2013 (%)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age 20–64 of which</th>
<th>EU citizens*</th>
<th>Non-EU citizens</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>25–54 55–64</td>
<td>Age 20–64</td>
<td>of which</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25–54 55–64</td>
<td>Age 20–64</td>
<td>of which</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>EU28</strong></td>
<td>10.0</td>
<td>9.3 7.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>AT</strong></td>
<td>4.4 4.2 3.2</td>
<td>9.8 9.3 9.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>BE</strong></td>
<td>7.2 6.2 5.0</td>
<td>17.4 16.7 15.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>BG</strong></td>
<td>12.7 11.8 12.4</td>
<td>n.a. n.a. n.a.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>CY</strong></td>
<td>15.8 13.6 12.0</td>
<td>15.7 14.9 16.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>CZ</strong></td>
<td>6.8 6.2 5.8</td>
<td>7.2 7.2 n.a.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>DE</strong></td>
<td>4.8 4.4 5.4</td>
<td>9.7 9.2 10.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>DK</strong></td>
<td>6.0 5.7 5.0</td>
<td>12.5 12.0 n.a.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>EE</strong></td>
<td>7.5 6.9 5.4</td>
<td>14.5 15.5 8.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>EL</strong></td>
<td>26.3 26.0 15.6</td>
<td>37.6 36.0 30.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>ES</strong></td>
<td>24.0 22.7 19.3</td>
<td>36.3 35.0 31.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>FI</strong></td>
<td>7.2 6.3 6.8</td>
<td>15.8 15.3 n.a.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>FR</strong></td>
<td>8.9 8.0 6.6</td>
<td>18.9 18.4 15.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>HR</strong></td>
<td>16.6 15.5 9.9</td>
<td>n.a. n.a. n.a.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>HU</strong></td>
<td>10.0 9.1 8.1</td>
<td>11.0 n.a. n.a.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>IE</strong></td>
<td>12.3 11.3 9.8</td>
<td>16.0 15.3 20.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>IT</strong></td>
<td>11.3 10.6 5.3</td>
<td>16.7 15.6 12.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>LT</strong></td>
<td>11.9 11.0 11.2</td>
<td>n.a. n.a. n.a.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>LU</strong></td>
<td>3.3 2.7 n.a.</td>
<td>8.0 7.6 7.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>LV</strong></td>
<td>11.0 10.0 9.0</td>
<td>17.5 17.8 15.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>MT</strong></td>
<td>5.5 5.0 5.1</td>
<td>10.9 8.3 n.a.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>NL</strong></td>
<td>6.3 5.6 6.7</td>
<td>13.4 13.1 12.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>PL</strong></td>
<td>10.2 9.0 7.7</td>
<td>n.a. n.a. n.a.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>PT</strong></td>
<td>16.1 15.1 13.4</td>
<td>28.8 27.2 n.a.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>RO</strong></td>
<td>7.1 6.4 3.7</td>
<td>n.a. n.a. n.a.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>SE</strong></td>
<td>6.2 5.0 4.7</td>
<td>20.2 19.2 15.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>SK</strong></td>
<td>13.9 12.9 11.0</td>
<td>n.a. n.a. n.a.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>UK</strong></td>
<td>6.5 5.4 4.7</td>
<td>8.6 7.7 7.6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: * = Except reporting country; n.a. = Data not available; Red highlighting = Low reliability.

Source: Eurostat, Unemployment rates by broad groups of country of citizenship and age groups in EU28, 2013, data extracted on 6 November 2015
Third-country nationals appear to be disadvantaged when looking at broad social inclusion measures (see Figure 2). The share of third-country nationals at risk of poverty or social exclusion by broad group of citizenship (population aged 18 and over) for 2013 was noted to be the highest in Greece (72.1%), followed by Belgium (68.4%) and Spain (59.5%). The lowest rates were observed in Poland (21.6%) and the Czech Republic (30.8%). Overall, at EU28 level, the rate of third-country nationals at the risk of poverty and social exclusion has increased from 45.3% in 2012 to 48.6% in 2013.

**Figure 2: Risk of poverty and social exclusion (AROPE rate) of third-country nationals, 2013 (%)**

Note: No data available for HU, RO and SK. The AROPE indicator is used to measure the population ‘at risk of poverty or social exclusion’ in the EU.

*Source: Eurostat*

**Origin of third-country nationals: Top nationalities**

Geographical proximity and cultural similarities play a role in where migrants choose to migrate to and settle. This is the case in the Balkan countries with, for instance, Albanians constituting the largest share of third-country nationals in Greece, and Bosnians making up the largest share in Croatia and Slovenia. Similarly, Ukrainians are the largest group of third-country nationals in Hungary, Poland and Slovakia, while Belarusians tend to emigrate to Lithuania and Poland.

However, on the basis of national statistics, immigrants from Somalia are the top third-country nationality in Sweden (44,997 in 2013) and Finland (7,465 in 2013) while Iraqis emigrate in large numbers to Sweden (31,167 in 2013) and Denmark, defying general trends due to various state protection reasons.⁵

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⁵ The figures in this section come from Eurofound’s network of European correspondents. They refer to third-country nationals as a whole, undifferentiated by their reason for migration.
When looking at the absolute numbers, the highest influxes of immigrants are registered by:

- Spain (792,158 Moroccans, 263,498 Ecuadorians and 222,542 Colombians in 2013);
- Italy (437,527 Albanians, 412,741 Moroccans and 213,564 Chinese in 2013);
- Greece (451,236 Albanians);
- Austria (113,670 Turks, 111,280 Serbians and 89,925 Bosnians).

It is important to note that this information was collected in 2014. Since then, the large influx of mostly Syrian and Afghan refugees will undoubtedly have had an impact on the numbers.

Reasons for migration

From a policymaking perspective, a distinction between economic, family or humanitarian migrants needs to be made, as the reasons for migrating may have many policy implications for migrants and their host country. The desire to migrate may also be linked with the skills and education levels of migrants, which will then affect the labour inclusion of migrants. According to a report from the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD), ‘labour migrants have higher qualifications and better outcomes than humanitarian and family migrants do’ (OECD, 2014b, p. 16).

At the time of data collection, Eurostat statistics showed that the trend for migration flow since the economic crisis began had been slowly decreasing, both for third-country nationals as a whole, regardless of the reason for migration (European Commission, 2013, p. 53), and for economic migrants. This has been reflected in the number of work permits issued. The percentage of economic third-country nationals migrating to Europe dropped from 31% in 2008 to 23% in 2013. Family-related permits continued to increase – from 27% in 2008 to 33% in 2011 – and then decreased to 29% in 2013. Protection-related permits (for humanitarian reasons, international protection, unaccompanied minors and victims of human trafficking) fluctuated between 13% in 2008 and 20% in 2013. The most recent influx of refugees is not reflected in the numbers recorded in 2013–2014.

Of all the work permits issued, seasonal workers topped the rankings, with Blue Card holders and highly skilled third-country workers accounting for between 4% and 8% of all economic permits. However, the bulk of permits issued are uncategorised (79%–88% between 2008 and 2013). The countries with the highest percentage of work permits in 2013 were Finland (58%), Romania (52%, up from 46% in 2008) and Slovakia (43%, in continuous decline since 2008 when it issued 86% of permits for economic activities).
Figure 3: Rate of work permits for third-country nationals as a percentage of total permits, 2008 and 2013

Source: Eurostat

Employment sectors with high concentration of third-country nationals

The information on the employment sector (received from Eurofound’s correspondents) is based on national statistics, reflecting the numbers registered as third-country nationals in the official figures. There may, sometimes, be differences between the officially available statistics and the policy discourse in a country. Figures do not include the irregular immigrants that are working in different sectors. Therefore, while Italy and Malta report problems in the public debate regarding the exploitation of third-country nationals in agricultural work, the figures for this sector do not reveal a relevant (potentially high) number of employed immigrants (7.4% of workers are third-country nationals in Italy, while the Maltese correspondent did not list agriculture in the top three sectors employing third-country nationals, based on national statistics). In Greece, however, this issue is reflected in the figures available, where 61% of workers employed in crop and animal production, hunting and related services are third-country nationals (with 74% of the total workforce being foreign workers) even though the policy debate does not pay too much attention to this.

Furthermore, not all Member States collect data on sectoral employment according to nationality (Bulgaria, Cyprus, Estonia, Hungary, Latvia, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Romania and Sweden). Other countries provide information for third-country nationals, but not foreigners in general (Austria, Norway, Poland, Portugal and Slovenia). In the case of France, the classification used was country-specific; therefore, comparison with the NACE Rev.2 codes was not possible.

The employment sectors with the highest percentages of third-country nationals are:

- accommodation and food services (mentioned by 15 countries);
- construction (11 countries);
- agriculture and administrative and support services (especially services to buildings) (eight countries);
- manufacturing, wholesale, transport and storage, human health and social services, and household services (seven countries).

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6 Hungary and Luxembourg number the employment sectors (1–5), without naming them. Luxembourg's Statistics Portal STATEC does not however number work branches.
The highest percentages of third-country nationals can be found in Greece’s crop and animal production sector (61.5%), as well as in construction (37.6% of the workforce, based on 2013 national data). In Malta, 32.8% of the workforce in clothing manufacturing is from third countries while in Spain, 36.5% of people employed as domestic personnel are from outside the EU. Furthermore, the figures for foreigners (EU and non-EU) on the whole are much higher: 89.9% in Spain’s domestic sector, 74.3% in Greek agriculture, and 40.4% in the Greek construction sector. Similarly, the proportions of foreigners working in the food and beverage services sector is 32.2% in Germany, 31.8% in Spain and 34% in Ireland.

It is worth looking at the pay scale in the sectors where third-country nationals tend to work. The hourly costs are recorded in Eurostat's Labour Costs Survey. Labour costs are understood as total expenditure borne by employers for employing staff and consist of employee compensation (wages, cash and in-kind salaries, and social security contributions), vocational training, recruitment costs, employment taxes, excluding subsidies received (see Eurostat, 2015). Eurostat does not provide figures for the agriculture and household sectors. Furthermore, many Member States do not provide any information about their annual labour costs (Austria, Belgium, Croatia, Denmark, France, Germany, Greece, Italy, Luxembourg, Malta and Poland). The information provided does not include undocumented immigrants and one could argue that unregistered workers will have lower wages or worse pay scales which are not reflected in statistics. When averaging data from the remaining countries, it emerges that, in 2011, sectors that tend to employ most third-country nationals are in the bottom half of the pay scale, according to total labour costs. The most telling examples are in accommodation and food services, which pay the least (€7.42 per hour), followed by administrative and support services, paying the second least (€9.00 per hour).

Table 3: Average hourly labour costs by NACE Rev.2 sector, 2011

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NACE Rev.2</th>
<th>Average hourly labour costs in € (in Member States with available data)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Financial and insurance activities</td>
<td>22.76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Electricity, gas, steam and air conditioning supply</td>
<td>20.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Information and communication</td>
<td>18.37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mining and quarrying</td>
<td>17.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>15.46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professional, scientific and technical activities</td>
<td>15.29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public administration and defence; compulsory social security</td>
<td>14.98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Human health and social work activities</td>
<td>12.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transportation and storage</td>
<td>12.48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manufacturing</td>
<td>12.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Water supply; sewerage, waste management and remediation activities</td>
<td>11.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Real estate activities</td>
<td>11.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Construction</td>
<td>11.44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arts, entertainment and recreation</td>
<td>10.74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wholesale and retail trade; repair of motor vehicles and motorcycles</td>
<td>10.46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other service activities</td>
<td>9.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Administrative and support service activities</td>
<td>0.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accommodation and food service activities</td>
<td>7.42</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Data cover 15 Member States (BG, CY, CZ, EE, ES, HU, IE, LT, LV, NL, PT, RO, SI, SK, UK). Sectors marked in red show a high percentage of migrant workers. NACE = Statistical classification of economic activities in the European Community.

Source: Based on data from Eurostat's Labour Cost Survey (Eurostat, 2013)
In summary, third-country nationals are at a disadvantage as far as the labour market is concerned. The rate of unemployment tends to be much higher for this group compared with the citizens of most Member States. And, when employed, they tend to work in sectors with worse working conditions and low pay. This may have an indirect link with the fact that immigrants also experience higher rates of social exclusion and poverty. One can also observe a relatively low number of permits for highly skilled workers – hence the EU Blue Card Directive and its most recent consultation for review, as the number of Blue Card permits have also been rather low.

**Policy developments in Europe**

**Key elements of European-level policy**

Several EU laws and directives regulate the admission and residency of third-country nationals. Nonetheless, the type of work permit, the link with the residence permit, its duration and the criteria used for granting permits are country-specific and vary greatly. At EU level, there are several directives that focus on specific groups of third-country nationals which include highly skilled workers, seasonal workers, intra-corporate transfers and paid trainees.

The Blue Card Directive has been put in place to attract highly skilled, non-EU workers by setting a harmonised fast-track procedure and common criteria for residence and work permits (Council of the European Union, 2009). It facilitates access to the labour market and provides cardholders with socioeconomic rights and favourable conditions for keeping families together. Furthermore, it considers the phenomenon of ‘brain drain’ in countries of origin by setting up limits on recruitment from affected countries. It is a demand-driven document, based on a work contract, and is valid for one to four years, with the possibility of renewal. Ireland, Denmark and the UK have opted out of the directive. Most Blue Cards have been granted by Germany, Luxembourg and Spain, while Cyprus, Greece and Malta issued none, Hungary and the Netherlands issued one each, and Finland, Poland and Portugal granted two each in 2012 (European Commission, 2014b). In these Member States, residence permits are issued to highly skilled workers under national schemes (which are still allowed by the directive).

As far as seasonal workers are concerned, the key problem is the increasing difficulty of finding seasonal labour within the EU, especially in sectors characterised by substandard working conditions such as agriculture, horticulture and tourism. Directive 2014/36/EU on Seasonal Workers, to be transposed into national law by 30 September 2016, provides for clearer rules of admission aimed at preventing unauthorised work and overstaying by third-country nationals (European Parliament and Council of the European Union, 2014a). The directive sets the conditions for entry at a maximum stay of between five and nine months in any 12-month period, to be determined by the individual Member State. Seasonal workers enjoy equal treatment (in terms of employment and working conditions) with nationals, as well as access to some social security benefits (such as those for sickness, invalidity and old age). Member States are, however, not obliged to give these workers equal treatment on benefits for unemployment or families and can limit equal treatment on tax benefits and on education and vocational training (European Migration Network, 2015). Furthermore, the directive sets out adequate accommodation conditions, sanctions for employers ignoring the rules and a complaint mechanism. Circular migration is also encouraged through procedures for the facilitation of re-entry for subsequent reasons.
The directive on intra-corporate transfers provides a set of rules for entry, work and residence of managers, specialists and trainee employees transferred from a branch of a company outside of the EU to another branch of the same company inside the EU, together with their family members (European Parliament and Council of the European Union, 2014b). The directive allows for intra-EU mobility subject to a number of safeguards. The directive establishes that the person in question is paid at least the same as a national doing the same job in the Member State where the work is done. Intra-corporate transferees also enjoy equal access to several protective rights and social security provisions. The deadline for transposition of the directive into national law is 29 November 2016. The adoption of the Single Permit Directive (2011/98/EU) provides new and already resident third-country nationals with one permit for residence and work, obtained through a single procedure (European Parliament and Council of the European Union, 2011). This directive takes into account the subsequent integration of resident workers by providing a set of rights for those who have not yet been granted long-term residence, regarding ‘working conditions, education and vocational training, recognition of diplomas, social security, tax benefits, access to goods and services and […] procedures for housing and employment advice services’. Following the deadline for transposing the directive into national law (25 December 2013), the European Commission launched an infringement procedure against 14 Member States for not doing so. At the end of 2014, there were five countries which had still not transposed it into national law.

In 2013, the European Commission also published a recast of a directive setting the conditions of entry and residence of third-country nationals for the purposes of research, studies, student exchange, remunerated and unremunerated training, voluntary service and au-pairing. Negotiations are continuing.

The directives regulate and simplify the access of third-country nationals most needed in national labour markets, with most focusing on highly skilled sectors, reflecting a concern for global competitiveness. They also provide for workers’ rights and prevent undocumented labour forms.

Regarding the integration policies, 2014 marked the tenth anniversary of the Council of the European Union’s adoption of the Common Basic Principles for Immigrant Integration Policy in the EU. Adopted in November 2004, they underpin a coherent European framework on the integration of third-country nationals. The Council’s conclusions, in June 2014, have reinstated the commitment to the work on integration. The European Commission’s Common Agenda for Integration (European Commission, 2005) provided a basis for the implementation of the Common Basic Principles and for a range of supportive EU mechanisms including the European website on integration and the European Integration Forum (which became the European Migration Forum in 2015). In 2011, the Commission published a European Agenda for the Integration of Third-Country Nationals, emphasising the economic, social, cultural and political participation of migrants and highlighting the importance of measures at local level (European Commission, 2011).

One of the most recent policy developments was the Commission’s launch of the European Agenda on Migration in May 2015, defining urgent measures to respond to the Mediterranean crisis and more long-term action (European Commission, 2015). The four main pillars of the new agenda are:

- a full and coherent implementation of the Common European Asylum System;
- a new policy on legal migration to maintain the EU as an attractive destination for migrants;
- strengthening the management of borders to save lives and secure external borders;
- reducing the incentives for irregular migration.
As part of the renewed efforts to better manage legal migration, the European Commission proposed establishing a forum to gather and discuss the views of stakeholders and the social partners. This could contribute to European-level policies.

**Policy developments at Member State level**

Even though there are a number of challenges facing EU countries, including falling fertility rates, ageing populations and a drop in the working population, most countries have been rather slow in recognising their new status as an immigration destination and their need to reflect not only on the current and future inclusion of immigrants in the labour market, but on broader integration too. Some countries implemented integration or inclusion policies quite early (such as the mid-70s in Sweden, or early 80s in the Netherlands). In other countries, this happened much later. In some Member States, the cities or regions have been the driving force of integration policies (Austria, Germany and Italy). There are a number of recent trends that can be observed in Member States that are relevant to this report. These trends take place within a sensitive political landscape, growing scepticism towards immigration and, most recently, a significant influx of refugees.

There has been a continuing shift towards a more restrictive approach in several countries (Denmark, Germany, the Netherlands and Sweden). This may include stricter entry requirements or the introduction of more obligatory programmes. Another trend common to some countries is the stronger link between integration and migration policies (such as in France or the Netherlands) where, for example, integration tests (for instance, those focusing on language, history and culture) are linked with residence permits.

Some countries have recently shifted towards a mainstreaming approach to integration. This has been noticeable in Finland, Denmark (despite its reinstatement of the Integration Ministry) and Sweden. One of the key aspects of the Common Basic Principles on integration has been employment. Many Member States are trying to increase the levels of employment of third-country nationals, with much closer involvement of the public employment services. Denmark’s Integration Ministry is set to focus on the recruitment and retention of foreign labour. This indicates the link between integration, migration and labour market policies.

Citizenship-based policies tend to put much more emphasis on social cohesion, social inclusion, participation and citizenship, and are particularly relevant at the local level. These policies have been prevalent in those countries with a strong focus on local initiatives.

First-generation policies that deal with migration and integration are found in countries which have been typically synonymous with emigration but which, in recent years, have started to experience a growing numbers of immigrants. This inflow meant that policymakers had to adapt and put in place policies in the areas of migration, access to the labour market and integration.

Coordinating Member States’ different policies on integration, migration and the labour market is highly complex. The increased diversity of migrants, and of migration trends, puts pressure on the adaptability of policies. Easier transport and communication promote more fluid migration. Migrants of many nationalities and cultural backgrounds come to Europe to be with their families, to search for work or to seek asylum. This all requires legislation and effective governance, and consideration needs to be given to the mismatch between the skills that migrants have and the demands of the labour market.
The Member States taking in these migrants are also very heterogeneous. They have different welfare models and various approaches to migration and integration which are constantly adapting to the challenges they face. There are also the different operational levels within individual countries that have a role to play in migration issues. For example, the local level is becoming increasingly involved, as well as a wide array of other stakeholders including the social partners and civil society organisations.

