Immigrant citizens survey

How immigrants experience integration

in 15 European cities

Immigrant Citizens Survey
How immigrants experience integration in 15 European cities

A joint publication of the King Baudouin Foundation, Brussels, and the Migration Policy Group, Brussels

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Foreword

The King Baudouin Foundation, the Migration Policy Group, and their partners set out to test whether integration policies matched the hopes and needs of immigrants across Europe. They also set out to test whether an underused tool—a targeted survey—could capture the personal experiences of people as diverse and hard-to-reach as immigrants from outside the EU. The Immigrant Citizens Survey was carried out in 15 cities in 7 European countries.

The Immigrant Citizens Survey is part of the King Baudouin Foundation's work to bring immigrants' voices into the public debate on migration and integration. Immigrants are at the centre of these debates in many EU member states but they are hardly visible in them. While opinion polls among the general public are often used in these debates, opinion polls among immigrants are hardly available. The King Baudouin Foundation, together with the Oak Foundation and the Calouste Gulbenkian Foundation as co-funders, were therefore delighted to receive further financial support from the European Commission that we needed to undertake this survey for the first time.

The results of this one year endeavour are striking. While the public debate focuses mostly on problems of integration and only little on the successes, this survey shows another picture. Immigrants are more positive about their situation and experience of integration policies than one might expect: they appreciate certain integration offers (such as language and integration courses in the country), want to be part of the society that they live in (interest in learning languages, voting, long-term residence and citizenship) and are generally as satisfied with their life as most people in the country.

Notwithstanding these successes, the survey also captures many of the problems that immigrants face. We should not forget that this survey focused on the general situation of legally-resident first-generation immigrants born outside the EU. To some extent, other studies which focussed on specific immigrant communities show another picture. However, this survey points out that problems in some migrant communities should not be generalised to all first-generation immigrants

This publication is only a first step in analysing all the results of the survey. In the next months, more work will be done to analyse the results in detail for specific immigrant groups, cities, and countries, also in comparison to other studies, such has the Migrant Integration Policy Index (MIPEX). Finally, an evaluation of this survey's methodology will help to improve and encourage other surveys.

It is our hope that governmental and non-governmental actors will make use of the Immigrant Citizens Survey as a database and as an example. They can discuss the results with migrants and their associations and recommend more informed and effective policies. Policy actors can also better inform the public about integration. The results are a chance to talk more about immigrants as people, who face realities and choices that are not very far from most people's lives.

We take this opportunity to thank the 19 partner organisations of the Immigrant Citizens Survey for their outstanding collaboration. This pioneering survey would not have been possible without the hard work of all scientific, polling and outreach partners.

King Baudouin Foundation and Migration Policy Group
May 2012

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Key findings

Employment

Problems on the labour market are often local, from few legal contracts in Southern Europe to discrimination and distrust of foreign qualifications in Northern Europe.

For immigrants, the major problem is job security.

25-33% of working immigrants feel overqualified for their job.

Educated immigrants often get their foreign qualifications recognised if they apply, but few apply.

Most working-age immigrants want more training.

Immigrants have greater problems balancing training, work, and family life than most people do in the country.

Languages

Immigrants generally speak more languages than the average person in their country of residence.

For immigrants – like for most people – time is the major problem for learning a new language.

Getting information on learning opportunities may be more difficult for immigrants than general public.

Wide range of immigrants participated in language or integration courses.

Participants highly value courses for learning language and often for socio-economic integration.

Political and Civic Participation

Most immigrants are interested in voting (often as much as nationals are)

Most immigrants want more diversity in politics – and many are willing to vote in support of it.

Immigrants' broader participation in civic life is uneven from city to city and organisation to organisation.

Whether immigrants know or participate in an immigrant NGO depends heavily on their local and national context.

Family Reunion

Only limited numbers of first-generation immigrants were ever separated from a partner or children.

The majority of separated families have already reunited in most surveyed countries.

Most separated immigrants today do not want to apply for their family, some because of family choices but others because of policy obstacles.

Family reunion helps immigrants improve family life, sense of belonging and sometimes other integration outcomes.

Long-term Residence

80-95% of immigrants are or want to become long-term residents.

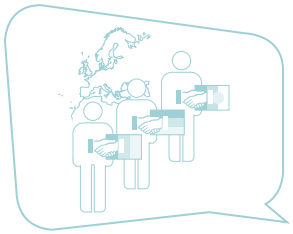
Most temporary migrants in new countries of immigration also want to become long-term residents.

The average person applies not long after the minimum period of residence.

Documents and powers of authorities cited as major problems for applicants in certain countries.

Long-term residence helps most immigrants get better jobs and feel more settled.

Citizenship



Around 3 out of 4 immigrants are or want to become citizens.

The few uninterested in citizenship often either do not see the difference with their current status or face specific policy obstacles.

Major reasons not to naturalise are difficult procedures in France and restrictions on dual nationality in Germany.

Naturalisation more common among established immigration countries and among facilitated groups in Hungary and Spain.

Immigrants who are eligible for naturalisation often take years to apply.

Citizenship helps immigrants feel more settled, get better jobs, and even get more educated and involved.

Key findings

Background characteristics

Reasons against participation

Problems with participation

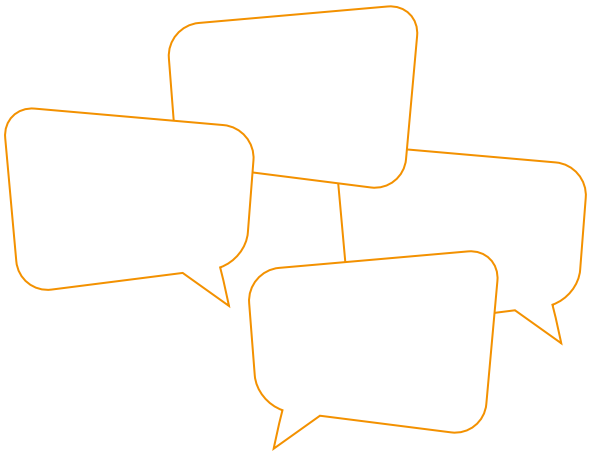
Perceived effects on people's lives

Future aspirations

Knowledge

Time and waiting

Introduction



Introduction

The King Baudouin Foundation and the Migration Policy Group have piloted a new type of European survey whose aim is to increase the voice of immigrants in the development of integration policies.

Integration actors have several tools to learn about the national integration policies and integration situations across Europe. The Migrant Integration Policy Index (MIPEX) uses 148 policy indicators to measure whether national policies guarantee equal rights, responsibilities, and opportunities for legal immigrants. However, actors do not know whether these policies are having the intended effect on people and, above all, why or why not. The European Indicators of Migrant Integration (also known as the Zaragoza indicators) use 14 core outcome indicators to monitor whether foreign or foreign-born people have an equal position in society in terms of their employment, social inclusion, education, and active citizenship. Still, these outcome indicators give integration actors no better idea of whether policies are having the intended (or unintended) effect and, again, why or why not. These diverse reasons and relationships that drive the integration process cannot be captured by indicators alone. More types of data and analysis are necessary to evaluate how integration policies interact with many other policy, societal, and individual factors to affect the integration process.

A survey is a useful tool to evaluate policy effects and monitor integration as a two-way process. However, one tends to hear from only one side of that process: the general public. Plenty of national and EU surveys reaffirm the average person's views on what immigrants do or should do and what the government does or should do about immigrants. This opinion data is of little use for the evaluation of integration policy impacts and the improvement of integration outcomes.

Immigrants themselves are the untapped resource to inform and improve integration policies. Too few immigrants are included in most general opinion surveys, which may exclude non-EU citizens, while national and EU surveys seldom set the specific targets and budgets necessary to obtain a representative sample of immigrants.

Special surveys of immigrants—one remedy to this—tend to be rare, general, and non-comparable across countries. During this project, 42 existing national and international surveys of immigrants were reviewed from Europe, Australia, Canada, New Zealand, and the United States.[1] Most targeted surveys ask immigrants the same types of general questions that are asked to the public. More specific questions tend to focus on immigrants' general opinions or participation. These surveys often do not directly relate to specific integration policies and services. Few immigrants are asked about their experiences or their perceptions of the effects of specific policies on their societal integration. When they are asked, such questions are sometimes formulated in a vague 'customer satisfaction' tone, such as: Was this service 'helpful', 'useful' or 'satisfactory'? It is hard for survey respondents or users to interpret the meaning because these questions are not linked to the purpose of the policy, such: Was this service helpful for finding housing? Getting a job? Getting more involved in your community?

The few good examples of immigrant surveys at European level are focused on specific areas of integration policy. The first ever EU-wide survey of immigrants, the EU Fundamental Rights Agency's 2008 EU-MIDIS study, asked about specific groups' perceptions and experiences as victims of discrimination and crime. The EU Labour Force Survey is improving its ad hoc module on migrants and the labour market for 2014. The Localmultidem project, funded by the European Commission, focused on immigrant political participation and active citizenship in several European cities. Other useful surveys are qualitative in nature (e.g. May 2011 Qualitative Eurobarometer on Migrant Integration; 2008 Highly Active Immigrants, also known as POLITIS).

1. The PROMINSTAT database is a comprehensive inventory of statistical datasets on migration, integration and discrimination in Europe and currently contains descriptions of more than 1,200 statistical datasets. www.prominstat.eu/prominstat/database

All things considered, little remains known about how immigrants assess what they, the government, and the general public are doing on integration. As a result, policies and services are often based on a limited appreciation of immigrants' needs, experiences, and aspirations, or of the impact of current actions on their lives. This knowledge gap affects policy- and opinion-makers, researchers, service providers, and the immigrants themselves.

One way for integration actors to get a fuller picture of the impact of their integration policies is to ask immigrants themselves. **The Immigrant Citizens Survey is the first transnational survey that is directly relevant for policy-makers in many areas of integration at local, national, and European level.** This survey of non-EU-born immigrants in 15 cities in seven EU Member States was large enough to capture the insights of the people that are living through the policies being discussed across Europe. Its design was inspired by "needs assessments," "client feedback" or "citizens surveys", which search for solutions to address societal problems and improve overall satisfaction in society. Immigrants were asked for their assessment of whether policies are relevant, implemented, used, and have an impact on their own lives.

Though integration is local, many policies are national and, increasingly, affected by EU law and European trends. The way that national and EU policies are implemented at local level may change from city to city. To evaluate which policies are improving integration, the same types of immigrants were asked the same questions in the same way across cities and countries. Eighteen major European general surveys from the past five years were reviewed and several questions were used in ICS in order to compare the experiences of surveyed immigrants in these cities to the general public in the country. These include Eurobarometer surveys, the European Social Survey, the European Values Study, and the European Quality of Life Survey. Striking similarities and differences emerge in various areas of life between local and national experiences.

The survey covered the following countries and cities:

- *Belgium (Antwerp, Brussels, Liège)*
- *France (Lyon and Paris)*
- *Germany (Berlin and Stuttgart)*
- *Hungary (Budapest)*
- *Italy (Milan and Naples)*
- *Portugal (Faro, Lisbon, and Setubal)*
- *Spain (Barcelona and Madrid)*

Each section tackled a different area of integration:

- *Employment*
- *Languages*
- *Civic and political participation*
- *Family reunion*
- *Long-term residence*
- *Citizenship*

Each section posed the same types of questions to immigrants as past or potential beneficiaries of different policies and services:

- *Background characteristics*
- *Current level of satisfaction*
- *Future aspirations*
- *Awareness of policy*
- *Reasons against participation*
- *Problems with participation*
- *Perceived effects on their lives*

The project brought together scientific partners with some of the most experience in surveying immigrants. The team also worked in partnership with national civil society actors, so the results are easy to use for policymakers, practitioners, and immigrants.

The King Baudouin Foundation and the Migration Policy Group aim for the ICS findings to:

1. *Increase knowledge of immigrants' needs, experiences, and aspirations – and of policy impacts.*
2. *Assist policy actors in creating more effective integration policies and addressing the other factors that influence the integration process.*
3. *Demonstrate the value of surveying immigrants for informing policies and public discourse.*

Methodology

Target population

Legally-resident non-EU foreigners and naturalised citizens have much to say and valuable hands-on experience to share as the **direct beneficiaries of the wide range of integration policies in most EU Member States**. The Immigrant Citizens Survey (ICS) aimed to reach those:

- *not born in the country (first-generation immigrants)*
- *who are or were non-EU citizens or stateless persons (born as citizen of country other than EU/EEA countries or Switzerland)*
- *residing in the country for more than one year*
- *holding or renewing a legal immigration status*
- *15 years or older.*

The ICS sample includes holders of all types of legal statuses: For reasons of comparability across countries, the sample excludes second-generation immigrants born in the country and undocumented migrants.

The seven ICS countries are not only most of Europe's major countries of immigration, but also a mixture of new and old countries of immigration across Europe's regions. The cities selected in each country were those with major non-EU populations, which depended on the size and spread of the country's immigrant population and the diversity of local and regional contexts. A minimum of 300 to 400 successful interviews per city was set in order for the results to be considered statistically representative and within the efficient zone in terms of confidence interval (sampling error).

Comparable sampling method

The Localmultidem project is the source for this survey's sampling methods and for most of the ICS scientific partners. The comparable ICS guidelines required the use of a stratified random sample. The sample would preferably be based on country of birth, or, if this is not possible, on nationality. The sample was drawn from the best available national sources—censuses, local population registers, or other registers—in order to best capture the non-EU-born immigrant population. Particular attention was paid to raising the response rate of this specific and hard-to-reach population, as well as to overcoming any language problems. Interviews (around 40 minutes in length) were conducted face-to-face in all countries, except France (telephone interviews).

Sampling methods[2]

Belgium

Statistical wards were randomly selected in proportion to the penetration of the non-EU immigrant population, excluding areas of low penetration (less than 10% of non-EU nationals). The population data was provided by the national statistics office (ADSEI/DGSIE) from January 2008. The figures used were based on nationality (the best available alternative to country of birth). For each selected ward, a map was created with the first address to be visited and the route to be followed. For wards with high non-EU population densities, a random route was applied. For low density wards, addresses were screened by focused enumeration. The response rate for Belgium was 37%. It should be noted that the specific survey questions on interest and problems with training and MPs with immigrant backgrounds were partially answered through a call-back procedure.

France

Given the French legal context, it was not possible to use full registers of the immigrant population as the basis for sampling. Instead, stratification was made according to the share of immigrants within the general local population using an exhaustive list of neighbourhoods in the selected cities. Neighbourhoods were then randomly picked out and a corresponding database of telephone numbers was created. From this list, individuals were randomly selected and a filter question was asked at the beginning of the interview to ensure that only those who belonged to the target population participated. As a result of this sampling frame, the interviews were conducted by telephone and in French only. The benefit of this sampling method is that it reaches individuals in very diverse neighbourhoods and from diverse migration waves. Gender and national origin were monitored during the fieldwork, without applying quotas. It should be noted that the specific survey questions on the effects of naturalisation and

2. This is a synthesis of the technical reports of the countries. The full technical reports can be found on the ICS website www.immigrantsurvey.org

MPs with immigrant background were partially answered through a call-back procedure.

Germany

All cities with a high percentage of immigrants are located in the western part of Germany. Berlin was therefore added to the sample in order to achieve more of a balance, even though the capital has a lower percentage of foreigners. The selection of Stuttgart as the second city was based on the availability of registry data on the city's population and the costs to polling partners. The registered data collected by cities does not include the country of birth. The decision was thus taken to select the non-EU/EEA nationals who had moved to the city from abroad. As such, some naturalised immigrants were present in the sample by accident; neither their share in the sample nor their experiences are representative of naturalised citizens. The other conditions set out in the ICS guidelines for the definition of the target population were successfully met. A simple random sample of the target population (based on nationality) was selected from the register. No stratification was used. The response rate in Germany was 38%. Interviews were face-to-face, using computer-assisted personal interviewing (CAPI).

Spain

The sampling frame was drawn from local population registers, which include both authorised and unauthorised immigrants (Spanish National Institute, June 2011). A simple random sample was selected from all residents belonging to the target group. Due to the geographical dispersion of the sample, the decision was made to split it into three sub-samples, clustered in neighbourhoods. The sub-samples were extracted with probability of selection proportional to the number of cases in the neighbourhood. The sample was therefore no longer a simple random sample but rather a probability sample, for which weighting was necessary. The gross response rate in Madrid was 37.5% and 37.7% in Barcelona.

Centre of aggregation methodology: Italy, Hungary, and Portugal

In Italy, Portugal and Hungary, sampling was based on the 'centre of aggregation' method in order to overcome incomplete or lacking registers on the immigrant population. Briefly, interviewers surveyed immigrants in predetermined locations regularly visited by the immigrant population (such as public parks, service providers, places of worship, markets, etc.). Weights were then used to re-proportion the sample, based on an additional set of information about a number of aggregation centres that the target population of immigrants regularly visit.[3] In Hungary and Portugal, where this method was implemented for the first time, a few difficulties were reported in assessing the importance of each centre of aggregation for the immigrants who frequent it. These fieldwork difficulties did not, however, result in a biased sample. In Portugal, some centres of aggregation were not 'exclusive' and had to be grouped after the fieldwork had been carried out. It should be noted that an incorrect routing in the questionnaire in Portugal led to a partial call-back procedure on the questions on the effects and expectations of family reunion. The response rate was 56.1% for the Italian cities and 47% for the Portuguese cities (none calculated for Hungary).

Weights

The 'sample weight' accounts for the different probabilities of respondents being included in the study caused by the differing sampling designs in the various countries. It adjusts the samples obtained so as not to give too much weight to responses from individuals with higher probabilities of inclusion in the survey.

A second weight, 'city weight', is used for comparing aggregate country results. This weight, which includes the sample weight, takes into account each city's non-EU foreign-born population as a percentage of the country's overall non-EU foreign-born population. This is to avoid the overrepresentation of the immigrant population of one city against that of another within in the country sample. This weight was calculated on the basis of the percentage of non-EU foreign-born individuals residing in each city in comparison to the percentage in the country as a whole. The percentage of non-EU citizens of each city was used in Germany.

No weight was applied to the Hungarian sample. Most immigrants reside in Budapest, which was the only city represented in the sample. City weighting does not apply to France, as official statistics of this type do not exist. The French sample was designed on the basis of the estimate that the immigrant population in Paris is twice as large as that in Lyon.

3. For more details on the 'centre of aggregation' method, see Baio G., Blangiardo G., Blangiardo M. (2001). "Center sampling technique in foreign migration surveys: a methodological note". Journal of Official Statistics, vol. 27, 3, 2011: 451-465 (http://www.jos.nu/Articles/abstract.asp?article=273451).

Description of the sample

TABLE 1: SAMPLE SIZE

Country	City	N	Share of country's non-EU foreign-born living in city[a]	Percentage of male respondents
Belgium	Antwerp	318	10,6%	54%
	Brussels	413	35,1%	62%
	Liège	296	3,9%	62%
France	Lyon	316		40%
	Paris	672		41%
Germany	Berlin	600	7,1%[a]	51%
	Stuttgart	602	1,7%[a]	56%
Hungary	Budapest	1201		51%
Italy	Milan	397	6,9%	52%
	Naples	400	0,9%	40%
Portugal	Faro	406	11,3%	52%
	Lisbon	450	46,8%	53%
	Setubal	403	11,7%	49%
Spain	Barcelona	411	5,5%	49%
	Madrid	583	11,4%	44%

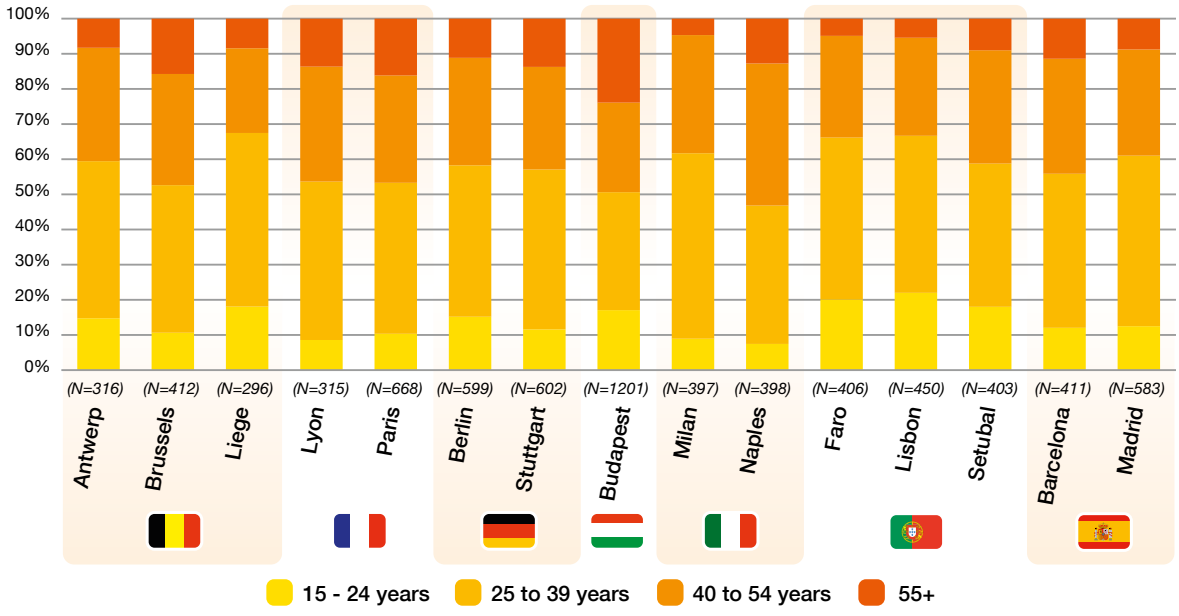
SAMPLE SIZE

The Immigrant Citizens Survey was carried out in seven European countries from October 2011 to January 2012. In total, 7,473 immigrants born outside of the EU were surveyed in 15 cities. Table 1 presents the number of immigrants surveyed in each city (N).

GENDER, AGE, RESIDENCE

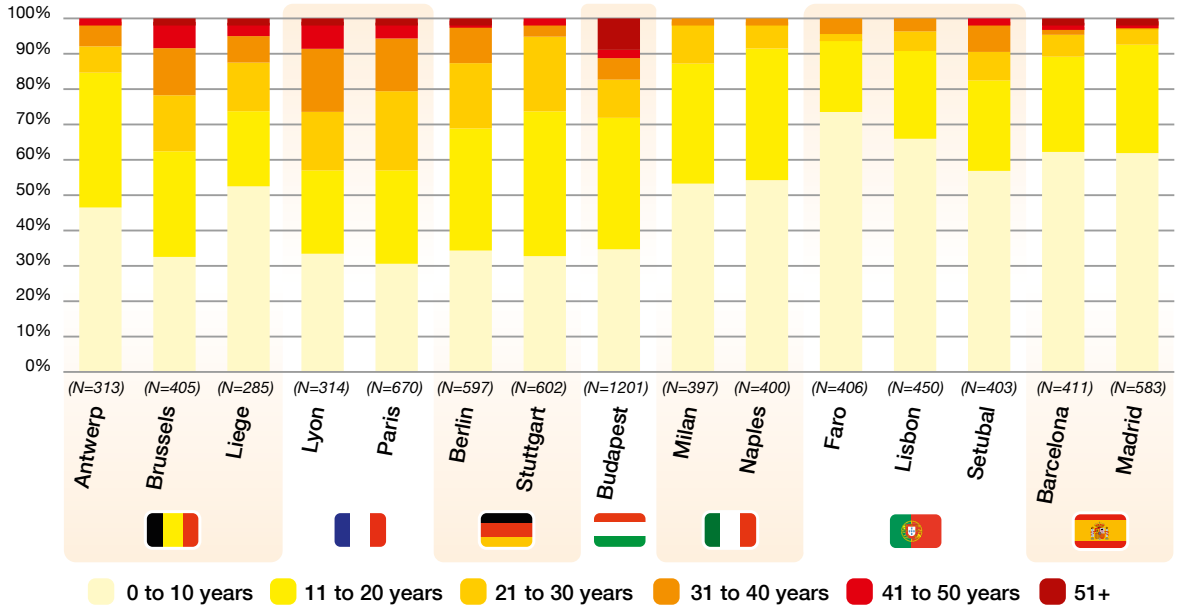
The following section provides background information to give a better understanding of the sample. Table 1 shows the percentage of male respondents in each city. For example, there are fewer male respondents in Paris, Lyon, and Naples. There was a large proportion of homecare workers, who are predominantly female, in the Naples sample.

Figure 1. **How old are you?**



Note: Refusals, 'don't knows' or missing responses below 5%.

Figure 2. **How long have you lived in this country?**



Note: Refusals, 'don't knows' or missing responses below 5%.

