

A ROADMAP TO IMPROVE INTEGRATION POLICIES AND
OUTCOMES FOR EGYPTIAN IMMIGRANTS

RESEARCH PAPER 5

Exploring the Global Links between Indicators of Integration Policies and Outcomes

A roadmap to improve integration
policies and outcomes for Egyptian
immigrants

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Executive Summary

METHODOLOGY

This research report reviews the existing integration policies worldwide and their potential impacts on harnessing the potential for all migrants to contribute their skills to the labour market and daily life of their destination country. The key deliverable of this report is the production of an overview of the data linking integration policies to the outcomes and beneficiaries that each policy aims to address.

Given the broad geographical and thematic scope of the links between policies and outcomes, the most appropriate methodology for this report is secondary meta-data collection and analysis of the trends and effectiveness of integration policies. The author had access to the latest labour migration and integration policy indicators for all destination countries covered by comparable indexes. To provide this overview of data linking integration policies to outcomes, the author conducted a full interdisciplinary literature review of all multivariate or multilevel analyses over the past decade that studied these links. These studies mostly measure integration policies by using the Migrant Integration Policy Index (MIPEX), which are the most comprehensive, reliable and widely cited indicators of integration policies. These studies measure outcomes in terms of labour migration and labour market participation, participation in most other areas of life as well as public attitudes. A specific analysis of integration indicators for immigrants from Egypt is not possible, due to the data limitations and sample sizes of the available international datasets. However, the report was able to identify any findings specifically related to outcomes for immigrants from the MENA region or Muslim family backgrounds. In the end, this global literature review identified 128 robust studies that analysed 414 links between a wide variety of integration policies and outcomes. The report is structured in separate sections for each area of policy covered by the comprehensive MIPEX index and by the corresponding studies linking policies and outcomes.

The report's findings on the links between integration policies and outcomes are generally applicable to developed democracies, as international multivariate studies are limited in geographical scope to Europe (mostly Western Europe) and, occasionally, OECD countries. The report's conclusions highlight the main results on the links between integration policies and outcomes. This review gives indications of the potential effectiveness and gaps for integration policies facing Egyptian immigrants around the world. Based on these findings, the report's conclusions propose recommendations for Egyptian policymakers and stakeholders to promote the interests of Egyptian immigrants in their main destination countries.

NATIONAL APPROACHES TO INTEGRATION

Overall, a country's approach to integration policy is strongly related to public and immigrants' attitudes and identities as well as to immigrants' well-being, political participation and several other outcomes. Looking at the major destination countries for Egyptian immigrants, integration policies overall are fully inclusive and developed in only a few countries, such as Australia and Canada. Integration policies overall are only slightly inclusive, with a few areas of weakness, in countries like France, Germany, Italy, the Netherlands and the UK. Policies are restricted and under-developed in countries like Kuwait, Israel, Oman, Saudi Arabia, Turkey and the United Arab Emirates.

LABOUR MARKET PARTICIPATION

Despite the limited and mixed results from the previously mentioned studies, a combination of various targeted policies may improve immigrants' investment in their skills, employment quality and long-term labour market mobility in the destination country. Labour market mobility policies also seem positively related to public perceptions of competition and economic threat.

Among the top destinations for Egyptian immigrants included in MIPEX, labour market mobility policies are the most developed in Austria, Canada, Germany, Italy, the Netherlands and the US. These policies are slightly less strong in Australia, France, Greece and the UK. They were the least developed in Cyprus and Turkey. Labour immigration programmes in the Gulf countries and Southeast Asia place significantly more family restrictions than programmes in Latin America, Europe and North America. Restrictions are greatest for low and medium-skilled 'temporary' worker programmes. MIPEX 2015 observed that labour market mobility policies are usually the best developed area of a country's integration policies. These policies are also one of the few areas of integration policy where international reform trends are consistently strong and positive.

FAMILY REUNIFICATION

Family reunification policies may be important to secure the family life, settlement and well-being of the limited number of Egyptian immigrants who live separated from their spouse, children and other direct dependents. Looking at the major destination countries for Egyptian immigrants, the right to family reunification is relatively secure in countries like Australia, Canada, Italy and the US, more insecure in countries like Austria, Cyprus, France, Turkey and the UK and highly restricted in countries like Kuwait, Israel, Oman, Saudi Arabia and the United Arab Emirates.

MIGRANT EDUCATION

Inclusive education and integration policies can facilitate a stronger sense of belonging and more equitable academic progress for youth of various ethnic backgrounds. Looking at major destination countries for Egyptian immigrants, migrant education policies are well developed in countries like Australia, Canada and the UK, partially developed in countries like France, Germany, Italy and the Netherlands and under-developed in countries like Kuwait and Turkey. Education is identified by MIPEX 2015 as one of the greatest weaknesses in the integration policies of most countries, as education systems are very slow to adapt their policies to the specific needs of immigrant pupils.

MIGRANT HEALTH

Inclusive migrant health and integration policies are fundamental to secure basic health protections and inclusion for immigrants regardless of legal status. Integration policies seem related to various subjective and objective measures of health: self-reported health, the deleterious health effects of discrimination, chronic and longstanding illness including diabetes, elderly migrants' frailty and mortality rates. Among the top destinations for Egyptian immigrants included in MIPEX, migrant health policies are the most developed in Australia, Austria, Italy, the UK and the US. Policies were the least developed in Cyprus, Greece and Turkey. Generally, migrant health policies are most developed in countries with inclusive integration policies overall and least developed in countries with restrictive policies.

PERMANENT RESIDENCE

Permanent residence policies may influence immigrants' settlement and mobility decisions as well as their security of residence and employment. Looking at the major destination countries for Egyptian immigrants, permanent residence rights are relatively secure in countries like Canada, Germany and Italy. These policies are more insecure in countries like Australia, France, the UK and the US. They are highly insecure in countries like Cyprus, Turkey, Israel and Kuwait. Looking to indexes with a broader geographic scope, labour immigration programmes in the Gulf countries and Southeast Asia place significantly more restrictions on the long-term rights of migrant workers than programmes in Latin America, Europe and North America. The greatest restrictions emerge in terms of residence rights (access to permanent residence or citizenship) and in terms of social rights, especially unemployment benefits, retirement benefits and access to public education. These restrictions are greatest for low and medium-skilled 'temporary' worker programmes.

POLITICAL PARTICIPATION

Political participation policies seem to have consistently positive effects on the levels of immigrants' participation in the public life of their destination country in terms of voting in elections, other forms of conventional and unconventional participation. Increased participation is associated with a greater sense of political engagement and trust in the destination country. Inclusive policies also help to close the gap between immigrants and non-immigrants in terms of their satisfaction with life and in terms of their demands on politicians in their destination country.

Political participation is a slight area of weakness for integration policy in most countries. Looking at the major destinations for Egyptian immigrants, political participation policies are most inclusive in Australia, Germany and Nordic countries. These policies are more limited in Canada, France, Italy, the Netherlands, Oman, the United Arab Emirates and the UK. They are highly restricted in Greece, Israel, Kuwait, Saudi Arabia and Turkey. Political rights generally do not vary between immigration categories or skill-levels. These policies in this area are very slow to change over time.

NATURALISATION

Naturalisation policies emerge as one of the strongest determining factors behind naturalisation rates for first generation immigrants. The policies with the greatest effects on naturalisation seem to be the dual nationality policies of the origin and destination country, birthright citizenship for the second and third generation and the restrictiveness of the legal and procedural requirements. Facilitating naturalisation policies is strongly and positively linked to the development of a common sense of belonging, identity, trust and openness between immigrants and the general public. Naturalisation policies also seem to impact immigrants' 'citizenship premium' in terms of the boost to their employment, language learning and civic participation.

Given the importance of naturalisation policies for citizenship and belonging and their potential for employment and mobility, Egyptian immigrants could benefit from naturalisation reforms in their destination countries. For example, Egyptian immigrants still face restrictions to dual nationality in a few major destination countries (e.g. Kuwait, UAE, Germany, Austria and Netherlands). For most Egyptian immigrants, the greatest obstacle to naturalisation is the very long residence duration requirement in the largest destination countries for Egyptian immigrants: UAE (30 years), Bahrain (25), Qatar (25), Kuwait (20), Oman (20) and Lebanon (ordinary naturalisation restricted).

ANTI-DISCRIMINATION

Anti-discrimination policies can have a long-term impact on changing public attitudes, awareness, trust and reporting on discrimination. In countries with stronger policies, people are more likely to be aware of discrimination as a problem and know their rights. Greater knowledge of rights is associated over time with higher reporting of witnessing discrimination and lower levels of identification as discriminated minority groups. The potential reason for this change in reporting and identification over time could be immigrants' growing levels of trust under these supportive conditions. Stronger policies appear associated with greater levels of immigrant trust in the police and legal system and a more shared sense of social trust and satisfaction with democracy.

Introduction

Egyptian immigrants are working around the world in the Middle East and North Africa (MENA) region, Europe and the traditional English-speaking destination countries. The UN's 2019 estimations suggest that most are concentrated in MENA countries like Kuwait, Saudi Arabia and the United Arab Emirates. Sizeable communities exist across the MENA region and in Australia, Austria, Canada, France, Germany, Greece, Italy, the Netherlands, the United Kingdom and the United States. While their specific profile and needs differ country-by-country, the most common experience of Egyptian immigrants are as migrant workers in younger working-age cohorts. They need to secure stable employment at the appropriate salary and qualification level. For this, they may need to invest in their professional and language skills and qualifications. They need full healthcare coverage and protection from discrimination. Over time, they will need to secure their family life and their future plans. They will want to participate fully in life, both in their destination country and back in Egypt. In all these ways, Egyptians abroad differ little from other immigrants, who have a wide diversity of reasons for migration and experiences of discrimination and integration.

Responding to immigrants and society's needs is the main aim of integration policies. The official government definitions of integration in most destination countries are related to the idea of a 'two-way' process of mutual accommodation by all immigrants and non-immigrants. Integration policies mainly regulate this process in two ways. Firstly, government policies regulate the extent to which immigrants and non-immigrants are granted equal rights and responsibilities. Secondly, government policies regulate the extent to which targeted policies and services invest in securing equal opportunities and outcomes for immigrants, as a disadvantaged or discriminated group. These definitions also present integration as a multi-dimensional policy and process involving most areas of public life: employment, education, health, family life, political participation, immigration and residence policies, and so on. Non-discrimination is usually presented as the main way for non-immigrants to contribute to this 'two-way' process. While the integration process is also seen as 'local' and local authorities are accorded a specific role, most policies in these areas of life are either regulated or strongly influenced by national policies and the central government.

This research report reviews the existing integration policies worldwide and their potential impacts on harnessing the potential for all migrants to contribute their skills to the labour market and daily life of their destination country. The key deliverable of this report is the production of an overview of the data linking integration policies to the outcomes and beneficiaries that each policy aims to address.

Given the broad geographical and thematic scope of the links between policies and outcomes, the most appropriate methodology for this report is secondary meta-data collection and analysis of the trends and effectiveness of integration policies. The author had access to the latest labour migration and integration policy indicators for all destination countries covered by comparable indexes. To provide this overview of data linking integration policies to outcomes, the author conducted a full interdisciplinary literature review of all multivariate or multilevel analyses over the past decade that studied these links. These studies mostly measure integration policies by using the Migrant Integration Policy Index (MIPEX), which are the most comprehensive, reliable and widely cited indicators of integration policies. This review therefore focused on MIPEX studies for the sake of comparability. These studies measure outcomes in terms of labour migration and labour market participation, participation in most other areas of life as well as public attitudes. A specific analysis of integration indicators for immigrants from Egypt is not possible, due to the data limitations and sample sizes of the available international datasets. However, the report was able to identify any findings specifically related to outcomes for immigrants from the MENA region or Muslim family backgrounds. In the end, this global literature review identified 128 robust studies that analysed 414 links between a wide variety of integration policies and outcomes. The 128 studies are too numerous for this report's list of references, but all can be publicly accessed via Google Scholar by typing in the study's publication year, the author's last name and MIPEX or 'Migrant Integration Policy Index.' The list of references in this report refers to the key international resources and overviews of integration policies that can be used by Egyptian stakeholders to develop country-specific strategies.

The report is structured in separate sections for each area of policy covered by the comprehensive MIPEX index and by the corresponding studies linking policies and outcomes. The report is divided into nine sections: overall integration policies (i.e. a country's general approach to equal rights and opportunities for immigrants), targeted labour market mobility policies, family reunification policies, targeted education policies for migrant children, targeted migrant health policies, political participation policies, permanent residence policies, access to nationality policies and anti-discrimination policies. Each section analyses the main findings, similarities and differences between these studies of integration policies and outcomes. Within each section, the first sub-section examines the links between that specific integration policy (i.e. migrant health policies) and the specific outcomes and beneficiaries that policy aims to address (i.e. migrant health outcomes). This section also considers more general studies linking overall integration policies (i.e. the overall MIPEX score) with outcomes in that specific area (i.e. migrant health outcomes). The second sub-section looks more broadly at the links identified between the specific integration policy (i.e. migrant health policies) and integration outcomes in other areas (employment, education, public opinion, etc.) The multidimensionality of integration can lead policies in one area to affect outcomes in several other areas. The third and final sub-section reviews that the specific integration policies facing

Egyptian immigrants around the world. Using MIPEX and comparable indexes, this section captures the international range of policies, reform trends, standards for best practice and key international resources where available. This third sub-section provides a gap analysis relative to the context for Egyptian immigrants abroad, which Egyptian stakeholders can use as a roadmap to inform their work to advocate for stronger integration policies in the main destination countries.

The report's findings on the links between integration policies and outcomes are generally applicable to developed democracies, as international multivariate studies are limited in geographical scope to Europe (mostly Western Europe) and, occasionally, OECD countries. The report's conclusions highlight the main results on the links between integration policies and outcomes. This review gives indications of the potential effectiveness and gaps for integration policies facing Egyptian immigrants around the world. Based on these findings, the report's conclusions propose recommendations for Egyptian policymakers and stakeholders to promote the interests of Egyptian immigrants in their main destination countries.

1. Trends on integration policies

1.1 LINK BETWEEN OVERALL INTEGRATION POLICIES AND OUTCOMES

A country's overall approach to integration policy is strongly associated with public attitudes towards immigrants, based on 23 MIPEX studies of over 800,000 people across Europe. The relationship is strongest with the level of anti-immigrant attitudes and perceived threats from immigrants. Countries with more inclusive integration policies, as measured by MIPEX, enjoy higher levels of public support for immigrants (Just and Anderson 2014 and Karpiński and Wysieńska-Di Carlo 2018) and for inclusive policies (Brady and Finnigan 2014, Schroyens et al. 2015, Heizmann 2016, Heizmann and Ziller 2020). They also experience lower levels of anti-immigrant attitudes (Hooghe and Vroome 2015, Bello 2016, Visintin et al. 2018, Kim and Byun 2019), anti-Muslim attitudes (Kaya 2015 and Schlueter et al. 2020) and perceptions of immigrant threats (Schlueter et al. 2013 and Callens and Meuleman 2017), particularly in terms of economic threats (Heizmann 2015, Hooghe and Vroome 2015 and Callens and Meuleman 2017). Inclusive integration policies also seem related to higher levels of public social trust (Reeskens 2010 and Zimdars and Tampubolon 2012). Policies and public opinion are likely to continuously influence each other as a virtuous or vicious circle (Callens and Meuleman 2017). As summarised by Callens 2015, the virtuous circle is where inclusive integration policies relate to positive public opinion on immigrants, which in turn can reduce the level of perceived threat and anti-immigrant attitudes. In contrast, the vicious circle is where exclusionary policies reinforce perceptions of threat. One longitudinal study (Schlueter et al. 2013) suggests that policies may have a greater impact on public opinion than vice-versa. Further research is necessary to investigate the dynamics between integration policies and public opinion.