The coordination efforts themselves entail various horizontal and vertical combinations, the coordination of processes and measures, and the coordination of implementation. One can also distinguish between formal and informal coordination, as well as bottom-up or top-down coordination.
Policy coordination: Migration, labour market and integration

This chapter explores the coordination of migration, integration and labour market policies in the EU28. It identifies the institutional set-up and the stakeholders operating within the decision-making process, the relations between them and their role in policymaking. It maps the procedures, mechanisms and structures used by Member States to link their policies on migration with policies addressing labour market needs and examines the key actors and the forms and extent of stakeholder involvement in mechanisms applied by Member States to attract and retain migrant workers. The focus is on exploring policies that are designed and implemented in a compatible and comprehensive way, with an emphasis on a coordinated approach.

Previous studies on migrant integration and the stakeholders’ role in this field focus either on a limited array of stakeholders or on a limited number of countries. At EU level, the European Commission’s website on integration gathers information on relevant institutions and legislation, as well as sources of funding and assessment reports for related policies. However, the information is raw and based on relevant uploaded information, therefore only revealing a schematic picture of migration/integration. The European Migration Network publishes country fact sheets on an annual basis (not only on integration, but on migration issues in general), and has also published a report on satisfying labour demand through migration in the EU (European Migration Network, 2011).

More broadly, the INTERACT project, a 2014 study conducted by the European University Institute and the Robert Schuman Centre for Advanced Studies, conceptualises the integration of third-country nationals as a three-way process, where it takes into account the decisions of immigrants and both institutional actors (state and non-state) in the country of origin and in the destination country. Also, based on national reports, the study’s recurring themes are the legal–institutional framework for integration, the local level and the role of non-state actors, including migrant associations.

This report aims to distinguish between the types of stakeholders involved in the integration process and to describe the relations between them with a view to assessing the types of policy coordination they are involved in. The scope of this study, unlike previous ones, extends to all EU Member States. It looks at the specific configuration of governmental actors and the role of the social partners in dealing with migration, plus the role of local government. It also evaluates and monitors the coordinated policy, while acknowledging the role of civil society and the private sector in integration.

Policy coordination – a good thing in itself?

This study expands on the definition of coordination which has been understood as ‘two or more policy actors pursue a common outcome and work together to produce it’ (Bevir, 2009). Situated in a complex social setting, policymaking on migration and integration is often challenging, with consensus difficult to reach on definitions, problems, solutions, values and priorities. Coordination (either cross-sectoral, between different policy fields, or between stakeholders) can be challenging, given the nature of integration policies (Rittel and Webber, 1973). Complex policy fields can lead to ‘intractable policy controversies’, which are difficult to resolve based on existing facts (Schön and Rein, 1994). Although a distinction between facts and values is beyond the scope of this study, the concept of policy controversy might be useful, since the interests of participating actors can be different as well as the overall objectives of the institutions to which they belong. Policy coordination

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7 The reports received from Eurofound’s network of European correspondents vary in terms of richness of data.
could smooth such tensions. For instance, employers may want to liberalise a migration policy, while trade unions might argue against social dumping (manifesting itself, for example, by lowering wages).

Recent literature on intra-state policy coordination is scant and focused on case studies (Wojtarowicz and Herold, 2014; Bendel, 2014; Magnani, 2009; Trbola and Rákoczyová, 2011). However, some reports point to the potential benefits of policy coordination. One argument is that the more actors are involved in decision-making on cross-sectoral issues such as migrant integration, ‘the chances for actual implementation of the recommended measures are considerably higher’ (Wojtarowicz and Herold, 2014, p. 14). Furthermore, a coordinated approach, involving various types of actors (private companies, trade unions, charity organisations) might contribute towards lowering costs and targeting policies at the specific needs of groups of beneficiaries (Heidenreich and Aurich-Beerheide, 2014, p. 12).

Although empirical research steers clear of inferring causality between coordinated policies and better outcomes in the field of integration, a link between the two has been theorised in policy network studies. A policy network is a cluster of concepts focusing on government links with, and dependence on, other state and societal actors. The forms that policy networks take may range from those with loose relationships, numerous actors, and conflicting interests, to tighter-knit communities, characterised by a smaller number of participants, with frequent and high-quality interaction. In such policy communities, there is a balance of power, as all members see themselves in a zero-sum game (Rhodes, 2008, p. 428).

Beyond the nature of the relationship between migration policy coordination and policy outcomes, the literature provides further points.

- **Quality and dynamics of interaction** – Although a coordination framework may be in place, its quality and dynamics are equally relevant, as a fragmented policy may be the outcome when collaboration is not based on equal partnerships (Trbola and Rákoczyová, 2011, p. 77).

- **Different types of coordination** – Simultaneous horizontal (at local level) and vertical cooperation are necessary for local integration (in practice, this can mean that sufficient resources are necessary for implementation) (Trbola and Rákoczyová, 2011, p. 86).

- **Early planning** – It is important that coordination is planned from the early stages of policymaking; this way the various actors can be kept informed and involved throughout the process (Wojtarowicz and Herold, 2014, p. 14).

- **Conducive environment** – The OECD recommends that policymakers set up an environment which favours engagement and transparency, where policy goals and trade-offs are made explicit for all stakeholders at all stages (OECD, 2014a, pp. 154–158).

- **Monitoring and evaluation** – It is of key importance to have indicators for service delivery and some correspondence between the needs of the government and those of the target group (Trbola and Rákoczyová, 2011).

**Policy process approach**

Eurofound and other organisations have conducted previous work on conceptualising integration. Integration is widely defined as a two-way process where immigrants become accepted into society and they and their descendants accept the rules of the society. Particular requirements for acceptance by a receiving society vary from country to country. The definition also implies that the responsibility for integration lies not only with immigrants but also with the host society and its many actors.
In this report, integration is not taken as a normative ideal; instead attention is paid to how the migration and integration field is configured in the form of solid, efficient and transparent policies, which can facilitate and support social and economic integration. Research focuses on the internal institutional configurations that facilitate migrant integration, with policy design being considered as an outcome in itself. A distinction can thus be made between policy programme and policy process (McConnell, 2010).

While the following chapters will closely assess the role of local governments and the social partners in policymaking, this section will focus on the so-called ‘black box’ of policymaking; and on central government actors and their relations with other stakeholders in coordinating migration and integration policies. In order to conceptualise this policy process, the authors of this report have adapted the public policy cycle (Easton, 1957), and further populated the policy stages with the data.

**Figure 4: Outline of policy process**

![Diagram of policy process](source)

**Policy success v. policy failure**

Policy success and policy failure are two of the established approaches in policy evaluation. While this study does not claim to be able to evaluate thoroughly the migration, integration and labour market policies of the EU28, the approach will provide some insight for the exploration of the policy process. In understanding these approaches, it is important to keep in mind that a policy can be regarded as successful primarily by its supporters, regardless of the outcome (McConnell, 2010, p. 39).

Policy process success is the ability to preserve policy goals, instruments and legitimacy: to maintain a sustainable coalition and for the policy to be innovative and influential (McConnell, 2010, pp. 64–66). From the perspective of coordination, bureaucratic or instrumental success may be concluded if the initial objectives have been maintained throughout the execution of the policy. The process of involving all relevant stakeholders might lead to greater representativeness and thus increase the policy's claims to legitimacy. A sustainable coalition can give some authority to the policy's implementation. From this perspective, coordination can be seen as either constructive or
damaging. A greater number of involved stakeholders does not necessarily mean greater conflict in policymaking, especially if, as mentioned earlier, it is a tightly knit policy framework characterised by good communication patterns, a shared ideology and frequent interaction. Such a policy community is likely then to host a sustainable coalition which will facilitate the policy process. However, a looser form of coordination (such as issue networks) may not necessarily be able to consolidate the policymaking coalition.

A policy which appears to be innovative and influential could be seen as successful. One way to achieve this is to transfer the policy from one jurisdiction to another, as in cross-sectoral coordination. Bringing issues of access, labour market needs and social integration together and inviting ministries of internal and external affairs and labour and social affairs to the discussion table is one way of dealing with complex issues posed by migration.

The second approach to evaluating policy is to look at it from the perspective of failure. Although much less ambitious, it has been one of the main approaches when evaluating policies on limiting and controlling migration in Europe. Here, one must consider the resilience of migration flows (as, for example, the settled guest workers in Germany in the 1970s, or the overseas populations of ex-colonial powers), as well as unsuccessful attempts to stop human trafficking and smuggling (Boswell and Geddes, 2011, pp. 39–40). The failure of these policies, according to Boswell and Geddes, comes from misconceived assumptions about the migration process, its complexity and dynamics, and because policymakers (possibly under pressure from the media or populist politics) focus on simplistic or symbolic ideas.

Other reasons for policies on migration to fail stem from the political system (Castles, 2004, p. 214). First, a short-term view of policymaking, driven by mandates, does not match the long-term nature of migration. Secondly, conflicts of interest and hidden agendas – of employers and trade unions, the media and social movements – may all reflect the different views on migration, which makes it difficult for governments to openly favour one particular group. Furthermore, these conflicts of interest may lead to contradictions within policy formation, carrying the tension to the core of the process (Castles, p. 223), and affecting its transparency.

Here, policy coordination could offer a platform to lay out and balance the different interests, and it could engage stakeholders instead of activating them as mere lobbyists.

Methodology

In trying to assess the degree of coordination between migration-related policies and relevant stakeholders, a comprehensive, module-based questionnaire (Annex 1) was sent to Eurofound’s network of European correspondents in 2014. The modules asked about the migration profile of the country, its recent migration discourse, the nature of coordinated policies, the role of the social partners and municipalities, as well as the thoroughness of monitoring and evaluation. Based on the answers, the modules selected were those with the most consistent and comparable, straightforward and quantifiable answers, driven by binary (yes/no) questions (for the modules on the social partners, local level and monitoring). These questions created a basis for the scores for the countries on the module dimensions. Similar to those (outcome variable), the policy outcome provided by MIPEX scores were included and aggregated (MIPEX, 2015b). Total scores were
K-means was carried out to cluster countries (for each module) into three groups, corresponding to the top, middle and lowest scores, based on the proximity of scores.8

Conceptually, the modules could not reflect a comprehensive picture of the stakeholders involved in policymaking; therefore, similar and widely used and tested indices were applied for useful additional variables. MIPEX 2015 offered two sets of questions on migrants' consultative bodies and the degree of state support for immigrant organisations. Therefore, the authors of this report averaged those in a similar way to the Eurofound questions. The Eurofound scores were standardised on a 0–100 scale, similar to the added MIPEX 2015 variables and the outcome variable (the MIPEX total score).

In order to offer more insight into how policy coordination and its different dimensions work in practice, in-depth case studies were carried out by Ramboll Management Consulting. These were done to illustrate policy coordination, the role of local-level actors, and that of the social partners in policies on migration and integration.

Exploring policy coordination would not be complete without a list of stakeholders and their degree of involvement. Therefore, the coordination framework was also assessed, considering possible forms of coordination from literature (Christensen and Laegreid, 2008, p. 102) and the proposed additional dimensions by Ramboll (network-based and informal coordination), resulting in the typology outlined in Table 4.

Table 4: Policy coordination types

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Horizontal</th>
<th>Vertical</th>
<th>Network-based</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Internal</td>
<td>Inter-ministerial, inter-agency coordination; cross-sectoral coordination (across policy fields – from the perspective of a Member State)</td>
<td>Parent ministry and subordinated agencies</td>
<td>Actors have no significant authority over one another</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>External</td>
<td>Social partners, civil society, interest groups, bilateral relations (between origin and destination countries)</td>
<td>Top-down Local government</td>
<td>International organisations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Informal</td>
<td>Determined by personal relations, not status</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The shape of the coordination framework, and the direction of links within it, is insufficient to describe fully the cooperation effort. The quality of these links, the coherence of the work carried out and the commitment of stakeholders are also important factors influencing the output. Although this is hard to quantify, the authors will try to briefly cover these aspects, based on the answers to the questionnaire, as well as offering an overview of key challenges in the coordination process.

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8 K-means is a cluster analysis technique used to cluster observations into groups of related observations without any prior knowledge of those relationships points. The algorithm clusters observations into k groups, where k is provided as an input parameter. It then assigns each observation to clusters based upon the observation’s proximity to the mean of the cluster.
Policy coordination: Country groups

Most Member States report some form of policy coordination on integration or migration, with guidelines or a strategy, programme or action plan spanning several years. Few say they have no such framework. There are varying reasons why countries adopt a coordinated policy in this field. Some may wish to improve integration and therefore assume that coordinating policies will lead to:

- better access to work;
- better recognition of foreign qualifications;
- offers of education to fit the needs of migrant groups;
- enhanced participation in social life;
- more focus on tackling discrimination.

Other countries focus on their labour market and coordinate their migrant policies to address labour shortages. In some countries, policy coordination may be seen as a way to cut red tape, for instance by setting up joint permit policies, or by trying to make the policy flow more efficient. For instance, Latvia’s Guidelines on national identity, civil society and integration policy 2012–2018 is primarily a way of redressing the lack of a unified integration policy. Similarly, Slovakia’s Migration Policy Action Plan 2014–2015 aims to correct the vagueness and inefficiency of its 2009 policies.

This section provides an overview of coordination scores based on which country groups with the highest, moderate and lowest scores are established and discussed (Table 5). An in-depth description of different dimensions of policy coordination follows.

Table 5: Country groups and policy coordination scores

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
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<th></th>
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<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>NO</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>62.5</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>71.7</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FI</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>67.5</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>71.1</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LU</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>87.5</td>
<td>71.1</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>-2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DE</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>68.2</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DK</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>67.2</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IE</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>36.7</td>
<td>87.5</td>
<td>66.8</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SE</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>63.4</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>-5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IT</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>52.5</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>60.7</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>-1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BE</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>57.8</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PT</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>47.5</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>57.7</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>-4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ES</td>
<td>89</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>52.5</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>53.3</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>-3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FR</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>32.5</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>47.9</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CZ</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>12.5</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>46.3</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>-1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UK</td>
<td>89</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>40.8</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AT</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>38.6</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NL</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>37.5</td>
<td>36.1</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>-8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SI</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>34.4</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>-5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Although scores are expected to differ in the two indices (from Eurofound and MIPEX), as they measure different aspects of the policy (the coordination dimension, and equal access to related policy areas and the extent of state support), Table 5 shows up several similarities. Despite the degree of convergence and consistence in country groupings, it is worthwhile explaining some of the country differences observed in the two indices.

Ireland seems to have the most significant score difference, as it takes positions in extreme groups (highest for independent variables and lowest for MIPEX 2010). The coordinated policy on the basis of which Ireland was scored (by Eurofound) referred to the Cross-Departmental Group on Integration (this was set up four years after MIPEX 2010 scores were published), and to its implementation of the policy document *Migration nation – Statement on integration strategy and diversity management*. Looking at the MIPEX 2010, Ireland lost opportunities to score for family rights associated with status and for access to, and support measures for, education opportunities for migrants. However, when compared with MIPEX scores released in 2015, the scores even out to some extent, with Ireland ending up in the middle group. Furthermore, Ireland scores high on the Eurofound index due to extensive involvement of the social partners in migration, labour market and integration policies.

Luxembourg obtained higher points for Eurofound-scored variables than it did in MIPEX 2010, because of its good performance in engaging the social partners. Luxembourg has a well-established tripartite tradition which has been overlooked in MIPEX, as all Member States (except France) have been awarded a maximum score of 100 on access to trade union membership for migrants in both their 2010 and 2015 MIPEX editions. Eurofound’s analysis offers a more nuanced view of the social partners’ role, and it does so by going beyond access, into questions of the social partners’ involvement in the policy process (migration, labour market and integration); their role in providing integration programmes at the workplace; their outreach efforts for migrant membership; and their involvement in non-labour market programmes and activities.

**Table 5: Policy coordination: Migration, labour market and integration**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Independent variables</th>
<th>Average of independent variables (1–5)</th>
<th>Dependent variables</th>
<th>MIPEX 2010</th>
<th>MIPEX 2015</th>
<th>Difference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 Social partners</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>SK</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Local level</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>BG</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 Monitoring</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>LT</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>6.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 Consultative bodies (MIPEX 2015)</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>RO</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 Implementation policies (MIPEX 2015)</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>EL</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coordination scores</td>
<td>6.7</td>
<td>EE</td>
<td>6.7</td>
<td>37.5</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MIPEX 2010</td>
<td>21.4</td>
<td>CY</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MIPEX 2015</td>
<td>21.4</td>
<td>LV</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Difference</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>MT</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>28</td>
<td>HR</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>22</td>
<td>HU</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>11</td>
<td>PL</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes: Green cells: highest scores; Yellow cells: middle scores; Red cells: lowest scores. Countries are ordered by their average coordination scores.

Source: Authors’ own elaboration
Overall scores for Denmark are also rather different in the two indices. Eurofound scored Denmark based on its labour market policy and its implementing agency, STAR, (operating since 2012), which is oriented towards high-skilled migrant retention. STAR coordinates its activity with employer organisations and local initiatives. Denmark's score has also increased in 2015 compared with the 2010 edition of MIPEX.

Spain was described as a country with a large number of stakeholders, as well as strong local initiatives, based on its administrative structure. However, in MIPEX 2010, Spain scored low on the acquisition of nationality, anti-discrimination and equality policies. In 2015, MIPEX scores increase due only to the addition of a new questionnaire module on health entitlements for migrants, all other scores remaining constant for Spain.

Overview of country groups
Countries in the top group range from the Nordic countries to the Iberian Member States and also include Belgium and Italy (Figure 5).

Portugal's renewal of its migration strategy in 2014 resulted in an increased focus on integration and intercultural dialogue, as opposed to its previous strategy which centred narrowly on the labour market. The change also led to the establishment of a High Commission for Migrants. The social partners are very active within this coordinated framework and play a role outside the labour market in the social integration of migrants (for instance in housing, public transport, education, vocational training, health and access to the law). There is a network of local centres for integration support and, since 2004, three ‘one-stop shops’ operate within a coordinated structure, bringing together services from relevant institutes and offices, for legal advice, family reunification, housing, qualifications and labour market integration. They also host 61 cultural mediators from immigrant communities, and consult with immigrant associations’ representatives to bridge the gap between migrants and the Portuguese public administration. The comprehensive programme is evaluated on the 17 intervention areas that it covers, with a rate of execution of measures at 79%.

Another example of good coordination is in Spain, which established a Tripartite Labour Commission on Immigration in 2005 and which has implemented a Strategic Plan on Citizenship and Integration in 2007. The social partners are primarily involved in the inclusion of migrants in the labour market, and organise networks of information centres for immigrant workers. Regionally, the autonomous communities have a considerable degree of freedom in devising integration programmes, but municipalities are also highly involved in their implementation.

The bottom group includes countries which do not consider policy coordination a priority, although this does not always coincide with countries which have a low influx of migrants. Examples of this are Cyprus and Malta which, as EU border countries, are focusing on the control dimension of migration policy. Hungary does not anticipate an increase in immigration within the period 2014–2020; therefore, it does not apply a coordinated approach for the integration and employment of third-country nationals. Although Hungary has developed a migration strategy, stakeholder involvement has been limited. Poland has developed legislation to regulate work and residence for foreigners, and several stakeholders were publicly consulted, although the importance of the consultations was viewed as too low in the eyes of the coordinating Ministry of the Interior. Beyond work and residence, Poland has no legislation for the integration of immigrants, nor does it have a central authority at national level taking responsibility for this, resulting in tasks being scattered across ministries (Stefańska, 2015, p. 9).
Correlations

The MIPEX scores have been used, not only for validating Eurofound scores, but also for validating the data analysis used for both indices. MIPEX questions are scored according to the states’ legislative and policy efforts:

- to grant equal access and rights to areas of social and political life in the same way as for nationals;
- to set up targeted measures for migrants (affirmative policies).

