



Working Together for Local Integration of Migrants and Refugees



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Preface

Over 5 million people migrated permanently to OECD countries in 2016. Following the 2015/16 peak of refugee arrivals in Europe, attention has now shifted towards effectively integrating migrants into their new societies. While migration policy remains a national responsibility, central and local authorities recognise that integration needs to happen where people are, in their workplaces, in their neighbourhoods, and in the schools where they send their children. Behind every migration statistic, there are individuals or families starting a new life in a new place. Local authorities, while coordinating with all levels of government and other local partners, play a key role in integrating newcomers and empowering them to contribute to their new communities.

While the media and public debate have focused on the initial reception of migrants, recent increases in new arrivals have exposed the underlying governance weaknesses for both the short and long-term responses for integration. Such weaknesses often stem from the lack of coordination among policies across different sectors (such as labour, health, housing and education), as well as across levels of government. There is a need to break these policy silos in designing coherent responses at the local level and by involving non-state actors. Recent events have also been a catalyst for public sector innovation, by bringing together decision-makers across policy areas and from national and local levels. Inspiring examples are found in this report. Such new governance approaches are also valuable for building more resilient communities for all groups, including past migrants and other vulnerable groups.

The effective integration of migrants is a critical issue for regional development. Migrants often settle in metropolitan areas in order to access public services, social networks and jobs, and to contribute with their skills and diversity to local development. In many countries, rural areas are seeking new residents to revive their economic and demographic base and may seek to welcome more migrants. In this respect, regional economic development strategies could consider the important role migrants can play in boosting a local economy. This report supports peer-to-peer learning for the successful inclusion of migrants to support regional development, by providing a range of practices from 72 cities with a particular focus on Amsterdam, Athens, Barcelona, Berlin, Glasgow, Gothenburg, Paris, Rome, and Vienna and one small city in Germany, Altena.

This report also highlights that getting data at the right scale is essential to improve our policies for migrant integration. A new publicly available database at the regional level was created for this report. It shows where settled and recently arrived migrants are living, as well as how effectively they are integrating, for example, into local labour markets and housing.

There is no denying the fact that migration is a sensitive political issue. Evidence from this report shows that attitudes towards migrants tend to be more positive in regions with a greater share of migrants or where unemployment is lower. When places are

economically successful, all residents benefit and it is easier to combat different forms of discrimination.

Many cities are struggling with managing migrant integration, communicating their actions for migrants and engaging with the wider public. To tackle these challenges, some cities have strategically created shared spaces such as cultural and sports facilities for migrants and other residents to connect. Such approaches aim at preventing communities from living parallel lives. Other cities are working actively with employers to change mind-sets and address barriers for migrants in the labour market, particularly for female migrants.

In summary, *Working together for local integration of migrants and refugees* provides concrete examples of how different-sized cities have shaped migrant and refugee integration policies at the local level. While many of the examples in this report are from European cities, these lessons are also relevant to other OECD countries and beyond. The report's *Checklist for public action to migrant integration at the local level* is a tool that any city or region can use to work across levels of government and with other local actors in their efforts to promote more effective integration of migrants. Success in this area is important for all.



Angel Gurría
OECD Secretary-General



Corina Crețu
European Commissioner for Regional Policy

Foreword

When it comes to migrant integration, the local level matters. Where migrants go and how they integrate into their new communities depends on the specific characteristics of cities and regions. Local authorities play a vital role in this integration. Cities can learn from each other and the data and practices collected in this report help to provide local, regional, national and international policy makers and practitioners with better evidence for integration policy design.

This report describes why and how countries, regions and cities can adopt a territorial approach to migrant integration. It brings together lessons around 12 points for consideration in the development and implementation of migrant integration programmes at the local level. This report draws on both a statistical database on migrant integration outcomes at subnational level and a survey of 72 cities. Among those surveyed are nine large European cities (Amsterdam, Athens, Barcelona, Berlin, Glasgow, Gothenburg, Paris, Rome, Vienna) and one small city in Germany (Altena). Part I provides an overview of what we know about migrant integration at the local level. Part II focuses on the objectives for effectively integrating migrants at the local level. It provides a “Checklist for public action to migrant integration at the local level” along with concrete examples of actions that could be implemented. This checklist can be used as a self-assessment tool.

The report is an output of an OECD-European Union initiative contributing to the programme of work of the OECD Regional Development Policy Committee (RDPC) in the Centre for Entrepreneurship, SMEs, Regions and Cities. This work also contributes to the OECD Horizontal Project on ensuring better integration of vulnerable migrants by focusing on improving the integration capacities of the local governments. The final report was approved by written procedure on 8 December 2018 [CFE/RDPC(2017)11].

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The two-year project was co-ordinated by Claire Charbit, Head of the Territorial Dialogue and Migration Unit in the Regional Development and Tourism Division, with the support of Anna Piccinni, Policy Analyst, (initially Gaëtan Muller and Maria Trullen-Malaret) and in collaboration with Paolo Veneri, Head of the Territorial Analysis and Statistics Unit for the statistical pillar of the project (initiated with Monica Brezzi). The resulting report is composed of three chapters. Chapters 1, 3, 4, 5 and 6 have been drafted by Anna Piccinni and Claire Charbit, with the contribution of Lisanne Raderschall, OECD Secretariat. The authors would like to thank Eddy Adams (URBACT expert in Social Innovation and Human Capital) for his advice throughout the preparation of this work. Chapter 2 was drafted by Lukas Kleine-Rueschkamp and builds on the forthcoming joint working paper by Paolo Veneri, Marcos Diaz Ramirez (CFE), and by Thomas Liebig and Cécile Thoreau in the International Migration Division of the Directorate for Employment, Labour and Social Affairs.

The findings of Part I, Chapter 1, as well as Part II of the report draw on nine in-depth case studies of large cities within the European Union (Amsterdam, Athens, Barcelona, Berlin, Glasgow, Gothenburg, Rome, Paris, and Vienna) and one smaller municipality in Germany (Altena). An OECD survey was also carried out across 58 cities and associations of cities in the European Union and 4 in Turkey (see Annex B for a list of respondents). The OECD Secretariat would like to thank Carlos Mascarell Vilar from the Council of European Municipalities and Regions (CEMR) and Thomas Jézéquel from EUROCITIES for their collaboration and the circulation of the survey among their members.

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The Checklist included in this report was firstly presented and validated by representatives of all nine large cities, international organisations and other experts on local integration, during a workshop hosted by the City of Berlin on 26 June 2017, back-to-back with the 4th Mayoral Forum on Human Mobility, Migration and Development (27 June 2017). In addition to the city contacts for the case studies listed above, the OECD Secretariat would like to specifically express its gratitude for their availability, valuable involvement and contribution during this workshop to: Andreas Germershausen, Ayten Dogan, Nele Allenberg and Michael Weiner (Berlin), Lefteris Papaginnakis (Athens), Lola Lopez (Barcelona), Dominique Versini (Paris), Sabina de Luca (Rome), Monica Brezzi and Rosa Sanchez Yebra (Council of Europe Development Bank, CEB), Carlos Mascarell Vilar (CEMR), Andor Urmos (EU), Ana Feder (International Centre for Migration Policy Development, ICMPPD), Eugeni Villalbi (Metropolis), Johanne Cote-Galarneau (Montreal), Thomas Liebig (OECD), Rachel Reid (Open Society Foundation), Lamine Abbad (United Cities and Local Governments, UCLG), Jesus Salecedo (UNHABITAT), Collen Thurez (UNITAR), Karim Amer (UNHCR), Laura Colini (URBACT), and Sabrina Kekic (Urban Agenda for the EU: Partnership on Inclusion of Migrants & Refugees). The support of the OECD Centre in Berlin is also acknowledged.

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Abbreviations and acronyms

AMIF	Asylum Migration and Integration Fund
CEB	Council of Europe Bank
CEMR	Council Of European Municipalities and Regions
CFE	Centre For Entrepreneurship, SMEs, Regions and Cities
CMI	Centre For Mediterranean Integration
CSO	Civil Society Organisation
ECRE	European Council for Refugees and Exiles
EIB	European Investment Bank
ERDF	European Regional Development Fund
ESF	European Social Fund
EU	European Union
EU-LFS	European Community Labour Force Survey
EU-SILC	EU Survey Of Income and Living Conditions
FUA	Functional Urban Areas
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GMS	Global Mayors Summit
GVA	Gross Value Added
ICMPD	Migration Policy Development
IFIs	International Financial Institutions
IND	Immigration and Naturalisation Service
IOM	International Organisation for Migration
LGBTQ	Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual, Transgender and Queer
MPG	Migration Policy Group
MTM	Dialogue on Mediterranean Transit Migration
NGO	Non-Governmental Organisation
RDPC	Regional Development Policy Committee
SCB	Government Agency Statistics Sweden
SDG	Sustainable Development Goal
SEW	Survey of Education And Work
TL2	Territorial Level 2
TL3	Territorial Level 3
UASC	Unaccompanied Asylum-Seeking Children
UCLG	United Cities and Local Governments
UHR	Swedish Council for Higher Education
UN	United Nations
UN-Habitat	United Nations Human Settlements Programme
UNHCR	United Nations High Commissioner For Refugees
UNITAR	United Nations Institute For Training And Research

Executive summary

Recent migration to OECD countries has been substantial: 5 million additional people migrated permanently to OECD countries in 2016, up 7% compared with 2015. But migration to the OECD is not a new phenomenon: more than 10% of residents in the OECD area in 2016 were born abroad and in 90% of OECD regions, foreign-born populations are largely made up of settled migrants who have been in the host country for more than ten years.

Migration is not only a matter of how many people are migrating, but how well they integrate into their host country societies. The integration of migrants and refugees requires concerted efforts across all levels of government, but such efforts can yield real benefits. If integrated successfully, migrants contribute to their host countries in many ways – not least of all, economically.

At the same time, integrating migrants and refugees poses great challenges. These are highly diverse groups of people and communities. Migrants are men and women, young and old, from different cultural backgrounds and with different reasons for migrating as well as different levels of skills and work experience. Furthermore, the size and composition of migrant communities vary enormously.

Such diversity has to fit in with the specific economic, social and geographic characteristics of the host countries, regions and cities. These characteristics often shape how localities can offer integration services, which in turn may influence how migrants and refugees are dispersed across regions and which can create inequalities in terms of the opportunities available to them.

This report examines how such policy is set and managed at the local level and what can be learnt from existing experience. It describes why and how countries, regions and cities can adapt integration policy to their own, distinct local realities, drawing on a newly created statistical database on migrants and on an OECD survey of 72 cities, including nine large European cities (Amsterdam, Athens, Barcelona, Berlin, Glasgow, Gothenburg, Paris, Rome, and Vienna) and one small city in Germany (Altena), which are also the subject of in-depth case studies. These nine large cities are not only among the European cities most affected by the current wave of refugees and asylum seeker arrivals, but most also have a long tradition as immigration hubs.

Key findings

Integration begins from the moment migrants arrive in their host countries and where migrants settle can affect their paths to integration. This study shows that new migrants to OECD countries tend to come to places where there are already large existing migrant communities. In Europe, many large cities have such communities and draw migrants from outside the European Union, although migrants from other EU countries tend to be spread out more across regions. Some small and medium-sized cities in the OECD have also become migrant destinations.

What do cities and regions need to do to effectively integrate these new community members? In recent years, many have had to scale up and adapt their existing migrant integration services, but co-ordination and resources have been a challenge. Nearly 90% of the 72 cities surveyed for this study reported a lack of adequate co-ordination with central government in this area. A critical lack of emergency reception facilities represented a concern for the 9 large case study cities, while it was a concern only for 16% of the small and medium-sized cities. Many cities also evoked structural problems in public service delivery and housing for migrants. In this context, some cities have tried various innovative approaches to integration service delivery, including working with local civil society groups to provide complementary integration measures (language, cultural and vocational classes, skills assessments, internships and volunteering experiences, etc.) as early as possible following migrant arrivals.

Integrating migrants can benefit everyone, as part of efforts to create more inclusive and sustainable cities for all. Initial qualitative evidence does show that the presence of migrant communities could have a positive impact, even in disadvantaged neighbourhoods, by revitalising demand for local business, bringing local and migrant families together around public schools and health centres and diversifying the cultural activities for all residents. Yet only a few of the cities surveyed currently reflect in their local development strategies the added value that migrants can bring, although there are some cities that have communicated the advantages of diversity both for economic development and to balance out local demographic losses.

Finally, cities should invest in measuring the results of their integration work. This is needed to both monitor the performance of existing programmes and adapt them or develop new ones as necessary and to provide evidence on the benefits of integration as well as the costs of not effectively integrating migrants. Measuring integration successes can also help to build positive attitudes towards migrants in their host communities.

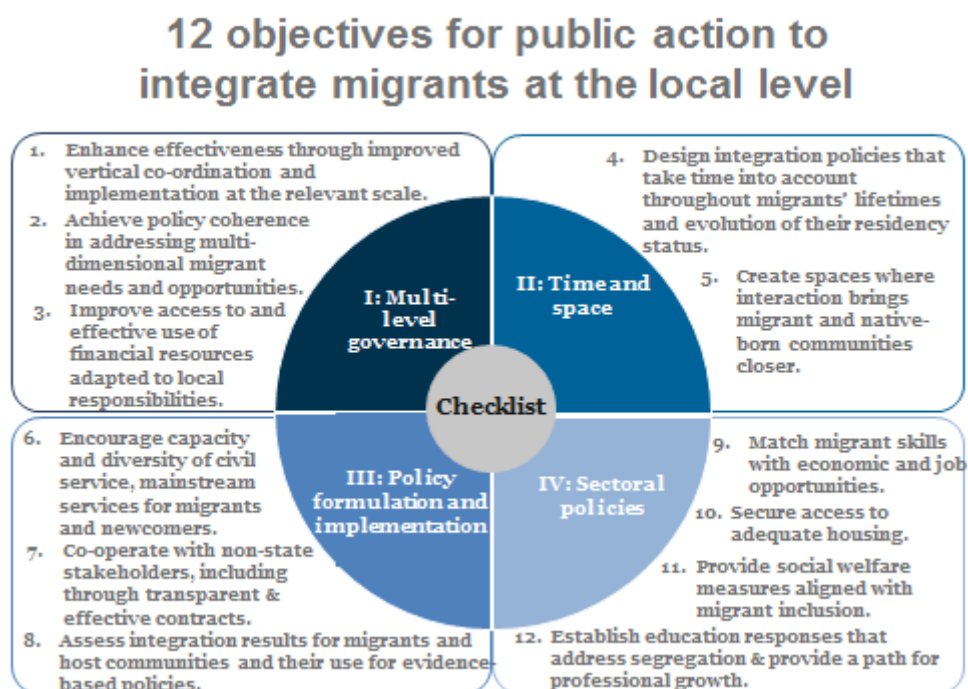
Developing local integration policies

This report presents 12 key points for local, regional, national and international policy makers and practitioners to consider as they develop and implement local migrant integration programmes:

1. Enhance effectiveness of migrant integration policy through improved vertical co-ordination and implementation at the relevant scale.
2. Seek policy coherence in addressing the multi-dimensional needs of, and opportunities for, migrants at the local level.
3. Ensure access to, and effective use of, financial resources that are adapted to local responsibilities for migrant integration.
4. Design integration policies that take time into account throughout migrants' lifetimes and status evolution.
5. Create spaces where the interaction brings migrant and native-born communities closer.
6. Build capacity and diversity in civil service, particularly in the key services that receive migrants and newcomers.
7. Strengthen co-operation with non-state stakeholders, including through transparent and effective contracts.
8. Intensify the assessment of integration results for migrants and host communities and their use for evidence-based policy making.
9. Match migrant skills with economic and job opportunities.

10. Secure access to adequate housing.
11. Provide social welfare measures that are aligned with migrant inclusion.
12. Establish education responses to address segregation and provide equitable paths to professional growth.

Figure 1. *Checklist for public action to migrant integration at the local level*



Source: Authors elaboration

Part I. What do we know about migrant integration at the local level?

Chapter 1. A territorial perspective on migrant and refugees integration

This chapter presents the key findings of this study and describes the need for a territorial perspective on migrant integration. It then examines regional differences in how migrant integration is managed and looks at the roles of different levels of government in integration.

Introduction

This chapter confirms the need for a territorial focus to address migrant integration issues. The places in which migrants arrive in host countries have different characteristics and different capacities to welcome newcomers. At the same time, the geographic dispersal of migrants across their host countries depends on range of different factors, such as the presence of existing communities from their country of origin, their own motivations for migration, or available work and educational opportunities.

Integration measures thus need to take a place-based approach, adapted to the characteristics of the host communities as well as to those of migrants themselves. Integration needs to happen where people are, in their workplaces, in their neighbourhoods and the schools to which they send their children, in the local supermarkets where they shop, and in the public spaces where they will spend their free time.

Successfully managing increasingly diverse local areas in terms of origins, cultural and religious backgrounds requires effective co-ordination between central/federal and subnational administrations, active local communities and local authorities capable to design what successful integration should look like and communicate their vision to citizens.

This work contributes to characterise the need for a territorial focus and appropriate multi-level governance mechanisms, when implementing the leaving-no-one behind imperative introduced by the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development Goals.¹

This chapter first presents key findings, then turns to the regional differences in how migrant integration is managed and looks at the roles of different levels of government in integration. The analysis is complemented by boxes with good practice case studies.

Key findings

- While immigration policy is set at the national level, migrant integration policies are generally implemented at the subnational level. Integration must be addressed at the right geographical scale, involving neighbouring municipalities in establishing the best options for the distribution of migrants when they arrive, the service and transportation provided, and measures for well-being and inclusion.
- Local governments must be part of a framework of multi-level governance for migrant integration, one that gives them the tools and adequate means needed for action. Localities should be considered partners in the national-level policy dialogue on integration objectives and indicators, informing national policy changes through their experience on the ground.
- Nearly two-thirds of migrants settle in mostly metropolitan, densely populated regions, with capital-city regions recording the highest population shares of migrants in the majority of OECD countries. While migrants tend to concentrate in urban areas, however, asylum seekers are more spread across urban-rural areas than are the rest of the resident population (including other migrants and native born).
- Between 2005 and 2015, OECD regions varied significantly in the change to their migrant population share, ranging from an increase of 12 percentage points to a decrease of 9 percentage points. Overall, in 80% of all regions, the share of foreign-born grew. Nevertheless, the large majority of regional migrant

populations consist mostly of settled migrants who have been in the host country for at least ten years.

- Cities are at the forefront of creating long- and short-term responses for the arrival and integration of migrants. The increasing concentration of migrants in urban areas is transforming cities into diverse spaces where different preferences and needs must be managed through policies that cut across different parts of the public sector and involve a range of local actors – non-governmental organisations, businesses, migrant and civil society associations, third-sector enterprises – in their efforts. The expertise and co-ordination of different actors with whom local authorities have well-established relations can be of great benefit.
- This report presents 12 key evidence-based points for reflection, in order to aid local, regional, national and international policy makers and practitioners in the development and implementation of migrant and refugee integration programmes, at local level: A checklist for public action to migrant integration at the local level.

A checklist for public action to migrant integration at the local level

Block 1. Multi-level governance: Institutional and financial settings

Objective 1. Enhance effectiveness of migrant integration policy through improved vertical co-ordination and implementation at the relevant scale.

Objective 2. Seek policy coherence in addressing the multi-dimensional needs of, and opportunities for, migrants at the local level.

Objective 3. Ensure access to, and effective use of, financial resources that are adapted to local responsibilities for migrant integration.

Block 2. Time and space: Keys for migrants and host communities to live together

Objective 4. Design integration policies that take time into account throughout migrants' lifetimes and evolution of residency status.

Objective 5. Create spaces where the interaction brings migrant and native-born communities closer

Block 3. Local capacity for policy formulation and implementation

Objective 6. Build capacity and diversity in civil service, with a view to ensure access to mainstream services for migrants and newcomers

Objective 7. Strengthen co-operation with non-state stakeholders, including through transparent and effective contracts.

Objective 8. Intensify the assessment of integration results for migrants and host communities and their use for evidence-based policies.

Block 4. Sectoral policies related to integration

Objective 9. Match migrant skills with economic and job opportunities.

Objective 10. Secure access to adequate housing.

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

inclusion.

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

Box 1.1. Who is a ‘migrant’?

The term ‘migrant’ generally functions as an umbrella term used to describe people that move to another country with the intention of staying for a significant period of time. According to the United Nations (UN), a long-term migrant is “a person who moves to a country other than that of his or her usual residence for a period of at least a year (12 months)”. Yet, not all migrants move for the same reasons, have the same needs or come under the same laws.

This report considers migrants as a large group that includes:

- Those who have emigrated to an EU country from another EU country (‘EU migrants’),
- Those who have come to an EU country from a non-EU country (‘non-EU born or third-country national’),
- Native-born children of immigrants (often referred to as the ‘second generation’), and
- Persons who have fled their country of origin and are seeking international protection.

For the latter, some distinctions are needed. While asylum seekers and refugees are often counted as a subset of migrants and included in official estimates of migrant stocks and flows, the UN definition of ‘migrant’ is clear that the term does not refer to refugees, displaced, or others forced or compelled to leave their homes:

The term ‘migrant’ in Article 1.1 (a) should be understood as covering all cases where the decision to migrate is taken freely by the individual concerned, for reasons of ‘personal convenience’ and without intervention of an external compelling factor. (IOM Constitution Article 1.1 (a)).

Thus, in this report the following terms are used:

- ‘Status holder’ or ‘refugee’ for those who have successfully applied for asylum and have been granted some sort of protection in their host country, including those who are recognised as ‘refugees’ on the basis of the 1951 Geneva Convention Relating to the Status of Refugees, but also those benefiting from national asylum laws or EU legislation (Directive 2011/95/EU), such as the subsidiary protection status.
- ‘Asylum seeker’ for those who have submitted a claim for international protection but are awaiting the final decision are referred.
- ‘Rejected asylum seeker’ for those who have been denied protection status.

- ‘Undocumented migrants’ for those who decide not to appeal the decision on their asylum seeker status or do not apply for another form of legal permission to stay.

This report systematically distinguishes which group is targeted by policies and services put in place by the city. Where statistics provided by the cities included refugees in the migrant stocks and flows, it will be indicated accordingly.

Source: OECD (2016), *International Migration Outlook 2016*, OECD Publishing, Paris, http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/migr_outlook-2016-en; UNSD (2017), “International migration statistics”, United Nations Statistics Division, <https://unstats.un.org/unsd/demographic/sconcerns/migration/migrmethods.htm#B>.

Box 1.2. Description of the municipality sample and methodology

The examples and statistics provided in the main body of this report (except for Chapter 2 and all other data referenced from the *OECD Database on Migrants in OECD Regions*) are extracted from two datasets. First, an in-depth study of nine large cities in the European Union (Amsterdam, Athens, Barcelona, Berlin, Glasgow, Gothenburg, Paris, Rome, Vienna) with population sizes ranging between 3 500 000 and 550 000 and a small city (Altena, Germany) with a population of 16 000. The sample has a median of 1 222 000 inhabitants and an average migrant share² of 23% ranging between 52% and 12%. Second, a short ad hoc survey was conducted with an additional 61 cities, rural districts and associations of cities in Europe and Turkey circulated among EURO CITIES and Council of European Municipalities and Regions (CEMR) members.³ Combined, the overall sample of 71 reaches a median of 186 000 inhabitants and an average migrant share of 13% and a median of 9%. The average share of non-European migrants amounts to 6% while the EU-migrant share constitutes 5%, while for the median the EU-migrant is as the average (5%) the median for non-European migrants constitutes only 3%. It should be noted that 63% of the responses come from Germany and are characterised by a smaller population median (153 921) and lower average migrant share (10%) than the rest of the non-German responses (630 000 and 17%, respectively). This overrepresentation leads to a bias in the data that should be borne in mind when considering the overall results.

The methodology adopted included an ad hoc survey collecting from municipalities and associations of municipalities: statistical and qualitative information identifying how cities situate themselves in multi-level governance mechanisms for integration policies. The survey considered: the specific competences that the cities have with regards to reception and integration policies; favourable and unfavourable factors to integration; and specific initiatives in terms of housing, education, labour market integration, communication, multi-stakeholders engagement, governance gaps, and resources available,

The methodology adopted for the case studies included the data collection from ten municipalities through an in-depth questionnaire around the above issues. Based on the information collected, the OECD team conducted field missions,

organised in collaboration with the municipality, to interview relevant actors: local business associations, employment agencies, NGOs, migrant and refugee associations, as well as national authorities (Ministers of Justice, Migration authorities, Minister of Employment, Minister of Interior, etc.). This information was then combined with a literature review on the local migration history and trends, as well as open source information on relevant integration initiatives, in order to complete the case studies for each city.

Migrant population in case-study cities

Municipality	% of migrant out of total city population	Definition of migrant
Altena	11.3 (ND)	FN
Amsterdam	51.60 (ND)	MB
Athens	23 (2011)	Unclear definition
Barcelona	16.6 (2016)	Unclear definition
Berlin	29.9 (2016)	MB
Glasgow	12.24 (2011)	FB
Gothenburg	24 (ND)	FB
	33.20	MB
Paris	14.9 (ND)	FN
Rome	12.74 (2015)	FB
	27.40	FN
Wien	38.30 (2016)	FB
	50.00	MB

Notes: MB: Share of the population who were born abroad/foreign nationals or at least one of their parents were born abroad or have foreign nationalities. FB: Share of the population with a foreign nationality, or naturalized citizens born abroad. FN: Share of population with foreign nationality. ND: No Date.

2. All data provided by the city administrations are subject to data availability as well as local definitions of migrant population.

3. Migrant Shares described here do not account for local specificities in data collection and categorisations. In some cities this share include population with a migration background (i.e. at least one of the parents was born abroad). Please see Box 1.1 above for more details in the definition of migrants in the ten cities.

4. Overall the additional sample comprises 62 cities, but only 51 included data on their population and migrant presence.

Source: OECD territorial grids, 2017; OECD (2016), *International Migration Outlook 2016*, http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/migr_outlook-2016-en; National Statistic Agencies (i.e SCB; etc.); OECD data collection through the case studies.

Regional differences in migrant integration

Although the integration of migrants is a primary objective of policy makers in many OECD countries, most existing data and work present evidence limited to the national level. Such statistics mask the great variation that characterises the geographic location of migrants, as well as the differences in their integration, as observed across places within the same country. The *OECD Database on Migrants in OECD Regions* offers policy makers a new tool to critically assess previous policies and articulate new ones, both based on a region's own experience as well as on evidence on the integration process across other OECD regions. Thus, it contributes to an effective policy response to the diverse and multidimensional challenges that recent migration poses.

This volume extracts some observations from this database, contributing to the existing literature on integration outcomes of international migrants by providing comprehensive and unprecedented evidence at the subnational level across the OECD.

Across OECD regions, migrants tend to be more concentrated in certain areas than native-born populations. Almost two-thirds of migrants settle in mostly metropolitan, densely populated regions, while only 58% of the native-born live in such regions (see Box 2.1). Capital-city regions play a vital role in the integration process of migrants, as those regions record the highest population shares of migrants in the majority of OECD countries. In Europe, non-EU migrants are more concentrated in certain areas than are EU migrants, who face fewer difficulties in obtaining work permits or getting their qualifications and education officially recognised. While migrants tend to concentrate in urban areas, however, asylum seekers are more spread across urban-rural areas than are the resident population, mainly due to dispersal mechanisms.

Between 2005 and 2015, OECD regions varied significantly in the change to their migrant population share, ranging from an increase of 12 percentage points to a decrease of 9 percentage points. Overall, in 80% of all regions, the population share of the foreign-born grew. Among those, regions in the north of Italy and Germany as well as the south of Sweden and Norway recorded particularly large increases in the population share of migrants, between around 5 and 12 percentage points. In general, regions with already relatively large migrant communities also experienced larger growth of those communities, as did more prosperous regions. The large majority of regional migrant populations consist mostly of settled migrants who have been in the host country for at least ten years. However, in (almost) all regions in Australia, Scandinavia, Spain and the United Kingdom, recent migrants account for 30% or more of the entire regional population of foreign-born individuals (OECD, 2017a).

In terms of their educational background, highly skilled migrants, those with tertiary education, predominantly seek opportunities in the same regions as highly skilled native-born. While migrants across OECD countries are on average as likely to be tertiary-educated as native-born, the education of migrants differs significantly, both across regions and according to the continent of origin of migrants. Among migrants, there is a large discrepancy – 10 percentage points on average – in tertiary educational attainment between EU and non-EU migrants (OECD, 2017a). While EU migrants are, on average, even more educated than native-born, non-EU migrants are significantly less educated than both native-born and EU migrants.

Migrants often face great challenges in integrating into their host regions' labour markets. They have higher unemployment rates, are more likely to be over-qualified for their jobs and earn lower incomes than native-born. Analogously to educational attainment, a clear divide can be observed between EU and non-EU migrants. In most European OECD regions, EU migrants record employment levels comparable to those of native-born. In comparison, employment rates are on average 10 percentage points lower for non-EU migrants in European OECD regions (OECD, 2017a). The income gap between migrants and native-born, documented for European regions, is particularly pronounced in urban (densely populated) areas. The larger discrepancy between native-born and migrant in household incomes in urban areas might also be reflected in the finding that relative housing conditions, which directly affect individuals' well-being, are worse for migrants in urban areas, too. The difference between migrant and native-born populations in the share of households living in overcrowded dwellings is greater in urban than in non-urban areas.

The perception of the role played by migrants in society can vary in different types of regions. Migrants are more likely to be seen as providing an important contribution to the local economy in regions with larger migrant communities. Furthermore, the economic conditions of native-born appear to be more relevant in shaping attitudes towards migrants and migration in general than the labour market outcomes or economic contribution of migrants. Across European OECD regions, unemployment among native-born is negatively correlated with views on migrants' economic contribution and tolerance for migration of different ethnicities or from poorer non-European countries (OECD, 2017a).

The characteristics of the place where people live can also help shed light on the process of migrant integration. The structure of regional economies is significantly correlated with gaps in labour market outcomes between native-born and migrants. Regions with a greater importance of high-tech services sectors such as information and communication, rather than industry or construction, record smaller differences, on average, in employment outcomes between native- and foreign-born populations. Additionally, the existence of established migrant communities seems to make it easier for migrants to search for jobs that are equivalent to their educational background. In regions with a larger share of migrants that have stayed in the host country for at least ten years, the differences in over-qualification rates between migrants and native-born are lower than in regions without such established migrant communities.

Multi-level governance matters

Migration makes places more diverse, bringing new challenges and opportunities that need to be managed locally (Benton, 2017). While immigration policy is often determined at national level, local government has the overarching mandate of ensuring local, social and economic well-being. Furthermore, on average in OECD countries, subnational governments are in charge of 40% of public spending and 60% of public investment (OECD, 2017b).

Developing and implementing integration measures involves a wide variety of policy dimensions: education, labour, welfare, health, housing, urban planning, economic development and so forth. Thus, local authorities must manage complementarities across sectors in order to successfully achieve integration objectives.

Five dimensions are key to defining a consistent, co-ordinated approach to migrant integration:

1. Local governments must be part of a framework of multi-level governance that gives them competences and adequate means for action. Localities should be considered partners in the national-level policy dialogue on integration objectives and indicators, informing national policy changes through their experience on the ground.
2. Local governments must identify complementarities across the wide variety of policy sectors involved in supporting integration: labour market, social, health, housing, education, economic development, culture, etc.
3. Local governments must involve different actors from the local community – non-governmental organisations (NGOs), businesses, migrant and civil society associations, third-sector enterprises – in the efforts to make diversity an investment. The expertise and co-ordination of different actors with whom local authorities have well-established relations can be of great benefit. .

4. Agile and continuous learning and evaluation are needed, using: evaluation of integration outcomes, capacity building of municipal staff, and knowledge sharing across departments dealing with vulnerable categories as well as learning from the experience of other cities.
5. Integration must be addressed at the right geographical scale, involving the neighbouring municipalities in establishing the best options for the distribution of migrants when they arrive, the service and transportation provided, and measures for well-being and inclusion.

National governments have an important role to play, not only in clarifying competences and contributing to financial needs, but also in incentivising mutual learning across cities and regions, disseminating successful approaches and appropriate innovations across cities. Further national governments influence the room for manoeuvre and effectiveness of local actions by designing flexible policies that can be easily adjusted to local needs – this is especially important concerning labour market policies – and providing transparent information upfront about migrants’ potential and constraints regarding integration (OECD, 2006).

To understand how local authorities take initiatives that relate to integration and implement them, within the framework of this study, an *institutional mapping* for each of the ten partner cities (Altena, Amsterdam, Athens, Barcelona, Berlin, Glasgow, Gothenburg, Paris, Rome, Vienna) analysed is presented, as a reference point to clarify who is in charge of what and the interactions among the different stakeholders. In addition, based on the variety of challenges and experience reported through the study, the OECD has created a single checklist of the 12 key objectives that should guide policy makers when formulating and managing integration policies, presented in Chapter 3.

Key observations from the cities analysed

Types of integration policies vary, but all aim to ensuring equal access to services and opportunities

Across most of the European countries analysed in this study, until the late 1980s, migrant policies were mainly group-specific, aimed at preparing ‘guest workers’ to return to their countries of origin (see “Objective 4. Design integration policies that take time into account throughout migrants’ lifetimes and evolution of residency status”). Since the 1990s, however, ‘mainstreaming’ mechanisms, meaning inserting migration as a parameter in universal public service policies (labour market, social, health, housing, education, etc.), have ensured that more ‘migrant-sensitive’ public services have been established (IOM-JMDI, 2015).

Local measures for overcoming linguistic or cultural barriers, such as providing information or services in a variety of languages, have had the advantage of avoiding parallel systems or different treatment based on ethnicity or nationality, and have ensured sustainable access to public services and infrastructures for migrants. These measures are usually seen as providing initial support (i.e. language, accompaniment, etc.) to newcomers to navigate the system until the point it is fully accessible for all. This is the ratio of many of the group-specific policies set up in many cities since 2015 targeting asylum seekers and refugees (see “Refugees and asylum seekers: Responses to new challenges can help address past unsolved co-ordination problems and revamp a group-based approach”).

Local policies for integration tend to be “generic where possible, and specific where necessary” (Wittebrood and Andriessen, 2014) meaning that they add local components to national generic policies to help ensure equal treatment for all groups and also design group-based measures when necessary, in order to tailor the national package to local migrants’ needs. For example, local policies for highly skilled migrants and local initiatives for EU migrants, such as the Welcome Desk for EU Migrants in Amsterdam.

Cities are not only concerned with equal access to service and opportunities for persons with a migrant background. Integration is part of broader cities’ effort to break divides whether they are created by race, religion, gender, gender orientation, disabilities, economic-social conditions, etc. In this sense often a city opts for developing integration policies rather inclusion ones, that target all groups based on their vulnerability, interests and capacities rather than individual characteristics (see “Designing city spaces to promote community, interconnected lives and a common sense of belonging”).

Multi-level governance allows cities to ensure equal access to services for all groups, in conjunction with the efforts of local civil society

To achieve inclusion, cities often use flexible, multi-level mechanisms to co-ordinate integration measures and share objectives across levels of government. Higher levels of government influence the room for manoeuvre of municipalities to design and implement a local approach to integration. Decentralisation influences the official competences that the local level will have depending, for instance, on whether regional authorities are in charge of important integration-related sectors (such as health) or they are in charge of administering funding, in particular EU social and structural funds that can be used for projects addressing integration-related issues (see “Objective 3. Ensure access to, and effective use of, financial resources that are adapted to local responsibilities for migrant integration”). More or less formal multi-level governance tools (such as platforms for dialogue and information sharing, incentives for co-ordination, priority selection and performance achievement, contracts across levels as well as ex post evaluation) can influence local policy makers’ attitudes towards inclusion, orient their priorities and build capacities for better integration policies outcomes, including in terms of local development (see “Objective 1. Enhance effectiveness of migrant integration policy through improved co-ordination across government levels and implementation at the relevant scale”).

In responding to migrants’ specific needs, cities often outsource some measures to NGOs in different integration policy areas, such as language acquisition, housing, support to administrative processes, access to jobs, health, food, cultural activities, etc. (see “Objective 7. Strengthen co-operation with non-state stakeholders, including through transparent and effective contracts”). This is not only for legal reasons. NGOs can also assist those migrants that municipalities might not be able to reach, because they have more specific expertise with this public. These are often grass-roots organisations located within migrant communities (see “Objective 5. Create spaces where the interaction brings migrant and native-born communities closer”). As such, they can bring an element of co-production to the design and development of interventions.

Policy coherence at local level: Tools and learning practices

Often, integration strategies aim to guide migrants across service delivery in all public sectors, avoiding fragmentation (i.e. single mothers might not be able to access language courses or other training if their children cannot access pre-school) and loopholes in

accessing services (i.e. holes in the system – for instance when a change in status incurs - preventing people from accessing the services to which they are entitled). This brokering and navigation function emerges as an important dimension of effective support to new arrivals in particular. Such a “road map approach” can be facilitated by co-ordination and dialogue mechanisms, shared information systems, mutualisation of practices and building a sense of shared responsibility for all departments that deal directly with migrants. Ideally a ‘road map’ following the crucial steps that migrant and refugee take at different stages in their lives could be drawn collectively by the relevant services for each department to plan its activities coherently to the road map (see “Objective 2. Seek policy coherence in addressing the multi-dimensional needs of, and opportunities for, migrants at the local level”).

Many cities go beyond a strategy delivering services of comparable quality to all publics and supporting their access to jobs. They set their visions of what sustainable, inclusive and diverse cities should look like. In the words of London’s vice-mayor, “Diversity does not equate to successful economic integration.”² Cities formulate inclusive urban development strategies that aim at enabling all individuals to achieving the best outcomes regardless of personal characteristics (i.e. sexual orientation, age, gender, disabilities, race and ethnicity, religion, etc.). Cities are becoming more diverse due to a variety of individual characteristics of their inhabitants, and take increasing into account the impact of this diversity in their labour market and in the society more in general and try to reflect it in more inclusive strategies (OECD, 2018). The importance of spaces and interaction emerges regularly among the objectives of these policies for inclusion throughout many case studies (see “Designing city spaces to promote community, interconnected lives and a common sense of belonging”).

Beyond a strict division of competences across sectors and levels, and mixing generic and specific measures, municipalities try to implement a coherent approach to migrant integration. Evidence from the extended OECD research sample shows that the majority of cities set up an entity dedicated to migrant and refugee integration (81%) (see “Which tools could work and what could be done better” under Objective 2). Yet, only 54% have a specific strategy covering all sectors involved in migrant integration. Only 47% of the respondents of the ad hoc questionnaire sample consult with other actors such as the cities’ migrant organisations, civil society organisations or the private sector.

Foster learning is essential for improving integration policy coherence. not only from past experience, but also from all sectors of the city administration that have experience dealing with different types of vulnerable population segments, including with departments managing cross-sectoral projects addressing social inclusion and combating poverty. Also the expertise of non-state actors can benefit tremendously to strengthening public service capacities (OECD, 2015). A permanent consultative committee on migrant integration, including non-government local stakeholders, has been put in place by 47% of the respondent cities of the ad hoc questionnaire. Nearly the same amount (46%) identify capacity gaps (described as insufficient know-how, training, technical, infrastructural capacity of local actors to design and implement integration policies) as very high or significant shortcoming to integration policies. Beyond municipal departments and NGOs, experience-sharing mechanisms with neighbouring municipalities could improve the quality of integration-related services offered at a more relevant geographical scale. For instance better experience sharing could allow for sharing service delivery across municipalities and achieving economies of scale. Such co-ordination across neighbouring communes was only rarely observed in the responses to the questionnaire. One interesting example is the association of 13 municipalities,

including the city of Gothenburg, Sweden, where the mayors have met once a month since the 2015 peak in refugee arrivals in order to discuss synergies for housing and provision of specific services.

Refugees and asylum seekers: Responses to new challenges can help address past unsolved co-ordination problems and revamp a group-based approach

This report investigates to what extent the measures to receive and integrate asylum seekers and refugees undertaken by municipalities are a reaction to the shock in the number of arrivals since 2015 (showing their resiliency) or whether they are routine policies that the municipality already had in place to address migrant needs and have been scaled up.

The peak inflow of refugees and asylum seekers in 2015 prompted an unprecedented reaction on the part of citizens and local authorities, an engagement to host new arrivals, provide for their sustenance and to integrate them (see “Block 1 Addendum. Shifts in the governance and funding of the policies for refugees and asylum seekers”). Nevertheless, although the overall refugee numbers in 2015 were very significant, those new arrivals represent a small percentage of migrant population in the cities in the case study sample (from 0.80% in Amsterdam to 3% in Berlin) and a very small percentage compared to total population (0.40% in Amsterdam, 0.36% in Paris, etc.³).

Many of the measures implemented by local authorities in the sample, such as the use of interpreters or cultural mediators, or information websites for migrants, were started in 2016, indicating an increased awareness and response to particular needs, rather than a scaling up of existing services. Targeted measures were put in place to accommodate, educate, treat and introduce into the labour market the arriving refugees and asylum seekers. These group-specific measures prompted, in some cases, cross-sectoral co-ordination within municipalities as well as multi-level co-ordination, overcoming past obstacles towards more coherent integration policies. In other cases, cities were confronted with difficulties in implementing the decisions that were taken by higher levels of government, often feeling that they had received insufficient information or were not consulted adequately.

The results of these targeted interventions could reshape the future of integration policies if they prove to create better conditions for successful integration. In this sense, assessment of these mechanisms should not only take into account their performance in managing the emergency but also their sustainability in terms of governance and risk of creating parallel service delivery, which would be detrimental for equality (see “Policy coherence at local level: Tools and learning practices”).

National governments generally designed dispersal mechanisms to avoid concentration of asylum seekers in some areas of the country that had happened in the past (for example, in Italy and the United Kingdom) and that still happens today in some EU countries. Following initial responses, some national governments adapted funding to the new needs and devolved some competences (such as housing for refugees in the Netherlands) to municipalities, recognising from past experiences that they could better take into account local housing priorities. Some national authorities involved the local level in designing and managing reception and integration mechanisms for refugees and asylum seekers, in collaboration with local NGOs, recognising their long-standing tradition in working with these groups. Examples Italy’s Protection System for Asylum and Refugees – SPRAR – set up in 2002 and the early integration programme in Amsterdam. Based on previous labour market integration challenges – only 25% of refugees had a job 3.5 years after

recognition – the city of Amsterdam designed a new, all-encompassing, early integration response. The “Amsterdam approach” capitalised on the migrant integration experiences of all relevant city departments, designing a ‘chain’ management model in which all sectors are represented.

Many cities aim to integrate as rapidly as possible, adopting holistic approaches from day one, which start with integration measures for people who applied for asylum, and recognised refugees. Such approaches acknowledge that people who are displaced for several years or more need more than just food and shelter in order to build new lives. It also recognises the high motivation to integrate – particularly through employment – on the part of many refugees. The OECD case studies show the high degree of autonomy that many of the ten cities exemplified during the last two years, in reacting promptly in the wake of the increased refugee and asylum seeker arrivals. They did so by starting new measures or scaling existing ones, and by having learnt from past experiences that delays are detrimental to the integration process.

Experience with diversity makes places more resilient to increase in the number of newcomers

The involvement of a local administration in integration policies not only depends on the sectors for which they have competence, but also on the local political will and past experience. These are shaped by a variety of factors, many of which are self-reinforcing. Places that have experience with diversity are more likely to accept migrants. According to recent OECD analysis migrants’ perceived contribution to the local economy is positively correlated with the share of foreign-born people in a region (Kleine-Rueschkamp and Veneri, forthcoming). There is a sort of “diversity culture” that builds over time and makes it possible for cities to welcome large waves of refugees and asylum seekers and to maintain, despite difficulties, a positive perception in the public opinion. For example, between 2015 and 2017, public opinion in Amsterdam remained in favour of welcoming refugees and asylum seekers (Amsterdam, 2016^[11]).

Cities with long-standing experience in hosting and integrating refugees and migrants were able to build on existing mechanisms to scale up their response in 2015 and were better prepared should integration needs again increase. In particular, some cities have well established mechanisms of co-ordination with NGOs, for example, Barcelona has a platform co-ordinating all actors involved in provision of language classes for foreigners. Mechanisms of dialogue with the private sector are particularly effective in swiftly introducing newcomers to local job market opportunities, for example, “Barcelona Activa”, a municipal employment service that aligns its capacity-building offer for migrants to local market needs. Other cities were able to strengthen existing agreements with housing associations, in order to identify appropriate housing solutions to shelter asylum seekers and host refugees, for example in Amsterdam, Gothenburg, and Glasgow. Also, the presence of multi-linguistic staff within the public service has a key impact on the immediate capacity of the city to respond to newcomers’ needs. This also provides important role models for new arrivals.

Making migrant inclusion a shared value

A number of factors can impact on how people perceive migrants: how mixed are neighbourhoods, schools, places of worship, public spaces; the diversity of the public service; the diversity of the political, media and cultural landscape; and the general economic and employment conditions in the host region (Kleine-Rueschkamp and

Veneri, forthcoming). The active participation of migrants and refugees in local economies, politics, arts, sports, public institutions, and volunteering can create collective experiences that defeat stereotypes. Involving migrants in shaping their local community can help to demonstrate their positive contributions and to overcome trust barriers.

Local leaders influence host communities' perceptions of migrants through their vision and communication campaigns. Some cities have built their tourism attractiveness campaigns on their diversity, such as Berlin, while others, such as Barcelona, have made all citizens responsible for increasing tolerance and inclusion by training volunteers as "anti-rumour agents". Some 61% of the cities in the ad hoc survey had developed public awareness campaigns around positive results of migration, for instance showing how migrants revitalised some neighbourhoods (Athens) or countered depopulation in (Altena). Cities tend to present integration as a two-way process: all individuals mutually engage in local integration and need to show respect for others in their communities, as shown by initiatives such as the Vienna Charter or the Berlin Integration and Diversity Strategy.

