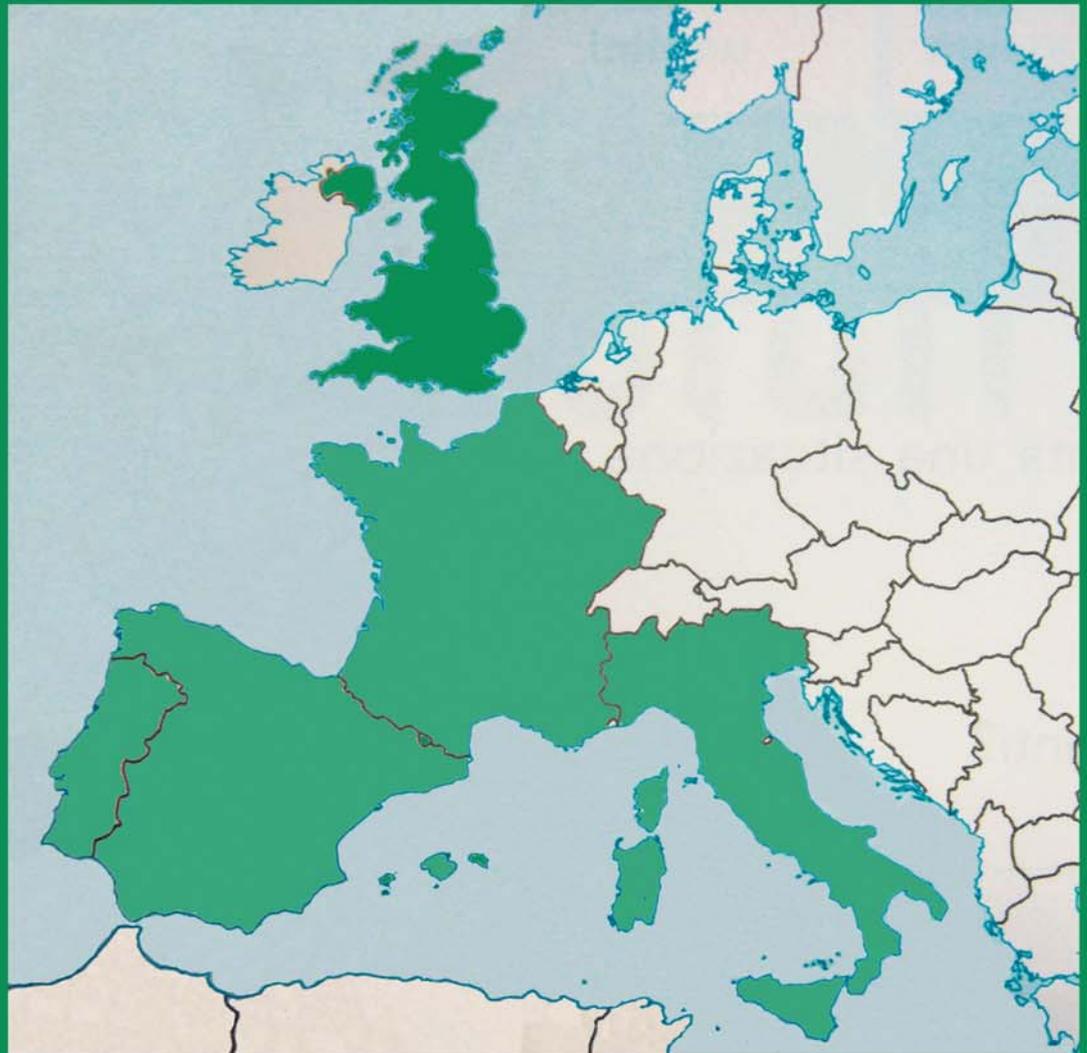




European Commission
INTI Programme

MEASURING INTEGRATION ?

exploring socioeconomic indicators of
integration of third country nationals



Transnational research project MITI
Migrants' Integration Territorial Index

MITI - UNITED KINGDOM NATIONAL REPORT

2008 - EUROPEAN YEAR OF INTERCULTURAL DIALOGUE

Measuring Integration?

**exploring socioeconomic indicators of
integration of third country nationals**

Migrants Integration Territorial Index (MITI)

United Kingdom National Report

**Rosemary Sales
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M.I.T.I. - Migrants Integration Territorial Index

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Introduction to the MITI project

This document is the UK report of a European project which explored the measurement of migrants' integration. The project, *Migrants' Integration Territorial Index (MITI)* was funded by the European Union as part of its INTI programme on the integration of Third Country nationals. The project aimed to gather available statistical data on themes relevant to integration and to explore the possibility of developing an index of integration which could compare progress towards integration in the different regions of an individual state.

The project was led by a team from the *Dossier Statistico Immigrazione (IDOS)* in Rome and also included partners from France, Portugal and Spain. The partners met five times during the course of the project to discuss and compare views about the meaning of integration and to compare data availability and analysis between the different countries. Much relevant data was collected and analysed in the course of the project, including data broken down by region which had not previously been analysed in this form. It was not, however, possible to come to an agreement between the partners on the question of the construction of an index. The lead partner, IDOS, maintained that it was possible to produce a meaningful result by producing an overall index from the data available in Italy and their own national report describes this. Other partners, however, including the UK team, did not feel that this was possible both because of the lack of relevant data in their own countries and due to broader concerns about the limitations of such an index. It was therefore decided that each partner would present the results of their research according to the data availability in their own country and their views of the methodological issues surrounding the construction of an index.

In the report which follows, therefore, while we include the introduction, methodology and conclusions produced by the lead partner, we have also written our own versions of these sections. These both explain the reasons for the position we have taken and highlight the key conclusions in relation both to the specific UK case and the more general issue of the measurability of integration. In order to minimise confusion to the reader, the sections describing the UK research are designed to be self-contained. The text written by the lead partner is placed in boxes with the methodology and conclusions as appendices.

Migrants' Integration Territorial Index

*Luca Di Sciullo, IDOS
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Integration: a challenge for Europe

Identifying and implementing efficient integration policies has become a very important issue on the agenda of European states. Europe is characterised by ever greater cultural diversity and needs to draw on the wealth of its collective experience to develop more adequate resources in order to respond to the challenge of immigration. The permanent nature of the post-war immigration flows, and the diversity of their countries of origin, show clearly that, with the passage of time, immigrants generally become permanent residents or citizens of the country in which they live, while at the same time large numbers of children are born to 'foreigners' in EU countries. Today there are around 28 million foreign nationals in Europe, of which two thirds are from third countries and almost as many who have acquired citizenship of one of the member states, which means that around one in ten residents of Europe are of non-European origin.

In this context of sharp differences, the models of coexistence developed during the 1970s have become less relevant and it is crucial to try out processes of integration which can promote more effectively the construction of a single and cohesive social fabric in which everyone can feel a sense of belonging and acknowledge others on the basis of equality of rights and duties.

Assimilation, a *melting pot*, *gastarbeiter* (guestworker) systems, are terms and concepts for understanding and promoting integration which are inherited from the past, often referring to historical situations which are very different both from each other and from the contemporary situation. The globalisation of goods and services has had profound impacts on the dynamics of migration and has even changed the meaning of words such as immigrant, citizen, culture, borders, nation, identity, equality, rights.

Today, having studied and evaluated the traditional models on which countries with longer traditions of immigration (France, UK, Holland and Germany for example) based their migration policies, and whose experience is highly valuable, Europe is debating the best way to produce effective integration so that it can be developed through an understanding of the limitations which have been revealed in the earlier national models.

This is not a simple goal, both because of the complexity of the issue and the resistance of member states to delegating crucial aspects of migration policy to the EU. Each one arrogates to itself the right to decide, largely autonomously, its policies in relation to immigration and the cultural and socioeconomic integration of foreigners in its own country, in spite of attempts to harmonise these policies into a more coherent and homogeneous framework.

In particular, it now seems crucial not merely to promote policies which can bring together these diverse groups and allow them to interact through dynamic intercultural policies in order to influence this diverse context and to rebuild it in a spirit of reciprocity. It is also important to develop authoritative instruments to measure the effectiveness and adequacy of these policies, based on the actual local context.

Territorial analysis and integration policies

It is with this perspective that the research project MITI (Migrants' Integration Territorial Index) was developed. Co-financed by the European Union through its INTI Programme, it began in September 2006 for an 18 month period and involved a partnership of five member states. The project was led by the Centro Studi e Ricerche IDOS in Rome, Italy, and the other participating countries were France (Centre d'Etudes et de Recherches, CERI, Paris); the United Kingdom (Middlesex University, London); Spain (Association *Salud y Familia*, Barcelona) and Portugal (International Organization for Migration (IOM), Lisbon, with the support of the research centre *Númena*). A second Italian partner, the Rome-based cooperative *Europolis*, took charge of the administration of the project.

Using a common framework of statistical indicators organised into thematic areas, for each of these areas every partner explored the possibility of developing an index. The MITI project involved a comparative study of the different levels of socio-economic integration of immigrants from Third countries across different geographical areas (regions, and major metropolitan areas) in each partner country. The aim was to provide policy makers with a research-based tool to inform the decision making and governance of the complex phenomenon of integration, providing also a transnational base of comparison.

The project was based on the Italian experience, which had been developed within the Consiglio Nazionale per l'Economia e il Lavoro (CNEL), the National Council for the Economy and Labour. Through the ONC (National Organisation for Coordination) of policy for the integration of foreigners, CNEL has for the last six years commissioned IDOS to produce an annual report on *Indices of Integration of immigrants in Italy*. A system of overall indices is constructed from the range of available statistical indicators which are brought together through a standardised point system. The experience over several years has provided the opportunity to attempt to measure the potential for socio-economic integration of immigrants in the various areas, regions and provinces of the country.

The MITI project is thus distinct from other community initiatives in two fundamental ways: in the regional break down of its analysis within each partner country and in the specific comparative method used in the construction of the statistical indicators. Both of these represent a real contribution to research in this area. In addition we have included a more detailed examination of the most important national groups in each partner country. It has, however, exposed structural limitations both in the research instruments (the indicators) and in our understanding of the meaning of integration and thus in the possibility of transnational comparisons of the results.

The regional level of analysis is certainly of great interest for a study of this kind, since it allows us to evaluate which regional or administrative areas within each country offer the highest level of social and economic integration of third country nationals compared to others. It thus measures the level of local *preconditions* which might promote the *possibility* of immigrants' integration, at least in relation to these two crucial aspects. It involves, therefore, a scale comparing the structural *potential* for integration in each region within a state. Within certain limits, it also allows us to draw parallels with similar regions of the other states involved in the research on the basis of the same methodology. The case studies of metropolitan areas (the capital cities, with the exception of Spain which focused on the extremely interesting area of Barcelona) allowed us to compare, using the same indicators, the situation of some of the most important European cities and of their respective hinterlands.

Aims and limitations of the research

The territorial analysis here adopted imposed some cautions. In particular, the necessity of identifying data disaggregated by region for each of our chosen indicators, and in each country involved in the research, significantly affected the composition of the common grid. In many cases, highly relevant indicators which should in theory have been included in the common system (for example crime rates, the rate of school enrolment or the level of union membership) could not be used because the relevant data was not available in all countries disaggregated by region as required by the project. It was therefore necessary for all partners either to omit them or to use data which, though relevant to the phenomenon, measured it more indirectly and were not the ideal ones. These were nevertheless the only ones on the subject which were disaggregated regionally available for the majority of partners.

In both cases the common grid of indicators was weakened both in its extent (the incompleteness of its range) and intensity (the reduction in its comprehensiveness meant it was less able to explore the complexity of the phenomenon of integration).

This situation confirms the necessity of reading the results of such research with caution, as having an *indicative* value in measuring the phenomenon rather than being an *exhaustive* objective measure. This warning would, however, be necessary even if we were able to develop a grid based on a complete set of ideal indicators. Integration is, by its very nature, a complex and multifaceted phenomenon which involves aspects of the lives of immigrants which can be revealed only through qualitative investigation and cannot therefore be understood fully through purely quantitative instruments such as the ones used here.

In spite of these inevitable limitations in the research and the consequent warnings about how to read and evaluate the results obtained by each partner, it is nevertheless important to acknowledge the value of the work achieved at the transnational level, in order that it can be transferred, developed and adapted in future studies at the European level. Widening the basis of comparison and enriching the analysis of single indicators at national and regional level could be an important step towards understanding the importance of the local dimension of integration.

Introduction to the UK Report

Integration has been high on the political agenda in Britain as well as the European Union during the current century as governments have attempted to manage immigration and its social and economic implications. With the adoption of the Common Basic Principles (CBP) on migrant integration in 2004 by EU states, member states were encouraged to establish goals based on clear indicators of integration. The MITI project, part of the broader European Union INTI programme¹ provided the opportunity to explore the different components of integration with researchers from other European states and to explore the types of indicators which might be useful in understanding the concept and in developing policies to promote integration. The project was also important in its exploration of the local dimension of integration, an element which is widely recognised to be crucial both in relation to policy making and in terms of how people see themselves as belonging.

The experience of migration and the policy context of the UK has been very different from that of most of the partners in this project and this offered a rich source of debate. These differences, however, also raised a number of practical and conceptual issues which both enriched our comparative discussions and made it difficult to develop a common understanding and methodology in relation to the measurement of integration. The longer history of migration in the UK means that understandings of integration are very different from those in some other European states. As the children and grandchildren of post-war migrants to Britain grow up as British citizens, British society has become increasingly diverse in ethnic, religious and cultural terms. These groups are embedded in all aspects of national life – for example politics, the professions, the mass media – although structural inequalities remain. This has led to a policy focus on equalities between different ethnic groups. As well as moves to make the acquisition of British citizenship more conditional, the key targets of policies of integration and social cohesion have included British citizens of migrant background born in Britain whose economic and social marginalisation may also make them disaffected from what are claimed to be ‘British’ values. This issue also highlights the complexity of the process of integration.

Furthermore, the significance and meaning of the regional dimension varies between states. In Britain, the major regions for which data is disaggregated have little significance in terms of administrative or policy-making institutions, while individuals are unlikely to identify themselves as belonging at this level. There are regional assemblies for Wales and Scotland and Northern Ireland (the first two recent and the last with a complex relation to the UK national state) but the English regions, apart from London, have no specific policy making bodies. The United Kingdom is a highly centralised state in which local government (borough, county and district councils) have relatively limited powers in relation to issues relevant to integration, although they can influence the way in which policies are implemented. Greater London has only recently acquired its own Mayor and elected assembly which has great symbolic significance but little policy making power. In relation to policy, therefore, the national level (meaning here predominantly UK) is of overwhelming importance while – especially in England - the more local level, city, borough or local London area, may be what is meaningful to people in terms of their daily lives and sense of attachment and belonging.

These two issues have implications for the statistics available on issues relevant to integration. Much official data are collected on the basis of ethnicity rather than nationality and cannot therefore be used to assess the situation of migrants. In addition, much of this is available only at national rather than regional level. Thus statistics on the indicators identified during the course of the project were in many cases unavailable.

As well as the issue of data availability, the project raised conceptual issues concerning the definition and measurability of integration. Integration is, as all partners in the project agreed, a contested term, while the process of integration is multi-dimensional, involving both immigrants and nationals. Some of these aspects

¹ INTI is a European Union (EU) funding programme for preparatory actions promoting the integration in the EU member states of people who are not citizens of the EU.

(such as the extent of labour market integration) are, in principle at least, measurable while others, such as a sense of belonging, are more difficult to quantify and cannot be understood through official statistical data. Furthermore, many of the data which are available, while clearly relevant to integration, have a complex and sometimes ambiguous relation to it. It is not, therefore, always possible to place these data on a linear scale in which high values can be taken as signifying stronger progress towards integration.

A further issue raised within the project was the variety of migratory experience between and within different national groups. The INTI programme concerns the integration of non-EU nationals but the averaging of data for this group as a whole can hide this diversity. It was thus decided to select a small number of national case studies. In the UK case, we chose groups with very different histories of migration and settlement in Britain: Australians, Bangladeshis, Chinese and Poles. The latter are in fact EU citizens following Poland's Accession to the EU in 2004. The statistics gathered here suggest that their experience is in many ways more similar to that of the average for non-EU migrants than that of British nationals, thus raising questions about the usefulness of the categories 'EU' and 'non-EU nationals'.

The results of our analysis are different from those of some of our partners, in particular from the model proposed by the Italian partners. We have not been able to collect the range of relevant data in the appropriate form to construct a meaningful index of integration, even if we take only a limited aspect of integration related to socioeconomic position. As well as the issue of data availability, we suggest that there are conceptual problems in the construction of such an index. These make it important to reiterate that the results need to be treated with extreme caution and that no clear-cut policy conclusions may be drawn from it. These issues are discussed further in the methodological section.

We believe, however, that we have collected a range of data which enriches our understanding of the situation of non-nationals living in the United Kingdom and can thus point to some implications for integration. This is the first time that such data has been systematically collected and analysed at the regional level. The data indicate significant spatial variations in migrant experience and suggest the importance of exploring the local dimension of integration.

The National Context

History and traditions of migration

Mass migration to Britain is often thought of as having started in the period after the Second World War when processes of economic and political restructuring brought significant new migratory flows from former colonies. Immigration has, however, a long history largely as a result of conquest by others (for example the Romans, Normans and Danes) and of Britain's own imperialist ventures. Small numbers of people from the colonies have settled in Britain from at least the sixteenth century. Britain has also accepted refugees, including the Huguenots – Protestants fleeing Catholic France during the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries - and revolutionaries from Europe including both Marx and Lenin. The first mass immigration was from Ireland, Britain's oldest colony, particularly in the wake of the Famine of 1846. Irish people are Britain's largest ethnic minority and continue to suffer social and economic disadvantage (Hickman and Walter, 1997; Tilki *et. al.* 2008). With the expansion of international trade in the nineteenth century settlements of people, including from China, Somalia and the Caribbean, developed in sea ports such as London, Liverpool and Cardiff.

Britain has an uneasy relationship with its immigration history. Holmes (1988) suggested that official accounts have been unwilling to admit the extent of immigration since it interfered with myths of nationhood based on a common culture. More recently, however, diversity has been claimed in the name of a particular form of Britishness. The White Paper, *Secure Borders, Safe Haven* produced in 2002 suggested that, 'British nationality has never been associated with membership of a particular ethnic group' (Home Office, 2002: 10). At the same time, governments have suggested that there are limits to the 'tolerance' of the British people and attempted to restrict the numbers of new entrants.

Immigration control is only 100 years old, but has become normalised as part of the 'common sense' in which discussion about migration is framed. The first Act barring entry to Britain was the *Aliens Act, 1905*. Although free movement had prevailed before this, the state had periodically expelled groups or individuals. Jews, the main targets of the Act, had been periodically welcomed and deported since they first entered Britain with the Norman invasion in 1066 and there were expulsions of black people, citizens of the Empire, from Elizabethan England. The immediate trigger for the Aliens' Act was the inflow of Jews fleeing persecution in Russia and Eastern Europe. The Act's passage also reflected the changing balance of class interests in Britain as popular citizenship developed with the expansion of the franchise and the development of welfare and employment rights. This required boundaries around those eligible to benefit and the exclusion of the 'undeserving' (Cohen *et. al.*, 2002). The contradictory accusations that immigrants both take 'our' jobs and take advantage of welfare (Jones, 1977: 78) have been a continuing element of anti-immigration rhetoric.

Migration policy has continued to be largely restrictive, although the targets of control have changed. Migration has, however, played a crucial social and economic role in Britain. The next major phase of migration came after the Second World War from which Britain emerged on the winning side but diminished economically and politically. The process of decolonisation was hastened by the war and threatened to weaken further Britain's position as a leading world power. British policy-making in this period was dominated by conflicting imperatives. The maintenance of superpower status required reconstructing relations with the Commonwealth. This new relationship was embodied in the *Nationality Act, 1948* which gave rights of entry and citizenship to all citizens of British colonies and the Commonwealth. This symbolic universal equality masked the deep racialisation of the British state which dominated immigration policy in the following period. Britain needed to import labour for post-war reconstruction but in the much quoted phrase of the Population Commission Report 1949, the only immigrants welcomed 'without reserve' were to be of 'good human stock and not prevented by their religion or race from intermarrying with the host population and becoming merged in it' (cited in Paul, 1997: 128). Thus when Commonwealth citizens attempted to take up their citizenship rights within Britain they were met with hostility. The arrival of the Empire Windrush at the port of Tilbury in 1948 carrying 492 Jamaicans seeking work was described by the Prime Minister, Clement Attlee as an 'incursion' (Holmes, 1988: 257). Active recruitment, however, took place among the refugees and displaced people of Europe. Around 200,000 stateless Poles were granted settlement in Britain following the war, including veterans from the Polish

Army in Exile based in London. The Irish, however, continued to be the main source of labour immigration, while there was large scale migration from other parts of Europe, include Italy and Portugal.

The next period of immigration policy was dominated by a growing distinction between the rights of citizens from the Old Commonwealth (countries such as Australia and New Zealand which were colonies of settlement by Europeans) and the New Commonwealth (Africa, Asia, the Caribbean) through the racialisation of nationality laws. In spite of these controls by the 1960s a settled population was becoming established. Indeed, the threat of controls precipitated further immigration and forced migrants to make the choice to remain permanently. Restrictions on entry were combined with the development of policies to promote equality, for example through a series of Race Relations Acts which prohibited discrimination in employment on grounds of race and ethnicity. This distinction between promoting good 'race relations' and an immigration policy discriminates ever more strictly on the grounds of nationality has been a continuing feature of British policy (Sales, 2007).

