Equality and diversity in jobs and services: City policies for migrants in Europe
Equality and diversity in jobs and services: City policies for migrants in Europe
The Council of Europe has 47 member states, covering virtually the entire continent of Europe. It seeks to develop common democratic and legal principles based on the European Convention on Human Rights and other reference texts on the protection of individuals.

The Congress of Local and Regional Authorities, one of the pillars of the Council of Europe, is an assembly of elected members representing over 200 000 local and regional authorities in the Council's member states.

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In the spring of 2006, the Congress of Local and Regional Authorities of the Council of Europe (CoE), the City of Stuttgart and the European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions ('Eurofound') came together to form the European network of 'Cities for Local Integration Policies' for Migrants (CLIP). They were subsequently joined by the cities of Vienna and Amsterdam. The network is also supported by the Committee of the Regions of the European Union and the Council of European Municipalities and Regions (CEMR).

The CLIP network, which was officially launched in Dublin in September 2006, brings together more than 30 large and medium-sized cities from all regions of Europe in a joint learning process over several years. The network seeks to support effective and sustainable social, economic and societal integration of migrants, combat social inequalities and discrimination, and help migrants preserve their cultural identity. Through this joint initiative, the partners are continuing their longstanding commitment and activities in the field of social inclusion and improved social cohesion within local authorities in Europe.

The first module of work undertaken by CLIP led to an overview report on housing, a key issue in the integration of migrants into host societies. This current report addresses another key area – municipal employment and municipal services provision. The report provides an overview of the 25 city reports prepared during the second module of the project, which examined equality and diversity policies in relation to employment and services provision for migrants in the municipality. Access to jobs and progress in employment is recognised as a key dimension of the integration process, as is the effective provision of services without discrimination. Although municipal authorities are major employers and service providers in cities, their role in this context, particularly as employers, is rarely analysed. It was for this reason that the CLIP network chose to compare practices in employment and services provision – the basis of this report.

The report presents and analyses innovative diversity and equality policies in the cities, allowing for an exchange of experiences to help encourage a learning process within the network. The analysis includes an assessment of the role of human resource management, the social partners, non-governmental organisations (NGOs) and other voluntary organisations operating at local level in supporting and developing more successful integration policies for
migrants. In particular, the report examines policies, practices and outcomes in relation to employment and services provision, culminating in a set of recommendations that seek to inform policymakers and point to the way forward for the future.

As labour market integration, anti-discrimination and equal opportunities for migrants represent a central issue in the ongoing European policy debate, we hope that this report will communicate policy-relevant experiences and outputs of the CLIP network to local, national and European policymakers.

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1 – Introduction

In January 2006, some 18.5 million third-country nationals were residing in the European Union (EU), representing 3.8% of the EU's total population of almost 493 million people (European Commission, 2007a). Free movement within the EU allows for the further mobility of individuals and families who, while not ‘migrants’ as such, contribute to the opportunities presented by a diverse population; at the same time, people in this category can face and present some of the same challenges. Many of these challenges arise at local level, and municipal authorities have a pivotal role to play in the development of innovative and sometimes ground-breaking integration policies.

This report provides an overview of one particular dimension of integration policy – the approach that cities take to managing diversity and ensuring equality of opportunity, in as much as migrants’ immigration status will permit, in relation to the following two areas:

- services provided by the city administration and by the organisations to which it sub-contracts services provision;
- access to employment within the city administration, including access to regular employment contracts, promotion and good working conditions.

The report focuses on policies and practices in relation to migrants – a term which, except where specified, shall be taken to include EU citizens who have ‘migrated’ to other Member States. In most cases, the report refers to legal migrants, apart from instances where specific reference is made to initiatives that cities have taken in relation to those with irregular, ‘undocumented’ status. While migrants who are not legally resident are not generally entitled to jobs and services, their presence nevertheless raises issues for the cities referred to in this report. In some instances, the report also addresses issues relating to second and subsequent generations of migrants where the data do not identify them separately, or where the city’s policies and practices relate not only to those who have migrated to the country but also to those subsequently born there. In some countries, the latter are referred to as people with a ‘migration background’, while in others the term ‘ethnic minorities’ is used; this report shall use the term acceptable in the country which is being referred to.

History and purpose of CLIP

In 2006, the Congress of Local and Regional Authorities of the Council of Europe (CoE), along with the city of Stuttgart and Eurofound established a
European network of Cities for Local Integration Policies (CLIP). In the subsequent two years, the cities of Vienna and Amsterdam joined the CLIP Steering Committee. The CLIP network seeks to:

- support the social and economic integration and full participation of migrants;
- combat social inequalities and discrimination against migrants;
- create conditions conducive to the peaceful co-existence between migrants and other residents;
- engender respect for migrants’ own cultural identity.

The CLIP network aims to achieve these measures by bringing together European cities and fostering a joint learning process over several years. By encouraging the structured sharing of experiences through the medium of separate city reports and workshops, the network enables local authorities to learn from each other and to deliver a more effective integration policy. The analysis carried out under the auspices of CLIP also supports the emerging European policy debate by offering innovative ideas and concepts of integration policy at local level. The cities in the network are supported in their shared learning by a group of expert European research centres based in Bamberg (European Forum for Migration Studies (efms)), Oxford (Centre on Migration Policy and Society (COMPAS)), Vienna (Institute for Urban and Regional Research (ISR)), Liège (Centre for Ethnic and Migration Studies (CEDEM)) and Amsterdam (Institute for Migration and Ethnic Studies (IMES)).

The first module of work undertaken by CLIP led to the publication of an overview report entitled *Housing and integration of migrants in Europe* (Eurofound and Council of Europe, 2007). Housing for migrants has been identified as a major issue impacting on migrants’ integration into ‘host societies’. Decent and affordable housing is one of the most important human needs and a prerequisite for a satisfactory quality of life. The report found that any housing policy for migrants based on a ‘one size fits all’ approach is bound to fail and that tailor-made solutions are required. A range of recommendations were made in the report for cities and local communities are at the forefront of developing such tailor-made solutions. The report also made recommendations on how the EU and its Member States can support such local solutions.
This report, *Equality and diversity in jobs and services: City policies for migrants in Europe*, provides an overview of the 25 city reports prepared during the second module of the CLIP project; these reports examined equality and diversity policies in relation to employment within the municipality and in their services provision.

The 25 cities that participated in this module (and shown on the map in Figure 1) are: Amsterdam (Netherlands), Antwerp (Belgium), Arnsberg (Germany), Breda (Netherlands), Brescia (Italy), Budapest (Hungary).

**Figure 1: CLIP network cities covered in this report**
Copenhagen (Denmark), Dublin (Ireland), Frankfurt (Germany), zmır (Turkey), Liège (Belgium), Luxembourg (Grand Duchy of Luxembourg), Malmö (Sweden), Mataró (Spain), Prague (Czech Republic), Sefton (United Kingdom (UK)), Stuttgart (Germany), Tallinn (Estonia), Terrassa (Spain), Turin (Italy), Turku (Finland), Valencia (Spain), Vienna (Austria), Wolverhampton (UK) and Zagreb (Croatia). These cities are hugely diverse in terms of their experiences of migration, as well as their geography, population size, range of services provided, political control and the approach that they take to equality and diversity issues. Nevertheless, the cities also face similar opportunities and challenges in relation to migration; as a result, they have come together in the CLIP network in recognition of the extent to which they can learn from, and contribute to, each other’s experiences.

National experiences of migration

As mentioned, the 17 countries in which the CLIP cities are situated are diverse in their history of migration and in the characteristics of their migrant populations. However, some common themes are also evident among these countries. Most of the countries have experienced the immigration of labour migrants, asylum seekers, dependents (for family union or reunion), students and irregular migrants – albeit at different levels and times. These countries also have a history of emigration, including to other parts of Europe.

Migration patterns in some of the countries have been dominated by the history of the state as a colonising nation, as seen in the Netherlands and the UK. In contrast, during the communist period, countries like the Czech Republic had a very restrictive regime in relation to migration, both into and out of the country; similarly, immigration today, largely from other European states, remains relatively limited in such countries. Finland, on the other hand, has seen a significant ‘return’ of Ingrians to the country from the former Soviet Union, as well as refugees, labour migrants and family members. In Germany, meanwhile, the fall of the ‘iron curtain’ has led to a significant influx of migrants from eastern European countries, including three million ‘ethnic Germans’. Earlier ‘guest worker’ immigration to Germany has, as in Austria, left its mark on the composition of the population of migrant origin in these countries today. In the first 80 years of the 20th century, Spain experienced

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1 Inhabitants of Ingria, a historical region of Russia. The first Finns reportedly settled in Ingria in the 17th century; in the early 1990s, the Finnish president ‘invited’ Finnish Ingrians to remigrate to Finland.
widespread emigration due to its poor economy and the dictatorship of General Franco; this has been followed by substantial net immigration over the last decade, including a significant proportion of EU nationals and of irregular migrants. Similarly, Ireland has evolved as a country of net immigration only in the past decade, while in Italy, this shift occurred somewhat earlier in the 1970s. In Croatia, the most recent nation-state in this study, migration patterns have been dominated by the war in former Yugoslavia and its inter-ethnic conflict. In Turkey, internal migration – with some transit and return migration – has emerged as the main policy driver. In a number of countries, the early 1990s were characterised by an increase in the number of people seeking asylum and in their international student population. Later, Ireland and the UK witnessed a significant influx of migrants from central and eastern Europe after May 2004, as a result of EU enlargement.

People who are foreign-born comprise between 5% and 10% of the total population in the countries where such data are available, with the notable and contrasting exceptions of Finland (3%) and Luxembourg (40%). Similar results are found in the countries which keep data on foreigners (non-citizens), as seen in Spain where foreigners comprise about 7% of the population and in Germany, where foreigners comprised 8% of the population in 2007. However, many countries also have large populations of irregular migrants who are not included in official statistics. As a result, some Member States, such as Italy and Spain, have undertaken periodic regularisation programmes for these migrants.

The residence status of migrants is highly relevant to the countries’ intentions towards them in relation to their integration and particularly with regard to their equality of opportunity relative to other residents. For those third-country nationals who have permanent residence status or who have already been naturalised as citizens, the intention may be full equality of access to jobs and services. Conversely, for those whose status is temporary, restrictions are usually imposed on the extent to which they can work and access services and welfare benefits. Such countries’ intention towards these migrants, it might be said, is partial integration during the period in which they are living in the country. In contrast, EU citizens who exercise their free movement rights can, under EU law, expect equality of access – except where transitional restrictions are in place for new EU citizens following enlargement of the EU. Naturally, this highly differentiated pattern of rights limits the extent to which cities can ensure equality of access to jobs and services for migrants living in the city; at
the same time, it impacts on the labour market and social outcomes, which, in some cases, the cities are monitoring. Nevertheless, it is not a dimension of the integration challenge that can be analysed clearly from the data available to cities at the present time, which rarely identify immigration status.

**Diversity and equality – policy context**

It is widely recognised at EU level that promoting non-discrimination and equal opportunities and managing diversity play a crucial role in integration. This was highlighted in the European Commission’s *Third annual report on migration and integration* (European Commission, 2007a) and is reflected in the inclusion of the ‘integration of migrants’ target in the new multiannual framework for 2007–2012 of the European Union Agency for Fundamental Rights (FRA) (European Commission, 2007b) – a body that provides assistance and expertise on questions of fundamental rights. While non-discrimination in this context is traditionally focused on race – and contemporary evidence across Europe indicates that this focus persists (FRA, 2007a) – it has been increasingly recognised that discrimination experienced, for instance, by those who are identifiable as Muslims, can also be on the grounds of religion or beliefs (see, for example, EUIMC, 2006).

Access to jobs and progress in employment is recognised as a key dimension of the integration process, as is the provision of services that migrants can access fully and effectively, without discrimination. Municipal authorities are major employers and service providers. Surprisingly, however, their role in this context, particularly as employers, is rarely analysed. As a result, sharing practice in employment and services provision has been a particular priority for the CLIP cities and forms the basis of this current report.

**Key definitions and rationale**

The terminology used in this area can sometimes be confusing. For example, the use of different terms within the same policy area can reflect differing objectives and priorities, but also a lack of clarity in relation to their meaning. The following sub-sections describe some of the key terms used when discussing the issue of migrants.

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Diversity management
In the Belgian government’s action plan for 2005–2007 on developing diversity, it defines diversity as ‘respecting differences in the attitudes, values, cultural frameworks, lifestyles, skills and experiences of each member of a group’ (Service Public Fédéral Personnel et Organisation, 2005, p. 7). Diversity management, according to the European Commission, means ‘understanding how people’s differences and similarities can be mobilised for the benefit of the individual, organisations and society as a whole’. Diversity management is a term that has been increasingly used in Europe since the mid-1990s and, as one expert has explained (Wrench, 2007, p. 3):

*Its rationale is primarily one of improving organisational competitiveness and efficiency, driven by business purpose and market advantage. In relation to this, it emphasises the necessity of recognising cultural differences between groups of employees and making practical allowances for such differences in organisational policies. The idea is that encouraging an environment of cultural diversity where people’s differences are valued enables people to work to their full potential in a richer, more creative and more productive work environment*.

The concept of diversity management policy is particularly associated with the private sector (European Commission, 2005a). Nevertheless, it has also been developed at the municipal level to generate added value out of cultural difference: more specifically, by reaping the benefits of the differing experiences and language skills that diverse employees bring to the job, thus ensuring that the organisation recruits from the widest pool of talent, while enhancing the organisation’s image with external stakeholders and contributing to the city’s creativity and innovation. An advantage of this approach is its reportedly positive and inclusive effects, contrasting with the negative focus on discriminatory practices. Diversity management can also be necessary, however, to overcome the challenges that diversity itself can pose, including accommodating the differing values and expectations of a varied staff, as well as building trust and overcoming communication barriers. Diversity management is thus relevant not only for a city’s employment policy, but also for the provision of services that meet the diverse needs of its local population.

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Discrimination and equality

While diversity management focuses on the benefits, as well as costs, of a culturally diverse workforce and population, maintaining such an exclusive policy focus can also lose sight of the fundamental right to freedom from discrimination that employees and service users have – regardless of whether or not their diversity is considered a benefit. If diversity management were the only policy framework, managers could argue, for instance, that they prefer the convenience and solidarity of having a workforce with a common culture and language over the benefits and challenges that diversity can bring; or they could insist that they already have good diversity management policies in place and need go no further. Experts argue, however, that the diversity and equality approaches are complementary, highlighting that the co-existence of a diversity management approach alongside measures to tackle discrimination is both possible and desirable (Wrench, 2007, p. 127). In practice, it can be difficult to identify which approach or combination of approaches a city is adopting, as organisations that adopt a ‘diversity policy’ or ‘anti-discrimination and equality policy’ are not necessarily consistent in their interpretation of these terms. Nevertheless, it will become apparent in the following sections that the 25 CLIP cities under consideration place a differing emphasis on ‘managing diversity’ or ‘equality’ in their policy statements and, to an extent, in the initiatives they have taken.

Discrimination is defined as treating a person or group less favourably than another on grounds covered by discrimination law. These include gender, age and disability; however, in this report race, religion and belief are the relevant grounds. Indirect discrimination can also, under EU law, occur when an apparently neutral requirement is liable to prove a disadvantage for a particular group or person because they are disproportionately less likely to be able to meet that requirement. It is not discrimination if the requirement is necessary and reasonable, that is, ‘objectively justified’. 4

Where the aim is to ensure equality of opportunity, the policy goes beyond procedures to avoid discrimination. Individuals may face barriers to equality, such as a lack of awareness that job vacancies exist for which they are eligible; an equality policy seeks to identify and address these barriers. While an anti-discrimination policy may treat everyone in the same way – regardless of the

inequality in outcomes that may result – an equality policy recognises that people have diverse needs and may sometimes need to be treated differently in order to ensure genuine equality of opportunity leading to greater parity in outcomes; for example, people may need to have information on a particular service translated into their mother tongue.

Positive action and positive discrimination
The steps that an organisation takes to overcome barriers and boost the participation of underrepresented individuals and groups are known as ‘positive action’ measures. Such measures could include, for instance, targeted advertising to attract job applicants from underrepresented groups. Positive action of this kind is lawful under EU law. It is distinct from ‘positive discrimination’, whereby individuals from an underrepresented group are given preference at the point of selection over applicants who are equally qualified. Positive discrimination is unlawful in most circumstances in the EU (McCrudden, 2007).

Integration
Some countries and cities address these issues under the heading of integration policy: they may emphasise diversity management, anti-discrimination and equality (as does Spain), or conflict avoidance (as in Austria). Integration is therefore not an alternative approach but an overarching framework, which includes broader social and economic objectives.

European legislative and policy drivers
The policies of the EU and the Council of Europe on equality, diversity and integration issues have been among the drivers of action at city level. From the 1970s onwards, racism within Europe was identified as a matter of serious concern by the then European Economic Community (EEC) and various actions were taken. These included the setting up of the European Monitoring Centre on Racism and Xenophobia (EUMC) and efforts to secure an agreement on a series of legislative and policy responses to combating discrimination and addressing wider diversity issues (see FRA, 2007b for an account of the development of EU policies in this field). Recent evidence published by the EUMC’s successor body, the aforementioned FRA, shows that discrimination is still prevalent across the EU and underlines the need for further action at all levels – EU, national, regional and local – to enable legislation and policies to have an effective impact (see FRA, 2007b; see also FRA, 2007a for 2006 findings indicating that unequal treatment continues in employment, housing
The FRA findings highlight patterns of labour market and employment inequality that exist in the EU for migrants and minorities, ‘who generally suffer worse employment conditions than majority workers, receive lower wages and are over-represented in the most precarious and least desirable jobs’ (FRA, 2007b, p. 23). The report also found evidence of unequal treatment in relation to two services of central interest to cities – housing and education.

**Equality directives**

Article 13 of the Treaty of Amsterdam, agreed in 1997, granted the EU new powers to combat discrimination on the grounds of sex, racial or ethnic origin, religion or belief, disability, age or sexual orientation. Using the powers granted by Article 13, the EU unanimously adopted the Race Equality Directive in June 2000\(^5\) and the Employment Equality Directive in November 2000,\(^6\) which, among other things, included protection from discrimination on the grounds of religion and belief. These directives were to be transposed into national law by 19 July 2003 and 2 December 2003 respectively.

Both directives prohibit discrimination in the areas of employment, occupation and vocational training. However, the Race Equality Directive goes further, banning discrimination in the provision of goods and services such as healthcare, education and housing. Thus, protection against race discrimination under EU law is more extensive than that against discrimination on the grounds of religion or belief. Within their remits, both Directives seek to protect people from direct and indirect discrimination, harassment and victimisation. The EU countries covered in this report have implemented the Directives in different ways and according to differing time scales (Cormack and Bell, 2005; FRA, 2007a).

Five years after the EU adopted these wide-ranging Directives, 2007 was designated as the European Year of Equal Opportunities for All. This provided additional momentum for anti-discrimination initiatives and the promotion of equal opportunities, while conveying a positive message about diversity. Efforts to tackle structural barriers faced by minorities were reinforced by the three aims of this landmark year which sought to:

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make people more aware of their rights to ensure their equal treatment and a life free of discrimination;
- promote equal opportunities for all;
- launch a major debate on the benefits of diversity, both for European societies and individuals; this ongoing debate is one to which this report seeks to contribute.

**Common Basic Principles**

In 2004, the Council of the European Union adopted the Hague Programme with a view to strengthening freedom, security and justice (Council of the European Union, 2004a). The programme underlined the need for greater coordination of national integration policies and EU activities, on the basis of agreed principles. Subsequently, 11 Common Basic Principles were adopted to ‘underpin a coherent framework on integration of third-country nationals’ (Council of the European Union, 2004b, pp. 19–24). These principles provided the basis for a coordinated EU approach to integration and outlined the priorities which any integration policy should address, including employment and access to services.

In September 2005, the European Commission adopted the communication *A common agenda for integration – Framework for the integration of third country nationals in the European Union* (European Commission, 2005b). The communication states that ‘the promotion of fundamental rights, non-discrimination and equal opportunities for all are key integration issues’, and sets out concrete measures to put the Common Basic Principles into practice at both EU and national level. Furthermore, it provides for supportive EU mechanisms to facilitate cooperation and the exchange of information, experience and best practice.

The third of the Common Basic Principles focuses on the importance of employment for the integration of migrants and on addressing a particular barrier that migrants and their prospective employers face – the recognition of qualifications (see Chapter 3). It is important that employers can accurately assess whether a prospective employee holds the vocational or professional qualifications needed for the post; procedural barriers, however, mean that establishing equivalency of qualifications can be difficult and time consuming in practice. An EU Directive on the Recognition of Qualifications makes it possible for EU nationals who obtained their professional qualifications in one Member State to pursue their profession in another, and the Commission
proposed in its communication on integration that this framework be extended to cover third-country nationals. Nonetheless, not all Member States have the legal and institutional framework in place to ensure that the process for the recognition of qualifications is accessible and efficient.

In addition, a network of National Contact Points (NCPs) on integration has been established, to which CLIP findings are regularly reported. The main objective of the network is to create a forum for the exchange of information and best practice between Member States at EU level, with the purpose of finding successful solutions for the integration of immigrants in all Member States and to ensure policy coordination and coherence at national level and with EU initiatives. Based on the network’s findings, a second edition of the Handbook on integration for policymakers and practitioners was issued in 2007 (European Commission, 2007c), the first having been published in 2004 and a third edition planned for 2009. These handbooks are compiled in cooperation with the NCPs, together with regional and local authorities and non-governmental stakeholders, and act as a driver for the exchange of information and good practice.

**Council of Europe**

Equality, diversity and integration are also priority issues for the Council of Europe, which now has 47 Member States. Alongside the European Convention on Human Rights and the European Social Charter, the Council of Europe’s Revised strategy for social cohesion emphasises the importance of human rights as the basis for a cohesive society and for tackling discrimination against migrants and ethnic minorities (Council of Europe, 2004). At the same time, its Social Cohesion Directorate, supporting a European Committee on Migration, focuses on securing consensus and promoting awareness of good practice regarding the integration of migrants and people of migrant origin. In 2002, the Council’s European Commission against Racism and Intolerance (ECRI) recommended that its Member States move beyond anti-discrimination measures to ‘place public authorities under a duty to promote equality’ in carrying out their functions, and to ensure that parties to whom they award contracts or grants be obliged to respect and promote non-discrimination (ECRI, 2003).

Subsequently, in 2004, the Council’s Congress of Local and Regional Authorities adopted Resolution 181 on A pact for the integration and participation of people of immigrant origin in Europe’s towns, cities and regions
This resolution noted that migratory flows into Europe constitute a major challenge in terms of integration and social cohesion; however, it also underlined how such flows can help to foster the diversity and vitality of European cities, bringing numerous advantages in demographic, economic and cultural spheres. In this context, the Congress identified three aims:

- integration and participation which will facilitate equality of opportunity and the same rights and obligations for all;
- peaceful co-existence ensuring the rights and freedoms of the individual;
- the use of cultural diversity as a resource, by opening up urban life and public services in an intercultural manner.

**National diversity and equality policies**

National policy frameworks inevitably have an impact on the approach that cities take to equality and diversity issues, as well as the context in which these policies are developed and the priority they are given. National policies are, in turn, influenced by the European policy framework, to a greater or lesser degree. European policy on race and the 2000 EU Race Equality Directive (2000/43/EC) has been a particular policy driver in some EU Member States. The more recent Common Basic Principles on Integration and subsequent Communication have informed the countries’ broader integration agenda. Some countries with longer histories of migration, such as the UK, developed their policies within the earlier anti-discrimination paradigm, whether this was prior to the EU directives or prompted by them; on the other hand, those experiencing migration more recently have done so within a broader integration strategy. A number of exceptions do, however, exist in this respect. For instance, despite its long migration history, Germany enacted legislation tackling race discrimination only in 2006, relying previously on an equal treatment provision in its constitution. Awareness of the potential value of diversity, however, and the need to manage it effectively has recently become a growing priority: one illustration of this is a nationwide ‘Diversity Charter’ initiative, which seeks to encourage large organisations to acknowledge, respect and take advantage of diversity as a resource. By January 2008, some 240 organisations had joined the initiative, including the two CLIP cities Frankfurt and Stuttgart. The charter commits the organisation to strengthen its culture of mutual respect between employees, evaluate its personnel
procedures to take into account the diverse capabilities of staff, positively acknowledge and make use of diversity within and outside of the organisation, and make public their activities as well as the progress they have made.

In contrast, Ireland, a country of recent immigration, adopted equality legislation for employment in 1998 and for services in 2000. Moreover, in 2005, it launched a national action plan against racism, prior to its current plans to develop an integration strategy. Spain, also only recently a country of immigration, had an anti-discrimination policy in place before developing a broader integration strategy. In 2003, it transposed the EU race and employment Directives into Spanish law and established a body to monitor racism and promote equal opportunities. Its 2007 Strategic Plan on Citizenship and Integration aims to strengthen cohesion through ensuring equal opportunities, respect for difference and the rights and duties of citizenship. Hungary, as yet experiencing only limited immigration, has extensive experience of law and policy relating not to recent migrants, but to national minorities – the largest of which is the Roma community. In Croatia, inter-ethnic conflict in the country’s recent past has provided its own driver for the protection of minorities, with a Constitutional Act on the Rights of National Minorities adopted in 2002.

Notwithstanding the influence of the EU, the particular circumstances in each country have largely determined the direction and pace of policy reform. As circumstances have changed and new governments have been elected, the policy emphasis has shifted. Thus, for instance, it was for domestic reasons that the UK went beyond the EU Race Equality Directive to impose an obligation in 2000 on public bodies, including local authorities, to promote racial equality and good race relations when fulfilling their functions; this initiative has been highly significant for the approach taken by the two UK authorities covered in this report – Sefton and Wolverhampton.

Although required by EU law to provide remedies for discrimination, and encouraged by both the EU and the Council of Europe to respect and manage diversity, European countries have traditionally taken different policy approaches to cultural difference. Such approaches range from encouraging assimilation and discouraging difference to recognising and managing individuals’ diversity, or promoting multiculturalism in recognition of groups and community identities. In practice, this can involve different approaches to the consultation of migrants (for example, whether or not they are consulted...
through ‘community leaders’), to the terminology used (whether or not they are referred to as ‘ethnic minorities’), and to monitoring discrimination and progress towards equality. Some countries, including the Netherlands and the UK, use ethnic monitoring for this purpose, whereas others do not. While the former consider it a vital tool for identifying patterns of disadvantage and monitoring the impact of policy interventions, other countries are concerned that identifying ethnic identities for the purpose of monitoring will reinforce those identities, or that asking people to identify themselves by their ethnicity could in itself be discriminatory. In some countries, such as Turkey, the monitoring of ethnicity and religion is, for these and historical reasons, unlawful.

It is evident from the city reports that, while some have been strongly influenced by national policy in the approach they have adopted, other cities such as Breda and Vienna have, to an extent, found their approach to be in conflict with national policy. In particular, some cities have found the tone of national political discourse, including the emphasis on migrants’ failure to integrate and measures to require adaptation, at odds with a more inclusive approach emphasising mutual adaptation and recognition of the genuine barriers that migrants can face. This tension arising from the challenges that cities have faced in implementing their equality and diversity policies is further described in Chapter 2.

Two final points are worth mentioning in relation to national contexts. Firstly, the differing roles and structure of welfare states in each country should be underlined, particularly regarding the ways in which welfare services are provided – in some but not all cases by city authorities – to those migrants who need them. The extent to which people rely on NGOs to provide welfare services, rather than on the delivery of services through public bodies, differs significantly. Secondly, authorities in some countries – such as Germany and the UK – have made a greater shift than others away from the ‘one size fits all’ approach to service delivery; instead, they recognise that the diverse needs of their local population, whether in relation to factors such as gender, disability or age, mean that differing approaches may be needed. In this context, greater attention has been paid to developing the ability of staff to meet diverse needs, including but not exclusively their intercultural competence.
Migrant employment in public administration

It is striking in the context of this report that the majority of Europe’s migrants work in the private sector and that only a relatively small proportion are employed in public administration: only 4.5% of foreign-born workers in the ‘older’ 15 EU Member States (EU15) worked in public administration or defence in 2005, compared with 7.5% of the EU15 workforce as a whole (including migrants). This compares with 14.1% of foreign-born workers employed in manufacturing, 10.8% in construction and 9.2% in hotels and restaurants. Even the figure of 4.5% is inflated by the contribution of migrants born in Australia, Canada and the United States (US), whose participation matches that of the workforce as a whole. Participation is considerably lower among those born in Asia, the Caribbean, Latin America, Turkey and the eastern European Member States. Significantly, the percentage of non-nationals working in public administration and defence in the EU15, as opposed to those who are foreign born, stands at only 1.9%. This finding, as the researcher Rainer Münz notes in a recent paper, ‘clearly reflects the exclusion of third-country nationals from important parts of the public sector, while naturalised immigrants have access to this segment of the labour market’ (Münz, 2007). It should be noted, however, that the inclusion of data on defence staff and limitation to public administration rather than broader public sector employment may also lower the average. The data do not show what percentage of those working in public administration are foreigners or foreign born.

