Jobs for Immigrants

Labour Market Integration in Italy

VOLUME 4

OECD

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LABOUR MARKET INTEGRATION IN ITALY

OECD
BETTER POLICIES FOR BETTER LIVES

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Foreword

This review of the labour market integration of immigrants and their children in Italy is part of a series conducted by the International Migration Division in the OECD Directorate for Employment, Labour and Social Affairs (DELSA). Previous country-specific reports for Australia, Austria, Belgium, Denmark, France, Germany, the Netherlands, Norway, Portugal, Sweden and Switzerland have been published by the OECD in the series *Jobs for Immigrants* (Vols. 1, 2 and 3).

Italy represents a special case among the countries for which the OECD has reviewed the labour market integration of immigrants and their children. Over the past 15 years, Italy, along with Spain, has seen growth in its migration flows unparalleled among OECD countries. The foreign-born population, which has more than quadrupled over this period to almost 4.5 million, accounted for 10% of the working-age population in 2011/12. Migration to Italy was initially dominated by labour migration, especially into low-skilled jobs: by 2012, immigrants held one third of these jobs. Family reunification and other forms of migration have recently led to a large settled immigrant population, proportionately younger than the native Italian population, and with a growing second generation.

The labour market integration of immigrants has to be analysed in the context of several key structural specificities of Italy. The first is a large informal sector, accounting for about 10% of the economy according to some estimates. For immigrants, this is partly associated with undocumented migration, and repeated regularisations are part of the historical pathway into Italy. A second, related, characteristic is that the permit regime sees almost half of non-European migrants in temporary status, and the rest facing long and uncertain pathways to possible naturalisation. Third, wide disparities in the economic, social and institutional characteristics of different regions affect immigrant integration and drive internal mobility.

Large-scale low-educated migration has occurred in a period of low economic growth and, since 2008, of a lengthy contraction and of increasing unemployment for both native-born and immigrants. Moreover, immigrant employment is highly concentrated in a few sectors, some of which have been hard hit by the downturn, such as manufacturing and construction, where rapid recovery is unlikely. In addition, the Italian labour market is undergoing a series of reforms, which affect immigrants and natives alike.

Overall employment rates in Italy are low. Indeed, employment rates of immigrants are even slightly above those of the native-born. This is rather unique among OECD countries and raises questions about the feasibility of measures targeted towards immigrants in a situation where also the native-born are facing strong difficulties to integrate in the labour market.

A further characteristic of Italy is the division of responsibilities for developing and implementing integration-related policies between the national, regional, provincial and local authorities, and the reliance on third-sector actors as service providers. Even where policy orientations are clear, institutional constraints and accounting rules and processes may contribute to hinder the capacity of action/implementation. This makes it difficult to guide or even identify a single national policy, or to draw conclusions regarding national policy.

This review examines the labour market situation of immigrants in the complex economic and policy context outlined above. The remainder of the report is structured as follows: The report starts with an assessment and recommendations. Chapter 1 presents an overview of the key labour market outcomes of immigrants in Italy in international comparison, and their evolution over time. Chapter 2 sets out the framework for integration, that is, the evolution and current composition of the immigrant population, the main elements of integration policy, and the key stakeholders involved in the labour market integration of immigrants. Chapter 3 examines specificities of the Italian labour market and the implications of these for integration outcomes. Chapter 4 focuses on the scope and efficiency of the main integration policies and programmes in place. Chapter 5 looks at the emerging issue of immigrant offspring.

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Acronyms and abbreviations

ALMP	Active Labour Market Policy
ANCI	*Associazione Nazionale dei Comuni Italiani* (National Association of Italian Municipalities)
ASGI	*Associazione per gli Studi Giuridici sull'Immigrazione* (Association of Law Studies about Immigration)
ASPHI	*Avviamento e Sviluppo di Progetti per ridurre l'Handicap mediante l'Informatica* (Launch and Development of Projects to reduce the Disability through IT)
ASPI	*Assicurazione Sociale per l'Impiego* (Social Insurance for Employment)
AsSaP	*Azione di Sistema per lo sviluppo dei sistemi integrati di Servizi alla Persona* (System Action for the development of integrated systems of Personal Services)
CEFR	Common European Framework of Reference
CELI	*Certificato di Conoscenza della Lingua Italiana* (Certificate of Knowledge of Italian Language)
CENSIS	*Centro Studi Investimenti Sociali* (Centre for Social Studies and Policies)
CGIL	*Confederazione Generale Italiana del Lavoro* (Italian General Confederation of Labour)
CICO	*Campione Integrato delle Comunicazioni Obbligatorie* (Integrated Sample of Compulsory Notifications)
CILS	*Certificazione di Italiano come Lingua Straniera* (Certificate of Italiana as a Foreign Language)
CNEL	*Consiglio Nazionale dell'Economia e del Lavoro* (National Council of Economy and Labour)
CO	*Comunicazioni Obbligatorie* (Compulsory Notifications)
CPIA	*Centro Provinciale di Istruzione per gli Adulti* (Provincial Center for Adults Education)
CPS	Current Population Survey
CTP	*Centro Territoriale Permanente* (Permanent Territorial Center)
DELF	Diplôme d'études en langue française (Diploma of French Language)
ECRI	European Commission against Racism and Intolerance
EFTA	European Free Trade Association
EIF	European Integration Fund
EMN	European Migration Network

ESCS	Index of Economic, Social and Cultural Status
ESF	European Social Fund
EU-MIDIS	European Union Minorities and Discrimination Survey
FIERI	*Forum Internazionale e Europeo di Ricerche sull'Immigrazione* (International and European Forum for Migration Research)
FRA	Fundamental Rights Agency
IDOS	*Immigrazione Dossier Statistico* (Statistical Report on Immigration)
ILO	International Labour Organization
INDIRE	*Instituto Nazionale di Documentazione, Innovazione e Ricerca Educativa* (National Institute for Documentation, Innovation and Research on Education)
INPS	*Istituto Nazionale della Previdenza Sociale* (National Institute of Social Security)
INVALSI	*Istituto Nazionale per la Valutazione del Sistema Educativo di Istruzione e di Formazione* (National Institute for the Evaluation of the System of Education and Vocational Training)
IRES	*Istituto di Ricerche Economiche e Sociali* (Economic and Social Research Institute)
ISCO	International Standard Classification of Occupation
ISFOL	*Istituto per lo Sviluppo della Formazione professionale dei Lavoratori* (Institute for the Development of Workers' Vocational Training)
ISMU	*Iniziative e Studi sulla Multietnicitá* (Initiatives and Studies on Multiethnicity)
ISTAT	*Istituto Nazionale di Statistica* (National Institute for Statistics)
ISSP	International Social Survey Programme
LFS	Labour Force Survey
LIFT	*Lavoro Immigrazione Formazione Tirocini* (Work Immigration Vocational training Courses)
LoSai	Longitudinal Sample INPS
MISE	*Ministero dello Sviluppo Economico* (Ministry of Economic Development)
MIUR	*Ministero dell'Istruzione, Universitá e Ricerca* (Ministry of Education, University and Research)
NEET	Not in Education, Employment or Training
ONC	*Organismo Nazionale di Coordinamento per le politiche di integrazione sociale dei cittadini stranieri* (National Co-ordination Body for the Policies of Social Integration of Foreign Citizens)
ORIM	*Osservatorio Regionale per l'Integrazione e la Multietnicitá* (Regional Observatory for Integration and Multiethnicity)
OSCAD	*Osservatorio per la Sicurezza contro gli Atti Discriminatori* (Observatory for Security against Discriminative Acts)

OSCE	Organization of Security and Co-operation in Europe
OSS	*Operatore Socio Sanitario* (Social and Health Operator)
PES	Public Employment Services
PIAAC	Programme for the International Assessment of Adult Competencies
PISA	Programme for International Student Assessment
PLIDA	*Progetto Lingua Italiana Dante Alighieri* (Project Italian Language Dante Alighieri)
RE.LA.R	*Rete dei Servizi per la Prevenzione del Lavoro Sommerso* (Service Network for the Prevention of Undeclared Work)
SME	Small and Medium-sized Enterprise
SPRAR	*Sistema di Protezione per Richiedenti Asili e Rifugiati* (Protection System for Asylum Seekers and Refugees)
TOEFL	Test of English as a Foreign Language
UNAR	*Ufficio Nazionale Antidiscriminazioni Razziali* (National Office against Racial Discrimination)
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund
VET	Vocational Education and Training

Executive summary

Italy is among the OECD countries that have experienced the largest flows of immigrants since 2000, both in absolute levels and as a percentage of the total population. While migration consisted initially mainly of low-skilled labour migrants, family reunification has more recently led to a large settled immigrant population, proportionately younger than the native Italian population, and to a growing number of native-born offspring of immigrants.

Overall, the employment rates of immigrants are higher than those of the native-born, partly because immigrants are concentrated in the most active age groups. While their employment rate is below the OECD average, this reflects the general low employment levels in Italy. This is rather unique across OECD countries and raises questions about the feasibility of measures targeted towards immigrants in a situation where both immigrants and natives are facing difficulties to integrate into the labour market. The main concern in such a context is thus not employment *per se*, but rather avoiding immigrant-specific vulnerability and ensuring the long-term employability of the many immigrants who will remain in Italy, and of their offspring.

While immigrants' labour market integration appears at first favourable, many of them are in low-skilled and low paid jobs, with few opportunities to move to more skilled jobs. In addition, during the recent economic crisis, their labour market outcomes have declined even more precipitously than those of the native-born, and this absolute and relative decline seems to be ongoing if not accelerating. This is partly due to their concentration in industries hard hit by the crisis, such as construction, and to their strong concentration in less stable jobs. There is also some evidence of selective lay-offs to the detriment of immigrants.

Recent arrivals, still predominantly low-educated, have experienced a poor development of their labour market outcomes during the crisis. This is worrisome, since there is evidence from other OECD countries that failure to integrate quickly new immigrants has long-lasting negative effects. There is thus a real risk of scarring effects for the many recent arrivals in Italy who find themselves currently unemployed. In addition, many of the recent migrants who have kept their job lack basic qualifications, raising concerns about their long-term employability. However, at a time where budget constraints are already strong, it becomes important to target activation and training programmes towards those migrants who are the most likely to stay permanently in Italy.

One of the key characteristics of the Italian labour market is a pronounced duality, with a large share of atypical and precarious jobs. Evidence suggests that immigrants have benefitted less from the past labour market reforms which aimed, among other objectives, to get workers previously working in informal jobs into formal employment. This is linked with their concentration in sectors such as construction and personal services, as well as in small and family-owned enterprises, where informality is more difficult to tackle. In addition, some indicators show that immigrants are disproportionally enrolled in precarious jobs and that the differences between the two groups in this respect have been growing with the crisis. Measures that tackle informality and duality in the Italian labour market would thus seem to benefit immigrants disproportionately. One key sector requiring particular attention is domestic services, in which more than half of all immigrant women are employed.

Labour market integration in Italy has a strong regional dimension. Immigrants are clustered in the northern part of the country, where labour market conditions are relatively better than in the South. However, immigrants tend to be more likely to be employed than their native peers in the South, but at the same time they face a much larger negative wage gap vis-à-vis the native-born compared with their peers in the northern regions. There has been significant South-North mobility of immigrants within Italy, and the available evidence suggests that this has been associated with improvements in labour market outcomes for mobile migrants.

Due to the recent nature of most immigration to Italy, some aspects of the infrastructure for integration are less well developed than in more longstanding countries of immigration. This holds, for example, for the anti-discrimination framework, which is relatively poorly developed compared with other European OECD countries. In addition, most integration offers are rather small-scale and time-limited projects with little co-ordination between them and a general lack of knowledge regarding what works and what does not.

This also concerns language training, the only targeted integration measure provided at the national level through the integration contract for new arrivals. There are relatively few hours provided – 100 as compared with well above 300 in other OECD countries – and the language level aimed at is rather low, with no vocation-specific training currently provided through national programming. Moreover, language instruction organised at the local level suffers from little co-ordination and lack of sharing of good practices.

More generally, there is a multitude of actors, which raises questions regarding overall responsibility for the outcomes. There is a need for a clarification of responsibilities and a simplification of the system, by avoiding overlap. The integration framework would benefit from a clearer mechanism for co-operation without creating additional overhead while sharing good practices at all levels.

An emerging issue for Italy is the integration of the children of immigrants, who are gradually entering the labour market in larger numbers. For this group, more targeted support and counselling in the choice of educational pathways is needed, and incentives should be set to avoid that they drop out of school early.

To better prepare Italy for the integration of its immigrants and their offspring, the following recommendations should be implemented.

Summary of the main policy recommendations

Address the disproportionate effect of the economic crisis on migrants and promote their employability

- Link admission of additional immigrant workers more closely to actual shortages in the Italian labour market.
- Increase the participation of eligible immigrants in active labour market programmes (ALMPs) in order to enable all settled migrants to obtain basic skills.
- Reduce administrative red tape in the process for the admission of eligible family members and provide incentives for them to participate in training programmes.

Combat informal and illegal work

- Strengthen policies to combat undeclared work and false self-employment in the sectors which are more difficult to control as these are also the ones where immigrants are largely concentrated.
- Replace the current cash-benefits in the care sector with service vouchers to limit incentives for informal – rather than formal – caregiving.

Improve the infrastructure for integration

- Allow for a better identification and subsequent mainstreaming of effective integration projects and avoid overlaps in integration offers.
- Clarify responsibilities and simplify the integration structure through better co-ordination without creating additional overhead. Make sure that mechanisms for co-ordination and co-operation are adequately equipped to fulfil this task.
- Reduce administrative red tape in the administration of integration projects and extend the duration of successful programmes; address chronically delayed payments.
- Address institutional constraints, accounting rules and time-consuming processes to assure that European, national and sub-national financial resources are effectively allocated to cost-effective integration projects.
- Involve the social partners to make sure that immigrants benefit from the new framework for the validation of competences.
- Rationalise language learning supply through better co-ordination and enhance job-specific language training.
- Strengthen the framework for anti-discrimination by accompanying the legislative framework with enhanced information and enforcement.

Improve the integration of the children of immigrants

- Provide incentives to families with children abroad to bring them to Italy soon after arrival and into formal educational institutions, to facilitate their long-term integration and to smoothen their school-to-work transition.

Summary of the main policy recommendations *(cont.)*

- Strengthen support for after-school programmes and make sure that children of immigrants have equal access to these measures.
- Increase schools financial resources for language training for newly arrived immigrant children.
- Provide more guidance to families about the education system and labour market prospects after school, particularly prior to their choice among the different upper secondary school pathways.
- Limit possibilities to obtain work permits for children who arrive before the age of 18 if they have not completed lower secondary education.
- Extend the vocational training system with a fourth and a fifth year across all regions.
- Encourage uptake of citizenship for eligible immigrants and their offspring.

Assessment and recommendations

Overview

In the span of a decade, immigrants to Italy became a significant component of the population

With Spain, Italy is the OECD country with the highest annual growth of its legal immigrant population since the beginning of the 2000s. Its location in the middle of the Mediterranean basin and sustained demand for labour in lower-skill occupations has made Italy a major destination for migrants. Between 2001 and 2011, the share of the foreign-born in the total population nearly tripled to 9% of the total population. Immigrants are largely over-represented in the most active age groups (25-44) and overall, they represent nearly 11% of the working-age population (15-64). This share is higher than in Greece and Portugal but remains below the share of most other OECD countries with similar GDP levels.

The prevalent features of the integration of immigrants in Italy differ significantly from most other OECD countries reviewed

Migration to Italy was initially mainly for employment. Family reunification has more recently led to a large settled immigrant population, and to a growing number of immigrant offspring. The share of humanitarian migration in total permanent-based migration has remained relatively small in comparison with most of the European OECD countries which have participated in the OECD reviews on the labour market integration of immigrants and their children. The first groups of migrants came from North Africa and the Philippines to work in Italy. Since the fall of the Iron Curtain, flows from eastern European countries, mainly Albania, Romania and the former Yugoslavia have increased rapidly and migrants from European countries now constitute more than half of the immigrant population. The enlargement of the European Union to Romania and Bulgaria has accentuated this trend. Proximity to past or current conflict areas (Albania, Balkan countries, North Africa) also explains why Italy receives a certain number of humanitarian immigrants, although the assistance provided to refugees, beyond initial reception and an orientation period, is limited and almost indistinguishable from that provided to the mainstream.

In contrast to most other OECD countries, overall, the employment rates of immigrants are higher than those of their native-born counterparts

While immigrants' employment rate is far below the OECD average, this reflects the low employment rate in Italy. In fact, immigrants in Italy have a higher labour market participation rate than their native-born counterparts, regardless of gender. This positive overall outcome, however, is largely driven by differences in the age structures of the native- and foreign-born populations, as well as the concentration in northern regions. In addition, there is a worrisome and accelerating decline in labour market outcomes, both in absolute terms and relative to the native-born.

The integration of immigrants in Italy is less a present concern than a concern over risks for the future

At first glance, it is difficult to claim that integration is an issue in Italy, since immigrants have higher employment rates than natives, even after accounting for differences in socio-economic characteristics. The current situation bears many resemblances with that of the so-called “guest workers” in other European OECD countries in the 1960s and 1970s. While it would be reductionist to make a direct parallel with that epoch, the similarities point to risk factors for the sustainability of employment, marginalisation and poverty, and difficulties faced by immigrant offspring, notably those born in Italy. Signs of these phenomena are already appearing, and to avoid going down the pathway of countries which were unable to ensure integration, attention to these risk factors is necessary. The main issue is thus to avoid immigrant-specific vulnerability and ensuring the long-term employability of those immigrants who will remain in Italy, and of their offspring.

Immigration and integration has a major regional dimension

For decades, Italians in southern regions moved to northern and central regions to find jobs. The same pattern is now observed for the migrants who start working, generally informally, in the agricultural sector in the South and then move to the North when they get a better job opportunity. In 2012, 84% of legal immigrants were living in northern and central regions of Italy, in contrast to 66% of the Italian population. However, the increase in numbers of foreign children attending schools in southern regions may be a sign that immigrants are settling more in those regions than they did in the past or that some are moving back South during the economic crisis.

Immigrants became a structural part of the labour force in some specific sectors

Most of the labour migration is driven by a high demand for low-skilled workers, mainly for domestic services and care for families and in small firms. Progressively, immigrants became a major supplier for low-skilled employment. In 2012, they were holding around 31 and 40% of low-skilled jobs for men and women, respectively. Moreover, Italy is the OECD country with the highest concentration of immigrant employment in specific industries and occupations, with one out of two immigrant men in employment in construction or manufacturing and one out of two immigrant women employed in the personal services sector.

The domestic sector, which employs a large share of migrants, may not continue to grow

Home care for a growing elderly population has driven employment growth for immigrant women, especially. However, this sector is supported only partially by public subsidies, and relies on family savings which are diminishing. This may be not sustainable in the future and demand for home carers may not increase further. In this context, migrant domestic workers may face difficulties to maintain employment, and thus ultimately to stay in the country.

The few highly educated immigrant workers face hurdles in accessing adequate jobs

The only immigrant group with lower employment rates than natives are the highly-educated, comprising 10% of the working-age immigrant population, who struggle with a general shortage of opportunities for medium and highly skilled jobs. This is related to the limited development of medium- and high-skilled jobs in Italy and progress in the educational attainment of natives. In this context, highly educated migrants face even more difficulties than their native counterparts to integrate in the labour market, and those who are employed are less likely than their native counterparts to hold a job that matches their qualifications. Some evidence also shows that over-qualification rates do not decline with job experience and presence in Italy, in contrast to most other OECD countries.

The labour market is highly segmented and immigrants are often trapped in low-paid jobs

There is a large wage gap with the native-born which appears to increase, rather than decline, with age and work experience acquired in Italy. Many factors contribute: an insecure legal status during the first years in Italy may reduce incentives to invest in human capital, in particular in language; the need to demonstrate contract employment for residence permit renewal or first issuance may tend to reduce geographical and professional mobility during the first years in the country; finally, the large overrepresentation of immigrant workers in low-skilled and low-paid jobs may create a vicious circle and lead to statistical discriminatory behaviour by employers vis-à-vis more skilled migrants.

A longitudinal study of outcomes of immigrants is required to better understand risk factors and obstacles to mobility

As stated above, the integration problem in Italy has less to do with the current labour market situation of immigrants than with its evolution in the medium- to long-term. Despite recent efforts to improve statistical information on immigrants and their children, a major longitudinal survey still needs to be conducted to better understand the processes at play and the factors affecting integration.

Address the disproportionate effect of the economic crisis on immigrants

In times of crisis, the admission of new workers should be linked more closely to the availability of suitable and sustainable jobs

The recent economic crisis revealed the limits of the labour market resilience of low-educated immigrant workers. Both native- and foreign-born workers are now facing higher and rising unemployment, which especially affects the least educated. Immigrant men have suffered particular setbacks between 2007 and 2012, with unemployment rising from 5.3 to 12.6%, compared with 4.9 and 9.7% for natives. The top three sectors for employment of immigrant men in 2012 (industry, construction and trade) have all seen dramatic declines in the total workforce since 2007. While in the construction sector, foreign- and native-born unemployment rates rose at the same pace, in industry and trade, the situation deteriorated more among the foreign-born. Women were somewhat protected by persistent demand in domestic and personal services, with unemployment rising by 3.7 percentage points, to 15.9%, compared with a similar increase in terms of percentage points to a level of 11.3% for native women. Admission of new recruits from outside the EU has been largely suspended since 2009, with the exception of a large quota in 2010. In times of crisis, incentives to employers to recruit low-educated workers already resident in the country instead of recruiting foreign workers from abroad should be reinforced.

The Italian legislation favours workers who have received pre-migration training abroad, although in practice this channel has been underutilised. In principle, one would expect such preparatory training to address some of the factors contributing to poor integration outcomes, as participants should have language and professional skills, as well as a regular employment contract. It is therefore important to evaluate whether participants have better integration outcomes than other migrants, especially labour migrants and, if this is indeed the case, to expand this channel.

Concentrate integration efforts on those immigrants who are likely to stay

Non-EU/EFTA migrants are admitted on a temporary basis and in most cases, the renewal of their permits is tied to employment. While there is little evidence of this occurring in practice, the disappearance of jobs and persistent high unemployment, especially among recent migrants and those who have not brought their families, may lead to some return migration. Investment in training should be targeted towards those likely to remain, notably family migrants and those with long-term residence permits.

Increasing the participation of immigrants in activation programmes is particularly important

It is still too early to evaluate the impact on the labour market integration of immigrants of the labour market reforms undertaken in 2012. Beyond the increase in unemployment, some evidence points to the economic crisis reinforcing the high segmentation of immigrants in the labour market. It seems that the structural dualism of the Italian labour market is becoming “ethnically” polarised. The limited data available on the participation of immigrants in active labour market programmes tend to show that immigrants are largely underrepresented in mainstream programmes. Furthermore, the few targeted programmes are small-scale and project-based, with little evaluation of their effectiveness. In this context, it is important to strengthen the participation of eligible immigrants to mainstreamed active labour market policies.

It is also important to strengthen the matching between employer demand and the supply of immigrant workers

The public employment service (PES) is the agency in charge of job placement although other actors can also be authorised to do so. The major difficulties faced by the PES to efficiently accomplish this mission are linked with the importance of informal channels to recruit new workers. Evidence shows that immigrants are less likely to contact the PES than natives. It seems that for immigrants, the PES tends to be a reference point for administrative purposes, such as for getting an extension of their permit of residence, instead of playing an active role in job placement. In practise, municipalities are often the first contact point for unemployed migrants and some of them are already active in the area of job matching. As long as the PES remains in charge of matching, it must be better equipped to deal with a growing number of immigrant clients. Incentives should be provided to unemployed migrants to more systematically contact the PES, notably through referrals municipalities and existing information points. In addition, incentives should be provided to employers to report their job vacancies to the PES. In this regard, partnerships with other stakeholders such as the Chambers of Commerce could increase PES efficiency and reduce the reluctance of employers to contact the PES when hiring new workers. In addition, municipalities and other bodies that are already active job matching should be allowed to experiment further, with subsequent mainstreaming.

Ensure that immigrants and their children have equal access to the public sector

Public sector employment is an important indicator and driver of integration. In Italy, immigrants are barely present in public sector employment, as a legacy of restrictions. Since 2013, non-EU citizens with a long-term residence permit as well as relatives of EU immigrants, refugees and humanitarian migrants can apply for jobs in the public sector. For these groups, requirements are similar to those for EU citizens. As the public sector has been under pressure to reduce hiring, this decision should have little immediate impact. Whether the recent changes will lead, in the medium- to long-term, to more immigrants taking civil service exams and entering the public sector is not clear. Other OECD countries have introduced diversity charters and other initiatives to ensure that the public sector reflects the composition of the population, and their experimentation in Italy should be considered.

Combat informal and illegal work

Avoid long delay in decisions on permit issuance to reduce overstay and illegal work

Processing times for permit applications for employment have historically been very long, with months or years passing before the worker finally enters. Often, the job has disappeared in the meanwhile, and the immigrant joins the ranks of job-seekers. In cases of renewal, lengthy delays lead to overstaying. Accelerating procedures should help reducing this phenomenon.

Replacing cash-benefits with service vouchers in the care sector would contribute to lower informal employment by families and to increase participation in training programmes of this category of workers

With the third highest share of elderly people in its population in the OECD, Italy is facing a structural need for qualified long-term caregivers. Recourse to low-paid immigrant women has become one of the main mechanisms to compensate for insufficient public long-term care services. Compared with most other OECD countries, cash purchase of long-term care services is more common than public service provision. The national institute of social security (INPS) provides a national disability cash-benefit which is not subject to a means-test and which is not sufficient to cover the cost of a full-time legally employed and certified caregiver at home. Some groups of immigrant women (notably Ukrainians, Peruvians and Filipinos) are frequently recruited in these jobs and the cash-for-long-term-care allowance seems to fuel recruitment of low-paid immigrant workers and to allow families to keep them in the informal sector. Replacing the cash-for-long-term-care allowance with service vouchers would lead to at least partial formal employment for many workers.

Home care work currently requires no certification in Italy and is considered an unskilled job, with little prospect for career progression or emergence from the secondary labour market. Vocational training for workers in the personal services may help, but is currently under-developed and benefit a limited number of migrants. Service vouchers for families have been experimented in Italy, and are used in a number of OECD countries. In addition to reducing informal employment, service vouchers would allow vocational training plans to be proposed to participating workers. Similarly, some municipalities offering additional benefits to eligible recipients link the benefit to legal employment; this could be promoted more widely and linked with upskilling or other forms of training.

Self-employment is often a valuable means to integration for resident migrants

Overall, self-employment is relatively more common in Italy than in other OECD countries, and this holds for native-born and for immigrants. Self-employment has been a valuable means to adapt to the Italian labour market. Immigrant businesses, however, are smaller and face higher failure rates. Some of these are individual firms which are actually single-client subcontracting, substituting contract employment. In general, support services for immigrant entrepreneurs have been mainstreamed into initiatives for the self-employed, and this should be supported in the future. However, self-employment may mask another phenomenon, businesses created only to sponsor foreigners for work visas. To discourage this, criteria for sponsoring businesses under the quota system should be reviewed.

Strengthen integration offers and participation of migrants in mainstreamed programmes

Language training supply has made significant progress…

An integration contract introduced in 2012 has set clear criteria for renewing a first residence permit, notably the acquisition of basic language skills. Since 2012, national and European resources have been allocated to the local organisation of related language courses, establishing a national language-training system using existing and new resources. Different levels of courses are organised: 100 hours for reaching an A1 level and 80 hours for an A2 level. These are less than the hours provided in other OECD countries, where 300 to 600 hours of instruction are the usual goal. The lower provision – both in terms of hours also in terms of the level aimed at – in Italy seems to reflect the lower expectations by employers, and the often low-skilled nature of employment for which immigrants have come. Some courses are adapted for people using non-Latin alphabets and for illiterate persons. Targeted services are also included to overcome obstacles to participation by categories such as mothers with young children or workers who are available only in the evening. The acquisition of an A2-level is a prerequisite to access adult learning and few links are made with the acquisition of vocational skills directly used on the labour market.

The Permanent Local Centres for Adult Education (CPIA) play an essential role in the acquisition of language competences. A large proportion of participants in these centres obtain a language certificate at the end of their courses. Given these results, the role of these centres in the provision of language training in Italy could be strengthened further. Additional financial and staff resources need to be provided to these structures to overcome the increasing need in language training and to propose more flexible courses.

… although good practice in this area needs to be extended…

Language provision is not always well co-ordinated at the regional level, and often a myriad of private providers work alongside several public structures. Good practices in informing potential students of different opportunities and in rationalising courses to avoid overlap while making sure that all needs are being met and should be extended to all regions or provinces.

… as well as stronger job-specific links

One shortcoming of existing language courses is that they are oriented towards the integration contract rather than the labour market. Courses should also be organised in the framework of vocational training and more generally with respect to employment-related language skills, which is currently largely lacking.

It is important that immigrants benefit from the new framework for the validation of competences and that the social partners are involved in the process.

The 2012 labour market reform includes provisions on the assessment of formal and informal skills. This reform aims to establish a more transparent system in terms of learning through a certification system and the validation of non-formal learning; and to deliver more flexible programmes better matched to participants' needs (adequate content; possibility of part-time and flexible hours). A 2013 decree states the definition of general norms and criteria for the identification and validation of non-formal and informal learning, offering a general framework for a national register of VET qualifications awarded in the national education system and by regions and autonomous provinces. A platform where the corresponding European Qualification Framework level will be indicated for all national qualifications is planned for mid-2014. Immigrants stand to benefit from this, although their distance from labour market institutions suggests that social partners will have to play a role in ensuring that immigrants undergo validation. This would also ensure that employers accept the certification outcome.

At the national level, dissemination of better information, notably on labour market institutions, should be provided

One of the most widespread initiatives for integration in Italy is to create an "information counter" to provide orientation and support to immigrants. Information counters first appeared in municipalities with large immigrant populations in the 1990s, and are by now a fixture in most areas with an immigrant presence, although they take different forms. In light of the procedural difficulties often faced by immigrants renewing their permits, many information points work closely with the prefectural One-stop Shops, and are often co-ordinated under the umbrella of the Territorial Council. There is no single standard for information at the regional or national level. The national website is a good step in this direction, although it is still more of a reference tool than a guide.

Strengthen the institutional framework as well as synergies of actors dealing with integration policies

There are many bodies to co-ordinate, yet these do not always seem to be delivering

The multitude of actors raises questions regarding responsibilities and co-ordination to avoid overlap while making sure that all needs are met, both efficiently and effectively. Italy boasts a large number of political and institutional bodies charged with co-ordinating and rationalising integration policy. A brief experience with a Ministry of Integration attempted to improve links among actors, although it was not equipped with the resources to fulfil this task and recently abolished. At the sub-national level, there are the Territorial Councils for Immigration, linked to the Ministry of Interior. These involve representatives from all sub-national levels and involve local actors but are understaffed and have no independent resources. Furthermore, consultative bodies exist in most regions, as well as in many provinces and municipalities. The challenge is to identify which body or bodies are most likely to deliver, and to provide this body with the resources necessary to acquire credibility and the ability to intervene concretely to influence integration investments.

Projects need to be rationalised

Integration measures are highly decentralised in Italy, with local authorities and third sector service providers being the usual contact for immigrants. Integration programmes depend on an alignment of priorities and resources at the regional and local levels, and the number of actors mean that coverage and execution can be fragmented, sometimes clashing, overlapping or leaving gaps. Moreover, projects are often small-scale and activities are co-funded by multiple players with the risk of that no coherent approach to integration is used, even at a local level.

… and successful ones mainstreamed

What would be ordinary integration policy in other OECD countries is conducted with extraordinary funding in Italy. Basic integration services such as information and documentation, orientation and training, are often not provided through regular budgets but through project financing. These should be covered by regular budget lines and not tenders designed to promote experimentation. The fact that many initiatives are project-based and generally funded for one to three years means implies a lack of sustainability. Mechanisms should be put in place to better identify and subsequently mainstream effective integration projects. Under those conditions, the duration of tenders/subcontracts should be extended where appropriate.

European Social Fund investments do not always seem to provide value for money

One key source of funding for labour market integration in Italy has been the European Social Fund, which is co-financed by the Ministry of Labour and the regions. The expenditures per user under training programmes and other active labour market initiatives supported by the European Social Fund are often high – over EUR 20 000 per beneficiary – and in the absence of a thorough evaluation it is not clear whether or not this expense is justified by the outcome. These projects should be carefully evaluated in terms of effectiveness and efficiency.

Regional funding for integration often goes unspent or is distributed only after lengthy delays

The national framework for integration is supported by specific regional legislations that regulate the actions to be planned and implemented within the regional territory in the field of social integration. Some regions experience difficulties to effectively use their resources. Overall, in 2010, of EUR 31 million budgeted by the regions, only 18% was disbursed, with an additional 58% assigned to projects but not actually transferred. These untransferred funds go back to the general budget if not paid out in two years. Further, if the remaining funds (24% in 2010) go unspent, they are effectively lost. The reasons for this situation are not clear, but may include low capacity to manage procurement, weakness of service providers, or mistargeted funds directed at areas which do not require intervention. A better identification of cost-effective integration projects and the extension of effective projects duration to a minimum of three years should contribute to simplify the allocation of funds by reducing the constant need to search for new tenders. Regions which are unable to spend should receive more support to deal with administrative challenges, and if even then unable to spend, their funds should be shifted to regions which are able to realise projects. Further, to address situations of chronically delayed payments should be addressed, as well as the issue of the high administrative burden of integration projects. In this regard, a national body should be given not only a co-ordination role but could also have means to monitor integration expenditures and to intervene to support local authorities to effectively spend or redirect integration funds.

The integration contract needs to be assessed

The integration contract introduced by Italy in 2012 took a novel approach compared with similar contracts in other OECD countries, using a bonus/malus points system. Whether this is effective in improving integration outcomes and in ensuring that immigrants most likely to integrate are granted permits has not been evaluated. In light of the central role of this instrument, information on the number of points at renewal should be collected and analysed in terms of the determinants of passing and failing scores, and its relation with effective integration.

The framework for anti-discrimination needs to be strengthened

There is evidence of discrimination in the labour market – including selective layoffs – and other domains such as housing. The public discourse is not welcoming for immigrants. Despite a legal framework for anti-discrimination, application is infrequent: recourse to the courts is rare and there are few sanctions. The national discrimination body, UNAR, collects and follows cases of discrimination, but is still not widely known among migrants and cannot represent plaintiffs in court. UNAR should be given more operational independence and the ability to represent cases in court. More targeted information regarding immigrants' rights and legal recourse, especially for workplace discrimination should also be provided.

Regional differences in access to benefits should be eliminated

Regions currently apply different residence and eligibility criteria for certain public benefits. This may create the risk of benefit-shopping and distort mobility patterns. To avoid this, access criteria should be harmonised nationally.

Set the integration of immigrant offspring as a top priority

The high rate of early school leavers among immigrant children is a major risk factor

Already in 2001, almost 20% of the immigrant youth had left school without a diploma. This is particularly a risk for those who arrive late, as adolescents. On average, in 2012/13 almost 40% of the immigrant students were at least one year behind in their studies compared with the usual grade at their age, which represents a further risk factor for dropout.

The low educational outcomes of young migrants trained in Italy and of native-born children of immigrants require special attention

Half of the foreigners aged 15 to 34 who arrived in Italy between 6 and 15, who represent the bulk of the youngsters with a foreign background, have a level of education at best equivalent to lower secondary, compared with 22% of the Italian young adults. The transition from lower to secondary school is a difficult step for students with an immigrant background, especially for those who arrived at a late age. The socio-economic background of the family only partly explains the gap with native students. Many students are placed in classes with younger classmates and this may contribute to their discouragement and likelihood to drop out. Larger financial support to local initiatives that significantly improve students' proficiency in Italian, and support to schools in terms of allocation of hours of Italian as a second language would contribute to improve the situation.

Encourage earlier family reunification and accelerate procedures would reduce late arrival and associated school delay

Late arrival of immigrant children negatively affects educational outcomes of immigrants coming from countries where the educational system is less performing than in Italy. It is necessary to reduce delays in the family reunification procedure, possibly by assisting with applications and documentation, and to give incentives to families to bring their children earlier, in time to learn Italian in school.

After-school programmes would especially help immigrant children

The Italian school days ends in the early afternoon in most cases and homework loads are high. Immigrant children are rarely helped with their homework, and, along with other lower income children, are less likely to have after-school activities organised. After-school programmes would help address this gap with native-born students. After-school programmes would also be the appropriate venue for language support, rather than placing immigrant children in classes with younger students.

Incentives to complete lower secondary education should be provided to all children arrived before the age of 18 and who plan to settle in Italy

Many immigrant children arrive at the end of mandatory schooling, at age 15 or 16, often because their family hopes they will start working immediately. In light of their limited language skills and low familiarity with Italian institutions, this group faces particular challenges in the labour market. Ensuring that they attend school requires more financial and staff resources for schools which receive newly arrived immigrant children and stronger incentives for schools to provide them support. This also requires to reinforce participation to CTP activities and to increase staff and financial resources dedicated to these structures. Provided that these conditions are met, incentives such as more favourable conditions in issuing long-term permits should be provided to immigrant children arrived before the age of 18 to achieve a minimal level of education.

More guidance should be provided to families in the education system and post-graduation labour market prospects, particularly prior to the orientation at the end of lower secondary education

Immigrant students arrived before the age of 18 and, to a lesser extent, native-born immigrant offspring are predominantly enrolled in vocational programmes, which is not, in itself, a problem. However, evidence shows that few students enrolled in a vocational programme participated in orientation initiatives before enrolling in this kind of programme. Choice is often driven by different family expectations as well as by a desire to rapidly access the labour market. More effective school orientation within the Italian system, notably at the end of lower secondary education, should be provided to both students and families to help them choosing the school pathway that best suits their competences and aspirations.

More bridges should be created to allow students to continue for a fourth or a fifth year after completing a vocational programme

A recent survey conducted by ISFOL showed that more than 20% of immigrant and native-born students with foreign-born parents were interested in pursuing post-secondary training after finishing a vocational training qualification. However, only seven regions currently offer the possibility to continue for a fourth year, and only two to complete a fifth year. Raising the vocational training system to this level across different regions would be beneficial to immigrant students who are an increasing part of the student body in vocational secondary education.

The school-to-work transition occurs in a difficult context both for native- and foreign-born youngsters

The school-to-work transition, and more generally the labour market outcomes of youngsters with a foreign background, have to be seen in a context of high youth unemployment. However, a third of the immigrants aged 15-24 are at risk to be marginalised, as they are neither in employment nor education nor training (so-called NEET). This is one of the highest rates among OECD countries (after Belgium, Spain, Greece and Turkey) and compares with 20% among the native youngsters.

Citizenship should be facilitated and its uptake encouraged

Access to citizenship helps immigrants improve their labour market outcomes and appears associated with investment in human capital. Naturalisation criteria are rather restrictive in Italy relative to other OECD countries. Nonetheless, recent legislation requires municipalities to inform immigrant minors of their right to apply for naturalisation upon turning 18. Many minors were unaware of this right and failed to take advantage of this one-year application window (recently extended to three years). Municipalities should build on good practice in this area to contact minors and their families and encourage naturalisation, as laid out by recent reforms.

Chapter 1

Comparing the characteristics and labour market outcomes of immigrants across countries

Immigrant employment levels are high in Italy compared with their native peers. This chapter examines factors which nuance the positive interpretation of this indicator. First, the labour market outcomes in Italy are seen in international comparisons, in particular for women. Second, immigrants' young average age and their underrepresentation among students are examined, to see if they partly drive high immigrant employment levels vis-à-vis their native peers. Third, the chapter looks at regional concentration of immigrants in northern and central regions where labour market conditions are more favourable. Fourth, international comparison of immigrants' education and skills in Italy is conducted. Finally, the chapter discusses whether immigrants suffered disproportionally from the economic crisis, and the implications for the future sustainability of mostly low-skilled jobs held by immigrants.

Labour market outcomes

Looking at immigrant[1] labour market outcomes in Italy in international comparison, the first and salient observation is that, overall, immigrants are more likely to be employed than their native-born counterparts, although the differences are not large. This is observed in only a few other OECD countries, those which share with Italy the particularity that a large part of the immigrant population consists of recently arrived migrants who came for employment (Table 1.1). It is also noteworthy that both natives and immigrants participate less to the labour market than in most other OECD countries. Moreover, immigrants from low-income countries have similar labour market outcomes to other migrants, which again contrasts with the situation in most other European countries shown in Table 1.1.

Italy is characterised by large regional disparities, both in terms of migrants' geographical distribution and outcomes. Table 1.1 shows the share of immigrants in the working-age population. In 2011/12, immigrants accounted for about 11% of the working-age population, with a slightly higher share among women than among men. One also observes a strong underrepresentation of immigrants in the southern part of the country, where immigrants account for a mere five percent. In those Italian regions, only half of the working-age population is in the labour force, compared with 70% in the northern regions and 73% in the 15 OECD countries in the comparison group. Although overall labour market conditions are more favourable in the North, including for immigrants, in terms of differences with the native-born, immigrants fare much better in the South. This is also the only area where employment rates are not only much higher for immigrant men and women compared with their native-born peers, but where immigrant unemployment is lower than that of the native-born. These trends are particularly noticeable in Sardinia, Sicilia and Campania (see Annex A).

Regional disparities differ by gender. The employment rates of immigrant men are higher than those of their native peers in all three aggregated regions shown in Table 1.1 although differences between the two groups are negligible in the northern regions. In contrast, employment rates of immigrant women in the northern regions remain low in international comparison and are also lower than those of their native-born peers. The immigrant labour market outcomes in the central regions are the most favourable, both in absolute and relative terms. This remains true for men and women (Table 1.1). This trend is largely driven by outcomes for Lazio (see Annex A).

The relatively high employment rate of immigrants in Italy compared with their native-born peers is partly attributable to the higher proportion of the working-age native-born still in education, which tends to decrease the employment rate of this group relative to immigrants. This factor explains most of the difference in immigrant women employment rates with their native peers. Another explanatory factor is the high immigrants' concentration in the most active age groups. Overall, when accounting for age composition of both groups and when excluding persons still in education, immigrants are only marginally more likely to be employed than their native counterparts. This aggregate outcome is both driven by a larger negative gap with natives in northern regions where immigrants are most concentrated and by a slight reduction in the positive gap with natives in southern regions (Table 1.2).

Table 1.1. Immigrant labour market outcomes in selected OECD countries, population aged 15-64, 2011/12

Percentages and differences with the native-born in percentage points

	% of foreign-born in the 15-64 population	Participation rate		Employment rate		Unemployment rate	
		Foreign-born	Difference with the native-born (NB): +: higher than NB	Foreign-born	Difference with the native-born (NB): +: higher than NB	Foreign-born	Difference with the native-born (NB): +: higher than NB
MEN							
Italy (all)	10	83	*11*	74	*8*	11	*3*
North	13	84	*7*	75	*1*	12	*7*
Centre	13	85	*10*	76	*6*	11	*4*
South	4	77	*11*	68	*12*	11	*- 3*
Austria	17	82	*1*	75	*- 3*	8	*5*
Belgium	16	73	*0*	61	*- 8*	17	*11*
Denmark	11	77	*- 6*	66	*- 11*	14	*7*
France	12	77	*2*	66	*- 3*	15	*6*
Germany	16	84	*2*	76	*- 2*	9	*4*
Greece	9	89	*13*	64	*1*	28	*11*
Ireland	19	80	*4*	64	*2*	20	*2*
Luxembourg	48	83	*15*	79	*13*	5	*2*
Netherlands	12	79	*- 6*	71	*- 10*	10	*6*
Portugal	9	86	*8*	70	*3*	19	*5*
Spain	17	86	*7*	56	*- 7*	35	*14*
Sweden	17	81	*- 2*	68	*- 10*	17	*10*
United Kingdom	15	83	*2*	76	*2*	9	*- 0*
United States	17	85	*9*	78	*9*	8	*- 1*
WOMEN							
Italy (all)	12	59	*7*	50	*4*	15	*5*
North	15	59	*- 3*	50	*- 8*	16	*9*
Centre	15	63	*6*	54	*3*	14	*5*
South	6	52	*14*	44	*13*	15	*- 3*
Austria	19	64	*- 7*	59	*- 9*	8	*4*
Belgium	17	53	*- 10*	44	*- 15*	15	*9*
Denmark	13	68	*- 9*	57	*- 15*	16	*9*
France	13	59	*- 8*	50	*- 12*	16	*7*
Germany	17	64	*- 9*	58	*- 11*	9	*4*
Greece	10	62	*4*	44	*1*	28	*3*
Ireland	20	63	*2*	54	*- 1*	15	*4*
Luxembourg	48	68	*12*	62	*8*	8	*4*
Netherlands	14	63	*- 12*	57	*- 15*	10	*5*
Portugal	9	80	*11*	66	*7*	17	*3*
Spain	18	73	*7*	50	*- 1*	31	*9*
Sweden	19	69	*- 11*	58	*- 17*	16	*9*
United Kingdom	16	64	*- 7*	58	*- 8*	10	*3*
United States	16	63	*- 5*	57	*- 5*	9	*1*
TOTAL							
Italy (all)	11	70	*8*	61	*5*	13	*4*
North	14	71	*2*	62	*- 4*	13	*8*
Centre	14	73	*7*	64	*3*	12	*4*
South	5	63	*11*	54	*11*	13	*- 3*
Austria	18	73	*- 4*	67	*- 7*	8	*5*
Belgium	16	62	*- 6*	52	*- 12*	16	*10*
Denmark	12	72	*- 8*	61	*- 13*	15	*8*
France	13	68	*- 3*	57	*- 7*	15	*7*
Germany	16	74	*- 4*	67	*- 7*	9	*4*
Greece	10	75	*8*	54	*1*	28	*7*
Ireland	20	71	*3*	59	*0*	17	*3*
Luxembourg	48	76	*13*	71	*11*	6	*3*
Netherlands	13	71	*- 10*	64	*- 13*	10	*6*
Portugal	9	83	*9*	68	*5*	18	*4*
Spain	17	79	*7*	53	*- 4*	33	*12*
Sweden	18	75	*- 7*	63	*- 13*	16	*10*
United Kingdom	15	73	*- 3*	67	*- 4*	9	*1*
United States	17	74	*2*	68	*2*	9	*- 0*

Source: EU Labour Force Surveys (Eurostat), Italian Labour Force Surveys (ISTAT) and US Current Population Survey (CPS).

Table 1.2. Difference between foreign- and native-born employment rates in selected OECD countries, population aged 15-64, 2011/12

Unadjusted and adjusted differences for age composition, in percentage points

	15-64 (excluding those still in education)					
	Total		Men		Women	
	Unadjusted difference	Difference adjusted for age	Unadjusted difference	Difference adjusted for age	Unadjusted difference	Difference adjusted for age
Italy	**2**	**1**	**5**	**3**	**1**	**1**
North	***-6***	***-7***	*0*	***-2***	***-11***	***-11***
Center	***0***	***-1***	***3***	***1***	***-1***	***-1***
South	***8***	***7***	***9***	***6***	***11***	***11***
Austria	**-9**	**-10**	-5	-6	-12	**-13**
Belgium	**-14**	**-16**	**-10**	**-13**	**-18**	**-20**
Germany	**-10**	**-11**	-5	-6	**-15**	**-15**
Denmark	**-12**	**-13**	**-10**	**-12**	**-13**	**-14**
Spain	-6	-8	-9	-11	-3	-5
France	**-12**	**-12**	-8	-7	**-17**	**-17**
Greece	-2	3	-2	-5	-1	-1
Ireland	0	-3	1	-2	-2	-4
Luxembourg	-4	-1	5	1	3	-1
Netherlands	**-13**	**-14**	**-10**	**-12**	**-14**	**-15**
Portugal	-3	0	1	-3	5	2
Sweden	**-15**	**-17**	**-13**	**-15**	**-17**	**-19**
United Kingdom	-3	-5	3	0	-8	-9
United States	0	**-1**	**7**	**5**	**-7**	**-8**

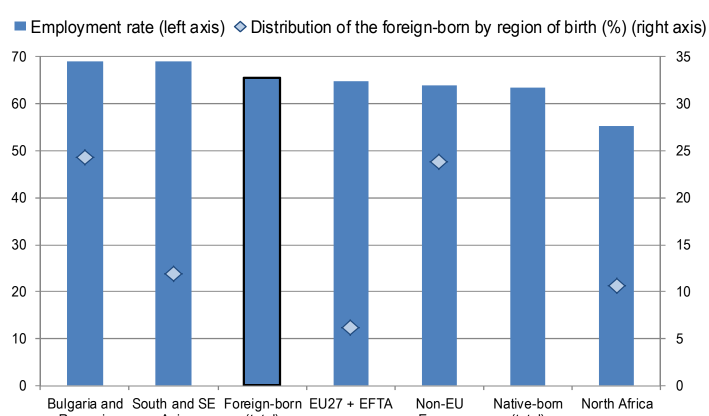
Note: Differences in bold are statistically different from zero.

Source: EU Labour Force Surveys (Eurostat), Italian Labour Force Surveys (ISTAT) and US Current Population Survey (CPS).

Immigrant labour market outcomes vary also by origin. However, with the notable exception of immigrants from North Africa, all groups have higher employment rates than their native-born counterparts (Figure 1.1). Immigrants from Romania and from Asia have the highest employment rates.

Figure 1.1. Employment rates of immigrants aged 15-64 by region of birth, excluding persons still in education, 2011/12

Percentage of the 15-64 population



Note: In the whole publication, data on immigrants from the European Union do not include Croatia since they refer to migrants born in the EU as it stated in 2012.

Source: Italian Labour Force Surveys (ISTAT).

Evolution over time

Looking at the evolution of immigrant labour market outcomes since 2005 – the first year for which this information is available (see Box 1.1) – the first and salient observation is the rapid decline in outcomes for immigrant men since about 2008, both in absolute levels and relative to their native-born peers. Between 2008 and 2012, there has been decline in their employment rates by 10 percentage points, twice as much as for native-born men. Over the same period, their unemployment rates almost doubled, from 5.8% in 2008 to 12.6% in 2012, whereas the increase among native-born was only about half of that. Immigrant men in Italy have thus been more affected by the recent decline in labour market conditions than their native-born peers. Although such a differential impact between the two groups has also been observed elsewhere in the OECD, the differences were only in few other OECD countries as marked as in Italy.