Cities also work with the local business community to foster openness to employing migrants and refugees. Over time, businesses may become more open to migrant workers and sometimes they even revise requirements in terms of language skills. For example, in Swedish Chamber of Commerce has noted that some employers have started accepting applications of candidates who speak English rather than Swedish, in sectors such as engineering. These means to prevent discrimination don't only apply to discrimination against ethnic minorities and usually rely on national anti-discrimination legislation.

Local authorities are involved in integration for the long term

Cities are at the forefront not only of managing the recent influx of asylum seekers, but also of providing essential services for all migrants during their lives. This includes guaranteeing a safe welcoming environment, promoting long-term integration, and creating labour and education paths to self-sufficiency (see "Objective 4. Design integration policies that take time into account throughout migrants' lifetimes and evolution of residency status"). This long-term support is seen in terms of rendering individuals and their families more autonomous users of universal public services, while preserving contact in order to be able to accompany them with critical orientation at "turning points" in their lives (changing status, completing their studies, obtaining or losing job, when family reunites or grows, etc.).

Designing city spaces to promote community, interconnected lives and a common sense of belonging

People from different backgrounds often live parallel lives within the same city. Discrimination combined with high levels of segregation, such the ones analysed in many of the case studies, may contribute to heightened social tensions, encourage prejudice and restrict social mobility and employment opportunities. This is not only true for migrants, other groups (LGBT, disable, gender, religion/belief, younger or older people, etc.) feel they are experiencing different types of discrimination (EUROBAROMETER, 2015) and might not feel fully included in some of the activities and opportunities that the city offers. Inclusion doesn't happen by taking the same public transport or sharing work places, interconnected lives start when people from different groups live, work, go to school, dine, go out to have fun, and so forth. Shortening distances through inclusive

urban development policies of which integration of migrants is often a key dimension, remains a cross-cutting priority for the local authorities who contributed to the survey.

As well as addressing structural inclusiveness issues and ‘neighbourhood effects’ (see “Objective 5. Create spaces where the interaction brings migrant and native-born communities closer”) through policies aiming at ‘de-segregating’ housing (see “Objective 10. Secure access to adequate housing”) and schools (see “Objective 12. Establish education responses to address segregation and provide equitable paths to professional growth”), inclusive urban development policies include making public places attractive and accessible to different groups.

New city spaces can bridge not only ethnic, but also generational, gender, religious and social divides for instance by building accessible and attracting libraries, schools, recreation centres and theatres. Local civil society organisations are the best ally of municipalities in this sense. Their bottom-up initiatives contribute to fostering social mix and involve long-standing migrant networks (see “Objective 4. Design integration policies that take time into account throughout migrants’ lifetimes and evolution of residency status”). Common spaces managed by NGOs and migrant associations with municipal support – often through seed funding or open bids for grants – offer important opportunities for sustained interaction over time. Interaction with the local business community is also fostered by approaching spaces where migrants are hosted and where local entrepreneurs set up their activities; there are examples of this in Amsterdam and Paris.

Sharing good practices across cities

There is much good practice across cities that clearly needs to be shared and could save time and effort if applied where appropriate. Increasingly, cities participate in international networks to share their experiences and offer reciprocal support. The voices of cities, describing their role in welcoming and integrating migrants and refugees are more and more heard at global level. Mayors from “global” and small cities have been taking part in international summits in order to present their migrant integration programmes and to influence international decision making, in particular in the formulation of the UN compacts on migration and refugees that will be discussed in 2018.

Numerous examples of platforms that bring together cities around integration issues include:

- The Global Mayoral Forum (see Box 5.2) UN initiative from which The Global Mayors Summit invites municipal leaders, civil society, and international stakeholders to discuss how cities overcome obstacles to implementing policies that promote migrant and refugee integration, rights protection, and empowerment. United Cities and Local Governments (UCLG) and its European branch, the Council of European Municipalities and Regions (CEMR). These groups co-ordinate with municipal associations in collecting, practicing and advocating for strengthening the role of cities in migrant integration.
- EUROCITIES, a network of major European cities that showcases the practical implications of the work that cities do in receiving and integrating refugees and that reinforces the important role that local governments should play in the multi-level governance of migration
- As part of the Urban Agenda for the European Union, the City of Amsterdam is leading a Partnership for the Inclusion of Migrants and Refugees. This partnership includes the European Commission (DG HOME as co-ordinator, DG REGIO, DG

EMPLOYMENT), four EU member states, five cities and civil society organisations.⁴

- The URBACT Network of Arrival Cities, which fosters migrants' social inclusion, sharing good practices between project partners.⁵
- The Mediterranean City-to-City Migration Project, which seeks to contribute to improving the governance of migration at local level in cities in Europe and the southern Mediterranean.⁶ (see Box 5.1)
- The OECD global coalition of Champion Mayors for Inclusive Growth, which was created in March 2016 (see Box 5.4).

Other key actors include the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR), the Council of Europe Development Bank (CEB), the European Investment Bank (EIB), the European Council for Refugees and Exiles (ECRE), the Migration Policy Group (the MPG) and the Center for Mediterranean Integration (CMI).

Improving the measurement of integration

The diverse sources of evidence described above can all contribute to fine-tuning integration policies at local level. A major challenge lies in incentivising local and national policy makers to quickly adjust or change their strategies by learning from their past experience as well as from experiences elsewhere. In this regard, data collection and sound evaluation mechanisms can play a vital role. They can improve the impact of integration-related measures by providing an overview of the status quo of integration outcomes and by offering insights into formulating best practices.

Among the dimensions that need to be considered, migrants' local living conditions as well as their outcomes in the labour market or education are crucial. For instance, precise information on migrants' employment rates, their income and the degree to which their qualifications are recognised and adequately used in their host communities can be helpful in eliciting systematic integration challenges, especially if they are juxtaposed with the outcomes of local non-migrant residents.

Beyond such standard indicators, more inclusive evaluations should be designed, involving the recipients of the policies. Migrant direct experience should be systematically added to cities' learning processes through participatory evaluation and consultative mechanisms. Other aspects of integration should also be considered such as levels of contact between different population segments, increased diversity and attractiveness of the city thanks to migration.

Conclusion

This chapter has examined the need for a territorial approach to migrant integration issues. The places in which migrants arrive in host countries have different characteristics and different capacities to welcome newcomers. At the same time, the geographic dispersal of migrants across their host countries depends on many factors, from the presence of existing communities from the migrant's country of origin to a migrant's own reasons for migrating to available employment and educational opportunities.

Integration measures thus need to take a place-based approach, adapted to the characteristics of the host communities as well as to those of migrants themselves. Successfully managing this requires effective co-ordination between national and subnational administrations, local authorities, civil society groups and businesses.

Together, all partners must be able to envision what successful integration should look like, communicate this vision and implement it.

To achieve this, all stakeholders need reliable evaluation tools and stronger data on how integration measures are working on the ground, at the regional and local levels. Although there have been initiatives to compare migrants' integration outcomes nationally (OECD and European Union, 2015), no systematic subnational analysis has so far been conducted. This gap is addressed in Chapter 2., providing empirical evidence on migrant characteristics and outcomes in OECD regions.

Notes

1. Migrants are mentioned explicitly in SDG 10.7 as well as with regards to promoting labour rights and reducing the costs of remittances (SDG 8.8/10.c) making the need for their inclusion and integration explicit in different sectors.
2. Keynote speech delivered at the Global Mayor Summit, 18 September 2017, New York City.
3. Indicators here provided correspond to categories put in place by cities and so their comparability remains limited. It is possible that these data are underestimated in some cities, given the scale of the 2015 arrivals and the notorious difficulty in gathering accurate data for these groups.
4. Amsterdam (Co-ordinator), Athens, Barcelona City Council, Berlin and Helsinki.
5. Amadora, Dresden, Messina, Oldenburg, Patras, Riga, Roquetas de Mar, Thessaloniki, Vantaa and Val-de-Marne.
6. Amman, Beirut, Lisbon, Lyon, Madrid, Tangier, Tunis, Turin and Vienna.

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Chapter 2. Using statistics to assess migrant integration in OECD regions

This chapter assesses the geographic distribution and integration of migrants across OECD regions along multiple dimensions. Based on a new database for 29 OECD countries, it describes the demographic and socio-economic profile of migrants in OECD regions and also presents evidence on changes in the size of regional migrant populations. The chapter sheds light on the integration of migrants by analysing their labour outcomes and well-being compared to native-born in the same region. The chapter also presents novel evidence on public perception of migrants across regions. Finally, a number of regional characteristics that could explain differences in migrants' labour market outcomes are investigated.

The statistical data for Israel are supplied by and under the responsibility of the relevant Israeli authorities. The use of such data by the OECD is without prejudice to the status of the Golan Heights, East Jerusalem and Israeli settlements in the West Bank under the terms of international law.

Introduction

The integration of migrants is one of the most important and pressing challenges policy makers in OECD countries face. Adequate data is essential for articulating the right integration policies and informing public debate; without it, countries cannot empirically evaluate policies nor assess the impact of changes in integration measures. Detailed information on migrants' presence and labour market outcomes within OECD countries is also vital, allowing countries to elicit patterns and developments that not only differ across countries, but also across regions within the same country.

While there have been initiatives to compare migrants' integration outcomes nationally (OECD and European Union, 2015), no systematic subnational analysis has so far been conducted. This chapter fills this gap and provides empirical evidence on migrant characteristics and outcomes in OECD regions. The analysis builds on a new dataset compiled by the OECD (Diaz Ramirez et al., 2017)¹ as well as on previous work by the OECD and the European Union on indicators of immigrant integration (OECD and European Union, 2015). It also argues that the subnational dimension is vital when assessing migrants' integration across OECD countries. Apart from information on migrants in general, this chapter also includes an assessment of how asylum seekers hosted in reception centres are distributed across the different regions in 18 European countries (and across municipalities in 6 countries).

Key findings

Both migrants' characteristics and integration outcomes vary widely within countries. The data demonstrate that, compared with the native-born, migrants are more concentrated in metropolitan regions, especially capital-city ones. Within the population of migrants, there are also clear disparities in the geographic distribution and in outcomes between recent and settled migrants as well as between EU and non-EU migrants.

Migrants face significant integration challenges in the labour market. They have higher unemployment rates, are more likely to be over-qualified for their jobs and earn lower incomes than native-born. The income gap between migrants and native-born, documented for European regions, is particularly pronounced in urban regions.

The structure of regional economies, especially sectoral composition, is significantly related to migrants' labour market outcomes. The presence of relatively established migrant communities appears to facilitate the search for jobs equivalent to migrants' educational attainment.

Relative housing conditions, which directly affect individuals' well-being, are worse for migrants in urban regions. The difference between migrant and native-born populations in the share of households living in overcrowded dwellings is greater in urban than non-urban areas.

Migrants are more likely to be seen as providing an important contribution to the local economy in regions with larger migrant communities and lower unemployment among the native-born.

Data description, indicators and sources

All indicators used in this chapter are part of a new *Database on Migrants in OECD Regions* developed by the OECD (OECD, 2017a).² The majority of these indicators are at the Territorial Level 2 (TL2), as data limitations did not allow for further geographical disaggregation (Box 2.1).

Box 2.1. What are ‘TL2 regions’?

Regions within the 35 OECD countries are classified on two territorial levels reflecting the administrative organisation of countries. The 398 OECD “Territorial Level 2” (TL2) regions are those at highest subnational administrative level, for example, the federal states in Germany. These regions can differ widely in geographic characteristics and patterns of agglomeration of population and economic activities. In other words, TL2 regions across OECD countries can exhibit different degrees of urbanity and rurality. A region that contains a large city potentially extending beyond its regional boundaries will be very different from another region with no large city and very low density patterns.

In order to account for these differences and to facilitate the interpretation of the indicators presented in this report, TL2 regions are classified into three types: 1) mostly metropolitan; 2) mixed; and 3) mostly non-metropolitan. The methodology employed in building this classification is mainly based on the share of regional population living in functional urban areas (FUAs). FUAs provide a definition of cities based on an economic perspective rather than an administrative one. Such definition is consistently applied across countries and constitutes the unit of analysis of the *OECD Metropolitan Database*. A FUA usually encompasses a cluster of contiguous municipalities that have a high-density core and a functionally connected commuting zone (OECD, 2012).

A TL2 region is classified as mostly metropolitan if the share of regional population living in FUAs is above 70% or if part of the regional population lives in a metropolitan area larger than 1.5 million inhabitants. A TL2 region is classified as non-metropolitan if the share of population living in FUAs is lower than 50%. In all other cases, regions are classified as mixed.

The 2 241 OECD “Territorial Level 3” (TL3) regions correspond to administrative regions, with the exception of Australia, Canada, and the United States. These TL3 regions are contained in a TL2 region, with the exception of the United States for which the Economic Areas cross the States’ borders. For New Zealand, TL2 and TL3 levels are equivalent and defined by Regional Councils. All the regions are defined within national borders.

Source: OECD (2012), *Redefining “Urban”: A New Way to Measure Metropolitan Areas*, <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/9789264174108-en>; OECD (2017b), *OECD Territorial Grids*, <http://stats.oecd.org/wbos/fileview2.aspx?IDFile=cebce94d-9474-4ffc-b72a-d731fbd75b9>.

The main data sources are the European Community Labour Force Survey (EU-LFS, data provided by Eurostat) for the European OECD countries as well as the American Community Survey for the United States, the Canadian Labour Force Survey for Canada,

the National Survey of Occupation and Labour for Mexico and the Survey of Education and Work (SEW) for Australia. Outcomes on housing and income are currently only available for EU countries and stem from the EU Survey of Income and Living Conditions (EU-SILC). Indicators on attitudes towards immigrants are derived from the European Social Survey and Gallup World Poll. To allow for statistical representativeness at the regional level, different waves are often pooled together to produce the indicators (see Annex A for details). Most indicators are available for around 318 regions of 29 OECD countries out of 398 regions in total in the OECD. Data from EU-SILC allow for the identification of rural/intermediate and urban areas for 19 European OECD countries. Indicators from the European Social Survey were obtained for 237 regions of 24 European OECD countries and Israel,³ while data from the Gallup World Poll allow for the coverage of 385 regions of the 35 OECD countries.

The indicators can be categorised into three broad groups (Table 2.1). The first group consists of socio-demographic characteristics of the foreign-born population, such as age structure, duration of stay, place of birth (EU or non-EU foreign born for European regions), and educational attainment. The second group of indicators encompasses the integration outcomes of migrants, with a focus on labour market integration and well-being (housing conditions and disposable income). Finally, the third group includes indicators on attitudes towards, and public perception of, migrants. Whenever possible, indicators across European regions were created separately for EU and non-EU migrants. In some instances, such a distinction would yield sample sizes that are not large enough to provide a valid and robust estimation.⁴ In those cases, the database provides data for all migrants.

Table 2.1. Groups of indicators in the Database on migrants in OECD regions

Indicator group	Description
Socio-economic characteristics	The first group of indicators provides information on the basic socio-economic characteristics of the foreign-born at the regional level, including place of birth, duration of stay, educational attainment and age.
Migration integration outcomes	The second group of indicators provides information on migration integration outcomes, with a specific focus on labour market integration, housing conditions and household disposable income. The participation of migrants in the labour market is critical to the success of their integration, as it provides them with a source of income and an opportunity to become part of the country's social fabric. Access to affordable good-quality housing also plays an important part in migrants' successful integration, providing them with adequate shelter and being positively associated with other key integration outcomes, including better health, educational outcomes and access to employment. As an essential component of individual economic well-being, income is the third migration integration outcome analysed as part of this chapter. Income plays a vital role in enabling integration, as it allows migrants to meet their basic needs and enhances progress in other dimensions of migrants' well-being, such as life expectancy, health and educational attainment. ¹
Attitudes towards migrants	The third group of indicators provides information on regional attitudes towards migrants. Public acceptance of migration across regions is a key condition to the successful integration of migrants at the regional level, facilitating social cohesion and influencing the design of migration integration policies at the regional level.

1. An additional set of integration indicators not explored in this chapter is available in the new subnational database and listed in Annex A.

In this chapter and in the new *Database on Migrants in OECD Regions*, migrants are defined by place of birth. Unlike citizenship, this criterion does not change over time, it is not subject to country differences in legislation and it is thus adequate for international comparisons. As such, the terms “foreign-born” and “migrants” will be used

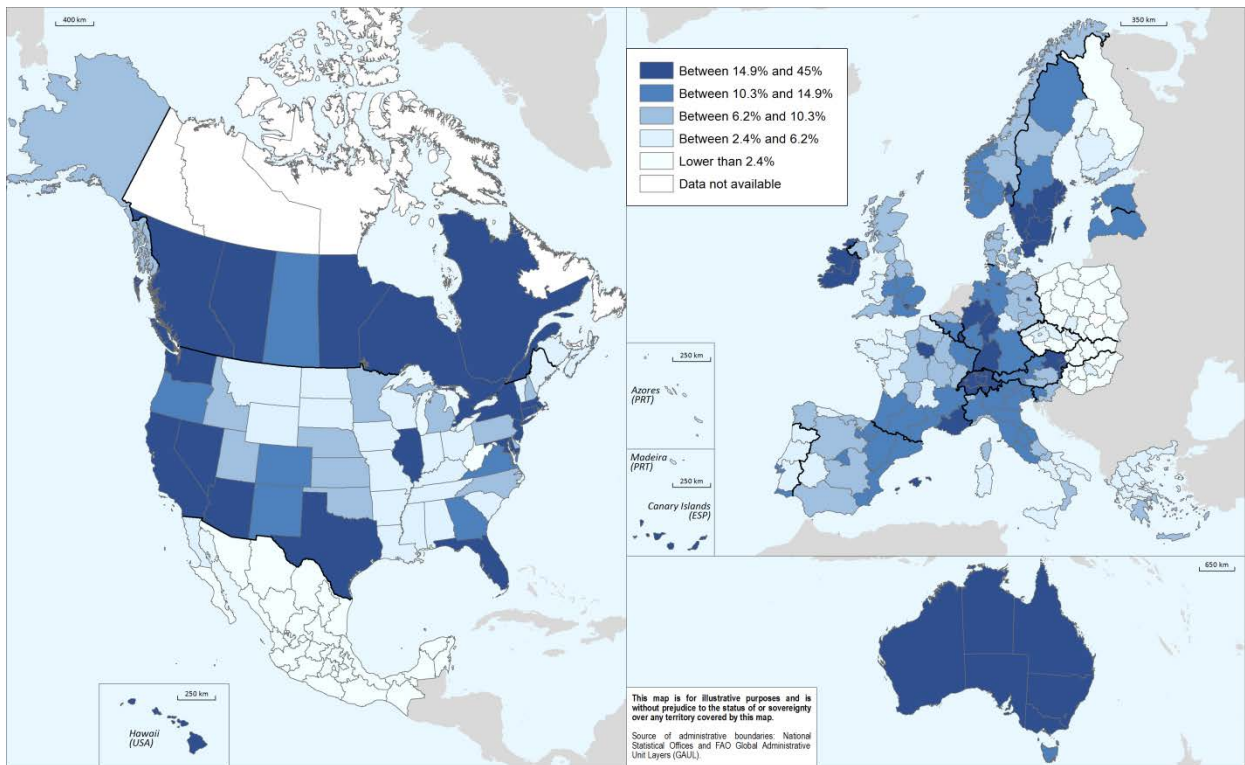
interchangeably in the following sections. While it facilitates international comparison, this criterion also has limitations and may sometimes lead to an under or over-estimation of migrants at the regional level. For example, it does not account for the border changes that have happened in countries such as Poland, the Baltic countries, the Czech and Slovak Republics, Slovenia and Croatia (OECD, 2015, p. 16). Moreover, it may include foreign-born people that are nevertheless nationals, such as the ones born abroad by chance.

Annex A provides further details about the available indicators in the *Database on Migrants in OECD Regions*. Due to the infrequent availability of subnational data on immigrants across countries, the majority of statistics are limited to one point in time. Notable exceptions are the presence of migrants, their age, duration of stay, and educational attainment, for which data from 2005 have also been collected from previous OECD work (Brezzi et al., 2010), which allows for the examination of the respective changes at the regional level.

The geographic distribution of migrants in OECD regions

Variation in the size of migrant populations

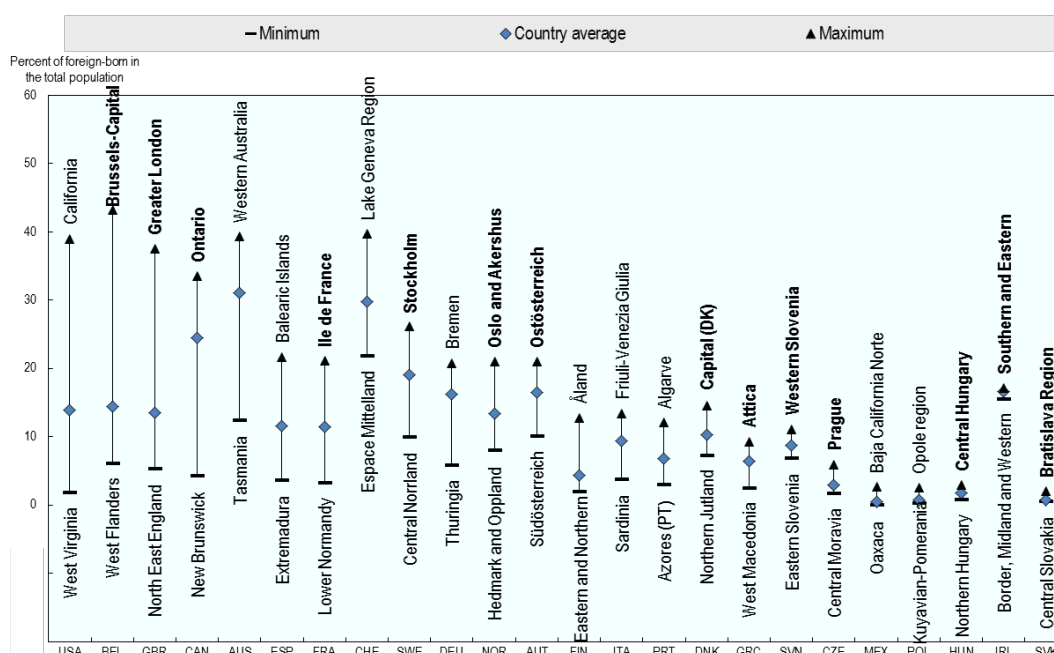
Migrants' regional distribution differs greatly across OECD countries (Figure 2.1). In most of the countries analysed, regions with more than 15% of foreign-born populations co-exist with regions where foreign-born populations represent less than 6% of the total regional population. In countries such as Belgium, the United Kingdom or the United States, the variation in the regional distribution of migrants is considerably larger than in Australia, Ireland, Norway or Switzerland, where most regions have similar population shares of foreign-born individuals.


Figure 2.1. Distribution of migrants across OECD regions, 2014-15

Source: OECD (2017c), *OECD Regional Statistics* (database), <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/region-data-en>.

Migrants are more concentrated in mostly metropolitan regions than are native-born individuals. Around two-thirds of the foreign-born population live in metropolitan regions across the OECD, 6 percentage points more than the average of 58% for the native-born population. In all but two countries, Slovak Republic and Slovenia, the majority of migrants live in metropolitan regions. In the United Kingdom, this concentration is particularly striking, reaching 82% of the foreign-born population.

The concentration of migrants is especially strong in capital-city regions. In 14 out of the 24 countries for which data was available, the capital-city region reports the highest population share of foreign-born individuals (Figure 2.2). In Brussels-Capital and Greater London, foreign-born individuals even account for more than one-third of the total regional population (Figure 2.2). Regions such as California, Western Australia, Lake Geneva and Ontario also have comparably large migrant populations. In terms of overall population shares, Australia and Switzerland have the largest foreign-born communities, which account for roughly 30% of the entire population.

Figure 2.2. Regional disparities in the distribution of foreign-born populations, 2014-15

Source: OECD (2017c), *OECD Regional Statistics* (database), <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/region-data-en>.
 StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933695467>

In Europe, where a distinction between EU foreign-born and non-EU foreign-born populations can be made, there is a noticeable difference between EU and non-EU migrants' geographic dispersion. Non-EU migrants are more geographically concentrated than EU migrants. The former are much more likely to live in capital-city regions while the latter spread more evenly across different regions in each country. For instance, in France, Sweden or the United Kingdom, the population share of non-EU foreign-born in the respective capital-region is more than twice as large as that of their EU peers.

In interpreting these disparities, the different set of challenges that these two groups face in order to successfully integrate should be considered. For instance, non-EU migrants living in Europe will usually face more difficulties in getting their qualifications legally recognised and valued in the labour market, while European education systems are more streamlined and recognition of credentials is more automatic (OECD, 2015, p. 316). Non-EU migrants also face more legal barriers with regard to employment in the public sector (OECD, 2015, p. 25). Understanding the regional composition of EU and non-EU migrants can be a relevant step towards developing tailored regional migration policies.

Asylum seekers are not covered as part of the resident population by labour force surveys. Therefore, they are not included in the resulting statistics on the presence of migrants, even though their number has significantly increased in many OECD countries in recent years. Box 2.2 provides an overview on the distribution of asylum seekers in regions across Europe, based on a separate data collection directly from official government sources. It sheds light both on the magnitude and the location pattern of asylum seekers.

Box 2.2. OECD stocktaking exercise of the location of asylum seekers across regions in Europe

The number of asylum seekers has been increasing rapidly since 2011 in OECD countries. In both 2015 and 2016 the number of asylum seekers in the OECD reached 1.65 million people, four times the value registered in 2011. Almost three-quarters of asylum requests were registered in European OECD countries (OECD, 2017d). The measurement of the inflows of asylum seekers has consequently gained more importance. In this framework, while at the national level there have been systematic data collections across countries by different international organisations such as the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR) and Eurostat, there is currently no systematic evidence on the location of asylum seekers across regions, except for recent attempts to collect data on reception centres by AIDA (Asylum Information Database), UNHCR and the International Organisation for Migration (IOM).

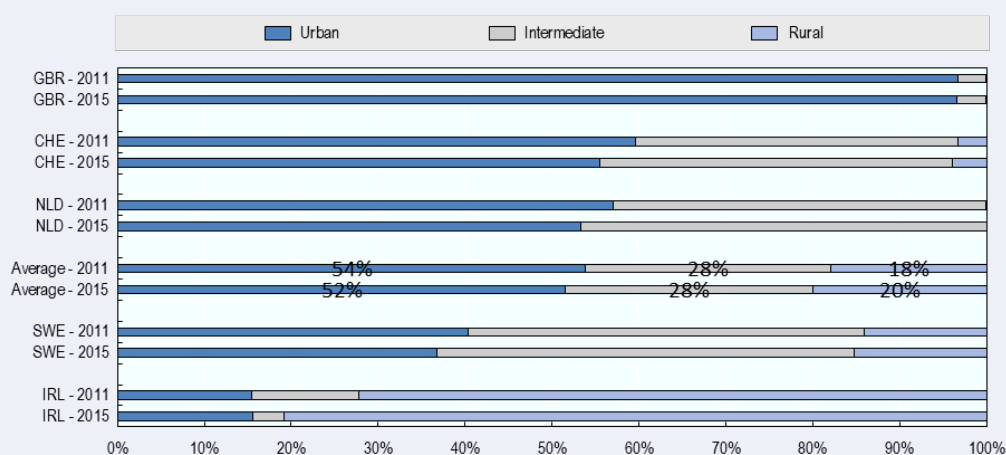
The distribution of asylum seekers across the different regions (in 12 countries at TL3 level and for 6 countries at municipal level) within a selection of European countries was assessed through an ad hoc analysis from official governmental sources undertaken by the OECD. The data collection targeted the stock of populations in the reception system in a given point in time and in a given location in 18 European countries of the OECD. This population consists of asylum seekers in the reception system (including first, second and emergency reception centres). The resulting localisation of asylum-seekers may not necessarily reflect their final destination but may instead correspond to their location in reception facilities while waiting for their claims to be processed. Asylum seekers are defined as all individuals who have requested international protection and whose claim for the protection status has not yet been determined. The analysis undertaken by the OECD covers 18 countries at the scale of TL3 regions while for 6 countries it provides information up to the municipal level (Box 2.1). All information was collected from National Statistical Offices, governmental agencies or entities entitled by governments to monitor and communicate asylum statistics. As the monitoring systems in place in the different countries are not always consistent, differences in the capacity to track exactly the same target group can be observed. More specifically, in some countries it is not possible to distinguish with precision the specific group of asylum seekers – i.e. individuals who seeks international protection – from those that have already been granted the protection status but are still in the reception centres.

In absolute terms, most asylum seekers are located in the largest cities, often the national capitals. In 2016, the TL3 regions of Vienna and Rome were the ones hosting the highest number of asylum seekers in their respective countries, while in 2014 the regions hosting the largest number of asylum seekers were Berlin in Germany and Västra Götaland in Sweden.

The geographic concentration of asylum seekers can be assessed by looking at their distribution along the urban-rural hierarchy. This can be done for all 18 countries at the scale of the OECD small regions (TL3). All regions are in fact classified in “predominantly urban”, “predominantly rural” and “intermediate”

according to the share of regional population living in high-density centres. Compared to the total resident population, asylum seekers are on average less concentrated in predominantly urban regions. Across the countries considered, 42% of the asylum seekers are hosted in predominantly urban regions while the share of resident populations in such regions is 46%. However, the degree of urban concentration of asylum seekers can differ substantially across countries. In Latvia and in the United Kingdom, for example, asylum seekers are particularly concentrated in cities, while in Belgium, Ireland and Norway the reception of asylum seekers is more a rural phenomenon. When information was consistently available over time, it is observed that the share of asylum seekers in rural areas has on average increased between 2011 and 2015 (see the following figure). The dispersal measures implemented in several of the countries considered might have played a role in this respect.

Distribution of asylum seekers by type of region, year and country



In 6 of the 18 countries covered by this analysis, the information on the location of asylum seekers was available also at the municipal scale, which allowed for much higher geographical detail. At this scale, the concentration of asylum seekers across space is more visible than at the regional level and evidence tends to confirm that asylum seekers are relatively more evenly distributed across places than resident population and thus that the presence of asylum seekers is not necessarily an urban phenomenon. On average, in the six countries considered, asylum seekers are mostly located outside cities (57%), where cities are defined consistently across countries through the concept of functional urban areas (OECD, 2012). The opposite is observed for the total resident population (41%). However, observed patterns are different across countries. While in France there is a relatively higher concentration of asylum seekers within FUAs, the contrary happens in Norway.

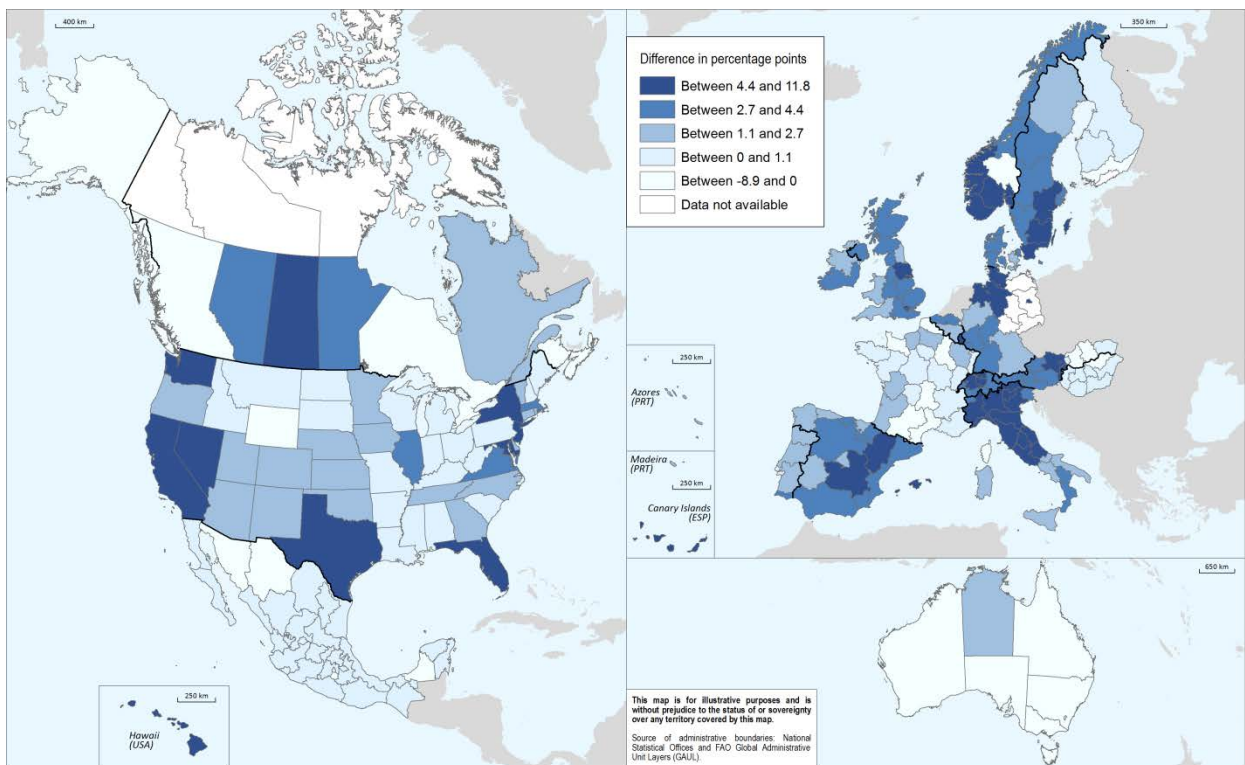
Source: Proietti, P. and P. Veneri (2017), “The location of hosted asylum seekers across regions and cities”, paper presented at the 31st OECD Working Party on Territorial Indicators, May 2017.

Changes in migrants' presence across regions: 2005 to 2015

Similarly to the regional distribution of migrants', the change in the population shares of migrants between 2005 and 2015 differed significantly between OECD regions, ranging from an increase in the migrant population of 12 percentage points to a decrease of 9 percentage points (Figure 2.3).

Overall, in 20% of the regions the share of foreign-born individuals decreased. Among the remaining 80 %, some regions stand out by the large increase in their migrant population (relative to native-born). Most regions in the north of Italy and Germany, as well as in the south of Sweden and Norway, recorded increases in the population share of migrants between 5 and 12 percentage points. In Australia and France on the other hand, many regions saw a relative decline, or only modest increase, in the share of migrants of their entire population.

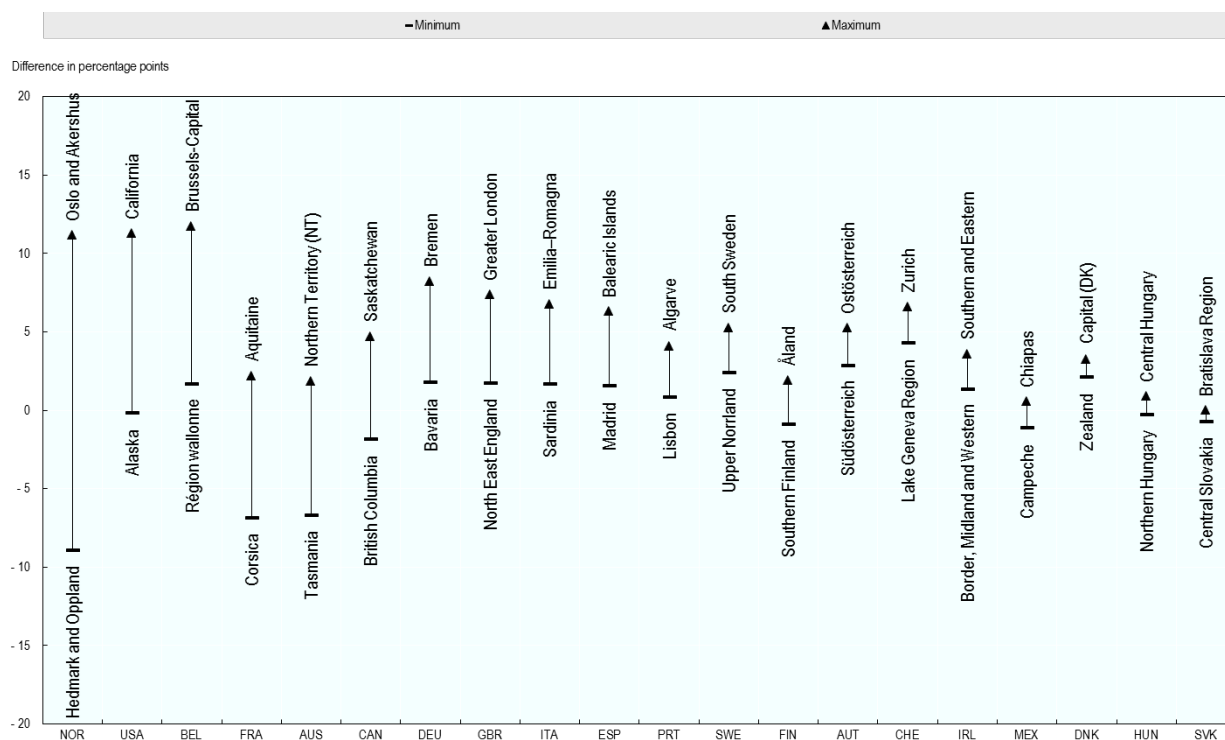
Figure 2.3. Changes in the presence of migrants, 2005-15




Source: OECD (2017c), *OECD Regional Statistics* (database), <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/region-data-en>.

Within OECD countries, regions differ substantially with respect to the change of their migrant populations, with capital-city regions recording larger increases. Norway, the United States, and Belgium display the largest inter-regional differences in the change in the presence of migrants. The difference between the regions that recorded the largest increase (Oslo and Akershus, California, and Brussels) and the regions with the lowest increase/largest decrease (Hedmark and Oppland, Alaska, and Region Wallone) exceeded more than 10 percentage points and even 20 percentage points in Norway (Figure 2.4). Migrants are not only concentrated in capital-city regions; their share also increased the largest in capital regions in many countries.

Figure 2.4. Regional changes in the presence of migrants, 2005-15



Source: OECD (2017c), *OECD Regional Statistics* (database), <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/region-data-en>.
 StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933695486>

A closer look at the regional characteristics reveals that migrants were drawn to prosperous regions rather than economically dynamic ones (Table 2.2). Gross domestic product (GDP) per capita levels in 2005 are positively correlated with increases in the regional population shares of migrants, while GDP growth rates between 2004 and 2015 were not significantly different between regions according to their increase of the foreign-born population. In addition, regions with relatively larger migrant communities in 2005 experienced, on average, greater growth of such communities, suggesting that migration is predominantly increasing in regions where the existing communities were relatively large.

Table 2.2. Regional characteristics of migration increases

Variables	Change in the presence of foreign-born individuals (2005-15)		
	(1)	(2)	(3)
Annual growth of GDP per capita (from 2005 to 2014)	-0.0222		
	(0.147)		
GDP per capita of 2005		4.45e-05**	
		(1.95e-05)	
Presence of foreign-born individuals in 2005 (in % of regional population)			0.130***
			(0.0368)
Constant	3.785***	2.025**	1.931***
	(0.666)	(0.973)	(0.646)
Observations	236	236	236
R-squared	0.464	0.510	0.539
Country fixed effects	Yes	Yes	Yes

Note: OLS regressions with country-fixed effects. Robust standard errors in parentheses. *** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1. GDP per capita at constant prices of 2010 (PPP).

Source: Author's elaboration based on OECD (2017c), *OECD Regional Statistics* (database), <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/region-data-en>.

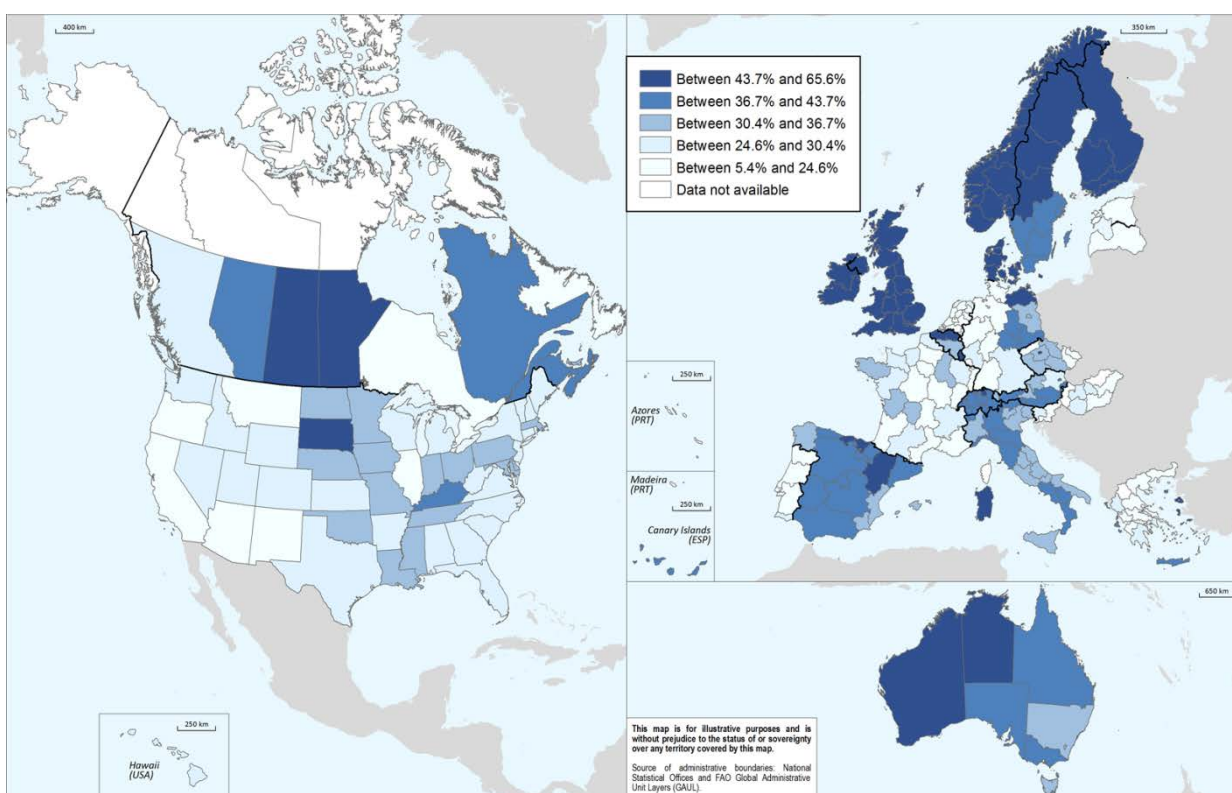
Recent versus settled migrants

Nine in ten OECD regions gather more settled than recent migrants in total foreign-born populations, but recent migration has been substantial in some parts of OECD countries (Figure 2.5). However, in (almost) all regions in Australia, Scandinavia, Spain and the United Kingdom, recent migrants account for 30% or more of the entire regional population of foreign-born individuals. Across the OECD, countries differ substantially in their inter-regional distribution of settled and recent migrants. Around one-third of the countries covered display a difference of more than 20 percentage points between the region with the lowest share and the region with the highest share of recent migrants in total foreign born populations, with Canada, Greece and Spain having the largest inter-regional differences.

The duration of stay, the number of years between the arrival and the survey year, is a defining characteristic of migrants given its positive impact on integration outcomes. Longer presence in a country is associated with improved integration outcomes (OECD, 2015: 21). The duration of stay can be particularly relevant in the context of EU member countries, where it is critical for non-EU migrants' ability to obtain national permanent residency or the European Union's long-term resident status. Such status usually requires a minimum of five years of uninterrupted residence in the host country. Without it, non-EU migrants face greater integration obstacles than their EU peers in the same country.

Therefore, recent migrants often face specific integration challenges that require tailored regional integration policies and initiatives, including pre-arrival support, integration settlement services, and language and vocational training (European Commission, 2016), a point that is further developed in the checklist of this report (Chapter 3.). In both the OECD⁵ and the EU⁶ areas, about one-third of migrants have arrived in the last ten years – respectively 22 and 13 million recent migrants.

Figure 2.5. Share of recent migrants among foreign-born populations, 2014-15



Source: OECD (2017c), *OECD Regional Statistics* (database), <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/region-data-en>.

Within-country dispersion of migrants' educational attainment

On average, the share of highly educated individuals is higher among migrants than among native-born across OECD regions. However, this finding can mask important differences that exist between EU and non-EU foreign-born individuals in the case of European regions.

The educational attainment of migrants is of strong interest because it has been shown to improve their prospects of employment and integration (Aeberhardt, Coudin and Rathelot, 2017).⁷ It could thus be viewed as a vital integration outcome. However, most foreign-born individuals entered their host resident country as adults after acquiring their education abroad (OECD and European Union, 2015). Therefore, educational attainment in this study (of foreign-born) describes migrants' ability to succeed in the labour market rather than their success in the host country's education system.⁸ In 2013, migrants were, on average, more educated than the native-born population in the OECD. One-third of migrants of working age held a tertiary education degree in the OECD area, against 29% for the native-born population (OECD and European Union, 2015, p. 132). This situation is more nuanced across the European Union, where only one in five non-EU foreign-born individuals holds a tertiary education degree, against about 30% of the EU migrants and 25% of the native-born population (OECD and European Union, 2015).