The low number of migrants in public administration shows that, although municipal authorities are aware of the importance of achieving migrants’ labour market integration, they have not as yet been successful in integrating them into their own workforce. Some of the factors that may help to explain this observation are considered in this report.

Research questions and structure of report

Against the background of the European and national policy framework outlined in this chapter, this report sets out to look at equality and diversity policy and practice in employment and services provision in European cities. The report seeks to understand both the overall approach of local authorities and how, in practice, this policy is being implemented in their employment
and services provision. On this basis, the report is structured to include the following:

- an overview of the cities’ approaches – including their differing objectives, allocation of responsibility, collaboration with social partners and NGOs, policy and practice on monitoring, and the common challenges they have faced;
- an analysis of the cities’ employment policy, practice and outcomes;
- an analysis of the cities’ policies, practices and outcomes in relation to services provision;
- an overview of the key challenges, lessons learnt and way forward for the cities in question.
City approaches to equality and diversity

Overview of CLIP cities

The cities covered in this report are hugely varied in their geographical locations, size, history, political control, economic, social and linguistic contexts, and migration history. They range from capital cities such as Copenhagen, Dublin, Prague, Tallinn and Vienna, to cities like Liège, Malmö and Valencia which are the third largest cities in their respective countries, or districts such as Sefton in the north-west of England which are in the CLIP network but not actual cities. Some cities, like Turin, are more industrial while at the same time have an increasingly important services sector. Others, such as Frankfurt in Germany, constitute the country’s leading financial centre and, like Arnsberg, Turku and Valencia, increasingly have a predominantly service oriented labour market. Meanwhile, areas like Mataró and Sefton have neighbouring horticulture or broader agricultural areas employing migrant workers. While agriculture and tourist employment require migrants predominantly for low-skilled work, albeit not necessarily low-skilled migrants, the employment of high-skilled migrants is also evident in the cities.

While the number of foreign-born inhabitants in some cities amounts to over 15% of the population, not including the second generation, other cities have a small albeit possibly expanding migrant population of lower than 5%, as seen in Sefton. Moreover, immigration is only a relatively recent phenomenon in some of the cities covered. For example, the city of Valencia, like the other Spanish cities in the CLIP network, was a city of emigration until the early 1990s. Over a 10-year period, from 1996 to 2006, the number of migrants in Valencia’s population grew considerably from 0.9% to 12.4%. Similarly, in the Finnish city of Turku, the number of migrants was not significant until the 1990s. Today, Turku has the fourth largest migrant population among Finnish cities, and twice the number of migrants as the national average. In Italy, the northern city of Brescia has one of the highest percentages of foreign residents, at 15.3%. In Denmark’s capital city of Copenhagen, people who are foreign born and ‘their descendants’ comprised 19.8% of the population in 2007, compared with 8.5% of the country’s population as a whole. In the southern Swedish city of Malmö, which has some 276,000 inhabitants, 27% of the population are foreign born while 36% have a migration background. Similarly,
in Belgium’s western city of Antwerp, 13.3% of the inhabitants are foreigners while 26.6% have a migration background, including those born abroad but who have taken Belgian nationality. In Frankfurt, a quarter of residents are foreigners, as are one third of its schoolchildren. Estonia’s capital city of Tallinn has a significant minority population (nearly half of the population is Russian), which is the focus of many of its policy debates on equality.

In countries with a long tradition of immigration, such as the UK, certain regions have not necessarily shared the same experience. For instance Sefton, a destination for eastern European migrants only since EU enlargement in 2004, is facing, largely for the first time, the opportunities and challenges posed by migrants. This is in stark contrast to the UK’s Midlands town of Wolverhampton, 100 miles to the south, which has a long history as a migrant destination and where 8.3% of the population is currently foreign born.

The range of countries from which migrants originate is truly diverse, notwithstanding that they may predominantly be of a particular nationality. In Frankfurt, for example, migrants come from a staggering 174 countries; in both Malmö and Stuttgart (where 22% of the population are foreigners), migrants represent some 170 countries, while in Luxembourg migrants originate from 143 countries. In terms of gender, a significant number of cities reported that a slightly higher proportion of migrants were men, although equalising over time partly due to family reunification. In relation to age, a number of cities reported that a higher proportion of migrants were under 65 years of age, compared with the national population as a whole.

**Significance as employers and service providers**

It is important to emphasise the significance of many municipalities as employers in their area: six of the CLIP cities reported that they are the largest employer in the area and two the second largest. In relation to services, it should also be highlighted that while there is significant variation in the responsibilities of the cities in the CLIP network, most of them have some responsibility for the service areas which are most relevant to migrants and their integration – such as housing, health, education and social services.

For some cities, one or more of these responsibilities is held at regional level, as in Spain with regard to education and health. In Finland, the municipalities are responsible for healthcare services, which accounts for some 18% of Turku’s municipal employees, as in Sweden, where Malmö City Council provides 80% of public services in its area, including health and education.
services. In the Italian cities, non-hospital health services are funded and managed by the regions. Though organised at local level, health services are not a municipal competence. According to Law 328/2000, collaboration between the municipalities and local health units should be pursued in the planning of health and assistance services at a territorial level (zone socio-sanitarie). National governments have, in some instances, decided that local municipalities should also be given statutory responsibility for the integration of migrants. Thus, in Denmark, the 1999 Integration Act gave municipalities a coordination and services provision function in relation to refugees and family union migrants for a period of 18 months after their arrival, in order to improve the management and coordination of formerly disparate government departments and external bodies. Similarly, the Finnish Integration Act of the same year assigns responsibility to municipalities for developing local integration policies, in which the focus is on providing new migrants with the knowledge and skills they need to function in society and the labour market, while preserving their own language and culture. Accordingly, the city’s Immigrants’ Office makes ‘individual integration plans’ to provide tuition for those on benefits, in cooperation with the regional authority through which the central government pays for the service.

Some cities have significantly fewer areas of responsibility: for example, Dublin City Council has no responsibilities in relation to education, health or social services, as Ireland has a centralised system of government. Nevertheless, its responsibility for housing, libraries and vehicle taxation has provided interesting opportunities for addressing diversity issues, which shall be referred to later in this report. Another significant factor is the increasing practice of contracting out services to private or voluntary organisations or to companies owned by the city: in Stuttgart, for instance, the city’s own companies run residential homes for elderly people, manage sewage and waste disposal and provide swimming pools.

These differences, coupled with the varying migration experiences of the cities, need to be recognised before turning to their experiences in relation to equality and diversity policies and the factors that have driven, or challenged, their progress in this field.

Policy development – drivers and barriers to reform

Among the 25 cities covered in this report, 17 have a written equality or diversity policy in some form, including within a broader integration strategy
or strategy addressing disadvantage; a further two of the cities are considering such a document, while six have no such written policy. Nevertheless, with the exception of Luxembourg, all of the cities are engaged in initiatives relating to diversity in their employment and/or services provision. The city reports identify a series of drivers that have prompted this development – more specifically, legal, demographic, economic, political, intellectual and operational drivers.

It is striking that the policy drivers differ in relation to employment and services. Notably, legal, demographic and economic pressures tend to primarily drive policies relating to employment, although they may not if these pressures are not felt. Reform in services provision, on the other hand, is often seen in the reports as a response to the demand created by an increasingly diverse population of service users.

Compliance with the law
The law in all EU Member States, as outlined, requires cities to at the very least comply with anti-discrimination provisions in relation to race, religion and belief in employment and with regard to race in the services they provide. In some cases, national law requires city administrations to go further to promote equality of access to jobs and services. For instance, Finnish anti-discrimination legislation specifically requires local government to have an action plan in place for identifying the measures it will use to promote equality as an employer and service provider. The law may also require the monitoring of ethnic minorities’ access to jobs and services, as seen in the UK, or else allow for such monitoring but not require it, or not permit it. Altogether, five of the cities emphasised anti-discrimination law as a policy driver. Under separate provisions, the law may exclude non-nationals from some posts in the city administration, limiting the extent to which it is able to promote access to the jobs it provides (see Chapter 3).

Labour shortages
Demographic drivers are cited by cities with an ageing workforce, arising from their need to attract migrants to meet the demand created by labour shortages. Such considerations can be seen in Amsterdam, where it is anticipated that 16% of staff will leave in the next five to 10 years, or in Turin where 30% of the population are above retirement age, and also in Stuttgart. Labour shortages in the city create an economic imperative for it to become attractive to migrants: such cities referred to the need to ensure that they maintained a positive image in this respect and to set a good example to the private sector. Cities also
pointed to the innovation and creativity that migrants can bring to the area – the so-called 'business case' for diversity.

Evidence of disadvantage or community tensions
Some cities have developed their policies in response to political pressures. In certain cases, such efforts have arisen from evidence of disadvantage: in Stuttgart, for instance, poor education outcomes for pupils with a migration background were a factor, while in Malmö, evidence that courses for newcomers did not match their needs emerged as a consideration. In other cases, policies have been developed as a result of fears of radicalisation if migrants are not well integrated. Pressure from NGOs representing the interests of migrants represents a further driver in this context, or, in some instances, from minority representatives elected onto the council. A total of 11 cities emphasised evidence of disadvantage as a factor in policy reform, while four cited community tensions (or the fear of them).

Human rights and equality principles
Where numbers or challenges are insufficient to provide a political impetus, the intellectual case for reform can, to an extent, prove influential. In Breda and Sefton, for example, elected representatives and officials have argued that human rights and equality principles demand action to ensure the fair treatment of migrants in the city's employment and service delivery. In 15 cities, human rights and equality principles were felt to have been quite influential in driving reform.

Pressure from service users
In relation to services, adaptation of services has primarily come in response to pressure from migrant service users and their differing needs from service providers. Vienna's healthcare providers, for instance, had to respond to migrants' calling an ambulance when ill rather than going to their local health centre. In Dublin, libraries had to respond to the fact that an increasing number of migrants were using libraries that were at that time ill-equipped to meet their needs. Some cities simply found that a service initially provided for the non-migrant population had, over time, begun to serve a largely migrant clientele, as seen in the case of Valencia's services for homeless people.

Process of policy change
The example of Dublin's libraries illustrates a relationship between policy and practice that is also evident in a number of other cities, whereby policy development is not always instigated from the top down by those responsible
for policy at the elected or senior official level. In Dublin’s case, the growing number of migrants using the libraries’ services led to a response without the need for any encouragement from a higher authority (see Chapter 4). The city reports thus reveal differing relationships across and within city administrations between policy and practice. These range from top-down leadership of policy leading to changing practices within departments and services, to policies that amount, thus far, to little more than rhetoric. Also seen are policies (or budget allocation) that effectively legitimise practices that had already changed in response to pressures experienced at the service level. For instance, this was reported in Copenhagen in relation to promoting diversity among staff in its cleaning department, through an initiative introduced before the city’s overarching policy was put in place. The range of experiences also encompasses changes in practice in response to such pressures that have not yet been endorsed by any broader policy framework by the city administration.

Inaction at a senior level can reflect the political and economic barriers to policy development that city representatives acknowledge (see section on ‘Challenges facing cities’ in this chapter). Some cities, for instance, fear adverse reactions among the public or staff if they are seen to adapt their employment or service policies to facilitate greater access by migrants. As a result, they may be unwilling to act publicly or may direct policies at a broader section of the community, such as unemployed people, among whom migrants, in practice, disproportionately benefit. Adaptation of services, and extension of data collection for instance, can also be expensive and some cities face budgetary challenges in meeting migrants’ needs when struggling to maintain the extent and quality of existing services. These are among the barriers that cities face when considering or implementing policies in this field.

Policy objectives and terminology

Reflecting these various drivers of policy, cities have a differing balance of objectives and priorities in this area as a whole, and between their initiatives in relation to employment and service delivery. While most cities would acknowledge the importance of each of the objectives below, substantial differences can be observed in the emphasis that is placed on them, namely in relation to:

- the rights and needs of migrants – this is the dominant objective of the cities adhering to an anti-discrimination or equality perspective (see section on ‘Key definitions and rationale’ in Chapter 1). Some cities emphasise
compliance with discrimination law or the broader achievement of a representative workforce and equal access to services. Altogether, 11 of the cities placed the greatest emphasis on this perspective. Nevertheless, ensuring fairness for individual employees and service users is never the sole objective;

- the benefits for the city as a whole – this objective is emphasised by many of the cities that approach the issue from an integration perspective. Such benefits include the avoidance of community tensions. Some of the cities in this category saw their policies as contributing to building a sense of common citizenship and community cohesion. Some believed that collecting evidence on service users’ needs and consulting with community groups could provide ‘early warning’ of potential tensions. Cities in this category also considered that creating a positive image would enable employers to attract workers to a city seen as welcoming to newcomers. Eight of the cities placed the greatest emphasis on these outcomes;

- the benefits of migrants as a resource for city administrations in their role as employers and service providers – this is the dominant approach of those cities adhering to a ‘diversity management’ perspective. In this context, priority is often given to developing the intercultural competence of staff. Two of the cities placed the greatest emphasis on this approach.

In practice, while these differences in emphasis are apparent, cities have complementary goals and may combine these approaches. Moreover, their objectives are not always spelt out and, as already indicated, can differ between those responsible for policy development at senior level and those in charge of personnel or the delivery of a particular service. Thus, significant inconsistencies may emerge between a city’s stated policies and what is actually happening, and between the progress made in relevant departments and services. The picture is complicated even more by the fact that the cities may use differing terminology. Nevertheless, those which use ‘integration’ or ‘diversity’ as their policy framework may, for instance, include a strong emphasis on equality. These differences will become apparent as the report looks at the policy framework and objectives of a selection of cities.

One of these cities – Stuttgart – has, since 2000, explicitly considered increasing diversity as a normal and desirable part of the city’s development and viewing its immigrants as a valuable resource, stating that it wants to capitalise on cultural diversity to improve the competencies of its workforce.
The city’s ‘Pact for integration’, which covers the public, voluntary and private sectors, also has the objective of promoting equal opportunities and participation for all.

**Stuttgart – A pact for integration**

Stuttgart City Council – in cooperation with the public and private sectors and civil society associations, such as sport clubs, community groups and NGOs – has developed a municipal integration policy called the ‘Pact for integration’. First adopted in 2001, an enhanced version of the pact was published in 2007, dealing with implementation and the intercultural orientation of municipal offices. The pact defines integration as the active creation of a common basis for mutual understanding; this encompasses a two-way process requiring investment by migrants and the host community. Thus, the target groups of the policy are newly arrived migrants, established immigrant communities and the indigenous population. The pact has three main goals:

- promoting participation and equal opportunities for every person in all spheres of everyday life;
- promoting peaceful cohabitation and social cohesion;
- capitalising on cultural diversity to extend the personal and professional competencies of all those who live in the city.

To achieve these goals, Stuttgart City Council seeks to improve the quality of municipal services through an ‘intercultural orientation of the city administration’ developed through:

- enhancing the intercultural competence of staff – through training on migration-related issues, cooperation with migrants’ organisations, the employment of staff with a migration background and the formation of intercultural team structures;
- developing guidelines that aim to institutionalise intercultural competence – for instance, in youth services;
- monitoring municipal services in which migrants are an acknowledged target group – for example, through descriptive monitoring measures that capture the initial situation, the setting of measurable goals, and outcome evaluation.

Since its introduction, the pact has received international recognition: in 2003, the city was awarded the ‘Cities for Peace Prize’ by the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO); subsequently, in 2004, the Council of Europe adopted key points of the pact as its official policy on integration.
In contrast, a number of cities place a greater emphasis on addressing discrimination and achieving equality. The city of Liège in Belgium had developed a ‘Charter against racism’ by the mid-1990s and was already active in European networks of cities addressing racism in its differing forms. It aims to ensure that all members of the public have access to quality services, putting considerable emphasis on compliance with anti-discrimination legislation, while seeking to develop a pro-diversity corporate culture and human resources management (HRM) system. The city aims to go beyond strong policies on paper, and seeks to monitor progress and evaluate its initiatives so that continuous improvements can be made.

Ireland is another country with a longstanding anti-discrimination tradition; moreover, due to the significant increase in its migrant population, it is also starting to develop integration policies. For instance, Dublin’s city authority had originally placed an emphasis on avoiding discrimination in its employment practices, but is now thinking more broadly about the implications of migrants for its services within an integration framework. In practice, it has found that the opportunities and challenges provided by diversity have been addressed to differing degrees among its many departments. While its human resources (HR) department has focused solely on procedural compliance to avoid discrimination, some of its services have been proactive in identifying and meeting the particular needs that new migrants present. Its report identifies the need to go further and ‘impact assess’ new policies and services – an approach already adopted in Wolverhampton (see section on ‘Monitoring and impact assessments’ in this chapter).

The city of Wolverhampton first adopted an equal opportunities policy in 1986, which was further strengthened by the new statutory obligation introduced in 2000 to promote equality and good race relations. Its equal opportunities policy covers equality on the grounds of ethnic or national origin, gender, disability, nationality, age, religion and belief, and sexual orientation. The city also has a policy of celebrating diversity and promoting tolerance within its broader approach to promoting community cohesion. It argues that a diverse workforce is better equipped to provide services to a diverse population and is therefore essential to the authority, rather than simply being a matter of equal opportunities for the individuals concerned. The policy provides for participation by minority groups in decision making about local services, as well as allowing members of the public and employees to complain if they believe they have not received equal treatment.
The other UK member of the CLIP network, Sefton, has a Corporate Equality Plan in place which covers the broad range of equality grounds. It claims that this comprehensive approach, addressing inequality in all sections of the population, makes it easier to win broad public support for its equality policy than when the policy appeared to benefit only ethnic minorities or women. As a result, the authority tries to avoid any policies or services that target migrants and minorities exclusively.

In a similar approach, Copenhagen decided in 1998 that all of its future policies should take into account the diversity of its population: not only with respect to race and gender, but also in relation to disability and sexual orientation. Religion, however, is considered a private concern and not a matter for diversity policies. Meanwhile, Amsterdam, which had once focused strongly on anti-discrimination, has recently developed a stronger diversity focus.

### Amsterdam – ‘Power of a diverse city’

In the 1990s, Amsterdam's municipal minority policy was mainly concerned with providing facilities for ethnic minority groups and preventing discrimination and racism. By 1999, when the first- and second-generation population of foreign descent nearly reached 50%, the municipality felt that the discussion about 'minorities' no longer made sense. Amsterdam therefore changed the focus of its minority policy from an emphasis on group treatment to one on the responsibilities and needs of individuals. The city aspires to make all inhabitants feel at home, to provide people with opportunities to participate in city life and to use diversity as an asset for developing the city. Thus, the aims of social inclusion or integration are incorporated into almost every municipal activity.

This ‘diversity policy’ was originally formulated in the policy document ‘The power of a diverse city’ (*De kracht van de diverse stad*). The policy targets four main groups: people of foreign descent, women, disabled people and homosexuals. It has four basic principles:

- migration is a constituent part of urban life and something that the local authority must always take into account;
- diversity policy is important and will be continued;
- integration means belonging and participating, and is therefore something that applies to all inhabitants of Amsterdam;
the citizenship course (*Inburgering*) is the starting point for integration.

The most recent document describing this policy notes two key goals for the future: firstly, to invest in people, reinforcing positive emotional contact; secondly, to set limits on all forms of intolerant and extremist behaviour.

The Italian city of Turin focuses on ensuring equality of opportunity for migrants in relation to employment and services provision. However, it does so as part of a wider integration strategy, without direct reference to diversity as a resource for the authority or city. It aims to promote the process of integration through the socioeconomic emancipation of new city dwellers and by encouraging their participation in public life. The other Italian city in the CLIP network, Brescia, also places its equality policies within a broader strategy context for integrating migrants: its vision seeks to develop a process of shared or ‘proximity’ citizenship, whereby Italians and foreigners have the same rights within the city and benefit equally from the services which it provides. An Equal Opportunities Committee within the authority oversees its efforts, to ensure that no discrimination occurs in its own employment practices. However, the city does not collect data on the ethnicity or religion of its employees or service providers, as this is considered to be potentially discriminatory. As the section on monitoring in this chapter shows, this perception constitutes a major difference between cities, leading to significant gaps in their capacity to identify patterns of exclusion and to monitor progress.

**Brescia – Developing ‘shared citizenship’**

Brescia’s core vision for its foreign population is to develop a process of ‘shared citizenship’. This approach treats both Italian citizens and those of foreign origin as active subjects, entitled to the same rights and equally benefiting from social policies and services.

In order to implement this vision, the city has developed the concept of ‘proximity citizenship’ (*cittadinanza di prossimità*): according to this concept, the integration process should be developed and continued – starting from and in conjunction with – citizenship. At the operational level, the municipality encourages equal access to labour and housing markets, as well as facilitating people’s access to public services.

The only formal requirement for accessing services and welfare benefits is to be registered at the local registry office – in other words,
to be a resident of the city. Political participation is also seen as a necessary activity for facilitating migrant integration in the local community. As a result, the city is planning interventions with migrant organisations, which aim to involve migrants in policy development and encourage them to take part in local elections. It has also created a civic network, known as ‘Brescia, a city of openness and solidarity’ (*Brescia città aperta e solidale*), to spread the idea of ‘proximity citizenship’. The network aims to create a council of migrants in Brescia. This council will be elected by both Italian and migrant members of the network and will encourage foreigners who have been residents of the city for more than five years to participate more actively in administrative elections.

Spanish cities have developed their policies in this area more recently; this has been in response to the rapid increase in their migrant populations and includes a strong emphasis on shared citizenship, human rights and addressing the attitudes of the non-migrant population. For instance, in its first plan for the integration of migrants (2002–2005), the city of Valencia expressed a political will to ‘face in a positive way the rising immigration in Valencia’ and to achieve ‘plural and supportive co-existence’. The city defines integration as a ‘process of incorporation [which] implies [the] mutual recognition of different values, customs and universes’, or ‘a supportive project in the framework of an intercultural society, in which the most important aspect is human rights ... and access to citizenship’. Its goals have included a strong emphasis on helping migrants to access jobs and training, promoting self-employment and raising employers’ awareness of the benefits of migrant workers. Moreover, in its most recent integration plan (2007–2012), Valencia has placed an additional focus on adapting services to the specific needs of migrant communities, as well as on tailoring specific services for newcomers, intercultural mediation, participation and data collection.

Meanwhile, the Spanish city of Terrassa has developed a ‘Management of immigration, diversity and living together plan’ – an initiative not only for migrants, but for the population as a whole. At the same time, the city of Mataró has introduced a ‘New citizenship agreement’, which places its equality policy within a human rights framework, after the city signed up to the ‘Town and City Association for Human Rights’ in 2005. Having set out at length the rights of all those who live in the city, the agreement also outlines the city’s obligations: these include a duty to show solidarity to all the people who most
need it, to demonstrate mutual respect, and to respect the national, cultural
and artistic heritage of the city.

Terrassa – Managing diversity and living together

In February 2003, the ‘Management of immigration, diversity and
living together plan of Terrassa’ was drawn up in consultation with
migrant associations, civil society, trade unions, city council
professionals and representatives of the political groups represented
on the council. The plan’s strategic themes and objectives seek to:

- develop measures aimed at newly arrived immigrants – ensuring
  that new arrivals are informed about services and their rights and
duties, as well as facilitating their access to training and the labour
market;

- manage residential segregation;

- adapt public services – including the provision of services in
  immigrants’ mother tongue; offering translation support; allowing
for adaptability in opening hours; devising new uses for space and
resources; and introducing training plans as well as providing
information about immigration to staff, associations and bodies
that have contact with members of the public;

- construct a new model of co-existence – including the creation of
  areas where participation can take place and that link immigrants
and other residents through mutual understanding and the
challenging of stereotypes; promoting the participation of migrants
in the social fabric of the city; developing migrant associations;
providing migrants with information about their rights and duties;
and informing other local residents about minority cultures and
building bridges of exchange, dialogue and cooperation;

- increase local media awareness of the need to deal realistically
  with the immigration phenomena, leaving stereotypes and
prejudices aside;

- create a positive campaign about the ‘new Terrassa’ that the city
  is becoming.

The policies are directed at the whole population, since the
integration process is seen as a shared experience. Terrassa argues
that a person is not an immigrant all of their life, which is why the city
never uses the concept of second- or third-generation immigrants.
Rather, a person stops being an immigrant when they become socially
integrated into the wider community.
Cities new to equality and diversity policies

For some cities, addressing equality and diversity issues is quite a new phenomenon – even, as already observed, in countries with a long history of immigration and with municipal experience of integration initiatives, as in the case of Germany. The west German city of Arnsberg has had an office in place dealing with immigration issues since the 1970s; this office was later strengthened in 1999 by the combining of all migration and integration responsibilities. In 2001, it adopted an integration policy concept, which recognised integration as a two-way process, requiring adaptation on behalf of the city as well as the migrants. However, it is only since 2006 that the city has been actively considering how to manage diversity in the areas of employment and service delivery. Similarly, while the southern Finnish city of Turku has an integration policy in place, it is largely focused on helping migrants acquire the language and work skills needed to become self-sufficient. As the city’s report outlines, it is ‘a reception policy for vulnerable immigrants to ease their first entrance into society rather than a comprehensive, long-term integration policy’. The policy aims to ensure access to work, housing, health and education; it does not encompass targeted employment policy for immigrants, nor any discussion on adapting services to meet their needs. As it states: ‘Equality of outcome of the process of integration and equity in treatment in the process of integration are not aims of such a policy in any explicit way.’ In practice, nevertheless, some instances are evident where adaptations have been made, which could form the basis of a future policy.

In Hungary, legislation is in place protecting the rights of national and ethnic minorities. Nonetheless, at city level in Budapest, no diversity policy has been developed and awareness of issues relating to diversity is reported to be low. This reflects Hungary’s approach to national minorities and migrants, having evolved only relatively recently from one of assimilation to greater awareness of the need to protect minority rights. In Luxembourg, despite the multicultural character of the city, no policy has been developed that is aimed at migrants, nor is there any general diversity policy as such, except in relation to gender. The city of Luxembourg believes that migrants are well integrated, implying that there is no need for a diversity or integration policy. Meanwhile, the city of İzmir in western Turkey is committed to ensuring that 3% of employees are people with disabilities; it monitors the achievement of this target, confident that it recruits people only on the basis of their qualifications and education
levels. Nevertheless, it has no diversity policy in place regarding migrants, nor any department or unit responsible for this issue.

**Targeted groups**
The migrant groups at which the cities’ policies are targeted differ according to their immigration history, to their perceived need of support and to their facing particular challenges. Thus, in some cities, the focus is primarily on third-country nationals who have come to the country as refugees, labour migrants or for marriage; in other cities, there is a strong focus on the second or third generation of young people with a migration background. In Finland, resource-intensive ‘individual integration plans’ are targeted at refugees and Ingrians who have returned from the former Soviet Union. In Ireland and the UK, EU citizens from eastern and central Europe are now among the target populations. In each case, particular sections of the migrant populations can become a particular focus of attention: for instance, women, young people or elderly migrants. Valencia’s target groups include people from the Roma community.

A key difference arises in relation to irregular migrants. While the policies of most cities are entirely directed at legal residents, some cities explicitly acknowledge the needs of irregular migrants and make provision for them. For example, Terrassa organises welcome meetings for newcomers to provide information to all migrants on how to obtain free healthcare, regardless of status. In Frankfurt, provision is made for NGOs to address the needs of irregular migrants, something which the city itself is legally prohibited from doing.

