



# Socio-economic inclusion of migrant EU workers in 4 cities

## *Synthesis Report*

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## Executive Summary

### Introduction

The freedom of movement of EU workers is one of the four freedoms on which the EU's Single Market is based, alongside freedom of movement of goods, capital and services. Since 2004, the year the European Union (EU) expanded from 15 to now 28 Member States, the scope of mobility for people within the EU increased substantially.

The purpose of this study<sup>1</sup> was to provide the European Commission with information on the challenges and the opportunities in the economic and social inclusion of migrant EU workers and their families at local level, within the framework in particular of Article 45 TFEU and Regulation (EU) 492/2011 and Regulation (EC) 883/2004 on the coordination of social security systems.

Four cities were analysed: Leeds, Frankfurt, Milan and Rotterdam. Information about EU migrant workers and their situation was gathered through a variety of methods: literature review; analysis of statistical data; interviews and focus groups with key stakeholders (employer, trade unions, local authorities, migrants' associations, public and private employment services, other civil society organisations; etc.) and questionnaires for migrant EU workers. The lists of interviewees and other methodological details are provided in the city reports annexed to this report.

### Key challenges and opportunities from EU labour migration

#### Challenges and opportunities for migrant EU workers

Overall, there are many similarities in the challenges and opportunities encountered in the four cities, together with some differences that are often related to the organisation of services at national level and other local circumstances.

Language barriers feature as an important shared challenge for the socioeconomic inclusion of migrant EU workers and for their access to the labour market. Access to quality and affordable housing is the other most widespread challenge. Other challenges are emphasized in some of the cities: the recognition of qualifications, the exposure to worse working conditions and exploitation, being hired at a lower qualification level. Access to information on social and health services is mentioned as a key challenge in Frankfurt and Rotterdam while in Milan the poor functioning of the matching mechanisms of labour supply and demand is highlighted.

There is more variety across the city reports on the key opportunities that are offered to migrant EU workers. Job opportunities and the possibility to access to good quality local public services are the most important ones.

#### Challenges and opportunities for local workers

There appears to be a widespread perception amongst local workers across the four cities that the increased influx of migrant EU workers since 2000 has raised pressures on their wages and working conditions. However, the availability of evidence for such increased pressures varies. This phenomenon mostly concerns the low-skilled segment of the labour force and the long-term unemployed to some extent.

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<sup>1</sup> With contract number No. VC/2014/0327 of 15 July 2014, DG Employment, Affairs and Inclusion has entrusted Ecorys in collaboration with RAND Europe to deliver "Surveys and reports on challenges and opportunities of socio-economic inclusion of migrant EU workers in four selected European cities".

In Rotterdam, EU work migration seems to have accelerated the already existing trends of flexibilisation of the labour market. According to some trade union stakeholders, power relations between employers and employees would also be affected in sectors where there are large numbers of migrants (e.g., food, meat), due to the temporary nature of the labour contracts and the lower level of unionisation of migrants.

At the same time, the reports show that local workers also benefit from EU migration in terms of greater overall business competitiveness and economic growth – this is stressed in Frankfurt, Milan and Rotterdam. In Leeds and Rotterdam reference is also made to the fact that migrants purchase local goods and services, thereby creating a new market of services and goods for migrants that generates business opportunities and new jobs.

### **Challenges and opportunities for the local community**

The existence of tensions within the local communities is mentioned in all reports. This seems in Milan and Rotterdam related to issues of spatial segregation of groups of low-income migrants in specific neighbourhoods and areas. In Leeds tensions are referred to as taking place at work, in schools and on the streets. Pressure on the housing (rental) market seems to be the most widespread challenge for local communities.

There is limited evidence of pressure on health services. Challenges to the functioning of schools are reported in Frankfurt, Leeds and Rotterdam. In Leeds the main issue is the concern about a possible deterioration of the quality of education. In Rotterdam challenges for schools come from the irregular inflow and outflow of migrant EU workers children and an increased percentage of school drop outs.

A greater cultural diversity and variety of available products, goods and services is mentioned as an opportunity arising from EU migration in all four cities. Moreover, the entrepreneurial energy of arriving migrants (filling in skill gaps and job vacancies; setting up their own businesses, potentially creating new jobs) produces positive effects on the community. In Rotterdam, it has been stressed that migrant EU workers offset the negative effects of an ageing population.

Furthermore, improvements in the organisation of local services in terms of simplified administrative procedures and greater availability of materials have been observed as a consequence of the necessity to adapt to the presence of migrant EU workers in Frankfurt. Networking between public institutions has also benefitted from the challenge to address this issue (in Milan).

### **Overall remarks**

Migrant EU workers represent a very diverse population, ranging from highly-skilled globalised professionals to workers taking up temporary contracts in low-skilled jobs. The perception of the phenomenon is sometimes biased towards one of these categories only. The study contributed to highlight this diversity and the wide range of responses that are in place or are still needed to support the mobility of these different groups of EU workers.

The study has confirmed that the sudden arrival of high volumes of migrant EU workers in the investigated cities has posed some challenges. These are very often related to broader challenges affecting urban areas: the shortage of affordable (rental) housing, the financial pressure on local services (e.g. schools) in the context of

austerity measures, the understaffing of emergency health services catering for the needs of those who are unable to navigate the health system, or have no entitlement in it. There is no evidence that suggests that migrant EU workers are intensive users of local services. This is partly because they tend to be relatively young and healthy. Nonetheless, among some local service providers there appears to be the perception that they are an additional burden for the system, especially if the assumption is that (contrary to the principle of free movement) they should not be there. This often happens because phenomena related to specific segments of the EU migrant population are generalised. One example is early school leaving children of migrant EU workers in Rotterdam, requiring additional efforts by the education system. Another one is the inflow of migrants without rights to regular health care into the emergency services in Frankfurt.

However, the study shows that the challenge of having to cater for migrant EU workers also comes with opportunities for local services. The need to address migrant EU workers has prompted some services to improve the dissemination of information to the public and to streamline cooperation across different agencies. Additionally, it must be recalled that migrant EU workers contribute to the fiscal base and to the spread of risk over health and employment insurance users.

The study highlighted that there are benefits for the local economy from the presence of migrant EU workers. They bring entrepreneurial energy, purchase good and services (often giving rise to new business initiatives to address their specific needs), and help revitalise the housing market (around one quarter of migrant EU workers investigated in the study bought their accommodation in Leeds, Milan and Rotterdam and about one tenth in Frankfurt). However the study also confirmed the concerns about pressures on wages and working conditions and the exploitation of low-skilled migrant labour force from other EU Member States.

One observation that can be made across the various policy domains of our study is that the biggest challenges are posed by those segments of migration that are characterised by precarious conditions and short-term perspectives, according to a “guest worker” model<sup>2</sup>. Examples in the studies range from nuisances and social alarm created by the presence of hostels for (young male) workers in neighbourhoods, to pupils who frequently change school to follow the unstable migration patterns of their parents. Precariousness and instability do not incentivise investment in proper housing, and prompt migrant EU workers to maximise their short term income by accepting cheap substandard accommodations. Conversely, the study has shown that some migrant EU workers invest in their permanence in the city, buying their home for example, and this is likely related to having long-term perspectives in the country. Moreover, it could be argued that coming to live in a new city implies a “learning curve” to get acquainted with the system. The fact that the majority of migrant EU workers did not encounter major difficulties in finding their ways in local services demonstrates that this learning curve has an end. The return from an initial investment in facilitating migrant EU workers’ access to local services is greater when they stay longer and contribute to the fiscal base and the insurance base of the services as well as the local economy.

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<sup>2</sup> A model for organising migration whereby foreign workers are invited to temporarily reside and work in a host country to satisfy the needs for (normally) low-skilled labour as long as they exist, without any perspective of permanent integration.

## Recommendations

The study enabled to formulate recommendations that are specific for the four cities. Some common underlying suggestions are:

- adopt a balanced and integrated approach to the issue of EU labour migration, encompassing both challenges and opportunities;
- increase the knowledge by local authorities of the migrant EU workers population and recognise its diversity in order to design more tailor-made interventions for their socioeconomic inclusion;
- involve key stakeholders in such policy interventions and address their capacity building needs;
- adopt specific initiatives to tackle the most important challenges, including: expansion of language training provision; setting up one-stop-shops and improve the functioning of existing ones; facilitate the recognition of qualifications; combat labour exploitation by monitoring sectors at risk and distributing information to workers; identify measures to improve access to housing; address the needs of specific vulnerable groups of migrant EU workers.

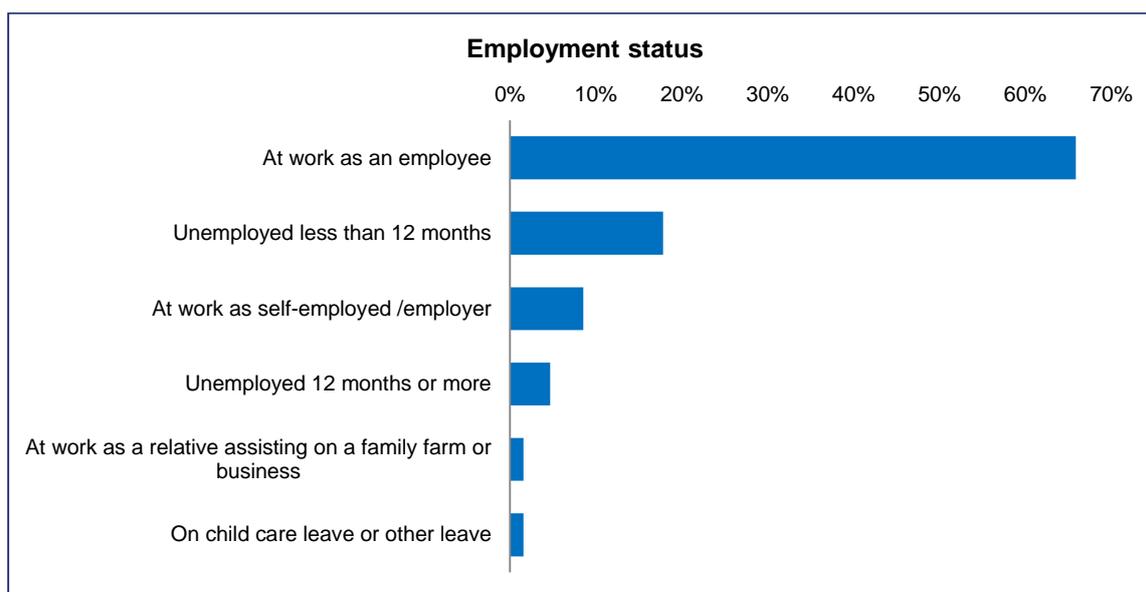
## Factsheet Frankfurt

### EU migrants in Frankfurt - key data from available statistics

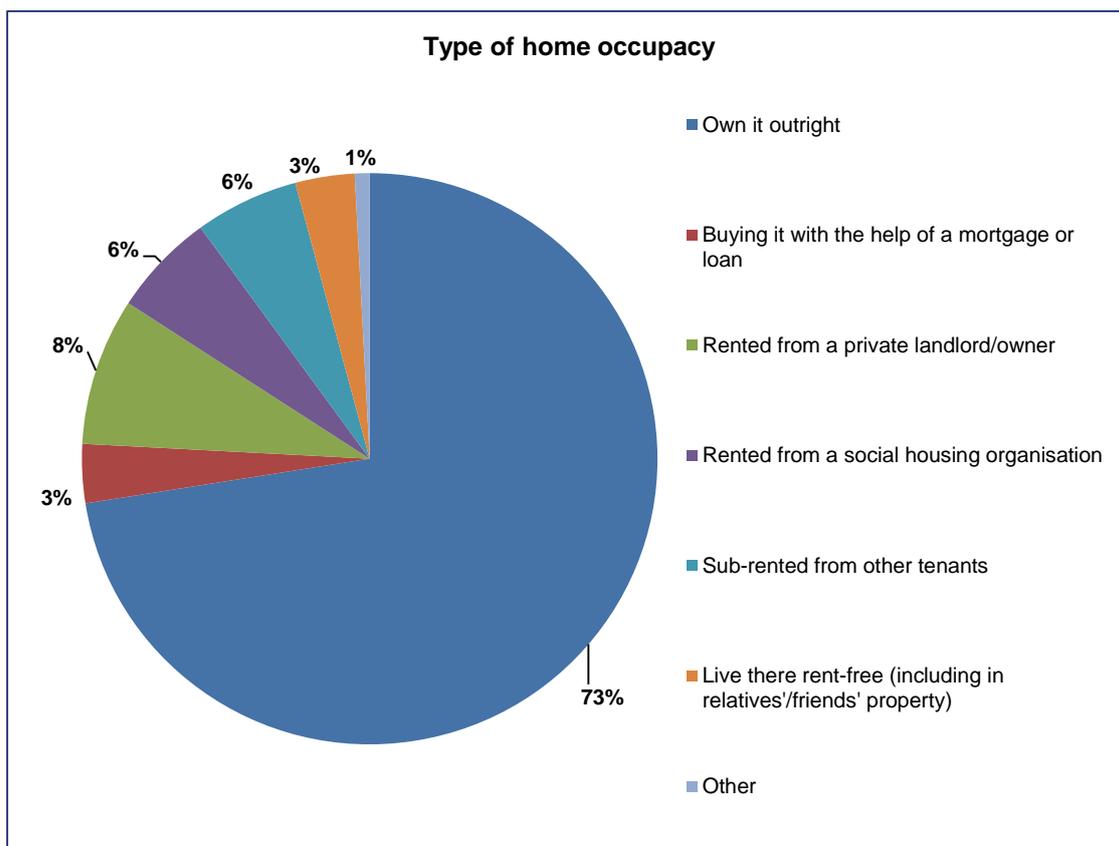
Number of EU migrants <sup>a</sup>	87,960
Share of city population <sup>a</sup>	12.6%
Main nationalities <sup>a</sup>	Italy (16%), Poland (14.6%), Croatia (14.1%), Romania (8.3%)
Economic activity rate	n/a
Employment rate	71%
Other key demographic characteristics	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ The number of EU-28 migrants has increased considerably in the last 10 years, namely by 32.6% between 2004 (66,324) and 2013 (87,960);</li> <li>▪ EU migrants in Frankfurt are more likely to be male than the general population (53.3%);</li> <li>▪ EU migrants are more often prime-age workers in younger age groups and less likely to be above retirement age than the general population.</li> </ul> <p><i>Source: Stadt Frankfurt (2014) Frankfurt vor der Europawahl am 25.05.2014: Die Gruppe der Ausländisches EU Staatsangehörigen ist stark angewachsen, statistik aktuell 11/2014.</i></p>

<sup>a</sup> Based on citizenship.

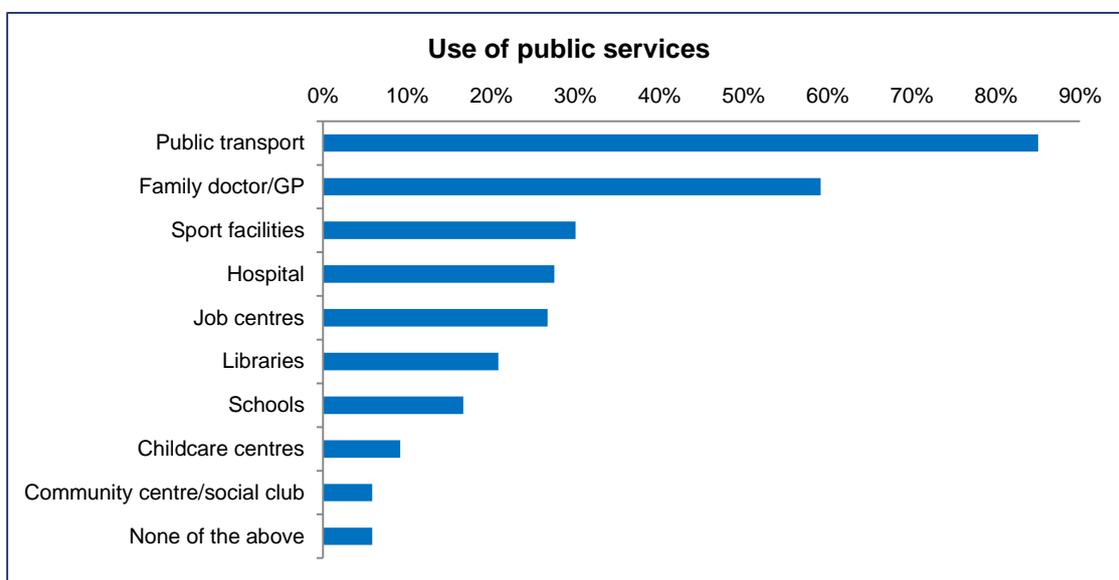
### Survey on migrant EU workers: selected results



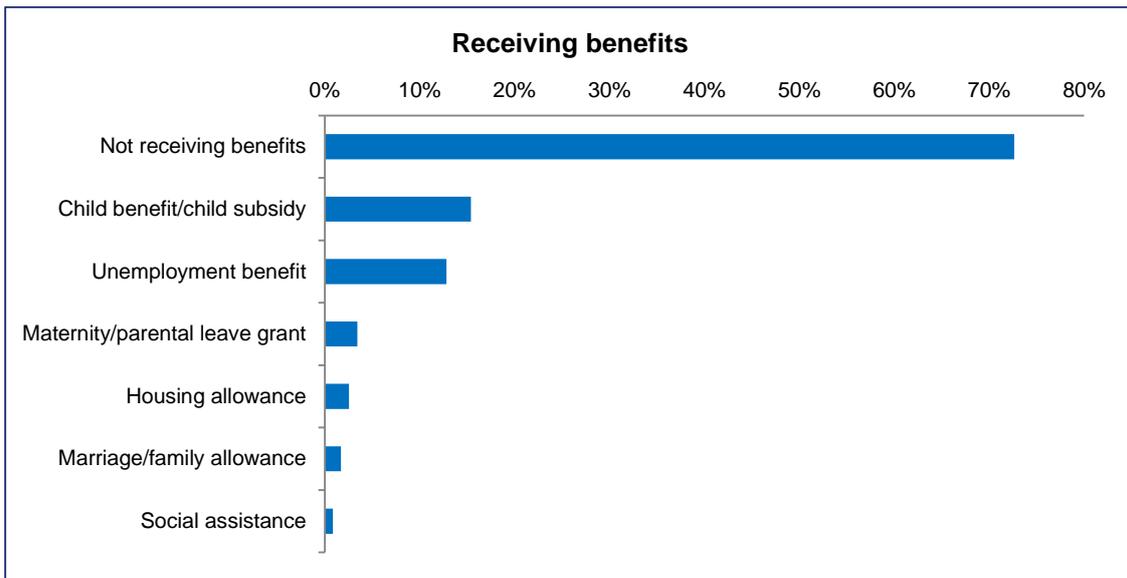
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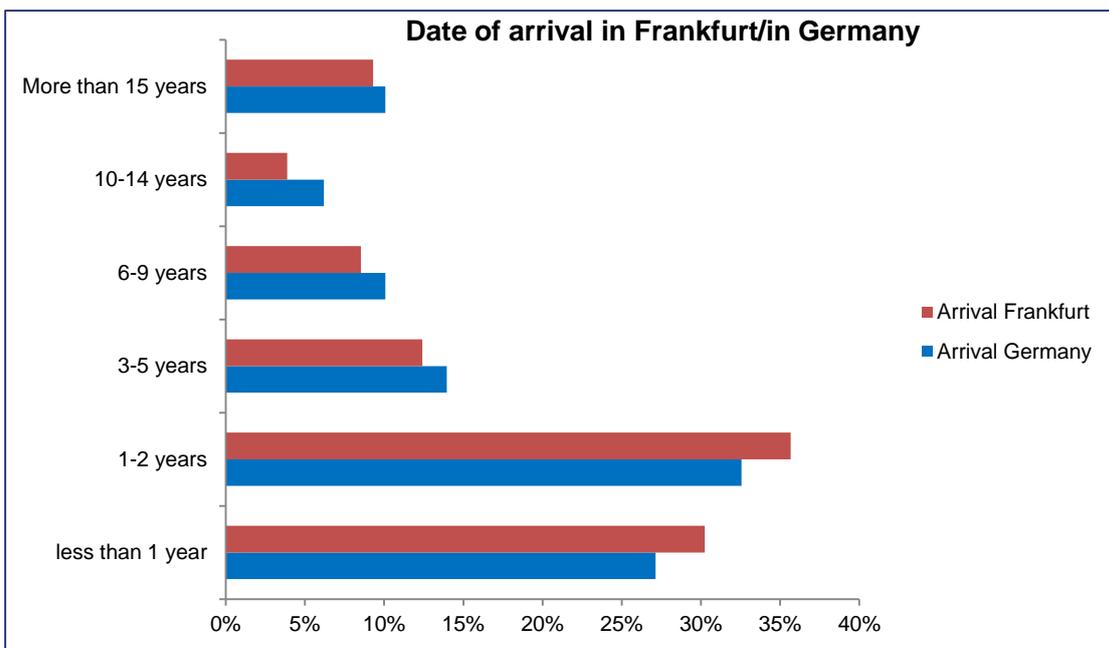
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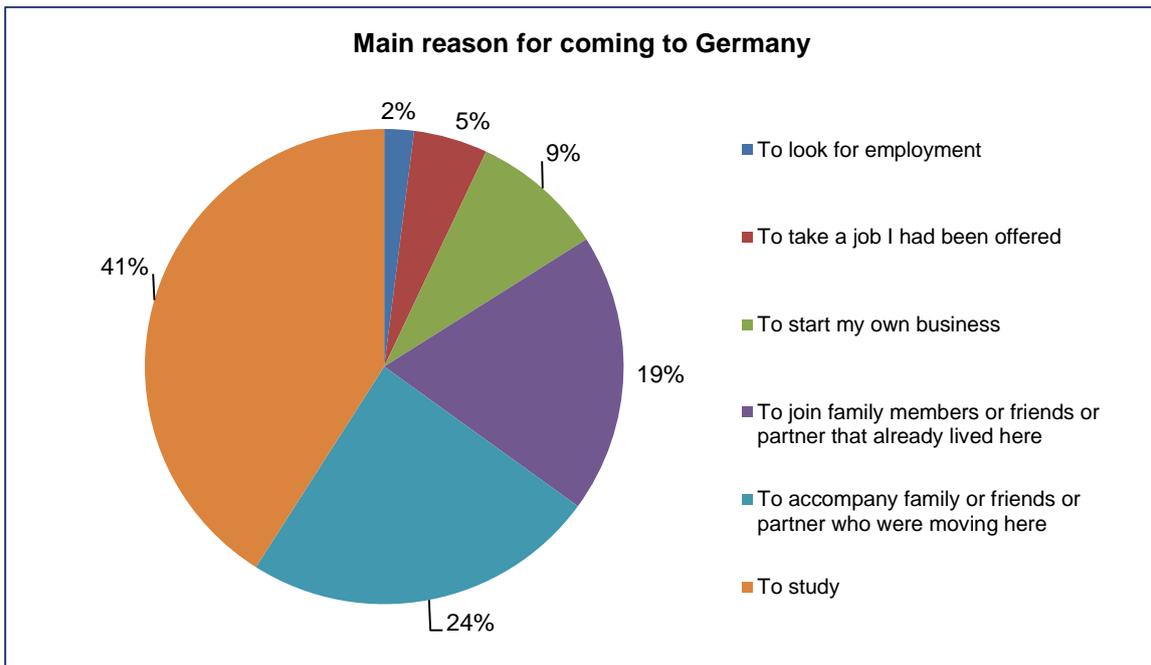
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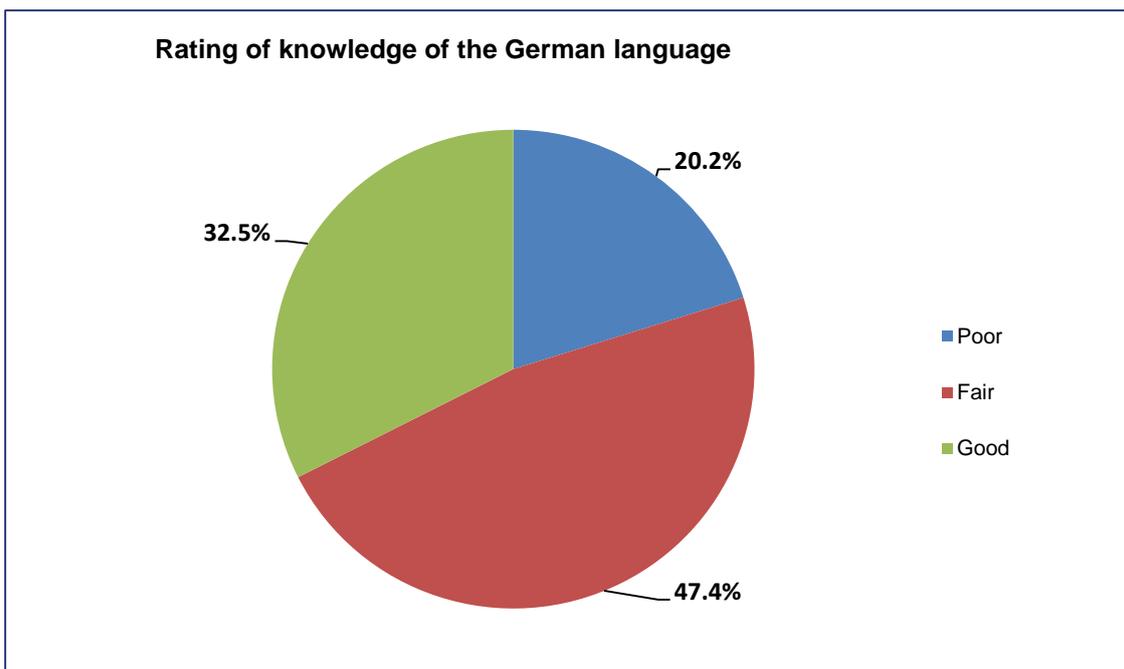
Source: Ecorys.