Although education is a predictor of integration outcomes, highly educated migrants face specific problems. The average employment shortfall of foreign-born individuals relative to their native-born peers tends to be higher for highly educated migrants than low-

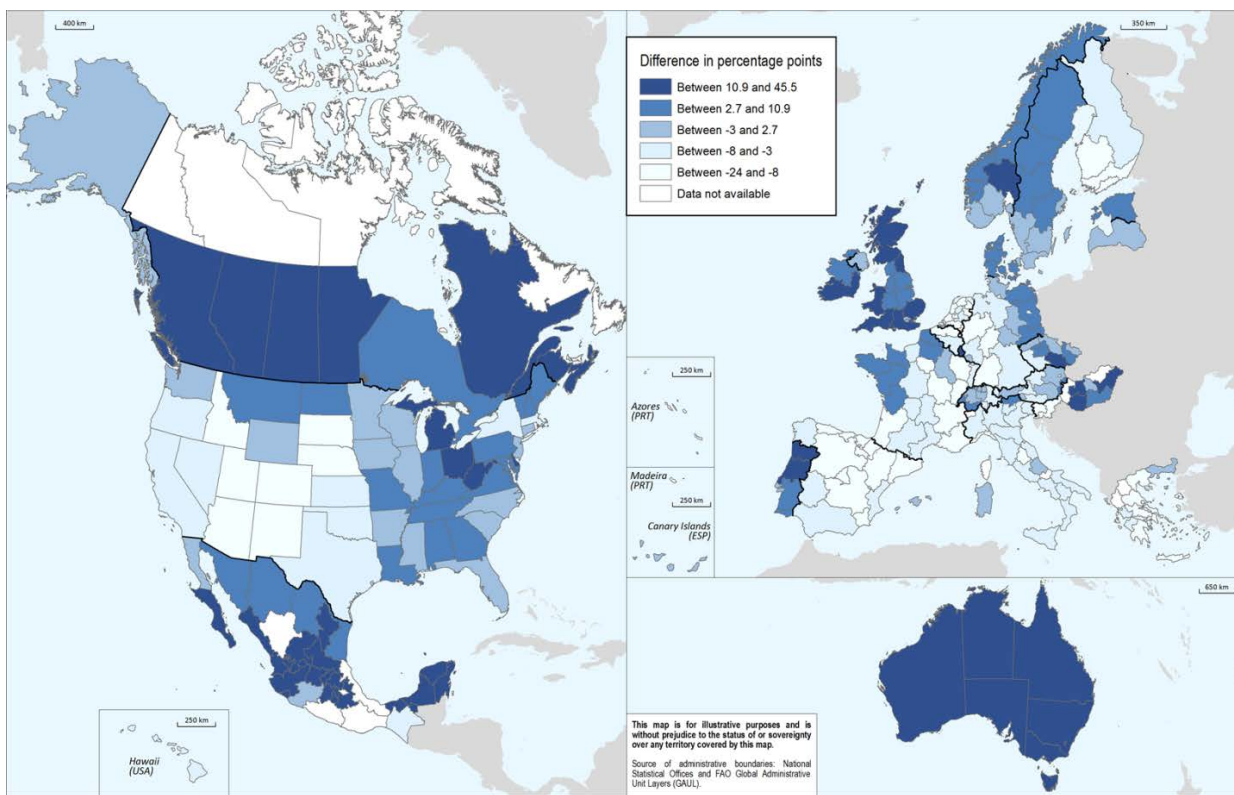
educated ones, which will be demonstrated in the section below on over-qualification. This could be explained by the difficulties highly educated migrants face in obtaining official recognition for their academic qualifications (OECD, 2015, pp. 82-83).

A hotly debated topic in the literature on immigration is whether increases in labour supply due to immigration adversely affect native-born' wages as economic theory would predict. Older studies gave ambiguous answers to this question. Fundamental challenges to such an analysis were: 1) the fact that no counterfactual scenario could be observed (wages of native-born without changes in immigration); and 2) that attention was paid to average effects rather than heterogeneity of effects. In any such assessment, the local impact of immigration has to be considered, since the dispersion of immigrants and local differences in their characteristics and skills are likely to cause variation in the regional effects (Vanselow, Liebig and Kaplanis, 2016). Recent studies demonstrate that migrants' entry into local labour markets can lower wages of native-born that compete for similar jobs and might adversely affect employment of native-born (Dustmann, Schönberg and Stuhler, 2017; Borjas and Monras, 2016). At the same time, however, some groups of native-born workers actually benefit because their skills are complemented by migrants' skills. Consequently, immigration can have a significant distributional impact.

Assessing the regional distribution of migrants' human capital can help to analyse possible effects migration can have on local labour markets and in particular shed light on its heterogeneity based on the complementarity or competitiveness of native-born' and migrants' skills and education. Finally, it helps design migration integration policies that match the educational levels of migrants with specific regional needs and foster skill complementarities.⁹

The difference in educational attainment between native-born and migrants varies widely across regions (Figure 2.6). The heterogeneity in educational differences is less pronounced in Australia, Canada, and northern and southern Europe, when compared to the United States as well as central and western Europe. In some countries, such as the United Kingdom, Ireland, Norway or Sweden, almost all regions have relatively more highly educated migrant than native-born population (Figure 2.6). Australia and Canada stand out in this regard as in all regions migrants are around 10 percentage points more likely to be tertiary educated than native-born. On the other side of the spectrum, Spanish, Greek, German and Italian regions have mostly more educated (as measured by percentage of individuals with tertiary education) native-born than migrant populations.

Figure 2.6. Regional differences in the share of migrants and native-born with tertiary education, 2014-15



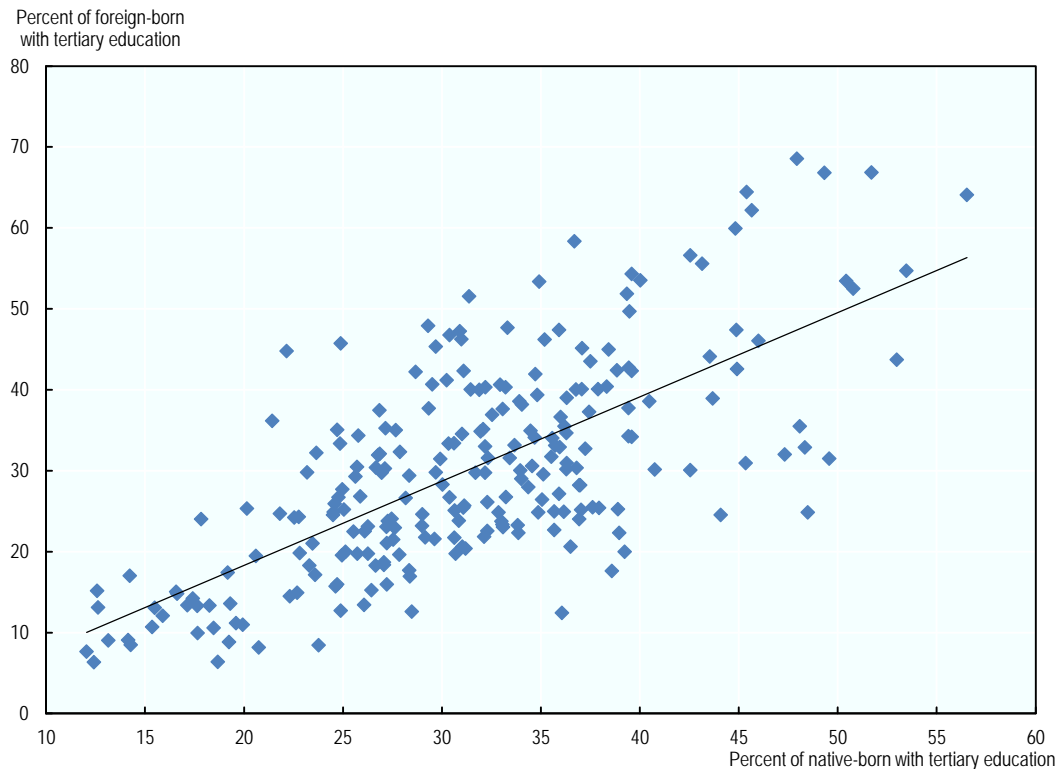
Note: FB=foreign born; NB=native born.


Source: OECD (2017c), *OECD Regional Statistics* (database), <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/region-data-en>.

Highly educated migrants tend to be located in regions with a more highly educated native-born population. The share of highly educated migrants is positively correlated with that of the native-born with tertiary education at the regional level (Figure 2.7). In the majority of countries, the regions with the greatest share of tertiary-educated native-born also attract the largest share of highly educated migrants (Figure 2.7). On the contrary, such clustering is not observed for regions with relatively low shares of tertiary-educated people.

In Europe, capital-city regions tend to gather both the largest shares of highly educated migrants and native-born. Among European OECD countries, capital-city regions are the primary location of both migrant and native-born tertiary-educated individuals. In 13 out of 24 countries, the share of tertiary-educated population share is the largest in the respective country regardless of the country of birth of individuals.

Figure 2.7. Share of migrants with tertiary education vs. share of native-born with tertiary education, 2014-15



Source: OECD (2017c), *OECD Regional Statistics* (database), <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/region-data-en>.
 StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933695505>

In general, highly educated foreign-born individuals are more likely to be concentrated in certain regions than their native counterparts. Furthermore, there is a clear discrepancy in the average level of migrants' education between Australia, Canada and northern Europe on the one hand, and southern and eastern Europe on the other. Regions located in the former have been most successful in attracting highly educated foreigners, their share reaching more than 40% in many cases. In contrast, the share of migrants with tertiary education in Europe rarely surpasses 25% or even 20% in regions in southern or eastern Europe.

The fact that the composition of migrants in terms of educational attainment, stay in the host country, legal status (European Union vs. non-European Union), and age, is very heterogeneous across regions implies that there cannot be a universal approach to successful economic /labour market integration. Instead, all the different regional features of migration should be taken into account to design effective integration policies targeted to the characteristics of the place.

Migrants' labour market outcomes across OECD regions

In the labour market, migrants' outcomes fall considerably short of those of native-born. In most regions, migrants lag behind native-born in terms of employment rates and average income, while recording higher rates of unemployment. The regional dimension is fundamental to address these gaps as the degree to which migrants fare worse in the labour market is highly context dependent and varies across OECD regions.

Differences in employment/unemployment rates

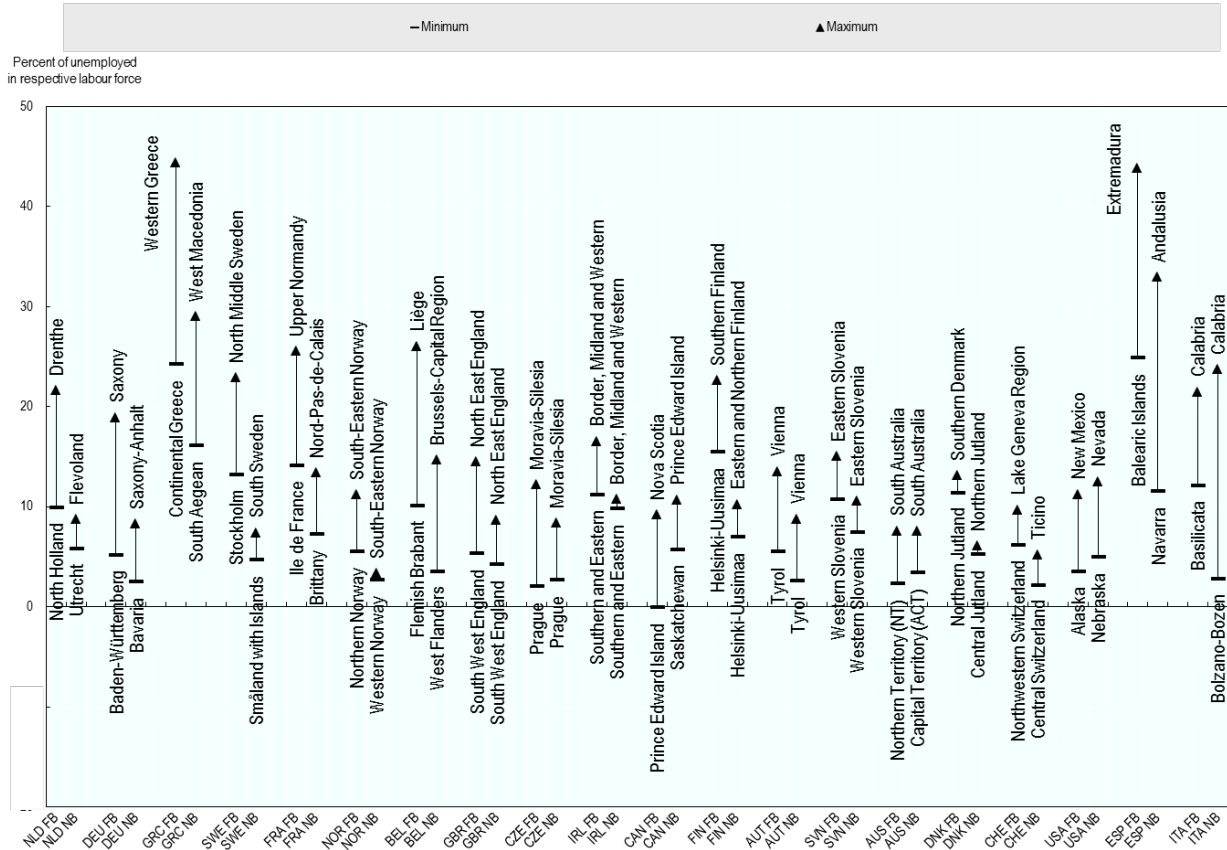
Employment is a core aspect of the integration process. It is not only vital for economic integration, but also has implications for broader social integration, such as finding adequate housing, learning the host-country language and interacting with the native-born population. In 2014-15, 11% of the migrant population was unemployed in the OECD area, 2 percentage points higher than native-born populations. In the European Union, the gap is even larger. Migrants' unemployment rate reached 14.5% compared to 10% among native-born (OECD, 2017e). In European OECD regions, this difference is primarily driven by non-EU migrants who record significantly lower employment than their EU peers (see the section below, "EU migrants and non-EU migrants face different challenges"). Understanding such disparities in labour market outcomes across regions is a requirement for designing effective integration policies.

Unemployed migrants are more spread out across regions than unemployed native-born (Figure 2.8). In 18 out of the 20 countries for which data were available, regional variation in the unemployment rates is larger for migrants. In the Netherlands, Germany, Sweden, the United Kingdom, Ireland, Finland and Norway, the regional disparities in the unemployment rates of the foreign-born population are even more than twice as large as those of the native-born population. In contrast, Spain and Italy both display unemployment rates of native-born that are more regionally dispersed than those of migrants. In Italy, this can be partly explained by higher unemployment rates in southern regions than in the northern and central regions (Bertola and Garibaldi, 2006).

Employment rates are, in the vast majority of OECD countries, decisively lower for foreign-born populations than native-born in both metropolitan and non-metropolitan regions (Figure 2.9). Employment is crucial for migrants' integration: it can provide the means to afford a decent standard of living and to find adequate housing, it facilitates learning the host country's language and it increases interactions with the native-born. Examining the regional pattern of migrants' employment rates relative to that of native-born is a requirement for designing effective policies that can boost migrants' integration in labour markets across all types of regions, and in particular, non-metropolitan regions, where the employment shortfall of migrants is on average larger.

The gap in the shares between employed, working age native-born and migrants is particularly large in western European regions. In the Netherlands, Sweden, Finland, Belgium, Denmark, France and Germany, the gap ranges from 7 to 15 percentage points. Overall, the employment gap is slightly larger in non-metropolitan than in metropolitan regions. However, in several countries such a distinction is very relevant. For instance, in France, Germany, Mexico, or Ireland, the employment shortfall of migrants relative to native-born is significantly more severe in non-metropolitan regions.

Figure 2.8. Regional unemployment rates of native- and foreign-born populations, 2014-15




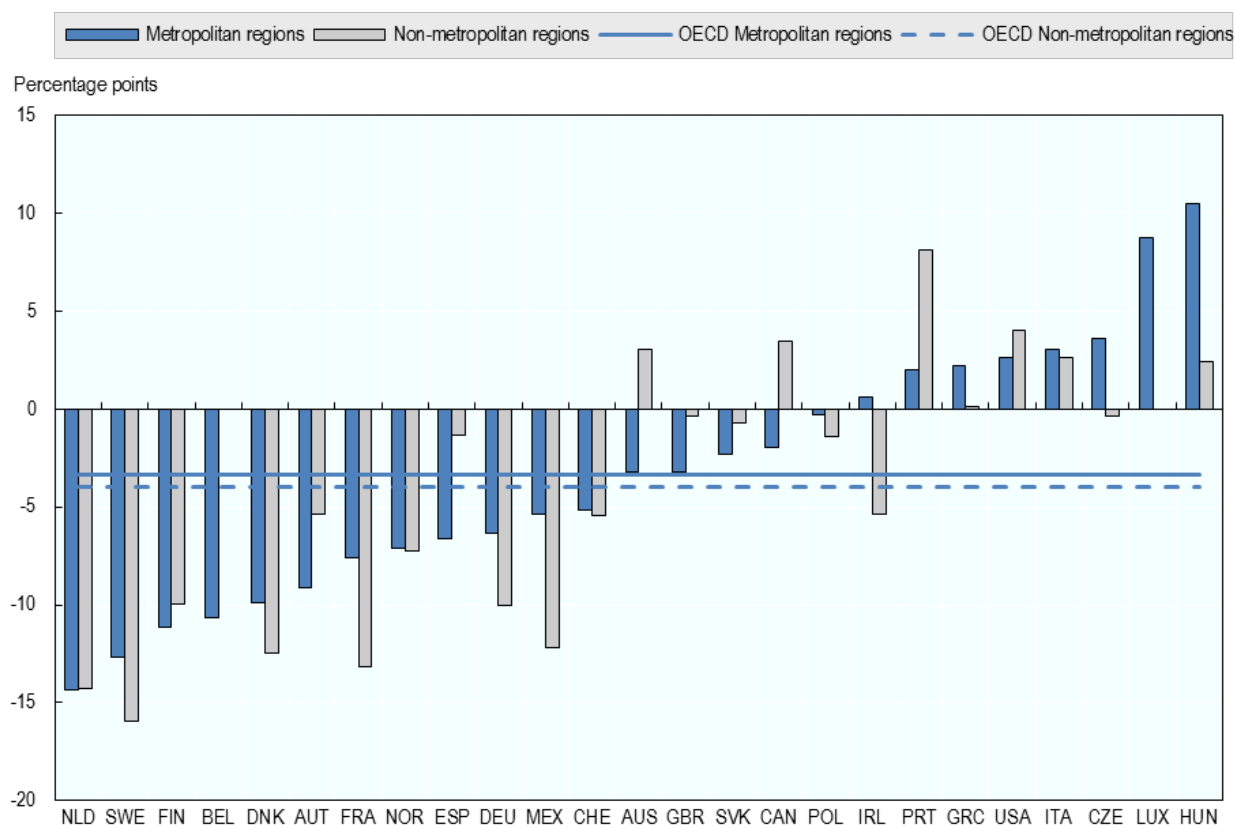

Source: OECD (2017c), *OECD Regional Statistics* (database), <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/region-data-en>.
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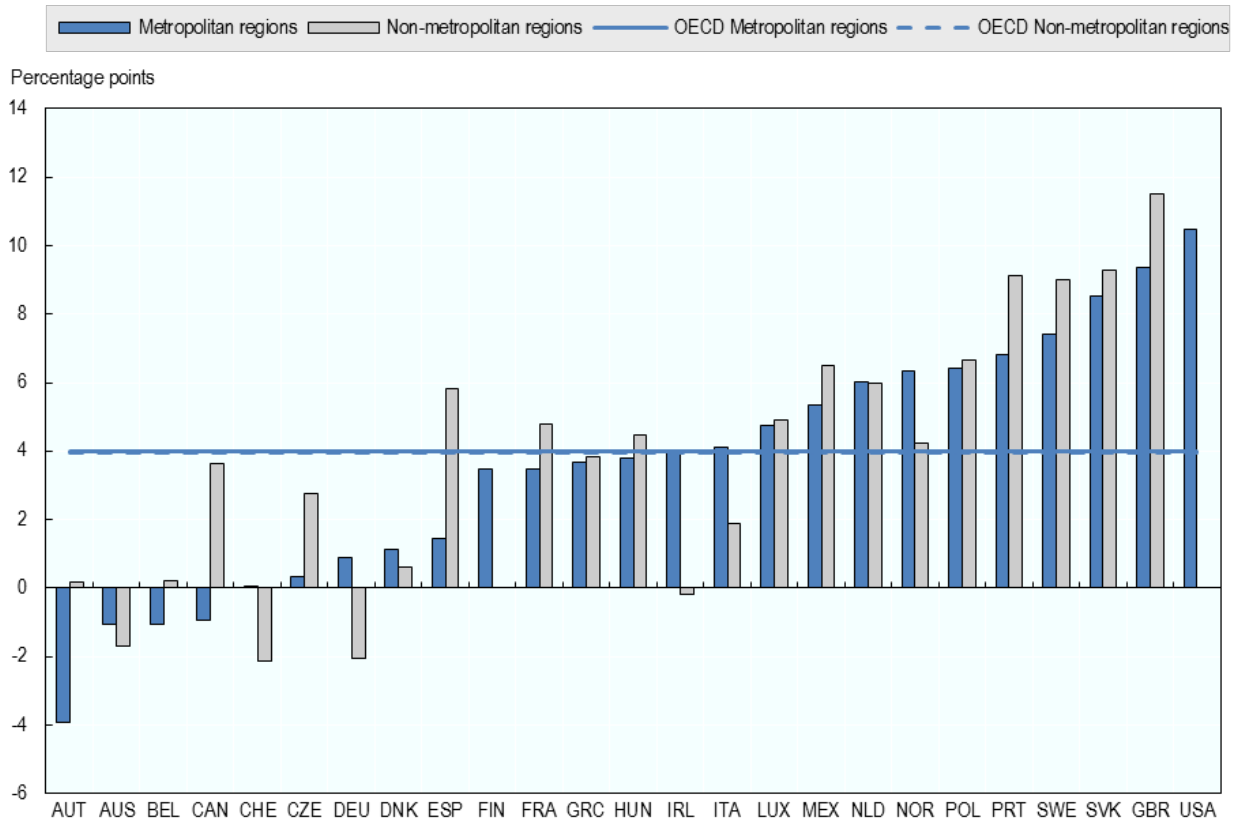
Figure 2.9. Employment gap between foreign-born and native-born populations by type of region, 2014-15




Source: OECD (2017c), *OECD Regional Statistics* (database), <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/region-data-en>.
 StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933695543>

The current lack of migrants' integration into labour markets in the OECD area becomes even more apparent when the unemployment rates of native-born and migrants are compared. Unemployment among migrants across OECD regions is, on average, 4 percentage points higher than for native-born (Figure 2.10). Behind this large average difference lies a lot of inter-regional and international variation. At the country level, the largest differences are observed in the Slovak Republic, the United Kingdom and the United States, reaching approximately 8 to 10 percentage points. Regionally, the distinction between mostly metropolitan and non-metropolitan regions is vital in accounting for migrants' unemployment gap in Austria, Canada or Spain on the one hand, and Switzerland and Germany on the other. While in the former, migrants' relative unemployment (compared to native-born) is worse in non-metropolitan than in metropolitan regions, the reverse is the case for the latter.

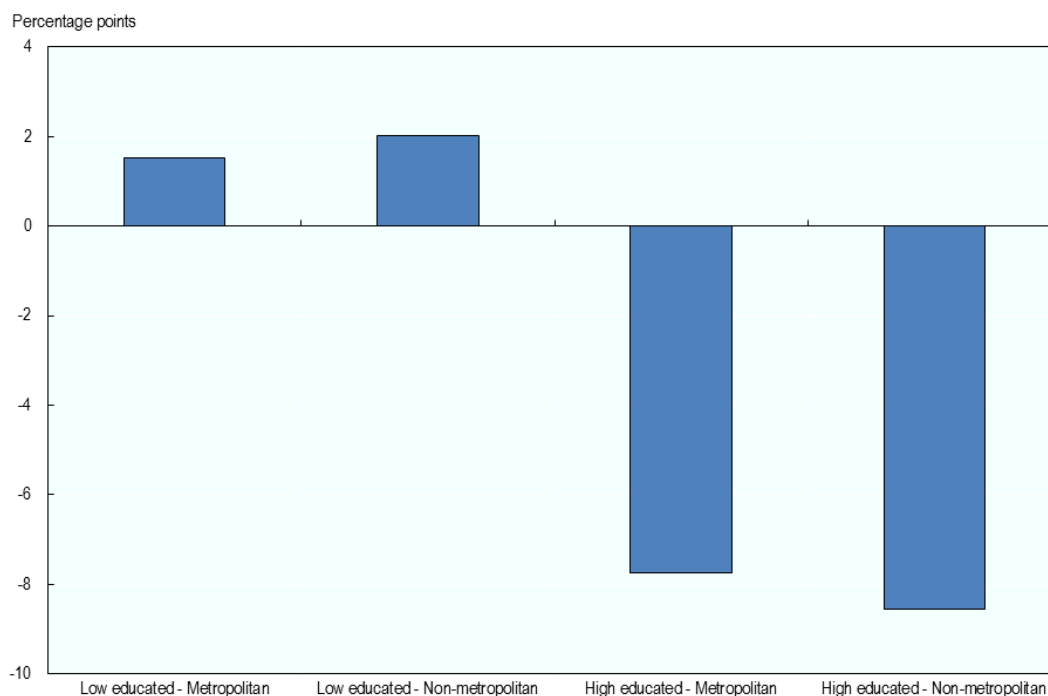
Figure 2.10. Unemployment differences: Foreign-born vs. native-born populations by type of region, 2014-15




Source: OECD (2017c), *OECD Regional Statistics* (database), <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/region-data-en>.
 StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933695562>

The employment gap of migrants relative to native-born only exists among the group of highly educated. Even though employment among tertiary-educated migrants is more than 20 percentage points higher than among foreign-born populations with low levels of education, the gap in employment rates between migrants and native-born is limited to highly educated individuals, both in metropolitan and non-metropolitan regions (Figure 2.11). This finding could be indicative of the impediments migrants encounter in having their qualifications recognised in host countries, which are likely to be more cumbersome for tertiary-educated foreign-born individuals. Therefore, the educational composition of migrants in each region is another dimension that should be considered when developing integration policies. Furthermore, it is important to analyse the labour market integration of migrants by examining whether their skills and qualifications are used adequately or instead wasted, which can be assessed by looking at the match of their education and the requirements of their jobs.

Figure 2.11. Difference in employment rates between foreign and native-born populations by level of education and type of region, OECD average, 2014-15



Source: OECD (2017c), *OECD Regional Statistics* (database), <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/region-data-en>.
 StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933695581>

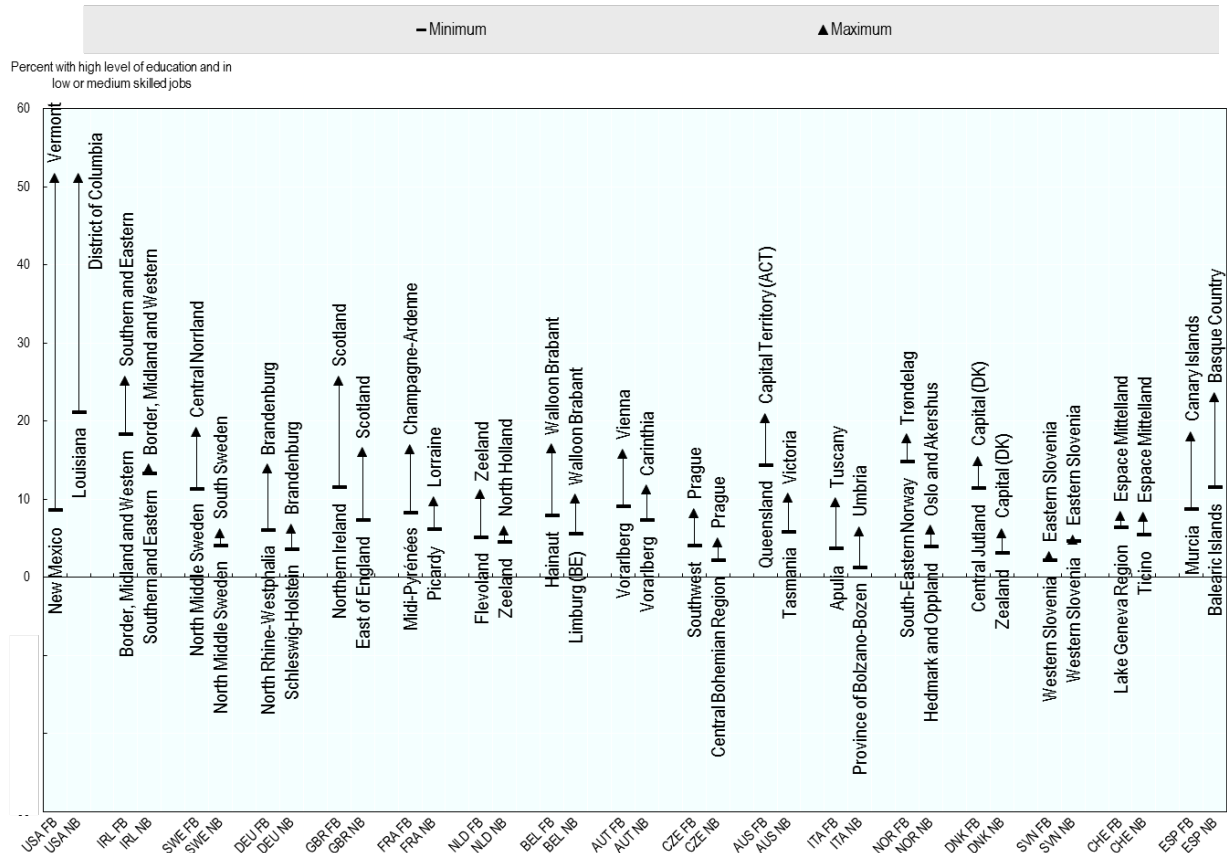
Over-qualification and migrant employment


Across the OECD area, migrants are more likely to be over-qualified for the work they do than are the native-born. At the same time over-qualification rates of migrants vary more across regions than over-qualification rates of native-born. Over-qualification, defined as having tertiary education and working in a low- or medium-skilled job, is a recurring issue for migrants and is often associated with a waste of skills (OECD and European Union, 2015). In 2015, more than one-third of employed foreign-born individuals with a tertiary education degree were over-qualified across the OECD and the European Union, whereas the qualification rate of native-born was only 25% (OECD and European Union, 2015: 116).

Although this difference might be partly explained by poorer education standards in countries of origin compared to OECD host countries, there are several factors that could potentially be mitigated (OECD, 2014a). For instance, migrants often encounter linguistic difficulties, struggle to understand local labour markets and, importantly, can face formidable obstacles in the bureaucratic process of getting foreign degrees and qualifications acknowledged. Over-qualification not only has a negative impact on migrants' job satisfaction and well-being, but research has shown that higher skills and qualification mismatch also tend to be associated with lower labour productivity, which can severely dampen a region's economic development (Adalet McGowan and Andrews, 2015). Among OECD countries, regional variation in the difference in over-qualification between native-born and migrants is especially strong in the United States, Ireland, Sweden, Germany and the United Kingdom, while Switzerland and Spain stand out as the

only countries where regional disparities are (marginally) larger for the native-born population (Figure 2.12).

Figure 2.12. Over-qualification rates of native- and foreign-born populations across regions, 2014-15



Source: OECD (2017c), *OECD Regional Statistics* (database), <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/region-data-en>.
 StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933695600>

In several countries (Ireland, Sweden, Norway, Denmark and Australia), over-qualification is so much more frequent for migrants that the lowest regional level of migrants' over-qualification is still greater than the highest regional level of native-born over-qualification in the country. In Ireland and Sweden, Norway and Denmark, the regional levels of over-qualification of the foreign-born are always higher than those of native-born, which could be attributable to the fact that these countries have a large share of refugees among the highly educated migrants; a group that has more difficulties in getting their foreign qualifications recognised (Dumont et al., 2016).

EU migrants and non-EU migrants face different challenges

When analysing migrant employment outcomes in Europe, the distinction between EU and non-EU foreign-born populations is pivotal. The former enjoy easy and full access to their host country's labour market, based on the freedoms of movement and labour, whereas the latter face significantly more severe impediments. Such challenges can

consist of getting their qualifications and education acknowledged or just acquiring the necessary documentation to enter the labour market.

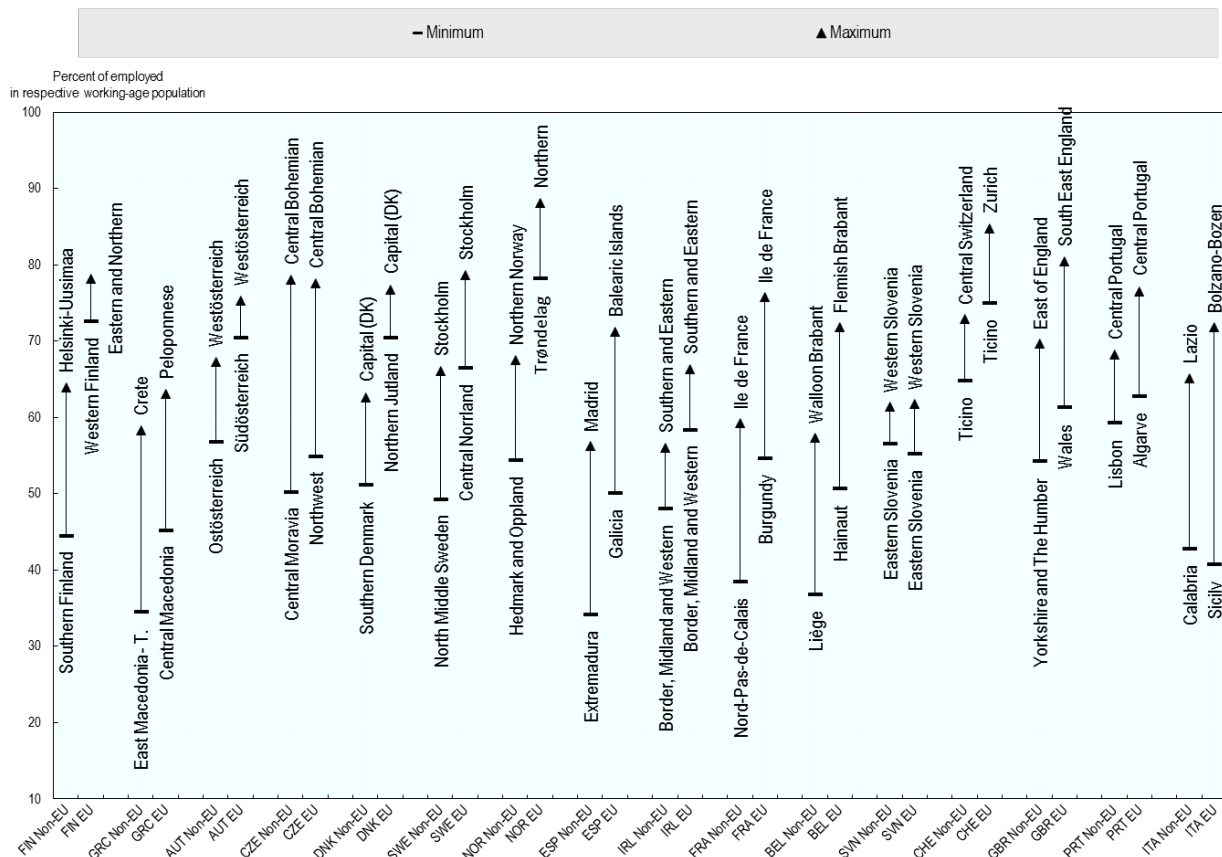
Besides these additional obstacles, EU and non-EU migrants also differ in various other aspects such as their gender and age structure. Non-EU migrants also display different levels of geographic concentration, as non-EU migrants are more heavily concentrated in mostly metropolitan regions or capital cities (see the section above on variation in the size of migrant populations). Finally, as discussed above in the section on within-country dispersion in migrants' educational attainment, they differ in their educational attainment (OECD and European Union, 2015). EU migrants are 10 percentage points more likely to be tertiary-educated than non-EU migrants. For these reasons, labour market outcomes across regions are likely to differ between these two groups of migrants.


In fact, employment rates of EU migrants are, on average, significantly above those of non-EU migrants across European OECD regions (Figure 2.13). For countries such as Spain, Denmark, France, the Netherlands, or Norway, the regional average employment of EU migrants surpasses that of their non-EU peers by more than 10 percentage points. In Greece, Hungary or Italy, such differences are much more muted. These large discrepancies are caused by two aspects: 1) (relatively) low employment among non-EU migrants; and 2) very high employment among EU migrants. New evidence shows that, within the European Union, migrants born in another EU country display even larger employment rates than native-born (European Commission, 2017).¹⁰

Employment rates are not only higher for non-EU migrants; they also display greater regional disparities (Figure 2.13). Despite these differences, the top-performing regions in terms of employment correspond in most countries for EU and non-EU migrants. On the contrary, in the majority of countries, the worst-performing region with regard to migrant employment differs between EU and non-EU migrants.

Based on this finding, European policy makers need to take into account whether local migrant communities consist of EU or non-EU foreign-born individuals. These groups are geographically dispersed, have different skills and educational attainment and record, as documented, significantly different levels of labour market integration. As a consequence, integration strategies in Europe should be tailored to the local profile of migrant communities and the different challenges that EU and non-EU migrants face.

Figure 2.13. Employment rates of non-EU and EU foreign-born populations across regions, 2014-15



Source: OECD (2017c), *OECD Regional Statistics* (database), <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/region-data-en>.
 StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933695619>

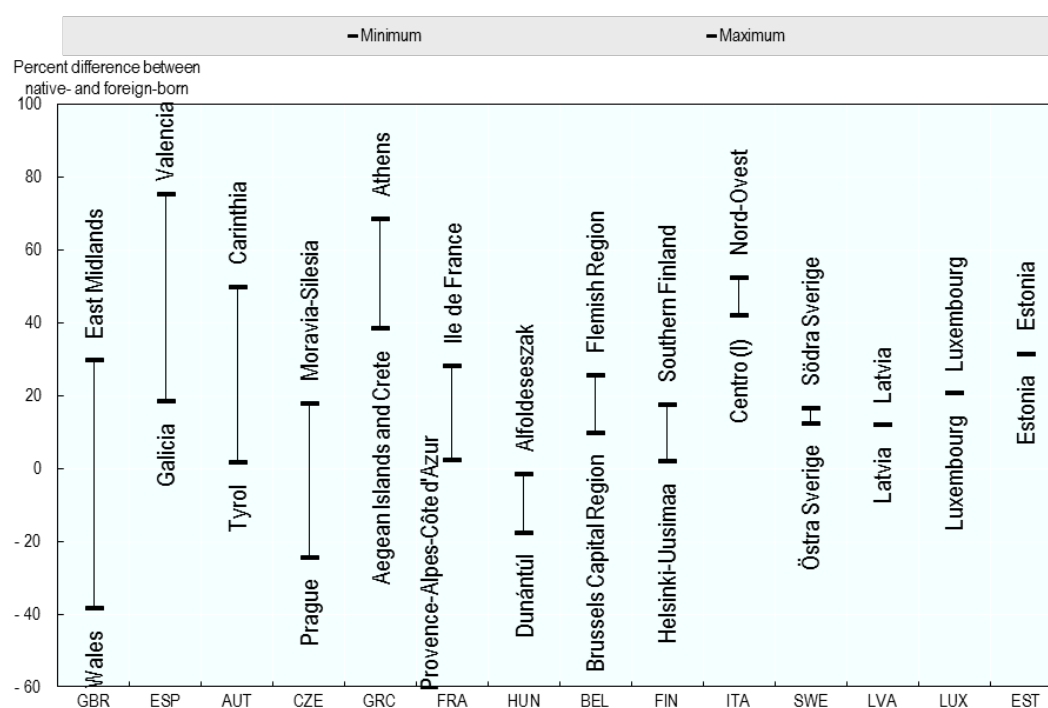
Income gaps between migrants and the native-born

Income matters for migrants' integration, beyond its indication of the degree of labour market integration. Income allows migrants to meet their basic needs, and is positively associated with progress in other dimensions of well-being including health, life expectancy and educational attainment (OECD, 2013, p. 28). In contrast, poverty generates adverse effects on migrants' well-being, including poor housing conditions and limited skills improvements. At the same time, income is widely perceived to be a suitable measure for approximating performance in the labour market and is thus used to examine the evolution of migrants' economic assimilation (Borjas, 2015). Across OECD countries, the median income of migrant households tends to be lower than that of native-born by 17%, reaching EUR 17 000 per capita (OECD and European Union, 2015, p. 162).

Given the large observed gaps between native-born and migrants in terms of employment and over-qualification, it is unsurprising that migrants also record lower incomes. In most European OECD regions, migrants' average equivalised disposable household income tends to be lower than that of native-born populations. In 90% of the covered regions, average equivalised disposable household income is higher for native-born than for

foreign-born individuals. In fact, in 11 out of the 14 countries covered all regions display positive differences between native-born and migrants in average equivalised disposable household income (Figure 2.4). The regions of Valencia in Spain and Athens in Greece display the largest relative differences between the average equivalised disposable household income of native-born and migrants, reaching 75% and 69%, respectively (Figure 2.14). The United Kingdom, Czech Republic and Hungary stand out as the only countries where migrants' average equivalised disposable household income is higher than that of the native-born populations in at least two regions. This fact is likely driven by the large capital-city regions (London, Prague, Budapest), where large parts of the highly skilled labour force comes from abroad. In contrast to most European-OECD regions, migrants in Wales report a much higher equivalised disposable income, by around 38%, than native-born.

Figure 2.14. Percent difference between native- and foreign-born populations in average equivalised disposable household income across European-OECD regions, 2012-14



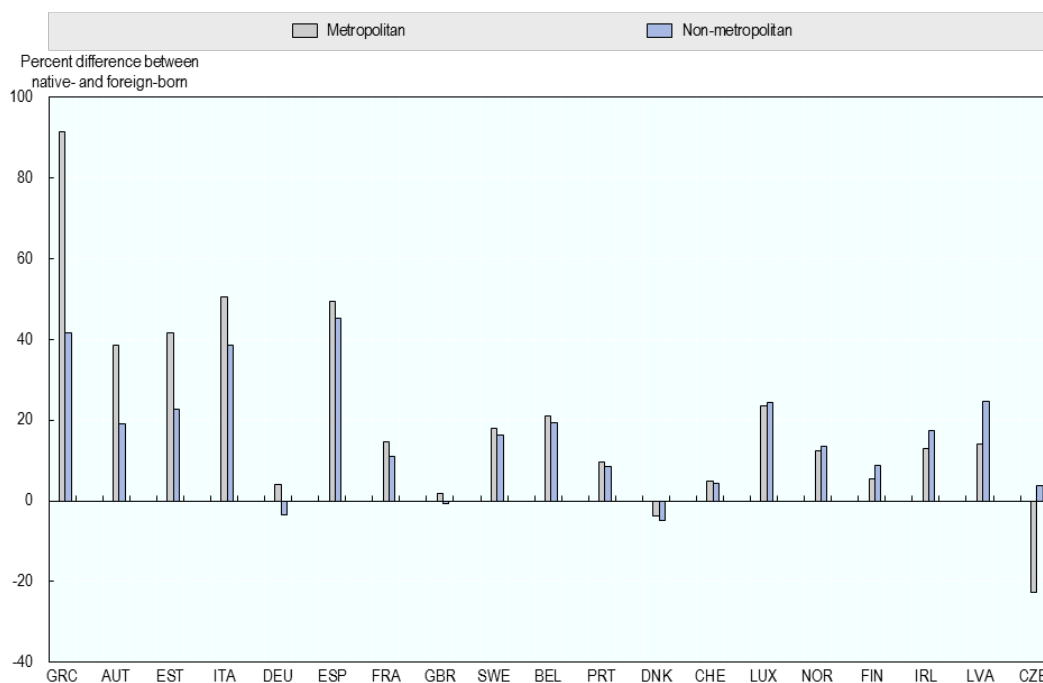
Note: Data are from 2012-14 for all countries except Finland and France (2013-14), and Belgium (2014).

Source: Authors' elaboration, based on EU Statistics on Income and Living Conditions.

While migrants in European OECD countries have on average lower household incomes than native-born in urban, intermediate, and rural areas, this income gap is larger in urban areas (based on the municipal classification of respondents' area included in EU SILC).¹¹ The mean difference in average equivalised household income between migrants and native-born reaches 20% and 16%, respectively (see Figure 2.15). Overall, for 15 out of the available 19 countries, the difference between native and foreign born in household disposable income is positive in both urban and rural/intermediate areas. In Germany and the United Kingdom, migrants actually have higher average equivalised household disposable income than native-born in rural/intermediate areas but not in their urban counterparts. Greek urban areas display the highest relative difference, with urban native-born having a 92% higher equivalised household disposable income than urban foreign-

born individuals. Denmark stands out as the only country where foreign-born individuals hold on average a higher equivalised disposable income than native households in both urban and rural/intermediate areas.

Figure 2.15. Percent difference between native- and foreign-born populations in average equivalised household disposable income across urban and rural areas, 2014



Note: Data for Germany are from 2012. See Endnote 10 [for further information on the methodology used to define urban, intermediate and rural areas in the income section].

Source: Authors' elaboration, based on EU Statistics on Income and Living Conditions.