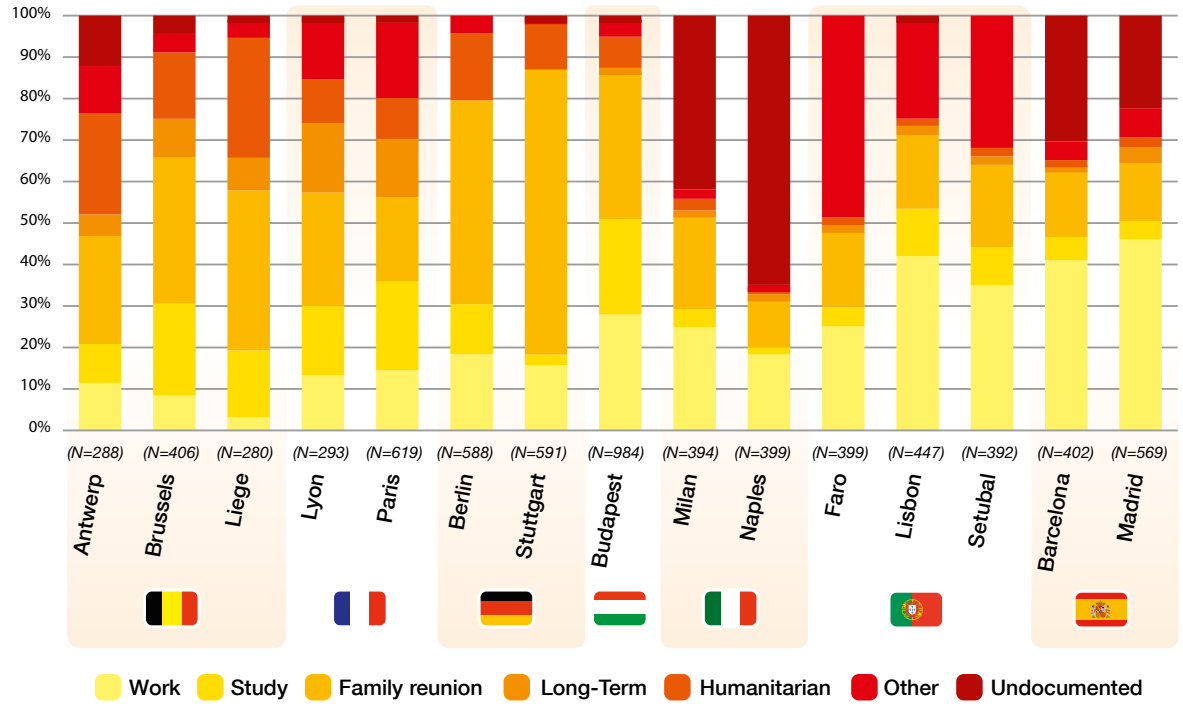
Figure 1 presents the age distribution of the sample along four categories.[4] Immigrants in the sample are mostly aged 25 to 39 years. The sample for Budapest, Naples, Paris, Lyon, and Brussels contains older populations of immigrants. In comparison, samples for Milan, Liège, Faro, and Lisbon have younger populations.

Age is also partly related to the question of the length of immigrants' residence in the country. Figure 2 shows that the southern European cities surveyed have more recent immigrant populations. Conversely, northern European cities have a higher proportion of immigrants that have settled for a longer period of time.

4. The age groups were taken from Eurostat pilot study on migrant integration (See: Eurostat, Indicators of Immigrant Integration: A Pilot Study, (Luxembourg, 2011) ISSN 1997-0375).

LEGAL STATUS UPON ARRIVAL

Figure 3. **Status upon arrival in country**



Note: 'Don't knows' below 5% except for Antwerp (7.3%), Lyon (7.3%), Paris (7.7%), Budapest (19.1%).

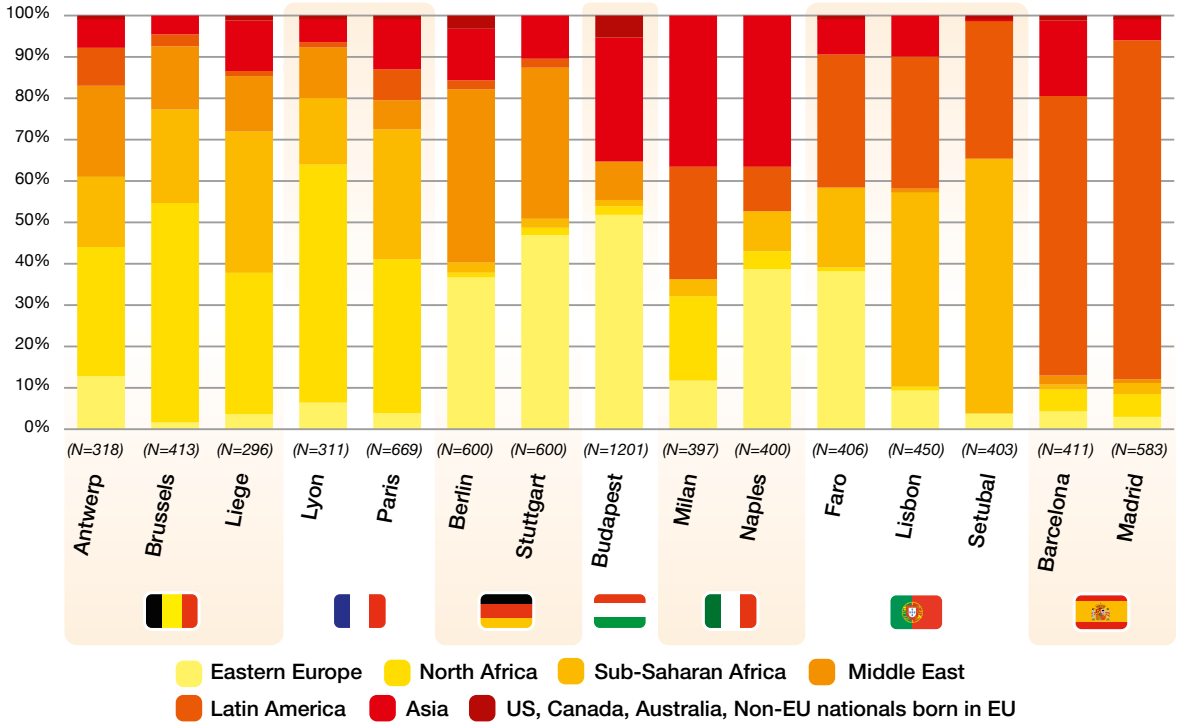
Figure 3 presents the legal status of the surveyed immigrants when they first arrived in the country. In the northern European cities, the largest group of immigrants arrived through family reunion. The proportion of humanitarian migrants is larger in Budapest and the northern European cities, especially Belgium. The southern European cities in our sample have a different profile. A higher percentage arrived with a work permit in Italian, Portuguese, and Spanish cities. A large share of the immigrants in Naples and Milan reported arriving without documentation, as did a considerable proportion in Barcelona and Madrid. This might reflect differences in the undocumented population across Europe and/or differences in the acceptability of reporting an undocumented status across Europe. The rather large 'other' category in Portugal includes autorizações de permanência. This one-year status (renewable for up to five years) was issued to visa overstayers in an irregular work situation or to immigrants arriving with a tourist visa between 2001 and 2007.

REGION OF BIRTH

Figure 4 shows that region of birth varies greatly across cities. In the Belgian and French cities, most immigrants originated from Africa – primarily from North Africa (more than 30% in each city). High numbers of immigrants from Turkey are present in the German city samples, together with Eastern Europeans. Asians and Eastern Europeans are the predominant groups in Budapest. The profiles are diverse but slightly different in Naples (more Eastern Europeans) and Milan (more Latin Americans and North Africans). Lisbon and Setubal are mostly home to Sub-Saharan Africans and Latin Americans. Finally, Latin American immigrants constitute the vast majority in Barcelona and Madrid. More broadly, most immigrants in the two Spanish cities come from 'countries with historical ties' to Spain[5] (81% of the sample).

5. Angola, Brazil, Cape Verde, East Timor, Guinea-Bissau, Mozambique, and São Tomé and Príncipe.

Figure 4. **Where were you born?**



Note: Refusals and 'Don't knows' and missing responses below 5%.

LANGUAGE COMPREHENSION

Immigrants were also asked to list their mother tongue/s and their other language abilities. The proportion of native speakers of the national language/s differs significantly between countries. There are many Hungarian native speakers (ethnic Hungarians) in Budapest (37%), and a large number of immigrants from the francophone world in Lyon (50%) and Paris (45%). The high numbers of native Spanish speakers in Madrid and Barcelona (80% and 67% respectively) reflect the significant proportion of immigrants from Latin American countries. In Portugal, the proportion of native speakers is also high: 46% in Faro, 65% in Lisbon and 81% in Setubal. These results reflect the sizeable presence of immigrants from Lusophone countries (75% of the sample in the three Portuguese cities).[6] Of the immigrants surveyed, there were no Italian native speakers in Italy and no Catalan native speakers in Barcelona.

A great effort was made to help interviewed immigrants overcome language problems in every country but France (due to the sampling method). The questionnaire was available in the countries' languages, in addition to seven non-EU languages (Albanian, Arabic, Chinese, Russian, Serbo-Croat, Turkish, and Vietnamese). A third party (e.g. a family member) could also participate in the interview to assist the respondent. When possible, multilingual interviewers conducted interviews in Hungary (36% of interviews), Belgium (10%), Italy (9%), and Portugal (2%). They used English, Chinese, Vietnamese, Arabic, Turkish, Russian, Sinhala, and Tagalog. In a last step, the level of understanding of the questions was assessed by interviewers.

The survey assessed the language abilities of the immigrants surveyed in order to check the quality of the data. Respondents who were assessed by the interviewer on the basis of all these factors as having 'never' understood the questions were excluded from the data set. Following further individual checks, only one more other person was excluded due to limited language knowledge, no use of non-EU language facilities, and inconsistent responses to the questionnaire.

6. Angola, Brazil, Cape Verde, East Timor, Guinea-Bissau, Mozambique, and São Tomé and Príncipe.

Employment

Employment

What's your job situation?

What type of organisation do you work for?

Does your job use all your skills?

Is your education sufficient?

What reasons prevent you from participating in a training course?

How many years have you worked?

How much education do you have?

What problems have you had finding jobs?

Have you applied to get your qualifications recognised and was your application accepted?

Want to see all the answers? Go to www.immigrantsurvey.org

Key findings

Problems on the labour market are often local, from few legal contracts in Southern Europe to discrimination and distrust of foreign qualifications in Northern Europe.

For immigrants, the major problem is job security.

25-33% of working immigrants feel overqualified for their job.

Educated immigrants often get their foreign qualifications recognised if they apply, but few apply.

Most working-age immigrants want more training.

Immigrants have greater problems balancing training, work, and family life than most people do in the country.

For working-age immigrants – as for most people – a decent job provides security against poverty and many opportunities to interact with others in society. Immigrants' economic participation is shaped through the interaction of many factors. These factors range from personal characteristics and skills, such as language proficiency and qualifications, to structural problems in the labour market. These include discrimination and occupational segregation, informal employment, temporary work, and the recognition of qualifications.

In the long term, European labour markets cannot afford to miss out on the full potential of immigrants, women, the elderly, the young, and other vulnerable groups.

Measuring the employment situation of immigrants attracts a lot of the attention from researchers and policy-makers. Unemployment and employment rates were among the first and most comparable indicators of integration, as national databases were improved and new EU and international sources were created.[7] National and international organisations, such as the International Labour Organization (ILO), also pioneered data collection on discrimination in the labour market and other areas of life. Researchers are constantly subjecting all of this data to interesting forms of quantitative analysis (longitudinal, multivariate, cost/benefit, projections, and so on). The few EU governments that extensively use evidence to improve integration policies most often turn to findings on migrant employment and education, according to analysis from the 2010 Migrant Integration Policy Index (MIPEX).

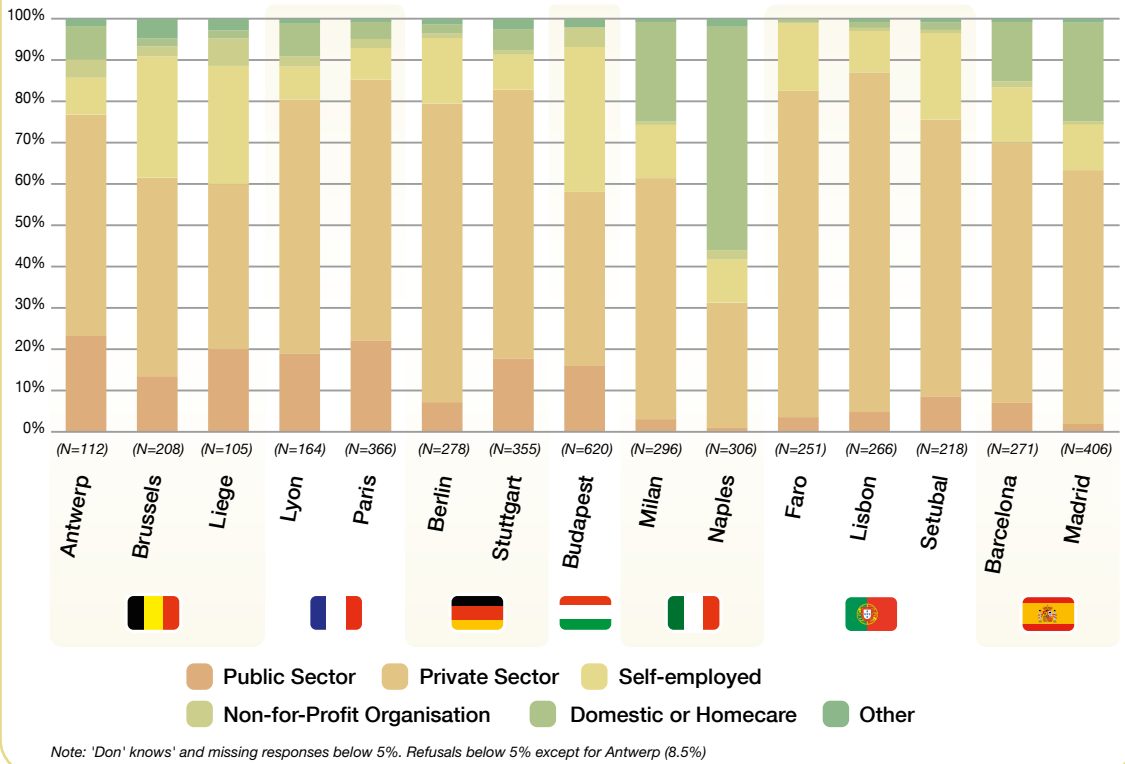
At European level, the 2004 Common Basic Principles for Immigrant Integration Policy in the EU describe employment as 'key' and 'central' to immigrants' integration and their visible contributions in society. The European Commission and Member States staked out employment as the first core area for the EU's 2010 Zaragoza Indicators of Immigrant Integration.[8] The pilot indicator results show that non-EU citizens and those born outside of the EU, especially women, often have higher rates of labour market inactivity, unemployment, and over-qualification. As part of the EU2020 plan, the EU Member States agreed to include the better integration of legal immigrants as part of their quantitative targets. One goal is to raise the employment rate for working-age men and women to 75%. Another goal is to reduce the number of people at risk of poverty by 20 million. Member States of the EU and Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) have started to monitor these rates and exchange about their places.

The Immigrant Citizens Survey complements these 'hard' statistics with immigrants' subjective self-assessments of their own situation on the labour market. A similar survey, the 2008 EU-MIDIS study, asked specific immigrant groups across Europe about their experiences of discrimination. ICS focuses on non-EU immigrants' ambitions, experiences, and perceived problems regarding their jobs and training. What problems did they encounter when searching for a job in their country of residence? Do employed immigrants feel that they are overqualified for their jobs? Have they applied to get their foreign qualifications formally recognised? Or are they interested in getting better qualifications?

According to the 2010 MIPEX, many non-EU newcomers benefit from only 'slightly favourable' policies on labour market mobility. This is due to unequal treatment (France and, until recently, Germany), little targeted support (Italy and, until recently, Portugal and Spain), or both (Belgium and Hungary). Non-EU citizens are largely treated equally as workers under the law in Germany and in new countries of immigration such as Italy, Portugal, and Spain. Belgium, France, and Germany restrict non-EU citizens' access to the public sector; additional jobs and sectors are closed to them in Belgium and especially France. France and Germany also impose obstacles for the recognition of foreign qualifications. Europe's generally weak targeted support for immigrant workers is starting to improve. For example, Belgium, France, and Germany are now providing training packages tailored to newcomers. Portugal and Spain have created specific funds and strategic plans to support many job and training services.

7. Most recently, the EU Labour Force Survey's 2008 Ad Hoc Module on Migrants and the Labour Market.
8. Eurostat, Indicators of Immigrant Integration: A Pilot Study, (Luxembourg, 2011) ISSN 1997-0375.
9. Note that MIPEX does not cover the specific rights and services for beneficiaries of international protection.

Figure 5. **In what sector do you work?**

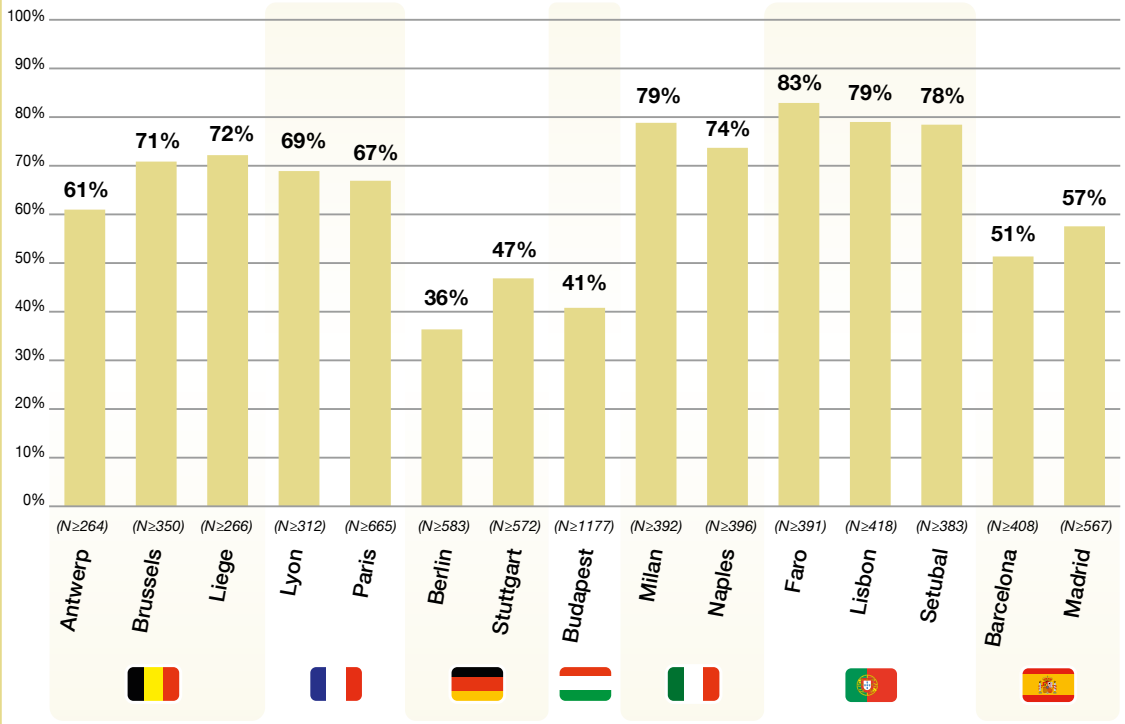


Note: 'Don' knows' and missing responses below 5%. Refusals below 5% except for Antwerp (8.5%)

Across the ICS countries, around 15 to 25% of the immigrants surveyed are unemployed at the moment, aside from Budapest (5%) and Liège (38%). Inactive (e.g. disabled, retired) and stay-at-home immigrants are also important groups in most northern European cities (5-15%). Forty to 75 per cent of the immigrants surveyed were employed today, ranging from 40 to 50% in Budapest, Berlin, and Belgian and French cities to 60 to 75% in Stuttgart and Italian, Portuguese, and Spanish cities.

Figure 5 presents the sectors in which the immigrants surveyed are employed. Over half work for a private firm. Many more are self-employed in Budapest, Brussels, and Liège than in the other cities surveyed. A quarter of surveyed workers in Milan and over half of those in Naples are employed in the domestic and homecare sectors. Work in the public sector is more common for surveyed immigrants in Belgian and French cities, Stuttgart and Budapest compared to the other ICS cities.

Figure 6. **Did you have problems finding a job?**



Note: Refusals below 5% except for Antwerp (9.2 %); 'Don't knows' below 5% except for Antwerp (7.8%), Brussels (14.6%) and Liege (9.5%)

PROBLEMS FINDING A JOB

In most of the cities surveyed, the majority of the immigrants who had looked for a job had encountered one or more problems, ranging from discrimination and language problems to personal constraints, the recognition of their qualifications or problems with contracts. Only in Berlin, Stuttgart and Budapest did the majority report no problems finding a job (Figure 6).

Temporary contracts were the major problem for immigrant job-seekers in most cities. Table 2 shows the top three problems reported by city and the percentage of immigrants who reported this problem. The most frequently reported problem was that employers only provided immigrants with temporary job contracts. The number who cited job security as a problem ranged from 32% in Antwerp to 59% in Faro.

The type and intensity of the problems experienced during the job search vary considerably across cities. Immigrants in southern European cities cited another structural problem besides job security: employers offered no legal contract to between 21 and 48% of all immigrants in these cities. In contrast, immigrants in northern European cities pointed to the way that they were treated on the labour market. Two major perceptions were that employers discriminated against them (29-44%, lower in German cities) or did not recognise their foreign qualifications (31-41%). Immigrants occasionally cited problems related to their individual skills and status. Language ranks among the two biggest problems for non-native speakers in Antwerp, Budapest, Lisbon, Faro, Stuttgart, and the two Italian cities. Smaller numbers mentioned personal constraints such as time, costs, and family (e.g. 18% in Budapest) or a limited right to work (e.g. 13% in Barcelona and 17% in Madrid).

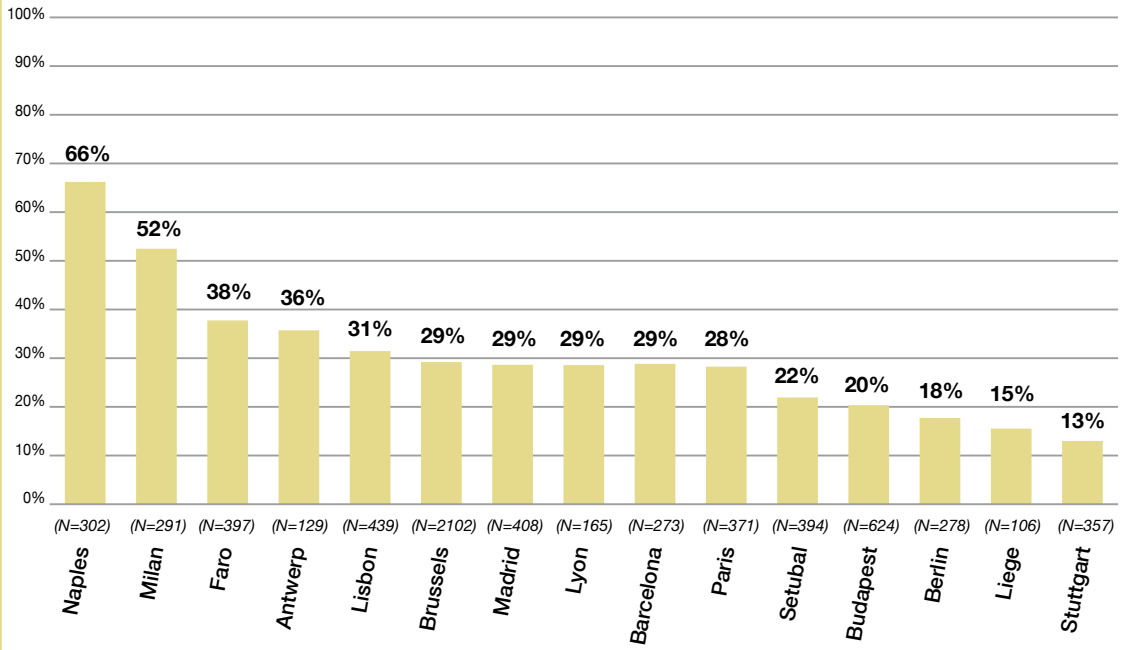
TABLE 2: **WHAT PROBLEMS HAVE YOU ENCOUNTERED WHEN LOOKING FOR WORK?**

City	1st Problem	2nd Problem	3rd Problem
Antwerp (N≥229, 213*)	35%	34%	32%
Brussels (N≥344)	43%	41%	37%
Liege (N≥264)	44%	41%	40%
Lyon (N≥312)	43%	35%	30%
Paris (N≥665)	40%	31%	29%
Berlin (N≥569)	19%	17%	13%
Stuttgart (N≥557, 518*)	32%	25%	16%
Budapest (N≥1166, 736*)	32%	18%	14%
Milan (N≥376)	52%	48%	38%
Naples (N≥381)	48%	43%	34%
Faro (N≥391, 206*)	63%	59%	38%
Lisbon (N≥418;149*)	54%	45%	37%
Setubal (N≥383)	57%	42%	35%
Barcelona (N≥408)	21%	21%	13%
Madrid (N≥567)	32%	29%	17%

	Language (for non-native speakers)
	Temporary Contracts
	Qualification
	Discrimination
	No Legal Job
	Personal Constraints
	Limited Right to Work

Note: The category 'Limited Right to Work' was not available in Belgium. 'Don't knows' below 5% except for Antwerp (≤12.3%),Brussels (≤16%) and Liege (≤11.1%); Refusals below 5% except for Antwerp (<= 13.8%).
** Number of responses for the 'language' category. They were generally fewer because native-speakers were excluded from the question.*

Figure 7. **Does your current job not match your skills and training?**

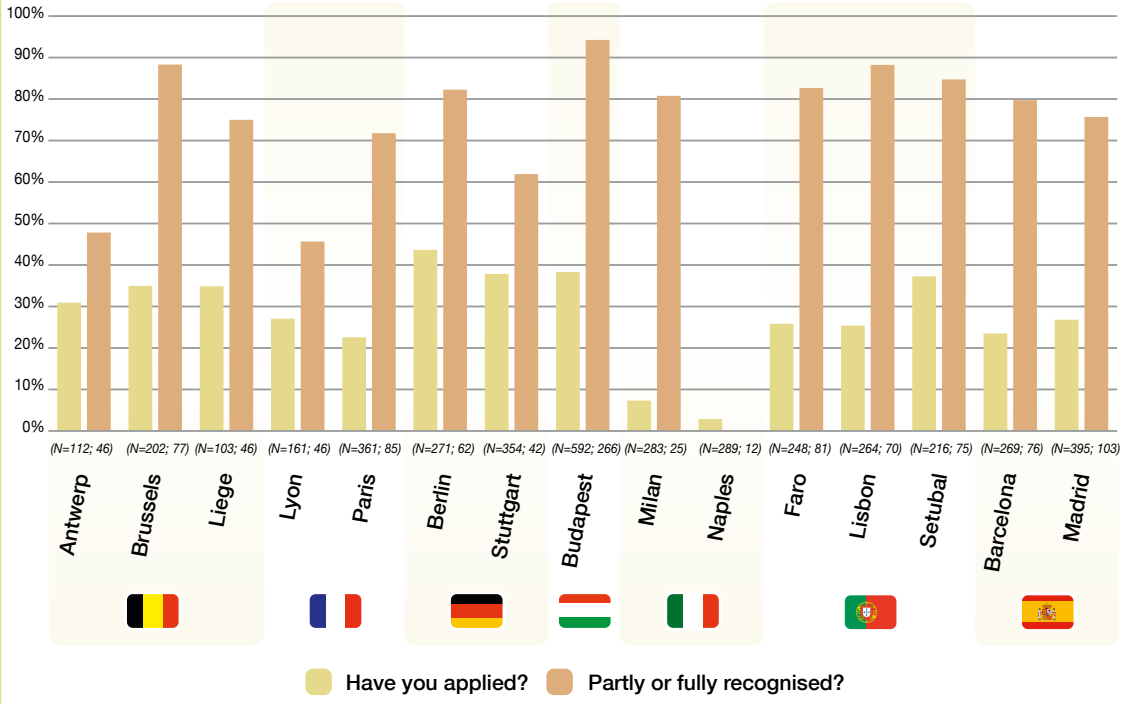


Note: 'Don't know's' below 5% except for Antwerp (11.6%).