Source: Ecorys.



Source: Ecorys.



Source: Ecorys.

## Key challenges and opportunities

	Challenges	Opportunities
Migrant EU workers	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ Labour market access, in particular due to German language skills, qualification recognition;</li> <li>▪ Navigation of local services, in particular health care;</li> <li>▪ Access to housing for all migrant EU worker groups, but in particular for low skilled workers in precarious positions.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ Economic and career opportunities;</li> <li>▪ Access to good quality services.</li> </ul>
Local economy / workers	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ Some concerns around pressures on the local labour market, in particular in low skilled professions;</li> <li>▪ Issues with the integration of the core of local long-term unemployed (often with migrant background themselves), which are not reintegrated in the labour market;</li> <li>▪ Pressure on house prices.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ Availability of greater local professional services and goods, i.e. handicrafts, cleaning services;</li> <li>▪ General economic growth in the Frankfurt area.</li> </ul>
Local community	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ Some concerns around community cohesion;</li> <li>▪ Pressures on some local services, in particular housing, emergency health care and emergency shelters, schools.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ Diversity of social and cultural offers;</li> <li>▪ Simplified administrative procedures and information materials.</li> </ul>



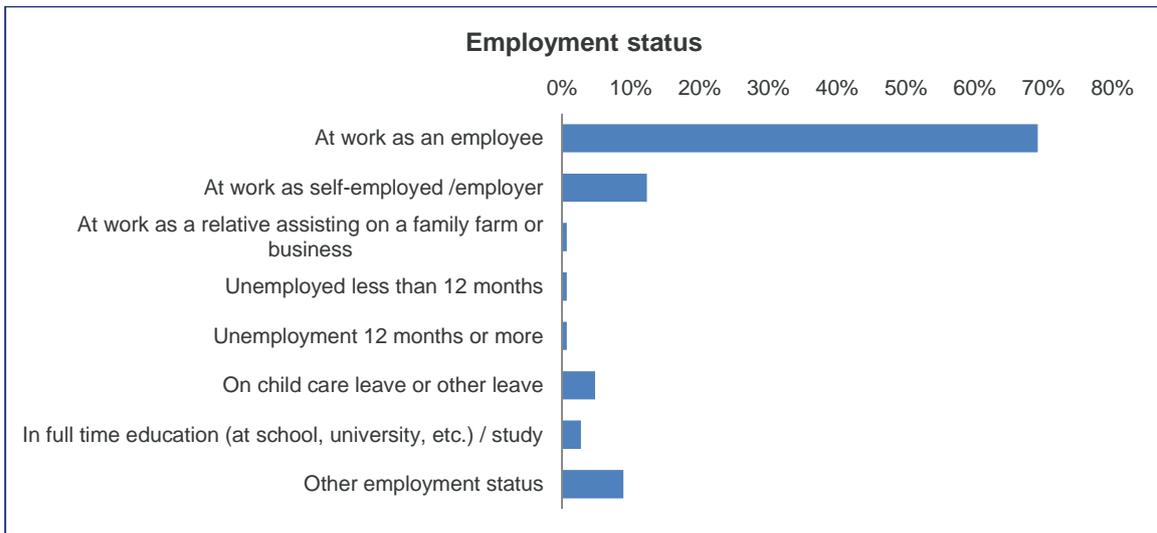
## Factsheet Leeds

### EU migrants in Leeds - key data from available statistics

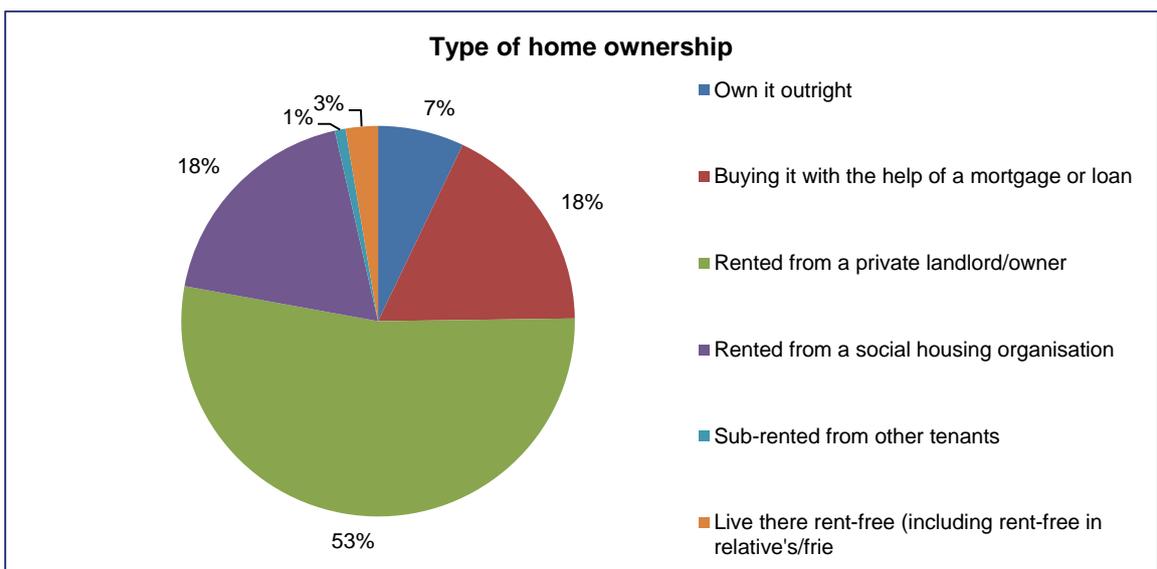
Number of EU migrants <sup>a</sup>	25,853
Share of city population <sup>a</sup>	3.2%
Main nationalities <sup>a</sup>	Poland (28.3%), Ireland (18.7%), Germany (11.9%)
Economic activity rate <sup>a</sup>	79% for EU-10 and EU-2 migrants, 64-66% for EU-15 migrants, and 45% for Irish migrants
Employment rate <sup>a</sup>	94% for Irish migrants, 93% for EU-10 and EU-2 migrants, and 90.2% for EU-15 migrants
Other key demographic characteristics <sup>a</sup>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ Polish migrants constitute 28% of EU migrants but over 34% of the population of employed EU migrants. Conversely, Irish migrants made up nearly 19% of the total EU migrant population but their share of the employed migrant population is smaller at 14%;</li> <li>▪ Only 14% of Irish migrants had arrived in the UK since 2001; the largest proportion of migrants from EU-10 and EU-2 arrived in the years after their country became an EU Member State; nearly half of the EU-15 population arrived post-2000, with an increase in the number of EU-15 migrants between 2007 and 2009;</li> <li>▪ Over 65% of migrants from Ireland are over 50 years of age. Conversely, 76% of EU-10 and EU-2 migrants are aged 16 to 49. Migrants from the EU-15 countries are more equally spread across age groups;</li> <li>▪ Occupation-level data indicates a skills mismatch of EU-10 and EU-2 migrants, with qualifications not matching the employment profiles of migrants.</li> </ul> <p><i>Source: Census for England and Wales, 2011.</i></p>

<sup>a</sup> Based on country of birth. EU includes all EU Member States at the time of 2011 census.

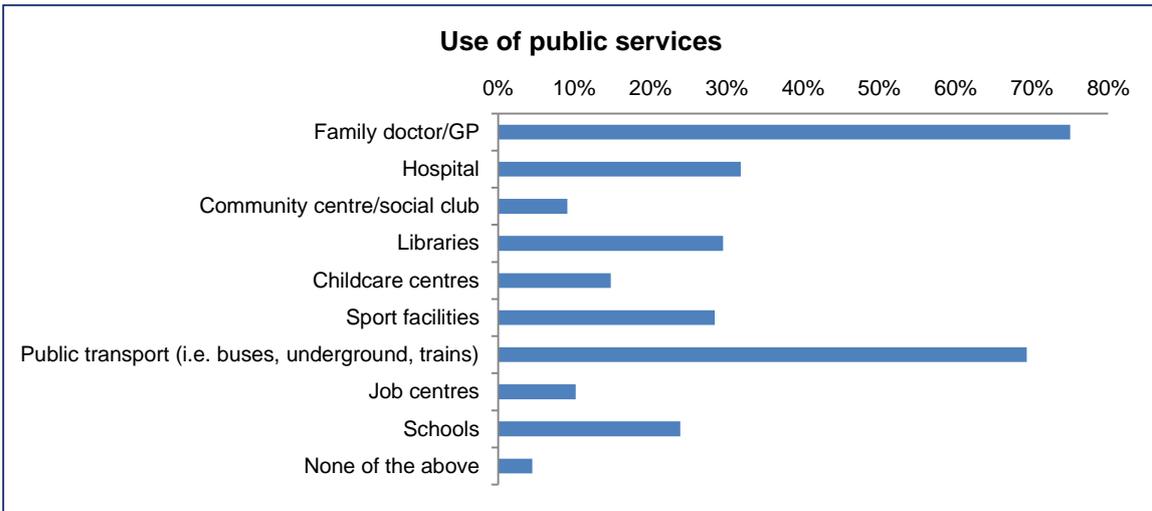
## Survey on migrant EU workers: selected results



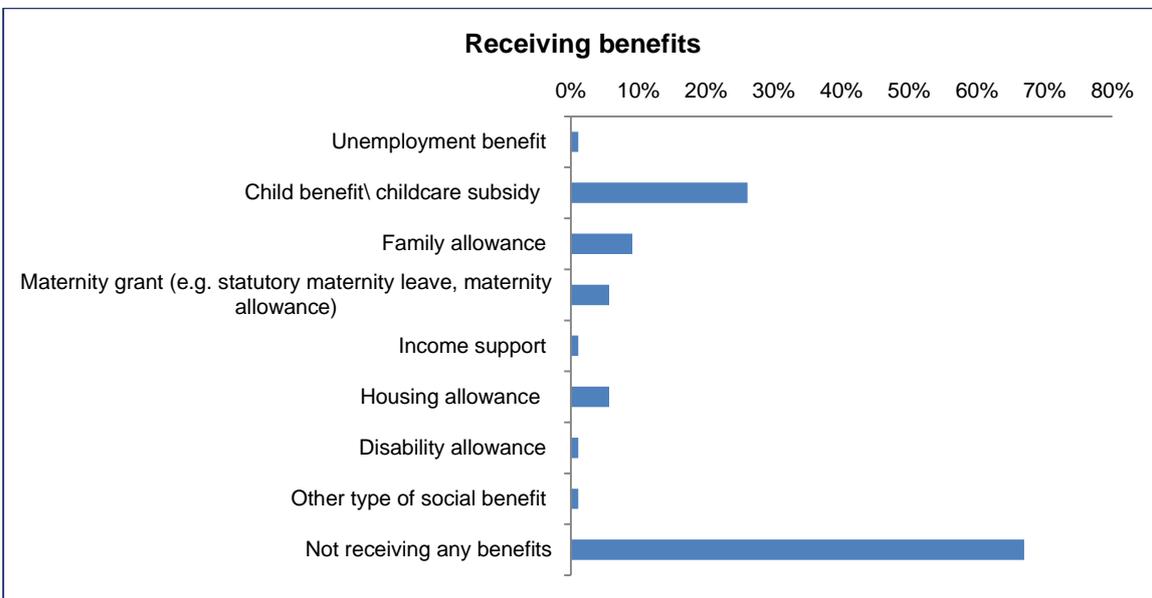
Source: RAND Europe.



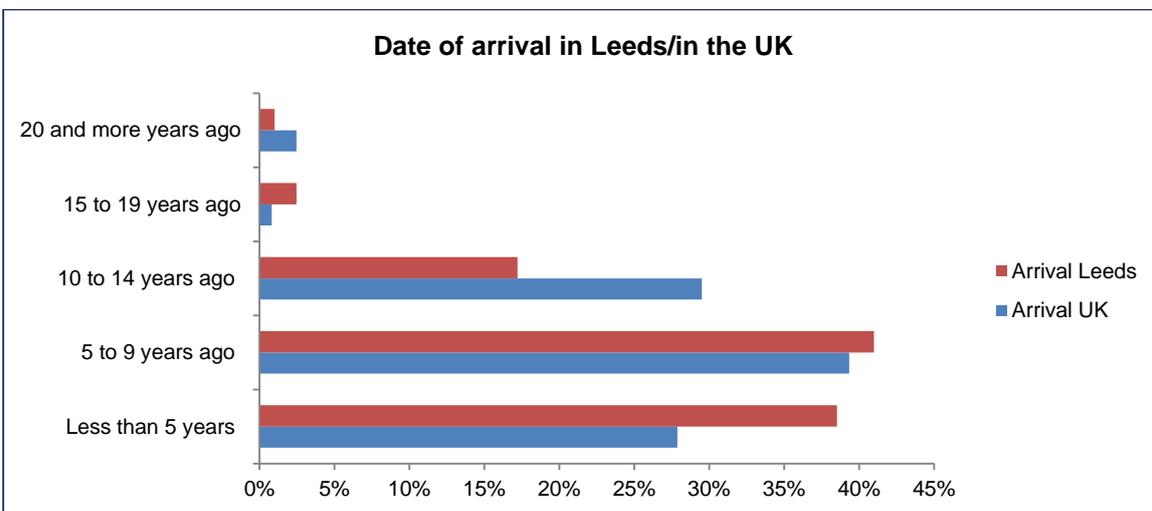
Source: RAND Europe.



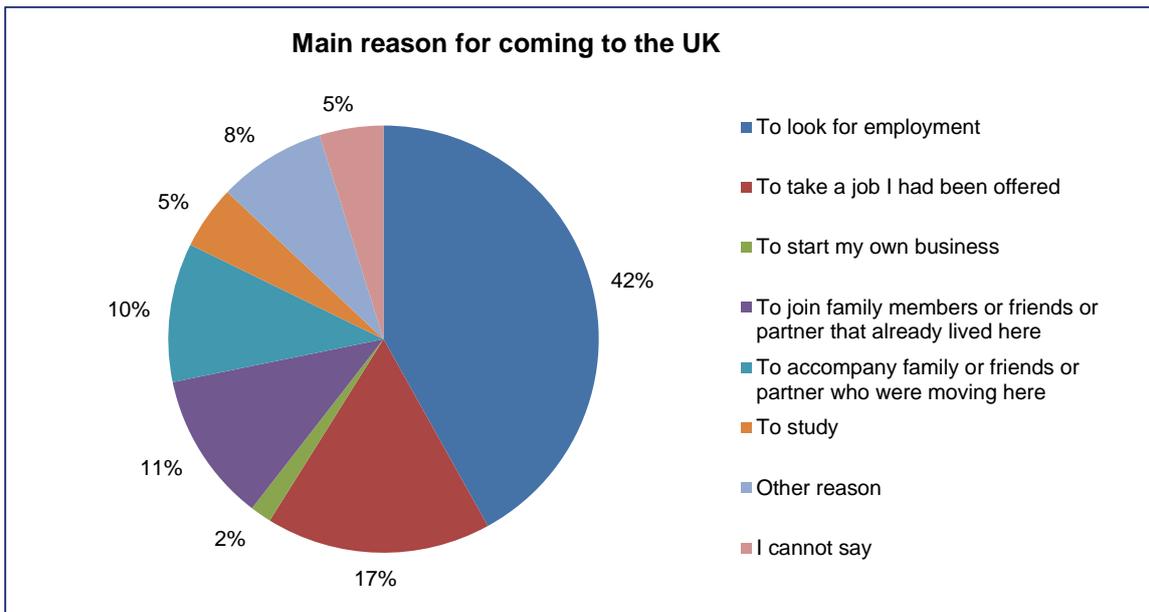
Source: RAND Europe.



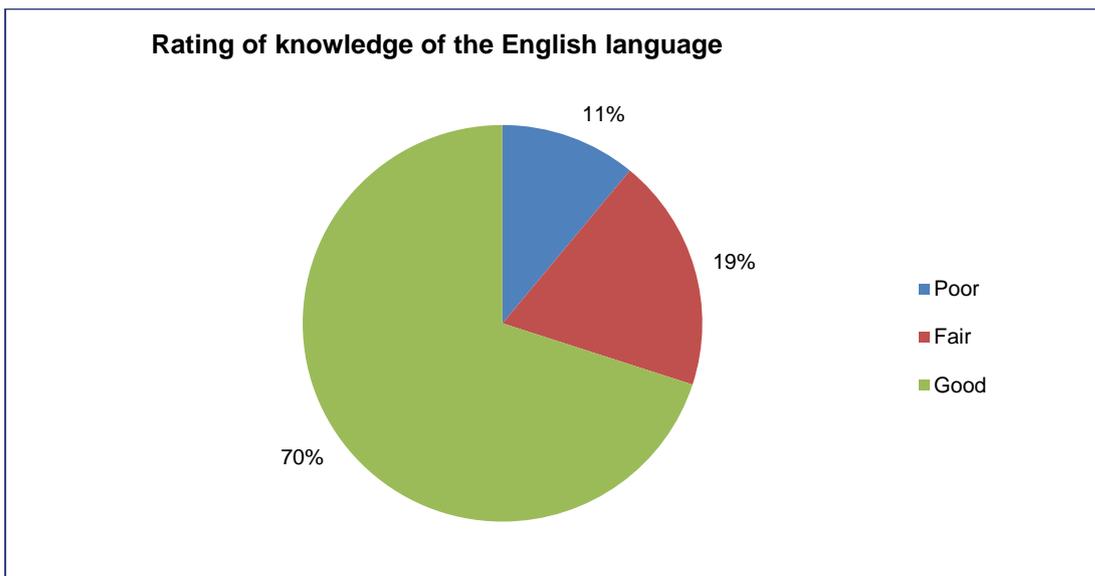
Source: RAND Europe.



Source: RAND Europe.



Source: RAND Europe.



Source: RAND Europe.

## Key challenges and opportunities

	Challenges	Opportunities
Migrant EU workers	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ Language skills affecting the extent of migrants' economic and social inclusion;</li> <li>▪ Skills mismatch as qualifications and skills acquired in home countries are not fully recognised in the UK, having jobs below skills level, loss of human capital;</li> <li>▪ Working conditions and a risk of exploitation for low-skilled workers;</li> <li>▪ Shared and often overcrowded accommodation in the initial period after arrival.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ Economic and professional prospects;</li> <li>▪ Possibility to develop professionally for some;</li> <li>▪ Access to some social benefits, providing necessary requirements are met (residence in the UK for 3 months and employment);</li> <li>▪ Access to healthcare services often offered or facilitated in native languages;</li> <li>▪ Exposure to different culture and diversity.</li> </ul>
Local economy / workers	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ Migrants perceived as competition for jobs and services by local community;</li> <li>▪ Increased expectations from employers based on migrants outperforming the local workers.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ Opportunities to establish businesses serving new migrants.</li> </ul>
Local community	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ Tensions between migrants and local community observed in workplaces, at schools and on the streets;</li> <li>▪ Increased pressure on access to and maintaining the quality of education;</li> <li>▪ Potentially future pressure on healthcare services and improving the well-being of migrant employees.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ Increased cultural diversity;</li> <li>▪ Diversification of products in local shops and supermarkets;</li> <li>▪ Learning new languages and ways of doing things differently;</li> <li>▪ Potential economic benefits due to entrepreneurial energy of arriving migrants (filling in skill gaps and job vacancies; setting up their own businesses, potentially creating new jobs).</li> </ul>



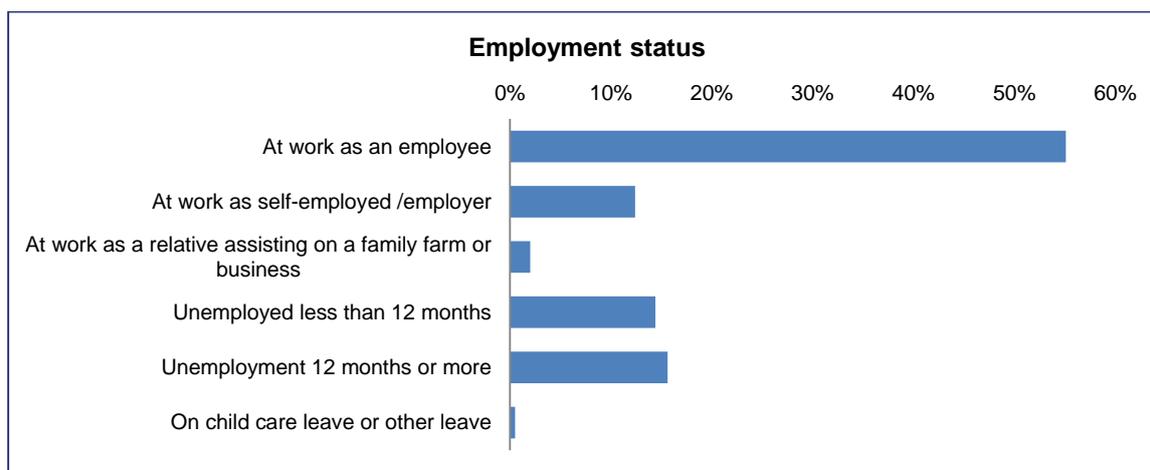
## Factsheet Milan

### EU migrants in Milan - key data from available statistics

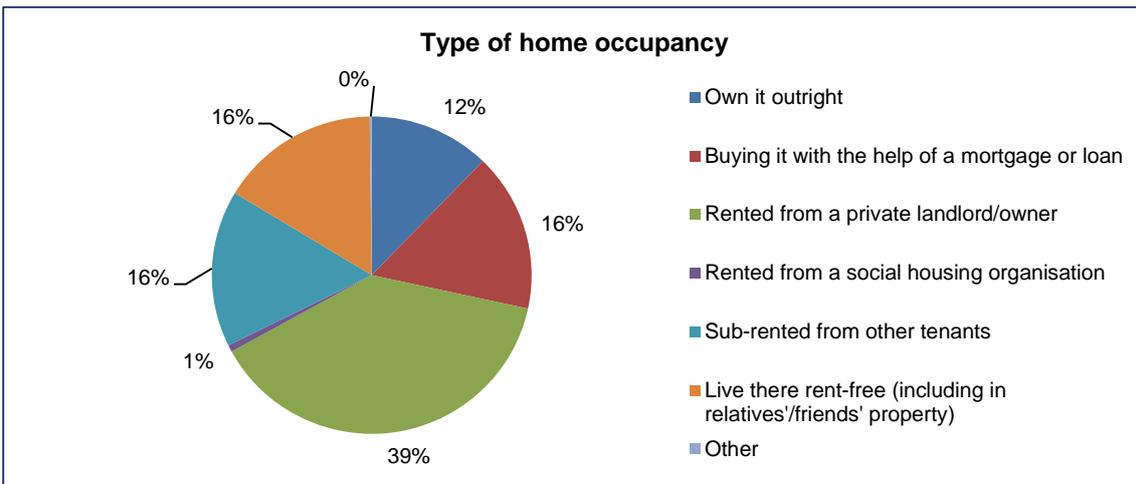
Number of EU migrants <sup>a</sup>	26 213
Share of city population <sup>a</sup>	2,0%
Main nationalities <sup>a</sup>	Romania (45%), France (12%), Germany (6%)
Economic activity rate	80,50%
Employment rate	79,30%
Other key demographic characteristics	The vast majority of registered EU-28 migrants living in Milan (73%) are aged between 21 and 50, with the highest proportion (33.4%) falling in the 31-40 year-old age group

<sup>a</sup> Based on citizenship.

