



Co-funded by the
Erasmus+ Programme
of the European Union

Transnational analysis
of integration policies,
professional training
and good practices for
migrants' insertion in
the labour market

Project Number: 2020-1-LU01-KA204-063262



Acknowledgement

This paper has received funding from the European Commission under Grant Agreement—2020-1-LU01-KA204-063262, ERASMUS+ Strategic Partnership project “Mutualizing generational competencies for training migrants in Europe: Pathways for social mobility, autonomy and welfare of vulnerable individuals”.

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Date of publication: August 2021

Index

The European Report	3
1. The Integration Policies	3
1.1. Immigration at the European level	3
1.2. Reference to partner countries	5
1.3. Welcoming Policies	6
1.4. Language Learning	12
1.5. Citizenship	15
1.6. Political rights	21
2. The Educational Policies	26
2.1. Access to Education / Professional training	26
2.2. Participation rate	30
2.3. Obstacles (geographical, language barriers etc.)	32
2.4. Certification	34
3. Access to the Labour Market	37
3.1. Predominant jobs accessed by migrants	37
3.2. Recognition or not of previous work experiences	40
3.3. Predominant types of work contracts	44
3.4. Unemployment rates among migrants	46
3.5. Entrepreneurship conditions	48
4. Good practices	51
4.1. Collaborative initiatives (between state and local organisations)	51

4.2. Individual initiatives	51
4.3. Organisational initiatives	51
4.4. Local initiatives	51
5. References	52

1

The Integration Policies

The European Report

1. The Integration Policies

1.1. Immigration at the European level

Refugee movements and migration are in the global spotlight. In recent years, Europe has had to react to the most serious migration challenge since the end of the Second World War. The unprecedented arrival of refugees and irregular migrants in the EU, which peaked in 2015, exposed a number of shortcomings and gaps in the EU's asylum, external borders, and migration policies. In response to these challenges, the EU has initiated a broader reform process to restructure its asylum and migration policies based on four pillars: reducing the incentives for irregular migration by tackling its root causes, improving returns and dismantling smuggling and trafficking networks; saving lives and securing external borders; establishing a robust EU asylum policy and providing more legal avenues for asylum seekers as well as more efficient legal channels for regular migrants.

In January 2020 there were 447.3 million inhabitants living in the EU, and 23 million were non-EU citizens (5.1% of EU's total population). Nearly 37 million people were born outside the EU (8.2% of all EU inhabitants).

A total of 4.2 million people immigrated to one of the EU Member States during 2019, while 2.7 million emigrants were reported to have left an EU Member State. However, these total figures do not represent the migration flows to/from the EU as a whole since they also include flows between the different EU Member States. In 2019, there were an estimated 2.7 million immigrants to the EU from non-EU countries and about 1.2 million people emigrated from the EU to a country outside the EU. In addition, 1.4 million people previously residing in one EU Member State migrated to another Member State.

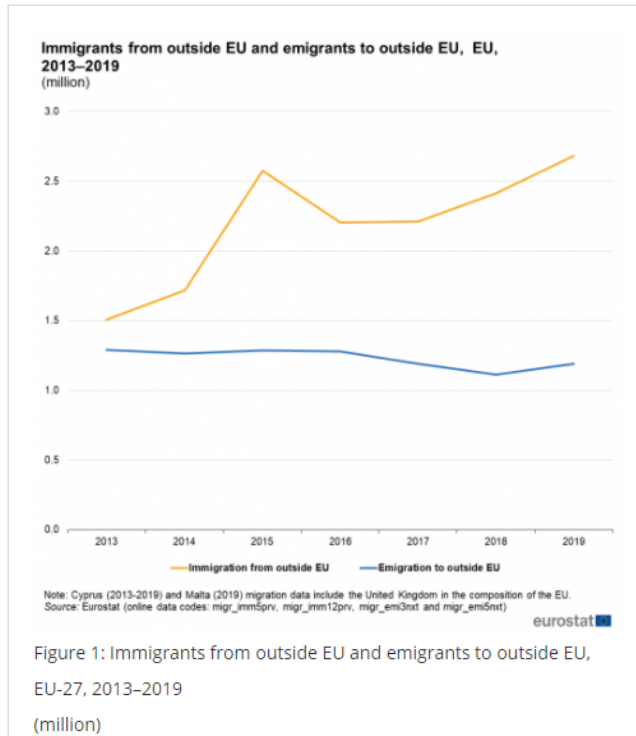


Fig. 1: Immigrants from outsider EU and emigrants to outsider EU

In 2015 and 2016, over 2.3 million illegal crossings were detected. The total number of illegal crossings of the EU's external borders fell to around 124,000, translating into the lowest level since 2013 and a 13% drop compared to 2019. The largest group was made up of Syrians, followed by Moroccans, Tunisians, and Algerians.

Monthly Mediterranean sea and land arrivals, 2015 to 2020

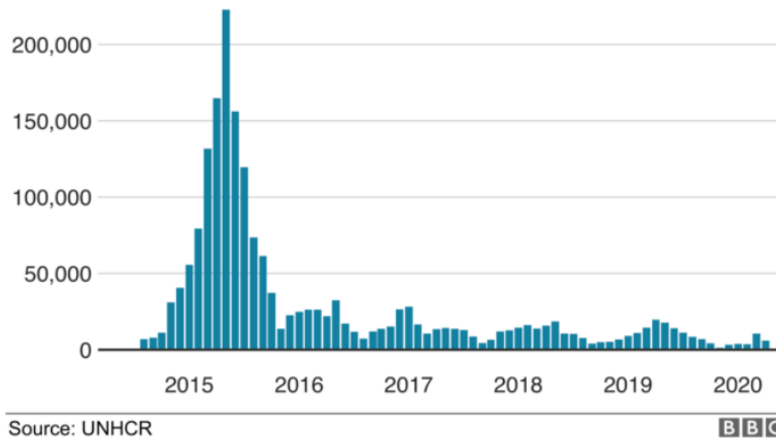


Fig. 2: Monthly Mediterranean sea and land arrival, 2015 to 2020

In 2019, there were 2.712.477 refugees in Europe, and in 2020, 471.300 asylum applications were counted in the EU, which is 32.6% less compared to 2019. In 2018, there were 634.700 applications, a figure that is substantially lower than the more than one million applications seen in 2015 and 2016.

As can be seen, the record migration flows to the EU verified during 2015 and 2016 decreased at the end of 2017 and in 2018. However, in order to deliver what the European Commission calls an effective, fair, and robust EU migration policy, the EU, on the basis of the Treaties and other legal and financial instruments, has been implementing both immediate and longer-term measures. Europe, due to its geographical position and its reputation as an example of stability, generosity, and openness against a background of increasing international and internal conflicts, climate change, and global poverty, is likely to remain an ideal refuge for asylum seekers and migrants.

For this reason, integration and inclusion are key for people coming to Europe, for local communities, and for the long-term well-being of our societies and the stability of our economies. If we want to help our societies and economies thrive, we need to support everyone who is part of society, with integration being both a right and a duty for all. It is therefore the duty of the European Member States to ensure effective integration and

inclusion in the EU of migrants. This is a social and economic investment that makes European societies more cohesive, resilient, and prosperous.

Migrants and EU citizens with a migrant background play a key role in the European economy and society. The COVID-19 crisis has made their contribution all the more evident. Many helped address the crisis as workers in essential services, doctors, and nurses. At the same time, they are among those who are more exposed to the pandemic. The EU will need everyone's contribution to the recovery and resilience of our economies in the aftermath of COVID-19. It is therefore not only a moral duty in line with the EU's fundamental values, but also an economic imperative to step up action in promoting integration and inclusion. As shown by recent research, fully integrating migrants into the labor market could generate large economic gains, including fiscal profits, contributions to national pension schemes, and national welfare in general.

1.2. Reference to partner countries

In France 2018, 6.5 million immigrants were living —9.7% of the total population (67 million). 4.1 million were foreign nationals and 2.4 million, or 37%, had acquired French citizenship. In 2018, 13% of immigrants in France were born in Algeria; 11.9% in Morocco; 9.2% in Portugal; 4.4% in Tunisia; 4.3% in Italy; 3.8% in Turkey; and 3.7% in Spain. Half of France's immigrants (50.3%) come from these seven countries.

In 2019, Portugal was hosting 590.348 immigrants who were holders of resident visas (O.M. p. 56), representing 5,7 percent of the total of residents in Portugal, 10.295.909 individuals to be more precise (O.M. p. 56, 61, 65). Most immigrants in Portugal come from: Brazil (25,6% of the immigrant population in Portugal, with 151.304 residents); Cape Verde (6,3% of the immigrant population in Portugal, with 37.436 residents); United Kingdom (5,8% of the immigrant population in Portugal, with 34.358 residents); Romania (5,3% of the immigrant population in Portugal, with 31.065 residents); Ukraine (5% of the immigrant population in Portugal, with 29.718 residents); China (4,7% of the immigrant population in Portugal, with 27.839 residents); Italy (4,3% of the immigrant population in Portugal, with 25.408 residents); France (3,9% of the immigrant population in Portugal, with 23.125 residents); Angola (3,8% of the immigrant

population in Portugal, with 22.691 residents); Guinea Bissau (3,2% of the immigrant population in Portugal, with 18.886 residents).

In the year 2019, Luxembourg registered a net increase of 12,214 people in its total population. As of the 1st of January 2020, 626,108 inhabitants residing in the Grand Duchy. 47.4% of this figure are foreigners and 52.6% are Luxembourgish. Based on 2020 total registered attestations, 3,402 (23.63%) were for France, followed by Portugal with 3,335 (23.17%), Italy with 1,665 (11.57%), and Belgium with 922 (6.40%) (MAEE, 2020, p. 12). Despite the French influx into the Grand Duchy, the Portuguese overall remain the first most powerful community in Luxembourg in terms of foreign population (95516).

According to the data provided by the Ministry of the Interior, examined in the Caritas 2020 Report, the residence permits valid as of 1 January 2020 are 3,438,707, 61.2% of which were issued in Northern Italy (in particular 36, 1% in North West and 25.1% in the North East), 24.2% in the Center, 10.8% in the South and 3.9% in the Islands. The five countries of origin prevalent among the holders of residence permits are, in order, Morocco (about 400,000 citizens), Albania (390,000), China (289,000), Ukraine (227,000), and India, with just under 160 thousand residents. According to UNHCR, the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees, most migrants who land on the Italian coasts come from countries in sub-Saharan Africa, overcoming many obstacles, last, of all, the Mediterranean Sea. Among the countries of origin, there are Nigeria (19% come from this country), Eritrea (13% of migrants who land in Italy come from the former Italian colony in the Horn of Africa), Sudan (Sudanese migrants are about 7%), Gambia (7% of migrants arriving), Ivory Coast (7% of migrants come from here) and Somalia (5% of the people arriving).

In the case of Greece, after the massive influx of immigrant populations recorded in 2015, when more than one million people seeking international protection, mostly from Syria, Afghanistan, Pakistan and Iraq, entered Greece through Turkey, in recent years migration flows have relatively decreased. For example, the total number of incoming refugees in 2018 was 50.508 people, in 2019 was 74.613 people and in 2020 the relevant number was 15.696 people. According to UNHCR data, in 2021 (last updated 18 July 2021) the total arrivals of refugees in Greece were only 4,109. The majority of new arrivals in 2021 are from Afghanistan (596), Somalia (310) and the Democratic

Republic of Congo (136). Similar to last year, the majority of arrivals from Afghanistan, Syria and the Democratic Republic of Congo arrived in family groups. In terms of the reason/purpose for third-country nationals' presence in Greece, 57 percent of males have a particular type of permit which includes 10-year or indefinite licenses. In Greece, there is a strong trend of permits ranging from work (for males) and family reunification (for women) to 10-year or indefinite length, indicating that Greece's migrant population has stabilized and is primarily long-term established.

1.3. Welcoming Policies

As an immediate first response to the unprecedented levels of migration flows into Europe in 2015, the European Commission adopted a ten-point Action Plan on Migration in April 2015, which was also endorsed by the Council and the European Parliament. As the measures contained in the plan proved insufficient, the Commission adopted the European Agenda on Migration in May 2015, providing immediate and long-term concrete measures to establish a robust EU asylum policy, save lives and secure external borders, reduce incentives for irregular migration, provide more legal avenues for asylum seekers and ensure cooperation with third countries. Parliament has adopted numerous own-initiative resolutions on migration, notably its resolution of 12 April 2016 on the situation in the Mediterranean and the need for a holistic EU approach to migration, and its resolution of 5 April 2017 on "Addressing refugee and migrant movements: the role of EU external action". These resolutions assess the different policies concerned and develop a set of recommendations.

The EU's competence in the area of integration is limited. In July 2011, the Commission adopted the European Agenda for the Integration of Third-Country Nationals. More recently, the Commission presented in November 2020 an Action Plan on Integration and Inclusion for 2021-2027, which sets out a framework of concrete measures and initiatives to help Member States integrate and include the estimated 34 million third-country nationals legally residing in the EU territory, in terms of education, employment, healthcare, and housing. The plan brings together accompanying measures and the use of new digital tools, as well as efforts to promote migrants' participation in society, increase EU funding opportunities and build multi-stakeholder partnerships at various levels of governance. Among the instruments in place are: the

European Migration Forum, the European Integration Portal, the European Integration Network, and the newly established expert group on migrants' views in the field of migration, asylum, and integration, which met for the first time in November 2020.

Currently, the EU is governed by the Action Plan on Integration and Inclusion 2021-2027 and here the guidelines for integration and reception policies for migrants at the EU level are outlined. This action plan is part of the comprehensive response to tackling the challenges linked to migration put forward in the New Pact on Migration and Asylum. This action plan covers all the different stages and phases of the integration process: pre-departure measures, reception and early integration, long-term integration, and the building of inclusive and cohesive societies. It takes into account the different situations of migrant populations in the Member States and supports the Member States and other relevant stakeholders in finding an adequate response in their integration and inclusion policies.

This action plan builds upon, among other things, the achievements of the 2016 Commission action plan on the integration of third-country nationals. Following its adoption, the Commission put in place more than 50 concrete actions to support the Member States and other key stakeholders across a broad spectrum of policy areas: pre-departure/pre-arrival measures, education, employment, and vocational training, access to basic services, active participation, and social inclusion. The Commission also strengthened its tools for coordination, funding, and monitoring. In the many Member States, the action plan contributed to the development or review of national integration strategies and provided information on the use of funding for integration. In a number of cases, tailor-made technical support was provided to national authorities in designing and implementing integration policy reforms.

Actions in main sectorial areas:

Education and training

Improve participation and achievement in education through:

- a new toolkit with practical guidance on inclusion in ECEC to be published at the beginning of 2021;

- targeted support for teachers to develop competencies for dealing with cultural, religious, and linguistic diversity in classrooms under the Erasmus Teacher Academies;
- peer learning and peer counseling activities to support the Member States in designing and implementing effective inclusive education policies in the European Education Area;
- providing targeted training for youth workers to acquire the skills specifically required for supporting the integration of young migrants.

Improve the recognition of qualifications through:

- fostering cooperation between national authorities in charge of integration and national centers for the recognition of qualifications (ENIC-NARIC networks);
- Supporting transparent recognition practices of qualifications of refugees through the Erasmus Programme;
- promoting exchanges between the Member States on providing complementary/bridging courses for migrants;
- providing information on recognition practices and on skills and qualifications for migrants using the full potential of the Europass portal;
- promoting the transparency of qualifications systems, including through the European Qualifications Framework.

Work with the Member States to further develop comprehensive and accessible language learning programs, including intermediate and advanced courses, through funding and exchanges of experiences.

Promote exchanges between the Member States on successful approaches to civic orientation courses.

Employment and skills

Work with social and economic partners to promote a multi-stakeholder approach to labor market integration through the European Partnership for Integration.

Support employers through exchanges and peer-to-peer learning, building on the Employers together for integration initiative.

Provide support for inclusive entrepreneurship under InvestEU for both women and men, including migrant entrepreneurs, and foster inclusive mentoring schemes.

Facilitate assessment and validation of skills through:

- Sharing and scaling up practices on skills assessment through the European Integration Network, the European Network of Public Employment Service, and the updated Europass platform.
- Further developing the EU Skills Profile Tool for Third Country Nationals and promoting its use among public authorities and other organizations, including before arrival, particularly in the case of resettlement and complementary pathways.

Support people with a migrant background under the upcoming Citizens, Equality, Rights, and Values program.

Health

Promote access to health care services for migrants through:

- Funding dedicated projects under the Asylum, Migration and Integration Fund and inclusion actions addressed to people with a migrant background under the upcoming Citizens, Equality, Rights and Values program;
- Working with the Member States to foster equal access to quality and affordable healthcare services through EU funds such as the European Social Fund Plus and the European Regional Development Fund.

Support and promote exchanges between the Member States on:

- Prevention and health promotion programs specifically targeting migrants, with suitable outreach tools;

- Access to mental health and rehabilitation services.

Housing

Cooperation with the Member States to promote non-segregated adequate and affordable housing, including social housing, and to provide accompanying integration services through EU funds, in particular under European Regional Development Fund, European Social Fund Plus, Asylum and Migration Fund, and InvestEU.

Promote mutual learning between the Member States, cities, villages, and regions on fighting discrimination on the housing market and reducing residential segregation through the European Integration Network, the Urban academy for integration, and dedicated funding under the Asylum and Migration Fund.

Promote models of autonomous housing (rather than collective housing) for asylum applicants, especially families, and disseminate and scale up successful innovative models of inclusive and affordable housing for beneficiaries of international protection.