As Britain joined the European Common Market (later the European Union) in 1973, the government attempted to shift the pattern of immigration flows towards EU citizens. Official policy aimed at ending primary migration from outside the EU except in exceptional circumstances. Migration from the Commonwealth, however, continued to grow, as British welfare services (especially health) became increasingly dependent on this form of labour (Raghuram and Kofman, 2002)

The end of the Cold War and subsequent economic and political crises produced a 'new migration regime' in Europe (Koser and Lutz, 1998). The globalisation of production, trade and finance which had been accelerating since the 1970s through multinational corporations and the growing influence of international financial institutions had brought growing inequalities. These both precipitated migration from poorer countries and increased demands for labour within the richer states. The development of global cities (Sassen, 1991), including London, led to the expansion of both high-level employment associated with leading global companies and of low-status casualised labour in services such as cleaning, hotels and catering and domestic labour. The conditions which intensified labour migration also brought an increase in refugee movements. Indeed, the boundaries between 'forced' and 'voluntary' migration are extremely blurred (Bloch, 1999).

Immigration to Britain in the 1990s thus encompassed a growing diversity both in relation to country of origin and in the motive for migration (predominantly labour, family migration and asylum). Many have settled and taken out citizenship and while others use the UK as a stage towards another country seen to have better prospects, such as the United States, or for a shorter period to earn money and return home (Kofman *et al.*, 2008). Channels for entry for labour migrants were simplified and work permits extended for longer periods so that skilled workers could accumulate enough years to apply for indefinite leave to remain and citizenship. This group included a growing proportion of women, with the percentage increasing between 1996 and 2000 from 22.45 per cent to 33.5 per cent due in part to labour shortages in education and health. Migration for low skilled work was also facilitated through sector-based schemes in food processing and hospitality which brought in workers largely from Eastern Europe, the former Soviet Union, and some Asian countries (Bangladesh, Philippines and Thailand). Family reunion became the main form of entry for women migrants during this period (Kofman and Sales, 1998) which was especially important from areas of earlier migration such as the Indian sub-continent.

Table 1 shows a doubling of the inflow of migrants in the decade from 1993, with both continuity and change in the countries of origin. Australians remain the largest single group, reflecting the continuation of the traditional short term migration of young people through working holidays, while inflows from China, previous relatively small, became the second largest with the establishment of a 'new migration regime' (Pieke, 2004) following economic and political change there. This group is highly diverse, including both privileged migrants and those entering clandestinely who often work in highly dangerous conditions (Sales *et al.*, 2008). Other countries producing substantial increases in migration include the Philippines and South Africa.

In 2000, the government attempted to challenge the growing contradiction between official policy of 'zero' migration and Britain's dependence on migrant labour. Acknowledging the social and economic value to Britain of migration, it announced policies to ease restrictions on labour migration, particularly for the highly skilled. With the Accession to the EU of eight Eastern European countries, the government attempted to replace unskilled migrants from outside the EU with these new EU citizens. It allowed free access to the labour market before this became a right under EU law, although social rights were limited. Migration from these countries

was much greater than expected: according to official figures, between May 2004 and December 2007 766,000 people applied to the *Workers Registration Scheme* which was established in 2004 to monitor the employment of this group of workers. Many more worked without registering (CRONEM, 2007). Poles are by far the largest single group (66 per cent for the whole period but 71 per cent in the 4th quarter 2007) followed by Lithuanians and Slovaks. This migration was expected to be temporary and no provision was made for their social needs, such as schooling. There is, however, growing evidence that many intend to stay long term or permanently (CRONEM 2007; Zaronaitė and Tirzite 2007) while family migration has been growing (Ryan et al, 2007). In contrast to the period of post-colonial and Irish immigration, Eastern Europeans have increasingly taken up employment in regions such as East of England and East Midlands with a minority in London. Following a hostile media campaign, the government decided to restrict access to the labour market for Bulgarians and Romanians, though they may apply for work permits.

This migration has contributed to an even more diverse population at the start of the twenty first century. According to a report by a leading demographer (Salt, 2007) the foreign-born population rose from over 4 million to over 6 million in the decade to 2007 and comes from a huge variety of countries: 28 per cent from the European Union (25 countries), 40.3 per cent from the New Commonwealth, 5.8 per cent from the Old Commonwealth and 25.9 per cent from other countries. Migration of skilled labour and students has also resulted in larger numbers of dependants who also have the right to work. Another contributing factor to diversity is secondary migration of new EU citizens (often of refugee origin, for example Somalis, Congolese, Tamils, Afghanis) from the Netherlands and Scandinavian countries. Some nationalities are highly differentiated. For example Portuguese include many born outside Portugal (Angola, Mozambique, Brazil) and, in thus fall into a variety of ethnic categories, 'white Europeans', 'black African', 'mixed' and 'other'. Table 2 on the foreign population is based on nationality rather than country of birth, and since many migrants acquire citizenship, it underestimates the inflow of migrants during this period. Nevertheless, it shows major increases in numbers as well as in the major groups. The largest group of foreign nationals is still from Ireland, with those from India remaining in second place but Polish people have increased from insignificant numbers at the beginning of the decade to third place in 2005. The table also reveals the continuing importance of migration from the United States and France (fourth and fifth place respectively). This migration has remained largely 'invisible' in British discourse in relation to immigration which has tended to problematise certain groups, including New Commonwealth migration and more recently asylum seekers and Eastern Europeans.

Table 1 - 1992 - 2001 - United Kingdom - Inflows of foreign population by nationality (thousands)

	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001
Australia	10.0	11.0	9.0	12.0	13.0	14.0	27.2	26.4	23.8	33.5
China	1.0	1.0	2.0	5.0	3.0	1.0	5.8	15.1	18.6	18.5
France	9.0	4.0	3.0	12.0	11.0	21.0	15.0	13.6	14.7	16.2
Germany	6.0	4.0	8.0	5.0	8.0	8.0	9.1	9.2	11.4	16.1
India	4.0	6.0	6.0	6.0	6.0	10.0	6.2	10.3	17.2	16.0
South Africa	1.0	2.0	1.0	3.0	4.0	6.0	11.7	12.0	14.2	13.1
United States	11.0	14.0	15.0	11.0	15.0	11.0	21.1	16.9	14.0	13.1
Philippines	1.0	1.0	..	1.0	2.0	1.0	0.1	5.4	6.1	11.6
New Zealand	6.0	6.0	7.0	8.0	9.0	7.0	14.5	13.4	12.4	11.6
Pakistan	6.0	4.0	4.0	4.0	8.0	5.0	4.2	6.6	9.5	9.6
Greece	3.0	8.0	3.0	3.0	6.0	9.0	12.5	10.3	5.5	5.6
Malaysia	5.0	5.0	8.0	10.0	5.0	10.0	5.1	4.1	5.5	5.4
Korea	2.0	1.0	1.0	3.0	4.0	..	1.7	1.4	4.3	5.3
Japan	4.0	5.0	5.0	5.0	5.0	8.0	7.1	7.9	7.3	4.8
Bangladesh	2.0	4.0	2.0	2.0	1.0	5.0	1.7	3.2	3.1	4.5
Other countries	42.0	42.0	58.0	60.0	64.0	66.0	71.1	81.0	93.1	81.5
Total	113.0	118.0	132.0	150.0	164.0	182.0	214.0	237.0	260.5	266.2
adjusted figures*	175.0	179.2	206.2	228.0	224.2	237.2	287.3	337.4	379.3	373.3

Notes: (*) adjusted figures include short-term migrants (including asylum seekers) who actually stayed longer than one year. Source: International Passenger Survey (from OECD Sopemi Report 2007)

Table 2 - 1996 - 2005 - United Kingdom - Stock of foreign population by nationality (thousands)

	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005
Ireland	441	446	448	442	404	436	403	367	368	369
India	128	110	139	149	153	132	145	154	171	190
Poland	34	24	34	48	110
United States	105	104	120	123	114	148	100	120	133	106
France	53	54	74	68	85	82	92	102	95	100
South Africa	22	24	39	50	..	68	64	95	92	100
Australia	50	62	50	55	75	67	75	73	80	79
Pakistan	78	68	69	73	94	82	97	83	86	95
Germany	53	59	75	85	64	59	68	70	96	100
Portugal	28	27	38	44	29	58	85	88	83	85
Italy	85	77	89	80	95	102	98	91	121	88
Zimbabwe	20	35	51	73	68
Bangladesh	43	63	69	78	55	70	61	48	69	64
Philippines	12	15	12	..	20	27	32	54	52	51
Ghana	31	27	35	30	38
Other countries	836	957	985	961	1 154	1 171	1 178	1 277	1 260	1 392
Total	1 934	2 066	2 207	2 208	2 342	2 587	2 584	2 742	2 857	3 035

Notes: (*) figures are rounded and not published if less than 10,000.

Source: Labour Force Survey (from OECD Sopemi Report 2007)

Table 3 - Workers Registration Scheme - Nationality of approved applicants, by quarter and year of application

Year	Quarter	Czech R.	Estonia	Hungary	Latvia	Lithuania	Poland	Slovakia	Slovenia	Total
2004*	Total	8,255	1,860	3,620	8,670	19,270	71,025	13,020	160	125,880
2005	Total	10,575	2,560	6,355	12,955	22,990	127,325	22,035	170	204,965
2006	Q1	1,865	390	1,435	2,560	4,235	31,920	4,305	55	46,765
	Q2	2,045	340	1,600	2,790	4,470	38,125	5,490	40	54,905
	Q3	2,220	420	1,835	2,265	4,340	45,465	6,260	50	62,855
	Q4	2,215	325	2,190	1,880	4,015	46,980	5,695	40	63,345
2006	Total	8,345	1,475	7,060	9,490	17,065	162,490	21,750	185	227,865
2007	Q1	1,820	270	1,965	1,835	3,740	35,775	4,840	45	50,285
	Q2	1,790	210	2,075	1,625	3,675	37,120	5,570	40	52,105
	Q3	1,865	245	2,160	1,420	3,465	38,680	5,750	50	53,635
	% of Q3	3%	0%	4%	3%	6%	72%	11%	0%	100%

Notes: (*) May to December 2004

Source: Accession Monitoring Report 2007

Current policies on migration and integration

Policy towards the integration of migrants has moved higher on the political agenda over the past decade in both Britain and the European Union. Another research project within the INTI programme, MIPEX (Migrant Integration Policy Index), has sought to develop an index of policies concerned with integration in order to compare progress across the European Union. This looks at policies in six areas, comparing actual policies with an ‘ideal’, or what it calls ‘best practice’. According to its latest report, legally-resident third-country nationals in the UK ‘benefit from slightly favourable labour market access, long-term residence, family reunion, and access to nationality policies. Political participation policies score around halfway to best practice. Anti-discrimination laws and policies are particularly strong and have improved since 2004.’ This assessment, which is illustrated graphically in Figure 1 provides a relatively positive view of Britain’s policies. The report focuses on formal policies but implementation in Britain is subject to high levels of discretion on the part of immigration officers and an official culture which tends to stereotype particular national groups and may lead to discrimination (Sales, 2007).

Recent policy development in relation to integration has taken place within the context of an overall policy of ‘managed migration’ which is based on maximising what the government defines as ‘British interests’. These have been perceived in increasingly narrow terms, with increasing selectivity in the rights accorded to migrants both in relation to entry and to the terms on which they may reside in Britain. This has created large groups with insecure or temporary status who are not expected to integrate. This shift has taken place within the context of a growing public hostility towards immigration. As the MIPEX report noted, “Britons increasingly rank immigration and race as their top policy concerns. Anxieties over Islamism and terrorism have also fuelled public debates on integration.” As well as increasing pressure for restrictive migration policy, these concerns have themselves been created in part by immigration policy itself. The growing visibility of asylum seekers, for example, is a product of policies which have separated them from mainstream support structures (Sales, 2002). These views also reflect the separation between the issues of immigration and ‘race relations’ in official and popular discourse. A recent survey found that whereas over two-thirds of Britons find diversity to be enriching and supported anti-discrimination measures, they were less open in relation to migrants. Unlike in most countries, only a minority of Britons (42.7%) support a migrant's right to family reunion and only just over a third of those polled believe migrants should be able to naturalise easily (Eurobarometer, 2006)

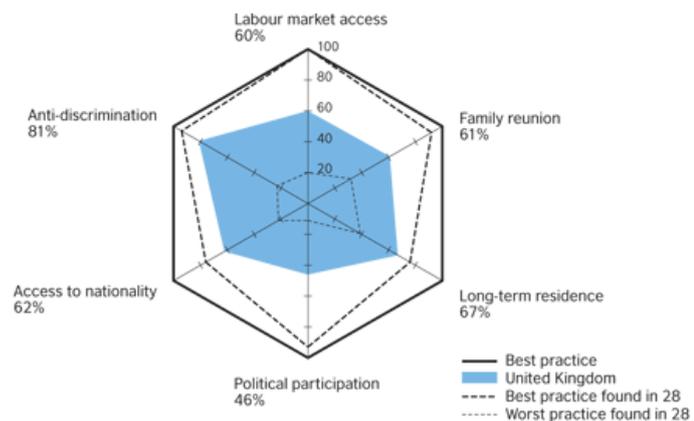


Figure 1 - UK scores on the 6 dimension of MIPEX (Migrant Integration Policy Index)

Source: Integration Index, 2007 (<http://www.integrationindex.eu>)

Although managed migration was officially signalled in 2000, the New Labour government had attempted to shift the direction of policy since it came to office in 1997. At this time there was a widespread perception of a crisis in immigration policy particularly in relation to asylum and a major priority was an attempt to restore control over borders and to select those migrants who should enter and the terms of their settlement. Although Labour had made a symbolic break with the past in recognising the value of migration, the ‘mildly progressive elements’ were ‘swamped’ in an agenda that emphasised the reassertion of national state control over immigration procedures (Flynn, 2005: 305)

There are three major components to managed migration: labour migration, controls and citizenship. **Labour migration** has become more selective on the basis of both nationality and skills. While opportunities have been opened up for those with the skills deemed necessary for the British economy and for new EU citizens, others have suffered restrictions on their social rights and length of residence. The decision to allow new EU citizens access to the labour market was accompanied by the ending of schemes which admitted non EU citizens for short term employment. An increasing array of **controls** has been implemented for ‘unwanted’ migrants (Cohen, 2006; Bloch and Schuster, 2005). These include both physical controls on entry and increased monitoring on the status of migrants resident within the UK. Border controls have been strengthened with increased use of technology such as digital readings of irises and finger printing and checks to prevent people without appropriate documents from travelling (Geddes, 2000). A widening range of people have been brought into the policing of immigration status, including transport operators, service providers and even voluntary agencies working with asylum seekers. **Citizenship** has taken on greater ideological and practical significance, with new citizens invited to celebrate their new status in ceremonies introduced in 2002. They must, however, meet a growing range of conditions, including passing a language test (English or Welsh) and showing ‘knowledge of the UK’ which is assessed through an on-line test involving 24 questions based on *Life in the United Kingdom: a journey to citizenship* (Home Office, 2004a). Some questions are quite obscure, and most current British citizens would be unlikely to pass without considerable preparation. There is a failure rate of 31.3% (MIPEX, 2007). New citizens are required to swear an oath, to which the government added a new section in 2002, highlighted below:

I [swear by Almighty God] [do solemnly and sincerely affirm] that, from this time forward, I will give my loyalty and allegiance to Her Majesty Queen Elizabeth the Second her Heirs and Successors and to the United Kingdom. ***I will respect the rights and freedoms of the United Kingdom. I will uphold its democratic values. I will observe its laws faithfully and fulfil my duties and obligations as a British citizen.***

While restricting the rights to settle (and therefore to integrate) of many groups, a more active policy of integration for those allowed to remain has been promoted. A variety of packages have been developed for those granted refugee status. Participation in the labour market is, however, seen as the main route to integration, with labour migrants largely expected to manage their own integration. Specific measures to support labour migrants limited and fragmented. Although the state helps them to get their skills and qualifications recognised, it does not set national policy targets to further integration or allow migrants equal access to vocational training and study grants (MIPEX, 2007).

British policy has also been shifting towards a concern with social cohesion, including with British-born citizens from minority ethnic communities as well as migrants. Muslims, in particular have been criticised for lack of involvement in mainstream society and ‘community leaders’ exhorted to denounce extremism. In June 2006, a new Commission on Integration and Cohesion was established to consider ‘how local areas can make the most of the benefits delivered by increasing diversity’ but also how they can respond to the problems which could arise because of ‘segregation and the dissemination of extremist ideologies’.²

Official policy towards integration has thus been contradictory. The focus on controlling immigration undermines integration, problematising outsiders and thus reducing the possibility of co-existence. The increased conditionality of rights, not just to citizenship but also to secure residence and to other social rights, undermines the process of integration. Asylum seekers have been particular objects of control, with a segregated system of social support while their claim is heard which inhibits their engagement with mainstream society. This delays the integration of those ultimately granted refugee status and thus the right to benefit for the new integration packages.

The following sections present an overview of the main rules and policies in relation to the issues relevant to integration identified within the MIPEX project. The main sources are listed at the end of this section and these should be consulted for more detailed information and to ensure that information is up to date.

² Ruth Kelly, Secretary of State for Communities and Local Government speaking at the launch of the Commission.

Long-term residence

Depending on their immigration status, migrants must wait for different lengths of time to become eligible for indefinite leave to remain (long-term residence). A spouse need wait only two years, whilst the period is five years for migrant workers, refugees and EU nationals exercising their right to free movement. Students and any other legal resident must wait 10 years to be eligible. Irregular migrants who can prove habitual residence can apply after 14 years.

Former students can count half their time studying in the UK towards the time requirement but refugees cannot count any of their time waiting for an asylum decision.

A long-term residence permit gives migrants the right to accept most jobs, in the same way as EU nationals. They are also entitled to social security, social assistance, healthcare and housing support.

According to MIPEX long-term residents are 'slightly' secure under the law. They are protected from expulsion on some grounds, though they can be expelled regardless of how long they have lived in the UK and whether or not they are a minor.

Access to nationality

Naturalisation is not an entitlement. Citizenship is granted only to those who can demonstrate that they satisfy certain legal requirements and if the Home Secretary 'thinks fit'. These include that applicants must:

- **Be aged 18 or over**
- Be of **sound mind** (see below for those not of sound mind)
- **Intend to continue to live in the UK**, or to continue in Crown service, the service of an international organisation of which the UK is a member or the service of a company or association established in the UK
- **Can communicate in English** (or Welsh or Scottish Gaelic) to an acceptable degree
- Have sufficient **knowledge of life in the UK** (tested on the basis of the publication "Life in the UK")
- Be of **good character** (have shown respect for the rights and freedoms of the United Kingdom, observed its laws and fulfilled duties and obligations as a resident of the United Kingdom).
- Have **lived in the UK for a minimum of 5 years** before you apply (or 3 years in the case of those applying on the basis of marriage or civil partnership to a British citizen).

Those aged 65 or over or with a long term physical or mental condition that prevents them from learning English or being tested on knowledge of life in the UK, may not have to meet these requirements.

Those who have naturalised can lose their citizenship for various reasons, including proven fraud in acquiring nationality or if they are considered an actual threat to public policy or national security. The UK, allows dual nationality, attaining 'best practice' on this measure according to MIPEX.

Anti-Discrimination

Legislation covers three of the grounds that directly affect migrants - race/ethnicity, religion/belief and, with limited exceptions, nationality - as well as gender, age and disability. Complainants receive financial assistance. They must, however, go through lengthy civil and administrative procedures, in which NGOs (legal entities with a legitimate interest in defending equality) have little role. Furthermore, specialised equality agencies cannot engage in proceedings on behalf of a victim.

The Commission for Equality and Human Rights (CEHR), established by the Equality Act 2006 and operational from October 2007, brings together the Commission for Racial Equality, Disability Rights Commission and Equal Opportunities Commission. It will be able to instigate proceedings in its own name and assist victims through independent legal advice and investigations.

According to the MIPEX report, anti-discrimination law is the UK's greatest area of strength. The UK scores third out of the EU-15.

Family reunion

The main rules for those people 'subject to immigration control' (i.e. non-EEA citizens who do not have Indefinite Leave to Remain) wishing to enter for the purpose of family reunion "with a view to settlement" are as follows:

Spouses or partners

- The applicant must be married to or the civil partner (including unmarried or same-sex partner) of a person who:
 - a. is (legally) present and settled in the United Kingdom (e.g. with limited leave to enter or remain), or:
 - b. has the right of abode in the UK (i.e. British citizenship) or indefinite leave to enter or remain
- The parties to the marriage must have met
- Each of the parties must intend to live permanently with the other
- There must be adequate accommodation for the parties and any dependants without recourse to public funds
- The parties must be able to maintain themselves and any dependants adequately without recourse to public funds
- The applicant must hold a valid UK entry clearance for entry in this capacity

In the case of 1b above, and if the applicant has sufficient knowledge of the English language and life in the UK, s/he may be granted indefinite leave. Otherwise the applicant is admitted for an initial period not exceeding 2 years (which can be extended or transformed into indefinite leave subject to a number of conditions). If the marriage breaks down before two years, the spouse may lose the right to remain.

Immigration rules do NOT allow entry clearance, leave to enter or leave to remain if:

- Either partner is under the age of 18
- The marriage or civil partnership is polygamous
- Unmarried partners are in a consanguineous relationship with one another

Children

Those seeking leave to enter or remain as the child of a parent, parents or relative present and settled (or being admitted for settlement) must:

- have both parents present and settled in the UK (or one parent if the other is dead; or that parent has sole responsibility for the child upbringing; or there are serious and compelling considerations which make exclusion of the child unsuitable).
- be under the age of 18
- not be leading an independent life (e.g. married, civil partner)
- be accommodated adequately by the parent/relative without recourse to public funds
- be maintained adequately by the parent/relative without recourse to public funds
- hold a valid UK entry clearance for entry in this capacity

The child is given indefinite leave to remain if the parents have indefinite leave; or limited leave if the parents have limited leave. Family members have the same rights as their sponsor to education and employment, but not to social assistance and housing.