The strong link between integration policies and public attitudes towards immigrants does not mean that these policies reflect all aspects of public opinion. For example, integration policies do not seem to affect the public's perceptions of immigrants as cultural threats (Callens and Meuleman 2017). Studies disagree about whether integration policies are related to the level of voting for far-right or populist parties (for example, Kauff et al. 2013, Werts et al. 2013 and Podobnik et al. 2019). Similarly, integration policies are not necessarily positively related to the public's level of satisfaction or trust with society, democracy, institutions or government (McLaren 2010, Hooghe and Vroome 2015 and Pennings 2017). These levels often differ little between countries with inclusive vs. restrictive integration policies. Public dissatisfaction is usually related to broader

trends of political polarisation in the developed world and many topics remain up for debate in a diverse democracy.

The positive dynamic between integration policies and public opinion directly shapes immigrants' opportunities for integration. 'Contact theory' – the idea that positive attitudes increase contacts and positive experiences for immigrants and the public – appear to play out in practice (Green et al. 2020). Strong integration policies are associated not only with more positive attitudes towards immigrants, but also with more frequent and more positive everyday contacts between immigrants and the public. Integration policies provide greater opportunities for interaction to develop skills and networks as well as a more positive narrative for immigrants and the public to develop a common sense of belonging. As a result, the positive impacts of inclusive integration policies can be measured in terms of both 'subjective' and 'objective' outcomes for immigrants and the public.

In terms of 'subjective' outcomes, a more common sense of belonging and identity emerges in countries with overall inclusive integration policies. Supportive policies and attitudes seem to bring together the identities of immigrants and non-immigrants. Under inclusive policies, immigrants and non-immigrants generally tend to develop more common and more inclusive ideas about national identity (Jugert et al. 2018, Visintin et al. 2018 and Igarashi 2019) and patriotism (Ariely 2018). More broadly, comparative studies from Europe find that a supportive context is a major factor that helps to close gaps in life satisfaction for long-settled immigrants from non-European and developing countries (Hadjar and Backes 2013, Hendriks and Bartram 2016, Kogan et al. 2018, Heizmann and Böhnke 2019). Immigrants' greater sense of well-being under inclusive integration policies also extends to their health outcomes. A country's overall integration policy appear to have major effects on immigrants' health in terms of both 'subjective' and 'objective' health outcomes. Eleven MIPEX studies investigate the links between overall integration policies and migrant health, which are fully reviewed in this related section in this report. Although positive relationships do not emerge with all aspects of identity, trust and well-being, policies emerge as a potentially major factor shaping the overall process of identity formation and trust between immigrants and non-immigrants.

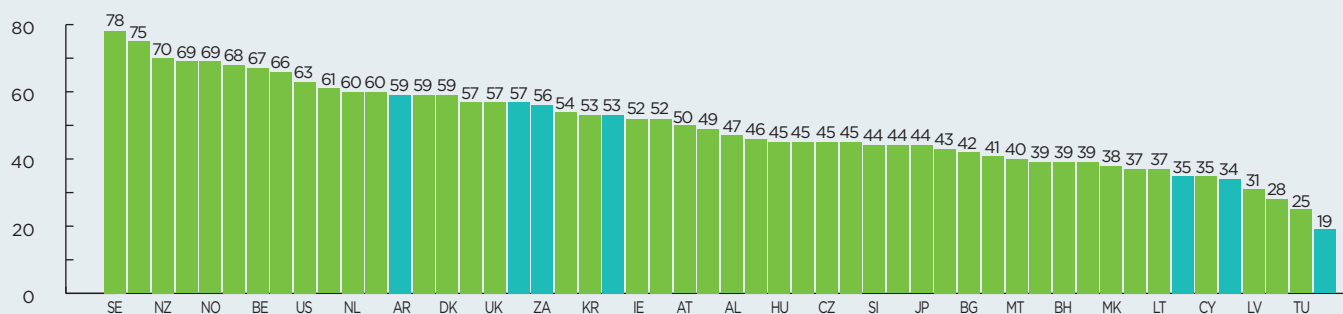
In terms of 'objective' outcomes, a country's overall approach to integration predicts several key steps in the integration process. The effects of these policies are often most obvious for immigrants from non-European countries and discriminated groups, including those from North Africa and Muslim family backgrounds. Granting equal rights and opportunities to immigrants helps to close the gaps in their political participation, interest and trust (Ruedin 2013, Helbling et al. 2015, Welge 2015 and Thorkelson 2016). Results are more mixed and complex for the links with employment and educational outcomes. An earlier review of studies (see MIPEX 2015 and Bilgili et al. 2015) suggested that inclusive policies help immigrants in practice to reunite their families, get basic training, become permanent residents, voters and citizens and use their rights as victims of discrimination. This updated review of MIPEX studies explores all these relationships between overall integration policies and outcomes, with detailed results in each thematic section of this report.

1.2 OVERALL INTEGRATION POLICIES FACING EGYPTIAN IMMIGRANTS AROUND THE WORLD

Summarising these general findings, a country's approach to integration policy is strongly related to public and immigrants' attitudes and identities as well as to immigrants' well-being, political participation and several other outcomes. Comparable data on integration policies are mostly available for developed countries via MIPEX (2015) and ICRI (2008), which are presented in Figure 1. The two indexes slightly differ in their thematic coverage of integration policies. In order to enhance comparability of the two indexes, an adapted score was calculated for each index, based on a simple average restricted to the policies measured by both indexes: family reunification, education, political participation, access to nationality and anti-discrimination policies. These individual integration policies will be compared in each thematic section of this report. These adapted MIPEX and ICRI scores for overall integration policies are presented in Figure 2. This figure also includes a slightly different index (Ruhs 2009), which focuses only on the rights of migrant workers. Looking at the major destination countries for Egyptian immigrants, integration policies overall are fully inclusive and developed in only a few countries, such as Australia and Canada. Integration policies overall are only slightly inclusive, with a few areas of weakness, in countries like France, Germany, Italy, the Netherlands and the UK. Policies are highly restricted and under-developed in countries like Kuwait, Israel, Oman, Saudi Arabia, Turkey and the United Arab Emirates.

According to the latest MIPEX 2015, the international trends are ambivalent towards the granting of equal rights and opportunities to immigrants. On the one hand, immigrants generally face greater obstacles in emerging destination countries with small numbers of immigrants and high levels of anti-immigrant sentiment. On the other hand, immigrants usually benefit from more equal rights and opportunities in wealthier, older and larger countries of immigration, for example in Western Europe and the English-speaking world. Internationally, the greatest areas of strength are that migrant workers, reunited families and permanent residents enjoy basic security, rights and protection from discrimination. In contrast, the greatest obstacles are for foreign citizens to become citizens or politically active and for mainstream services to guarantee equal access and opportunities for immigrants (targeted employment, education and health support). The international trends and situation for Egyptian immigrants are analysed in each of the thematic sections of this report.

Figure 1: *Inclusiveness of overall integration policies in selected destination countries*



Note: Authors own compilation of MIPEX indicators (2015 in green) and ICRI (2008 in blue). Country names coded to ISO 3166-1 alpha-2 code.

Figure 2: Adapted indexes of overall integration policies (adapted MIPEX, ICRI and Ruhs Index)



Note: Authors own compilation and adaptation of MIPEX indicators (2015 in green), ICRI (2008 in blue) and Ruhs (2009 in purple). MIPEX and ICRI scores are adapted simple average of their common policy dimensions: family reunification, education, political participation, access to nationality and anti-discrimination policies. The Ruhs score reflects the original overall index score. Country names coded to ISO 3166-1 alpha-2 code.

2. Labour market mobility policies

2.1 LINK BETWEEN LABOUR MARKET POLICIES AND OUTCOMES

With the limited available evidence, labour market integration seems to be primarily explained by countries' general economic migration policies and context, rather than by their targeted integration policies. Given the importance of labour market integration in governments' integration agendas, it is surprising that these policies and outcomes are investigated in only nine specific MIPEX studies and three more general MIPEX studies over the past decade. Most of these studies do not control for migrants' reason for migration and the economic situation at and since their arrival. Nor do most try to match the different types of targeted policies with their specific beneficiaries and outcomes. More robust impact evaluations have concluded that immigrants benefit significantly from programmes providing early work experience, country-specific vocational training, start-up funds for entrepreneurs and job search (see Butschek and Walter 2014, Bilgili 2015 and Liebig and Huddleston 2015). Therefore, more targeted research is needed before any robust conclusions can be drawn from these studies on the effectiveness of labour market mobility policies. In addition to these 12 studies, several dozen more MIPEX studies have investigated the link between employment outcomes and integration policies other than labour market mobility. Of the 70 links studied, 28 positive links emerge with most integration policies measured by MIPEX, particularly access to nationality and anti-discrimination, which will be presented in later sections.

Looking only at studies comparing labour market policies and outcomes, these policies do not seem particularly relevant for access to employment- i.e. whether immigrants and their descendants are working or looking for a job. These policies, as measured by MIPEX, are not related to their overall participation (Bredtmann and Otten 2015, Kesler 2016 and Cebolla-Boado and Finotelli 2015), unemployment (Bergh 2014, Cebolla-Boado and Finotelli 2015 and Lancee 2016) or employment rates (Bisin et al. 2011 and Kislev 2017). A few studies do observe effects worthy of further investigation. For example, targeted policies have a significant effect on access to work permits (Migali and Natale 2017) and a small effect on the participation rates for non-EU immigrants (Kesler 2017). These policies also seem to boost the employment rates for discriminated groups like non-EU immigrants with strong ethnic identities (Bisin et al. 2011). This study finds that stronger targeted policies decrease the employment penalties that they experience in European labour markets.

More encouraging results emerge about the potential benefits of targeted integration policies for the long-term outcomes of employed immigrants. Low-educated immigrant

workers are more likely to experience in-work poverty, without a sufficient or secure income to meet their needs, while highly-educated immigrant workers are more likely to experience over-qualification and brain waste, working in jobs far below their education level from their origin country (Liebig and Huddleston 2015). Specific policies have small positive effects on their exposure to overqualification (Aleksynska and Tritah 2013 and Prokic-Breuer and McManus 2016), job relocation opportunities (Nowotny 2011 and Guzi et al. 2015) and occupational status (Platt et al. ongoing), although differences sometimes emerge for men and women (Palencia-Esteban 2019). One explanation for these weak and mixed results so far could be that targeted policies may be too new, small-scale, or generic to reach beneficiaries and affect aggregate outcomes at country level (see Bilgili et al. 2015). Another possible interpretation is that these policies aim less at immigrants' immediate labour market participation and more at improving their country-specific skills and qualifications. According to this logic, these policies encourage immigrants to make investments in their long-term skills, even if participation in these programmes temporarily depresses their participation in the labour market. These policies might also be designed to be responsive to the needs of at-risk groups. In that case, policies would be stronger in countries with mostly low-educated non-economic immigrants in need of support and weaker in countries with mostly high-skilled migrant workers. If this logic holds, then studies simply comparing policies to labour market outcomes may lead to misleading results known as 'reverse causality.' In other words, the absence of a systematically positive relationship between policies and outcomes across all countries may not be interpreted as the ineffectiveness of policies, but rather as the responsiveness and uptake of these policies to specific national contexts.

This logic of policy responsiveness bears out in a few specific MIPEx studies where the relationship between policies and employment outcomes were, surprisingly, negative. This means that policies are better developed where immigrants' labour market situation is weaker, while policies are under-developed where immigrants are in a stronger position on the labour market. Aleksynska and Tritah 2013 find that targeted support is negatively linked to immigrants' levels of overqualification, meaning that countries offering significant support tend to have more immigrants working below their qualifications. This finding could indicate that policies are responsive to overqualification and, even, employing overqualification as a short-term strategy by placing immigrants in entry-level jobs combined with on-the-job language and vocational training. Similar negative relationships emerge between policies and immigrants' relative income levels (Kislev 2017), unemployment (Cebolla-Boado and Finotelli 2015) and skill levels (Levels et al. 2017). Kislev 2017 interprets negative relationships like these as a positive indicator of immigrants' participation in targeted policies; immigrants' labour market participation would be delayed while they participate in adult education measures. Indeed, Zwysen and Demireva 2020 find that strong labour market mobility policies are associated with higher levels of participation in language courses and further education for non-EU family migrants, refugees and migrant workers arriving without job offers. This study suggests that stronger policies are associated with higher levels of investment in immigrants' skills and qualifications, with diffuse effects that are hard to capture in standard measures of labour market integration. Further research is required into the role of these policies in responding to labour market needs and supporting this long-term investment for different categories of non-EU immigrants.

2.2 LINK BETWEEN LABOUR MARKET POLICIES AND OTHER INTEGRATION OUTCOMES

Studies are limited and their results are mixed about the links between policies and other integration outcomes. Only 13 MIPEX studies have considered the possible effects of labour market mobility policies on areas outside employment.

Labour market mobility policies seem positively related to public attitudes and to immigrants' attitudes. In terms of public attitudes, two studies (Careja and Andreß 2013 and Callens and Meuleman 2017) conclude that these policies influence to what extent the public sees immigrants as an economic threat or as an opportunity. More inclusive policies do not lead to greater perceptions of competition and economic threat, but rather to lower perceptions of economic threat and greater perceptions of immigrants' positive contributions. Callens and Meuleman 2017 calculate that an increase of 10 points on the MIPEX scale for labour market mobility policies would improve public attitudes about the economic role of immigrants by an average of six percentage points. The links with public opinion require further investigation, as perceptions of economic threat are just one aspect of public opinion. These policies appear unrelated for perceptions of cultural threat (Callens and Meuleman 2017) and negative for overall social trust (Zimdars and Tampubolon 2012).

In terms of immigrants' attitudes, labour market mobility policies may improve immigrants' general perceptions, without noticeable effects on specific integration outcomes, according to the preliminary studies to date. Stronger policies may be associated with greater levels of life satisfaction (de Freitas et al. 2018), greater interest in the country as a destination (Beine et al. 2019) and lower levels of discrimination-related depression (de Freitas et al. 2018). Any direct link between these policies and discrimination levels seems weak (André and Dronkers 2016). Beyond this, no clear links emerge from the few MIPEX studies comparing labour market mobility policies to outcomes on migrant education (Fossati 2010 and 2011 and Schlicht-Schmälzle and Möller 2012) or health (Malmusi et al. 2015, Bakhtiari et al. 2018 and De Freitas et al. 2018). Future studies should match different labour market mobility policies to their specific beneficiaries and to the related long-term integration outcomes that the policy aims to address.

