European Commission

Using EU Indicators
of Immigrant Integration

Final Report for Directorate-General
for Home Affairs

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Report prepared for the European Commission

Disclaimer

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'Using EU Indicators of Immigrant Integration'

Introduction

This report on the further development and use of EU immigrant integration indicators in policy debates is prepared at the request of the European Commission by the European Services Network (ESN) and the Migration Policy Group (MPG). It is based on research undertaken by an ad hoc research team lead by MPG including scholars from the Free University of Brussels (ULB) and the International Centre for Migration Policy Development (ICMPD) in Vienna.

The initial research results were presented in discussions papers which were first discussed by the European Commission and the National Contact Points on Integration (NCPIs) and subsequently by around 300 governmental and non-governmental integration actors and academics from all 27 Member States and Norway attending three expert seminars that were organised in the course of 2012. Participants of the seminars were asked to make presentations on the development and use of integration indicators at local, regional, national and European levels. Concluding documents summarised the seminars' main findings. In this way, the European Commission and the NCPIs helped to refine research questions and to test how results can be interpreted and used to inform policies. The seminar participants got a better understanding of how policies and outcomes can be measured and monitored, as is being done in an increasing number of countries.

This final report has three parts which are preceded by this introduction, an executive summary and a background chapter.

Part I of this report explores how three types of factors influence societal integration outcomes in four areas and as such can inform integration policies. The three types of factors concern personal characteristics of the immigrant population, the general context in the country and its specific migration and integration policies. The four areas are employment, education, social inclusion and active citizenship. In those areas, the European Union selected an initial number of indicators (the Zaragoza indictors) which are considered in this project. Overall, the analysis reconfirms the relevance and usefulness of the Zaragoza indicators.

Part II reconfirms the availability, accessibility and reliability of the main sources for the calculation of the integration indicators considered within the report. They include the EU-Labour Force Survey (EU-LFS), EU Statistics on Income and Living Conditions (EU-SILC), OECD's Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) as well as Eurostat's migration statistics. These are well-established international and comparative data sources which build upon data that is gathered nationally, often by national statistical institutes.

Part III presents different options reflecting the different ways in which indicators could be used to understand national contexts, evaluate the outcomes of policies, and use targets to improve integration. It takes existing national and EU indicators as starting point for reflection. Indicators can be used to describe the (constantly changing) situation in societies with citizens and residents with and without a migration background. Indicators can also be used to clarify the link between integration policies and societal outcomes, for example by monitoring the beneficiaries of policies and conducting robust impact evaluations.

The report is explorative and descriptive in nature. Considering the advantages and limitations of international and comparative research, the results of this report represent a substantive contribution to the on-going debate and research on the development and use of integration indicators on which integration actors can build.

Executive Summary

This report is based on the project's own research and analysis of existing international quantitative and qualitative research. Consultations with integration actors from across Europe provided valuable information and insights. The project's outcomes can be summarised as follows:

1.1 Analysis

1. *Time of residence matters*: Integration is a long-term process. Immigrants show better outcomes, the longer they are in the country. Just as for non-immigrants of working age, outcomes also improve generally with age.

2. *Gender matters*: Across all Zaragoza indicators, foreign-born women and mothers are among the most vulnerable groups, in particular those born in non-EU countries.

3. *Origin country matters*: Compared to immigrants from EU or highly-developed countries, immigrants from non-EU countries, in particular less developed countries, have on average different reasons for migration, different aspirations for the future, and different types of problems. Non-EU immigrants face greater challenges on the labour market, the housing market and in schools. They are more likely to be affected by poverty and over-qualification. Immigrants from lower developed countries are also more likely to naturalise.

4. *Socio-economic background matters*: Social mobility remains modest for immigrants. Employment and education outcomes still largely depend on the parents' socio-economic status. Immigrants are more likely to be concentrated in lower track, low-performing schools with a low average socio-economic status. Children of immigrants with low socio-economic status face much greater difficulties advancing into higher education.

5. *Quality matters*: Integration is more than having a job, housing, and basic education. Employed immigrants more often work part-time, temporary, below their qualifications and with wages that are insufficient to protect them from poverty than non-immigrants. They are more likely to live in overcrowded housing and pay more of their income for rent. Foreign qualifications are often devalued on the labour market or not formally recognised.

6. *Discrimination matters*: Unequal treatment hampers integration. Immigrants are less likely to be hired even when their qualifications are similar to non-immigrants. Immigrant students are less likely to be referred to higher track education even when their grades are similar to the performance of non-immigrants. In countries with larger gaps between immigrants and non-immigrants, the public is more likely to say that discrimination against migrants is a problem.

7. *Context matters*: Structures of society shape integration. Immigrants tend to have better labour market outcomes, perform better in schools and participate more in countries where the general population has higher outcomes. Immigrants from the same country of origin and with a similar social background perform differently in different countries. Some welfare systems protect immigrants from poverty better than others and some education systems are more favourable for low-performing immigrants. Across the board, more research is needed on the direct impact of the welfare system, the education system, housing and general labour market structures on integration outcomes of immigrants.

8. *Policy matters*: There is a lack of rigorous impact evaluations of policy effects in the EU. There is evidence that policies are directly relevant for some EU integration indicators. For example, Employment rates tend to be higher in countries with a larger share of work migration. Welfare systems in some countries were more successful in reducing poverty than others. Richer, more equal countries tend to adopt more ambitious integration policies. More immigrants naturalise in countries where naturalisation policies are more open. While there is a better understanding of which countries adopt policies and which outcomes seem to be associated with which policies, very little is known about the causal effects of specific policies or programmes.

Employment

9. Highly-qualified immigrants are most likely to be overqualified for their job. Easier and more accessible recognition procedures, equivalence courses and European cooperation could facilitate the recognition of qualifications and skills.

10. Immigrants and their descendants are underrepresented in the public sector which is

a major share of the job market in many EU countries. Public sector employment targets and targeted information campaigns can increase application rates of eligible immigrants.

11. Little is known about the impact of legal restrictions for employment of some migrant groups and participation in labour market programmes on immigrants' employment outcomes.

12. Immigrants face severe discrimination on the labour market. More accessible and coherent anti-discrimination legislation, stronger equality bodies, more teacher and public sector trainings as well as anonymous job applications could enhance the situation.

Education

13. Quality early childhood education and care is associated with better education outcomes for immigrants at the age of 15. Access and quality of early childhood education and care can have an impact on immigrants' long term education careers.

14. Education outcomes improve over time. General education policies can accommodate recent immigrants by providing homework and other general school support for the young, language tuition for all, equivalence classes and access to life-long learning for adult immigrants. Targeted policies can tackle longer settled groups with lower achievement.

15. Education outcomes still largely depend on the parents' social background. There is evidence that decreasing socio-economic segregation in schools, increasing the hours spent in school, improving the quality of teaching, delaying the age of tracking and supporting students before and during the transition into higher education can reduce that link. Smaller classes and more parental involvement have proven to be effective for improving immigrant children's outcomes.

16. Foreign trained immigrants' qualifications are often not recognised or the skills and qualifications do not fit current labour demand. Opportunities for adult migrant learners to upgrade or equalise their qualifications, including by providing easier access to lifelong learning can help to enhance employability of immigrants.

17. Immigrant students with good potential face obstacles of discrimination in schools. A way to tackle this is providing discrimination awareness trainings and support for teachers to deal with second language teaching and diversity in class rooms.

Social Inclusion

18. The results of the project's seminar suggest that social inclusion indicators are rarely part of the debate on migrant integration despite the fact that social inclusion indicators such as income, poverty, health and housing largely affect other areas of integration, such as education and employment. Immigrants have on average lower incomes, higher poverty risk, higher in-work poverty and worse housing conditions. Some evidence suggests that immigrants actually are less likely to use social benefits than non-immigrants if several factors are accounted for. More research is needed on the impact of social benefits on migrant integration.

19. Immigrants are more likely to live in bigger families and overcrowded housing. However, not enough is known about how housing policies affect integration outcomes. Evidence is needed on accessing the housing market and its impact on the situation of immigrants.

20. Especially immigrant women in large households are affected by poverty. There is a good reason for reviewing compliance with and implementation of gender equality legislation and the effects of family and unemployment benefits on migrant families.

Active Citizenship

21. Citizenship and long-term residence are only two elements of active citizenship. Indicators on other forms of civic participation of migrants such as voting, membership in organisations, running for or holding a political office, protesting or volunteering are needed to capture immigrant's political and civic involvement.

22. The interaction between access to citizenship and integration is complex. Naturalisation is both a final step in a process and as a tool to further improve integration in several areas of life. Citizenship is a societal outcome indicator, a policy indicator and a measure of openness of receiving societies, all at the same time.

23. In many EU countries, many immigrants in the country more than ten years have not naturalised. These people are still seen as foreigners and largely excluded from the democratic process.

24. Immigrants become citizens and long-term residents more often in countries where the process is more inclusive and where dual citizenship is accepted in both the country of origin and destination. Beyond legal changes facilitating naturalisation, support to pay naturalisation fees and minor changes of administrative procedures could facilitate acquisition of citizenship.

25. Naturalised immigrants have on average better integration outcomes than non-naturalised in most countries, regardless of whether naturalisation policies are inclusive or restrictive. It remains unclear whether this 'citizenship premium' is greater or lesser in certain countries due to their policies or to other factors. More research is needed on who benefits most from naturalisation.

The relevance of the Zaragoza indicators

26. The project analysed relevant factors that influence migrant integration with a view to inform integration policies at various levels of governance. It reconfirms the relevance of the Zaragoza indicators and proposes a few additional ones.

27. The Zaragoza indicators are relevant for achieving the goals of the Europe 2020 and ET2020 Strategies and benchmarks. To illustrate the impact of effectively integrating immigrants into the EU agenda, the project developed a 'closing the gap-scenario' by which equal outcomes of the migrant population in comparison with the total population are assumed.

28. Currently, the total employment rate in the EU is 69 %. The employment rate for the foreign-born is 64 %. The Europe 2020 target is to increase the overall rate to 75 %. Closing the employment gap for foreign-born immigrants accounts for 10.7 % of meeting the Europe 2020 target across all EU countries for which targets and data are available. Given the 'no gap scenario', Austria, Germany, the Netherlands, and Sweden would halfway meet their national Europe 2020 target.

29. Member States could prevent half a million people from leaving school early, if they could close the gap for migrants. This accounts for 8.7 % of all early school leavers in the EU. The EU as a whole would be 30 % closer its headline target of reducing the early school leaver rate from 14 to 10 %. The 'no gap scenario' accounts for more than 50 % of reaching the target in Belgium, Cyprus, Denmark, Germany, Greece, and Italy. In fact, Sweden would exceed its national education target.

30. 23 % of the EU population is at risk of poverty or social exclusion. The rate is 9 % higher for the foreign-born population (32 %). If this gap were closed, the EU could lift 3.3 million immigrants out of poverty or social exclusion. This number accounts for 5 % of all people at risk of poverty or social exclusion in the EU. This stands for 17 % of all people at risk of poverty or social exclusion in Austria, 19 % in Belgium, and almost 19 % in Sweden. Closing the gap for immigrants would bring the whole of the EU 16.2 % closer to reaching its headline poverty target. The migrant gap represents more than 50 % of the national targets in Austria, Belgium, Greece, and the Netherlands.

1.2 Data sources

31. The indicators of immigrant integration defined in the 2010 Ministerial Conference in Zaragoza are based on high quality international data collections. Data sources used are the best available ones for monitoring the indicators defined in the Zaragoza Declaration.

32. As these data sources were not originally developed to measure outcomes for migrants, several improvements regarding data availability and reliability should be pursued, such as:

Increasing sample sizes: The main problem with availability and reliability of data for immigrant integration indicators stems from small sample sizes. To better capture immigrants in the existing data sources mainly two options are available: 1. Oversampling: The sampling strategies could be adapted to sample more immigrants into the samples. Oversampling does not only improve the reliability and scope of analysis of the Zaragoza indicators that use the LFS, SILC, PISA and Eurostat data. It would also create the opportunity to include additional indicators. For example, boosting immigrant samples in the European Social Survey would allow to measure immigrants' civic and political participation. 2. Pooling of samples over years: Combining the data from two years would double the sample sizes and will considerably improve availability of data in several countries, also allowing for further breakdowns in more countries. For increasing availability and reliability, pooling data from three years might be considered, even if, as a result, migrant integration indicators could not be produced every year. Pooling can be a cost-

effective short-term solution to make available more data to measure immigrant integration while it has to be kept in mind that some quality of data is lost in the process.

Showing uncertainty in results: Since results based on sample surveys are inevitably limited due to sampling errors, the provision of confidence intervals would increase the visibility of uncertainty in the estimates. Showing confidence intervals might increase the credibility of results based on small samples. If minimum sample size requirements were lowered, results could be published for more countries. Confidence intervals indicate ranges of the estimates, in which the true population figures are very likely to be (by convention 95 % confidence intervals). The estimation of these intervals depends on the sampling designs in the countries, which are different across EU countries. Consequently, the confidence intervals for total population and for immigrants have to be provided by the National Statistical Institutes (NSIs).

Harmonise methods of data production: Currently, different parameters for weighting survey estimates of the main surveys (especially the EU LFS) are employed across EU Member States. Some countries include estimates on the foreign born or foreign population to account for non-response and some countries do not. It is important to harmonise weights across countries according to country of birth or citizenship for providing more reliable comparisons of the estimates. There is a lack of research on weighting methods and practices by country of birth and citizenship and its impact on data quality.

33. If the previous recommendations were also applied to other data sources, such as the European Social Survey, they could be useful to explore additional indicators of migrant integration.

34. Data harmonisation and improvement at the international level needs good coordination. Eurostat has set priorities for mainstreaming migration statistics into general data collections. Eurostat should continue to take a leading role in reinforcing and coordinating research on the issues mentioned above in close cooperation with the NSIs.

1.3 Using indicators

35. There are three key policy purposes for using integration indicators: understanding integration contexts and immigrants' integration outcomes, evaluating the results of policies, and mainstreaming integration into general policies. These purposes are not one in the same. Measuring the situation of immigrants is a different exercise from the evaluation of the results of integration policies. The results of these policies cannot all be measured in terms of immigrants' outcomes on integration indicators. For integration stakeholders, not all Europe 2020 targets are relevant for integration. For policymakers working in other fields, many of their policies are not significantly affected by the situation of immigrants or the results of integration policies.

36. The EU integration indicators make it easier to understand the integration context in the EU Member States so that policy actors can better learn from one other. The results show the similarities and differences in national contexts, while further analysis reveals what factors explain these similarities and differences. Integration outcomes in different countries are often related to the same key aspects of the immigrant population, the general context, and national policies. The more these factors are present in a country, the more likely are certain integration outcomes in that country. This analysis helps policy actors to appreciate the unique combination of factors influencing integration in their country and other countries. Moreover, the use of indicators over time gives policy actors a new long-term perspective for policy planning. The availability of these indicators is therefore a starting-point for more informed mutual learning across the EU.

37. Policy actors have various options for using integration indicators at various levels, which can be implemented and combined in different ways and at different times. The main options are summarised in the chart below.

38. A more structured and regular integration monitoring at EU level can see the best results by building on existing national and European data collection mechanisms. In this way duplication is avoided. Existing data can be made more accessible for policy actors and scientists who can help to demonstrate how data can be used responsibly and meaningfully. This may also incite further reflection about a possible expansion over time: from a simpler to a more sophisticated system. Experiences at national, regional and local levels are important in this respect as well.

39. Integration policy makers and practitioners in Member States can learn from each other in how indicators can be used in policy debates. The NCPI meetings and the European Integration Forum are platforms for such exchange.

In addition, in some countries and in some integration fields deeper analysis is undertaken from which others can learn.

40. An annual or multi-annual report on integration along the lines of Eurostat's Statistical Portrait would be a promising start. This could be expanded to include more focused contextual information reflecting the specificities of the immigration population and the beneficiaries of specific policies in each country as well as valuable information on integration outcomes and policies at national and, where possible, regional and local level. A next stage can be when various types of analyses are used to measure impact.

List of Zaragoza indicators and additional indicators to be considered

	Employment	Education	Social Inclusion	Active Citizenship	Welcoming Society
Zaragoza indicators	Employment rate	Highest educational attainment	At-risk-of-poverty (and social exclusion)	Naturalisation rate	Perceived experience of discrimination (survey)*
	Unemployment rate	Tertiary attainment	Income	Share of long-term residence	Trust in public institutions (survey)*
	Activity rate	Early school leaving	Self-reported health status (controlling for age)	Share of elected representatives (research)*	Sense of belonging (survey)*
	Self-employment	Low-achievers (PISA)	Property ownership	Voter turnout (research)*	
	Over-qualification	Language skills of non-native speakers (LFS module)**			
Proposed New Indicators	Public sector employment	Participation in early childhood education (SILC/PISA)**	Child poverty (SILC)	Participation in voluntary organisations (survey)*	Public perception of racial/ethnic discrimination (Eurobarometer)
	Temporary employment	Participation in life-long learning (LFS, AES)	Self-reported unmet need for medical care (SILC)	Membership in trade unions (survey)*	Public attitudes to political leader with ethnic minority background (Eurobarometer)
	Part-time employment	Not in education, employment or training (LFS)	Life expectancy (SILC)	Membership in political parties (survey)*	
	Long-term unemployment	Resilient students (PISA)**	Healthy life years (SILC)	Political activity (survey)*	
	Share of foreign-diplomas recognised (survey)**	Concentration in low-performing schools (PISA)**	Housing cost over-burden (SILC)**		
	Retention of international students (research)*		Overcrowding (SILC)**		
			In-work poverty-risk (SILC)		
			Persistent poverty-risk (SILC)		

Note: One star (*) marks indicators for which data needs to be collected or migrant sample sizes boosted.
Two stars (**) mark indicators for which data is not available every year (ad hoc basis). The authors of this study propose a new category of indicators of the 'welcoming society'. It includes the already proposed Zaragoza indicators 'perceived discrimination', 'trust in public institutions' and 'sense of belonging'.

PROPOSAL: AN INCREMENTAL APPROACH TO USING INTEGRATION INDICATORS

	WORK IN PROGRESS: MAINTAIN THE BASELINE	SECOND OPTION: BUILD ON THE BASELINE	THIRD OPTION: EVIDENCE-BASED POLICYMAKING
Understanding the context of integration (*statisticians, researchers*)	**Improved annual publication of EU indicators.** What: Indicator results on Eurostat website & basic descriptive analysis in a 'Statistics in Focus' report How: Eurostat updates the results. Commission & Member States consideration of additional indicators; NSIs improve data availability and quality when possible (*see Part II Assessment*) Existing resources: Eurostat & NSIs on-going work to mainstream migrants in statistics, boost migrant samples, & develop ad hoc modules for surveys	**Multiannual 'integration report' based on indicators** What: In-depth descriptive analysis of the integration situation & different national contexts How: Data disaggregated for specific groups, monitored over time, & compared between immigrants & non-immigrants with same demographic characteristics (i.e. comparing 'like with like' through statistical controls). Report can also include ad hoc thematic chapters. Existing resources: Examples include 2011 Eurostat 'Statistical Portrait', 2012 OECD 'Settling In', as well as national and local reports	**Multivariate & longitudinal analysis** What: Analysis determines which contextual factors have most/least influence on integration outcomes How: Research analyses the relationship between EU integration indicators and three sets of factors (differences in the immigrant populations, general policies & contexts, immigration & integration policies). Longitudinal data can also be analysed where possible. Existing resources: Existing international datasets on these contextual factors, national longitudinal datasets, national multivariate analysis
Evaluating the results of policies (*researchers*)	**Compare data on policies and outcomes** What: Analysis of the complex relationships between integration policies & outcomes How: Define policies in terms of intended outcomes on integration indicators; conduct bivariate analysis & mutual learning about how policies influence outcomes and/or how outcomes are influencing policies Existing resources: Up-to-date & comparable summaries of policies through EU-funded research, EMN, & EWSI	**Gather contextual data on who benefits from policies** What: In-depth descriptive analysis of the implementation of policies in the four indicator areas How: Gather and share statistics on policy implementation, the potential and current beneficiaries Existing resources: Administrative and official statistics, EU-funded research, EMN, & EWSI	**Econometric causal evaluations of policy impact** What: Assesses prospective or retrospective impact of specific national policies on integration outcomes How: Evaluation studies done at national level, sub-national level, or between countries, depending on the availability of data. The Commission could provide a review of such studies, exchange on methods, & quality standards Existing resources: Examples of causal evaluations in EU and traditional countries of immigration.
Using targets to improve & mainstream integration (*policy actors*)	**Keep integration indicators relevant for EU targets** What: Europe 2020 targets are basis for integration indicators & thus can now be monitored for immigrants How: EU integration indicators can be changed to reflect changes in Europe 2020 targets and statistics Existing resources: Coordination among DGs & Eurostat	**Calculate how integration improves EU targets** What: Calculations identify areas & countries where immigrants are a major target group for general policies How: Statisticians calculate how 'closing the gap' for immigrants helps EU countries meet their targets for smart, sustainable, and inclusive growth. Existing resources: EU OMCs & Eurostat	**Set specific national goals & targets for integration** What: Member States assess indicator results & set their own specific national goals & voluntary targets How: Results assessed based on best available multivariate analysis & policy impact evaluations; Member States learn from countries using targets Existing resources: EU OMCs, cooperation structures between relevant ministries, and with civil society

CHAPTER 1:
Background on a pilot project to develop and use European integration indicators

Indicators have gradually gained importance in EU debates on general socio-economic participation and later on immigrant integration. The Common Basic Principles for immigrant integration policy in the EU, adopted by the Justice and Home Affairs Council on 19 November 2004[1], stated among other things that developing clear goals, indicators and evaluation mechanisms are necessary to adjust policy, evaluate progress on integration and to make the exchange of information more effective.

In 2009, a German government conference in Berlin surveyed national experiences in monitoring integration and integration policy, and the Swedish Presidency *Malmö* Conference Conclusions[2] defined a list of core areas and indicators, which are based on the Common Basic Principles and EU indicators in the EU2020 Strategy[3], covering four core areas of integration: employment, education, social inclusion, and active citizenship. In each area, Member States identified an initial set of a few core indicators that are simple to understand, easy to communicate, comparable over time and for which a certain outcome is desirable. The selection of indicators was based on the availability and quality of comparable data. In total, 14 core indicators were proposed together with a few indicators to be developed, which Member States also considered important to monitor although comparable data was still lacking.

The 2010-2014 Stockholm Programme committed the European Commission and Member States to develop a limited number of core indicators about the results of integration policies. The 2010 Zaragoza meeting[4] of the ministers responsible for integration agreed on these EU indicators, which were then approved at the Justice and Home Affairs Council on 3-4 June 2010[5]. The Council also agreed for the Commission to launch "a pilot project with a view to the evaluation of integration policies, including examining the indicators and analysing the significance of the defined indicators taking into account the national contexts, the background of diverse migrant populations and different migration and integration policies of the Member States, and reporting on the availability and quality of the data from agreed harmonised sources necessary for the calculation of these indicators."

Eurostat's 2011 pilot study[6] addressed the availability and quality of data from harmonised sources for the calculation of the 15 indicators, for which comparable data could be compiled. It also published a statistical portrait of the first and second generation[7].
The Commission's July 2011 European Agenda for the Integration of Third-Country Nationals[8] sees common indicators as a way to systematically monitor the integration situation and EU2020 targets, enhance policy coordination and make recommendations in dialogue with the Member States. The Justice and Affairs Council of 13-14 December 2011 also again invited the Commission to further develop "a monitoring system including appropriate data collection and analysis to monitor the degree of integration (outcomes of policies) based on agreed common indicators, recognising the principle of subsidiarity". This has been given a follow-up by this 15-month project, launched by the Commission to analyse the relevance and results of these indicators, in line with the aforementioned Council conclusions.

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(1) http://www.consilium.europa.eu/ueDocs/cms_Data/docs/pressData/en/jha/82745.pdf#zoom=100

(2) http://www.se2009.eu/polopoly_fs/1.28600!menu/standard/file/Indicators%20and%20monitoring%20of%20 outcome%20of%20integration%20policies.pdf

(3) http://www.consilium.europa.eu/ueDocs/cms_Data/docs/pressData/en/ec/113591.pdf

(4) http://register.consilium.europa.eu/pdf/en/10/st09/st09248.en10.pdf

(5) Council document 9248/10. It should be noted that all Council conclusions stress that "there is currently no unified view among Member States on indicators in the area of active citizenship. Member States' views differ in relation to the different views, goals and regulatory frameworks of integration policies in the respective Member States. The area of active citizenships is, however, an important area of development, considering that the participation of immigrants in the democratic process as active citizens supports their integration and enhances their sense of belonging".

(6) http://epp.eurostat.ec.europa.eu/cache/ITY_OFFPUB/KS-RA-11-009/EN/KS-RA-11-009-EN.PDF

(7) http://epp.eurostat.ec.europa.eu/cache/ITY_OFFPUB/KS-31-10-539/EN/KS-31-10-539-EN.PDF

(8) http://ec.europa.eu/home-affairs/news/intro/docs/110720/1_EN_ACT_part1_v10.pdf

Using indicators

Indicators are a means to an end, a kind of language through which all integration actors can learn and communicate with a wider audience. Integration indicators need to be carefully selected, understood and interpreted. This requires on-going debate among participants who identify, adapt and improve indictors where and when required. For example, debates at the seminars held for this project recognised the value of employment rates as indictor but highlighted that the type of work is equally important as integration indicator. The EU Handbooks on Integration speak of integration as a convergence of societal outcomes of people with and without an immigrant background. Gaps between outcomes of different groups in society are important drivers of social policies. This calls for a better understanding of the nature and size of the gaps and of the means to close them, from which not only immigrants but also Europe's increasingly diverse societies benefit. The gaps may be bigger or smaller when people in the same situation – whether they have or do not have an immigrant background – are compared. Further analysis may demonstrate that gaps between certain groups within these two broad categories are actually not as big as the global figures for these categories suggest. This information may nuance the idea based on global figures that immigrants and/or that policies have failed.

Types of analysis

Descriptive analyses provide – by disaggregating statistical data – a more detailed and complete picture of diversity among immigrant communities and of Europe's societies. Indeed, the report demonstrates that countries are different but that these differences are often due to the same types of factors, which are more present in some countries than in others. Descriptive analyses facilitate mutual understanding and learning among integration actors at various levels of governance. As a starting point and basis for comparing notes internationally, they can enhance the understanding of national and local situations.

