

# **ASSESSING THE INTEGRATION OF VULNERABLE MIGRANT GROUPS IN TEN EU MEMBER STATES**



**CENTER FOR  
THE STUDY OF  
DEMOCRACY**

# ASSESSING THE INTEGRATION OF VULNERABLE MIGRANT GROUPS IN TEN EU MEMBER STATES



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This publication presents the results of a comparative monitoring study of the integration policies and outcomes for third-country-national (TCN) women, TCN children and TCN victims of trafficking in ten EU member states: Austria, Belgium, Bulgaria, Greece, Hungary, Italy, Malta, Poland, Slovakia and Spain. The study produced findings at two levels of analysis: an in-depth assessment of how migrant integration policies and programmes meet the needs of vulnerable migrant groups, and an assessment of their integration outcomes. Drawing on the analysis of these findings, the publication provides recommendations for improving monitoring mechanisms for migrant integration at the national and EU levels and for elaborating policy approaches for better integration of vulnerable migrants.

This publication draws on research conducted by ten teams of researchers from the Center for the Study of Democracy (Bulgaria), the Ludwig Boltzmann Institute of Human Rights (Austria), the Centre for Migration and Intercultural Studies at the University of Antwerp (Belgium), the Hellenic Foundation for European and Foreign Policy (Greece), the Centre for Policy Studies at the Central European University (Hungary), the Centre for Social Studies and Policies (Italy), the People for Change Foundation (Malta), Lazarski University (Poland), People in Need (Slovakia) and Accem (Spain).

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*This publication reflects the views of its authors, and can in no way be taken to reflect the views of the European Commission.*

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## LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

<b>ABGB</b>	Allgemeines Bürgerliches Gesetzbuch [The General Civil Code] (Austria)
<b>AES</b>	Adult Education Survey
<b>AIF</b>	Austrian Integration Fund
<b>AMS</b>	The Public Employment Offices (Lower Austria)
<b>ASA</b>	Agency for Social Assistance (Bulgaria)
<b>ASSESS</b>	Assessing Integration Measures for Vulnerable Migrant Groups
<b>AURORA programme</b>	A programme of the Institute for Women's Empowerment (Spain) for the empowerment and the promotion of women in rural contexts
<b>AVP</b>	All valid permits
<b>BIM</b>	Ludwig Boltzmann Institute of Human Rights (Austria)
<b>BLL</b>	Bulgarian Language and Literature
<b>CARITAS Foundation</b>	Catholic humanitarian organisation
<b>CEDAW</b>	Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination against Women
<b>CeMIS</b>	Centre for Migration and Intercultural Studies, the University of Antwerp (Belgium)
<b>CENSIS</b>	Centre for Social Studies and Policies (Italy)
<b>CEPAIM Foundation</b>	Consortio de Entidades para la Acción Integral con Migrantes [Consortium of Institutions for Comprehensive Action with Migrants] (Spain)
<b>CEU CPS</b>	Centre for Policy Studies, Central European University (Hungary)
<b>CLB</b>	Centrum voor Leerlingenbegeleiding [The Pupil Guidance Centre – a regional authority of Flemish Community] (Belgium)
<b>CPI</b>	Job Centres (Italy)
<b>CPIA</b>	Adult Education Provincial Centres (Austria)
<b>CRC</b>	Convention of the Rights of the Child
<b>CSD</b>	Center for the Study of Democracy (Bulgaria)
<b>CTP</b>	Permanent Territorial Centres (Italy)
<b>DG</b>	Directorate General (European Commission)
<b>DIAPOLIS</b>	A programme for educational integration of foreign children (Greece)
<b>EA</b>	Employment Agency (Bulgaria)
<b>EEA</b>	European Economic Area
<b>EIF</b>	European Fund for the Integration of Third Country Nationals
<b>EKKA</b>	The Greek Center for Social Solidarity
<b>ELIAMEP</b>	Hellenic Foundation for European and Foreign Policy (Greece)

<b>EQUAL</b>	Community Initiative financed by the European Social Funds (ESF), aimed to test and new ways of combating all forms of discrimination and inequality on the labour market.
<b>ESF</b>	European Social Fund
<b>ESN</b>	European Services Network
<b>ETC</b>	Employment and Training Corporation (Malta)
<b>EU</b>	European Union
<b>EU MS</b>	European Union member state
<b>EU-MIDIS</b>	European Union Minorities and Discrimination Survey
<b>EUR</b>	Euro
<b>EURES</b>	A co-operation network between the European Commission and the Public Employment Services of the EEA Member States
<b>EU-SILC</b>	The European Union statistics on income and living conditions
<b>FPS</b>	The Federal Public Service (Belgium)
<b>GRETA</b>	Group of Experts on Action against Trafficking in Human Beings responsible for monitoring implementation of the Council of Europe Convention on Action against Trafficking in Human Beings
<b>IOM</b>	The International Organisation for Migration
<b>ISCED</b>	International Standard Classification of Education developed by UNESCO
<b>ISMU Foundation</b>	Fondazione Iniziative e Studi sulla Multietnicità [Initiatives and Studies on Multi-ethnicity Foundation] (Italy)
<b>LEFÖ-IBF</b>	Lateinamerikanische Emigrierte Frauen in Österreich – Interventionsstelle für Betroffene von Frauenhandel [Latin American Emigrated Women in Austria – Intervention Center for Trafficked Women] (Austria)
<b>LFS</b>	Labour Force Survey
<b>LSA</b>	Learning Support Assistant (Malta)
<b>LTR</b>	Long-term residents
<b>LU</b>	Lazarski University, Poland
<b>MEN VIA</b>	A project of MEN NGO – a health centre for men and boys (Austria)
<b>MHSSE</b>	The Ministry of Health, Social Services and Equality (Spain)
<b>MIC</b>	Migrant Integration Councils (Greece)
<b>MIPEX</b>	Migrant Integration Policy Index
<b>MIUR</b>	The Ministry of Education (Italy)
<b>MPG</b>	Migration Policy Group
<b>NCCTHB</b>	The National Commission for Combating trafficking in Human Beings (Bulgaria)
<b>NGO</b>	Non-governmental organisation
<b>OECD</b>	The Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
<b>ÖIF</b>	The Austrian Integration Fund

<b>OKAN</b>	A separate reception class (Flemish community, Belgium)
<b>PCD</b>	Protection of Children Directorate at the Agency for Social Assistance (Bulgaria)
<b>PfC</b>	The People for Change Foundation (Malta)
<b>PiN</b>	People in Need (Slovakia)
<b>PISA</b>	The OECD Programme for International Student Assessment
<b>RASC</b>	Refugee and Asylum Seeking Children
<b>RWR card</b>	Red-White-Red card (Austria)
<b>SACP</b>	State Agency for Child Protection (Bulgaria)
<b>SAR</b>	State Agency for Refugees (Bulgaria)
<b>SARA programme</b>	A programme, part of a cooperation agreement between the Institute for Women, Spanish Red Cross and the Consortium of Institutions for Comprehensive Action with Migrants (CEPAIM) funded by the Social Fund European Operational Programme (Spain)
<b>SEF</b>	The Employment Regional Service (Spain)
<b>SEPE</b>	Public Service of State Employment (Spain)
<b>SES</b>	socioeconomic status
<b>SILC</b>	Survey on Income and Living Conditions
<b>SIPE</b>	Orientation and Assistance to Unemployed Persons (Spain)
<b>STOP procedure</b>	Unofficial procedure for regularising the residence status reserved for VoTs who have been receiving assistance from a specialised reception centre for at least two years when their case is closed without further action (Belgium)
<b>TÁMOP</b>	Társadalmi Megújulás Operatív Program [Social Renewal Operational Programme] (Hungary)
<b>TCN</b>	third country nationals
<b>UAMs</b>	unaccompanied minors
<b>UN</b>	The United Nations
<b>UN.GIFT</b>	United Nations Global Initiative to Fight Human Trafficking
<b>UNHCR</b>	The United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees/The UN Refugee Agency
<b>UNICEF</b>	The United Nations Children's Fund
<b>VDAB</b>	Flanders and Brussels Capital Region (Belgium)
<b>VoT</b>	victims of trafficking

# INTRODUCTION

Europe's economic prosperity, political stability and adherence to democratic principles and the rule of law make it an attractive destination for migrants from across the globe. Work, education, family unity and international protection constitute some of the lead reasons for migration of third country nationals. In 2012, third country nationals (TCN) made up 4.1% of the EU population, amounting to 20.4 million people.<sup>i</sup> As a result, Europe's societies are becoming ever more diverse and respectively the need to establish conditions for social cohesion at the national level is becoming ever more important.

The significance of integration for fulfilling the potential of migration has been recognised by the EU through several high level initiatives and documents since 1999. This recognition is embodied in the 2011 European Agenda for the Integration of Third Country Nationals as well as the 3rd Annual Report on Immigration and Asylum 2011 published in 2012. It is also reflected in the legal foundation provided by the Lisbon Treaty (Article 79.4 TFEU), the range of measures and initiatives set out by the Union and the inclusion of integration as a requirement in various other policy areas, including the European Employment Strategy and the European Social Inclusion Strategy. Subsequent Ministerial Conferences on Integration have also acknowledged the importance of successful integration measures.

Despite measures and policy objectives aimed at ensuring to TCN rights and obligations comparable to those of EU nationals, third country nationals continue to face various challenges to their integration, including in employment, education and social inclusion. The recent economic crisis exacerbated the gaps between TCN and host communities. This reality is evidenced by the Eurostat analysis of EU comparable migration-related statistics, which shows that migrants in the EU appear more vulnerable with respect to members of the host societies of the member states.<sup>ii</sup> Figures show that the most significant gaps with native populations include: a lower employment rate for migrants, especially migrant women; rising unemployment and high levels of over-qualification; increasing risks of social exclusion; gaps in educational achievement. People born outside the EU tend to have fewer employment opportunities than those born within the EU and they often face cultural and linguistic barriers to working. They also face more obstacles in the labour market than people moving between member states.<sup>iii</sup> While indicative of the current integration trends for TCN in the EU, the present EU level mechanisms for monitoring integration do not adequately reflect the heterogeneity of immigrant

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<sup>i</sup> Eurostat, Migration and migrant population statistics, May 2014, available at: [http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/statistics-explained/index.php/Migration\\_and\\_migrant\\_population\\_statistics](http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/statistics-explained/index.php/Migration_and_migrant_population_statistics)

<sup>ii</sup> Eurostat. *Indicators of Immigrant Integration. A Pilot Study*. Luxembourg: European Commission, 2011.

<sup>iii</sup> Eurostat, Migrant integration statistics – overview, February 2014, available at: [http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/statistics-explained/index.php/Migrant\\_integration\\_statistics\\_-\\_overview](http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/statistics-explained/index.php/Migrant_integration_statistics_-_overview)

groups and more particularly those that may often become vulnerable, such as TCN women, TCN children and TCN victims of trafficking.

In recognition of the importance of monitoring the integration of vulnerable migrant groups, the Center for the Study of Democracy conducted a comparative study of the integration of TCN women, TCN children and TCN victims of trafficking.<sup>iv</sup> The study aimed to address a gap in the analysis and evaluation of integration measures, which have mostly adopted a generic approach. It was carried out in ten EU member states that represent Europe's different migration patterns and experiences in dealing with migration and integration issues. Those states were Austria, Belgium, Greece, Italy and Spain as older member states with considerable immigrant inflows and Bulgaria, Hungary, Malta, Poland and Slovakia as more recent member states with smaller immigrant communities and evolving immigration patterns and regimes.

The comparative study was conducted between January 2014 and March 2015 in two stages each grounded in a particular methodology. In the first stage, an assessment was carried out of the measures to monitor and evaluate migrant integration policies and practices (and their results) in the ten participating countries. Special attention was given to the monitoring of the integration of vulnerable categories of migrants with a focus on women, children and trafficked persons. National research placed the findings about the monitoring mechanisms in the area of migrant integration in the context of the overall policy approach to migrant integration and analysis of the understanding of successful migrant integration into the host society, including the integration of vulnerable migrant groups. In the second stage, a two level assessment was carried out of the integration of TCN women, TCN children and TCN victims of trafficking, which involved review of the existing integration policies and measures followed by review of the integration outcomes for each of the three groups.

This publication presents the results of the second stage of this research. It includes the methodology which guided the ten national studies of the integration of vulnerable migrants and a comparative report discussing and analysing the results presented in ten national reports for Austria, Belgium, Bulgaria, Greece, Hungary, Italy, Malta, Poland, Slovakia and Spain. The country reports provided comparable empirical data, which informed an identification of typologies and comparisons of the integration of vulnerable migrants and a cross-national analysis of strengths and weaknesses of policy formulation and implementation in this field. The analysis of the first and the second stages of this comparative study was used in the drafting of recommendations for the improvement of integration policy for vulnerable migrants as well as of monitoring mechanisms at the national and EU levels.

National studies, together with all attendant outputs of this comparative research are available on the internet in English at:  
[www.assess-migrantintegration.eu](http://www.assess-migrantintegration.eu).

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<sup>iv</sup> The comparative research was conducted in the framework of the project *Assessing Integration Measures for Vulnerable Migrant Groups (ASSESS)*, funded by DG Home, European Fund for the Integration of Third Country Nationals and conducted between 1 November 2014 and 31 May 2015.

# METHODOLOGY FOR MONITORING THE INTEGRATION OF VULNERABLE MIGRANTS

## 1. SCOPE AND PURPOSE

The present methodology is intended to instruct a comparative study of the integration measures of three vulnerable migrant groups – women, children and victims of trafficking.<sup>1</sup> The study identifies the strengths and weaknesses in the application of the Common Basic Principles on Migrant Integration with respect to vulnerable migrant groups.

The methodology is based on common EU guidelines and principles in the area of integration which include: the Common Basic Principles on Migrant Integration; the European Modules on Migrant Integration; the Handbooks for Integration for Policy Makers and Practitioners; the MIPEX index developed by the British Council and the Migration Policy Group. It draws upon the recently identified common European indicators on migrant integration in four areas of relevance for integration (employment, education, social inclusion and active citizenship) and builds on relevant international standards for the rights of women, children and trafficked persons.

Taking into account previous EU level initiatives for the establishment of comparable EU indicators for monitoring the integration of migrants, this methodology is a guide for an in-depth assessment that focuses on the needs of vulnerable migrant groups – women, children and victims of trafficking (VoT). Specifically, the methodology provides guidance in:

- Assessing migrant integration policies and programmes in terms of how they meet the needs of vulnerable migrant groups (women, children and VoT);
- Assessing migrant integration outcomes for migrant vulnerable groups (women, children and VoT) in line with measurable indicators.

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<sup>1</sup> A discussion of vulnerability and the factors that make the three target groups of this methodology vulnerable is provided in section 2 below.

## 2. CONTEXTUALISING THE METHODOLOGY

### 2.1. Conceptualising vulnerability

Conceptualisations of vulnerability have been developed predominantly in relation to environmental studies and research on human response, vulnerability or resilience to natural hazards or disasters. Studies of social vulnerability are to be found mainly in risk management literature because social vulnerability becomes most apparent when calamity occurs.<sup>2</sup> In studies of this kind social vulnerability refers to the inability of people, organisations, and societies to withstand adverse impacts from multiple stressors to which they are exposed.

There is no universal or common definition of vulnerability in general or of social vulnerability in particular. Social vulnerability is understood to stem from social inequalities – those social factors which influence the susceptibility of various groups to harm and which also govern their ability to respond.<sup>3</sup> According to the social protection and social inclusion glossary of DG Employment, Social Affairs and Inclusion<sup>4</sup> vulnerable groups are those groups that experience a higher risk of poverty and social exclusion than the general population. Ethnic minorities, migrants, disabled people, the homeless, those struggling with substance abuse, isolated elderly people and children often face difficulties that can lead to further social exclusion, such as low levels of education, unemployment or underemployment. According to Hans-Martin Fussel<sup>5</sup> the political economy approach which prevails in the poverty and development literature focuses the analysis on people, inquiring who is most vulnerable and why. In this tradition, some authors define vulnerability as “the state of individuals, groups or communities in terms of their ability to cope with and adapt to any external stress placed on their livelihoods and well-being. It is determined by the availability of resources and, crucially, by the entitlement of individuals and groups to call on these resources.”<sup>6</sup> In relation to employment, the concept of vulnerable groups denotes the risk of marginalisation from the labour market and social exclusion. People who are to be regarded as vulnerable include the long-term unemployed, those who are inactive but not registered as unemployed and workers who are in some form of employment but are at a high risk of losing their jobs. In the light of this discussion vulnerability is to be viewed not as a static,

<sup>2</sup> Peacock, W. G. and A. K. Ragsdale. “Social systems, ecological networks and disasters: Toward a socio-political ecology of disasters.” In *Hurricane Andrew: Ethnicity, Gender and the Sociology of Disasters*, edited by W. G. Peacock, B. H. Morrow and J. Gladwin. New York, NY: Routledge, 1997; Anderson, M. B. and P. J. Woodrow. *Rising from the Ashes: Development Strategies in Times of Disaster*. London: IT Publications, 1998; Alwang, J., P. B. Siegel, et al. “Vulnerability: a view from different disciplines.” *Social Protection Discussion Paper Series No. 0115*. Washington, D.C.: The World Bank, 2001; Conway, T. and A. Norton (eds). “Poverty, Risk and Rights: New Directions in Social Protection,” *Development Policy Review* 20, Special Issue 5 (2002).

<sup>3</sup> Cutter, S., B. J. Boruff and W. Lynn Shirley. “Social Vulnerability to Environmental Hazards”, *Social Science Quarterly* 84, no. 2, (2003): 242-261, p. 243.

<sup>4</sup> [http://ec.europa.eu/employment\\_social/spsi/vulnerable\\_groups\\_en.htm](http://ec.europa.eu/employment_social/spsi/vulnerable_groups_en.htm)

<sup>5</sup> Fussel, H.-M. R.J.T. Klein. “Climate Change Vulnerability Assessments: An Evolution of Conceptual Thinking,” *Climatic Change* 75, (2006): 301-329.

<sup>6</sup> W. Neil Adger and P. Mick Kelly, Social Vulnerability to Climate Change and the Architecture of Entitlements, *Mitigation and Adaptation Strategies for Global Change*, Volume 4, Issue 3-4, (1999): 253-266, p. 253.

absolute state, but one that changes according to context as well as to the capacity for individual response.<sup>7</sup>

## 2.2. Factors and sources of vulnerability

There is a general consensus within the social science community about some of the major factors that influence social vulnerability, which include:

- lack of access to resources (including information, knowledge, and technology);
- limited access to political power and representation;
- social capital, including social networks and connections;
- beliefs and customs;
- building stock and age;
- frail and physically limited individuals;
- type and density of infrastructure and lifelines.

Conditions of vulnerability are usually the results of political, social, cultural or economic practices and policies that fail to ensure equal access and protection to all members of a society. The generally accepted characteristics that influence social vulnerability include age, gender, race/ethnicity, and socioeconomic status. “Vulnerability may be ‘turned on’ among individuals and communities that lack the normal social safety nets necessary in a recovery from disaster, such as the physically or mentally challenged, non-English speaking immigrants, the homeless, transients, and seasonal tourists. The quality of human settlements (housing type and construction, infrastructure, and lifelines) and the built environment are also important in understanding social vulnerability, especially as these characteristics influence potential economic losses, injuries, and fatalities from natural hazards.”<sup>8</sup>

According to Mechanic and Tanner vulnerability results from an interaction between the resources available to individuals and communities and the life challenges they face. He claims that vulnerability involves several interrelated dimensions:

- individual capacities and actions;
- the availability or lack of intimate and instrumental support;
- neighbourhood and community resources that may facilitate or hinder personal coping and interpersonal relationships.

Vulnerability can be identified as being:

- among people (by age, sex, and race/ethnicity);
- within interpersonal relationships (by family structure, marital status, and social networks);
- by access to neighbourhood resources (such as schools, jobs, income, and housing).<sup>9</sup>

<sup>7</sup> UN.GIFT. *An Introduction to Human Trafficking: Vulnerability, Impact and Action*, UN-New York, 2008, p. 69.

<sup>8</sup> Cutter, S., B. J. Boruff and W. Lynn Shirley. “Social Vulnerability to Environmental Hazards,” *Social Science Quarterly* 84, no. 2, (2003): 242-261, p. 249.

<sup>9</sup> Mechanic, D., and J. Tanner. “Vulnerable People, Groups, and Populations: Societal View,” *Health Affairs*, 26, No. 5 (2007): 1220-1230, p. 1221.

Mechanic and Tanner identify a number of sources of vulnerability which are interrelated:<sup>10</sup> poverty and race, poor socioeconomic status, low educational attainment, social networks and lack of social support and personal limitations often appear mutually reinforcing and leading to vulnerabilities at both the individual and group level. Discussion of vulnerability inevitably involves poverty and related issues of stigma and discrimination. Low income and education from early life and often over the life course, is associated with a wide range of vulnerabilities. Poor socioeconomic status (SES), for example, is linked to deficiencies in prenatal and early nutrition which in turn leads to lower educational achievement, lower SES in later life, and higher health problems and mortality compared with children who received proper nutrition. “Low income and low educational attainment have many consequences, affecting knowledge, employment possibilities, housing, nutrition, access to medical care, and much more.”<sup>11</sup> Social vulnerabilities associated with low SES are also commonly linked to racial and ethnic residential separation in communities with poor schools, deficient community institutions, and inferior health-enhancing environments. The poorest residential areas are commonly characterised by noise, heavy traffic, pollution, crime and victimisation, high density of liquor outlets and easy access to illegal drugs. Poor and minority children growing up in such environments are vulnerable. “Many people in impoverished communities, and in much less deprived communities as well, are often vulnerable because of their precarious ties to social networks and lack of social support. Such networks provide both emotional and practical help in dealing with stressors and often make the difference between successful and inadequate coping.”<sup>12</sup>

It is important to stress that “the likelihood that vulnerability will be ‘turned on’ and make adversity probable depends on the intensity of the stressors experienced and the resources available to manage them.”<sup>13</sup>

### 2.3. Vulnerability in migration

Eurostat analysis of EU comparable migration-related statistics reveals that migrants in the EU<sup>14</sup> appear more vulnerable with respect to members of the host societies of the member states. Figures show that the most significant gaps with native populations include: low employment levels of migrants, especially migrant women; rising unemployment and high levels of “over-qualification;” increasing risks of social exclusion; and gaps in educational achievement.

People born outside the EU tend to have fewer employment opportunities than those born within the EU and they often face cultural and linguistic

<sup>10</sup> Ibid., p. 1223-1226.

<sup>11</sup> Ibid., p. 1223.

<sup>12</sup> Ibid., p. 1224.

<sup>13</sup> Ibid., p. 1222.

<sup>14</sup> A breakdown of the EU population by citizenship in 2011 showed that there were 33.3 million foreigners living in the EU-27 member states (6.6% of the total population). Of those, 12.8 million were EU-27 nationals living in another member state and 20.5 million were citizens from a non-EU-27 country (4% of the total population) (Eurostat. “Nearly two-thirds of the foreigners living in EU Member States are citizens of countries outside the EU-27,” *Statistics in Focus. Population and Social Conditions*, 31/2012).

barriers to working. They also face more obstacles on the labour market than people moving between member states. In 2009, the average employment rate of those born outside the EU aged 20-64 was 6.7 percentage points lower than that of those born inside the EU. The gap has widened fast during the crisis (4.7 in 2008). For third-country nationals (TCN) aged 20-64 the employment level was 11.4 percentage points lower than that of EU nationals in 2009.<sup>15</sup>

The unemployment rate of foreign born persons in the age group 20-64 in the EU is much higher than the unemployment rate of the total population (14% compared to 9%). The effect is particularly noticeable for foreign born persons from outside of the EU for whom the unemployment rate is 16%. In the prime working ages 25-54, the unemployment rates of foreign born men as well as women are identical and are 6% higher than the unemployment rates of their counterparts in the total population. Again, the unemployment rates of foreign born men and women from outside the EU are particularly high in comparison with the unemployment rates of all men and women in this age group (8% higher for men and 7% higher for women).<sup>16</sup>

There are marked differences in the over-qualification rates between foreign born TCN and the native born population (for the employed population aged 25–54). These differences account for 16% in men (19% native born men and 35% foreign born TCN) and 19% in women (19% for native born and 38% for foreign born TCN women).<sup>17</sup>

Statistics on employment, education, social inclusion and citizenship (along with the Zaragoza indicators) reveal larger gaps between the social inclusion and achievement for migrant women and children, on the one hand, and male migrants, on the other, as well as in comparison with the respective cohorts of the host population.<sup>18</sup> These differences are indicative of the specific vulnerability of these two groups of migrants (women and children).

#### *Vulnerabilities of migrant women*

Migrant women are not a homogeneous group. Depending on various circumstances such as educational and social background, marital status, nationality, having children, some migrant women can suffer to a various extent from exclusion and lack of equal opportunities in the countries of destination. General gender discrimination and the resultant weaker position of women in many societies are often the root causes of women migrants' greater vulnerability at all stages of the migration process. Given that the existing international instruments targeting migrants lack gender-specific clauses and have had low levels of ratification, we need to draw on the provisions of women's rights frameworks. These have

<sup>15</sup> EU LFS, <http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/web/lfs/data/database>

<sup>16</sup> Eurostat. *Migrants in Europe. A Statistical Portrait of the First and the Second Generation*, Luxembourg Publications office of the European Union, 2011, p. 45.

<sup>17</sup> Eurostat. *Migrants in Europe. A Statistical Portrait of the First and the Second Generation*, p. 51.

<sup>18</sup> Eurostat. *Indicators of Immigrant Integration. A Pilot Study*. Luxembourg – European Commission, 2011; Eurostat. *Migrants in Europe. A Statistical Portrait of the First and the Second Generation*.

achieved wider ratification than the *International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Members of Their Families*. These women's rights frameworks – such as the Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) and the Beijing Platform for Action – recognise that it is imbalances of power between women and men (at household, community, national and international levels) that lead to discrimination against women and that these need to be redressed in order for women to have equality of life outcomes (which includes the ability to have a real choice in migration decisions, to have safe passage, and to have access to services and equal rights in the country of destination).

The weaker and more vulnerable position of migrant women especially in the labour markets of host states is demonstrated in recent analysis of statistical data collected under the Zaragoza indicators.<sup>19</sup> These statistics show that foreign-born women and mothers are among the most vulnerable groups, in particular those born in non-EU countries.<sup>20</sup>

In 2008, the activity rate of non-EU 27 born population was the same with native-born population for men (91% and 92%) but was significantly lower for women (78% for native born women as compared to 67% for TCN women). Among the foreign born who declared family reasons as their main reason for migration, men had an activity rate of 91% while women had an activity rate of only 58%. The activity rate among persons who migrated to seek international protection was 84% for men and 61% for women.<sup>21</sup> Activity rates among foreign born and native women without children are similar (79% and 81% respectively) but they diverge for women with one child (78% for native-born women and 69% for foreign born women).<sup>22</sup>

In 2009, the lower activity rate of foreign born women in the prime working ages 25-54 (in comparison to all women of this age group) is noticeable in many member states. In ten member states (Belgium, Bulgaria, Denmark, Germany, France, the Netherlands, Austria, Slovenia, Finland and Sweden) the activity rate of foreign born women aged 25-54 is more than 10% lower than the activity rate of all women in the same age group. The gaps are even more pronounced for women born outside the EU. Similar overall results apply to the analysis by citizenship. The highest gaps concern female third country nationals in the age group 25-54, whose activity rate in the EU is 14% lower than the activity rate of all women in this age group.<sup>23</sup>

There is a divergence of 16% in the employment rates of foreign born (non-EU-27) and native born women in the prime working ages 25-54 (58% and 74% respectively). The difference on the same indicator

<sup>19</sup> Described in more detail in the following section.

<sup>20</sup> Huddleston, T., J. Niessen and J. D. Tjaden, *Using EU Indicators of Immigrant Integration*, Final Report for Directorate-General for Home Affairs. Brussels: European Services Network and Migration Policy Group, 2013, p. 5.

<sup>21</sup> Eurostat. *Migrants in Europe. A Statistical Portrait of the First and the Second Generation*, p. 35.

<sup>22</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 36.

<sup>23</sup> Eurostat. *Indicators of Immigrant Integration. A Pilot Study*.

with regard to men is only 3% (87% for native-born and 81% for foreign born TCN).<sup>24</sup> Differences in the employment status of immigrants according to gender are demonstrated also in the results of the EU Minorities Discrimination Survey (MIDIS).<sup>25</sup> The group of respondents who are “homemakers” or in “unpaid work” is predominantly composed of women – 21% of women fall into this category compared to 1% of men. The employment rate of North African TCN women in Italy is only half that of men.<sup>26</sup> The EU MIDIS report identifies relatively high rates of gender based discrimination among some groups of third country nationals. This is the case with Sub-Saharan Africans in France (43%) or in Portugal (34%), Somalis in Sweden (30%), North Africans in Italy (52%), Belgium (34%) and France (33%).<sup>27</sup>

#### *Vulnerabilities of child migrants*

Child migrants are not a homogeneous group. The core distinction in the types of international child migration is between accompanied and unaccompanied child migrants.

In destination countries, migrant children become vulnerable to a range of rights violations through the intersection of three sets of factors:

- the destination country’s immigration regime;
- the poor economic situation and labour market position of child migrants and/or their parents/careers;
- racism, xenophobia and other forms of discrimination against particular groups of migrants.<sup>28</sup>

Children who migrate without their parents or another carer are especially vulnerable to exploitation, coercion, deception, and violence, particularly if they are below the minimum age of employment, cross a border illegally and do not speak the local language. At destination, most unaccompanied children work in the informal economy where they are more likely to be exploited. It is particularly difficult for children to access housing and services (including financial ones) without the mediation of an adult. Without adult guardians, children must rely on informal avenues and often end up in the informal economy where monitoring of working conditions may be absent, exploitation commonplace and social protection weak or fragmented.<sup>29</sup>

Recent analysis of statistical data collected under the Zaragoza indicators demonstrates that employment and education outcomes of migrants still largely depend on the socio-economic status of parents. Immigrant children

<sup>24</sup> Eurostat. *Migrants in Europe. A Statistical Portrait of the First and the Second Generation*, p. 45.

<sup>25</sup> European Union Agency for Fundamental Rights. *European Union Minorities and Discrimination Survey, Main Results Report*, 2009.

<sup>26</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 42.

<sup>27</sup> *Ibid.*, pp. 84, 136.

<sup>28</sup> O’Connell Davidson, J., and C. Farrow. *Child Migration and the Construction of Vulnerability, Save the Children Sweden*, 2007, p. 11.

<sup>29</sup> van de Glind, H., *Migration and child labour. Exploring child migrant vulnerabilities and those of children left-behind*. Working paper, International Labour Organization, 2010, p. 10-11.

are more likely to be concentrated in lower track, low-performing schools with a low average socio-economic status. Children of immigrants with low economic status face much greater difficulties advancing into higher education.<sup>30</sup> Better quality primary education and care is associated with better education outcomes for immigrants at the age of 15. Access and quality of early education can have an impact on immigrants' long-term education careers.<sup>31</sup>

The analysis of data collected under the Zaragoza indicators demonstrates that young people with a migrant background are generally at greater risk of exiting the education and training system without having obtained an upper secondary qualification. At the European Union level, the share of foreign-born early school leavers aged 18-24 is higher than the share of early school leavers aged 18-24 of all population.<sup>32</sup>

#### *Vulnerabilities of victims of trafficking*

There is no broadly accepted definition of the terms "vulnerable" and "vulnerability" in relation to trafficking. In much of the literature on trafficking, the terms "vulnerable" and "poor" have been used synonymously, and poverty is often cited as a leading cause of trafficking. The term vulnerability occurs three times in the Palermo Trafficking Protocol where the "reference to the abuse of a position of vulnerability is understood to refer to any situation in which the person involved has no real and acceptable alternative but to submit to the abuse involved. On the basis of this note, it is possible to state that the individuals most vulnerable to harm are those with the fewest alternatives."<sup>33</sup>

Vulnerability of trafficked victims in the process of their (re-)integration into society may be "turned on" by various factors such as: lack of personal and social resources, lack of social networks, immigration status, security concerns, lack of skills that are in demand in the labour markets of destination or origin countries, or social exclusion. Socially excluded groups suffer discrimination in education, employment, access to social services, including health care, access to resources (especially in times of natural disasters) and lack of a political voice. Such groups could be marginalised according to complex factors, including ethnic, linguistic and religious differences, low social status and involuntary minority status. Social exclusion prevents groups from receiving benefits and protections that are intended for all citizens. Their economic mobility is usually affected and they are excluded from mainstream activities such as education and employment. Social exclusion can be the result of state policies as well as cultural traditions and practices.

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<sup>30</sup> Huddleston, T., J. Niessen and J. D. Tjaden, *Using EU Indicators of Immigrant Integration*, p. 5.

<sup>31</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 6.

<sup>32</sup> Eurostat. *Indicators of Immigrant Integration. A Pilot Study*, p. 23.

<sup>33</sup> UN.GIFT. *An Introduction to Human Trafficking: Vulnerability, Impact and Action*, p. 69.

## 2.4. The EU indicators on migrant integration

This methodology provides a comprehensive instrument for comparable analysis of the integration of vulnerable groups of migrants in the EU, in particular women, children and victims of trafficking. The methodology builds on indicators for the measurement of migrant integration that have already been developed at the EU level.

The 2009 Stockholm Programme called for the development of core indicators in a limited number of relevant policy areas for monitoring the results of integration policies in order to increase the comparability of national experiences and reinforce the European learning process. In 2010, the Zaragoza Declaration was adopted by EU ministers responsible for immigrant issues, and approved at the Justice and Home Affairs Council on 3-4 June 2010. The Zaragoza Declaration defined a set of indicators of immigrant integration in four policy areas based on high quality international data collection aiming to foster comparative assessment of immigrant integration across the EU.

TABLE 1. ZARAGOZA INDICATORS ON MIGRANT INTEGRATION

Policy area	Core indicators
Employment	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Employment rate</li> <li>• Unemployment rate</li> <li>• Activity rate</li> </ul>
Education	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Highest educational attainment</li> <li>• Low achievers</li> <li>• Tertiary attainment</li> <li>• Early school leaving</li> </ul>
Social inclusion	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Income</li> <li>• At risk of poverty</li> <li>• Self-reported health status</li> <li>• Property ownership</li> </ul>
Active citizenship	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Naturalisation rate</li> <li>• Long-term residence</li> <li>• Elected representatives</li> </ul>

Source: Zaragoza Declaration, 2010.

The Zaragoza Declaration pointed to some additional areas and indicators of development which most or all EU member states consider important to monitor (although comparable data are currently lacking). They include the share of employees who are overqualified for their jobs, self-employment, language skills, experiences of discrimination, trust in public institutions, voter turnout among the population entitled to vote, and sense of belonging.

Following the Zaragoza Declaration, Eurostat published the results of a pilot study in 2011<sup>34</sup> which showed that many EU member states need to develop their statistical monitoring in order to build firm statistical infrastructure in the area of migrant integration

at EU level. Following the results of the pilot study and at the request of the European Commission, the Migration Policy Group (MPG) and the European Services Network (ESN) conducted a review of available internationally comparable data banks and proposed additional set of immigrant integration indicators.<sup>35</sup>

<sup>34</sup> Eurostat. *Indicators of Immigrant Integration. A Pilot Study.*

<sup>35</sup> Huddleston, T., J. Niessen and J. D. Tjaden, *Using EU Indicators of Immigrant Integration.*

TABLE 2. ADDITIONAL EU IMMIGRANT INTEGRATION INDICATORS

Policy area	Indicators
<b>Employment</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Public sector employment</li> <li>• Temporary employment</li> <li>• Part-time employment</li> <li>• Long-term employment</li> <li>• Share of foreign diplomas recognized (survey)</li> <li>• Retention of international students (research)</li> </ul>
<b>Education</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Participation in early childhood education (SILC/PISA)</li> <li>• Participation in lifelong learning (LFS, AES)</li> <li>• Not in education, employment or training (LFS)</li> <li>• Resilient students (PISA)</li> <li>• Concentration in low performing schools (PISA)</li> </ul>
<b>Social inclusion</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Child poverty (SILC)</li> <li>• Self-reported unmet need for medical care (SILC)</li> <li>• Life expectancy (SILC)</li> <li>• Healthy life years (SILC)</li> <li>• Housing cost overburden (SILC)</li> <li>• Overcrowding (SILC)</li> <li>• In-work poverty risk (SILC)</li> <li>• Persistent poverty risk (SILC)</li> </ul>
<b>Active citizenship</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Participation in voluntary organizations (survey)</li> <li>• Membership in trade unions (survey)</li> <li>• Political activity (survey)</li> </ul>
<b>Welcoming society</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Perceived experience of discrimination (survey)</li> <li>• Trust in public institutions (survey)</li> <li>• Sense of belonging (survey)</li> <li>• Public perception of racial/ethnic discrimination (Eurobarometer)</li> <li>• Public attitudes to political leader with ethnic minority background (Eurobarometer)</li> </ul>

Source: Huddleston, T., J. Niessen and J. D. Tjaden, Using EU Indicators of Immigrant Integration.

The Migrant Integration Policy Index (MIPEX) measures integration policies in the European Union and some other countries. There are 148 policy indicators on migrant integration in the MIPEX grouped into seven policy areas (labour market mobility, family reunion, education, political participation, long-term residence, access to nationality and anti-discrimination) and in 31 countries. The index has been designed to benchmark current laws and policies that promote integration across the EU. The philosophy behind the index is that the government plays

a vital role in the process of migrant integration as it sets the legal and political framework within which other aspects of integration occur. Governments need to remove obstacles and achieve equal outcomes and equal membership by investing in the active participation of all, the exercise of comparable rights and responsibilities and the acquisition of intercultural competences. This policy index allows governmental or research bodies to monitor to what extent countries succeed or fall behind in providing equal rights, responsibilities and opportunities to migrants.

### 3. MONITORING THE INTEGRATION OF VULNERABLE MIGRANTS

Monitoring is a process of measurement and assessment of performance intended to inform a more effective management of the outcomes and outputs in a particular field or of a particular project, programme or policy. Performance in this context is defined as progress towards and achievement of results.

There are essentially two types of monitoring:

- Process monitoring which documents policies and activities (the output);
- Impact monitoring which documents the results of policy implementation and activities (the outcome).

#### 3.1. Structure of monitoring the integration of vulnerable migrants

The key question that this methodology asks is how the migrant integration policies and programmes in EU member states meet the specific integration needs of three vulnerable migrant groups: migrant women, child migrants and victims of trafficking. In addition the methodology provides guidance on how to assess the outcomes of the integration of the three groups into the host society. There are two levels of analysis which are structured in a number of integration areas highly relevant for each group (where the integration needs and the vulnerability of each group intersect). The assessment of the integration of each of the three target groups is grounded in relevant indicators for each area of integration. The proposed set of criteria and indicators take into consideration the Common Basic Principles for immigrant integration policy in the European Union as well as international standards for the protection of the rights of each target group.

##### *Assessment of integration policies*

This level of assessment focuses on evaluating the general national framework for integration of migrants and in particular for the integration of migrant women, migrant children and victims of trafficking. This framework is usually presented in migrant integration or migration management strategies and respective annual plans of action. The specific needs of migrant women, migrant children and victims of trafficking are

often taken care of by child welfare and child protection institutions, social assistance institutions, gender equality and special anti-trafficking bodies with their respective policy documents and legislative frameworks. In addition, the integration of each of the three vulnerable migrant groups is likely to be treated by the policy frameworks of institutions responsible for education policy, labour market policy, social inclusion policy, health-care policy, active citizenship policy, anti-discrimination policy, etc. Policy strategies and action plans in any of the mentioned fields must delineate multilaterally agreed objectives, priorities for action, activities to be undertaken, as well as the necessary resources and the respective responsibility of each agency concerned. In addition, the applicable legislation must outline the conditions of access and participation of third country nationals (women, children and victims of trafficking) in any of the areas of integration discussed in this methodology.

This level of assessment relies on three general criteria that include:

- Empowerment and participation of immigrants in the formulation of integration policies and measures (defined in the Common Basic Principles of Immigrant Integration);
- Human rights based approach;
- Mainstreaming migrant integration, i.e. incorporating immigrant integration policies and provisions in all relevant areas and levels of government and public services.

#### *Assessment of integration outcomes*

This level of assessment focuses on collecting quantitative (statistical) data about the levels of integration of each of the three vulnerable migrant groups. The assessment of the integration outcomes of migrant women, children and victims of trafficking will be conducted with respect to the following reference groups: migrant women to migrant men; migrant women to women in total population (native women); migrant children to children in total population (native children). The outcome indicators provided in this methodology correlate to the spheres of policy assessment offered for each of the three vulnerable migrant groups. These indicators are selected and designed based on the existing work conducted to this date at the EU level: the Zaragoza indicators, additional immigrant integration indicators proposed by MPG and ESN, the MIPEX policy indicators and the currently developed MIPEX outcome indicators as well as the EU Active Citizenship Composite Indicator (ACCI). The indicators also rely on the review of the existing national monitoring systems of immigrant integration in the ten studied EU member states and more particularly on the national immigrant integration indexes developed in Austria and Belgium.

The outcomes of integration policies would also be assessed based on the data collected through qualitative expert interviews.<sup>36</sup>

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<sup>36</sup> Questionnaires for these interviews are provided in Annex II to this publication.

### *Assessment background*

In order to provide a background for the assessment of the integration of migrant women, children and VoT detailed information is required about the profiles of each of the three vulnerable migrant groups. This includes a statistical overview of:

- the number of TCN women residing in the country by country of origin, age, residence status and by marital status, educational level and number of children;
- the number of TCN children residing in the country by country of origin, gender and age;
- statistical overview of the number of TCN victims of trafficking in the country by citizenship, gender and age, as well as by form of exploitation (by gender).<sup>37</sup>

## **3.2. Assessing the integration of migrant women**

CEDAW affirms women's rights to non-discrimination in education, employment and economic and social activities.<sup>38</sup> Cultural patterns which define the public realm as a man's world and the domestic sphere as women's domain are strongly targeted in all the CEDAW provisions which affirm the equal responsibilities of both sexes in family life and their equal rights with regard to education and employment. According to the Convention national governments should ensure the equal rights of men and women to participate in the political, social, economic and cultural life of their countries.

### **3.2.1. Policy level**

This level of the analysis should start with an overview of the overall framework for integration of TCN women, the presence of gender equality and anti-discrimination policies and programmes in the relevant migration integration documents as well as the extent to which the integration of migrant women is mainstreamed in respective national policies in the fields of employment, education, social inclusion, active citizenship and anti-discrimination.

#### *Employment*

Employment is central to the successful integration of immigrants and it is an important way to participate in the host society. According to Article 11 of CEDAW, national governments should take all appropriate measures to eliminate discrimination against women in the field of employment in order to ensure, on the basis of equality of men and women, the same rights, in particular: the right to work as an inalienable right of all human beings; the right to the same employment opportunities, including the application of the same criteria for selection in matters of

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<sup>37</sup> This will not be required for the countries where only few or no foreign victims of trafficking are identified.

<sup>38</sup> Articles 10, 11, and 13 of CEDAW.

employment; the right to free choice of profession and employment, the right to promotion, job security and all benefits and conditions of service and the right to receive vocational training and retraining, including apprenticeships, advanced vocational training and recurrent training; the right to equal remuneration, including benefits, and to equal treatment in respect of work of equal value, as well as equality of treatment in the evaluation of the quality of work; the right to social security, particularly in cases of retirement, unemployment, sickness, disability and old age and other incapacity to work, as well as the right to paid leave; the right to protection of health and to safety in working conditions, including the safeguarding of the function of reproduction.

The analysis of the policies and programmes for access to and integration in the labour market of TCN women should cover the following questions:

- What are the conditions and policies facilitating the **access to the labour market** of TCN women? What categories of third country nationals (long-term residents; permanent residents;<sup>39</sup> short-term residents; residents on temporary work permits; residents on family reunion permits) have equal access to:
  - employment as nationals;
  - self-employment as nationals;
  - public sector employment<sup>40</sup> as nationals?

If this is not the case for any of the three (employment, self-employment and public sector employment), what are the differences? Are there any specific legal or policy provisions for the facilitation of labour market access for TCN women? What are they?

- What are the **job orientation and job placement policies** and programmes that TCN women could benefit from? Do TCN women have the same access to mainstream job orientation and job placement schemes as the native female workforce? What are these schemes? Are TCN women entitled to tailored schemes that are tuned to their particular needs? What are these schemes? Is job orientation assistance to TCN women provided in their mother tongue or in the host country language only? Is training required and is training conducted of public employment service staff on the specific needs of migrants, including the specific needs of migrant women?
- Do working TCN women have **access to targeted childcare**? What conditions must TCN women meet in order to apply for and receive targeted childcare? Is the childcare to which working TCN women are entitled the same as that to which native working women are entitled?
- What are the national procedures for **recognising professional qualifications** acquired outside the EU? Are these procedures the same for TCN and EU nationals? If not, how do they differ? Is

<sup>39</sup> Member states have different types of residence permits.

<sup>40</sup> Public sector employment may include: education, national health services, public administration.

assessment of professional qualifications conducted by government, or/and professional or/and non-governmental organisations? Do government institutions or non-governmental organisations provide information materials, guidelines or do they maintain information centres that provide guidance and promote the recognition of skills and qualifications?

### *Education*

According to Article 10 of CEDAW national governments should take all measures to ensure that women have equal rights with men in the field of education, in particular: the same conditions for career and vocational guidance, for access to studies and for the achievement of diplomas in educational establishments of all categories in rural as well as in urban areas; this equality shall be ensured in pre-school, general, technical, professional and higher technical education, as well as in all types of vocational training. With respect to adult women governments should ensure the same opportunities for access to programmes of continuing education, including adult and functional literacy programmes, particularly those aimed at reducing, at the earliest possible time, any gap in education existing between men and women.