With this action plan, the Commission sets out a strong framework to strengthen and step up integration and inclusion policies across the EU, thus contributing to the broader social inclusion agenda, drawing also on other relevant strategies and actions in the field of education, culture, employment, non-discrimination, and equality. In implementing this action plan, the Commission will work closely with the Member States, local and regional authorities, civil society organizations, social and economic partners, the private sector, host communities, diaspora organizations, and migrants.

France has made available to prospective immigrants a pathway that begins even before they arrive in France. A whole plan of accompaniment upon arrival and an integration plan over several years is available to immigrants. The country has to offer: a “Before arriving in France” that consists in an information booklet “*Venir Vivre en France*” (Coming to live in France) contains all the information foreigners need to prepare for their arrival in France; it has also a “When arrived in France” that consists in foreigners who are admitted to France for the first time and who wish to remain in the country for a long time must follow a personalized program of republican integration;

The Republican Integration Contract (Contrat d'intégration républicain - CIR), implemented since 2016, the signing of a Republican Integration Contract (CIR) marks the commitment of the foreigner in the Republican integration course which lasts 5 years. The CIR is signed by all foreigners who are newcomers, including refugees and beneficiaries of subsidiary protection, admitted for the first time to reside in France and who wish to settle there permanently; The initial personalized interview that assists foreigners in their integration in France; Civic training, that to better understand the values of the Republic and French society, foreigners are required to participate in civic education. It is composed of 5 themes: the portrait of France, health, employment, parenthood, and housing; Language training (Learning French is an essential condition for integration into French society); and The interview at the end of the CIR- Within three months after the end of the prescribed training courses, the OFII invites the foreign national to an interview at the end of the contract, during which an assessment of the training courses is carried out and the foreign national is provided with new information on the local services that can facilitate the continuation of his/her integration process, and in particular his/her professional integration.

In Portugal, welcoming policies are implemented by *Alto Comissariado para as Migrações*, (ACM.) - High Commission for Migration; *Centros Nacionais de Apoio à Integração de Migrantes* (CNAIM) - National Support Centres for the Integration of Migrants; *Gabinete de Apoio às Políticas Locais de Integração de Migrantes* (GAPLIM) - Local Policy Support Office for the Integration of Migrants; *Núcleo de Apoio à Integração de Refugiados* (NAIR) - Support Unit for the Integration of Refugees. The High Commission for Migration is a public institute that actively participates in implementing public policies on migration, welcoming and integrating refugees and asylum seekers. The National Support Centres for the Integration of Migrants address several difficulties experienced by immigrants regarding the integration process in Portugal and have created mobile teams that meet communities on the field to provide specialized assistance with the support of intercultural mediators (ACM, p. 13). The Local Policy Support Office for the Integration of Migrants promotes Integration policies at the local level, raising the awareness of different actors at the local level regarding reception and integration. Finally, NAIR ensures that refugees are provided with adequate services to fulfill their needs.

In Luxembourg, the 2018 NAP provides a framework for programs and tools to promote social cohesion between Luxembourgers and non-Luxembourgers. It considers the societal, cultural, and economic realities of the country. It equally provides a general framework that is not limited in time but can be revised and readapted over years. This approach is long-term and guarantees continuity while adapting objectives to changing needs and realities on the ground. NAP 2018 has the following guidelines as domains of priority:

- Promoting education, continuing education, and language learning for non-Luxembourgers
- Strengthening the employability of non-Luxembourgers
- Implementation of the shared responsibility for integration with the host society by promoting intercultural exchanges
- Develop welcome measures and social supervision with particular attention to vulnerable persons as well as ensuring access to accommodation (MFAMIGR, p.9 & 12).

To implement the above priorities, there are annual calls for projects opened to national organizations, NGOs, companies, public administrations, schools, etc. For instance, the second round of the 2020 calls focused on how to ease the access of public information to migrants. The 2021 calls focused on two main themes: namely “Diversity and fight against discrimination” and “Language learning and practice”. Besides these annual calls with a fixed and defined framework, any organization can at any time submit a proposal it considers valuable for the well-being of migrants to ONA.

Furthermore, to accompany governmental efforts and to see into the successful implementation of welcoming and integration policies, the state created a non-mandatory welcoming contract to be signed by any immigrant with prospects of a permanent stay and who wishes to benefit from the measures provided in the contract. The contract (*Contrat d'accueil et d'intégration* - CAI) aims at promoting integration and the involvement of foreigners in the socio-economic and political life of the country. As services, the contract offers; free civic education courses, more than 85% discount in languages courses in one of Luxembourg's reference languages and, a free orientation day allowing participants to get more acquainted with the country's organizations. Many other bodies exist in Luxembourg that work towards the implementation of the states'

welcoming and integration policies. Among them could be cited, the municipalities, Luxembourg Accueil Association, and the National Council for Foreigners.

Italy on the conditions of the reception system, the decree-law n. 130 of 2020, with the definition of the new "Reception and Integration System" (Italian acronym SAI), which includes the second reception facilities managed by local authorities, to which they can access, within the limits of available places, in addition to the holders of protection international and unaccompanied foreign minors, applicants for international protection, who had previously been excluded. The Legislative Decree provides for a diversification of the System's services based on the type of beneficiaries, redefines the material conditions of the first reception in government centers, and dictates provisions to support integration paths. Specific measures relating to the reception of immigrants have been adopted considering the needs associated with the state of emergency from COVID-19. The legislative decree governs the reception system for migrants in the Italian territory. 142/2015. The current regulatory framework reflects a reception model based on rules defined outside an emergency logic; the migrant reception system is based, first of all, on the principle of loyal collaboration, according to specific forms of national and regional coordination and is divided into different phases. The very first phase consists in first aid, as well as in the identification operations of migrants, especially in the places of disembarkation, ensured in government centers and temporary structures, while the rescue and identification procedures of citizens irregularly arrived in the national territory are carried out at the hotspots, set up in the places of disembarkation.

In the case of Greece, when a third-country national or stateless individual enters the country a predefined reception and identification process is arranged for their safety. This process is coordinated by the Reception and Identification Service (RIS), which originates from the First Reception Service that was established with Law 3907/2011. The RIS is under the jurisdiction of the General Secretariat for Reception of Asylum Seekers from 20.02.2020. It supervises reception and identification processes throughout Greece. Its mission is to provide humane reception and identification procedures for third-country nationals or stateless individuals entering Greece, such as refugees, economic migrants, vulnerable individuals, families, minors or unaccompanied minors. The RIS recognizes and addresses the needs of each group according to relevant legislations defined by Greek laws. The RIS is responsible for

informing migrants of their rights and obligations (the briefing process) and implements procedures that relate to their reception, registration, identification (verification of identity and nationality), medical screening and treatment and psychological support, referral to international protection procedures and any further referral or relocation. When the procedures of reception and identification are complete, third-country entrants are transported from RIC to Facilities in the mainland. Afterwards, they are referred to Regional Asylum Offices - if they have expressed interest to submit an application for international protection, or their deportation/return is initiated. Facilities (Domes) are located in the mainland and offer temporary accommodation to third-country nationals or stateless individuals who have applied for international protection within the territory of Greece. They also host the family members of applicants, minors- whether unaccompanied or not, as well as vulnerable individuals. Overall, thirty two (32) Facilities currently operate throughout Greece.

1.4. Language Learning

Language is an essential aspect of the successful integration of adult migrants into a new society, for languages are a clear outward sign of difference – regardless of their role in language communication and human communication generally – and easily focus attention. It is important that member states base their language policies on the mutual rights and responsibilities of host societies, migrants, and migrants’ states of origin.

When defining integration, the European Commission states that this phenomenon “should be understood as a two-way process based on mutual rights and corresponding obligations of legally resident third-country nationals and the host society” (Commission of the European Communities 2003, p. 17). Nevertheless, the practice of integration is often a unidirectional and assimilative process by which the migrant has to adapt to the host society by becoming part of it. One of the fundamental aspects of this process is linguistic integration into the host country. In reference to this, Europe has witnessed a shift over the years. In the 1990s, the Council of Europe recommended both the learning of the host country’s language and the promotion of the immigrants’ language in order to maintain their identity. However, the current integration policies have put the focus mainly on the acquisition of the host country’s

language, which has become a tool with which to make decisions regarding immigrants' legal status. In this sense, language has acquired a role in migration control.

In several Resolutions and Recommendations, the Council of Europe invites “member governments to make greater efforts to enable all migrant workers [...] to learn the language of the reception country” and “to develop their mother tongues both as educational and cultural instruments and in order to maintain and improve their links with their culture of origin. This latter Recommendation quotes:

D. Language learning by migrants and their families

10. To promote the provision of adequate facilities for migrant workers and the members of their families:

10.1. To acquire sufficient knowledge of the language of the host community for them to play an active part in the working, political and social life of that community, and in particular to enable the children of migrants to acquire a proper education and to prepare them for the transition from full-time education to work;

10.2. To develop their mother tongues both as educational and cultural instruments and in order to maintain and improve their links with their culture of origin.

11. To promote the introduction and development of appropriate initial and further training programs for teachers of languages to migrants, leading to recognized qualifications.

12. To participate in the development of language programs involving cooperation between authorities or other bodies representing the host community, the migrant community, and the country of origin, especially with regard to the production of teaching materials, teacher training, and mother-tongue development.

The European Social Charter includes an element of the integration policies developed during the last decades: Article 19 stresses the necessity „to promote and facilitate the teaching of the national language of the receiving state ...” and to promote and facilitate, as far as practicable, the teaching of the migrant worker’s mother tongue to the children of the migrant worker“. This position is also articulated in the European Convention on the Legal Status of Migrant Workers.

The Council of Europe's project 'Linguistic Integration of Adult Migrants' (LIAM) aims to help member states to develop inclusive language policies based on Council of Europe shared values: respect for human rights and the dignity of the person, democracy, and the rule of law. Effective respect for these fundamental principles requires a coordinated and principled approach to language policy which cuts across different domains of integration policy (social, employment, health...) and an awareness of the mutual rights and responsibilities of migrants and societies. The Council of Europe has elaborated standard-setting instruments and recommendations which set out the principles governing actions in the migration field. These are complemented by language policy guidelines and reference tools developed to support their effective implementation in an inclusive approach based on shared values and principles.

In the last century based on research as well as on political agreements there existed a kind of European consensus as far as integration policy was concerned which could be summarised as follows:

- Integration into the host country requires special provision to enable migrants and their families to learn the language of the host country;
- Integration into the host country implies an adjustment of the legal, social, and economic conditions under which migrants live at the moment of arrival to the standards of the host country;
- Integration includes respect for the languages and cultures of origin of migrants and makes it necessary to develop educational offers to maintain these;
- Integration is an opportunity for the receiving society to use the presence of migrants and their families as an opportunity for cultural opening and enhancement.

European countries have of course implemented such principles in extremely different ways. The teaching of the mother tongue, for example, was mainly offered in order to facilitate the return of migrants to their countries of origin, not primarily because of the human rights aspects.

Language courses addressing migrants' needs are provided in most of the Council of Europe member states. Even so, there is a considerable lack of consistency. The differences between member states primarily relate to the number of hours provided, the cost of the courses, and the extent to which the courses are tailored to specific

learner groups, but there are also considerable differences related to teacher training and quality assurance.

The Council of Europe urges member states to strengthen their cooperation in this field by sharing their experience and practices and involving all stakeholders in the process of developing the relevant training: migrants (through their associations), teachers, educators and politicians. While the principles underlying these integration measures now seem to be generally accepted and clarified, much still remains to be done in terms of their actual implementation. It is necessary to develop common management tools for such training and in particular:

- to gather available sociolinguistic data on migrants' languages as well as to identify and collect available information sources;
- to create reference tools to define training objectives (based on the principles of quality, transparency, and fairness) using the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR);
- to create reference tools to identify adult migrants' language needs in order to define the linguistic objectives of vocational training, together with the objectives of cultural training and intercultural education;
- to devise guidelines for the organization of training and of assessments, tests, and certification;
- to design initial and in-service training schemes for the teachers responsible for the relevant courses and certification.

These tools must be able to guarantee that training is effective and is not some kind of cheap concession to new arrivals. They should make it harder to deflect integration-oriented measures from their purpose.

France's main targeted integration policy is that of the Republican Integration Contract (Contrat d'Intégration Républicaine, CIR). The CIR is obligatory for all third country nationals, including beneficiaries of international protection, who wish to settle in France. The CIR seeks to provide signatories with a personalized integration process. The main tools for integration in the framework of the CIR are a two-day civic course and up to 200 hours of language training courses to reach an A1 level (of the Common European of Reference Framework for Languages).

In Portugal 2001, the Ministry of Education ran the first pilots of the program Portuguese classes for non-natives in the metropolitan area of Lisbon. Since 2006/2007, there is a particular program to learn Portuguese in middle and high school: Portuguese classes for non-natives. This specific program is specifically for middle and high school students and since 2012 has become a mandatory subject of the curricula for middle and high school students, leaving behind its complementary nature. In 2020, another program, "Português para Todos (PPT)" (Portuguese for everyone), was reformulated to include adults, especially immigrants, refugees, and asylum seekers. To complement both programs, since 2016, the platform "português online" (online Portuguese) is an option for learning Portuguese. This platform is a tool that allows the user to develop listening, reading, and writing skills whilst learning and amplifying their vocabulary and grammar knowledge to use the language.

In Luxembourg, language learning is a central feature for the Grand Duchy (Luxembourg) educational system with the principal objective being to overcome cultural barriers and promote plurilingualism for social inclusion and cohesion among inhabitants. This equally holds for adult education. The government's main strategies to meeting these objectives are two folds. During pre-school education and during the two years of compulsory nursery education, teachers speak Lëtzebuergesch as much as possible with them. The ultimate concern is to develop the language skills of all children and of young pupils of foreign origin for whom the school is often the first place of exposure to the Luxembourgish language. For adult language learning, the government by the legislation of 22 May 2009 transformed the Luxembourg language Center (LLC) into the National Institute of Languages (NLI). This is a public administration place under the authority of the Ministry for Education, Children, and Youth.

In Italy, The Provincial Centers for Adult Education (Italian acronym *CPIA*) provide literacy and learning courses of the Italian language to obtain a qualification certifying knowledge of the language not lower than level A2 of the Common European Framework of Reference for understanding languages. They are aimed at improving and spreading the use and mastery of the Italian language among migrants, at promoting the competence of reading and writing in Italian for illiterate subjects also in the mother tongue, at the knowledge of the rights and duties of Italian citizens and

foreigners in Italy and, therefore, to the understanding of the basic principles of the Constitution in comparison with the institutions of the countries of origin.

For the case of Greece, as pointed out in the recent research carried out by the National Center for Social Research titled “From reception to integration: migrant populations in Greece during and in the aftermath of the crisis” (2020)¹, acquiring language skills is considered a priority for participating in the social life and social integration in the country. As pointed out, everything in education starts and ends with language competence as a key tool for integration and equality. However, research findings point out that as far as programmes for the reception and support of migrants and their children are concerned, there are no proper educational structures or language courses which address the needs of migrant populations. The major problems in the provision of language learning programmes for migrants include the fact that most programmes are implemented as pilot projects, without stability, feedback and continuity in the process, they are not organized, staffed or evaluated by people with expertise knowledge and they are not accessible to migrants, either due to lack of information or due to their irregular status. Research findings highlight the significant contribution of educational integration to the social integration of the whole migrant family. As for the institutional framework for addressing the needs of migrant children at school, survey data identify policies that directly or indirectly facilitate the integration of migrants: reception classes, flexible zones, all-day schools, intercultural schools. Problems identified relate to poor migrant-related teachers’ education and the urgent need for special training for teachers working in schools with a strong migrant presence. The latter issue is also related to the development of teaching methods and tools which address the inadequate knowledge of the Greek language by migrant children. In the context of targeted responses to the specific needs of migrants, through formal as well as informal educational integration, special emphasis has been placed on the role of sports, social and cultural activities that take place at school, as well as outside school hours. These activities are considered to make a significant contribution to the integration of migrants and their family members. In summary, the importance of Greek language competence and the full integration of migrant students in the Greek educational system have been brought to the foreground.

1

<https://www.ekke.gr/services/publication/from-reception-to-integration-migrant-populations-in-greece-during-and-in-the-aftermath-of-the-crisis>

1.5. Citizenship

Access to citizenship status is an important prerequisite for enjoying rights and privileges, such as migration and political rights, as well as for developing a sense of identity and belonging.

Since the establishment of Union citizenship, all individuals who are nationals or citizens of an EU Member State enjoy the status of EU citizenship, which confers on them a number of additional rights and privileges. However, Member States retain full control over who can be recognized as a citizen. Although the legal rules on the acquisition and loss of citizenship in the EU Member States remain fairly divergent, one can identify a number of key trends and issues.

The need to integrate long-term immigrants has pushed EU countries to amend their citizenship laws. This often resulted in making citizenship both more liberal (lowering residence requirements and tolerating dual citizenship) and more restrictive (introducing integration clauses and citizenship tests). The surge in terrorist activities in the EU, which involve citizens, prompted the several Member States to revise or reactivate citizenship provisions allowing for citizenship to be revoked.

Citizenship is a complex legal and socio-political concept with three major components: (1) legal status, (2) rights and obligations, and (3) national identity.