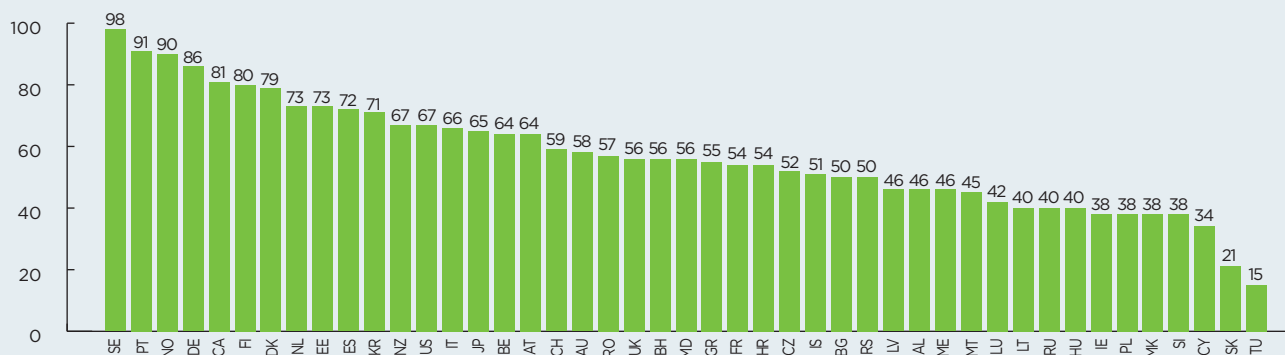
2.3 LABOUR MARKET POLICIES FACING EGYPTIAN IMMIGRANTS AROUND THE WORLD

Despite the limited and mixed results from the previously mentioned studies, a combination of various targeted policies may improve immigrants' investment in their skills, employment quality and long-term labour market mobility in the destination country. MIPEX 2015 is the only international source with comparative indicators on migrant labour market mobility policies (see Figure 3). Further comparative information is available through the IOM (Migration Governance Index), OECD (International Migration Outlooks and targeted publications) and European Commission (European Website on Integration and European Migration Network).

Among the top destinations for Egyptian immigrants included in MIPEX, labour market mobility policies are the most developed in Austria, Canada, Germany, Italy, the Netherlands and the US. These policies are slightly less strong in Australia, France, Greece and the UK. They were the least developed in Cyprus and Turkey. In general, they are strongest in traditional destination countries and Western Europe and weakest in newer destination countries in Central and Southeastern Europe. MIPEX 2015 observed that labour market mobility policies are usually the best developed area of a country’s integration policies. On average across the MIPEX countries, family and long-term residents can immediately access the private labour market, public employment services and training. The main area of weakness is the development of targeted support measures to recognise newcomers’ skills or foreign qualifications and to orient them to appropriate jobs and services. Labour market mobility policies are one of the few areas of integration policy where international reform trends are consistently strong and positive. The majority of MIPEX countries made improvements to these policies between 2010 and 2015. Newer destination countries tend to focus on legislative reforms of work migration channels and rights, while more established destinations go further by piloting and expanding targeted support measures. Summarising policies from different countries, MIPEX 2015 sets the following standard for best practice on labour market mobility:

“A migrant with the right to work and live in the country has the same chances as everyone else in the labour market. From day one in the country, she and her family members can start applying for any job in the private or public sector. She gets her qualifications from abroad recognised. She can then improve her skills through training and study grants. The state encourages her by targeting her specific needs – for example, she can take language courses focused on her profession. Job mentors and trained staff help her assess skills and use public employment services. Once employed, she has the same rights as all workers in the country.”

Figure 3: Inclusiveness of labour market mobility policies in selected destination countries



Note: Authors own compilation of MIPEX indicators (2015 in green).

3. Family reunification policies

3.1 LINK BETWEEN FAMILY REUNIFICATION POLICIES AND OUTCOMES

Family reunification policies and their impacts on integration have been rarely investigated through robust multivariate analysis. Family reunification can be seen as both migration and integration. While these policies provide a migration channel for dependent family members, these policies also function as integration policies as they regulate the right to family life for the sponsor and the socio-economic rights and support for dependent adults and children. Despite the potential importance of family reunification policies for integration, only 20 studies have investigated the link between these policies, as measured by MIPEX, and integration outcomes. Of these 20 studies, only three specifically focus on family reunification policies as a distinct policy area and measure family-specific outcomes and hypotheses. The other 17 studies include family reunification policies as one integration policy among all others, with little-to-no methodological attention to the specific objectives, beneficiaries and outcomes of family reunification (see Bilgili et al. 2015). Given that these studies do not properly match family reunification policies to the specific integration outcomes that they aim to address, the methodological weaknesses of these few studies limit the applicability and significance of many of their findings. Future opportunities for analysis are emerging, as international surveys are increasingly including the variable “reason for migration”, including family reasons. These surveys can then be used for dedicated analysis of the integration process of family migrants in comparison to other categories of migrants with the same individual and origin characteristics.

The three specific studies on family reunification policies (Sumino 2014, Migali and Natale 2017 and Sand and Gruber 2018) suggest that policies may significantly affect immigrants’ right to family life and the well-being of the different members of the family. Given the under-investment in robust research linking family reunification policies and outcomes, the conclusions from these three specific studies are tentative but useful for debate on the role of family reunification policies in the long-term integration process.

Firstly, the main purpose of these policies is to regulate the reunification of sponsors with their family members. Indeed, policies seem to have a significant and positive effect on the number of family reunifications, as Migali and Natale 2017 have shown across Europe based on the number of first permits given for family reasons. Non-EU families are more likely to reunite in countries with inclusive policies, while non-EU family reunifications are rarer in countries with restrictive policies. These findings by Migali and Natale 2017 echo the broader findings by Beverelli 2020 that family reunification policies are one of the few integration policies that may impact on non-EU bilateral migration flows. Interestingly, family reunification policies may not constitute the so-called “pull factor” often assumed in political debates, as Beine et al. 2019 do not find that these policies affect the overall attractiveness of the country to other potential migrants living in their country of origin. Instead, this increase in family mobility may serve as an indicator of family’s aspirations for long-term settlement and local integration. In countries facilitating family reunification, immigrants are less likely to live in segregated neighbourhoods (Ambinakudige and Lichter 2019) and more likely to remain settled in their area rather than move to new regions or countries due to job shortages (Guzi et al. 2015).

A second study on family reunification policies (Sand and Gruber 2018) focuses on reducing the gap in well-being between immigrants and non-immigrants, specifically among the elderly (ages 50-85). The few other MIPEX studies including family reunification suggest these policies do not have widespread effects on all immigrants’ overall levels of life satisfaction (De Freitas et al. 2018) and health (Bakhtiari et al. 2018). Nor would one empirically expect such a population-wide effect, given that the majority of immigrants are young, often single people, who were not family migrants or ever separated from their spouse or children (OECD 2017b). Rather, as immigrants age into more fragile stages of their lives, the long-term benefits of family reunification may become more evident. The well-designed study of ageing by Sand and Gruber 2018 observe that, in countries with restrictive family reunification policies, immigrant elderly experience much lower levels of well-being than non-immigrant elderly. Whereas in countries facilitating family reunification, the immigrant elderly experience levels of well-being that are similar to non-immigrant elderly, even after controlling for the key individual-level factors that normally determine well-being. This level of well-being may be related to the psychological security of family life and long-term settlement, as highlighted above.

3.2 LINK BETWEEN FAMILY REUNIFICATION POLICIES AND OTHER INTEGRATION OUTCOMES

This subjective feeling of well-being may stem from the concrete benefits of family reunification for the socio-economic integration of family members. The OECD has started to investigate the effects of rapid family reunification; a younger age of migration, longer residence duration and wider family and social networks in the country significantly improve immigrants' socio-economic outcomes (OECD 2012, 2017a and 2019). Looking across Europe, Bisin et al. 2011 find that facilitating family reunification is generally associated with positive employment outcomes for most non-EU immigrants, although the effects may be negative for immigrants with strong ethnic identities, which can limit their social networks. Facilitating family reunification may also provide immigrant women with the resources and networks they need to get out of gender segregated occupations into the mainstream labour market (Palencia-Esteban 2019). Direct links between family reunification policies and education outcomes are often hard to identify in individual studies (Fossati 2010, Fossati 2011, Schlicht-Schmälzle and Möller 2012). A wider meta-analysis suggests that countries facilitating family reunification may see overall benefits in terms of not only immigrant children's academic performance, but also their socialisation and behaviour at school (Dimitrova et al. 2016). Turning from children to adults, a new study by Zwysen and Demireva 2020 find slightly negative relationships between family reunification policies and the uptake of further education for all categories of non-EU immigrants. Reviewing this limited literature on family reunification policies and outcomes, further research is needed on the differential socio-economic impacts for male and female sponsors, spouses and children from different migrant groups and reasons for migration.

The third specific study on family reunification questions whether these policies have wider effects on public opinion and immigrants' sense of belonging. Sumino 2014 presents family reunification rights as a form of multiculturalism that diminishes public support for state policies, although his results are statistically weak. Interestingly, the few other scholars investigating the link between family reunion and public opinion have uncovered some initially positive relationships. Zimdars and Tampubolon 2012 observe that family reunification and integration policies are all positively associated with high levels of trust in society. Faoro 2016 finds that inclusive family reunification policies are the most important integration policy for building trust in the country's public institutions, both among immigrants and their second-generation children. The study speculates that inclusive family policies make the second generation feel that their family is treated equally and fairly. Similarly, André and Dronkers 2016 suggest that these policies may also have some limited effect on whether immigrants and their children identify as a discriminated group in society, although a study by De Freitas et al. 2018 does not find an effect. Looking beyond general levels of trust, more focused studies could look at the effects of policies on family migrants in terms of their trust, social identity and political participation.

3.3 FAMILY REUNIFICATION POLICIES FACING EGYPTIAN IMMIGRANTS AROUND THE WORLD

Family reunification policies may be important to secure the family life, settlement and well-being of the limited number of Egyptian immigrants who live separated from their spouse, children and other direct dependents. Comparable data on these policies are mostly available from democracies in the developed world via MIPEX (2015) and ICRI (2008), which are presented in Figure 4. A slightly different index (Ruhs 2009) focused only on the rights of migrant workers. This migrant workers' index (see results in Ruhs 2011) found that labour immigration programmes in the Gulf countries and Southeast Asia place significantly more family restrictions than programmes in Latin America, Europe and North America. Restrictions are greatest for low and medium-skilled 'temporary' worker programmes. Looking at the major destination countries for Egyptian immigrants, the right to family reunification is relatively secure in countries like Australia, Canada, Italy and the US, more insecure in countries like Austria, Cyprus, France, Turkey and the UK and highly restricted in countries like Kuwait, Israel, Oman, Saudi Arabia and the United Arab Emirates.

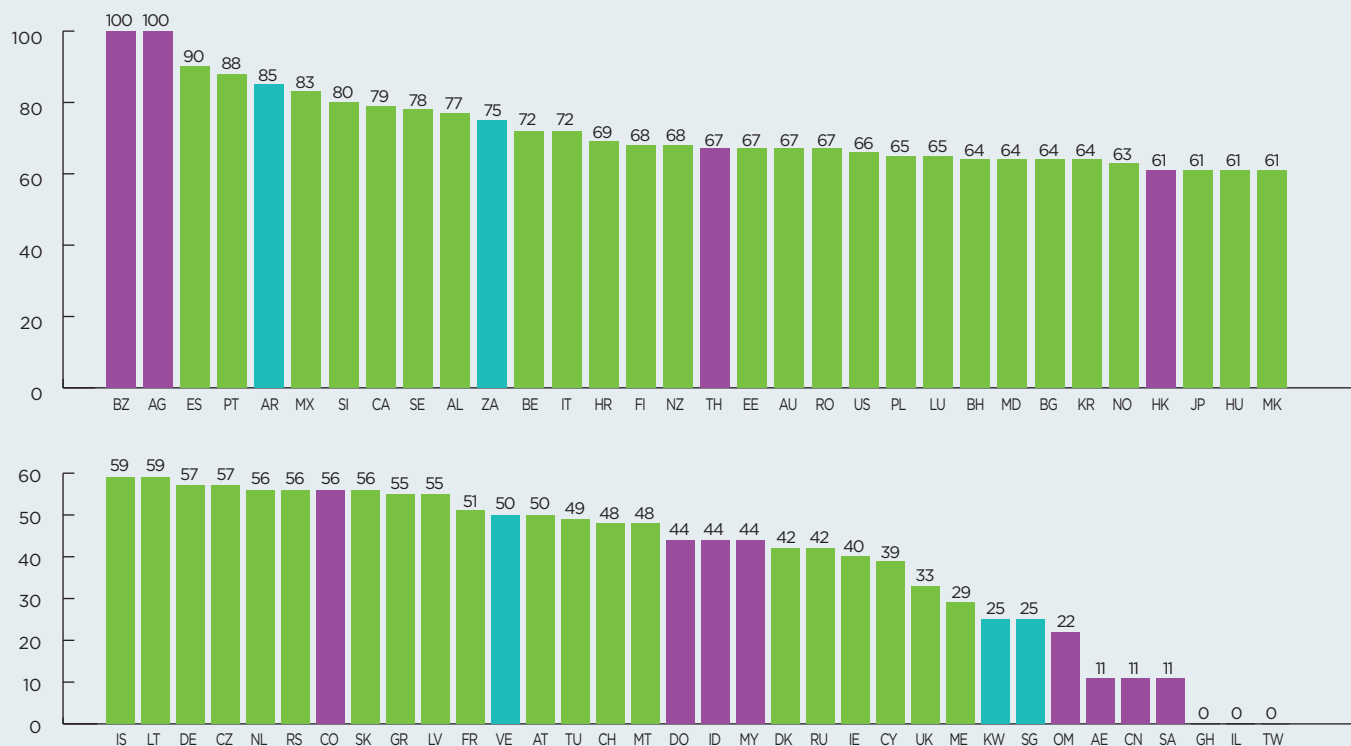
All three of these indexes agree on the common basic elements of a family reunification policy. Legislation may define family reunification as a right or only a discretionary decision by authorities. The eligibility of sponsors is usually defined in terms of the eligible categories of temporary residents and any residence duration requirements. The eligibility of family members can be restricted to only spouses and minor children or enlarged to include all direct dependents including a partner, adult children, dependent parents or grandparents. Reunited family members are generally granted the same type of residence permit as their sponsor, with the same residence duration, right to work and social benefits. Going further, MIPEX sets the following standard for best practice on family reunification:

"Families who are successfully reunited together have the socio-cultural stability to fully participate in society. In Europe, a non-EU family has the same rights and responsibilities as an EU family moving from one country to another. Upon arrival, any legal resident has the right to live with her spouse/partner, dependent children, and dependent parents and grandparents. They have the right to reunite in the country if they have a basic legal income and meet the legal requirements. Authorities have no reason to reject her application if it's not fraudulent and poses no security threat. The procedure is free and short. The state promotes the family's integration by facilitating autonomous residence and guaranteeing equal access as their sponsor to schools, jobs and social programmes."

In practice, these policies differ widely across the developed world. MIPEX 2015 and OECD 2017b provide comparative overviews of these policies. Both studies note that policies are most inclusive for spouses and minor children of citizens, long-term residents and highly skilled migrants, but highly restricted for temporary and low-skilled migrants.

According to the OECD 2019, the requirements for family reunification are becoming more restrictive across the developed world, although little evidence exists of a positive effect of these restrictions on integration outcomes such as employment. Almost all OECD countries impose an income requirement, while requirements are imposed on housing in 25, on residence duration in 14 and on pre-departure language skills in 5.

Figure 4: *Inclusiveness of family reunification policies in selected destination countries*



Note: Author's own compilation of MIPEX indicators (2015 in green), ICRI (2008 in blue including IL and GH) and Ruhs (2009 in purple including TW). Country names coded to ISO 3166-1 alpha-2 code.