OVERQUALIFICATION

A quarter to a third of surveyed immigrants who succeeded in finding a job perceive themselves to be overqualified. In most cities, half of all workers feel that their job matches their skills and training. Figure 7 focuses on the percentage of employed immigrants who believe that their main job does not require the level of skills or training that they have. Over-qualification is most significant in the cities in Italy; over half of workers in Milan and two thirds in Naples are working below their qualifications. Very few workers feel overqualified in the German cities and Liège.

Figure 8. **Have you applied for recognition of qualifications? Were you accepted?**



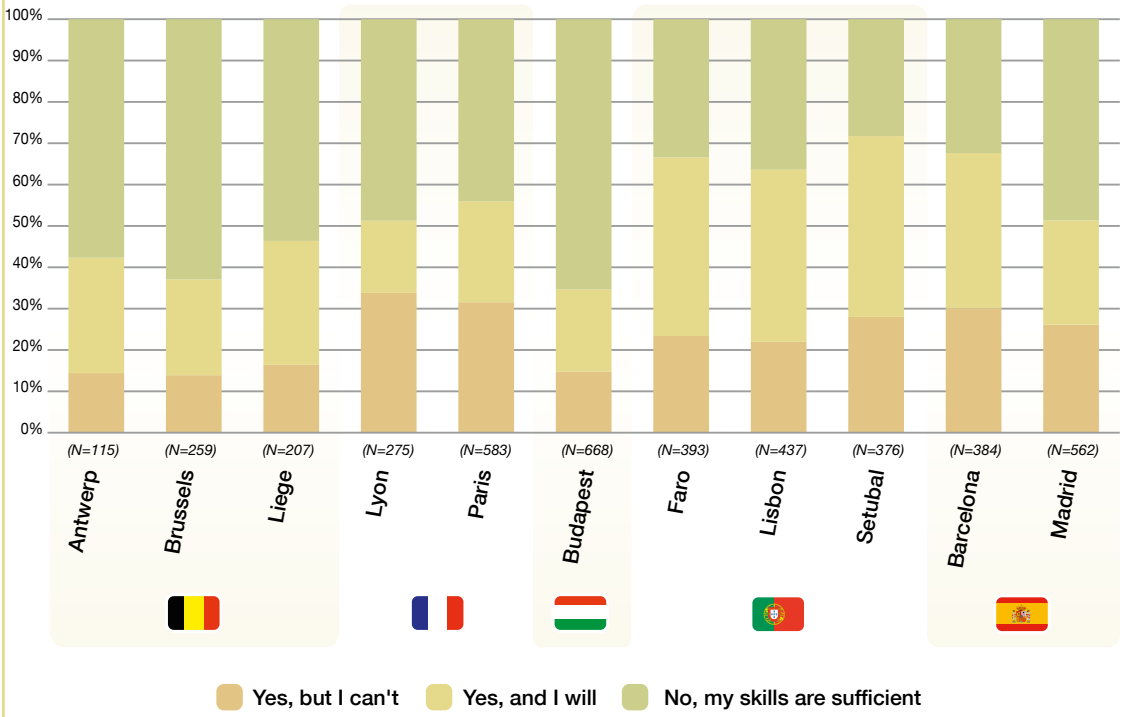
Note: The second number is the number of responses for the question of recognition. The recognitions rate for Naples is excluded due to insufficent number of responses. 'Don't knows' below 5% except for Antwerp (15.5%), Brussels (10%), Liege (6.3%).

Although many immigrants' qualifications are not recognised by employers or used in their jobs, few turn to the country's formal recognition procedures as a solution. Figure 8 combines two ICS questions. The first question addressed all immigrants with qualifications from their country of origin or a third country. They were asked whether they applied for the formal recognition of their qualifications. The second question addressed only those that applied. They were asked whether their qualifications were fully or partially recognised.

In most cities, only a quarter to a third of foreign-trained immigrants actually applied for recognition. Of these, on average 70% succeeded in getting their qualification fully or partially recognised. This pattern generally holds across countries for people experiencing over-qualification or problems with qualifications; relatively few apply, but most that do get full or partial recognition. Overall, the reported recognition rate is highest in Portuguese and Spanish cities but varies significantly between Lyon and Paris, Berlin and Stuttgart, and Antwerp, Brussels, and Liège.

The survey did not ask foreign-trained immigrants their reasons for not applying for recognition. It is possible that immigrants simply do not know about recognition procedures. Alternatively, these procedures may be so difficult or inflexible that many immigrants are deterred and only those certain to succeed tend to apply. Immigrants may also not believe that formal recognition will be helpful to them due to the limited jobs available on the labour market or the sceptical attitudes of employers. Many more different explanations for low application rates are possible. At this point, more research is needed to explain why few immigrants apply.

Figure 9. **Do you think in order to keep your job or find one, you need further training?**

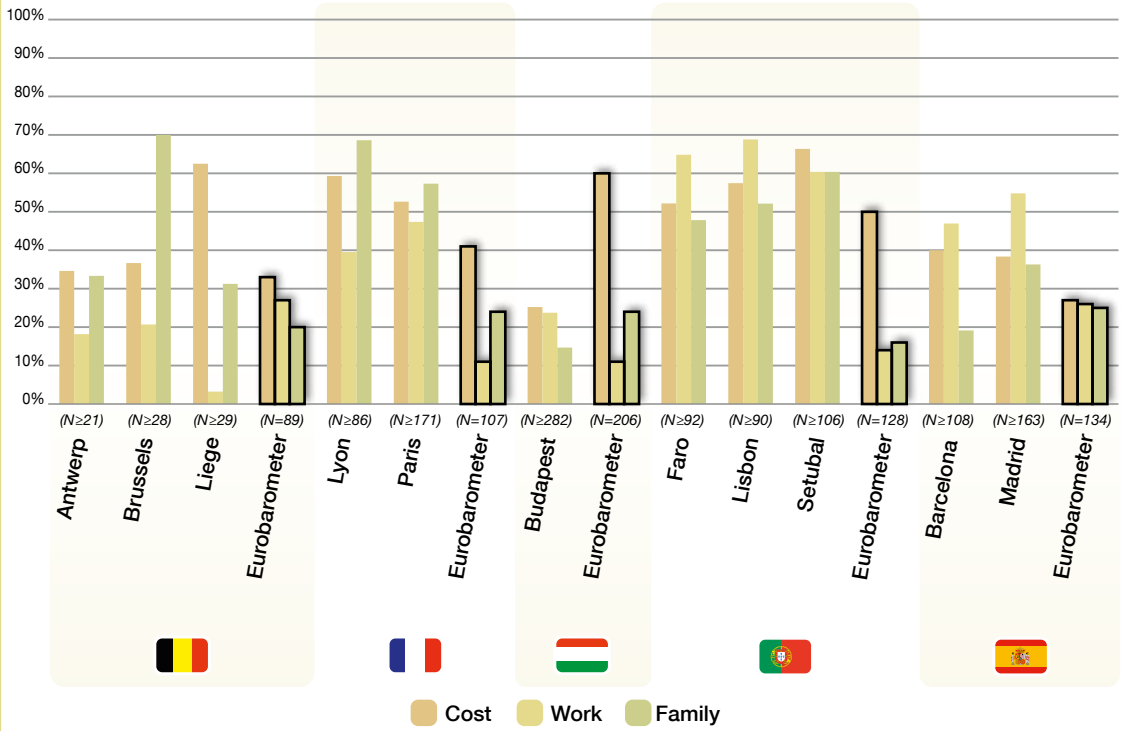


Note: 'Don't knows' below 5% except for Antwerp (6.9%), Brussels (13%), Liege (8.2%) and Budapest (26%)

LIFELONG LEARNING

Getting a better degree – another solution to improve jobs – appeals to the majority of working-age immigrants, especially those without a job. Figure 9 shows whether immigrants think that they should and will follow training to keep or find a job. Across the ICS cities, around **one in two working immigrants and two in three non-working immigrants** said they should pursue additional job training. Working and non-working immigrants were more interested in further training in Portuguese and Spanish cities (around 70%) than in Budapest, French cities, or Belgian cities. Most of them plan on pursuing this training. Nevertheless, around 20% of non-working immigrants in these cities cannot get training at the moment. Twenty-five to 30 per cent of working immigrants also cannot do so in the French, Portuguese, and Spanish cities.

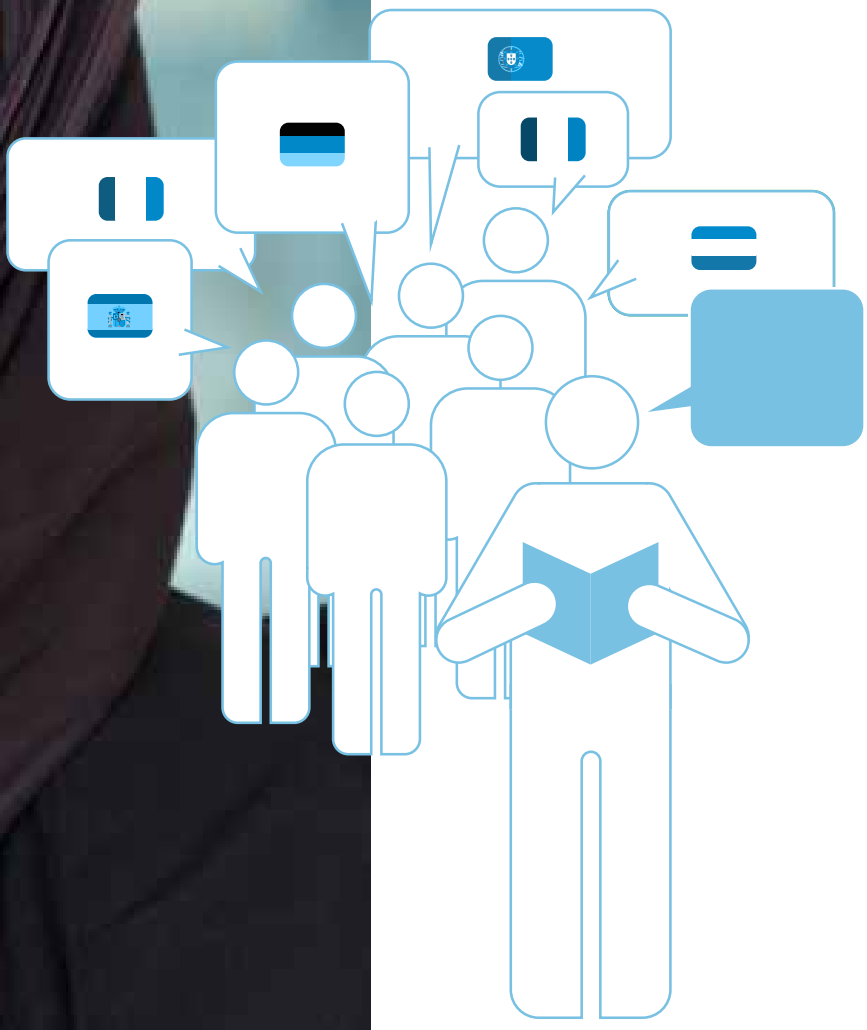
Figure 10. **What problems have you encountered in accessing further training?**



Note: Question not asked in German and Italian cities. 'Don't knows' below 5% except for Antwerp (27.3%), Brussels (21.9%), Liege (11.1%), Lyon (7.5%), Paris (7.1%).

These immigrants that cannot pursue job training report more challenges than the majority of people in the same country with balancing training, work, and family. Figure 10 shows the top three reasons why surveyed immigrants could not pursue job training. Across 11 ICS cities, the three major reasons were the cost of trainings, conflicts with work, and family responsibilities. The same training questions were asked as the 2009 Special Eurobarometer 316 on European Employment and Social Policy. The general public in these countries in 2009 also selected the same three top problems of cost, work, and family. However, more immigrants in the ICS cities today cited these as problems compared to the general public in all countries, except Hungary. Immigrants had less time because of family responsibilities in cities in Belgium, France, and Portugal and more conflicts with work in cities in France, Portugal, Spain and to a certain extent Budapest. Costs were seen as only slightly more problematic by immigrants in the 11 cities except Budapest.

Languages



Languages

What's your mother tongue?

What other languages do you speak well?

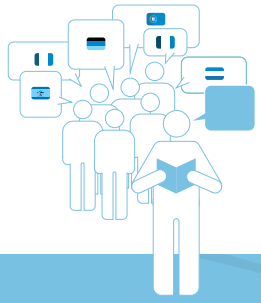
Did you have any problems that discouraged you from learning the country's language(s)?

Have you taken a language or integration course in the country?

How has this course helped you personally?

Want to see all the answers? Go to www.immigrantsurvey.org

Key findings



Immigrants generally speak more languages than the average person in their country of residence.

For immigrants – like for most people – time is the major problem for learning a new language.

Getting information on learning opportunities may be more difficult for immigrants the general public.

Wide range of immigrants participated in language or integration courses.

Participants highly value courses for learning language and often for socio-economic integration.

When people speak the same language(s), they can better work and interact together as full and equal members of the same society. The EU institutions advocate the concept of multilingualism; while immigrants learn the language(s) of the country, they can also find ways to use all the languages they know and share them with others in society. Learning national, regional, minority, and immigrant languages can reinforce what people have in common in a diverse Europe and make society more inclusive and competitive.[10]

According to Eurobarometer focus groups in 14 EU Member States, both non-EU immigrants and the general public thought that speaking a common language was the most important factor to facilitate integration,.[11] The EU's Common Basic Principles see basic knowledge of the country's language as 'indispensable' and 'respect' for immigrants' languages as 'also important.' Many governments declare that learning the national language is one of their primary goals in integration policy and back up this commitment with courses and/or tests.

Surprisingly little is known about the language learning and competences of all Europeans. So far, few evaluations have been published that measure the impact of these courses on language learning and use, employment, or societal participation.[3] The Council of Europe's Common European Framework of Reference for Languages provides a reference point for setting standards and evaluating outcomes internationally. The OECD's PISA data provides a narrow picture of the reading performance of mainly second-generation youth in schools. No such audit exists for the language skills of adults. The only official European data is the self-reported language abilities of the general public from the 2006 Special Eurobarometer 243 on Europeans and their Languages.

The Immigrant Citizens Survey helps fill the gap with the self-reported language abilities and challenges of immigrants. What language(s) did immigrants speak as children? In what other language(s) can they have a conversation? ICS also asked comparable questions about the language learning experiences of immigrants, specifically those who did not speak one of the country's national language(s) as children (referred to as 'native speakers'). What reasons discouraged non-native speakers from learning one of these languages? Have they completed a language or integration course? Do they think that this course helped them not only to learn the language, but also to get better employed, educated, or involved?

Language tests and integration courses are an increasingly important and dynamic trend in Europe and depend heavily on a government's political and funding priorities. According to the 2010 Migrant Integration Policy Index (MIPEX), language knowledge is only a requirement for naturalisation in 10 EU Member States (e.g. Hungary, Spain and Portugal since 2006), and is under discussion in a few others (e.g. Belgium and Italy). Over the past decade, most others have extended language requirements on long-term residence (e.g. Italy and Portugal). A few in north-west Europe have also imposed them abroad on spouses (e.g. France) as well as children over 16 (Germany).

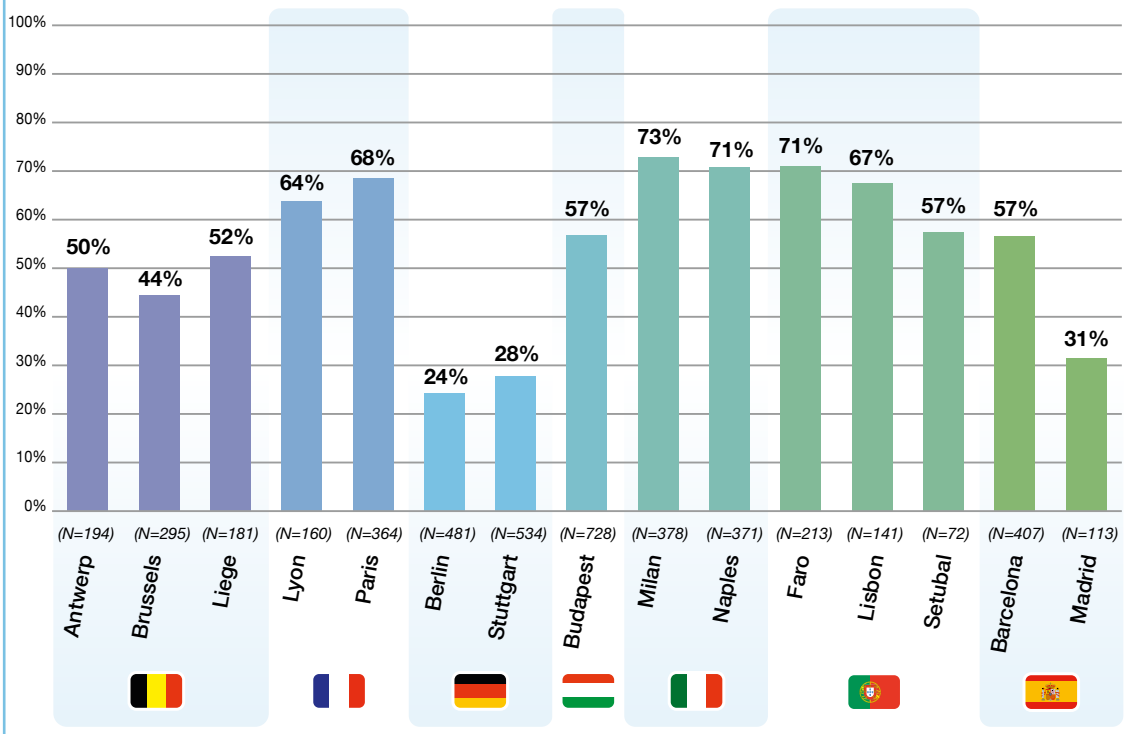
For decades, a variety of actors have undertaken initiatives to offer free courses to immigrants and specific target groups (e.g. refugees, women). Official state language and integration courses only began in the 1990s. Official integration programmes are now being developed in Italy and discussed in Catalonia and Wallonia. Compulsory integration programmes come with little or no costs in the Belgian region of Flanders (*Inburgeringstraject*), France (*Contrat d'accueil et d'intégration*) and Germany (*Integrationskurse*). The language offer is most extensive in Germany (600-1,200 hours). All offer some form of social orientation, including an initial skills assessment in France and a career orientation in Flanders. Free voluntary language courses are provided in Portugal (*Português para Todos – PPT*) and Spain, especially in Catalonia. In the Belgian region of Wallonia, reading and writing courses promote language learning among various target groups. In Hungary, NGO and language school courses are more limited.

10. For more, see the British Council's on-going 'Language Rich Europe' project.
11. Qualitative Eurobarometer, 'Migrant Integration: Aggregate Report' May 2011 http://ec.europa.eu/public_opinion/archives/quali/ql_5969_migrant_en.pdf
[3] For Flanders, see Pauwels, F. and Lamberts, M. (2010). For France, see the ELIPA longitudinal survey. For Germany, see the Schuller, Karin, Lochner, Susanne and Rother, Nina (2011): www.bamf.de/SharedDocs/Anlagen/DE/Publikationen/Forschungsberichte/fb11-integrationspanel.html. For an overview, see Strik, T. et al. (2010) INTEC Draft Synthesis Report on Integration & Naturalisation tests: www.rgsl.edu.lv/images/stories/INTEC/synthesis%20intec%20final%20.pdf

Across the ICS countries,[12] most first-generation immigrants surveyed are multilingual. Around one in four who immigrated to Berlin, Brussels, Liège and Portuguese cities had already grown up in families that spoke to each other in more than one language. In addition to their mother tongue(s), **immigrants generally speak more languages than the average person in the country where they live**, when comparing results from ICS to the 2006 Eurobarometer. Slightly more speak at least one additional language in all six countries, especially when compared to the Portuguese, Hungarians or Italians. Slightly more immigrants also reported speaking two or more additional languages in these three ICS countries. In contrast, more Belgians reported speaking two or more additional languages than did immigrants in all three Belgian ICS cities. Within ICS, more immigrants reported knowing two or more languages in Antwerp (53%) than Brussels or Liège (36% and 34%) and in Barcelona (32%) than Madrid (10%).

12. Data from French cities on the numbers of languages spoken was not included due to reasons of comparability.

Figure 11. **Did you have a problem learning the language?**



Note: 'Don't knows' below 5% except for Antwerp (29.7%), Brussels (9.6%) and Liege (14.4%).

LEARNING A NEW LANGUAGE

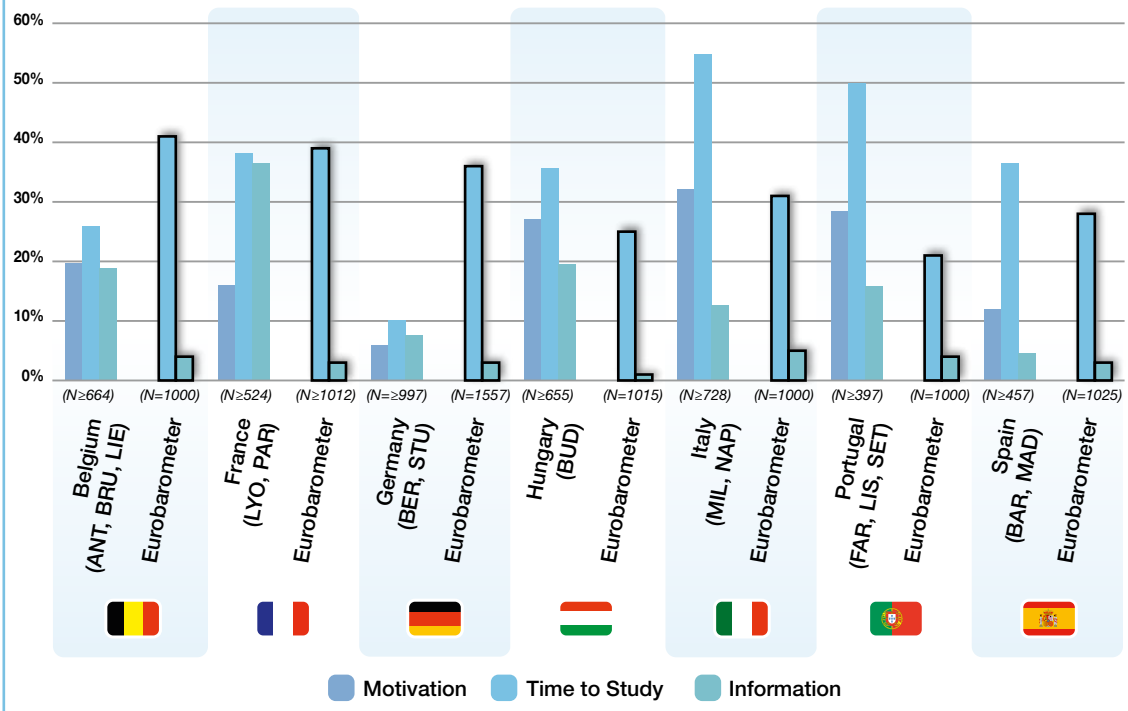
Learning the language was more of a problem for non-native speakers[13] in Portuguese, Italian and French cities than in German cities or Madrid. Figure 11 shows how many non-native speakers reported reasons discouraging them from learning the language.[14] Around 60 to 70% of immigrants in Portuguese, Italian and French cities mention one or more reasons undermining language learning better. In contrast, there are only 24 to 30% in German cities and Madrid.[15]

13. Native speakers make up the majority of the surveyed immigrants in Portuguese and Spanish cities, a large part in Budapest and French cities, and around a quarter in Brussels and Liège. There were no native speakers of Italian in Italian cities or Catalan in Barcelona.

14. The figure for Barcelona presents both people with problems learning Spanish and people with problems learning Catalan.

15. In most cases the interviews were conducted in the language of the country. In addition, migrants that have lived in the country for some time may not recall the problems that they first encountered or they never saw the need for structured learning.