According to MIPEX the UK is only halfway to best practice on this measure since spouses, minor children, dependent relatives and adult children must meet onerous conditions.

Labour market access

Rights to access the labour market for the main categories of migrant are as follows:

European Union citizens (except Bulgaria and Romania)

- Full right to seek and take up employment and to enter UK for work.

Bulgarian and Romanian citizens

- May seek work permit or enter under temporary schemes for low-skilled workers

Labour migrants from outside the European Union

A new five-tier immigration system aimed at rationalising the previous complex set of more than 80 routes of entry for work and study was introduced in 2005. This is based on a points system (PBS) with points based on academic qualifications, previous earnings and age. Bonus points are available for those who have previously worked or studied in the United Kingdom. The tiers are as follows

- **Tier 1:** for the highly skilled, e.g. scientists or entrepreneurs who may enter to seek work and to remain indefinitely. This replaces the Highly Skilled Migrant Programme.
- **Tier 2:** other skilled workers with a job offer, eg nurses, teachers, engineers. Employers must apply for a work permit to fulfill a specific post. Companies must register to become approved sponsors. Work permits can be renewed for up to five years, after which permanent settlement may be granted.
- **Tier 3:** low-skilled workers filling specific temporary labour shortages, eg construction workers for a particular project. This tier is now restricted to Romanians and Bulgarians who previously entered via the Sectors Based Scheme and Seasonal Agricultural Workers Scheme. All existing low-skilled migration schemes for workers from outside the EU are being phased out from January 2007.
- **Tier 4:** students. Non-EU students are automatically granted permission to take up part-time work on entry, and may work for a year on completion of their studies.
- **Tier 5:** youth mobility and temporary workers, eg working holiday makers or musicians coming to play a concert.

Only temporary settlement is permitted for the last three tiers.

Permit-free employment

Long Term Permit-free employment

Entry clearance will be granted for 12 months in the first instance and may be extended for a further 3 years.

- Media representatives
- Sole representatives of businesses
- Private servants of diplomats and domestic workers who have been employed under the same roof of the employer for at least a year before the application
- Overseas government employees
- Ministers of religion, missionaries and members of religious orders
- Operational ground staff of overseas airlines
- Patriots admitted on the basis of Ancestry (Commonwealth nationals with British-born grandparents)

(continues next page)

Labour market access (continues)

Short Term Permit-free employment

- Au pairs
- Teachers and language assistants
- The Science and Engineering Graduate Scheme

The Scottish parliament has also established its own 'Fresh Talent: Working in Scotland Scheme' which permits short term permit-free employment to certain groups.

Family reunion

- Legally resident spouses are entitled to enter employment

Asylum seekers

- Following an EU ruling, asylum seekers awaiting a decision are entitled to apply for permission to take up employment after one year.

According to **MIPEX** the labour market provisions score halfway to best practice. They enjoy equal access to employment in most sectors to EU citizens, but not to self-employment. Once they find jobs, migrants enjoy favourable workers' rights such as the right to join trade unions and to change their employer, job or profession after less than one year of legal employment.

Political participation

UK Citizens must place themselves on the electoral register in order to vote in elections and referenda. Those aged 16 or over may register and can then vote in all elections on reaching the age of 18

Commonwealth and Irish Citizens. Citizens of a Commonwealth country, a British Overseas Territory or a Crown Protectorate (the Channel Islands or the Isle of Mann) or of Ireland living in the UK who are aged 16 or over may register to vote and can then vote in all elections on reaching the age of 18

EU Citizens. Citizens of one of the 27 European Union (EU) countries aged 16 or over can register to vote in the UK. At age 18, EU citizens can vote in local and European elections in either their home country or the UK.

Non-EU Citizens. Non-EU citizens (other than the above) cannot vote in either national or local elections. All migrants may join political parties and form associations.

According to MIPEX Electoral rights score halfway to best practice. The UK has attained best practice on political liberties.

Main Sources for this chapter:

JCWI (2006) *Immigration, nationality and refugee law handbook* London: JCWI.

MIPEX (Migrants Integration Policy Index), 2007 - www.integrationindex.eu

OECD (2007) International Migration Outlook, SOPEMI Report 2007

UK Border Agency – Home Office - www.bia.homeoffice.gov.uk

Working in the UK – Home Office - www.workingintheuk.gov.uk

Electoral Commission - www.electoralcommission.org.uk

Life in the UK Test - www.lifeintheuktest.gov.uk

Conceptual Issues and Methodology

The original aim of the MITI project was to explore the development of an index of integration, using a common framework of indicators representing different aspects of the integration process. As the introduction by the lead partner explains (see page 5), this was based on methodology used in research commissioned by CNEL, the Italian National Council for the Economy and Labour. This used available statistical data to compare the average situation of migrants in different regions of Italy (see for example CNEL, 2007). From the outset, however, it was clear that this methodology could not simply be adopted by the other partners. This was due both to differences in the availability of data in the partner countries and the ways in which it was produced as well as broader concerns about whether and how such data could be analysed and used to construct a meaningful index.

As a first step, it was necessary to develop a common understanding of the meaning of integration and its various components. Following discussion at the international meetings of the project teams and a review of relevant literature and policy documents by each partner, the project partners adopted a common working definition of integration (see box on page 23). Based on this definition, we attempted to identify relevant indicators which might be used as a proxy for integration, or rather for some aspects of it. It was recognised that it was not possible to measure many of those aspects which we felt were important due to the unavailability of relevant data. Moreover, other elements of the integration process were intangible and could not be measured through quantitative data. It was also necessary to resolve the question of which group was relevant in relation to integration, and integration policies, in other words to define the meaning of ‘immigrant’ for the purposes of the project.

Following agreement on a set of indicators, each partner searched for relevant data in their own country and the list of agreed indicators was reviewed and modified on the basis of the results of this data collection exercise. It was thus an iterative process in which conceptual and methodological problems were continually debated together with the results of the data collection and the problems encountered in securing relevant data.

Much of the discussion at the project meetings concerned the methods to be employed in standardising the data in order to place it on a common scale; and the possibility and desirability constructing an overall index of integration through adding the results for the various indicators. Only a limited time was therefore available for discussion of international comparisons based on the data collected, and this aspect of the project could be developed in future work. In the following sections we first discuss briefly the meaning of integration and some issues concerning its measurement. We then discuss the definitions adopted within the project and the indicators which were identified.

The meaning of Integration

The issue of the terms under which migrants are incorporated, or integrated, into the ‘host’ state is complex and contested, reflecting national traditions of citizenship and histories of migration as well as the socioeconomic context in which it takes place. The concept on integration has its origin in Durkheim’s notion of ‘solidarity’ which referred to the general relationship of individuals to society (Schnapper, 2007) but is now generally taken to refer to the process of absorption of ‘outsiders’ - migrants – into an established social order. Indeed, the notion of ‘social cohesion’ is increasingly distinguished from integration, with the former referring to ‘diversity’ (including ethnic) within the local population, and the latter to migrants (see for example the report of Commission on Integration and Social Cohesion, 2007). This implies that migrants are to be integrated into a society of which they are not seen as full members (legally or socially) at least in the initial stages and whose culture and norms they were not involved in constructing. In the case of colonial migration, they are constructed as subordinate. The notion of ‘national values’ hides the dominance of particular languages and cultures which may be a product of histories of conquest. As Favell observed (2001:5) ‘When political actors and policy intellectuals talk about ‘integration’, they are inevitably thinking about integration into one, single, indivisible (national) ‘state’ and one simple, unitary (national) ‘society’’. British colonialism, which involved crushing or subverting pre-existing social structures, has often been justified in the name of promoting modern and

‘progressive’ values. The development of citizenship within modern states has thus counterposed ‘us’, epitomising civilised values, to ‘them’, the outsiders who needed to be tamed.

The issue of the terms on which migrants were to be incorporated arose earlier in Britain than elsewhere in Europe as a result of its longer history of migration. It was not until the aftermath of the second world war and mass migration from the Commonwealth, however, that the issue of integration became established on the political agenda. This migration was initially expected to be temporary but as established communities developed, their role in British society became a pressing issue. Migrants were initially expected to assimilate to the norms and culture of the ‘host’ society. Thinking about integration became more complex as it became clear that many migrants were not prepared to assimilate into the ‘host’ society but retained distinct cultural, religious and linguistic traditions and transnational ties with their homeland. Moreover, racism and discrimination prevented the unproblematic assimilation of migrants and their children into British society, with inequalities based on ethnicity become established in relation to employment, housing and other social indicators. A series of Race Relations legislation, initiated in 1968, outlawed discrimination in employment although they did little to tackle the roots of these inequalities. Although national policy continued to promote the view that integration takes place primarily through the labour market (Soysal, 1994), various forms of multicultural policies were also adopted which promoted the importance of acknowledging and valuing diversity (Castles and Davidson, 2000). These were implemented primarily at local level by individual local authorities or schools (Gilborn, 1995) and were often criticised as being superficial and based on static and conservative notions of ‘culture’ (Yuval Davis, 1997). It was in the field of refugee integration, a growing issue during the 1990s, that the government started to address integration more directly. It commissioned research on this issue (Carey Wood *et. al.*, 1995, Castles *et. al.*, 2001) although the policy measures developed were limited.

In the context of the called ‘war on terror’ there have been increasingly strident attacks on multiculturalism, particularly aimed at Muslims, and a growing concern with the promotion of ‘British values’. The path to integration and citizenship has involved increasing obligations in relation to behaviour and knowledge.

Integration is thus a contested and complex process in which expectations about the attitudes and behaviour of the various actors (immigrants, nationals, the state, service providers) have been shifting and often conflict. Nevertheless, with the increasing importance of immigration within Europe, the concept of integration has become embedded in official discourse within the EU as well as individual states (D’Angelo, 2006). Policymakers need a ‘descriptive and umbrella term to give coherence – at least on the surface - to a set of often conflicting immigration policies and, more generally, to the attempt to manage a multicultural society’ Favell (2001: 13). This involves establishing definitions of integration on which such policies can be based.

Towards a definition of integration

In developing definitions of integration, policy makers at EU and state level have drawn heavily on academic research both directly through commissioning reports and indirectly through the way in which the general literature has informed their thinking. A first step towards an EU definition of integration was the European Commission’s ‘Communication on Immigration, Integration and Employment’ of June 2003 (Commission of the European Communities (2003). This defined integration as:

a two-way process based on mutual rights and corresponding obligations of legally resident third country nationals and the host society which provides for full participation of the immigrant. This implies on the one hand that it is the responsibility of the host society to ensure that the formal rights of immigrants are in place in such a way that the individual has the possibility of participating in economic, social, cultural and civil life and on the other, that immigrants respect the fundamental norms and values of the host society and participate actively in the integration process, without having to relinquish their own identity.

The communication was followed by a report for the European Commission “Benchmarking of Immigrant

Integration” by researchers at ERCOMER in the Netherlands (Entzinger and Biezeveld, 2003).³ This distinguished two major elements:

- a structural dimension, involving participation in the major institutions of a society, such as the labour market, education and health care system,
- a cultural dimension or ‘acculturation’ which it described as the changes in immigrants’ cultural orientation and identification.

The report identified four ‘domains’ of integration: socio-economic; cultural; legal and political; and the attitudes of the recipient society. It also identified possible indicators for each domain. In 2004 the EU member states adopted a set of Common Basic Principles (CBP) on migrants’ integration. These principles (see box below), while reiterating the general points in the Commission’s definition, did not themselves amount to a definition. They contained elements of earlier definitions together with policy measures deemed necessary to promote integration and an exhortation to establish goals based on indicators of integration. The last is the basis of the current INTI programme. The CBPs were not binding, a fact which was described as a major weakness in a subsequent report to the Commission (Niessen and Huddleston, 2007).

The common Basic Principles (CBP)

1. Integration is a dynamic, two-way process of mutual accommodation by all immigrants and residents of Member States
2. Integration implies respect for the basic values of the EU.
3. Employment is a key part of the integration process and is central to the participation of immigrants, to the contributions immigrants make to the host society, and to make such contributions visible.
4. Basic knowledge of the host society’s language, history and institutions is indispensable to integration; enabling immigrants to acquire this basic knowledge is essential to successful integration.
5. Efforts in education are critical to preparing immigrants, and particularly their descendents to be more successful and more active participants in society.
6. Access for immigrants to institutions, as well as to public and private goods and services, on a basis equal to national citizens and in a non-discriminatory way is a critical foundation for better integration.
7. Frequent interaction between immigrants and Member State citizens is a fundamental mechanism for integration. Shared forums, inter-cultural dialogue, education about immigrants and immigrant cultures, and stimulating living conditions in urban environments enhance the interactions between immigrants and Member State citizens.
8. The practice of diverse cultures and religions is guaranteed under the Charter of Fundamental Rights and must be safeguarded, unless practices conflict with other inviolable European rights and with national law.
9. The participation of immigrants in the democratic process and in the formulation of integration policies and measures, especially at the local level, supports their integration.
10. Mainstreaming integration policies and measures in all relevant policy portfolios and levels of government and public services is an important consideration in public policy formation and implementation.
11. Developing clear goals, indicators and evaluation mechanisms are necessary to adjust policy, to evaluate progress on integration and to make the exchange of information more effective.

Source: Council of the European Union, 2004

In parallel with the EU, member states developed their own policies and definitions. In 1996 the British Home Office commissioned a five-year research project on integration. The final report, Integration: Mapping the Field (Castles et al., 2001) concluded that: ‘There is no single, generally accepted definition, theory or model of immigrant and refugee integration. The concept continues to be controversial and debated’. It suggested,

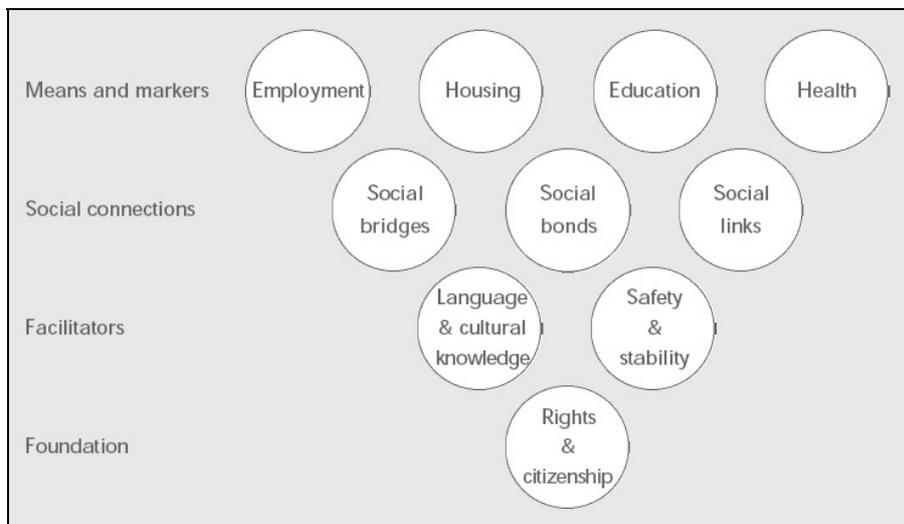
³ European Research Centre on Migration and Ethnic Relations (ERCOMER) based at the Erasmus University, Rotterdam.

however, that a number of themes consistently recurred within the over 40 formal definitions reviewed and proposed a working definition:

An individual or group is integrated within a society when they: achieve public outcomes within employment, housing, education, health, etc. which are equivalent to those achieved within the wider host communities, and are in active relationship with members of their ethnic or national community, wider host communities and relevant services and function of the state, in a manner consistent with shared notions of nationhood and citizenship in that society.

On the basis of this definition, the Home Office developed a framework for integration for use in local planning and evaluation in the field of refugee integration (Home Office, 2004b). This consists of ten domains, grouped into four themes (Figure 1). Potential indicators were identified within each domain but the report acknowledged that ‘it is unlikely that all indicators listed will be relevant or feasible as measures’.

Figure 2 – The Home Office’s “Indicators of Integration Framework”



Source: Home Office, 2004

Unsurprisingly, the debate among policy makers has not produced a single, commonly accepted definition of integration. Those outlined above prioritise different dimensions although they also contain some common elements. Integration is seen as implying minimal levels of material well-being and as dependent on the ability to exercise rights. It is also described as a complex, multi-level process, including tangible and intangible elements. The former are potentially measurable subject to the availability of adequate data while for the latter measurement remains difficult if not impossible. Integration is acknowledged to be a two-way process rather than a one-way route in which migrants are expected to conform to the norms of the ‘host’ culture. Integration is also to be based on a clear set of rights within the host nation. This vision appears, however, to contrast with actual policy developments at European and national level.

One particularly contentious area has been the notion of ‘shared values’ which is contained in the CBP and is increasingly evident in current notions of ‘Britishness’. These values are generally taken to mean commitment to principles such as freedom, democracy and human rights. In invoking these universal values, they lay claim to them as uniquely British (or European). In a speech in 2006, Prime Minister Tony Blair claimed that Britain’s ‘essential values’ were ‘belief in democracy, the rule of law, tolerance, equal treatment for all, respect for this country and its shared heritage’ ... ‘is what we hold in common; it is what gives us the right to call ourselves British’.⁴ At the same time, however, migrants are required to respect the specific histories and values of European states. This contradiction is encapsulated in the oath which new British citizens are required to swear, which demands allegiance to both ‘democratic values’ and to the hereditary monarchy. Migrants, as well as

⁴ 8/12/2006 speech by Tony Blair “The Duty to Integrate: Shared British Values” (see www.number-10.gov.uk/output/Page10563.asp)

many nationals, may reject a notion of 'Britishness' or 'Europeanness' which does not acknowledge inequalities while at the same claiming unique ownership of progressive values.

More broadly, the relationship between rights and obligations has been increasingly contentious. The British definition above emphasises rights as a foundation for other elements of integration, with knowledge of the language seen as a 'facilitator'. Increasingly policies are proceeding in a contrary direction, with the rights of citizenship granted only on the basis of knowledge of the language.

The working definition of integration adopted by the partners in the MITI project included many aspects of the official definitions, including its multi-faceted nature, encompassing both material conditions and broader aspects of belonging to a society. At its base is the notion of rights, which are seen as the basis for integration rather than being conditional on fulfilling obligations. Moreover, the notion of values involves mutual obligations. Clearly only limited aspects of this are measurable through official statistics, primarily those concerned with 'material resources'. The issue of rights, has been discussed above in relation to policy and was the area on which MIPEX focused.

MITI Project Working Definition of Integration

Integration is the condition (or process) of feeling a full and active member of the society in which one lives, having the means and opportunities to participate, as far as one chooses, in the wider society within the context of adherence by both migrants and the 'host' society to universal human rights. It encompasses:

- **Rights** – both formal access to social, civil and political rights; and substantive access to rights (e.g. non-discrimination, freedom from harassment)
- **Ability to act independently** - knowledge of language/structures of society (e.g. how to access services)
- **Material resources** to participate in all aspects of life within the community (e.g. adequate housing; employment appropriate to skills/qualifications; access to education and health)
- Extensive local **networks** – social/emotional and instrumental
- **Sense of belonging/being at home/trust** – ability to choose to maintain adapt and reject aspects of cultural traditions from country of origin/host country; presence of national/ethnic group 'taken for granted' – visibility within the mainstream

Measuring integration

The measurement of integration and the setting of goals and targets was a key element of the Common Basic Principles. Measurement of integration, however, like other complex social processes, raises serious practical and conceptual problems. It can reduce these processes to specific outcomes in order to provide targets which can be monitored. In immigration policy, preoccupation with targets has led to a concentration on areas where measurable targets can be found, such as the 'removal' of asylum seekers (Somerville, 2006). As the definition discussed above suggest, integration contains elements which are hard to measure using existing data.

Measurement needs to be based on a clear definition of the concept to be measured and the characteristics associated with this concept and only then can appropriate indicators be identified (Levitas, 2006). In spite of the complex understandings of integration contained in official and other definitions, in attempting to measure the phenomenon there may be a tendency to reverse this process, using those statistics which are available and which will have been generated for other purposes. Preoccupation with measurement can also lead to confusion between the object (integration) which it is intended to measure and the specific indicator (e.g. labour market participation) used as a proxy for this object. The indicator becomes reified as the object itself. These may not reflect the concept adequately and contain serious ambiguities in relation to integration. In addition, in relation to British statistics, the available data on key indicators often relate to ethnicity rather than country of birth and are therefore of limited value in relation to immigration.

The 'measurement' of integration may imply that it is a teleological process, whose end point is inclusion or integration into an existing society, an assumption embedded in measures comparing average levels of social and economic welfare (by existing measures) with that of migrants. According to Niessen and Schibel (2004) 'indicators should have a clear and explicit normative interpretation: users should know which direction of change represents progress'. As Schoorl (2005: 21) suggests, however, judgement on what constitutes success or failure in socio-cultural integration 'should not be passed too easily, as the elimination of differences in this domain is not necessarily the societal or political goal'. Moreover if integration is a two way process, the end product will be different from the starting point rather than the attainment of a common level. The process may also be non-linear, with movement both towards and away from integration, as the political and social context changes. The complexity of integration also means that progress in one dimension may not necessarily imply progress in another dimension and that 'one type of integration can occur without the other' (Schoorl, 2005: 21).