Aggregate-level correlation (bivariate) analysis can identify whether various 'potential' factors are related to integration outcomes in a statistically significant way. This analysis tests widely-held assumptions about integration outcomes. Bivariate (correlation) analysis demonstrated the significance of the EU indicators for many national policies. Countries' integration outcomes, as measured by the EU indicators, are in part related to their national contexts, including their

national policies. The bivariate analysis provided a basic method to identify any significant relationships between the situation of immigrants and different national policies.

The value of such analysis is that individual sets of information are not any longer seen in isolation but are linked and that, consequently, comprehensive policy approaches can be considered. For example, analysis can demonstrate that high or low employment rates are correlated with high or low educational attainment. Without even knowing what precisely influences what, it can become clear that the two go together and may reinforce each other and that action on both fronts could be needed. Scientifically speaking such correlations gain validity when the analyses include many countries and different periods of time. Multivariate analysis helps users to establish which of the factors is most or least related to integration outcomes. The value of such an analysis is that it can identify determining factors. For example, it can help to explain high or low scores for immigrants in employment, educational attainment, social inclusion and active citizenship. Is that because of their immigrant or socio-economic background, of being a man or a woman, or being young or old? Or is it a mix? Do policies play a role or not and if so what role? The policy implications are not difficult to imagine. However, the higher the ambitions to find out these relationships the more sophisticated the methods must be and the more disaggregated data need to be and for a bigger number of countries. This notwithstanding countries can gather enough of the same data and use the same technique to carry out similar analyses nationally and compare results internationally. Again this will give validity to the results. In this way international comparative research can enhance the understanding of integration dynamics and help to focus and target policies nationally and locally.

The Zaragoza indicators reconfirmed

This report reconfirms that the Zaragoza indicators are relevant for the integration of immigrants and consequently for policy-making at various levels of governance. It demonstrates that the various factors are often related and that different categories of immigrants are differently affected. Some categories are affected, irrespective of a national context (women, for example) or seize certain opportunities (for example, more immigrants from lower developed countries acquire citizenship than from other countries). Individual countries may find that they are an exception to a general tendency in a certain area. Further analysis may show that this

may occur in a limited number of countries and a limited number of areas. This exercise is useful, since it raises and answers questions why that is the case and what countries can do to avoid that situation or, as the case may be, to arrive at that situation.

The research and discussions at the seminars not only provided further clarification of the Zaragoza indicators but also saw the emergence of a consensus of what they actually mean and can do to inform policies. A number of additional indicators were put forward for consideration. However, on active citizenship and social inclusion more work needs to be done. It is recognised that issues of long-term residence and naturalisation are important integration matters and can be captured by indicators. For citizenship acquisition, it must be clarified whether this is a societal outcome indicator, a policy indictor or a measure of openness of receiving societies, or actually all of them. Moreover, the term active citizenship is more often associated with civic and political participation which are recognised as useful integration indicators but require more debate and research. Gaps also exist in other areas and more indicators may have to be developed to fill them. In the end, any kind of international comparative exercise will need to rely on a limited number of indicators. During the consultations, the development of indicators of a welcoming society was suggested. They could include: awareness and experience of discrimination, comfort with diversity, trust in public institutions, and sense of belonging.

Data sources

The Zaragoza indicators are based on high quality international data sources. These data sources are without doubt the best ones available for developing and using integration indicators. Representatives of Eurostat were present at all seminars explaining how this EU department is working together with national statistical institutes to collect and harmonise data. Several improvements regarding data availability and reliability are already being discussed and taken forward by Eurostat and national statistical institutes. Data harmonisation and improvement at the international levels need good coordination. Eurostat has set priorities for mainstreaming migration statistics into general data collections[9].

Immigrant integration and the Europe 2020 Strategy

The research and seminars leading to this report linked immigrant integration indicators with the indicators that are being developed and used in the Europe 2020 Strategy, in particular in the open methods of coordination on employment, social inclusion and education. Representatives of the various Commission's departments, including some of those involved in the implementation of this Strategy, were present at all three seminars. It became clear that the Strategy is also important for the integration of immigrants. More attention would need to be paid to the position of immigrants in the various implementing mechanisms. Importantly, this Report shows that improving the outcomes for immigrants will significantly contribute to achieving the Europe 2020 Strategy's overall goals, thus showing how mainstreaming immigrant integration can be made beneficial for immigrants and society as a whole. The use of integration indicators at national and EU levels develops through an incremental approach The report outlines different options for the use of integration indicators at national or EU level where appropriate. Policy actors can use this information as they consider what information they need to understand their national context, evaluate their policies, and use targets to improve integration.

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(9) See for instance: European Commission, Working Group on Migration Statistics 2012: Migration Statistics Mainstreaming: Implementing the ESS Programme for the Development of Migration Statistics, Luxembourg, 25-26 April 2012, Eurostat, Doc. ESTAT/F2/MIGR(2012)07.

PART 1: Analysis

CHAPTER 2:
What influences migrant integration outcomes?

In the analysis report we present **three different types of factors** that influence integration outcomes[10]. First we look at the immigrant population and individual factors.[11] Secondly we consider general policies and factors associated with the macro-level structure of receiving societies with regards to the labour market, education systems, social policies and the political context. Thirdly, we look at migration and integration policies and factors related to specific migration and targeted integration policies. Individual-level factors have been explored most extensively by research as large-scale surveys and administrative data make available suitable sources for analysis. In comparison, general policies and context as well as migration and integration policies remain under-researched as suitable data is more difficult to obtain and statistical analysis more demanding.

Clearly, the situation of immigrants across countries is rather different, as well as their situation in comparison to non-immigrants. However, the project's analysis has found some evidence that countries with better social inclusion outcomes (e.g. income) are also the countries with better education outcomes. In countries where the difference in reading performance at age 15 between foreign-born immigrants and non-immigrants is larger, the share of foreign-born immigrants below the median income level is higher. We also find that in countries where a higher share of foreign-born immigrants have below median incomes compared to non-immigrants, they tend to achieve basic education a lot less than non-immigrants.[12] This also means that there may be an underexplored overlap between different areas of integration, such as employment, education, social inclusion and active citizenship. It is important to consider all areas relevant for integration and analyse the links between the different areas. Outcomes in one area may very well have positive or negative effects on the other.

Not one single set of factors is able to explain the situation of immigrants or all differences between immigrants and non-immigrants in EU countries. For example, socio-economic status and residence influence education and employment outcomes to a large degree. However, the social status cannot explain everything. The reading performance of 15 year old foreign-born immigrants from the same country of origin and with similar background varies across different EU countries. The second generation also show large education gaps even though they were born in the country of residence and have equal residence periods. Accounting for social status reduces the education gap between immigrants and non-immigrants significantly in many countries, however, differences remain. This means that other factors such as general policies and national context as well as specific immigration and integration policies shape integration outcomes.

2.1 Migrant population

The first set of factors that directly influence integration outcomes relate to the immigrant population. This is to say that the composition of the immigrant population in a country will have an impact on integration outcomes. The composition of migrant populations is shaped by many factors (e.g. history, geography and migration policies).

Migrant population factors can be distinguished as **demographic** (gender, age, family status, citizenship, country of birth (first or second generation), country of birth of the parents, length of residence/and age of arrival), **socio-economic**

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(10) In the context of migrant integration indicators, the term 'outcome' describes a (statistical) result of a certain indicator, usually measured in rates. Outcomes are compared between immigrants and non-immigrants (gaps). In general, outcomes of indicators can describe the situation of integration of immigrants in a certain area of society.

(11) If not indicated otherwise, the term 'immigrant' generally includes both first or second generation and both EU national or Third Country Nationals.

(12) For a full list of correlations between indicators, see the annex. These calculations are provided by David Reichel from the International Centre for Migration Policy Development.

(education, employment, income, occupation, level of development of country of origin) and **socio-cultural** characteristics (mother tongue, language acquisition).[13]

2.1.1 Which migrant population characteristics influence employment outcomes?

With few exceptions from southern EU countries and EU-12, the first and second generation is generally less likely to be employed than the non-immigrant population. In general, immigrant men achieve similar employment rates than non-immigrants. The overall difference can largely be explained by low rates for women, especially from outside the EU. Highly skilled immigrants are more likely to be unemployed than low skilled immigrants. Highly skilled immigrants are also more likely to be overqualified than non-immigrants, especially if they were born outside the EU.

Age, residence, gender

Just like for the non-immigrant population, employment outcomes improve with working age and residence. Nevertheless, equal years of residence do not erase the disadvantage of immigrants (migrant penalty). Second-generation immigrants with equal residence than non-immigrants show relatively lower outcomes on the labour market in many EU-15 countries.

Women's labour market outcomes are usually lower than men's, especially when they were born in non-EU countries. Foreign-born immigrant women between 20-29 years are more likely to be married and have children than non-immigrant women in most EU countries. The project's analysis shows that countries where there are more foreign-born immigrant households with one or more children, foreign-born migrants are also more likely to be at risk of poverty. Countries where fewer foreign-born migrant women have primary education than non-immigrants, foreign-born immigrant women also have lower employment and labour market outcomes. This is not the case for men. Children have a greater negative effect on labour market participation of foreign-born immigrant women than on non-immigrant women. Across some EU countries, the risk of being unemployed and not in education is higher for female children of im-

migrants than for males, with the exception of the Scandinavian countries. This suggests that males continue to be the sole breadwinner more often in immigrant families than in non-immigrant families. When they work, foreign-born migrant women are twice as likely to work in low skilled professions as migrant men according to the OECD. This gender gap does not exist for the non-immigrant population in many EU countries.

The policy implications could be that general labour market policies are made more suitable to support younger and more recent immigrants. Targeted labour market programmes and trainings could focus on low skilled and long-term unemployed immigrants, in particular women with children. A review of the impact of family benefits and of gender equality legislation on immigrant women could lead to policy adaptations.

Education

Lower educational levels explain a large part of the differences between employment outcomes of immigrants and non-immigrants. The gaps reduce when accounting for education and socio-economic position of the parents. For some groups, the employment rate of non-EU immigrants is up to five times higher than for non-immigrants. Access to and quality of early childhood education, avoiding social segregation in schools, allowing high permeability between school tracks and supporting immigrants before and during the transition phase into higher education can help to enhance the qualifications of immigrants and break the link between the socio-economic status of immigrants with their parents.

Whereas unemployment tends to be higher for the low-educated for both migrants and the native-born, differences with the non-immigrant population are most pronounced for the highly educated. In many EU countries, low-educated immigrants have a higher employment rate than their native-born peers. This is particularly visible in countries that have had significant low-educated labour migration over the past decade. In contrast, in all countries with significant immigrant populations the highly educated immigrants have lower employment rates than the highly educated native-born. This could mean that the migrant penalty is actually increasing with higher skill levels.

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(13) More national research has also focussed on social capital (contacts, networks) and cultural characteristics (religion, attitudes towards receiving society's norms and values) as relevant factors for migrant integration.

Job quality

Employment is not enough to provide equal opportunities for immigrants. Narrow employment gaps can hide other issues of immigrant integration, such as the quality of work. Work quality is usually measured by temporary employment, low-skilled employment, part-time-employment, public sector employment and over-qualification.

In addition to age, educational attainment is clearly an important determinant for accessing higher skilled, better paid jobs. However, higher skills also lead to increased risk of being overqualified. On average, there is virtually no difference in the likelihood to be overqualified between immigrants from high-income countries and the native-born. Eurostat showed that the risk of over qualification is particularly high for recent immigrants from non-EU countries. Their formal qualifications are thus highly discounted in the labour markets of high-income EU countries. The discount is mainly observed for those who have obtained their qualifications in low-income countries. In contrast, immigrants trained in the country of residence have similar over-qualification rates than the native-born and always lower than those who have acquired their qualifications abroad according to the OECD. Easier and more accessible recognition procedures, equivalence courses and European cooperation could facilitate the recognition of qualifications and skills for immigrants.

2.1.2 Which migrant population characteristics influence education outcomes?

Education outcomes vary considerably across country and across different indicators. In most EU countries, the first and second generation have on average lower educational attainment, leave school early more often and perform worse in reading at the age of 15. The educational disadvantage is less pronounced in terms of tertiary education (e.g. university).

Residence

The OECD found that years of schooling in the country of residence is a relevant factor for the reading performance of migrant students at age 15. First-generation students who arrived in the country at a younger age outperform those who arrived when they were older. Education systems are better able to improve student performance when they have a longer opportunity to shape the learning outcomes of immigrant students. The policy implication could be that general education policies accommodate recent immigrants by providing homework and other general school support for the young, language tuition for all, equivalence classes and access to life-long learning for adult immigrants. Targeted policies can effectively tackle longer settled groups with lower achievement.

Socio-economic background

Parents' education and socio-economic position are one of the key explanatory factors of the lower outcomes of immigrants observed in EU countries, especially for the second generation. Bivariate analysis shows that there is a clear relationship between the average socio-economic status of the foreign-born population and underachievement in education. Immigrants perform worse in countries where the foreign-born immigrant population is on average poorer than the total population. Foreign-born residents in richer and more equal societies often have a lower socio-economic status than the native-born; by extension, their children often have higher rates of underachievement. Central and Southern European countries tend to have foreign-born populations with a similar – if not higher – socio-economic status compared to the native-born and, thus, little-to-no-gap in achievement between foreign- and native-born students. Socio-economic status and educational level of parents appear to explain almost all the educational disadvantages of children of immigrants from high-income countries, but only half of the disadvantage of the children from lower-income countries. To reduce the link and decrease socio-economic segregation in schools, various measures can be introduced, such as increasing the hours spent in school, improving the quality of teaching, delaying the age of tracking and supporting students before and during the transition into higher education. Smaller classes and parental involvement projects have proven effective in many cases to boost outcomes of immigrant children.

Language spoken at home

The language spoken at home has an influence on the education of immigrants. Students that speak the language of instruction at home are much more likely to perform better in schools. In this regard, getting parents more involved in their children's education has proven to be an effective strategy to improve education outcomes of children.

Other socio-cultural factors that influence education outcomes refer to different national, religious or ethnic backgrounds (sometimes called

'cultural proximity'). Some researchers find that immigrants' general attitudes towards education and motivational orientations may support or hinder the integration process. Cultural factors have also been used to account for differences in school success between immigrant groups. This research often focuses on the relatively high achievement levels of influence from some Asian countries and lower achievement levels of immigrants from Muslim-majority countries.

2.1.3 Which migrant population characteristics influence social inclusion outcomes?

Social inclusion is a broad and interconnected area including poverty, income, health and housing. On average, foreign-born immigrants are at a higher risk of poverty, have lower incomes and more often live in overcrowded housing. Instruments of social inclusion include social policies (e.g. benefits, spending, taxes) and housing policy (e.g. availability of social housing and competitiveness of housing market).

As is the case for non-immigrants, common sociodemographic characteristics improve social inclusion outcomes over time. The project's bivariate analysis suggests that higher age, income, education, employment and duration of residence are all associated with better social inclusion of foreign-born immigrants in terms of higher incomes and lower poverty risk.

Household composition

We found a strong influence of household composition on the income of the foreign-born population. Foreign-born families without children have similar incomes compared to the total population. However, the income gap is larger for foreign-born immigrants with children. Children widen the difference in incomes between foreign-born immigrants and the total population. The same pattern applies to poverty risk. The foreign-born are more likely to be at risk of poverty compared to the native born when they have children. More research is needed on the impact of family-related benefits, family structure and poverty on immigrant integration.

2.1.4 Which migrant population characteristics influence active citizenship outcomes?

Currently, naturalisation rates, long-term residence rates, and immigrants among elected representatives have been proposed as relevant EU active citizenship indicators. Available research focuses on naturalisation and other forms of political participation such as voting, volunteering and membership and or participation in organisations. There is very limited international research on long-term residence. Some case studies have collected information on immigrants in elected offices.[14]

Based on data from the European Social Survey (ESS), researchers found that immigrants' political involvement in terms of membership and voting in the EU is generally lower than among native-born. However, a different picture emerges when observers take into account informal participation in humanitarian aid, human rights, and immigrant rights movements where participants are often not registered as members. On average, voter turnout in elections shows lower participation of immigrants compared to non-immigrants in EU countries. However, this gap is reduced significantly when the results are controlled for age and education.

Employment, education, family status

Citizenship is the prerequisite for voting at the national level in nearly all EU countries and at the regional level in the majority of EU countries. Analysis based on ESS data also indicated that citizenship increases other forms of civic participation (e.g. helping others in society). The main individual predicators of naturalisation have been first identified in the United States and largely confirmed in national and comparative studies in Europe. Rates are higher among the second generation, especially of mixed parentage. Participation often increases as immigrants spend more time in the country and naturalise. Duration of residence and marriage are the only significant determinants of naturalisation for immigrants from both developed and developing countries. Other relevant individual-level factors include employment, income levels, education, language ability, family status, and social contacts.

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(14) See, Bird et al (2011), Morales et al (2011) in the further reading list and a graph from Kirchberger et al (2011) in the annex.

Country of origin and language skills

Several studies have found that immigrants from lower developed and politically unstable countries are more likely to naturalise. Recent analysis showed that foreign-born immigrants from low-or-medium-developed countries are on average five times as likely to naturalise as immigrants from highly-developed countries. In most EU countries, people from developed (especially EU) countries tend to naturalise less because they have less incentives to acquire the citizenship of another EU country. In addition, educational attainment and speaking the country's language at home increases the likelihood to naturalise for immigrants from developing countries, but has no effect on immigrants from developed countries. Low-educated immigrants from a high-income country are more likely than their highly educated counterparts to be nationals. On the contrary, among immigrants originating from a lower-income country, those that are highly educated are more likely to be nationals than their low-educated counterparts.

Residence

In most EU countries, immigrant's (self-reported) electoral participation increases the longer they have settled in the country. According to the OECD, in Finland, Greece, Ireland, Portugal, Spain and the United Kingdom, long-term residents' voter turnout is more than 10 percentage points higher than the turnout of immigrants in general. Furthermore, in several countries – Hungary, Israel and the United Kingdom –participation rates for long-term residents appear higher than those of native-born.

Subjective factors

More subjective indicators, such as 'sense of belonging', 'interest in politics', 'experience of discrimination' and 'trust in political institutions' have been mentioned in the context of active citizenship. More research is being done on the question how these subjective indicators may also influence more 'objective' active citizenship indicators, for example, voting and membership and/or participation in organisations. This research is still at the beginning. So far, there are mixed results about how these indicators are related to the various forms of political participation.

2.2 General policies and context

The second set of factors that influence integration outcomes are 'general policies and context'. This set of factors takes into account different national contexts across the EU. Broadly defined,

they include labour market structures and economic growth, the education system, the welfare system, the housing market, and public opinion. In general, less is known about the relative importance of macro-level factors compared to well-researched individual level factors.

Explaining macro-level factors

Labour market factors include economic growth, occupational sectors, occupational conditions, minimum wages, and labour laws. Employment rates in relation to overall economic growth give an indication whether immigrants benefit equally in good times or suffer disproportionately in bad times. The employment sectors can influence immigrants' employment rate as sectors that require less qualifications and social skills (i.e. agricultural sector) are often easier for immigrants to access. However, skill-demanding labour markets and the less accessible high skilled jobs increase the risk of over-qualification for immigrants. The project's bivariate analysis suggests that foreign-born immigrants are disproportionately affected by part-time and temporary work. They seem to be the first one in and out of the labour market. In this regard, employment protection legislation – a measurement of how easy firms can hire and fire workers - can have an impact on immigrant employment. In theory, tight labour laws decrease the propensity of companies to hire workers. This could disadvantage immigrants in competition with non-immigrants.

Education systems are very diverse across the EU. Different systems impact the performance of immigrants. Some of the better researched characteristics of education systems are access and availability of early-childhood education, the age of ability grouping (tracking), socio-economic composition of schools, the diversification of schools tracks, and public spending on education. Others may be mandatory school years, grade repetition, class sizes, number of school hours and centralised curricula. In some cases, these aspects have helped immigrants to overcome their often unfavourable socio-economic background and discrimination in order to achieve higher qualifications.

Basic income and housing are essential human needs. They are regarded as prerequisites for structural integration in society. The link between welfare systems, housing and migrant integration remains under-researched. So far, considerably more attention has been paid to employment and education. Some countries measure the uptake of social services of immigrants. Other research has looked at how social transfers affect the poverty risk of immigrants compared to non-immigrants.

Social transfers include family related benefits, housing benefits, age-related benefits, unemployment benefits and social assistance. The extent to which EU governments provide these benefits is reflected in overall social spending as percentage of GDP and general welfare generosity indices. The housing market is closely related to social issues. Are immigrants living in overcrowded accommodation, how many own property, how relevant is social housing in a country, how much do immigrants spend on rent relative to their income? The answers to these questions have an influence on the social inclusion of immigrants.

Lastly, public opinion can influence integration outcomes. Public opinion can be considered an umbrella term reflecting the more subjective indicators of receiving societies. This can be measured through public attitudes, (awareness of) discrimination and media discourse. In some countries, surveys indicate high levels of anti-immigrant attitudes. Surveys and experimental studies have shown high degrees of discrimination against immigrants, especially in schools and at the work place. Several international studies have also analysed the media coverage of immigration and integration issues. They often find a negative bias of migrant integration issues in many EU countries.

2.2.1 Which context factors influence employment outcomes?

Presumably, a positive economic situation overall will benefit immigrants. More growth is likely to increase migrant employment. Generally, the project's bivariate analysis has shown that employment rates of foreign-born immigrants are better in countries where non-immigrants also have higher employment rates. However, while immigrants take advantage of economic opportunities in good times, the financial crisis has shown that immigrants are the first to exit the labour market when times are more difficult. Immigrants were affected most by the economic downturn in once booming new countries of immigration. In addition, regional and local differences in the labour market influence integration as immigrants face very different opportunities in different places. Immigrants often move to places due to existing social networks, not necessarily due to labour market needs.

Employment sectors

The project's bivariate analysis shows that countries with larger agricultural sectors tend to have narrower gaps in female employment rates and somewhat narrower gaps in male employment rates. Foreign-born non-EU immigrant women

are also less active compared to non-immigrant women in countries with larger service sectors. This suggests that service unrelated work (agriculture, industry) is favourable for the employment of non-EU immigrant women. On average across the EU, immigrants are overrepresented in low-skilled sectors such as construction, accommodation and food services and underrepresented in higher skilled jobs including public sector jobs. The second generation are less likely to work in public administration, health and social work or education than non-immigrants. In some countries, these public sector jobs represent a large share of the labour market, offering stable work conditions. Large differences in employment rates with offspring of native-born in Belgium and Spain are partly explained by the low share of employment in the public sector among native-born offspring of immigrants. Public sector employment targets and information campaigns can increase application rates of eligible immigrants. This has the potential to enhance the employment situation in addition to raising public awareness of diversity.

Country of origin, legal restrictions, minimum wages

The general level of development of the country of residence matters. There are greater differences in labour market participation between the general population and the non-EU-born in countries with higher levels of human development. Legal restrictions to access to labour markets for family and humanitarian migrants in some countries can have an effect on employment outcomes.

There is some evidence that minimum wages set too high or excessively restrictive employment protection legislation could increase the level of structural unemployment and make it especially difficult for new arrivals to find work.

Discrimination and public opinion

One context factor that has yielded more research results is discrimination. The most convincing studies of the occurrence of discrimination are field experiments, which test the actual behaviour of employers seeking to fill job vacancies. Job seekers with 'foreign' names have to submit twice as many applications to be invited for an interview than other job seekers with the exact same qualification. Studies on discrimination in the labour market in Belgium, Denmark, France, Germany, Italy, the Netherlands, Norway, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, the United Kingdom and the United States – following a standard procedure for correspondence testing developed by the International Labour Organization (ILO) in 1992, showed similar tendencies.

Based on the projects' bivariate analysis, we find that countries where foreign-born immigrants have lower integration outcomes, the awareness of discrimination among the general population is higher. The project's analysis found that lower levels of labour market participation for non-EU-born women and men are associated with greater public awareness of discrimination against foreigners. However, the direction of causation is not clear. Foreign-born immigrants may have lower outcomes because they are being discriminated against or, they are being discriminated against because they have lower outcomes. Interestingly, the countries with higher awareness of discrimination are often the countries with more inclusive integration policies, in particular strong anti-discrimination laws and extensive labour market integration policies. We also found that countries with high support for equal rights for legal immigrants also adopt more inclusive integration policies. This indicates that countries with greater challenges to integrate immigrants, higher perceived levels of discrimination and more favourable attitudes towards immigrants are also the countries that adopt more ambitious anti-discrimination and labour market policies.

Some have argued that public opinion, indeed, can be relevant for employment outcomes of immigrants beyond discrimination on the labour market. Anti-immigrant perceptions restrict government's ability to promote high-skilled labour migration which European companies are in need of.

Discrimination awareness training for employers, anonymous job applications, strong implementation of ant-discrimination legislation and public anti-discrimination campaigns have the potential to reduce the impact of discrimination and negative public opinion on employment of immigrants.

2.2.2 Which context factors influence education outcomes?

The type of education system matters. The level of underachievement among immigrant students and the general population are linked. As a general trend, the share of underachievers among foreign-born immigrant students is higher in countries with more underachievers within the general population. We have also found that the share of the foreign-born with a university degree is higher in countries with more university graduates within the general population. More migrants leave school early in countries with a larger share of early school leavers within the general population. This performance correla-

tion across all four education indicators implies that the general educational system is a major factor for the general population, including for migrants. Where the general population fares better, migrants generally also do better.

Overall performance of education system

The project's bivariate analysis has found that higher levels of spending on education as percentage of GDP is associated with higher reading scores of 15 year old immigrants. While rates for foreign-born immigrants might generally be higher in countries that spend more on education, the differences between foreign-born immigrants and non-immigrants are also larger. The difference (gap) between foreign-born immigrants and the general population is greater in countries with greater levels of wealth and equality within the general population. There are often more underachievers among foreign-born immigrant students than among the general student body in countries where natives have a relatively high socio-economic position. This finding suggests that a country with a wealthier, equal, and educated general population will be more likely to have greater student achievement gaps between the general population and foreign-born immigrants. In poorer and more unequal societies, native students are often just as affected by underachievement as migrant students. Even though migrants generally do better in countries where everybody does better, the differences between migrants and natives appear to be larger in countries where the general population has better conditions for high performance. Generally, this analysis finds different situations in many North and Northwest European countries in comparison to many Central and Southern European countries.