Box 1.1. Definitions and statistics used in this review

Most Italian survey and administrative data are based on citizenship rather than on country of birth. Information on the country of birth was introduced in the national labour force survey (LFS) only in 2005. As citizenship laws and citizenship take-up vary greatly between OECD countries, reliance on the nationality criterion hampers international comparisons. For example, in countries with liberal access to citizenship, foreign nationals tend to be mainly recent arrivals, whereas in countries with *ius sanguis* and difficult access to citizenship, even native-born offspring of immigrants can still be foreigners. Wherever possible, this report refers to the foreign-born as immigrants. In practice, the differences between the two groups are minor in the case of Italy, as access to citizenship is rather difficult, and most immigration is rather recent.

A specific issue in the case of Italy, which has a large expatriate community, is offspring of former emigrants who are foreign-born but should, for the purposes of this analysis, not be considered immigrants. Unfortunately, the nationality at birth is not regularly asked in the labour force survey. However, the 2008 ad hoc module of the labour force survey included this information. It revealed that around three quarters of the Italians born in an EU/EFTA country were Italian at birth. In addition, they represented 70% of the total number of foreign-born Italian at birth. As a consequence, in this report, this group (Italians born in an EU/EFTA country) is excluded from the immigrant population and considered as native-born.

In 2005, most foreigners were born abroad. Following the large increase in the inflows of foreigners over the last decade, the number of foreign-born foreigners doubled (table below). At the same time, the number of native-born foreigners tripled to 713 500, accounting for 12.6% of the population foreign-born and/or foreign population.

Distribution of the total population in Italy by nationality and country of birth, 2005 and 2012

Percentages of the total population

	2005		2012	
	Native-born	Foreign-born	Native-born	Foreign-born
National	95.1	1.1	90.7	1.3
Foreigner	0.4	3.4	1.2	6.8

Source: Italian Labour Force Surveys (ISTAT).

The labour force survey is the main source of data used in this report. Its sample is based on municipal registers and therefore immigrants residing legally in Italy but not yet enrolled in the municipal register are out of the scope of the survey. This group is not negligible and in 2011/12, it represented between 5% and 8% of the foreign population (ISMU, 2013). Recent immigrants are more likely not to be included in municipal registries and therefore are presumed to be underestimated by the labour force survey.

Box 1.1. Definitions and statistics used in this review *(cont.)*

Since 2007, all employers, both private and public, are required to inform the Employment Services when they hire new employees or modify contracts. Mandatory reporting requirements (the so-called CO) include job start and end dates; type of contract and changes of dependent work contracts; wage; occupation; and reasons for ending the contract. Individual worker characteristics that are reported include gender, age, educational attainment (although with many missing), place of birth (foreign- and native-born) and nationality (national, EU-foreign citizen and third-country national) and region of residence. However, no detail is provided on duration of stay or length of work experience in Italy. Since 2008, these communications have to be made online which has contributed to increase data accuracy. The CO Dataset is partial, for 2007 and 2008, so it is possible to fully follow up the employment history of an individual only since 2009. Workers who benefitted from the 2009 ad hoc regularisation programme can be identified in this dataset (see Annex B for details on the use of CO data in this review).

Other major datasets including information on immigrants that could not be accessed to for the purpose of this review

Another major data source which contains information on the respondent's place of birth is the population census. The National Statistical Institute (ISTAT) conducted a census in 2011, the results of which are not available at the time of writing this report. Preliminary census results have permitted to clean up registers of foreign residents and to purge records of those who were not included in the census, presumably because they left the country without reporting their departure. However, it is assumed that some of the persons concerned are still present in the country but could not be properly identified.

The Ministry of Interior runs a database on residence permits which contains data on flows and stocks of third-country nationals by category of entry. A linkage of these permit records with social security data is on-going but not yet publicly accessible. This is a promising initiative since it will provide a unique source of longitudinal data.

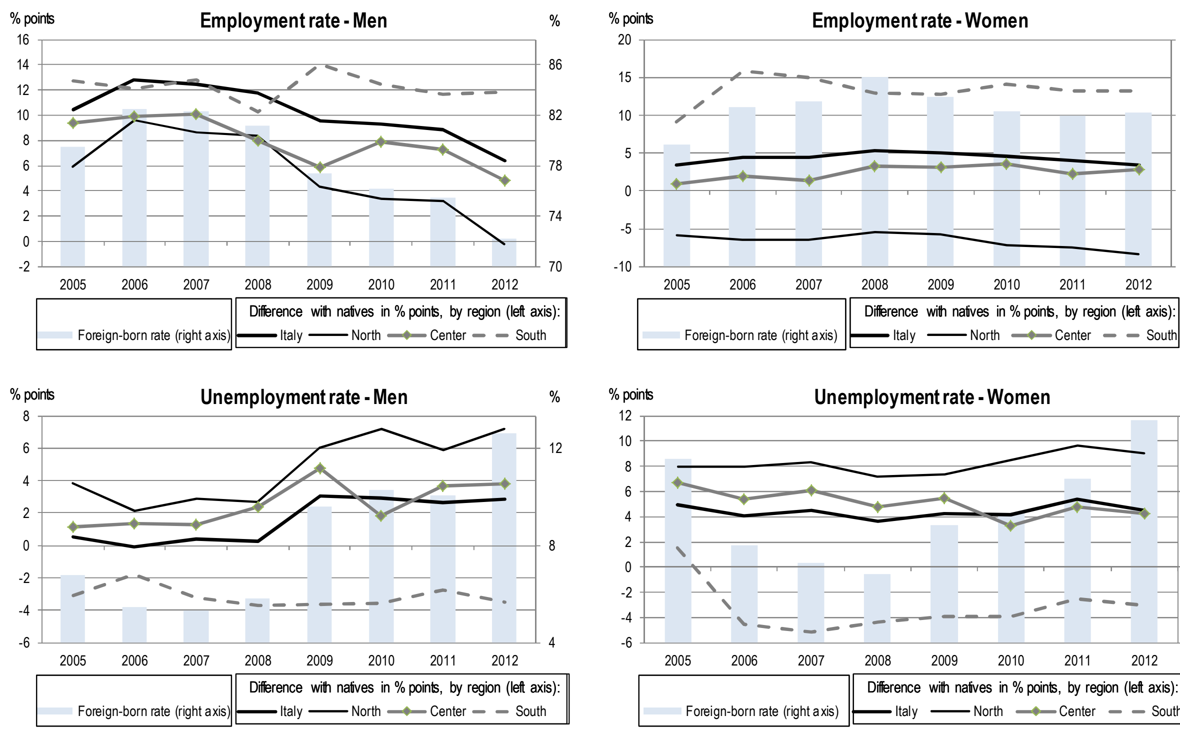
A new representative survey ("Italian Survey on Integration and Social Conditions of Foreigners") has been conducted in 2011-12, covering 10 000 households with at least one foreign member. It covers many aspects of immigrants' integration and includes information on past work experience in the origin country and in Italy as well as on aspects of immigrants' social integration, including health status and access to health care, housing arrangements and perception on their housing conditions, perception of security, and of discrimination.

The relative decline vis-à-vis the native-born men has been particularly marked in the northern part of the country, whereas the situation in the South has developed roughly at par with that of the native-born. For immigrant women, in contrast, there have been no drastic shifts over time, although they also experienced an increase in their unemployment rates of about 4 percentage points since 2008, just like their native-born peers (Figure 1.2).

In summary, at first sight, at least in terms of employment rates and vis-à-vis the native-born, the labour market integration of immigrants in Italy does not appear to be unfavourable in international comparison. However, this aggregate picture needs to be nuanced in several respects.[2] First, labour market outcomes in Italy are low even for the native-born, in particular for women. Second, most of migration is recent and has been labour-market driven. In all countries, labour migrants have better labour market outcomes than other groups, at least initially. Third, immigrants are much younger than the native-born, and this accounts for the slightly higher employment rate that immigrants enjoy over the native-born on average. Despite their young age, immigrants are less represented among persons still in education than their native counterparts. This also contributes to reduce the negative gap in employment rates with natives. Fourth, immigrants are overrepresented in the North, where labour market conditions are much better than in the South. Finally, there has been a strong decline in outcomes with the crisis, and this decline seems to be ongoing if not accelerating.

Figure 1.2. Immigrant labour market outcomes in Italy by gender and region of residence, 2005-12

Percentages and differences with native-born in percentage points



Source: Italian Labour Force Surveys (ISTAT).

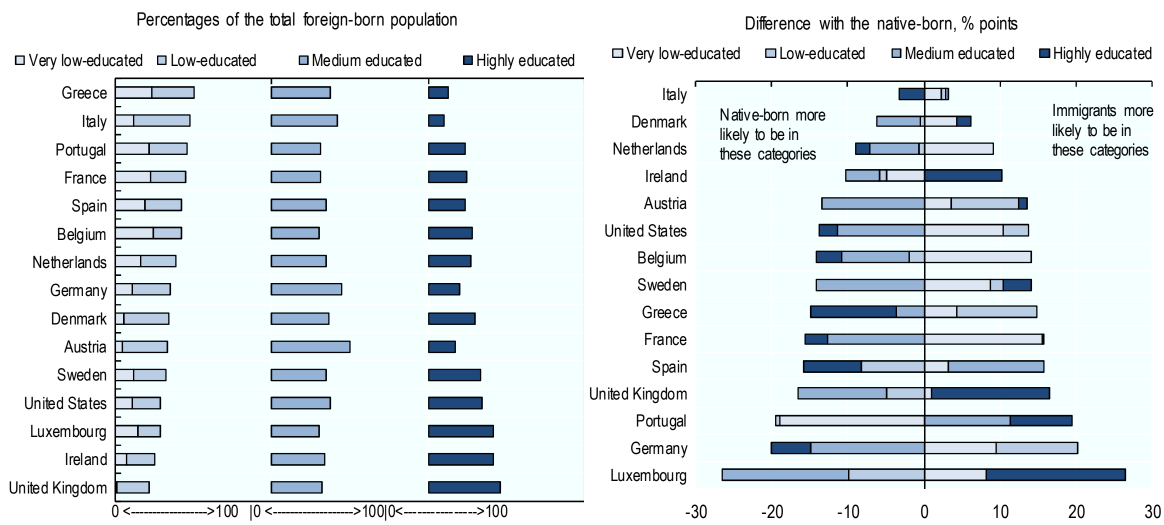
Although aggregated labour market outcomes tend to confirm that immigrants in Italy "fill the gap" with their native counterparts, some specificities of the migrants' characteristics – high incidence of migrants with no or low education – and jobs – high occupational and sectorial concentration – pose the issue of integration in more dynamic terms, notably in terms of long-term employability and "risk of marginalisation". In this context, differences in job quality as well as in job prospects also need to be assessed. This issue is particularly crucial since Italy is currently facing a second phase of deep job crisis. Another risk has to do with the labour market integration of growing cohorts of immigrant offspring. All OECD countries which experienced large waves of low-educated migrants in the past have been confronted to the challenge of integrating immigrant offspring. Past experiences have shown that this challenge needs to be tackled with no delay since this group faces high risk of marginalisation.

Qualification structure

A key determinant of labour market outcomes of immigrants in all countries is their formal qualifications. Compared with other OECD countries, immigrants in Italy are relatively low-educated. Less than 10% have tertiary education, which is – together with Greece – the lowest share in the OECD (Figure 1.3). In contrast, a relatively large share has less than upper secondary education. However, many of these low-educated immigrants have at least post-primary education, and the incidence of the very low-educated – i.e. with no or only primary education – is lower than in many other European OECD countries.

The structure by level of education does not appear, at first glance, to differ much from that of the native-born. However, the educational attainment levels among those who are below the age of 35 are much lower than those of the native-born, and, since most migration is rather recent, immigrants are on average much younger than the native-born population.

Figure 1.3. Distribution of the population aged 15 to 64 by educational attainment and place of birth in selected OECD countries, 2011



Note: Educational attainment levels are defined in this publication according to the International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED 1997). "Very-low educated" have no education or have completed at best primary education (ISCED category 0 and 1). "Low-educated" persons are in ISCED category 2 and have completed at best lower secondary education. In tables where "Very-low educated" are not distinguished, "Low-educated" refers to persons in ISCED category 0/1/2. "Medium-educated" persons are in ISCED category 3/4 and have completed either upper secondary or post-secondary non-tertiary education. "Highly educated" persons are in ISCED category 5/6 and hold at least a first stage tertiary degree.

Source: EU Labour Force Surveys (Eurostat) and US Current Population Survey (CPS).

Table 1.3 shows the distribution by educational attainment for the population aged 15-34. As can be seen, among this population there are very few native-born who have below secondary education. In contrast, among immigrants from non-OECD countries, in particular those from North Africa, between 10 and 20% have at best primary education. Overall, more than half of this population lacking basic qualifications are immigrants.

These findings also broadly hold when looking at the entire working-age population (i.e. 15-64 years old). Among the immigrants from North Africa, a quarter have no diploma or at best a primary level of education, and a further two out of five have only a lower secondary degree. Immigrants from Asia are also low-educated, with 60% having at most a lower secondary degree. In contrast, immigrants from EU/EFTA countries have on average a higher education than the native-born, although this does not hold for those from Bulgaria and Romania, who have predominantly completed either upper secondary or post-secondary non-tertiary.

Table 1.3. Distribution by educational attainment of the population aged 15-34, excluding those still in education, 2012

Percentages

	Native-born	Foreign-born	EU15 + EFTA	NMS10 (2004)	Bulgaria and Romania	Other Europe	North Africa	South and South-East Asia	Other Africa, other Asia, Central and South America	North America and Oceania
Very low educated	1.6	9.1	4.3	6.5	5.3	6.6	17.1	14.9	10.6	-
Low educated	27.4	40.8	9.9	20.2	31.0	47.9	46.7	46.5	44.2	17.8
Medium educated	52.8	42.4	36.2	62.5	57.1	37.4	30.5	31.7	37.8	60.3
Highly educated	18.2	7.8	49.6	10.8	6.7	8.1	5.7	6.9	7.5	21.9
Total (thousands)	7 731	1 575	17	50	441	404	176	198	281	8

Source: Italian Labour Force Surveys (ISTAT).

In addition, the situation varies across regions. In the South, one out of five immigrants has at most achieved primary school education. This compares with less than one out of ten in the North.

Immigrants' skills

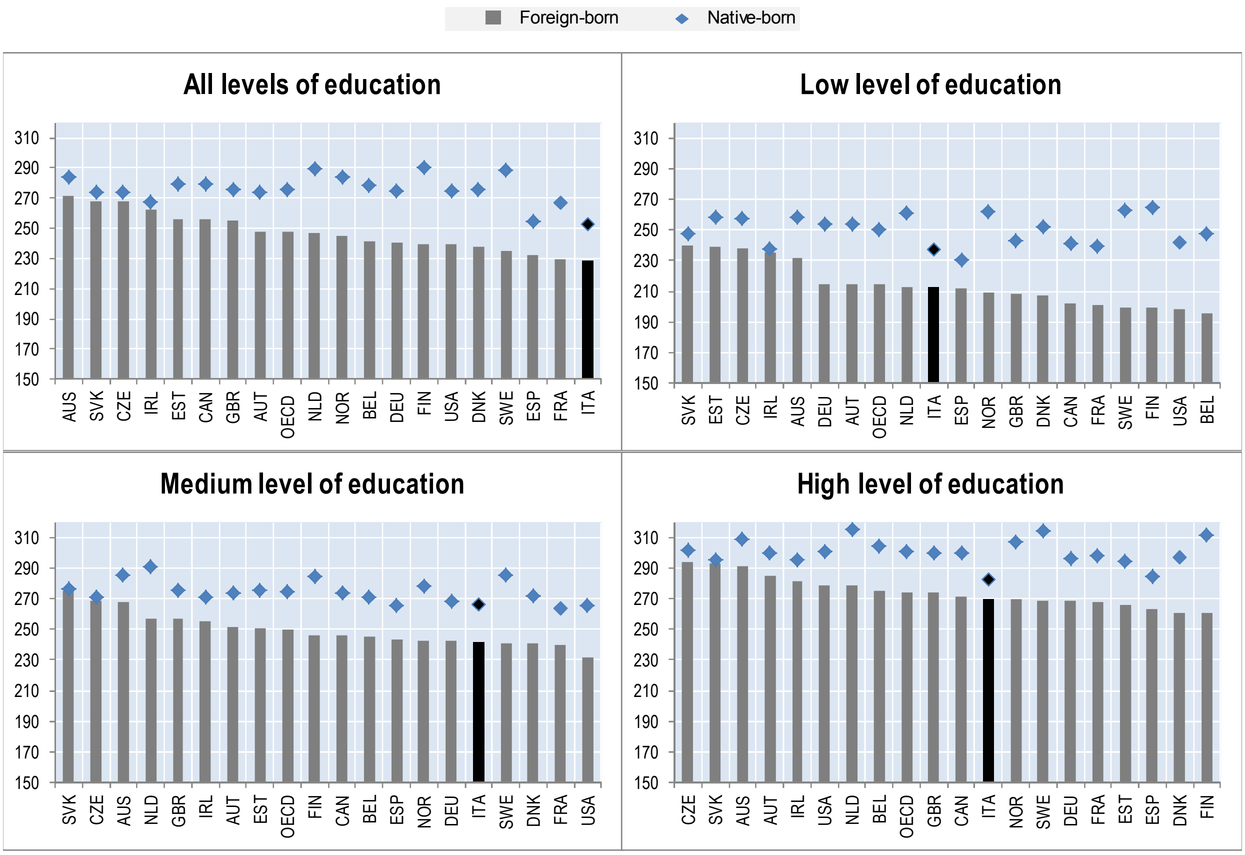
Information on levels of education is not sufficient to evaluate all the skills that migrants bring with them. Results from the 2012 OECD Programme for the International Assessment of Adult Competencies (PIAAC) have shown that migrant skills are more heterogeneous within a single level of education than it is among native-born (OECD, 2014). This outcome has to do with the heterogeneity of education systems in origin countries. The 2012 OECD PIAAC provides information on migrants' skills, as opposed to their formal qualifications. Figure 1.4 shows that immigrants in Italy have low literacy outcomes compared with immigrants in the other 18 OECD countries for which data are available. As in all countries under review, immigrants have lower skills on average than their native-born counterparts.

One of the findings of the PIAAC assessment is that both immigrants and natives in Italy perform poorly in international comparison. Indeed, for both groups, Italy is close to or at the bottom of the ranks. However, the differences between the two groups are not higher than the differences observed on average in the OECD.

The poor literacy outcomes of immigrants in Italy are partly driven by their low average level of formal qualifications. Looking separately at the skills by education level places Italy only slightly below average.

Figure 1.4. PIAAC literacy scores by place of birth and level of education, population aged 16-65, 2012

Scores in points



Source: OECD Programme for the International Assessment of Adult Competencies (PIAAC), 2012.

Notes

1. The term “immigrant” is used throughout the report to refer to the foreign-born population (see also Box 1.1).
2. Other issues such as job quality and wages will be considered at later stages in the report.

References

ISMU – Foundation for Initiatives and Studies on Multi-Ethnicity (2013), *The Eighteenth Italian Report on Migrations 2012*, Milano.

OECD (2014), *Matching Economic Migration with Labour Market Needs*, Chapter 8 "Migrants' Skills: Use, Mismatch and Labour Market Outcomes: A First Exploration of the International Survey of Adult Skills (PIAAC)" by S. Bonfanti and T. Xenogiani, OECD Publishing, Paris.

Chapter 2

The framework for integration in Italy

This chapter presents the evolution of the legislative framework for integration and integration policies in Italy, and the different key actors at the national and sub-national levels. The responsibilities with regard to integration of national and sub-national actors are explored, with a discussion of co-ordination and overlap. Decentralisation and the role of local authorities and third-sector service providers are assessed, in terms of gains from reactivity and flexibility as well as losses from fragmented, clashing, overlapping or incomplete coverage and execution. The chapter examines the planning and implementation nationally and regionally. It also includes a detailed analysis of regional funding for integration and a discussion of difficulties to effectively allocate budgeted resources.

Italy's evolution as an immigration country

For over a century, Italy has been a leading European emigration country and only from the mid-1970s has the country started to receive immigrants. The emigration of Italians peaked from the end of the 19th century until the First World War. During this period, Italians emigrated to other European destinations (France, Switzerland and Germany), but also to the United States, Argentina and Brazil. Another major phase of emigration followed the Second World War when the Italian Government signed bilateral labour agreements with many European countries as well as with some non-European ones such as Argentina, Brazil and Australia (OECD, 2004). Italians abroad still account for one of the largest and most widespread diasporas of any OECD country (OECD, 2013a). These emigration flows concerned mainly the North-East and the southern regions of Italy, while other regions registered positive net internal migration in the post-war period.

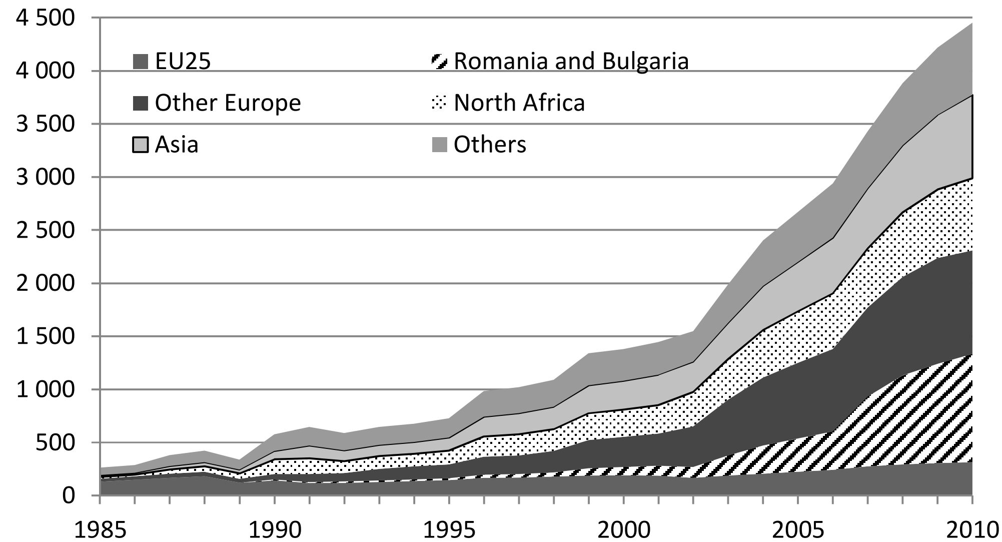
In the beginning of the 1970s, emigration flows fell considerably and the country progressively became a country of net immigration, as neighbouring countries imposed stricter limitations to employment-related immigration and because Italian industrial centres had higher needs for immigrant workforce. The magnitude and diffusion of the informal economy and the high share of small enterprises made it relatively simple for undocumented immigrants to find work in Italy. Once in the country, some of these workers were regularised when their employer agreed to undertake the lengthy administrative procedure necessary to obtain a work permit, or when they could benefit from one of the recurring ad hoc regularisation programmes. Even today, this remains an important channel for acquisition of legal status in Italy.

Migrants to Italy come from a wide variety of origin countries, although the composition of migrant flows by origin is influenced by the geographical position of Italy in the middle of the Mediterranean basin. While the limited migration in the 1950s and 1960s came from neighbouring countries, the first significant groups of migrant workers came from Morocco and Tunisia, and to a lesser extent from the Philippines, in the early 1970s. In addition, Italy's proximity to conflict areas (Albania, Former Yugoslavia, and Africa) made Italy the first destination for some humanitarian immigrants, often arriving by sea. Asylum inflows reached high levels at several points: notably after the Albanian revolution, at the peak of conflicts in Former Yugoslavia, and more recently with the crisis in Nigeria, Somalia and Eritrea. The "Arab Spring" and exceptional flows, mainly transiting through Tunisia and Libya, also led to large scale entries called for exceptional co-ordinated actions (as part of the so-called North Africa Emergency) from 2011 on. However, overall, the presence of humanitarian migrants is very limited compared with the numbers of economic and family migrants. The share of humanitarian migration in total permanent-based migration has remained relatively small in comparison with most of the European OECD countries which have participated in the OECD reviews on the labour market integration of immigrants and their children.

The composition of the migrant population has changed over time. At the beginning of the 1990s, a large share of new migrants still came from Africa. Flows from Albania were concentrated in the early 1990s. From the second half of the 1990s, inflows from eastern European countries (mainly from Romania and Ukraine) became predominant although they were more gradual than the flows from Albania. The increase also concerned immigrants from Asia and Latin America. The enlargement of the EU to Romania and Bulgaria resulted in an intensification of flows from those two countries over the late 2000s (Figure 2.1).

Figure 2.1. Foreign population by region of nationality, 1985-2010

Thousands



Source: OECD (2013), *International Migration Outlook 2013*, OECD Publishing, Paris, http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/migr_outlook-2013-en.

The high share of migrant women in the 15-64 immigrant population (53.6% in 2012) reflects immigration by women as both workers and as family of previous labour migrants. The gender balance varies widely according to region of birth, from less than 40% among the North Africans to more than 60% among the Europeans (72.3, 64.6 and 56.1% among the persons born in an EU10 country, EU15 and Bulgaria or Romania, respectively). Immigrants have also settled widely throughout the country, especially in the Centre and North. While Rome, Milan and Turin have always represented the main immigrants' places of residence in absolute terms, middle and small size cities have attracted a high share of migrants compared with many OECD countries. Around 2010, less than half of the immigrants were living in densely populated areas. This compares with more than 60% on average in the OECD (OECD, 2012b). Conversely, Italy shows the highest share of immigrants living in semi-urbanised areas (around 35%). In part this reflects the nature of labour demand which has attracted immigrants to work directly for families and in industrial districts located outside metropolises.

Evolution of the integration policy

The legislative framework for immigration developed slowly and was focused on the permit regime. The major geopolitical changes in Europe in the late 1980s and the increasing inflows of migrants to Italy raised pressure to improve the regulation of flows. A highly bureaucratic system was introduced in the 1986 law, replaced by a framework for annual planning of migration flows in the 1990 law. Until the mid-1990s, ad hoc regularisation programmes for overstayers and those who entered illegally were the principal channels of access to legal status.[1] A total of 500 000 applications were accepted in the framework of three programmes, approximately the number of third-country nationals residing in Italy in 1990.

Ad hoc regularisation programmes are a key feature of the Italian system, usually conducted on the occasion of introduction of new legislation, and justified on the grounds that concomitant policy changes will prevent the resurgence of irregular migration. In total, from 1980 to 2012, eight ad hoc regularisation programmes had been implemented (Table 2.1). Around 1.8 million permits have been issued under these programmes, some of which were repeat applications by prior beneficiaries whose short-duration permit expired without renewal between two programmes. Conditions varied from one regularisation to another: in 1998, for example, a high percentage of regularisations concerned for self-employment. In 2002, the largest regularisation programme saw around 700 000 applications received, a large share of applications was for domestic work and caregiving, reflecting both the change in the labour market for immigrants and the more favourable eligibility criteria. In 2009, a new law was the occasion for an ad hoc regularisation programme, which targeted domestic workers and caregivers to respond to a high demand for foreign workers in these sectors. A large majority of the applications (about 220 000) were accepted.

The most recent regularisation programme was held at the end of 2012. Nearly 135 000 applications were received by October 2012, 86% of which concerned domestic workers. The government had expected up to three times as many applications, and low uptake has been attributed to the restrictive requirements in terms of wage and type of contract, as well as the steep fine and three months social contributions to be paid. Past regularisations had imposed little or no penalties or fines. By the end of November 2013, 78% of applicants had received a positive response but only two-thirds of these (66 988) actually received a residence permit by November 2013. The remaining third positive applications were still in process at this date. The top five regions receiving the larger number of applications are Lombardy, Emilia Romagna and Veneto in the North (36 976, 14 161 and 10 382 applications, respectively), Campania in the South (18 024) and Lazio (17 551). In total, these five regions received 72% of all applications. They all registered an acceptance rate equal or higher than 75%. More generally, these rates are relatively high, with the exception of Sicilia – 60% – and Abruzzi – 69%).

Table 2.1. Beneficiaries of the main regularisation programmes of immigrants in an irregular situation in Italy, by nationality, 1987-1988 to 2012

Thousands

(1987-1988)		(1990)		(1996)[1]		(1998)[1]		(2002)[2]		(2009)[3]		(2012)[3]	
Morocco	21.7	Morocco	49.9	Morocco	34.3	Albania	39.0	Romania	132.8	Ukraine	37.2	Bangladesh	15.8
Sri Lanka	10.7	Tunisia	25.5	Albania	29.7	Romania	24.1	Ukraine	100.1	Morocco	36.1	Morocco	15.6
Philippines	10.7	Senegal	17.0	Philippines	21.4	Morocco	23.9	Albania	47.1	Moldavia	25.6	India	13.3
Tunisia	10.0	Former Yug.	11.3	China	14.4	China	16.8	Morocco	46.9	China	21.6	Ukraine	13.1
Senegal	8.4	Philippines	8.7	Peru	12.8	Senegal	10.7	Ecuador	34.0	Bangladesh	18.6	Pakistan	11.7
Former Yug.	7.1	China	8.3	Romania	11.1	Egypt	9.5	China	32.8	India	18.0	Egypt	10.7
Other	50.1	Other	97.1	Other	120.8	Other	93.2	Other	241.0	Other	138.0	Other	54.3
Total	118.7	Total	217.7	Total	244.5	Total	217.1	Total	634.7	Total	295.1	Total	134.6

1. Number of permits granted based on estimates by Carfagna (2002).

2. Data refer to the number of permits issued by the beginning of 2004.

3. Data from the Ministry of Interior.

Source: Carfagna, M. (2002), “I sommersi e i sanati. Le regolarizzazioni degli immigrati in Italia”, in A. Colombo and G. Sciortino (eds.), *Stranieri in Italia: Assimilati ed esclusi*, Mulino, Bologna; Ministry of Interior.

While most regularised immigrants in the early programmes were from Africa, especially from Morocco and Tunisia, immigrants from eastern Europe appeared in the mid-1990s, and dominated by the 2000s.

Beyond regularisation programmes, the framework for integration policy has remained underdeveloped until recently. Equal treatment was enshrined in the 1986 law, and additional regulations on the economic and social integration of foreign workers and their family in the 1990 law. The issue of social integration was addressed in 1990 with the creation of a fund for first-reception centres for "immigrant foreigners, exiles and their families", and with some provisions for the recognition of educational qualifications and the recruitment of social workers employed by the public employment service (PES). Nonetheless, the 1990 law was largely oriented towards regulating the permit system and entries for employment, as well as bringing Italian law into line with the European legislation on asylum, and draft integration measures were dropped from the final version of the law (Einaudi, 2007).

Immigration flows remained strong throughout the 1990s and a broader framework law appeared necessary. The 1998 law[2] was based on three pillars: the fight against illegal migration, the regulation of legal immigration, and integration. It is worth noting however that integration was then mainly understood as economic integration, with social rights gradually obtained as migrant workers spent more time in the country: i) family reunification; ii) gradual stabilisation of their legal status for those still employed in the country; iii) equal access to public services (Chaloff, 2006). The philosophy behind the legislation, passed in a time of high labour market participation and little family migration, was that labour market integration – employment – was a necessary and sufficient condition to guarantee social integration, when accompanied by the right of access to public services. The law also required the preparation of a three-year planning document, meant to guide the setting of quotas for labour migration (see Box 2.1), but also to establish priorities for integration expenditures. The first planning document established a policy definition of "integration" to include housing, language and social integration, and prioritised the provision of information and a reconnaissance of existing practices.

Box 2.1. Admission quotas for non-EU workers

Since 1998, admission of non-EU workers has been regulated through a quota system. Quotas are determined annually, by province, sector, and nationality, and occasionally other criteria. Seasonal work quotas are issued separately. Employers wishing to recruit from abroad submit applications, which are processed until the quota is exhausted. A nominal labour market test (publication with the PES) is included. Quotas for non-seasonal work averaged over 50 000 from 2000 to 2008. The poor labour market situation led to suspension of admission for non-seasonal employment in 2009 and 2011, although 100 000 workers – of which at least 30 000 domestic workers – were authorised in 2010. Often, these flow decrees have regularised workers already in the country, or been a channel for bringing in new workers under spurious contracts. The share of job offers which are withdrawn once the worker arrives has been high. Further, applications for workers under the 2010 flow decree saw immigrant employers place 36% (36 800) of the applications for wage employees, as well as half of the requests for care workers, despite the low income and young age of sponsors. In 2012, with employment again buckling, new entries were restricted to very specific categories, totalling 13 850 workers of which 2 000 self-employed. A decree in late 2013 authorised similar numbers. In practice most of this is for certain status changes, and will probably not be filled.

The 1998 law created the first National Immigration Policy fund, of which 80% was distributed to the regions. The fund was less significant for its size – about EUR 34 million was allocated annually in the first years – than for the policy attention of an earmarked fund, which explored priorities (Stuppini, 2012).

In terms of integration measures, the law included provisions for the access of documented foreigners and their relatives to the health system and access to urgent health cares to undocumented ones. Attendance at school for foreign pupils became compulsory. Reception centres were set up by the regions for documented foreigners who were not self-sufficient. Several co-ordinating bodies were established. One was a "Council for the Problems of Immigrant Foreigners and their Families", drawn from a wide range of institutional and non-government actors, within the Prime Minister's office. In addition, it created a Commission for Integration Policies, at the Prime Minister's office, tasked with commissioning research and providing an annual report. The Council has played a background role, occasionally organising events, and was eliminated in 2012 as part of budget cuts and never reinstated. The Commission was active in the years following the passage of the law and produced two reports before suspension. The 1998 law also created the Territorial Councils for Immigration (see following section on key actors). Finally, it created a National Co-ordinating Body (ONC) in the National Council for Economy and Labour (CNEL).

A change in government led to more restrictive regulations on immigration in 2002[3] but left the general provisions on integration largely untouched, except regarding the distribution of funds to regions. Another restrictive immigration law was adopted in 2009[4] which mainly focused on the fight against illegal migration. This law imposed a number of restrictive conditions on resident foreigners, some of which have direct implications for integration. Most newcomers must sign an integration contract as a prerequisite to the issuance of a residence permit (see Box 2.2). By signing such a contract, the immigrant commits him/herself to achieve some integration objectives (notably regarding basic proficiency in Italian, at least equivalent to A2 level, and civic integration) and the authorities commit themselves to provide adequate language and civic courses (see Box 4.2). The integration contract came into force in 2012. The Ministry of Interior opted to devote the bulk of the European Fund for Integration to related actions. In addition, the long-term residence permit (EC permit obtained after five years of residence) is now conditional on passing a language test.

The current framework for integration at the national level is largely defined by the 2009 law and by the Integration Plan adopted in 2010. The Integration Plan, entitled "Security, Identity and Engagement", is divided into five main axes: employment; access to basic services; minors and second generation; education and training; housing and local governance. Actions are (co-)financed by the central government and sub-national authorities, although the funding at the national level is very limited, with EUR 6.2 million budgeted in 2012 *(Fondo nazionale per la politiche migratorie)*. Actions concern interventions to promote labour market access, to fight against informal activities but also to promote social cohesion through cultural mediation activities, linguistic alphabetisation, civic formation, vocational training. Moreover, different priorities and objectives are set in regional laws.

Finally, immigrants are identified as a target group in most of the social and employment Action Plans formulated by the Ministry of Labour, often as part of objective-setting exercises promoted by the European Commission. This is the case, for example, with the National Poverty and Social Exclusion Plan, or the National Action Plans for Employment in the early 2000s, where immigrants are considered one of the disadvantaged groups for targeted activities within mainstream programmes. At the same time, immigrants are usually considered one of the disadvantaged categories addressed by social services at the local level.

Box 2.2. The Integration Agreement

The Integration Agreement was introduced in 2009 as part of the "security package" and came into force in March 2012. Any foreigner aged over 16 who enters Italy for the first time and applies for a residence permit valid for at least one year must sign a specific "Integration Agreement" which establishes the conditions under which a residence permit can be renewed. The agreement, translated into the language used by the migrant (or one of eight common languages spoken among migrants in Italy) is signed at the Single Desk for Immigration or at the Prefecture. In the case of minors, the agreement is also signed by parents. The agreement is a mutual contract between the migrant and the Italian authorities, with reciprocal commitments.

Many other OECD countries have also introduced integration agreements in recent years (e.g. Austria, Belgium, Denmark, Finland, France, Germany, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Sweden and Switzerland) and those measures have systematically included some provisions on the acquisition of the host-country language (see Box 4.2).

In Italy, within two years, the foreigner promises to: i) acquire a basic proficiency in Italian (at least equivalent to A2 level); ii) gain sufficient knowledge of the principles stated in the Constitution and of the organisation of public institutions; iii) gain sufficient knowledge of the Italian civic life (health care system, education, social services, labour market, fiscal obligations); iv) guarantee that children attend school regularly until age 16; v) comply with tax obligations.

The State promises to: i) facilitate the foreigner's integration through any appropriate initiative with the support of the regions, local bodies and employers' and employees' organisations; ii) ensure the respect of human rights without any form of discrimination; iii) provide accessible information about the principles in the Constitution and the organisation of public institutions; iv) guarantee access to health services and to compulsory schooling; v) offer, at no cost to the participant, a one-day course on Italian civic life. Measures under the agreement are financed through the European Integration Fund.

When signing the contract, the foreigner is given 16 "credits" or points, and must reach 30 credits within two years. Credits are gained or lost according to the above objectives. For example, a certain level of proficiency in Italian grants credits, but failure to pass the test leads to a loss of points. After two years, migrants who reach a minimum of 30 credits can renew their permit. Between zero and 30 points, renewal is only for one year. If credits have dropped to zero or below, the migrant faces expulsion (except migrants who hold family reunification permits). This policy instrument is quite unique among OECD countries. Whether it is effective in improving integration outcomes and in ensuring that immigrants most likely to integrate are granted permits still needs to be evaluated.

A website has been created by the Ministry of Interior to allow the applicants to submit their application to participate in a language test; a desk to help migrants to submit their application is also supposed to facilitate the process.

As foreseen in the 1998 law, recruitment from abroad should prioritise channels involving pre-departure training and selection in specific countries of origin, in co-ordination with employers. Specifically, non-EU foreign workers are required to undergo social orientation, language or vocational training sessions in their origin country prior to their entry in Italy. The Ministry of Labour has been pushing to realise this priority, and specific quotas for participants in these courses have been allocated in most years since 2006 (in 2012, this reserved quota was 4 000 residence permits, and 3 000 in 2013). However, the number of training programmes has remained limited to a tiny fraction of overall admissions. Through 2010, for example, 1 630 individuals went through these training programmes, and only 720 were approved for admission. For the 2012 quota reserve, fewer than 1 500 applications were received, of which 440 were accepted.

Key actors

Due to the distribution of competences for integration at all levels, the accumulation of legacy bodies, and the involvement of non-governmental stakeholders, there is a large number of actors in designing and implementing integration policy. At the national level, the main public administrations in charge of the integration of migrants are the Ministry of Interior and the Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs. They manage the two largest European Funds for the social and economic integration of third-country nationals: the European Fund for the Integration of third-country nationals is managed by the Ministry of Interior and the European Social Fund by the Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs.[5] A Ministry of Integration was also set up in 2012 under the Presidency of the Council of Ministers, with few financial resources and a limited institutional role; it was eliminated in 2014.

The *Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs* also manages the National Fund for Migration Policies. In 2007, another national fund for social inclusion was set up, but subsequently abandoned as it was considered to interfere with regional competences. In light of shrinking national funds, EU resources, which by contrast have increased, have become an increasingly important financial resource for integration policies. Many actions at the national, regional and local level are now co-funded through this channel. While much of the European Integration Fund is devoted to implementation of the integration agreement, other initiatives, such as improving information, are also covered (see Box 2.3).

Box 2.3. The single national internet site

The Italian Integration Portal is a project co-funded by the European Integration Fund and co-ordinated by the Ministry of Labour and Social Policies, in collaboration with regions and local administrations and with support from the Ministry of Interior, the Ministry of Education, University and Research and the Ministry of International Co-operation and Integration. The portal is meant to be a single focal institutional information source for migrants as well as by employers, families, all private and public actors in the field of integration. Content is provided by partners, including Italia Lavoro. The information is organised on the basis of the five axes identified in the National Plan for integration: language; employment; housing; essential services and minors and second generations. A cross-cutting section is dedicated to intercultural mediation. Service providers are listed for each area and sub-area, with a brief presentation and contact information. Legislation, practical guides, research and news on specific topics are all published on the portal. The portal, which is actively edited, encourages exchange of information and ties between the numerous public and private actors in the field of integration policies (www.integrazionemigranti.gov.it).

The *Ministry of Interior* is in charge of processing applications for naturalisation and of promoting access to Italian citizenship, primarily through the Prefectures. It is also in charge of protecting constitutional rights, which involves among other aspects, anti-discrimination activities.

In order to implement national policies, two bodies (the Territorial Council for Immigration and the One-stop Shop*)* were created following the 1998 and 2002 laws and put under the responsibility of the Ministry of Interior. The *Territorial Councils for Immigration* are consultative bodies created in 1998 and set up at the provincial level within all the prefectures. They are potentially useful actors as they are at the same time linked to the Ministry of Interior and to representatives from all sub-national levels) and to local actors. They are chaired by the Prefect and include representatives from local authorities, the regions, the Chamber of Commerce, workers' and employers' organisations, representatives from the main immigrant associations as well as from the NGOs active in the province. Their mission is to create interactions and synergies between actors in order to promote integration actions at the local level. Their area of intervention thus varies widely from the organisation of Italian courses and civic courses, the promotion of interactions between the immigrant population and the natives and the provision of services to the children born of immigrant parents, to concrete intervention in housing to the matching of labour supply and demand. Despite many examples of good practises, Territorial Councils are generally understaffed and have no independent resources. The "One-stop Shop" *(Sportello Unico per l'Immigrazione)* was created by the 2002 law as an attempt to simplify and centralise a large variety of permit-related procedures, from administrative aspects such as the issuance of residence permits to the management of the applications for the Italian language test. It is set up within each Prefecture under the responsibility of the Ministry of Interior. Different bodies responsible for integration (such as the Ministry of Interior, Ministry of Labour, tax agencies, etc.) are supposed to work closely together. In practice, it essentially covers matters of entry (issuance and renewal of work permit, entry of family members) rather than act as a service centre for immigrants (as the One-stop Shop does, for example, in Portugal). The One-stop Shop does not deal with enrolment in the health system, school system, or municipal residence procedures, for example.[6]

Overall, bodies set up at the provincial level by the central government do not have a full *marge de manoeuvre* to implement a comprehensive integration policy. The Territorial Councils, for example, do not have a budget, cannot establish objectives to promote the integration of immigrants, nor may they implement them, unless they attract funding from other sources. At most, they can communicate with the regional government which draws up the priorities and co-ordinate the activities of local actors. Their success often depends on the capacity of the local Prefect to mobilise and involve partners.

Since a decade, the Ministry of Interior via the National Fund for Policies and Service of Asylum, which absorbs the European Fund for Refugees, is also funding a secretariat in charge of the Protection System for Asylum Seekers and Refugees (SPRAR). The latter is a nationally co-ordinated network of municipalities providing reception and integration services for asylum seekers and refugees. In many respects, this administrative organisation of the SPRAR is relatively efficient. In particular, the SPRAR operates on a tender basis, with municipalities or consortia of local authorities competing for multi-year funding; local projects are expected to establish networks with public, private and third-sector actors for comprehensive reception and integration services. The system runs in more than 120 local authorities and covered almost 8 000 individuals in 2011/12. Local projects are designed around the characteristics of the area in which they run, with training and labour market integration reflecting local employment possibilities.

A *Ministry of Integration* existed from 2012 through early 2014. Its objectives were to assist in ensuring social cohesion and promote greater collaboration and links among the many public and private actors involved, to lower barriers to co-ordination in public services and the actions of state authorities. The National Office Against Racial Discrimination (UNAR) was under this ministry while equal opportunities remained the competence of the Ministry of Labour. Certain activities were implemented in collaboration with the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, the Ministry of Education, University and Research and the Ministry of Health in their respective areas of competence.

The National Co-ordinating Body (ONC) at CNEL is mandated to increase the participation of immigrants in "public life", and to circulate information. In addition to promoting interactions between public institutions and associations it has become an important reference point for research on integration.

Formal language training is offered by the *Ministry of Education* in the framework of the general system of adult education, through the Provincial Adult Education Centres (CPIAs), formerly known as Permanent Local Centres for Adult Education (CTP). The ministry employs personnel in the public school system, although schools themselves enjoy a wide degree of organisational independence. The Ministry of Education provides curricular support and limited funding, as well as guidelines. It is also responsible for some areas of recognition of foreign qualifications.

Regional governments lead integration activities, establishing objectives in their areas of competences, including labour. The 2001 Reform of the Constitution redistributed the competences between the central government and regions and extended regional legislative competences in labour, health, housing, social welfare. While the Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs is responsible for social integration of migrants, since the adoption of the 1998 Immigration Law, the regions have gained more competences in this area and regional social policy funds play a much larger role in co-financing integration actions. As health, labour, housing, social welfare pertain to either joint regulations between central government and regions, or to the residual regulations of the regions, the central government cannot set up objectives or initiate activities pre-defined at the central level. The national framework for integration is supported by specific regional legislations that regulate the actions to be planned and implemented within the regional territory in the field of social integration. Since the early 2000s, a number of regions have passed regional immigration laws focused on integration and participation.[7]

A number of regions have also created a regional consultation body bringing together stakeholders, and often a regional observatory for monitoring the migration phenomenon. Each region sets up the composition of its regional consultation body as well as its objectives. They are generally consulted on ad hoc issues depending on the need of the regional authorities. This body is generally composed of foreigners, members from the third-sector associations, employers' associations and possibly some representatives of the provinces and of various regional observatories depending on regional policy orientations. No clear institutional links are established with Territorial Councils for Immigration despite common interests. Territorial Councils are however frequently represented in the regional body, as it is the case in Emilia Romagna.

Professional training also falls under the responsibility of regions and provinces.[8] Courses are mainly provided by private associations, enterprises and public vocational training centres and co-funded by the Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs and the regions, via the European Social Fund. The ministry is in charge of setting up performance levels while regions are in charge of planning, organising and providing VET, through tenders to the providers of training. Provinces are also responsible for matching, through the public employment services (PES).

Local authorities play a key role, notably for the reception and the access to services by migrants. Immigrants in need of social services also refer to the immigrant service created in most medium and large municipalities (see Box 2.4). As municipalities are under constant budgetary pressure (and subject to the requirements of the European Stability and Growth Pact) and have restrictions on hiring, they increasingly outsource service provision through tenders. In this context, service provision by associations and social co-operatives has gained importance. Nonetheless, the municipality remains the main service gatekeeper. Since many immigrants reside in smaller towns, direct contact with the municipal service is not unusual. As the economic crisis has worsened, municipalities have been increasingly solicited for issues for which they do not hold an official competence. For example, they are called upon to help unemployed immigrants find work, although the public employment services (PES), managed at the provincial level, is the public body in charge of matching labour supply and demand.

Box 2.4. Local integration measures

Municipalities and local governments organise a wide range of integration initiatives, which fall under several headings. Language training may be organised by local authorities, as well as support for school integration. Other initiatives, which do not fall under the heading of national priorities, are organised by local authorities in response to their own priorities.

Information counters

There is no single standard for information at the regional or national level. The last printed national handbook for immigrants dates back to the late 2000s. Nonetheless, the national website for immigrants has filled a gap by providing reliable information and contacts; it is often the task of local information counters to orient migrants locally.

One of the most common initiatives for integration is to create an "information counter" to provide orientation and support to immigrants. Information counters first appeared in municipalities with large immigrant populations in the 1990s, and have since become a widespread service offered in most areas with an immigrant presence. A study in Emilia-Romagna in 2007 (Barbieri, 2008) found 134 information points spread around the region; although these were mostly located in local authorities, the staff often came from co-operatives, and staff training and hours varied widely. Information on access to services, especially health services and school enrolment for minor children, are the main focus. In light of the procedural difficulties often faced by immigrants renewing their permits, many information points work closely with the prefectural One-stop Shops. Further, as municipalities attest that immigrants meet the housing requirements imposed on sponsors of family reunification, they are able, to some extent, to monitor family reunification trends and provide information on school enrolment, for example. Some information centres are co-ordinated under the umbrella of the Territorial Council, although this is by no means the rule.

One example of a local information centre is the "Integrated Centre for Immigrants" in the Province of Ferrara, which concentrates orientation for services in a single centre. The project is promoted by the region and province, run by the municipality, and implemented by a co-operative. The Centre serves as a reference point for 26 municipalities, many too small to guarantee their own contact points. The Centre provides telephone and in-person consultation and reference to local resources (school, professional training, language training, etc.).

Cultural, intercultural and linguistic mediators

An additional service introduced in the early phases of immigration (1980s-1990s) is cultural mediation, which remains a key element in most local integration programmes. Civil society organisations offered a wide range of services – ranging from amateur interpretation to interface with health, administrative and police services, on a volunteer or contract basis. Following the 1998 law, the increase in integration funding and the appearance of "intercultural mediators" in the law itself, led to an attempt to formalise the training and definition of "cultural mediators", although the vague guidelines negotiated within the CNEL working group were not binding. In all cases, Intercultural and linguistic mediators are third parties established with the aim of improving the understanding and the collaboration between the foreigner on one hand and the public body (school, hospital, police, etc.) on the other hand. This is common in other EU countries (such as France and Spain) but differs from the approach in the United Kingdom where intercultural mediators are provided by ad hoc officials of public bodies.

Box 2.4. Local integration measures *(cont.)*

The first training course was open only to Italians, but, after a few years, it emerged clearly that immigrants would also well serve as mediators. This professional role is now mostly covered by immigrants. This distinguishes Italy from European countries such as the United Kingdom or Germany where mediators are natives (ISFOL, 2013a).

Training courses for mediators have sprung up in all branches of the education system, including provincial vocational training courses and the university system, although the latter offers courses that are too long for immigrants (up to three years) and, often, difficult to access by immigrants because of the difficulties in recognising their educations degrees.

