Chapter 6. Block 4. Sectoral policies related to integration

Integration relates to a wide range of sectoral policies. While they might be regulated, designed, implemented and evaluated at different levels of government, it is at the local level that they reach their beneficiaries. Based on the findings from the ten case studies and the survey, this section of the report investigates the importance, bottlenecks and measures related to the four policy fields that emerged as most relevant for integration: labour market, housing, welfare (including health) and education.

- Labour market integration: Demand for labour (skilled/unskilled) that can be filled by migrants varies greatly across localities and some regions have developed mechanisms to assess their needs and attract international workers accordingly. While local authorities do not have competence for work permits or validating previous competences they try to influence both the supply and demand of labour. They are in an ideal position to match skills with the needs of the local labour market. The availability of local databases containing information about newcomer skills, either compiled nationally or locally, could improve this matching. During interviews across many of the cities analysed it emerged that the private sector does not feel sufficiently involved in migrant inclusion. This is often due to a loose link with national employment agencies that not only covers migrants but all job seekers. It is essential to create more opportunities for newcomers to directly interact with the private sector, and a municipal "go-to-place" where business associations, unions, migrants and the third sector could exchange information about opportunities available locally. Introduction to the labour market, language and skills acquisition are measures that should happen simultaneously. Sensitising the local business community can be effective in pushing firms to offer internships and work opportunities to newcomers.
- Housing sector: The housing sector is often saturated in large cities and social housing is very limited in the nine large-scale cities analysed in the case studies. For everyone, appropriate housing is a right, for migrants it is often a necessary step to legality and a precondition for registering as a resident in the city. Further, migrants struggle more than native-born in accessing good housing solutions (see Chapter 2.) because of regulative or discrimination obstacles. Migrants tend to find housing solutions in neighbourhoods where large migrant communities already live, potentially creating segregation phenomena. Cities taking part in the case studies are aware of the need to desegregate in their city planning; however, these policies are not updated very frequently and do not depend

only on the city. Municipalities have activated innovative and actionable means for housing large numbers of refugees and asylum seekers since 2015. Some of these are short-term solutions while others are permanent and linked to social housing services. However the decision to prioritise housing solutions for refugees needs to be carefully explained to the general public to avoid the perception that different treatments apply to different groups. Finally cities have targeted policies in place to accompany migrants during their house hunting and improving mediation services.

- Welfare and health: In general migrants have legal access to welfare services on the same basis as all other groups. Cities are on the frontline providing basic social services (i.e. shelters and showers, soup kitchen, etc.) that often address migrants' most basic needs. In addition to national services some cities top up welfare allowances (i.e. family support, child allowance, unemployment contributions, etc.) and reinforce health services addressing migrants' needs (prevention, primary care, hospitals and health centres) thanks to local finance, while sometimes adapting them to specific situations (i.e. rental support for refugees, etc.).

- Education: Cities in the sample systematically include refugees and asylum seekers in their national education system. Therefore when arrivals increased they had to adjust the capacity of their classes and the skills of the teachers. In general, it is the aim of local and national education services to transfer foreign-born pupils in public education quickly from targeted classes to regular classes.

  Avoiding the concentration of migrant background pupils in some schools is a key priority for many cities analysed in the case studies. Cities often implement professional and adult training. Municipalities could fine tune the offer of professional or adult training to the needs of the local labour market if they had more information on the qualification of the population arriving in their localities (i.e. most of migrants arrive past the schooling age). Finally, cities are engaged in reducing barriers for foreign-born pupils in accessing vocational training which are critical to access professional paths.

Objective 9. Match migrant skills with economic and job opportunities

Observations: Why it is important and what to avoid

It needs to be acknowledged that migrants, including second- and third-generation migrants, still face labour market barriers. Chapter 2. described the significant gap in employment and unemployment rates as well as over-qualification rates between native-born and non-native-born. It also showed that employment gaps are likely to be limited to non-EU migrants, probably due to the right to work and in the lack of recognition of their qualifications. More granular data from the ten cities analysed show similar gaps between migrants and native-born populations. For instance in Vienna, the employment rate is 74% for native-born, 71% for persons with an EU/EEA migration background, and 64% for persons with a third country migration background. This gap seems to persist across generations in some cases. In Amsterdam, for instance, the unemployment rate for Dutch individuals with a Moroccan background is estimated around 40%, whereas the average unemployment rate for the general population in 2016 was 6.7%. Cross-generational employment gaps and over-qualification gaps between native-born and migrant groups were also identified. For instance in Vienna, 34% of migrants from third countries who have higher education work in unskilled or semi-skilled jobs. These gaps have to be closely monitored as they might be symptoms of discrimination in access to job markets. Previous OECD work showed that on average across the OECD, just over one-third of the lower employment rates can be explained by these lower education levels. "Some groups, such as children of immigrants whose parents came from Turkey or North Africa, seem to face particular obstacles which cannot be explained by observable supply-side characteristics" (OECD, 2010).

The good news is that integration in the job market might take time, but it eventually happens. In 2016 the employment rate of the migrant population in the OECD was 67.4%, one point more than the previous years (OECD, 2017a). The delay for integration in the labour market is associated with the reasons for entering the country. For instance, adult family migrants integrate slowly into the OECD labour market. On average, they reach approximately a 41% employment rate after 10 years of residence against 70% for labour migrants and 55% for humanitarian migrants (OECD, 2017a). With regards to refugees after ten years in OECD countries, their employment rate in 2015 reached 56%, but it remains below the employment rate of native-born persons in most countries. A significant part of the difference in the employment rates between refugees and other migrants can be explained by differences in their education levels, i.e. refugees often have a lower level of education and their employment rate is, therefore, well below average (OECD/European Union, 2016). Previous OECD work (OECD, 2016a) looked at the local effects of migration in terms of unemployment, wages and residential mobility. Most studies available find no effect of immigration on local wages or employment, while a minority find a small effect, either negative or positive. However, existing literature based on case studies suggests that there might be a strong impact in a few areas with a very large immigrant concentration.

Entrepreneurship is a way into the labour market and often the only alternative to informal labour that authorities can support. A point that emerges from the case studies (i.e. Gothenburg, Rome, etc.) is that migrants can be active self-entrepreneurs in many countries where they settle. For example in Sweden, the percentage of Swedish men who are self-employed is 4.8%, but it rises to 7.7 % of Iranian-born and 11.4% of Syrian-born men. According to the statistics collected for the ad-hoc sample, only 38% of the cities

offer subsidies and support for migrant entrepreneurship. This might be linked to the fact that most of the cities in the sample are small urban areas and might not have the capacities to set up specific programmes for migrant entrepreneurship. From the interviews conducted with migrant associations during the field research, it appears that migrants are more often risk-takers than native-born, especially refugee and first-generation migrants. However, one should not think that all migrants are good entrepreneurs, or that they have arrived with that vocation because of previous experience. Often they decide to start a business because they do not find a job as employees or because it provides alternative access to more stable, but difficult to obtain, job permits. According to previous research (Froy and Pyne, 2011) entrepreneurship, especially for young migrants has come to be increasingly seen as an effective employment alternative. Young entrepreneurs from minorities can benefit local economic development and the most successful ones can become local businessman and civic leaders. Public support and training is important to allow young migrants to build and grow local firms so that they do not get trapped in low quality entrepreneurship. Given the importance of this topic, further research will be undertaken by the OECD (OECD, forthcoming) taking a closer look at entrepreneurship among the immigrant population, immigrant entrepreneurs' results compare with those of EU-born, some of the unique challenges and barriers they face, etc.

Facilitating a "day one" approach to migrant integration would require constraints to be eased on language skills upon entering the job market while adopting longer term accompanying measures to language acquisition.

Language skills are indeed a major obstacle for accessing the job market, especially for skilled positions. However, employers in some countries recognise that for some positions (i.e. the engineering sector in Sweden), migrants could be able to work in English (instead of Swedish), at least in the beginning. Also in specific sectors such as tourism, migrants can benefit from their foreign language skills and play a critical role in filling labour shortages. This is an important shift from a sequential approach to a more integrated one: no need to delay migrant and refugee access to jobs until they develop their language skills. On-the-job language learning is highly effective (OECD/UNHCR, 2016). Refugees' testimonies collected through this study confirm their willingness to accept jobs for which they are over-qualified while learning the language. However, they see this as a temporary compromise while their previous titles are validated or they attend professional training. They need to maintain their career prospects so they can remain motivated and ensure that their contribution to the local economy is as productive as possible. This is also why cities must provide support beyond initial placement in acquiring the new skills required for skilled employment opportunities (see "Objective 4. Design integration policies that take time into account throughout migrants' lifetimes and evolution of residency status").

Refugees and asylum seekers might face specific obstacles to labour integration that local authorities can help address. For instance, their access to jobs is delayed in countries where they have no right to work as asylum seekers and during the first months after recognition. In addition, certain countries recently limited the possibility to receive a permanent residence permit following their temporary subsidiary protection status and restricted family reunification for people holding subsidiary protection. For example, Sweden enacted new asylum legislation in 2016 whereby 13-month subsidiary protection permits can only be renewed consecutively and are not eligible for family reunification. Status uncertainty discourages both potential employers from hiring migrants and newcomers from looking for jobs. Some countries also restrict asylum seekers' access to

apprenticeship or internship programmes and vocational education systems (OECD/UNHCR, 2016). However, some other countries recently extended the right to work to asylum seekers (e.g. Italy from day one and Germany after three months), fostering integration in particular of those nationals who face longer approval delays for asylum approval. Local authorities have to adapt rapidly to these changes, making sure the services involved have the right information through appropriate multi-level information sharing and can promptly disseminate it.

In order to maximise migrants' contribution to regional development, particularly in areas facing demographical challenges, it would be critical to better understand migrants' localisation as well as data availability on labour demand at local level to improve matching between profiles and the characteristics of the localities where migrant settle. The skills that migrants and refugees have can fill specific labour shortages in some areas, particularly areas confronted by the challenges associated with depopulation. Evidence shows that most OECD countries have increasingly needed both highly skilled and low-skilled migration because of structural needs in specific sectors such as agriculture, construction, domestic services, and caring (Brezzi et al., 2010). Increased demand not only for skilled labour but also for low-skilled labour arising from economic growth in regional areas or low population growth areas needs to be addressed. In addition, the ways in which demand for both skilled and unskilled labour in those areas is met through migration should be explored (Tan and Lester, 2011). Shortages in the tourism sector have for instance lead to long-term solutions for migrants in Australia, Canada and New Zealand. These solutions aim at integration using professional and language training (OECD, 2012). Nevertheless, matching migrants' skills with the needs of the local job markets does not happen by itself. Local as well as multi-level public action needs to target it. Data on occupational groups could capture where migrant workers are actually placed in the local labour market, where they would be needed and what jobs they do that might not correspond to their formal qualification levels (OECD, 2016a). Further it might be useful to understand the main drivers of the migrants' localisation in order to maximise their contribution to regional development. Results from previous OECD research (Brezzi et al., 2010) demonstrate that localisation is determined by the presence of long-standing migrants as well as of attractive local labour market conditions in receiving regions. For migrants, and in particular for highly-skilled ones, the decision about where to migrate is not only made on the basis of labour offer but also on the basis of more general attractiveness of the receiving region (specific social services to migrants and their family, housing, education, climate, etc.).