One can think of MIPEX total scores as reflecting what is already in place in terms of legislation and policy, and which are therefore outcomes of the policy process. MIPEX does not reflect outputs, as it does not investigate the implementation or effects of these policies for actual integration. From the same perspective of the policy process, Eurofound variables show the extent of stakeholder involvement, as questions reflect the quality of consultations, as opposed to whether they are participating in the policy process.
Therefore, it is safe to investigate the correlation between the independent variables on stakeholders’ involvement (Eurofound coordination index) and the MIPEX 2015 scores as the outcome of the policy process. In this conceptual framework, it can be seen that there is a strong and significant positive correlation between the degree of coordination between stakeholders and the policy outcome ($r=0.787$). When the MIPEX variables (which otherwise occur in both indices) are excluded, a significant moderate positive correlation is obtained between the two indexes ($r=0.584$ at a significance level of 0.01). It is therefore likely that countries which link their policies on integration, migration and the labour market, by involving a wide array of actors at multiple levels of governance, in an efficient way (coordination index), are also countries which score high on their integration policy outcomes (MIPEX). Therefore, this correlation highlights the importance of coordination for a positive outcome of integration policies in a complex field. This report focuses on how the policy coordination works in practice and illustrates it with case studies. Even though the focus is on economic migrants, there may also be some conclusions that can be drawn to help deal with the continuing challenge of the current refugee crisis.

### Role of discourse

#### Recurring themes in discourse

The overview of existing discourse reveals an array of recurring themes across the Member States. Starting from the prohibitive end, the right-wing resurgence in many EU countries affects migration discourse (Cyprus, France, Greece, Italy and the UK), and xenophobia is an increasing concern in border countries such as Greece, Italy, Malta, Portugal, Spain, and in France. The security and illegality dimensions of the discourse have been highlighted in Greece, Italy and Malta, and the criminality of migrant groups is singled out as a problem in Portugal. Latvia regards migration as a threat to its ethnic identity (considering that the largest immigrant groups originate from former Soviet Union countries). Most recently, similar views have been expressed in Hungary and Slovakia. The UK also handles the debate about migrant unemployment in terms of ethnicity. One also cannot escape from the growing issue of the refugee crisis.

The discourse ranges from restricting the access of third-country nationals to the labour market (through quotas, points systems or lists of reserved occupations), to attracting those who have the necessary skill levels. While highly skilled immigrants are targeted in Denmark, Ireland and Norway, low-skilled labour is sought after for the agriculture sector in Greece and Italy. Labour market demands are also the main driver of policy discourse in Hungary and Lithuania.

Lastly, as can be seen in Belgium or Finland, issues of morality seem to influence the debate on immigration, where there is an attempt to balance fears of social dumping and duties towards unemployed nationals, with sectoral needs for (often foreign) labour.

#### Policy discourse and contradictions

As already documented in available literature, the policymaking process can encompass conflicting interests and tensions which can lead to contradictions between policy goals at different stages or between policy goals and social or media discourse. The existence of a ‘discourse gap’, understood as a discrepancy between the stated objectives of general discourse on migration and concrete

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9 Eurofound’s European correspondents have referred to general social and mass media discourse; therefore, a matching definition of discourse is adopted to mean ‘verbal exchange or discussion about policy issues’ (Schön and Rein, 1994).
policies, is critically examined in the literature as possibly hindering the effectiveness of migration policies (Czaika and de Haas, 2013, p. 2). The authors emphasise the challenge in establishing a causal relation between discourse and policy outcome, as it is impossible to identify the ‘real’ objectives of policies, as opposed to the stated, discursively measurable ones (Czaika and de Haas, 2013, p. 19). While one has to take into account this limitation regarding policy outcomes, the discourse gap is still a relevant concept in the analysis, which is focused on the policy output, as discursive tensions and contradictions stand at the core of the policy formation process.

Table 6 below illustrates, in a rather simplified way, the tensions between discourse and policy, and within discourse itself. Its usefulness comes from showing how differently scoring countries are placed against coherence between discourse and policy rationale.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country groups</th>
<th>Contradictions within discourse</th>
<th>Contradictions between discourse and policy</th>
<th>No contradictions</th>
<th>Low importance of migration in discourse</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Top</td>
<td>BE, FI, IE</td>
<td>DK, ES, LU, NO, PT, SE</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middle</td>
<td>EL, LT, UK (although not very salient)</td>
<td>FR, BG, NL, SI, RO</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lowest</td>
<td>CY, HR, LV</td>
<td>HU, PL</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Country codes/colours represent country groups described in Table 5. Source: Authors’ own elaboration

It can be seen that the lack of contradictions between discourse and policy rationale may relate to one of two scenarios:

- where both the policy and the general opinion do not prioritise migrants’ integration (Bulgaria, Croatia, Latvia and Slovenia);
- where there is a concern about migrant integration at both the discourse and policy levels, either with a predominantly negative (Cyprus, the Netherlands) or predominantly positive (Germany, Portugal) discourse.

Furthermore, contradictions may arise within discourse, such as in Belgium, where a strict, limiting stance on migration is balanced with arguments about a human rights approach, focused on integration and non-discrimination. The tension arises from different types of arguments in Lithuania and the UK, where addressing labour market shortages is counterbalanced with views of migrants as ‘benefit scroungers’ and with concerns about social dumping. In Greece, a heavy sectoral dependence on workers from third countries (mainly in agriculture) stands in opposition to the discourse on border protection and illegality as major problems when describing immigration.

Besides these two major types of tensions, the issue of policy importance may play a role at the different stages of policy formulation. For instance, in Germany, integration is prioritised in the implementation of policies, while labour market aspects come first in the discourse. Similarly, in Austria, the local and national level have different approaches to integration (Hollomey et al, 2011, p. 5), with the federal government using a targeted vision of integration, and the local level implementing a mainstreamed approach. In the Czech Republic, the integration strategy has changed often and does not have a specific legislative anchor, resulting in a fragmented policy. Conversely, Malta has not developed an integration strategy, and contradictions can be seen in its labour market survey documenting sectoral needs, and the discursive portrayal of migrants as a threat to security and social well-being.
When looking at the results, it should be kept in mind that the answers to the questionnaire are based on the respondents’ subjectivity and, although the data are certainly valuable, they cannot provide an in-depth analysis of the discourse for the EU28 which would allow the report’s authors to refine their policy assessments. Having said that, the analysis shows that most high-ranking states did not display such contradictions, showing that good coordination corresponds to wide agreement on the terms of the problem and on necessary steps towards solutions (in terms of discourse). This does not reflect the value or content of these ideas, nor whether they focus on migration, integration or labour market insertion.

It should be recognised, however, that the difference between policy rationale and political or social discourse within a Member State cannot be interpreted alone. The nature of discourse regarding migrants may also be of importance when discussing such a difference later on. Thus, situations in Member States, as illustrated in Table 7, may range from having both a positive discourse and well-coordinated policies (such is the case for most high-scoring countries according to the variables used here), to ambivalent discourse and response through coordinated policies (also for a range of well-scoring countries). Furthermore, negative discourse paired with state efforts to have a coordinated policy are found in Spain, the only high-scoring country in this category (albeit at the lower end of the group), in the Netherlands (where the discourse centres on migrants’ lack of willingness to integrate), and in the UK and Latvia (the latter representing the lowest-scoring group). It may also be the case that countries where discourse is unfavourable to migration do not make any effort towards a coordinated migration strategy, and that representatives of the lowest-scoring group are examples of this – Greece, Cyprus, Hungary, Malta, but also the Czech Republic, due to the very fragmented nature of its coordination policy (Babická, 2011).

Table 7: Nature of discourse and policy mix in country groups

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>(Scores are based on independent variables)</th>
<th>Country groups</th>
<th>Mostly positive discourse</th>
<th>Mostly negative discourse</th>
<th>Mixed discourse</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Coordinated policy</td>
<td>Top</td>
<td>DE, IE, LU, NO, PT</td>
<td>ES</td>
<td>BE, FI (integration deemed unachievable for some), IT, SE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Middle</td>
<td>AT, LT, RO, SK (low importance), SI</td>
<td>NL (lack of integration), UK</td>
<td>BG, FR, PL (not important)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Bottom</td>
<td>HR</td>
<td>LV (ethnic threat)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Policy inaction (no coordination strategy)</td>
<td>Top</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Middle</td>
<td>CZ, EL</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Bottom</td>
<td>CY, HU, MT</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Country codes/colours represent country groups described in Table 5.
Source: Authors’ own elaboration

This overview about the nature of discourse shows that, on the whole, coordinated policy strategies score well against a background of a positive discourse, or of a discourse which has positive components (for instance, accepting migration as a given and focusing on the social inclusion of migrants). The limitation of this overview is that discourse towards migration is oversimplified. It is true that non-coordinating countries seem to have negative discourse. But, for coordinating countries, the picture is more mixed. However, this conclusion was based, in a straightforward way, on the contributions received from national correspondents. Without a thorough discourse analysis for each Member State, it is not possible to capture all the discursive nuances regarding migrants.
Policy framework: Various approaches and policy coordination

While most policies are coordinated at the national level, some Member States have increasingly started to engage local-level stakeholders in the design and implementation of the policies on migration and integration. In Germany, all levels of government are actively involved; Italy and Slovenia use the regional level. In Spain's migration policies, competences are split between the central government and the autonomous communities, while in Belgium, the two major regions take responsibility in this field. These are all high to average-scoring countries, perhaps hinting at the importance of the local level in implementing a policy, or at the vertical, external, dimension of coordination.

In most countries, however, the impetus for this coordination seems to come from institutions in central government, within relevant ministries, most commonly those of labour and social policy and of the interior. However, in Latvia, the Ministry of Culture leads the coordination efforts, as immigration is seen as affecting national identity. In Belgium and Italy, the lead institutions are at the regional level (although Belgium has a coordinating Federal Migration Centre, the integration strategies are independent). Specialised cross-departmental bodies have been set up as policy coordinators in:

- France (French Office for Immigration and Integration);
- Ireland (Cross-Departmental Group on Integration);
- Portugal (High Commission for Migration);
- Romania (Steering Group to implement the National Strategy and the General Inspectorate for Immigration);
- the UK (Migration Advisory Committee).

The public employment service play a central role in Slovenia and Sweden.

Sectoral focus of the coordinated policy

It is difficult to formulate stand-alone policies on migration and integration, as the different aspects involved are often intertwined. It means that migrants, society and policymakers need to find common ground in several areas including social integration, language learning and helping migrants adapt to a new social setting.

Data regarding the focus of coordinated policies reflects the same complexity, as migration (managing the entry and stay of migrants) and access to the labour market are interlinked aspects of migrants’ lives. Policies may reflect this complexity to a certain extent, but it is useful to have a simpler picture in terms of policy focus. In Table 8, data have been classified according to the Member States’ coordinated policy focus on either migration, labour market measures, integration or a mix of these. It does not show how important migration issues are to a government, but does show whether the coordinated issues are focused on a particular policy area.
Challenges of policy coordination for third-country nationals

Table 8: Sectoral focus of the coordinated policy in country groups

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Focus of coordinated policy / Independent variables groups</th>
<th>Migration</th>
<th>Labour market</th>
<th>Mixed migration and labour market</th>
<th>Integration</th>
<th>Mixed labour market and integration</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Top group</td>
<td>DE</td>
<td></td>
<td>BE, ES, IE, PT</td>
<td>DK, FI, IT, LU, NO, SE</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middle group</td>
<td>BG, LT</td>
<td>EL, UK</td>
<td>AT, RO, SI, (EL) (but no specific institution is in place), HU</td>
<td>Cz, FR, NL, SK</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lowest group</td>
<td>HR, PL</td>
<td></td>
<td>MT</td>
<td>CY, LV</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Country codes/colours represent country groups described in Table 5.
Source: Authors’ own elaboration

Most Member States do indeed adopt a mixed policy approach. Policies focusing on migration, and thus on the regulation of migrant influxes and access to legal forms, can be labelled as control approaches. Countries which use these seem to do so because of their low levels of immigration or because of its low importance on the policy agenda.

Similarly, an approach focused on the labour market includes countries with mixed scores. Although many countries choose a control approach with some attention to the labour market, it seems that scores tend to stay on average towards lower groups. Nevertheless, a common approach towards integration and the labour market seems to be present in the highest-scoring countries.

Bringing together policy fields under the same collaborative framework highlights examples of coordination between actors at different governmental levels, and between policy fields. This also reflects the advantage of coordination for the overall policy outcome, with the specification that coordinated policy fields and actors’ collaboration are important for success. This implies that a mix of horizontal and vertical coordination leads to the best-scoring integration policies, although this is not the sole factor for success. It seems that attention to integration makes a positive difference too.

Typology of policy coordination

The typology (based on the answers to the Eurofound questionnaire) was populated with scores from Eurofound’s policy coordination index (policy process), as opposed to MIPEX scores (policy outcomes). The coordination dimensions (horizontal, vertical, external and internal) were not part of the scoring itself, since the authors could not deduce a value for one particular type of coordination compared with others.

The distinction between top-down and bottom-up coordination on the external horizontal dimension is valid from the perspective of those that design policies and those that implement them, even though actors may be at the same hierarchical level.

Table 9: Types of coordination in country groups

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Independent variables groups</th>
<th>Internal horizontal (inter agencies, inter-ministries)</th>
<th>External horizontal (social partners, civil society, bilateral relations)</th>
<th>Internal vertical (parent ministry and its agencies)</th>
<th>External vertical top-down (local government)</th>
<th>Network-based</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bottom-up</td>
<td>NO, BE, DE, FI, IT, SE</td>
<td>AT, LU</td>
<td>IE</td>
<td>IT, SI</td>
<td>DE, IE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Top-down</td>
<td>CZ, LT (modest), RO, SK, UK</td>
<td>ES, FI, IE, IT, PT, SE</td>
<td>BE, DK, PT</td>
<td>DE, ES, FI, NO, PT</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>LV</td>
<td>CZ, SI</td>
<td>BG, CZ, LT, RO, SI, SK, UK</td>
<td>AT (implementation), FR, NL, SI, PL</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>LV, PL</td>
<td>LV, PL</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Country codes/colours represent country groups described in Table 5.
Source: Authors’ own elaboration
There are rather mixed country scores across these dimensions. However, some trends emerge, such as the concentration of high-scoring Member States (according to Eurofound’s own variables) in the application of internal and external horizontal coordination, as well as external vertical coordination measures. Network-based coordination is also associated with high scores. The in-depth case study examples provide more information on these two cases. In general, high-scoring Member States seem to show a preference for a mix between internal horizontal coordination (in the form of inter-agency, inter-ministerial cooperation) and external vertical coordination (multi-level government). Italy, for example, applies a bottom-up version of the horizontal–vertical mix, as local governments channel suggestions for policies through to central government, but also includes members of central government in local structures (regional councils deal with the problems of third-country workers and their families and there are territorial councils for immigration at the level of prefectures). An internal vertical coordination (between central and local government levels) seems to be associated with mid-ranging scores; in many cases, this is part of a mix with external horizontal (the Czech Republic) and internal horizontal coordination (Latvia, Romania, Slovakia), but less so with external vertical coordination (Latvia, Slovenia).

Case studies examples

The report focuses on providing an overview of how policy coordination is operationalised at a Member State level. Specific case studies were selected to provide an in-depth illustration of how policy coordination has been implemented and works in practice. The two examples, from Finland (Contract of Intention) and Germany (IQ Network) show how multilevel coordination has been designed and implemented, and what lessons can be learned.

Case study 1: Germany

A strategy to match workforce potential with market needs was launched after concerns were raised about the higher levels of unemployment among migrants, and people with a migrant background, than among Germans. There was also a higher rate of overqualification among migrants, and a shortage of skilled workers. The forecast of a decrease in the German labour force led to the creation of a coordination framework, the IQ Network, and the adoption of the Recognition Act of 2012, under which foreign qualifications are assessed and acknowledged.

The aim of the IQ Network is to help adults with a migrant background integrate more easily into the labour market. The project was implemented in phases throughout the regions from 2005 to 2007, from 2008 to 2010, and from 2011 to 2014. The current phase began in 2015. It offers migrants support with:

- access to information;
- vocational direction;
- recognition of qualifications;
- entering the labour market;
- long-term employment and professional development.

This allows for a flexible approach, as stakeholders can determine the necessary services for different users.

The IQ Network is a good example of the involvement of stakeholders at various levels of government, but also one of solid and consistent coordination mechanisms between them.
The €29 million project is funded by the federal ministries, with most coming from the Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs, which is also responsible for steering the network.

There are several coordination instruments in place to ensure a thorough ‘operationalisation’ of the system. At the national level, the steering group of the federal ministries (Labour, Education and the Federal Employment Agency) meets in a consultative framework prepared by the National Coordination Centre four times a year. The federal ministries also work with national specialist agencies cross-sectorally (internal vertical coordination), on counselling and qualifications, intercultural competences and anti-discrimination, job-oriented language skills, entrepreneurship and immigration. The steering group allows the 16 regional networks (each with its own regional coordination centre) to inform federal ministries of any problems they may be facing with implementing policies. This illustrates a horizontal relation between ministries, but also an internal vertical one, with subordinated agencies; and an external vertical one, with regional subproject actors. In addition, annual network meetings allow for all the 240 subprojects to receive information from federal ministries and for the ministries to receive feedback. Furthermore, expert groups bring together representatives of subprojects in a similar area, constituting an example of networked coordination. In this area, a culture of informal relations has developed, which facilitates the exchange of information and experience.

At regional level, there is more diversity in coordination instruments, depending on regional network needs. Migrants’ organisations and non-governmental organisations (NGOs) can coordinate subregional networks, and partners can include chambers of commerce and industry, trade unions, municipalities, universities, employment agencies, business promotion organisations, welfare and charity organisations.

The IQ Network has led to 68 counselling centres helping 14,700 people from 145 countries of origin, two-thirds of whom were women. At national level, the network facilitated the implementation of the Recognition Act and the recognition of qualifications (having organised 190 training sessions on the Recognition Act and 320 information events and conferences); at regional level, the quality of services was enhanced. More broadly, the network has influenced policymaking on integrating migrants into the labour market, coming mainly from feedback received during the subprojects. Migrants have benefited from the creation of a more welcoming culture and the continued effort towards their labour market inclusion.

Lessons learned
The central role of the federal government is its availability to receive input and to listen to implementation problems, its commitment to funding the project, and consistent coordination with stakeholders across government levels. The network approach has facilitated effective exchanges between stakeholders.

Some stakeholders said they would like to involve more individual businesses and the social partners. However, the federal system of government, despite multiple types of coordination put in place, remains a challenge to this kind of coordination, as interests may diverge at different government levels and certain actors are forced to represent more than one interest than just their role in the network.
Case study 2: Finland

The Contract of Intention, between the Finnish government and the cities of Helsinki, Espoo and Vantaa, is a way of concentrating cooperation and resources in the places where most migrants live, with a focus on integration, education and employment.

The stakeholders varied during the contract periods (2010–2012 and 2013–2015), although there were always participants from both the Ministry of Employment and Economy and the Ministry of Education and Culture. The Ministry of Interior took part in the first period, while entrepreneurship associations and the Chamber of Commerce joined in the later stages. The addition of private sector representatives has led to the emergence of a network-based coordination. Objectives were also modified for the second contract period, with a focus on employment and on improving the interactions between the public and private sectors. Coordination relied heavily on internal vertical and top-down links between the government and municipalities, with some internal horizontal coordination between the three municipalities and between several branches of government.