Finally, the search for 'measurable' aspects of integration ignores the intangible elements which may be just as important and which are fundamental to the 'holistic approach' supported by the European Commission.⁵ The ERCOMER report, for example, argues that focusing on specific aspects such as the labour market where comparative data for member states is available is methodologically justifiable, though they admit that this implies benchmarking is possible "only in a modest way" (Entzinger and Biezeveld, 2003:45). Immigrants have rarely had a voice in the debate on integration but where they have offered a view, they have tended to emphasise the intangible aspects (see for example Refugee Women's Association, 2004). The imperative of measurement tends to promote a narrow notion of integration which runs counter to the acknowledgement of the complexity of the phenomenon and the range of dimensions, material, social and psychic, which it involves.

These issues are intensified in indices which bring together a range of available data in order to gain a broader view of integration. The difficulties in constructing indices have been widely debated in relation to other complex processes, such as poverty and social exclusion (see for example Pantazis *et al.*, 2006). These require the various factors to be appropriately weighted and their relevance to the process tested both theoretically and through statistical techniques. If the limitations of the data and the partial nature of such indices are not fully acknowledged, the results can be misinterpreted and be potentially dangerous if used to develop policy. Our research has suggested the need to be very cautious about what can be achieved. Indeed, following the launch of the interim reports in Rome, the leading Italian newspaper *La Repubblica* reported on the index which our Italian partners had constructed as if it represented an unproblematic notion of 'integration'.⁶ No mention was

⁵ The European Commission communication (COM(2003) 336final) recommended that policy makers take into account "not only the economic and social aspects of integration but also issues related to cultural and religious diversity, citizenship, participation and political rights".

⁶ *La Repubblica*, March 8 2008

made of the fact that they had stated that it represented only certain aspects of ‘integration’, nor of the limitations of the data on which it was based.

Defining an immigrant

It was crucial to agree on the relevant group of ‘immigrants’ whose integration was to be measured. The definition of a migrant is complex, depending on national policies as well as histories of migration which determine which groups are perceived as migrants and ‘outsiders’. In some European states, for example, children of migrants may be described officially as migrants even when they are born in that state.

One key distinction is whether migrants are defined as those born in another state or as having a nationality other than that of the state in which they reside. While there is much overlap between these two groups, they are distinct (see Table 10, page 38). The first definition may include nationals who have repatriated (a major issue in relation to Portugal where Portuguese nationals born in former colonies are not defined or perceived as ‘immigrants’). The second definition excludes migrants who have taken out citizenship in their country of immigration. This is a relatively small group in many European countries though more significant in the UK and in France. In view of the focus of the INTI programme on non-EU nationals, it was decided to base our definition on nationality rather than country of birth and to restrict it (where the data were available) to non-EU nationals. We recognised, however, that this choice imposes limitations which are particularly significant for the UK.

The term ‘non-EU national’ encompasses a diverse range of national groups, including the most privileged as well as disadvantaged migrants. This problem arises in quantitative data in general since it attempts to add up using a common measure what may be very distinct experiences. In relation to migration, for example, there is huge diversity within as well as between national groups. The notion of the ‘average’ migrant experience may therefore be of limited value. The literature on migrants integration, show that there are different typologies of integration for different groups or sub-groups (see for example Spencer, 2006). In recognition of this problem, it was decided to add an additional element in the data collection, producing case studies of particular national groups. In the British case the groups chosen were Australian, Bangladeshi, Chinese and Poles. All were among the most significant groups in relation either to stock or flow of migrants and they represented a diverse range of migratory experiences, as the brief descriptions in the box below illustrates. We included one EU national group, Poles, which raised broader questions about the categories of EU and non-EU.

Australians – As part of the ‘Old Commonwealth’, the Australian population was until relatively recently predominantly composed of settlers from Europe, including Britain, and their descendants. Most Australian migrants to Britain are therefore white. Although the largest group migrating to Britain during the 1990s, the Australian population is only the tenth national group, reflecting temporary migration. Large numbers of young professionals enter through the Commonwealth Working Holiday Scheme, with time spent in Europe seen as a ‘rite of passage’ before settling down back home. It is, however, relatively easy to switch immigration status and prolong their stay.

Bangladeshis – A ‘New Commonwealth’ groups, Bangladeshis migrated to Britain in the post-war period to work in manufacturing industry and the restaurant trade. Recent migration has been predominantly family reunion but labour migration continuing. Many migrants originate from rural rather than urban backgrounds and are of low social status. A high proportion of those identifying as of Bangladeshi ethnicity are British nationals by birth or acquisition. They are one of the most disadvantaged ethnic groups in Britain in terms of socio economic status and educational attainment.

Chinese – The Chinese population in Britain is highly diverse. Large scale migration took place from Hong Kong after World War Two. This group were British citizens and are concentrated in the restaurant trade and spatially dispersed. Recent migration has been predominantly from mainland China and includes professionals and business people as well as asylum seekers and undocumented migrants. People with Chinese ethnicity have the highest earnings and children have the highest level of achievement in education of any ethnic group in Britain. While seen as ‘model minority’, they are also subject to racism and stereotyping.

Poles – There are relatively small numbers remaining from the group which migrated from Poland during and after the Second World War and they are highly integrated in Britain. Large scale migration began in the 1980s, but new migrants have little connection with established communities. Migration has accelerated since EU accession 2004 and become more diverse with Poles starting to enter professional occupations as well as unskilled work in Britain. Though expected to be temporary migrants, many are now remaining long term.

Establishing a base-line for measuring integration

A second issue was whether to attempt to measure the absolute level of migrant experience in relation to specific indicators or to compare this with that of nationals. The advantage of the latter is that it places migrants' situation in relation to the local context in which they are resident. The absolute figures without reference to local conditions would tell us little about integration in that particular society. On the other hand, as we suggest above, the measurement of the gap between migrants and nationals (in most cases a negative one in the sense that migrants do worse on these measures) suggests that integration involves progress towards some desirable 'norm' which has been reached by nationals. In spite of this problem, it was decided to choose the former method as telling us more about the process of integration.

The Regional Dimension

The project was based on comparing the situation in different regions within a state. It took as the relevant regions those designated by the EU in relation to its regional policy. The regional dimension, however, has very different meanings in different partner countries in relation both to policy making institutions and to sense of identification. In Italy, for example, regional elected officials are a major layer within the political system, while regional identification is important in relation to belonging and identify. In the UK, however, apart from Wales, Scotland and Northern Ireland and in some ways London, these regions have little relevance to policy making or to individuals' sense of belonging and identity (see page 8).

The Indicators identified

In seeking to identify indicators of integration, we took as our starting point the three main areas used in the CNEL reports for Italy. These were: overview of the non-EU population, social conditions and the labour market. These could provide some indication of the extent to which migrants had achieved a basis for social and economic inclusion. In identifying indicators, two issues were important:

- A clear relationship to integration
- The availability of data: this had to be available on the basis of nationality and broken down by region.

The following indicators were identified:

Population

All partners were able to collect these data broken down by region, except in relation to one indicator for France. These data provide useful background information about the extent of migrant settlement and thus may suggest which regions have attracted migrants. They do not tell us anything directly about integration though they are useful when looked at in relation to other indicators.

Common MITI Indicators on Migrant Population

- 1.1 - Non EU population: regional proportion of the national total
- 1.2 - Non EU population: proportion in each region
- 1.3 - Non EU population change - 1996-2006
- 1.4 - Non EU population who have been in the UK for 5 years or more

Social Conditions

The range of available data on this aspect varied for each partner but in no case was it possible to provide a comprehensive overview of what partners considered to be the main issues relevant to integration. For Britain, the main areas where some data was available are as follows:

Housing: the quality and type of housing was judged to be a good indicator of social conditions. In Britain, the Census gives data on the occupancy rate of housing and therefore provides a measure of the level of overcrowding. This data, however, is available only by ethnicity rather than nationality, and therefore cannot give any direct measure of integration.

Health: Health is a crucial dimension of integration but the only measure based on nationality in Britain is the proportion with a disability. These included a general definition based on the Disability Discrimination Act (DDA) which includes those who have a long-term disability which substantially limits their day-to-day activities and a more narrow definition, work-limiting disability, which includes those who have a long-term disability which affects the kind or amount of work they might do. These are based on self-report and the likelihood of describing oneself as 'disabled' may vary by nationality due to cultural norms and taboos concerning illness. Health status itself is likely to be a poor indicator since the health of migrants, particularly recent migrants, is likely to be relatively good due to self-selection for migration and the age structure of the migrant population. This measure, therefore, while providing interesting information, can not be seen as a measure of integration.

Certain indicators, (infant mortality, life expectancy and maternal death rate) are well-established as providing a good measure of overall socioeconomic well being. None of these measures are, however, available in Britain by country of birth. Furthermore, the relevant criterion for integration may be the ability to access health services (e.g. GP registration, take up of maternal health care services) an issue which is partially reflected in data on infant mortality and so on.

Mixed marriage: The proportion of marriages which are 'mixed' in the sense that they involve partners of different nationality, may give an indication of integration in that they reflect social connections which spread wider than the national group. There are however problems of interpretation since a 'mixed marriage' may involve two people of different nationality but of the same national origin if one of the partners was either born in Britain or has acquired British nationality. Such a marriage may therefore not reflect integration into the wider society.

British data is available for marriage based on ethnicity rather than nationality and thus does not relate to migrant integration as such. It nevertheless provides some interesting results and has been included in the tables below. These data are not available broken down by region.

Education: Access to education provides another dimension relevant to integration. Relevant indicators might include the proportion of children who stay on at school beyond the compulsory leaving age, or achievement in public examinations. No comprehensive data broken down by nationality is available in Britain.

In summary, there was no single indicator within this group which met the criterion of data availability and an unambiguous relation to integration.

Common MITI Indicators on Socio-Economic Conditions

- 2.1 - Population in overcrowded accommodation (Difference between nationals and non-EU)
- 2.2 - Health (Difference between nationals and non-EU)
- 2.3 - Mixed Marriages

The Labour market

Data on the labour market were more similar between the partners since much comes from the Labour Force Survey which has been standardised across EU states.

Unemployment: unemployment is a good indicator of disadvantage in relation to specific groups of nationals (e.g. in relation to ethnicity, age) but its relation to integration is ambiguous. It reflects migrant history (recent migrants are less likely to be unemployed) and the legislation (since certain groups do not have the right to claim unemployment benefits, or to remain in the country when unemployed).

Sector of Activity: Information on the sectors in which migrants work provides an important dimension to labour market integration and is especially useful when broken by nationality which allows us to identify labour market niches. The data, however, cannot be placed on a linear scale since sectors are not hierarchical.

Occupational Status: The proportion of people in high status occupations relates to integration but in order for this to measure the extent to which people are able to find work at an appropriate level it needs to be analysed in relation to educational level. We therefore cross-tabulated the data on high status occupations (management and professional) with that on high educational level (a university degree). This gave an indicator of deskilling.

Activity rate: The relationship of the activity rate (the proportion of the population of working age in the labour force, i.e. in employment or seeking work) to integration is complex. Low activity rates may reflect high proportions in education at the lower end of the age spectrum (and thus relative advantage) while at the upper end it may result from sickness or injury (and thus relative disadvantage) but also the ability to retire early (thus relative advantage). Migrants are likely to have high activity rates, especially recent migrants who may have migrated primarily for employment.

We introduced this indicator in order to have an indicator of women's involvement in the public sphere. Among women, however, there are more complex considerations concerning life course and family situation as well as cultural norms concerning women's access to employment which may come into conflict with the need for women to take up employment in order to relieve family poverty due to male marginalisation in the labour force (Sales and Gregory, 1998).

Income: Income levels, particularly when analysed in relation to occupation, provide a good indicator of favourable labour market integration. While there was some data on migrants' income in the Labour Force Survey the response rate to this question was so low (less than 1% for non-UK residents) that the data was not meaningful and thus could not be included.

In summary, the index of deskilling (occupational status cross tabulated with educational level) was the only indicator in this section for which the data was available and whose relationship to integration was clear. We have thus also analysed this by gender and national groups.

Common MITI Indicators on Labour Market

- 3.1 - Unemployment rates (Difference between nationals and non-EU)
- 3.2 - Distribution by sector of activity
- 3.3 - People in high occupational status (difference between nationals and Non EU)
- 3.4 - People with high qualification (difference between nationals and Non EU)
- 3.5 - Activity Rates (difference between Non EU and UK)
- 3.6 - Average income (difference between Non EU and UK)

Comparing the data

In order to assist the comparison of the results for each indicator across regions, the data was transferred into a common framework using a 100 point scoring system with a minimum of 1 to a maximum of 100, distributing scores for intermediate absolute values in proportion to their deviation from the mean.

It should be emphasised that these scales refer only to the national context. The maximum value of an indicator was based on the top national score rather than an absolute value based on any notion of 'ideal' value or best practice. They cannot therefore be used directly to make an international comparison.

Results and data analysis

This section includes the tables based on the statistics discussed above. We have grouped them into the three areas and we comment on each indicator. The tables are numbered sequentially and those which are based on the MITI indicators are identified as such.

We have also added tables for the selected national groups but these are not broken down by region since the sample size in the Labour Force Survey was too small to produce reliable results. Where this was attempted many values were given as 100 % or 0%.

Issues of data availability

The UK **Census** is still the most widely used statistical source in research and policy reports on migration. The main strength of the Census is that it is a ‘universal’ survey, collecting data at every geographical level (from the national to the smallest local). It is also relatively easy to access and widely recognised in the mainstream as a ‘reliable’ source. On the other hand, the Census is limited by its low frequency (only every ten years) and, in relation to foreign population, by the fact that nationality is not included as a variable.⁷ Although information on country of birth is also collected, ethnicity is still the key dimension in most publicly available datasets and is used in a large number of studies on minority groups. The traditional 16 ethnic categories, mainly based on colonial and post-colonial immigration, appear inadequate to capture the super-diversity (Vertovec, 2006) of today’s Britain.⁸

Other statistical sources can be used to overcome some of the limitations of the Census and are employed - on their own or in conjunction with other data - to map the characteristics of migrants. In particular, the **Labour Force Survey** (LFS), although initially developed as a source of information on the labour market, has become increasingly useful in providing insights on the UK population as a whole. The LFS is a quarterly survey of households living at private addresses in the UK. Although not a ‘universal’ survey, unlike the Census, it is intended to be representative of the whole population. The population covered is all people resident in private households, all persons resident in National Health Service accommodation and young people living away from the parental home in a student hall of residence or similar institution during term time. The sample design currently consists of about 55,000 responding households in Great Britain, representing about 0.2% of the GB population. The sample size, however, is too small to allow a regional breakdown by national groups.

The data used in this report are mainly based on the LFS 2006, and the yearly data has been calculated as the average of four consecutive quarters for this report (as recommended by the LFS users guidelines). Whenever possible, we have based our indicators on the LFS as the most recent source. Where variables (indicators) agreed within the MITI project are not available from the LFS, the Census 2001 has been used. In this case the statistics are based on ethnicity and/or country of birth.

LFS data broken down by nationality have been used very little in previous research. Moreover, the standard groups of countries devised by the ONS do not include EU / non-EU countries as such. All the figures in this report have been computed from scratch - working on the raw archive of about 480,000 records – and can therefore be considered an original set of data.

⁷ Cross tables showing an example - based on the LFS - of the relations between Ethnicity, Nationality and Country of Birth are given on page 38.

⁸ A consultation on user needs for ethnicity, national identity, language and religion information from the 2011 Census in England and Wales took place between December 2006 and March 2007. The review considered issues such as: categories included and excluded; collecting national identity data separately from ethnic group data; allowing multiple responses in the ethnic group question. The responses to this consultation should inform further question development.

(1) Indicators of migrant population

Population by Nationality

The total non-EU population in the UK is over 2 million, with the non-EU proportion of the population varying between 1.0% in Northern Ireland and 12.5% in London. London has both the largest absolute number and proportion of migrants. Two fifths (40.4%) of the non-UK population are concentrated in London (and 43.1% of the non-EU population) reflecting the capital's dominance in the UK economically, financially, politically and culturally. The South East region has the second highest figure, reflecting its nearness to London and its prosperity and thus buoyant labour market.

Northern Ireland is a region of more recent migration. It has only 1.6% of the non-EU but 3.5% of the non-UK population, probably reflecting the high number of Irish citizens living in Northern Ireland.

In relation to our national groups, Australians, Bangladeshis and Chinese nationals all represent 0.1% of the population, while the Poles are higher at 0.4%, reflecting the recent growth in the population. The relatively low figures for Bangladeshis and Chinese may reflect the fact that a large proportion of people of Bangladeshi and Chinese ethnicity are British citizens (including second, third and fourth generations born in the UK). Most Poles in the UK are relatively recent migrants while Australians tend to be temporary migrants. In relation to ethnic categories, both would be classified as 'white'.

There is a higher than average concentration of Australians and Bangladeshis in London while this is lower for Chinese and Poles. This may reflect differential labour market niches. Poles have become increasingly dispersed according to figures from the Workers Registration Scheme, although these figures apply only to 'registered' workers.

Population Change

The non-UK population has increased in all regions except Northern Ireland where it has declined significantly. This may reflect specific changes in the Irish political context. In most UK regions the increase in the non-UK population exceeds (or counterbalances the fall) in the UK population

London and the South East have experienced the largest absolute increase, while the North East had the smallest. The largest percentage increase was in Wales, but it started with a low base while London's percentage increase was the smallest though the largest in absolute numbers. London and the South East together accounted for over half (57.4%) of the increase with 12.8% in the East. The latter may reflect the concentration of many new migrants in agricultural employment.

In general the figures indicate the continuing dominance of London as a pole of attraction for new migrants, but also the increasing dispersion of these new migrants across UK regions. It should be noted that the figures are for non-UK rather than non-EU. The tables broken down by nationality suggest that different national groups have very different patterns of growth across the regions.

Length of residence

It was not possible to disaggregate by all nationalities in the available LFS 1996 dataset. More than half of all non-EU nationals have been resident for over 5 years and can thus be said to be long term (and possibly permanent) residents. Regional variations are relatively low, although the proportion in Wales is considerably lower than in England and Scotland. The proportion in Northern Ireland is less than half the UK average, reflecting relatively recent migration (the region has traditionally been an area of emigration). London's proportion is slightly higher than the national average reflecting its role as both a first port of call for new migrants and a place of settlement.

The national case studies show significant differences, with Australians and Chinese nationals having a slightly lower proportion resident for more than 5 years while for Bangladeshis this is much higher. The proportion for Poles is much lower reflecting recent migration, especially following EU accession. There are substantial

regional differences but the figures should be treated with caution due to the small sample size. For Australians the proportion in London is low, probably reflecting temporary (professional) migration to the capital, especially through the Working Holiday Scheme. The 100% figure for Wales probably reflects the small sample size. For Poles on the other hand, the highest proportion of long-term residents is in London where migration during the 1980s and 1990s was concentrated. The Bangladeshi long-term resident population is relatively even spread reflecting the larger settled community while the figures for Chinese figures show substantial variations, with Scotland and Northern Ireland the highest.

The relation between nationality, country of birth and ethnicity

These tables show the complexity of migration history in the UK and thus the limitations of basing indicators of integration on nationality alone.

Nationality and country of birth

There is of course a strong relationship between nationality and country of birth, but 4.6% of UK citizens were born outside UK, while 42.9% of those born outside the UK have British nationality. This suggests a relatively high rate of nationalisation in Britain. This means that over two fifths of people who have migrated to Britain are not included in the figures for foreign nationals.

Nationality and ethnicity

Nearly 90% of the UK population defines themselves as white British, with 11% defining themselves as belonging to other ethnic groups. The non-EU population includes a higher proportion of non whites (over 70%) but includes 4.4% who define themselves as 'white British'.

Table 4a - UK Population by Nationality (thousands)

	Total	UK	Non UK	Non EU	EU	Australia	Bangla.	China	Poland
North East	2,451.9	2,391.5	60.4	45.7	14.7	0.7	2.2	3.8	2.3
North West	6,623.5	6,398.1	225.5	138.2	87.3	3.8	6.2	7.8	20.4
Yorkshire and Hum.	4,921.9	4,727.2	194.7	113.9	80.9	2.2	3.3	5.3	21.5
East Midlands	4,203.9	4,027.3	176.6	87.1	89.6	2.4	0.3	3.8	27.2
West Midlands	5,232.0	4,984.1	247.9	171.5	76.4	2.6	6.6	3.2	15.7
Eastern	5,458.9	5,177.8	281.1	165.9	115.2	6.4	4.1	5.0	21.4
London	7,352.3	5,957.7	1,394.5	919.3	475.2	43.1	39.6	22.2	75.5
South East	8,088.8	7,636.6	452.2	272.7	179.5	14.1	6.5	10.2	24.5
South West	4,954.7	4,803.5	151.2	86.9	64.3	2.5	1.0	5.5	12.9
Wales	2,898.8	2,829.7	69.0	38.6	30.5	2.1	2.7	1.2	3.6
Scotland	4,955.8	4,819.8	136.0	74.5	61.5	5.6	0.5	1.8	13.0
Northern Ireland	1,698.2	1,638.8	59.4	17.6	41.8	1.1	0.3	0.9	4.6
UNITED KINGDOM	58,840.8	55,392.2	3,448.6	2,131.8	1,316.8	86.6	73.3	70.7	242.6

Table 4b - UK Population by Nationality (% by nationality)

	Total	UK	Non UK	Non EU	EU	Australia	Bangla.	China	Poland
North East	100.0	97.5	2.5	1.9	0.6	0.0	0.1	0.2	0.1
North West	100.0	96.6	3.4	2.1	1.3	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.3
Yorkshire and Hum.	100.0	96.0	4.0	2.3	1.6	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.4
East Midlands	100.0	95.8	4.2	2.1	2.1	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.6
West Midlands	100.0	95.3	4.7	3.3	1.5	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.3
Eastern	100.0	94.9	5.1	3.0	2.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.4
London	100.0	81.0	19.0	12.5	6.5	0.6	0.5	0.3	1.0
South East	100.0	94.4	5.6	3.4	2.2	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.3
South West	100.0	96.9	3.1	1.8	1.3	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.3
Wales	100.0	97.6	2.4	1.3	1.1	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.1
Scotland	100.0	97.3	2.7	1.5	1.2	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.3
Northern Ireland	100.0	96.5	3.5	1.0	2.5	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.3
UNITED KINGDOM	100.0	94.1	5.9	3.6	2.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.4

Source: MITI project elaboration on LFS 2006

Figure 3 - Percentage of non-EU population in UK Regions



Source: LFS 2006
Map boundaries: Crown Copyright

Proportion of migrant population

Table 5 - (MITI 1.1) Non EU population: regional proportion of the national total

Rank	Region	Non EU		
		Number	%	MITI 1.1
1	London	919,330	43.1	100
2	South East	272,745	12.8	29
3	West Midlands	171,458	8.0	18
4	Eastern	165,853	7.8	17
5	North West	138,192	6.5	14
6	Yorkshire and Hum.	113,873	5.3	12
7	East Midlands	87,083	4.1	9
8	South West	86,854	4.1	9
9	Scotland	74,475	3.5	7
10	North East	45,743	2.1	4
11	Wales	38,553	1.8	3
12	Northern Ireland	17,628	0.8	1
	UNITED KINGDOM	2,131,785	100.0	-

Source: MITI Project elaborations on LFS 2006.