Mediators, today widely used within public administration, may have cushioned pressure to mainstream services for immigrants by interposing a third figure between services and immigrant clients. As services grow accustomed to working with a diverse group of users, mediation should become less necessary. In addition, the shift in the immigrant population from recent arrivals to longer-term residents and their offspring might be expected to reduce the demand for mediation in the future.

Housing agencies

High home-ownership rates (76% for natives, although just 33% for immigrants; OECD, 2012b) translate into a small rental market. Turnover in both owned and rented housing is low, reducing entry opportunities for newcomers, although these factors hinder immigrant concentration in certain neighbourhoods. Public housing represents a small share – less than 5% – of the total Italian housing market, with low turnover. Immigrants do access public housing in growing numbers – according to the 2011 report by territorial councils, about 18 000 foreigners entered public housing, far more than in 2010, mostly in just three regions: Lombardy, Piedmont and Emilia Romagna (Melis, 2012). More than 80 000 were on waiting lists – this is not sufficient to address the demand for affordable housing. Foreigners are a disproportionate share of those newly granted access to social housing, as larger families and lower income push them up the ranking. In Milan, for example, despite a five-year regional residence requirement, 30% of new recipients of the 2 000 social housing units assigned in 2012 were immigrants.

In lieu of capital investment, one common response by some municipalities is to create, or support, agencies to mediate in the private rental market, in which Italian homeowners are often reluctant to rent, due to the legislation favouring tenants, and where immigrants face documented discrimination. Agencies can provide mediation between landlords and potential tenants, offering financial guarantees for leases and intervening in the event of conflict. Better-funded agencies can undertake construction projects or form buyers' co-operatives. Agencies are usually third-sector organisations, associations or co-operatives. One example of such an agency is Casa Amica, a social housing co-operative supported by the municipality of Bergamo, which has experimented different small-scale solutions to the housing shortage and the difficulty of immigrants to access the rental market and homeownership. Another NGO offering a range of services is Fondazione La Casa, founded by regional, provincial and local authorities in the Veneto region, local co-operatives, and the chamber of commerce. In addition to purchasing and managing real estate, it also provides micro-loans, renter's insurance, lessor guarantees and mortgage guarantees.

The *third sector* plays a large role. Historically, the first actors to step in to support immigrants were the Catholic Church, trade unions and non-governmental organisations. Overall, the third sector, which often began providing reception services, may maintain a protective approach, but continue to offer a range of services to immigrants, and some of them are active in the public debate on immigration policies as well as regarding the development of local policies. Many provide language courses, mediation or orientation. Volunteer activity is often a key component of the range of services provided at the local level. The third sector is also more accessible for immigrants for employment, since the public sector has reduced hiring and has faced restrictions on the employment of foreigners.[9]

Third-sector organisations also support, monitor and implement projects and services on behalf of the public sector. The Ministry of Labour maintains a list of registered associations working in the field of integration. Being registered on this list is a prerequisite to become eligible for funding under the national fund. In April 2013, a total of 793 associations were registered, although not all had activities in place in favour of social integration of migrants. Registration on this list is required to receive funds under regional legislation and, in some cases, under local welfare plans.

Employers' associations also play a role, especially in sustaining local projects aimed at training and labour market integration, and at supporting entrepreneurship. The umbrella organisations for industry, commerce and agriculture, as well as their sector associations (hospitality, retail, transportation, construction, etc.) are involved in training and in promoting entrepreneurship. Much of the growth in professional associations, especially artisans, is due to immigrants. Chambers of commerce also play an important role in monitoring and supporting activities of immigrant entrepreneurs.

In summary, there are a wide range of actors, a number of which are charged with co-ordination. Relative to other OECD countries, there is a profusion of mechanisms and bodies to collect information about initiatives, share practices and direct attention. Some of these bodies – those determining the allocation of resources – are political, while others are technical but do not have resources. The result is overlapping attempts to co-ordinate. The disappearance of the short-lived Ministry of Integration further underlines the need to find ways for "co-ordinating the co-ordinators". There is perhaps an oversupply of co-ordinating bodies, especially when judged in terms of their achievements: the patchy coverage of certain integration measures and the overlapping and duplication seen in certain local areas or thematic domains, issues which will be covered in the next sections.

Funding issues and distribution of competences

The limited resources and limited competences at the national level mean that priorities as well as implementation of integration policy is developed and decided at the regional and local level. The national framework for integration is accompanied by specific regional legislations that regulate the actions to be planned and implemented within the regional territory in the field of social integration. Regions open budget lines for specific interventions beyond those specified in national legislation.

The division of competences has implications not only for the objectives of integration policy but also for the distribution of resources, which are allocated from the national level to regions and then to local authorities. As noted, national funds have been reduced: the national Fund for Migration Policies, one part of the national social fund, has suffered from the general across-the-board reduction in social funds, falling from EUR 16.5 million in 2006 to EUR 6.2 million in 2012 and 6.82 million in 2013.[10] EU resources for migration-related initiatives have, however, increased (the European Integration Fund increased from EUR 15.1 million in 2009 to 37 million in 2013).

Regardless of the objectives, regions may experience difficulty in actually spending the resources budgeted for integration-related initiatives. This is related to a general difficulty of Italian regions to effectively use their resources, the reasons of which (administrative, weakness of service providers, or mistargeted funds directed at areas which do not require intervention) are not clear. Table 2.2 shows the inability of most regions to disburse the funds which are at their disposal in 2010. All planned funds were already in the regional accounts, yet, of EUR 31 million budgeted, only 18% was disbursed, with an additional 58% assigned to projects but not actually transferred. Unpaid funds cannot be paid out after three years, and go back to the region. Unassigned Funds, which comprised 23% of the total, have historically been transferred back to the general regional budget – although 2013 legislation allows these funds to remain in the same area.

Table 2.2. Budgeted and actual regional expenditures for integration-related budget lines, 2010

Region	Budgeted (Thousands EUR)	Disbursed (%)	Unpaid (%)	Unassigned (%)
Abruzzo	334	0.7	78.4	20.9
Basilicata	484	0.0	40.1	59.9
Calabria	169	0.0	0.0	100.0
Campania	279	0.0	100.0	0.0
Emilia Romagna	1 030	2.0	98.0	0.0
Friuli V. G.	4 505	44.1	44.4	11.6
Lazio	3 684	0.0	97.2	2.8
Liguria	383	0.0	100.0	0.0
Lombardia	2 160	40.7	13.0	46.3
Marche	688	62.2	34.2	3.6
Molise	183	5.7	61.0	33.4
Piemonte	3 103	0.0	96.8	3.2
Puglia	1 010	0.0	82.6	17.4
Sardegna	2 010	54.5	20.1	25.3
Sicilia	3 109	20.6	59.8	19.6
Toscana	3 957	16.0	16.7	67.3
Umbria	1 146	6.0	58.7	35.3
Valle d'Aosta	325	0.0	46.7	53.3
Veneto	2 771	0.6	86.0	13.5
Total	**31 331**	**18.4**	**58.4**	**23.1**

Note: Excludes capital expenditures, as well as Trento Province.

Source: Analysis of regional budgets, OECD calculations.

The inability to spend budgeted funds is related to the chain of institutions, the structure of tenders and project grants, and the accounting procedures and requirements. While integration support is (co-)financed by the respective ministries in charge, by the regional authorities and by the European Commission, it is not always provided by government agencies. Regions and municipalities generally provide many services through tenders to service providers, often co-operatives, on a contract basis. Service providers in turn must provide proof of expenditure; this can delay disbursement and explains much of the gap.

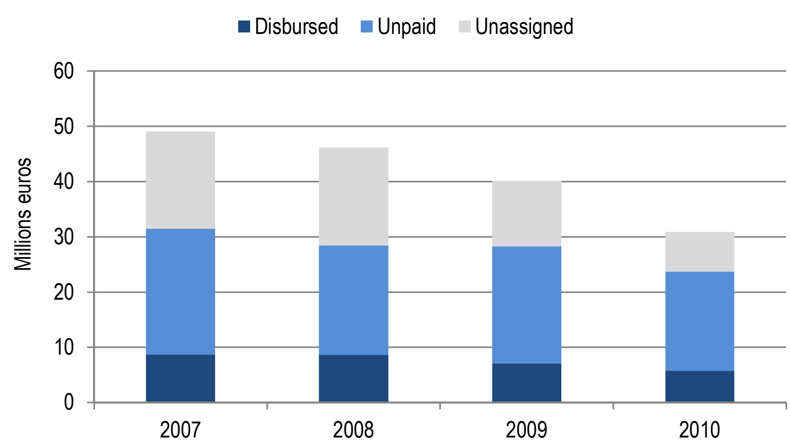
Analysing only earmarked national and regional expenditures does not provide a full picture of expenditures on integration initiatives, as much of the social expenditure in Italy is through local welfare plans *(piani di zona)*. These are drawn up by local welfare zones, which may cover a number of smaller municipalities or a single district of a metropolitan area. Local welfare plans set priorities for intervention, and once approved, they are financed by the regional social funds. Any analysis of integration spending would have to take into account the expenditures included in local plans, which encompass inter alia language training, social support centres for immigrants, housing support, etc. However, similar issues apply to these expenditures as discussed above for earmarked ones: administrative delay related to tenders, subcontracting and funding constraints, as well as the time to develop, discuss and approve a welfare plan.

As discussed above, most expenditure is at the local and regional level. National priorities have some influence on the type of actions, but most decisions are local. Nonetheless, it is not possible to identify which integration measures attract the most investment. Regional budgets are not always explicit about the nature of expenditures. Most budget lines are broad, referring to objectives of a national or regional framework law, and may also include funding for the Consultation bodies and observatories. While social integration is part of the general objectives, professional training is rarely devoted to a specific budget line. General budget lines for "immigration" accounted for about 70% of the total regional allocations in 2010. "Integration" measures accounted for an additional 22% of the budget, and language training about 5%. This suggests that most training is provided through mainstream initiatives rather than through specific immigration funds.

In any case, earmarked regional spending has been falling (Figure 2.2). Many of the budget lines for immigrant integration which were created in regional legislation were funded in the mid-2000s but unfunded in later years, appearing as zeros in the budget allocations.

Figure 2.2. Regional expenditures for immigration-related integration budget lines, 2007-10

Million euros



Note: Excludes capital expenditures, as well as Trento Province.

Source: Analysis of regional budgets, OECD calculations.

Nonetheless, migration-related initiatives represent a growing budget line for local authorities (Table 2.3), and a much larger budget commitment than that at the regional or national level. The largest earmarked expenditures are in regions with higher migrant populations. Overall, migration-related expenditures account for less than 3% of all social spending, much less than the budgets devoted to family and children policy (about 40%) and the disabled and elderly (about 20% each). Migrants are included, of course, among the users of general social policy at the local level. Each local authority can decide the criteria for access to mainstream benefits, for example requiring longer duration of residence or permit validity. Municipalities may also organise their social services with a dedicated "immigration" department, or choose to mainstream services.

Two categories in particular take a large share of municipal resources and help explain the higher costs reported by municipalities relative to regions. The first is unaccompanied foreign minors, whose reception falls largely on municipal budgets. Services related to these minors – on average, more than 5 000 annually in the late 2000s, and more than 6 000 in 2014 – are extremely expensive: ANCI estimated the total cost to municipalities in 2013 at about EUR 200 million, of which about 10% is reimbursed by dedicated national funds. National funds have budgeted a larger amount – 40 million – for 2014. The second group is asylum seekers, as SPRAR-related actions figure in immigrant-related expenditures for participating municipalities.

Table 2.3. Local (municipal and area) expenditures on interventions and social services related to immigration, 2003-10, by region

Expenditures estimated per foreign resident (in euros)

	Immigrants				Immigrants and Roma		
	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2009	2010
Abruzzo	41	24	18	17	16	10	9
Basilicata	186	97	78	81	143	99	80
Calabria	22	21	32	23	41	55	44
Campania	64	28	15	29	32	27	29
Emilia - Romagna	103	87	71	63	63	62	43
Friuli - Venezia Giulia	72	75	156	128	121	73	56
Lazio	172	130	96	108	111	78	75
Liguria	40	49	27	26	40	33	31
Lombardia	47	37	35	37	43	28	29
Marche	68	57	51	39	41	44	28
Molise	55	73	14	26	38	16	10
Piemonte	66	75	72	70	77	57	41
Puglia	89	76	74	81	107	69	82
Sardegna	106	140	92	81	111	59	66
Sicilia	77	82	27	45	51	67	59
Toscana	73	59	65	64	70	44	46
Trentino - Alto Adige	78	69	107	103	94	109	127
Umbria	77	65	50	66	48	35	31
Valle d'Aosta	93	76	80	89	2	-	46
Veneto	56	46	43	32	45	43	32
Total (million EUR)	**118.5**	**127.3**	**136.7**	**150.1**	**183.1**	**190.3**	**184.4**

Note: In 2007, the classification of expenditures changed to include expenditures for Roma. Data on the foreign population used to calculate expenditures per capita are extracted from municipal registers (ISTAT).

Source: Survey of "Interventi e servizi sociali dei comuni singoli e associati" (ISTAT).

Due to the structure of funding, integration measures in Italy have often been introduced in the form of project funding, through nationally and regionally co-financed European funds earmarked for integration, as well as through national and regional calls for proposals for projects on certain budget lines. One risk in such a system is that the funding goes to the best grant-writers regardless of whether they represent areas where need is greatest. In most cases, project funding is for a pilot or start-up phase, with the organisers unable to apply for successive funding for the same activity. In principle, good practices should be mainstreamed with public funding, but in a period of severe budget cutbacks at all government levels this is rare. This leads to a cycle of innovation among partners – public administration and private partners – which is not always followed up. Some partnerships can be prolonged by winning new grants, but even successful initiatives are not followed up or mainstreamed. The administrative solution of SPRAR which ensures a sustainable asylum reception system by using the tender system to fund local projects which collectively ensure a coverage of ordinary needs – is eyed for other similar phenomena (e.g., reception of unaccompanied minors), and could be extended to language courses or other priority integration measures. The constraints on ESF training funds, however, make it difficult to take the same approach to VET.

The implementation of integration policies in Italy follows a pyramid shape, with most funds and actions conducted at the local level, by municipalities and local areas. Budgets are smaller at the regional level, and smallest at the national level. As there is no single national guideline for objectives and interventions, there is substantial variation, experimentation and discontinuity at the local level. Accounting rules and budget constraints make the tender system a source of cost-savings but also of interruption and problems with service provision.

The large share of resources attributed through tenders and competitive calls for proposals means that grant-writing capacity is an important factor in gaining funding. The capacity to manage projects – demonstrating participation and expenditures – is often the only benchmark for evaluation, while evaluation of outcomes on participants is far less frequent. While this system has contributed to develop innovation, it does not necessarily guarantee allocation of resources to areas or projects which have the most impact on integration.

Notes

1. The regularisations were contained in Law 943/1986 ("Foschi Law") and Law 39/1990 "Martelli Law".
2. Refer to Einaudi (2007) for a discussion of Law 40/1998 ("Turco-Napolitano Law"), converted into Framework Law 286/1998.
3. Law 189/2002, the "Bossi Fini" Law.
4. In the framework of the Law No. 94 adopted in July 2009. In addition to the measures listed, other measures affect integration: the requirement to officially prove suitable housing in order to benefit from family reunification; more restrictive access to basic services to illegal migrants; and higher fees for residence permit issuance and renewal.
5. In addition, they are the National Contact Points on integration at the European Union.
6. In such a large country as Italy, where immigrant communities are widely distributed in small and medium-sized cities, a single one-stop service centre is difficult to establish.
7. For example, the Emilia-Romagna region has had a law since 2004 (24/3/2004, Law No. 5), under which a three-year integration plan is implemented. Others followed: e.g., Abruzzo (13/12/2004, Law No. 46), Friuli (4/3/2005, Law No. 5, eliminated in 2008), Liguria (20/2/2007, Law No. 7), Lazio (2008), Marche (19/5/2009, Law No. 140), Tuscany (2009) and Puglia (4/12/2009, Law No. 32).
8. While the official admission system includes a channel for training abroad prior to entry for employment, in practice this represents only a tiny part of inflows. Most immigrants receiving training do so through initiatives implemented in Italy for migrants already in the country.
9. It was not until September 2013, with the transposition of an EU Directive, that Italy allowed certain foreigners to apply for most jobs in the public sector, although this is limited to those holding long-term residence permits, and excludes some sectors such as the police and judges.
10. For these initiatives, then, the funding available to the central government is equivalent to less than EUR 2 per capita for each legal third-country national.

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Chapter 3

The Italian labour market and immigrant integration outcomes

This chapter examines the links between immigrant integration outcomes and some salient specificities of the Italian labour market: first, due to high regional disparities in labour market performances in Italy, the chapter explores the issue of immigrant mobility, including evidence on whether immigrants are more reactive to adverse labour market conditions than their native peers. Second, some specific groups of migrants have been disproportionally affected by the economic crisis and this trend tends to accelerate. The concentration of immigrants in some of the sectors and occupations hardest hit by the crisis as well as selective return migration of high-educated migrants are explored as possible explanatory factors. The long-term employability of the low-educated migrants who recently arrived is discussed, and evidence of selective lay-offs is presented. Third, immigrants are disproportionally affected by the duality of the Italian labour market. The chapter reviews potential gains from policies aimed at improving the skills of immigrants and enhancing their mobility. Finally, the high incidence of immigrant self-employment in Italy is examined, with policy responses identified.

Strong regional disparities and internal mobility

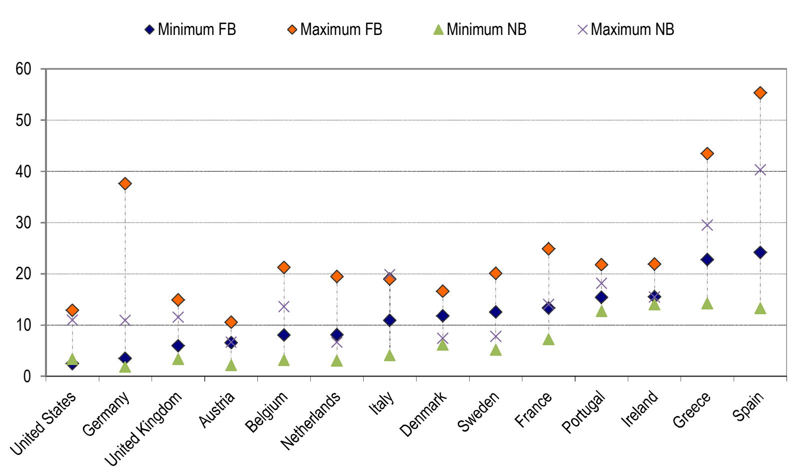
Regional disparities in labour market performance in Italy are important, although not the highest in international comparison. In addition, Italy, with Spain, is the country where regional disparities in labour market performance increased the most since the mid-2000s.

The possible causes of the persistent disparities in Italian labour markets have been extensively documented (see, for example, OECD 2005a). Among the drivers are differences in levels of education, centralisation of wage bargaining that does not allow to fully reflecting regional disparities in labour productivity and large disparities in industrial specialisation.

Interestingly, however, in Italy, regional disparities in labour market performance are less pronounced among the immigrants than among the native-born, in contrast to most other OECD countries (Figure 3.1). This seems partly due to immigrants characteristics stated in Part I. As in most other OECD countries, immigrants in Italy are more mobile than the native-born, particularly recent arrivals. Mocetti and Porello (2010) provide some evidence that immigrant concentration in northern regions tended to substitute to South-North mobility of low-educated natives. Many migrants working in the southern part of the country, where labour market conditions are less favourable, try to move North at some stage. This is reinforced by the tendency for new migrants to congregate in the regions where previous waves of same origin already settled (OECD, 2010a).

Figure 3.1. Regional disparities in labour market performance in selected OECD countries, 2012

Regional unemployment rates in percentage of the labour force



Note: “FB” stands for foreign-born; “NB” for native-born.

Source: EU Labour Force Surveys (Eurostat), Italian Labour Force Surveys (ISTAT) and US Current Population Survey (CPS).

Available data on the localisation of non-EU migrants in 2012, five years after they obtained their first residence permit, show that internal mobility is not negligible. Overall, 20% of permits issued in 2007 and still valid in 2012 had been renewed in a different province (ISMU, 2013). Internal mobility is more frequent among immigrant men, with a quarter of them renewing their permit in a different province, compared with 15% of immigrant women. This is particularly true among Moroccans, Albanians, Indians, Bangladeshis, and Sri Lankans. This may be due to the fact that most women from these countries are family migrants who joined their spouse. Chinese migrants have the highest likelihood to change province between 2007 and 2012, with two-thirds of both men and women having renewed their permit in a different province. Conversely, Ukrainians, Moldovans, Peruvians and Filipinos, who are mainly women working in the personal services sector, show the lowest likelihood to move. Mobility is the highest when the first permit was issued in a southern region or the Islands. This confirms the predominance of South to Centre/North pattern of internal mobility. Nevertheless, a number of factors still hamper overall inter-regional mobility. For example, employment is required for residence permit renewal. This tends to restrain internal mobility during the first years spent in the country as it binds migrants to their sponsoring employer.

Labour force data provide tentative indications on the demographic characteristics of persons who declare they changed their region of residence over the last two years. Overall, immigrants are more mobile within Italian regions than natives, and internal mobility is more likely to happen during the first years spent in the country. In addition, immigrants who declare they have changed their region of residence over the last two years tend to be young. Internal mobility affects immigrants of all levels of education, while native movers tend to be more qualified than their peers who do not move. Finally, the current regional distribution suggests that movers settle in the central and northern regions. This phenomenon is even more pronounced among non-EU migrants.

The data in Table 3.1 also suggest that many moves by migrants are labour-market linked, particularly for recent arrivals. Among these, more than 30% of those who moved were previously unemployed, twice the figure for non-movers. About half of the movers who were unemployed were in employment a year later, in contrast to a third of their peers who were non-movers. For native-born, the differences in labour market status between movers and non-movers are much smaller.

Table 3.1. Inter-regional mobility over the period 2009-12, population aged 15-64, Italy

Distribution in percentages

	Foreign-born with less than five years of residence		Foreign-born with five to less than ten years of residence		Foreign-born with more than ten years of residence		Native-born	
	Movers	Non-movers	Movers	Non-movers	Movers	Non-movers	Movers	Non-movers
Regional distribution								
North	58	59	68	60	77	59	47	44
Center	31	23	21	25	16	27	27	19
South	10	18	11	16	7	14	26	37
Level of education								
No education	4	7	6	5	3	5	0	1
ISCED 1/2	45	47	27	42	33	41	24	45
ISCED 3/4	42	36	52	43	45	42	42	41
ISCED 5/6	9	9	16	10	18	12	34	13
Change in employment status								
empl - empl	31	39	38	57	45	63	56	53
empl - unem	7	3	11	3	7	2	4	1
empl - inac	9	2	6	2	8	2	3	2
unem - unem	12	6	10	4	9	4	4	3
unem - empl	14	6	10	4	10	4	6	2
unem - inac	5	6	4	5	9	4	5	5
inac - inac	19	33	15	22	9	19	20	31
inac - empl	3	1	1	1	3	1	2	1
inac - unem	0	2	5	1	1	1	1	1
% movers	0.5		0.3		0.1		0.1	

Note: Movers are respondents who stated that they were in a different Italian region one or two years before the interview. Note that the sampling procedure tends to bias the number of movers downwards, particularly for recent arrivals. Change in employment status should be interpreted with cautious since it does not give any indication on the reasons for migrating but only compares the current employment status to the status one year prior the interview.

Source: Italian Labour Force Surveys (ISTAT).

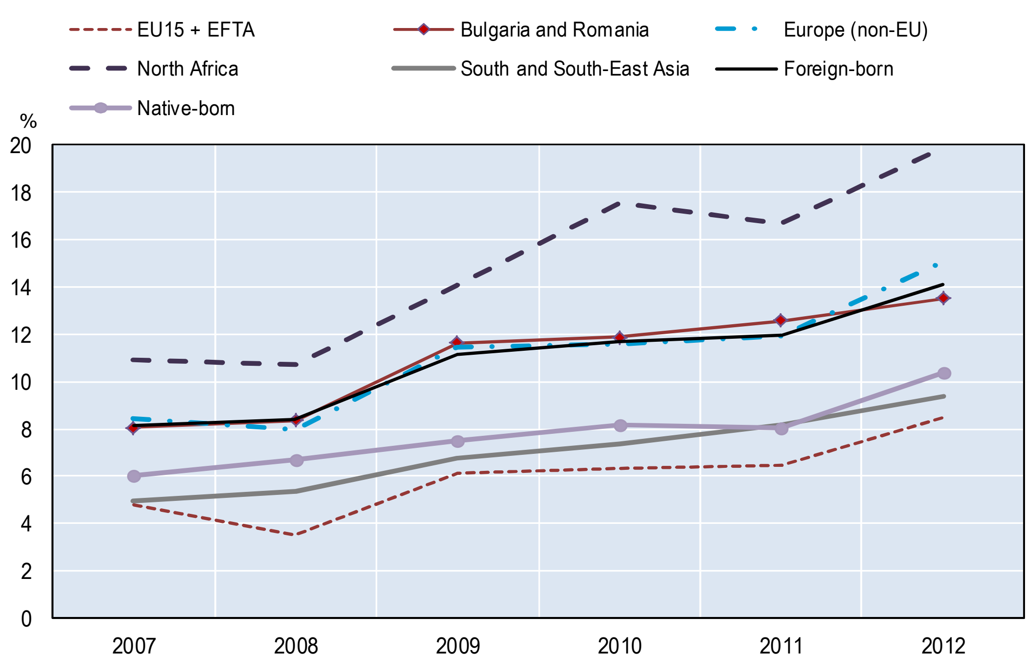
In summary, there is thus some evidence of a higher mobility of immigrants, and that immigrants are also more reactive to adverse labour market conditions than their native-born peers.

Persistent low growth and the economic crisis

A key economic concern is the persistent low growth – over the past decade, Italy had the lowest per-capita growth in the OECD (OECD, 2013b) – coupled with deteriorating labour market conditions. The deterioration of immigrants' labour market outcomes since 2007 has disproportionally affected immigrant men, whose unemployment rate more than doubled to 12.6% in 2012. Moreover, the difference compared with native-born men increased markedly over the period 2007-12. The increase in unemployment rate has been particularly high for some groups, notably North Africans and to a lesser extent non-EU Europeans, Bulgarians and Romanians (Figure 3.2). Short-term labour market indicators based on registered unemployment of foreign nationals are even more worrisome, with a steady and sharp increase in registered unemployment of immigrants since 2011. Between the second quarter of 2012 and 2013, the unemployment rates of foreigners increased by 4 percentage points to 17.9% of the labour force. This compares to an increase of 2 percentage points to 11.3% among Italians. This corresponds to an increase of 7 and 4 percentage points, respectively, over the second quarter of 2011.

Figure 3.2. Unemployment rates by region of birth, population aged 15-64, Italy, 2007-12

Percentage of the labour force



Source: Italian Labour force Surveys (ISTAT).

In terms of employment rates, the deterioration vis-à-vis the native-born has been particularly marked for immigrant men in the North (Table 3.2).

Table 3.2. Labour market outcomes by country of birth in selected OECD countries, 2012 compared with 2007

	Employment rates in 2012 2007=100			
	men		women	
	Foreign-born	Native-born	Foreign-born	Native-born
Austria	100	99	106	104
Belgium	98	98	107	104
Germany	111	103	113	107
Denmark	94	93	97	96
Spain	69	81	82	95
France	98	98	100	101
Greece	69	82	85	88
Ireland	79	81	85	92
Italy	88	94	99	101
North	86	97	98	101
Center	90	96	103	100
South	90	90	97	101
Luxembourg	100	99	101	107
Netherlands	97	97	102	101
Portugal	86	88	96	95
Sweden	99	99	100	101
United Kingdom	99	97	101	100
United States	94	93	96	94
	Unemployment rates in 2012 2007=100			
	men		women	
	Foreign-born	Native-born	Foreign-born	Native-born
Austria	103	115	80	89
Belgium	111	105	93	79
Germany	59	69	61	59
Denmark	158	235	206	170
Spain	369	390	236	232
France	120	133	107	118
Greece	702	378	230	218
Ireland	310	385	256	260
Italy	237	196	131	150
North	244	239	132	183
Center	230	208	116	157
South	216	179	166	129
Luxembourg	126	125	153	88
Netherlands	176	191	142	142
Portugal	272	233	155	160
Sweden	145	131	120	114
United Kingdom	124	155	127	153
United States	181	171	190	171
	Long-term unemployment rates in 2011 (2012 for Italy) 2007=100			
	men		women	
	Foreign-born	Native-born	Foreign-born	Native-born
Austria	112	100	73	99
Belgium	94	94	103	93
Germany	94	84	94	79
Denmark	227	157	140	127
Spain	336	192	425	171
France	101	116	113	101
Greece	115	110	108	98
Ireland	248	169	248	208
Italy	137	114	113	112
North	143	131	124	128
Center	115	113	98	104
South	156	113	99	113
Luxembourg	108	65	104	80
Netherlands	88	86	94	80
Portugal	119	100	101	104
Sweden	128	120	145	120
United Kingdom	117	125	136	150
United States	161	150	154	154

Source: EU Labour Force Surveys (Eurostat), Italian Labour Force Surveys (ISTAT) and US Current Population Survey (CPS).

A particular concern in the context of the crisis is the precarious legal situation of the unemployed migrants. Since the residence permit for workers – who still represent 22% of the third-country nationals – is linked to the labour force status, immigrants who fall into unemployment are also at risk to fall into irregularity. If dependent family member status depends on the primary permit holder, this can affect the entire family. Originally, the maximum duration of unemployment which was allowed under the work – and therefore residence – permit was limited to six months. Since July 2012, i.e. with the coming into force of the recent reform of the labour market, unemployed work-permit holders are granted up to 12 months to find a new job. If the unemployed foreigner is eligible for unemployment benefits (see first section in Chapter 4 below on active labour market policy), the period can be extended further. Extension can also be granted for seeking employment if cohabiting family members have a yearly income that is one and a half times the sum of the social allowance (EUR 5 577 in 2012).[1]

The sharp fall in the employment rates since 2007 relative to native born, in particular for immigrant men in the North, could be attributable to several factors, each of which will be analysed in turn: i) migration flows have persisted at high levels even during the economic downturn, and more recent migrants have different characteristics which make them less likely to be employed; ii) immigrants may be in sectors more sensitive to economic shocks; iii) immigrants may have certain socio-economic characteristics or be in occupations and contractual situations which are disfavoured in a downturn; iv) selective lay-offs; and v) selective departure of well-integrated migrants.

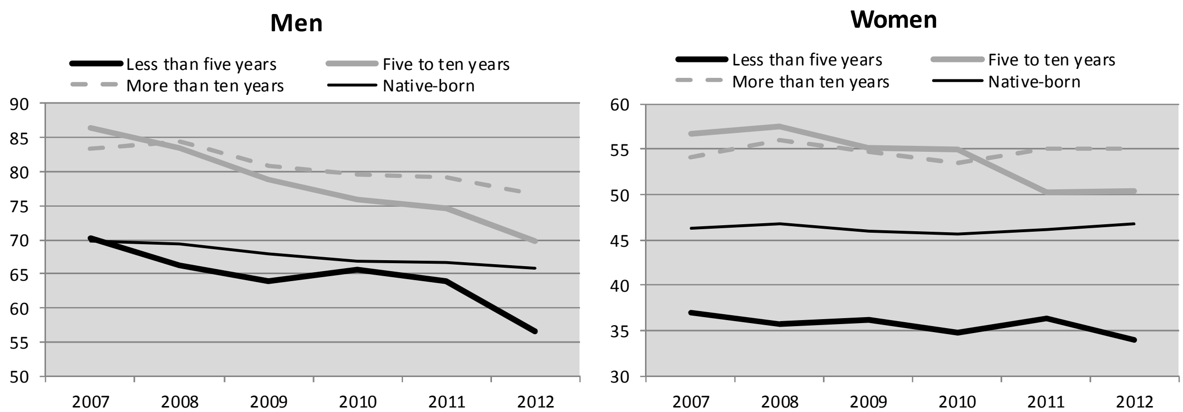
Ongoing immigration flows and the situation of new arrivals

During the Great Recession years (2008 and 2009), Italy had the largest immigration flows of any European OECD country (OECD, 2013a). At the same time, the composition of migrant inflows has changed, with larger shares arriving from non-EU countries and as family migrants. Both groups tend to have more difficulties in the labour market. Indeed, since 2007, employment rates of successive cohorts of migrants with less than ten years of residence have declined sharply (Figure 3.3). Particularly worrisome is the strong decline in 2012, the most recent year for which data are available.

Evidence from other OECD countries suggests that if immigrants do not arrange to get a strong foothold in the labour market soon in the first years after arrival, this has a long-term negative effect on their employment outcomes (OECD, 2007 and 2008). Surprisingly, a pseudo-cohort analysis based on Figure 3.3 shows that migrants who had less than five years of residence in 2007 and who are still in Italy five years later tend to perform relatively well in 2012. The employment rate of immigrant men entered between 2003 and 2007 remained stable five years later, at 70% while it increased by more than 10 percentage points for immigrant women. A longer duration of stay tends to reduce some obstacles to migrant's employability, through improvements in their mastery of the host-country language and of their understanding of the rules that govern the functioning of the labour market.

Figure 3.3. Male and female immigrant employment rates by duration of stay in Italy, population aged 15-64, 2007-12

Percentage of the 15-64 population



Source: Italian Labour Force Surveys (ISTAT).

Sectorial distribution

As will be discussed in more detail in the next section, foreign-born employees – both men and women – are highly concentrated in some of the sectors most affected by the crisis. The top three sectors in which immigrant men were more likely to be employed in 2012 – industry, construction and trade – have seen their overall workforce decreasing by 10.3%, 10.3% and 4.6%, respectively, since 2007.

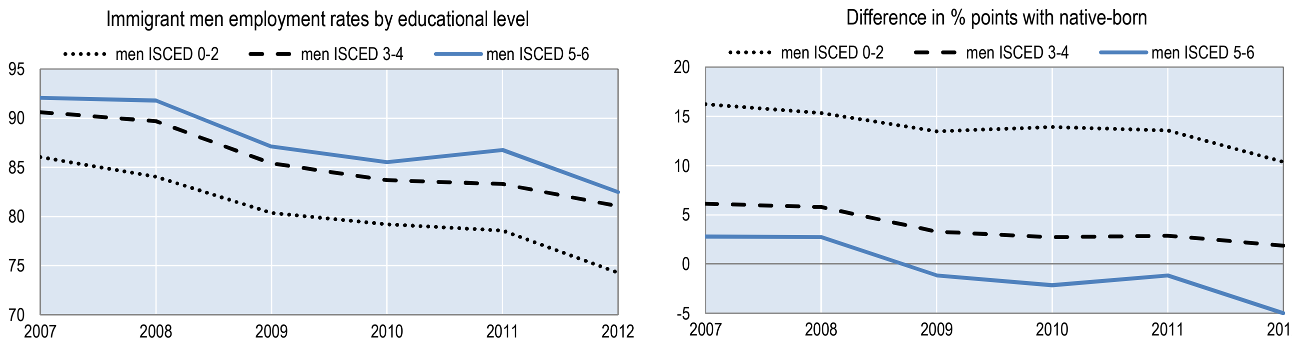
In contrast, immigrant women's employment showed more resilience in particular because of a continuous demand for foreign domestic workers and caregivers (see Chapter 3). Meanwhile, the labour market participation of native-born women has continued to increase in 2012 and an emerging phenomenon is a higher take-up of low-skilled jobs among native-born women. This seems to be partly due to the so-called "added-worker-effect", i.e. spouses entering the labour market to compensate for the actual or potential income loss of the main breadwinner. In the medium term, this could tend to reduce the present degree of complementarity between the employment of immigrant and native-born women.

Occupational and socio-economic characteristics

According to 2012 labour force survey data, immigrant men in Italy are more likely to be in temporary jobs (18 versus 12% of their employed native peers), which makes them more vulnerable during the crisis. They also tend to have less seniority in their jobs, which in essence has a similar effect. As has been seen in Chapter 1, the many young immigrants also have a much lower education level than their native-born peers. In many OECD countries, low-educated immigrants have been disproportionally affected by the decline in employment rates. However, such a phenomenon has not necessarily been observed in Italy. Indeed, in terms of differences vis-à-vis the native-born, their situation has been more favourable than for more educated migrants (Figure 3.4). The reasons for the deterioration of the relative situation of highly educated migrants since 2009 are not clear.

Figure 3.4. Immigrant men employment rates by educational attainment in Italy, excluding persons still in education, population aged 15-64, 2007 to 2012

Percentage of the immigrant men and differences with the native-born in percentage points



Source: Italian Labour Force Surveys (ISTAT).

Selective lay-offs

Even for those migrants who have otherwise similar jobs and characteristics, there is a risk of selective lay-offs by employers. This has been the case in some OECD countries in the past (Arai and Vilhelmsson, 2003). In the case of Italy, it is possible to assess the extent of selective layoffs by using the information from the *Comunicazioni Obbligatorie* (Compulsory communications – CO), a rich administrative dataset including information on the characteristics of both employers and employees for all new contractual arrangements concluded since 2009 (see Annex B. Overall, after controlling for individual characteristics, foreigners from non-EU countries have a 10% higher probability to be laid-off than Italians (Table 3.3).

However, considering that they are concentrated in the North, where layoffs are less frequent, the difference increases to 25%. Interestingly, the differences between foreigners, in particular from non-EU countries, are much larger with respect to quits on the part of employees – rather than formal layoffs. This practice, however, is much more common in the North. Controlling for this, one still finds overall an about 35% higher probability of quits for non-EU nationals. To which degree “quits” are fully voluntary or done upon pressure by the employers is difficult to ascertain, but clearly a further investigation of this issue – in particular but not only with respect to immigrants – seems merited.

Table 3.3. Probability of being laid-off or of resigning of persons hired from 2009 on, population aged 15-64, by end 2012

A. Probability of being laid-off

	Total	Men	Women	Women without households	Total	Men	Women	Women without households
EU nationals	-18.94***	-21.34***	-18.13***	-16.47***	-13.06***	-15.63***	-12.19***	-7.69***
	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.02)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.02)	(0.02)
Non-EU nationals	10.52***	15.03***	4.08***	9.42***	24.61***	27.12***	18.53***	31.00***
	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.02)	(0.02)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.02)	(0.02)
North					-28.11***	-25.17***	-32.29***	-42.31***
					(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)
Center					-14.79***	-7.69***	-23.66***	-25.92***
					(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.02)
Sex	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Duration of the contract	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Age	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Sector	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Occupation	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Year								
Education	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Observations	1 187 310	664 706	522 604	402 058	1 187 310	664 706	522 604	402 058

B. Probability of resigning

	Total	Men	Women	Women without households	Total	Men	Women	Women without households
EU nationals	15.03***	10.52***	17.35***	20.92***	-3.92***	-16.47***	6.18***	8.33***
	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.02)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.02)
Non-EU nationals	75.07***	82.21***	61.61***	87.76***	34.99***	31.00***	37.71***	58.41***
	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.02)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.02)
North					118.15***	158.57***	80.40***	89.65***
					(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)
Center					95.42***	120.34***	69.89***	73.33***
					(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)
Sex	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Duration of the contract	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Age	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Sector	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Occupation	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Year								
Education	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Observations	1 558 600	867 851	690 749	559 788	1 558 600	867 851	690 749	559 788

C. Probability of being laid-off or of resigning

	Total	Men	Women	Women without households	Total	Men	Women	Women without households
EU nationals	1.01	-3.92***	3.05**	5.13***	-8.61***	-17.30***	-2.96**	-1.00
	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)
Non-EU nationals	47.70***	53.73***	39.10***	58.41***	28.40***	27.12***	28.40***	44.77***
	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)
North					49.18***	66.53***	33.64***	33.64***
					(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)
Center					44.77***	56.83***	31.00***	32.31***
					(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)
Sex	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Duration of the contract	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Age	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Sector	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Occupation	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Year								
Education	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Observations	1 803 185	1027 012	776 170	622 925	1 803 185	1027 012	776 170	622 925

Note: End of temporary contracts has not been considered. Reasons for ending contract which are taking into account in the sample are lay-off and resignations.

Logistic models with coefficients transposed into increase in probability expressed in percentages.

Source: *Comunicazioni Obbligatorie* (CO) data from the public employment services.

Selective return

Aggregate labour market outcomes can also deteriorate if there is significant exodus of migrants with better labour market possibilities over the period considered. To which degree there has been a return of migrants and whether or not returning migrants are different from those who remained in Italy is difficult to ascertain.

Estimates from ISTAT (ISTAT 2013) indicate that only two-thirds of the non-EU migrants (71.4% of women and 66.7% of men) who obtained a residence permit in 2007 still had a valid residence permit in 2012. However, some of the immigrants who did not have their permit renewed may still be in Italy but without a valid permit.

There is some evidence suggesting that out-migrants have been positively selected, i.e. that best integrated are the most likely to leave. Strom et al. (2013) found that the employed immigrant men with the highest wages were more likely to leave Italy. Similarly, Faini et al. (2009) showed that, during the period 1980-2003, the immigrants with the highest earnings were more likely to leave the country. Part of this seems to be due to immigrants not being able to have their qualifications fully valued in the labour market. Mara and Landesmann (2013) found, in the case of Romanians, that a good match between level of qualification and occupational level tends to increase the intention to stay permanently in Italy.

In summary, there is comprehensive evidence suggesting that immigrants have been disproportionately affected by the current adverse labour market conditions, in particular immigrant men from North Africa and immigrants who reside in northern Italy, and this trend has been accelerating during the protracted economic crisis. This seems to be attributable to a mix of factors such as the concentration of immigrants in some of the sectors and occupations hardest hit by the crisis as well as selective return migration of high-educated migrants. This raises concerns about the long-term employability of the low-educated migrants who recently arrived. There is also some evidence of selective lay-offs, which is an issue that should merit particular attention, including through strengthened anti-discrimination efforts (see below).

Duality in the labour market and importance of the informal sector

High segmentation is a characteristic feature of the Italian labour market. While gaps in participation rates between prime-age men, on the one hand, and other socio-demographic groups (i.e. youth, older workers and women), on the other, are observed in most OECD countries, in the case of Italy they are significantly wider (OECD, 2012a). Already before the global financial and economic crisis, income inequality had been rising in Italy (OECD, 2011). Moreover, while this was common to most OECD countries, the growth in the share of atypical jobs in Italy during the 15 years preceding the crisis was one of the most rapid among OECD countries. This was partly a result of the labour market reforms introduced in the late 1990s and early 2000s aimed at encouraging the regularisation of irregular or fully informal employment. However, while introducing a higher degree of labour market flexibility by liberalising temporary contracts, these reforms did not alter the relatively strong protection of regular employees (OECD, 2013b; Goglio and Scarpetta, 2012) thereby contributing to further segmentation between atypical employment and permanent employment.

Migration flows intensified following the liberalisation of temporary contracts. Successive regularisation programmes, notably the 2002 one from which 634 000 immigrant workers benefitted (see Chapter 2), show that job opportunities for migrants expanded in some specific sectors, such as construction and manufacturing for men and personal services for women, mainly in low-skilled positions and that immigrant workers contributed to the growth in employment, often by taking up precarious and low-paid jobs that natives were reluctant to accept (Reyneri, 2004; Fullin and Reyneri, 2011a, 2011b). The situation has hardly changed since, with immigrant workers still being overrepresented among the most precarious positions.

Migrants in the informal economy

With Portugal and Greece, Italy is the OECD European country with the highest share of informal activities in its economy. Employment in this sector is estimated to account for about 10% of total employment (OECD, 2013b). Although both natives and immigrants are concerned, there is a higher incidence among immigrants. The recurrent and massive regularisation programmes since the 1980s reflect the fact that immigrants have a high likelihood to have been in an irregular situation during their stay in Italy, with agriculture and domestic services to households representing common sectors of entry. Indeed, until recently, the restrictive admission system has been blamed for producing large cohorts of irregular migrants, mostly overstaying in Italy (Zanfrini, 2013) and responding to a structural need for low-skilled workers. Combined with a relatively weak work inspection system, this tended to generate massive cohorts of irregular migrants employed in informal activities.

This phenomenon is most pronounced in Italy's southern regions, where undeclared enterprises benefit, to a relatively stronger extent, from the recruitment of illegal migrants (Zanfrini 2013). The development of informal activities in the northern regions is related with the recruitment of migrants in households but also with the development of outsourcing activities in some specific sectors, especially the building sector.

Employment in the informal sector poses a number of problems in terms of integration.[2] By definition, workers in this sector are excluded from workplace regulations, which make them particularly vulnerable to precarious working conditions. In addition, they are not entitled to any activation or upskilling programmes, nor to any training activity. While until 2009, the regularisation programmes tended to be a substitute to admission policy, this is changing with the crisis. Since initial permits for non-EU migrants are usually for employment, many migrants who became recently unemployed risk losing their status through unemployment, and entering or falling back into the informal and illegal sectors.

Low wages and low wage convergence and growth

One key element of duality in the labour market regarding immigrants is their high concentration in low-paid jobs. Differences in wages are particularly pronounced between foreign- and native-born women, regardless of the type of contract they hold.

Data from the 2012 labour force survey show that immigrant men earn on average about 16% less than their native-born peers, even after accounting for age, region, type of contract and educational attainment. For women, this difference increases to 26%. In addition, the wage penalty for being employed in the southern regions is particularly high for foreign-born women, whereas the wages of native-born do not vary much across regions after controls (see regressions 4 and 6 in Table 3.4). About a third of the gap is attributable to immigrants' concentration in lower-paying sectors of activity. One also observes significant heterogeneity among the immigrant population, with immigrants from OECD or EU/EFTA countries earning about 30% more than their peers from other countries.[3]

Table 3.4. Hourly wage regression by gender, population aged 15-64, 2012

	Foreign- and native-born			Foreign-born only		Native-born only	
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
Immigrants (ref: natives)	-0.14***	-0.16***	-0.12***	-	-	-	-
Educational attainment (ref: low education)							
Medium education	0.14***	0.13***	0.10***	0.06***	0.06**	0.15***	0.12***
Highly education	0.37***	0.37***	0.29***	0.18***	0.15***	0.39***	0.31***
Age	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Type of contract	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Region of residence (ref= Northern regions)		x	x	x	x	x	x
Center		-0.04***	-0.04***	-0.05*	-0.03	-0.03***	-0.04***
South		-0.10***	-0.10***	-0.25***	-0.22***	-0.09***	-0.09***
Sector of activity			x		x		x
Constant	1.71***	1.75***	1.58***	1.73***	1.58***	1.71***	1.55***
	(0.02)	(0.02)	(0.03)	(0.04)	(0.06)	(0.02)	(0.03)
Observations	8,625	8,625	8,625	1,128	1,128	7,496	7,496
R-squared	0.222	0.234	0.272	0.115	0.156	0.231	0.267

Women

	Foreign- and native-born			Foreign-born only		Native-born only	
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
Immigrants vs natives	-0.25***	-0.26***	-0.16***	-	-	-	-
Educational attainment (ref: low education)							
Medium education	0.18***	0.17***	0.12***	0.04	0.03	0.21***	0.16***
Highly education	0.43***	0.43***	0.32***	0.19***	0.14***	0.48***	0.36***
Age	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Type of contract	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Region of residence (ref= Northern regions)		x	x	x	x	x	x
Center		-0.03***	-0.03**	-0.06**	-0.04	-0.03**	-0.03**
South		-0.08***	-0.07***	-0.22***	-0.19***	-0.07***	-0.06***
Sector of activity			x		x		x
Constant	1.60***	1.63***	1.41***	1.67***	1.54***	1.56***	1.34***
	(0.03)	(0.03)	(0.05)	(0.06)	(0.11)	(0.03)	(0.05)
Observations	6,865	6,865	6,865	1,002	1,002	5,863	5,863
R-squared	0.213	0.217	0.264	0.061	0.104	0.213	0.255

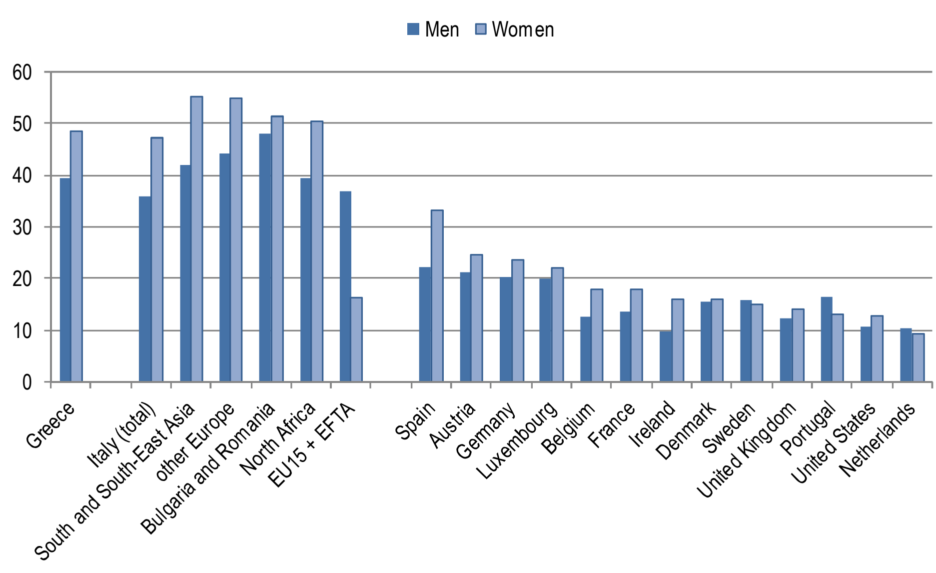
Source: OECD calculations based on the Italian Labour Force Surveys (ISTAT).

