

Join In a Job!

New means of cross cultural clearing and counselling instruments for VET in order to grant access to qualification and training for juvenile migrants

Project no. 2008 -1-AT1-LEO05-00614



Summary of National Reports

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1) AIM OF REPORT

Reason for compiling national reports in context of the *Join In a Job!* Project

Juvenile migrants are affected more significantly by unemployment than their local counterparts in partner countries (Austria, Germany, Ireland, Italy, Poland). The situation within VET systems is similar, as migrants are under represented due to barriers like a lack of information or lack of awareness of the importance of good qualifications. This situation faces not only immigrant populations but also impacts on juveniles with migrant backgrounds belonging to 2nd generation migrant families.

To support and accompany juvenile migrants accessing VET systems and the labour market, a method has been developed that focuses on competence and resource based counselling dialogue, relating to education and job opportunities. The Join In a Job! project transfers the method into partner countries. Adaptations regarding the status quo of used methods and instruments and specific needs of juvenile migrants in partner countries are a central part of this project.

The present report aims to summarise juvenile migrants' past and present situations in respective partner countries and allows for an insight into their needs. The report answers the following questions:

History: What is the history of immigration into each partner country? What are the countries of origin? What was the immigrants' background in terms of education and professional experience?

Present situation: How is the employment situation for juvenile migrants in each partner country? How can their situation regarding vocational education and training be described? How are they affected by unemployment? What legal aspects may be restricting access to either training or employment opportunities? What are seen as the barriers to entering qualitative education and labour markets? What can be pointed out as successful and innovative initiatives?

Future strategies: What strategies have been developed already to improve migrants educational and employment realities in terms of EU policies?

2) EUROPEAN MIGRATION POLICY

Introduction

The EU's population currently stands at almost 500 million. However, given the current birth rate it is set to decline. As well as the problem of the declining birth rate people in Europe are living longer, which means that European societies are ageing and pension systems are coming under strain. The enlargement of the EU has done little to rejuvenate Europe, since most new member-states also have ageing populations and low birth rates. These trends, unless reversed, will weaken the EU's ability to compete with emerging economies with large and young workforces.¹

Europe is currently absorbing approximately two million migrants each year – more as a proportion of its population than any other part of the world, including North America. This

¹ Katinka Barysch, 'Why Europeans don't have babies,' CER blog, June 2007.

influx is altering the make-up of member-states' populations more than birth rates or death rates. As a result immigration and immigrants has become the subject of debate in many European countries and is increasingly a political sensitive. For example the flow of workers into the UK and Ireland following the EU 2004 enlargement was the largest inward migration ever recorded into either country over a two-year period, Spain's official immigrant population has risen by 400 per cent in ten years, Italy has an estimated 100,000 Romanian immigrants, most of whom are thought to be without a job.²

Increased migration into Europe is part of a global trend. Cheaper travel and more information entice skilled and unskilled workers from poorer countries to rich ones. The UN predicts that, on current trends, the numbers of people migrating worldwide will increase by 40 per cent over the next 40 years.³

The Commission estimates that there are around eight million illegal immigrants in the EU, and that this number increases by 500,000 to one million every year. The majority of these originally come legally on short-term visas and stay on after these expire. Many find work in Europe's thriving black economy, which could make up as much as 16 per cent of EU GDP. These workers are drawn to Europe mainly by the knowledge that they can find work illegally in the construction, agriculture, cleaning and hospitality industries. Many end up doing under-paid or dangerous work. The Commission wants to tackle the problem by toughening up laws on undeclared work. The Commission called for member-states to adopt a directive in 2008 that would set fines and jail sentences for employing illegal labour and would increase the number of checks on businesses in those sectors most affected. Most member states have some form of black market labour legislation already, but the Commission argues most do not enforce such laws rigorously enough.⁴

In some places, robust growth and falling unemployment have helped to assuage concerns about the impact of immigration on local labour markets. However given the current economic situation across Europe this may change over the coming period.

No Coherent Policy

Because each country has its own particular immigration issue and focus (in some cases migrants are seen as a problem, rather than as an opportunity) the EU as a collective is struggling to develop a coherent policy response to immigration. Thus despite years of discussion and initiatives, a real EU migration policy is not yet agreed. This is, in part, because the member-states cannot agree on clear political objectives (and thus, a legal mandate) for such a policy. However given the nature of immigration and the open borders across the EU no country can address the challenges thrown up by migration in isolation. As a result even in the absence of a coherent policy, EU co-operation is facilitating an exchange of experience with, and ideas about, managing migration.

EU policies on immigration, asylum, border controls and crime are subsumed under the term 'justice and home affairs' (JHA). Since JHA policies can be politically sensitive, initiatives in this area have to achieve a balance between facilitating co-operation and preserving national sovereignty. Therefore until a few years ago all JHA policies were decided by unanimity, with a very limited role for EU institutions, such as the European Parliament and Court of Justice.

² EU migration policy: An A-Z, Hugo Brady: (2008) The Centre for European Reform

³ United Nations, 'Trends in total migrant stock: The 2005 revision', 2006.

⁴ European Commission, 'Towards a comprehensive European migration policy: Cracking down on employment of illegal immigrants and fostering circular migration and mobility partnerships', May 16th 2007

In 1997, the EU merged the Schengen agreement⁵ on borderless travel into the Amsterdam treaty. As a result border and immigration cooperation became legally binding, but still with a requirement for unanimity. It is worth noting that Ireland and the UK remain outside Schengen agreement. Along with Denmark, they also negotiated to keep their involvement in EU initiatives on borders, immigration and asylum optional rather than obligatory. Shortly after the Amsterdam treaty entered into force, EU leaders agreed on a detailed list of goals for EU asylum and immigration policies called the Tampere programme. In 2004 this was renamed the Hague programme. Shortly after, the member-states used a special clause in the Treaty of Nice to move decisions on asylum and immigration to qualified majority voting, except for legal migration.