4. Migrant education policies

4.1 LINK BETWEEN MIGRANT EDUCATION POLICIES AND OUTCOMES

Migrant education policies may not impact the educational outcomes of all children. Over the past decade, 12 MIPeX studies have been published on the links between educational outcomes and education or integration policies. Overall, migrant education and integration policies do not seem to have systematic effects on the academic outcomes of all first and second generation pupils (Fossati 2010 and 2011, Dronkers and de Heus 2012, Cebolla-Boado and Finotelli 2015, Dimitrova et al. 2016, van de Werfhorst and Heath 2019, Arikan et al. 2020, Gonneke et al. 2020). However, five specific MIPeX studies have investigated further by matching migrant education policies to the beneficiaries and outcomes targeted by these policies. These results on migrant education policies have been replicated in a few broader MIPeX studies of the links between education outcomes and integration policies overall.

Inclusive education and integration policies can facilitate a stronger sense of belonging and more equitable academic progress for youth of various ethnic backgrounds. Ham et al. 2017 finds that several migrant education policies seem to improve migrant pupils' psychological sense of belonging at school. The importance of policy for pupils' sense of belonging is supported by Veerman 2015's finding that more diverse schools are not more likely to experience higher classroom disruptions under conditions of inclusive integration policies. Turning to attainment, Ham et al. 2020 finds that guaranteeing equal rights can have broad impacts on educational attainment. Van de Werfhorst and Heath 2019 use the best available national surveys to identify positive effects of inclusive integration policies on the academic attainment of second generation youth of various backgrounds.¹ Arikan et al. 2020 focuses on the same migrant group – Turkish youth – across Europe and finds that comparing migrant education policies help to explain the amount of progress in math achievement from the first to the second generation. Van de Werfhorst and Heath 2019 also find that inclusive integration policies offer more equitable chances for youth of various ethnic backgrounds to access academic over vocational forms of upper secondary education. Kislev 2016 observes

1. Van de Werfhorst and Heath 2019 suggest that the education situation of first-generation youth may be strongly influenced by the restrictiveness of migration channels. For example, Schlicht-Schmälzle and Möller 2012 find a negative relationship between family reunification policies and math academic achievement among immigrant youth due to selection effects.

similar positive relationships between various policies and immigrants' chances to attain tertiary education, although results vary for different migrant groups. These positive relationships suggest that targeted policies can have various positive effects on specific children in need who are eligible to benefit.

4.2 LINK BETWEEN MIGRANT EDUCATION POLICIES AND OTHER INTEGRATION OUTCOMES

Ten additional studies have identified significant relationships between education policies and other integration outcomes. Echoing Ham et al. 2017's findings on immigrant youth's sense of belonging at school, Choi and Cha 2019 conclude that inclusive education policies contribute to a more common sense of patriotic pride among all youth – first generation, second generation and non-immigrants. To a lesser extent, inclusive education policies may partly contribute to a common sense of trust in institutions by both the first and second generation (Faoro 2016). Moving from more 'subjective' to 'objective' integration outcomes, Kislev 2017 suggests that positive relationships exist between inclusive education policies and the labour market integration of the first generation. Similarly, education policies may, to some extent, contribute to the settlement of immigrant communities; Bilateral migration aspirations (Beine et al. 2019) and flows (Beverelli 2020) appear higher for countries with inclusive education policies, while onward migration for job opportunities seem to be lower (Guzi et al. 2015). Interestingly, inclusive education policies do not, at first glance, seem related to the level of neighbourhood segregation of immigrants in the country (Ambinakudige and Lichter 2019).

Future studies could also better match outcomes to the specific beneficiaries of these policies. Most of these 10 studies consider education as one of many integration areas and thus use more 'generic' measurements of the immigrant target group. As such, De Freitas et al. 2018's meta-analysis of the limited existing literature was not able to identify a systematic link between education policies and general levels of discrimination among immigrants. Significant findings do not emerge from the one study comparing education policies and health outcomes (Bakhtiari et al. 2018), while studies of political participation have only looked indirectly at migrant education policies (Faoro 2016 and Schnyder 2019).

4.3 MIGRANT EDUCATION POLICIES FACING EGYPTIAN IMMIGRANTS AROUND THE WORLD

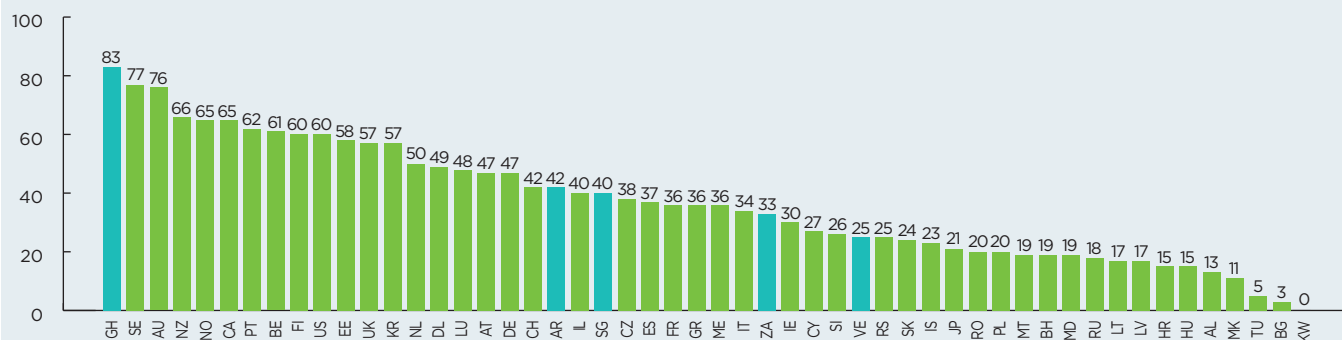
Migrant education policies may be important for the educational pathways and inclusion of first and second generation youth from Egyptian families. Comparable data on these policies are mostly available from democracies in the developed world via MIPEx (2015) and ICRI (2008), which are presented in Figure 5. Looking at major destination countries for Egyptian immigrants, migrant education policies are well developed in countries like Australia, Canada and the UK, partially developed in countries like France, Germany, Italy and the Netherlands and under-developed in countries like Kuwait and Turkey. MIPEx observes that education policies are generally more targeted in countries with large numbers of immigrant pupils. Overall, education is identified by MIPEx 2015 as one of the greatest weaknesses in the integration policies of most countries, as education systems are very slow to adapt their policies to the specific needs of immigrant pupils.

The two indexes (MIPEx and ICRI) identify several elements of migrant education policies. MIPEx breaks these policies down into four dimensions– access, targeting needs, new opportunities and intercultural education – with several indicators measuring each dimension. ‘Access’ examines whether all children, with or without a legal status, are allowed in law and encouraged in policy to access all levels of education. MIPEx 2015 identifies wide variation in access to vocational and higher education for undocumented youth and little targeted support to help all pupils access these levels. ‘Targeting needs’ measures to what extent migrant children, parents, and their teachers are entitled to have their specific needs addressed in school, for example through additional financial, training, language and technical support. MIPEx 2015 finds that schools have wide discretion and few resources to address these specific needs. ‘New opportunities’ considers to what extent school practices incorporate immigrant students, parents, languages and cultures. The ICRI Indicators on education fall under this MIPEx dimension by measuring support for religious minority schools and teachers and minority language and cultural teaching. MIPEx 2015 suggests that issues of immigrant languages and cultures are more often addressed than issues of school segregation or diversity in the teaching profession. Lastly, ‘intercultural education’ includes various policies and measures to help pupils and teachers to appreciate and learn about cultural diversity. In terms of international trends, MIPEx 2015 notes that cultural diversity is often simply a cross-curricular priority, a subject for voluntary

teacher trainings and a government budget line for ad hoc projects. As a summary of all these targeted policies, MIPEX sets the following standard for best practice on migrant education:

“Any child living in the country can go from kindergarten to university and achieve the best she can. She benefits from the same general measures as classmates with the same socio-economic background. If she has different needs because of her or her families’ immigration experience, she benefits from additional support. Her teachers are trained to recognise those needs and set equally high expectations for her. She is entitled to extra courses and teaching to catch up and master their language. Her parents play an active role in her education because the school specifically involves them at every step of the way. She and her parents also bring new opportunities to her school. All students can enrol in classes about her families’ language and culture. Her school uses an intercultural approach in its curriculum, textbooks, schedule and hiring practices. She, along with all students and staff, learn how to live and learn in a diverse society.”

Figure 5: Inclusiveness of migrant education policies in selected destination countries



Note: Authors own compilation of MIPEX indicators (2015 in green) and ICRI (2008 in blue including KW). Country names coded to ISO 3166-1 alpha-2 code.

5. Migrant health policies

5.1 LINK BETWEEN MIGRANT HEALTH POLICIES AND OUTCOMES

Migrant health policies are now emerging as an area of integration research, with potentially positive results between policies and outcomes. Migrant health policies were measured internationally for the first time in 2015. Since then, only three have been published on the potential effects of migrant health policies (Bakhtiari et al. 2018, Walkden et al. 2018 and Sorbye et al. 2019). Bakhtiari et al. 2018 and Walkden et al. 2018 find a strong positive link between migrant health policies, as measured by MIPEX, and two subjective measures of migrant health: self-reported poor mental or physical health (Bakhtiari et al. 2018) and elderly migrants' self-reported frailty (Walkden et al. 2018). These two studies suggest that migrant health policies may be most effective in reducing the social exclusion of particularly vulnerable migrant groups. However, health policies on their own might not be sufficient to guarantee equitable health outcomes and full inclusion (Bakhtiari et al. 2018). For example, Sorbye et al. 2019 observes that migrant health policies do not seem to improve the generally lower birthweight of babies born to migrant mothers. De Freitas et al. 2018's meta-analysis of the limited available literature was not able to identify a systematic link between health policies and immigrants' experiences of discrimination.

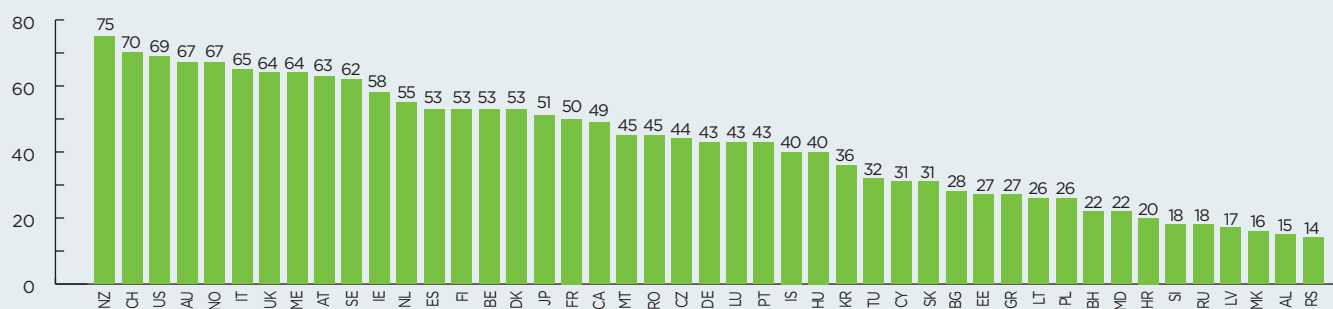
These initial results on migrant health policies are confirmed by 11 general MIPEX studies of the links between integration policies and migrant health. 13 of the 16 links investigated in these studies were significant and positive. Integration policies seem related to various subjective and objective measures of health: poor self-reported health (Malmusi 2015, Reus-Pons et al. 2015, Giannoni et al. 2016 and Juarez et al. 2019), the deleterious health effects of discrimination (Borrell et al. 2015), chronic and longstanding illness (Giannoni et al. 2016) including diabetes (Reus-Pons et al. 2015), elderly migrants' frailty (Walkden et al. 2018) and mortality rates (Juarez et al. 2019). Available studies are more mixed on the link between policies and migrants' depression levels (positive in Ikram 2016 and Malmusi et al. 2017 and Andreatou 2019 but none Levecque and Van Rossem 2015 and Reus-Pons et al. 2015). The conclusions of these studies have been compiled and tested in a meta-analysis (Juarez et al. 2019) in *The Lancet*, one of the world's most prestigious medical journals.

This emerging literature suggests that migrants' health is affected by a country's overall integration policies. These policies determine migrants' access to all the rights, support and opportunities that can benefit their physical and mental well-being. Most of these studies measure integration policies in terms of the differences between full inclusion (i.e. equal rights and targeted support), assimilation (i.e. equal rights without targeted support) and exclusion (i.e. limited rights or support). Generally, health outcomes appear to be most favourable under policies of inclusion and least favourable under exclusion. A country's overall approach seems more determinate than any specific area of integration policy. For example, no specific health link seems to exist with country's education and labour market mobility policies (Malmusi et al. 2015 and Bakhtiari et al. 2018). The latter study identifies a negative relationship between health and family reunification policies, given that dependents, particularly adult children or elderly parents, are often only eligible for reunification based on their poor health. The two studies do find that anti-discrimination policies are one area of integration with consistently positive links to health in terms of poor self-reported health, depression and activity limitations. These findings on anti-discrimination are compelling and worthy of further research, given that these policies aim to guarantee equal access to all services, raise public awareness and provide a sense of security to discriminated groups.

5.2 MIGRANT HEALTH POLICIES FACING EGYPTIAN IMMIGRANTS AROUND THE WORLD

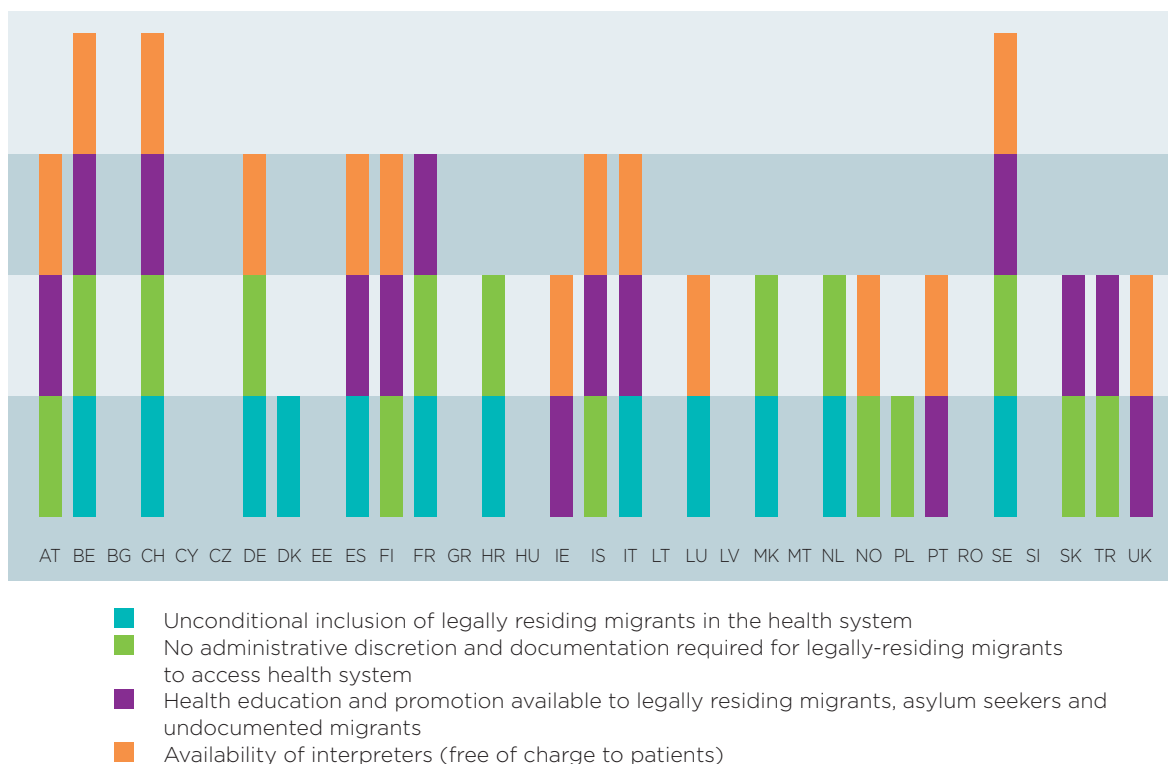
Inclusive migrant health and integration policies are fundamental to secure basic health protections and inclusion for immigrants regardless of legal status. While health has been internationally recognised as a basic human right, access to healthcare is regulated through migrant health policies, usually at the national level. MIPEX 2015 is the only international source with comparative indicators on migrant health policies, covering most of the developed democracies in the OECD (see Figure 6). Among the top destinations for Egyptian immigrants included in MIPEX, migrant health policies are the most developed in Australia, Austria, Italy, the UK and the US. Policies were the least developed in Cyprus, Greece and Turkey. Generally, migrant health policies are most developed in countries with inclusive integration policies overall and least developed in countries with restrictive policies. A core set of MIPEX indicators, including on migrant health policies, was updated in 2019 in 33 countries (see Figure 7). Only 12 countries grant unconditional access to healthcare. In 17 out of the 33 countries, access to healthcare for non-EU immigrants is further undermined by administrative obstacles, such as documentation and discretion. Targeted health promotional measures are also relatively limited for most immigrants. Only 14 out of the 33 countries provided health education materials to all categories of non-EU immigrants. Similarly, free interpreters are only available in 14 out of the 33 countries. Worryingly, these four core building blocks – entitlements, administrative procedures, health education and interpreters – are absent in 11 out of the 33 countries. These migrant health policies are further detailed on the MIPEX website and comparative report (Ingleby et al. 2019).