School segregation

School segregation can be considered one relevant factor influencing the education of immigrants. Several studies show that students with an immigrant background tend to face the double challenge of coming from a disadvantaged background themselves and going to a school with a more disadvantaged profile (measured by the average socio-economic background of a school's influence) – both of which are negatively related with student performance. While there may be a negative effect of ethnic segregation, it appears that its impact is considerably smaller than the effect of the socio-economic position of the parents. This means that the issue is not ethnic segregation of schools but socio-economic segregation. There is evidence that the outcomes of immigrant

children can be improved by decreasing socio-economic segregation in schools, increasing the hours spent in school, improving the quality of teaching, delaying the age of tracking and supporting students before and during the transition into higher education. Smaller classes and parental involvement projects have also proven to be effective in many cases for improving immigrant children's outcomes.

Tracking

The impact of tracking – where students are grouped in different school tracks at different ages according to their abilities – is very much debated in research circles. Generally, there is a large body of evidence suggesting that both native and migrant students have, on average, higher scores in comprehensive educational systems compared with similar students in highly stratified educational systems. According to the OECD, almost all of the countries with large performance gaps tend to have greater differentiation in their school systems. Many studies have found evidence that early division of students into tracks increases outcome gaps over time. Some researchers have found that students in schools with generally poorer students do better in comprehensive systems (one-track) than in multi-tracked systems. In short, poorer students in schools with on average poorer classmates benefit most from comprehensive schools systems. However, others contend that some effects of the tracked education system might actually be due to differences in the composition of the migrant population.

Discrimination

Institutional discrimination is a possible explanation for lower migrant achievement, especially when other factors are insufficient to explain persistent differences between immigrants and non-immigrants. Discrimination may occur in terms of teacher's decision on grade repetition, tracking and referral to special education programmes. In addition, textbooks and teaching materials may not reflect the diversity of influence' cultural and language backgrounds. Many studies across Europe have found that immigrants are more likely to go to a lower track school even when they have similar grades than their non-immigrants peers. This can be due to discrimination by teachers but also the choices of parents. Discrimination could be reduced through discrimination awareness training, support for teachers teaching second language students, more objective decision making procedures at transition periods in school careers, and more intensive guidance.

2.2.3 Which context factors influence social inclusion outcomes?

Some evidence for most high-income EU countries shows that generous countries with strong redistributive welfare states also have strong antipoverty policies that help alleviate material deprivation for both immigrants as well as non-immigrants within each country. Studies have shown that tax-benefit programs reduce child poverty of immigrants significantly. Another study finds that family benefits have a positive effect on immigrants in some countries when they are designed to accommodate migrant families, which are usually bigger than native-born families.

Benefits and social spending

The foreign-born population are more likely to receive benefits than natives in countries where they are relatively poorer than natives. Countries with higher income gaps and higher poverty risk among foreign-born immigrants also have higher levels of social spending. In countries where foreign-born immigrants are at greater risk of poverty and earn less income, the foreign-born population is also more likely to receive unemployment benefits compared to non-immigrants. These countries also spend more on social benefits. This suggests that countries that spend more on social benefits may protect immigrants from the worst; however, they do not significantly reduce income and poverty gaps between immigrants and non-immigrants.

Housing

Poor housing is often related to poverty. The project's bivariate analysis shows that 'overcrowding' is related to both income levels and poverty risk of foreign-born immigrants. This means that the foreign-born have less income and a higher risk of poverty in countries where they live in worse housing conditions compared to the total population. The importance of housing is reflected in many of EU countries' migrant integration monitoring. Nevertheless, the link between housing and migrant integration remains under-researched.

Discrimination

Similar to labour market outcomes, social inclusion outcomes of immigrants are associated with awareness of discrimination. Based on the project's bivariate analysis, we see that the public perceives higher levels of discrimination against foreigners in countries with lower rela-

tive income of the foreign-born population and higher relative poverty risk. This suggests that higher levels of perceived discrimination against foreigners are associated with larger income gaps between foreign-born immigrants and native-born.

Contrary to a common belief that immigrants receive disproportional amounts of social benefits, the outlined factors may cause an 'under-use' of benefits for immigrants. The EU funded study 'active inclusion of immigrants' found that immigrants take up less welfare than non-immigrants in most European countries if we consider similar social backgrounds and different kinds of benefits. Studies in Germany have also shown that foreign-born immigrants benefit less in terms of poverty reduction from the system of redistribution (for example through taxes, and social insurance contributions) than natives. The relative under-use of welfare benefits of immigrants might fit the hypothesis that they have limited access to services due to linguistic, cultural, social or discrimination issues. In addition, legal barriers that influence welfare eligibility could limit access to poverty reducing services for immigrants. More research is needed to analyse access, uptake and impact of social services on the situation of immigrants.

2.2.4 Which context factors influence active citizenship outcomes?

Generally, immigrants, regardless of their ethnic origin, are more politically active in the countries where natives are most politically active (North and Northwest Europe). It appears that the general political environment influences active citizenship outcomes just as the labour market and the education system influence employment and education outcomes.

The impact of citizenship policies on active citizenship outcomes will be covered in the following section on migration and integration policies.

2.3 Migration and integration policies

The third and last set of factors that influences integration outcomes are specific migration and targeted integration policies. Migration and integration policies are difficult to use as explanatory factors for the EU migrant integration indicators due to limited comparative data. The link between policies and outcomes is often not direct, difficult to prove and interpret. Research to evaluate the link between policies and outcomes is complex,

cumbersome and costly. It requires very good data and advanced econometric methods for causal evaluations. Existing evaluations are limited to specific policies, countries and target groups. Although increasing in number in the EU, there are generally few comparative and rigorous impact evaluations of policies. The project's analysis and findings from other research provide some first viable insights for further discussion.

Migration policies regulate the inflow of immigrants and are concerned with the question of how many immigrants come into the country through which channel (e.g. labour migrants, family migrants, influence). Generally speaking the evidence suggests that the size of the foreign-born population has no impact on integration outcomes and the difference between immigrants and non-immigrants. Across all indicator areas, the project's analysis could not establish a significant relation between the size of the foreign-born population and integration outcomes. However, there is a relationship between outcomes and the channel of migration. Labour migrants have on average higher qualifications than family or humanitarian migrants. Not surprisingly, some case studies showed that refugees require on average more social benefits than the general population. Some scholars have argued that countries such as Australia and Canada, which have had much more selective immigration policies, tend to exhibit fewer and smaller ethnic penalties than do countries that had major guest-worker programmes. Due to a lack of research, the following will focus only on integration policies. Integration policies address the situation of immigrants after they have settled in the country.

2.3.1 Which policy factors influence employment outcomes?

Targeted labour market policies are defined as public interventions, which are explicitly targeted at groups of persons with difficulties in the labour market, including immigrants. Labour market policies include employment services, activation measures and unemployment benefits. In countries where immigrants have lower employment rates such measures may influence their outcomes. So far, there is limited comparable research on the effectiveness of respective programmes.

There are some evaluations of specific integration programmes in several EU countries, especially with regard to integration courses. Evaluations generally show positive results in terms of improving employment and further education. Because these evaluations vary greatly in terms

of methods and focus, this case study evidence is difficult to compare on an international level.

There is a body of evidence suggesting that citizenship legislation has an impact on employment. Naturalised immigrants generally have better labour market outcomes than foreign nationals, even after controlling for other factors such as education, country of origin and length of stay. Citizenship is believed to open up public sector jobs, reduce discrimination by employers and provide incentives to invest more in education and training. Employers may also take naturalisation as sign of a positive commitment to integrate. There are a couple of case studies, especially in Germany, France, Sweden and the United States that find that naturalisation has an impact on labour market outcomes, in particular of lower skilled immigrants. The findings are, however, difficult to compare across countries.

2.3.2 Which integration policy factors influence education outcomes?

The study of education policies has expanded considerably in recent years. There are numerous approaches and policies. There are also an increasing number of impact evaluations of education policies. According to OECD literature reviews a number of general education policies have affected education outcomes of immigrants in some cases: expenditure per student, hours of language instruction per week, compulsory school years or the age when influence are selected for different tracks of schooling, sustained language support across grade levels; centrally developed curriculum documents; trained teachers in second language teaching; individual assessment of student needs and progress with adequate diagnostic materials; early language interventions and parental involvement in language instruction; a focus on academic language; integration of language and content learning; and the valuing of mother tongues.

Based on rigorous impact evaluations, we can identify certain 'good policies or programmes' where a positive effect has been proven in certain circumstances for certain target groups. Based on international literature reviews of impact evaluations, we can find large evidence for a positive effect of early childhood education, parental involvement programmes and class size reductions on the education outcomes. There is modest evidence for positive impact of postponing the age of ability grouping in schools (tracking) and increasing teacher quality. There is mixed evidence for reducing school composition

through allowing parental school choice, paying teachers higher salaries, hiring teachers with a migrant background and language support programmes. There has been very little evidence yet on reducing entire school tracks and the impact of intercultural education in terms of diversity in curricula and teaching materials.

Teaching quality and class sizes

Several national studies have shown that teaching quality is one of the most important school-level factors influencing student outcomes, regardless of socio-economic and demographic factors. While the impact of smaller classes on mainstream influence seems to be modest, a substantive body of literature shows that class size reductions do have a large and significant effect on disadvantaged students, including migrants, ethnic minorities and low-income children with low-educated parents. Moreover, the effect is greatest for younger children in earlier grades, particularly from kindergarten to third grade.

Access to early childhood education

Analysis of 2003 PISA data shows that participation in pre-school is strongly associated with better education outcomes at age 15, even when socio-economic background is considered. However, it is very difficult to establish whether other factors have contributed to better outcomes and whether these policies also work in other contexts.

Greater challenges, more ambitious policies

For example, the Migration Integration Policy Index (MIPEX) compares EU government's policies towards access, support and monitoring of immigrants from pre-primary to higher education along 22 sub-indicators. Narrower gaps, smaller immigrant populations, and lower socio-economic levels are associated with less inclusive migrant education policies. Countries with greater resources, larger numbers of immigrant students, and wider achievement gaps tend to adopt more inclusive migrant education policies. Indeed, migrant achievement gaps are often a justification for changes in policy. We have observed the same trend in other areas. Generally, the countries that have adopted ambitious targeted policies also seem to be facing a relatively larger integration challenge. In this regard, the EU migrant integration indicators help to identify policy trends across the EU. Currently, they cannot be used to answer, however, whether more favourable policies are effective in increasing

integration outcomes according to the outlined EU indicators.

2.3.3 Which integration policy factors influence social inclusion outcomes?

It seems that there are hardly any social policies targeted specifically at immigrants as most social policies in the field of poverty reduction apply to the whole population. There are some studies assessing whether social benefits reduce poverty more or less for immigrants and others that investigate whether immigrants receive more benefits than non-immigrants. However, for the most part the link between social policies and migrant integration remains largely under-researched.

2.3.4 Which integration policy factors influence active citizenship outcomes?

Naturalisation policies have a significant effect on immigrants' acquisition of citizenship. Researchers have used several citizenship policy indexes and come up with very similar results. Using MIPEX, many researchers have found positive correlations between countries' policies and naturalisation rates: the more restrictive the policy, the lower the overall rate. Eurostat's bivariate analysis finds that naturalisation policies explain 50% of the variation in Member States' naturalisation rates. Other colleagues focused on one immigrant group (Turks) and observed that differences in policies explained 43% of the variation in their naturalisation rates across 11 EU Member States. According to forthcoming EU funded project ACIT, immigrants from developed countries are more likely to naturalise in countries that facilitate naturalisation, while immigrants from developing countries are twice as likely. The dual citizenship policy of countries of origin also impacts naturalisation rates. According to the ACIT analysis, immigrants who come from countries allowing dual nationality are 88 percent more likely to naturalise in their new country of residence. Immigrants become citizens and long-term residence more often in countries where the process is more inclusive and where dual citizenship is accepted in both the country of origin and destination. Shorter residence requirements, acceptance of dual citizenship, some forms of birth-right citizenship, and support to pay naturalisation requirements are examples than can boost active citizenship of immigrants.

The interaction between citizenship acquisition and integration is a complex one. The acquisition of citizenship is not only a result of immigrants' integration, but also a status that further improves their social, economic, and political integration. Evidence of citizenship's impact on integration has been collected by researchers, including the OECD and the ACIT project. Some longitudinal studies find that naturalised immigrants tend to obtain better-paid and higher-skilled jobs, especially in the public sector. The most vulnerable immigrant groups are most likely to see their economic integration improve through naturalisation: first generation from low-income countries, the second generation, and in some cases groups with low employment rates. Citizenship can reduce real (or perceived) legal barriers and administrative costs for hiring immigrants. It is also a signal that somebody wants to settle long-term which increases incentives for employers to invest in an employee.

Long-term residence

Few quantitative research exists on the factors influencing long-term residence, partly due to the inavailability of data. The project's bivariate analysis used recently made available data on all national and EU permits. A slightly positive relationship emerges between long-term residence policies and the share of long-term residents. The more inclusive the policy, the more third-country nationals are long-term residents. The project's bivariate analysis also found a slightly negative relationship between naturalisation policies and the share of long-term residents. The more restrictive the naturalisation policies, the more third-country nationals are long-term residents.

Citizenship and long-term residence are only two elements of active citizenship. Other forms of political participation of migrants such as voting, membership and/or participation in organisations, running for or holding a political office, volunteering or participating in social movements and protests are to be further explored to capture immigrant's political and civic involvement.

CHAPTER 3:
The Relevance of EU migrant integration indicators

This section of the report discusses how already identified and possible additional EU indicators are relevant for integration. All existing and any proposed EU integration indicators are assessed in terms of their relevance for EU objectives,

national policies, and the research-evidence base. National and international studies have identified the relationships between different integration outcomes and policies. This project's research looked at the scientific relevance of the Zaragoza indicators. These and other integration indicators are ideally modelled on existing or proposed EU indicators and targets in various areas of European cooperation and on existing ways of calculating and collecting data.

In this regard, relevant indicators are either important for EU objectives, measured in national monitoring reports or associated by research evidence to have an association with migrant integration outcomes and policies. Most proposed additional indicators comply with the relevance criteria outlined in the 2009 Swedish EU Presidency's Conference Conclusions.[15] Taking into consideration the discussions at the seminars on existing examples of national integration monitoring and bearing in mind the definition of integration as a two way process, this project proposes to add a new area, namely Indicators of a 'Welcoming Society'.

Regarding all indicators, improving the data to better measure outcomes for immigrants can and is already partly be done within the existing cooperation and resources shared by Eurostat and the National Statistical Institutes. Further boosting can be done through the voluntary action of National Statistical Institutes.

List of Zaragoza indicators and proposed additional indicators

		EMPLOYMENT	EDUCATION	SOCIAL INCLUSION	ACTIVE CITIZENSHIP	WELCOMING SOCIETY
ZARAGOZA INDICATORS		Employment rate	Highest educational attainment	At-risk-of-poverty (and social exclusion)	Naturalisation rate	Perceived experience of discrimination (survey)*
		Unemployment rate	Tertiary attainment	Income	Share of long-term residence	Trust in public institutions (survey)*
		Activity rate	Early school leaving	Self-reported health status (controlling for age)	Share of elected representatives (research)*	Sense of belonging (survey)*
		Self-employment	Low-achievers (PISA)	Property ownership	Voter turnout (research)*	
		Over-qualification	Language skills of non-native speakers (LFS module)**			
PROPOSED NEW INDICATORS		Public sector employment	Early childhood education and care (SILC/PISA)**	Child poverty (SILC)	Participation in voluntary organisations (survey)*	Public perception of racial/ethnic discrimination (Eurobarometer)
		Temporary employment	Participation in lifelong learning (LFS, AES)	Self-reported unmet need for medical care (SILC)	Membership in trade unions (survey)*	Public attitudes to political leader with ethnic minority background (Eurobarometer)
		Part-time employment	Not in education, employment or training (LFS)	Life expectancy (SILC)	Membership in political parties (survey)*	
		Long-term unemployment	Resilient students (PISA)**	Healthy life years (SILC)	Political activity (survey)*	
		Share of foreign-diplomas recognised (survey)**	Concentration in low-performing schools (PISA)**	Housing cost overburden (SILC)**		
		Retention of international students (research)*		Overcrowding (SILC)**		
				In-work poverty-risk (SILC)		
				Persistent poverty-risk (SILC)		

Note: One star (*) marks indicators for which data needs to be collected or migrant sample sizes boosted. Two stars (**) mark indicators for which data is not available every year (ad hoc basis). The authors of this study propose a new category of indicators of the 'welcoming society'. It includes the already proposed Zaragoza indicators 'perceived discrimination', 'trust in public institutions' and 'sense of belonging'.

(15) Relevance criteria: Within one of four agreed areas; long and stable for data collection; existing and comparable for most Member States; limited in number; comparable in time; productive and cost-effective; simple to understand and easy to communicate; focused on outcome; subjective and objective

3.1 The relevance of EU migrant employment indicators

The existing migrant employment indicators are relevant for the general EU employment targets as well as integration policymakers and researchers. The first three core indicators – **activity, unemployment, and employment rates** – are strongly correlated to one another and measure the same aspects of labour market participation. One of the EUROPE 2020 Headline targets for inclusive growth—the *75% employment rate for women and men aged 20-64*—can be achieved by getting more people into work, including through the integration of migrants. The unemployment rate clearly demonstrates labour market disadvantages of the first and second generation.

Two additional indicators measure relevant aspects of the labour market: the 'quality' of employment (**over-qualification**) and type of employment (**self-employment**). Over-qualification rates and gaps are relatively easy-to-interpret and relevant in nearly all EU countries, where employers may waste the skills and qualifications of foreign/foreign-born men and women, especially non-EU migrants.[16] This project proposes one additional core employment indicator: public sector employment. **Public sector employment** is not just an indicator of the quality of employment. For the public sector to reflect the public that it serves, this indicator serves as a benchmark for long-term integration, particularly for naturalised immigrants and the second-generation. LFS includes information on occupational sector (e.g. education, health care). As was done by the OECD study 'settling in' (2012), public sector employment could be defined as

people working in occupations most likely to be funded by the public sector, such as public administration, human health and social work activities or education.

On an ad hoc basis, EU integration monitoring could report on other employment indicators, such as those raised by international research, seminar participants and the European Commission's Directorate General for Employment, Social Affairs and Inclusion. For example, part-time and temporary employment rates can be monitored for immigrants as key indicators of **under-employment**. In addition, further **dis-aggregations** by gender, education level and age group would demonstrate some of key determinants of migrant employment outcomes. The retention of international students was also raised by a few participants as a possible indicator of a favourable situation for labour market integration, even if this statistic is used traditionally to capture 'brain drain' and recently in some countries to indicate highly-skilled immigration.

3.2 The relevance of EU migrant education indicators

The Zaragoza migrant education indicators cover most of the relevant Europe 2020 and ET2020 benchmarks. For the second generation and for those who immigrated as children (the '1.5 generation'), the indicators on 'tertiary' and 'highest' educational attainment show not only their achievements, but also the areas for improvement in the educational system.[17] 'Early school leavers' are those people who have only achieved pre-primary, primary or lower secondary education. The 'low-achieving 15-year-olds in reading, mathematics and sciences,' an established ET2020 benchmark, shows the share of students who do not reach baseline proficiency. Within these indicators, the outcomes of the second generation can be a long-term 'benchmark' for integration. A good education brings benefits throughout a person's life, regardless of their employment status. Both first-generation immigrants and the welcoming society want to see improvements for the second generation as a sign of social mobility.

Points of discussion: Despite its overall usefulness, the activity rate is slightly harder to interpret as an integration indicator, since immigrants are on average younger than the general population and thus more likely to be younger studying or raising a family. This is why we recommend using this indicator with specific age groups (e.g. 25-54) to ensure better comparability. The interpretation of self-employment is also subject to debate, as migrants may turn to self-employment as an escape from long-term unemployment, discrimination, language barriers, or labour market restrictions. If any new indicator is not based on LFS or SILC, then data must be collected, e.g. on application or recognition rates for foreign qualifications (LFS).

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(16) *There is more information on how to measure and interpret the over-qualification rate in the discussion paper for the Berlin expert seminar on Employment in the context of this project. For the definition of overqualification, see glossary attached to this document.*

(17) *So far, data on second generation are not available from the core LFS but only in the ad-hoc modules. The next ad-hoc module is planned in 2014 (the previous one was carried out in 2008).*

This project proposes that the two remaining ET2020 benchmarks are relevant core indicators for migrant education: **participation in early childhood education and care and participation in lifelong learning** (i.e. adult participation in any forms of education or training). As noted by the EU Council in 2011, the ET2020 benchmark on adult learning is relevant for newcomers, who are under-represented in lifelong learning. Training helps them develop their potential, adapt to the local labour market, and improve their social participation. Increasing access to high quality early childhood education and care is also an integration priority raised by the EU council in 2009 and in their national integration policies.

Other migrant education indicators may interest the Commission and Member States. The share of people currently "not in education, employment, or training" (NEETs) captures the opportunities for training for unemployed or inactive people, either for young people aged 18-24 or more broadly for immigrant adults. Additional indicators have limited availability of migrant-specific variables. Disaggregation by age at migration, language spoken at home, and parents' socio-economic status (including education level) are worthwhile. PISA data can be used every three years to monitor disaggregations and indicators proven to influence outcomes, such as the concentration of immigrant pupils in schools with above-average shares of economically disadvantaged pupils and 'resilient students' – those coming from a disadvantaged socio-economic background but attaining high scores by international standards.

Points of discussion: For people who immigrated as adults, the 'highest' and 'tertiary' educational attainment indicators include both domestically-trained and foreign-trained people. Disaggregation by age at immigration would distinguish between these two groups.

For the indicator 'participation in early childhood education and care,' a difference of a few percentage points in participation rates between immigrant and native children can have a major impact on the educational careers of those children affected. To capture these small differences, countries would need to improve EU-SILC migrant sample sizes (see this project's data assessment report). Measuring language skills of non-native speakers would require several indicators in an EU-funded targeted survey or ad hoc module.

3.3 The relevance of EU migrants' social inclusion indicators

Immigrants are a critical target group for the EU's overall strategy on social inclusion and fighting poverty. As an overarching concept, social inclusion can be a priority for national integration policies and research. A basic income, housing, and good health are related to other areas of integration and may be pre-conditions for immigrants' participation in society.

In most EU countries, the general population has generally higher incomes and a lower risk-of-poverty-or-social-exclusion than the foreign-born, especially non-EU newcomers. Income is measured by the **median annual equalised disposable income.** The EU's overall target in this area is **the risk of poverty or social exclusion**. This composite indicator combines the share of those at risk of poverty, severely materially deprived or living in households with very low work intensity.

The EU integration indicators could include more key EU indicators on social inclusion and social protection, which are relatively easy-to-calculate using EU-SILC. Europe 2020 has a major focus on **child poverty**—across the EU, the risk-of-poverty for the children of foreign-born parent(s) is two-to-five times greater than for the children of the native-born. Additional indicators for discussion are **in-work poverty-risk** and **persistent poverty-risk**. 'In-work at-risk-of-poverty' monitors whether employment is a sufficient protection against poverty, since indeed immigrants are more likely to be in low-paying, temporary, or part-time jobs. **Persistent at-risk-of-poverty** provides insights into whether labour market activation policies are appropriate for long-term unemployed immigrants.

On health, **self-reported health status** can be reported at aggregate level and after controlling for age and gender. **Life expectancy, healthy life years,** and **self-reported unmet need for medical care** (see annex) are key indicators for the EU's OMC on Social Inclusion and Social Protection. They can be calculated based on available demographic data primarily through SILC, subject to reliability tests. Using self-reported health status and needs as well as life expectancy and healthy life years provides a useful combination of commonly used subjective and objective measures for further investigation of the health situation of immigrants in Europe.

On housing, foreigners and foreign-born people often live in insecure and overcrowded housing and face greater housing costs. **Property ownership** is

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an indicator of immigrants' long-term settlement in the country as well as a protection from discrimination on the rental market. In addition, **overcrowding** and **housing cost overburden** are two key general EU social inclusion indicators relevant for immigrants across Europe. Nearly 1 in 4 people in deprived or overcrowded housing in OECD countries live in an immigrant household. The housing cost overburden rate allows policymakers to assess how housing costs affects immigrants' poverty and quality of life.

> **Points of discussion**: Further disaggregation of the social inclusion indicators would be useful to identify more vulnerable groups, such as households with children, the elderly or long-term unemployed. Still, users should keep in mind that social exclusion cannot be fully captured through statistics, especially for the hardest-to-reach.

3.4 The relevance of EU migrants' active citizenship indicators

The EU has a broad policy agenda on active citizenship involving many institutions. Active citizenship is about the acquisition and the exercise of equal rights and responsibilities for immigrants and citizens. When immigrants take up and use equal rights and responsibilities, they send a strong signal to themselves and others about their sense of belonging in the country. Beyond this symbolic value, this process can improve immigrants' social, economic, and political participation, the public's perceptions of immigrants, and the democratic legitimacy of the state. On several occasions, ministers responsible for integration have agreed that immigrants should have the opportunity to naturalise, become long-term residents, and participate in the democratic process because these achievements support their integration and enhance their sense of belonging. Each of the EU's migrant active citizenship indicators is also supported by specific standards on active citizenship that Member States have agreed together at EU level.

Indicators on naturalisation, long-term residence, and civic participation are just as relevant as the other integration indicators because they also capture the different national contexts. For example, naturalisation is not simply the results of citizenship policies, but also the differences in immigrant populations and other policies in the country of residence and origin. The country of origin, duration of residence, and socio-economic participation are all related to naturalisation. Futhermore, naturalised immigrants generally have better integration outcomes than non-naturalised immigrants, often even after controlling for other factors. Not only

may naturalisation help immigrants become more integrated. But also more integrated immigrants may be more likely to naturalise. Active citizenship indicators like naturalisation can therefore be seen as both a final step in a process and as a tool to further improve integration in several areas of life.

The share of immigrants who acquired permanent or long-term residence is a relevant outcome measure for long-term residence. Long-term residence can now be measured as both the EU long-term residence permit (2003/109) and any other type of national long-term residence permit. The resulting indicator describes how common or uncommon it is for non-EU residents to have long-term residence and, by extension, the same socio-economic rights and responsibilities as nationals.

The share of immigrants who acquired citizenship is a long-standing indicator in national and international research on immigrant integration. Naturalisation is a reliable and meaningful measure of the outcomes of policies and of other key contextual factors, such as immigrants' motivation to naturalise, duration of residence, and settlement in the country. This indicator opens an important debate about the importance of these policies and other factors. Multiple measures of naturalisation complete the picture of citizenship acquisition. 'The share of naturalised immigrants' can measure on an ad hoc basis how many immigrants have become citizens over time (See Annex). A third measure could be an estimate of the 'naturalisation of eligible immigrants', calculated as either a share or rate and based on countries' ordinary requirement for years of residence.