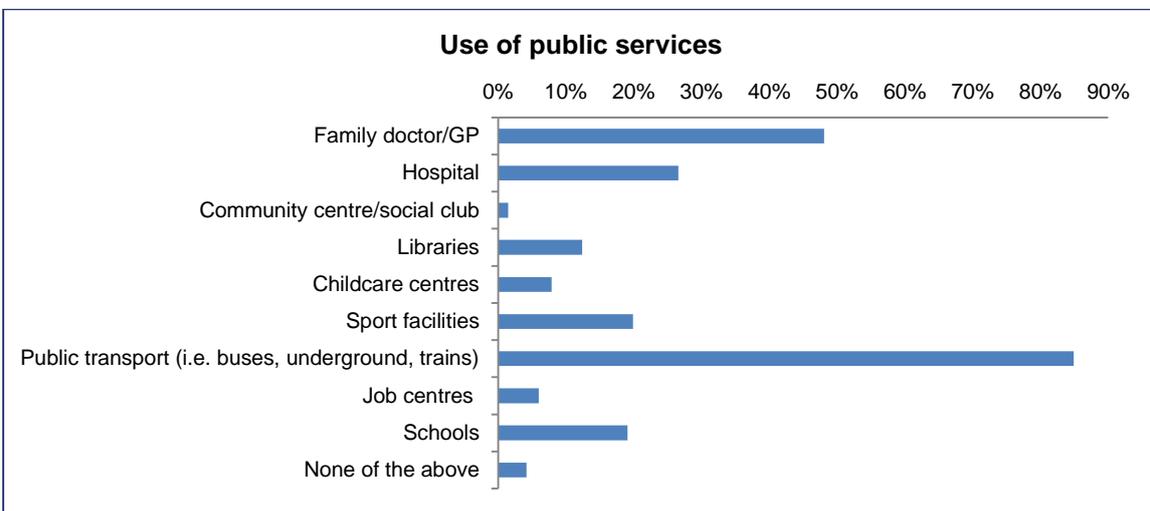
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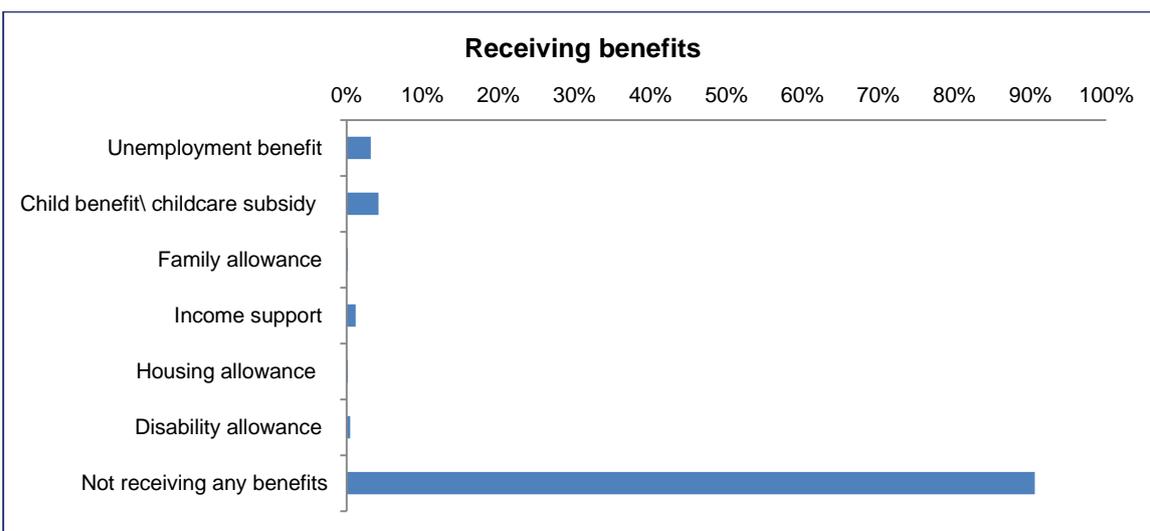
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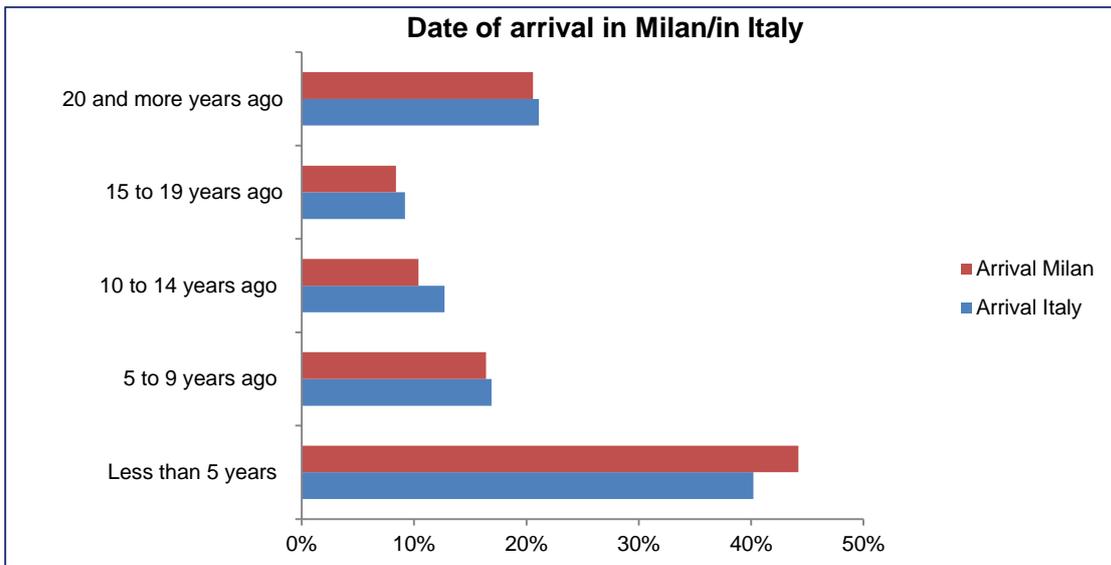
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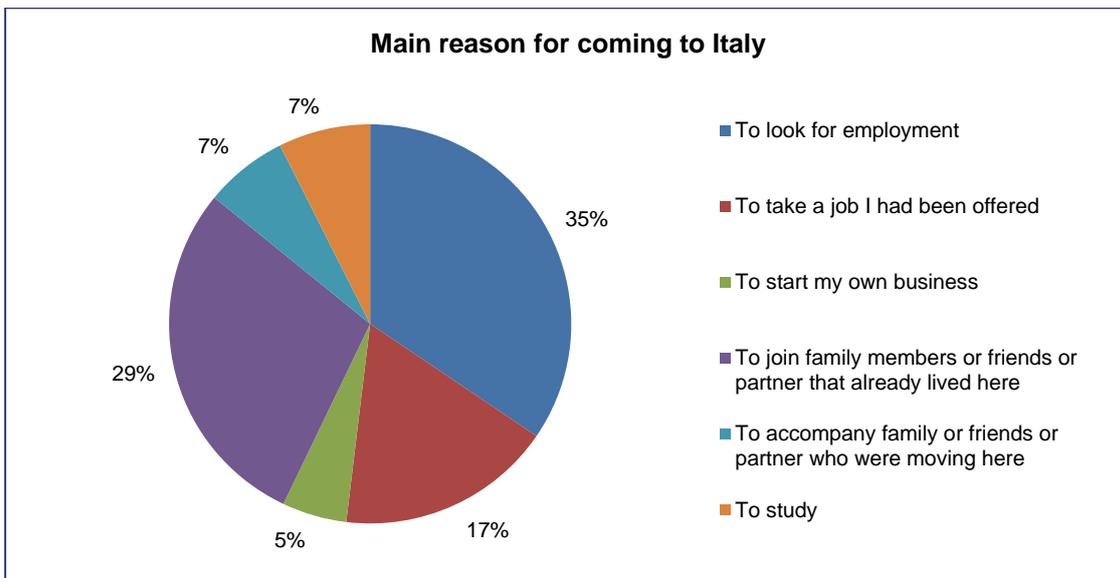
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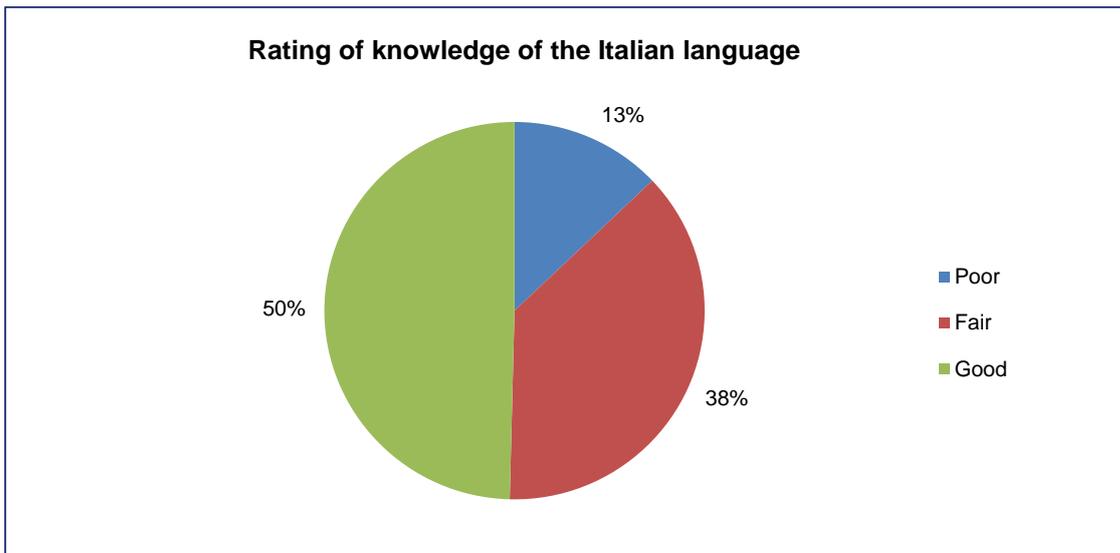
Source: Ecorys.



Source: Ecorys.



Source: Ecorys.



Source: Ecorys.

## Key challenges and opportunities

	Challenges	Opportunities
Migrant EU workers	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ Difficulties in the recognition and validation of diplomas;</li> <li>▪ Limited knowledge of the Italian language, hindering access to information and job offers;</li> <li>▪ Difficult access to information on vacancies/ poor functioning of mechanisms matching labour supply and demand;</li> <li>▪ Relevance and effectiveness of social networks to find employment; sector or occupational segregation as a side effect;</li> <li>▪ Lack of information to employers about administrative procedures to hire a foreign worker;</li> <li>▪ Lack of information to public services staff, increasing the burden on EU-28 citizens with wrong or duplicated administrative procedures;</li> <li>▪ Extremely difficult access to regulated professions for foreign citizens;</li> <li>▪ Skills mismatch: (Eastern) EU-28 migrants hired at a lower qualification level even if they perform a highly qualified job;</li> <li>▪ Higher exposure to worse working conditions;</li> <li>▪ Housing can be problematic.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ Contribution to local economy;</li> <li>▪ Reorganisation of local services.</li> </ul>
Local workers	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ In some occasions, perception of migrant EU workers as a threat by local workers in low-paid and low-skilled occupations.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ Coverage of low-skilled jobs usually rejected by locals.</li> </ul>
Local community	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ Spatial segregation/ potential conflicts with locals.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ Higher offer of certain services and cultural options at a local level.</li> </ul>



## Factsheet Rotterdam

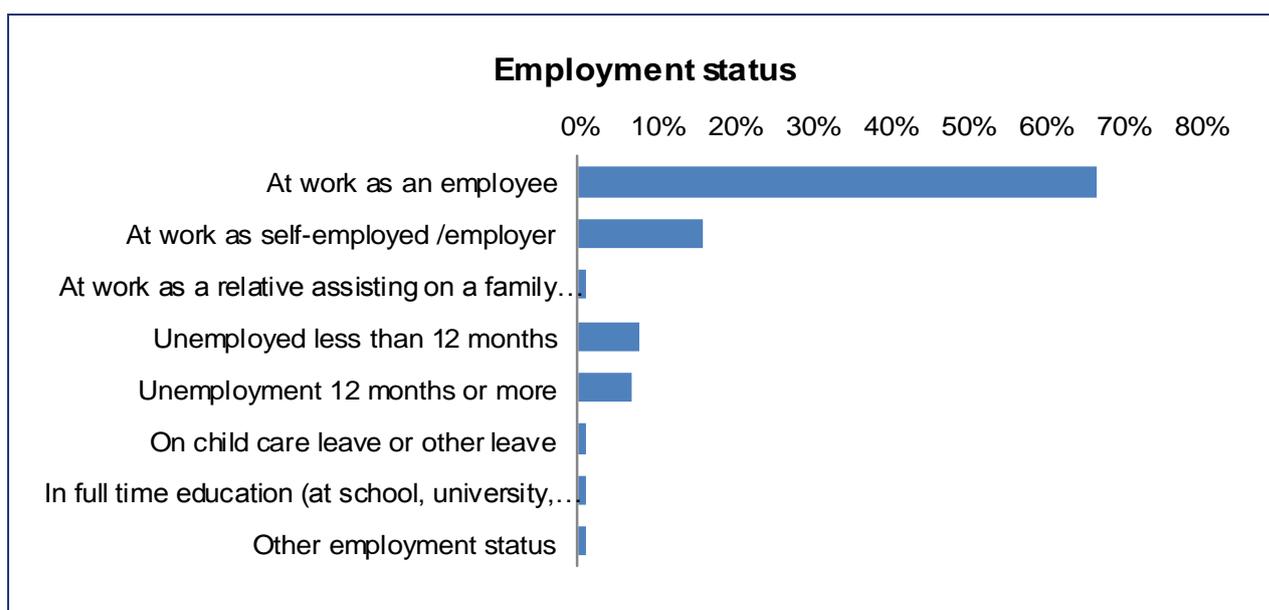
### EU migrants in Rotterdam - key data from available statistics

Number of EU migrants <sup>a</sup>	23,446 <sup>b</sup>
Share of city population <sup>a</sup>	3.8%
Main nationalities <sup>a</sup>	Poland (17.3%), Portugal (14.8%), Germany (11.2%)
Economic activity rate	n/a
Employment rate	n/a
Other key demographic characteristics	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ Migrants from Central- and Eastern European countries are mostly 25 to 34 years old;</li> <li>▪ migrants from Southern European countries more equally spread across the age pyramid;</li> <li>▪ 32% of migrants from Central and Eastern Europe and 57% of migrants from Southern Europe have lived in the city for more than 5 years.</li> </ul> <p><i>Source: Monitor Programma EU Arbeidsmigratie 2013.</i></p>

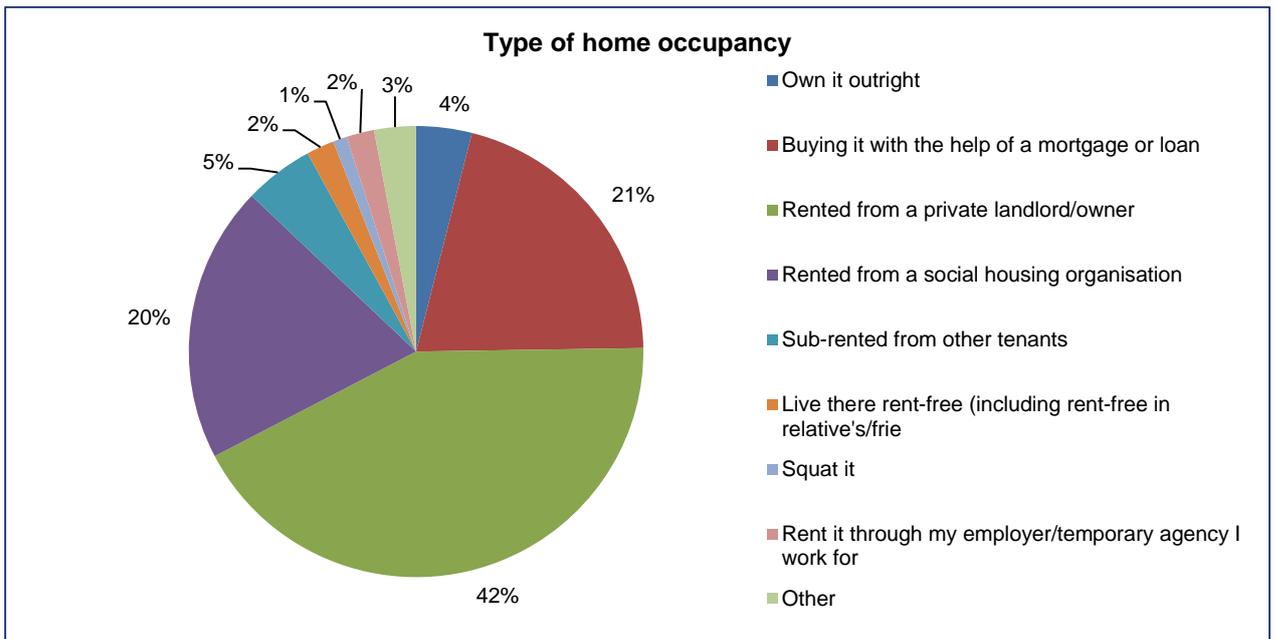
<sup>a</sup> Based on citizenship.

<sup>b</sup> This is an estimation. Factual numbers are expected to be 2 to 3 times higher, and the share of the population could be higher as a consequence.

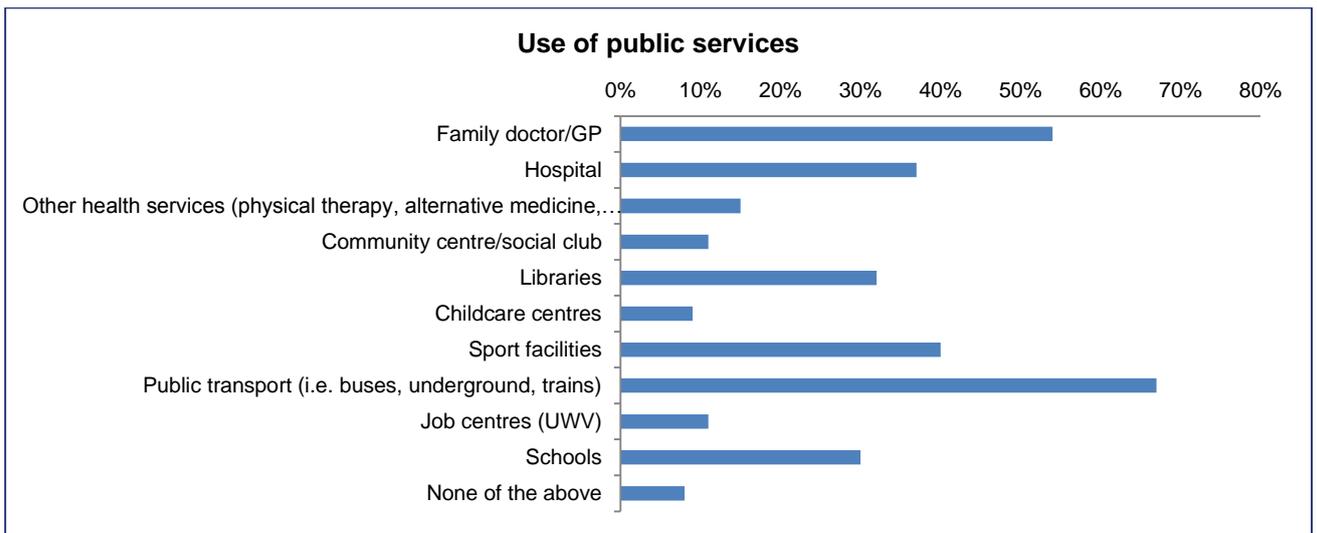
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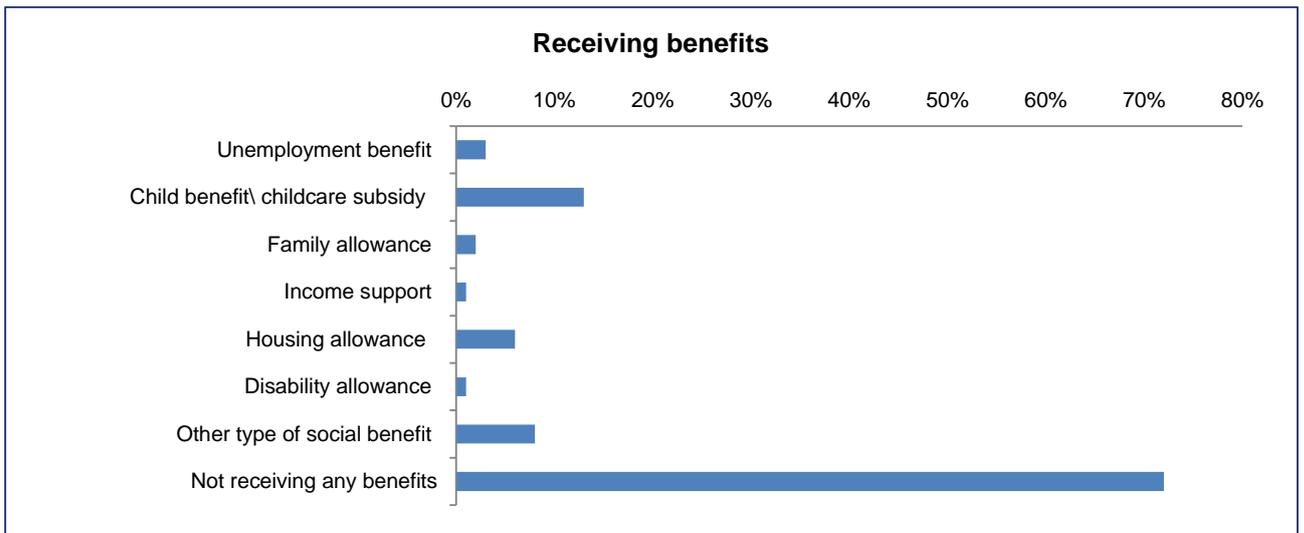
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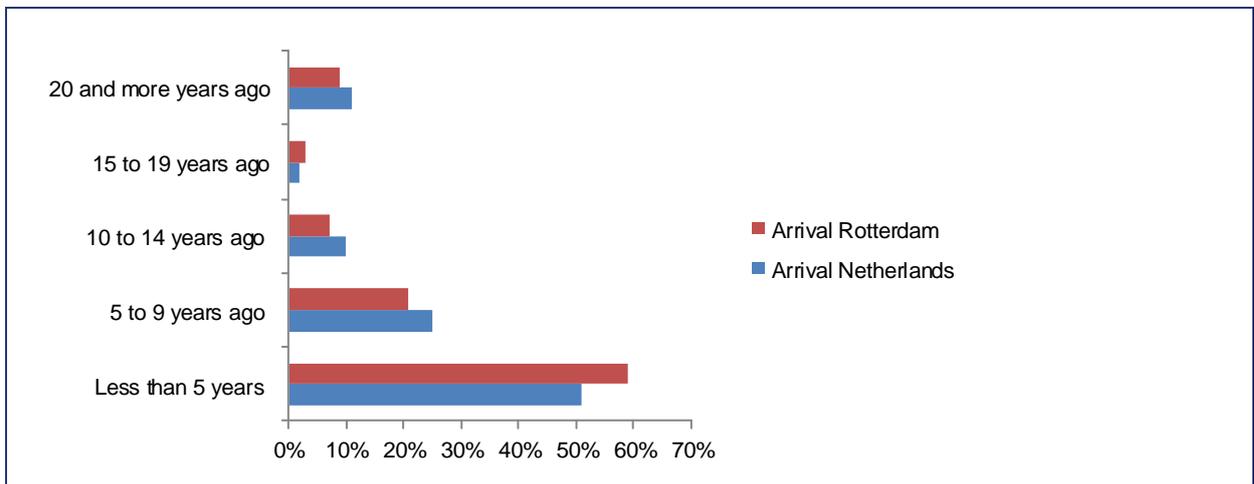
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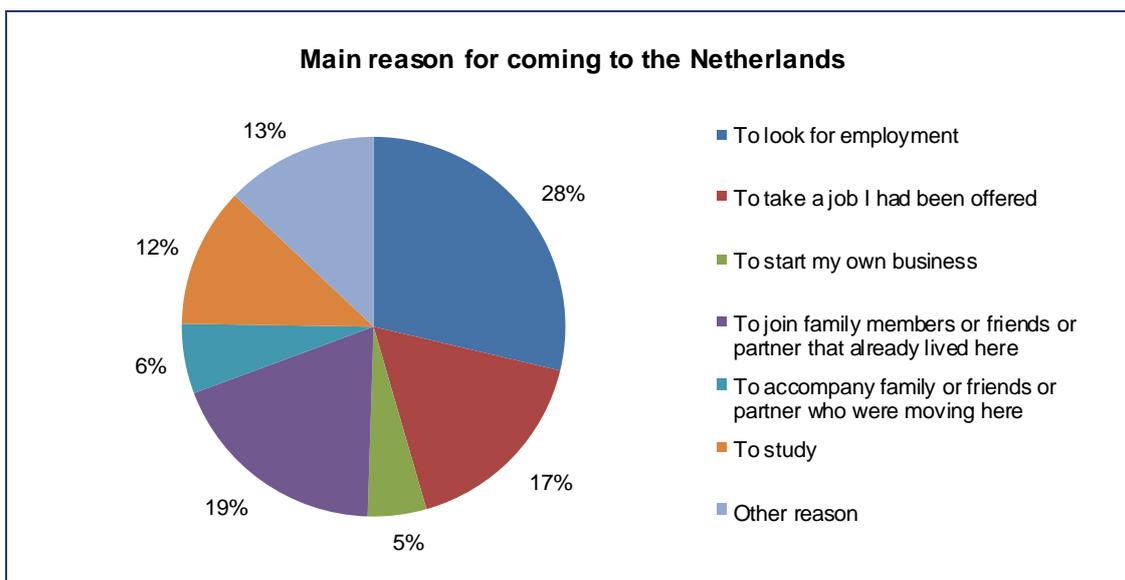
Source: Ecorys.