The analysis of the policies and programmes for ensuring equal education opportunities to TCN women should cover the following questions:

- What are the procedures for **recognition of educational/academic qualifications** acquired outside the EU? Are these procedures the same for TCN and EU nationals? If not, how do they differ? Is assessment conducted by government, or/and professional or/and non-governmental organisations? Do government institutions or non-governmental organisations provide information materials, guidelines or do they maintain information centres that provide guidance and promote the recognition of educational level?
- What are the policy provisions and schemes for **host country language training** of migrants? What are the programmes for host country language training for adult TCN? What are the conditions for access to these programmes? What is the length of courses? Are there any language training programmes designed especially for TCN women and tailored to their specific needs (of mothers, single mothers, working women)?
- What are the policies and programmes that facilitate **the improvement of professional qualifications** of TCN women? Are there any national or local level professional training programmes where TCN are allowed to enrol? What are the conditions of enrolment? Are these professional training programmes provided by governmental, professional or non-governmental institutions? Are these training programmes designed for native population and respectively accessible for both natives and TCN? Are there professional training programmes designed specifically for TCN or for TCN women? If so, who is responsible for the management of these programmes and what are the areas of professional training that they offer?

### *Social inclusion*

In the policy context of the European Commission (EC) social inclusion is defined as the fight against poverty and social exclusion of society's vulnerable groups (termed also active inclusion). In the context of migrant inclusion, priority is given to social policies that promote the mobilisation of an "able" migrant workforce by ensuring their access to the labour market and social services of the member states, which are in turn expected to facilitate the integration of migrants. The active inclusion strategy of the EU also includes ensuring a decent standard of living for those vulnerable migrants outside the labour market, by providing them with adequate social and housing assistance, as provided by EU law. Member states are encouraged to design and implement comprehensive strategies for the active inclusion of people excluded from the labour market by combining adequate income support, inclusive labour markets, and access to quality (social) services.<sup>41</sup> According to Article 34 of the EU Charter on Fundamental Rights, which delineates regulations on social security and social assistance, foreigners legally residing within the European Union are entitled to social security and social services.

The analysis of the policies and programmes for social inclusion of TCN women should cover the following questions:

- Do (vulnerable) TCN women in the country have equal **access to social assistance programmes**<sup>42</sup> as (vulnerable) native women? Under what conditions (vulnerable) TCN women have the right to receive social assistance? Does this right depend on status, length of stay, occupation or something else? Do (vulnerable) TCN women have the right to the same social assistance schemes as (vulnerable) native women. In particular, do TCN women have the right to the same:
  - maternity leave packages;
  - unemployment benefits;
  - old age pension;
  - disability benefits;
  - family benefits;
  - social welfare benefits (housing benefits, utilities payment assistance, any other relevant social protection benefits to which native vulnerable women are entitled).
- Are TCN women (respectively migrant families) eligible for **childcare benefits**? Access to childcare may be vital in enabling migrant women to access the labour market, or to attend any professional or language training courses. Do TCN women (and families) have the same rights as native women to childcare assistance (in case of birth in the host country; in case of child birth on the origin country)? For example, do they receive the same financial assistance per child as native

<sup>41</sup> Zimmerman, K., A. Barrett, et. al. *Study on Active Inclusion of Migrants*. Institute for the Study of Labor and Economic and Social Research Institute, 2011, p. 8.

<sup>42</sup> In the EU, "social assistance" is understood to cover non-contributory benefits of the state that are offered mainly in two forms: a) universal security benefits and b) need-oriented security benefits, which refer to employment status based and means-tested benefits, such as employment assistance and housing benefits.

women? Do they have equal access to childcare public funded day-care centres? Do TCN women have access to any specific childcare assistance schemes for working mothers? What are the conditions that TCN women have to meet in order to be eligible for such benefits? Do single TCN mothers have access to the same childcare benefits as native single mothers?

- Do TCN women have **access to information in their own language**? Do the relevant institutions in the country provide practical information in the area of labour market inclusion (unemployment assistance), anti-discrimination and welfare law (social assistance) in the native languages of migrants (TCN women)? Do these institutions distribute special leaflets with practical advice? Do these institutions train staff in working with migrants in their mother tongue or do they work with mediators knowledgeable of the mother tongue of migrants? Are there NGOs on the field that take care of providing information to TCN women in their native languages?

#### *Active citizenship*

Active citizenship refers to making a positive contribution to society through the process of taking active role in civil society, community life or taking part in political life at the national or local level. The various forms of active citizenship are exercised in line with democratic values, mutual respect and human rights. Active citizenship incorporates a wide range of participatory activities, including political action, civil society and community support, including voluntary work. The involvement in such activities allows citizens to make informed choices, to have a say in how their countries are governed and to contribute to their communities. The exercise of active citizenship by immigrants plays a vital role in their integration in host societies and is a factor of significance for the social cohesion and democratic development of EU countries with ever growing immigrant populations. The Active Citizenship Composite Indicator (ACCI) defines four main dimensions of active citizenship:<sup>43</sup>

- political life – the sphere of the state and conventional representative democracy such as voting, party membership and work;
  - civil society – political non-governmental action that may include participation in protest, or in human rights, environmental or other non-governmental organisations as well as in trade unions;
  - community life – activities that are more oriented to community support mechanisms and less towards political action and accountability of governments;
  - values.
- **Political participation.** What are the conditions provided in the national legal and policy regulations that facilitate the political participation of migrants (TCN women)? Under what conditions do third country nationals have the right to:

<sup>43</sup> Hoskins, B. et. al. *Measuring Active Citizenship in Europe*. Institute for the Protection and Security of the Citizen, 2006, p. 11.

- vote in national elections;
- vote in local elections;
- stand for elections at the local level;
- be members in political parties.

Do third country nationals exercise the same voting rights as nationals, or as EU citizens? Do their voting rights depend on length of stay, type of residence permit?

- **Civil society and community life participation.** What are the conditions provided in the national legal and policy regulations that facilitate the civil society participation of TCN women? Under what conditions do third country nationals have the right to association, including participation in trade unions, human rights organisations, religious organisations, sports, cultural, social or parent-teacher organisations? Is there any public funding provided to immigrant organisations at the national or local level? Is there public funding provided for immigrant organisations of women? Which immigrant organisations are eligible for public funding?

#### *Anti-discrimination*

According to Part I, Art. 1 of CEDAW discrimination against women is understood as any distinction, exclusion or restriction made on the basis of sex which has the effect or purpose of impairing or nullifying the recognition, enjoyment or exercise by women, irrespective of their marital status, on a basis of equality of men and women, of human rights and fundamental freedoms in the political, economic, social, cultural, civil or any other field.

The analysis of the policies and programmes for combating gender based discrimination towards TCN women should cover the following questions:

- Are there specific national policy provisions and programmes in the country that aim at countering **discrimination against TCN women in job recruitment**? Are there any anti-discrimination regulations and provisions with regard to TCN women in the country? Do the anti-discrimination, migration and employment law and policies include anti-discrimination provisions and measures with regard to job recruitment of TCN women? If so, what are they?
- Are there specific policy provisions and programmes in the country that aim at countering **discrimination against TCN women at the workplace**? Do the anti-discrimination, migration and employment law and policies include anti-discrimination provisions and measures with regard to exercise of employment of TCN women (discrimination at the workplace)? What are they?
- Are there specific policy provisions and programmes that aim at countering **discrimination against TCN women in the sphere of social assistance**? Do the anti-discrimination, migration and social assistance law and policies in the country include anti-discrimination provisions and measures with regard to TCN women access to social assistance services? What are they?

The analysis of research findings at the policy level should be guided by the following questions:

- Are there comprehensive and coherent regulations and policies for the integration of migrant women?
- What are the objectives of the policies? Are these objectives formulated adequately to meet the integration needs of migrant women?
- Are the regulations and policies applied in practice?

In addressing these questions, analysis should account for the presence of a comprehensive or fragmented approach to the policies in this area. For example, in some countries there might be comprehensive policies in all integration areas for migrant women, while in others there might be some policies in some integration areas and no policies in other integration areas; or there might be only general migrant integration policies that need to be further developed in view of migrant women as a separate group; or some countries may have no integration policies for migrant women.

### 3.2.2. Assessment of outcomes

A number of indicators and sources for collecting quantitative data on the integration of TCN women are provided below. The collection of statistical data relying on comparable international statistical sources such as Eurostat or PISA should be prioritised. In case the analysed country is not providing data on certain indicators to Eurostat or PISA, statistical data collected by national statistical institutes should be used. If statistical data about TCN are not available for a particular indicator, official data requests should be submitted to the administrative data collection departments of respective institutions (such as Employment Agency, Social Assistance Agency, Ministry of Education, etc.).

**TABLE 3. OUTCOME INDICATORS AND DATA SOURCES ON THE INTEGRATION OF MIGRANT WOMEN\***

Area of integration	Outcome indicator	Data source
<b>Employment</b>  <i>compare</i>  migrant women/ native women  migrant women/ migrant men	Employment rate	Eurostat: LFS
	Unemployment rate	Eurostat: LFS
	Activity rate	Eurostat: LFS
	Over-qualification rate	Eurostat: LFS
	Number of TCN not in employment, education, or training	Eurostat: LFS
	Self-employed	Eurostat: LFS or National statistics or national administrative data banks

**TABLE 3. OUTCOME INDICATORS AND DATA SOURCES ON THE INTEGRATION OF MIGRANT WOMEN\* (CONTINUED)**

Area of integration	Outcome indicator	Data source
<b>Education</b> <i>compare</i> migrant women/ native women	Highest educational attainment	Eurostat or national statistics
	Tertiary educational attainment	Eurostat
	Participation in lifelong learning	Eurostat – LFS and Adult Education Survey (AES)
migrant women/ migrant men		
<b>Social Inclusion</b>  <i>compare</i> migrant women/ native women	Median income	Eurostat: SILC
	Unemployed registered in public employment services	National statistics or administrative data banks
	Uptake of unemployment benefits among unemployed	National statistics or national administrative data banks
	At risk of poverty and social exclusion	Eurostat: SILC
	In-work at-risk of poverty rate	Eurostat; SILC
	Persistent at risk of poverty rate	Eurostat: SILC
<b>Active Citizenship</b> <i>compare</i> migrant women/ native women	Naturalisation rate	Eurostat or National statistics or National administrative data banks
	Share of TCN who acquired long term residence permits	National statistics or national administrative data banks
	Share of TCN among total elected representatives in the latest parliamentary elections	National statistics or national administrative data banks
	Share of TCN among total elected representatives in the latest local government elections	National statistics or national administrative data banks
	Voter turnout	National statistics or Election data
	Membership in political parties (number of TCN women who are members of a given political party as share of the total membership of that party)	National statistics or National administrative data banks
	Membership in trade unions (number of TCN women who are members of a given trade union as share of the total membership of that trade union)	National statistics or National administrative data banks

\* For definitions of terms used in this table, please refer to the Glossary of Terms in Annex I.

**The analysis of the data for the assessment of outcomes should be guided by the following questions:**

- What is the integration condition of migrant women in the country? How well integrated are migrant women? Is there a need of better integration policies and actions for this migrant group? If yes, in which fields of integration should further efforts by policy makers be invested?
- What are the possible reasons for positive and negative integration outcomes for migrant women?
- Are the (statistical) data available for migrant women in the country (in international data sources, in national statistical sources, and in national administrative data banks) sufficient and adequate to discuss the integration condition of migrant women? If this is not the case, an explanation of why the available data are not sufficient/adequate or only partially sufficient/adequate should be provided.

### 3.3. Assessing the integration of migrant children

This methodology adopts the definition of a child of the UN Convention of the Rights of the Child (CRC) as a person below the age of 18.<sup>44</sup> The criteria for the assessment of integration policies for migrant children are based on the two main principles, as per the UN CRC: the child's rights approach and of the child's best interest. Particular attention should be given to the underlying principles of the child's rights approach, which includes empowerment and accountability, non-discrimination and equality, participation, indivisibility of rights, respect for the voice of the child. From the perspective of these principles, children should be perceived as members of society not only equal in rights but whose rights are of highest priority. This principle is confirmed in the World Fit for Children Declaration of UN General Assembly as its first objective: "Put children first. In all actions related to children, the best interests of the child shall be a primary consideration." According to Article 3 of UN CRC, in all actions concerning children, whether undertaken by public or private social welfare institutions, courts of law, administrative authorities or legislative bodies, the best interests of the child shall be a primary consideration.

#### 3.3.1. Policy level

Analysis should proceed from an overview of the framework for the integration of TCN children and an examination of the extent to which their integration is dealt with in the respective national migration integration strategy and attendant policy documents. The assessment should also establish whether the integration of TCN children is mainstreamed in national policy documents and programmes in the fields of education and social inclusion, and whether the principles of child's rights and child's best interest are underpinned in these policy documents.

<sup>44</sup> UN CRC Article 1: "For the purposes of the present Convention, a child means every human being below the age of eighteen years unless under the law applicable to the child, majority is attained earlier".

### *Education*

Education plays a central role in the process of successful integration of migrant children. According to the Common Basic Principles for Immigrant Integration, “efforts in education are critical to preparing immigrants, and particularly their descendants, to be more successful and more active participants in society.” In this context, the current methodology guides an assessment of the impact of migration status on education outcomes and education achievement and a measurement of the differences between migrant children and the native population, including between migrant girls and migrant boys.

The analysis of the policies and programmes for educational integration of TCN children should cover issues under the following two spheres:

#### **i. Access and enrolment**

The right to education is a basic right endorsed by the 1989 Convention on the Rights of the Child. At the same time access to free primary education remains elusive for many migrant children who are asylum seekers or refugees or irregulars. In 2007, out of 2.6 million refugee children at school-age globally, only an estimated 67 per cent were enrolled in primary and secondary schools, leaving a third (around 900,000 children) without access to education.<sup>45</sup>

**Access to compulsory age education.** Do TCN children (with legal residence status and irregulars) have the same legal right for access to education as nationals? Do TCN girls have the same opportunity to access education as TCN boys? Are there any specific provisions or programmes in place that aim to encourage school enrolment and attendance of TCN girls? Is class level placement of a TCN child done in accordance to age or it is based on assessment of prior knowledge? Do the respective institutions provide clear written information and guidance on steps, procedures and opportunities for access and attendance of secondary education of TCN children (in migrant’s languages of origin). Are there any resource centres/persons, providing consultations and orientation to TCN parents of school age children?

**School enrolment.** What are the provisions and programmes for assessment of prior learning and language qualifications obtained by TCN children abroad? Is such assessment conducted with standardised quality criteria and tools? Is the assessment conducted by schools without standardised criteria? Is the staff conducting the assessment trained for this or not? Are schools required to provide – and do they provide in practice – induction programmes about the country and its educational system for both TCN pupils and their parents?

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<sup>45</sup> UNHCR, *Educational Strategy 2010-2012: Education for All Persons of Concern to UNHCR*, Geneva, 2009, p. 4.

## ii. Quality of education

Even when access to education is secured, the educational integration of migrant children could be marred by obstacles such as language barriers, lack of training for teaching personnel, etc.<sup>46</sup> Data on the academic achievement of school children show that as early as the end of primary school age migrant children score lower compared to native children.<sup>47</sup> The OECD PISA studies of standard academic skills of fifteen-year-old children also show substantial disadvantages for migrant children, though the differences vary from one country to another.<sup>48</sup> Among the main challenges in achieving higher quality of education of migrant children are: the low percentage of qualified (and certified) teachers, the use of different curricula in home and host countries, the lack of recognition for diplomas, insufficient teaching and learning materials, lack of catch-up classes as well as insufficient means for teacher compensation.<sup>49</sup>

**Language training.** Are there policies and programmes ensuring increased opportunities for host country language training in the host country language? Do TCN children have access to additional language classes in school? Do they have access to individual support by teachers (in the host country language; in different subjects)?

**School curricula.** Do TCN children study under the general curricula of the school in which they are enrolled? If this is the case, do TCN children have access to special school programmes to assist them in integrating into the regular school (focused on language acquisition and catching up on other school subjects) in the form of individual consultations, extra classes, extra-curricular language training, receiving aid by school mentors or mediators (knowledgeable of migrants pupils' origin language), homework support? Do relevant education institutions develop and provide textbooks or aid materials designed for the learning needs of foreign language pupils (TCN pupils)?

**Teacher qualifications.** Are there policies and programmes for training of teachers in working with TCN children; in teaching the host country language as a second language? Is there a requirement for TCN teachers to be specialised in second-language learning standards? Do the relevant education institutions disseminate programmes, guidelines, tools and minimum standards for teaching TCN children? Are there adequate compensation provisions for teachers providing extra-curricular support to TCN children?

Are there policies and mechanisms for needs assessments and programme evaluations with respect to the educational performance of TCN children?

<sup>46</sup> See UNHCR, *Draft Global Strategic Priorities*, April 2009, p. 13; UNHCR, *Educational Strategy 2010 – 2012: Education for All Persons of Concern to UNHCR*.

<sup>47</sup> Stanat, P., M. Bommers, I. Gogolin, and K. Klemm. *Statement*. In *Nationaler Integrationsplan Arbeitsgruppe 3 "Gute Bildung und Ausbildung sichern, Arbeitsmarktchancen erhöhen": Dokumentation des Beratungsprozesses*, Bundesministerium für Arbeit und Soziales, 2007, p. 43.

<sup>48</sup> OECD, *Where Immigrant Students Succeed. A Comparative Review of performance and Engagement in PISA 2003*. Paris: OECD Publishing, 2006

<sup>49</sup> UNHCR, *Educational Strategy 2010 – 2012: Education for All Persons of Concern to UNHCR*, p. 6.

*Social inclusion of TCN children*

The analysis of the policies and programmes for social inclusion of TCN children should cover the following questions:

- Do (vulnerable) TCN children in the country have the same **access to social assistance programmes** as (vulnerable) native children? Please describe under what conditions (vulnerable) TCN children (such as children from low income families, children from dysfunctional families, disabled children) have the right to receive social assistance in the host country? Does this right depend on status, length of stay, occupation or else? Do (vulnerable) TCN children have the right to the same social assistance schemes as (vulnerable) native children?
- Do TCN children have access to **targeted intercultural activities** in the host country? Are there any programmes that seek to facilitate the integration of TCN children into community life, culture and language of the host society? Do TCN children have access to intercultural activities such as summer camps, cultural visits, sports activities? Are such activities organised in mixed groups with native children or with TCN children only? Are such activities developed at national level, at local level or at the level of school? Is any funding provided at national or local level for targeted intercultural activities for TCN children?
- **Fighting child poverty and social exclusion.** What are the policies (strategies) to fight child poverty in the country? Do these policies and strategies refer to TCN children as a specific target group? Are there any provisions for fighting child poverty and social exclusion of TCN children in the national migration integration policy documents and programmes?

*Guardianship policies for separated and unaccompanied children*

The appointment of guardians is a primary step and a precondition in the process of ensuring the integration of separated and unaccompanied children. Countries have the responsibility to define the competent authority in charge of appointing the guardian (guardianship service), the legal status of the guardianship (legal guardian, temporary guardian, adviser/representative, social worker or NGO worker), and to establish all the necessary protocols and procedures. The guardianship service needs to monitor the quality of the service provided.

The analysis of the quality of guardianship services for unaccompanied and separated TCN children should cover the following questions:

- Are there formal procedures to designate a guardian for a separated or unaccompanied child?
- Are there formalised criteria for service provision, including Terms of Reference of guardians?
- What is the role and legal status of the guardian, e.g. legal guardian, social worker, adviser/representative?
- Are there specific requirements for being appointed a guardian, including previous experience in child protection, understanding of child's rights and needs of unaccompanied foreign children?

- Are there mechanisms for regular monitoring and review of the guardianship services provided to separated and unaccompanied children? If so, are these mechanisms effective in ensuring the high quality of the guardianship service provided?

**The analysis of research findings at the policy level should be guided by the following questions:**

- Are there comprehensive and coherent regulations and policies for the integration of migrant children?
- What are the aims of the policies? Are these aims formulated adequately to meet the integration needs of migrant children?
- Are the regulations and policies applied in practice?

In addressing these questions, analysis should account for the presence of a comprehensive or fragmented approach to the policies in this area and for the practical implementation of policies. For example, in some countries there might be comprehensive policies in all integration areas for migrant children, while in others there might be some policies in some integration areas and no policies in other integration areas; or there might be only general migrant integration policies that need to be further developed in view of migrant children as a separate group; or some countries may have no integration policies for migrant children.

### ***3.3.2. Assessment of outcomes***

A number of indicators and sources for collecting quantitative data on the integration of TCN children are provided below. The collection of statistical data relying on comparable international statistical sources such as Eurostat or PISA should be prioritised. In case the analysed country is not providing data on certain indicators to Eurostat or PISA, statistical data collected by national statistical institutes should be used. If statistical data about TCN are not available for a particular indicator, official data requests should be submitted to the administrative data collection departments of respective institutions (such as Employment Agency, Social Assistance Agency, Ministry of Education, etc.).

**The analysis of the data collected for the assessment of outcomes should be guided by the following questions:**

- What is the integration condition of migrant children in the country? How well integrated are migrant children? Is there a need for better integration policies and actions for this migrant group? If yes, in which fields of integration should further efforts by policy makers be invested?
- What are the possible reasons for positive and negative integration outcomes for migrant children?
- Are the (statistical) data available for migrant children in the country (in international data sources; in national statistical data sources; and in national administrative data banks) sufficient and adequate to discuss the first question? If this is not the case, an explanation of

why the available data are not sufficient/adequate or only partially sufficient/adequate should be provided.

**TABLE 4. OUTCOME INDICATORS AND DATA SOURCES ON THE INTEGRATION OF MIGRANT CHILDREN\***

Area of integration	Outcome indicator	Data source
<b>Education</b> <i>compare</i> migrant children/ native children  migrant girls/ migrant boys	TCN population in school age**	National statistics
	Low achievers	PISA
	Early school leaving	Eurostat
	School drop-out rate	National statistics or national administrative data banks
	TCN children in pre-school care (kindergarten, pre-school)***	National statistics or national administrative data banks
	Share of TCN pupils in class levels lower than their age****	National statistics or national administrative data banks
<b>Social inclusion</b> <i>compare</i> migrant children/ native children	At risk of poverty and social exclusion for children	Eurostat: SILC
	Persistent at-risk-of-poverty rate for children	Eurostat: SILC
	Severe material deprivation for children	Eurostat: SILC
	In-work poverty rate of people living in households with dependent children	Eurostat: SILC
	Share of children living in very low-work intensity households	Eurostat: SILC
	Housing deprivation of children	Eurostat: SILC
	Overcrowding rate for children	Eurostat: SILC
	Highest education attained by parents living in the child's household	Eurostat: SILC

\* For definitions of the terms used in this table, please refer to the Glossary of Terms in Annex I.

\*\* The age should be determined on the basis of national regulations for primary and secondary education. In Bulgaria, for example, primary school starts at the age of 6 and secondary school ends at the age of 18/19. Respectively, the age group to compose this indicator in Bulgaria is 6-19.

\*\*\* To provide data for this indicator first collect data about the TCN population in kindergarten and pre-school age. This age range might be different for the different countries. In Bulgaria it is 0-6.

\*\*\*\* School access and enrolment in some countries might be based on entry exam or on requests for provision of school certificates from the country of origin. Such provisions may lead to placements of TCN children in class levels that are below their age.

### 3.4. Assessing the integration of victims of trafficking

#### 3.4.1. Policy level

This section should be preceded by an overview of the overall framework for integration of victims of trafficking (VoT) and the extent to which the integration of VoT is mainstreamed in national policies in the fields of migration, employment, education and social inclusion.

##### *The right to stay*

Trafficked persons often do not have a regular residence status in the state of destination, either because they arrived illegally or because their residence permit has expired. The reflection period is now recognised as an effective best practice that grants victims of trafficking the possibility of beginning to recover from their experiences and of making an informed decision about whether to assist and cooperate in criminal proceedings. For the many victims of trafficking who have irregular immigration status, the reflection period ensures that they can be provided with appropriate assistance and support, such as secure housing, psychological counselling, medical and social services and legal consultation. “The granting of a reflection period, followed by the granting of temporary or permanent residence permit is ideally afforded to a victim of trafficking regardless of whether the trafficked person is able or willing to give evidence as a witness.”<sup>50</sup>

The analysis of the provisions and programmes for facilitation of the residence of VoT in the destination country should cover the following questions:

- **The right to a reflection period.** Do TCN trafficked victims have the right to a reflection period and how long is it? What are the assistance measures to which VoT are entitled during the reflection period?
- **The right to a residence permit.** What are the legal provisions ensuring the right to stay to TCN VoT? Do TCN trafficked victims have the right to stay (by issuance of temporary or long-term residence permit) irrespective of cooperation with police/courts? Is cooperation with police/courts required for the issuance of temporary residence permit? What rights does that temporary residence permit give to TCN VoT? What are the rights that long-term (or permanent) residence permit gives to TCN VoT? Can a temporary residence permit issued to a TCN trafficked victim be converted to a long-term (or permanent) residence permit and under what conditions?

##### *Access to welfare and assistance*

The Trafficking in Persons Protocol<sup>51</sup> requires states (both countries of origin and destination) to consider implementing measures to provide

<sup>50</sup> UNODC. *Toolkit to Combat Trafficking in Persons*. Vienna, 2008, p. 304.

<sup>51</sup> Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking in Persons, Especially Women and Children, adopted by General Assembly resolution 55/25, (in force 25 December 2003) supplementing the United Nations Convention against Transnational Organized Crime, adopted by General Assembly resolution 55/25 (in force 15 November 2000) adopted by General Assembly resolution 55/25 on 12-15 December 2000 and entered into force on 29 September 2003.

for the physical, psychological and social recovery of VoT. Governments should provide comprehensive support to victims including medical, psychological, language and translation, training and education and safe accommodation. States, through the local social service authorities, need to ensure that infrastructure exists to meet the needs of trafficked victims, involving local service providers, international organisations and NGOs. According to the EU Directive on trafficking in human beings<sup>52</sup> member states should provide for resources for victim assistance, support and protection. The assistance and support provided should include at least a minimum set of measures that are necessary to enable the victim to recover and escape from their traffickers. The practical implementation of such measures should, on the basis of an individual assessment carried out in accordance with national procedures, take into account the circumstances, cultural context and needs of the person concerned.

The analysis of policies and programmes for access to welfare and social assistance of VoT should cover the following questions:

- **Accommodation.**<sup>53</sup> What is the state of the facilities for accommodation of VoT and are they under the auspices of the government or the civil sector? Are they sufficient to accommodate all trafficked victims? Are there provisions to ensure that TCN VoT are not being placed in law enforcement facilities? How long could a TCN VoT stay in a specialised accommodation facility? Are there any housing assistance programmes for TCN VoT upon departure from the specialised accommodation facilities (for example, are they entitled to housing allowances, consultation in searching for private accommodation, etc.)?
- **Access to assistance.** Is there a regulatory framework for service provision to VoT? What are the policies and programmes ensuring VoT access to health care and psychological counselling? Are VoT entitled to targeted social assistance programmes? If yes, what are the services provided by these programmes (for example, such programmes may include financial aid, food, accommodation, clothing, local transportation, language courses, medical and psychological support, other)? Do TCN VoT mothers have access to childcare and maternity support schemes equal to native women? Do TCN VoT have access to social welfare benefits equal to the native population (housing benefits, utilities payment assistance, any other relevant social benefits to which native vulnerable persons are entitled)? Who is implementing the social assistance services to TCN VoT – government institutions, municipalities or NGOs?
- **Access to assistance for VoT with special needs.** What is the framework for service provision to VoT with special needs such as disabled, psychologically traumatised, or pregnant VoT? Are there any specially designed programmes for such VoT? How are their particular needs being attended by the respective institutions?

<sup>52</sup> Directive 2011/36/EU of the European Parliament and of the Council of 5 April 2011 on preventing and combating trafficking in human beings and protecting its victims, and replacing Council Framework Decision 2002/629/JHA, OJ L 1001/1.

<sup>53</sup> Safe and suitable accommodation can take various forms, including a shelter, a transit home or other home providing residential care for VoT. Victims' needs for food, clothing, healthcare (including psychological counselling) should be met in these facilities.

### *Education*

The educational needs of foreign child VoT should be assessed. Child VoT should have the same access to education as native children. Vocational training may be a relevant option for adult VoT since it contributes to the sustainability of the social integration of VoT by increasing their chances for employment and increasing their confidence in general life skills. Vocational training can be provided by, or in cooperation with, NGOs, educational institutes, charitable organisations, government partners or religious groups.<sup>54</sup>

The analysis of policies and programmes for access to education of VoT should cover the following questions:

- Do TCN child victims of trafficking have the same right to access to education as other TCN children, or as the native child population? Are there any programmes specially tailored to the needs of TCN trafficked children in support of their school enrolment (for example, language training, right to individual study to ameliorate trauma experiences, etc.)? Who is implementing such programmes (schools, municipalities or non-governmental organisations)?
- Can adult TCN VoT attend language courses and vocational training courses? Are these courses specially designed for VoT, or for third country nationals in general, or are they accessible to nationals and TCN alike?

### *Employment*

Adult victims of trafficking may face economic hardship in the host country where they are identified. This may be caused by lack of knowledge of host country language, status of foreigner, lack of professional and practical skills, sometimes linked to depression and other psychological problems, as well as social stigmatisation due to the crime they have suffered.<sup>55</sup> Such difficulties heighten the risk of renewed trafficking as the returning victims find themselves confronted with the same problems that induced them to leave in the first place. Assistance in employment for VoT may thus be a powerful tool for social inclusion, enhanced self-reliance and prevention of re-trafficking.

The analysis of policies and programmes for access to the labour market of VoT should cover the following questions:

- **Access to the labour market.** Is the right to stay for a TCN VoT linked to the right to work? Under what conditions are TCN VoT allowed to work in the host country? Do they need to apply for work permits, separate from their residence permit? Are they expected to file the work permit application on their own or is there a resource centre or person (governmental or NGO) to assist them?

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<sup>54</sup> International Organization for Migration. *The IOM Handbook Direct Assistance for Victims of Trafficking*. Geneva, 2007, p. 97.

<sup>55</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 98.

- **Professional qualifications.** Are there specialised professional qualification programmes for TCN VoT in the country? Are there policy provisions and programmes for job orientation and job placement of TCN trafficked victims? Are there any apprenticeship programmes and/or wage subsidies to facilitate job placement of TCN VoT among private or public employers?

**The analysis of research findings at the policy level should be guided by the following questions:**

- Are there comprehensive and coherent regulations and policies for the integration of VoT?
- What are the aims of the policies and are they formulated adequately to meet the integration needs of VoT?
- Are the regulations and policies applied in practice?

In addressing these questions, analysis should account for the presence of a comprehensive or fragmented approach to the policies in this area and for the practical implementation of policies. For example, in some countries there might be comprehensive policies in all integration areas for VoT, while in others there might be some policies in some integration areas and no policies in other integration areas; or there might be only general migrant integration policies that need to be further developed in view of VoT as a separate group; or some countries may have no integration policies for VoT.

### **3.4.2. Assessment of integration outcomes**

A number of indicators and sources for collecting quantitative data on the integration of TCN VoT are provided below. The collection of statistical data should rely on the national statistical data banks and the national administrative data banks of the respective country. If statistical data about TCN are not available for a particular indicator, official data requests should be submitted to the administrative data collection departments of respective institutions (such as Employment Agency, Social Assistance Agency, Ministry of Education, etc.).

**The analysis of the data collected for the assessment of outcomes should be guided by the following questions:**

- What is the integration condition of VoT in the country? How well integrated are VoT? Is there a need of better integration policies and actions for this migrant group? If yes, in which fields of integration should further efforts by policy makers be invested?
- What are the possible reasons for positive and negative integration outcomes for VoT?
- Are the (statistical) data available for VoT in the country (in international data sources; in national statistical data sources; and in national administrative data banks) sufficient and adequate to discuss the first question? If this is not the case, an explanation of why the available data are not sufficient/adequate or only partially sufficient/adequate should be provided.

**TABLE 5. OUTCOME INDICATORS AND DATA SOURCES ON THE INTEGRATION OF VICTIMS OF TRAFFICKING**

Area of integration	Outcome indicator*	Data source
<b>The right to stay</b>	TCN VoT who were given a reflection period	National statistics or national administrative data banks
	TCN VoT who received temporary residence permit	National statistics or national administrative data banks
	TCN VoT who received long term or permanent residence permit	National statistics or national administrative data banks
	TCN VoT who were repatriated to their home country	National statistics or national administrative data banks
<b>Access to welfare and social assistance</b>	The capacity of safe and suitable accommodation for VoT**	National statistics or national administrative data banks
	TCN VoT placed in safe accommodation/shelters	National statistics or national administrative data banks
	TCN VoT who receive psychological counselling	National statistics or national administrative data banks
	TCN VoT who received medical assistance	National statistics or national administrative data banks
<b>Education</b>	TCN VoT who enrolled in courses in the host country language	National statistics or national administrative data banks
<b>Employment</b>	TCN VoT who enrolled in vocational training courses	National statistics or national administrative data banks
	TCN VoT who entered employment	National statistics or national administrative data banks

\* The indicators should be presented as share of the overall number of VoT identified in the current year.

\*\* How many persons (VoT) can be accommodated in these facilities at the same time.

### 3.5. Conclusions of the assessment and policy recommendations

The assessment report should be completed with a critical discussion of the main findings of the study and recommendations regarding the improvement of the integration of migrant women, migrant children and VoT in the respective country.

The key issue to be covered by the concluding analysis is the **extent to which the issue of integration of the three vulnerable migrant groups (migrant women, migrant children and VoT) is addressed in the country.** This includes questions such as:

- How well integrated are migrant women in the fields of employment, education, social inclusion, active citizenship and anti-discrimination?

What are the strengths and weaknesses of policies for integration of migrant women?

- How well integrated are migrant children in the fields of education, social inclusion and guardianship services? What are the strengths and weaknesses of policies for integration of migrant children?
- How well integrated are VoT in the fields of welfare and social assistance, education and employment? What are the strengths and weaknesses of policies for integration of VoT?
- Is there a need for better integration policies and actions for any of the three groups? If yes, in which fields of integration should better policies and programmes be introduced?

On the basis of the findings of the integration outcomes indicators, the concluding analysis should reveal whether – and if so to what extent – national policies and programmes for integration of migrant women, migrant children and VoT in the country meet the EU Common Basic Principles on integration and how they contribute to the achievement of the EU 2020 Strategy goals.

**Recommendations to national policy makers** should be provided with regard to:

- Improvement of policies, programmes and mechanisms for integration of each of the three vulnerable migrant groups;
- Improvement of mechanisms for monitoring the integration of each of the three vulnerable migrant groups, including recommendations for relevant criteria and indicators of monitoring at the national level;
- Any other recommendations relevant for the specific national context.

**Recommendations should also be provided at the EU level**, including on issues such as:

- Development of particular methodological approaches, specific criteria and specific indicators for comparative monitoring of the integration of vulnerable migrants across the EU;
- Development of EU level standards and policies for the integration of vulnerable migrant women, vulnerable migrant children and VoT to serve as guidance for improvement of policy and practice at national level.

## 4. DATA COLLECTION MECHANISMS AND SOURCES

### 4.1. Sources of information

The evaluation should use both primary and secondary sources of information and should rely on qualitative and quantitative methods for data collection. Different types of data should be collected at the different stages of the process according to the respective analytical needs. The researcher should aim to gather data for both types of indicators for the two areas of research (policy level and outcomes assessment). It is likely that in some cases data for outcome indicators may not be available,

or may be incomplete. In such cases, the researcher should specifically acknowledge and explain the lack of quantitative/statistical data.

The main sources for **policy assessment** should include official policy strategies, action plans, implementation reports as well as laws and regulations in the area of migrant integration, labour market development and employment policies, social assistance and child care policies and VoT support and integration.

The main data sources for **integration outcome** indicators should include:

- Eurostat’s migration statistics;
- the EU Labour Force Survey (EU-LFS);
- the EU Statistics on Income and Living Conditions (EU-SILC);
- OECD’s Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA).

These are well established international and comparable data sources that build upon data that is gathered nationally, often by national statistical institutes. In addition, a comprehensive approach is to be employed with regard to the use of national statistical and administrative data sources such as:

- National statistical institutes;
- Administrative data banks of child care agencies, social welfare agencies, interior ministries, migration integration institutions, institutions dealing with labour market and employment, institutions storing electoral data, political participation data and political parties membership data, as well as institutions responsible for promotion of anti-discrimination policies and institutions responsible for the implementation of counter-trafficking policies.

For establishing the profiles of the three target groups (migrant women, migrant, children and VoT) researchers should use:

- international data sources: Eurostat migration statistics, as well as Eurostat *Trafficking in Human Beings* study for 2013;<sup>56</sup>
- national data sources such as national statistical data as well as national administrative data banks.

## 4.2. Data collection methods

### *Primary methods*

**Desk research** should involve the collection of available statistical data and quantitative administrative data (disaggregated by age and gender), related surveys, institutional reports and official policy documents, NGO reports as well as academic literature. Data collected by way of desk research is particularly important for providing an overview of the country-specific context and the profile of each of the three target groups of the study. Desk research will be instrumental for conducting the policy level of the assessment.

<sup>56</sup> Eurostat. *Trafficking in Human Beings*. Luxembourg: Publications Office of the European Union, 2013.

**Written requests for information/questionnaires.** Where information on the specific policy or outcome indicator is not publicly available or is incomplete, the researcher should design and address written requests for (qualitative and quantitative) information and/or brief questionnaires to the relevant official institutions and NGOs. The questionnaire should be adapted to the different groups of respondents (for instance, policy makers, service providers, national anti-trafficking body and official institutions) and should seek to gather information on the indicators for assessment outlined in the previous sections. The questions can be open-ended where more in-depth analysis is needed or closed, providing for a number of predetermined options.

**Semi-structured interviews.** Four to six face-to-face interviews should be arranged with key experts for each of the three target groups. A total of 12 to 18 expert interviews will have to be conducted by each national research team. Depending on the national context in some countries one expert might be a relevant respondent for more than one vulnerable group. Key experts should come from government institutions and civil society organisations, and can include social workers and assistants, childcare professionals, or independent experts who are carefully selected because of their knowledge of the subject matter. A maximum of two key experts from each of the above indicated groups should be interviewed.

The interviews should be used to gather expert information and opinion about the existing provisions and programmes in the integration fields defined for the three target groups of the study (migrant women, migrant children and VoT). The interviews should also be used to gather expert opinion on the quality of integration services, on their effectiveness and outcomes for a specific group of vulnerable migrants and on the need of improvement of policies and programmes for any of the three vulnerable groups.

Questionnaires with open-ended questions to inform the policy level assessment are provided in Annex II to this publication. National researchers may reduce the proposed questionnaires depending on desk research results. National researchers may also redefine or enrich the provided questionnaires if they need to test hypotheses formulated on the basis of their findings from desk research and official questionnaires.

#### *Optional methods*

**Focus group discussions.** Focus group discussions may be carried out with vulnerable migrants and with experts in the areas of education and employment policies and service provision. The focus group discussion can be used to gather qualitative information on the effectiveness and outcomes of migrant integration programmes for a specific group of vulnerable migrants. It can also be used to cross-check and enrich information that has already been gathered through other data collection methods. The number of participants should be 8-12 and the duration of the discussion should not exceed 2 hours.

# ASSESSING THE INTEGRATION OF VULNERABLE MIGRANT GROUPS IN TEN EU MEMBER STATES: A COMPARATIVE REPORT

## EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

This report provides a comparative analysis of the integration policies and outcomes for third-country-national (TCN) women, TCN children and TCN victims of trafficking in ten EU member states: Austria, Belgium, Bulgaria, Greece, Hungary, Italy, Malta, Poland, Slovakia and Spain. The analysis is based on ten national reports elaborated in the context of ten national studies conducted between September and December 2014 in accordance with a unified methodology.

The findings presented in this report are based on a combination of desk research and expert interviews, conducted in the ten EU member states. In the framework of desk research a significant number of sources were consulted including laws and regulations, policy documents and strategies, reports and evaluations by national and regional state institutions, NGOs and independent public institutions, as well as secondary literature and publicly available statistical data. Information and data were also collected by way of official information requests to relevant institutions. This method proved very effective in the instances when certain sets of information or statistical data on immigrant integration were not publicly available. These methods were complemented by the conduct of semi-structured interviews with experts from the field of migrant integration. In the ten studied countries a total of 131 expert interviews were conducted with experts from governmental institutions, NGOs, service providers, civil society and advocacy organisations as well as migrants. The interviews were conducted following common questionnaires, with country teams of interviewers being allowed the liberty of introducing adjustments depending on the national context.

For the assessment of the integration outcomes of the three study groups this report relies on data collected by Eurostat as the best reliable source of comparable statistical data in the EU context. The lack of harmonisation of definitions and indicators of the statistical and administrative data banks in the different member states made the comparison of data coming from national sources impossible. Thus researchers turned to Eurostat data as the main source of cross-national analysis of both the profiles of the three target groups of the study as well as of the outcomes of their integration. Statistical or administrative

data from national sources provided in the ten national reports are introduced in this comparative analysis only to the extent that they help to illustrate or discuss trends identified through the comparable Eurostat statistics or help to outline tendencies in integration areas for which there is still no reliable Eurostat data (for some countries).

### **Key findings**

#### *TCN women*

One dominant trend in the policy formulation and implementation regarding TCN women is the absence of integration policies and programmes targeting them as a separate vulnerable category with distinct needs different from those of TCN men or native women. Overall, the integration policies and programmes of the ten studied countries are not gender specific in terms of entry, of access to the labour market, to the social assistance system or to political rights being the same for TCN women and TCN men. Integration opportunities are predominantly available through the policies and programmes envisaged for the general population or through programmes for TCN of both genders.

The main determinant in the policy formulation and implementation in the area of integration of TCN women is status, and not gender and vulnerability.

Restrictive labour market policies with regard to TCN women are applied in all ten studied countries but to various degrees. This trend is demonstrated by the employment of labour market tests for some TCN categories in eight of the studied countries (Austria, Belgium, Bulgaria, Hungary, Malta, Poland, Slovakia, Spain).

Measures facilitating labour market integration that target TCN as a group with distinct needs are provided by non-governmental organisations in all ten countries and to a lesser extent in the framework of public employment offices in Austria, Belgium, Italy and Spain. Services in this field which target TCN women as a distinct group are even less common. They are provided either by NGOs (in Austria, Hungary, Italy and Spain) or by public employment offices (in Austria and Spain). In the countries with smaller TCN communities and less experience in managing TCN integration, a certain set of integration spheres for TCN remain underdeveloped. Those include language training and provision of information in the language of the TCN (Bulgaria, Hungary, Poland, Slovakia).

Overall, the policy approach with regard to the political participation of TCN in the ten studied countries is restrictive, especially at the national level. The restrictive approaches are applied in countries with both small and large immigrant communities and with both recent and longer migration history. More opened are the policies for the political participation of TCN women in some countries at the local level (Belgium, Hungary, Slovakia, Spain).

Policies facilitating the participation of TCN in community life are much more open in all ten countries with TCN (both men and women) having the right to be members of civil society organisations, action groups and trade unions.

However, the study identified no prominent policies and practices mainstreaming diversity in staff and membership of civil society organisations that are not directly involved with migrant groups or intercultural issues.

The decentralised approaches to TCN integration that are enforced in some of the studied countries (Austria, Belgium, Italy) are associated with considerable freedom of local initiative, development of innovative policies benefitting TCN population, and TCN women in particular, and leading to very positive outcomes regarding policy making. In such instances local level integration policies may appear far more advanced than central initiatives.

However, the freedom of local initiative that is associated with decentralised implementation of migrant integration can also lead to the enforcement of more restrictive conditions by local authorities in implementing provisions issued by central authorities.

The analysis of available comparable data in the fields of employment and social inclusion shows generally less favourable **integration outcomes for TCN women** and demonstrate that they have a more vulnerable position in the labour market and with regard to income generation than both native women and TCN men. In some of the studied countries TCN women have better status in comparison with native women: higher shares of persons with tertiary level of education (in Malta and Poland), higher activity rates (in Greece, Italy, Malta and Poland) and higher employment rates (in Malta); and in comparison with TCN men – lower unemployment rates (in Belgium, Italy and Spain), better educational profile (in Greece, Italy, Malta, Poland, Spain), and higher median incomes (in Malta and Spain).

However, these positive outcomes appear to be the result of complex set of factors that are not directly related the advancement of existing integration policies but rather to the nature of migration management regimes (restrictiveness of the entry regimes), labour market needs, social, cultural and educational backgrounds of the dominant groups of TCN women.

The lack of reliable data for the countries with small shares of TCN (female) population, both from national and from Eurostat databases, substantially hampers the comparative analysis of outcomes for TCN women for the majority of indicators envisaged by the methodology of this study. Data is absent also for the countries with significant shares of TCN populations, in the field of political and community participation and presents a serious limitation to any discussion about the civic participation of TCN women and men.

*TCN children*

Education appears to be the most developed and, simultaneously, the most problematic field of integration. In breach of the universal right of children to education and development, the free access to education is denied to undocumented/illegally residing children in Bulgaria, Hungary and Slovakia. Furthermore, although formally granted, these rights are practically denied to undocumented/illegally residing children by some schools in Greece, and by some Autonomous Communities in Spain. Although the risk of lower enrolment rate is identified for girls from (autochthonous) Muslim communities in Bulgaria and Greece, and the actual enrolment rates in the majority of countries are lower for TCN boys in comparison with TCN girls, gender-specific policies aimed at educational integration of TCN children are absent everywhere.

Often, TCN children cannot enjoy equal education opportunities with native children. This is the outcome of a variety of factors: lack of proper language training for newcomer TCN children; enrolment procedures placing children at class levels significantly lower than their age; insufficient extra-curricular support (in turn driven by the absence of policies in the field and insufficient financial and human resources); and last, but not least, specifics of national education systems, which provide early and irreversible direction to general or vocational education.

In the field of social inclusion, the existing policies against poverty in most of the ten countries do not target vulnerable TCN children, or even do not target children at all. Furthermore, in these countries only some or no categories of TCN children have access to non-contributory child-related support schemes. Generally, most exposed to the risk of being excluded from any type of support are TCN children who reside illegally in the respective countries. Less exposed to such risks are the unaccompanied children, as child protection bodies and mechanisms automatically recognise them as being at risk and take strong protection measures, including meeting of all their basic needs.

With respect to guardianship policies for unaccompanied TCN minors and underage, the most positive trends are in the regulations of the roles of the appointed guardians. In the majority of countries these regulations are clear, and the separation of guardianship functions from child-care functions that allows the allocation of human resources to tasks related to child rights is a positive tendency. The risks and challenges identified in this policy area relate to:

- the legal frameworks for appointment of guardians in Bulgaria, Greece and Poland which are not adapted to the specific situation of TCN children, making these appointments either unlawful, or not applied with respect to certain groups of TCN unaccompanied children;
- requirements to potential guardians which either do not guarantee enforcement of child's rights and best interest, or envisage substantial differences between the status of "professional" guardians/representatives of institutions or NGOs, and that of "voluntary" guardians/private persons;

- the lack of regular mechanisms of monitoring guardianship services in majority of the participating countries, or – where such mechanisms exist – lack of measurement of their effectiveness.