Figure 12. **What were the major problems learning the language?**



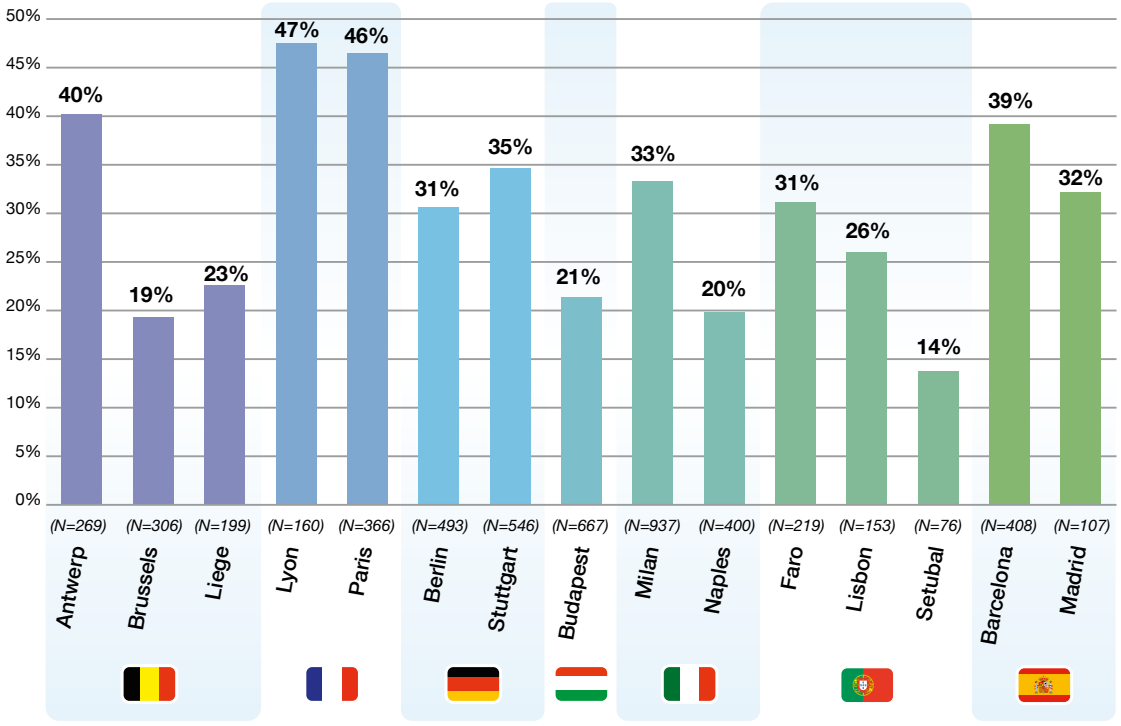
Note: 'Don't knows' below 5% except for Belgium (≤18.7%), Hunagry (≤10.4%) and Italy (≤14.4%).
Note: Statical tests show significant difference between Antwerp (22.2%) and Brussels (10.4%) for 'teachings, methods, material', between Berlin (8.7%) and Stuttgart (15.2%) for 'time to study', between Milan (33.8%; 11.8%) and Naples (19.1%;18.2%) for 'motivation' and 'information', between Lisbon (52.2%) and Setubal (33.8%) for 'Time to Study', between Faro (43.0%, 2.4%) and Lisbon (21.7%, 8%) for 'Motivation' and 'Teaching, Methods and Material', between Barcelona (41.8%, 24.8%) and Madrid (14.1%, 6.6%) for 'Time to Study' and 'Motivation' (for all differences $p \leq 0.05$).

What are the biggest obstacles for non-native speakers to learn the language of the country in which they live? Is it a lack of information, the costs, low-quality courses, personal motivation or time? Figure 12 shows which of these reasons may have personally discouraged non-native speakers from learning the language. It also compares the top problems that immigrants experienced learning the language to those faced by the general public in the same country when learning new languages, according to the 2006 Eurobarometer.

In most cities, no one reason predominated. More than one in three non-native speakers found that they did not have time to study in Budapest, French, Italian, Portuguese, and Spanish cities. Half said they did not have time to study in Italian and Portuguese cities. A lack of motivation or information was less of a problem in most countries. Between a quarter and a third of non-native speakers said that they were not motivated enough to learn Hungarian (27%), Italian (32%), or Portuguese (28%). Fewer immigrants experienced these types of problems in German cities in particular than in Budapest, French, Italian and Portuguese cities.

For immigrants – like for most people in the country – time is the main problem for learning a new language. Time to study was the major reason cited by both non-native speakers in ICS cities and by the average person in each ICS country in the 2006 Eurobarometer. The comparison suggests that time to study was a much greater problem for non-native speakers in Italian and Portuguese cities. Getting information on learning opportunities is more of a problem for non-native speakers in the Belgian, French, Hungarian, Italian, and Portuguese cities.

Figure 13. **Have you started or completed an integration or language course?**



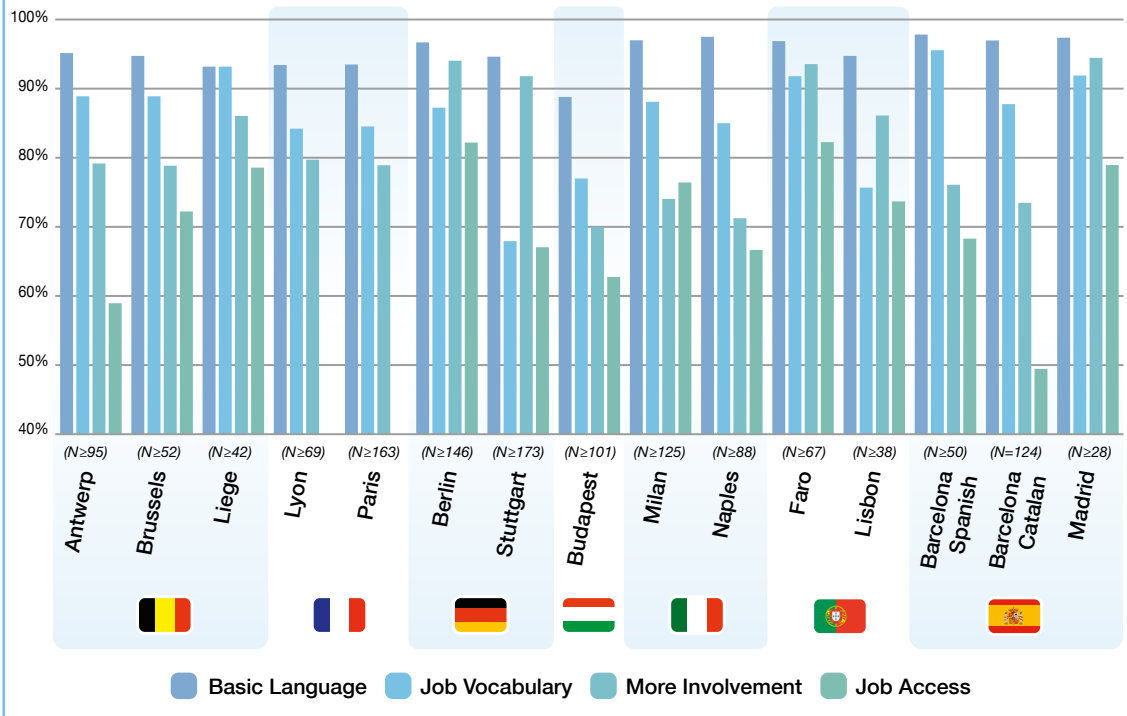
Note: 'Don't Know's' below 5% except for Anwerp (5.2%), Brussels (5.2%) and Liege (9.5%)

LANGUAGE AND INTEGRATION COURSES

Across the ICS cities, a wide variety of non-native speakers have participated in a language or integration course in the country.[16] Figure 13 shows what percentage have either started or completed a course. ICS asked specifically about the official integration courses in Antwerp, Berlin, and Stuttgart and the government-funded language courses in Budapest, Barcelona (Catalan or Spanish), Madrid (Spanish), and Portuguese cities (PPT - Portuguese for All). Immigrants in other cities were asked about a general language or integration course. Courses in the local language had been taken by at least 30% of non-native speakers in German cities, Milan, Faro, and Madrid, 40% in Antwerp (Dutch) and Barcelona (Spanish or Catalan), and nearly half in Lyon and Paris.

16. Of course, language courses may or may not be the main method that immigrants use to learn a language. Immigrants may take informal lessons, study at home, talk with native speakers, and consume media, similar to what several respondents to the 2006 Eurobarometer reported using to learn foreign languages.

Figure 14. **Has the language or integration course helped you?**



Note: 'Don't knows' below 5% except Antwerp (6.5%), Brussels (10.2%), and Budapest (≤25.2%), Setubal showed insufficent number of responses. Barcelona (SP) shows Spanish learners in Barcelona, Barcelona (CT) shows Catalan learners in Barcelona.

Participants in most courses were overwhelmingly positive about their effect on language learning and other integration outcomes. Figure 14 presents how many participants felt that the course helped them a little or a lot. Courses helped most participants not only learn the basics of the language, but also specific vocabulary that they needed for their jobs or skills. Participants were slightly more enthusiastic about the full language offer in Belgian cities, Berlin, Italian cities, Faro, and Spanish cities and slightly less in Stuttgart, Budapest, and Lisbon. Courses also helped most participants to get more involved in their community in most cities, but to a greater extent in Madrid, German cities, and Portuguese cities than in Budapest, Barcelona and Italian cities. Fewer participants felt that the course helped them to improve their job situation, especially in Antwerp, Barcelona, Budapest, Naples, and Stuttgart. Satisfaction was greater in Liège, Berlin, Faro, and Madrid. Overall, courses were widely perceived as effective for language learning. The ICS results also suggest that courses could be better linked with training and employment services.

Political and Civic **Participation**

Political and Civic **Participation**

In this country, are you part of a political party or group? Trade union? Immigrant or other organisation?

Do you know an association run by immigrants?

Have you heard of the immigrant consultative body?

Did you vote in the last national or local election in this country?

Why did you not vote?

Would you vote if there was a general election tomorrow (and you had the right to)?

Does this country need more parliamentarians with an immigrant background and why?

Want to see all the answers? Go to www.immigrantsurvey.org

Key findings

Most immigrants are interested in voting (often as much as nationals are)

Most immigrants want more diversity in politics – and many are willing to vote in support of it.

Immigrants' broader participation in civic life is uneven from city to city and organisation to organisation.

Whether immigrants know or participate in an immigrant NGO depends heavily on their local and national context.

The opening up of political opportunities for foreigners is one indicator of a confident country of immigration. Governments in Europe often open political opportunities and reform citizenship laws as recognition of the fact that they have become countries of immigration. More residents can participate in democratic life with the expansion of voting rights, the creation of strong and independent consultative bodies, the funding of new associations, and the adoption of diversity policies in mainstream organisations. These rights have been promoted through international and European law, most notably the EU's 1992 Maastricht Treaty and the Council of Europe's 1992 *Convention on the participation of foreigners in public life at local level*. The European Commission has recommended that political participation policies need to improve if governments want to promote democratic participation, solidarity and sense of belonging in society, as part of their commitment to the EU Common Basic Principles.

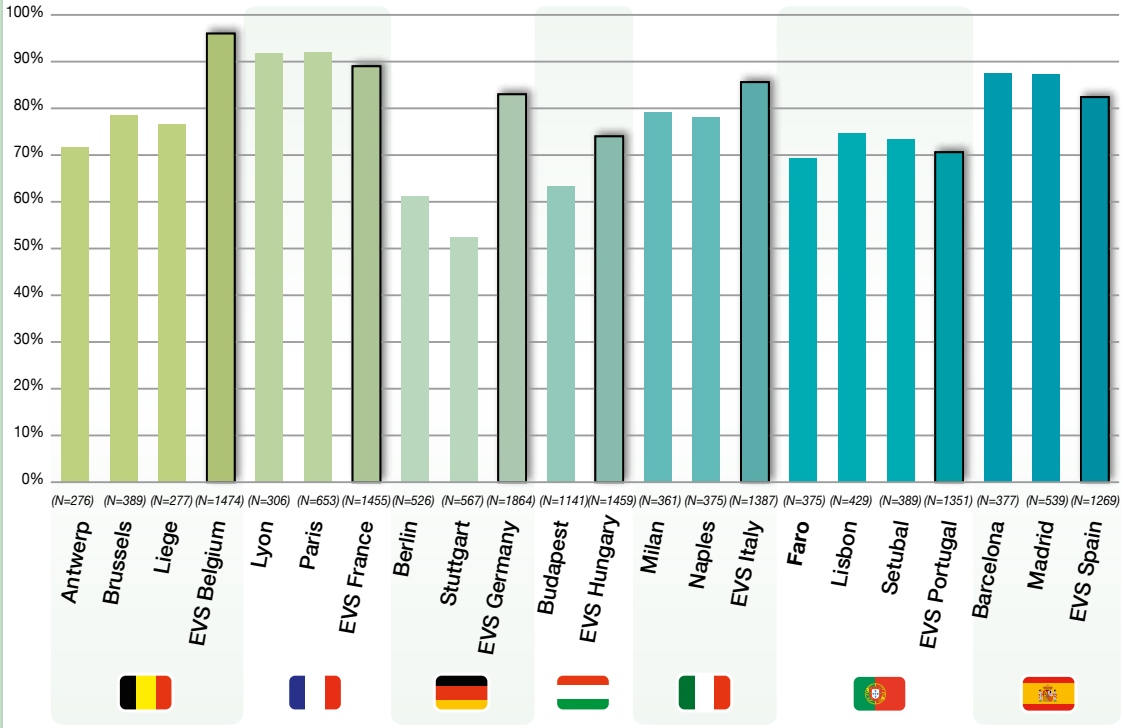
In comparison to other areas of life, such as employment or education, the political participation of immigrants receives less attention from policy-makers and researchers in EU countries. Researchers struggle to find robust data sources to measure and compare active citizenship.[17] However, individual EU member states, such as Germany, have started to include political participation indicators (e.g. membership and volunteering rates) in their national integration monitoring. New research finds that immigrant political participation is determined by a mixture of political opportunity structures, public discourses, immigrants' characteristics (e.g. education, length of residence, and language) and backgrounds (e.g. political situation in country of origin). When data is available, immigrants often appear to be underrepresented among likely voters, elected officials, and members of political parties. The ways that immigrants participate may be less visible or understood than the conventional forms of participation in their country of residence.

The Immigrant Citizens Survey (ICS) reinforces this growing body of knowledge with the questions that are most relevant for policies on political participation. Would non-EU immigrants vote if they had the right to? Do they want more diversity in parliament and why? Do immigrants say they are members of the country's trade unions and political parties? Do they know of an immigrant-run NGO or consultative body? Are they joining these and other organisations?

The 2010 Migrant Integration Policy Index (MIPEX) finds that non-EU immigrants who do not naturalise enjoy only certain legal opportunities to inform and improve local or national policies that affect them daily. They can form associations and join trade unions or political parties. France, Germany, and Italy currently do not grant voting rights to non-EU citizens. The other ICS countries grant local voting rights to limited categories of immigrant. Only holders of certain nationalities can vote in Spain and Portugal due to voting reciprocity treaties, while long-term residence is required in Hungary, and five years' residence (plus registration) in Belgium. State-led consultative bodies are absent in Hungary; new but comparatively weak in Portugal, Spain, and some Italian cities (not Milan and Naples); stronger in the Belgian region of Flanders than in Wallonia or Brussels; and slightly stronger in German cities and federal states. MIPEX analysis suggests that the countries with little to no policy on the political participation of foreigners also tend to make it harder for them to become citizens (e.g. HU). Countries with some policies on the political participation of foreigners are often the very countries that facilitate their access to citizenship (e.g. Portugal more than Belgium and to a certain extent Germany). In comparison, countries such as France, Italy, and Spain privilege one path (or access for one group) over the other.

17. See Morales, Laura, Guigni, Marco (Ed.), Social Capital, Political Participation and Migration in Europe. Migration, Minorities and Citizenship (London 2011), ISBN 978-0-230, Wuest, Andreas et al (Ed). The Political Representation of Immigrants and Minorities, Routledge (Oxon 2011).

Figure 15. **Would you vote if there was a general election tomorrow?**



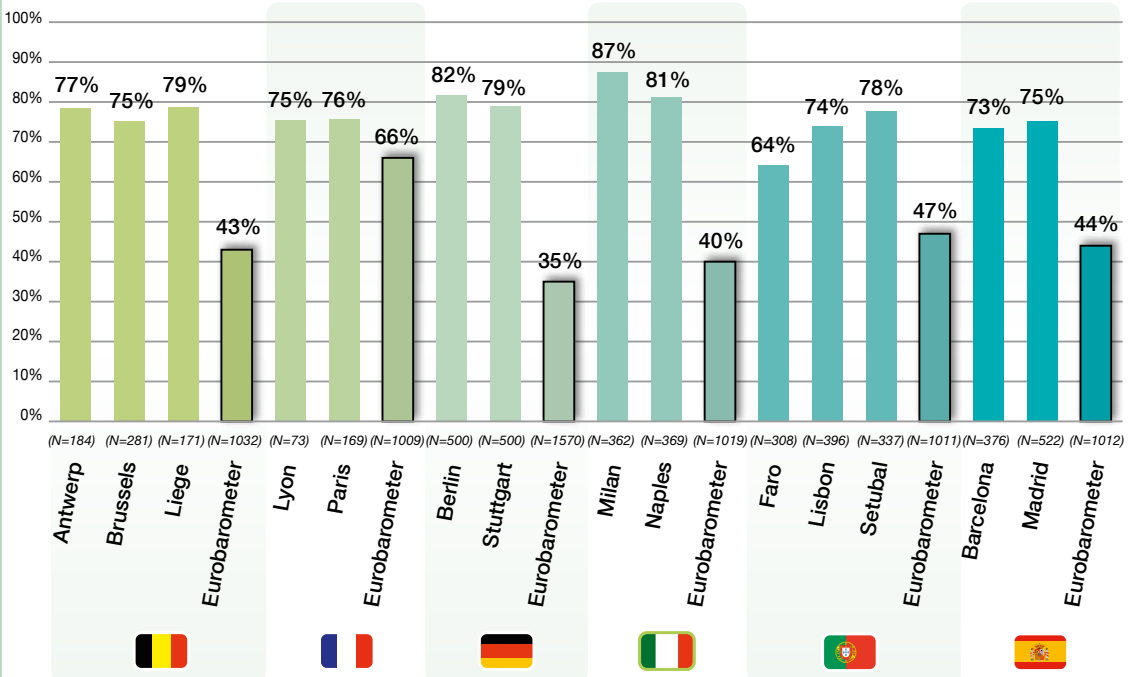
Note: 'Don't knows' below 6% except for Antwerp (11%), Berlin (11.9%), Milan (8%), Naples (6.5%), Barcelona (6.5%).

VOTING

The upcoming citizenship chapter reveals that surveyed immigrants in most ICS countries are or want to become citizens, which makes them eligible to vote in all elections. But would they actually vote?

Across ICS cities, most immigrants would vote (if they had the right to). Figure 15 shows what percentage answered yes to the hypothetical question of whether they would vote if there was a general election tomorrow. Non-EU citizens were also asked whether they would vote if they could. In Spanish, Portuguese and French cities, interest in voting is as high among surveyed non-EU immigrants as it was among the general population when asked for the 2008 European Values Study (85%, 72% and 90% respectively). Seventy to 80 per cent of surveyed immigrants show interest in voting, though slightly less than the general population, in Italian cities and Belgian cities (where voting is mandatory). Smaller majorities are interested in Budapest (63%). The majorities in favour were slightly larger among naturalised immigrants in Italian and Portuguese cities and much larger in Budapest and Belgian cities. Interest was high among both naturalised and non-naturalised immigrants in French and Spanish cities.

Figure 16. **Do you think we need more MPs with an immigrant background?**



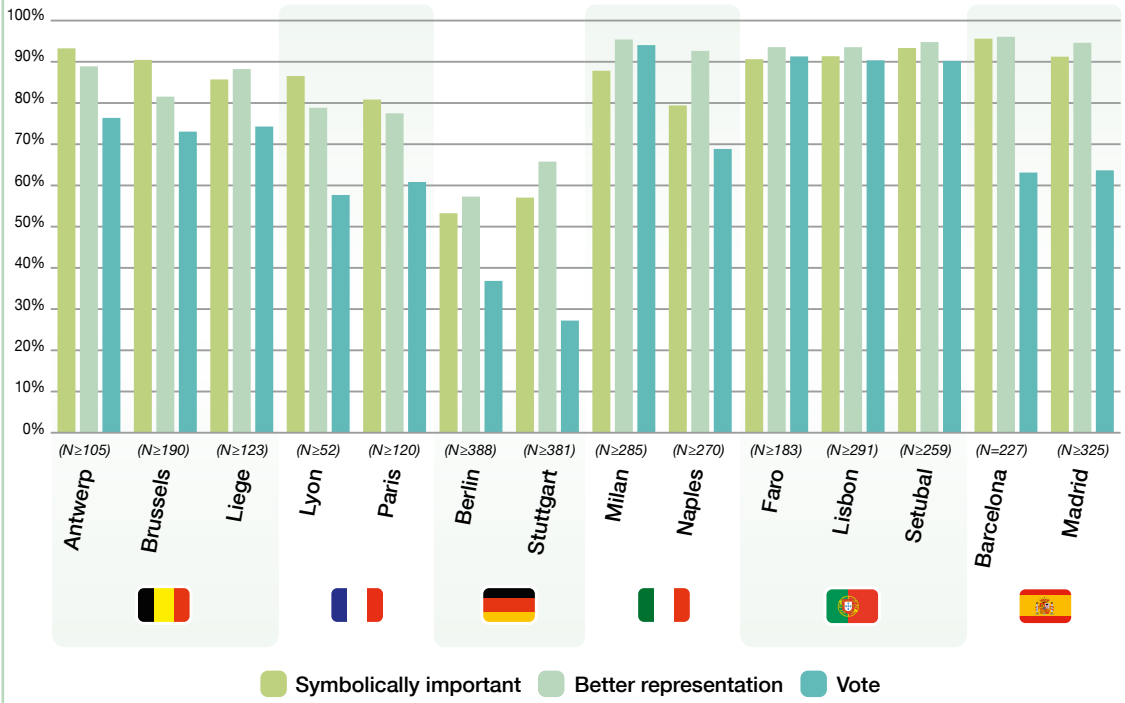
Note: 'Don't knows' are generally high on this question: Antwerp (9.9%), Brussels (10.1%), Liege (13%), Berlin (16.2%), Stuttgart (16.3%), Milan 8.4%), Naples (7.5%), Faro (22.8%), Lisbon (12.3%), Setubal (16.7%), Barcelona (8.4%), Madrid (9.8%). Budapest was excluded from the analysis as the concept of a MP with an immigrant background was easily misinterpreted.

Most immigrants want more diversity in politics – and many would even use their vote to encourage it. Surveyed immigrants were asked a question from the 2006 Eurobarometer on Discrimination in the EU about whether they think that their country definitely or probably needed more Members of Parliament (MPs) with an immigrant background. Figure 16 shows support was consistently high across six countries (75-85%).

When asked why, 80 to 95%[18] answered that MPs with an immigrant background would better understand them, better represent them, and be symbolically important for the country. Sixty to 92 per cent even said that they would be more likely to vote for diverse candidates. Support for immigrants as candidates was just as high among naturalised immigrants, including likely voters (those who would vote in an election tomorrow). The cities where support for these specific arguments was the lowest were in Germany. There, for instance, only a minority of surveyed immigrants would vote for MPs with an immigrant background (not taking into account their political views) just to increase ethnic diversity in the Bundestag.

18. These rates were slightly smaller in German cities.

Figure 17. **Why do you want more MPs with an immigrant background?**



Note: Don't knows below 6% except for Antwerp (≥26.4%), Brussels (≥10%), Liege (≥8.2%), Milan (≥9.5%), Naples (≥9.6%), Barcelona (≥15.9%), Madrid (≥16.1%). Budapest was excluded from this question as the scientific partners reported that the concept of an MP with an immigrant background is easily misinterpreted.