Dell'Aringa (2012) has analysed, using pseudo-cohort data, the wage progression of immigrants over time. The paper shows that migrants do not catch up in terms of wages over time. In contrast, and quite surprisingly, the wage gap with natives tends to increase with work experience and duration of stay. Similarly, Faini et al. (2009) found, in an analysis of longitudinal data, no evidence of convergence in terms of job quality. This is in contrast to the regular pattern of convergence observed in other OECD countries. Although the reasons for this are difficult to ascertain, they could relate to a number of factors: i) a highest vulnerability due to a concentration in atypical and precarious jobs which offer few career prospects; ii) high demand in labour-intensive sectors associated with repetitive spells of informal work with few opportunities for participating in on-the-job training sessions; iii) discriminatory behaviours from some employers that may tend to limit job opportunities for migrants to menial tasks. Further analysis would be required to ascertain each of these factors.

Industry and occupational segregation

Duality affecting immigrants in the Italian labour market is strongly associated with a high concentration of immigrant workers, in particular women, in low-skilled jobs in some specific sectors. With Greece, the industry and occupational segregation of immigrants in Italy is the highest among OECD countries (Figure 3.5). Overall, around a third and nearly half of immigrant men and women, respectively, would have to move – to a more skilled occupation – in order for their occupational distribution to become identical to that of the native-born. Women from non-EU-15/EFTA countries and men from Bulgaria and Romania are particularly affected by this dissimilarity.

Figure 3.5. Occupational dissimilarity between immigrants and native-born in selected OECD countries, by gender, population aged 15-64, 2012



Note: The dissimilarity index is defined as half the sum of the absolute values of the differences between the distribution of the foreign- and native-born across occupations (ISCO, 1 digit). It shows how many persons need to change sectors to have the same occupational distribution between immigrants and the native-born.

Source: EU Labour Force Surveys (Eurostat) and US Current Population Survey (CPS).

More than one out of two male immigrant workers are employed in the construction and manufacturing sectors, compared with a third of their native-born peers. The concentration of men from Romania, Bulgaria and other Europe is even higher, with two-thirds working in these two sectors. North African men are also overrepresented in these sectors, although they are also disproportionately found in other sectors such as trade and hospitality. The concentration by industry affects even more strongly immigrant women, with half of them employed in personal services, compared with less than 8% of their native-born peers.

Indeed, the recruitment of immigrants, in particular women, in the personal service sector is one of the most important and longstanding channels of immigration to Italy. The active recruitment of migrant women in this sector started already in the 1970s with the recruitment of women from the Philippines and Latin America coming to work as live-in maids. The successive flow decrees, as well as the ad hoc regularisation programmes, have confirmed that labour migration has been driven to a large degree by the recruitment of domestic and care workers, as is shown in Table 3.5.

Table 3.5. Domestic and personal services workers in flow decrees and ad hoc regularisation programmes since 2002

	2002	2007	2008	2009	2009	2010	2011	2012
	Ad-hoc regularisation programme (number of requests)	Flow decree	Flow decree	Flow decree (seasonal workers only)	Ad-hoc regularisation programme (number of requests)	Flow decree	Flow decree (seasonal workers only)	Ad-hoc regularisation programme (number of requests)
Numbers	308 337	65 000	105 400	..	295 112	30 000	..	116 000
% of the total	*48.6*	*25.8*	*62.0*	..	*100.0*	*16.5*	..	*86.2*

Source: Ministry of Labour and Ministry of Interior.

Employment in personal services sector was only very recently affected by the economic crisis, and the volume of employees in this sector is still far above its pre-crisis level. The increasing employment in this sector has been largely driven by the recruitment of immigrants. This sector regroups different occupations, the main ones being personal and care workers.

With the third highest share of elderly in its population among OECD countries, Italy has a structural need for long-term care workers. However, Italy, with Portugal, has the lowest ratio of long-term care workers in institutions – such as hospitals – per population aged 65 and above. Consequently, it is the OECD country with the highest share of elderly people reporting to be informal carers (OECD, 2013c). This is due to cultural – i.e. a willingness to keep elderly parents at home – but also to structural factors – notably, the lack of public services in long-term care (see Barone and Mocetti, 2010; Sciortino, 2013). The recourse to low-paid immigrant women, with no particular qualification, is used by many families as a way to circumvent these problems.

The INPS (Istituto Nazionale della Previdenza Sociale) provides a national disability cash-benefit scheme for care services, funded by the central government out of general taxation *(indennità di accompagnamento).* This monthly EUR 480 universal benefit is not subject to a means-test and is provided to families responsible for a non-self-sufficient person for any kind of long-term care services, including the compensation of a home-based worker. Some municipalities top-up this national payment, which is deemed to be too low. Such top-ups are often contingent on offering a regular employment contract, to encourage legal employment, but in general no proof of regular employment is required.

Those initiatives consist in paying means-tested care benefits *(assegni di cura)* whose amount varies widely from one region to the other. Even so, many families still recourse to low-paid immigrant women, frequently employed informally.

Immigrants in this sector often face poor working conditions, notably in terms of wages and working hours and likelihood to be employed informally. The fact that they work, and sometimes even live, in private households makes it difficult to control their working conditions. National funds have recently been allocated to some regions to implement registers for family-care assistants, while a number of local councils have introduced social care helpdesks. Despite regularisation programmes and attempts by the INPS to simplify the payment of pension contributions for domestic workers, for example by allowing it to be paid on-line or directly at a local bank desk), domestic work largely remains a prerogative of the informal sector. Recent initiatives have been put in place in order to reduce this informality and to provide incentives for the immigrants concerned to participate in upskilling programmes. However, such programmes are costly and of limited scale.

In addition, some local initiatives aim at improving care worker skills, with the objective for participants to obtain an OSS certificate, which is a regional qualification for socio-health assistants, or to be able to move to another sector of activity. Since immigrants are overrepresented in the domestic care sector, they are likely to be the main beneficiaries of such measures. To reduce the cost of training courses for OSS certification, some local programmes provide equivalence for experience or on-the-job training. These recent initiatives are difficult to evaluate at this stage, and there is no evidence that families do in fact pay more for more qualified domestic workers.

Inter-sectorial mobility

At the same time, employed immigrants who are eligible to stay are particularly exposed to the risk of remaining trapped in a vicious cycle of low-skilled jobs, lack of incentives to invest in their human capital, low wages and deteriorating social conditions.

Inter-sectorial mobility would be particularly beneficial for migrants under these circumstances. Indeed, an analysis based on employment spells data (see Annex B for details on the dataset and method used) shows that a change in sector of activity is beneficial to both immigrants and the native-born in terms of wage progression and the impact is almost twice as large for immigrants (see model 8-10 compared with 11-13 in Table 3.6).

Unsurprisingly, a voluntary quit is associated with a higher wage progression than an involuntary end of contract following a lay-off. However, the wage progression consecutive to a voluntary quit is less favourable for non-EU immigrants than for the native-born, while no significant difference is noted between native-born and EU-born. One possible explanation is that a higher proportion of "fake" voluntary departures are observed among non-EU foreign immigrants than among natives or EU foreign immigrants (see above on selective lay-offs and the section below on discrimination).

Quitting a job located in a southern region is more beneficial in terms of wage progression than quitting a job located in any other region (regression 7). This holds for both immigrants and native-born but the impact is higher for immigrants (regressions 9 and 12 in Table 3.6). This may be associated with the relatively pronounced South-North mobility of immigrants in Italy. However, the dataset does not allow to test this assumption directly since information on the localisation of the new job is generally not available. This outcome calls for policy measures to suppress any obstacles to geographical and professional mobility of migrants. In theory, no legal barriers limit their mobility since the holder of a work permit is not obliged to stay with the same employer. In practise, difficulties faced by migrants in finding accommodation may constitute serious limitations to their mobility. Moreover, evidence of large heterogeneity in social services provided at the local level (Ponzo and Ricucci, 2013) may contribute to distort mobility patterns towards the most generous municipalities.

Table 3.6. Impact on wages of a change in industry on immigrant and natives wage progression, population aged 15-64, 2009-12 employment spells

Random effect model

VARIABLES	(1) Total	(2) Total	(3) Total	(4) Total	(5) Total	(6) Total	(7) Total	(8) FB	(9) FB	(10) FB	(11) NB	(12) NB	(13) NB
Gender	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Age	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Occupation	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
diff_sect	0.41***	0.40***	0.41***	0.41***	0.40***	0.40***	0.40***	0.55***	0.54***	0.53***	0.30***	0.29***	0.29***
	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)
fb	-0.17***	-0.20***					-0.21***						
	(0.01)	(0.01)					(0.01)						
resign	0.18***	0.15***	0.18***	0.21***	0.15***	0.17***	0.08***	0.12***	0.09***	0.05***	0.21***	0.19***	0.11***
	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.02)
center		-0.06***			-0.06***	-0.06***	-0.03*		-0.08***	-0.03		-0.04***	-0.02
		(0.01)			(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.02)		(0.01)	(0.02)		(0.01)	(0.03)
south		-0.13***			-0.14***	-0.13***	-0.25***		-0.21***	-0.34***		-0.08***	-0.18***
		(0.01)			(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)		(0.01)	(0.02)		(0.01)	(0.02)
for_eu			-0.18***	-0.20***	-0.20***	-0.24***							
			(0.01)	(0.02)	(0.01)	(0.02)							
for_noneu			-0.18***	-0.10***	-0.22***	-0.15***							
			(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)							
resign_eu				0.04*		0.05**							
				(0.02)		(0.02)							
resign_noneu				-0.12***		-0.10***							
				(0.01)		(0.01)							
resign_center							-0.05***			-0.06***			-0.04
							(0.02)			(0.02)			(0.03)
resign_south							0.19***			0.22***			0.14***
							(0.01)			(0.02)			(0.02)
Constant	5.74***	5.82***	5.73***	5.71***	5.81***	5.79***	5.88***	6.03***	6.14***	6.20***	5.67***	5.72***	5.79***
	(0.05)	(0.05)	(0.05)	(0.05)	(0.05)	(0.05)	(0.05)	(0.22)	(0.22)	(0.22)	(0.05)	(0.05)	(0.05)
Observations	236 804	236 804	236 804	236 804	236 804	236 804	236 804	104 073	104 073	104 073	132 731	132 731	132 731
Number of id.	198 965	198 965	198 965	198 965	198 965	198 965	198 965	85 911	85 911	85 911	113 054	113 054	113 054

Note: FB stands for foreign-born; NB for native-born; FOR for foreigners. Standard errors in parentheses: *** $p<0.01$, ** $p<0.05$, * $p<0.1$. “Resign” stands for resignation (voluntary departure).

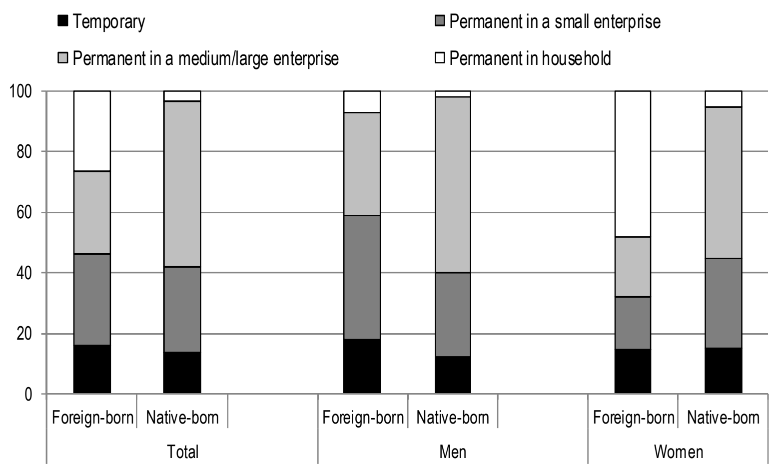
Source: OECD calculations based on a representative sample of the System of compulsory records sent by employers to public employment services.

Overrepresentation in temporary employment and in small enterprises

In addition to the sectorial segregation just mentioned, there is also a slight overrepresentation of immigrants in temporary employment. More importantly, when immigrants have a permanent contract, they are more likely to be in small enterprises (Figure 3.6), where employment conditions tended to be more flexible until recently. Since the implementation of the 2012 labour market reform, however, there are little differences in terms of reinstatement in case of severe fault between small and larger enterprises. One also observes that almost half of all immigrant women work in households. Inspections of working conditions are more difficult to implement in households and this clearly represents a challenge for the labour market integration of immigrant women in this sector since they are more at risk to be employed informally or to suffer from poor working conditions.

Figure 3.6. Foreign- and native-born employees by type of contract and firm size, 2011-12

Total = 100



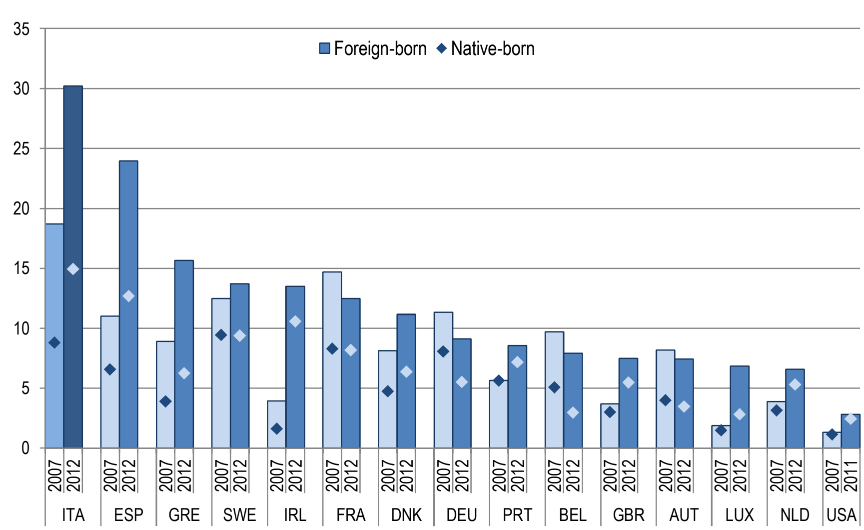
Source: Italian Labour Force Surveys (ISTAT).

Involuntary part-time

One further indicator of precariousness is involuntary part-time. Part-time *per se* is generally associated with lower wages, less training, fewer opportunities for career advancement and less job security. Among women, Italy has the largest share of involuntary part-time among the countries in the comparison group, for both native-born and immigrants (Figure 3.7). Moreover, there has been a strong increase in involuntary part-time among employed immigrant women with the crisis – i.e. from 18% to 30% between 2007 and 2012. African and South and South-eastern Asian women have the largest share of such involuntary part-timers.

Figure 3.7. Evolution of the share of involuntary part-timers among employed foreign- and native-born women in selected OECD countries, 2007 and 2012

Percentage of employees



Source: EU Labour Force Surveys (Eurostat) and US Current Population Survey (CPS).

A multivariate analysis, based on 2012 labour force survey data (Table 3.7), indicates that this situation also prevails for settled immigrant women who have been in Italy for at least ten years. In addition, the risk of involuntarily part time is particularly pronounced for immigrant women in southern Italian regions. Even after accounting for individual characteristics (age, educational attainment, marital status and presence of children) as well as the region of residence, immigrant women are more likely to involuntarily work part time than their native peers. Furthermore, their concentration in low-skilled jobs is associated with a higher probability of working involuntarily part-time (regression 4 in Table 3.7). In contrast, the relative likelihood of working involuntarily part time does not vary significantly with firm size (regression 5), or with the type of contract held (permanent or temporary – regression 6).

Overall, immigrants are disproportionally affected by the duality of the Italian labour market. At the same time, the combination between low wage progression with high returns from mobility across jobs suggests that much could be gained by policies aimed at improving the skills of immigrants and enhancing their mobility. Such an effort should be designed in a way to take into account the fact that employers' investment in training is likely to affect less the immigrants than native workers, since immigrants often work fewer hours, and generally for smaller employers.

Table 3.7. Percentage-points differences in the probability of being in involuntary part time, population aged 15-64, 2012

Settled immigrants and natives (men)

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
Immigrants vs natives	82***	139***	123**	86*	216***	206***	136**	129*
	(0.30)	(0.30)	(0.31)	(0.32)	(0.38)	(0.39)	(0.42)	(0.43)
Age	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Marital status	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Presence of children	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Educational attainment	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Region of residence		x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Firm size					x		x	x
Type of contract						x	x	x
Sector of activity			x					x
Occupation				x			x	x
Observations	6 798	6 798	6 798	6 798	4 870	4 751	4 570	4 570

Settled immigrants and natives (women)

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
Immigrants vs natives	88***	116***	75***	35**	127***	144***	48**	39*
	(0.14)	(0.14)	(0.15)	(0.15)	(0.15)	(0.15)	(0.17)	(0.18)
Age	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Marital status	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Presence of children	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Educational attainment	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Region of residence		x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Firm size					x		x	x
Type of contract						x	x	x
Sector of activity			x					x
Occupation				x			x	x
Observations	24 351	24 351	24 351	24 351	21 256	20 432	20 166	20 166

Source: Italian Labour Force Survey (ISTAT).

High share of self-employment

With Greece, Italy has the highest rate of self-employment among the native-born (Table 3.8). The percentage remains high in international comparison for immigrants as well. In 2012, 14% of the employed settled immigrants are currently in a self-employment activity. This compares with nearly a third of the employed citizens born in an EU15/EFTA country and with a quarter of the Italian-born.

Immigrant self-employment is a relatively recent phenomenon which expanded significantly over the last decade. The number of immigrant entrepreneurs more than doubled since 2005 (Table 3.8), with the highest increase observed in the construction sector. However, the percentage of self-employed in the total immigrant employment decreased somewhat since 2005, since the many recent arrivals are less likely to be self-employed in the early years after arrival. Most activities of immigrant entrepreneurs are concentrated in services, notably trade, as well as in construction and manufacturing (Figure 3.8). The increase in immigrant self-employment in the latter two sectors is driven by the development of sub-contracting to immigrant businesses by Italian SMEs (Al Shawwa, 2012). Overall, activities are highly segmented by country of origin, with North Africans and Asians entrepreneurs in trade and Chinese both in trade and manufacturing. More diversity is observed in the construction enterprises, with Albanians, Romanians and North Africans all well represented.

The status of "self-employed" covers a large variety of situations, from entrepreneurs (75% of immigrant self-employed compared with 62% of native-born), professions (12% versus 23%), service providers (8% versus 7%) and workers in a family business or partners of a co-operative (7% for both groups).

Overall, around four out of five immigrant self-employed have no employee, which is another specificity of the Italian case. Sole proprietorship is the norm and other types of businesses, such as partnership with Italians, corporations and social co-operatives represent a small part of immigrant businesses, even if growing in numbers (Al Shaawa, 2012). As is the case in other OECD countries with high self-employment such as Greece and Portugal, the high incidence of self-employment is a way for the native-born and for immigrants to overcome the rigidities of the labour market, since the tax wedge for an independent contractor is lower than for a wage employee (OECD, 2013b).

The status of self-employed can also be used by some immigrants as a way to renew their residence permit, since being active is a requirement for renewal, or as a way to ease the issuance of a residence permit of co-nationals, in the process of an ad hoc regularisation programme or in the framework of the *Decreto Flussi*. Indeed, immigrant employers placed 36 800 (36%) of the applications for wage employees in the 2010 *Decreto Flussi* (52% of the requests for *badanti)*. Some of these applications may be regularisations of real situations of employment, but these figures suggest that immigrant entrepreneurs are not often drawing on the local labour force.

In many OECD countries, self-employment is often sought by immigrants to escape marginalisation in the labour market. However, a survey conducted by the CNEL in 2011 showed that a large majority of current immigrant self-employed started working in Italy as wage earners (CNEL, 2011a). The same pathway was observed in a 2012 survey by the National Confederation of crafts and small and medium-sized enterprises, with many immigrants stating that they switched from a wage earner job to self-employment, in order to earn more. Contrary to what is often observed in other OECD countries, the motivations of immigrants to become self-employed seem to be less strongly linked with difficulties in accessing the labour market but more in getting a suitable, sufficiently paid and socially recognised job.

The incidence of self-employment in total immigrant employment is the highest in southern regions (Table 3.8), although the differences with the North are not particularly large. Self-employed immigrants in southern regions show some particularities, as most have no employees, are low-educated and working in the sector of personal services. These regions are also the ones with the highest percentage of permit refusal, which may indicate that self-employment is sometimes used to overcome administrative barriers to the issuance and renewal of permits.

Table 3.8. Self-employed by place of birth in selected OECD countries, population aged 15-64, 2005, 2011 and 2012

Foreign-born with more than ten years of residence and native-born

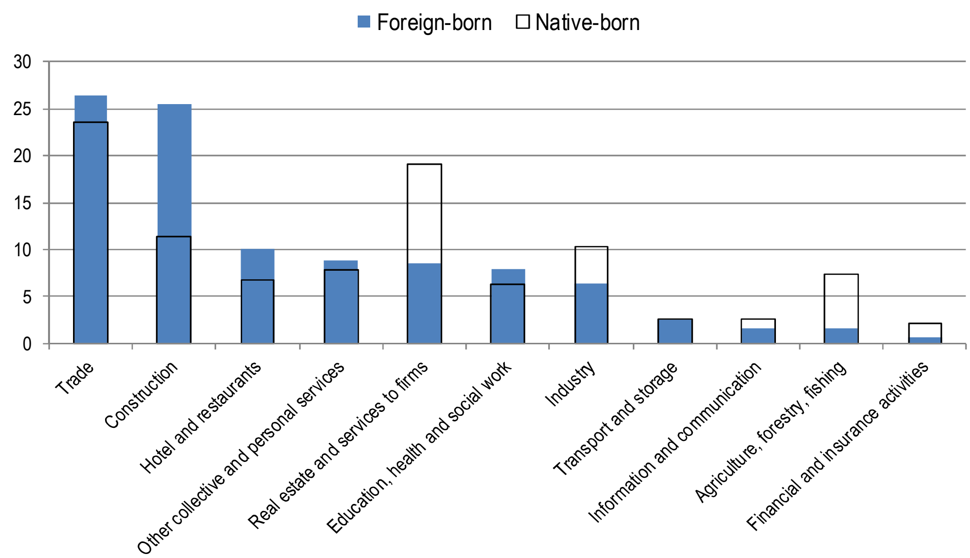
		% of self-employed among:			Distribution by firm size				% of low educated		Immigrant self-employed	
					Foreign-born		Native-born					
		Foreign-born	EU 15 + EFTA	Native-born	No employee	1-10 employees	No employee	1-10 employees	Foreign-born	Native-born	Thousands	% of total self-employed (as a ratio to % of total employment)
Italy	2005	24.1	39.0	26.3	71.7	25.6	68.6	27.1	35.4	44.4	116	0.9
	2011	17.6	29.9	25.2	77.8	21.3	68.4	27.5	44.9	37.8	247	0.7
	2012	16.6	34.1	25.1	78.0	19.9	68.6	27.6	42.3	36.3	266	0.7
Italy - North	2005	22.7	40.2	26.2	67.4	28.4	66.9	27.5	33.1	43.3	65	0.9
	2011	15.3	24.7	24.2	75.7	23.8	66.4	28.7	42.8	36.4	132	0.7
	2012	14.5	33.0	24.0	76.3	22.4	66.5	28.5	38.8	35.5	142	0.6
Italy - Center	2005	24.4	32.9	26.0	75.7	22.7	68.5	27.5	27.7	40.4	30	0.9
	2011	18.4	42.8	26.6	79.3	19.0	69.2	27.2	39.0	35.6	70	0.7
	2012	18.1	37.7	26.8	78.1	18.1	70.0	27.2	37.0	33.0	77	0.7
Italy - South	2005	29.5	48.4	26.0	79.1	20.8	71.6	26.1	54.0	49.1	20	1.1
	2011	27.4	24.9	26.6	81.9	17.3	71.1	26.0	60.2	41.5	45	1.0
	2012	24.2	29.3	26.8	83.1	15.5	71.1	26.5	62.0	39.8	46	0.9
Austria	2005	8.2	14.3	12.2	55.4	41.3	59.9	34.9	15.0	13.3	34	0.7
	2011	8.6	15.4	11.8	55.4	42.1	57.3	36.3	14.2	11.1	41	0.8
Belgium	2005	14.8	13.7	13.0	65.6	29.4	65.3	29.2	24.8	20.9	48	1.1
	2011	13.8	12.4	12.7	65.4	30.4	67.9	26.7	22.6	14.5	40	1.1
Germany	2005	10.6		10.8	57.8	36.1	55.8	36.1	20.2	5.7	400	1.0
	2011	9.7		10.6	62.8	32.1	56.4	35.2	15.6	4.7	481	0.9
Denmark	2005	8.6	10.9	7.5	66.4	27.5	52.1	36.3	9.6	12.6	7	1.1
	2011	12.2	15.8	8.1	63.2	32.7	57.4	32.9	33.6	18.3	15	1.5
Spain	2005	23.3	35.1	17.2					37.0	55.9	75	1.3
	2011	15.3	25.2	16.5	71.2	26.5	67.3	28.7	32.2	47.2	235	0.9
France	2005	12.8	12.5	9.5	68.5	26.9	70.5	25.3	35.9	20.9	287	1.3
	2011	12.1	13.5	10.6	72.9	24.5	73.0	22.1	30.3	15.4	288	1.1
Greece	2005	16.0	27.4	31.0	71.7	25.3	73.5	24.3	29.1	47.4	33	0.5
	2011	11.8	23.9	32.6	73.0	25.5	75.1	23.6	34.4	43.0	34	0.4
Ireland	2005	20.9	20.2	16.3	61.1	29.1	65.0	28.7	23.1	38.1	17	1.3
	2011	17.0	17.5	16.0	66.5	28.3	68.6	26.3	15.3	25.2	20	1.1
Luxembourg	2005	7.3	6.9	8.4	55.5	34.7	65.6	25.9	22.7	21.0	4	0.9
	2011	8.1	7.8	7.9	68.4	23.4	62.2	25.6	15.2	15.1	6	1.0
Netherlands	2005	11.5	16.0	11.4	69.0	25.5	66.1	25.1	16.3	22.5	82	1.0
	2011	13.5	15.8	13.6	71.9	25.5	72.2	20.7	24.9	20.4	103	1.0
Portugal	2005	15.6	15.4	20.5	68.0	26.7	72.0	25.3	45.0	85.5	39	0.8
	2011	13.8	13.2	16.9	63.3	31.9	70.5	26.1	47.3	75.6	46	0.8
Sweden	2005	11.2	9.8	9.4	57.1	38.9	59.7	32.5	22.5	19.1	47	1.2
	2011	10.7	12.1	9.3	58.4	35.8	61.6	31.1	23.5	18.0	53	1.1
United Kingdom	2005	17.9	16.3	11.9	67.1	25.0	77.7	16.9	19.9	23.1	294	1.5
	2011	17.4	14.4	13.1	73.9	20.5	81.0	14.2	22.3	21.6	375	1.3
United States	2005	9.8		10.5					20.6	6.5	2 188	0.9
	2011	10.7		9.4					21.5	6.0	2 429	1.1

Note: Last column indicates to which extent settled immigrants are overrepresented in self-employed activities vis-à-vis the native-born. A ratio higher than 1 shows an overrepresentation.

Source: EU Labour Force Surveys (Eurostat), Italian Labour Force Surveys (ISTAT) and US Current Population Survey (CPS).

Figure 3.8. Distribution of immigrant and native self-employment by sectors of activity, population aged 15-64, 2012

Percentages of total self-employment, in each group



Source: Italian Labour Force Survey (ISTAT).

Over the past few years, access to credits has been reported by many entrepreneurs, both Italians and foreigners as a major obstacle. While, until recently, familial and personal networks could partly compensate for the financial difficulties faced by immigrants to access to credit, it seems that it is less the case nowadays, since both Italian and foreign enterprises are suffering from financial difficulties, notably to reimburse current credits (UNAR-IDOS, 2013).

Although legal foreign residents are entitled to open a business in Italy, in practise, access to loans is difficult for them as banks tend to limit their duration to that stated on the applicant's residence permit. Albareto and Mistrulli (2010, 2011) show that immigrant entrepreneurs who obtained a loan had to pay an interest rate that was on average 70 basis points higher than that charged to native-born entrepreneurs. According to Unioncamere (2009), one out of four immigrant entrepreneurs had no contact with a bank.[4] This can be related to administrative barriers, lack of trust as well as to high costs of services compared with informal channels (Al Shawwa, 2012). In addition, the lack of initial investment resources of immigrants as well as their limited social network can cause major barriers to the creation of new businesses.

In this context, micro-credit initiatives have developed in some regions. A guarantee system is managed by the "Consorzio Fidi" which is a collective guarantee dedicated to micro, small and medium-sized enterprises operating in Italy in the craft, trade, industry, tourism and agriculture. It facilitates access to credit to both Italian and foreign businesses. For instance, in Emilia Romagna in 2012, the consortium guaranteed EUR 5.4 million out of a debt of EUR 18.6 million. In addition, some regions established special funds for marginalised populations. For instance, the Tuscany region has a fund to guarantee loans requested by poor families. Families with no bank account, among which foreigners are overrepresented, were targeted by this measure.

Lack of entrepreneurial skills is also a concern, hindering immigrant entrepreneurship. Evidence from other OECD countries (OECD, 2010b) shows that the survival rates of immigrant enterprises is lower than that of the native-born. To which degree this is also the case in Italy is, however, unknown. Box 3.1 highlights initiatives to support immigrant entrepreneurship, notably within Chambers of Commerce and trade associations.

Box 3.1. Examples of entrepreneur support policies in Italy

Counselling and training programmes for immigrant entrepreneurs have been developing since the beginning of the 2000s. The National Confederation of Crafts and Small and Medium-sized Enterprises established a project aimed at immigrant entrepreneurs that began in Turin and has been spread to other regions. Each project consists in proposing a wide range of advice to immigrants as well as focused training sessions. Through this instrument, the Confederation proposes legal services and assistance on immigration legislation, on family reunification procedures, renewal of work permit, conversion from study to work permit as well as assistance to Italian entrepreneurs who wish to recruit a foreign employee. The services are provided free of charge and are easily accessible as they are generally located close the local immigration offices. Information is available in different languages. From 2000 to 2007, they assisted 472 start-ups, most of them involved in construction and service activities.

A 19-month project, "Start it up" ("Nuove imprese di cittadini stranieri") funded by the Ministry of Labour, started in 2012; EUR 800 000 have been allocated to this project. Services are provided by ten Chambers of Commerce (Ancona; Bari; Bergamo; Catania; Milano; Roma; Torino; Udine; Verona; Vicenza) and consist in promoting social and economic integration of legal foreign citizens who wish to establish their business in Italy and in facilitating access to micro-credits. The role of the Chambers of Commerce consists in supporting the foreigners in their administrative procedures; in helping foreigners to get loans and in better involving banks in the process of business creation; as well as more broadly in better disseminating information. By May 2013, 477 foreigners had enrolled in one of the training programmes proposed by Chambers of Commerce, and 409 foreigners had received support for setting up their business plan; 85 associations and banking institutions were involved in this project.

The current unfavourable economic conditions for small enterprises threatens to undermine the initiatives aimed at supporting immigrant entrepreneurship. Many micro-enterprises are now facing severe financial problems to pay back loans. Many immigrants have been taking over small businesses in the retail and hospitality sectors which were no longer profitable for Italians, and run them as family businesses. In times of crisis, these entrepreneurs are now often in a critical situation.

Overall, there is a high incidence of immigrant self-employment in Italy, although often under rather precarious conditions. Supporting valuable projects, mainstreaming effective practises and facilitating access to credits for eligible migrants seem to be important issues.

Notes

1. Along with this measure, unemployed immigrants also became potentially eligible for training measures.
2. For an in-depth discussion of the issue of employment in the informal sector in Italy, see e.g. OECD (2000) and Ambrosini (1999 and 2010).
3. Data not shown in Table 3.4 but available upon request.
4. The corresponding figure for native entrepreneurs is not known as the survey has been conducted on immigrant entrepreneurs only.

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Chapter 4

Immigrant integration policies in Italy

This chapter reviews some important aspects of immigrant integration policies: first, immigrant participation to mainstream active labour market programmes as well as the existence of more targeted programmes are examined. Second, the evolution of language training supply, notably with the introduction of integration contract in 2012, is reviewed, as well as its co-ordination at the regional level. Third, the impact of successive regularisation programmes – through which a large share of migrants to Italy have passed at one time or another – is examined. The extent to which this impact is lowered by the recent economic crisis is considered. The fourth integration policy under review in this chapter is naturalisation criteria which is rather restrictive in Italy in international comparison despite recent amendment affecting native-born foreigners who have been residing continuously in Italy. Finally, the framework for anti-discrimination is evaluated.

Active labour market policies

Relatively little is known about the participation of immigrants in active labour market policy (ALMP) measures and the impact of the latter on labour market integration, for a number of reasons. First, although the broad framework for such measures is defined at the national level, their implementation is under the responsibility of regional authorities, which enjoy substantial discretion in this respect. Information on these measures is not aggregated at the central level, which complicates the harmonisation of practices, along with monitoring efforts. Second, there are few specific active labour market measures targeted at migrants. Third, and partly related, there is a general lack of evaluation of measures in Italy and where they exist, immigrants are not a focus of such evaluations. There is also only partial data available regarding immigrants' or foreigners' participation in ALMP.

As in many other OECD countries, public employment services (PES) are in charge of job placement and active labour market policies in Italy. The public employment services are provincial-level bodies in charge of matching labour supply and demand. Their share of the market is quite small, with few hires occurring through the PES, and most occurring through personal and informal networks. Access to some of the more expensive programmes is restricted to beneficiaries of unemployment benefits. This is a relatively small group, as unemployment benefits are only fully paid to the unemployed who have been insured within the national insurance scheme for at least two years, who have been dismissed by their employer and who have accumulated at least 52 weeks of contributions in the two years preceding the termination of employment. Those conditions tend to be rarely met by temporary workers and new entrants in the labour market, two groups where immigrants are overrepresented.[1] Nevertheless, data from the European Labour Force Survey suggest that unemployed immigrants are on average just as likely to obtain unemployment benefits as the unemployed native-born, although among both groups, less than 10% of unemployed receive unemployment benefits. The limited coverage of unemployment benefits in Italy constrains the PES options, and the prevalence of informal employment makes it more difficult for public bodies to intermediate (Chaloff, 2006).

In addition, immigrants are less likely to be in contact with the public employment service than the native-born. In 2012, less than 60% of registered unemployed foreigners from non-EU countries have been in contact with a public employment agency at some stage, compared with 80% of Italians (Ministry of Labour, 2013). This is partly due to their higher incidence in temporary jobs or other atypical jobs that give them less opportunities to access unemployment benefits. To which degree this discrepancy is also due to a rather high incidence of immigrants in informal activities or to other factors is not known.

In recent years, the European Social Fund (ESF, managed by the Ministry of Labour) has progressively become the main financial resources of ALMP in a context of sharp decrease of national funding for such measures. In the 2007-13 funding period, there has been a strong focus on promoting employment in Calabria, Campania, Puglia and Sicily, i.e. southern Italian regions with a relatively low share of immigrants. Out of the EUR 30 billion budgeted for the 2014-20 ESF programme for Italy, two-thirds are again planned to be attributed to actions in southern Italy.

Over the period 2009-12, EUR 170 millions, or about 38% of the national and European financial resources managed by the General Directorate of Immigration and Integration policies in the Ministry of Labour, have been allocated to active labour market policies. The different programmes include upskilling measures and training actions, job orientation, and support to labour market services for specific groups, including immigrants. The available data on the number of participants to programmes co-financed by the 2007-13 European Social Fund show that, overall, immigrants are largely underrepresented, accounting for only 5% of participants in the North, 3% in the Centre and less than 2% in the South although they accounted for 27%, 20% and 4% of unemployed in these regions.[2]

Programmes where migrants are overrepresented mainly concern actions against undeclared work and of activating workers with low skills. Italia Lavoro, the technical agency of the Ministry of Labour, is the Institute responsible for the implementation of the programmes. It is also in charge of the recognition of informal competences. The implementation of the programmes is generally sub-contracted to accredited associations or employment agencies in charge of identifying the workers, organising the vocational plan and finding a job for the trainee at the end of the training programme.

With respect to the actions against undeclared work, the sectors of personal services on the one hand and of agriculture, construction and tourism on the other have been the main focus (see Table 4.1). In the sector of personal services, the AsSaP (see Box 4.1) programme for the development of integrated systems for personal services) has initially been implemented in four southern regions and has gradually been extended to northern and central regions as well. It mainly aims at improving the employability and qualifications of workers and of unemployed willing to work in the personal services sector, as well as fighting against informal activities.

Box 4.1. Activation measures and incentives to reduce informal activities in the framework of the AsSaP programme (Development of integrated systems for personal services)

The aim of this two-year project (July 2011 to June 2013, extended to December 2013) is to create a service network to match labour demand and supply in the sector of personal services, since it is particularly exposed to the risk of undeclared work. This programme aims at improving the employability and qualifications of workers and of unemployed willing to work in this sector and at overcoming the problem of undeclared work. The project initially targeted four regions (Calabria, Campania, Apulia and Sicily). It has been financed through the European Social Fund (EUR 9 757 000).

The recipients are EU and non-EU citizens that are inactive or unemployed and willing to work in the sector of personal services. The various levels of intervention consist in: i) developing matching services through private and public employment agencies (help desks); ii) developing qualifications of the help desks' operators; iii) developing personal services' operators skills; iv) facilitating the recruitment of legal personal services workers by households (measures co-financed with regional funds); v) allocating grants to operators:

1. EUR 2 000 allocated to workers who completed standard vocational courses for at least 64 hours and who have been hired as housekeeper or caregiver with an open-ended contract or an at least one-year temporary contract;
2. EUR 2 500 paid to more qualified workers who completed vocational courses for at least 80 hours and obtained an open-ended contract or an at least one-year temporary contract as skilled caregiver.

By November 2013, 416 help desks had been created and 3 767 new work contracts had been signed with the corresponding allocation paid. In addition, 4 115 persons had started a vocational course, and 3 412 people had finished one.

This project was extended to 13 other regions. It was co-financed through national Funds (EUR 7 000 000) and regional funds (EUR 15 320 056). By December 2012, 6 000 personal services operators had finished their vocational courses and around 3 000 signed a work contract. No further evaluation of the project is available.

Table 4.1. Specific labour market programmes co-financed by the 2007-13 European Social Fund which target industries where immigrants are most concentrated

Name of the programmes	Regions and industries concerned by the programme	Budget	Period	Objectives (linked with ALMP) and targetted population	Outcomes	Follow-up of the workers who benefitted from the programme
AsSaP (Development of integrated systems for personal services)	Personal services in Campania, Apulia, Calabria, Sicily	EUR 9 757 000 from the European Social Fund (2007-2013)	July 2011-December 2013	Participation to vocational training of unemployed and inactive persons in need of qualifications in the personal services sector (Colf, Badanti, family assistant). Incentives: delivery of vouchers (EUR 2 000 for participants to 64 hours training; EUR 2 500 for participants to 80 hours training)	By November 2013: 3 767 new work contracts have been signed with the corresponding allocation paid (38% are foreigners).	Yes (forthcoming)
Extended-AsSaP	13 Northern and Central regions (Abruzzo, Emilia Romagna, Friuli V.G., Lazio, Liguria, Lombardy, Marche, Molise, Piedmont, Sardinia, Tuscany, Umbria and Aosta Valley)	Co-financed through national Funds (EUR 7 million) and regional funds (EUR 15.3 million).	Extented to December 2013	Same as initial AsSaP	By October 2013, 6 000 personal services operators had finished their vocational courses and around 3 500 signed a work contract. No further evaluation of the project is available.	None
RE.LA.R (Network of services to prevent informal activities)	Agriculture, construction and tourism in Campania, Apulia, Calabria, Sicily	EUR 6.1 million from ESF, of which 2.2 million in 2013	February 2011-March 2014	Participation to vocational training of unemployed and inactive persons in need of qualifications.	Phase 1: (until February 2012): 2 500 two-months internships. In Sicily and Apulia 27% of participants are foreigner. In Sicily and Apulia 42% of all participants signed a contract within one year. Vouchers for training (EUR 1 500, of which EUR 400 provided to the firm). Phase 2: 450 training plans targeting asylum seekers, refugees and other humanitarian migrants. Unitl September 2013, 507 trainings were activated.	YES (see Table 4.2)
LIFT	13 Northern and Central regions (Abruzzo, Emilia Romagna, Friuli V.G., Lazio, Liguria, Lombardy, Marche, Molise, Piedmont, Sardinia, Tuscany, Umbria and Aosta Valley)	EUR 3 million (national funds)	January 2013 - June 2014	Development of ALMP for vulnerable migrants, such as asylum seekers and humanitarian migrants. It is an extension of RE.LA.R to all the other Regions.	700 internships for three or five months for a maximum of 500 hours. The trainers receive EUR 31.25 per hour for a maximum of 40 hours. The participants receive EUR 500 per months for the internship and EUR 4.5 per hours for the vocational training. Until November 2013 508 interships were activated.	None
Re-employment	13 regions (one province in each of them)	EUR 538 000 (ESF)	2011	Increase incidence of foreigners in ALMP programmes and improve co-ordination of sub-national institutions in charge of ALMP.	3 415 unemployed immigrants at risk of losing their permit of stay	None
Re-employment	Campania, Apulia, Calabria, Sicily	EUR 870 000 (ESF)	2011	Increase incidence of foreigners in ALMP programmes and improve co-ordination of sub-national institutions in charge of ALMP.	3 415 unemployed immigrants at risk of losing their permit of stay	None

Source: Ministry of Labour.

In the sectors of agriculture, tourism and construction, the main programme to combat undeclared work is the RE.LA.R (Service Network for the Prevention of Undeclared Work). It mainly targets humanitarian migrants (asylum seekers, refugees and other humanitarian workers). The programme consists in training activities of three to five-month duration to upgrade skills of workers in agriculture, tourism and construction sectors. Training paths include language training and a course on the health and safety conditions in workplaces. A financial incentive up EUR 5 000 can be paid both to the trainee and to the agency in charge of the project, under certain conditions. The trainee receives a financial compensation upon completion of the vocational training. The agency can be remunerated once a work contract of a duration of more than six months has been signed. Around 2 500 vocational plans were concluded during the first phase of the project. The participants' employment situation has been followed-up one year after the end of the traineeship in Sicily and Puglia (see Table 4.2). Out of the 250 third-country nationals who participated in this programme in those two regions, less than one out of five got a job one year after having completed their vocational plan. This compares with one out of four Italians who participated and 43% of the EU-foreigners (14 participants) (Table 4.2). In contrast to the programme in the domestic services sector, the programme thus seems to have been less successful for foreigners compared with nationals. This may be partly due to the fact that measures put in place could not fully overcome specific difficulties faced by refugees and asylum seekers in integrating the labour market.

Table 4.2. Employment situation of attendees to RE.LA.R (phase 1) programme one year after having completed a vocational plan, by nationality, Sicily and Puglia

	Employment status one year after the completion of the vocational plan			
	Employed	Unemployed or inactive	Total	% employed
	Numbers			%
Third-country nationals	39	208	247	15.8
Italians	187	517	704	26.6
EU-foreigners	6	8	14	42.9
Total	232	733	964	24.1

Note: The monitoring and evaluation of this project is ongoing. Therefore, data presented in this table are preliminary.

Source: Data provided by Italia Lavoro.

Preliminary results from those two major activation programmes implemented with the support of the European Social Fund (AsSaP and RE.LA.R) show relatively poor outcomes in terms of job placement and high cost per participant. The employment situation of participants to ASSAP one year and three years after having completed their vocational programme will bring valuable information.

Further small-scale programmes are co-financed by the Ministry of Labour or by the Ministry of Interior. For instance, a project funded under the European Integration Fund, targets young migrant women at risk of social exclusion, legal and administrative assistance, coaching and supporting services, job placement and orientation/mediation.

All the programmes mentioned above[3] also aim at establishing a network of territorial employment services, set up through public-private partners that could support job-seekers in accessing to information on employment and training opportunities, help recognising professional qualifications, and matching labour demand and supply (Salis and Villosio, 2012). However, due to their small-scale nature, these programmes cannot be expected to effectively address the low participation of foreigners to vocational training.

In addition, 12 regional governments have put in place ad hoc programmes which directly target some specific non-EU migrant groups (Ministry of Labour, 2013). Over the period 2010-13, 110 programmes have been co-financed by the Ministry of Labour. The content of these programmes and the targeted populations vary widely from one region to the other. The bulk of interventions concerns language and professional training; incentives to create one's own business and access to services for integrating the labour market.

Informal activities clearly limit access to training. Indeed, data from the labour force survey suggests immigrants on average are half as likely to participate in training as their native-born peers. Recently, inter-professional funds have been established for life-long education programmes and vocational training for employees within their firms. The plans are generally for short training programmes of less than 30 hours. Between January 2011 and June 2012, more than 29 700 vocational plans have been approved under this scheme, involving more than 2.3 million workers. Here, too, foreigners were largely underrepresented. They accounted for only 5% of the total number of workers who benefited from this measure, less than half of their share in the labour force (ISFOL, 2012).

Municipal involvement in ALMP

Municipalities are not supposed to intervene formally in matching supply and demand, which remains the competence of the provincial PES. In practise, they are often the reference point for immigrants[4] and some of them actually propose some actions in this regard.

Municipalities are responsible for social, health and eldercare services, and some have used this competence to support – indirectly – the activity and employment of caretakers. This largely unregulated sector, where informal employment is endemic, working conditions are poor, and where health care services may struggle to meet demand, represents a sort of "parallel welfare" (Piperno, 2008). As a result, municipalities have experimented with registries of licensed or trained domestic workers. Municipalities, directly or through co-operatives, may maintain a list of elder-care workers who have undergone minimal training – usually involving only a locally recognised certificate – and match them with families, providing follow-up and monitoring through public eldercare home visits. Many of these projects have been successful, but due to grant-based funding ceased after the project cycle in the absence of resources.

Impact of the 2012 labour market reform on the assessment of formal and informal skills

The rapid pace of reform in the past couple of years has been greatly influenced by the need to tackle labour market duality. Among other measures, the broad labour market reform approved by the Italian Parliament in June 2012 instils more security, namely through the creation of a universal unemployment benefit system, something that the OECD has urged Italy to establish for many years. It extends the pool of workers eligible for standard unemployment benefits and involves a moderate increase in the level of unemployment benefits. Overall, this comprehensiveness has enhanced the potential to reduce the dualism of Italy's labour market, while at the same time improving the prospects for achieving stronger productivity growth and job creation in the future. Nonetheless, in international comparison Italy remains one of the OECD countries with the strictest legislation on dismissal, in particular as regards monetary compensation in the case of unfair dismissal and the restrictive definition of fair dismissal adopted by courts.

One specific element in the reform from which immigrants can be expected to benefit disproportionately is the provision on the assessment of formal and informal skills included in the 2012 labour market reform. This measure aims at establishing a more transparent system for the validation of non-formal learning and at delivering programmes in a more flexible way and better adapted to participants' needs regarding context and training hours. In practice, compared with other OECD countries, the recognition of formal and informal skills is still at its infancy since Italy only recently adopted a first national plan that links qualifications obtained in Italy to the European qualifications framework. A decree has been adopted in 2013 which states the definition of general norms and criteria for the identification and validation of non-formal and informal learning. This national decree sets a general framework for a national register of vocational qualifications awarded in the national education system and by regions and autonomous provinces. A platform translating qualifications from the European Qualification Framework into national qualifications will be accessible by mid-2014.

Language training

One characteristic of immigration to Italy is that the overwhelming majority of immigrants do not speak or understand the host country language upon arrival. There is little doubt that mastery of the host country language is an important if not the main factor for integration – not only for labour market integration but also for integration into society. Because of this, language training is generally the single most important measure that is directly targeted at immigrants in OECD countries, and Italy is no exception in this respect.

Indeed, whereas the overall integration framework is only gradually developing and varies largely across the country, language training is – at least in principle – available to most new arrivals, as it is an important element in the integration agreement (see Box 4.2), for whom language training is provided free of charge since 2012. Under these programmes, up to 200 hours are available.

Until 2007, no minimum language proficiency was imposed to obtain or renew a residence permit. Since 2007, mastery at the A2 level (CEFR – Common European Framework of Reference) of language has been a prerequisite for obtaining an EC long-term residence permit, with a few exemptions notably for foreigners who obtained at least a secondary diploma in Italy and for some categories presumed to have a sufficient command of Italian and/or to be highly educated.[5] An A2 level of language corresponds to a very basic level, in terms of comprehension, writing and reading. In addition, since 2012, all third-country nationals newly granted a residence permit in Italy must commit to acquiring certification of a level of language at least equivalent to an A2 level (see Box 4.2). Language tests are organised by the Ministry of Interior through the Immigration Offices at the prefectures. While language is not the only requirement under the "point system" for permit renewal,[6] the structure of the points system makes it the determinant factor. In total, 30 points must be gained by the new comer within two years, and 24 points are granted when an A2 level is certified (28 for level B1 and 30 points for a level of language higher than B1).

Box 4.2. Provision on language training in the integration agreement in international comparison

Since March 2012, all newcomers over age 16 (with some notable exceptions) issued a permit for more than one year in Italy must sign a contract with the central government (see Box 2.2). This new framework is structured as a point-system in which language acquisition is the main means for reaching the required number of points within two years. Italy has devoted one-third of EIF to supporting the contract, including through language acquisition. While the number of language students in EIF-funded courses was low before 2011 (less than 5 000 per year) and mostly limited to reunited families and vulnerable migrant women, the number of participants jumped to 30 000 in 2011 and to 40 000 in 2013 with the introduction of the integration contract.

In all OECD countries where integration contracts or agreements have been adopted, provisions on the acquisition of the host-country language are included, reflecting an implicit association of a basic knowledge of language with a higher chance to integrate in the host-country society. For similar reasons, language requirements (course participation, certification or exams) are also often requisites for renewing residence permits, acquiring a permanent permit and/or accessing citizenship. The following discussion is however limited to the requirement imposed in the framework of integration contracts. Although countries share the same concern about better integrating immigrants, in practice, measures taken, in particular with regard to the provisions on language training, vary greatly across countries, notably with respect to the characteristics of language courses offered (e.g. hours and special focus), their organisation (who offers them and who pays for them), the groups they target (illiterate, women, education level, sector, etc.) and whether courses are compulsory or not.