The role of regional characteristics in migrants' integration outcomes

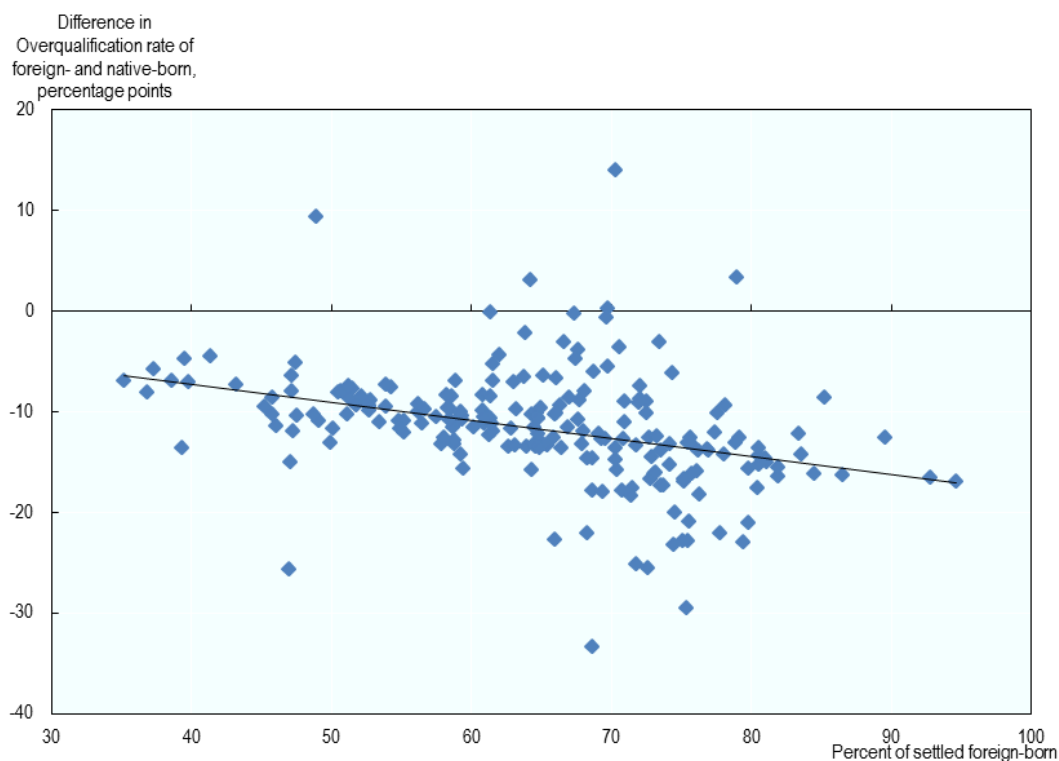
Integration outcomes of migrants in the labour market vary enormously across OECD regions. While differences between migrants and native-born in terms of unemployment or finding jobs that correspond to one's qualifications are negligible in some regions, a large gap between the native-born and migrants exists in other regions. From a policy point of view, it is of utmost importance to elicit whether there are any regional characteristics that contribute to better integration outcomes.

Migrants often settle in regions of their new host countries with already relatively larger existing communities from their country of origin (Brezzi et al., 2010; Chiswick and Miller, 2004). One of the explanations for this phenomenon is that existing diaspora communities help alleviate the initial cultural, linguistic, and administrative challenges that new immigrants face. While residing in such ethnic communities can inhibit the acquisition of the host country language, it may also increase business opportunities and stimulate entrepreneurship among migrants (Edin, Fredrikson and Aslund, 2003).

Although migrants in OECD regions are, on average, much more likely to be over-qualified for their jobs than native-born, this gap is lower in regions with relatively more established migrant communities (Figure 2.16). A greater share of settled migrants, those

that have been in the host country for at least ten years, among the entire regional migrant population is significantly correlated with a narrowing of the over-qualification gap.

Figure 2.16. Native-born-migrant over-qualification differences and settled migrant communities, circa 2012-14



Note: The regression is based on OLS estimation and controls for country-specific fixed effects and displays the component-plus-residual plot.

Source: Authors' elaboration, based on the European Social Survey and OECD (2017c), *OECD Regional Statistics* (database), <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/region-data-en>.

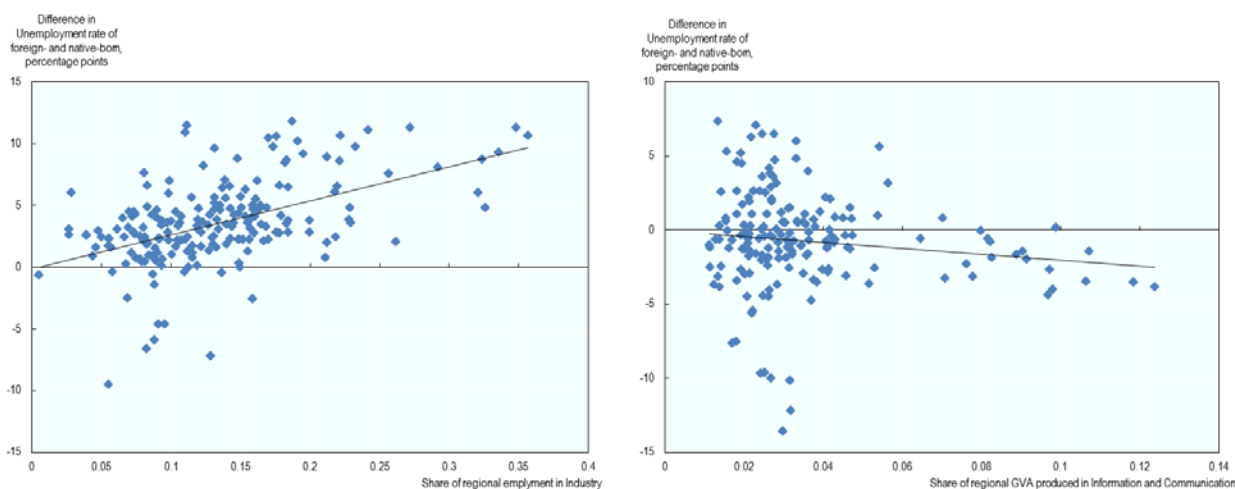
This finding could have two potential explanations. First, the results can be interpreted as a natural consequence of institutional challenges (e.g. getting foreign qualifications and degrees recognised) and labour market search frictions new migrants face. These diminish over time and more settled migrant communities can therefore be expected to be less likely to have jobs that are not equivalent to their qualifications. An alternative interpretation of this finding is centred on the role of existing migrant communities. Living in diaspora communities reduces labour market search frictions and can improve information on job opportunities. Empirical evidence lends support to the latter explanation. Based on examining exogenous location choices within the same country, living in an ethnic enclave, i.e. an area with a large compatriot community is found to improve labour market outcomes (Edin, Fredrikson and Aslund, 2003).

Another regional characteristic that appears to be associated with the labour market integration of migrants is the regional economic structure. Across OECD countries, regions differ vastly in their economic structure from industry-focused to more service-oriented or high-tech regions. This sectoral composition of regional economies can be captured by looking at the sectoral distribution of employment or the sectors' contributions to regional gross value added (GVA). In fact, the sectoral composition of

regional economies is significantly correlated with better or worse integration outcomes of migrants, even after controlling for country-specific fixed effects.

Regions relying on more “traditional” sectors, as measured by the share of regional employees in industry or construction, record on average larger unemployment gaps for migrants (Figure 2.17a).¹² In contrast, regions that rely relatively more on high-tech sectors in terms of their contribution to the overall regional GVA record lower differences in unemployment rates between foreign- and native-born populations (Figure 2.17b). For instance, a larger regional GVA is negatively associated with migrants’ unemployment gaps.

Figure 2.17. Economic structure and the unemployment gap, circa 2012-14



Note: In both panels, the regressions are based on OLS estimation, control for country-specific fixed effects and cluster standard errors at the country level. The results are statistically significant (p -value <0.05) and prevail even if one controls for whether a region is mostly metropolitan or not.

Source: Authors’ elaboration, based on OECD (2017c), *OECD Regional Statistics* (database), <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/region-data-en>.

Two factors seem to be correlated with the previously documented household income gap between the native-born and migrants across European OECD regions. First, regions with larger migrant shares from outside the European Union record larger income gaps between migrants and native-born. This finding confirms the earlier finding that the employment gap between migrants and native-born is driven by non-EU migrants (see Figure 2.13). Second, the nature and conditions of employment matter. Migrants are more likely to be employed without having a permanent contract. Regions where the gap in labour contracts is larger also display larger differences in income between migrant and native-born households.

Migrants’ access to housing and housing conditions

Migrants in European OECD regions are also more likely to be exposed to housing conditions that negatively affect their well-being. Migrants are more likely to live in overcrowded dwellings than native-born across all regions but tend to be worse off in urban areas.¹³

Access to good-quality housing is a core dimension of migrants' well-being and successful integration. Limited access to acceptable housing conditions and housing instability are indeed linked to lower educational outcomes, high risks of social exclusion and health-related issues (Salvi del Pero et al., 2016, p. 10). Moreover, housing, especially the provision of social housing, is a regional or local competence in most countries. Across the OECD area, migrants are less likely to own their homes and are more likely to live in substandard housing than the native-born population (OECD and European Union, 2015). In some instances, such differences have been demonstrated to persist across generations (Gobillon and Solignac, 2015). They are also more exposed to housing cost overburden than native-born households, an issue which can lead to households' cutback on other needs, including health care (Salvi del Pero et al., 2016).

Previous analyses have emphasised the importance of the subnational and local levels in the relationship between migration and housing (OECD, 2016a). Migrants' concentration in specific regions and urban areas suggests that migration's impact on local infrastructure and housing could be larger at the subnational level than what is observed on average at the national level. Due to its concentration, large migrant inflows can aggravate existing problems regarding the local housing infrastructure, especially social housing (OECD, 2016b, p. 110). As a result, limited housing and social housing availability could contribute to exacerbating anti-migration views. Subnational governments across OECD countries can play a significant role in housing-related policies and investments since housing and community amenities are the third largest field of subnational direct public investments after economic affairs and education in the OECD (OECD, 2014b, p. 5).

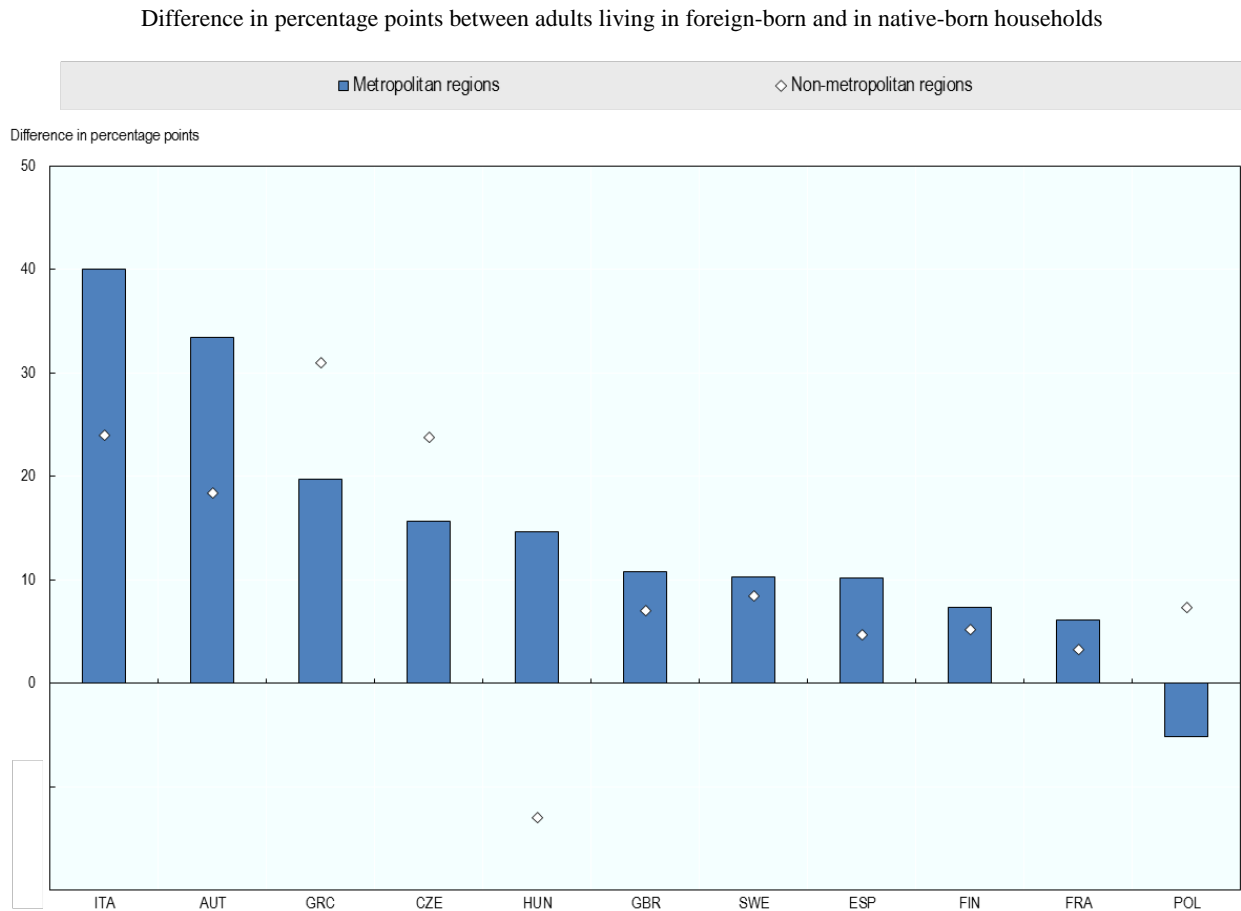
For those reasons, it is fundamental to understand the subnational distribution of migrants' access to good-quality housing in the OECD area relative to native-born in order to design inclusive and tailored migration policies that ensure migrants can benefit from acceptable housing standards across all regions and simultaneously address potential competition for affordable housing with local native populations. In the following sections, evidence on two key housing indicators, namely living in an overcrowded dwelling and living in deprived housing conditions, is presented. The indicators distinguish between rural and urban (including intermediate regions), as housing conditions tend to differ between these types of regions, and – as presented above - immigrants tend to be highly over-represented in urban regions.

Overcrowded housing

In most European OECD countries, migrants are more likely to live in overcrowded dwellings than native-born across all regions, but tend to be worse off in urban areas. Living in an overcrowded dwelling tends to be more frequent among migrants in urban areas than in other areas (OECD, 2017e). Nonetheless, both in urban and non-urban regions, large proportions of migrants are affected by overcrowding. In Greece and Italy for example, at least 40% of adult migrants in either type of area live in an overcrowded dwelling.

However, both in urban and non-urban regions, migrants are much more likely to live in an overcrowded dwelling than the native-born population (Figure 2.18). In half of the European OECD countries covered, the difference in the overcrowding rate in urban regions is comparable to that in non-urban areas. Countries in which the overcrowding rate gap is larger in urban areas include Italy, Austria and Hungary. Conversely, the gap is more pronounced in rural regions in Greece, the Czech Republic and Poland.

Figure 2.18. Adults living in overcrowded dwellings, by household migration status and type of region, 2014



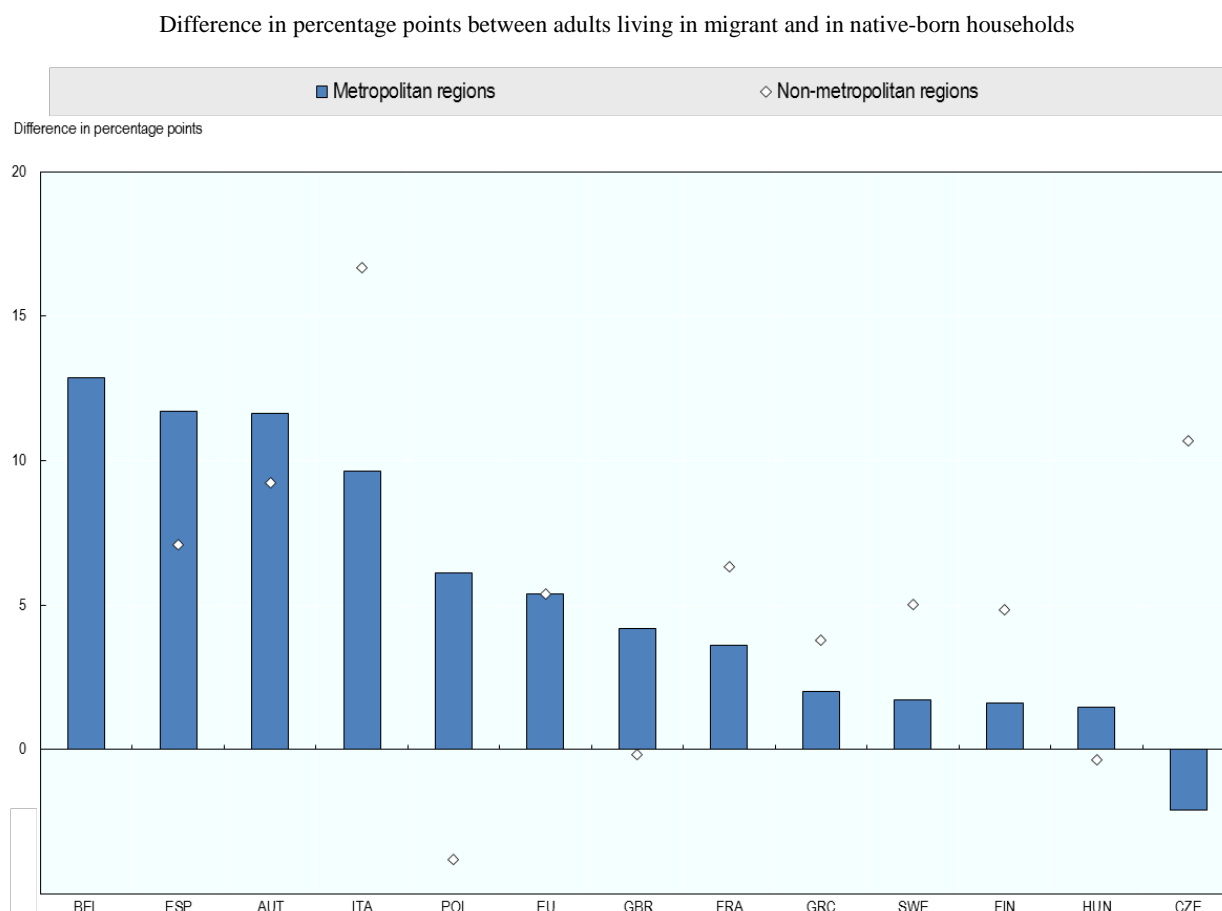
Notes: Data for Sweden is from 2013. See OECD and European Union (2015) for a detailed definition of overcrowding.

Source: Authors' elaboration, based on EU Statistics on Income and Living Conditions.

Deprived housing

Across all types of European OECD regions, migrants are also more likely to live in deprived housing conditions than native-born, i.e. in housing with subpar conditions such as a leaking roof, damp walls, floors or foundation, or no bath nor shower room.¹⁴ Regardless of level of urbanisation, deprived housing conditions are much more frequent among migrants (Figure 2.19).¹⁵ In Belgium, Spain, Austria and Italy, the difference is considerable, reaching around 10 percentage points. For the European Union, the average gap in acceptable housing conditions between native-born and migrants is equivalent for non-urban and urban areas. However, in some countries there can be significant differences. For instance, in Italy or the Czech Republic the share of migrants living in deprived housing is larger in non-urban areas. Conversely, migrants in Spain, Poland or the United Kingdom tend to more affected by deprived housing conditions in urban areas than in non-urban areas.

Figure 2.19. Adults living in deprived housing conditions, by household migration status and degree of urbanisation, 2014



Notes: Data for Sweden is from 2013. See OECD and European Union (2015) for a detailed definition of deprived dwelling.

Source: Authors' elaboration, based on EU Statistics on Income and Living Conditions.

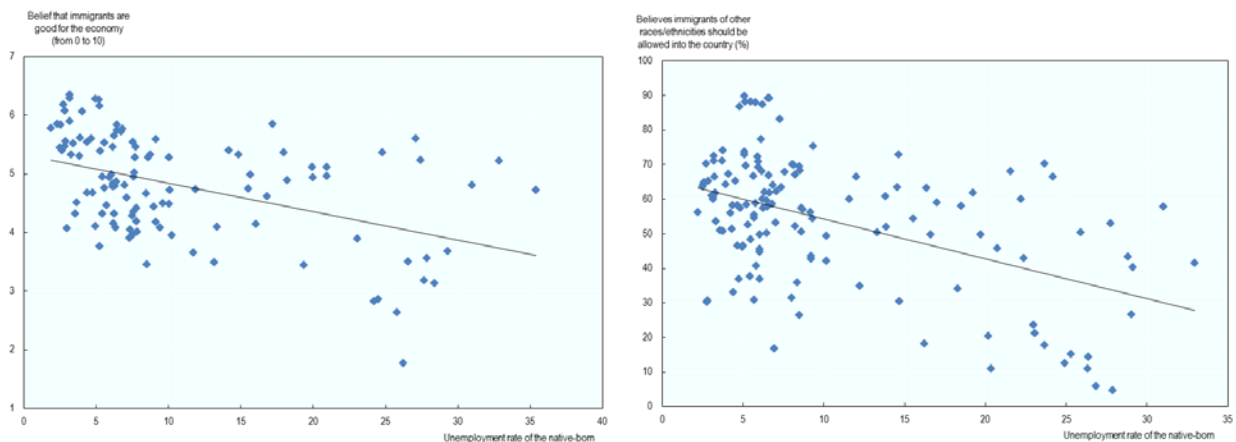
Public opinion and attitudes towards migrants

In assessing migrants' integration as well as their well-being, public perceptions about, and opinions of, migrants can offer insights. First, such information is reflective of whether migrants have found social acceptance in their host countries. Second, it might also reveal to what degree the integration of migrants in regional economies, i.e. their employment and economic contribution to a region's prosperity, has been successful or is perceived as successful.

The effect of migration needs to be considered at the local level where it depends on regions' economic and socio-economic characteristics (OECD, 2016a). For instance, in a region where the unemployment rate is relatively high, competition for jobs can arise between migrants and native-born, particularly if they share similar skills, which could yield higher levels of anti-migration attitudes, making it more difficult for migrants to integrate.

In fact, in those regions where the native-born have lower unemployment rates, views on the positive impact of migration are higher (Figure 2.20, left panel). Similarly, residents of European OECD regions where the native-born have relatively high unemployment rates are also less inclined to support migration from poorer countries or from a different ethnicity/race (Figure 2.20 right panel). The correlation of native-born' unemployment rates with negative views on migration is higher and more significant than the correlation with the actual unemployment of migrants in the respective region itself. In fact, the gap in employment between the foreign-born and native-born is not significantly correlated with public attitude towards migration. These findings suggest that the economic conditions of native-born are highly relevant for their attitudes towards migrants. In contrast, migrants' actual economic contribution to a region, relative to that of the native-born, is not essential in shaping public perception on migration.

Figure 2.20. Native-born unemployment rate and public perception of migrants, circa 2012-14

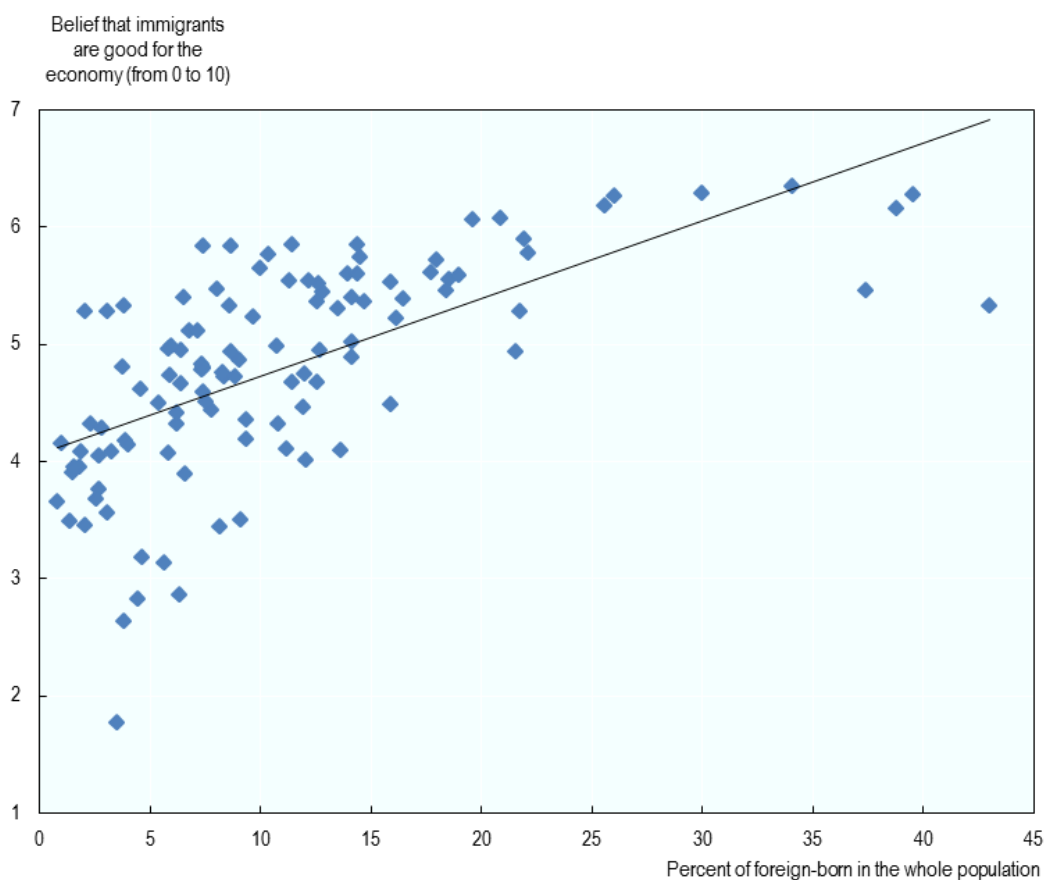


Note: Indicators on attitudes from the European Social Survey are built by pooling together waves 4 to 6, which corresponds to the period 2008-13.

In the first panel, the correlations are statistically significantly different from 0 at the 0.05 level even when excluding regions with unemployment rates above the 20% (correlation of 0.32) or when excluding all the regions of Greece and Spain (correlation of 0.45) – the countries with some outliers in regional unemployment. In the second panel, the correlations are statistically significantly different from 0 at the 0.01 level.

Source: Authors' elaboration, based on the European Social Survey and OECD (2017c), *OECD Regional Statistics* (database), <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/region-data-en>.

Positive regional views on migrants, on the other hand, are associated with larger migrant population shares. In regions with larger migrant communities, residents tend to view migrants' contribution to the economy more positively (Figure 2.21). Across regions, experience with diversity is associated with lower problems in accepting migrants. As such, this could be indicative of a “diversity culture” that builds over time and perceives diversity as an enriching contribution.

Figure 2.21. Migrant population shares and public perception of migrants, circa 2012-14

Note: The percent of foreign-born in the population was estimated using the EU Labour Force Survey of 2014 and 2015. Indicators on attitudes from the European Social Survey are built by pooling together waves 4 to 6, which corresponds to the period 2008-13. The correlation is statistically significantly different from 0 at the 0.05 level.

Source: Authors' elaboration, based on the European Social Survey and OECD (2017c), *OECD Regional Statistics* (database), <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/region-data-en>.

Do large increases of migration, concentrated in specific areas, have a negative effect on how migrants are perceived? Migration might be assumed to be felt most strongly at the local level, as competition for social services and amenities as well as for jobs can arise. However, the data show otherwise. Table 2.3 correlates the increase in the migrant population between 2005 and 2015, i.e. the increase in the migrant population with a set of indicators on positive attitudes towards migrants and migration in general. In regions with relatively large migration between 2005 and 2015, residents held on average more favourable opinions on, and tolerant attitudes towards, migration.

Table 2.3. Changes in the size of migrant populations and attitudes towards migrants

Variables	(1) Immigration good for country's economy (0-10)	(2) Immigrants make country better place to live (0-10)	(3) Country's cultural life enriched by immigrants (0-10)	(4) Allow immigrants from poorer countries outside Europe (%)	(5) Allow immigrants of same race/ethnic group (%)	(6) Allow immigrants of different race/ethnic group (%)
Change in the presence of migrants from 2005 to 2015	0.0414** (0.0170)	0.0347** (0.0137)	0.0549*** (0.0179)	0.394 (0.242)	0.430** (0.207)	0.683* (0.349)
Constant	4.359*** (0.125)	4.493*** (0.105)	5.456*** (0.137)	54.44*** (3.048)	71.04*** (2.731)	53.28*** (2.800)
Observations	102	102	103	102	102	102
R-squared	0.810	0.838	0.778	0.857	0.857	0.840
Country fixed effects	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes

Note: All regressions are based on OLS estimation and account for country-specific fixed effects. Robust standard errors in parentheses. *** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1.

Source: Author's elaboration, based on European Social Survey and OECD (2017c), *OECD Regional Statistics* (database), <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/region-data-en>.

Conclusion

This chapter has presented a first comprehensive description and assessment of the integration of migrants at the subnational level across the OECD, based on a novel dataset (OECD, 2017a). The presence of migrants differs widely across regions, with a strong concentration in metropolitan regions. Furthermore, the composition of migrant communities in terms of educational attainment and age structure varies significantly locally. For those reasons, detailed regional information on the local realities of migrants and their integration is necessary to design effective policies.

Migrants differ not only from the native-born population in where they live or in their socio-economic characteristics, but also in their employment outcomes and well-being conditions. Across OECD regions, they are much less likely to be employed, but much more likely to be over-qualified for their jobs than native-born. Factors that can facilitate the labour market integration of migrants are the existence of established migrant communities that have been in the host country for more than ten years as well as an economic structure of the regional economy that is geared towards high-tech service sectors, rather than industry or construction.

In European regions, a clear discrepancy exists between EU and non-EU migrants. EU migrants are 10 percentage points more likely to be highly educated and also display significantly larger employment rates than non-EU migrants. On average, migrants in Europe also fare worse in well-being outcomes than their native-born peers. They have markedly lower household incomes and are relatively more exposed to adverse housing conditions. Such differences between native-born and migrants are most strikingly observed in urban (densely-populated) areas.

Effective integration policies need to take into account such regional differences between migrants' education, legal status (EU vs. non-EU citizens) and their geographic concentration in order to address migrants' integration obstacles. In particular, policy

makers need to evaluate the impediments migrants face in contributing fully to the local economy. They also need to consider the local economic and political realities. Economic difficulties among native-born, such as pervasive unemployment, can give rise to anti-migrant sentiments, which might further hamper the success of integration measures.

The ongoing refugee crisis with its additional, large migratory inflows to the OECD area constitutes an unprecedented challenge for policy makers. Such large increases in migration have even been shown to affect local electoral outcomes in some regions (Dustmann, Vasilje and Piil Damm, 2016; Halla et al., 2017). In order to be effective, migrant integration policies need to also include an analysis of the effects of migration on the native-born in aspects such as social services, wages or employment, and how this works at the local and regional levels.

Notes

1. Regional integration indicators were produced jointly by the Economic Analysis, Statistics and Multi-Level Governance Section (CFE) and the International Migration Division (ELS).
2. Regional integration indicators were produced jointly by the Economic Analysis, Statistics and Multi-Level Governance Section (OECD Centre for Entrepreneurship, SMEs, Regions Cities [CFE]) and the International Migration Division (OECD Directorate for Employment, Labour and Social Affairs [ELS]).
3. The statistical data for Israel are supplied by and under the responsibility of the relevant Israeli authorities. The use of such data by the OECD is without prejudice to the status of the Golan Heights, East Jerusalem and Israeli settlements in the West Bank under the terms of international law.
4. Eurostat provides such threshold values for by country and year.
5. Australia, Austria, Belgium, Canada, Czech Republic, Denmark, Finland, France, Germany, Greece, Hungary, Ireland, Italy, Luxembourg, Netherlands, New Zealand, Norway, Portugal, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, United Kingdom and United States.
6. As above, excluding Australia, Canada and New Zealand.
7. Aeberhardt, Coudin and Rathelot document ethnic employment gaps between French and migrants with North African parents along education and a continuous employability measure based on individuals' characteristics. The gap narrows with larger levels of employability.
8. This could be different if data on the nationality or the country of birth of individuals' parents were observed. In that case, the educational outcomes of children of migrants who went through the same educational system as their native-born peers could be meaningfully assessed.
9. Another dimension that can be examined via the new database is the regional distribution in the age structure of migrants. For instance, the share of young or working-age migrants can be examined across regions and compared to the respective figures for native-born. A detailed description of the regional heterogeneity in this regard can be found in OECD (2017d).
10. The finding is also confirmed when looking at the regional average based on the new subnational migration database (OECD, 2017e).

11. With regards to income levels, urban and rural areas are identified based on the EU-SILC methodology, which segments municipalities based on population density. Urban areas correspond to the “densely populated” areas of the EU-SILC classification and rural/intermediate areas include both the “intermediate” and “thinly populated” areas of the EU-SILC classification. See http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/statistics-explained/index.php/Glossary:Revision_of_the_degree_of_urbanisation.
12. Sectors are based on the ISIC Rev. 4 classification.
13. Urban and non-urban areas are defined according to the degree of urbanisation of respondents’ municipalities provided by EU-SILC.
14. Definition of deprived housing conditions: http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/statistics-explained/index.php/EU_statistics_on_income_and_living_conditions_%28EU-SILC%29_methodology_-_housing_deprivation.
15. Exceptions to this observation are rural areas in Poland and urban areas in the Czech Republic, i.e. regions with fairly small migrant communities.

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Part II. Objectives for effectively integrating migrants and refugees at the local level

Part II presents 12 policy objectives that draw upon the migrant integration challenges countries are facing at the local level. These objectives are accompanied by some possible policy responses and feature good practice examples of initiatives implemented by the case study cities.

Introduction

Chapter 2. illustrated some of the challenges related to integration at the regional level (TL2). This part gathers 12 key evidence-based points for reflection, in order to aid policy makers and practitioners in the development and implementation of migrant integration programmes, at local, regional, national and international levels.

These points are presented as objectives, as first identified in a *Checklist for Public Action to Migrant Integration at the Local Level*. This Checklist highlights for the first time common points and cross-cutting messages/lessons learnt around policy frameworks, institutions, and mechanisms that feature in policies for migrant and refugee integration. Some of the policy objectives concern multi-level governance framework and mechanisms as they are the ones setting the context within which local authorities make their decisions. Higher levels of government can provide the relevant incentives for successful integration in this context.

The 12 objectives and corresponding tools have been organised around 4 “blocks” (see box below). Together, the objectives and blocks provide a practical tool to help decision makers integrate migrants, including persons seeking international protection. At the beginning of each section (block), relevant statistics are presented.¹ The lessons learnt and good practices that have been implemented are discussed under each objective.

A checklist for public action to migrant integration at the local level

Block 1. Multi-level governance: Institutional and financial settings

Objective 1. Enhance effectiveness of migrant integration policy through improved vertical co-ordination and implementation at the relevant scale.

Objective 2. Seek policy coherence in addressing the multi-dimensional needs of, and opportunities for, migrants at the local level.

Objective 3. Ensure access to, and effective use of, financial resources that are adapted to local responsibilities for migrant integration.

Block 2. Time and space: Keys for migrants and host communities to live together

Objective 4. Design integration policies that take time into account throughout migrants’ lifetimes and evolution of residency status.

Objective 5. Create spaces where the interaction brings migrant and native-born communities closer

Block 3. Local capacity for policy formulation and implementation

Objective 6. Build capacity and diversity in civil service, with a view to ensure access to mainstream services for migrants and newcomers

Objective 7. Strengthen co-operation with non-state stakeholders, including through transparent and effective contracts.

Objective 8. Intensify the assessment of integration results for migrants and host communities and their use for evidence-based policies.

Block 4. Sectoral policies related to integration

Objective 9. Match migrant skills with economic and job opportunities.

Objective 10. Secure access to adequate housing.

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

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

Notes

1. The data have been extracted from the case studies for the ten cities (Amsterdam, Athens, Barcelona, Berlin, Glasgow, Gothenburg, Paris, Rome, Vienna and Altena, a small city in Germany) and the answers collected from 57 additional European cities and 5 municipal associations through a short ad hoc questionnaire circulated among EURO CITIES and the Council of European Municipalities and Regions (CEMR) members and from the statistical pillar of the work will be presented.

Chapter 3. Block 1. Multi-level governance: Institutional and financial settings

The policy objectives listed in Block 1 relate to a multi-level governance framework and mechanisms within which local authorities make decisions for the integration of migrants in their territory. While most of the policy objectives address local authorities, some are geared to higher levels of government (supranational, national and regional) as they can provide the relevant incentives for successful local integration.

This section focuses on tools available for managing complementarities across sectors and government levels and for implementing administrative mechanisms.

Key takeaways:

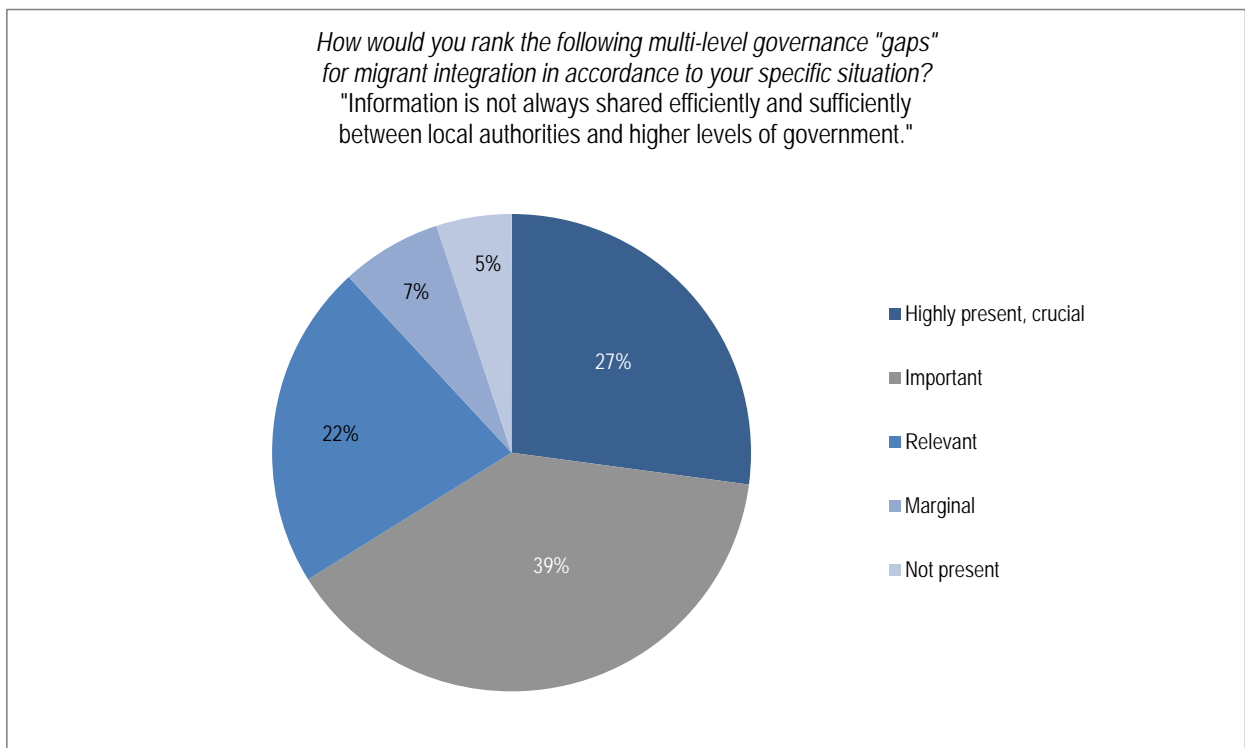
- Municipalities' room for manoeuvre in designing local integration responses depends on sectoral competences and financing mechanisms, as well as on governance structures. Across different integration-relevant sectors, such as health, education or employment, the extent of municipalities' roles and their scope for action varies. Regardless, any multi-level governance framework for migrant integration policy should be flexible, allowing for a two-way dialogue where local experiences can inform national policy changes.
- In order to develop local and coherent approaches to integration, municipalities must identify complementarities across relevant policy sectors. They must identify the skills and resources that relevant non-government actors, such as business, CSOs, faith-based organisations, NGOs and migrant associations, can bring to integration policy and implementation.
- Mainstreaming integration issues at the right stage of universal sectoral policies' design and implementation is essential. This requires close collaboration across municipal departments, with a focal point or entity to co-ordinate migration issues, and a strategy that both sets the overall outcomes and defines what an inclusive city should look like. All relevant departments should be able to measure their achievements in terms of inclusion, including that of migrants and refugees.
- Municipalities should work with their neighbours, developing a wider local response to migrant integration challenges. By sharing responsibilities, services can be delivered and newcomers welcomed more efficiently.
- Welcoming and integrating asylum seekers and refugees entails specific responsibilities for authorities across all levels. The peak inflow of refugees and asylum seekers in 2015 prompted an increased awareness of their particular needs. It required cross-sectoral co-ordination within municipalities and multi-level co-ordination across levels of government, in particular to establish dispersal mechanisms for asylum seekers.

Objective 1. Enhance effectiveness of migrant integration policy through improved co-ordination across government levels and implementation at the relevant scale

Why this objective is important and what to avoid

This study demonstrates that 80% of the cities responding to the ad hoc OECD questionnaire state that “there is a lack of co-ordination between different levels of government regarding migrant integration”. Some 66% of respondents perceive that these challenges are more important concerning asylum seekers and refugee populations. More specifically, the majority (88%) of the sample of 72 cities identified an information gap as a highly present, important or relevant, obstacle to migrant integration. It is ranked highest in comparison to other multi-level governance gaps described below. An information gap is defined as “asymmetries of information (quality, quantity, type) between different stakeholders involved in migrant integration policy, whether voluntary or not” and reveals that “information is not always shared efficiently and sufficiently between local authorities and higher levels of government (local, regional, national and European levels).”

Figure 3.1. Migrant integration information gaps between local authorities and higher levels of government



Note: Multi-level governance gaps stem from asymmetries that arise across levels of government and public actors at all levels as one level depends on the other for information, skills, resources, or competences (Charbit and Michalun, 2009^[2]). The Information Gap is defined as asymmetries of information (quality, quantity, type) between different stakeholders involved in migrant integration policy, whether voluntary or not.

Source: Authors' elaboration, based on case studies and the ad hoc questionnaire.

This gap is understandable when considering the variety of policy fields and governmental levels involved in migrant integration. Integration policies require: strong co-ordination mechanisms because they are often regulated, designed, implemented and evaluated by different actors at different levels of government. The cities in this study all report that they have different decision-making powers in sectors that are crucial for integration. For instance, only 9% report having exclusive competence in the education sector, whereas almost 30% have exclusive competence in the housing sector.

To respond to the needs of a more diverse society and to guarantee equal access to services, governments at all levels have two main tools at their disposal: either they formulate **specific** integration strategies/policies or they **adapt** legislation and policies that apply to the whole population to migrant integration specificities (a “mainstreaming” approach). This duality in terms of instruments that are “generic when possible and specific when needed” (Wittebrood and Andriessen, 2014: 5) adds a layer of complexity to integration policy formulation, implementation and monitoring, again calling for strong co-ordination. In the case of integration policies, a gap in co-ordination is sometimes revealed by looking at the objectives or indicators of national and local strategies. Where such indicators are not aligned, integration can take a mosaic of forms across the country, pursuing different goals. An integration measurement system that is too heterogeneous may limit the capacity to measure, evaluate and compare integration outcomes. Co-ordination across levels of government is needed to strike the balance between formulating policies and indicators that are adapted to territorial characteristics, and maintain comparability across local realities.-

This is particularly the case in highly-decentralised countries and when subnational governments have a long tradition in formulating integration plans. Sometimes, local action took place before the national one. For instance, in Vienna, a city integration strategy has existed since 1970, while a national one was only formulated in the 2000s. In general, improving mutual knowledge and information sharing would be beneficial for converging towards common national and local integration goals. Improved exchange across levels should inform subnational authorities about national policies and central governments about local realities when implementing integration policies.

Which tools could work and what could be done better

1. Utilise institutional mapping

Institutional mapping (who does what, how and with whom) is a powerful tool to identify all relevant actors across all levels of government, their roles and their functional relations (strategy and planning, information, policy implementation, financial, monitoring, operational management). An institutional mapping is included in each of the ten case studies and an example is available here (see Figure 3.2).

By identifying the type of relations across levels (co-operation, subordination, and representation), the horizontal linkages of the municipality with other local public and non-public actors and the organisation across departments within the municipality, the mapping identifies local authorities’ leeway and helps maximise policy effectiveness through its partnership with a broad range of actors in the territory. Within the framework of this study, the OECD developed an institutional mapping for each of the ten partner cities that will serve as a reference point for all stakeholders in order to clarify allocation of responsibilities and relations among them at different levels of government. This is a useful starting point in multi-level dialogue and can be used to identify redundancies, gaps, and possibly costs that the municipality bears for integration purposes.

2. Increase mutual knowledge of integration practices and objectives across levels when designing national or regional integration strategies

On the one hand, national governments need to know more about what happens on the ground and the diversity of existing practices of subnational governments. On the other hand, consistent approaches to migration across levels of government can ensure equal standards in public services across the territory and more consistent measurement of integration issues. In this sense, useful tools can include multi-level dialogue mechanisms related to integration and national integration strategies and legislation formulated on the basis of local experiences (see Point 3. Make use of multi-level and multi-stakeholder dialogue mechanisms to increase mutual knowledge of integration practices and objectives across levels).

A national integration plan provides programmatic priorities that could incentivise implementation of local innovations and practices and enhances more performant national outcomes. Such a plan should allow for a coherent approach, while preserving the customisation of implementation and adaptation to diverse contexts. Local authorities should be given the opportunity to provide input into how these priorities are set. This would ensure that the authorities at the central level are aware of local priorities, innovations and practices. Further, national plans and legislation on integration-related issues can contribute to creating incentives and standards for mainstreaming a migrant focus at the local level in a number of sectors. For instance, the national level can include incentives in their national development strategies, in order to ensure that migration will contribute to the country's economic development as a whole, or recognise the role that non-state actors play in this sector.