Table 6 - (MITI 1.2) Non EU population: proportion in each region

Rank	Region	Total population	Non EU		
			Number	%	MITI 1.2
1	London	7,352,291	919,330	12.5	100
2	South East	8,088,836	272,745	3.4	21
3	West Midlands	5,231,985	171,458	3.3	20
4	Eastern	5,458,931	165,853	3.0	18
5	Yorkshire and Hum.	4,921,933	113,873	2.3	12
6	North West	6,623,545	138,192	2.1	10
7	East Midlands	4,203,945	87,083	2.1	10
8	North East	2,451,891	45,743	1.9	8
9	South West	4,954,659	86,854	1.8	7
10	Scotland	4,955,783	74,475	1.5	5
11	Wales	2,898,768	38,553	1.3	4
12	Northern Ireland	1,698,235	17,628	1.0	1
	UNITED KINGDOM	58,840,799	2,131,785	3.6	

Source: MITI Project elaborations on LFS 2006.

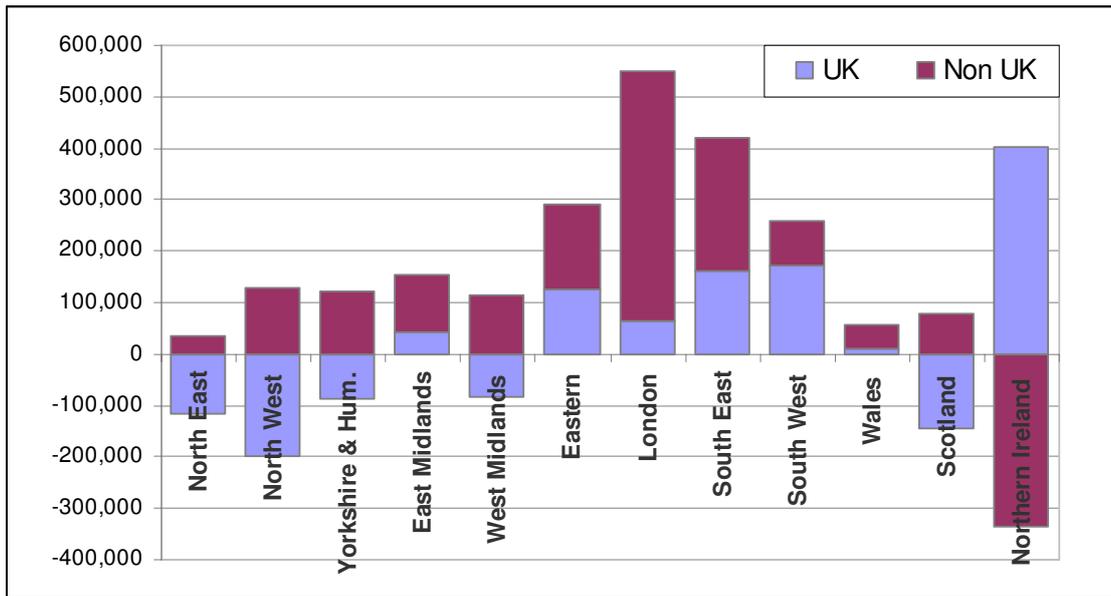
Population Change

Table 7 - (MITI 1.3) Non UK population change - 1996-2006 (thousands)

Rank	Region	Non-UK 1996	Non-UK 2006	Change 2006-1996		
				Number	%	MITI 1.3
1	Wales	31.3	78.6	47.3	151.3	100
2	East Midlands	75.5	186.7	111.2	147.4	98
3	North East	24.7	58.8	34.0	137.7	94
4	Yorkshire & Hum.	94.8	216.5	121.7	128.4	90
5	Eastern	136.3	301.8	165.4	121.3	87
6	South West	73.7	161.8	88.1	119.7	87
7	Scotland	67.5	144.7	77.2	114.3	84
8	South East	226.4	484.7	258.4	114.1	84
9	North West	124.6	252.6	128.0	102.7	80
10	West Midlands	145.5	260.0	114.4	78.6	69
11	London	906.5	1,392.4	485.9	53.6	59
12	Northern Ireland	397.5	61.4	-336.2	-84.6	1
	UNITED KINGDOM	2,304.4	3,600.0	1,295.6	56.2	

Source: MITI Project elaborations on LFS data (quarterly surveys: Nov. 1996 - Dec. 2006)

Figure 4 - Components of Population change 1996 - 2006



Source: MITI Project elaborations on LFS data (quarterly surveys: Nov. 1996 - Dec. 2006)

Length of residence

Table 8 - (MITI 1.4) Non EU foreign born people who have been in the UK for at least 5 years

Rank	Region	All Non EU*	Non EU resident for at least 5 years		
			Number	%	MITI 1.4
1	London	862.7	509.4	59.1	100
2	West Midlands	157.3	84.9	54.0	87
3	East Midlands	82.7	42.9	51.9	81
4	South East	258.1	131.0	50.8	78
5	Eastern	155.1	77.9	50.2	76
6	Scotland	71.0	35.0	49.2	74
7	North West	126.7	61.2	48.3	71
8	South West	82.6	39.7	48.1	71
9	Yorkshire and Hum.	109.0	47.9	43.9	60
10	North East	43.4	18.8	43.2	58
11	Wales	33.0	12.6	38.2	45
12	Northern Ireland	16.1	3.5	21.8	1
	UNITED KINGDOM	1,997.8	1,064.9	53.3	

Note: Only Non EU nationals who answered the question about year of arrival are included. This question was asked to foreign born people only. () Figures are in thousands.*

Source: MITI Project elaborations on LFS 2006.

Table 9 - Foreign born people who have been in the UK for at least 5 years (percentages); Selected nationalities

Region	Non EU	Australians	Bangladeshi	Chinese	Poles
North East	43.2	49.0	76.7	61.9	19.5
North West	48.3	51.4	85.0	40.6	15.9
Yorkshire&Hum.	43.9	80.2	67.1	39.7	3.5
East Midlands	51.9	65.4	50.0	13.6	6.1
West Midlands	54.0	39.4	97.8	55.8	4.2
Eastern	50.2	64.1	82.6	59.5	10.5
London	59.1	39.7	69.7	52.0	32.2
South East	50.8	56.7	75.4	51.6	15.9
South West	48.1	42.5	59.6	31.6	17.7
Wales	38.2	100.0	42.3	17.2	12.1
Scotland	49.2	64.7	64.9	68.3	5.8
Northern Ireland	21.8	40.1	76.8	63.1	0.0
UNITED KINGDOM	53.3	49.6	73.5	47.2	16.8

Note: Only Non EU nationals who answered the question about year of arrival are included. This question was asked to foreign born people only.

Source: MITI Project elaborations on LFS 2006.

Relationship between Nationality, Country of Birth and Ethnicity

Table 10a - 2006 – Population by Nationality and Country of Birth (thousands)

Country of Birth	Nationality				Total
	UK	Non UK	EU	Non EU	
UK	52,866.7	169.4	57.9	111.5	53,036.1
Outside UK	2,521.7	3,277.7	1,258.6	2,019.1	5,799.4
Total	55,388.3	3,447.1	1,316.5	2,130.6	58,835.4

Table 10b - 2006 – Population by Nationality and Country of Birth (% by Nationality)

Country of Birth	Nationality				Total
	UK	Non UK	EU	Non EU	
UK	95.4	4.9	4.4	5.2	90.1
Outside UK	4.6	95.1	95.6	94.8	9.9
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Table 10c - 2006 – Population by Nationality and Country of Birth (% by Country of Birth)

Country of Birth	Nationality				Total
	UK	Non UK	EU	Non EU	
UK	99.7	0.3	0.1	0.2	100.0
Outside UK	43.5	56.5	21.7	34.8	100.0
Australia	32.6	67.4	1.9	65.4	100.0
Bangladesh	64.6	35.4	0.4	35.0	100.0
China	17.1	82.9	3.1	79.7	100.0
Poland	9.9	90.1	90.0	0.1	100.0

Table 11a - 2006 – Population by Nationality and Ethnicity (% by Nationality)

Ethnicity	Nationality				Total
	UK	Non UK	EU	Non EU	
White British	89.6	7.6	13.0	4.4	84.8
Other White	2.9	42.7	73.6	24.2	5.2
Indian	1.6	8.0	0.7	12.5	2.0
Pakistani	1.3	3.2	0.6	4.7	1.4
Bangladeshi	0.5	1.7	0.0	2.6	0.5
Black Caribbean	1.0	2.1	0.4	3.2	1.1
Black African	0.7	9.0	1.9	13.2	1.2
Chinese	0.2	2.9	0.4	4.3	0.4
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Table 11b - 2006 – Population by Nationality and Ethnicity (% by Ethnicity)

Ethnicity	Nationality				Total
	UK	Non UK	EU	Non EU	
White British	99.5	0.5	0.3	0.2	100.0
Other White	51.6	48.4	31.3	17.1	100.0
Indian	76.3	23.7	0.8	23.0	100.0
Pakistani	86.8	13.2	1.0	12.3	100.0
Bangladeshi	81.6	18.4	0.2	18.2	100.0
Black Caribbean	88.2	11.8	0.7	11.0	100.0
Black African	56.3	43.7	3.4	40.3	100.0
Chinese	52.4	47.6	2.7	45.0	100.0
Total	94.1	5.9	2.2	3.7	100.0

Source: MITI project elaboration on LFS 2006

(2) Indicators of socio-economic conditions

Housing conditions (overcrowding)

These figures are based on ethnicity rather than nationality and are therefore not directly related to the position of migrants relative to non-migrants. The ethnic categories are very broad and each contains a large range of national and ethnic groups. The 'white' category for example includes disadvantaged groups such as Turks and Poles as well as white Europeans.

These figures relate only to England and Wales since there are separate censuses for Northern Ireland and Scotland.

Overcrowding is highest in London for all groups (reflecting the high cost of housing as well as areas of deprivation). Asians, Black and 'Chinese and other' groups are substantially more likely to be overcrowded than whites.

Health (Disability)

Regional variations are greater for non-EU nationals than for UK nationals. No clear regional pattern emerges, although the region with the most recent immigration, Northern Ireland, has the lowest level of disability.

In relation to our case study national groups, there are low rates of disability for Australians, Chinese, Poles; while the rate for Bangladeshi similar to UK. The low rate for Chinese may reflect taboos against revealing illness. Research by the authors on new Chinese migration to London revealed that discussing some kinds of illness, including cancer, is considered taboo (see Sales, R. *et. al.* forthcoming). The rate for most other non-white ethnic groups is close to that for white British.

Mixed marriages

The figures are by ethnic group rather than nationality and are not available broken down by region.

White British are the most homogamous, reflecting the larger numbers of available partners within this group. The Irish have very low homogamy; mixed groups have low homogamy due to low numbers of potential partners. There are high rates of homogamy for Indian, Pakistani, Bangladeshi reflecting strong norms concerning suitable marriage partners; for black Caribbean the proportion is relatively low

Gender differences are significant for Chinese with more females in mixed marriages and black Caribbean (more males). For other groups the rates are similar broken down by gender.

Housing

Table 12 - People living in overcrowded accommodations, percentages by ethnicity

	All people	White	Mixed	Asian	Black	Others
North East	6.9	6.5	13.7	25.0	17.1	24.2
North West	7.3	6.2	13.9	30.2	18.9	23.8
Yorkshire&Hum.	7.5	6.1	15.1	32.3	18.2	26.7
East Midlands	5.8	4.9	11.3	21.5	16.4	21.8
West Midlands	7.9	6.0	15.2	25.4	17.3	25.6
East	6.1	5.4	12.2	27.2	19.5	20.9
London	21.3	14.5	30.5	38.0	40.7	35.8
South East	6.7	5.9	12.8	26.8	23.9	21.3
South West	5.6	5.4	12.0	21.3	17.1	20.4
Wales	5.8	5.5	11.7	21.6	18.9	21.8
England & Wales	8.7	6.7	19.2	31.2	34.0	28.7

Source: Census 2001 (Commissioned Table - M1019)

Note: The occupancy rating provides a measure of under-occupancy and overcrowding.

For example a value of -1 implies that there is one room too few and that there is overcrowding in the household. This assumes that every household, including one person households, requires a minimum of two common rooms (excluding bathrooms).

Health

**Table 13a - (MITI 2.2a) Health – ‘Disability’ rates
Difference between nationals and non-EU (regional to regional comparison)**

Rank	Regions	% of nationals with disability	% of non-EU with disability	Difference UK - non EU*	MITI 2.2a
1	North East	32.0	12.4	19.6	100
2	Scotland	27.7	9.7	18.0	86
3	Northern Ireland	24.9	7.7	17.2	79
4	South West	25.0	8.4	16.6	73
5	North West	27.6	12.4	15.3	62
6	East Midlands	26.6	11.9	14.7	57
7	Eastern	23.2	9.0	14.3	52
8	South East	23.4	10.1	13.3	44
9	Yorkshire and Hum.	27.1	14.7	12.4	36
10	Wales	30.0	18.4	11.6	29
11	London	24.0	13.1	10.9	22
12	West Midlands	25.4	16.9	8.5	1
	UNITED KINGDOM	25.9	12.4	13.5	

**Table 13b - (MITI 2.2b) Health – ‘Disability’ rates
Difference between nationals and non-EU (national to regional comparison)**

Rank	Regions	% of nationals with disability *	% of non-EU with disability	Difference UK - non-EU*	MITI 2.2b
1	Northern Ireland	25.9	7.7	18.3	100
2	South West	25.9	8.4	17.6	93
3	Eastern	25.9	9.0	17.0	88
4	Scotland	25.9	9.7	16.2	81
5	South East	25.9	10.1	15.9	78
6	East Midlands	25.9	11.9	14.0	61
7	North West	25.9	12.4	13.6	57
8	North East	25.9	12.4	13.6	56
9	London	25.9	13.1	12.8	49
10	Yorkshire and Hum.	25.9	14.7	11.2	35
11	West Midlands	25.9	16.9	9.0	15
12	Wales	25.9	18.4	7.6	1
	UNITED KINGDOM	25.9	12.4	13.5	

*Note: The table shows self reported ‘disability’ of any kind: either DDA or work-limiting. (See next table)
(*) The figures for nationals refer to the UK average.*

Source: MITI Project elaborations on LFS 2006.

Table 14 - Case Studies - People with disability*, by type of disability and nationality (percentages)

	DDA disabled and work-limiting disabled	DDA disabled	Work-limiting disabled only	Not disabled	Total
UK	9.7	13.7	2.6	74.1	100.0
EU	5.4	10.8	1.7	82.2	100.0
Non EU	9.8	13.7	2.6	73.8	100.0
Australia	2.3	2.4	1.0	94.3	100.0
Bangladesh	10.6	9.5	4.4	75.4	100.0
China	1.1	0.4	0.9	97.6	100.0
Poland	2.0	3.2	0.8	94.0	100.0
Portugal	8.7	3.8	0.8	86.7	100.0
India	6.6	5.4	1.3	86.7	100.0
Nigeria	1.3	1.8	0.3	96.6	100.0
Somalia	9.7	9.0	2.4	78.9	100.0
Ireland	9.7	23.2	2.3	64.9	100.0

Note: DDA (Disability Discrimination Act) disabled includes those who have a long-term disability which substantially limits their day-to-day activities. Work-limiting disabled includes those who have a long-term disability which affects the kind or amount of work they might do.

Source: MITI Project elaborations on LFS 2006.

Mixed Marriages

Table 15 - People married with somebody of a different ethnic group (percentages), by gender

Ethnicity	Female		Male	
	homogamous	mixed	homogamous	mixed
British	97.2	2.8	96.6	3.4
Irish	36.9	63.1	38.7	61.3
Indian	91.3	8.7	91.6	8.4
Pakistani	93.1	6.9	91.7	8.3
Bangladeshi	94.6	5.4	94.6	5.4
Black Caribbean	74.6	25.4	67.5	32.5
Black African	82.1	17.9	76.3	23.7
Chinese	71.2	28.8	86.0	14.0

Source: Census 2001 (Commissioned Table C0056)

(3) Indicators of Labour Market Participation

Unemployment

Overall non-EU nationals have a higher rate of unemployment than UK nationals. Only in Northern Ireland and the South East is the non-EU unemployment rate lower than that for UK nationals. In the case of Northern Ireland, this probably reflects the recency of migration there and thus the ambiguous relationship of this indicator to unemployment. The unemployment rate for UK nationals is also one of the lowest for any region. In the case of the South East this may reflect the more buoyant labour market, with the third lowest unemployment rate for UK nationals.

In other regions, unemployment for non-EU nations is higher than for UK nationals but there are substantial regional differences in the gap between UK and non-EU with the highest in the North East and the West Midlands and the lowest in Wales .

In relation to our national case studies, there is a low rate for Australians, the rate for Poles is around the national average while it is high for Bangladeshi and Chinese. These differences reflect migratory histories as well as the status of these groups within the UK.

Activity rates

In general non-EU nationals have a higher activity rate than nationals. Only in four regions is this lower. The highest positive gap is in Northern Ireland, where migration is most recent. The variation in activity rates is higher for the non-EU population.

In relation to gender, both male and female migrants have higher activity rates than UK nationals. For UK nationals, activity rates for males is higher than females for all regions, although there is little regional variation. For non-EU nationals, the gap between males and females is considerably more variable and in the case of the South West the female activity rate is larger than the male. The highest gender gap for non-EU nationals is the Eastern region, where female activity rate is above the UK rate and the non-EU average.

Our national case studies revealed substantial differences in activity rates and in the relationship between male and female activity rates. For Australians the activity rate both males and females is high. For Bangladeshi it is low for both with a very small female activity rate. The Chinese rate is very low for men with more women than men in employment. For Poles there is a high activity rate for both but a substantial gender gap. These differences suggest the complexity of the reasons for economic activity.

Sectors of activity

Overall the sectoral distribution of UK and non-EU workers is not very different with exceptions in relation to Groups A-B and F. This reflects the broad categories included in each sector. Regional variations are greater for non EU nationals, reflecting patterns of migration in response to particular labour demand.

The case studies reveal substantial national differences, with Australians concentrated in banking and finance and the public sector; Bangladeshis in hotels and restaurants and a low proportion in the higher status occupations; the Chinese are concentrated in restaurants and banking and the public sector, reflecting the diversity of recent migration streams; Poles have a more even distribution across sectors again reflecting the growing diversity of migration.

Occupational status

The proportion of non-EU nationals in high status occupations is slightly higher than for UK nationals, but there are strong regional variations. The highest gap is in Scotland and the lowest (a negative figure) in London. London has the highest proportion of UK nationals in high status occupations and has attracted high numbers of migrants into unskilled work.

In relation to the case study groups, Australians are over-represented in high status occupations and under-represented in low-status occupations; Bangladeshi are the opposite with under-representation in high status and over-representation in lower status occupations. The pattern for Chinese is similar to UK nationalists while for Poles have the lowest occupational status of all groups, with a very low proportion in high status occupations and over half in low status occupations compared to a UK figure of only 18.4%.

Qualification

The proportion with high level qualifications (a degree or equivalent) is similar for UK and non-EU nationals overall, but there are large regional differences with the non-EU rate more than twice the UK rate in Northern Ireland and the non-EU rate only two third the UK rate in London, which has the highest UK rate.

In relation to national case studies, Australians and Chinese are more highly qualified than the UK average, while Bangladeshis and Poles are lower.

Deskilling

The comparison of occupational status with education gives an indicator of deskilling. Overall the figures show some deskilling for non EU nationals relative to UK nationals although the differences are not substantial when taken for the UK as a whole. While there is limited regional difference for UK nationals, there is a significant regional dispersion for non-EU nationals. Wales has the least deskilling according to this measure (the only region where there is less deskilling for non-EU nationals than for UK nationals) while Northern Ireland, Yorkshire and Humberside and the North East do significantly worse on both measures.