Funding has been allocated from the three cities and the ministries in order, for example, to create 40 new posts in the employment office and to enhance existing activities and structures within the cities. However, the employment office was radically reorganised and began applying a mainstreamed approach, thus blurring out the allocation of resources and making it very difficult to assess the effect on migrant groups. It was also hard to assess due to poor indicators developed for evaluating the contract.

Lessons learned

The main challenges have been linked with the changing composition of stakeholders, implying shifts in responsibilities, but also the change in objectives between contract periods. Implementation was not always closely followed up and the steering group meetings were not consistently carried out. Furthermore, the role of some stakeholders has been unclear (such as that of the Chamber of Commerce).

The success of the programme lies in the initial commitment of ‘change agents’, crucial to initiating the policy. However, as shown above, sustained commitment is necessary for successful and sustainable outcomes. Timing is also key to success. The second contract period took place during a period of reorganisation and shifts in responsibility, which altered its content significantly. This seems to support the literature which advises clear responsibilities and continued motivation of stakeholders throughout the policy process (OECD, 2014a).
Role of the social partners in policy planning and implementation

There has been a significant increase and change in migration in Europe since the 1990s. Worldwide migration has increased too, due to deepening disparities between more and less developed countries. The numbers of third-country nationals has also grown in Europe, with an increasing variety of origins and cultural and social backgrounds. The mainstream debate in Europe assumes that the economic migrants moving around the EU (mainly low-qualified men and women) do not fit business demands for a mainly medium-to-high-qualified workforce. There is also a strong upward trend of undocumented workers moving to Europe. However, even though non-EU citizens have contributed to half of the employment growth in the past five years, the employment levels of migrants are still of concern, as described in Chapter 1. The most recent challenge the social partners have to address is the influx of refugees into Europe, not only in the short term but also in relation to the long-term implications for the labour market and broader society. The social partners are becoming increasingly involved in wider societal issues and have to deal with the growing challenges of a more diverse workforce and society.

This chapter first looks at the policy level and the involvement of the social partners (employers and trade unions) in the design and implementation of national migration policies, focusing on:

- access;
- labour market policies (assessment of labour needs);
- whether, and to what extent, the social partners are actively involved in shaping Member States' integration policies.

In cases where there is a coordinated approach that encompasses different policies, this report investigates if the social partners have played a role.

The chapter then looks in greater detail at specific programmes or measures dealing with migrant integration at the workplace, exploring whether:

- the social partners see the need for such programmes;
- there is a demand for such services;
- the social partners have sufficient capacity to provide an adequate level of support.

This chapter focuses specifically on trade unions and looks at whether they see the need for data collection about the migrant workers among their membership, and examines any existing outreach programmes to increase trade union membership among migrant workers.

As the social partners in many Member States define themselves as organisations which deal not only with direct labour market issues but which are also involved with support related to housing, public transport, quality of public services or education, this section assesses whether there are any programmes in these areas that focus on third-country nationals.

There is increasing acknowledgment that cooperation between social partner organisations in the migrants' country of origin and their destination countries is vital for a smoother and a more effective transition and integration. The next section of this chapter looks at whether, within this area, there are any bilateral agreements between the social partners in the origin and destination countries that focus on providing migrants with legal assistance or advice on labour and social inclusion. The
chapter concludes with a review of the involvement of the social partners by country groups, which is based on the responses to the questionnaire, and which illustrates to what degree the social partners are involved in planning and implementing policies.

**Social partners and policymaking**

As outlined in Chapter 2, policymaking on migration and integration is challenging. There are many actors involved in designing, managing and implementing a series of complex and sometimes conflicting policies. For the social partners, the issue of migration, and of migrants as workers but also as citizens, is an important concern. The issues specifically related to employers and companies have been extensively covered, unlike the dilemmas facing trade unions. Overall, the challenges that the social partners face fall into a number of categories such as access to the labour market; the influx of asylum seekers and refugees; wider integration into society; membership and organisation of migrants in trade unions; and treatment of migrants’ interests within trade unions.

- **Labour market and economic migrants** – The issue of migration is important from the external perspective of organising access to the national labour market, and from the internal perspective in terms of dealing with migrant workers after legal or illegal entry into the national labour market. Employers have played an important role in determining the access criteria (depending on the country). Furthermore, the social partners have a vested interest in influencing working conditions.

- **Asylum and refugees** – The challenge of dealing with the influx of refugees and asylum seekers into the EU has been growing dramatically in recent months. Even though this dimension falls outside the scope of this report, it is an important element in which employers and trade unions have a role to play, particularly in labour market integration.

- **Wider integration of migrants** – Even though integration into work is key to overall integration, other issues such as housing or education are also important. As trade unions in many countries define themselves as organisations concerned not only with labour market issues but also with the wider society, they can be involved in issues related to integration.

- **Membership of trade unions** – The degree of interest shown by unions in organising migrant workers may vary between countries. The role and influence of migrant workers may vary too, depending, sometimes, on the transparency of the unions’ internal processes. Another important factor in determining how a union organises and recruits low-paid, vulnerable migrant workers is its practice on equality and diversity. Previous research has shown that trade unions tend to consider migrants primarily as workers (universalistic approach) rather than migrant workers (particularistic approach) and thus create a division between workplace and migration issues that may impede the effective involvement of diverse and marginalised workers (Alberti et al, 2013).

- **Trade unions’ treatment of migrant interests** – Trade unions usually focus their initiatives on the interests of their members as a whole, ensuring equal treatment, to maximise solidarity and to optimise their position in dealing with employers. However, migrant workers can have specific needs and thus may require some tailored initiatives, even if only temporarily. Initiatives can relate to cultural factors (language or religion), their legal status (work permits) or labour market conditions (precarious employment).
Access to the labour market

Third-country migration to the EU has been increasing steadily since the beginning of the 1990s. The average annual net entries for the EU25 more than tripled from 198,000 in the 1980s to about 750,000 per year during 1990 (European Commission, 2006). Immigration into the EU has also made a significant contribution to employment growth. In general, immigration is seen as a way of helping to ease national labour shortages caused by an ageing native workforce, and the new and emerging needs of the ‘knowledge economy’. This, in turn, means a demand for new skills that may not be available among native workers, despite the global economic downturn. While the crisis did not lead to a major change in the way most countries view the potential benefits of migration, they have certainly adopted a more cautious approach to the issue. Most countries have paid attention to migration when designing strategies to fill labour shortages. However, countries vary in their view of how much migration is desirable and sufficient.

Another dimension that needs to be carefully balanced is the need to ensure social inclusion and to take into account the interests of the domestic workforce, both natives and the resident migrants.

Member States have legislative frameworks to regulate and organise the admission of third-country nationals and their access to the labour market. Usually such a framework combines both immigration and labour law. As a migration policy tends to be complex, incorporating a particular country’s legal, economic and social aspects, the national frameworks vary greatly. In many Member States, governments are already engaged in a dialogue about labour migration with stakeholders such as regional governments, the social partners and civil society organisations.

Typically, third-country nationals need a work permit to enter the labour market. Again, Member States differ in how they organise the application process, what types of permits they issue and to what types of immigrants. There are some groups of migrants or certain professions for which special procedures apply. Most Member States also use a combination of mechanisms, such as quotas, occupation lists, or an employer needs analysis, in implementing migration and labour market policies (Table 10).

Table 10: Overview of Member State approaches to identify and manage labour demands

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Method</th>
<th>Occupation lists</th>
<th>Employer needs analysis</th>
<th>Quotas</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>AT</td>
<td>x</td>
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<td>x</td>
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<tr>
<td>BE</td>
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<td>BG</td>
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<td>CZ</td>
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<td>DE</td>
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<td>EE</td>
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<td>ES</td>
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<td>FI</td>
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<td>FR</td>
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<td>HR</td>
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<tr>
<td>HU</td>
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<td>IE</td>
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<td>IT</td>
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<td>LV</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
As mentioned, in many countries, a broad range of stakeholders, including government, employers and, to a lesser extent trade unions, cooperate to identify labour shortages and to inform broader migration legislation, particularly that relating to the labour market. Such cooperation and involvement takes place within a variety of frameworks. The most common approach is employer needs analysis. In Austria, the social partners prepare the list of occupations where labour shortages occur. In Belgium, particular attention is given to the involvement of various stakeholders via the Advisory Council for Foreign Workers which incorporates federal authorities (different governmental departments), regional institutions (regional migration services) and the social partners. The council advises on federal initiatives in the area of labour migration. Similarly, in Germany, the social partners are represented on the boards of the Federal Employment Agency and the statutory social security institutions. Consequently, they are consulted in drawing up lists of occupations. In Ireland, too, the government works with the social partners to formulate a list of desirable occupations. In Romania, labour shortages are identified in consultation with the social partners, which then leads to the creation of occupation lists. In Cyprus, the Council of Ministers set the criteria governing work permits for third-country nationals in 1991 following an agreement by the social partners. In Denmark, the social partners are consulted on how to organise access to the labour market and are involved in the assessment of labour market needs. In Slovenia, too, employer organisations help the public employment services in assessing labour market needs. The employer organisations belonging to the Employers’ Association of Slovenia (ZDS) have, in particular, voiced their support since 2006 for giving foreign workers easier access to the labour market. In Lithuania, employers are actively involved and consulted on how to organise access to the labour market by drawing up a list of occupations.

In Sweden, the Migration Board must consult the trade unions on work permit applications to ensure that the employment conditions are in accordance with collective agreements. There is, however, no assessment of labour market needs because of the completely demand-driven migration model. The social partners help map labour shortages for the national public employment service, which have implications for migrants seeking a permit while in Sweden; migrants can only obtain a work permit if they are to be employed in sectors with a labour shortage.

In several countries, the tripartite mechanism has been identified as enabling the social partners to engage in the process of labour migration. This has been the case in the Czech Republic, even though the social partners’ involvement has been limited. The tripartite setting is also a framework for the Latvian social partners’ formal involvement in policymaking, including migration and labour market policies. Slovakia uses the tripartite structure of the Economic and Social Council to consult with
the social partners. The tripartite framework is also important in Luxembourg, with the social partners having to be consulted on any legislative proposals, including those on migration and the labour market.

**Spain: Example of tripartite structure**

An interesting case of the tripartite structure is Spain, with its Tripartite Labour Commission on Immigration. This comprises representatives from the public administration, trade unions and business organisations, and its objective is to act as a permanent forum for all of them. It prepares a quarterly Catalogue of Shortage Occupations and carries out the annual ‘Collective management of hiring in the countries of origin’ mechanism.

Migration and labour markets can also be framed in terms of equal rights. In Finland, the general immigration policy has changed little since the first laws on the subject were adopted in 1999. However, the government is now debating with the social partners how to strengthen equal rights legislation which will explicitly refer to discrimination on ethnic or cultural grounds.

There have been also cases where the role of the social partners has been decreased or withdrawn altogether. In Greece, its most recent law, the Migrants Social Integration Code (Law 4251/2014) abolished the direct participation of workers and employers in setting up the annual quotas of foreigners to be admitted into the country. However, the social partners can be involved indirectly via different fora, including the Economic and Social Committee which is consulted on determining the number of foreign workers for seasonal work. Similarly, in Hungary, the social partners are not involved in the policymaking process on migration. The social partners were regularly consulted, within the framework of the former National Reconciliation Council, a national-level tripartite body, until 2010, when the council was dissolved. Since then, there has been no social dialogue on this issue. However, the County Development and Education Committees (MKFB) are mentioned in the national migration strategy as the relevant social partner organisations. Their operation is primarily related to formulating local vocational educational policies by identifying skills shortages.

**Social partner involvement in workplace integration**

The core function of the social partners is to be active in the workplace. They are increasingly aware of the diversity of the workforce and the need to cater for this. Besides being involved in the broader, strategic discussions about labour and social integration at the policymaking level, the social partners provide a range of programmes aimed specifically at third-country nationals, or general programmes that also benefit EU mobile workers and third-country nationals.

By far, the most widespread programmes supporting workplace integration are those related to language provision (general and job-specific). In Cyprus, trade unions collaborate with the Cyprus Labour Institute (INEK) to provide Greek language courses. Irish trade unions active in the retail sector have also been providing language courses. In Denmark, language provision is the main vehicle for workplace integration and language courses are part of the welcomete.dk programme. Indeed, in Denmark, all third-country nationals (including spouses) have the right to three years free language training which is often organised and run by government organisations. In Italy, third-country nationals who want to obtain a long-term residence permit must demonstrate a certain proficiency in Italian. Trade unions often organise language courses to facilitate this. In Malta, the General Workers’ Union (GWU), through the Reggie Miller Foundation (the trade union’s educational branch), provides regular in-house courses for third-country nationals on language and
on Maltese history and culture. Other social partners in Malta who, at the moment, do not provide specific programmes are acutely aware of the need for them and therefore plan to do so. In Norway, some employers provide language courses for their employees, sometimes free of charge. However, a research project within the fish-processing industry showed that companies find it too expensive to provide language training for their staff and there is no coordination on this between the different companies. Job-specific language courses have been offered by the social partners in Portugal. The General Union of Workers (UGT) offers technical language courses for immigrants aimed at helping them to integrate into the Portuguese labour market. However, this offer is quite limited, partly because the migration flow has progressively fallen, and also because many of the immigrants are nationals of a Portuguese-speaking country, such as Brazil and the former Portuguese colonies in Africa. In the UK, trade unions and employers (both public and private) have been providing language courses to migrant employees. Examples include collaboration by Belfast City Council and Unite-TGWU, where learning centres were set up for bus drivers in depots, staffed by union tutors and paid for by the council.

Some social partners also provide information in several languages. The Austrian Chamber of Labour (AK) and the Austrian Trade Union Federation (ÖGB) provide information and consultation for migrant workers at local and regional level, in several languages.

Other measures can be clustered into programmes focusing on general training in labour law, health and safety, as well as counselling and general consultation. These types of programmes have been carried out by the biggest union confederation in Finland, the Central Organisation of Finnish Trade Unions (SAK), which also represents the sectors with most migrant workers. The Online Workers College includes, specifically for migrants, a module on working in Finland, covering terms and conditions of employment, labour protection, health and safety, labour market organisations, general workplace customs and practice, and Finnish communications. The downside is that all the training is carried out in Finnish, which may be an obstacle for some immigrants. In Spain, the social partners are very active in professional training provision for the entire native and immigrant active population (employed and unemployed), as they are part of the Tripartite Foundation for Training in Employment (Fundación Tripartita para la Formación en el Empleo). The state-owned foundation is in charge of promoting and coordinating the implementation of public policies for continuing training. Its board of trustees is formed by the public administration and representatives of employers and trade unions. It helps provide vocational training initiatives aimed at inclusion and at the reintegration of workers into employment, as well as providing on-the-job training. In some cases, EU funds have been used to provide migrant-specific programmes. Through an EU-funded project, the Romanian National Trade Union Bloc (BNS) has established a counselling office for migrant workers. It provides information on Romanian labour laws, and advises migrants on their rights in case of conflict at work, or if they have problems communicating with government and employers.

The case study from Spain illustrates how the social partners, in this case the trade unions, have been actively involved in assisting immigrants in getting their qualifications recognised which has required a substantial level of coordination among different stakeholders.

Spain: Qualifications recognition

The recognition of immigrants’ qualifications represents a challenge for their inclusion in many European countries, both in a social and labour context. In Spain, overqualification occurs both among immigrants (55%) and the total population (33%) (Eurostat, 2011).
The City of Barcelona, together with a range of partners, decided to address this issue within its one-stop free Advice Service for Immigrants, Emigrants and Refugees (SAIER). This support service is implemented by the Mutual Aid Association of Immigrants in Catalonia (AMIC), a branch of the General Workers’ Union of Spain (UGT). The service started in 2007 and has attracted a growing number of users. The services cover the recognition and validation of basic, vocational and university degrees. On average, it takes about 4–12 months to assess qualifications, but there can be quite strong variations, depending on the subjects studied (case study interview with AMIC-UGT).

**Figure 6: Overview of the SAIER one-stop shop**

The service:
- provides personalised advice to users on whether a process for recognition or validation of qualifications is realistic;
- identifies which Spanish qualifications correspond to the study experience of the users;
- explains how to get foreign diplomas recognised, and study experience validated;
- provides support if problems arise in dialogue with the administration;
- submits the application on behalf of users who are in particular need of support (particularly non-university graduates).

The service is open to all people who live in Barcelona, although its main target group is non-EU immigrants. The service is not restricted to immigrants with a legal residence status. In fact, evidence from the case study shows that 20% of the users do not have such a status. This attitude is particularly important, given Spanish policy, which allows immigrants under certain conditions to regularise their status based on a job offer.

In 2013, the service received a total of 759 requests for information. Of these, roughly two-thirds (61%) concerned non-university qualifications. SAIER handles a growing number of applications...
for the recognition of qualifications, mainly due to the economic crisis and the growing outreach of the service, processing 106 applications in 2013 (Figure 7). Requests for recognition of qualifications mostly come from people with high-school diplomas (41%), followed by master's degrees (31%), secondary school qualifications (9%) and bachelor's degrees (7%). Those using the service mainly come from Latin America (56%), Asia (18%) and eastern European countries outside the EU (14%). There is a high share of women (64%), people without a valid residence permit (20%) and those who are out of work (61%).

**Figure 7: Applications for recognition of qualifications dealt with by SAIER**

Source: Case study Spain, AMIC-UGT skills recognition support at SAIER, 2014

Most applications filed with the service lead to a recognition of a qualification. Almost 87% are favourable decisions, although a third of these carry certain conditions such as completing additional training (Figure 8).

**Figure 8: Results of applications presented by the service**

Source: Case study Spain, AMIC-UGT skills recognition support at SAIER, 2014
The initiative is an example of successful cooperation between the social partners and local government in supporting the labour market inclusion of immigrants. It demonstrates how a holistic and proactive approach to providing support can overcome the barriers imposed by complicated and obscure procedures to recognise qualifications.

The case study illustrates how local actors can make a difference, even in areas outside their formal competencies, particularly where higher levels of government do not address certain problems. Cooperation with the city council helps to formalise the status of the service and to improve its legitimacy towards users and other public actors. The service cooperates with a variety of other local services and institutions which has increased its reach to potential users. However, the formal partnership with the city council does slow the formation of new partnerships.

The service can serve as a model for rolling out support for skills recognition on a wider territorial basis, even beyond Spain, as it demonstrates how to move from a mere legal framework to a more proactive policy on skills recognition.

Employer organisations and individual companies have started to pay more attention to diversity management. This has been the case in Belgium where all major employer organisations including VOKA, UNIZO, Verso and VKW have created the service Jobkanaal, dedicated to diversity management in recruitment and staff policy. The attention to diversity is particularly strong in Germany. The Confederation of German Employers’ Associations (BDA) promotes the German Diversity Charter, picking up the EU concept of such a charter in 2007. As of 2014, some 1,700 companies have signed the charter agreeing to implement diversity management. Moreover, in order to improve and strive for better integration at the workplace level, the BDA published a brochure for companies to promote a more welcoming culture in companies (regardless of whether foreign labour is European or from a third-country nation). Similarly, the Federal Ministry for Economic Affairs sponsors an enterprise prize for companies with initiatives and programmes in place promoting a welcoming culture. At sectoral level, the social partners in the chemical sector – the Mining, Chemical and Energy Trade Union (IG BCE) and the German Federation of Chemical Employers’ Associations (BAVC) – jointly promote diversity in the workplace.

The next case study, from Copenhagen, demonstrates how the overall issue of diversity management and the inclusion of migrants in the labour market has brought together many stakeholders including those from the private sector, civil society and local government.

**Denmark: Diversity management**

The not-for-profit New Dane Association (Foreningen Nydansker) promotes diversity management and the inclusion of migrants into the Danish labour market. It has more than 100 member companies from both the public and private sectors, and cooperates and coordinates on a broader scale with numerous stakeholders from the private sector, civil society and local government.