Compulsory or voluntary courses

In most countries with integration contracts, language courses are compulsory. Courses generally go with a course and/or a test on “knowledge” of the host country. Few countries associate language courses with vocational training, despite the recognition that course efficiency increases with the need/interest of the participants. Flanders offers professional orientation as part of its courses; this is under discussion in Wallony. Denmark offers a package which not only includes language support, but also socio-professional training with compulsory professional training for welfare recipients. Compulsory courses are generally cost-free for participants. Number of hours vary greatly from one country to the other, with Italy among those offering the lowest number of hours (maximum of 200 hours) and Denmark the highest (up to 2 000 hours). In countries where courses are compulsory, all adults (third-country nationals in the European Union countries) are generally required to attend, with some exemptions for disabled persons as well as for some specific highly educated groups (highly skilled labour migrants, researchers, university professors, etc.) and courses are generally provided for free.

Language level required

The level required under integration contracts is generally higher in northern than in southern European countries. It is particularly high in Denmark (B2 level) and in Canada. In general, a minimum level is required, with the CEFR scale as a benchmark: around A2/B1. However, this level varies widely depending whether the agreement is limited to the renewal of a temporary residence permit (Italy, France) or whether it is a precondition for the issuance of a long-term permit (Austria, Denmark). In the latter case, required levels are higher (around B1/B2) and contracts are longer (three to five years). While Italy grants newcomers two years to achieve a spoken Italian language at least equivalent to level A2, with a possibility of one-year extension, France generally grants a year, with some exemptions.

Some countries have adopted different thresholds according to characteristics or duration of residence. Denmark recognises three learning profiles (learners with low education; those with some education; and those with full education), and provides bridges between them. The Netherlands distinguishes newcomers from more settled migrants.

Some countries take into account the difficulties faced by those who are illiterate, by migrants using different alphabets or those with no or little education. For instance, Germany, Italy, and France offer language training tailored to illiterate immigrants. Ancillary services are provided to attendees in Italy (babysitting; e-learning; an individualised plan) to facilitate participation and encourage investment in language acquisition.

For the reasons stated above, language training gained more importance over the last five years. Formal language training is largely dominated by the Ministry of Education in the framework of adult education, through the permanent local centres for adult education, formerly known as CTPs *(Centri Territoriali Permanenti),* and now relabelled Centri Provinciali Istruzione degli Adulti (CPIA, see Box 4.3). Over the course of the 1990s, with the increase of migrant flows, these structures have extended their activities from lifelong learning to social inclusion. Given the nature of the adult education centres and the educational composition of the immigrant population, participants in courses are often immigrants.

Box 4.3. The public infrastructure for adult education and language provision

The Permanent Local Centres for Adult Education (CTP – *Centro territoriale permanente per l'educazione in età adulta* transformed in school year 2011/12 into Provincial Adult Education Centres – CPIA) play an essential role in language, literacy and in granting middle-school equivalence. CPIAs unite the CTPs, originally set up in 1997 by the Ministry of Education as schools for remedial and adult education, and provincial vocational night schools, and are open to persons over age 16. More than 500 CPIAs operate.

They are free of charge or impose nominal fees, with staff from the Ministry of Education but also co-funded by municipalities, regions and provinces, and may host or organise courses supported by regions. Courses are provided by assigned teachers from elementary and middle school – generally without training in adult education, or in teaching Italian to foreigners – and are generally provided in schools at night, or in repurposed school buildings. These centres play an important role for immigrants particularly with regard to two different aspects: i) certifying language proficiency in the framework of CE permit issuance and in the framework of the integration agreement signed by all new comers since March 2012; ii) certifying language proficiency as a prerequisite to enrolment in vocational training courses. In addition to language, evening courses help people over 16 to obtain an upper secondary diploma (*diploma di scuola secondaria superiore*). In this case, attendance may be subject to a tuition fee or to a pre-selection examination. Because of their institutional design, the CPIA does not focus on access to the labour market, nor is it connected to employment-oriented training.

CPIAs can have large student bodies: the CTP Oglio in Milan, for example, had more than 1 500 students in 2012, of which more than 1 000 were in language courses. The low level of education acquired in the country of origin represents a challenge for teachers whose training was not in adult literacy, and for the CEFR certification, which was also designed for students with basic literacy.

As a result of the language requirement imposed by the 2009 legislation, Italian-language instruction in CPIAs is also supported by the Ministry of Interior, through its allocation of the European Integration Fund to regions. This has also stimulated standards in language instruction (Stuppini, 2013). Professional requirements have been imposed on language teachers.

In particular, Italian as a foreign language became an important segment of the training supply of the CPIAs. CPIAs mainly focus on the acquisition of basic literacy. Among other courses, they organise low-cost language courses (participants pay about EUR 15 per year for approximately six hours per week, plus around EUR 90 for the certification exam.[7] Any person older than 16 can attend these courses on a voluntary basis.

Courses are generally provided in the morning or in the evening (usually in two or three sessions per week). Evening courses also provide support to adults, but they do not consist in language training but rather in courses to obtain a secondary school degree. Importantly, an A2 certificate is a prerequisite for access to professional training courses provided by the CPIAs.

The monitoring of the Ministry of Education shows that the number of foreigners who attended language courses in CPIAs increased by 21% since 2003/04 and reached more than 79 000 participants in 2011/12 (INDIRE, 2013).[8] The increase is less than one would expect from the growing immigrant population over that period. In addition, the data do not yet reflect any increase which might have occurred after the introduction of the integration contract in March 2012.

Despite an increase in the share of migrant women in the total number of immigrants over the period, the proportion of women who participated in these language programmes decreased to 51% in 2011/12.[9] CPIAs manage to attract migrants with no or low education, since 20% of foreign attendees had no diploma and 46% had at best a lower secondary degree in 2011/12. Around two-thirds of foreign attendees got a formal certificate after the training session. As CPIAs focus on the acquisition of basic skills, the certificate level obtained is generally low. In 2011/12, 33% of the foreign attendees obtained an A2 level certificate, 9% obtained a lower level than A2 and 21% a level above A2 (Table 4.3).

Foreign participants in language training are overrepresented among students in the north-east regions, notably in Emilia Romagna where more than 17% of the participants are enrolled, while the foreign population represents only 10% of the total number of foreigners in Italy (Table 4.3). The north-west regions concentrate the largest number of CPIAs (112 out of 560) and the number of participants is consistent with the share of foreigners in those regions. Conversely, in southern regions, despite a non-negligible number of CPIAs, few foreigners are enrolled in language training and their numbers are even lower than the share of foreigners in those regions.

Course participants are increasingly likely not to be employed. Since 2004/05, the proportion of employed persons among migrants attending those language courses constantly decreased to reach 34% of all attendees in 2011/12. This may be related to the difficulty for employed persons to attend classes often scheduled in daytime, but also reflects rising unemployment affecting immigrants.

Language programmes are also co-financed by the Ministry of Labour and the regions. Language training is one of the five axes of the Integration Plan "Security, Identity, Engagement", although here, too, no vocation-specific language training is available under this programme.

Until 2011, the Ministry of Labour co-financed initiatives for the promotion of language and culture. In 2012, this funding ended, in light of the large part of the European Integration Fund devoted to this priority (EUR 40 million in the 2011-12 programme). Funding by the Ministry of Labour remained modest, with EUR 21.4 million allocated to language training and cultural actions over the period 2005-11 through the Fund for Migratory Policies and the Fund for the Social Inclusion of Immigrants. Around 18 to 20 000 foreigners participated to these projects each year. These projects mainly consisted in the organisation of language courses. The largest single nationality of participants was Morocco, and most participants were women. On average, one third of the participants acquired a language certificate at the end of the programme. The ministry also made substantial investment in developing multimedia support for self-learning and for teachers (notably through television and radio).

Table 4.3. Characteristics of foreign attendees to language courses provided in CTPs, 2004 to 2012

	2004/05	2005/06	2006/07	2007/08	2008/09	2009/10	2010/11	2011/12
Total participants (numbers)	65 220	68 749	51 924	65 573	64 995	61 538	66 186	79 102
Total participants (as a % of total enrolled[1])	..	..	86	84	83	80	81	80
Men	45	44	44	49	49	48	45	49
Women	55	56	56	51	51	52	55	51
Geographical distribution								
North	73	72	67	69	69	67	68	71
Center	20	21	24	23	22	23	22	20
South	7	7	9	8	9	10	10	9
Nationality								
Morocco	15	14	14	..	..	13	..	13
Romania	5	4	6	..	..	6	..	5
China	8	8	9	..	..	8	..	6
Ukraine	4	4	4	..	..	4	..	5
Bangladesh	3		4	..	..	5	..	7
Albania	3	3	3	..	..	3	..	3
Senegal	..	..	..	..	..	3	..	4
Others	55	58	59	..	..	59	..	56
missing	8	8	..	..	..	..	..	..
Educational attainment								
no education	6	7	14	25	22	18	20	20
low educated	29	29	14	40	42	44	44	46
medium educated	18	15	9	26	27	28	25	24
high educated	7	6	3	9	10	11	11	10
education abroad not classified	40	42	60	..	..	..	..	..
Employment status								
employed	45	42	41	39	35	35	36	34
unemployed	55	58	58	60	64	64	63	66
inactive	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
% who obtained a language certificates (%)								
Total CILS	49	51	55	56	58	63	57	63
Level A2	..	..	..	..	..	..	18	33
Higher than level A2	..	..	..	..	..	..	32	21
Lower than A2	..	..	..	..	..	..	8	9

1. Includes 900 to 1 600 Italians each year.

Source: INDIRE (2013), "Istruzione degli Adulti: Rapporto di Monitoraggio 2012" (Monitoring of adult education 2012).

According to the evaluation of the Ministry of Labour, provinces and regions reported that the main obstacles faced in the co-financed projects were the low level of education of the participants and the heterogeneity of their levels of proficiency in Italian. Participants also reported difficulties in conciliating work and training, and to a lesser extent, in transportation to where the courses were given. No further evaluation of these projects has been conducted.

The increase in the number of low-educated women in language courses – still a small share of the total eligible population – predates the imposition of the integration contract and may reflect the general trend of immigrant women moving into the labour market as male family members lose their employment. The evolving structure of courses – changes in scheduling, and the need to provide mediation and childcare to ensure participation – reflects this development.

A wide range of courses are also provided by a myriad of private NGOs, either co-funded by national and regional authorities or operating on a volunteer basis. For example, in the Piedmont region, an analysis conducted in 2012 identified about 90 providers of language courses in addition to the 27 CPIAs (Associazione Formazione 80, 2012). The CPIAs accounted for about 60% of language students in the surveyed centres around the region, while one in four students was in a course organised by an NGO. Most courses concentrated on a very basic knowledge of Italian; half were A1 or lower level. While CPIAs reported over-enrolment, other actors had difficulty filling available slots.

Compared with CPIAs, NGO programming is more flexible in terms of schedule, content, and duration, and is usually open to participants regardless of their status. As a result, they may play a role for newcomers. Further, they may be linked with professional training, or with orientation to local services. Quality, however, varies, and in most cases such courses do not provide recognised certification (in the Piedmont survey, for example, most NGOs did not provide certification valid for permit renewal, and many courses were run by volunteers). Where many actors at the local level offer courses, there is overlap and competition. In Milan, for example, the municipality reports an oversupply of language courses, but poor co-ordination among actors and poor orientation of potential users. Territorial councils sometimes attempt to rationalise such language courses, but many are spontaneous and volunteer-driven, making them difficult to co-ordinate; even when publicly funded, they do not always operate in co-ordination.

One example of an attempt to co-ordinate language courses is the ongoing project Petrarca in Piemonte, funded by annual grants from the EIF, which identifies different courses, provides a portal and brings together providers, in an attempt to rationalise language-course provision (Associazione Formazione 80, 2012).

In summary, the current language education provision through the adult education system and other providers focuses on a basic level of competence in Italian, necessary to ensure permit renewal but generally unconnected to the labour market. The impact of language courses on employment outcomes has not been examined. While there is no full accounting of the number of participants, the core – in CPIAs – has not seen an increase in enrolment commensurate with the growth of the target population. Outside of the adult education system, the courses offered by a wide variety of actors address basic literacy needs. Overall, the threshold in hours is relatively low compared with other OECD countries offering language training to immigrants, although there appears to be little demand or capacity for more advanced language training. Part of the incentive to participate appears to lie in the link with the permit regime.

Impact of ad hoc regularisation programmes on the integration of immigrants

The implementation of recurrent and large regularisation programmes since the 1980s (refer to Chapter 2 for numbers and characteristics) is often viewed as a substitution for an efficient migration system (EMN Italy, 2005) or, alternatively, as bumps on the road towards a kind of normalisation of the Italian migration policy. The legal framework of these programmes have largely evolved since the 1980s but even the most restrictive 2012 programme can still be considered as a stop-gap measure to compensate for dysfunctional legislation regulating labour migration flows. As stated by Finotelli (2005), the objectives of these ad hoc programmes are first to regularly let the central government regaining control over irregular situations of migrants (mainly due to overstaying); second, to periodically transfer migrants from informal to formal activities. This section aims at evaluating the extent to which successive ad hoc regularisation programmes have succeeded in integrating foreign migrants in the long-run in the formal Italian labour market and in its society as a whole.

The effectiveness of regularisation measures in terms of immigrant integration first depends on their ability not only to let migrants emerge from illegality but also to maintain legal status over the medium- and long-term. As the residence permit for employment is directly linked with the applicant's employment status in Italy, this first question is strongly associated with the capacity offered to migrants to emerge from informal to formal activities in the long-run. The emergence of migrants from informal activities is an important topic addressed at the central level, and regularisation programmes can be considered as a policy tool in this area.

Regularisation is also supposed to impact on migrants working conditions by improving the use of their skills and by promoting their occupational mobility since they become freer to change employer. In the specific case of domestic workers, the "ethnic" stratification of irregular migrants (which is known to be high in Italy) tends to reinforce the precariousness of these workers since employers tend to show preferences for ethnic groups less demanding and highly flexible in terms of hours worked (ILO, 2005).

"Emerging" (at least partially) from informal to formal activities definitively constitute an important step for migrant workers although this does not prevent them from still working partially in the informal sector or to go back to illegality and potentially to informal activities when their permit expires. However, almost 80% of migrants were still in a regular job almost three years after they got regularised through the 2002 programme. Migrants employed in a household were slightly less likely to still be in a regular job than those employed in an enterprise (Carfagna et al., 2008).

Similar analysis based on the 2009 regularisation programme show that only 50% of regularised persons are still employed in 2012. This can be partly explained by changes in overall economic conditions but this raises serious concerns about labour market outcomes. However, they were not less likely to be employed than other domestic workers employed the same year, since 47% and 55% of other foreign-born and native-born employed as domestic workers in 2009 were not "formally" employed in 2012, respectively – Table 4.4).

Evidence from employers compulsory records to PES also tend to show that the professional activity of regularised and other domestic workers employed in 2009 frequently changed over the following three years. Around two-thirds of regularised migrants are assumed to have changed employer since 2009, half of whom are not formally employed anymore three years later. An even higher proportion of native domestic workers who changed employer since 2009 (around 60%) were not (formally) employed anymore in 2012. Interestingly, regularised workers tended to more frequently change sector of activity than other foreign-born domestic workers employed in 2009 (Table 4.5). This may be due to the strong pressure over this latter group to stay with the same employer with the view of getting their permit renewed. The fact that this may also be due to situations of "fake" employment among regularised migrants is not known and would need further analysis. Most of regularised workers who switched to another sector and were still employed in 2012 have been recruited in the manufacturing sector, food services or in support service activities. A fifth of regularised workers who changed sector but had no valid job contract in 2012 had their last "formal" job in the agriculture, forestry and fishing industries. Overall, those outcomes tend to show that regularisation remains a powerful tool for the labour market integration of migrants, even though the recent economic crisis tends to challenge the permanency of job contracts.

Table 4.4. Domestic workers hired in 2009

	Regularised foreign-born workers	Other foreign-born workers	Native-born
Number of contracts	34 304	38 724	6 280
Average age of workers	34	40	42
% women	38	80	87
% part time	96	84	68
% temporary contract	3	6	28
Distribution by region of residence			
North	54	52	34
Center	22	31	17
South	24	17	48
Total	100	100	100
Change of situation since 2009 (%)			
No change in contract	23	19	24
Changed employer since 2009	65	64	52
Still valid at the end of 2012	*32*	*33*	*21*
Not valid at the end of 2012	*33*	*30*	*31*
No current contract	12	17	24
Total	100	100	100
Mean duration of the 2009 contract (in months)			
Changed contract since 2009	21	10	10
No current contract	28	16	15
Persons who are under another contract			
% who changed sector of activity	65	37	46
% who changed occupation	49	40	46

Note: See Annex B for details on the dataset. Transformations of temporary contract (notably due to changes in hours or in type of contract) have not been taken into account.

Source: OECD calculations based on a representative sample of the System of compulsory records sent by employers to public employment services.

This outcome is confirmed by preliminary results from the 2012 regularisation programme. Only two-third of the 66 988 migrants who had been granted a residence permit were still in employment in November 2013. Data from employers' compulsory records to the PES show that most of the remaining third who were no longer officially employed at the end of 2013 had a last contract of a duration shorter than six months. Unfortunately, this administrative dataset does not provide further information on the current situation of these "inactive" persons, notably the proportions who left the country and who fell back to informal activities.

A follow-up of regularised migrants in 2002 based on the linkage of permit data (Carfagna et al., 2008) sheds some light on the ability of a substantial part of regularised migrants to transit to a family-based stay, generally after getting married. Three years after they got regularised, about 10% of women, who had been regularised on the basis of employment in the 2002 regularisation programme and were still employed in 2004 had gained a family-based permit by 2007 (1.2% in the case of males). More than 11% of males had switched to a permit on the grounds of self-employment. Internal mobility was also extremely high, since more than 60% of the regularised migrants still in Italy in 2007 had moved to another province. Migrants working in a household showed a lower mobility. At the time of writing this report, no data can provide a more updated overview of the transition of regularised migrants to more family-based status following the 2009 programme. More recent linkages from permit data as well as the outcomes of the survey on the integration and social conditions of foreigners should shed lights on these points. Unfortunately, as stated above, these data are not publicly available at the time of writing this review.

Table 4.5. Industry mobility of domestic workers hired in 2009

Distribution by industry of domestic workers who had another formal job contract since 2009

	Contract still valid at the end of 2012			Contract finished at the end of 2012		
	Regularised foreign-born workers	Other foreign-born workers	Native-born	Regularised foreign-born workers	Other foreign-born workers	Native-born
	Distribution in %					
Agriculture, forestry and fishing	3	1	1	21	9	10
Mining and quarrying	0	0	0	0	0	0
Manufacturing	12	5	5	11	5	5
Eletricity, gas, steam and air conditioning supply	0	0	0	0	0	0
Water supply, sewerage	0	0	0	0	0	0
Construction	7	1	2	10	2	2
Wholesale and retail trade, repair of vehicles	7	3	7	7	3	4
Transportation and storage	5	2	2	4	2	1
Accomodation and food service activities	10	5	6	11	10	12
Information and communication	0	0	1	1	0	1
Financial and insurance activities	0	0	0	0	0	0
Real estate activities	0	0	0	0	0	0
Professional, scientific and technical activities	1	1	2	1	1	1
Administrative and support service activities	8	4	9	7	6	8
Public administration and defence, social securit	0	0	1	0	0	2
Education	0	0	7	0	0	3
Human health and social work activities	1	2	6	1	2	5
Arts, entertainment and recreation	1	0	1	1	1	2
Other service activities	2	2	3	1	2	2
Activities of households as employers	42	74	47	23	56	40
Activities of extraterritorial organisations and bodi	0	0	0	0	0	0
Sample - Total (numbers)	10 839	12 972	1 325	11 379	11 741	1 934

Note: see Annex B for details on the dataset.

Source: OECD calculations based on a representative sample of the System of compulsory records sent by employers to public employment services.

The impact of regularisation goes beyond employment, and must be weighed in relation to its ability to give migrants equal access to social rights, notably in terms of access to social services, social benefits, health services, childcare facilities, education and training opportunities and social housing. In Italy, since the level of social benefits (especially income support) are rather low, immigrants do not gain significant benefits of this kind following regularisation. Criteria to access social housing vary across municipalities. However, priority is generally given to applicants who can demonstrate that they have been living in the municipality since a long time. Moreover, the supply of social housing is insufficient. For all these reasons, migrants have minimal chances to access social housing by being regularised. In addition, in the framework of the 2002 programme, residence permits that were granted were generally no longer than one year. This prevented migrants from accessing many social rights, notably to social housing. Later regularisations provided permits of up to two years.

In summary, regularisation programmes – through which a large share of migrants to Italy have passed at one time or another – give migrants a chance not only to emerge from irregular status, but also to transit to regular employment, to change sectors, and to benefit from internal mobility. The recent economic crisis is however challenging the employability of regularised migrants although they do not seem to be more affected than similar native workers.

Naturalisation

Access to the nationality of the host country is an important element of integration policy. Indeed, naturalisation tends to have a positive impact on immigrants' labour market outcomes through a number of channels (see the overview in OECD, 2011). Among these is the removal of institutional barriers in the labour market, notably regarding the public sector.

In addition, as in other countries, having Italian nationality seems to function as a signalling device for the employer of better "integration potential", which in turn may be associated with higher productivity (for example, because of better mastery of the Italian language or higher motivation or ability). For example, testing studies from other OECD countries (e.g. Cediey and Foroni, 2008 for the French case) have shown that immigrants who have naturalised are more frequently invited to a job interview than otherwise equivalent immigrant candidates who have not. The degree to which naturalisation can exert a signalling function depends in part on whether or not it is common to mention one's nationality in the application process – if it is not required for the job itself, which is rarely the case. In Italy, it is rather common to state one's nationality in job applications which suggests that this latter channel may be of considerable importance. Italian citizenship is also required for many jobs in the public sector, although recently there has been some improvement on this front. In September 2013, with the transposition of an EU Directive, Italy allowed certain foreigners to apply for most jobs in the public sector, although this is limited to those holding long-term residence permits, and excludes some sectors such as the police and judges. Access to citizenship would also potentially help immigrants' integration in areas other than the labour market, notably in the housing market.

Since access to citizenship is selective, the degree to which it helps in labour market integration can be demonstrated essentially by longitudinal studies comparing the integration process of immigrants who naturalised and those who did not naturalise and how this is related to the time of citizenship take-up. Longitudinal evidence from a number of other OECD countries suggests that having host-country citizenship is associated with higher employment rates and earnings, and a key driver in this process being better access to higher-skilled employment (OECD, 2011).

To which degree this is also the case in Italy is not known, and there has been no longitudinal study on this issue thus far. Some information on the association between being naturalised and labour market outcomes can nevertheless be obtained from the labour force survey, which in 2008 included a special module with information on naturalisation and on other key variables which affect labour market outcomes, such as language mastery and migration category. The results are shown in Table 4.6. These cross-sectional data do not however permit to control for the possible selection bias.

Due to the fact that migration to Italy has been mainly recent and labour-market oriented, one would expect that naturalisation mainly helps in access to higher-skilled employment. Indeed, whereas one does not observe a citizenship premium with respect to employment, there is some evidence that naturalisation is associated with a higher likelihood to be in higher-skilled employment.

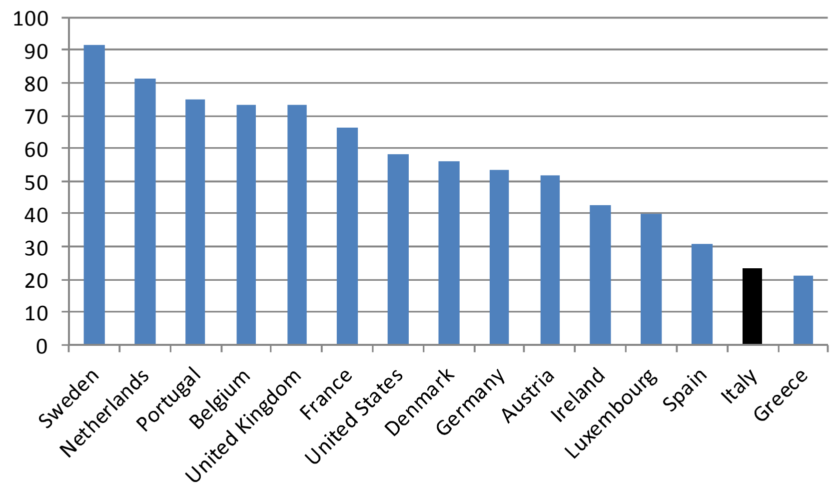
Table 4.6. The association between labour market outcomes and naturalisation in Italy, persons born outside EU15 EFTA area, 2008

	Dependent variable: employment							
	Men				Women			
Naturalised	-0.15***	-0.12***	-0.06	-0.02	-0.11**	-0.10**	-0.09*	-0.04
	(0.04)	(0.04)	(0.04)	(0.05)	(0.05)	(0.05)	(0.05)	(0.06)
Age		x	x	x		x	x	x
Education		x	x	x		x	x	x
Country of birth		x	x	x		x	x	x
Region		x	x	x		x	x	x
Language			x	x			x	x
Reasons of immigration				x				x
Observations	646	646	605	527	577	577	436	382
R-squared	0.019	0.207	0.099	0.048	0.009	0.109	0.109	0.087
	Dependent variable: highly skilled employment							
	Men				Women			
Naturalised	0.15***	0.07*	0.10**	0.07*	0.10***	0.05**	0.07**	0.05
	(0.03)	(0.03)	(0.04)	(0.04)	(0.03)	(0.03)	(0.03)	(0.04)
Age		x	x	x		x	x	x
Education		x	x	x		x	x	x
Country of birth		x	x	x		x	x	x
Region		x	x	x		x	x	x
Language			x	x			x	x
Reasons of immigration				x				x
Observations	646	646	605	527	577	577	436	382
R-squared	0.029	0.157	0.178	0.247	0.026	0.182	0.222	0.255

Source: EU Labour Force Surveys ad hoc module (Eurostat).

The criteria for access to citizenship vary considerably across OECD countries and by many measures; Italy has a rather restrictive naturalisation framework. This seems to reflect the idea that naturalisation is not primarily viewed as an instrument of promoting integration but rather is a certification of successfully completed integration into the Italian society. Minimum residence requirements for ordinary naturalisation are ten years in Italy, among the longest in the OECD. In addition, it is not uncommon for the procedure to take several years after application and citizenship grants have a large discretionary component. There has been some improvement recently, but the chronic long and opaque process remains an issue. As a result, Italy is among the OECD countries with the lowest share of naturalised immigrants among its long-term residents (Figure 4.1).

Figure 4.1. Percentage of foreign-born with host-country nationality among immigrants from non-EU15 countries who have been resident in the host-country for more than ten years, selected OECD countries, 2011



Note: Foreign-born persons with host-country nationality include nationals at birth.

Source: EU Labour Force Surveys (Eurostat) and US Current Population Survey (CPS).

Native-born children of immigrants who have resided continuously in Italy are able to acquire nationality through a simple direct procedure at age 18, through a declaration to their municipality of residence. Until 2013, this had to be done before they turn 19; if they missed this opportunity, they had to acquire three further years of residence and apply through the standard channels.[10] Immigrant youth were poorly informed of this provision – only one in three adolescents knew of this possibility in a 2011 survey (UNICEF, 2011). In response, the Association of Municipalities (ANCI) and an association (G2) began promoting “To the Municipality on my 18th Birthday”, under which participating municipalities send each eligible adolescent a letter explaining the procedure before their 18th birthday. This was made mandatory in August 2013, along with a simplification of the procedure.[11]

Limiting legal discrimination and developing a national anti-discrimination framework

A key obstacle to immigrants’ full labour market integration in many OECD countries is discrimination. In Italy this issue has not yet received a lot of policy attention, because of the recent nature of most immigration.

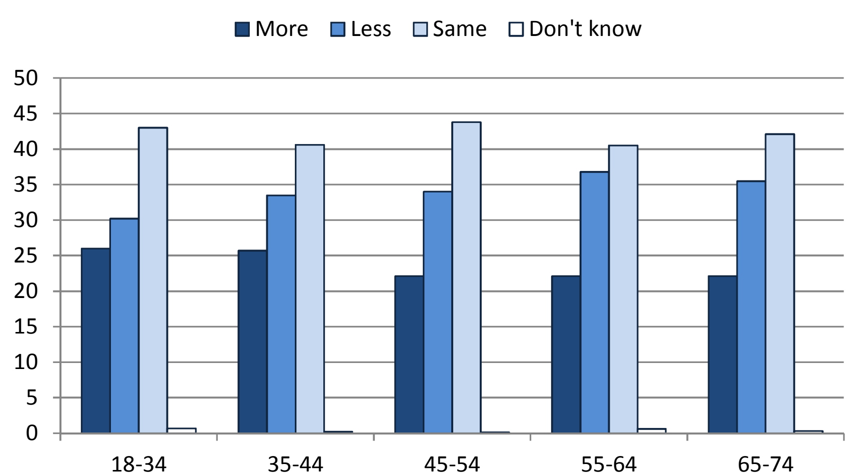
The existence of discrimination is always difficult to demonstrate, because many factors other than discrimination may explain disadvantage in the labour market and the society as a whole, for example lack of mastery of the host-country language or lack of networks and knowledge about the host-country institutions. One way for demonstrating discrimination unambiguously are testing studies which try to isolate the effect of discrimination in hiring, through sending otherwise equivalent applications to employment offers where basically only the name suggests a migration background. For Italy, Allasino et al. (2006) found that, in order to get invited for a job interview, Moroccans applying for low-skilled jobs in construction, catering and services have to send out about 40% more applications than an Italian who has an otherwise equivalent CV. This is a considerable level of discrimination, although not necessarily higher than those found in testing studies for other countries (see Heath et al., 2013). Beyond recruitment, discrimination can also occur at work. Discrimination may be one factor for explaining evidence of selective lay-off found in the previous section.

There is also empirical evidence on discrimination in access to housing. Baldini and Federici (2011) found that, for example, a fictitious candidate with an Italian name was about 50% more likely to receive a response to an e-mail sent regarding an apartment listing than a man with an Arab name. Discrimination was also evident, although somewhat smaller, for candidates with non-Italian names of other origins.

Public opinion surveys suggest that Italians also perceive immigrants to be discriminated: more than two-thirds said that immigrants had less chance to find a job, receive a promotion, or find housing (ISTAT, 2011). However, the same survey also suggested a trend improvement (Figure 4.2).

Figure 4.2. "Has discrimination against immigrants increased, decreased or stayed the same in the past five years"

Distribution of responses in percentages within each age group, 2011



Source: ISTAT, "I migranti visti dai cittadini residenti in Italia".

Less evidence is available of immigrants' experience of discrimination. A UNICEF survey (2011) of a non-representative sample of foreign and Italian adolescents found that half of foreigners had direct or indirect experience of racism. The European Agency for Fundamental Rights (FRA) survey of three ethnic minority/immigrant groups in Italy: North Africans, Romanians and Albanians, on the perception of discrimination. All groups considered discrimination to be widespread in Italy, including the baseline majority group (in the Eurobarometer survey). North-Africans perceived an even higher degree of discrimination (FRA, 2010a[12]). North Africans also were much more likely to report personal experience of discrimination.

The survey found little awareness of legal protection from discrimination, with more than two-thirds unaware of the right to non-discrimination in job applications (FRA, 2010b). Although the legislative framework emphasizes equal access to services, this is often contingent not only on valid legal status but also on a longer-duration or permanent residence permit (Sciortino, 2004). Permit renewal has been a long process in the past, and the transition of processing from police stations to postal correspondence, in the mid-2000s, eliminated long lines but not long delays.

In international comparison, the framework for anti-discrimination is relatively poorly developed (OECD, 2008). The national framework for anti-discrimination legislation dates back to 1998 law, with the creation of a legal definition of discrimination on the basis of nationality and establishment of sanctions. This framework represented a significant improvement and allowed compensation for legal discrimination as well as for common practises. The possibility of group discrimination was also addressed by the 1998 law, as well as the opportunity for the victim or third parties (e.g., trade unions) to demonstrate statistical discrimination. The principal legal recourse was to order the end of discriminatory action, although sanctions were contemplated. The legal framework has since been modified, to include hate crimes as an aggravating factor, for example.

However, even if a 1993 Italian law recognises ethnic and racial discrimination as an aggravating factor for crimes, very few cases of application have been reported (Council of Europe 2006[13]). The 1993 law was limited somewhat in 2012, lowering fines and limiting applicability (Council of Europe 2012). On the other hand, in response to a challenge in 2008, employment discrimination cases can now be brought not only by trade unions but also by NGOs.

The National Office Against Racial Discrimination (UNAR) was created under the Prime Minister's office in response to European obligations under EU Directive 43/2000. The UNAR monitors discrimination, provides legal information through a website, and maintains a hotline for information and reporting discrimination, acting as a sort of ombudsman. The cases of discrimination have increased: from 440 claims of discrimination in 2007 (of which 265 were found to be grounded), the number increased to 766 (540) in 2010, 1 000 (799) in 2011 and 1 283 in 2012. Almost half the cases in 2011 were identified by UNAR itself. The UNAR can develop and follow individual cases (but cannot represent them in court), and prepare and express opinions, although it is the courts which decide on whether discrimination has occurred and what, if any, actions and sanctions follow.[14]

The OSCE annual report on Hate Crimes in the OSCE region (2009) finds that the law enforcement bodies and the Ministry of Interior report fewer cases of racism and discrimination by NGOs working in the field. NGOs defending the right of immigrants and consumer associations play an important role in orienting and supporting immigrants in notifying acts of discrimination and may be aware of cases that are not reported to the police. Victims may not report racism or discrimination offences because they are not fully aware of their own rights, because they do not know how to defend themselves or because they do not fully trust the justice system. Migrants without legal status are the weakest, because they cannot contact law-enforcement bodies without denouncing themselves.

The UNAR examines national and regional legislation, for example, in terms of discriminatory eligibility criteria for benefits or services, and advises authorities.

In mid-2013, the UNAR drew up a national action plan against racism, xenophobia and intolerance. The areas of discrimination addressed are "race, colour, background, national and ethnic origin, religious convictions or beliefs". The draft plan identified several areas: employment, housing, education, mass media and sports, and public safety. The plan is aimed at "Italians of foreign origin" and those who naturalised as adults.

Finally, immigrants seem to be unaware of the work conducted by UNAR. In fact, the 2010 EU-MIDIS survey shows that only 12% of Albanians, 11% of Romanians and 14% of North-Africans know about UNAR (FRA, 2010b). Such situation calls for urgent action at communication level in order to make immigrants aware of their rights and of the available channels to defend themselves.

In a number of OECD countries, diversity policies have been developed in recent years to tackle the issue of discrimination more broadly (see the overview in Heath et al., 2013). Italy has used the instrument of diversity charter, which is nevertheless not binding and concerns mainly large companies.

Notes

1. The recent (June 2012) labour market reform introduced a "reduced" form of unemployment benefits (the so-called "Mini Aspi") for workers who do not meet the requirements for the "regular" unemployment benefit. "Mini-ASpI" requires only 13 weeks of contribution in the last 12 months preceding unemployment. These unemployment benefits can only be perceived for a duration equalled to half the duration during which contributions were paid in the last 12 month preceding the loss of job.

2. One possible factor is that for most courses, a valid residence permit is required. Until 2012, unemployed migrants were issued a six-month job-search permit which could not be renewed without employment, and were effectively unable to participate in publicly funded training courses. This problem has been largely resolved with the extension to twelve months of the bridging permit for unemployed labour migrants.

3. Other projects have been designed, notably targeting unaccompanied minors. Data are not presented here since this population is out of the scope of this review.

4. Of 7 000 immigrants coming to the Sasso Marconi information point in 2011, one in four asked for help in finding work.

5. University students, PhD and Master-level students, managers, university professors, translators and interpreters.

6. For details on the conditions to be granted points, refer to www.integrazionemigranti.gov.it/Attualita/IlPunto/Documents/Tabella%20crediti%20riconoscibili.pdf.

7. There are four different certifications recognised by the Ministry of Foreign Affairs and the Ministry of Education valid for the purposes of the integration contract. CELI, introduced in 1987, is run by the University of Perugia, while CILS was developed by the University for Foreigners in Siena and formalised in 1998. The PLIDA is provided through the Dante Alighieri society, and the University of Rome also has an exam. These four certifications compete and are less well-known than, for example, the TOEFL for English and DELF for French, indicating the relatively recent demand for standardised certification outside the context of university enrolment.

8. An annual monitoring of courses, notably language courses, provided in CPIAs is published by the INDIRE (National Institute for Documentation, Innovation and Research on Education).

9. Not all foreigners who sign up for language courses organised by CPIAs actually attend: the percentage of enrolled foreigners who actually participated fell from 86% in 2006/07 to 80% in 2011/12. This may be related to the fact that those courses are generally provided during the day and therefore are not always compatible with employment, or active job search.

10. This regulation was changed in 2013, granting several years eligibility following 18.

11. One obstacle was the continuous residence requirement, which depended on parents' maintaining constant enrolment in the population register; this was sometimes difficult for administrative reasons. According to the amendment to the 1998 law

adopted on 9 August 2013, continuous residence can now be proven through documents such as official school reports as well as by health certificates (e.g., vaccination). The legal status of the parents is no longer a reason for refusal. In addition, local authorities are now obliged to communicate to foreign minors, six months before they turn 18, about their right to naturalise.

12. Interviews were conducted in 2008.

13. Report drafted by ECRI (European Commission against Racism and Intolerance) which is a human rights body of the Council of Europe.

14. Besides UNAR, in case of discrimination, immigrants can also contact OSCAD, the Observatory for Security Against Discriminative Acts (*Osservatorio per la sicurezza contro gli atti discriminatori*). The Observatory is managed by the two main law-enforcement authorities (*Polizia di Stato and Arma dei Carabinieri*). OSCAD can receive notifications of crimes, it supervises the work of police authorities in case of racist offences, it offers dedicated training to law-enforcement officers and works in collaboration with NGOs working in the field. The notification of crime to OSCAD, however, does not substitute the notification to police and Carabinieri, which remains the primary action against a discriminatory act, together with the direct communication to the Court.

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Chapter 5

The integration of immigrant offspring in Italy: An emerging issue

This chapter evaluates the school and labour market integration of immigrant offspring in international comparison and vis-à-vis the children of natives in Italy. Socio-economic background as well as other factors are explored as possible explanatory factors of their outcomes. Due to the predominance of recent flows, the bulk of immigrant offspring is composed of minor native-born children of immigrants and of young migrants trained in Italy. Immigrant children arrived at the end of mandatory schooling is also a significant group. The impact of their late arrival on their educational and labour market outcomes is considered. The situation of immigrant offspring has not yet received enough attention in terms of national policies. Since growing cohorts of immigrant offspring will soon enter the Italian labour market, it is urgent to set their integration as a top priority. This chapter explores the policies that could best contribute to improve their integration in the Italian educational system and in the labour market.

Size and composition of the immigrant offspring population

The integration of the children of immigrants is of particular importance in Italy for several reasons. The first one is the relative importance of low-educational background of immigrant families which is known to be strongly associated with poor educational attainment and lower professional perspectives for their children. Secondly, immigrant offspring numbers are growing rapidly. Since the bulk of the immigrant population arrived over the last two decades, the share of the 15-29 native-born persons with two immigrant parents is currently very low in international comparison. However, the evolution of births to immigrant parents (in 2011, the nearly 80 000 children born in Italy to foreign parents represented 14.5% of total births, up from 5.5% in 2001) indicate that the share of native-born immigrant offspring should increase rapidly, assuming most immigrant families are willing and able to settle in Italy.

With reference to the size of the population of immigrant offspring, since access to Italian citizenship by native-born children of foreigners is generally only possible at the age of 18, statistics on foreign minors give a relatively good estimate for this age group (see Box 5.1 for details on statistics). The share of foreigners among the population under 18 nearly tripled from 2000 to 2010, to 9.7%. Two-thirds of these foreigners were born in Italy (Fondazione Moressa, 2013). While countries with a long migration history – Austria or the Netherlands, for example – have more offspring of immigrants in their young adult population (15-29), Italy is likely to reach comparable levels in the future. In fact, in 2010, the share of native-born immigrant offspring in the 0-14 population in Italy was comparable to the share of this group in the 15-29 population in the countries mentioned above.

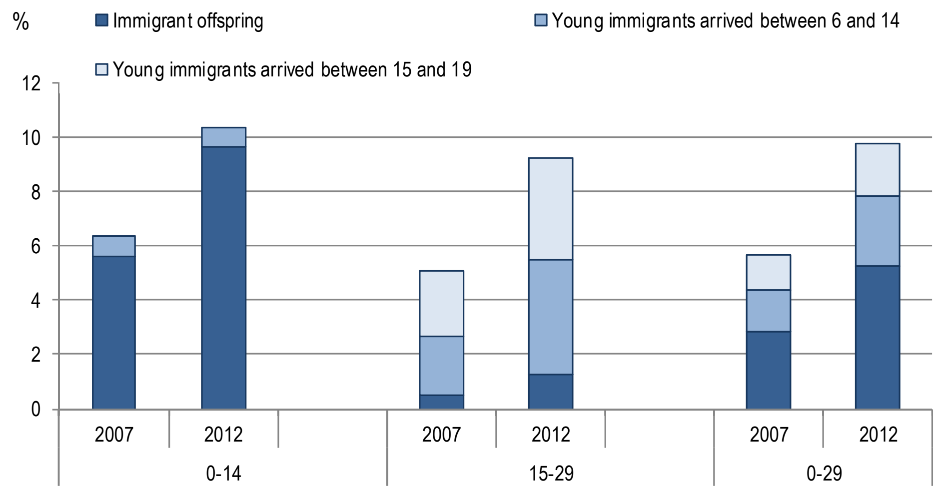
However, as there are many countries of origin, there is no single dominant ethnic or linguistic minority (Barban et al., 2008). In 2006, of 100 foreign minors, almost 20 were Albanians, followed by Moroccans (17.3), Romanians (9.1) and Chinese (6.1). It is quite rare to see, in Italian cities, noticeable concentrations of national communities (in Rome, the top seven nationalities accounted for less than half the total). While this prevents closed minority communities from emerging, it complicates integration policies. In planning language classes, no single language of origin can be used as a starting point to learn Italian, as 10 or more languages of origin are represented in an average Italian as a second language class course.

While immigrant offspring do not yet represent a substantial share of young adults, the numbers of young immigrants arriving at school age (between the age of 6 and 15) or later (between 15 and 19) have been increasing substantially since 2007 and reached around 9% of the 15-29 cohort in 2012 (Figure 5.1).

The share of late arrivals among young immigrant offspring in Italy is high in international comparison. These characteristics pose specific challenges, since later entry is concomitant with delay in acquiring the language. Furthermore, as stated above, the weaker parental socio-economic background represent challenges for integrating in Italian schools and labour market.

Figure 5.1. Foreign immigrant offspring and young immigrants arrived before the age of 19, Italy, 2007 and 2012

Percentage of the population aged 0-14, 15-29 and 0-29, respectively



Note: Parents' country of birth is not known from quarterly Italian Labour Force Surveys. Therefore, immigrant offspring are proxied by the number of foreigners born in Italy or arrived before the age of 6. Immigrants cannot be distinguished according to the place where they obtained their highest diploma, therefore immigrants who obtained their highest diploma abroad are also included.

Source: Italian Labour Force Surveys (ISTAT).

Late arrival is associated with delayed family reunification with children, although there are different reasons for delay. The first is that reunification requires legal status – a permit valid for at least one year – and, as noted, many immigrants acquire status only after an extended period in Italy, either through regularisation or ordinary employer sponsorship. The second reason is the income and housing criteria for sponsoring family. Housing requirements are based on the regional minimum, and sponsors must show title, lease or hospitality as well as municipal attestation that the housing is sufficiently large and meets standards. These requirements are eased for children under 14. Income requirements – from a documented legal source – depend on the number and age of family sponsored, but start at EUR 8 600 for one member and more than EUR 11 500 for two members. Satisfying housing and income requirements may take some time for new arrivals. The process itself is supposed to last three months, but in the past has taken far longer, further delaying arrival. Even when migrants satisfy the formal housing and income requirements, they may delay reunification because they work long hours and cannot find solutions to child care (most schools operate only in the mornings, requiring afternoon childcare), or because it is less costly to keep their children in the country of origin until they are old enough to enter the labour force in Italy. The latter explains the rise in reunification with children who are 14 or 15 years old, a particularly difficult group to integrate into schools, and who are subject to only one year of mandatory schooling before passing into the adult education system.

Box 5.1. Data on immigrant offspring in Italy

1. Adapting the international definition of the immigrant offspring population to the Italian case

The OECD has conducted several studies on the issue of the integration of immigrant offspring over the past years (OECD, 2010a, 2012b). This group of population is defined as the children born in their current country of residence of two foreign-born parents plus the foreign-born children arrived before the age of 6, as they are raised and educated in their country of residence. The descendants of mixed couples are sometimes identified, depending on the issue examined. This standard definition does not fully fit with some national specificities. For instance, it may be necessary to take into account parents' nationality at birth. This is the case for Italy which has been facing important emigration and re-immigration flows in the recent past, but also for several other OECD countries where large numbers of nationals have been repatriated (France, Portugal, the Netherlands). In addition, the intensification of flows of family members over the last two decades in a large number of OECD countries resulted in an increasing number of children arriving at school age (between 6 and 15). As mentioned above, it is worth considering the integration of this group at school and in the labour market. Finally, although most of the immigrants arrived as young adults (between 15 and 19) can hardly be considered as immigrant offspring as some of them arrived on their own and/or obtained their highest diploma (if any) abroad, this is an at-risk group who is worth considering in the case of Italy.

The release of the EU 2008 ad hoc module on the labour market situation of migrants and their immediate descendants has contributed to improve the scarce internationally comparable data available on immigrant offspring outcomes. Immigrant offspring can also be identified in the EU 2009 ad hoc module on the entry of young people into the labour market. These are the most recent international datasets available. Samples are however too small to conduct in-depth comparative analysis.

2. Identification of immigrant offspring in Italian datasets

Immigrant offspring in Italy can be identified in several datasets: i) the Italian Labour Force Survey (ISTAT, annual basis) includes information on the respondent's country of birth, (current) country of citizenship, year of arrival. It however limits estimates of immigrant offspring to those who still live in their parents' household. ii) the Income and Living Conditions of Foreign Citizens Survey (ISTAT, 2009) includes information on respondents and their parents' country of birth and country of citizenship (current, at birth) as well as on respondents' year of arrival. iii) the report of Italian Ministry of Education on foreign students in the Italian school system (MIUR, 2013) is another possible source but limited in terms of international comparability. This report considers only children and youth adults of non-Italian nationality currently attending Italian school (from kindergarten to secondary school, i.e. 3-19 years old).

Two major datasets, not available at the time of writing this report, will contribute to update and improve significantly the measurement of immigrant offspring labour market outcomes. These are the survey on the conditions and social integration of foreigners in Italy (ISTAT, 2011-2012) and the 2011 census.

In this report, immigrant offspring labour market outcomes are monitored through information available in the Italian LFS and 2008 and 2009 EULFS ad hoc modules. Due to the data constraints stated above, the definition of immigrant offspring derived from quarterly LFS is narrowed to Italian-born foreigners and immigrants arrived before the age of 6. This choice does not allow evaluating the impact of naturalisation on immigrant offspring outcomes. This impact is far from straightforward (OECD, 2011) but would be worth considering in the Italian case, to evaluate the extent to which a less stringent naturalisation law could contribute to improve immigrant offspring labour market outcomes. The high numbers of late arrivals in Italy make it important to also consider immigrant children partly educated in their new country of residence. Two groups have been identified: i) immigrants in education or who obtained their last diploma in Italy and arrived between 6 and 14; ii) immigrants who arrived between 15 and 19. The EU 2009 ad hoc module on the entry of young people into the labour market has also been used to provide a succinct analysis of the transition from school to work.

Box 5.1. Data on immigrant offspring in Italy *(cont.)*

3. Data on immigrant offspring integration at school

Italian datasets monitoring students' education outcomes do not always identify immigrant offspring properly. Most data produced on the basis of the students' population register (MIUR) focus on foreign versus national students. Since 2007 though, student's country of birth can also be identified but no information is available on parents' country of birth or nationality. Overall, the MIUR register would benefit from better identifying native-born children of immigrants' socio-economic background. INVALSI (Istituto nazionale per la valutazione del sistema educativo di istruzione e di formazione) ad hoc surveys are test-based surveys at the end of primary and lower secondary education. The country of birth of students and of their parents as well as students' year of arrival are identified. Finally, the OECD Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA triennial surveys) contains information on students' and parents' country of birth as well as on students' age at arrival. However, the sample is limited to 15-year-olds.

Integration of immigrant offspring in Italian schools

The arrival of large numbers of immigrant children in the Italian school system coincided with major but unrelated institutional reforms in 2000-03, which granted Italian schools a wide degree of independence in pedagogy and in organising classes. Italian schools have historically included foreign students in the same classes as Italians, and separate classes have never developed (Giovannini, 2006). Funding varies, with discretionary budgets often determined at the last minute, hindering advance planning. Each school district decides on risk factors and allocates extra resources accordingly; the presence of immigrant or foreign students is usually considered one of the risk factor criteria. Since schools are able to draw on outside resources, including co-operatives and volunteers, for specific intervention, with each school determining its own plan, the relationship with local bodies and the entrepreneurial capacity of the school head and staff affect the integration initiatives offered (Giovannini, 2006). Tracking school projects is a task in itself: the Lombardy Region has more than 3 000 in its database.

Some support in Italian language is provided at school. At the beginning of the school year, the number of hours of Italian as a second language course is fixed by each school, based on its own assessments, priorities and situation. Language provision and support thus can fluctuate from school to school, and from year to year depending on staff and financial resources available.

Due to the growing number of foreign births, the presence of foreign pupils is higher in lower levels of schooling. In 2012/13, it was the highest at kindergarten and primary school, with 9.8% of total pupils. Foreign students represent 9.6% and 6.6% of all students in lower and upper secondary schools, respectively (MIUR, 2013). Some foreign students are integrated in classes during the course of a school year. They represented 3.8, 3.6 and 3.5% of foreign students enrolled at primary, lower secondary and upper secondary schools, respectively, in school year 2012/13 (MIUR, 2013).