Breaking the figures down by nationality, however, shows a much more complex picture. The rate of deskilling for Australians is substantially lower than for UK nationals; it is relatively high for Bangladeshi and Chinese and very high for Poles. In the case of Poles this involves a fifth working in 'elementary occupations. The figures broken down by gender shown significant national differences, which are not apparent in the overall figures for the category non-EU. These are striking in relation to Bangladeshis where there is higher deskilling for men but just above the UK average for women. This suggests that those women who are able to acquire a degree are likely to be able to find appropriate work while men find this much harder. For Poles, the opposite is the case with women more likely to face deskilling. Given the small sample size it is difficult to draw any firm conclusions from the data

Unemployment

**Table 16a - (MITI 3.1a) Unemployment rates
Difference between nationals and non-EU (regional to regional comparison)**

Rank	Region	UK unemployment rate	Non EU unemployment rate	Difference UK – non EU.	MITI 3.1a
1	Northern Ireland	4.3	3.1	1.3	100
2	South East	4.5	4.0	0.5	95
3	Wales	5.3	6.4	-1.1	83
4	Yorkshire and Hum.	5.6	8.1	-2.4	73
5	Scotland	5.2	7.7	-2.4	73
6	East Midlands	5.2	7.8	-2.7	71
7	South West	3.7	7.2	-3.5	65
8	London	7.2	11.1	-3.9	62
9	Eastern	4.6	10.2	-5.6	49
10	North West	5.0	11.8	-6.8	41
11	West Midlands	5.5	15.3	-9.8	18
12	North East	6.2	18.4	-12.2	1
	UNITED KINGDOM	5.2	9.8	-4.6	

**Table 16b - (MITI 3.1b) Unemployment rates
Difference between nationals and non-EU (national to regional comparison)**

Rank	Region	UK unemployment rate	Non EU unemployment rate	Difference UK – non EU.	MITI 3.1b
1	Northern Ireland	5.2	3.1	2.1	100
2	South East	5.2	4.0	1.2	94
3	Wales	5.2	6.4	-1.2	79
4	South West	5.2	7.2	-2.0	73
5	Scotland	5.2	7.7	-2.5	70
6	East Midlands	5.2	7.8	-2.6	69
7	Yorkshire and Hum.	5.2	8.1	-2.9	68
8	Eastern	5.2	10.2	-5.0	54
9	London	5.2	11.1	-5.9	48
10	North West	5.2	11.8	-6.6	44
11	West Midlands	5.2	15.3	-10.1	21
12	North East	5.2	18.4	-13.2	1
	UNITED KINGDOM	5.2	9.8	-4.6	

Table 16c - Unemployment rates, selected nationalities

Nationality	Occupational Status		
	males	females	total
UK	5.6%	4.7%	5.2%
Non EU	9.2%	10.6%	9.8%
Australians	3.8%	2.5%	3.1%
Bangladeshi	11.4%	24.8%	14.5%
Chinese	10.8%	13.5%	12.4%
Polish	4.2%	7.6%	5.6%

Note: Unemployment rate = ILO-defined unemployed population divided by active population

Source: MITI Project elaborations on LFS 2006.

Sectors of activity

Table 17a - (MITI 3.2) Distribution by sectors of activity (UK and Non EU workers)

Distribution by sector of UK workers

Region	A-B	C-E	D	F	G-H	I	J-K	L-N	O-Q	X	Total
North East	0.7	1.4	13.6	8.7	18.8	6.9	11.7	31.7	6.4	0.0	100.0
North West	1.1	0.7	14.0	7.7	20.1	7.2	14.2	29.9	5.2	0.0	100.0
Yorkshire and Hum.	1.3	0.9	14.7	9.1	20.0	6.7	12.7	29.2	5.5	0.0	100.0
East Midlands	1.6	1.0	16.6	8.1	20.1	7.1	12.6	27.4	5.6	0.0	100.0
West Midlands	0.9	1.0	17.6	7.7	18.8	6.7	13.6	28.4	5.4	0.0	100.0
Eastern	1.6	0.9	12.7	9.1	19.3	7.5	17.2	25.7	5.9	0.0	100.0
London	0.3	0.3	7.3	5.7	15.3	7.2	25.3	29.5	9.2	0.0	100.0
South East	1.4	0.9	11.6	8.1	18.5	7.1	19.0	26.7	6.7	0.0	100.0
South West	2.0	1.1	12.3	9.1	20.6	5.4	14.3	28.9	6.2	0.1	100.0
Wales	2.3	1.0	14.3	9.1	19.1	5.7	11.0	31.9	5.7	0.0	100.0
Scotland	1.8	2.8	10.8	8.8	18.4	6.9	13.9	30.6	6.0	0.0	100.0
Northern Ireland	3.7	0.9	13.3	9.7	20.5	4.3	9.4	34.0	4.1	0.0	100.0
UNITED KINGDOM	1.4	1.0	12.9	8.2	19.0	6.8	15.6	28.9	6.2	0.0	100.0

Distribution by sector of Non-EU workers

Region	A-B	C-E	D	F	G-H	I	J-K	L-N	O-Q	X	Total
North East	0.0	0.0	12.7	3.0	40.7	2.7	7.7	31.8	1.4	0.0	100.0
North West	0.0	0.0	12.6	1.8	18.7	7.3	17.8	38.6	3.2	0.0	100.0
Yorkshire and Hum.	0.0	0.5	15.5	3.1	21.5	6.6	16.8	32.8	3.3	0.0	100.0
East Midlands	0.0	2.2	23.2	2.1	20.0	7.4	14.1	27.1	3.8	0.0	100.0
West Midlands	1.0	0.2	20.7	1.9	18.2	11.2	9.5	33.8	3.4	0.0	100.0
Eastern	0.2	0.4	10.7	3.0	19.4	4.6	18.5	31.9	11.0	0.3	100.0
London	0.2	0.6	4.7	6.6	24.0	6.0	25.1	24.5	8.3	0.0	100.0
South East	1.1	0.2	11.5	2.1	18.4	7.4	20.2	32.1	6.8	0.2	100.0
South West	0.4	0.0	7.2	4.5	20.7	4.7	20.9	34.6	7.0	0.0	100.0
Wales	0.0	0.0	8.8	2.6	16.6	3.7	12.1	49.6	6.6	0.0	100.0
Scotland	3.0	6.1	4.0	3.4	25.0	8.2	9.6	35.6	3.9	1.3	100.0
Northern Ireland	1.3	0.0	14.7	0.0	22.4	2.1	4.3	48.5	6.7	0.0	100.0
UNITED KINGDOM	0.5	0.7	9.3	4.3	21.8	6.5	20.1	29.8	6.9	0.1	100.0

Table 17b - Distribution by sector of workers of selected nationalities

Region	A-B	C-E	D	F	G-H	I	J-K	L-N	O-Q	X	Total
UK	1.4	1.0	12.9	8.2	19.0	6.8	15.6	28.9	6.2	0.0	100.0
Australians	1.9	0.6	8.4	4.4	11.2	4.2	33.9	25.0	10.4	0.0	100.0
Bangladeshi	0.0	0.0	10.6	0.0	50.9	10.9	5.4	17.4	4.8	0.0	100.0
Chinese	0.0	0.8	9.6	1.0	40.7	4.9	16.0	27.0	0.0	0.0	100.0
Polish	1.4	0.0	21.2	12.7	25.1	11.6	12.1	9.7	6.3	0.0	100.0

Source: MITI Project elaborations on LFS 2006.

Legend: A-B: Agriculture & fishing; C, E: Energy & water; D: Manufacturing; F: Construction
 G-H: Distribution, hotels & restaurants; I: Transport & communication
 J-K: Banking, finance & insurance etc; L-N: Public admin, educ & health
 O-Q: Other services; X: Workplace outside UK

Occupational Status

Table 18a - (MITI 3.3a) People in high occupational status difference between Non EU and UK (regional to regional comparison)

Rank	Region	% in high occupational status *		Difference Non EU - UK	MITI 3.3a
		UK workers	Non EU workers		
1	Scotland	39.0	62.1	23.2	100
2	Wales	35.9	59.0	23.1	100
3	Eastern	43.2	56.8	13.5	69
4	Northern Ireland	35.0	41.3	6.3	46
5	North West	39.8	45.1	5.3	43
6	South West	42.5	45.9	3.4	37
7	North East	36.6	37.9	1.3	30
8	Yorkshire and Hum.	38.0	38.6	0.7	29
9	South East	46.5	46.0	-0.5	25
10	East Midlands	40.0	38.9	-1.1	23
11	West Midlands	39.3	36.3	-3.0	17
12	London	54.7	46.7	-8.0	1
	UNITED KINGDOM	42.2	46.5	4.3	

Note: (*) People working as managers, senior officials, professionals, associate professional and technical, i.e. Standard Occupation Classification (SOC) either 1, 2 or 3 (see next table).

Source: MITI Project elaborations on LFS 2006.

Table 18b - (MITI 3.3b) People in high occupational status difference between Non EU and UK (regional to national comparison)

Rank	Region	% in high occupational status *		Difference Non EU - UK	MITI 3.3b
		UK workers	Non EU workers		
1	Scotland	42.2	62.1	19.9	100
2	Wales	42.2	59.0	16.8	88
3	Eastern	42.2	56.8	14.6	79
4	Northern Ireland	42.2	46.7	4.5	41
5	North West	42.2	46.0	3.9	38
6	South West	42.2	45.9	3.7	38
7	North East	42.2	45.1	2.9	35
8	Yorkshire and Hum.	42.2	41.3	-0.9	20
9	South East	42.2	38.9	-3.3	11
10	East Midlands	42.2	38.6	-3.5	10
11	West Midlands	42.2	37.9	-4.3	7
12	London	42.2	36.3	-5.9	1
	UNITED KINGDOM	42.2	46.5	4.3	

Note: (*) People working as managers, senior officials, professionals, associate professional and technical, i.e. Standard Occupation Classification (SOC) either 1, 2 or 3 (see next table).

Source: MITI Project elaborations on LFS 2006.

Table 19 - Distribution by occupational status, selected nationalities

Nationality	Occupational Status		
	1-3	4-7	8-9
UK	42.2	39.4	18.4
Non EU	46.5	32.9	20.6
Australians	69.7	25.0	5.4
Bangladeshi	22.2	44.7	33.1
Chinese	40.8	38.6	20.6
Polish	13.7	29.9	56.5

Source: LFS 2006

Legend

1:Managers and Senior Officials

2:Professional occupations

3:Associate Professional and Technical

4:Administrative and Secretarial

5:Skilled Trades Occupations

6:Personal Service Occupations

7:Sales and Customer Service Occupations

8:Process, Plant and Machine Operatives

9:Elementary Occupations

Qualification

Table 20a - (MITI 3.4a) People with high qualification difference between Non EU and UK (regional to regional comparison)

Rank	Region	% highly qualified		Difference Non EU - UK	MITI 3.4a
		UK workers	Non EU workers		
1	Northern Ireland	15.5	34.8	19.4	100
2	Scotland	17.9	24.9	6.9	60
3	Wales	15.4	21.8	6.5	58
4	North West	16.6	21.1	4.6	52
5	North East	13.9	18.4	4.5	52
6	Yorkshire and Hum.	15.1	18.4	3.3	48
7	Eastern	17.4	20.1	2.7	46
8	South West	18.7	20.6	1.9	43
9	East Midlands	16.2	16.7	0.5	39
10	West Midlands	15.8	14.5	-1.4	33
11	South East	21.2	19.1	-2.1	30
12	London	30.9	19.8	-11.1	1
	UNITED KINGDOM	18.8	19.6	0.8	

Source: MITI Project elaborations on LFS 2006.

Table 20b - (MITI 3.4b) People with high qualification difference between Non EU and UK (regional to national comparison)

Rank	Region	% highly qualified		Difference Non EU - UK	MITI 3.4b
		UK workers	Non EU workers		
1	Northern Ireland	18.8	34.8	16.1	100
2	Scotland	18.8	24.9	6.1	52
3	Wales	18.8	21.8	3.1	37
4	North West	18.8	21.1	2.4	33
5	South West	18.8	20.6	1.8	31
6	Eastern	18.8	20.1	1.4	29
7	London	18.8	19.8	1.1	27
8	South East	18.8	19.1	0.4	24
9	Yorkshire and Hum.	18.8	18.4	-0.3	20
10	North East	18.8	18.4	-0.4	20
11	East Midlands	18.8	16.7	-2.1	12
12	West Midlands	18.8	14.5	-4.3	1
	UNITED KINGDOM	18.8	19.6	0.8	

Source: MITI Project elaborations on LFS 2006.

Table 21 - Distribution by qualification of selected nationalities *

Nationality	Highest Qualification							Total
	1	2	3	4	5	6	n.a.	
UK	18.8	8.6	24.3	23.9	10.3	13.5	0.7	100.0
Non EU	19.6	5.8	9.8	6.4	40.8	16.7	0.9	100.0
Australians	32.1	5.0	12.7	6.4	39.8	4.0	0.0	100.0
Bangladeshi	12.0	2.3	1.5	8.9	25.1	46.9	3.2	100.0
Chinese	30.1	4.7	6.1	2.5	44.0	11.8	0.8	100.0
Polish	9.0	1.8	6.5	2.1	65.5	13.0	2.0	100.0

Note: * applies to people of working age

Source: MITI Project elaborations on LFS 2006.

Legend

1: Degree or equivalent

2: Higher education

3: GCE A Level or equiv

4: GCSE grades A-C or equiv

5: Other qualifications

6: No qualification

7: Don't know

Deskilling (Occupational status by qualification)

Table 22a (MITI 3.7a) - Workers with a degree working as managers or professionals (%) * difference between Non EU and UK (regional to regional comparison)

	UK	Non EU	Non EU - UK	MITI 3.7a
Wales	80.7	85.4	4.7	100
East Midlands	84.1	81.7	-2.4	72
Eastern	84.2	81.3	-2.9	71
North West	82.6	78.1	-4.5	64
London	85.0	79.6	-5.4	61
South East	84.7	76.6	-8.1	50
Scotland	83.4	72.2	-11.2	39
West Midlands	85.3	73.2	-12.1	35
South West	84.8	71.6	-13.1	31
North East	82.2	62.8	-19.4	7
Northern Ireland	79.4	59.7	-19.7	6
Yorkshire and Hum.	83.4	62.5	-20.9	1
UNITED KINGDOM	83.9	77.0	-6.9	

Table 22b (MITI 3.7b)- Workers with a degree working as managers or professionals (%) * difference between Non EU and UK (regional to national comparison)

	UK	Non EU	Non EU - UK	MITI 3.7b
Wales	83.9	85.4	1.5	100
East Midlands	83.9	81.7	-2.2	86
Eastern	83.9	81.3	-2.7	84
London	83.9	78.1	-4.3	78
North West	83.9	79.6	-5.8	72
South East	83.9	76.6	-7.4	66
West Midlands	83.9	72.2	-10.7	53
Scotland	83.9	73.2	-11.7	49
South West	83.9	71.6	-12.3	47
North East	83.9	62.8	-21.2	13
Yorkshire and Hum.	83.9	59.7	-21.5	11
Northern Ireland	83.9	62.5	-24.2	1
UNITED KINGDOM	83.9	77.0	-6.9	

Note: (*) Occupational status = 1, 2 or 3

Source: MITI Project elaborations on LFS 2006.

Table 23 - Workers with a degree working by occupational status (all classes %), by nationality

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Total
UK	21.8	40.9	21.3	7.1	1.9	2.5	2.4	0.7	1.4	100.0
Non EU	18.6	40.5	17.9	7.2	1.5	5.6	4.1	1.2	3.4	100.0
Australia	27.2	57.9	9.9	2.2	0.0	1.7	0.5	0.0	0.7	100.0
Bangladesh	0.0	65.0	4.4	3.5	0.0	5.1	0.0	22.1	0.0	100.0
China	13.3	30.6	17.9	11.8	0.0	3.5	15.2	0.0	7.7	100.0
Poland	6.1	21.4	7.9	14.2	5.6	10.9	3.8	9.8	20.3	100.0

Legend:

1:Managers and Senior Officials ; 2:Professional occupations ; 3:Associate Professional and Technical
 4:Administrative and Secretarial ; 5:Skilled Trades Occupations ; 6:Personal Service Occupations ; 7:Sales and
 Customer Service Occupations; 8:Process, Plant and Machine Operatives ; 9:Elementary Occupations

Figure 5 – Workers with a degree by occupational status (aggregated classes)

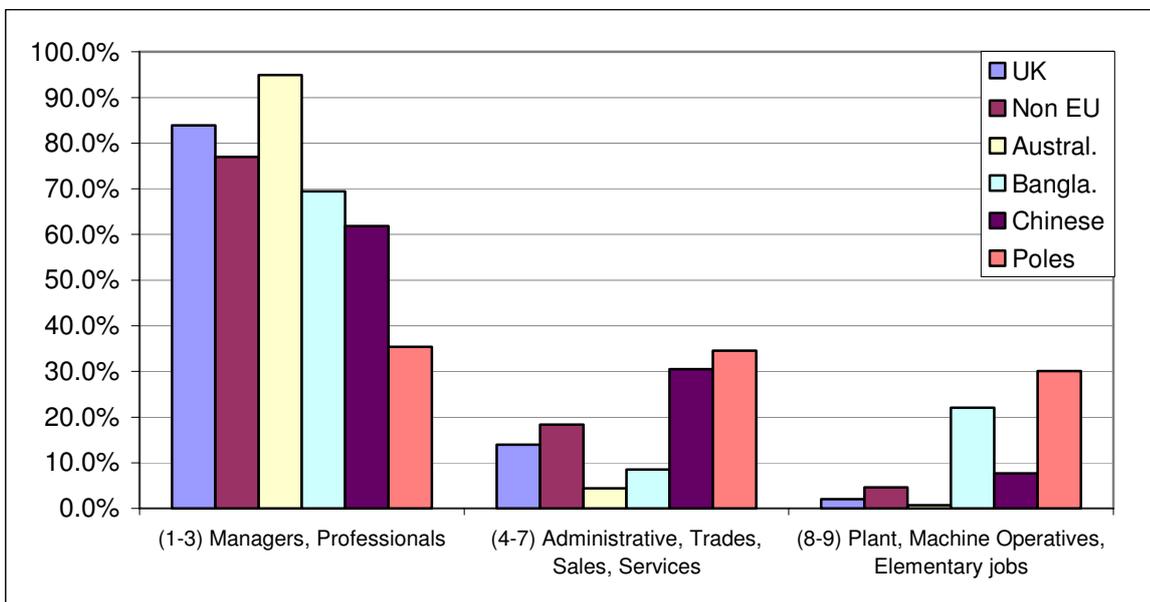


Table 24 - Workers with a degree working as managers or professionals*, by nationality and gender

	Males	Females	All
UK	86.7%	80.7%	83.9
Non EU	78.7%	74.8%	77.0
Australia	96.6%	93.2%	95.0
Bangladesh	59.8%	81.1%	69.4
China	62.1%	61.7%	61.8
Poland	40.0%	28.6%	35.4

Note: (*) Occupational status = 1, 2 or 3

Source: MITI Project elaborations on LFS 2006.

Activity Rates

Table 25a - (MITI 3.5a) Activity Rates – difference between Non EU and UK (regional to regional comparison)

Range	Regions	UK population activity rate	Non - EU population activity rate	Difference UK – Non-EU	MITI 3.5a
1	Northern Ireland	59.4	74.4	15.0	100
2	Eastern	64.3	73.9	9.6	73
3	South West	62.8	71.7	8.9	69
4	South East	66.0	74.0	8.0	65
5	Wales	59.2	66.2	7.0	60
6	Scotland	63.0	67.8	4.8	49
7	London	64.2	66.5	2.3	36
8	North West	61.7	62.1	0.4	26
9	Yorkshire and Hum.	62.3	61.7	-0.6	21
10	North East	59.8	57.5	-2.3	13
11	West Midlands	62.7	59.5	-3.2	8
12	East Midlands	64.7	60.1	-4.7	1
	Total	63.1	66.8	3.7	

Note: Activity rate = (Employed + ILO Unemployed) / Total Working Age Population

Source: MITI Project elaborations on LFS 2006.

Table 25b - (MITI 3.5b) Activity Rates – difference between Non EU and UK (regional to national comparison)

Range	Regions	UK population activity rate	Non - EU population activity rate	Difference UK – Non-EU	MITI 3.5b
1	Northern Ireland	63.1	74.4	11.3	100
2	South East	63.1	74.0	10.9	98
3	Eastern	63.1	73.9	10.8	97
4	South West	63.1	71.7	8.6	84
5	Scotland	63.1	67.8	4.7	62
6	London	63.1	66.5	3.4	54
7	Wales	63.1	66.2	3.1	52
8	North West	63.1	62.1	-1.0	28
9	Yorkshire and Hum.	63.1	61.7	-1.4	25
10	East Midlands	63.1	60.1	-3.0	16
11	West Midlands	63.1	59.5	-3.6	13
12	North East	63.1	57.5	-5.6	1
	Total	63.1	66.8	3.7	

Note: Activity rate = (Employed + ILO Unemployed) / Total Working Age Population

Source: MITI Project elaborations on LFS 2006.