The association was established in 1998 after business leaders acknowledged that they needed to strengthen diversity management and support the inclusion and retention of migrants in the labour market. The association has adapted well to the country's changing political landscapes, dealing with sometimes negative attitudes towards immigration.
The association was founded during a period when integration was addressed by ‘looking backwards at culture’ (case study interview with director of association, 2014). However, business leaders wanted to demonstrate a positive and tolerant attitude towards other cultures, not only to promote equal opportunities, but also to attract and retain global talent and ensure a future labour supply. The new association saw diversity management as an opportunity to align opposing views, by helping businesses to develop diversity tools and support them in strengthening positive attitudes to diversity in the workplace. The mission of the association is to:

*lower the barriers for ethnic minorities and immigrants on the labour market and to make diversity management a natural and valued element within the Danish business society.*

(New Dane Association, 2015a)

The association has 29 employees, half of whom are full time. Ten of its member companies are represented on the board, with board members expected to be front runners in terms of diversity and integration. As one board member said:

*It is about being part of where it happens – and to take part in and have an influence on the direction it goes.*

(Case study interview, 2015)

As illustrated in Figure 9, the association’s activities can be divided into member services, development activities and activities aimed at influencing attitudes and public perceptions.

**Figure 9: Overview of New Dane Association’s services and areas of focus**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Service for members</th>
<th>Development activities</th>
<th>Influencing attitudes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Collecting and sharing best practice</td>
<td>Developing new methods, tools and cooperation</td>
<td>Qualifying the public debate on integration and diversity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Function:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Source of inspiration</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>- Knowledge platform</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>- Counselling service</td>
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<tr>
<td>Examples:</td>
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<tr>
<td>- Newsletter</td>
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<tr>
<td>- Networking events</td>
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<tr>
<td>- Hotline</td>
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<tr>
<td>- Web page</td>
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<tr>
<td>Function:</td>
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<tr>
<td>- Method developers</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>- Collaborator</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Examples:</td>
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<tr>
<td>- Tools for cultural meetings at the workplace</td>
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<tr>
<td>- Mentor families to maintain foreign workforce</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>- Guide to employers of foreign workforce</td>
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<tr>
<td>Function:</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>- Interest group</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Agenda creator</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Examples:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>- Comments and posts in the press</td>
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<tr>
<td>- Presentations and conferences</td>
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<tr>
<td>- Publications</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Source: Case study Denmark, New Dane Association

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10 Interviews were carried out as part of this case study.
The framework of anti-discrimination has been used by various social partners, especially trade unions, in providing specific programmes tailored to migrants’ needs. In Germany, the German Confederation of Trade Unions (DGB) and its affiliates fund the Kumpelverein association which campaigns against racism and discrimination at the workplace, in vocational training and in society. The Metalworkers’ Union (IG Metall) publishes a newsletter IGMigration, covering various topics related to integration and anti-discrimination in the workplace. The DGB-Bildungswerk, which acts as the DGB’s national organisation for union-related and further vocational training, with DGB affiliates, run training sessions, funded by the European Social Fund, for works council members to connect with migrants and to conclude works agreements against workplace discrimination. In Sweden, the Swedish Confederation for Professional Employees (TCO) provides programmes (in

The association uses innovative development activities developed with member companies and key public stakeholders. It uses methods particularly linked to diversity management, aiming to encourage companies to recruit diverse staff and to create a working environment where diversity is actively appreciated and managed. One example is the diversity tool ‘Roadmap M+’ whereby companies can work out their ‘diversity profile’ and receive step-by-step suggestions on how to improve it.

Some of the key results of the activities are:

- successful engagement and coordination with several, different, large and small, stakeholders (public, private, civil society);
- increased capacity among members and other cooperating stakeholders to manage diversity – with some members, such as transportation firm Arriva winning the CSR Diversity Prize and the CSR People Prize (New Dane Association, 2015b);
- new methods and tools to promote diversity;
- influencing the public debate about the benefits of diversity.

Crucial success factors were:

- an ongoing mapping exercise of the key stakeholders;
- continuously looking for new partnerships;
- the ability to navigate complex politics;
- encouraging member organisations, while respecting their limits and individual interests;
- tailor-made support for each client, with an emphasis on how diversity can help business.

Key challenges

Integration is a highly politicised field and the association is vulnerable to the changing features and requirements of this. It has to voice a positive approach to diversity, while being aware that even taking a stance based on facts and figures can run the risk of politicisation. The association needs to ensure its services are in demand and that it is perceived as a credible, objective, leading professional institution in the field.

The association is not particularly vulnerable to direct cuts in funds, as it raises most of its budget through membership fees and from project applications to a broad range of funds and stakeholders.
Swedish) aimed at reducing discrimination at the workplace. In 2010, TCO published a 12-step guide on how to carry out non-discriminatory recruitment, including analysis of competence needs, the choice of recruitment channels and the interview process.

Some social partners have also started to recognise the potential of migrant entrepreneurs. The Austrian Federal Economic Chamber (WKO), for example, provides workshops and training for migrant entrepreneurs, and offers information in several languages. It also runs a ‘mentoring for migrants’ programme, initiated together with the former European Integration Fund and the Austrian Public Employment Service (AMS), in which successful entrepreneurs support migrant workers in establishing themselves in the Austrian labour market. Both the WKO and the Federal Chamber of Labour (AK) also provide interpreters for consultation, and information in less common foreign languages.

Social partners and data collection on migrant workforce

To have a comprehensive overview of the need for migrant-specific programmes and whether they are meeting their objectives, there certainly needs to be a commitment among the social partners to find out more about the nationality or ethnicity of the employees. However, in some countries this is problematic. Some national legislation prohibits gathering such information, and the approach of the social partners to such data collection in many instances seems to be sporadic and fragmented. Only a few countries have a systematic approach. The situation also varies within countries.

In Sweden, national law prohibits registering a person’s ethnic background. However, the employer organisation, the Swedish Association of Local Authorities and Regions (SKL), says it collects information on the number of its foreign-born staff in order to determine to what extent this corresponds with the number of foreign-born people in the total population.

In the UK, information collection is driven by the requirements of equality legislation. The Government Equality Act 2010 protects against direct and indirect discrimination, harassment and victimisation in services and public functions, work and education. Discrimination on the grounds of age, disability, gender reassignment, pregnancy and maternity, race, religion or belief, sex and sexual orientation, is prohibited. Public sector bodies (including local authorities) need to collect equality information about their workforces to enable them to set objectives and to undertake an equality analysis of their employment policies and practices.

In Austria, scant information is available on migrant members of the social partner organisations. Only three of the nine regional Chambers of Labour have information on their members’ citizenship. In Croatia, trade unions collect information about migrant workers among their members and staff, particularly through branch trade unions, but this is not done consistently or regularly. In Luxembourg, trade unions hold data on their members’ nationality and country of residence (whether they are Luxembourg nationals, EU migrants, third-country nationals or cross-border commuters) but the data are not officially published.

In Malta, trade unions collect personal information (including nationality) about their members when they join, in order to build a profile of their workers. The unions also say they use such information to be able to provide members with assistance tailored to their needs.

In some countries, data are gathered through surveys. The Autonomous Trade Union of Croatia (LIATUC) co-financed a survey in 2013 which found that, among the third-country national workers questioned, only around 11% were trade union members (Božič et al, 2013). In Finland, the Central
Organisation of Finnish Trade Unions (SAK) has surveyed its member unions asking for more information on the number of their migrant members. However, this was a problem as there is no consistent method of collecting this information, with some member unions sorting members by language, others by nationality. The issue of data reliability in relation to the number of migrant workers among employees was also reported to be a challenge in Italy because of the measurement criteria used (Idos, 2013; Ilinova, 2010).

A 2010 survey by the Irish Congress of Trade Unions (Congress) found that most unions (71%) do not know how many migrant workers they have. However, it found that 14 unions (68%) had migrant workers holding posts such as shop stewards or workplace representatives. The majority of those, six unions, had fewer than five people in such positions, while three unions had between five and 10, two had between 10 and 20 and three had more than 20 – these were the Services, Industrial, Professional and Technical Union (SIPTU), the Irish Medical Organisation (IMO) and the Finance Union (IBOA). Up to 62% of unions had migrant workers on their decision-making bodies in 2010, although again the numbers were generally very low. Only three unions had migrant worker representation on their national executive, while six had representation on their branch committees. Some 73% of the respondents to the survey had migrant workers as delegates to their annual conference, though the level of representation varied from just one delegate in two cases, and more than 20 in others (Philips, 2010).

What is evident, though, in several countries, is increased attention to the importance of information gathering by the social partners. This has certainly been the case in Finland where, in general, the social partners are only now realising the importance of such data for immigration policies, as the number of immigrants in Finland is slowly rising. So far, the Finnish Confederation of Salaried Employees (STTK) has only been able to provide estimates, using microeconomic methods, of the number of its immigrant members and their fields of representation (Palkkatyöläinen, 2007). According to SAK, it is only now in the process of developing a unified multicultural policy for its member unions. In Spain, the social partners have been increasingly interested in the profile of the workforce. For example, the Information Centres for Immigrant Workers (CITES), run by the Workers’ Commissions trade union (CCOO), collect information on the number of immigrants that seek their advice. The annual report of the CITE in the autonomous community of Catalonia not only includes the number of people they help, but details such as their sociodemographic profile and characteristics.

However, in some countries, for example Bulgaria, the social partners have not addressed this issue because migrant numbers are very low.

**Trade union outreach activities**

Although migrant workers form an increasing share of the workforce in some sectors, the evidence shows that few trade unions are trying to encourage more migrants to become members. Two notable exceptions are the UK and Ireland where there has been a considerable effort by the unions to do this. In some countries, measures have been implemented on a rather makeshift basis. However, in most cases, initiatives are directed at migrant workers rather than at simplifying the unions’ own internal procedures and structures.

In 2010, the Irish union Congress received funding under the Workplace Diversity Initiative from the Office of the Minister for Integration, and managed by the then Irish Equality Authority, to ‘develop a strategic approach within Congress to the inclusion of black and minority ethnic members.'
The development of the strategic approach included research and consultation with bodies representative of black and minority ethnic organisations’ (Philips, 2010).

Individual trade unions in Ireland have introduced specific initiatives to increase membership among migrant workers. These include:

- SIPTU’s Fair Deal for Cleaners Campaign – Integration of Migrant Workers;
- SIPTU/Migrant Rights Centre Collaborative Organising Strategy in the Mushroom Industry;
- Irish Nurses and Midwives Organisations (INMO) Overseas Nurses Section;
- SIPTU’s Workplace Integration Project.

The case study below documents a UK trade union initiative to increase membership among migrants.

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**UK: Targeting migrants for trade union membership**

In the UK, there has been a strategic recognition of the need to pay more attention to migrant workers as potential trade union members, as they make up a large and growing part of the workforce, particularly in sectors such as healthcare, catering or cleaning. The proportion of migrant workers in the public sector has almost doubled, from 13% in 2000 to 20% in 2010. The public service trade union UNISON has sought to recruit migrant workers as members for many years, with targeted recruitment campaigns from 2004 around the UK. Since 2005, UNISON has sought to develop a coordinated policy on migrant workers through a Migrant Workers National Working Party (Department for Business Innovation and Skills, 2010). A two-year Migrant Workers Participation Project has also been developed in 2007 and run by UNISON.

This project had five objectives:

- proportional unionisation of migrant workers, that is, proportionate to the participation of migrant workers in the public sector;
- to have migrant union members across a range of activities and posts;
- mainstreaming of migrant worker issues in employment relations in the workplace;
- increased inclusion of migrant workers in the workplace;
- provision of relevant services that were more sensitive to the needs of migrant workers.

The first step of the project was to identify the main challenges for migrant workers in becoming trade union members and then moving up within the organisation, and how many members were migrant workers. Initial investigations revealed few union branches had migrant members, with more than 80% having none.

It was found that migrant workers were reluctant to engage in trade union activity because they thought that having such a political link might affect their visa status. This was particularly so for Filipinos. The cost of membership was cited as a barrier to joining a union, as were formal language and internal procedures used. Furthermore, many migrants were unaware of the potential benefits of trade union membership.

An evaluation of the Migrant Workers Participation Project found that the engagement of migrant workers’ community organisations and networks was particularly valuable in helping to identify potential activists and give them the confidence to become involved in trade unionism. The fact that UNISON campaigns on issues that are important to migrant workers was also key to this.
Another example of this kind of work by unions in the UK, is that of the GMB general union, with its Migrant Worker Strategy to address the needs of migrant workers. Some of these activities have been prompted more by immigration from within the EU (most notably Poland), rather than immigration of third-country nationals. However, all migrant workers are included. In Austria, there are no specific outreach programmes to increase migrant worker membership among trade unions but there are some sector-specific initiatives. At the beginning of the 2000s, the Union of Salaried Employees, Graphical Workers and Journalists (GPA-djp) established a special interest group for migrants called ‘work@migration’. This interest group is one of eight platforms, supplementing the union’s existing sectoral groups, and was created in order to pursue the specific interests of migrants. The regional ÖGB Upper Austria established a committee in which works council representatives, with a migrant background, can be consulted by migrant workers on specific problems in their working lives. Generally speaking, there are still comparatively few migrants on works councils at company level in Austria.

In Belgium, on International Migrants’ Day, trade unions campaign with other organisations to raise awareness about the situation of migrants in Belgium. The Belgian Federation of Labour (FGTB/ABVV) and the Confederation of Christian Trade Unions (CSC/ACV) also have a specific information service for target groups such as migrants (ABVV/diversiteit and ACV-diversiteit). In 2014, CSC/ACV created Infopunt Discriminatie to deal with prejudice and discrimination against migrants. If CSC/ACV members report difficulties, diversity consultants come to their workplace to help find a solution. French unions do not seem to have any systematic approach to recruiting migrant workers, but there are some initiatives prompted by specific situations. Most notably, several strikes by undocumented workers in 2008 received support from the union movement. During these strikes, an unspecified number of migrant workers, most of them from Sub-Saharan Africa, joined

| Role of the social partners in policy planning and implementation |

There was increased engagement on migrants’ issues in branches where a person was made responsible for migrant worker members. UNISON ran ‘Pathways into UNISON’ courses specifically for migrant workers, aimed at mentoring and encouraging participants to network further. Of the 92 people who attended the course, 26 later reported some level of activism in the union. More than 70 migrant workers were recruited into formal union roles as a direct result of the project. The project also helped to increase more informal types of activism. UNISON developed English language training and an immigration advice helpline, which helped particularly with legal and visa-related issues. The project has developed outreach activities in conjunction with migrant community networks. This form of cooperation proved to be especially fruitful in engaging Filipino workers.

In order to increase the participation at all levels, there were a number of activities that focused on talent spotting where potential activists were identified and mentored through community work and with the assistance of regional branches. This type of work showed that more effort was needed to galvanise potential activities, as well as the local branches.

The initiative focused not only on becoming a trade union member but also on becoming an active contributor. The courses covered representation and organising, union structures, how to become more involved in the union, handling issues at the workplace and action planning. Since, as has been mentioned, migrants seemed to be put off by the complexity of the procedures and the formal language used by the union, more open, informal and inclusive meetings were introduced to encourage participation.

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the unions. However, it is unclear if, and to what extent, new members remained attached to the union after the strikes ended.

In Italy, most of the initiatives centre on the protection of migrants’ rights. Trade unions promote associations or structures aimed at meeting migrants’ needs (for instance, Anolf or Sei-UGL). Unions have also put in place measures aimed at protecting migrant workers against discrimination. This, in addition to fostering the role of foreign workers as union representatives within unions and firms, according to some sources, has resulted in an increased number of unionised foreign workers (Idos, 2013).

In Luxembourg, two of the three major (most representative) unions – OGB-L and the Luxembourg Confederation of Christian Trade Unions (LCGB) – have either a department dealing with immigration or a department for Portuguese migrants (the largest migrant group in Luxembourg). The third union is the country's largest financial sector union, ALEBA (representing workers in one of the most important sectors in Luxembourg's economy). These three unions promote activities to increase their share of members, including among foreign workers, or cross-border commuters – however, without any specific focus on third-country nationals.

In Slovenia, trade unions are running several projects to increase the number of their migrant members. The 'Integration package for unemployed migrants, refugees and asylum seekers', run by the Association of Free Trade Unions of Slovenia (ZSSS), informs migrants about legal changes affecting them, labour market access and general integration. The branches of the Swedish Confederation for Professional Employees (TCO) have outreach programmes that aim to increase membership but also to inform migrant workers (including non-members) about employment conditions and their rights.

Social partners and non-labour market integration matters

In many Member States, the social partners define themselves as organisations which not only deal with direct labour market issues but also with those regarding integration, such as support with housing, public transport, quality of public services, education or professional training. Although more organisations deal with purely labour-related matters, the social partners have started to pay more attention to the wider societal issues that go beyond the domain of work. In some countries, social partner involvement is implemented through a structured framework, and in others it happens on a case-by-case basis.

Austria is one example of formal structural involvement, as the social partners are part of the government’s Advisory Board on Integration. Their discussions concentrate on structural integration in education, employment, legislative issues, housing and social security.

Initiatives springing from more needs-based issues can be seen in other countries. In Cyprus, for example, the Pancyprian Federation of Labour (PEO), on behalf of trade unions, provides Greek language courses to immigrants.

Portugal has one of the most comprehensive approaches, with the social partners actively involved in shaping integration policies, as well as being actively involved in individual projects. The UGT Portugal, the Portuguese Trade and Services Confederation (CCP) and the Confederation of Portuguese Industry (CIP) have been involved and consulted regarding the full integration of immigrants in Portuguese society through the Standing Committee on Social Concertation (CPCS)
by providing input to the Plans for Immigrants’ Integration. Additionally, CCP and UGT have been part of the Consultative Council for Immigration Affairs (COCAI) which is part of the Portuguese High Commission for Immigration and Intercultural Dialogue (ACIDI). This body promotes the participation and collaboration of the associations representing immigrants, the social partners and social solidarity institutions in defining policies for social inclusion and combating social exclusion. The social partners are also directly involved in areas such as housing, public transport, education, vocational training, health and access to justice for third-country nationals.

In Denmark, the social partners are extensively involved in integration initiatives. The well-known ‘Expat in Denmark’ project, mainly supported by the Danish Chamber of Commerce, is a website for foreign professionals working in Denmark which provides a wide range of information. The trade unions are focusing on equal treatment issues, and the fact that the skills of any employee should be valued regardless of their origin. The Danish Confederation of Trade Unions (LO) and Local Government Denmark (KL) set up Welcometo.dk for foreigners. Activities which take place in the municipalities focus on the reception, retention and overall integration of third-country nationals. The Swedish Confederation of Professional Associations (SACO) also created a website, mainly for highly educated migrants, which provides information on labour market and integration issues.

In France, the social partners, through involvement in formal institutions, are actively shaping vocational training for migrants and non-migrants.

Vocational training is also an area of focus for the German social partners. In general, all of them, including the DGB and the BDA, engage in public policy debates on integration issues but, in practice, their main fields of activity are public administration, education and vocational training. The BDA engages in the Pact on Apprenticeships which helps applicants with a migrant background to find an apprenticeship position. Also, the BDA campaigns for the recruitment of apprentices, and for the further training of workers with a migrant background. Furthermore, in April 2014, the DGB Education Centre (DGB Bildungswerk) started the project Anerkannt for training works council members to support migrant workers in getting their qualifications recognised.

In Norway, vocational training and the recognition of qualifications are the main fields of focus for the social partners. In the collective bargaining round in 2014, the social partners requested, and received, financial support from the Minister of Education and Research to provide migrant workers with language courses, and to improve the systems for recognising foreign vocational training. In Spain, the social partners are active in professional training issues for the whole national and non-national active population (employed and unemployed) as they belong to the Tripartite Foundation for Training in Employment. As already mentioned, this foundation is the state entity in charge of promoting and coordinating the execution of public policies on continuing training. Its board of trustees is formed by representatives of the public administration and of employers and trade union organisations. It provides different vocational training initiatives aimed at helping workers get jobs, and promoting company-based training. However, there are no specific training schemes for migrants.