Figure 6: Inclusiveness of migrant health policies in selected destination countries



Note: Authors own compilation of MIPEX indicators (2015 in green)

Figure 7: Core policies on migrant inclusion in the health system



Source: CrossMigration/Migration Policy Group, 2019

6. Permanent residence policies

6.1 LINK BETWEEN PERMANENT RESIDENCE POLICIES AND OUTCOMES

Similar to family reunification, permanent residence policies remain an unexplored area of integration. Very few studies have seriously examined the potential impact of permanent residence policies on immigrants' security of residence, employment or other integration outcomes. 17 of the 20 recent MIPEX studies of permanent residence policies do not consider permanent residence as a distinct policy area with its own hypotheses or measurements of outcomes. Instead, the 17 studies include permanent residence as only one of many areas that they try to match to integration outcomes. This lack of rigour partly may explain the lack of success at identifying significant links between permanent residence policies and outcomes. These studies find only eight positive relationships between permanent residence policies and integration outcomes, three negative relationships and 15 non-significant relationships. This limited study of permanent residence policies is likely to persist as permanent residents remain hard to identify in survey data.

The three specific MIPEX studies on permanent residence policies (Dewaard 2013, Corrigan 2015 and Heising et al. 2018) point to the potentially significant role of these policies in the integration process. Three of the four links examined emerge as significant. Permanent residence policies may influence immigrants' settlement and mobility decisions as well as their security of residence and employment. Restrictive policies can have a 'selection effect' by pushing immigrants with precarious statuses to pursue return or onward migration strategies. For example, Heising et al. 2018's analysis of immigrants' relative retirement income may indicate that restrictive policies exclude financially insecure immigrant households. Whereas inclusive policies may secure a longer residence duration for a larger share of the immigrant population. Dewaard 2013's EU-wide estimations find a positive link between permanent residence policies and immigrants' expected residence duration in their country of residence. In other words, immigrants tend to stay longer in countries with more inclusive permanent residence policies (48 years on average) than in countries with more restrictive policies (40 years on average). Facilitating permanent residence or naturalisation can also boost immigrants' long-term labour market integration in terms of their occupational mobility from more temporary and precarious to more permanent and secure positions (Corrigan 2015). The fact that positive links emerge for occupational mobility (Corrigan 2015) rather than employment rates (Bisin et al. 2011)

may indicate these policies have more long-term than short-term labour market effects. Notwithstanding these interesting initial results, the small number and sample sizes of these three studies caution against over-interpretation and call for replication through wider research.

6.2 LINK BETWEEN PERMANENT RESIDENCE POLICIES AND OTHER INTEGRATION OUTCOMES

Further positive relationships suggest that permanent residence policies may improve immigrants' aspirations towards long-term settlement. While permanent residence policies do not increase migration flows with the destination country (Beverelli 2020), permanent residence policies, among other policies, may improve the attractiveness of the destination country in immigrants' countries of origin (Beine et al. 2019). Similarly, Guzi et al. 2015 finds that permanent residence policies, among others, may encourage immigrants to settle, rather than move elsewhere for job opportunities.

The remaining evidence is mixed and inconclusive about the links between permanent residence policies and integration outcomes. Fossati 2010 and 2011 finds no potential effects on the education outcomes of immigrant children, while the results are positive for Schlicht-Schmälzle and Möller 2012 and Dimitrova et al. 2016 in terms of math achievement and anti-social behaviour. A positive relationship emerges with levels of social trust (Zimdars and Tampubolon 2012 and Faoro 2016), but not with satisfaction with the quality of life (De Freitas et al. 2018) or of democracy in the country (Faoro 2016). Studies of discrimination and mental health also provide a mixed bag of results: positive (De Freitas et al. 2018), non-significant (André and Dronkers 2016, Bakhtiari et al. 2018 and De Freitas et al. 2018) and even negative (Malmusi et al. 2015). Further research is required to substantiate any of these claims. Future multivariate analysis of permanent residence policies should focus on different immigrant cohorts and these policies' potential long-term progress over time.

6.3 PERMANENT RESIDENCE POLICIES FACING EGYPTIAN IMMIGRANTS AROUND THE WORLD

Permanent residence policies may be important for the long-term security of residence and employment of Egyptian immigrants. Comparable data on these policies are available from democracies in the developed world via MIPEX (2015) and ICRI (2008), which are presented in Figure 8. Looking at the major destination countries for Egyptian immigrants, permanent residence rights are relatively secure in countries like Canada, Germany and Italy. These policies are more insecure in countries like Australia, France, the UK and the US. They are highly insecure in countries like Cyprus, Turkey, Israel and Kuwait. Looking to indexes with a broader geographic scope, a slightly different index (Ruhs 2009) focused only on the rights of migrant workers on employment-based schemes. This migrant workers' index (see results in Ruhs 2011 and Figure 9) found that labour immigration programmes in the Gulf countries and

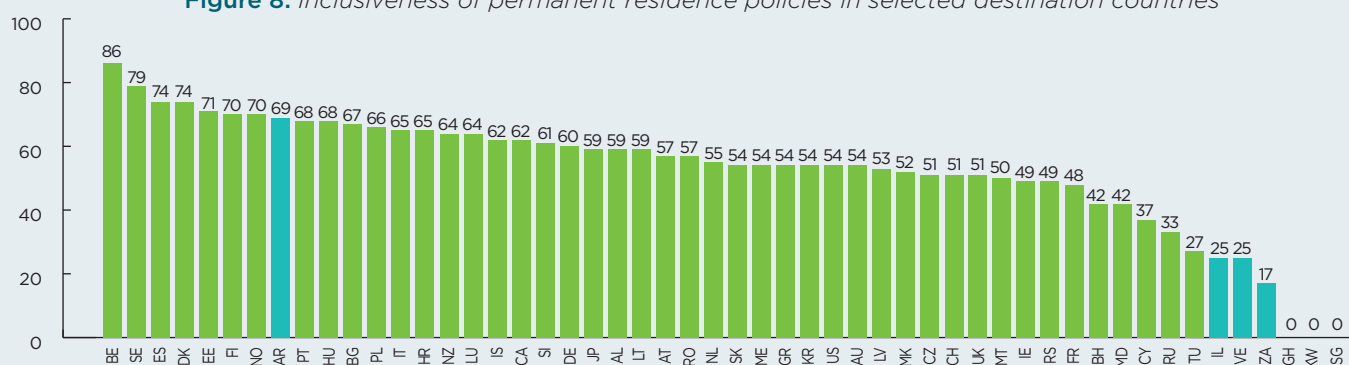
Southeast Asia place significantly more restrictions on the long-term rights of migrant workers than programmes in Latin America, Europe and North America. Ruhs 2011 identified the greatest restrictions in terms of residence rights (access to permanent residence or citizenship) and in terms of social rights, especially unemployment benefits, retirement benefits and access to public education. These restrictions are greatest for low and medium-skilled ‘temporary’ worker programmes.

All three of these indexes agree on the common basic elements of a permanent residence policy. Nearly all categories of temporary residents should have the chance to apply for a permanent or long-term residence permit after approximately five years of residence in the destination country. The duration of this new permit may be permanent (unlimited in time) or long-term (i.e. 5-10 years’ validity and renewable). After acquisition of this permit, permanent or long-term residents usually enjoy greater protections against expulsion and full and equal access to the destination country’s labour market and social rights. MIPEX sets the following standard for best practice on permanent residence policies:

“Soon after arrival, any temporary resident has the right to settle permanently in the country if she secures a basic legal income, obey the law and, if necessary, improved her language skills through free courses and study materials. For an applicant, the procedure is short and nearly free, with full rights to appeal. If accepted, she is secure in her status as a permanent resident and treated equally as nationals, with the same rights and responsibilities in most areas of life.”

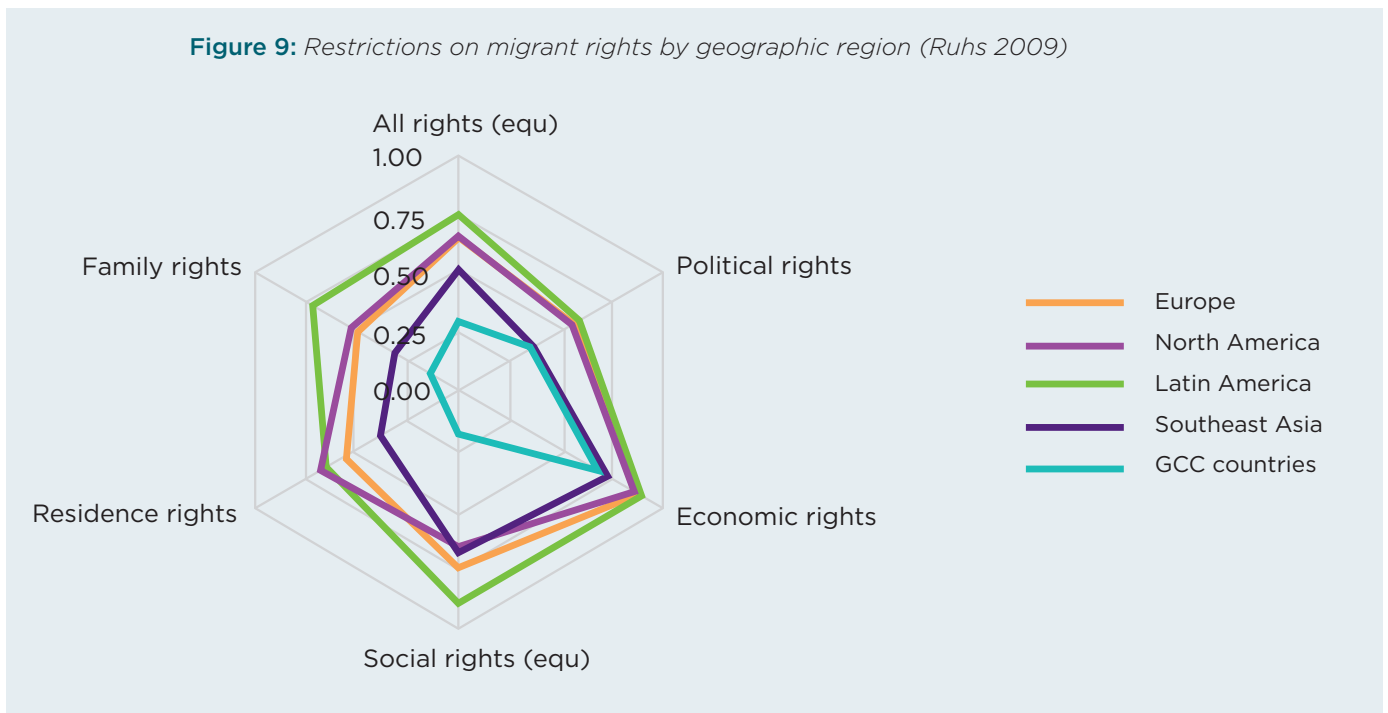
Among national permanent residence systems, MIPEX identified Italy, Portugal and Spain as examples of good practice of new destination countries that facilitate the path for their large number of newcomers. Immigrants in these three countries can secure their situation and will not remain in permanently temporary conditions. Access to permanent residence does not appear to be a particular problem for specific nationality, gender or age groups, since permanent residents generally reflect the country’s overall immigrant population, and the uptake of long-term residence is relatively high (MIPEX 2015).

Figure 8: *Inclusiveness of permanent residence policies in selected destination countries*



Note: Authors own compilation of MIPEX indicators (2015 in green) and ICRI (2008 in blue including GH, KW, SG). Country names coded to ISO 3166-1 alpha-2 code.

Figure 9: Restrictions on migrant rights by geographic region (Ruhs 2009)



Note: All programmes (N=104), 2009. The migrant rights scores range from 0 (most restrictive) to 1 (least restrictive)

7. Political participation policies

7.1 LINK BETWEEN POLITICAL PARTICIPATION POLICIES AND OUTCOMES

Political participation policies seem to have consistently positive effects on the levels of immigrants' participation in the public life of their destination country. The link between integration policies and immigrant political participation has become a major area of study of integration. Five specific MIPEX studies investigated these links among 23,000 immigrants all across Europe. Their findings are largely confirmed by nine additional general MIPEX studies surveying 30,000 mostly in Western Europe. Inclusive integration policies are positively related to the various steps in the process of political participation for immigrants and the second generation. Thorkelson 2016's general study also finds that one point increase on the overall MIPEX scale is associated with a 40% higher odds of voting in destination country elections, a 30% higher odds of other forms of conventional participation and a 60% higher odds of unconventional participation. Aleksynska 2011's specific study of political participation policies finds that these particular policies are related to higher levels of conventional and unconventional political participation among immigrants from developed countries, newcomers (≤ 20 years' residence) and Muslim immigrants.

Increased participation is also associated with a greater sense of political engagement and trust in the destination country. Helbling et al. 2015 finds that inclusive integration policies help to close the gap between immigrants and non-immigrants in terms not only of their electoral and non-electoral participation, but also their levels of political interest, trust and efficacy. Welge 2015 confirms more inclusive political participation policies provide immigrants with a similar sense of political efficacy – i.e. that change is possible and that their voice can be heard. Whether or not these policies have major effects on the demographic and substantive representation of immigrants in politics is unclear; results are sometimes weak or mixed, depending on the country's overall political system (Ruedin 2013, Sanhueza Petrarca 2015, Schnyder 2015 and 2019).