The lack of (comparable and reliable) data hinders **the assessment of integration outcomes for TCN children** to a greater extent than for TCN women. The majority of the standard statistical indicators are not available for the age group 0-17, or – where available – not disaggregated by citizenship. The lack of coherence of data gathered by different authorities at the national level in the same country and the lack of coherence of data on similar indicators gathered in different countries further complicate efforts for assessing the integration outcomes for TCN children. Therefore, general parallels are made instead of direct comparisons between the ten participating countries.

In the field of education, differences are observed in the shares of enrolment of TCN children in comparison with their native peers, both in pre-school and school education. These differences are considerable, from being almost invisible in Austria and Belgium to alarming in Bulgaria, Hungary and Slovakia. The more important factors identified for the differences in pre-school education are the social and cultural backgrounds of the main countries of origin, as well as the affordability and accessibility of childcare facilities that in some countries depend very much on regional and local regulations. For school education, the level of development of integration policies in the field of education, and especially of policies connected with language training and enrolment procedures was identified as having primary importance.

The educational integration of TCN young people still seems problematic in all of the countries with long-term experience and relatively high shares of TCN: Austria, Belgium, Greece, Italy and Spain, as shares of early school leavers among them are significantly higher than among national youth. The results from the latest PISA survey in 2012 also show higher shares of low performers in mathematics among the 15-year olds with migrant backgrounds in these countries, in comparison with their native peers.

Data on early school leaving, as well as on educational performance of TCN children and young people is not available for Bulgaria, Hungary, Malta, Poland and Slovenia.

In Austria, Belgium and Italy, additional evidence for inequality of education of TCN children was found: disproportionate presence of TCN students in special or/and in part-time vocational schools in Austria and in the Flemish community in Belgium, and substantially higher shares of foreign students enrolled in class levels lower than their age in comparison with the native students, in the Flemish community in Belgium and in Italy.

In the field of social inclusion, at-risk-of-poverty rate is the only indicator on which data for children is available by citizenship of their parents, but only in broad categories of foreign versus reporting countries. The biggest

shares of foreign children at risk of poverty and the biggest differences with national children are encountered in Greece and Spain, and the lowest differences are found in Italy and Malta.

### **TCN victims of trafficking**

In all of the studied countries victims of trafficking (VoT) have the right to one to three-month reflection period, and only in Hungary and Malta this right is granted only in case of cooperation with investigation and prosecution authorities. However, in all of the countries, with the exception of Italy, during the reflection period the VoT should decide whether to cooperate with police or the judiciary in investigation, prosecution and trial proceedings against traffickers.

The condition in most of the ten studied countries for cooperation with authorities for issuance of temporary or long-term residence permit is one factor that influences TCN VoT to abstain from identifying as VoT.

In all of the studied countries accommodation to TCN VoT is provided in specialised shelters (Austria, Belgium, Bulgaria, Italy, Poland, Spain) or assistance facilities servicing wider target groups (Greece, Malta, Slovakia) operated by both governmental and non-governmental structures. These facilities accommodate victims that are nationals, EU nationals or TCN.

The lack of accommodation centres for assistance of male VoT in eight of the studied countries (Belgium, Bulgaria, Greece, Hungary, Italy, Malta, Poland and Slovakia) prevents the implementation of comprehensive programmes for support to male TCN victims. This would be an especially relevant concern for male victims of trafficking with respect to labour exploitation.

TCN VoT have access to (public) occupational training when they are holders of temporary residence permits in Belgium; holders of long-term residence permits in Bulgaria Greece, Italy, Malta and Spain; and holders of permanent residence (RWR plus card) in Austria.

Automatic access to the labour market without the need to apply for work permits is granted to TCN VoT holders of long-term residence permits in Belgium, Bulgaria, Greece and Spain; to holders of permanent residence permits in Austria, Belgium and Poland; and in Italy the residence permit for social protection can be converted into a long-term residence permit for employment or study purposes if the applicant has an on-going working relationship or is enrolled in a regular course of study. In Hungary and Malta the issuance of work permits is tied to the availability of an employer who is willing to hire the particular VoT.

The lack of systematic and harmonised data collection mechanisms on the situation of TCN VoT in all of the ten studied countries seriously hinders any processes of monitoring of their integration in comparison to other vulnerable immigrant groups or to VoT who are nationals.

## Key recommendations

### *TCN women*

The vulnerable position of TCN women in the labour market and their disadvantaged position with regard to self-employment, activity rate and at-risk-of-poverty rate requires that a gender perspective is used when developing policy measures to facilitate the integration of TCN in the labour market as well as when developing programmes for provision of information in TCN's own language and TCN's language training.

More systematic and sustainable integration programmes need to be developed for TCN women in the fields of information provision and dissemination, language and professional training in Bulgaria, Hungary, Malta, Poland and Slovakia.

Policies and measures need to be developed to encourage more active participation of TCN women in local elections in the countries where they enjoy that right.

Consideration needs to be given to the development of programmes for the participation of TCN women in consultative policy bodies at the central or at local levels in Bulgaria, Hungary, Malta, Poland and Slovakia and for the participation of TCN women in local governance in Spain.

Needs assessments with regard to the integration of TCN women need to be conceptualised and conducted nationally and across countries. Such studies would enhance the understanding of the concrete integration situations and challenges faced by TCN women and would guide policy makers in the development of better informed integration policies.

Quantitative studies of the levels of integration of TCN women need to be conceptualised to compensate for the lack of statistical data in Eurostat for member states with smaller immigrant communities. Such quantitative studies may be developed on a cross-country basis to lead to EU-wide comparisons.

Qualitative studies need to be conceptualised and conducted nationally and on a cross-country basis to help explain certain integration outcomes for TCN women (visible in comparable statistics).

Regular monitoring should be conducted in the countries where the right to vote at the municipal level is given to TCN women. The monitoring should be focused on the participation of TCN in the electoral process (Belgium, Hungary, Slovakia, Spain) in view of providing analysis of the factors facilitating or obstructing the electoral participation of TCN women.

In-depth assessments of the alternative practices for facilitating the participation of TCN in local governance need to be designed and conducted in Austria, Belgium, Greece and Italy. Such assessments would provide analysis of the effectiveness of initiatives for promoting the

participation of TCN (women) in local governance and for addressing the integration needs of vulnerable migrants such as TCN women.

#### *TCN children*

Disaggregation by age including the age group 0-17 needs to be provided for all standard comparable statistical indicators that concern children.

Disaggregation by citizenship and possibilities for cross-section of citizenship and residential status for single countries, as well as for more diverse groups of countries need to be provided for respective standard comparable statistical indicators (EU 28, EU 15, EU – out of EU 15, etc.).

Criteria need to be harmonised and periods of validity of data streamlined both at the national level, among bodies involved in child-related data gathering and, at EU-level, among bodies gathering the same types of data.

Information regarding enrolment rates available not only by gender and ISCED level, but also by age needs to be provided in order to allow the separation of children from adults in the same ISCED level, and by citizenship, to be able to compare TCN to EU and national citizens.

Citizenship as additional criteria in the indicator “Repeaters” in general schools needs to be provided by grade groups and included in the list of Eurostat indicators.

The legal frameworks of Bulgaria and Hungary should be amended in order to guarantee the right to education of all children, including undocumented TCN children.

The policy frameworks of Bulgaria, Greece, Hungary, Italy and Slovakia need to be amended in order to allow all TCN children to participate in programmes for improvement of skills in the language(s) of the respective countries prior and after school enrolment.

Policy frameworks in Belgium, Bulgaria and Slovakia need to be amended so as to account for the specific needs of TCN children in the provision of extra-curricular support.

The legal frameworks of Bulgaria, Greece and Poland need to be developed so as to allow the appointment of guardians to specific situations of TCN children.

More efforts are needed for placing unaccompanied TCN minors in family environments, instead of in institutions of a residential type.

The mechanisms for exchange of information between EU countries need to be improved. The development of a common register of all identified unaccompanied TCN children on the territory of the European Union should be considered in order to protect those “disappearing” from child-care facilities.

*TCN victims of trafficking*

Identification mechanisms for VoT need to be improved in Bulgaria, Greece, Hungary, Malta and Slovakia, especially at border and detention centres.

Practical training for TCN VoT identification needs to be conducted for police and service providers, especially in Bulgaria, Greece, Hungary, Malta and Slovakia.

The system for TCN VoT assistance needs to be further developed by the opening of accommodation facilities for male victims of trafficking.

The experience of Italy where TCN VoT have access to a reflection period and temporary and long-term residence not conditional upon cooperation with authorities should be studied and transferred to other member states. The equal treatment and provision of similar levels of protection to TCN VoT regardless of whether or not they are willing to cooperate with the authorities need to be ensured.

Regular monitoring should be conducted with regard to assistance programmes and measures provided to TCN VoT.

Systematic and centralised data collection mechanisms need to be elaborated in all studied countries in order to collect reliable data on the integration of VoT that is differentiated by gender, age and citizenship.

## TERMS, DEFINITIONS AND LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The concept of vulnerability is defining for this study. Social vulnerability is understood to stem from social inequalities with conditions of vulnerability usually being the result of political, social, cultural or economic practices and policies that fail to ensure equal access and protection to all members of society.<sup>57</sup> The generally accepted characteristics that influence social vulnerability include age, gender, race/ethnicity and socioeconomic status. According to the Social protection and Social inclusion Glossary of DG Employment, Social Affairs and Inclusion<sup>58</sup> vulnerable groups are those groups that experience higher risks of poverty and social exclusion than the general population. These risks usually lead to low levels of education, unemployment, underemployment or weak civic participation.

While fully acknowledging the utility of the concept of vulnerability for the study of the integration of TCN women, TCN children and TCN VoT the authors also take into account that it stems from socially constructed

<sup>57</sup> For a more comprehensive discussion of the concept of vulnerability and how it relates to migrants please refer to the Methodology for Monitoring the Integration of Vulnerable Migrants.

<sup>58</sup> [http://ec.europa.eu/employment\\_social/spsi/vulnerable\\_groups\\_en.htm](http://ec.europa.eu/employment_social/spsi/vulnerable_groups_en.htm)

disadvantage of certain groups. Therefore, the present study is conducted with the caution that vulnerability is not inherent in a particular gender, sexual, ethnic or other identity. Consequently, the position of vulnerability of TCN women, TCN children and TCN VoT is considered context-specific and related to the particular societal, political and institutional environment in which they live. Whether they are in fact vulnerable or how vulnerable they are differs across countries and across different migrant groups. It is these differences that this comparative study aims to identify and discuss.

The scope of this report is limited to vulnerable migrants from third countries who are legally residing in the ten EU member states. The focus is on three main groups that include migrant women, migrant children and VoT who are third country nationals (TCN). Important migrant groups which are also associated with vulnerable circumstances are not included in the present comparison. Such groups are the migrants who are EU nationals, among which are the Roma, the asylum seekers, the refugees and the undocumented migrants. Left out from the scope of this study are also these TCN women who are engaged in significant numbers in the often informal care and domestic sectors of some member states (Belgium, Greece, Italy, Poland and Spain). Working informally and dependent on private households TCN women from this category are certainly prone to vulnerability. However; they can neither take advantage of official integration programmes, nor be registered in official statistics on employment.

The present comparative study involves several limitations. At the first level of investigation, that of policy, attention is paid to the legal frameworks, the programmes and the measures targeting the integration of legally residing TCN, while those targeting asylum seekers, refugees and persons granted subsidiary protection are not covered. The second level of investigation, however, that of integration outcomes, includes the categories of refugees and holders of subsidiary protection as they are part of the statistical data sets on TCN integration in both national statistical data banks and Eurostat. Consequently the discussion of integration outcomes that is based on statistical investigation regards both TCN and the latter two categories of TCN.

One of the findings of the present comparative study is that gender specific policies and programmes for TCN integration are mostly absent. Therefore, it was decided to discuss not only integration policies and programmes targeting TCN women or girls as a separate group, but also policies and programmes targeting both genders. This is justified by the fact that although they are not gender differentiated, these policies define the terms of the integration of TCN women and girls and are therefore highly relevant for the discussion of the levels of their integration. Whenever possible, the study also examines whether these gender policies meet the needs of TCN women or girls as groups with specific needs.

The present comparative study does not identify a causal link between the integration policies and the outcomes of TCN integration. Therefore, no evaluation of the policies of migrant integration is provided based on

the analysis of outcomes. Based on the two levels of analysis, the report outlines the main patterns in the integration of TCN women, TCN children and TCN VoT in ten member states and provides recommendations for the improvement of some aspects of these patterns where relevant.

Although Eurostat is the most reliable source of comparable statistical analysis across the EU, its data have a number of limitations for the present analysis. First, the latest data available upon elaboration of the current report was as of January 1, 2013, or more than two years old and hence does not reflect the Syrian refugee wave that affected millions of people, or developments in TCN populations in the years 2013 and 2014. Second, the major data sets associated with immigration and migrant integration started to be collected only a few years ago, with some EU member states providing data on certain indicators just since 2010 or even later. In addition, some EU member states (such as Bulgaria, Hungary, Malta, Poland or Slovakia) still do not provide reliable data on some migrant integration indicators. These limitations obstruct comparisons and monitoring of trends across time periods and across national contexts.

A serious limitation was encountered with regard to the data provided by Eurostat (and national statistical bodies) on migrant children. Data was available only by 5-year age groups (0-4, 5-9, 10-14 and 15-19) and not for the age group 0-17, thereby hindering the precise analysis of the situation of TCN children. Furthermore, the data provided on the majority of indicators is not available by citizenship, or is provided by broad group of citizenship, not allowing the differentiation of TCN from the broader group of foreigners. Keeping into consideration these limitations, however, the available data is still analysed in the current report, based on the assumption that it gives the general context in the fields of education and social inclusion influencing the situation of TCN children as well.

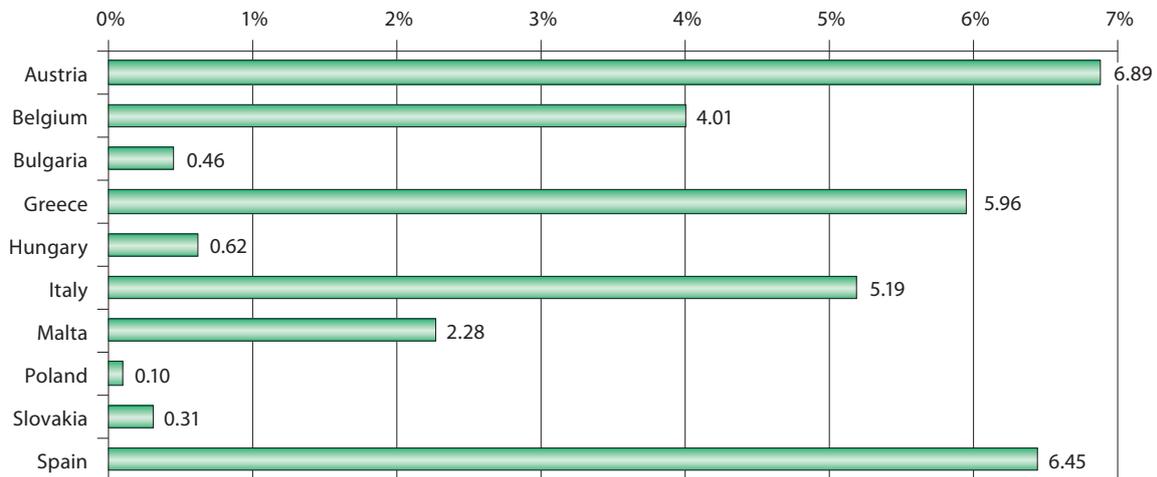
Whenever in the report a reference is made to “TCN” it regards both TCN women and men and whenever reference is made to TCN children it regards both TCN girls and boys. When discussion is offered for women or girls only, the reference provided is TCN women or TCN girls respectively. The same approach is applied with regard to TCN VoT. Within the report the terms migrants and immigrants are used interchangeably with TCN. Whenever these two terms are used to denote wider categories of migrants this is clearly indicated.

*Outline of the report:* The report follows the analytical structure of the national reports which provides a two level analysis for each of the three study groups: a) review of existing integration policies and programmes in a range of policy domains relevant to the integration of each of the study groups; and b) assessment of the integration outcomes for each study group based on quantitative/statistical data collected along measurable indicators. The report is structured along three main chapters focusing respectively on TCN women, TCN children and TCN VoT. Each chapter is structured in two sections, a policy assessment and assessment of outcomes, followed by conclusions and recommendations.

## OVERVIEW OF MIGRATION TRENDS

The ten countries included in the present analysis fall into two main groups regarding the share of TCN communities in their populations. The first group of countries have bigger TCN communities with shares of 4% to 7% in the general population (Austria, Belgium, Greece, Italy, Spain). The biggest TCN populations in absolute numbers are hosted by Italy and Spain (more than 3 million TCN in each country), followed by Greece, Austria and Belgium, each hosting around half a million TCN on its territory. The second group of countries have much smaller TCN populations with shares of 2.3% to 0.10% in the general population (Bulgaria, Hungary, Malta, Poland, Slovakia).

**FIGURE 1. THE SHARE OF TCN IN THE TOTAL POPULATION AS OF JANUARY 1, 2013 (%)**



**Source:** Eurostat (Population on 1 January by five year age group, sex group and citizenship [migr\_pop1ctz]).

The different sizes and the diverse national compositions of the TCN communities in the ten studied countries are the outcome of different migration histories that follow three main patterns. Austria and Belgium have longer histories of TCN immigration associated with post-colonial histories (Belgium) and history of guest worker migration from the middle of the XX century (Austria, Belgium). Immigration into the two countries was also the outcome of post-World War II refugee inflows. As a result, today Austria and Belgium are home to at least three generations of TCN. Greece, Italy and Spain, on the other hand, were transformed (in the last two to three decades) from countries of emigration into countries of immigration.<sup>59</sup> In that period, they have become magnets for labour migrants from countries outside the European continent. Thus, today the

<sup>59</sup> In Italy this process started in the mid-1970s and in Spain in the mid-1980s but it has intensified significantly since the 1990s. In Greece the process started after 1989 with the immigration of considerable waves of economic migrants from Albania and the countries of the ex-Soviet bloc such as Russia, Ukraine, Georgia (also Bulgaria, Romania, and Poland).

three countries are home to emerging second generation of TCN. Four of the countries in this study share post-World War II histories of communist regimes, associated with restrictive border management policies and highly controlled population movements (Bulgaria, Hungary, Poland, Slovakia). In the context of complex processes of political transition and economic instability after 1989 these countries have become countries of emigration. They remained a weak magnet for immigrants – a trend that did not change with the EU accession of the four countries (in 2004 for Hungary, Poland, Slovakia, and in 2007 for Bulgaria). On the contrary, emigration remained a defining component of their migration history (especially in Bulgaria, Hungary and Poland), and today the four countries are home to small numbers of first generation TCN.

## 1. ASSESSMENT OF THE INTEGRATION OF TCN WOMEN

### 1.1. Profile of TCN women

#### *Demography of TCN women*

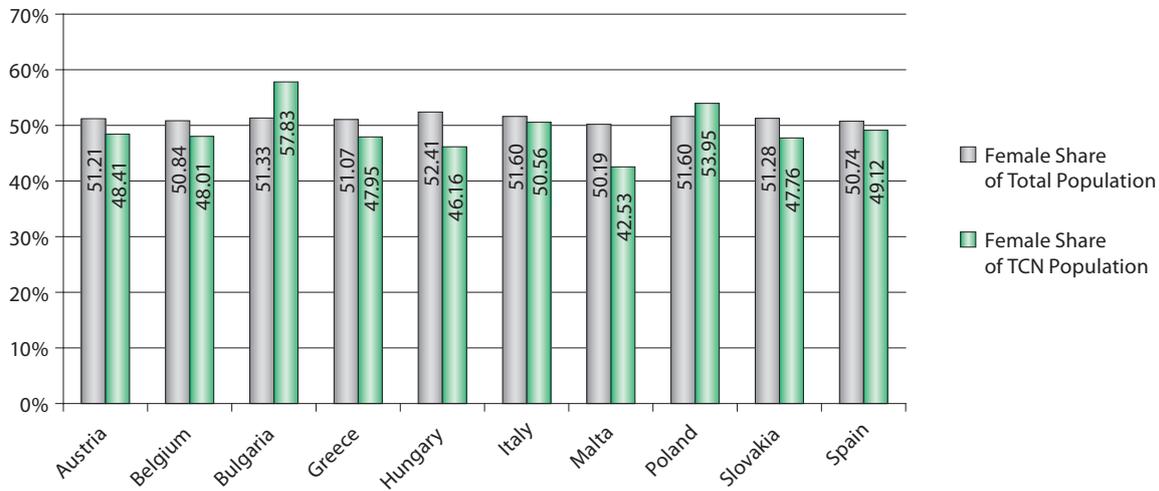
In the EU states with older and bigger immigrant communities (Austria, Belgium, Greece, Italy, Spain) TCN women form shares of 6% to 4% of the general female population.<sup>60</sup> Respectively, in the EU countries with moderate immigrant flows (Bulgaria, Hungary, Malta, Poland, Slovakia) TCN women have insignificant shares of the general female population of 0.3% to 1.93%.

Figure 2 demonstrates that the shares of TCN women in the general TCN population are smaller than the shares of the general female population in the general population. In only two countries (Bulgaria and Poland) the share of TCN women among the general TCN population are higher than the shares of the general TCN population in the general population. The negative difference for TCN women with respect to TCN men is highest in Malta (-7.66%) and lowest in Italy (-1.04%). In only two countries TCN women have stronger representation in the general TCN population (+6.5% in Bulgaria and +2.35% in Poland). The fact that TCN women form majorities in the TCN populations in Bulgaria (57.83%) and Poland (53.95%) can be explained with the dominant national profile of their immigrant communities. In both Bulgaria and Poland the top countries of origin of TCN include Russia, Ukraine, Belarus and Moldova. The fact is that TCN women from these origin countries form immigrant communities with stronger representation of women in all host EU member states.<sup>61</sup> The dominant tendency with regard to migrants from these countries is that TCN women migrate independently as heads of their family and in much higher numbers than men. Very often their children and husbands stay back home and they can join at a later stage through family reunification.

<sup>60</sup> See Table 15 in Annex III. Further references in the text to data tables can be found in the same Annex.

<sup>61</sup> This is the case with the respective Russian, Ukrainian, Belarusian, Moldovan communities in Austria, Belgium, Hungary, Italy and in the other EU countries, not included in this analysis (Tables 20, 21 and 22 in Annex III).

**FIGURE 2. THE SHARE OF WOMEN IN THE TOTAL POPULATION AND IN THE TCN POPULATION AS OF JANUARY 1, 2013 (%)**



**Source:** Eurostat (Population on 1 January by five year age group, sex group and citizenship [migr\_pop1ctz]).

A review of the age structure of the adult female TCN population in the ten countries (aged 20 and above)<sup>62</sup> shows that the youngest female TCN population can be found in Malta and Spain and the oldest in Bulgaria and Slovakia (Annex Table 16). The overwhelming majority of TCN women in Malta (86%) and Spain (84%) are aged up to 49 years. At the same time, half of the TCN women in Bulgaria (50%) and one third in Slovakia (30.5%) are above the age of 50. In all of the studied countries, except Bulgaria, TCN women in the age groups 20-49 prevail over those in the age groups 50+. In Hungary and Malta, the highest shares among TCN women are of those aged 20-29 (30.63% and 32.04% respectively). In five of the studied countries (Greece, Spain, Italy, Malta, Poland) more than half of the adult TCN women are aged 30-49.

#### *TCN women by status*

Data on first permits (Annex Table 17) show that in most of the studied countries (Austria, Belgium, Bulgaria, Greece, Italy, and Spain) joining a family member is the predominant reason for the migration of TCN women.<sup>63</sup> In these countries, smaller shares of TCN women migrate to pursue education and the smallest shares are of those who migrate for remuneration activities. Only in Italy more TCN women arrive for employment rather than for education and in Greece the shares are equal of those coming for education and employment. The picture in Poland and Hungary is very different since in these countries family unification is the least frequent reason for female migration. In Poland 0.9% and in Hungary 20.48% of the TCN women granted first permit have arrived

<sup>62</sup> Eurostat and national statistical institutes provide data for 5-year age groups. Therefore data on age structure for adult TCN women can be provided only for those aged 20 and above.

<sup>63</sup> Data for Malta and Slovakia are not available in Eurostat.

for family reasons. At the same time, almost half of those TCN women who received first permit in Poland arrived to find employment, while in Hungary the highest is the share of those who arrive in the country to pursue education (33.2%). It should be noted that in some of the studied countries significant shares of TCN women have received first permits for “other reasons”. This is the case in Bulgaria (46.45%), Poland (42.91%), Austria (33.05%) and Greece (25.36%).

In comparison in half of the studied countries the majority of first residence permits issued to TCN men are for family reasons as well (Annex Table 18). However, the shares of men are lower than those of women in Austria, Belgium, Bulgaria, Greece, Spain. In Italy, the prevailing reasons for TCN men to stay include remuneration activities coming first (43.93%) and family reasons coming second (33.63%). The picture is different again in Poland and Hungary where more TCN men than TCN women enter the country for family reasons (29.22% in Hungary and 9.74% in Poland). At the same time, bigger shares of TCN men than those of TCN women enter Poland for remuneration activities (55.79 %) and Hungary for education (33.74%).

Eurostat data (Annex Table 19) show that in four of the studied countries the share of TCN women who are long-term residents (among the general TCN long term residents) is equal or nearing the share of women within the total TCN population (Figure 2 above). This is the case in Austria, Belgium, Italy and Poland. In two countries, Bulgaria and Hungary, the share of women among long-term residents is somewhat higher than their share in the total TCN population. Conversely, in Greece and Spain the share of women among long-term residents is smaller than their share in the overall TCN population. The difference is most pronounced in Greece where TCN women form 48% of the total TCN population but only 34.57% of the long-term residents.

#### *National composition of TCN women*

The review of the national composition of the TCN populations in the ten studied countries is based on Eurostat data (Austria, Belgium, Bulgaria, Hungary, Italy) and on national data sources for the countries for which Eurostat data is unavailable (Greece, Malta, Poland, Slovakia, Spain).

The national profiles of the TCN populations in the ten studied countries show both similarities and diversity (Table 20; Table 21; Table 22 in Annex III). TCN populations from China and some of the countries of the former Soviet bloc (Russia, Ukraine, Moldova, Belarus or Armenia) appear to be among the top ten most numerous groups of TCN in most or all of the ten studied host countries. The TCN populations from countries of the former Soviet bloc appear to compose the core of immigrant populations in Bulgaria, Poland and Slovakia<sup>64</sup> and they are to be found among other national TCN groups in Austria, Belgium, Greece, Hungary and Italy. TCN groups that rank first in terms of numbers but remain unique for just

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<sup>64</sup> Data from national sources in Poland and Slovakia show that TCN from Russia and Ukraine are among the most numerous immigrant groups in these countries.

a couple of the studied countries include those coming from Morocco (1<sup>st</sup> country of origin in Belgium and 2<sup>nd</sup> country of origin and Italy), Albania (1<sup>st</sup> country of origin in Greece and Italy), Bosnia and Herzegovina (3<sup>rd</sup> country of origin in Austria), Serbia (2<sup>nd</sup> country of origin in Austria and 3<sup>rd</sup> country of origin in Hungary), Turkey (1<sup>st</sup> country of origin in Austria and 2<sup>nd</sup> country of origin in Belgium and Bulgaria).

The gender balance in the composition of the most numerous ethnic groups is very uneven, while at the same time it follows similar patterns for the same ethnic groups across host states. TCN populations originating from the countries of the former Soviet republics have very strong predominance of TCN women irrespectively of the host country. Predominance of women is to be found in the TCN populations from the Philippines (58.30% in Italy and 73.81% in Greece) and from China (more than 50% in Austria, Belgium and nearing 50% in Bulgaria and Italy).<sup>65</sup> TCN women are in the minority in immigrant communities originating from Afghanistan, Iraq, Syria, Egypt (shares of less than 30%), India, Nigeria, Algeria, Iran and Tunisia (shares of less than 40%).

Difference in the gender profiles across host states is observed only with regard to the TCN communities originating from Turkey. While in Austria and Belgium they have near to equal male-female shares, in Bulgaria and in Hungary women are in the minority (22.77% in Bulgaria and 29.24% in Hungary).

## 1.2. Policy assessment

The first chapter of the report regarding TCN women examines the policy measures and programmes that exist in different areas of integration, i.e. employment, education, social inclusion, active citizenship and anti-discrimination. This section will analyse whether and how these policies take into account the integration needs of TCN migrant women.

### 1.2.1. Employment

The right to employment for TCN is closely related to the entry regimes in the ten studied countries which apply the same conditions for both TCN women and men. Respectively, the regulations for labour market access of TCN in the ten countries apply in the same way to both men and women. Overall, the policies and programmes for facilitation of the labour market participation of TCN are designed and applied without gender distinction. Policies and programmes targeting TCN women are rather the exception and are to be found in just few countries of this study (Austria, Hungary, Italy, Spain).

#### *Access to the labour market*

In all of the ten studied countries certain categories of TCN have access to the labour market equal to that of nationals and other categories of

<sup>65</sup> The data for Greece come from a national source (Greek Ministry of Interior, reference date 10.02.2014).

TABLE 6. ACCESS TO THE LABOUR MARKET FOR TCN

EU MS	Access equal to nationals	Work permit	Labour market test*
Austria	✓	✓	✓
Belgium	✓	✓	✓
Bulgaria	✓	✓	✓
Greece	✓	✓	No
Hungary	✓	✓	✓
Italy	✓	✓	No
Malta	✓	✓	✓
Poland	✓	✓	✓
Slovakia	✓	✓	✓
Spain	✓	✓	✓

\* "Labour market test" refers to the requirement to prove that there are no candidates for the job who are nationals, or nationals and EU citizens, or nationals, EU citizens and legally residing TCN in order to have a work permit issued.

Source: ASSESS National Reports.

TCN have restricted access to the labour market, conditioned by a work permit and in most cases dependent on labour market test.

In Belgium, access to the labour market equal to that of nationals is available for TCN of specific professions<sup>66</sup> or for TCN with a permanent residence permit or a residence permit based on family reunification with an EU citizen. In Greece, this right is available to holders of long-term residence permits and of residence permits for family reunification after one year residence in the country, while in Bulgaria it is given to holders of permanent and long-term residence permits, in Poland to holders of long-term EU and permanent residence permits and in Slovakia only to holders of permanent residence.

In Austria access to the labour

market equal to that of nationals is given to TCN holding permits issued on humanitarian grounds, issued after residence of more than 5 years, or Blue Card – EU residence of 2 years, as well as to family members, including family members of EEA citizens. The most restrictive appears to be the regime in Malta where only TCN who are family members of EEA/Switzerland citizens can access the labour market without the need to apply for an employment license.

#### *Labour market test*

In all ten countries certain categories of TCN have restricted access to the labour market which depends on the issuance of work permit. Only in Greece<sup>67</sup> and Italy labour market tests are not applied to TCN entering the country with work permits. In the other eight of the studied countries a labour market test is being applied to all or some of the categories of TCN with restricted labour market access. In Belgium, a labour market test procedure is applied for applicants for work permit B. The procedure is the responsibility of regional governments and involves investigation if there are no suitable candidates already having access to

<sup>66</sup> As defined in the Royal Decree (9 June 1999) on the implementation of the Law on the Employment of Foreign Employees (30 April 1999).

<sup>67</sup> In Greece, only invitees for seasonal and temporary employment can work in the country based on decision of the Secretary General of the decentralised administration that authorises the employment of third country nationals to a specific labour sector and employer, if the number of jobs provided has not been exhausted by natives and EU national or long-term residents TCN (article 11/L. 4251/2014).

the labour market to take the job within a reasonable amount of time and if necessary after specific vocational training (Art. 8 of the Royal Decree of 9 June 1999). In certain occasions the labour market test is not applied in Belgium – for example in the case of shortfall occupations.<sup>68</sup> In Bulgaria, all TCN applying for work permits are subject to labour market tests. According to the Regulation for Issuance, Denial or Withdrawal of Work Permits for Foreigners in the Republic of Bulgaria work permits could be issued only upon employer's application and upon proof that there are no available employees for the job among Bulgarian, EU or EAA citizens or among the long-term TCN residents (Art. 6, 1/1). In addition, work permits could be issued only in case the TCN staff at the respective enterprise does not exceed 10% of the overall staff (Law on Encouraging Employment, Art. 71/ 2). The labour market test in Spain is tied to trimester catalogues listing the occupations for which there is high demand for workers. The catalogues are prepared by the Public Service for State Employment (SEPE) for each Spanish province. For jobs that are not included in the catalogue, the employer must prove that the offer of employment for which s/he is contracting a TCN cannot be filled in by a Spanish national. The labour market test procedure in Malta is applied to all TCN categories with the exception of long-term residents, asylum seekers, refugees and beneficiaries of temporary humanitarian protection and subsidiary protection. The labour market test refers to a three stage process that includes: 1) a check if there is a Maltese or EU national to fill the post; 2) an assessment of the TCN's suitability for the post; and 3) assessment of the employer's suitability, verifying whether there is the possibility for employment.<sup>69</sup> In Hungary, the labour market test is not applied for certain TCN categories such as those employed in academic institutions (research centres and universities) and those who have lived in the country for five years and have been spouses to a TCN working in the country for 8 years.

The presence of labour market test policies in the majority of the studied countries demonstrates that they pursue rather restrictive policy with regard to labour market access for TCN who are temporary residents. In the member states with younger and smaller immigrant communities which are dominated by temporary residence holders the labour market test policy serves to effectively restrict the national labour market guided by the understanding that it should be protected from foreign labour force (Bulgaria, Poland).

#### *Participation in the labour market*

In the ten countries included in this study, TCN (both men and women) can benefit from services facilitating their access to the labour market in the framework of either active labour market policies for the general

<sup>68</sup> Shortfall occupations are occupations of which it is established that there is a shortage of employees on the labour market. Identifying shortfall occupations is a regional responsibility; therefore they differ in each region. However, this measure is targeted towards potential employees from the new EU-member states, rather than TCN since the latter only qualify for this exception if they are long-term residents in one of the EU member states.

<sup>69</sup> There is no set time-frame for clearance issuance regarding the labour market test in Malta. This makes the process ambiguous for TCN seeking immediate employment, while also making it difficult to provide potential employers an indication to their start-date.

TABLE 7. FACILITATION OF TCN PARTICIPATION IN THE LABOUR MARKET

EU MS	By general population programmes	By targeted programmes for TCN (offered by public employment offices)	By targeted programmes for TCN (project based)	Staff trainings
Austria	✓	✓	✓	✓
Belgium	✓	✓	✓	✓
Bulgaria	✓	only refugees	✓	No
Greece	✓	No	✓	No
Hungary	✓	No	✓	No
Italy	✓	✓	✓	✓
Malta	✓	No	✓	No
Poland	✓	only refugees	✓	✓
Slovakia	✓	No	✓	No
Spain	✓	No	✓	No

Source: ASSESS National Reports.

(native) population, or in the framework of targeted programmes. Targeted programmes for TCN can be provided by public employment offices or outside the government framework by non-governmental organisations. It should be stressed that initiatives for facilitating the employment of TCN women, as a distinct group, have been identified in just few of the studied countries. The findings of the ten national studies reveal that the general tendency applied by both governmental and non-governmental structures is to provide labour market facilitation services for both genders.

The active labour market policies in the ten studied countries are implemented by public employment services and are aimed to assist vulnerable members of the general population (young or older persons, low-qualified persons, long-term unemployed, people with disabilities, etc.) in job orientation and job placement. TCN both men and women (usually those who are permanent or long-term residents, recognised refugees and persons under subsidiary protection) have rights to apply and partake in these programmes under the same conditions and terms of participation as nationals. In some of the studied countries however, these programmes are conducted in the national language only, and are therefore accessible only for TCN who have this knowledge (Bulgaria, Greece, Poland).

In Austria, the services of the public employment offices include provision of information and counselling, job placement, qualification

measures, assistance for specific trainings, travel cost assistance for job interviews and commuting, or assistance for moving for a new job. In Belgium, active labour market inclusion measures are implemented at federal, regional and community level and include financial benefits for employers, service vouchers for household help, job coaching or diversity policy initiatives to encourage Belgian entrepreneurs to develop diversity policy. In Bulgaria, the services provided by the Labour Bureaus include provision of information about job vacancies, participation in job fairs organised by the EA, mediation and support in starting a job, specialised employment measures, including through subsidised employment and professional trainings. In Italy, Job Centres (CPI) located in every province and run by the Provincial Administrations provide a first-contact and job guidance service to workers, information on the labour market, laws and regulations and job opportunities, as well as training courses specifically aimed at placing or re-placing workers in the workplace. All services are free of charge after due registration with the service. In Malta, the Employment and Training Corporation provides targeted courses for TCN on cultural awareness and employment entitled "Living and Working in Malta." In Slovakia, the offices of labour, social affairs and family provide general job orientation services that include counselling, educational and re-qualification programmes, job fairs, information markets and programmes for the young. The services provided by the corresponding offices in Spain include provision of information, orientation and assistance to unemployed persons (SIPE), assistance for self-employment, labour market mediation, contracts for realising work assignments of public interest, professional trainings, job workshops and professional schools for unemployed youth.

In some of the studied countries respective targeted services for labour market facilitation are provided to TCN by public employment offices (Austria, Belgium, Italy). Some examples include targeted services to foreign nationals and work with specially trained operators, such as cultural mediators in some of the Job Centres in Italy. In Austria, targeted job orientation services for TCN vary from region to region and include German language and integration courses, job orientation workshops, courses on employment in industry, trade, tourism and cleaning. In Belgium, a set of targeted measures for TCN, including job orientation, are implemented in the framework of the Flemish Civic Integration Programme.

In the rest of the studied countries public employment offices do not target TCN as a group with specific needs (Bulgaria, Greece, Hungary, Malta, Poland, Slovakia, Spain). In some countries such as Spain TCN may be prioritised in the general job orientation programmes but are not treated as a separate group with particular needs. In some of these countries exception is made only for refugees and humanitarian status holders (Bulgaria, Poland). This policy approach is the outcome of an understanding that by measure of administrative requirements TCN are employed and not in need of job orientation and labour market assistance. This approach owes to the relatively small numbers of immigrants and the restrictive labour markets to TCN in Bulgaria, Hungary, Malta, Slovakia and Poland.

Job orientation services for TCN of genders are provided out of the networks of the Public Employment Offices and often by non-governmental organisations in all of the studied countries. The scope of such services varies from country to country. For example, the Austrian Integration Fund (ÖIF) operates six Integration Centres which, among other things, provides job orientation and counselling services. In Greece, some ESF-funded project based initiatives focused on providing career counselling and basic skills development service to TCN aiming to assist them in accessing mainstream employment.

A number of initiatives have been identified in some of the studied countries that aim at facilitating the access to the labour market of TCN women as a group with particular needs (Austria, Hungary, Italy, Spain). These initiatives may be provided by public employment offices to include services targeting women from the general (native) population or TCN women (Austria, Spain) or by NGOs (Austria, Hungary, Italy, Spain). In Austria, just few of the targeted labour market orientation services (provided by public employment offices) for TCN are provided specifically to TCN women and they include the provision of courses for women who want to return to work after periods of care work at home or the Women's Employment Centre in Tyrol. It should be noted that in Lower Austria these services are offered in 15 languages and interpreters are provided when necessary. In Spain, TCN women are considered a category with specific needs by the Ministry of Health, Social Services and Equality (MHSSE) which develops programmes for the promotion of socio-labour inclusion of migrant women and persons victims of multiple discriminations. The programmes are either territorial (AURORA) or sectoral (SARA). The main services provided within the territorial programmes include information, motivation, assistance and training services (the AURORA programme). In addition, in Spain the Employment Regional Service (SEF) (in cooperation with the General Directorate for Gender Based Violence Prevention and Youth Reform) runs a gender sensitive labour market integration program for vulnerable women. The programme aims to enhance the employability of women victims of gender-based violence by supporting their economic independence and enabling them to recover from abusive situations.

Targeted services facilitating the labour market participation of TCN women are often provided by NGOs out of the framework of public employment offices. In Austria, the Austrian Integration Fund offers a mentoring programme (aiming to serve 50% female participation) providing networks for migrants in order to find employment and support in writing resumes and motivation letters, and job interview preparation. In Hungary, only one ESF-funded project run by an NGO (Jövőkerék Alapítvány) provides specialised labour market inclusion services to TCN women. The programme involves a combination of coaching and personality development services. In Italy, some ESF-funded regional programmes are intended for weak TCN categories in the labour market (including women) and provide vocational training and language learning programmes, labour market placement services, employment incentives and incentives for enterprise creation. In addition, a number of local projects in Italy (including those co-financed by the European Fund for

the Integration of Third Country Nationals) aimed at women immigrants, are designed to facilitate entry in the workplace and encourage integration in a broader sense. The civil society sector in Spain is reported to be the most effective in development of targeted programmes for the labour market integration of TCN and TCN women. For example, the SARA programmes are implemented by NGOs such as the Red Cross and CEPAIM. In the seven years of operation of the programme a total of 1,422 TCN women have been assisted in labour market inclusion.

Specialised trainings for staff at Public Employment Offices are being provided in some of the studied countries (Austria, Belgium, Italy, Poland) and are not provided in others (Bulgaria, Greece, Hungary, Malta, Slovakia, Spain). In Upper Austria, for example, a mandatory intercultural competence training is provided for the public employment officers. Trainings on working with and counselling migrants are being provided to staff in other parts of Austria. Trainings for staff in public labour offices in Italy are provided only at regional level and are not a national measure, while in Poland they are provided only by NGOs on a project basis and are unsystematic.

### 1.2.2. Education

#### *Language training*

Language training for TCN is being provided for both men and women along programmes run or commissioned by public institutions (Austria, Belgium, Italy, Malta, Spain)<sup>70</sup> and along project based initiatives implemented by NGOs (Bulgaria, Greece, Hungary, Italy, Poland, Slovakia, Spain). In three of the studied countries, language training is mandatory for certain TCN categories (Austria, Belgium, Italy). It is important to note that the ten national studies on which the present comparison is based did not identify any language courses designed especially for vulnerable migrant women in accordance with their particular needs.

Language training for TCN in Austria is provided by different institutions such as the Vocational Training Institute, Community Education Centres and the Institute for the Advancement of the Economy, all of them certified by the Austrian Integration Fund (AIF). AIF subsidises 50% of the German language course fees when attendance takes place in the context of the first module of the Integration Agreement. Similar subsidies are provided in some provinces and some other organisations, such as the Chamber of Labour. In Belgium, TCN learn any of the three official languages depending on where in the country they are located. Language training is more developed in the Flemish community where it is provided by centres for basic education (for illiterate or low literacy TCN) and by training centres within universities or centres for adult education (for highly educated migrants). In Italy, language training is provided by the central government, regional and local authorities. The Permanent Territorial Centres (CTP), operating at primary or secondary

<sup>70</sup> The language programmes in Spain are run by the autonomous communities.

schools throughout Italy, offer free of charge Italian courses for adults. These courses are open to Italian citizens and TCN, with TCN forming 50% of the participants.<sup>71</sup> Since 2014, CTPs have been replaced by Adult Education Provincial Centres (CPIA). In Malta, language training to TCN is provided by the Employment and Training Corporation. It includes courses in “Basic English for TCN” and “Basic Maltese for TCN”. Language courses for TCN in Malta are also provided by the Lifelong Learning Directorate of the Ministry of Education and the Malta Qualifications Framework.

In some of the studied countries, language training to TCN is provided on a project basis by NGOs in addition to state run programmes (Italy, Malta), while in other this is the only channel of assisting migrants into learning the host country language (Bulgaria, Greece, Hungary, Poland, Slovakia, Spain). The NGOs providing language training to TCN may be funded by state, EU or private funds. In Bulgaria, Hungary, Poland and Slovakia language training to TCN is provided only by NGOs in a non-systematic manner (designed and implemented ad hoc) as depends most often on the availability of funds from the EIF. It should be noted that state organised language training in these countries is available only for asylum seekers, refugees and humanitarian status holders in the framework of their asylum institutions. In Spain, language courses are within the competence of the Autonomous Communities and are generally conducted by NGOs.

It is important to note that Austria, Belgium and Italy provide language training schemes that are mandatory for some TCN categories. In Austria, it is not language courses that are mandatory but there is a mandatory demand of the Integration Agreement that within 2 years of residence TCN demonstrate German language knowledge of B1 level. Similar demands are posed by the Integration Agreement in Italy according to which any TCN has to acquire at least an A2 level of Italian knowledge and obtain 30 credits of Italian language course before his/her residence permit expires. In Belgium, certain groups of newly arrived TCN are obliged to get language training through the civic integration course (in the Flemish community). Similar steps are planned in the French community by the Walloon Government for making French language courses mandatory for newcomers and economic migrants with work permit B.

#### *Professional training*

The policy approaches with regard to professional or vocational training for TCN are similar to those regarding TCN job orientation. These approaches include public services for the general population accessible for certain TCN categories (all ten studied countries), some targeted vocational training services for TCN within public service frameworks (Belgium, Austria, Italy) or within the framework of the non-governmental sector (Bulgaria, Greece, Hungary, Poland, Slovakia, Spain). Targeted trainings to TCN women are being conducted by NGOs in some of the studied countries (Italy, Spain).

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<sup>71</sup> Within the framework of this system, in the year 2011/2012 a total of 4,929 literacy and Italian language courses took place throughout Italy, with a total of 160,388 foreign nationals attending of whom 78,534 were women (49% of the total).

TCN women can be the recipients of targeted vocational training services as long as they fall in the vulnerable categories of people eligible for vocational training provided by public employment offices (as defined by the respective national public services). In these cases vocational training is provided to TCN women from the respective vulnerable categories, such as single mothers, elderly and jointly with native women falling in the same categories. Vocational training services for the general population groups are provided by the Public Employment Services in Austria, the Regional Public Unemployment Service in the Walloon region of Belgium, the Labour Bureaus in Bulgaria, the Organisation for Manpower Employment in Greece, the National Employment Offices in Hungary, the Public System of Vocational Training of the Regions in Italy, the Employment and Training Corporation in Malta, the National Employment Offices Poland and Slovakia and the Autonomous Centres for Employment in Spain. While opened to certain categories of TCN (usually those who have free access to the labour market)<sup>72</sup> these programs are not designed in consideration to their specific needs and are provided in the national language/s.