The reasons for migrants' localisation are often related to the category of entry: For instance, family migrants (who account for 40% of total permanent migration inflow to OECD countries (OECD, 2017a)) usually decide to migrate close to the principal applicant(s). In contrast, labour flows tend to be driven by the employers' demand and are often subject to labour market recruitment mechanisms (Brezzi et al., 2010). Flows of refugees can be dispersed by national authorities to less populated areas. Box 3.3 highlighted the mixed impact of dispersal mechanisms in terms of labour integration for instance and pointed to the need of place-based policies that can facilitate the integration of refugees to more rural/less populated areas.

Which tools could work and what could be done better

The right to work and the recognition of diplomas and qualifications largely do not depend on local authorities, but cities play a key intermediary role between migrant and local businesses in several ways. As defined in previous work, "amid a web of formal

competencies and informal influences, cities play a central role in the labour market integration of new arrivals" (Desiderio, 2016). *According to the data collected for this study, nearly 41% of the sampled cities have full competence for employment and labour reintegration measures regarding migrant populations and 39% share their competence with other levels of government.* They provide a wide array of critical services to newcomers, including language training, skills assessment and orientation, mentoring and placement services, entrepreneurship support, credential recognition and vocational education and training. Most of the time, these services are provided in addition to those provided within national or regional integration frameworks. 74% of the answers in the ad-hoc sample indicate that they are aware of migrant re-integration in the job market.

In addition cities are able to bring together a spectrum of actors working in the field of labour integration: business, and civil society, public employment services, chambers of commerce, unions and qualification providers. Together they tailor the services provided to migrants to meet local needs. 67% of the cities in the ad-hoc sample indicated that there is at least one initiative involving the local private sector in facilitating migrant and refugee access to jobs.

The scale and type of activities that cities implement is largely influenced by the characteristics of the local labour market. Depending on the demand for skilled labour, local authorities will focus more on mechanisms for attracting highly skilled migrants and supporting the validation of their competences. While in cities, where newcomers often find their first job in the informal sector and the demand for skilled labour is low, cities invest less in validating formal competences and more to implement mechanisms to support migrants in regularising their status (i.e. Barcelona's Arraigo procedure; self-entrepreneurship training, etc.).

The tools identified have been divided in two groups. The first group reviews the tools addressing barriers to labour integration created from the demand side (e.g. attitudes and behaviours of those involved in the recruitment process or functioning of labour market institutions). The second group reviews tools addressing the supply of the labour market (i.e. individual characteristics).

Activities on the demand side of labour integration

1. Improve matching between local labour needs and newcomers' skills by building a locally accessible database of newcomers' competences

The local level could have a more proactive role in responding to the employers' demand and attract migrants based on their capacities. Both regional and local authorities can be a crucial link between central authorities and the employers when a database on migrants' competences and lists of available positions are available locally. Regional authorities often hold the (exclusively or not) competence for economic development, including interaction with enterprises. Some regions (in Australia and Canada) for instance have put in place regional migrant sponsor and selection schemes (Brezzi et al., 2010), playing therefore a very active role in attracting and recruiting migrants.

As discussed in Block 1, at the national level, in those countries where dispersal mechanisms for status holders exist, information collected at an early stage on newcomers' competences could help authorities in charge of allocation to match local labour needs and skills. If newcomers' skills where matched with local labour shortages from the outset then migrants would not have to move a second time and would be less likely to concentrate in urban areas. The OECD is currently looking into the different

models of refugee dispersal mechanisms, analysing whether their characteristics, for instance between being labour market-based or availability-based, have an impact on integration outcomes.

A database compiling newcomers' competences - built either at national or local level - that is made available locally (OECD/UNHCR, 2016) would support municipalities in matching local needs and available capacities. At the local level, municipalities have direct access to the enterprises and can match more easily competences with available positions. Information about newcomers' competences also helps municipalities in orienting them to the right training, when needed, and to adapt their competences to local needs.

Building a locally accessible database requires multi-level coordination among actors involved in this task (e.g. employment agency, migration agency, regional and local development authorities, etc.) to ensure the skills identified either locally or at national level can be matched with opportunities available within and across countries. For this purpose assessment methodologies must collect the same information about candidates' experience and make it easily accessible for potential employers. Some 81% of the cities responding to the OECD ad-hoc survey are aware of an initiative to assess newcomers' skills. More than half of the assessment initiatives at city level target both migrants and refugees. These assessments include language skills, professional experience and education (degrees and other formal educational attainment). In some cases, literacy is also tested. The Programme for the International Assessment of Adult Competencies (PIAAC), for instance, is used to test literacy skills as well as key cognitive and workplace skills needed for individuals. This test specifies the country of birth, but not the nationality.[1] In many countries the national agencies (i.e. employment agency) are engaged in this assessment. In some cases, the regional level collaborates to the assessment with national systems (as is the case in Austria); in other cases the assessment is undertaken locally (Amsterdam, etc.). The European Commission provided a tool for harmonising skills assessments and recently launched the EU Skills Profile Tool for Third-Country Nationals.

- **Canada**: Atlantic Immigration Pilot. To respond to regional labour market needs and increase newcomer retention in the Atlantic region, four provinces and the Government of Canada established a partnership. The mechanism helps Atlantic businesses of all size to attract permanent skilled workers or international graduate students. The employer needs to be designated by their respective provinces before they can apply for a visa for their perspective employees and needs to work with one of the settlement service provider organizations recognised in their province.[2] In addition to guaranteeing full-time employment for the principal applicant, employers must commit to settlement-related obligations designed to help the family transition and integrate into their new community.
- **Altena:** The city made a first attempt in establishing a skills assessment for newly arrived asylum seekers and refugees on a voluntary basis, taking stock of their education and previous professional experiences. At the town hall, an integration team is available to support this group in drafting their CVs. However, there is no municipal database connecting job seekers and employers; therefore, placements are mostly done through direct networking between employers and prospective employees.
- **Amsterdam:** The municipality signed a contract with Manpower, the job agency, to understand candidates' aspirations and identify their previous experience. This

information is then made available to local companies. Manpower experts also included non-academic or non-formal aptitudes in the assessment. This assessment is done for asylum seekers and recognised refugees while still in the Amsterdam refugee centre.

- **Vienna:** As part of Start Wien (presented in objective 4), all migrants have access to an "integration from day one" approach. In particular for asylum seekers this entails: 1) a competence check while the person is still pending validation of his/her status; and 2) this information is made available to the local section of the national Public Employment Service (AMS) that, as soon as the asylum seeker has obtained the appropriate status, can complete the competence check through an in-depth assessment lasting five weeks. AMS uses this information to also find apprenticeships for young, recognised refugees. In partnership with the Austrian Federal Economic Chamber (WKO) the AMS initiated the project "b.mobile" that matches young refugees with enterprises needing apprentices in all federal provinces, including in rural areas where businesses, due to demographic challenges, lack local candidates.

2. Fight discrimination

The large employment and income gaps for more highly educated third-countries migrant compared to EU born population described in Chapter 2 highlight the need to look more closely at employers' behaviour, perceptions and barriers in hiring and retaining newcomers. Public opinion polls across Europe show that 20% of respondents say they would be uncomfortable working with a Roma person. This figure was at 6% for working with either a black or Asian person (EUROBAROMETER, 2015).

Additional public opinion polls, enforcement and preventative work is needed to make sure discrimination does not keep repeating itself. Enforcement of anti-discrimination legislation, that all OECD countries have enacted (OECD, 2008), in hiring and at the work place should be a primary objective at the local level. Examples of anti-discrimination legislation include provisions introducing the obligation to have anonymous CVs, sometimes even omitting the zip code to prevent employers from basing their decision on stereotypes associated to specific neighbourhoods, for instance the ones with higher migrant concentration. Public awareness of legal rules is a crucial element of effective anti-discrimination strategies as OECD cross-country analysis shows that enforcement of anti-discrimination legislation is essentially based on victims' willingness to claim their rights (OECD, 2008). Local authorities may consider bolstering local stakeholders' capacity building in order to map and report discrimination to the relevant authorities.

Municipal initiatives for educating and supporting local employers can be critical in improving migrants' labour market outcomes. The municipality can play a significant role in stimulating change of local business mentalities and support them, in turn, in raising their employees' awareness of migrant recruitment. As previous work by Froy and Pyne (2011) highlights, employers' engagement is crucial in labour market integration initiatives. For instance, local platforms among small and medium-sized enterprises as well as third sector and other local employers who decided to diversify their work environment, can contribute to sharing local knowledge across businesses so other companies can be incentivised and adopt successful practices. They can do so for instance by establishing employers charter marks and promotion of employers' practices. Experience sharing could be fostered also through the creation of an EU-wide online tool to share information, practices and resources (Desiderio, 2016).

Further public sector employers need to play their part in ensuring greater ethnic diversity among their staff.

- **Amsterdam:** The municipality provides the following example: A group of 14 refugees from Iran, Egypt, Syria and Eritrea started working for the city of Amsterdam. They will follow a three-year programme, and after two years, will receive a contract. A combination of learning the Dutch language and gaining work experience is at the core of the programme. In the first year they prepare for the traineeship programme with training sessions, and take Dutch language courses three days a week. The second and third years they carry out several assignments within the municipality.
- **Berlin:** The campaign "Refugee is not a profession" aims to encourage local businesses to offer job opportunities to migrants.
- **Canada: Immigrant Employment Councils.** Across the provinces, through multi-stakeholder collaboration, these councils help employers meet the challenges of a diversified workforce and understand the business case for hiring internationally trained immigrants, while at the same time allowing immigrants to network through initiatives such as mentoring programs. These councils are part of Canada's increasing efforts in engaging employers and addressing the barriers they face in hiring and retaining newcomers.