These findings on the support for diversity in politics emphasises the importance of opening up civic and political organisations, such as political parties, in order to increase immigrants' political participation. However, large parts of the general public do not see this issue as particularly important to them. According to the 2006 Eurobarometer, only 40 to 45% of the general public in these countries agree that there should be more MPs of a different ethnic background (see earlier Figure 16). Support varies little between the ICS countries. So far, only around half as many in the country are as convinced as immigrants. This difference of priorities hints at the diverse currents and dynamics within organisations as they decide whether and how to welcome diversity into their ranks.[19]

19. Alex Kirchberger et al, Becoming a Party of Choice: a Tool for Mainstreaming Diversity. (Brussels: Migration Policy Group, 2012). www.migpolgroup.com/public/docs/Becoming_a_Party_of_Choice_Mainstreaming_Diversity_in_Political_Parties_FULL_REPORT_EN_01.12.pdf

TABLE 3: MEMBERSHIP OF TRADE UNIONS AND POLITICAL ORGANISATIONS

		Trade Unions		Political Org.	
		ICS 2011	EVS 2008 (N=11.102)	ICS 2011	EVS 2008 (N=11202)
Belgium	Antwerp (N=279)	11,8%	15,1%	7,6%	4,1%
	Brussels (N=408)	19,6%		9,8%	
	Liege (N=296)	19,9%		3,0%	
France	Lyon (N=315)	5,1%	5,4%	1,9%	2,8%
	Paris (N=670)	9,1%		4,3%	
Germany	Berlin (N=577)	1,4%	6,8%	0,3%	3,6%
	Stuttgart (N=580)	1,9%		1,7%	
Hungary	Budapest (N=1162)	4,5%	3,7%	2,2%	0,6%
Italy	Milan (N=396)	14,6%	5,5%	1,8%	3,7%
	Naples (N=398)	6,5%		3,2%	
Portugal	Faro (N=405)	1,2%	4,3%	1,2%	3,4%
	Lisbon (N=448)	0,7%		0,7%	
	Setubal (N=402)	4,2%		2,0%	
Spain	Barcelona (N=400)	2,7%	4,8%	0,5%	4,8%
	Madrid (N=554)	1,1%		0,5%	

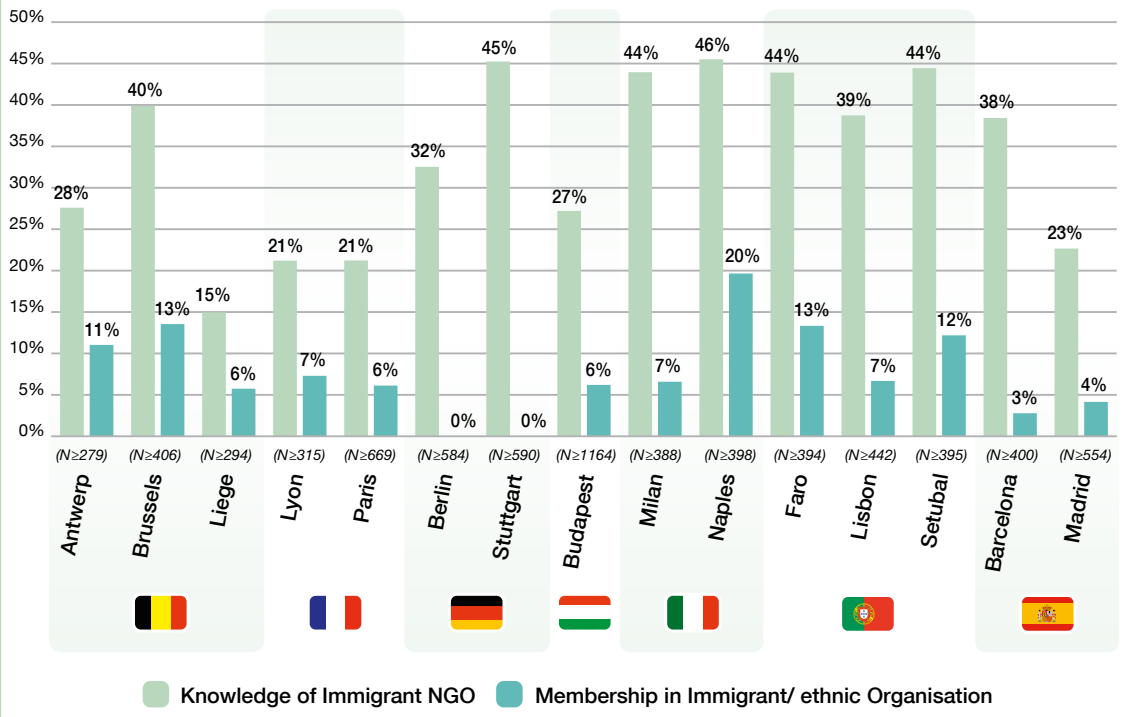
Don't knows below 5% except for Antwerp (≤10%)

CIVIC AND POLITICAL ORGANISATIONS

More broadly, immigrants' self-reported participation in political and civic organisations is uneven, varying from city to city and organisation to organisation. Table 3 lists the percentage of surveyed immigrants who reported that they were members of a trade union or political party/group. The city results for surveyed immigrants are compared with the national results for the general population from the European Values Study (2008). Often, fewer immigrants report that they are members of these types of organisations. In a few cities, just as many (or even more) report that they are members than the general population in the country.

Membership seems to depend heavily on the local and national context. Many more immigrants say that they belong to trade unions in Belgian, French and Italian cities and Budapest—and at comparable or higher rates than the average person in the country. Far fewer immigrants are reportedly unionised in German, Spanish, and Portuguese cities in comparison to the general population in these countries.

Figure 18. **Knowledge and membership of organisations**



Note: 'Don't knows' below 5% except Antwerp (9.1%).

Fewer surveyed immigrants were members of political parties or groups than of trade unions. Again, many more immigrants in Belgian cities, French cities, Budapest and Naples reportedly belong to a political organisation, also on levels similar to the national average. Membership of political organisations appears lower in Milan, and in German, Portuguese, and Spanish cities.

Immigrants' relationship with immigrant organisations also varies significantly from country to country and city to city. Figure 18 presents whether surveyed immigrants said that they knew of or participated in an immigrant or ethnic organisation (broadly defined as group in support of immigrants' social, cultural, or political interests). Not many more immigrants were members of an immigrant organisation than of trade unions or political organisations. Generally, membership of immigrants organisations was not significantly higher across most ICS cities. No immigrants said they belonged to an immigrant or ethnic organisation in German cities, while very few said so in Budapest, Spanish and French cities. More identified themselves as members of some sort of immigrant organisation in Antwerp and Brussels than Liège, in Faro and Setubal than Lisbon, and in Naples than Milan.[20] Immigrants' knowledge of immigrant organisations was highest in Brussels, Stuttgart, Barcelona, Italian cities, and Portuguese cities. There, almost one in two surveyed immigrants could name an association run by immigrants or ethnic minorities. Only 15 to 20% could do so in French cities, Liège, and Madrid. On other ICS questions, only a minority across all cities had heard of their local, regional or national immigrant consultative body.[21]

These findings raise questions about immigrant organisations: how are they defined by immigrants and governments, and what roles do they play for their funders and for different types of immigrant? They may be registered associations, transnational networks, or informal meetings. They may act as self-financed advocacy groups, religious or cultural institutions, government-funded service providers, or representatives of their countries of origin. In order to explain differences between cities, further research can clarify all these forms of immigrant participation and self-organisation.[22]

20. Immigrants were also asked about their membership of 'other' organisations (e.g. sports, cultural, social, religious, local, professional, humanitarian, and environmental). Membership was similar across all 15 cities (15-21%). The 'other' category was not suitable for comparison with the general public, due to broad definition and interpretation of this category.

21. Go online to see specific information about immigrants' knowledge of local, regional and national consultative bodies, www.immigrantsurvey.org

22. For analysis of these questions, see Localmultidem 2011.

Family **reunion**

Family **reunion**

What's your marital status?

How many people live in your household?

What's the nationality of your spouse?

Have you ever applied for family reunion?

Since you moved here, have you ever had a partner or child living outside the country?

When did you apply?

What happened to your application?

How has reuniting with your family helped you personally?

What problems did you have applying?

Would you like to apply for family reunion? Why not?

How might reuniting with your family help you personally?

Want to see all the answers? Go to www.immigrantsurvey.org

Key findings

Only limited numbers of first-generation immigrants were ever separated from a partner or children.

The majority of separated families have already reunited in most surveyed countries.

Most separated immigrants today do not want to apply for their family, some because of family choices but others because of policy obstacles.

Family reunion helps immigrants improve family life, sense of belonging and sometimes other integration outcomes.

Today, family reunion is mainly presented in public debates as a major immigration channel for people to move to the EU. Policy actors focus on the number of permits issued for family reunion, which are collected by national statistical bodies and reported to Eurostat. These statistics are frequently the only facts that are brought to this much broader debate about the right to family reunion and its effects on immigrants and societies. Family reunion is not just a channel for the immigration of families, but also the starting point for integration. Reuniting a family can improve the sociocultural stability of its sponsor and the participation of reuniting family members, as well as family and social life in receiving communities.

The Immigrant Citizens Survey brings an integration perspective back to the family reunion debate. People who immigrated from outside the EU were asked whether they found family reunification to be necessary and helpful for their family life and social integration.[23] What types of families do first generation immigrants have? How common are separated families, where an immigrant's partner or children are living abroad? Have immigrants applied for family reunion, had problems applying, and been accepted? How has reuniting with their families changed their lives? Are more immigrants interested in sponsoring their families for family reunion?

According to the Migrant Integration Policy Index (MIPEX), most legal non-EU residents enjoyed 'slightly favourable' family reunion policies (scoring 60+/100) in 2010 in all ICS countries, except France (scoring 52/100).[24] Immigrant sponsors and their partners or children abroad must meet specific legal definitions of the family and the other requirements for family reunion (i.e. income, housing). MIPEX found that these legal conditions were most inclusive in Portugal and Spain, slightly inclusive in Belgium and Hungary, slightly more restrictive in Germany and Italy, and most restrictive in France. These conditions have changed significantly in recent years. New conditions have been imposed in France, Germany, Italy, and—since MIPEX and ICS—Belgium. Conversely, Portugal established wide access to family reunion with the 2007 Immigration Law. Spain's current family reunion policy dates from its 2009 Immigration Law.

By way of background, surveyed immigrants live in many types of households and families. On average, they live in a household of 3-4 people, with slightly smaller households in the cities in Italy, Portugal, and Spain than in France and Germany. The majority are married or living with a partner. A larger proportion is single in the Portuguese cities and Liège (around 40%) than in the French cities, Italian cities, and Stuttgart (less than 25%). Many immigrants within the ICS sample had arrived on a family reunion permit in Antwerp, Lyon, Budapest, and Milan (around 25%); Brussels and Liège (around 33%); Berlin (48%) and Stuttgart (67%). Around 10% were still on that permit at the time of the interview in the Belgian, German, and Spanish cities, as well as in Budapest and Milan.

SEPARATED FAMILIES: THEN AND NOW

Today, most first-generation immigrants surveyed in the 15 cities do not currently need to reunite with a partner or children. Figure 19 shows to what extent most immigrants surveyed lived in families that were or could be reunited.

The vast majority are either single, have always lived with their partner or children, or were the ones that reunited. Whether these people will need family reunion in the future will depend on how their lives and families change over time. **Only a limited number of people who immigrated from outside the EU were or are separated from their families**. Just five to 15 per cent of immigrants in the cities in Belgium, France, and Hungary had ever lived apart. At most, around one in three immigrants were affected in the cities in Germany and new countries of immigration, such as Italy, Portugal, and Spain. Being separated from children appeared to be much more common among surveyed immigrants in southern European cities.

Over half of the separated immigrants have successfully used family reunion legislation to reunite with a partner or children in Budapest, Lyon, Milan and surveyed cities in Belgium. Many more separated immigrants have not yet applied in Naples and other cities in new countries of immigration, such as Portugal and Spain. Most applications were processed in northern European cities and Budapest during the first half of the 2000s and in new immigration countries in southern Europe during the second half.

23. The survey does not cover all forms of family reunification and formation. Other people who apply for partners or family abroad include citizens of other EU Member States who moved to the country as well as the country's own citizens, including citizens with an immigrant background.

24. For more, see www.mipex.eu/family-reunion

Figure 19. **Have you reunited with your partner?**

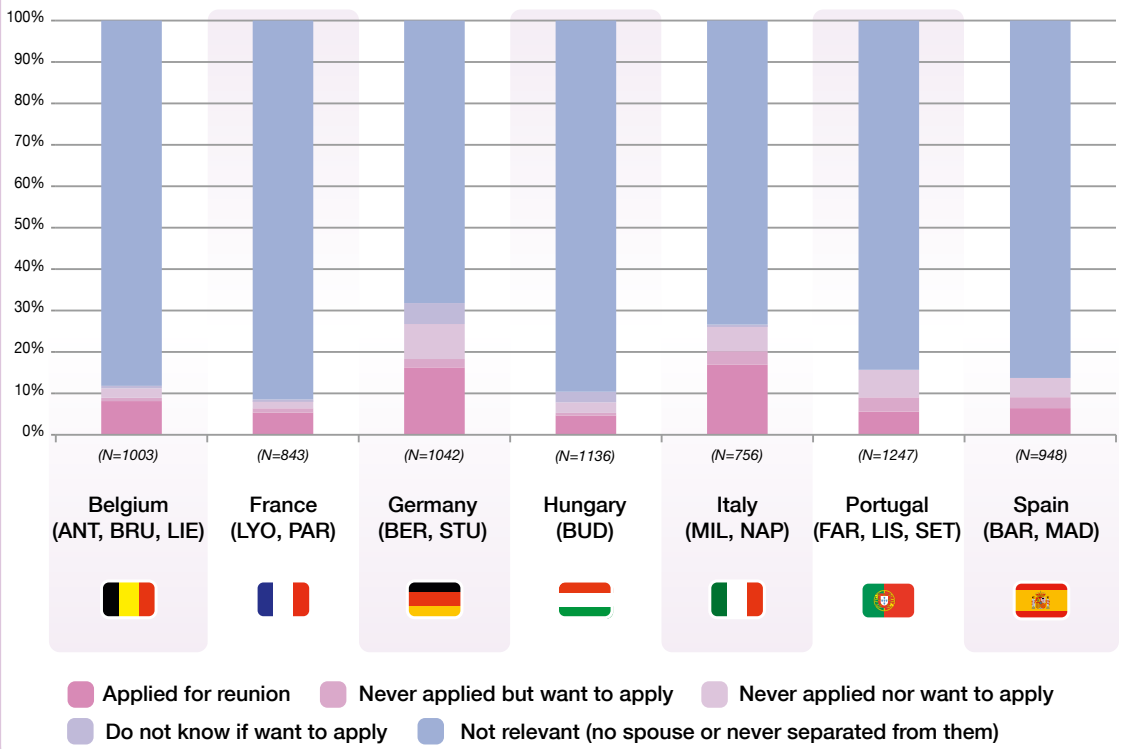
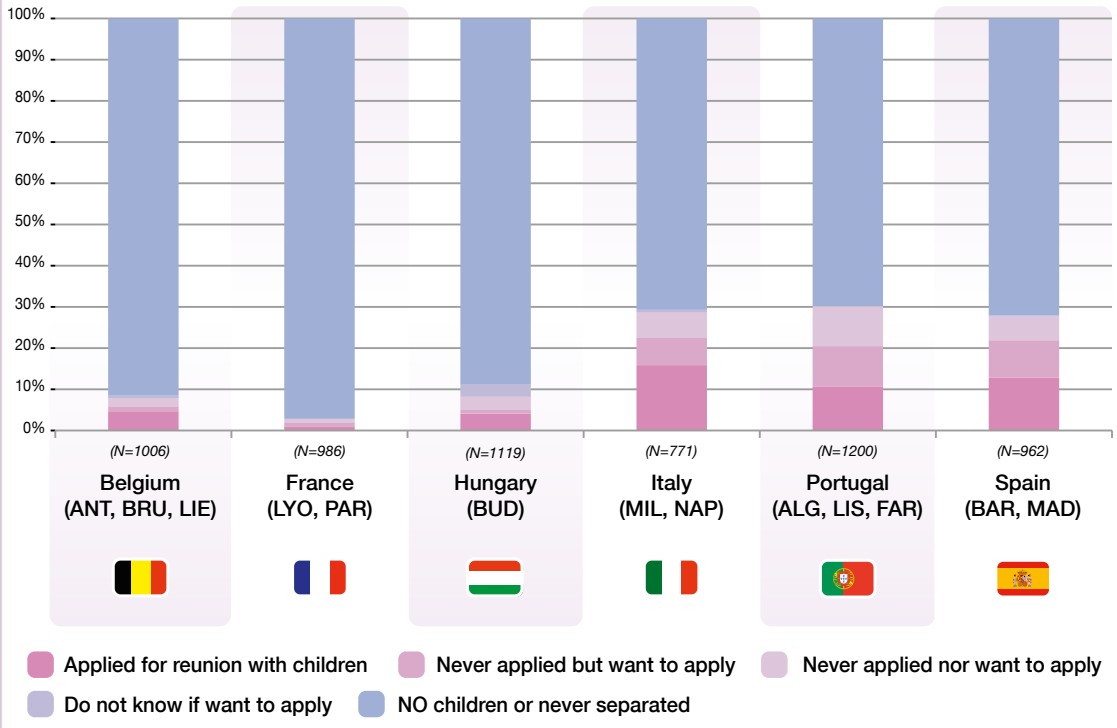


Figure 20. **Have you reunited with your children?**



Note: Reunion with children was not asked in Germany. Statistical tests show slightly more applied for children in Barcelona than Madrid and in Faro than Lisbon, more want to apply in Lisbon than other Portuguese cities, more do not want to apply in Naples than Milan, and more applied for their spouse in Milan than Naples (for all differences: p≤0.05). Regarding the specific question of whether or not applicants want to apply for their spouse or children, the number of "Refusals" (<42%) was high in Spanish cities and Stuttgart.

Figure 21. **Why do you want to reunite with your partner or children?**

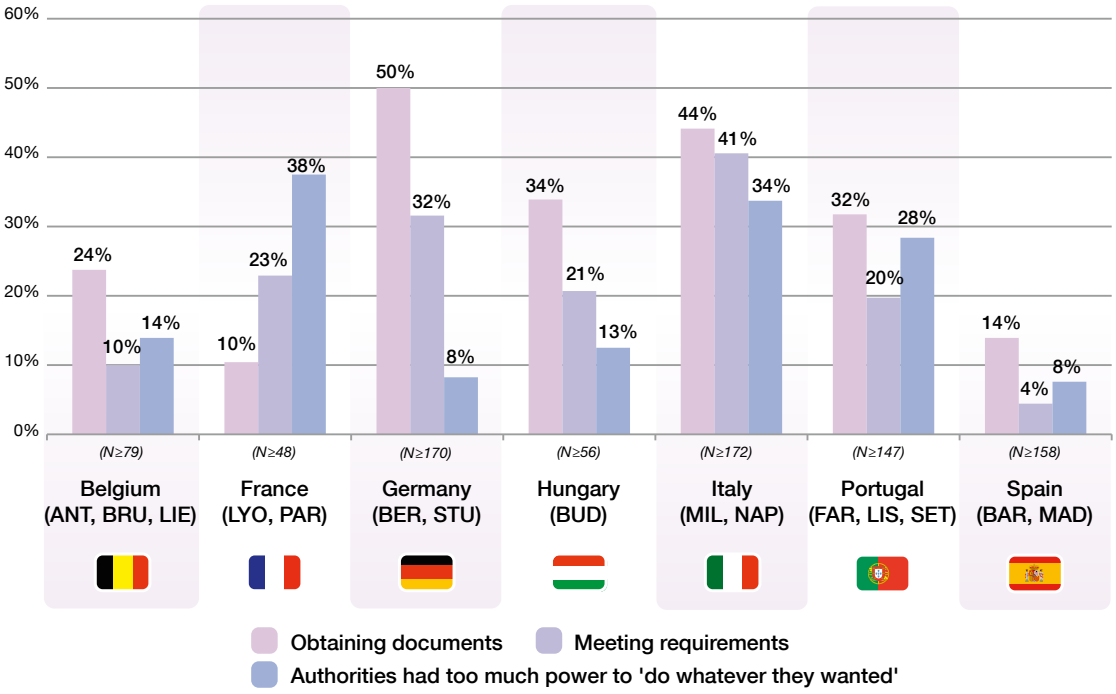
Note: Number of people in France who do not want to reunite (n=18) is too small for analysis. Statistical tests show that slightly more respondents cited the requirements as a problem in Milan than Naples, knowledge as a problem in Faro than other Portuguese cities, their settlement intentions in Faro and Setubal than Lisbon and their family's preferences in Stuttgart than Berlin, in Naples than Milan, and in Faro than Lisbon (for all differences: p≤0.05). The number of "Don't Knows" was high in Budapest (<32%) , Belgian cities (<30%) and Paris (<11%) and Naples (<7%),while the number of "Refusals" was high in Spanish cities (<19%) and Belgian cities (<14%).

INTEREST IN FAMILY REUNION TODAY

In all countries, most separated immigrants said they do not want to apply for their family. In French, Italian, Portuguese and Spanish cities, for every immigrant surveyed who wanted to reunite with a partner, on average two did not. The ratio is even higher in Budapest, Belgian cities, and German cities. Many others did not know in Budapest and the German cities. Generally immigrants were slightly more interested in reuniting with separated children, except in Budapest. Across the seven countries, at most half of those surveyed in Milan, Lisbon, and Spanish cities wanted to apply for their children at some point in the future.

Most immigrants surveyed have their own reasons for not reuniting their family; several did not know or cited a specific reason (see Figure 21). Two major personal reasons were that some immigrants do not want to settle in the country or their family does not want to move. These family reasons were regularly given in Budapest and cities in Italy, Portugal, and, to a lesser extent, Belgium and Spain. But two other major reasons were related to policy. Many separated immigrants do not know if they meet the family reunion requirements, particularly in cities in Belgium, Italy, and Portugal. Others say that they cannot meet the requirements, again in these cities as well as the two Spanish cities.

Figure 22. **What problems did you have reuniting with your family?**

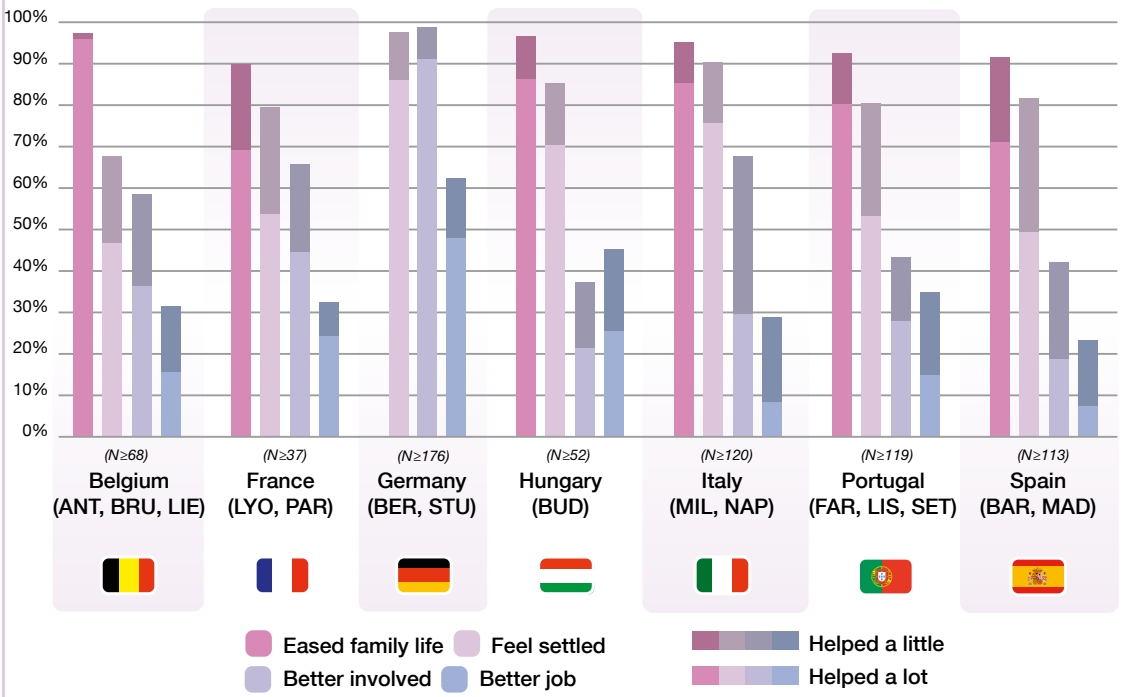


Note: Statistical tests show slightly more problems in Berlin than in Stuttgart with documents and requirements; in Milan than Naples with documents and power; and in Liege than Brussels with requirements (for all differences: p≤0.05). The number of "Don't Knows" was high (<30%) in Antwerp, Brussels, and Budapest.

PROBLEMS AND SUCCESSES

Around half the immigrants who did apply for family reunion also cited problems with the family reunion procedure, specifically the requirements, documents, or discretion of the authorities. Figure 22 shows how often people reported experiencing specific problems in the procedure. Former applicants said that authorities had too much power to 'do whatever they wanted' during the procedure, particularly in French cities (38%), Italian cities (34%) and Portuguese cities (28%). The documentation required was another important obstacle for family reunion in specific countries such as Belgium (24%) and Germany (50%). Applicants in German and Italian cities had the most problems, while applicants in Spanish cities reported the fewest.

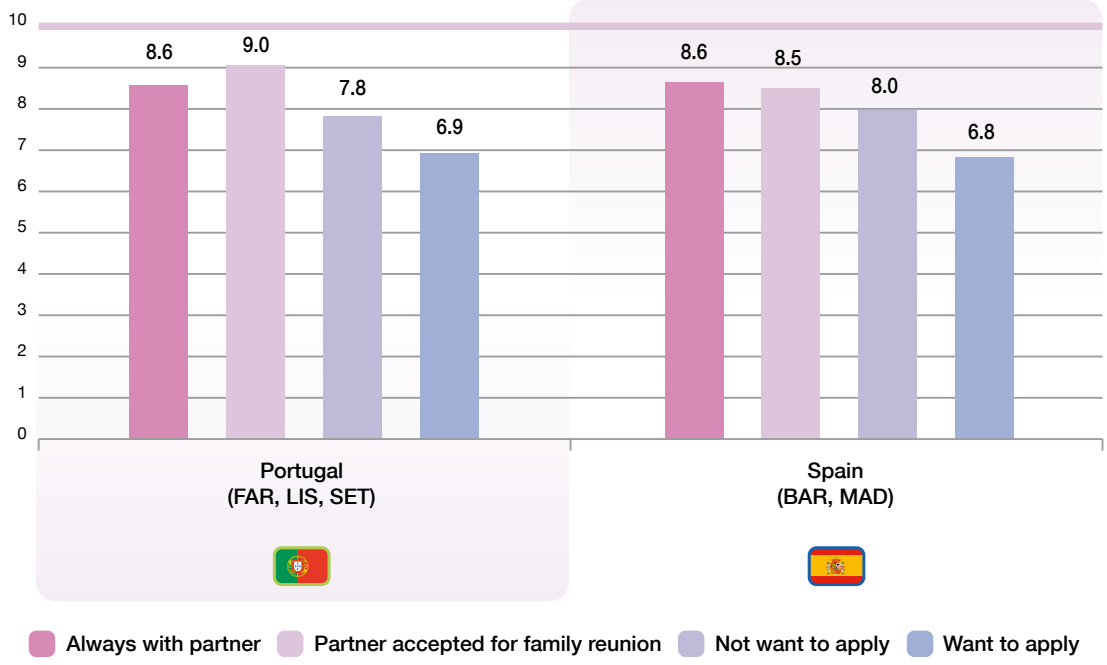
Figure 23. **How has family reunion helped you?**



Note: The question on family life was not asked in Germany. Statistical tests show slightly lower perceived effects of family reunion on jobs in Brussels than other Belgian cities, on jobs and involvement in Stuttgart than Berlin, on family life in Antwerp than other Belgian cities and in Lisbon than Faro (for all differences: $p \leq 0.05$). The number of "Don't Knows" was high (<37%) in Belgian cities and Budapest, while the number of "Refusals" was high (<15%) in Antwerp and Madrid.