Less common among the cities in the CLIP network is the focus on the country’s own national minorities rather than on international migrants – as seen in the case of Croatia’s capital city of Zagreb. This has established a Department for Promoting Human Rights, Relations with National Minorities and Religious Communities and Civil Society Development. Integration of national minorities is seen as crucial to securing a stable future. The low number of migrants from outside the country accounts for the city’s lack of policy in this area, and management of diversity does not appear in the municipality’s mission statement. Instead, the focus on national minorities aims to ensure that they have their own elected councils and representatives, and receive support for cultural activities and vocational training. Zmir is also
distinct among the CLIP network of cities in that its focus is on the integration of people from other parts of Turkey who migrate to the city.

The city report for Frankfurt notes that ‘since the city understands integration as a mutual process, its integration measures do not only refer to migrants but also to the autochthonous [indigenous] population’. In this instance, it is striking how rarely the attitudes of the non-migrant population towards migrants is cited as a priority in this way. Valencia’s Integration Strategy (2002) also refers to campaigns addressed to both migrants and the indigenous population ‘for mutual knowledge’. Its education strategy is deliberately targeted at the entire school population, including in areas where few immigrants live. Meanwhile, the city of Terrassa takes the approach that local people need to be made aware of their role in combating prejudices if they are to enable immigrants’ integration in the city. In the Spanish city of Mataró, an explicit intention is to fight racism and xenophobia in neighbourhoods where workers live. It notes that earlier immigrants from other regions in Spain are overrepresented in these neighbourhoods and have the perception that they have to compete for public services and jobs. Since racism and prejudice are not uncommon in the neighbourhoods where immigrants settle, and particularly revolve around the scarcity of services like health and education,

**Table 1: Percentage of staff from traditionally underrepresented groups in Sefton Council, 2006 and 2007**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>December 2006 results</th>
<th>2006–2007 targets</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Percentage of highest paid 5% of local authority staff who are women</td>
<td>31.73</td>
<td>37.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage of highest paid 5% of local authority staff who are from an ethnic minority group</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>1.52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage of highest paid 5% of local authority staff who claim they have a disability</td>
<td>0.92</td>
<td>0.46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage of local authority staff who claim they have a disability</td>
<td>0.49</td>
<td>1.39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage of local authority staff from ethnic minority communities</td>
<td>1.35</td>
<td>1.58</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Sefton Council, 2007, p. 7
activities are organised for both migrants and non-migrants to promote contact and enable them to get to know each other's culture. Thus, all cultural and informational exchange is organised with the intention of increasing mutual respect. Similarly, the Italian cities place a certain emphasis on public attitudes.

Brescia and Turin – Fostering positive attitudes towards migrants

Brescia, one of the Italian cities with the highest migrant populations (15.3%), reported a largely positive attitude towards immigration in the city in 2007; moreover, it was confident that the local authority had played an important role in facilitating this outcome. The Office of Integration and Citizenship, together with Brescia’s Catholic Diocese, organises events that are open to all citizens and where the discussion centres on the possibilities for creating positive dynamics of cohabitation and challenging xenophobia and discrimination. The final goal is to create a perception of shared belonging, without forcing people to renounce their individual cultural and religious identities. The local media also play a role in encouraging a better understanding of the migratory phenomenon. For instance, the two local newspapers *Il Giornale di Brescia* and *Brescia Oggi* have reportedly approached this issue in an objective manner. They contribute to the creation of an image of a multicultural city, highlighting resources and opportunities rather than problems. However, at times, the local media have reported statements by particular political parties that are based on stereotypical assumptions and reinforce negative public opinion. A critical issue faced by the city is the demagogy of right-wing political parties, and resentment against the migrant population is sometimes fostered by politicians. These sentiments are sometimes reflected in the local media, having a potentially negative impact on public opinion.

In October 2007, the International Fair of Rights and Equal Opportunities for All was organised in Turin to celebrate the European Year of Equal Opportunities and to disseminate its values and principles. Central themes of the fair were human and social rights, equal opportunities and the fight against all forms of discrimination on the grounds of gender, sexual orientation, religion or personal beliefs, age, ethnic origin or disability. The fair gave people the opportunity to compare experiences and policies that aim to prevent and limit discrimination. It also provided an occasion for the regional, national and international organisations involved in anti-discrimination initiatives to meet and learn from each other’s
Contrasting approaches. In addition, it offered an opportunity to inform public opinion of the advantages of a society that values diversity and offers the same opportunities to everyone. The fair comprised a huge range of events, seminars, workshops, exhibitions and other initiatives organised by groups in the public, private and voluntary sectors.

Responsibility for equality and diversity policies

Assigning responsibility for developing and implementing equality and diversity policies depends on the structure of the authority – whether centralised or devolved – and on the roles of its elected representatives. In some city authorities, there has been scope for individual departments to develop quite distinct approaches, or even to ignore the expectations of senior decision-makers. In other cities, the clear expectations of central leadership have been more strongly reflected throughout the administration.

Some cities have designated a named department to oversee integration issues, as seen in the example of the Integration Office in Turku, and/or equality and diversity issues, as demonstrated in Wolverhampton. Invariably, however, responsibility for diversity in employment remains the task of the HR/personnel department or is devolved to individual departments, as seen in the case of Stuttgart. This separation can lead to very different approaches, for instance in monitoring or moving beyond anti-discrimination compliance to a more proactive promotion of equal opportunities. Reflecting an experience shared by many cities, Stuttgart notes that while the role of its Department for Integration Policy is to establish integration and diversity policy as a cross-departmental responsibility, some of its departments have not yet implemented this approach. Similarly, in the city of Turku, a long administrative route is observed from the Integration Office to the HR and service departments, which have the capacity to impact on the integration process.

Arnsberg – Responsibility for the integration process

The Integration Commissioner and his Office of Immigration and Integration forms part of a department of general and social services, and is in charge of all migrant and integration-related affairs – including organising migrant-specific services. The office’s 26 employees cater for migrants, answering all kinds of questions and problems concerning the municipality. At the same time, an Integration Steering Group consisting of the mayor, the Integration
Commissioner and the department supervisors have regular meetings. The group lays down the official aims of the integration process, updates the policies it had developed with NGOs and welfare organisations in 2001, and formulates future tasks on integration and diversity. In addition, three working committees focus on the areas of ‘crèches and school’, ‘qualifications, training and employment’, and ‘social and cultural integration’. In these groups, representatives of the municipality, NGOs, the foreigners’ council and the adult education centre come together to set goals and to initiate, conduct and evaluate activities. The achievements of these activities are published in an annual integration report. However, no staff member has been assigned specific responsibility for diversity policy within each service department, nor is diversity policy in relation to employment developed as of yet.

The pattern of responsibility for policies and their implementation is complicated by the fact that the different functions for which the cities are responsible are grouped in departments of differing names; nonetheless, these differences are not always as marked as they may appear. In Valencia, this area of policy is the responsibility of the Social Welfare and Integration Service, which incorporates an Immigration Support Centre that coordinates the interventions of municipal departments in implementing the integration plan; at the same time, NGOs provide information to migrants and organise services for those who are homeless. In Estonia’s capital city of Tallinn, integration policy is the duty of the office of the deputy mayor, which is also responsible for cultural heritage, sports and education. In the Spanish city of Terrassa, the Department of Citizenship and Civil Rights, which employs a workforce of just seven people, is responsible for policies in this area, while in the Belgian city of Liège, the mayor’s department is charged with this responsibility, albeit with devolved responsibility for diversity in employment. In the Czech Republic’s capital city of Prague, responsibility comes under the remit of the Ministry of Work and Social Affairs, while in Frankfurt it falls to the Department of Integration, which incorporates an Office of Multicultural Affairs (Amt fuer multikulturelle Angelegenheiten, AmkA) overseen by a city councillor. Established as early as 1989, AmkA’s focus is on promoting peaceful relations between groups, including the development of equal opportunities and anti-discrimination measures. Implementation of initiatives is undertaken by Frankfurt’s separate departments, including the Health Office, the International Library Office and the Office of Youth and Social Services, while the personnel department conducts intercultural training and motivates migrants to apply for
apprenticeships. Similarly, in Stuttgart, the Department of Integration is in charge of strategy on integration and diversity – although in the area of service delivery, the responsibility lies with the individual departments concerned, for which there is, in practice, usually no staff member with specific responsibility.

**Brescia – Office of Integration and Citizenship**

Brescia’s Office of Integration and Citizenship is the operating arm of the city council which is responsible for integrating immigrants. The office seeks to:

- receive and orientate immigrants in the city;
- act as a resource for the city’s administration in the management and governance of problems related to immigration;
- promote processes of integration;
- promote the rights and duties of citizenship;
- develop projects aimed at welcoming asylum seekers;
- enable new residents to obtain socioeconomic independence;
- sustain their participation in public life.

The front office provides five main types of service to members of the public in relation to:

- legal issues – offering information and advice on Italian law and on reducing the risk of illegal behaviour;
- acceptance and integration – developing empathy to help make customers feel comfortable; evaluating needs with the help of a cultural mediator and experts in law and psychology; attempting to resolve problems; referring people to the relevant institutions;
- bureaucratic assistance – providing help on filling out various forms, including the residency permit;
- entrepreneurial advice – offering support to aspiring foreign entrepreneurs, to assist in the evaluation of opportunities and identification of available resources; providing support in choosing an enterprise; offering information and assistance on financial opportunities; and connecting interested parties to the network of services provided by the province, region and municipal council;
refugee issues – providing information and orientation on the legislation and procedures in force regarding the Right of Asylum; offering consultancy on applications for political asylum; giving support in accelerating processing requests; providing orientation on local services, such as health assistance, demographic offices, tax offices, employment agencies, accommodation offices, and other public and private authorities.

The Office of Integration and Citizenship also offers ‘accommodation research’, which provides advice to migrants on renting accommodation or buying a home. To date, this service has given assistance to over 3,300 migrants.

Elected representatives
In some local authorities, elected representatives take a leadership role, which is ‘hands-on’ in terms of policy development and – for instance – in chairing the committee that oversees the implementation of such policies. In other authorities, the responsibility for developing policy lies more clearly with senior administrators, who in turn report to the elected representatives from whom approval is needed.

In the cities of Amsterdam, Arnsberg, Breda, Brescia and Stuttgart, the city mayor takes a personal interest in such policies – although in the Dutch cities and Antwerp, an ‘alderman’ has official responsibility for this policy area. In Copenhagen, the city mayor’s portfolio includes the issue of equal opportunities in employment, covering the broad categories of gender, ethnicity, disability and sexual orientation. At the same time, a deputy mayor has responsibility through a special Integration Office for the coordination of integration policies for immigrants and ‘descendants of non-western origin’, as does a deputy mayor in Tallinn. In Frankfurt, one of the elected members of the city government has been nominated to deal with integration, multicultural affairs and diversity, while in Malmö a deputy mayor fulfils this role. In Prague, the City Councillor for Social Care and Housing Policy is responsible for integration issues. In Sefton, a councillor takes the lead in relation to both equality and diversity and for communities, while internally each directorate has its own equality group brought together in a Corporate Equalities Group led by the chief executive. In Wolverhampton, the elected leader of the council took personal responsibility for chairing an Equalities Project Board, which oversaw delivery of the city’s equality plan. In Turin, an Aldermanship for Integration Policies has recently been established in support of the existing Municipal Foreigners and Nomads Office, attesting the increasing relevance
of this policy area in the local administration. In Vienna, where the chief executive takes responsibility for diversity in employment, the importance of leadership in relation to this priority is emphasised.

**Accountability of departments and staff**

Leadership by the city mayor or another elected representative does not necessarily imply a greater capacity to deliver policies on the part of the responsible officials. For example, if the staff report to the mayor but are more junior than the key decision-makers among the staff, this can create tensions that may limit progress. It is apparent from the city reports that, where a department is designated to take the lead, a key factor in terms of impact is whether that department is given any leverage over the approach taken in the departments responsible for delivery – in other words, whether its role is to advise and encourage, or if it has the capacity to ensure that diversity issues are reflected across the administration. Vienna, for instance, has begun to build delivery on diversity issues into the formal expectations of each department, requiring them to clearly indicate what they aim to achieve in relation to diversity during the year. Similarly, Antwerp is integrating diversity goals into the annual work plans of its departments: it instructs the directors of all city companies to determine substantive priorities on diversity and to include these in the operational company plans; the departments are also required to appoint a diversity officer. In Stuttgart, the Department of Integration Policy, having found inconsistencies across departments, now conducts regular meetings with the heads of all municipal offices to establish monitoring systems on diversity in the provision of services. Meanwhile, in Frankfurt, although the AmkA is influential in the municipality, it cannot instruct its departments and many do not have a designated person responsible for integration issues. Similarly, within departments in some cities, such as Wolverhampton, there is a greater move towards building diversity or equality goals into the expectations of individual managers and their performance assessment.

**Consultation and collaboration with other groups**

Many cities recognise the contribution that NGOs, community groups and the social partners have made to integration before it became a priority for the cities themselves. As a result, they continue to work with such groups in a number of ways: for example, by drawing on their advice and expertise; relying on them to deliver training, for instance on cultural awareness issues among their staff, as seen in the case of Valencia; and funding them to provide a wide
range of services to migrants (see Chapter 4). In some cases, the cities have entered into a formal partnership arrangement with such groups.

It is now common practice for the cities to consult migrant community groups – whether on an impromptu basis, as seen in Turku, or consistently – when developing policies or services targeted at these groups. Of those cities that have an established structure for consultation, the composition, mode of representation, role and extent of influence may vary. Some cities fund and facilitate a consultative body for ethnic minorities and/or migrants, as seen in the case of Copenhagen's Integration Council, which includes the social partners and has a role in evaluating the outcome of the city's integration policy. In Mataró, consultation takes place with the voluntary sector through its Council on Living Together – a forum that facilitates cooperation, for instance, on language tuition. The city of Vienna funds the Viennese Integration Conference (*Wiener Integrationskonferenz*, WIK), an umbrella organisation of migrant associations that represents their views and organises ‘ethnic’ and topic-related working groups and conferences. In Tallinn, a Consultative Council has been in place since 2003, enabling discussion with leaders of the larger national minority groups. Meanwhile, Arnsberg and Frankfurt have established a Foreigners' Council, providing for the elected political representation of foreigners in the city and whose proposals must be considered. In Stuttgart, an International Committee comprises 12 informed residents who are recommended by the city's mayor; the committee cooperates closely with welfare organisations, which help the city to devise new approaches. In the city of Zagreb, national minority groups each have their own elected councils and representatives, which are formally represented in negotiations with the city council.

For some cities, the relationship with NGOs involves both consultation and services provision. The city of Turku, for instance, contributes to the running costs of an umbrella body for local multicultural and immigrant organisations, called SONDIP; this body, in turn, provides advice to the city on an ad hoc basis, along with information to immigrants. At the same time, the city's Cultural Centre also helps immigrants to organise activities, assisting them in finding venues and sources of finance.
İzmir – Encouraging civil society

For several decades, a broad spectrum of associations has represented groups from the former Ottoman territories, such as Bulgarians, Kosovars and Macedonians. This has provided a platform for continuing local cultural traditions and facilitating the development of social networks to represent their interests at local, regional and national levels. In 2004, the government eased legal requirements for the registration of civil society organisations, which had previously been required to register with the police. Related changes to the law on associations favoured the expansion of the civil society sector. At the same time, the governor's administration in İzmir established a public relations office to promote NGOs and provide advice on how to establish organisations as well as on the registration process itself. By 2007, about 1,200 new organisations had been registered in the city district of Konak alone. Roma and regional kinship associations are among the groups that have taken advantage of the more liberalised rules. While the majority of newly founded associations focus on leisure activities, such as sports and dancing, İzmir’s developing civil-society sector provides new opportunities for the recognition of diversity at local level.

Antwerp’s experience demonstrates the difficulty that an advisory body can experience in moving from a marginal degree of influence to a more central position, and the way in which it can be undermined by conflicting roles. For many years, the city supported an Ethnic Minorities Council in which migrant community organisations are represented. However, the council has never succeeded in profiling itself as an advisory body that could influence political decision making. Rather, it has struggled with a dual role – as both an advisory body and as a pressure group. This has led to a profound crisis in the council and the likelihood that it will be dismantled; more specifically, it is considered by some to be an old-fashioned model that increases polarisation rather than strengthening dialogue.

Even where consultative bodies work well, cities can face significant challenges in reaching beyond ‘community leaders’ to consult individuals within migrant communities, including women. Hence, additional means of consultation in relation to particular policies and services are often organised separately from the formal consultative body. The Dutch city of Breda, for instance, ensured that migrants contributed to a council-wide initiative that sought to encourage local people to contribute innovative ideas aimed at improving the city.
The idea of inviting citizens to give ideas on how to improve their city has gained ground in many Dutch cities. For its part, Breda city has put in place a fund of €10 million over four years to encourage citizens to offer ideas about their environment, as well as to increase social cohesion and support disadvantaged groups. In less than a year, since January 2007, the city had already received 117 ideas; many of these ideas were given by migrant associations on how to improve the situation in the neighbourhoods in which they live. The initiative was advertised at the information meetings of the migrant associations. When a person recommends a project idea that looks attractive, the city officials help to turn it into a well-written proposal with a budget, ensuring that less well-educated people can also participate in the process. One example of an idea that was put into practice is the ‘Spraaksaam’ (speak together) project, which was devised by a teacher. The initiative invites mothers into the classroom and involves them in their children’s education. In this way, immigrant mothers become less isolated, are more involved in their child’s school performance and are given the chance to get to know other active mothers in the neighbourhood.

Social partner involvement

While many cities regularly negotiate with the trade unions on certain aspects of employment policy, some have noted that diversity or equality policies relating to the cities’ own employment were either not prioritised or raised at all by the trade unions. In contrast, regular engagement often occurs in relation to advice and services provision for migrants, which, in some cities, the trade unions are heavily involved in (see Chapter 4). Eleven of the cities reported dialogue with the trade unions on diversity issues, while eight indicated that no such dialogue took place. For instance, the city of Turku reported that diversity had never been on the agenda of its regular meetings with trade union representatives, whereas Malmö’s ‘Action plan to promote integration in the city’ specifically mentions the importance of trade unions. As a result, the unions are engaged in integration projects funded by the city and have a formal role in relation to complaints of discrimination. In Amsterdam, a Central Employee Council has recently been established with a representative from each service and, significantly, diversity is one of the first topics on which it intends to report. Meanwhile, the cities of Arnsberg, Frankfurt, Stuttgart and Vienna all emphasise the inclusion of the social partners, such as the chambers of industry and commerce and the trade unions. Similarly, Copenhagen’s Integration Policy (2006) specifically refers to the importance of the social
partners, with whom it works closely on job creation projects, and considers maintaining a healthy labour market as a shared responsibility. The city’s trade unions report that diversity policy and the recruitment of migrants have remained uncontroversial. The city of Valencia has also encouraged the involvement of the trade unions in developing its integration strategy.

**Formal partnerships**

Some cities have entered into formal partnerships with external organisations in order to coordinate policy and/or to collaborate in the delivery of services. Sefton Council, for example, has entered into a partnership with the Sefton Council for Voluntary Sector Organisations to create the Sefton Equality Partnership; the latter seeks to guarantee a coordinated approach across the public and voluntary sectors, ensuring that the participating organisations are not only consulted but that they are also actively involved in the design of services so that they meet migrants’ needs. Dublin City Council is part of, and a lead agency within, a broader partnership called the Dublin City Development Board, in which municipalities, relevant public agencies, NGOs and social partners jointly develop their overarching approach. In Wolverhampton, collaboration with other local public, voluntary and private organisations on a broad range of issues takes place through the Wolverhampton Partnership. In addition, the city has a Race Equality Partnership in place since 2005, which aims to support public as well as private and third-sector organisations in implementing race relations legislative duties.

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**Sefton – Working in partnership to ‘deliver quality through equality’**

The Sefton Equalities Partnership (SEP) was established in 2006 when the Sefton Metropolitan Borough Council and other key public bodies came together with the Sefton Council for Voluntary Services to collaborate on equality and diversity planning. The goal of this initiative is ‘to enable all members of Sefton’s diverse community to fully participate in the social, economic and political life of the borough’. Supported by a multi-agency delivery team, the SEP is responsible for ensuring a coordinated approach to equality and diversity across the council and its partners. The current members of the SEP are:

- Community Empowerment Networks, which give a voice to disadvantaged groups;
- Sefton Metropolitan Borough Council;
The formation of this partnership represents a significant shift from organisations working in isolation on equality issues, towards a more systematic approach to the issues of race, gender, disability, age, sexual orientation, and religion or belief. This joined-up approach means that the importance of racial equality is now more widely accepted throughout the council and local population. During the partnership’s first 12 months, it won a number of equality and diversity related awards.

The city of Terrassa’s ‘New Migration Roundtable’ is an interesting model, as it not only facilitates debate, consultation and participation, but also provides a forum for evaluating the city's integration strategy. The initiative comprises representatives of migrant groups, NGOs, neighbourhood associations, trade unions, employer organisations, political groups with democratic representation in the council, as well as relevant departments across the council. The engagement of these partners has made it possible to obtain feedback on the impact of local policies and to address administrative barriers that migrants may face.

Contract compliance
Among the city authorities that contract services out to external organisations, six have built equality and diversity principles into their contracts, including those in Copenhagen, Stuttgart and Wolverhampton. This provision seeks to ensure that the service provider meets the needs of migrants and does not discriminate against them as employees or service users.
Wolverhampton – Local authority partnership to build equality standards into contracts

When Wolverhampton Council contracts out services, the contractor is required to fulfil requirements in relation to equality – including monitoring and providing data on their employees according to ethnicity. Other agencies in receipt of funding through the council, such as NGOs, are also required to demonstrate the adoption of equality policies and principles. The council aims to ensure that contractors comply with equality law, as well as to encourage diversity among the contractors it uses. In practice, it has been a challenge for the council to ensure that diversity objectives are adequately addressed, as so much of the council’s service delivery is now contracted out to independent providers and concerns have arisen about the level of information available on the organisations in question.

The West Midlands Common Standard for Equalities in Public Procurement (WMCS) has provided a means to address these concerns. More specifically, it has brought together six local authorities to develop an innovative pre-qualification tool. The aim of this is to ensure that service providers (contractors and partners) implement an equality policy in employment and services provision; it will store the outcomes on a common database. This will, in turn, reduce duplication for local authorities and achieve economies of scale for potential service providers. An approval for equal opportunities in one authority is accepted by the other five member councils.

In addition, Wolverhampton City Council has organised workshops to encourage a wider diversity of contractors competing for service delivery contracts with the council.

In Breda, where many generic services are also provided by privatised institutions and companies, contractors must demonstrate that they are ‘diversity proof’ in order to secure funding from the municipality. NGOs funded by the council also have to prove that they are ‘diversity proof’ if they are to receive their annual grants – a challenge for those that were established to serve the needs of a single immigrant community. In contrast, certain cities with active diversity or equality policies, such as Vienna, have not taken steps to reflect such policies in the contracts they award. Although the city of Arnsberg considered this approach, it decided that it would be both difficult and unnecessary as the contractors it uses already employ more migrants than the city itself does.
The following example of Copenhagen illustrates both the huge potential for contract compliance to impact on practice because of the sheer scale of procurement, but also the inclination of some cities to address the position of migrants within broader strategies for vulnerable groups.

**Copenhagen – Building social clauses into contracts**

Copenhagen has 15,000 private sector suppliers with a total turnover of approximately DKK 6.5 billion (about €871.5 million as at 1 August 2008) in sales to the council. In addition, the city provides subsidies of just under DKK 1 billion (€134 million) and purchases construction projects amounting to about DKK 1.2 billion (€161 million). In 2006, the city decided that it would require future contractors to share its objective of securing a workforce that reflects the city’s population – a requirement that would also apply to organisations receiving subsidies and trade unions with operational agreements with the council. The requirements would be valid for all tasks that exceed a minimum amount in terms of money or time.

The clauses were to be negotiated between the city and supplier and could include targets regarding the number of long-term unemployed people, interns or those with ‘therapeutic employment’ whom the organisation would employ. No specific reference was made to ethnicity or migrants, nor is it known as of yet what the policy’s impact will be.

**Monitoring and impact assessments**

Many cities report that the monitoring of implementation and outcomes is, at some level, built into their plans. In some instances, such efforts include external evaluation or assessment by a higher tier of the government. A commitment to introduce or strengthen monitoring and evaluation is a theme among many of the cities’ future plans. Significantly, a system for monitoring the migrant status or ethnicity of staff is usually quite separate from that of service users, and is often the responsibility of the service department itself.

Monitoring may be entirely used for internal planning and accountability purposes, or part of a voluntary reporting system to external agencies – as in the case of Terrassa’s New Migration Roundtable. Alternatively, reporting can be required by an external statutory body, as seen in the UK, where councils report to a local government inspectorate (the Audit Commission). The councils currently report on their progress in achieving a nationwide ‘equality standard’,
which measures progress in implementing procedures and in delivering outcomes; they also report on some specific equality indicators designed to ensure that local authorities deliver ‘best value’ across their employment and services. In addition, some indicators relate to ethnic minorities. These include a measure of the percentage of staff or of the top 5% of earners who are from an ethnic minority relative to the percentage of economically active people (aged 18–65) from ethnic minorities in the local authority area. A new system will measure their performance according to a range of indicators, including measures of equality and cohesion, alongside the performance of other local agencies.

A key factor in a city's capacity to measure progress in achieving equality and diversity objectives is the extent of its data collection. A marked difference is evident between the cities in the CLIP network that monitor the ethnicity, country of birth or nationality of their employees and service users and those that traditionally have not done so. In total, 11 of the CLIP cities currently monitor their employees by nationality, country of birth or ethnicity, including nine cities that also collect some data on seniority; two of the cities are planning to do so, while 10 have no such plans. One of the cities had begun to do so because of its engagement in CLIP. Similarly, 15 of the cities said that they had conducted some form of monitoring in relation to one or more of these categories among service users, while two indicated that they had monitored all services and a further two monitored none.

While some consider data collection as an essential exercise for identifying barriers to equality and for monitoring progress, others perceive monitoring as discriminatory or capable of reinforcing perceived differences. Departments in cities such as Zagreb, which do not conduct any monitoring, are still expected to be able to report on progress that has been made in policy implementation and its impact.

Local authorities in the UK have a statutory duty to monitor the position of ethnic minorities, including those who are UK born, in their employment. They are required to publish this data annually. This duty, which was extended in 2000, requires a public authority with more than 150 employees to monitor its workforce by ethnic group, including the:

- number of staff in the post;
- applicants for employment, training and promotion;
- staff who receive training, who benefit or are disadvantaged as a result of performance assessment procedures;
- staff involved in grievance or disciplinary procedures or who cease employment.

UK public bodies are also expected to assess the potential impact of new policies and services on different groups, and their performance is monitored by the Audit Commission. A failure to fulfil responsibilities in relation to ethnic minorities could also be challenged by the Equality and Human Rights Commission, which can use the published data to review performance across local authorities as a whole. However, while UK authorities monitor ethnicity, their data do not in most cases identify their migrant population, that is those who are foreign born or foreign nationals. In contrast, the German cities of Arnsberg, Frankfurt and Stuttgart monitor at least the number of foreigners in their workforce and are considering whether to also monitor those with a migration background.

**Wolverhampton – Equality Impact Assessments**

To ensure that it is promoting race equality, Wolverhampton Council is required to undertake Equality Impact Assessments of its policies and services, where they may have a differential impact on ethnic minorities. This is part of its statutory duty to have due regard to the need to promote equality when fulfilling its functions. The intention is that the potential impact of new policies and practices should be considered before implementation, to enable the city to avoid negative consequences that could have been anticipated, and to realise opportunities to achieve greater equality in access and outcomes.

Impact assessments aim to:

- investigate the potential impact of a proposal on different sections of the community – for example of new public housing plans, or on the council's workforce, taking into account the views of those affected;
- enable the council to take steps to minimise negative consequences and to maximise opportunities for promoting equality.

These assessments are made public. Where unmet needs or inequalities are identified, improvement targets may be set and action plans designed to achieve them.
The city of Amsterdam also has a long record of monitoring developments in its migrant population, and its statistical office produces regular reports on a topic by topic basis. The southern Dutch city of Breda began its monitoring activities in 2004, the baseline year against which it has compared data for 2007. The data are taken from the municipal statistical department and from national reports, and are supplemented by focus groups on social participation and contacts between Dutch and other ethnic groups.