3. Develop strong networks with the private sector to foster migrant integration

Cities work in partnership with public employment services, chambers of commerce, chambers of labour, non-profit actors and vocational institutions to connect migrants with employers' needs for apprenticeship and recruitment. According to previous OECD work (OECD/UNHCR, 2016), as well as new evidence from this research, employers feel disconnected from the employment services, NGOs and reception centres that are dealing with migrants and refugees. In most countries, vacancies are filled using informal recruitment channels, rather than through advertisements or employment agencies (OECD, 2010). Children of immigrants have less access to networks consisting of people linked to the labour market. Also, the second generation often faces challenges in connection with professional networks. Therefore, municipalities can be critical in supporting more informal networking opportunities or directly signing covenants, providing fiscal incentives to companies that commit to hiring non-nationals. For example municipalities can incentivise local businesses to select migrants (who have competitive profiles) as apprentices and help them hire them at the end of the apprenticeship by strengthening the training component. This will increase the chances of more stable job placements afterwards. Offering spaces where newcomers can observe professionals, getting close to the local business culture, discovering professional fields and enlarging their social networks is also a strategy adopted in some municipalities analysed.

- **Ammerland** (a district in Lower Saxony [Germany] composed of five municipalities with 121 000 inhabitants): The district launched the project "pro:connect", which aims to connect employers and prospective employees with a migration background, preventing future shortages of a skilled workforce in the local labour market. The project has two main components: 1) the counsellors help asylum seekers, refugees and migrants find internships, support them during their application processes and in obtaining recognition of their qualifications; and 2) the organisation of a network of employers by organising events in

collaboration with the chamber of commerce and two other employer associations.

- **Amsterdam:** Some 72 Dutch entrepreneurs were offered workspaces in the city's refugee centre with the intention of providing opportunities for refugees to network with local community. The Refugee Talent Hub also has its office in the building. This is a platform sponsored by the municipality and private companies such as Accenture and IKEA, which aims at bridging the gap between employers and refugees.
- **Berlin:** The Immigration Authority in Berlin (a subordinated body of the state of Berlin, which hands out residence permits), in partnership with the Chamber of Industry and Commerce (IHK) and the company Berlin Partner for Economy and Technology GmbH, supports local businesses in their efforts to recruit and give labour market credentials to skilled workers from outside Germany.
- **Paris:** SINGA France is an NGO working to create synergies between refugees and their host communities. Next to cultural dialogue programmes and language classes, the NGO specifically focuses on creating job opportunities for refugees. As many refugees lack professional contacts, SINGA aims to connect them with relevant people who could help them set up their own business or find a job. In 2017, the organisation accompanied 300 refugees towards entrepreneurship; so far, 23% of them have reached financial autonomy after six months of taking part in SINGA's programme.
- **Solingen** (German city in North Rhine-Westphalia, Dusseldorf province, 158 000 inhabitants): The city offers a "job café" where migrants and non-migrants can meet to network and engage actively in their job searches. Different groups take advantage of this space, as well as people from outside the city.
- **Berlin:** Social start-up Migration Hub Network, headquartered in Berlin, is a global network fostering collaboration between asylum seekers, migrants and refugees, matching social entrepreneurs and actors in the public and private sector. The start-up provides a common open co-working space for initiatives around mass migration. This presents an important opportunity especially for grassroots and 'newcomer' organisations to evolve, since they often lack financial means, access to research, networks and data

Activities on the supply side of labour integration

4. Encourage employment orientation services to target migrants

Migrants and children of immigrants tend to have a structural disadvantage because they are less familiar with how the labour market works, including the unwritten rules about applications and social codes surrounding job interviews. This type of information is often transmitted via parents and friends. Also, online or traditional recruitment strategies might not reach newcomers due to language barriers and lack of social networks. Hence, migrants and their children are in need of support to overcome this negative factor. Migrants would benefit from counselling and orientation services during their job searches. Local job orientation services can tap into local opportunities and social enterprises to increase migrants' chances of finding a job in the local market. In this sense, it is also important to build the capacity of local employment services to match migrants' needs. In some cities, job orientation is one of the services available in one-stop shops for migrant orientation (i.e. SAER in Barcelona, Integration service for migrants in Gothenburg, Vienna Start Wien office, etc.). As regards qualified migrants, cities often

put in place targeted services to attract international skilled workers or to incentivise international students to stay after their studies.

- **Amsterdam:** The city has deployed significant efforts to attract skilled migrants and has made contacts with local enterprises to this end. The city established the Expat Centre (now called IN Amsterdam – International Newcomers Amsterdam), which is a one-stop shop for the integration of highly skilled migrants. Migrants find assistance to register and settle in the city. In collaboration with the national Ministry of Security and Justice (Immigrate and Naturalisation service [IND]), the Expat Centre helps with residence and work permits, registration with the municipality, tax questions and many other official matters.
- **Berlin:** MoBiBe (Berlin mobile education counselling service) aims to provide advice to migrants, asylum seekers and refugees in the most important languages of origin. MoBiBe counsellors target the individual potentials of the individuals being advised by referring them to suitable offers within the educational system, vocational training or the labour market.
- **Helsinki:** The International House Helsinki and the At Work in Finland project focus, inter alia, on international skilled migrants in Helsinki, by developing services to retain international students and international skilled workers (one-stop shop), relocation services and matching them with private companies (on-demand). The city has also established the Skills Centre of Helsinki: where the city provides adult migrants with employment services and co-operation with enterprises, vocational, educational, occupational and specific language training. Since June 2016, the Skills Centre has reached over 1 000 people.
- **Milan:** The Celav (Centro di Mediazione Lavoro) centre supports foreign workers' introduction into the job market. The centre targets all unemployed who are resident in Milan and particularly disadvantaged groups such as persons with a disability and ethnic minorities. The centre offers professional training to adapt the skills to market needs, matching with concrete opportunities and access to employment through publicly remunerated internships.
- **Solingen:** The city has developed a strategy to respond to labour shortages for (elderly) health care. The project, "The Future of Care is Colourful" (Die Zukunft der Pflege ist bunt) aims to attract young migrants with an interest to work in this area. The municipality established an office for the counselling and the hiring of migrants as interns in this area.

5. Offer integrated packages for entrepreneurship support (coaching, microfinance and strengthening of business networks)

Cities have traditionally acted as hubs for kick-starting entrepreneurs, including migrants. Cities can help migrants overcome different obstacles in establishing their activities, such as lack of knowledge about the culture and regulatory environment for business creation and self-employment. They do so by offering integrated packages of entrepreneurship support, including language training, business management training (covering the regulatory environment, etc.) (OECD, 2010). Cities increasingly build on networks and the experience of established migrant communities to guide newcomers.

- **Amsterdam:** Packages (Eigen Werk - Create your own job) are offered for all citizens who would like to set up their activity, including specialised training, and mapping entrepreneurs, using data from the Chamber of Commerce and from the

Dutch Central Agency for Statistics. Migrants, like all other citizens, have access to fiscal incentives to start their activity. Moreover, when applicable, authorities top up the entrepreneurial income to the amount of their initial unemployment benefit (based on personal employment history) or social benefits (accessible to all), for up to three years. Amsterdam also provides microfinance for migrant entrepreneurs.

- **Berlin:** The city supports the activities of a Turkish organisation specialised in providing advice to migrants who want to set up, or are already running, their business.

- **Utrecht** (Netherlands): Programmes such as Refugee Launch Pad or Plan Einstein provide free entrepreneurship courses, together with the Centre for Entrepreneurship and Utrecht University, and individual guidance with the social impact factory to see the real possibilities for a start-up. This starts in the asylum centre (activate people from day one), and is followed up when the refugee gets a house in Utrecht (ongoing support).

- **Vienna:** Access to business networks is encouraged through the "Mentorship Partnership" (by the national employment agency), which lasts six months between a migrant and an expert of the sector in which they want to invest. They develop a plan, establish contacts and accompany the migrant to meet the business community. Beneficiaries are migrants who have completed an apprenticeship or higher education. The city of Vienna has also created the Vienna business agency to accompany migrants and all other population groups in setting up their businesses.

6. Develop systems for the validation of professional qualifications

Although recognising diplomas and professional qualifications is often a central government competence, local authorities have established mechanisms to facilitate the path for migrants. These mechanisms help migrants understand which authorities they need to address to obtain the validation and to support them in finding the documents needed.

- **Gothenburg:** For some professions, the city has established a fast-track system to validate professional qualifications, in co-operation with the local employment agency. The programme particularly targets migrants in their acceptance of credentials obtained abroad. The city offers a fast-track programme for teachers, which is partly taught in Arabic language.

- **Inter-municipal/regional partnership Gothenburg:** The region set up an organisation called Validering Väst (Validation West), which is a collaboration between the region and the four sub-regional associations (including the Gothenburg region). This organisation works with various stakeholders (including the employment agency) in order to help individuals receive documented proof of their skills (e.g. as an electrician or a builder, etc.), so that they can work in specific vocations that require a license or formal education (the national authority, Swedish Council for Higher Education, will then evaluate foreign education titles). One of their goals for 2017 was to create conditions so that newcomers to Sweden can have their practical skills "made visible" and documented.

7. Help migrants access the labour market through social enterprises

Social economy organisations, particularly social enterprises play an active role especially in promoting initiatives for youth migrants. The social economy has a key role to play in addressing disadvantage, improving employment outcomes and fostering social inclusion. One type of social enterprise in particular, Work Integration Social Enterprises (WISEs), can play an important role in promoting social inclusion and employment. Such social enterprises focus on work integration activities, such as skills training, the provision of employment opportunities directly, and/or through wider support activities in helping people to access the open labour market. One of the comparative advantages of social enterprises is that they are often based and embedded in local communities. By contributing to the development of formal and informal networks, they engage with hard-to-reach people (Froy and Pyne 2011). Together with the European Union, the OECD has developed a good practice compendium for Social Enterprise Development involving migrants (OECD/European Union, 2017).

Objective 10. Secure access to adequate housing

Observations: Why it is important and what to avoid

Difficulties of attribution of vacant housing to migrants are recognised by the majority (63%) of respondents to the OECD questionnaire as a very high, or high, unfavourable factor to migrant integration. As previous analysis shows, due to its concentration in urban areas, large migrant inflows can aggravate existing problems regarding the local housing infrastructure, especially with regard to social housing (OECD, 2016a). In all the cities analysed in the case studies, there is limited availability of housing in general and social housing in particular; waiting lists vary from 2 to 17 years for all vulnerable groups.

Once migrants access housing, there is high probability that they will be living in below-adequate standards. The OECD regional database also shows that migrants are more likely to live in overcrowded dwellings than native-born across all regions, but tend to be worse off in urban areas. In Italy and Greece for example, at least 40% of adult migrants live in an overcrowded housing unit.

While housing is one of the most immediate and important needs for all populations, for migrants it is a necessary step to regularise their status

Housing is a key dimension for integration, which has an impact on all other dimensions (Salvi del Pero et al., 2016, p. 10). Not only does not having a home undermine the ability of a newcomer to find a job or regularly attend training, but in many cities housing represents a necessary step towards integration and legality. Without a formal address, it is impossible to access certain municipal services, and in some countries, it is a prerequisite for obtaining a residence permit or to reunite with ones family.