In Germany, the focus has been on children, particularly children of asylum seekers, with campaigning by the Education and Science Workers’ Union (GEW) for easier access to public schools. The education of migrant children has also been the focus of some activities by Greek trade unions. In Portugal, trade unions have been involved in the implementation of the Choices Programme, which aims at promoting the social integration of children and young people aged 6–24 from disadvantaged social backgrounds, many of whom are of migrant descent or members of the
Roma community. The programme is a public programme funded by the Human Potential Operational Programme (POPH).

In Italy, trade unions have been active in assisting migrants in matters that are not labour-related. They help workers through the Benefit Advice Centres or specific associations by providing information, assistance and advisory services on social security and welfare rights that include the granting and renewal of residence permits, and information on family reunification laws. In Malta, trade unions are active in this area, although the extent of their involvement varies. The Malta Workers’ Union (UHM) gives guidance to migrant workers in issues that are not labour-related, and refers them to the relevant organisations which can provide the required assistance. The GWU is more proactive, providing different types of support free of charge (including psychological assistance and legal aid) to its third-country national members. The two strongest unions in Spain, the UGT and the CCOO, have their own networks of information centres for immigrant workers (CCOO, as mentioned earlier, runs the CITE centres). These offer information and assistance on migrants’ rights, access to public services and information about the Alien Act. These centres also receive public funding.

Also at local level, Romania’s National Trade Union Bloc (BNS) has specialists in immigration issues who provide information on the rights and obligations of foreign workers, mediate in disputes and help with the social integration of immigrants.

Another country where the social partners are keenly and actively engaged is Slovenia. The ZSSS began campaigning in 2009 about labour legislation and the poor living conditions of migrant workers, which led to the Ministry of Labour, Family and Social Affairs (MDDSZ) setting up a working group to prepare a new law on accommodation for foreign workers, adopted in 2011. Several ministries now consult the ZSSS about proposals to change regulations on migration. The ZSSS says that its good standing with migrants has increased its membership from this group, which has given it greater power in pushing for changes to the law. The Slovenian trade unions have supported various projects. One is the mobile Info Point for Foreigners, run by the ZSSS, the Employment Service of Slovenia (ESS) and the Slovene Philanthropy. It provides counselling on working conditions and job opportunities, promotion and protection of their labour rights, legal assistance, language learning, and how to establish contact with institutions that provide different services for easier inclusion in Slovenian society.

The Slovenian case study illustrates in more detail why, and how, the trade unions shaped the debate about migrants’ integration into the Slovenian labour market and the wider society.

**Slovenia: Info point for migrants**

The Info Point for Foreigners started in 2008 with the aim of strengthening foreign workers’ rights and enabling migrants to enter the Slovenian labour market. The project has been designed as a ‘one-stop shop’ and provides free counselling on legal and practical issues.

Most clients are from countries outside the EU, especially Bosnia and Herzegovina, Macedonia, Serbia and the Republic of Kosovo.

Only about 5% of the clients have a university degree; most users are construction workers. They are also predominantly male (about 80%), and many do not speak Slovenian.
Figure 10: Stakeholders’ Info Point (2014–2015)

Ministry of Labour, Family, Social Affairs and Equal Opportunities

Employment Service of Slovenia

• Counselling
• Networking
• Structural support

Association of Free Trade Unions

• Expert knowledge in labour rights
• Counselling
• Educational programme

Slovene Philanthropy

• Volunteer training
• Promotion

Further strategic partners

• Case-by-case support

Source: Ramboll Management Consulting

Info Point offers a range of services:

• access to key information before entering the labour market;
• assistance in obtaining work and residence permits;
• assistance with administrative procedures;
• promotion of work and education opportunities;
• encouragement of integration;
• legal advice.

Information is given in one-to-one counselling sessions, either in person, via phone or email. The project not only offers consultations at the headquarters of the ESS in Ljubljana, but also schedules regular sessions at ESS offices throughout Slovenia. Info Point counsellors also visit workers in their homes.

Table 11: Numbers and forms of consultation, 2010–2013

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>In person</th>
<th>Email</th>
<th>Telephone</th>
<th>Fieldwork</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2010</td>
<td>677</td>
<td>745</td>
<td>2,030</td>
<td>1,501</td>
<td>4,953</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2011</td>
<td>1,464</td>
<td>3,071</td>
<td>8,597</td>
<td>2,938</td>
<td>16,070</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2012</td>
<td>1,625</td>
<td>3,011</td>
<td>9,819</td>
<td>2,811</td>
<td>17,266</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2013</td>
<td>2,135</td>
<td>3,060</td>
<td>14,817</td>
<td>7,653</td>
<td>27,665</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>8,036</td>
<td>12,947</td>
<td>50,080</td>
<td>22,556</td>
<td>93,619</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Case study Slovenia: Employment Service of Slovenia, 2015
As mentioned in the previous section, the ZSSS also coordinated the ‘Integration package for unemployed migrants, refugees and asylum seekers’ with Slovene Philanthropy, the Chamber of Commerce and Industry of Slovenia (GZS) and the ESS. The main aim of the project was to increase migrants’ employment, to develop and implement training for counsellors, and to set up an information hotline for migrants and their families. The project ran from December 2010 until December 2013. It offered 4,500 consultations (600 of them in-depth counselling sessions).

The social partners have also promoted initiatives aimed at the majority of society, recognising that integration is a two-way process. In Germany, for example, the GEW and the civil servants’ union, the United Services Union (ver.di), have been running programmes on the intercultural opening of the public administration, for example by offering staff training courses on intercultural issues.

The Info Point introduced two further services in 2014. These are:

- an educational programme for migrant workers and refugees, as well as for counsellors, on the implementation of labour rights;
- a volunteer programme to provide support for migrant workers beyond the working hours of the Info Point – especially in more rural areas and cities other than Ljubljana.

**Key outcomes**

- It is the first one-stop shop of its kind in Slovenia that targets migrant workers.
- Migrants are more informed about their rights and possible employment opportunities (Josipović and Bofulin, 2011);
- Project partners are becoming experts in the labour market integration of migrant workers.
- ZSSS membership among migrant workers has grown, and this has strengthened the union’s position when pushing for changes to the law.

**Success factors and challenges**

The choice of partners – especially the formal cooperation partners – has been an important factor in the successful implementation of Info Point for Foreigners. Not only do they promote the implementation of migrant workers’ rights, each stakeholder brings a certain expertise that is not represented by others.

The team members have specialised knowledge (for example on work permits) and also speak the clients’ languages. Consultation is provided in Slovenian, Bosnian, Macedonian, Albanian, Russian and English. Furthermore, two counsellors have a migration background themselves and thus can relate to certain problems of the target group.

The bottom-up approach has been successful. During field trips, partners introduced migrant workers to their services, building a trustful relationship and thus a good basis for the use of the consultations. Most importantly, the project is customised to the clients’ needs.

However, the funding (from the ESF) was due to end in September 2015. It remains to be seen if enough funding can be secured for the project to continue.

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The social partners have also been promoting non-discrimination. In Spain, trade unions are part of the Council for the Promotion of Equality of Treatment and Non-Discrimination of People due to Racial or Ethnic Background. This council was created in September 2007 by Royal Decree 1262/2007 and is under the aegis of the Ministry of Employment and Social Security. The council’s mission is to promote equality and non-discrimination in fields such as education, health, social services, housing and employment. It offers individual advice to victims of discrimination, publishes reports and research documents, and designs awareness campaigns and information/training programmes. Out of its 30 members, two are trade union representatives, with one from the UGT, and the other from the CCOO; and two are from business organisations, with one from the Spanish Confederation of Business Organisations (CEOE), and the other from the Spanish Confederation of Small and Medium Enterprises (CEPYME). In the Netherlands, initiatives focus on the provision of general advice on countering the discrimination of migrant workers. However, national reports on the immigrant workforce tend to refer mostly to intra-EU mobility (in light of the 2014 market liberalisation for new EU Member States).

**Bilateral cooperation**

Bilateral cooperation is one way of increasing the protection of migrant workers and also the awareness among trade unions and migrant workers of what can be done. However, it seems that such cooperation between the social partners of a migrant’s country of origin and their destination takes place only in a limited number of countries. In Austria, in the regions bordering the Czech Republic, Hungary, Slovakia and Slovenia, there is cooperation between the ÖGB and the respective foreign unions on consultation, workshops and union work. All of these projects are bilingual. However, no bilateral agreements with the social partners of third countries have been established.

In Spain, during the 2000s, and as a consequence of intense immigration flows, the UGT established assessment centres in the migrants’ main countries of origin (such as Bolivia, Colombia, Ecuador, Mauritania, Morocco and Peru) in collaboration with the local trade unions in those countries. These centres cooperated in the collective management of hiring migrants in their countries of origin. Unfortunately, in recent years, public budget cuts have made it necessary to reduce the amount of financial resources allocated to these centres, and thus their level of activity has plummeted.

In the Netherlands, there are working groups for international solidarity within the Federation of Dutch Trade Unions (FNV) for international cooperation with:

- Zimbabwe (helping to stimulate unionisation);
- Palestine (solidarity and calling for boycotts against Israel).

The National Christian Labour Union (CNV) has a wide array of partnerships in Africa (Benin, Ghana, Guinea, Madagascar, Niger, Senegal and Togo), Asia (Bangladesh, Cambodia and Indonesia), Latin America (Colombia, Costa Rica, Guatemala, Honduras and El Salvador) and southeast Europe (Macedonia and Moldova).

**Level of involvement: Country groups**

The information provided by Eurofound’s network of European correspondents on the involvement of the social partners in migration, labour market and integration policies was analysed, with groups of countries then created, based on the methodology described in the previous chapter on policy coordination.
The score for the social partners reflects the extent of their involvement in the linked policy fields of labour market, migration and integration. They were asked whether they were involved in non-labour migration issues, family issues, programmes to support integration at the workplace, collecting information about migrants, targeting migrants for union membership, and concluding bilateral agreements with the social partners in the countries of origin. Based on the average scores, countries were grouped according to their proximity of scores (K-means groups) – Figure 11.

Figure 11: Country groups and social partner involvement

The highest-ranking group includes countries such as Austria, Luxembourg, Slovenia, Spain, Sweden and the UK. These countries have a different migration history, and different approaches to the selection of migrants, but are united by a strong and active involvement of both employers and trade unions in migration issues, and in wider aspects affecting labour and the social integration of migrants. These efforts may be underpinned by various policy domains such as the equality policies in the UK, or the strong tradition of tripartism and collective bargaining in Austria or Luxembourg. In some countries, such as Slovenia, trade unions have become involved in integration because of the working conditions of migrants. Both in Slovenia and Sweden, the use of the public employment
services is seen as the right way of engaging migrants, providing them with services and facilitating their labour market and social integration.

The second group also includes a diverse set of countries including Belgium, Cyprus, Denmark, Germany, Ireland, Italy, Malta, Norway, Portugal and Romania. In these countries, either the employers, the trade unions or both are actively engaged in some areas, but less so in others. In Ireland, trade unions are actively discussing outreach activities to increase migrants' membership and have programmes to collect this information, but are less involved in non-labour market integration matters. In Portugal, the social partners are the driving force behind the coordinated approach towards integration and have numerous programmes aimed at non-labour-related activities. However, the trade unions do not have any programmes to increase membership among migrant workers. The attention to broader integration discourse is visible among Italian trade unions that provide a range of services related to the social security or welfare system. In Denmark, the employers have one of the most proactive policies towards migrants’ labour market integration but also promote broader integration programmes aimed not only at migrant workers, but at their families too. The attention to diversity management is also strong among German employers.

The third group includes countries where, for various reasons, the social partners have been less involved in the overall discourse and initiatives on migration and integration. This may be related to the fact that, in many of these countries, the numbers of third-country nationals have not yet reached the threshold which would require a concerted effort. This has been the case in a number of new Member States including Hungary, Latvia and Poland. In some countries, such as Bulgaria, trade unions have been working with the trade unions in migrants’ host countries on their situation and their working conditions. The social partners have also had a number of initiatives that focused on returning Bulgarian workers. In countries with a recent migration history, most notably Finland, the social partners have been strongly committed to developing a comprehensive strategy to address an increasing number of migrant workers.
Conditions at local level have become increasingly important when it comes to attracting and integrating immigrants. Often it is the actors at local level who are the true innovators, as they need to deal simultaneously with a variety of socioeconomic, cultural, linguistic and other challenges, independently from their national governments. It is also local-level organisations that have to grapple with day-to-day, pragmatic issues within the overall political and economic climate of the country. This chapter provides an overview of policy coordination efforts at local level and showcases some of the approaches adopted by cities and regions in different countries. It acknowledges an enormous variety in terms of the set up and degree of involvement of local level actors in the debate and policymaking on migration, and presents a selected group of polices and measures that focus on local policy coordination.

Country examples

In Cyprus, local authorities, mainly municipalities in the cities of Larnaca, Limassol and Nicosia, had an important role in implementing general programmes and ones targeted at specific nationalities, such as Chinese immigrants. These activities included the provision of childcare, language programmes, the production of audiovisual material and multicultural events.

In Finland, in recent years, there have been several projects aimed at improving opportunities for migrants to establish themselves in the Finnish labour market. The projects have been carried out at local level, in coordination with national organisations. These projects are usually funded by national-level projects such as the Matto project which recruited doctors from northwestern Russia to work in the North Karelia region in eastern Finland. Matto coordinates and supports initiatives at local level, enhancing the competencies of those who work with immigrants and facilitating the exchange of experiences.

In France, national policies concerning third-country nationals are implemented at regional level through the Regional Directorates for Youth, Sport and Social Cohesion (DRJSCS). Since 2010, there has been a raft of new local initiatives for third-country nationals. Their priorities include:

- learning the French language;
- access to employment and vocational training;
- access to health insurance;
- awareness of social rights for elderly third-country nationals;
- issues of parenthood;
- the integration of women;
- preventing violence against women.

In Germany, the National Action Plan on Integration (NAPI) provides a framework for local involvement, with coordinated strategic integration plans drawn up at regional and local level. As of summer 2014, three out of 16 regional states (Berlin, North Rhine-Westphalia and Rhineland-Palatinate) had enacted regional Integration Acts which are fundamental for mainstreaming integration into rules and regulations, and for budgeting for integration measures.

A project on urban integration policy, led by the Schader Foundation in Germany, piloted innovative approaches to improving integration measures in small rural cities. The results indicate that
integration concepts are more easily drawn up at district than at local level and that more awareness-raising measures, intercultural training and public funding are needed for involving local administrations (Schader Foundation et al, 2005). In contrast, some large German cities have reformed their strategic integration concepts to foster a so-called ‘culture of welcoming and recognition’. Local migrant organisations are involved in redesigning the concepts which – against the background of potential labour shortages – aim at increasing the resources and skills of migrants and at promoting diversity. Advanced concepts address long-term residents, new arrivals and the education, working and living conditions of asylum seekers. In 2012, the city state of Bremen (where 27% of the population has a migrant background) launched a development plan for integration and participation that calls for legal reforms of the Foreigners Act and of asylum policies. The city says that the lines between nationals and migrants are blurring and that there is a need for integration policies for all groups marked by below-average educational attainment, poor employment rates and poor housing conditions. Gender-mainstreamed approaches are to be applied to develop policies on anti-discrimination, intercultural opening of institutions, diversity and participation in education, employment, health, housing, culture and public administration. The position of integration officer has been created, reporting to the city’s mayor, to coordinate cross-sectoral working groups involving public, private and third-party actors.

In Greece, the most important initiative is the establishment of local Migrant Integration Councils which can be set up at the headquarters of the country’s municipalities. This innovation was introduced by Law 3852/2010, which concerns the reform of the institutional framework of local government. These councils are advisory municipal bodies on questions concerning the integration of migrants and comprise members of local government and of collectives and organisations of legally resident migrants in the area. However, the results to date have been poor, since few councils operate in a regular and comprehensive way, partly because of their limited institutional role and lack of funding. Two exceptions are the councils in Athens and Korydallos. In Portugal, there is a network of 101 Local Support Centres for Immigrant Integration (CLAI1). Created in 2003, these centres aim to help immigrants with regularising their status and with issues such as citizenship, family reunification, housing, employment, social security, voluntary return, health, education, vocational training and entrepreneurship.

In Slovenia, as has been mentioned in the previous chapter, there are mobile Info Points for foreigners, organised at regional level, which provide a coordinated approach for third-country nationals. In order to upgrade its programme for foreigners, the Employment Service of Slovenia in October 2013 approved an extension of the programme, using volunteers, and run by Slovene Philanthropy. Volunteers are a less formal connection between the Employment Service and migrant workers, providing information and helping migrants to find employment, as well as offering support in following the procedures of the Employment Service and on more personal issues. In four months, the volunteers worked 325 hours, helping 300 migrant workers. In May 2014, Slovene Philanthropy started to train 14 new volunteers to cover other regions.

In Sweden, as the role of the Swedish Public Employment Service has been strengthened to deal with migration, so too has the role of its local branches, enabling them to facilitate collaboration and initiate local agreements. The integration strategy for the county of Kalmar (Kalmar Län) was suggested by the county’s administrative board (Länstyrelsen) and aims at simplifying cooperation between many different actors in order to help third-country nationals. The initiative is completely local and governed strategically by a central supervisory board and operationally by a working party.
Both these groups comprise key people from municipalities, local authorities, employer organisations and a university in the region. The action programme for 2013–2016 includes, for example, the creation of more internship opportunities, language courses for migrant university graduates and integration in green jobs.

The municipalities of Borlänge, Solna and Värnamo have been cited as positive examples of good local coordination between the public employment services and local government. For example, the Värnamo municipality has introduced a bureau to help migrants (Invandrarbyrån) with practical issues and translation. The municipality is small, with a population of 33,000, with a 17% share of immigrants (the share in Sweden overall is 16%) and a higher employment rate (83%) than the Swedish average (77%). A network called Värnamo International Friends, with actors from the Church of Sweden, the Red Cross, the municipality and the adult educational association Vuxenskolan, facilitates integration and functions as a meeting point for immigrants.

### Sweden: Job opportunities for the unemployed

Third-country nationals that have a hard time finding a job are often not entitled to the national unemployment insurance as it requires applicants to have previously worked in Sweden. However, they do have the right to sign on at the National Employment Agency. The problem is that the agency has tended to prioritise people that are entitled to national unemployment insurance, leaving those that are not with little or no support. Therefore, third-country nationals have to turn, more often than Swedish citizens, to the social support system provided by the municipalities.

The main focus of this case study is Jobbtorg, established in 2008 as a single access point to Stockholm's various labour market initiatives. There are six Jobbtorg offices in the city. The aim is to help the unemployed on income support to become independent of subsidies. There is also an emphasis on ensuring that the available labour force is well-equipped for existing jobs. The target group is unemployed people on income support.

Local politicians decided to launch Jobbtorg, as they saw a need for a more effective, coordinated support system. There are no regulations in Sweden around these types of one-stop shops, leaving it up to the municipality to organise them.

The case study allowed for a review of the horizontal coordination within a municipality (cross-sectoral) and vertical coordination, mainly with the National Employment Agency. Unlike other types of one-stop shops, Jobbtorg mainly focuses on horizontal coordination between different departments within the municipality, such as those dealing with social welfare, education and the labour market. Stockholm is a large municipality, and coordination within the different organisations can be complex.

The case study also aimed to explore policy coordination within the overall mainstreaming approach to integration policies prevalent within the Swedish public administration.