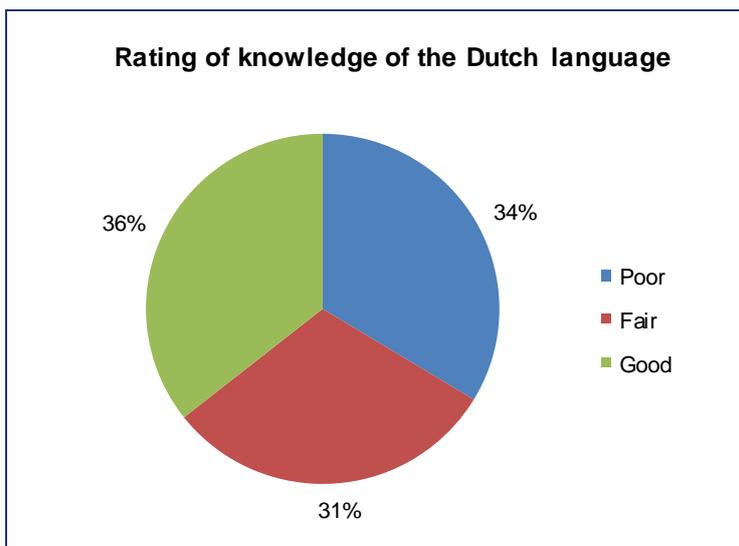
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Source: Ecorys.

## Key challenges and opportunities

	Challenges	Opportunities
Migrant EU workers	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ Language barriers;</li> <li>▪ Information on public and social services;</li> <li>▪ Lack of knowledge of the law and regulations by newcomers;</li> <li>▪ Possible abuses by employers;</li> <li>▪ Finding work (after losing first job);</li> <li>▪ Decent and affordable housing;</li> <li>▪ Social participation in Dutch society can be rather difficult.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ Job opportunities (including seasonal and flexible work);</li> <li>▪ Opportunities for studying;</li> <li>▪ A well developed network and infrastructure for migrants to come to work in the Netherlands / Rotterdam;</li> <li>▪ Presence of large groups of other migrants from the same country;</li> <li>▪ Specific services and facilities from and for migrants from specific countries.</li> </ul>
Local economy / workers	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ Perceived potential displacement of Dutch labour force;</li> <li>▪ Acceleration of increase in flexibility of the labour market;</li> <li>▪ Pressure on wages and working conditions by increased supply of labour (especially in transport, construction, cleaning);</li> <li>▪ Perception that power relations between employers and employees are changing due to the temporary nature of the migration / labour and the relatively large numbers of migrants in some sectors (e.g., food, meat).</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ Coverage of low-skilled jobs usually rejected by locals;</li> <li>▪ Availability of flexible labour;</li> <li>▪ EU migrants provide additional business competitiveness by filling bottleneck vacancies (both low and high skilled);</li> <li>▪ Contribution to the local economy (EU migrants spend money in local shops and for local services);</li> <li>▪ Starting up new businesses (driver for entrepreneurship).</li> </ul>

	<b>Challenges</b>	<b>Opportunities</b>
Local community	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ Since EU migrants often do not register with the municipality other public organisations do not have a complete picture of residents in the city;</li> <li>▪ Pressure on (the lower end of) the housing market. This especially affects low income families;</li> <li>▪ Challenges for schools as a result of irregular inflow and outflow, limited language skills, increased percentage of school drop outs and subsequent financial consequences for schools;</li> <li>▪ The concentration of constantly changing groups of flex migrants leads in some cases to overcrowding and nuisances in neighbourhoods.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ Contribution to local taxes;</li> <li>▪ Migrants have a strong will to work and a flexible attitude;</li> <li>▪ Migrants also tend to be relatively young and so partly offset the effects of an aging population;</li> <li>▪ Diversification of cultural offers; more variation in retail, religious services, culture and sports;</li> <li>▪ Contribution to image of Rotterdam as international port.</li> </ul>

## Introduction

With contract number No. VC/2014/0327 of 15 July 2014, DG Employment, Social Affairs and Inclusion has entrusted Ecorys in collaboration with RAND to deliver “Surveys and reports on challenges and opportunities of socio-economic inclusion of migrant EU workers in four selected European cities”. The purpose of the assignment was to provide the European Commission with information on the challenges and the opportunities in the economic and social inclusion of migrant EU workers and their families at local level, within the framework in particular of Article 45 TFEU and Regulation (EU) 492/2011 and Regulation (EC) 883/2004 on the coordination of social security systems.

The surveys will also serve the purpose to inform the ongoing debate at local, national and European level, on intra-EU labour mobility, by providing concrete examples of challenges and opportunities related to the socioeconomic inclusion of migrant EU workers.

This report is the final synthesis report summarising the results of the four city reports on Frankfurt, Leeds, Milan and Rotterdam.

In the four cities, information was gathered through a variety of methods: literature review; analysis of statistical data; interviews and focus groups with key stakeholders (employer, trade unions, local authorities, migrants’ associations, public and private employment services, other civil society organisations; etc.) and questionnaires for migrant EU workers. The lists of interviewees and other methodological details are provided in the city reports.

This report is divided in five chapters. The first chapter sets out the policy context at EU level on the free movement of workers, including recent developments and debates. The second chapter sketches a profile of EU labour migration in the four cities. The third chapter discusses the challenges and opportunities for migrant EU workers, local workers and the local community in various domains: when arriving and registering; in getting a job and starting a business; when accessing local services and when participating in social and cultural life. The fourth chapter discusses the policies and practices to support the socioeconomic inclusion of migrant EU workers at local level. The fifth chapter draws conclusions and provides recommendations for the socioeconomic inclusion of migrant EU workers.



## 1. EU policy context

### 1.1. Legal background

The freedom of EU citizens (and workers) to freely move, work and live in another Member State is at the heart of European integration. Along with the free movement of goods, services and capital, it is one of the four fundamental freedoms underpinning the internal market and for over fifty years it has been a major goal of the EU.<sup>3</sup>

#### The Treaty

Already in the Treaty of Paris (1951) establishing the European Coal and Steel Community a right to free movement for workers in these industries was introduced.<sup>4</sup> In the Treaty of Rome (1957) the common market was founded and the right for the free movement of workers within the European Economic Community for all industries was provided.<sup>5</sup>

The legal basis of the free movement can be found in Article 45 of the Treaty on the Functioning of the European Union. EU citizens are entitled to:

1. Look for a job in another EU country;
2. Work there without needing a work permit;
3. Reside there for that purpose;
4. Stay there even after employment has finished;
5. Enjoy equal treatment with nationals in access to employment, working conditions and all other social and tax advantages.<sup>6</sup>

#### The Directives

Along with the Treaty, the following directives assemble important additions to the legislation on the free movement of workers.

The Free Movement of Citizens Directive 2004/38/EC extended the right of free movement for citizens to the European Economic Area (EU plus Iceland, Norway and Liechtenstein) and gave citizens the right of free movement and residence across the EEA, as long as they “do not to become a burden on the social assistance system of the host Member State during their period of residence and have comprehensive sickness insurance cover in the host Member State”.<sup>7</sup> It also strengthened the rights of family members of European citizens using the freedom of movement.

The regulation No 1612/68 (last amended by Regulation (EU) 492/2011) on freedom of movement for workers within the Community emphasizes the integration character of the free movement for workers. It is seen as “one of the means by which the worker is guaranteed the possibility of improving his living and working conditions and promoting his social advancement, while helping to satisfy the requirements of the economies of the

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3 Regulation (EU) 492/2011.

4 European Commission, Treaty establishing the European Coal and Steel Community. URL: [http://europa.eu/legislation\\_summaries/institutional\\_affairs/treaties/treaties\\_ecsc\\_en.htm](http://europa.eu/legislation_summaries/institutional_affairs/treaties/treaties_ecsc_en.htm) (as of 02/03/15).

5 European Commission, Treaty establishing the European Economic Community. URL: [http://europa.eu/legislation\\_summaries/institutional\\_affairs/treaties/treaties\\_eec\\_en.htm](http://europa.eu/legislation_summaries/institutional_affairs/treaties/treaties_eec_en.htm) (as of 02/03/15).

6 European Commission (2015), Free movement – EU nationals. URL: <http://ec.europa.eu/social/main.jsp?catId=457> (as of 02/03/15).

7 2004/38/EC, Art. 7.

Member States”.<sup>8</sup> Nevertheless, the way in which the rules for the free movement of workers are applied cannot avoid all barriers and discriminatory practices based on nationality. Even when national legislation is compliant, public authorities and private employers might not always be aware of EU rules and this lack of knowledge could become a source of discrimination.<sup>9</sup>

To tackle this lack of awareness and consistency in the application of workers’ rights to free movement, the European Commission proposed the Directive 2014/54/EU on “measures facilitating the exercise of rights conferred on workers in the context of freedom of movement for workers” which the Parliament and the Council adopted in April 2014.<sup>10</sup> Member States are since then required to provide appropriate means of redress at the national level and to give better information to Migrant EU workers and employers in general.

Another attempt to reduce the obstacles to freedom of movement is the EU Directive (2005/36/EC) on the recognition of professional qualifications (last amended by Directive 2013/55/EU) which puts in place provisions for EU citizens to have the professional qualifications they obtained in one EU country recognised in other EU countries.<sup>11</sup>

### **Recent developments**

At EU level, the potential of geographical mobility to advance economic growth was emphasised again in 2012 with the European Commission’s Employment Package, which notes that it enhances “the (re)allocation of resources by acting as an adjustment mechanism for distorted labour markets whilst also enabling economies to better cope with sudden shocks”.<sup>12</sup>

Despite the economic crisis and the rise in unemployment, there are still labour and skill shortages in some European countries and regions. As a strategy to reduce discrepancies between supply and demand the European Commission, accordingly, has focused on increasing geographical mobility for the Europe 2020 growth strategy and the Employment package.<sup>13</sup>

Juncker’s new Commission highlights the importance of labour mobility with a new Labour Mobility Package presented recently in their Work programme for 2015. The package aims at supporting labour mobility and tackling abuse by means of better coordination of social security systems, the targeted review of the Posting of Workers Directive and an enhanced European Employment Services - EURES (a cooperation network designed to facilitate the free movement of workers within the European Economic Area and Switzerland. Its aim is to provide information, advice and guidance to potentially mobile workers and employers on job opportunities, and living as well as working conditions abroad. Finally, EURES aims to facilitate job matching, placement and recruitment in the intra-EEA labour market.<sup>14</sup>

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8 Regulation (EU) No 1612/68.

9 European Commission (2014), Free movement of workers: Commission improves the application of worker's rights – frequently asked questions. URL: [http://europa.eu/rapid/press-release\\_MEMO-13-384\\_de.htm](http://europa.eu/rapid/press-release_MEMO-13-384_de.htm).

10 <http://eur-lex.europa.eu/legal-content/EN/TXT/PDF/?uri=CELEX:32014L0054>.

11 Eurofound (2014), Labour mobility in the EU: Recent trends and policies, Publications Office of the European Union, Luxembourg.

12 Eurofound (2014), Labour mobility in the EU: Recent trends and policies, Publications Office of the European Union, Luxembourg.

13 Eurofound (2014), Labour mobility in the EU: Recent trends and policies, Publications Office of the European Union, Luxembourg, p. 1.

14 European Commission, EURES. URL: <https://ec.europa.eu/eures/main.jsp?acro=eures&lang=en&catId=1&parentId=0> (as of 04/03/15).

## Exceptions

The citizenship of the Union comprises the equal treatment with nationals in relation to working. Therefore any discrimination in work related matters for reasons of nationality is prohibited. However, the following exceptions to this freedom have been put in place:

- There are restrictions based on considerations of **public security**, public policy, public health grounds and employment in the public sector (posts involving direct or indirect participation in the exercise of public authority and duties designed to safeguard the general interest of the state may be restricted to nationals)<sup>15</sup>;
- **Temporary restrictions** for the employment on equal, non-discriminatory terms in the old Member States have been put in place in regard to the Treaty of Accession of the new EU members (2004 and 2007). The old Member States have the right to impose such transitional period for 2 years, then they can decide to extend it for an additional period of 3 years, and then, if there is serious proof evidence that labour mobility from those new Member States would be disruptive to the market in the old Member States, then the period can be extended for a final episode of 2 more years (2+3+2 transitional periods).<sup>16</sup>

**Table 1.1 Restrictions to the free movement of people for citizens of new Member States**

Country Groups	Member States	Entry of workers from Bulgaria and Romania	Entry of workers from Bulgaria and Romania	Entry of workers from Bulgaria and Romania		Entry of workers from Croatia
		Jan 2007– Dec 2008	Jan 2009– Dec 2011	Jan 2012– Dec 2013	July 2013– June 2015	
EU 15	Austria	Restricted	Restricted	Restricted	Restricted	
	Belgium	Restricted	Restricted	Restricted	Restricted	
	Denmark	Restricted	Open	Open	Open	
	Finland	Open	Open	Open	Open	
	France	Restricted	Restricted	Restricted	Restricted	
	Germany	Restricted	Restricted	Restricted	Restricted	
	Greece	Restricted	Open	Open	Restricted	
	Ireland	Restricted	Restricted	Open	Open	
	Italy	Restricted	Restricted	Open	Restricted	
	Luxemburg	Restricted	Restricted	Restricted	Restricted	
	Netherlands	Restricted	Restricted	Restricted	Restricted	
	Portugal	Restricted	Open	Open	Open	
	Spain	Restricted	Open	Restricted	Restricted	

<sup>15</sup> European Commission, Employment in the public sector. URL: <http://ec.europa.eu/social/main.jsp?catId=465&langId=en> (as of 02/03/15).

<sup>16</sup> European Commission (2006), FAQ on the Commission's free movement of workers report. URL: [http://europa.eu/rapid/press-release\\_MEMO-06-64\\_en.htm?locale=en](http://europa.eu/rapid/press-release_MEMO-06-64_en.htm?locale=en) (as of 02/03/15).

Country Groups	Member States	Entry of workers from Bulgaria and Romania	Entry of workers from Bulgaria and Romania	Entry of workers from Bulgaria and Romania		Entry of workers from Croatia
				Jan 2007– Dec 2008	Jan 2009– Dec 2011	
2004 enlargement	Sweden	Open	Open	Open	Open	Open
	UK	Restricted	Restricted	Restricted	Restricted	Restricted
	Czech Republic	Open	Open	Open	Open	Open
	Estonia	Open	Open	Open	Open	Open
	Cyprus	Open	Open	Open	Restricted	Restricted
	Latvia	Open	Open	Open	Open	Open
	Lithuania	Open	Open	Open	Open	Open
	Hungary	Restricted	Open	Open	Open	Open
	Malta	Restricted	Restricted	Restricted	Restricted	Restricted
	Poland	Open	Open	Open	Open	Open
	Slovenia	Open	Open	Open	Open	Restricted
2007 enlargement	Bulgaria				Open	
	Romania				Open	

Source: Adapted from Eurofound (2014).<sup>17</sup>

## 1.2. Immigration creates a need for integration

EU migrants are considered as EU mobile citizens implying that the process of settling in is easier for those holding EU citizenship than for their third-country counterparts. However, there are cultural and language differences, and to fully “take advantage of the EU mobility benefits, policy makers must also consider the integration needs of EU citizens”.<sup>18</sup>

Mobile citizen inclusion falls between two EU policy objectives: the integration of third-country nationals and social inclusion policy for vulnerable groups. While the European Integration Fund is only funding non-EU migrants’ integration, the European Social Fund focuses on, *inter alia*, integration programmes for groups at-risk of marginalisation,

<sup>17</sup> Eurofound (2014), Labour mobility in the EU: Recent trends and policies, Publications Office of the European Union, Luxembourg. Available at: [http://eurofound.europa.eu/sites/default/files/ef\\_publication/field\\_ef\\_document/ef1456en\\_1.pdf](http://eurofound.europa.eu/sites/default/files/ef_publication/field_ef_document/ef1456en_1.pdf). Last accessed: 3 March 2015.

<sup>18</sup> Elisabeth Collet (2013), The integration needs of mobile EU citizens. Migration Policy Institute, p. 1.

including mobile EU citizens. In the 2007-2013 period, around €26.5 billion was made available for social inclusion projects as a whole, of €1.17 billion for specific action to increase migrants' participation in employment and thereby strengthen their social integration.<sup>19</sup> During the new financial period 2014-2020, at least €80 billion will be allocated to investment in human capital, employment and social inclusion through the European Social Fund.<sup>20</sup>

A high share of this funding is allocated to Roma inclusion, the biggest minority in Europe. For the period 2007-2013 over €100 million has been provided for projects which could exclusively or partly benefit Roma in the enlargement countries. To fight Roma marginalisation the EU put Member States already under an obligation to give Roma (like other EU citizens) non-discriminatory access to education, employment, vocational training, healthcare, social protection and housing through Directive 2000/43/EC.<sup>21</sup>

### **1.3. Contemporary policy debates on migrant EU workers**

The fact that the free movement of workers is one of the "four freedoms" that underpin the common market and that it is part of the Charter of fundamental rights of the EU shows the importance of this provision. However, in recent years this cornerstone of the EU integration has become subject to debate in several Member States, for instance those initiated by Eurosceptic political parties, such as FPÖ, PVV, UKIP and Front National, in Austria, the Netherlands, the UK and France respectively.

Due to local unemployment and pressure on social security systems some Member States appear to try to reinstall measures of labour market protectionism. The main argument used in this debate about renegotiation of the free mobility terms refers to curtailing so-called "social benefits tourism". The fear that EU migrants only move to another EU country in order to abuse the social welfare system has been especially topical when the restrictions on the right of Bulgarian and Romanian nationals to work in several Member States were removed in the end of 2013. While studies suggest that EU citizens from other Member States "use welfare benefits no more intensively than the host country's nationals"<sup>22</sup> and that they "contributed far more in tax than they had claimed in benefits over a decade"<sup>23</sup> Eurosceptic parties continue stating a negative impact of EU migration.

After the first transitional period ended in 2011, the majority of the EU-15 countries (Austria, Cyprus, Denmark, Finland, France, Germany, the Netherlands, Norway and Sweden) implemented new policy measures in an attempt to prevent social and wage dumping, as well as undeclared work. Some Member States (Cyprus, Denmark, Finland, France, the Netherlands, Norway and Sweden) have introduced intensified tax, wage and work environment inspections in companies in order to secure compliance with national labour market regulations.<sup>24</sup>

19 European Commission (2010), The European Social Fund: migrants and minorities, European Union, p. 32.

20 European Commission (2014), Roma Integration – 2014. Commission Assessment: Questions and Answers. URL: [http://europa.eu/rapid/press-release\\_MEMO-14-249\\_en.htm](http://europa.eu/rapid/press-release_MEMO-14-249_en.htm).

21 European Commission (2011), An EU Framework for National Roma Integration Strategies up to 2020 URL: [http://ec.europa.eu/justice/policies/discrimination/docs/com\\_2011\\_173\\_en.pdf](http://ec.europa.eu/justice/policies/discrimination/docs/com_2011_173_en.pdf).

22 European Commission (2013), Impact of mobile EU citizens on national social security systems. URL: <http://ec.europa.eu/social/main.jsp?langId=en&catId=89&newsId=1980&furtherNews=yes> (as of 02/03/15).

23 The independent (2014), Nigel Farage: Immigration has made Britain the 'cheap labour economy of the EU' URL: <http://www.independent.co.uk/news/uk/politics/nigel-farage-immigration-has-made-britain-the-cheap-labour-economy-of-the-eu-9841888.html> (as of 02/03/15).

24 Eurofound (2014), Labour mobility in the EU: Recent trends and policies, Publications Office of the European Union, Luxembourg.

In April 2013 Ministers from Austria, Germany, The Netherlands and the UK expressed their concerns related to the abuses of the free movement Directive (2004/38) in a letter to the EU Council Presidency and the former commissioners Reding, Andor and Malmström. These Governments concluded that they should have at their disposal legal tools to prevent and fight social welfare system's fraud.<sup>25</sup>

Following this letter the Commission issued a Communication in November 2013 stating that the evidence suggests that most EU citizens moving to another Member State do so to work and that the percentage of mobile EU citizens who receive benefits is relatively low.<sup>26</sup> The Communication sets out the rights and obligations for EU citizens under EU law and clarifies the conditions citizens need to meet to be entitled to free movement, to benefit from social assistance and to social security benefits. In order to address the concerns that the above Member States expressed, the Commission set out five actions to help national and local authorities to: 1) fight marriages of convenience; 2) apply EU social security coordination rules; 3) address social inclusion challenges; 4) promote the exchange of best practices amongst local authorities; and 5) ensure the application of EU free movement rules on the ground.

The Juncker Commission has iterated its commitment to the free movement principle, and echoed that it is non-negotiable. As labour mobility had become an important topic in run-up to the 2015 UK parliamentary election, President Juncker warned Britain not to discriminate against workers from fellow EU countries and said any moves to restrict the free movement of people could harm other free movement pillars.<sup>27</sup>

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25 European Parliamentary Research Service (2014), Free movement of persons in the EU. URL: <http://epthinktank.eu/2013/06/25/free-movement-of-persons-in-the-eu-how-free-under-what-conditions-and-for-whom/> (as of 02/03/15).

26 European Commission (2013) Free movement of EU citizens and their families: Five actions to make a difference. Communication, COM(2013) 837 final. Brussels, 25.11.2013. URL: <http://eur-lex.europa.eu/LexUriServ/LexUriServ.do?uri=COM:2013:0837:FIN:EN:PDF> (as of 20/04/15).