Emergency housing is not a concern on average in the study sample

Lack of emergency reception facilities represents a very high, or high, unfavourable factor for only 16% of respondents. On the contrary, adapted emergency reception facilities for asylum seekers and refugees was considered as a high, or very high, favourable factor to integration by 43% of respondent cities. More than 50% of the cities set up reception centres for asylum seekers and refugees. Almost 50% of the entire

sample built or renovated additional housing units for asylum seekers and refugees. Particularly high is the number among the German municipalities, of which 61% indicated that additional housing was built or renovated for asylum seekers and refugees. However, for five out of the nine large European cities analysed (Athens, Berlin, Glasgow, Paris and Rome), the lack of emergency reception facilities was a high, or very high, concern. These findings might suggest that cities' resilience for emergency accommodation is only under stress in the case of a large influx, like the ones received in large EU cities since 2015. Whereas for average cities receiving smaller numbers of newcomers, emergency accommodation did not represent a major challenge. On the contrary, adapted emergency reception facilities were arranged.

A concentration of migrants in certain neighbourhoods impedes integration

In some cities of the sample, the concentration of housing discomfort and social distress in some specific neighbourhoods overlaps with the concentration of migrant communities. This combination raises segregation risks and related delays in migrant integration (see "Objective 5. Create spaces where the interaction brings migrant and native-born communities closer").

Medium and small urban areas, which represent the majority of cities in the research survey, perceive spatial segregation as limited. This is possibly due to the limited number of migrants hosted in these cities - a median of 14 000 migrants, or 11% of the population, on average, across the cities of the sample. Only one-fourth of the respondents recognised "spatial segregation and migrants' concentration in impoverished neighbourhoods" as a high, or very high, unfavourable factor to integration. One-fourth considered this as a very low unfavourable factor to integration.

On the contrary, spatial segregation is one of the main concerns for the metropolitan cities analysed in the case studies, where migrant presence represent 23% of the population, on average. Three out of the nine large European cities analysed (Athens, Glasgow and Gothenburg) considered segregation as a very high, or highly unfavourable factor to integration. In some large cities in the sample, migrants tend to concentrate in just a few neighbourhoods (Box 4.1 under "Objective 5. Create spaces where the interaction brings migrant and native-born communities closer") due to a variety of reasons, including low rents, concentration of social housing, proximity to working area and the presence of an existing community. Data gathered through the case studies indicate that these areas are sometimes characterised by a high housing discomfort index (average of buildings tend to be in disrepair) and a high level of social distress (a combination of unemployment rate, occupation, population with adults under age 25, population that attained a secondary school degree). As described in Box 4.1, the "neighbourhood effect" has consequences on migrants' access to education and social services and on the social capital they build to navigate their new society.
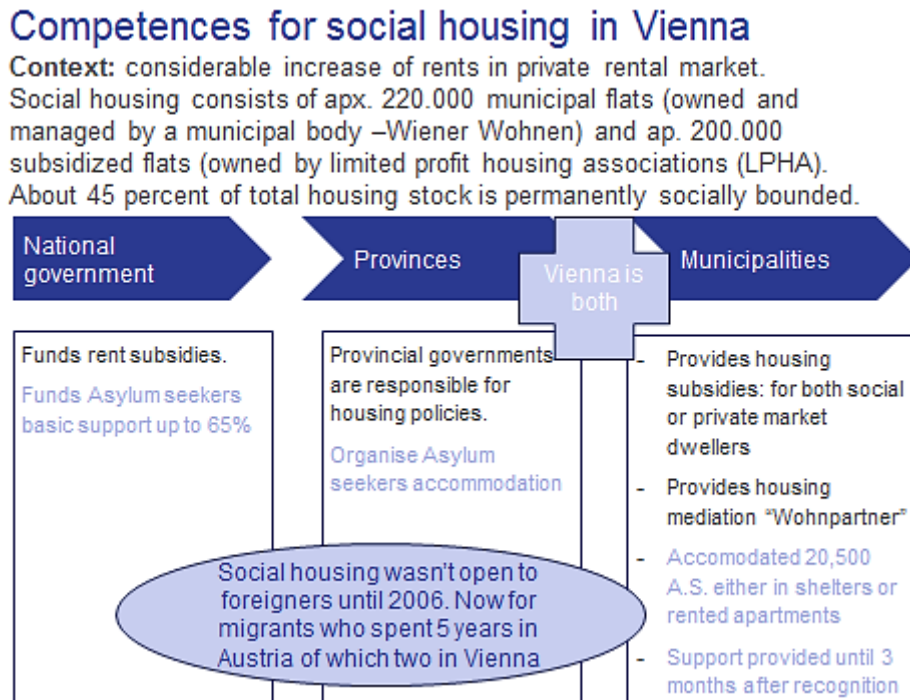
Furthermore, as mentioned in Chapter 2. , negative perception of migrants is positively correlated with low socio-economic characteristics. Problems of acceptance are therefore likely to arise in neighbourhoods with overlap of concentration of ethnic communities and low social indexes. Living in disadvantaged areas due to their education or employment situations, native-born populations are less likely to see the migrants' potential contribution to society and might perceive them as living in social flats meant to meet national needs. In some cities of the sample, the concentration of discomfort and social distress indexes in some specific neighbourhoods has been influenced by past policies. For instance, in Sweden, the Million Program, established during the 1960s and

1970s, built 1 million residences across the country, mainly units in tall buildings outside the city centres, initially inhabited by the working class. Between 1970 and 1990 many people moved out and ethnic minorities moved into the vacated flats left behind were inhabited by.

Obstacles to further inclusion of migrants' considerations in urban planning and social housing policies

Encouraging distribution of migrants across neighbourhoods where they are less concentrated can disrupt inequality patterns, ensuring access to quality schools and services, with positive consequences on future employment and education opportunities (see Box 4.1). However, urban planning processes do not always look at the effect of migration on infrastructure and services: "for most cities, migration usually appears as an afterthought rather than as an integral part of the urban planning process" (World Economic Forum, 2017). This might be due to a number of reasons. First, both strategic city plans and spatial plans are designed over periods of several years and are usually updated every 5 to 10 years. As such they cannot respond quickly to emerging conditions such as demographic change, exclusion and population movements. Therefore statutory land use planning can block attempts of more flexible zoning that could address emerging needs (e.g. temporary housing for refugees). Second, urban planning is a multi-level governance issue. Municipalities are not very often (34% of respondents) fully responsible for housing policies for migrants at city level. In 55% of responding cities, housing is a responsibility shared with the national government. Only 10% indicate not having any competency in this policy field. With regard to new housing policies, cities are often responsible for spatial planning and building permits, and set the criteria that housing corporations need to respect. For some cities, spatial planning and housing represent a significant share of municipal expenditure. For instance, it is the biggest item in Amsterdam's budget (OECD, 2012). In particular, social housing[3] is often defined as a competence involving different government levels during different phases, ranging from urban planning to programming and building and then provision and administration of services (Figure 6.1).

Figure 6.1. Competences for social housing in Vienna

Competences for social housing in Vienna
Context: considerable increase of rents in private rental market.
Social housing consists of apx. 220.000 municipal flats (owned and
managed by a municipal body –Wiener Wohnen) and ap. 200.000
subsidized flats (owned by limited profit housing associations (LPHA).
About 45 percent of total housing stock is permanently socially bounded.

National government	Provinces	Vienna is both	Municipalities
Funds rent subsidies. Funds Asylum seekers basic support up to 65%	Provincial governments are responsible for housing policies. Organise Asylum seekers accommodation	Social housing wasn't open to foreigners until 2006. Now for migrants who spent 5 years in Austria of which two in Vienna	- Provides housing subsidies: for both social or private market dwellers - Provides housing mediation "Wohnpartner" - Accomodated 20,500 A.S. either in shelters or rented apartments - Support provided until 3 months after recognition

Source: Authors own elaboration from Statistik Austria, Wohnen 2016, Zahlen, Daten und Indikatoren der Wohnstatistik, Wien 2017.

Which tools could work and what could be done better

1. Equitable policies for accessing social housing

As previously mentioned, limited availability of housing in general and social housing in particular affects all vulnerable groups living in large cities, including migrants who would often be eligible to this service due to their income level. Most of the cities analysed make this service accessible to migrants on the same basis as the rest of the population and requiring minimum residence periods in cities is exceptional although still a reality as described in the paragraph below.

Planning housing solutions that are appropriate, secure, suitable and affordable does not only apply to migrants or refugees, but to all groups living in a city. Policies have to be perceived as equitable, particularly in social housing; different treatments for different groups (based on legal status or ethnicity) can increase social tensions. In fact, in the majority (87%) of the cities in the ad-hoc sample, social housing is accessible on the same basis to migrants and refugees as to all other groups. In 67% of the cities, recognised refugees did not benefit from a specific housing scheme. In most of the cities (78%), migrants benefit from cash support and rental allowances on the same basis as all other residents.

While, in the long term, migrants tend to be over-represented among social housing tenants (Kleine-Rueschkamp and Veneri, forthcoming), due to the fact that they are often eligible because of their income level, in the short term, their access to this service is limited in most of the cities observed in the sample. In some cities, migrants have

restricted access to social housing during the first years of their stay, as eligibility is based on length of stay in the city and the type of residence permit. Migrants can apply for social housing after five years of legal residence in Austria, of which two years continuously at the same address in in Vienna; after two years of regular residence in Italy; after 11 months in Berlin. An unintended positive effect of limited access to social housing has been, in cities such as Vienna, the avoidance of ethnic concentration in those neighbourhoods with a high percentage of social housing (Box 6.1).

Box 6.1. Housing for refugees and asylum seekers

In a context of general limited housing availability, EU countries had to accommodate approximately 1.3 million asylum seekers and refugees who arrived between 2015 and 2016. Capacity and infrastructure pressures have decreased the ability of local authorities to quickly find permanent accommodation for asylum seekers, with consequences for other aspects of their integration processes such as access to education services (Desiderio, 2016).

According to the evidence collected through the case studies, there are two levels of accommodation systems for refugees and asylum seekers. During the first reception period (approximately 12-18 months), corresponding from the moment the asylum claim is filed until the decision on the protection status is made, the person is hosted in temporary accommodation (shelters, camps, flats, units, etc.) under the responsibility of the national government. These first reception systems are usually dispersed across the whole country, and newcomers are distributed across them according to criteria of territorial equity or availability (see Box 3.5). Some dispersal systems are developed in dialogue between national and local authorities; in other cases local authorities have to comply with a decision taken at a higher level. In some cases national agencies are directly in charge of the implementation (i.e. COA in the Netherlands, l'OFII "Office Francais de l'immigration et de l'intégration" through the CADA network "Centre d'accueil de demandeurs d'asile in France); in others, the implementation is devolved to local authorities (e.g. Sweden). In other cases, these systems are outsourced to non-state actors (Spain, United Kingdom, etc.).