1. Firstly, citizenship describes a legal bond between a person and a state. The power to regulate citizenship is an essential and exclusive attribute of state sovereignty, and international law imposes only a few limitations to the right of states to regulate citizenship, in particular with regard to the prohibition of statelessness and the arbitrary deprivation of citizenship.
2. Secondly, the status of citizenship implies a series of rights and obligations. The most important citizenship rights are the right to vote in and to stand in elections, the right to return to one's country of citizenship, and the right to seek diplomatic protection while abroad. While a number of EU countries grant third-country nationals political rights in municipal elections, political rights in national elections remain a privilege reserved for citizens. EU citizens residing

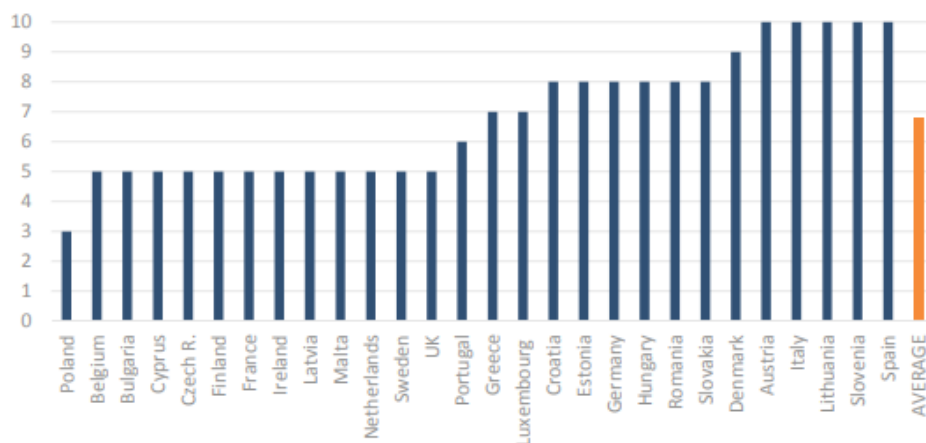
in another EU Member State have the right to vote and stand in the elections for the European Parliament.

3. Thirdly, citizenship is often associated with national identity. While the possession of a particular national (or ethnic) identity was a prerequisite of citizenship in the past, the last half-century has witnessed a gradual liberalization and decoupling of ethnicity and citizenship. However, questions about national identity, citizenship, and belonging have regained the spotlight in the context of recent debates about immigration and integration.

Legal provisions regarding the acquisition of citizenship after birth on the basis of residence (naturalization) are generally complex and cumbersome. We can distinguish between ordinary naturalization – when the primary grounds of acquisition of citizenship is a certain period of residence in the country, and special naturalization – when the acquisition of citizenship is based on other considerations, such as family links, ethnocultural connections, or special contributions.

The minimum period of residence required for naturalization in EU countries ranges from 3 to 10 years. It should be noted that this requirement is often qualified, meaning that only certain types of residence (permanent, continuous, etc.) may count for naturalization purposes.

Figure 2 – Minimum period of residence required for naturalisation in EU-28 (years)

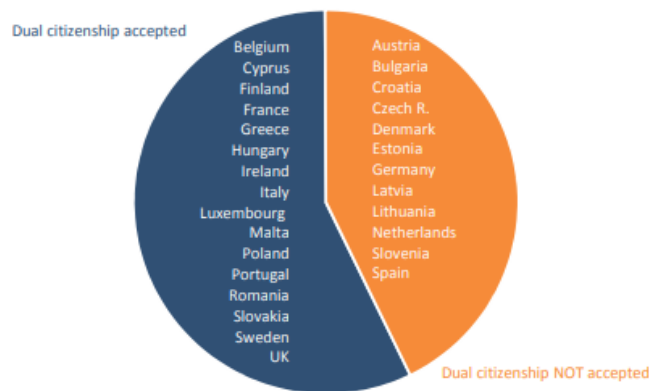


Data source: Global Database on Modes of Acquisition of Citizenship, GLOBALCIT.

Fig. 3: Minimum period of residence required for naturalization in EU-28 (years)

A major contemporary citizenship trend is the increasing tolerance of dual citizenship. Toleration of dual citizenship is a consequence of the general application of the principle of gender equality in citizenship matters, which generates dual citizenship for children of parents with different citizenship, and of a rethinking of citizens' military duties and expectations in the context of Western Europe's low-security risks. However, 24 European countries continue to oblige naturalization candidates to renounce any other citizenship in order to naturalize.

Figure 3 – Dual citizenship in naturalisation in EU-28



Data source: Global Database on Modes of Acquisition of Citizenship, GLOBALCIT.

Fig. 4: Dual citizenship in naturalization in EU-28

Most EU countries' citizenship laws include provisions requiring naturalization applicants to prove that they possess certain knowledge (language ability, knowledge of the constitution and the country), possess evidence of appropriate behavior (criminal and employment records), or display certain dispositions and commitments (willingness to integrate, loyalty). This is largely a recent development indicating a more general reversal of an integration paradigm, in which citizenship is no longer a prerequisite of integration but the coronation of a completed integration process. Standardized tests to assess applicants' knowledge about the country, its legal and constitutional system, as well as more general attitudes and views on key cultural issues are used in half of the EU Member States. However, the knowledge assessment procedure may differ in certain countries, depending on the applicant's circumstances.

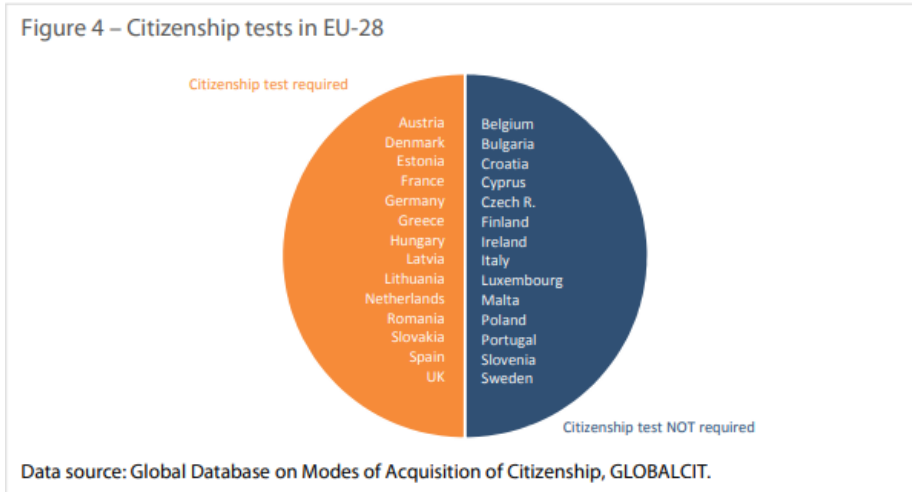


Fig. 5: Citizenship tests in EU-28

The situation of recognized refugees is particularly precarious with regard to access to citizenship. The 1951 United Nations Convention Relating to the Status of Refugees (Article 34) and the European Convention on Nationality (Article 6(4) in conjunction with Article 16) oblige states to provide for special acquisition procedures or for facilitated naturalization for recognized refugees. This preferential treatment should also apply to stateless persons and persons with undetermined citizenship.

Article 34 of the 1951 Refugee Convention and Council of Europe Recommendation 564 (1969) on the Acquisition by Refugees of the Nationality of their Country of Residence, and in particular facilitate the naturalization of migrants and refugees by:

1. taking into account the total period of residence of a person in a country of durable protection including periods under temporary protection or as a registered asylum seeker;
2. removing or at least reducing legal obstacles to naturalization, such as the minimum period of residence when it exceeds five years or requirements that applicants should prove loss of former nationality;
3. allowing people to continue holding their original nationality when possible;
4. enabling migrant and refugee children to obtain at birth the nationality of the country in which they were born;

5. removing administrative obstacles by introducing accessible procedures, transparent criteria for acceptance, and low procedural fees when they exceed the financial possibilities of migrants and refugees.

EU citizenship was established in 1991 by the Treaty on European Union in order to promote European values and identity. The Treaty confers on EU citizens a set of rights, such as the right of free movement, the right of diplomatic protection, the right to vote in and stand for elections to the European Parliament. Some of these rights can be exercised only when moving from one Member State to another. EU citizenship depends strictly on national citizenship since EU citizens are only those who already hold the citizenship of an EU Member State.

Member States reserve the right to regulate the acquisition and loss of national citizenship in ways that reflect their interests and identities. However, although the EU has no legal competencies in the area of acquisition or loss of national (and thus EU) citizenship, the European Court of Justice (ECJ) has gradually broadened the scope of EU citizenship in relation to national citizenship by imposing certain limits to the power of Member States to regulate national citizenship.

In 2019, around 706 400 persons acquired citizenship of one of the EU-27 Member States of the European Union. In 2018, around 672 300 persons acquired citizenship of one of the 27 Member States of the European Union (EU), down from 700 600 in 2017 and 843 900 in 2016. Of the total number of persons obtaining the citizenship of one of the EU Member States in 2018, 13% were former citizens of another EU Member State, while the majority were non-EU citizens or stateless.

Acquisitions of citizenship per 1000 persons, EU-27 and EFTA, 2019

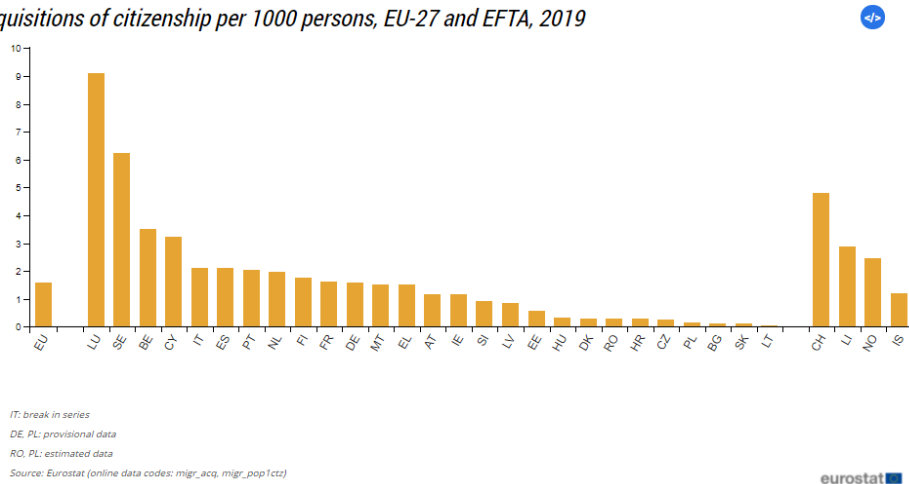


Fig. 6: Acquisitions of citizenship per 1000 persons, EU-27 and EFTA, 2019

Most new citizenships in 2019 were granted by Germany (132 000 or 19 % of the EU-27 total), Italy (127 000 or 18 %), France (109 800 or 16 %), Spain (99 000 or 14 %), and Sweden (64 200 or 9 %).

Of those acquiring citizenship of an EU-27 Member State, 85 % had previously been citizens of non-EU countries. Of these, citizens of Morocco made up the highest numbers, followed by citizens of Albania, the United Kingdom, Syria, and Turkey.

The largest group acquiring citizenship of an EU Member State where they lived in 2018 was citizens of Morocco (67 200 persons, of whom 84% acquired citizenship of Spain, Italy, or France), ahead of citizens of Albania (47 400, 97% acquired citizenship of Greece or Italy), Turkey (28 400, 59% acquired German citizenship), Brazil (23 100, 76% acquired citizenship of Italy or Portugal), Romania (21 500, 51% acquired citizenship of Italy or Germany), Algeria (18 400, 81% acquired French citizenship), the United Kingdom (16 200, 59% acquired citizenship of Germany or France), Syria (16 000, 66% acquired citizenship of Sweden), Russia (15 800, 31% acquired German citizenship) and Ukraine (15 400, 55% acquired citizenship of Germany, Poland or Italy). Romanians (21 500 persons), Poles (13 900), and Italians (8 100) were the three largest groups of EU citizens acquiring citizenship of another EU Member State.

In France, there are several ways to obtain citizenship according to French law. It is possible to be naturalized by declaration or by decree. Naturalization by declaration is

only possible for refugees and beneficiaries of subsidiary protection's children born in France or arrived in France before turning 13 years old. Otherwise, their children will either have to lodge an asylum claim of their own or submit a residence permit request. It is also possible to access citizenship by marriage to a French citizen. Beneficiaries of refugee status are not bound by the five years of residence requirement. They are legally authorized to apply for naturalization from the moment they are granted asylum. The difficulty they encounter is linked to their knowledge of the language.

According to EUROSTAT, Portugal has one of the best results regarding citizenship acquisition (O.M. pp. 289-290). There are different forms of acquiring Portuguese citizenship: naturalizations, attribution, declaration of intention [i.e., marriage, descent]. In 2018, there were 20.974 individuals (+26,6%), and in 2019, there were 21.270 applicants (+1,4%). Furthermore, the number of people granted Portuguese citizenship has increased as well: in 2017, 11.650 individuals received Portuguese citizenship. In 2018, 14.470 individuals received Portuguese citizenship (+24,2%), and in 2019, 15,908 individuals received Portuguese citizenship (+9,9%) (O.M. pp. 294-295). In 2018, most of the individuals who achieved Portuguese citizenship were from Portuguese-speaking countries (74%), which is due to the language factor, which was helpful in the integration process (O.M. pp. 297).

The acquisition of Luxembourgish nationality is regulated by the law of 8 March 2017 repealing the law of 23 of October 2008. The newly promulgated law is fashioned to facilitate access to naturalization for immigrants living in the country and, to give them access to political participation. Under the new law, immigrants can voluntarily apply for naturalization after 5 years of uninterrupted residence within the territory instead of 7.

Italian citizenship is acquired *iure sanguinis* if one is born or adopted by Italian citizens. There is a residual possibility of purchase *iure soli* if you are born on Italian territory from stateless parents or if the parents are unknown or cannot transmit their citizenship to the child according to the law of the country of origin. Citizenship can also be requested by foreigners who have resided in Italy for at least ten years and own the requisites. In particular, the applicant must demonstrate that he has sufficient income to support himself. He does not have a criminal record and does not have any impediments to the Republic's security. It is also possible to become an Italian citizen by marriage.

In Greece, citizenship (or nationality) refers to a person's legal connection to the country to which he or she belongs, while ethnicity refers to a person's non-legal connection to a certain nation. A child may acquire Greek nationality in accordance with Laws 3284/2004 and 3838/2010 and Law 4332/2015 by birth or school attendance in Greece for at least six school years, by adoption, by the legal residence of the parents at the time of nationality declaration, by admission in the armed forces, and by naturalization. Recognized refugees can apply for Greek citizenship after having lived in the country continuously and legally for at least three years, while beneficiaries of subsidiary protection can apply for Greek citizenship after seven years of living in Greece; both must fulfil the conditions of social integration that are stipulated by law². The procedure remains extremely slow. The naturalization procedure is reportedly very lengthy, lasting in average 1,494 days due to a considerable backlog pending since 2010 (CoE, 2018)³. A foreigner can acquire the Greek citizenship if he or she complies with certain conditions, such as age (above the age of majority), the status of belonging to one of the residence permit types specified in the Citizenship Code, including long-term residence permit, residence permit granted to recognized refugees or beneficiaries of subsidiary protection, or second-generation residence permit and sufficient command of the Greek language.

1.6. Political rights

Becoming actively involved in the host-country society is a key element in immigrant integration and has strong implications for immigrant well-being. By making their voices heard, taking an interest in how their host society works, and participating in the decisions that shape its future, immigrants become an integral part of their new country, with this being the very objective of integration. Although traditionally integration policies tend to focus on socio-economic topics, governments are increasingly concerned with the importance of the socio-cultural sphere, participation, the personal dimensions of integration, and the frequency and intensity of social interactions. This approach stipulates the need for integrating immigrants into all aspects of society, including the civic, cultural, and political fields.

² Leivaditi, N., Papatzani, E., Ilias, A. and Petracou, E. (2020) "Integration: Policy, Practices and Experiences. Greece Country report ", RESPOND Working Papers, Global Migration: Consequences and Responses (#770564, Horizon2020) Report Series, University of the Aegean.

³ Leivaditi, N., Papatzani, E., Ilias, A. and Petracou, E. (2020).

Immigrant integration takes place in a context riddled with complicating factors. European countries have different governance structures, welfare systems, and state-civil society relations, as well as diverse migration histories. Immigrant populations vary not only from country to country but also locally. Moreover, European societies themselves are in a process of transformation. Education, volunteer work, political parties, family life, religions, and other mechanisms and institutions are changing under the influence of rapid socio-economic change. Rather than integrating into static societies, immigrants and refugees in Europe engage with the fluid social arrangements that surround them.

The equal participation of all members of society in the political process lies at the core of democracy. This principle of democratic legitimacy informs the European debate on how to integrate the immigrant population and strengthen social cohesion. The issue of immigrant access to political rights is being discussed between and within political parties and national governments. Citizenship entails the enjoyment of full political and civic rights and obligations and therefore frames political participation as countries grant full civic and political rights to their own nationals while non-citizens are subject to restrictions. Participation in political life constitutes a significant dimension of integration into society and the public life of a country. Two issues have thus become important to policymakers. The first involves who has access to citizenship, and the second concerns what rights should be granted to lawful immigrants.

For now, immigrants attain full political rights if they become citizens of the country they reside in. With regard to non-citizens, some attention has been focused on the concept of civic citizenship. In the Communication on a Community Immigration Policy (2000), the European Commission defined civic citizenship as guaranteeing certain core rights and obligations to immigrants, rights, and obligations that are acquired gradually over a period of years: civic citizenship was considered a means to help immigrants settle successfully into society. In 2003 the Commission further elaborated the concept in its Communication on Immigration, Integration, and Employment which recommended granting all residents the right to vote and to run in at least local elections.

An average of 74% of immigrants with host-country nationality in the OECD and the EU report that they participated in the most recent national elections – less than the native-born rate of around 80%. Immigrants tend to participate more in all forms of political participation the longer they have been residents. Individual factors such as

age, education, and income levels also affect the willingness and ability to participate. However, participation depends above all on the creation of opportunity structures for immigrants and on the openness of social institutions. In practice, this could mean creating consultative bodies and facilitating immigrant volunteering in associations.