In Austria, the Public Employment Office (AMS) of Lower Austria offers targeted courses for migrants, more than half of which are intended for women. These include courses for TCN women who want to return to work after staying at home for care work. In Belgium, the public employment offices approach TCN as a category with specific needs and therefore develop some targeted vocational programmes for this group in the framework of the civic integration programme. In the framework of the Flemish civic integration programme TCN can take part in a secondary programme, which entails vocational training or training in how to start up a business. The programme is organised in cooperation with the regional public unemployment services, i.e. VDAB (Flanders and Brussels Capital Region) and Actiris (Brussels Capital Region).

Some professional and vocational training services to TCN are provided on a project basis by NGOs or international organisations. Some examples include vocational training courses provided by the International Organization for Migration in Bulgaria and Slovakia or project-based and funded by the Ministry of Employment and Social Protection in Greece or by EU funds (EQUAL and EIF) in Poland.

### **1.2.3. Social inclusion**

#### *Access to social assistance programmes*

In all ten studied countries, TCN of certain categories have access to social benefits and social assistance. Social benefits such as maternity leave packages, family benefits (or child allowances), unemployment benefits and old age pensions are covered by countries' contributory systems and depend on the payment of insurance contributions. Respectively,

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<sup>72</sup> In Austria, everybody who has worked 52 weeks within the preceding two years has access to services of the public employment offices.

TCN have access to those benefits only if they make the corresponding contributions and meet the social insurance criteria for each benefit. In some of the studied countries, certain types of family benefits are provided under their social assistance systems. Social assistance benefits for vulnerable categories of the population, including those already in poverty or at risk of falling under the poverty line are covered by the social assistance systems of the ten countries. The access of TCN to these benefits is dependent on a combination of criteria relating to status and length of stay. In Austria, for example, the requirement for access to the so called “needs-based minimum benefits” is that a TCN has lived in Austria for more than five years. In Slovakia, some benefits (such as maternity benefits, unemployment benefits and disability benefits) are accessible to all TCN (men and women) regardless of their residence status. In Spain, on the other hand, access to social assistance programmes for TCN depends on social security contributions and wage levels.

It should be noted that in some of the newer member states (Bulgaria, Hungary, Poland) access of TCN to social assistance benefits remains very restrictive in practice. This is the outcome of immigration policies driven by concerns for protection of the national labour markets and the national social assistance systems. Respectively, the provision of long-term and permanent residence to TCN in these countries is strictly tied to requirements for proof of financial self-sufficiency. These requirements are designed to guarantee that TCN applicants will not rely on the social assistance system of the country. The outcome of these residence requirements is that TCN with long-term and permanent residence status who have access to the social assistance system are the least vulnerable in the general group of migrants.

One important observation regards those EU member states with decentralised governance structures and migrant integration management where conditions for access to social assistance services and benefits may appear more restrictive at the local level. In states such as Austria, Italy and Spain there are regional variations regarding eligibility conditions for different social assistance benefits. In some cases eligibility requirements are raised for TCN in certain localities, for example with regard to housing benefits (Austria, Spain) or with regard to other social benefits (Italy).

Maternity leave is accessible to all TCN who have paid the respective insurance contributions (Austria, Bulgaria, Greece, Italy, Malta, Poland, Spain). In Bulgaria, maternity benefits are provided in cash and in kind. Entitled to benefits in cash for maternity are third country nationals provided they are insured against this specific risk (irrespective of whether they are long-term or temporary residents). TCN with long term residence have the same right as Bulgarian citizens to maternity benefits in kind. In Hungary, two types of parental leave benefits are provided – an employment related and a universal parental leave. The second type of benefit entitles the recipient to a much lesser sum and is given to mothers without income or with very low income (it is provided for 3 years for each child) and is accessible to TCN with valid residence permit of at least 6 months and an address card.

*Child care and family benefits*

In the ten studied countries child care benefits (or family benefits) are provided within their social security systems (Austria, Belgium, Greece, Hungary, Italy, Spain), their social assistance systems (Austria, Belgium, Hungary, Italy, Malta, Poland) or within both (Spain). TCN can receive benefits of both categories (provided by the social security or social assistance system) depending on certain country-specific residence requirements and on eligibility criteria applicable to nationals. The social security benefits usually depend on employment and the payment of insurance contributions, while the flat rate (or guaranteed) benefits are given to parents who are either unemployed or did not contribute enough to the social insurance system. The second type of benefits can be covered either by the social assistance system (Austria, Belgium) or the social security system (Italy). In one of the studied countries (Bulgaria) TCN are not entitled to family benefits. According to the Bulgarian legislation, the right to family benefits and benefits for children<sup>73</sup> is strictly linked to Bulgarian citizenship. TCN are entitled to such allowances only if they are married to a Bulgarian citizen and the children are with Bulgarian citizenship and are raised in the country.

***Some examples of how family benefits of the first type are accessible for TCN include the income-related child care allowances in Austria which are provided by the AMS in amounts depending on the family income and the childcare costs. These benefits are provided to working parents which meet at least one of a number of conditions (in the last three years started a new job, registered as seeking work or taken a labour market-related course, attended the programme for establishing an enterprise with the AMS, changed working times which requires a new child care schedule, lost a caretaker, or experienced substantial worsening of the income situation despite being employed). The so called guaranteed child benefits in Belgium are provided to parents/children who cannot claim any entitlements in the general system or in any foreign or international system and granted to TCN only after five years of uninterrupted legal residence. Family allowances in Italy are provided to families of employees whose family units are made up of more than one person and have incomes below a certain figure. These benefits are accessible to TCN with long-term residence permit, refugees or beneficiaries of subsidiary protection.***

***Some examples of how social assistance family benefits are accessible to TCN come from Belgium where these benefits are available for TCN migrants based on a minimum residence requirement and provided they meet the general eligibility criteria (applicable to nationals as well). In Austria, the so called flat-rate childcare allowance is provided to persons who do not qualify for the income-related allowances (persons who have not worked 6 months before the child was born) and to parents who are below a certain annual income. Both the flat rate and the income-related allowances are accessible to those registered in the central register of Austria with main residence in Austria. They are the same for Austrian and TCN families and single parents. In Italy, the so called maternity allowance provides financial support, granted by municipalities (and paid by the national social security institute) to mothers that have not paid sufficient contributions to be entitled to full maternity benefits. The benefit is accessible to TCN women holding a long-term EU residence permit as well as refugee women. TCN families with long-term***

<sup>73</sup> Family benefits include: one-time pregnancy benefit, one-time benefit upon child birth, one-off benefit for raising twins under the age of one, one-off benefit for the raising of a child under the age of one by a mother who is a full-time university student, monthly allowances for a child until graduation from high school, but not after the age of 20, monthly allowances for raising children under the age of one, targeted allowances for school children, targeted allowances for free railway and bus transport in Bulgaria to mothers of multiple children.

*residence permits in Italy have access to the so called “baby bonus benefits” which involves monthly financial aid of 80 EUR to parents of children born between January 2015 and December 2017 having a combined income of less than 25,000 EUR. Hungary grants a universal child allowance to all families with children under 18. The allowance is accessible to TCN with a residence permit of at least 6 months and a residence card. In Malta, family benefits are covered under the non-contributory scheme and include children’s allowance, disabled children’s allowance, and foster care allowance. These benefits are accessible to limited categories of TCN – those from countries, part of the European Social Charter, long-term residents; spouses of Maltese citizens, EU blue card holders, or researchers under Council Directive 2005/71/EC.*

#### *Access to information in the native language of migrants*

Two main trends have been observed with regard to the provision of information to TCN in their own language. More comprehensive and diverse information services in migrants’ own languages are developed in the countries with older migration histories and larger TCN communities (Austria, Belgium, Italy, Spain). In these countries such services are provided by both public institutions and non-governmental organisations. The approach in the countries with smaller TCN groups where language services are provided predominantly by NGOs (Bulgaria, Greece, Hungary, Malta, Poland and Slovakia) is less developed and rather unsystematic. No policies or practices have been identified of language provision in the own language, especially designed for TCN women.

Some examples from the countries in the first group will be provided from Austria, Belgium and Italy. In Austria, various information services in the form of personal consultations, printed materials as well as interpretation are provided throughout the country with regional variations. These services are provided by the AMS, by many NGOs as well as by trade unions, often in the migrants’ mother tongues (Turkish, Serbo-Croat, Russian as well as English). In Belgium, the Flemish government subsidises a system of “social interpretation and translation,” developed to overcome language barriers between service providers and their non-Dutch speaking clients. Social interpreters and translators are available in a very large variety of languages, and public and social service providers can make use of their services. This system used to be free or at low cost, with payment depending on the type of service providers. In addition, information in TCN own language is provided along ad hoc initiatives by health providers, schools and other organisations. In Italy, an important information point for TCN appear to be the welfare and social assistance institutes which provide free assistance for administrative procedures for welfare or social security benefits. These offices have translated into a number of languages the main points of the respective legislation, and make use of the collaboration of linguistic and cultural mediators. In addition, information guidance and multilingual operators and materials are being provided to TCN by the country’s numerous NGO associations.

One common feature for the countries in the second group is that the provision of information materials in the language of TCN is not

yet a standard practice. Instances of development and distribution of information materials in these countries are related more often to project funding and are not a sustainable activity. There are no standard procedures and practices for the provision of relevant information materials in the native languages of TCN' at the main contact institutions for integration such as employment offices or social care services. Respectively, there is no provision of information in migrants' own languages with respect to issues such as health services, child care benefits or schooling which are often dealt with by women. Some examples will be provided from Bulgaria, Poland and Slovakia. In Bulgaria, information materials in Russian and English have been developed and distributed by the IOM Migrant Information Centres. For the first time in 2014 an information brochure for TCN refugees in Arabic, French and English language was developed by the Employment Agency together with the State Agency for Refugees. The brochure was developed following the big inflow of asylum seekers in the country since 2013, providing information about the services provided by the Labour Bureaus. In Poland, the Ministry of Interior and the Ministry of Labour and Social Policy have started to provide information in languages used by the majority of migrants in the country (Ukrainian, Russian, English, Vietnamese, French). However, practices for the provision of information in the mother tongue of TCN are still the exception. In Slovakia, information services to TCN are provided by the Migration Center of IOM. In addition, the EURES centres and the websites and offices of various NGOs in the country provide information to TCN on employment conditions into several languages (English, Russian and German). In Hungary and Malta the languages of public information services to migrants remain respectively Hungarian, Maltese and English. However, while in Hungary there are no public information services or materials for TCN, in Malta respective public institutions operate online information portals for TCN.

#### **1.2.4. Active citizenship**

##### *Political participation*

It shall be noted that the legal regimes regulating the political participation of TCN in all ten studied countries make no distinction between men and women. Therefore, TCN women and men have exactly the same rights (or lack of rights) with regard to political participation. No initiatives to encourage or facilitate the political participation of TCN women have been identified in any of the studied countries. This may be explained by the fact that the policies of all ten studied countries appear rather restrictive with regard to rendering formal channels for political participation of TCN and little experience is being accumulated in this regard. In the countries where TCN have some political rights there is no practice of monitoring the trends in participation in the political life of men and women. Consequently, there is no sound basis for designing of policies for encouragement of the political participation of TCN women.

TABLE 8. POLITICAL, CIVIC AND COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION OF TCN\*

EU MS	Right to						
	vote in elections		run for elections		be member of a political party	be member of a trade union	form associations
	National	Local	National	Local			
Austria	No	No	No	No <sup>✓</sup>	✓	✓	✓
Belgium	No	No/Yes**	No	No <sup>✓</sup>	✓	✓	✓
Bulgaria	No	No	No	No	No	✓	✓
Greece	No	No	No	No <sup>✓</sup>	✓	✓	✓
Hungary	No	✓	No	No	✓	✓	✓
Italy	No	No <sup>✓</sup>	No	No <sup>✓</sup>	✓	✓	✓
Malta	No	No	No	No	✓	✓	✓
Poland	No	No	No	No	No	✓	✓
Slovakia	No	✓	No	✓	No	✓	✓
Spain	No	No/Yes***	No	✓	✓	✓	✓

\* The symbol <sup>✓</sup> in this table indicates that there are practices which aim to overcome the absence of rights for political or community participation of TCN. For an explanation, please note the text in the paragraphs below the table.

\*\* In Belgium, TCN cannot vote in regional and provincial elections, but they can vote in municipal elections.

\*\*\* In Spain, TCN do not have the right to vote in regional elections but certain categories of TCN can vote in municipal elections.

Source: ASSESS National Reports.

TCN do not have the right to vote or run for national elections in all of the ten studied countries. More varied appears the picture with regard to the right to political participation at the local level. While TCN enjoy no voting rights at regional or provincial level (Austria, Belgium, Italy, Spain) in four of the studied countries (Belgium, Hungary, Slovakia, Spain) they have the right to vote at municipal elections.<sup>74</sup> The right to vote at local level is most restricted in Spain where it is accessible only to TCN from countries with which reciprocity agreements have been signed.<sup>75</sup> According to these agreements TCN can vote in municipal elections in Spain only if the Spanish nationals are allowed to vote at municipal level in the respective third country. It should be noted that of the four countries only Slovakia and Spain have given the right to TCN to run for local elections. In Spain, this right is accessible only to TCN from countries with which reciprocity agreements have been signed.

<sup>74</sup> In Greece, full political rights to vote and be elected at the local level were extended to TCN by Law No.3838/2010. This decision, however, was declared unconstitutional and suspended by the Greek Council of State (Plenary Court Decision 460/2013). Therefore, TCN in Greece participated in local elections only once in the 2010 elections and have lost this right since then.

<sup>75</sup> At the end of 2014, these countries were Bolivia, Chile, Colombia, Ecuador, Paraguay, Peru, Iceland, Norway, New Zealand and Cape Verde. Signature of reciprocity agreements with Argentina, Burkina Faso and Trinidad and Tobago is upcoming

One promising approach has been identified in Austria, Belgium, Greece and Italy where local level initiatives serve to extend rights to political participation to TCN. These initiatives include extension of rights to vote at the local level (Italy) or different forms of participation in local level decision making (Austria, Belgium, Greece, Italy).

Attempts to extend rights to political participation to TCN exist in Italy only with initiatives to provide the right to vote to TCN in regional referendums (Emilia Romagna Region) or in municipal referendums (Municipality of Naples).

Initiatives to facilitate participation of TCN in local level policy making usually include the constitution of local level bodies with the participation of TCN. These bodies usually have consultative functions and serve to advocate for the integration of the local TCN population. In some cities of Austria the so-called Migrants' Councils have been constituted. Depending on the region TCN can either vote for these Councils under the condition that they have their main residence in the city and are above the age of 16 (Graz) or send delegates (through migrant organisations) who are then appointed by the mayor (Linz). In the province of Salzburg an Integration Council is currently being established to provide counsel to the provincial government. Members of the Council will be both nationals and TCN to be either elected or appointed. In Belgium, one way to compensate for the lack of political participation of TCN at the local level involves the nomination of the Forum for Ethnic-Cultural Minorities by the Flemish government as the so called „participating organisation“ serving as spokesperson formulating policy recommendations for the rights and integration of TCN. In Greece, the so called Migrant Integration Councils (MIC) were established at the local level in order to promote the political and civic participation of TCN. The advisory membership in MICs is open to representatives of migrant associations or representatives elected by the migrant community who are permanent residents of the municipality. MICs are designed to function as consultative bodies to the municipal authorities regarding problems faced by TCN. However, MICs have not been formed in many municipalities and in the municipalities in which they exist (Athens and Thessaloniki with big concentration of TCN) they function as consultative but not active bodies. In Italy, TCN are given venue to have a voice in local governance through an Adjunct Councillor and the so called Elective Councils. The Adjunct Councillor is being elected by TCN who are regular residents in a municipality, and is present in 29 local administrations. The Adjunct Councillor is not entitled to vote in Council and Committee meetings but has an advisory status that has proven very relevant for giving voice to TCN in local administrations. Similarly Elective Councils which are composed of TCN representatives are formed in an advisory capacity by some municipal and provincial councils and have served to give space for action to resident TCN.

In most of the studied countries TCN are allowed to be members of political parties. This is not the case only Bulgaria, Poland and Slovakia.

The picture described above shows that overall the policy approach with regard to TCN political participation remains restrictive, especially at the national level and more opened in some countries at the local level. The restrictive approaches are applied in countries with both small and large immigrant communities and with both recent and longer migration history. Member states with larger immigrant communities and especially those with decentralised structures of governance appear to find some alternative ways of channelling the voice of TCN into local governance. These states seek to overcome the structural inability of TCN to exercise pressure upon local authorities in pursuit of their needs by way of introducing local initiatives aiming to provide TCN with voting rights (Italy) or to assist their active participation in decision making in local governance (Austria, Greece, Italy). While these initiatives have been more advanced in some countries and less successful in other, in general they remain limited to the lowest level of local governance with TCN having no voice at the level of regional or provincial political life. Furthermore, even in the countries that provide local level voting rights to TCN there is no monitoring of their political participation and no systematic data collection about their participation in the electoral process (Hungary, Slovakia, Spain).

#### *Civil society and community participation*

Active citizenship policies in the ten studied countries are more open than policies regarding political participation. Civil society and community participation of TCN is promoted at the level of free association, trade union participation and local level community initiatives. In all ten countries TCN have the right to be members of civil society organisations, action groups and trade unions. The rights and conditions of participation are the same for TCN women and men.

In all ten countries TCN have their own organisations and associations which are understandably more numerous in the older member states where large immigrant communities live. However, there are no prominent policies and practices of mainstreaming the diversity aspect in staff and membership of civil society organisations that are not directly involved with migrant groups or intercultural issues.

Access to public funds (including EU funds) for associations of TCN is available in all ten member states with funding schemes better developed in Austria, Belgium, Italy and Spain and less developed in Bulgaria, Greece, Hungary, Malta and Poland. In Austria, Belgium, Italy and Spain associations of TCN have access to funding at the national, regional and municipal levels (on equal footing with other NGOs and associations). TCN associations, including those of TCN women in Austria have access to funding from (multi)annual programmes and project-based sources, in Spain through calls for proposals of DG of Immigration and Emigration of the Spanish Ministry of Employment and Social Security and by the Autonomous Communities, as well as by municipalities. Public funding for TCN associations in Italy is available for the implementation of projects or services. In Bulgaria, Greece and Hungary public funding for TCN associations is provided on equal footing with other NGOs,

on a project basis through calls for proposals announced by state institutions. These funding schemes however, have not been used by TCN associations because of lack of information, know-how and experience in the application and implementation procedures (Bulgaria). In Greece, associations of TCN are involved in such programs only in synergy with Greek organisations. The situation in Malta is similar where no associations of TCN are applying or receiving funds from the project based funds of the Voluntary Organisations Fund at the Malta Council for the Voluntary Sector to which they have access. Access to public funding is not easy for TCN associations in other countries. In Belgium, for example, it is not always easy for small-scale migrant organisations or organisations from ethnic-cultural minorities to find their way to the different funding opportunities or to participate in the application procedures, which tend to be fairly bureaucratic and for which a good level of the local language is required.

### **1.2.5. Anti-discrimination**

In the ten studied countries the issue of countering discrimination against TCN women is dealt with in the framework of their anti-discrimination and gender equality legislations. Austria, Greece and Malta are an exception in that their anti-discrimination and equality legislations exclude nationality from the list of protected categories. Respectively, it is not possible for TCN women to sustain claims based on nationality. However, they can claim protection from discrimination on other protected criteria such as gender, (ethnic) origin or religious beliefs. While in Poland EU regulations on equal treatment are transposed into national legislation they are not substantiated by respective amendments to the secondary legislation which renders their implementation in practice impossible. In some countries anti-discrimination provisions are included in sectoral legislation regulating employment, social assistance or immigration (Austria, Belgium, Bulgaria, Italy, Malta, Slovakia).

The examples of active anti-discrimination policies targeting TCN women and their participation in the labour market are few. In Spain, TCN women are identified as especially vulnerable group in the “Integral Strategy against Racial Discrimination, Xenophobia and other Forms of Intolerance” launched by the Ministry of Employment and Social Security in 2011. The Strategy recognises that TCN women face multiple discriminations in accessing employment and education. Following the Strategy, the project “Management of Diversity in Labour” was developed aiming to enhance the participation of TCN (both men and women) in the labour market. Anti-discrimination in Spain is also rendered to the Autonomous Communities, which design and implement integral equality plans concerning migrant women.

Although there are anti-discrimination laws and institutions, TCN women often remain vulnerable to discrimination at work, education, social assistance and in the public space. For example, TCN women in Italy face day-to-day discrimination in job interviews and assessment of professional qualifications. In the work place they face harassment, unlawful conduct,

have their rights denied in violation of rules and laws, committed because of the fragile and needy situation in which the immigrant woman finds herself (the residence permit for work reasons in Italy is dependent on the existence of an employment contract and if the job is lost the TCN could become an illegal immigrant). Especially vulnerable in this context is the situation of numerous TCN women working in the (often informal) domestic sector in many of the studied countries. In addition, TCN women do not appear to have used actively and effectively the existing anti-discrimination instruments to seek protection. In Bulgaria, for example, the registers of the Commission for the Protection from Discrimination show that only 16 TCN have filed complaints for discrimination in 2012 and 2013, eight of whom were women.

### 1.3. Assessment of outcomes

The comparative investigation of the integration outcomes of TCN migrant women in the ten EU member states is based on international indicators of employment, education, social inclusion and political participation. The integration outcomes of TCN women are discussed in comparison with the general TCN female population and with TCN men. The bulk of the analysis is based on comparable data from international surveys such as the Labour Force Survey and the EU-SILC. As data on some of the indicators is not provided by Eurostat for some of the ten studied countries the analysis relies on national administrative and statistical data as a supplement. Data from national sources are used only to outline and illustrate certain trends in the integration of migrant women at the national level with full awareness that such data are comparable neither with other national data nor with Eurostat data.

It should be noted that five of the studied countries do not figure in the Eurostat database for most of the indicators (Bulgaria, Hungary, Malta, Poland and Slovakia). Due to the small numbers of TCN populations in these member states their national statistical institutes often cannot provide statistically reliable samples of TCN for the Eurostat comparative data sets. Consequently, data on TCN from these countries are either fully missing or not disaggregated by gender in the Eurostat database. It should be noted that even when data are available from these countries on some of the integration indicators it should be used with caution. Even when available, these data remain based on much smaller samples than the data coming from countries with larger TCN communities. Therefore, direct statistical comparisons between countries with larger and smaller TCN populations have to be drawn with the awareness about the limitations of this exercise.

It should be noted that the weak systems of monitoring the integration of TCN in the five countries hampers the collection of data from national sources as the mechanisms for data collection are unsystematic, ineffective or non-existent. For all these reasons Bulgaria, Hungary, Malta, Poland and Slovakia are included in the discussion that follows only partially.

### 1.3.1. Employment

#### *Employment rate*

The available Eurostat data (Annex Table 23) reveal three main trends with regard to TCN employment. These trends include TCN employment rates that are below of those of the native population (Austria, Belgium, Bulgaria, Spain); TCN employment rates that are insignificantly lower than those of the native population (Greece, Poland) and TCN employment rates that are higher than those of the native population (Hungary, Italy, Malta). Among the countries of the first group the highest gap is in Belgium (-26%) followed by Austria (-17%). The gap in the countries in the second group is around -3.5%. Among the countries where TCN appear to have higher employment rates than the native population the smallest gap is in Italy (+0.6%) and highest in Hungary (+5%). The situation in the countries from the second and the third group seems to be the outcome of high employment rates of TCN men which are either very close to those of the native men (gaps of -2% to -3% in Malta and Greece respectively) or higher than those of native men (gaps of +15% in Hungary, +5% in Poland and +2% in Italy).

Disparities for all three types of states become more pronounced with regard to TCN women whose employment rates appear lower than those of TCN men and native women. The lowest employment rates of TCN women are registered in Belgium (27.8% or 19.3% lower than that of TCN men and 30.8% lower than that of native women), Greece (35.2% or 19.9% lower than that of TCN men and 4.9% lower than that of native women) and Poland (40.4% or 31.4% lower than that of TCN men and 13% lower than that of native women). The highest rates of employment for TCN women are registered in Austria, Italy and Malta. Malta is the only country where TCN women have higher employment rate than native women (+8.7%). Still, this rate remains much lower than the employment rate of TCN men (72.1%). While the employment rates of TCN women in Italy and in Austria are the same (45%) the gaps with native women differ considerably with the gap in Italy being insignificant (-1%) while that in Austria being considerable (-23.9%).

It should be noted that the absence of data on TCN employment in Slovakia and of gender disaggregated data on TCN employment in Bulgaria (females/males) and Hungary (females) limits the present comparison.

#### *Activity rate*

Eurostat data shows two main trends with regard to TCN activity rates which are either lower or higher than those of the native population (Annex Table 24). Lower activity rates of the TCN population than those of the native population are observed in three of the studied countries (Austria, Belgium and Bulgaria) with gaps varying from -11% in Bulgaria to -14.4% in Belgium. Higher activity rates of the TCN population than those of the native population are observed in all other countries of the

present study (Greece, Hungary, Italy, Malta, Poland, Spain). The positive gaps vary from +3.3% in Malta to +8.2% in Greece.

These two trends are also present in the comparison between TCN women and native women and between TCN women and TCN men. While in Austria and Belgium the gap in the activity rate of TCN women with respect to native women is negative (-20.5% in Belgium and -10.3% in Austria) in Greece, Italy, Malta, Poland and Spain it is positive, varying from +2.5% in Greece and Poland to +8.5% in Malta. It should be noted that while the gaps in the activity rates between men and women are negative in all countries among both the native and the TCN population they are higher in the TCN population. The only exception is Malta where the gap in the activity rate among men and women is higher in the native population (-29.2%) than in the TCN population (-24.2%). The negative gaps in the activity rates of TCN women with respect to TCN men are the highest in Belgium (-28.7%) and the lowest in Spain (-13.9%).

It should be noted that the absence of data on TCN activity rates in Slovakia and of gender disaggregated data on TCN activity rates in Bulgaria (females/males) and Hungary (females) limits the present comparison.

#### *Unemployment rate*

Annex Table 25 shows that in all countries where such data is available (Austria, Belgium, Greece, Spain, Italy and Malta) the unemployment rates of the TCN population are higher than those of the native population. The gaps are most pronounced in Belgium (22.5% higher rate for the TCN population) and Spain (15.9% higher rate for the TCN population) and less pronounced in Malta (2.6% higher rate for the TCN population) and Italy (6.4% higher rate for the TCN population).

This trend is retained when the unemployment rate of TCN women and native women is compared. The gaps remain similar to the gaps for the general population (TCN and native), being the same in Austria, slightly lower for TCN women in Belgium, Greece and Spain and slightly higher for TCN women in Italy. The female/ male gaps in unemployment remain very similar for the TCN population. The unemployment rates remain equal for TCN men and TCN women in Austria, higher for TCN women with respect to TCN men in Greece, Italy and Spain, and lower for TCN women than TCN men in Belgium.

The highest rates of unemployed TCN women are to be found in Greece (41.9%), Spain (37.9%) and Belgium (28.8%). The same is the trend for TCN men with the highest rates of unemployed to be found in Spain (42.8%), followed by Greece (37.9%) and Belgium (30.5%).

It should be noted that the absence of data on TCN unemployment in Bulgaria, Hungary, Poland and Slovakia and of gender disaggregated data on TCN unemployment in Malta (females/males) limits significantly the present comparison.

### *Self-employment*

Eurostat data on self-employment shows that the shares of the self-employed among the native population (aged 15-64) are higher than those of the TCN population (Annex Table 26). This difference is most pronounced in Greece where the share of self-employed TCN is near 4% while the share of self-employed among the native population is near 15%. Only in Poland the share of self-employed TCN (19% of the total TCN population) is bigger than the share of self-employed among the native population (10.14%).

It should be noted that comparisons on self-employment based on gender can be provided for only five of the studied countries (Austria, Belgium, Greece, Spain, Italy). In all of these five countries the gender divisions with regard to self-employment follow the same trends among the native and the TCN population (Table 27 and Table 28 in Annex III). Fewer women than men are self-employed in both the native and the TCN population. The negative gap in self-employment between men and women is slightly bigger for the TCN population compared to the native population (in Austria, Belgium and Italy) and slightly smaller for the TCN population compared to the native population in Greece and Spain. For both men and women the shares of the self-employed are higher among the native population than the TCN population. However, the gaps between the native and the TCN population are slightly bigger for women (Annex Table 27) than men (Annex Table 28) in Austria, Belgium, Greece and Italy. The most pronounced difference is observed in Greece where 2.12% of the TCN women are self-employed as opposed to 9.22% of the native women.

An explanation of the low levels of self-employment among TCN women in Belgium<sup>76</sup> may be partially relevant for some other countries included in the present comparison. This explanation turns attention to the fact that self-employment data registers only the owner of a given business and not the family members who usually work in the business.

It should be noted that the absence of data on self-employment of TCN in five of the studied countries (Bulgaria, Hungary, Malta, Poland, Slovakia) limits significantly the present comparison.

***Data from the National Revenue Agency in Bulgaria*** (Annex Table 29) shows a considerable gender gap in the self-employment of the TCN population. In 2013, of 1,266 registered self-employed TCN, only 207 were women (or 16%). The gap remains negative with respect to native women (among the self-employed in the native population 43% were self-employed women). Although these data are not comparable with the data provided by Eurostat it is indicative of the disparity in self-employment for TCN women in the country. Comparison of the data about registered persons on labour contracts shows a share of TCN women (31%) much lower than that of native women (52%) and TCN men (69%).

<sup>76</sup> Van Caudenberg, R., J. Michielsens and D. Vanheule. *Assessing the Integration of Vulnerable Migrant Groups in Belgium*. Centre for Migration and Intercultural Studies, 2015.

It should be stressed that the data on employment provided in this comparison does not cover all working TCN women and in particular those who work in the informal economies of the ten studied countries. For example, such is the case with TCN women working in the sector of domestic services (Belgium, Greece, Poland). In this respect the data on employment, unemployment and activity rates should be treated with the awareness that it does not capture certain segments of the working TCN population. It should be stressed also that the employment outcomes of the TCN population in some of the studied countries are of decreasing employment opportunities in certain sectors of the economy (usually sectors in which the majority of TCN are occupied) as result of the economic crisis. Such is the case of Spain or Greece where the sectors of services, agriculture and construction were severely hit by the economic crisis. It needs to be stressed that the engagement of TCN women in the informal sectors of the economy leads to higher vulnerabilities as their access to social security and respectively social assistance or health care is obstructed.

### 1.3.2. Education

#### *Highest educational attainment*

Two main trends regarding the educational profiles of TCN populations can be observed based on Eurostat data (Table 30, Table 31, and Table 32 in Annex III). In some countries (Austria, Belgium, Greece, Italy and Spain), TCN populations have lower educational attainments than the native population. In general, the highest shares of TCN have up to lower-secondary level of education (Level 0-2), followed by those with upper and post-secondary educational attainment (Level 3-4). In these countries, TCN with tertiary educational attainment (Level 5-6) have the lowest shares. The lowest educational attainment levels are to be observed among the TCN populations in Greece, Italy and Spain with significant shares at the up to lower-secondary level and small shares at the tertiary level. In these three countries, more than 50% (nearly 60% in Spain and Italy) of the TCN population have up to lower-secondary level of education while less than 10% (Spain, Italy) and up to 17% (Spain) have tertiary education.

The second trend is observed in Hungary, Malta and Poland and concerns favourable educational profiles of the TCN population. This trend involves lower shares at the up to lower-secondary level and higher shares at the upper, post-secondary and tertiary level of the TCN populations than the native populations. With regard to up to lower-secondary level of education the difference is biggest in Malta where 37.4% of the TCN population has an education level 0-2 as opposed to 59.3% of the native population. With regard to tertiary level education the difference is most pronounced in Malta (tertiary level of education for 40.9% of the TCN population as opposed to 15.3 % of the native population) followed by Poland (tertiary level of education for 38.1% TCN as opposed to 21.5% of the native population) and Hungary (tertiary level of education for 31.3% TCN as opposed to 19% of the native population).

The educational structure of TCN women follows the trends regarding the total TCN population. In Austria, Belgium, Greece, Italy and Spain TCN women with primary level education have the highest shares, followed by those with upper secondary and post-secondary level education. In these countries, the lowest shares are of TCN women with tertiary education. Only in Belgium the share of TCN women with secondary and tertiary educational level is the same (24%). Because of lack of complete data it is difficult to trace how the second trend works for TCN women in Hungary, Malta and Poland.

The educational profiles of TCN women appear less favourable than those of native women with just few exceptions. The shares of TCN women at level 0-2 are bigger than those of native women and smaller than those of native women at the next two educational stages (3-4 and 5-6). In comparison to native women, the educational profile of TCN women is the least favourable in Austria, Belgium, Italy and Spain where they have shares of more than 50% at the primary level and lower shares than native women at the secondary and tertiary educational levels. It should be noted that again in Malta and Poland TCN women figure better than native women with lower shares than native women at the primary level (Malta) and higher shares than native women at the tertiary level (nearing 50% of the TCN women in Malta and 41% of the TCN women in Poland as opposed to 15.3% of the native women in Malta and 24.9% of the native women in Poland). It shall also be noted that in Greece and Spain the shares of TCN women with secondary level education are higher (40.4% in Greece and 28.6% in Spain) than those of native women (38.9% in Greece and 20.8% in Spain).

The educational profiles of TCN women however, appear more favourable than those of TCN men. TCN women have smaller shares than TCN men at the primary level (with the exception of Austria), equal, next to equal or higher shares than TCN men at the upper and post-secondary level (with the exception of Austria) and higher shares than TCN men at the tertiary level of education.

It should be noted that the absence of data on the educational attainment of TCN in some of the studied countries limits significantly the present comparison. The gaps include missing data for TCN (Bulgaria and Slovakia) and for TCN men/women (Hungary, Poland) for educational level 0-2; for TCN (Slovakia) and for TCN men/women (Bulgaria) for educational level (3-4) and for TCN (Bulgaria, Slovakia) and for female TCN (Hungary) for the educational level 5-6.

In Bulgaria, Hungary, Poland and Slovakia, caution needs to be exercised when explaining the educational status of TCN women as the outcome of particular migrant integration policies in these countries. The educational profiles of TCN women residing in these countries are rather an indication of their educational background brought from their countries of origin. The high educational performance of TCN women in Hungary and Poland can be explained by the strong presence of TCN women from countries of the former Soviet bloc who are highly educated. A look at the reasons for migration (Annex Table 17) would reveal that the biggest

share of TCN women arrive in Hungary for the purposes of education which can also explain the high educational attainment of TCN registered in the country.

#### *Participation in life-long learning*

The available Eurostat data reveal that TCN women figure better than TCN men with regard to life-long learning activities (Annex Table 33). In all of the studied countries, somewhat bigger shares of TCN women than men are engaged in education and training. In Belgium and Malta the rate of participation in life-long learning of TCN women is higher also than that of native women while the negative gaps between the two groups in the other countries are not that significant.

It should be noted that the comparison in this indicator is significantly limited due to lack of data on life-long learning for TCN in Bulgaria, Hungary and Slovakia and the lack of gender disaggregated data on TCN in Malta (males) and Poland (males/females).

### **1.3.3. Social inclusion**

Integration outcomes for TCN women in the area of social inclusion are discussed on the basis of EU-SILC data.

#### *Median income*

The available Eurostat data reveal negative gaps in the median income of the native and the TCN population as well as of the native women and TCN women (Annex Table 34). The median incomes of the general TCN population and of the female TCN population are lower than those of the general native and the female native population respectively. The gap is somewhat smaller among the female population. The biggest gaps (for both general and female populations) are observed in Belgium, followed by Austria, Spain and Italy. The smallest gaps are observed in Poland (general population only) and Malta (general and female population).

While in all ten countries the incomes of native women are lower than those of native men, this is not the gender pattern observed for the TCN population. The available Eurostat data show a diverse picture with countries where TCN women have higher incomes (Belgium, Malta, Spain), almost equal incomes (Greece) or lower incomes (Austria, Italy) than TCN men. Bulgaria is an interesting case since the median income of the general TCN population is slightly higher than that of the native population. This may be explained by the small TCN community in the country, including expatriates and the restrictive residence permit policy of the country which discourages entry of non-employed immigrants or immigrants with insufficient incomes.

Median income disparities between TCN and native women are often the outcome of the types of occupations and the concentration of TCN women in employment sectors with lower payment conditions.

*At-risk of poverty and social exclusion*

The available Eurostat data reveal a general trend of a negative gap between the native and the TCN population regarding the risk of poverty and social exclusion (Annex Table 35). This rate is more than twice higher for the TCN population in Austria, Greece Spain, almost twice higher in Italy and three times higher in Belgium. Much less pronounced is this gap in Bulgaria and Malta. The only country where this gap is positive is Poland where the share of the native population being at risk of poverty and social exclusion (24.8%) is higher than that of the general TCN population (21.6%).

Similar but somewhat higher is the gap between native women and TCN women. There are some divergences among the native and the TCN population in the gap between the two genders. In the native population of all the studied countries the level of at risk of poverty and social exclusion is higher for women than men. It is slightly higher for men only in Spain. The picture regarding the TCN population is more diverse. In Belgium, Greece and Malta TCN men are at a higher risk of poverty and social exclusion than women while in Italy and Spain this risk is equal or almost equal for the two groups. The risk of poverty and social exclusion remains higher for TCN women than men only in Austria.

*In-work at-risk of poverty rate*

EU-SILC data show that the gaps between TCN and native populations are higher with regard to in-work at risk of poverty rates than the poverty and social exclusion rates (Annex Table 36). The risk of in-work poverty for the TCN population is seven times higher than for the native population in Belgium, more than three times higher in Austria, Greece and Spain and more than double in Italy. The smallest gap is observed in Poland (-4%).

Gaps become higher when TCN women are compared to native women. The highest gap is observed in Belgium where 27.6% of TCN women are at risk of in-work poverty as opposed to 3.1% of the native women. Belgium is followed by Spain and Greece where a third of the TCN women are at risk of in-work poverty (as opposed to 7.3% native women in Spain and 11.1% in Greece). As regards the male/ female gaps they follow different pattern in the native and in the TCN population. In all of the studied countries the in-work at risk of poverty rate is lower for native women than native men. This is the case with TCN women in Austria, Greece, Malta and Spain. In Belgium and Italy however, more TCN women are at in-work at risk of poverty than TCN men.

It shall be noted that the comprehensive comparison along the above indicators is obstructed by the lack of data for some of the countries. With regard to median income data is missing for the TCN population in Bulgaria, Hungary and Slovakia and gender divides are lacking for the TCN population in Malta (men) and Poland (men and women). With regard to the indicator at risk of poverty and social exclusion data is

missing for the TCN population in Hungary and Slovakia and gender divides are lacking for the TCN population in Bulgaria (males) and Poland (females). With regard to the indicator in-work at risk of poverty rate data is missing for the TCN population in Bulgaria, Hungary and Slovakia and gender divides are lacking for the TCN population in Poland (males/females).

Two examples from national data sources in Belgium and in Bulgaria will be provided about **unemployed registered at public employment services and uptake of unemployment benefits among unemployed**.

*Data on the registered unemployed in Belgium, provided in the Belgian national report, although for different time periods, reveal<sup>77</sup> a general trend of lower registration of TCN women with respect to both native women and TCN men. The lower registration of TCN women at unemployment services is discussed not as a sign of higher employment levels (Eurostat data demonstrate that this are not the case) but rather as the outcome of having more difficulties in reaching the public unemployment services or are perhaps not looking for employment.*

*Data from the Employment Agency in Bulgaria show a different tendency. Among the registered unemployed TCN in 2013 78% were women. In comparison, the share of registered unemployed native women among the registered unemployed native population was 54%. It is worth noting, however, that the share of TCN women who are registered in public unemployment services is 4% of the total female TCN population in the age group 20-65. In comparison, the share of native women who are registered in public unemployment services is more than double -9.3% of the total female population in the age group 20-64.<sup>78</sup> In 2013, the registered unemployed TCN women in Bulgaria figure better than the registered unemployed TCN men with regard to starting a job with the mediation of the Labour Bureaus in the country (81% TCN women).<sup>79</sup>*

### 1.3.4. Active citizenship

#### *Citizenship acquisition*

The Eurostat data on citizenship acquisition reveal a general trend of higher naturalisation rates for TCN women than men in most of the studied countries (Annex Table 37).<sup>80</sup> This is the case in Austria, Belgium, Greece, Hungary, Italy, Malta, Slovakia and Spain. The differences between TCN men and women are of less than 1% in Greece, Italy, Slovakia and Spain. They are most pronounced in Malta (+4.78%) and Hungary (+2.32%). This trend deserves attention in view of the fact that in all of these countries the majority of the TCN population are TCN men (Figure 2 above).

<sup>77</sup> Cited data from the public employment services of Flanders (for 2013), Wallonia (from Oct. 2014) and the Brussels Capital Region (for 2012).

<sup>78</sup> Based on juxtaposition of data on registered unemployed from the Employment Agency in Bulgaria and population by age group from the National Statistical Institute of Bulgaria.

<sup>79</sup> From the registered unemployed TCN in Bulgaria in 2013 a total of 312 persons (33%) started a job by the mediation of the Labour Bureaus; of them 253 were women (81%).

<sup>80</sup> The 'naturalisation rate' should be used with caution because the numerator includes all modes of acquisitions and not just naturalisations of eligible residing foreigners and the denominator includes all foreigners and not the relevant population, i.e. those foreigners who are eligible for naturalisation.

The naturalisation rate of TCN women is lower than that of TCN men in only two of the studied countries (Bulgaria and Poland). The gap appears more pronounced in the light of the fact that the TCN female population in these two countries is in the majority (with respect to TCN men).

It should be said, however, that the dominant national composition of citizenship applicants in a given country may often not be the same as the dominant national composition of the residing TCN population. Thus the gender profile of those TCN who acquired citizenship cannot be explained with gender per se but has to be discussed in the context of the particular naturalisation regimes in each country and the national composition of applicants for citizenship. In Bulgaria, for example, the majority of TCN who were granted Bulgarian citizenship were those who have done so using the preferential regime as ethnic Bulgarians. In the period 2002 – 2013 more than half of those TCN who were granted Bulgarian citizenship came from Macedonia (53%), followed by those coming from Moldova (25.6%), Serbia (4.4%) and Ukraine (4.1%). All of them used the preferential regime as ethnic Bulgarians.<sup>81</sup> In addition, the number of citizenship applications from these countries is much higher than the number of usual residents from the same countries. For example in 2012 a total of 10,351 Macedonians submitted applications for Bulgarian citizenship (while the number of usual residents in the country in the same year was 1,111 persons) of whom 77% were men.<sup>82</sup>

#### *Share of TCN who acquired long-term residence permits*

The available Eurostat data on long-term residents (Annex Table 38) reveal that the entry policies in Austria, Italy and Spain are more open with very high shares of long-term residents among the TCN with valid permits. This share is the highest in Spain (66.82%), followed by Austria (61.89%) and Italy (56.40%). The rest of the studied countries appear to apply more restrictive policies with regard to allowing or creating conditions for their TCN stay long-term. The lowest is the share of long-term residents in Bulgaria (0.8%), followed by Poland (18.24%), Greece (21.35%) and Belgium (28.24%). In four of the studied countries (Austria, Belgium, Greece, Spain) the shares of long-term residents among TCN women are somewhat lower than among men. In Greece this can be explained, at least partially, with the precarious and informal nature of the employment of TCN women in the domestic services sector. However, in Italy and Bulgaria higher shares of TCN women than TCN men have long-term residence while in Hungary the shares of long-term residents are equal for TCN men and women.

This comparison is obstructed by the lack of data regarding all valid permits and long-term residents in Malta and Slovakia.

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<sup>81</sup> Data are stored in respective annual reports of the President of the Republic of Bulgaria.

<sup>82</sup> Data are provided by the Bulgarian Ministry of Justice (on citizenship applicants) and by the National Statistical Institute of Bulgaria (usual residents).

*Political participation*

In four of the studied countries (Belgium, Hungary, Slovakia and Spain) TCN have the right to vote in municipal elections. However, in these countries no monitoring of the local level political participation of TCN is conducted with data collection about their participation in the electoral process being unsystematic (Hungary, Slovakia, Spain). Such data is being provided only in Belgium. The source for this data in Belgium is the Federal Public Service (FPS) Interior Affairs and the data category is TCN registered to vote. As Belgium has a mandatory voting system this data category is adequate to demonstrate the TCN voter turnout.

**TABLE 9. REGISTERED TCN VOTERS AS PERCENTAGE OF TOTAL POTENTIAL TCN VOTERS IN BELGIUM, 2006 AND 2012 (%)**

2006			2012		
Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
15.7	17.2	14.2	14	15.3	12.7

Source: FPS Interior Affairs.

The available data show that smaller shares of TCN women than TCN men vote in Belgium as well as that there was a decrease in the electoral participation of both TCN women and men between 2006 and 2012. Smaller voter turnout for TCN women than men was registered in the local elections of 2010 in Greece when only 26% of the TCN who voted in

the largest electoral constituency of Athens were women.<sup>83</sup>

In all ten studied countries mechanisms for collecting data for TCN membership in political parties and trade unions are either inexistent or unsystematic.

## 1.4. Conclusions

The analysis of existing policies towards TCN women across the ten studied countries shows that they are generally formulated depending on several factors:

- **Numbers and shares of TCN women among the general populations.** The countries where more substantial numbers and shares are found have more developed policies in various integration fields and topics.
- **Length of experience with integration efforts.** Countries with longer experience in implementing different policies in the field of integration of different groups of TCN women – and hence the chance to test and prove the effectiveness of different approaches – have generally more developed policy frameworks.
- **Administrative structure.** The countries with federal administrative structures and/or with strong regional autonomy do not have uniform policies. Some policies are implemented at the national

<sup>83</sup> As noted earlier, in Greece full political rights to vote and be elected at the local level were extended to TCN by Law No.3838/2010. This decision, however, was declared unconstitutional and suspended by the Greek Council of State (Plenary Court Decision 460/2013). Therefore, TCN in Greece participated in local elections only once in the 2010 elections and have lost this right since then.

level, although they usually concern general principles, while specific integration approaches and measures are frequently being designed and implemented at the regional or local levels.