27 Euractive (2014) "Juncker tells Britain to ease up on migrants", 16/12/2014. URL: <http://www.euractiv.com/sections/eu-priorities-2020/juncker-tells-britain-ease-migrants-310808> (as of 20/04/2015).

## 2. Profiles of migrant EU citizens and workers

### 2.1. General introduction to statistics on labour migration in EU

#### Tradition of migration

The four countries included in this study all have a long history of immigration. In the second half of the 20th century, an era of strong economic growth in Western Europe, the UK, Germany, Italy and the Netherlands have all seen a rise in labour migration in particular to counteract labour shortages in these countries. The Netherlands and Germany actively pursued a policy of recruiting guest workers from Italy, Spain, Greece and Portugal, as well as Turkey, Morocco, Tunisia and the former Yugoslavian Republic. Migration to the UK in this period was dominated by arrivals from Ireland and the former Commonwealth countries. And while Italy has historically been a country of emigration, it has also seen a rise in immigration since the 1960s.

Following these traditions as destination countries for migrants, the four countries all have substantial migrant populations with between 9.5% (Italy) and 12.7% (Germany) of the total population born abroad.

#### EU migrants

In all four countries migrants from other EU Member States made up a substantial proportion of these migrant populations. 35% of the foreign born population in the EU-28 was born in another EU Member State. In the four countries included in this analysis, this proportion has increased considerably in the years following the 2004 accession wave (EU-10).

By 2013, Germany, the UK and Italy had an EU migrant population greater than 1 million. Germany and the United Kingdom are the two countries with the largest EU migrant population in the EU with over 3 million and 2.4 million EU migrants respectively.

In 2000, Germany was the only Member State with more than a million EU migrants. But both the UK and Italy have seen the net arrival of more than 1 million EU migrants between 2000 and 2013. With a net arrival of 1.4 million EU migrants between 2000 and 2013, the immigration wave from primarily Central and Eastern European (CEE) countries to the UK following the 2004 accession of EU-10 has been described as one of the largest and most intensive migration flows in contemporary European history.<sup>28</sup>

The Netherlands has roughly doubled its EU migrant population between 2000 and 2013. But the rise in Italy is particularly stark, both in absolute and in relative terms. The number of migrants with citizenship of another EU-28 country has increased with 457% between 2000 and 2013, and now amounts to about 1.29 million individuals. Most of these are Romanians, representing 74.2% of EU-28 Member States citizens living in Italy, and 21.3% of the total foreign population. The Romanian community in Italy has seen an eightfold increase over the period 2003-2013, reaching 935,000 individuals in 2013.

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28 Pollard et al. (2008), Floodgates or turnstiles? Post EU enlargement migration flows to (and from) the UK, Institute for Public Policy research, London.

**Table 2.1 Population of EU migrants in Germany, Italy, the Netherlands, and the United Kingdom, 2000-2013**

Country	EU migrant population in 2000	EU migrant population in 2013	Difference (2000-2013) <sup>a</sup>	Share of EU migrant population in 2000	Share of EU migrant population in 2013	Increase in share of total population 2000-2013 <sup>a b</sup>
Germany	2,419,147	3,022,392	25%	2.94%	3.68%	0.74%
Italy	231,253	1,287,204	457%	0.40%	2.16%	1.76%
The Netherlands	207,493	380,540	83%	1.31%	2.27%	0.96%
United Kingdom	1,008,987 <sup>a</sup>	2,421,226	140%	1.72% <sup>a</sup>	3.79%	2.07%

Note: <sup>a</sup> Data for the United Kingdom from 2001.  
Source: Eurostat.

### Recent trends

With the arrival of the economic crisis around 2008, the flows and composition of EU migrants in the four countries have also changed.

In the UK, for instance, net immigration has stagnated in recent years, but it is still experiencing large numbers of incoming EU migrants. As was the case before the crisis, migrants from the Central and Eastern European countries still constitute the largest numbers of newcomers. However, a visible increase in the number of migrants coming from Southern European countries has been noted in the last few years. Similarly, Germany experienced an increase of migration from countries heavily affected by the economic crisis, in particular from Spain, Greece, Portugal and Italy.

## 2.2. Trends in EU labour migration in the four selected cities

All four cities have substantial migrant populations. Frankfurt has the largest community with 191,034 foreign citizens, but in all four cities foreign citizens constitute at least 10% of the total population.

The four cities also had different a make-up of the EU migrant population. Frankfurt had a traditionally large population of Italians, Croatians and Greeks. Leeds, as the rest of the UK, has always had large Irish community and to a lesser extent, German and Italian community. Rotterdam's largest EU migrant communities were from traditionally from Germany, Spain and the United Kingdom. Finally, Milan has always had a very large Romanian and French community, and to a lesser extent, German.

Migration trends in the four cities analysed in this study have largely mirrored trends at their national level. The volume of EU-28 migration has increased considerably in the last 10 years, primarily due to the large inflows from EU-10 Member States after 2004. In Milan, for instance, the EU-28 population has doubled between 2004 and 2014, whilst in Frankfurt this number rose by 32.6% in the same period.

In Frankfurt and Rotterdam, now nearly half of the foreign citizens are from an EU Member State (48 and 38% respectively). With 11%, the proportion of EU citizens

among the migrant population is lower in Milan. 29% of the foreign born population in Leeds is from the EU.

Immigration from within the EU can be largely attributed to the 13 Member States that have joined the EU since 2004. In Milan, 58% of the total population of EU migrants were from those new Member States in 2014. In Leeds, 71% of all migrants born in the EU are from one of the EU-13 Member States (2011).

In all cities, the Polish communities have grown substantially. In Frankfurt, for instance, it has more than doubled in the last 10 years and is now the second largest EU migrant community (after Italians). In Leeds it is now by far the largest EU migrant community with 28.3% of all EU migrants, before Irish (18.7%) and Germans (11.9%). Rotterdam seems to have seen the most drastic influx of Polish migrants with a more than fifteenfold increase in the number of Polish citizens registered with the local council (from 356 in 2004 to 5,196 in 2014).<sup>29</sup> In Milan, the Polish community has nearly tripled in size as well, but it has always been relatively small. With less than 1,000 Polish people, it is only the 7<sup>th</sup> largest EU community in Milan.

Whilst we have seen similar trends for Polish communities in all four cities, there are some specific trends per city. Whilst Romanians are traditionally the largest EU community in Italy, this group has also more than tripled in Milan between 2004 and 2014 (+354.4%). In 2014, it comprised more than 10,000 individuals. Frankfurt has also seen a threefold rise in the number of Romanians, making the Romanian community the fourth largest EU migrant community in Frankfurt.

Frankfurt and Milan have seen the arrival of large numbers of Romanians, particularly since 2008, the same has happened with Bulgarians in Rotterdam. The number of Bulgarians registered with the local council has risen from 139 in 2007 to 2,249 in 2014, representing a sixteenfold increase, becoming the second largest (registered) EU community in Rotterdam after the Polish. Leeds on the other hand seems to have a relatively large community of Lithuanians.

Some of the cities analysed have also observed an increase in the number of EU-15 migrants between 2007 and 2009, a timeframe that coincides with the beginning of the economic crisis. Frankfurt, for instance, observed a decrease in size of Greek (-15%), Spanish (-10%), Portuguese (-6%), Irish (-11%) and Italian communities (-8%) between 2004 and 2009, but a subsequent increase of 7, 37, 11, 26 and 5% respectively between the years of 2009 and 2014.

Similarly, in Leeds we observed an increase in the number of EU-15 migrants during the early crisis years. For instance, in 2013, Spanish migrant workers were the second largest EU migrant group (after Polish) to register a national insurance number in Leeds.

### **2.3. Demographic characteristics of migrant EU workers in four cities**

Migrant EU workers are not a homogenous group. Their age profile, education level, economic status or length of stay may vary considerably within as well as across the four cities. Although the study showed that there is limited information available on these

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<sup>29</sup> Although this indicator seems to underestimate the total number of EU migrants.

demographic characteristics, this section highlights some of the key differences and similarities.<sup>30</sup>

### **Age profile and gender**

EU migrants in all four cities tend to have a relatively high share of prime-age workers in younger age groups and they are less likely to be above retirement age than the general population.

EU-10 and EU-2 migrants tend to have a younger age profile than the general population of migrants in cities where disaggregated data are available. For example, in Leeds those aged 16 to 49 constituted 76% of migrants and in Frankfurt EU-2 migrants alone (and aged between 18 and 44) formed three quarters of all EU migrants. EU-15 migrants were more equally spread across age groups in Leeds and Rotterdam. In Leeds, migrants from Ireland had the highest share of people over 50 years of age (65%) – this can be explained by earlier waves of Irish migration to the UK dating 1961 and before.

In all cities where information is available, the proportion of female to male migrant EU citizens was nearly equal. In Frankfurt, for instance, male EU migrants constituted 53.3%.

### **Economic activity and employment status**

Data from Milan and Leeds show that large proportions of EU migrants in these cities are economically active (81% of EU-28 registered individuals in Milan and 66-79% in Leeds, for EU-15 and EU-12 migrants respectively). The Irish population in Leeds has a relatively small economically active population (45%), due to its relatively large retired population. Other economically inactive people include students, or people engaged in family or domestic duties.

Employment and unemployment rates among EU migrants in the four cities are more difficult to compare, due to different registration practices. In Milan the employment rate among EU migrants appears higher than for the local population, in Leeds the patterns are largely similar and in Frankfurt<sup>31</sup> the employment rate among EU migrants is somewhat lower than the overall population:

- in Milan, 79% of registered migrant EU citizens were employed and only 1% were unemployed, compared to an overall employment rate of 70%. 5.2% of the total population aged 15-74 in the city of Milan was unemployed;
- in Leeds, 59% of the population without a migrant background were employed, compared to 42% for Irish, 60% for EU-15 and 73.7% for EU and EU-2 migrants. The unemployment rate of different groups were largely comparable. 8.4% of the economically active population without a migrant background was unemployed, compared to 6.0% for Irish, 9.8% for EU15 and 7.0% for EU-10 and EU-2 migrants;
- The EU migrant population in Frankfurt had a 5% lower employment rate than the population without a migration background. This was driven largely by the lower employment rate of female EU migrant citizens.

<sup>30</sup> Administrative data typically do not distinguish between EU and other migrants or they contain only partial information. They often capture information at varying points or periods of time. An additional challenge is that different data sources use diverse terminology and definitions when referring to migrants contributing to comparability issues. For these reasons information on demographic characteristics of EU migrants presented below needs to be interpreted with caution.

<sup>31</sup> Data was available only at the level of the Federal State of Hessen.

## Length of stay

There are great variations among and within the four cities when it comes to the length of stay in a given city:

- EU migrant citizens from Central and Eastern Europe stay in Rotterdam on average 6 years (with Romanians staying the shortest period on average), while those from Southern Europe settle in for 14 years on average;
- Irish are the most settled group of EU migrant citizens in Leeds - with nearly 40% of them living there for 50 years or longer; conversely, almost 90% of EU-10 and EU-2 migrants have lived in Leeds for less than 10 years;
- In Frankfurt, the largest share of EU migrant citizens has lived in Frankfurt for 5 years or less (45%), a smaller share has lived there between 5 and 14 years (20%), and about a third of them have lived in Frankfurt for 15 years or longer (35%).

## Education level

The data in Leeds suggest that a large proportion of the UK- and Irish-born population had no qualification and lower level qualifications (Level 1 and Level 2). EU-15 migrants had the highest proportion of people with Level 4 qualifications and above (equivalent to English A-level) – nearly 40%, compared with around 25% among the other groups. At 34%, EU-10 and EU-2 migrants had the highest share of people with apprenticeships and other qualifications.

UK-born as well as Irish and EU-15 migrants in Leeds showed largely similar distributions among all occupation levels. The main difference between these groups was a slightly higher concentration of EU-15 migrants in the AB category (higher and intermediate managerial/administrative/professional occupations) and a slightly larger concentration of Irish migrants in the DE category (semi-skilled and unskilled manual occupations; unemployed and low- grade occupations).<sup>32</sup>

On the other hand, only a small proportion of EU-10 and EU-2 migrants held AB occupations (11%) and C1 occupations (supervisory, clerical and junior managerial/administrative/professional occupations) (20%) and nearly half of migrants from these countries held occupations from the DE category (semi-skilled and unskilled manual occupations; unemployed and low grade occupations). This is in contrast with data on the qualification level above showing that a relatively large proportion of this group had higher qualifications indicating a possible skills and employment mismatch.

Similar information for Frankfurt, Rotterdam and Milan was not available.

## 2.4. Implications for local service delivery

Taking into account the demographic characteristics of migrant EU workers in the four studied cities, the following common implications (or lack thereof) for local service delivery can be expected:

- Migrant EU workers largely belong to the working age population and most of them are active in the labour market. Therefore, their integration with the local labour market may require support from employment services. The extent of

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<sup>32</sup> The categories refer to the following occupations: AB) Higher and intermediate managerial/administrative/professional occupations, C1) Supervisory, clerical and junior managerial/administrative/professional occupations, C2) Skilled manual occupations, DE) Semi-skilled and unskilled manual occupations; unemployed and lowest grade occupations.

support will vary between different migrant groups, with greater involvement needed for migrants with lower levels of education attainment, women and other more vulnerable groups, such as Roma. Employment services relevant to Migrant EU workers would include information provision, counselling, job-search assistance, and professional development advice;

- The relatively young age of migrant EU workers indicates that they are less likely to use health services compared with the local populations. This is due to health services being mostly used by the youngest and the oldest members of the population. However, since most of the migrants are in the prime reproductive age groups, they (may) become parents and this affects the demand for maternity services and child health care);
- The same characteristic (i.e. the young age of EU migrants) also suggests that, for now, impact on the pension systems is negligible.

There are also subtle differences highlighted by some case studies:

- The Milan study shows a likely impact on education, as younger families are more likely to have dependent children, while in Rotterdam, where the majority of the respondents arrive alone, the impact on education services is unlikely in a short- to medium-term;
- The fast increase of the number of EU migrants may add to the workload of relevant services in Rotterdam and Milan, where registration in the population register (and other services) is required;
- The geographical and occupational concentration of migrant communities in Milan and Leeds could distort the perception of the EU migration among the public. Therefore, initiatives aimed at providing information and promoting social integration of migrants with the local community may be required and further strain resources of local services;
- As shown by the studies in Frankfurt and Leeds, a marked increase in EU net migration in the last decade requires local authorities to provide information and offer their services in multiple languages and improve the diversity and / or intercultural skills of their staff;
- The conceptualisation of migrants by skill level (and expected use of service) provided in the Frankfurt case study may form a helpful indication in other cities. It includes:
  - **high-skilled international professionals**, who arrive to take up a job offer and rarely come into contact with local employment and employment-related services, but may use social services, such as multi-lingual education and health services. Their post (and stay) might be temporary, so that long-term integration is less of a concern but they may still face specific challenges when moving to a given city;
  - **medium to high-skilled workers**, who may arrive without an employment contract, but have some financial savings and/or friends and family in a chosen city. Their needs revolve around finding a job, housing, and access to healthcare services and language courses;
  - **low skilled workers** in precarious situations, who have little financial resources and may have to rely on emergency facilities (e.g. shelters) and social assistance provided by local services and/or civil society organisations. This group of migrants has the widest range of needs from very basic, like immediate financial support, through housing, health, employment and more.

### **3. Challenges and opportunities for migrant EU workers, local workers and the local community**

#### **3.1. Arriving and registering**

EU migrants in the four cities covered by this study have moved to the city where they are currently based only recently. Existing studies on the UK<sup>33</sup> and Italy<sup>34</sup> display how the EU enlargement at mid 2000 impacted on intra-EU migration flows, resulting in increased flows from new Member States to the 'old' Member States, especially the high-income ones.

These flows have been boosted in particular by the movements from the new Member States, as shown by the breakdown by area of provenience: in Milan, for example, the proportion of EU-13 nationals almost doubles that of EU-15 nationals among respondents who report having arrived in Italy or in Milan up to 10 years prior to the interview. EU-15 nationals report having arrived in Italy or in Milan earlier.

In line with the existing international literature on migrations, also in this study the main reason underpinning the decision of migrating is the wish for economic improvement. In all the four cities covered by the study, 'looking for a job' or 'to take a job that had been offered' are reported to be the main pull factors.

In Leeds nearly 42% of respondents declared that they had not arranged their jobs prior to coming to the UK, and only 17% were coming to take a job that they had been offered. Similarly, almost 35% of respondents moved to Milan to look for a job and around 18% got a job offer before moving to the city. Finally in Rotterdam 28% of respondents reported having moved to the city to look for employment and 17% to take up a job they had been previously offered. Conversely, in Frankfurt 41% of the respondents stated to have come to the city to take up a job, while a further 19% have moved to Frankfurt to seek for employment.

Another relevant factor influencing the decision to move seems to be 'joining family members or friends or partner who already lived in the city'.

In line with these results, the availability of career prospects or job opportunities and well paid jobs are the main factors which influenced the decision to move for the majority of respondents in the four cities, and in particular for EU-13 nationals. The third most important pull factor has been the existence of people from the same country in the city in Milan and Leeds and the idea that people from abroad are welcome in Frankfurt and Rotterdam. It is worth to mention that the availability of public transport, schools and educational facilities, health care services and affordable housing have been reported as a pull factor only residually in each of the four cities.

Registering with the local authorities upon arrival is reported to be compulsory in all the four cities, although for different reasons and with different timings and administrative

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33 See for instance: Cook, J., Dwyer, P., Waite, L. (2010), The experiences of Accession 8 migrants in England: motivations, work and agency, *International migration*, Vol. 49(2), pp. 54-79; Fitzgerald, I. (2009), *A moving target: the information needs of Polish migrant workers in Yorkshire and the Humber*, TUC and Northumbria University publication.

34 Osservatorio Regionale per l'Immigrazione e l'etnicità (ORIM) (2014), *Rapporto 2013. Gli immigrati in Lombardia*, Fondazione ISMU, Milan.

procedures. In Frankfurt, once migrant EU workers take residence in the city, they are required to register with the German authorities at the Registration Office (*Einwohnermeldeamt/Bürgeramt*) if they plan to reside in Germany for more than 3 months. Registration must be done within one week of arrival. In Leeds EU migrants are required to register with Leeds City Council for council tax purposes, similarly to any other resident in Leeds. It is worth noting that registration with a local council for council tax purposes is compulsory in the UK. In Milan registration of EU migrant workers in the municipality's population register (within three months from arrival) is mandatory according to Legislative Decree no. 30/2007, which details all the administrative procedures required for long-term stay of EU-28 citizens in Italy. A similar prescription for migrant EU workers is in place in Rotterdam.

In spite of being compulsory, registration with local authorities is reported by the large majority, but not by the totality of respondents: up to one quarter of respondents in each of the cities covered by the study reported not being registered. In the vast majority of cases registration was obtained within 1-2 weeks in Frankfurt, Leeds and Rotterdam, whereas the process took longer (up to 4 weeks) in Milan.

In Milan the main reason why some respondents are not registered is the belief that it is not obligatory (64.9% of non-registered respondents). Other causes are personal reasons not to register (9%), the difficulty of completing the initiated process (8.1%), the lack of information about how to do it (7.2%), the lack of time (4.5%), and other reasons related to difficulties or lack of eligibility criteria for first registration (e.g. having a work contract) (4.5%). In Rotterdam respondents are not registered because they think it is not mandatory (9% of non-registered respondents), for lack of time (21%), for personal reasons (26%), for the difficulty of completing the initiated process (16%), or for other reasons (28%).

It is worth to point out that most registered respondents did not encounter any specific challenge when registering with the local authorities in all the four cities. Only in a limited number of cases language barriers were reported to have been a problem in Frankfurt and Milan, while the time spent to find out the proper relevant information was a problem in all the four cities, and delays or having the application rejected for the lack of relevant documents was reported in Milan and Rotterdam. A very small proportion of respondents reported having felt discriminated against for their national background only in Frankfurt and Milan.

Finally, the majority of registered respondents reported not having found any support services in the process of registering. Only in Leeds 16.5% of registered respondents found information posters or leaflets, whereas in Milan and Rotterdam about 17% of respondents could rely on a website with multilingual explanations of the procedures to register with the municipality.

### **3.2. Getting a job, starting a business, developing professionally**

The analysis of available evidence allows discussing in detail the employment situation of migrant EU workers in Frankfurt, Leeds, Milan and Rotterdam. As already illustrated, migrant EU workers who moved to one of the cities covered by this study did so in order to look for a job or to take up a job offer, and the main pulling factors that prompted individuals to move from another EU Member State were the availability of good career prospects or job opportunities and the availability of well paid jobs. Inclusion in the local labour markets therefore plays a crucial role in EU migrants' decision-making process and is not only important for the success of migrants' own socio-economic integration, but

also for social cohesion of the local community. For the individual, a good position in the labour market is important to secure sufficient income for a self-sustained life and societal participation. From a societal point of view, successful labour market integration makes use of this individual's potential for economic growth.<sup>35</sup>

According to the available evidence, the vast majority of migrant EU workers in each of the four cities covered by this study do **have a job**. This is the case for around 80% of survey respondents in Frankfurt and Rotterdam, about 90% in Leeds and approximately 70% in Milan. The remaining respondents are unemployed and currently looking for a job.

In all the four cities covered by this study, migrant EU workers work as **employees** in the large majority of cases. Only a limited number of them works as self-employed or have set their own businesses. Migrant EU workers who responded to the survey are employed mostly in the **private sector**, possibly as a result of the restrictions in the access to civil service by non-nationals or issues related to the validation of qualifications and diplomas of foreign citizens. Another aspect of the employment situation of migrant EU workers regards the **duration of employment contract**. In Leeds and Milan, in the majority of the cases, migrant EU workers are employed on a permanent basis (77% and 51% of employees, respectively), whereas in Rotterdam only 32% of survey respondents work on a contract of indefinite duration.

With regard to the **economic sectors** in which migrant EU workers are more often employed, these vary notably, depending on the local economic structure and the functioning of the local labour market. In general, a certain degree of labour market segregation of migrant EU workers can be noted. In Frankfurt, for example, sectorial segregation of Romanians and Bulgarians migrants can be observed, as they are employed mostly in the hospitality (17.6%), construction (13.8%) and other service activities (27.2%). Similarly, migrants from the rest of Eastern European Member States are employed in these same industries, namely 15.6% in 'other services', 13.4% in construction and 9% in hospitality, but a relatively large share of them are employed in health and care services (11.9%). Migrant workers from Greece, Italy, Portugal and Spain are employed across a larger variety of sectors: 16% work in transport and warehousing (and industry with a strong presence in Frankfurt due to its position as an international transport hub), 12.5% work in 'other services' and 12.4% work in hospitality.<sup>36</sup> As a comparison, just fewer than 10% of Germans work in the three industries construction, hospitality and 'other services' (cleaning) in total. In Leeds migrant EU workers are employed mostly in the services, with a higher concentration in education (12.2%) and other service activities (23.3%), but a significant proportion of workers are employed also in the manufacturing (11.1%) sector. Research by Cook et al.<sup>37</sup>, by Fitzgerald<sup>38</sup> and by Pollard et al.<sup>39</sup>, conducted in the early years after the post-

35 Burkert C., IAB Hessen (2015), Voraussetzungen für eine erfolgreiche Arbeitsmarktintegration von Migrantinnen und Migranten, Presentation in the frame of Fachtagung Chancen Nutzen, Wege öffnen, Erwerbsintegration von Migrantinnen und Migranten, 14.01.2015, Frankfurt.

36 Brücker, H., Liebau, E., Romiti, A., Vallizadeh, E. (2014), Arbeitsmarktintegration von Migranten in Deutschland: Anerkannte Abschlüsse und Deutschkenntnisse lohnen sich. In: Die IAB-SOEP-Migrationsstichprobe: Leben, lernen, arbeiten - wie es Migranten in Deutschland geht, (IAB-Kurzbericht, 21.3/2014), Nürnberg, pp. 21-28.

37 Cook, J., Dwyer, P., and L. Waite (2008), New migrant communities in Leeds, A research report commissioned by Leeds City Council; Cook, J., Dwyer, P., Waite, L. (2012) Accession 8 migrants and the proactive and defensive engagement of social citizenship, *Journal of Social Policy*, Vol. 41 (2), pp. 329-347.

38 Fitzgerald, I. (2009), A moving target: The information needs of Polish migrant workers in Yorkshire and the Humber, Northumbria University, School of Build Environment.