> **Points of discussion**: The 2010 Zaragoza Declaration observed that 'there is currently no unified view among Member States on indicators in the area of active citizenship'. It explained that governments have different interpretations of active citizenship, depending on their political views, goals, and regulatory frameworks for integration policies. This project shows how active citizenship indicators can be used to measure the acquisition and use of rights, as both a means and an ends for successful integration. Analysis of these indicators thus provides governments and stakeholders an evidence-base to debate their different views, goals, and policies. This debate reveals the general need for greater research on both the effects of integration outcomes, including active citizenship, on other areas of integration as well as the links between their policy objectives and their policy outcomes.

Civic and political participation

This project proposes that the active citizenship indicators measure not only the acquisition but also the exercise of rights and responsibilities, namely civic and political participation. Beyond the existing additional indicators on **the share of immigrants among elected representatives** and **voter turnout among eligible immigrants,** the standard indicators of civic and political participation are **membership in voluntary organisations, membership in trade unions, membership in political parties, and political activities (e.g. contacting politicians, petitions, boycotts, demonstrations)**. These indicators would illustrate the process of civic and political participation before and after naturalisation. In particular, disaggregation for naturalised citizens and foreigners would capture the levels of participation for immigrants who cannot or do not want to naturalise, since citizenship is not a requirement for all forms of democratic participation. Immigrants' participation can currently only be measured internationally by pooling data over long periods of time. To capture this data, the EU can invest in a targeted survey of immigrants or boosting immigrant samples in the European Social Survey or EU-SILC's ad hoc module on social participation. Methodologies are also available to measure immigrants' sense of belonging and representation in political and decision-making bodies. Both aspects were highlighted as a potentially complex to capture but significant complementary element to analyse integration in this area.

3.5 The relevance of EU indicators of a welcoming society

This project proposes for discussion indicators to measure how the receiving society plays a role for migrant integration. The way that the 'receiving society' perceives integration can have a serious impact on the how immigrants integrate into society. These more 'subjective' measurements can be used complementary to more 'objective' integration outcome indicators. In every expert seminar, participants asked for indicators that measure integration as the two-way process of mutual accommodation, as stated by the first EU Common Basic Principle. Many national monitors already use such indicators. Alternatively, these indicators could be part of the existing four areas.

These indicators capture the cross-cutting issues of discrimination and the subjective attitudes of the general public and of immigrants them-selves. Similar indicators crop up in integration monitoring at local, national, and international level (e.g. OECD, ILO). The 2010 Zaragoza Declaration has already named additional indicators that are relevant as indicators of a welcoming society: **experiences of discrimination; trust in public institutions**; and **sense of belonging**. Using these 'subjective' indicators, initial European research has found that the 'sense of belonging' and 'trust in political institutions' among the foreign-born is related to other integration outcomes and tends to converge with those of natives over time. Moreover, a significant body of national and international research exists on measuring discrimination, whether through the ILO's situation testing or minorities' own perceptions (e.g. EU-MIDIS study). This subjective data can be collected through a targeted immigrant survey or boosting immigrant samples in existing European surveys. It is less reliable to pool existing survey data over a period of, for example, more than three years; however, this can be a cost-effective, short-term option.

So far, none of the existing EU indicators directly address the general public. The Eurobarometer asks the public about their awareness of discrimination towards immigrants. The same public questions on discrimination are conducted annually by Eurostat's Eurobarometer service. This project proposes to use two key indicators – **public perception of ethnic discrimination in the country** and **public attitudes towards a political leader with an ethnic minority background**. Around half of EU citizens (56 %) still think that ethnic discrimination is widespread in their country – and more so than other grounds of discrimination. Beneath this EU average lays a wide gulf in public perceptions of ethnic discrimination in different EU Member States. In addition, Europeans are still only slightly comfortable with the idea that someday their country could be led by a person with an ethnic minority background. On a scale from 0-10, the average European put their comfort level with a female president or prime minister at a 8,6. For an ethnic minority candidate, they gave a 6,5. The average European would only feel more uncomfortable with someone under 30, over 75, or transgendered or transsexual. While ethnic discrimination and ethnic minorities cover wider groups than persons with an immigrant background, these public attitudes are a helpful barometer for specific attitudes towards diverse immigrant groups, particularly those with different racial and ethnic backgrounds. As noted earlier in this report, the public's openness and awareness of discrimination tends to be greater in countries with significant gaps in integration outcomes and more inclusive integration policies.

Indicators of the welcoming society could be used to facilitate how public opinion and perception of discrimination influence integration outcomes – a link which receives growing attention in research.

CHAPTER 4:
Migrant integration and the Europe 2020

The Europe 2020 Strategy is the European Union's ten-year growth strategy. It sets out overall targets in the area of employment, education, environment, poverty and social exclusion. All Member States have committed to achieving Europe 2020 targets and have translated them into national targets and policies. The targets are coordinated through monitoring, coordination and reporting in the framework of the European Semester, a yearly cycle of economic policy coordination. The Europe 2020 targets are relevant for immigrant integration, namely employment, early school leaving, tertiary education, poverty or social exclusion.

However, **migrant integration has so far not sufficiently been mainstreamed into main EU policy areas despite the fact that there are well-functioning policy mechanisms in place**. Only a few indicators used in these mechanisms have been disaggregated for immigrants even when data allows for such break-downs. The outcomes of the Analysis Report can be used to incorporate immigrant integration into the monitoring and target setting of established policy frameworks in employment, education and social inclusion.

Closing the gap

This report outlines relevant factors that influence migrant integration to inform integration policies at various levels of governance. Integration policy often aims at closing the gap between immigrants and non-immigrants in the EU. Providing equal opportunities for immigrants and delivering specific support are important because immigrants are a particular vulnerable group. Furthermore, society as a whole benefits from closing the gaps between people with and without an immigrant background, in particular where and when immigrants are or become a large part of the population.

Between 10-15 % of the total population in EU-15 countries were foreign-born in 2010. Immigrants are particularly overrepresented among younger age groups in many countries. According to a Eurostat working paper on demographic projections of the foreign-born population in EU countries from 2010, the share of foreign-born is likely to more than double by 2061. The most conservative projection estimates that 26.5 % of the EU population would have a 'foreign background' by 2061. By 2061, at least every third person in Austria, Belgium, Cyprus, Germany, Greece, Luxemburg, Portugal, Spain, Sweden, and the United Kingdom is estimated to have a foreign background. As the relative importance of immigrants in our society increases, the outcomes of migrant integration become more relevant for where the general society is heading.

If policymakers in a Member State want to reduce the number of students leaving schools without a degree, they have to take into account the particular challenges of immigrants as they represent a large share of new children in school in many countries. They then may wish to compare this group with their peers without an immigrant background and control for gender and socio-economic background.

To illustrate the impact of effectively integrating immigrants into the EU agenda, the project has calculated a 'closing the gap-scenario' using several indicators as examples. The 'closing the gap- scenario' assumes equal outcomes of the migrant population in comparison with the total population. Based on this hypothetical scenario, we show the potential impact of complete convergence of outcomes on overall improvement and on meeting the respective Europe 2020 targets (see annex for full list).[18]

Currently, the total employment rate in the EU is 69 %. The employment rate for the foreign-born is 64 %. The Europe 2020 target is to increase the overall rate to 75 %. Closing the employment gap for foreign-born immigrants accounts for 10.7 % of meeting the Europe 2020 target across all EU countries for which targets and data are available. Given the 'no gap scenario', Austria, Germany, the Netherlands, and Sweden would half-way meet their national Europe 2020 target (see annex).

Member States could prevent half a million people from leaving school early, if they could close

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the gap for migrants. This accounts for 8.7 % of all early school leavers in the EU. The EU as a whole would be 30 % closer its headline target of reducing the early school leaver rate from 14 to 10 %. The 'no gap scenario' accounts for more than 50 % of reaching the target in Belgium, Cyprus, Denmark, Germany, Greece, and Italy. In fact, Sweden would exceed its national education target (see Annex).

23 % of the EU population is at risk of poverty or social exclusion. The rate is 9 % higher for the foreign-born population (32 %). If this gap were closed, the EU could lift 3.3 million immigrants out of poverty or social exclusion. This number accounts for 5 % of all people at risk of poverty or social exclusion in the EU. This stands for 17 % of all people at risk of poverty or social exclusion in

Austria, 19 % in Belgium, and almost 19 % in Sweden. Closing the gap for immigrants would bring the whole of the EU 16.2 % closer to reaching its headline poverty target. The migrant gap represents more than 50 % of the national targets in Austria, Belgium, Greece, and the Netherlands.

Of course, the 'no gap scenario' is unlikely in the short run. It is based on targets and population statistics that are subject to constant changes. However, this exercise is useful to emphasise that **immigrants play a significant role for Europe in reaching its overall targets**. Mainstreaming migrant integration into established monitoring and target setting mechanism at EU level is crucial to account for the (increasing) relative importance of the migrant population in many EU countries.

The 'closing the gap – scenario' for the Europe 2020 headline

	Rate of the total population, % 2010	Rates of the foreign-born, % 2010	Europe 2020 Target (2011)	The number of people lifted out of poverty risk or social exclusion given the 'no migrant gap scenario'	% of all people that would be lifted out of poverty risk or social exclusion given the 'no migrant gap scenario'	Share of 'no migrant gap' of reaching the Europe 2020 targets, in %
EU25 (w/o RO, SL)	23	32	20000000	3249117	49	16.2
Belgium	20	40	380000	225665	19.6	59.4
Bulgaria	37	45	260000	3654	1.9	1.4
Czech Republic	14	24	Remain the same	34488	3.7	
Denmark	19	39	22000 low work intensity	76707	12.2	
Germany	21	28	33000 long-term unemployed	598311	5.8	
Estonia	22	26	Only risk of poverty	5749	3.2	
Ireland	29	31	186000	9213	1.2	5.0
Greece	28	51	450000	230768	12.0	51.3
Spain	25	36	1450000	564851	7.7	39.0
France	20	32	Only risk of poverty	629175	8.5	
Italy	24	34	2200000	391679	4.4	17.8
Cyprus	20	31	27000	11718	11.4	43.4
Latvia	37	40	121000	7972	1.5	6.6
Lithuania	34	37	170000	3710	0.5	2.2
Luxembourg	18	22	x	5601	10.2	
Hungary	30	26	450000	-13844	-0.7	-3.1
Malta	19	23	6560	928	1.9	14.2
Netherlands	16	28	100000	181759	11.2	181.8
Austria	16	30	235000	139409	17.0	59.3
Poland	28	27	1500000	-409	0.0	0.0
Portugal	24	24	200000	-2638	-0.2	-1.3
Romania	40	:	580000			
Slovenia	18	27	40000	17916	7.5	44.8
Slovakia	20	27	170000	0		
Finland	17	40	150000	42716	7.9	28.5
Sweden	14	28	x	142747	18.7	
United Kingdom	21	28	x	379597	4.9	

PART 2: Data assessment[19]

CHAPTER 5:
Availability of indicators

Availability of indicators primarily depends on the sample sizes (i.e. number of observations) of immigrants in the data sources, because the majority of indicators are based on sample surveys. The quality criteria for publication depend on the data source of each of the indicators.[20]

The data source for migrant integration indicators in the area of employment is the European Union Labour Force Survey (LFS). For the annual dataset of the EU LFS publishing guidelines are set by Eurostat, which depend on the estimated figures based on the sample (i.e. the weighted figures). The thresholds were set in order to avoid publication of figures based on unreliable data (i.e. too few observations) and to maintain confidentiality. The reliability limits are considered high enough given that the limits were chosen based on sample sizes (for each country separately).[21]

The data source for the social inclusion area is the European Union Statistics on Income and Living Conditions (SILC). Data from the EU-SILC are published when an estimate is based on 50 or more sample observations and the item non-response does not exceed 20 percent. Estimates based on 20 to 49 sample observations or non-response between 20 and 50 percent are flagged as unreliable. Estimates based on fewer than 20 sample observations or non-response exceeding 50 percent are not published.

The data source for one of the education indicators is the Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA).[22] PISA data are not published if the estimates are based on fewer than 30 students or less than five schools.

Due to the limitations of smaller sample sizes for immigrants, it is mostly countries with low numbers of immigrants where data are missing according to Eurostat's publishing guidelines. Major problems with availability of the majority of indicators concern the countries Bulgaria, Hungary, Malta, Lithuania, Poland, Romania and Slovakia. For illustration of availability of indicators for third country nationals aged 25 to 54, see Figure 5 in the annex.

The only indicator defined in the Zaragoza Declaration that could not be produced due to missing data sources is the indicator on political representation of immigrants ('immigrants among elected representatives'). No international data collection on this indicator is available at the moment.

A potential source for data on political participation of immigrants is the European Social Survey (ESS), which however does not qualify for annual monitoring sample sizes of immigrants remain too small. Several waves of the survey need to be pooled in order to obtain large enough samples (see discussion below). Pooling can be a cost-effective short-term solution to make available more data to measure immigrant integration while it has to be kept in mind that some quality of data is lost in the process. The best available indicators for all groups are the activity and employment rates as well as the rates of persons holding long term residence status (third country nationals only) and acquisitions of citizenship. All other indicators are in principle available for all groups (foreign population or foreign-born) most countries, but availability is reduced when further breakdowns are made (e.g. by gender, age groups, born in the EU vs. born outside of the EU, EU-citizens vs. third-country nationals). The best availability of indicators is achieved for the foreign-born population as the relevant sample size are higher than for foreigners in most cases.

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(19) This section is drafted by Albert Kraler and David Reichel (of the ICMPD). The authors of the report are responsible for the final version.

(20) Cf. Eurostat 2011: Indicators of Immigrant Integration. A Pilot Study. 2011 edition. Eurostat Methodologies and Working papers. Luxembourg, pp. 18-22.

(21) Contrary to the EU SILC, there is not the same minimum number of observations set, which is needed for publishing results. But the underlying minimum sample sizes appear similar to those of the EU-SILC, as described in the following.

(22) Other potential data sources for education indicators are the TIMMS and PIRLS survey. However, these were not considered in this study because too few EU countries have participated in these surveys and the migrant sample is generally too small for comparative analysis. PIRLS and TIMMS also focus on students in the same grade rather than the same age which makes the comparison across countries more difficult.

CHAPTER 6:
Quality of data sources

The data sources used for the production of the indicators include the EU-Labour Force Survey (EU LFS), the EU Statistics on Income and Living Conditions (EU-SILC), OECD's Programme for International Students Assessment (PISA) as well as Eurostat's migration statistics. This section highlights the main issues related to the quality of the data, including representativeness of data, reliability of data and comparability across countries. For a more detailed description and analysis of the data, reference is made to the comprehensive assessment report (Data Assessment Background Report).

6.1 The LFS and EU-SILC

The main surveys, EU LFS and EU-SILC, are EU-wide surveys, which are implemented by national statistical institutes (NSIs). EU LFS is the largest and the EU-SILC the second largest population survey in Europe. Because of their large samples the surveys can be used for monitoring issues related to immigrants. However, since the samples represent the total population, the numbers of immigrants included in the samples are lower. Particularly in countries with low numbers/ percentages of immigrants, sample sizes of immigrants are naturally lower as well. The quality criteria employed by Eurostat are based on good experience with data collection. The quality criteria define minimum numbers of observations (and response rates), which need to be met before data are published. Data based on observations below certain thresholds are either flagged as being of limited reliability or not published. The reliability limits are deemed sufficient. The same applies to PISA which is an internationally organised survey and therefore highly comparable across countries.

The LFS as well as the other surveys were not designed as a tool to monitor migrant integration and thus immigrants are captured to a varying extent in EU Member States. Some countries have made increasing efforts to capture immigrants by using multi-lingual questionnaires and interviewers. Some countries also include the number of immigrants (or mostly non-nationals) in the total population when producing weights accounting for non-response.

The overall sample sizes in the LFS yearly dataset 2009 range from 12,370 in Island and just below 20,000 in Luxembourg and Estonia to a maximum of almost 660,000 in Italy. The average sample size provided is 150,000. The sample numbers of foreign-born persons range from 94 in Bulgaria to over 42,000 in Italy and 44,260 in France. The average number of foreign-born interviewed in the yearly dataset is 11,100. When restricting the samples to foreign-born persons aged 25 to 54 the sample sizes decrease to an average of below 6,500 (ranging from 36 to 28,000). Figure 1, below, shows the sample sizes of the annual LFS dataset 2009.

Figure 1: Sample sizes of different migrant population sub-groups in LFS 2009 yearly dataset
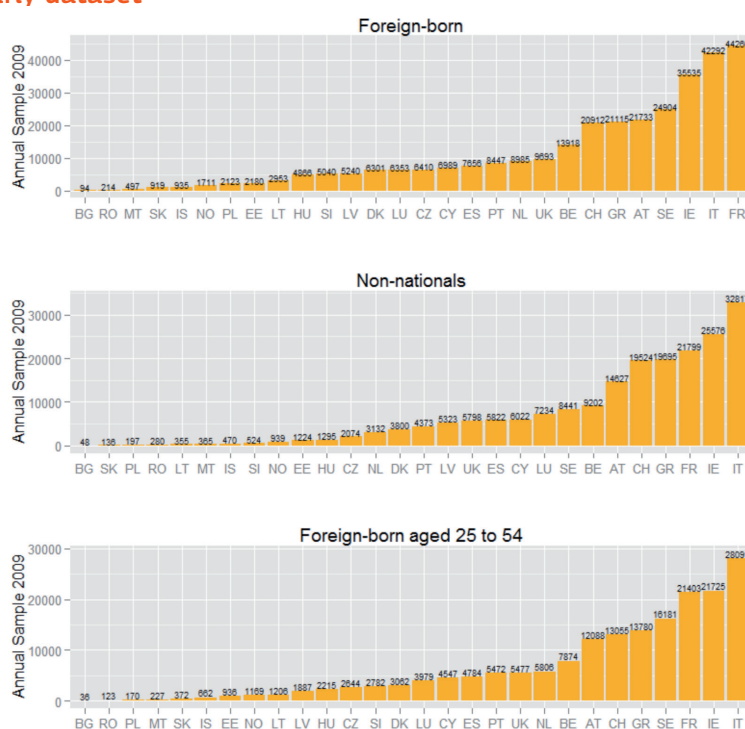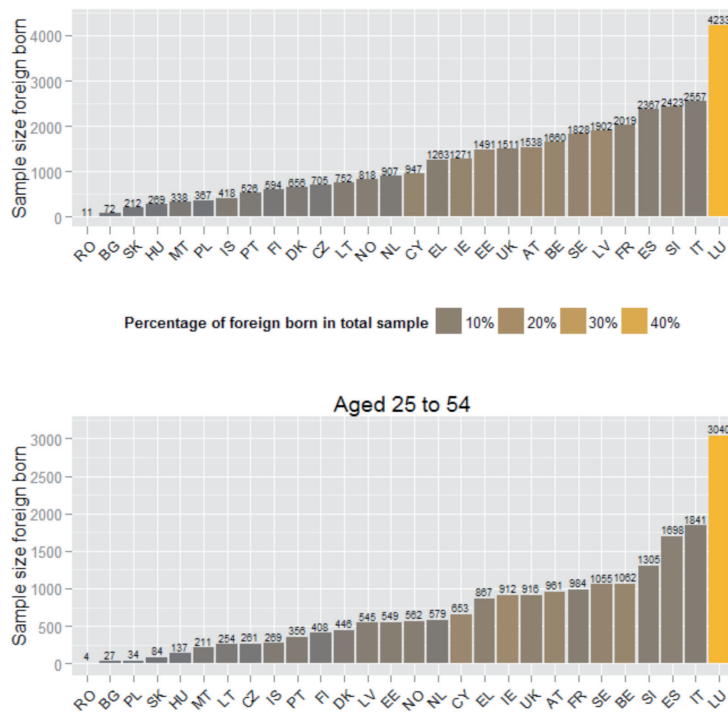

Source: EU-LFS, own calculations, Germany missing due to denied access to micro-data

EU SILC is an international comparative survey which has been methodologically well developed involving much expertise and methodological research. It is a good source for providing indicators on immigrant integration.

The sample sizes required for each participating country are defined by EU regulations. The total samples of the EU SILC 2009 cross-sectional data range from a minimum of 6,500 in Island or 7,500 in Cyprus to a maximum of 43,000 in Italy. Naturally, the numbers of foreign-born is much smaller in the samples ranging from 11 in Romania to 4,233 in Luxembourg (mean of 1,200). Focusing only on the age group 25 to 54 the samples of foreign-born range from 4 to 3040 (mean of 715).

Figure 2: Sample sizes of foreign-born in EU SILC 2009 cross-sectional data file, total and age group 25 to 54

Source: Own calculation, EU SILC 2009, Germany missing due denied access to micro-data

Thus, most countries show modest sample sizes for the foreign-born population. Romania and Bulgaria as well as Poland clearly do not include enough immigrants to present reliable estimates on certain key indicators when data is broken down by gender.

6.2 PISA[23]

PISA achieves a good coverage of its target population (15 year-old students) and no major impact of non-response is assumed. Countries with insufficient sample sizes for immigrants are excluded. Very recent immigrants without sufficient language skills can be excluded, but immigrants who are taught in the assessment language just little longer than a year should be kept in the sample. It is thus not surprising that there are immigrants included which have more difficulties in solving the tasks requested by PISA due to lack of language skills.

Figure 3 shows sample sizes in the PISA 2009 data of foreign-born students. There are five countries with samples below 60, which leads to unavailability of estimates differentiated by gender.

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(23) *Other potential data sources for education indicators are the TIMMS and PIRLS survey. However, these were not considered in this study because too few EU countries have participated in these surveys and the migrant sample is generally too small for comparative analysis. PIRLS and TIMMS also focus on students in the same grade rather than the same age which makes the comparison across countries more difficult.*

Figure 3: Sample sizes of foreign-born in PISA 2009 in EU-27, Accession and Candidate Countries
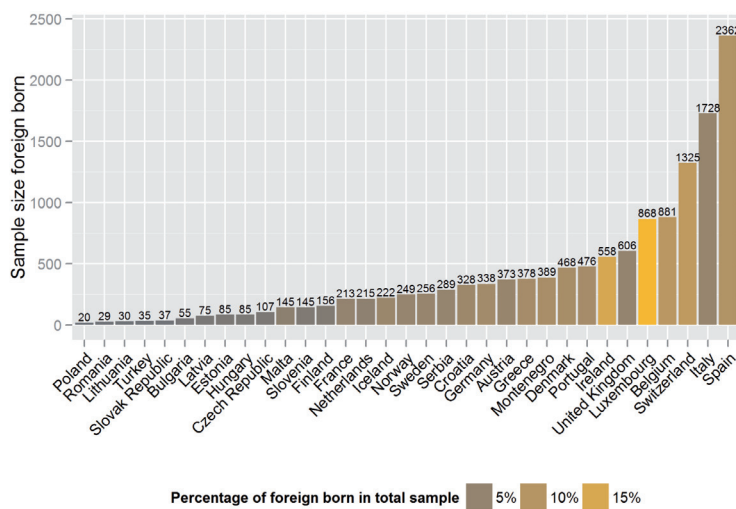
Source: PISA 2009

For future use of the LFS and EU-SILC as a source for the European indicators of migrant integration, efforts should continue to increasingly capture immigrants in all EU countries. The discussion of harmonised ways to produce weights (based on country of birth, citizenship or not) should be continued as well. Clearly, more methodological research is needed on this issue in the future.

Problems with data quality – especially sample sizes – can be further addressed by presenting uncertainty in the results (i.e. confidence intervals). Estimating confidence intervals for immigrants has to be made in a consistent manner by National Statistical Institutes (NSIs).

All data sources are good representations of the total population. There are some known problems with coverage of immigrants. Immigrants sometimes show higher non-response rates and are sometimes not well covered in the samples (especially recent immigrants and immigrants with lower social background or poor language knowledge). Countries have started addressing these problems with improvements expected in the future.

Non-response limits the quality of sample surveys since they bias the sample for certain characteristics and they increase the variance of the results of the survey. The weighting of results reduces bias, but only for those characteristics which can explain non-response. All countries are required to weight the sample of the LFS based on certain characteristics known for the total population.

Most countries weight the LFS by regional distribution, age and sex. Additionally, eight countries (DK, DE, EE, ES, IT, LU, AT, CH) used information on nationality for weighting the results of the LFS 2009. The Netherlands used information on ethnic background for weighting[24]

Variations in the degree of comparability are unavoidable in international settings due to differences in data collection methods, definitions of the target population or specific quality issues. However, in terms of definitions used for concepts, the LFS and EU-SILC can be considered the best available sources providing harmonised definitions based on international standards defined by international organisations and regulated by EU legislation. Nevertheless, there is still room for improvement as national questionnaires still differ, for example, in regard to key variables such as the labour status (cf. Eurostat 2011c: 27-28). Lack of comparability over time is another issue. Due to the recent introduction of the indicators of migrant integration, changes over time do not yet play a major role for the reliability of the results. However, comparability over time should be looked at in the future given changes of data collection in the 1980s and, especially in recent years in some Member States.