- **Concerns for the integration of holders of subsidiary protection predominate over concerns for the integration of TCN from other legally residing categories.** The highly vulnerable situations of asylum seekers and refugees, the high level of international monitoring of the implementation of standards of admission and integration of members of these groups and the insufficient experience of the recently established asylum institutions in the countries in South-Eastern and Central Europe are all factors that cause national authorities to consider asylum seekers and refugees the most (and often only) visible migrant group in need of integration. For this reason TCN women, being non-refugee migrants, are frequently excluded from the scope of integration policies in these member states.
- **Economic situation in the respective countries.** As a consequence of the recent financial crisis, in the last few years some countries introduced more restrictions to their social assistance programmes, or decreased/restricted funding for certain types of integration activities, despite increasing numbers of TCN women.

#### *1.4.1. Policy assessment*

One key finding of the present study involves the **absence of integration policies and programmes that target TCN women as a separate vulnerable category with distinct needs** different from those of TCN men or native women. Overall, the integration policies and programmes of the ten studied countries are not gender specific, with terms of entry, of access to the labour market, to the social assistance system or to political rights being the same for TCN women and TCN men. In addition, the prevailing trend is of channelling opportunities for integration of TCN women through programmes designed for the general country population. In this framework, any gender specific programmes (such as vocational training for women exiting maternity) are accessible to both native women and TCN women. In some countries, such as Austria, programmes of this kind reserve quotas for TCN women to ensure their participation. Initiatives for facilitating the integration of TCN women as a distinctive group have been identified in just few of the studied countries. These include some programmes for facilitation of the labour market participation of TCN women run by public employment offices (Austria, Spain) or by NGOs (Austria, Hungary, Italy, Spain); vocational training programmes for TCN women, conducted by NGOs (Italy, Spain) and for TCN (men and women) run by public employment offices (Austria, Belgium, Italy) or by NGOs (Bulgaria, Greece, Hungary, Poland, Slovakia, Spain).

It should be noted that the main determinant in the policy formulation in the area of integration of TCN in the ten studied countries is status rather than gender or vulnerability. TCN who are long-term residents often possess the same rights as nationals in the spheres of labour market integration and social assistance. On the other hand, TCN who

are temporary residents often face labour market restrictions, no or few opportunities to partake in job facilitation programmes, no or limited access to the social assistance system irrespectively of their gender or social status.

The presence of labour market test policies in the majority of the studied countries demonstrates that they pursue restrictive policies with regard to labour market access for TCN who are temporary residents. In the member states with more recent and smaller immigrant communities which are dominated by temporary residence holders the labour market test policy serves to effectively restrict the national labour market (for all temporary residents) guided by the understanding that it should be protected from foreign labour (Bulgaria, Hungary, Malta Poland).

Measures for facilitation of labour market integration of TCN as a group with distinct needs are provided by non-governmental organisations (in all ten countries) and to a lesser extent in the framework of public employment offices (in Austria, Belgium, Italy and Spain).<sup>84</sup> Services in this field which are intended for TCN women as a distinct group are even less common. They are provided either by NGOs (in Austria, Hungary, Italy and Spain) or by public employment offices (in Austria and Spain). While in all ten countries certain categories of TCN (women and men) have access to job orientation programmes run by public employment offices for the general population, in some countries the accessibility of these programmes for TCN women is limited as they are conducted in the national language only (Bulgaria, Greece, Poland).

A certain set of integration spheres for TCN remain underdeveloped in some of the studied countries and more precisely in those with smaller TCN communities and less experience in managing TCN integration. Those include language training and information in the language of the TCN (Bulgaria, Hungary Poland, Slovakia). Courses in the language of the host country are provided on project basis, organized or coordinated by NGOs (Bulgaria, Greece, Hungary, Malta, Poland, Slovakia). Respectively only fragmented groups of TCN women get access to such trainings. Similarly in these countries activities for provision of information in TCN's own language are fragmented, dependent on project funding and not sustainable. On the other hand very well developed measures exist in these two spheres in the countries with larger TCN populations and longer experience of migration integration management (Austria, Belgium, Italy, Spain).

The policy approach with regard to the political participation of TCN in the ten studied countries is in the overall restrictive, especially at national level. It is more opened in some countries at the local level (Belgium, Hungary, Slovakia, Spain). The restrictive approaches are applied in countries with both small and large immigrant communities and with both recent and longer migration history. The attempts in some member

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<sup>84</sup> TCN are not served as a distinct group by the public employment offices in Spain but are being prioritised in the framework of job orientation programmes for the general population.

states to overcome the structural inability of TCN to exercise political pressure upon authorities deserve attention (Austria, Greece, Italy and Belgium). More research needs to be conducted regarding such practices in order to assess whether and how such practices could be transferred to other member states.

While policies for political participation of TCN remain restrictive, policies facilitating the participation of TCN in community life are much more open. In all ten countries of the present study TCN (both men and women) have the right to be members of civil society organisations, action groups and trade unions. Respectively, TCN have their own organisations and associations in all ten countries which are understandably more numerous in the countries with larger TCN communities. However, no prominent policies and practices have been identified of mainstreaming the diversity aspect in staff and membership of civil society organisations that are not directly involved with migrant groups or intercultural issues.

The decentralised approaches for implementation of TCN integration that are enforced in some of the studied countries (Austria, Belgium, Italy) are associated with considerable freedom of local initiative and may lead to very positive outcomes regarding policy making. In such instances local level integration policies may appear far more advanced than central initiatives. One example in this regard involves the local initiatives for local political participation of TCN in some member states (Austria, Belgium, Italy). However, the decentralised approach in migrant integration can also have some negative outcomes with local authorities enforcing provisions issued by central authorities under more limited conditions. Such is the case in Italy with regard to the provision by municipalities of various integration services (such as popular housing and welfare benefits). Conditions for the provision of such services in Italy vary from one municipality to another and often include residence requirements that are to the expense of TCN and especially the most vulnerable among them.

The lack of mechanisms for monitoring of migrant integration at national level in some of the studied countries (Bulgaria, Greece, Hungary, Malta, Poland, Slovakia) leads to a situation where policy makers are not aware of the needs of TCN women and the challenges they face with regard to integration. Gaps in this regard were identified also in the countries where some monitoring initiatives have been initiated. Taken that these initiatives are either in the making (Italy, Spain) or encompassing parts of the country – i.e. are regional and not national (Belgium, Spain) – they have so far brought fragmented evidence and knowledge with regard to the integration needs and challenges faced by TCN women.

Effective integration policies regarding TCN women can be designed and implemented only based on careful monitoring of the integration outcomes of this target group.

### *1.4.2. Outcomes for TCN women*

The comprehensive comparison of the integration outcomes of TCN women is obstructed by the lack of data in some of the ten studied countries on TCN population or on TCN women in the Eurostat data-base for most of the indicators of the present study (Bulgaria, Hungary, Malta, Poland and Slovakia). This is mainly the outcome of the small numbers of TCN populations in these member states which makes it difficult to provide statistically reliable samples of TCN for the Eurostat comparative data sets. Even when data is available from these countries on some of the integration indicators it remains based on much smaller samples than the data coming from countries with larger TCN communities. Therefore, Eurostat data on TCN integration from these countries should be treated with caution rather than as a lead source in discussions of the situation of the entire TCN population in these countries. Due to the much smaller data samples on TCN from these countries direct statistical comparisons with the countries with larger TCN populations should also be drawn with caution.

The available comparable data on employment and social inclusion clearly demonstrate lower integration outcomes of TCN women with regard to native women and very often with regard to TCN men. This indicates that TCN women are more vulnerable in the labour market and with regard to income generation than both native women and TCN men. The factors contributing to this situation may differ from country to country depending on the history of migration in the country, the sectors of employment of TCN women, the levels of education and over-qualification, as well as the national composition of the TCN women and the professional backgrounds and cultural experience (including gender roles patterns) that they bring from their home countries.

At the same time the available Eurostat data indicate some positive trends in the integration outcomes of TCN women. For example, in some countries TCN women have higher employment rates than native women (Malta), higher activity rates than native women (Greece, Italy, Malta, Poland), equal or lower unemployment rates than TCN men (Belgium, Italy, Spain), better educational profile than TCN men (Greece, Italy, Malta, Poland, Spain), higher shares of persons with tertiary education than native women (Malta, Poland) and higher median incomes than TCN men (Malta, Spain). These positive trends deserve careful research so that the factors contributing to better performance (social, economic, cultural, policy, individual) are brought into light and utilised for policy analysis and recommendations in the area of migrant integration policy.

The integration outcomes of TCN women in the newer member states, demonstrated in the Eurostat database, should be discussed in the light of a number of factors related to structural migration management realities and to their educational and cultural backgrounds rather to migration integration policies. First, the migration policies of these countries, and more particularly the regimes of entry and stay, are determined by labour markets that are rather restrictive to labour from third countries. Immigration of TCN into these countries is presently shaped by those

who have secured employment and proven means of living in the host society prior to migration. Second, the profile of TCN women in these countries is dominated by immigrants from the states of the former Soviet Union with well-educated emigrants and prevalence of women over men. TCN women from these countries typically have at least secondary education, professional experience and background of female emancipation in both the public and the family sphere.<sup>85</sup>

The absence of data on TCN participation in the electoral process at the local level (Belgium, Hungary, Slovakia, Spain) and the lack, in all ten countries, of systematic mechanisms for collecting data about the membership of TCN in political parties and trade unions presents a serious limitation to any discussion about the civic participation of TCN (men and women) in the countries of this study.

## 1.5. Recommendations

The vulnerable position of TCN women in the labour market and the negative gaps that they face with regard to self-employment, activity rate and at-risk-of-poverty rate requires that a gender perspective is used when developing policy measured to facilitate the integration of TCN in the labour market as well as when developing programmes for providing information in TCN's own language and TCN's language training.

Public employment offices in most of the studied countries should provide job orientation programmes in the national language and in the languages of the main TCN groups. Policy makers should consult the experience accumulated in this field in countries such as Austria, Belgium and Italy.

More systematic and sustainable integration programmes need to be developed for TCN women in the fields of information provision and dissemination, language and professional training in Bulgaria, Hungary, Malta, Poland and Slovakia. Policy makers in these countries should consult the experience and know how accumulated in this field in countries such as Austria, Belgium, Italy and Spain.

Policies and measures need to be developed to encourage the more active participation of TCN women in local elections in the countries where they enjoy that right.

Consideration should be given to the development of programmes for the participation of TCN women in policy consultative bodies at central or at local level in Bulgaria, Hungary, Malta, Poland and Slovakia and for participation of TCN women in local governance in Spain. Policy makers in these countries should consult the experience and know how accumulated in this field in countries such as Austria, Belgium, Greece and Italy.

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<sup>85</sup> Rubchak, M.J. "Christian Virgin or Pagan Goddess: Feminism Versus the Eternally Feminine Ukraine," In *Women in Russia and Ukraine*, edited by R. Marsh, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1996; Rubchak, M.J. "In Search of a Model: Evolution of a Feminist Consciousness in Ukraine and Russia," *European Journal of Women's Studies* 8, No. 2 (2001), p. 149.

Needs assessments with regard to the integration of TCN women need to be conceptualised and conducted nationally and cross nationally. Such studies would bring understanding to the concrete integration situations and challenges faced by TCN women and would guide policy makers into the development of informed integration policies.

Quantitative studies for the levels of integration of TCN women need to be conceptualised to compensate for the lack of statistical data in Eurostat for some member states with smaller immigrant communities. Such quantitative studies could be developed cross-nationally to lead to cross-EU comparisons. They could include boost samples of the TCN population in national representative studies or studies focusing on the TCN population. One cost-effective approach could involve the use of survey cards to be filled in by TCN upon contact with certain public institutions.

Qualitative studies need to be conceptualised and conducted nationally and cross-nationally to help identify the factors that explain certain integration outcomes for TCN women (visible in comparable statistics).

Regular monitoring should be conducted in the countries where the right to vote at the municipal level is provided to TCN (Belgium, Hungary, Slovakia, Spain). The monitoring should focus on the participation of TCN in the electoral process in view of providing analysis of the levels of electoral participation of TCN women and the factors triggering or obstructing such participation.

Systematic monitoring needs to be conducted with regard to the membership of TCN (women and men) in political parties, trade unions and civil society organisations in order to be able to assess levels of civic participation of third country nationals and in particular of women.

In-depth assessments of the alternative practices for facilitation of the participation of TCN in local governance need to be designed and conducted in Austria, Belgium, Greece and Italy. Assessments would provide analysis of the effectiveness of such initiatives for promoting the participation of TCN (women) into local governance and for advocating the integration needs of vulnerable migrants such as TCN women.

It should be stressed that TCN women should not be viewed as homogeneous community that is vulnerable per se. From a policy perspective it is important to identify and attend to the particular conditions and characteristics that render certain individuals and groups (among TCN women) more exposed to the risk of poverty or harm. At the same time, it is equally important to identify positive outcomes in the integration of TCN women and to study the factors that explain and lead to them. Such an approach would help policy makers in member states to design integration programmes that approach TCN women as resourceful actors of their own growth and development into the host societies.

## 2. ASSESSMENT OF THE INTEGRATION OF TCN CHILDREN

### 2.1. Profile of TCN children

Available Eurostat data on TCN children have some limitations as described in the introductory paragraphs of this section. These limitations relate to the fact that data on population by citizenship is available only by 5-year age groups: less than 5, 5-9, 10-14, and 15-19, so exact figures for child TCN population are not clear.

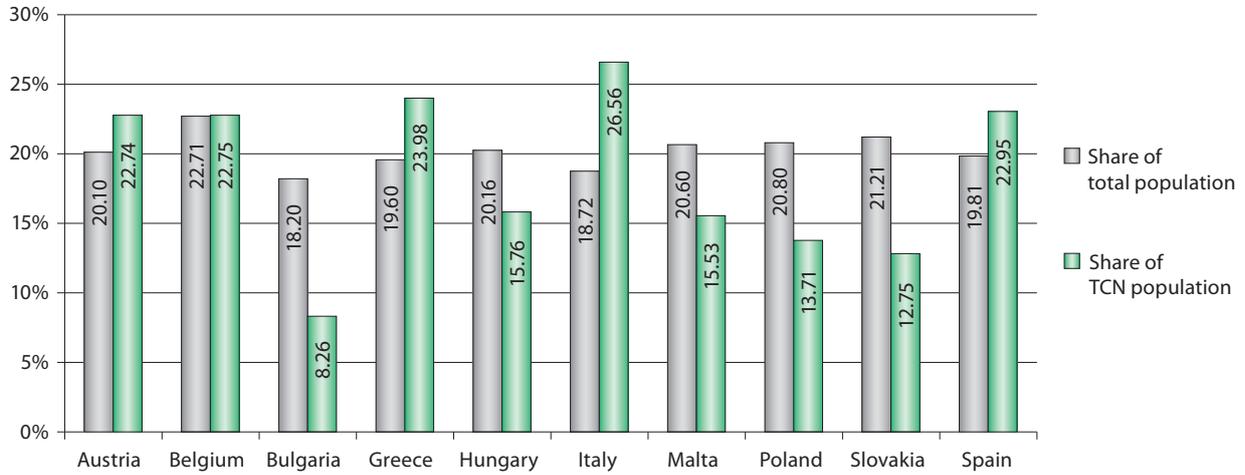
The ten countries participating in the current assessment are very different in terms of numbers and shares of TCN children and young populations. The largest groups of TCN aged up to 19 years are in Austria, Greece, Italy and Spain, where their shares vary around 7-8% (Annex Table 39). However, these shares correspond to about 130,000-160,000 children and young people in Austria and Greece, and about 700,000-800,000 in Italy and Spain. Belgium and Malta could be unified in one category of countries where shares of TCN children are between 1% and 5%; but while in Malta 1.72% corresponds to less than 1,500 children, 4.01% in Belgium means more than 100,000. And in the third category of countries TCN represent less than 1% of the total child populations, but in terms of numbers they vary from nearly 10,000 in Hungary, 5-6,000 in Poland to 2,000-3,000 in Bulgaria and Slovakia.

Shares of children and young people up to 19 years of age among the total TCN populations also vary significantly. In half of the ten countries they are visibly lower than the shares of all children among the total populations: about 8% in Bulgaria, 13-14% in Poland and Slovakia, and about 16% in Hungary and Malta, compared to 18-21% of children among total populations of these countries. The biggest difference of almost 10 points is in Bulgaria. The opposite situation is in Austria, Greece, Italy and Spain: shares of children and young people up to 19 years among TCN vary between 23 and 27%, compared to 19-21% among total populations, and the gap is biggest in Italy, where the share of TCN children is about 6 points bigger than the average for the country. Only in Belgium, shares of children among TCN and among total population are practically equal. In other words, four of the ten countries – Austria, Greece, Italy and Spain, share two commonalities:

- The shares of TCN among all children and young people up to 19 years of age are the highest among the ten countries (about 7-8%);
- The shares of children and young people up to 19 years of age are higher among the TCN than among the total populations, or in other words, TCN populations are younger than the total populations.

This finding means that in the coming years, the shares of TCN populations in these four countries will increase faster than TCN migration inflows; and therefore, integrational challenges in terms of education, social inclusion and labour market would be more complicated due to the combined effects of migration and demographic restructuring of national and recently arrived populations.

**FIGURE 3. THE SHARE OF CHILDREN AND YOUNG PEOPLE (UP TO 19 YEARS OF AGE) IN THE TOTAL AND IN TCN POPULATION AS OF JANUARY 1, 2013 (%)**



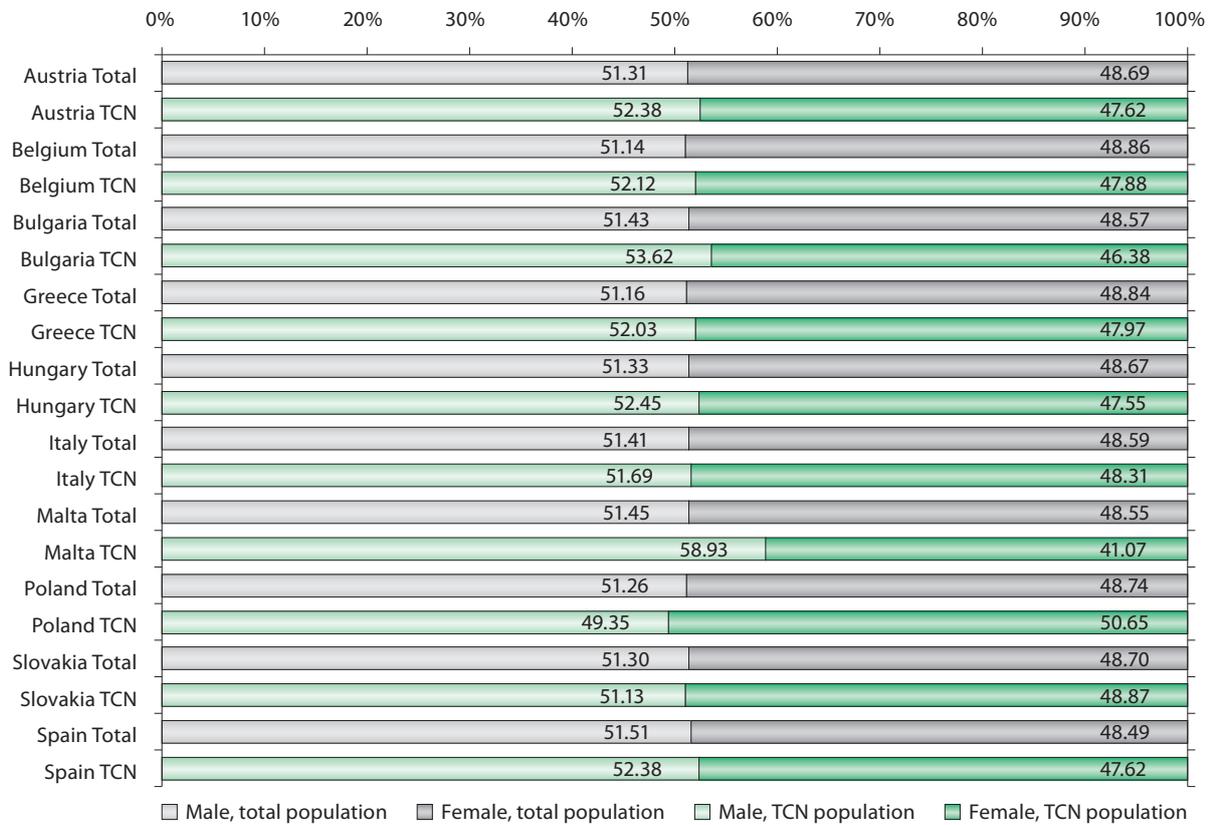
Source: Eurostat (Population on 1 January by five year age group, sex group and citizenship [migr\_pop1ctz]).

Gender structures of TCN children and young people up to 19 years are usually almost equal or very similar to the averages. Exceptions are Malta where the share of boys is more than 7 points higher than the average, and Poland where the share of TCN girls is slightly higher than those of boys. The data for Malta should be treated with caution, as the absolute number of TCN children is less than 1,500. However, unlike other countries of origin, persons from Africa represent the greatest inflow of TCN in Malta, and hence, some reasons could lie in specifics of African migration.

Unlike gender structures, age structures of child TCN populations are very different in the ten countries. The youngest child TCN populations live in Italy, where 0-9-year olds consist almost 60% of TCN children, and in Belgium, where the respective share is about 54%. In Malta, 0-9-year olds are also about 54%, but at the same time 15-19-year olds represent almost a third. Shares of the two youngest age groups are more than half of child TCN population also in Greece and Spain. The most balanced age structures are observed in Austria and Poland, where the oldest age groups slightly predominate, and shares of the three younger groups are almost equal. Bulgaria, Hungary and Slovakia have the oldest child TCN populations, with shares of 0-9-year olds of 42-45%.

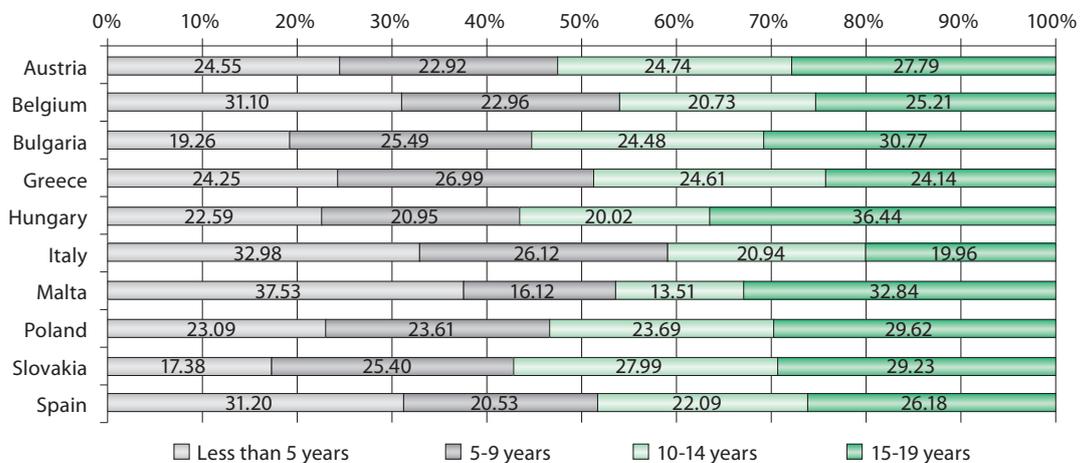
In terms of demographic profiles of TCN children, two major groups of countries could be outlined: the group of Greece, Italy and Spain with young and large populations both in absolute numbers and as shares of total child populations; and the group of Bulgaria, Hungary and Slovakia, with older and small TCN child populations, again in terms both of absolute numbers and relative shares. Although with some differences, Austria and Belgium are closer to the first group, and Malta and Poland are closer to the second one.

**FIGURE 4. GENDER STRUCTURE OF TCN AND OF THE TOTAL POPULATION UP TO 19 YEARS OF AGE AS OF JANUARY 1, 2013 (%)**



Source: Eurostat (Population on 1 January by five year age group, sex group and citizenship [migr\_pop1ctz]).

**FIGURE 5. AGE STRUCTURE OF TCN POPULATION UP TO 19 YEARS OF AGE AS OF JANUARY 1, 2013 (%)**



Source: Eurostat (Population on 1 January by five year age group, sex group and citizenship [migr\_pop1ctz]).

## 2.2. Policy assessment

### 2.2.1. Introduction

The integration of TCN children is generally better met by the policy frameworks of countries where this target group is more numerous and more significant as share of the total child population. In Greece, Italy and Spain it is addressed in national policy documents concerning integration of migrants, and in Austria, the National Action Plan for Integration is focused especially on the educational integration of TCN children.

The opposite situation is observed in countries where numbers of TCN children are not significant. In Bulgaria, TCN children are not mentioned as a special group in the national migration documents, but specific groups such as RASC and children of “migrants in illegal situation” are mentioned as being among the most vulnerable groups. In Belgium, UAMs who do not seek asylum and all other migrant children fall into the jurisdiction of the regional governments, and their integration is treated in respective community Decrees on Integration, while asylum-seeking UAMs are federal responsibility and their situation is treated in several federal laws. The main focus areas of integration are education, including language learning and acknowledgement with socio-cultural system in Belgium, and social participation of minor newcomers in cultural activities, sports and youth associations. In Hungary, the Migration Strategy, which was implemented in 2013 contained only general statements about the current situation of migrants in terms of integration or desired goals for future in this respect; and in Malta a migrant integration strategy has still not been elaborated. In Slovakia, adult and child TCN are not separated as a target group distinct from that of foreigners; in Poland there is no migration policy document.

However, in some of the countries with insignificant shares and numbers of TCN children, their general or specific rights are described in some child protection documents as being at risk. For instance, in Bulgaria, the National Strategy for the Child mentions two separate groups of children: that of trafficked children and that of asylum seeking and refugee children, including those who are unaccompanied. The Hungarian Child Protection Strategy addresses settled, migrant and refugee, asylum seekers, and stateless minors, as well as unaccompanied minors. Thereby, all provisions described are valid for any TCN minor who has any status in Hungary and TCN have the same rights and access to the same provisions as Hungarian nationals. In Malta, the Commissioner for Children has engaged with issues of integration and has made formal recommendations to the relevant ministries for migrant children not to be held in detention centres. The Commissioner has also recommended that children born in international waters and reaching Maltese territory be automatically granted Maltese citizenship to address the issue of stateless children. The draft National Children’s Policy makes brief references to ethnicity in highlighting the universality of rights under the UN Convention of the Rights of the Child. The draft policy recognises ethnicity as one of the causes increasing the risk for school absenteeism together with a variety of other causes such as family dysfunction, health problems and lack of motivation for learning.

Child protection documents of some of the countries with significant shares of TCN population also refer to some rights of TCN children. The Austrian National Action Plan on the Rights of Children and Youth briefly refers to the educational system, which should integrate migrants (and other groups) and sets the goal of migrant youth participating in education and training on equal basis with Austrian youth. Measures referred to are tutoring, lessons in mother tongue, intercultural learning, and promoting language and reading competences. In Greece, a draft of the National Action Plan for the Rights of Child has not yet been formally launched. It was opened to public consultation in November 2014. However, in the National Action Plan for Human Rights there is a chapter dedicated to the rights of TCN children in education.

Integration of TCN children is rarely addressed by sectoral policy documents in the fields of education and social inclusion. In some exceptional cases TCN are included in larger target groups. For instance, the Department for Migration and School of the Ministry of Education of Austria issues information briefs which address topics as measures for pupils with a different first language than German, statistics about these pupils, education in mother tongue, German as a second language, and early school leaving. Also, the issue of early school leaving is addressed in the National Strategy to Prevent Early Leaving of Education and Training (2012) of Austria. The Strategy mentions that children with a migration background should learn their first language and German.

In Belgium, the education policy of the Flemish community addresses the needs of all foreign speaking minors. In Italy, the Ministry of Education, University and Research established the National Observatory for Foreign Pupils and Intercultural Issues, with the view of identifying operational solutions to specifically address integration policies to the needs of a multicultural school. In Greece and Spain, integration of TCN children is included in the national policy documents for social inclusion, as well as in all plans of Autonomous Communities in Spain.

Although legal frameworks of all of the ten countries comply with international human and child rights documents, especially as regards the prohibition of discrimination, the principles of child's rights based approach and child's best interest are not as well-developed in their policy documents.

In Austria, these principles could not be found in policy documents but the General Civil Code (§ 138 ABGB) defines criteria of the child's best interest and says that it must guide all legal questions relating to children.

In Belgium, child protection policy documents are not identified, although child protection bodies at federal and regional level watch out for a correct application of laws and regulations that concern children. They check policy initiatives to see whether they are in line with the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child and formulate recommendations to policy makers to adapt, if necessary, existing regulations in order to

achieve a more complete and effective protection of the rights and the best interest of the child.

In Hungary, these principles are not explicitly promulgated nor bound with specific objectives and measures. In Italy, the principle of unconditional protection of the child's interest is applied specifically in education through the intercultural education model described in the Guidelines for the Reception and Integration of Foreign Pupils, released in early 2014.

As mentioned above, in some countries (Bulgaria, Malta and Slovakia), child protection documents contain special parts dealing with international documents and standards and the respective international obligations of the countries, but provisions of these documents address either all children generally, or specific vulnerable groups that are larger or smaller and not based on citizenship.

In other countries, child's rights based approach and child's best interest are developed in details in migration and integration policy documents. For instance, the Greek National Strategy for the Integration of TCN pronounces a number of principles related to education and access to welfare services of TCN children and sets eleven detailed objectives in these two areas. In Spain, this is done in migration and sectoral policy documents both on the national and regional levels, in strategies and implementation plans. On the national level, the most direct connection between principles of child's rights based approach and child's best interest, from one side, and practical goals and measures, on other, is done in the Strategic Plan of Integration and Citizenship.

### **2.2.2. Education**

#### **i. Access and enrolment**

##### *Access to compulsory age education*

In all of the ten countries, education is both free and obligatory for TCN children or some categories of them, under conditions equal to those for national citizens. One specific characteristic of Belgian law is the fact that parents could choose whether to educate their children by enrolling them in school, or at home, although home schooling is not very common. Only in Bulgaria and Hungary children of irregular TCN who are not able to present a valid address registration, do not have access to free education at state or municipal schools. Bulgaria has the most restrictive regime – according to its National Education Act TCN who are not asylum seekers, refugees or children of long-term residents do not have access to free education and need to pay fees even for state and municipal schools.

Despite the regulated free access, in all of the countries various factors prevent educational integration of some TCN children. Most frequently, these are socio-economic factors affecting vulnerable groups – variable accommodation, transportation expenses, lack of place to do homework,

etc. Administrative impediments are also outlined as very important by some of the national teams. In Malta, detention of asylum-seeking and unaccompanied TCN children in the initial period after their entrance in the country for the purpose of age identification could take several weeks or months, and during this period children do not have access to education. Hopefully, current plans for amendments aim to reduce this period to ten days. In Greece, there have been cases of children turned down for school enrolment, contrary to the legal provisions. In Bulgaria, Hungary and Slovakia there is lack of sufficient and proper information for children and their caregivers. Last, but not least, countries where class level placement allows children to be placed at levels significantly lower than their age, have lower enrolment rates.

Anti-discrimination laws in the EU countries guarantee equal access of girls and boys to education. It is probably presumed by policy makers to be enough effort in the field of gender equality in educational integration of TCN, because none of the ten countries has adopted special measures for the promotion of educational integration of TCN girls, aside from the individual efforts of teachers and social workers. Belgian, Bulgarian and Greek teams elaborating ASSESS country reports identified possible disparities between girls and boys in some TCN communities, especially Muslim and Roma communities in Bulgaria and Greece. In practice, however, the average enrolment rates for TCN girls are assessed as equal to or higher than those of TCN boys for these three countries, as well as respective rates in Slovakia. Furthermore, in Bulgaria and Greece, the significantly lower rates of boys, suggest the necessity of thorough study of gender-based non-enrolment factors and elaboration of community-based enrolment promotion measures for both boys and girls.

#### *Provision of information about access and enrolment procedures*

Providing clear written information and guidance on procedures and opportunities for access in TCN's languages of origin by national institutions is rather an exception across the ten countries participating in the current assessment. Such provisions have been identified in Austria and Italy. The Federal Ministry of Education and Women's Affairs of Austria provides online information on the Austrian educational system in German and English. In Italy, the Ministry of Education has translated into English all necessary information for filling in the school enrolment forms, and translation of the text into other languages is also envisaged in short terms.

However, in countries with federal administrative structures or strong autonomy of the regions information and consulting services to TCN parents are the responsibility of different local authorities (Austria, Belgium and Spain). In Austria, the School Boards of the provinces have advisory centres for migrants on school-related questions, some of which offer services in several languages. In Belgium, encouraging enrolment for this specific group is considered the responsibility of local "welcome offices", local governments and other organisations that will usually be a first point of contact for newly arrived migrant parents and their children. In Spain, Autonomous Communities employ three types

of services in this area: integration and participation initiatives, adopted in 10 Communities; reception or access to educative system, adopted in 13 Communities; and cultural mediator and interpretation services, offered in 9 Communities.

In the majority of the countries information to parents is provided by schools. However, the language issue is of concern almost everywhere and is tightly bound with the lack of sufficient financial and human resources in the schools to provide information and guidance in the appropriate languages. Still, some of the countries demonstrate good practices in this field. In Flanders, Belgium, some schools have staff serving as a contact point between the school, the parents and the community that appears quite useful in communication with TCN parents. In Greece, the schools' autonomy allows them to be in cooperation with the parents' associations or with the municipality and to produce information in their languages of choice. Sometimes, at their own initiative, teachers inform the stakeholders and NGOs about the curriculum of the so-called intercultural school in all languages, including in Swahili. Although it is not a general practice, in Hungary and in Poland, schools with bigger shares of TCN children translate some of the basic information materials regarding school enrolment rules, requirements, and the role of the school, and make them available in print. In Italy, the schools can use the help of cultural mediators or interpreters.

There are also countries where no public authority provides information in languages different than the national ones (Bulgaria, Malta and Slovakia). The situation in Malta is specific, as English is one of the national languages, and speaking of English is often a requirement by employers for TCN. Thereby, TCN parents who do not speak English represent relatively small number of cases (provided that children asylum seekers benefit from the efforts of social workers and volunteers to enrol them in school).

In some countries, information in the languages of origin is provided by civil, international or community organisations (Austria, Bulgaria, Poland and Slovakia). In Austria, the Chamber of Labour of Vienna and Lower Austria, together with the Public Employment Agency Vienna and Lower Austria, have produced a DVD for parents with information on education and training options in eight languages: German, Albanian, Bosnian/Croatian/Serbian, English, Kurdish, Romany, Russian, and Turkish. The DVD is free of cost and can be ordered via the website of the Chamber. In Bulgaria, the CARITAS Foundation disseminates leaflets in Arabic, French and English at Reception Centres for newcomer refugees and also provides information and help in communication with institutions through consultants speaking Arabic, Dari, Pashto and Farsi. The Refugee-Migrant Service to the Bulgarian Red Cross has open hours once a week to provide consulting on various social issues. Immigrants seeking help during these open hours are provided with translation services, if needed, and accompanied by translators to different institutions. In Poland, some NGOs and international organisations provide information materials for pupils and parents, but only in selected number of languages and on a project basis, thus unsystematic. In Slovakia, guidance for parents of

TCN children on the Slovak education system in general or access to secondary education is provided by the International Organisation for Migration. IOM runs information centres for migrants which provide basic information in various languages. Such centres are, however, only available in the two biggest cities of Slovakia, and therefore not completely accessible to everyone.

#### *Induction programmes for TCN children and parents*

Special induction programmes about the country and its educational system for TCN pupils and their parents are available only in Belgium and Spain. In Belgium, these issues are dealt with in reception education (for children) and in the civic integration course that is part of the Flemish civic integration programme (for adults). Furthermore, local municipalities have to inform recently arrived migrants about the educational system and the schools that are located in the area. In Spain, as mentioned above, 13 of the Autonomous Communities apply programmes for reception of TCN families or informing them about access to the education system.

Efforts in this direction are, however, present only in a few of the other countries. In Malta, induction language 6-week classes were recently introduced for newcomer TCN children. Classes are held in the school environment to familiarise the children with the school system, but the focus is strictly on providing the TCN with enough skills to be able to primarily communicate, and not on the specifics of the country and the educational system.

In a number of countries such initiatives are not systematic and are implemented by single actors. For instance, in Austria, Interface Vienna offers induction workshops in which they inform migrant parents about the Austrian educational system. In Greece, various programmes are implemented in several schools and their structure is usually focused on cultural activities. For instance, a primary school in Athens has organised Greek language lessons for parents and mother language lessons for children. In Hungary, an elementary school in the 10<sup>th</sup> district of Budapest, which integrates relatively large numbers of Chinese and Vietnamese pupils, regularly organises Chinese and Vietnamese language teacher-parent meetings, using an interpreter for these occasions. Still, these are individual and ad-hoc solutions, not funded by the state and not typical for public education in general. In Italy, induction programmes may or may not be implemented at school level, within the autonomy given to each school, but information regarding the number and location of schools implementing similar programmes is not available.

#### *School enrolment*

Most frequently, school enrolment procedures for TCN children in the ten studied countries are mixed: based both on the age of the children and their prior knowledge, and/or their language skills in the languages of the host countries.

Predominantly age-based school enrolment is in place in Austria. For pupils who do not speak German sufficiently well, there is the option of up to two years of “extraordinary status”, when they will not be graded in subjects in which German plays an important role. Children can be demoted to a lower class level, but only when certain conditions are met. The Ministry of Education recommends placing 7-year-olds who would normally be placed in 2nd grade into 1st grade if they have not attended school in their country of origin. For older pupils, a demotion by one year can be of advantage if that enables them to successfully complete compulsory education – e.g., placing a 13-year-old into 7<sup>th</sup> and not 8<sup>th</sup> grade. Since this is only a recommendation schools may depart from this policy. Very similar principles are in place in Malta where children are initially enrolled according to age, but this could be re-adjusted according their skill levels. Assessment of prior learning and language qualifications obtained by TCN children abroad are not done in these two countries because they are not considered necessary. Placement of children in classes lower than their age after the initial enrolment is implemented after assessment by teachers based on their several months work with them.

In Hungary, enrolment in the primary schools is also mainly age-based. There is no general methodology, guidelines or any migrant-specific curriculum, and the integration in the classroom is handled differently in different schools. The most widespread practice is for children who do not speak Hungarian to be enrolled in class levels one year lower than their age, with the purpose of learning language through repetition of curricula that is supposed to be already familiar to them. Enrolment in the secondary schools, however, is only possible through passing centralised examinations in the Hungarian language, because this is the procedure of access to secondary schools in Hungary in general.

In Italy, the main criteria is the age of the child; however, bearing in mind skills, abilities and knowledge of Italian, teachers could place the child in class level with one year lower or higher than the actual age. The ASSESS research team of Italy identified that the older the child is, the higher the probability to be placed in a class lower than age. The evaluation of previously learned skills of newly-enrolled pupils does not follow standard procedures, and entry appraisal is not carried out by specially trained personnel. Teachers administer evaluation tests, at their discretion.

In Poland, the main criterion is the number of years at school, either proved by diploma or declared by parents or caregivers. Similarly to the situation in Hungary, though, access to some schools is only through centralised examinations, as this is the general procedure for all candidates.

In Spain, both the age and prior knowledge of children are taken into account. Assessment of knowledge is done at school level: every school has its own reception plan and evaluation procedures, and teachers who do the evaluation are not specifically trained for this activity.

In three of the ten countries, school enrolment is predominantly knowledge-based (Bulgaria, Greece and Slovakia). The most complicated system is in Bulgaria, where enrolment procedures depend both on the class level desired and the status of the child. Assessment of prior knowledge of TCN children (as well as of all children who come from schools abroad) also seems the most formal and developed in countries where it is practiced at all. If diploma is available, enrolment for classes from 1 to 6 (primary level and the first two years of lower-secondary level) is automatic, without tests or exams. For grades 7 and 8, an exam on Bulgarian Language and Literature (BLL) is required, and for further grades – on BLL, Geography and Economy of Bulgaria and History and Civilisation of Bulgaria. Enrolment without presentation of diploma for previous studies is only possible if children seek or are granted protection, or if they apply for the first school grade.

In Greece, schools usually accept students on the basis of whether a student has completed the preceding level of schooling in their country of origin, and their degree of verbal aptitude in Greek language. If knowledge of a student's background is entirely absent, an informal mathematical examination is carried out to estimate the students' learning background. The instructions and directions provided by the Ministry of Education require taking a standard Greek language test. However, according to an interviewed expert from the Ministry, there is almost no school director implementing this. The Greek research team found that usually children are enrolled in classes lower than their age. Probably, exceptions represent TCN children born in Greece who are usually fluent in Greek language.

In Slovakia, according to the Act of Schooling, both prior educational record of the child and language knowledge should be taken into account by school directors for the purpose of class level placement. In cases of insufficient proficiency of the national language, the child can be placed in a class level according to its age for the maximum of one academic year. However, clear guidance on class placement and assessment of previous education of TCN children for teachers and school directors is insufficient. Also, assessment of prior education is problematic in case of a significant language barrier, which makes appropriate class level placement difficult. According to the Slovak research team, teachers tend to place TCN children into classes according to their age, or one class level below; however, cases of significant difference between the class and the age of the child are also cited.

In Belgium, there is no uniform procedure or practice of school enrolment. It is decided by each school and could be age-based, knowledge-based or mixed. In cases when knowledge-based criteria are employed, no special training requirements for teachers doing the assessment of knowledge were identified.

### ***Example of a class level placement procedure***

*In the Flemish community, secondary school TCN children who have recently arrived would generally first go to a separate reception class (OKAN) before attending regular education. When an OKAN pupil has successfully finished the OKAN class, in principle he/she is free to choose a secondary school and course of study within that school. However, when finishing the OKAN class the pupil will receive an advice about the best course of study for him/her. This advice is made by the reception education teachers, together with the pupil guidance centre (CLB). When the pupil is enrolled in regular education, an admissions council will take a decision after 25 days of teaching on whether or not the former OKAN pupil can remain in the particular school year and course of study. This admission council has to take into account the advice that has been given to the pupil at the end of the reception year; if it doesn't, it needs to motivate why it is not following this advice. If the admission council gives a positive advice, the pupil can continue in the chosen school year and within the chosen course of study. However, if the admission council gives a negative advice, the pupil will have to continue his/her education in another (lower) school year or change his/her course of study (in the same school or at a different one). After 25 days an admission council will take a decision once again.<sup>86</sup>*

## **ii. Quality of education**

### *Language training*

The majority of the countries participating in the current study could be divided in two main groups.

In the first group of countries, there are enough guarantees in terms of policy provisions and financial resources for language courses to take place in all schools where TCN children are to be enrolled (Austria, Belgium, Malta and Poland). The Austrian educational system provides language support both in kindergartens and schools. Language skills of all children are tested through standard tests. If children in school age don't have enough abilities in German to follow the educational process, regardless of whether German is their mother tongue or not, they receive "extraordinary" status and should receive additional support. When there are enough children with this status in a school, they get special language classes that could take place in addition to the regular classes, or to be integrated within them. In the latter case, a German teacher comes to a class and supports "extraordinary" pupils during the German lesson.

Both Flemish and French communities in Belgium organise different forms of language training for children with mother tongues different than those of the community. In the Flemish community, the system of reception education for language training of foreign children envisages different approaches to children in the primary and in the secondary schools. Children in primary schools follow part-time specific reception education while being immediately integrated in regular education; children in the secondary schools undergo one-year language education primary to school enrolment. The language education system of the French

<sup>86</sup> Wauters, J., J. Michielsen, and C. Timmerman. *OKAN-onderwijs: knelpunten en aanbevelingen*, Antwerpen, Steunpunt Inburgering en Integratie, 2013; Pulinx, R. et al. *Geïntegreerd eindrapport: Actie-onderzoek 16- tot 18-jarige nieuwkomers uit derdelanden*, EIF, 2014.

community does not make a distinction according to the educational level of the children but is more flexible in terms of duration. Children could participate in it for periods from one week to 18 months, depending on their own language abilities, and are enrolled in school after completion of preparatory language course.

In Malta, a predominantly language-based preparatory programme for school enrolment has been recently introduced with duration of 6 weeks. Further, children – whether TCN or not – who still face learning difficulties, language or other problems, may request a Learning Support Assistant (LSA) in the classroom. Unaccompanied minors, due to their specific vulnerable position, enjoy the help of a teacher specially assigned to them to support their classes, homework and all education-related activities.

TCN children in Poland, as well as all children of foreign origin are provided with additional lectures of Polish or catch-up classes. Those who do not know Polish sufficiently well to enable them to fully participate in the educational process are entitled to additional Polish language lessons free of charge (individually or in a group), of no less than two teaching hours per week.

The countries from the second group have more or less elaborated policies for language training of TCN children. However, these policies are not sufficiently substantiated with financial resources and adequate legislative measures to benefit all TCN children (Greece, Italy and Slovakia).

In Greece, language training programmes are either implemented on a voluntary basis, or are subsidised. Until 2008, supplementary instructions and welcoming classes operated in several schools with migrants' children across the country. In the last years, no such funds have been available as a result of the economic crisis. In Italy, the new "Guidelines for the reception and integration of foreign pupils", issued in February 2014, recommend to the schools to assist TCN children in learning the Italian language. However, the Italian ASSESS team noted that the Guidelines are not supported with the corresponding funding of recommended activities, and hence, their implementation entirely depends on the human and financial resources available at schools and the needs of users. According to their observations, greater numbers of projects connected with training in Italian as a foreign language are conducted in Northern Italy, where migration inflows are higher.

### ***Example of a language training method***

*The new Italian "Guidelines for the reception and integration of foreign pupils" stress on the role of the teacher, the key role of students and of classmates. It is estimated that new arrivals need 8 to 10 hours per week for a period of 3 or 4 months. These activities are to be organised in small groups based on learning levels and not on the age of the student, and in the form of language laboratories which do not replace the presence of peers in the class but serve as support. These laboratories may also be placed in learning modules within the school structure itself, thanks to the opening of "dedicated time" in the afternoons and during the classes in the morning. Integrated learning remains fundamental, deriving from continuous and direct contact with the Italian-speaking pupils of the class.*

In Slovakia, the municipal offices are in charge of financial and administrative support of the Slovak language courses for the children of TCN who have been granted residence permit on their territory. However, many schools are not aware of the possibility to request resources and support from the responsible municipal office. Furthermore, even if a school requests such support, it would hardly receive it because Slovak language courses are only optional; funding depends on an assessment of the “need” and the “urgency” of requests. Language courses for children of foreigners are also financially and organisationally supported by the regional schooling offices. Based on the data provided by the Ministry of Education, financial support was provided to 9 schools in 5 municipalities in 2013. However, information on the number of benefitted children is not available, nor is information whether provided support covered all schools where TCN children were enrolled.