If ratified, the Lisbon Treaty will switch all remaining EU decisions on asylum, immigration and integration to qualified majority voting after 2009. (This includes new laws on entry requirements for non-EU nationals). However, the treaty also makes clear that member-states have an exclusive right to determine the numbers of foreign nationals admitted to their territory and that co-operation on integration is supplementary and not about the harmonisation of laws. The European Parliament already has an equal say with national ministers in most EU legislation dealing with immigration, border and visa issues. But under the treaty it will gain a stronger say in both legal and illegal migration measures. Britain, Ireland and Denmark opt out of many migration-related policies at present, and this will not change under the new treaty. The Lisbon treaty states for the first time that member-states will support any EU country faced with a sudden influx of refugees. But it does not specify how this obligation would work in practice. The text also strengthens the Commission's legal standing to negotiate agreements with home countries to take back illegal immigrants.⁶

Many European countries have no proper system for attracting legal migrants. Of those that do, most operate quota systems to issue work visas based on the country's need for migrant labour, based on information provided by local state bodies, employment agencies and employers. The Czech Republic, Germany and the Netherlands have used 'green card' or work permit systems, in partnership with employers. In 2008, the UK became the first European country to introduce a 'points-based' system, modelled on those in Australia and Canada. The UK allocates work visas depending on the skills and qualifications that are lacking in its labour market. Some economists have criticised points systems as ineffective and bureaucratic. But advocates argue such schemes are a much better method than quotas for identifying, attracting, and retaining workers.

Asylum Policy

In many parts of the world millions of people each year leave their country in search of protection elsewhere. The 1951 Geneva Convention on the Status of Refugees sets down the rules for treating refugees and assessing their claims. There is no common EU asylum policy. EU member-states tend to base their asylum policies on a single set of rules, in line with their shared interpretation of the Geneva Convention. The main EU law underpinning this policy is the so-called Dublin regulation. Agreed in 2003, the regulation requires potential refugees to be looked after by the EU country in which they first arrive.

⁵Schengen: Most EU countries are part of the Schengen area, where passport checks and border controls have been abolished. In 2007, the Schengen area expanded taking in new EU members Estonia, Hungary, Latvia, Lithuania, Malta, Poland, Slovenia, Slovakia and the Czech Republic. The area also includes three non-EU members, Iceland, Norway and Switzerland. Britain and Ireland have chosen to maintain their border controls indefinitely, while Bulgaria, Cyprus and Romania are not yet members.

⁶ EU migration policy: An A-Z, Hugo Brady: (2008) The Centre for European Reform

Currently only around half of European asylum applications are approved. The member-states are reviewing EU asylum rules to try to improve matters. The EU will establish an asylum support office in 2010. The exact remit is still being debated.

EU Boarder Agency

Frontex is the EU border agency. It is responsible for co-ordinating border management across most of Europe. Over the coming period the EU governments want to increase the responsibilities and resources of Frontex.

Circular migration

One idea put forward to address the issue of immigration for both the EU and the countries where migrants come from is to encourage more 'circular migration'. This means helping migrants to move between their own country and the EU country where they work. The supporters of this idea, for example, The International Organisation for Migration, an agency that works with governments and migrant communities worldwide, thinks that companies should offer migrants regular sabbaticals at home to promote circular migration. It also argues that governments should make residence or dual citizenship available to more migrants and establish more flexible visa regimes.

In 2007, EU governments picked up on these and other ideas by agreeing that the member-states would offer more favourable visa schemes to co-operative countries, in so-called mobility partnerships. To test this idea, the Commission negotiated pilot mobility partnerships with Cape Verde and Moldova in 2008.⁷

One issue with the circular migration idea is that the term means different things to different EU countries. Some would only be prepared to give circular migration rights to highly-skilled migrants whereas others think the idea best suits seasonal migrants who return every year to do jobs in the agriculture, construction and tourist industries

EU Nationals and Immigration

Unlike immigrants from non-members states, EU nationals are free to enter or live in other member states without the need for visas or residence permits. EU citizens and their families have the legal right to live anywhere throughout the Union for three months, after which they must be working, studying or financially independent if they wish to stay. After five years, this right of residence becomes permanent. EU countries can expel other member-states' citizens only if the person is a proven threat to public safety. These rights are set out in detail in a key 2006 European directive on free movement. The right to free movement does not automatically entail the right to work in another member-state.