The lack of a designated budget and cost of monitoring are often mentioned as constraining factors; in Breda’s case, the cost had to be met from within the diversity budget. As a cost-effective supplement to its internal monitoring, the evaluation of local policies is sometimes carried out by doctoral students as part of their PhD project. In Antwerp, university-based research similarly provides an additional means to monitor progress, while a broader University of Ghent study on sustainable development in cities uses 190 indicators to monitor change.

Cities may use monitoring as a means of assessing progress (including that of individual departments), as a tool for forward planning, and as a way to raise awareness. Copenhagen, for instance, has an extensive system of monitoring, based on different criteria including race, gender, disability and sexual orientation, with an annual procedure for choosing objectives and setting targets. Nevertheless, the system is used more as a tool for promoting awareness within departments and for diagnostic purposes, rather than as an instrument for top-down control of the effectiveness of policies. Departments set the targets themselves and deliver material for evaluation. Similarly, Turku is currently evaluating the extent to which city departments have implemented its 2006 action plan to promote equality, in preparation for a new plan, by issuing a questionnaire to all departments. Neither the plans nor the questionnaire refer to concrete targets and figures; rather, they are designed to raise the profile of the issues and currently have a stronger focus on gender and disability than on migrants. Turku argues that the departments within the city are so different, ranging from the harbour to youth departments, that only they can choose the goals and means through which such objectives will be achieved.

Many cities are planning to extend their data collection activities. For example, Frankfurt has decided to establish a detailed monitoring system using a set of indicators – including those pertaining to education levels, employment and
dependence on social welfare – in order to inform future policy and service development. Biennial reports have already been compiled on the supply of migrant specific services; at the same time, the city’s personnel department surveys the number of foreigners and people born abroad in each department, along with the number of apprenticeship applications – data that are made public. Over the next three years, the city of Liège is also planning to develop a system that monitors both appointments and access to training and promotion and, for instance, ‘walkouts’. This will help to identify whether people of a migration background are experiencing any particular barriers in employment in the authority and whether working conditions need to be adapted for any specific target group.

Finally, a number of the cities under consideration have limited monitoring or none. Luxembourg, for instance, does not monitor the ethnicity of its staff and service users; nor does it monitor progress in delivering equality and diversity, given the absence of policies in this regard in the city administration. Similarly, Dublin does not monitor the ethnicity of its staff, as its HR department considers this to be discriminatory. Nevertheless, some of the city’s services have begun to monitor their service users in an effort to ensure that they are meeting their diverse needs. Administrators of Dublin’s library services, for instance, discovered from this monitoring that they were servicing people of 120 different nationalities in 2006, which represented a rise of 36% since 2001. Significantly, Ireland’s national Equality Authority advises employers that they should monitor the ethnicity of job applicants, along with job offers and promotion, to assess progress in achieving equality; at the same time, service providers should collect data on the ethnicity of customers to ensure equality of access and service outcomes. In this respect, the CLIP cities may find the Irish Equality Authority’s accessible guidance on equality and diversity helpful in reviewing their own approach.7

**Addressing discrimination**

The law should provide protection from discrimination, and some cities support this with an internal code of practice – as seen in Prague, where staff are required to behave politely and helpfully irrespective of a client’s ethnic or social origin. Nonetheless, obtaining evidence of unlawful practices is never

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straightforward and evidence of discrimination is no exception. Research, including ‘personal testing’, has nevertheless established that discrimination still persists in European states, including within public services (see, for instance, FRA, 2007a).

Most cities provide a complaints mechanism for employees or job applicants who feel that they have been unfairly treated. Moreover, as seen in Finland, individuals may have the additional option of complaining to an Ombudsman, or to a specialist national office for employment rights or equal opportunities. Trade unions may also take up cases on behalf of the individuals concerned. Cities report that their complaints systems cover staff with a migration background in the same way as others; however, in most cases, with the exception of Wolverhampton, they do not monitor whether there are more or fewer complaints against those staff. In no case did reports by or against staff with a migration background emerge as a significant issue. This may reflect a lack of concerns among migrant employees, although it could also imply an unwillingness to complain or a lack of awareness of such procedures. In general, awareness or the lack thereof among city employees of the existence of discrimination and its possible consequences is an important consideration: when such awareness is lacking, policy initiatives are absent and existing procedures underused. This may be the case in cities with only recent experience of migrants. In Turku, for instance, a 2006 survey of permanent staff, to which 68% responded, revealed that only 5% of respondents believed that discrimination on ethnic grounds existed. Given this low level, it is not surprising that anti-discrimination has not been a strong focus in its policy and procedures. The fact that the city employed only 58 immigrants (defined as having a mother tongue other than Finnish or Swedish) out of its more than 14,000 salaried staff in 2007 was not perceived to be an issue and hence did not lead to policy action.

Liège – New efforts to address discrimination

Liège has plans to take further steps to address discrimination. More specifically, the city intends to:

- undertake a survey on discrimination among its employees, in conjunction with an expert on diversity management;
- improve relationships with target groups, such as migrants, by organising information points within the cabinet, departments and intercultural organisations subsidised by the city;
improve the complaints process and recognise additional forms of discrimination in the city's diversity policy;

- adopt a circular on the principles of neutrality and equal treatment for all, and on the rights and duties of staff regarding discrimination;

- provide each staff member with a memorandum on diversity management with their pay cheque;

- provide all directors and top managers with instructions signed by the city's mayor in order to sensitize them to diversity;

- appoint diversity ‘ambassadors’ to liaise between the diversity working group and staff;

- run a visible campaign, including charters against racism and gender discrimination, which will be made available on display boards and through information on the city intranet;

- encourage additional data collection on the gender, age and ethnic origin of staff.

Liège also intends to introduce a ‘reception programme’ for new staff, which will address diversity and equal opportunities policy. Workshops on equality and diversity for existing staff have already been organised and more are planned for city mediators and top-level management.

Many but not all cities have a specific policy which covers harassment at work; this either implicitly or explicitly includes harassment on the grounds of race or migrant status. Such polices may be introduced to comply with national laws, as in the case of Dublin, or may be a specific policy adopted by the authority. Dublin’s policy defines harassment as ‘any behaviour, including verbal, gestures or the circulation of material, which is unwelcome to the employee and could reasonably be regarded as offensive, humiliating or intimidating’. Bullying is defined as ‘repeated inappropriate behaviour, which could reasonably be regarded as undermining the individual’s right to dignity at work’. The city's policy sets down informal and formal procedures for making complaints of harassment or bullying at work, as well as measures for the resolution process.

The policy of an authority may enable an individual victim of harassment to make a complaint and a request for mediation. If harassment had occurred, it would be a disciplinary issue. Physical harassment would be reported to the police. In some cases, however, cities provide an opportunity to resolve the matter informally at first, as seen in Amsterdam, where the individual can talk
to a ‘confidentiality person’ within the administration, without immediately involving their superiors. Many cities have a designated office or individual in place for investigating complaints that need to be taken further. Liège, for example, has an anti-harassment unit and, in its social services department, two social workers who deal with this issue. Similarly, Sefton has appointed specially trained officers to deal with harassment and bullying who are able to provide support, advice and guidance. In Sefton, a complaint may be resolved informally: the alleged victim approaches the alleged harasser (with the support of a manager or trade union representative), identifies the offending behaviour and requests that it be stopped. Alternatively, a formal investigation may be launched, supported by personnel and trade unions on request.

Wolverhampton City Council has a harassment policy in place as part of its disciplinary procedure, and encourages employees to report such incidents either informally or formally through its grievance procedure. These ‘disciplinary, grievance and capability procedures’ are monitored according to the ethnicity of staff as part of the council’s equality monitoring framework. The city of Vienna established a harassment helpdesk in 2006 as a contact point for municipal employees directly or indirectly affected by harassment; the helpdesk is located in the office of the independent officer for occupational safety and health, which, when the Viennese Anti-Discrimination Act entered into force in September 2004, was designated to act as the ‘officer for anti-discrimination issues’ on behalf of Vienna. Any municipal employee who is affected by harassment in their job can seek the assistance of this office. In Breda, if harassment is allegedly carried out by a service user, the municipal employees of the information council in can refuse to provide the service.

In total, 10 cities reported that they keep records of discrimination complaints made against the city authority. Cities such as zmir, which have a discrimination or harassment procedure but do not monitor this procedure, were unable to say whether staff from minority backgrounds were more or less likely to use it. Due to concerns that discrimination exists, the city of Tallinn is conducting a survey in 2008 as a first step to addressing this problem.

**Discrimination against service users**

The issue of discrimination by staff against service users with a migration background is acknowledged in some of the city reports. This includes cases of direct discrimination, such as the refusal of a private school to accept migrant children, which led the city of Mataró to withdraw its subsidy to the
school. Alternatively, it may relate to instances of indirect discrimination, such as the decision by an Italian regional body responsible for the allocation of public housing to add length of residence as one of the selection criteria. As a result, one city reported that while 50% of applications come from foreign citizens, they comprise only 7% of those who receive housing.

Migrants may not be aware that they have a right to complain of discrimination. Therefore, some cities have taken steps to make migrants aware that they have a right to complain, such as Arnsberg under the motto ‘fishing for complaints instead of fishing for compliments’. To this end, an office has been established, which can be accessed by phone, mail or through personal contact, to ‘fish’ for all kinds of complaints, guaranteeing a response within three days. The city of Liège gives information on how to make complaints of discrimination on its website; elsewhere in the country, such a service has yet to be provided. However, it should be highlighted that proving discrimination can be difficult.

In Copenhagen, service users can take discrimination complaints to a Citizens’ Advice Service, which will mediate between the complainant and the city authority. The service is advertised to raise awareness of its availability and reports annually on the cases it has received. In addition, the city provides training to staff on how to recognise and combat discrimination; at the same time, it has asked its departments to make plans to tackle discrimination internally, although the results of the latter are reported to be ‘poor’. The city of Stuttgart offers a ‘yellow card’ system in which service users can enter ideas, raise questions, or issue praise or complaints. Of the 14,200 cards received over the past decade, 73% were complaints and 16% were ideas. Fewer cards focused on praise, except in relation to positive comments on the behaviour of staff. The system is not monitored on the basis of nationality or ethnicity, nor is it necessarily entirely suitable for discrimination complaints, as users can only articulate the complaint in writing. In Frankfurt, migrants who feel they have suffered discrimination can complain to the Office for Multicultural Affairs, which not only forwards the complaint to the relevant office but itself conducts enquiries and inspects files. In 2005, the office received 58 complaints of discrimination from migrants, of which about half concerned the municipality and were all resolved through communication and mediation.
Malmö – Model for addressing discrimination complaints

The Malmö Anti-Discrimination Bureau is an NGO, funded by the municipality and some 20 independent groups. The office receives complaints of discrimination on grounds of gender, disability, ethnicity and sexuality; the issue of age discrimination will also soon be considered. The office has three main duties: to address individual complaints, disseminate information about the law, and influence society, decision-makers and the media on anti-discrimination issues.

A significant characteristic of the Swedish labour market which makes discrimination easier to detect than in other countries is that all job applicants have to be informed of who received the particular job. Therefore, it is easier for applicants in Sweden than in other countries to investigate cases of employment discrimination. Labour complaints usually involve coordination with trade union representatives. The majority (70%–80%) of complaints in Malmö relate to ethnicity, mainly involving labour market discrimination, housing, refusal of admission to discos and restaurants, and harassment on the streets. Of the complaints received, the majority are resolved through counselling, with the remaining cases taken to court or forwarded to the central Swedish Ombudsman on Ethnic Discrimination. Although complainants are required to pay a membership fee, support is offered to clients who cannot afford to pay.

When the Anti-Discrimination Bureau finds that discrimination has occurred, it will phone the employer, explain the law and issue a warning. This helps to ensure that employers are fully aware of the law and of the implications of discrimination. The bureau works on a local basis, which is an advantage compared with the national ombudsman; its staff know the local situation well and are therefore more influential in their efforts.

Challenges facing cities

The cities in the CLIP network appear to be at very different stages in developing their approach to managing diversity. They range from cities like Amsterdam and Wolverhampton that have extensive experience, to cities such as Prague and Zagreb that are at an early stage in such endeavours. Even among those cities with lengthy experience, new approaches are being introduced. Thus, huge variation exists in the emerging patterns. However, it is possible to identify some common themes in relation to the challenges these cities are experiencing, as the following sections show.
Lack of vision and leadership

A common challenge reported by departments overseeing equality and diversity initiatives or their integration is engaging and persuading other departments within the authority – including those whose service is essential in such agenda – that they should make these issues a priority. Moreover, the department in charge may itself lack the authority to require cooperation, be too distanced from the corporate decision-makers, or lack political backing among elected members. As one city noted, ‘within a strong hierarchical organisation, the middle management will only implement and support changes if it is convinced this is what the higher management and politicians want’. Another city reported that:

Politicians, managers and media do not find special policies very urgent because there are no serious problems or tensions between ethnic groups. Compared with other cities, we have a limited percentage of non-western immigrants. On the occasion that a national plan concerning immigrants and diversity was launched, and we were invited to participate, it took the diversity officer extreme effort to convince the responsible alderman that the city is really needed in this project. One of our partners remarked in despair: ‘Does a murder have to take place, before we can proceed?’

Underlying this problem can be a lack of vision in relation to what the authority is trying to achieve; as one report noted, ‘the city has a variety of innovative measures but no coherent concept or concrete aims – a big challenge for the committed employees’.

Another difficulty may be a lack of understanding of how equality and diversity issues impact on the well-being of the population as a whole, and how they should thus be a mainstream concern for all departments. An important lesson has been the need for clear links between diversity policies in employment and services provision with wider strategies so that, as Wolverhampton reported, the diversity and equality priority is seen as a city-wide agenda, and not as a ‘separate’ policy issue, or one that is only of relevance to particular groups. As the Antwerp city report concluded: ‘The city needs to develop a clear vision on its diversity policy, [through] top down support and a translation into mandates and tasks at all city levels, in monitoring and evaluation.’
Low staff awareness and expertise
Staff resistance can also be a barrier to progress. One city noted that ‘not all municipal employees seem to be aware that a higher proportion of employees with a migration background can improve the quality of services’. Moreover, managing diversity can be challenging, especially in an organisation that tries to develop a more diverse workforce in a difficult political context. Cities have found that, in order to secure compliance across the authority, it is necessary to increase the awareness and expertise of their own staff and to create a stronger ‘learning culture’. One city authority regretted the fact that:

The organisation[al] culture in the city does not yet create space for initiatives and experiments. For the diversity policy, experiments and initiatives are very important. If the personnel are afraid of the consequences in case of failed initiatives and experiments, they are less willing to change.

The lack of migrants among employees is also identified as a barrier, as well as the extent to which expertise on diversity issues may be held by only one senior person in the organisation. This means that staff turnover can lead to such expertise being lost, in turn reducing the city’s progress in this respect. As one city report noted:

It seems dangerous that the diversity manager is on his/her own. Their knowledge and probably a large part of the network would disappear when this officer decides to take another job. Within the municipality, there are managers who don’t know anything about diversity.

Lack of staff numbers and other resources
In some cities, the challenge is simply a general shortage of staff. For example, one Italian city reported that staff shortages, coupled with lack of sufficient training, mean that ‘many initiatives for migrants’ integration are still implemented in a fragmented way and often delegated to third sector and religious organisations’. Elsewhere, the problem could relate to a localised staff shortage. The city of Antwerp, for instance, cited the lack of staff in the personnel department as ‘a stumbling block for implementation’, noting that ‘there are so many other problems to solve which also require personnel time and which are also crucial for the proper operation of the department’. A related issue is the pressure of existing staff workloads: comprehensive monitoring, for instance, can be time-consuming, as noted in Sefton, as can
new initiatives and projects. Without additional staffing or funding, employees may resist implementing the plan.

The cities also cited restrictions on national funding as a major issue, whether in relation to a lack of funds or the way in which these funds can be spent. Turin’s city authority expressed its regret that central funds were aimed at mainstream European projects, such as EQUAL, and could not be used for more innovative and locally targeted projects. Some cities also noted that national funding streams tended to be geared towards short-term intervention rather than medium to long-term planning. Tensions have also arisen over who should fund the services provided to migrants, as seen in Turku, which has received refugees deliberately referred by smaller authorities when government funding for them came to an end.

**Local public resistance**
Some cities cite community tensions as a challenge, requiring them to be particularly cautious when implementing plans that, while intended only to ensure fair and equal treatment of migrants, could be misconstrued as giving them preferential treatment. In Mataró, local complaints about a lack of services, such as public nurseries, healthcare and education, have been exacerbated by the arrival of immigrants, making the authority’s efforts to ensure equal access to services a sensitive issue. On the other hand, the city has not observed any tensions in relation to the recruitment of migrants into specialist posts within the council; rather, the highly qualified professionals who have been recruited are well respected and deemed a welcome solution to the problems that the departments have been experiencing.

Public hostility can also be exacerbated by the media. Turin, in particular, points to the impact of local newspapers, which draw attention to crimes involving migrants. It considers that such reports are responsible for increasing the perception of migrants as being a threat to public security; in reality, there has been a substantial reduction in such crimes being committed in the city. As a result, it is reported that the city’s initiatives to promote the social and labour market integration of migrants are looked on with suspicion, especially by Italian citizens who are themselves experiencing disadvantage. Barriers can also be created by far-right politicians. For instance, Malmö notes that a small number of councillors representing far-right parties regularly challenge the budget allocation for integration projects. Antwerp reports that the presence of a strong far-right and anti-immigrant political party in the city council makes
the topic of migration and foreigners politically controversial. On the other hand, where the issue lacks a political profile, this can result in less momentum to address it.

**Inconsistency across departments**
For all of the aforementioned reasons, a gap can emerge between policy and implementation. Thus, while some cities may have an excellent plan in place, their capacity to implement it may be limited; alternatively, a positive initiative in one department may not have been institutionalised across the organisation. As a result, in 10 of the cities under consideration (including many of those which are most engaged in diversity and equality issues), a consistent approach is lacking; some departments enthusiastically embrace the need to ensure equal access for migrants and minorities, while others have barely considered changing their approaches to enable this change. This is evident among certain HR departments, which, while implementing anti-discrimination procedures, have not recognised the need to ensure that migrants and people of migrant origin have equal access to jobs in the authority; this is also apparent in the case of some service departments.

Even where leadership is strong on diversity and equality issues, some cities warn that establishing cooperation across the authority and its external partners takes time. Most innovative approaches are dependent upon an isolated group of highly committed employees, rather than being institutionalised across the authority as a whole. As one city report concluded:

> It has turned out to be difficult to secure this process within the organisation, which has to do with a lack of urgency, a lack of insight among some of the managers why activity is needed, the automatic tendency of the organisation to replicate itself without being aware of it and probably also a fear that right-wing staff members or outsiders might protest and get press attention. In theory, immigrants have equal chances, but in practice a large-scale change in attitude is necessary.

**Undocumented migrants**
A further challenge is the presence of undocumented or ‘irregular’ migrants, who have welfare needs that the municipal authorities cannot ignore. However, the authorities may not receive funding for people in this category if the funding formula is based on legal migrant numbers; moreover, the city may be expected to report their presence to the national authorities. Thus, a conflict between a legal requirement to refuse assistance to irregular migrants and their evident
need for services can place local authorities in a difficult position. In Frankfurt, a range of officials (including teachers, but excluding medical staff) are prevented by law from providing such assistance. Nevertheless, the city has a budget for addressing the needs of children of irregular migrants, which it uses to provide services through NGOs. Terrassa similarly notes that because the municipality itself cannot easily set up services for irregular migrants, NGOs such as the Red Cross, trade unions and Caritas take responsibility for meeting their needs. Inconsistencies can also arise within one country due to differing regional approaches. For example, while Frankfurt’s schools must reject the children of irregular migrants, in other parts of Germany pupils are required to attend school regardless of their legal status and teachers are not oblied to report them. In Spain, the municipal authorities register irregular migrants to ensure that they can access essential services, such as healthcare and education, as well as recording their length of residence for any future regularisation process.

Conflicting national policy and political discourse

In setting its own course, a city can find that the policies or rhetoric of central government conflict with its own objectives or the tone of its approach. Cities in the Netherlands were not alone in including changes in national policy among the problems they had encountered. Vienna has also been frequently critical of federal regulations affecting migrants and believes that it has had to lead the way on integration policy. Copenhagen, meanwhile, has had to take into account a series of measures introduced at national political level, which its social democratic leadership found unhelpful; however, it argues that within those limits, a city authority can develop its own distinct approach at the local level. In Finland, national policy is aimed primarily at the adaptation of migrants, and this provides the framework for Turku’s approach; nonetheless, the city has greater sensitivity to cultural, ethnic and religious factors in the integration process than it feels is always evident at the national level. Both Amsterdam and Breda have continued to monitor the ethnicity of their staff, despite the fact that the Dutch government lifted this requirement in 2003. In the past, the city of Breda, in particular, has found it necessary to ‘swim against the tide of national policy’ when an emphasis on immigration controls and compulsory integration conflicted with its more positive view of Breda as a city where ‘everyone feels safe, welcome and respected’. In addition, cities can also find the fast pace of changing national policies and expectations a challenge, as seen in relation to changing requirements on language and citizenship tests in a number of countries.
Lengthy timescale
A final concern shared by the cities is the length of time it will take, due to the aforementioned and other broader reasons, to make progress in relation to reaching a desired level of equality in access to jobs, training and promotion, access to services, and services that meet the differing needs of their local population.
3 – Employment: Policy, practice and outcomes

A marked difference is evident between those cities that have not yet considered their potential role in promoting migrants’ labour market integration (such as Dublin) and those, such as Copenhagen that explicitly acknowledge this role:

*The city of Copenhagen is the country’s largest employer with more than 40,000 employees. It therefore has a major opportunity to influence integration in a positive direction through its own recruitment policy [...] The City of Copenhagen has the declared objective of achieving a workforce composition in the various sectors that reflects the composition of the city’s population. (City of Copenhagen, 2006)*

Where cities have considered the position of migrants and people of migration background in relation to their own employment, they have focused most strongly on the implications for their recruitment of staff and apprentices; for instance, some have reflected on the need for intercultural competency of staff and on the potential implications for working conditions.

**Recruitment and promotion**

Although almost all of the cities have a diversity or equality policy of some form in place, this was not always the case in relation to its own employment activities. Among the cities that do have such an employment diversity policy in place, some emphasise that the goal is for the workforce to reflect the diversity in the city’s population – as seen in the cases of Antwerp, Copenhagen, Malmö and Wolverhampton. Other cities emphasise the rights of migrants and, in particular, the need to ensure the equal treatment of foreign workers, as observed in Turin, or the importance of all staff respecting diversity among their colleagues, as seen in Frankfurt, Liège and Vienna. The importance of making the city attractive to migrants, given the skill and labour shortages in an ageing labour market, was a consideration for some cities. Setting an example to private companies in the city was a further objective. In relation to action or inaction regarding recruitment and promotion, the cities can be divided into four groups as follows.
Cities that have taken no action to date – Ten cities had decided that it is not appropriate or necessary to have an employment diversity policy in place (in some cases this decision was taken actively, in some cases by default, and in others to be in line with national policy). This lack of action was attributed to reasons such as wanting to remain ‘impartial’, to ‘treat all prospective employees and employees the same’, to ‘take the best person for the job’; or because they ‘have always done it this way’ or ‘hire people on specific requirements’ – for instance, hiring someone with an Arabic background to meet specific language requirements on an ad hoc basis, rather than implementing a particular policy to this end.

Cities that intend to act – Three cities reported that while they had not yet developed such a policy, they intend to do so. However, in some cases they added that ‘there is no urgency’ in this respect, as they had received no complaints or there was no shortage of applicants for the jobs. In 2002, the city of Valencia decided that ‘the administration must set an example … [through] its own employment policy’; nonetheless, it has not in practice developed such an employment diversity policy, beyond ensuring non-discrimination in recruitment.

Cities that have taken limited action to date – Four cities have taken the first step in putting anti-discrimination procedures in place. These measures seek to ensure that migrants or ethnic minorities are not treated less favourably when applying for jobs or promotion; this includes representative recruitment panels and training for panel members on their responsibilities under equality law, as seen in Dublin and Sefton. In Stuttgart, where the focus hitherto has been on developing the intercultural competency of staff, it has recently been decided to monitor job applications to identify patterns of recruitment and appointment of foreigners and to review the city’s recruitment procedures. Although valuing the cultural competencies of migrant staff, it has not included it as a core competency on a level with more traditional qualifications. Among the other cities in this category is Turku, which provides language and skills tuition to migrants, largely refugees, but which has taken no steps other than anti-discrimination procedures to address the barriers that these people may face in accessing jobs within the city administration. Prague, similarly, has not been proactive in recruiting migrants, but does have an Ethics Code in place; this code states that an employee must always behave ‘politely, helpfully and decently, irrespective of the clients’ sex, ethnic or social origin, sexual
orientation, nationality, wealth, health, age, marital status, belief, participation in political parties, trade unions or other organisations’.

It is important to note here that some cities consider it unlawful under the EU Employment Discrimination Directive to encourage applications from particular sections of the community. However, such a practice is not, in fact, unlawful. Thus, in the recommendations of this report, it is suggested that the European Commission and Council of Europe provide accessible guidance on this issue and other aspects of equality practices. Cities such as Frankfurt already provide training for staff on the implications of complying with their country’s anti-discrimination law.

**Cities that have taken a proactive approach** – The remaining nine cities covered in this report have gone beyond anti-discrimination measures, by identifying barriers that people with a migration background may face in relation to jobs in the city authority and addressing these barriers in its employment procedures. Cities included in this group are Amsterdam, Copenhagen, Frankfurt, Vienna and Wolverhampton. This group goes beyond a narrow anti-discrimination policy to promote equality of opportunity within its employment. In a minority of cases, such measures have involved reviewing the cities’ anti-discrimination procedures to ensure that no unintentional discrimination is occurring: Copenhagen, for instance, has experimented with anonymous recruitment files in order to avoid prejudice against an applicant whose name identifies them as having a particular migration background.

Most commonly, a proactive approach involves taking additional steps to ensure that people with a migration background are aware of job opportunities within the authority and that their application is welcomed. This includes measures such as: providing information about job applications; advertising in places that migrants are likely to frequent; using the network of migrant associations; explicitly encouraging migrants to apply for vacancies on the city’s website (as seen in Vienna); sending information to schools attended by migrants; informing the agencies that in turn provide migrants with job search advice; introducing training programmes in skill shortage areas; and offering exchanges for students from technical fields. Wolverhampton has increased the number of applicants from its local Asian communities by advertising jobs in their newspapers, visiting places of worship such as Sikh temples and introducing electronic recruitment initiatives, such as online advertising of vacancies and online application processes.
The cities that have taken ‘positive-action’ measures of this kind, to enable migrants to compete successfully for jobs or promotion, generally do not give any preference to migrants over other applicants in the appointment process, excluding some rare exceptions as later described.

Frankfurt – Targeted advertising and reform of recruitment procedures

In order to increase the number of municipal employees with a migration background, the city of Frankfurt has implemented a number of initiatives that seek to target advertising and information at migrant communities. These measures include:

- publishing advertisements for apprenticeships in German and foreign-language newspapers, targeting applicants with a migration background;
- assigning employees with a migration background to represent the municipality at local job fairs, as well as organising information campaigns at schools;
- redesigning the city’s website and producing an information flyer advertising apprenticeships; both measures emphasise that minority applicants are welcome to apply;
- providing information to parents with a migration background on the German educational and training system, including on the availability of apprenticeships within the municipality.

The city has reformed its recruitment procedures so that intercultural competence is considered an asset. For instance, the written part of the qualification test de-emphasises linguistic ability in favour of logistical and mathematical competence. In turn, municipal employees can attend German-language courses during working hours free of charge. Moreover, Frankfurt organises training on anti-discrimination legislation and intercultural competence for its municipal employees. Executive managers also have the option to attend workshops on ‘intercultural responsibility’ and ‘diversity management.’ More general executive training sessions cover tolerance, communicative competence and sensitivity to different cultural contexts. Intercultural training courses for employees cover the accommodation of cultural diversity, de-escalation practices and the mediation of intercultural conflict. Workshops on how to interact with specific groups, such as the Roma community and Muslims, are also available. Between 2000 and 2003, some 280 employees
attended such training. In addition, about 900 employees have participated in sessions on ‘service-oriented behaviour’, which includes a section on intercultural competence.