Successful sponsors perceived several positive effects of family reunion on their family life and social integration. Figure 23 shows how many immigrants who reunited with their partners or children felt that it helped a little or a lot in different areas of their life. Nearly all enjoyed a much easier family life thanks to family reunion. Most felt more settled in the country. On average in Belgian, French, German, and Italian cities, over half also saw how living with their family helped them get more involved in their local community in some way, such as in schools, associations or political activities. Around 70% in Berlin and around 30% in most other cities even credited some of their opportunities on the labour market to reuniting with their family.

Figure 24. **Family reunion and satisfaction**



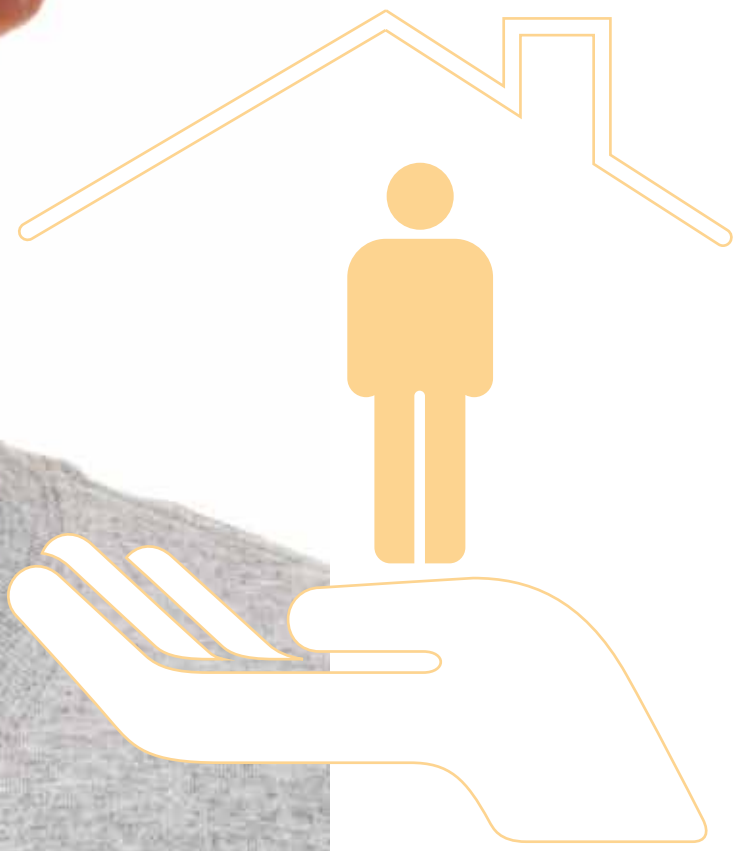
Note: This pattern largely holds in most cases for all 7 countries, where sample sizes are sufficient for analysis. Regarding whether respondents would like to reunite with separated partners, the number of "Don't Knows" was high in Belgium (13.6%), France (6.2%), Germany (27.6%), Hungary (44.6%), while the number of "Refusals" was high in Germany (11.6%) and Spain (14%).

The average immigrant surveyed in most ICS cities and countries seems as satisfied with their family life as most people in the countries where they live. Based on questions from the 2007 European Quality of Life Survey, surveyed immigrants rated on a scale from 0 to 10 how satisfied they felt with their family life (see conclusion). The ratings that ICS immigrants gave to their family life ranged from slightly less favourable in Naples (6.8) to slightly more favourable in Barcelona (8.5). Figure 24 specifies these ratings with different types of families and interests in family reunion. Only the Portuguese and Spanish cities had large enough samples on the specific questions on partners but similar patterns are suggested in most cases across the seven countries.

Most surveyed immigrants were never separated from their partners and reported similarly high levels of family satisfaction as the general public. The relatively few immigrants in transnational couples and families had slightly different outlooks on their family satisfaction and future. ICS data suggests that separated immigrants who did not want to apply for their partners abroad were only slightly less happy with their family life. They may see this time apart as the better option for themselves and/or their family. In contrast, separated immigrants who did want to apply for family reunion were significantly less happy with their family life. Those who did apply and reunite with their partner were on average just as happy with their family life as immigrants who were never separated from their partner.

The experiences of reunited families in the ICS cities suggest that living together will likely improve family life for the limited number of separated families who want to reunite in the foreseeable future. Living together may also improve their sense of belonging and perhaps other integration outcomes. Family reunion policies appear to be very important for the small number of separated families interested in reunion. In several countries, the requirements discourage some separated families from applying, while the way these requirements must be documented and implemented cause problems for those applying.

Long-term **Residence**



Long-Term **Residence**

Have you ever applied for long term residence?

When did you apply?

What happened to your application?

What problems did you have applying?

How has becoming a long-term resident helped you personally?

Do you want to become a long-term resident? Why not?

Why do you not want to become a long-term resident?

How might becoming a long-term resident help you personally?

Want to see all the answers? Go to www.immigrantsurvey.org

Key findings

- 80 and 95% of immigrants are or want to become long-term residents.
- Most temporary migrants in new countries of immigration also want to become long-term residents.
- The average person applies not long after the minimum period of residence.
- Documents and powers of authorities cited as major problems for applicants in certain countries.
- Long-term residence helps most immigrants get better jobs and feel more settled.

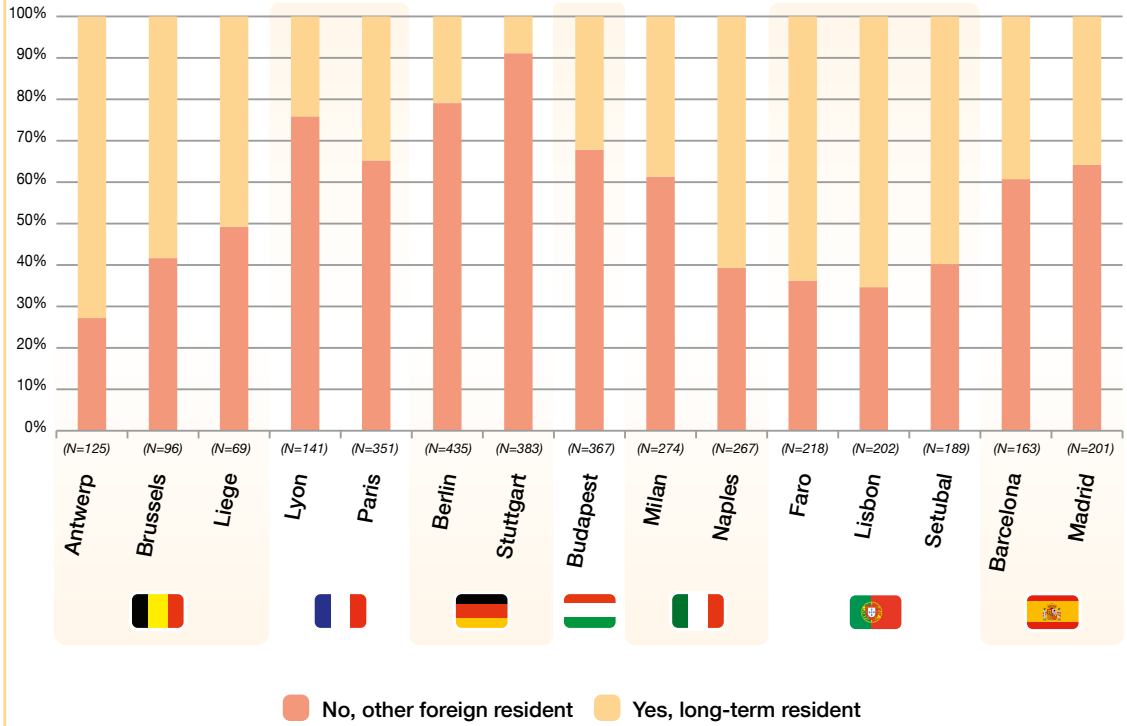
After a few years' residence, most temporary immigrants can decide for themselves whether they want to settle permanently in the country. Long-term or permanent residence secures their residence status and guarantees that they should be treated equally as nationals and EU citizens, with the same rights and responsibilities.

Long-term residence is rarely raised in the public debate. The Migrant Integration Policy Index (MIPEX) confirmed that there were few improvements to long-term residence between 2007 and 2010. At EU level, the European Commission published a 2011 report deploring the weak impact of the EC long-term residence directive in most EU Member States.[25] More information on the links between long-term residence and integration is slow in coming. The EU Member States recently agreed that the share of immigrants who acquired permanent or long-term residence was a core indicator of integration outcomes (Zaragoza indicators), since active citizenship supports immigrants' integration, participation in the democratic process, and sense of belonging.[26] Residence statuses are becoming easier to compare across European countries, in part due to EU legislation (e.g. EC long-term residence Directive 2003/109) and better European statistics (e.g. Regulation 862/2007). Still, comparatively little is known about long-term residents and how this status fits into immigrants' pathways to integration and settlement.

The Immigrant Citizens Survey explores the links that immigrants see between a secure legal status and their social integration. Similar to the questions on family reunion, surveyed immigrants were asked whether they applied or wanted to apply for some form of national long-term or permanent residence. What share of non-EU citizens had some form of long-term residence? What problems did they have applying? What effects did the status appear to have on their settlement and social integration?
The 2010 Migrant Integration Policy Index (MIPEX) identified 'slightly favourable' pathways to long-term residence (scoring 60+/100) in all ICS countries, except Germany (scoring 50/100) and France (scoring 46/100). The eligibility requirements and conditions for acquisition vary significantly across the countries. The maximum residence period for the EC long-term residence permit is five years. This period is sometimes shortened for recognised refugees, beneficiaries of subsidiary protection, highly skilled workers, family reunion permit holders, or graduates of the country's higher education system. However, governments may exclude certain legal categories of non-EU temporary residents from applying. They may also impose requirements for long-term residence that are equally or more demanding than for citizenship, as is the recent European trend for language requirements. More eligibility restrictions exist in France, Germany, and Italy than in the four other countries. The legal conditions are most inclusive in Belgium, Hungary, and Spain and more demanding in France and Germany. No other MIPEX country imposed as many conditions as Germany, while hardly any restricted eligibility as much as France. Portugal only implemented a 'slightly favourable' pathway to long-term residence with the 2007 Immigration Law. Belgium and Spain have also recently improved access to long-term residence statuses. Italy is working on a 'points system' with new language and integration requirements. Immigrants who become long-term residents enjoy a rather secure residence status in all ICS countries but Hungary and near-equal socio-economic rights in all countries except France (job and qualification restrictions for non-EU citizens).

25. For more, see www.mipex.eu/blog/commission-deplores-weak-impact-of-eu-long-term-residence-directive
26. Eurostat, Indicators of Immigrant Integration: A Pilot Study, (Luxembourg, 2011) ISSN 1997-0375.

Figure 25. **After 6+ years, are you a long-term resident?**

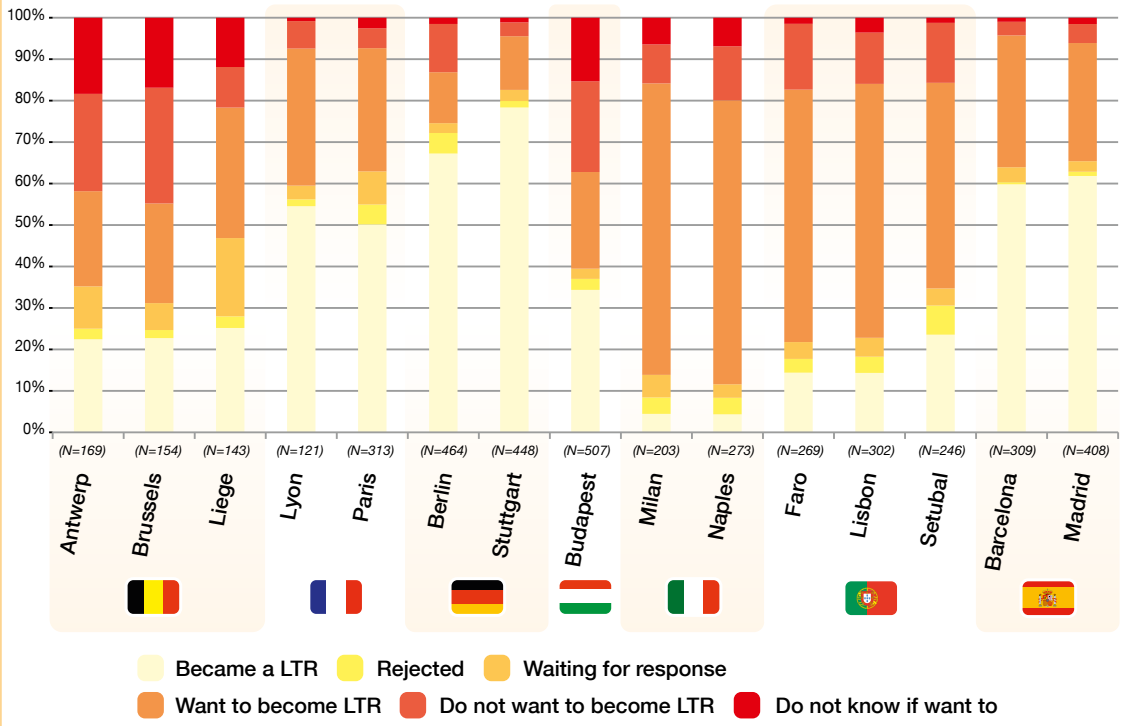


LONG-TERM RESIDENCE AS PART OF THE INTEGRATION PATHWAY

Figure 25 shows the share of foreign residents in ICS cities who acquired some form of long-term residence after residing in the country for six or more years. This figure excludes foreign residents who naturalised as citizens. The majority of foreign residents said that they had some type of long-term residence permit in French cities, German cities, Spanish cities, Budapest, and Milan. The average long-term resident applicant had lived longer in the country and applied longer ago in Belgian and French cities and Budapest than in Italian, Portuguese, and Spanish cities.

Certain categories of immigrant, especially international students, had lower rates of long-term residence. Even after six or more years in the country, no more than half of former international students in ICS countries had secured long-term residence permits. Long-term residency was also much less common among other permit holders in the country for six years or more: regularised immigrants in Italy, temporary workers in Portugal, and diverse visa categories in Belgium.

Figure 26. **Do you want to become a long-term resident?**

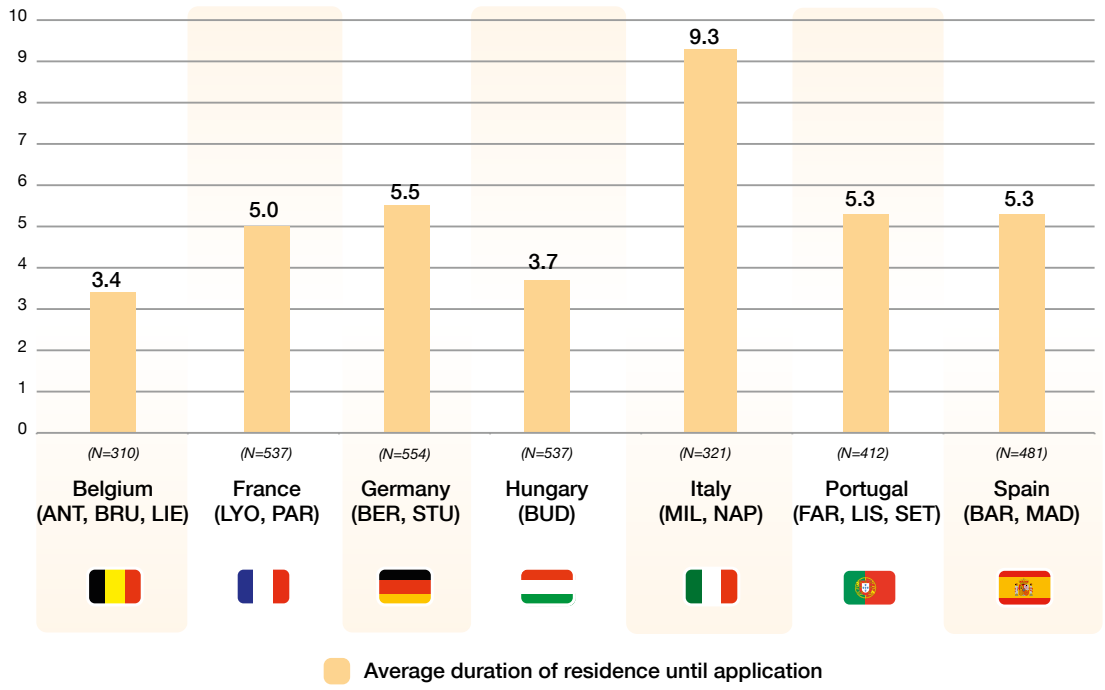


Note: The number of "Refusals" slightly high in Antwerp and Barcelona (<8%).

Overall, between 80 and 95% of immigrants surveyed in most ICS countries are or want to become long-term residents. Figure 26 illustrates how many foreigners applied (accepted, rejected, or awaiting response) and whether temporary residents are interested to apply. Comparatively few foreign residents have applied in cities in Italy and Portugal. Across most ICS countries, the majority of temporary residents already know that they want to become long-term residents, even in new countries of immigration such as Italy, Portugal, and Spain. In contrast, many more foreign residents in Belgian cities and Budapest said that they did not apply for long-term residency, did not want to, or did not know. Foreign residents in Berlin were divided on the question of whether or not to apply.

Since most temporary residents wanted to become long-term residents, very few gave reasons why they would not. Those who were not interested in long-term residence frequently did not see the difference with their current status (around one third in Budapest, Belgian, German, and Portuguese cities). Another important reason was that these particular temporary residents did not plan to settle in the country, especially in Budapest and German cities.

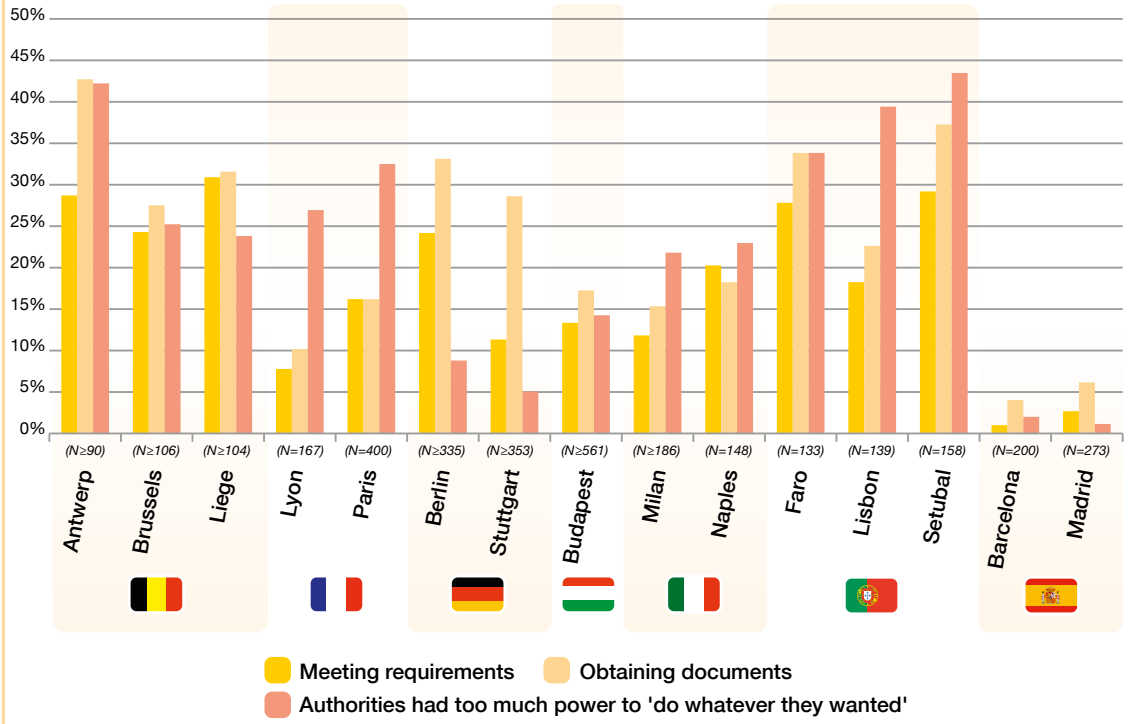
Figure 27. **How many years does it take immigrants to apply for long-term residence?**



Note: There is an important difference in average duration of residence until application between Lyon (3.8) and Paris (5.4). "Don't Knows" were high (<24%) in Belgian cities, French cities, German cities, Budapest, and Naples.

In most ICS countries, the average applicant for long-term residence applied not long after the minimum required period of residence. The average length of residence before application is presented in Figure 27. Applicants usually applied after five years' residence in most countries.

Figure 28. **What problems did you have applying for long-term residence?**



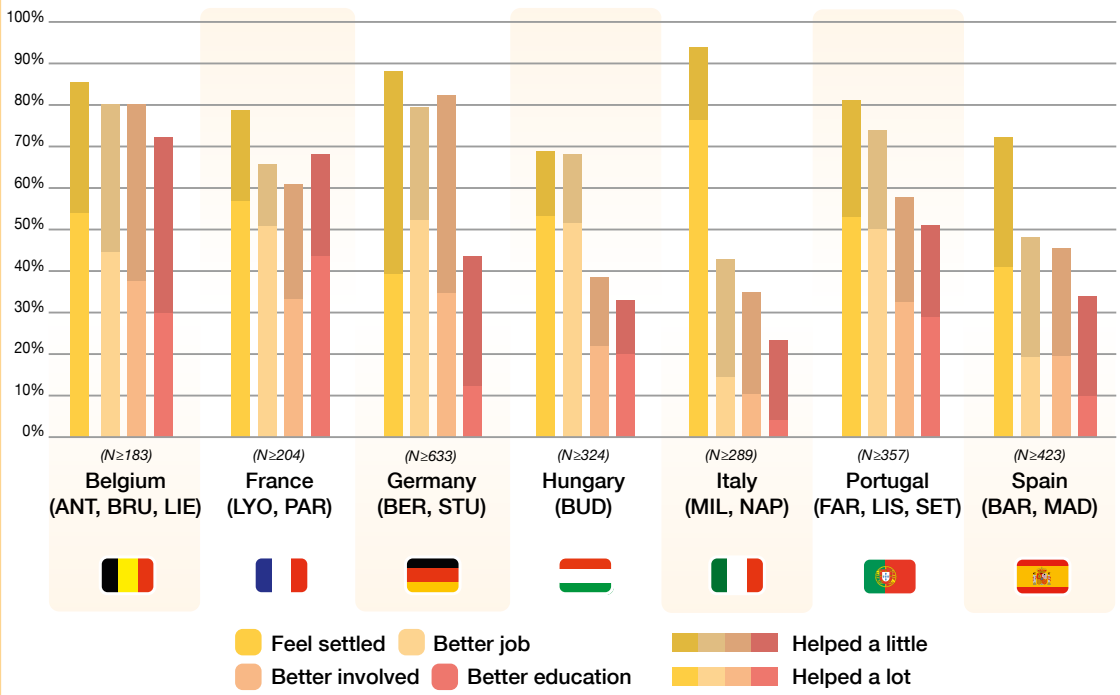
Note: On these questions, the number of "Don't Knows" was high in Belgian cities and Budapest (<21%).

PROBLEMS AND SUCCESSES

Several people applying for long-term residence had to overcome obstacles with the policies and the ways that they are implemented in different cities. Figure 28 indicates how often the documents, requirements and the discretion of authorities created problems for surveyed applicants. People rarely encountered these problems in Spanish cities and around two thirds of applicants in Budapest, Lyon, Milan, and Naples.

At least one of these problems was reported by half the applicants in Paris, Berlin, Portuguese cities, and Belgian cities, and even more in Antwerp. The documents and requirements were seen as difficult by more people applying in Belgian, German, and Portuguese cities. Many more applicants saw authorities as arbitrary and unfair in French and Portuguese cities than in German and Spanish cities.

Figure 29. **How has long-term residence helped you?**



Note: Statistical tests show slightly lower perceived effects of long-term residence on jobs in Lyon than Paris and in Naples than Milan, on feeling settled in Liege than Antwerp, in Lyon than Paris, and in Stuttgart than Berlin, and on getting involved and feeling settled in Madrid than Barcelona and in Faro than in other Portuguese cities (for all differences: p≤0.05). The number of "Don't Knows" was high (<28%) in Antwerp, Liege, Lyon, Paris, and Budapest.

People who became long-term residents said that this secure residence status helped them feel more settled, often get better jobs, and sometimes get better educated and involved. Figure 29 shows to what extent long-term residence helped immigrants a little or a lot in different areas of their lives. Long-term residence made most feel more settled in all ICS countries, especially Italy. In everyday life, the status reportedly helped most improve their job prospects across the ICS cities, except in Italy and Spain. Majorities also felt the effects when they got involved in community life in cities in Belgium, France, Germany, and Portugal or pursued greater education in Belgium, France, and, to a certain extent, Portugal.

Citizenship

Citizenship

Have you ever applied to become a citizen?

When did you apply?

Which procedure did you use?

What happened to your application?

What problems did you have applying?

How has becoming a citizen helped you personally?

Do you want to become a citizen? Why not?

How might becoming a citizen help you personally?

Want to see all the answers? Go to www.immigrantsurvey.org

Key findings

Around 3 out of 4 immigrants are or want to become citizens.

The few uninterested in citizenship often either do not see the difference with their current status or face specific policy obstacles.

Major reasons not to naturalise are difficult procedures in France and restrictions on dual nationality in Germany.

Naturalisation more common among established immigration countries and among facilitated groups in Hungary and Spain.

Immigrants who are eligible for naturalisation often take years to apply.

Citizenship helps immigrants feel more settled, get better jobs, and even get more educated and involved.