The Idea of a Blue Card

The European economy needs more highly skilled workers, such as information technology specialists, business managers, and doctors and nurses. The Commission estimates that the EU will need to attract 20 million skilled migrants over the next 20 years to address skill shortages in Europe's engineering and computer technology sectors. An overwhelming majority of EU immigrants from Africa and Asia are unskilled. One proposed solution is a EU 'blue card' – a common working visa – to lure young, highly skilled workers to Europe. Under the scheme, recipients would get a two-year residency in any member-state where they have a job offer. The job must be paid at three times the local minimum wage and be guaranteed for at least one year. For the migrant, the main benefit of the blue card would be the option to extend their stay after the initial contract and to work anywhere else in the EU. The

⁷ Council of the European Union, 'Justice and home affairs council meeting', December 2007, <http://www.consilium.europa.eu>

Commission would set the criteria for granting a blue card and have the power to guarantee cardholders the same healthcare, tax and pension rights throughout the EU. Some member-states remain unenthusiastic about the idea. The prospects for the blue card therefore look bleak, as long as the EU continues to decide labour migration questions by unanimity.⁸

Integration of Migrants

The EU will only be able to cope with a growing number of immigrants if member-states get better at helping them to integrate. This can only be done at the national and local level. The 'migrant integration policy index', a survey of European integration policies funded by the European Commission, ranks EU countries depending on how effective their integration laws are. These include laws on family reunion, residence rights, labour market access, political participation, access to nationality and antidiscrimination. Finland, Sweden, the Western Mediterranean, the Benelux and the UK top the index. The policies of the Baltic republics, Denmark, the countries of the Eastern Mediterranean and Central Europe come last.⁹

European Neighbourhood Policy

The European Neighbourhood Policy (ENP) aims to make the countries to the EU's east and south more stable and prosperous. It does so by offering aid, market access and co-operation on various policies, while in return asking the partner countries to implement economic and political reforms. As part of the ENP, the EU has signed bilateral action plans with twelve partners (Armenia, Azerbaijan, Egypt, Georgia, Israel, Jordan, Lebanon, Moldova, Morocco, the Palestinian Authority, Tunisia and Ukraine). More are in the pipeline.

Protecting Human Rights

The EU's Fundamental Rights Agency is responsible for monitoring levels of racism, xenophobia and anti-semitism in Europe. Article 7 of the current EU treaty allows the member-states to suspend the voting rights of governments which fail to respect EU principles of democracy, the rule of law and human rights, including the rights of minorities, refugees and immigrants. European legislation requires each member-state to have its own commission for racial equality. EU efforts are merely supplementary to national ones.

Trafficking of People

Migrants desperate to move to Europe often fall prey to traffickers and smugglers. The International Labour Organisation (ILO) estimates that, at any given time, 2.5 million people are in the hands of traffickers around the world. Human trafficking is the fastest growing criminal activity globally. It is a savage form of modern slavery that generates massive profits for international criminal gangs. Over 100,000 victims are trafficked into Western Europe every year. Organised gangs, particularly from Albania, China, Romania, Russia and Turkey, have developed complex networks, often adapted from smuggling drugs and weapons. Business is depressingly good: the ILO estimates the annual profit made by human traffickers worldwide at \$44 billion.¹⁰ The EU combats human trafficking on three main fronts: cooperation through Europol, its office for police co-operation, and Eurojust, its prosecution unit; common legislation to outlaw trafficking and encourage victims to testify; and agreements to work with non-EU immigration services and police to crack down on trafficking networks.

⁸ Jakob Von Weizsäcker, 'What should a cautious EU immigration policy look like?', Bruegel, Spring 2007

⁹ Jan Niessen and others, 'Migrant integration policy index', British Council and Migration Policy Group, 2007.

¹⁰ International Labour Organisation, 'Forced labour and human trafficking: The profits', 2006

3) PARTNER COUNTRY SUMMARY REPORTS

AUSTRIA

Migration to Austria: The post-war period in Austria saw fast economic growth and during the 1960s organised recruitment of labour forces from abroad started. The so called 'guest workers' mainly from Turkey and Former Yugoslavia soon formed a part of the core work force. Policies such as the granting of long-term employment contracts and later, the granting of citizenship for second generation migrants ensured that many migrants made Austria their home and never returned to their home countries. After the fall of the Iron Curtain' immigration to Austria changed fundamentally. An annual net immigration figure of 80,000 between 1990 and 1993 was registered and a 'maximum figure' of around 8 -10% was set, relating to the numbers of foreign workers and employees on the labour market.

Migration to Tyrol: Whereas most foreign labourers were employed in the production and building industry the situation in one federal state was different. In Tyrol there was a significantly higher proportion of foreign workers employed in the tourism service sector. In 2004 approx. 7,000 people were employed in timely limited employment contracts where there is often no chance to claim any social benefits.

Resident population of migrants in Tyrol: In 2007 there were 73.781 residents without Austrian citizenship living in the province of Tyrol. This is a percentage of 10.4% of the total population (703.768). The largest group of migrants are Germans (31%) followed by Former Yugoslavians (26%), people from other states of the EU (18%) and finally Turkish (16%).

Education at upper secondary level: In Austria, IVET at upper secondary level is provided by VET schools and colleges (berufsbildende mittlere und höhere Schulen, BMHS) and within apprenticeship training (Lehrlingsausbildung).

Education: 30% of Juveniles with migrant background aged 20-26 years have, as their highest education level, completed lower secondary level or pre-vocational school compared to 15% nationally in Austria. 33% of Austrian juveniles finished upper secondary level compared with 24% of the migrant group. In the tertiary level only 3% of migrants finished their academic study successful compared to 6% of Austrians. And finally the figure for dropouts of migrants is higher at all stages of education. Statistics show a less formal education of migrants in general but during the past 20 years some symptoms of a change have appeared. Compared to the 1980s more juvenile migrants attend school after compulsory education. Reasons might be different backgrounds (e.g. parents with higher education) or changes in behaviour of parents who support their children in continuing education today. (Weiss 2007)

Apprenticeships: In 2008 companies and organizations in Tyrol employed 13.966 apprentices of which 1.253 were juveniles with citizenship other than Austrian. 60% of this group were German, followed by 293 apprentices from Former Yugoslavian countries and 120 from Turkey.