The extent to which immigrants living and working in EU countries can participate in public life depends on the Member State in which they reside. Each EU Member State has its own rules and criteria regarding access to citizenship or resident status, as well as access to political rights. Although the situation is far from uniform, there seems to be a trend towards local enfranchisement of immigrants in the EU Member States. Those cautious about extending political rights to non-nationals argue that citizenship is fundamentally bound to nationality, and political rights and obligations are only relevant to country nationals.

These opinions imply a perception of immigration as a temporary phenomenon, whereby immigrants are expected to eventually return to their country of origin. Hence, political representation is thought to be irrelevant. Proponents of immigrant voting rights argue that excluding permanent and long-term residents from citizenship and full political rights in the society in which they live, is fundamentally contrary to the principles of democracy.

Research done in several countries shows that electoral turnout is notably lower among persons with immigrant backgrounds than the population at large and that persons with an immigrant background are underrepresented in local (and regional) councils and parliaments. Surveys also show that many different areas of life (e.g. employment, education, leisure, religious life, and language skills) affect the immigrant voting activity and other forms of participation in society. Lack of information about the host society, and the rights and opportunities to participate, as well as personal life plans (whether or not to stay in the country) also affect voting.

A lack of awareness of voting rights seems to be the biggest practical barrier to immigrant electoral participation. Immigrants are largely unaware of their right to vote in local elections.

Beyond the electoral process, immigrants often have the opportunity to participate in consultative forums or bodies. These can be valuable tools for political participation, representation, and defending the interests of foreign residents, especially at the local

level. Consultative bodies at the local and national levels could potentially stimulate immigrant political participation and improve integration policies by communicating the views of immigrant representatives to governments and other stakeholders. Ideally, their work is proactive and their members are supported in their attempts to make high-quality contributions. A flexible composition of consultative bodies best serves the purpose of consultation, keeping in mind that representativeness can be achieved in different ways. Allowing observers or non-voting members to take part in sessions can increase transparency and trust in consultative structures.

Consultative structures at the local or national level exist in most European countries, with governments often taking the lead in setting them up. In some cases, the establishment of consultative bodies is required by law once the community of non-citizens reaches a certain size. Especially at the national level consultative bodies often include representatives of non-governmental and immigrant associations along with representatives of public authorities and social partners. At the local level, consultative bodies are often composed of local elected officials as well as immigrants. Since multiculturalism and large immigrant populations are above all urban phenomena, the importance of local stakeholders, in particular in cities, cannot be overstated. At a local level radical changes are taking place: Europe's cities are growing, and their populations are becoming even more diverse, as people from all over the world come to do jobs that our aging population and workforce cannot perform. At the local level, they can improve and harmonize relations between foreign residents and other sectors of the community. At the national level, governments may take into account immigrant opinions in drafting bills or programs related to integration.

Though different kinds of consultative structures are in use, they entail only limited political rights; they can, however, successfully encourage immigrant participation in public life. Since consultative forums do not usually have any power in making decisions, their power is restricted to deliberating and making proposals. Because of these limitations, advisory bodies are not a substitute for political rights in general (e.g. voting rights).

For the effective functioning of democratic systems, it is important that individuals play an active role: voters, community participants, workers, activists, political party members, etc. Therefore, it is important to also promote the civic and political participation of immigrants and refugees in the host country.

The civic participation of newly arrived migrants, as well as asylum seekers and refugees, in migrant/refugee/minority community organizations, can help them to settle in and to develop a social network. However, other civic organizations also have a responsibility to involve and encourage these particular groups in their work.

Participation in the political decision-making process also promotes integration. The granting of political rights is a democratic means of expression and at the same time gives responsibilities to voters. The right to vote at the municipal, regional and European levels should be granted to all immigrants and refugees who have resided regularly for a specific period of time in the country. To this end, political parties also have a responsibility to more actively attract immigrants and offer training in political processes. In general, necessary mechanisms should be put in place to inform immigrants and refugees of their entitlement to vote and stand in certain elections.

In 1992, the Council of Europe adopted the Convention on the Participation of Foreigners in Public Life at Local Level with the view to encouraging the active participation of foreign residents in the life of the local community and the development of its prosperity by enhancing their opportunities to participate in local public affairs. Article 6 grants foreign residents the right to vote and stand for election in local authority elections after 5 years of residency preceding the election. However, Member States can restrict this right to voting. Member States can also stipulate a shorter period of residence (Article 7).

The right to vote and stand for election in local authority, regional and European elections should be granted to migrants and refugees who have been lawful and habitual residents in the State concerned for three years or a shorter period of residence preceding the elections.

There are other challenges to political integration than voting rights and the right to stand for elections. Participation in politics generally requires, for example, advanced writing skills, public speaking, and the ability to chair meetings. Some states have made efforts to encourage the participation of refugees and migrants in political life through, for example, the setting up of local community councils for foreigners. These are important measures, particularly where migrants and refugees represent a significant percentage of the population. Moreover, in countries that give refugees the right to vote and stand for election, refugee issues are placed higher on the political agenda with politicians becoming more responsive and aware of the concerns of this

group. This leads to a more balanced public debate, less stigmatizing of migrants and refugees, and government policies that are more conducive to integration.

The promotion of migrants' and refugees' involvement in mainstream civil organizations is the duty of the whole society: legislative bodies should reduce hindrances for the civic and political engagement of migrants and refugees. Civic organizations should develop strategies to encourage migrants' and refugees' membership and active engagement. Political parties should be more active in trying to attract migrants and refugees and offer training in political processes.

What is apparent from the projects and empirical work analyzed in several reports is that despite the move towards inclusive political rights for migrants, together with increasingly favorable naturalization processes and accessible political parties, a striking distance remains between the level of diversity in society and migrants' presence in public organizations and government structures in general. At the root of nearly all participation and representation research, namely the building blocks of governance in democratic systems, lies the issue of diversity and the so-called 'diversity gap'. While this issue is relevant within a broader discussion of participation, such as in public organizations, trade unions, and political bodies, a great responsibility lies with political parties in their policies towards migrant involvement, democratic legitimacy, and framing of the discourse around the topic. Political parties are crucial actors in this process and therefore have a responsibility to strengthen and invest in different modes to achieve the political inclusion of migrants.

Most other established destination countries like France tend to facilitate both access to nationality and political rights for foreign residents. Slightly below average for Western Europe, newcomers and foreign citizens in France are not regularly informed and consulted by authorities in order to effectively access their political rights and contribute to public life. France is also one of the few major destination countries without the political will to extend local voting rights. Traditionally, immigrant associations have been supported and sometimes consulted by the local authorities most active on integration. Since 2018, more refugee groups are being consulted at a national level, thanks to the Inter-ministerial Delegation for the Reception and Integration of Refugees.

In Portugal, foreign citizens who live in the county and who are registered in the census of the national territory may vote if they are original from the following countries: Brazil, Member States of the European Union (Germany, Austria, Belgium, Bulgaria, Cyprus, Denmark, Slovakia, Slovenia, Spain, Estonia, Finland, France, Greece, Holland, Hungary, Italy, Leetonia, Lithuania, Luxemburg, Malta, Poland, United Kingdom, Check Republic, Romania, and Sweden); Brazil and Cape Verde; Argentina, Chile, Colombia, Island, Norway, New Zealand, Peru, Uruguay and Venezuela (see Declaration nr. 4/2013, of 24th June) (see Núcleo de Política Migratória (NPM) Migration Policy Unit (NPM)).

Legislation elections in the Grand Duchy of Luxembourg are reserved uniquely for Luxembourgish nationals over 18 years of age. However, foreigners can participate and vote in municipal and European elections. To be eligible to vote in these elections, potential voters must fulfill the following requirements; "be at least 18 years of age on election day, enjoy civic rights and not have forfeited voting rights in the member state or either in their country of residence or their home country, for Luxembourg nationals, be domiciled in the Grand Duchy of Luxembourg; for nationals of another EU Member State, be domiciled in the Grand Duchy and have resided there for at least five years, of which the last year of residence immediately before the request for registration on the electoral list must be uninterrupted and, for other foreign nationals, be domiciled in the Grand Duchy and have resided there for at least five years, of which the last year of residence immediately prior to the request for registration on the electoral list must be uninterrupted" (election.public.lu).

Foreign citizens residing in Italy as of January 1, 2010, numbered over four million and 200 thousand, equal to 7.0% of the total number of residents. About 930 thousand minors, about 573 thousand, were born in Italy, while the remainder came to our country for family reunification. We are speaking only of the residents, to which the illegal immigrants are added.

Right to family unity: The right to family unity is exercised with the request for simultaneous entry of family members accompanying the foreign citizen and thus the demand for subsequent access of family members for reunification. The right to health: registration with the National Health Service. If you are an illegal foreigner, you still have the right to receive, in public and accredited private facilities, all urgent, or in any case essential, outpatient and hospital treatment for illness and accident, as well as

preventive medicine interventions. And the Right to education: it is one of the fundamental rights of every citizen worldwide, as provided for by the Universal Declaration of Human Rights. This right is also guaranteed in Italy.

In the case of Greece, the ability to vote and run for office in Greece is only limited to Greek citizens above the age of eighteen. Local and European Parliament elections are only open to Greek citizens and EU nationals. Other third-country nationals who are legal residents do not have access to political rights. However, there are other rights which third country nationals enjoy in the country. For example, third-country nationals who reside legitimately in Greece must be insured with the appropriate insurance agency and have the same insurance rights as Greek nationals. Moreover, third-country nationals who have completed secondary education in Greece enjoy the same rights and privileges as Greek nationals when it comes to university education while all minors from third countries who reside on Greek territory are subject to the same compulsory schooling requirements as Greek citizens.



2

The Educational Policies

2. The Educational Policies

2.1. Access to Education / Professional training

Although all children's fundamental right to basic education is recognized under international and regional human rights law, including EU law, in practice the type, quality, and duration of schooling offered to asylum-seeking, refugee and migrant children depend more on where they are in the migrant/asylum process than on their educational needs.

Children of EU-born migrants generally have the right to be admitted to their host State's educational, apprenticeship, and vocational training courses under the same conditions as nationals, including access to education-related social benefits.

International protection beneficiaries (refugees under the 1951 Convention and subsidiary protection holders), those enjoying temporary protection, as well as those with long term residence status and those who are reunited with family members lawfully residing in the EU, are also entitled to access education under the same conditions as nationals, but they are not automatically entitled to associated benefits, which possibly restricts their ability to access quality education.

Asylum-seeking children are also legally entitled to access the host State's education system on the same terms as those that apply to nationals, although formal education may be provided in accommodation centers. Education authorities in the EU Member States shall not postpone access to education for more than three months from the date on which children (or their parents) have lodged their asylum claim, although, in practice, it could take longer, and alternative classes in the accommodation centers do not usually teach the full curriculum, or meet the same teaching standards as local schools.

Migrant children in an irregular situation (e.g. those who have not applied for asylum or lack legal documents) are the most at risk of staying out of school. In most Member

States, the right to education is provided to all children in the country, hence implicitly also to children staying irregularly. Nevertheless, as this right is not systematically guaranteed or facilitated, local procedural requirements can restrict or deter access. For example, schools may be obliged to report families without valid documentation to immigration authorities, which may deter such families from enrolling their children in school.

Furthermore, schools may demand birth certificates, prior education credentials, national identification papers, or proof of residency to enroll.

Access to upper-secondary education, early childhood education (ECE), vocational training, further learning, and higher education may also be highly constrained as they are often not part of compulsory education recognized by national law.

All European states that were affected by the 2015-2016 refugee and migrant crisis have made an effort to ensure children can go to school.

Children of pre-primary and upper secondary ages (3-5 years and 15+ years) are typically beyond the scope of national legislation on compulsory education and consequently often excluded from school integration programs. However, across the EU, 77% of all children in immigrant households attend some type of preschool education and 81% among children in native households.

Children of immigrants especially profit from attending formal childcare and pre-school services and continue to reap the benefits far beyond early childhood. Comparisons of the PISA reading scores of 15-year-old students with immigrant parents and similar socio-economic backgrounds show that those who attended preschool consistently achieve higher scores. Across the EU, the benefit of preschool is 55 points among the native-born children of immigrants – roughly equivalent to 1.5 school years. The corresponding benefit among native-born children of natives is 23 points (half a year of schooling).

Vocational training, education, and language tuition should be seen as facilitators in the process of achieving suitable employment. But they also have a role to play in terms of refugee and migrant empowerment more generally. Developing new skills, especially the language skills to communicate well in the host society, enables refugees and migrants to be active in their own integration. There are many barriers to successful schooling, and subsequent vocational training or higher education, including

institutional restrictions preventing access, a lack of or inadequate financial support, and a lack of information about the education system and training courses. Asylum seekers, refugees, and migrants face similar problems in terms of access to vocational training and (higher) education, but restrictions in place often have the greatest impact on asylum seekers. Being barred from participating in education and training courses while their claim for asylum is being decided means in many cases lost years in terms of finding work and making a living once a decision has been reached.

Access to vocational training and the education system is crucial for refugees and migrants to enable them to adapt their skills and qualifications to the labor market requirements of receiving countries. Immigrant adults are slightly less likely to participate in formal and non-formal education and training than the native-born in three-quarters of OECD and EU countries. In the EU, 42% attend a course or training, against 45% of their native peers.

In most countries, refugees do not have access to vocational training or the education system while their asylum claim is being decided, and also, for people who have subsidiary forms of international protection, access to vocational training can be restricted. Across the EU, about a quarter of the foreign-born enjoys such support, against one-third of the native-born. Indeed, immigrants receive less guidance on learning opportunities than natives in virtually all EU countries. Immigrants' lower rates of participation in adult education may be associated with a lack of guidance and counseling on learning opportunities.

In most EU countries, government policies focus on trying to get refugees and migrants into any kind of employment as soon as possible, aiming to make people self-sufficient and independent of state support. In practice, this often leads to a situation where skilled migrants and refugees end up working in low-skilled, temporary, and badly paid jobs.

The need to make a living and lack of financial support prevent them from participating in vocational training and (higher) education, which would help them to escape this poverty trap and eventually find employment commensurate with their skills and qualifications. In their integration strategies, Member States should develop mechanisms that facilitate refugees' and migrants' access to suitable training and education, for example by granting them permission to study (for a reasonable period

of time) without losing social benefits, scholarship programs, or facilitating the possibility to work and study part-time.

In France, while no provision of the Education Code covers the particular case of children of asylum seekers, the law provides that they are subject to compulsory education as long as they are between 6 and 16 years old, on the same conditions as any child. Primary school enrolment can be done at the local town hall. Enrolment in a secondary school (high schools) is made directly to the institution closest to the place of residence of the child. If the children seem to have a sufficient command of the French language, the evaluation process will be supervised by a Counselling and Information Centre (*Centres d'information et d'orientation*, CIO). This State structure is dedicated to the educational guidance of all students. When children are not French-speaking or do not have a sufficient command of writing the language, their evaluations fall under the competency of the Academic Centre for Education of Newcomers and Travellers Children (CASNAV). The test results will enable teachers to integrate the child within the dedicated schemes e.g. training in French adapted to non-native speakers (*français langue étrangère*, FLE) or initiation classes. Education for immigrants and refugees seeking children is usually provided in regular schools but could also be provided directly in reception centers (large emergency reception facilities for instance).

Regarding the access of children and young people in the Portuguese education system, access to education is guaranteed to all children of school age. For access to education, two situations are foreseen for the foreign child at the time of enrolment: the first time the child attends school or the situation where the child may have already attended education in the country of origin. If the child is in the second situation he/she must request the equivalence or recognition of qualifications. When the child has no proof of previous qualifications and intends to enter basic or secondary education in the Portuguese education system he/she is previously submitted to tests carried out at the level of the educational establishment, considering the age and the corresponding year of schooling, with a view to the appropriate integration in the education system.

In Luxembourg, the state guarantees the provision of free and compulsory education to pupils and students as guaranteed by its constitution. Given the general multilingual context of the Grand Duchy of Luxembourg, it is common to find children accessing the educational system without prior knowledge of any of the administrative languages,

especially in the first cycle where the language of communication is Luxembourgish. As pupils move to the second cycle, the language of communication changes to German. French is used in the third cycle while in cycle 4, the basic school teaching language becomes a combination of French, German and Luxembourgish. For the first case, newly arrived immigrant children aged between 4 or 5 years gain access to the educational system through being directly assigned to a class in cycle 1 to learn Luxembourgish.

Minors already present in Italy have the right to education regardless of their regularity in the forms and methods provided for Italian citizens. If they are without personal data or in possession of irregular or incomplete documentation, one of the parents, or whoever exercises their protection, declares the personal data under their responsibility; they are subject to compulsory education as required by our legislation. Minors are enrolled in the class corresponding to their age, and such enrollment can be requested at any time of the school year. Children must be accepted in schools even if they do not have a residence permit or without documentation. As far as adults are concerned, the right to study is also recognized by law for foreign citizens of age already present in Italy. This allows, first of all, to attend the Italian language literacy courses organized by the Municipality in which they live. In addition, you can obtain the middle school certificate by applying to the school principal, specifying your data and the studies completed. In this case, you must also have a good knowledge of the Italian language and have a regular residence permit. Finally, if **you** have already attended compulsory school and want to continue your studies to obtain a high school diploma, you can enroll directly in higher education courses. Finally, you can access university courses on equal terms with Italian students: if **you** are a resident in Italy and have a long-term residence permit or a residence permit for subordinate work, for self-employment, for reasons family members, for political or humanitarian asylum and religious grounds; if **you** have been legally residing in Italy for at least one year and in possession of a higher education qualification obtained in Italy; if, wherever **you live**, **you** have a final diploma from Italian schools abroad or foreign or international schools.