In the Netherlands, several employee databases, employment bureaus and head-hunting agencies provide only immigrant candidates for jobs. The city of Amsterdam uses these agencies to find highly qualified personnel. Meanwhile, Malmö has introduced an initiative whereby it invites skilled migrants to come to the authority to show managers what they can do. At the same time, Breda has brought migrant women and community representatives together with employers to highlight the types of talents that are available.

**Breda – Enabling staff to meet migrants**

Confident that managers are more likely to recruit migrants if they have contact with those who live in the city, Breda’s Diversity Officer arranges informal ‘meet and greet meetings’ between staff members and groups of immigrants. In 2007, some 60 representatives of African organisations attended a meeting that took place at the municipal building, followed by a similar event held for Moroccans. The reasoning behind this initiative is that intercultural training is not sufficient; direct contact is also needed, allowing for personal communication. Officials get the opportunity to talk to migrants directly and to answer their questions. As a result, they learn to understand the migrants, develop personal contacts with them and are more easy to contact when migrant representatives need something in the municipal organisations. For instance, direct contact with an official responsible for services for elderly people meant that a migrant representative was later able to phone this official for information. The initiative is thus helpful not only in relation to recruitment, but also with regard to service delivery; it is seen as a positive measure by both staff and migrants.

**Measures targeting young people**

In relation to measures targeting young people, the city of Arnsberg is planning to issue a multilingual flyer to promote apprenticeships in the city. Moreover, it already advertises apprenticeships on the internet and sends information to local migrant organisations that explicitly appeals to young migrants and that has had very positive results. Altogether, some 25% of applications are from young people with a migration background. The city of Frankfurt runs information campaigns in schools, highlighting that it is not necessary to be a
German citizen to apply for the jobs that it is promoting. Vienna city has also succeeded in increasing the number of young people with a migration background among the apprentices it trains across 30 professions, advertising these opportunities in different languages and on its website.

**Vienna – Recruiting and managing apprentices**

The city of Vienna trains 800 apprentices in 30 professions and actively seeks to increase the number of apprentices with a migration background. It advertises such opportunities in multilingual flyers and on its website. As a result, the city has succeeded in increasing the number of apprentices with a migration background that it recruits each year. All apprentices also receive information on diversity in the course of their training. The training for clerk apprenticeships includes the optional module of ‘intercultural education’, which comprises one lesson a week for three years, providing basic knowledge on migration, culture-related issues, communication and ethics.

In some cases, initiatives that cities have taken to promote the employment of excluded groups have included immigrants rather than specifically targeting them. The city of Liège, for instance, recruited 200 young people for summer jobs in 2006. While the recruitment initiative did not directly target people with a migration background, by focusing on disadvantaged neighbourhoods, it succeeded in attracting many people; the final selection of candidates was done by means of a draw. Valencia has also recruited migrants as part of a broader initiative to promote the employment of unemployed people by providing them with jobs for up to nine months. Terrassa, meanwhile, has introduced a project to support young unemployed people in securing jobs in cleaning, painting, metalwork or shops, which in practice gives assistance to people of migrant origin. Turku’s initiative to reintegrate people who are long-term unemployed into the labour market through its Labour Force Service Centre has similarly benefited a significant number of immigrants, who represented some 17% of its clients in 2005. It is believed that the mainstreaming of migrants within a general service of this kind has helped to avoid the ‘ politicisation of immigration’ as an issue in the city. The downside of this approach is that a general initiative may not take account of particular barriers that migrants may face, thus reducing the numbers who apply for such jobs.
Some cities have secured support for special initiatives through EU programmes. In Brescia, for example, such support allowed for the provision of advice to migrants on accessing the labour market and for a project providing language and vocational courses to women working in the private care sector.

**Attitudes to ‘positive discrimination’**

While all of these cities are engaged in ‘positive action’ initiatives, most are firmly against the idea of ‘positive discrimination’ – that is, giving priority to migrants over non-migrants at the point of selection. Occasionally, however, as seen in Turin, a number of places on training courses are designated to people with a migrant background; similarly, in Breda, a proportion of work placements were reserved to ensure that migrants manage to secure some of the places. In relation to jobs, Copenhagen decided in 2007 that it would fill 30 ‘leading positions’ each year with migrants, 80% of which would be funded by the departments themselves and 20% by extra funds to cover any additional training needed. Only in one case – Amsterdam – is there an overt policy in place to recruit migrants in preference over other applicants, with pressure on managers in each department to achieve a quota; this followed an earlier comparable target that sought to encourage more women to take up senior positions. Thus, in the city’s social services department, managers are expected to achieve a quota of staff with an ethnic minority background; in the department, 22% of staff currently have a migration background. In the context of labour shortages and a high proportion of minority groups in the population, Amsterdam’s approach does not appear to have been strongly contested.

**Promotion and retention**

Most of the city reports contained few comments about the promotion of people with a migration background, either because the cities did not keep such data or did not have specific objectives in this regard. Nonetheless, the city of Frankfurt could report that, in 2006, some 9.6% of promotions and pay upgrades concerned employees who were foreign or born abroad, which is somewhat lower than the figure cited for German employees. A small proportion of city authorities have also taken steps to ensure that migrants and people from minority groups have access to promotion. For instance, Wolverhampton has set up a positive action development programme for employees who are black or from minority ethnic groups, to ensure that they have equal opportunities in progressing to managerial positions, as they are currently disproportionately represented in less senior positions. The
programme combines internal as well as bespoke training delivered by specialist external consultants, with work placements and an allocated mentor assigned to each participant. It also seeks to meet formal staff retention targets, as success in recruitment can be undermined if ethnic minority employees are less likely to remain in such jobs. The establishment of a Black Workers’ Development Group among employees at Wolverhampton Adults and Community Services has helped to inform recruitment and promotion policies, as well as services provision. Ethnic minority staff are well represented on many of the city council’s internal training courses. In the period 2005–2006, 19% of staff who received training were employees with an ethnic minority background.

Amsterdam has launched a study to determine why few migrants access its internal management training and to ensure that talented young people with a migration background do not leave the administration prematurely. The city authority’s departments are supposed to identify suitable potential managers and register them for training; the study aims to establish whether it is the process that is not working or if it is the young people themselves who do not want to take part in the training course.

Amsterdam – Recruitment and retention in the health sector
The Alliance of Healthcare Institutions in the Amsterdam Region (*Samenwerkende Instellingen Gezondheidszorg Regio Amsterdam*, SIGRA) – a support institute for the city’s health sector – has developed an elaborate set of training instruments for health institutions to help them recruit, train and manage a diverse workforce. The tools have been tested and improved in hospitals, nursing homes, health centres and elsewhere. SIGRA’s programme consists of:

- intercultural development – helping institutions to analyse their situation and develop a plan;
- research – collecting data to establish whether the percentage of migrants in medical institutions is representative of the labour force, to record the number and views of migrant students in medical professions, to determine whether institutions already have a diversity policy in place, and to anticipate the health needs of migrants in the future;
- training – some 25 large health institutions have participated in training for team leaders and managers on managing multicultural teams and intercultural training for managers in the social service sector, addressing practical examples;
- information meetings – for new migrants on working in healthcare, in addition to information for secondary school students;
- mentoring of migrant students – to encourage them to consider a medical career, to prevent early school leaving and to make them feel at home;
- establishing a network of healthcare institutions, municipal institutions, and associations of patients and migrant organisations.

**Barriers to recruiting a diverse workforce**

While some of the cities reported few challenges in implementing their policy, others cited the kinds of challenges identified in Chapter 2, such as: staff resistance or a lack of support from senior managers; a culture of punishing mistakes, which makes staff reluctant to take the initiative; a lack of resources; and public hostility to seeing ‘foreigners’ as public employees. Some of the cities also faced challenges in relation to the recruitment process. Contrary to popular perception, these barriers included a lack of suitably qualified applicants (although this was not a primary obstacle).

**Labour market conditions and public sector cutbacks**

Some of the cities have faced unfavourable labour market conditions owing to the fact that jobs in the private sector had more attractive pay and conditions; in addition, the image of working in a ‘nine to five job’ for the city administration may not be attractive to young people:

*There seems to be something wrong with the image of the municipality as a boring, low-paying employer, which doesn’t offer extra facilities like lease cars and mobile phones. With the current economic situation, commercial companies are more attractive.*

However, problems may also be encountered in finding suitably qualified migrants for skilled jobs or apprenticeships – particularly in those cities where migrants are predominantly low skilled and where migration is too recent for there to be a more highly educated second generation reaching employment
Some of the cities cited staff cutbacks as a barrier to building a more diverse workforce: at the very time they wanted to recruit more staff with a migration background, the city authorities were forced to reduce staff numbers. This has particularly been a problem in the Italian cities, which have faced a legal threshold on recruitment to any permanent posts since 2001. Similarly, the cities of Arnsberg and Frankfurt have had to contend with a decline in the number of full-time positions.

**Formal requirements**

Where recruitment is undertaken, a significant obstacle for migrants can be a legal barrier: more specifically, whereby certain jobs in the local administration are only open to citizens and European Economic Area (EEA) nationals – a practice which has been coined as ‘legal discrimination’ (Wrench, 2007, p. 120). This is the case in cities in Germany, Italy and Luxembourg, for instance, but not in Austria, Ireland, the Netherlands and the UK. Among the 25 CLIP cities, three reported that non-EEA nationals are entirely excluded from permanent jobs in the city administration, while 14 reported that they are excluded from certain positions.

Legal restrictions on access to posts within the public administration for non-nationals was an issue highlighted in a recent report by FRA on racism and xenophobia in the EU (FRA, 2007a). The FRA report states that, in France for instance, with the exception of certain provisions relating to EEA nationals, only French nationals can access almost all public sector jobs and some posts in the private sector. No less than six million jobs, one third of the French labour market, are thus reportedly closed to non-EEA foreigners. FRA also reports that in Estonia, third-country nationals are excluded by law from working as national or municipal government officials, while in Luxembourg, partial restrictions are in place (ibid., pp. 63–65). However, no review appears to have been undertaken of the restrictions in operation across the current 27 EU Member States (EU27), despite the significant limitation this clearly imposes on the integration of migrants into the labour market; this issue is further addressed in the final section of this report.

In Germany, some posts within the city administration are limited to civil servants. Apart from exceptional circumstances, relating to an ‘urgent official need’, a person can only become a civil servant if they are a German national or from another EEA country. Hence, third-country migrants cannot be employed in these posts, except as employees with different working conditions – and thus, in practice, a less privileged status. This affects the employee’s
pension but not their eligibility for promotion. Nonetheless, the proportion of civil servants within the municipal administration is decreasing.\(^8\)

According to the Belgian Constitution, statutory jobs in the civil service are similarly limited to Belgian and EEA nationals, with some posts, such as those of fire officers, restricted to Belgian citizens only. Foreigners can occupy some contractual jobs that are not included in these two exceptions; however, in 2004, only 0.55% of more than 70,000 civil servants comprised non-nationals and most of them were from another EU Member State. For contractual posts, both permanent and temporary, no nationality requirements exist and the jobs are open to all foreign nationals who have legal residence in Belgium, except for jobs considered sensitive to the interests of local government – such as the issuing of birth, marriage and death certificates, or environmental and building police positions and jobs involving drawing up contracts.

A constitutional provision in Italy excludes non-EEA citizens from most public administration jobs; moreover, EEA citizens are excluded if the jobs are linked directly or indirectly to the exercising of state sovereignty. Some specific cases exist in which non-EU citizens can be employed – for instance, as university lecturers and trained nurses (the latter only on temporary contracts).\(^9\) Thus, non-EEA migrant nurses, for instance, cannot be directly hired for permanent jobs in the public sector. The Italian city authorities report that a large number of non-nationals work for them without being employed – for example, as subcontracted labourers in cleaning services or the construction industry. As the city of Turin reports:

\[\textit{A way for the local authority to avoid legal obstacles to hire people of immigrant origin is to appeal to contracted providers. This is the way in which most intercultural mediators – the position where most of the foreigners in the public administration are to be found – are employed. Intercultural mediators are provided by cooperatives and work in schools, local health centres, hospitals, law courts, public libraries, etc.\(^{10}\)}\]

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8 The reference in law to the German position is obtained from Section 7 of the Federal Civil Service Act (\textit{Bundesbeamtengesetz}, BBG) and Section 4 of the Framework Act on the Law Applicable to Civil Servants (\textit{Beamtenrechtsrahmengesetz}, BRRG).


10 An exception to this concerns a pilot project which selected 25 intercultural mediators to be directly employed by the Province of Turin.
The restrictions also particularly affect foreign nurses, who, unable to work for local health councils, take up temporary contracts with employment agencies or organisations to which the health councils contract services. As a result, FRA has reported that:

*They experience working conditions far worse than those of their Italian colleagues, characterised by longer hours, wages on average 25% lower than the wages of Italian nationals, non-recognition of allowances and benefits, assignment to the least qualified jobs, and barriers in access to training courses.* (FRA, 2007a)

The FRA report notes a series of legal challenges to the restrictions in Italy in recent years. Moreover, it observes the existence of similar restrictions on third-country nationals accessing jobs in the public sector in Estonia, France and Luxembourg.

Following Romania’s accession to the EU in January 2007, the city of Turin anticipated that Romanians would be allowed to access public jobs and planned a training course to enable their employment in local public transport. However, the initiative could not be implemented because the Italian citizenship obligation is still in force. Thus, in late 2007, Italy’s National Office against Racial Discrimination (Ufficio Nazionale Antidiscriminazioni Razziali, UNAR) advised that the provision in Italian law that states that only Italian citizens can be employed in local public transport companies, a provision which dates back to 1931, is in conflict with Italy’s 2003 anti-discrimination law and with the constitutional principle of equality. It has suggested that trade unions and public transport companies should now remove this discriminatory provision from their collective agreements.

The recourse to contracted providers by Italian cities is not viewed positively by the trade unions due to its potentially negative implications for working conditions. For instance, city tenders for contract services typically favour the providers proposing the lowest price. In turn, competition among service providers to lower the cost of services often leads to attempts to reduce labour costs – in other words, resulting in lower salaries and poorer working conditions for their employees. Another implication is that the local administration does not directly select the workers, which means there is no quality check in terms of skills, nor any control of employees’ legal status; moreover, the city’s diversity policy in employment cannot, broadly speaking, be extended to all those effectively working for the local administration.
In Luxembourg, restrictions that exclude EU citizens and allow only national citizens to become civil servants have similarly faced legal challenge. In this case, Luxembourg was challenged by the European Court of Justice (ECJ) in 1996, which condemned the Grand Duchy of Luxembourg for its refusal to open public offices to citizens from other European Member States. In 1997, the law was relaxed to allow EU nationals to access jobs in research, teaching, health, land transport, stations, telecommunications and utilities, unless those posts involve the 'exercise of public power' or 'protection of the general interests of the State'. In practice, however, few European citizens work in the public sector.

**Language proficiency**

Language proficiency is essential to employment in any capacity, although the level of language skills needed differs depending on the nature of the work involved. Selection criteria that emphasise a high level of language proficiency are recognised as a significant barrier and one that may not always be justified by the requirements of the job. Most challenging is the requirement in five cities whereby applicants must be able to speak two languages for some or all posts; this includes two Spanish cities that effectively require employees to be able to speak Catalan as well as Spanish. Similarly, in Ireland, while nationality restrictions are relaxed, employment in services such as libraries requires knowledge of the Irish language as well as English, which poses a significant barrier to migrants in the country. In Turku, applicants are required to speak Swedish as well as Finnish, although not for manual jobs. Moreover, if a qualified applicant is refused a job because of inadequate language skills, they cannot be accepted for a lower level assistant post because the trade unions argue that this would undermine the position of the fully qualified workers on that lower level. In Luxembourg, while a nationality requirement exists for most posts in the city administration, the requirement of knowledge of the three official languages – French, German and Luxembourgish – also poses a significant barrier to migrants.

Some of the cities provide language courses for newcomers to the area, both introductory and advanced courses (Terrassa), or enable migrants to take an introductory course in the city and move on to more advanced courses organised elsewhere (Mataró), or provide vouchers to cover the cost (Vienna). However, these courses are designed for newcomers to the city and not related to prospective or actual employees. As the employees, in many cases, have to be proficient in the language before being accepted for employment, provision
of language classes for employees is not seen as necessary. Nonetheless, Antwerp, Frankfurt and Stuttgart do offer advanced language courses for employees whose language skills would otherwise damage their promotion prospects.

**Non-recognition of qualifications**

City administrations also require certain qualifications and experience for many jobs within the authority. In some cases, however, the requirements can exceed those required for the job. Recognising that this could pose an artificial and unnecessary barrier to migrants accessing the city's employment, the city of Liège has analysed its selection tests to ensure that the knowledge required in each case is in fact necessary for the job. Where specific qualifications are necessary, non-recognition of qualifications obtained abroad emerged in the study as a significant barrier to migrants working in cities in many countries. Municipalities cannot themselves decide on the comparability of qualifications with those obtained within their own country, so the migrant must apply to a national body or bodies to see if their qualification is acceptable. The barrier not only relates to ensuring the equivalence of qualifications. In some cases, for example in relation to Finnish nurses, the skills required for the post are higher than those in the source countries – in this instance, because the nurses undertake certain procedures that are undertaken by doctors elsewhere.

In Spain, foreign diplomas must be sent to Madrid to be recognised. The city of Mataró reports that this is a difficult process, which can take up to a year and does not always succeed. Applicants can apply through the municipality, but many do not know that they have the right to ask for recognition of their diploma or that this can boost their salary. In some cases, the barriers to securing recognition of qualifications can be high, as the report for the city of Turin noted:

*The bureaucratic process which the aspiring employee has to face is very complicated and time consuming, and in most of the cases titles are not recognised. As some interviewees told us, people would often find it more convenient to start college again, maybe working during the day and attending courses in the evening, rather than facing this difficult and often humiliating bureaucratic procedure. There is therefore the need for a new system of recognition of educational certificates, allowing for the transferability of skills.*
Malmö – Validation of migrant qualifications

The city of Malmö has established a Centre of Validation, where diploma verification takes place and clients receive assistance in developing a portfolio of their qualifications. Although the validation process is in Swedish, it is obligatory for new immigrants. It involves four steps:

- Firstly, the client undertakes an exploratory survey, which is then interpreted by a guidance councillor;
- Secondly, the vocational teacher and client together take part in a meeting lasting between one and two hours to identify the client’s occupational skills;
- Thirdly, the client enrolls in a three to five-day occupational assessment, in which basic occupational skills are discussed and practised, leading to a certificate;
- Finally, the client takes part in a 4–8 week course in ‘upper secondary school’, which ends with an upper secondary school certificate.

Since 2000, more than 2,000 newcomers have completed this process, 800 of whom have received upper secondary school certificates. The process of creating the portfolio has become nearly as important as the final product. As supplementary descriptions of clients’ qualifications are added to their résumés, a clearer picture of all of the individual’s competencies is obtained. This is useful for both applicants and employers; it increases their knowledge about the applicant, along with the applicant’s self-confidence, and their ability to communicate their abilities.

The activities of the Centre of Validation are monitored through a survey asking participants about their experiences with the qualification portfolio. Some 68% of the respondents believed that it made them better prepared to plan for the future; 27% said that it offered them an effective way to learn Swedish, and only 5% said that it had no additional value.

While the city may provide support to migrants in finding their way through a national procedure, as observed in Vienna, this can be time-consuming for personnel staff. In Denmark, the Danish Ministry of Education has a special department for evaluating foreign diplomas. Many migrants reportedly do not know that they can apply to have their qualifications recognised. Thus, in Belgium for instance, a regional service provides advice on how to do so; the
city of Liège provides information on how to access this service. Stuttgart’s Job Centre and Personnel Office both help migrants by organising the process of securing recognition from the national authority. Dutch cities report barriers for doctors who may have to re-qualify in order to be allowed to practice. In the UK, Wolverhampton reports that the national employer organisation for local government provides the authority with support in verifying qualifications obtained abroad, as do the various professional bodies.

Dublin – Free national service for recognising foreign qualifications

Ireland offers a free service to facilitate the recognition of qualifications, to which Dublin’s city authority can refer job applicants. Known as the National Framework of Qualifications (NFQ), this system provides a means for identifying the nearest comparable Irish qualification. Information is provided on the website of Qualifications Recognition Ireland (http://www.qualificationsrecognition.ie), which enables the migrant to see where their qualification may fit in the context of the Irish education system. A qualifications recognition service is provided free of charge. Although translation of documents is not included in the service, documentation and information are available in a number of languages, including Latvian, Lithuanian, Polish and Russian. The onus is on job applicants to certify their qualifications through the NFQ.

Informal restrictions on advertising posts

A further barrier identified in one city has been an agreement that certain manual jobs will only be advertised to trade union members; this is therefore likely to exclude newcomers to the area. Moreover, positions may only be advertised internally, as seen in Breda, where managers are expected to give preference to internal applicants and ‘victims’ of reorganisation; however, it can get around this if determined to build a more diverse team through external recruitment, for instance by asking for specific qualifications that only migrants have. In addition, some organisations may be more inclined to recruit for some posts through informal networks – for instance, through the contacts of existing employees – rather than through open recruitment advertisements to which applicants with no existing connection to the organisation can apply. Such practices operate against equality of opportunity and are to the detriment of the council, as appointments are not made on the basis of merit. Easier recruitment and the cost of advertising are two reasons why this practice continues.
Recruitment outcomes

Given the markedly different approaches which the cities have taken in relation to recruitment and promotion, and the differing barriers they have faced, it is not surprising that significant variation was reported in the extent to which the cities had built a diverse workforce.

Copenhagen represents a relatively successful case in this context. The overview of city employees according to ethnic background and its development between 2001 and 2005 shows that the proportion of third country migrants employed by the city grew from 5.5% to 8.2%, while this category’s percentage of the city’s total population amounted to 14.6% in 2005. Therefore, while minority groups are still underrepresented in the workforce, the situation has improved in most departments and is expected to improve even further in the near future. Existing progress was more the outcome of an active labour market policy in the city than of specific policies targeting migrants in the period concerned; nonetheless, a focused effort to recruit migrants in more recent times has also had an impact – as seen, for instance, in the city’s cleaning department, which in the past four years has increased its migrant workforce from 37% to 63%.

The city of Wolverhampton has also had some success in this respect. In a city where 22.2% of the population were from ethnic minorities in 2001, about 14% of its workforce now come from ethnic minorities, including 7.2% of those earning the top 5% of full-time salaries. Like Copenhagen, the city has not achieved its target of a workforce that is fully representative of the local population; nevertheless, with 30% of job applicants coming from ethnic minorities, this provides the city with the opportunity to strengthen the representation of minorities in the workforce.

Amsterdam has been relatively successful in its effort to build a diverse workforce, having set out to achieve a workforce that is representative of the city's workforce as a whole. With 22.5% of the city administration’s workforce now coming from ethnic minorities, this has partly been achieved through positive discrimination measures. As Table 3 shows, the city has achieved a higher percentage in the middle employment grades, while fewer immigrants are present in the highest grades requiring a degree; their presence is highest in the lowest grades.
Diversification has become increasingly visible at the different service outlets in Amsterdam. However, the city’s openness to immigrants is also having an impact at the level of ‘alderman’. For instance, a former Moroccan alderman of social affairs who became a Secretary of State in the national cabinet was replaced by a Surinamese alderman. Since parts of the Moroccan and Surinamese communities felt systematically excluded, these people’s appointment to positions of power helped to shift those perceptions. One

Table 2: Proportion of Wolverhampton City Council staff employed in post/postal division*, by ethnicity

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ethnic background</th>
<th>White</th>
<th>Mixed</th>
<th>Asian or Asian British</th>
<th>Black or Black British</th>
<th>Chinese or other ethnic group</th>
<th>Not known</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Percentage</td>
<td>71.5%</td>
<td>0.85%</td>
<td>7.68%</td>
<td>5.12%</td>
<td>0.35%</td>
<td>14.85%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total number</td>
<td>10,612</td>
<td>127</td>
<td>1,145</td>
<td>764</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>2,215</td>
<td>14,916</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Including casual staff. Data obtained through the council’s payroll system.

Diversification has become increasingly visible at the different service outlets in Amsterdam. However, the city’s openness to immigrants is also having an impact at the level of ‘alderman’. For instance, a former Moroccan alderman of social affairs who became a Secretary of State in the national cabinet was replaced by a Surinamese alderman. Since parts of the Moroccan and Surinamese communities felt systematically excluded, these people’s appointment to positions of power helped to shift those perceptions. One

Table 3: Percentage of immigrants working in Amsterdam city administration and share of city’s overall workforce, third quarter 2006

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Job scale</th>
<th>Percentage of immigrants working in city administration</th>
<th>Percentage of immigrants in Amsterdam’s total workforce</th>
<th>Difference (in percentage points)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Scale 1–3</td>
<td>41.0</td>
<td>74.0</td>
<td>-33.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scale 4–6</td>
<td>29.9</td>
<td>41.0</td>
<td>-11.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scale 7–9</td>
<td>26.6</td>
<td>36.0</td>
<td>-9.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scale 10 (bachelor degree) and higher</td>
<td>10.8</td>
<td>19.0</td>
<td>-8.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>22.5</td>
<td>34.0</td>
<td>-11.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes: ‘Immigrants’ in this table include those with a migration background.
Source: Visser, 2007, p.19
outcome of Amsterdam’s recruitment drives which is considered less welcome has been an overrepresentation of a particular ethnic group within some healthcare providers. It is felt that mixed groups work better, for instance in the care of elderly people, than a workplace in which one migrant group dominates.

Malmö also aims to have a fully representative workforce and has increased the percentage of staff with a migration background from 13% in 1997 to 25% by the end of 2006. With 36% of the city’s population having a migration background, Malmö’s workforce is still not fully representative, but its progress has been a particularly notable achievement. A high proportion of those with a migration background are women, working in childcare and as nursing assistants. The city report for Malmö attributes this success to a number of factors, including its emphasis on: increasing the education and skills of migrants; providing training to all managers on the importance of a diverse workforce; strengthening the country’s anti-discrimination law, including giving unsuccessful applicants the right to information on the qualifications and experience of the successful applicant; and increasing the city’s cooperation with researchers at the local university, who have provided analysis of their progress on jobs and services, as well as a space for dialogue and exploring new approaches.

**Figure 2: Proportion of German and non-German municipal staff in Stuttgart city, by employment grade, 2007**

![Figure 2: Proportion of German and non-German municipal staff in Stuttgart city, by employment grade, 2007](image_url)

Source: CLIP report for Stuttgart
In Frankfurt, 13% of employees were born abroad or are foreign citizens compared with a foreign population of the city of 25%; this proportion also varies significantly between the city administration’s departments, with foreigners comprising a quarter of staff in education, sewage treatment and parks, but only 2% in personnel and in the fire brigade. Some 18% of the newly employed apprentices were foreign born or foreigners in 2007. In Stuttgart, where 22% of the population are foreigners, 14% of the city’s employees, including those in city companies, are foreign. Within the cities’ companies, however, which employ a high proportion of manual workers, migrants comprise 25% of employees (Figure 2).

Conversely, in Arnsberg, where 6.7% of the city’s population are foreigners and 15% have a migration background, only 2.5% of the municipality’s employees are migrants and just 5.3% have a migration background, about half of whom are German nationals (figures for 2007). The vast majority of these people work in low-skilled occupations. The city report for Arnsberg notes that: ‘It is remarkable that, although Turks constitute the largest group of foreigners in Arnsberg, no Turk actually works in the municipality’.

Arnsberg’s experience shows that efforts that are successful in boosting applications, and the number of people shortlisted for jobs, do not necessarily result in a higher rate of employment among minority groups. Hitherto, the city had not targeted people with a migration background for particular posts or vocational training; recently, however, as outlined, the city has taken a new approach in this respect. The results have been positive, with 14.3% of the 237 applications received coming from candidates with a migration background – a higher proportion than ever before. Of the applicants who were invited to take the written employment test, 14.3% had a migration background. Hence, the percentage of invited candidates with a migration background corresponds exactly to the respective percentage of applications. However, only two German applicants with a migration background were invited to the job interviews. The city must now consider whether this was because of lower qualification, language or skill levels, or whether it was the result of – for instance – culturally insensitive tests that did not measure the applicants’ actual ability.