- **Italy:** The new National Integration Plan released in September 2017 aims to co-ordinate existing territorial strategies under a set of national priorities for integrating beneficiaries of international protection. It is a biannual programmatic document, without an action plan or budget, formulated through consultation with the regional level.
- **Tyrol (Austria):** Municipalities in the Austrian *land* of Tyrol share an integration strategy framework called “integration mission statement”, which is implemented across municipalities of the federal state.
- **Germany:** In 2006 the German Chancellor invited to the first Integration Summit representatives of all social groups working on the issue of integration: associations of migrants and numerous other non-governmental players, together with the federal *Länder* and local authorities. During this summit the National Integration Plan was formulated and adopted the following year. The plan includes more than 400 measures and voluntary commitments relating to integration based on the underlying principle of providing support whilst requiring the migrants to do their part.¹ A review of its implementation was published in 2008.
- **United Kingdom:** The Equality Act (2010) synthesises and replaces successive pieces of legislation introduced since 1976, which put race equality at the centre of policy making, service delivery, regulation and enforcement, and employment practices. All relevant UK public institutions have to demonstrate they meet their duty “to eliminate unlawful racial discrimination, and promote equality of opportunity and good race relations.”² This act devolves the responsibility to formulate and implement policies related to race equality to the English, Welsh and Scottish ministers through secondary legislation. Statutory bodies such as the

Equality and Human Rights Commission³ monitor the implementation of anti-discriminatory duties by public bodies across levels.

- **Canada:** The Settlement and Integration system is the multi-level funding mechanism to support activities related to facilitating the arrival of newcomers (including work and humanitarian migrants) in Canadian communities. This programme is funded by the Ministry of Immigration, Refugee and Citizenship Canada as well as the provincial governments. Services are provided by local third party organisations based on local needs. The ministry engages with provinces and territories via multilateral forums such as the Federal-Provincial/Territorial Settlement Working Group.

3. Make use of multi-level and multi-stakeholder dialogue mechanisms to increase mutual knowledge of integration practices and objectives across levels

The following four models for dialogue were identified in the study:

1. **Sharing information:** To allow the central and local levels to mutually learn about policy directions and place-based needs. Such exchanges should inform local and national levels of policy making.
 - **Austria:** The Expert Council for Integration is composed of relevant ministries, all provinces/*Länder*, and five of the most relevant NGOs. It meets twice a year to share information about the implementation of the national plan for integration.
 - **Germany:** The Permanent Conference of Ministers and Senators for the Interior of the federal *Länder* (IMK). The conference takes place twice a year and is an important venue in co-ordinating policy making between *Länder* and the federal level.
2. **Design and implementation of integration policies:** From design to action for integration policies, these dialogues take the form of peer negotiation in which each party has its share of sovereignty and the result is that a policy is agreed upon at both the local and national level. A multi-level council with programmatic responsibilities for EU and national funding relevant for migration serves such a purpose. In addition, a multi-level working group defines criteria for asylum seekers and refugees' geographical distribution as well.
3. **Clarifying roles and responsibilities to implement a specific policy contributing to integration objectives.** A multi-level task force on youth employment with a focus on migrant youth among other groups is an example of such an approach.
 - **Netherlands:** National-local consultation mechanisms are topic-specific; they involve relevant national ministries, the local level (often through the G4 composed of the city of Amsterdam, The Hague, Rotterdam and Utrecht) and social partners (trade unions and employers' associations). For instance, the Ministry of Labour set up a roundtable to fight discrimination in the labour market and a national measure was developed to impose anonymous job applications.
 - **Germany:** A multi-level federal working group on Migration and Public Health aims at improving health care and information for migrants. The group is coordinated by the Federal Government Commissioner for Migration, Refugees and Integration and includes around 50 members from different sectors of the public health services and the health system of cities (*Kommunen*), *Länder* and the Federation.

- **France:** To uphold its commit to receiving resettled and relocated refugees the Inter-ministerial Delegation for Accommodation and Access to Housing (DIHAL) set up in 2015 a multi-level platform to match newcomers' needs with available housing solutions across the country. Through a dialogue with local authorities and private housing corporations, this platform provides resettled refugees with accommodation as well as a package of integration measures, implemented for one year by local authorities, alongside NGOs, through national funding.⁴ Since 2018 the DIHAL has established a platform with the employment agency (Pôle Emploi), the Ministry of Solidarity and health (DGCS) and a housing corporation (USH) to match job offers and social housing solutions across national territory. This platform will be visible to all practitioners working in the sector who can fulfil the demands of all vulnerable groups including refugees who are willing to change locations.
4. **Shared evaluation mechanisms:** To assess the results of integration policies, including in terms of the respective contribution of levels of government, and possibly use them to revise the next policy cycle.
- **Germany:** The institutionalised dialogue conference of ministers for the integration of the *Länder* (Integrationsministerministerkonferenz, IntMK) is an interface between the federal level and the Lander. This conference develops indicators that are compared every year across *Länder*.

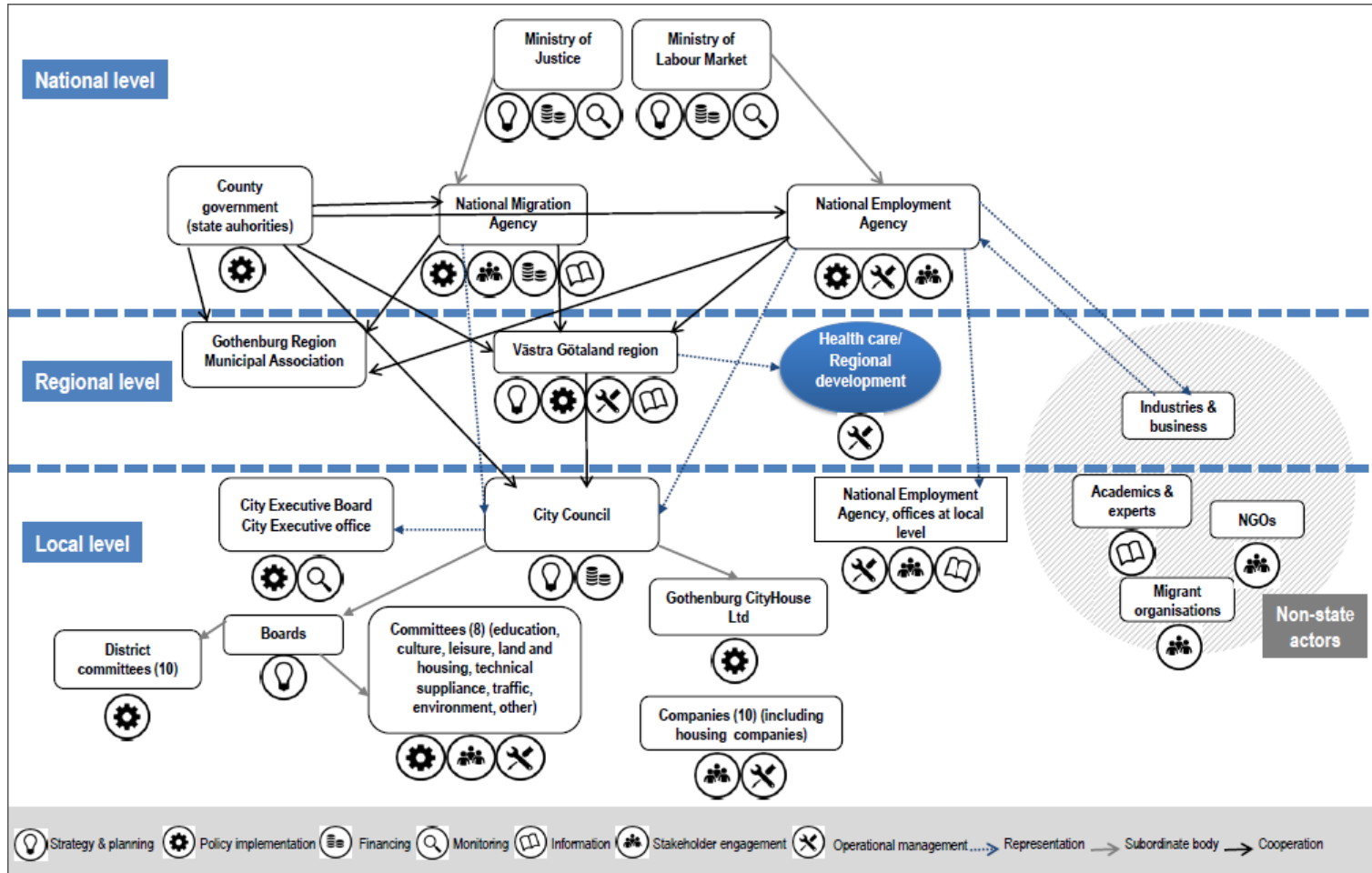
Overall, multi-level dialogue would gain from direct interaction with non-state actors who play a significant role in integration issues (e.g. non-governmental organisations (NGOs), the private sector, migrant and refugee organisations, unions, faith-based organisations, etc.).

4. Establish alliances within municipalities inside metropolitan areas as well as strengthen urban-rural linkages and assess their benefits

To set up joint service provision for migrant integration financial agreements across neighbouring municipalities should be established. Further, forces should be joined across municipalities in dialogues on migrant integration priorities with higher levels of government (regional, national or supranational) and other stakeholders (like businesses and NGOs).

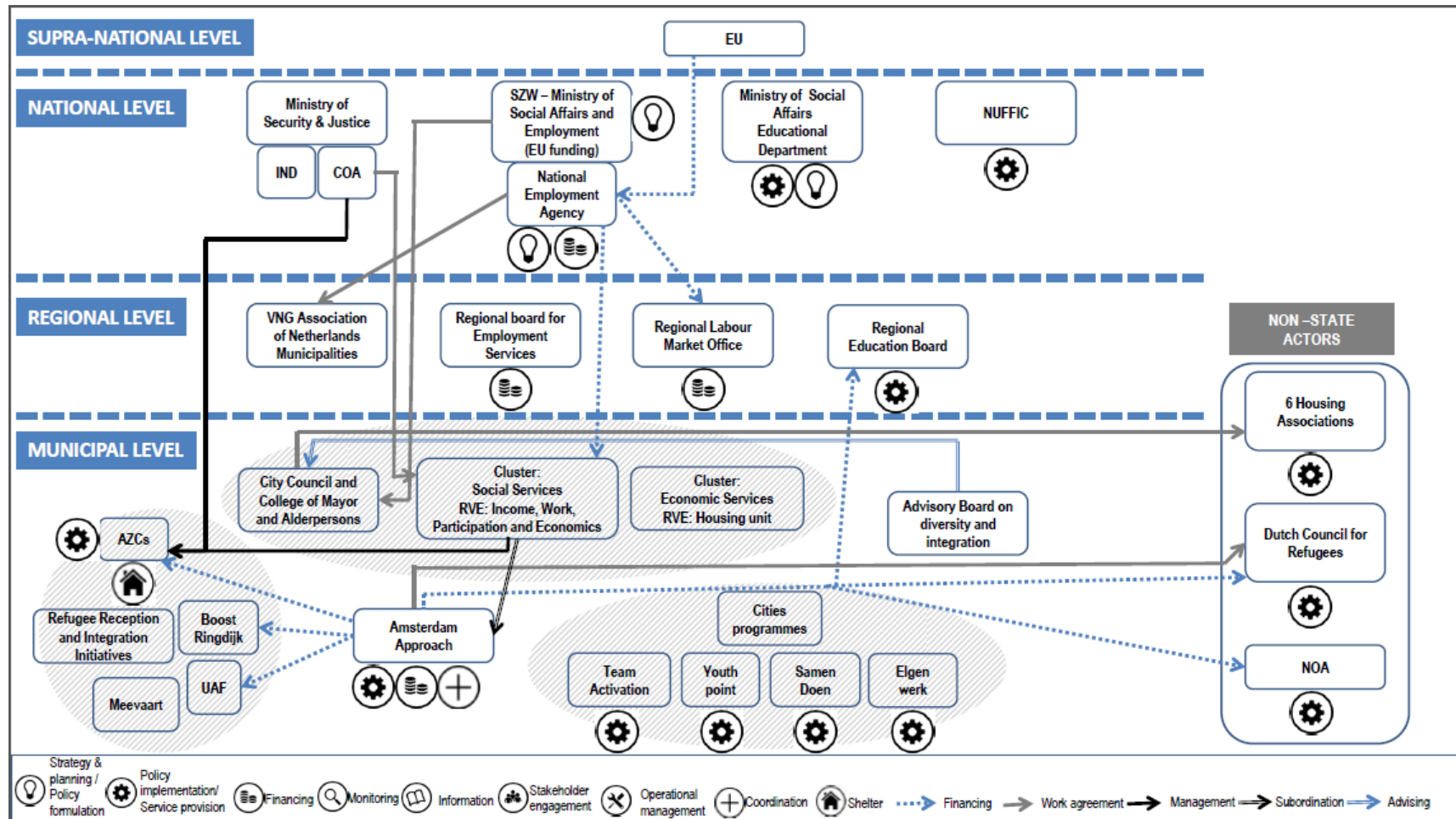
- **Amsterdam:** 35 municipalities (Amsterdam included) are members of the *Labour Market Regions*. They co-operate and have regular meetings involving representatives of the private sector to involve the biggest employers of the region. This region can also apply for grants, making additional finances available to municipal authorities.
- **Gothenburg:** The Association of the Region of Gothenburg, involving 13 municipalities, has a practice of sharing resources and services targeting migrants to achieve a critical mass and improve the quality of services. Together with four other sub-regional associations and the region, it set up an organisation called Validering Väst (Validation West). This organisation works with various stakeholders (including the employment agency) in order to help individuals receive documented proof of their skills (e.g. as an electrician or a builder, etc.), to be released by Swedish Council for Higher Education [UHR], so that they can work in specific vocations that require a license or formal education -. One of their goals for 2017 is to create conditions so that newcomers to Sweden can have their practical skills “made visible” and documented.

Figure 3.2. Institutional mapping of the multi-level governance of integration-related policy sectors in Gothenburg (Sweden)



Source: OECD (forthcoming a), "Working together for local integration of migrants and refugees Case Study of Gothenburg". The institutional mapping used the graphic of previous OECD publication (OECD, 2017a).

Figure 3.3. Institutional mapping of the multi-level governance of integration-related policy sectors in Amsterdam (Netherlands)



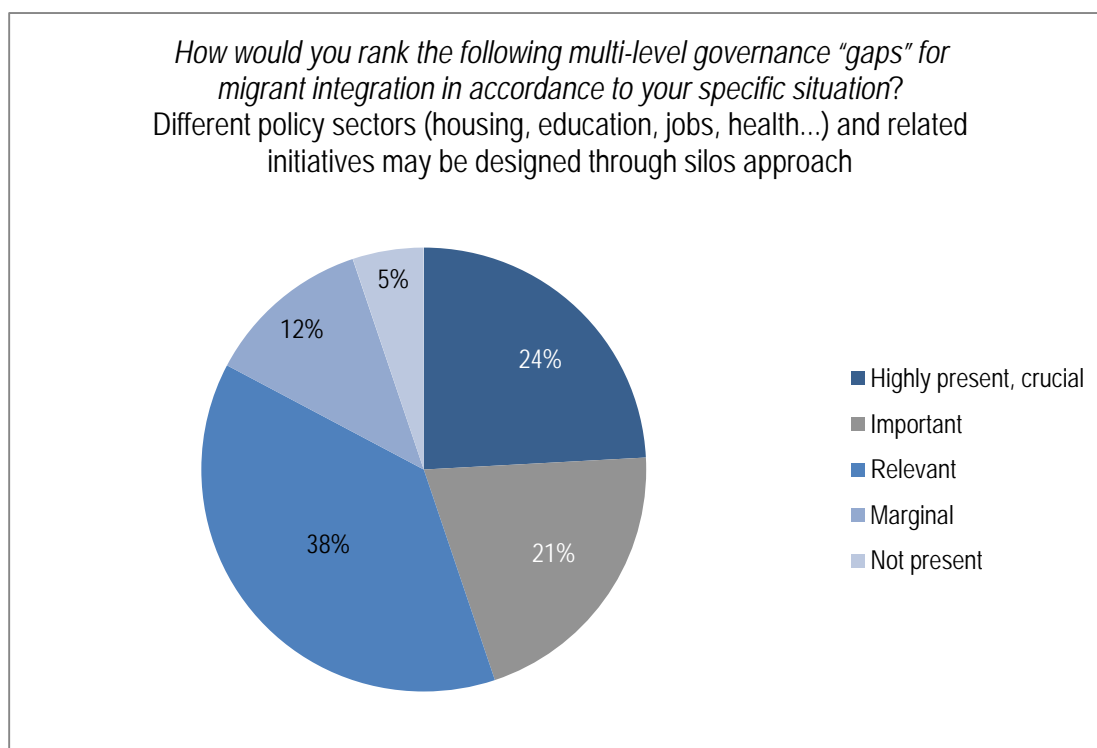
Source: OECD (forthcoming b), "Working together for local integration of migrants and refugees – Case Study of Amsterdam".

Objective 2. Seek policy coherence in addressing the multi-dimensional needs of, and opportunities for, migrants at the local level

Observations: Why it is important and what to avoid

Another important challenge in multi-level governance for the cities studied in this report is the policy gap, defined in the OECD questionnaire as “sectoral fragmentation of integration-related tasks at central level across ministries, as well as at local level across municipal departments and agencies”. Different policy sectors (housing, education, jobs, health, etc.) and related integration-relevant initiatives are sometimes designed using a silo approach, missing cross-sectoral co-ordination and the potential synergies created through more complementary policies. In the study, 83% of the 72 cities perceive the policy gap as crucial, high or relevant. Not surprisingly, large cities such as the ones analysed through the case studies find it more challenging to achieve policy coherence than the small- and medium-sized cities in the sample. The number of services and agencies involved in policies and initiatives that relate to integration, as well as the diversity of funding streams, might constitute an obstacle to a coherent approach.

Figure 3.4. Ranking policy gap



Note: Multi-level governance gaps stem from asymmetries that arise across levels of government and public actors at all levels as one level depends on the other for information, skills, resources, or competences (Charbit and Michalun, 2009^[2]). Policy gap is defined as: sectoral fragmentation of integration-related tasks across ministries, municipal departments and agencies.

Source: Authors’ elaboration, based on case studies and OECD ad hoc questionnaire.

Gaps regarding coherence in integration policy can take different forms. They can translate into loopholes for migrants in their access to services because of administrative delays, or changes in regulatory frameworks, which suspend service provision.

Uncoordinated services fail to connect users' information, and they multiply administrative obstacles. Gaps can translate into lack of coherence when for example language classes are arranged in places that are inconvenient with public transport or during hours that are incompatible with daycare services for children. These gaps often result from difficulties or limited efforts to co-ordinate an integration approach across sectors of policy and lack of information-sharing across public agencies. Some other examples of policy gaps manifest in policies targeting the same group (migrants, newcomers, etc.) that are formulated in silos (i.e. youth employment, entrepreneurship, skills, etc.), resulting in overlapping, discontinuity of objectives, measures and actors. This lack of coherence in turn decreases the effectiveness of third-sector actors and NGOs that contribute to policy implementation. In a number of cities, non-state actors reported a lack of transversal co-ordination, which increases transaction costs and obliges them to divide their actions for a same group through several grants and to report on different indicators. Missed opportunities resulting from weak cross-sectoral co-ordination not only translate into sub-optimal adaptation of service delivery, but also into decreased chances of effectively integrating migrants into local society.

Local policy makers are the best placed to ensure that local strategies (e.g. economic development, social and business innovation, social inclusion, spatial planning, youth employment, inclusion of the elderly, cultural activities, etc.) take into account the presence of migrants in their community. The goal is not only to ensure equal treatment but also to make sure their contribution to local development is valued. The overall goal of more coherent local policies is to ensure that integration is facilitated simultaneously through different aspects of migrants' lives (e.g. labour integration, social, language, social assistance, etc.), enabling them to become self-reliant and empowering them as active members of their new societies.

Communication tools often accompany a clear vision and need strong leadership that intends to provide space and recognise the added value of migrant communities. Achieving policy coherence is facilitated by internal processes, such as creating incentives across departments to work together at co-ordinating integration across relevant policies, avoiding bureaucratic breakdowns and fragmentation. However local integration strategies, beyond the operational purpose of streamlining actions internally, contribute to inform the public opinion on what the municipality is doing with regards to integration.

Transparent communication about the concrete paths for integration that the municipality foresees is key to fighting potential uneasiness and misconceptions of the host communities towards migrants. Sometimes migrants are perceived as consuming resources and benefits that are meant to meet the needs of people born in that country. Yet only in rare - but significant - exceptions, municipalities shaped the consensus through a communication campaign expressing their integration objectives and positive integration outcomes. Many of the cities analysed prefer to remain silent with regard to their integration initiatives as they fear the media and political groups will misuse such information. Despite limited communication strategies, the NGOs interviewed during OECD fieldwork reported, in many cities, that there was a solid consensus among the local public in favour of refugee integration.

Which tools could work and what could be done better

1. Create a local standalone municipal department, or co-ordination bodies, to deal with the integration of marginalised groups, including migrants and children of migrant parents.

This is a practice that recognises the importance of integration issues for the local administration, and it helps to mainstream integration policy across all municipal departments. This office/body (permanent or ad hoc) is often mandated to raise awareness and build capacity in all other departments, to develop “migration-sensitive” policies in their respective sectors of competence. All of the cities assessed in the case studies and 78% of the respondents of the ad-hoc survey sample, indicated that they had a standalone municipal entity to deal with integration and diversity – even though some deal only with refugees and asylum seekers. Some 21% of the entities of the ad-hoc-sample responses have their own budget, which enables them to track municipal spending on integration. 61% of the respondent cities have set up an inter-departmental committee for migrant integration in which designated persons from each department participate. In some cities, these committees might have specific tasks (e.g. monitoring health status of migrants, etc.).

The size of these entities varies from a mere advisor to full-fledged departments with their own budgets. Beyond raising awareness and building capacity across municipal departments, this entity can have a more operational mandate. In certain instances, it is tasked with running a “migration-sensitive” check when policies are proposed across all fields (*ex ante* evaluation stage). The entity would assess whether the proposed policy is adapted for migrant integration (i.e. migrant integration equality assessment/migrant integration impact assessment, etc.) according to municipally agreed standards (EUROCITIES, 2009). Equally, such bodies should avoid operating in a vacuum. Rather, they should seek direction and feedback from migrant and refugee populations as well as experts on integration from business and civil society organisations. However, only 47% of the ad-hoc sample indicated they had a permanent consultative committee involving non-institutional municipal actors. There could be an added value in setting up such interdepartmental entities to serve all marginalised groups. This would avoid social exclusion and would gather in one place all competencies and funding streams that the municipality has specifically dedicated to dealing with persons with specific needs.

- **Milan (Italy):** The Policy Unit for Immigration is responsible for the development of policies regarding migration, such as management related to migration flows, assisted voluntary return, migration health and assistance for vulnerable migrants.
- **Tampere (Finland):** The Head Co-ordinator of Immigrant affairs is responsible for co-ordinating services in all the policy sectors of the municipality. The co-ordinator does not have the main spending power in various service sectors.
- **Vienna:** The Municipal Department for Integration and Diversity (MA17) participates in all steering committees and departmental boards of the programmes related to migrant integration that the city implements. M17 has established contracts with relevant municipal departments to monitor the delivery of integration-related services.
- **Montreal:** Since 2016, the Montreal Newcomers’ Integration Office (BINAM) brings together all services and funds allocated to the reception and integration of new immigrants, in order to implement the federal government’s commitment at

the city level to accepting several tens of thousands of Syrian refugees in 2015 and 2016. Receiving USD 945 000 in funding for the year 2016, and with a dozen employees, BINAM enables the municipality of Montreal to develop internal expertise in the reception of immigrants, which it did not have previously. The municipality's objective is to offer an integration pathway through extended guidance focused on immigrants. This requires enough flexibility to tailor interventions to the profiles of the individuals and to the specific characteristics of the area, from a social, economic and cultural perspective. For instance it involves local employers to ensure that immigrants can have access to sustainable jobs (OECD, 2017b).

2. Utilise consultative mechanisms with migrant communities at local level

Municipalities have developed mechanisms to include migrant communities in the formulation, implementation and evaluation of the policies that concern them. These mechanisms collect information on the most pressing issues that impact foreign communities. While recognised as important information platforms, sometimes their effectiveness in formulating proposals and advocating at higher levels of government is contested. However, some important results can be achieved in changing the regulative frameworks that impact migrants' access to certain services.

- **Athens:** in Greece, Migrant Integration Councils are entrusted with a consultative role on issues pertaining to migrant integration in local communities. Specifically, their role is to identify integration problems faced by third country nationals legally residing in the municipalities and submit recommendations and proposals to the municipal councils concerning the development of local actions for the smooth integration of migrants in local societies. The Migrant Integration Council of Athens (MIC) was established in 2011 and convenes at least once a month, bringing together the deputy mayor and six representatives of migrant communities. The MIC has no decision-making power; however, through this consultation, migrant communities effectively advocate for their grievances. For instance, the Philippine community lobbied very strongly to change the criteria to access municipal day care. In the past, both parents were required to have legal permits to benefit from day care but the municipality changed the requirement to one parent with a legal permit.
- **Berlin:** The State Advisory Board on Migration and Integration includes elected representatives of seven migrant organisations and makes recommendations and approves the appointment of the Integration Commissioner of the city of Berlin.

3. Create a standalone unit/ministry or steering group to deal with migration at central level

An inter-ministerial, national entity in charge of integration issues could be set up to form a coherent vision for migrant integration and to limit transaction costs for local authorities when dealing with higher levels of the government (to avoid multiple administrative requests, reduce the entry points for formulating and funding of integration related policies, etc.) . Coherent integration work across national ministries and agencies would strengthen the complementarities among relevant public services (work, health, education, etc.). However, a full-fledged unit or ministry for migration is not, as such, a guarantee for more coherence. More flexible co-ordination mechanisms could be more effective to avoid parallel delivery, ensuring agile communication between all state

agencies involved. For instance, setting up an inter-ministerial taskforce or working groups around specific migration-relevant policies, i.e. anti-discrimination policy, could be effective.

- **Germany:** The Commissioner for Immigration, Refugees and Integration acts as a ministry position within the Federal government. Its role is to advise the government, working across all ministries involved in migration-relevant policies, rather than act as a multi-level co-ordinator. It has the lead on designing the federal integration strategy and co-ordinates and evaluates the National Integration and Action Plan.
- **Greece:** The Ministry for Migration Policy was set up in 2016 incorporating under an autonomous portfolio the units responsible for third country nationals' immigration, reception, identification, asylum and integration issues, which previously belonged to different services of the Ministry of Interior.
- **Spain:** Inter-ministerial Commission on Asylum and Refugees was set up on 29 September 2015. It is an intra-governmental platform of the central government that reunites the ministries with competences in: home and foreign affairs, justice, immigration, reception, asylum seekers, and equality. It consists of the following ministries: Interior; Foreign Affairs and International Cooperation; Employment and Social Security; Health, Social Services and Equality; Education, Culture and Sport; and Defence.
- **France:** an Integration section was created in 2016 within the Interior Ministry. Through a participative process involving competent ministries, non-governmental organisations, sectorial start-ups and experts. This section assessed current refugee integration in France and formulated an Inter-Ministerial National Strategy for refugee Integration 2018-2020. The action plan foresees the establishment of an integration path based on an individualised support and adapted to personal vulnerabilities in the first months after status acquisition. Five sectorial axes and 60 actions are identified in the strategy: access to rights (1), access to housing (2), access to employment, to professional training and language learning (3), access to the health system (4) and access to culture, sports and social ties (5). Each Ministry involved will mobilize and manage the budget to implement the measures which fall within their remit. Results of the actions will be monitored with indicators. There will be three coordination bodies: (i) An inter-ministerial committee at the national level will meet every two months to ensure information-sharing on the implementation of the Action Plan; (ii) Local Steering committees will be run by the Prefects and include associations, deconcentrated services and agencies of the state, local authorities, businesses and NGOs; and (iii) an annual national conference will be held for concertation between public authorities and NGOs on refugee integration policies in France. The Strategic plan will be officially communicated in March 2018, following the parliamentary report drafted by the Member of Parliament Aurélien Taché on foreigners' integration. The implementation of the National Strategy for refugee integration will be led by the new Inter-Ministerial Delegate for refugee reception and integration, who will be designated in January 2018 in order to coordinate inter-ministerial policies on this matter.

4. Adopt a local integration strategy

Some 54% of the respondents indicate that their city has adopted a specific overarching strategy to migrant integration, aiming at co-ordinating the variety of policies. It emerges

from the sample that most of these strategies actually address refugees and asylum seekers and were prepared after the peak of arrivals in 2015.

The ambition of integration strategies can vary significantly. While most serve as political programmes, or communication tools, a few also include an action plan, and/or define concrete actions, indicators and responsibilities. In order to be operational, such action-oriented strategies require budget orientations and dedicated personnel. Their operationalisation could include, for instance, creating a database of the users of different services offered by the municipality.

It is important to involve different services (schools, employment agencies, health units, police, etc.) and non-state actors in the formulation of the integration policy, such as migrant associations, civil society organisations and business. In this regard, 50% of the surveyed cities taking part in the ad-hoc questionnaire ask their citizens and migrants what successful integration looks like. Some 45% of cities consult with NGOs in the formulation of their local strategies. If a national plan exists, the two instruments (national and local) should seek alignment when possible, in particular in terms of indicators.

Such strategies could follow a road-map approach consisting in following migrants' steps at critical junctures in their lives (e.g. change in residency status, family reunification, children schooling, etc.) ensuring that they have access to appropriate services. By following a local strategy based on the road-map approach, sectoral services will be delivered minding the gaps that migrants might face and inconsistencies in policy implementation could be avoided across municipal departments.

This can be facilitated by co-ordination and dialogue mechanisms, shared information systems, sharing of practices and building a sense of shared responsibility for all departments that deal directly with migrants.

Beyond mainstreaming migration-sensitive policies across all relevant municipal departments, a local integration policy must be instrumental to the development objectives set by the city. If informed by local economic needs and data on the characteristics of the migrant population settled in the city, such strategies can identify which enabling factors (i.e. education opportunities aligned with the local labour market, etc.) could allow migrants to fully contribute to the drivers of local development.

While most of the surveyed cities have developed an integration strategy prioritising integration through labour, others plug into the strategy different dimensions of integration, such as: participation and connecting migrants to local life through, for instance, cultural policy and sports (IOM-JMDI, 2015).

Many cities develop multi-sectoral plans – urban inclusive strategies – which include an integration dimension. These are tools to address problems that affect migrant and host communities through cross-sectoral measures such as protecting diversity and security, raising awareness about human rights, anti-discrimination, anti-radicalisation, inclusion and emancipation. Another example is cultural policies. Seven out of ten of the case-study cities say that their city's cultural policy has facilitated the integration of migrants.

- **Berlin** has developed and readjusted its integration concept several times since 2005. In 2010 the most recent Participation and Integration Act was established. This act as a binding power and it must be taken into account by all of the city departments, agencies and other subordinated bodies across sectors when

legislative and administrative actions are taken. Its main aim is to ensure that all people, regardless of their origin, have the same access to all city services.

- The city of **Vienna** has established its own guidelines for integration and diversity politics. Defining its integration policy as a set of measures that provide access to services across departments for the whole population. Following this principle the city's integration department (MA17) prepares reports that measure the integration of its migrant population in comparison to its native-born population. Further, the city evaluates its own institutional departments and services regarding diversity management. Part of this evaluation measures whether departments have included diversity and integration into their own strategy by setting benchmarks and suggested actions.
- **Gothenburg:** An example of programming across public sectors at the municipal level is the programme called ‘‘Safe in Gothenburg’’. Launched in 2016, it targets neighbours facing segregation challenges where the inhabitants had the perception that crime rates had increased and the trust towards public authority was decreasing. The municipality and the local police co-ordinate efforts regarding security issues and violence prevention in these areas. The programme follows a community-based approach. In fact, it builds on (i) inquiries from inhabitants, (ii) input from the police (e.g. indicators on high crime rates in certain areas) and (iii) input from the municipality's social services (e.g. low educational attainment or unemployment rates in different neighbourhoods). Based on a collection of such information, common problems were predefined and addressed in a joint action plan. Several factors are key in implementing such a project. These include facilitation with different groups at community level, human resources dedicated to the project (municipal personnel, social workers and police officers) and specific funding to implement the measures identified.
- **Gothenburg:** Examples of the city's strategy for sustainability are the 30 proposals for ‘‘reducing inequality in living conditions and creating good opportunities in life for everyone’’. The strategy goes beyond integration to address the level of inequalities across different groups particularly in living conditions and health. This cross-sectoral strategy includes policy measures in four focal areas: (i) Give every child a good start in life, (ii) provide children with good conditions throughout their school years, (iii) preparing individual for accessing successfully the job market work and (iv) create sustainable environments and communities that promote health.

5. Set up integration service hubs/one-stop shops

Service hubs/one-stop shops can help migrants find their way through the myriad administrative offices and services. They can also support coherent public action at the local level insofar as they are effectively connected to the administrative ‘‘machine’’ and are able to ensure follow-up of the request across municipal services (see ‘‘Objective 4. Design integration policies that take time into account throughout migrants' lifetimes and evolution of residency status’’).

6. Communicate the local vision around how to integrate people with a migrant background

Strong communication campaigns could contribute to fighting prejudice, showing win-win results and bringing together the host community with newcomers and long-standing migrant communities. Clear communication in this area also benefits public servants who

engage with migrant communities, and has an impact in closing the policy gaps. Here are some examples of communication at local and national level:

- **Amsterdam:** The municipality established four communication points in town where citizens could ask for information on the criteria used to allocate social housing to refugees. The municipality decided to prioritise refugees for public housing, enabling them to skip a waiting list of, on average, 8.7 years.
- **Barcelona:** The city trained municipality staff and members of civil society in techniques to deter rumours on the negative effects of migrants' presence in the city (Anti-Rumour Policy). The module provides evidence to counter the most common stereotypes against migrants and the people trained become trainers themselves and can intervene in everyday life when these discussions arise. A network of 400 organisations has been trained and in turn organises training sessions on these topics.
- **Berlin:** Since the fall of the Wall in 1989, the municipality has built its image as a welcoming city and advertises its diversity as a point of attractiveness for tourists and for skilled migrants from all over the world. Recently the city developed a campaign to encourage foreign citizens (citizens-to-be) to undertake the necessary administrative steps to naturalise as German citizens.
- **Altena:** Local political authorities made a public commitment that migrant integration is a key priority and an opportunity for the city's economic and societal development. In 2016, city hall repeatedly encouraged all citizens to help integrate newcomers. Communication tools included speeches in local institutions (e.g. local kindergartens) as well as interviews in the local and national press. All public servants, including the mayor, are easily approachable by every citizen through phone calls or individual meetings to discuss issues related to migrants.
- **Paris:** The city has developed a campaign for "Must-Go" zones in reaction to press describing some peripheral areas as "Don't-Go" zones.
- **Canada:** The Immigration, Refugees and Citizenship Ministry⁵ regularly gathers and communicates evidence of immigrants' active contribution to Canada's economy and society. As an example in February 2018 a report⁶ requested by the Ministry found that 36% of children of immigrants held university degrees compared to 24% of their peers with Canadian-born parents.

Objective 3. Ensure access to, and effective use of, financial resources that are adapted to local responsibilities for migrant integration

Observations: Why it is important and what to avoid

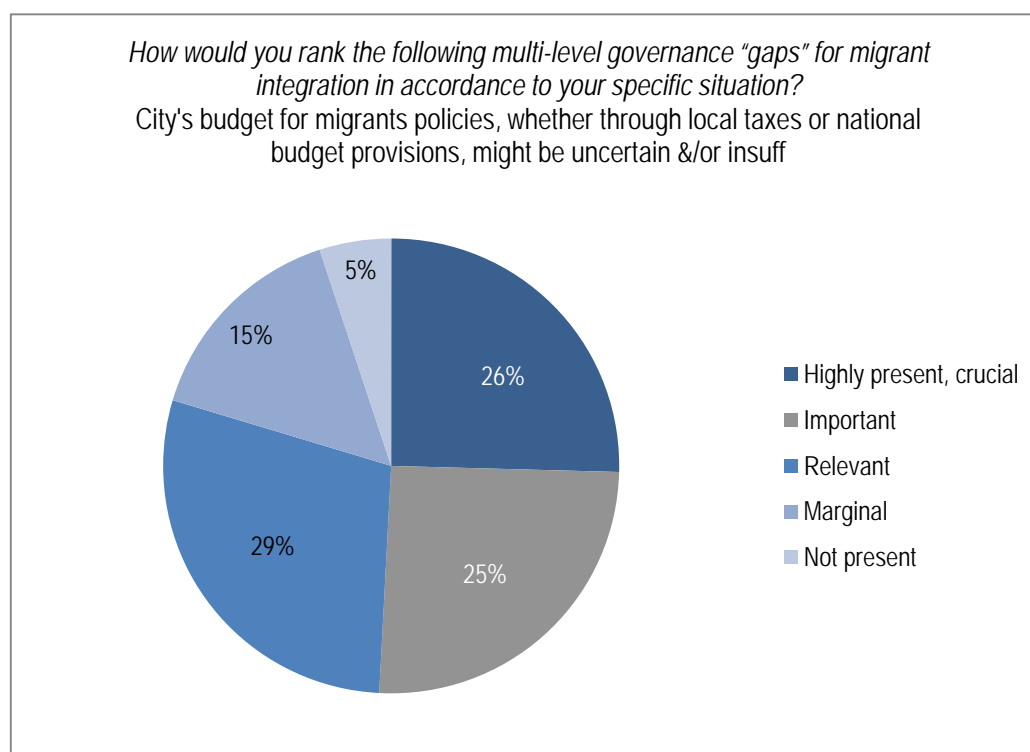
In general the "costs" of integration have to be covered up-front, at local level, by authorities providing local public services. Municipalities may recover costs when migrants become self-reliant and able to contribute to the local economy, in particular through taxes (OECD, 2016a). Particularly in times of increased influx of migrants, city services might be overburdened and require more financing than the ones allocated for the ongoing budget cycle. This calls for flexible mechanisms and possibly an emergency fund available to increase the resilience of local authorities. Potential mismatches between spending at local level on one side and local taxes and national grants on the other would need to be further assessed.

Although there is not an ideal level of available funding for integration policy at the local level, the survey's findings show that funding can work as strong leverage for

co-ordination in this area. Multi-year and flexible funds for integration purposes available at the local level can increase co-ordination across levels (i.e. regional, national, supranational) with the ultimate goal of aligning integration objectives. More autonomy in financing integration at the local level will imply defining integration objectives beforehand that are in line with national strategies, while being adapted to local realities, and designing mechanisms for assessing the performance and impact.

Some 80% of the cities in the sample of 72 cities estimated that the funding gap is “highly present”, “important” or “relevant” with regards to integration policies. The gap is expressed as the “city’s budget for migrant policies, whether through local taxes or national budget provisions, might be uncertain and/or insufficient”. To the question “which competence would you like to reallocate at city level with regard to migrant integration?” most of the time cities mentioned they would like to directly manage the budget for integration activities.

Figure 3.5. Ranking funding gap



Note: Multi-level governance gaps stem from asymmetries that arise across levels of government and public actors at all levels as one level depends on the other for information, skills, resources, or competences (Charbit and Michalun, 2009^[2]). The funding gap is defined as, unstable or insufficient revenues undermining effective implementation of (i) integration policies at the subnational level, (ii) cross-sectoral policies, and (iii) instruments requested.

Source: Authors’ elaboration, based on Case-Studies and ad hoc questionnaire.

Funding capacities for integration policy at the subnational level depend on the one hand on the level of the responsibilities and associated budget of the local level for integration-related policies (education, health, housing, etc.). On the other hand, they depend on the level of national transfers (with more or less strings attached to grants), supranational funding or local revenues that municipalities collect. The combination of these sources

will define the liberty in designing place-based integration policies and the stability of the funding with implications for third-party implementers operating in this field (NGOs, third sector organisations, etc.). Adequate and long-term resources from national or supranational levels are crucial, especially for those cities that cannot count on significant local revenues. In the case of cities that are also *Länder* or Department or Province (meaning intermediary level between municipal and regional ones), they are often responsible for more social migration-related policy areas (and funding) and can maximise the complementarities across them. Previous OECD work observed that many transfers from central government to subnational governments explicitly include the number of immigrants and refugees living in a jurisdiction in the allocation formula. Other systems, especially in federal countries, rely on local tax-raising capacities (OECD, 2017b).

This study observed funding overlaps, i.e. when similar integration activities are funded on a same territory by different levels of government, targeting the same group without strategic co-ordination. For instance, in several cities, local authorities recognised that they were not aware of the entire offer of language courses available to newcomers provided by different public/private providers through national and supranational sources of funding.

The present study did not focus on calculating the costs of integration at local level; instead, it analyses available funding and their management across levels. Estimating integration costs at local level would have to take into account different strands of expenditures (Committee of the Regions, 2012): percentage of universal services (delegated by the national authorities) delivered to migrants, the cost of additional migration-sensitive measures undertaken at local level for mainstreaming universal services, and the cost of local measures that specifically target migrant groups (e.g. language classes in kindergartens for migrant children, etc.).

Interaction with non-state actors, including private citizens, charities and foundations is critical for strengthening cities' capacities to integrate newcomers. Business sector investments can advance the impact, effectiveness and scale of integration activities at local level. Although there is great potential, from the evidence gathered, the institutionalised business sector rarely contributes to municipal integration activities. It happens more on an occasional basis: specific projects directly financing schools or grassroots initiatives outside formal collaboration with local authorities.

Other sources of funding that local authorities can seek for integration policies are supranational funding, in particular EU funds for European countries. Most EU funds prioritise social inclusion among their objectives and therefore can be instrumental also for migration-related activities. However, only 35% of respondent cities estimated that the European Union increased the level of funding for integration available at local level. Almost 40% of the surveyed cities do not think that European funding provides incentives for co-ordination with higher levels of government and with NGOs. These findings confirm what previous work (Benton, 2017) had highlighted: with the exception of Erasmus+ and a percentage of the European Regional Development Fund (ERDF)⁷ (Urban Innovative Actions), EU funds often don't directly target migration-related activities at municipal level.

Box 3.1. The European Structural and Investment Funds (ESIF) and the Asylum Migration and Integration Fund (AMIF)

Several EU funding streams – such as the Asylum Migration and Integration Fund (AMIF), the European Social Fund (ESF) and the European Regional Development Fund (ERDF) either directly target migrants, or indirectly support their integration through social inclusion, education, labour market-related investments and other infrastructure investments. Generally these funds are distributed to national authorities of member states. For instance, ESF regulation specifically targets migrants as one of the groups eligible for support. Under ESF, investment prioritises active inclusion or marginalised communities; some of the eligible activities include training for asylum seekers (e.g. language classes or family counselling), support for anti-discrimination campaigns, and administrative capacity building for public administrations and NGOs that help migrants, etc. (European Parliament, 2016). The AMIF is the only funding instrument targeting specifically third-country nationals. This instrument could be used for emergency actions as well as for funding long-term integration projects, awareness raising activities, language courses, training, etc.

In September 2015, Commissioner Cretu, from the Directorate-General for Regional and Urban Policy, encouraged Member States (MS) to re-programme funding under their ERDF operational programmes to address the needs and the integration of migrants. The MS, (EESC, 2015) argued that EU funding, including the ESF, should be adjusted according to the extent to which they must shoulder the responsibility and cost of integrating refugees. Also the CEMR (2015) and the Committee of the Regions regretted in their opinion in December 2015 that no specific resources were set aside to properly address the challenges at local and regional levels. These pushes call for including the integration of migrants among the targets of cohesion funds. According to the initial EU spending plans for the next budgetary period (2021-27) the integration of migrants will be taken into account when distributing development support. This would require a territorial integration methodology including: baseline analysis of characteristics and needs of migrant population, assessment of the division of power for the relevant policy sectors that would trigger integration at local level, setting priorities; implementing incentives for multi-level governance approaches and priority selections and developing mechanisms to monitor the performance.

Source: Author elaboration.

Box 3.2. An example of ERDF re-programming to address refugee needs: Brussels-Capital Region

In 2014 Brussels-Capital Region issues a call for proposal for projects funded through the ERDF (European Regional Development Fund). Médecins du Monde (MDM) an NGO specialised in health services, submitted a proposal to strengthen access to health for all vulnerable groups by setting up integrated health centres in the city. At that time, the proposal wasn't selected. In 2015, in light of the increased need (Brussels has been a key transit point for migrants) and in response to the DG Regio's appeal to all managing authorities to reorient ERDF funds to actions related to migrant and refugee integration, the Brussels-Capital Government decided to modify

in September 2015 the 2014-2020 ERDF Operational Programme.

Through this modification, MDM received a EUR 7.4 million grant to develop a health offer for migrants and refugees. Médecins du Monde transformed its original project proposal into one oriented towards newcomers and their specific health needs including psychological needs. The health offer funded through the grant includes a mobile outreach team that goes where newcomers gather in the city to respond to their most immediate health problems. It also includes the health services in two new integrated welcome centres expressly opened for migrants but accessible also to all the other groups. In these centres, migrants will find support for addressing specific health problems as well as guidance to solve their administrative situation. This timely grant was possible thanks to the prompt analysis of the local needs by the managing authority of the Brussels capital region and the support of the European Commission in amending the operating programme.

Source: Authors' elaboration from the information provided by the Brussels-Capital Region.

Box 3.3. Toolkit on the use of EU funds for the integration of people with a migrant background (2018)

The European Commission is continuing to look at practical ways to assist Member States when it comes to further integrating people with a migrant background. In this respect, Member States have several EU funds at their disposal.

Based on the operational lessons learnt in the past few years, the European Commission has published a “Toolkit on the use of EU funds for the integration of people with a migrant background”. It aims to support national and regional funding authorities in reinforcing synergies between EU funds under shared management when implementing integration policies via those initiatives that place the needs of the end beneficiaries at the centre of the support.