In Greece, the integration of immigrant children into the country's school system has been supported for more than two decades through the establishment and strengthening of intercultural schools, as well as the establishment and operation of classrooms, reception, and tutoring departments, as well as the Reception Structures

for Refugees. The National Integration Strategy has further supported these purposes and its primary objectives are to integrate migrant children, asylum seekers, and recipients of international protection into the education system, as well as to promote children's non-formal learning. Regarding children's access to education, since 2016, the Greek Ministry of Education has taken significant steps toward the increase of the educational opportunities offered to refugee and migrant children, adults and juvenile applicants for international protection, and beneficiaries of international protection in schools and the broader academic system. Additional measures were taken by the Greek Ministry of Education which designed and has been implementing an emergency Action Plan for the Education of Refugee and Migrant Children. These measures include the possibility for migrant children aged 5-6 years old residing in Accommodation Centers to attend Reception Classes in schools operating in these Centers, while for children not residing in the Centers, there is the possibility to attend Greek public schools located near their homes and participate in Reception Classes which give supplemental instruction and tutorial help to facilitate their transition to mainstream education. These classes are oriented toward children studying Greek as a second language and cover the core curriculum.

2.2. Participation rate

As of 31 December 2018, out of the 109,279,876 children and adolescents living in EU+ countries, 5% were foreign-born: 2,614,436 (2.4%) were born in another EU+ country, and 3,949,286 (3.6%) were born outside the EU+. Refugee and migrant children that arrived in Europe over the past few years can therefore be considered a subset of the latter group. As of 31 December 2018, a total of 83,272,636 children and adolescents were of school age (5 to 19 years old). Among them, 2,160,145 (2.6%) were children born in another EU+ State, while 3,487,701 (4%) were born outside the EU+. Among the latter group, 25% were 5 to 9 years old, 30% were 10 to 14 years old and 46% were 15 to 19 years old.

For the EU-27, in 2019 nearly one-tenth (8.9 %) of young national citizens were early leavers from education and training, while for young non-nationals the share was more than twice as high: 22.5% for young citizens of other EU Member States and 26.9 % for young non-EU citizens.

The EU has also been monitoring young people's disengagement from both the education and labor market, with the latest statistics suggesting that in the absence of appropriate interventions, foreign-born young people (aged 15-24) are overall much more likely to be neither in employment nor in education or training (NEET) than their native-born peers. This rate is even more pronounced among young people born outside the EU+ (24.2%).

In 2019, there was almost no difference in the share of working-age people in the EU-27 that participated in adult learning when comparing nationals with non-EU citizens (respectively the rates were 14.7 % and 14.4%).

In Portugal, in terms of numbers of the school year 2017/2018, 44,438 students of foreign nationality were enrolled in primary and secondary education, an increase of 5,726 students (+14.8%) compared to the previous school year. The last decade was marked by a substantial increase in the number of foreign students in Portuguese higher education. In the academic year 2017/2018, foreign students corresponded to 49,015 enrolled students, a growth of 17% compared to the previous academic year, and more than doubling the number of students at the beginning of the decade (+125% compared to the academic year 2010/2011) that has also had an impact on the relative importance of these students in the total number of Portuguese higher education students, with foreign students now representing 13.1% of the total number of students enrolled in higher education in 2017/2018.

Concerning foreigners' access into adult education and vocational training Luxembourg, foreigners are allowed access to these 2 forms of continuing education and training irrespective of sex, nationality, political or religious affiliations, and if they have attained legal age. The Ministry of Education offers a wide range of adult education courses in different languages and levels to make lifelong education available to all individuals. Courses range from; painting, accounting, education, mediation, office automation, programming, and languages to name just a few. Access to some of these courses is somewhat regulated by prior knowledge in the field and language competencies needed for the course. In 2018, Statec⁴ conducted a survey as part of the Adult Education Survey. More than 4,000 people between the ages of 25 and 64 were asked about their training over the past year concerning formal education,

⁴ National Institute for Statistics and Economic Studies in Luxembourg.

non-formal education and informal education in Luxembourg. According to the results, One out of two adults followed a formal or non-formal education activity during the year 2017. 90% of tertiary level graduates continue to train themselves and their participation in training decreases with age. Young people in Luxembourg participate more in continuing training than the European average, while participation rates decline more rapidly with age in France. 39% of the unemployed participate in non-formal education in Luxembourg (compared to 25% on the European average). In addition, more recent immigrants participate more in training. However, participation in adult training is much less common among low-skilled workers (7.3%), increasing the risk that their skills will become obsolete and they will eventually retire early. The employment rate of older workers (55-64 years) remained particularly low (42.3%) in 2018 against the 59.3% EU average, which makes the improvement in their participation in employment particularly important. 45% have followed non-formal education activities (evening classes, seminars, private lessons, on-the-job learning,) and 9% have followed studies within the framework of "formal education".

In Italy, the regularity of schooling is a fundamental indicator of integration. 39.4% of foreign 14-year-olds are late in school, often due to previous placement in lower classes concerning age, to which are added delays related to failures and non-admissions. However, the situation is improving: in the 2010/2011 school year, the late 14-year-olds were 61.5%. The first year of high school turns out to be crucial. In the passage between 14 and 15 years of age, delays increase in Italy (from 39.4% to 51.9% in 2018/2019). The gap with Italian students is considerable: in the 2018/2019 school year, Italian students are 9.1% against 30.1% of students with non-Italian citizenship. The abandonment of school attendance undoubtedly constitutes an alarming consequence of the school delay. The examination of this phenomenon through the European indicator of EarlyLeaving from Education and Training shows that pupils with non-Italian citizenship are those at the highest risk of dropping out, with 37.6% in 2018, compared to a national average of 14.5% and a European target of 10% to be achieved by 2020. An educational area in which students' schooling with non-Italian citizenship is significantly lower than involving Italians is the kindergarten. Only 79.2% of foreign children residing in Italy attend kindergarten, compared to 96% of Italian children.

In the case of Greece, by December 2018, 11.500 refugee and migrant children were enrolled in Greek schools throughout the country, an increase of 44% compared to the number of enrolled children by June 2018. Based on the latest assessment conducted by the national interagency Education Working Group with support of the Ministry of Education, out of the 5.935 assessed school-age children (4-17 years old) – regardless of their migratory status - living in apartments, shelters and hotels for unaccompanied children, 62% were enrolled in Greek schools. Enrolment rate was higher among children who were 6-12 years old (75%), followed by 13-15 years old (62%), as well as 4-5 and 16-17 years old (57% each). Enrolment rates were highest among Pakistani, Afghan, Iraqi and Syrian refugee and migrant children (73%, 68%, 67% and 66% respectively). Adult third country nationals can access education through their participation in "Second Chance Schools" in order to acquire a high school diploma and the right to continue their education at the following level. Apart from these schools, different language programs are available to young people aged 15-18 years and to adults (18+) to ensure their improved adaptation and integration to both the Greek and larger European realities. Trainees have the opportunity to participate in examinations and obtain a specific type of certification that denotes competency and proficiency in Greek language, Greek history, and civilization.

2.3. Obstacles (geographical, language barriers etc.)

Insufficient school capacity both in terms of resources and staff trained to work with refugee and migrant children, language barriers, psychosocial issues, as well as limited catchup classes are among the most common challenges faced by refugee and migrant children in need of education. Lack of information on enrolment procedures and transportation to/from remote asylum facilities can also be presented as a barrier.

Legal barriers including lack of clear provisions on compulsory education for children in reception centres, children without residence permits or international protection status, or legal provisions for compulsory education, which may limit access to education for children outside a certain age group - e.g. children below 5 or above 15 years old. In federal countries, legal provisions on access to education for newly arrived refugee and migrant children may also greatly vary from one region to another. In addition, there are

often no legal provisions on how children's education level should be assessed and assigned to school grades.

Administrative challenges including inflexible registration deadlines, residence and other personal documentation requirements, extended stay in first reception centres where school enrolment is not compulsory. Such challenges are even more pronounced when it comes to early childhood education, upper secondary education and vocational training. Frequent movements of refugees and migrants from one type of accommodation to another, distance and transportation to schools, cost of school materials, insufficient information provision to children and their families about procedures and services available, etc., can also seriously impact school enrolment and attendance.

Insufficient human and financial resources of education authorities including limited places in schools and preschools, lack of catch-up classes, budgetary shortfalls, insufficient guidance and training for teachers and education practitioners who work with refugee and migrant students, including those in need of psychosocial support and language learning.

Psychosocial support in primary and secondary schools is often lacking to assist teachers and refugee and migrant children, who may have difficulties to concentrate and learn in class due to stress and trauma accumulated in countries of origin, in transit or at destination. This may also relate to pending family reunification and asylum procedures, as well as significant differences between education systems.

Additional language and cultural mediation support is scarce, yet essential to address language barriers and communication challenges, as refugee and migrant children often do not have sufficient knowledge of the language of instruction or there is a low interest in learning the language of the host country.

Stereotypes and judgement based on perceptions at school may lead to discrimination, prejudice and bullying as refugee and migrant children are seen as different, and teachers are not always sufficiently equipped to promote multiculturalism and openness to diversity.

Limited opportunities for adolescents, particularly those aged 15-17 years, face greater challenges in integrating the national education systems in formal high schools or institutions for vocational training.

Unaccompanied children who turn 18 are at particularly high risk of early school leaving as they tend to lose the support received from the national child protection system when aging out.

In Luxembourg, as far as adult training is concerned, the main obstacles to training are the lack of time due to family responsibilities and training schedules that might be incompatible with working hours or private life schedules not forgetting training cost. Family responsibilities represent a major obstacle to training for people between 35 and 44 years old, and personal reasons for others. Health and age are becoming more important limiting factors for older people.

However, with the refugees' crisis since 2015, language can be one of the main barriers to training for specific groups. Due to the fact that most of them do not speak the official languages, especially French, which is the dominant language used in training. Participating in adult Training is very complicated, it is a long process that requires plenty of time to gain the skills needed to understand the content and concepts delivered in training. This explains the mad rush by immigrants to learn one of the national languages of the country. Reasons for the rush to study French German, English, and Luxembourgish could be attributed to the need to access not only the educational system, job market, gain nationality but also to feel socially and culturally integrated in the society. In addition, transportation can be seen as one of the main barriers to refugee's participation in adult Training.

In Italy, students (even if adults) entering the school system for the first time present the most significant and urgent needs. In addition to the integration problems, they have to deal with the knowledge of the language, which can represent a considerable obstacle. These are the percentages to be kept under control if the necessary reception interventions and the appropriate didactic actions are planned.

Effective communication strategies such as cultural mediation and interpretation, knowledge of migrants' travel, experiences and cultural background are increasingly necessary to ensure adequate intervention. While the increase in second generations is a constant fact, students entering Italian schools for the first time have a somewhat dangerous trend, with differences depending on school years and grades of school. Overall, in the five years, 2014/2015 - 2018/2019, new entrants decreased by over 10 thousand units, despite the increase of 1,430 units between 2017/2018 and 2018/2019.

In the case of Greece, the major problems which hinder migrants' access to education are the following: (a) Most programmes are implemented as pilot projects, without stability, feedback and continuity in the process, resulting in fragmentary actions and the absence of stable training structures and infrastructures. (b) The programmes are usually not targeted to areas of direct interest to migrants. (c) The programmes are not accessible to migrants, either due to lack of information or due to their irregular status. (d) The programmes are not organized, staffed or evaluated by people with expertise and experience. However, even when migrants do access educational programmes, such as language learning programmes or vocational training programmes, additional obstacles prevent their full participation in them. These obstacles include insufficient teachers' knowledge and skills to address the diverse learning, social and psychological needs of migrant students, disrupt communication between schools and migrant families, persistence of prejudice and negative stereotypes towards migrant populations, and lack of flexible educational materials customised to the needs of migrant students. Furthermore, there are also cases that migrant parents are reluctant to send their children to school as they see their stay in Greece temporary. Finally, the fact that a large percentage of the migrant populations in Greece still resides in camps and reception centers limits migrants' access to further education opportunities, especially regarding non-formal education, placing another barrier in the acquisition of the language and of further skills.

2.4. Certification

Recognition is not a goal in itself, but serves the purpose of facilitating mobility. Inter and intra-country mobility has a vital role to play in the economic and social development of the EU. EU mobile citizens and third country nationals need to obtain simple and efficient recognition of their skills and qualifications gained in Member States and internationally, in order to access a wide range of different types of education and employment opportunities in both home and host countries. For third country migrants in particular, a lack of recognition of skills and qualifications, including those obtained at tertiary level, often leads to significant mismatches and inefficiencies between skills levels and labour market outcomes. Also, recognition of skills and

qualifications within a country across education and employment sectors is important for labour markets to respond flexibly to industrial change and economic restructuring for example.

The EU seeks to facilitate mobility within and across countries for different purposes and for different target groups. It primarily does so by improving the transparency of qualifications and skills of individuals (e.g. through Qualification Frameworks, Credit Transfer Systems or Quality Assurance tools). In regulated professions, legal frameworks supporting the mutual recognition of qualifications across borders have been put in place. Additionally, a strong focus of EU frameworks and tools lies on the recognition of non-formally and informally acquired learning and competences.

The European Qualifications Framework (EQF) was established in 2008 to enhance the transparency and comparability of qualifications in the European Union and to improve their portability and transfer across countries, systems and sectors, both for study and working purposes. According to the EQF Recommendation, it should contribute to the wider objectives of lifelong learning, employability, mobility and social integration of workers and learners. It is designed to accommodate all types and levels of qualifications, including those awarded in formal education and training, in schools, higher education, vocational education and training, adult education, as well as following the validation of non-formal and informal learning.

With regard to transparency and recognition of academic and vocational qualifications, academic recognition is amongst other supported by the European Credit Transfer and Accumulation System (ECTS). ECTS is a tool of the European Higher Education Area (EHEA) established by the Bologna Declaration (there are 47 member countries). The EHEA aims to ensure that students and graduates can move freely between countries, using prior qualifications in one country as acceptable entry requirements for further study in another. ECTS supports this process by allocating credits that express the volume of learning based on the defined learning outcomes and their associated workload. Designated institutions have the right to award credits to individual students after completing learning activities and assessments. If students and other learners have achieved learning outcomes in other formal, non formal, or informal learning contexts or timeframes, credits may be awarded through assessment and recognition of these learning outcomes. To support mobility, a process of credit transfer aims to ensure that credits awarded in one context are recognised in another.

The Council of Europe and UNESCO have established the Convention on the Recognition of Qualifications concerning (access to) Higher Education in the European Region (Lisbon Recognition Convention), which covers a number of non-EU countries (e.g. Ukraine, Russia, Canada) in addition to the EU Member States (except Greece), and hence the qualifications obtained in those countries. Article IV.1 makes it clear that parties to the convention should recognise qualifications issued by other parties unless a substantial difference can be shown between the general requirements for access in the party in which the qualification was obtained and in the party in which recognition of the qualification is sought. Moreover, parties are also able to make recognition of qualifications contingent upon requirements established by national legislation. Significantly, this highlights the need for appropriate tools to be used to examine qualifications so that the underlying learning outcomes can be verified.

Recognition of formal education with regard to vocational education is addressed by the European Credit System for Vocational Education and Training (ECVET), which is established by a non-binding Recommendation. It provides a technical framework for the transfer, recognition and accumulation of assessed learning outcomes of individuals aiming to achieve a qualification. ECVET does not imply any new entitlement for citizens to obtain the automatic recognition of either learning outcomes or points. Its application for a given qualification is in accordance with the legislation, rules and regulations applicable in the Member States.

In addition to the above measures, common quality assurance arrangements have been developed both in VET (European Quality Assurance in Vocational Education and Training, EQAVET) and in higher education (Standards and Guidelines for Quality Assurance in the European Higher Education Area (ESG), Association for Quality Assurance in Higher Education (ENQA), European Quality Assurance Register for Higher Education (EQAR)). These are important for generating trust between education and training institutions in different countries. The EU tools developed to date have been designed to enable Member States to deal with a variety of recognition issues. The process of developing national qualifications frameworks stimulated by the EQF has enabled Member States to achieve greater clarity in the relationship between qualifications produced by different types and levels of education and training and in some cases to greatly streamline the number and variety of qualifications available. Being a holistic framework it also affords the opportunity to address the issue of

equivalence between different types and levels and in particular between higher education and vocational education and training. ECVET and ECTS provide principles that have the potential to enable Member States to re-engineer qualification systems on the basis of credits, whilst the tools related to quality assurance are designed to make quality assurance more rigorous and transparent, helping to build trust between the different parts of education and training which is essential for mutual recognition. Furthermore, a set of transparency tools have been developed at the level of individuals in the form of the Europass framework to help people to record and present in an understandable manner the skills they acquire when they spend periods abroad. Such tools are being supported through national contact points and European-wide networks. The European Classification of Skills, Competences Qualifications and Occupations (ESCO) is also being developed to enable greater transparency of the titles of occupations used in different countries and the associated skills and qualifications they require.

Certification in adult education in Luxembourg is related to the participation rate of each participant in a training. The Adult Education Service of the Ministry of National Education, Children and Youth, organizes, either directly or through municipalities or non-profit associations, a series of courses for “general training and social promotion”. At the end of the course, a certificate of attendance is issued to participants if they have attended at least 70% of the sessions. In addition, an individual assessment of the knowledge and skills acquired may be issued on request to any person who has received a certificate of participation.