Stockholm signalled a major reorganisation of its income support administration when it launched Jobbtorg on 1 January 2008. It was initially established as a pilot project and was later integrated into the Social Services and Labour Market Administration. From 1 July 2011, the responsibility for Jobbtorg was transferred to the newly established Labour Market Administration, which is also in charge of other matters such as adult education, Swedish for immigrants courses and refugee issues. However, the Swedish social service is still responsible for providing income support to migrants.
The idea behind Jobbtorg was for it to offer a unified service to all those in the city who are unemployed and on income support. Jobbtorg was described as a way of helping the unemployed find job opportunities and support themselves. According to the City of Stockholm, the target groups for Jobbtorg are:

- all unemployed recipients of income support;
- young people aged 16–24 who are not studying or working and who are in contact with the district administration;
- students studying Swedish for immigrants;

Referrals to Jobbtorg are made by social workers, or directly when the person applies for income support. The decision on whether someone is entitled to income support is made by social workers or by the financial aid administrator of the district where the migrant lives. Participation at Jobbtorg is directly linked to the right to income support, and is therefore obligatory. Non-attendance can lead to income support being denied.

Most of Jobbtorg's employees are coaches, who are responsible for monitoring clients and their activities. Other staff match clients to available jobs. They also contact employers to find internships or jobs. Jobbtorg also has student guidance counsellors to help with education-related issues and to offer IT support for those who are searching for a job on their own.

Jobbtorg offers a variety of different activities including:

- advice and individual coaching;
- guidance and counselling;
- job-matching;
- job and internship placements;
- information on a range of professional education courses;
- validation of certificates and professional skills;
- advice on starting a business;
- job-specific training;
- learning Swedish.

The aim of Jobbtorg is to work with civil society and private companies in giving greater support to people who want to find a job. The main channel of cooperation with civil society and private companies is through the procurement of contracts where they are offering their services to the clients at Jobbtorg. The procurements have been relatively complex and this has made it hard for civil society organisations to participate. Jobbtorg has taken part in some more proactive attempts to help young people, in cooperation with local organisations familiar with this target group, but this type of coordination has been sporadic.

As mentioned, Jobbtorg's administrators contact local companies to see if they have vacancies. This is mainly done on an ‘as and when’ basis, but there is also a centralised matcher working for the whole city to whom companies can turn when they need to make larger-scale recruitments.
Use of EU funding

In many countries, the European Integration Fund (now incorporated into the European Asylum, Migration and Integration Fund (AMIF) since 2014) has been used to design and implement a coordinated policy approach. In the Czech Republic, regional centres promoting the integration of third-country nationals have been established in Prague and 12 other regions, partly funded by the European Integration Fund. The centres are tasked with creating a platform for the integration of third-country nationals composed of local and regional stakeholders who meet at least twice a year.
The Czech Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs (MoLSA) implements a coordinated approach through projects that promote active employment policy in the regions and at regional labour offices.

In addition, municipalities, boroughs and local authorities are involved in emergency projects, initiated and funded by the Czech Ministry of the Interior, which are aimed at addressing critical situations in certain regional municipalities and Prague administrative districts where there are a significant number of foreign citizens or workers. These projects deal with the problems created by an increase in the number of foreigners, the dismissal of foreign workers, the risk of building closed communities and growing tensions between immigrants and natives. Other individual, local and regional integration projects are funded by the EU and domestic public funds and implemented principally by the NGOs.

In Austria, the (publicly financed) Integration Fund runs five integration centres in the regional states of Salzburg, Styria, Tyrol, Upper Austria and Vienna. These provide information and consultation and are engaged in mentoring migrants. At so-called ‘Welcome Desks’, newcomers (not just third-country nationals) are asked about their first steps in Austria (particularly regarding language, education and employment) and are provided with information on relevant authorities that will be able to support them. Workshops are also offered. Potential newcomers can avail of a free consultation at the Austrian embassy in their respective home country. In addition, they receive a welcome box with important information material. A handbook Welcome to Austria provides information on service and information offers, as well as information about daily life in Austria in German, English, Turkish and Bosnian/Croatian/Serbian.

There are various projects implemented in Lithuania at regional level aimed at facilitating the integration of third-country nationals. The projects, supported by the European Integration Fund, include research and studies, training courses, awareness-raising campaigns, and the setting up of integration centres. For example, Šiauliai Business Incubator (VšĮ Šiaulių verslo inkubatorius) is implementing the project ‘The centre of integration and business motivation of third-country nationals’. The objectives of the project are to create opportunities for third-country nationals to get all the information they need in one place and in a language they understand: to have consultants permanently on hand who can help migrants solve problems related to legislation and searching for jobs. In April 2014, a three-day workshop was organised for 15 third-country nationals who arrived from countries including Azerbaijan, Belarus, Jamaica and Ukraine. It should be noted, however, that such initiatives are rather fragmented and usually implemented on a short-term basis.
There is persistent diversity in the ways that Member States define foreigner status, and plan and implement schemes for integration, which sometimes hides the fact that, over the past 10–15 years, there has been a considerable development in Europe towards the creation of a common framework for monitoring the integration of migrants. While individual countries differ in how they collect and use the information about migrant integration, the so-called Zaragoza indicator set, agreed by the Member States in 2010, has become established at a supranational level, evident in the way statistics are published by Eurostat (Eurostat, 2011; ESN and MPG, 2013), the OECD (2015) or even at national level, such as in Ireland (McGinnity et al, 2014). Apart from measuring the social outcomes, the assessment of policy settings has been carried out and presented in a summarised and comparative way by the MIPEX index.

Against a background of cross-national data collection and national policy developments, the support and funding for monitoring and policy evaluation has come from a variety of sources. It can range from the planned evaluation of policy measures that were part of the national policy planning cycle, to research and civil society initiatives. It can be expected that, in the context of further policy consolidation, standards and methods for the evaluation will also be developed, and the results of monitoring will feed back into policymaking. But how is the monitoring going to develop in a policy field which is often characterised by a multiplicity of agencies and stakeholders involved? Is policy coordination, as such, being assessed in the Member States? This chapter provides an overview of whether some key elements of monitoring can be identified in the Member States so that they could provide grounds for policy evaluation and advancement. On the basis of the correspondents’ reports, this chapter looks at the issue of benchmarks to see whether it is a part of policymaking, and then considers whether the links between policy areas related to migration and migrant integration are being addressed in national reports and evaluations.

**Benchmarking**

Researchers, NGOs and international organisations have, for a long time, emphasised the need for good-quality comparable data on migration and migrant integration. While the data are gradually emerging at the international level (see OECD, 2015), the use and application of data for national policymaking is less evident.

Benchmarking is used in policy assessment whereby a reference point is selected to make a comparison. Key to this is the availability of reference data. In the area of migration and integration, the choice of particular indicators for assessing integration, or for assessing a policy itself, is a matter of discussion. Many European countries apply the norm of equal achievements by migrants in comparison with the native population (Bijl and Verweij, 2012, p 38). Indeed, this type of comparison is used by the OECD (see OECD, 2015). However, Bijl and Verweij (2012, p.37) point out that using the principle of ‘equal pass rates’ is problematic since migrant populations often have different starting points, or differ in terms of demographic composition. In addition, migrant groups themselves differ, therefore a statistic for third-country nationals may conceal those differences, as well as the need for specific policy measures. However, these observations do not necessarily prevent the use of data to benchmark migrant integration over time, particularly in comparison to the situation of the native population.

Many Member States have incorporated certain data on third-country nationals when preparing their National Action Plans on Integration during the past five years, or when reporting on their...
implementation. However, fewer countries have relevant data comparable over time, or have funded the collection of data when developing migrant integration policies.¹¹

On the basis of reports received by Eurofound in 2014, there are eight Member States that have systematically collected figures which are available for benchmarking and the evaluation of policies.¹² Practices vary in using (or enabling) benchmarking. One type of benchmark is based on the commitment to collect official statistics about the migrant population. In Sweden, for example, the key indicators to measure integration have been included in official statistics since a government decision in 2009.¹³ In Italy, three integration-related indices are set to be produced for each province (see for instance CNEL, 2012). In other countries, the available statistics are compiled and reviewed as a part of national policy development on integration. For example, the information was systematised when developing National Action Plans on Integration in Bulgaria. In Ireland, the Annual Monitoring Report on Integration produced by the Economic and Social Research Institute (ESRI) in 2010–2013 closely followed the Zaragoza indicators (see McGinnity et al, 2014). Indicator-based national-level reports were produced in Germany in 2011 and 2014, at the request of the Federal Labour Ministry when implementing the NAPI integration plan, although particular benchmarks to measure the impact of NAPI were not identified.

As a part of independent monitoring, regular public opinion surveys are carried out in the Czech Republic, Lithuania and Norway; and this is related to the activities of the dedicated research organisations such as the Institute for Ethnic Studies in Lithuania. Some other countries, such as Portugal, are developing indicators, but there is little information on whether there will be a commitment to apply them in information collection and benchmarking. In Luxembourg, research has been carried out that involved collecting views from authorities, the social partners and civil society to suggest 10 potential indicators (Baltes and Kolnberger, 2013; CES, 2014). Similar research has also taken place in Greece and Lithuania.

Finland and Denmark go beyond having population statistics focused on the outcomes of integration – benchmarks have been used when assessing the administrative procedures. Finland has a regular three-step monitoring approach: in addition to statistics about the migrant population, migrants as well as relevant municipal and state employment service staff are surveyed about the integration process. In Denmark, the length of time for asylum, family reunification and work permit procedures were noted as exceeding the benchmarked duration, and as a consequence, the regulations were changed in June 2014. This means that third-country nationals, whose documentation processing has gone beyond a certain time limit, are allowed to work. In Sweden, the duration of procedures is also being addressed as a part of policy (although without the use of benchmarks). For instance, the Swedish National Audit Office has pointed out that immigrants are placed for too long in ‘housing establishments’ before being transferred to a particular municipality for regular residence and integration. This also prompted an assessment of the reasons behind this, which led to the realisation that there was a lack of coordination between the Swedish Migration Board and the municipalities.

¹¹ By the time this report is published, all the Member States will have applied the migrant modules in the Labour Force Survey (2011 and 2014) as a part of an agreement in the European Statistical System. Most countries also have statistics about work and residence permits as part of their administrative data.

¹² To calculate the number of countries that use benchmarks for monitoring integration, countries that were reported to have either official data collection or provide support to research to generate relevant data were counted. Countries where data have been collected for use by, for example, MIPEX, rather than for national integration policy purposes, have not been included.

¹³ The variables concern the labour market, demography, transfers, income, housing, moving patterns, education, health and also elections and electives. Data are freely accessible and combined with background variables such as age, gender, educational background, birth region, duration of stay and reason for immigration. Data cover 1997 onwards.
In France, dedicated statistics have been published, for example by the National Institute of Statistics and Economic Studies (INSEE). The impact of participation by third-country nationals in the integration programme CAI (Contrat d’accueil et intégration) has been assessed, which shows that unemployment drops slowly after signing up for CAI, but it remains high for second-generation migrants (for example, migrants of African descent are twice as likely to be unemployed than first-generation ones). There is less clarity about the way in which data collection is planned and used by policymakers in the UK, even though the data, research and independent reporting on migrant communities have been traditionally rich, since the UK has fewer limitations on gathering ethnic data than, for instance, France.

Given the general emphasis on evidence-based policymaking in EU discourse, the number of countries reported as using benchmarks appears rather low – and could be a signal that Member States should check their practices of generating evidence and using it in their policies. More generally, however, there may be issues with understanding what constitutes benchmarks, and with the transparent use of data in policy planning and evaluation.

Assessing the impact of linking policies

Many Member States have, in fact, applied some sort of coordination between migration, the labour market and integration policies in the period discussed. A natural need for coordination due to the ‘sectoral nature of integration policy’ depends on the extent of a country’s integration measures and administrative traditions (Kraler and Reichel, 2012, p. 48). However, all Member States had to engage in some coordination recently, when reviewing their administrative procedures for integrating work permits (labour market policy area) and residence permits (migration policy area) into a single permit system following the Single Permit Directive 2011/98/EU (European Parliament and Council of the European Union, 2011).

With coordination likely to become routine in policymaking on migration, integration and the labour market, the authors of this report decided to find out if any coordination has been evident so far at national level. The correspondents were asked if there are any studies or monitoring, evaluation and assessment in their country showing the impact of linking policies for third-country nationals in order to promote better integration (Table 12).

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<thead>
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<th>Country</th>
<th>Are there studies addressing the links between policy fields?</th>
<th>Are there benchmarks in place? (to measure integration)</th>
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However, there was no evidence reported of a systematic focus on, and assessment of, linking the policies across the three fields discussed. Instead, the correspondents reported a more general challenge – that of capturing the effects of the national integration strategies. Overall, policy evaluations reported across the EU28 seem to be rather scattered, lacking an evaluation framework, and without the continuity required to be considered as monitoring.

Nevertheless, for seven countries, studies or evaluation reports that address policy coordination challenges have been identified (Denmark, Finland, Lithuania, Malta, Romania, Spain and Sweden). Broadly speaking, the challenges range from raising general issues to specific recommendations and policy adjustments. Examples of general issues can be seen in Malta, where there is limited scope and fragmentation of integration measures, a weak institutional framework and lack of cooperation between institutional stakeholders (Gauci, 2013; Suban and Zammit, 2013; Camilleri and Falzon, 2014). Another type of evaluation is where the assessment of policies is, itself, a product of strong networking and cooperation: for instance, a 2008 Danish study ‘International recruitment: The catalogue of barriers’ was produced by a consultancy with the assistance of a cross-ministerial task force – in which every possible situation was analysed to identify barriers to the recruitment and retention of foreign workers. There is also the example of a 2010 cross-country evaluation carried out by the Nordic Council of Ministers on ‘Recruiting competent work-force from third countries to the North’.

Particular policy measures seem to be regularly and independently evaluated in the Nordic countries by specialised state bodies and independent researchers, with suggestions for measures that require specific links between policy actors. In Finland, a research study has been carried out (Sarvimäki and Hämäläinen, 2010) showing the positive impact of introducing individualised integration plans for migrants. Migrants who opt to participate in an integration programme complete a certain number of training days that are tailored to their needs. The study found that this resulted in higher cumulative earnings of the participants and reduced their dependency on social benefits, compared with those who did not have individual plans.

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<th>Are there studies addressing the links between policy fields?</th>
<th>Are there benchmarks in place? (to measure integration)</th>
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Source: Authors’ own elaboration
In Sweden, the Agency for Public Management and the National Audit Office have been providing specific evaluations of the way integration policies work. First, Sweden's Establishment Reform Act was examined: in addition to the general responsibilities of the public employment service in implementing reforms to assist migrants, a particular point was raised about the need to strengthen the service's local branches so that they could facilitate collaboration and initiate local agreements on integration, including individual integration ('establishment') plans.

Several themes recur in the key conclusions of the national evaluations of integration policy processes. They are provided below, and can be seen as a checklist for planning the issues to address in future assessments.

**Nature of interinstitutional cooperation**

As already noted, the very sectoral nature of integration policy suggests interaction between agencies at an operational level. At a more strategic level, many countries went through a process of developing national migration strategies and national action plans for integration. In this context, although interministerial cooperation was taking place, overarching schemes for it were not evident.

Often, temporary task forces were established to help draw up migration and integration policies. In some Member States, the debates on national migration strategies have highlighted a lack of coordination in the response to migration and integration (Hungary, Lithuania and Malta). In the complex, interinstitutional setting of policy implementation, there are many challenges which could lead to high transactional costs (for instance, in terms of time and efficiency) – either for the end-users (migrants targeted by integration policies) or for the agencies implementing the policies.

One response is the ‘one-stop shop’ principle, tried out in Slovenia (see the case study in Chapter 4). And, as mentioned earlier, in Denmark a benchmark has been applied to assess the time taken up by the administrative procedures – leading, in 2014, to a change in the rules (permitting third-country nationals to work if their documentation process had gone beyond a certain limit).

**Centralisation vs. local responsibilities**

In certain instances, there are clear sectoral divisions of responsibilities, for example, in Germany, between the Federal Labour Ministry and Federal Education Ministry, who publish their own activity reports (in relation to the implementation of NAPI). Apart from the developments in cross-sectoral coordination at federal and regional level, the coordinated policies (such as NAPI) are appreciated by around 70% of municipalities. Coordinated policies at local level in Germany involve chambers of commerce, organisations already engaged in promoting integration or delivering services (the involvement of private actors, apparently, is still limited), and a new, positive, development of involving migrant organisations has also been reported. However, the implementation of the coordinated policies has slowed down due to how funds and responsibilities are distributed between federal, regional and local levels.

In reviewing the national contributions for this study, it also becomes apparent that some Member States have centralised their integration policies (such as Sweden, which put the Public Employment Agency in charge of implementing integration measures), while others, such as Greece, emphasised the need for local measures. This possibly reflects the different ways in which countries have developed their integration policies. However, it could be an important policy development and evaluation area: to assess how best to encourage the development of effective and efficient measures at local level. There is a potential difficulty in striking a balance between what is regulated at national
level and what is addressed at local level. Finding this balance involves the development of professional and financial resources at local level – which could call for an improvement of policy coordination at national level.

Consultation
It is important to tap into the potential of the various actors involved in integration measures and policy coordination, as well as maintaining legitimacy and relevance for the target and stakeholder groups. This is especially important in countries where integration policies are relatively new. For instance, NGOs in Hungary have pointed to inappropriate consultation processes (or none at all) during policymaking. In other cases, an open, joint development of integration policies with wide participation by stakeholders and civil society organisations may have contributed to a continuity of policies and advancement of policy evaluation tools (such as Spain’s Strategic Plan of Citizenship and Integration 2007–2010 and its sequel in 2011–2014 – see next section).

Continuity of monitoring and evaluation
In anticipating developments in integration policies, it may be worthwhile to think about continuity. Countries’ policy development, coordination and monitoring of integration have mostly taken place against a backdrop of efforts to harmonise migration and integration policies across the EU. Part of this process was the development of national strategies and action plans that, to some extent, provided for measures and funds for monitoring and evaluation – and eventually generated valuable information that helped to raise awareness and improve policy measures. Although migration and the integration of migrants are likely to stay high up on the political agenda, what is being done to plan resources and develop standards for policy evaluation is not entirely clear.

This can been seen from the Irish Integration Monitor 2013, which stated:

*This is the final report in a series of four annual Integration Monitors that measure migrant integration in four key life domains: employment, education, social inclusion and active citizenship. The series has been the only regular study to report quantitative, objective indicators of migrant integration in Ireland and, after this report, we are not aware of any plans to monitor integration in the future.*

(McGinnity et al, 2014)

Overall, it is apparent that there is some form of data collection and reporting on policy implementation taking place in all Member States. In some cases, this involved an evaluation of policies, including conclusions on the need for improvements to policy coordination. However, in the context of this report, it was not possible to assess what effect any such conclusions have had (or will have) on policy changes. It is often not clear whether future reporting is designed to produce a one-off compilation of the available data or, also, to include an emphasis on measuring change and using benchmarks. One example to consider is the Spanish 2011–2014 policy cycle in the Strategic Plan of Citizenship and Integration (PECI), which included a review and evaluation of how the previous cycle, for 2007–2010, was implemented.\(^\text{14}\)

\(^\text{14}\) PECI 2007–2010 was assessed as lacking a defined monitoring and evaluation system; the 2011–2014 edition includes a system comprising four types of indicators: baseline indicators, progress indicators, outcome (results) indicators and impact indicators.
Policy coordination

Coordinating Member States’ different policies on integration, migration and the labour market is highly complex. There is no doubt that easier transport and communication networks promote more fluid migration. Migrants of many nationalities and cultural backgrounds come to Europe to be with their families, to search for work or to seek asylum. The increased diversity of migrants, and of migration trends, puts pressure on the adaptability of policies. This all requires legislation and effective governance, and consideration needs to be given to the mismatch between the skills that migrants have and the demands of the labour market.