To reinforce the efficiency of EU funds, the toolkit identifies a number of steps to be followed, including the alignment of EU funds with evidenced-based national/local strategic policy frameworks. The toolkit also identifies specific areas of intervention pertaining to employment, education, housing, reception and access to basic mainstream public services. The measures designed by the funding authorities, for instance in the programmes and calls for proposals, aiming at integrating people with a migrant background should take into account the following principles: non-discrimination, gender equality, individualising the response to needs, empowerment, integrated approach, long-term perspective, and contingency measures.

Source: EU Commission, Directorate General for Regional and Urban Policy.

Which tools could work and what could be done better

1. Conduct local assessments of the costs of services and integration-related activities

Conducting expenditure assessments to combine with improved data on the presence and characteristics of migrant populations would help cities have a clear dashboard of the areas of spending and estimate future needs at municipal level. On this basis, appropriate sources of funding could then be identified.

2. Work more directly with key working groups/authorities managing funding (including EU funds) at central/federal/regional and local levels of government in order to receive contributions for cities' integration strategies

These working groups are instrumental to consider potential complementarities and overlap among investments across areas touching on integration, social inclusion and the economy. Co-funding mechanisms would incentivise co-ordination. These working groups/authorities would be well placed to design bundled, un-earmarked and multi-year funding that municipalities can use for multiple social purposes, including for migration-related programmes.

- In west **Sweden**, the EU funds belong to the “Structural Fund Partnership” (SFP), which has its secretariat in the Västra Götaland region. The SFP decides on funding and co-ordinates calls for proposals based on specific regional needs or intentions. This key actor is composed of members from Västra Götaland as well as neighbouring Halland, the county government, the municipalities, labour market stakeholders, universities, the employment agency and civil society actors.
- **Paris**: The State (Ministry of Interior) and the Ville de Paris co-financed the Centre Humanitaire Paris-Nord (La Bulle) at Porte de la Chapelle, where newcomers are hosted for ten days (in principle) while filing their applications as asylum seekers. It is managed by the NGO EMMAÛS Solidarité but also involves other initiatives and NGOs providing public services.
- **Brno** (Czech Republic): The position of Migrant and Refugee Advisor was created in 2016. The advisor is responsible for designing projects according to the city plan of social inclusion and getting funding for them, mainly from the European Social Fund (ESF) and national funds.

3. Encourage supranational and national levels of government to set enabling conditions for subnational governments to exploit their fundraising potential

Initiatives of this type would help finance long-term integration strategies, i.e. by participating in co-financing arrangements with EU funds, by mobilising private sector investments, foundations, etc. Many of the cities participating in the study pleaded for financing mechanisms through which cities could directly access ERDF, ESF and AMIF, and potentially other blended funds, to implement activities and investments related to migrant and refugee inclusion at local level, considering also that managing authorities sometimes don't have the capacity to absorb all the funding allocated within the spending cycle (UNHCR and ECRE, 2018).

- The Partnership on the inclusion of migrants and refugees under the **Urban Agenda for the European Union**⁸ provides cities with the opportunity to contribute to the EU integration agenda. The focus of the partnership is to

improve access to European funding, improve EU-regulations and promote knowledge exchange. One of the eight actions that the partnership developed as part of its Action Plan, is exploring possibilities to create financing facilities through which AMIF, ESF and potentially other EU funds could be blended with European Investment Bank (EIB) loans and thus made directly available to cities and financial intermediaries to implement investments in specified areas concerning migrant and refugee inclusion

- A proposal has been submitted to EU institutions (Platform, 2017) that asks for more funding for those localities that welcome refugees. The funds should cover the costs related to integration as well as increasing investments in the local infrastructure targeting all vulnerable groups.
- The city of **Vienna** will receive funding from the European Union under the aegis of the Urban Innovative Action Programme (ERDF) for supplementary infrastructure and strategies for integrating and empowering refugees.
- **Netherlands:** As a result of the Participation Law (Participatiewet) adopted in 2015 municipalities now receive bundled funding (BUIG) for multiple social welfare regulations. Surpluses can be allocated elsewhere, while shortages have to be supplemented by the municipality itself. In Amsterdam, this provided an incentive to reintegrate people as soon as possible, exceeding the target to drive 4 200 persons out of the benefit scheme and managing to achieve 6 000 persons in 2015.

4. Put co-financing schemes in place, not only across levels of government, but also between partner municipalities

This type of scheme would help to ensure commitment to a shared project and pool resources with neighbours.

- In the **Gothenburg** region, a coalition of 13 municipalities shares resources to increase the availability and quality of public services for refugees. In particular they have shared the provision of services targeting refugees in the area of housing, education, skills validation, etc.
- In the small municipality of **Altena**, sharing tasks with neighbouring municipalities has proven effective. For instance, the adult education centre in Lennetal, which provides language and vocational courses, is partly funded by the municipalities of Altena, Neuenrade, Plettenberg, Werdohl and Nachrodt.

5. Use funding from the non-state sector more strategically at local level, exchanging information on needs and innovative solutions

Municipalities are in an ideal position to create partnerships with different local donors (e.g. private sector, foundations, etc.) based on a shared understanding of integration as an opportunity for all in the community (EUROCITIES, 2009). In this sense, crowdfunding for local public goods can be effective (Charbit and Desmoulins, 2017). For instance, local authorities could use private sector investments to pilot initiatives that can have a leverage effect, attracting more long-term public and private investments. Such initiatives should be closely monitored to assess their impact and whether they can be applied in a different setting.

- **Amsterdam:** An agreement with 40 big private companies was implemented to support refugee access to the labour market (Refugee Talent Hub).⁹

- **Athens:** The Athens Partnership (AP) was launched in 2015 – with lead support from the Stavros Niarchos Foundation – to facilitate innovative public programmes in Athens, including the municipality, private sector partners and global philanthropic leaders. Among other initiatives, AP manages the implementation of the Migrant and Refugee Coordination Centre & Observatory (MRCC&O). This is a coordination mechanism that brings together the City of Athens and key stakeholders active in the provision of services to migrants and refugees (international and national NGOs, migrant and refugee fora and the private sector).
- **Paris:** Launched by a non-profit organisation aiming to empower refugees in France named “Singa”, this online homestay network for refugees raised EUR 16 175 in November 2015 on the civic crowdfunding platform Co-city. People were able to either donate or host refugees. The non-profit organisation received around 10 000 responses from people willing to host refugees. Due to the humanitarian emergency, the platform also received additional private and public funding to manage this project.
- Further, the municipality of **Paris** started an innovative partnership with the non-profit civic crowdfunding platform Co-city (the same supporting SINGA fundraising efforts described above) in September 2016 within the framework of the Participatory Budget of Paris. This experimental partnership aims at increasing the capacities of residents from working class neighbourhoods to get their projects financed through the participatory budget vote campaign. These projects will aim at reducing territorial inequalities in neighbourhoods often characterised by the presence of large migrant communities. In 2017 one of the projects voted through the Participatory budget (19 000 votes) will allocate EUR 500 000 to combat the exclusion of migrants and vulnerable people.¹⁰

Examples of **business sector initiatives** that aim to support refugees include:

- Open Homes, a partnership launched in June 2017 between Airbnb and the IRC (International Rescue Committee), to offer short-term stays to people in need: refugees, evacuees, and others in times of need, for free.¹¹
- In January 2017, MasterCard and the Open Society Foundation announced a plan to create a social enterprise to accelerate economic and social development for vulnerable communities around the world, especially refugees and migrants.¹²

6. Explore possibilities with international financial institutions (IFIs), which have more and more expertise in layering financing at local level

This funding source is particularly crucial for integration-related investments that cities might not have the capacity to undertake

Block 1 Addendum. Shifts in the governance and funding of the policies for refugees and asylum seekers

The peak in arrivals of refugee and asylum seekers since 2015 had multiple repercussions in terms of multi-level governance of the policies relevant to address the needs of this group, in all the countries assessed through the case studies. This section screens reception and integration measures for these groups through the three dimensions of multi-level governance analysed above: multi-level co-ordination, policy coherence and funding mechanisms.

The magnitude of the 2015 arrivals and responses tested cities' resilience. Refugee-targeted approaches have been adopted throughout the cities responding to the survey, in order to address the arrival of this large group with similar needs and for whom protection is guaranteed by their status. It is important to emphasise that this approach is in contrast to migrant integration measures that are based on individual needs, which have been implemented in the majority of cities analysed. The target group based approach is intended in the majority of the cases as a bridge to a situation where refugees can achieve economic, social and political integration without relying on parallel services.

Reception and integration strategies implemented since 2015 have created new ways to cope with needs of vulnerable groups. It is important to assess the impact of the new actions undertaken and to use these lessons to shape future policies for social cohesion that cities may implement in favour of different vulnerable groups beyond refugee. The goal is to find ways to remove obstacles to access to universal services and thus ensure more equal societies. This report attempts to explore this question based on ongoing OECD work (OECD, forthcoming c).

Trends in multi-level co-ordination of policies for asylum seekers and refugees

Strategic use of targeted policies: The research observed, across all levels of government, that specific policies have been formulated to address the needs of refugees and asylum seekers (e.g. housing, early capacity assessment, job coaching, administrative counselling, etc.), which stands in contrast to a trend favouring integration via universal policies.

Shift in competences across levels of government: Central governments took the decision to rebalance territorial competences with regard to integration and reception of these groups. This represents a disruption due to the peak in arrivals. In some cases this implied centralising powers; in other cases, decentralising them. For instance, Sweden issued the Reception for Settlement Act on 1 March 2016, centralising the power to decide how many recognised refugees (as well as resettled refugees) will be assigned to a municipality, which then has the obligation to receive and organise accommodation for them (for four years). This decision was taken to spread hosting responsibilities across the country more evenly. At the same time, the central level devolved competency for housing to the municipal level. Equally, in the Netherlands the responsibility for refugee housing has been devolved to the local level (see "Objective 10. Secure access to adequate housing").

Dispersal policies as a multi-level governance mechanism: Dispersal mechanisms for asylum seekers and – more rarely refugees – define a distribution method at national level for assigning persons in need of protection across the territory. Reception and integration facilities are made available at the local level to host the persons assigned. Multi-level co-ordination is needed at both stages: when the decision is made as to where refugees/asylum seekers will reside and then the organisation and preparation of facilities. Municipalities are either involved or asked to implement policies without being consulted. Non state actors play a key role in the implementation of these mechanisms in all the city analysed.

In general, most of the countries analysed already had dispersal mechanisms in place before 2015. In many cases they have been updated to face increased numbers. Three categories of dispersal mechanisms for asylum seekers and refugees can be distinguished across the sample, based on the distribution criteria that they adopted: 1) policies that apply a proportionality criteria for distribution (based on local gross domestic product [GDPs], population, presence of previous applications, etc.), 2) policies that distribute

asylum seekers according to availability of places in the reception centres, 3) more complex dispersal mechanisms, introduced to match newcomers (in this case, recognised refugees) with the labour needs of the location where they will be hosted. So far, the Netherlands and Sweden have applied these mechanisms matching characteristics of the territories with the characteristics of individuals (selected examples of dispersal policies are explained in Box 3.4). Further analysis is needed to estimate the impact in terms of newcomers' employability in the local market, thus avoiding second movements. Also, as previous OECD work has observed, employment-related dispersal may entail upfront costs, particularly if new housing needs to be provided in designated areas (OECD, 2016b). A further distinction is made between first and second reception mechanisms (see "Objective 10. Secure access to adequate housing"), the first referring to the allocation and reception of asylum seekers during the time their asylum claim is being assessed, and the second to the allocation and reception of recognised refugees.

One example of multi-level co-ordination of asylum seekers and refugees dispersal is the Protection System for Asylum and Refugees (SPRAR) system adopted in 2002 in **Italy**. This integrated dispersal and reception model goes beyond providing emergency assistance, and is aimed at achieving socio-economic integration. It consists of a network of local authorities, civil society organisations (CSOs), third sector entities and associations that design and run integrated reception projects at local level. The local level gathers the projects that the different actors propose and, after assessment, submits the selected ones to the national level, establishing the number of asylum seekers and refugees that the city can receive. The Ministry of the Interior allocates a quota of newcomers to the candidate city and provides funding accordingly. The system has buckled under the weight of the rise in arrivals and most of the newcomers are received through the emergency reception centres (CAS) that are directly set up and managed by the central government through prefectures (deconcentrated services of the central government).

Reception-related Multi-level dialogue mechanisms: In some cases the peak in refugee and asylum seekers arrivals created opportunities to improve multi-level dialogue. In the **Netherlands** a specific taskforce – known as the joint Refugee Work and Integration Task Force (RWITF) - was established to co-ordinate major stakeholders and define the responsibilities in refugee and asylum seekers reception and integration. The parties regularly cooperating, under this umbrella taskforce, include all relevant ministries and agencies, the association of municipalities (VNG), the G4 coalition of four large cities (Amsterdam, The Hague, Rotterdam and Utrecht) as well as social partners and key NGOs. The work of the RWITF supports the website¹⁴ that provides information about legislation, policy, support options, and best practices. The target audience of the website are employers, educational institutions, and social organisations. In **Paris**, the municipality has set up a multi-stakeholder steering committee (Comité de Pilotage Porte de la Chapelle) involving NGOs like EMMAÛS Solidarité, national agencies responsible for asylum (Office Français de l'Immigration et de l'Intégration [OFII], etc.) and the Prefecture (representing the state) to co-ordinate all actions needed to enrol applicants who arrive in Paris in the national asylum system. Between autumn 2016 and March 2018 newcomers were hosted for ten days (in principle) in a temporary reception hub co-funded by the city and the Ministry of Interior. In Portugal a multi-institutional working group was created in 2015, consisting of different ministries (Foreign Affairs, Immigration and Borders Service, Social Security, Employment, Health, Education) as well as municipalities and NGOs aiming at harmonizing actions and strategies undertaken by different actors with regard to refugees' reception and integration.

Box 3.4. Impact of dispersal policies on integration perspectives for asylum seekers and refugees

There is considerable debate in the literature about how dispersal mechanisms impact the integration outcomes of refugees. For the most part, evidence does not include arrivals since 2015, although a few studies that draw on more recent data have been published recently. In general, the literature finds mixed evidence on the impact of dispersal mechanisms. While some scholars emphasise the positive potential of dispersal in terms of avoiding residential segregation of newcomers in cities (Andersson et al., 2010 and European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions, 2007), others point to the negative effect of fragmentation on their earnings as a consequence of creating distance from newcomers' ethnic networks (Damm, 2009) and from attractive labour markets (Zimmermann, 2016). Beside labour market integration, dispersion seems to have negative effects also on mental health (Bakker et al., 2016) and education quality, as children in less ethnically diverse schools outside major urban centres might face more racism and discrimination (Bloch and Hirsch, 2017). Evidence also points to the need for an integrated approach, in order to favour the long-term stay of newcomers in the city where they have been assigned. It is important to integrate all family and not just the parent(s) who might be working; in this respect, providing education for migrants' children and jobs for their spouses is crucial (Harbo et al., 2017).

This mixed evidence suggests that the integration of individuals who arrived in a place as the result of dispersal mechanisms might be more complex as compared to the ones who arrived spontaneously. This reinforces the starting point of this report: there is no single 'golden rule' for effective integration, and dispersal mechanisms are not the 'perfect solution' to avoid concentration of newcomers in urban areas and lower well-being outcomes. Future studies should examine in greater depth the push and pull factors that engender continuous migration within the EU. This includes, for example, migrants who settle in more remote or smaller communities and then move to metropolitan areas because their needs are not being met in the smaller communities. Indeed, they may be seeking support from urban communities with the same ethno-cultural background.

One hypothesis is that localities willing to attract migrants, as an opportunity for their development, may influence their decision to stay through placed-based policies for integration. In this sense, local policies can better prepare the ground for receiving newcomers and make integration more effective, including in smaller sized municipalities and rural places. This will imply, for instance, preparing housing solutions, matching information about newcomers' profiles and job market needs, as well as other measures analysed in the checklist.

Source: Piccinni, A. and P. Proietti (forthcoming), OECD Working Paper: "Multi-level governance of humanitarian migrants dispersal: from reception mechanisms to local integration policies".

Box 3.5. Selected examples of policies for dispersing asylum seekers and refugees across national territories

In **Austria**, the federal government and the regional governments share the responsibility to distribute asylum seekers across the regions. A specific type of legally binding agreement between the federal government and the regional governments is in place in all areas of shared responsibility. Asylum seekers are distributed across all federal regions according to the size of the population in the region (Source: Ministry of Interior [Bundesminister für Inneres]).

In **Germany**, asylum-seekers are received in the closest reception facility of the Federal Land in which they arrive. Such a facility may be responsible for temporary as well as longer-term accommodation. Allocation to a specific reception facility is based on current capacities. It also makes a difference in which branch of the Federal Office or in which arrival centre the asylum-seeker is processed, as well as the the respective country of origin.

Depending on the country of origin, asylum-seekers can be accommodated in reception facilities for up to six months, or until a decision is taken on the application. The distribution takes place according to quotas using the so-called “Königstein Key”. The Königstein Key is based on current tax revenues (weighted 2/3) and the number of inhabitants (weighted 1/3) in each *Länder*. The distribution quota is calculated on an annual basis by the Federation-*Länder* Commission and determines which share of asylum-seekers is received by each Federal Land. As for costs, *Länder* are in general obliged to fully cover costs for basic sustenance of asylum seekers. However, due to acute financial pressure from the increasing volume of asylum seekers, the federal government agreed to provide block grants for accommodation and social benefits for the period 2016-2018.

Then, within some *Länder*, there is also a second, regulated dispersal, across municipalities. In this case, dispersal is based on municipalities’ population and area and costs are both paid by the *Länder* and the municipality (implementation of the national rule vis-à-vis the *Länder*).

The management of the hosting in Germany is mostly outsourced, locally, to NGOs, welfare organisations and private actors. Until 2015 the private component was substantial, yet a debate about privatisation begun; as a result, public tendering schemes started being more transparent and in some *Länder* (e.g. Berlin) it was decided to establish a state-owned company to complement the private component of receiving asylum seekers.

In 2016 the new integration law (“Integrationsgesetz”) came into effect. It includes a condition of fixed residence (“Wohnsitzauflage”) obliging persons with recognised protection status to stay in the Land in which they have applied for asylum for three years. Within the *Länder*, dispersal is again regulated by the *Länder* government and can include the requirement to reside in a particular municipality. Exempt are people who have found a job that makes social security contributions or who are in vocational training in another place. Further, hardship cases (e.g. family reunification) can lead to an exemption.

In the **Netherlands**, people requesting asylum apply at the Immigration and Naturalisation Service (IND) Application Centre. The Central Agency for the

Reception of Asylum Seekers (COA) then receives them at the central reception location in Ter Apel (Province of Groningen) for registration and identity control. The Municipal Health Services carry out the mandatory tuberculosis (TB) screening. After these inspections, asylum seekers have at least six days to rest and prepare for the request for asylum. After the TB screening the asylum seekers move to one of the process reception locations where they continue the preparations for their request for asylum. These process reception locations are always close to the Immigration and Naturalisation Service's Application Centres, where the asylum seekers filed their requests for asylum. The first part of the asylum procedure is the General Asylum Procedure. At the end of this procedure the Immigration and Naturalisation Service informs asylum seekers whether their request has been granted or refused, or whether a further investigation is necessary. If their request has been accepted, asylum seekers move from the process reception location to an asylum seekers' centre, where the next phase of the asylum procedure begins. If the asylum seeker has been granted a protection status and a residence permit, COA links the status holder to a municipality near the asylum seekers' centre. Every six months, the central government decides how many asylum residence permit holders each municipality must house. Larger municipalities have to take in more asylum residence permit holders than smaller ones (Government of the Netherlands). The former asylum seekers stay at the asylum seekers' centre until they can move into their self-contained home. If the Immigration and Naturalisation Service needs more time to decide on the request for asylum, asylum seekers begin the Extended Asylum Procedure and stay at the asylum seekers' centre until the procedure is completed. Finally, if the asylum seekers have been refused a residence permit, they may stay at the asylum seekers' centre for a maximum of four weeks. They can use this time to prepare for their departure from the Netherlands (Source: COA).

Source: Proietti P. and P. Veneri (forthcoming), "Localisation of asylum seekers at subnational level", OECD Working Paper, OECD Publishing, Paris.

Policy coherence in addressing asylum seekers and refugee reception and integration

City reception strategies and communication plans: In parallel, or sometimes in the absence of, national reception and integration strategies, some cities developed or updated their own response to refugee arrivals. These mechanisms seek cross-sectoral co-operation and often involve civil society organisations in charge of organising accommodation and early integration activities. As mentioned, responses to refugee arrivals represent a shift, at all levels of government, from universal approaches to targeted ones. Often cities based these specific responses on the lessons learnt from the past. Acknowledging the long time that refugees take before integrating the job market, cities started to provide integration measures (e.g. language courses, skills assessment, etc.) as early as possible. The mechanisms will be described in detail in Objective 4. Design integration policies that take time into account throughout migrants' lifetimes and evolution of residency status. This shift towards early tailored policies for refugees, recognising their specific needs in terms of labour and social integration, has to be monitored and closely evaluated. The results of such an evaluation will influence the future approaches to integration at local level and estimate the sustainability of including

migrants and non-migrant groups with similar needs in the specific measures for integration of refugees.

One example of a municipal reception and integration strategy is the Paris [18-point plan](#) launched for reception in October 2015 (“Plan de mobilisation de la communauté de Paris pour l’accueil des réfugiés”) and the Paris Strategy for refugee reception and integration drafted in November 2017. Both initiatives were launched by the deputy mayor in charge of solidarity, fight against exclusion, refugee reception and child protection. Co-ordination for these strategies was sought internally and externally. Several departments of the city are represented in the platform (health, education, labour, culture, etc.) that monitors the 18-point plan under the co-ordination of the deputy mayor. Civil society organisations have been consulted during bi-annual meetings during the implementation of the 18-point plan and are currently involved in the formulation of the integration strategy. The integrated strategy focuses on four aspects including language and labour inclusion as well as social, cultural and inclusion through sports activity. Civil society organisations expressed the wish to make co-ordination more effective also at the implementation level, avoiding separate calls for proposals from different municipal departments. They also wish to set up thematic platforms to co-ordinate actors operating in favour of asylum seekers and refugees. Despite the efforts, reception mechanisms remain insufficient in Paris, which is confronted with very high numbers of asylum seekers, or persons that have been rejected asylum in other EU countries and who struggle to find space in the reception centres.

Specific units or teams have been set up at municipal level to co-ordinate the arrival of refugee and asylum seekers. Across almost all case studies, a specific entity has been put in place within the municipal administration to respond to the increased needs of receiving and integrating asylum seekers and refugees. In some cases, it is a political appointment (e.g. Deputy Mayor for Asylum Seekers and Refugees Co-ordination in **Athens**); in other cases, a team has been assigned tasks related to this group. An interesting case is the “chain” management model adopted to implement the “**Amsterdam approach**” (see “Objective 4. Design integration policies that take time into account throughout migrants’ lifetimes and evolution of residency status”), which capitalises on the experiences in dealing with migrants of all relevant city departments, designing a project-management model where all sectors are represented.

Box 3.6. Multi-disciplinary Steering Committee in Sarcelles, France

In 2014, the municipality of Sarcelles (60 000 inhabitants), a city in the northern suburbs of Paris (Ile-de-France), characterised for receiving successive migration and refugee inflows since the 1960s, proactively offered to welcome Christians fleeing the violence in the areas of Mosul and Nineveh in Iraq when the French government decided to offer asylum to vulnerable minorities from this area. The national mechanism immediately granted refugee status to applicants in the Erbil consulate who could prove they had a host family in France. Given the large presence of the Chaldean Communities in Sarcelles 50 Iraqi families were offered refuge in the city. The mayor co-ordinated the process with host families, which was organised through local Assyro-Chaldean associations. The church liaised with national authorities to facilitate the reception of this group. The municipality set up a *Comité de Pilotage* – Steering Committee – to streamline the bureaucratic procedures of the 50 families. The Committee (multi-level and multi-stakeholder) met weekly and prioritised the

files of these 50 families in their respective services, which included the *Département* welfare allocation and social protection services, the national Foreigners (OFII) agency, the Chaldean associations and church, the social housing company OSICA, NGO France Terre d'Asile and relevant municipal departments (social services, housing, education, etc.).

The platform proved successful in co-ordinating the variety of actors involved in refugee settlement and integration by addressing simultaneously the multi-dimensional needs of this specific group on a case-by-case basis, starting with housing and access to social rights. In particular, the municipality made an agreement with the housing association to assign 50 housing units for this group from the city social housing stock. Further, the municipality hired a member of the Chaldean community to liaise daily between the families and the steering committee facilitating the transition and accompanying newcomers to the relevant services. The mayor communicated clearly to his citizens that the municipality was going to adopt a 'positive discrimination' policy to help this specific community settle into the city. The message was received well by the citizens, despite the city's low socio-economic outcomes and the long social housing waiting list. The sustainability of such 'positive discrimination' mechanisms, in the French context of universal access to public services for vulnerable populations, relies on a strong political will at local and national level.

Funding for the reception and integration of asylum seekers and refugees

The reception and integration mechanisms for these groups have been accompanied in most cases by resources transferred to municipal level (by national or regional levels), either directly in relation to the number of asylum seekers and refugees received in the city, or to cover the costs of the competences that had been devolved.

Cities participating in the ad-hoc-questionnaire were asked if the influx of migrants in the past two years had led to additional public spending at local level. Results are limited due a low response rate for this question (57%) and difficulties in differentiating between costs for migrants, refugees and asylum seekers. The results indicate that: 57% of the cities experienced a small increase (0 to 5%) in public spending while 21% experienced a strong increase (over 30%). The expenditures that increased the most were in the areas of staff costs and social welfare as well as accommodation for asylum seekers and refugees. From the evidence collected, the municipalities often estimated that the contributions were insufficient.

Previous OECD work estimates that sub-national governments (SNGs) bear between 35% and 45% of refugee-related spending. However, there are large disparities across countries depending on their level of decentralisation and the organisation and history of humanitarian migration. In general, national governments hardly ever pay the full cost borne by SNGs' when it comes to migrant integration (OECD, 2017b). In some countries refugee-related grants are transferred to support municipalities in relevant sectors (e.g. social welfare benefits, integration programmes, language training, housing, etc.) when such competencies are part of the local remit. Some of these transfers have a limited duration, with costs being gradually transferred to local level (OECD, 2017b). This is, for example, the case in Sweden where transfers stops after two years at the conclusion of the Introduction Programme.

Notes

1. www.bundesregierung.de/Content/Infomaterial/BPA/IB/2012-01-31-nap-gesamt-barrierefrei.html.
2. www.gov.uk/guidance/equality-act-2010-guidance.
3. The national Equality and Human Rights Commission is the statutory non-departmental body established in 2006 to help eliminate discrimination and reduce inequality.
4. www.gouvernement.fr/logement-des-refugies.
5. www.canada.ca/en/immigration-refugees-citizenship/corporate/reports-statistics/research.html.
6. www.thestar.com/news/immigration/2018/02/01/immigrants-are-largely-behind-canadas-status-as-one-of-the-best-educated-countries.html.
7. Since the funding period 2014-20 according to Article 7 of the ERDF regulation 5% of ERDF resources allocated at national level under the investment for jobs and growth goal must be earmarked for integrated actions for sustainable urban development. Urban authorities are responsible for tasks relating at least to the selection of operations, and may also undertake tasks concerning the management of integrated actions that tackle the economic, environmental, climate, demographic and social challenges affecting urban areas, thereby giving cities a greater say in the delivery of policies in areas such as the integration of migrants (European Parliament, 2016). A total of EUR 15 billion across the European Union was spent under Article 7 in 2016 (Cretu, 2016).
8. For more information, see <https://ec.europa.eu/futurium/en/urban-agenda>.
9. For more information see www.refugeetalenthub.com/nl/werknemers/content/.
10. For more information see: https://budgetparticipatif.paris.fr/bp/jsp/site/Portal.jsp?page=search-solr&conf=list_projects&sort_name=8762824987434693558_random&sort_order=asc.
11. For more information, see <http://blog.atairbnb.com/opening-more-homes-to-people-in-need>.
12. For more information, see <https://newsroom.mastercard.com/press-releases/mastercard-and-george-soros-to-explore-private-sector-solutions-to-societal-challenges>.
14. For more information, see www.werkwijzervluchelingen.nl.

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Chapter 4. Block 2. Time and space: Keys for migrants and host communities to live together

The policy objectives listed in Block 2 describe what integration should look like and which solutions are activated at city level to achieve it. The main objective of most of the cities analysed in the study sample is to increase social cohesion. Migrant integration is a key component of this objective and is increasingly taken into account in different sectors of city planning and policy implementation, particularly the two key dimensions outlined below.

1. The *spatial* dimension (i.e. migrants' concentration in certain neighbourhoods raises risks of social and economic exclusion). Active participation of migrants is sought not only through labour inclusion but also by expanding the spaces for their contribution to local public life. In this sense municipalities create partnerships with civil society, migrant associations and the third-sector to organise spaces (public libraries, schools and pre-schools, theatres, squares, recreational centres etc.) and activities (festival, cultural events, awards, etc.) for developing common interests, engaging in local causes, exchanging skills, and building social networks. Fostering collective experiences and social mixing, combined with local leaders' *communication* around integration, influence the perception of host and migrant communities and helps knock down trust barriers.
2. The *time* dimension (i.e. integration takes time and support should be available at important turning points of migrants' path towards self-reliance). Integration measures are provided by many cities from day one (even before status recognition). However over time, migrants' needs and status evolve. Their housing, educational, professional and family situation changes. Even if migrants develop better knowledge about their new community, improve their language skills and build social networks, at some turning points in their lives, they may still need specific local responses. It is particularly the case for refugees who should be gradually introduced to universal systems, after status recognition. Cities increasingly recognise this need and create entry points to respond to migrants' needs over time such as migration hubs, user friendly websites, relevant vocational training in order to access skilled work opportunities, etc.

Emphasis on these concepts results from the lessons that cities have learnt over the years, experimenting with different approaches to integration policy (see Chapter 6.).

Migrant integration policies' conception over time

Generally speaking, the municipalities studied for this report¹ have a long immigration history. During the 20th century, many of the cities experienced an increase in migrants from southern Europe and northern Africa who played a crucial role in their economic development and filled labour shortages. After an initial phase during the 1960s and 1970s, where integration measures were hardly present, the 1980s and 1990s began a phase in which cities started to recognise migrants' specific needs and developed measures targeting specific ethnic or national minorities with regard to access to housing, labour inclusion and language skills. These group-based policies were then abandoned in favour of a universal approach, which aimed to mainstream migrant integration into general policies (Maussen, 2009; Butter, 2011). Recognising the needs of migrants and native-born collectively, cities focused on addressing challenges faced by all communities. Universal instruments have the advantage of avoiding parallel systems and can be balanced, when needed, with measures that the newcomer needs to be able to benefit from universal access, such as: language and vocational training, psychological support, validation of formal and informal competences, etc.

The increase of asylum seekers and refugees in 2015-16 has partly changed the approach again and has often resulted in municipalities designing targeted responses for these groups. As a result, local integration policies are still largely generic for migrants, but since 2015 they have also often been specific and innovative for refugees. The approach towards group-targeted approaches might be more largely adopted in the future, if proven successful in ensuring inclusion and integration, and could be expanded to different vulnerable groups (e.g. non-humanitarian migrants, elderly, disabled, women, etc.) (Escafré-Dublet, 2014; Doomernik and Bruquetas-Callejo, 2016).

1. Amsterdam, Athens, Barcelona, Berlin, Glasgow, Gothenburg, Paris, Rome, Vienna.
Source: Authors elaboration based on evidence from nine case studies.

Migrants and refugees face different sets of obstacles to integration: language barriers in accessing public services; lack of information; discrimination and prejudice from native-born communities complicating their access to jobs and social inclusion. Marginalisation due to migrants' concentration in certain neighbourhoods reduces their access to quality education and job opportunities, well-being, cultural and political participation. Cities respond to challenges faced by migrants as well as other groups through integrated inclusive urban strategies, when possible soliciting active engagement from all communities. These strategies go beyond providing services adapted to migrants and include building connections *where* people live, linking different groups, fighting against risks of polarisation and populism (see, for instance, the 30 proposals regarding Gothenburg in chapter 3, paragraph "4. Adopt a local integration strategy"). Time and space are guiding concepts when cities design and implement multi-sectoral plans to become inclusive places.

Time is understood as the continuum in which solutions are found in the host community (city) to respond to the evolution of migrants' needs. Over time, migrants develop better knowledge about their new community, improve their language skills and build social networks to tap into better opportunities. Similarly, native-born communities over time may see the benefits that migrants bring to their local societies. Cities' responses range from short-term humanitarian responses to long-term establishment in the city.

Space is understood as creating mixed places by connecting the host community with newcomers. In many cities where migrants experience segregation in poorer neighbourhoods (see "Objective 5. Create spaces where the interaction brings migrant and native-born communities closer"), creating spaces and housing solutions that are affordable and attractive for all groups is understood as one of the factors that contribute to desegregation.

Objective 4. Design integration policies that take time into account throughout migrants' lifetimes and evolution of residency status

Observations: Why it is important and what to avoid

The notion of time serves as a reminder that integration policies stretch well beyond the first introductory months and need to respond to situations that change over time. The statistics chapter (Chapter 2.) highlighted large differences across OECD regions in terms of length of stay of migrants. In fact, nine in 10 OECD regions are home to migrants who arrived more than ten years ago in that place. Understanding this diversity at regional level can be a relevant step towards developing tailored regional migration policies that account for the different needs of local migrant waves. For instance cities should assess whether most migrants in their cities have recently arrived, whether they are in possession or not of an EU work permit and EU-recognised qualifications, what their level of education is, and shape the services accordingly.

Well-timed integration is urgent: The importance of early integration has been stressed in the literature for a long time, emphasising that newcomers need to avoid, after arrival, long periods of unemployment (OECD, 2006; OECD/European Union, 2016). Recent research shows that the first two to three years from arrival have a disproportionately positive impact on the probability of finding a job, which drops by 23% after this time (Hangartner, 2016). Therefore the cost for non-action during the "integration window or golden hour" is disproportionately high. Having understood the urgency, cities designed all-encompassing early integration policies for refugees and sometimes for asylum seekers, in addition to national reception policies. However, local authorities face a trade-off when deciding whether or not to include asylum seekers among the beneficiaries of local integration measures. On the one hand, they are aware of the cost of losing immediate opportunities to embark on a long-term integration path. On the other hand, rejected asylum seekers will have to return to their countries of origin and the host community will not benefit from the potential of these newcomers. Cities responded to this trade-off individually; some have started to engage in integration measures for people awaiting recognition of protection status by providing language training, or allowing asylum seekers to volunteer recognising that whatever trajectory the migrant follows, delaying all activities will expose him/her to difficult situations in terms of restoring capacities and hope. These measures are further described in the case studies. Some NGOs have called this time in limbo as the 'accordion period' during which time is not continuous; some intensive moments of administrative processes asking a lot of mobilisation separated by long periods of non-activity and boredom. In general, early

integration models that are now being tested for refugees try to avoid the sequential approach used in the past - first building language, then professional skills, and then starting labour market integration - applying a simultaneous approach that combines the three stages through on-the-job language training and part-time courses. Early measures for integration apply also to young migrants or children of migrants who start school. Specific language classes for children, which aim to integrate children into the regular school system, exist in 81% of the cities that took part in the survey. Some countries even start in kindergarten (see “Objective 12. Establish education responses to address segregation and provide equitable paths to professional growth”).

Integration takes time: On average, it takes refugees up to 20 years to have a similar employment rate as the native born (OECD/European Union, 2016). In general, longer presence in a country is associated with improved integration outcomes (OECD, 2015: 21). Helping migrants participate fully in the local economy is a continuous effort that does not end after the first introduction period. Indeed, it is important to strike a balance between continuous funding needs and the national financial transfer, which often decline over time. The goal is to incentivise local authorities to spur quick and effective integration. In fact, the needs might be very different for each individual with a migrant background. Milestones for migrants, which require response in their immediate community, include: change in residency status, change in job situations, passage from student to traineeship and job placement and family presence and/or building. Migrants can find themselves in administrative limbo (e.g. when they turn 18 years old and their asylum claim has not been accepted, when a temporary work visa expires, if their passport has expired but they are not allowed to renew it through the consular network and cannot afford to return, etc.) where the municipality can support them with information and keep track of their presence. The municipality can ensure entry points over time to navigate the administrative system and ensure that migrants are in the condition to autonomously benefit from universal service provision. For instance, just as for other vulnerable categories, policies for equitable access to requalification opportunities must be available to make professional changes beyond migrants’ first entry in the labour market.

Learning from experience through partnerships with local actors: Newly designed place-based integration strategies can profit from actors who have long-standing experience in this field, including migrant organisations and communities, charities, foundations and NGOs operating in this area (see co-operation with NGOs in “Objective 7. Strengthen co-operation with non-state stakeholders, including through transparent and effective contracts”). Taking the time to interact with these actors, municipalities can learn what has worked or not in the past and design adequate solutions with them (see consultative mechanisms in “Objective 2. Seek policy coherence in addressing the multi-dimensional needs of, and opportunities for, migrants at the local level”). Cities also recognise the pivotal role of migrants who have been living in a host community for a long time in introducing newcomers to new cultural codes and explaining how the administrative system works. Local research institutions can provide support in the form of knowledge about the policies formulated by the city and complement the data that are produced in-house by the municipality (EUROCITIES, 2009).

Required time to participate in city life before obtaining the right to vote: Cities cannot influence voting rights laws, but they can encourage migrants to take an active role regarding citizenship through alternative initiatives. For instance, engagement with migrant organisations via consultative mechanisms is institutionalised in 46% of the cities in the sample. These mechanisms allow migrants to express their grievances and provide

feedback on local policies (see “Objective 2. Seek policy coherence in addressing the multi-dimensional needs of, and opportunities for, migrants at the local level”).

Which tools could work and what could be done better

1. Use integrated approaches from “Moment Zero/Day One”

Integrated approaches from “Moment Zero” or “Day One” means cities have introduced integration mechanisms that encompass all aspects of a newcomer’s life (and not just job integration) at the very beginning of migrant arrival, regardless of migrant status.

- In **Altena**, all persons with a foreign background who arrive in the city are accompanied in every step from arrival, status recognition and administrative procedures, accommodation to education and integration in the local society by *Kümmerer*, as well as members of civil society and dedicated municipal counselling services and offers. *Kümmerer* are local citizens who help newcomers with administrative work on an individual need-based basis. In this way, individual coaching is ensured, as they build up an individual trust-based relationship with their new neighbours. In addition, newcomers are quickly referred to specific services to aid with specific tasks (e.g. school enrolment, healthcare services, leisure activities, internship applications, etc.).
- **Amsterdam:** Under the lead of the Municipal Department of Social Affairs, the city of Amsterdam started the “Amsterdam Approach” in 2016. It’s an integrated approach to ensure that refugees receive early guidance with regard to employment, education and civic integration. The approach is co-ordinated with several stakeholders, such as the Refugee Council (Vluchtelingenwerk), the Central Agency for the Reception of Asylum Seekers (COA), the Public Health Service (Gemeentelijke Gezondheidsdienst [GGD]), housing associations, social welfare services, employers, and civil society initiatives. Some 70 case managers/tutors are appointed by the city and work alongside job hunters (a private head-hunting company – Manpower – has been contracted to undertake a skills assessment). They coach the refugees from the moment of their recognition throughout a three-year long integration path in several domains: employment, education, entrepreneurship, participation, civic integration and language. Jointly with the status holders, coaches establish a comprehensive individual action plan, taking into account skills, motivation, language level, work experience, educational attainment, and mental and physical condition. The service is financed by the municipality (EUR 31.2 million in 2015, EUR 35.3 million in 2016) and by a municipal fund for innovative pathways to work and participation (EUR 10 million) as well as European co-financing from the ESF (EUR 4 million) for which the managing authority is the Ministry of Social Affairs and Employment. As a response to the recent influx of humanitarian migrants, additional national funding was provided (EUR 17.2-21.3 million). The integrated measure was initially co-ordinated among city departments by a taskforce, later through a chain approach and in early 2018 a ‘refugee entity’ was set up in the municipality.
- **Berlin:** The Welcome Centre (Willkommenszentrum) works as a central consulting unit, which offers all newcomers advice about a wide range of services and legal issues regarding immigration and integration. It serves as an intersection between the immigration office, branch offices of the Federal Employment Agency and agencies of the districts (social welfare offices, job centre, service

offices for citizens, etc.). The services are available to all migrants regardless of their legal status (including irregular migrants) even though since 2015 the Senate has identified refugees explicitly as a target group, to whom it offers a consultation on living arrangements, the health insurance system, school education, the tax system, vocational training opportunities, as well as job searches. In addition to this office, early intervention for refugees to integrate the labour market are offered at the reception centres through “Welcome in Work” (Willkommen in Arbeit) offices.

2. Multiply the entry points for migrants to access services over time

Well beyond welcome offices, some cities set up migrant-oriented one-stop shops that integrate all information and key social and administrative services for migrants and newcomers in one hub, and connect beneficiaries to the administrative services that are relevant and universal or that have in-house services such as job orientation, capacities assessment and diploma validation, legal assistance, etc. These facilities, as well as user-friendly websites, facilitate access to services to newcomers and long-standing migrants who still experience difficulties. Some centres specifically address recently arrived EU-mobile citizens or who have already spent some time in town. Some others also include undocumented migrants. Cities operate these services either directly, through municipal departments (i.e. hiring social workers to counsel migrants in key social services including schools, adapting the language capacity of public services, etc.) or outsourcing to the third sector (NGOs, migrant associations) or private companies. Public services (such as schools, kindergartens, hospitals, etc.) also provide opportunities to reach out to migrants at different stages of their lives. For instance, municipalities can involve migrants’ parents by organising extra-curricular activities at schools (e.g. “parent cafés”, informal learning programmes for parents with children at school, etc.).

- **Barcelona:** SAIER (Servei d’atenció a Immigrants, emigrants i refugiats – Attention service for immigrants, emigrants and refugees) is a hub for migrant populations (including irregular and EU migrants). It offers personalised advice in 12 languages across several services (social work, legal advice, regularisation services, housing, etc.) and also offers employment services and a service to support the validation of diplomas.
- **Barcelona resident registry:** All residents of all nationalities are invited to register in the Padron, the administrative municipal census, to automatically gain the status of a “neighbour”. The Padron is a national measure managed by the local authority (Offices of Citizenship Services). Access to many services in the city requires registration in the Padron (e.g. for social housing, public education, but also public city bikes). Barcelona registers all persons living in the city, including individuals without an address, which allows irregular migrants, asylum seekers and refugees to access local social services from registration day onwards. In addition, it decreases informality as it ensures the provision of reliable data to public authorities and may help migrants to benefit from proof-of-residence and local activities.
- **Berlin:** The Berlinpass offers the possibility for all Berlin inhabitants who are entitled to social welfare mechanisms, including asylum seekers to receive benefits, reductions in fees and exclusive access to cultural, sport, educational and other leisure activities. The aim of the pass is to provide equal access for all inhabitants to Berlin’s social and cultural life. The Berlinpass includes, for instance, reduction in the ticket prices for public transportation, theatre and

concerts, swimming pools, free entrance to local sport clubs and gyms, zoos, and educational offers in adult education centres or libraries.

- **Glasgow:** Govanhill Service Hub, run by the local housing association and the Glasgow City Council (GCC), offers a range of public and volunteer services to support migrant integration and social cohesion in Govanhill. The hub hosts regular meetings between the community and service providers, which include GCC Social Work, the police and the Citizens Advice Bureau.
- **Vienna:** The Start Wien office is where migrants are oriented from their initial registration in the city. It offers individual counselling in 25 languages, training in different modules (labour, housing, education, health, legislation, society) and language courses (vouchers are offered as newcomers participate in the training modules). This service was initially established for third-country nationals; in 2011 it was expanded to EU migrants, and since 2015 it is also accessible to asylum seekers (who benefit from a specific competence assessment conducted by the employment service).
- **Canada:** as part of the Community Connection strategy (see “Policy coherence in addressing asylum seekers and refugee reception and integration”) Canada supports newcomers in developing a sense of belonging, while enabling mainstream institutions and community members to better understand the contributions of newcomers and the challenges they face. To address systemic barriers to receiving public services the strategy put so-called ‘settlement workers’ in schools and libraries as part of settlement partnerships.
- **Athens and Greece** two of the 10 Greek Migrant Integration Centres have been opened in Athens as Departments of the Community centres. The initiative aims at ensuring migrants’ access to services through a universal entry point. It will also employ intercultural mediators, to support migrants’ access to services and orient them to the relevant local actors. The initiative is set up through EU funds distributed through regional authorities (Attica in the case of Athens).

3. Involve migrants, research institutions and local organisations who have longstanding experience in receiving newcomers

Existing migrant communities have experienced the transition in the host society and are in an ideal position to guide newcomers through it. Municipalities recognise this expertise as well as the ones of NGOs, research and philanthropic institutions and involve them to simplify access for newcomers to public services. With regard to the relationship with migrant associations, and according to the evidence collected through the case studies, there has been a general shift from the municipal tendency to fund ethnic- or nationality-based associations to distribute grants to projects through open calls for proposals. In some cases migrants have autonomously organised their initiatives to increase their participation in public life. United Kingdom: [Migrants Organise](#) platform that was established two decades ago in the UK by refugees and migrants to “open up spaces for relational, organised participation of migrants and refugees in public life”. For instance they help establishing the National Refugee Welcome Board that introduced the private sponsorship to host refugees.