Second reception systems refer to the accommodation provided to recognised refugees. In many countries this usually covers only the first few months after recognition. Usually six months after recognition refugees have to leave the accommodation that had been provided and have to find their own place. See Figure below depicting Glasgow's 28 days move-on period from dispersal accommodation (Scottish Refugee Council, 2016).

Figure 6.2. Housing during and after the asylum process in Glasgow
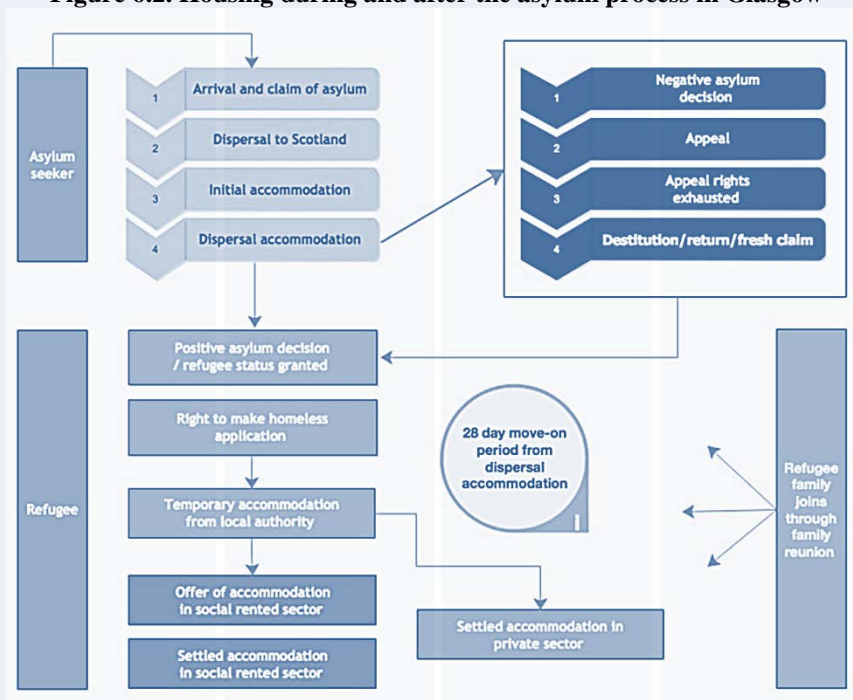
When needed, refugees seek housing support from universal housing services based on the same criteria of the rest of the population. This support can be in the form of rental allowances or social housing, when available. To better support refugees during this transition, some cities have put in place different measures: strengthen language and cultural skills of their housing services (Barcelona, Glasgow), volunteers that accompany them during flat hunting (Berlin, etc.), etc. In other cases, second reception systems correspond to permanent housing solutions that are guaranteed to refugees. Refugees might be assigned to a new city, or remain in the one of the first reception system, according to a second national dispersal scheme and the responsibility for finding a permanent accommodation is transferred to the destination city.

For instance, to implement the second reception system in the Netherlands, the Dutch authorities decided to devolve the responsibility for housing recognised refugees to the municipalities (Housing Allocation Act, 2015). In addition, the national government decided to prioritise refugees over other groups in the social housing system. This put pressure on the capacities of local social housing systems. In Amsterdam in 2015, 1 375 refugees needed accommodation but the city could provide housing to only 540 of them by October 2015. Refugees will not receive a second accommodation in another city. If they want to move to another locality, most often they swap their unit with another refugee living there.

To respond to the need, two decisions were taken by the city of Amsterdam. It formulated an action plan with housing corporations to invest in 2 800 new buildings for vulnerable groups, roughly 50% of those for refugees. A second agreement with the housing corporation decided to use 30% of their stock (which corresponded to 60% of the city housing stock) for vulnerable groups (e.g.

victims of domestic violence, disabled citizens, including refugees who roughly represent half of the beneficiaries). This cohesive policy did not exist before. Refugees receive a one-time offer for a social house and a one-shot grant to furnish the flat. They have to pay rent, like all other social housing recipients, and are eligible for national rent subsidies. Since these measures have been established, 2 050 refugees received social housing in Amsterdam in 2016 and 1 050 refugees were accommodated in 2015.

Figure 6.3. Competences for social housing in Amsterdam

Similarly, since 2016, in some German *Länder* (North Rhine-Westphalia, Bavaria and Baden-Wuerttember), refugees receive accommodation in the *Länder* where they had been assigned through the first reception system. During three years after recognition they must stay in the *Länder* unless they find a job or training opportunity somewhere else. During this time, or before if they are no longer living on social allowance, they will have to remain in the jurisdiction they have been assigned to. This approach intends to increase the chances of contributing to local society, finding a job and potentially avoiding second moves, and spurring municipal investment on migrant integration for local development.

1. As signatories of the 1951 Geneva Convention, EU countries are obliged to ensure refugees with access to housing under the most favourable conditions at least on parity with national citizens (Article 21, Geneva Convention, 1951).
Source: Authors elaboration based on material from ten case studies.

2. Ensure short-term access to private housing by supporting migrants and ensuring non-discriminative treatment by landlords

As mentioned above, migrants might have limited access to social housing during the first years of their stay in a host country. Therefore, the private rental market is the only available option for migrants in many cities. Data from the statistical chapter (Chapter 2)

showed that migrants are much more likely to live in an overcrowded dwelling. Findings from the case studies indicated that recent immigrants have less living space and pay higher prices than native-born. For instance, in Vienna, new migrants have less than half the living space per capita on average (26 m2 vs. Vienna average of 74.5 m2) and pay one-third more per square metre (EUR 7.80/m2 vs. Vienna average EUR 5.17/m2) than Austrian nationals (Vienna Municipality, 2014). Often landlords are reluctant to rent their units, or rent them in unsuitable conditions, or increase the rent to migrant tenants. To overcome these barriers, cities often offer services for accompanying migrants through house hunting to avoid landlords refusing to rent their properties. Moreover, to improve financial access to housing, municipalities may distribute rent subsidies (i.e. a portion of central governments' allowances are distributed by municipal authorities), small grants for arrears and for the deposit. Conversely, cities also work with host communities to sensitise landlords in their attitudes towards migrants. Municipalities can offer effective support in easing or preventing tensions in the short term through mediation services and building intercultural capacity of housing agencies.

- **Barcelona:** The city offers grants for arrears to irregular migrants without a formal rental contract. Different cities offer mediation services with landlords and legal help: BAGURSA front office for housing services of Barcelona.
- **Glasgow:** Govanhill Service Hub (see description in Objective 4 above) has a small team of migrant employees whose role is to anticipate and defuse neighbourhood tensions – which can arise when newcomers misunderstand local norms.
- **Berlin:** Recognised refugees are provided with a letter for landlords ensuring they will pay their rent for six months, thanks to municipal rent subsidies.
- **Glasgow:** One of the housing corporations recognises that refugees are often different clients than the usual homeless client group. From OECD interviews with the housing corporation, the staff finds that they are highly resilient, highly motivated, often highly qualified and keen to work. Training was adapted to distinguish the specific needs and capacities of this group of clients.
- **Rome:** AMAR (Agenzia mediazione abitativa Roma) supports migrants during flat hunting to overcome discrimination barriers. It provides financial counselling to migrants and training to the administrators of residential buildings to manage cohabitation issues and cultural mediation.
- **Vienna** Wohnpartner, the city's housing corporation offers mediation work in case of conflict in social housing.
- **Altena's** decentralised housing policy relies on the fact that the city holds many vacant flats and housing prices are in general exceptionally low (on average: 5 EUR per m^2). These prerequisites are direct effects of the depopulation trend the city has been facing in recent decades. In this regard, the municipality's decentralised housing solution also benefits the local housing company and private landlords, who generated surpluses in revenues in recent years. In total, the city rented 90 facilities for accommodation of asylum seekers since the policy was introduced at the end of 2015.

3. Design housing policies to prevent exclusion

By incorporating migration issues into urban planning and land-use policies e.g. social housing and new housing plans), cities can encourage the distribution of migrants across neighbourhoods where they are less concentrated. As recognised in recent research, given the likely increase in urbanisation and migration movements in the coming decades, cities

should consider migrants and migration-related issues when preparing their urban planning process (World Economic Forum, 2017). Building social housing across all districts of the city is a way to avoid the concentration of poor families, often including migrants, among the users of social dwellings in the long term. Cities can set quotas for social housing across all districts, establishing a percentage of all new buildings to be dedicated to vulnerable groups (including, for instance, refugees) in each neighbourhood. Cities can also avoid further concentration by distributing asylum seekers and refugees across districts when possible. Cities can also incentivise landlords to make existing housing stock available for social housing purposes. By optimising the existing housing stock, the municipalities avoid delays in the construction of new buildings and fill available housing across the entire city. Most municipalities have the ability to encourage the construction of new housing projects that are affordable and appealing for different socio-economic groups and generate mixed rather than segregated neighbourhoods.

For long-term housing policies, cities need to think in terms of what the impact of limited and concentrated housing availability will be on social cohesion and the inclusion of migrants. As mentioned above urban and spatial plans might take a long time to be formulated and more responsive systems tend to entail active land use planning practices that the municipality decides to apply. New social housing projects in most cities in the study are developed by housing corporations, i.e. real estate companies that are sometimes owned by the municipality and offer social housing, property management and production of new housing. New development projects are usually financed partly by the return on the increase in value in the stock, profits from rents, national financing and private loans. Despite liberalisation of this sector, municipalities usually set the standards for new buildings and can request that developers build inclusive and socially sustainable houses. Cities can formulate criteria for new urban housing, taking into account issues related to the inclusion of vulnerable groups, including migrants.

With regard to refugee dispersal across the city:

- **Amsterdam:** Social housing – which accounts for 25% of the housing stock – is not concentrated in specific districts. Six housing corporations split the number of refugees they have to provide social housing to in order to disperse them across the city.
- **Berlin:** The city supports refugees to pay private-market rents as the preferred modality over in-kind housing support, in order to leave them free to decide where to live and to avoid the over-concentration of people of migrant origin in the same areas.
- **Altena:** Altena is a best practice regarding accommodation of asylum seekers and refugees in the city. The policy entails a decentralised accommodation of newly arrived in flats spread out through the whole city. The local housing company (Altenaer Baugesellschaft) provides most flats, which are rented from the local company by the municipality. A smaller fraction of flats is rented from private landlords. The city hall only rents flats, which cost below 4 EUR per m^2. Some venues had to be remodelled by the city before they were fit for moving in. Flats are furnished through donations from civil society. Before a new entity (family or person) moves into a flat, representatives of the Altenaer Baugesellschaft or the city hall visit neighbours to inform them and ask for their support in welcoming the person to the neighbourhood. In addition, newly arrived persons are introduced to the neighbours by a representative when moving in. This policy has proven to facilitate integration into the direct neighbourhood.