Finally, there is a lot of potential for more research and analysis on migrant integration by using data from the EU LFS and EU-SILC (also PISA), which should be exhausted in order to further examine the meaning of indicators and

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(24) Eurostat (2011): Labour force survey in the EU, candidate and EFTA countries. Main characteristics of national surveys, 2009. Eurostat Methodologies and Working papers.
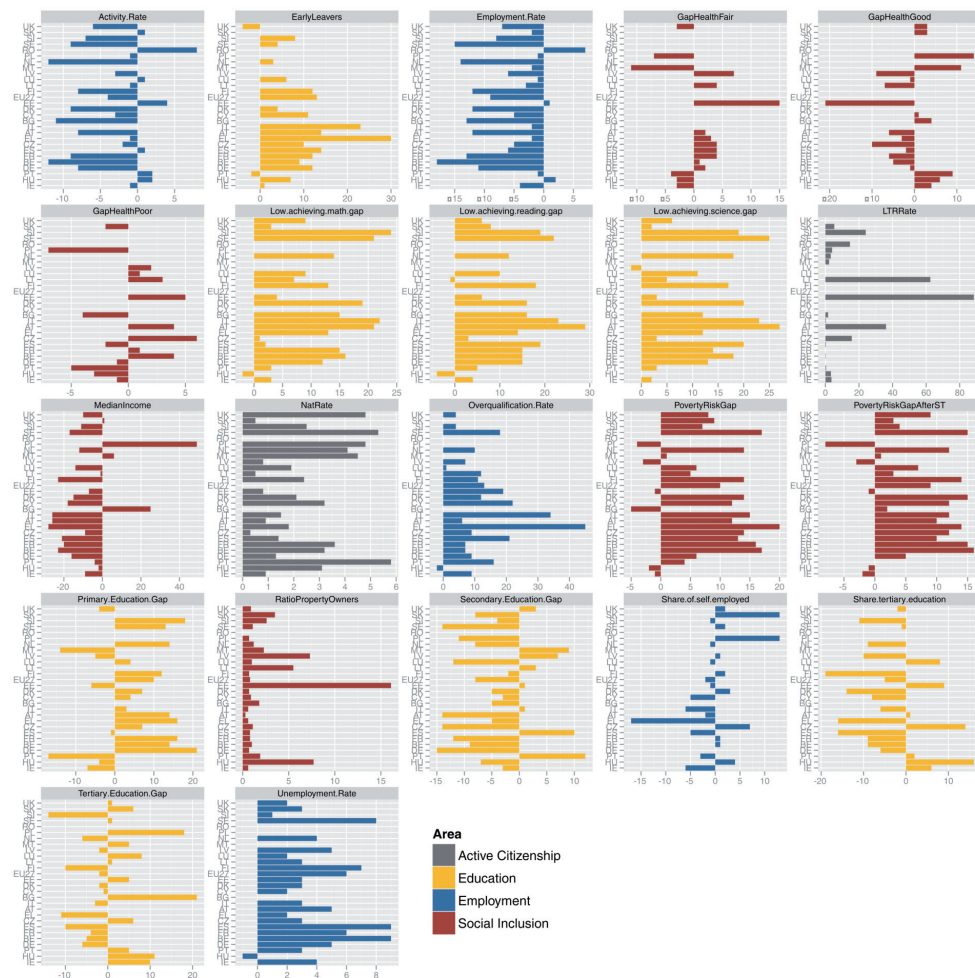
further the knowledge on issues related to immigrants' integration in Europe. For instance, the longitudinal component of EU-SILC could be used for measuring integration processes over four years in countries with large enough samples.

Contrary to the data in the areas of employment, education and social inclusion, data on citizenship acquisitions and long term residence status (area active citizenship) are based on national administrative data. Therefore, the data are much more reliable and generally good coverage is achieved. Differences in comparability stem from differences in national legislations (which are sometimes difficult to harmonise across countries) and differences in capturing the foreign population by migration statistics. Eurostat has considerably improved data collection on the foreign population through the implementation of the EC Regulation 862/2007 on Community statistics on migration and international protection in the past years.

CHAPTER 7:
Robustness of indicators

Robustness refers to the question whether or not data are prone to outliers (e.g. extreme cases) and therefore unreliable. Analysing the data published by Eurostat shows that there are a few special cases of outliers. For instance, the gap in the employment rates between the foreign-born population and the total population in Romania is much higher than the gaps in other countries, which might be explained by limited reliability of the data (as indicated by Eurostat). The gaps in the percentages of persons holding a certain level of education differ significantly across countries. This is presumably due to the different characteristics of immigrant groups in the countries and is therefore not a problem of unreliability of the estimates. Here it is important to highlight the difference between data reliability and proper interpretation. The consistency of the results can be studied in Figure 4, below.

Figure 4: Results of indicators on migrant integration foreign-born, aged 25 to 54, 2009

Notes: Median Income was subtracted by 100. Source: ICMPD calculations based on data from Eurostat Pilot Study 2011

Within the four areas, a high degree of internal consistency is observed, which means that within each of the four areas, all indicators are statistically related to some extent. Among the employment indicators for men only, there is some inconsistency observable. Some indicators show a few outliers which partly stem from data with limited reliability. Data are more consistent when broken down by gender. The indicators on health status, gaps in educational levels, the gap in self-employed persons as well as the long-term resident status rate show strong variations. The reasons for the variations can be also explained by differences in the situations across countries and must not be a result of unreliability in the data. Explanations for such strong variation across countries need further investigation.

In spite of missing data from some countries and missing data for some indicators the overall situation related to data availability and quality is positively. There are enough reliable and robust data for making international comparisons across the Member States of the European Union (EU). The LFS and PISA data have been successfully explored for the use of migrant integration. Current changes to SILC data expect to provide new opportunities for using SILC data to measure migrant integration.

CHAPTER 8: Alternative data sources

The data sources used for the indicators on migrant integration are without doubt the best available sources for the purpose of monitoring immigrant integration throughout the EU and for producing the indicators defined in the Zaragoza Declaration. There are no other internationally comparable data sources as good as the EU LFS and EU SILC for providing annual data covering migrants in comparison to the total population.

Other international – generally high quality surveys – are, among others, the European Social Survey (ESS), the Eurobarometer, the World Values Survey, the European Values Survey, the European Election Study and the International Social Survey Programme. Those surveys – in spite of their generally good quality – do not provide sufficiently large samples of immigrants for annual or biennial monitoring of migrant integration.

It is generally not recommended to use alternative sources from national data sources, as for instance from existing register data or national specific surveys with larger samples. The use of national data sources is not recommended because the data are mostly not comparable with the data from other countries due to deviating definitions and coverage of the target population. Since there is no tool to systematically check comparability, there is no better solution than to stick to internationally organised and cross-checked data collections (like the ones used). Data from national data sources, often drawn from national registers, are usually of higher quality than from internationally harmonised data sources. Although it is obvious that national data sources allow for more detailed analysis, the advantage of comparability of international surveys is necessary for the purpose of EU-wide integration monitoring.

CHAPTER 9: Availability of data sources for additional indicators

There are various potential additional indicators for monitoring the integration of immigrants in the European Union. Eurostat already produced results for additional indicators on overqualification, self-employment and risk-of-poverty and social inclusion. According to the assessment of the project coordinator (Migration Policy Group), further potential additional indicators in the area of employment were identified: temporary employment, part-time employment, long-term unemployment and public sector employment. These indicators are available from the EU Labour Force Survey and are thus regularly produced in all EU Member States. Potential additional indicators in the area of social inclusion include in-work at-risk-of-poverty, at-risk-of-poverty rate before social transfers (except pensions), persistent at-risk-of-poverty, housing cost overburden rate, as well as other indicators related to health, such as unmet health needs. All these indicators are available for most of EU countries from EU-SILC data.

The potential additional indicators in the area active citizenship are related to civic and political participation, such as membership in organisations, membership in trade unions, membership in political parties, volunteering or contact with decision-makers. These indicators are measured in the European Social Survey; however, sample sizes are too small for annual use. Even pooled data for two or three years may not be enough

to compare immigrants across many EU countries, with regard to one specific indicator. Moreover, the importance of measuring discrimination in the framework of integration monitoring systems was highlighted by participants at the expert seminars organised in the framework of this project and the project coordinators. Besides experiences of discrimination, data on awareness of discrimination in society and awareness of rights of discrimination legislation / equality bodies are deemed useful to monitor discrimination against immigrants.[25]

In addition, other indicators identified in the Zaragoza Declaration are language skills, experiences of discrimination, trust in public institutions, voter turnout among the population entitled to vote, and sense of belonging. All of these potential additional indicators are not available for immigrants from the main international surveys. Major European opinion surveys collect data on these indicators (except language skills), but the sample sizes are not large enough to monitor integration of immigrants on an annual or biennial basis.

However, that is not to say that monitoring such indicators is not possible, but currently only to a limited extent. General improvements and availability of additional indicators can be achieved either via increasing samples of existing surveys or via targeted data collections, such as the inclusion of targeted modules in existing surveys.

The most promising source for political participation and discrimination is the European Social Survey (ESS)[26] which has been conducted five times since 2002. The survey allows one off evaluations on the additional indicators by merging data from several waves and, thus, making statements on longer periods of time.[27] If the ESS or other opinion surveys are to be used for monitoring immigrant integration, a solution would be to boost samples of immigrants in order to obtain more reliable results. Current sample sizes of immigrants in the ESS range from around 20 up to over 300 per country.

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(25) For a discussion on measuring discrimination against immigrants see: OECD (2012): Settling In. OECD Indicators of Immigrant Integration. http://www.oecd.org/migration/integrationindicators/ or Fundamental Rights Agency (2011): Migrants, Minorities and Employment – Exclusion and discrimination in the 27 Member States of the European Union (Update 2003-2008). Section 4.

(26) Another source for political participation could be the European Election Study (ESS, see http://www.ees-homepage.net/ and http://www.piredeu.eu/) and for discrimination the European Union minorities and discrimination survey (EU-MIDIS, see http://fra.europa.eu/en/project/2011/eu-midis-european-union-minorities-and-discrimination-survey).

(27) See for instance the OECD indicators on immigrant integration, which also use ESS data from all five waves OECD (2012): Settling In. OECD Indicators of Immigrant Integration. http://www.oecd.org/migration/integrationindicators/.

PART 3: Using EU indicators

Introduction

Monitoring integration has become a reality at local, regional, national, and international level. At the 13-14 December 2011 Justice and Home Affairs Council, Member States proposed to work with the Commission to further use the common integration indicators, as part of a non-binding coordination mechanism to improve existing structures and tool for EU knowledge exchange. This report outlines how policy actors can further use indicators to improve integration.

The first section of the report summarises experiences with integration indicators in the Member States and with indicators for the EU's general policy goals, which are also relevant for integration. Drawing on these lessons learned, the main section of this report proposes an incremental approach to using the EU integration indicators at EU level and within the Member States. Throughout the development of the EU integration indicators pilot project, three key purposes have been discussed for integration indicators: understanding the national contexts for integration in a comparative way, evaluating the results of policies, and using targets to mainstream and improve integration. The EU has already achieved first steps on all three policy purposes through already existing EU indicators, this project's analysis, and existing EU-funded sources. These current achievements should be continued and used as the starting point for further analysis. Building on this baseline, the Commission and Member States can obtain better tools for evidence-based policymaking. A detailed picture of integration, robust policy evaluations, and greater mainstreaming can make policies more effective for immigrants and better accepted by the public.

This main section proposes that the integration indicators build on existing European cooperation with integration stakeholders. The report considers what roles EU integration stakeholders and networks can play in developing and using the indicators. Eurostat and national statistical institutes are working to supply and improve data. Integration information and indicators are regularly gathered through Eurostat, the European Website on Integration, the European Migration Network, and EU-funded research. The NCPIs and European Integration Forum can be consulted for their insights of policymakers, practitioners, and immigrant representatives. The report highlights the added value of EU integration indicators for both Member States with and without existing national integration indicators. Using these indicators involves enhanced cooperation of Eurostat, the various Commission Directorate-Generals, the Member States, and stakeholders.

CHAPTER 10: Background on using integration indicators

10.1 Key issues for integration indicators

What do integration indicators tell us about integration? Are high employment rates for immigrants a measure for 'good integration' policy? Are small differences in educational attainment between immigrants and non-immigrants a good benchmark for 'integration'? This project highlighted a number of issues to keep in mind when designing or using indicators, whatever the policy field.

Who is an immigrant?

The definition of immigrants in international statistics depends on the available variables that can identify immigrants in the dataset. 'Immigrant' is a catch-all category which can refer to 'country of birth', 'citizenship', 'country of birth of parents'. Based on these variables, immigrants are referred to as 'foreign-born', 'foreigners', 'second generation.' Immigrants born to at least one foreign-born parent are referred to 'mixed background'. Age groups are also important for analysing indicators. Most indicators focus on a specific sub-group of the population. For example, employment rates look at immigrants between 20 and 64, while early school leaver rates look at immigrants aged 18 to 24. The population of one age group may have different characteristics than the majority of immigrants of all ages.

Who is missing from statistics?

The most socially excluded people are often under-represented in the surveys upon which many national and EU indicators are built. They may be under-sampled due to their higher non-response rates. In many countries, people are excluded from SILC if they are living in collective housing or homeless. Official statistics will never capture all hard-to-reach groups.

Measuring rates vs. gaps

It is important to consider the type of comparison relevant for integration. Rates are shares or levels measured as percentages. Gaps are the difference between the shares of immigrants and the total or non-immigrant population. The two measurements are two different ways of looking at society. For example, smaller gaps are generally observed for Central European countries, mainly because the rates for the total population tend to be lower in comparison to the total population in Western European countries. One might also think that rates and gaps are negatively correlated; when shares of immigrants increase, the gaps between immigrants and the total population would decrease. However, this is not always the case because the share for the total population may have increased to an even larger extent than the share for immigrants. As a result, both rates and gaps are relevant to compare the situation of immigrants across countries.

Reference group

Who do we compare immigrants to? Eurostat has selected the 'total population' as a reference group. This includes immigrants. Including immigrants in the reference group may have some effect on the results, depending on the proportion of immigrants within the total population and the size of the difference in shares/levels between the two groups. Comparing immigrants to non-immigrants is more precise for measuring the situation of immigrants. However, the total population may be a relevant reference group to measure in how far immigrants are converging towards the whole of society, of which they are part.

Areas of integration: employment, education, social inclusion, and active citizenship

This project's analysis showed that the indicators results within one area of integration are often correlated to one another. For example, countries' with high outcomes on one education indicator (e.g. reading skills of 15 year olds) usually also have high outcomes on other education indicators (e.g. early school leaving). The

different areas of integration are not always correlated to one another. Looking at only one or two areas of integration, such as employment or education, provides a misleading picture. Most countries have high outcomes in one area and low outcomes in another.

How does society affect integration?

The characteristics of the receiving society are a key but often neglected factor that influences the integration situation and the effectiveness of integration policies. Integration 'outcomes' may be less the result of targeted integration policies. The structure of the school system, the labour market, or the political system, may have a greater effect on immigrants' educational attainment, employment situation, or political participation. The situation of immigrants in many of these areas is also related to the situation of natives in the country. It is advisable to compare immigrants and non-immigrants with similar backgrounds and analyse the effect of the general policies and context.

Correlation vs. causality

A common debate in science is the question of correlation and causation. Two variables that are related to each other at the same time (e.g. correlations between contextual factors and integration outcomes) are not necessarily taken to have a cause-and-effect relationship, meaning that one causes the other. We do not know which one is the cause and which the effect (a.k.a. 'reverse causality'). In addition, the two variables may only be related to each other because both are causes or effects of a third 'unobserved variable.' Integration indicators, which use aggregate data to assess individual behaviour, have their limits for explaining the integration process. A correlation observed at the group level cannot be assumed to apply at the individual level (usually referred to as an 'ecological fallacy'). What is true at the country level is not necessary true at the individual level. Further analysis (e.g. multivariate, longitudinal, econometric methods) helps clarify the full meaning of aggregate-level data.

10.2 Integration indicators in the Member States

Starting in the 1990s, a few governments have supported projects to measure integration in various forms, often as part of multi-annual strategic plans on integration. Several others are currently debating whether to establish integration indicators. Ambitious local and regional governments introduced their own indicators along-

side those of national governments (e.g. German states and cities, Catalonia, Flanders, Copenhagen, and Vienna). A few Member State governments have established national integration indicators and monitoring systems. Most of these studies are prepared by the national statistical institute (e.g. Austria, France, Netherlands, Norway), researchers (the Czech Republic, Germany). Monitoring can also be undertaken by the government (e.g. Denmark) or civil society, for example the Integration Centre and Economic and Social Research Institute in Ireland. Seminar participants also mentioned examples of civil society monitoring in other countries, such as SVR's 'Integration Barometer' in Germany, ISMU's Integration monitoring in Italy, and the work of the Immigration Observatory in Portugal. The type of system mainly depends on political definition and goals of integration as well as the availability of official national statistics and alternative (quantitative or qualitative) survey data.

The analysis of integration indicators varies significantly across Europe (see Annex). This project reviewed the international literature on integration indicators as well as local and national examples available in Dutch, English, French, or German. So far, most Member States with integration indicators have commissioned one-off reports on different areas and indicators (e.g. Estonia, France, Italy, and Sweden). Through more *comprehensive monitoring systems*, Austria, the Czech Republic, Germany, Ireland, the Netherlands, and Norway have a regular monitor of the situation of immigrants. A standardised report uses the same set of indicators in many areas relevant to integration. The Netherlands Institute for Social Research (SCP) also publishes an accompanying ad hoc *thematic report* that delves into one thematic area. Denmark uses *benchmarking* to compare the situation of immigrants to the governments' policy goals. Rather than monitor integration for its own sake, a benchmarking system attempts to evaluate government performance in relation to intended policy outcomes.

These reports' *target groups* include broad groups, such as people with a migrant background, and sometimes more specific groups, such as third-country nationals, refugees, certain nationalities and ethnic groups. To a limited extent, national integration indicators capture the differences in the situation at local and regional level: the Länder in Austria, municipalities in Denmark, and the regions and *départements* in France. The most common *type of analysis* is basic descriptive analysis of the situation of immigrants (e.g. the employment rate) or the comparison (e.g. gaps in employment rates) with the

total population or general categories of people (e.g. nationals, native-born, people without any immigrant parents). *Multivariate analysis*, a key statistical method explained in this report, is used by researchers in just a few indicator systems (e.g. France, Germany, and the Netherlands). The relationship between integration outcomes and policies is only analysed in the report in Ireland. The effects of specific policies are mainly analysed in separate policy evaluations, where they exist.

Member States with national indicators can use the EU indicators to better understand the integration context in other Member States and across the EU, and place their own national situation in context. International comparisons identify the differences in national contexts as well as common trends and challenges. Comparing countries does not ignore the national context. On the contrary, comparative research can measure contextual factors across countries and demonstrate which matter for integration outcomes. This analysis clarifies how each country's situation is the result of the mix of these different contextual factors. The future development and use of the EU integration indicators may give them new ideas to develop their own approach to monitoring. Moreover, replicating analysis with EU indicators at international level increases the robustness of the findings from their national indicator studies. **Member States currently without national indicators** can decide how to use the EU indicators at various levels of governance in their own country. They could also complement the EU indicators with additional national indicators.

10.3 Beyond integration: Using indicators in other areas of EU cooperation

The development of EU integration indicators can draw many lessons from the use of indicators in other areas of cooperation within the EU, especially the Europe 2020 strategy. For example, EU cooperation in the areas of employment and social inclusion began nearly ten years ago with the long, incremental process of identifying and using indicators. The relevant ministries compiled EU portfolios of agreed indicators as an underlying data source to accurately compare their situations. EU Working Groups on Indicators narrowed down the number of outcome indicators to a limited number of core indicators and benchmarks. As these expert committees adapt the indicators, Member States improve data availability and further discuss the interpretation

of the results. For example, a newly-proposed methodology, known as the 'Joint Assessment Framework', is available to interpret indicator results in EU cooperation on social inclusion, employment, and, most recently, education. This analytical tool allows for a joint product and joint ownership by the Commission and Member States. Together, they identify key challenges, potential risks, or best practices that make a difference in achieving better labour market and social outcomes.

Given this policy context, the report argues that the existing EU integration indicators help policy actors to mainstream integration into countries' strategies on employment, education, social inclusion, and active citizenship. Since the existing EU integration indicators are often based on the EU's general targets and indicators, they can easily be used in the development of general policies, if monitoring migrants and other vulnerable groups is made a priority.

CHAPTER 11:
How are integration indicators used for policymaking? Purposes & methods

Behind the idea of 'indicators' lie various policy purposes and various research methods. Measuring societal outcomes is a starting point for evidence-based policymaking, whatever the policy field. These outcome indicators can then be analysed in different ways to answer specific policy questions. These different types of analysis are needed for policy debates, planning, implementation, and evaluation. Each type of analysis requires the proper quantitative and qualitative methods.

Throughout the background documents on the EU integration indicators, the Commission and the responsible national ministers have outlined **three key policy purposes for using integration indicators: understanding integration contexts, evaluating the results of policies, and mainstreaming integration into general policies.** These purposes are not one in the same. Measuring the situation of immigrants is not in itself an evaluation of the results of integration policies. The results of these policies cannot all be measured in terms of immigrants' outcomes on integration indicators. For integration stakeholders, not all Europe 2020 tar-

gets are relevant for integration. For policymakers working in other fields, many of their policies are not significantly affected by the situation of immigrants or the results of integration policies. While all of these purposes are important for policymaking, policy actors may choose to go further and develop more tools for one purpose than the others, depending on the context of each country and what information they need for policymaking.

Policy actors have various options for using integration indicators for each of these purposes. All options can be implemented and combined in different ways and at different times. The main ones are listed in the chart below and fully explained in this section of the report. The first column details the current achievements for all three policy purposes. At this point in the process, the Commission and Member States will consider what further analysis of the integration indicators would improve policymaking at national and EU level. Maintaining and building on the current baseline, they can obtain better tools for evidence-based policymaking. A detailed picture of integration, robust policy evaluations, and greater mainstreaming can be used to make policies more effective for immigrants and better accepted by the public.

11.1. First purpose: Understanding the context

Understanding the situation is the main purpose of any statistic. This situation is captured through a baseline of indicators, each of which captures one key element or outcome of that situation. Numbers are produced for each indicator on the basis of an established definition of the indicator, the use of harmonised data, and the proper method for calculation. For **comparing the situation** (e.g. comparing over time, or between cities, regions, or countries, or against groups with similar or different characteristics, etc.), indicators must be produced based on harmonised definitions, data, and calculations. National statistical institutes often harmonise indicators between cities and regions within the country. Internationally, national statistical institutes harmonise indicators through collaboration with the EU (through Eurostat), the OECD, and UN agencies.

Understanding and comparing the situation of immigrants is the basic purposes of any integration indicators, whether at international, national, regional, or local level. This basic purpose was introduced in the first paragraph of 2009 Conclusions of the Malmo expert meeting, the document containing the original list of indicators:

Proposal: An incremental approach to using integration indicators

	WORK IN PROGRESS: MAINTAIN THE BASELINE	SECOND OPTION: BUILD ON THE BASELINE	THIRD OPTION: EVIDENCE-BASED POLICYMAKING
Understanding the context of integration (statisticians, researchers)	**Improved annual publication of EU indicators** What: Indicator results on Eurostat website & basic descriptive analysis in a 'Statistics in Focus' report How: Commission & Member States consider additional indicators; Eurostat updates the results; NSIs improve data availability and quality (*see assessment report*) Existing resources: Eurostat & NSIs on-going work to mainstream migrants in statistics, boost migrant samples, & develop ad hoc modules for surveys	**Multiannual 'integration report' based on indicators** What: In-depth descriptive analysis of the integration situation & different national contexts How: Data disaggregated for specific groups, monitored over time, & compared between immigrants & non-immigrants with same demographic characteristics (i.e. comparing 'like with like' through statistical controls). Report can also include ad hoc thematic chapters. Existing resources: Examples include 2011 Eurostat 'Statistical Portrait', 2012 OECD 'Settling In', as well as national and local reports	**Multivariate & longitudinal analysis** What: Analysis determines which contextual factors have most/least influence on integration outcomes How: Research analyses the relationship between EU integration indicators and three sets of factors (*differences in the immigrant populations, general policies & contexts, immigration & integration policies*). Longitudinal data can also be analysed where possible. Existing resources: Existing international datasets on these contextual factors, national longitudinal datasets, national multivariate analysis
Evaluating the results of policies (researchers)	**Compare data on policies and outcomes** What: Analysis of the complex relationships between integration policies & outcomes How: Define policies in terms of intended outcomes on integration indicators; conduct bivariate analysis & mutual learning about how policies influence outcomes and/or how outcomes are influencing policies Existing resources: Up-to-date & comparable summaries of policies through EU-funded research, EMN, & EWSI	**Gather contextual data on who benefits from policies** What: In-depth descriptive analysis of the implementation of policies in the four indicator areas How: Gather and share statistics on policy implementation, the potential and current beneficiaries Existing resources: Administrative and official statistics, EU-funded research, EMN, & EWSI	**Econometric causal evaluations of policy impact** What: Assesses prospective or retrospective impact of specific national policies on integration outcomes How: Evaluation studies are done at national level, sub-national level, or between countries, depending on the availability of data. The EU can provide a review of such studies, exchange on methods, & quality standards Existing resources: Examples of causal evaluations in EU and traditional countries of immigration.
Using targets to improve & mainstream; integration (policy actors)	**Keep integration indicators relevant for EU targets** What: Europe 2020 targets are basis for integration indicators & thus can now be monitored for immigrants How: EU integration indicators can be changed to reflect changes in Europe 2020 targets and statistics Existing resources: Coordination among DGs & Eurostat	**Calculate how integration improves EU targets** What: Calculations identify areas & countries where immigrants are a major target group for general policies How: Statisticians calculate how 'closing the gap' for immigrants helps EU countries meet their targets for smart, sustainable, and inclusive growth. Existing resources: EU OMCs & Eurostat	**Set specific national goals & targets for integration** What: Member States assess indicator results & set their own specific national goals & voluntary targets How: Results assessed based on best available multivariate analysis & policy impact evaluations; Member States learn from countries using targets Existing resources: EU OMCs, cooperation structures between relevant ministries, and with civil society

"The function of the indicator is to give an overview of, and the possibility to monitor the situation, and to indicate if something essential is happening, considering that integration is an on-going process irrespective of different interventions."

The EU integration indicators make it easier to understand the integration context in the EU Member States so that policy actors can better learn from one other. The results show the similarities and differences in national contexts, while further analysis reveals what factors explain these similarities and differences. Integration outcomes in different countries are often related to the same key aspects of the immigrant population, the general context, and national policies. The more these factors are present in a country, the more likely are certain integration outcomes in that country. For example, the more newcomers there are in a country, often the greater are the integration challenges. This analysis helps policy actors to appreciate the unique combination of factors influencing integration in their country and other countries. Moreover, the use of indicators over time gives policy actors a new long-term perspective for policy planning. The availability of these indicators is therefore a starting-point for more informed mutual learning across the EU.

11.1.1. First option: Eurostat continues to publish the EU indicators annually online and to work with NSIs to improve data availability and quality on immigrants.

An improved annual production of the EU indicators maintains the robust comparative framework for assessing the integration context in the EU Member States and over time. Eurostat has provided the public with updated indicator results ever since the start of this pilot project. Eurostat made the results more accessible through their publication in English, French, and German within one of its most consulted sections on its website. Eurostat submitted the data to the same reliability tests as any other EU statistics and only published reliable results. This project's data assessment report reconfirmed that this harmonised data is the best available and highest quality. Given the reliability of the data, the indicators are valuable for assessing integration outcomes.

Future updates of the results can be published in an easy-to-read visual format. The results are reported both as shares (e.g. foreign-born employment rate) and as gaps (e.g. foreign-born employment rate compared to total population). The results are broken down by the existing categories: broad group of country of citizenship and birth, gender, and age group. The publication of

an accompanying 'Statistics in Focus' would make the indicator results more accessible and easier-to-interpret. These short and standardised summarises provide easy-to-interpret visuals and basic descriptive analysis. For example, 'Statistics in Focus' are annually published on demographic growth, migrant flows and populations, asylum, residence permits, and the acquisition of citizenship.