Labour market: Social positioning (often influenced by education) varies widely between Austrians and second generation migrants today. Analysis of employed juvenile migrants shows that 25% are classified as unskilled workers compared with 10% of Austrians. The comparison in relation to more qualified employees (skilled workers, clerks) is 56% (juvenile migrants) to 76% (Austrians). (Weiss 2007)

Unemployment: Whereas the unemployment rate for people in Tyrol between 25 and 59 years can be considered as relatively consistent, the unemployment rate for those (Austrians

and foreigners) aged between 20 and 24 is affected more than any other with an unemployment rate of 6.4% (Chamber of labour in Tyrol 2009).

In Austria the rates for registered unemployed people with citizenships other than Austrian is 7.1% and for juveniles 8.7% (in the third quarter of 2008, after Labour Force Concept. Statistik Austria 2009).

Legal restrictions: (Austria doesn't consider itself a immigration country.) In a hostile public debate about foreigners there is lack of supportive legal measures for migrants. A mutually dependent system of various employment and settlement permit barriers hinders integration and planning and forces migrants to take any job to secure their stay. Fewer migrants apply and get citizenship during recent years due to changed legislation. There is unequal access to social security systems.

Barriers to accessing VET: A strict differentiation at the age of 10 further discriminates against the growing percentage of children with migrant backgrounds, as the Austrian education policy and school system fails to cater for their needs. This encourages social barriers and hinders upward mobility of second generation migrants. A lack of awareness amongst parents of the different opportunities within the VET system in Austria for their children further enhances the issue. Most evident is the withdrawal of young Turkish girls from higher education.

Good practice: Enabled through EU funding, there is a strong Austrian participation in integration projects, both national and transnational. Various projects focused on research as well as applied, practical work with topics ranging from anti-discrimination, empowerment, counselling, labour market, social integration, innovative methods for young people to a series of qualifications measures and documentation of competences.

IRELAND

Migration to Ireland: Many changes have taken place in Ireland since the 1990s particularly in relation to migration. Ireland has changed from a nation where emigration was the norm to a country of net immigration. Until the recent past, Ireland was a country of emigration. From the Great Famine of 1845-47 to the 1950s, the natural increase in the population was continually offset by outward-migration on a scale, which was relatively higher than any other European country, leading to an almost continuous decline in the population for more than a century

The 1990s saw the emergence of a very different situation. From the mid 1990s Ireland became a net immigration society instead of a net emigration society. The scale of the overall inward migratory flows was substantial. In the period 1996-2007, a little over a quarter of a million people migrated to Ireland (777.5K), of whom about 33% were returning Irish, 43% from EU countries and 24% from the rest of the world.

Resident Population of migrants: As immigration is a relatively new occurrence in Ireland, the amount of information available on the profile of the immigrant is limited and the amount of knowledge on Juvenile migrants is also limited. In terms of age distribution, those aged 25-44 years currently constitute almost 60 per cent of the total inflow, a proportion that has increased in recent years. About 30 per cent of the gross inflow relates to young people aged 15 to 24 years. Around 12 per cent of inward migrants in 2007 were children aged less than 15 years. This proportion has shown a tendency to increase in recent years, suggesting an increasing proportion of immigrants coming with families. Immigrants in the age group 45 years and over currently make up less than 8 per cent of the inflow.

Immigrants come to Ireland from different countries, for different reasons and under different circumstances. Some people migrate to Ireland to access employment. Others are asylum seekers who may or may not be awarded refugees status. Others come to Ireland to study. Some migrants hope to stay, while others plan to return to their home country at sometime in the future. In Ireland the residency status of members of immigrant communities has an impact on their ability to access services in areas such as employment, education and training, health, and housing.

Immigrants from the EU states tend to hold employment in the manufacturing and construction sectors. Examining the 2007 data in greater sectoral detail shows high levels of foreign employment in building of complete constructions or parts thereof; civil engineering, restaurants, hotels, manufacture of food products and beverages and in certain categories of retail trade. Most of the foreign employees in the health sector were from the Rest of the World (outside the EU and the USA). There were foreign nationals classified in labour recruitment and provision of personnel. However, as most of these worked for temporary employment agencies, they would for the most part be employed in other sectors of the economy, such as construction or catering

In any society that is in transition from a mono-cultural society to one with multiple cultural identities, social structures and relations develop in conjunction with that transition. How those structures and relations develop depend to a large extent on the integration policy developed by the wider society in the early stages of becoming a multi-cultural and multi-ethnic society. The concept of interculturalism is one such policy. Interculturalism recognises ethnic and cultural diversity not as a problem to be overcome, but as a positive asset to society. In addition to the National Action Plan against Racism, a number of key pieces of legislation also underpin this area, all of which aim to ensure that members of immigrant communities have equal access to services, facilities and employment opportunities in Ireland. It is within this national policy and legislative context that the 420,000 members of the immigrant community in Ireland are now living.

Vocational Education: In Ireland, VET policy falls mainly within the remit of two Government Departments (Ministries) – The Department of Education and Science (DES) and the Department of Enterprise, Trade and Employment (DETE). The Minister of Education and Science is responsible for policies and the development of national programmes for vocational education and training in schools and colleges at second level and at further and higher level. The Minister for Enterprise, Trade and Employment has responsibility for policies to upgrade the skills and competencies of the adult population within a framework of lifelong learning.

There is not a sharp distinction in Ireland between initial and continuing vocational education and training. Government policy makes a distinction between programmes for young persons and students, programmes for the unemployed (whether young or older) and programmes for persons in employment. These distinctions in particular concern Government responsibility and funding.