No data give internationally comparable information on the concentration of immigrant students within each school, by level of education. However, the OECD Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) gives some indications for 15-year-olds. In 2012, the percentage of students with a foreign background in Italian schools increased to 7.5% of the PISA 2012 sample. This percentage remains low in international comparison and this explains why the share of schools with a high percentage of immigrant students is low compared with the situation in most of the 14 other OECD countries to which Italy is compared in this report.

Statistics from the Ministry of Education show that around 20% of primary and lower secondary schools registered a percentage of foreign students higher than 15% in 2011/12. This is the case for less than 15% of upper secondary schools. The percentage of schools with more than 30% of foreign pupils shrank to 4% of primary, and around 2% of lower and upper secondary schools. The Ministry of Education pays special attention to schools with a high percentage of immigrant students. Interventions consist in supporting and monitoring initiatives implemented in schools located in "risk areas" (defined as areas where immigration is increasing rapidly). Allocation of national funds to schools is based on the examination of projects implemented and evaluated the previous year. For the schooling year 2012/13, EUR 42.1 million have been allocated to at-risk schools. Campania, Lombardy, Sicilia received the highest amount, with 16.5, 13.6 and 11.9% of the total funds, respectively.

In most cases, schools or districts are left to organise their own measures. One specific measure adopted in certain schools are summer courses of Italian language as a second language organised in for children who arrived at the end of the school year (between May and August). This is provided in Milan, for example, with support from the municipality. Another is to revise the curriculum for incoming students (see Box 5.2).

Box 5.2. Mainstreaming and sharing curriculum support for integrating newcomers

Schools across Italy face similar challenges integrating migrants, and a number produce innovative experiments even with the constraints imposed by a lack of resources. In some cases, good collaboration between schools and associations working on migrant integration allow schools to develop and share practices. For instance, Project Cactus in Milan elaborated material specifically tailored for newcomer pupils with low proficiency in Italian enrolled at lower secondary school. These students faced obstacles in subjects other than Italian due to their limited vocabulary and insufficient mastery of the language. A number of Milan schools collaborated with ASPHI and ISMU, with funding from Fondazione Cariplo, to produce a simplified Italian-language internet platform (http://il2studio.integrazioni.it). The interactive platform reproduces main academic fields covered in the lower secondary programme (history, geography, sciences and mathematics).

Most of the content has been rewritten to B1 level. This platform supports pupils and allows them to gain in the competences required in those fields despite their low proficiency in Italian. This experience resulted in a noteworthy increase in the number of migrant students who managed to pass the test at the end of lower secondary school. From its initial use in a few schools, the tool is now shared across 25 schools in Milan which host newcomer pupils and collaboration is underway with districts in other parts of the country.

Moreover, a territorial mapping of "good practices" in terms of integration of foreign minors at school is disseminated through the Migrants Integration Portal managed by the Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs. This initiative aims at disseminating good practices; promoting a better understanding of the migration phenomenon; encouraging a share of information and networking of schools, associations, territorial authorities, educational centres, municipalities and provinces; promoting the perception of foreign minors as a resource. During the schooling year 2012/13, more than 50 initiatives have been promoted via the integration portal. They concern for instance initiatives to teach Italian to bilingual children in kindergartens; language support in primary and media schools; after-school activities designed for foreign children; intercultural experiences; development of web content dedicated to foreign pupils, etc.

Even if good practices and projects are active all around the country, the situation of foreign students varies considerably from school to school and episodes of discrimination and difficulties in settling in are reported. For example, a quali-quantitative survey (Censis, 2007) shows that 31% of migrant families report that their children experienced difficulties in developing positive relationships with their peers and 27% of them report difficulties in interacting with teachers.

Social exclusion and isolation from contact with Italian peers appears particularly extreme in the early phase of arrival, especially for adolescents (Barban et al., 2008).[1] Relationships with Italian schoolmates improve with time.

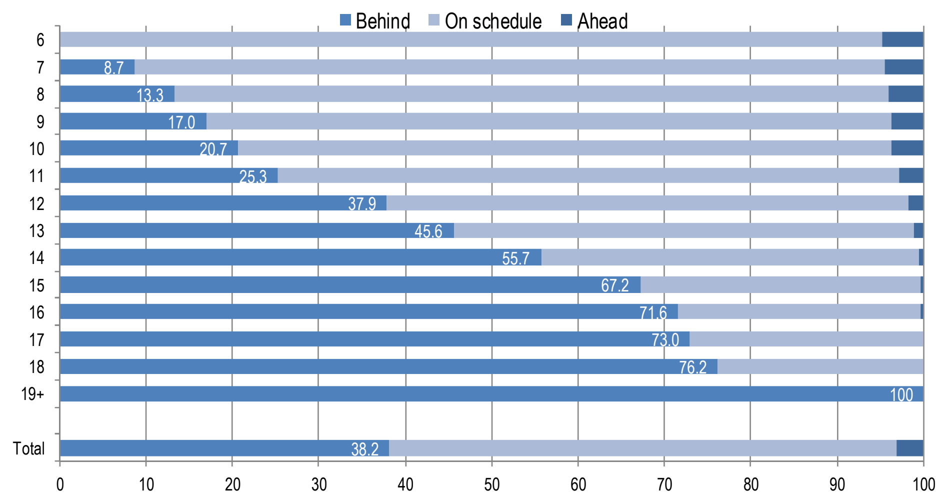
It appears especially difficult for Moroccans and youth from Asia (especially from China) to expand their friendship network beyond those of similar origin. These relationships appear correlated with school performance (Mussino and Strozza, 2011). Foreign students who have more Italian friends than foreign friends are more likely to have a regular educational pathway. For this reason, the practice of enrolling foreign students in classes with children who are younger should be avoided, since it threatens the socialisation process of the migrant students and generates an initial delay that may increase if the students fail to achieve the expected school performances. It also weakens the networks of immigrant youth, which are influential in later employment pathways.

Moreover, foreign student’s tendency to drop out of school is higher than that of Italians, which is already quite high (18.2%). Mussino and Stozza (2012) use the 2001 census to examine foreign students’ engagement in the school system. This seems particularly low for youth arriving in Italy at age 13-17, as they arrive in Italy when compulsory education is concluding or is finished, with the intention to work. The gap between Italians and foreign students, however, is also evident for foreign students who arrived in Italy as children (even before six years of age or when they were 6 to 12 years old). At age 16, 70% of foreigners are still in school, 10% less than their Italian peers. The gap widens to 20% at age 18.

Many factors can explain why children of immigrants are more likely to leave school early than children of natives do. In particular, this is related to their lower performance at school but also with the practice of placing immigrant students in classes with younger children. Nearly half of foreign pupils enrolled in a lower secondary programme were one or more years behind (Figure 5.2). This percentage jumps to nearly 70% of foreign students in upper secondary education. The presence of late arrivals partly explains why foreign pupils are more likely to repeat a class or to be assigned to a class with younger classmates when arriving from abroad. In some cases, this situation may contribute to lower the pupil’s motivation at school. New arrivals usually can benefit from additional Italian courses although these depend on the local school context, notably on the staff availability in the school. Although situations vary from one school to another, some of the schools report a lack of staff and financial resources to provide an adequate support to students in need of language courses. This is not surprising, as budget reductions have affected school ability to cover after-school support, or even to purchase basic supplies.

Mussino and Strozza (2012) show that immigration background is a key element to explain delayed educational pathways. Unsurprisingly, the risk of being held back is reduced with the number of years spent in the Italian school system and native-born children of immigrants, as well as immigrant pupils arrived before age five, do not face particular issues when accounting for resources and school engagement, socio-economic characteristics of the family and social capital. Linguistic skills, proxied by the amount of study the student puts in as well as getting help with homework, considerably reduce the risk of delayed pathways and implicitly advocate for pushing for early linguistic support to immigrant students to avoid putting them in a difficult situation. Finally, socialisation and having a network of Italian-speaking friends appear as a very positive factor and advocate for maintaining some ethnic diversity within schools. It is therefore important that students and their families are sufficiently informed about the importance of achieving at least a basic education degree. In particular, it is key to provide enough information and incentives to immigrant parents coming from countries where education system is less performing than in Italy.

Figure 5.2. Foreign students ahead, on schedule or behind in their school programme, by age, school year 2012-13



Source: MIUR (2013), "Gli alunni stranieri nel sistema scolastico".

At all levels of education at which pupils' schooling performances are tested, foreign pupils tend to perform worse than their Italian peers. Primary and lower secondary school tests report lower scores for foreign pupils compared with their national peers (INVALSI, 2013). Similar conclusions can be drawn for pupils who turn 15. Using differences in reading performance of 15-year-olds as an indication of school integration, immigrant students perform poorly in international comparisons although, compared with the situation of immigrants in the other OECD countries stated in Table 5.1, immigrants in Italy are the ones whose reading scores improved the most since 2006. In addition, their performance in reading is on average 74 points lower than the score of children of natives; this gap slightly widened since 2006, notably due to the progress made by the children of natives.

The difference in reading scores between immigrant students and children of natives is particularly large in northern regions, although the scores of both groups improved since 2006. The regional disparities are large for both groups, with a gap of 39 points between immigrant students in the best performing regions in the North and immigrant students in the least performing ones in the South (this gap roughly corresponds to one year of formal schooling). The corresponding gap is equal to 54 points for children of natives. Unsurprisingly, a high concentration of immigrant students in the best performing northern regions tends to attenuate the overall negative gap observed with the children of natives (Table 5.2).

Table 5.1. PISA 2006 and 2012 reading scores for native-born children of immigrants and immigrant students

Scores and point differences in reading scores compared with the children of natives

	Native-born children of immigrants					Immigrants				
	Non-adjusted for ESCS			Adjusted for ESCS		Non-adjusted for ESCS			Adjusted for ESCS	
	Score in 2012	2012	2006	2012	2006	Score in 2012	2012	2006	2012	2006
Austria	451	**-48**	**-79**	**-20**	**-49**	443	**-56**	**-48**	**-29**	**-25**
Belgium	466	**-55**	**-81**	**-32**	**-49**	443	**-78**	**-101**	**-55**	**-79**
Germany	481	**-41**	**-83**	**-13**	**-47**	445	**-77**	**-70**	**-51**	**-44**
Denmark	454	**-50**	**-64**	**-21**	**-37**	427	**-77**	**-79**	**-50**	**-50**
Spain	448	**-47**	-13	**-39**	-8	447	**-48**	**-55**	**-32**	**-47**
France	464	**-54**	**-36**	**-23**	-6	425	**-93**	**-45**	**-62**	-19
United Kingdom	494	-9	-7	-5	5	491	-12	**-44**	-6	**-33**
Greece	450	**-34**	-10	-19	-13	419	**-65**	**-37**	**-39**	-17
Ireland	518	-8	-18	-13	-21	513	**-12**	-14	**-12**	-19
Italy	457	**-40**	-7	**-27**	-6	422	**-74**	**-69**	**-58**	**-54**
North	465	**-58**	-40	**-46**	-35	430	**-94**	**-93**	**-77**	**-75**
Center	469	**-25**	..	-11	..	418	**-76**	..	**-59**	..
South	414	**-55**	-40	**-43**	-33	391	**-79**	**-121**	**-67**	**-107**
Luxembourg	463	**-48**	**-61**	**-16**	**-28**	467	**-44**	**-69**	**-18**	**-38**
Netherlands	465	**-55**	**-61**	**-30**	**-25**	460	**-59**	**-65**	**-41**	**-43**
Portugal	460	**-33**	**-34**	**-30**	**-44**	450	**-43**	**-69**	**-37**	**-65**
Sweden	457	**-39**	**-29**	**-24**	**-17**	400	**-96**	**-68**	**-67**	**-49**
United States	502	-	..	**26**	..	480	**-22**	..	6	..

Note: Differences in bold are statistically different from zero at a 5% level.

Source: Based on data from the 2006 and 2012 OECD Programme for International Student Assessment.

Differences in socio-economic background between immigrant students and children of natives contribute to enlarge the gap in performances between these two groups although this is less of an explanatory factor than in most other OECD countries shown in Table 5.2. Differences in the distribution by type of schools (lyceum, technical, vocational or lower secondary school) is a major factor to explain the gap in reading performance with children of natives. When controlling for region of residence and socio-economic background, accounting for distributions by type of school contribute to further close the gap in reading score by more than 20 points (from 69 to 46 points – see regressions 3 and 7 in Table 5.2).

Accounting for the percentage of immigrant students within the school also contributes to slightly reduce differences in reading scores between immigrant students and children of natives (Model 5 in Table 5.2). The impact is of similar magnitude as the one of the distribution by type of school. Interestingly, accounting for the percentage of low-educated mothers within the school or for the percentage of students not speaking Italian at home does not contribute as much to reduce the gap in reading performance with the children of natives.

The penalty for arriving late in one’s childhood is known to vary widely across OECD countries but it seems to be particularly pronounced for children with a low socio-economic background and/or who do not speak the host-country language at home (OECD, 2012b). Efficiency of host-country language courses as a foreign language at school are also supposed to have a major impact on immigrant student language proficiency. In Italy, the penalty for arriving late (48 points) is higher than the average of 15 OECD countries and it is particularly high in northern regions (57 points). While regional disparities are noticeable for immigrant students who started school in Italy, with good performances in reading in northern regions in international comparisons and poor performances in the southern regions, it appears that the penalty for arriving at age 12 or older age is large in all Italian regions (29 to 41 points lower than the OECD average in northern and southern regions, respectively). This is partly due to the fact that of the 15-year-old immigrant students arrived at age 12 or older, nearly four out of ten are still in a lower secondary school (media school) where the reading requirements are less demanding. This compares with 17% of immigrant students arrived before age 6.

The situation across OECD countries is even more diverse in terms of the impact of the language spoken at home. In Germany, Denmark and Sweden, speaking another language at home does not penalise immigrant students on average. In all other countries, the impact is negligible or slightly negative (United States, Luxembourg, Greece, and Ireland). The impact is negligible on average and in northern Italian regions while immigrant students are largely penalised in other regions (Centre and southern regions) when they speak another language at home. Regional differences in the supply of language courses at school may be an explanatory factor.

Native-born children of immigrant performances in reading are in-between those of immigrant children and those of children of natives. The difference with children of natives' performances (40 points on average) is similar in northern and southern regions. The socio-economic background accounts more for explaining the gap between the two groups than it does between immigrant students and children of natives.

Native-born children of immigrants and children of natives' distributions by type of schools (lyceum, technical, vocational or high school) are more similar than the distributions of immigrant students and children of natives. Consequently, accounting for these distributions does not tend to reduce significantly the gap in performance between the two groups. Conversely, accounting for the percentage of immigrant students within the school reduces the gap by half (regression 5 in Table 5.2).

Table 5.2. Percentage-point difference in 2012 PISA reading scores of children of immigrants compared with those of the children of native-born, accounting for some individual characteristics

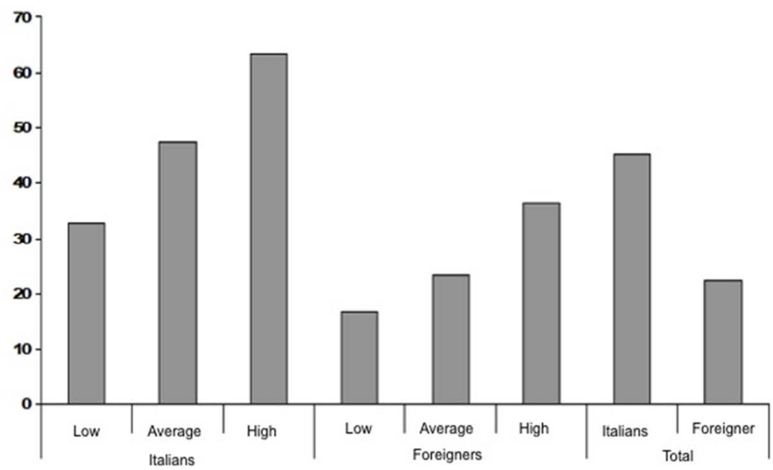
	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4	Model 5	Model 6	Model 7	Model 8
Native-born children of immigrants	**-39**	**-26**	**-36**	**-34**	**-17**	**-34**	**-32**	**-34**
Young immigrants	**-73**	**-56**	**-69**	**-64**	**-44**	**-57**	**-46**	**-60**
Control variable								
Gender	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Socio-economic backgroung		x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Region of residence			x	x	x	x	x	x
Concentration at school (based on education of mother)				x				
Concentration at school (based on % of immigrant students)					x			
Concentration at school (based on % of students not speaking Italian at home)						x		
Type of school							x	
Participation in pre-primary programme								x

Source: Based on data from the 2012 OECD Programme for International Student Assessment.

The results of the final exam all students have to pass at the end of lower secondary school (age of 13-14) confirm the importance of socio-economic background of families to explain students performances. Results are expressed using five grades, where five is the highest. Italian students who have at least one highly educated parent achieve high scores twice as frequently as students with two low-educated parents (Barban et al., 2008). A similar proportion is observed among foreign students. However, foreign students from low-educated families are twice less frequent than Italian students with a similar background to obtain high scores (four and five) at the final exam (Figure 5.3).

The difference remains valid even when comparing Italian-born foreign students: Italians score high twice as often as Italian-born foreigners. Therefore the number of years spent in school is not by itself an explanatory variable in determining the success of students: performance is strongly influenced by family background and school seems unable to compensate for weaknesses related to family background.

Figure 5.3. Percentage of students achieving high scores in the final lower secondary school exam, according to nationality and parental level of education



Source: Elaboration by Barban, N., G. Dalla-Zuanna, P. Farina and S. Strozza (2008), "I figli degli stranieri in Italia fra assimilazione disuguaglianza", *Department of Statistical Sciences Working Paper Series*, No. 16, University of Padua, from the IISTAT dataset ITAGEN2.

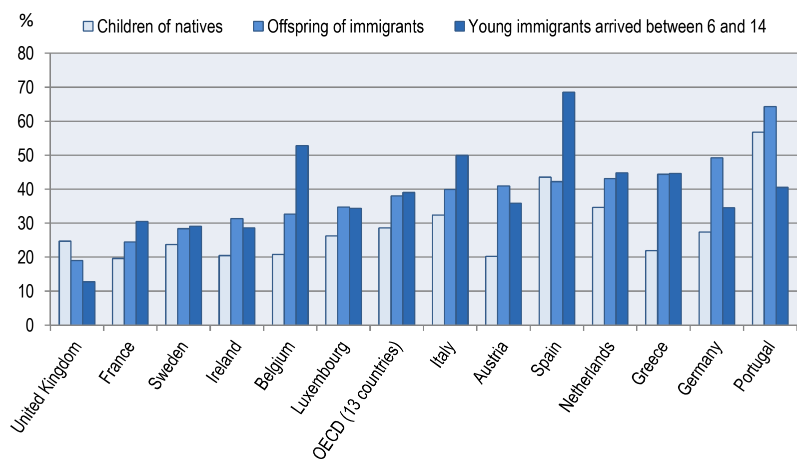
Education is compulsory from 6 to 16. After eight years of unique-cycle school – five years of primary school and three years of lower secondary ("scuola media"), during which there is no streaming, families must choose among two different pathways. The transition from lower to upper secondary schools is a selective step and the choice made by families strongly determines students' future professional careers. The exam all students have to pass in order to access the upper secondary school is an important turning point. Upper secondary school choice is mainly a reflection of the parents' socioeconomic status (Mocetti, 2007); for immigrants, their status compounds what is already an obstacle to vertical mobility in Italian society. A first option for students falls under the responsibility of the central government. It consists in a five-year programme provided by lyceums and professional and technical institutes. All of them give access to the university if the exam is passed after the five-year period, although lyceum is the most common pathway to university studies, and secondary school track is determinant of post-secondary choice (Checchi and Flabby, 2007). In lyceum, attendance is limited to the morning but significant homework is required. The second option is organised by regions and consists in three to four-year education and vocational training courses. A vocational certificate is awarded on the completion of three-year vocational courses and a vocational diploma after a cycle of four years. However, in the current system, only seven regions contemplate a fourth year in the vocational training system (Liguria, Lombardy, Piedmont, Sicily, Bolzano, Trento and Friuli Venezia Giulia). For the fifth year, only Lombardy and Bolzano provide courses in the vocational training system.

Most vocational certificates and diplomas are not yet recognised at the national level, although, under pressure from the European Union, the construction of a national framework for recognising VET diplomas is on-going. Post-vocational courses (400 to 600 hours) co-financed by the European Social Fund are also proposed by regions, catering specifically to disadvantaged groups (unemployed, migrants and disabled people). They do not lead to a nationally recognised qualification and their content largely reflects regional needs.

Transition from lower to upper secondary education

Overall, immigrants aged 15-29 (who arrived before age 15) and, to a lesser extent, immigrant offspring, tend to be less likely to achieve at least an upper secondary degree. This is partly due to the fact that they perform on average worse than children of natives at primary and lower secondary schools, as mentioned above. Overall, around four out of ten 15-29 immigrant offspring as well as five out of ten immigrants arrived between 6 and 14 have left school with no or low education. This compares with around a third of children of natives (Figure 5.4). It seems that children of immigrants face particular difficulties in the transition to upper secondary school.

Figure 5.4. Percentage of low-educated among children of natives, immigrant offspring and immigrants arrived between 6 and 14 in selected OECD countries, population aged 15-29, 2009 (excluding persons still in education)



Note: Data are ranked by the percentage for immigrant offspring by ascending order.

Source: Ad hoc EU Labour Force Surveys module (Eurostat).

Predominance of vocational pathways among children of immigrants

Beyond the above-mentioned difficulties faced by students with a foreign background to enrol in an upper secondary programme, it appears that those who manage to do so are predominantly enrolled in vocational programmes. In 2011/12, this was the case for four out of ten immigrant foreign students, compared with three out of ten native-born foreign students and less than two out of ten Italian students (Table 5.3). These schools are increasingly characterised by immigrant enrolment. Already in 2007, 20% of students enrolled in the first year of vocational school had foreign parents. In some regions this was even greater: across vocational schools run by the Veneto Region, 30% of students of these schools were foreigners.

Table 5.3. Distribution and share of Italian and foreign students by type of education in upper secondary schools, Italy, 2011-12 schooling year

Distribution of students by type of education (%)				Share of foreign students in each type of education (%)		
Type of education in upper secondary school	Italian students	Foreign students				
		Born in Italy	Born abroad	Born in Italy	Born abroad	Total
Scientific high school (lyceum)	23.8	14.3	9.8	0.4	2.4	2.8
Other high schools (lyceum)	11.8	5.4	3.9	0.3	1.9	2.2
Art institute	3.8	3.6	2.9	0.6	4.3	4.9
Former teaching institute	8.4	5.4	5.0	0.4	3.4	3.8
Technical institute	33.3	40.8	38.0	0.8	6.3	7.1
Vocational school	18.9	30.6	40.4	1.0	11.1	12.1
Total	100	100	100			
Total (thousands)	2 490.6	16.8	147.8	0.6	5.6	6.2

Source: Ministry of Education and ISMU (2012), "Alunni con cittadinanza non italiana, Rapporto nazionale 2011-2012", www.integrazionemigranti.gov.it/Attualita/News/Documents/Volume%20I%20parte.pdf.

Beyond school performances, the importance of the family expectations to determine the student's school orientation and final educational attainment is confirmed by several studies. Barban and White (2011) showed that children of immigrants' lower educational attainment was not only driven by lower performance at school but also by different family expectations as well as by a stronger willingness to rapidly access the labour market. This is confirmed by a recent survey conducted by ISFOL (Box 5.3) that showed that enrolling in a vocational programme is more frequently a choice for students with a foreign background than it is for children of natives, since more than half of the former (56%) enrolled immediately in a vocational training institution after obtaining the middle school diploma compared with 43.9% of children of native-born. The latter mostly accessed VET after failing in another schooling programme. Students with a foreign background were actually more likely to report good or very good marks at the middle school diploma: 13.5% of them report such marks compared with 10.4% of children of natives.

In this context, information about school orientation within the Italian system, notably at the end of lower secondary education is key in order to help students choosing the school pathway that best suits their competences. The above-mentioned ISFOL survey revealed that few students participated in orientation initiatives before enrolling in a vocational programme. Only 20.8% of students with a foreign background reported having done so, which is similar to the percentage observed among Italian students. Nearly 20% of pupils with a foreign background (20.3% of girls and 15.9% of boys) and 17.7% of Italians have used Internet to seek information on VET provision in their territories. More importantly, 42.2 % of Italian and 40.3% of pupils with foreign origins said they decided alone without searching or getting any advice.

The 2013 ISFOL survey also showed that more than 20% of immigrant students and native-born students with foreign-born parents were willing to access a higher level of education at the end of their vocational training. However, as stated above, the possibility to fulfil a fourth year is only possible in seven regions while a fifth year can only be completed in Lombardy and Bolzano.

Box 5.3. 2013 ISFOL survey: Second-generation, vocational training, employability and active citizenship (2013)

The survey involved nearly 4 000 students attending compulsory vocational education and training programmes in 124 vocational training institutions in Lombardy, Veneto, Emilia Romagna, Tuscany, Latium and Sicily. 3 675 questionnaires have been used for the analysis, half of which filled in by students with a foreign background (see table below). Most immigrant students or Italian-born students with immigrant parents are foreigners.

Students with a foreign background interviewed in the 2013 ISFOL survey, according to their place of birth and age at arrival

	Number of observations	%
Students with a foreign parent and one parent born in Italy	149	8.1
Native-born children of immigrants	488	26.5
Students arrived in Italy before the age of 6	212	11.5
Students arrived in Italy between 6 and 12 year-old	541	29.4
Students arrived in Italy between 13 and 17 year old	434	23.6
Students arrived in Italy at the age of 18 or older *	16	0.9
Total	1 840	100

1. This group has been dropped from the analysis as estimates were not statistically significant.

Source: Data elaborated by ISFOL.

The topics covered were the family situation and the migratory pathway; studies and training; satisfaction with the choice of VET and integration within the training centres; prospects and expectations regarding employment; linguistic and social integration outside the training context. The questionnaires were administered in April-June 2013. The survey was financed by the Ministry of Labour.

While 56.3% of the students with a foreign background attended compulsory school in Italy (this is the case especially for young people from non-EU European countries), 24.1% started compulsory school abroad and ended in Italy (the bulk of whom come from North Africa), 10.8% attended primary and middle school abroad and obtained their middle school diploma in their country of origin (mainly students from sub-Saharan Africa).

Italian as a second language

The table below shows that the percentage of students attending Italian courses as a second language tends to increase with the age at arrival. However, 21.9% of young people arrived in Italy between 13 and 17 years old report not having attended any Italian course.

The questionnaire includes a self-assessed evaluation of speaking, reading and writing competences in Italian. As far as speaking and reading are concerned, small differences are found in proficiency in Italian between Italian and foreign students, with more than 90% declaring being good or very good. Students with a foreign background are however more likely (8.2%) to report poor or very poor writing competences (this compares with 3.1% of the Italian students). This is the case of 15.8% of the immigrant students who arrived between 13 and 17.

Box 5.3. 2013 ISFOL survey: Second-generation, vocational training, employability and active citizenship (2013) *(cont.)*

To learn Italian, did you attend Italian as a second language courses

Percentages

	Migration status				
	Students with a foreign parent and one parent born in Italy	Native-born children of immigrants	Students arrived in Italy before the age of 6	Students arrived in Italy between 6 and 12 years	Students arrived in Italy between 13 and 17 years
Yes, organised by the school that I attended before enrolling in VET	8	21	11	34	49
Yes, organised by VET I currently attend	0	4	2	2	10
Yes, organised by associations or other bodies	0	6	2	5	11
No, I have not attended any courses	62	56	80	55	22
No answer	31	13	6	5	8

Source: Data elaborated by ISFOL.

Satisfaction in the traineeship experience

Overall, the experience of the traineeships (from 100 to 300 hours in the second or third year) is reported as a positive experience by most students who see it as a way to acquire specific knowledge of the professional environment and attitudes and to provide subsequent job opportunities. No case of discrimination is reported by students with a foreign background.

Good practices identified through the ISFOL survey

While the ISFOL survey notes that no national strategy for intercultural courses for teachers exists in Italy, it identifies several examples of good practice. For instance, in Milan, the Vocational Training Institution "Clerici" offers courses to teachers in intercultural issues which are funded through the Joint Inter-professional Fund for continuing education, as well as through the Structural Funds from transnational projects. Over the last decade, the province of Bologna (as part of its initial vocational training courses) has promoted courses for teachers in the field of intercultural pedagogy and teaching methods, through the organisation of meetings, seminars and training courses. These practices are by no means new, as intercultural courses and content have been promoted by the Ministry of Education since 1990, before there was a significant immigrant presence in the school system (Giovannini, 2006).

Transition from school to work

In the recent years, the overall situation of young workers (both Italians and foreigners) in the labour market is problematic in Italy. In 2012, youth unemployment was equal to 35.2% of the youth labour force (aged 15 to 24 years old) and has reached 38.4% in August 2013 (compared with 23% on average in the European Union). Only Greece, Portugal and Spain have reached higher rates. Youngsters were 3.6 times more likely to be unemployed than adults. Moreover, a quarter of the youth population is neither in employment, education or training (NEET) and the incidence of temporary work is high in international comparisons (49.9% compared with 40.6% in the European Union in 2011).

The very difficult labour market conditions of young people are partly the result of the deep and prolonged economic crisis that started in 2008-09 with the Great Recession. But it also depends on more structural factors, including the weak links between training pathways and the labour market. In a classification established by the OECD, the school-to-work transition in Italy is characterised by a model of study first and then work (OECD, 2010b). Youngsters in Italy have a below-average median age of leaving school and their transition to work takes longer. Italy is one of the countries with the highest share of 15-29 who never held a job longer than three months. This holds true both for immigrant offspring and children of natives: more than half of them never found a job longer than three months (Table 5.4). Another feature of the integration of young adults in Italy is the low return on education, with highly educated young workers experiencing comparable unemployment rates to their low-educated peers. To respond to difficulties faced by youngsters to access to the labour market in times of crisis, the government recently put in place a Youth Plan.

In this overall gloomy picture, immigrant offspring school-to-work transition and labour market outcomes present some specificities. Those who found a job longer than three months are more likely to have worked during their studies or shortly after they have finished formal education. This is partly due to their overrepresentation in short-vocational training programmes. Overall, this means that the transition from school-to-work for immigrant offspring who managed to access the labour market is shorter than for children of natives (Table 5.4).

Table 5.4. Percentage of the 15-29 who never worked and time spent to find a first job longer than three months for the others, by migration background, population aged 15-29, 2009

	Offspring of immigrants		Young immigrants arrived between 6 and 15		Young immigrants arrived between 15 and 19		Native-born	
	Never worked	Transition from school to work*	Never worked	Transition from school to work	Never worked	Transition from school to work	Never worked	Transition from school to work
	No job longer than 3 months (%)	Duration in months	No job longer than 3 months (%)	Duration in months	No job longer than 3 months (%)	Duration in months	No job longer than 3 months (%)	Duration in months
Austria	26	12	18	11	43	20	17	8
Belgium	35	19	32	14	65	1	28	7
Germany	66	5	52	3	81	14	61	5
Denmark	30	15	35	21	33	25	15	5
Spain	56	17	71	27	42	19	33	17
France	32	11	48	12	65	16	29	8
Greece	39	20	30	26	34	22	35	27
Ireland	15	3	36	5	18	10	16	6
Italy	*53*	*16*	*59*	*17*	*46*	*19*	*59*	*25*
Luxembourg	19	9	22	8	17	6	20	7
Netherlands	20	11	20	10	43	8	9	6
Portugal	15	35	24	8	17	6	16	16
Sweden	41	8	39	5	37	12	30	5
United Kingdom	11	8	8	7	28	10	8	6
OECD (14 countries)	33	14	35	12	41	13	27	10

Note: Young immigrants arrived between 15 and 19 include those trained abroad.

Source: EU Labour Force Surveys ad hoc module (Eurostat).

As mentioned for immigrants in general, informal ways to find a first job is a common practise among both immigrant offspring and young immigrants partly educated in Italy, compared with standards in most other OECD countries. It can even be considered as the norm for late comers, since more than two-thirds of young immigrants who arrived after the age of 10 got their first job through friends or relatives.

For a significant part of young adults with a foreign background, the quicker transition from school to work does not translate into a stable position in the labour market at least five years after finishing school. First, compared with the situation in other OECD countries, immigrant offspring hold shorter duration first jobs (Table 5.5). Second, at least five years after they have left school, immigrant offspring are less likely to be in a stable job (permanent or full-time). Third, 15-29 immigrant offspring experience higher unemployment rates than children of natives (Table 5.7).

Table 5.5. Mean duration of the first job longer than three months, by migration background, population aged 15-29, 2009

Average duration in months

	Offspring of immigrants	Young immigrants arrived between 6 and 15	Young immigrants arrived between 15 and 19	Native-born
Austria	20	25	13	23
Belgium	17	21	6	22
Germany	25	17	16	22
Denmark	12	9	16	17
Spain	28	12	18	20
France	18	15	22	18
Greece	14	14	12	18
Ireland	24	20	21	27
Italy	*11*	*19*	*18*	*21*
Luxembourg	22	18	19	27
Netherlands	21	27	11	21
Portugal	25	24	17	25
Sweden	18	20	11	17
United Kingdom	32	16	14	29
OECD (14 countries)	21	18	15	22

Note: Young immigrants arrived before 15 are only those who got their last diploma in their current country of residence.

Source: EU Labour Force Surveys ad hoc module (Eurostat).

Finally, even if the difference in salary between young Italians and young foreigners is less marked than among adults (EUR 35 a month less for young immigrants versus EUR 316 for adult immigrants), young foreigners show a lower level of education, a lower level of qualification at work, and higher level of over-qualification (Fondazione Moressa, 2011). Only 7.5% of young foreigners are employed in a high-qualified position, versus 42.3% of young Italians; 36% of young foreigners are over-qualified while the percentage for young Italians in the same condition is 27.7%. In other terms, young foreigners seem to invest less in human capital and seem unable to fully exploit their education when entering the labour market (Table 5.6). This scenario is particularly worrying as it suggests that the divisions currently observable in the labour market between Italians and foreigners will persist. Without targeted policies, native-born children of immigrants will share the fate of the first generation, in this way disappointing the expectations of some parents who chose migration as a means to improve conditions for their family.

Table 5.6. Levels of education and of qualification, by nationality, 1st semester 2011

Foreigners	Highly educated	Medium educated	Low educated
High level of qualification	38.4	4.7	1.7
Average level of qualification	35.0	69.7	67.8
Low level of qualification	26.6	25.7	30.5
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0

Italians	Highly educated	Medium educated	Low educated
High level of qualification	71.4	25.4	5.7
Average level of qualification	28.2	69.5	79.4
Low level of qualification	0.4	5.1	14.9
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: Elaboration by Fondazione Moressa based on ISTAT LFS datasets.

Overall, the labour market integration of immigrant offspring is poor in international comparison and substantially worse than the situation of the children of natives. Immigrant offspring experience higher unemployment rates, while young immigrants who arrived between 15 and 19 are more likely to fall in the NEET group compared with children of natives (Table 5.7).

Table 5.7. Youth unemployment and NEET rates by place of birth in selected OECD countries, 2009

Differences in percentage points compared with children of native-born

	Youth unemployment			NEET rates		
	Offspring of immigrants and arrived before 10	Young immigrants arrived between 10 and 14	Young immigrants arrived between 15 and 19	Offspring of immigrants and arrived before 10	Young immigrants arrived between 10 and 14	Young immigrants arrived between 15 and 19
Austria	2.7	0.9	1.2	2.2	1.4	4.0
Belgium	2.5	3.4	3.7	2.1	1.5	2.8
Germany	1.9	1.0	2.2	1.7	1.4	2.6
Denmark	1.4	3.6	1.5	1.4	3.5	2.8
Spain	1.4	1.3	1.3	1.1	1.1	1.8
France	1.4	0.8	2.3	1.5	1.1	2.8
Greece	1.1	1.0	0.8	0.9	1.5	1.9
Ireland	1.3	1.4	0.9	0.9	1.0	1.2
Italy	1.3	1.6	0.8	0.8	1.0	1.5
Luxembourg	1.6	1.8	4.1	1.4	1.4	2.1
Netherlands	2.1	2.2	2.5	2.1	3.1	4.6
Portugal	1.3	2.1	1.8	1.0	1.0	2.0
Sweden	1.2	1.7	1.8	1.2	0.7	1.5
United Kingdom	1.4	1.8	1.0	1.0	0.9	1.2
OECD (14 countries)	1.5	1.6	1.6	1.2	1.3	2.0

Note: For sampling issues, the definition of immigrant offspring has been enlarged to immigrants arrived before the age of ten. Young immigrants arrived between 15 and 19 include those trained abroad.

Source: 2009 ad hoc EU Labour Force Survey module (Eurostat).

The situation of immigrant offspring has not received yet enough attention in terms of national policies and the debate about the procedure to acquire Italian citizenship is still on-going. Associations of second generation youth are working to raising awareness on the issue of access to nationality and to promote a better integration of immigrant offspring in the Italian labour market (Box 5.4). As mentioned, immigrant offspring can request Italian citizenship when they turn 18, but must demonstrate that they have continuously lived in the country for their entire life; proving residence was made simpler in August 2013. Qualitative research on the topic (Colombo, 2010; ReteG2, 2012) shows that uncertain legal status puts pressure on immigrant offspring of non-EU nationality, even if they spent all or most of their life in Italy. This can influence their choices in terms of education and employment and can contribute to explain their preference for vocational training courses, and their over-qualification rates. In fact, the need to find a job in order to protect their status of legal immigrant can push them towards training paths that are perceived as closer to the labour market.

Box 5.4. Initiatives and policies related to migrant offspring

With reference to initiatives, second generation associations such as G2 (Seconde Generazioni – www.secondegenerazioni.it) or Associna (www.associna.com) are particularly active in promoting social recognition of migrant offspring and in conducting awareness raising campaigns. A recent campaign was "Italia sono anch'io" (I'm also Italy), promoted by 22 organisations including non-profits, NGOs, trade unions, political parties and public administration. The campaign pushed for a change in naturalisation criteria and the extension of voting rights in local elections to long-term permanent residents.

With reference to policies dedicated to migrant offspring, it is difficult to recognise best practices as evaluations of their impacts are not yet available. At a national level, within the interministerial web portal dedicated to migrant integration policies, a specific section is dedicated to foreign minors. Local level initiatives include, for example, an office in the Municipality of Milan providing information to second generation adolescents interested in applying for naturalisation.

Note

1. Barban et al. (2008) used a statistically representative sample to investigate the integration of migrant offspring by looking at three dimensions: friendship-based relationships, opinions on women's social role and attitudes toward the future. The first dimension, that of friendship, is especially revealing: almost all the interviewed youth have at least one Italian friend, but the frequency of their meetings outside of school time is strictly related to the length of their stay in Italy. Although 35% of those recently arrived in Italy meet Italian peers outside school, as time spent in Italy increases, so does the frequency of interactions with Italian peers; 76% of migrant offspring born in Italy meet Italian peers after school, identical to the Italian average. Only recently arrived adolescents seem to experience difficulties in creating good relationships with Italian peers. Their condition is expected to improve with time.

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Annex A
Regional data on immigrant populations and their children

Regional data on immigrant populations and their children: ABRUZZO

ABRUZZO

Macroeconomic indicators

	Abruzzo		Italy			Abruzzo		Italy	
	2012	Change since 2007	2012	Change since 2007	**Employment by sector of activity (% of total employment)**	2008	2012	2008	2012
GDP per capita (EUR, 2011)	22 062	+ 283	26 003	- 183					
Employment rate (%)	56.8	- 1.0	56.8	- 1.9	Agriculture	4.1	2.9	3.7	3.7
Unemployment rate (%)	10.8	+ 4.6	10.7	+ 4.6	Industry	30.9	32.4	29.9	27.8
Average housing cost (EUR, 2010)	55		119		Services	65.0	64.7	66.4	68.5

Characteristics of the foreign population

	Abruzzo		Italy			2011 Census			
	2012	Change since 2007	2012	Change since 2007	**% of total foreign population**	Women	0-14	15-64	65+
Thousands	89	+ 21	5 186	+1 199	Abruzzo	54.9	18.0	79.1	3.0
%	6.8	+ 1.7	8.7	+ 2.0	Italy	53.3	20.0	77.6	2.4

	Abruzzo		Italy			Abruzzo		Italy	
Region of nationality (%)	2007	2012	2007	2012	**Top 3 third-country nationals (%)**	2007	2012	2007	2012
EU27	42.2	38.2	34.3	27.4	Albania	28.7	25.4	15.5	13.2
Other Europe	33.0	32.6	22.3	22.9	Morocco	10.9	12.9	14.8	13.6
North Africa	7.9	10.1	14.6	15.3	China	10.1	10.9	6.8	8.1
Other Africa	2.6	3.4	6.1	6.9	**Type of permit held (%)**	2010	2012	2010	2012
Asia and Oceania	9.5	11.2	15.2	19.4	Permanent (EC + relative of EU resident)	48.7	55.5	46.3	54.3
Americas	4.8	4.5	7.5	8.0	Short-term (work)	26.4	20.1	29.8	22.1
					Short-term (family)	22.1	21.2	19.5	18.7
Duration of stay (%, 2012)	Abruzzo		Italy		Short-term (humanitarian)	0.6	0.8	1.6	2.0
<5 years	34.2		35.0		Short-term (other)	2.2	2.4	2.7	2.8
5 years and more	65.8		65.0		Total (thousands)	51	55	3 536	3 764

Labour market outcomes by nationality

	Abruzzo		Italy			Abruzzo		Italy	
Employment rate	2012	Change since 2008	2012	Change since 2008	**Unemployment rate**	2012	Change since 2008	2012	Change since 2008
Foreigners	57.3	+ 0.6	60.6	- 6.5	Foreigners	14.3	+ 8.2	14.1	+ 5.6
Italians	57.8	- 1.3	56.4	- 1.7	Italians	10.5	+ 3.9	10.3	+ 3.7

Foreign-born employment by sector and country of birth

	Top 3 sectors (% of total foreign-born employment)	Top 3 countries of birth (% of foreign-born employment in each sector)		
		Romania	Albania	Switzerland
All sectors	100.0	22.2	6.2	5.2
Building	15.6	43.6	25.4	5.7
Agriculture	7.1	43.9	9.5	0.0
Hotels and restaurants	6.1	50.0	16.4	9.5

New hirings and job losses by nationality (thousands)

New hirings in 2011			Job losses in 2011		
	Abruzzo	Italy		Abruzzo	Italy
Foreign-born	7	384	Foreign-born	38	1 684
Native-born	14	619	Native-born	124	5 453

Foreign children in education (2010/2011)

% of all students, by level of education	Abruzzo	Italy
Pre-primary	7.1	9.2
Primary	7.6	9.5
Lower secondary	8.0	9.3
Upper secondary	4.6	6.2

Regional data on immigrant populations and their children: AOSTA VALLEY

AOSTA VALLEY

Macroeconomic indicators

	Aosta Valley 2012	Aosta Valley Change since 2007	Italy 2012	Italy Change since 2007
GDP per capita (EUR, 2011)	35 265	+ 725	26 003	- 183
Employment rate (%)	66.4	- 1.8	56.8	- 1.9
Unemployment rate (%)	7.1	+ 4.0	10.7	+ 4.6
Average housing cost (EUR, 2010)	95		119	

Employment by sector of activity (% of total employment)	Aosta Valley 2008	Aosta Valley 2012	Italy 2008	Italy 2012
Agriculture	3.9	4.0	3.7	3.7
Industry	25.4	22.5	29.9	27.8
Services	70.7	73.6	66.4	68.5

Characteristics of the foreign population

	Aosta Valley 2012	Aosta Valley Change since 2007	Italy 2012	Italy Change since 2007
Thousands	11	+ 3	5 186	+1 199
%	8.6	+ 2.2	8.7	+ 2.0

% of total foreign population	2011 Census Women	0-14	15-64	65+
Aosta Valley	56.2	19.7	77.3	3.0
Italy	53.3	20.0	77.6	2.4

Region of nationality (%)	Aosta Valley 2007	Aosta Valley 2012	Italy 2007	Italy 2012
EU27	32.3	36.4	34.3	27.4
Other Europe	17.5	18.2	22.3	22.9
North Africa	36.6	27.3	14.6	15.3
Other Africa	1.8	0.0	6.1	6.9
Asia and Oceania	4.3	9.1	15.2	19.4
Americas	7.6	9.1	7.5	8.0

Duration of stay (%, 2012)	Aosta Valley	Italy
<5 years	39.9	35.0
5 years and more	60.1	65.0

Top 3 third-country nationals (%)	Aosta Valley 2007	Aosta Valley 2012	Italy 2007	Italy 2012
Morocco	40.7	38.6	14.8	13.6
Albania	15.7	15.4	15.5	13.2
Tunisia	10.1	8.9	3.7	3.2
Type of permit held (%)	2010	2012	2010	2012
Permanent (EC + relative of EU resident)	43.8	46.2	46.3	54.3
Short-term (work)	25.4	21.5	29.8	22.1
Short-term (family)	28.0	28.3	19.5	18.7
Short-term (humanitarian)	0.3	0.9	1.6	2.0
Short-term (other)	2.5	3.2	2.7	2.8
Total (thousands)	6	7	3 536	3 764

Labour market outcomes by nationality

Employment rate	Aosta Valley 2012	Aosta Valley Change since 2008	Italy 2012	Italy Change since 2008
Foreigners	61.7	- 5.7	60.6	- 6.5
Italians	64.1	- 1.0	56.4	- 1.7

Unemployment rate	Aosta Valley 2012	Aosta Valley Change since 2008	Italy 2012	Italy Change since 2008
Foreigners	17.0	+ 7.3	14.1	+ 5.6
Italians	8.1	+ 3.6	10.3	+ 3.7

Foreign-born employment by sector and country of birth

	Top 3 sectors (% of total foreign-born employment)	Top 3 countries of birth (% of foreign-born employment in each sector) n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
All sectors	100.0	..	..	..
Hotels and restaurants	13.6	..	..	..
Building	6.5	..	..	..
Agriculture	3.9	..	..	..