Table 26 - Activity rates by Region and Gender

	UK			Non EU		
	Male	Fem.	M - F	Male	Fem.	M - F
North East	53.1	44.3	8.8	51.2	38.2	13.0
North West	53.7	45.6	8.1	64.1	41.2	22.8
Yorkshire and Hum.	55.5	45.1	10.4	60.4	41.0	19.5
East Midlands	56.9	47.7	9.2	64.8	40.7	24.1
West Midlands	55.4	44.9	10.5	60.3	36.7	23.6
Eastern	56.9	46.5	10.4	75.8	49.3	26.6
London	56.0	44.3	11.8	67.1	49.0	18.1
South East	58.0	48.4	9.6	67.1	53.1	14.0
South West	56.0	46.6	9.4	61.3	62.7	-1.4
Wales	52.0	43.7	8.3	62.6	46.2	16.4
Scotland	56.2	47.1	9.1	59.5	54.6	4.9
Northern Ireland	51.8	40.9	10.9	69.5	47.5	22.0
Total UK	55.6	45.9	9.7	65.6	47.9	17.7

Source: LFS 2006 (annual average of four quarters) – all people population 16+

Table 27a - Economic activity by Selected Nationalities and Gender (thousands)

	Male			Female			All		
	Empl.	unempl.	inactive	empl.	unempl.	inactive	empl.	unempl.	inactive
UK	14,189.1	841.8	6,404.0	12,413.5	613.1	10,008.0	26,602.5	1,454.9	16,412.0
Australia	34.4	1.4	3.3	33.4	0.8	7.4	67.9	2.2	10.8
Bangladesh	19.9	2.6	9.6	5.2	1.7	26.6	25.1	4.3	36.3
China	12.7	1.5	14.3	17.0	2.7	17.1	29.7	4.2	31.4
Poland	104.7	4.6	9.9	67.7	5.6	22.4	172.4	10.2	32.4
Total	15,204.0	930.2	6,722.7	13,228.1	692.7	10,660.8	28,432.0	1,622.9	17,383.5

Source: LFS 2006 (annual average of four quarters) – all people population 16+

Table 27b - Economic activity by Selected Nationalities and Gender (%)

	Male			Female			All		
	empl.	unempl.	inactive	empl.	unempl.	inactive	empl.	unempl.	inactive
UK	66.2	3.9	29.9	53.9	2.7	43.4	59.8	3.3	36.9
Australia	88.0	3.5	8.5	80.2	2.0	17.8	84.0	2.7	13.3
Bangladesh	62.0	8.0	30.0	15.4	5.1	79.5	38.2	6.5	55.3
China	44.7	5.4	49.9	46.2	7.2	46.6	45.5	6.4	48.1
Poland	87.8	3.8	8.3	70.7	5.9	23.4	80.2	4.7	15.1
Total	66.5	4.1	29.4	53.8	2.8	43.4	59.9	3.4	36.6

Source: MITI Project elaborations on LFS 2006 – all people 16+

General Comments on the data

The data suggests that differences between national groups are more significant than those between EU and non-EU nationals as a whole. Most of the indicators discussed above cannot be linked to integration, or to social status, in any straightforward way. They suggest, however, very different migratory experiences for different groups. On the one indicator we were able to use which we suggest has a clear and unambiguous relation to integration, deskilling Poles, who are EU citizens do worse than the average for non-EU nationals, while Australians, who are non-EU nationals, do better than the UK population.

These data in themselves tell us little about migratory strategies and the possibilities for future integration. Both Australians (and others from the 'Old Commonwealth) and Poles for example use temporary migration as part of longer term strategies based on returning to their country of origin. The former, however, generally take up professional work within Britain, expanding both professional and personal experience (Conradson and Latham, 2005) the latter often take up low status work since the wage differential permits them to earn enough to secure a better life style in Poland (Morokvasic, 2004). These strategies may, of course, change as the data on longer term residence suggest.

In the case of our other two groups, the Bangladeshis and the Chinese, the problem of defining 'immigrant' in terms of nationality are more acute. Both have large settled communities in Britain with high levels of citizenship acquisition. Thus many immigrants from these areas are excluded from the figures based on nationals. The data suggest, however, that Bangladeshis have relatively poor labour market status, particularly in relation to deskilling, while the experience of Chinese is more mixed.

The regional differences are difficult to interpret especially since most of the indicators are ambiguous and it is not possible to break the figures down by individual national group. Only in relation to Northern Ireland and London are distinct patterns discernible. The results for Northern Ireland tend to be on the extreme end for most indicators, reflecting its recent history of migration. The data on population suggests the continuing dominance of London in relation to both new migration and settlement but the more mixed picture in relation to the labour market and social conditions suggest the diversity of migrant experience in the capital.

Summary Table (MITI standardised indicators in the UK regions)

Table 28a - Indicators of migrant population

	1.1	1.2	1.3	1.4
North East	4	8	94	58
North West	14	10	80	71
Yorkshire and Hum.	12	12	90	60
East Midlands	9	10	98	81
West Midlands	18	20	69	87
Eastern	17	18	87	76
London	100	100	59	100
South East	29	21	84	78
South West	9	7	87	71
Wales	3	4	100	45
Scotland	7	5	84	74
Northern Ireland	1	1	1	1

MITI 1.1 - Non EU population: regional proportion of the national total
 MITI 1.2 - Non EU population: proportion in each region
 MITI 1.3 - Non UK population change - 1996-2006
 MITI 1.4 - Non EU people who have been in the UK for at least 5 years

Table 28b - Indicators of socio-economic conditions (Disability)

	2.2a	2.2b
North East	100	56
North West	62	57
Yorkshire and Hum.	36	35
East Midlands	57	61
West Midlands	1	15
Eastern	52	88
London	22	49
South East	44	78
South West	73	93
Wales	29	1
Scotland	86	81
Northern Ireland	79	100

MITI 2.2a - Health (Disability rates)
 difference between UK and Non EU (regional to regional comparison)

MITI 2.2b - Health (Disability rates)
 difference between UK and Non EU (national to regional comparison)

Table 28c - Indicators of labour market

	regional to regional comparison					regional to UK national comparis.				
	3.1a	3.3a	3.4a	3.5a	3.7a	3.1b	3.3b	3.4b	3.5b	3.7b
North East	1	30	52	13	7	1	35	20	1	13
North West	41	43	52	26	64	44	38	33	28	72
Yorkshire and Hum.	73	29	48	21	1	68	20	20	25	11
East Midlands	71	23	39	1	72	69	10	12	16	86
West Midlands	18	17	33	8	35	21	7	1	13	53
Eastern	49	69	46	73	71	54	79	29	97	84
London	62	1	1	36	61	48	1	27	54	78
South East	95	25	30	65	50	94	11	24	98	66
South West	65	37	43	69	31	73	38	31	84	47
Wales	83	100	58	60	100	79	88	37	52	100
Scotland	73	100	60	49	39	70	100	52	62	49
Northern Ireland	100	46	100	100	6	100	41	100	100	1

MITI 3.1 - Unemployment rates - difference between UK and Non EU

MITI 3.3 - People in high occupational status - difference between Non EU and UK

MITI 3.4 - People with high qualification - difference between Non EU and UK

MITI 3.5 - Activity Rates - difference between Non EU and UK

MITI 3.7 - Workers with a degree working as managers or professionals - difference between Non EU and UK

Conclusion and Recommendations

Conclusions

The identification of indicators of integration and the search for relevant national data has produced a complex and original data set which provides some valuable information about the characteristics of migrant populations including their regional dispersal. It has also suggested gaps in data sources. It was not possible to collect data on all the indicators identified in the project while in some cases we relied on data on ethnicity rather than nationality. Many of these indicators were, in any case, ambiguous with for example what may be seen as positive results in relation to the labour market (e.g. low unemployment) being strongly related to recent migration as in the case of Northern Ireland. For reasons of both data availability and doubts about the reliability of available indicators therefore it was not possible to construct an index, even a partial one relating to socio economic conditions as proposed in the original MITI project.

Our data show significant differences in the characteristics of the migrant population across regions, with more regional variation identified for migrants than non migrants on most indicators. No clear regional pattern emerges in the sense that regions score similarly across different indicators (see table 28). The exceptions to this conclusion are the specific cases of London and Northern Ireland. The former has the longest standing, largest and most diverse migrant population, and thus also the largest minority ethnic population. It continues to be the major destination for new migrants, although different national groups have very different spatial patterns as for example the Polish example shows. London's diversity is also illustrated by the data on social and labour market conditions. Northern Ireland, on the other hand, is a region of new migration and thus the results here tend to be concentrated at the other end of our percentage scale. In general, however, the regional dimension based on EU categories does not seem to be highly significant in relation to the data we have collected. We acknowledge the importance of the local dimension to integration, but this does not appear to be the appropriate geographical level.

The data also raised questions about the usefulness of the categories EU and non-EU nationals in relation to integration. There is significantly more difference within these broad categories than between the two groups as a whole, as demonstrated by our national case studies. In particular, the Polish national group, although now EU citizens, do significantly worse on many indicators than non-EU nationals as a whole. This suggests that these categories are not appropriate in relation to overall measurements of integration, or to policy measures aimed at integration.

Much of the data confirms what we would have expected both in relation to the regional dimension and in relation to the individual national groups which we examined. Some particularly striking results, which could benefit from further study, included:

- **Deskilling.** the indicator of deskilling which we constructed using occupational status and qualification which we suggest is a useful indicator of integration. It demonstrated a huge variety of national experience although the Labour Force Survey sample was not large enough to produce meaningful results at regional level. The data suggests high levels of deskilling for some groups (particularly Poles) and indicates that specific targeted policy measures might be necessary to overcome this.
- **Disability.** The available data based on different definitions of disability showed interesting differences in the way in which different national groups defined themselves in relation to health and illness. Differences in frequency of disability as a whole may reflect different migratory histories (particularly life course). The differences in the proportions identifying themselves as having a long term disability, compared with the more narrow definition of 'work limiting' disability, suggest that other factors are relevant, including different attitudes to and beliefs about health.

The process of attempting to define integration, to identify indicators and collect data reinforced our concerns about the measurement of integration and the need be absolutely clear about the limitations of the

data and what it can be taken to mean. The indicators we identified reflected only a partial aspect of what is a highly complex, and personal, process. Even these indicators which we were able to identify as potentially measurable often had a complex and ambiguous relation to integration. They cannot themselves be taken as measuring integration, although they may provide useful information on aspects of it. Furthermore, the relationship between the scores of these indicators on our scales and specific policy measures is unclear. High 'scores' in a region do not imply that they are the result of positive policies, or that those with the highest scores therefore represent 'best practice'. Much more would need to be done to explore this relation before any such policy conclusions could be drawn.

Recommendations

In view of the above conclusions, we recommend the following measures to policy makers and those responsible for official data sources at an EU and national level:

Data availability

- Improvements in data availability to facilitate a better national understanding of aspects of the profile of migrant groups and to promote international comparability. In particular relevant data on socio economic conditions could be made available by national group, for example through a question on this in the Census. In addition, statistics on health (e.g. infant mortality) and education (e.g. participation in post-compulsory education) broken down by nationality would provide useful insights.
- Discussion should take place at European level, as well as in individual states, about the relevant category in relation to integration (e.g. ethnicity or nationality). Data collection by ethnicity, which is being discussed in some European states. would provide valuable information about the process of integration and inequality.

Public understanding of statistics

Policy makers, researchers and the media need to:

- Develop a better understanding of the uses and limitations of statistics, acknowledging the partial nature of many statistical measures and 'indices' of social processes, and the limitations of using these statistics in policy making.
- Promote better public understanding of the uses and limitations of statistics through taking a more critical stance towards published statistics.

The nature of integration

- It is important to acknowledge the intangible aspects of integration in evaluating progress towards integration. This suggests the importance of involving migrants in discussions about the definition and measurement of integration as well as in policy making.
- European projects on integration should include mixed method approaches which can explore these intangible elements of integration as well as the variety of migratory experience

The categories 'EU' and 'non-EU' citizen in relation to integration

- The EU and other policy making bodies should acknowledge the limitations of these categories in relation to research, statistics and policy development in relation to integration.

The local dimension

- The EU-designated regions have limited relevance in relation to policy making in some states. Research and policy therefore needs to focus on more relevant geographical levels, including the city and local authorities.

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Appendix A

The original MITI methodology

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Integration: a working definition

Integration has become central to European Union and national policies on managed migration. However, to those attempting to study this concept, integration is a complex issue and even its definition poses difficulties. Although most people have a general understanding of the term, its actual definition is anything but unambiguous, because it refers to a complex and multidimensional phenomenon, which affects several different areas of the migrants' life.

Moreover, the debate on integration, in particular in relation to its meaning and measurement, is influenced by the diversity of political ideas on this subject. Generally speaking, whilst at European Union level there has been an attitude of openness, particularly towards labour migration and especially since the Tampere summit in 1999, individual states appear to be still bound to policies of prudence and closure. This political and institutional context assumes greater importance since a key element in the development of programmes to promote integration is the attempt to identify reliable parameters to measure this phenomenon, in order to test the effectiveness of current policies and adjust future policies.

This issue has become even more complex since the assimilationist approach which characterised most European countries in relation to the post-war mass migration was superseded in the 1970s. It became clear then that integration is not so much about cultural homogeneity, as about maintaining the cultural identity of immigrants. Through keeping links with their countries of origin, migrants tend to recreate and nourish their culture within the 'host' society. This change from a stubborn insistence on a mono-cultural society to that of multiculturalism has revolutionised the policies and the very idea of integration, raising issues which cannot be addressed in simplistic or univocal ways. Far from being mechanically assimilated within a society or a 'national' culture (each national culture is already made up of several social and cultural groups), migrants maintain an identity which is structurally and inevitably 'other'. This makes it necessary to promote new forms of dialogue, exchange and interaction between the different cultural actors within society, so that, with time, the various European societies can reshape their structures and institutions in order to become truly intercultural.

This debate has become even more intense after the terrorist attacks of September 11th against the Twin Towers in New York, but also because of the central role now played by issues such as citizenship and notions of shared values. The issue of defining the conditions under which migrants can become part of the host countries has revived the debate on integration in relation to the prerequisites to the granting of citizenship and the system of duties and rights on which it is based. In order to acquire citizenship, in fact, applicants are now required to subscribe a set of values which, whilst on one hand are the foundation of all democratic states, on the other reflect national peculiarities arising from its specific national history.

The problematic and conflictual nature of this debate shows that we are still from developing a unanimous, or at least widely shared, definition of integration. A first step in this direction took place in June 2003, with the European Commission's *Communication on Immigration, Integration and Employment* (COM 2003/336). A response to the 1999 European Council in Tampere, this document also took into account the 2000 'Lisbon Agenda' agreed at the summit of European leaders in the Portuguese capital. European countries set out the aim, for the next ten years, of expanding economic growth and employment in order to make the EU *"the most dynamic and competitive knowledge based economy in the world, capable of sustainable economic growth with more and better jobs and greater social cohesion"*. Thus, at the beginning of the Third Millennium, the EU document engaged with the issues of the full and equal inclusion of migrants in the European labour market and, highlighting its strong link to social inclusion, encouraged the revision of integration policies both at EU and national level and the provision of some indicators on which it could be promoted.

The document defines integration as a *"a two-way process based on mutual rights and corresponding obligations of legally resident third country nationals and the host society which provides for full participation of the immigrant. This implies on the one hand that it is the responsibility of the host society to ensure that the formal rights of immigrants are in place in such a way that the individual has the possibility of participating in economic, social, cultural and civil life and on the other, that immigrants respect the fundamental norms and values of the host society and participate actively in the integration process, without having to relinquish their own identity"*. The communication was followed shortly by a report for the European Commission *'Benchmarking of Immigrant Integration'* by researchers at ERCOMER in the Netherlands (Entzinger and Biezeveld, 2003). This study aimed to explore the concept of integration and to assess how some aspects could be measured *"in a way that enables comparison between Member States, groups of immigrants, and also over time"*. The report distinguished between two major elements of integration: a *structural dimension*, involving participation in the major institutions of a society, such as the labour market, education and health care system; and *cultural dimension* or 'acculturation' which it described as the changes in immigrants' cultural orientation and identification. For the purpose of benchmarking the report identified four 'domains' of integration: socio-economic; cultural; legal and political; and the attitudes of the recipient society. Possible indicators were suggested for each domain, although in a very general and cautious way, recognising that many indicators may lead to ambiguous interpretation.

To make just one significant example, housing concentration may reflect ghettoisation but may also suggest that there is a sufficiently large community which may provide support to its members. This also reflects differences between the agendas of assimilation and multiculturalism.

In 2004 a formal, shared definition of integration became the basis of a common EU strategy, when the member states adopted a set of *Common Basic Principles* (CBP) in relation to migrants' integration at the Council of Europe on 19 November. These principles stated that: integration is a dynamic, two way process of mutual accommodation by all immigrants and residents of Member States; integration implies respect for the basic values of the European Union; employment is a key part of the integration process and is central to the participation of immigrants, to the contribution immigrants make to the host society, and to making such contribution visible. Integration was also seen as related to: basic knowledge of the host society's language, history and institutions; efforts in education for immigrants and particularly their descendants; frequent interaction between immigrants and Member State citizens; participation of immigrants in the democratic process.

Within this framework, states were seen as playing a role in providing: access for immigrants to institutions as well as to public and private goods on a basis equal to national citizens and in a non-discriminatory way; safeguarding practices of diverse cultures and religions (unless they conflict with other EU laws); mainstreaming integration policies at all relevant levels of government and public services. These principles were seen, for all member states, as on the one hand a major policy driver for the implementation of the Lisbon Agenda, and on the other hand as the basis on which to explore how EU, national, regional and local authorities could interact in the development and implementation of integration policies. Governments were expected to develop clear goals, indicators and evaluation mechanisms to adjust policy and evaluate progress towards them.

In this spirit, and in the light of the above mentioned definitions developed at European level, the MITI project developed a working definition of integration, to be used as a basis to identify and analyse indicators: *Integration is the condition (and process) of feeling a full and active member of the society in which one lives, having the means and opportunities to participate, as far as one chooses, in the wider social and cultural context.* To facilitate this process it is necessary to provide conditions such as: *rights* - both formal access to social, civil and political rights, and substantive access to rights (e.g. non-discrimination, freedom from harassment); the *ability to act independently* - based on the knowledge of language/structures of society (e.g. how to access services); the *material resources* to participate in all aspects of life within the community (e.g. adequate housing, employment appropriate to skills/qualifications, access to education and health); extensive *local networks* (social/emotional and instrumental); a *sense of belonging and trust* (with the ability to choose to maintain, adapt and reject aspects of cultural traditions from country of origin/host country, and with the presence of national/ethnic groups 'taken for granted' and visible within the mainstream).

Areas of analysis and the local dimension

Measuring migrants' integration, in particular for third country nationals, within different European countries is an ambitious and problematic task. It means dealing with a social and political notion which encompasses different themes and can have different meanings and different connotations in relation to different countries. It is therefore necessary to acknowledge all the dimensions of this phenomenon (at the same time a condition and a process) which is by definition 'human', and thus 'qualitative'. Its measurement, if we exclude qualitative research based on sample surveys, is possible only through attempting to interpret the statistical dimension through the use of data which has a significant relation to this phenomenon and can therefore be used as *indicators* of integration.

It is on this basis that the transnational MITI project identified three main areas of analysis within which to measure the *potential* for integration of migrants in each partner country, both at national and regional level. Moreover, each national partner focused on one major metropolitan area: the Province and Metropolitan District of Rome, (Provincia e Comune di Roma) in Italy, the metropolitan area of Barcelona in Spain, the metropolitan area of Lisbon in Portugal, the Paris region (Ile de France) in France and the London area (Greater London) in the United Kingdom.

The possibility of translating these three thematic areas into indices was explored by each partner and some partners developed the following three: 1) *Index of absorptive capacity*, measuring the capacity of a local area to attract and keep a sizable foreign population; 2) *Index of social stability*, measuring the level of social inclusion and adaptation in each local area; 3) *Index of Labour Market*, measuring the level and type of inclusion of migrants in the local labour market. For each index, a number of statistical indicators were identified, based on their validity, reliability, completeness (availability at all local levels) and comparability.

Definition of 'immigrant' and comparative analysis

From the early stages of the project, there were two important methodological choices in relation to the identification and construction of indicators. The first concerns the population under investigation: the aim was to define precisely the term 'immigrant' (an ambiguous term whose meaning varies significantly across countries) and to identify, within this group, the sub-group more relevant to our project. There are many 'technical' definitions of 'immigrant' and at least three emerged from within the research group: a definition based on foreign nationality (particularly relevant for countries with a relatively recent migration history); a definition based on country of birth (which does not necessarily correspond to citizenship); a definition based on ethnicity (used in the British context in particular). Moreover, national statistical sources use one of several of these approaches to construct their data, making international comparison even more difficult.

The research team decided to adopt the criterion of foreign citizenship and, since the European programme INTI focuses on “*Preparatory Actions for the Integration of Third-Country Nationals*”, it was decided to take into account non-EU citizens only. Only when the available data does not allow to disaggregate this specific section of the population, was the general ‘foreign’ population used.

The second specific choice of the MITI project concerned the *comparative* methods used to construct the indicators. Whilst in the Italian experience of the *CNEL Reports* - which was the starting point of this project - indicators had always been statistical data disaggregated for each local area and related *exclusively* to the immigrant population based there, the transnational research team, in the laborious task of adapting the Italian methodology to the other partner countries involved, agreed to adopt a different approach. In order to place in context the level of socioeconomic integration of third-country nationals in each region, it was decided to *compare* the situation of third country nationals with that of nationals for each indicator, in order to understand the gaps between the two groups in each area.

In this way each indicator, and the ranking of its values, was constructed not just from data on the immigrant population but on the basis of the gap between this data (restricted to citizens of third countries) and that referring to the national population (or as an alternative, to total population, including nationals and foreigners). This was done in the two main possible ways: the *relative* one (the gap between non-EU immigrants and nationals – or the total population – in the same region) and the *absolute* one (the gap between non EU immigrants within each region and the average national level for nationals or the total population).

The first, comparing the local situation of non EU foreigners to that of the nationals in the same region, shows that sometimes, given the same local conditions, the former may manage better than the latter – in the areas covered by the indicators – even in regions of the country which are in overall terms more disadvantaged than others. In this comparative way the ranking of regions is sometimes very different from that when the data is based solely on immigrants themselves, demonstrating the actual capacity for integration of foreigners even in more difficult local conditions. The second approach, which compares the local situation of non-EU immigrants with the national average, is more influenced by the structural differences at local level and thus produces different values for each region. On the one hand, this comparative method works together in a fruitful way with the original one, because it helps us to understand, for each significant element of integration represented in the chosen indicators, how far the situation of the non-EU population differs, in positive or negative terms, from the ‘structural’ situation of the national (or total) population. On the other hand, though, this criterion presents some limitations, both conceptual and methodological.