Mixed results have also emerged about the effects on integration policies on political transnationalism, which may raise concerns from an origin country's perspective. The effects of integration policies on immigrants' likelihood to participate in the origin country may be non-existent (Voicu and Comsa 2014 and Ahmadov and Sasse 2016) or even negative (Chaudhary 2018). More research is required to draw any definitive conclusions about the potential effects of destination country policies on origin country political participation.

7.2 LINK BETWEEN POLITICAL PARTICIPATION POLICIES AND OTHER INTEGRATION OUTCOMES

Twenty other MIPEX studies investigate the links between political participation policies and various integration outcomes. Political participation policies are less related to migration issues than to broader issues of integration and democracy. For example, these policies have little-to-no relationship with migration flows or aspirations (Guzi et al. 2015, Ambinakudige and Lichter 2019, Beine et al. 2019 and Beverelli 2020).

Instead, policies promoting immigrant political participation may be part of the functioning of highly developed democracies that aim to secure fairness and trust for all residents. Within the European Union, the development of these policies appears to be particularly important for non-EU citizens as opposed to mobile EU citizens, who enjoy greater rights and resources when moving between EU countries (Welge 2015). Inclusive policies help to close the gap between immigrants and non-immigrants, both in terms of their overall satisfaction with life and in terms of their demands on politicians in their destination country (Welge 2015, Faoro 2016 and Just 2017). While immigrants will continue to experience discrimination, health and other life problems, regardless of the policy in place (see André and Dronkers 2016, Malmusi et al. 2015, Bakhtiari et al. 2018, De Freitas et al. 2018), these policies may help immigrants and their allies to defend their common interests. General MIPEX studies have uncovered strong and positive relationships between political participation policies and certain integration outcomes in education (Fossati 2010, Fossati 2011, Schlicht-Schmälzle and Möller 2012), employment (Bisin et al. 2011) and health (Bakhtiari et al. 2018). On the one hand, granting equal political rights to immigrants helps to reinforce an inclusive political culture, as politicians are forced to be responsive to the needs of all residents – both immigrants and other vulnerable groups in society. For example, Vernby 2013 finds that the expansion of noncitizen voting rights in Sweden helped to explain the expansion of equitable social spending to all disenfranchised local areas, including those with large immigrant populations. Inclusive political participation policies appear to be associated with higher levels of trust in society (Zimdars and Tampubolon 2012, Justwan 2015 and McLaren 2017), lower levels of anti-immigrant prejudice (Callens and Meuleman 2017) and a greater sense of civic rather than ethnic national identity (Sarrasin et al. 2019). On the other hand, granting equal political rights to immigrants may also contribute to the wider polarisation of politics in developed democracies and the mobilisation of far-right parties, leading to greater contestation over national identity (Sarrasin et al. 2019). As a result, immigrants have more opportunities and more allies to defend their common interests in our increasingly divisive democracies.

7.3 POLITICAL PARTICIPATION POLICIES FACING EGYPTIAN IMMIGRANTS AROUND THE WORLD

Political participation policies seem most relevant for the democratic participation of those non-EU immigrants who are long-settled in the world's democracies. The MIPEX 2015 study concludes that political participation is a slight area of weakness for integration policy, as foreign residents in most countries have few opportunities to

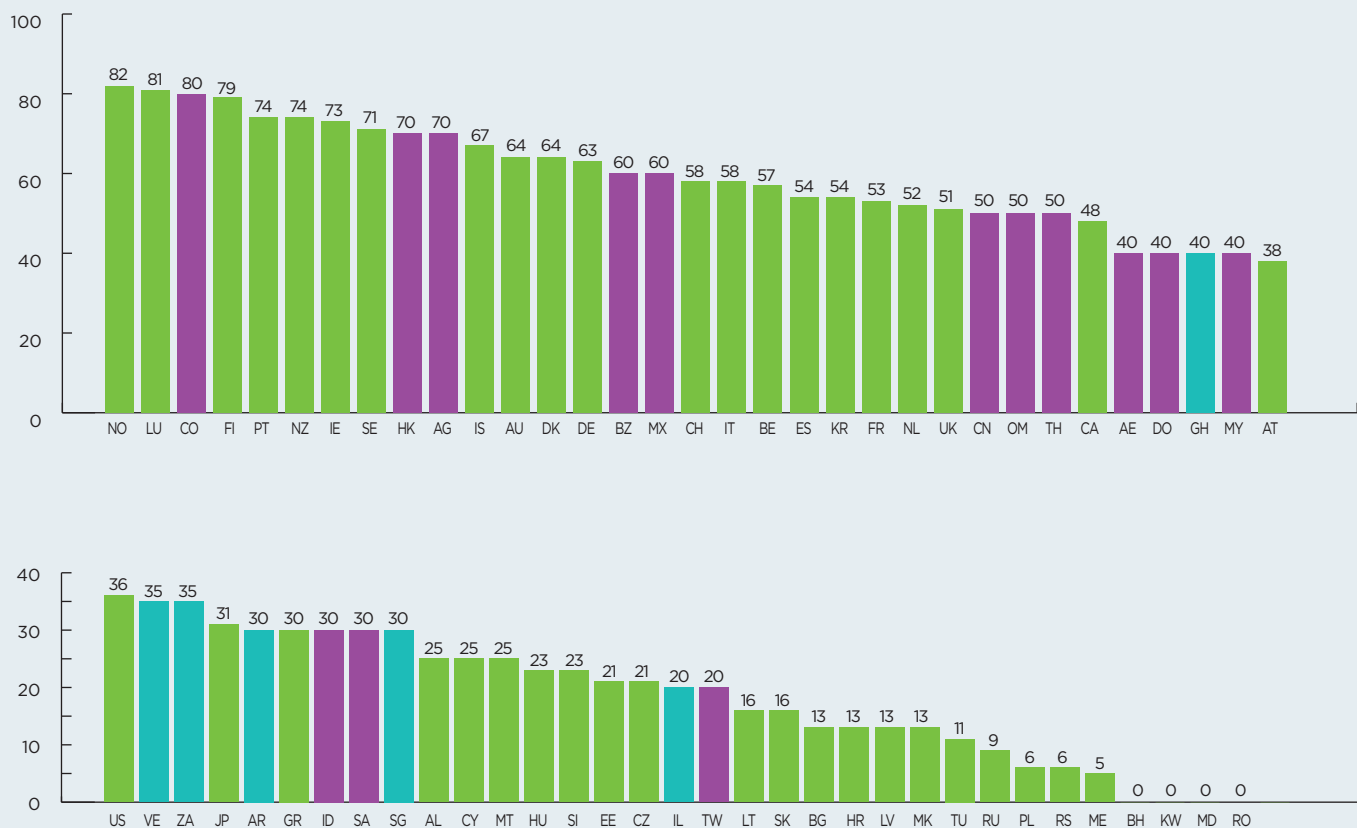
inform and improve the policies that affect them daily. Comparable data on these policies are mostly available for developed countries via MIPEX 2015, ICRI 2008 and Ruhs 2011, which are presented in Figure 10. Looking at the major destination countries for Egyptian immigrants, political participation policies are most inclusive in Australia, Germany and Nordic countries. These policies are more limited in Canada, France, Italy, the Netherlands, Oman, the United Arab Emirates and the UK. They are highly restricted in Greece, Israel, Kuwait, Saudi Arabia and Turkey. Political rights generally do not vary between immigration categories or skill-levels (Ruhs 2011). MIPEX concludes that policies in this area are very slow to change over time.

Political participation policies involve a range of targeted rights, opportunities and support for foreign residents. One of the most reliable indicators of political participation policies is voting rights for foreign residents. The first overview of the global right to vote for immigrants (Pedroza 2019, not accessible by the author) identified 94 countries extending some form of voting rights to immigrants. 55% of these countries have sizeable foreign populations. The most comprehensive overview available to the public covers 53 countries in Europe and the Americas (Arrighi and Bauböck 2017). However, the global list of countries extending voting rights for foreign residents does not include any of the top 20 destination countries for Egyptian immigrants. The one exception is the UK where Egyptian immigrants cannot enjoy the voting rights which are only open to citizens of Commonwealth countries. On average, the voting rights extended to foreign residents are limited to the local right to vote (and not the right to stand as a local candidate). Only four countries worldwide extend the national right to vote to foreign residents: Chile, Malawi, New Zealand and Uruguay. The MIPEX 2015 study observes that voting rights are generally secure but hard to obtain, with ongoing debates for decades (see Figure 11 that highlights ongoing debates in Canada, France, Luxembourg and US).

In addition to voting rights, the three main indexes identify other common basic elements of political participation policies. Voting rights are the least common policy extended to foreign residents compared to other types of policies. The most common policy is the extension of equal civic rights, such as the right to join or form trade unions and associations. The right to join political parties is sometimes restricted in newer countries of destination. Beyond civic and political rights, national and local consultative bodies have been created across a wide range of countries, but usually on an ad hoc basis. The MIPEX 2015 study finds that these bodies tend to be weak, government-led and too poorly funded to engage immigrants. Despite their weaknesses, these existing consultative bodies around the world represent opportunities for organisations of Egyptian immigrants to defend their interests. Reviewing all these policies, MIPEX 2015 sets the following standard for best practice on political participation:

“When states open political opportunities, all residents can participate in democratic life. A newcomer enjoys the same civil liberties as national citizens. After a limited number of years of legal residence, she can stand in local elections and vote in local, regional and even national elections. She can be elected and even lead a strong and independent immigrant consultative body in her community, region, or for the whole country. The state informs her of her political rights and supports the emergence of immigrant civil society.”

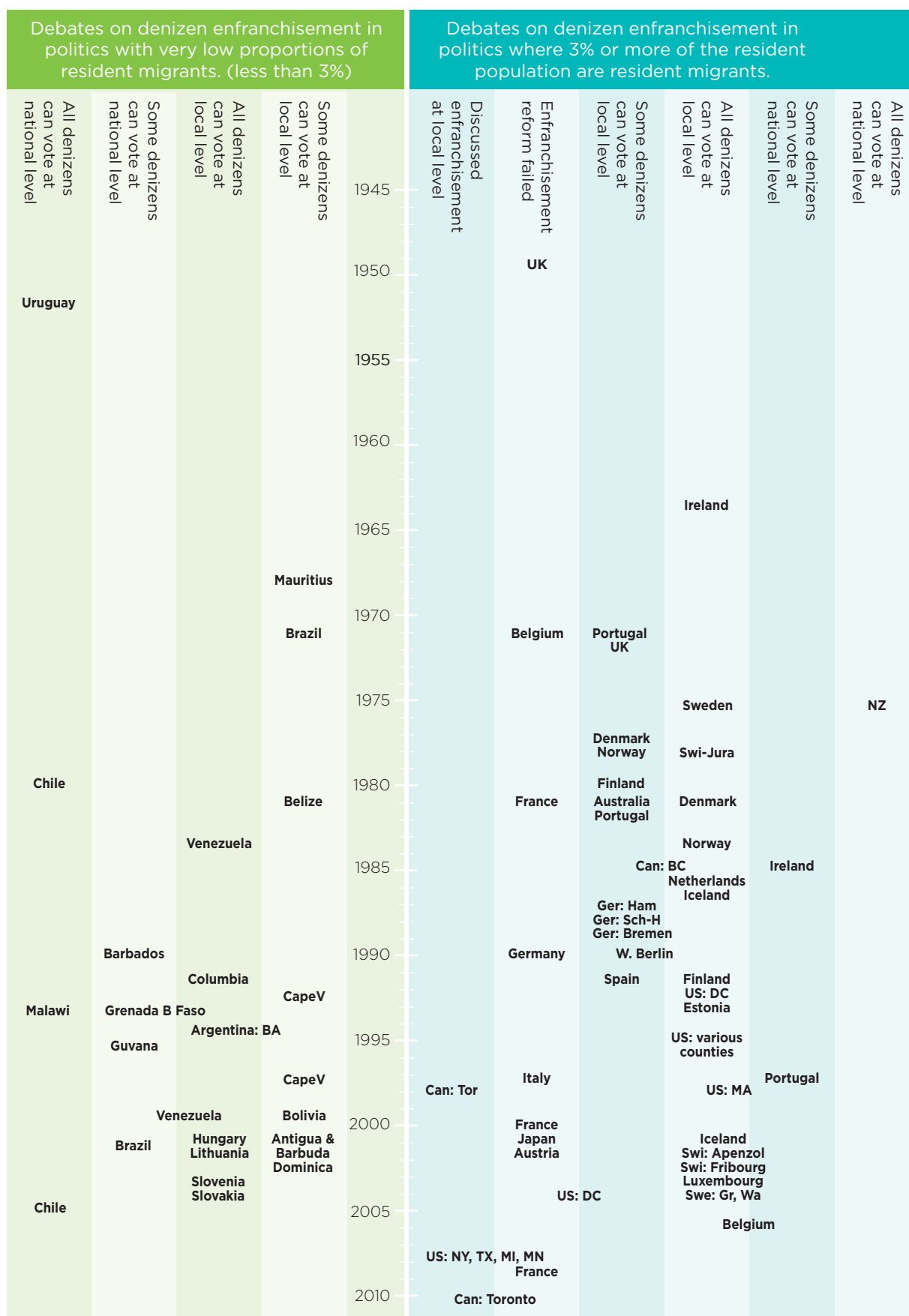
Figure 10: Inclusiveness of political participation policies in selected destination countries



Note: Authors own compilation of MIPEX indicators (2015 in green), ICRI (2008 in blue including KW) and Ruhs (2009 in purple). Country names coded to ISO 3166-1 alpha-2 code.

Figure 11: Global history of political debates over voting rights for immigrants

DEBATES ON DENIZEN ENFRANCHISEMENT OVER TIME



Note: Pedroza 2015

8. Naturalisation policies

8.1 LINK BETWEEN NATURALISATION POLICIES AND OUTCOMES

Naturalisation policies have consistently strong and positive effects on immigrants' chances to acquire the nationality of the destination country, based on six MIPEX studies surveying 30,000 immigrants in Western Europe. Traditionally, citizenship has been one of the best-studied areas of integration policy. From this research, naturalisation policies emerge as one of the strongest determining factors behind naturalisation rates for first generation immigrants, both from developing countries (Dronkers and Vink 2012, Vink et al. 2013, Hoxhaj et al. 2019, Huddleston and Falcke 2020) as well as from other EU countries (Alarian 2017). For immigrants from developing countries, a one-percentage-point increase on the MIPEX 100-point scale for 'Access to Nationality' policies should translate to an increase in naturalisation rates by around 2.3-2.4 percent (Vink et al. 2013 and Huddleston and Falcke 2020) and up to 3.5% for those with 5-20 years of residence (Dronkers and Vink 2012). The policies with the greatest effects on naturalisation seem to be the dual nationality policies of the origin and destination country (Reichel 2011, Vink et al. 2013, Stadlmair 2017, Huddleston and Falcke 2020), birthright citizenship for the second and third generation (Stadlmair 2017) and the restrictiveness of the legal and procedural requirements (Stadlmair 2017, Huddleston 2020).

8.2 LINK BETWEEN NATURALISATION POLICIES AND OTHER INTEGRATION OUTCOMES

Results are mixed from the 30 other MIPEX studies comparing naturalisation policies with other integration outcomes. Naturalisation policies do not seem directly related to immigrants' experiences of discrimination (André and Dronkers 2016 and De Freitas et al. 2018) or health outcomes (Malmusi et al. 2015 and Bakhtiari et al. 2018). Nor do naturalisation policies for first generation adults seem related to the educational outcomes of their children, although one of the four available studies (Fossati 2010) does find a negligible effect.