The National Qualifications Authority of Ireland (NQAI) was established on a statutory basis in 2001, with a view to developing a comprehensive framework of qualifications, which will include all awards made in the state. Two Awards Councils were established, the Higher Education and Training Awards Council (HETAC) and the Further Education and Training Awards Council (FETAC). The NQAI has developed a 10-level outline Framework of Qualifications comprising awards from Foundation (Level 1) to Doctoral Level (Level 10). FETAC makes awards for all learning in further education and training programmes at Levels 1 – 6. The awards at Levels 1 – 6 are available for both CVET (Continuing Vocational

Education and Training) and IVET (Initial Vocational Education and Training) depending on the status of the trainee. The main award available from HETAC for CVET and IVET is at Level 6 – Advanced Certificate.

Apprenticeships: Apprenticeship training on offer in Ireland is standards-based (SBA). Apprenticeship training has seven phases, three off the job (totalling 40 weeks in all) and four on-the job. It generally lasts for four years. While the training is on-the-job, the employer pays a recommended apprenticeship wage and during the off-the-job phases FÁS (the State Training and Employment Agency) pays a weekly allowance equivalent to that wage. The skills developed are assessed through on-the-job competence testing as well as off-the-job modular assessment and examinations and, on successful completion of these assessments; a National Craft Certificate is awarded which is recognised in Ireland as well as some other EU and non-EU countries.

Labour Market: The recent report on the labour market from FAS (State training and employment agency) highlights the dramatic and sudden decline in the Irish economy. The causes of this abrupt downturn, including the slump in the property market, the banking crisis and unfavourable exchange rates, have been well documented. The reversal in economic fortunes has occurred in tandem with the Irish labour market entering a new phase of rising unemployment after over a decade of unprecedented job creation. Despite the reversal in employment trends, the labour force has continued to grow but at a slower rate. The main reason for the slowdown has been the fall in net-inward migration. Overall, the proportion of foreign-nationals in the labour force was estimated to be 16% in Q3 2008.

Unemployment: Given the close link between employment and economic growth in recent years it was inevitable that a significant economic downturn would bring the most recent employment boom to an end. However, the speed at which this has happened has been faster than many had expected. The increase in the numbers signing on to the Live Register has been unprecedented. The number of foreign nationals signing on the Live Register had risen by 133% from 23,000 to 54,000. The economic downturn and the impact this will have on the large number of immigrants that have come to Ireland since the 1990's and how Ireland as a society responds is likely to pose new and different challenges in the coming years.

Barriers to Accessing VET: As outlined in the full report the research to date identifies four key issues in relation to immigrant communities and service provision in Ireland, namely: language barriers, lack of information, lack of knowledge of cultural norms and traditions, and fear of discrimination.

Good Practice: It is important to note that Ireland has made good progress in developing initiatives and projects that have been implemented at either a national level or a local level that aim to provide support to immigrant communities and service providers (in relation to the barriers above). These are outlined in the full report. The examples in the report are by no way an exhaustive list, but just a small example of some of the initiatives taking place in Ireland that have been documented as examples of good practice.

GERMANY

Migration to Germany: Migration to and from Germany has a long history. The reasons for moving to another country have basically remained the same for centuries: the desire for a better life for oneself and one's children; flight from political, ethnic, or religious persecution; forced expulsion. As a result of World War II, Germany took in more than 12 million German

expellees between 1945 and 1950. About 500,000 foreigners lived in the Federal Republic of Germany in 1950, making up only one percent of the total population. Later immigrants came in several waves.

Most of the growth in Germany's foreign population after 1945 was composed of foreign workers, known as "guest workers", who entered the country from 1955 to 1973, and asylum seekers, who began arriving in greater numbers starting in late 1980. As more members of these groups arrived in Germany, more of their family members accompanied or rejoined them later, and more children were born to them in Germany. In the 1950s, the Federal Republic of Germany's "economic miracle" led to a growing demand for unskilled and semi-skilled labour. The domestic supply of labour was insufficient to meet the demand, and the government signed recruitment agreements with Italy (1955), Spain and Greece (1960), Turkey (1961), Morocco (1963), Portugal (1964), Tunisia (1965) and Yugoslavia (1968). From 1955 until 1961, however, the number of foreigners living in Germany rose by only about 200,000.

After 1961, steady economic growth and the German Democratic Republic's decision to close its borders to the West and build the Berlin Wall, which cut off the flow of workers from East Germany, contributed to increasing labour shortages. This development was further exacerbated by the introduction of a shorter working week and a shrinking labour force. From 1960 to 1972, the number of employed Germans fell by 2.3 million, leading to increased recruitment of foreign workers.

In addition to immigration by foreign workers and their family members, Germany has taken in asylum seekers since the 1950s. In the early 1990s, Germany granted temporary residence on humanitarian grounds to around 345,000 Bosnian refugees, more than all the other EU countries combined. The great majority of these refugees have since left Germany, with fewer than 10,000 remaining. During the Kosovo crisis in 1999, Germany took in about 15,000 evacuees from Kosovo as part of an international humanitarian initiative. These persons also returned to their homeland after the conflict ended.