The situation in Spain could be defined as being between these two groups of countries. All Autonomous Communities have adopted and implement some plans for educational integration of migrant children, but classes for language support are envisaged by 8 of the 17 communities.

Bulgaria and Hungary are the only of the ten countries included in the current assessment where no special policies for language training for TCN children are envisaged. In Hungary, children are supposed to learn Hungarian naturally, by living in Hungary and “repeating” in Hungarian the last school year they have completed in their home country. In Bulgaria, only newly-arrived refugee children and children seeking protection, as well as unaccompanied minors and underage young people regardless of whether they apply for protection or refuse to do so are eligible to free 3-month language training courses. These courses are provided only at the reception centres of the State Agency for Refugees and are funded under a project of CARITAS Foundation. Teaching methods are currently in the process of approbation, and the capacity of courses is not enough to cover the needs of all newcomer children.

#### *School curricula*

Generally, once enrolled in school, TCN children in the ten countries follow the same curricula as the native children. However, in part of the countries there are some exceptions from this rule (Austria, Italy and Spain).

In Austria, children with “extraordinary status” follow different curricula. In addition, lessons must be designed to meet the needs of all pupils. All children whose mother tongue is not German (regardless if they have extraordinary status or not) could attend two to six hours per week classes in different subjects in their national language, taught by teachers – native speakers. Also, the Department for Migration and School in the Federal Ministry of Education and Women’s Affairs provides online materials for education in the mother tongue, such as dictionaries, multilingual magazines, etc. However, Austria has a two-tiered school system (plus special schools for children with learning disabilities) which separates children at the age of 10. After primary school, children with

better marks attend the General Education Higher School, and children with worse marks attend the New Middle School (NMS). Children with extraordinary status could easily receive worse marks, and this leads to a situation where children with a migration background disproportionately attend the NMS or a special school. The problem with this early separation is that it predicts quite strongly outcomes later in life.

In Italy, the above-mentioned "Guidelines" for the integration of foreign pupils direct the attention of schools to possible adaptations of the study programmes for individual pupils. Furthermore, specific approaches to education of TCN children are entirely at the discretion of teachers.

The Spanish ASSESS national report points out that regions with significant numbers of temporary migrant workers are challenged to deal with specific needs of their children and their school absenteeism. These regions have established particular education curricula. There are four different types of reception measures for foreign born persons: adoption of transversal reception plans, implemented in 10 Autonomous Communities; design of specific reception and integration plans, implemented in 13 communities; provision of intercultural mediators and interpreters in 11 communities; and attention to pupils' diversity adopted by all communities. Some of these programs include separate lessons during school hours, or establishment of a period for the acquisition of basic knowledge necessary for normal school participation.

Without changing curricula for TCN children, other countries also have elaborated special measures to support their educational achievements (Greece, Hungary, Malta and Poland). In Greece, when there is a demand from at least seven pupils and availability of qualified teachers, four hours of extracurricular instruction per week can be provided. The cost of this instruction is met by the state. In some Hungarian schools TCN children are taken out of certain classes (e.g. ethics) by their teachers and attend individual or small-group lessons, mainly in order to learn Hungarian but also to receive support in some of the subjects where language teaching could also play a role (e.g. Maths, Environmental Knowledge). However, given that funding and methodological support are either lacking or hardly accessible this good practice remains rather an exception. Maltese teachers also have significant discretions, including the responsibility to assess the needs of a TCN child for further linguistic or other support. TCN children in Poland are entitled to catch-up classes individually or in a group, in subjects where educational programmes are different than in their home countries. These classes could not exceed five hours per student per week. However, they should be requested by school directors from the relevant authorities in municipal or district level.

In Belgium, Bulgaria and Slovakia, no special measures are envisaged to support TCN children after school enrolment, and teachers who deal with them should entirely rely on their own professional experience to meet their specific needs. In Belgium, there are some individual school practices, such as teaching some classes in the migrant's native language, if a staff member masters this language, or to avoid complex language in subjects like mathematics and sciences. In Bulgaria, 4 types of measures

are implemented to meet the education needs of all children, which TCN children can also benefit from: a full-day education up to 5th grade, including classes in the morning and support by teachers to prepare lessons and homework in the afternoons; additional education during the summer holidays for pupils from 2nd to 4th grade who have unsatisfactory marks on some subjects; additional work during the first stage of the basic level education (up to 4th grade) with pupils who enrol in 1st grade without obligatory preschool education completed; additional education in different subjects depending on the educational level. However, all these measures could be implemented only at school level, and it depends on the respective school to formulate, propose and request funding for these additional activities. In Slovakia, regulations do not allow assessment exemptions for students who are not proficient in the local language. However, the Slovak ASSESS team found that in practice teachers tend to avoid assigning marks of migrant children as they find it the most suitable solution for the benefit of the child. Furthermore, some teachers develop their own classification or assessment system.

#### *Teachers' qualifications*

Bulgaria and Slovakia are the only countries in which there is no training for teachers on working with migrant children and teachers rely completely on their own experience. In Bulgaria, only one training course has been held by the time of the writing of the current report, with 30 teachers from those schools in the capital city where RASC are usually enrolled. The course provided training on working in a multicultural environment and similar training is planned to include teachers outside the capital city in 2015.

In the majority of the countries of the present study training is available but does not cover all teachers. In Belgium, Greece and Hungary, intercultural education is only optional in university courses for teachers.

#### ***Example of intercultural pedagogy training***

*The Hungarian ASSESS team has cited as positive example the results of a programme sponsored by the Structural Funds (TÁMOP) in 2012, for a two-year project. Two schools and two kindergartens with significant numbers of TCN children applied as a consortium, with a programme titled "Receiving Communities in Kőbánya (Budapest, 10th district) – Intercultural Education". The participating institutions, their institutional leaders and their teachers committed to the strategy of developing a practice in everyday pedagogy of a receiving, integrating community. The programme involved 52 teachers who learnt the basics of intercultural pedagogy during the training sessions offered by the programme.*

In Malta, general teacher training already provides tools to understand and enhance multiculturalism, but no further education courses are available for teachers who are already working. In Poland, this kind of support for teachers is provided only by NGOs. In Spain, initial or ongoing training, both inside and outside school hours and classes, is conducted by a number of actors: the Ministry of Education, Autonomous Communities, training agencies, NGOs, research institutes, etc. Each actor has a different definition of intercultural education and reacts to

the context they have to manage daily, for which the methods and the principles vary. Furthermore, these trainings are not compulsory or systematic, and do not include all teachers of TCN children.

Systematic training for teachers in working with TCN children and in teaching the host country language as a second language is provided only in Austria and Italy. For kindergarten teachers in Austria, teacher training colleges offer trainings in early language learning. For school teachers, German as a second language and intercultural learning are currently part of their training. Furthermore, teachers must complete a certain amount of continuing education, where teaching in multi-lingual environments is offered by several providers. However, teachers might choose another type of education. In Italy, the subject Primary Education Sciences provides graduates with knowledge of “Italian linguistics and grammar and teaching of the Italian language to foreigners”, as well as “intercultural pedagogy.” However, similar requirements are not set for training programmes of teachers in secondary schools, and there are no precise requirements for teaching Italian to foreigners at school.

In Belgium, Bulgaria, Greece, Hungary, Malta, Poland and Spain, teaching the national language to foreigners is optional; not all teachers have the necessary qualification, nor is it compulsory for the regular schools. In Bulgaria, only teachers holding preparatory language courses for RASC and UAMs are specially trained to teach foreigners. In Greece, only teachers in intercultural schools are expected to meet this criterion. In Hungary, few teachers having this qualification teach in the regular schools. In Poland, several universities offer training in teaching Polish as a foreign language, but usually to adults and to EU citizens, so the specific needs of TCN children remain unmet. In Slovakia, teachers could teach the national language only to native speakers.

The major challenge identified as regards the qualification of teachers is to attract and to keep the qualified teachers in the regular schools, as they seek better paid jobs such as private language schools, international companies, etc. (Hungary), or tend at to move to more stable positions, from reception education to regular classes (Belgium).

However, Slovakia, as well as Austria, Belgium and Greece, is one of the countries where programmes, guidelines, tools or minimum standards for education of TCN children in the language of the host country are provided by educational institutions. Also, in Slovakia and Poland, guidelines and methods for teaching national languages to foreign children are provided by NGOs. In Bulgaria, teachers holding preparatory language courses for RASC and UAMs are currently testing the programme and textbooks and if they prove efficient would be presented for approval to the Minister of Education. In Italy, Malta and Spain, respective educational institutions provide only general guidelines on the education of TCN children.

Teachers are compensated for providing extra-curricular support to TCN children in Austria, Greece, Hungary and Italy. However, in Greece, Hungary and Italy the respective funds are additionally negotiated with

or requested by institutions, and could not be perceived as granted. They are also subject to restrictions in the last years, due to the economic crisis. In Belgium, similar compensations are not regulated on federal nor regional level, but some ad-hoc initiatives might exist at the school level. In Malta, special teachers are designated to provide additional support to TCN children, thus ensuring the proper payment for this activity as a final outcome.

*Needs assessments and programme evaluations of the educational performance of TCN children*

The policies and mechanisms for the conduct of needs assessments and programme evaluations with respect to the educational performance that have been identified across the ten countries do not target TCN children specifically. In some countries with insignificant shares of TCN population, such as Malta and Slovakia, similar activities have not been identified at all. In other countries with small child TCN populations (Bulgaria, Hungary) evaluations and competence tests are conducted regularly among all children, including TCN. However, disaggregation by citizenship or other disaggregation allowing comparing performance of native children with those of other groups based on language or origin is not available.

In Belgium, evaluations of knowledge and decisions on respective measures are done only at the level of the individual – for every single child and its unique needs. In other words, policy efforts in this field at the regional or national levels have not been identified. In other countries with substantial shares of child TCN populations, needs assessments and programme evaluations target broader groups of children, such as all foreign, all migrant, or all children with mother tongues different than national ones, because education needs of these groups are perceived as common, or similar. For instance, in Austria, external and internal tests and evaluations of knowledge of students are disaggregated by mother tongue. In Bulgaria, external evaluations are also held after 4<sup>th</sup> and 7<sup>th</sup> grade. However, results are disaggregated only by gender and the school where children studied. In Greece, the programme DIAPOLIS for educational integration of foreign children implemented by the Aristotle University of Thessaloniki is currently in a process of assessment by the Ministry of Education. In Italy, a promising practice is the annual monitoring “Alunni con cittadinanza non italiana” (Pupils without Italian Citizenship) conducted by the Ministry of Education in partnership with the ISMU Foundation. Since 1996, enrolment rates, performance, and general path of pupils and students through the Italian educational system is tracked and analysed in publicly available annual reports. The data gathered could be disaggregated by gender, type of school, origin, territory, etc. Although TCN children are not separated as a specific target group, the monitoring reflects all important issues they could meet in the process of education.

In all of the participating countries with the exception of Malta, PISA surveys are conducted as well. However, as commented below, it is not possible to compare the results of national and TCN children.

### 2.2.3. Social inclusion of TCN children

#### *Access to social assistance programmes*

As explained above in the section on the social inclusion of TCN women, child-related support schemes across the ten EU member states are two types: contributory, or insurance-based, and non-contributory, assistance-based. While the first type is accessible to TCN under the same conditions as those for national citizens, access to the second type of benefits is differently regulated in the ten countries of this assessment.

Only in Greece and Spain TCN parents have access to the same child-related social assistance schemes as vulnerable native parents, without any additional requirements. In Greece, a formal residence status is required, but this is also valid for national citizens. In Spain, access to the social services system depends on the regular resident status of the beneficiary: regular TCN have the same access as Spanish nationals. Access of undocumented TCN to support schemes for children (mainly different types of scholarships) is generally stipulated in the law; however, in practice it could vary in the different Autonomous Communities, as they set different eligibility criteria for access (for instance, registration in the municipal register). The same goes for the variety of social services provided to children and their families, such as leisure activities, child care centres, mediations services between parents and minors, psychological support, and at home support for vulnerable families.

Belgium, Hungary, Italy, Malta and Poland either provide only one type of non-contributory schemes, or the same requirements for all types of child-related non-contributory schemes, usually combinations of resident status and term of stay. In Belgium, TCN parents who can prove five years of uninterrupted legal residence, as well as recognised refugees or stateless persons are entitled to child-related benefits. The same period is also required for the child in question, if (s)he is not:

- related to the 3<sup>rd</sup> degree to the beneficiary;
- the child of the beneficiary's (ex)spouse or partner;
- an EEA national or a national of a country that signed the European Social Charter;
- a refugee or a stateless person.<sup>87</sup>

In Hungary, TCN parents having a residence permit for at least six months and a valid residence (address) card are entitled to child-related benefits. In Italy, foreign nationals that possess a long-term EU residence permit are entitled to all types of social protection schemes. In Malta, a TCN is entitled to child-related support schemes if that person comes from a country which is a member of the European Social Charter, is a long-term resident, Spouse of a Maltese citizen, EU Blue Card holder, or

<sup>87</sup> Mussche, N. et al. *Migrant access to social security – policy and practice in Belgium and the EU*, Study for the Belgian National Contact Point of the European Migration Network, Antwerp: Centre for Social Policy Herman Deleeck, 2014, pp. 34-35.

a researcher under Council Directive 2005/71/EC. In Poland, only TCN with permanent and long-term EU residence permits have access to non-contributory support schemes.

In Austria, Bulgaria and Slovakia, access to different support schemes is regulated in different ways. In Austria, the family allowance is accessible for TCN families who could prove that both the recipient and the child have a valid residence title. Asylum seekers and people granted subsidiary protection who receive basic services are not eligible. They can apply for money from the Family Burdens Equalisation Fund, if their family is in a situation of exceptional financial need. Only stateless persons and EU citizens can apply for alimony advancement, in case the partner who is supposed to pay alimony does not pay regularly or at all. In Bulgaria, families whose income is lower than the Differentiated Minimum Income (specified separately for different types of families and persons) can apply for social benefits. TCN are entitled to these benefits only if they have been granted long-term or permanent residence status. Conditions are slightly more favourable for TCN, as they are not required to submit some of the documents. Long-term and permanent residents, including children, are also entitled to benefits for people with disabilities, or so called "integration allowances". All groups of TCN, however, as well as protection seekers and EU citizens, are excluded from the scope of the family benefits. Only Bulgarian citizens and foster families or families of relatives regardless their citizenship, having a child (irrespective of its nationality) placed in the family by a protection order from the child protection authorities can receive family benefits. However, there have been no similar cases so far due to the general lack of preparedness of foster families to receive foreign children. Unaccompanied minors and those underage are automatically placed under protection; this means that the state is entirely responsible for meeting their living and development needs.

The situation in Slovakia is very similar, but not as restrictive as in Bulgaria. All TCN are eligible for benefits connected with the living minimum. TCN who have permanent or temporary residence permits can receive benefits for children 3-6 years old and children in education, as well as for unemployed and employed parents, provided they meet the criteria for national citizens. They can, however, lose the right to these benefits if they do not reside within the EEA and do not have a valid health insurance in Slovakia. Furthermore, unlike the benefits, social services are provided only to TCN who are family members of Slovak nationals as well as to persons who have been granted asylum or subsidiary protection.

#### *Access to targeted intercultural activities*

In the majority of countries, policies on intercultural activities and leisure activities do not target TCN children specifically, because the goal is to ensure the integrative and non-discriminative nature of these activities. There are some exceptions, although they do not exhaust all intercultural activities in the respective countries. In Austria, an example is the "Reading together" programme of the city of Salzburg

which offers bilingual story times for pupils in primary schools. In Poland, classes on the language and the culture of the country of origin in public schools can be run by a diplomatic or consular post or associations of given nationalities. There need to be at least seven pupils participating (in case of artistic schools at least 14) for these classes to take place.

In half of the ten countries intercultural activities are implemented at the school level (Bulgaria, Greece, Hungary, Malta and Poland). TCN children enrolled in Bulgarian schools have equal opportunities to participate in all extra-curricular activities with the children who are national citizens. These activities can include visits to tourist destinations and cultural sites, “green” or “white” schools (organised recreation outside of the city combined with group activities in spring or winter, for 5 to 7 days), or sports activities. Most of these activities are additionally paid by parents. Free of charge are the extra-curricular activities financed by the Project “School of Self-affirmation and Preparation for European Horizons” (Success Project). It envisages a great variety of additional extra-curricular classes in the fields of science, math, humanities, health education, civil education, culture, arts, sports, etc. Similarly, in Greece intercultural activities are included in the general education and they are incorporated in the curriculum issued by Ministry of Education. Therefore, they are applicable to all children irrespective of their status or cultural differences. In summer camps, for instance, there is no distinction between children. Also, immigrants’ children take part on an equal basis and without distinction in the student exchange programme Comenius. The Hungarian ASSESS team defined intercultural activities or programmes in the public education system as sporadic, but examples of similar activities held by other agents were not found. A positive example of intercultural activities, enabling a smoother integration of TCN children into their peer groups is the summer camp at Lake Balaton organised by Sz. L. School (an elementary school in the 10<sup>th</sup> district of Budapest) for its students, both TCN and Hungarian. In Malta and Poland intercultural activities have also been organised at the school level; however, they were funded through external sources: international organisations in Malta, and embassies of other countries in Poland.

In Austria and Belgium, intercultural activities are held at the regional, community or municipal levels. Policies in this field do not target TCN children specifically, but some specific programmes might do, as the above-mentioned activity of the city of Salzburg. Furthermore, funding for these activities is granted based on complex socio-economic criteria for different types of vulnerabilities that might cover vulnerable TCN population as well. The main concern identified by the Belgian team is connected with results from a research project in Flanders. The results show low level of participation of TCN youth in youth movements. Spain seems to have the most diversity of agents providing intercultural activities targeting specifically TCN children – different governmental institutions, civil society organisations and migrant associations take part in this field.

*Fighting child poverty and social exclusion*

Although all of the countries have some laws and regulations concerning social support schemes for TCN children and families, TCN children are targeted by child poverty policies only in the policy documents of the Flemish community in Belgium, in Greece, and in Spain. Regarding child poverty and equal opportunities, the Flemish Action Plan for Children's Rights 2011 – 2014 identifies eleven operational objectives, three of which target migrant children specifically: "The Flemish government will give special attention to children of foreign origin," "the Flemish government will contribute to a solution for the bottle-neck issues unaccompanied foreign minors are facing," and "the Flemish government will investigate the problems regarding access to service provision for undocumented migrants." Furthermore, in 2011, 2012 and 2013 the Flemish government launched a call for local projects to fight child poverty. From 2014 onwards structural funding is foreseen for local governments of municipalities. In this framework 70 municipalities were selected based on seven indicators one of which was the number of households with children between 0 and 3 years old where one or both of the parent(s) do not have EU-citizenship.

The Greek National Strategy for the Integration of TCN calls for implementation of the fundamental rights of the child and particularly of vulnerable children. It also pronounces a number of other principles related to their education and access to welfare services, such as protection of the fundamental rights of the child irrespective of nationality, as defined in the Convention on the Rights of the Child, and advancing the rights of the child, with particular attention to vulnerable children. These objectives are to be achieved through measures in several areas, among which are: promoting effective access of minor TCN and youngsters to programmes related to child and young ages, and promoting the provision of social welfare services targeting migrants of young age and young people who are in a particularly vulnerable situation.

One of the priorities of the latest Spanish National Strategic Plan for Children and Adolescence 2013 – 2016 is the incorporation of the fight against infant poverty in all national plans. It also aims at proposing an intervention model and a practical instrument in order to achieve this particular aim. Several plans for fighting children poverty have been adopted both at the regional and local levels. In addition, migrant children have been identified as a group in most vulnerable situation within the National Plan for Social Inclusion.

In Bulgaria and Malta, specific groups rather than not TCN children as a whole are targeted as vulnerable. In Bulgaria, the National Strategy for the Child defines the unemployment of parents and large number of children in the household (three or more children) as the main poverty risk factors. The Strategy identifies the main risk groups of children to include children from vulnerable ethnic groups (especially Roma and Turkish), children of single parents and long-term unemployed, and "children at risk." Further, the groups of children at risk are enlisted, and as a last group among them are included refugee children. "Reducing the child poverty and creation of conditions for social inclusion of the

children” is operational goal N1 of the Strategy. The social inclusion is the broader context in which the fight against poverty is sought. The policies in the area of living standard and social assistance are developed in three main directions: i) income support; ii) support of parents in reconciliation of work and family life; iii) enlarging access to quality day care for children.

In Malta, the Children’s Manifesto includes a specific section about poverty and social exclusion that mentions children of irregular migrants as a particular vulnerable group whose concerns need to be addressed. In this context especially residential arrangements and detention of migrant children are considered particular challenges that can fundamentally affect the life opportunities of TCN children. The same concerns were raised in a recent Joint Technical Mission Report by IOM and UNHCR to support Malta in its responsibilities for reception arrangements for unattended minors and separated children. The Joint Technical Mission was carried out in close collaboration with the President’s Foundation for the Wellbeing of Society representing the political will to address the question of social inclusion of TCN children. However, practical measures are few so far, both in terms of governmental contributions, as well as in assessing how international organisations and the NGO sector can facilitate this process in an organised manner.

In Austria, Hungary, Poland and Slovakia TCN children or specific groups of them are not mentioned, but the countries nevertheless have policies against child poverty. The Austrian National Action Plan for Integration without dealing with child poverty specifically mentions the fact that migrants are disproportionally more at risk of poverty, even if they are employed. Job orientation and qualification measures are mentioned to address this. The report “Child Poverty in Austria” elaborated by an NGO, lists the following fields of anti-child-poverty measures: financial security (e.g. minimum benefits, allowances), education policy (e.g. more places in childcare/early education facilities, common school for all 10-14-year-olds), family policy (e.g. reform of alimony law), labour market policy (e.g. wages, more afternoon childcare), and social policy (e.g. more funds and competences for youth welfare services). However, these measures are assessed as not implemented in practice and their enforcement is needed.

In Hungary and Poland, support schemes designed to counteract the child poverty include variety of monetary benefits and non-financial forms of support, such as educational integration, health insurance and in-kind help for vulnerable children and their families.

The Concept for Integration of Foreigners in the Slovak Republic focuses on three basic aspects of social inclusion within the framework of migrant integration – social insurance, social support (services) and social benefits (finances). Concerning child poverty, the main focus of the Slovak authorities is currently turned towards children from disadvantaged social background, being the Roma children. According to the Italian ASSESS research team, policies against child poverty could hardly be found in the existing policy documents.

#### ***2.2.4. Guardianship policies for separated and unaccompanied children***

All of the ten countries participating in the current assessment have some formal procedures for appointing guardians or custodians for TCN unattended minors and underage children. In some countries, such as Bulgaria, Greece and Poland, where the appointment of guardians for TCN children is done according to the same procedures as those for native children, a serious regulatory gap is identified concerning these procedures. The respective national laws admit the establishment of guardianship in cases when parents are deceased, fully debarred, deprived of parental care, or missing, which is not typically the case of unattended TCN children: their parents or caregivers usually reside in other countries. In Bulgaria and Greece, guardianships are established despite of these provisions, and this fact automatically makes establishments of guardianships unlawful, or “on the edge of the law”. In Poland, guardianship is not established when it is impossible to prove the above-mentioned conditions, with all negative consequences on the child wellbeing.

In the majority of the countries there are also formal requirements concerning the exact obligations of guardians (Bulgaria, Greece, Hungary, Italy, Malta, Poland, Slovakia and Spain). However, these requirements happen to be quite general, fixing only the main areas of obligations in respective national laws; or they vary: depending on specific decision of the Court (Poland), on whether a natural person is appointed as guardian, or representative of an institution (Bulgaria), or on specific regulations set at community level (Spain). Although placement of unattended children in a family environment is perceived as a better solution, in fact child care institutions are bound by far more detailed obligations and care standards.

With the exception of Slovakia and Poland, where guardianship functions could have different scope depending on the Court's decision, and in Spain, where guardian entities have full responsibilities, typically child care functions are separated from the guardianship functions, even if both are implemented by representatives of the same institution or NGO. In addition, in the rest of the countries with the exception of Belgium and Italy, guardians implement only the role of legal representatives. In Austria, the guardianship responsibilities are in fact divided between two or three people, depending of specific rules at province or municipality level. The actual guardian (social worker at a district or municipal authority), the legal representative in the asylum procedure (these two could coincide), and the caretaking facility which is responsible for care and education.

In Bulgaria, guardianship and custody of TCN children exercised by directors of institutions where they are placed is limited to legal representation only; but many other services for children and social work with them are also provided by a number of employees at specialised institutions. In fact, the guardianship and custody role is exercised by several persons, while only directors are entitled to respective legal rights and obligations of guardians/custodians.

In Greece, guardians are only legal representatives. Very similar situation is found in Hungary, where guardians have mainly mediation and legal representation functions; and children placed in child care facilities have children's rights representative to help them formulate claims, receive support and services and report violations of rights. In Malta, the legal guardian has to perform several roles such as representing the minor in all legal and administrative procedures or assessing any needs the minor may have. The signature of the legal guardian is required for a number of legal and administrative procedures, such as hospitalisation, school enrolment, to apply for school fees exemption, or for the issuance of a police record if a child is apprehended for suspected criminal activity.

In Slovakia, the legal guardians are responsible for continuous protection of the child's life, health and positive psycho-social development. However, legal representation in asylum-seeking or protection-seeking procedures is implemented prior to the appointment of guardian, also by representatives of the child protection bodies. In Belgium, and in Italy, the guardianship includes more than one role. In Belgium, guardians act as supervisors over the functions of different institutions towards the child; and also have advisory functions. In Italy, legal representatives and workers of the care homes where the child is staying cannot be appointed as guardians. Guardians should:

- take care of the child: the guardian is not required to personally look after the child, who lives in a care home or with a foster family or a relative, but has to ensure that those responsible for the upkeep of the child regularly fulfil this duty, and that the needs of the protected child are considered. She or he must also be informed about plans made for the child, monitor over time such plans and ensure that they are in line with the child's interests;
- represent the child in all civil actions: the guardian is empowered to carry out all civil actions regarding the rights and interests of the child (signing formal applications, registrations, forms, authorisations, etc.) and to represent him/her in legal actions;
- manage the child's assets, in the form of movable and immovable property.

Settlement of specific requirements to potential guardians across the ten countries is unfortunately rather problematic. In Austria, Greece, Hungary and Malta, no similar requirements are identified at all, although the practice in Hungary, for instance, shows appointment of persons understanding the child's rights.

In Belgium, two systems of guardianship exist: the "professionalised" and the "voluntary" system. In the professionalised system the guardian is an employee of a non-profit organisation that works in the field of UAMs, while in the voluntary system the guardian is a private person who takes up guardianship as a self-employed profession (as his/her main or secondary occupation), or as a volunteer. The majority of the guardians are found in the voluntary system. There are no specific requirements other than being over 18 years old and reside legally in Belgium. New guardians are required to participate in a four-day training

course that deals with immigration law, youth law, civil law, pedagogy and psychology, and multicultural reception, and they have to attend a continuing training course for guardians at least once a year. However, this is considered insufficient to guarantee proper preparedness and quality of guardianship services.

In Bulgaria, typically directors at SAR centres or child care institutions are appointed as guardians; however, the majority of unattended minors or underage TCN in practice have some relatives who travelled with them and who sometimes are appointed as their guardians/custodians. Social workers from PCD to ASA are expected to do a social inquiry to identify whether any unfavourable circumstances are connected with potential candidates and to provide an opinion if the candidates are appropriate or could put at risk the interests and safety of the child. The mayor, as guardian and custody body, is not legally obliged to comply with position of the social worker but, according to interviewed experts, they always do. Interviewed experts informed about existing corruption and risks of trafficking of children because of attempts individuals to be assigned as guardians/custodians for a fee. They identified a practice in which local leaders of ethnic communities are assigned as guardians/custodians. The expert from SACP also related about single cases in which guardianship is instituted without informing PCD to ASA, “thanks” to another legal gap: in the Family Code a possibility for “guardianship for a limited time period” is envisaged, in which case informing PCD to ASA is not required.

In Italy, if on the territory in question there is no suitable relative willing to take on the task of guardian, a private citizen suitable for the office may be named as guardian, being of exemplary conduct, capable of educating and raising the child in keeping with his/her capabilities, inclinations and aspirations (articles 348 and 147 of the Civil Code). The following may be appointed as guardians: officials of the local authority of the territory in which the child is staying (institutional guardian); suitably trained volunteers; foreigners legally residing in the territory. In practice, in most cases a high representative or official of the local authority (mayor, deputy mayor or social services officer) is appointed. Because of the large number of children placed under his tutelage, it is difficult for an “institutional” guardian to develop a personal or trusting relationship with the child. The mayor often delegates functions relating to the implementation of tutelage to the deputy mayor and, thereafter, to social workers.

In Poland, NGO representatives, employees at diplomatic institutions and social workers can be appointed as guardians. However, in practice, law students are also appointed to represent children in court, which could be problematic since they lack experience in working with foreign children. In Spain, only social workers from the child protection bodies of autonomous communities or NGO representatives with whom the Community has agreements can be appointed as guardians and their obligations depend on the rules set by each Autonomous Community. Only in Slovakia, requirements for guardians are stable and clear. The guardianship service for the unaccompanied minor placed in a foster care home is provided by employees of the Office of Labour, Social Affairs and Family.

In four of the ten countries: Austria, Greece, Malta and Poland, mechanisms for regular monitoring and review of the guardianship services provided were not identified.

In Belgium, guardians should write reports twice a year and Guardianship Service has started – since 2014 – to conduct annual individual meetings with them. In Bulgaria, monitoring functions are implemented by the social workers at the Child Protection Directorates, which is why the institution opposes the idea the same social workers to be appointed as guardians. In Italy, in case of a conflict between the minor and his guardian, the “protutore” (acting guardian) would look after his interests. Should the latter also find himself in opposition with the interests of the minor, the guardianship judge will appoint a “special trustee”.

Although state bodies do not implement regular monitoring of guardianship services in Poland, NGOs provide reports in this field, and also the Human Rights Defender monitors the guardianship procedures in case of complaints by refugees or minors at detention centres. In Slovakia, the responsible court is in charge of continuous monitoring and evaluation of the provided guardianship services. Court evaluation must be carried out at least twice per year. However, based on the experience of the Slovak research team, the current monitoring mechanisms could not be defined as ensuring high quality of provided services. In Spain, there is a special Commission in charge of Minors and Family Protection within the administration of each Autonomous Community, which twice a year implements monitoring and assessment of the situation of the minors and the services they have had access to.

Aside of the described issues concerning guardianship policies, in Bulgaria, Greece, Hungary, Italy and Slovakia, cases of frequent runaways of unattended minors are detected which puts them at serious risk of trafficking and exploitation. The main cause appears to be the relatively poor economic situation in these countries making them undesired destinations. Children who already have parents or other relatives in more developed countries fear long reunification procedures or the risk of being detained in respective countries until coming of age, especially if their parents or relatives reside illegally elsewhere in Europe.

## 2.3. Assessment of outcomes

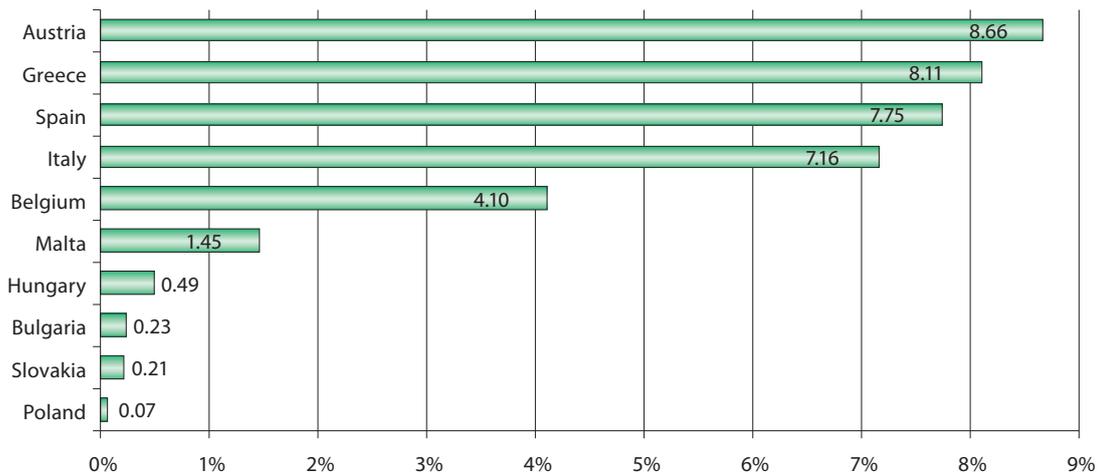
### 2.3.1. Education

#### *Access and enrolment*

Just as the compulsory school age differs in the ten participating countries, so do available data sources and characteristics of data, as exact groups in terms of age and school enrolment and accounting periods, differ very significantly from country to country. Comparison of data regarding TCN population in compulsory school age proved unfeasible. For this reason, comparison is made of populations aged 5-19, according the latest available Eurostat data. With some minor exceptions, these age limits encompass the most typical minimal pre-school age, to the most typical age for completion of general secondary education.

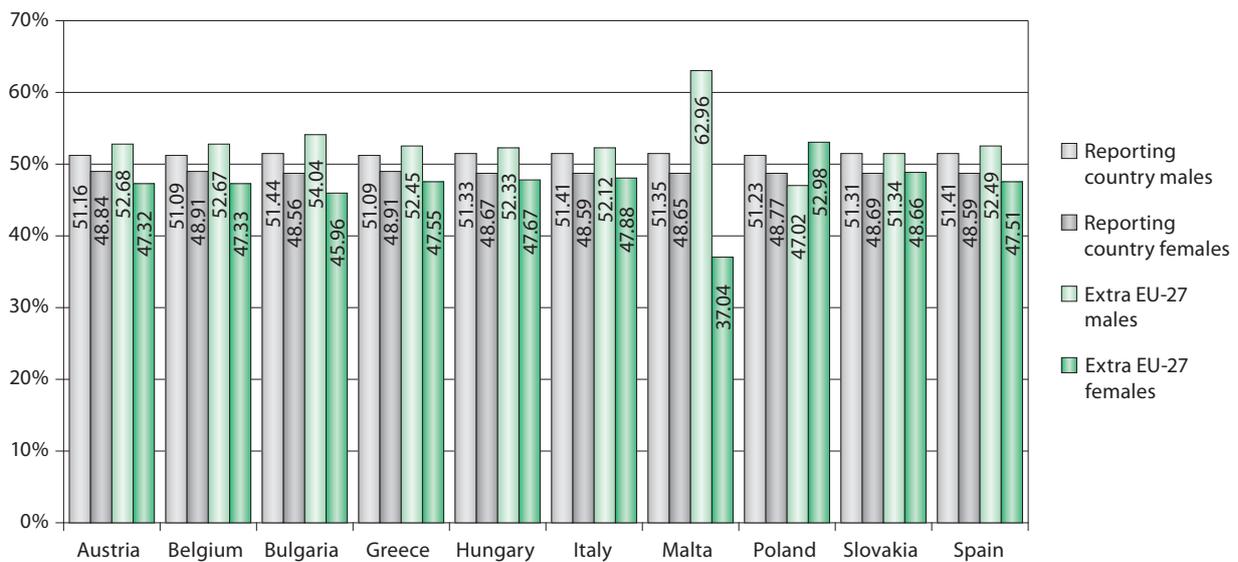
Generally, data on age groups from 5 to 19 years of age do not differ significantly from data on age groups from 0 to 19 years. More substantial shares of TCN are observed in Austria, Greece, Italy and Spain (in the range of 7 to 9%). Belgium and Malta have moderate shares of 4.1 and 1.45% respectively, and shares of TCN aged 5-19 in the rest of the countries do not exceed 0.5%.

**FIGURE 6. THE SHARE OF TCN IN THE TOTAL POPULATION AGED 5-19 AS OF JANUARY 1, 2013 (%)**



Source: Eurostat (Population on 1 January by five year age group, sex group and citizenship [migr\_pop1ctz]).

**FIGURE 7. GENDER STRUCTURE OF THE TOTAL AND TCN POPULATION AGED 5-19, AS PER JANUARY 1, 2013 (%)**



Source: Eurostat (Population on 1 January by five year age group, sex group and citizenship [migr\_pop1ctz]).

The same conclusion applies to gender structures of TCN aged 5-19, compared to those of national citizens. In the majority of the countries, shares of TCN boys slightly exceed those of boys who are national citizens. More visible differences were observed in Malta, where the share of TCN boys exceeds those of boys-national citizens by more than 11 points; and in Poland, where the share of TCN girls is higher than those of TCN boys, unlike the proportion among national citizens.

#### *Enrolment in schools and kindergartens*

Data regarding TCN children enrolled in pre-school care are missing for some of the countries, because are not gathered by citizenship, or are gathered by broader group of citizenship (national versus foreign population). Data for the rest of the countries vary in terms of period and comparability with Eurostat TCN population data. Eurostat data for national and TCN population are given as per January 1, 2013, while enrolment data concerns school years at different time periods: at the beginning, at the end, or average for the whole period. There are also some country specifics. Data for Austria are given as per January 1, 2014 and school year 2013/2014, while for the rest of the countries it is one year before these dates. Also, specific for Bulgaria is the fact that data on pre-school enrolment encompasses children aged 3-6; while for the rest of the countries the upper limit is 5 years of age.

Despite these comparability limitations it could be seen from Annex Table 40 that enrolment for TCN children in Austria and Belgium do not vary substantially from those for national children. In Bulgaria, the difference is also not significant. In the case of Austria, the regulation setting one mandatory and free of charge year in kindergartens for all children is probably playing an important role. A very specific situation is encountered in Greece where, despite of the lower employment rate of TCN women compared to Greek women, enrolment of TCN children in pre-school facilities is higher by approximately 10 points. The causes might lay in the popularity and different affordability of private child-care services for TCN and Greek families, as the difference of their median incomes is almost double (Annex Table 34). However, this issue was not studied by the ASSESS project. Some difference in the opposite direction could be observed in Slovakia, but due to the small numbers of TCN children it shouldn't be considered significant. Of more concern is the difference between TCN girls and TCN boys in Bulgaria and Hungary: while TCN girls are represented more broadly in Bulgarian pre-school facilities, boys predominate in Hungary, with differences of 14 and 34 points respectively. The reasons for these disproportions should be sought mostly in the cultural differences in the main countries of origin. While about a third of TCN children in Bulgarian kindergartens come from Russia, in Hungary, the biggest shares of TCN children come from China and Vietnam.

The above-mentioned considerations regarding comparability of data are equally valid in terms of school enrolment, with additional differences between countries. The compulsory schooling starts between the ages of 5 and 7 and ends at 15 to 18 years of age, and in some of the

countries, as Hungary, its beginning is not strictly fixed, but depends on the assessment of the child's readiness to start school. Further, the upper-secondary level of education could end between 18 and 23 years of age. For this reason, children and young persons enrolled in primary and secondary levels of education overlap to a different extent with populations aged 5-19 and hence, countries could not be directly compared in terms of enrolment of national or of TCN children and youth. The Annex Table 41 presenting shares of enrolled could serve only as general illustration of the scales of differences between national/total and TCN populations, within the same country.

In Belgium and Spain – two of the countries with long-term experience of integration, and with relatively higher shares of TCN children in comparison with the new member states – minimum differences in school enrolment between national and TCN children and young people could be observed (Annex Table 41). In the case of Belgium, the averages for TCN and national pupils and students practically do not differ, and even higher enrolment is displayed among TCN girls in comparison with Belgian girls. In Spain, where the compulsory school age is two years earlier than in Belgium, the average enrolment of TCN is about 3 points lower than those for the Spaniards. However, TCN enrolment figures for both countries include undocumented children and young people, while figures for TCN populations include only those legally residing. In addition, the Belgian team identified higher shares of repeaters among foreign pupils and students than among Belgian ones, and hence, higher shares of 18 and 19-year olds included in the numbers of enrolled.<sup>88</sup> Although the latter does not give information for TCN students specifically, it also contributes to the conclusion that behind the presented figures, differences in enrolment of TCN and national children and young people still exist in these two countries.

Despite these considerations, it could be clearly seen that the scales of differences between TCN and national children and young people are far more substantial in countries with less experience and lower shares of TCN populations, like Bulgaria, Hungary and Slovakia. While interpreting these data, however, it should be taken into account that in each of these countries some limitations of data also exist that prevent strong conclusions regarding enrolment of TCN children and youth. As mentioned in the introductory part of the report, TCN statistics include not only people with regular residence permits but also refugees, protection and asylum seekers. In the case of Bulgaria, for instance, RASC make the majority of TCN children presented in statistical figures, and information coming from in-depth interviews shows that the low figures for school enrolment of TCN are due to the problems with enrolment of RASC. In Hungary, school enrolment statistics do not include private schools, where, according to an interviewee from the Ministry of Human Resources, many migrant parents prefer to enrol their children.<sup>89</sup>

<sup>88</sup> National Belgian ASSESS Report: *Integration of Vulnerable Migrant Groups in Belgium*, p. 46-47.

<sup>89</sup> National Hungarian ASSESS Report: *Integration of Vulnerable Migrants: Women, Children and Victims of Trafficking*, p. 24-25.

For both groups of countries, participation of TCN girls in education is higher than those of TCN boys. In the case of Belgium, for instance, it is even more favourable for TCN in comparison to Belgian girls; and in the case of Bulgaria, participation of TCN girls is 11 points higher than participation of TCN boys. This means that not only policies encouraging participation of girls are needed, but also a more precise analysis of factors preventing participation and the corresponding policies targeting both genders in specific vulnerable groups.

#### *School drop-out rate*

Eurostat does not provide data on the drop-out rate indicator. Also, for some countries as Austria, this indicator is not applicable due to the lack of one-track educational system. Actually, drop-out rates are calculated only in Bulgaria and Italy. However, school drop-out rates in Bulgaria are calculated through comparisons of the lists of enrolled students for two consecutive school years. Students enrolled in the year  $n-1$  who have not completed secondary education in the same year are searched in the list of those enrolled in the year  $n$ , and if do not exist in this list are counted as dropped out of school. The reasons for not being enrolled in the year  $n$  are divided in 3 types: unwillingness, family reasons and travelled abroad. However, there is no information whether those who left the country enrolled in schools abroad or not, and therefore, higher migration rates could create a false increase in the drop-out rates. Furthermore, if TCN families move more frequently than Bulgarian families, this would create the respective difference in the drop-out levels for these two groups. Generally, the average drop-out rate in Bulgaria varies about 2-3% (according to the latest available data for the school year 2012/2013 it is 2.3%).<sup>90</sup> For the same school year, TCN children enrolled in Bulgarian schools were 945 and 223 (or about 24%) dropped out. For the above-mentioned reasons, however, it would not be correct to state that the drop-out level for TCN children is substantially higher than the average one.

In the case of Italy, drop-out levels are calculated separately for the different levels of education. Furthermore, data on foreign children are available along with that on native children which makes it impossible to extract TCN children only. The rates for national children for lower secondary and upper secondary levels respectively are 0.17 and 1.16%; and for foreign children the figures are very similar: 0.49 and 2.42%.

#### *Early school leaving*

Early leavers from education and training, previously named early school leavers, are persons aged 18-24 who have finished no more than a lower secondary level of education and who are not involved in further education or training. Data for TCN on this indicator are available only for countries with more substantial shares of TCN population, as in other countries the age limits of 18 to 24 years make the respective target

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<sup>90</sup> Bulgaria: NSI Website – Students and Drop-Outs by Reasons and Level of Education, <http://www.nsi.bg/en/content/4830/students-and-drop-outs-reasons-and-level-education>

populations too small to receive statistically reliable data. This is the case in Bulgaria, Hungary, Malta, Poland and Slovakia.

Among the countries where data are available both for the national and TCN populations, the shares of TCN early leavers exceed significantly those of national early leavers (Annex Table 42). The gap between these two shares is biggest in Greece (27 points), followed by Italy (22.5 points) and Spain (22 points). The smallest – but still significant – difference is found in Austria (19 points) where also shares of early leavers among TCN and national populations are the lowest ones across the five countries.

Generally, shares of early leavers among national populations are higher for the males, with the exception of Bulgaria, where female early leavers slightly prevail. The same refers to TCN early leavers. Differences between TCN men and TCN women in Austria, Belgium and Italy are of 2-3 points and are smaller than differences among national men and women. In Spain, it is 6 points, compared to 8 points among national women and men. In Greece, however, the gap between TCN women and TCN men is 10 points, compared to 5 points among national early leavers of the two genders.

#### *Quality of education*

Eurostat, and in most cases national institutions as well, do not provide data on educational achievements of students. The OECD Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) holds international standard tests of 15-year old students. The shares of **low achievers** in Maths, Reading and Science are part of the main indicators presented to the public and present shares of students achieved levels of proficiency below 2. Separate results for TCN students are not available, but disaggregation by migrant background could still serve as general orientation in potential differences in educational performance.

As the group of 15-year olds is even smaller than those between 18 and 24 years, countries with relatively small shares of immigrant students could not represent comparable results between immigrant and national low achievers. Only generalised results in Mathematics are given for migrant children, without gender distribution, but differences between first and second generations of migrants are presented. Migration backgrounds and whether the person is first or second generation migrant are identified through questions to participants, and TCN could not be separated from other migrant adolescents. Also, data for Malta is completely lacking, as the country is not in the list of OECD partners.

In the five countries where data for migrant students are available significant differences with national students are observed (Annex Table 43), in the range of 20 points (Italy) to 24 points (Belgium). Generally, shares of low achievers both among immigrant and national students are smallest in Austria and Belgium. In these two countries, results for immigrant students are comparable with those for national students in Bulgaria and Greece, but still differ visibly from those of Austrian and Belgian national students.

Differences between first and second generations of migrants represent the influence of language proficiency on educational scores of migrants, and they vary substantially across the five countries. The lowest difference is observed in Austria (1.5 points), followed by Greece (3.8 points). However, in Greece, the poorest results for migrant students could be found among the five countries. The biggest differences between first and second generations of migrants are in place in Italy (12.3 points) and in Spain (8.5 points).