Other cities that monitor the country of birth, nationality or ethnicity of their staff reported lower participation levels: Liège city authority, for instance, found that 3.5% of its staff were foreign born, including those born in another EU
country, compared with 18.3% of its population as a whole; in addition, the
data in Table 4 show that foreigners are concentrated in the low-skilled posts
(level E) or those requiring few qualifications (level D). Few foreigners have
jobs with responsibility (levels A, B, C and X).

The greater flexibility in recruitment procedures in NGOs may account for the
often higher proportion of migrant staff in these organisations. In Antwerp,
ethnic minority staff comprise less than 6% of the city’s own employees, despite
the fact that they make up 30% of the city’s working age population (many of
whom are unemployed), and despite the city having a large number of low-
skilled jobs. However, the percentage of people from ethnic minority groups
who are employed in non-profit organisations in the city stood at 16.6% in
2003. Of those ethnic minorities whom the city does employ, there is an
overrepresentation in temporary jobs. In Dublin, it is similarly striking how a
much higher proportion of staff working for contractors are migrants or have a
migration background. This may reflect the more accessible recruitment
practices of the contractors relative to those of the city authorities for similar
occupations – for instance, for manual work such as waste disposal – as
migrants are more likely to be found in these positions.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of foreign employees in city authority</th>
<th>Employment levels</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Men</td>
<td>E  D  C  B  A  X  Total</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>53</td>
<td>14  0  1  0  3  71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>43</td>
<td>12  0  3  2  0  60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Women</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total number of foreigners employed by city</td>
<td>96  26  0  4  2  3  131</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total number of city staff</td>
<td>1,219 1,611 182 261 219 87 3,651</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage of foreigners</td>
<td>7.8% 1.6% 0% 1.5% 0.9% 3.4% 3.5%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Employment level E is the lowest-skilled occupation while level X has the highest
level of responsibility.
Source: CLIP report for Liège, p. 21
Significantly, cities such as Budapest, Prague and Vienna were unable to report what proportions of their staff are foreign born, foreign nationals or ethnic minorities, as such data are not collected. Cities in this position gave the impression that these proportions are very low in most cases.

Many cities report that very few migrants or ethnic minorities had managed to get through the so-called ‘glass ceiling’ to higher positions. One exception in this case is the city of Zagreb, where there has been a political imperative to ensure that some representatives of national minorities are assigned to senior positions. National minorities comprise 5.2% of the city’s population and achieved representation within the workforce of 4.5% by 2006, among whom 115 were working in senior positions.

Some cities report that no migrants whatsoever are employed in services central to migrants’ needs: for example, in companies providing housing for the city of Valencia, only one migrant is employed out of workforce of 1,200 people. Conversely, other cities report that migrants are only employed in departments or services that are working specifically on migrant issues. In this case, the city of Brescia reports that these workers are more likely to be employed on short-term contracts. The significance of this exclusion or inclusion within the city’s workforce partly depends on the significance of the authority as an employer in the area. Sefton, for instance, is the second largest employer in its area; however, not all CLIP municipalities are similarly significant as employers (as has already been indicated).

**Intercultural and diversity training**

Many cities place an emphasis on the importance of intercultural training – ensuring that its frontline staff and managers are knowledgeable about the particular needs, and cultural and religious practices that may be characteristic of migrant communities, and/or that they are aware of the importance of ensuring equality of opportunity for migrants and minorities. While some cities ensure that all of their senior managers receive such training, in other cities such as Dublin, it is offered at the discretion of departmental managers on a more informal basis.

The city of Liège provides diversity management training for its senior managers, along with training on equality and diversity issues for its HR staff and training in work relationships for line managers. Copenhagen now requires that all of its 180 staff in the top two grades of the city’s administration attend
a one-day course on diversity management. Similarly, Frankfurt has taken steps to offer training across its departments and has produced a manual on intercultural orientation, as well as guidelines for implementing intercultural competencies. It is confident that almost all relevant staff are now aware of cultural differences, although their willingness to implement such competencies is unknown. The city of Wolverhampton provides all staff with an ‘equality essentials’ induction course; moreover, all new social care workers must take part in a ‘Skills for care common induction standards’ course, which includes equality and diversity training, embeds diversity issues into core training programmes, such as recruitment and selection, and organises briefings on the equality agenda with senior management teams. In addition, a series of lunchtime ‘One city many people’ workshops have been held to increase people’s understanding of the diverse religions within Wolverhampton. Breda and Turin are among the cities that now include proficiency in diversity among the criteria for selection and promotion of service providers.

In instances where staff need further knowledge about migrant cultures or issues pertaining to migrants’ needs, the central office responsible for integration issues in the city is often assigned responsibility for providing such information. For example, Valencia’s Immigration Support Centre provides advice to municipal employees through an ‘orientation line’; this advice includes expert information on immigration law.

**Stuttgart – Intercultural training for staff**

The city of Stuttgart offers workshops on intercultural communication and competency for employees, to help them better accommodate persons with a migration background. Participants in these courses learn how to perceive different cultures and norms, interact with migrants in order to avoid misunderstandings and conflicts, and communicate their knowledge to colleagues.

In addition, the city’s Health Office offers seminars and workshops on topics such as health problems among migrant children and older people, and preventive medical checkups. The office conducts regular training and qualification seminars, which are attended by representatives of the municipality, welfare organisations, migrant NGOs and medical practitioners. The Youth Welfare Office also offers training on topics such as ‘integration of children in nurseries’, Islamic and African cultures, and racism. A recent two-year initiative – known as ‘zip.Pe’, the ‘future-oriented intercultural development of
personnel’ – addressed intercultural competence during recruitment, along with intercultural and gender-specific training, and intercultural teamwork. Meanwhile, the city’s Office of Social Services runs a specialist unit on migration, which organises regular events and vocational training, for instance on ‘rights of residence’ and ‘culturally sensitive elderly care’. Staff are obliged to participate in training on a regular basis.

**Working conditions and complaints procedures**

Migrants who work directly for the city administration are protected from the extreme exploitation and poor working conditions that exist in other parts of the labour market. Administrations report that they respect the laws governing employment rights and provide migrants with the same rates of pay as non-migrants working in the same jobs, although the city reports provided very little information on this. Complaints procedures are in place if a foreign employee feels that they have been treated less favourably than another member of staff (see Chapter 2).

**Religious or cultural needs**

The ‘diversity management’ approach, which values cultural difference, may encompass a degree of flexibility in the work environment to reflect differing religious or cultural practices. The extension of protection from discrimination at work to religious and belief grounds, in accordance with the EU Employment Discrimination Directive of 2000, has further highlighted the need for equal treatment of employees in relation to their beliefs (Krys, 2008).\(^{11}\) However, the Directive does not specify how employers should address differing religious requirements – for instance, in relation to dress, religious holidays or prayer times. The cities were asked whether they had made any particular arrangements to meet the differing cultural or religious needs of their staff. Responses differed significantly and, notably, rarely referred to the EU Directive or subsequent national provisions, suggesting that this had not been a key driver of their approach. Striking differences are evident between the cities in this respect: some consider it good practice to be flexible in accommodating religious difference, for instance in relation to clothing; other cities emphasise a ‘neutral’ approach, particularly for staff engaging directly with the public.

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\(^{11}\) Guidance for employers is provided on the website of the Employers’ Forum on Belief at [www.efrb.org.uk](http://www.efrb.org.uk).
Some of the cities had formally agreed to make certain adjustments, as seen in Vienna, where there is a provision in the city’s hospitals, which regulates the right to wear headscarves for religious reasons. Moreover, menu schemes, for example in hospitals or nursery schools, always offer one meal without meat or pork, and the General Hospital offers prayer rooms for various religious denominations. Similarly, Turin provides menus for children of different religions if requested by their parents in crèches, elementary and secondary schools. Sefton has an understanding that, where practicably possible, requests for religious holidays will be allowed and the right of employees to wear cultural clothing will be respected. In Wolverhampton, provision for religious observance, both daily and through pilgrimages, is made through leave arrangements. Guidance is also provided on making prayer facilities available and, in 2004, a multi-faith prayer facility was introduced by the city council. In addition, dress code and other policies are accommodated on the grounds of religious or cultural need. Moreover, the council is currently working on a joint initiative with the Advisory, Conciliation and Arbitration Service (ACAS) to develop a framework and toolkit for employers on the issue of ‘dress and diversity’.

In some cases, the cities reported that the issue of religious and cultural considerations was on the agenda, with discussions taking place on appropriate ways to respond. In the meantime, impromptu adjustments had been made by – for instance – facilitating working hours that respected the prayer times of Muslim employees (Brescia), providing prayer facilities that met different needs (Wolverhampton and Amsterdam), and ensuring that meals in hospitals or nursery schools include options without meat or pork. Spanish cities similarly reported that no formal policy existed for protecting cultural and religious needs at work; nonetheless, employers tended to make informal arrangements as needs arose, such as enabling Muslims to work the night shift during Ramadan, so that they can eat during work time and will not faint. Cities appeared to have faced little opposition to such adjustments, although Amsterdam was prevented due to trade union opposition from changing its holiday schedule to accommodate religious holidays. Nevertheless, in cities such as Arnsberg, Copenhagen and Stuttgart, making any adjustments to acknowledge religious or cultural requirements is simply not discussed or, in relation to religious dress and symbols, is not allowed – as seen in the Turkish city of zmır.
Antwerp – Neutrality in clothing of employees dealing with the public

Antwerp’s city authority insists that its staff must not express personal beliefs when dealing with service users:

_The city authorities want to encourage the diversity of the personnel. It must be possible for a lot of people with very different personal beliefs to work for the city. But the external signs of their personal beliefs may not be shown in direct contacts with the customers. In these contacts, the neutrality of the service and respect are primordial. External symbols of personal, religious, political or other beliefs are not worn in direct contacts with the customers._

In 2007, the city authority introduced clothing regulations, which stipulate that personnel in uniform, work or safety clothes do not wear any other clothes or marks, with the exception of the symbols of the city ‘housestyle’.

Employees who are in direct contact with the public, customers or external partners must wear respectable and conservative clothes. External symbols of personal, political, trade union or sporting preferences cannot be worn during working hours: hence, items such as religious crosses, yarmulkes, headscarves, turbans, HIV pins, symbols of a service club or association are not allowed to be worn.

Other members of staff also have to wear respectable, conservative clothes that convey a message of courtesy. Although earrings for men are permitted, heavy nose piercing is not; wearing a headscarf is allowed, but a covering veil is not.

Health and safety

The health and safety of migrant employees could be an issue if they lack sufficient language skills to read or hear instructions, or have not received the same level of training or induction as other employees. Some cities provide employees with instructions in their own language. In Malmö, for instance, own-language instructions are given in relation to dangerous machinery, fire prevention and hygiene in hospitals. In Arnsberg, certain instructions are issued in five languages, for example on protective equipment. If an employee has obvious language problems, a practical briefing is done on site, if necessary with the help of an interpreter. Cities can only offer such services in relation to the principal languages used by migrants. The cities of Terrassa and Mataró, for example, cater for the languages of Arabic, Catalan, Chinese, Spanish and
Wolof (spoken by some African migrants). Wolverhampton similarly provides translated material for its cleaning staff in a range of languages. In most cases, however, the cities reported that they did not take any action in relation to health and safety for their migrant employees or, as seen in Stuttgart, only on an informal basis as the need arises. The policy of the Dutch government is that no material provided by the municipalities should be translated, unless a dangerous situation would arise as a result of inaction in this respect. In practice, nevertheless, some service providers in Amsterdam, notably in the health sector, do offer this facility as it would be impossible otherwise to communicate with service users.
While the cities in the CLIP network vary considerably in their range of responsibilities, all of the city authorities provide services of significance in the integration process – from healthcare and education services to public libraries and the provision of motor tax. In developing diversity and equality policies, the report has shown that cities have a range of objectives. Some emphasise compliance with discrimination legislation and its principle of equality in access to services; others highlight the need to address negative outcomes, such as underachievement at school, or to reduce the pressures that service providers can experience when migrants lack language skills or knowledge of the services available.

Migrants may face additional barriers in accessing a city's services for many reasons, including: a lack of language proficiency, which limits access to written or spoken information about the service; poor understanding of the structure of services provision and hence of where to go in particular circumstances – for example, calling an ambulance or visiting the accident and emergency department in a hospital, instead of visiting the local doctor or health centre are two frequently cited examples. Psychological barriers to accessing services may also arise due to the person's experiences in their country of origin – for instance, the widespread distrust of officials – or as a result of negative treatment after their arrival. Migrants may have no expectation that any service will be provided by a public sector of which they have no experience; conversely, they may have inflated expectations of what they will receive from a service which is insufficiently equipped to meet those expectations. Sections of the migrant population may face particular barriers, such as the reluctance of women in some communities to attend a service where men are present, or at times of the day when they have to look after children.

Finally, it should be noted that migrants’ ethnicity or religion are not the only factors that can affect migrants’ relationship with the provision of services (compared with the rest of the population). The gender or age structure of migrant communities may also differ. Figure 3 presents the current age profile of minority groups in Estonia’s capital city of Tallinn and shows that they are less strongly represented among those of school age and the older population,
and hence will have less need for the services directed at those age groups. This contrasts with the age profile in Breda, for instance, which has a striking number of young people: 33% of the city's Turkish population, for example, are under 14 years of age.

Services provision will also be affected by the gender profile of migrant communities. Different national groups in Turin, for instance, have very different gender ratios, with some communities being female dominated: for instance, 77% of the city’s Ukrainian population and 67% of its Nigerian population are women. Other groups are characterised by a prevalence of men, who comprised 87% of the city’s Senegalese population and 65% of its Egyptian population in 2007.

Migrant populations can also have differing family structures – for instance, in terms of the proportion of single households. In Amsterdam, more than half of all households consist of only one person, a proportion that is increasing among Dutch citizens; by contrast, the proportion of single mothers with children can be as high as 77% among Antillean, Colombian, Dominican, Ghanaian and Surinamese households in the city.
Choosing between general and specific services for migrants

In addressing the service needs of migrants, the CLIP cities have adopted two broad approaches:

- addressing migrants’ needs within the existing services provided by the city – whether by adapting that service to meet the needs of migrants and/or redirecting that service so that it disproportionately benefits migrants;

- providing specific services targeted at this section of the community or parts of it, whether through a mainstream service or by contracting it out to another organisation.

Each approach has its advantages and disadvantages. Providing specialised services targeted at migrant communities can be a cost-effective way of meeting needs by concentrating expertise and specialist facilities, such as translators, in one service rather than distributing them across many service providers. As the service is designed to meet migrants’ particular needs, at a place and time accessible to them, this may be easier and less expensive than adapting existing services. Communication with migrant groups to raise awareness of the service may also be more effective.

On the other hand, providing specific services of this kind removes the pressure from general service providers to adapt their services to the needs of a diverse population – adaptations that may already be taking place in relation to the differing needs of women, older people or disabled people. As the size and diversity of the migrant population increases, it may no longer be feasible to meet their needs through a specialised service; instead, general services may need to be adapted – an experience noted in the city report for Breda. Moreover, there may be a political incentive to avoid targeted services, if the public resent what they perceive as special treatment of a minority group.

Adaptation of general services is appropriate for cities that are strongly committed to a diversity policy for the whole population, not only for migrants. For these reasons, seven cities emphasised that they provide targeted services only where absolutely necessary and where the needs of migrants differ from those of the general public – most notably, for new arrivals who have language and information needs for which a targeted information and advice service is appropriate. Such an approach is taken in Terrassa, which describes such services as ‘bridging projects’, necessary only until the needs of migrants can
be met by existing services. In Mataró, it is considered more favourable for the peaceful co-existence of the city if diversity policy in services is seen to be aimed at the whole population. These cities are confident that lack of language proficiency and information will only present a problem in the first few years; after that, equal opportunities will be possible in the mainstream system.

In order to decide if specific services are necessary – for instance, whether to agree to requests for separate Dutch classes for Jewish men and women – Antwerp is developing a ‘testing frame’, the principle of which is ‘inclusive if possible, in categories as long as is necessary’. To establish what ‘is necessary’, the system asks 10 questions, including: ‘is this measure a violation of the existing legal framework?’, ‘is it workable and affordable?’ and ‘does it contribute to living together in diversity?’

Similar to the situation regarding employment, albeit to a significantly lesser extent, a small number of cities still believe that no separate consideration of migrants’ needs is required – whether through adapting general services or providing specific services. Such cities may argue that ‘we treat everyone the same, so there is no problem’ or are optimistic that if migrants succeed in the labour market ‘the rest will follow’. While this is the official approach, in some cases a targeted service has been provided through NGOs to meet a particular need.

In most instances, however, the cities agree that a combination of general and specific services may be needed to achieve equality of access to services and to meet diverse needs, including those of migrants (see the following case example of Frankfurt). A broader shift in municipal approaches towards a customer focus – recognising that people of differing ages, gender and disability, for instance, have varying needs and that the ‘one size fits all’ approach does not deliver equal outcomes – has laid the foundation for recognising that migrants add to, rather than create, diversity in the customer base.
Frankfurt – Mainstream and targeted services for migrants

The city of Frankfurt has a two-part strategy: to offer municipal services in such a way that they are accessible to all citizens; and to provide various migrant-specific services, targeting either particular social groups, such as migrant mothers or elderly migrants, or specific nationalities and religions. Migrant-specific services include:

- integration through language, education and information, including through language courses – Project mitSprache is a pilot programme on German as a second language, which urges cooperation between schools and parents, as well as offering additional teacher training;

- education, training and career counselling – Project AOE provides workshops for migrant parents on the German educational and training system, as well as on related issues such as dyslexia, hyperactivity and career counselling. Other projects include job counselling, language training and courses for young children;

- conflict management and mediation – including through neighbourhood-based mediation programmes;

- anti-discrimination work – encompassing multilingual information provision and the implementation of municipal anti-discrimination regulations;

- intercultural opening of the municipal administration – Frankfurt sponsors intercultural training for the municipality, has transformed the municipal library into an ‘international library’, and sponsors exhibitions on migration at the Historical Museum. In Project MiMi, migrants volunteer as mediators to inform other migrants about health issues, such as getting psychological help for traumatised refugees, or screening for sexually transmitted diseases and AIDS prevention;

- cooperation with religious communities and migrant organisations – the municipality encourages dialogue between migrants and the police, and provides counselling and financial support for migrant and ethnic organisations.

In relation to the cities that contract out some of their services, a further question arises: do the cities seek to ensure – through their contract with that organisation – that the particular needs of ethnic minorities or migrants are being addressed? (See Chapter 2). The cities of Breda and Wolverhampton have built requirements of this nature into their service contracts; however,
most of the cities have not done so at this point. Some of the cities expressed their concern that, because so many of their services were provided by external organisations, they had little influence over the extent to which these services take into account the differing needs of migrants, unless a funding contract could be used for that purpose in the future.

**Collaboration in provision of services**

Before turning to the types of services provided, it should be noted that a strong tradition of service delivery to the public through voluntary organisations is evident in countries such as Germany, Ireland, Italy and Spain; these organisations are similarly involved in the provision of targeted services to migrants. Frankfurt, for instance, finances about 150 NGO projects relating to migrants each year. In countries such as the UK, where welfare services are still largely provided by public bodies, many of the specific services that target migrants are delivered by NGOs, trade unions and community associations.

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**Prague – Services provision through NGOs**

Prague City Council sees cooperation with NGOs as essential to foreign people’s integration, in part because it improves relations between the majority population and national minorities or foreigners. NGOs in Prague provide legal and social support, guidance on interaction with state authorities and free Czech language courses. They also serve as good role models for people who have recently arrived in the country, as many leading personalities are immigrants or foreigners themselves.

Several EU grant programmes – including EQUAL and the European Refugee Fund – partially finance these NGO activities. Prague also operates several grant schemes to support NGOs working on the integration of foreigners:

- ‘Support for preventive programmes for persons and target groups who are endangered by social exclusion’ – through this support, chosen NGOs conduct welfare services for disadvantaged groups; the ethnicity of those being supported is not considered during selection;

- ‘Programme supporting the education and integration of foreign pupils and pupils from disadvantaged socio-cultural backgrounds into schools’ – schools and organisations whose activities involve education and training are eligible to apply for this support;
‘Support programme for activities of national minorities in the Prague area’ – supports the activities of national minority and civic organisations that aim to preserve and develop national identities, as well as develop communication and dialogue between national minorities and the majority society; a similar programme supports foreigners’ integration activities.

Providing services for the city’s population can put NGOs in a strong position to influence the development of the city’s policy. Copenhagen, for instance, acknowledges that it has been strongly influenced by NGOs in its approach. Amsterdam has found that without the involvement of NGOs, many initiatives would not succeed – for example, those relating to health promotion and the labour market. Hence, some contracts are given to migrant associations working with a specific target group – for instance, to an Ethiopian Foundation, which coaches unemployed Ethiopians to help them find a suitable job and which explains the expectations of Dutch employers. Mataró’s experience is that cooperation with NGOs improves contact with groups that are difficult to reach. It is also cheaper to provide services through NGOs as they use volunteers. Moreover, this approach enables the city to provide services to irregular migrants, something they consider as their humanitarian duty, but cannot be seen to be doing directly; if money is given to the Red Cross, for example, ‘this contradiction can be handled’. A final reason is that it saves the municipality from being the target of complaints from members of the public, some of whom think that migrants get too many additional services.

Cities can also benefit from services provided by trade unions to migrants. Some 19 of the CLIP cities reported trade union involvement in services provision, whether targeted at migrants or including migrants among those who receive support. In Turin, for instance, the trade unions provide immigrants with information and advice, while in Valencia almost every union has a specific service for migrants. Significantly, the services provided do not necessarily concern solely the issue of employment. Trade unions in Turin take the view that the worker is a person with a family and offers them support them in relation to a wide range of issues regarding their residence status, citizenship rights, welfare, health and social security, housing, childcare, schooling, language courses and anti-discrimination, while mediating with the local police headquarters to resolve issues relating to residence in the city.
Terrassa and Mataró – Services provision by trade unions

In 1995, the Trade Union Confederation of Workers’ Commissions (Confederación Sindical de Comisiones Obreras, CC.OO) set up the Information Centre for Foreign Workers (Centre d’Informació per a Treballadors Estrangers, CITE). The centre has 43 offices in Catalonia and provides advice free of charge to both regular and irregular immigrants in relation to immigration, work, residence permits, family reunification and citizenship. It also organises Catalan language courses and communication with education centres. In Terrassa, CITE is run by a Moroccan person and in Mataró by a Senegalese person.

In addition, CC.OO receives complaints from migrants about underpayment and long working hours. This problem is particularly evident among irregular migrants, but also among migrants whose qualifications are not recognised. Irregular migrants are particularly vulnerable to abuse, and it is also difficult for them to prove that they have done the same work as others who were paid more. The trade union has lawyers who support migrants in these types of problems. If an employer is found to have broken the law, they will be penalised and the irregular worker is not required to leave the country. The trade union also provides leaflets in Catalan and Arabic about safety at work and the prevention of accidents. It lists potentially dangerous situations about which workers can complain, such as machinery not in proper working order, unstable climbing equipment and a lack of helmets.

Cooperation with the private sector can also be significant: in Breda, for example, many of the social work services, having once been provided by the municipality, are now provided by privatised institutions and foundations, which are encouraged by the municipality to deploy intercultural methods.

Stuttgart – Mainstream and targeted services for migrants

The city of Stuttgart has adapted its general services and offers a range of migrant-specific services in 12 fields of activity; these fields of activity are deemed as being the most important for people with a migration background, and many are organised in cooperation with local bodies such as schools and NGOs. They cover the following areas:

- language training – besides federal integration and language courses, the city offers local, district-based courses, some of which target particular groups such as mothers;
preschools – the city supports preschool education in nursery schools, and has produced a multi-lingual booklet to help parents register their children in day nurseries;

education – Stuttgart promotes mentorship programmes and offers free seminars for parents with a migration background;

labour market – in an effort to help unemployed people, the city sponsors qualification and language courses, provides individual consultations, supports self-employment and has created a support system for graduates with poor qualifications;

intercultural orientation – Stuttgart provides materials in foreign languages, trains migrants to become intercultural mediators and provides counselling services;

integration and participation within city districts – the city integrates migrants into district activities through sports, youth clubs and multicultural neighbourhood centres. In addition, the Stuttgart Team for Intercultural Mediation helps to prevent and solve conflicts in neighbourhoods;

urban planning and housing policies – Stuttgart aims to encourage mixed neighbourhoods and good living standards for its inhabitants, in order to promote social cohesion;

intercultural and international orientation – the city’s Cultural Office supports initiatives with cultural (migrant) organisations, including cultural festivals and a monthly magazine. The city also finances a municipal interpreting service;

safety and security – Stuttgart has established a ‘security partnership’ with the police department, and promotes preventative measures such as ‘Basketball at midnight’;

religious dialogue – programmes to promote dialogue between religions include ‘extremism prevention’, a ‘Roundtable of religions’, and Islamic classes in schools;

political participation – to improve migrant participation, Stuttgart’s International Committee offers counselling on topics concerning its migrant population;

public relations – the city has cooperated with other cities, as well as sponsoring an intercultural municipal history and hosting an exhibition on ‘guest workers’.

The results of these services are not monitored in a systematic way, although individual offices monitor the participation of persons with a migration background.
Meeting needs within existing services

The general services relevant to migrants include schools and youth centres, public housing and services for homeless people, urban planning, social services, leisure services such as arts and sports facilities, public safety, and specialist services for women, elderly people and those who are disabled. The municipal government may also administer services for central government, such as the collection of census data and provision of motor tax. Even services such as waste collection may raise particular issues for migrants, demonstrating the importance of the city's diversity policy objectives being mainstreamed across the organisation. Within such services, it was evident that some cities are significantly more advanced than others in mainstreaming diversity policy objectives – for instance, ensuring equal access to the service – and in adapting to the particular needs of migrant service users.

Information and advice

To guarantee equal access to services, some cities provide an information point specifically for migrants in public information offices, as seen in Antwerp, or employ a member or section of staff with the intercultural expertise and language skills to address migrants’ particular needs. Malmö’s district Citizen Offices not only provide information relevant to migrants, operating in a number of languages, but also put them in touch with relevant services, such as those relating to childcare, housing or obtaining support in starting a company. The offices can provide support on immigration and citizenship issues, help with filling out forms, and employ a nurse to advise on access to healthcare. Publicly accessible computers enable users to access the services of other public bodies. In Turin, information offices have been established in many of the neighbourhoods where migrants live; these offices employ intercultural mediators to work at the interface between foreign users and the city’s services. The webpage of the service is translated into six languages.

Malmö – Linking migrants with service providers

Malmö employs ‘link workers’ to help migrants and ethnic groups connect with service providers. Working in the migrants’ native language, the link worker has a social position in the migrant and host communities and can help individuals in these communities to increase knowledge, understanding and contact. The city employs 25 link workers altogether, including staff from Afghanistan, Iraq, Kosovo and of Roma origin, who work at schools, in after-school activities, in citizens’ offices and at the employment and
development centre. Besides knowledge of at least one foreign language, a link worker reportedly needs to be able to inspire confidence, have an optimistic outlook and be convinced of the positive contribution of diversity. Obstacles that link workers may encounter include: a negative interpretation of integration, traditional attitudes within authorities and organisations, passivity among people, and a lack of knowledge in working with projects and organisations. Link workers are perceived as ‘gatekeepers’ to social institutions and isolated communities; moreover, they act as role models who show that people can operate according to different cultural codes.

**Translation and interpreting**

Many cities provide written information on services in different languages, which are distributed in places that migrants are likely to frequent; a telephone interpreting service may also be provided. The city of Vienna has multilingual material on a wide range of services, from waste disposal to health information and business start-ups. It also provides information to newspapers published in people’s mother tongue and is among those cities whose website is, either entirely or partly, translated into other languages. The city of Tallinn helps to ensure that its Russian minority population can access municipal services by offering every service in Russian and translating all official publications. Sefton ensures that pictures of service users in its general leaflets advertising services include images of people from different backgrounds; this sends the message to users, from different nationalities, that the service is also for them. In addition, the cities provide written information tailored directly for migrants, including appropriate classroom materials. Many cities ensure that their staff have access to an interpretation service, as is the case in Terrassa, where medical personnel, teachers, employers, municipal staff and other individuals can use the service when they have to communicate with someone who does not speak the language.