Resident Population of Migrants: Of the approximately 6.75 million foreigners in Germany (as of 31 December 2006, according to the Central Aliens Register), about 2.3 million are citizens of one of the other 26 European Union Member States. The largest proportion of foreigners consists of Turkish citizens (1.74 million, or 25.8 percent of all foreigners), Italians (approx. 530,000 or 7.9 percent), citizens of Serbia and Montenegro (approx. 480,000 or 7.1 percent), Poles (360,000 or 5.4 percent) and Greeks (300,000 or 4.5 percent). Roughly one in every five foreigners living in Germany was born there (1.4 million persons) and is thus a second- or third-generation immigrant. Thirty-four per cent of the Turkish citizens living in Germany were born there, as were 30 percent of the Italians, 28 percent of the Greeks, 23 percent of the citizens of Serbia and Montenegro and 4 percent of the Poles. According to official population projections, there are currently about 7.3 million foreigners living in Germany (8.85 percent of the total population).

Vocational Education: In Germany children enter compulsory full-time schooling aged 6 and are required to attend school until the age of 18. The dual system is the largest provider of education at upper secondary level, with approximately 53% of students training for a recognised training occupation. Trainees in the dual system (even those older than 18) are subject to compulsory schooling. After 4 years of primary school, pupils move into different educational branches either: secondary general school (*Hauptschule*), intermediate school (*Realschule*) or grammar school (*Gymnasium*). Often these different pathways merge through the dual system. After completing their training in the dual system, the majority of

participants then take up employment as a skilled worker – later on, many of them make use of the opportunities for continuing vocational training.

Senior technical schools (*Fachoberschulen*) and senior vocational schools (*Berufsoberschulen*) normally build on vocational training in the dual system, consolidate vocational knowledge and lead to the academic standard required for entrance to a college. In 2005, some 20% of those beginning academic studies had completed a course of training in the dual system.

Percentage of immigrants completing education: According to the Federal Statistics Office (2007), 37.4 per cent of males (aged over 25 yrs) with an immigrant background did not complete education/training in comparison with 12 per cent of males from a non-immigrant background. Similarly 48.7 per cent of females (aged over 25 yrs) with an immigrant background did not complete education/training in comparison with 26.6 per cent of females from a non-immigrant background.

Unemployment: In Germany the number of unemployed people younger than 25 years has been constantly high and represented 423.941 in 2007. There were 269.608 in Western Germany and 154.333 in Eastern Germany. This is in accordance to the rate 7,1%(West) and 15,6% (East).

Legal restrictions: Immigration to Germany as a non-EU-citizen is still limited to skilled workers (individuals with either a university or polytechnic degree or at least 3 years of training together with job experience) or students and their immediate family members. Germany has 3 types of immigration titles: Visa (validity of up to 90 days), residence permit and settlement permit. Work permits, if granted, are no longer issued independently but are included within the immigration title and are available for foreigners that fall into one of the several available permit categories (IT specialists, company trained specialist within a group of companies, managing personnel, scientists, highly skilled workers with exceptional income, etc.) or those who can prove a public interest in employment.

Self-employment is also possible but requires either an initial investment of EUR 500,000 and the creation of a minimum 5 jobs or the support of the local chambers of commerce or similar organizations that confirm the socioeconomic value of the business plan for the region. As Germany does not know immigration without cause, it is necessary to be either enrolled with a school or university, have a specific job offer that fits the requirements of one of the work permit categories or intend to reunify with close family (spouse or minors) already within Germany (family reunification visa)

Barriers encountered by immigrants accessing VET: With respect to employment and unemployment rates, and particularly given their low educational attainment and the current economic situation, the labour market integration of immigrant men is relatively favourable in international comparison. However, immigrant women, and particularly those of Turkish origin, have very low employment rates. This is partly an outcome of policies, which limited the labour market access of spouses. Most of these legal obstacles have been removed under the new Immigration Act.

The situation of the so-called “second generation” is of concern, as they have very low educational outcomes. This hampers their access to vocational training, which appears to have an even stronger impact on their employment prospects than on those of natives. The low educational attainment of the second generation seems to be at least partly attributable to structural features in the German education system, such as the early streaming which puts migrants’ children in a lower track. Especially problematic is the relatively late starting age for kindergarten and the prevalence of half-day education in kindergarten and school,

which limits exposure to the German language at a crucial age. Immigrants' access to self-employment is hampered by legal obstacles and a lack of information and subsequent access to financial credits. Despite positive experiences with temporary employment as a labour market integration tool for immigrants in other OECD countries, immigrants are not a focus group of the Federal temporary employment programme (The Labour Market Integration of Immigrants in Germany (OECD Social, Employment and Migration Working Papers No. 47).

Good Practice: The Promoting Competences - Vocational Qualification for Target Groups with Special Needs (BQF Programme) is a good example of good practice which aims to assist immigrants to overcome barriers. The goal of the programme was to contribute to the further development of supporting disadvantaged young people and improving the educational and training situation of migrants. Results and lessons learned from the BQF programme have already had an impact on overarching education policy developments during the course of the programme's implementation. The Second Act on Modern Services in the Labour Market (*Zweites Gesetz für moderne Dienstleistungen am Arbeitsmarkt*) January 2003 broadened the material scope of the Vocational Training Act and anchored prevocational training in law as an independent element of VET. Furthermore, qualification modules (*Qualifizierungsbausteine*) were incorporated into law as an important instrument of prevocational training. The law refers to them as units of learning of defined content and length, which are developed on the basis of the training curricula for state-recognised occupations regulated by training regulations. Companies thereby have greater scope to offer their own prevocational training courses and make use of qualification modules to help disadvantaged young people gain a grounding in vocationally relevant learning and initial in-company work experience, as a means of exploring their potential and guiding them towards a suitable company-based apprenticeship.