39 Pollard, N., M. Latorre, Sriskandarajah, D. (2008), Floodgates or turnstiles? Post EU enlargement migration flows to (and from) the UK, Institute for Public Policy Research, London.

2004 wave of migration, found that initially EU-8 migrants were mostly working in sectors such as agriculture, construction, food processing, horticulture, manufacturing, packaging, printing and were entering the financial sector. Finally, in Milan as well a certain degree of sectorial segregation can be observed, with EU-13 migrants employed prevalently in the manufacturing (30.6%), construction (13.5%), household activities (16.5%) and other services activities (22.9%), and EU-15 in commerce, food and accommodation (11%), other services (20.7%) and in particular professional services (56.7%).

In terms of **qualifications**, available evidence indicates that migrant EU workers surveyed in Frankfurt, Leeds, Milan and Rotterdam are mostly highly educated. For example, in Frankfurt 74% of respondents hold a higher-level university degree, such as a Master's degree or a PhD. A small proportion (11%) has only finished lower secondary school or not even that. This is in line with findings from other studies: according to national research EU migrants arriving to Germany tend to be increasingly higher educated.<sup>40</sup> Also in Leeds the majority of respondents (57%) hold a university degree, and only a limited proportion report a lower intermediate level of education (about 10%). In Rotterdam almost 47% of respondents report holding a university degree, while 18% completed a post-secondary education, and 5% reported having a primary school education or no education at all.

Nevertheless, migrant EU workers are not always employed at their qualification level and **skill mismatch** is often reported. Although an important share of respondents report being employed in a job which requires the skills they possess, a significant proportion of migrant EU workers report being over-skilled for the job they have. This happens in Frankfurt (30% of respondents), in Milan (20.8%), Leeds (49%) and Rotterdam (54%). The reported skill mismatch can be related to the difficulties that migrant EU workers encounter when it comes to **validate qualifications and diplomas** gained in their country of origin. This circumstance can result sometimes in taking up a job not matching the actual qualifications and skills of the individual. Issues related to validation of qualifications and diplomas have been reported in Frankfurt and Milan, where the segregation of migrant EU workers in low-paid jobs and occupations can be related to the relatively easier access to some of these professions: certificates are required to a much lesser extent in industries such as cleaning, hospitality or construction.

The **knowledge of the official language** of the country is often indicated as one of the most important competencies required to access the labour market. In Frankfurt German language competencies have been identified as the key challenge to labour market integration. Research by the Research Institute of the Federal Employment Agency has shown that very good German language skills have a positive impact on employment and income levels, as well as the probability to be employed at the appropriate qualification level. For example, individuals with very good language skills have a 14.6% higher probability of being employed than those with no German language skills, a 21.6% higher income and a 20.4% reduced probability to be employed below their qualification level. Language competencies were also identified as crucial for the employees' understanding of their rights and responsibilities, in particular when faced with fraudulent practices in certain sectors. In Milan the importance of the knowledge of Italian language to access employment has been stressed by stakeholders: the limited knowledge of the Italian language, especially at the very beginning, is an important barrier for EU migrants in what regards the access to information and job offers. The evidence collected thorough

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40 Seibert, H & Wapler, R. (2012), Aus dem Ausland kommen immer mehr Akademiker. *IAB-Kurzbericht* 21/2012.

the survey indicates that EU-15 respondents report more often than EU-13 nationals having a good knowledge of Italian, while EU-15 report more frequently a fair (47.2%) or poor (19.9%) knowledge. This seems to be strictly related to the attendance of Italian language courses, which is in fact reported by EU-15 nationals more frequently than by EU-13 migrants. Also in Leeds the knowledge of language is reported to be an underlying factor that affects a successful integration of migrants in a number of areas – including labour market: poor communication and language skills can represent a barrier for migrants (especially low-skilled migrants) in interacting with employment agencies – as a result, the job-search was often facilitated by compatriots. However, evidence from the survey shows that the majority of the respondents reported to know English well and at the same time 51.2% of the respondents' population declared that they have never attended any English courses in the UK. This can suggest that EU migrants have undertaken some English classes in their home countries prior to coming to the UK. Finally, research in Rotterdam indicates that although many Dutch citizens speak some conversational English or another second or third language (often French or German), at a professional level the language barrier remains a challenge for migrant EU workers. For several years free courses in Dutch were provided for migrants seeking to integrate into the Dutch society by the municipalities, but changes in migration policies in combination with austerity measures have resulted in the defunding of such programmes, also in Rotterdam. Speaking Dutch, or at least understanding basic Dutch has been highlighted as important for access to services in Rotterdam.<sup>41</sup>

The **channels used to access paid employment** by migrant EU workers in the four cities covered by the study are several. While relying on social networks of relatives, friends and acquaintances has been one of the most common (although not always the prevalent) channel to find a job in all the four cities, the degree of importance of other channels varies considerably in each city. The use of social networks to find a job, which has been reported by 33% of survey respondents in Frankfurt, 28.3% in Leeds, 57.4% in Milan and about 37% in Rotterdam. In Frankfurt the second most important channel that was used to access employment is reported to have been through websites and newspapers (32%). The EURES website had a role in a small percentage of cases (2.7% of respondents in Frankfurt, 1.7% in Milan, almost 1% in Rotterdam and 0% in Leeds). It should also be noted that a large part of migrant EU workers already held a job offer upon arrival in Frankfurt, which led to their migration decision in the first place. In fact, 42% found their position prior to arriving in Germany, while the remainder searched for a job upon arrival. In Leeds the most popular channel for accessing employment has been an interim agency or private employment agency (31%) and online job search portals (e.g. Monster.co.uk) or similar websites (13%), whereas all the other channels have been used by a limited number of respondents. In Milan, the second most reported channel has been an interim agency or private employment agency (11.7%), followed by all the other channels. On the other hand, in Rotterdam the second most reported channel to access employment has been a web portal or companies' websites (23%).

The **attendance of training activities** can be seen as a professional development opportunity. The evidence collected by this study shows that this opportunity is rarely offered to migrant EU workers, and often provided by their employers. In a much more limited number of cases the training attended is funded by public organisations. For example, in Leeds a study found that employers provide professional development opportunities to migrant EU workers. More often than not, training provision focused on

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41 The program coordinator on migrant EU workers of the municipality of Rotterdam emphasized that the 'self-sufficiency' approach is the policy when it comes to providing services to migrants. If migrants want to have access to Rotterdam's services, they must either speak Dutch or English or bring their own translator and the availability of an English-speaking service worker is not guaranteed.

English language tuition, for instance by organising English classes and accommodating shift patterns to allow workers to attend these courses. Employers also translated training materials and other information to new employers. Other training opportunities included job-related training, such as basic operative skills training, and buddy schemes to support new employees.<sup>42</sup> The survey results reveal that 67.0% of respondents did not attend any training courses that could improve their career prospects in the UK, while 12% of those who attended such courses paid for them themselves and the same proportion of respondents were sponsored by their employers to engage in this learning. 9% of respondents attended courses funded by other sources. Similarly, in Milan 83.3% of respondents reported that they never attended a training course in Milan, 6% attended a training course paid by themselves or their family, 5.1% a training course paid by their employer, 3.3% a training activity funded by a non-for-profit organisation and, finally, only 1.5% of respondents attended a training course funded by a public sector organisation.

With regard to **self-employment and entrepreneurship** among migrant EU workers, this is often reported as an employment opportunity for several EU migrants. In Frankfurt, 8.5% of respondents were self-employed or business owners. This is in line with the share of self-employed in the general population.<sup>43</sup> From the perspective of the local community, the high entrepreneurial activity of (EU) migrants in Frankfurt improves the availability of local services, e.g. in particular services that are provided by craftspeople, household care and cleaning personnel.<sup>44</sup> Nevertheless, self-employment is sometimes associated with fraudulent and exploitative practices (bogus self-employment) in specific sectors, e.g. construction and specific handicrafts. In Milan, self-employed and entrepreneurs are 12.4% of total respondents. The majority of self-employed respondents are EU-15 nationals (58%), whereas 36% are EU-13 nationals and 6% are from Switzerland. The vast majority of the self-employed do not employ other people (72%), whereas 8% employ from one to three people, 10% from four to six, 6% from seven to nine, and 4% more than ten. When they employ someone, it is most often a mix of individuals with different national backgrounds, and only in one case exclusively individuals from the same country are hired. In Rotterdam there are no hard figures on how many EU migrants started a business. An indication comes however from the chamber of commerce data regarding the country of birth of Rotterdam's entrepreneurs. In early 2015 there were approximately 49.000 entrepreneurs registered with the Chamber of Commerce of Rotterdam, 70% of which had the Dutch nationality and 6,5% had a different EU nationality<sup>45</sup>. In absolute numbers the Polish migrants are best represented in this list followed by Germans and Bulgarians. It is interesting to note that over the five-year period 2010 to 2015 the growth rate of the number of EU entrepreneurs (+44%) in Rotterdam was higher than the average growth (+27%). An increase in the number of entrepreneurs from Eastern and Southern Europe can be noted.

To conclude, available evidence allows giving some indications on **working conditions** of migrant EU workers. In the case of some specific segments of migrant EU workers working conditions appear to be worse than those of local workers. In Frankfurt there is an issue which primarily concerns lower qualified workers in precarious situations. While the extent of the phenomenon cannot be quantified, organisations in contact with this target group report wide-spread practices of human trafficking, wage fraud and

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42 Cook et al. (2008), op. cit.

43 Lüken-Klaßen, D., Pohl, F. (2010), Unternehmertum von Personen mit Migrationshintergrund in Frankfurt am Main, CLIP network.

44 Interview local authority, interview social partners.

45 Data provided by the chamber of commerce of Rotterdam.

embezzlement, in particular in the construction and hospitality sector.<sup>46</sup> A recent study on newly arrived Bulgarian and Romanian migrants in Frankfurt found that those without housing and German language skills are particularly vulnerable to exploitative employment practices, including prostitution and day labouring (*Arbeiterstrich*).<sup>47</sup> Other fraudulent practices, as reported in the study, include bogus self-employment, wage fraud and occupational health and safety issues. These practices seem to be more widespread for low-skilled migrant EU workers in sectors like construction, agriculture, the wider service industry (cleaning services, gastronomy etc.) and especially in sectors where more sub-contractors are involved in the supply chain.<sup>48</sup> In Leeds evidence<sup>49</sup> displays that some EU migrants were employed, at least in the early years after the 2004 accession, on contracts that contravened the Working Time Directive and Minimum Wage legislation. For instance employment agencies were not complying with legislation (e.g. paid breaks, holidays, redundancy notices). Stakeholders confirmed poor working conditions of migrant EU workers and even their worsening: an increase in zero hours contracts<sup>50</sup>, employers offering cash in hand, and some wage bargaining. Worsening working conditions and increased risks of exploitation appear prevalent among self-employed workers in the construction and hospitality sectors, among both local and migrant workers. Also in Milan stakeholders stressed that migrant EU workers can have worse working conditions than local workers as they are more exposed to risks (e.g. work in the construction sector) or to longer or unsocial working hours (e.g. work in hospitals or for a family). Furthermore, the situation of economic need that pushes EU migrants to leave their country puts them in a vulnerable situation - they are keen on accepting disadvantaged working conditions that they still perceive as an economic improvement with respect to their situation in the country of origin. This results in accepting under-qualified and irregular jobs, being hired at a lower qualification level, being involved in dangerous jobs, such as asbestos removal, in unsafe working conditions and in undeclared work, especially in the construction sector.

The impact of migrant EU workers on the local labour market appears to be difficult to assess, as no hard evidence exists. Overall, interviewed stakeholders and the available evidence seem to converge on the conclusion that EU migrants take up previously unfilled vacancies and jobs that locals are not willing to accept because of the unfavourable working conditions. Spencer et al.<sup>51</sup> show that the majority of employers in the UK felt that the EU enlargement had a positive effect on businesses as migrant workers were undertaking jobs that UK workers were not prepared to take. In this respect migrant EU workers' impact is seen as positive. On the other hand, the pressure put on the local labour market especially in specific segments (low-skilled and semi-skilled jobs) is considered to be negative, as the employers' wider exploitation of migrant labour in order to reduce costs has a negative impact on the working conditions and rate of pay of local workers, as clearly pointed out by interviewees in Leeds and Rotterdam.

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46 Interview with migrant organisation, focus group on social inclusion.

47 Aliche, T., Türk, L., Holz, G. (2015), Neuzuwanderung in Frankfurt am Main – Vorstudie zur Situationsbeschreibung und zur strukturellen Weiterentwicklung von kommunalen Hilfen, Institut für Sozialarbeit und Sozialpädagogik, p. 15.

48 Aliche, T., Türk, L., Holz, G. (2015), Neuzuwanderung in Frankfurt am Main – Vorstudie zur Situationsbeschreibung und zur strukturellen Weiterentwicklung von kommunalen Hilfen, Institut für Sozialarbeit und Sozialpädagogik, p. 15.

49 Cook et al. (2008), op. cit.

50 A zero hour contract allows the employer to vary the employee's working hours from full-time to "zero hours".

51 Spencer, S., Ruhs, M, Anderson, B., Rogaly, B. (2007), Migrants' lives beyond the workplace: the experiences of Central and Eastern Europeans in the UK, Joseph Rowntree Foundation.

### **3.3. Accessing local services**

The city studies also explored the patterns of use of local services by migrant EU workers.

Based on the responses of migrant EU workers, this pattern is broadly similar across the four cities: over two thirds use public transport; one half to three-quarters have consulted the general practitioner in the last six months; one fourth to one third has been to the local hospital. Only a minority of migrant EU workers make use of local schools and childcare centres. Schools have been used by about one fifth of migrant EU workers (around one third in Rotterdam). One in ten to one in seven respondents have been users of childcare facilities.

It is worth noting that job centres are very little used in all cities (less than one in ten respondents) except Frankfurt (about one fourth of respondents). The use of sports and cultural facilities such as public libraries varies across cities, probably also in connection to the local offer.

#### **Housing/Local neighbourhood safety and security**

The impact on the housing (rental) market is the area in which most challenges are recorded across the four cities. All four cities are characterised by a rental housing shortage that does not help fulfil the accommodation needs of newcomers.

The social or subsidized rental housing sector is organised differently in the various countries the four cities belong to. Yet in all the investigated cities this sector is still out of the reach of the large majority of migrant EU workers, who do not place high expectations on it for finding a solution to their housing needs. The proportion of migrant EU workers who applied for social housing is in fact low – from almost no-one in Milan to one quarter of respondents in Leeds and Rotterdam. Not more than one fifth of migrant EU workers in Rotterdam and Leeds lives in social housing, and less than one in twenty does so in Milan and Frankfurt. Information gaps play a role in discouraging application for social housing in Milan and in Rotterdam; while in Leeds this does not seem to be an important reason and not applying was more often a choice. The overall low level of access of migrant EU workers to social housing is in sharp contrast with the perceptions that EU migrants would be prioritised in waiting lists, a preconception among some strata of the population that was recorded in Leeds and had already resulted unconfirmed according to literature.

In all four cities interviewees reported negative perceptions by the local community on the housing conditions of particular groups of migrant EU workers – overcrowding, and concentration in certain buildings and areas. Apartment-sharing is an option chosen mostly out of necessity when rental prices are too high. A shared apartment is the type of accommodation found by one fifth of migrant EU workers who responded to the survey in Rotterdam (where 21 percent lives in a room or rooms in an apartment or house shared with others. 2 percent live with friends of family for free, in hostels or in another type of accommodation) and Milan (20% share a flat or a house with other people, 33% amongst EU-13 nationals). It has been suggested by some stakeholders that flat sharing can be a facilitating factor for migrants at the beginning of their stay, as having a flatmate helps them find their way in the new environment; however the negative aspects of overcrowding are more often stressed. In Milan, the practice of sharing led to higher rental prices with landlords increasing their revenues by pretending a sort of compensation for the more “intensive” use of the apartment. This affects the accessibility of the whole rental housing market. In Rotterdam, overcrowding leads to concerns in the neighbourhoods due to increased use of car parking space, garbage production, and

nuisance in general. The concentration in particular of young men living together (a phenomenon that does not characterise only migrant workers but also students for example) creates social alarm.

The greatest challenges for the cohesion of the local community appear to come from the presence of seasonal or temporary workers and of less settled groups. When migrants have only an income-earning project they do not prioritise spending on housing – therefore the more the temporary the perspectives, the more the tendency to go for substandard housing solutions. Also when “special” accommodation solutions for guest workers like hostels or hotels are provided by employers, resistances from local residents are not infrequent. Such resistances were overcome in certain good practice examples with good public relations work.

On the side of opportunities for the local community, it can be noted that around one quarter of migrant EU workers investigated in the study bought their accommodation in Leeds, Milan and Rotterdam (about one tenth in Frankfurt). This contribution to the housing market dynamism should not be underestimated.

### **Education and childcare**

Increased presence of migrant EU workers is associated in the investigated cities with increased presence of pupils from foreign EU countries in the school system. This has placed pressure on the education system as local education authorities and children’s services had to quickly and efficiently provide school places for new migrants’ children.

One specific challenge reported by the municipality of Rotterdam is the higher rates of early school leaving amongst children of migrant EU workers. The share of new dropouts among students from Central and Eastern Europe in Rotterdam reaches 7.8 percent and is significantly higher than average (3.9%). This is also related to the fact that schools are financially penalised if they have high early school leaving rates.

In general, when they are able to compare, migrant EU workers consider access to the education system of their host city as an opportunity for their children to get better quality education. In terms of access to the educational system, the large majority of migrant EU workers responding to the survey did not report any difficulties. Those that were flagged by at least one tenth of respondents were language barriers in Frankfurt (11% in Frankfurt) and feeling to be treated differently for not being a national in Leeds (15.2%).

Stakeholders interviews confirmed that language barriers are at the beginning of enrolment in schools a challenge for the children of migrant EU workers. Support programmes are available particularly in Frankfurt and in Rotterdam.

A negative effect on social mobility of language barriers for migrant EU workers’ children was recorded in systems like the German or the Dutch one where students are assigned very early to different educational tracks on the basis of an assessment of their skills. When migrant EU workers’ children are assessed at an initial stage of their stay in the new country, they are likely to be enrolled in a track that does not allow attending the university because of their more limited knowledge of the local language.

### **Social assistance and social protection**

Access to social benefits was not the main subject of the study. However it can be noted that a large majority of surveyed migrant EU workers (over two thirds in Frankfurt, Leeds

and Rotterdam and ninety% in Milan) do not receive any benefit such as family allowance, child subsidy, health care subsidy, disability allowance, etc. When they do so, they most often receive child benefits.

In three of the four cities it does not seem that migrant EU workers bear on the social assistance and social protection system more than nationals do. The only city where this was documented is Frankfurt. In the German city, a higher proportion of respondents receive unemployment benefits (13%) than the general population (7.4%). At national level, higher proportions of social assistance recipients than the average (7.5%) are recorded for EU-2 (12.9%) and EU-8 (11.3%).

In Milan, the access to social assistance by migrant EU workers is negligible but the provision of such assistance in the country is limited in general.

In Rotterdam, based on statistics, the proportion of EU migrants among jobseekers (3.7%) is in line with proportion of EU migrants in the general population (3.8%), but the proportion of EU migrants who are recipient of social assistance (1.7%) is lower. Social assistance recipients from EU countries are a very small group in absolute terms (607).

In Leeds, even when migrants qualify to receive social assistance, they often face difficulties in getting access to it. For instance, the job centre staff dealing with benefit claims appears not to have a full understanding of EU migrants' entitlements and rights to social benefits. As a result, migrants are often asked to produce several documents before their cases are processed.

## **Health care**

As already said in the introduction to this section, health care services are among the most used facilities by migrant EU workers according to the survey.

The large majority of respondents to the surveys did not encounter challenges in dealing with these services. Only in Frankfurt difficulties were encountered by more than one tenth of respondents in relation to language barriers (13%) and access to the right information on the system (11%). Access to information was also the most uniformly shared difficulty across cities (6.7% of respondents in Milan, 8% in Rotterdam, 9.4% in Leeds and 11% in Frankfurt). A limited share of respondents could benefit from provisions such as interpreters or information distributed in more languages.

In insurance-based health systems (Frankfurt, Rotterdam) the cost of insurance represents a financial challenge for low-income migrants. Access to financial support in these systems requires, for instance in Rotterdam, the ability to understand and navigate the system. Even more problematic is the situation of undocumented migrants. The Frankfurt Public Health Department's services, that provides free healthcare treatment, consultation (and specialist referral in specific cases) for undocumented migrants or people without health insurance, has seen and increase of cases from Southern and Eastern Europe.

Adapting to a different health care system sometimes represents a challenge for migrants who may respond by continuing using health services from their own countries. This seems to happen for example in Leeds, where according to one interviewee migrants travel back home for additional health advice to bypass the gatekeeper role of the general practitioner. In Rotterdam, migrants interviewed in a recent study claimed that

the system is slow as it would take several consultations with multiple persons to get the desired medical exam or treatment.<sup>52</sup>

In the surveys conducted for this study, most migrant EU workers did not want to compare their own country's health system and the one of their host country. When they agreed to do so, an equal share reported improvement and worsening in access to quality affordable health care after migration in most cities. Only in Milan more migrant EU workers reported an improvement than a worsening (25.8% of respondents stated that they could access affordable quality health services more easily in Milan than in their own country, whereas only 6.5% of respondents stated the opposite).

It was argued by some stakeholders, particularly in Leeds, that the level of satisfaction for health services and the availability of provisions to facilitate access by migrant EU workers have to be framed in the context of the overall challenges that health care systems are facing due to austerity measures and budget cuts.

### **Other local services**

Finally, it can be noted that a small share of migrant EU workers encountered difficulties in accessing other local services. Banks (in Milan) and tax office (in Rotterdam) are among these services. The main source of difficulty appears to be the language barrier.

## **3.4. Participating in social, cultural and political life**

The study aimed at investigating the degree of **social integration and acceptance of migrant EU workers** exploring attitudes, behaviours, challenges and opportunities for them and the local community in Frankfurt, Leeds, Milan and Rotterdam.

Overall, evidence available for Frankfurt and Leeds indicates that these two cities are reported to be culturally open, offering more opportunities to migrant EU workers to integrate from a social point of view.

In general Frankfurt presents itself as having a strong self-perception of being a culturally open and diverse city, both through online communications of the city government and administration, but also in conversations with local stakeholders. In its integration concept it states that the defining feature of the city was and continues to be its openness as a juncture of economic and cultural exchange.<sup>53</sup> Stakeholders interviewed and consulted in the context of this study were generally very positive about the presence of migrant EU workers in Frankfurt, with a strong focus on what they contribute to the economic, but also social and cultural life of the city. In general, all stakeholders consulted in the course of this study were reluctant to identify any issues related to social cohesion or negative attitudes of the local community towards migrant EU workers and the increasing diversity of the city. This is probably unsurprising, as nearly half of all citizens in Frankfurt have a migrant background themselves.

Similarly, evidence<sup>54</sup> for Leeds displays examples of positive interactions between local communities and new migrant EU workers. For instance, representatives of the West

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52 Dauphine, S. & Van Wieringen, J (2012), De gezondheidzorg en zorggebruik van Midden en Oost Europeanen in Nederland, Pharos.

53 <http://www.vielfalt-bewegt-frankfurt.de/de/seite/ein-integrationskonzept-fuer-frankfurt-am-main> (accessed 10.01.2015).

54 Cook et al. (2008), op. cit.

Indian group reported mixing with EU migrants in their neighbourhoods and through the West Indian community centre. European migrants hired rooms in this community centre and this provided opportunities for interaction and to learn about migrants' culture and customs. The Pakistani women, also cited in the same study, noted that a community open day would provide opportunities to get to know their neighbours better. Also, new EU migrants greatly increased the diversity of resident migrant populations<sup>55</sup>, and as a consequence a number of new shops sprung up since 2004 and supermarkets, such as Tesco, with sections dedicated to migrants' home products. Interestingly, not all these new establishments were run by the members of migrant communities – as local entrepreneurs did not fail to see this as a commercial opportunity.<sup>56</sup> The new arrivals contributed and further enriched the multicultural diversity of Leeds and provided local people with an opportunity to meet people representing different countries and cultural traditions.