**Wolverhampton – City-wide partnership for translation and interpretation services**

Interpreting and translation services are considered of central importance in facilitating access to mainstream services for ethnic minority and migrant groups for whom English is not their first language. In recent years, this has included the need to provide interpreting assistance by frontline service staff, who are dealing with an increasing number of eastern European languages, as well as languages spoken by asylum seekers and refugees. This presents
three issues for the council and other service providers: the cost of these services, their accessibility and their quality.

Wolverhampton City Council has led a city-wide partnership project, called the Wolverhampton Interpretation and Translation Service (WITS). The service was established in 2004 to develop and coordinate – but not to deliver – interpreting and translation services, in order to secure cost-effective and reliable services for all service providers and users. A task group was set up in conjunction with relevant agencies, including the Primary Care Trust (provision of health services), the City of Wolverhampton College, Wolverhampton University, and the local Voluntary Sector Council. An audit of existing interpreting services was carried out, following which the council put out to tender the delivery of face-to-face interpreting and translation services, and the provision of a telephone interpreting service. Access to a full range of languages is now available. The project has been successful in allowing a joint approach to be taken to address the need for interpreting and translation services by service providers across the city. One difficulty is the lack of funding for interpreting services in the budgets of some council service groups and external service providers. Therefore, while there may be a need for the services of WITS, the funding may not always be in place to access these services; this raises issues regarding the potential need for ring-fenced funding for this purpose.

The cost of translation and interpreting services is a growing challenge, as the diversity of migrants, and hence number of languages, increases; another related issue is where migrant numbers are too small to justify translation costs. Cities have therefore had to consider whether it is cost-effective to translate a particular document, and questions have arisen at national level whether reliance on translated documents may deter long-term migrant residents from learning the national language. The city of Breda translated all of its leaflets into three languages in the 1980s but abandoned this approach as it became ineffective and too costly given the number of languages that would now be involved. It believes the policy was ineffective because less educated Turkish and Moroccan people did not read the leaflets in Turkish and Arabic, as they were more oriented towards oral communication.

Amsterdam – Enhancing communication on healthcare

An intense debate on the advantages and disadvantages of translating information material has led Amsterdam to shift its policy away from translation, except in areas such as health where the need
to ensure migrants’ understanding of information is overriding. The city’s Health Service employs 25 immigrant information officers who work in neighbourhood General Practitioner Centres and in 10 Mother Child Centres, translating and mediating between patients and medical staff. As a result, doctors report that they are not only able to better understand their patients and make a diagnosis, but also that patients are more likely to take the medication and follow the therapy prescribed. In addition, the city funds migrant associations to organise information meetings, for instance on venereal disease or female circumcision; it also provides training for the information staff working for migrant associations. Experience has shown that the target group simply will not turn up unless the information meeting is organised by members of the community. Through the cooperation of the migrant association, the Health Service also gets vital information on problems in migrant communities and on their difficulties in accessing services; for example, it was found that letters from the health service were often written in too complicated a manner.

Communication is not only essential in relation to personal services such as healthcare. Waste disposal, for instance, is a frequent source of community tension, if new migrants are unfamiliar with the local system. As a result, Sefton’s authority recently changed its collection system and hired ‘waste advisors’ to accompany the rubbish collectors and identify households that may need assistance in understanding what they need to do. Although the service is available for all of the local population, Sefton ensured that the waste advisors had access to the ‘language line’ translation service and had undergone equality and diversity training to enable them to provide a culturally sensitive service. Similarly, the city of Terrassa includes waste collection information in its ‘living together programme’.

Increased pressure on service providers can be the catalyst for the city to provide information in migrants’ native language. This was the case in relation to Dublin City Council, for example, which found that an increasing number of foreign nationals were presenting incomplete application forms and documentation for motor vehicle licences, having misunderstood what was required. This, in turn, had an impact on the department’s speed of delivery and hence its ability to meet performance targets; at the same time, it increased the levels of stress among counter staff and migrant applicants. Licences issued in the Dublin region currently include some 6,000 licences held by Nigerian nationals and 3,500 licences held by Chinese nationals. Finally, a decision was
taken to translate the signage and application forms in the city’s motor tax offices into eight languages. This initiative cost less than €10,000 and is now being rolled out at national level across Ireland.

Adapting services to meet migrants’ needs
Some cities have gone further in adapting the services they provide, to meet the particular needs of the migrant population or sections of it. Liège, for instance, opens its swimming pools during particular times for women only; while not intended solely for members of migrant communities, this change has made it possible for groups such as Muslim women to use the pool. Valencia and Malmö have adapted their libraries to reflect the languages and cultures of the city’s population, while the measures adopted by Dublin’s library service have become internationally recognised. Terrassa’s library service sources material about migrants’ home countries or material that is easy to read for people who are not proficient in reading Catalan; it also organises activities to promote intercultural dialogue, such as inviting a Senegalese writer to talk about his work.

Dublin – An award-winning library service
Dublin’s library service, which encompasses 32 libraries across the city, began to recognise how it was becoming a focal meeting point for migrants – partly because its libraries provide free internet access and language learning facilities. In response, the service adapted its membership requirements, enabling people to become library users even if they cannot provide a permanent address; at the same time, it set up a Conversation Exchange Programme in a number of branches, matching users who want to practise their respective languages. An initial pilot scheme to source books in different languages has also been extended to other branch libraries, with posters advertising their availability in different languages. As a result, between 2001 and 2006, the number of nationalities of people registering to use the library facilities increased by 36%; this included users from 120 nationalities who registered to use its language learning facilities. In recognition of its achievements, the library service was awarded an EU Language Ambassador of the Year Award in 2006.

In relation to a major service, such as public housing, a city may develop a written strategy to meet the needs of its migrant or minority population, drawing on research that provides evidence of the problems to be addressed. Wolverhampton has taken this approach in its ‘Black and Minority Ethnic
Housing Action Plan’, covering the period 2007–2010. The plan is based on research and consultations on the housing needs and aspirations of black and minority ethnic communities across the city. Its objectives include developing housing options for refugees, carrying out research on the housing needs of new migrant communities, and developing an information pack for refugees and other newcomers from abroad (outlining housing options open to them in the city). With regard to the provision of social housing, now delivered by an ‘arms-length’ management organisation, an equality strategy and implementation plan have been drawn up to ensure that the service addresses improvements identified as necessary by the council.

**General services for disadvantaged people**

While some of the cities may avoid targeted services, they may nevertheless locate a service for disadvantaged people in an area which, in practice, serves a largely migrant population. In the city of zmir, for example, a free health service is provided by Esrefpasa Hospital. Alternatively, an initiative may be designed for disadvantaged people, among whom migrants may particularly benefit. The city of Antwerp, for instance, funds some of the education services provided in disadvantaged areas, working with pupils, parents and schools to improve school attendance and performance. Similarly, Amsterdam runs an employment project for people who have dropped out of school and have no work skills – known as ‘The recovery’ (*De Herstelling*). Work experience is offered in building, carpentry, roof making and other technical professions, with particular attention being paid to punctuality and politeness, cleaning up tools, working together and other basic work skills.

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**Mataró – Practical help with finding employment**

Recruitment is generally done through the city’s labour office (*Institut Municipal de Promoció Econòmica de Mataró, IMPEM*), which provides training and supports new entrepreneurs. The service is also aimed at young people under 25 years of age and disabled people. However, a special coordinator for issues concerning immigrants has been hired. Job-hunting migrants are initially invited into a large room, which provides access to computers and newspapers. An official explains the application system to them, and support is available for individuals or small groups. Some advertisements are marked in red on a notice board; applicants who have problems reading can consult staff members about these.

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12 http://www.herstelling.nl
opportunities. Consultations are available for curriculum vitae (CV) preparation, career development and schooling. Such consultations may involve:

- identifying the applicant’s interests, capabilities and attitudes;
- recognising how professional qualifications can be developed or improved;
- providing 30 courses for Spanish and non-Spanish speakers in fields where there is a shortage of labour – such as hotel management, childcare, business development, plumbing and computer skills;
- offering three hours of training to improve job search strategies, familiarity with the internet, cover letter writing, CV adaptation and job interviewing.

These services are advertised among migrant associations to promote their availability. Besides dedicating specific services and staff members to migrants, IMPEM also makes special provisions for young people aged under 25 years and disabled people.

**Specific services for migrants**

Many cities therefore avoid providing targeted services, unless absolutely necessary, preferring to meet the needs of a diverse population through their mainstream services wherever possible; at the same time, they may recognise that newcomers, in particular, may have needs that can only be met by targeted provision. Other cities have been open to a wider range of specialist services, arguably reducing the pressure on the cities’ existing services to adapt to such needs.

**Reception and language tuition for newcomers**

The most frequent targeted services are those provided to newcomers – including advice, social orientation, language classes and welcome packs – as well as longer-term support given to refugees. Wolverhampton and Vienna are among those cities that provide welcome packs to new arrivals, some containing specialist information, along with access to advice services and welcome centres. Vienna’s welcome services for newcomers include orientation and job consultations, a voucher for language training provided by the city, job training and assistance in job search, support in completing administrative documents, and encouragement to participate in cultural activities; such support is available to more established migrants as well.
Mataró – Welcome pack and language tuition

Mataró’s welcome pack includes a letter, sent from the city’s mayor when the individual registers their residence, along with an information session of about two hours and a 29-page guide. The information guide gives a full list of residents’ rights and obligations, and is translated into six languages. The information sessions are held in nine languages, including Catalan. All immigrants are then offered a language and information course, which is free and voluntary; the course comprises 10 hours of information on how the city works, in addition to 20 hours of Catalan language tuition, leading to a certificate. With a group size of between 10 and 15 persons, and the possibility of women-only courses and evening sessions for working people, the municipality tries to keep the threshold low and attract all new citizens. After finishing this phase, the individual can go on to do further language courses organised by external services. Migrants also have access to an intercultural mediation service, which facilitates communication with public services. It is possible, for instance, to phone one of the mediators from a hospital and request a direct translation service.

Among the other services provided by cities, Valencia’s Immigration Support Centre (Centro de Apoyo a la Inmigración, CAI) runs an immigration ‘hotline’, providing advice on immigration law and social services. The city of Terrassa’s orientation for newcomers includes some 20 hours of ‘social training’ on the city’s services – including its healthcare facilities, the education system, work, the law and the constitution, and correct behaviour, for instance, in relations between men and women. A noteworthy concern cited in the Terrassa city report relates to two groups that may have particular difficulties in accessing the city’s services: namely, people who are illiterate (comprising an estimated 41% of its Chinese population and 33% of Moroccans), and those whose status is irregular. The city tries to encourage all immigrants, including those who are illiterate, to take courses to address their difficulties. Cities with an integration or reception service provide a ‘one-stop shop means’ of directing migrants to the right service. Frontline staff may also receive intercultural training so that they can direct migrants to the services they need. While, in most cases, participation in reception programmes is voluntary, a minority of countries require some migrants to attend language courses, for which the city may be responsible.
Malmö – Reception programme for newcomers

All refugees and immigrants living in Malmö are enrolled in an introductory programme when they receive their residence permit. The objective of this initiative is to enable these individuals to become self-sufficient, find employment or enrol in education, and fully participate in society. The law states that all adult immigrants should begin the programme, which lasts for up to three years, within three months of being registered in the municipality. The programme is organised and financed by the city of Malmö in cooperation with the Public Employment Service, the Skåne Region and the Swedish Migration Board. It comprises Swedish language lessons, social and labour market information, a professional evaluation, training in the workplace and job matching.

Participants are also able to verify qualifications obtained abroad and develop a portfolio of their achievements for job applications. Programmes are customised, taking the needs and potential of the individual into account. Language courses are particularly flexible. Five language schools accommodate the participants’ different needs, such as disabilities and varying educational backgrounds. Immigrants have the right to ask for education in their own language, experience having found that this method works better than giving classes solely in Swedish; furthermore, students tend to lose their confidence in such classes if they misunderstand the teacher. Malmö also runs targeted programmes such as IntroRehab, which treats refugees and immigrants for migration-related stress, including post-traumatic stress disorder. The programme offers medical treatment combined with some elements of the introductory programme, in an effort to increase the individual’s social integration and employment opportunities.

In many cities, NGOs provide services to newcomers, as seen in Arnsberg, where they contribute to language tuition and homework assistance for pupils. NGOs also organise the city’s most important annual festival, the multicultural DIES Internationalis; at the same time, Protestant and Catholic organisations focus on the needs of people with uncertain residency status, particularly asylum seekers and refugees.

Targeted information and advisory services may not only be directed at new arrivals, but also provide longer-term assistance on essential services. Terrassa, for example, has held information meetings to inform migrants about fire prevention in their homes, with key actions illustrated for those who are unable to read.
Education

Schools regularly provide targeted support for migrant children as well as their parents. The city of Turin, for instance, provides tuition in Italian to children, along with language classes and orientation for parents and an intercultural mediation service. Similarly, Breda runs an initiative to inform parents about the education system, to encourage them to become active in the children’s schools, to make them aware of their rights, to strengthen the bond between parents, children and education, and to address any difficulties such as early school leaving or cultural clashes between teachers, children and parents.

Meanwhile, Arnsberg seeks to raise parents’ awareness of the importance of nursery school and school attendance for their children, while providing homework assistance for pupils with a migration background. As a result, almost every child with a migration background attends a nursery school, which will give these children a better chance when they attend primary school. Frankfurt’s ‘AOE’ project (see earlier section on this project in this chapter) is innovative in working with migrant parents to inform them about the German education and training system, as well as giving advice on how to deal with education-related issues their children may experience, such as dyslexia. It trains migrants who then conduct workshops in 17 different languages, counsel migrants in their mother tongue and act as mediators. In 2006, some 3,450 people participated in the workshops and counselling sessions.

Some initiatives target the students as well as their parents. In Turin, a schools based project – entitled ‘If not now, then when?’ (Se non ora quando?) – involves 20 young foreigners and provides an extensive programme of language tuition for students and parents, along with measures encouraging self-help; the project seeks to help build a civic network across communities and generations, as well as to increase the participants’ sense of belonging. It also helps to increase and update teachers’ knowledge about migrant communities.

In Antwerp, meanwhile, an NGO runs an ‘education hotline’ for parents and students, from which knowledge of the problems they are facing is fed back to the education providers.

Amsterdam – Compulsory language and citizenship courses

Amsterdam delivers a national language and citizenship programme, reformulated in 2007, which is obligatory for those who meet the following criteria: anyone between the ages of 16 and 65 years who has a valid residence permit, is not a citizen of the EU or
Switzerland, has been living for under eight years in the Netherlands during compulsory school age, and who is not in the country only on a temporary basis. If the person speaks Dutch proficiently, they need only pass a test. Those who do not speak Dutch are required to attend the compulsory language and citizenship course. Unemployed people who receive social welfare are also obliged to take part in a programme designed to integrate them into the labour market. If the person does not complete the language exam, they are required to pay for the course (€276) – a more frequent experience among the less educated, although there are courses geared to their particular needs. Waiting lists for courses are getter shorter as more approved service providers become available. Nevertheless, the city had a database in which 35,000 people were registered for compulsory participation in the course from 2007 onwards. Altogether, some 3,115 newcomers and 3,818 longer-term residents took part in the course in 2007. The city estimates that 80,000 people will participate in the citizenship and language course in the next four years, although it is not clear whether this is manageable for the education providers.

In some cities, schools allow the option for children to be taught in their mother tongue: in Zagreb, for example, some school and crèches cater for the languages of national minority communities, with the national government and municipal authority sharing the cost.

**Services targeting women and vulnerable groups**

Some services target vulnerable groups. The Nora project in Terrassa, for example, provides women from the Maghreb region in North Africa with a range of services, including crisis intervention support in the event of family breakdown, legal assistance in relation to immigration as well as family matters, support in accessing the labour market and counselling for women in same-sex relationships. The service is run in conjunction with the Red Cross. The city of Breda runs an initiative to help women learn the Dutch language and find paid or voluntary work; the service provides language lessons in the home for those who cannot leave the house, while encouraging them to attend mainstream language courses. It recently secured 50 work placements for women by organising a breakfast meeting with employers, and has furnished an information centre that provides women with access to computers. Amsterdam, meanwhile, runs a neighbourhood based project for unemployed women who have a range of problems, encouraging them to take part in courses, go to the gym and participate in activities at their neighbourhood
centre, with the aim of reducing isolation and promoting social cohesion. In Terrassa, the organisation Caritas provides courses, among other things, to help migrant women adapt to their new surroundings and find work.

**Malmö – Encouraging female entrepreneurs**

The Organisation for International Women in Malmö (Internationella Kvinnoföreningen i Malmö, IKF) operates several programmes in collaboration with the city of Malmö, the European Social Fund (ESF) and other national and local partners. These include evening language courses, such as Danish, English and Spanish language classes, along with computer, music, health improvement and yoga classes. Other programmes include projects to train women for political participation, a sexual health programme and labour market projects. The latter include the sponsoring of ‘competencies days for female entrepreneurs’ and a mentorship network of leading business professionals. By connecting young, educated migrant women (aged 25–30 years) with business mentors, many unemployed women have successfully secured employment. Both parties benefit, as the migrant women become familiar with the formal and informal rules of the labour market and the mentors increase their intercultural skills. Prejudices about foreign employees are also broken down within the companies. IKF has three migrant women among its paid staff, as well as many volunteers. For its efforts, the organisation won the integration prize of Malmö for the year 2007.

Women are not the only group identified as having particular needs: for example, elderly migrants and irregular migrants may also require specific services. The city of Frankfurt provides intercultural counselling in 16 languages on pensions to inform elderly migrants about their rights in the German pension system. Terrassa is one of the few cities that provides services for irregular migrants, including a gynaecological care service for women, in recognition of the fact that without such support, serious problems could arise. The Red Cross, supported by the city, provides a wider range of services to irregular migrants, while trade unions offer legal support to regularise their status. In addition, Turin provides health information and care to irregular migrants who would otherwise not be entitled to access these essential services. Other cities, such as Zagreb, have a policy of providing services only to those with residency permits.
Italy – Access to essential services for irregular migrants

In Italy, irregular migrants are guaranteed essential rights, such as access to most public healthcare services and schools. Italy’s healthcare system is regionally based and provides universal coverage free of charge at the point of service. Migrants in Italy have the right to receive:

- urgent and essential primary and hospital care due to illness or accident;
- pregnancy and maternity care;
- full healthcare for those under 18 years of age;
- vaccinations (in some regions);
- prevention, diagnosis and treatment of infectious diseases;
- prevention, treatment and rehabilitation of drug addiction.

Enrolment in the country’s National Health Service is necessary for those who wish to take full advantage of the right to healthcare services. Unregistered foreigners who are legally resident in Italy are guaranteed urgent hospital care for surgery and in day-clinics, which are paid for on discharge; in addition, they are entitled to non-urgent healthcare on prior payment of the appropriate fees.

Irregular migrants are given a special anonymous public health card, valid for six months, which allows them to use the above-mentioned healthcare services. They are asked to pay the normal contribution if possible. Some Italian regions have established Health Information Centres on an experimental basis, to help deliver services to unregistered migrants. Intercultural mediators are employed at these centres and provide information in the users’ own languages.

State schools must also provide free access to minors who are irregular migrants. In addition, children have the right to attend crèches under the 286/1998 Consolidated Law. However, social integration measures are limited to legal immigrants only. Therefore, local councils are not allowed to provide shelter, while private organisations are forbidden in principle to assist or host illegal immigrants, although this regulation is often not observed.

Homeless and often irregular migrants are supported in Mataró by the Red Cross, which is housed in the same building as the city’s mosque. Spanish law requires cities to support homeless people for a maximum of three days, through provisions such as hostel accommodation, food and bus tickets; in
Mataró, the city has come to an arrangement regarding such services with the Red Cross, which provided 1,500 meals for about 500 persons in 2007, some 80% of whom were immigrants. The mosque also supplies free meals on Fridays. It is estimated that around 90 homeless people travel from city to city to find food each day.

Another risk to which migrants may be vulnerable is crime. Migrants who are the victim of ‘hate crime’ may be reluctant to contact the police. Sefton has worked with other public bodies to provide alternative ways for them to report such crimes.

Sefton – Facilitating the reporting of hate crime
Sefton has been working actively to improve conditions for the reporting of racially related ‘hate crime’. In May 2005, the Sefton Hate Crime Forum was launched. The forum takes a dynamic multi-agency approach to support the victims of hate crime, including racist incidents. Its measures include:

- the establishment of 45–50 reporting centres across Sefton, where reporting forms can be submitted; the reporting centres are council authorities including, for example, housing offices and NGOs, such as the local branch of the national organisation Victim Support;

- emotional and practical help for those affected – provided as a follow-up service by Victim Support;

- close cooperation with the police – Victim Support works closely with the police, who have trained their staff on cultural awareness and equality issues.

The Equalities Partnership has been reviewing responses to hate crime in Sefton, and recognises that the partnership requires more in-depth and detailed knowledge regarding the needs of victims of hate crime. It recently commissioned a needs assessment to document the experiences of victims of hate crime in Sefton and to recommend ways in which victims might be better supported. The draft report was presented at a multi-agency conference in January 2008, resulting in a framework for implementation of the recommendations.

Asylum seekers and refugees
Many cities have a responsibility to provide reception services and long-term support to refugees. The city of Turku provides extensive support, but generally
finds that it takes about six years for a refugee to become self-sufficient. This has raised questions over whether such services could create dependency in some cases, rather than encouraging independence among refugees.

Turin – Measures for asylum seekers and refugees

Turin is part of the National System for the Protection of Asylum Seekers and Refugees (Sistema di Protezione per Richiedenti Asilo e Rifugiati, SPRAR) and receives significant numbers of central African refugees through the Italian dispersal programme. Residential services are provided on an informal basis by NGOs. However, the city remains one of the main reception areas in the country and has 148 beds for asylum seekers and refugees. The municipal council wishes to extend the availability of services to people with a humanitarian residence permit. It intends to start a pilot project to provide refugees with the means to become independent while they reside in Turin. The pilot project will be accompanied by a publicity campaign to raise awareness of refugees’ issues. Asylum seekers participating in the project will be provided with board and lodging, as well as help for social integration. Language training, psychological support and legal advice will also be offered.

Turin is also one of eight Italian cities which are involved in the IntegRARsi project, funded under the EQUAL Programme, which develops local networks for the social and economic integration of asylum seekers and refugees. Project activities fall under five main categories:

- training for local service providers – aimed at strengthening skills and competencies concerning asylum seekers and refugees;
- orientation and information services for asylum seekers;
- social and labour integration of asylum seekers and refugees – for example, through language courses, skills certification, training apprenticeships and CV preparation;
- awareness-raising campaigns and educational activities – aimed at creating a broader culture of protection for asylum seekers, refugees and other vulnerable groups;
- monitoring and evaluation of strategies and activities carried out by all project partners.

While the project is coordinated at national level, its initiatives involve various organisations, enterprises, local authorities and non-profit institutions, as well as other civil society actors.
Migrant staff with appropriate skills

In Chapter 3, it was shown that many of the cities provide intercultural or diversity training to equip their employees to work with and provide services to migrants. Where services are delivered by the city authority itself, managers have also become increasingly aware of the value of having a diverse workforce to deliver services to a diverse population. Whereas people of migrant origin were initially, in many cases, employed only in services targeted at migrants, such as translation and cultural mediation, cities are beginning to realise the benefits of having migrants themselves as service providers – for instance, as employees of the police force, healthcare services, childcare centres and social services. In Vienna, some service providers, such as children’s day care centres and hospitals, have been employing multilingual employees for some time. In Turku, a small number of healthcare workers with a migration background are employed to do health checkups in general hospitals and in a special multicultural health centre in one neighbourhood. The city also employs 50 teachers for mother tongue tuition and remedial teaching. Significantly, this development has been driven by a demand for the migrants’ skills and not as a result of any employment equality policy. As the city report for Mataró notes: ‘The Council engages immigrants in its services provision, not because they are foreigners, but because they are experts in a specific area.’ Amsterdam reports that the growing number of migrant staff is increasing the cultural awareness of their colleagues. The employment of migrants as service providers is also a growing development within NGOs and among private contractors of municipal services. In some cases, as already outlined, contractors are required to provide equality of opportunity in their employment as a condition for securing their funding.

While some of the cities have therefore been able to report progress in this area, others were unable to confirm whether people with a migration background were employed in their service delivery, as no data were collected on the country of birth, nationality or ethnicity of their staff. Of those cities which did keep such statistics, few could give a detailed breakdown of migrant staff within the different service sectors. Nonetheless, Malmö’s cooperation with its local university has enabled it to do so in relation to the areas of healthcare and care of elderly people; the data from 2001 show that despite staff shortages in the sector, most ethnic groups were underrepresented in these areas.
**Monitoring service outcomes**

By monitoring access to services, cities can determine whether or not their objectives have been achieved. For example, the city of Arnsberg has found that only 7% of foreign students passed their final exams (Abitur) on completion of their secondary school education, while the average for the city as a whole was 30%. Furthermore, compared with German students, almost twice as many foreign students (30%) graduate from secondary modern school (Hauptschule). It is also striking that more than a third of all students with special needs do not have German citizenship, while about 20% of foreign students compared with 6% of German students did not graduate from any kind of school.

Having identified that a section of the community is not securing equal access or having the same outcomes as other residents, cities such as Wolverhampton have been able to set certain targets to work towards. In relation to education outcomes, for instance, it has set itself the target to increase the percentage of 11 year-old students from the black or minority ethnic communities who achieve a ‘Level 4+’ qualification in English and mathematics; in relation to health, the city seeks to increase the access of people in these same communities to culturally appropriate treatment.

However, many of the cities are finding that their lack of data on service users – more specifically, their needs, access to services, satisfaction and outcomes – is proving to be a major barrier. Without knowing which migrants are securing access to each service, the cities cannot identify the barriers that particular groups of migrants – such as women, rural workers or people whose language is not included in translated material – are experiencing. Some cities rely on anecdotal information from frontline service staff; others have managed to obtain data on the use of some or all of their services by foreign nationals or ethnic minorities, in turn using this information to guide their service improvements. Cities such as Turin have obtained data on the immigrant status of their service users, as their identity is recorded when they use a particular service; however, they have not used this information as yet to monitor users’ access or satisfaction. Other cities, such as Brescia, know how many people accessed their information service for migrants, but have been unable to conduct any evaluation of the quality of service or of user satisfaction.

Valencia reported no monitoring of services and hence only anecdotal reports on performance in achieving its goals: for instance, it found that long delays in
providing intercultural training meant that many frontline staff had yet to receive such training. Terrassa, on the other hand, does monitor service use and hence knows, for instance, that in 2006 more than 30% of its social service users were foreigners, as were 12% of its school population. Antwerp has benefited from a customer satisfaction survey of its counter services, which found that 10% of respondents were foreign nationals; as a result, the city now has measurable service quality standards, which it intends to monitor on a regular basis. In Vienna, some city commissions and departments conduct regular client surveys to monitor satisfaction with municipal services.

Other cities have found that migrants’ response to such surveys is low, perhaps because these surveys are insufficiently adapted for a migrant respondent; as a result, they have little or no data on migrant users’ satisfaction with the services provided. Even less information is available on service outcomes. This means that cities are providing services without obtaining feedback on whether they are achieving their objectives. One city suggested that the absence of riots was perhaps its only indicator of success; another city indicated that its policies had kept social cohesion at an acceptable level. Another significant challenge is the lack of information about migrants’ needs. Some cities have conducted consultations and have to decide whether to consult community leaders or a wider range of individuals, ensuring that groups such as women are equally represented in the views expressed.