- **Berlin:** Integration guides (Integrationlotsinnen und Integrationslotsen) accompany newly arrived migrants to administrative appointments and advise them on a variety of questions regarding the first steps in the city. The guides usually have a migration background themselves and are thus able to provide basic translation services for newcomers in their native language. The City/Länder Commission for Migration and

Integration finances the programme, including the salary of the guides. The project is implemented by contracted welfare organisations and NGOs on the local (district) level inside the city. In response to a recent influx of humanitarian migrants to the city, the number of guides and the budget of the programme were likewise increased from a total of EUR 2.2 million in 2014 to EUR 4.38 million in 2016, and EUR 4.468 million in 2017.

- **Gothenburg:** The programme “refugee-guide and language friend” is laid out as a more informal approach. Many citizens volunteered to offer guidance for newcomers in the city. The programme consists mainly of the establishment of a virtual platform and provision of meeting spaces to facilitate the organisation of mentoring programmes or buddy systems by civil society organisations and NGOs.
- **Gothenburg:** The municipality collaborates with the University of Gothenburg in two research projects (Organising Integration and the Centre for Global Migration) gathering knowledge about how integration-related initiatives work in practice with a view to improving the city’s efforts.
- **Rome:** A faith-based organisation Centro Astalli, with long-standing experience in receiving migrants and refugees, started a collaboration with 14 religious institutes in the city who offered to host recognised refugees. The 14 congregations opened the “Comunità di Ospitalità”¹ (i.e. hospitality communities), a semi-autonomous project supporting refugees when transitioning from reception systems to self-reliance and independent work opportunities.
- **Canada: Community Connections programming** is an initiative of Immigration, Refugees and Citizenship Canada. It funds projects that aim at building bridges between newcomers and host communities. The objective is to form networks within the various dimensions of Canadian society and promote migrants’ contribution. The approaches varies based on local contexts and take place in public spaces (schools, libraries, etc.) as well as through matching of long-time Canadians and well-established immigrants who volunteer to assist newcomers through mentorships, conversation circles, homework clubs etc.

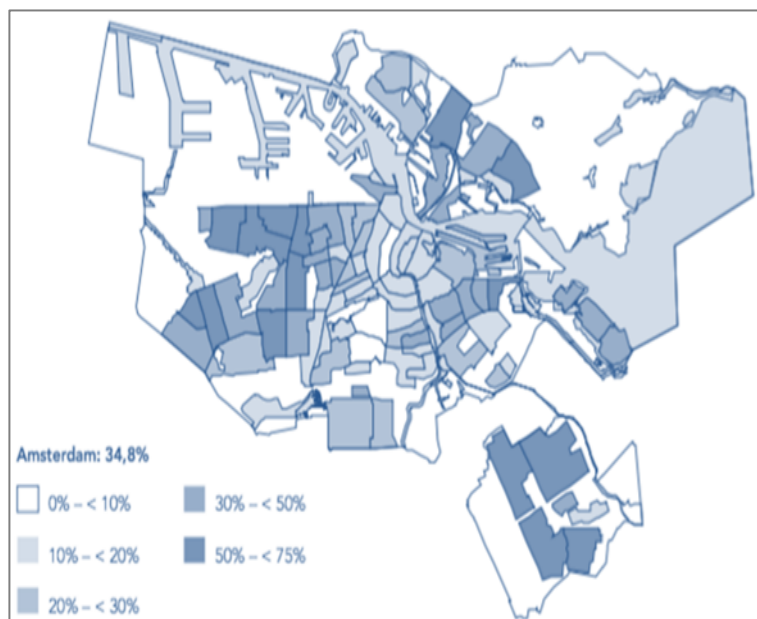
Objective 5. Create spaces where the interaction brings migrant and native-born communities closer

Observations: Why it is important and what to avoid

Migrants’ concentration in certain neighbourhoods is visible in many of the cities of the research sample

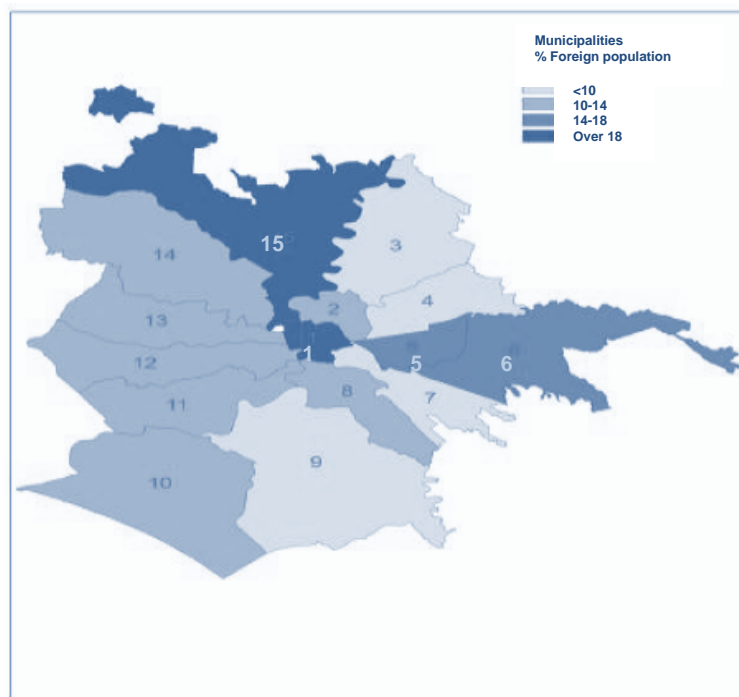
Migrants’ concentration in certain neighbourhoods (also known as “spatial segregation” by income and socio-economic status) characterise metropolitan areas across the developed world and it has been increasing in recent decades (OECD, 2016). Although this study does not focus on metropolitan areas only, it is worth remembering how segregation has an impact on individual outcomes, including on migrant integration outcomes, and how cities can influence these patterns. The maps and Box 4.1 below analyse the concentration of migrants in specific neighbourhoods across several of the cities.

Figure 4.1. Percentage of inhabitants of “non-western” origin per neighbourhood, Amsterdam, 2016



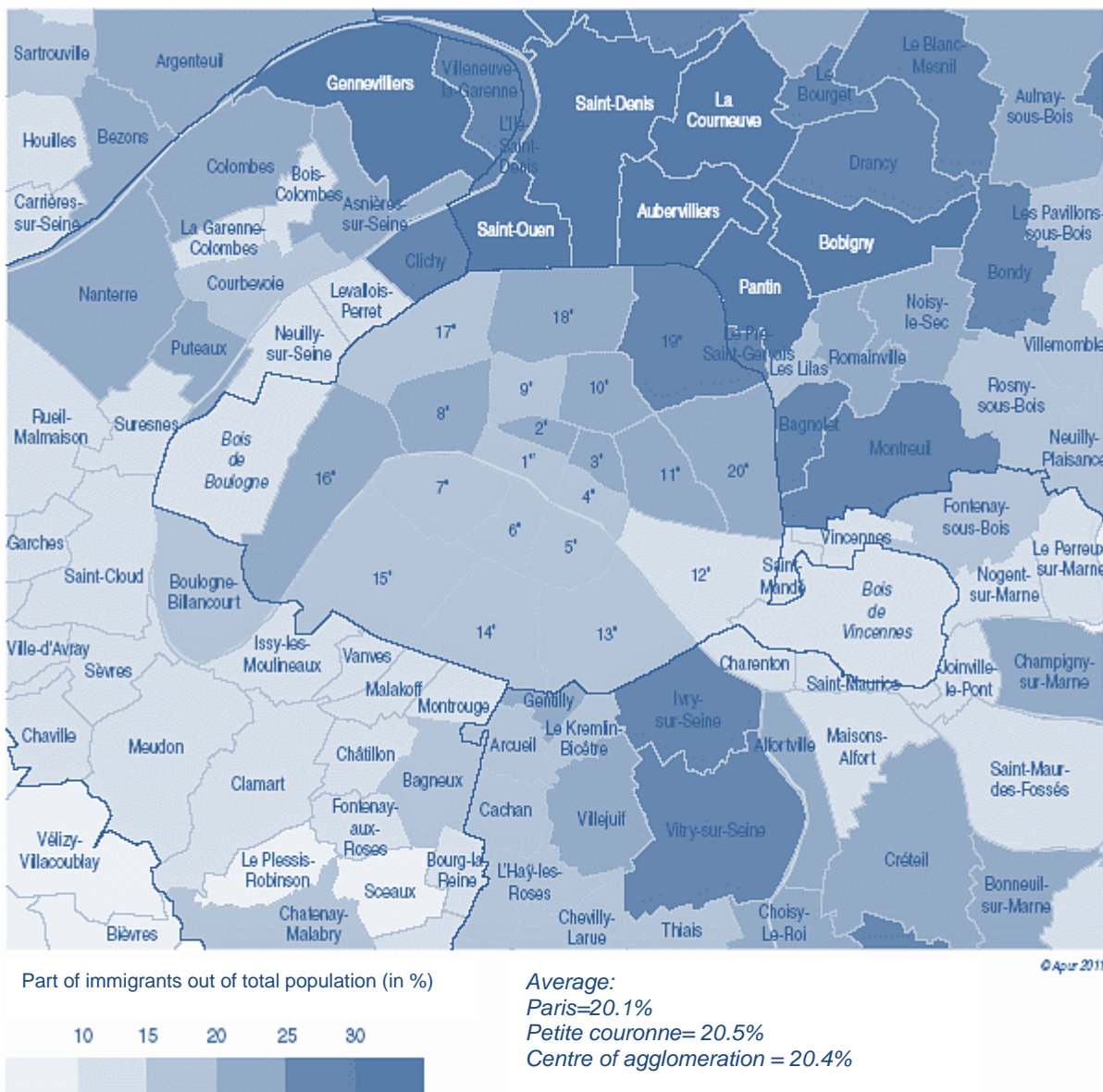
Note: In Dutch statistics persons originating from a country in Africa, South America or Asia (excl. Indonesia and Japan) or from Turkey are defined as non-western migrants. The category ‘Non-western migrant origin’ includes persons who were themselves born in one of the continents above or for whom at least one parent was born on one of those continents.
Source: City of Amsterdam (2016).

Figure 4.2. Percentage of foreign population per district, Rome, 2015



Note: Digit labels represent the % of foreign population (non-Italian citizens) per district.
Source: Unità Operativa Statistica, Ragioneria Generale, Direzione sistemi informativi di pianificazione e controllo finanziario, Migration in Rome: Resident Migrant Population, ROMA CAPITALE (2015).

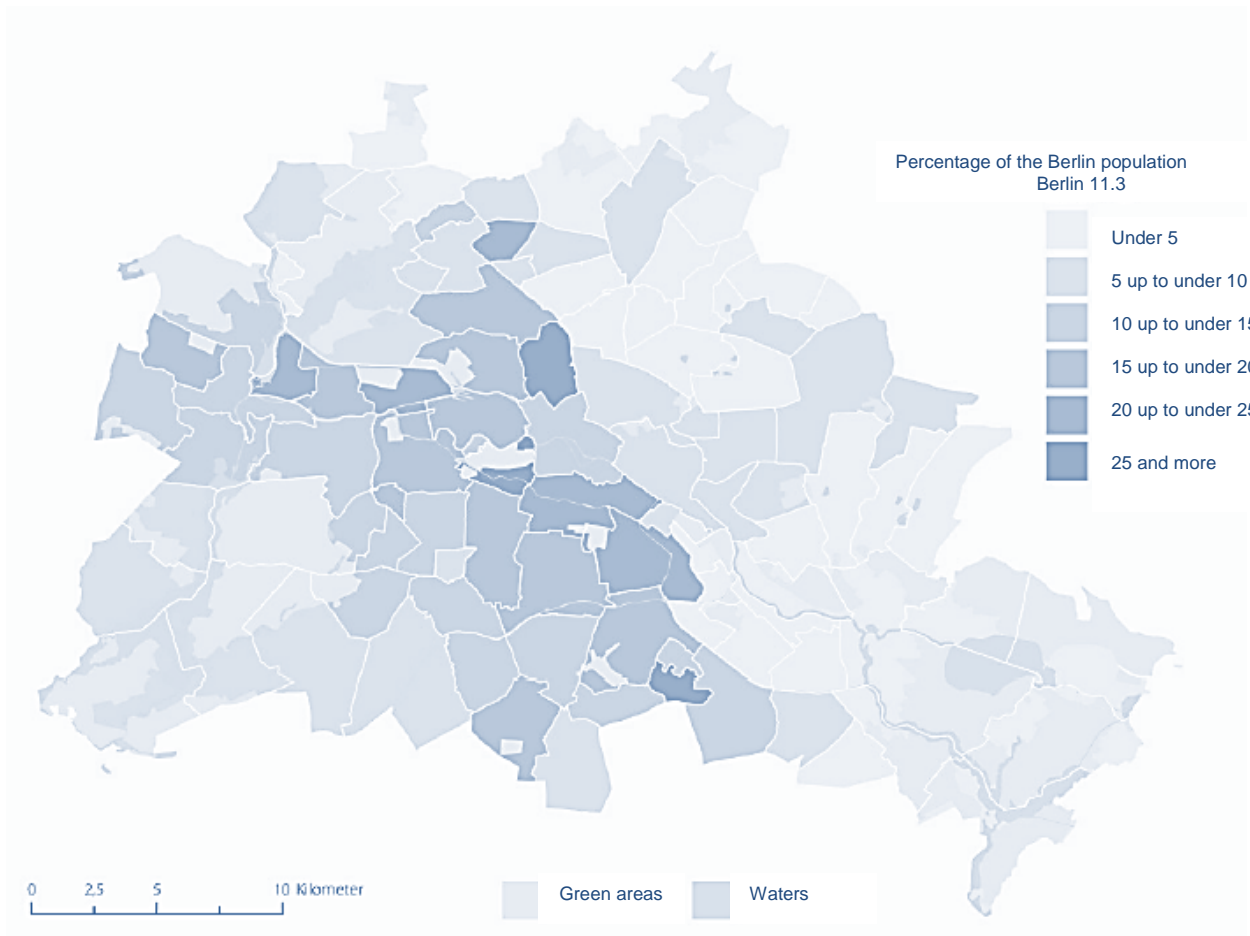
Figure 4.3. Percentage of inhabitants of foreign population, Paris and periphery, 2010



Note: Immigrant is a person who is born a foreigner and abroad, and resides in France. Persons who were born abroad and of French nationality and live in France are therefore not counted. An individual will continue to belong to the immigrant population even if they acquire French nationality.

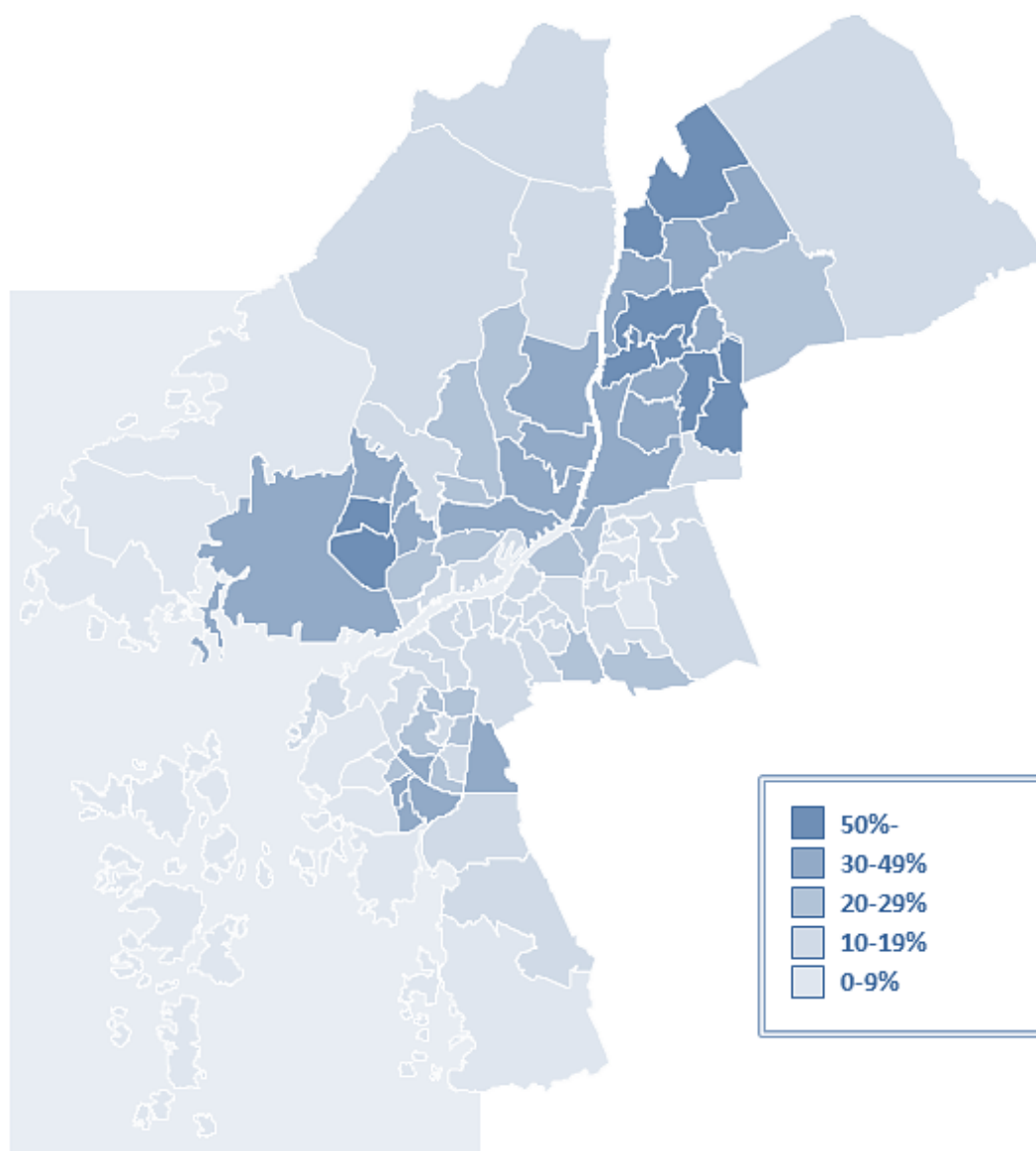
Source: Insee, 2010.

Figure 4.4. Percentage of population with migration background above the age of 18 per district, Berlin, 2017



Note: Population with migration background: Share of the population who were born abroad/foreign nationals or at least one of their parents were born abroad or have foreign nationalities.

Source: Amt für Statistik Berlin Brandenburg, 2017.

Figure 4.5. Percentage of persons foreign born by sub-district, Gothenburg, 2017

Note: The average % of foreign born in Gothenburg is 26%.

Source: Göteborgs stad, Stadsledningskontoret Statistik och analys. December 2017.

Box 4.1. Inclusion in cities

Concentration of a population with similar background and socio-economic characteristics can bring advantages in terms of job opportunities, resilience and social networks but could become a problem when it prevents segments of the population from accessing the opportunities and services that would enable them to fully participate in the political and economic process. In OECD cities, income inequality has a clear spatial dimension, with the persistence of neighbourhoods of concentrated wealth and poverty.

According to the existing literature (although the evidence is still not very strong) on neighbourhood effects, living in poor neighbourhoods can have a negative effect on individual outcomes in terms of health, income, education and general well-being (van Ham et al., 2014). Furthermore, segregation can lead to intergenerational transmission of racial inequality: children who grew up in deprived neighbourhoods are significantly more likely to live in a similar neighbourhood as adults, compared to those who grew up in more affluent neighbourhoods. In addition, newcomers are more likely to live where existing communities are already established. These intergenerational neighbourhood patterns are still shown to be much stronger for ethnic minorities than for other groups (van Ham et al., 2014; de Vuijst, van Ham and Kleinhans, 2015). Neighbourhood effects include socialisation processes (e.g. negative peer group effects, stigma effects and lack of social networks to find a job, etc.) and other factors of an environmental, institutional and geographical nature.

Different policies shape the metropolitan socio-economic distribution. The availability of social services, public transports, the housing sector and land-use regulations sometimes can contribute to excluding low-income households in certain neighbourhoods (OECD, 2016). OECD analysis (OECD, 2016) shows that, on average, more administratively-fragmented metropolitan areas (i.e. their governance is characterised by many, and uncoordinated, administrative units) have higher segregation of households by income. This analysis suggests that municipal capacities to deliver public services of comparable quality across all areas have an impact when it comes to generating disadvantages to people living in the least wealthy areas. In particular, literature shows that children growing up in poorer neighbourhoods often have access to poorer quality schools, since these schools struggle due to their lack of resources and the poor quality of the teachers that they attract (Schleicher, 2014).

Source: OECD (2016), “Together or separated? The geography of inequality in cities”, in *Making Cities Work for All: Data and Actions for Inclusive Growth*, <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/9789264263260-6-en>.

Cities’ aims to bring communities together

Although challenges for successful integration are multi-dimensional, spatial segregation and discrimination are two important and mutually-reinforcing obstacles. As we discussed above, cities tend to develop inclusive urban development strategies that foster inclusiveness for different groups and from different dimensions (see “Which tools could work and what could be done better” under Objective 2). Space is a key feature of these

policies. For instance, in Gothenburg, the city’s sustainability strategy aims “to shorten distances, both between places and people. The city will be brought closer together – both physically and socially. The city will be more compact with new homes, workplaces and meeting places.” Spatial planning, housing policies (see “Objective 10. Secure access to adequate housing”) and organisation of public education services (see “Objective 12. Establish education responses to address segregation and provide equitable paths to professional growth”) are key tools for inclusive urban development policies. They also take diversity into account. Second, many municipalities adopt strategies to make public places more attractive to meet up and live in for mixed groups. Public spaces and neighbourhoods in the cities are where different groups meet, get to know each other, create acceptance and further connect. They must be respected by all their city-dwelling inhabitants.

Bottom-up initiatives on the front line, developing spaces for interaction between different communities

Civil society organisations are the engine that, through their initiatives and activities, can contribute to making public spaces the place where connections are made between different groups. Many cities recognise the importance of CSOs and work together to transform the use and dynamics of places in the city. In 2015, civil society took unprecedented action in responding to refugee and asylum seeker arrivals, often under the guidance of existing groups and associations that had been operating in this sector for many years. Many of these spontaneous activities contributed to setting up spaces where newcomers and host communities could interact. In some cases, cities are ready to support these bottom-up initiatives with financial support. They do so by providing information or municipal venues (see more on municipal-NGOs collaboration in “Objective 7. Strengthen co-operation with non-state stakeholders, including through transparent and effective contracts”). Migrants and refugees who have been established in the city for a long time sometimes contribute to these initiatives, but often do not like referring to them as “integration activities”. From the interviews conducted with migrant associations for this study, it emerged that they interpreted joint activities as a means to provide visibility to the potential and added value of all groups present in the city. Within this framework they see themselves more as “active citizens” rather than contributing to newcomers’ integration. In the words of some of those individuals who were interviewed, “Integration will happen the moment we stop asking the question”.

Which tools could work and what could be done better

1. Ensure equal access to quality public services across all neighbourhoods

Being aware of the correlation between migrant concentration in certain neighbourhoods (often characterised by high social distress and housing problems) and barriers to successful integration, cities try to intervene with regard to the equal access to quality public services provided in these neighbourhoods and through other efforts to “desegregate” migrants in terms of social exclusion and the neighbourhoods in which they live. Likewise, most long-term efforts are related to housing and education, and will be further discussed in Objectives 10 and 12. In the short term, cities sometimes concentrate investments in disadvantaged neighbourhoods: in public buildings (libraries, cultural centres, squares, etc.), health centres or in schools to ensure quality services are available in all neighbourhoods. By making these spaces more attractive, cities offer to all

communities living in the neighbourhood a space to meet and better develop their common, as well as specific, interests.

- **Barcelona:** The municipality invested in the network of public libraries; in particular, they built a new library in Ciudad Meridiana, one of the neighbourhoods with the highest concentration of migrant populations. The library tailored its offer to the needs of different communities living in the neighbourhood: it organised information technology (IT) courses at the request of Moroccan women; it hosts kids after school so they can do homework; and it offers books in several languages, including Urdu, Arabic and Bengali.
- **Glasgow:** The Govanhill Housing Association finances the Kids' Orchestra, based on the successful Venezuelan El Sistema model and supported by a music foundation. In a neighbourhood with a very high presence of migrant and Roma communities, children are offered the opportunity to learn how to play an instrument in an orchestra and are provided with all material for practising. The annual performance of this multicultural orchestra is an important social event for the neighbourhood. The initiative produced spill-over effects, bringing migrant parents together – an adult orchestra was even created.
- **Glasgow:** The municipality has noticed that in some schools the presence of refugee pupils increase the average result of all the students in the class, boosting the motivation of native, Scottish-UK students who are exposed to the capacity of newcomers to learn the language and catch up on school programmes. The task for the municipality is to communicate and eventually spread refugee pupils across schools to obtain the same impact in as many classes as possible.
- **Gothenburg:** The Integration Centre of Angered (an area of Gothenburg where a very high percentage of the population has a migrant background), built by the municipality, works as a platform for “newly arrived, other migrants and Swedes” and organises educational and informational activities about Swedish society, as well as about migration. Swedish volunteers, particularly those who have themselves migrated to Sweden and have knowledge of more than one culture, participate in language cafés, mentorships and buddy systems to provide opportunities for newcomers to meet Swedes.
- **Paris:** In 2015, several public libraries started establishing links with shelters to enable migrants to borrow books and attract them to their libraries. The municipality is now developing a policy to establish this as a practice for all libraries in the city.
- **Athens:** In an effort to transform child day-care facilities into meeting spaces for native-born and migrant families, the Athens municipality implemented the programme “Together” in a number of municipal child day-care facilities from April to June 2015. The programme aimed to promote integration between native and migrant children through activities and between native-born and migrant parents through multicultural events taking place outside normal working hours.

2. Encourage bottom-up initiatives for creating spaces that foster integration

There are examples of civil society initiatives that aim to connect migrants and refugees with their neighbourhoods across all the cities analysed. Long-standing refugees and migrant communities are often directly involved in these initiatives. They contribute to creating linkages with newcomers as well as with well-established communities, triggering confidence and familiarity among different groups. These places for connection can also bridge newcomers with mainstream public services as they will receive

information on how to access such services. In some cases these initiatives target reception spaces where asylum seekers and refugees were hosted. In these cases, asylum seekers and host communities get to know each other from day one, calming the uneasiness that might arise when, suddenly, large numbers of migrants move into a specific neighbourhood or small municipality. In other cases, the spaces created by bottom-up initiatives and sustained with municipal investments attract long-standing migrant communities and native-born, around shared interests, managing spaces for learning or recreational activities.

- **Altena:** The city of Altena received the federal government’s integration award in May 2017 for its outstanding civil society engagement. Strong individual participation in the civil society in integration is a key element in the city hall’s integration strategy. The city currently established a new meeting place for all citizens in the city’s centre. The so-called “integration centre” serves as a focal point, where migrants and people without a migration background gather. The centre offers different activities from workshops (e.g. cooking and art) and book clubs to language classes and extended educational offers, meeting rooms for associations and working places with computers. In addition, the integration centre incorporates a guest room for emergency accommodation for asylum seekers and refugees in need. The local centre for tourism is also located in this venue. In fact, local companies are joining forces with refugees and asylum seekers to renovate the integration centre
- **From prison to community centre: Amsterdam** The city of Amsterdam transformed an old prison into a centre where the local community and newcomers could congregate. In February 2017, the centre sheltered 600 asylum seekers. The common spaces of the centre have been furnished by local individuals from civil society who offered their support. Some 72 Dutch entrepreneurs were offered working spaces in the centre for their start-ups with the intention of also providing opportunities for refugees to network with the local business community and to become familiar with different professions (graphic designers, permaculture workshops, carpenters, etc.) and the working culture. The Refugee Talent Hub also has its office in the building. This is a platform sponsored by the municipality and private companies such as Accenture and IKEA, which connects employers and recently-recognised refugees (see also section on “Objective 9. Match migrant skills with economic and job opportunities”).
- **Amsterdam:** Two similar bottom-up initiatives (Meevaart and Boost Ringdijk) have been implemented jointly by refugees, longstanding migrants and host communities who took over, upon agreement with the city, two public buildings (temporarily available). The buildings have cafeterias and classrooms and offer hospitality to migrants, locals and refugees to meet, drink, eat, chat and play. All sorts of activities and training programmes are organised there, especially those that promote social integration (different target groups, co-operation of people with, and without, disabilities). These organisations, in agreement with the municipality, hosted 30 asylum seekers in vacant buildings in their neighbourhood, sharing the responsibility for managing these centres among neighbours with the financial support of the municipality and collected through crowd-funding.
- **Athens:** At the Melissa (network of migrant women), collaboration between established migrant women associations (African, Filipinos, etc.) was crucial in

organising Greek-language classes and disseminating relevant information to female refugees and asylum seekers, which were held at the Elaionas Camp in Athens. In other refugee camps in the city, doctors who were born abroad but graduated from a Greek medical school offer health services free of charge. Clinics for migrant women, particularly from Eastern European countries working in private houses during the week, are organised on Sundays, where foreign-born doctors offer free services.

- **Athens:** The migrant association Generation 2.0 in Athens counts among its members second-generation migrants from different countries in their 20s and 30s. They are active in advocating with the municipal council to increase their visibility (e.g. accessing public positions and media campaigns) as the new generation of Greeks. It is an example of young migrants coming together, in their dialogue with public authorities, around a “generational” concern that is no longer characterised by “cultural” grievances associated with different national origins. They suggest gaining more public visibility and interaction with local communities by organising joint activities, such as building a garden in a public space.
- **Gothenburg:** A group of asylum seekers living in a temporary accommodation centre in Restad Gård felt that it was their responsibility to organise themselves during this transition period, and connect with local society. They funded “The Support Group” that has since been replicated in 16 other centres and now receives support from Save the Children. The network organises a number of support activities that put people waiting in the centres in touch with local actors (e.g. colleges, universities, etc.).
- **Paris:** “Les Grands Voisins” – The Big Neighbours, is the biggest temporary regularised occupation in Europe on the premises of the previous hospital Saint-Vincent de Paul. It has become the local neighbourhood meeting point for Parisians and migrants alike, as well as a tourist attraction well known for its innovative use of space. The mixed-used space has just extended its contract with the city for another 26 months. It includes an emergency shelter and administrative consultancy for refugees, a temporary campsite, start-up offices, artists’ studios and shops as well as a bar and an event location than can be used for concerts, workshops, cinemas, etc. Refugees run small activities selling food, drinks and other items.
- **Rome:** The municipal library network has traditionally been very active in attracting migrant communities to these places. In particular, they contribute to skills exchanges. In the libraries, volunteer Italian teachers give language classes to migrants and they offer language classes (Arabic, Chinese) to Italians. The courses for native Italians are so successful that waiting lists have been put in place.

Notes

1. <http://centroastalli.it/servizi/comunita-di-ospitalita>.

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Chapter 5. Block 3. Local capacity for policy formulation and implementation

The following three objectives analyse the more practical aspects of “what it takes” to implement integration strategies in terms of capacities at the local level.

Given the importance of partnerships with local civil society, migrant associations and NGOs, the local level should establish flexible and financially viable contracts as well as training opportunities. Learning is a key component of successful local approaches to integration. *Diachronic* learning, which looks at past success and failure, should be an important reference for municipalities. *Synchronic learning* through the sharing of best practices should complement diachronic learning across municipal departments, neighbouring municipalities as well as at international level. Innovations can be shared and scaled up through peer-to-peer learning mechanisms. City services (i.e. front services as well as departmental services) play a critical role in supporting migrants navigating their new systems, particularly at their arrival. Public officers need to be equipped with the right information and language support when needed. Evaluation is the other necessary condition for improving effective integration, and it should involve the target population, i.e. the host, migrant and refugee communities themselves. Data collection at local level on outcomes of migrant population as well as inputs and costs invested in integration policies can help improve policy efficiency and persisting challenges.

These three objectives can be incentivised through national or supranational actions, for instance by providing targeted incentives for evaluation, data and information exchanges between municipalities as well as selecting appropriate local projects. Developing standard monitoring based on agreed indicators or capacity-building instruments that cities can use throughout Europe and internationally can also be considered.

Objective 6. Build capacity and diversity of public services, with a view to ensure access to mainstream services for migrants and newcomers

Observations: Why it is important and what to avoid

To meet the needs of its diverse population many municipalities incorporate migration-related issues in the delivery of their universal services (or those of subcontracted external agencies) (EUROCITIES, 2009).

Newcomers can experience language and cultural barriers that might complicate their access to public services. Therefore local civil servants need to be equipped to ensure them access to adequate services. This ranges from intercultural awareness to ensuring that migrants can express themselves in a language they master when accessing universal services delivered by the municipality, through the use of interpreters if need be (EUROCITIES, 2009).

Furthermore, because of their proximity to migrants, local authorities observe the actual obstacles that migrants experience when accessing locally designed services as well as services that are regulated, planned and designed by higher levels of government. Thus local authorities play an intermediary role between national government and the users, suggesting what capacity should be strengthened to improve integration-mainstreaming in public services.

Which tools could work and what could be done better

1. Provide training and incentive mechanisms to sensitise all municipal departments about their roles in fostering migrant integration.

Municipalities include intercultural issues and migrants' perspectives in relevant staff training programmes (EUROCITIES, 2009).

- **Vienna:** The specific entity for migrant integration (MA17) organises training and works to sensitise all departments with regard to their role in migrant integration. MA17 found training very effective in raising the awareness of all other departments about integration issues, reporting that they now understand better their contribution to integration indicators that the city monitors every year.

2. Build capacity beyond 'front-desk'/registration services across all relevant social service sectors

Capacity building should not only target public servants engaged in the local administration, but also all related services receiving newcomers: teachers, social workers, police, and services in charge of connecting them with the job market. National authorities have an important role in promoting capacity building policies to ensure equal access also to those public services that are regulated, planned and designed by higher levels of government. The obstacles that migrants, as well as host service providers and employers, face and what needs to be adapted are two areas that require further investigation. All EU Members States are required to ensure equal access to services (e.g. see Racial Equality Directive, Charter of Fundamental Rights of the European Union, European Convention on Human Rights). In addition, to ensure access to universal services delivered by the municipalities, some cities also provide independent mediators (trained in the rights, obligations and practices of the host community, sometimes with

migrant background) to help migrants seeking help when conflicts arise in accessing mainstream services (EUROCITIES, 2009).

- **Athens:** Different projects aim at developing the skills of employees of the municipality and health services to plan and implement integration actions in the local community. The training includes applying for external funding for these actions. They were implemented mainly through EU-funded projects.
- **Greece:** the Social Integration Directorate of the Ministry for Migration Policy, in collaboration with the competent agencies and social partners, is developing a job profile and a certified training programme for intercultural mediators. Reinforcing the role of the intercultural mediator aims at improving the quality of services provided by workers in this field.
- **Berlin:** A compulsory and basic curriculum guiding schools on how to integrate newcomers was established. The framework covers general education from first to tenth grade. The new curriculum, which will come into effect by the end of 2017/beginning 2018 aims to support schools in managing an increasing number of students with diverse religious, cultural, educational, linguistic and other backgrounds. The framework includes, for instance, specific language promotion in all subjects. A further novelty is that intercultural education is included as a compulsory component for general education.
- **Glasgow:** The Glasgow Housing Association (GHA), which is responsible for the city's social housing stock, has supported staff training modules concerning the tenancies of refugees. Compared to other clients of the company, refugees were characterised as more family-oriented, and more positive about employment and education as well as being more sociable. The aim of the training is to raise awareness among the agency's employees in order to ensure that refugees' potential is not underestimated and to facilitate their access to social housing.
- **Glasgow:** Since 2013, the city of Glasgow is obliged to report to the Scottish Government in the UK on how it has met its requirements, set out in the Equality Act, about incorporating equality across its activities, both as a policy maker and as an employer.
- **Rome:** In public schools, the city provides qualified teachers of Italian and cultural mediators to foreign pupils. The Education Department of the city of Rome promoted programmes for preschool teachers and day-care staff to improve their intercultural skills. The Department also funds the projects, "Progetto Aquilone" Project Kite and "Accogliere per Integrare" Project Welcoming for Integrating through which cultural mediation is provided by schools (school year 2011-12).

3. Increase the diversity of public servants by ensuring equal treatment in their recruitment

In addition to skills development also, fostering diversity among public servants emerged as a priority for most of the municipalities surveyed. Diversity of the personnel should be based on equal treatment and is an important tool to make direct contact with migrants easier, to contribute to creating successful integration models, and to change mentalities among public servants themselves as well as the local society. Some countries provide for quotas for increasing diversity through national policies; however this can have side effects such as fostering group stigmatisation or the view that migrants are favoured over native-born. Further legal barriers might restrain recruitment of civil servants only to nationals or EU citizens. Other, less drastic means that municipalities can use to

strengthen the diversity of its workforce include positive action policies in terms of staff recruitment (EUROCITIES, 2009). At the city level, many cities in the sample have included the objective to increase staff diversity in their local strategies through public servant recruitment or through less restrictive types of contracts.

- **Berlin:** A diverse public administration is the second principle of its integration strategy, called “Intercultural Opening” (Interkulturelle Öffnung). The strategy is set out in a regional law and is binding. Compliance with the law is monitored based on a set of indicators, which must be reported back to the legislative political organ (i.e. the city’s parliament).
- An interesting example of increasing diversity and participation is the **Open Society Fellowship** launched in June 2017, which will be offered by the Open Society Foundation to four refugees from the Middle East, North Africa or Southwest Asia. They will be selected in **Athens, Amsterdam, Berlin or Barcelona** and will have demonstrated commitment within their community, worked directly with the municipality on projects and programmes related to the inclusion of refugees and migrants in their cities. This will not only increase diversity, but also improve the communication and collaboration between refugee and migrant communities and city policy makers.
- **Vienna:** Several indicators that are part of the Integration and Diversity Monitoring (Wiener Integrations and Diversitatmonitor) document, which is published every three years, observe the diversity of its public service. In addition, some schools welcoming refugee students have contracted teachers, who are refugees themselves.

4. Share experiences across city’s departments, with other subnational governments at the regional, national and international level to increase local capacities by learning from others.

- There is much good practice across cities that clearly need to be shared and could save time and effort if applied where appropriate. The same is true also in terms of sharing practices across departments of the city to make sure there is intercultural awareness and mainstreaming of migrant integration in the municipality’s policy work. Several international initiatives give voice to the growing efforts of many cities around the world to meet the needs of their diverse population, providing opportunities for exchange and advocacy in supranational fora. Some of these initiatives are presented in the following boxes.

Box 5.1. City to City Initiative

Migration Policy Development (ICMPD) has partnered with the United Cities and Local Governments (UCLG) and the United Nations Human Settlements Programme (UN-Habitat) and with the UNHCR as associate partner as part of the framework of entitled “Dialogue on Mediterranean Transit Migration” (MTM). A first of its kind, MC2CM has brought together cities from both sides of the Mediterranean to establish an open dialogue, facilitate knowledge development and sharing, which has led to concrete action.

The project is funded by the European Union through the Directorate General for Neighbourhood and Enlargement Negotiations (DG NEAR) and co-funded by the

Swiss Agency for Development and Cooperation. It has involved the cities of Amman, Beirut, Lisbon, Lyon, Madrid, Tangiers, Turin, Tunis and Vienna and delved into the local context of each city by producing City Migration Profiles and Priority Papers validated by the city authority and stakeholders. It has also produced pilot projects, policy recommendations and a comparative analysis of the nine City Migration Profiles.

Box 5.2. The United Nations Mayoral Forum

The United Nations Mayoral Forum on Human Mobility, Migration and Development (“Mayoral Forum”) is an annual city-led forum for dialogue on migration, development and displacement. It is supported by local, regional and international partners. Launched at the UN General Assembly’s Second High Level Dialogue on Migration and Development (HLD) in 2013, it provides a space where local leaders can share practical and inventive solutions for governing migration, protecting rights and promoting inclusive urban economic growth. On 26-27 June 2017, the 4th Mayoral Forum was hosted by the Governing Mayor of Berlin, also in partnership with the OECD. During this event, the present “Checklist” was introduced by the Deputy Mayor of Paris. The 5th Mayoral Forum will take place in Morocco in December 2018.

Box 5.3. Cities contributing to the UN Global Compacts on Refugees and Migration

The Global Mayors Summit (GMS) on 18-19 September 2017 was convened by the Open Society Foundations, the City of New York, Concordia and Columbia University’s Global Policy Initiative and further highlighted cities’ central role in reshaping governance – from the local to the global level - in the fields of migration and refugee policy. Their role was acknowledged by national government and United Nations representatives. The United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR), Mr. Filippo Grandi, proposed that UNHCR’s governing body – its Executive Committee (“ExCom”) – could be restructured to include an ExCom of Cities as one channel for sustained, formal city engagement in international decision-making. Areas for immediate investment identified during the GMS include: creating an alliance of small- and medium-sized cities on migration, developing new funding mechanisms for cities (e.g. a solidarity fund for refugees in urban settings), and strengthening city governance so that cities become more active international players in migration diplomacy. This summit is a step towards cities’ involvement in the formulation, in 2018, of the UN compacts on refugees and migration.

Box 5.4. Inclusive Growth in cities and the global coalition of Champion Mayors at the OECD

In 2012, the OECD launched the Inclusive Growth Initiative in response to a widening gap between the rich and the poor. Starting from the observation that inequalities are not just about money: they affect every dimension of people's lives and well-being, such as life expectancy, education outcomes, and job prospects. The OECD defines Inclusive Growth as "growth that creates opportunities for all segments of the population to participate in the economy and distributes the dividends of increased prosperity fairly across society" (OECD, 2015). The OECD takes a multidimensional approach, going beyond income to take into account a range of well-being outcomes and policy domains.

In recognition of the key role of cities in tackling inequalities, the OECD created a global coalition of Champion Mayors for Inclusive Growth in March 2016. Together, Champion Mayors delivered the New York Proposal for Inclusive Growth in Cities, the Paris Action Plan for Inclusive Growth in Cities, and the Seoul Implementation Agenda, which outlined a series of commitments and policy priorities, along four main lines: 1) Education, 2) Labour markets, 3) Housing and the urban environment, and 4) Infrastructure and public services. A number of cross-cutting themes have emerged, across all of these four areas, as strong priorities among Champion Mayors, including the integration of migrants in cities, the nexus of climate change and inclusive growth strategies, and health inequalities in cities.

Source: OECD (2015), All on Board; OECD (2016), New York Proposal for Inclusive Growth in Cities; OECD (2016), Paris Action Plan for Inclusive Growth in Cities; OECD (2017) Seoul Implementation Agenda for Inclusive Growth in Cities.

Objective 7. Strengthen co-operation with non-state stakeholders, including through transparent and effective contracts

Observations: Why it is important and what to avoid

There is a wide acknowledgement by the cities in the research sample of the broad, positive contribution of non-state actors to integration-related activities. The majority of cities (78%) do not encounter difficulties in their collaboration with NGOs. More than 85% of the cities collaborate with NGOs on certain projects related to migration. Some 58% of the cities in the sample delegate tasks to NGOs and 45% consult with NGOs when designing their integration policies.

Outsourcing to NGOs and private partners is widely used to deliver local public services in general, and services for migrant integration, in particular. This practice is present both in well-staffed and equipped municipalities and in cities under austerity measures that do not allow for new recruitment. This decision is in place to gain in efficiency - using the most experienced actors for specific integration-related services - and to diversify service provision. It was based on both past experience and the need to respond promptly to recent significant asylum seeker arrivals. Often public authorities outsource certain services for legal reasons as they might not have the mandate to intervene while being impacted by the situation.

Cities also report some obstacles in coordinating and outsourcing services to non-governmental actors. They relate to long selection procedures, lack of clear standard setting, lack of coordination mechanisms, and potential competition with services provided by public agencies. Some municipalities reported that the length of public procurement procedures for selecting external service providers is sometimes incompatible with sudden variations in demand for their services. This was the case in particular in 2015-2016 during the increase in arrivals of refugees and asylum seekers, when municipalities often attributed contracts directly to external providers to respond more promptly to the needs. Standards in delivering services for integration are important for both non-state and public operators. In general standards are set by national or regional legislation and additional provision can be formulated at the local level, for sectors where local authorities have the competence. Transparency in the standards for services needs to be ensured during the selection of the providers and monitored during the implementation. Cities don't always set up multi-stakeholder mechanisms for sharing information and operationalise division of labour across municipal and non-state actors. Finally, city departments implementing social services are sometimes in competition with non-state actors while responding to municipal public calls for attributing public service provision. While competitive practices contribute to maintaining high delivery standards, the advantages and risks of outsourcing public services related to migrant integration should always be carefully weighed, including in relation to NGO staff.

NGOs providing services to migrants and refugees also identified, during interviews with the OECD, some margin for improvement in their relations with the municipalities where they operate. In particular financing issues have been reported across all the cities analysed in the case studies. Local actors face sustainability issues due to delays in municipal payments, which push some organisations, including big ones, to delay salary payments and seek loans in the private market. Linked to financing issues, NGOs also face the risk of capacity drain as they are unable to retain the staff they train. While volunteers are key assets for these NGOs and often provide expertise and knowledge of the territory, NGOs would benefit from employing permanent professional staff to enhance the continuity of their activities. Finally many NGOs pledged to increase dialogue and coordination with the local authorities and among themselves on migrant integration. This is a pressing issue especially in large cities where there are many actors and where it is often difficult to know who is doing what and to avoid overlap. Finally the fragmentation of local policies that have an impact on migrant populations often results in multiple calls for proposals being issued from different departments and in actions which tend to be specific rather than holistic. This represents a challenge in turn for the organisation, which in turn has to segment their activities by group and by very specific objectives.