Comparable data on **the share of TCN pupils in class levels lower than their age** are also not available for the majority of countries. Eurostat, as well as some national authorities (in Austria, Greece, Malta and Slovakia), do not gather information according to this indicator at all. In Austria, statistics about class levels by citizenship are available but are provided only by age groups and not by age years. Instead, the shares of repeaters are counted in some of these countries that represent smaller group than those of students behind the age.

Other countries, such as Spain, generally use the indicator but the gathered data are not disaggregated by citizenship (or by other factors). In Hungary, it depends completely on parents and schools whether a child would enrol at 6 or 7 years of age, depending on an assessment of the preparedness of the child; and for this reason, the Hungarian team defined the indicator as inapplicable to the situation of their country. In Belgium, only for the Flemish community, and in Italy, the available data by citizenship is given only broadly: for national and for foreign citizens, thus again making impossible precise assessment of integrational outcomes for TCN children. Still, it could be seen that in the Flemish community in Belgium, 13.8% of Belgian pupils in primary schools attend class levels lower than their age, with the great majority of them (12.5%) only one year behind. Simultaneously, 42.4% of foreign pupils in this educational level attend classes lower than their age, with about a fifth of this figure that are two or more years behind. Results are slightly better for girls in comparison with boys, both for Belgian and foreign pupils. In the secondary level of education 29.9% of Belgian students attend classes lower than age, compared to 65.6% among foreign students. Again girls have better results than boys in the both subgroups, with more visible differences than in the primary level of education. In Italy, the differences between national and foreign children are similar but bigger. In the primary level of education only 2% of Italian pupils attend classes lower than their age compared to 16.3% among foreign pupils. For the lower-secondary stage the figures are 8% and 44.1%, and 23.9% and 67.1% respectively.

Similarly to the situation in Hungary, enrolment of children in Bulgaria could happen later depending on the month of birth. For this reason, the research team decided to count only classes two or more years lower than age, in order to avoid wrong interpretation of data. Data available come from the database of the Ministry of Education. Despite the concern expressed by interviewed experts regarding shares of TCN children enrolled in classes lower than their age, these shares appear insignificant. The average shares for 2012/2013 and 2013/2014 school

years were about 4%: between 4.6 and 5.5% among boys, and between 2.4 and 3.6% among girls.

In addition to those two indicators envisaged in the methodology of the project, the Austrian and Belgian teams gathered also very important information regarding the imbalanced presence of TCN children and youth in different types of schools that influence significantly their further educational and career perspectives. The Austrian team cited literature sources<sup>91</sup> according to which children with a migration background disproportionately attend New Middle School (where children with lower marks are directed) or a special school. According to data provided by the Belgian team, shares of TCN pupils and students in Flanders are about 3% in the primary and full-time secondary schools, compared to 14% in part-time vocational secondary schools. For the French community, the respective difference is less than 1 point, and shares of TCN in primary, full-time secondary and part-time vocational secondary schools are about 5%.<sup>92</sup> In both Austria and Flanders, the causes are connected with influence of the language skills over marks assigned to TCN children.

### 2.3.2. Social inclusion

The **at-risk-of poverty rate** is the only indicator in the field of social inclusion that is both available for children and disaggregated by citizenship. However, TCN again could not be identified, as disaggregation is given only by broad group of citizenship: national citizens, compared to all foreign citizens. Furthermore, data for Bulgaria and Slovakia are not available due to unreliability of data, and data are also marked as unreliable for Hungary and Poland, although provided.

The biggest shares of foreign children at risk of poverty are observed in Greece and Spain: 61.1% and 50.6% respectively (Annex Table 44). The differences between national and foreign children are the biggest ones in these two countries as well: 37.7 and 28.9 points respectively. The lowest shares of vulnerable foreign children, along with lowest differences with the national children, are observed in Malta and Italy. In these two countries shares of foreign children at risk of poverty are almost a third of target populations, and differences are 7-9 points. This means that poverty factors for TCN children are connected in greater extent to the general situations in these two countries than to inequality factors. Shares of foreign children at risk of poverty in Austria and Belgium are very similar to those in Malta and Italy: 36.9% and 34.5% respectively. However, due to the lowest shares of at-risk-of-poverty national children, differences between the two subgroups are far more substantial: 25.2 and 21.2 points respectively.

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<sup>91</sup> Wößmann L. "Efficiency and Equity of European Education and Training Policies," *International Tax and Public Finance* 15 (2) 199-230, quoted in M. Bruneforth and L. Lassnigg eds., *Nationaler Bildungsbericht Österreich 2012*, Band 1: Das Schulsystem im Spiegel von Daten und Indikatoren [National Education Report Austria 2012], Graz: Leykam, p. 66.

<sup>92</sup> National Belgian ASSESS Report: *Integration of Vulnerable Migrant Groups in Belgium*, p. 41-42.

As regards **severe material deprivation for children** Eurostat data by citizenship are not available for children, and data for children are not disaggregated by citizenship. Some national bodies provided information on this indicator, but numbers of TCN children are too small to allow correct comparison with the national universes, as data comes from the EU\_SILC. According to data provided by Statistik Austria, the number of TCN children suffering from severe material deprivation is 39; and according to the Ministry of Social Affairs, Employment and Family of Slovakia, the total number of materially deprived TCN children is 28 persons.

Data by citizenship is again not available by the indicator “in-work at-poverty rate of people living in households with dependent children” with the exception of Austria, where the number (32 persons) is again too small to allow correct comparisons.

As regards other social inclusion indicators for children envisaged by the methodology of the ASSESS project – persistent at-risk-of-poverty rate for children, share of children living in very low work intensity households, housing deprivation for children, overcrowding rate for children, and highest education attained by parents living in the child’s household – the Eurostat data are not available by citizenship, and is not provided by national statistical bodies, due to the above-mentioned reasons.

## 2.4. Conclusions

The analysis of existing policies towards TCN children across the ten studied countries shows that they are generally formulated depending on several factors:

- **Numbers and shares of TCN children and young persons among general populations.** The countries where more substantial numbers and shares are found have generally more developed policies in various integrational fields and topics.
- **Length of experience with integration efforts.** Countries with longer experience in implementing policies in the field of integration of different groups of migrant children and hence, the chance to test and prove the effectiveness of different approaches, have generally more developed policy frameworks.
- **Administrative structure.** The countries with federal administrative structures and/or with strong regional autonomy do not have uniform policies. Some policies are implemented at the national level, although they usually concern general principles, with specific integration approaches and measures frequently being designed and implemented at the regional or local levels.
- **Concerns of the integration of holders of subsidiary protection predominate over concerns for the integration of TCN from other legally residing categories.** The highly vulnerable situations of asylum seekers and refugees, the high level of international monitoring with regard to the implementation of standards of reception and integration of members of these groups and the insufficient experience of the recently established asylum institutions in the countries in South-Eastern

and Central Europe are all factors that cause national authorities to consider asylum seekers and refugees the most (and often only) visible migrant group in need of integration. For this reason TCN, being non-refugee migrants, are frequently excluded from the scope of integration policies.

- **Social and cultural backgrounds of the main TCN populations.** Similarities of educational systems and official host country language and mother tongue often serve as facilitating factors in children's integration in education.
- **Economic situation in the host countries.** As a consequence of the financial crisis, in the last few years some countries introduced more restrictions to their social assistance programmes, or decreased/restricted funding for certain types of integration activities, despite increased numbers of TCN children.

### *2.4.1. Policy assessment*

Although integration efforts at the policy level are most developed in the field of education, the current study identified numerous issues and challenges in the same field.

Despite the universal nature of the basic child's rights, including the right to education, legal frameworks in some of the participating countries still do not give **access to free education** to some groups of TCN children, such as undocumented/illegally residing and short-term residents. Furthermore, even when the access to free education is stipulated by legal acts of the respective countries, in practice it could be denied by school authorities, or hampered by different factors: lack of (enough) information provided in languages other than official ones in the respective countries; administrative impediments and/or complex school enrolment procedures; and last but not least, social vulnerability of some TCN families, as variable accommodation, inability to cover transportation expenses, etc.

In addition, none of the ten countries has made policy efforts aimed at overcoming the **gender differences** in educational participation. The equal access to education stipulated in national legislations is perceived as sufficient guarantee, although participation of girls and boys is not precisely studied in each country, and in some of the countries cultural factors for participation inequalities are identified. Some positive steps aiming at higher participation rates among TCN children are connected with obligation or interest of schools or social workers to identify non-enrolled children in a specific settlement or city area; however, they should be accompanied with adequate support to the families, in order to achieve desired effectiveness, and with working mechanisms of regular monitoring and data gathering to assess this effectiveness.

Considerable challenges were identified with regard to the (the lack of) **equal education opportunities** for TCN in comparison with native children. This situation may occur due to several main factors, such as lack of proper language training for newcomer TCN children, enrolment

procedures placing children at class levels significantly lower than their age, or insufficient extra-curricular support. These factors could in turn be connected not only with policy deficiencies, but also with the lack of sufficient funding and/or human resources for proper policy implementation. Some specifics of national education systems, such as early and irreversible direction to general or vocational education, might also put TCN children in a disadvantaged position, even when substantial efforts are made in terms of language training, enrolment procedures and extra-curricular support. Positive examples of policies aiming at overcoming an unequal education start are: intercultural schools, induction or reception classes for language training of newcomer foreign children; assistant teachers and teachers especially designated to provide extra-curricular support; usage of dedicated time within regular classes and the natural environment of native peers to enhance language skills of foreign children; considering the actual age as (one of the) main factor(s) in class level placement.

In the field of **social inclusion**, some hindrances are identified that might put in question the compliance with basic child's rights. In the majority of the ten countries, not all categories of TCN families – sometimes even no TCN families – have **access to non-contributory child-related support schemes** (support schemes designed to support families with children). Furthermore, in some cases these families have access to support schemes connected with living minimums. This means that in the majority of the countries participating in the current assessment:

- more vulnerable TCN families (who are currently not employed and do not have social insurances) have fewer opportunities to receive support;
- TCN children and their families are in a more disadvantaged position than TCN adults as a whole.

Moreover, in the same countries, **policies against poverty** do not target vulnerable TCN children, or even do not target children at all. The most exposed at risk of being excluded from any type of support are TCN children who reside illegally in the respective countries. Paradoxically, unaccompanied children are less exposed, since child protection bodies and mechanisms automatically recognise them as being at risk and set strong protection measures, including meeting of all their basic needs.

In terms of social integration of TCN children and their inclusion in intercultural and leisure activities, one main risk is identified. Almost everywhere, these activities are held at local or school level. On the one hand, the diversity of different actors – local and regional authorities, schools, NGOs and international organisations – create a great variety of opportunities for TCN children to integrate in many innovative ways. On the other hand, the **actual participation** of every TCN child in similar activities is jeopardised due to different factors, such as lack of stable funding, lack of enough information accessible to all potential beneficiaries, limited capacity of organised events, cultural barriers, etc.

In the field of **guardianship policies** for unaccompanied minors and underage TCN, a number of issues are identified regarding assignment procedures, requirements to potential guardians, definition of roles, and overall control and monitoring on guardianship services.

The respective legislation in some of the ten countries is not adapted to the specific situation of unaccompanied TCN minors, and envisages **assignment of guardians** only in cases when parents are deceased, fully debarred, deprived of parental care, or missing. As frequently none of these situations could be proved, assignment of guardians is either done at the edge of the law, or is not done at all, thus depriving the child of proper protection.

Further, in the majority of the ten countries, **requirements to potential guardians** are either not set in a way to guarantee observation of child's rights and best interest, or there are substantial differences between requirements to "professional" guardians/ representatives of institutions or NGOs, and "voluntary" guardians/private persons. In other words, universal requirements to potential guardians aimed at guaranteeing the child's rights are not set even within the same country or region.

The **roles of appointed guardians**, with some exceptions, are regulated in relatively clear manner across the participating countries. A positive tendency is the separation of guardianship functions from child-care functions that allows dedication of child rights-specialised human resources, to meet the specific needs of unaccompanied TCN minors. Still, in some countries the roles of guardians could vary and therefore do not guarantee adequate response to the needs of all children.

The enforcement of **regular mechanisms of monitoring** of guardianship services is rather the exception. Even in some countries with significant shares and long experience with TCN children, monitoring is implemented either ad-hoc (for instance, in case of conflict between the child and the guardian), or has just recently been introduced. In some new member states, the mechanisms of monitoring are relatively well regulated in the framework of child-protection policies; however, the effectiveness of these mechanisms is questionable or not measured at all.

A general observation relates to the relationship between levels of development of integration policies and levels of policy knowledge about the integration needs of TCN children. The more developed child-protection policies are in a given member state, the greater the probability that specific needs would be identified and specific measures to respond to the needs of different groups of vulnerable children, including types of vulnerabilities that concern specifically TCN children, or TCN children as well, would be designed.

#### **2.4.2. Outcomes for TCN children**

The difficulty of assessing outcomes figures as the most unfavourable and the most important outcome for TCN children.

In addition to the fact that disaggregation of statistical information by citizenship does not allow presentation of separate results for TCN children (but present them together with refugee and asylum seeking children), the majority of the standard statistical indicators are not available for the age group 0-17 at all, or, if available, are not disaggregated by citizenship.

Furthermore, the lack of coherence of data gathered by different authorities within the same country, and the lack of coherence of data on similar indicators gathered in the different countries, allows only general parallels to be made instead of direct comparisons.

Despite the general lack and multiple limitations of available data, some important conclusion regarding the actual situation of TCN children can be made, and the majority of conclusions concern the field of their integration in education.

**Enrolment in education** is not equal for TCN compared to national children practically in all participating countries where some information is available. However, the scales of inequalities in each country vary quite significantly: from almost insignificant in Austria and Belgium, where integration issues are rather connected with the quality of education, to quite alarming in some new member states, such as Bulgaria, Hungary and Slovakia.

With respect to **enrolment in pre-school facilities**, the differences between countries could not be explained only by their length of experience and shares of TCN. The more important factors are the social and cultural backgrounds of the main countries of origin of TCN (confirmed by the substantial gender disparities – in opposite directions – in Bulgaria and Hungary), affordability and accessibility of childcare facilities that in some countries depend very much on regional and local regulations (illustrated by the marginal examples of Greece and Spain).

As regards **school enrolment**, the available data shows the primary importance of the level of development of integration policies in the field of education, and especially of policies connected with language training and enrolment procedures. Countries with richer experience and more developed policies in these fields (like Belgium and Spain) show better results than some of the newer member states (like Bulgaria, Hungary and Slovakia).

Still, in all of the countries with long-term experience and relatively higher shares of TCN – Austria, Belgium, Greece, Italy and Spain – educational integration of TCN young people (and hence, their further life perspectives) seems problematic, as shares of **early school leavers** among them are significantly higher than among national youth. In the rest of the countries, data by citizenship is not reliable or not provided.

Due to the small numbers of subgroups and the respective unreliability of data, conclusions regarding the **educational performance** of TCN

children in Bulgaria, Hungary, Malta, Poland and Slovenia could not be made. For the rest of the countries, direct comparisons are also unfeasible, as the only comparable measurement of PISA surveys does not contain information on the citizenship of students. However, the results disaggregated by migration background show significant influence of the language skills on the shares of low performers in Mathematics in all of the countries where this disaggregation is available (Austria, Belgium, Greece, Italy and Spain), and hence, could be accepted as valid for TCN students as well.

In some of these countries – Austria, Belgium and Italy – additional evidence for substantial problems with the quality of education of TCN children is found. In Austria and in the Flemish community in Belgium, **disproportional presence of TCN students in special or/and in part-time vocational schools** is identified. Also in the Flemish community in Belgium, as well as in Italy, the shares of foreign students enrolled in **class levels lower than their age** are several times higher than the respective shares among national pupils and students. As far as the level of language skills is identified as the main factor, these results could again be accepted as valid for TCN children as well.

In the field of **social inclusion**, the at-risk-of-poverty rate is the only indicator on which data for children is available by citizenship of their parents, but only in broad categories of foreign versus reporting countries. The biggest shares of foreign children at risk of poverty and the biggest differences with national children are encountered in Greece and Spain: two of the EU countries most affected by the recent economic crisis. However, the lowest differences are not found in Austria and Belgium, where economic situations could be assessed as better than in the other eight countries, but in Italy and Malta.

Aside of the tasks of the methodology of the current assessment, some of the national research teams encountered a common problem connected with **unaccompanied TCN minors** that appears as the most important and alarming one regarding this group of children. Substantial shares of unaccompanied TCN minors in the territories of countries with worse economic situations who abstain from submitting asylum applications disappear from child care facilities soon after they are placed there, in trying to reach other European countries (or specific country where their parents or relatives might reside). In this manner, children are put at very serious risk of trafficking, with national authorities practically helpless to prevent this risk.

## 2.5. Recommendations

Policies, programmes and mechanisms for integration of TCN at the national level could be improved by following the principle of **equal rights and opportunities**. In the area of education, all TCN children in Bulgaria, Greece, Hungary, Italy and Slovakia should be provided with opportunities to participate in programmes for improvement of skills in the language(s) of the respective countries prior and after school enrolment.

The same principle also means that the specific needs of different groups should be taken into account. TCN children in Belgium, Bulgaria and Slovakia, as well as other children whose mother tongue does not coincide with the countries' official language(s), need **mechanisms for educational support** in school different from those provided to children native speakers.

In the area of social inclusion, national authorities in all countries with the exception of Greece and Spain should find a way to overcome the disadvantaged position of vulnerable TCN children raised in a family environment and whose families are not entitled to receive child-related benefits.

Bulgaria and Hungary restrict the access of undocumented children to free education, thus actually violating one of the basic child's rights. The legal frameworks in these two countries **need to achieve better compliance with EU and international agreements and standards**.

In the field of guardianship policies, the **legal framework for appointment of guardians of Bulgaria, Greece and Poland needs to be upgraded and adapted to the specific situations of TCN children**.

More efforts for standardisation and unification of requirements to and of services provided by different types of actors are needed in Belgium, Bulgaria, Poland and Slovakia.

It makes a great difference for unattended children whether they are placed in a family environment, like a foster family, or in institution of residential type, and how it is for TCN unattended children compared to national children deprived of parental care. Unfortunately, in the majority of cases unaccompanied children are not placed in a family environment even in some of the countries with stable traditions in foster care.

Currently, when an unattended child escapes and is not found within the territory of the country, national authorities are not able to track whether he or she has entered the territory of another EU country and what is the legal, family, health, educational and social status of the child. The mechanism for exchange of information between EU countries could be improved, and a common register of all identified unattended children at the territory of the European Union would be an additional guarantee for compliance with the child's rights.

**Disaggregation by age for all standard statistical indicators** should allow monitoring of the situation of children, or in other words, age group 0-17 should be provided for all publicly available indicators. This is valid not only for national but also for Eurostat data.

Currently, data on indicators concerning education of children are not disaggregated by citizenship in all EU member states, or are provided in broad categories only (foreign-national, or immigrant-national). This is also the case with some of the indicators provided by Eurostat. Furthermore, cross-sections by citizenship and residence status are not provided, thus

making impossible differentiation of TCN with regular residential status from persons seeking or received asylum or protection; this further hampers monitoring of the implementation of a number of EU policies. Provision of these types of disaggregation should be considered. Where data are unreliable at the national level, total EU results could be provided, as well as results for different groups of EU countries (EU 28, EU 15, EU – out of EU 15, etc.).

Different national bodies gather information concerning TCN children with different criteria and periods of validity. **Harmonisation of data should be considered** both at the national level, among bodies involved in child-related data gathering, and at EU-level, among bodies gathering the same types of data.

As educational integration is of the highest priority for children, **information regarding enrolment rates** should be available not only by sex and ISCED level, but also by age, to be able to separate children from adults in the same ISCED level, and by citizenship, to be able to compare TCN to EU and national citizens.

Educational achievements of TCN and national children are also not comparable for the time being, and hence, the quality of education provided to these groups cannot be assessed. Possible ways to improve this situation is to include citizenship as additional criteria in the indicator “Repeaters in general schools by grade groups” and to include it in the list of Eurostat indicators. Currently, educational attainments at Eurostat are measured only through the educational levels attained, and information regarding achievements and scores at school is not available.

### 3. ASSESSMENT OF THE INTEGRATION OF VICTIMS OF TRAFFICKING

#### 3.1. Profile of TCN victims of trafficking

The latest Eurostat report that attempts to present EU comparable data on victims of trafficking for the years 2010 – 2012 provides no gender and age divisions for TCN victims of trafficking. No divisions are available also for the types of exploitation of TCN VoT. Still, data are available for the number and the origin of TCN VoT in eight of the countries, included in this study (Belgium, Bulgaria, Greece, Hungary, Malta, Poland, Slovakia, Spain). The highest number of TCN VoT has been identified in Spain (1,062 persons), followed by Belgium (308), Poland (216) and Greece (72).<sup>93</sup> Much fewer TCN VoT have been identified in Malta (7 persons) and in Slovakia (2 persons) while none were identified in Bulgaria and Hungary.<sup>94</sup> While Austria and Italy have provided no data on TCN VoT

<sup>93</sup> In Poland, however, the number of identified TCN VoT in 2013 was much smaller (19 persons) (ASSESS National Report for Poland, Phase 2).

<sup>94</sup> In Bulgaria, national sources point to only two TCN VoT from Moldova identified in the period up to 2010 (Quoted in GRETA. *Report concerning the implementation of the Council of Europe Convention on Action against Trafficking in Human Beings by Bulgaria*, First Evaluation Round. Strasbourg, 2011, p. 36).

to Eurostat, information from national sources testifies to the presence of TCN VoT in both countries. The Department on Equal Opportunities in Italy reports a total number of 1,233 TCN VoT protected and assisted in the period 2013 – August 2014, who form a share of 84% of all VoT in the country.<sup>95</sup> In Austria, the data provided by the two biggest victim protection agencies (LEFO-IBF and MEN VIA) shows that from the total of 271 assisted VoT in 2013 almost half were third country nationals (46%).<sup>96</sup> Thus, Italy and Spain fall in the category of countries with the highest numbers of TCN VoT.

The analysis of data on VoT citizenship provided by Eurostat (Annex Table 10) and by national sources (for Austria and Italy) shows that TCN VoT form the majority of VoT in Belgium, Spain and Malta. They are almost half of the caseload of victims in Austria and less than half in Greece (25%) and Poland (36%). VoT who are nationals or EU nationals can be found in all ten of the studied countries. Some countries have considerable numbers of VoT who are nationals (Bulgaria, Hungary, Poland, Slovakia, Spain), other countries have identified victims who are EU nationals, mostly Romanians and Bulgarians (Greece, Italy), while a third group of countries have VoT who are both nationals and EU nationals (Poland, Spain).

The national profile of TCN VoT in the ten countries is very diverse. In Belgium, the leading countries of origin of TCN VoT are Morocco, China, Nigeria and India. The biggest shares of TCN VoT in Poland come from the Ukraine, Vietnam, the Philippines and Thailand while in Spain they come from Brazil, Paraguay, the Dominican Republic, China, Russia and Columbia.<sup>97</sup> TCN VoT in Greece come mostly from Russia, Albania and Nigeria. The national sources of Italy point to Nigeria, Morocco, China and Egypt as the lead origin countries of TCN VoT.

**TABLE 10. NON-EU VICTIMS OF TRAFFICKING (IDENTIFIED AND PRESUMED) IN 2010 – 2012 BY CITIZENSHIP**

Country of citizenship	AT	BE	BG	EL	ES	HU	IT	MT	PL	SK
Total VoT	NA	450	1,700	284	1,672	156	NA	11	591	81
Total non-EU countries	NA	308		72	1,062		NA	7	216	2
Total EU countries	NA	142	1,700	212	610	156	522	4	375	79
Share of TCN VoT of all VoT	NA	68.64		25.35	63.51			64	36.54	2.4

**Source:** Eurostat Statistical Working Papers. *Trafficking in Human Beings*. Luxembourg: Publications Office of the European Union, 2014, p. 35-36.

<sup>95</sup> ASSESS National Report for Italy, Phase 2.

<sup>96</sup> ASSESS National Report for Austria, Phase 2.

<sup>97</sup> Data from national sources in Spain show that the leading country of origin of TCN VoT in 2013 was Nigeria (ASSESS National Report for Spain, Phase 2).

As already indicated, Eurostat is not providing data on gender and age divisions, and on the type of exploitation of TCN VoT. This is the outcome of inconsistencies in data collection at the national level. In the seven countries where TCN VoT have been identified, there are no systematic mechanisms for data collection regarding the profiles and types of exploitation of TCN VoT with data being provided for all VoT (nationals, EU nationals and TCN).

## 3.2. Policy assessment

The present analysis of policies for the integration of TCN VoT is provided for countries where the trafficking of third country nationals follows very different trends. Countries such as Spain and Italy have become destinations for more significant numbers of TCN VoT. They are followed by countries hosting several hundred (Austria, Belgium, Poland) or several dozen TCN VoT (Greece). This is not the case with countries such as Bulgaria or Hungary where no TCN VoT have been identified in the last years or Slovakia and Malta where only a few cases of TCN VoT have been reported between 2010 and 2013. These trends should be treated as indicative of the volume of VoT caseload with which national institutions work rather than as an indication of the size of the phenomenon of trafficking. The volume of reported cases of trafficking in a given country should be seen first and foremost as the result of the quality of identification mechanisms and to a lesser extent as the outcome of the size of the phenomenon of trafficking.

In this context, the policy frameworks for VoT support in Austria, Belgium, Spain, Greece, Italy and Poland can be discussed based on the existing practice of support of assisted cases of TCN VoT in each country. On the other hand, the policy frameworks for (TCN) VoT support in Bulgaria, Hungary, Malta and Slovakia can be presented only as they exist on paper without much evidence of their implementation in practice. The present report provides analysis of the situation of adult TCN VoT (not children), both men and women.

### 3.2.1. The right to stay

#### *Reflection period*

In all of the studied countries the right to a reflection period is established in national legislation or regulations. Only in Italy there is no particular reference to a “reflection period” in the national legislation. However, the practices deriving from the application of Art. 13 of Law 228/2003 effectively lead to a 3-month long reflection period during which presumed VoT are given basic assistance. The length of the reflection period varies from country to country, with 30 days being the shortest period for reflection (Austria, Bulgaria, Hungary) and 3 months the longest (Greece, Italy, Poland). Only in Slovakia and Spain it is possible to prolong a reflection period from the basic 30 days to a longer period (Spain) or the basic 2 months to 3 months (Slovakia). In all of the studied countries but in Hungary and Malta the reflection

period is not conditional upon cooperation of VoT with authorities in investigation and court proceedings. In Malta, VoT are expected to disclose the names of traffickers and their accomplices or details related to points of departure for the purposes of investigation or prosecution. In Hungary, both the identification procedure and the provision of the reflection period are based on written consent of cooperation with authorities, which involves the reporting and denouncing of one's exploiters.

**TABLE 11. THE RIGHT TO A REFLECTION PERIOD**

Country	Right to a reflection period	Length of reflection period	Unconditional	Conditional
Austria	✓	30 days	✓	
Belgium	✓	45 days	✓	
Bulgaria	✓	30 days	✓	
Greece	✓	3 months	✓	
Hungary	✓	30 days		✓
Italy	✓	3 months	✓	
Malta	✓	2 months		✓
Poland	✓	3 months	✓	
Slovakia	✓	2 to 3 months	✓	
Spain	✓	30 days or longer	✓	

Source: ASSESS national reports.

The purpose of the reflection period in all ten countries is to provide time for recovery to the VoT, to allow him/her to break off all contacts with the presumed trafficker(s) and make an informed decision about whether or not s/he wants to file a complaint or make a statement against the presumed trafficker(s). During the reflection period, TCN VoT have the right to stay in the country and cannot be deported. In all ten countries TCN VoT are entitled to certain forms of support and assistance during the reflection period. These forms include psychological and legal consultation, medical services, information on the opportunities for starting a prosecution against the traffickers, together with safe shelter accommodation and related support (Austria, Belgium, Bulgaria, Greece, Hungary, Malta, Poland, Slovakia); living allowance from the public social welfare system (Belgium, Poland). Only in Italy TCN VoT are not expected to decide whether to cooperate with authorities during the reflection period. This is the case as Italy is the only country where the provision of residence permits to VoT is not conditional upon cooperation with police or the judiciary in investigation, prosecution and trial proceedings against traffickers.

*Residence permit*

In Bulgaria, Greece and Slovakia TCN VoT do not have the right to a **temporary residence permit**. The issuance of temporary residence permits in five of the studied countries (Austria, Belgium, Hungary, Malta, Poland) is conditional upon cooperation with the authorities for the purposes of investigation and criminal proceedings. In Spain, a temporary residence permit can be issued based on agreement for cooperation with the police but also based on personal circumstances if there is no consent for cooperation by the VoT. In Italy, the issuance of a temporary residence permit is not conditional upon cooperation with authorities for the purposes of investigation and criminal proceedings. The temporary residence permit in most countries depends on:

- the cooperation of TCN VoT in the legal proceedings against the presumed traffickers;
- breaking off all contacts with the presumed traffickers (Austria, Belgium, Hungary, Malta, Poland, Slovakia);
- consent to receive assistance in a reception centre (Belgium).

A temporary residence permit in all of the studied countries gives VoT the right to assistance and benefits the same as those during the reflection period.

**TABLE 12. THE RIGHT TO TEMPORARY RESIDENCE PERMIT**

Country	Right of temporary residence permit	Length	Renewable	Unconditional	Conditional
Austria	✓	at least 12 months			✓
Belgium	✓	3 months	to 6 months		✓
Bulgaria	NO				
Greece	NO				
Hungary	✓	6 months	to 6 months		✓
Italy	✓	6 months	to 12 months or longer	✓	
Malta	✓	6 months	to 6 months		✓
Poland	✓	at least 6 months	to at least 6 months		✓
Slovakia	NO				
Spain	✓	12 months	to long-term residence permit*	✓	✓

\* The temporary one year residence permit in Spain needs to be renewed each year until a decision is taken to give a long-term residence permit (which is 5 years long).

Source: ASSESS national reports.

Three countries do not provide **long-term residence permits** to TCN VoT (Hungary, Malta, Slovakia) while the rest are providing either long-term permits that are renewable (Bulgaria, Greece, Italy, Spain) or a permanent residence (Austria, Belgium, Poland). Long-term residence permits are issued unconditional upon cooperation with authorities in Italy, while in Greece and Spain they can be issued both under the condition of cooperation and without it. While in Belgium the issuance of a permanent residence to VoT depends on whether the case is brought before court and depending on whether it led to the conviction of traffickers, one exception exists that involves the so called “STOP procedure”. The procedure is reserved for VoT who have been receiving assistance from a specialised reception centre for at least two years and whose case was closed without further action.<sup>98</sup> In Greece, VoT who are not willing to cooperate with the authorities in prosecuting the perpetrators are entitled to a 1 year residence permit, on humanitarian grounds. This long-term permit can be renewed only if a criminal investigation process is underway. It should be noted that although Italy has introduced unconditional residence permits for VoT the practice in the different regions of the country differs with some police headquarters being reluctant to grant residence permits in cases in which the victim is not in a position to report the offender.

**TABLE 13. THE RIGHT TO LONG-TERM RESIDENCE PERMIT**

Country	Right of long-term residence permit	Length	Renewable	Unconditional	Conditional
Austria	Y	Permanent	Needs to be renewed annually		Y
Belgium	Y	Permanent			Y
Bulgaria	Y	12 months	Y		Y
Greece	Y	12 months	Y	Y	Y
Hungary	NO				
Italy	Y	12 months	Y	Y	
Malta	NO				
Poland	Y	Permanent			Y
Slovakia	NO				
Spain	Y	5 years	Needs to be renewed every 5 years*	Y	Y

\* The one year residence permit in Spain needs to be renewed each year until a decision is taken to give a long-term residence permit (which is 5 years long).

**Source:** ASSESS national reports.

<sup>98</sup> In this case, the Foreigners' Affairs Office bases its decision on the VoT's level of integration.

*Access to welfare and assistance*

Accommodation is provided to TCN VoT in all of the studied countries in specialised shelters (Austria, Belgium, Bulgaria, Italy, Poland, Spain) or assistance facilities servicing wider target groups (Greece, Malta, Slovakia). These facilities accommodate victims that are nationals, EU nationals or TCN and they operate under the auspices of both governmental and non-governmental institutions. In Bulgaria, two shelters for adult VoT operate under the auspices of the National Commission for Combating Trafficking in Human Beings (NCCTHB) with state budget support. A number of NGOs in the country also operate their own accommodation facilities for adult VoT. In Belgium, VoT are accommodated and assisted by three specialised reception centres run by NGOs. In Austria, accommodation to VoT is provided by NGOs in emergency shelters, protection or transitional apartments throughout the country. Accommodation is part of a standard set of assistance services offered to VoT in Italy – it is provided in various facilities throughout the territory of the country on project basis. There is a wide network of 44 shelters for VoT in Spain managed by NGOs with a combination of public and non-public funding. There are two specialised shelters for VoT assistance in Poland operated by NGOs under the auspices of the National Centre for Crisis Intervention.

In Greece, Malta and Slovakia VoT are accommodated in facilities providing assistance to victims of (domestic) violence or homeless persons. In Greece, these are state-run facilities such as those run by the Greek Centre for Social Solidarity (EKKA) or those run by the General Secretariat for Gender Equality in cooperation with municipalities throughout the country; in Malta this is a shelter run by the Appog Agency which provides also alternative accommodation in hostels in case its capacity is full; in Slovakia these are facilities run by service providers. In Poland, VoT are also accommodated in centres for crisis intervention which assist a wider target group including victims of violence and people in severe life circumstances.

In only two of the studied countries there are specialised shelters for men VoT – one shelter in Austria and two shelters in Spain.

Post-shelter accommodation assistance to VoT is provided by the shelter facilities in Belgium – the so called “transit housing” assistance – in cooperation with social housing rental offices; and by some of the shelters in Austria who provide support for finding housing after leaving the shelter – usually in mother-child shelters or social housing.

The accommodation facilities for VoT in the ten studied countries provide assistance for different periods of time. The most restrictive in this regard appears to be Bulgaria where VoTs can stay in a specialised shelter from 10 to 30 days. The period of stay can be prolonged only if a special protection status is granted and can last until the end of the criminal proceedings. In most of the countries the period of stay in shelter is more generous and often decided on case by case basis depending on the needs of the victim. In Belgium, the length of stay can last from

three to six months, in Malta up to 3 months and in Hungary up to 2 months. Austria and Italy appear the countries with no time limits of accommodation as a VoT can stay in a shelter as long as they need support.

In all of the ten studied countries shelter accommodation involves free of charge care for the basic needs of VoT such as food and clothing, as well as medical and psychological assistance. The shelter facilities in some countries provide also legal aid, professional orientation and training services. The shelters in Belgium provide comprehensive set of services relating to health care, psychological and social aid that are tailored to the individual needs of VoT and can last up to a number of years. In all of the studied countries VoT with special protection status (involving temporary or long-term residence permit) have access to state health care system and in some countries access to state welfare services (Austria, Belgium, Italy, Spain).

### **3.2.2. Education**

In Belgium, informing and helping adult VoT get into language and other types of courses and professional training is an important aspect of the assistance provided by the specialised reception centres. There are no courses organised for VoT specifically, but like any other newcomer VoT have access to the Flemish civic integration programme (in the case of VoT who live in Flanders or Brussels) and to the integration trajectories organised sporadically in Wallonia or by organisations of the French speaking community in Brussels (for VoT who live in Wallonia and Brussels). Although in Austria trafficked persons with a “special protection” residence permit do have “facilitated access” to the labour market, they do not have access to qualification measures, i.e., job qualification courses. This changes as soon as they apply for the RWR plus card. In the experience of LEFÖ-IBF, finding a suitable training course requires research on a case by case basis. The two main service NGOs for VoT in the country, LEFÖ-IBF and MEN VIA cooperate with Community Education Centres in order to provide German language courses at a discount rate. LEFÖ also offers language courses. In Italy training courses to adult VoT are provided on a project basis throughout the territory of the country. TCN VoT who are project beneficiaries can enrol in language literacy, computer science and vocational training courses, depending on assessment of their specific needs, skills and the individual pathway planned for each beneficiary. These courses are free and, when covered by additional funding, beneficiaries may receive a small cash incentive for their participation. Courses may be implemented by the organisers of the same projects pursuant to Article 18 and/or be activated within the territorial network to which the project refers, made up – with variable set-ups – of public and private bodies, associations, training centres, provincial adult education centres (CPIA), trade unions, organisations managing social and welfare services, local authorities, and so on. Similar is the approach in providing training to TCN VoT in Spain. In Malta, TCN VoT can receive training in the framework of the country’s vocational training schemes for the general and the

TCN population. These schemes include the ETC-provided programme Enhancing Employability through Training (including skills assessment, IT courses, technical and trade courses, management development courses as well as work orientation courses, job assistance and basic skills training); traineeships or training subsidy schemes; language and cultural knowledge courses. In Bulgaria and Poland, vocational training courses to adult VoT are provided mostly in the auspices of shelters or by NGOs. In Poland, these courses include both Polish language and vocational training, while in Bulgaria (in the absence of TCN VoT) they only include vocational training, such as hairdressing and cooking.

### **3.2.3. Employment**

#### *The right to work*

TCN VoT are given the right to work together with the issuance of temporary and long-term residence permits. In some countries residence permits (temporary or long-term) give automatic access to the labour market, while in others the right to employment is tied to a work permit.

In the countries of this study in which VoT are entitled to temporary residence the respective permits give VoT either direct access to the labour market (Poland, Spain) or restricted access involving either the right to apply for work permits or finding an employer willing to hire the person (Austria, Belgium, Hungary, Italy, Malta). The implementation of that right meets difficulties in some countries because of language barriers for example. In Hungary and Malta the issuance of work permit is tied to the availability of an employer who is willing to hire the particular VoT. In Belgium, this is avoided by the entitlement of VoT with temporary residence permit to work permit C which is not tied to an application by an employer (willing to hire the particular VoT) but issued upon application by the respective reception centre together with the VoT. The temporary residence permit in Italy enables VoT to register with job centres and access to employment.

In four of the studied countries long-term residence permits issued to VoT give automatic access to the labour market without the need to apply for work permits (Belgium, Bulgaria, Greece, Spain). TCN VoT have automatic access to the labour market when they are given permanent residence in Austria, Belgium, Poland. In Italy, the residence permit for social protection can be converted into a long-term residence permit for employment or study purposes if the applicant has an ongoing working relationship or is enrolled in a regular course of study. Permits for work reasons may be renewed as long as the conditions for long-term employment remain in place.

#### *Facilitating employment*

In Austria, the access to the labour market of VoT is facilitated by NGOs which help their clients with all filing processes. In addition, the

key service providers – LEFÖ-IBF and MEN VIA – have individual co-operations with employers to facilitate labour market access for their clients. In Bulgaria, professional qualification courses are offered to VoT usually in the auspices of shelters and by NGOs as part of strategies for “empowerment.” According to the director of one of the shelters under the auspices of the NCCTHB, the courses are organised in line with the victim’s preferences. Previous professional training that was offered included hairdressing and cooking courses. In Italy, the annual Calls issued by the Equal Opportunities Department for assistance of VoT have the mandatory condition that submitted project guarantee facilitation of access to the labour market of VoT (by way of training activities designed to aid their entry in the workplace; analysis of work opportunities in the area; internships and traineeships; vocational training in firms). The role played by local authorities is fundamental in work placement initiatives, as they almost always form part of the network of project partners. In some cases the provincial administration is involved in order to ensure the financial sustainability of work experiences and traineeships after the completion of the training courses. Similarly, in Spain the Government Delegation against Gender-Based Violence issues annual calls for projects offering specialised assistance to VoT including assistance in employment.

In some countries, the lack of good knowledge of the host country language is reported to pose serious obstacles to finding a job (Austria, Malta, Spain). In Italy, TCN VoT face barriers similar to those that all TCN are facing. These barriers include the validity and equivalence of academic qualifications or documentation certifying past work or professional experiences. An analysis of the job search experience of VoT who are Bulgarian nationals in Bulgaria serves to anticipate challenges in the job placement of TCN VoT if such are identified in the country. VoTs who are nationals in Bulgaria are registered in the unemployment bureaus and shelter personnel assist them in arranging interviews with potential employers. However, in most cases these interviews do not have a positive outcome, as the victims lack formal labour experience or qualifications, they have lost work habits or motivation and are unable to present their relevant experience convincingly to potential employers. Having in mind these challenges it could be assumed that access to employment for TCN VoT in Bulgaria would be even more difficult.

The long-term residence permits in Belgium, Bulgaria Greece, Italy, Malta and Spain give TCN access to (public) occupational training. In Belgium, TCN VoT have access to (public) occupational training when they are holders of temporary residence permit as well. In Austria, VoT who are holders of long-term permits (“special protection permit”) do not have access to (public service) job trainings but such access is given to the VoT who are holders of permanent residence (RWR plus card). However, no targeted training programs for VoT have been organised in this framework. VoT can rather partake in regular curricula courses organised for nationals or TCN in general.

### 3.3. Assessment of outcomes

In discussing the integration outcomes for victims of trafficking who are third country nationals few important points need to be raised. First, in three of the studied countries (Bulgaria, Hungary and Slovakia) such discussion is not possible as they have no caseload of identified TCN VoT. Second, the number of identified TCN VoT in 2013 in Malta and Poland was below 50 (14 in Malta and 19 in Poland) which is not sufficient for the identification of reliable quantitative assessments of integration tendencies. Therefore, the present analysis can be based exclusively on data from five of the studied countries where bigger numbers of TCN VoT have been identified (Austria, Belgium, Greece, Italy, and Spain). Third, due to systematic inconsistencies in data collection at national level this report analyses the hindrances to the provision of data along the indicators set in the methodology, rather than a discussion of integration outcomes. On the basis of this analysis some recommendations are provided for designing methodologies for assessment of the integration of TCN VoT that are accorded to the realities of national data collection mechanisms as well as for improving data collection mechanisms for TCN VoT integration at national level.

The methodology on which the present study is grounded involves 12 indicators in four areas of TCN VoT integration (the right to stay, access to welfare and social assistance, education and employment). The indicators are constructed on the principle of calculating the number of TCN VoT who received a respective integration service as share of the total number of identified TCN VoT in a given year.

One hindrance into providing data by the 12 integration indicators relates to the lack of harmonised data on identified VoT at the national level (Belgium, Italy) or the lack of differentiation by citizenship in data on VoT integration (Austria, Poland). Therefore, in the four countries it is difficult to provide data about the shares of TCN VoT who received particular services in the overall number of identified TCN VoT. While the number of identified VoT in Spain is being provided by the Spanish Police and the Civil Guard, data about the integration services provided comprises not only identified VoT but also persons at risk of trafficking who have been assisted by ad hoc structures managed by NGO networks through government funding. Therefore, at this stage it is not possible to trace the outcomes of the integration of identified TCN VoT in Spain along the indicators set in the methodology of the present study. Another hindrance in providing data in these indicators regards the lack of mechanisms for systematic data collection for some integration measures for VoT. In Belgium, for example, data about issued temporary residence permits provided by the Foreigners' Affairs office includes both first and renewed permits. Thus, more than one permit may belong to the same TCN VoT. Similarly, the data on issued permanent residence permits in Belgium usually refers to TCN VoT identified before the year of issuance as the procedure usually takes several years. In addition, in some of the studied countries there is no mechanism for systematic data collection regarding VoT participation in language or professional courses or VoT entry into employment (Austria, Belgium, Greece, Malta, Poland), regarding the psychological counselling and medical services provided to VoT (Austria, Greece,

Poland) or shelter placement (Greece, Poland). One problem identified in Greece regards the imperfections in the system of VoT identification in the country which leads to low numbers of officially identified VoT. This in turn hampers seriously any attempts to evaluate the integration of VoT in the country.

### 3.4. Conclusions

The discussion of the policies of integration of TCN VoT needs to consider that many EU member states have weak mechanisms for identification of VoT. In this light the information about bigger numbers of TCN VoT in some countries is not necessarily an indication of a bigger trafficking problem in these countries but rather an indication of better identification mechanisms. Respectively, the smaller numbers of reported TCN VoT in some of the studied countries may not be the outcome of a smaller size of the problem but of weaker identification mechanisms.

The lack of accommodation centres for assistance of male victims of trafficking in eight of the studied countries (Belgium, Bulgaria, Greece, Hungary, Italy, Malta, Poland, Slovakia) precludes any possible support to male TCN victims who may have entered the country as irregular migrants or asylum seekers. This would be an especially relevant concern for victims of trafficking for labour exploitation.

It needs to be stressed that the condition in most of the ten study countries for cooperation with authorities for issuance of temporary or long-term residence permit is one factor influencing TCN VoT to abstain from identifying as VoT.

The lack of systematic and harmonised data collection mechanisms on the situation of TCN VoT in all ten studied countries seriously hinders any processes of monitoring of their integration in comparison to other vulnerable immigrant groups or to VoT who are nationals.

### 3.5. Recommendations

The mechanisms for identification of victims of trafficking should be improved in Bulgaria, Greece, Hungary, Malta and Slovakia, especially at border and detention centres.

Practical training for foreign VoT identification for police and service providers should be conducted, especially in Bulgaria, Greece, Hungary, Malta and Slovakia.

The system for VoT assistance by opening accommodation facilities for male victims of trafficking needs to be developed further.

The example of Italy where TCN VoT have access to a reflection period, temporary and long-term residence that is not conditional upon cooperation with authorities needs to be multiplied in other member states. EU member states should aim to treat equally and provide similar levels of protection to TCN VoT who are willing to cooperate with the authorities and those who are not willing to do so.

Regular monitoring and assessment of the assistance provided to TCN victims of trafficking needs to be conducted.

Some positive examples have been identified (Austria, Belgium and Spain) of issuing residence cards to TCN VoT which do not indicate that they have been issued the document under VoT protection regime. This approach is employed in order to avoid repeated traumatisation, stigmatisation and victimisation of TCN VoT in their contacts with public institutions. This approach deserves to be multiplied in other member states.

Systematic and centralised data collection mechanisms should be established in all studied countries in order to collect reliable data on the integration of VoT that is gender, age and citizenship differentiated.