In terms of subjective integration, facilitating naturalisation policies is strongly and positively linked to the development of a common sense of belonging and trust between immigrants and the general public. 19 relationships between attitudes and naturalisation policies have been investigated in 12 MIPEX studies; 14 of these 17 relationships are positive and 10 were strongly significant. Facilitating naturalisation policies are associated with higher levels of social trust in the country (Zimdars and Tampubolon 2012, Faoro 2016 and McLaren 2017), more inclusive national identities (Ariely 2012 and Sarrasin et al. 2019) and lower levels of anti-immigrant and anti-Muslim sentiments (Ariely 2012, Kaya 2017). Facilitating naturalisation may also have a small effect on boosting immigrants' civic participation (slightly positive in Hunger 2018 but no relationship in Aleksynska 2011).

Naturalisation policies also seem to impact immigrants' 'citizenship premium' in terms of the boost to their integration outcomes post-naturalisation. Employment outcomes have been the main focus of national and international studies of naturalisation, which regularly find that naturalised immigrants benefit from higher employment rates (Liebig and Von Haaren 2011). Researchers investigating the citizenship premium has started to consider whether policies facilitating naturalisation also make it easier for immigrants to find employment. Bisin et al. 2011 found that naturalisation policies had no effect on the size of this citizenship premium, which means that naturalisation boosts employment rates, regardless of the policy in place. Two later studies (Prokic-Breuer et al. 2012 and Hoxhaj et al. 2019) reveal a significant positive relationship between naturalisation policies and employment rates for immigrants from developing countries, especially for women (Hoxhaj et al, 2019). This citizenship premium may extend from levels of employment to levels of language fluency. Language acquisition seems positively related to facilitated naturalisation policies for all immigrant groups, except for refugees, who tend to benefit from policy exemptions due to their specific vulnerabilities (Zwysen and Demireva 2020).

Despite this initial boost, naturalisation policies may not necessarily help employed immigrants to further improve their job quality and economic mobility. The evidence is mixed from the four available studies. Facilitating naturalisation or permanent residence may unlock immigrants' occupational mobility (Corrigan 2015). Naturalisation may also have positive effects to get immigrant women out of gender-segregated occupations (Palencia-Esteban 2019). But for immigrant men, facilitating naturalisation may have no or, even negative, effects on their occupational mobility (Hoxhaj et al. 2019). One potential explanation for this from Guzi et al. 2015 is that facilitating naturalisation encourages immigrants, especially male heads of households, to settle in their chosen destination and thus decreases their geographical mobility and their willingness to move to other regions or countries in pursuit of greater job opportunities.

Similarly, naturalisation policies may facilitate immigrants' mobility in diverse ways. This link between nationality acquisition and mobility is an emerging topic with limited research to date. Ambinakudige and Lichter 2019's findings suggest that facilitating naturalisation may help naturalised immigrants to improve their housing situation and move out of segregated neighbourhoods. Facilitating naturalisation may also facilitate circularity by increasing the aspirations or ability of immigrants and their families to move between their country of residence and origin (Beine et al. 2019 and Beverelli 2020).

8.3 NATURALISATION POLICIES FACING EGYPTIAN IMMIGRANTS AROUND THE WORLD

MIPEX observes that nationality acquisition policies remain a major area of weakness for most destination countries. The highly discretionary and costly path to citizenship often discourages rather than encourages immigrants to apply and succeed as new citizens. A few countries have not caught up with international reform trends on dual nationality and birthright entitlements for children. MIPEX set the following standard for best practice based on existing national policies:

“All settled residents who see their future in the country get full support to become citizens and equally participate in public life. All citizens can be dual nationals. A child born in the country to immigrant parents becomes a citizen at birth (jus soli) like all other children. Someone born abroad has become attached to the country after living there for 5 years. She is entitled to the nationality when she meets the legal conditions, such as having no recent criminal record. The requirement to pass the basic language test and a citizenship course encourages her to succeed through free, flexible and professional courses and tests. As a new citizen, she has the same citizenship protections as her fellow nationals.”

Given the importance of naturalisation policies for citizenship and belonging and their potential for employment and mobility, Egyptian immigrants could benefit from naturalisation reforms in their destination countries, particularly reforms of dual nationality and residence requirements. Indicators of naturalisation policies demonstrate a wide range of policies around the world (see Figure 12).

These indicators of naturalisation policies are aggregations of several key policy elements.

8.3.1 Dual Nationality

Dual nationality seems to function as a precondition in immigrants' decision-making on naturalisation. Whether or not dual nationality is allowed strongly determines immigrants' interest to acquire the nationality of their destination country (see Huddleston and Falcke 2019 and Huddleston 2020). The acceptance of dual nationality is a major policy trend in destination and origin countries, although major variations persist in the diffusion of this norm across world regions (Vink et al. 2019). The availability of dual nationality is monitored by Maastricht University's MACIMIDE Global Expatriate Dual Citizenship dataset (see Figure 13). For example, Egyptian immigrants still face restrictions in a few major destination countries (e.g. Kuwait, UAE, Germany, Austria and the Netherlands).

8.3.2 Residence Requirements

For most Egyptian immigrants, the greatest obstacle to naturalisation is the very long residence duration requirement in the largest destination countries for Egyptian immigrants. In Europe, the European Convention on Nationality (1997) of the Council of Europe has limited the maximum residence duration requirement to 10 years. The majority of destination countries around the world, including Egypt and Saudi Arabia, are in line with this 10-year maximum (see Figure 14). This maximum is exceeded in half of the countries in Africa and Asia, including the major destination countries for Egyptian immigrants (see Figure 15): UAE (30 years), Bahrain (25), Qatar (25), Kuwait (20), Oman (20) and Lebanon (ordinary naturalisation not allowed). The very long residence requirements in these Arabic-speaking countries effectively bar most Egyptian immigrants who reside there and would otherwise be able to meet the language, work and good character requirements.

8.3.3 Birthright Citizenship

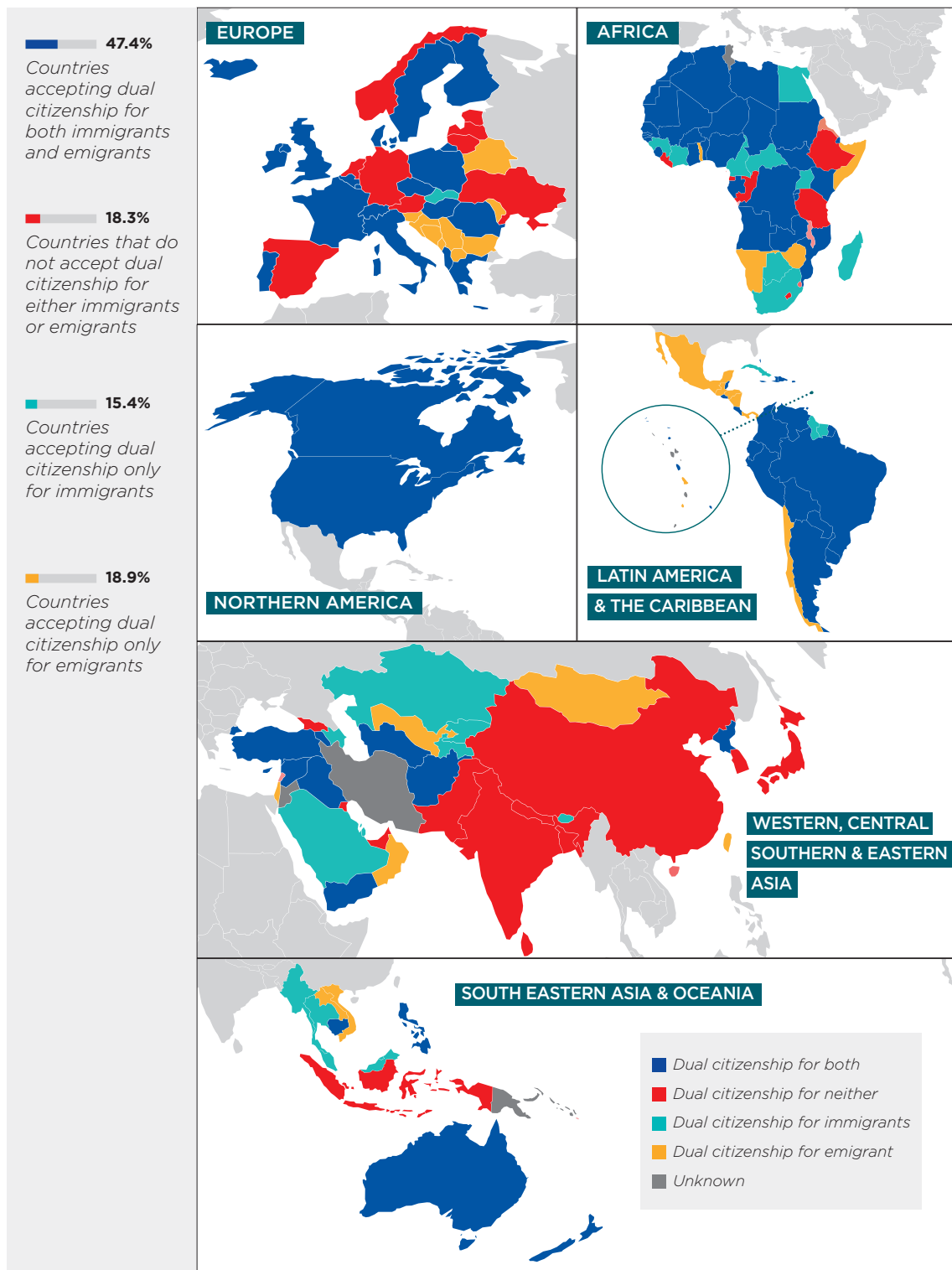
For children born abroad to Egyptian immigrants, birthright citizenship is fully available in the Americas, restricted in Western Europe and unavailable in most other countries around the world. These policies are monitored by the Global Birthright Indicators of the Global Citizenship Observatory (GLOBALCIT) of the European University Institute (see Figure 16).

Figure 12: Inclusiveness of naturalisation policies in selected destination countries



Note: Authors own compilation of MIPEX indicators (2015 in green) and ICRI (2008 in blue including SG, IL and KW). Country names coded to ISO 3166-1 alpha-2 code.

Figure 13: Dual nationality policies (2016)



Source: IOM GMDAC 2019 using GLOBALCIT 2017

Figure 14: Ordinary naturalisation requirements around the world

	World	Africa	Americas	Asia/ Oceania	Europe
RESIDENCE REQUIREMENT					
After 5 or fewer years	48%	36%	66%	51%	45%
After 6 to 9 years	18%	13%	29%	2%	33%
After 10 to 12 years	22%	38%	3%	18%	21%
After 15 years / no or discriminatory provision	12%	13%	3%	29%	0%
Dual citizenship for immigrants	64%	70%	71%	62%	52%
Economic Requirement	53%	43%	37%	67%	64%
SPOUSAL TRANSFER					
Yes	60%	57%	69%	31%	88%
No special provision	13%	0%	17%	27%	12%
Discriminatory provision	27%	43%	14%	42%	0%
Fast track for cultural affinity	23%	13%	14%	18%	48%
Number of countries	175	53	35	45	42

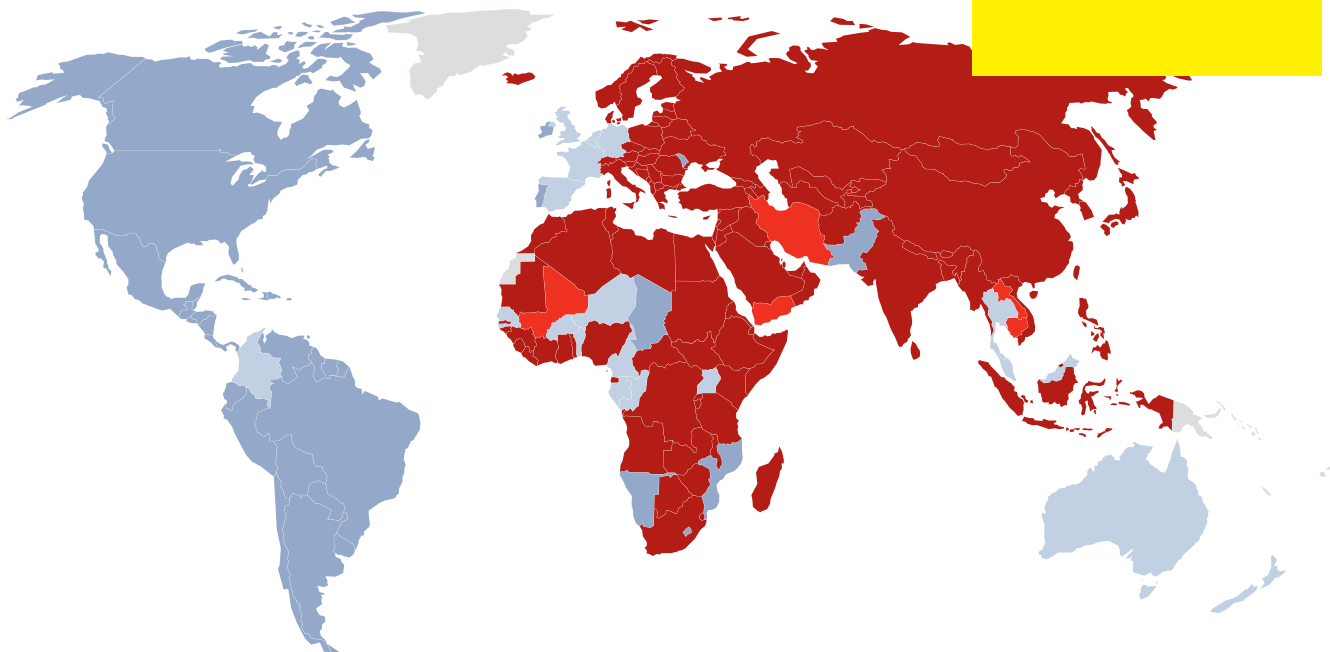
Figure 15: Ordinary naturalisation in selected major Egyptian destination countries

Bahrain	BAH 6(1a)	Naturalisation (discretionary)	Person has been resident in Bahrain for at least 25 years. <i>Other conditions:</i> speak Arabic, have good character, and own real estate.
Kuwait	KUW 4(1)	Naturalisation (discretionary)	Person has lived in Kuwait for a minimum of 20 years. <i>Other conditions:</i> fluent in Arabic, has an income, good character, holds a qualification needed in a country (such as a degree for a profession), and is Muslim.
Lebanon	No provision	Not allowed	Not allowed
Oman	OMA 15	Naturalisation (discretionary)	Person has been resident in Oman for at least 20 years. <i>Other conditions:</i> can read and write Arabic, has an income, good character and of physical health, written consent to renounce citizenship of another country.
Qatar	QAT 2(1)	Naturalisation (discretionary)	Person has been resident in the country for at least 25 years. <i>Other conditions:</i> proficient in Arabic, has an income, good character and has physical health.
Saudi Arabia	SAU 9	Naturalisation (discretionary)	Person has had a permanent resident permit (kiqama) inside the kingdom for 5 years continuously as a minimum. <i>Other conditions:</i> is above legal age, no mental illness, good behaviour, no criminal record of more than 6 months imprisonment, legal income. The decision is made based on an additional list of requirements by a Committee of the Executive Regulation of the Saudi Citizenship System as featured in the citizenship law. Under article 20 of the citizenship law, the residency period will be reset if the applicant after filing his application left the kingdom for more than 12 months using his existing passport, or if before filing his application they left the kingdom for more than 6 months.
United Arab Emirates	UAE 8	Naturalisation (discretionary)	Person has been resident in the UAE for at least 30 years. <i>Other conditions:</i> proficient in Arabic, has an income and good character.