With regard to increasing dispersion of all vulnerable groups by diversifying the city's social housing stock:

- **Athens:** Some of the numerous empty housing units in downtown Athens belong to the municipality, private and faith-based organisations. The municipality is seeking investments for mapping this stock and refurbishing them. Temporary housing for reallocated asylum seekers has also been leased from private landlords for one year by ADDMA (Athens Development and Destinations Management Agency). Flats were spread throughout the city and avoided concentration in those areas with high migrant levels.
- **Barcelona:** The city is buying houses from the "Banco Malo", banks that were stuck with the mortgages of insolvent creditors whose homes had been foreclosed on.
- **Paris:** Under the "Louez Solidaire" programme, the city refurbishes, offers guaranteed rent and fiscal incentives to private landlords who lease their properties to vulnerable populations.

With regards to new spatial and housing plans that contribute to preventing exclusion:

- **Gothenburg:** The city has established a long-term strategy to be included in all new housing project initiatives with the aim of increasing diversity. New projects should aim to create housing areas that are affordable and attractive to various groups of the population, by for instance mixing flats for rent and family-owned houses. Alvstranden, a neighbouring city, is the first example. In the ex-shipyard industrial area, 80 000 new units will be built by Future Concern (Framtidskoncernen), the local housing corporation, by 2035.
- **Paris:** All districts must comply with the national law establishing that 20% of their stock (percentages between 20 and 25% and implementation of the law are related to municipal size and localisation) should be made available for social housing. If they do not reach this quota, they are subject to a fine.
- **Amsterdam:** employs more flexible and active planning instruments taking the initiative to make the desired change come about. The city acquires land, prepares it for construction and use, and then sells the land to private developers. The role that the city takes on in this regard is not statutorily defined. Active land policy has enabled Amsterdam to direct development. Amsterdam is working with housing associations to deliver additional homes to meet housing demand stemming from recent migration, often in temporary locations together with young people and students. This is a deliberate policy to promote community building and integration. The longer-term dynamics of how housing for this cohort will be met is of course not known (OECD, 2017b).

Objective 11. Provide social welfare measures that are aligned with migrant inclusion

Observations: Why it is important and what to avoid

All municipalities are directly or indirectly (outsourcing to third entities) involved in social services provision; in particular, they provide basic social welfare services such as emergency shelter, soup kitchens, small emergency grants, etc., to the most vulnerable categories. In most of the cities in the sample, social services and benefits (including social security, insurance, compensation, family policies) do not specifically target migrants, They are disbursed according to vulnerability criteria usually based on revenue.

The statistical section (Chapter 2.) showed that there are large gaps regarding income and employment levels between migrants and native-born individuals. Therefore, migrants are, in general, over-represented among social service users (e.g, income-based living allowances, unemployment allowances, etc.). There is also evidence collected through case study field work, however, that migrants make relatively less use of certain social services compared to nationals (e.g. health, free meals at schools, etc.), as they are more often unaware of their entitlements.

Municipalities might operate either as distributors of national allowances or can top up national welfare measures with additional funding (unemployment, rent allowance, etc.) thanks to their own revenues.

Municipalities are more often (almost 50% of respondents) fully responsible for social assistance and basic social welfare services than for any other policy sector (education, housing, employment, etc.) assessed. Social policies are most often regulated at central level (family policies, social security, insurance and compensation) and implemented at regional or local level in terms of administration and distribution of social benefits, advisory services to the beneficiaries, etc.[4]

Health is, in most cases, a shared competence (42% respondents indicate shared responsibility) with many instances where the regions are directly responsible for running the biggest hospitals, while local authorities are responsible for small health centres and health prevention services. Assessing and dealing with health and trauma issues faced by asylum seekers and refugees requires expertise that is often provided by NGOs. Vulnerable categories of migrants (unaccompanied minors, pregnant women, mono parental families, traumatised people, etc.) would deserve a specific approach before being able to benefit from the standard universal offer.

Which tools could work and what could be done better

1. Adapt social services to address barriers that newcomers and migrants experience

Measures are being adopted to ensure that migrants do not experience structural barriers (language, bureaucracy, etc.) in accessing social services by expanding not only staff capacity (Objective 7. Strengthen co-operation with non-state stakeholders, including through transparent and effective contracts), but also removing barriers caused by digitalisation, Internet access, distance from services or incompatibility with unusual working hours.

- **Paris:** The city is concerned with the possible difficulties of accessing digitalised public services and welfare benefits, in terms of both access and understanding the complex administrative requests in French. The city is currently developing a strategy for digital inclusion, which will benefit from existing experience with digital mediators mobilised in different public facilities to help vulnerable people, often homeless migrants, in their interaction with public services. Paris also conducts surveys across their users to assess satisfaction with their services. In particular, a survey was conducted among migrant communities to understand the reasons for the very low use of retirement homes offered by the municipal services.

2. Municipalities can get involved in early identification of persons with specific needs and establishing appropriate referral mechanisms to public services

Migrants arriving with specific needs (women at risk, children especially unaccompanied asylum-seeking children (UASC), victims of trauma, trafficking or survivors of sexual violence, persons with disabilities and elders, etc.) should have access to early screening done by experts; strengthen local capacities and protection systems with a particular emphasis on child protection systems.

- **Paris:** A humanitarian centre in Paris, offers shelter for 1 500 especially vulnerable people, such as families and women with young children. A medical team integrated in the complex offers regular consultations. The services are provided in association with Paediatrics of the World and Gynaecologists without Borders. The presence of the health point in the centre allowed early identification of persons with specific needs and referral mechanisms to public services, avoiding congestion at the emergency services and providing more tailored support.
- **Amsterdam:** The municipality supports migrant associations that identify persons in need, who besides being in the city for some time still experience difficulties in accessing universal services due to language or bureaucratic barriers and refer them to the public services (GGZ Keizersgracht, a Polish association in Amsterdam).
- **Rome:** in Italy the collaboration between the police and the Department of Social Policies, Health and Subsidiarity of the Municipality of **Rome** ensures that unaccompanied minors who reached the arrival centres in Sicily are handled by the municipality during the identification and age assessment process. After 3-4 days in the centre for first reception (CPSA) the minor will be placed in one of the six specialised reception structures for minors managed by Rome social services. Within 30 days his final reception facility will be identified across the national territory. In this structure a legal tutor will be identified to represent the minor and a tailored individual education plan will provided.

3. Ensure access to at least basic social welfare services, including for those who do not fulfil residence criteria

Cities' social services are usually provided to residents, and in many cities, this implies having at least an address in the municipality. As explained in Objective 10, migrants and refugees often experience barriers in accessing the private-sector housing market; therefore, they either do not have a regular residence or live in houses that do not allow them to register as a resident (unstable address at friend's or relative's places, in shelters, in black-market flats or flats under minimum standards). Municipalities should facilitate access to services and consider a temporary residence address as a valid proof of residence in the city.

- **Athens:** The city plans to offer integrated social services to different groups of vulnerable persons through two expanded community centres that will be created by the municipality, thanks to EU funding. These community centres will be hubs for social welfare service, health clinics and employability services. They will serve nationals, migrants, refugees and asylum seekers equally. Inside the community centres there will be a Migrant Integration Centres and a Roma Department. One of the two centres will be mobile and will periodically serve the population of beneficiaries in seven districts of the municipality.

- **Rome:** An initiative intended to partially respond to the side effects of not having a regular residence is Residenze Fittizie (Fake Residence). It is a programme held by the municipality not specifically designed for migrants, but for people without a stable residence. As having a residence is a pass for accessing social and health services, in each district, marginalised people can ask for a temporary residence in "Via Modesta Valenti", a fake address, after being enrolled in a social programme by an authorised association or by the public social services. These actors must keep the enrolled people tracked, checking periodically on their living conditions and ensuring that the individuals are still in need.
- **Solingen** (Germany): The project Practice without Borders ("Praxis ohne Grenzen") aims to offer health services especially for people in precarious life conditions without public healthcare coverage. Apart from general medical check-ups, the project also offers psychological assistance and assessment as well as drug abuse counselling. Its target group are, in particular, asylum seekers, refugees and homeless people.

4. Render social services more mobile

Some areas in cities, or in remote, rural areas, are underserved in terms of service provision. To make access to services more equal in the short term across the city and to better target vulnerable groups that do not necessarily feel comfortable using public transport to reach very distant places from where they live, mobile social services could be a solution. This approach could also help in more rural areas, which often lack access to public services for their populations, thus resulting in being less attractive for migrants as well.

5. Link additional city subsidies to job-seeking measures

Many cities provide persons in vulnerable situations (unemployed, persons at risk of poverty, etc.) with additional welfare benefits on top of the ones provided by the national level. Increasingly they look for strategies to link the disbursement of these benefits to the efforts of the beneficiaries to connect with the job market.

- **Greece:** The government established the Social Solidarity Income – a hardship fund open to all with income below a certain level in the preceding six months – available to migrants with five years' residence or student visas. Migrants have to register at the municipality before they can apply.
- **Vienna:** The national government provides a means-tested minimum income scheme (BMS) to ensure people's means of subsistence and housing needs. The Viennese model of BMS provides, in addition, active support for job seeking and involves social counselling. Persons without health insurance are granted access to the healthcare system. This measure is accessible to all Austrian citizens or persons with a legal status who permanently live in Vienna and who have an income lower than the minimum wage.

Objective 12. Establish education responses to address segregation and provide equitable paths to professional growth

Observations: Why it is important and what to avoid

An important aspect to consider in the education field for the purpose of this study is division of competences across levels of government. Education is very rarely a

competence of the city (less than 13% of the cities in the sample); in most cases (68%), education is a shared responsibility across levels of government. For instance, local authorities are often in charge of pre-school childcare, specific areas around primary education (e.g. facilities management, cafeterias, school transportation, assistance for the disabled) and adult training.[5] Local authorities also deploy strategies to address education segregation issues that depend not only on their competence for the education sector but also on welfare and urban planning competences.