These results are published as part of the European mutual learning process involving the Member States. Eurostat can regularly discuss the indicators during regular meetings with the national statistical institutes (NSIs). The EU integration indicators reinforce the political relevance of the existing exercises undertaken by Eurostat and the NSIs to improve the availability and quality of data on immigrants, which includes the data behind the EU integration indicators. Specifically, this project's data assessment chapter recommends that:

- Eurostat continue its work with NSIs on mainstreaming migration into official statistics

- Eurostat and NSIs discuss common methods for weighting, boosting migrant sample sizes, decreasing non-response rates, and capturing the second generation in annual EU surveys

- NSIs calculate confidence intervals for the EU integration indicators

- EU collect the missing data for core and additional indicators through migrant-specific surveys or ad hoc modules in LFS, SILC, and/or the European Social Survey

The National Contact Points on Integration (NCPIs) are also actively involved in this process. NCPIs provide feedback and discuss the lessons learned from the results. They can also support and expand the work of the NSIs in order to address the major information needs of policy actors. Beyond the existing EU indicators, the ministers responsible for integration may decide on additional indicators, in particular those identified through this project's expert seminars and review of the research and indicators at national and EU level.

11.1.2. Second option: Regular publication of an integration report on Eruostat data with in-depth descriptive analysis, including specific groups and themes.

Eurostat or an independent research institute could provide every three or four years a more refined descriptive analysis through an 'integration report.' Previous examples of such reports

are the 2011 Eurostat 'Migrants in Europe: A Statistical portrait,' the 2012 OECD 'Settling In: OECD Indicators of Immigrant Integration,' and indicator systems at national or local level. Also, European Commission services in other policy areas, such as employment and education, sometimes include indicators on immigrants.

Drawing from these examples, a central report could monitor changes over time, further disaggregate the data for specific groups, control for demographic factors, compare immigrants with similar groups in the population, and exploit unique datasets to investigate specific themes. Trends over time are a main focus of any multiannual publication through the construction of 'cohorts' (people arriving in same years/period) or descriptive analysis over several years (including pooling data over three-year-periods, where possible). In-depth descriptive analysis can disaggregate the indicators for more specific immigrant groups beyond the standard breakdowns by country of origin and citizenship, age, and gender. This project proposed 'demographic indicators,' which can also be used for this disaggregation. These factors are often related to integration outcomes:

■ Socio-economic status (education level, employment status, income)

■ Duration of residence (e.g. 0-5, 6-10, 10-15, 15-20, 20+ years)

■ Reason of migration: migrant workers, reunited families, humanitarian, and students

■ Origin (by country, world region, countries' level of development, or countries with different official language(s) than that of the country of residence).

■ Composition of the household (disaggregated for men and for women)

The use of statistical controls shows the importance of key factors influencing integration. Controls adjust for the differences in the immigrant population across countries based on key demographic characteristics (for example, see the OECD's 2012 'Settling In' report). Using these dis-aggregations and statistical controls, immigrants can then be compared to a 'control group' of non-immigrants in similar situations. Immigrants may share the same outcomes and problems as non-immigrants of the same age, gender, or socio-economic status. In such cases, overall gaps between immigrants and the total population actually have nothing to do with integration. Comparing a similar group of immi-grants and non-immigrants (a.k.a. comparing 'like with like') is crucial for integration policy-making and mainstreaming. Without this, general social problems risk being misdiagnosed as specific integration problems. In these cases, general policies may be more effective for immigrants than targeted integration policies.

Lastly, ad hoc thematic chapters would make a multiannual report more relevant for integration actors. The theme could follow the priorities for integration policy and EUROPE 2020 or the changing social situation (e.g. effects of the crisis and austerity measures, neighbourhood and school segregation, family composition). Additional indicators can be piloted whenever there are new data sources, including one-off surveys and datasets.

11.1.3. Third option: The EU uses multivariate and longitudinal analysis to determine what contextual factors influence integration outcomes.

Multivariate and longitudinal analyses determine which contextual factors have the most and least influence on integration outcomes. Similar to statistical controls, multivariate analysis tries to control for all demographic and contextual factors influencing outcomes. These studies also often use comparable control group of non-immigrants. In terms of relevant factors, research need to look beyond the demographic characteristics of the immigrant population in order to determine the major factors influencing integration. Future projects can use the wealth of existing reliable international data on various contextual factors, which are collected across many EU countries, regions, and cities. This pilot projects' analysis used many of these sources to identify significant correlations between the indicator outcomes and three types of contextual factors: the characteristics of the immigrant population, a country's general context and policies, and migration and integration policies. This analysis of contextual factors gives policy actors a more accurate and systematic way to interpret the results of integration indicators when comparing their national contexts to each other.

Independent research institutes are best suited to undertake this analysis through large-scale research projects. This project's analysis team recommends the use of individual data stemming from cross-national surveys, followed by OLS and logistic regression in order to link individual level explanatory factors and country (and/or region) proxies to the outcome indicators on the individual level. Analysis of the individual level data can help rule out possible misinterpre-

tations of the data that can emerge in the interpretation of patterns on the aggregate level. This is a common strategy in analysing cross-national patterns with European surveys like LFS and EU-SILC. The use of more sophisticated statistical methods like multilevel analysis is generally not advisable, given the limited number of countries (27 EU Member states) and the absence of random sampling at country level.

During these projects, the results of international analysis can be checked against existing national multivariate analysis or replicated on national datasets in order to enhance the robustness of the results from EU and national integration indicators. The descriptive and multivariate analysis described in this section is therefore complementary, since international findings on indicators can be corroborated and further developed with more in-depth national, regional, or local studies.

Longitudinal data and analysis, mostly available at national level, present the best opportunities for monitoring integration progress over time. Representative longitudinal datasets track individuals over several points in time. The European Migration Network's 2010 Annual Conference concluded that integration monitoring would benefit from more immigrant longitudinal surveys, survey modules, and administrative datasets. Whatever the method used, longitudinal datasets take significant time and money to obtain the necessary sample sizes and level of sophistication in methodology. The manifold uses of longitudinal data make it worth the effort. Researchers can identify the major facilitators and obstacles influencing outcomes. Through regular updates about newcomers' integration experiences, policymakers can identify their needs and act on them immediately. Countries will also get the most out of longitudinal surveys if they are designed to link up with the EU integration indicators, EU data-sources (e.g. LFS, SILC), and longitudinal surveys in other Member States (as was done with these surveys in Canada, Australia, and New Zealand).

11.2. A second purpose: Evaluating the results of policies

Evaluating the results of policies remains a challenging priority for integration policy. A handful of countries have developed indicators to monitor the situation of immigrants and used the results to change their policies. But to date, the effectiveness of integration policy has been analysed by very few policy evaluations. These

evaluations require not only the political will, but also sophisticated sets of data covering the periods before and after the adoption of the policy or programme.

Integration outcomes are sometimes misinterpreted as the outcomes of integration policies. However, the causal links between policy and integration outcomes are difficult to prove. Outcome indicators are never the 'pure' results of policies. The integration situation reflects a broader socio-economic and policy context. These other neglected factors may have a greater effect on integration than immigration or integration policies themselves. An exclusive focus on outcome targets reduces the potential for mutual learning as it is not always clear whether and which policies contributed to changes in the situation.

Ministers responsible for home affairs invited the NCPIs and Commission in June 2007 to promote the development of common indicators and indexes to assess integration policy outcomes. In the 2010-2014 Stockholm Programme, the European Council used similar terms: core indicators for evaluating the results of integration policies. The conclusions of the Malmo expert seminar, where the EU indicators first appeared, clarified the link between these indicators and policy evaluations:

For the purpose of monitoring the outcome of integration policies, outcome indicators will be used…Core indicators will provide a basis for monitoring the situation of immigrants and the outcome of integration policies. They will be a complement to national indicators and reinforce the basis for evaluations at national level.

These outcome indicators can be used in evaluations of integration policies. The idea is that national evaluations will assess how integration policies affect employment rates, early school leaving, educational performance and attainment, at-risk-of-poverty-and-social-exclusion, health, housing, naturalisation, long-term residence, and political participation.

Accordingly, this project conducted desk research and expert seminars to ascertain what roles integration indicators do and do not play in policy evaluations. Integration indicators can be used in three ways to make to policy evaluations easier and better. The first two options provide useful data for policy evaluations. Policy actors can better link changes in outcomes to their policies if they provide data on policy changes, the policy's intended outcomes, the beneficiaries, and the implementation. Econometric causal evaluations combine the EU indicators with this and other

data with the aim to assess policy effectiveness. These studies identify a policy's specific effect on integration outcomes, controlling for all other possible explanatory factors.

11.2.1. First option: Comparing both outcomes and policies provides a new evidence-base for policy planning and debating policy effectiveness.

As Eurostat publishes annual indicators results on the situation of immigrants, policy actors can compare it to the latest information on policies and policy changes. During this project, the seminar discussion papers included aggregate-level bivariate (correlation) analysis demonstrated that countries' integration outcomes, as measured by the EU indicators, are in part related to their national contexts, including their national policies, for instance: their immigration channels, labour market integration programmes, general economic structures, general and targeted education policies, social benefits, political rights, residence and citizenship rules, and anti-discrimination laws. This bivariate analysis provided a basic method to identify significant relationships between the situation of immigrants and different national policies. The relationships between outcomes and policies were significant and, in some cases, surprising. During the seminars, experts began interpreting the results and welcomed the chance to exchange about the complex relationships between integration outcomes and policies in their countries.

This baseline analysis is easy to replicate over time as the latest data is made available on the EU indicators and these contextual factors. However this type of analysis is not possible without up-to-date comparable data on targeted and general policies. Existing EU-funded research and mechanisms have been keeping track of the many changes in the targeted and, to a lesser extent, general policies across the EU. Thanks to this investment in up-to-date information, policy actors can conduct further research and mutual learning to investigate if and how the situation of immigrants is related to the various general and targeted policies across Europe.

Comparisons of policies and outcomes are commonly used by integration policymakers as the context or starting point for public debates and policy planning. This information can lead to more nuanced views of integration in public debates. Policymakers have used these indicators to better reflect on their long-term goals for migrant integration. Notwithstanding these benefits, indicators on their own only have an indirect value for policy planning. The policy implications of indicators re-

sults are rarely clear. The results of outcome indicators are not the result of any one actor's actions. Outcome indicators alone do not provide enough information to justify statements or actions penalising certain groups. The road from indicators to policy changes can be very long.

As part of policy planning, Member States can redefine their policies in terms of their intended measurable outcomes. Which integration indicators are relevant for the outcomes of which policies? Integration policies are focused on specific areas of life and specific beneficiaries and target groups. In contrast, most outcome indicators tend to have very broad target groups (e.g. foreign-born), many of whom are not affected by or eligible for integration policies or programmes. For example, it would be inappropriate to define the foreign-born employment rate as the outcome of targeted integration programmes, which tend to focus on certain categories of non-EU newcomers. For other types of integration policies, policymakers tend to describe the goals of their policy in very broad terms. For example, anti-discrimination laws aim to reduce discrimination in society and guarantee equal opportunities, but how exactly? These objectives are not only difficult to measure as outcomes, but also tend to create unrealistic expectations about the effectiveness of these policies. Selecting outcome indicators for specific policies helps policymakers to design realistic and targeted policies, assess the prospective impact of their policy, and respond to changes in the situation.

11.2.2. Second option: Gathering contextual data on policy implementation provide the missing links between integration policies and outcomes.

Building on this baseline, data on the implementation of policies provides an evidence-base for evaluations of policy effectiveness. The results of bivariate analysis reveal statistically significant relationships behind integration outcomes and policies across countries, findings which merit further investigation. However, the absence of a strong statistical relationship is not the final word in policy evaluation. Just because no significant relationship emerges between the two, it does not follow that the specific policy has no effect on the situation of immigrants. Instead, this finding means that the policy does not have the same systematic effect on the situation of immigrants in all countries. In some countries, the policy may be new and thus far affect few immigrants. The policy is well implemented and funded in some countries, but not in others. Some countries may have an immigrant population that needs or benefits more from this policy than in other countries.

A country's policy may still affect the situation of immigrants even if no general relationship emerges between outcomes and policies across countries. Simply monitoring indicators will not on its own say much about the effectiveness of a policy in a specific national context.

Data on the implementation and uptake of policies are very useful for policy evaluation. Implementation statistics would help policy actors to assess the relevance of their policy for the integration outcomes that policymakers want to change through the policy. Statistical analysis can identify and quantify the potential beneficiaries of a given policy, or, in other words, the number of immigrants eligible for a given policy. After adoption of the policy, implementing agencies can collect statistics on their administrative and financial inputs as well as the policy outputs, measured in terms of its uptake by beneficiaries. Data can also be collected for disadvantaged groups that are less likely to access these services, for example women, the elderly, children and unaccompanied minors, young adults, family migrants, beneficiaries of international protection, and the lower-educated.

11.2.3. Third option: Independent institutes conduct econometric causal evaluations of the impact of policies on integration outcomes, as measured by EU indicators.

Policy actors who want to know the results of their policy and its impact on integration outcomes need dedicated evaluation studies of their policy's impact. Bivariate or multivariate analysis does not prove causality in the purest sense. There can always be more factors that influence an outcome which the multivariate analysis has not taken into account. Policy evaluations assess how the policy and other factors are affecting specific outcomes, such as those measured by integration indicators.

The feasibility of these evaluations largely depends on the availability and the quality of the data on policy implementation and its beneficiaries. Depending on the policy and availability of the data, these evaluations can be done at local, regional, and national level or comparatively between cities, regions, and countries. Across Europe, there are a small but growing number of evaluations making the link between policies and outcomes. These policy evaluations are often little known internationally or even within the same country because they are state-of-the-art, covering many different policy areas, and difficult to understand for the statistical layman. Given the few examples of these evaluations, Member

States could benefit from a literature review of these studies in the EU and traditional countries of immigration.

The best impact evaluations rely on sophisticated econometric methods of causal inference. Rigorous impact evaluations are able to take into account any observable and non-observable factor that could determine the outcomes. EU exchanges on the best methods for policy evaluation would raise awareness among policymakers and provide valuable training to practitioners. Quality standards for evaluating integration policies would help practitioners to put these methods into practice across Europe. Policymakers would be better able to contribute to the design of the evaluation and assess the quality of the methods and the results.

11.3. Third purpose: Use targets to mainstream and improve integration

Setting measurable objectives and targets helps policymakers to decide on, communicate, and then evaluate their goals and actions. The terms 'target', 'goal' and 'objective' are often used interchangeably and the differences between them are subtle. Targets are a) specifying a level of government action, b) time-bound and c) measureable by indicators. When policymakers commit to targets by which they will judge their policies, their proposals are more credible, clear, and accountable for the public. Targets give indicators a policy purpose. With targets, indicators check whether immigrants' situation is improving as intended. Impact assessments analyse how policies affected or could affect changes in the situation. Targets also work as a mainstreaming tool to improve integration through general policies. Targets draw attention to the importance of general policies which may have a greater impact on reducing inequalities than targeted policies.

Setting targets not only aim to 'close the gaps' between immigrants and the total population, but also to improve the general conditions in society. If policymakers want to reduce unemployment and poverty in their country, create a knowledge-based society, and encourage active citizens, then immigrants are a major target group for general policies in many of the EU's countries of immigration. This project's analysis report estimated the impact on society of improving integration (by 'closing the gaps'). However in many social reforms, immigrants are left behind. Ignoring the situation of immigrants and ethnic minorities is one of the reasons why countries fail to meet their socio-economic

goals. Immigrants are often addressed as 'vulnerable groups.' This label risks to overlook what immigrants add to society, for example their entrepreneurship, work filling labour shortages, university qualifications, role as international students, foreign language skills, new families, active citizenship, diverse backgrounds, and contribution to greater openness in society. Immigrants bring valuable resources for society and economic growth. Governments have the greatest impact on their socio-economic goals by effectively targeting the most relevant groups, including immigrants.

Policymakers who attended the project's seminars shared the experience of countries and cities that have set integration targets. The German federal government used the results of its national integration indicators to set measurable policy goals and targets, agree on new policies, and monitor progress. In addition, Denmark uses measurable goals and targets not only to monitor progress through its Integration Barometer, but even to benchmark and reward municipalities for their performance in contributing to these overall goals. Cities like Berlin and Vienna work with Diversity Benchmarks to improve diversity within the city administration. A few Member States have also set integration-specific targets as part of their National Reform Programmes. At EU level, the use of targets for integration could be foreseen in existing policy frameworks such as the Open Method of Coordination in the area of employment, education, social inclusion and protection, and culture. This would involve Eurostat, various national ministries, and various EU structures

11.3.1. First option: Looking at EU integration indicators within the framework of key EU targets.

The Europe 2020 Strategy aims for higher levels of employment, productivity, and social cohesion in the EU. The EU agreed five ambitious Headline Targets to be reached by 2020, towards which Member States set their own national targets. Migration and integration have steadily received greater attention in existing EU OMCs. An important aspect of EU integration indicators is that the Europe 2020 and the ET 2020 have now been disaggregated and provided for all EU Member States, according to harmonised definitions of country of birth and citizenship. The integration indicators can therefore easily be included in these processes, if monitoring migrants is made a priority. The European Commission can use these indicators' results in order to mainstream migrants into EU relevant policies.

The existing list of EU integration indicators largely reflects the EU 2020 targets, agreed at the highest political level. Since these general policies and goals are relevant for integration, the EU integration indicators generally use the same indicators, disaggregated for immigrant groups. The Commission will have to adapt the EU integration indicators to keep up with changes in the EU's main targets. For example, since the conclusions on the EU integration indicators at Zaragoza, the European Council in 2010 adopted Europe 2020 targets that expanded the definition of poverty from at-risk-of-poverty to at-risk-of-poverty-and-social-exclusion. Responding to the crisis' impact on youth unemployment, the European Council in May 2012 added a new ET2020 benchmark on the share of employed graduates (20-34-year-olds) in their first three years after graduation. New indicators may be proposed on social inclusion, social protection, and health. Aligning the EU integration indicators requires basic coordination between EU Commission services and the relevant indicator sub-groups.

11.3.2. Second option: Calculate how improving integration helps Member States to meet their general goals and targets for society.

The EU integration indicators can be used to estimate the impact of improving integration on the general conditions in society. Closing the gap for immigrants will bring EU Member States much closer to their targets for smart, sustainable, and inclusive growth. Depending on the characteristics and size of the population, the first and second generation are a major target group for improving outcomes in society, especially in the EU's well-established countries of immigration. The project's analysis report calculated these estimates for the foreign-born for Europe 2020 headline targets on employment, early school leaving, and at-risk-of-poverty-and-social-exclusion. Closing the employment gap could account for around 10 % of the Europe 2020 targets across EU Member States. Half-a-million young people could be prevented from leaving school early (or 8.7 % of all early school leavers in the EU). 3.3 million people could be lifted out of poverty or social exclusion (or 5 % of all those currently at risk in the EU). These calculations may be repeated for different immigrant groups, such as foreigners, third-country nationals, the first and second-generation, women, and children. The calculations identify the areas and the countries where immigrants are a major target group for general policies. These estimates initiate a data-driven process of mainstreaming with the aim

to create general policies that improve the situation of immigrants and other groups in society.

11.3.3. Third option: Member States set their own specific national integration goals and voluntary targets.

Ultimately, policymakers can use indicators to set targets for themselves. The first two options build the case that various general policies are relevant for integration and affecting immigrants as a major target group. Policymakers may come to the conclusion that they want new policies and estimates of their potential effects. How much will a new reform raise immigrants' employment rate or reduce early-school leaving among immigrant pupils? Through targets, Member States define their policies in concrete objectives and make the links between integration and general policies. Target-setting is a demanding step in evidence-based policymaking. A well-researched and collaborative process of target-setting can motivate stakeholders and implementing agencies to take part in the new policy and maximise its effectiveness. In contrast, a poorly-planned process may result in no targets or in self-defeating targets that undermine public confidence in integration policy. For example, criteria for selecting target areas and levels were summarised in MPG's 2010 study for the European Network Against Racism, entitled *Target-setting for improving the socio-economic situation of migrants and ethnic minorities in Europe*.

Two types of targets are designed to address inequalities. In the first option, the target establishes a minimum standard for the total population to ensure that no one is left behind. For example, the EU employment rate target set the same level (75%) for men and for women aged 20-64 and uses this level as a reference for youth, older workers, low-skilled workers, and immigrants. The second option, 'closing the gap,' aim to narrow the performance gap between a group in the population (e.g. immigrants) and the total population. Targets to reduce inequalities send a strong message about the governments' commitment to improve integration through a convergence of societal outcomes over time. Reducing inequalities is a challenging target, since the situation of the disadvantaged group will have to improve faster than that of the rest of the population. In both cases, targets can control for the key demographic differences between the immigrant and non-immigrant population. These targets aim to reduce the differences between immigrants and non-immigrants with similar characteristics, usually age, gender, and possibly household composition and socio-economic status. Statistical controls ensure that integration targets are realistic.

The best available analysis and policy evaluations are useful for policymakers to set their own specific national integration goals and voluntary targets. Migrant-specific targets are harder to set without this evidence-base. When setting their own targets, Member States can learn from other countries, regions, and cities that have experience with integration targets. EU mutual learning mechanisms provide a space for Member States to learn from each other and receive financial and technical support. This project's seminars have developed a constituency of stakeholders interested in the EU integration indicators. These stakeholders can meet to discuss areas for mainstreaming and target-setting. These debates can occur within Member States or between countries with similar migration histories and national contexts on integration. At EU level, this process would require greater cooperation between different ministries, EU Commission services, and civil society. The 'Joint Assessment Framework' mentioned earlier in this report shows how EU mutual learning supports Member States in using indicator results and prioritising certain areas for future action and analysis.

Annex

1. List of the most relevant factors for immigrant integration

MIGRANT POPULATION (INDIVIDUAL/ GROUP LEVEL)		GENERAL CONTEXT AND POLICIES (MACRO/ SOCIETY LEVEL)		MIGRATION AND INTEGRATION POLICIES (POLICY LEVEL)	
Categories	Variables	Categories	Variables	Categories	Variables
Socio-demographic		**Labour market structures**		**Migration policies**	
	■ Age ■ Gender ■ Country of birth (Level of development) ■ household ■ composition ■ Citizenship ■ Year of residence since immigration ■ Family status (married, children)		■ Share of services ■ Share of producing sector ■ Public sector employment ■ Public spending ■ Trade union density ■ Minimum wage		■ Channel of migration ■ Size of the migrant population
Socio-economic		**Education system**		**Integration policies**	
	■ Educational attainment ■ Employment ■ Occupation ■ Income ■ Socio-economic status of parents		■ Tracking ■ Expenditure ■ Number of school forms ■ Early childhood education and care ■ Socio-economic segregation in schools		■ Labour market policies ■ Migrant education policies ■ Naturalisation policies ■ Anti-discrimination policies
Socio-cultural		**Social welfare system**			
	■ Mother tongue ■ Language skills ■ Language spoken at home ■ Subjective factors[28]		■ Social benefits ■ Welfare generosity ■ Social spending		
		Equality			
			■ Income inequality (Gini Coefficient) ■ Gender equality		
		Discrimination			
			■ Awareness of discrimination ■ Experience of discrimination		

Note: This non-exhaustive list is an overview of relevant and measurable factors that can influence immigrant integration outcomes. It is based on the research reviewed and conducted in the context of this project.

(28) Such as 'sense of belonging' and 'institutional trust'.