The Member States that take in these migrants are also very heterogeneous. They have different welfare models and various approaches to migration and integration which are constantly adapting to the challenges they face. There are also the different operational levels within individual countries that have a role to play in migration issues. For example, the local level is becoming increasingly involved, as well as a wide array of other stakeholders including the social partners and civil society organisations.

Most Member States report some form of policy coordination on integration or migration, with guidelines or a strategy, programme or action plan spanning several years. Few say they have no such framework. However, a closer look at the links between migration, labour market and integration policies reveals an uneven patchwork of cooperation within the Member States, sometimes leading to a lack of coordination or a coherent approach.

This report reveals a moderate to high correlation between the extent of involvement of various stakeholders and overall policy scores. For instance, countries which link their policies on integration, migration and the labour market, by involving a broad range of actors at multiple levels of governance in an efficient way (coordination index), are also countries which score high on their integration policy outcomes as evidenced by the Migrant Integration Policy Index (MIPEX).

In general, according to the findings, policy coordination has manifested itself in various ways. First, countries that rank highly in terms of best outcomes are also countries which, within policy coordination, focus on integration policy from the outset with both integration outcomes and economic competitiveness in mind.

Secondly, some governments have implemented an approach to immigrant integration referred to as mainstreaming, which means they aim to reach people with an immigrant background through programmes and policies that also target the general population, such as the education system offered by employment services. Mainstreaming can be achieved by adapting governance structures both horizontally and vertically to improve coordination on integration goals or by adapting general policies to incorporate integration priorities into overall objectives.

In general, high-scoring Member States seem to show a preference for a mix between internal horizontal coordination (in the form of inter-agency, inter-ministerial cooperation) and external vertical coordination (multi-level government).

Greater transparency between policy discourse and policy rationale is evident in high-scoring countries. This is in line with the literature supporting the preservation of values throughout the policy process. Positive policy discourse or elements of positive discourse seem to be in place in top-scoring countries.
Policy coordination also depends on maintaining policy coherence during implementation or programme coordination which is key for reaching the objectives set. This applies to both internal and external coherence: internal coherence within the policy programme and among stakeholders – for example, maintaining a specific approach or strategy; and external coherence between different organisations – for example, good cooperation between national and local levels to adapt to any change in the overall strategy.

The stability of institutions and their internal configuration also play a role in maintaining good policy coordination. Putting in place a strong coordination centre (with sufficient resources) that can offer political support is crucial. In addition, in all policy coordination mechanisms, stakeholder commitment throughout each programme is important for its ultimate success.

Political support from designated coordination centres and stakeholders’ commitment is crucial for any programme’s success.

Finally, the migrants’ role also needs to be taken into account in policy coordination. This could mean consulting them and incorporating their input into setting the overall goals of any programme.

**Role and involvement of the social partners**

Regarding the extent and degree of social partner involvement in policy coordination, many governments (Austria, Belgium, Denmark, Ireland, Lithuania, Romania and Spain) cooperate with a broad range of stakeholders including employers and, to a lesser extent, trade unions in identifying labour shortages and informing broader migration legislation, particularly that relating to the labour market. There are different frameworks in which policy coordination has been developed. The most common approach is the employers’ needs analysis (as in Germany). Public employment services can also be a platform (as in Sweden). In some countries, the tripartite mechanism has been identified as a platform for consultation (particularly in central and eastern Europe, but also in Luxembourg and Spain). An equal rights agenda serves as a framework for engagement in Finland.

The most widespread programmes supporting workplace integration are those related to language provision (both general and job-specific). In some countries, such programmes are provided and paid for by the social partners (Cyprus and Ireland). In others, local and regional authorities design and provide specific programmes (Denmark). Trade unions are particularly active in providing language learning to migrants in Italy and Malta. Finland, Romania and Spain have measures which focus on general training in the areas of labour law and health and safety.

Employer organisations and individual companies are increasingly active in diversity management in Belgium, Denmark and Germany. This can take the form of agreements with which companies have to comply, or prizes for those which excel at promoting diversity management. In some countries, certain sectors, such as the chemical sector in Germany, have been particularly sensitive on the issue of diversity, with trade unions and employers combining to promote it.

The social partners, especially the trade unions, in Germany and Sweden have used the framework of anti-discrimination to provide a range of programmes on how to carry out non-discriminatory recruitment, including the analysis of necessary skills, the choice of recruitment channels and the interview process.
The approach of the social partners to gathering information about the migrant workforce seems to be sporadic and fragmented in Austria and Croatia, and only Malta and Spain have a systematic approach. The situation also varies within the countries. In Finland, Ireland and Italy, the social partners have carried out occasional surveys to learn more about their membership composition. Although the number of migrant workers is increasing, few trade unions have a strategic overall objective to increase the number of their migrant members. Two countries that are notable exceptions are Ireland and the UK where unions have made a considerable and systematic effort to increase unionisation among the migrant workforce. In other countries, measures to do this have been implemented on a rather makeshift basis. In most cases, activities and initiatives are aimed directly at migrant workers rather than at simplifying the unions’ own internal procedures and structures. Respondents to the survey cited the cost of membership, the unions’ use of formal language and their internal procedures as barriers to joining. A lack of awareness about the benefits of being in a trade union was also flagged up.

However, the social partners have started to pay more attention to issues that go beyond the area of work. In some countries, the involvement of the social partners in the field of integration is implemented through a structured framework, while in others it is done on a case-by-case basis. The social partners have been actively shaping integration policies in Portugal and Slovenia. In Denmark, they have created websites to help migrants in all aspects of living and working in the country. In some countries, their involvement is sparked by a particular issue. For example, vocational training issues have triggered the involvement of the social partners in Germany, Norway and Spain, while issues surrounding migrant children have also been dealt with by the social partners in Germany, Greece and Portugal.

Monitoring and evaluation

While individual countries differ in how they collect and use the information about migrant integration, the so-called Zaragoza indicators set, agreed by the Member States in 2010, has slowly become an established instrument, which is evident in the way statistics are published. Given the general emphasis on evidence-based policymaking in the EU, the number of countries reported as using benchmarks appears rather low. This could possibly be seen as a warning for the Member States to check their practices of generating evidence and using it in policy design. More generally, understanding what constitutes benchmarks could be improved, as well as transparency in how available data are used in policy planning and evaluation.

This report did not find evidence of any systematic attention to, or assessment of, linking policies across the three fields discussed. Instead, it observed a more general challenge: that of capturing the effects of national integration strategies. Overall, policy evaluations reported across the EU28 seem to be rather scattered, lacking a framework, or any continuity, that could be considered as monitoring. Nevertheless, for seven countries, studies or evaluation reports that address policy coordination challenges have been identified (Denmark, Finland, Lithuania, Malta, Romania, Spain and Sweden). Broadly, the challenges range from raising general issues to specific recommendations and policy adjustments. An independent evaluation of particular policy measures seems to be a regular tool in the Nordic countries, with a range of evaluations from specialised state bodies and independent researchers pointing to measures that require specific links between policy actors.
In a complex, interinstitutional setting of policy implementation, there are many challenges which could lead to high ‘transactional costs’ (for instance, in terms of time and efficiency), either for the end-users (migrants targeted by integration policies) or for the agencies implementing the policies. One response is the ‘one-stop shop’ principle tried out in Slovenia (see the case study in Chapter 4). In Denmark, a benchmark has been applied to assess the time taken by administrative procedures, leading, in 2014, to a change in the rules permitting third-country nationals to work if their documentation process has gone beyond a certain limit.

Some Member States have centralised their integration policies (such as Sweden, which put the Swedish Public Employment Service in charge of integration measures), while others, such as Greece, emphasised the need for local measures. Possibly, this reflects different experiences and the different ways in which integration policies have developed in particular countries. However, it could be important to assess how to encourage the development of effective and efficient measures at local level. This would require the development of professional and financial resources at local level – and an improvement of policy coordination at national level.

Overall, it is apparent that some form of data collection and reporting on policy implementation has occurred in all Member States. In some cases, this involved an evaluation of policies, including conclusions on the need for improvements to policy coordination. However, it was not possible to assess what effect these policy evaluations have had, or will have, in any policy changes. It is often not clear whether future reporting is designed to produce a one-off compilation of the available data, or also to include an emphasis on measuring change and using benchmarks.

Policy pointers

For Member States to succeed at coordinating their policies, they need to think beyond the institutional and political status quo and initiate a shift in the understanding of global challenges. In designing their migration-related policies, Member States should think more holistically at the start of the process about the end outcomes that go beyond the labour market and encompass integration too – this could lead to better planning and yield better overall outcomes.

Notwithstanding the challenges related to the overall policymaking and the governance structures that Member States face on a daily basis, it is important to maintain policy coherence and the stability of the process when implementing policy or programme coordination.

Stakeholders, and especially the social partners, could make the most of existing and well-tested national settings such as tripartite consultations to become more involved in the debate on immigration, diversity management and the expanding area of equal rights and anti-discrimination.

Trade unions should reflect on how to boost the participation of migrant workers at all levels within their structures, with the aim of having members across a range of activities and posts. This could be achieved by several methods, including talent-spotting and mentoring. Trade unions may also want to consider the need for collecting more information about migrant workers, which could assist them in the bigger challenges of dealing with a growing segmentation of the labour market, and the increase in precarious work.

Trade unions could also consider paying attention to measures that focus on their internal procedures and not only on users. This can include rethinking the costs related to becoming a trade union
member, the often complex language used in policies and procedures, the importance of intercultural training and the use of multicultural personnel in dealing with the migrant workforce. Trade unions could examine the provision of more relevant services, for instance developing services that are more sensitive to the needs of migrant workers.

The social partners should reflect on whether the external activities that they are engaged in, such as collective bargaining, consultation and campaigns in the general policy discourse, could improve the working and living conditions of migrants.

Member States should pay more attention to checking their practices of generating evidence and applying it in policy implementation. There may also be a need to increase both the understanding of benchmarks and transparency in the use of available data in policy planning and evaluation.

Policymakers should assess how best to encourage the development of effective and efficient local-level measures. Finding this balance may involve the development of professional and financial resources at local level, which may also call for some improvement in policy coordination at national level.
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Annex: Final questionnaire

Part one: Third-country nationals in the population

1. Third-country nationals (TCNs): population figures

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>TCNs as a % of population</th>
<th>Number of TCNs</th>
<th>Number of TCNs that immigrated in a given year*</th>
<th>Nationality 1 (replace with name)</th>
<th>Nationality 2 (replace with name)</th>
<th>Nationality 3 (replace with name)</th>
<th>Other</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2008</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

* or total number of foreigners, if TCN figure not available.

Provide full source references: …

2. Information about the main sectors and industries with high share of employees – third-country nationals

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NACE Rev.2 sectors</th>
<th>TCNs as a % of total number in labour force in a given sector</th>
<th>Foreigners as a % of total number in labour force in a given sector</th>
<th>Year of statistics</th>
<th>Comments</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sector 1 – at 2 digit level of NACE</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Figure for the total sector at 1 digit level, where the above sector belongs</td>
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<tr>
<td>Sector 2 – at 2 digit level of NACE</td>
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<tr>
<td>Figure for the total sector at 1 digit level, where the above sector belongs</td>
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<tr>
<td>Sector 3 – at 2 digit level of NACE</td>
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<tr>
<td>Figure for the total sector at 1 digit level, where the above sector belongs</td>
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<tr>
<td>Sector 4 – at 2 digit level of NACE</td>
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<tr>
<td>Figure for the total sector at 1 digit level, where the above sector belongs</td>
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<tr>
<td>Sector 5 – at 2 digit level of NACE</td>
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<tr>
<td>Figure for the total sector at 1 digit level, where the above sector belongs</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Provide full source reference where detailed information about presence of TCNs across NACE sectors is available.

Comments about the presence of TCNs across the sectors: …
Part two: Migration, labour market and integration policies – links, relationship between different policies

Regulation and management of migration, labour market and integration is one of the most challenging, sensitive and complex public policy issues. Many actors (national, regional and local) are involved with sometimes diverging long-term interests. This part will contribute to the overview of mechanisms that link various policy domains (migration, labour market, integration), focusing on how these mechanisms are established, who is involved in decision-making, and what mechanisms exist for the assessment and review.

2.1. Discourse

1. What have been the most important trends in the general policy and societal discourse regarding third-country nationals over the period of 2008-present?

   a. Please provide a brief description of the general discourse (maximum 150 words) with full source references to studies, surveys, articles etc. First, refer to studies or reports that analysed media or policy documents; second, refer to key examples of the discourse such as articles, programmes etc.

   b. Characterise specifically and compare how prominent in the general discourse were the topics of:

      i. labour immigration as a way to address labour shortages

      ii. better integration, promoting labour market participation of TCN residents in the country

Please provide key debate issues, list them briefly and provide links to key sources.

2. Have there been any policy initiatives or measures taken by the governments or the social partners in response to the general discourse, such as information campaigns or awareness-raising over the period of 2008-present?

   a. At national level: Yes/no

   b. At regional/local level: Yes/no

   c. If yes, please provide a brief description of the general discourse (max 150 words) with full source references to studies, surveys, articles etc.

2.2. Policy and policy coordination

3. Main policy tools for the selection of TCNs – identify if any of these tools exist in your country, and have there been revisions/changes to them during 2008-present (a period of economic downturn in many countries). Publication: Satisfying labour demand through migration published by the European Migration Network provides an overview of tools and mechanisms used by Member States. You may want to consult the publication for sources and references:


<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of policy measure</th>
<th>Official name and reference</th>
<th>Date when it was first introduced</th>
<th>Were there any updates, revisions during 2008-present? Y/N</th>
<th>The date of last revision</th>
<th>Comments</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lists of occupations open for TCNs to immigrate for</td>
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<td>Points system</td>
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<td>Other - specify:</td>
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<td>Other - specify:</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
4. What are the policy coordination mechanisms, structures or other measures, used by governments to link the TCN-related policies across the following fields of policy regulation: immigration, labour market and integration?

Please focus on one or two most prominent examples.

a. NONE
b. Specify:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Official name and reference (begin with national, continue with regional)</th>
<th>National or regional</th>
<th>Date when it was first introduced</th>
<th>Were there any updates, revisions during 2008-present? Y/N</th>
<th>The date of last revision</th>
<th>Comments</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

5. Taking the examples from point 4 (above) please provide brief answers to the following questions including full source references: (maximum 300 words)

a. What was the rationale to establish the policy coordination (in relation to the measures listed above)?
b. Which institution was the driving force behind such an approach?
c. Please describe the process of setting up, implementation, mechanisms etc.
d. What were the key actors, forms and extent of stakeholder involvement in mechanisms applied by Member States?
e. Are any of the above focused on specific sectors?
f. What were the main barriers, challenges in establishing links between policies?

6. At the national level, has there been any connection with sending countries, or any bilateral agreements? (for example German–Turkish agreement on pre-departure training policies – please do not limit yourself to only this type of example) (maximum 50 words)

a. Yes/no
b. If yes, please provide relevant information with full source references

7. In the area of temporary labour migration measures, are there any provisions to facilitate integration of labour migrants? (maximum 50 words)

a. Yes/no
b. If yes, please provide relevant information with full source references

8. Has any of the coordinated approach been driven by the EU policies? (maximum 100 words)

a. Yes/no
b. If yes, please provide relevant information with full source references
Challenges of policy coordination for third-country nationals

Part three: Role of the social partners

The social partners are an intrinsic part of the workplace and they are increasingly more involved in wider societal issues and have to deal with the growing diversity of the workforce. In the following section, the national context and general involvement of the social partners in policymaking should be taken into account.

1. Are the social partners (both employers and trade unions) involved in setting up, implementation of:
   (maximum 100 words)
   a. migration policy i.e. being involved/consulted on how to organise access to the labour market for third-country nationals
   b. labour market policy including being part of the assessment of labour needs
   c. integration policy
   d. coordinated approach encompassing the different policies
      i. Yes/no
      ii. If yes, please provide relevant information on the mechanisms of involvement with full source references

2. Are the social partners (employers and trade unions) involved in the non-labour migration matters related to third-country nationals? In many Member States the social partners define themselves as organisations which not only deal with direct labour market issues but also deal with integration questions, for example support with housing, public transport, quality of public services, education or professional training.
   a. Yes/no
   b. If yes, please provide relevant information with full source references

3. Are employers/trade unions active in providing programmes for migrant integration at the workplace? (For example, providing language courses)
   a. Yes/no
   b. If yes, please provide relevant information with full source references

Points 2 and 3 should not exceed 150 words

4. Do trade unions and employers collect information about migrant workers among their members/staff?
   a. Yes/no
   b. If yes, please provide information about the reasons for collecting information
   c. If yes, please provide relevant information with full source references

5. Do trade unions have specific outreach programme to increase their migrant workers membership?
   a. Yes/no
   b. If yes, please provide relevant information with full source references

Points 4 and 5 should not exceed 150 words

6. Are there any examples of bilateral agreements between the social partners in origin and host countries to provide legal assistance, advice and targeted support to migrants from the involved countries to promote labour and social inclusion? (maximum 100 words)
   a. Yes/no
   b. If yes, please provide relevant information with full source references
   c. If such agreements exist do they involve specific groups, specific sectors or specific types of support or services?
   d. If yes, please provide relevant information with full source references
Part four: Local level

Employment and social integration happens at the local level. Increasingly, the local dimension (as a governance issue) is more visible and important in the policymaking. This section seeks to investigate whether there are initiatives/policies that link different policies relevant for third-country nationals at a local level. In addressing this section please focus on the substantial, most promising examples starting with the national measures that are being implemented at the local level. This section should be no longer than 500 words.

1. Are there any initiatives/policies, innovative approaches (at the local level) that aim to provide a coordinated approach towards third-country nationals?
   a. Yes/no
   b. If yes, please provide relevant information with full source references

2. Are there any policies or mechanisms by local governments or the social partners that target the families or spouses of the TCN employees?
   a. Yes/no
   b. If yes, please provide relevant information with full source references

3. Are there any initiatives such as a one-stop shop that provide services that merge the employment/social and legal advice/support?
   a. Yes/no
   b. If yes, please provide relevant information with full source references

4. Are public employment service (PES) engaged in providing support to third-country nationals?
   a. Yes/no
   b. If yes, please provide relevant information with full source references focusing on the most prominent programmes

5. Are private recruitment agencies involved in the provision of other non-labour-related services? For example in helping/assisting with housing arrangements?
   a. Yes/no
   b. If yes, please provide relevant information with full source references

Part five: Monitoring and evaluation

(This section should be no longer than 300 words)

1. Are there any studies, of monitoring, evaluation and assessment, showing the impact of linking policies for third-country nationals in order to promote better integration of migrants?
   a. Yes/no
   b. If yes, please provide relevant information with full source references

2. Are there benchmarks currently in place to measure (integration)?
   a. Yes/no
   b. If yes, please provide relevant information with full source references

3. Key conclusions of existing evaluations. Please provide a summary of the key findings that focus explicitly on the coordination of policies. (maximum 100 words)
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Migration is a major policy concern at national and European level. However, while Member States have put in place specific regulations to deal with certain aspects, the overall architecture of migration-related policies is perceived as a challenge. In recent months, the significant inflow of refugees has profoundly changed the situation in Europe. Most countries have been grappling with how to respond to the immediate needs of asylum seekers in a comprehensive and coordinated way, while taking into account the longer-term issue of integration. It has become clear to all parties that the ongoing challenges of responding to labour shortages and demographic change are here to stay and also require comprehensive policies. This report focuses on third-country nationals and looks at how policies related to migration, the labour market and integration are coordinated. It reviews how policy coordination works in practice, with a focus on the social partners and local-level initiatives.

The European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions (Eurofound) is a tripartite European Union Agency, whose role is to provide knowledge in the area of social and work-related policies. Eurofound was established in 1975 by Council Regulation (EEC) No. 1365/75, to contribute to the planning and design of better living and working conditions in Europe.