From the conceptual point of view, underlying this method is the assumption (more or less implicit) that for non-EU immigrants the minimum basis for integration, in each element measured by the indicators, should be the average condition of the national population. Now, it is clear that this assumption is problematic since in areas with serious structural problems, where large sections of the local population experience socioeconomic disadvantage (shortage of basic services, lower quality of life, inadequate or inaccessible housing, lack of work, insufficient support structures, etc.) it is very difficult to argue that the average standard of living there could represent the basis (even the minimum) on which one could describe immigrants as integrated.

Paradoxically, in these cases it would be necessary to ask whether nationals themselves are ‘integrated’, i.e. whether the local conditions are able to guarantee living standards sufficient for the local population to be considered ‘integrated’. This is linked to the complex issue of defining what we really mean by ‘integration’ and under what conditions any person, immigrant or local, can be considered ‘integrated’ in his/her own local area. On the other hand, even when we take the average national standard of living of the local population as denominator, this does not necessarily correspond to a point of reference which is either credible or desirable in terms of integration (a basis for migrants’ integration), since it is the average of very different local situations within the country.

Although it took into account all these difficulties, strictly linked to the problematic concept of integration, the transnational team of the MITI project decided to use this comparative method in the construction of the indicators. Taking in consideration what was explained above, this choice was based on three elements: the basis of comparison here used (i.e. average conditions of nationals, either at local or national level) is a *conventional* point of reference; we cannot attribute any absolute value to the results but, as has already suggested, an *indicative* one; to correctly interpret such results, they need to be read together with the basic regional data used to construct the indicators.

These considerations impact on the possibility of comparing indicators between countries. Indeed, since the average national level of the local population differs between states, we lack a common base of comparison across the different countries, a single term of reference which could render the data of the various partner countries comparable. Thus one can only compare the results in *relative* terms, limiting the possibility of making transnational comparisons of the regional differences.

The grid of indicators

As already observed, the development of the grid of indicators was particularly time-consuming because it was not possible to obtain from official data sources (national and international) all the data which was originally chosen as the best representation of the selected indicators. This problem arose from either from the inadequacy of the necessary statistics (the data were not disaggregated by region or were not available for all the countries involved in the research) or because the required data was totally unavailable. For this reason, it became inevitable that the research team had to review the initial grid, to modify and adapt it in according to the data which was available disaggregated by region, as necessary for this project. It was thus decided, depending on individual cases, either to substitute the data for some indicators with others relating to the same subject which could (though more indirectly) provide relevant information for that indicator; or, within the same index, to substitute some indicators for those related to other topics which were relevant to that index; or to remove altogether certain indicators due to a lack of relevant data on that issue.

The efforts of the team to make up for these structural weaknesses as far as possible were extremely fruitful. The search for the necessary data and the checking of its availability brought to light a range of local, national and international sources. In many cases, statistics were obtained which were not published within the public domain, but required tenacity and patience and specific requests to the institutions holding the data. In some cases, it was necessary to pay for data. The research team thus worked with a rich and original range of data; this in itself represents a valuable outcome of this work.

The following final grid of indicators was developed from the results of this research:

1. Index of absorptive capacity

- 1.1. Indicator of the size of the foreign population (foreign residents in a region as % of the national total).
- 1.2. Indicator of the foreign proportion of the population (foreign residents as % of total population of the region).
- 1.3. Indicator of the increase in the foreign population (% change in the foreign population in a region over a 10-year period).
- 1.4. Indicator of long-term residence (% of foreign population resident in the country for at least 5 years or, for those countries where this data is not available, for at least 10 years).

2. Index of social stability

- 2.1. Indicator of poor housing (% of the foreign population living in overcrowded housing): a) gap between the regional figure for non-EU nationals and the average for nationals; b) gap between the regional figure for non-EU nationals and regional figure for nationals.
- 2.2. Health indicator (% of total population suffering from some form of disability): a) gap between the regional figure for non-EU nationals and the average for nationals; b) gap between the regional figure for non-EU nationals and regional figure for nationals.
- 2.3. Indicator of mixed marriage: a) gap between the regional marriage rate for immigrants (number of marriages per year in each region, in which at least one partner is a non-EU national per 10,000 residents) and the national marriage rate of nationals (number of marriages per year in the country, in which at least one partner is a national per 10,000 residents); b) % of mixed marriages (partners of different nationalities) per year as a proportion of total marriages, for each region.

3. Labour Market Index

- 3.1. Indicator of Unemployment (unemployment rate: the unemployed as a % of the labour force): a) gap between the regional figure for non-EU nationals and the average for nationals; b) gap between the regional figure for non-EU nationals and regional figure for nationals.
- 3.2. Indicator of sectoral distribution of activity (% of non-nationals and nationals in each sector, for each region).
- 3.3. Indicator of occupational status of the immigrant labour force (the proportion of workers in the highest three occupational groups, based on the *International Standard Classification of Occupations-ISCO* of the *International Labour Organization-ILO*): a) gap between the regional figure for non-EU nationals and the average for nationals; b) gap between the regional figure for non-EU nationals and regional figure for nationals.
- 3.4. Educational level of the foreign labour force (% of people with a university degree in the labour force): a) gap between the regional figure for non-EU nationals and the average for nationals; b) gap between the regional figure for non-EU nationals and regional figure for nationals.
- 3.5. Indicator of immigrant activity rate (% of the labour force in the 15-74 aged population): a) gap between the regional figure for non-EU nationals and the average for nationals; b) gap between the regional figure for non-EU nationals and regional figure for nationals.
- 3.6. Income level of immigrants (annual gross per capita income in Euros for each region): a) gap between the regional figure for non-EU nationals and the average for nationals; b) gap between the regional figure for non-EU nationals and regional figure for nationals.

At this stage we must bear in mind at least two issues concerning this grid. *Firstly*, in relation to indicator 3.3 (occupational status) for countries where the statistics were available, data on occupational status was cross-tabulated with that on educational level (university degree). In these cases, the indicator was based on: a) gap between the % of non-nationals with a university degree in a high status occupation – first three ISCO categories – in each region compared with the national % for nationals; b) gap between the rates for non-nationals and nationals in each region. *Secondly*, for those countries for which it was possible, the data for 3.5 (immigrant activity rate) were enriched by disaggregating them by gender, while for 3.6 (immigrant income) they were disaggregated by sector of activity, occupational status and educational level.

It is also important to bear in mind that, in order not to lose the fresh insights from other relevant data which could not, however, be included in the common grid (because it was incomplete, its relation to integration was more ambiguous or its availability was more limited for the majority of national partners), it was agreed to consider that statistical data which was available. This was used purely for descriptive purposes but it increased the value of the investigation of this multidimensional phenomenon on which this project focused. These could be defined as 'contextual indicators' and related to following areas: citizenship acquisition; family reunion; crime and discrimination; trade union membership; accidents at work; school enrolment.

It should be stressed that the research group agreed to leave a certain (limited) margin of flexibility to partners in using the data most relevant to their own national situation in relation to the common grid of indicators. This concerned mainly the second and third indices (those acknowledged to be more directly related to integration) and it was agreed taking into account the significant differences in reliability and availability of the data for each indicator in different countries.

In some few cases, then, partners were allowed to include one of the contextual indicators in the national grid if the data was sufficiently complete and significant for their own country. This choice was made taking in consideration that if, on the one hand, it was acknowledged that this reduced the transnational comparability of the results (comparability which was already limited, as observed in the Introduction, by the structural differences between countries in the available datasets), on the other hand this choice allowed each partner to carry out his national research as adequately as possible on the basis of the more available and significant statistics within his own national situation. Anyway, each partner will highlight in his national Report the differences between his own national grid and the common one described here, explaining the reasons of the different choices when there will be the case.

The scales of the indicators and case studies of particular national groups

For each indicator of the main grid, a ranking was drawn up comparing regions of each country on the basis of their relative values (numerical or percentage) starting from the maximum value at the top to the minimum at the bottom. The values were standardised using a method which is known in the academic literature as conversion to 'percentage score': this consists in organising the regional data for each indicator into a same predetermined scale (scoring from 1 to 100), according to the procedure illustrated below. In this way it is possible to bring different kind of data, related to different phenomena (as those of the different indicators), into a common scale.

In order to facilitate the interpretation of the scale, each was subdivided into 5 levels of intensity on the basis of point scores: 1 to 20, minimum; 21 to 40, low; 41 to 60, average; 61 to 80, high; 81 to 100, maximum⁹.

It is important to make some observations on the organisation of the indicators into a ranking list. Firstly, as can be observed, some of the indicators used are 'negative' in that they have an inverse relation to integration (thus the lower the value, the greater the potential for integration). In these cases, therefore, the corresponding regional ranking was constructed in the opposite way: the top region was the one with the highest *negative* gap between immigrants and nationals and the bottom that with the lowest *negative* gap; thus, in the standardisation of the values, the first would have the highest score (100) and the second the lowest (1). This was the case in relation both to some indicators included in the system, like housing conditions (rate of overcrowding), health (rate of disability) and unemployment, and for contextual indicators like crime or discrimination and accidents at work. Secondly, it must be pointed that for indicator 3.2 (distribution by sector of activity), although part of the system of principal indicators, it is not possible to develop a regional ranking nor therefore to standardise the values. This indicator was not therefore useable in the construction of the index and it was used as a descriptive tool which provided relevant informations.

Finally it should be pointed out that, as a result of discussions within the research team, it was agreed to include in the national reports a case study of certain of the most important national groups of non-nationals resident in each partner country. The main aim was to enrich the project's results by investigating the specific forms of integration experienced by these groups. The following national groups were included: for Italy, Chinese, Moroccans, Polish and Rumanians; for France, Chinese, Moroccan, Portuguese and Turks; for Portugal, Brazilians, Cape Verdeans, Chinese, British, and Ukrainians; for the United Kingdom, Australians, Bengali, Chinese and Polish; for Spain, Peruvians, Chinese, Columbians, Ecuadorians, Moroccans and Rumanians.

Transformation into standardised values: a joint method

As already stated, the method used to standardise the values of the indicators is known in the literature as conversion to 'percentage score'. This consists of converting the data for each indicator into the same score scale, from a minimum of 1 to a maximum of 100, distributing scores for intermediate absolute values in proportion to the distance of these absolute values in the ranking; and, above all, independently of the fact that the original ranking may consist of all positive, or all negative values or a mixture of the two.

This standardisation method facilitates a transnational comparison. Indeed, the standardised values that we obtain in this way have no measurement unit and no magnitude and, in general, this make possible the comparisons among countries even when the type of data used for the same indicators, or the range of the original data, are different among countries. The method also facilitates the possibility to construct composite indicators, since in this way standardisation always produces positive values.

This method modifies only partially the one originally proposed by the project leader IDOS, which is also valid from a scientific point of view and has been used regularly in the annual CNEL reports on *Indices of Integration of Immigrants in Italy*. The difference lies in the fact that the scale of standardised values in the CNEL reports awards, in the ranking, a score of zero to data which have either a negative or zero value.

⁹ In this way, giving each level a different colour (from the darkest for the maximum level to the lightest for the minimum, with intermediate shades for the other levels and reserving the darkest for the top of the scale), it was possible to map the regional differences for each country in order to have a graphical representation of the regional distribution of the phenomena represented by the indicators. Nevertheless, for reasons connected to the timetable of the project and the difficulty of obtaining blank regional maps in electronic form, on which the data could be inserted for each partner country, it was not possible to implement this graphical representation in all cases.

This procedure is based on the assumption that, for the different type of data used (which refers exclusively to the immigrant population, in accordance with an *absolute* criterion, and not to the difference from the national population, according to the *comparative* criterion of the M.I.T.I. project), zero or negative values do not satisfy the type of information which the indicator is intended to measure. In other words, they do not reflect the phenomenon of which the indicator is a proxy, since they represent the absence of the phenomenon itself (zero) or its opposite (negative value): in both cases the phenomenon of which data was assumed to be the indicator has no *positive* 'consistency' and thus is translated into a score of *zero*.

In the M.I.T.I. project, however, since the indicators were constructed on the basis of a different criterion (the *comparative* one, that considers gaps between immigrants and nationals), the possibility of gathering negative values was *structurally* connected and does not mean that the phenomenon has no positive 'consistency'. Thus it was important, both for comparability and to allow the construction of composite indicators, to develop a method which could still be used where the values were, partly or wholly, negative¹⁰.

It was this property of the conversion to 'percentage score' which was the basis for the decision to retain it as the final reference point in the standardisation of the indicators, even when it was agreed to include a second method. This was based on comparing the gaps between the regional data for immigrants and that for nationals – for the latter considering, as described above, both the average national level (a) and the regional data (b) – with the *mean square deviation*. But it is important to point out that this conversion of data to standardised gaps, although confirmed in academic literature and technically practicable, does not resolve the problem of homogenizing the indicators for the construction of an index (composite indicator) and also for the possibility to compare them in an adequate way. Indeed the standardised values that we obtain, since they are *gaps*, can still be (for the same indicators) either positive or negative. And this would complicate both the comparability of the indicators and the possibility to construct indices, for which purpose it is desirable to have only positive values.

For these reasons, after weighing up the characteristics and advantages of the two methods of standardisation, it was finally agreed to apply the conversion to 'percentage score' method (with the advantages explained above) to the standardised gaps. Thus a joint procedure was developed and used in which the standardisation of the absolute gaps, using the formula which places them in relation to the mean square deviation¹¹, became the basis for their transformation into a 'percentage score' scale, on which we can base both the comparison of indicators and the construction of indices (composite indicators). The standardisation procedure thus consists of two phases: the first places the original absolute gaps, on which we construct the rankings for each indicator, in relation to the mean square deviation¹², transforming these into standardised gaps (*score 1*); the second applies the following formula¹³ to the standardised gaps in order to transform them into percentage scores (*score 2*).

$$x_i = \frac{X_i - \min\{X\}}{\max\{X\} - \min\{X\}}(L - l) + l$$

¹⁰ It is interesting to note that the extremes l and L of the standardised scale (in this case $l=1$ and $L=100$) can be fixed conventionally in the way which is most useful for the research: both positive (the standardised values are always positive, whatever the sign of the original data), which is the case here; but, needing, also both negative (the standardised values are always negative); or the lowest value (l) negative and the highest (L) positive (the standardised values are both positive and negative).

¹¹ $a = (\text{regional data for immigrants} - \text{national average for nationals}) / \text{mean square deviation}$; $b = (\text{regional data for immigrants} - \text{regional data for nationals}) / \text{mean square deviation}$.

¹² As known, the *mean square deviation* is obtained by calculating the arithmetic mean of all the individual values of the the considered variable (here: the regional values in the ranking list of each indicator); thus, for each individual value, the deviation from this mean; then squaring all the deviations, calculating the arithmetic mean of the squares of the deviations (this quadratic mean of the deviations constitutes, as known, the *variance*) and finally calculating the square root of this quadratic mean.

¹³ In this formula: $l=1$, $L=100$, X_i is the individual value of the variable X for region i (here: a regional standardised gap of a certain indicator) and x_i is the corresponding transformed value (percentage score) of the standardised gap.

Appendix B

Overall conclusions: recommendations and good practice

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The MITI project was distinct in analysing integration at regional level and in its method of constructing indicators based on the comparison between non-EU foreign population and nationals. Each partner collected the most recent statistics available relevant to integration and organised them in a coherent framework based on a common method of analysis. This has allowed the mapping of the strengths and weaknesses of each region in relation to the wider context in which it is based (the local situation compared to the national; the national context compared to that of the other EU countries involved). These regions in some cases correspond to local administrative areas. Each national report from the project is therefore a useful analytical tool which can be used by the general public as well as by academics, stakeholders and policymakers.

As far as the general public is concerned (and in particular students, the voluntary sector and all those working on immigration and social issues), the wide range of data and information provided about migrants' integration can certainly enhance awareness of the structural issues of their local area. Such awareness is the indispensable precondition for the exercise of active and responsible citizenship and for taking part in and keeping a watchful eye on the management of the delicate process of the integration of immigrants within the local socio-economic context. This objective is even more important for those working in the field of migration since as 'experts' in this area, they will be able to develop their commitment and activities on the basis of wider understanding. This understanding, could, however, become part of more general discussion and debate creating a stronger synergy between the various actors in order to coordinate their activities and initiatives at local level.

Finally, we hope that this resource will be particularly useful to those who, at different levels (welfare policy makers, local authorities and local organisations), have to make decisions and implement policies concerning the integration of immigrants. This tool will help policy makers to assess the efficacy of policies (planned or implemented) based on the actual dimensions of local needs, allowing them to adjust their choices in the light of this knowledge without ideological preconceptions or demagogic interpretations of a phenomenon which is often misrepresented by the media.

On the basis of its joint work, the research team has developed a series of suggestions and recommendations as a result of the difficulties which emerged in the collection of data to construct the indicators and on the basis of discussions about how the results can best be used by researchers, policy makers and the voluntary sector. These difficulties required, as discussed above, several revisions and adjustments of the common framework. Each partner has also developed their own recommendations which are geared to their own national audience.

Strongly connected to these issues and, more generally, to the specific nature of this research project, a definition of good practice was developed. Good practice was identified – on the basis of the transnational research experience of the MITI project – as those elements which are transferable and sustainable and can thus be used in relation to migrants' integration in a range of different contexts.

Recommendations

The general recommendations of the MITI project can be summarised as follows:

- *The need for better availability, completeness and traceability of statistics to enable more detailed knowledge at local level.* As has been observed, the main difficulty encountered by the transnational research team, after having drawn up the list of indicators of integration which it planned to use, was the need to change and adapt it several times, replacing some indicators with others or discarding them completely, because it was not possible to get the relevant data from the statistical sources identified, either at national or European level. In some cases this was because the required data was not collected and in others it was not made available from the data source (or only on payment). In other cases data were not available disaggregated by region and in others the dataset was not complete, with data available at national level and for some regions only. In some cases the data was deemed unreliable, for example when it was the result of a sample survey and so for the smallest regions the figures were too small to be reliable). Such limitations forced us to fall back on a list of indicators which was less complete and thus less able to fully comprehend the phenomenon at local level. This weakened the results of the project and, therefore the development of a policy instrument.
- *The need for a method to collect and process data which is homogeneous between different local and administrative levels (national, regional, metropolitan) and between different sources, according to criteria which meet the needs of researchers and policy makers.* Strongly linked to the problems mentioned above is the issue of the comparability of the available data at the different regional levels or for different phenomena. This means for example that within the same country the national data is sometimes not consistent with the same data at regional or metropolitan level, because the former may be based on the legally resident immigrant population and the latter on the local registers of

residents population; or the data for a particular aspect may be related to a different population from that used in another, for example one may be collected on the basis of nationality and the other on country of birth or ethnicity. In each case the root of the problem is the diversity in the data collection and analysis used by different national and local sources. Moreover, the method of collecting and organising data used by the data source sometimes does not correspond to the needs of researchers and policy makers for detailed and precise information about the current situation, both to strengthen their analysis and to inform their strategies.

Good practice

In relation to these practical recommendations which emerged from the actual difficulties the research team had to deal with, it was possible to identify some examples of good practice which could be transferred to other situations. These can be summarised as follows:

- *The development (or enhancement) of local observatories on migrants' integration, which can monitor this phenomenon through a common system of indicators (both quantitative and qualitative) which has been discussed and tested beforehand.* In this way the main aim of the MITI project could be incorporated at the institutional level. This would allow the academic and methodological experience gained in this one-off research project to be integrated into the normal activities of the relevant local bodies in each country appropriately coordinated through a common national system.
- *Active involvement of immigrants in the definition, adjustment and validation of the indicators of integration used, in particular to identify hidden problems or unexpressed needs and to assess the relative importance of each indicator selected, in order to tailor the measurements to the particular local features of the immigrant population.* The statistical tools used to measure migrants' integration are limited both in that integration cannot be understood only at a quantitative level and in the different relative weights to be given to the various aspects of integration which these indicators measure. Their weight also varies in different regions and in relation to the characteristics of the migrant population (length of residence, sex, age, socio-economic condition, etc.). In order to create a reliable measurement at local level, it is necessary to weight the indicators appropriately within the standardised scoring system. This procedure was not included in the MITI project, rather it was assumed that each indicator had the same weight in relation to integration and therefore all the figures could be transformed into a scale 1 to 100. It would, however, represent an interesting development of the methodology and a way in which integrate the purely quantitative statistical indicators with a qualitative dimension involving immigrants themselves in the judgement of these indicators. Such an integrated method would allow us to adjust the list of indicators based on what the migrants themselves see as priorities and to add to the overall measurement of integration a series of issues and unexpressed needs which are not represented at the purely statistical level.
- *The establishment by local authorities of advisory committees, including immigrants, community workers, researchers, community organisations and representatives of public bodies and organisations, in order to develop more effective policies for integration and for the evaluation of these policies in relation to identified needs.* The major objective of national research activities such as those of the MITI project is to involve stakeholders and experts as much as possible in order that, on the basis of shared and reliable information, they can develop proposals which will assist in the better management of integration, an issue which is fundamental to the cohesion of society as a whole.

It is evident that the recommendations for good practice are merely very practical and specific applications of the issues arising from the research carried out by the network, both in relation to its own working methods and as an objective which should be enhanced and extended in future work. The network is in fact one of the best ways to manage the complexity of the society we live in. In the social context, and in particular in relation to issues related to immigration, it is important that this is reflected above all in our ways of thinking, seeing ourselves in relation to others and to the wider world, so that one can really reap the expected results both at the level of research and practice.