New hirings and job losses by nationality (thousands)

New hirings in 2011	Aosta Valley	Italy
Foreign-born	1	384
Native-born	1	619

Job losses in 2011	Aosta Valley	Italy
Foreign-born	5	1 684
Native-born	15	5 453

Foreign children in education (2010/2011)

% of all students, by level of education	Aosta Valley	Italy
Pre-primary	10.7	9.2
Primary	9.5	9.5
Lower secondary	8.5	9.3
Upper secondary	5.0	6.2

Regional data on immigrant populations and their children: APULIA

APULIA

Macroeconomic indicators

	Apulia 2012	Apulia Change since 2007	Italy 2012	Italy Change since 2007
GDP per capita (EUR, 2011)	17 546	+ 70	26 003	- 183
Employment rate (%)	45.0	- 1.7	56.8	- 1.9
Unemployment rate (%)	15.7	+ 4.5	10.7	+ 4.6
Average housing cost (EUR, 2010)	64		119	

Employment by sector of activity (% of total employment)	Apulia 2008	Apulia 2012	Italy 2008	Italy 2012
Agriculture	8.4	8.9	3.7	3.7
Industry	26.1	24.1	29.9	27.8
Services	65.5	67.0	66.4	68.5

Characteristics of the foreign population

	Apulia 2012	Apulia Change since 2007	Italy 2012	Italy Change since 2007
Thousands	114	+ 44	5 186	+1 199
%	2.8	+ 1.1	8.7	+ 2.0

% of total foreign population	2011 Census Women	0-14	15-64	65+
Apulia	55.3	17.1	79.8	3.0
Italy	53.3	20.0	77.6	2.4

Region of nationality (%)	Apulia 2007	Apulia 2012	Italy 2007	Italy 2012
EU27	30.0	36.8	34.3	27.4
Other Europe	35.8	25.4	22.3	22.9
North Africa	12.3	10.5	14.6	15.3
Other Africa	7.6	7.0	6.1	6.9
Asia and Oceania	10.9	16.7	15.2	19.4
Americas	3.4	3.5	7.5	8.0

Duration of stay (%, 2012)	Apulia	Italy
<5 years	46.8	35.0
5 years and more	53.2	65.0

Top 3 third-country nationals (%)	Apulia 2007	Apulia 2012	Italy 2007	Italy 2012
Albania	41.5	31.8	15.5	13.2
Morocco	11.9	11.9	14.8	13.6
China	6.3	6.7	6.8	8.1
Type of permit held (%)	2010	2012	2010	2012
Permanent (EC + relative of EU resident)	35.6	42.1	46.3	54.3
Short-term (work)	31.1	24.7	29.8	22.1
Short-term (family)	21.9	19.6	19.5	18.7
Short-term (humanitarian)	9.0	10.4	1.6	2.0
Short-term (other)	2.4	3.1	2.7	2.8
Total (thousands)	67	72	3 536	3 764

Labour market outcomes by nationality

Employment rate	Apulia 2012	Apulia Change since 2008	Italy 2012	Italy Change since 2008
Foreigners	53.6	- 7.4	60.6	- 6.5
Italians	44.7	- 1.8	56.4	- 1.7

Unemployment rate	Apulia 2012	Apulia Change since 2008	Italy 2012	Italy Change since 2008
Foreigners	15.4	+ 6.9	14.1	+ 5.6
Italians	15.7	+ 4.0	10.3	+ 3.7

Foreign-born employment by sector and country of birth

	Top 3 sectors (% of total foreign-born employment)	Top 3 countries of birth (% of foreign-born employment in each sector)		
		Romania	Albania	Switzerland
All sectors	100.0	26.8	9.7	8.2
Agriculture	28.5	50.0	13.0	2.4
Building	6.9	28.9	29.5	16.4
Hotels and restaurants	6.1	40.0	16.3	14.1

New hirings and job losses by nationality (thousands)

New hirings in 2011	Apulia	Italy
Foreign-born	17	384
Native-born	44	619

Job losses in 2011	Apulia	Italy
Foreign-born	66	1 684
Native-born	422	5 453

Foreign children in education (2010/2011)

% of all students, by level of education	Apulia	Italy
Pre-primary	2.3	9.2
Primary	2.7	9.5
Lower secondary	2.4	9.3
Upper secondary	1.7	6.2

Regional data on immigrant populations and their children: BASILICATA

BASILICATA

Macroeconomic indicators

	Basilicata		Italy			Basilicata		Italy	
	2012	Change since 2007	2012	Change since 2007	**Employment by sector of activity (% of total employment)**	2008	2012	2008	2012
GDP per capita (EUR, 2011)	18 437	+ 183	26 003	- 183					
Employment rate (%)	46.9	- 2.7	56.8	- 1.9	Agriculture	7.7	8.0	3.7	3.7
Unemployment rate (%)	14.5	+ 4.9	10.7	+ 4.6	Industry	27.8	27.5	29.9	27.8
Average housing cost (EUR, 2010)	60		119		Services	64.5	64.5	66.4	68.5

Characteristics of the foreign population

	Basilicata		Italy			2011 Census			
	2012	Change since 2007	2012	Change since 2007	**% of total foreign population**	Women	0-14	15-64	65+
Thousands	17	+ 7	5 186	+1 199	Basilicata	57.5	16.0	82.2	1.8
%	3.0	+ 1.3	8.7	+ 2.0	Italy	53.3	20.0	77.6	2.4

	Basilicata		Italy			Basilicata		Italy	
Region of nationality (%)	2007	2012	2007	2012	**Top 3 third-country nationals (%)**	2007	2012	2007	2012
EU27	43.8	58.8	34.3	27.4	Albania	25.3	20.9	15.5	13.2
Other Europe	25.1	17.6	22.3	22.9	Morocco	21.2	19.2	14.8	13.6
North Africa	15.6	11.8	14.6	15.3	China	9.5	11.8	6.8	8.1
Other Africa	1.8	0.0	6.1	6.9	**Type of permit held (%)**	2010	2012	2010	2012
Asia and Oceania	9.9	11.8	15.2	19.4	Permanent (EC + relative of EU resident)	38.7	43.8	46.3	54.3
Americas	3.7	0.0	7.5	8.0	Short-term (work)	33.8	28.0	29.8	22.1
					Short-term (family)	21.7	20.2	19.5	18.7
Duration of stay (%, 2012)	Basilicata		Italy		Short-term (humanitarian)	2.1	4.7	1.6	2.0
<5 years	42.4		35.0		Short-term (other)	3.7	3.3	2.7	2.8
5 years and more	57.6		65.0		Total (thousands)	7	8	3 536	3 764

Labour market outcomes by nationality

	Basilicata		Italy			Basilicata		Italy	
Employment rate	2012	Change since 2008	2012	Change since 2008	**Unemployment rate**	2012	Change since 2008	2012	Change since 2008
Foreigners	52.0	- 12.0	60.6	- 6.5	Foreigners	13.7	+ 3.9	14.1	+ 5.6
Italians	47.7	- 1.7	56.4	- 1.7	Italians	14.6	+ 3.5	10.3	+ 3.7

Foreign-born employment by sector and country of birth

	Top 3 sectors (% of total foreign-born employment)	Top 3 countries of birth (% of foreign-born employment in each sector)		
		Romania	Albania	India
All sectors	100.0	27.3	3.2	2.6
Agriculture	32.1	60.5	100.0	100.0
Building	4.2	12.0	0.0	0.0
Hotels and restaurants	2.4	8.1	0.0	0.0

New hirings and job losses by nationality (thousands)

New hirings in 2011			Job losses in 2011		
	Basilicata	Italy		Basilicata	Italy
Foreign-born	3	384	Foreign-born	11	1 684
Native-born	5	619	Native-born	59	5 453

Foreign children in education (2010/2011)

% of all students, by level of education	Basilicata	Italy
Pre-primary	2.4	9.2
Primary	2.9	9.5
Lower secondary	2.3	9.3
Upper secondary	1.6	6.2

Regional data on immigrant populations and their children: BOLZANO

BOLZANO

Macroeconomic indicators

	Bolzano		Italy	
	2012	Change since 2007	2012	Change since 2007
GDP per capita (EUR, 2011)	36 604	+1 374	26 003	- 183
Employment rate (%)	71.9	+ 2.1	56.8	- 1.9
Unemployment rate (%)	4.1	+ 1.6	10.7	+ 4.6
Average housing cost (EUR, 2010)	165		119	

Employment by sector of activity (% of total employment)	Bolzano 2008	Bolzano 2012	Italy 2008	Italy 2012
Agriculture	7.4	6.5	3.7	3.7
Industry	23.5	22.2	29.9	27.8
Services	69.1	71.4	66.4	68.5

Characteristics of the foreign population

	Bolzano		Italy	
	2012	Change since 2007	2012	Change since 2007
Thousands	50	+ 8	5 186	+1 199
%	9.8	+ 1.3	8.7	+ 2.0

	2011 Census			
% of total foreign population	Women	0-14	15-64	65+
Bolzano	54.1	19.9	75.4	4.7
Italy	53.3	20.0	77.6	2.4

	Bolzano		Italy	
Region of nationality (%)	2007	2012	2007	2012
EU27	34.8	32.0	34.3	27.4
Other Europe	34.7	34.0	22.3	22.9
North Africa	11.1	12.0	14.6	15.3
Other Africa	1.5	2.0	6.1	6.9
Asia and Oceania	13.5	16.0	15.2	19.4
Americas	4.3	4.0	7.5	8.0

Duration of stay (%, 2012)	Bolzano	Italy
<5 years	..	35.0
5 years and more	..	65.0

	Bolzano		Italy	
Top 3 third-country nationals (%)	2007	2012	2007	2012
Albania	19.0	17.2	15.5	13.2
Morocco	11.9	11.5	14.8	13.6
Serbia-Kosovo-Montenegro	12.0	10.9	3.1	2.8
Type of permit held (%)	2010	2012	2010	2012
Permanent (EC + relative of EU resident)	67.5	73.1	46.3	54.3
Short-term (work)	18.4	10.9	29.8	22.1
Short-term (family)	10.8	12.4	19.5	18.7
Short-term (humanitarian)	2.1	2.6	1.6	2.0
Short-term (other)	1.2	1.1	2.7	2.8
Total (thousands)	32	34	3 536	3 764

Labour market outcomes by nationality

	Bolzano		Italy	
Employment rate	2012	Change since 2008	2012	Change since 2008
Foreigners	..	..	60.6	- 6.5
Italians	..	..	56.4	- 1.7

	Bolzano		Italy	
Unemployment rate	2012	Change since 2008	2012	Change since 2008
Foreigners	..	..	14.1	+ 5.6
Italians	..	..	10.3	+ 3.7

Foreign-born employment by sector and country of birth

	Top 3 sectors (% of total foreign-born employment)	Top 3 countries of birth (% of foreign-born employment in each sector)		
		n.a.	n.a.	
All sectors	100.0	..	..	..
n.a.	..	..	..	..
n.a.	..	..	..	..
n.a.	..	..	..	..

New hirings and job losses by nationality (thousands)

New hirings in 2011	Bolzano	Italy
Foreign-born	11	384
Native-born	6	619

Job losses in 2011	Bolzano	Italy
Foreign-born	44	1 684
Native-born	63	5 453

Foreign children in education (2010/2011)

% of all students, by level of education	Bolzano	Italy
Pre-primary	12.2	9.2
Primary	9.4	9.5
Lower secondary	8.7	9.3
Upper secondary	7.0	6.2

Regional data on immigrant populations and their children: CALABRIA

CALABRIA

Macroeconomic indicators

	Calabria 2012	Calabria Change since 2007	Italy 2012	Italy Change since 2007
GDP per capita (EUR, 2011)	16 877	+ 184	26 003	- 183
Employment rate (%)	41.6	- 3.3	56.8	- 1.9
Unemployment rate (%)	19.3	+ 8.1	10.7	+ 4.6
Average housing cost (EUR, 2010)	49		119	

Employment by sector of activity (% of total employment)	Calabria 2008	Calabria 2012	Italy 2008	Italy 2012
Agriculture	9.0	10.6	3.7	3.7
Industry	19.0	16.8	29.9	27.8
Services	71.9	72.6	66.4	68.5

Characteristics of the foreign population

	Calabria 2012	Calabria Change since 2007	Italy 2012	Italy Change since 2007
Thousands	88	+ 40	5 186	+1 199
%	4.5	+ 2.1	8.7	+ 2.0

% of total foreign population	2011 Census Women	0-14	15-64	65+
Calabria	55.6	15.7	82.4	1.9
Italy	53.3	20.0	77.6	2.4

Region of nationality (%)	Calabria 2007	Calabria 2012	Italy 2007	Italy 2012
EU27	43.5	50.0	34.3	27.4
Other Europe	17.7	13.6	22.3	22.9
North Africa	19.7	15.9	14.6	15.3
Other Africa	4.7	3.4	6.1	6.9
Asia and Oceania	11.9	14.8	15.2	19.4
Americas	2.5	2.3	7.5	8.0

Duration of stay (%, 2012)	Calabria	Italy
<5 years	49.4	35.0
5 years and more	50.6	65.0

Top 3 third-country nationals (%)	Calabria 2007	Calabria 2012	Italy 2007	Italy 2012
Morocco	31.5	29.1	14.8	13.6
Ukraine	15.9	13.4	5.7	6.0
India	3.9	6.9	3.3	4.0
Type of permit held (%)	2010	2012	2010	2012
Permanent (EC + relative of EU resident)	31.0	38.1	46.3	54.3
Short-term (work)	37.8	27.6	29.8	22.1
Short-term (family)	17.5	18.8	19.5	18.7
Short-term (humanitarian)	11.5	12.6	1.6	2.0
Short-term (other)	2.1	2.9	2.7	2.8
Total (thousands)	41	43	3 536	3 764

Labour market outcomes by nationality

Employment rate	Calabria 2012	Calabria Change since 2008	Italy 2012	Italy Change since 2008
Foreigners	49.5	- 13.6	60.6	- 6.5
Italians	41.2	- 2.3	56.4	- 1.7

Unemployment rate	Calabria 2012	Calabria Change since 2008	Italy 2012	Italy Change since 2008
Foreigners	17.8	+ 11.8	14.1	+ 5.6
Italians	19.4	+ 3.7	10.3	+ 3.7

Foreign-born employment by sector and country of birth

	Top 3 sectors (% of total foreign-born employment)	Top 3 countries of birth (% of foreign-born employment in each sector) Romania	Bulgaria	Germany
All sectors	100.0	32.1	8.3	6.0
Agriculture	23.2	49.5	19.2	7.8
Building	6.9	62.0	0.0	11.9
Hotels and restaurants	6.3	50.7	9.3	11.8

New hirings and job losses by nationality (thousands)

New hirings in 2011	Calabria	Italy
Foreign-born	11	384
Native-born	23	619

Job losses in 2011	Calabria	Italy
Foreign-born	40	1 684
Native-born	207	5 453

Foreign children in education (2010/2011)

% of all students, by level of education	Calabria	Italy
Pre-primary	3.6	9.2
Primary	4.1	9.5
Lower secondary	4.3	9.3
Upper secondary	2.9	6.2

Regional data on immigrant populations and their children: CAMPANIA

CAMPANIA

Macroeconomic indicators

	Campania 2012	Campania Change since 2007	Italy 2012	Italy Change since 2007
GDP per capita (EUR, 2011)	16 601	- 391	26 003	- 183
Employment rate (%)	40.0	- 3.7	56.8	- 1.9
Unemployment rate (%)	19.3	+ 8.0	10.7	+ 4.6
Average housing cost (EUR, 2010)	98		119	

Employment by sector of activity (% of total employment)	Campania 2008	Campania 2012	Italy 2008	Italy 2012
Agriculture	4.4	4.0	3.7	3.7
Industry	25.0	21.6	29.9	27.8
Services	70.6	74.4	66.4	68.5

Characteristics of the foreign population

	Campania 2012	Campania Change since 2007	Italy 2012	Italy Change since 2007
Thousands	202	+ 72	5 186	+1 199
%	3.5	+ 1.3	8.7	+ 2.0

% of total foreign population	2011 Census Women	0-14	15-64	65+
Campania	58.3	13.8	84.6	1.6
Italy	53.3	20.0	77.6	2.4

Region of nationality (%)	Campania 2007	Campania 2012	Italy 2007	Italy 2012
EU27	26.8	28.7	34.3	27.4
Other Europe	31.6	27.2	22.3	22.9
North Africa	11.3	11.4	14.6	15.3
Other Africa	5.0	5.9	6.1	6.9
Asia and Oceania	16.7	19.8	15.2	19.4
Americas	8.6	6.9	7.5	8.0

Duration of stay (%, 2012)	Campania	Italy
<5 years	49.2	35.0
5 years and more	50.8	65.0

Top 3 third-country nationals (%)	Campania 2007	Campania 2012	Italy 2007	Italy 2012
Ukraine	32.5	28.7	5.7	6.0
Morocco	10.2	11.6	14.8	13.6
Sri Lanka	7.4	8.3	2.5	2.6
Type of permit held (%)	2010	2012	2010	2012
Permanent (EC + relative of EU resident)	33.9	38.1	46.3	54.3
Short-term (work)	44.8	38.4	29.8	22.1
Short-term (family)	17.2	17.6	19.5	18.7
Short-term (humanitarian)	1.5	2.9	1.6	2.0
Short-term (other)	2.6	2.9	2.7	2.8
Total (thousands)	131	144	3 536	3 764

Labour market outcomes by nationality

Employment rate	Campania 2012	Campania Change since 2008	Italy 2012	Italy Change since 2008
Foreigners	54.0	- 2.5	60.6	- 6.5
Italians	39.4	- 2.7	56.4	- 1.7

Unemployment rate	Campania 2012	Campania Change since 2008	Italy 2012	Italy Change since 2008
Foreigners	13.1	+ 4.4	14.1	+ 5.6
Italians	19.6	+ 6.9	10.3	+ 3.7

Foreign-born employment by sector and country of birth

	Top 3 sectors (% of total foreign-born employment)	Top 3 countries of birth (% of foreign-born employment in each sector): Romania	Ukraine	Morocco
All sectors	100.0	18.9	11.9	4.9
Agriculture	12.0	42.6	10.8	12.7
Building	9.1	42.7	14.0	7.9
Hotels and restaurants	6.5	30.0	22.5	4.4

New hirings and job losses by nationality (thousands)

New hirings in 2011	Campania	Italy
Foreign-born	18	384
Native-born	63	619

Job losses in 2011	Campania	Italy
Foreign-born	67	1 684
Native-born	437	5 453

Foreign children in education (2010/2011)

% of all students, by level of education	Campania	Italy
Pre-primary	1.6	9.2
Primary	2.1	9.5
Lower secondary	2.0	9.3
Upper secondary	1.5	6.2

Regional data on immigrant populations and their children: EMILIA-ROMAGNA

EMILIA-ROMAGNA

Macroeconomic indicators

	Emilia-Romagna 2012	Emilia-Romagna Change since 2007	Italy 2012	Italy Change since 2007
GDP per capita (EUR, 2011)	31 689	-1 081	26 003	- 183
Employment rate (%)	67.6	- 2.7	56.8	- 1.9
Unemployment rate (%)	7.1	+ 4.2	10.7	+ 4.6
Average housing cost (EUR, 2010)	108		119	

Employment by sector of activity (% of total employment)	Emilia-Romagna 2008	Emilia-Romagna 2012	Italy 2008	Italy 2012
Agriculture	3.9	3.8	3.7	3.7
Industry	34.3	32.8	29.9	27.8
Services	61.8	63.4	66.4	68.5

Characteristics of the foreign population

	Emilia-Romagna 2012	Emilia-Romagna Change since 2007	Italy 2012	Italy Change since 2007
Thousands	577	+ 156	5 186	+1 199
%	13.2	+ 3.4	8.7	+ 2.0

% of total foreign population	2011 Census Women	0-14	15-64	65+
Emilia-Romagna	53.3	21.1	76.5	2.4
Italy	53.3	20.0	77.6	2.4

Region of nationality (%)	Emilia-Romagna 2007	Emilia-Romagna 2012	Italy 2007	Italy 2012
EU27	22.8	20.8	34.3	27.4
Other Europe	26.3	27.0	22.3	22.9
North Africa	22.1	20.3	14.6	15.3
Other Africa	8.3	9.0	6.1	6.9
Asia and Oceania	16.5	19.1	15.2	19.4
Americas	4.0	3.8	7.5	8.0

Duration of stay (%, 2012)	Emilia-Romagna	Italy
<5 years	33.5	35.0
5 years and more	66.5	65.0

Top 3 third-country nationals (%)	Emilia-Romagna 2007	Emilia-Romagna 2012	Italy 2007	Italy 2012
Morocco	19.6	17.6	14.8	13.6
Albania	15.3	13.8	15.5	13.2
China	6.6	7.6	6.8	8.1
Type of permit held (%)	2010	2012	2010	2012
Permanent (EC + relative of EU resident)	49.0	57.6	46.3	54.3
Short-term (work)	28.4	20.1	29.8	22.1
Short-term (family)	20.4	19.4	19.5	18.7
Short-term (humanitarian)	0.9	1.2	1.6	2.0
Short-term (other)	1.4	1.8	2.7	2.8
Total (thousands)	444	458	3 536	3 764

Labour market outcomes by nationality

Employment rate	Emilia-Romagna 2012	Emilia-Romagna Change since 2008	Italy 2012	Italy Change since 2008
Foreigners	61.2	- 9.2	60.6	- 6.5
Italians	68.7	- 1.5	56.4	- 1.7

Unemployment rate	Emilia-Romagna 2012	Emilia-Romagna Change since 2008	Italy 2012	Italy Change since 2008
Foreigners	15.5	+ 8.9	14.1	+ 5.6
Italians	5.7	+ 2.9	10.3	+ 3.7

Foreign-born employment by sector and country of birth

	Top 3 sectors (% of total foreign-born employment)	Top 3 countries of birth (% of foreign-born employment in each sector)		
		Romania	Morocco	Albania
All sectors	100.0	17.0	9.9	8.7
Building	12.6	21.2	11.1	23.2
Hotels and restaurants	11.0	35.8	5.8	11.0
Information tech. and firms services	9.0	14.5	13.2	8.3

New hirings and job losses by nationality (thousands)

New hirings in 2011	Emilia-Romagna	Italy
Foreign-born	36	384
Native-born	39	619

Job losses in 2011	Emilia-Romagna	Italy
Foreign-born	173	1 684
Native-born	417	5 453

Foreign children in education (2010/2011)

% of all students, by level of education	Emilia-Romagna	Italy
Pre-primary	14.5	9.2
Primary	15.8	9.5
Lower secondary	16.0	9.3
Upper secondary	12.2	6.2

Regional data on immigrant populations and their children: FRIULI-VENEZIA GIULIA

FRIULI-VENEZIA GIULIA

Macroeconomic indicators

	Friuli-Venezia Giulia 2012	Friuli-Venezia Giulia Change since 2007	Italy 2012	Italy Change since 2007
GDP per capita (EUR, 2011)	29 402	- 539	26 003	- 183
Employment rate (%)	63.6	- 1.9	56.8	- 1.9
Unemployment rate (%)	6.8	+ 3.4	10.7	+ 4.6
Average housing cost (EUR, 2010)	75		119	

Employment by sector of activity (% of total employment)	Friuli-Venezia Giulia 2008	Friuli-Venezia Giulia 2012	Italy 2008	Italy 2012
Agriculture	2.3	2.1	3.7	3.7
Industry	33.7	33.1	29.9	27.8
Services	63.9	64.8	66.4	68.5

Characteristics of the foreign population

	Friuli-Venezia Giulia 2012	Friuli-Venezia Giulia Change since 2007	Italy 2012	Italy Change since 2007
Thousands	121	+ 21	5 186	+1 199
%	9.9	+ 1.7	8.7	+ 2.0

% of total foreign population	2011 Census Women	0-14	15-64	65+
Friuli-Venezia Giulia	52.4	19.4	77.6	3.0
Italy	53.3	20.0	77.6	2.4

Region of nationality (%)	Friuli-Venezia Giulia 2007	Friuli-Venezia Giulia 2012	Italy 2007	Italy 2012
EU27	23.7	23.1	34.3	27.4
Other Europe	42.9	40.5	22.3	22.9
North Africa	6.3	6.6	14.6	15.3
Other Africa	9.5	9.9	6.1	6.9
Asia and Oceania	9.9	11.6	15.2	19.4
Americas	7.7	8.3	7.5	8.0

Duration of stay (%, 2012)	Friuli-Venezia Giulia	Italy
<5 years	31.6	35.0
5 years and more	68.4	65.0

Top 3 third-country nationals (%)	Friuli-Venezia Giulia 2007	Friuli-Venezia Giulia 2012	Italy 2007	Italy 2012
Albania	16.2	14.3	15.5	13.2
Serbia-Kosovo-Montenegro	13.6	14.3	3.1	2.8
United States of America	5.1	5.7	1.1	0.9
Type of permit held (%)	2010	2012	2010	2012
Permanent (EC + relative of EU resident)	48.5	57.4	46.3	54.3
Short-term (work)	24.5	17.4	29.8	22.1
Short-term (family)	21.7	20.2	19.5	18.7
Short-term (humanitarian)	1.9	2.2	1.6	2.0
Short-term (other)	3.3	2.8	2.7	2.8
Total (thousands)	89	93	3 536	3 764

Labour market outcomes by nationality

Employment rate	Friuli-Venezia Giulia 2012	Friuli-Venezia Giulia Change since 2008	Italy 2012	Italy Change since 2008
Foreigners	58.3	- 8.9	60.6	- 6.5
Italians	64.3	- 0.8	56.4	- 1.7

Unemployment rate	Friuli-Venezia Giulia 2012	Friuli-Venezia Giulia Change since 2008	Italy 2012	Italy Change since 2008
Foreigners	13.1	+ 2.7	14.1	+ 5.6
Italians	6.1	+ 2.4	10.3	+ 3.7

Foreign-born employment by sector and country of birth

	Top 3 sectors (% of total foreign-born employment)	Top 3 countries of birth (% of foreign-born employment in each sector): Romania	Serbia	Albania
All sectors	100.0	13.0	6.7	4.9
Building	10.3	19.8	25.0	16.3
Information tech. and firms services	5.2	28.7	22.2	16.4
Hotels and restaurants	4.6	43.5	16.7	22.7

New hirings and job losses by nationality (thousands)

New hirings in 2011	Friuli-Venezia Giulia	Italy
Foreign-born	6	384
Native-born	7	619

Job losses in 2011	Friuli-Venezia Giulia	Italy
Foreign-born	32	1 684
Native-born	88	5 453

Foreign children in education (2010/2011)

% of all students, by level of education	Friuli-Venezia Giulia	Italy
Pre-primary	12.7	9.2
Primary	11.9	9.5
Lower secondary	11.8	9.3
Upper secondary	9.2	6.2

Regional data on immigrant populations and their children: LAZIO

LAZIO

Macroeconomic indicators

	Lazio		Italy			Lazio		Italy	
	2012	Change since 2007	2012	Change since 2007	**Employment by sector of activity (% of total employment)**	2008	2012	2008	2012
GDP per capita (EUR, 2011)	29 430	- 910	26 003	- 183					
Employment rate (%)	58.6	- 1.1	56.8	- 1.9	Agriculture	1.7	1.8	3.7	3.7
Unemployment rate (%)	10.8	+ 4.4	10.7	+ 4.6	Industry	18.6	17.5	29.9	27.8
Average housing cost (EUR, 2010)	203		119		Services	79.6	80.7	66.4	68.5

Characteristics of the foreign population

	Lazio		Italy			2011 Census			
	2012	Change since 2007	2012	Change since 2007	**% of total foreign population**	Women	0-14	15-64	65+
Thousands	564	+ 83	5 186	+1 199	Lazio	Women	0-14	15-64	65+
%	10.1	+ 1.5	8.7	+ 2.0	Italy	53.9	16.6	81.0	2.4

	Lazio		Italy			Lazio		Italy	
Region of nationality (%)	2007	2012	2007	2012	**Top 3 third-country nationals (%)**	2007	2012	2007	2012
EU27	50.6	34.6	34.3	27.4	Philippines	12.8	12.2	4.0	4.2
Other Europe	12.7	15.4	22.3	22.9	Bangladesh	5.5	8.0	2.5	3.0
North Africa	5.6	7.4	14.6	15.3	Albania	8.5	7.0	15.5	13.2
Other Africa	3.8	5.1	6.1	6.9	**Type of permit held (%)**	2010	2012	2010	2012
Asia and Oceania	18.0	26.8	15.2	19.4	Permanent (EC + relative of EU resident)	36.6	43.1	46.3	54.3
Americas	9.3	10.6	7.5	8.0	Short-term (work)	34.8	27.5	29.8	22.1
					Short-term (family)	17.0	17.9	19.5	18.7
Duration of stay (%, 2012)	Lazio		Italy		Short-term (humanitarian)	3.0	3.4	1.6	2.0
<5 years	43.5		35.0		Short-term (other)	8.6	8.1	2.7	2.8
5 years and more	56.5		65.0		Total (thousands)	301	368	3 536	3 764

Labour market outcomes by nationality

	Lazio		Italy			Lazio		Italy	
Employment rate	2012	Change since 2008	2012	Change since 2008	**Unemployment rate**	2012	Change since 2008	2012	Change since 2008
Foreigners	67.2	- 1.0	60.6	- 6.5	Foreigners	11.0	+ 0.9	14.1	+ 5.6
Italians	57.4	- 2.1	56.4	- 1.7	Italians	10.7	+ 3.5	10.3	+ 3.7

Foreign-born employment by sector and country of birth

	Top 3 sectors (% of total foreign-born employment)	Top 3 countries of birth (% of foreign-born employment in each sector)		
		Romania	Philippines	India
All sectors	100.0	34.0	4.2	3.4
Building	15.0	70.8	0.0	0.0
Information tech. and firms services	14.5	27.7	7.6	2.1
Hotels and restaurants	9.3	29.2	4.4	2.4

New hirings and job losses by nationality (thousands)

New hirings in 2011			Job losses in 2011		
	Lazio	Italy		Lazio	Italy
Foreign-born	35	384	Foreign-born	157	1 684
Native-born	72	619	Native-born	558	5 453

Foreign children in education (2010/2011)

% of all students, by level of education	Lazio	Italy
Pre-primary	9.0	9.2
Primary	9.6	9.5
Lower secondary	10.0	9.3
Upper secondary	7.1	6.2

Regional data on immigrant populations and their children: LIGURIA

LIGURIA

Macroeconomic indicators

	Liguria 2012	Liguria Change since 2007	Italy 2012	Italy Change since 2007
GDP per capita (EUR, 2011)	27 396	- 193	26 003	- 183
Employment rate (%)	62.0	- 1.7	56.8	- 1.9
Unemployment rate (%)	8.1	+ 3.3	10.7	+ 4.6
Average housing cost (EUR, 2010)	116		119	

Employment by sector of activity (% of total employment)	Liguria 2008	Liguria 2012	Italy 2008	Italy 2012
Agriculture	2.2	2.1	3.7	3.7
Industry	20.9	18.8	29.9	27.8
Services	76.9	79.1	66.4	68.5

Characteristics of the foreign population

	Liguria 2012	Liguria Change since 2007	Italy 2012	Italy Change since 2007
Thousands	141	+ 36	5 186	+1 199
%	9.0	+ 2.5	8.7	+ 2.0

% of total foreign population	2011 Census Women	0-14	15-64	65+
Liguria	55.2	18.4	78.0	3.6
Italy	53.3	20.0	77.6	2.4

Region of nationality (%)	Liguria 2007	Liguria 2012	Italy 2007	Italy 2012
EU27	25.8	21.3	34.3	27.4
Other Europe	23.4	24.8	22.3	22.9
North Africa	14.3	14.9	14.6	15.3
Other Africa	2.9	3.5	6.1	6.9
Asia and Oceania	8.3	9.9	15.2	19.4
Americas	25.2	25.5	7.5	8.0

Duration of stay (%, 2012)	Liguria	Italy
<5 years	33.5	35.0
5 years and more	66.5	65.0

Top 3 third-country nationals (%)	Liguria 2007	Liguria 2012	Italy 2007	Italy 2012
Albania	21.6	20.2	15.5	13.2
Morocco	14.0	13.6	14.8	13.6
Peru	4.1	4.5	2.6	2.9
Type of permit held (%)	2010	2012	2010	2012
Permanent (EC + relative of EU resident)	49.1	56.3	46.3	54.3
Short-term (work)	28.1	20.6	29.8	22.1
Short-term (family)	19.6	19.1	19.5	18.7
Short-term (humanitarian)	0.7	1.1	1.6	2.0
Short-term (other)	2.5	2.8	2.7	2.8
Total (thousands)	102	111	3 536	3 764

Labour market outcomes by nationality

Employment rate	Liguria 2012	Liguria Change since 2008	Italy 2012	Italy Change since 2008
Foreigners	63.2	- 4.0	60.6	- 6.5
Italians	61.9	- 1.7	56.4	- 1.7

Unemployment rate	Liguria 2012	Liguria Change since 2008	Italy 2012	Italy Change since 2008
Foreigners	15.6	+ 5.1	14.1	+ 5.6
Italians	7.2	+ 2.2	10.3	+ 3.7

Foreign-born employment by sector and country of birth

	Top 3 sectors (% of total foreign-born employment)	Top 3 countries of birth (% of foreign-born employment in each sector) Romania	Albania	Ecuador
All sectors	100.0	12.5	10.5	9.1
Building	17.2	21.0	40.4	14.9
Information tech. and firms services	11.1	11.9	5.8	14.2
Hotels and restaurants	9.3	21.6	18.8	14.6

New hirings and job losses by nationality (thousands)

New hirings in 2011	Liguria	Italy
Foreign-born	8	384
Native-born	12	619

Job losses in 2011	Liguria	Italy
Foreign-born	37	1 684
Native-born	116	5 453

Foreign children in education (2010/2011)

% of all students, by level of education	Liguria	Italy
Pre-primary	11.5	9.2
Primary	11.4	9.5
Lower secondary	12.3	9.3
Upper secondary	9.9	6.2

Regional data on immigrant populations and their children: LOMBARDY

LOMBARDY

Macroeconomic indicators

	Lombardy		Italy			Lombardy		Italy	
	2012	Change since 2007	2012	Change since 2007	**Employment by sector of activity (% of total employment)**	2008	2012	2008	2012
GDP per capita (EUR, 2011)	33 484	+ 364	26 003	- 183					
Employment rate (%)	64.7	- 2.1	56.8	- 1.9	Agriculture	1.8	1.4	3.7	3.7
Unemployment rate (%)	7.5	+ 4.1	10.7	+ 4.6	Industry	35.2	34.0	29.9	27.8
Average housing cost (EUR, 2010)	142		119		Services	63.0	64.6	66.4	68.5

Characteristics of the foreign population

	Lombardy		Italy			2011 Census			
	2012	Change since 2007	2012	Change since 2007	**% of total foreign population**	Women	0-14	15-64	65+
Thousands	1 216	+ 262	5 186	+1 199	Lombardy	51.5	22.6	75.4	2.0
%	12.4	+ 2.5	8.7	+ 2.0	Italy	53.3	20.0	77.6	2.4

	Lombardy		Italy			Lombardy		Italy	
Region of nationality (%)	2007	2012	2007	2012	**Top 3 third-country nationals (%)**	2007	2012	2007	2012
EU27	29.1	18.0	34.3	27.4	Morocco	14.0	12.5	14.8	13.6
Other Europe	16.8	18.6	22.3	22.9	Albania	12.1	10.4	15.5	13.2
North Africa	17.7	19.8	14.6	15.3	Egypt	7.2	8.5	2.7	3.3
Other Africa	7.4	8.1	6.1	6.9	**Type of permit held (%)**	2010	2012	2010	2012
Asia and Oceania	18.5	23.4	15.2	19.4	Permanent (EC + relative of EU resident)	47.9	57.6	46.3	54.3
Americas	10.5	12.1	7.5	8.0	Short-term (work)	30.3	21.7	29.8	22.1
					Short-term (family)	19.2	17.9	19.5	18.7
Duration of stay (%, 2012)	Lombardy		Italy		Short-term (humanitarian)	0.8	1.1	1.6	2.0
<5 years	32.2		35.0		Short-term (other)	1.8	1.8	2.7	2.8
5 years and more	67.8		65.0		Total (thousands)	940	996	3 536	3 764

Labour market outcomes by nationality

	Lombardy		Italy			Lombardy		Italy	
Employment rate	2012	Change since 2008	2012	Change since 2008	**Unemployment rate**	2012	Change since 2008	2012	Change since 2008
Foreigners	60.0	- 8.1	60.6	- 6.5	Foreigners	13.9	+ 7.0	14.1	+ 5.6
Italians	65.4	- 1.5	56.4	- 1.7	Italians	6.5	+ 3.1	10.3	+ 3.7

Foreign-born employment by sector and country of birth

	Top 3 sectors (% of total foreign-born employment)	Top 3 countries of birth (% of foreign-born employment in each sector)		
		Romania	Morocco	Albania
All sectors	100.0	14.8	7.9	7.2
Information tech. and firms services	21.1	15.0	7.9	5.9
Building	14.7	24.7	11.8	17.8
Hotels and restaurants	7.2	15.6	5.8	8.3

New hirings and job losses by nationality (thousands)

New hirings in 2011			Job losses in 2011		
	Lombardy	Italy		Lombardy	Italy
Foreign-born	64	384	Foreign-born	303	1 684
Native-born	105	619	Native-born	927	5 453

Foreign children in education (2010/2011)

% of all students, by level of education	Lombardy	Italy
Pre-primary	14.6	9.2
Primary	14.7	9.5
Lower secondary	14.5	9.3
Upper secondary	9.5	6.2

Regional data on immigrant populations and their children: MARCHE

MARCHE

Macroeconomic indicators

	Marche 2012	Marche Change since 2007	Italy 2012	Italy Change since 2007
GDP per capita (EUR, 2011)	26 412	- 512	26 003	- 183
Employment rate (%)	62.6	- 2.2	56.8	- 1.9
Unemployment rate (%)	9.1	+ 4.9	10.7	+ 4.6
Average housing cost (EUR, 2010)	66		119	

Employment by sector of activity (% of total employment)	Marche 2008	Marche 2012	Italy 2008	Italy 2012
Agriculture	1.9	2.5	3.7	3.7
Industry	40.4	35.9	29.9	27.8
Services	57.8	61.6	66.4	68.5

Characteristics of the foreign population

	Marche 2012	Marche Change since 2007	Italy 2012	Italy Change since 2007
Thousands	165	+ 31	5 186	+1 199
%	10.7	+ 2.1	8.7	+ 2.0

% of total foreign population	2011 Census Women	0-14	15-64	65+
Marche	53.9	20.2	76.7	3.1
Italy	53.3	20.0	77.6	2.4

Region of nationality (%)	Marche 2007	Marche 2012	Italy 2007	Italy 2012
EU27	33.1	24.2	34.3	27.4
Other Europe	29.2	30.3	22.3	22.9
North Africa	14.1	14.5	14.6	15.3
Other Africa	4.7	6.1	6.1	6.9
Asia and Oceania	14.0	20.0	15.2	19.4
Americas	4.8	4.8	7.5	8.0

Duration of stay (%, 2012)	Marche	Italy
<5 years	29.8	35.0
5 years and more	70.2	65.0

Top 3 third-country nationals (%)	Marche 2007	Marche 2012	Italy 2007	Italy 2012
Albania	21.1	17.5	15.5	13.2
Morocco	14.4	12.4	14.8	13.6
China	8.2	11.3	6.8	8.1
Type of permit held (%)	2010	2012	2010	2012
Permanent (EC + relative of EU resident)	53.9	61.0	46.3	54.3
Short-term (work)	23.6	17.8	29.8	22.1
Short-term (family)	19.9	17.7	19.5	18.7
Short-term (humanitarian)	1.2	1.5	1.6	2.0
Short-term (other)	1.5	2.0	2.7	2.8
Total (thousands)	125	126	3 536	3 764

Labour market outcomes by nationality

Employment rate	Marche 2012	Marche Change since 2008	Italy 2012	Italy Change since 2008
Foreigners	55.9	- 11.4	60.6	- 6.5
Italians	63.5	- 0.9	56.4	- 1.7

Unemployment rate	Marche 2012	Marche Change since 2008	Italy 2012	Italy Change since 2008
Foreigners	18.5	+ 9.4	14.1	+ 5.6
Italians	7.9	+ 3.7	10.3	+ 3.7

Foreign-born employment by sector and country of birth

	Top 3 sectors (% of total foreign-born employment)	Top 3 countries of birth (% of foreign-born employment in each sector) Romania	Albania	China
All sectors	100.0	14.4	9.2	6.7
Building	11.2	28.1	31.9	0.0
Hotels and restaurants	6.1	41.0	23.1	0.0
Leather industry	5.6	7.8	7.6	50.4

New hirings and job losses by nationality (thousands)

New hirings in 2011	Marche	Italy
Foreign-born	8	384
Native-born	13	619

Job losses in 2011	Marche	Italy
Foreign-born	42	1 684
Native-born	132	5 453

Foreign children in education (2010/2011)

% of all students, by level of education	Marche	Italy
Pre-primary	13.1	9.2
Primary	13.1	9.5
Lower secondary	13.2	9.3
Upper secondary	9.1	6.2

Regional data on immigrant populations and their children: MOLISE

MOLISE

Macroeconomic indicators

	Molise		Italy			Molise		Italy	
	2012	Change since 2007	2012	Change since 2007	**Employment by sector of activity (% of total employment)**	2008	2012	2008	2012
GDP per capita (EUR, 2011)	20 173	- 841	26 003	- 183					
Employment rate (%)	50.7	- 2.8	56.8	- 1.9	Agriculture	7.7	7.0	3.7	3.7
Unemployment rate (%)	12.0	+ 3.9	10.7	+ 4.6	Industry	29.6	27.9	29.9	27.8
Average housing cost (EUR, 2010)	44		119		Services	62.7	65.1	66.4	68.5

Characteristics of the foreign population

	Molise		Italy			2011 Census			
	2012	Change since 2007	2012	Change since 2007	**% of total foreign population**	Women	0-14	15-64	65+
Thousands	11	+ 4	5 186	+1 199	Molise	58.2	16.6	80.8	2.6
%	3.5	+ 1.3	8.7	+ 2.0	Italy	53.3	20.0	77.6	2.4

	Molise		Italy			Molise		Italy	
Region of nationality (%)	2007	2012	2007	2012	**Top 3 third-country nationals (%)**	2007	2012	2007	2012
EU27	49.5	63.6	34.3	27.4	Morocco	24.8	24.8	14.8	13.6
Other Europe	22.9	18.2	22.3	22.9	Albania	21.0	17.6	15.5	13.2
North Africa	14.4	9.1	14.6	15.3	Ukraine	12.0	10.2	5.7	6.0
Other Africa	1.2	0.0	6.1	6.9	**Type of permit held (%)**	2010	2012	2010	2012
Asia and Oceania	6.7	9.1	15.2	19.4	Permanent (EC + relative of EU resident)	44.1	51.1	46.3	54.3
Americas	5.3	0.0	7.5	8.0	Short-term (work)	29.4	22.8	29.8	22.1
					Short-term (family)	20.7	18.7	19.5	18.7
Duration of stay (%, 2012)	Molise		Italy		Short-term (humanitarian)	3.0	4.3	1.6	2.0
<5 years	37.8		35.0		Short-term (other)	2.8	3.1	2.7	2.8
5 years and more	62.2		65.0		Total (thousands)	4	5	3 536	3 764

Labour market outcomes by nationality

	Molise		Italy			Molise		Italy	
Employment rate	2012	Change since 2008	2012	Change since 2008	**Unemployment rate**	2012	Change since 2008	2012	Change since 2008
Foreigners	59.2	+ 3.9	60.6	- 6.5	Foreigners	7.7	+ 0.1	14.1	+ 5.6
Italians	50.4	- 3.7	56.4	- 1.7	Italians	12.2	+ 3.1	10.3	+ 3.7

Foreign-born employment by sector and country of birth

	Top 3 sectors (% of total foreign-born employment)	Top 3 countries of birth (% of foreign-born employment in each sector)		
		n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
All sectors	100.0	..	..	..
n.a.	8.7	..	..	..
n.a.	6.8	..	..	..
n.a.	3.8	..	..	..

New hirings and job losses by nationality (thousands)

	New hirings in 2011			Job losses in 2011	
	Molise	Italy		Molise	Italy
Foreign-born	1	384	Foreign-born	5	1 684
Native-born	3	619	Native-born	25	5 453

Foreign children in education (2010/2011)

% of all students, by level of education	Molise	Italy
Pre-primary	3.7	9.2
Primary	4.2	9.5
Lower secondary	4.0	9.3
Upper secondary	2.9	6.2

Regional data on immigrant populations and their children: PIEDMONT

PIEDMONT

Macroeconomic indicators

	Piedmont		Italy	
	2012	Change since 2007	2012	Change since 2007
GDP per capita (EUR, 2011)	28 277	- 725	26 003	- 183
Employment rate (%)	63.8	- 1.1	56.8	- 1.9
Unemployment rate (%)	9.2	+ 5.0	10.7	+ 4.6
Average housing cost (EUR, 2010)	105		119	

Employment by sector of activity (% of total employment)	Piedmont		Italy	
	2008	2012	2008	2012
Agriculture	3.5	3.0	3.7	3.7
Industry	33.7	33.3	29.9	27.8
Services	62.8	63.7	66.4	68.5

Characteristics of the foreign population

	Piedmont		Italy	
	2012	Change since 2007	2012	Change since 2007
Thousands	455	+ 103	5 186	+1 199
%	10.4	+ 2.4	8.7	+ 2.0

% of total foreign population	2011 Census			
	Women	0-14	15-64	65+
Piedmont	53.6	20.5	77.0	2.5
Italy	53.3	20.0	77.6	2.4

Region of nationality (%)	Piedmont		Italy	
	2007	2012	2007	2012
EU27	44.7	39.8	34.3	27.4
Other Europe	18.5	18.9	22.3	22.9
North Africa	19.0	19.1	14.6	15.3
Other Africa	4.7	5.7	6.1	6.9
Asia and Oceania	6.5	9.0	15.2	19.4
Americas	6.7	7.5	7.5	8.0

Duration of stay (%, 2012)	Piedmont	Italy
<5 years	33.9	35.0
5 years and more	66.1	65.0

Top 3 third-country nationals (%)	Piedmont		Italy	
	2007	2012	2007	2012
Morocco	28.9	26.3	14.8	13.6
Albania	20.0	17.2	15.5	13.2
China	5.8	7.3	6.8	8.1
Type of permit held (%)	2010	2012	2010	2012
Permanent (EC + relative of EU resident)	47.9	53.8	46.3	54.3
Short-term (work)	25.9	19.8	29.8	22.1
Short-term (family)	22.2	21.0	19.5	18.7
Short-term (humanitarian)	1.2	2.1	1.6	2.0
Short-term (other)	2.8	3.3	2.7	2.8
Total (thousands)	257	274	3 536	3 764

Labour market outcomes by nationality

Employment rate	Piedmont		Italy	
	2012	Change since 2008	2012	Change since 2008
Foreigners	61.7	- 5.7	60.6	- 6.5
Italians	64.1	- 1.0	56.4	- 1.7

Unemployment rate	Piedmont		Italy	
	2012	Change since 2008	2012	Change since 2008
Foreigners	17.0	+ 7.3	14.1	+ 5.6
Italians	8.1	+ 3.6	10.3	+ 3.7

Foreign-born employment by sector and country of birth

	Top 3 sectors (% of total foreign-born employment)	Top 3 countries of birth (% of foreign-born employment in each sector)		
		Romania	Morocco	Albania
All sectors	100.0	31.1	10.9	8.9
Building	17.7	49.0	14.5	20.3
Information tech. and firms services	10.5	32.3	14.6	8.9
Agriculture	7.2	36.2	7.6	13.4

New hirings and job losses by nationality (thousands)

New hirings in 2011	Piedmont	Italy
Foreign-born	20	384
Native-born	32	619

Job losses in 2011	Piedmont	Italy
Foreign-born	96	1 684
Native-born	311	5 453

Foreign children in education (2010/2011)

% of all students, by level of education	Piedmont	Italy
Pre-primary	14.2	9.2
Primary	13.4	9.5
Lower secondary	12.8	9.3
Upper secondary	9.1	6.2

Regional data on immigrant populations and their children: SARDINIA

SARDINIA

Macroeconomic indicators

	Sardinia		Italy			Sardinia		Italy	
	2012	Change since 2007	2012	Change since 2007	**Employment by sector of activity (% of total employment)**	2008	2012	2008	2012
GDP per capita (EUR, 2011)	20 071	+ 413	26 003	- 183					
Employment rate (%)	51.7	- 1.0	56.8	- 1.9	Agriculture	6.0	5.6	3.7	3.7
Unemployment rate (%)	15.5	+ 5.7	10.7	+ 4.6	Industry	21.5	17.2	29.9	27.8
Average housing cost (EUR, 2010)	58		119		Services	72.5	77.2	66.4	68.5

Characteristics of the foreign population

	Sardinia		Italy			2011 Census			
	2012	Change since 2007	2012	Change since 2007	**% of total foreign population**	Women	0-14	15-64	65+
Thousands	42	+ 15	5 186	+1 199	Sardinia	57.6	14.7	81.9	3.4
%	2.6	+ 1.0	8.7	+ 2.0	Italy	53.3	20.0	77.6	2.4

	Sardinia		Italy			Sardinia		Italy	
Region of nationality (%)	2007	2012	2007	2012	**Top 3 third-country nationals (%)**	2007	2012	2007	2012
EU27	43.2	42.9	34.3	27.4	Morocco	24.4	19.9	14.8	13.6
Other Europe	11.0	11.9	22.3	22.9	Senegal	12.1	13.0	2.3	2.5
North Africa	15.9	14.3	14.6	15.3	China	14.0	13.0	6.8	8.1
Other Africa	8.3	9.5	6.1	6.9	**Type of permit held (%)**	2010	2012	2010	2012
Asia and Oceania	15.9	16.7	15.2	19.4	Permanent (EC + relative of EU resident)	39.6	43.8	46.3	54.3
Americas	5.6	4.8	7.5	8.0	Short-term (work)	33.3	25.7	29.8	22.1
					Short-term (family)	21.8	23.4	19.5	18.7
Duration of stay (%, 2012)	Sardinia		Italy		Short-term (humanitarian)	1.5	3.0	1.6	2.0
<5 years	43.4		35.0		Short-term (other)	3.8	4.1	2.7	2.8
5 years and more	56.6		65.0		Total (thousands)	20	24	3 536	3 764

Labour market outcomes by nationality

	Sardinia		Italy			Sardinia		Italy	
Employment rate	2012	Change since 2008	2012	Change since 2008	**Unemployment rate**	2012	Change since 2008	2012	Change since 2008
Foreigners	72.1	- 1.3	60.6	- 6.5	Foreigners	10.2	+ 2.4	14.1	+ 5.6
Italians	51.1	- 1.1	56.4	- 1.7	Italians	15.8	+ 3.5	10.3	+ 3.7

Foreign-born employment by sector and country of birth

	Top 3 sectors (% of total foreign-born employment)	Top 3 countries of birth (% of foreign-born employment in each sector)		
		Romania	Germany	China
All sectors	100.0	18.2	4.6	2.4
Hotels and restaurants	7.2	59.8	26.1	0.0
Building	6.3	78.0	22.0	0.0
Information tech. and firms services	4.3	69.3	30.7	0.0

New hirings and job losses by nationality (thousands)

	New hirings in 2011			Job losses in 2011	
	Sardinia	Italy		Sardinia	Italy
Foreign-born	3	384	Foreign-born	14	1 684
Native-born	17	619	Native-born	164	5 453

Foreign children in education (2010/2011)

% of all students, by level of education	Sardinia	Italy
Pre-primary	1.9	9.2
Primary	2.5	9.5
Lower secondary	2.4	9.3
Upper secondary	1.5	6.2

Regional data on immigrant populations and their children: SICILY

SICILY

Macroeconomic indicators

	Sicily 2012	Sicily Change since 2007	Italy 2012	Italy Change since 2007
GDP per capita (EUR, 2011)	17 189	- 34	26 003	- 183
Employment rate (%)	41.2	- 3.4	56.8	- 1.9
Unemployment rate (%)	18.6	+ 5.7	10.7	+ 4.6
Average housing cost (EUR, 2010)	65		119	

Employment by sector of activity (% of total employment)	Sicily 2008	Sicily 2012	Italy 2008	Italy 2012
Agriculture	7.4	8.2	3.7	3.7
Industry	20.1	16.5	29.9	27.8
Services	72.5	75.3	66.4	68.5

Characteristics of the foreign population

	Sicily 2012	Sicily Change since 2007	Italy 2012	Italy Change since 2007
Thousands	165	+ 62	5 186	+1 199
%	3.3	+ 1.3	8.7	+ 2.0

% of total foreign population	2011 Census Women	0-14	15-64	65+
Sicily	52.2	17.4	80.5	2.0
Italy	53.3	20.0	77.6	2.4

Region of nationality (%)	Sicily 2007	Sicily 2012	Italy 2007	Italy 2012
EU27	39.1	43.0	34.3	27.4
Other Europe	8.0	6.7	22.3	22.9
North Africa	22.9	19.4	14.6	15.3
Other Africa	8.5	7.9	6.1	6.9
Asia and Oceania	17.7	20.0	15.2	19.4
Americas	3.9	3.0	7.5	8.0

Duration of stay (%, 2012)	Sicily	Italy
<5 years	46.6	35.0
5 years and more	53.4	65.0

Top 3 third-country nationals (%)	Sicily 2007	Sicily 2012	Italy 2007	Italy 2012
Tunisia	14.3	17.9	3.7	3.2
Morocco	7.2	14.3	14.8	13.6
Sri Lanka	5.7	12.2	2.5	2.6
Type of permit held (%)	2010	2012	2010	2012
Permanent (EC + relative of EU resident)	29.8	38.4	46.3	54.3
Short-term (work)	36.9	27.4	29.8	22.1
Short-term (family)	22.6	22.2	19.5	18.7
Short-term (humanitarian)	8.1	8.6	1.6	2.0
Short-term (other)	2.5	3.4	2.7	2.8
Total (thousands)	89	94	3 536	3 764

Labour market outcomes by nationality

Employment rate	Sicily 2012	Sicily Change since 2008	Italy 2012	Italy Change since 2008
Foreigners	55.8	- 1.5	60.6	- 6.5
Italians	40.7	- 3.1	56.4	- 1.7