## ANNEX I. GLOSSARY OF TERMS

At risk of poverty and social exclusion	The at-risk-of-poverty rate is the share of people with an equivalised disposable income (after social transfer) below the at-risk-of-poverty threshold, which is set at 60% of the national median equivalised disposable income after social transfers. This indicator does not measure wealth or poverty, but low income in comparison to other residents in that country, which does not necessarily imply a low standard of living.
Early school leaving	Early leaver from education and training, previously named early school leaver, generally refers to a person aged 18 to 24 who has completed no more than a lower secondary education and is not involved in further education or training; their number can be expressed as a percentage of the total population aged 18 to 24.
Highest educational attainment	Highest educational attainment refers to the share of population with tertiary, secondary and primary or less than primary education. In other words, this indicator provides the educational structure of certain population.
Housing deprivation of children	Share of children (aged 0 to 17) living in a dwelling with a leaking roof, damp walls, floors or foundation, or rot in window frames or floor.
In-work at-risk-of-poverty rate	The share of persons who are at work and have an equivalised disposable income below the risk-of-poverty threshold, which is set at 60 % of the national median equivalised disposable income (after social transfers).
Low achievers	The share of low-achieving 15-year-olds in reading, mathematics and science.
Median income	The median net income of the immigrant population as proportion of the median net income of the total population.
Naturalisation rate	The naturalisation rate is the ratio between the number of persons who acquired citizenship of a country during a calendar year and the stock of foreign residents in the same country at the beginning of the year.
Participation in lifelong learning	Lifelong learning is the lifelong, voluntary and self-motivated pursuit of knowledge for personal or professional reasons. The overall aim of learning is to improve knowledge, skills and competences. The intention to learn distinguishes learning activities from non-learning activities such as cultural activities or sports activities. Within the domain of lifelong learning statistics, formal education covers education and training in the regular system of schools, universities and colleges. Non-formal education and training includes all taught learning activities which are not part of a formal education programme.
Persistent at risk of poverty rate	The persistent at-risk-of-poverty rate shows the percentage of the population living in households where the equivalised disposable income is below the at-risk-of-poverty threshold for the current year and at least two out of the preceding three years. Its calculation requires a longitudinal instrument, through which the individuals are followed over four years.
School drop-out rate	Share of pupils leaving school before graduation

Share of TCN who acquired long term residence permits	The share of TCN granted long term residence permits from the total number of valid residence permits held by TCN in the country.
Tertiary educational attainment	Tertiary education – provided by universities and other higher education institutions – is the level of education following secondary schooling.
Unemployed registered in public employment services	All unemployed TCN meeting the national definition of unemployed and registered at Public Employment Service.
Voter turnout	Persons who voted in the last parliamentary elections in the country as share of the overall population in voting age.

## ANNEX II. QUESTIONNAIRES FOR FACE TO FACE EXPERT INTERVIEWS

### QUESTIONNAIRE ON MIGRANT WOMEN

1. What are the conditions and policies facilitating the access to the labour market of TCN women?
2. Are there any specific legal or policy provisions for the facilitation of labour market access for TCN women? What are they?
3. What are the job orientation and job placement policies and programmes that TCN women could benefit from?
4. Is job orientation assistance to TCN women provided in their mother tongue or in the host country language only?
5. Is training required and is training conducted of public service staff on the specific needs of migrants, including on the specific needs of migrant women?
6. Do you consider the policies and practices for facilitating the access to the labour market of TCN women effective? Is there a need to improve these policies? If the answer is yes, please explain in more detail.
7. Do working TCN women have access to targeted childcare? Please explain.
8. What are the policy provisions and the existing schemes for host country language training of migrants?
9. Are there any language training programs designed especially for TCN women and tailored to their specific needs (migrant mothers, single migrant mothers, working migrant women)?
10. Do you consider that the language training policies in your country for adult TCN are well-adjusted to the specific needs of TCN women (family women, working women, women with children, single mothers, single women)?
11. What are the policies and programmes that facilitate the improvement of professional qualification of TCN women?
12. Are there professional training programmes designed specifically for TCN or for TCN women? If yes, please explain who is responsible for the management of these programmes and what are the areas of professional training that they offer.
13. Do you consider that the professional training policies and programmes for TCN in your country serve well the needs of TCN women?
14. Do (vulnerable) TCN women in your country have equal access to social assistance programs as (vulnerable) native women? Please explain in more detail if the answer is positive. Please explain in more detail if the answer is negative.
15. Are TCN women (respectively migrant families) eligible for child-care benefits? Do they have access to the same benefits as native women or not?

16. Do you consider the social assistance policies and measures in your country well designed to the needs of TCN women?
17. Do the relevant institutions in your country provide practical information in the area of labour market inclusion (unemployment assistance), anti-discrimination and welfare law (social assistance) in the native languages of migrants (TCN women)?
18. Is there a need for better information policy with regard to labour market access, social assistance access for TCN women in your country? Please explain.
19. Please explain under what conditions do third country nationals have the right: to vote in national elections and in local elections; to stand in elections at the local level; to be members in political parties?
20. Is any public funding provided to immigrant organisations at national or local level? What types of immigrant organisations are eligible for public funding?
21. Are there specific policy provisions and programmes in your country that aim at countering discrimination against TCN women in job recruitment; at the work place, in social assistance?
22. Do the anti-discrimination, migration and social assistance law and policies in your country include anti-discrimination provisions and measures with regard to TCN women access to social assistance services? What are they?
23. Do you think that the anti-discrimination policies and measures with regard to TCN women in your country are effective? Please explain.
24. Would you recommend improvement of policies and programmes for integration of TCN women in any of the discussed fields: employment, education, social inclusion, active citizenship, anti-discrimination? If yes, please explain in detail.

## QUESTIONNAIRE ON MIGRANT CHILDREN

1. Do TCN children (with legal residence status and irregulars) have the same legal right for access to education as nationals?
2. Do TCN girls have the same opportunity to access education as TCN boys?
3. Are there any specific provisions or programmes that aim to encourage school enrolment and attendance of TCN girls?
4. Do you consider the policies and measures facilitating the access to school of TCN children effective? Please explain.
5. Is class level placement of a TCN child done according to age or it is based on assessment of prior knowledge?
6. Do the respective institutions provide clear written information and guidance on steps, procedures and opportunities for access and attendance of secondary education of TCN children (in migrant's languages of origin)?
7. Are there any resource centres/persons providing consultations and orientation to TCN parents of school age children?
8. What are the provisions and programmes for assessment of prior learning and language qualifications obtained by TCN children abroad?
9. Is such assessment conducted with standardised quality criteria and tools? Is the assessment conducted by schools without standardised criteria? Is the staff conducting the assessment trained for this or not?
10. Is there a requirement and practice of provision in schools of induction programmes about the country and its educational system for both TCN pupils and their parents?
11. Are there policies and programmes ensuring increased opportunities for the host country language training in the host country language?
12. Do TCN children have access to additional language classes in school?
13. Do they have access to individual support by teachers (in the host country language; in different subjects)?
14. Do TCN children follow the general curricula of the school in which they are enrolled? If so, do TCN children have access to special school programmes to assist them in integration into regular school (focused on language acquisition and caught up on other school subjects) in the form of individual consultations, extra classes, extra-curricular language training, receiving aid by school mentors or mediators (knowledgeable of migrants pupils' native language), homework support?
15. Do relevant education institutions develop and provide textbooks or aid materials designed for the learning needs of foreign language pupils (TCN pupils)?
16. Are there policies and programmes for training of teachers in working with TCN children; in teaching the host country language as a second language?
17. Is there a requirement for TCN teachers to be specialised in second-language learning standards?

18. Do the relevant education institutions disseminate programmes, guidelines, tools and minimum standards for education of TCN children?
19. Are there adequate compensation provisions for teachers providing extra-curricular support to TCN children?
20. Are there policies and mechanisms for the conduct of needs assessments and programme evaluations with respect to the educational performance of TCN children?
21. Do you consider the present policies for educational integration of TCN children effective? Are TCN children supported effectively in: acquiring the host country language, catching up on general curriculum subjects, preparing their homework?
22. Do (vulnerable) TCN children in your country have access to social assistance programs equal to that of (vulnerable) native children (such as children from low income families, children from dysfunctional families, disabled children)?
23. Do vulnerable TCN children have the right to receive the same social assistance services/ packages as vulnerable native children?
24. Do TCN children in your country have access to targeted intercultural activities?
25. Are there any programmes in your country that seek to facilitate the integration of TCN children into community life, culture and language of the host society (for example, summer camps, cultural visits, sports activities)? Are such activities developed at the national level, at the local level or at the level of school?
26. Is any funding provided at the national or local level for targeted intercultural activities for TCN children?
27. Do you consider that there are sufficient and effective programmes that facilitate the intercultural and social inclusion of TCN children, especially those with parents with lower educational attainment and those from lower income households? Please explain.
28. Are there formal procedures to designate a guardian for a separated or unaccompanied child?
29. Are there formalised criteria for service provision, including Terms of Reference of guardians?
30. What is the role and legal status of the guardian (e.g. legal guardian, social worker, adviser/representative)?
31. Are there specific requirements for being appointed a guardian, including previous experience in child protection, understanding of child's rights and needs of unaccompanied foreign children?
32. Are there mechanisms for regular monitoring and review of the guardianship services provided to separated and unaccompanied children?
33. If so, are these mechanisms effective in ensuring the high quality of the guardianship service provided?
34. Do you consider that the existing guardianship institute and services in your country serve effectively the best interest of unaccompanied and separated TCN children? Please explain.
35. Would you recommend improvement of policies and programmes for integration of TCN children in any of the discussed fields: education, social inclusion and guardianship? If yes, please explain in detail.

## QUESTIONNAIRE ON VICTIMS OF TRAFFICKING

1. Do TCN trafficked victims have the right to a reflection period and how long is it?
2. What are the assistance measures to which VoT are entitled during the reflection period?
3. Is cooperation with police/ courts required for the issuance of temporary residence permits of TCN VoT?
4. Is cooperation with police/courts required for the issuance of permanent residence permits of TCN VoT?
5. What rights does the temporary residence permit give to a TCN VoT?
6. What rights does the long-term (or permanent) residence permit give to a TCN VoT? Can a temporary residence permit issued to a TCN trafficked victim be converted to a long-term (or permanent) residence permit and under what conditions?
7. Is the existing network of facilities for accommodation of VoT sufficient?
8. Are there provisions to ensure that TCN VoT are not being placed in law enforcement facilities?
9. How long could a TCN VoT stay in a specialised accommodation facility?
10. Are there any housing assistance programs for TCN VoT upon departure from the specialised accommodation facilities (for example, are they entitled to housing allowances, consultation for search of private accommodation)?
11. Do you think that the available accommodation policies and measures for VoT in your country serve effectively in the process of their integration? Please explain.
12. What are the policies and programmes that ensure VoT access to health care?
13. What are the policies and programmes that assure VoT access to psychological counselling?
14. Are VoT entitled to targeted social assistance programmes? If yes, please explain what are the services provided by these programs (for example such programmes may include financial aid, food, accommodation, clothing, local transportation, language courses, medical and psychological support, other)?
15. Do TCN VoT mothers have access to childcare and maternity support schemes equal to native women?
16. Do TCN VoT have access to social welfare benefits equal to the native population (housing benefits, utilities payment assistance, any other relevant social welfare benefits to which native vulnerable persons are entitled)?
17. Who is implementing the social assistance services to TCN VoT – government institutions, municipalities or NGOs?
18. Do you think that the social assistance schemes for VoT in your country meet effectively their integration needs?
19. Do TCN child victims of trafficking have the same right to access to education as other TCN children, or as the native child population?

20. Are there any programmes specially tailored to the needs of TCN trafficked children in support of their school enrolment (for example, language training, right to individual study to ameliorate trauma experiences, etc.)?
21. Who is implementing such programmes (schools, municipalities or non-governmental organisations)?
22. Can adult TCN VoT attend language courses? If yes, please explain.
23. Can adult TCN VoT attend vocational training courses? Are these courses specially designed for VoT, or for third country nationals in general, or are these vocational courses accessible to nationals and TCN alike?
24. Is the right to stay for TCN VoT tied to the right to work?
25. Under what conditions are TCN VoT allowed to work in your country?
26. Do they need to apply for work permits, separate from their residence permit?
27. Are they expected to file the application on their own or is there a resource centre or person (governmental or NGO) to assist them?
28. Are there specialised professional qualification programmes for TCN VoT in your country? Are there policy provisions and programmes for job orientation and job placement of TCN trafficked victims?
29. Are there any apprenticeship programmes and/or wage subsidies to facilitate job placement of TCN VoT among private or public employers?
30. Do you think that there are effective mechanisms to facilitate the labour market integration and social inclusion of VoT in your country? Please explain.
31. Would you recommend improvement of policies and programmes for integration of TCN VoT in any of the discussed fields: the right to stay, welfare and assistance, education and employment? If yes, please explain in detail.

## ANNEX III. STATISTICAL TABLES

**TABLE 14. THE SHARE OF TCN IN THE TOTAL POPULATION, JANUARY 2013**

Country	Total Population	TCN Population	Share of TCN (%)
Austria	8,451,149	581,863	6.89
Belgium	11,161,642	447,170	4.01
Bulgaria	7,284,552	33,439	0.46
Greece	11,062,508	659,261	5.96
Hungary	9,908,798	61,287	0.62
Italy	59,685,227	3,100,517	5.19
Malta	421,364	9,626	2.28
Poland	38,533,299	40,229	0.10
Slovakia	5,410,836	17,016	0.31
Spain	46,727,890	3,012,027	6.45

**Source:** Eurostat (Population on 1 January by five year age group, sex group and citizenship [migr\_pop1ctz]).

**TABLE 15. THE SHARE OF TCN WOMEN IN THE TOTAL FEMALE POPULATION, JANUARY 2013**

Country	Total female population	TCN female population	TCN share of female population (%)
Austria	4,327,648	281,685	6.50
Belgium	5,674,206	214,698	3.78
Bulgaria	3,739,479	19,338	0.50
Greece	5,649,218	316,083	5.59
Hungary	5,192,845	28,289	0.54
Italy	30,795,630	1,567,531	5.09
Malta	211,484	4,094	1.93
Poland	19,883,965	21,705	1.09
Slovakia	2,774,857	8,126	0.30
Spain	23,710,132	1,479,637	6.24

**Source:** Eurostat (Population on 1 January by five year age group, sex group and citizenship [migr\_pop1ctz]).

**TABLE 16. AGE STRUCTURE OF TCN WOMEN AT THE AGE OF 20 AND ABOVE, JANUARY 2013 (%)**

Age Group	Austria	Belgium	Bulgaria	Greece	Hungary	Italy	Malta	Poland	Slovakia	Spain
Total 20+	218,667	165,997	18,057	240,240	23,696	1,169,713	3,480	18,912	7,066	1,150,536
20-29	24.34	29.97	15.88	23.14	30.63	22.50	32.04	20.82	19.70	26.19
30-49	46.97	49.12	34.39	54.20	42.34	53.39	53.62	53.88	49.82	57.81
50-59	14.62	9.42	24.86	13.94	13.07	15.30	9.82	14.39	12.43	9.92
60 +	14.07	11.49	24.78	8.72	13.97	8.81	4.51	10.91	18.05	6.10

**Source:** Researchers' own calculations based on Eurostat data (Population on 1 January by five year age group, sex group and citizenship [migr\_pop1ctz]).

**TABLE 17. FIRST PERMITS OF TCN WOMEN BY REASON, JANUARY 2013**

Country	Females	Family reasons	%	Educa-tion	%	Remuneration activities	%	Other reasons	%
Austria	16,897	7,102	42.03	2,687	15.90	1,523	9.00	5,585	33.05
Belgium	21,512	12,927	60.09	2,946	13.69	1,458	6.77	4,181	19.43
Bulgaria	2,992	1,192	39.83	342	11.66	68	2.27	1,390	46.45
Greece	10,585	6,774	63.99	604	5.70	549	5.18	2,658	25.36
Hungary	9,021	1,848	20.48	2,999	33.20	2,554	28.31	1,620	17.95
Italy	119,706	66,568	55.60	15,940	13.31	26,134	21.83	11,064	9.42
Malta	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
Poland*	138,636	1,310	0.90	11,617	8.30	66,211	47.75	59,498	42.91
Slovakia	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
Spain	106,306	57,866	54.43	15,022	14.13	27,191	25.57	6,227	5.85

\* In Poland 5 first permits are reported as "unknown".

**Source:** Researchers' calculations based on Eurostat data (First permits by reason, age, sex and citizenship [migr\_resfas]).

TABLE 18. FIRST PERMITS OF TCN MEN BY REASON, JANUARY 2013

Country	Males	Family reasons	%	Educa-tion	%	Remuneration activities	%	Other reasons	%
Austria	17,559	5,616	31.98	2,864	16.31	2,057	11.71	7,022	39.99
Belgium	20,951	9,339	44.57	2,956	14.10	2,889	13.78	5,767	27.52
Bulgaria	3,444	1,059	30.74	593	17.21	266	7.72	1,535	44.57
Greece	7,714	4,078	52.86	470	6.09	677	8.77	2,489	32.26
Hungary	7,451	2,210	29.66	2,514	33.74	1,007	13.51	1,720	23.08
Italy	124,248	41,790	33.63	11,143	8.96	54,592	43.93	16,723	13.45
Malta	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
Poland*	135,245	1,318	9.74	11,390	8.42	75,456	55.79	47,081	34.81
Slovakia	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
Spain	89,936	49,754	55.32	11,394	12.66	22,980	25.55	5,808	6.45

\* In Poland 5 first permits are reported as "unknown".

Source: Researchers' calculations based on Eurostat (First permits by reason, age, sex and citizenship [migr\_resfas]).

TABLE 19. LONG-TERM RESIDENTS BY GENDER, JANUARY 2013

Country	Total	Males	Females	Females (%)
Austria	278,779	143,150	135,629	48.65
Belgium	95,768	48,671	47,097	49.17
Bulgaria	150	59	91	60.66
Greece	105,726	69,175	36,551	34.57
Hungary*	22,690	11,046	11,596	51.10
Italy	2,191,452	1,101,908	1,089,544	49.71
Malta	614	NA	NA	NA
Poland	57,730	26,587	31,143	53.94
Slovakia	NA	NA	NA	NA
Spain	1,807,690	1,011,668	796,022	44.03

\* In Hungary 48 long-term residents are indicated to be of "unknown" gender.

Source: Eurostat (Long-term residents by age, sex and citizenship on 31 December of each year [migr\_reslas]).

TABLE 20. TCN WOMEN BY TOP 10 COUNTRIES OF CITIZENSHIP, JANUARY 2013

Austria				Belgium			
Country of citizenship	TCN total	TCN women	TCN women (%)	Country of citizenship	TCN total	TCN women	TCN women (%)
Turkey	113,866	54,966	48.27	Morocco	83,520	41,490	49.67
Serbia	111,303	53,834	48.36	Turkey	39,228	18,848	48.04
Bosnia and Herzegovina	89,784	40,882	45.53	DRCongo	23,785	12,426	52.24
Russia	27,173	15,032	55.31	Russia	19,008	10,337	54.38
Afghanistan	11,844	3,355	28.32	Cameroon	11,040	5,371	48.65
China	10,193	5,712	56.03	Guinea	11,021	4,803	43.58
Iran	6,996	3,238	46.28	China	10,995	5,821	52.94
India	6,967	2,596	37.26	Algeria	10,824	4,141	38.25
Ukraine	6,786	4,845	71.39	Afghanistan	9,552	2,196	22.98
Nigeria	5,745	2,035	35.42	Armenia	9,368	4,735	50.54

Source: Eurostat (Population on 1 January by sex, citizenship and broad group of country of birth [migr\_pop5ctz]).

TABLE 21. TCN WOMEN BY TOP 10 COUNTRIES OF CITIZENSHIP, JANUARY 2013  
(CONTINUED)

Bulgaria				Greece*	Hungary			
Country of citizenship	TCN total	TCN women	TCN women (%)		Country of citizenship	TCN total	TCN women	TCN women (%)
Russia	12,799	9,974	77.92	NA	China	11,504	5,285	45.94
Turkey	4,263	971	22.77	NA	Ukraine	10,849	5,812	53.57
Ukraine	3,297	2,661	80.70	NA	Serbia	4,894	2,142	43.76
Armenia	1,108	619	55.86	NA	Vietnam	3,056	1,557	50.94
Moldova	970	665	68.55	NA	Iran	1,768	687	38.46
China	804	386	48.00	NA	Turkey	1,727	505	29.24
Syria	792	191	24.11	NA	Nigeria	1,164	420	36.08
Iraq	654	170	25.99	NA	South Korea	1,048	498	47.51
Vietnam	450	189	42.00	NA	Afghanistan	1,042	325	31.19
Belarus	373	307	82.30	NA	Israel	1,029	382	37.12

\* Data from the Greek Ministry of Interior (reference date 10.02.2014) reveals the following ten states as top countries for TCN population in Greece: Albania, Ukraine (83.11% females), Georgia (69.75% females), Pakistan, Russia (83.28% females), India, Egypt, Moldova (75.05% females), Philippines and Armenia (62.10% females). As in the other studied countries with TCN populations from the countries of the former Soviet bloc – the shares of women are significantly bigger than those of men.

Source: Eurostat (Population on 1 January by sex, citizenship and broad group of country of birth [migr\_pop5ctz]).

**TABLE 22. TCN WOMEN BY TOP 10 COUNTRIES OF CITIZENSHIP, JANUARY 2013**  
(CONTINUED)

Country of citizenship	Italy			Malta	Poland	Slovakia	Spain
	TCN total	TCN women	TCN women (%)				
Albania	437,527	210,546	48.12	NA	NA	NA	NA
Morocco	412,741	187,576	45.44	NA	NA	NA	NA
China	213,564	106,142	49.70	NA	NA	NA	NA
Ukraine	192,346	153,352	79.72	NA	NA	NA	NA
Philippines	139,806	81,510	58.30	NA	NA	NA	NA
Moldova	130,797	87,909	67.21	NA	NA	NA	NA
India	123,747	49,258	39.80	NA	NA	NA	NA
Tunisia	93,183	35,355	37.94	NA	NA	NA	NA
Egypt	91,872	28,069	30.55	NA	NA	NA	NA

Source: Eurostat (Population on 1 January by sex, citizenship and broad group of country of birth [migr\_pop5ctzl]).

**TABLE 23. EMPLOYMENT RATES OF THE TOTAL AND TCN POPULATION BY SEX**  
IN THE AGE GROUP 15-64 (%), JANUARY 2013

Country	Total		Males		Females	
	Extra EU-28	Reporting country	Extra EU-28	Reporting country	Extra EU-28	Reporting country
Austria	56.4	73.5	67.5	77.8	45.4	69.3
Belgium	37.6	62.9	47.1	67.3	27.8	58.6
Bulgaria	47.5	59.5	NA	62.1	NA	56.8
Greece	45.4	49.0	55.1	58.1	35.2	40.1
Hungary	63.4	58.4	79.2	64.2	NA	52.8
Italy	55.9	55.3	66.6	64.5	45.2	46.2
Malta	62.3	60.9	72.1	74.3	55.6	46.9
Poland	56.7	60.0	71.8	66.6	40.4	53.4
Slovakia	NA	59.9	NA	66.3	NA	53.3
Spain	46.4	55.6	48.7	60.2	44.3	50.8

Source: Eurostat (Employment rates by sex, age and nationality (%) [lfsa\_egrn]).

**TABLE 24. ACTIVITY RATE OF THE TOTAL AND TCN POPULATION BY SEX IN THE AGE GROUP 15-64 (%), JANUARY 2013**

Country	Total		Males		Females	
	Extra EU-28	Reporting country	Extra EU-28	Reporting country	Extra EU-28	Reporting country
Austria	64.6	76.9	77.2	81.3	51.9	72.4
Belgium	53.6	68.0	67.8	72.7	39.1	63.2
Bulgaria	57.3	68.4	NA	72.2	NA	64.5
Greece	75.1	66.9	88.7	75.9	60.6	58.1
Hungary	70.4	65.1	87.5	71.6	NA	58.8
Italy	68.2	62.7	80.5	72.6	56.0	52.8
Malta	68.3	65.0	82.8	79.3	58.6	50.1
Poland	70.5	67.0	77.8	73.9	62.7	60.2
Slovakia	NA	69.8	NA	77.2	NA	62.4
Spain	77.9	73.7	85.2	79.1	71.3	68.2

Source: Eurostat (Activity rate by sex, age and nationality (%) [lfsa\_argan]).

**TABLE 25. UNEMPLOYMENT RATE OF THE TOTAL AND TCN POPULATION BY SEX IN THE AGE GROUP 15-64 (%), JANUARY 2013**

Country	Total		Males		Females	
	Extra EU-28	Reporting country	Extra EU-28	Reporting country	Extra EU-28	Reporting country
Austria	12.6	4.3	12.6	4.3	12.6	4.3
Belgium	29.9	7.4	30.5	7.5	28.8	7.4
Bulgaria	NA	13.0	NA	14.1	NA	11.9
Greece	39.5	26.7	37.9	23.5	41.9	30.9
Hungary	NA	10.3	NA	10.3	NA	10.2
Italy	18.1	11.7	17.2	11.1	19.4	12.6
Malta	8.9	6.3	NA	6.3	NA	6.3
Poland	NA	10.4	NA	9.8	NA	11.2
Slovakia	NA	14.3	NA	14.0	NA	14.6
Spain	40.5	24.6	42.8	23.8	37.9	25.4

Source: Eurostat (Employment rates by sex, age and nationality (%) [lfsa\_ugran]).

**TABLE 26. THE SHARES OF SELF-EMPLOYED FROM THE TCN AND THE TOTAL POPULATION IN THE AGE GROUP 15-64 (1,000), JANUARY 2013**

Country	Self-employed (1,000)		Population 15-64		Self-employed (%)	
	Extra EU-28	Reporting country	Non EU-27 nor reporting country	Reporting country	Extra EU-28	Reporting country
Austria	11.1	408.8	452,771	5,704,553	2.45	7.16
Belgium	12.3	548.9	348,535	7,303,916	3.52	7.51
Bulgaria	NA	323.4	27,805	4,899,092	NA	6.60
Greece	20.0	1,068.4	517,000	7,214,352	3.86	14.80
Hungary	NA	402.6	51,494	6,776,258	NA	5.94
Italy	197.4	4,617.9	2,352,418	38,697,060	8.39	11.93
Malta	0.5	22.0	8,431	287,767	5.90	7.64
Poland	6.5	2,764.9	34,057	27,248,972	19.00	10.14
Slovakia	NA	356.8	13,902	3,870,038	NA	9.21
Spain	135.2	2,601.4	2,428,537	31,375,814	5.56	8.29

**Source:** Eurostat (Self-employed by sex, age and nationality (1,000) [lfsa\_esgan]). (Population on 1 January by five year age group, sex group and citizenship [migr\_pop1ctz]).

**TABLE 27. THE SHARES OF SELF-EMPLOYED WOMEN FROM THE TOTAL AND THE TCN POPULATION IN THE AGE GROUP 15-64 (1,000), JANUARY 2013**

Country	Self-employed women (1,000)		Female population 15-64		Self-employed women (%)	
	Extra EU-28	Reporting country	Non EU-27 nor reporting country	Reporting country	Non EU-27 nor reporting country	Reporting country
Austria	3.1	145.5	218,081	2,850,969	1.42	5.10
Belgium	3.3	169.7	164,107	3,625,561	2.00	4.68
Greece	5.2	333.7	244,897	3,618,061	2.12	9.22
Italy	45.8	1,362.8	1,190,256	19,478,721	3.84	7.00
Spain	47.8	834.9	1,192,243	15,551,692	4.00	5.36

**Source:** Eurostat (Self-employed by sex, age and nationality (1,000) [lfsa\_esgan]). (Population on 1 January by five year age group, sex group and citizenship [migr\_pop1ctz]).

**TABLE 28. THE SHARES OF SELF-EMPLOYED MEN FROM THE TOTAL AND THE TCN POPULATION IN THE AGE GROUP 15-64 (1,000), JANUARY 2013**

Country	Self-employed men (1,000)		Male population 15-64		Self-employed men (%)	
	Extra EU-28	Reporting country	Non EU-27 nor reporting country	Reporting country	Non EU-27 nor reporting country	Reporting country
Austria	8.0	263.2	234,690	2,853,584	3.40	9.22
Belgium	9.0	379.1	184,428	3,678,355	4.87	10.30
Greece	14.8	734.8	272,103	3,596,291	5.43	20.43
Italy	151.6	3,255.1	1,162,162	19,218,339	13.00	16.93
Spain	87.4	1,766.5	1,236,294	15,824,122	7.00	11.16

**Source:** Eurostat (Self-employed by sex, age and nationality (1,000) [lfsa\_esgan]). (Population on 1 January by five year age group, sex group and citizenship [migr\_pop1ctz]).

**TABLE 29. TCN AND NATIVE WOMEN AGED 15 AND ABOVE WHO ARE SELF-EMPLOYED AND ON LABOUR CONTRACTS IN BULGARIA, 2013**

	Total TCN	TCN women (%)	Total native population	Native women (%)
Labour contracts	1,418	31.0	2,457,426	52.0
Self-employed	1,266	16.0	284,040	43.0

**Source:** National Revenue Agency, Bulgaria, November 2014.

**TABLE 30. PRE-PRIMARY, PRIMARY AND LOWER SECONDARY EDUCATION (LEVEL 0-2) OF THE TOTAL AND THE TCN POPULATION IN THE AGE GROUP 15-74, BY SEX, JANUARY 2013 (%)**

Country	Total		Males		Females	
	Extra EU-27	Reporting country	Extra EU-27	Reporting country	Extra EU-27	Reporting country
Austria	46.5	22.1	40.1	17.7	52.8	26.5
Belgium	51.8	32.3	52.0	32.7	51.7	31.9
Bulgaria	NA	24.7	NA	24.2	NA	25.1
Greece	53.4	38.7	59.6	38.8	46.7	38.5
Hungary	27.7	25.4	NA	22.7	NA	28.0
Italy	57.4	47.4	62.0	47.6	52.9	47.2
Malta	37.4	59.3	46.4	58.0	31.2	60.6
Poland	17.8	18.1	NA	17.8	NA	18.4
Slovakia	NA	16.1	NA	13.8	NA	18.4
Spain	56.4	49.4	60.2	50.4	52.9	48.4

Source: Eurostat (Population by educational attainment level, sex, age and citizenship (%) [edat\_lfs\_9911]).

**TABLE 31. UPPER SECONDARY AND POST-SECONDARY NON-TERTIARY EDUCATION (LEVEL 3-4) OF THE TOTAL AND THE TCN POPULATION IN THE AGE GROUP 15-74, BY SEX, JANUARY 2013 (%)**

Country	Total		Males		Females	
	Extra EU-27	Reporting country	Extra EU-27	Reporting country	Extra EU-27	Reporting country
Austria	41.0	61.2	47.6	63.3	34.4	59.0
Belgium	25.1	37.5	26.0	38.9	24.3	36.0
Bulgaria	62.6	53.8	NA	58.5	NA	49.3
Greece	37.3	38.3	34.4	37.6	40.4	38.9
Hungary	41.0	55.6	36.1	60.4	47.9	51.2
Italy	33.5	38.8	31.9	39.7	35.1	38.0
Malta	21.8	25.4	21.9	26.8	21.7	24.0
Poland	44.0	60.3	39.4	64.1	48.9	56.7
Slovakia	NA	66.9	NA	70.8	NA	63.0
Spain	27.0	20.8	25.1	20.8	28.6	20.8

Source: Eurostat (Population by educational attainment level, sex, age and citizenship (%) [edat\_lfs\_9911]).

**TABLE 32. FIRST AND SECOND STAGE OF TERTIARY EDUCATION (LEVEL 5-6) OF THE TOTAL AND THE TCN POPULATION IN THE AGE GROUP 15-74, BY GENDER, JANUARY 2013 (%)**

Country	Total		Males		Females	
	Extra EU-27	Reporting country	Extra EU-27	Reporting country	Extra EU-27	Reporting country
Austria	12.5	16.7	12.3	19.0	12.7	14.5
Belgium	23.0	30.2	22.1	28.3	24.0	32.1
Bulgaria	NA	21.5	NA	17.2	NA	25.6
Greece	9.3	23.0	6.0	23.6	12.8	22.5
Hungary	31.3	19.0	41.8	16.9	NA	20.9
Italy	9.1	13.8	6.1	12.6	12.0	14.9
Malta	40.9	15.3	31.7	15.2	47.1	15.3
Poland	38.1	21.5	35.4	18.1	41.0	24.9
Slovakia	NA	17.0	NA	15.4	NA	18.6
Spain	16.7	29.8	14.7	28.8	18.4	30.8

Source: Eurostat (Population by educational attainment level, sex, age and citizenship (%) [edat\_lfs\_9911]).

**TABLE 33. PARTICIPATION RATE IN EDUCATION AND TRAINING (LAST 4 WEEKS) OF THE TOTAL AND THE TCN POPULATION IN THE AGE GROUP 18-74, BY GENDER, JANUARY 2013**

Country	Total		Males		Females	
	Extra EU-27	Reporting country	Extra EU-27	Reporting country	Extra EU-27	Reporting country
Austria	13.7	17.0	13.2	15.7	14.1	18.4
Belgium	16.3	11.0	15.7	10.9	16.9	11.2
Bulgaria	NA	5.9	NA	5.7	NA	6.1
Greece	5.5	7.2	4.7	7.1	6.3	7.4
Hungary	NA	7.8	NA	7.9	NA	7.7
Italy	6.6	10.2	6.2	9.6	6.9	10.7
Malta	10.1	11.4	NA	11.0	12.0	11.8
Poland	16.1	10.7	NA	10.0	NA	11.5
Slovakia	NA	8.4	NA	7.8	NA	8.9
Spain	11.9	14.9	10.7	14.1	12.9	15.8

Source: Eurostat (Participation rate in education and training (last 4 weeks) by sex, age and citizenship [trng\_lfs\_12]).

**TABLE 34. MEAN AND MEDIAN INCOME OF THE TOTAL AND THE TCN POPULATION AGED 18 AND ABOVE, BY GENDER, JANUARY 2013**

Country	Total		Males		Females	
	Non EU28-countries nor reporting country	Reporting country	Non EU28-countries nor reporting country	Reporting country	Non EU28-countries nor reporting country	Reporting country
Austria	16,744	23,632	17,488	24,398	16,261	22,996
Belgium	11,331	22,113	10,844	22,992	12,016	21,350
Bulgaria	3,036	2,972	NA	3,058	3,036	2,907
Greece	4,767	8,731	4,756	8,887	4,767	8,583
Hungary	NA	4,619	NA	4,721	NA	4,559
Italy	11,370	16,596	11,951	17,069	11,046	16,084
Malta	10,331	12,316	9,002	12,740	11,588	11,973
Poland	4,447	5,279	4,161	5,365	NA	5,191
Slovakia	NA	6,883	NA	7,083	NA	6,738
Spain	8,299	14,572	8,299	14,786	8,340	14,334

Source: Eurostat (Mean and median income by broad group of citizenship (population aged 18 and over) [ilc\_di15]).

**TABLE 35. AT RISK OF POVERTY AND SOCIAL EXCLUSION OF THE TOTAL AND THE TCN POPULATION BY SEX, JANUARY 2013 (%)**

Country	Non EU28-countries nor reporting country			General population – reporting country		
	Total	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females
Austria	37.2	34.1	40.1	15.4	13.8	16.8
Belgium	68.4	72.1	65.0	18.4	17.7	19.0
Bulgaria	57.2	NA	61.9	47.4	46.0	48.7
Greece	72.1	73.0	71.1	32.6	31.1	34.1
Hungary	NA	NA	NA	31.5	30.6	32.3
Italy	46.7	45.9	47.4	26.4	24.8	27.8
Malta	31.4	45.9	20.5	22.1	20.6	23.6
Poland	21.6	20.7	NA	24.8	24.1	25.4
Slovakia	NA	NA	NA	18.5	17.8	19.1
Spain	59.5	59.3	59.8	23.3	23.6	23.0

Source: Eurostat (People at risk of poverty or social exclusion by broad group of citizenship (population aged 18 and over) [ilc\_peps05]).

**TABLE 36. IN-WORK AT-RISK OF POVERTY RATE OF THE TOTAL AND THE TCN POPULATION IN THE AGE GROUP 18-64, BY SEX, JANUARY 2013 (%)**

Country	Total		Males		Females	
	Non EU28-countries nor reporting country	Reporting country	Non EU28-countries nor reporting country	Reporting country	Non EU28-countries nor reporting country	Reporting country
Austria	18.0	6.4	18.1	6.7	17.9	5.9
Belgium	25.7	3.4	23.8	3.7	27.6	3.1
Bulgaria	NA	7.2	NA	7.9	NA	6.3
Greece	37.1	11.4	38.3	11.7	34.9	11.1
Hungary	NA	6.6	NA	7.2	NA	6.0
Italy	24.7	9.2	24.3	10.5	25.2	7.4
Malta	22.1	5.8	38.8	7.5	3.8	2.8
Poland	14.6	10.8	NA	11.9	NA	9.4
Slovakia	NA	5.8	NA	6.0	NA	5.6
Spain	30.9	8.3	31.0	9.0	30.8	7.3

Source: Eurostat (In-work at-risk-of-poverty rate by broad group of citizenship (population aged 18 and over) [ilc\_iw15]).

**TABLE 37. ACQUISITION OF CITIZENSHIP OF THE TCN POPULATION BY SEX, JANUARY 2013 (%)**

Country	Naturalisation rate		
	TCN total	TCN men	TCN women
Austria	1.11	1.01	1.20
Belgium	6.69	6.05	7.37
Bulgaria	5.40	7.33	4.02
Greece	1.88	1.76	2.02
Hungary	5.73	4.65	6.97
Italy	2.05	2.01	2.09
Malta	9.94	7.87	12.65
Poland	5.53	5.75	5.32
Slovakia	1.05	1.02	1.09
Spain	2.95	2.62	3.30

Source: Eurostat (Acquisition of citizenship by sex, age group and former citizenship [migr\_acq]).

TABLE 38. ALL VALID PERMITS AND LONG-TERM RESIDENTS BY SEX, JANUARY 2013

Country	Total TCN			Males			Females		
	AVP	LTR	% LTR	AVP	LTR	% LTR	AVP	LTR	% LTR
Austria	450,444	278,779	61.89	224,497	143,150	63.76	225,947	135,629	60.02
Belgium	339,067	95,768	28.24	168,767	48,671	28.83	170,300	47,097	27.65
Bulgaria	18,603	150	0.80	10,515	59	0.60	8,088	91	1.12
Greece	495,134	105,726	21.35	260,323	69,175	26.57	234,810	36,551	15.56
Hungary	66,379	22,690	34.18	32,380	11,046	34.11	33,919	11,596	34.18
Italy	3,885,497	2,191,452	56.40	1,971,965	1,101,908	55.87	1,913,532	1,089,544	56.93
Malta	8,987	614	6.80	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
Poland	316,336	57,730	18.24	157,835	26,587	16.84	158,496	31,143	19.64
Slovakia	NA			NA			NA		
Spain	2,705,144	1,807,690	66.82	1,413,912	1,011,668	71.55	1,290,580	796,022	61.67

Source: Eurostat (All valid permits by age, sex and citizenship on 31 December of each year [migr\_resvas]  
Long-term residents by age, sex and citizenship on 31 December of each year [migr\_reslas],  
(the share of TCN was calculated by researchers).

TABLE 39. TOTAL AND TCN POPULATION UP TO 19 YEARS OF AGE, AS PER JANUARY 1, 2013

	Less than 15 total	15-19 total	Up to 19 total	Less than 15 TCN	15-19 TCN	Up to 19 TCN	
						Number	Share (%)
Austria	1,219,123	479,824	1,698,947	95,564	36,773	132,337	7.79
Belgium	1,898,072	636,924	2,534,996	76,070	25,643	101,713	4.01
Bulgaria	989,989	335,811	1,325,800	1,912	850	2,762	0.21
Greece	1,622,022	546,389	2,168,411	119,925	38,167	158,092	7.29
Hungary	1,430,865	567,039	1,997,904	6,140	3,520	9,660	0.48
Italy	8,348,338	2,824,461	11,172,799	659,182	164,358	823,540	7.37
Malta	61,319	25,488	86,807	1,004	491	1,495	1.72
Poland	5,796,614	2,218,662	8,015,276	3,881	1,633	5,514	0.07
Slovakia	830,576	316,992	1,147,568	1,535	634	2,169	0.19
Spain	7,089,999	2,165,609	9,255,608	510,199	180,916	691,115	7.47

Source: Eurostat (Population on 1 January by five year age group, sex group and citizenship [migr\_pop1ctz]).

**TABLE 40. NATIONAL AND TCN CHILDREN ENROLLED IN EARLY CHILD CARE AND PRE-SCHOOL EDUCATION AS SHARE OF NATIONAL AND TCN POPULATIONS AGED 0-5 (%)**

CITIZEN/ GEO	Reporting country		Reporting country		Extra EU-27		School year	Population data as of:	
	SEX	Total	Males	Females	Total	Males			Females
Austria		59.18			57.29			2013/2014	January 1, 2014
Belgium		66.28	66.25	66.32	64.60	64.76	64.43	2012/2013	January 1, 2013
Bulgaria*		67.97	68.25	67.68	62.97	56.16	70.31	2012/2013	January 1, 2013
Greece		33.13			42.49			2012/2013	January 1, 2013
Hungary		74.09			59.90	76.17	41.63	2012/2013	January 1, 2013
Slovakia**		52.66			43.24	41.80	44.68	2012/2013	January 1, 2013
Spain		81.87	81.89	81.84	50.38	50.41	50.35	2012/2013	January 1, 2013

\* Figures should be treated as approximate, as pre-school care encompasses children from 1.5 to 7 years of age.

\*\* Data should be interpreted with caution due to critically low numbers of TCN children.

**Source:** Authors' calculations based on ASSESS national reports, website of Hungarian Central Statistical Office: Pupils and students in full-time and part-time education ([https://www.ksh.hu/docs/eng/xstadat/xstadat\\_annual/i\\_wdsi001a.html](https://www.ksh.hu/docs/eng/xstadat/xstadat_annual/i_wdsi001a.html)) and Eurostat (Population on 1 January by five year age group, sex group and citizenship [migr\_pop1ctz]).

**TABLE 41. ENROLLED IN PRIMARY AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS AS SHARES OF POPULATIONS AGED 5-19 (%)\***

	Total	Males	Females	School year	Population data as of:
Belgium Reporting country**	79.22	78.68	79.78	2012/2013	January 1, 2013
Belgium TCN***	79.73	77.61	82.08		
Bulgaria total	76.72			2012/2013	January 1, 2013
Bulgaria TCN	42.42	37.51	48.20		
Hungary total****	83.63			2013/2014	January 1, 2014
Hungary TCN	66.38				
Slovakia total	77.09			2012/2013	January 1, 2013
Slovakia TCN	54.58	54.02	55.16		
Spain reporting country	90.36			2012/2013	January 1, 2013
Spain TCN*****	86.76	84.13	89.68		

\* Figures do not represent enrolment rates. Numbers of children and young people enrolled in schools are compared with total numbers of persons aged 5-19; however, children in different countries are enrolled at different ages from 5 to 7 and compulsory age completes between 15 and 18 years.

\*\* Excluding private and special schools.

\*\*\* Including undocumented children.

\*\*\*\* Excluding private schools and education for adults.

\*\*\*\*\* Including undocumented children.

**Source:** Authors' calculations based on ASSESS national reports, website of Hungarian Central Statistical Office: Pupils and students in full-time and part-time education ([https://www.ksh.hu/docs/eng/xstadat/xstadat\\_annual/i\\_wdsi001a.html](https://www.ksh.hu/docs/eng/xstadat/xstadat_annual/i_wdsi001a.html)) and Eurostat data (Population on 1 January by five year age group, sex group and citizenship [migr\_pop1ctz]).

**TABLE 42. EARLY LEAVERS FROM EDUCATION AND TRAINING BY SEX AND CITIZENSHIP, AS PER JANUARY 1, 2013 (%)**

CITIZEN GEO/SEX	Extra EU-27	Reporting country	Extra EU-27	Reporting country	Extra EU-27	Reporting country
	Total	Total	Males	Males	Females	Females
Austria	24.9	5.6	25.6	6.4	24.3	4.8
Belgium	31.0	9.7	32.2	12.0	30.0	7.2
Bulgaria	NA	12.5	NA	12.4	NA	12.7
Greece	34.8	7.6	40.0	10.1	29.7	5.2
Hungary	NA	11.8	NA	12.4	NA	11.1
Italy	37.4	14.9	38.3	18.3	36.4	11.4
Malta	NA	20.5	NA	22.5	NA	18.4
Poland	NA	5.6	NA	7.9	NA	3.2
Slovakia	NA	6.4	NA	6.7	NA	6.1
Spain	42.7	20.8	45.9	24.6	39.6	16.6

Source: Eurostat (Early leavers from education and training by sex and citizenship) [edat\_lfse\_01].

**TABLE 43. PROPORTION OF LOWEST PERFORMERS IN MATHEMATICS (BELOW LEVEL 2), 2012 (%)**

	Non-immigrant students	Immigrant students – Total	First generation	Second generation
Austria	14.8	37.0	38.0	36.5
Belgium	14.4	38.8	42.0	35.9
Bulgaria	42.4	NA	NA	NA
Greece	32.8	57.9	59.4	55.6
Hungary	27.9	NA	NA	NA
Italy	22.7	42.4	45.8	33.5
Malta	NA	NA	NA	NA
Poland	14.3	NA	NA	NA
Slovakia	26.8	NA	NA	NA
Spain	20.8	42.9	44.2	35.7

Source: PISA 2012: Full selection of indicators – Performance and diversity- Difference in maths performance between non-immigrant and immigrant students, after accounting for student socio-economic status (in score points) – Proficiency levels in mathematics, by immigrant background for first- and second-generation students.

**TABLE 44. AT-RISK-OF POVERTY RATE FOR CHILDREN BY CITIZENSHIP OF THEIR PARENTS (POPULATION AGED 0 TO 17 YEARS), 2013 (%)**

CITIZEN	Foreign country	Reporting country
GEO/TIME	2013	2013
Austria	36.9	11.7
Belgium	34.5	13.3
Bulgaria	:u*	27.3
Greece	61.1	23.4
Hungary	21.4u	23.1
Italy	32.3	23.4
Malta	30.6	23.6
Poland	30.8u	23.3
Slovakia	:u	20.4
Spain	50.6b**	21.7b

\* Unreliable.

\*\* Break in series.

**Source:** Eurostat (At-risk-of poverty rate for children by citizenship of their parents (population aged 0 to 17 years) [ilc\_li33]).



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