2. Closing the gap – scenario' for the Europe 2020 headline indicator 'early school leaving'

	Total Popula-tion % 2010	foreign-born % rates 2010	Europe 2020 Target in % (2011)	The number of people that would be prevented from leaving school early given the 'no migrant gap scenario'	% of all people that would be prevented from leaving school early given the 'no migrant gap scenario'	Share of 'no migrant gap' of reaching the EU2020 targets, in %
EU25 (w/o RO, SL)	14	26	10	501161	8.7	30.6
Belgium (b)	12	22	9.5	12525	11.2	53.9
Bulgaria	14	:	11		0.0	0.0
Czech Republic	5	13		3851	8.0	8.0
Denmark	11	17	9.9	3832	7.5	75.2
Germany	12	24	9.9	94337	11.6	66.1
Estonia	12	:	9.5		0.0	0.0
Ireland	10	12	8	1292	3.3	16.5
Greece	14	44	9.7	36138	30.1	97.9
Spain	28	43	15	101943	10.3	22.1
France	13	25	9.5	55567	7.4	27.6
Italy	19	41	15.5	100874	12.2	66.5
Cyprus	13	26	10	2550	22.9	99.4
Latvia	13	:			0.0	0.0
Lithuania	8	:			0.0	0.0
Luxembourg	7	10		379	13.1	13.1
Hungary	10	18	10	3413	3.8	
Malta	37	:	29		0.0	0.0
Netherlands	10	12	7.9	3237	2.3	10.8
Austria	8	21		15609	27.0	27.0
Poland	5	:	4.5		0.0	0.0
Portugal	29	27	10	-1522	-0.6	-0.9
Romania	18	:	11.3			
Slovenia	5	20	5	2141	24.2	
Slovakia	5	:				
Finland	10	21	8	3093	6.7	33.7
Sweden	10	12	9.9	2390	2.7	273.9
United Kingdom	15	10	x	-36390	-4.1	

3. 'No gap scenario' for the Europe 2020 headline indicator 'employment'

|	Total Population % 2010	foreign-born % rates 2010	Europe 2020 Target (2011)	The number of people that would be employed given the 'no migrant gap scenario'	% of all people that would be employed given the 'no migrant gap scenario'	Share of 'no migrant gap' of reaching the EU2020 targets, in %
EU25 (w/o RO, SL)	69	64	75	1825347	0.9	10.7
Belgium (b)	68	55	73.2	146682	3.7	48.6
Bulgaria	65	54	76	5025	1.5	8.7
Czech Republic	70	70	75	0	0.0	
Denmark	76	65	80	43494	1.7	33.2
Germany	75	66	77	717973	1.9	72.4
Estonia	67	60	74	9359	1.7	16.1
Ireland	65	63	70	8774	0.5	6.4
Greece	64	67	70	-29586	-0.7	-7.1
Spain	63	60	74	152663	0.8	4.8
France	69	60	75	467981	1.8	20.6
Italy	61	65	68	-156672	-0.7	-6.1
Cyprus	75	74	76	1149	0.3	22.7
Latvia	65	61	73	8392	0.9	7.5
Lithuania	64	63	72.8	1374	0.1	0.8
Luxembourg	71	74	73	-3819	-1.7	-61.0
Hungary	60	68	75	-24611	-0.7	-2.6
Malta	60	62	62.9	-432	-0.3	-5.7
Netherlands	77	65	80	175896	2.3	58.0
Austria	75	68	77.5	68242	1.8	53.0
Poland	65	54	71	11260	0.1	0.8
Portugal	70	73	75	-19788	-0.4	-6.0
Romania	63	74	70	0		
Slovenia	70	66	75	7963	0.9	12.1
Slovakia	65	57	72	0		
Finland	73	64	78	16429	0.7	10.2
Sweden	79	64	82	148695	3.4	90.7
United Kingdom	74	69	x	267322	1.0	

4. Correlations across all EU migrant integration indicators by gender

MEN

WOMEN
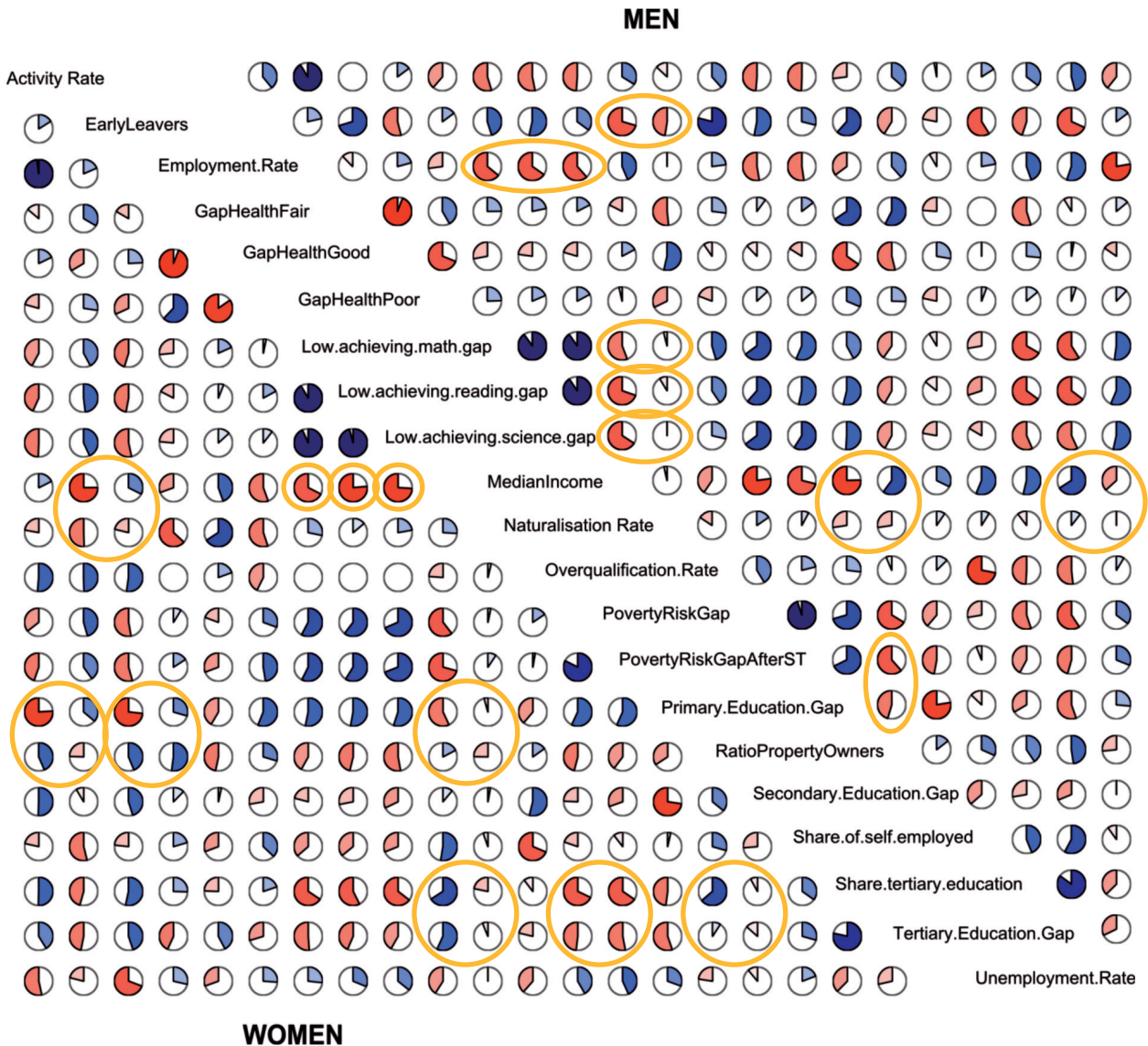
Note: Orange circles indicate where strong relationships exist between migrant integration indicators from different areas. For example, we see here a strong positive correlation between the gap in poverty risk (after social transfers) between immigrants and non-immigrants and the gap in primary education. This means that countries with immigrants are poorer compared to non-immigrants, they also more often fail to complete primary education.

The pies show the correlations across the indicators, measured as gaps of the foreign-born population compared to the total population. Red indicates negative correlations (the higher one indicators, the lower the other) and blue positive correlations (the higher one indicators, the higher the other). Higher correlations across areas are circled in orange. Correlations below 0.5 (e.g.◑) can be ignored as well as higher correlations between indicators within the same areas. This calculation is provided by David Reichel from the International Centre for Migration Policy Development.

5. Overqualification rate of persons aged 25–54 by groups of country of birth and gender, 2008
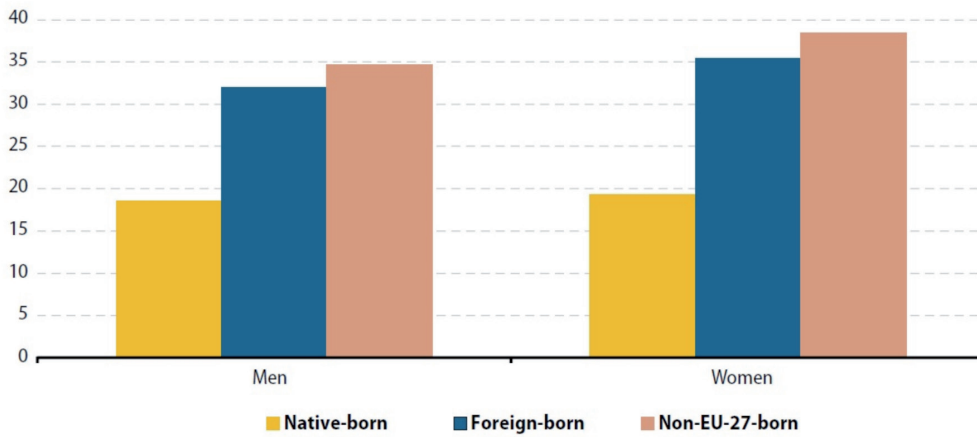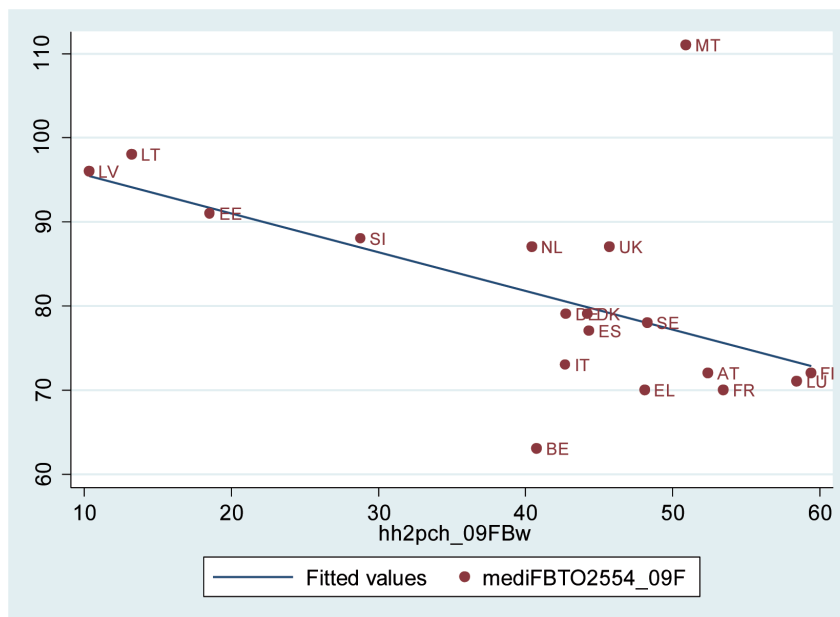

Source: Eurostat 2011, LFS 2008

6. People at risk of poverty or social exclusion aged 25–54 by groups of country of birth and selected household type, EU-27, 2008
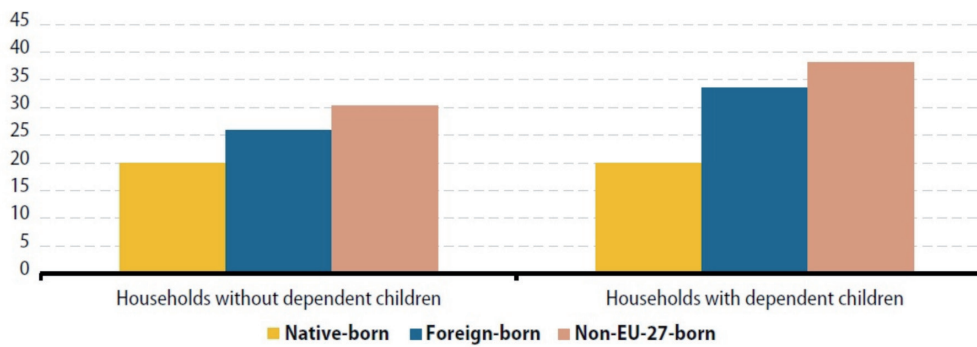

Source: Eurostat 2011, LFS 2008

7. Net median income ratio of foreign-born women and the share of foreign-born women in 2-person households with children in 2009


Source: Bivariate analysis for the purpose of this project

8. Native-born offspring of immigrants employed in the public sector by level of education, persons aged 15 to 34, 2008 Difference with the offspring of native-born in percentage points
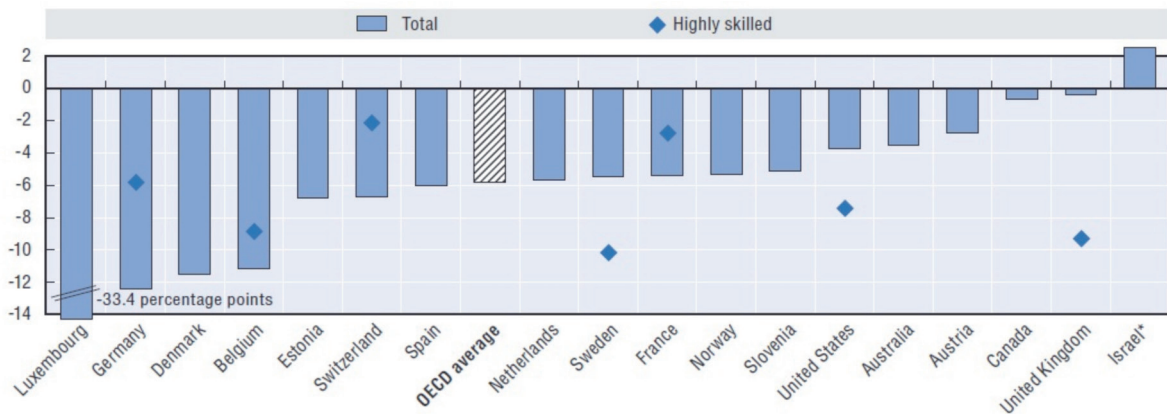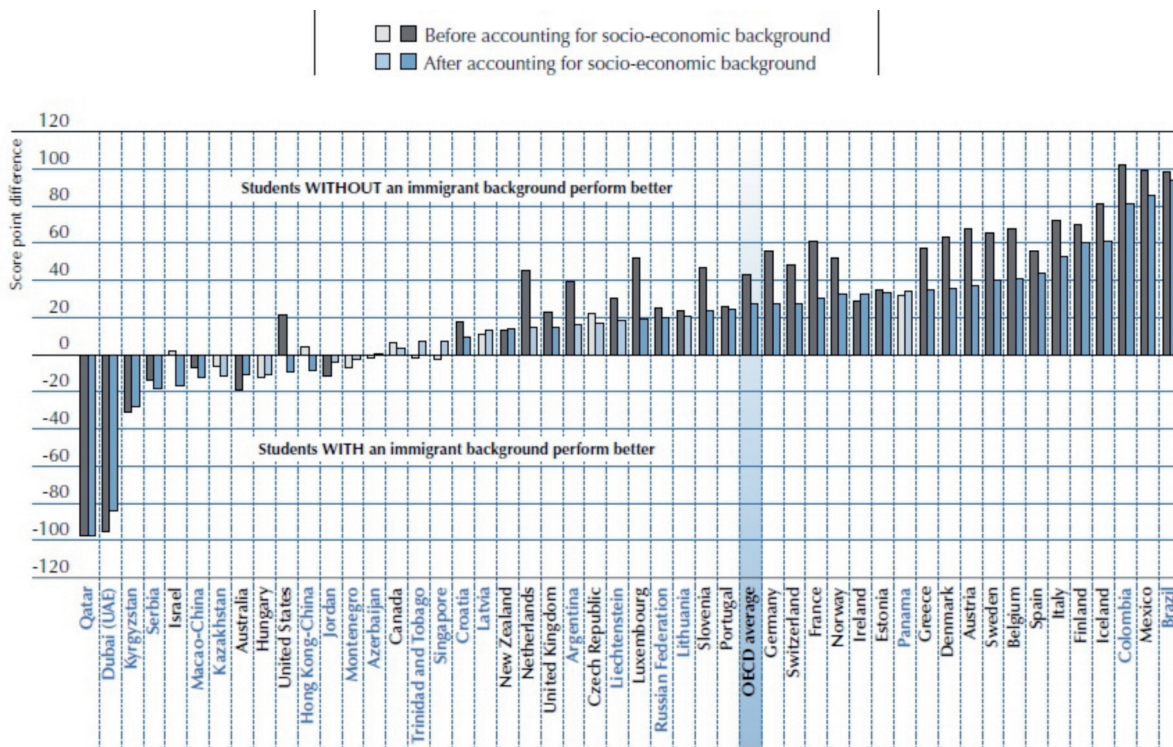

Source: OECD 2012

9. Overlaps between at risk of poverty, material deprivation and low work intensity, by country of birth, in the EU (thousands of individuals), 2007 income year
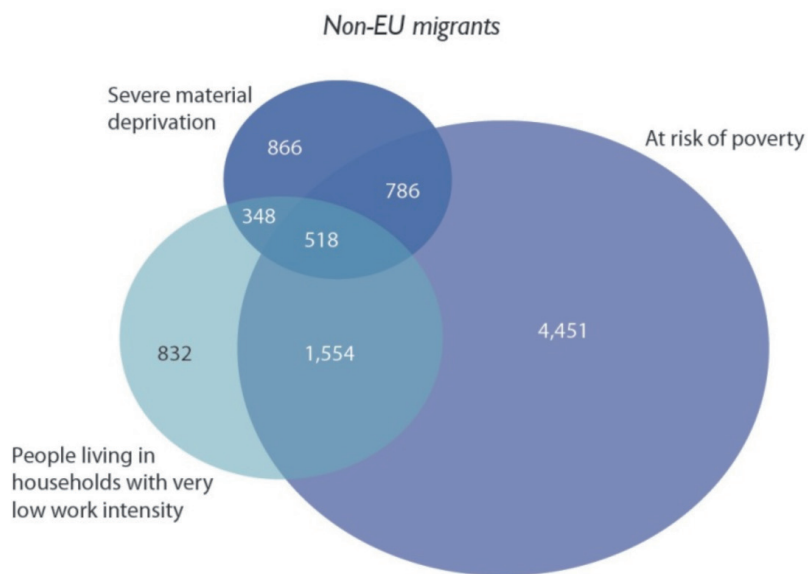

Source: Lelkes/ Zólyomi 2011, European Centre, calculations based on SILC 2008 data

10. Reading performance by immigrant status, before and after accounting for socio-economic background:


Note: Score point differences that are statistically significant are shown in a darker tone.
Countries are ranked in descending order of score point differences after accounting for the economic, social and cultural status of students.
Source: OECD, *PISA 2009 Database*, Table II.4.1.
StatLink ⟨≡⟩ http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932343608

11. Proportion all students in PISA-samples not reaching the minimal level two for reading and the Hutchens index for social segregation (calculated on PISA 2009 data)
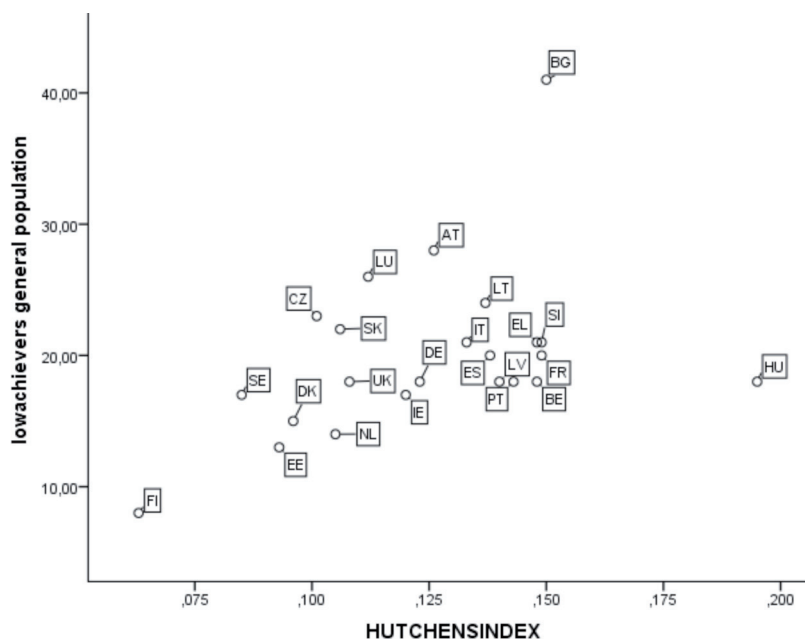
Source: Bivariate analysis for the purpose of this project

12. Gap in socio-economic position between foreign-born and natives and gap between foreign-born low achievers and general population for reading
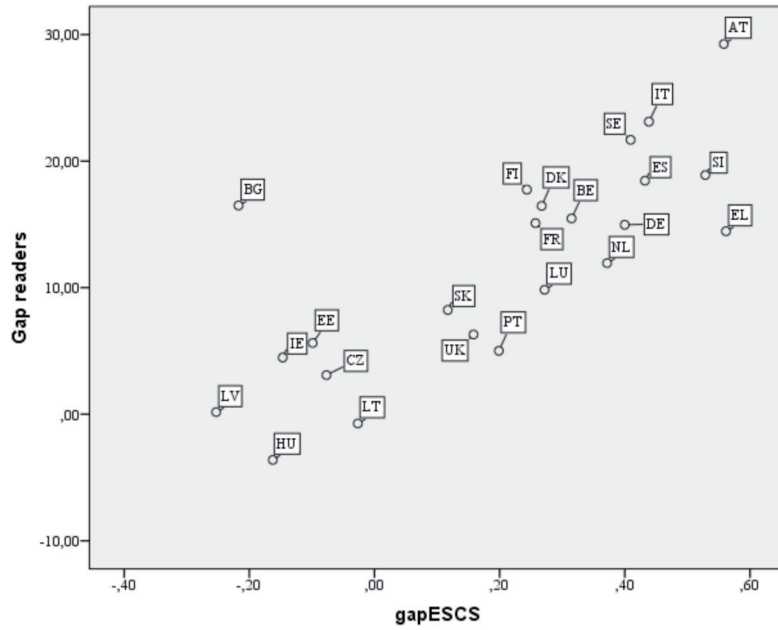
Source: Bivariate analysis for the purpose of this project

13. Share of the overall population holding a tertiary degree (LFS, 2009) and public expenditure on education in percentage points of the GDP (2009)
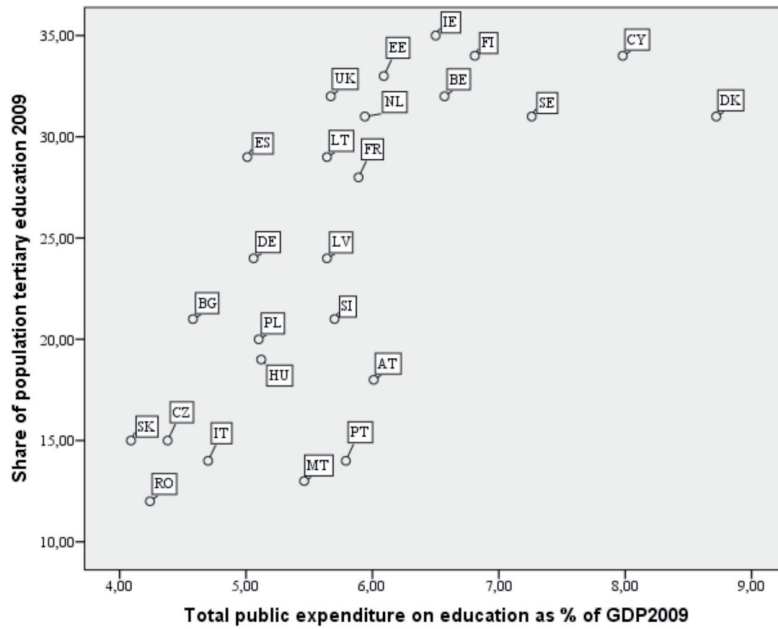
Source: Bivariate analysis for the purpose of this project

14. Gaps by part of services in total female employment (2009).
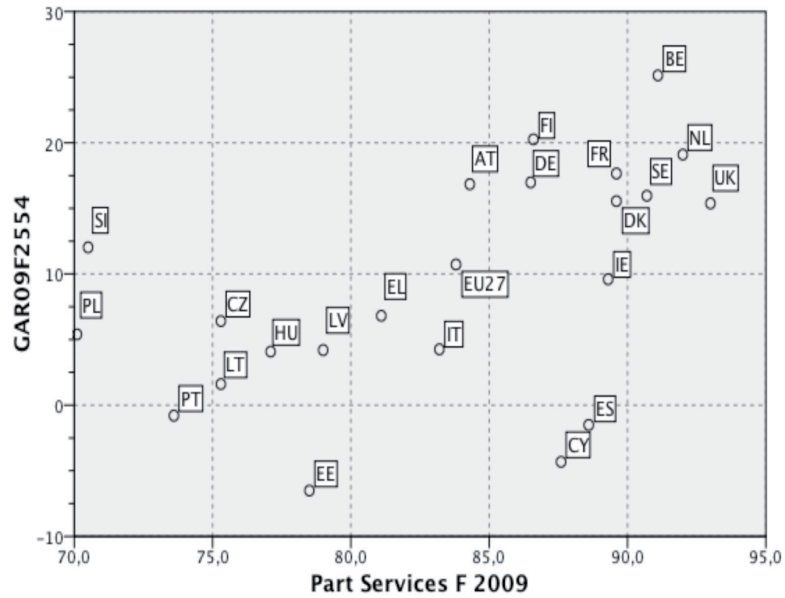
Source: Bivariate analysis for the purpose of this project

15. Gaps female activity rates (2010) by level of awareness of discrimination
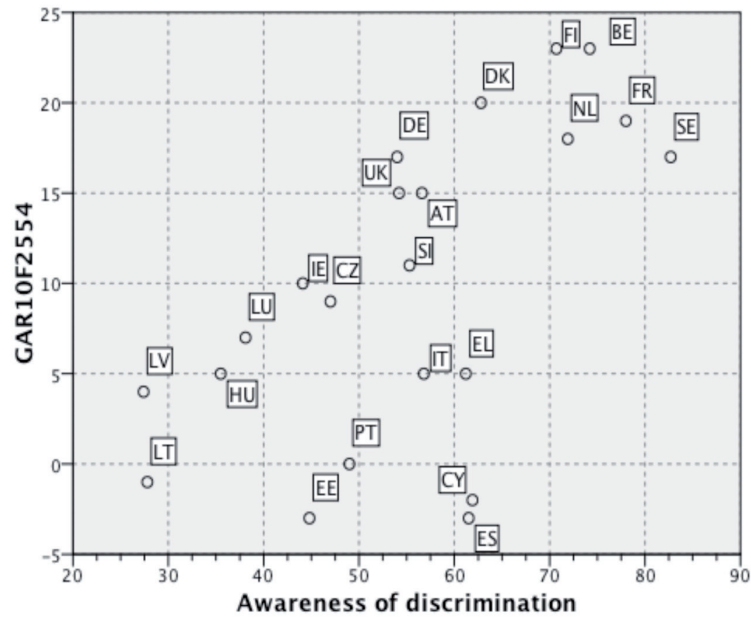
Source: Bivariate analysis for the purpose of this project

16. Female gap in poverty risk rates of the foreign-born and the female gap in social benefit recipients, 2009
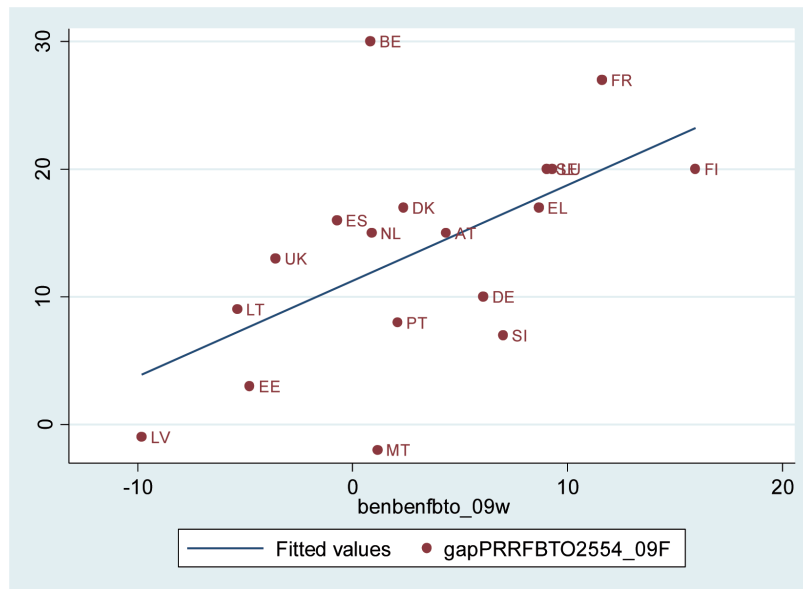
Source: Bivariate analysis for the purpose of this project