In Italy, the 2018/2019 school year, 89.5% of graduates from lower secondary school (middle school) decided to continue their studies. 8.2% opted for regional vocational training, while 81.3% enrolled in a secondary school. The data reveals that the choice of study path is mainly influenced by the evaluation obtained at the middle school exam. Like Italian students, students with non-Italian citizenship choose professional institutes when the grade obtained in the middle school is low and high schools when the grade is high. The difference between students with non-Italian citizenship and Italians is instead in the grade itself: 68.8% of foreigners have obtained the lower secondary school diploma with a grade of 6 or 7. In comparison, most Italians (54%) got the certification with a grade equal to or higher than 8. Another factor influencing the choice of school is the place of birth. International students born in Italy are more

oriented towards technical institutes and high schools, while those born abroad towards professional institutes and technical institutes. Considering the gender differences, high schools are a more female than male choice, while there is a slight male majority in selecting career paths. However, while the boys are oriented towards the Industry and Crafts sector, girls prefer the service sector. At the end of upper secondary school, 34% of graduates with non-Italian citizenship continue their studies at the university. The data confirm that the propensity to continue with university studies is higher among high school students than among graduates from other paths. The choice of the didactic macro-area sees a prevalence for the social area (39.7%), even if different options emerge based on the community to which they belong: students with Ukrainian, Polish and Filipino nationalities prefer study courses in the scientific area. Women represent most of those enrolled in total (61%) and the various teaching macro-areas (as many as 84% in the humanities area) except for the scientific area. Those registered with non-Italian citizenship are concentrated more in some geographical regions of the country, resulting in a maximum in the north-west (35%) and minimum in the islands (2%).

In Greece a certification process mainly involves the acquisition of the Greek language. As an example the case of the General Secretariat for Lifelong Learning can be mentioned. The Secretariat, in the context of its policies to enhance social inclusion, organizes and monitors Greek language courses as well as courses in Greek history and civilization for third-country nationals that wish to become extended residents. After completing A2, history and civilization courses one is eligible to take examinations and obtain a specific type of certification that denotes competency and proficiency in Greek language, Greek history, and civilization. Another example is the Center for the Greek Language which is the competent body for Greek language certification exams. The Greek language certificate that is provided, denotes proficiency in Greek and is required for professional purposes as well as enrolling in Greek Higher Education Institutions. Apart from the certification of language skills, there are only few bodies providing certification of other skills to learners, after attending specific educational programmes. For example, the Lifelong Learning Centers of the Ministry of Education and Religion which provide informal education to adults, in the context of a general education curriculum, they also offer Greek language lessons to migrants. Migrants can also enroll in courses of subject areas such as finance, entrepreneurship, quality of life, environment, new technologies, civilization and art, and counseling for parents,

programs, providing all participants a certificate of attendance. Finally, certification of skills and competences are also provided to migrants through their participation in the Second Chance Schools. If someone, migrant or not, has not completed the first three years of Secondary Education (which are obligatory) they can enroll in Second Chance Schools (article 67, law 4763/2020) to complete their Junior High School education. These Schools offer preparation courses for the Junior High School diploma exam (diploma for first three years of High School). Finally, regarding the certification of prior knowledge and skills, a pilot programme has been implemented run by the Council of Europe and the Greek Ministry of Education. Through the program, third country nationals can apply for a document called the European Qualifications Passport for Refugees that can certify their higher education qualifications, work experience and language proficiency. The European Qualifications Passport for Refugees is a kind of verified CV, and it may help them apply for professional and educational opportunities in European countries. However, the European Qualifications Passport for Refugees does not replace official documents. Greek public universities, and other European institutions that require official documents, will not accept it as a substitute. It is accepted only as a “reliable statement” about academic qualifications — especially in Greece, Norway and the U.K.



3

**Access to the
Labour Market**

3. Access to the Labour Market

3.1. Predominant jobs accessed by migrants

In 2020, 8.7 million non-EU citizens were employed in the EU labour market, out of 188.9 million persons aged from 20 to 64, corresponding to 4.6% of the total.

The employment rate in the EU in the working-age population is higher for EU citizens (73.3%), than for non-EU citizens (57.4%) in 2020.

In 2020, third-country nationals were over-represented in certain economic sectors, namely:

Sector	Overall employment of non-EU citizens	Overall employment of EU citizens
Accommodation and food service activities	11.4%	3.8%
Administrative and support activities	7.1%	3.7%
Domestic work	6.5%	0.7%
Construction	8.6%	6.4%

As regards over-representation by occupation, third-country nationals were over-represented in the following sectors:

Sector	Overall employment of non-EU citizens	Overall employment of EU citizens
Cleaners and helpers	11.9%	3.1%
Personal service workers	9.0%	4.2%
Personal care workers	5.1%	2.9%
Building workers	5.8%	3.6%
Labourers in mining, construction, manufacturing and transport	5.6%	2.4%
Food preparation assistants	2.7%	0.5%
Agricultural and fishery labourers	2.6%	0.6%

Across the OECD, 18% of immigrant workers hold low-skilled jobs, or “elementary occupations”, against 11% of the native-born. At the EU level, these figures are 20% and 8%, respectively. Indeed, immigrant workers are more heavily concentrated in low-skilled occupations in virtually all countries. In Southern Europe (with the exception of Portugal), at least 30% of immigrants work in such jobs, three times more than their native-born counterparts. Non-EU migrants are more likely to hold an elementary occupation than their EU peers in all European countries, with some exceptions.

France’s labor market can be hostile to new entrants, whether recently arrived immigrants or young people seeking their first jobs. Restrictions on foreign nationals working in the public sector, stringent requirements for certain jobs, and occupational ladders that are difficult to penetrate at later points together effectively cut off many jobs to newly arrived immigrants. Meanwhile, the fact that France has significantly larger proportions of family-driven migration than labor migration has meant that the new arrivals, by virtue of not having been selected because of their skills, often have low educational attainment, which can put them at risk of unemployment. In France,

poor employment outcomes have been linked to a number of socioeconomic factors, including lower educational levels, difficulties getting foreign skills and experience recognized, and limited language proficiency, coupled with a labor market that is not open to foreign-language speakers, poor social networks and discrimination by employers. Moreover, immigrants and ethnic minorities are more likely to live in disadvantaged urban areas, where jobs suited to their skills are rare. Formal barriers to getting work also play a substantial role in France. About one-fifth of the French labor market is off-limits to migrants from outside the European Union because of nationality requirements. And whether they already live in France or not, foreign workers need a work permit issued by the local employment service, which are required to check that the principle of “nations preference” is respected. Immigrants are also highly concentrated in certain sectors and occupations such as construction, hotel trade, restaurants, cleaning, security, health care, and personal service. Across all sectors, immigrants are most often in unskilled jobs.

The Portuguese labour market has been observed, also reflecting the abundant demand for immigrant labour in the national economy, especially for precarious, poorly paid, riskier work and in some sectors such as construction, hotels and restaurants, and domestic service. Foreign workers are still over-represented in the core occupational groups of the Portuguese labour market: cleaning workers, personal service workers, sales workers, assistants in the preparation of meals and unskilled workers in the extractive and manufacturing industries, construction and transport

In Luxembourg, the three employment sectors most popular with EU resident citizens in March 2016 remain the same as in March 2015. Out of the 98,750 foreign resident workers in March 2016, 14.8% worked in construction, 12.8% in finance and insurance, and 10.5% in trade and repair of two wheels and cars. In March 2015, these percentages amounted to 14.9%, 12.5% and 10.6% respectively (out of a total of 95,810 people). Among the resident employees who are third country nationals, the most represented sectors remain also identical. In March 2016, 16.5% of a total of 13,070 people worked in the accommodation and food services, 10.3% worked in administrative and support services, and 10% worked in the trade and repair of two wheels and cars. In March 2015, these proportions were 16.7%, 10.1% and 10.1% respectively, out of a total of 12,130 third country nationals' resident employees.

Although we could not find any available recent report on the work sectors mostly occupied by migrants, the 2020 SOPEMI report states that nationals from third countries represent 3.9% in the 1st quarter of 2019 and 4.2% at the end of the year. In total, European citizens (cross-border workers and EU residents) represented 69.1% of the workforce in Luxembourgish at the end of 2019.

In Italy, according to the Caritas report, the sectors where workers of countries outside the EU-25 are over-represented are services to the families (domestic help 59.5% of the total workers); constructions (17.4%); hotels and restaurants (16%); some industry sectors such as textile and tanning (13%); agriculture (13;9%). There are indications that some unskilled service jobs (e.g. cleaning) are often reserved for migrant workers of countries outside the EU-25. This reflects the relevant shortages of labour supply among Italian workers for unskilled occupations involving challenging tasks and difficult working conditions (e.g. agriculture, constructions, services to families, cleanings and the above-mentioned industrial sectors), as well as high occupational instability (e.g. the primary industry, the tourist sector, restaurants). The Italian policies in recent years have tended to discourage, or at least to restrict, the access of migrant workers in the country while approving ex-post amnesty decrees that ensure them a legal status after they have found a job because of the above-described labour supply shortages and because they provide workforce at a low cost and high flexibility.

Women are highly prevalent in the services to the families and cleanings, while men are predominant in the construction sector and, to a lesser extent, in the industrial sectors. There is an essential gender balance in the occupations in restaurants and hotels (with some over-representation of women), in agriculture and other unskilled service jobs.

Non-nationals but citizens of the EU-25 countries, mainly Eastern European countries, are concentrated in agriculture, hotels and restaurants, and families. African workers are overrepresented in the industrial sector. Women from the Philippines, Peru and Ecuador are mainly employed in services to families.

Finally, in Greece, according to Law (4375/2016) all third country nationals legally residing in Greece have the same rights as Greeks, including the same right to access the labour market, to self-employment and to social security, provided they possess a

valid residency visa⁵. Additionally, if a migrant loses his or her work, he or she may contact the Greek Manpower Employment Organization (OAED) to be registered as unemployed, receive an unemployment payment for a certain length of time, engage in vocational training programs, and obtain job placement assistance. Despite the efforts, unemployment rates among immigrant populations are high in Greece. Access to the labor market in 2018 was severely restricted for third country nationals by the economic circumstances in Greece, the high unemployment rate, additional problems due to the competition with Greek-speaking workers, and administrative impediments in obtaining necessary documents. These factors have led to much undeclared work. Even though the unemployment rate has decreased from 19.1% in July 2018 to 16.9% in July 2019, the preceding claims are still true today⁶. Even when third country nationals do find a job, these jobs are precarious, underpaid and demanding: men are mostly employed in the primary sector and in construction, while women are mostly employed in household structures and care services (cleaning and domestic work). Seasonal work contracts are the most used and well-known work contracts among the migrant populations.

In the 2020 research carried out by the National Center for Social Research, it was pointed out that the legalization of migrants has had a positive impact on the Greek labour market, contributing to the economic development of the Greek countryside. Migrants did not substitute indigenous workers in the labour market, as they are employed mainly in jobs that are not attractive to the native workforce. However, Greeks are better remunerated for the same work than migrants. There is also a significant problem regarding migrants' uninsured work and access to welfare services. The employment rates of migrants are higher than those of indigenous people in low paid jobs, as migrants work in the secondary labour market and are concentrated in 'secondary' sectors of the economy that are not preferred by natives, such as the construction sector. Migrants in Greece still are over-represented among the lower socioeconomic groups and are disproportionately affected by unstable and precarious employment. Finally, according to the same research, despite the fact that most migrants work in the low- skilled and labour-intensive sectors of the Greek economy, migrants' access to the labour market alone is not sufficient for their further professional development; it is often observed that migrant workers remain in low-paid

⁵ National Integration Policy, Ministry of Immigration Policy, 2019.

⁶ Asylum Information Database (AIDA), Greek Council of Refugees, 2019. "Country Report: Greece".

unskilled jobs which often do not correspond to their high formal and tacit skills and they work in the so-called 3D professions: Dirty, Dangerous, and Demeaning jobs. In terms of their professional characteristics, the overwhelming majority of migrants were employed (94%), while before the advent of the current crisis, 70% of them held a more or less steady job. The majority of the active migrant population work as unskilled workers or craftsmen, mainly in manual jobs, while significant professional migrant groups are also working in the service sector or as retailers in shops and open-air markets. Other sectors with significant migrant workforce are housekeeping (almost exclusively for the female working population), manufacturing and crafts, trade and repairs, services in hotels and restaurants and the food industry.

3.2. Recognition or not of previous work experiences

There are various factors that influence the outcomes for migrant workers in the labour markets of countries of destination. Among them, migrant workers' skill levels and education backgrounds play a significant role in determining their migration experience. These, together with other factors such as language barriers and a lack of local work experience, put many jobs out of reach. An important factor is that, oftentimes, migrant workers are not well informed about the employment services available in countries of origin and are unaware of the local labour market conditions. As a consequence, they may find it difficult to navigate services and the pathways among them and often end up having to rely on social networks, which are less likely to offer access to labour mobility.

Temporary and circular migrant workers usually arrive in host countries with a pre-arranged work agreement in place and thus may not need specific support with job searching from employment agencies in countries of destination. These migrant workers, however, need assistance in handling legal procedures to enter the countries of destination and to address other grievances they might face while abroad.

Permanent immigrants instead might need support if they:

- become unemployed;
- seek to change jobs, or

- pledge for recognition of skills acquired in the country of origin (through formal, non formal or informal learning), an important aspect of the social integration of migrants.

Refugees differ from other migrant groups in terms of their status – the fact that they are recognized as in need of international protection. In addition, they face greater barriers (including legal ones) than those encountered by other migrants in transitioning into employment. One of the reasons is that they are often not able to provide proper documentation of their level of education, training or skills. Recognition of prior learning is one way to address these barriers, e.g. due to the COVID-19 situation refugee health workers are now able to practise as medical professionals in their host countries in the European Union and beyond.

Labour market integration is more challenging if refugees lack language skills, or have low levels of educational attainment or transferable job qualifications. An additional burden stems from the length of the asylum procedure, which puts refugees in temporary, insecure residence status. These barriers prevent refugees from quickly and fully participating in the labour market. Here, it should be noted that until they are recognized as refugees, they are considered asylum-seekers, a group often denied access to the labour market. It should also be mentioned that in some countries refugees are not allowed to work. Additional challenges include less developed social networks, housing regulations, health conditions and trauma during transportation, as well as cultural barriers which are also linked with the labour market outcomes.

As migrant workers may face social and labour market disadvantages, an early identification of risk factors is essential to provide effective employment assistance. Multi-component interventions that combine language training with work experience programmes and job search assistance, as well as raising awareness among employers that hire them, could be more cost-effective than single measures.

Migrant workers are vulnerable to skills mismatch for several reasons. Some of the skills and knowledge that migrants have may not be recognized in the host country, for example due to barriers in transferability of qualifications. Work experience acquired abroad may be discounted, while limitations in language skills may hamper the full use of other skills. Discrimination may also prevent jobseekers with a migrant background from obtaining appropriate employment. Furthermore, self-selection of immigrants as

well as migration integration policies affect labour market outcomes including matching of jobs and skills.

National systems that deal with recognition of informal and non-formal learning also vary between major migration destination countries. Some countries, and migrant workers therein, see these recognition systems as a pathway to achieving formal education certification, whereas other countries have stressed a preference for previous employment experience. Where recognition of prior learning services are available, several obstacles such as the lack of information, high costs and long and complicated bureaucratic procedures tend to account for and lead to the large proportion of migrant workers who do not have recourse to the opportunity of recognition.

Getting skills and competencies recognized before departure is ideal, but many developing countries have weak skills recognition systems in place and lack the relevant authorities to deal with this issue. While qualifications may be readily recognized, recognizing informal and nonformal learning of potential migrant workers is challenging. For low-and medium-skilled migrant workers in particular, the lack of these systems in the country of origin and of access to recognition of prior learning services in destination countries may deprive them of decent work opportunities.

The standard of education systems across countries of origin is variable, as is the adequacy of arrangements for recognising foreign credentials. The result, as said, is overqualification rates among foreign-educated immigrants to the European Union that are double those of their peers who hold qualifications from the host country.

On average in the EU and OECD, over one in four low-skilled jobs is held by an immigrant.

Among the 33.2 million immigrants in the OECD and 11 million in the EU who are considered highly educated, around 8.1 million and 2.9, respectively have jobs for which they are overqualified. About another 7 million and 2.4 million, respectively, are unemployed. Taken together in both areas, this is almost 45% of the highly educated immigrant population whose formal qualifications are not – or not fully – used, compared with 40% of the highly educated native-born OECD wide and 30% in the EU.

Almost every labour market in the OECD and the EU does not value foreign degrees as highly as native ones. In the EU, the employment rate of non-EU migrants with

foreign credentials is 14 percentage points lower than that of their peers with host-country qualifications. Furthermore, those who do have a job are more likely to be overqualified.

The European Commission has developed a new EU Skills Profile tool for third-country nationals. The tool, which is free of charge, aims to support early identification of the skills of refugees, migrant workers and other third-country nationals.

The focus of this tool is to help individuals produce a profile of their skills and to help an adviser identify any recommendations or next steps. It is intended to be used by any service that may offer assistance to third-country nationals and is formatted to be used in an interview situation to get to know individuals, their skills, qualifications and experiences. It is not intended as a recognition or authentication tool, but for skills identification for use as a preparatory tool for recognition of prior learning. The information collected can be used to:

- support further assessment;
- form a basis for offering guidance;
- identify up-skilling needs; and
- support job-searching and job-matching.

The EU Skills Profile tool will be available in all EU and EEA languages as well as in Arabic, Farsi, Pashto, Sorani, Somali, Tigrinya and Turkish. The Beta version of this tool is currently available on the Internet at: <http://www.efvet.org/2017/06/21/eu-skills-profile-tool-for-3rdcountry-nationals/> .