ITALY

Migration to Italy: Italy has a long history of emigration from the early 1900s to the 1960's, with workers going to Northern European countries. The phenomenon of immigration into Italy began relatively late, after the oil crisis of 1973-84 when England, Germany and France closed their frontiers to immigration. It was the 1981 census, which revealed an unexpectedly "high" number of foreign residents (210,937) and foreigners (109,841) present within the country. However, most were of Italian origin. The first massive influx of foreigners occurred between 1984 and 1989, when 700-800,000 people entered Italy, of which, 300-350,000 entered or remained without a valid stay permit. These figures introduce two important aspects of Italian immigration: intense, high-volume flows and a large number of illegal immigrants.

Wherever there are major migratory flows, there are also illegal entries and residents, but in Italy this phenomenon is especially pronounced. It is estimated that for every legal entry there is an illegal one (50%). Italy attracts an illegal immigration, which is greater than that of other countries not only due to its frontier, which is quite extensive with respect to its total surface area, but also, and primarily because of its large underground economy. Repeated legalisation has not solved the problem of illegal immigration and has been more effective for attracting new illegals than reducing the number of illegal immigrants already present in country.

Vocational Education: Italian schools are very multicultural, with students coming from a wide variety of countries (187). This phenomenon is evident in both large and small cities. During the 2004/2005 academic year there were 360,000 foreign students. With respect to

the 282,683 students of the previous year, their numbers grew by 20%, reaching an incidence of 4.2% (compared to an incidence of 1% up until the end of the 1990's and 0.1% twenty years ago).

Resident Population of Migrants: At the end of 2004 there were 2,800,000 regularly residing foreigners in Italy according to an estimate by the Caritas/Migrantes Dossier Statistico Immigrazione team based on data from the Ministry of Interior (residence permits), the Ministry of Foreign Affairs (entry visas) and the National Statistic Institute - ISTAT (birth of children in Italy from two foreign parents). The average per cent of foreigners is 4.8%. Immigrants are more concentrated in the North (59% of total immigrants), and are found to a lesser extent in the Centre (27%) and the South (14%). According to 2003 data, the top three national groups are Romanian, Albanian and Moroccan, which have 230,000/240,000 resident immigrants each. Various indexes indicate that the future of Italy will be similar to the current situation in Canada, where one-sixth of the population has been born abroad, although it is not known how much time will be needed for this change.

There were more than 500,000 minors of migrant background in Italy in 2008, including those born in that year (48,384). Not included in this calculation are the 5,573 “unaccompanied minors”, who were primarily males from Romania (37.2%), Morocco (20.1%) and Albania (16.8%) (Council for Foreign Minors at the Ministry of Labour as of April 15, 2005).

The foreign population was once composed of unmarried, single men primarily. Now the situation has radically changed. There were 361,000 immigrant women in 1991, whereas in 2002 this figure had more than doubled (726,000). Currently, according to the estimates of the Dossier, there are 1,350,000 women who make up 48.4% of the total immigrant population. According to the estimate of the Dossier, in 2004 foreign workers made up approximately 9% of the labour force (2,160,000).

Legal restrictions: Italian law provides for a system of programmed immigration. The quota of foreigners is determined by one or more decrees each year. After the Turco-Napolitano Act, legal entry for work was given to 58,000 persons in 1998 and 1999, increasing to 63,000 in 2000 and 83,000 in 2001. A number of countries, which have signed repatriation agreements, have the right to special immigrant quotas. Already with the Turco-Napolitano Act, special quotas were applied based on the degree of co-operation of the countries of origin. The more recent Bossi-Fini Act also reserves preferential quotas to foreign workers of Italian origin.

Family reunification for spouses and underage children is immediately possible for those with a (renewable) stay permit for at least one year. Family members are allowed to work. Italy remains one of the most generous countries with respect to family reunification, even when compared to the most recent European directive regarding this issue (COM (2002) 225 def. – Official Gazette C 203 E, 27.08.2002).

Illegal immigrants are guaranteed essential rights such as most public health care services and access to public schools. They still have the right to all “essential health care services and treatments, even if of long duration”, and not only necessary services for emergencies, pregnancy and underage children, as in other countries. For illegal minors the access to public schools remains free and obligatory. Illegal immigrants also have the right to free legal representation in the courts.

However, the Bossi-Fini Act prohibits local agencies from providing any sort of housing or facilities for immigrants, even in emergency situations (extraordinary flows, major landings of illegal immigrants, etc.), something, which was permitted by the Turco-Napolitano Act.

POLAND

Migration to Poland: The phenomenon of immigration to Poland is relatively new. Before 1989 Poland was a so-called “zero immigration” country. The number of foreigners coming into Poland still remains at a relatively low level. Foreigners account for 2 per cent of Poland’s total population, which is the lowest ratio in Europe. The most important group of legal immigrants (as per their number) is those who have been granted permits for a temporary stay (residence). The main countries from which immigrants to Poland come from are the countries of the former Soviet Union, especially the Ukraine, Belarus and Russia. Immigrant groups tend to be well educated (36% have higher education diplomas) and are at their so-called ‘productive age’ (80% of them are between 20 and 59 years old).

Unemployment: Joblessness among Polish youth continues to remain at a relatively high level, and a large per cent of young people in the total number of unemployed is a characteristic feature of the unemployment phenomenon in Poland. At the end of 2006, there were 274,000 females aged 25 years old or less who were registered as unemployed, while there were 202,000 men of that age.