Citizenship gives immigrants equal rights and better recognition in society. Nationality policies often arise in politically and emotionally charged national debates about integration, identity, and diversity. European institutions have had very little to say on national citizenship. National ministers responsible for integration did agree in the 1999 Tampere Presidency Conclusions that naturalisation should be part of their strategies on comparable rights and responsibilities. In 2010, EU Member States made the share of immigrants that have acquired citizenship an EU integration indicator, because the EU Common Basic Principles consider that immigrants' participation in the democratic process supports their integration and enhances their sense of belonging.

Better international data and research is uncovering the links between policies, naturalisation rates, and social integration outcomes. The EUDO Citizenship project has systematically mapped and analysed the numerous modes for the acquisition and loss of nationality.[27] International cooperation and surveys have improved how countries measure citizenship (OECD and Eurostat, especially Regulation 862/2007). New types of analysis seem to indicate that policies have major effects on how many immigrants naturalise and how long they take.[28] Evidence of the impact of citizenship has been collected by researchers, including the OECD.[29] Using longitudinal data, their research finds that citizenship works as a tool that improves access to better-paid, higher-skilled, and public jobs for immigrants, especially vulnerable groups. They hypothesise that naturalisation improves not only people's rights in the country, but also their recognition on the job market and investment in their education. Additional non-longitudinal sources suggest that naturalisation may also improve political participation, housing, and social inclusion. Building on these findings, new research is investigating how different laws, implementing measures, and individual factors affect citizenship acquisition and integration.[30]

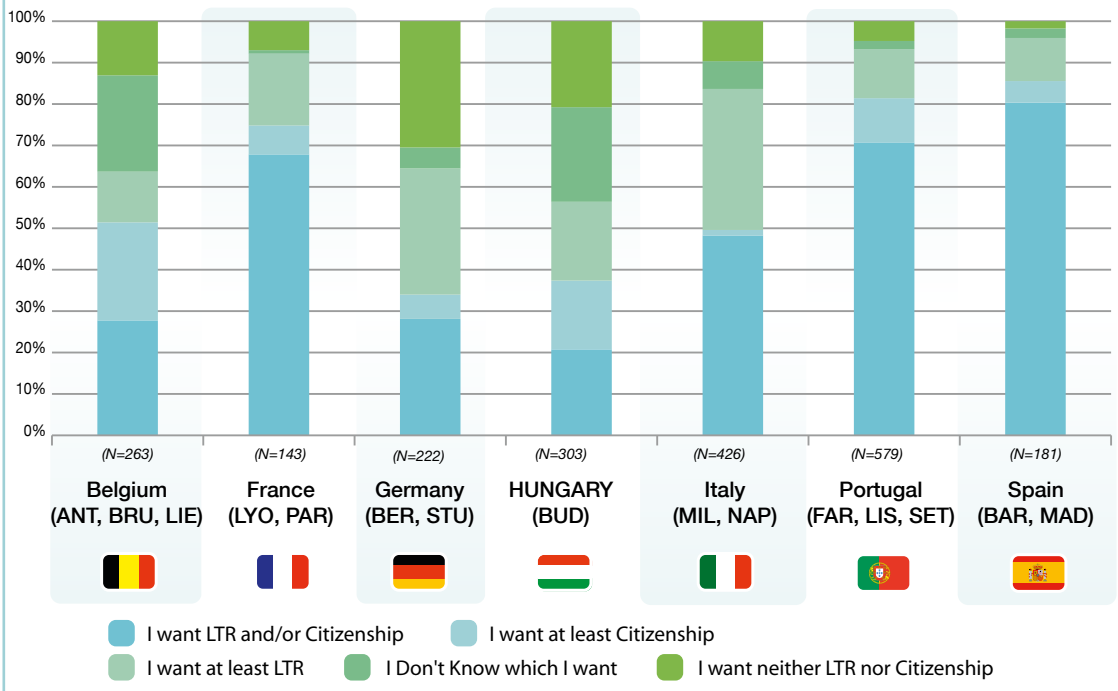
The Immigrant Citizens Survey puts this emerging evidence to the test by asking immigrants how they see citizenship as part of their own settlement and integration in society. As in sections on family reunion and long-term residence, this section asked immigrants about their interest, their experiences, and the perceived policy effects. Do temporary immigrants want citizenship? How many non-EU citizens have applied and been accepted? Do citizens also perceive effects on their sense of belonging and social integration?

Immigrants had very different paths to citizenship in the ICS countries, depending on their year of application and sometimes their national or cultural origins. Decades ago, very few European countries, among them France, Ireland, and the United Kingdom, facilitated naturalisation, birthright citizenship, and dual nationality for first-generation immigrants. Many countries only facilitated access to nationality for those with historical, ethnic or cultural ties (Germany, Hungary, Italy, Portugal, and Spain). Within a generation, immigrants have seen major citizenship reforms in countries such as Germany, Belgium, recently Portugal, and soon perhaps Italy.

In 2010, the Migrant Integration Policy Index (MIPEX) found that the citizenship laws for ordinary non-EU immigrants were most 'favourable' in Portugal (only since 2006) and 'slightly favourable' in all other ICS countries, except Hungary and Spain. Those two countries maintain much more favourable policies for facilitated groups than for ordinary non-EU immigrants. Dual nationality is accepted in all ICS countries, except Spain (only for countries with historical ties) and Germany (only by exception). Ordinary non-EU immigrants are eligible to apply after several years' residence: from three years for naturalisation in Belgium (seven for declaration of nationality), to five in France, six in Portugal, seven to eight in Germany, eight in Hungary (no specific period for ethnic Hungarians), ten in Spain (two for countries with historical ties), and ten in Italy (shorter for some, e.g. Italian descendants). The general legal conditions (e.g. language and civic knowledge, income) were found to be most inclusive in Belgium and Portugal, most demanding in Germany, and most discretionary in France and Spain. The overall procedure is discretionary in Hungary, France, Italy, and Belgium (for naturalisation) vs. rights-based in Germany, Spain, and Belgium (for declaration of nationality).

27. For more, see http://eudo-citizenship.eu/
28. See Dronkers, Jaap and Vink, Maarten, Explaining Access to Citizenship in Europe: How Policies Affect Naturalisation Rates, European Union Politics 13(3), 2012. www.eui.eu/Personal/Dronkers/English/Vink.pdf Sartori, Fabio, 'Acquisitions of citizenship on the rise in 2009,' Eurostat: Statistics in Focus 24/2011, Luxembourg, 2011. http://epp.eurostat.ec.europa.eu/cache/ITY_OFFPUB/KS-SF-11-024/EN/KS-SF-11-024-EN.PDF, Reichel, David 'Do legal regulations hinder naturalisation?' EUI Working Papers RSCAS 2011/51, Florence, Italy, 2011. http://cadmus.eui.eu/bitstream/handle/1814/18734/RSCAS_2011_51.pdf?sequence=3

Figure 30. **Do you want to become a long-term resident? Do you want to become a citizen?**



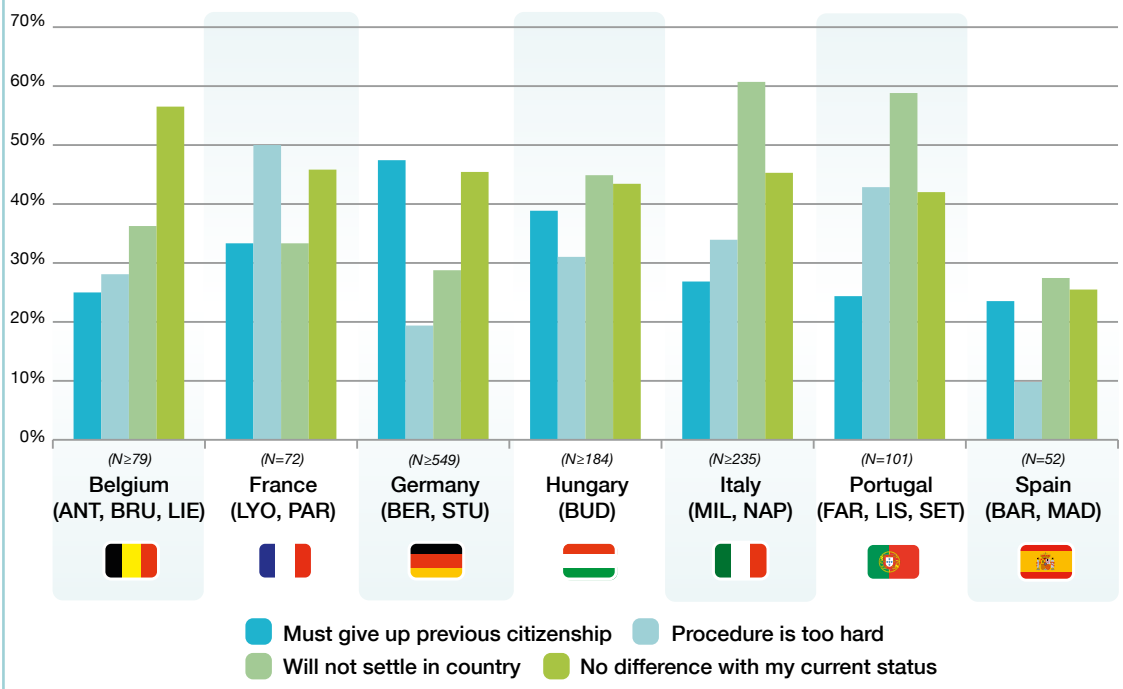
Note: Statistical tests show that respondents in Liege were slightly more likely to know that they wanted LTR or Citizenship than respondents in Antwerp or Brussels (for all differences: $p \leq 0.05$).

BEYOND LONG-TERM RESIDENCE: INTEREST IN CITIZENSHIP

Most temporary residents are not only interested in becoming long-term residents in the countries where they live. Figure 30 shows whether temporary residents surveyed said that they wanted to become long-term residents and/or citizens. In all ICS countries, the majority want a more secure residence status. In French, Portuguese, and Italian cities, they want to become not only long-term residents, but also citizens. In Italian cities, nearly half want the same, but an additional third are currently only interested in long-term residence. The temporary residents surveyed in Budapest and cities in Belgium and Germany were more divided and uncertain about their future status in the country. More were interested in citizenship in Belgium, where few had or wanted long-term residence (currently not a formal requirement for naturalisation). In Germany, 30% wanted only to become long-term residents, while another 30% preferred to remain temporary residents than become long-term residents or citizens.

29. OECD, Naturalisation: A passport for the better integration of immigrants? OECD Publishing, Paris, 2011, doi: 10.1787/9789264099104-en www.oecd.org/document/0/0,3746,en_2649_37415_48125719_1_1_1_37415,00.html
30. For more, see forthcoming EIF-funded research project, Access to citizenship and its impact on immigrant integration (ACIT), http://www.migpolgroup.com/projects_detail.php?id=60

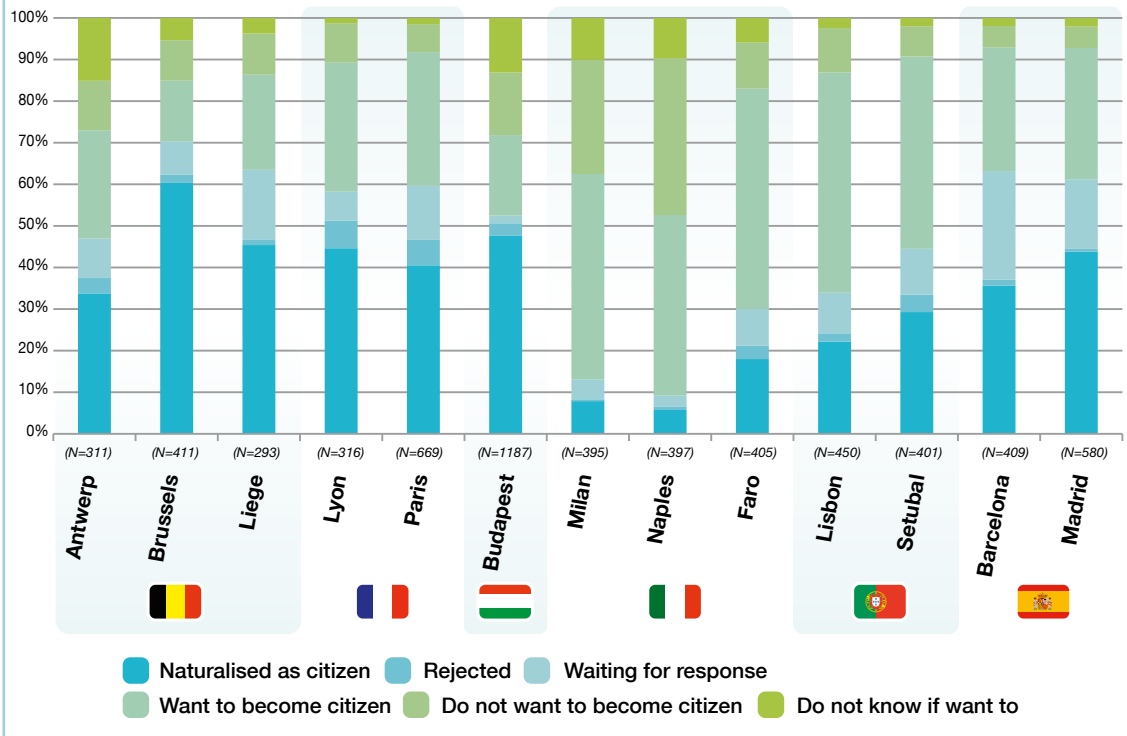
Figure 31. **Why do you not want to become a citizen?**



Note: Statistical tests show that the difference with current status was cited more as a reason in Milan than Naples, and slightly more in Brussels than other Belgian cities, and in Lisbon than other Portuguese cities. Previous citizenship was cited more often in Stuttgart than Berlin. The procedure was also cited more often in Milan than Naples (for all differences: p≤0.05). The number of "Don't Knows" was high (<43%) in Antwerp and slightly high (<23%) in Brussels, Liege, Lyon and Milan, while the number of "Refusals" (<8%) were high in Antwerp.

The few temporary residents who do not want to naturalise often do not see the value of citizenship or have other reasons that are specific to their country. Figure 31 suggests why citizenship may not be interesting for many foreigners in the surveyed cities in Germany, Hungary, and Italy and for few in Belgium, France, Portugal, and Spain. For the few in Spain, there was no one particular problem. In all other countries, one major reason (42-57%) is that the foreigners who do want to naturalise, especially long-term residents, do not see the difference between their current status and citizenship. However, this is not the main reason in most cases. For the few in Portuguese cities and the many in Italian cities, over half said that they did not plan to settle in these new countries of immigration. Half of those in French cities give the reason that the naturalisation procedure is too hard. In German cities, nearly half did not want to become citizens because they may need to renounce their previous citizenship under German law. This problem was less important in other countries, perhaps depending on the citizenship laws of countries of origin and immigrants' knowledge of the opportunities for dual nationality. Figure 32 illustrates specifically how common it is for non-EU immigrants to apply or want to naturalise in the 15 cities.

Figure 32. **Most immigrants are or want to become citizens**

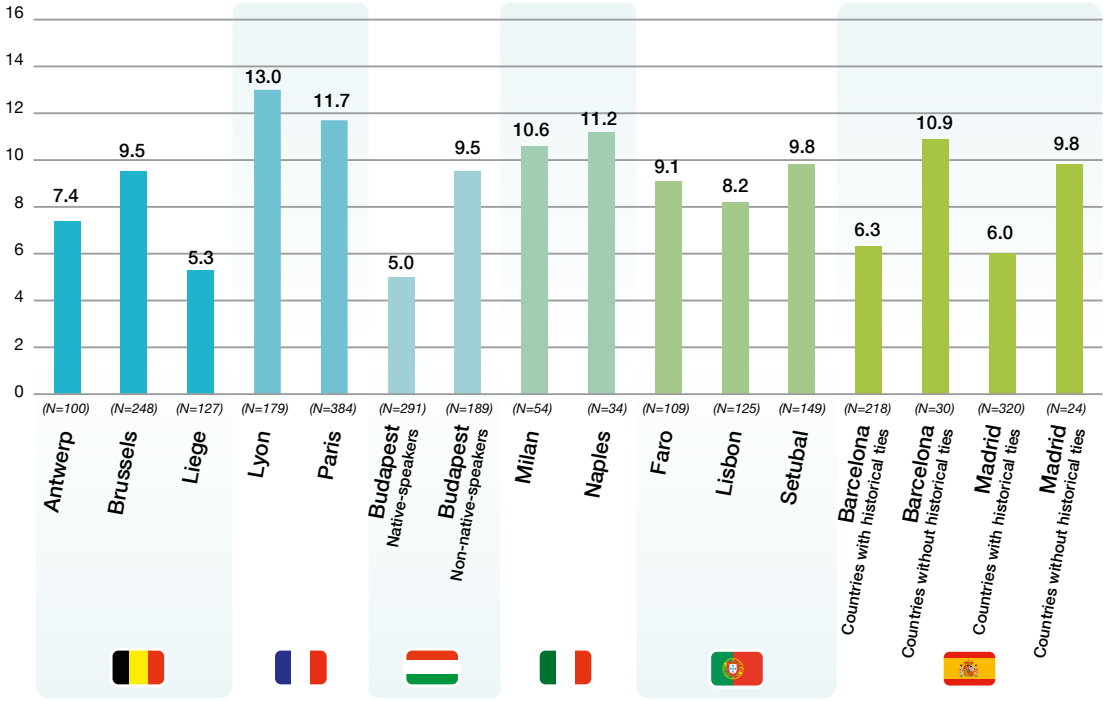


Note: Germany is excluded due to the sampling constraints which led to an underrepresentation of naturalised citizens.

Overall, around three out of four non-EU immigrants in most ICS cities said that they are or want to become citizens. The major exceptions are the cities in Italy, where around half of foreigners surveyed were either not interested or were unsure. Still, nearly just as many in Italian and Portuguese cities know that they want to become citizens in the future. Most surveyed immigrants who applied for naturalisation were then accepted. The largest numbers of rejections were reported in French cities. For those awaiting a response, the wait has been relatively short in Portuguese cities, slightly longer in French cities, and longest in Belgian and Spanish cities, with numerous cases dating back to 2008/2009.

The ICS sample suggests that naturalisation of immigrants is more common among established countries of immigration as well as facilitated groups in Hungary and Spain. So far, Italian and Portuguese cities have only seen a small number apply—and most applied recently. In Portuguese cities, the number of applicants from both Lusophone and non-Lusophone countries increased dramatically after the 2006 reform, which opened the favourable procedures reserved for people from Lusophone countries to all residents speaking basic Portuguese. In comparison, nearly half or more of all non-EU immigrants surveyed had already applied in Budapest, Belgian, French, and Spanish cities. Behind the sizeable numbers in Hungary and Spain lie major differences in the naturalisation procedures and rates. People surveyed were much more likely to be citizens if they are Hungarian native speakers (83% naturalised compared to 24% for non-native speakers) or from countries with historical ties to Spain (46% naturalised compared to 18% for others). Few differences emerged today between people from Lusophone and non-Lusophone countries in Portuguese cities, which may also reflect the 2006 reform.

Figure 33. **After how many years living in the country did you apply for citizenship?**

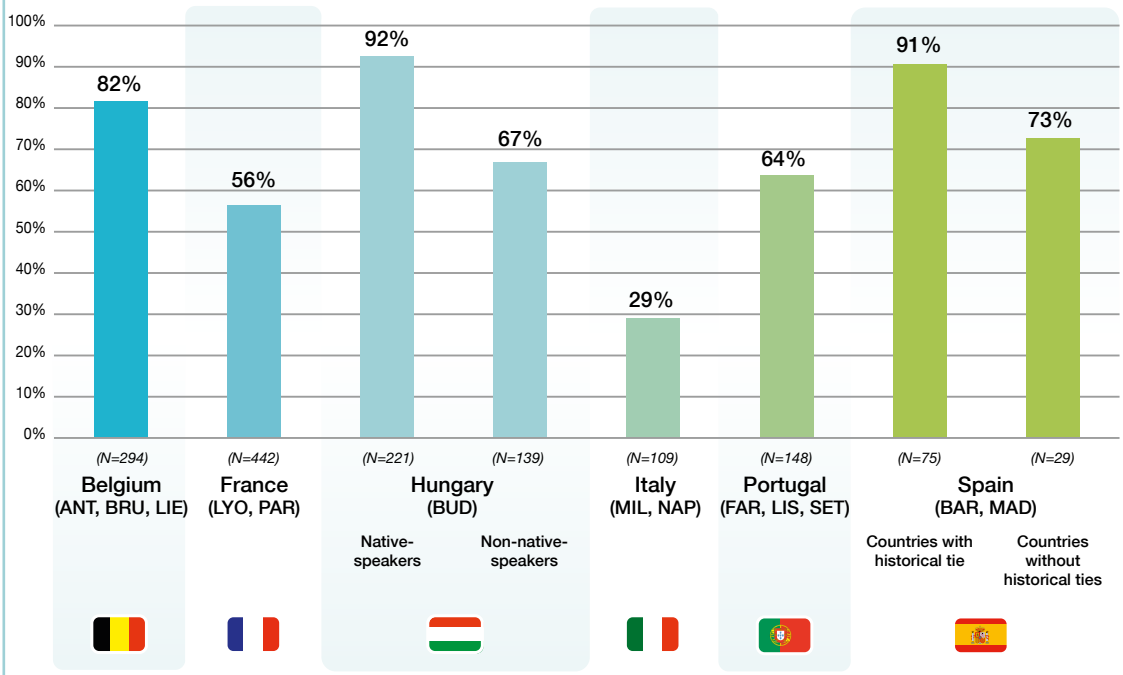


Note: Germany is excluded due to the sampling constraints which led to an underrepresentation of naturalised citizens. The number of "Don't Knows" was high (<29%) in Belgian cities and Budapest, while the number of "Refusals" was around 5% in Milan.

THE WAIT TO NATURALISATION

In several cases, immigrants who are eligible for naturalisation take years to apply. Applicants who meet the residence requirement must not only be interested in applying, but also fulfil all the other legal requirements. Figure 33 shows the average number of years until application by city. The average applicant needed a year or two more than the minimum residence requirement in Budapest (non-native speakers), Belgian, French, Italian, and Spanish cities. In contrast, immigrants in French cities required much more time to apply than the minimum five years for ordinary naturalisation. The facilitated groups in Hungary and Spain, which enjoy very short residence requirements, also took more time to apply. In Portuguese cities, many long-settled residents who would have met the residence requirements only started applying after the 2006 reform.

Figure 34. **After 20+ years in the country, have you become a citizen?**

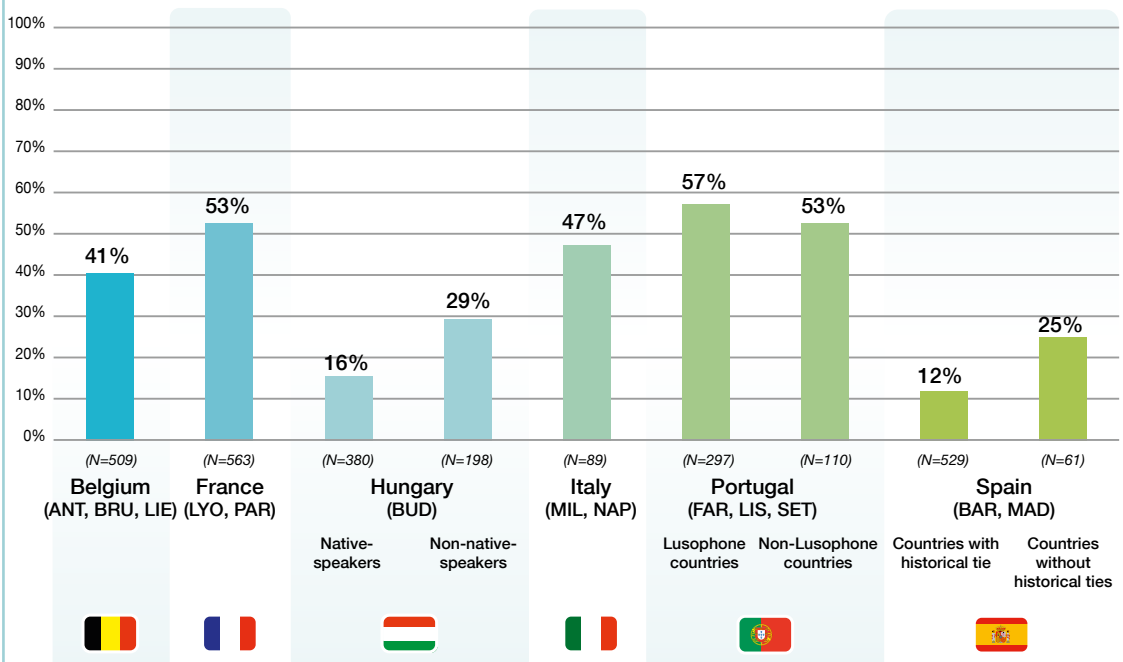


Note: Germany is excluded due to the sampling constraints which led to an underrepresentation of naturalised citizens. Statistical tests show no significant differences between cities within the same country.

The ICS results raise concerns over the full long-term inclusion of foreign residents in several countries. Immigrants who are not citizens of their country of residence or other EU countries are mostly absent from national politics, possibly exposed to the threat of expulsion, and, in several EU countries, excluded from public sector jobs, some professions, and full social rights. Figure 34 shows what percentage of non-EU immigrants with twenty or more years' residence in the country have become citizens. The naturalisation rates are very high in Belgian cities for most long-settled residents and in Budapest and Spanish cities, especially for the two facilitated groups. This rate is 64% in Portuguese cities,[31] 56% in French cities, and 29% in Italian cities. Potential reasons behind these low numbers are provided by non-naturalised long-settled residents in five ICS countries (excluding Portugal and Spain). Around half of long-settled residents do not naturalise because they see no difference with their current status or find the procedure too difficult (20-55%).