Obstacles and opportunities determined by migrants' education level at arrival

The statistical section of this volume (Chapter 2.) observed the great heterogeneity in the level of education of migrant populations. In 2013, migrants who had arrived in OECD countries were, on average, more highly educated than native-born populations: 33% of migrants of working age held a tertiary education degree in the OECD area, against 29% for the native-born population. For instance in some countries, such as Ireland, Norway, Sweden or the United Kingdom, almost all regions have relatively more highly educated (tertiary education) migrants than the native-born population. In EU countries, this data is skewed by the educational attainment of EU migrants, who are 10 percentage points more likely to be tertiary-educated than non-EU migrants. Only 20% of non-EU foreign-born individuals hold a tertiary education degree, against about 30% of EU migrants, and 25% of the native-born population. Similarly, non-EU migrants have lower levels of secondary school attainment than both national and EU migrants (OECD/European Union, 2015). Furthermore differences between educational levels can be observed between rural and urban areas. According to the OECD (2016a), low-educated immigrants are disproportionately found in urban areas.

This data on educational attainment for foreign-born migrants refer most of the time to the level they have when they arrive in the host country, and the majority of foreign-born migrants enter their host country as adults after acquiring their education abroad (OECD/European Union, 2015). Thus educational attainment statistics for foreign-born often does not reflect the characteristics of a host country's education system; nor migrants' ability to study in it.

These data are important though to observe at the city level the impact that migrants' educational attainment has in finding jobs, the quality of the job with relation to the qualification level, and to tailor training to the needs of migrants and local business. Given the high variation in the educational levels of migrants, availability of local data on newcomers' educational attainment would allow local authorities to better tailor their education offer, complementing the education offered by other levels of government. For instance, highly educated migrants tend to have more difficulties in finding jobs than low-educated migrants, and getting official recognition for academic qualifications may contribute to these difficulties (OECD/European Union, 2015). In this sense, local authorities could facilitate the process for validating previous education qualifications to make sure the skills and qualifications that immigrants have when they arrive are adequately used.

Obstacles and opportunities to successfully integrate immigrant children into national school system

Previous studies (OECD, 2015a) highlighted that on average immigrant students perform worse than their native-born peers. This gap often decreases considerably when controlling for socio-economic background, but in many OECD countries the gap

remains (OECD/European Union, 2015). Data collected from the city case studies allows for the comparison of migrant and native-born students' educational attainment for some cities. Across all case studies, the percentage of the migrant population that only has primary education is at least 10 percentage points higher than the national population (i.e. 16% of the migrant population and 2.6% of the national population has only the primary education level in Berlin). When data allow for the breakdown of educational attainment for the first generation and native-born children of immigrants, the gap is still significant for the native-born children of immigrants, who have obtained only lower education levels much more often than native-born (i.e. in Amsterdam the percentage of second-generation migrants with only a lower education level was 13% higher than native-born in 2013). This is in line with previous studies that found that second-generation immigrants are substantially disadvantaged in most Western European countries even when controlling for socio-economic background (Borgna and Contini, 2014). Significant differences are observed between migrant and native-born students also in terms of school dropout rates and access to vocational training. Overall these disadvantages affect the degree of intergenerational education mobility between immigrants and their children, which is one of the causes of low second-generation labour market outcomes for some (OECD, 2010).

There are several obstacles to the educational attainment of immigrant children, which have been investigated extensively in the literature and in previous OECD work. This section makes reference to three of them, which emerged more regularly from the research sample: segregation of immigrants in the school system, resources available to assist immigrant children at school and early access to school systems.

Segregation of immigrants in the school system

Among the obstacles to successful schooling first generation-immigrant students and children of migrant parents 'school segregation' emerged as a problem from this research (10 case studies and 61 questionnaires) and the literature. In some of the cities of the case studies (i.e. Amsterdam, Glasgow, Gothenburg, Paris, etc.) some schools are considered disadvantaged, where lower quality of teaching and results are associated with the composition of the student population by ethnic origin and level of education of the students' parents. Based on the research findings and previous literature, school segregation can be associated with several causes from geographic residential segregation to parents' school choice, as non-immigrant families tend to choose schools with fewer immigrant and disadvantaged students (OECD, 2015a), or to selection mechanisms, for instance secondary schools accessible only to those students who achieved a high score in primary education, limiting the opportunities for migrant students who need additional help to complete primary school. Migrant parents' capacity to enrol their children in the most appropriate school can also hinder a better mix of migrant and non-migrant students (OECD, 2015a). Recent studies observed how the share of immigrants has increased in most European schools, but is not evenly distributed across schools. Between 2003 and 2012 the difference between immigrants and natives in specific schools (dissimilarity index) increased, thus suggesting school segregation has also increased (Brunello and De Paola, 2017). Overall, the evidence on the impact of migrant students on native-learners remains mixed; it is suggested that it is not only the migrant student concentration that counts but the combination of general socio-economic disadvantages of all students in schools with high migrant populations and which typically located in cities (OECD, 2016a). However other studies find that the degree to which second generation immigrants are marginalised in low-quality schools is a relevant factor to explain the

relative disadvantage of immigrant students compared to natives (Borgna and Contini, 2014). Studies found that there are tipping points or thresholds in the share of immigrants present in the class, above which the negative effect on school performance increases in absolute values. It seems like immigrant students are more negatively affected than native ones by a higher share of immigrant students in the class. Such effects would suggest that re-allocation improves efficiency; however, said effect cannot guide policies as the estimated values of these tipping points vary from 5 to 50% according to different studies (Brunello and De Paola, 2017).

Obstacles to assist immigrant children at school

Migrant children often need additional help to successfully integrate, such as intensive language training or support classes. Schools thus often need additional funding (OECD, 2016a). Often, even when the municipality is not directly responsible for primary or secondary education, they find innovative ways to assist the education paths of migrants by targeting investments to schools hosting migrants or by designing complementary after-school, recreational or vocational activities. Some 82% of the surveyed cities' answers indicate that special classes for migrant pupils in public schools were created. Most of the time, these classes are administered or funded by the national level and they bridge the knowledge and language gap of migrant students until they can join standard classes. In particular, German cities reported that 87% of their schools offered these types of programmes.

With regard to providing education for asylum seekers and refugees, some 98% of the cities in the sample ensure access for all children of compulsory school age, with funding channelled from the national level. The OECD sample confirms what previous research highlighted (EUROCITIES, 2017): most of the education measures for refugees and asylum seekers inventoried in the cities through this study have existed for a long time and some have been scaled up to respond to the increased needs. The most frequent measures to assist integration of refugee and asylum seeker children at schools included setting up extra classes and hiring new teachers (in particular for language support), strengthening teachers' specific skills in dealing with traumatised children (such as special guidelines and training on identification of children with trauma), dealing with children who are above the compulsory education age and, lastly, providing access to tertiary education (Benton, 2017; Fra, 2017).

Access to vocational training also emerges as problematic for pupils with migrant backgrounds or young migrants in some cities. In Berlin, the share of people in the age group 18-21 years with a migration background who participated in a dual apprenticeship is only one fourth (female: 5.4%, male: 4.8%) as high as for the share of people without a migration background within the same age group (female: 16.8%, male: 21.3%) (Integrationsmonitoring der Länder, 2017). Obstacles have been found also for refugee children who arrive above the schooling age and do not have access to vocational training (Fra, 2017). Limitations in access to apprenticeship programmes that are the main entry points in some countries to develop a solid professional profile can represent a serious obstacle to integration. Because of this gap in accessing apprenticeships, migrant youth often lack advanced technical, professional or management skills that can propel them into a career.

Importance of preschool and Early Childhood Education (ECEC)

While many studies confirm the importance of preschool attendance to reduce the disadvantage of immigrant students in school achievements (Borgna and Contini, 2014), there are a number of obstacles to increasing access to these services for first and second generation immigrant pupils including: long waiting periods, language barriers, accessibility in terms of guidance for families, and a lack of information provided on such opportunities (Fra, 2017). In a recent report the Council of Europe notices that lack of access to pre-school education for Roma children, migrant and minority children and children with disabilities is a common reality in many EU countries (Council of Europe, 2017). OECD work shows that on average in OECD countries first-generation immigrant students are almost half as likely as non-immigrant students to have attended pre-primary education, with significant exceptions such as Belgium Austria, Slovenia, Canada, Norway etc. where immigrant students are more likely than non-immigrant to have attended pre-primary school education (OECD, 2015b). For instance, sometimes because of cultural or personal reasons mothers who do not work and who spend their time at home as housewives, may be reluctant to send their children to early childhood education (OECD, 2009). In particular for Asylum applicants it might be impossible to cover expenses due to low allowances and treatment of traumatised children.

Migrants are also seen as an opportunity for the local educational system, in particular for tertiary education. In fact, in 81% of the respondent cities, universities apply active policies to attract foreign students. However, the majority of the cities in the ad-hoc sample (67% of the respondents) indicate that there are no policies in place to retain foreign students after graduation, partially because work permits depend on national regulation; this could represent a missed opportunity for the economic and cultural development of the city.

Obstacles and opportunities for language training

Immigrants, including those who are highly qualified, may struggle to free up their skills potential if they are hampered by a poor command of the host country's language (OECD/European Union, 2015). In the view of the cities participating in the study, language skills are essential, not only to access job opportunities, but also, in the longer term, to obtain citizenship (in those countries where naturalisation is conditional on a language exam) and to be included in society. Besides providing supplementary language classes for children in schools, cities participating in the study are engaged in identifying groups in need of language courses, and complement the provision that is offered by the national level, when lacking. This includes providing training also for long-standing migrants and their families who might have a job, but still face language difficulties. Some 97% of the cities that responded to the questionnaire subsidise free language classes for migrant adults.

Which tools could work and what could be done better

1. Extend the offer of vocational adult education for migrants and refugees to also include employed migrants

Adult vocational training is free or subsidised for migrants in 70% of respondent cities. These initiatives are very often funded or implemented by the national or regional employment services (i.e. job centres) and are part of requalification packages offered to all unemployed regardless of their origin. According to data collected through the sample,

cities provide additional adult education as part of their integration strategies (e.g. Berlin City-State Masterplan Integration and Security). Adult vocational training is offered more often in the following areas: healthcare, cooking, agriculture, mechanics for cars, IT, etc.). If more exhaustive data on educational attainment of the people who arrive were available, the city could invest in intensifying the offer of vocational adult education for migrants, including to employed migrants and tailor it to the needs of the local labour market. Further, speeding up vocational training times can be important for people who cannot afford to live on apprentice wages for long. Several countries (e.g. Australia, Denmark, Germany, Switzerland) allow adult apprentices with relevant work experience to complete their apprenticeship faster than the standard duration. Another method is to allow adults with relevant work experience to obtain a vocational qualification without mandatory training (though many people take some courses to fill specific gaps), if they can demonstrate they have the required skills. For example in Austria, Germany, Norway and Switzerland adults with relevant work experience may take the final exam usually taken by apprentices and, if they succeed, obtain the qualification directly (Kis and Windisch, forthcoming).