In order to assess the social integration of migrant EU workers in these two cities and also in Milan and Rotterdam, a number of attitudes and behaviours of migrants related to political, cultural and social participation have been surveyed within this study.

Firstly, the **involvement in organisations** has been investigated as it is considered to be a good indicator of the interest in specific aspects of local life and at the same time it facilitates the building of social capital and social networks, which in turn can contribute to migrants' rooting and social integration. Nevertheless, survey evidence displays that the vast majority of respondents are not involved in any type of organisation in all the four cities: in Frankfurt 67% of respondents report not being involved in any organisation, in Leeds 75.9%, in Milan 90.8% and in Rotterdam 76%. When engaged in organisations, in Frankfurt these relate mainly to the sports, cultural or social fields (25%). Only 7% are involved in organisations active in the political sphere broadly understood, such as trade unions (7%), immigrant organisations (6%) or political parties (4%). In Leeds respondents who are members of some organisations, are most likely members of a trade union (16.9%). A much smaller number of respondents (2.4%) are also members of political parties and other organisations or associations in Leeds. In Milan 4% of respondents are engaged in migrants' organisations, 2.7% in a trade union and only 0.7% are involved in a political party or organisation. However, different patterns of behaviour can be noted between EU-15 and EU-13 migrants: EU-15 migrants are relatively more often members of political parties or groups, trade unions, immigrants' associations and other types of organisations when compared to EU-13 nationals. Similar proportions are reported in Rotterdam.

Another indicator of participation in local life is the **participation in local elections**, as migrant EU workers are entitled to vote in local consultations. Survey evidence displays that the rate of participation in local elections is quite limited.

In Frankfurt only a small share of the migrant EU workers included in our sample have ever voted in local elections (18.6%). This compares to 35.1% of the general population having voted in the last local election of the major.<sup>57</sup>

In Leeds, despite 70.0% of respondents registered to vote, only 32.5% of registered respondents reported to have ever voted in local elections. The average turnout (total

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55 Cook, J., Dwyer, P., Waite, L. (2010), The experiences of Accession 8 migrants in England: motivations, work and agency, *International migration*, Vol. 49(2), pp. 54-79.

56 One interviewee: D3.

57 [http://www.hr-online.de/website/specials/obwahl12/index.jsp?rubrik=71048&key=standard\\_document\\_44332961](http://www.hr-online.de/website/specials/obwahl12/index.jsp?rubrik=71048&key=standard_document_44332961) (accessed 10.01.2015).

electors) for the 2014 local elections was 34.6%.<sup>58</sup> Turnout varied across the wards with a turnout rate of 43.8% in the Adel & Wharfedale ward and 22.8% of in City & Hunslet.<sup>59</sup>

In Milan only 30.7% of respondents reported having voted in local elections (almost half of EU-15 respondents and only 14.9% of EU-13 respondents). In Rotterdam about 20% of respondents voted in local elections. Compared to the Dutch average 2014 municipal electing turnout of 54% and the Rotterdam average 44%, the percentage of voting migrant EU workers was relatively low.

Another way to assess participation in social life and the social integration of migrant EU workers at local level is to analyse contacts between the local community and migrant EU workers in terms of **friendships and relations**.

In Frankfurt, according to stakeholder interviews, the community integration of migrant EU workers is great in general and there is little evidence of segregation of specific migrant groups. Similarly, a study of the CLIP network from 2009 finds that geographical segregation in Frankfurt is very limited and “a relatively good socio-spatial integration of migrants in Frankfurt” exists.<sup>60</sup> Our survey of migrant EU workers confirms this picture and shows that the majority of those surveyed have a diverse set of friends both from their own communities and the local population. 12% of respondents state to have a mixture of friends including native Germans, nationals of their home country and those with third nationalities. Only 22% state that they are in contact mainly with people of their own nationality and 11% state to have no friends in Frankfurt. This may be explained by the fact that some of those surveyed are newly arrived migrants.

In Leeds, of all respondents 28.9% report that they have friends mostly from their home countries. Nearly half (47.0%) of the respondent population have friends with different backgrounds, 12.0% of respondents mostly have friends from the UK and 7.2% of respondents have friends mostly from other countries.

In Milan 25.8% of respondents have mostly Italian friends, 29% from their home country, and 1.2% from other countries, although the vast majority (42.4%) reported having a mixture of friends. Patterns of behaviour diverge between EU-15 and EU-13 migrants: 41.1% of EU-15 respondents report having mostly Italian friends (only 11.1% in the case of EU-13 respondents), and 41.7% of EU-13 respondents report having mostly friends from their home country (15% in the case of EU-15 respondents). A similar proportion of EU-15 and EU-13 respondents report having friends mostly from other countries, a mixture of friends or not having friends in Milan. A proportion of 1.5% of respondents reports not having friends in Milan.

In Rotterdam, greater difficulties in social relationships are reported. Only 10% of respondents report having mostly friends from the Netherlands, whereas more than 36% have almost no Dutch friends and 3% have no friends at all. Half of the migrants indicated that they have friends from a mixture of nationalities (50%).

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58 The Electoral Commission (n.d.) European Parliament election data – Electoral data (May 2014). The Electoral Commission, [www.electoralcommission.org.uk](http://www.electoralcommission.org.uk). As of January 29, 2015: <http://www.electoralcommission.org.uk/our-work/our-research/electoral-data>. This data was obtained through <http://www.electoralcommission.org.uk/our-work/our-research/electoral-data>.

59 The Electoral Commission. n.d. European Parliament election data – Electoral data (May 2014). The Electoral Commission, [www.electoralcommission.org.uk](http://www.electoralcommission.org.uk). As of January 29, 2015: <http://www.electoralcommission.org.uk/our-work/our-research/electoral-data>.

60 Eurofound (2009) Housing and Segregation of Migrants, Case Study: Frankfurt Main, Dublin, Eurofound: p. 28.

Another indicator of integration in the local context is the **feeling of belonging to the city**.

In Frankfurt 20.2% of respondents reported the feeling of 'being part' of the city 'to a great extent' and 36% 'somewhat', whereas 28.1% reported the feeling of being part of Frankfurt 'very little' and 10.1% 'not at all'. A smaller proportion (5.6%) was not able to respond. In Milan 28.3% reported feeling to be part of the city 'to a great extent', 38% 'somewhat', 29.3% 'very little' and only 1.7% 'not at all' (2.7% 'did not know'). Finally, in Rotterdam around 30% of respondents feels part of the city 'to a great extent', 41% 'somewhat', 15% 'very little' and 7% 'not at all', whereas around 6% were not able to say.

Available evidence also allows for analysing **discrimination and the experience of being harassed** of migrant EU workers, which could be used as a very general indication of the openness of the city to migrants.

Recent analysis of data from the socio-economic panel<sup>61</sup> at national level in Germany finds that nearly 50% of all EU migrants report subjective experiences of discrimination in different areas of their lives. 50% of migrants report discrimination when looking for employment or apprenticeship placements, 47% report discrimination when dealing with public authorities, 34% when looking for housing, 38% in their day to day life, 17% when dealing with the police. The issue of discrimination seems to be comparatively less prevalent when it comes to EU migrants in Frankfurt, although it was identified as an issue for some through the survey of migrant EU workers. Around 6% of surveyed migrants felt that they were treated differently because they were not German when dealing with the registration office. Smaller numbers felt discriminated against when dealing with other local services.

When asked about broader discrimination experience one third of survey respondents stated that they have been personally harassed by someone or a group of people in a way that really upset, offended or annoyed them in the last 12 months. Of those who have experienced harassment around half did so in public transport, and in the street, followed by having experienced harassment at work. 57% of those who were harassed attributed the harassment to some degree or fully to their migrant background.

In Milan 78.7% of respondents indicated that they have not been harassed in the last 12 months, whereas 6.3% have been harassed in public transport, 4% at work, 3.3% in the street and 2.6% in a shop. EU-13 respondents report harassment related to their immigrant background more often than EU-15 nationals. In the vast majority of the cases, such episodes are related to their immigration background: 32.1% of respondents who reported harassment episodes relate 'most of them' to their immigration background, whereas 48.2% relates only 'some of them' to their foreign background. When considering the origin of respondents, it is clear that EU-13 migrants in Milan feel more often discriminated or harassed for their nationality. In fact, 38.9% and 58.3% of EU-13 respondents and 20% and 30% of EU-15 respondents report that respectively 'most' or 'some' of the reported harassment episodes are related to their immigration background. Conversely, 40% of EU-15 and only 2.8% of EU-13 respondents report that none of such episodes are related to their immigrant background.

In the Netherlands, in a study on discrimination, migrants from the new Member States indicated that they felt discriminated most often on the basis of their ethnic origin, while

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61 Tucci, I., Eisnecker, P., Brücker, H. (2014), Wie zufrieden sind Migranten mit Ihrem Leben? Diskriminierungserfahrung und soziale Integration, IAB Kurzbericht, 21.4/2014.

religion, skin colour and other grounds were considered negligible as discrimination grounds.<sup>62</sup> Migrants experienced discrimination most when applying for jobs. In Rotterdam, nonetheless, 70% of survey respondents stated they never felt harassed by anyone in the last 12 months. Another 10% argued they did not know or could not remember if it happened. The remaining respondents stated they were harassed mostly on the street (12%). It is worth to point out, however, that 35% of respondents that felt harassed in one moment or another believed it had nothing to do with their immigrant background, whilst 25% relate 'most of them' and 19% 'some of them' to their immigrant background. A further 21% though was not able to respond.

Finally, the **future plans of migrant EU workers** can be related to their degree of social integration in the local context.

National research shows that migrants in Germany do generally have the intention to stay – in fact an analysis of the SOEP-migration panel shows that nearly three quarters of those who moved to Germany since 1995 have the intention to stay. However, this share is much lower amongst the EU-15 migrants, of which only 56% intent to stay in Germany in the long term<sup>63</sup>. Survey evidence displays that most migrant EU workers in Frankfurt have the intention to stay in the longer term. While 26% state that they don't know how long they would like to stay, 39% report that they would like to stay indefinitely and 13% for at least 5 years or longer. Only 12% expect to leave Frankfurt within the next 1 to 2 years and 10% after a period of 3 to 4 years. This seems to confirm the need for the long-term socio-economic integration of migrant EU workers in Frankfurt through targeted measures as illustrated in the next chapter.

Also in Milan data regarding the intentions of living in the country display a prevailing rootedness of migrant EU workers, especially in the case of EU-15 respondents, as almost half of them plan to live in the country indefinitely, whereas 69% of EU-13 is not able to tell for how long they will be living in the country. Such a circumstance could be associated to the more recent arrival of EU-13 nationals to Milan and the related lack of long-term plans. On average, though, 32.8% of respondents plan to live in the country indefinitely, 52.9% do not know and smaller proportions have short-terms plans of staying in the country.

In Rotterdam as well a substantial part of respondents plans to stay indefinitely in the country (44%), whereas 27% do not know yet how long they will stay and 29% have shorter-term plans (from less than one year to up to five years).

### **3.5. Summary of key challenges and opportunities**

Overall, there are many similarities in the challenges and opportunities encountered in the four cities, together with some differences that are often related to the organisation of services at national level.

#### **Challenges for migrant EU workers**

Language barriers feature as an important shared challenge in general and for access to the labour market.

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62 SCP (2014), *Ervaren discriminatie in Nederland*.

63 IAB (2014), *Neue Muster der Migration*, IAB Kurzbericht 21.2/2014.

Access to decent and affordable housing is the other most widespread challenge across the four cities.

Other challenges are mentioned with greater emphasis in only some of the cities (which does not mean that they do not exist at all in the other ones).

The recognition of qualifications is an issue highlighted in the Frankfurt and Milan reports.

The exposure to worse working conditions and exploitation emerges as a shared concern in Leeds, Milan and Rotterdam. Being hired at a lower qualification level is a specific circumstance that is salient in Milan.

Access to information on social and health services is mentioned as a key challenge in Frankfurt and Rotterdam. It can be recalled that these two cities are characterised by an insurance-based health care system.

Finding work after having lost one's job is a challenge according to reports on Rotterdam and Milan. In Milan the poor functioning of the matching mechanisms of labour supply and demand is pointed to. Milan also mentions issues related to difficult access to regulated professions and civil service jobs.

Finally, the Rotterdam report also points to the lack of knowledge of law and regulation and difficulties in getting access to social participation.

### **Opportunities for migrant EU workers**

There is more variation across the city reports on the key opportunities that are offered to migrant EU workers. Job opportunities are stressed in Frankfurt, Leeds and Rotterdam. The reports on the first two cities also add possibilities for career and professional development.

Access to good quality local public services is highlighted as an opportunity for migrant EU workers in Frankfurt, Leeds and Milan. In Rotterdam there is emphasis on the possibility to undertake good quality studies. Access to some social benefits is mentioned as an opportunity in Leeds but is not emphasized in other cities.

The report on Rotterdam also emphasizes a number of facilitating factors related to the possibility for migrant EU workers to remain in a familiar environment: the presence of large groups of other migrants from the same countries and specific services and facilities from and for migrants of these countries (e.g. Polish supermarket). The Leeds report instead emphasizes exposure to cultural diversity as an opportunity, also for migrants.

When it comes to services for migrants' inclusion in the labour market, the Rotterdam report mentions a well developed network and infrastructure of specific services for migrant workers (e.g. employment agencies that take care of contracts, transport housing etc.); while the Milan report highlights improvements in the delivery of services to the general population through an adaptation to migrants' need and a simplification of the administrative burden.

### **Challenges for local workers**

Pressures on wages and working conditions are perceived across the four cities; however the availability of evidence varies. This phenomenon mostly concerns the low-skilled

segment of the labour force and the long-term unemployed to some extent (e.g. in Leeds).

In Rotterdam, EU work migration seems to have accelerated the already existing trends of flexibilisation of the labour market, according to some trade union stakeholders. Power relations between employers and employees would also be affected in sectors where there are large numbers of migrants (e.g., food, meat), due to the temporary nature of the labour contracts and the lower level of unionisation of migrants.

### **Opportunities for local workers**

At the same time, the reports show that local workers also benefit from EU migration in terms of greater overall business competitiveness and economic growth – this is stressed in Frankfurt, Milan and Rotterdam.

In Leeds and Rotterdam reference is also made to the fact that migrants purchase local goods and services, thereby creating a new market of services and goods for migrants that generates business opportunities and new jobs.

### **Challenges for the local community**

The existence of tensions within the local communities is mentioned in all reports. This seems in Milan and Rotterdam related to issues of spatial segregation of groups of low-income migrants in specific neighbourhoods and areas. In Leeds tensions are referred to as taking place at work, in schools and on the streets.

Pressure on the housing (rental) market seems to be the most widespread challenge for local communities, shared in Frankfurt, Milan and Rotterdam.

There is limited evidence of pressure on health services, which affects in particularly emergency services in Frankfurt, while some “potential” pressure on the health care system not further documented in studies is reported by stakeholders for Leeds.

Challenges to the functioning of schools are reported in Frankfurt, Leeds and Rotterdam. In Leeds the main issue is the concern about a possible deterioration of the quality of education. In Rotterdam challenges for schools come from the irregular inflow and outflow of migrant EU workers children and an increased percentage of school drop outs. The challenge is aggravated by funding rules as schools are financially penalised when losing pupils.

In the opinion of local stakeholders, challenges for local services need to be contextualised in the framework of budget cuts that service underwent in relation to austerity measures.

### **Opportunities for the local community**

Greater cultural diversity and variety of available cultural products, goods and services is mentioned as an opportunity arising from EU migration in all the four cities.

Moreover, the entrepreneurial energy of arriving migrants (filling in skill gaps and job vacancies; setting up their own businesses, potentially creating new jobs) produces positive effects on the community, according to stakeholders in Leeds. In Rotterdam, it has been stressed that migrant EU workers offset the negative effects of an ageing population.

Furthermore, improvements in the organisation of local services in terms of simplified administrative procedures and greater availability of materials have been observed as a consequence of the necessity to adapt to the presence of migrant EU workers, particularly in Frankfurt. Networking between public institutions has also benefitted from the challenge to address this issue (in Milan).

Finally, it can be noted that cities like Rotterdam improved their image as an international city by being able to show diversity in their (working) population, according to local stakeholders.

## **4. Policies and practices to support the socioeconomic inclusion of migrant EU workers at local level**

### **4.1. Overview**

A wide variety of policies and practices are available for migrant EU workers in the four cities. While the focus of these policies and practices differs, they are targeted at the inclusion of migrant EU workers in the local society and economy.

Differences exist in the precise target group of these policies and practices. In various instances, these measures are exclusively intended for migrant EU workers, often for those coming from the New Member States, whereas in other instances these measures are available for all migrants, also for those from third countries.

In addition, the organisations involved in issuing and implementing policies and practices differs between the four cities, but also between the various policy areas within a city. Some measures are public while others are provided by voluntary organisations or by private actors. This may follow from the fact that some measures are offered on a statutory legal basis, such as education and health care.

Finally, the policies and practices available in the four cities to support the socioeconomic inclusion differ with regard their time scope and the channel through which they are provided. Some of these measures are short-term projects whereas others seem to be planned to last over time. They can be provided face-to-face, via the internet, through the distribution of booklets or by other means.

### **4.2. First access and welcoming**

Welcoming services for newly arrived migrant EU workers that have been found in the four cities focus to a large extent on the provision of information on employment, housing, education, health care and other basic as well as complex services. Welcoming services are provided via various channels: online via internet, leaflets, or face to face at one-stop shops. They are delivered by (charitable) sector organisations, local government, the church, trade unions, or migrant organisations

Services may be provided only to specific segments of the migrant EU working population: some services are only provided to young migrant EU workers below 27 years (e.g. Youth Migration Services in Frankfurt) for example, whereas others are only available for migrants who are qualified as “expats”, normally meaning high-skilled and high-income migrants. It is in this respect remarkable that when one-stop shops have been established, these are mainly intended for higher skilled migrant EU workers, a group which is supposed by the same municipalities to only need little support for their integration. Good examples of these one-stop shops are the Welcome Centre Hessen or the Rotterdam Expat Desk.

Frankfurt has established a Welcome Centre Hessen for those migrants who are likely to have a lower level of need for integration support than those targeted through the immigration counselling services, e.g. because they already have some German language capability and/or hold a higher level of qualifications. The Welcome Centre is part of the Hessian strategy to secure the availability of skilled workers. It aims to improve the ‘welcoming culture’ (Willkommenskultur) in Hessen by providing skilled workers (or those who

want to pursue a vocational training in Germany) with information and advice, answering any questions they might have and welcoming them to the country.

The Centre was opened in July 2013 and is currently funded by the European Social Fund until the end of 2014. It is financed as part of the mobility counselling centre for the Hessen economy (Mobilitätsberatungsstelle der Hessischen Wirtschaft), which promotes mobility counselling in 2013 and 2014 with a total of € 653,800 through the ESF.

In the first 15 months of its existence - 1155 initial contacts were made by migrants with the Welcome Centre, of which 63.1% were from other European Member States (729). Two thirds of these advice-seeking EU migrants were from four EU countries, namely Spain (36%), Romania (12%), Italy (11%) and Bulgaria (7%).

European clients of the Welcome Centre were aged between 16 and 63, with an average age of 32. The share of men was with 56% slightly higher than the share of women seeking advice.

The most frequently requested and provided assistance relates to access to language courses, the recognition of foreign qualifications, finding employment, registration, housing and health insurance. No evaluation assessing the effectiveness and impact of the Welcome Centre has yet taken place.

Even though it is not clear why such one-stop shops haven't been initiated for other types of migrant EU workers, it is certainly a deficiency as they have to fall back on different institutions.

Rotterdam seems to be a particular case since its welcoming approach is to a large extent focused on legal compliance and housing. Whereas the former refers to municipal efforts to stimulate migrant EU workers to register themselves, the latter concerns the fact that immigration issues have always been housing issues in the Netherlands. For migrant EU workers and for migrants in general, social housing is hardly an option because of the long waiting times until a house is assigned/before a house becomes available. Migrant EU workers therefore have to turn to the private sector to arrange their accommodation. This is often problematic, as the private sector rentals for migrant EU workers often turn out to be expensive, located in deprived neighbourhoods, and paired with overcrowding to make the high rent endurable, as already discussed in section 3.3.

### **4.3. Employment and Self-employment**

All four cities have policies and practices targeted at employment and self-employment of migrant EU workers. Our analysis revealed that employment measures for migrant EU workers are essentially of three types:

- Measures to attract migrant EU workers from abroad;
- Measures to reintegrate unemployed migrant EU workers in the (local) labour market;
- Measures to safeguard decent work principles at the workplace.

These different policies and practices will be set out below. A separate section is dedicated to self-employment.

## **Measures to attract migrant EU workers from abroad**

Policies and practices to attract foreign workers are mainly initiated in response to emerging labour market needs and the existence of bottleneck vacancies for skilled workers in particular. These involve both the national and local level. National level measures include mainly tax-incentives for workers with particular skills, as present in the Netherlands, or large-scale information and communication campaigns like the German one-stop shop multilingual web portal “Make it in Germany”. Additional policy measures are for example related to the assessment and recognition of foreign professional qualifications. They are of key importance for the integration of migrant EU workers in the labour market, especially in countries with a strong vocational education system like Germany.

Other nation-wide policies and practices to attract migrant EU workers from abroad are initiated by the EURES network of Public Employment Services. The EURES network offers information on living and working in the EU/EEA as well as matching, placement and recruitment services to jobseekers, job changers and employers.

Like in all EU Member States, the Dutch Public Employment Services UWV/ Werkbedrijf is a member of EURES (European Employment Services). The EURES network offers information on living and working in the Netherlands as well as matching, placement and recruitment services to jobseekers, job-changers and employers from across the EU/EEA area. EURES advisors can offer their assistance to unemployed migrant EU workers to find a job in the Netherlands. They are also located at the PES in Rotterdam.

At the local level, measures to attract migrant EU workers include online portals such as ‘Work in Hessen’ or the ‘Rotterdam Expat desk’. In Rotterdam Private Employment Services (PrES) also recruit migrant EU workers in their home countries in order to employ them on a temporary basis in the city or surroundings. These PrES often offer temporary migrant EU workers entire packages that include housing and health insurance. The Federal State Hessen moreover, signed in 2012 a Memorandum of Understanding with the Community of Madrid to promote the mobility of professionals and facilitate migration of young people to obtain vocational training in Germany.

In 2012 the Land Hessen signed a memorandum of understanding with the Community of Madrid to promote the mobility of professionals and facilitate labour migration of young people to Hessen in order to get professional training. The Employment Agency Frankfurt/Main (Bundesagentur für Arbeit - Agentur für Arbeit Frankfurt/Main) attended job fairs in Spain to recruit young people and the online portal ‘Work in Hessen’ (see above) was launched in parallel to provide more information about the Hessian job market. In 2012, a pilot project by the Hessian Government and the Diakonie Hessen (the social service of the German protestant church) recruited Spanish care professionals for the elderly care sector at job fairs in Spain. 60 care workers arrived in Frankfurt in 2013.

## **Measures to reintegrate migrant EU workers in the labour market**

Even though the vast majority of migrant EU workers are already employed upon arrival, they may become unemployed after a certain period of time, for example once a temporary contract has finished. Various types of services exist in the four cities to reintegrate them in the labour market.

Like domestic jobseekers, unemployed migrant EU workers generally have access to labour market information as well as matching, placement and recruitment services provided by the Public Employment Service (PES). EURES, as a part of the PES, can also provide assistance to migrant EU workers looking for a job. In practice however, services

provided by the PES are not always used by migrant EU workers, because of a lack of awareness, insufficient language proficiency or other reasons. In addition, the PES itself may not be especially active or useful in supporting migrants to access employment for a number of reasons related to the general functioning of the public employment service at national level.

In order to render labour market integration services accessible to migrant EU workers, some targeted measures exist in the various cities. In Leeds for example, the Job Shop is an employment-focused initiative of the PES, the Leeds City Council and the Leeds' health team to provide migrant EU (and other) workers a wide array of services, ranging from career guidance to language courses, to increase their chances on the (local) labour market. In Milan the PES offers language and skills training courses that are solely intended for migrant workers.