In Portugal, the insertion of foreign workers in the different professional groups and economic activities of the Portuguese labour market does not necessarily reflect the qualification and professional experience of these workers. In Portugal, there have been some situations of over-qualification of foreign workers in relation to the activities they perform in the national labour market, i.e., there are foreigners who are performing jobs below the level of their qualifications. The concentration of foreign workers in professions of lower status and lower qualification requirements, leads to a much less qualified work than their qualifications could ascend or be expected. From 2005 to 2017, the number of Portuguese workers with qualifications less than or equal to the first cycle of basic education decreased by -74.8%, while workers with secondary and post-secondary education increased by +51.7% and workers with a bachelor's degree

or more increased by +76.1%. Also according to the 2017 data collected by the Ministry of Labour, a "strong increase in foreign workers classified as 'specialists of intellectual and scientific activities' - such as architects, doctors, engineers, teachers - and 'technicians and professionals of intermediate level' - such as factory technicians, computer programmers and operators, kindergarten educators, among others - was observed compared to 2016. The number of unskilled workers also increased among foreigners by 9%.

In Luxembourg, the concept of validation of non-formal and informal learning has progressively risen in prominence since the year 2000. The development of validation systems has been closely related to national lifelong learning strategies and educational reforms based on learning outcome approaches. Legislation recognizes an individual right to all individuals to benefit from the validation of formal, non-formal and informal learning. This process is known as 'validation of prior experiential learning' or validation des acquis de l'expérience (VAE). A prerequisite to engage in VAE is to be able to supply evidence that the prior experiential learning is effectively relevant to the targeted qualification and has sufficient duration. The current legal framework on validation of non-formal and informal learning consists of several laws covering different education and training sectors. The approach implemented in Luxembourg is to validate non-formal and informal learning outcomes against qualifications awarded in the formal education and training system. VAE is defined as an individual right accessible to all citizens without conditions based on the level of education, age or professional status. The only condition is to meet eligibility criteria in terms of prior experience relevant to the qualification targeted; validation arrangements do not target specific target groups. Validation procedures in Luxembourg encompass the four stages of identification, documentation, assessment and certification. The Ministry of Education, Children and Youth takes responsibility for the implementation of VAE in relation to secondary level qualifications ('general' secondary education), as well as Master craftsperson certificates. In the higher education sector, two different procedures are in place. While the Ministry holds general responsibility for validation arrangements, the implementation of VAE procedure is decentralised, with a key role played by the short-cycle higher education providers (lycée techniques) for advanced technician diplomas (BTS) and the University of Luxembourg for Bachelor, Master and PhD programmes.

In Italy, migrant workers are highly concentrated in unskilled jobs, although around a half of them have a university or an upper secondary degree. About 40% of migrant workers with a tertiary degree are in a manual position, and this value rises to 60% among holders of an upper secondary degree. This means that many migrant workers are over-educated relative to the jobs they hold. The incidence of highly educated people among the migrant population is high; as we have seen, their educational credentials hold little value in the Italian labour market.

In Greece, the recognition of migrants' previous professional experience follows the same pattern as Greek nationals and there are no provisions to facilitate or differentiate work recognition for the specific group, if the work experience was gained beyond the country. Migrants have the same rights as nationals as far as the recognition of diplomas, certificates and other professional titles is concerned. They all have to follow the relevant national procedures.

3.3. Predominant types of work contracts

In the OECD and the EU, the proportion of foreign-born in work with temporary contracts is 15% in both, and 16% and 12% among native workers, respectively. At 18%, the share of temporary workers EU-wide is even higher among non-EU migrants. In total, 5 million foreign-born workers have temporary contracts in the OECD and 3.4 million in the EU. Immigrants are more likely to work on such contracts in all European countries.

A temporary contract is often the first step into the labour market. Recent arrivals are thus more likely to work in temporary jobs, the proportion of which shrinks as residence lengthens. Across the EU, only 13% of settled immigrants (i.e. the foreign-born with at least 10 years of residence) work on temporary contracts, almost half as many as among their peers with less than 10 years of residence. Comparisons of settled migrants with the native-born reveal that the temporary contract gap between them narrows in most countries with the increase of the duration of stay and even vanishes in one-third.

It is not clear to what extent these non-standard jobs represent 'traps' that entail an increasing precariousness of work, or 'doors' that give access to stable employment.

Moreover, it is not clear whether opportunities for migrant workers differ from those of nationals in this respect.

These poor employment outcomes have been linked to a number of socioeconomic factors, including lower educational levels, difficulties getting foreign skills and experience recognized, and limited language proficiency, coupled with a labor market that is not open to foreign-language speakers, poor social networks and discrimination by employers. Moreover, immigrants and ethnic minorities are more likely to live in disadvantaged urban areas, where jobs suited to their skills are rare. Formal barriers to getting work also play a substantial role in France. About one-fifth of the French labor market is off-limits to migrants from outside the European Union because of nationality requirements. And whether they already live in France or not, foreign workers need a work permit issued by the local employment service, which are required to check that the principle of “nations preference” is respected.

Immigrants are also highly concentrated in certain sectors and occupations such as construction, hotel trade, restaurants, cleaning, security, health care, and personal service. Across all sectors, immigrants are most often in unskilled jobs.

In France, the pole-emploi.fr programs comprises vocational job contractes (contrats professionnalisation) – a combination of work and training – alongside tax exemptions for employers. In 1999-2020, 156,000 of these contracts were signed in France sectors such as metal work, construction, trade and distribution, cleaning service and banking. These policies have not yet been rigorously evaluated, but preliminary evidence indicates that they have benefited middle and highly skilled workers in particular (for instance, 37 percent of workers who signed a vocational jobs contract in 1999 have a university degree). Although the economic sectors that are the most concerned with these types of job contracts include a considerable share of migrants, evidence is lacking on whether immigrants systematically access these programs. Although no specific vocational training program targets migrants in France, the government decided in 2004 to recognize French language training as vocational training, which means employers can fulfill their training obligation by providing language training. This change may have helped immigrants in work access language courses, it has also meant that institutions traditionally engaged in teaching French to international students (such as the Alliance Francaise) are moving into the vocational training field. A number of vocational training organizations have also tried to target this new market. Moreover, an increase in reports on work relevant language training has fuelled debate on

professional oral and written communication, and technical language skills for various sectors (tourism, services, etc.) and occupations.

In Portugal, migrants are also those who most rely on precarious contracts, according to statistics gathered by the Government. For Portuguese people working as employees, permanent contracts prevail, in 78.5% of cases; for foreigners, those on permanent contracts are 57.7%; the remaining 42.3% of foreigners who worked in 2017 did so on a non-permanent contract. Other studies have shown how the labour precariousness of immigrant workers tends to expose them to greater vulnerability and more unemployment in contexts of crisis since the end of the last decade in the context of the economic and financial crisis of the country and of the overall poor performance of the Portuguese economy, the unemployment rates of foreigners (especially non-EU citizens) have been quite different from the unemployment rates of nationals. It can be seen, therefore, that foreigners are more affected by unemployment fluctuations than nationals, also taking into account the economic sectors and professional groups to which they belong, assuming themselves as necessary workers in times of economic growth and dismissed in times of market slowdown.

In Luxembourg, the type of contract they might have, just as EU citizens are: unlimited contract, seasonal employment; people engaged first by an agency or employment exchange and then hired to a third party to do a specific task; people with specific training contracts Part-time employment.

In Italy, according to the Ismu report, in the active population, among male migrant workers, 55.3% works as employees in regular employment and 14.4% in undeclared work. Moreover, in the active population, among male migrant workers, 8.9% works as self-employed (without employees) in regular employment and 1.3% in undeclared self-employment. Among females, the corresponding values are lower: 3% and 1.1%, respectively. The estimate is higher: 12.5% of the total active population (males and females) works as self-employed. In 2005, Ismu estimated that, in the active male migrant population, 19.3% had a fixed-term contract. The corresponding value for women is 21.3%. Temporary-employment agency work contracts are prevalent in agriculture and restaurants and hotels.

In Greece, as stated earlier in this report, the majority of both documented and undocumented migrants works in sectors dominated by informal labour relations, such as agriculture, construction, hotels and restaurants, cleaning and domestic work. The economic crisis and the collapse of the construction sector that employed an important part of male migrants, led large sections of the migrant population to leave Greece. Of those who remained in Greece, some slipped from authorised into unauthorised status, because they could not find declared employment necessary for permit renewal. Nowadays, if migrants do have a work contract, in the majority of cases it is a seasonal work contract.

3.4. Unemployment rates among migrants

In 2020, 8.7 million third-country nationals were employed in the EU labour market, which corresponds to 4.6 % of the total of 188.9 million people aged 20-64. The employment rate of the working-age population in the EU was higher for EU nationals (73.3%) than for non-EU nationals (57.4%).

Employment rates in the EU-27 were highest among people with a tertiary level of education and lowest among those with at most a lower secondary level of education in 2019: this pattern was observed for national citizens as well as for citizens of other EU Member States and non-EU citizens, and was equally the case for males and females.

In the vast majority of EU Member States, employment rates for people with high (tertiary) levels of educational attainment living in cities were lower in 2019 among non-EU citizens than among national citizens or citizens of other Member States.

In 2019, the EU-27 employment rate for working-age national citizens was 73.8 %, which was 8.0 percentage points higher than the rate recorded for non-nationals. A closer analysis of this latter figure reveals that the employment rate for working-age citizens of other EU Member States was 75.5 % (some 1.7 points higher than the average for nationals), while that for non-EU citizens was lower, at 60.0 % (some 13.8 points below the average for nationals).

In all OECD and EU countries, immigrants have higher unemployment rates than the native-born. The differences are particularly marked for non-EU migrants in the EU.

The unemployment rate in the EU-27 for working-age national citizens was 6.1 % in 2019, while the rates for non-nationals were higher: 7.9 % for working-age citizens of other EU Member States and 14.7 % for non-EU citizens. In total, 5.8 million immigrant workers are unemployed in the OECD, and 3.7 million in the EU. The youth unemployment rates followed the same pattern, although at higher levels.

The long-term unemployed account for almost half of the unemployed foreignborn population in the EU (almost 2 million) – a full 50% among non-EU migrants and 44% of EU migrants.

Over the last decade, differences in unemployment rates of immigrants and native-born have widened in OECD and EU countries, most notably in Southern Europe, due to the difficult economic situation.

When unemployed, immigrants are generally less likely to receive unemployment benefits than the native-born in the EU.

Across the EU, almost one in four economically inactive immigrants wish to work, compared to one in six among the native-born.

In 2019, the NEET rate for young people aged 15-29 years in the EU-27 was 11.8 % among nationals, while the rates for young citizens of other EU Member States (15.3 %) and young non-EU citizens (24.2 %) were higher.

Almost 7.3 million native-born 15-to 34-year-olds with foreign-born parents are employed in the OECD and 1.9 million EU-wide. Those numbers respectively represent employment rates of 72% and 69% in the 15-34 age group (excluding students).

In France, evidence also suggests that immigrants are less likely to be promoted. In 1999-2020 only 23 percent of working immigrants (and 15 percent for non European immigrants) said they had been promoted during the past five years, compared to 37 percent of the native born. The French government has recently established the category “new legal immigrants” and begun to study the outcomes of this official migrants category. While only a small minority of migrants report being unemployed in their country of origin, one-third are unemployed a year after getting a residence permit, falling to 24 percent a year later. The impact of migration on unemployment seems to be especially pronounced for women. Some women who enter France after marriage give up work on arrival. Studies find a positive trend in employment outcomes

with length of stay, although longitudinal data are rare. Moreover, gaps do not seem to disappear over time: even after ten years of residence, unemployment is still much more common among non European migrants, who are also over-represented in unskilled occupations.

In 2019, the unemployment rate in Portugal reached almost 12% of the immigrant labour force and 6% of the national labour force. Only 3% of immigrants residing in the country were employed last year. Regarding the socio demographic profile of the foreign unemployed, in 2018 a preponderance of the female gender (60.4%), the 35-54 age group (48.3%) and education levels below the 3rd cycle of basic education is observed.

In Italy, according to the Caritas report: 2,078,396 non-national employees (11.9%) of the total employed. 10.1% comes from non-EU countries and 1.8% from EU countries. The Ismu estimated that the total unemployment rate (7.4%) varies significantly according to the country of origin. It is lower among migrant workers from Asia (4.1%) and higher among those from Western Africa (9.4%) and Latin America (11.5%). The incidence of students is higher among Asians (3.9%) than in the overall migrant population (2.6%). The incidence of homemakers is higher among Asians (11.7%) and Northern Africans (13.5%) and lower among women from Western Africa (6.1%) and Latin America (4.7%).

Based on the recent EURES report⁷ providing labour market information about Greece, it is estimated that there were over one million foreign immigrants working in Greece before the financial crisis. However, after a few years, foreign workers and their families started to leave due to the slump in the labour market and in particular in the building industry. The latest official figures show that over the five-year recession (2009-2013), 33% of jobs held by foreigners were lost. According to ELSTAT figures from 2014, there were 708,054 immigrants residing legally in Greece, 75-80% of whom are believed to be economically active. Greece, according to the Eurostat Report on data recorded for 2019, was the EU Member State with the highest unemployment rates for non-EU-born persons (29.0%), followed by Spain (19.9%), Sweden (17.3%), France (14.7%) and Belgium (13.8%). For the native-born population, Greece, again, had the

⁷<https://ec.europa.eu/eures/main.jsp?catId=2589&countryId=GR&acro=Imi&lang=en>

highest rate in Europe, reaching 16.2%. Summing up, although by 2008 labour market integration of migrants had slightly improved as had their qualification levels, the impact of the prolonged economic crisis did not allow them to catch up with the outcomes of the native-born. The impact of the crisis hindered their social integration. Over the last decade, differences in the unemployment rates of migrants and native-born have widened, due to the difficult economic situation. When unemployed, migrants are generally less likely to receive unemployment benefits than the native-born. Migrants are over-represented in the lowest income deciles. At the same time, income inequality among the foreign-born tends to be greater than among native-born and relative poverty is today more widespread among the foreign-born than a decade ago. Having a job provides protection against poverty, although less so for migrants than natives.

3.5. Entrepreneurship conditions

Entrepreneurship is a powerful driver of economic growth and job creation: it creates new companies and jobs, opens up new markets, and nurtures new skills and capabilities.

Migrant and refugee entrepreneurship policy initiatives should not be developed in isolation from broader policies on entrepreneurship, migration and refugees. Successful migrant and refugee entrepreneurship policies need to align with the broader agenda on entrepreneurship, integration and inclusion to ensure synergies are achieved. Policymakers should consider how to align migrant and refugee entrepreneurship policy initiatives with the broader policy landscape, paying attention to policy initiatives at the supranational, national, state and local levels to ensure that coherent policy actions are developed.

The European Commission aims to support an environment attractive to all forms of entrepreneurship, where also business support services reach all potential entrepreneurs, including those from more vulnerable groups, with the aim to make the EU in its entirety stronger and more cohesive.

Within the EU, migrants represent an important pool of potential entrepreneurs, but can face, as other more vulnerable groups, specific legal, cultural and linguistic obstacles.

These issues need to be addressed in full to give support equitable to that received by all other entrepreneurial groups.

Promoting entrepreneurship can provide an important mechanism to advance integration and can accelerate migrants' and refugees' contributions as actors of development in the process. Entrepreneurship is increasingly viewed as an effective approach to overcoming some of the challenges of integration by providing a venue for income and employment for individuals with constrained access to the labour market.

The promotion of entrepreneurship is incorporated in the Europe 2020 strategy which aims to create the conditions for 'smart, sustainable, and inclusive growth'. Within that framework, the entrepreneurship 2020 action plan is a blueprint for decisive joint action to unleash Europe's entrepreneurial potential, to remove existing obstacles and to revolutionise the culture of entrepreneurship in Europe. It aims to ease the creation of new businesses and to create a much more supportive environment for existing entrepreneurs to thrive and grow.

The action plan sets out a number of actions, under 3 different action pillars:

- Entrepreneurial education and training
- An environment where entrepreneurs can flourish and grow
- Role models and outreach to specific groups.

One particular commitment in the action plan is to facilitate entrepreneurship among migrants already present and residing in the EU based on best practices from EU countries.

This action plan:

- Supports EU citizens by improving the entrepreneurial capacity of European citizens and organizations by fostering entrepreneurial learning and the entrepreneurial mindset as promoted by the European Entrepreneurship Competence Framework (EntreComp).
- Supports entrepreneurs in general by creating an environment where entrepreneurs can flourish and grow: supporting start-ups, transfer of business, insolvency and second chance.
- Supports specific groups by reaching out to specific groups whose entrepreneurial potential has not been fully tapped yet, such as women and

young people through entrepreneurial learning and Erasmus for Young Entrepreneurs.

Although the EU supports entrepreneurship among the migrant population, many migrants and refugees experience hurdles to entrepreneurship related to language and cultural barriers, lack of financial capital (e.g. access to banks and collateral) and lack of social capital (e.g. access to support networks). Refugee entrepreneurs often face barriers related to their legal status, which can include lack of the right to work and seek self-employment, lack of recognition of refugee documentation, unplanned forced displacement and its related psychological effects. Both may also be negatively affected by xenophobia and stigma about their status in the host country. Specific support measures to assist migrants and refugees in overcoming such barriers may not only be necessary to spur business creation, but also to make such businesses more sustainable. Research has shown that the higher rates of business creation among migrants relative to natives is often accompanied by lower business survival rates.