17. Female gap in poverty risk rates (2009) and the discrimination awareness index (2006)
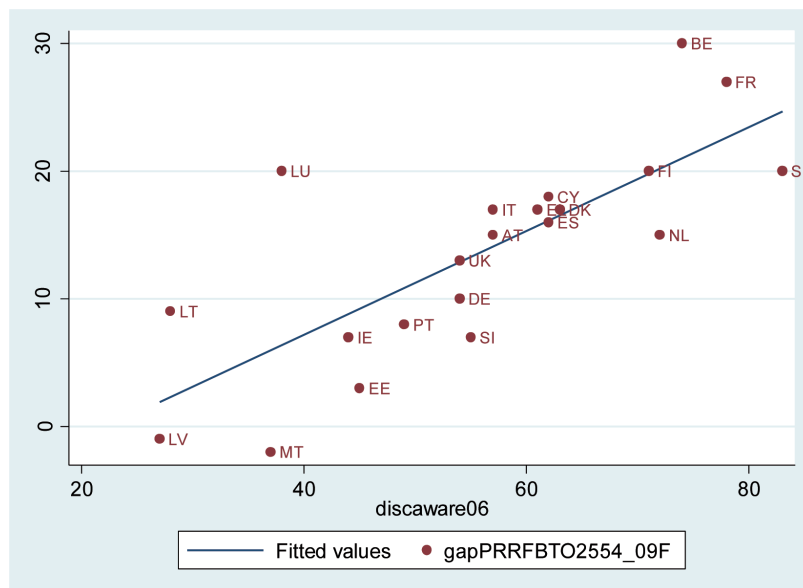
Source: Bivariate analysis for the purpose of this project

18. Female gap in poverty risk rates and the level of social spending in % of GDP in 2009
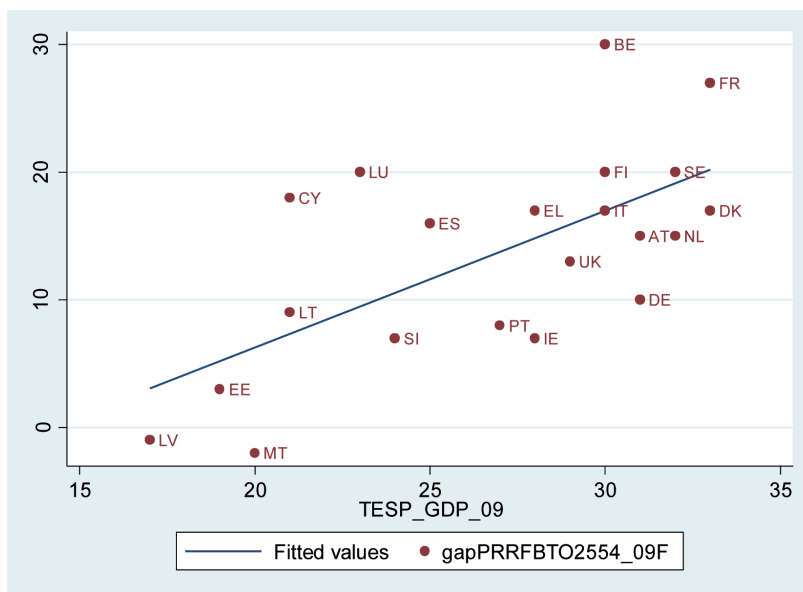
Source: Bivariate analysis for the purpose of this project

19. Gap between % low achieving foreign students and national students in reading (PISA, 2009) and MIPEX III score for education:
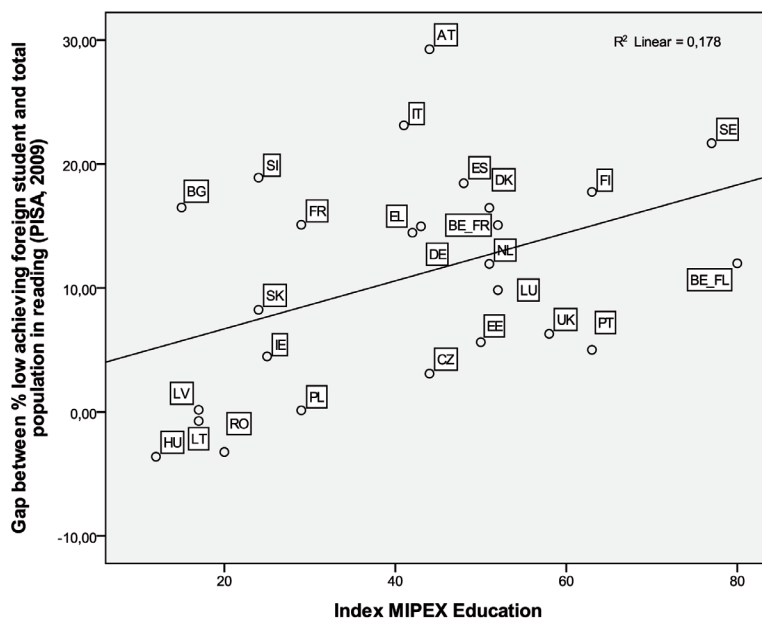
Source: Bivariate analysis for the purpose of this project

20. Eurostat bivariate correlation between naturalisation rates and policies
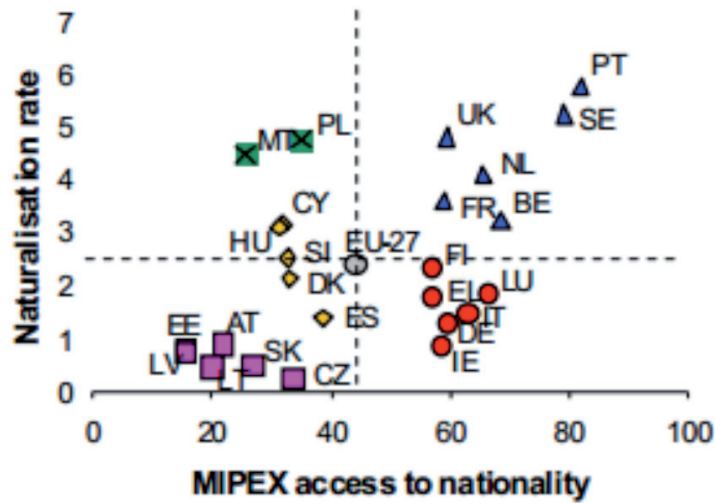
Naturalisation rates are not available for all EU Member States, see the footnote under Figure 5

Source: Eurostat (online data codes : migr_acq, migr_pop1ctz), British Council and Migration Policy Group (Mipex)

24/2011 — *Statistics in focus* eurostat

21. Percentage of representatives with a migrant background

Multiple sources (see text)
NB: definitions of 'migration background' differ
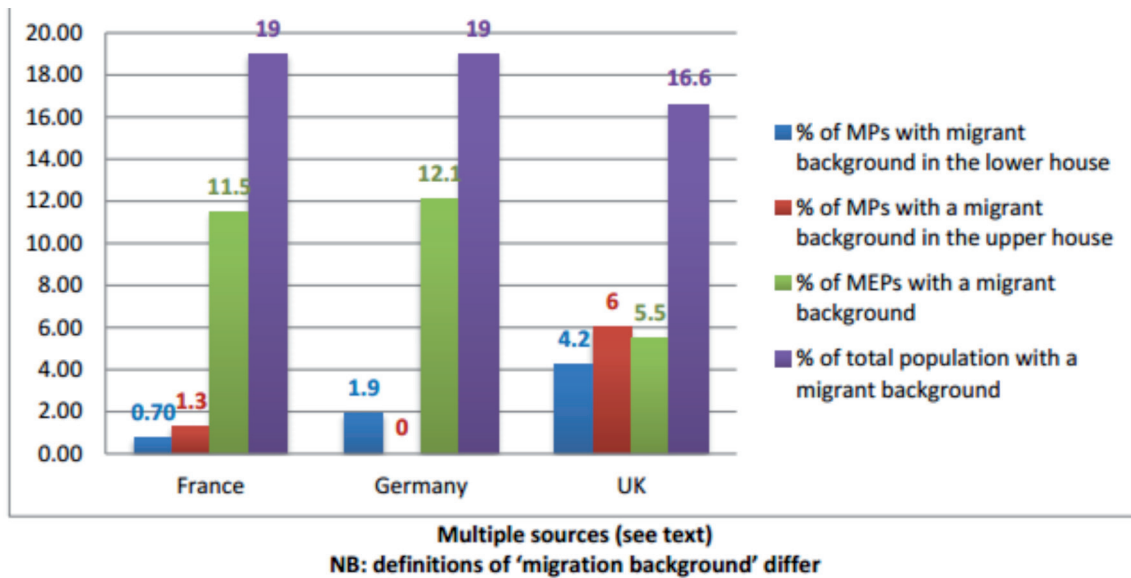
Source: Kirchberger et al. (2011), Becoming a Party of Choice: a Tool for Mainstreaming Diversity, Migration Policy Group.

22. Availability of indicators for third country nationals aged 25 to 54 from Eurostat Pilot Study
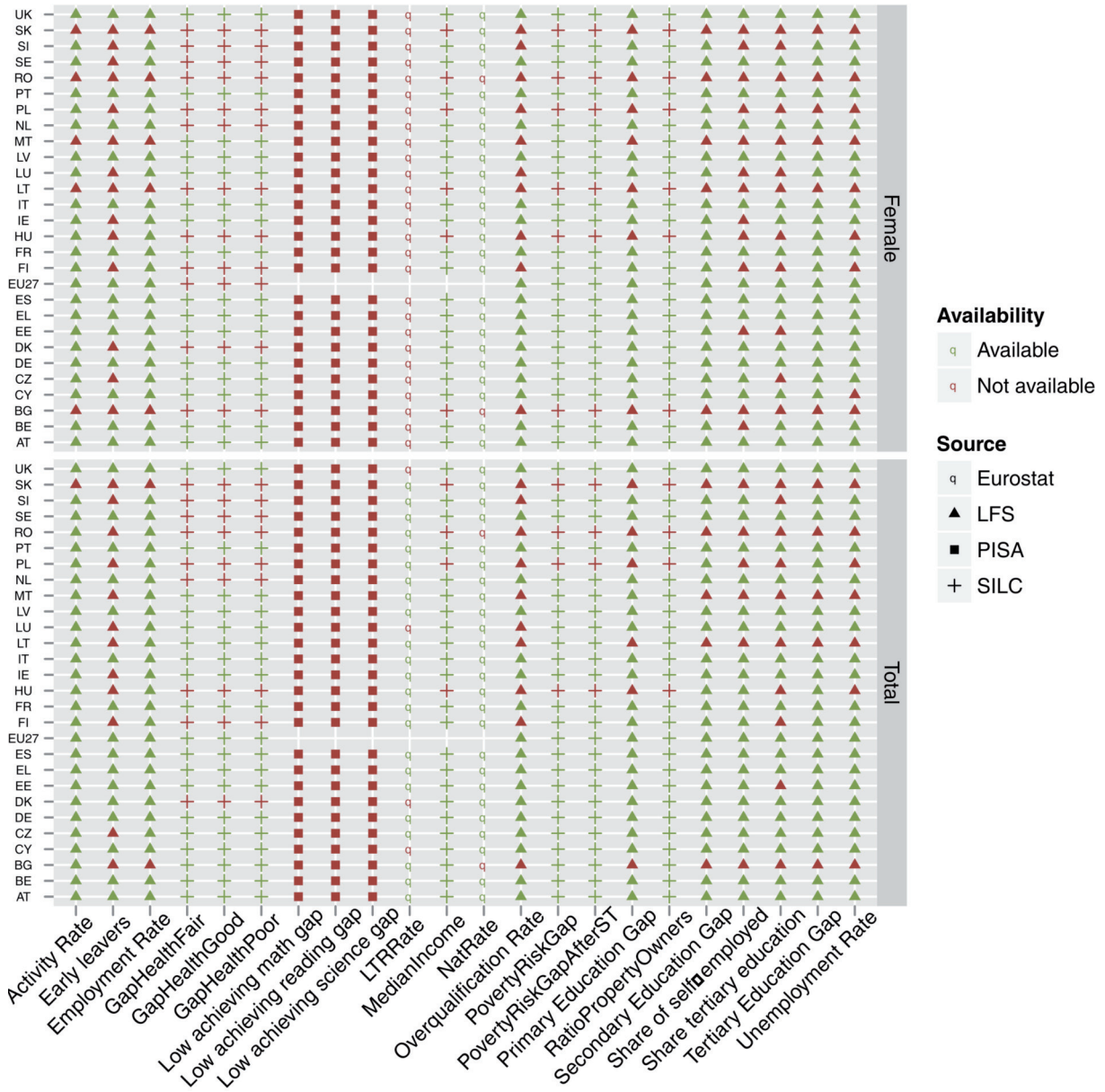
23. Different elements of national systems of integration indicators

Austria ('Migration und Integration 2011'): Austria presents basic descriptive analysis of a wide range of additional factors including 'perception of immigrants and the host-society', 'life expectancy', 'sense of belonging', 'perception of discrimination', 'inter-ethnic contacts', 'inter-ethnic marriages', 'share of foreign students' and ' crime rates'. The report breaks down results by the dominant immigrant groups (EU/EEA, Turkey, Former Yugoslavia). Employment outcomes are presented by occupational sector. The report includes profiles of the share of foreigners in each land.

Denmark (Effectiveness measurement of Danish municipalities' integration policies & 'Integration Barometer'): The first report is a benchmarking system comparing municipalities' success with newcomers (e.g. refugees and reuniting families). Taking migration and labour market factors into account, this system allows monitoring in distinct regions and an evaluation of a specific state integration policy (3-year integration programme). The integration barometer consists of a national and 98 local barometers – one for each municipality. The barometer measures national developments towards the government's nine aims for integration.

Estonia (Estonian Integration Monitoring 2011, summary in English): The report was based on an opinion poll and qualitative focus groups with five different immigrant and non-immigrant target groups. The report develops an integration index and organises results based on immigrants' 'degree' of integration.

France (Immigrés et descendants d'immigrés en France 2012): Since the publication of the EU integration indicators, the National Institute of Statistics and Economic Studies (INSEE) published a national report on these and other indicators. In the first chapter, researchers present additional longitudinal and multivariate analysis in four areas. The main datasheets cover a wide range of areas, some regional differences, and different groups by gender, age, generation, country of origin, duration of residence, age at arrival, and household composition. Comparisons are made with non-immigrant men and women.

Germany ('Integrationsindikatorenbericht' 2012): The report examines broad groups, such as foreigners, persons with a migrant background and persons with a migration experience. Results are further dis-aggregated by age, gender, education, EU born foreigners. Beyond descriptive analysis, further multivariate analysis examines the influence of factors such as age, gender, marital status, educational background (what and where), regional labour market situation (such as average income levels), years of experience in work, length of residence in the country (proxy for language skills) and social contacts/neighbourhood.

Ireland ('Annual Monitoring Report on Integration 2011'): This civil society report provides a descriptive analysis of Ireland's results on the EU indicators, among other indicators. It also uses other research to help interpret the results. It discusses policy issues emerging from the results and provides the legislative context.

Netherlands ('Annual Report on Integration 2010'): The Dutch report includes results for the traditionally four largest non-western groups in the Netherlands: Turks, Moroccans, Surinamese and Antilleans and mainly compares the situation of the second generation in comparison to the first and the non-immigrant population. The Dutch report is a summary of several in-depth thematic studies. It captures additional indicators such as 'crime rates', 'neighbourhood segregations', 'uptake of income support', 'sense of belonging', 'social contacts', 'involvement in community organisations', 'self-perceived health' and 'use of health facilities'. Further statistical analysis is featured in thematic reports.

Norway ('Immigration and Immigrants 2010'): The report breaks down descriptive results by age, duration of residence, gender, region of birth, channel of migration (e.g. refugees), nationality and employment sector. Each section ends with certain policy challenges and recommendations. In 2005 the Norwegian parliament introduced a set of goals with progress indicators, "Goals for Social Inclusion of the immigrant population", as a means of actively monitoring and steering its integration policies. There are 17 goals for social inclusion, with a total of 8 ministries being responsible for achieving them. In order to follow developments and identify the results of policy, the sector ministries must report annually on the achievement of the goals in accordance with the sector responsibility principle. These reports are then combined into a single report by the coordinating ministry in the yearly budget proposal presented to Parliament.

Sweden ('Pocket Facts 2010: Statistics on Integration'): The report presents, inter alia, participation rates over time (1987-2009), outcomes by gender, age, residence duration, employment sector, region of birth, refugees.

24. Different types of national integration indicators

EMPLOYMENT	AT	DK	FR	DE	IE	NL	NO	SE	EU	OECD
Employment Rate	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√
Unemployment rate	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√
Activity Rate	√		√	√	√	√			√	•
Overqualification					√	√	√	√	√	√
Self-employed	√		√	√		√	√	√	√	√
Youth Unemployment	√		√	√		√	√			√
Long-term unemployment rate	√		√	√		√				√
Training measures		√	√	√						
Public sector employment		√	√			√		√		√
Sector/occupation			√			√		√		√
Temporary/ Part-time work			√				√			√
Promotion rate			√							
Unsocial working hours					√					

EDUCATION	AT	DK	FR	DE	IE	NL	NO	SE	EU	OECD
Pre-Primary Education	√	√	√	√			√			√
Primary Education	√	√	√	√		√		√		
Grade Repetition Rate	√					√				
Early Leavers/ Drop Out-Rate	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	
Low-achieving 15 year olds in reading, maths and science		√			√	√	√		√	√
Highest Educational Attainment	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√
Tertiary Education	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√
Not in employment, education, or training	√	√						√		√
Transition rate into training or jobs		√	√	√		√	√			
School segregation						√				
Language skills	√	√	√							
Language programmes		√	√	√			√	√		
School expectations of parents			√							
Parents' involvement in schools		√	√							

SOCIAL INCLUSION	AT	DK	FR	DE	IE	NL	NO	SE	EU	OECD
Median Income	√		√		√	√	√	√	√	√
At risk of poverty	√		√	√	√				√	√
Child poverty										√
Material deprivation	√		√		√				√	
Financial inclusion indicators			√							
Low-work-intensity households				√	√		√		√	
in-work at risk of poverty				√						
Social benefit uptake		√	√	√		√	√	√		
Poverty reduction rate	√		√							
Criminal convictions	√	√				√				

SOCIAL INCLUSION	AT	DK	FR	DE	IE	NL	NO	SE	EU	OECD
Health										
Self-perceived health			√	√	√			√	√	√
Unmet health needs						√				√
Life expectancy	√									
Obesity			√	√		√				
Health consultation rate			√			√				
Health insurance								√		
Preventative care uptake	√			√						
Self reported health issues	√		√							√
Housing										
Property owners	√		√	√	√			√	√	√
Rent			√	√						
Overcrowding	√		√	√						√
spatial segregation	√	√	√			√		√		
Housing cost overburden	√									√
Social housing		√	√							√
ACTIVE CITIZENSHIP	AT	DK	FR	DE	IE	NL	NO	SE	EU	OECD
Elected representatives				√	√			√	√	
Naturalisation	√	√	√		√			√	√	√
Permanent residence			√		√				√	
Election turn out		√	√					√		√
Volunteering			√	√		√				
Eligible voters		√	√	√						
Membership		√	√	√	√	√				
Leadership in civil society				√						
Diversity in public institutions				√						
Marriage patterns	√	√	√			√				
Sense of belonging	√	√				√				
Institutional trust		√	√			√				
Social contacts		√	√			√				
Cultural values	√	√								
Perceived discrimination	√	√	√				√			√
Effective equality measures								√		

Note: This is an indicative list of the types of indicators covered in country but not exhaustive or representative list of all indicators currently covered in the countries below. Any updates or corrections are welcome.

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Glossary[29]

Active Citizenship: Active citizenship is an umbrella term for the acquisition and exercise of rights for political participation. As such, it includes citizenship and residence, membership in (political) organisations, voting, running for office, volunteering or participation in political protest. In some cases, it can include subjective indicators such as 'sense of belonging', 'institutional trust', 'awareness of discrimination' and 'public attitudes towards immigration'.

Activity rate: The share of unemployed or employed persons as a percentage of the total population of the same age group.

At risk of poverty or social exclusion rate: The number of persons who are at risk of poverty or social exclusion according to at least one of the three following dimensions: at risk of poverty after social transfers; severe material deprivation; living in a very low work-intensity household.

At risk of poverty rate: The share of population with net disposable income of less than 60 per cent of national median.

Citizenship: The particular legal bond between an individual and his or her State, acquired by birth or naturalisation, whether by declaration, choice, marriage or other means according to national legislation.

Country of origin: The country (or countries) which are a source of migratory flows and of which a migrant may have citizenship. In refugee context, this means the country (or countries) of nationality or, for stateless persons, of former habitual residence.

Discrimination: There are different forms of discrimination: 1. Direct: Where one person is treated less favourably than another is, has been or would be treated in a comparable situation on grounds of racial or ethnic origin. 2. Indirect: Where an apparently neutral provision, criterion or practice would put persons of a racial or ethnic origin at a particular disadvantage compared with other persons, unless that provision, criterion or practice is objectively justified by a legitimate aim and the means of achieving that aim are appropriate and necessary.

Early leavers from education and training: The share of persons between the ages of 18-24 under the following two conditions: the highest level of education or training attained is ISCED 0, 1, 2 or 3c short and respondent declared not having received any education or training in the four weeks preceding the survey.

Elected representatives: The share of immigrants among elected representatives.

Employment rate: The share of persons between 20-64 who, during the reference week, performed work, even for just one hour, for pay, profit or family gain or were not at work but had a job or business from which they were temporarily absent because of, e.g. illness, holidays, industrial dispute, education or training.

EU-15/ EU 12: EU-15 countries are the EU Member States before enlargement in 2004. EU-12 includes EU Member States that entered the Union in 2004 and 2007.

Foreign (or immigrant background) background: A person with parents where at least one parent was born outside of the country of residence. This includes the first and second generation as well as the naturalised.

Foreign-born: A person whose place of birth (or usual residence of the mother at the time of the birth), is outside the country of his/her usual residence.

Foreigner: (non-nationals) A person who are not citizens of the country in which they reside, including persons of unknown citizenship and stateless persons.

Health status: The share of population perceiving their health status as good or poor.

Highest educational attainment: The level of education is defined in accordance with the 1997 International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED 1997) and is often aggregated into three levels. Low: below the second cycle of secondary education (up to ISCED level 3c short). Medium: second cycle of secondary education (ISCED levels 3–4 other than 3c short). High: tertiary education (ISCED levels 5–6).

Immigrant (or ethnic) penalty: The disadvantage of an immigrant or ethnic groups that can be exclusively attributed to the immigrant status rather than any other characteristics.

Immigrant: See foreign background. In the EU context, a person undertaking immigration. General term that includes persons with a foreign background (at least one parent born outside the country of residence).

Long-term residence: The share of immigrants holding permanent or long-term residence permits.

Low-achieving 15-year-olds in reading, mathematics and science: The number of influence who proficient below Level 2 of the assessment. PISA covers influence who are aged between 15 years 3 months and 16 years 2 months at the time of assessment and who have completed at least 6 years of formal schooling, regardless of the type of institution in which they are enrolled and of whether they are in full-time or part-time education, of whether they attend academic or vocational programmes, and of whether they attend public or private schools or foreign schools within the country.

Median net income: Income from work, comprising employee income and self-employment income; (b) property income, including interest, dividends, profits from capital investment in an unincorporated business; (c) income from rental of a property or land; (d) pensions from individual private plans; (e) income from social benefits, taking into account unemployment benefits, old-age benefits, survivor benefits, sickness and disability benefits, education-related allowances, family- or child-related benefits, social exclusion allowances and housing allowances; and (f) regular inter-household cash transfers received.

Migrant integration: A dynamic, two-way process of mutual accommodation by all immigrants and residents of Member States'. The integration process involves immigrants, who exercise their rights and responsibilities in relation to their new country of residence, and the receiving society, which should create the opportunities for immigrants' full economic, social, cultural, and political participation. Migrant integration can be measured by the long-term convergence across a wide range of common social indicators taking into account different background characteristics.

Naturalisation rate: The share of immigrants that have acquired citizenship. This can be measured in annual naturalisations rates or as the rate of naturalised immigrants as a share of all immigrants living in the country.

Naturalisation: Any mode of acquisition after birth of a nationality not previously held by the target person that requires an application by this person or his/her legal agent as well as an act of granting nationality by a public authority.

Non-EU immigrant: Any person not having the nationality of an EU Member State or a person that was born outside the EU.

Non-EU national: Third-country nationals, persons who are usually resident in the EU-27 and who do not have the citizenship of an EU-27 Member State.

Non-national EU citizens: Persons who have citizenship of an EU-27 Member State and who are usually resident in another EU-27 Member State.

Outcome: In the context of migrant integration indicators, the term 'outcome' describes a (statistical) result of a certain indicator, usually measured in rates. Outcomes are compared between immigrants and non-immigrants (gaps). In general, outcomes of indicators can describe the situation of integration of immigrants in a certain area of society.

Overcrowding rate: The number of rooms in the house to the number of people. A person is considered as living in an overcrowded dwelling if the household does not have at its disposal a minimum number of rooms equal to: one room for the household; one room per couple in the household; one room for each single person aged 18 or more; one room per pair of single people of the same gender between 12 and 17 years of age; one room for each single person between 12 and 17 years of age and not included in the previous category; one room per pair of children under 12 years of age.

Overqualification rate: share of the population with a high educational level (i.e. having completed tertiary education, ISCED 5 or 6), and having low- or medium-skilled jobs (ISCO occupation levels 4 to 9) among employed persons having attained a high educational level.

Property ownership: Ratio of property owners to non-property owners among immigrants and the total population.

Share of 30-34-year-olds with tertiary educational attainment: The share of the immigrant population that has achieved ISCED level 5 or 6.

Social exclusion: In the EU context, a situation whereby a person is prevented (or excluded) from contributing to and benefiting from economic and social progress.

Social inclusion: In the EU context, a framework for national strategy development, as well as for policy coordination between the Member States, on issues relating to tackling poverty and social exclusion. Social inclusion is an umbrella term that covers the inclusion of groups in society in regards to income, poverty, health and housing.

Socio-economic background/ socio-economic status: Economic and sociological combined total measure of a person's position in relation to others in society, usually measured by income, occupation and education.

Unemployment rate: The share of persons between 20-64 who were without work during the reference week, were currently available for work and were either actively seeking work in the past four weeks or had already found a job to start within the next three months.