31. There is little difference between surveyed immigrants from Lusophone or non-Lusophone countries.

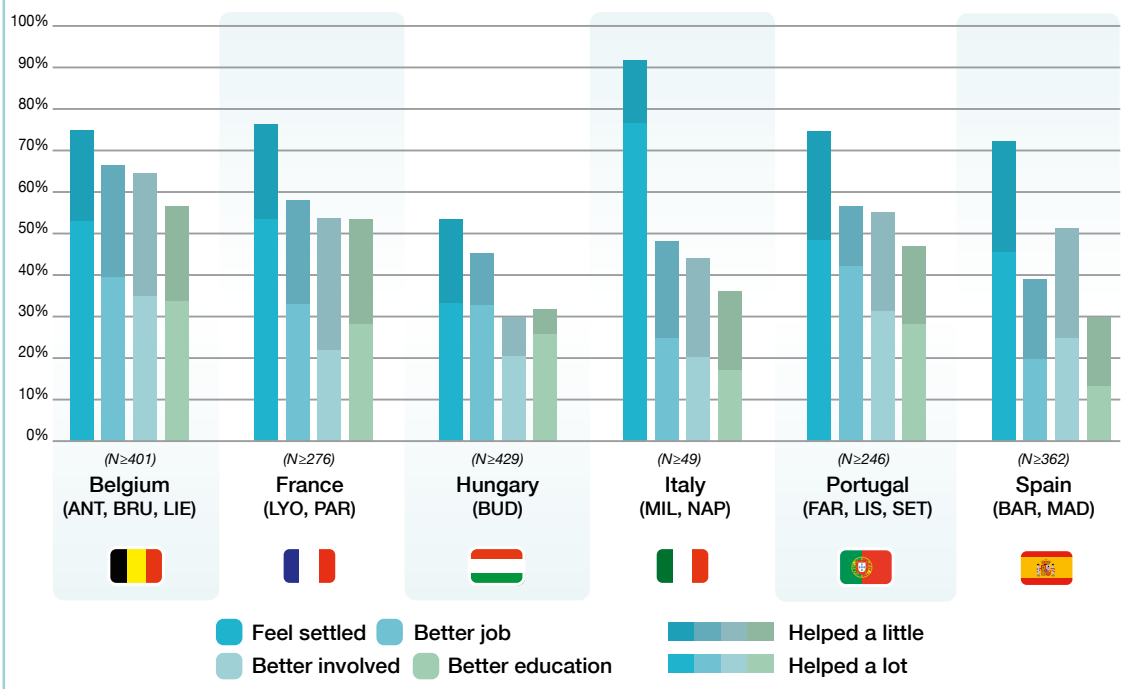
Figure 35. **Did you have problems applying for citizenship?**



Note: Germany is excluded due to the sampling constraints which led to an underrepresentation of naturalised citizens. Statistical tests show slightly fewer problems were reported in Brussels than Antwerp, specifically problems with authorities or requirements (for all differences: p≤0.05). The number of "Don't Knows" was high (<22%) in Belgian cities.

When surveyed immigrants did apply, they reported the most problems with the policy or implementation in cities in France, Portugal, Italy and Belgium, especially Antwerp. Figure 35 shows how many experienced one or problems with the procedure. **The way authorities exercised their powers** posed the greatest problem in cities in Portugal (42%), France, and Italy (30%) and to a lesser extent Belgium (18%). In Portugal, authorities were perceived more favourably by applicants from non-Lusophone countries (30%) than those from Lusophone countries (46%). **Obtaining the required documents** was also raised by around one in four applicants in Portuguese cities and one in five in French, Italian, and Belgian cities. The facilitated groups in Hungary and Spain reported no particular problem. Ordinary applicants in Spanish cities occasionally had to overcome problems with documents or give up their previous citizenship. Non-native speakers in Hungary reported some more problems with the documents, requirements, discretion, and their knowledge of the procedure.

Figure 36. **How has citizenship helped you?**



Note: Germany is excluded due to the sampling constraints which led to an underrepresentation of naturalised citizens. Statistical tests show slightly lower perceived effects of citizenship on jobs and education in Brussels than other Belgian cities and slightly greater perceived effects on feeling settled in Liege than other Belgian cities and getting involved in Madrid than Barcelona (for all differences: p≤0.05). The number of "Don't Knows" was high (<23%) in Belgian cities and Budapest and slightly high (<8%) in French cities and Milan.

PROBLEMS AND SUCCESSES

Once immigrants naturalise, they feel the effects of citizenship in their own lives, their jobs, and often their local communities. Figure 36 shows whether naturalised immigrants feel that citizenship helped them a little or a lot in different areas.[32]

First and foremost, citizenship made immigrants feel more settled, according to majorities in all ICS countries, ranging from 53% in Budapest to 92% in Italian cities. Around half in most countries said that becoming a citizen helped them in some way on the job market. The greatest perceived effects on jobs were in cities in Belgium and France. In Spanish cities, ordinary immigrants were more likely to say that citizenship helped them with their job than immigrants from countries with historical ties to Spain. Around half in Belgian, French, and Portuguese cities also think that they had an easier time getting more education or more involved in their local community.

32. Note that it is not possible to directly compare the questions on the integration effects of citizenship, long-term residence and family reunion because too few of the immigrants surveyed across the countries obtained more than one of them. However long-term residents and citizens both answered to what extent they were satisfied with different areas of their life. Among residents for 15 years or more, immigrants who became citizens report slightly higher levels of satisfaction with their life, especially their job, education, accommodation, and social life, than do immigrants who remained long-term residents. This pattern holds across larger samples in France, Hungary, and Portugal as well as smaller samples in Belgium and Spain.

Conclusion

Conclusion

The added value of the Immigrant Citizens Survey

The King Baudouin Foundation, the Migration Policy Group and their partners set out to test whether integration policies matched the hopes and needs of immigrants across Europe. They also set out to test whether an underused tool—a targeted survey—could capture the personal experiences of people as diverse and hard-to-reach as immigrants from outside the EU. But the survey would need to be sufficiently large and representative to create a platform for immigrants to inform policies and debates at local, national, and European level.

Significant time and resources had to be invested in order to identify, contact, and then ask thousands of people so many questions in similar ways across different cities and countries. The partners were able to identify common questions that they found relevant for policy debates, scientific literature, and consultations with immigrant communities. The process itself led to a transfer of methods across countries and a unique collaboration between scientists, polling institutes, and civil society actors. The final results were comparable between cities and countries and, on several questions, between immigrants and the general public.

The ICS results fill several key data gaps in the integration debate. The employment statistics behind most integration indicators can be better interpreted alongside immigrants' own perceptions of their job situation. Data is available not only on immigrants' political and civic participation, but also their potential interests in participation. The self-reported language abilities and challenges of immigrants help complete the picture of multilingualism in Europe. Immigrants' needs and expectations for their families bring an integration perspective back into public debates that fixate on family reunion as an immigration flow. Immigrants' expectations and experiences of different legal statuses reinforce the emerging evidence on citizenship policies and raises new questions for long-term residence policies. Throughout these areas of integration, policy actors can see beyond some of the rhetoric and get to know immigrants better as people.

Key findings for integration policies

Policy actors can see through immigrants' eyes how integration policies are implemented, used, and affected people's lives. Among the immigrants surveyed in most ICS countries, **legal integration matters for their broader integration in society.** Family reunion is a choice that is relevant for the relatively few first-generation immigrants separated from a partner or children. Most of these separated families have already reunited in most ICS countries, except in new countries of immigration, Portugal and Spain. Long-term residence or citizenship is part of how most immigrants see their settlement and integration in the country. Between 65 and 79% of surveyed immigrants are long-term residents or citizens today in most ICS countries, except Italy and Portugal.

Even though few have applied yet in these two new countries of immigration, most temporary migrants there already know that they want to become long-term residents or citizens. Across countries, the few who do not want long-term residence or citizenship often explain that **either they do not want to settle in the country or do not see the difference with their current status**. Similarly, many immigrants who are still separated from a partner or children do not choose to reunite in the country because they do not plan to settle there or their family does not want to move.

Even so, national policies and procedures discourage others from applying and create problems for applicants. **The national policy and the local implementation also matter**. Immigrants regularly have problems with how authorities use their power in cities in France, Italy, and Portugal, the restrictions on dual nationality in cities in Germany, and the documents required in cities in Germany and Belgium. **Immigrants who became long-term residents or citizens said it made a difference in their lives**. It helped them feel more settled, improve their job prospects, and in some cases get better

educated or involved in the community. Immigrants who reunited their families also felt that reuniting improved their family life, sense of belonging, and occasionally other social integration outcomes.

In comparison, targeted integration policies are just one of many factors in areas of social integration, such as employment, language, and political participation. The problems that immigrants confront and the ways that they participate **depend a lot on their specific national and local context**. How people find jobs, learn language(s), pursue training, or participate politically are influenced by their personal characteristics, the actions of others, structures in society, and general policies. Surveyed immigrants sometimes mentioned personal challenges like language skills, limited time to study, and balancing work and family life. They also criticised several structural problems that hinder the social integration of many groups in society, such as securing a legal or permanent job contract. Changes may be needed, not just to solve these structural problems in society, but also to alter the attitudes and actions of the general public. The ICS results find evidence of well-known problems, such as discrimination on the job market, employers' attitudes to foreign qualifications, and limited interest in greater ethnic diversity in politics.

Integration policymakers should not overstate the influence of their immigration and targeted socio-economic integration policies to determine integration. Local and national integration policies must find their place within the mix. Targeted policies must be linked to general policies in areas like employment, language and education, or anti-discrimination and equality. For instance, the ICS results find **significant potential for investment in broader integration courses, the recognition of foreign qualifications, and political participation policies**.

Use for future analysis: policies, outcomes, and satisfaction

The publically-available ICS results offer unique opportunities to analyse the various personal, societal, and policy factors behind immigrants' experiences of integration. Users can view the main results at www.immigrantsurvey.org. Researchers can dig into the SPSS database. A simple descriptive analysis can break down the results by group (e.g. women), while regression analysis can conclude whether these reported differences are statistically related to specific factors (e.g. gender, age, education, socio-economic status). Comparisons can be made between ICS and policy data like MIPEX. Policy evaluations can evaluate the perceived impact of current policies and some past changes (e.g. nationality reforms in Belgium or Portugal or obligatory integration courses in France, Germany, or the Belgian region of Flanders). Comparisons can also be made between ICS and integration indicators like the Zaragoza indicators. These studies can provide a fuller picture of the objective and subjective experience of the integration process. For example, more immigrants may feel overqualified for their jobs than are classified by Eurostat according to their job and education level.

Further comparisons can be made between integration 'outcomes' and immigrants' life satisfaction. There is more to integration than statistics, which is why ICS took inspiration from measures of well-being like the OECD's new 'Better Your Life' Index. Based on questions from the 2007 European Quality of Life Survey, surveyed immigrants rated on a scale from 0-to-10 how satisfied they felt with their life these days, in terms of their education, job, housing, family life, health, and social life. Comparing the 2007 EQLS data and 2011 ICS data, Figure 37 suggests that **surveyed immigrants today are generally as satisfied with their lives as most people in the country where they live**. On average, they are more positive about their health than the average person in the country. They are generally **less satisfied with their job, education, and housing in cities in Belgium, France, and Germany** than the average person in these countries. In Hungary, Portugal, and Spain, on the other hand, surveyed immigrants are generally more positive about most areas of life than the average person.

Immigrants who use specific policies or procedures may feel more or less satisfied in a related area of their life. For example, the chapter on family reunion observed how people with different family reunion needs and experiences reported different levels of satisfaction with their family life. The same analysis could be made for qualification recognition, language courses, training, citizenship, and so on. It may prove just as valuable to monitor satisfaction alongside indicators on policies and outcomes in

order to better understand and value the choices, problems, and the effects of policies for immigrants.

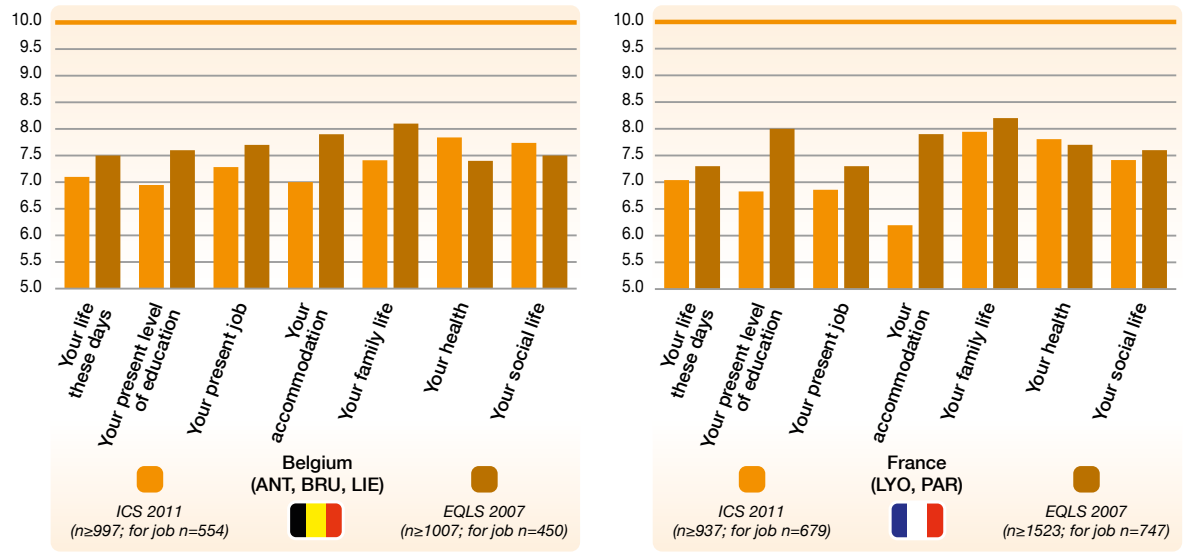
Use for future debates and surveys

Governmental and non-governmental actors should use the *Immigrant Citizens Survey as a database and as an example*. They can discuss the ICS results with migrants and their associations and recommend more informed and effective policies. Policy actors can also better inform the public about integration. The results are a chance to talk more about immigrants as people, who face realities and choices that are not very far from most people's lives.

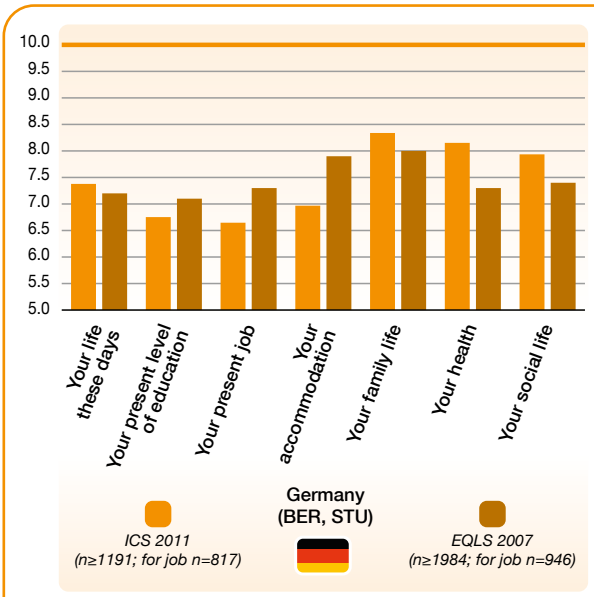
Policy actors who want to develop their own surveys should review a range of options. For any option, policymakers need to improve the availability of and access for researchers to population data disaggregated by country of citizenship and birth. More research and polling institutes also need experience surveying immigrants and a diverse pool of interviewers. In-depth qualitative surveys are best to explore new areas or the links between several areas and factors. General quantitative surveys with large immigrant samples may be the most cost effective option to capture economic, social, or political participation. Immigrants can then be compared to similar groups in the general population and understood in as great a depth. To include immigrants, general surveys will need funding for booster samples, language facilities, and measures to boost the traditionally low response rates among immigrants. In addition, general surveys should better address under-surveyed issues that are relevant for all people in an increasingly diverse Europe, such as languages or access to general services.

Targeted quantitative surveys are most effective to understand specific issues for immigration and integration. Longitudinal surveys (also known as panel surveys) gathered valuable long-term data on the integration process in countries, such as Australia, Canada, Israel, New Zealand, and currently, France. Surveys among all foreign or foreign-born people should focus on policies or problems that nearly all can or will experience (e.g. family life) so that almost all can answer the questions. If necessary, the survey can compare the answers of immigrants and the general public by either using questions from general surveys or surveying an additional 'control group' of non-immigrants. Surveys on a specific policy (e.g. family reunion) should focus on the policy's specific beneficiaries (past, present, or potential). The major challenge will be to identify and contact these specific beneficiaries through available data-sources or services. These specific surveys can take place around a policy change, as part of a prospective or retrospective impact assessment.

Figure 37. **How satisfied are you with your life these days…**
Immigrant Citizens Survey (ICS) 2011 vs. European Quality of Life Survey (EQLS 2007



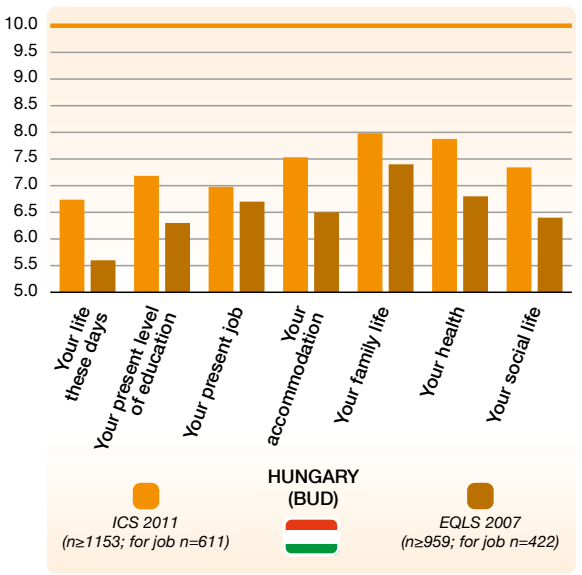
Note: The number of "Don't Knows" was high for jobs in Brussels (6.5%).



Germany (BER, STU)

ICS 2011 (n≥1191; for job n=817)

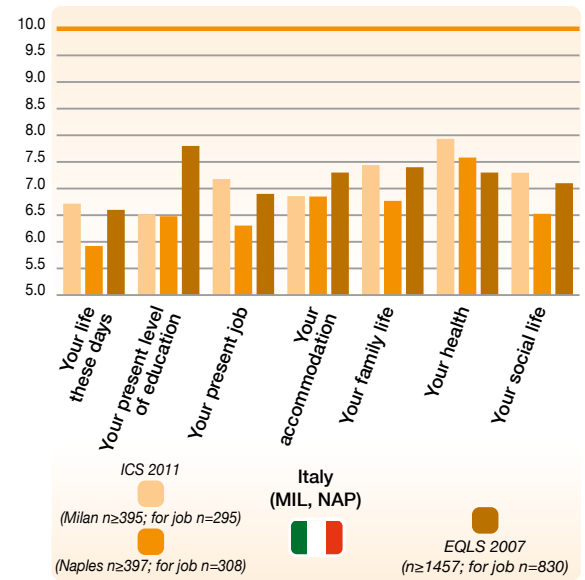
EQLS 2007 (n≥1984; for job n=946)



HUNGARY (BUD)

ICS 2011 (n≥1153; for job n=611)

EQLS 2007 (n≥959; for job n=422)

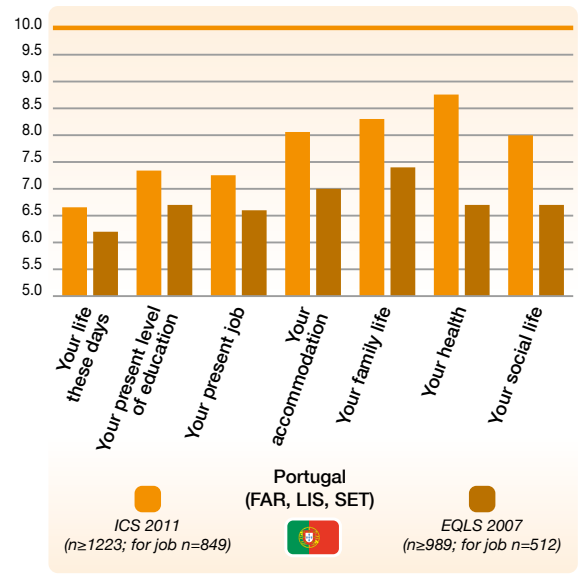


Italy (MIL, NAP)

ICS 2011 (Milan n≥395; for job n=295)

(Naples n≥397; for job n=308)

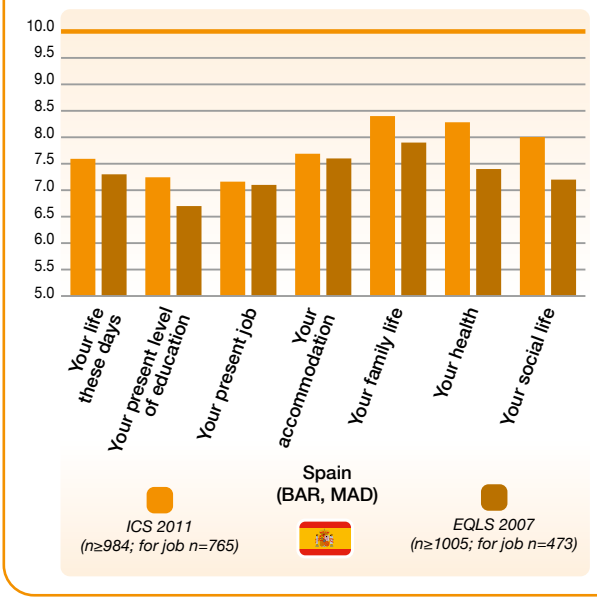
EQLS 2007 (n≥1457; for job n=830)



Portugal (FAR, LIS, SET)

ICS 2011 (n≥1223; for job n=849)

EQLS 2007 (n≥989; for job n=512)



Spain (BAR, MAD)

ICS 2011 (n≥984; for job n=765)

EQLS 2007 (n≥1005; for job n=473)

Notes

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France terre d'asile (Launch Partner)

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Hungary

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Italy

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Spain

University of Leicester (Scientific Partner)
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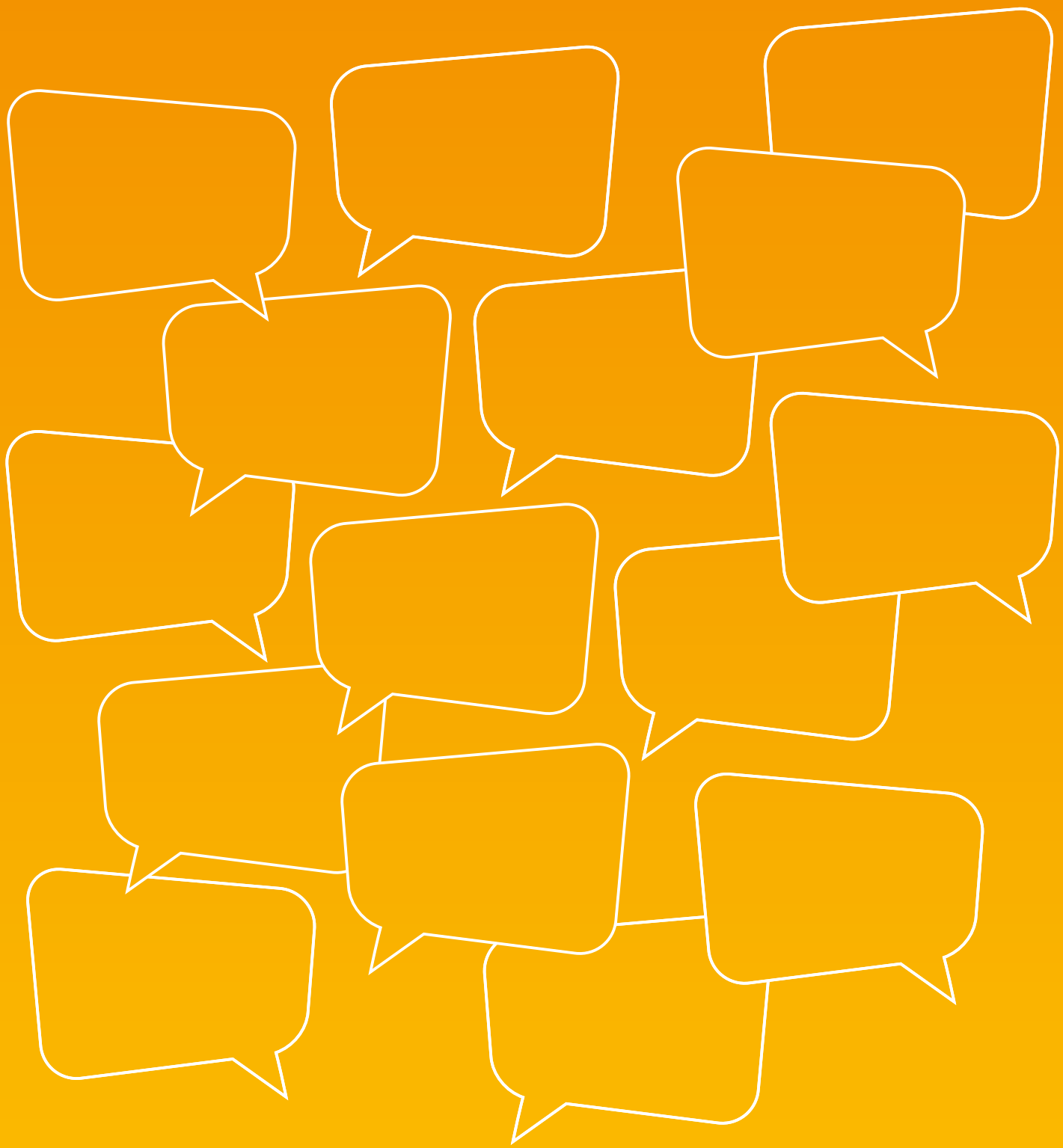
Centre d'estudis internacionals a Barcelona (Launch Partner)



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