Which tools could work and what could be done better

1. Set up co-ordination mechanisms with NGOs, migrant organisations and businesses operating in the sector

The municipal administration's permanent co-ordination mechanisms with migrants/refugees/returnees and NGOs, business, foundations, migrants associations, third sector enterprises and other municipal administrations have been established in several cities with the aim of exchanging information and co-ordinating activities. Most of the time, these mechanisms were established in the aftermath of refugee arrivals and only concern responses for this group. In most of the cities analysed, NGOs estimate that

more co-ordination is needed and regular co-ordination mechanisms remain an exception to the rule. To increase the impact of multi-stakeholder co-ordination at city level regarding integration issues, these platforms could be issues-based (i.e. on labour issues, on welcoming classes at school, on language courses, etc.) or organised around specific operational issues. It is important to involve these platforms in the definition of local integration objectives and indicators.

- **Athens:** A promising example of innovative co-ordination mechanisms is provided by the Athens Coordination Centre for Migrant and Refugee Issues (ACCMR) recently established (June 2017) by the municipality of Athens with an exclusive grant from the Stavros Niarchos Foundation. ACCMR is a collaborative platform bringing together municipal authorities and around 70 participating stakeholders (national and international NGOs, the third sector, migrant and refugee fora). The key aim of this initiative is the mapping of needs, the identification of gaps in the provision of services, and the collaboration for the development of a strategic action plan for the effective integration of refugees and migrants living in Athens. ACCMR also acts as a hub for the formulation of collaborative proposals from its members, while also liaising with potential donors and supporters for funding in order to implement innovative projects. ACCMR's operation is organised around five Working Committees (with the participation of both municipal and NGO actors), each focusing on a specific set of services (housing employment, health, education, legal support). They all work towards defining a comprehensive service delivery system that takes into consideration the short-term and long-term goals of integration.
- **Barcelona:** Since 2007, the “Network for Welcome and Support of Migrants” unites the municipality, neighbourhood and migrant associations and social non-profit organisations. These actors are crucial in complementing the municipal programme for migrants' autonomous development in the city through language courses, legal advice, employment orientation, social support and cultural activities. The city backs their efforts with subsidies and by facilitating the co-ordination among them within the network. Similarly, the offer of Spanish language courses available in Barcelona is co-ordinated by the municipality through “Language Co-ordination”, which is a network composed of more than 50 non-governmental stakeholders that teaches 30 000 migrants.
- **Altena:** Since the end of 2015 the increased arrivals of refugees to the city, Jours Fixes (i.e. regular, ongoing meetings) and co-ordination rounds have been organised between the city and external stakeholders. For instance, the mayor and a representative of the Housing and Urban planning department (Bauen und Planen) of the administration met weekly with the heads of the local housing company “Altenaer Baugesellschaft” to co-ordinate accommodation of newly arrived asylum seekers and refugees. Furthermore, the headquarters of the volunteer network Stellwerk, which is of high importance in the case of Altena, is located geographically close to the city hall and thus co-ordination between the city and volunteers happens on an informal ad hoc basis. In addition a more formal mechanism exists: a member of the administration's integration team is exclusively dedicated to the co-ordination of volunteer work with the city hall.
- **Canada, Local Immigration Partnerships:** these platforms bring together government stakeholders (regional or municipal government) and non-traditional partners such as employers, research/academic organisations, school boards, health centres, immigrant service providers, professional associations, ethno-

cultural and faith-based organisations and the social service sector as well as the broader community. Informal discussions take place through this platform to discuss what is working and what is not in terms of accessibility to both settlement and mainstream services and job opportunities for immigrants. The **Hamilton (Ontario, Canada)** Immigration Partnership Council (HIPC), is a good example of a multi-stakeholder partnership, including immigrant service providers, businesses, unions, community-based organisations, health, local government, media, and educational institutions. The partnership focuses on improving settlement services such as housing, language training, education and employment support (OECD, 2015).

2. Use adapted contracts

Use clear contracts that make it possible to learn from past delivery experience, including in emergency situations and which can be adapted when needed. For instance, after a reasonable probation/pilot period, allow for longer and renewable contracts that provide time visibility to the operators in order to invest in the quality of the programme and retain experienced staff.

- **Gothenburg:** The Municipality of Gothenburg has a form of umbrella contract involving a variety of NGOs. The contractual terms are flexible enough to adapt to a variety of partner NGOs operating in this domain. This can help to avoid lengthy procurement processes and provides the city with more flexibility with regard to the partners it wants to work with. Furthermore, this partnership provides a certain degree of continuity in a field dominated by short-term funding programmes to the NGOs who are part of the long-term co-operation pool.

3. Set standards in delivery services to migrants

Set standards and evaluate service delivery to migrants. Do this not only for services carried out by the city administration, but for all actors involved: public agencies as well as non-state actors. These standards will be based on national and regional regulations pertaining to service provision and the municipality can tailor them to local needs in the contract. Regular monitoring of outsourced service providers is particularly important not only to ensure their alignment with local integration objectives but also to ensure continuity in service provision in case such agreements collapse. Monitoring can improve the preparedness of local actors and mobilise municipal services to take over outsourced services in case of emergency.

- **Glasgow:** The COMPASS contract, initiated by the Home Office on behalf of the UK national government, was designed to offer accommodation, transport and basic sustenance to asylum seekers through private service providers. The first contract generation created problems, as users, NGOs, as well as the city and the Scottish Government in the United Kingdom realised that the quality of services provided by the contracted service providers under COMPASS was poor. In order to address the problems and increase the standard of the service while still meeting high demand for their services, the contract was changed. In the new contract, voluntary and private sector landlords provide services during the asylum application process. However, communication and co-ordination mechanisms between accommodation operators and local social services need improvement.

4. Use bidding and monitoring procedures that are both public and transparent

Use bidding and monitoring procedures that are both public and transparent with the aim to develop complementarities among internal and external providers of local services to migrants. National legal frameworks for bidding procedures will apply when relevant and local authorities can formulate additional transparency requirements when pertinent.

- **Berlin:** A transparency database was set up to encourage increased transparency in the use of municipal grants by non-state actors. The city asked all non-state beneficiaries of municipal grants to indicate their expenses on a voluntary basis. The ones that report extra information are rewarded with a quality label, the “transparency emblem”.¹ In-depth participation, however, is proving difficult: 7 955 organisations were listed in 2017, only 1 613 carry the transparency emblem.
- **Berlin:** Given the increased influx of asylum seekers the city received, the government decided to also contract private real estate companies to manage emergency accommodations. While outsourcing is a common practice in the city, tasks are usually implemented by well-established not-for-profit actors (such as welfare organisations), but on this occasion private operators were able to provide housing solutions on shorter notice and contracts for service provision were directly attributed to them by the city. However, some accommodations operated by private companies did not meet the basic criteria agreed in the contract, such as rudimentary health standards, and provided poor services overall. As a result, the city established a state-owned operator, which complements the services implemented by local welfare organisations.

Objective 8. Intensify the assessment of integration results for migrants and host communities and their use for evidence-based policies

Observations: Why it is important and what to avoid

There is a gap in data regarding migrant groups at local level. Very few municipalities compile and publish statistical data used for monitoring integration. Moreover, household surveys often have very small migrant samples, which cannot be considered as representative. In addition, many migrants do not appear in official city statistics. For instance, EU mobile citizens,² rejected asylum seekers, persons who sought asylum in a different country and asylum seekers under the Dublin Convention (who are meant to be returned to their first country of arrival), as well as migrants without a fixed residence, etc. are not accounted for. Data on this “invisible” migrant population would be helpful to design timely city policies adapted to their needs.

Data are hardly comparable across countries, as statistics focus on different categories. Some countries focus on foreign-born individuals and others also include those individuals with parents born outside that country. It is rare to see a breakdown of integration data for persons with refugee and humanitarian visas is very rare (UNHCR, 2013).

It is hard to link migrant integration outcomes to the impact of local policies, given the multi-dimensional nature of integration policies, and the fact that they are the result of multi-level actions. Local authorities often opt for pragmatic responses to observed mismatches in migrant outcomes rather than learning from the impact of previous policies.

Whatever the challenges, measuring performance in local public action requires available indicators. These include both outcome indicators, such as the EU Zaragoza Indicators and OECD Settling In indicators, as well as indicators of the policy process and ‘good’ governance of integration issues.

Even when indicators for monitoring migrants’ outcomes are in place they need to inform evidence-based policy making. Likewise, results should be made available to decision-makers and be used to adjust or design new policies. Accordingly, sub-national governments could apply to receive funding for integration-related projects from national or supra-national levels.

Measuring indicators that are useful for policy making

At a time when integration is a hot topic in the public debate, it is essential to provide data to support an evidence-based dialogue. As observed in the statistical part of this volume (Chapter 2.), in order to be effective, policies need to also include an analysis of the effects of migration on the native-born population in aspects such as social services, wages or employment. Data can, for instance, support assertions that integration (in particular labour integration) can be successfully achieved if started quickly after reception and followed through in later stages. Integration assessments should consider whether outputs or outcomes are measured. For instance, measuring the time it takes to obtain a job permit or tracking language-course attendance, as opposed to longer term labour integration or language level validation, may be interesting and easier but does not allow policy makers to monitor and embrace longer term achievements. Policy evaluation would need more frequent data collection in order to measure integration progress, including the tracking of migrants’ progress over time (see “Objective 4. Design integration policies that take time into account throughout migrants’ lifetimes and evolution of residency status”). Likewise, it would be extremely valuable if data on second-generation migrants were collected. Policy evaluation would have consequences on the capacities of the municipality to allocate new funding to initiatives that have proven effective, or to prioritise intensive and long-term initiatives over short-term ones.

Further, for some cities, as well as national governments such as Canada, it has become a priority to measure what the presence of migrant communities has brought to the city in terms of, for example: cultural and culinary diversity, entrepreneurship, tax contributions, increased availability of international products and food, economic and trade links with other parts of the world and the increased attractiveness of the territory for tourists. This type of data helps inform the city’s inhabitants of the positive effect of migrants. A whole-of-society approach to integration is needed to assess these contributions; identifying such indicators cannot be a job just for the government but must involve a wide range of stakeholders.

Which tools could work and what could be done better

1. Ensure the existence of a city integration action plan and monitoring mechanisms, tracking the results of municipal actions on integration

Particularly, the integration models that some cities have introduced for refugees in recent years need to have ‘built-in’ evaluation mechanisms to track their efficiency and project their sustainability over time and their potential application to other groups. The indicators used at local level should allow for comparison on national and international scales. Monitoring should ensure that the measures implemented are cost effective in

achieving integration objectives. Monitoring systems should also try to measure whether inter-departmental work on migration is using the resources efficiently (EUROCITIES, 2009). The results of the evaluations of the achievement of migrant integration policy and practice (including their shortcomings) should be communicated to all relevant stakeholders and the public. The results of evaluations should be used in the process of policy making.

- **Barcelona:** A yearly report on foreign population is produced using data collected through the local Padron³ registry.
- **Vienna:** The Wiener Integrations and Diversitatmonitor⁴ monitoring exercise implemented every three years is a very exhaustive source of information on the integration results and persisting challenges in the city. In addition, this monitoring mechanism has proven very effective in involving all municipal departments in integration issues. It analyses the city's policies and the institutional structure. Several indicators were developed as benchmarks and to measure progress over years. The more general dimensions used to group the benchmarks are: 1) diversity orientation in relation to clients and service provision, 2) diversity in human resources, 3) diversity as part of the organisational development and strategy of departments. By monitoring these changes, the report should be a useful tool for evidence-based policy making.
- **Amsterdam:** In order to measure the cost effectiveness of the Amsterdam Approach to refugees the municipality built in a sophisticated system monitoring and evaluating the activities. The municipality keeps track of the implementation of the activities through an internal dashboard. In terms of impact evaluation, the municipality outsourced a research programme 'Vakkundig aan het werk' (skills at work) to Regioplan. Thanks to the research grant, an in-depth study of the Amsterdam approach is carried out, which measures the actual implementation of the programme and its effectiveness in terms of labour market insertion and enrolment in education. In addition, Amsterdam has contracted a specialised firm (LPBL) to conduct a cost-benefit analysis of the Amsterdam Approach every six months (see Box 5.5).

Box 5.5. Cost-benefit analysis of the Amsterdam Approach

The municipality of Amsterdam uses cost-benefit analysis more often than most cities to evaluate and optimise policy, including policies for social care and welfare policies. The cost-benefit analysis takes into account all extra costs of the activities for refugees: client-management, extra activities (such as language programmes and internships) and programme management. It sets these against all the extra benefits, such as less unemployment-benefits, more taxes, more educational benefits (long term) and enhanced quality of life. The results for the first year of the implementation (the new approach started as of 1 July 2016) were produced using a sample of 1 500 refugees (the so called 'Entrée-group'). The results of this group were compared with the results of a control-group (historical data) of over 3 000 refugees. The analysis shows that the employment rate after one year in the Entrée-group is 15% higher than in the control group (6%) and that recent refugees are hired faster. The estimate of expected employment in the years to come is (according to the rosiest of the three scenario calculated) that 50 percent of the refugees will not need unemployment benefits within three years. Corrected for education, moving and other reasons for not needing unemployment benefits anymore, it means that within three years 25% of the refugees will be employed.

Benefits outweighed costs by 50% in the basic scenario, i.e. for every euro invested €1.50 was gained. In the potential scenario this is €2, and in the most optimistic scenario €3.

Source: Cabinet LPBL training en advise.

2. Provide data, capacity building and expertise for establishing EU-wide or more internationally comparable integration indicators

Data, capacity building and expertise should be leveraged to establish EU-wide or even internationally comparable integration indicators on regional, and when possible, urban level. The OECD has long-standing experience in collecting statistical evidence on migrant integration results. Recently the OECD has developed a regional database on migrant integration presence and outcomes including employment, education, housing dimensions (NUTS 2/TL2), the results of which are included in Chapter 2. of this volume.

- **Germany:** The institutionalised dialogue between ministers for integration of the *Länder* (Integrationsministerministerkonferenz, IntMK) was established through a conference in 2006 at federal level. The conference is also an interface with the federal level. The IntMK develops the Integrationsmonitoring der Länder, an important set of indicators, which measures various dimensions of social integration compared across *Länder*. Indicators are based on data from the micro census. Integration is measured in important areas such as legal rights, education, employment, health and housing on a two-year basis. There are examples for “Integrationsmonitoring” also at city level.⁵ In Germany data on the presence of migrant is available on a small administrative scale: down to the Kreis-Level⁶ and the Data from the Central Register of Foreign Nationals (AZR) and micro census could be analysed on the level of “Kommunen”.
- **Sweden:** The government agency called Statistics Sweden (Statistiska centralbyrån [SCB]) compiles and publishes statistical data used for monitoring integration. Statistics focus on individuals born outside Sweden and those with parents born outside the country. It does not however specifically report on refugees. Statistical data related to specific indicators can be analysed at municipal level, including urban areas identified as having widespread socio-economic exclusion. STATIV is another database produced by SCB that records immigration status and includes reasons for immigration; this can therefore be useful to track refugees. Moreover, the Ministry of Employment conducts quantitative analysis and qualitative studies to assess different integration areas, however it does not disaggregates results for refugees in particular.

3. Improve qualitative data collection, including the points of view of migrant and host communities

Priorities include improving qualitative data collection, incorporating the points of view of migrant and host communities (e.g. employers’ perception on hiring newcomers, migrants’ feedback in using public services, etc.). This can be done through surveys, city consultation bodies, participatory assessments and ad hoc focus groups. This module should also cover reception/early integration contexts. Qualitative data collection could also aim to measure migrants’ contributions to cities’ economic and social environment. Qualitative indicators should be built through participative formulation processes, reaching agreement on what the possible measurements of the contribution of migrants to

city development trajectory are: from economic contribution (tax income, etc.) to more holistic criteria.

- **Amsterdam:** The city conducts a quarterly survey on the local population's perception of refugees. The local community's approval rate has not declined since 2015.
- **Council of Europe Bank (CEB):** In their *ex ante* evaluation of social infrastructure projects, the CEB includes a participatory assessment with the beneficiaries of the initiatives, including refugees and the host community. Similarly, their views are included in the monitoring and *ex post* evaluation.
- **Germany:** The SVR-Integration study also analyses how refugees judge their place of living and what they consider to be important factors associated with successful integration.⁷
- In Kalmar County (Sweden) the employment offices collect migrants' and refugees' feedback on their services. It was found that refugees experienced difficulties in knowing where to access public services and that more efforts were needed to help individual navigating services (OECD, forthcoming).

Establish a peer-to-peer learning alliance between cities and national statistical authorities to identify common indicators for integration, comparing their experience in collecting and using the data and formulate jointly new ones where needed. The OECD Checklist for public action on local migrant integration can be used as a reference to build relevant indicators around integration policies. -the OECD checklist should be used as a living repository of practices filled out by practitioners at city level and their partners from higher levels of government as well as non-state actors.

Notes

1. Senate administration for Education, Youth and Science (Merkblatt zur Transparenzdatenbank), as of 3 July 2012.
2. Even if EU citizens are supposed to register their place of residence with authorities when in another EU country for a stay of more than 3 months, many EU countries do not require them to do so. In many countries, EU citizens are not required to hold a residence or work permit and they can start working and accessing health services. https://europa.eu/youreurope/citizens/residence/documents-formalities/registering-residence/france/index_en.htm.
3. Padron is the local municipal register of residence. It registers everyone living in a Spanish local government area. You are obliged by law to register yourself on the Padrón Municipal de Habitantes if you intend to live on the Spanish mainland or islands for more than 180 days of any year.
4. In 2008 the City of Vienna introduced the Integration and Diversity Monitoring tool incorporating indicators, benchmarks, data collection and surveys to make the impacts and consequences of migration and the relevance of integration and diversity for society, politics and administration empirically transparent and to analyse them objectively.
5. See more information at www.wiesbaden.de/leben-in-wiesbaden/stadtportrait/wiesbaden-in-zahlen/content/monitoringsysteme.php.
6. See more information at https://service.destatis.de/DE/karten/migration_integration_regionen.html#ANT_SCH_ABGEL

7. See more information at www.svr-migration.de/publikationen/wie_gelingt_integrati...

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- UNHCR (United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees) (2013), “A new beginning”.

Chapter 6. Block 4. Sectoral policies related to integration

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

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

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

- **Welfare and health:** In general migrants have legal access to welfare services on the same basis as all other groups. Cities are on the frontline providing basic social services (i.e. shelters and showers, soup kitchen, etc.) that often address migrants' most basic needs. In addition to national services some cities top up welfare allowances (i.e. family support, child allowance, unemployment contributions, etc.) and reinforce health services addressing migrants' needs (prevention, primary care, hospitals and health centres) thanks to local finance, while sometimes adapting them to specific situations (i.e. rental support for refugees, etc.).
- **Education:** Cities in the sample systematically include refugees and asylum seekers in their national education system. Therefore when arrivals increased they had to adjust the capacity of their classes and the skills of the teachers. In general, it is the aim of local and national education services to transfer foreign-born pupils in public education quickly from targeted classes to regular classes.

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

Objective 9. Match migrant skills with economic and job opportunities

Observations: Why it is important and what to avoid

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Which tools could work and what could be done better

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

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

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

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

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

Activities on the demand side of labour integration

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

2. *Fight discrimination*

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Activities on the supply side of labour integration

4. Encourage employment orientation services to target migrants

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

- **Berlin:** The city supports the activities of a Turkish organisation specialised in providing advice to migrants who want to set up, or are already running, their business.
- **Utrecht (Netherlands):** Programmes such as Refugee Launch Pad or Plan Einstein provide free entrepreneurship courses, together with the Centre for Entrepreneurship and Utrecht University, and individual guidance with the social impact factory to see the real possibilities for a start-up. This starts in the asylum centre (activate people from day one), and is followed up when the refugee gets a house in Utrecht (ongoing support).
- **Vienna:** Access to business networks is encouraged through the “Mentorship Partnership” (by the national employment agency), which lasts six months between a migrant and an expert of the sector in which they want to invest. They develop a plan, establish contacts and accompany the migrant to meet the business community. Beneficiaries are migrants who have completed an apprenticeship or higher education. The city of Vienna has also created the Vienna business agency to accompany migrants and all other population groups in setting up their businesses.

6. Develop systems for the validation of professional qualifications

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

- **Gothenburg:** For some professions, the city has established a fast-track system to validate professional qualifications, in co-operation with the local employment agency. The programme particularly targets migrants in their acceptance of credentials obtained abroad. The city offers a fast-track programme for teachers, which is partly taught in Arabic language.
- **Inter-municipal/regional partnership Gothenburg:** The region set up an organisation called Validering Väst (Validation West), which is a collaboration between the region and the four sub-regional associations (including the Gothenburg region). This organisation works with various stakeholders (including the employment agency) in order to help individuals receive documented proof of their skills (e.g. as an electrician or a builder, etc.), so that they can work in specific vocations that require a license or formal education (the national authority, Swedish Council for Higher Education, will then evaluate foreign education titles). One of their goals for 2017 was to create conditions so that newcomers to Sweden can have their practical skills “made visible” and documented.

7. Help migrants access the labour market through social enterprises

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

Objective 10. Secure access to adequate housing

Observations: Why it is important and what to avoid

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

A concentration of migrants in certain neighbourhoods impedes integration

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

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

On the contrary, spatial segregation is one of the main concerns for the metropolitan cities analysed in the case studies, where migrant presence represent 23% of the population, on average. Three out of the nine large European cities analysed (Athens, Glasgow and Gothenburg) considered segregation as a very high, or highly unfavourable factor to integration. In some large cities in the sample, migrants tend to concentrate in just a few neighbourhoods (Box 4.1 under “Objective 5. Create spaces where the interaction brings migrant and native-born communities closer”) due to a variety of reasons, including low rents, concentration of social housing, proximity to working area and the presence of an existing community. Data gathered through the case studies indicate that these areas are sometimes characterised by a high housing discomfort index (average of buildings tend to be in disrepair) and a high level of social distress (a combination of unemployment rate, occupation, population with adults under age 25, population that attained a secondary school degree). As described in Box 4.1, the “neighbourhood effect” has consequences on migrants' access to education and social services and on the social capital they build to navigate their new society.

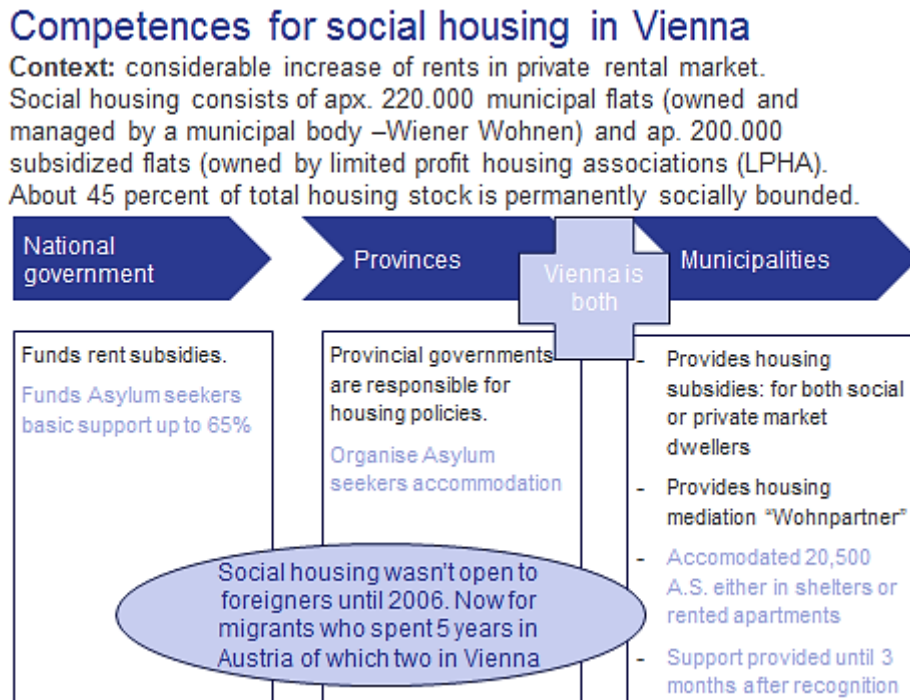
Furthermore, as mentioned in Chapter 2. , negative perception of migrants is positively correlated with low socio-economic characteristics. Problems of acceptance are therefore likely to arise in neighbourhoods with overlap of concentration of ethnic communities and low social indexes. Living in disadvantaged areas due to their education or employment situations, native-born populations are less likely to see the migrants' potential contribution to society and might perceive them as living in social flats meant to meet national needs. In some cities of the sample, the concentration of discomfort and social distress indexes in some specific neighbourhoods has been influenced by past policies. For instance, in Sweden, the Million Program, established during the 1960s and

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

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

Encouraging distribution of migrants across neighbourhoods where they are less concentrated can disrupt inequality patterns, ensuring access to quality schools and services, with positive consequences on future employment and education opportunities (see Box 4.1). However, urban planning processes do not always look at the effect of migration on infrastructure and services: “for most cities, migration usually appears as an afterthought rather than as an integral part of the urban planning process” (World Economic Forum, 2017). This might be due to a number of reasons. First, both strategic city plans and spatial plans are designed over periods of several years and are usually updated every 5 to 10 years. As such they cannot respond quickly to emerging conditions such as demographic change, exclusion and population movements. Therefore statutory land use planning can block attempts of more flexible zoning that could address emerging needs (e.g. temporary housing for refugees). Second, urban planning is a multi-level governance issue. Municipalities are not very often (34% of respondents) fully responsible for housing policies for migrants at city level. In 55% of responding cities, housing is a responsibility shared with the national government. Only 10% indicate not having any competency in this policy field. With regard to new housing policies, cities are often responsible for spatial planning and building permits, and set the criteria that housing corporations need to respect. For some cities, spatial planning and housing represent a significant share of municipal expenditure. For instance, it is the biggest item in Amsterdam’s budget (OECD, 2012). In particular, social housing³ is often defined as a competence involving different government levels during different phases, ranging from urban planning to programming and building and then provision and administration of services (Figure 6.1).

Figure 6.1. Competences for social housing in Vienna



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

Which tools could work and what could be done better

1. Equitable policies for accessing social housing

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

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

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

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

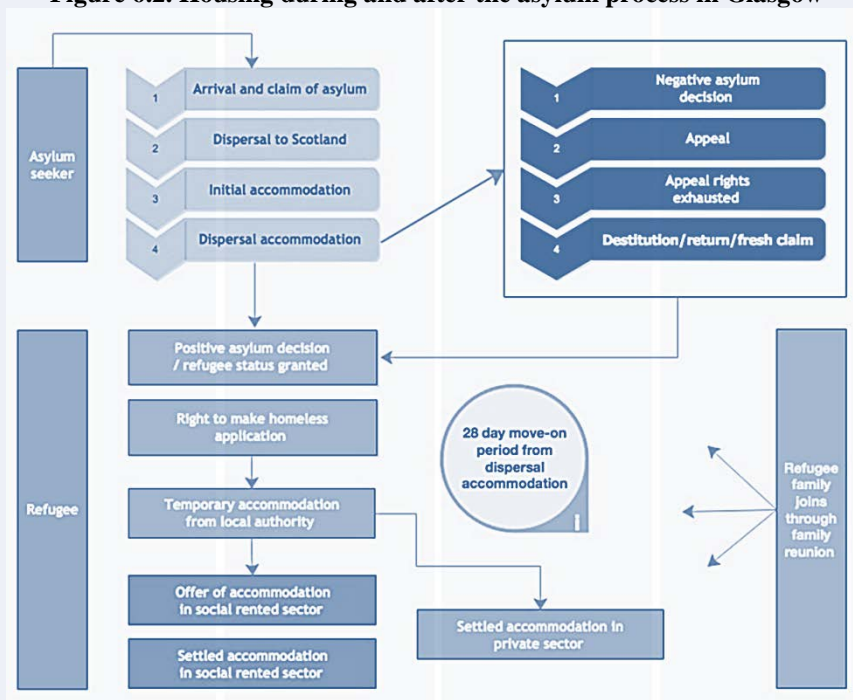
Box 6.1. Housing for refugees and asylum seekers

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

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

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

Figure 6.2. Housing during and after the asylum process in Glasgow



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

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

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

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

Figure 6.3. Competences for social housing in Amsterdam



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

1. As signatories of the 1951 Geneva Convention, EU countries are obliged to ensure refugees with access to housing under the most favourable conditions at least on parity with national citizens (Article 21, Geneva Convention, 1951).

Source: Authors elaboration based on material from ten case studies.

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

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

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

- **Barcelona:** The city offers grants for arrears to irregular migrants without a formal rental contract. Different cities offer mediation services with landlords and legal help: BAGURSA front office for housing services of Barcelona.
- **Glasgow:** Govanhill Service Hub (see description in Objective 4 above) has a small team of migrant employees whose role is to anticipate and defuse neighbourhood tensions – which can arise when newcomers misunderstand local norms.
- **Berlin:** Recognised refugees are provided with a letter for landlords ensuring they will pay their rent for six months, thanks to municipal rent subsidies.
- **Glasgow:** One of the housing corporations recognises that refugees are often different clients than the usual homeless client group. From OECD interviews with the housing corporation, the staff finds that they are highly resilient, highly motivated, often highly qualified and keen to work. Training was adapted to distinguish the specific needs and capacities of this group of clients.
- **Rome:** AMAR (Agenzia mediazione abitativa Roma) supports migrants during flat hunting to overcome discrimination barriers. It provides financial counselling to migrants and training to the administrators of residential buildings to manage cohabitation issues and cultural mediation.
- **Vienna** Wohnpartner, the city's housing corporation offers mediation work in case of conflict in social housing.
- **Altena's** decentralised housing policy relies on the fact that the city holds many vacant flats and housing prices are in general exceptionally low (on average: 5 EUR per m²). These prerequisites are direct effects of the depopulation trend the city has been facing in recent decades. In this regard, the municipality's decentralised housing solution also benefits the local housing company and private landlords, who generated surpluses in revenues in recent years. In total, the city rented 90 facilities for accommodation of asylum seekers since the policy was introduced at the end of 2015.

3. Design housing policies to prevent exclusion

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

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

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

With regard to refugee dispersal across the city:

- **Amsterdam:** Social housing – which accounts for 25% of the housing stock – is not concentrated in specific districts. Six housing corporations split the number of refugees they have to provide social housing to in order to disperse them across the city.
- **Berlin:** The city supports refugees to pay private-market rents as the preferred modality over in-kind housing support, in order to leave them free to decide where to live and to avoid the over-concentration of people of migrant origin in the same areas.
- **Altena:** Altena is a best practice regarding accommodation of asylum seekers and refugees in the city. The policy entails a decentralised accommodation of newly arrived in flats spread out through the whole city. The local housing company (Altenaer Baugesellschaft) provides most flats, which are rented from the local company by the municipality. A smaller fraction of flats is rented from private landlords. The city hall only rents flats, which cost below 4 EUR per m². Some venues had to be remodelled by the city before they were fit for moving in. Flats are furnished through donations from civil society. Before a new entity (family or person) moves into a flat, representatives of the Altenaer Baugesellschaft or the city hall visit neighbours to inform them and ask for their support in welcoming the person to the neighbourhood. In addition, newly arrived persons are introduced to the neighbours by a representative when moving in. This policy has proven to facilitate integration into the direct neighbourhood.

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

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

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

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

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

Observations: Why it is important and what to avoid

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

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

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

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

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

Which tools could work and what could be done better

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

4. Render social services more mobile

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

5. Link additional city subsidies to job-seeking measures

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

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

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

Observations: Why it is important and what to avoid

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

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

Obstacles and opportunities determined by migrants' education level at arrival

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Segregation of immigrants in the school system

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

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

Obstacles to assist immigrant children at school

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

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

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

Importance of preschool and Early Childhood Education (ECEC)

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

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

Obstacles and opportunities for language training

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

Which tools could work and what could be done better

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Manage school choice criteria based on students’ backgrounds

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

4. Assist migrant children in mainstream public schools

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

- **Berlin:** Refugees and asylum seekers can attend universities, even if the educational credentials obtained abroad do not correspond to official entrance criteria. Refugees and asylum seekers can either choose to attend as auditors or enter as regular students through so-called “access courses” in conjunction with an assessment test. As a response to the sharp increase in humanitarian migrants in the city within recent years, the offer of these courses was likewise increased.
- **Utrecht (Netherlands):** The University of Applied Sciences Utrecht, together with AFAS (a private information and communications technology [ICT] company), and the municipality organise a pre-bachelor course for refugees. After the pre-bachelor course, they can go on to university in the city, if the level reached is sufficient.

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

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

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

Conclusion Part II

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

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

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

Notes

1. www.oecd.org/skills/piaac.
2. See more information at www.canada.ca/en/immigration-refugees-citizenship/services/immigrate-canada/atlantic-immigration-pilot/hire-immigrant.html.
3. To be understood as housing provided for people on low incomes or with particular needs by government agencies or non-profit organisations.
4. See the European Committee of the Regions, Division of Powers Comparison Tool at <https://portal.cor.europa.eu/divisionpowers/Pages/Comparer.aspx>.
5. See the European Committee of the Regions, Division of Powers Comparison Tool at <https://portal.cor.europa.eu/divisionpowers/Pages/Comparer.aspx>.

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Annex A. Produced indicators and data source

Dimensions	Indicators	Additional Information	EU Data Source and Year (if diff. from 2014-15)	US Data Source	MX Data Source	CAN Data Source	AU Data Source	
Basic demographics								
Socioeconomic characteristics	Size and density	Share of foreign-born in the total population in 2015	0+ and 15+ (AUS:14-74 ; MEX:15-64)	EULFS	ACS	MLFS	CLFS	SEW
		Share of foreign-born in the total population in 2005	15+ and 15-64	EULFS	ACS	MLFS	Census	Census
		Share of EU foreign-born in the total population	0+	EULFS	ACS	MLFS	CLFS	SEW
	Gender	Share of women among the foreign- and native-born populations	0+ (AUS:14-74 ; MEX:15-64)	EULFS	ACS	MLFS	CLFS	SEW
		Share of women among the EU foreign- and native-born populations	0+	EULFS	X	X	X	X
	Structure by age group	Distribution of 10-year age groups	0+ (AUS:14-74 ; MEX:15-64)	EULFS	ACS	MLFS	CLFS	SEW
		Dependency ratio (0-14 & 65+ over 0+ pop)	0+/Includes native-born children into the count for foreign-born	EULFS	ACS	X	X	X
		Share of "hyperactive" working population (ages 25-54 over 0+)	0+	EULFS	ACS	X	X	X
	Duration of stay	Distribution of less than 10 years vs. more than 10 years present	Ages 15-64	EULFS	ACS	X	X	SEW (2015)
		Distribution of less than 10 years vs. more than 10 years present. Also mean number of years for all migrants	Ages 15-64	EULFS	X	X	CLFS	X
Region of birth of foreign born (upon ad-hoc request to Eurostat)	High-income versus low and medium-income countries of birth	15-64 foreign-born population	EULFS	X	X	X	X	
Migrants with host-country nationality	Share of nationals among the foreign-born	15-64 foreign-born population, living in the country for at least 10 years	EULFS	ACS	X	X	SEW (2015)	
Foreign born status of responsible adult in household	Number of foreign-born households (All heads are foreign-born vs at least 1 head is foreign-born - Definitions A and B)	Number of households	EULFS, 2013-14	ACS*	MLFS	X	X	
Household size	Average size of foreign-born households (definitions A and B)	Number of households	EULFS, 2013-14	ACS*	MLFS	X	X	
Household composition	Composition of foreign-born households (definitions A and B)							
	Sole person							
	More than 1 adult without children	Number of households	EULFS, 2013-14	ACS*	X	CLFS	X	
Education & skills								
Educational attainment	Low education (ISCED 0/2)	Ages 15-64 and excluding those currently in education or training	EULFS	ACS	MLFS	CLFS	SEW	
	Medium education (ISCED 3/4)							
	High education (ISCED 5/6)							
Educational attainment of EU and Non-EU migrants	Low education (ISCED 0/2)	Ages 15-64 and excluding those currently in education or training	EULFS, 2013-14	X	X	X	X	
	Medium education (ISCED 3/4)							
	High education (ISCED 5/6)							
Literacy skills for adults (PIAAC)	Mean Literacy Score	Ages 16-64	PIAAC		X			
Low achievers (PIAAC)	Share of low achievers	Ages 16-64	PIAAC		X			
Labor market outcomes								
Employment status	Employment rate	Ages 15-64	EULFS	ACS	MLFS	CLFS	SEW	
	Unemployment rate							
	Participation rate							
Employment status by gender	Employment rate	Ages 15-64	EULFS	ACS	MLFS	CLFS	SEW	
	Unemployment rate							
	Participation rate							
Youth employment	Employment rate	Ages 15-34 and excluding those in education or training	EULFS	ACS	MLFS	CLFS	SEW	
	Unemployment rate							
	Participation Rate							
Employment status by place of birth (EU-28/Non-EU Breakdown)	Employment rate	Ages 15-64. No EU/non-EU distinction for Germany	EULFS, 2013-14					
	Unemployment rate							
	Participation rate							
Employment status by education for recent and settled migrants	Resident duration by labour participation and education	Ages 15-64 and excluding those currently in education or training	EULFS, 2013-14	ACS	X	CLFS	SEW (2015)	
	Resident duration by education	Ages 15-64 and excluding those currently in education or training	EULFS	X	X	X	X	
	Resident duration by labour participation	Ages 15-64 and excluding those currently in education or training	EULFS	X	X	X	X	
Employment status by degree of urbanisation	Employment rate	Ages 15-64	EULFS	CPS	MLFS	X	SEW	
	Unemployment rate							
	Participation rate							
Employment status by educational attainment	Employment rate	Ages 15-64 and excluding those in education or training	EULFS	ACS	MLFS	CLFS	SEW	
	Unemployment rate							
	Participation rate							
Labour sector	Agriculture, industry, and services sector rates	Ages 15-64	EULFS	ACS	MLFS	CLFS	SEW	
	Rate of those unemployed for more than 1 year and those less than 1 year	Ages 15-64	EULFS, 2013-14	CPS	X	X	SEW (2014)	
Duration of unemployment	Rate of those unemployed for more than 1 year and those less than 1 year	Ages 15-64	EULFS, 2013-14	CPS	X	X	SEW (2014)	
	Percent with a permanent job/work contract of unlimited duration	Ages 15+	EUSILC, 2012-2014 for regional estimates, and 2014 for rural/urban estimates	X	X	X	X	
Job quality								
Job skills	Low	Ages 15-64 for employed people only (Ilostat-1)	EULFS	ACS	X	CLFS	SEW	
	Medium							
	High							
Overqualification rate	Foreign born with "high" level of education & in low or medium skilled jobs	Ages 15-64 for employed people only (Ilostat-1)	EULFS	ACS	X	CLFS	SEW	
Housing standards								
Homeownership	Share of population that owns a house	All ages	EUSILC, 2014	X	X	X	X	
Overcrowded dwelling	Percent of adults living in overcrowding conditions	Ages 16+	EUSILC, 2014	X	X	X	X	
Deprived housing conditions	Percent of adults living in deprived housing conditions	Ages 16+	EUSILC, 2014	X	X	X	X	
Economic well-being								
Household disposable income	Equivalised household disposable income (mean and median)	All ages	EUSILC, 2012-2014 for regional estimates, and 2014 for rural/urban estimates	X	X	X	X	
Beliefs toward immigrants								
Attitudes towards immigrants	Allow immigrants into the country	Percent of population that believes immigrants from poorer countries shouldn't be allowed into the country	Ages 15+	ESS, 2008-2013	X	X	X	X
		Percent of population that believes immigrants from different race/ethnic group shouldn't be allowed into the country						
		Percent of population that believes immigrants from same race/ethnic group shouldn't be allowed into the country						
Believe that immigrants contribute positively to the country	Average of belief that immigrants enrich cultural life (from 0 to 10)	Ages 15+	ESS, 2008-2013	X	X	X	X	
	Average of belief that immigrants make country better place to live (from 0 to 10)							
Believe that place of residence is a good place to live for immigrants	Average of belief that immigration is good for country's economy (from 0 to 10)							
	Percent of people that believes their region is a good place to live for immigrants	Ages 15+	Gallup World Poll, 2008-2015	X	X	X	X	

Annex B. List of 72 European municipalities and associations

Count	Country	Name of municipality	Population count	Corresponding region TL2 level
1	AUT	Schwaz	13 688	Tyrol
2	AUT	Vienna	1 840 226	Vienna
3	AUT	Bad-Hofgastein	6 920	Salzburg
4	BEL	Leuven	N/A	Flemish
5	CZE	Brno	377 028	South Moravian Region
6	DEU	Aichach-Friedberg	130 916	Bavaria
7	DEU	Altena	18 715	North Rhine-Westphalia
8	DEU	Amberg-Sulzbach	103 568	Bavaria
9	DEU	Ammerland	121 435	Bavaria
10	DEU	Ansbach	185 653	Bavaria
11	DEU	Bamberg	145 570	Bavaria
12	DEU	Barnim	186 933	Brandenburg
13	DEU	Berlin	3 485 900	Berlin
14	DEU	Burgendlandkreis	184 152	Saxony-Anhalt
15	DEU	Coburg	82 855	Bavaria
16	DEU	Düsseldorf	635 704	North Rhine-Westphalia
17	DEU	Euskirchen	205 855	North Rhine-Westphalia
18	DEU	Freising	173 225	Bavaria
19	DEU	Fürth	128 409	Bavaria
20	DEU	Gifhorn	175 000	Lower Saxony
21	DEU	Grossrosseln	8 651	Saarland
22	DEU	Günzburg	123 153	Bavaria
23	DEU	Region Hannover	1 170 735	Lower Saxony
24	DEU	Harz, Landkreis	220 585	Saxony Anhalt
25	DEU	Karlsruhe	435 841	Baden-Württemberg
26	DEU	Kulmbach	N/A	Bavaria
27	DEU	Landsberg am Lech	117 657	Bavaria
28	DEU	Main-Taunus-Kreis	242 848	Hesse
29	DEU	Munich	1 542 860	Bavaria
30	DEU	Neumarkt, Landkreis	131 000	Bavaria
31	DEU	Neu-Ulm	N/A	Bavaria
32	DEU	Neustadt an der Waldnaab, Landkreis	95 200	Bavaria
33	DEU	Nürnberg	529 407	Bavaria
34	DEU	Nürnbergeger Land	167 000	Bavaria
35	DEU	Regensburg	189 390	Bavaria
36	DEU	Rhön-Grabfeld	79 723	Bavaria
37	DEU	Rosenheim	63 251	Bavaria
38	DEU	Rotenburg, Landkreis	163 253	Lower Saxony
39	DEU	Schwabach	42 453	Bavaria
40	DEU	Solingen	162 272	North Rhine-Westphalia
41	DEU	Uckermark	121 000	Brandenburg
42	DEU	Unterallgäu	140 000	Bavaria
43	ESP	Barcelona	1 610 427	Catalonia
44	ESP	Bilbao	N/A	Basque Country
45	ESP	Donostia/San Sebastian	N/A	Basque Country
46	ESP	EUDEL (Asociación de Municipios)	N/A	N/A

Count	Country	Name of municipality	Population count	Corresponding region TL2 level
		Vascos/Association of Basque Municipalities)		
47	ESP	Laudioa/Llodio	N/A	Basque Country
48	ESP	Portugalete	N/A	Basque Country
49	FIN	Helsinki	628 228	Helsinki-Uusimaa
50	FIN	Tampere	225 118	Western Finland
51	FRA	Paris	2 229 621	Île-de-France
52	GBR	Aberdeenshire	N/A	Scotland
53	GBR	COSLA, Convention of Scottish Local Authorities – association	N/A	N/A
54	GBR	Glasgow	593 245	Scotland
55	GBR	Newport	N/A	Wales
56	GBR	South Lanarkshire	N/A	Scotland
57	GRC	Athens	664 000	Attica
58	ITA	Cerro Maggiore	N/A	Lombardy
59	ITA	Milan	1 368 590	Lombardy
60	ITA	Parma	N/A	Emilia-Romagna
61	ITA	Rome	2 864 731	Lazio
62	LUX	Esch-sur-Alzette	N/A	Luxembourg
63	LUX	Luxembourg	N/A	Luxembourg
64	LUX	SYVICOL (Association of Luxembourg Cities and Municipalities)	N/A	N/A
65	LVA	Latvia (Association of Local and Regional Governments)	N/A	N/A
66	NDL	Amsterdam	834 713	North Holland
67	NDL	Utrecht	338 980	Utrecht
68	ROU	Calarasi	N/A	South East
69	SWE	Gothenborg	548 719	West Sweden
70	TUR	Gaziantep	2 384 244	Southeastern Anatolia
71	TUR	Sultanbeyli	2 382 751	Istanbul
72	TUR	Union of Municipalities of Turkey	N/A	N/A

Source: OECD Case Studies and Ad-hoc Questionnaire.

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Working Together for Local Integration of Migrants and Refugees

Behind every migration statistic, there are individuals or families starting a new life in a new place. Local authorities, in co-ordination with all levels of government and other local partners, play a key role in integrating these newcomers and empowering them to contribute to their new communities. Integration needs to happen where people are: in their workplaces, their neighbourhoods, the schools to which they send their children and the public spaces where they will spend their free time. This report describes what it takes to formulate a place-based approach to integration through concerted efforts across levels of government as well as between state and non-state actors. It draws on both quantitative evidence, from a statistical database, and qualitative evidence from a survey of 72 cities. These include nine large European cities (Amsterdam, Athens, Barcelona, Berlin, Glasgow, Gothenburg, Paris, Rome and Vienna) and one small city in Germany (Altena), which are the subject of in-depth case studies. The report also presents a 12-point checklist, a tool that any city or region – in Europe, the OECD or beyond – can use to work across levels of government and with other local actors in their efforts to promote more effective integration of migrants.

Consult this publication on line at <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/9789264085350-en>.

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