GLOBALCIT (2017). Global Database on Modes of Acquisition of Citizenship, version 1.0. San Domenico di Fiesole: Global Citizenship Observatory / Robert Schuman Centre for Advanced Studies / European University Institute. Available at: <http://globalcit.eu/acquisition-citizenship/>

Figure 16: *Global birthright indicators (2016)*

**PLEASE CLARIFY
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GLOBALCIT (2019). Global Birthright Indicators. San Domenico di Fiesole: European University Institute.

Note: These indicators are part of <http://globalcit.eu>. They measure the inclusiveness of birthright citizenship provisions across 177 countries.

9. Anti-discrimination policies

9.1 LINK BETWEEN ANTI-DISCRIMINATION POLICIES AND OUTCOMES

The relationship between anti-discrimination policies and the process of discrimination is still relatively new and limited to only 11 MIPEX studies. No systematic link emerges between the overall strength of anti-discrimination policies, as measured by MIPEX, and the level of discrimination towards immigrants (Ziller 2014, André and Dronkers 2016, Callens and Meuleman 2017, Kislev 2018, Kislev 2019). Some positive, but limited, effects are observed for specific policies, such as clear definitions in law, enforcement mechanisms and, to some extent, equality policies and bodies (Kislev 2018 and 2019). Kislev finds that these positive benefits are most apparent for long-settled first- and second-generation, especially those from the Middle East and North Africa (MENA).

Anti-discrimination practitioners will not be surprised by the finding that laws and policies may not directly affect the perceived level of discrimination in society. Discrimination is a reality in all societies, regardless of public attitudes and the policies in place. Anti-discrimination policies are not able or intended to eliminate discrimination, despite the sometimes-lofty rhetoric to the contrary. As with other crimes and areas of the law, anti-discrimination policies secure greater public awareness of discrimination and greater access to justice for potential victims.

Rather than a simple straightforward link between policies and discrimination, the work of Conrad Ziller illustrates the long-term process that changing policies can have on changing public attitudes, awareness, trust and reporting on discrimination. People in countries with stronger anti-discrimination policies are more likely to be aware of discrimination as a problem and know their rights (Ziller 2014). In contrast, people in countries with weaker policies are less likely to know their rights or agree that discrimination is a problem in society. The difference in knowledge of rights between the countries with the lowest- and highest-scoring policies is 11 percentage points. While people experience discrimination in all types of countries and ethnic minorities are likely to identify as discriminated groups, greater knowledge of rights is associated over time with higher reporting of witnessing discrimination and lower levels of identification as discriminated minority groups.

The potential reason for this change in reporting and identification over time could be immigrants' growing levels of trust under these supportive conditions. Under strong policies, immigrants who experience discrimination no longer seem to feel the same loss of trust in public institutions that other immigrants do in countries with weak policies (Ziller and Helbling 2019). This increase in immigrant trust does not necessarily extend to all types of institutions (Ziller 2019 and Ziller and Helbling 2019). Stronger policies appear associated with greater levels of immigrant trust in the police and legal system (Röder and Mühlau 2012) and a more shared sense of social trust (Zimdars and Tampubolon 2012 and Ziller 2017) and satisfaction with democracy (Ziller and Helbling 2019). Erisen 2017 even finds that stronger policies increase immigrants' likelihood to identify as Europeans and as national citizens of the country. This increase in trust is often most apparent among the second generation, who were fully socialised to the country's policies and norms (Faoro 2016).

9.2 LINK BETWEEN ANTI-DISCRIMINATION POLICIES AND OTHER INTEGRATION OUTCOMES

This stronger sense of social trust and belonging may explain why anti-discrimination policies are linked with positive health outcomes for immigrants. De Freitas et al. 2018's meta-analysis suggests that strong anti-discrimination policies decrease the likelihood that a person who experiences discrimination will fall into depression. In contrast, immigrants are at greater risk of depression in countries with weak policies (Malmusi et al. 2015). They are also more likely to experience poor health and report health limitations that impact their daily life (Bakhtiari et al. 2018).

The impact of anti-discrimination policies is harder to observe in other areas of integration. Most of the 23 MIPEX studies available are not the best for studying this relationship as they only consider anti-discrimination policies as one integration policy among many, without a specific methodology targeting discriminated groups. Looking at the different areas of integration, the latest available discrimination study (EU MIDIS II, FRA 2017) finds that respondents of North African background in Western Europe experienced discrimination in the past year in public or private services (21%), looking for work (15%), at work (14%) and least likely in housing (9%) and health (3%). Reviewing the policy research in these areas, no study has focused on access to services. When looking for work, anti-discrimination policies have unclear effects on activity rates (Kesler 2016 and Kislev 2017) and no effects on overall unemployment or employment rates for all immigrants (Bisin et al. 2011, Lessard-Phillips et al. 2012, Patacchini et al. 2015, Kislev 2017, Kislev 2019). Yet studies focusing on specific policies and discriminated groups may show better results. Patacchini et al. 2015 demonstrate that employment rates for self-identified Muslim men and women can be related to strong enforcement mechanisms and equality policies. At work, anti-discrimination policies seem to have clearer positive effects for working immigrants. Effects have been recorded in terms of immigrants' income (Kislev 2019), occupational status (Platt et al. ongoing), qualifications

for their job (Aleksynska and Tritah 2013) and ability to relocate for job opportunities (Guzi et al. 2015) or other purposes (Beverelli 2020). One example of these effects at work: the likelihood that immigrants are overqualified for their job is 42% lower when comparing the European countries with the strongest and weakest policies. Again, all these effects seem to differ for different types of policies (Kislev 2019) and for different groups and genders (Patacchini et al. 2015, Palencia-Esteban 2019, Platt et al. ongoing). Beyond employment, other areas do not reveal overall effects for all immigrants, based on the four general MIPEX studies on education (Fossati 2010, Fossati 2011, Schlicht-Schmälzle and Möller 2012, Dimitrova et al. 2016), three on political participation (Aleksynska 2011, Raschke and Westle 2018 and Schnyder 2019) and one study on housing segregation (Ambinakudige and Lichter 2019).

9.3 ANTI-DISCRIMINATION POLICIES FACING EGYPTIAN IMMIGRANTS AROUND THE WORLD

Strong anti-discrimination policies, especially enforcement mechanisms and equality policies, seem essential for securing the rights and trust of Egyptian immigrant men and women who are potential victims of ethnic, religious or nationality discrimination. The EU-MIDIS II (FRA 2017) survey in the EU illustrates how discrimination acts as a regular obstacle for a sizeable share of North African immigrants. MIPEX studies confirm that anti-discrimination policies may be particularly useful for the first and second generation from the MENA region, particularly of Muslim family background. Comparable data on these policies are mostly available for developed countries via MIPEX (2015) and ICRI (2008), which are presented in Figure 17. Looking at the major destination countries for Egyptian immigrants, anti-discrimination policies are strongest in countries like Canada, the UK and the US. These policies are only partially developed in countries like Austria, Germany, Greece, Israel and Italy. They are weak in countries like Israel, Kuwait, Switzerland and Turkey. Victims are best supported in traditional English-speaking destinations and a few Western European countries with longstanding legislation, such as Belgium, France, the Netherlands, Sweden and the UK.

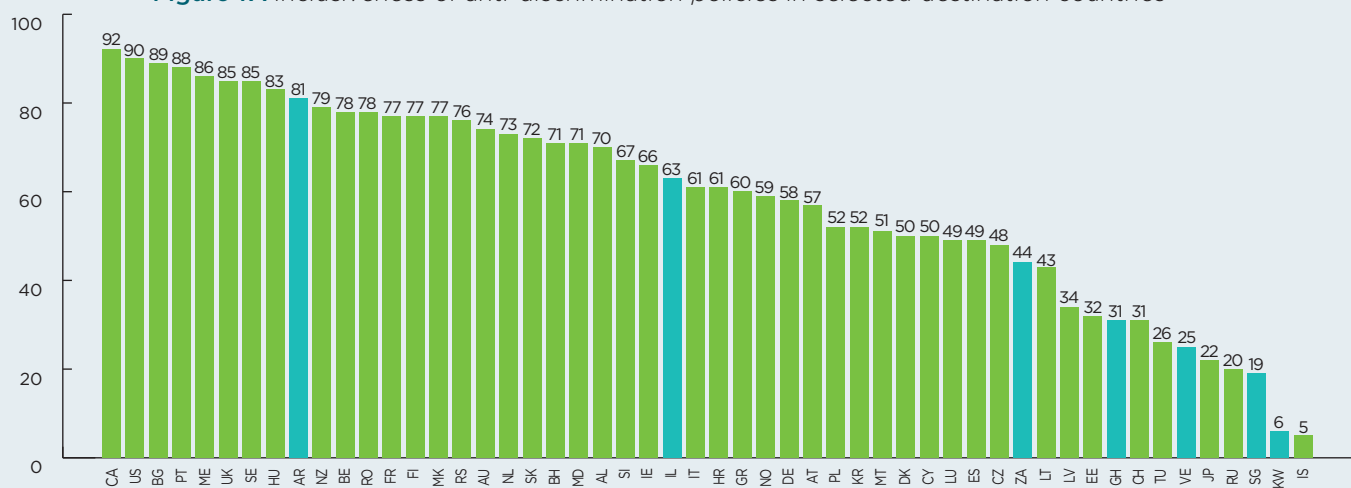
The two indexes identify core elements of anti-discrimination policy. Explicit legislation and specific enforcement procedures must exist in criminal and civil law and conform to international standards, such as the International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination. This set of legislation and procedures must explicitly apply beyond racial discrimination to ethnic, religious and nationality discrimination in all areas of life. Independent equality bodies must be able to assist, advise and represent potential victims, also in accordance with the international 'Paris Principles' for National Human Rights Institutions (NHRIs).

The major gaps identified by MIPEX 2015 are, on the one hand, the relative newness and public ignorance of this legislation, jurisprudence and support bodies and, on the other hand, the weakness of the existing equality bodies and policies. Limited state commitments and resources for equality bodies and policies mean that most victims

are too poorly informed or supported to even report their complaint, which represents the first step in the long path to justice. More in-depth country-by-country information is available through the UN reporting mechanisms (under ICERD, the Paris Principles and the UN Human Rights Committee). In Europe, more detailed information on law and practice is available through the European Equality Law Network and the Council of Europe’s European Commission against Racism and Intolerance (ECRI). Summarising policies found around the world, MIPEX sets the following standard for best practice on anti-discrimination policies:

“All residents, whatever their background, can fight discrimination and benefit from equal opportunities. Anyone in the country can bring forward a case against all forms of discrimination, as well as racial profiling and incitements to hatred. These are illegal in all areas of public life – from employment to education, public space, housing and social protection. A victim is empowered to seek justice because laws are well enforced and used. Independent equality bodies and NGOs help her throughout the proceedings. Courts use wide-ranging sanctions to prevent, discourage and correct discrimination, while the state adopts positive duties and actions.”

Figure 17: Inclusiveness of anti-discrimination policies in selected destination countries



Note: Authors own compilation of MIPEX indicators (2015 in green and ICRI (2008 in blue). Country names coded to ISO 3166-1 alpha-2 code.

Conclusions

The links between integration policies and outcomes worldwide are starting to emerge from the growing international literature, with at least 128 robust multivariate studies over the past decade. This literature review focused on analysis of the Migrant Integration Policy Index, as the most comprehensive, reliable and cited index of integration policy indicators. The report reveals where research gaps still exist and illustrates why and how studies should better match different policies to the specific beneficiaries and outcomes that each policy aims to address. These methodological deficiencies explain many of the research gaps in specific policy areas, such as labour market mobility, education, family reunification and permanent residence. As most integration policy and outcome indicators focus on the situation for all immigrants, these conclusions are generally applicable to the situation in developed countries for the first and second generation from non-European countries. Summarising the recurring trends from all these studies, this report provides preliminary conclusions as to the potential effects of integration policies and outcomes. The report also highlighted any research results that were specific to the situation of immigrants from the MENA region or Muslim family backgrounds.

Key findings were identified for each area of integration policy:

- A country's overall approach to integration policy is strongly associated with public and immigrants' attitudes and identities as well as to immigrants' well-being, political participation and several other socio-economic outcomes.
- A combination of labour market mobility policies may help Egyptian migrant workers to invest in their skills, employment quality and long-term careers.
- Family reunification policies may be critical to secure the family life and well-being of the limited number of Egyptian immigrants separated from dependent family members.
- Migrant education policies may be important for the educational pathways and inclusion of first and second generation youth from Egyptian families.
- Inclusive migrant health and integration policies are fundamental to secure basic health protections and inclusion for all Egyptian immigrants, regardless of legal status.
- Permanent residence policies can shape the long-term security of residence and employment for Egyptian immigrants.
- Political participation policies seem most relevant for the democratic participation of Egyptian immigrants who are long-settled in the world's democracies.

- Naturalisation policies are the major determinant of access to nationality for first generation Egyptian immigrants and may boost their belonging, employment and settlement.
- Strong anti-discrimination policies, especially enforcement mechanisms and equality policies, seem essential for securing the rights and trust of Egyptian men and women who are potential victims of ethnic, religious and nationality discrimination.

The integration policies facing Egyptian immigrants around the world were summarised based on the available comparable policy indexes. These indexes are uneven in their thematic coverage of integration policy areas and limited in their geographical coverage to the world's developed democracies. Currently, comparable integration policy indicators are missing for many of the main destination countries for Egyptian immigrants, particularly in the MENA region. These gaps in the global state-of-the-art on integration policy indicators is one reason why initial drafts of the UN Global Compact on Migration promoted participation of all states in the Migrant Integration Policy Index, as a means to identify challenges and best practices. Drawing on the available data and international policy trends, the report proposes the following recommendations for Egyptian policymakers and stakeholders to promote the interests of Egyptians abroad and contribute to the development of integration policies in their main destination countries:

- Encourage the development of an overall integration strategy and action plan in each major destination country for Egyptian immigrants;
- Facilitate bilateral or multilateral exchange of good practice and models for policy development with major destination countries in the MENA region;
- Advocate for more accessible enforcement mechanisms, more ambitious equality policies and better resourced equality bodies to assist victims of racial, ethnic, religious and nationality discrimination;
- Ensure full inclusion of all Egyptian immigrants, with or without legal status, into the health system of their destination country and facilitate targeted information about healthcare access and critical health information;
- Advocate for greater support for self-organisations of immigrants from Egypt and the MENA region to promote greater civic participation at destination, origin and international level;
- Advocate for greater funding and access for qualification recognition procedures, professional training, higher education and long-term language courses for migrant workers;
- Gather and report on difficulties of Egyptians abroad to obtain permits for work, family reunification and permanent residence in specific destination countries and advocate for related changes in their national laws and procedures;
- Encourage intercultural education, multilingualism and inclusive education models to be promoted through international institutions and exchanges;
- Discuss models within the MENA region for facilitated modes for nationality acquisition, to facilitate the dual nationality and residence requirements for Arabic-speaking immigrants who meet all other naturalisation requirements.

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