The Job Shop is an employment-focused initiative between Job Centre Plus, Leeds City Council and Leeds' health team. There are eight job shops in Leeds that provide migrants with the opportunity to learn English and improve their computer, as well as job search and interview skills. The centres provide support in writing CVs, completing applications, and offer information, advice and guidance on work, career and training opportunities. Set up as one-stop-shops, they provide services related to council tax, benefits and social services, hate incident reporting, and more.

Also in Milan, the municipality opened an office and register for care workers called "Sportello badanti e baby sitter" to support the matching and supply of caretakers. This is a one-stop shop with a database on job opportunities for caretakers that also provides information and advice on contracts to regularise this type work. Even though it was not originally intended for migrant EU workers, women from the new EU Member States often work in this sector and use this service.

The Municipality of Milan opened an office and register for care workers called "Sportello badanti e baby sitter" ("Service for caregivers and babysitters"). The service is meant to support the matching between demand and supply by providing information on the domestic work contract typologies and advice to regularise the work of care providers. Even if not specifically launched for EU migrants, these services are relevant given that many Eastern European women work in this sector in Milan (Local authority).

In Rotterdam, our study found a private employment service (PrES) that recruits migrant EU workers already residing in the city (and beyond) who are looking for work. These are often spouses of expats or former university students who decided to stay in the city. They are often hired by the PrEs for trading companies because of their language skills and cultural understanding.

Finally, the analysis of policies and practices in the four cities also revealed the existence of several online platforms for migrant EU workers.

### **Measures to safeguard employment rights at the workplace**

Even if workers have the right information, this does not mean that they can use it effectively to safeguard their employment rights.<sup>64</sup> Employers, in particular in sectors where profit margins are low, may be tempted to cut staff costs by employing posted workers from other EU Member States with low wage costs, or hiring low-paid (fake) self-

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64 Fitzgerald, I. (2009), A moving target: The information needs of Polish migrant workers in Yorkshire and the Humber, Northumbria University, School of Build Environment.

employed workers from these countries, or by hiring staff from fraudulent temporary work agencies that pay migrant EU workers salaries below the level of Collective Labour Agreements.<sup>65</sup>

Policies and practices to counteract abuse and exploitation in the workplace in the four cities have been initiated by the local government and also by trade unions. In order to protect migrant EU workers from precarious employment but also local workers from unfair competition from migrant EU workers and displacement, trade unions initiated various activities. These activities vary from information campaigns to the provision of (legal) assistance to migrant EU workers to enforce their rights. Examples of these activities include 100% Unite campaign in Leeds or the Fair Mobility campaign from the German Trade Union Confederation (DGB) in Frankfurt. Furthermore, a partnership between the Province (regional government) and social partners to promote employment rights of care workers was established in Milan.

In Rotterdam the local government started a pilot project in 2012 to counteract fraudulent temporary work agencies.

National Dutch policy to prevent labour displacement focuses on fraudulent temporary work agencies. The municipality of Rotterdam follows this approach in its measures to counteract abuse on the labour market.

There have been court cases and trade union action on employers bending or pushing the rules in such a way that workers from other EU Member States do not cost the employer as much as a Dutch employee. The concerns regarding this phenomenon are particularly widespread in economic sectors where a large number of jobs are paid minimum wages and local workers compete against the migrants from the new Member States, resulting in a heightened investment in monitoring this by the sectoral and social partners.

In November 2012 the Municipality of Rotterdam started with a pilot project to counteract fraudulent temporary work agencies (In Dutch: Aanpak malafide uitzendbureaus Rotterdam– AMU-R). The duration of the pilot was one year in which an intensification of inspections of temporary work agencies in Rotterdam was realised. A total of 80 temporary agencies were monitored of which 26 have been shut down.

The pilot was continued through the integration of monitoring in regular labour inspection activities and enhanced cooperation with national enforcement agencies that focus on fraudulent temporary work agencies and on fraud in general.

### **Policies and practices to promote self-employment**

(Future) self-employed migrant EU workers and business owners can receive different advice and services than those who are in an employment relationship. At least in Rotterdam and Frankfurt, we found various organisations, often related to the Chamber of Commerce, that seek to attract entrepreneurs from abroad.

#### **4.4. Local services**

Local services in this research refer to statutory services such as education and healthcare, but also social assistance and social or subsidised housing. The key issue in all four cities is how these services are bridged with the needs of migrant EU workers.

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65 Cf. Gemeente Rotterdam (2013), De Uitvoeringsagenda 2013-2014 EU arbeidsmigratie.

Our analysis has shown that two dimensions are of prime importance in this respect. First, the extent to which access of migrant EU workers and their families to these services is facilitated. Second, the extent to which local service provision anticipates on the specific needs of migrant EU workers and their families.

### Information provision

The first issue concerns the way information on local services, especially on how to get in touch with service providers, is channelled to migrant EU workers.

Information on local services can be provided by the local government solely, often through an **online portal**. In Rotterdam most information on municipal facilities is provided in Dutch and is therefore inaccessible for migrant EU workers who cannot read Dutch. For high-skilled migrant (EU) workers in particular (but not exclusively), the Municipality of Rotterdam has a dedicated “red carpet treatment”. A central component of this red carpet treatment is a special welcome desk for expats that offers online information and assistance in English.<sup>66</sup> The Expat desk offers support in the field of medical services, on finding housing, schools and childcare as well as on language training and other courses. Finally, the Expat desk offers newcomers the possibility to be introduced into a network of different service providers such as real-estate agents, accountants, lawyers.

In Frankfurt moreover, the Hessian Ministry for Social Affairs provides online information on standard services and health checks provided by the German health insurance system in 15 languages.<sup>67</sup>

Also in Milan, the local government maintains, in cooperation with other public organisations, an online portal to provide information on practical aspects of life in Milan in different languages.<sup>68</sup>

Aside from information provision via internet in various languages, information on access to services is also provided **face to face** to migrant EU workers. Here also other organisations may be involved.

The Rotterdam welcome desk for expats for instance has a service point located in the city centre. In addition, the city of Rotterdam organises thematic meetings for migrant EU workers in some districts and holds special office hours for migrant EU workers in the city hall.

Also in Frankfurt, information on local services is provided face to face. Here different actors are at play depending on the type of service. Information on education is provided by the *Aufnahme- und Beratungszentrum für Seiteneinsteiger* (ABZ). ABZ is a statutory body under the Hessian State Ministry of Education which works as an early assessment and consultation centre for late entrants (which are mainly young migrants) into the German educational system in Frankfurt. Its task includes welcoming young migrants and providing information about the educational system and undertaking assessments of educational attainment. Visiting the ABZ is not mandatory but migrants are legally

<sup>66</sup> <http://www.rotterdam.nl/expatdesk>.

<sup>67</sup> Amt für multikulturelle Angelegenheiten (2014): Gesundheit. Frankfurt. Online: [http://www.frankfurt.de/sixcms/detail.php?id=2884&\\_ffmpar\[\\_id\\_inhalt\]=7994103](http://www.frankfurt.de/sixcms/detail.php?id=2884&_ffmpar[_id_inhalt]=7994103) (accessed 28.10.14); Ethno-Medizinisches Zentrum e.V. / BKK (2014): Gesundheitsleitfaden Hessen. Frankfurt. Online: <http://www.bkk-bv-gesundheit.de/bkk-promig/111.0.html>.

<sup>68</sup> <http://milano.italianostranieri.org/>.

obliged to register their children with a school which will inform parents about the service.

Information on health care is provided by the Public Health Department of the City of Frankfurt am Main. This Public Health Service (PHS) (*Öffentlicher Gesundheitsdienst, ÖGD*) aims at protecting the general health of the community and the individual at federal, state, and local level. Within the Department of Health, the Office for Migration and Health is a specialised body tasked with the planning and monitoring of health projects for migrants; initiating and promoting health activities within city districts and for specific target groups; coordination and networking of working group across sectors and actors, as well as organising conferences on health issues; it is furthermore member of nationwide networks and excellence clusters on the topic of migration and health.

The city of Leeds operates a *Migrant Community Network* that comprises different organisations ranging from the Citizen's Advice Bureau, the NHS Leeds, the PES and various other organisations that aim to tailor access and service delivery to migrant EU (and other) workers. *Community Networkers* stem from different national, ethnic and linguistic groups, which enables them to disseminate information to migrant communities on how to get access to service, such as housing, employment, education, health, and social care provided by the participating organisations. Different groups of migrant EU workers have access to these services through these networkers.

Another example includes contact groups and drop-in sessions organised by police forces working in partnership with other public services to help direct migrants to relevant services, e.g. employment departments. The police service also runs a weekly group for women from Eastern Europe, in particular those with young babies, allowing them to go out and find out more about services related to health, employment, childcare and more in Leeds.

The Leeds Migration Partnership, established as part of the services provided by the Leeds City Council, is a network of organisations that work together to change the way services are delivered and accessed by migrant groups (EU migrants and other migrant groups) in Leeds. One of their projects is the Migrant Community Network. This is a partnership initiative of several service providers, such as the Citizen's Advice Bureau, Job Centre Plus, NHS Leeds, Adult Social Care, Children and Young People's Services, Housing Options, Education, Touchstone and Customer Services. In order to alleviate pressures on statutory services, the Network aims to find innovative solutions to support public and third sector services that can become stretched by the needs of existing migrants and new arrivals to Leeds. Partners identify areas that they want to improve knowledge of, to find ways that they can help each other out and to share their networks for information and support.

Part of this Network includes recruitment of Community Networkers – volunteers supporting migrants, organised through Migrant Access Points. Networkers come from different national, ethnic and language backgrounds and this, in turn, enables them to spread information to migrant communities on how to get access to services to which they are entitled, such as housing, employment, education, financial inclusion, social care and pathways to health including wellbeing and mental health. For instance, volunteers from Central and Eastern European countries directed migrants to Job Centre Plus, which in turn has contracted interpreters at their disposal in case the workers do not have the required language skills.

Through their work, networkers enable community members to access services and empower migrant communities to build their capacity to increase support and integration with wider communities. Examples of sessions run as part of this project include:

- Employment skills and professional development sessions, such as recruitment fairs, emergency First Aid at work sessions, construction courses, advertising jobs, JumpSTART (university and further training preparation course), radio skills courses;
- Health and safety training, such as 'Eat well', 'Healthy living' and wellbeing sessions, various sport classes (active women sessions, Muslim women's safeguarding training, Zumba classes, Funky Fitness classes), Head Space course (building confidence, assertiveness and ability to deal with mental distress), first aid courses, eye health checks;
- Cultural, sport and leisure events, such as film screenings, holiday sport programmes, art classes, celebration of cultural events, e.g. Chinese New Year, breakfast forum, café fora, gardening course, cooking classes;
- Other sessions, such as money management and legal immigration advice;
- Voluntary service organisations are also involved in this project as they are important access points to communities, and through partnership working they encourage, engage and sustain stronger communities.

The work of Migrant Access Points has been recognised both within the local authority staff awards of excellence and highlighted as an exemplar of good practice in the external assessment under the Equality Framework for Local Government.

### Tailored services

Local services that are tailored to the needs of migrant EU workers include generic (health) services offered in the language of migrant EU workers or services of which the content has been adapted to specific needs or challenges posed by migrant EU workers (and their families).

A good example of services provided in foreign languages is the humanitarian consultation hour (Humanitäre Sprechstunde) held by the Public Health Department in Frankfurt. While the majority of patients stem from third countries, the number of people from South-Eastern Europe visiting this service is increasing. As mentioned in section 3.3, since 2008 an increase of patients from Bulgaria and Romania has been recorded.

Another health-related practice for migrant EU workers is the Health Trainer programme in Leeds. The programme encourages people to make behavioural changes related to diet, physical activity, emotional wellbeing and access to educational opportunities as a step towards achieving better health outcomes. Health Trainers, in cooperation with general practitioners, offer structured support on a one-to-one basis in other languages than English, over six to eight sessions for people wanting to develop and implement a personal health plan.

Local services in the field of education that are tailored to the needs of migrant EU workers (and their families) include the *Erstfördermaßnahme* of up to 24 months to integrate children in the education system in Frankfurt. In Rotterdam furthermore, the children of EU migrants tend to appear above-average on statistics on school absenteeism and drop-out rates. The City of Rotterdam has therefore taken additional efforts to ensure that children of EU migrants participate in the classes, for example via enhanced monitoring to ensure that the home address of the children are known to the schools and the school inspection (in Dutch: *Leerplichtambtenaar*).

#### **4.5. Social, cultural and political participation**

Three different basic sets of policies and practices to foster social, cultural and political participation have been found in the four cities. These include:

- Measures to stimulate the attendance of language courses;
- Support to cultural activities;
- Support to specific disadvantaged groups, Roma in particular.

These are further set out in the sections below.

##### **Language courses**

Proper proficiency of the local language is often a key to (socio-economic) inclusion. In all four cities different measures have been taken to stimulate migrant EU workers to learn the local language.

In Frankfurt and Rotterdam, the (local) government seem to play a more active role in the provision of language courses than in the two other cities. Both in Leeds and Milan a central online portal provides access to information on language courses.

In Milan for example, the portal <http://milano.italianostranieri.org/> discussed earlier also provides information on language courses. This central hub enables users to select a language course among those organised by different providers, such as civil society organisations and commercial companies, on the basis of a set of variables: costs, timetable of the courses, level, and type of certificate to be awarded. This site is available in different languages.

Also in Leeds a dedicated website Learning English in Leeds (LEL) offers information on English lessons offered by different providers in the framework of the Migrant English Support Hub (MESH). MESH consists of learning providers and other stakeholders involved in supporting adult migrants. The MESH project confirmed that the ESOL provision in Leeds is fragmented among over 50 voluntary and private sector providers, information about courses is neither held centrally nor kept up to date, and connections between various language course providers are not coherent. Furthermore, due to policy change, access to free courses is restricted to an increasingly narrow range of migrants, and even those who are eligible to attend these courses face long waiting lists at Leeds City College, the main provider. As a result, learning English remains a challenge for the newly arrived migrants in Leeds.

In Frankfurt, language courses for migrant EU workers are available via two national sources. First, BAMF funds an integration course that consists of 600 hours of German language course and a 60 hours orientation course on German society, history and culture. Second, the ESF-BAMF programme combines vocational training and internships with language courses for professionals. Other public providers such as the Goethe Institute also offer language courses. Additional courses are offered by private providers. The courses provided by the latter are usually more expensive.

Finally, in Rotterdam low cost language trainings are offered by the municipality and by vocational education providers. In practice these trainings are often fully booked. Migrant EU workers can then turn to private providers, which are more expensive, or to courses provided by voluntary organisations.

##### **Support for cultural activities**

Social, cultural, religious and political participation is facilitated through migrant and civil society organisations. In Frankfurt for example, there exist over 350 migrant associations

and about 140 religious communities. In Leeds such associations include the Anglo-German social club and the Polish Catholic Centre. Such organisations can have already a long history. The Polish Catholic Centre in Leeds for instance has a history that dates back to the end of WWII.

In Rotterdam, the city deliberately supports such socio-cultural organisations to facilitate the self-organisation of migrant EU workers and -ultimately- their inclusion in the city. In Milan moreover, the Municipality launched in 2010 a call to finance projects promoted by associations of migrants based in Milan. This call was funded by the Regional Fund for the Integration of Migrants.

In Leeds, such activities are launched in the framework of the Integration Up North project, which is co-funded by the European Union's European Integration Fund. This is a programme led by Migration Yorkshire, the regional migration partnership for Yorkshire and the Humber region. The project aims to understand and help integration of third country nationals in the region through a comprehensive and co-ordinated programme of research, training, guidance, strategic support and migrant participation for local authorities, key policy-makers and practitioners.

In addition, cities also organise cultural activities for migrant EU (and other) workers themselves. In Frankfurt, such activities include the Integration Award, to reward extraordinary integration efforts, or the Intercultural weeks, with different intercultural events across the city.

### **Practices to support specific disadvantaged groups**

The organisations of and for migrants are in certain cases intended to support disadvantaged groups in society. These include Roma in particular. Organisations that aim to support Roma (and other disadvantaged groups of migrants) include Roma e.V. in Frankfurt, as well as Roma Source and Roma Matrix in Leeds. Such organisations often have an advisory role, e.g. for the local government, aim to combat discrimination and seek to enhance mutual understanding.

Roma e.V. was established in 1993 and today employs around 40 people in the different activities of the association. Its services and advisory role are more in demand than ever. While Roma e.V. emphasises that Frankfurt has not been glutted with Roma and Sinti migrants, they recognise that the number of Roma in Frankfurt has in fact increased since the end of the transitional measures. They estimate that the Roma community in Frankfurt has grown from around 3000-4000 Roma to 4000-5000 since early 2014. Demand on the social advisory services has increased by additional 170 people seeking help. The association provides a platform for dialogue and understanding between Roma and non-Roma as well as promotes the socio economic integration of Roma in Frankfurt. This includes amongst others a social counselling service, a day care centre, education and vocational orientation projects, as well as adult education projects. Through advocacy work, the association aims to address the structural issues of Roma integration in Germany.

Other initiatives for disadvantaged groups are more focused on the disadvantaged groups themselves. In Milan for example, the initiative 'La mamma ti vuole bene' (Mum loves you) was launched by ADRI (Association of Romanian Women in Italy) in the public libraries of Milan in order to allow Romanian women, who moved to Milan for work, to keep in touch with their children who remained in Romania.

## 5. Conclusions and recommendations

### 5.1. Overall remarks

Migrant EU workers represent a very diverse population, ranging from highly-skilled globalised professionals to workers taking up temporary contracts in low-skilled jobs. The perception of the phenomenon is sometimes biased towards one of these categories only. The study contributed to highlight this diversity and the wide range of responses that are in place or are still needed to support the mobility and socioeconomic inclusion of these different groups of EU workers.

The study has confirmed that a suddenly increased presence of migrant EU workers in a city poses some challenges. These are very often related to broader challenges affecting urban areas: the shortage of affordable (rental) housing, the financial pressure on local services (e.g. schools) in the context of austerity measures, the understaffing of emergency health services catering for the needs of those who are unable to navigate the health system, or have no entitlement in it. In this context, migrant EU workers, who do not appear per se to be extremely intensive users of local services (also for demographic reasons), are nonetheless seen as an additional burden for the system, especially if the assumption is that (contrary to the principle of free movement) they should not be there.

However, the study shows that the challenge of having to cater for migrant EU workers also comes with opportunities for local services. The need to address migrant EU workers has prompted some services to improve the dissemination of information to the public and to streamline cooperation across different agencies. Additionally, it must be recalled that migrant EU workers contribute to the fiscal base and to the spread of risk over health and employment insurance users.

The study highlighted that there are benefits for the local economy from the presence of migrant EU workers. They bring entrepreneurial energy, purchase good and services (often giving rise to new business initiatives to address their specific needs), and help revitalise the housing market (around one quarter of migrant EU workers investigated in the study bought their accommodation in Leeds, Milan and Rotterdam and about one tenth in Frankfurt). However the study also confirmed the concerns about pressures on wages and working conditions and the exploitation of low-skilled migrant labour force from other EU Member States. Again, what the free movement of workers has brought about is an acceleration of already existing trends, the flexibilisation of labour market in this case. This of course does not diminish the importance of tackling illegal or unethical practices of those work agencies and other entrepreneurs of the black economy that specifically take advantage of the free movement of workers for their exploitative purposes.

Finally, one observation that can be made across the various policy domains covered by our study is that the biggest challenges are posed by those segments of migration that are characterised by precarious conditions and short-term perspectives, according to a “guest worker” model. Examples in the studies range from nuisances and social alarm created by the presence of hostels for (young male) workers in neighbourhoods, to pupils who frequently change school to follow the unstable migration patterns of their parents. Precariousness and instability do not incentivise investment in proper housing by those who can afford such investments, and prompt migrant EU workers to maximise their short term income by accepting cheap substandard accommodations, often characterised by overcrowding, with the related negative consequences for neighbourhoods. Conversely, the study has shown that some migrant EU workers also invest in their

permanence in the city, buying their home for example, and this is likely related to having long-term perspectives in the country. Moreover, it could be argued that coming to live in a new city implies a “learning curve” to get acquainted with the system. The fact that the majority of migrant EU workers did not encounter major difficulties in finding their ways in local services demonstrates that this learning curve has an end. The return from an initial investment in facilitating migrant EU workers’ access to local services is greater when they stay longer and contribute to the fiscal base and the insurance base of the services as well as the local economy.

## **5.2. Recommendations**

The four reports provide recommendations to local policy makers that touch upon both method and contents of policies for the socioeconomic inclusion of migrant EU workers. In the following section the most important of them are briefly summarised.

### **Adopt a balanced and integrated approach to the issue**

A general recommendation that comes from the Rotterdam report regards the overall approach to the issue. In dealing with EU migration attention should not only be focused on either the opportunities and benefits or the problems and challenges. An integrated and balanced approach is needed that maximizes the opportunities while limiting the problems as much as possible. Such an approach should be focused on facilitating migration into the cities to support the competitiveness of the local economy.

### **Increase knowledge and recognise diversity for more tailor-made interventions**

In all four reports the suggestion also emerges to improve the availability of data and information on the variety of migrant EU workers groups that live in the cities in order to design better and more tailor-made initiatives for migrant EU workers.

In Milan, the collection of detailed data on the characteristics of EU migration and better coordination between statistical data systems at different administrative levels are recommended. Furthermore, there should be focused research to create knowledge and set the basis for the provision of specialised services for of EU migrants.

In Leeds, identifying and recognising the diversity of migrants is considered as a critical step facilitating engagement. Among other things, it should be recognised that many newly arrived migrants (post-2000) are not part of the long established migrant organisations e EU migrants often work across ‘borders’ when engaging with other migrant communities. Both social media and traditional channels like community workers should be used to contact migrants. Available data moreover should be used to identify service demands in the future.

In Rotterdam, to be fully able to formulate effective policy on EU labour migration it would be necessary to improve data availability with regard to the presence of EU citizens in the city, starting from municipal records.

### **Involve key stakeholders and address their capacity building needs**

A number of other recommendations from the report concern the necessity to involve key stakeholders.

Migrant associations should be supported for their complementary services to those offered by the government (Milan).

Staff of key public services should be trained and specialised profiles should be provided to better serve migrant EU workers' needs (Milan). Community workers, ideally fluent in migrants' home languages, should be trained to act as community mediators (Leeds).

Service providers – including migrants' organisations - should be helped in achieving the sustainability of their services. For sustainability reasons, the adaptation of existing services should be prioritised over the creation of specific separate services for migrant EU workers (Leeds).

Employers should be provided with relevant information regarding the administrative procedures for hiring EU workers.

Ultimately, a more coordinated action of the various actors involved in service delivery should be ensured to the benefit of migrants as well as service providers (Leeds).

### Specific initiatives

As for the content of the actions that should be undertaken, the reports focus on a number of initiatives to be promoted or strengthened.

The improvement and **expansion of language training provision** is a shared recommendation across the four city reports. For Frankfurt, it is specified that this should happen through improved provision of subsidised language courses and secondly, through an increased promotion of language courses abroad to prepare migrants before coming to Germany. Language courses should be provided beyond B1 level. The Leeds report emphasizes the need for English needs assessment tools to identify those migrants whose English skills require further improvement, and better and more coordinated dissemination of information on the web.

**Setting up one-stop-shops** seems a necessity shared in all cities. **Improving existing one-stop-shops** is a need highlighted in the Frankfurt report: while some bundled information is provided to arriving migrants, there is no clear 'pipeline' of local services through which the arriving migrant EU workers can easily navigate. In Rotterdam, such a one-stop-shop exists for the high-skilled segment and should be extended to all migrant EU workers.

**The recognition of qualifications** is another priority emerging from city reports. Besides using existing tools (Rotterdam), there should be information on the landscape of providers who assist in the process of getting recognition (Frankfurt).

**Combating labour exploitation** by monitoring sectors at risk and distributing information to workers is a recommendation emerging from reports in Milan and Rotterdam in particular.

The importance of addressing the issue of **access to housing** is stressed in the Rotterdam report, but considering that this is a shared challenge it also applies to the other cities.

Finally, some recommendations revolve around the importance of **addressing the needs of specific vulnerable groups of migrant EU workers** that are at greater risk of exclusion, like those from the Roma community (Leeds), and to support the capacity

of emergency services that serve these groups, like shelters and emergency health care facilities (Frankfurt).

## Annex – City reports