Vocational education: The main objective of vocational secondary education is to meet the required standards designed for given groups of occupations, and the preparation of its pupils for continuing education. Courses in a vocational school end with a vocational examination, confirming the pupils’ vocational qualifications in occupations included in the classification of occupations of vocational education. There are a number of Levels of the vocational secondary education system; specialised secondary school (*Liceum profilowane*), technical secondary school (*technikum*), supplementary general secondary school (*uzupełniające liceum ogólnokształcące*), supplementary technical secondary school (*technikum uzupełniające*) and Post- secondary schools (*szkoły policealne*).

Apprenticeships: Occupational training in vocational secondary schools is organized by the school. The practical training provided to the young person is organized by an employer who has entered into an employment agreement for occupational training. State-owned higher education vocational schools provide education at the bachelor or engineer level. Vocational, state and tertiary educational institutions provide faculties and specializations with a wide range of vocational preparation and of various, applied science subjects. All full-time and part-time students are obliged to undergo professional training/an internship during their studies.

Foreigners may enrol in studies in Polish schools depending on their grounds for stay in Poland and the educational institution. A right to undertake studies at Polish schools depends on whether the given person is subject to the so-called school education obligation. This obligation concerns the citizens of Poland as well as foreigners who have resided in Poland for at least three months. Foreigners may enrol in higher education program levels such as undergraduate studies, supplementary graduate studies, graduate studies, post-graduate studies and doctoral studies.

Foreigners may also take part in habilitation internships, scientific internships, specialization training programs and in medical and professional internships. Foreign students may participate in professional internships or traineeships in Poland.

Barriers to accessing VET: An obligatory requirement for a foreigner to begin his/her higher education in Poland is to have a visa, resident card or some other document that gives him/her the right to stay in Poland, a good health certificate (certain faculties, e.g. technical or medical, may require additional health certifications) and health insurance – either an insurance policy against illness or accident or a European Health Insurance Card, or to be insured by the Polish National Health Fund.

Those who undertake third level are required to have completed a one-year Polish language course preparing them for higher education studies (such courses are organized by the designated institutions). Those who have a Polish language competency certificate/ evidence of competency in the Polish language at a level sufficient for higher education studies are exempt from the language course requirement. The majority of immigrants and refugees do not have this competency in the Polish language. Of the total number of immigrants, 19% declared that their knowledge of Polish language was “very good”, while 25% declared it as “good”. The majority of people for whom the Polish language is not a problem come from the Ukraine, Kazakhstan, Lithuania, Belarus and Russia. Very often they are immigrants with Polish origins. Nevertheless, more than 30% of immigrants have had problems with communicating in Polish.

For immigrants and refugees from the East (Chechnya, Ukraine, Belarus), the cost of studies in Poland seems to be too high. Only immigrants and refugees who are eligible for scholarship programs can commence their studies in Poland.

About 38% of immigrants aged 15 and older have general, secondary school education (females 45%), and close to 27% have higher (tertiary) education (29% in the case of men). Polish universities and other tertiary education institutions provide education to about 10,000 foreigners who have come to Poland in order to obtain a higher education diploma. Refugee camps provide some education; 40% of the refugees in those camps are children at the age of 15 to 17. Only 3 out of every 100 refugees attend free Polish language courses.

Labour Market: It is hard to determine the number of foreigners who are working in Poland. The number of legally employed immigrants in Poland is relatively small, approx. 20,000 foreigners per year. The number of illegal workers is estimated to be around a few hundred thousand people. The majority of foreigners who have obtained a work permit include citizens of EU member countries. Approx. 38% of immigrants aged 15 and older have worked in Poland, but almost 57% declare themselves to be professionally inactive.

Temporary immigrants who work in Poland may obtain a Polish visa with a right to take up employment (work visa) only under the condition that they have been given a work permit promise. The problem of unemployment does not concern them because the loss of a job triggers the annulment of the work permit. Those foreigners who have a permanent resident status are in a different situation. They have rights equal to those available to Polish citizens, so they can undertake employment or register a business without any restraints.

Legal Restrictions: A foreigner may work if he/she has a work permit issued by a governor (Pol. “wojewoda”) of the province for the employer’s registered office location. Some categories of foreigners are exempt from the obligation to obtain a work permit. These include those who have a settlement permit, a long-term resident permit in the Republic of Poland, a long-term resident status in some other EU member country or who have obtained a residential permit for a specified term due to work or business operations, and refugees. If a foreigner belongs to one of the above-mentioned categories, he/she may undertake employment in Poland, freely, without obtaining a work permit; however, this does not

exempt him/her from the obligation of possessing a valid visa. In other cases, an employer who would like to employ a prospective candidate should obtain a work permit for him/her.

As of July 2007 Polish entrepreneurs may employ Russians, Ukrainians and citizens of Belarus twice a year for three months only, without a work permit. Potential employees must obtain “a declaration upon the intention of granting employment, issued by a Polish employer”, which should be registered in the Regional Employment Office (Pol. “PUP”) proper for the employer’s registered office location. However, the employment procedures have become so complicated that the three-month period available to Eastern European workers is no longer attractive for them. Seasonal employment does not work well in the majority of industries except for agriculture, because before an employee is properly trained he/she is already due to leave.

Poland’s accession to the EU triggered the adjustment of Polish laws to those of the EU. The requirements for the citizens of the countries who do not belong to the European Union and who would like to be employed in Poland have become more rigorous. This includes those laws covering the Schengen agreement. The laborious employment procedure, as well as the time and money related to hiring employees from outside the Schengen zone, make Polish employers less likely to employ such people. An employer must prove that he has looked for a Polish, EU, EEA or Swiss candidate for a given post without success.