Unemployment rate	Sicily 2012	Sicily Change since 2008	Italy 2012	Italy Change since 2008
Foreigners	15.1	+ 4.3	14.1	+ 5.6
Italians	18.8	+ 4.9	10.3	+ 3.7

Foreign-born employment by sector and country of birth

	Top 3 sectors (% of total foreign-born employment)	Top 3 countries of birth (% of foreign-born employment in each sector)		
		Romania	Germany	Tunisia
All sectors	100.0	23.4	11.2	9.9
Agriculture	19.9	41.0	5.8	33.5
Hotels and restaurants	7.7	36.4	14.2	9.5
Building	7.0	41.6	22.7	6.3

New hirings and job losses by nationality (thousands)

New hirings in 2011	Sicily	Italy
Foreign-born	13	384
Native-born	63	619

Job losses in 2011	Sicily	Italy
Foreign-born	60	1 684
Native-born	458	5 453

Foreign children in education (2010/2011)

% of all students, by level of education	Sicily	Italy
Pre-primary	2.6	9.2
Primary	3.1	9.5
Lower secondary	3.0	9.3
Upper secondary	1.7	6.2

Regional data on immigrant populations and their children: TRENTINO-ALTO ADIGE

TRENTINO-ALTO ADIGE

Macroeconomic indicators

	Trentino-Alto Adige 2012	Trentino-Alto Adige Change since 2007	Italy 2012	Italy Change since 2007
GDP per capita (EUR, 2011)	33 556	+ 593	26 003	- 183
Employment rate (%)	68.6	+ 0.6	56.8	- 1.9
Unemployment rate (%)	5.1	+ 2.4	10.7	+ 4.6
Average housing cost (EUR, 2010)	123		119	

Employment by sector of activity (% of total employment)	Trentino-Alto Adige 2008	Trentino-Alto Adige 2012	Italy 2008	Italy 2012
Agriculture	5.6	5.2	3.7	3.7
Industry	25.6	24.5	29.9	27.8
Services	68.8	70.3	66.4	68.5

Characteristics of the foreign population

	Trentino-Alto Adige 2012	Trentino-Alto Adige Change since 2007	Italy 2012	Italy Change since 2007
Thousands	108	+ 19	5 186	+1 199
%	10.4	+ 1.6	8.7	+ 2.0

% of total foreign population	2011 Census Women	0-14	15-64	65+
Trentino-Alto Adige	53.7	20.5	75.8	3.7
Italy	53.3	20.0	77.6	2.4

Region of nationality (%)	Trentino-Alto Adige 2007	Trentino-Alto Adige 2012	Italy 2007	Italy 2012
EU27	30.6	30.6	34.3	27.4
Other Europe	35.2	35.2	22.3	22.9
North Africa	13.0	13.0	14.6	15.3
Other Africa	2.8	2.8	6.1	6.9
Asia and Oceania	13.0	13.0	15.2	19.4
Americas	5.6	5.6	7.5	8.0

Duration of stay (%, 2012)	Trentino-Alto Adige	Italy
<5 years	27.4	35.0
5 years and more	72.6	65.0

Top 3 third-country nationals (%)	Trentino-Alto Adige 2007	Trentino-Alto Adige 2012	Italy 2007	Italy 2012
n.a.	..	..	..	..
n.a.	..	..	..	..
n.a.	..	..	..	..
Type of permit held (%)	2010	2012	2010	2012
Permanent (EC + relative of EU resident)	59.9	66.4	46.3	54.3
Short-term (work)	20.6	12.2	29.8	22.1
Short-term (family)	16.0	17.3	19.5	18.7
Short-term (humanitarian)	1.5	1.8	1.6	2.0
Short-term (other)	1.9	2.2	2.7	2.8
Total (thousands)	74	74	3 536	3 764

Labour market outcomes by nationality

Employment rate	Trentino-Alto Adige 2012	Trentino-Alto Adige Change since 2008	Italy 2012	Italy Change since 2008
Foreigners	62.6	- 2.1	60.6	- 6.5
Italians	69.3	+ 0.4	56.4	- 1.7

Unemployment rate	Trentino-Alto Adige 2012	Trentino-Alto Adige Change since 2008	Italy 2012	Italy Change since 2008
Foreigners	13.3	+ 4.2	14.1	+ 5.6
Italians	4.2	+ 1.9	10.3	+ 3.7

Foreign-born employment by sector and country of birth

	Top 3 sectors (% of total foreign-born employment)	Top 3 countries of birth (% of foreign-born employment in each sector) Romania	Slovakia	Poland
All sectors	100.0	15.5	11.0	8.6
Agriculture	29.2	22.6	24.7	23.6
Hotels and restaurants	23.4	21.8	16.3	5.4
Building	5.3	20.5	0.0	0.0

New hirings and job losses by nationality (thousands)

New hirings in 2011	Trentino-Alto Adige	Italy
Foreign-born	18	384
Native-born	11	619

Job losses in 2011	Trentino-Alto Adige	Italy
Foreign-born	77	1 684
Native-born	122	5 453

Foreign children in education (2010/2011)

% of all students, by level of education	Trentino-Alto Adige	Italy
Pre-primary	25.5	9.2
Primary	10.9	9.5
Lower secondary	10.1	9.3
Upper secondary	7.4	6.2

Regional data on immigrant populations and their children: TRENTO

TRENTO

Macroeconomic indicators

	Trento 2012	Trento Change since 2007	Italy 2012	Italy Change since 2007
GDP per capita (EUR, 2011)	30 634	- 185	26 003	- 183
Employment rate (%)	65.5	- 0.8	56.8	- 1.9
Unemployment rate (%)	6.1	+ 3.2	10.7	+ 4.6
Average housing cost (EUR, 2010)	87		119	

Employment by sector of activity (% of total employment)	Trento 2008	Trento 2012	Italy 2008	Italy 2012
Agriculture	3.7	3.9	3.7	3.7
Industry	27.8	26.9	29.9	27.8
Services	68.6	69.2	66.4	68.5

Characteristics of the foreign population

	Trento 2012	Trento Change since 2007	Italy 2012	Italy Change since 2007
Thousands	58	+ 11	5 186	+1 199
%	10.9	+ 1.7	8.7	+ 2.0

% of total foreign population	2011 Census Women	0-14	15-64	65+
Trento	53.3	21.0	76.1	2.9
Italy	53.3	20.0	77.6	2.4

Region of nationality (%)	Trento 2007	Trento 2012	Italy 2007	Italy 2012
EU27	34.0	31.0	34.3	27.4
Other Europe	35.0	36.2	22.3	22.9
North Africa	15.4	13.8	14.6	15.3
Other Africa	2.0	3.4	6.1	6.9
Asia and Oceania	7.7	10.3	15.2	19.4
Americas	5.9	5.2	7.5	8.0

Duration of stay (%, 2012)	Trento	Italy
<5 years	..	35.0
5 years and more	..	65.0

Top 3 third-country nationals (%)	Trento 2007	Trento 2012	Italy 2007	Italy 2012
Albania	20.3	18.3	15.5	13.2
Morocco	14.9	13.0	14.8	13.6
Moldavia	5.1	7.6	3.1	4.0

Type of permit held (%)	Trento 2010	Trento 2012	Italy 2010	Italy 2012
Permanent (EC + relative of EU resident)	54.2	60.4	46.3	54.3
Short-term (work)	22.2	13.4	29.8	22.1
Short-term (family)	20.0	21.7	19.5	18.7
Short-term (humanitarian)	1.1	1.2	1.6	2.0
Short-term (other)	2.5	3.3	2.7	2.8
Total (thousands)	42	40	3 536	3 764

Labour market outcomes by nationality

Employment rate	Trento 2012	Trento Change since 2008	Italy 2012	Italy Change since 2008
Foreigners	..	..	60.6	- 6.5
Italians	..	..	56.4	- 1.7

Unemployment rate	Trento 2012	Trento Change since 2008	Italy 2012	Italy Change since 2008
Foreigners	..	..	14.1	+ 5.6
Italians	..	..	10.3	+ 3.7

Foreign-born employment by sector and country of birth

	Top 3 sectors (% of total foreign-born employment)	Top 3 countries of birth (% of foreign-born employment in each sector)		
		n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
All sectors	100.0	..	..	..
n.a.	..	..	..	..
n.a.	..	..	..	..
n.a.	..	..	..	..

New hirings and job losses by nationality (thousands)

New hirings in 2011	Trento	Italy
Foreign-born	7	384
Native-born	5	619

Job losses in 2011	Trento	Italy
Foreign-born	33	1 684
Native-born	59	5 453

Foreign children in education (2010/2011)

% of all students, by level of education	Trento	Italy
Pre-primary	13.4	9.2
Primary	12.4	9.5
Lower secondary	11.5	9.3
Upper secondary	7.8	6.2

Regional data on immigrant populations and their children: TUSCANY

TUSCANY

Macroeconomic indicators

	Tuscany 2012	Tuscany Change since 2007	Italy 2012	Italy Change since 2007
GDP per capita (EUR, 2011)	28 209	- 57	26 003	- 183
Employment rate (%)	63.9	- 0.9	56.8	- 1.9
Unemployment rate (%)	7.8	+ 3.5	10.7	+ 4.6
Average housing cost (EUR, 2010)	111		119	

Employment by sector of activity (% of total employment)	Tuscany 2008	Tuscany 2012	Italy 2008	Italy 2012
Agriculture	2.9	3.1	3.7	3.7
Industry	31.1	26.4	29.9	27.8
Services	66.1	70.5	66.4	68.5

Characteristics of the foreign population

	Tuscany 2012	Tuscany Change since 2007	Italy 2012	Italy Change since 2007
Thousands	415	+ 96	5 186	+1 199
%	11.2	+ 2.5	8.7	+ 2.0

% of total foreign population	2011 Census Women	0-14	15-64	65+
Tuscany	54.1	19.1	77.9	3.1
Italy	53.3	20.0	77.6	2.4

Region of nationality (%)	Tuscany 2007	Tuscany 2012	Italy 2007	Italy 2012
EU27	31.1	25.8	34.3	27.4
Other Europe	28.0	26.7	22.3	22.9
North Africa	10.1	10.1	14.6	15.3
Other Africa	4.2	5.1	6.1	6.9
Asia and Oceania	20.2	25.3	15.2	19.4
Americas	6.3	7.0	7.5	8.0

Duration of stay (%, 2012)	Tuscany	Italy
<5 years	35.7	35.0
5 years and more	64.3	65.0

Top 3 third-country nationals (%)	Tuscany 2007	Tuscany 2012	Italy 2007	Italy 2012
Albania	27.2	23.1	15.5	13.2
China	15.2	19.3	6.8	8.1
Morocco	11.0	10.3	14.8	13.6
Type of permit held (%)	2010	2012	2010	2012
Permanent (EC + relative of EU resident)	43.8	52.6	46.3	54.3
Short-term (work)	30.3	24.2	29.8	22.1
Short-term (family)	20.6	18.7	19.5	18.7
Short-term (humanitarian)	1.1	1.3	1.6	2.0
Short-term (other)	4.2	3.2	2.7	2.8
Total (thousands)	295	308	3 536	3 764

Labour market outcomes by nationality

Employment rate	Tuscany 2012	Tuscany Change since 2008	Italy 2012	Italy Change since 2008
Foreigners	62.8	- 6.0	60.6	- 6.5
Italians	64.1	- 0.9	56.4	- 1.7

Unemployment rate	Tuscany 2012	Tuscany Change since 2008	Italy 2012	Italy Change since 2008
Foreigners	13.2	+ 4.6	14.1	+ 5.6
Italians	7.0	+ 2.3	10.3	+ 3.7

Foreign-born employment by sector and country of birth

	Top 3 sectors (% of total foreign-born employment)	Top 3 countries of birth (% of foreign-born employment in each sector) Romania	China	Albania
All sectors	100.0	19.3	14.1	13.0
Building	14.4	33.9	0.0	36.9
Infromation tech. and firms services	10.8	20.5	1.0	10.8
Hotels and restaurants	9.7	26.2	5.8	15.0

New hirings and job losses by nationality (thousands)

New hirings in 2011	Tuscany	Italy
Foreign-born	25	384
Native-born	36	619

Job losses in 2011	Tuscany	Italy
Foreign-born	120	1 684
Native-born	348	5 453

Foreign children in education (2010/2011)

% of all students, by level of education	Tuscany	Italy
Pre-primary	12.2	9.2
Primary	13.1	9.5
Lower secondary	13.6	9.3
Upper secondary	9.6	6.2

Regional data on immigrant populations and their children: UMBRIA

UMBRIA

Macroeconomic indicators

	Umbria 2012	Umbria Change since 2007	Italy 2012	Italy Change since 2007
GDP per capita (EUR, 2011)	23 989	-1 000	26 003	- 183
Employment rate (%)	61.5	- 3.1	56.8	- 1.9
Unemployment rate (%)	9.8	+ 5.2	10.7	+ 4.6
Average housing cost (EUR, 2010)	75		119	

Employment by sector of activity (% of total employment)	Umbria 2008	Umbria 2012	Italy 2008	Italy 2012
Agriculture	3.6	3.0	3.7	3.7
Industry	32.1	30.3	29.9	27.8
Services	64.3	66.7	66.4	68.5

Characteristics of the foreign population

	Umbria 2012	Umbria Change since 2007	Italy 2012	Italy Change since 2007
Thousands	110	+ 23	5 186	+1 199
%	12.4	+ 2.6	8.7	+ 2.0

% of total foreign population	2011 Census Women	0-14	15-64	65+
Umbria	55.7	19.5	77.2	3.3
Italy	53.3	20.0	77.6	2.4

Region of nationality (%)	Umbria 2007	Umbria 2012	Italy 2007	Italy 2012
EU27	48.6	37.3	34.3	27.4
Other Europe	25.0	29.1	22.3	22.9
North Africa	10.6	12.7	14.6	15.3
Other Africa	3.0	4.5	6.1	6.9
Asia and Oceania	6.2	8.2	15.2	19.4
Americas	6.6	8.2	7.5	8.0

Duration of stay (%, 2012)	Umbria	Italy
<5 years	32.9	35.0
5 years and more	67.1	65.0

Top 3 third-country nationals (%)	Umbria 2007	Umbria 2012	Italy 2007	Italy 2012
Albania	26.4	24.2	15.5	13.2
Morocco	15.1	15.9	14.8	13.6
Ukraine	6.8	7.3	5.7	6.0
Type of permit held (%)	2010	2012	2010	2012
Permanent (EC + relative of EU resident)	45.8	55.3	46.3	54.3
Short-term (work)	25.9	18.0	29.8	22.1
Short-term (family)	24.1	21.9	19.5	18.7
Short-term (humanitarian)	0.9	1.4	1.6	2.0
Short-term (other)	3.4	3.3	2.7	2.8
Total (thousands)	66	69	3 536	3 764

Labour market outcomes by nationality

Employment rate	Umbria 2012	Umbria Change since 2008	Italy 2012	Italy Change since 2008
Foreigners	60.6	- 5.8	60.6	- 6.5
Italians	61.7	- 3.6	56.4	- 1.7

Unemployment rate	Umbria 2012	Umbria Change since 2008	Italy 2012	Italy Change since 2008
Foreigners	18.7	+ 7.3	14.1	+ 5.6
Italians	8.2	+ 4.2	10.3	+ 3.7

Foreign-born employment by sector and country of birth

	Top 3 sectors (% of total foreign-born employment)	Top 3 countries of birth (% of foreign-born employment in each sector): Romania	Albania	Morocco
All sectors	100.0	22.8	9.5	4.4
Building	16.2	39.6	34.8	10.3
Agriculture	7.7	41.8	13.5	18.9
Hotels and restaurants	4.4	51.9	32.5	15.6

New hirings and job losses by nationality (thousands)

New hirings in 2011	Umbria	Italy
Foreign-born	4	384
Native-born	8	619

Job losses in 2011	Umbria	Italy
Foreign-born	25	1 684
Native-born	68	5 453

Foreign children in education (2010/2011)

% of all students, by level of education	Umbria	Italy
Pre-primary	8.8	9.2
Primary	15.3	9.5
Lower secondary	15.4	9.3
Upper secondary	11.0	6.2

Regional data on immigrant populations and their children: VENETO

VENETO

Macroeconomic indicators

	Veneto 2012	Veneto Change since 2007	Italy 2012	Italy Change since 2007
GDP per capita (EUR, 2011)	29 882	- 735	26 003	- 183
Employment rate (%)	65.0	- 0.8	56.8	- 1.9
Unemployment rate (%)	6.6	+ 3.2	10.7	+ 4.6
Average housing cost (EUR, 2010)	105		119	

Employment by sector of activity (% of total employment)	Veneto 2008	Veneto 2012	Italy 2008	Italy 2012
Agriculture	2.7	3.5	3.7	3.7
Industry	39.5	36.0	29.9	27.8
Services	57.8	60.5	66.4	68.5

Characteristics of the foreign population

	Veneto 2012	Veneto Change since 2007	Italy 2012	Italy Change since 2007
Thousands	575	+ 101	5 186	+1 199
%	11.8	+ 2.0	8.7	+ 2.0

% of total foreign population	2011 Census Women	0-14	15-64	65+
Veneto	51.8	22.1	76.1	1.7
Italy	53.3	20.0	77.6	2.4

Region of nationality (%)	Veneto 2007	Veneto 2012	Italy 2007	Italy 2012
EU27	32.9	24.2	34.3	27.4
Other Europe	27.1	29.7	22.3	22.9
North Africa	13.1	13.7	14.6	15.3
Other Africa	8.2	9.2	6.1	6.9
Asia and Oceania	14.7	18.8	15.2	19.4
Americas	4.0	4.3	7.5	8.0

Duration of stay (%, 2012)	Veneto	Italy
<5 years	28.9	35.0
5 years and more	71.1	65.0

Top 3 third-country nationals (%)	Veneto 2007	Veneto 2012	Italy 2007	Italy 2012
Morocco	16.4	15.3	14.8	13.6
Albania	11.7	10.0	15.5	13.2
China	7.7	9.2	6.8	8.1
Type of permit held (%)	2010	2012	2010	2012
Permanent (EC + relative of EU resident)	52.8	62.7	46.3	54.3
Short-term (work)	27.6	18.2	29.8	22.1
Short-term (family)	17.7	17.3	19.5	18.7
Short-term (humanitarian)	0.7	0.9	1.6	2.0
Short-term (other)	1.2	1.0	2.7	2.8
Total (thousands)	427	435	3 536	3 764

Labour market outcomes by nationality

Employment rate	Veneto 2012	Veneto Change since 2008	Italy 2012	Italy Change since 2008
Foreigners	59.4	- 9.1	60.6	- 6.5
Italians	65.8	- 0.4	56.4	- 1.7

Unemployment rate	Veneto 2012	Veneto Change since 2008	Italy 2012	Italy Change since 2008
Foreigners	12.3	+ 3.4	14.1	+ 5.6
Italians	5.8	+ 2.9	10.3	+ 3.7

Foreign-born employment by sector and country of birth

	Top 3 sectors (% of total foreign-born employment)	Top 3 countries of birth (% of foreign-born employment in each sector) Romania	Morocco	Albania
All sectors	100.0	20.1	7.8	6.0
Building	12.7	29.8	7.8	13.6
Hotels and restaurants	9.8	22.4	5.8	8.6
Information tech. and firms services	7.3	21.6	9.2	7.1

New hirings and job losses by nationality (thousands)

New hirings in 2011	Veneto	Italy
Foreign-born	30	384
Native-born	41	619

Job losses in 2011	Veneto	Italy
Foreign-born	150	1 684
Native-born	398	5 453

Foreign children in education (2010/2011)

% of all students, by level of education	Veneto	Italy
Pre-primary	14.1	9.2
Primary	14.4	9.5
Lower secondary	13.3	9.3
Upper secondary	8.4	6.2

Annex B
Use of CO data in the review

Random effects models have been applied to CO data (obligatory contributions sent by employers to public employment services) to test the relative wage progression of immigrants since 2009. This kind of model is applied to the analysis of longitudinal data and allows to control for unobserved heterogeneity when this heterogeneity is constant over time and correlated with the independent variables. The main assumption of this model is that the individual specific effects are uncorrelated with the independent variable.

The tested assumption in the framework of this report concerns the impact of a change in sector of activity on immigrant wage progression compared with native-born. Only initial wage is known and no information is available on the wage progression in the same job (due for instance to an increase in hourly wage rate or a promotion – unless it is reported by the employer to the PES as a new record). Changes in wages consecutive to a transformation of contract with the same employer (hours worked; temporary versus permanent status) has not being explored due to the fact that many information of this type is missing since the employer is not obliged to report on all transformations of contracts.

Consequently, the sectorial origin/destination matrix (Table B.1) was restricted to job changes following an interruption of contract that could potentially result in a change of sector (lay-off, dismissal or end of temporary contract).

Some information is badly coded which results in a high share of missing values: this is the case for information on educational attainment and change of region of work.

Table B.1. Industry transition matrix by place of birth and gender, 2009-12

Foreign-born men

Origin

Destination	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K	L	M	N	O	P	Q	R	S	T	U
A	141 617	20	2 961	23	97	2 991	2 624	1 279	1 552	161	6	39	228	1 930	77	23	48	303	250	4 845	1
B	21	98	26		1	41	9	14	3	1		1	3	3			1		1	2	
C	3 329	20	31 239	83	121	4 073	1 723	1 441	1 831	197	13	54	289	1 925	18	18	44	206	342	3 323	1
D	13		25	61		26	9	7	9	1			4	8	1		1	4		6	
E	159	1	117	1	817	295	81	118	57	13		4	34	136	3	1	5	10	14	85	
F	2 930	25	3 435	31	246	60 706	3 520	1 218	1 249	171	10	123	319	2 052	52	31	51	256	216	2 533	
G	2 784	6	1 491	10	59	1 841	10 610	802	1 390	145	17	24	149	850	23	20	25	156	130	2 071	3
H	1 600	9	1 300	11	91	1 773	816	21 650	811	713	17	26	572	3 381	26	20	55	137	270	1 591	
I	1 809	4	1 871	13	44	1 461	1 476	880	53 576	230	18	81	194	1 785	36	62	93	855	325	3 644	1
J	132		124		6	139	111	259	179	3 366	14	3	85	273	5	27	18	147	43	202	2
K	11		7			7	9	43	16	6	72	4	10	19	2		4	2	2	19	
L	48		60	1	1	132	34	17	83	7	2	304	12	58		3	4	12	12	93	1
M	200	2	201	3	15	256	119	247	151	50	5	4	1 394	494	9	36	18	48	50	273	1
N	2 342	4	1 509	10	96	2 466	953	2 909	1 624	331	14	49	874	18 775	36	41	120	275	389	2 606	
O	65	1	23			64	23	23	30	5		1	11	33	576	25	13	25	16	21	
P	26		18		1	15	10	21	51	27	1	1	38	54	23	2 505	29	66	48	34	1
Q	55	1	38		7	52	49	57	113	10		1	28	131	21	37	1 183	22	57	138	
R	340		178	4	12	259	155	111	863	126	3	10	59	291	14	67	21	5 973	156	320	1
S	241		375	1	14	188	142	246	292	49	2	10	75	461	11	50	56	183	2 332	474	1
T	1 465	1	684	7	32	828	506	417	980	74	11	61	130	776	20	15	85	149	187	6 430	1
U	1		1				1	1	1	1		1	1	1					1	12	35
total	159 188	192	45 683	259	1 660	77 613	22 980	31 760	64 861	5 684	205	801	4 509	33 436	953	2 981	1 874	8 829	4 841	28 722	49

Row %

Origin

Destination	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K	L	M	N	O	P	Q	R	S	T	U
A	89.0	10.4	6.5	8.9	5.8	3.9	11.4	4.0	2.4	2.8	2.9	4.9	5.1	5.8	8.1	0.8	2.6	3.4	5.2	16.9	2.0
B	0.0	51.0	0.1		0.1	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0		0.1	0.1	0.0			0.1		0.0	0.0	
C	2.1	10.4	68.4	32.0	7.3	5.2	7.5	4.5	2.8	3.5	6.3	6.7	6.4	5.8	1.9	0.6	2.3	2.3	7.1	11.6	2.0
D	0.0		0.1	23.6		0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0			0.1	0.0	0.1		0.1	0.0		0.0	
E	0.1	0.5	0.3	0.4	49.2	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.1	0.2		0.5	0.8	0.4	0.3	0.0	0.3	0.1	0.3	0.3	
F	1.8	13.0	7.5	12.0	14.8	78.2	15.3	3.8	1.9	3.0	4.9	15.4	7.1	6.1	5.5	1.0	2.7	2.9	4.5	8.8	
G	1.7	3.1	3.3	3.9	3.6	2.4	46.2	2.5	2.1	2.6	8.3	3.0	3.3	2.5	2.4	0.7	1.3	1.8	2.7	7.2	6.1
H	1.0	4.7	2.8	4.2	5.5	2.3	3.6	68.2	1.3	12.5	8.3	3.2	12.7	10.1	2.7	0.7	2.9	1.6	5.6	5.5	
I	1.1	2.1	4.1	5.0	2.7	1.9	6.4	2.8	82.6	4.0	8.8	10.1	4.3	5.3	3.8	2.1	5.0	9.7	6.7	12.7	2.0
J	0.1		0.3		0.4	0.2	0.5	0.8	0.3	59.2	6.8	0.4	1.9	0.8	0.5	0.9	1.0	1.7	0.9	0.7	4.1
K	0.0		0.0			0.0	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.1	35.1	0.5	0.2	0.1	0.2		0.2	0.0	0.0	0.1	
L	0.0		0.1	0.4	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	1.0	38.0	0.3	0.2		0.1	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.3	2.0
M	0.1	1.0	0.4	1.2	0.9	0.3	0.5	0.8	0.2	0.9	2.4	0.5	30.9	1.5	0.9	1.2	1.0	0.5	1.0	1.0	2.0
N	1.5	2.1	3.3	3.9	5.8	3.2	4.1	9.2	2.5	5.8	6.8	6.1	19.4	56.2	3.8	1.4	6.4	3.1	8.0	9.1	
O	0.0	0.5	0.1			0.1	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.1		0.1	0.2	0.1	60.4	0.8	0.7	0.3	0.3	0.1	
P	0.0		0.0		0.1	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.5	0.5	0.1	0.8	0.2	2.4	84.0	1.5	0.7	1.0	0.1	2.0
Q	0.0	0.5	0.1		0.4	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2		0.1	0.6	0.4	2.2	1.2	63.1	0.2	1.2	0.5	0.0
R	0.2		0.4	1.5	0.7	0.3	0.7	0.3	1.3	2.2	1.5	1.2	1.3	0.9	1.5	2.2	1.1	67.7	3.2	1.1	2.0
S	0.2		0.8	0.4	0.8	0.2	0.6	0.8	0.5	0.9	1.0	1.2	1.7	1.4	1.2	1.7	3.0	2.1	48.2	1.7	2.0
T	0.9	0.5	1.5	2.7	1.9	1.1	2.2	1.3	1.5	1.3	5.4	7.6	2.9	2.3	2.1	0.5	4.5	1.7	3.9	22.4	2.0
U	0.0		0.0				0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0		0.1	0.0	0.0					0.0	0.0	71.4

Foreign-born women

Origin

Destination	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K	L	M	N	O	P	Q	R	S	T	U
A	45 421	1	1 116		9	52	1 203	118	1 251	20		15	63	508	32	23	93	130	87	1 162	
B	2	2							1								2			1	
C	1 163	1	11 728		15	68	880	235	1 244	72	14	15	143	573	11	58	68	111	232	1 520	
D	1		2	15		1	2		6	2			6					1	1	1	
E	8		13		67		8	3	15	2		2	5	31	1	2	3	4	5	14	
F	65		69	1		419	63	36	169	10	2	4	25	138		9	19	63	26	214	
G	1 345		810	4	13	64	7 546	235	1 623	98	24	29	159	479	12	65	98	213	151	971	3
H	151		212	1	1	46	158	3 280	433	118	4	6	146	933	3	13	65	52	79	447	
I	1 407	4	1 165	2	10	163	1 394	426	62 204	157	29	71	282	2 282	38	130	389	1 817	582	3 848	1
J	25		54	2	1	6	96	46	157	2 672	11	3	87	154	8	43	27	164	40	134	2
K	4		10	1		3	20	20	35	8	134	4	14	37		8	7	10	9	51	
L	17		14		1	5	33	7	94	6	5	301	21	47	1	9	9	19	16	126	
M	52		96	2	2	14	142	85	219	85	17	7	1 802	485	17	72	38	59	57	437	1
N	592		485	3	20	161	444	807	2 188	192	30	31	739	12 753	37	139	347	266	381	2 421	2
O	27		9		1	2	16	2	42	3		1	23	31	1 140	124	77	22	13	16	
P	29		41	1	3	7	52	16	152	45	6	7	74	172	129	10 739	146	115	133	128	12
Q	122		92		4	24	96	76	549	37	3	9	82	414	60	162	6 475	53	271	1 349	1
R	143		90	1	2	49	186	45	1 796	138	5	12	69	230	19	107	51	13 948	407	405	2
S	95		314	1	6	21	175	78	553	42	10	13	85	323	15	110	202	488	3 895	887	2
T	1 288	2	650	1	13	188	651	400	3 349	132	34	86	422	2 014	16	102	1 119	387	1 419	53 906	1
U			3				2		1	2				2		11	1	1	1	1	40
total	51 957	10	16 973	35	168	1 293	13 167	5 915	76 081	3 841	328	616	4 247	21 606	1 539	11 926	9 236	17 923	7 805	68 039	67

Row %

Origin

Destination	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K	L	M	N	O	P	Q	R	S	T	U
A	87.4	10.0	6.6		5.4	4.0	9.1	2.0	1.6	0.5		2.4	1.5	2.4	2.1	0.2	1.0	0.7	1.1	1.7	
B	0.0	20.0							0.0								0.0			0.0	
C	2.2	10.0	69.1		8.9	5.3	6.7	4.0	1.6	1.9	4.3	2.4	3.4	2.7	0.7	0.5	0.7	0.6	3.0	2.2	
D	0.0		0.0	42.9		0.1	0.0		0.0	0.1			0.1					0.0	0.0	0.0	
E	0.0		0.1		39.9		0.1	0.1	0.0	0.1		0.3	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.0	
F	0.1		0.4	2.9		32.4	0.5	0.6	0.2	0.3	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6		0.1	0.2	0.4	0.3	0.3	
G	2.6		4.8	11.4	7.7	4.9	57.3	4.0	2.1	2.6	7.3	4.7	3.7	2.2	0.8	0.5	1.1	1.2	1.9	1.4	4.5
H	0.3		1.2	2.9	0.6	3.6	1.2	55.5	0.6	3.1	1.2	1.0	3.4	4.3	0.2	0.1	0.7	0.3	1.0	0.7	
I	2.7	40.0	6.9	5.7	6.0	12.6	10.6	7.2	81.8	4.1	8.8	11.5	6.6	10.6	2.5	1.1	4.2	10.1	7.5	5.7	1.5
J	0.0		0.3	5.7	0.6	0.5	0.7	0.8	0.2	69.6	3.4	0.5	2.0	0.7	0.5	0.4	0.3	0.9	0.5	0.2	3.0
K	0.0		0.1	2.9		0.2	0.2	0.3	0.0	0.2	40.9	0.6	0.3	0.2		0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	
L	0.0		0.1		0.6	0.4	0.3	0.1	0.1	0.2	1.5	48.9	0.5	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	
M	0.1		0.6	5.7	1.2	1.1	1.1	1.4	0.3	2.2	5.2	1.1	42.4	2.2	1.1	0.6	0.4	0.3	0.7	0.6	1.5
N	1.1		2.9	8.6	11.9	12.5	3.4	13.6	2.9	5.0	9.1	5.0	17.4	59.0	2.4	1.2	3.8	1.5	4.9	3.6	3.0
O	0.1		0.1		0.6	0.2	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.1		0.2	0.5	0.1	74.1	1.0	0.8	0.1	0.2	0.0	
P	0.1		0.2	2.9	1.8	0.5	0.4	0.3	0.2	1.2	1.8	1.1	1.7	0.8	8.4	90.0	1.6	0.6	1.7	0.2	17.9
Q	0.2		0.5		2.4	1.9	0.7	1.3	0.7	1.0	0.9	1.5	1.9	1.9	3.9	1.4	70.1	0.3	3.5	2.0	1.5
R	0.3		0.5	2.9	1.2	3.8	1.4	0.8	2.4	3.6	1.5	1.9	1.6	1.1	1.2	0.9	0.6	77.8	5.2	0.6	3.0
S	0.2		1.8	2.9	3.6	1.6	1.3	1.3	0.7	1.1	3.0	2.1	2.0	1.5	1.0	0.9	2.2	2.7	49.9	1.3	3.0
T	2.5	20.0	3.8	2.9	7.7	14.5	4.9	6.8	4.4	3.4	10.4	14.0	9.9	9.3	1.0	0.9	12.1	2.2	18.2	79.2	1.5
U			0.0				0.0		0.0	0.1				0.0		0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	59.7

Table B.1. Industry transition matrix by place of birth and gender, 2009-12 *(cont.)*

Native-born men

Origin

Destination	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K	L	M	N	O	P	Q	R	S	T	U
A	163 796	38	3 638	11	296	3 504	5 542	1 095	2 517	234	26	44	230	1 525	695	272	183	477	384	102	
B	36	584	171	2	12	220	48	83	23	9	2	1	30	32	8	6	3	6	5	1	
C	4 180	139	61 673	180	416	8 011	4 779	2 710	3 772	1 093	105	124	1 318	3 007	225	453	259	922	496	50	5
D	28	4	155	391	10	132	59	36	44	41	16	8	56	56	5	26	7	13	7	1	
E	371	11	459	14	4 432	726	303	429	208	74	3	7	97	439	95	28	52	98	54	4	
F	3 431	180	7 176	107	603	102 575	5 666	2 284	2 425	495	39	175	713	2 576	545	237	147	620	366	57	
G	6 090	42	4 580	45	241	4 100	39 627	3 014	4 235	1 168	143	158	937	2 932	240	313	249	1 051	475	47	8
H	1 237	83	2 335	21	392	2 642	2 637	36 784	1 899	1 305	77	66	771	3 549	214	182	209	556	348	43	2
I	2 695	31	3 386	30	169	2 695	3 801	1 832	149 196	1 030	88	256	737	3 634	399	712	437	4 178	827	97	5
J	248	10	902	16	50	509	1 039	747	1 043	50 227	130	48	1 108	1 482	170	583	148	3 012	453	21	4
K	26	1	105	9	4	45	139	85	109	166	1 665	21	153	209	19	64	13	68	37	2	2
L	58	2	109	4	8	203	152	68	290	45	19	1 436	59	163	10	24	14	80	43	13	
M	258	20	1 094	46	68	675	786	526	728	1 016	121	49	13 677	1 618	164	648	117	573	288	17	2
N	1 694	33	2 650	35	429	3 091	2 688	3 537	3 651	1 531	156	146	2 059	42 323	320	650	476	1 498	798	69	
O	573	5	242	5	70	631	266	204	443	169	23	14	191	329	10 974	735	359	337	207	18	
P	256	2	307	9	22	188	279	173	742	463	44	26	621	794	707	61 394	432	1 230	706	20	2
Q	223	3	310	5	45	270	280	253	590	170	21	14	154	528	330	469	9 164	243	460	57	2
R	425	5	799	16	68	682	962	543	4 092	2 646	54	65	611	1 464	335	1 256	215	47 485	1 593	30	5
S	418	4	515	12	48	490	461	373	841	444	31	65	381	879	241	732	384	1 705	11 950	24	5
T	112		57	1	4	79	60	48	114	15	1	9	15	86	22	21	60	34	27	537	
U	5		8			5	9	6	4	2	1		2	2		2	1	3	9		109
total	186 160	1 197	90 671	959	7 387	131 473	69 583	54 830	176 966	62 343	2 765	2 732	23 920	67 627	15 718	68 807	12 929	64 189	19 533	1 210	151

Row %

Origin

Destination	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K	L	M	N	O	P	Q	R	S	T	U
A	88.0	3.2	4.0	1.1	4.0	2.7	8.0	2.0	1.4	0.4	0.9	1.6	1.0	2.3	4.4	0.4	1.4	0.7	2.0	8.4	
B	0.0	48.8	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	
C	2.2	11.6	68.0	18.8	5.6	6.1	6.9	4.9	2.1	1.8	3.8	4.5	5.5	4.4	1.4	0.7	2.0	1.4	2.5	4.1	3.3
D	0.0	0.3	0.2	40.8	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.6	0.3	0.2	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.1	
E	0.2	0.9	0.5	1.5	60.0	0.6	0.4	0.8	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.3	0.4	0.6	0.6	0.0	0.4	0.2	0.3	0.3	
F	1.8	15.0	7.9	11.2	8.2	78.0	8.1	4.2	1.4	0.8	1.4	6.4	3.0	3.8	3.5	0.3	1.1	1.0	1.9	4.7	
G	3.3	3.5	5.1	4.7	3.3	3.1	56.9	5.5	2.4	1.9	5.2	5.8	3.9	4.3	1.5	0.5	1.9	1.6	2.4	3.9	5.3
H	0.7	6.9	2.6	2.2	5.3	2.0	3.8	67.1	1.1	2.1	2.8	2.4	3.2	5.2	1.4	0.3	1.6	0.9	1.8	3.6	1.3
I	1.4	2.6	3.7	3.1	2.3	2.0	5.5	3.3	84.3	1.7	3.2	9.4	3.1	5.4	2.5	1.0	3.4	6.5	4.2	8.0	3.3
J	0.1	0.8	1.0	1.7	0.7	0.4	1.5	1.4	0.6	80.6	4.7	1.8	4.6	2.2	1.1	0.8	1.1	4.7	2.3	1.7	2.6
K	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.9	0.1	0.0	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.3	60.2	0.8	0.6	0.3	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	1.3
L	0.0	0.2	0.1	0.4	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.7	52.6	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.2	1.1	
M	0.1	1.7	1.2	4.8	0.9	0.5	1.1	1.0	0.4	1.6	4.4	1.8	57.2	2.4	1.0	0.9	0.9	0.9	1.5	1.4	1.3
N	0.9	2.8	2.9	3.6	5.8	2.4	3.9	6.5	2.1	2.5	5.6	5.3	8.6	62.6	2.0	0.9	3.7	2.3	4.1	5.7	
O	0.3	0.4	0.3	0.5	0.9	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.8	0.5	0.8	0.5	69.8	1.1	2.8	0.5	1.1	1.5	
P	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.9	0.3	0.1	0.4	0.3	0.4	0.7	1.6	1.0	2.6	1.2	4.5	89.2	3.3	1.9	3.6	1.7	1.3
Q	0.1	0.3	0.3	0.5	0.6	0.2	0.4	0.5	0.3	0.3	0.8	0.5	0.6	0.8	2.1	0.7	70.9	0.4	2.4	4.7	1.3
R	0.2	0.4	0.9	1.7	0.9	0.5	1.4	1.0	2.3	4.2	2.0	2.4	2.6	2.2	2.1	1.8	1.7	74.0	8.2	2.5	3.3
S	0.2	0.3	0.6	1.3	0.6	0.4	0.7	0.7	0.5	0.7	1.1	2.4	1.6	1.3	1.5	1.1	3.0	2.7	61.2	2.0	3.3
T	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.3	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.5	0.1	0.1	44.4	
U	0.0	0.0	0.0			0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0		0.0	0.0		0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0		72.2

Native-born women

Origin

Destination	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K	L	M	N	O	P	Q	R	S	T	U
A	127 512	2	3 265	1	20	121	4 698	293	2 670	137	18	37	236	976	282	353	374	239	272	239	3
B	4	29	13	1		6	5	2	4	4	2		11	5	1	2	2	1			
C	3 828	10	33 057	15	64	325	4 080	712	3 806	573	153	93	1 028	2 017	147	567	447	533	478	275	1
D	5		20	166	9	18	30	9	21	18	6	4	44	40	5	14	17	6	4		
E	26	1	54	4	693	19	100	22	71	19	3	5	46	89	21	35	27	21	15	16	
F	170	6	307	9	24	2 246	541	96	492	141	49	58	253	409	41	125	94	183	81	33	1
G	5 430	8	3 886	19	83	479	58 709	1 682	8 108	1 411	301	293	2 070	4 421	301	1 048	992	1 516	1 167	336	6
H	239	4	594	4	17	79	1 152	8 036	1 148	396	74	41	554	1 631	79	224	220	234	219	74	1
I	2 818	4	3 274	10	57	405	6 770	1 114	134 885	1 069	180	280	1 289	5 373	551	1 302	1 546	3 392	1 585	866	5
J	145	1	468	13	23	139	1 221	267	976	31 775	177	67	1 438	1 569	162	587	298	1 738	421	92	
K	22		148	12	7	48	358	72	238	186	2 710	37	286	346	31	129	65	96	56	15	1
L	41	1	84	1	3	64	275	57	316	85	52	1 719	158	216	11	40	58	57	62	23	
M	235	8	844	19	46	234	1 811	532	1 307	1 385	200	121	22 462	4 577	214	847	460	519	513	138	5
N	1 115	5	1 883	11	96	387	3 879	1 570	5 150	1 571	295	199	5 115	59 298	387	2 035	1 344	1 111	1 076	686	3
O	274	1	127	8	16	47	327	121	601	184	36	16	320	461	30 174	3 171	1 171	253	341	118	1
P	369	4	529	8	32	113	1 021	187	1 471	626	93	43	907	2 646	3 048	251 893	2 180	1 231	1 377	152	11
Q	496	2	550	10	31	105	1 343	274	2 118	332	67	62	535	1 737	1 079	2 460	33 658	636	1 553	497	1
R	255		452	4	12	138	1 294	204	3 221	1 493	63	63	527	1 083	245	1 126	457	29 781	1 043	96	1
S	333		442	9	19	98	1 135	194	1 700	436	53	53	616	1 191	323	1 301	1 324	1 246	17 956	223	4
T	397	1	315	1	18	42	437	98	1 039	85	19	34	186	838	140	180	592	113	326	5 381	1
U	1		3			6	7	2	6	3	1		3	2	2	11	1	2	2		60
total	143 715	87	50 315	325	1 270	5 119	89 193	15 544	169 348	41 929	4 552	3 225	38 084	88 925	37 244	267 450	45 327	42 908	28 547	9 260	105

Row %

Origin

Destination	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K	L	M	N	O	P	Q	R	S	T	U
A	88.7	2.3	6.5	0.3	1.6	2.4	5.3	1.9	1.6	0.3	0.4	1.1	0.6	1.1	0.8	0.1	0.8	0.6	1.0	2.6	2.9
B	0.0	33.3	0.0	0.3		0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0		0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0			
C	2.7	11.5	65.7	4.6	5.0	6.3	4.6	4.6	2.2	1.4	3.4	2.9	2.7	2.3	0.4	0.2	1.0	1.2	1.7	3.0	1.0
D	0.0		0.0	51.1	0.7	0.4	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0		
E	0.0	1.1	0.1	1.2	54.6	0.4	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.2	
F	0.1	6.9	0.6	2.8	1.9	43.9	0.6	0.6	0.3	0.3	1.1	1.8	0.7	0.5	0.1	0.0	0.2	0.4	0.3	0.4	1.0
G	3.8	9.2	7.7	5.8	6.5	9.4	65.8	10.8	4.8	3.4	6.6	9.1	5.4	5.0	0.8	0.4	2.2	3.5	4.1	3.6	5.7
H	0.2	4.6	1.2	1.2	1.3	1.5	1.3	51.7	0.7	0.9	1.6	1.3	1.5	1.8	0.2	0.1	0.5	0.5	0.8	0.8	1.0
I	2.0	4.6	6.5	3.1	4.5	7.9	7.6	7.2	79.6	2.5	4.0	8.7	3.4	6.0	1.5	0.5	3.4	7.9	5.6	9.4	4.8
J	0.1	1.1	0.9	4.0	1.8	2.7	1.4	1.7	0.6	75.8	3.9	2.1	3.8	1.8	0.4	0.2	0.7	4.1	1.5	1.0	
K	0.0		0.3	3.7	0.6	0.9	0.4	0.5	0.1	0.4	59.5	1.1	0.8	0.4	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	1.0
L	0.0	1.1	0.2	0.3	0.2	1.3	0.3	0.4	0.2	0.2	1.1	53.3	0.4	0.2	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	
M	0.2	9.2	1.7	5.8	3.6	4.6	2.0	3.4	0.8	3.3	4.4	3.8	59.0	5.1	0.6	0.3	1.0	1.2	1.8	1.5	4.8
N	0.8	5.7	3.7	3.4	7.6	7.6	4.3	10.1	3.0	3.7	6.5	6.2	13.4	66.7	1.0	0.8	3.0	2.6	3.8	7.4	2.9
O	0.2	1.1	0.3	2.5	1.3	0.9	0.4	0.8	0.4	0.4	0.8	0.5	0.8	0.5	81.0	1.2	2.6	0.6	1.2	1.3	1.0
P	0.3	4.6	1.1	2.5	2.5	2.2	1.1	1.2	0.9	1.5	2.0	1.3	2.4	3.0	8.2	94.2	4.8	2.9	4.8	1.6	10.5
Q	0.3	2.3	1.1	3.1	2.4	2.1	1.5	1.8	1.3	0.8	1.5	1.9	1.4	2.0	2.9	0.9	74.3	1.5	5.4	5.4	1.0
R	0.2		0.9	1.2	0.9	2.7	1.5	1.3	1.9	3.6	1.4	2.0	1.4	1.2	0.7	0.4	1.0	69.4	3.7	1.0	1.0
S	0.2		0.9	2.8	1.5	1.9	1.3	1.2	1.0	1.0	1.2	1.6	1.6	1.3	0.9	0.5	2.9	2.9	62.9	2.4	3.8
T	0.3	1.1	0.6	0.3	1.4	0.8	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.2	0.4	1.1	0.5	0.9	0.4	0.1	1.3	0.3	1.1	58.1	1.0
U	0.0		0.0	0.0		0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0		0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0		57.1

Table B.2. Characteristics of hires in 2009 by place of birth and gender

Top five industries of immigrants hired in 2009

	MEN									
	Foreign-born					Difference with the native-born			Foreign-born	Difference with the native-born
	Total		No change in contract	Under another contract	No current contract	No change in contract	Under another contract	No current contract	Part-time contracts	
	Number of contracts	%	Distribution in %			Distribution in %			%	
Agriculture, forestry and fishing	31 514	21	1	82	17	-1	-6	7	5	2
Activities of households as employers	26 032	17	20	68	12	2	10	-12	96	45
Construction	24 052	16	9	72	20	-3	1	1	20	8
Manufacturing	15 465	10	15	68	16	-9	9	0	22	12
Accomodation and food service activities	14 050	9	7	79	14	1	-2	1	42	8
All sectors	150 879	100	10	73	16	-3	2	1	36	17
	WOMEN									
	Foreign-born					Difference with the native-born			Foreign-born	Difference with the native-born
	Total (thousands)		No change in contract	Under another contract	No current contract	No change in contract	Under another contract	No current contract	Part-time contracts	
	Number of contracts	%	Distribution in %			Distribution in %			%	
Activities of households as employers	41 281	39	21	62	17	-3	12	-9	85	12
Accomodation and food service activities	16 835	16	5	78	16	-2	0	1	48	-1
Agriculture, forestry and fishing	11 682	11	1	81	18	0	-8	7	6	2
Administrative and support service activities	6 698	6	11	70	19	0	-1	1	73	6
Manufacturing	5 699	5	12	70	18	-9	8	1	40	13
All sectors	106 367	100	14	69	18	1	-4	3	60	23

Source: OECD calculation based on compulsory notifications to public employment services from employers (work contracts registered between 2009 and 2012).

Table B.3. Effective duration of the work contracts signed in 2009 by place of birth and gender

Means in months

	MEN						
	Foreign-born				Difference with the native-born		
	All contracts (excl. No change in contract)	No change in contract	Under another contract	No current contract	No change in contract	Under another contract	No current contract
Agriculture, forestry and fishing	4	-	5	3	-	0	-1
Activities of households as employers	18	-	16	22	-	7	9
Construction	7	-	6	9	-	-1	-3
Manufacturing	8	-	7	10	-	0	-3
Accomodation and food service activities	6	-	6	8	-	1	0
All sectors	7	-	7	9	-	0	-1
	WOMEN						
	Foreign-born				Difference with the native-born		
	All contracts (excl. No change in contract)	No change in contract	Under another contract	No current contract	No change in contract	Under another contract	No current contract
Activities of households as employers	15	-	13	20	-	2	5
Accomodation and food service activities	5	-	5	7	-	0	-1
Agriculture, forestry and fishing	4	-	5	3	-	0	-1
Administrative and support service activities	8	-	8	10	-	1	0
Manufacturing	8	-	7	11	-	0	-1
All sectors	9	-	8	13	-	1	2

Source: OECD calculation based on compulsory notifications to public employment services from employers (work contracts registered between 2009 and 2012).

Table B.4. Reasons for ending the work contracts signed in 2009 by place of birth and gender

Distribution in percentages

	MEN							
	Foreign-born				Difference with the native-born			
	Lay-off	Resignation	End of temporary contract	Other reason	Lay-off	Resignation	End of temporary contract	Other reason
Agriculture, forestry and fishing	8	11	58	24	3	7	-14	5
Activities of households as employers	30	48	8	13	12	30	-44	2
Construction	19	41	32	9	-5	11	-1	-4
Manufacturing	11	39	42	8	1	12	-12	-1
Accomodation and food service activities	8	29	52	11	1	6	-10	3
All sectors	13	32	42	13	3	11	-17	2
	WOMEN							
	Foreign-born				Difference with the native-born			
	Lay-off	Resignation	End of temporary contract	Other reason	Lay-off	Resignation	End of temporary contract	Other reason
Activities of households as employers	36	36	8	20	5	11	-22	6
Accomodation and food service activities	6	25	57	11	0	1	-4	3
Agriculture, forestry and fishing	7	9	62	22	2	7	-17	9
Administrative and support service activities	11	32	46	11	3	8	-9	-2
Manufacturing	8	41	41	10	-1	19	-17	-1
All sectors	16	29	41	15	10	12	-28	6

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