As with employment, it is clear therefore that, in relation to equality and diversity, policy and practices in services provision exhibit many examples of good practice; however, they also point to a range of challenges that need to be addressed.
The cities covered in this report are diverse, not least in their experience of migration, their significance as employers in their area and their responsibilities. It is not surprising, therefore, that the cities are at very different stages in the development of policies and practices in relation to the employment of migrants and people of migration background within the city administration and with regard to the services provided to these people. The cities range from those with no policies at all, to cities with isolated areas of policy or practice development, or those endeavouring to take a strategic approach across their administration. This reflects, in part, the differing national traditions in relation to diversity, equality and integration issues, along with the extent to which cities have felt obliged by external and internal pressures to give priority to this issue, and their differing objectives. External pressures on cities have included the need to comply with anti-discrimination and equality laws; the desire to present a positive image of the city in order to attract new migrants to fill labour shortages; and the aspiration to address challenges arising from the disadvantage experienced by migrants or hostility expressed towards them.

The EU, Council of Europe and, in some cases, national governments have placed considerable emphasis on the integration of legal migrants; this includes ensuring equality of opportunity for those entitled to work and/or in relation to accessing services. Reports from FRA and the studies cited in this report have equally emphasised the challenges that migrants can face in accessing jobs and services, and the importance of equality and diversity policies to overcome the barriers they may be facing. In this context, EU citizens exercising their free movement rights are included, as, although they are not ‘migrants’, may nevertheless face some of the same challenges.

Some of the cities have developed their approach within a discrimination or equality perspective, emphasising migrants’ rights to be free from discrimination and to have equality of opportunity in jobs and services. In contrast, others have placed a greater emphasis on a diversity management approach, highlighting the benefits which the city can gain from cultural pluralism and, in practice, the need to address the challenges it can pose. The cities that have developed policies in this area most recently have often done
so within a broader policy framework to promote the integration of migrants. Nevertheless, there are cities which have not yet prioritised the employment of migrants within the city administration, nor in relation to the services which the city provides. However, cities can be the largest or one of the largest employers in their region and, while the range of services provided by cities varies, most have responsibility for the services most significant to migrant integration – including education, housing and, in some cases, healthcare. Moreover, cities have greater control over their own personnel policy and services than over other levers that may promote integration; in fact, as this report shows, some cities have made significant progress in this respect.

Against this background, it may be concluded that the cities need to give greater priority to policy areas concerning the employment of migrants within the city administration and in relation to addressing the barriers migrants may face in accessing services. The cities should emphasise these issues within a broader integration, diversity or equality strategy, reviewing their current approach where necessary. The following lessons and recommendations may be helpful in this process. While most of the recommendations are for the cities themselves, there may be a case, in some instances, for guidance, research or law reform at the European or national level.

**Recommendations for European policymakers**

**Provide guidance on concepts, terminology, legal obligations and good practice**

Cities could benefit from authoritative and explicit guidance from the European Commission on concepts and terminology in this field – for example, on the difference between equality and diversity management, and between positive action and positive discrimination. They could also benefit from guidance on the strengths and limitations of adopting a particular framework for policy development. The latter might explain, for instance, that an exclusive focus on the benefits of diversity may not only ignore the challenges and risks it presents, but also the fundamental rights of individual migrants to equal treatment – regardless of whether a diverse workforce is considered beneficial or not from the city’s perspective.

Guidance from the Commission on legal requirements and constraints under EU law, in an accessible and understandable form, would also provide clarity on the circumstances in which positive action is appropriate and in which
positive discrimination can be lawful. It could also clarify the extent to which contracts with external providers of services for migrants can include requirements to meet diversity and equality standards, without breaching EU procurement rules. Such information could be published on the new Commission website on the integration of migrants and in brochures available in different languages.\footnote{http://ec.europa.eu/justice_home/fsj/immigration/integration/fsj_immigration_integration_en.htm}

Consistent with the Council of Europe’s emphasis on equality and on promoting the integration of migrants, it would be worthwhile if the Committee of Ministers were to draw the attention of its Member States’ governments to the recommendations outlined in this report. Moreover, it would be beneficial if the Congress of Local and Regional Authorities and the European Council against Racism and Intolerance considered providing guidance on good practice in relation to equality and diversity for the municipalities in countries not covered by EU law.

**Review legal restrictions on access of non-EEA nationals to municipal jobs**

The project has found that extensive restrictions on access to municipal jobs for non-EEA nationals significantly limits their eligibility and confines many of them to temporary posts or contract jobs, which often entail lower pay and inferior working conditions. A comparative overview and critical analysis of these restrictions in EU Member States, funded by the European Commission and conducted by the Council of Europe or FRA, could investigate their rationale, necessity and impact, with a view to producing guidance for national governments on limiting or removing such restrictions. This could increase the opportunities for migrants to access ‘good’ jobs in municipal authorities, which are, in many cases, the largest or second largest employer in their area.

**Review the impact of the EU Employment Directive**

In contrast to awareness of the EU Race Equality Directive (2000/43/EC), the project found limited reference to the Employment Directive prohibiting discrimination on the grounds of religion and belief; moreover, the cities have adopted different approaches regarding the impact of religious and cultural practices in the workplace. A broader and more substantive review of the differing approaches being taken by local public employers, in the context of
the directive’s requirements, could lead to guidance that cities would find helpful in what can be a sensitive area of employment relations.

**Consider local public employers’ role in the labour market integration of migrants**

Within its strategic guidelines for the European Employment Policy, the European Commission has, for many years, identified the importance of achieving greater labour market integration of migrants – in particular, the integration of migrants coming from certain regions, such as North Africa, or of those with a specific legal status, such as refugees, or demographic status, for example women from Muslim countries. In this context, the role and responsibility of local authorities as employers is not explicitly reflected. Therefore, one suggestion would be for the employment guidelines to recommend that Member States should consider the importance of cities as employers in local labour markets and as role models of ‘good employers’ of migrants for companies in the private sector.

**Support continued sectoral social dialogue on diversity and equal treatment**

For a number of years, public employers in local and regional authorities represented by the Council of European Municipalities and Regions (CEMR), along with local public service unions represented by the European Federation of Public Service Unions (EPSU) within the European Trade Union Confederation (ETUC), have engaged in sectoral social dialogue at the European level. The objective of these efforts is to improve the working and employment conditions of employees of local and regional authorities in Europe. Recently, the social partners in this sector have taken up the issue of equal treatment and diversity management. This report recommends that the European Commission support these initiatives through an inventory of innovative collective agreements and practices, in order to improve the employment opportunities and working conditions of migrant employees in local and regional authorities. Furthermore, the Commission should urge the social partners to reach an agreement on concrete and practical recommendations.

**Increase awareness of the cities’ role as key employers of migrants**

Recognising the central role of national governments in coordinating local integration policies for migrants, the European Commission could consider raising awareness by enabling an exchange of experience and dialogue.
between local authorities on their role as employers and service providers for migrants. A platform for such initiatives could be the so-called ‘Rotterdam process’, as a joint undertaking between the Commission (Directorate General for Justice, Liberty and Security) and Eurocities (a network of major European cities); or through financial support for a series of regional seminars in Europe within the new PROGRESS programme of the Directorate General for Employment, Social Affairs and Equal Opportunities.

**Mainstream training and development support for migrants in the ESF**

Traditionally, the ESF and related programmes have played an important role in developing the human capital and competencies of risk groups, such as migrants, in the labour market. Considering the overrepresentation of migrants in the lower echelons of the internal labour market of many local authorities, as shown in this report, it would be beneficial if specific support for migrant workers in local authorities could be mainstreamed into the activities of the ESF. The European Commission and Member States should also take steps to increase local authorities’ awareness regarding the availability of such funds.

**Increase cooperation between institutions within the EU**

The issue of employment and services provision for migrants in local authorities is a concern of several EU agencies, such as FRA, the European Centre for the Development of Vocational Training (Cedefop) and Eurofound. These agencies should increase their cooperation and consider joint research and dialogue in this respect with local authorities in Europe. In addition, cooperation should be improved between the EU agencies and other bodies of the EU that play a role in the labour market integration of migrants at a local level. In particular, these bodies include the European Economic and Social Committee (EESC) and the Committee of the Regions (CoR). In this context, the EESC might consider choosing the issue of employment and services provision for migrants in cities as one issue which could be taken up in the new ‘Integration Forum’.

**Recommendations for national governments**

**Consider a legal requirement for cities to promote equality of opportunity**

The Council of Europe’s European ECRI recommended, in 2002, that ‘the law should place public authorities under a duty to promote equality and to
prevent discrimination in carrying out their functions; at the same time, it should require them to ensure that those parties to whom they award contracts or grants ‘respect and promote a policy of non-discrimination’ (ECRI, 2003). This is of growing importance given the trend for cities to contract services out to external providers. Few CoE Member States have so far implemented either recommendation. However, those cities in the CLIP network that have done so found this proactive approach – taking steps to promote equality that do not involve any positive discrimination, and extending that responsibility to organisations that they fund – had the potential to be effective drivers of change. Thus, it would be beneficial if national governments consider the potential of these drivers to shift practice, learning from those countries that have begun to take this approach.

**Include responsibility of local public employers in national integration plans**

In the last couple of years, many EU Member States have developed national integration plans for migrants, which define the key objectives and programmes of national integration activities. A further recommendation would be that Member States recognise in their integration plans the importance of employment and services provision for migrants by local authorities. National governments should encourage local authorities to become role models for a proactive and comprehensive equality policy for migrant workers within their own administration and companies. In this context, Member States should consider providing funding for an exchange of experience between local authorities on these important issues.

**Encourage national social dialogue**

Member States should encourage the social partners in local public authorities to initiate or continue consultation and collective bargaining on effective diversity and equality management with regard to migrant workers.

**Validate migrants’ qualifications**

The experiences of local authorities within the CLIP network confirm that access to employment and career development in local public administration for migrants can depend on a swift, appropriate and fair recognition of qualifications and professional experience. Overall, research evidence in Europe seems to point to a significant ‘skill and brain waste’ due to inappropriate national procedures. In this respect, local authority employers depend on national support to ensure effective and timely procedures, as this
is the level at which qualifications are standardised and procedures for recognition established. National governments may wish to review their current arrangements for recognition of qualifications, ensuring that they do not present an unnecessary obstacle to full integration of migrants within the labour market, and within municipal employment in particular.

**Inform migrants about their employment and services provision rights**
National governments should consider providing brochures in different languages to inform migrants about their employment rights and highlight job opportunities within the local public administration. In the same context, provision should be made to ensure that migrants receive information on the services provided by local authorities to which they are entitled.

**Recommendations for cities**

**Provide leadership and ensure consistency across departments**
In many cases, the cities reported that their initiatives regarding particular services had arisen due to pressures on staff from service users, and within employment because of the need to comply with discrimination law, rather than from an overarching policy framework identifying clear objectives, which the initiatives were designed to achieve. Positive initiatives can also emerge from the ‘bottom up’ from municipal staff but, as a result, may not be taken up by other sections of the authority. A lack of overall direction can be exacerbated where responsibility for the initiative does not lie at a senior level among elected representatives and staff. As a result, a lack of consistency can arise across the authority, with some departments actively engaged in the issues and others maintaining a different approach or failing to recognise the need to act.
In contrast, greater clarity in the objectives and consistency in implementation is evident across the authority when the city’s mayor and senior administrators take an interest in the issue, when responsibility for implementation is overseen by senior management in the administration, and when departments report on their progress.

A first recommendation would be for cities to review, at the highest level, their objectives in relation to the employment of migrants within the local authority and with regard to public service delivery. Secondly, the cities should put in place the appropriate leadership and management system to ensure consistency in the delivery of these objectives across all relevant departments.
and services; this includes endorsing good practice where it has already been implemented on the initiative of staff.

**Move beyond anti-discrimination procedures**

All EU cities are obliged to comply with EU directives transposed into domestic law, requiring action to be taken to prevent and redress discrimination in employment on the grounds of race, religion and belief, and on the grounds of race in the provision of services. Some departments within the cities took the view that this was the extent of their responsibility. Others had found that, where migrants’ needs differed from those of other residents or they faced additional barriers to accessing jobs and services, preventing discrimination would not be sufficient by itself to ensure equality of opportunity. Rather, it was necessary to be proactive to overcome these barriers through positive action rather than positive discrimination; this report cites many instances where the cities have taken such an initiative. Examples include targeted advertising of jobs in migrants’ own languages, advanced language classes, translation of information about services provided, and training of staff to provide assistance in completing application forms.

In this context, it would be worthwhile if the cities reviewed the evidence available to them to determine whether migrants and people of migration background are able to access their jobs and services, while identifying any barriers that may be preventing them from doing so. Secondly, they could identify steps that may be taken to overcome these barriers, enabling migrants to compete for jobs and promotion on an equal basis with other residents and to access services that meet their needs.

**Provide data and implement effective monitoring and accountability**

Many cities were unable to report whether or not migrants were accessing jobs, including senior jobs, within the administration, or if they were proportionately represented among service users. In many cases they could not provide data or evidence on migrants’ needs, service satisfaction, or service outcomes relative to those of other users – for example, in relation to educational performance, housing standards or health status. While in some countries, the collection of data on people who are foreign born, foreign nationals or from ethnic minority groups is required or encouraged, in other countries it is a highly sensitive issue and can in itself be considered a discriminatory practice. On the other hand, it is difficult for cities to know whether migrants and people
of migration background encounter barriers in accessing jobs and services if they do not collect any data of this kind. The European Parliament recently emphasised in a report on the application of the Race Equality Directive (2000/43/EC) the importance of adequate and reliable data collection, highlighting that ethnically disaggregated statistical data could be essential in demonstrating indirect discrimination and in informing anti-discrimination measures (European Parliament, 2007). Many city administrations or their departments report that they are expected to be able to report on progress in relation to these issues. Moreover, some cities have instituted or are subject to forms of accountability for performance on their equality and diversity policies. Managers may be held accountable internally for building a diverse staff team and/or successfully providing services to a diverse community. External evaluators appointed by the city, or national inspection or complaints bodies, may similarly call on the city administration to account for aspects of its performance on these issues. Without data that enables staff and the authority to monitor progress, it is difficult to have accountability mechanisms of this kind.

On this basis, it is recommended, firstly, that cities determine whether they have sufficient data to monitor their progress in relation to employment and service delivery. If they do not, they should consider whether additional forms of cost-effective data collection could be put in place across the administration, thus avoiding each service having to develop its own approach. Secondly, cities could consider what criteria they will use to measure the extent of implementation and to evaluate the impact of the measures they have undertaken. These criteria should take into account evidence of the needs of migrants; they should also identify whether the authority’s activities correspond to the aims of its policies, as well as determining the adequacy, effectiveness and sustainability of the policies and the progress that has been made towards achieving the city’s objectives. Finally, the cities could consider whether additional forms of accountability are available for departments and staff internally, as well as forms of external evaluation, which they might implement in order to ensure feedback on performance and the opportunity to regularly assess the lessons learnt.

**Review recruitment procedures and procedural barriers to employment**

The study revealed many procedural barriers to migrant employment within the city administration. In some cases, these barriers are undoubtedly
necessary: staff must have the level of language proficiency needed to fulfil the responsibilities of the post, and the city must ensure that qualifications are commensurate with those required for the job. However, in certain instances, there appeared to be procedural barriers that go beyond those necessary to ensure that the individual is well equipped to do the job: these include a requirement to speak two official languages, or for fluency in the language in jobs where it is not necessary in practice – for instance, in some manual jobs.

In relation to the recognition of qualifications, procedural complexity and long delays at national level in endorsing the comparability of qualifications may mean that migrants are not able to access jobs for which they are qualified. It would be beneficial, therefore, if the cities reviewed migrants’ eligibility for jobs across their administration; at the same time, they should consider whether the criteria that apply to all applicants – but that disproportionately disadvantage migrants – are necessary in all cases, such as the level of language proficiency. Secondly, the cities could raise with the appropriate national authority any difficulties which they or job applicants have experienced in relation to the recognition of qualifications, with a view to implementing a system that is able to confirm comparability of qualifications within a reasonable timescale. Finally, the cities should consider the relevance of the proactive approaches taken by other CLIP cities in attracting migrant workers and, where appropriate, pilot such approaches as part of their own recruitment strategy.

Ensure a welcoming and affirming work environment for migrant employees

Cities that want to attract and retain migrant workers within their administration can take steps to ensure that the working environment is welcoming and meets migrants’ particular needs, without having a negative effect on other parts of the workforce and accruing excessive additional costs. Among the measures that some cities have taken are ensuring that the staff canteen caters for differing dietary needs, setting aside a prayer room for those who want to pray at rest times during the day, allowing for flexibility in taking religious holidays, establishing an informal support group for minority staff, and translating health and safety information. In other cases, the city authorities did not feel that such measures were appropriate, or did not adopt this approach because there was no demand from their employees; however, making such changes can send a signal to potential employees that the city administration would provide a welcoming and inclusive working environment.
In this respect, it would be worthwhile if cities assessed whether the working environment in all departments and services is appropriate and welcoming for migrants; at the same time, they could consider any adaptations that could be made to encourage migrants to apply for jobs and remain in the city’s employment.

**Extend training on diversity management and equality practice**

Securing equality of opportunity for migrants in employment is not the only objective. Cities also need to ensure that they achieve the maximum benefit from a culturally diverse workforce and that any challenges it poses are managed effectively. Some city administrations are developing their diversity management strategy as part of a broader recognition of the need to service a population that is diverse in terms of gender, age, disability and sexual orientation, while ensuring that their employees are trained to comply with the law and ensure equality of opportunity.

Migrant staff should not be restricted to specialist posts working with migrants, but be encouraged to contribute to improving standards across the mainstream services delivered to a diverse local population. Managers could ensure that all employees have sufficient training on intercultural awareness to feel confident working with and providing services to people of differing cultures and faiths; similarly, they should recognise intercultural competence as a worthwhile skill in the recruitment process for relevant jobs. Moreover, managers should foster an environment in which employees are not afraid to admit their lack of knowledge about the needs of, or cultural sensitivities in relation to, a particular group or person.

**Build diversity and equality standards into contracts with external providers**

Many cities do not provide all of their services directly, but procure them from private and voluntary organisations. In a minority of cases, city administrations are now making provision in their contracts with service providers to ensure that they observe best practice in relation to discrimination and equality of opportunity among their employees and in the services they provide – as the Council of Europe’s ECRI recommends. In this way, the city authority can ensure that its own objectives and obligations in this respect continue to be fulfilled, even though it does not provide the service directly. Guidelines have been produced on ways in which cities can do this without breaching EU rules on public procurement (Commission for Racial Equality, 2003).
One recommendation in this context would be for cities to consider an appropriate way to include within their contracts with service providers and organisations to which they provide funds a provision to ensure that the provider fulfils the city’s objectives of securing equal access for migrants to the service provided and to the employment of the service provider.

**Ensure equality and diversity aims are reflected in partnership agreements**

City authorities may also enter into partnerships with public, private and voluntary organisations to achieve common objectives. This may include neighbouring municipalities, regional tiers of government, chambers of commerce, NGOs, trade unions and religious organisations. Where the cities are themselves building equality and diversity objectives into their employment and services provision, they may want to take the opportunity to encourage their partners to do so, sharing their own good practice. Experience in private sector companies would indicate that their partnerships with local trade union representatives and staff committees could also be of value – in particular, for developing and implementing successful diversity and equality policies for migrants in local authorities.

Where cities are members of local strategic partnerships in some form, they should ensure that equality and diversity issues relating to employment in the member organisations and to services provision are part of the partnership’s operational plan. Similarly, they should ensure that those partnerships that do not currently have such an arrangement consider whether, in relation to equality and diversity issues, their objectives could be furthered by working more closely with neighbouring organisations at the local level.

**Extend consultation with and participation of migrants**

City authorities have found that consultation with migrants about the challenges they face in accessing jobs and services has helped to inform the cities’ policies and particular initiatives. Making the necessary contacts and establishing communication is not always an easy exercise, particularly when migrants come from increasingly diverse countries of origin, with differing languages, cultural and religious backgrounds. Nevertheless, many cities have succeeded in establishing standing advisory committees or informal means of consultation to inform their work.

Cities should consider the most effective means of ensuring that migrants’ voices are heard when new policy approaches and service reforms are under
consideration; at the same time, they should move beyond consultation to involve migrants and people of migration background in the policy planning process. The cities should also consider consulting on the potential impact of new policies and services on migrants through the aforementioned Equality Impact Assessments, which provide a means for anticipating possible negative impacts and ensuring that opportunities are taken within new council initiatives to promote equality – opportunities that might not otherwise have been considered.

**Ensure that all new migrants can access advice, information and language tuition**

Early intervention can shorten the length of time it takes for migrants to become self-sufficient in employment, to access essential services and to contribute to the social and political life of the city. It may also help to ensure that migrants feel welcome in the city, encouraging a sense of belonging and shared citizenship. Significant variation is currently evident in the extent to which the cities provide or support services provision for newcomers, and some cities may only do so for limited categories of migrants.

In consultation with migrants, NGOs and relevant trade unions, the cities should review whether the needs of newcomers are being met. At the same time, they should consider ways in which they can broaden the services available and migrants’ awareness of them – more particularly, through the adaptation of general services, where possible, or through targeted provision when necessary.

**Develop an effective public communication strategy**

Some of the cities have faced hostility from members of the public in relation to the provision or adaptation of services for migrants; similarly, staff may resist diversity policies in staffing or services which they perceive as unnecessary.

In this context, cities should consider ways in which they can raise awareness among their staff and members of the public of the rationale behind their diversity policies and of the steps they can take to counteract misinformation about migrant’s access to services – particularly where these are a potential source of community tensions.


References


Annex 1: CLIP European research group

The following institutes and researchers from the CLIP European research group contributed to this report.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Organisation or department</th>
<th>Institute</th>
<th>Researchers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Centre for Ethnic and Migration Studies (CEDEM)</td>
<td>University of Liège</td>
<td>Marco Martiniello, Sonia Gsir, Nathalie Perrin</td>
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<tr>
<td>Centre on Migration Policy and Society (COMPAS)</td>
<td>University of Oxford</td>
<td>Sarah Spencer, Alessio Cangiano, Isabel Shutes, Andreea Torre, Christiane Wirth, Forsberg</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>European Forum for Migration Studies (efms)</td>
<td>University of Bamberg</td>
<td>Friedrich Heckmann, Wolfgang Bosswick, Doris Lüken-Klaßen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Institute for Migration and Ethnic Studies (IMES)</td>
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<td>Rinus Penninx, Anja van Heelsum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Institute for Urban and Regional Research (ISR)</td>
<td>Austrian Academy of Sciences</td>
<td>Heinz Fassmann, Peter Görgl, Josef Kohlbacher</td>
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Annex 2: Employment of migrants by CLIP cities

The table below provides some data for each city in the network on the migrant composition of their local population and on the composition of the municipal staff. It should be noted that, for some cities, the data for the local population refers to the ‘foreign born’ (those born abroad but including some who now hold the nationality of the country in which they live); for others it refers to ‘foreigners’ (those with the nationality of a different state but not necessarily born there); and for others it refers to those of ‘foreign origin’ (including, for instance, the children of migrants who were born in the country and those with a foreign nationality or dual nationality). The term ‘migration background’ is also sometimes used. There is no universally accepted definition of ‘migration background’; as with the term ‘foreign origin’, it can include people of foreign nationality born in the country, those born abroad who have naturalised, and citizens whose migration background derives from the migration status of their mother or father (as foreigners or foreign born). In some countries, data on the foreign born and foreigners includes only those whose status derives from outside the European Union.

The table must therefore be read with extreme caution. It gives only the broadest indication of the proportion of local residents and staff who have had the experience of migration from abroad or whose parents had that experience.

Secondly, please note that the data on the percentage of staff employed by the city is also not directly comparable. Some cities provide data only on staff employed directly by the council administration while others include staff employed by city companies or by services that fall within the responsibility of the city, such as schools and hospitals. Moreover, it would be more meaningful to compare the percentage employed by the city with the percentage of migrants in the local workforce rather than in the local population as a whole, but this data is not available.

Note also that the data provided by the cities, while the most recent available to them, was for different years in the range 2000 to 2007.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cities</th>
<th>Migrants as % of the total city population</th>
<th>Migrants as % of those employed by the city</th>
<th>Comments</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Amsterdam</td>
<td>49% migration background</td>
<td>22.5% migration background</td>
<td>The term ‘migration background’ includes second-generation migrants and immigrants with Dutch passports or dual nationality.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| Antwerp | 13.3% foreigners  
27% migration background | 6% ‘ethnic minorities’ (who constitute 30% of city’s working population) | ‘Ethnic minority’ denotes non-nationals and Belgian citizens who have a ‘foreign’ first and last name. |
| Arnsberg | 6.7% foreigners  
Approximately 15% have a migration background | 2.5% foreigners  
5.3% are born abroad and/or are foreigners | Majority work in low-skilled occupations. |
<p>| Breda | 20% have a migration background | 5% have a migration background | ‘Migration background’ includes the second generation and immigrants with Dutch passports or dual nationality. |
| Brescia | 15.3% foreigners | No data | Few foreigners are employed by the municipality, and these are mostly within services for immigrants provided by the Office of Integration and Citizenship. |
| Budapest | No official data. The ratio of minority groups within Budapest is almost equal to the national proportion | No data | Few immigrants are employed by the city, and mostly in less senior posts. |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cities</th>
<th>Migrants as % of the total city population</th>
<th>Migrants as % of those employed by the city</th>
<th>Comments</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Copenhagen | 19.8% foreign born or persons with foreign-born parent  
14.8% foreign born | 8.2% foreign born or with a foreign-born parent from a country other than EU15, USA, Norway, Iceland, Liechtenstein and Switzerland  
(10.8% for all foreign born or with a foreign-born parent) | In the cleaning department in the past four years the participation of migrants (foreign born/foreign-born parent) increased from 37% to 63%. |
<p>| Dublin     | 15% foreigners                             | No data                                     |                                                                                                                                          |
| Frankfurt  | 24.6% foreigners                           | 13% have a migration background             |                                                                                                                                          |
| Izmır      | No data                                   | No data                                     |                                                                                                                                          |
| Liège      | 18.3% foreigners                           | 3.5% foreigners                             |                                                                                                                                          |
| Luxembourg | 62.6% foreigners                           | No data                                     | According to the law from 2002 on the protection of data, it is prohibited to record some data on ethnic origin.                        |
| Malmö      | 36% from a migration background            | 25% from a migration background             | Note that the figure for those working in the city includes staff working in health and education whereas for other cities such as Amsterdam the data is for only those working in public administration. |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>City</th>
<th>Percentage of Foreigners</th>
<th>Notes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mataró</td>
<td>15.4%</td>
<td>No data</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prague</td>
<td>7.6%</td>
<td>No data</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sefton</td>
<td>3.3% combined figure for foreign born and ethnic minorities including those born in the UK</td>
<td>No data</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stuttgart</td>
<td>10%</td>
<td>Foreigners comprise 25% of those working for the city’s companies, which employ a high proportion of manual workers.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tallinn</td>
<td>28.9%</td>
<td>The Russian-speaking group is almost as significant as the Estonian speaking one. Employers cannot ask about data on migration background or ethnicity.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Terrassa</td>
<td>12%</td>
<td>The 2% figure is for public administration and excludes those working in health, education and public works. The figure also dates from 2001 whereas the data in column one is from 2007.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cities</td>
<td>Migrants as % of the total city population</td>
<td>Migrants as % of those employed by the city</td>
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<tr>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Torino</td>
<td>9.4% foreigners</td>
<td>1% foreigners</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Turku</td>
<td>4.3% foreigners</td>
<td>Not more than 0.5% with neither Finnish nor Swedish nationality or mother tongue</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Valencia</td>
<td>12.4% foreigners</td>
<td>No data</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vienna</td>
<td>18.7% foreigners</td>
<td>No data</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wolverhampton</td>
<td>22.2% from an ethnic minority</td>
<td>14% from an ethnic minority</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zagreb</td>
<td>5.2% ethnic minority</td>
<td>4.5% ethnic minority</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
European cities are faced with the ongoing challenge of integrating people from very different backgrounds. Access to jobs is recognised as a key dimension of this process, as is the provision of services that migrants can access fully and effectively, without discrimination. This report looks at equality and diversity policies in relation to employment and service provision for migrants in city administrations. It documents a range of positive initiatives taken to remove barriers to employment, such as targeted advertising of jobs in migrants’ languages, advanced language classes, translation of information about services provided, and training of staff to provide assistance in job applications. Published jointly with the Council of Europe, the report presents successful practices and strategies developed by the 25 cities participating in the second module of the European Network of Cities for Local Integration Policies for Migrants (CLIP).