- **Berlin:** One of the projects implemented in the city is "Berlin needs you!" (Berlin braucht dich!), initiated in 2006 and funded by the Senate. The aim is to raise the percentage of people with a migrant background in dual apprenticeships by focussing on transition mechanisms. The first part of the project is to set up networks bridging businesses and schools through encounters starting at a young age, repeatedly until graduation and insertion in the apprenticeship. This is done through personalised orientation sessions with the target students, and short internships every year until the beginning of the apprenticeship. The second part of the project is advising public and private employers on increasing diversity by changing their recruitment process and communication (with an impact on changing business mentality).
- **Munich** (Germany): Munich's Bildungsbrücken project is an intercultural project that counsels young migrants in the transition process from school to the labour market via qualified volunteers.

2. Support the validation of previous education qualifications (see Objective 9)

Some 84% of the cities that responded to the OECD ad-hoc questionnaire are aware of initiatives to recognise the equivalency of migrants' diplomas obtained in the country of origin, and one-third specified that the decision about diploma recognition lies with national authorities. As described in Objective 9, cities still in many cases play a role in orienting migrants towards obtaining validation of their qualifications/diplomas (see for example the UAF in Amsterdam and the association of municipalities in West Sweden).

3. Improve social and ethnic mix in the schools by using different measures

Manage school choice criteria based on students' backgrounds

Controlled school choice schemes and school voucher programmes, for example, can help low-income children pursue quality education and expand opportunities for all in cities (OECD, 2016b). Some jurisdictions have made concerted efforts to establish clear rules regulating choice and must balance the principle of school choice with the need to consider and meet all education needs. In principle, this includes measures such as defining school catchment zones, reserving places for students with special needs and

limiting ratios of children from some disadvantaged groups in certain schools (Council of Europe, 2017). Some national systems, like the "Carte Scolaire" in France, allocate students to the nearest school, while others allow for greater leeway. For instance some municipalities help parents who might not otherwise be confident in choosing a school for their child, including by having schools producing materials to promote their particular programmes and organising information and enrolment sessions for parents (Godwin et al., 2006). Several studies suggest that school-choice plans should use simple lotteries to select among the applicants for oversubscribed schools in order to promote more diverse student populations (Godwin et al., 2006). Other systems provide clear procedures for regulating school admission in case of oversubscription while other grant schools a high degree of discretion (Council of Europe, 2017).

- **Netherlands:** Municipalities tried to tackle school selection mechanisms to influence the parental choice system. For instance some municipalities in the Netherlands (e.g. Nijmegen, etc.) have introduced a central subscription system to assign students to primary schools, in order to reach a share of 30% of disadvantaged students in each school. In other cities (e.g. Rotterdam), oversubscribed schools have been required to give preference to children who would enrich their ethnic and socio-economic mixes.

Ensuring high quality and learning environments in schools with high presence of students with a migrant background

Desegregation strategies include ensuring that all schools have the professional expertise and the necessary means to implement inclusive education (Council of Europe, 2017). In order to balance the distribution of vulnerable children local authorities should, in the long term, carefully plan where to open new schools (Council of Europe, 2017). In the short term carefully designed, locally tailored education and training programmes can help eliminate school segregation rather than exacerbate existing inequalities between school districts. Local policies can contribute to making schools with diverse student populations attractive to non-immigrant students. For example, schools with special curricula (e.g. science, technology, mathematics, language, etc.) that are appealing to students across socio-economic groups can be placed in relatively disadvantaged areas (OECD, 2015a). Other initiatives (e.g. in Switzerland) focus on raising the quality of existing schools with large proportions of migrant students by setting quality assurance models for multi-ethnic schools (where at least 40% of students have a migrant background) and attracting more non-immigrant and middle-class students (OECD, 2015a).

Desegregation requires adequate allocation of resources to improve school infrastructure in poor neighbourhoods, with a view to making schools more attractive (Council of Europe, 2017). Evidence from Canada and the United States found that the elementary-secondary school system is likely more homogenous regarding school quality in Canada than the United States. Across Canada's provinces each school receives roughly the same funding per capita whether in a rich or poor neighbourhood, whereas this depends on local resources in the US. The result is that children who come from a family in the bottom income quartile in Canada are more likely to attend university than in the US. (OECD, 2010)

- **Glasgow:** The municipality increases the investments in those schools with a high concentration of students with migrant backgrounds. For instance, greater support for teaching English as an International Language (EIL) is given to those schools

where a high share of students does not speak English at home. Similarly, the city invests in IT provisions or innovative programmes (e.g. special mathematics or science curricula) that are appealing to students across socio-economic groups.

4. Assist migrant children in mainstream public schools

When cities have the competence to organise support to migrant children in school, they seek a balance between two options: offering tailor-made learning programmes for refugees and migrants, and integrating them into regular classes as soon as possible while maintaining support for language training. Cities make efforts to adapt tailor-made programmes for migrant students to a limited number of hours per day and to introduce foreign students into regular classes as early as possible.

- **Barcelona:** To respond to the needs of newcomers, the Education Consortium of Barcelona (joint body of the regional and municipal level) developed and have financed "Welcome classes" since 2007 in schools with high concentrations of foreign pupils. Implemented in public schools, the welcome classes host foreign pupils only some hours per day, offering them a tailor-made programme; the rest of the day the kids are integrated into regular classes. The programme lasts for two or three years, depending on the difficulties of the student, and is complemented with psychological support as well as interaction with families to help them understand the local school system. Since 2011, there are "Welcome temporary classes" destined to integrate migrant teenagers that arrive at the end of the school year, but this initiative is very limited (only four educational centres implement it, with 83 students).

5. Strengthen access to apprenticeships and capacity of orientation services in secondary schools, helping migrant students discover their paths to professional growth

From early stages, teenagers need specific advice and orientation on their next educational or professional steps while still at school, and in migrant or poor families this role is rarely achieved by parents, as in the case of more integrated families. This is partially due to an asymmetry of information available to immigrant parents to advise their children. Municipalities can provide more information to immigrant students at school and guidance to their families with regard vocational training or orientation services that exist in the city.

6. Improve routes to tertiary education for migrants, refugees and asylum seekers

Some 62% of respondent cities to the ad-hoc questionnaire have in place free or subsidised schemes to allow migrants, refugees and asylum seekers to access tertiary education. Often these schemes are funded by the national level or by foundations.

- **Amsterdam:** In terms of refugees' education, the city developed a tailored approach based on the past education of recognised refugees. A foundation contracted by the municipality, Foundation for Refugee Students (UAF), helps refugee university students or graduates first by assessing the amount of additional courses needed to obtain an equivalent professional title, secondly by supporting them during their studies, thirdly by connecting them to the job market once they complete their qualification. The programme takes into account the level of education previously obtained in the country of origin and matches it with

the Dutch requirements in order to facilitate the process of conversion of the professional title by the national authority (Nuffic - De Nederlandse organisatie voor internationalisering in onderwijs).

- **Berlin:** Refugees and asylum seekers can attend universities, even if the educational credentials obtained abroad do not correspond to official entrance criteria. Refugees and asylum seekers can either choose to attend as auditors or enter as regular students through so-called "access courses" in conjunction with an assessment test. As a response to the sharp increase in humanitarian migrants in the city within recent years, the offer of these courses was likewise increased.

- **Utrecht (Netherlands):** The University of Applied Sciences Utrecht, together with AFAS (a private information and communications technology [ICT] company), and the municipality organise a pre-bachelor course for refugees. After the pre-bachelor course, they can go on to university in the city, if the level reached is sufficient.

7. Improve access to Early Childhood Education and Care (ECEC)

Local level authorities are often in charge of ECEC and can implement in collaboration with higher levels of government measures to encourage the entry as early as possible in particular of first generation immigrant students. Measures include: 1) tailoring programmes to the needs of pre-school migrant children, particularly by offering language-development activities and 2) reaching out to migrant parents to raise their awareness of the learning programmes available for their children and how they can enrol their children in these programmes (OECD, 2015b).

Sarcelles (France): since 2013 the French National Education system established the possibility for municipalities to finance the opening of school classes from two instead of three years -Toute Petite Section (TPS) - with a maximum of twenty children per class. The municipality of Sarcelles proactively decided to invest in this mechanism and opened nine classes with over 200 pupils. While access to these classes is universal, the Ministry set criteria giving priority to children from families living in "Prioritised School Areas" (REP and REP+) or affected by other unfavourable socio-economic conditions for instance non-Francophone, lack of socialisation, mono-parental or with economic difficulties. Applications are reviewed by the school director on a case-by-case basis. The cost of the mechanism is entirely financed by the municipality which has to provide for an extra teacher, classroom and materials for each TPS class.

Conclusion Part II

This chapter compiles one of the most exhaustive set of examples of how cities of different sizes in EU countries shape migrants' and refugees' integration in a variety of sectors. Overall the cities analysed, and particularly the nine large European cities where the case studies were conducted, are engaged in a variety of positive initiatives. Particularly interesting is the co-ordination with other levels of the government, through funding and regulatory mechanisms, the implementation of initiatives at an inter-municipal scale, as well as the synergies with civil society groups and businesses. Cities are increasingly aware that effective integration depends on the circumstances that the host community offers to newcomers and on their unique characteristics.

Beyond improving integration outcomes in terms of employment and unemployment rates and levels of education, local authorities look at fostering societal participation to make cities a more diverse place for the well-being of all groups.

This chapter identified obstacles and tools that can help the implementation of the *Checklist for public action to migrant integration at the local level*. The 12 objectives were validated as useful points by the city and partners participating in this project. Further research is necessary to identify indicators to track the implementation of the policies built around these objectives. The next step would be to use these evidence-based points to aid local, regional, national and international policy makers to kick-start a dialogue around the development and implementation of the migrant and refugee integration programmes at local level. Starting from the ten partner cities, the Checklist allows for peer-to-peer learning, building knowledge and sharing practices for improving the local approach to migrant and refugee integration.

Notes

1. www.oecd.org/skills/piaac.

2. See more information at www.canada.ca/en/immigration-refugees-citizenship/services/immigrate-canada/atlantic-immigration-pilot/hire-immigrant.html.

3. To be understood as housing provided for people on low incomes or with particular needs by government agencies or non-profit organisations.

4. See the European Committee of the Regions, Division of Powers Comparison Tool at https://portal.cor.europa.eu/divisionpowers/Pages/Comparer.aspx.

5. See the European Committee of the Regions, Division of Powers Comparison Tool at https://portal.cor.europa.eu/divisionpowers/Pages/Comparer.aspx.

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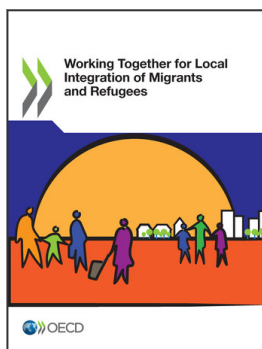
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