Across the OECD and the EU, around 12% of immigrants in employment are self-employed – the same rate as for the native-born. There are more than 7.5 million foreign-born self-employed workers in the OECD, and more than 3 million in the EU. Immigrants are more likely to be self-employed than the native-born in over two-thirds of the countries, although only slightly in the vast majority of them.

In Portugal, immigrants show themselves to be more entrepreneurial than nationals, presenting a higher relative importance of employers per total assets than nationals, thus assuming themselves as important generators of employment in the host societies. The entrepreneurial initiative of foreign residents in Portugal has been dominated by small and medium enterprises. In terms of encouraging entrepreneurship, Portugal promotes the involvement of immigrants in programmes to foster the creation of their own jobs through capacity building and better use of existing funding lines to which immigrants may have access. Over the years structures have been created in this direction. The Entrepreneurial Support Centre (NAE) which, as the name suggests, aims to be an incentive for the creation of self-employment by immigrant citizens and has a service that accompanies business initiatives, providing information on the various moments in the creation of companies. The specialised support to entrepreneurs is aimed at migrant citizens who already have a business or just a business idea, regardless of the investment amount and its complexity. In 2009,

the PEI (Immigrant Entrepreneurship Promotion Project) was created. This programme aims at fostering entrepreneurship especially among immigrant communities living in more vulnerable neighbourhoods. The participants of this project have access to a support course for business creation, consultancy, workshops or other events held within the scope of support to immigrant entrepreneurship. In 2015, the PEPEI (Project of Entrepreneurship for International Students) was created with similar objectives to the PEI, and is aimed at international students so that they may be interested in settling in Portugal and exploring the possibility of setting up a business here.

In Luxembourg, entrepreneurship solutions are mostly provided by the Ministry of Economy and the Chamber of Commerce. In this sense, The House of Entrepreneurship was launched in October 2016 on the initiative of the Chamber of Commerce and the Ministry of the Economy. This platform brings together all the parties involved in the business creation value chain in Luxembourg. Through its one-stop shop (OSS), the dedicated national point of contact for entrepreneurship, it offers a consolidated range of services both to new or future entrepreneurs with business projects and to established managers. They offer a range of training in the field of entrepreneurship, providing mentoring activities between experts and future entrepreneurs. In addition, there is also the House of Startups⁸ (HoST). It has under the same root many incubators, namely The Luxembourg-City Incubator (LCI) which is an entrepreneurial ecosystem that fosters startups in a variety of sectors, but with priority given to UrbanTech, retail, tourism, the environment, construction, housing and logistics. Particular support is given to projects either driven by women, or with social impact. The LCI was initiated by the Chamber of Commerce and is supported by the City of Luxembourg. Facilities include Co-working space, fixed Desks, closed offices, meeting rooms etc. In addition to this, there is also the Luxembourg House of Financial Technology – driving innovation LHoFT is Luxembourg's dedicated FinTech hub that brings together finance and technology. It fosters innovation to find solutions for the financial services industry. The Hub@Luxembourg is an accelerator of business and innovation for highly innovative startups with a potential for international growth (aerospace, cyber security, fintech and insurtech, maritime, green economy, smart city...). Hub@Luxembourg provides the necessary skills to give support on various issues in order to ensure entrepreneurs' rapid and viable growth such as giving an

⁸ <https://www.host.lu/who-we-are/>

experts and mentors network, support and advice from multinational partners. Beside the above cited incubators, the Ministry of Economy can provide financial support to entrepreneurs under specific conditions depending on the nature and the needs of the project.

In Italy, a relevant phenomenon that has increasingly involved migrant workers in Italy is entrepreneurship. In 2019, business owners born in a non-EU country totalled 383,462, equal to 12.2% of the total, reporting an increase of +4,300 units from the previous year (+ 1.1%). This phenomenon has been rapidly increasing and represents the most influential trend in entrepreneurship in Italy. It has been calculated that, without the increase of non-national entrepreneurship, the overall number of firms in Italy would be declining. Not surprisingly, non-national entrepreneurs are highly concentrated in the North of Italy and among males. The sectors of trades and constructions attract the highest number of non-national entrepreneurs, but they are very active also in phone centres and internet points. Non-EU entrepreneurs are mainly concentrated in the wholesale and retail trade and repair of motor vehicles (43.0% of the total) and Construction (21.1%). In comparison, the remaining 30% is distributed among other sectors, and mainly in manufacturing activities (8.2%), rental, travel agencies, business support services (6.3%) and in the activities of accommodation and catering services (6.1%).

In Greece strong efforts are made to promote migrant entrepreneurship. A series of actions and activities are intended to facilitate third-country nationals setting up their own businesses, which include activities to deal with their entrance and residency problems (visa and residency permit), the process of founding small businesses of a "national character," and the potential of joint funding by banks and governmental grants (legislative regulation). Other projects are focused with the promotion of migrant and refugee women's entrepreneurship via social and solidarity economy firms, as well as linkage between domestic and migrant/immigrant entrepreneurs via public awareness campaigns. Training programs for "business" are also provided by entrepreneurship consultants in collaboration with the country's Chambers of Commerce, primarily for young people of third countries.

An example of migrants' entrepreneurship initiatives and status is the case of Muslim migrant entrepreneurs. In short, the mapping of Muslim migrant entrepreneurship in

Greece indicates that the number of Muslim migrant entrepreneurs is growing, despite the economic crisis, as a survival strategy. There are significant variations among the different ethnic groups, as some are more active than others. Female entrepreneurship is quasi non-existent. Tradition and customs impose significant obstacles not only to women's entrepreneurial activity, but also to their employment activation outside the family milieu. Religion poses further impediments, while appearances are also important, as they provide the ground for multifaceted discrimination. Muslim migrant entrepreneurs have a strong presence in classic vacancy-chain sectors such as retail trade, ethnic restaurant and catering, but their presence is gradually increasing also in growth sectors such as personal and business services. Furthermore, Muslim migrant entrepreneurs are usually located in working-class ethnic neighbourhoods, in the form of ethnic enclaves, rather than in central business districts and suburbs. Language barriers and lack of access to financial capital forces many Muslim migrant entrepreneurs to the lower end of the market. In these markets, production is mainly small in scale, low in added value, and usually very labour intensive; earnings are typically low, and working days are long and hard.



4

**Good
practices**

4. Good practices

Based on research and on the national reports of the partners of the Mufocom project, there is a significant number of good practices across Europe regarding migration policies that could be divided into four categories, a) collaborative initiatives (between state and local organisations); b) individual initiatives, c) organisational initiatives and d) local initiatives. These initiatives are mainly focused on further supporting migrants in various sectors of their social life, including aid at finding housing, access to health insurance, educational programs and labour market.

The projects described as “good practices” have been chosen because they are considered to be examples of innovative, interesting and inspiring practice for the integration of migrant populations in the participating countries; and because they have the potential to be transferred in whole or in part to other national contexts. They are projects which have become known to the project partners through the networking activities, various meetings and research. This part of the European report is not intended to be a comprehensive or definitive survey of the best initiatives on migrant integration in the EU Member States, and there are undoubtedly many good projects and practices which may not have been included – any omission should not be interpreted as a negative judgement or criticism of the projects which do not feature.

4.1. Collaborative initiatives (between state and local organisations)

Collaborative initiatives refer to activities, actions and approaches which were designed, developed and implemented through the cooperation of different bodies, organisations and stakeholders at local, national or European level. These initiatives are presented by participating country and they are as follows:

In Italy, one of the most known collaborative initiatives is “the integrated reception system- **SIPROIMI**”. The main purpose of SIPROIMI is the reconquest of the individual autonomy of the applicants/holders of international and humanitarian protection received. It is an autonomy understood as their effective emancipation from the need to obtain assistance. It, therefore, becomes essential to place the people received at the centre of the Protection System, who must not be mere passive beneficiaries of interventions prepared in their favour, but active protagonists of their welcome and social inclusion path.

In Portugal, the “**Programa de Mentors para Migrantes**” (Mentoring Programme for Migrants), constitutes good practice and is part of the Support Unit for the integration of migrants in the country. With the support of volunteers, the program focuses on promoting the exchange of experiences, mutual assistance and support between natives and immigrants. Another well recognized program in Portugal is the “**Programa Escolhas**” (Choices Programme), which is a national government project that has been operating since 2001 and is being promoted by the Presidency of the Council of Ministers and is integrated into ACM. The program’s main objective is to promote the social inclusion of children and young people from vulnerable socio-economic contexts, reassure equality of opportunities, and enhance social cohesion. The programme is divided into five strategic areas of intervention: education and training; employability and employment; participation, civic and community rights and duties; digital inclusion; and empowerment and entrepreneurship.

In Greece, the main collaborative initiative is provided by the **HELIOS PROJECT**, that is performed by IOM (International Organization Migration) and that aims at improving the integration of international protection beneficiaries staying in temporary housing schemes (Open Accommodation Centers, Reception and Identification Centers, IOM FILOXENIA or ESTIA hotels), by providing individual employability and job readiness support, such as job counseling and access to job-related certificates⁹. An additional collaborative initiative organized in Greece is the “**Curing the Limbo**”. The program is an Athens-led European pilot initiative undertaken in collaboration with the National and Kapodistrian University of Athens (UoA), Catholic Relief Services (CRS), the International Rescue Committee (IRC), and the Athens Development and Destination Management Agency (ADDMA). The European Regional Development Fund is co-financing this project through 2021 under the Urban Innovative Actions (UIA) programme. “Curing the Limbo” aims to integrate refugees into city life by connecting with active citizen organizations and attending public activities hosted in Athens' districts.¹⁰

In France, the major collaborative initiatives are represented by “**OFFI- Office for Immigration and Integration**”, that is responsible for bringing together all the competences of the Agence Nationale de l'Accueil des Étrangers et des Migrations (ANAEM). Their main goal is the integration of migrants in France during the first 5 years of their stay in the host society. Another French initiative is undertaken by the **CEDRE** (Secours catholique) that is responsible for the assistance of migrants in regards with their paperwork and administrative files. The organization is also in charge of informing individuals for their legal rights, on how to apply for asylum and how the Dublin regulation operates.

⁹ Hellenic Ministry of Migration & Asylum.

<https://migration.gov.gr/en/migration-policy/integration/draseis-koinonikis-entaxis-se-ethniko-epipedo/programma-helios/>

¹⁰ Curing the Limbo. <https://curingthelimbo.gr/en/home>

4.2. Individual initiatives

Some of the chosen good practices reflect initiatives which have been developed by individual projects. They are presented per partner country. In Portugal, **Next Door Family** has been considered a good practice for the integration of migrants. This project was created in 2004 in the Czech Republic, and since 2012 is implemented in Portugal. The goal is to develop the "inclusive neighbourhoods concept" while relying on the interaction between locals and immigrants. This contributes significantly to more effective integration, removing barriers whilst promoting cultural diversity. To achieve the goal, a native family agrees to welcome and host an immigrant family they do not know in their home; they hold a typical Sunday lunch of their culture as a way of receiving each family. All meetings will take place on Sunday, simultaneously throughout the county. In Portugal, this project is promoted by the High Commission for Migration, in partnership with public entities (municipalities and Juntas de Freguesia) and private entities (Immigrant Associations, Youth Associations and others, Cooperatives, NGOs, IPSS and Companies).

Another good practice from Portugal is the work carried out by the PAP Association. **PAP - Associação Pão a Pão** is an association which provides a space for multicultural gatherings to promote the inclusion and integration of refugees from the Middle East through community kitchens which also enable cultural workshops. One of PAP's projects is **Mezze**, a Syrian restaurant that provides training and employment to refugees from the Middle East whilst promoting women's empowerment and inclusion.

Regarding organisational initiatives, some examples include CNAIM, GAEM, and NDI.

In Greece, **Melissa** is a network for migrant and refugee women living in Greece. It aims to promote empowerment and active citizenship, to create and sustain bonds, and to build a bridge of communication with the host society. Founded in September 2014 with the direct involvement of migrant women leaders, it has members from 45 countries who live and work in Greece. It operates on the basis of a common platform, a hub where networks and individuals can meet, share their concerns and ideas, and support each other in the pursuit of their common goals.

4.3. Organisational initiatives

From Portugal, the **Programa Escolhas** [Choices Programme] has been picked as a good practice example for the inclusion of migrants. This Programme is a national government programme created in 2001, promoted by the Presidency of the Council of Ministers and integrated into ACM. The programme's mission is to promote the social inclusion of children and young people from vulnerable socio-economic contexts, ensure equality of opportunities, and strengthen social cohesion. This programme is structured in five strategic areas of intervention: education and training; employability and employment; participation, civic and community rights and duties; digital inclusion; and empowerment and entrepreneurship (ACM pp. 46).

In Greece, the most critical and extensive housing program for asylum seekers in flats and other structures located in metropolitan areas is the "Emergency Support to Integration and Accommodation program" (**ESTIA**). ESTIA is organized and executed by UNHCR in collaboration with 23 national and international NGOs and 11 municipalities. It is sponsored by the European Union's Asylum, Migration, and Integration Fund. ESTIA provides housing in metropolitan areas and monetary aid to asylum seekers who fulfill specific vulnerability requirements, as well as to family reunification applications[1]. As part of the ESTIA initiative, **EPAPSY** a separate project delivers integrated Mental Health and Psychosocial Support (MHPSS) services to refugees and asylum seekers in the housing scheme, as well as capacity development to support and expand the role of health operators and mental health professionals in the delivery of MHPSS at the urban area level.

Additional specialized interventions in the framework of emergency help are available in certain sections of the nation, such as Médecins Sans Frontières' Victims of Torture program, Médecins du Monde-Open Greece's Minds initiative, and the Greek Forum of Refugees' ERMES (Effective and Respectful Mental Health Support) program[2].

A further organizational initiative is established and supplemented by the Greek Ministry of Health's and is titled "**PHILOS - Emergency health response to refugee crisis**". Philos is a program performed by the National Organization of Public Health with the goal of raising awareness about the refugee crisis by covering the health and psychological requirements of persons living in reception centers. The initiative aims to address the urgent situation generated by the refugee crisis in mainland Greece (Attica, Northern, and Central Greece) after the closing of the Greek-North Macedonia borders and the EU-Turkey Statement, which left a significant number of migrants stranded in Greece and living in open camps set up by the Greek government[3]

[1] <http://estia.unhcr.gr/en/home/>

[2] Association for Regional Development and Mental Health. <https://www.epapsy.gr/en/>

[3] National Public Health Organization. <https://eody.gov.gr/en/philos/>

Another good practice example from France is work carried out the following organisations/ initiatives:

- a. The **Interministerial Committee of Immigration Control**, which was created in 2005. Chaired by the prime minister, this committee includes seven ministers and is in charge of the orientation of immigration control policies. It annually publishes a parliament report on the "orientations of governmental immigration policies.
- b. The **BAAM** (Bureau d'accueil et d'accompagnement des migrants): The BAAM provides a number of free legal, social and administrative assistance services. The BAAM will help inform you of your rights as a migrant in France, and how you can access healthcare and find work. It also provides access to French language classes.

- c. **La Cimade**: La Cimade can help inform migrants of their rights as migrants in France. It also provides legal assistance to migrants in Administrative Detention Centres (CRA).
- d. **Le CEDRE** (Secours catholique): this aid group can help migrants with their paperwork and administrative process providing them with information on their legal rights, information about applying for asylum and information about the Dublin regulation.
- e. **Administrative support for migrants** (ADDE, ATMF, Dom'asile, ELENA, GISTI,): This service is a joint effort aimed at supporting migrants in their administrative processes (appealing an expulsion order or an OFPRA decisions, the Dublin Accord, etc.) The services are available in several different languages: French, English, Arabic, Pashto, and Dari.

4.4. Local initiatives

An additional good practice initiative from Greece is the **Athens Coordination Centre for Migrant and Refugee Issues** that was recently formed by the Athens Municipality (ACCMR). The ACCMR's main goal since its establishment in 2017 has been to promote efficient and effective coordination among municipal authorities and city stakeholders, such as national and international NGOs, international organizations, and migrant and refugee community groups, in order to provide the necessary conditions for the smooth integration of current migrants and refugees. It has produced a strategic action plan for the city's seamless integration of migrants and refugees, as well as an online portal that allows users to map services and activities related to asylum seekers, refugees, and migrants in the greater Athens region¹¹.

¹¹ **Athens Coordination Center for Migrant & Refugee issues.**
<https://www.accmr.gr/en/the-athens-coordination-center.html>

In Italy in the local reception system in Cerignola, but also in that of the area of Cerignola, which includes the villages of Cerignola, Stornara, Stornarella, Carapelle, Ortona, Orta Nova, Ascoli Satriano, Candela and Rocchetta Sant'Antonio, there are good practice examples of cooperatives and associations that have created **integrated reception centres** in which the foreigner is accompanied on a path of acquisition of linguistic, training, individual and professional skills. Through these practices, migrants have the opportunity to increase their knowledge background and spend it in the same territory or other territories, which offer them the possibility of social and work inclusion. Furthermore, in the specific reality of the city of Cerignola, the "**Consultation for Immigrants**" was created, a body with the function of monitoring the processes of inclusion and implementing projects in favour of foreign citizens.

In Portugal another example of good practice is **Tayybeh**. It is a restaurant that results from a project to bring together four refugee women in Portugal who organise dinner to bring communities together and share their culture and gastronomy. The main goal is to promote refugee women inclusion and integration in the host community through cooking.



5

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Co-funded by the Erasmus+ Programme of the European Union

PARTNERSHIP



This project has been funded with support from the European Commission under the Erasmus+ Programme. This publication reflects the views only of the author, and the Commission cannot be held responsible for any use which may be made of the information contained therein.